

Leafy Legacies: The Ecofactual Value of Surface Vegetation and a Critique of its Documentation

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Leafy Legacies: The Ecofactual Value of Surface Vegetation and a Critique of its Documentation

This landscape archaeology-oriented presentation concerns on-going thesis research that seeks to change the way archaeologists perform site surveys, as the prevailing method of recording site surface vegetation is of little research value. This presentation seeks to draw attention to the under-appreciated value of surface vegetation at sites as ecofacts, offering a critique of how it is presently documented on site forms, and suggesting some procedural solutions to increase their usefulness to the researcher.

In my on-going thesis work on identifying, recording, and interpreting anthropogenic surface vegetation at archaeological sites, I've noticed few have written about the presence of conspicuous shifts in vegetation over sites and precious little is available for detailing methods of its documentation or interpretive frameworks. Some archaeologists have viewed surface vegetation as little more than mere nuisance during field surveys. Others have eyed it with the raptor-like gaze of a prospector, seeing it as no more than a "X" which marks the spot of where the *real* treasure lays. It is my view that such scrub, its qualitative changes, and spatial context at a site offer their own rewards, if only we could learn how to read our leafy legacies that hide in plain sight.

Since surface vegetation is largely overlooked it has prompted me to address: 1.) Examples of how surface vegetation at archaeological sites can provide useful ecofactual information, including social and behavioral archaeological value. 2.) Make archaeologists aware of diverse subjectivities and assumptions that guide ineffective field methods of documenting site vegetation; thus affecting a cyclical problem for furthering this research. 3.) Propose some methodological adjustments on how to better record site vegetation.

The vast majority of previous archaeological research dealing with the human-plant entanglement has been approached through two methodologically polar extremes, from the microscopic scale of buried plant remains in palaeoethnobotany, to the telescopic scale of that of the bird's eye view from aircraft and satellite imagery in remote surveying. In palaeoethnobotany, research questions have largely orbited around: tracing and explaining the origins of agriculture in a given society (with an emphasis upon domesticates); ascertaining a society's subsistence lifestyle and diet; and reconstructing past environmental changes. Aerial

reconnaissance, as far as vegetation is concerned, has cared about it in more broad strokes, such as how crop marks and plant communities' growth patterns over the landscape can be used to locate undiscovered sites. Caught between these two extremes is the seldom-considered surface vegetation. In the last 100 years, 15 methodologically detailed English publications have focused on site surface vegetation.¹ These, as well as others imparting general observations, address: using vegetal patterns to disclose the presence of undiscovered archaeological sites and features; link the presence of a specific species to direct human introduction (whether intentional or unintentional) at sites; and attribute past human activities (or disturbances) to soil modifications, which in turn attract certain vegetal communities. Though, more research has been concerned with: culturally modified trees; whole forests dependent upon prehistoric anthropogenic fire disturbance; and tracing how the environment has broadly changed as seen through historic land-use records.²

In a way, sites tend to be viewed like ice bergs, with the archaeological record being underground, excepting its protruding ruins and artifacts above ground- so much so that when the definition of an ecofact is given, it describes these organic unmodified materials as “remains”, seemingly ruling out ecofactual usefulness of surface vegetation. Scrutinizing the value of surface vegetation like the way artifacts are treated can be problematic, since it is often assumed that its value lies only in the antiquity of its provenance. It should be pointed out that the *provenance* of site vegetation is not the sole decider of its value to the archaeologist. Such a view may cause the field tech to “unsee” the value in: garden escapees; long-lived relict species left in place since last occupation; descendants of historically introduced species at the site; later than period-specific forest succession; or (native or non-native) modern “weedy” arrivals. Neither should just the “utilitarian” species be a determinant of what vegetation merits ink spilt over it in documentation. Surface vegetation can assist the archaeologist in a number of ways, such as: delineating past physical and perceived boundaries (e.g. marking off public vs. private domain; safety vs. danger; sacred vs. profane; a place appropriate for a certain activity, labor, class, gender)³; plants can *remember* where structures once stood through leaving ghost-like outlines in vegetal community or qualitative changes, relating what the past use a building served, or clarify the layout and orientation of a site (such as where pathways, specific structures, features, or where specific activities were conducted)⁴; vegetation is sometimes used as indicators of later historic or modern disturbances of the site⁵; plants, just as much as structures

or landforms, can be essential in the making of “place” or an overlooked component of integrity what makes a site- a site, such as traditional cultural places and landscapes; relict vegetation at sites that carried symbolic significance to its previous occupants, can be indicative of the expression of beliefs, prestige, or markers of their group membership⁶; vegetation can preserve artifactual context from taphonomic processes, thus tipping off the archaeologist to the increased likelihood of in situ artifacts; while other kinds of vegetation can affect site formation processes (e.g. floralturbation) and assists in explaining the formation of matrix incongruities⁷; some surface vegetation could harbor genetic information about human-plant migration patterns; plants and fungi can be used forensically where insects begin to taper off in usefulness for dating time since death, or reveal the presence of a burial⁸; lichens, when studied locally, can be used to date the antiquity of in situ stone features.⁹

Despite all these useful applications of surface vegetation, it is seldom documented adequately for perpetuity on site forms and other records, all too often these sites are lost to increasing property development. With this threat of loss of information, site forms are often the only records left of sites. Much of site forms concentrate their attentions on the details of architecture and artifacts witnessed or collected, or historical references to the place. With this emphasis on features and artifacts, there is a paucity of references to ecofacts. Vegetation on these forms often have sections for a habitat/ecotone, and on and off-site vegetation description. However, the vegetation sections are often populated with the same information, such as using an all-encapsulating vague “conifer forest” or a combination of it a couple of other immediately recognizable species. About a quarter of all these descriptions are ambiguous descriptors like “berry bushes” or “various grasses”. Such inconsistent descriptions are of little value to a researcher, just imagine how helpful it would be to researchers if we described architectural features as “things with four walls” and did not even photograph them prior to governmental “reclamation” or development was done. So I asked myself, why do archaeologists create such lopsided descriptions of site vegetation? To better understand the reason for the current state of vegetal documentation, prior to offering solutions, I invited Montana archaeologists to participate in a survey to ascertain their perceptions of site vegetation and their methods of documenting it. Taking the responses of 28 Montana archaeologists, I compared it with vegetal descriptors employed on 40 different historical Western Montana archaeological site forms.

The forms survey found that while over half of the descriptors were species specific, a staggering percent of these species were trees, followed by smaller plant types (shrubs, herbs, grasses), though no fungi, lichens, fern allies, or mosses. In my analysis, our schema values monumentality, as a key factor in why one species was documented over another. The bigger a life form seems, the more likely we are to take notice of it, the more likely we are to learn how to identify it. Survey participants did not only rate larger life forms as easier than smaller ones, participants could more readily identify a list of species (by plant-type) if these species belonged to larger plant types than smaller plant types. Additionally, participants acknowledged two key methods to determine the vegetation to be recorded, “only what I can immediately recognize and identify” and “whatever seems most impressionable”. Therefore, ease of plant recognition, guided by plant size, plays an important role in whether a species is documented is further supported by participants reporting the two largest hindrances to effective vegetal documentation was a lack of botanical knowledge and training on which anthropogenic plants to look for at sites.

So while such resources geared towards archaeologists are lacking, this constitutes only two-thirds of the problem, the other one-third of the problem is how one-third of the participants share some dubious reservations against any perceived archaeological value of surface vegetation. A few of which insisted that no matter what, archaeology is not about surface vegetation, but most objectors did so only because of their realization that it is a problem bigger than themselves or due to it being beyond their research design and scope of work determined for them. Herein is what I meant at the beginning, there is a cyclical problem that has been preventing us from going forward. To break through it, we need to acknowledge how our subjectivities shape records in such a way that it discourages others to its use, due to their perceived lack of helpfulness. The second component needed to break out of this loop is the creation of user-friendly materials for training on not just what to look for with anthropogenic vegetation, but how to best record it and interpret it, which are the contributions my on-going thesis work hopes to make to archaeology.

But for starters, let's discuss some examples of alternatives to how we record vegetation, from the perspectives of the one who documents it and the researcher who utilizes the site form. Survey participants remarked site forms sometimes had a template of possible descriptions to choose for describing on- vs. off-site vegetation in terms of broad habitat categories. Others

criticized that these categories were either too confining or too vague to be of any use. Then there is the need to disclose (in the references portion of a site form) what were used in identifying habitat type and species, even if that means recording that the surveyor drew upon their own botanical knowledge. There also needs to be some form of continuity to what determines our language to describe site vegetation, so as to make search criteria easier on the researcher's end. But broad vegetation settings are not enough; one needs to be flexible with vegetation descriptions too. Do not just include the forest or grassland type or habitat type, but add in more specific species and more than what you can immediately identify, pay special attention to the immediate vicinity around each of the different features at sites. While it is not practical to flip through plant guides in field, assign mystery species with numbered signs and photograph them, include pictures of key characterizing features based on its plant type.

Even the creation of "laundry lists" of species, by identifying just the mere presence (or absence), is not enough; as it demonstrated by crop marks from aerial surveying. By only listing the presence of a plant, one excises it from its context, which is key to extrapolating information about ecofacts. It is important to remark about qualitative patterns, such how they are spatially distributed, how their distribution is in relation to features and artifacts, whether these species exhibit signs of plant stress, a marked absence of a species abounding in the area, lushness, or denseness. One habit many share is deliberately not recording non-natives at prehistoric sites, or native plants at historic sites; however, it is better to be more inclusive due to the aforementioned reasons. During background research on your site, keep in mind more than just utilitarian aspects of vegetation, and their differing distributions among features (e.g. vegetation in relation to a former fenced garden, corrals, vicinity between a residence and a privy, fences, gates, doorways, and view shed) when consulting oral, ethnographic, and a host of other written and photographic sources.

It is important to be open to the possibilities about what we can learn from surface vegetation and its qualitative and spatial patterns of distribution, as vegetation in the West was not just good to eat but good to think, and the landscape of the West was not just intentionally colonized in terms of artifacts and ideas, but also ecologically. It is my hope that with greater awareness of this subject will assist us in the first steps towards realizing the intertwined cultural and environmental site formation processes conveyed through surface vegetation, as others have done similarly in social zooarchaeology, social palaeoethnobotany, and behavioral archaeology.

Endnotes

¹ (Zeiner 1946; Bank 1953; Yarnell 1965; Clark 1968; McCartney 1976; Minnis and Plog 1976; McCartney 1978; Pearson 1988; Forbes 1993; Forbes 1994; Forbes 1996; Huisinga 2001; Larrue et al. 2010; Tømmervik et al. 2010; Warren 2016)

² (Vale 2002; Minnis 2004; Ostlund et al. 2009; Turner et al. 2009; Shelly 2012; Nicolai 2013; Sullivan and Forste 2014; Bobbitt 2015)

³ (Stewart 1977; Russell 1997; Savinelli 1997; Schultes, Richard R.; Hofmann, Albert; Ratsch 1998; Francis, Mark; Hester 1999; Mitchell 2002a; Anderson, E. N.; Pearsall, D.; Hunn, E.; Turner 2011; Graham 2011; Augé 2013; Turner 2014)

⁴ (Clark 1957; McCartney 1976; Stewart 1977; Loendorf 1978; McCartney 1978; Beckes et al. 1982; Holzner, W.; Werger, M; Ikusima 1983; Blasing 1986; Brooks and Johannes 1990; Castri et al. 1990; Forbes 1993; Forbes 1994; Forbes 1996; Russell 1997; Egan and Howell 2001; Johnson, Elizabeth A.; Klemens 2005; Šilc 2010; Tømmervik et al. 2010; Pearson and Pearson 2016)

⁵ (McCartney 1976; McCartney 1978; Forbes 1993; Forbes 1994; Schiffer 1995; Forbes 1996; Tømmervik et al. 2010)

⁶ (Tuan 1974; Florin 1977; Leone 1984; Rival 2001; Jones, Owain; Cloke 2002; Mitchell 2002b; Schultz 2002; Augé 2013:222-227, 280-290, 363-388; Tuan 2013; Nancy J Turner 2014)

⁷ (Schiffer 1995)

⁸ (Lane et al. 1990; Tibbett and Carter 2003; Armstrong 2004; Hawksworth and Wiltshire 2011; Osborn et al. 2015)

⁹ (McCartney 1978; Armstrong 2004; Benedict 2009; Osborn et al. 2015)

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