



ORIGINAL REPORT

Stage 1 and 2 Archaeological Assessment

Mills Lands, Project Menzie 2
Part Lot 17, Concession 10
Geographic Township of Ramsay,
Formerly Town of Almonte
now Town of Mississippi Mills,
Lanark County, Ontario

Prepared For

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1.0 Executive Summary

Matrix Heritage, on behalf of Menzie Project 2 Inc. (c/o Regional Group), undertook a Stage 1 archaeological assessment of the study area located on the eastern half of Lot 17, Concession 10 in the Geographic Township of Ramsay, formerly the Town of Almonte now the Town of Mississippi Mills, Lanark County, Ontario (Map 1). The objectives of the investigation were to assess the archaeological potential of the study area in support of a subdivision development application under the Planning Act as required by the Municipality of Mississippi Mills. A proposed plan of subdivision map of the study area provided by the client was used to delineate the development area (Map 2). The assessment is in accordance with the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism's (MCM) *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (2011).

The Stage 1 archaeological assessment included a review of the updated MCM's archaeological site databases, a review of relevant environmental, historical literature, and primary historical research including: historical maps, land registry, and census records.

This Stage 1 assessment determined that the subject property has pre-contact Indigenous archaeological potential due to the wetland to the north of the study area and historical Euro-Canadian archaeological potential due to the early patent date of the lot, and the previously identified historical Euro-Canadian archaeological sites within one kilometre.

Based on the results of this investigation it is recommended:

1. A Stage 2 archaeological assessment be conducted by a licensed consultant archaeologist.
2. As the study area cannot be ploughed, as per Section 2.1.2, Standard 1, assessment shall be completed using the test pit survey method at 5 m intervals in the areas as shown in blue in Map 3 (MCM 2011)
3. The Stage 2 archaeological assessment follow the requirements set out in the 2011 Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists (MCM 2011).

2.0 Table of Contents

1.0	Executive Summary	i
2.0	Table of Contents.....	ii
3.0	Project Personnel.....	iii
4.0	Project Context	4
4.1	Development Context	4
4.2	Historical Context.....	4
4.2.1	Historic Documentation	4
4.2.2	Pre-Contact Period.....	4
4.2.3	Post-Contact Euro-Canadian History.....	10
4.2.4	Study Area Specific History	12
4.3	Archaeological Context	13
4.3.1	Current Conditions	13
4.3.2	Physiography	13
4.3.3	Previous Archaeological Assessments	14
4.3.4	Registered Archaeological Sites and Commemorative Plaques	14
4.4	Archaeological Potential.....	14
5.0	Conclusions and Recommendations	16
6.0	Advice on Compliance with Legislation	17
7.0	Closure	18
8.0	Bibliography and Sources	19
9.0	Maps.....	22
	Appendix A: Map Catalogue	28

3.0 Project Personnel

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4.0 Project Context

4.1 Development Context

Matrix Heritage, on behalf of Menzie Project 2 Inc. (c/o Regional Group), undertook a Stage 1 archaeological assessment of the study area located on the eastern half of Lot 17, Concession 10 in the Geographic Township of Ramsay, formerly the Town of Almonte now the Town of Mississippi Mills, Lanark County, Ontario (Map 1). The objectives of the investigation were to assess the archaeological potential of the study area in support of a subdivision development application under the Planning Act as required by the Municipality of Mississippi Mills. A proposed plan of subdivision map of the study area provided by the client was used to delineate the development area (Map 2). The assessment is in accordance with the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism's (MCM) *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (2011).

At the time of the archaeological assessment, the study area was under the ownership of Menzie Project 2 Inc. Permission to access the study property was granted by the owner prior to the commencement of any field work; no limits were placed on this access.

4.2 Historical Context

4.2.1 Historic Documentation

Notable histories of the Algonquins include: *Algonquin Traditional Culture* (Whiteduck 1995) and *Executive Summary: Algonquins of Golden Lake Claim* (Holmes and Associates 1993a). The subject property is located in the township of Ramsay, in the County of Lanark. There are a few publications of the early history of the county and township. Notable references include: *A Pioneer History of the County of Lanark* (McGill 1984); *In Search of Lanark* (McCuaig and Wallace 1980); *Lanark Legacy, Nineteenth Century Glimpses of an Ontario County* (Brown 1984), and; *Beckwith: Irish and Scottish Identities in a Canadian Community* (Lockwood 1991). Another useful resource is the Lanark Supplement in the *Illustrated Atlas of the Dominion of Canada* (Belden & Co 1880).

4.2.2 Pre-Contact Period

Archaeological information suggests that ancestral Algonquin people lived in the region for at least 8,000 years before the Europeans arrived in North America. This traditional territory is generally considered to encompass the Ottawa Valley on both sides of the river, in Ontario and Quebec, from the Rideau Lakes to the headwaters of the Ottawa River. The region is dominated by the Canadian Shield which is characterized by low rolling land of Boreal Forest, rock outcrops and muskeg with innumerable lakes, ponds, and rivers. This environment dictated much of the traditional culture and lifestyle of the Algonquin peoples. At the time of European contact, the Algonquin territory was bounded on the east by the Montagnais people, to the west by the Nipissing and Ojibwa, to the north by the Cree, and to the south by the lands of the Iroquois.

Naming

The Algonquins' name for themselves is Anishinabeg, which means "human being." The word Algonquin supposedly came from the Malecite word meaning "they are our relatives", which French explorer Samuel de Champlain recorded as "Algooumequin" in 1603. The name stuck and the term "Algonquin" refers to those groups that have their traditional lands around the Ottawa Valley. Some confusion can arise regarding the term "Algonquian" which refers to the broader language family, of which the dialect of the Algonquin is one. The Algonquian linguistic

group stretches across a significant part of North America and comprises scores of Nations related by language and customs.

Early Human Occupation

The earliest human occupation of the Americas has been documented to predate 14,000 years ago, however at this time much of eastern Canada was covered by thick and expansive glaciers. The Laurentide Ice Sheet of the Wisconsinian glacier blanketed the Ottawa area until about 11,000 B.P. when then the glacial terminus receded north of the Ottawa Valley, and water from the Atlantic Ocean flooded the region to create the Champlain Sea. This sea encompassed the lowlands of Quebec on the north shore of the Ottawa River and most of Ontario east of Petawawa, including the Ottawa Valley and Rideau Lakes. By 10,000 B.P. the Champlain Sea was receding and within 1,000 years has drained from Eastern Ontario (Watson 1990:9).

The northern regions of eastern Canada were still under sheets of glacial ice as small groups of hunters first moved into the southern areas following the receding ice and water. By circa 11,000 B.P., when the Ottawa area was emerging from glaciations and being flooded by the Champlain Sea, northeastern North America was home to what are commonly referred to as the Paleo people. For Ontario the Paleo period is divided into the Early Paleo period (11,000 - 10,400 B.P.) and the Late Paleo period (10,500-9,400 B.P.), based on changes in tool technology (Ellis and Deller 1990). The Paleo people, who had moved into hospitable areas of southwest Ontario, likely consisted of small groups of exogamous hunter-gatherers relying on a variety of plants and animals who ranged over large territories (Jamieson 1999). The few possible Paleo period artifacts found, as surface finds or poorly documented finds, in the broader Eastern Ontario region are from the Rideau Lakes area (Watson 1990) and Thompson's Island near Cornwall (Ritchie 1969:18). In comparison, little evidence exists for Paleo occupations in the immediate Ottawa Valley, as can be expected given the environmental changes the region underwent, and the recent exposure of the area from glaciations and sea. As Watson suggests (Watson 1999:38), it is possible Paleo people followed the changing shoreline of the Champlain Sea, moving into the Ottawa Valley in the late Paleo Period, although archaeological evidence is absent.

Archaic period

As the climate continued to warm, the glacial ice sheet receded further northwards allowing areas of the Ottawa Valley to be travelled and occupied in what is known as the Archaic Period (9,500 – 2,900 B.P.). In the Boreal forests of the Canadian Shield this cultural period is referred to as the “Shield Archaic”. The Archaic period is generally characterized by increasing populations, developments in lithic technology (e.g., ground stone tools), and emerging trade networks.

Archaic populations remained hunter-gatherers with an increasing emphasis on fishing. People began to organise themselves into small family groups operating in a seasonal migration, congregating annually at resource-rich locations for social, religious, political, and economic activities. Sites from this period in the Ottawa Valley region include Morrison's Island-2 (BkGg-10), Morrison's Island-6 (BkGg-12) and Allumette Island-1 (BkGg-11) near Pembroke, and the Lamoureux site (BiFs-2) in the floodplain of the South Nation River (Clermont 1999). Often sites from this time are located on islands, waterways, and at narrows on lakes and rives where caribou and deer would cross, suggesting a common widespread use of the birchbark canoe that was so prominent in later history (McMillan 1995). It is suggested that the Algonquin peoples in the Ottawa Valley area developed out of this Shield Archaic culture.

Woodland / Pre-European Contact Period

Generally, the introduction of the use of ceramics marks the transition from the Archaic Period into the Woodland period. Populations continued to participate in extensive trade networks that extended across much of North America. Social structure appears to have become increasingly complex with some status differentiation recognized in burials. Towards the end of this period domesticated plants were gradually introduced to the Ottawa Valley region. This coincided with other changes including the development of semi-permanent villages. The Woodland period is commonly divided into the Early Woodland (1000 – 300 B.C.), Middle Woodland (400 B.C. to A.D. 1000), and the Late Woodland (A.D. 900 – European Contact) periods.

The Early Woodland is typically noted via lithic point styles (i.e., Meadowood bifaces) and pottery types (i.e., Vinette I). Early Woodland sites in the Ottawa Valley region include Deep River (CaGi-1) (Mitchell 1963), Constance Bay I (BiGa-2) (Watson 1972), and Wyght (BfGa-11) (Watson 1980). The Middle Woodland period is identified primarily via changes in pottery style (e.g., the addition of decoration). Some of the best documented Middle Woodland Period sites from the region are from Leamy Lake Park (BiFw-6, BiFw-16) (Laliberté 1999). On the shield and in other non-arable environments, including portions of the Ottawa Valley, there seems to remain a less sedentary lifestyle often associated with the Algonquin groups noted in the region at contact (Wright 2004:1485–1486).

The Woodland Period Algonquin peoples of the Ottawa Valley area had a social and economic rhythm of life following an annual cyclical pattern of seasonal movements. Subsistence was based on small independent extended family bands operating an annual round of hunting, fishing, and plant collecting. Families returned from their winter hunting camps to rejoin with other groups at major fishing sites for the summer. The movements of the people were connected with the rhythm of the natural world around them allowing for efficient and generally sustainable subsistence (Ardoch Algonquin First Nation 2015). Their annual congregations facilitated essential social, political, and cultural exchange.

The Woodland Period Algonquin peoples in the Ottawa Valley also established significant trade networks and a dominance of the Ottawa River (in Algonquian the “Kitchissippi”) and its tributaries. The trade networks following the Ottawa River connected the Algonquins to an interior eastern waterway via Lake Timiskaming and the Rivière des Outaouais to the St. Maurice and Saguenay as well as the upper Great Lakes and interior via Lake Nipissing and Georgian Bay. From there their Huron allies would distribute goods to the south and west. The Iroquois and their allies along the St. Lawrence River and the lower Great Lakes dominated the trade routes on those waterways to the south thus leading to a rivalry that would escalate with European influence (Moreau et al. 2016).

European Contact

The addition of European trade goods to artifacts of native manufacture in archaeological material culture assemblages’ ushers in a new period of history. Archaeological data shows that European goods penetrated the Canadian Shield as early as 1590 and the trade was well entrenched by 1600 through the trade routes established by the Algonquin peoples along the Ottawa River (Moreau et al. 2016) and their neighbouring allies the Michi Saagiig and the Chippewa nations.

The first recorded meeting between Europeans and Algonquins occurred at the first permanent French settlement on the St. Lawrence at Tadoussac in the summer of 1603. Samuel de Champlain came upon a party of Algonquins, the Kitchissipirini under Chief Tessouat, who were celebrating a recent victory over the Iroquois with their allies the Montagnais and Malecite

(Hessel 1993). Champlain made note of the “Algoomequins” and his encounter with them, yet the initial contact between Champlain and the Algonquin people within their own territory in the Ottawa Valley was during his travels of exploration in 1613.

By the time of Champlain’s 1613 journey, the Algonquin people along the Ottawa River Valley were important middlemen in the rapidly expanding fur-trade industry. Champlain knew this and wanted to form and strengthen alliances with the Algonquins to further grow the fur-trade, and to secure guidance and protection for future explorations inland and north towards a potential northwest passage. Further, involving the Algonquins deeper in the fur trade promised more furs filling French ships and more Indigenous dependence on European goods. For their part, the French offered the promise of safety and support against the Iroquois to the south.

Early historical accounts note many different Algonquian speaking groups in the region at the time. Of note for the lower Ottawa Valley area were the Kichesipirini (focused around Morrison Island); Matouweskariini (upstream from Ottawa, along the Madawaska River); Weskarini (around the Petite Nation, Lièvre, and Rouge rivers west of Montreal), Kinouchepirini (in the Bonnechere River drainage); and the Onontcharonon, (along the South Nation River) (Holmes and Associates 1993a; Morrison 2005; Pilon 2005). However, little archaeological work has been undertaken regarding Algonquins at the time of contact with Europeans (Pilon 2005).

Fur Trade, Early Contact with the French

Champlain understood that the Algonquins would be vital to his eventual success in making his way inland, exploring, and expanding the fur trade. This was partially due to their language being the key to communication with many other groups, as well as their dominance over trade routes surrounding the Ottawa River and the connection with the Huron in the west.

When the French arrived, there was already a vast trade network in place linking the Huron and the Algonquins, the Michi Saagiig and Chippewa, extending from the Saguenay to Huronia. This route existed at least from the very early beginnings of agricultural societies in Ontario around A.D. 1000 (Moreau et al. 2016). This trade increased rapidly after the arrival of the Europeans with the introduction of European goods and the demand for furs. The Huron held a highly strategic commercial location controlling the trade to the south and the west, and the Algonquin, Michi Saagiig, and Chippewa were their critical connection to goods from the east, including European products.

By the mid-17th century, the demands of the fur trade had caused major impacts to the traditional way of life including a change in tools, weapons, and a shift in diet to more European as hunting was more for furs and not for food. This dependence on European food, ammunition, and protection tied people to European settlements (McMillan 1995). The summer gathering sites shifted from prominent fishing areas to trading posts. This further spurred social changes in community structure and traditional land distribution and use.

The well-situated Algonquin, particularly the Kichesipirini who controlled passage around Allumette Island, were originally reluctant to cede any of their dominance in fear of being cut out of their lucrative middleman role in the trade economy. However, an alliance with the French meant protection and assistance against the Iroquois. The French, as well as other Europeans like the Dutch and English, were able to align their own political and economic rivalries with those of the native populations. The competitive greed and obsession with expanding the fur trade entrenched the rivalries that were already in place, and these were intensified by European weapons and economic ambition.

Haudenosaunee (Iroquois) Wars

Little information exists about inter-tribal warfare prior to European contact, however, there was existing animosity between the Haudenosaunee and the Algonquins when Champlain first arrived in the Ottawa Valley. Like his fellow Europeans, Champlain was able to use this existing rivalry to make a case for an alliance, thus gaining crucial access to the established trade networks and economic power of the Algonquin. Prior to European contact, the hostilities had been mainly skirmishes and raids, but everything changed as European reinforcement provided deadlier weapons and higher economic stakes with the introduction of the fur trade.

Along with the French, the Algonquin were allied against the Haudenosaunee with the Huron, Nippissing, Michi Saagiig, and Chippewa. French records suggest that at the end of the sixteenth century the Algonquins were the dominant force and were proud to have weakened and diminished the Iroquois. The first Algonquin campaign the French took part in was a 1609 attack against the Mohawk. The use of firearms in this fight marked the beginning of the escalation of brutality between these old enemies. The Haudenosaunee corn stalk shields could stop arrows but not bullets or French swords (Hessel 1993).

Eventually the tide changed and as the Haudenosaunee exhausted the beaver population in their own territory they became the aggressors, pushing into the lands of the Algonquin, Michi Saagiig, Chippewa, and Huron, with the added strength of Dutch weaponry. Through the 1630s and 40s constant and increased raiding into Algonquin, Michi Saagiig, and Chippewa territory by the Haudenosaunee nations had forced many multi-generational residents to leave their lands in seek protection from their French allies in places like Trois Rivieres and Sillery while others fled to the north. By 1650 Huronia, the home of the long-time allies of the Algonquin and traditional and treaty territory of the Chippewa, had been destroyed by the Haudenosaunee. The Algonquins of the Ottawa Valley had largely been scattered or displaced, reduced through war and disease to small family groups under the protection of the French missions only fifty years after the first Europeans had travelled the Ottawa River (Morrison 2005:26).

There is some evidence that Algonquins did not completely abandon the Ottawa Valley but withdrew from the Ottawa River to the headwaters of its tributaries and remained in those interior locations until the end of the century. Taking advantage of the Algonquin absence, the Ottawa people, originally from the area of Manitoulin Island, used the river for trade during this time and their name became historically applied to the river.

Aftermath of War

As the Haudenosaunee push continued and the Algonquin sought refuge amongst their French allies, other factors came into play that significantly contributed to their displacement and near destruction. The introduction of European diseases, the devastating influence of alcohol, and the increasing pressure to convert to Christianity massively contributed to the weakening of the Algonquin people and their traditional culture.

The Algonquins thought of themselves as part of the natural world with which they must live in harmony. The traditional stories of Algonquin folklore contained lessons and guides to behaviour. The French missionaries regarded them as “heathens” and dismissed their religion as superstition (Day 2005). The missionaries believed it was their duty to convert these people to Christianity to save them from evil. Algonquin chief Tessouat had seen his Huron neighbours become ill and die after interactions with the European missionaries and had thus originally warned his people about abandoning their old beliefs and the dangers of conversion (Hessel 1993). Eventually the French imposed laws allowing only those converted to Christianity to remain within the missions and under French protection. This created divisions amongst the

Algonquin themselves which weakened the social structure as some settled into a new religion and new territory.

Starting in the 1630s and continuing into the 1700s, European disease spread among the Algonquin groups along the Ottawa River, bringing widespread death (Trigger 1986:230). As disease spread through the French mission settlements the priests remained certain that the suffering was punishment for resisting Christianity. An additional threat lurking amongst the French settlements was alcohol which precipitated many issues.

The Long Way Back

After the Haudenosaunee (Iroquois) Wars, the remaining Algonquin people were generally settled around various French trading posts and missions from the north end of the Ottawa Valley to Montreal. A large settlement at Oka was the first mission established on Algonquin lands in 1720. This settlement included peoples from many groups who had been collected and moved around from various locations. It became a type of base camp; occupied during the summer while the winters were spent at their traditional hunting territories in the upper Ottawa Valley. This arrangement served the French well, since the Algonquin converts at Oka maintained close ties with the northern bands and could call upon the inland warriors to join them in case of war with the British or Iroquois League.

As the British gained control of Canada from the French in 1758-1760 they included in the Articles of Capitulation a guarantee that the Indian allies of the French would be maintained in the lands they inhabited. Many of the Algonquin and other native groups that had been living on French mission settlements were shuffled around to new reserves while others began to migrate back to their traditional territories. Those who had remained on the land and continued to be active in the fur trade, now did so with the English through companies in Montreal like the North West Company, and in the north with the Hudson Bay Company.

Some Algonquin people began to return to their traditional territory to join those groups who had remained in the lower Ottawa Valley and continued their traditional lifeway through to the influx of European settlement in the late 1700s and early 1800s. This included bands noted to be living along the Gatineau River and other rivers flowing into the Ottawa. These traditional bands maintained a seasonal round focused on harvesting activities into the 1800s when development pressures and assimilation policies implemented by the colonial government saw Indigenous lands taken up, albeit under increasing protest and without consideration for Indigenous claims, for settlement and industry. Algonquin lands began to be encroached upon by white settlers involved in the booming lucrative logging industry or having been granted the land as Loyalist soldiers or through other settler groups.

As some Algonquins had been redistributed to lands in Quebec, their traditional territory within the Ottawa Valley was included in multiple land transfer deals, agreements, and sales with the British Crown beginning in the 1780s and continuing till the 1840s. The Algonquin were not included in these transactions and numerous petitions and inquiries on behalf of their interests were often overruled or ignored (Holmes and Associates 1993a; Holmes and Associates 1993b; Sarazin). The Constitution Act of 1791 divided Quebec into the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada with Ottawa River as the division line, thus the lands claimed by the Algonquins fell under two separate administrations creating more confusion, exclusion, and oversight.

Two “protectorate” communities were eventually established in the nineteenth century for the Algonquin people at Golden Lake in Ontario and River Desert (Maniwaki) in Quebec. One of the last accounts of the Algonquins living traditionally was from 1865. The White Duck family was

living just west of Arnprior when they were forced to leave their wigwams as surveyors arrived to tell them the railway was being expanded through their land (Hessel 1993).

Algonquin people continue to live in the Ottawa Valley and there are still many speakers of several Algonquian dialects. Outside of the officially recognized bands there are an unspecified number of people of Algonquin descent throughout the Ottawa Valley unaffiliated with any reserve. Today there are ten Algonquin communities that comprise the Algonquins of Ontario: The Algonquins of Pikwàkanagàn First Nation, Antoine, Kijicho Manito Madagouskarini, Bonnechere, Greater Golden Lake, Mattawa/North Bay, Ottawa, Shabot Obaadjiwan, Snimikobi, and Whitney and area.

Struggles to officially secure title to their traditional land, as well as fight for hunting and fishing rights have continued into modern times. The Algonquins of Ontario (AOO) and the Governments of both Canada and Ontario are working together to resolve this land claim through a negotiated settlement. The claim includes an area of 9 million acres of unceded territory within the watersheds of the Ottawa and Mattawa Rivers in Ontario including the city of Ottawa and most of Algonquin Park. The signing of the Agreement-in-Principle in 2016 by the AOO and the provincial and federal governments, signifying a mutual intention for a lasting partnership, was a key step towards a final agreement to clarify the rights and nurture new economic and development opportunities in the area.

4.2.3 Post-Contact Euro-Canadian History

The area that is now Lanark County was originally part of the Johnstown District, which was formed in 1798 when the new Parliament of Upper Canada subdivided the territory of the Eastern District. In 1822, the Johnstown District territory was reduced with the creation of the Bathurst District, the northernmost portion of the former district. The Bathurst district contained Carleton County. In 1824, Lanark County was created from part of Carleton County, which originally comprised ten townships and the remainder of unsurveyed lands within the Bathurst District including what would become Renfrew County. In 1838, Carleton County was withdrawn to create the Dalhousie District, and the Bathurst District was reorganized. Renfrew County was removed from the remaining portion of Lanark County, but the two remained united for electoral purposes. In 1850, the Bathurst District was abolished, and the "United Counties of Lanark and Renfrew" replaced it for municipal and judicial purposes. The United Counties were dissolved in 1866 (Smallfield and Campbell 1914:191).

The area was first settled by European settlers when British authorities prompted immigration to Lanark County in the early 19th century. The county was formed from the southern part of the old Bathurst District. Many of the settlers who came to Lanark County in the early 1800s came from Lanarkshire, Scotland, thus giving the county its name. Most European settlement in the County began in 1816 when Drummond, Beckwith, and Bathurst Townships were first surveyed. In the summer of 1821, a large influx of settlers arrived from an organized settlement society (Mississippi Mills 2020). These settlers were collectively known as the Lanark Society Settlers that belonged to approximately forty settlement societies from the Glasgow area of Scotland that organised and managed the assisted emigration of a large number of Scottish families to Lanark County, Upper Canada. The immigrants were granted undeveloped land in the townships of Dalhousie, Lanark, North Sherbrooke, and Ramsay. Many of the families that emigrated were weavers from the Glasgow area. In 1823, a second major influx of settlers arrived in an organized emigration of mostly Irish Roman Catholics from the County Cork area of Ireland.

In the area that is now Almonte, Crown patents were granted along the Mississippi River to John Gemmill, James Shaw and David Shepherd. Gemmill's land included what is now the east end of downtown Almonte and the exhibition grounds. Gemmill opened the first store in Almonte and

served as postmaster. Shaw's land was further downstream, on both sides of the river, and included part of Coleman Island and the bay in the river. Shepherd was given two separate 100 acre lots with the condition that he build a grist and sawmill, the area became known as Shepherd's Falls. Shepherd was unable to complete the requirement for constructing the mills, as one was likely destroyed by fire, consequently he sold his properties to Daniel Shipman (Watson MacEwen Teramura Architects et al. 2014).

Daniel Shipman is generally acknowledged as the founder of Almonte as he was a key figure in its early development. He was a miller from Brockville, who arrived in the area as early as 1823, and is listed in the Land Registry as purchasing Shepard's two 100 acre lots for \$600 each (OLR). Shipman completed a grist mill at the lower falls and a sawmill, lumberyard, and distillery on the south shore of the river near the present Town Hall. The settlement became known as Shipman's Mills, but by 1839 Shipman had renamed it Ramsayville.

The key to Almonte's success was its waterpower. It was situated at a 20-metre drop in the Mississippi River comprised of three sets of waterfalls and one rapid. The early settlers were able to harness this waterpower with water wheels, and later with more efficient water turbines, to power various mills. The first carding and fulling mill was built at in 1830 by Shipman's father-in-law Isaiah K. Boyce. By 1848, a second grist mill was constructed on the north side of the river by Edward J. Mitcheson, later sold to the Wylie family.

By 1841, Ramsayville was a bustling settlement with a licensed tavern, a school, and a store and post office run by James Wylie. An 1839 survey of the town shows the street grid laid out along the south shore of the river, with key streets such as Mill Street and Bridge Street already in place, and various merchants noted. In 1850, Shipman surveyed and laid out town lots on the south side of the river. The year before, in 1849, Mitcheson had subdivided 50 acres on the north side and surveyed town lots that became known as the Victoriaville (Watson MacEwen Teramura Architects et al. 2014). As late as 1854, the map that accompanies Scobie's Canadian Almanac lists the post office as Shepherd's Falls, however the actual listing for the post office within the text is for Ramsay with James Wylie as postmaster (H. Scobie 1854). The various names for the area resulted in confusion, Ramsay was the name of the township and the post-office, Ramsayville was the name of the settlement on the south side of the river and Victoriaville was the local name for the town area on the north side of the river. Residents agreed to change the name of the entire town to Waterford, however when a request was made to change the name of the post office, it was refused as there already existed a post office of that name in Norfolk County. In 1856, the name Almonte was chosen in honour of the Mexican general Juan Almonte, whose championing of Mexican independence in the face of American aggression appealed to the citizens of the town (Moore 1920).

The 1850s and 60s saw vast development in Almonte as the first textile mills were established and the railway arrived in Almonte expanding the market reach of the mills. In 1852, the Ramsay Woollen Cloth Manufacturing Company opened producing goods for export rather than local markets. This venture was partly owned by Daniel Shipman and James Rosamond of Carleton Place and residents. The building was destroyed by fire in 1853, then Rosamond purchased the site and water rights and built a 3.5-storey stone building, known as the Victoria Woollen Mill. In 1862, Rosamond's sons Bennett and William leased the Victoria Woollen Mills under the partnership of B & W Rosamond and vastly expanded the milling complex. By 1866, a new and larger building was constructed on Coleman's Island at the lower falls, would become the largest woollen factory of its kind in Canada by the turn of the century. The excellent access to waterpower also led to the development of other woollen mills. In 1854, Samuel Reid and John McIntosh established the Almonte Woollen Manufacturing Company on Shipman's old sawmill operating there until 1865. In 1882, Rosamond established the Almonte Knitting Company.

Sawmills, machine shops, iron foundries followed the mills along the river (Watson MacEwen Teramura Architects et al. 2014).

In 1853, the construction of the Brockville and Ottawa Railway (B&O) began, with the intentions of connecting Ottawa to the ports of Brockville and the main Grand Trunk Railway Line. By 1859, the B&O had reached Almonte, with stops in Smiths Falls, Perth, and Carleton Place. In 1864, the line extended Sand Point, near Arnprior, and finally in 1870 it connected to Ottawa via the Canada Central Railway from Carleton Place.

By the end of the century Almonte was a prosperous industrial town with seven woollen mills in operation and had earned the name “North America’s Manchester”; a railway connected the town to Ottawa, Brockville and the international markets beyond; and the prosperity was apparent in the proliferation of large Victorian homes and limestone public buildings.

4.2.4 Study Area Specific History

The study area is located behind a recent subdivision development, southwest of Concession Road 11 and north of Leishman Drive, just to the north of the town of Almonte in Lanark County. The study area is a rectangular plot within the eastern half of Lot 17 Concession 10, in the Geographic Township of Ramsay, now the Municipality of Mississippi Mills. The historic Walling map from 1863 (Map 4) lists the owner of the eastern half of the lot as W. Forgie and a house is depicted in the southeast corner, outside of the current study area. The Belden map from 1880 (Map 4) does not depict any specific information for the lot, however, it is clear that the subject property falls just on the outside of the defined Almonte town limits.

The original Crown patent for the 100 acres of the eastern half of Lot 17 was to Malcolm Cameron in 1841. Cameron sold the property to Maurice White in 1854. Not long after, in 1858, White sold the land to William Forgie. Just over a decade later Forgie sold the land to Robert McFarlane in 1871. McFarlane held the property for the same amount of time before selling to John K. Cole in 1884. Cole owned the land for 26 years and then sold the property to G. Frederick Lee in 1910. Only five years later, in 1915, Lee sold the land to James Thomas Wright. A decade later Wright sold the land to Hugh A. McLachlin in 1925 (OLR, (27)).

William Forgie was born in Lanark County in 1831. He worked as a merchant in Almonte, most notably as a butcher on Queen Street (Ancestry.com 2012). The 1861 census records list William as a merchant, aged 29, and living with his wife Sarah, their three young children and two boarders or domestic workers, John White aged 21 and Catherine Carleton aged 14 (Statistics Canada 1861). The 1871 census records specify William’s occupation as a butcher, and by that time he and his wife Sarah had five children between the ages of 4 and 14 (Statistics Canada 1871). By 1881, William, aged 49, was listed in the records as a “flour dealer”, with five children living at home (Statistics Canada 1881). The 1891, census records list William as aged 60, Sarah aged 56, and three of their children living at home ages 11 to 24. Both William and his son Gilbert are listed as “sausage butchers”. Their younger son Allen, aged 20, is listed as a “Bell telephone and telegrapher” (Statistics Canada 1891). By the time of the 1901 census, William and Sarah lived with their widowed daughter Margaret Dunlop, her three children aged 4 to 13, as well as their son Gilbert and his wife Catherine (Statistics Canada 1901). Sarah Forgie died in 1905, and following a period of ill health including three strokes after his wife’s death, William Forgie died in 1906 (Ancestry.com 2012).

John King Cole was born in Ontario around 1836. The census records from 1871 list John, aged 35, living with his wife Fanny, their five children aged 2 to 12, and two boarders Jones Cole aged 19 (most likely a relation), and William Brakenage, a 60-year-old clerk (Statistics Canada 1871). The 1881 census lists John as a merchant, and at that time he and his wife had four children

living at home (Statistics Canada 1881). The 1891 census lists John as a farmer, living with his wife and three of their adult children (Statistics Canada 1891). By the time of the 1901 census John and Fanny were in their 60s, and John is listed as a “hotel keeper” (Statistics Canada 1901). In the 1911 census records John is listed as a “gentleman” (Statistics Canada 1911). John K. Cole died in 1912, at the age of 76 due to “Erysipelas”, a feverish disease caused by bacteria (Ancestry.com 2010).

4.3 Archaeological Context

4.3.1 Current Conditions

The study area (6.5 hectares) consists of a rectangular-shaped parcel, in part Lot 17, Concession 10, in the Geographic Township of Ramsay in the town of Mississippi Mills (Map 3). The subject property is within an area of woodland and scrub with some open patches of juniper and possible wetland. The study area is surrounded by this type of terrain except for some recent subdivision developments to the south.

4.3.2 Physiography

The study area lies mostly with the Smiths Falls Limestone Plains physiographic Region, with the southwestern corner of the study area falling within the Ottawa Valley Clay Plains physiographic region (Map 5). The Smiths Falls Limestone Plains region is characterised by shallow soils and a relatively level surface topography. However, there are many depressions that are poorly drained creating bogs, as well as higher parts of the plain that have some scattered marine beaches composed mainly of limestone shingle and sand. These higher beach deposits are often the only areas of soil deep enough for cultivation. These gravel and sand soils have been extensively used for road construction. This plain supports a hardwood forest in which sugar maple is the most dominant tree. In the poorly drained areas there can be elm, ash, soft maple, and white cedar, while in the boggy areas there can be larch and black spruce. The shallow soils vary greatly in texture from clays to light loams, sands, and gravels. Surface stoniness is common. Drainage is often impeded by the shallow soils, although in late summer the land can be prone to drought. Large areas of this limestone plain are covered with peat and muck deposits. Most of the agricultural use of this land is for pasture, and historically, timber and dairying have been successful (Chapman and Putnam 1984).

The Ottawa Valley Clay Plains region is characterized by poorly drained topography of clay plains interrupted by ridges of rock or sand that offer moderately better drainage. This topography was influenced by the post glacial sequence Champlain Sea (*ca.* 10,500 to 8,000 B.C.) that deposited these clay soils and were subsequently covered by sand deposits from the emerging freshwater drainage. Some of these sands were eroded to the underlying clay deposits by later channels of the developing Ottawa River. The sections to the north and south of the Ottawa River are characteristically different. On the Ontario side there is a gradual slope, although there are also some steep scarps (Chapman and Putnam 1984).

The soil in the study area is mainly of the Grenville soil series with a small pocket of Farmington series soils in the southeast corner, and a small pocket of Lyons series soils in the northeast (Map 5). The Grenville soil series is developed from morainic material that is underlain predominantly by limestone of the Black River Formation in Stormont County. The underlying topography is undulating to slightly rolling. Natural vegetation in this soil series includes sugar maple, beech, ash, and some elm. General farming and dairying are successful in this soil as corn, alfalfa, clover, and small grains thrive in this soil type, however the stoniness can hinder cultivation in the Bouldery Phase. Farmington soils are essentially non-arable and occur in the form of small pieces of land, found commonly in the rock outcrop areas adjacent to the Ottawa

River. The Lyons series is a poorly draining, moderately stony loam developed on nearly level surfaces (Hoffman et al. 1967).

The surficial geology of the study area is a massive well-laminated clay in the western portion and a Paleozoic bedrock in the eastern portion (Map 5). The clay is a foreshore/basinal glaciomarine marine deposit from the Quaternary (Champlain Sea) period. It is composed of clay, silty clay and silt, commonly calcareous and fossiliferous. It is locally overlain by thin sands. Upper parts are generally mottled or laminated reddish brown and bluish grey and may contain lenses and pockets of sand. Paleozoic bedrock is composed of limestone, dolomite, sandstone, and shale. It is relatively flat lying; mainly occurring as bare, tabular outcrops; and includes areas thinly veneered by unconsolidated Quaternary sediments up to 1 m thick.

There are drainage ditches along the western and southern edges of the study area, and a small retention pond to the south. Natural sources of water nearby include a wetland to the north of the study area.

4.3.3 Previous Archaeological Assessments

No previous assessment has occurred within the study area. Matrix Heritage undertook a Stage 1 and 2 assessment of a parcel immediately to the west, but found nothing of archaeological significance and no further work was recommended (Matrix Heritage 2021).

4.3.4 Registered Archaeological Sites and Commemorative Plaques

A search of the Ontario Archaeological Sites Database indicated that there are two registered archaeological sites located within 1 km of the study area, listed below in **Error! Reference source not found.** Both sites are post-contact Euro-Canadian sites, one a homestead, and the other associated with the milling history of Almonte.

Borden	Site Name	Time Period	Affinity	Site Type	Status
BhGb-9	B. Rosamond Site	Post-Contact	Euro-Canadian	homestead	No Further CHVI
BhGb-5	Millfalls Earthen Dam	Post-Contact	Euro-Canadian	earthwork, manufacturing, mill, trail	No Further CHVI

Table 1: Registered archaeological sites within 1 km of the study area.

There is a plaque commemorating the Founding of Almonte and Daniel Shipman's role in the origins of the town at the site of his former sawmill near the current Town Hall. Located on Coleman Island, at the Mississippi Valley Textile Museum, is a plaque commemorating the Rosamond Woolen Company. In downtown Almonte there is a plaque for the Former Almonte Post Office, and one commemorating Dr. James Naismith, Almonte native and the inventor of Basketball. Additionally, there are numerous heritage properties in Almonte including the Former Almonte Post Office National Historic Site of Canada, the Rosamond Woollen Mill National Historic Site of Canada, the James Naismith House, and the 1850 Menzies House.

4.4 Archaeological Potential

Potential for pre-contact Indigenous sites is based on physiographic variables that include distance from the nearest source of water, the nature of the nearest source/body of water, distinguishing features in the landscape (e. g. ridges, knolls, eskers, and wetlands), the types of soils found within the area of assessment and resource availability. The study area has potential for pre-contact Indigenous archaeological resources due to the wetland to the north.

Potential for historical Euro-Canadian sites is based on proximity to the historical transportation routes, historical community buildings such as schools, churches, and businesses, and any known archaeological or culturally significant sites. The study area has potential for historical Euro-Canadian archaeological resources due to the early patent date of the lot and the previously identified historic Euro-Canadian archaeological sites within one kilometre.

5.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

This Stage 1 background assessment concludes that based, on criteria outlined in the MCM's *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (Section 1.3, 2011), the study area has both pre-contact Indigenous as well as historic Euro-Canadian archaeological potential.

Based on the results of this investigation it is recommended:

4. A Stage 2 archaeological assessment be conducted by a licensed consultant archaeologist.
5. As the study area cannot be ploughed, as per Section 2.1.2, Standard 1, assessment shall be completed using the test pit survey method at 5 m intervals in the areas as shown in blue in Map 3 (MCM 2011)
6. The Stage 2 archaeological assessment follow the requirements set out in the 2011 Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists (MCM 2011).

6.0 Advice on Compliance with Legislation

- a. This report is submitted to the *Minister of Citizenship and Multiculturalism* as a condition of licencing 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.
- b. It is an offence under Sections 48 and 69 of the *Ontario Heritage Act* for any party other than a licenced 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 Archaeology Reports referred to in Section 65.1 of the *Ontario Heritage Act*.
- c. 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 licenced consultant archaeologist to carry out archaeological fieldwork, in compliance with Section 48 (1) of the *Ontario Heritage Act*.
- d. The *Cemeteries Act*, R.S.O. 1990 c. C.4 and the *Funeral, Burial and Cremation Services Act*, 2002, S.O. 2002, c.33 (when proclaimed in force) require that any person discovering human remains must notify the police or coroner and the Registrar of Cemeteries at the Ministry of Consumer Services.

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.

7.0 Closure

Matrix has prepared this report in a manner consistent with the time limits and physical constraints applicable to this report. No other warranty, expressed or implied is made. The strategies incorporated in this study comply with those identified in the Ministry of Citizenship and Multiculturalism's *Standards and Guidelines for Consultant Archaeologists* (2011) however; archaeological assessments may fail to identify all archaeological resources.

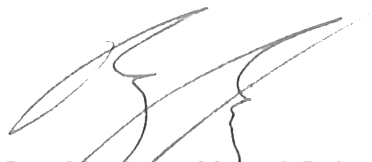
The present report applies only to the project described in the document. Use of this report for purposes other than those described herein or by person(s) other than Menzie Project 2 (c/o Regional Group) or their agent(s) is not authorized without review by this firm for the applicability of our recommendations to the altered use of the report.

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This report is pending Ministry approval.

If you have any questions or we may be of further assistance, please contact the undersigned.

Matrix Heritage Inc.



Ben Mortimer, M.A., A.P.A.
Senior Archaeologist



Andrea Jackson, M.Litt.
Staff Archaeologist

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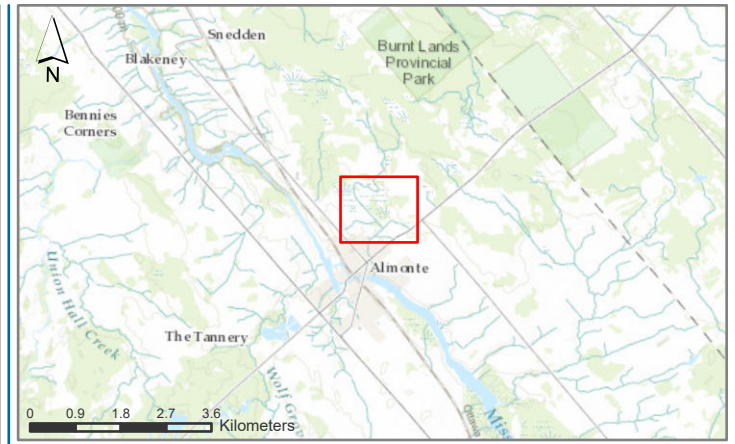
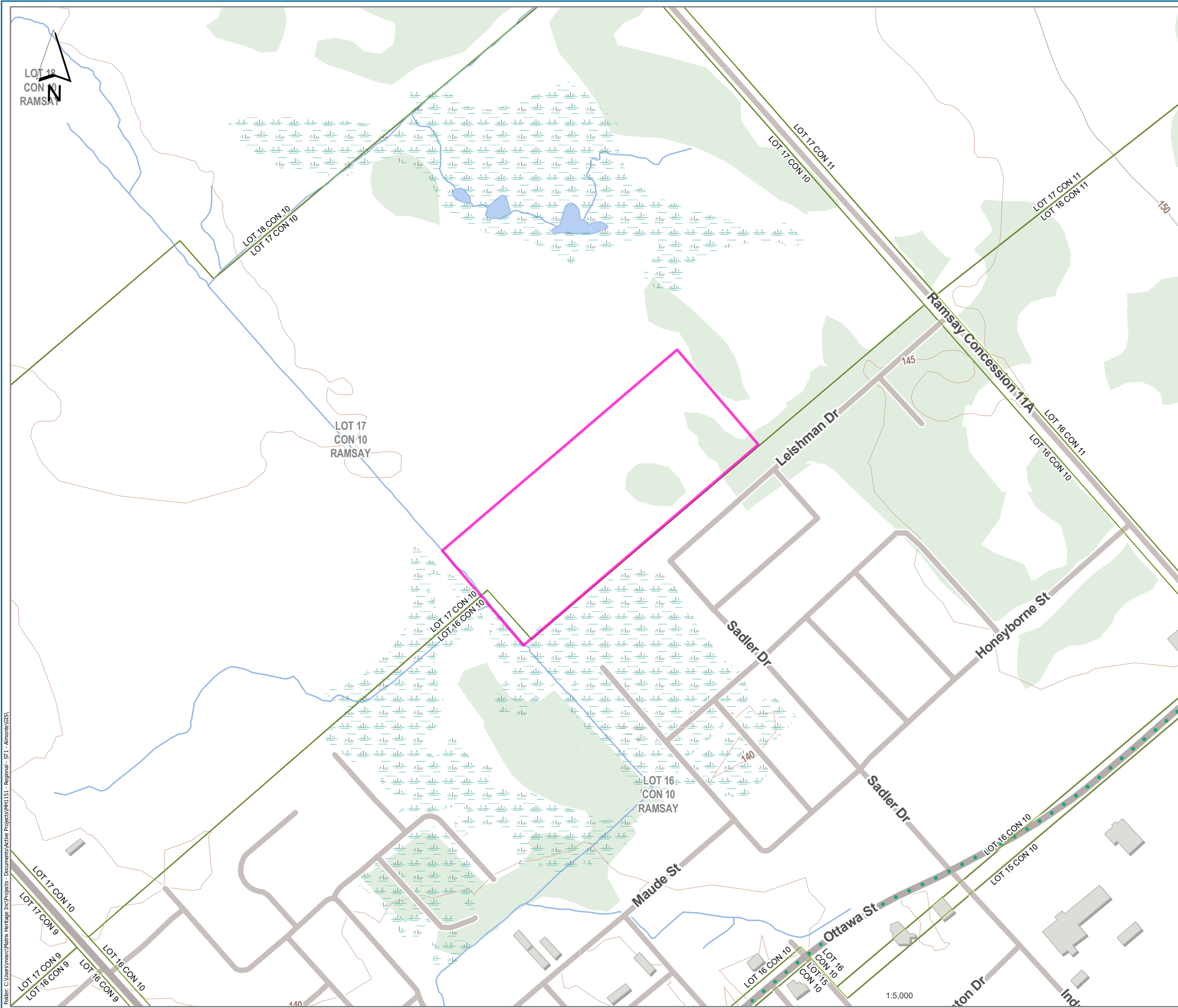
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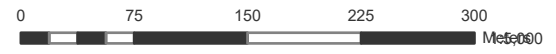
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9.0 Maps



LEGEND
 DEVELOPMENT APPLICATION AREA



REFERENCES:
 CITY OF OTTAWA, PROVINCE OF ONTARIO, ONTARIO MNR, ESRI CANADA, ESRI, HERE, GARMIN, USGS, NGA, EPA, USDA, NPS, AAFC, NRCAN

FILE **MH1151** DATE **2022-11-24**
 PROJECTION: NAD 1983 UTM Zone 18N CREATED BY: BM
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PROJECT
STAGE 1 ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT
PROJECT MENZIE 2, ALMONTE, ONTARIO

TITLE **LOCATION** MAP

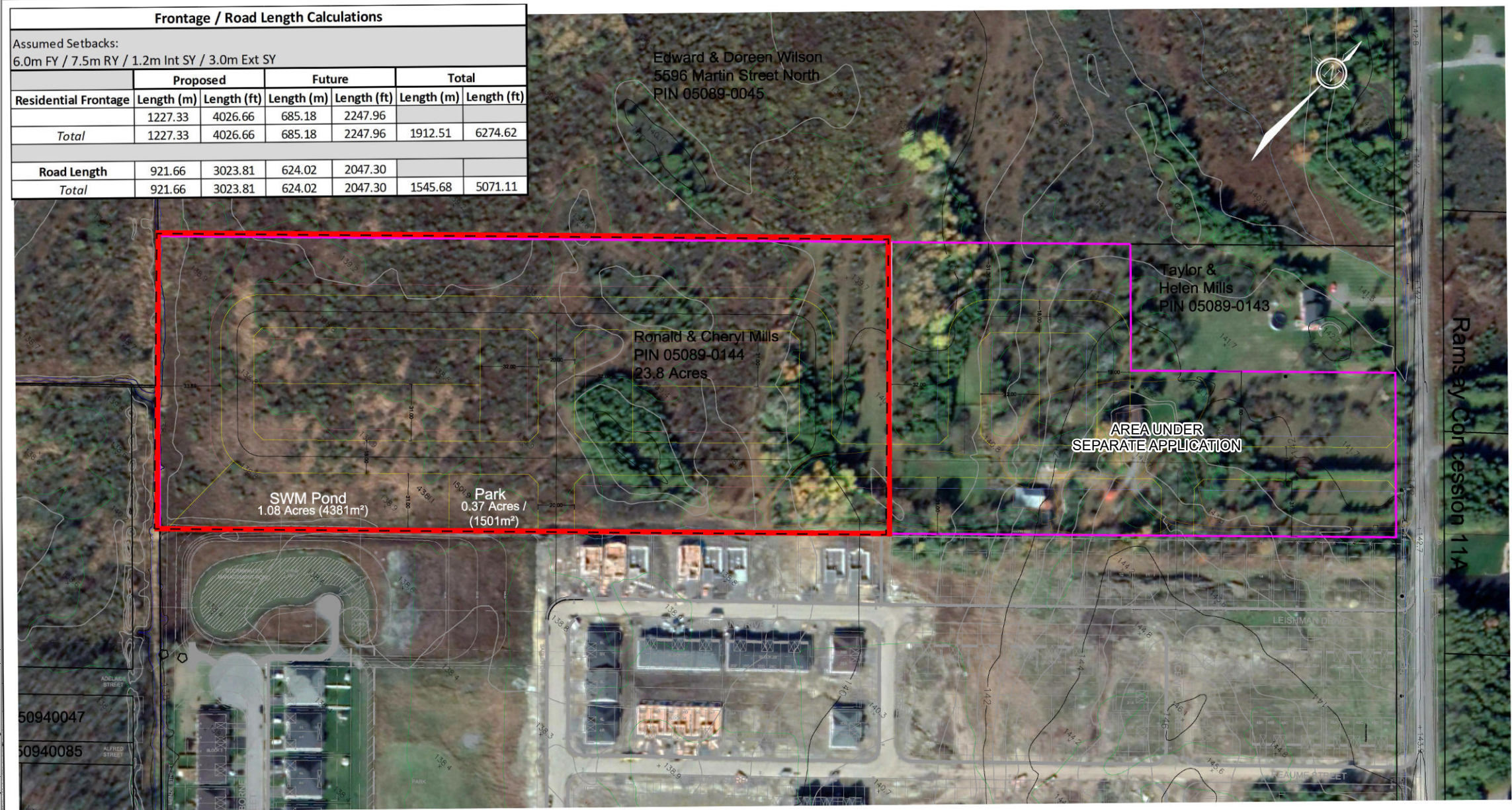
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Frontage / Road Length Calculations						
Assumed Setbacks: 6.0m FY / 7.5m RY / 1.2m Int SY / 3.0m Ext SY						
Residential Frontage	Proposed		Future		Total	
	Length (m)	Length (ft)	Length (m)	Length (ft)	Length (m)	Length (ft)
	1227.33	4026.66	685.18	2247.96	1912.51	6274.62
Total	1227.33	4026.66	685.18	2247.96	1912.51	6274.62
Road Length	Proposed		Future		Total	
	Length (m)	Length (ft)	Length (m)	Length (ft)	Length (m)	Length (ft)
	921.66	3023.81	624.02	2047.30	1545.68	5071.11
Total	921.66	3023.81	624.02	2047.30	1545.68	5071.11



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NOTE:
 THE POSITION OF ALL POLE LINES, CONDUITS, WATERMANS, SEWERS AND OTHER UNDERGROUND AND OVERGROUND UTILITIES AND STRUCTURES IS NOT NECESSARILY SHOWN ON THE CONTRACT DRAWINGS, AND WHERE SHOWN, THE ACCURACY OF THE POSITION OF SUCH UTILITIES AND STRUCTURES IS NOT GUARANTEED. BEFORE STARTING WORK, DETERMINE THE EXACT LOCATION OF ALL SUCH UTILITIES AND STRUCTURES AND ASSUME ALL LIABILITY FOR DAMAGE TO THEM.

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 Official Plan Designation: Rural with Rural Agricultural Overlay
 Zoning: Rural

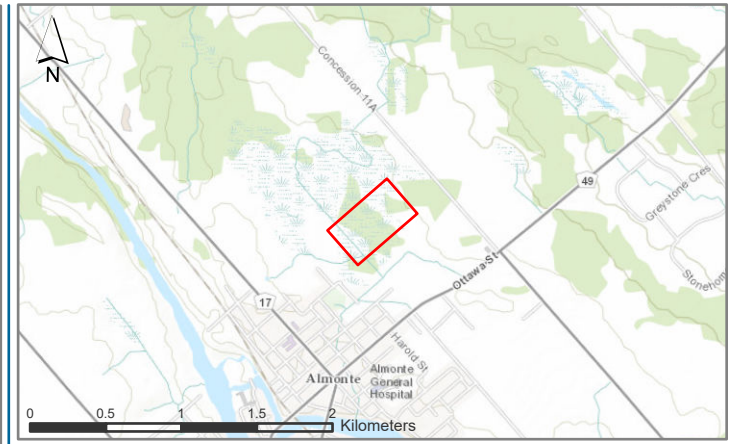
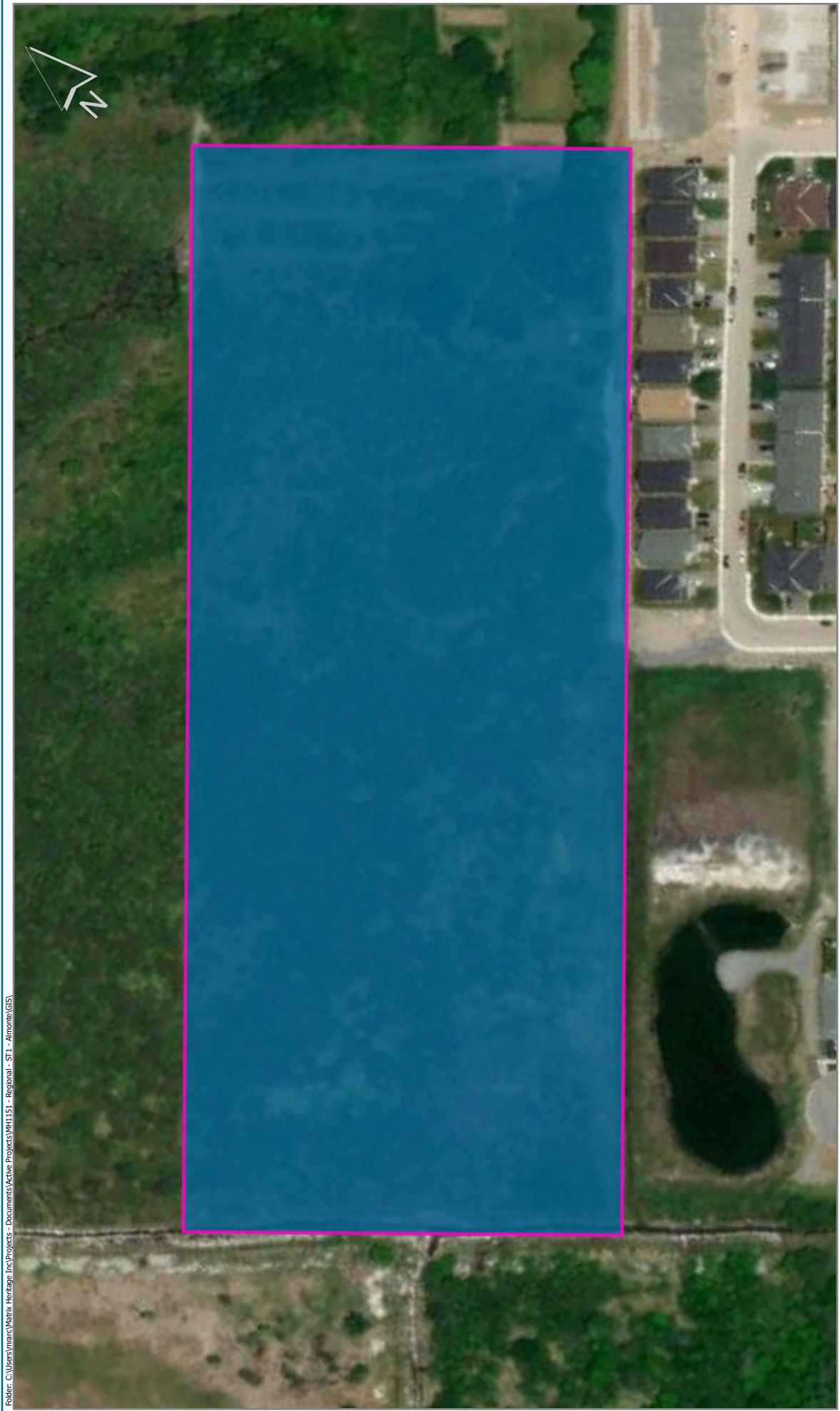
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CONCEPT PLAN 3	DRAWING No. XXXXX-XX

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 PROJECT MENZIE 2, ALMONTE, ONTARIO
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RECOMMENDATIONS
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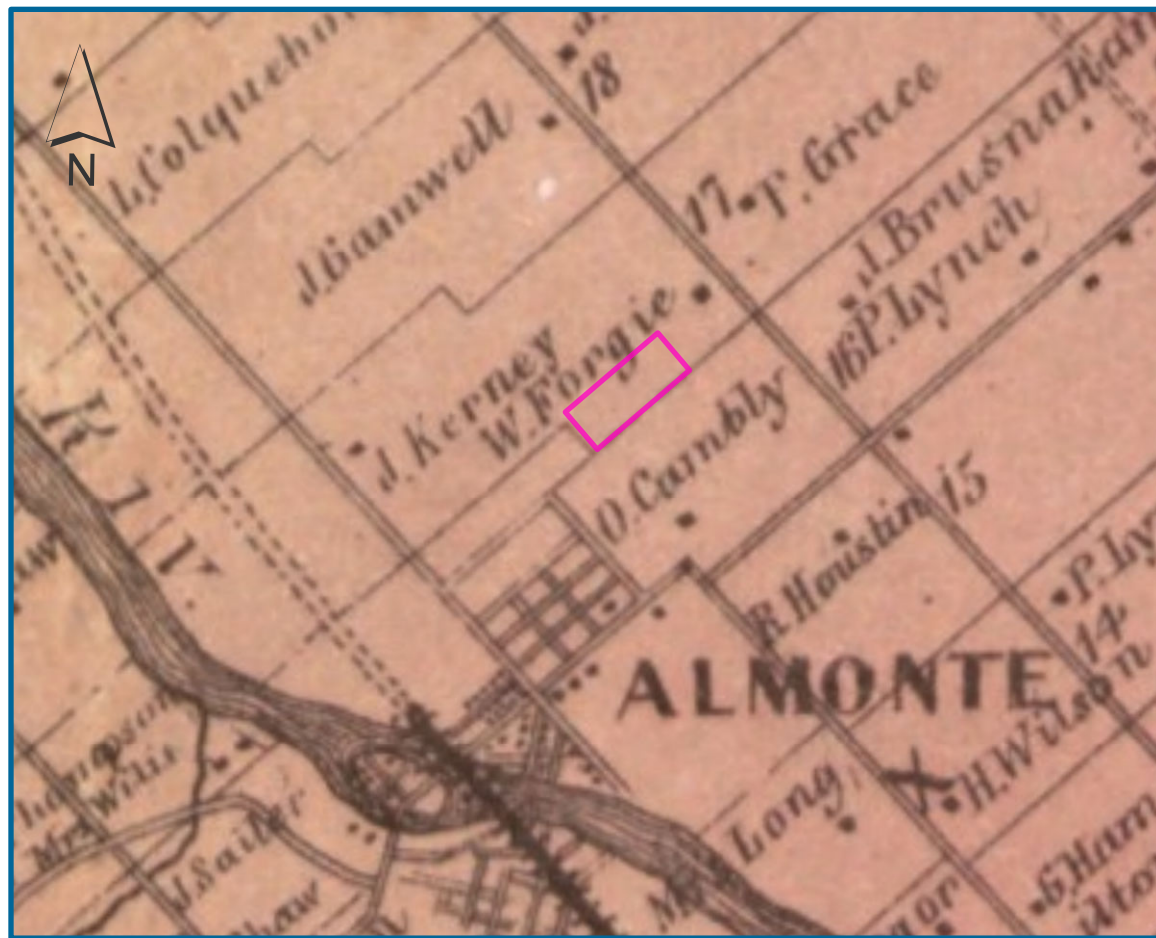
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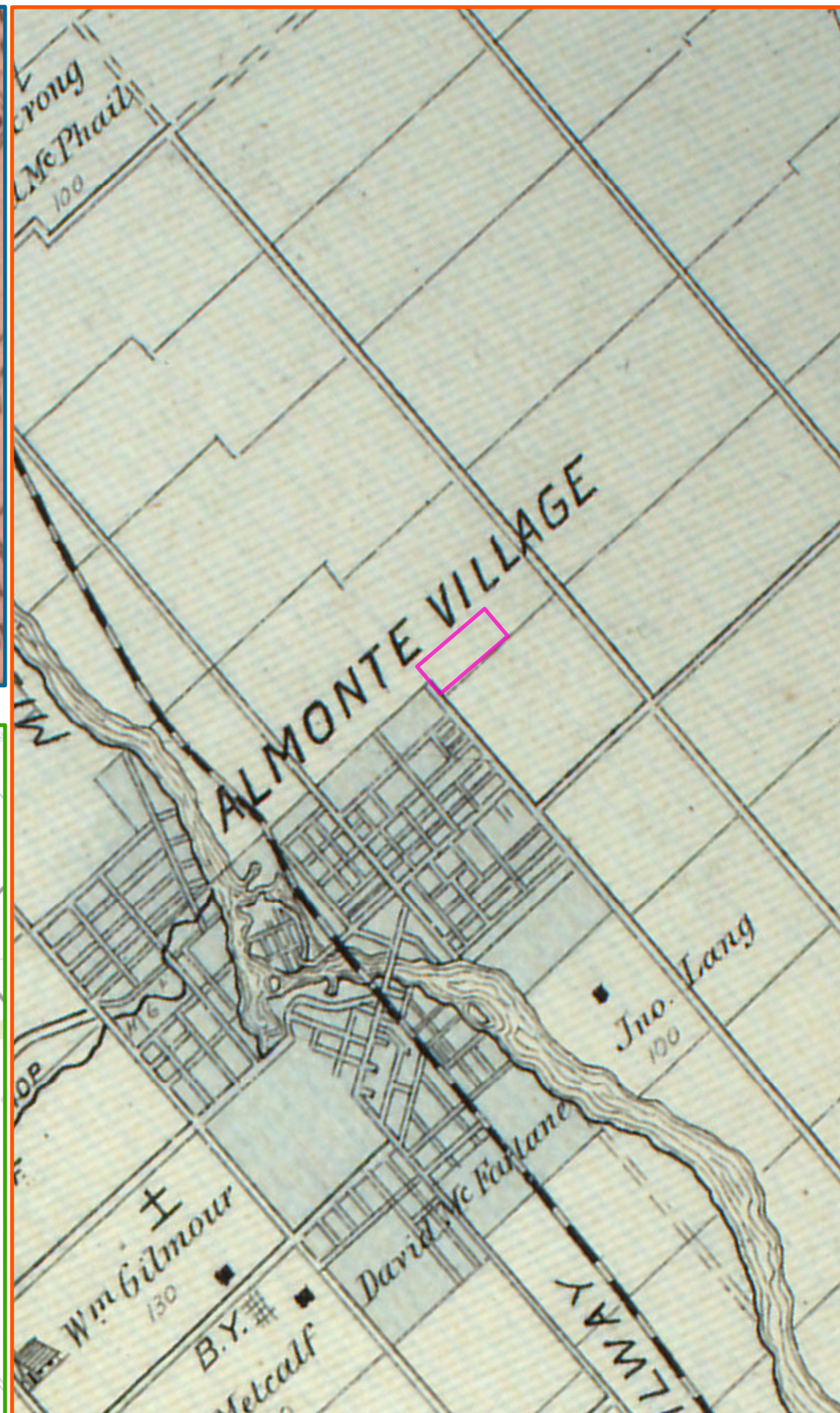
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TITLE **RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONDITIONS** MAP

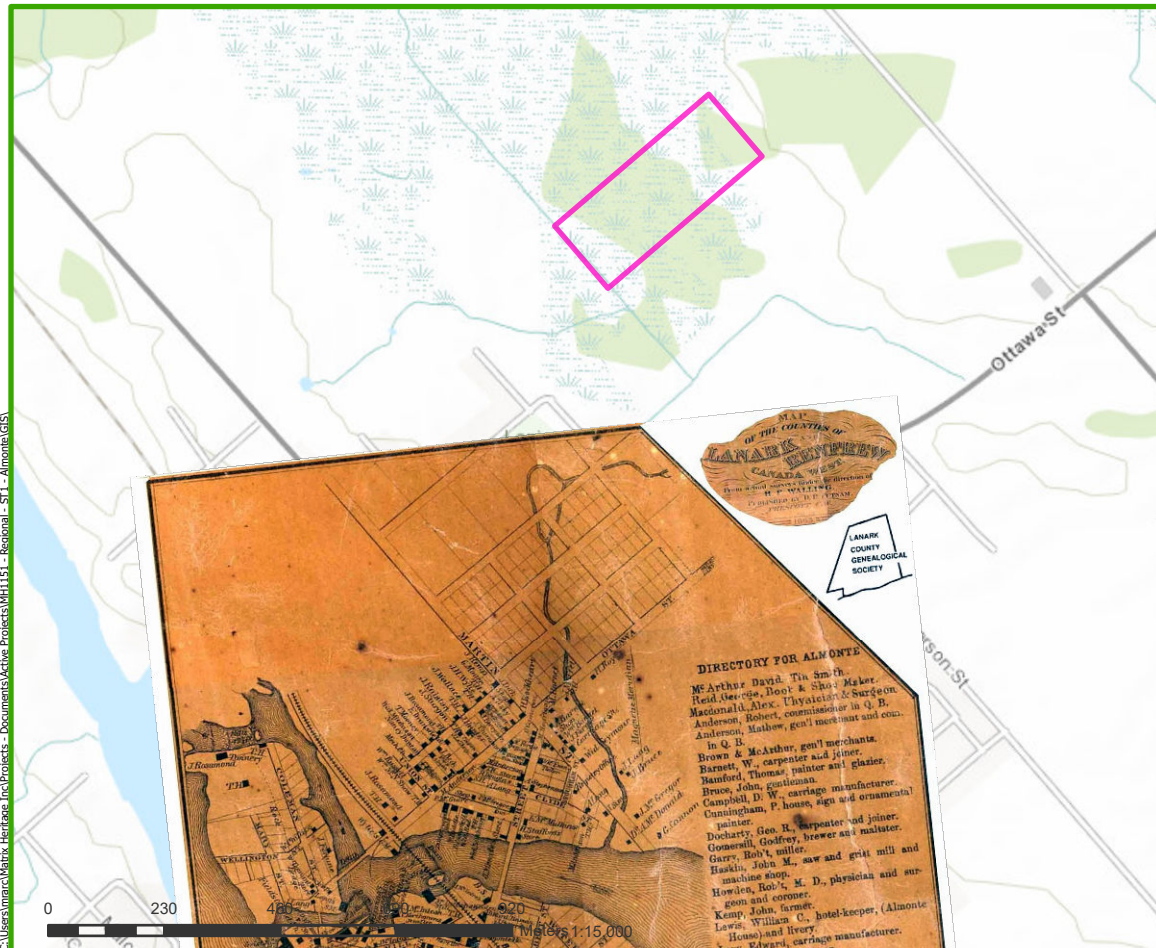
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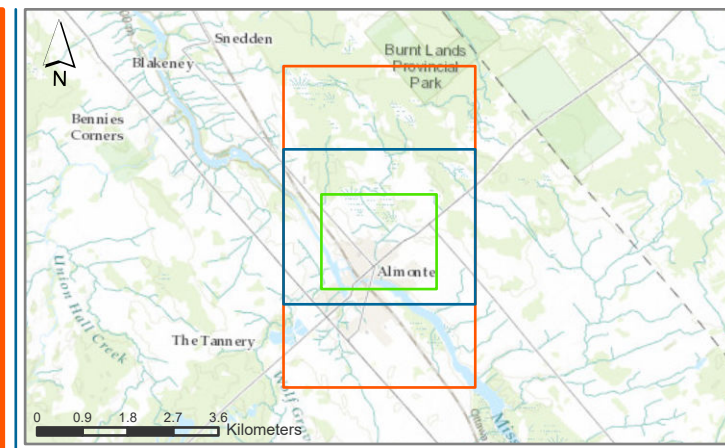
WALLING 1863




BELDEN 1880



WALLING 1863 - ALMONTE TOWN MAP



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 WALLING 1863 MAP OF THE COUNTIES OF LANARK AND RENFREW CANADA WEST FROM ACTUAL SURVEYS UNDER THE DIRECTION OF H.F. WALLING.
 BELDEN 1880 SEGMENT OF THE TOWNSHIP OF RAMSAY FROM THE LANARK SUPPLEMENT IN ILLUSTRATED ATLAS OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA. TORONTO : H. BELDEN & CO., 1880.

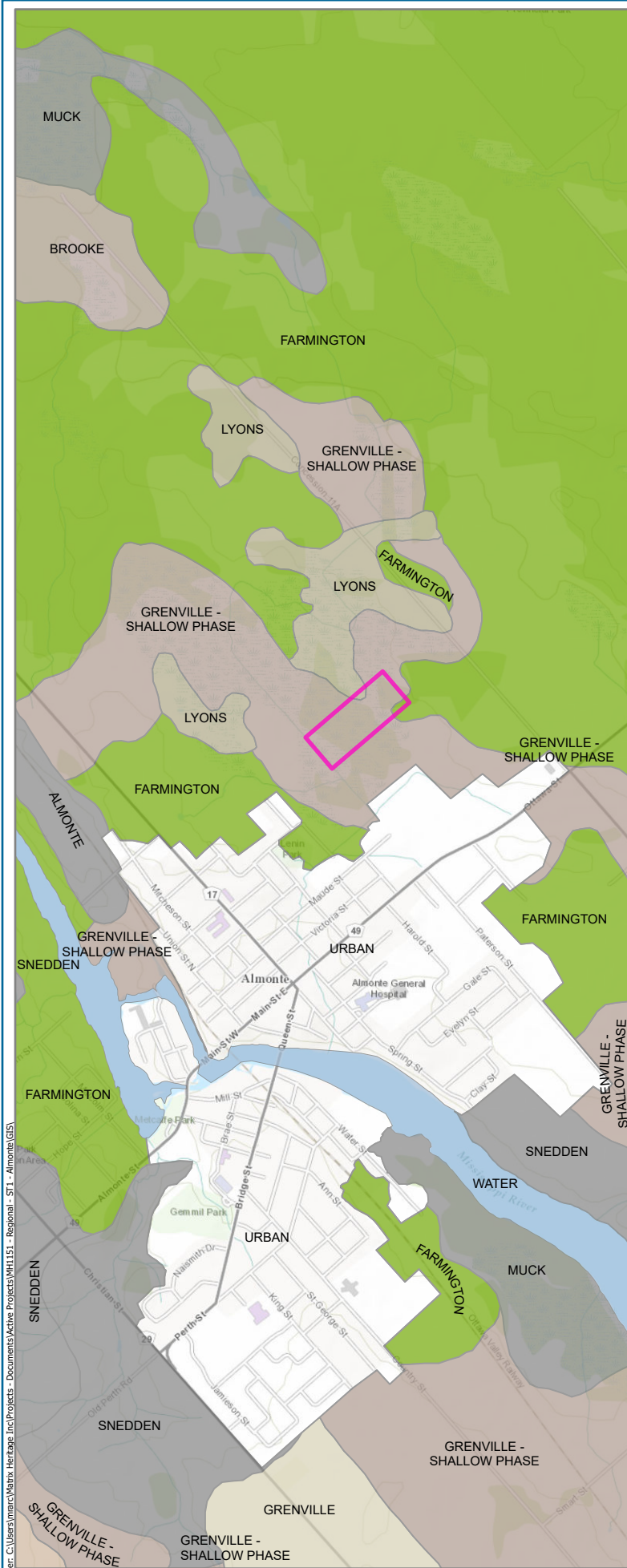
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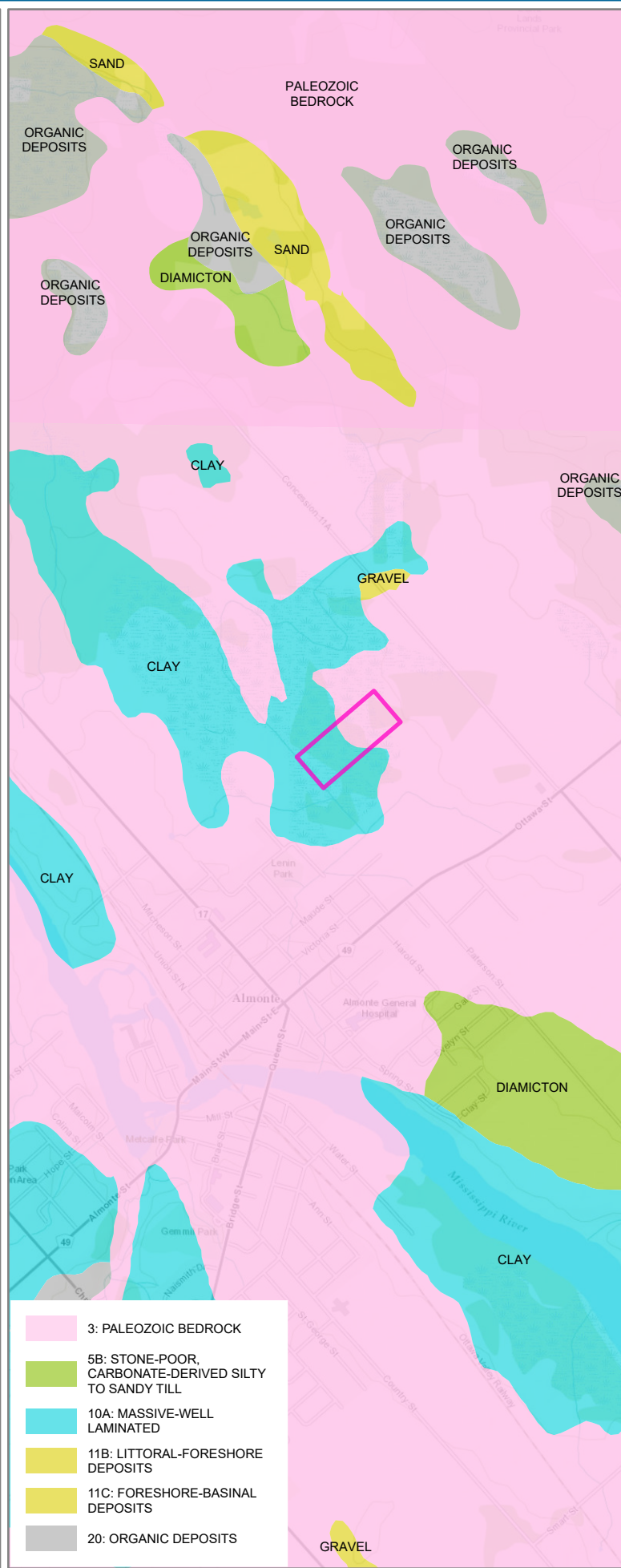
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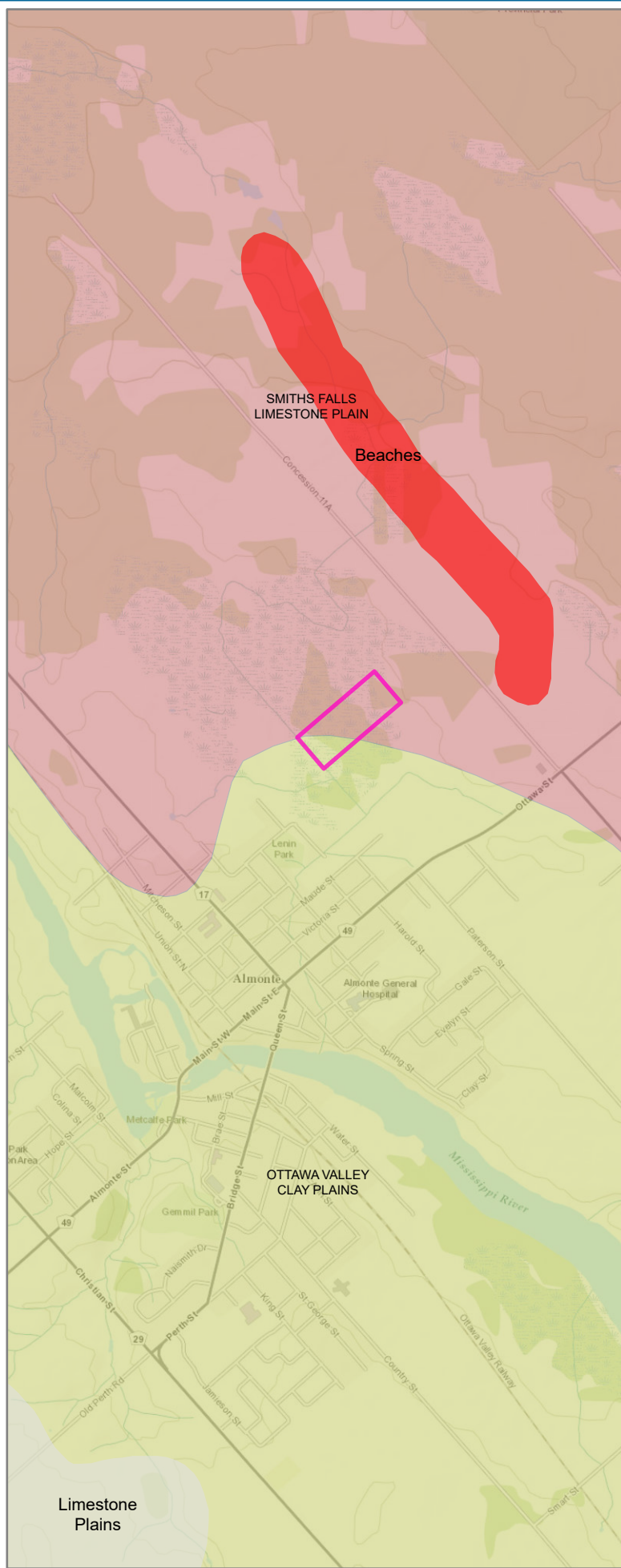
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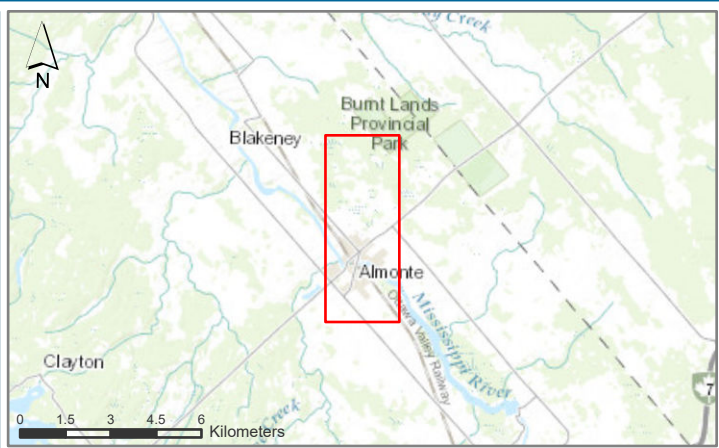
SOIL SURVEY COMPLEX



SURFICIAL GEOLOGY



PHYSIOGRAPHY



LEGEND
 DEVELOPMENT APPLICATION AREA



0 370 740 1,110 1,480
 Meters:1:24,000

REFERENCES:
 CITY OF OTTAWA, PROVINCE OF ONTARIO, ONTARIO MNR, ESRI CANADA, ESRI, HERE, GARMIN, GEOTECHNOLOGIES, INC., USGS, MET/NASA, EPA, USDA, AAFC, NRCAN, CITY OF OTTAWA, ONTARIO BASE MAP, PROVINCE OF ONTARIO, ONTARIO MNR, ESRI CANADA, ESRI, © OPENSTREETMAP CONTRIBUTORS, HERE, GARMIN, USGS, NGA, EPA, USDA, NPS, AAFC, NRCAN
 SOIL SURVEY COMPLEX LIO
 SURFICIAL GEOLOGY OF SOUTHERN ONTARIO 2003
 CHAPMAN AND PUTNAM 2007 PHYSIOGRAPHY OF SOUTHERN ONTARIO

FILE MH1151

DATE 2022-11-24

PROJECTION: NAD 1983 UTM Zone 18N

CREATED BY: BM

CHECKED BY: NK

PROJECT
 STAGE 1 ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT
 PROJECT MENZIE 2, ALMONTE, ONTARIO

TITLE
SOILS AND GEOLOGY

MAP

Appendix A: Map Catalogue

Map Number	Description	Created By
1	Location	B. Mortimer
2	Development Map	B. Mortimer
3	Current Conditions and Recommendations	B. Mortimer
4	Historic	B. Mortimer
5	Soils and Geology	B. Mortimer