



**IS THAT
LINEAGE RIGHT?**

National Society
Daughters of the American Revolution



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Daughters of the American Revolution
1776 D Street NW
Washington, DC 20006-5303

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IS THAT LINEAGE RIGHT?

National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution

It is essential that each Chapter Registrar reads and understands the verification process and what criteria the National Society uses to evaluate applications and supplementals.

Is That Lineage Right should be used with *Is That Service Right, Application Papers: Instructions for their Preparation*, the *DAR Handbook and National Bylaws of the NSDAR*, and the *DAR Patriot Index*. These publications provide the necessary tools for those whose goal is preparing acceptable lineage papers.

The National Society offers these publications to assist the researcher in the absorbing pursuit of genealogy and the search for one's roots. As a lineage society and as Americans, we believe that lineage connects us to the history of this nation.

Before applying for membership in a lineage society, do your homework! Applicants are expected to have researched the lineage thoroughly enough to be aware of problems which might arise during the verification process, and to have documentation to resolve such problems. You, as the applicant, will be required to submit data to prove the parentage of each person from whom descent is claimed, and to prove each date and place of birth, marriage and death given on the lineage paper. Applications from other lineage societies, such as SAR, C.A.R., etc., are not acceptable proof.

THE VERIFICATION PROCEDURE

When an application for membership in the Daughters of the American Revolution is prepared, it will be examined by the registrar of the chapter which the prospective member wishes to join. The Chapter Registrar will make sure the application is filled out *properly*. The following information will help the registrar evaluate the application.

All names are to be listed fully: William Henry Harrison is preferable to W.H. Harrison or William Harrison. Jr. and Sr. are not to be used. (The Society reserves these terms to distinguish father and son of the same name, when both could have provided service in the Revolution.) Dates should be complete (day, month and year) whenever known. If dates of birth, marriage or death are unknown, leave the space blank, but documentation must be submitted to show that the person was living at the time of the birth of the child through whom the applicant descends.

Dates given for each generation should be logical. Scrutinize marriages contracted at very early ages. Beware of extreme longevity and the birth of a child late in a mother's life. Care must be taken to insure that extra generations have not been added, nor generations omitted. **The application must be reasonable and biologically possible.**

The Chapter Registrar will determine that all information given on the lineage paper can be supported by documentation. If the applicant chooses to use, for some of her evidence, printed sources available in the DAR Library, state this fact on her paper. If a previously accepted application is to be used as proof, give the name of the member, and her National number if known.

References are to be fully listed on the application, noting the source of information and the generation to which it applies. All unpublished data must be identifiable: a deed must contain the date and county in which that contract was made, an obituary must show the name of the publication in which it appeared and the date of issue, etc. Make reference to published material in standard bibliographical form: include the complete title, name of author and date of publication. (See **Citation of Sources**, p 25)

The Chapter Registrar will examine the service claimed for the ancestor of the prospective member. The dates on which the service was rendered must fall within the guidelines set by the Society. The type of service and the source of proof must be ones acceptable to the Society. (For further information see NSDAR, *Application Papers, Instructions for their Preparation.*)

If the application does not pass the above scanning procedure, the Chapter Registrar will advise the applicant. She should make specific suggestions concerning the changes required on the paper, and specific requests for additional data which may be needed. After the application is found acceptable by the Chapter Registrar, it will be submitted to an additional verification process by the National Society. Make sure the applicant understands that a request for further documentation does not mean the National Society disapproves her application.

The verifying genealogist at National will compare the lineage portion of the application with the documentation submitted by the applicant to be sure that no typographical or other errors have been made. Beginning with the applicant and working toward the Revolutionary War ancestor, each reference given on the paper will be checked to see that all names, dates, and places are correct, and that proof is presented to show that the persons listed in each generation actually were the parents of the child through whom the applicant claims descent.

After the genealogist has determined that the lineage given on the application paper is possible, all source material available in the library will be used to verify the paper to insure that no errors of identity have been made. If the applicant submits, for instance, the will of John Ball to prove that William Ball was his son, she has proven only that John had a son William, but not that he was identical to the man named on her paper. It may be found that there were five William Balls living in the county at the time the will was written, any one of whom *could have been* the son of John. (See **Problems Frequently Encountered: Identity**, p 28)

If no contradictions can be found on the information given on the application, the lineage is presumed to be correct and the paper may be accepted. If it is determined that an error, or possible error, has been made, the applicant will be notified of the problem, and further documentation will be requested, or the applicant may be asked to apply using a substitute or different ancestor.

The second portion of the application deals with the service of the Revolutionary War ancestor. His place of residence at the time of the Revolution must be proven. If, for instance, civil service is claimed, the man must necessarily have been a resident of the town or county in which the civil service was performed. In the case of military service, it is assumed that the man lived in the locality from which the military unit was recruited. **If it is said that he served from some other geographical area, evidence is needed to conclusively identify the man with the service.**

Once his place of residence has been determined, it must be shown that—

1. The man was living at the time the service was performed;
2. He was of an age suitable to have performed the service;
3. It is reasonable to assume that he, and not another man of the same name, actually performed the service.

This procedure is followed for all application papers, including those for which the Revolutionary War ancestor is a previously established patriot.

It should be noted that all applications are subject to modification or revocation as new information becomes available. Many previous papers have been found to be inaccurate or undocumented and applicants may be asked to submit additional documentation to substantiate the line. If all lineage papers were complete and no mistakes had ever been made, an application based on previously accepted papers could be verified merely for the recent generations. In the early days of the Society, however, few dates and places were required and there were numerous misidentifications. It is now known that many genealogies compiled from tradition were accepted without authentic evidence.

Every organization that wishes to maintain a high standard of historical truth must constantly strive to bring its older records up to date, and to supplement them from newly discovered data. When an incomplete paper (with few dates and places, and no references given for lineage or service) is used as a basis for a new application, the applicant must furnish sufficient information to adequately identify each person named in the line of descent. She must also document the Revolutionary War ancestor with his place of residence and service during the Revolution.

A **Legacy** membership may be issued to women who are eligible to apply for membership using a short form. The genealogist will attempt to verify the short form using current genealogical standards, however, should that not be possible, a Legacy may be issued. This will be assigned when the verifying genealogist encounters problems on the lineage or the service of the application referenced. A sequentially assigned membership number will be given with the designation, "Legacy." Legacy will not be allowed if the patriot's line is closed. A legacy designation may not be applied to a supplemental application. **If you, or the applicant, do not want the short form application designated "Legacy," you should submit a long form application with appropriate documentation.**

EVIDENCE

Types of Evidence

Many prospective members who thought they had submitted sufficient documentation to prove their lineages have been confused by requests for more information. Applicants should be aware of errors that can exist in various types of records.

Primary evidence is the undistorted record of an event made at the time it occurred.

Secondary evidence is the record of an event made after it occurred. The value of such records decreases proportionately with the amount of time elapsed before the making of the record. The sooner it was recorded, the more reliable the record is believed to be. A death certificate, made on the day of death, is usually an accurate account of the date and place of death. All other information given may be wholly or partially in error, including the name of the deceased! Any certificate should be considered reliable for only the event it records.

Deeds, wills and other court records are as accurate as the clerk who copied them in the record books. These documents were usually copied exactly. Be aware, however, when using a transcription and abstraction, that punctuation (and even whole words) may have been added or omitted.

Church Registers containing baptismal and marriage records are often erroneous. Entries were frequently made considerably after the event, by a minister who trusted scraps of paper he carried around in his pocket or who relied solely on his memory. Entries occasionally were not made, or made incorrectly. Baptismal records which agree with no other obtainable information are probably wrong.

Accounts of events made by participants are only as good as the memory of the participant, and his perceptions at the time of the event. For instance, accounts of battles found in pension applications are often considerably in error. These records were made several decades after the battles by men who, at the time, devoted their attentions to staying alive. Bible records are also recollections of events, for in few cases was the entry made at the time

the birth or death occurred. Bible records may err by several days or even years. (Other examples of evidence are described in **Sources of Information**, p 13)

However great the possibility of error may be, secondary evidence is usually that which can be obtained best. Use the records with caution, and with the understanding that they can be wrong. Several documents proving the same point may diminish the possibility of significant errors.

Hearsay information, commonly held to be true by a family or residents of a particular locality, **may be wholly false**. Family tradition is valuable to the genealogist if it enables them to obtain documentation they could not otherwise have found. However, by itself, it is not sufficient evidence for the verification of a lineage paper. (For further discussion of evidence, its types and values, see Elizabeth Shown Mills, *Evidence! Citation & Analysis for the Family Historian*, 1997.)

DAR Standards of Acceptability

The National Society requests that application papers be proven by the *best possible evidence*. Birth and baptismal records are usually the best evidence to prove parentage for recent generations.

Photocopies of documents are the preferred forms of evidence to be submitted with an application paper, since the documents are not returned to the applicant. Never alter a photocopy. Many well-meaning applicants have written over words or dates on a dim photocopy, and totally destroyed its value as evidence. If the copy is unreadable, try to get one that is clear. The applicant may want to provide a transcript of the original.

When photocopying Bible records, be sure to copy all the handwritten family entries. Include a copy of the title page and the publication date page. A statement should accompany these copies listing—

- The name and place of residence of the original owner of the Bible
- The names of subsequent owners, if known
- The name and address of the current owner of the Bible

If the records were copied at some time in the past, and the current whereabouts of the Bible is unknown, make a statement concerning the circumstances under which the Bible was copied, and the name and address of the owner of the Bible at the time it was copied.

When submitting old family letters or other papers, be sure they are identifiable. Old letters should contain—

- The signature of the writer
- The date the letter was written
- The name of the person to whom it was written

A statement should accompany the letter giving the full names of the writer and recipient, and their relationship, if any. Be sure to give the name and address of the present owner of the letter.

It is not always possible to obtain photocopies. A Bible may be too fragile, and courthouses do not always have copy machines available. In this case, an exact copy must be made of the document to be used as evidence. Be sure to copy *exactly*, using spelling and punctuation identical to the original. It is best to have a second person check the copy for accuracy. Before such a document may be used as evidence for a DAR application paper, it must be notarized.

If published sources, *not available in the DAR Library*, are to be used for proof, all of the pertinent pages must be copied, as well as the title page and the page containing the copyright date.

Do not submit lineage papers of another hereditary society, or unsubstantiated family manuscripts, as evidence. Bible entries for events considerably predating the publication of the Bible and altered documents are not acceptable.

When several documents must be used to prove a single point, attach an explanation of the problem to be solved, and the documents proving the solution. The Society genealogist does not have time to work out complex problems, nor do they have your intimate knowledge of the family.

Revolutionary War service should be proven by the best evidence obtainable. Photocopies of original pay vouchers or muster

rolls, as kept in state archives, are best to prove military service. Lists of these soldiers have been published, and are evidence acceptable to the Society if the lists appear to have been compiled from reliable sources by accurate copyists.

Town and county records are the sources usually used to prove civil and patriotic service. Photocopies of such records should contain the date and place of record. Civil lists and abstracts of court minutes have been published; such sources are generally accepted by the Society as proof of service.

Sometimes, for want of a better record, hearsay evidence is accepted as proof if certain conditions can be met. These are illustrated by the following account:

In 1903 the daughter-in-law of a Revolutionary War soldier wrote, for the benefit of her deceased husband's relatives, what she knew of his family. She gave the names of her husband's brothers and their wives. She said that her father-in-law had lived with her family for the twelve years preceding his death in 1848. During that time he had told many times of his first meeting with his future wife. He is reported to have said that she was a young girl at the time of the Battle of King's Mountain and carried water onto the field to General Sevier. Reportedly, her father lived at the base of the mountain where he manufactured gunpowder and he was the man who killed Colonel Ferguson!

Shortly after the letter was written, a photographic copy of it was submitted to the Society as proof of lineage. Seventy-five years later, a DAR genealogist found this old letter in the files, and used it to establish Revolutionary War service for the soldier's father-in-law because:

1. The document appeared authentic. There were no discernible erasures or additions. There was no reason to suppose it had been written by anyone other than the person claimed.
2. The document was not self-serving. The writer had nothing to gain for herself by the statements she made.
3. The writer had reason to know, of her own personal knowledge, the facts of the statement. She was not, of course, present at the Battle of King's Mountain, but she *was* capable of

doing what she claimed to have done, hear the statements made by her father-in-law.

4. The statements made seemed logical and reasonable.
5. The account could be partially substantiated. A name identical to that given for the soldier's father-in-law was found in the early deed books of Spartanburg County, South Carolina. A marriage record, in the right place and at the right time, was found for the soldier and the woman claimed to have been his wife.
6. The account could not be disproved.
7. There was no other evidence known to exist. Lists were not kept of the men who fought at King's Mountain.

The obvious pride of the soldier indicated that his father-in-law had actually participated in the battle. It did *not* demonstrate that he was the man who killed the British Colonel, Patrick Ferguson.

If a document such as the one described above is submitted, it *must be* capable of meeting these requirements, or *it will not be accepted*. The Society *prefers* not to accept hearsay evidence, and will not do so when it is suspected that a better record is available.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION

Printed Material

The types of books most commonly used by genealogists are source materials such as family histories, collected genealogies, compendiums and local histories. Periodicals include one or more of these types of material. There is a tendency to assume that if a thing is printed it is true. This is far from the case. The same standard of credibility applies to the printed work as to the unpublished original, with the added reservation that there may have been errors made in the transcription or in the printing.

Printed source materials, with due allowance for omissions and errors in copying and printing, are given the same value as the similar type of unpublished records. It is usually easy to judge

from the volume whether care was used in its preparation and whether the copyist knew the handwriting of the period. Such works are acceptable only to the extent that the source of the statement of fact is given, and such source can be checked.

Donald Lines Jacobus once wrote, "Family histories are in general the least trustworthy sources for establishing lines of descent." The reasons for this statement are not hard to find. Data included in a published genealogy are derived from a variety of sources: primary records (wills, deeds, tax lists, military pensions, church registers, etc.), the faulty recollections of members of the family, and other printed books which may have been carelessly compiled. The early generations may be based on original documents which the compilers may or may not have transcribed correctly, and from which they may have drawn correct or erroneous conclusions. Information on recent generations is usually based on the personal knowledge and private records of relatives and *generally* is accurate.

In evaluating a genealogy, certain criteria should be considered:

- It includes both dates and places for births, deaths, and marriages.
- It provides historical perspective by giving details about the family members.
- Information could have been given to the author by living relatives who had personal knowledge of people and events.

If the author is a genealogist who is well known for his or her attention to primary sources, the careful sifting of evidence, and the soundness of the conclusions, the work may be accepted virtually without question.

One should view with suspicion any genealogy that begins with the statement that three brothers came to this country in colonial days. It is a tradition in nearly every family. There are a few such instances, but only a few, and any competent genealogist would support such a statement with ample evidence. An author who makes the statement without giving evidence to support it shows they accept traditions uncritically and are very inexperienced in genealogical research. Their other statements may therefore be equally unreliable.

The careful genealogist cites their sources and abstracts them or quotes them in full to support their statements. In considering whether a published genealogy will meet DAR standards, evaluate the sources cited by the author.

Collected genealogies and compendiums are based on information provided by members of the families listed in the collection. The researcher must verify the information by independent investigation. Some collections list “authorities” at the end of the family history without indicating the exact statements supported by such references. Sometimes there are statements of fact for which there are no supporting citations. Collections of genealogies merely containing a bibliography or a citation for the entire genealogy, rather than for specific statements, must be considered as acceptable only to the extent that the citations are found to support the facts stated.

Family data in local histories vary in quality. Such histories written prior to 1885 may be considered as generally accurate for the family history of the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary period, because they are usually based on statements made by members of the family who had personal knowledge of the persons and events described. Local histories published later cannot be accepted unquestioningly for the early generations of the families. No local histories published later than 1850 can be considered as authoritative about persons or family history prior to 1750. The rule is the same as for other types of evidence. The information must at least purport to have been furnished by someone who knew it of his or her own knowledge, not one who is merely repeating what he or she has been told. **As in the case of collected genealogies and compendiums, an independent investigation of the family must be made in order to assure the accuracy of genealogical data.**

If a genealogy does not cite the exact source, statements in it are subject to doubt, no matter who compiled it. In judging a compilation, do not be deceived by extraneous elements such as binding, paper, graphics or color. The important point is: **does it cite sufficient evidence to support the statements it makes?**

Collections of genealogies compiled by commercial firms or obtained from the Internet may be utilized only to the extent that they give references to acceptable sources, and those sources must then be examined. A genealogy that includes an overabundance of unverified tradition should not be accepted as a reference for any facts except possibly for the contemporary generation. In short, consider the sources cited and can you retrace the author’s research. If you can, it is probably an authentic genealogy.

Census Records

The first Federal census was taken in 1790 for all states then in existence, and the Southwest Territory (Tennessee). This enumeration listed only the heads of household by name. The members of the households were given as numbers in the following categories: free white males sixteen and older, free white males under sixteen, white females, other free persons, and slaves. The census records for New Jersey, Delaware, Virginia, Georgia, Kentucky and the Southwest Territory are missing.

The extant 1790 census returns were published by the U.S. Census Bureau, and are available in most large libraries. Published in that series, under the title of *First Census of the United States, 1790 Virginia*, are state tax lists of the years 1782-1785 for about half of the counties. This furnishes a portion of the information appearing in the census, but includes only the persons taxed. Tax lists for the same period for counties not included in the *1790 Census* have been published in *Virginia Tax Payers 1782-1787, Other Than Those Published by the United States Census Bureau*, by Augusta B. Fothergill and John Mark Naugle (1940).

A valuable record in lieu of the missing 1790 census for Delaware are the tax lists compiled by the State Archivist, and published by the National Genealogical Society as *Special Publication No. 10: Reconstruction of the 1790 Census of Delaware*, by Leon DeValinger, Jr. (1954). Also based on tax lists is the *First Census of Kentucky, 1790*, by Charles Brunk Heinemann (1940). It helps to fill the gap created by the loss of Kentucky’s first census.

Other useful tax lists are *Early East Tennessee Taxpayers* by Pollyanna Creekmore (1980), and *Some Early Tax Digests of Georgia* by Ruth Blair (1926). A census was taken in New Jersey of the men capable of serving in the militia. This census has been published as *New Jersey in 1793* by James S. Norton (1973).

Every ten years an enumeration was made for each state and territory.

Each succeeding census varied in form. The information given in 1800 and 1810 is the same. These listed the names of heads of households, with the number of males and females in various age groups: under 10, 10-16, 16-26, 26-45, 45 and over. Slaves were shown by number. The 1800 census for Kentucky is missing. A useful substitute is G. Glenn Clift's *Second Census of Kentucky, 1800* (1954). It lists several thousand names.

The 1820 census was similar to the preceding two, except that an additional column was added: one showing males from 16 to 18. This was primarily for military purposes. Those in this bracket were also shown in the bracket "16 to 26" and care must be taken not to mistake the total number in a family.

The 1830 and 1840 enumerations show a new division in the age groups, the same for male and female: five year groupings up to the age of 20, then ten year groupings, the last being "100 and over". The 1840 census added a column for all known pensioners of the United States. In both 1830 and 1840, only heads of families are shown by name.

The 1850 census was the first which listed each individual by name, age, color, occupation, sex, amount of real estate owned, and place of birth. There was a column indicating if a couple had been married within the year. Although only the state or country of birth was requested on this census, some enumerators gave the specific county as well as the state of birth. Such data are of great value in pinpointing a family's origin or former locale.

The 1860 census is much the same as that for 1850 except that a column was added showing the value of personal estate.

In 1870, several new columns were included. The most important were those which showed if the parents of those listed were of foreign birth, and one which showed the age of a child in

months, if born within the year. The column showing personal estate was omitted.

The 1880 census was similar to the 1870. The column showing the value of real estate was not included. The most important columns appearing for the first time were those which showed the relationship of all persons in a household, and the birthplace (state or country) of the parents of all those enumerated.

The 1890 census exists for only a few areas. In 1921 a fire badly damaged this census, and Congress authorized its disposal.

The 1900 census included columns showing the month and year of birth of all persons in the household, and one for the number of years a couple had been married. For females, the number of children born to the mother, and the number living at the time, was stated. For immigrants, the year of arrival and the number of years in the country were given. There was a column indicating if an immigrant had been naturalized. There were also columns showing whether a person owned, rented, or owed mortgages on a house or farm.

In the various census schedules, the name of a city, town or township is not always given. Leeway was given the enumerator for obtaining his data. An enumerator in one part of the country might be better able to do his work at a different time than one in another part of the country. There was an official enumeration date, such as June 1 in 1860.

The DAR Seimes Technology Center has copies of the films of the 1800 through 1900 Federal censuses, as well as the films for a few states for later enumerations. The Center also owns films of some state censuses that were taken between the Federal decennial ones. Printed indexes to the Federal censuses are housed in the Center. In addition, online subscriptions to Ancestry Library Edition and to Heritage Quest provide researchers with quick access to all available Federal census records, including the 1910, 1920 and 1930 enumerations. The microfilms and printed indexes are, however, still important because of omissions in the online versions and problems with indexing. It is best to check both versions to be thorough.

In addition to the regular census returns, there have been special enumerations providing information of interest to the genealogist.

Mortality schedules were begun in 1850. These listed, by name, all persons who died within the year preceding the official date of the census, giving the age of the deceased person, sex, place of birth and other pertinent information. Some years ago the Census Bureau received permission to return these Mortality Schedules to the states concerned.

In 1890 there was a special census made of Union soldiers of the Civil War, although full data, as in regular enumerations, were not required. Since the 1890 census schedules were destroyed some years ago, this list of Union Veterans supplies some information available from that census.

There were non-Federal enumerations made from time to time. These include the various state census returns. For example, in New York State they were made every ten years, but between the Federal enumerations. The 1855 schedule is especially valuable because it gives the county of birth for each person listed.

Prior to the close of the Revolution, there were census enumerations made in various colonies at irregular intervals. A good account of these is given in *A Century of Population Growth from the First Census of the United States to the Twelfth*, published in 1909 by the Bureau of the Census. In early colonial days there was an occasional census of some specific locality, but no attempt is made here to include such items.

Pension and Bounty Land Records

Federal pensions, given after all of our wars, are a source of much genealogical information. The soldier applied to the court in the county where he lived. Some of the men were very old and ill, and could not always remember details of their service. If possible, they gave the year of enlistment, names of their officers, skirmishes and battles. Proof of service was required and often the applicant would name some men who fought with him. Under some pension laws the value of his property and the names of his dependents then living with him were required. In the case of a

pension to a widow, evidence of marriage was required. Often Bible records were filed as proof. Applications for bounty land are filed with the pension records. The originals of all these records are in the National Archives and are available for research.

Benefits differed under the various pension acts.

Prior to 1818 the only pensions were those for the relief of officers and soldiers who were disabled in service. These are called the "Old Invalid Acts." Most of the original papers were destroyed when the War Department burned in 1800 and 1814. The names of the pensioners, and in some instances certain information about them, can be found in *Alphabetical List of Private Claims...Presented to the House of Representatives from the First to the Thirty-First Congress...3 vols.* (Washington. DC, 1853), and in "Recently Discovered Records Relating to Revolutionary War Veterans Who Applied for Pensions Under the Act of 1792," abstracted by Mary Govier Kennedy, past Registrar General, NSDAR, and published in the *National Genealogical Society Quarterly*, March and June 1958.

The Act of March 18, 1818 covered officers and enlisted men of the Continental Establishment of the Army and Navy who were in reduced circumstances. The period of service required was for nine months at any time, or service to the end of the war.

The Act of May 1, 1820, known as the "Alarm Act," required all pensioners then on the rolls to file a schedule of property in their possession. As a result, many were dropped from the rolls.

The Act of May 15, 1828 covered officers and men who had served to the end of the war.

The Act of June 7, 1832 covered officers and men in the Continental Line, volunteers and militia, and of the Navy and Marines. Indigence was not a test under this Act. It was the first to provide for volunteers and the militia.

The Act of July 4, 1836 was the first to provide for widows of soldiers, if the widow was married to the soldier *before the close* of his service.

The Act of July 7, 1838 provided for a widow who was married *prior* to January 1, 1794.

The Acts of March 3, 1843, February 2, 1848 and July 29, 1848 provided for widows who had married *prior* to January 1, 1800.

The Act of February 3, 1853 provided for widows who had married *after* January 1, 1800.

These pensions ran for a term of five years and were continued by Acts of Congress. By the Act of June 3, 1858 all pensions were continued for life.

Under the Act of July 29, 1848, if the widow did not receive a pension while living, her children could apply for the amount due from the passage of the Act until her death.

The Act of February 14, 1871 provided for all soldiers and sailors who had served 60 days in the War of 1812 and the widows of such men who were married *prior* to February 17, 1815.

The Act of March 9, 1878, provided for all widows of soldiers and sailors of the Revolution and for soldiers and sailors who had served 14 days in the War of 1812, or who were engaged in battle, and the widows of such men without regard to date of marriage.

The Act of January 29, 1887 provided for soldiers and sailors of the Mexican War, and their widows, who were 62 years of age, or subject to pension for disability or dependency.

The Act of July 27, 1892 provided for veterans of various Indian wars, and the surviving widows of such men.

These pension applications provided valuable information such as the date of birth, marriage, and changes of residence on the part of children of Revolutionary veterans.

Sometimes the date of death of a pensioner can be found because of notification that he had died and payment was stopped, or because the family asked for the last payment. In many cases the family did not know to ask for the amount due from the last payment to the date of death. This information is not given in the pension record. The attendant in the Search Room at National Archives will assist a researcher if the name of the soldier, certificate number, and city and state of the pension agency are known.

The Act of September 16, 1776 granted land to soldiers of the Revolutionary War who served until the close of the war, or who were discharged by Congress, and to representatives of such sol-

diers “as shall be slain by the enemy.” The number of acres received depended upon the rank of the soldier.

The Act of December 24, 1811 covered non-commissioned officers and soldiers who enlisted for five years.

The Act of December 10, 1814 increased the acreage allowed non-commissioned officers and men who “shall enlist” after that date until the close of the War of 1812.

The Act of February 11, 1847 provided land for those who served in the Mexican War.

By the Act of September 28, 1850, those who had served in the Indian wars from 1790 until the date of the Act, in the War of 1812, or in the Mexican War, were entitled to bounty land. The Act of March 22, 1852 amended this to include troops of any state or territory who had served since 1812.

The Act of March 3, 1855 provided bounty lands for officers and privates who had served 14 days, or in a battle in any war of the United States from 1790 to the date of the Act, and for Revolutionary War soldiers who had received less than 160 acres of bounty land under previous acts.

The National Genealogical Society has published an *Index of Revolutionary War Pension Applications in the National Archives: Bicentennial Edition*, revised and enlarged (Washington, DC, 1976). This gives the name of the pensioner, the state from which he served, and the designated number of the pension file preceded by “S” for soldier, “W” for widow, and “R” for rejected claim. (Frequently the rejected claim file will give more information about the soldier than the one promptly accepted.)

There is no general list published of pensions for the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the various Indian wars, or the Regular Army.

In using pension papers to substantiate claims made on lineage papers, remember—

- They are self-serving declarations
- The advanced age of the persons making the declarations created many errors based on faulty memory

- They were oral declarations, taken down in court, and the person writing them may have misunderstood names or omitted a portion of what the soldier or his widow said.

Vital Records

The words “vital records” are commonly used to indicate birth, marriage and death records kept by town, county, or state officers. They do not refer to dates obtained from church, Bible or cemetery records.

In New England, from the establishment of a town until state registration began, vital records were kept in the towns. Outside New England, there was no general registration of births or deaths prior to state requirements, except occasionally for brief periods.

The maintenance of state records was begun at times widely varying from state to state. Reference works, such as *Handy Book for Genealogists*, edited by George B. Everton Sr., indicates the date from which records may be available from a state. It also gives the name and address of the agency where a request should be submitted. Many states now have web sites providing current information to request vital records. Until the advent of Social Security there was not the insistence on keeping public records. Many times births and deaths were not recorded, even though state law directed residents to do so.

Sometimes states kept birth and death records for a brief time, and then discontinued the practice. For example, in Virginia the county court kept such records from 1853 until 1896, but not again until 1912. In some states, cities and counties began keeping vital records prior to the state registration.

Many of the Massachusetts town records of birth, marriage and death prior to 1850 have been published. For lists of these, see *The New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, 135 (July 1981): 183-194.

The Connecticut vital records prior to 1850 have not been published as a series, but many have been collected at the Connecticut State Library where an index is available. Microfilms of these records are in the NSDAR Seimes Technology Center in Washington, DC.

Some extracts of vital records have been published, particularly in town histories or in historical and genealogical magazines.

Vital records are the official record of the event recorded, and are authoritative unless proven in error. It must be remembered that the information was furnished to the public authorities by members of the family, or others, and is only as accurate as the source of that information.

Maps and Atlases

Maps are invaluable in genealogical research. The most important function served by the use of maps is the relationship of geographic features and the identification of localities. Often it is only through study of maps that one can determine a line of migration, or the probable location of records for an area.

There were atlases for many states prepared by various commercial firms in the 1870s or thereabouts, which show the various counties or section of counties, and often give the names of householders. Many of these are listed in *County Atlases for Genealogical Use*, by Tressie Nash Shull, reprinted from its *Quarterly* by National Genealogical Society in its Special Publication No. 14: *General Aids to Genealogical Research*.

For details of natural features between 1884 and 1950, which are helpful in determining exactly where a person lived, the series of quadrangles issued by the U.S. Geological Survey is of great value. These maps show by contours the hills and valleys, water-courses, houses and often churches and cemeteries. They are in varying scales, but most are either one or two inches to the mile and cover an area of approximately twenty miles. There is an “Index Map” of each state (showing the area covered by each quadrangle) which may be obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey web site.

Many old manuscript maps, made prior to 1870, are still available in state libraries or land offices. There are lists of modern maps; there is no single list of early maps (manuscripts and printed) of the states, counties and towns of the United States. A number of such maps are listed in bibliographies and in catalogues of the Library of Congress and other large libraries and may be easily located.

CITATION OF SOURCES

Application papers must have, as references, the sources of proof used for every date and place of birth, marriage and death given for each generation. Reference must be made to documentation used to prove each relationship. Unfortunately, space on lineage papers is limited, and there is often limited room to list all sources.

It is far preferable that as much information as possible be listed on the reference page itself. For this reason, if a particular reference work is to be used several times, it is suggested that an abbreviation be devised by the applicant, and the same abbreviation be used consistently on the application whenever it is needed. If, for instance, several references are to be made to the published translations of the Kingston, New York, baptismal and marriage records, the citation should be written:

Roswell Randall Hoes, *Baptismal and Marriage Registers of the Old Dutch Church of Kingston, N.Y.*, 1891, v 1, p 270.

Since this reference is to be used again, an abbreviation should be listed in parentheses after the title, such as (Hoes) or (KB&M) or simply (K). The second time this book is used, the reference may read:

Hoes, v 2, p 629.

All published material should be referenced giving the:

1. author,
2. title,
3. year of edition used, and
4. page or pages on which the material is to be found.

Unpublished records require different kinds of citations. In those generations where certificates of birth, marriage and death can be used, it is enough to state the types of certificates used.

This can be listed:

Gen. 2: bc, dc, mc/name

(Copies of these documents must, of course, accompany the application.)

Deeds, wills and other court records require more complete identification. The citation must include the county and state in which the instrument was recorded, and the book and pages of record. An example of such a record is:

Montgomery Co., Va., Deed Book A, pp 57-58.

The words “census records” are presumed by the Society to mean the Federal census records unless otherwise noted. Citations for these should list the **year of the census, the state and county, the page on which the family is found, and the family number**. Townships, when given by the census taker, should also be listed. An example of a census citation is:

1860 Arkansas Census, Greene Co., Totten Twp., p 311, #273.

State census records are listed similarly:

1855 New York State Census, Broome Co., p 43, #10.

A listing of tax records should give the name of the county and state, the year of the tax, and the page of the record:

Hancock Co., Ga., 1813 Tax List, p 49.

Bible records should be referenced to clearly identify the original owner of the Bible, and to give as much information about the Bible as possible. It is not sufficient to refer to the “Smith Bible.” Instead, the citation should include the complete name of the original owner of the Bible, the earliest and latest dates

recorded therein, plus the name and place of residence of the current owner:

John Henry Smith Bible 1747-1903, owned by Charles Lawrence Smith, Lubbock, Tex.

In all cases, references to unpublished data must be made on the lineage paper, and copies of that data must accompany the application. (Further requirements for submission of unpublished data are given in **Evidence: DAR Standards of Acceptability**, p 10).

Notation should be made of the generations of the lineage to which the reference applies. If the Smith Bible records dates for several generations, it may be listed as:

John Henry Smith Bible 1747-1903, owned by Charles Lawrence Smith, Lubbock, Tex.: Gen. 3-5.

A reference to a printed work might read:

Churchill Gibson Chamberlayne, Bristol Parish, Virginia 1720-1789, 1898, p 353: Gen. 7.

You may prefer to list the generations prior to the source:

Gen.2: marr.cert.; Charles Devore Houston Bible 1813-1956, owned by Sarah Elizabeth Hopkins, Orange, CA; Jesse W. Weik; History of Putname Co., IN, 1910, p 421.

Either form is acceptable; all that is required is that the source be identified with the generation for which it is intended.

When the list of references is lengthy, it is suggested that abbreviations be used. Beginning with the applicant, Generation 1, list all proof for that generation. Continue in this manner for each succeeding generation to and including the Revolutionary ancestor.

On page three of the application paper, in the space allotted, list (you may abbreviate) proof for each generation, **including documentation to prove the relationship between generations.**

If the reference is to a book not in the NSDAR Library, please furnish a photocopy including title, author, date of publication, edition, and copies of all necessary pages. For unpublished material, submit a photocopy or a notarized copy of the original.

On each piece of proof being submitted, write last name of applicant, name of Revolutionary ancestor, name of DAR chapter, and number of generation(s) for which it is proof.

PROBLEMS FREQUENTLY ENCOUNTERED

Identity

The quest for genealogical identity requires the use of logic and reason to form conclusions justified by all known facts. Often, insufficient information is available to adequately identify a person. It may not be known where a man came from, or there may have been so many women of the same name that it is hard to be certain who her parents were.

During the preparation of a lineage paper, problems of establishing identity may arise. These must be solved before that lineage can be considered "proven." Such problems vary in the difficulties presented; some solutions will be easy and others may be exceedingly complex.

In many cases, problems of identity have to do with multiple individuals by the same name. Separating out these individuals, and proving a given lineage often involves the use of various types of records: federal and state censuses, wills, estate records, deeds, tax lists, court records, church records, etc. It is wisest to work backwards in time, from the applicant's generation back to the patriot, starting with what is known and easily documented. This helps to place generations in given locales at different times throughout history, and document the family's migration. Attempting to document a lineage beginning with the patriot and coming forward in time can be problematic, as research may reveal that later generations moved to locations where the applicant's ancestors never resided. For example:

John Gill, your ancestor, died in Madison County, Kentucky; his will was probated there in 1817. His children, found in the 1850 Census, reported their places of birth as Virginia. The published Virginia tax lists (which substitute for the 1790 Census) were consulted, and nine men of the same name were found. How can you tell which man was your ancestor?

Check the deed books of Madison County. He may have purchased land as “John Gill of Culpeper County, Virginia.” Gradually, a pattern of migration will emerge. You may find enough clues to know where in Virginia your ancestor was likely to have lived.

Researchers should always pay close attention to the names of the individuals who their ancestors were closely associated with in the genealogical record. By paying close attention to persons they bought from/sold land to, the names of their neighbors recorded in deeds, individuals who acted as witnesses in legal documents, church membership rolls, the proximity in census and tax records, etc., researchers can often begin to recreate their ancestor’s “neighborhood” and help to differentiate people by the same name. Recreating the “neighborhood” and comparing the genealogical records in two different communities, you can track an ancestor’s migrations, as migrations often involved extended families and acquaintances.

Tax lists can be very useful in helping to determine parentage, differentiate persons by the same name, and serve as useful alternatives to missing census and deed records. More than merely a list of assessments, they help to document when an ancestor moved into or left a county. In cases where no death records exist for an individual, they can be helpful in establishing a relative year of death, as the widow or other heirs may appear the following year paying the assessments on the same tract of land.

Deeds are another type of genealogical record that should never be overlooked. More than merely a conveyance of land between two or more individuals, they help to establish the location of residence within a county, names of neighbors, and sometimes help determine a previous residence. While some deeds are circumstantial at best in proving family connections, there are two

types of deeds that are especially useful in determining possible lineage. Deeds-of-gift were often made from parents to a child, and may have conveyed personal property as well as land. In many deeds-of-gift, the relationship between the persons named in the deed is clearly defined. Quit-claim deeds can also be very useful. While the individuals selling the land (grantors) in a quit-claim deed did not necessarily have a clear title, the grantors were relinquishing any claim they may have had on the land. In many cases there was more than one grantor. Genealogically speaking, the importance of quit-claim deeds is that oftentimes they were conducted by family members following the death of a parent or other close relative, and their rightful possession of the land was never seriously challenged.

When trying to determine the identity of a Revolutionary War patriot, it is important that the applicant be able to document her family back to the area where the service was performed. If for instance, documentation exists to prove that a couple was married in Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania in 1782, and subsequent generations continued to reside in southwestern Pennsylvania for many years, yet the Revolutionary War service assigned to the man with the same name as the groom served in the Philadelphia County, Pennsylvania militia in 1780, a potential problem exists. Further documentation would be necessary to prove that the individual who was in Philadelphia County, Pennsylvania in 1780 had migrated westward to Westmoreland County, Pennsylvania by 1782.

Some problems defy immediate solution. At times, no direct evidence such as a will or estate record exists to prove the connection between two generations. However, by using cumulative evidence gathered from various types of records, oftentimes the lineage can be determined through an analytical approach. If you are unable to find and assemble the cumulative evidence necessary for an analysis, research another line. Save your serious problems for your leisure, when you have time to enjoy solving them.

Confusion of Names

The unwary genealogist is often misled by surnames. An American family with an apparently English surname may some-

times turn out to have its origin in Continental Europe. As examples, the Seeley family of upstate New York was originally the French Usilié; the Carpenter family of Philadelphia was the German Zimmerman, which means, “carpenter;” and a number of Baker families translated their name from Becker (Bäcker, meaning baker). When dealing with old Louisiana families, a researcher is apt to find that modern French names had German origins, for their ancestors settled on the famous German Coast of that colony as early as 1720. For instance, the German name Zweig, signifying “branch,” is now Labranche, the French equivalent. The German Vogel can vaguely be recognized in the French Fauquel. British names have also undergone unusual transformations, such as the Scottish Stephenson, which occasionally is Stebbins, Phimister-Phemister which is Feamster in Virginia, and the Welsh family of Parry (originally a patronymic) which is the contraction of Ap Harry.

Sounds are frequently interchangeable, such as “b” and “p,” “d” and “t,” and “f” and “v.” This was especially true in names of German origin (Dambach-Tambaugh, Voight-Focht). Among the oldest transformations of German names are Brumbach-Brownback and Rubincam-Rivercomb. In one census record, Achenback shows up as Ackingback!

Extreme care must be exercised with respect to the old Dutch names of New York. A modern family of Cooper may not have had an English origin but a Dutch one: Kuyper. Many a Johnson family will be found to have been Jansen. On the other hand, English families often settled in the Dutch colony and spelled their names according to the practice of their Dutch neighbors, such as Lake which became Leak in New Amsterdam, and Cole which became the Dutch Cool, the pronunciation being the same in both languages.

The genealogist should take a close look at surnames. Researchers are known to have confused families by identifying as their ancestors persons bearing identical or translated surnames which were the same as their own family names, but were of a totally different origin. **Think of the sound, rather than the spelling, and place that sound against the background of**

dialect in the locality in which the record was made. Familiarity with the nicknames of the period will also be helpful.

Another danger into which genealogists unconsciously fall is the identification of persons bearing the same given names. The fact that a man was Samuel Tuttle of Morris County, New Jersey, does not mean that he was identical with the Samuel Tuthill of the same neighborhood in Morris County, and who was living at the same time. Such an erroneous identification was made some years ago. Two Samuels were born at approximately the same time (1723/24), attended the same church, and the brother of one married the sister-in-law of the other. It was finally proven that the Tuttle and Tuthills were totally unrelated families. Samuel Tuttle died in 1762 and Samuel Tuthill died in 1814!

Sometimes the presence of an unusual Christian name will indicate the family to which a particular person belonged, for instance, a Maxwell family in Albermarle and Augusta Counties, Virginia, and Jefferson County, Indiana, gave the forename Bezaleel to a number of its sons in the 18th and 19th centuries. Consequently, a Maxwell with Bezaleel in his family *may* be descended from Bezaleel Maxwell (1751-1829), the Revolutionary War soldier, or from his uncle Bezaleel, or from the latter's son, Bezaleel Maxwell, who was born in 1767. On the other hand, even an uncommon name as Bezaleel is not a sure guarantee of kinship; an Ohio family of Maxwell with Bezaleel given to some of its 19th century members has been traced to a Pennsylvania line having no known connection with the Virginia Maxwells.

Proof of Dates

Errors are often found in the source from which a date is taken. Mistakes are made in reading old records. The ink may have faded, or the reader may be unfamiliar with old forms of writing letters and figures. Often a record was not made at the time of the event, and the person making it accidentally entered a wrong figure in recording the date.

Death dates from different sources frequently vary. If a person was buried in a modern cemetery, there is usually a record of buri-

als in the cemetery office. This is a record of interment, not the date of death. The date of burial may have been several days after death, or there may have been a re-interment.

Dates of death, given on tombstones, are not a dependable source of proof for that date. Few tombstones are placed immediately after burial. Sometimes years elapse before they are erected, and it is easily seen that a mistake may be made. It is best to secure the date of death as shown on the tombstone and the date of interment from the cemetery records. A search should be made for an obituary in the local newspaper for confirmation of death.

Death certificates may err in the exact date of death, if the attending physician waited two or three weeks before making up the record. For instance, if an obituary printed on September 7 gives the date of death as September 4, and the date of interment was September 6, then the date of September 18 given on the death certificate was obviously an error.

Dates of birth can be difficult to establish. If the source is an obituary notice, or computed from a death certificate or tombstone inscription, it is subject to the same kinds of errors as death dates. A Bible record may be incorrect, depending upon the lapse of time before the record was made.

For those persons who were born after 1840, it is a good idea to attempt to establish the age for that person by the first two or three census enumerations taken after the birth. This information was likely to have been accurately given by the parents.

Although the ages of children under 18 in a census record are assumed to be fairly correct, there are many inaccuracies in those of adults. The date in any one census record should not be considered definitive. That same person should be identified in a succession of census reports. Often a woman aged only five to eight years in a ten-year period when she was young, and more than ten years as she grew older. A man's age varied, apparently, according to his physical well-being. A man over sixty who was hale and hearty was frequently reported as being in his fifties.

Usually, in the absence of Bible records, vital records, or birth certificates, dates obtained from census records may be accepted.

In the cases of persons born before 1752, the lack of uniformity in the transcription of the double date must be taken into consideration. Some copyists have dropped the *final* digit, others the *first*. When the months were stated by numerals in original records, there have been errors made in converting them into named months. An examination of the original record should be made whenever possible.

The ages given in pension records are not necessarily correct. The reason may have been that the applicant did not know his own age, or felt older than he really was because of feeble health. However, unless a reasonable doubt arises, an affidavit submitted for a pension claim may be accepted for the statement of an *exact* date of birth.

Calendar Changes

The Gregorian, or New Style, Calendar was adopted by Catholic countries in 1582. By authority of Pope Gregory XIII, the beginning of the year became January first, and ten days were dropped from the calendar. In the year the change was made, October 5 became October 15.

The Old Style, or Julian, Calendar had been instituted at the time of Julius Caesar, and modified in the Third Century, A.D. by the Council of Nicaea. The year began on March 25, the traditional birth date of the Virgin Mary; the vernal equinox was to fall on March 21. By 1582, the calendar was so seriously in error that the vernal equinox fell on March 11! In 1700, the difference between the two calendars increased by an additional day: that was a leap year for the Julian Calendar, but not for the Gregorian.

Most countries of Continental Europe had adopted the New Style Calendar by the turn of the eighteenth century. The British Empire did not make the change until 1752. Doing research in the period between 1582 and 1752 requires knowledge of the exact date of the calendar change in each particular country. (For a list of these dates, see Ethel W. Williams, *Know Your Ancestors*, 1971, pp 35-36.)

In recognition of the existence of the new calendar, the British began a system of double dating. Many records give two dates for

the period between January 1 and March 25. For example, a date such as February 24, 1695 might be written as February 24, 1695/6, the years of both the Julian and Gregorian Calendars. The British Empire, including the American Colonies, adopted the new Style Calendar in 1752, when September 3 became September 14, and double dating was no longer used.

Transcriptions of double dates can be misleading. Some copyists have omitted the final year; others omitted the first year. When the Massachusetts vital records were prepared for publication, the practice varied from town to town, and one cannot be certain which date was actually meant without consulting the original records.

Errors can occur because of the change in the beginning of the year from March 25 to January 1. In Quaker records, for instance, months were stated numerically. An unthinking copyist might change Old Style numerical dates into New Style nominal dates: 9th mo., 1, 1741 might be translated as September 1, 1741 instead of November 1, 1741, Old Style. If the date is to be written New Style, it should read November 12, 1741, an addition of eleven days. Notation should be made, using the abbreviations O.S. and N.S., indicating which calendar has been used.

Proof of Marriage

The DAR does not require a legal or lawful marriage to verify a line. However, it is good genealogical research to provide proof of marriage if available.

Proving a marriage can be a problem. There were many ways a marriage could be contracted; these varied from place to place and century to century.

In England, the Established Church had the authority to determine that a marriage was binding. It was considered desirable public policy that a marriage be recognized whenever possible, that is: when both parties were of an age to have known what they were doing, when they were physically capable of contracting marriage, and when there was no prior commitment which barred a marriage. Open acknowledgment by the couple (living together as man and wife) constituted a legal marriage, even when there

had been no church ceremony, announcement of intentions, or issuance of a license or bond. It was through this provision that in the American Colonies prior to the Revolution, Quaker marriages and marriages by non-conforming clergymen were legal.

It can be difficult to find a record of such marriages. Dissenting ministers frequently did not keep records of the marriages they performed. When they did, such records were personal records, and are often no longer available.

Even when a marriage was performed in the Established Church, the announcement of intentions (“calling the banns”) was made orally by the minister and no record was made of it. When the ceremony was later performed, it was supposedly entered in the Parish record, but sometimes was not. In many instances, the Parish register is not known to exist.

In some localities, the practice of requiring a “marriage bond” was instituted. This was an agreement by the groom, and a male representative of the bride, that there was no impediment to the marriage. It was considered desirable that a couple who were married outside the Established Church would not be able later to deny the fact of marriage on the grounds that an impediment had existed at the time.

Marriages could be performed by a civil officer, as well as by a minister, or by mutual contract of the parties. After the Revolution, marriages by a Justice of the Peace were common, particularly in areas where there were few churches. Records of a Justice of the Peace were not public records, merely notations made by him for his own information. Occasionally an old bundle of these records is found. As a rule, records of such marriages are nonexistent.

In preparing a lineage paper, evidence of marriage may be supplied if no records are available to prove the date and place of marriage. If the *fact* of marriage can be proven, the *date* of marriage is not required. (Applicants needing proof of a recent marriage should be aware that the 1900 and 1910 Federal census records give the “number of years married” for the head of household and his wife. The National Society accepts this as proof of the fact of marriage, and for its approximate date.)

Genealogists not familiar with the laws and customs in effect at various times in the past sometimes fall into the error of assuming that a marriage did not exist because of a reference in a church record questioning it. Even though marriage outside the Established Church was legal, such churches did not relinquish their rights over marriage. At various times the church governing body would seek to enforce that right by prescribing penalties or denying privileges to persons who had contracted such marriages. The action was usually initiated by the vestry, charging that the couple was living together without marriage (i.e., marriage by a minister of the Established Church) and calling them to account. (The various state laws governing marriages are discussed in Noel C. Stevenson's *Genealogical Evidence*, 1979, p 93 ff.)

Shifting State and County Boundaries

One of the difficulties confronting genealogists is the problem of changing state and county lines. A family may have passed a whole generation in the same house on the same plot of ground, and yet, during the course of thirty years, it may have resided in two states and several counties!

An example of how boundaries have changed: Botetourt County, Virginia, was formed in 1770 from parts of Augusta and Rockbridge Counties. Two years later, Botetourt was divided into four counties, one of which was Fincastle. The latter existed for only five years, its territory being divided in 1777 into the three counties of Kentucky, Montgomery and Washington. In 1780 Fayette County was formed from Kentucky County, Bourbon County was created from Fayette in 1786, and three years later Mason County was formed from Bourbon. The State of Kentucky came into existence in 1792, and included the last-named county within its territory. Thus, in 1800, a man who had lived on the same land in Mason County for less than a quarter of a century had resided in two states and five counties, and he had not moved an inch! In order to search for the land transactions of this man, a genealogist must visit the following county seats: Maysville (Mason County), Paris (Bourbon County), Lexington (Fayette County), all in Kentucky, and Fincastle (Botetourt County) in Virginia.

Some states impose special problems. For example, certain parts of Pennsylvania were claimed, in pre-Revolutionary times, by three other colonies: the northern part by Connecticut, the southern border by Maryland, and the southwestern area by Virginia. Each of these provinces sent settlers into their claimed portions. Many northern Pennsylvania families are descended from early settlers of Connecticut. In the southern and southwestern parts of Pennsylvania numerous families trace their lineage to Maryland and Virginia. In fact, that part of Pennsylvania that includes Pittsburgh came under Virginia's jurisdiction during the French and Indian War and was known as the District of West Augusta. The Augusta County records at Staunton, Virginia, contain many deeds for lands presently in Pennsylvania.

A knowledge of local history and of changing conditions at specific periods is essential for a genealogist. A number of excellent books on counties and their formation have been published. Special mention should be made of Stanley Bearce Attwood's *The Length and Breadth of Maine* (1946), which lists every place name in the state, telling when each town was settled and established, and giving its changing boundaries. It also contains excellent maps of the towns of Maine.

An invaluable book for those interested in North Carolina is David Leroy Corbitt's *The Formation of the North Carolina Counties, 1663-1943* (1950). Martha W. Hiden's work published in 1957, *How Justice Grew, Virginia Counties: An Abstract of Their Formation*, describes the organization of Virginia counties and their offshoots, which now form the States of Kentucky and West Virginia.

The Department of Community Affairs, Office of Land Records, State of Pennsylvania, has published a unique *Genealogical Map of the Counties of the Commonwealth*. It shows the growth of Pennsylvania from the original three counties in 1662 to the formation of the 67th and last county in 1878. One of the small inset maps bordering the large map of Pennsylvania illustrates the claims made by Connecticut, Virginia and Maryland. (A list, by states, of all counties in each state, showing the dates they were formed, the county seat, and the

name of the parent county, appears both in E. Kay Kirkham's *Research in American Genealogy*, 1956, and in the current edition of The Everton Publishers' *Handy Book for Genealogists*.

NOTARIZATION

The DAR accepts the attest of the Chapter Regent and Chapter Registrar to the applicant's signature on the application form. If one or both of these officers is unavailable, the Chapter Vice Regent, Recording Secretary or Treasurer may sign in their place, putting their title after their signature. The applicant is stating that the information she has provided is true to the best of her knowledge and that the proof she has provided is accurate. This oath should not be made lightly. If the applicant is unable to sign in the presence of the chapter officers, her signature may be notarized.

Applications for membership in an organizing chapter must be notarized because the chapter has no elected officers.

When it is impractical to have a copy of a record certified by a notary, the National Society will accept a copy attested to and signed by the applicant in the presence of the Chapter Registrar and another Chapter officer. The Chapter Registrar and other Chapter officer sign in lieu of the notary.

GLOSSARY

Abbreviations unfamiliar to the beginning genealogist are often found in genealogical source material and compiled works. Given below are some that may be found helpful.

A, a: acre or acres
acct: account
admr: administrator or administratrix
ae, aet: age or aged
A.G.: Accredited Genealogist
alias: an assumed name, or the married (or maiden) name of a woman
ante: before, or prior to
anti: against

A.R.: *Anno Regni*: the year of the reign of

b: born
bapt, bap, bpt: baptized
bc: birth certificate
bef: before
bet: between
B.L. Wt: Bounty Land Warrant
b pl, bp: birthplace
bro: brother
bro/o: brother of
B.S.: bill of sale
bur: buried

c, ca: *circa*: about, an approximate date
C.A.L.S.: Certified American Lineage Specialist
cert: certificate or certified
cf.: (confer) compare, or see
C.G.: Certified Genealogist
C.G.R.S.: Certified Genealogical Record Searcher
ch: child or children
chr: christened
Co: county

d: *denarius*: penny or pence
d: died or death
d, da, dau: daughter
D.B.: deed book
dc: death certificate
dec, dec'd: deceased
d/o, da/o, dau/o: daughter of
do: *ditto*: the same
dp: death place
D. of G., D.G.: deed of gift
D. of T., D.T.: deed of trust
d.s.p: *decessit sine prole*: died without issue
d.s.p.m.: *decessit sine prole mascula*: died without male issue
d.s.p.s.: *decessit sine prole supersite*: died without surviving issue
d.v.m.: *decessit vita matris*: died in the mother's lifetime
d.v.p.: *decessit vita patris*: died in the father's lifetime

ed, eds: edition or editions
e.g.: *exempli gratia*: for example
Esq: esquire

et al: *et alii*: and others
et ux: *et uxor*: and wife
ex, exx: executor or executrix

f: *folio*: page
f: female
f, fa: father
f, ff: following page or pages
F.A.S.G.: Fellow, American Society of Genealogists
F.N.G.S.: Fellow, National Genealogical Society
f/o, fa/o: father of

gdn: guardian
Get: gentleman
gr: grant or granted, grantor or grantee

h: heir
h: husband
hic jacet: here lies
hic sit.: *hic situs*: here is buried
h/o: husband of
H.S.: *hic sepultus*: here is buried
Hun.: Hundred

ibid: *ibidem*: in the same place
i.e.: *id est*: that is
imp: *imprimis*: in the first place
in esse: in being, usually refers to an unborn child
inf: infant
Infra: below
int: intestate
int: interest
int: interred
inst: *Instant*: within the same month

l: lived
L, Lib: *Liber*: book
L: *libra*: pound
L.G.O.: Land Grant Office
L.S.: *locus sigillii*: the place of the seal
L.s.d.: Pounds, shillings, pence

m, mar: married
m: man or male
m: mother

mc: marriage certificate
M.G.: minister of the Gospel
M.M.: Monthly Meeting (Quaker)
mp: marriage place
Mr.: Mister or Master
Mrs.: Mistress: an unmarried woman of high social standing, or a married woman's title

N.B.: *nota bene*: note well
n d: no date
next friend: one acting legally for another
no: number
n p: no place
nr: near
N.S.: New Style (Gregorian calendar)
nunc: nuncupative: spoken, an oral will

ob: *obit*: died
op. cit.: *opere citato*: already cited
O.S.: Old Style (Julian calendar)
p, pp: page or pages
P.A.: power of attorney
pat: paternal
per: by means of
pltf: plaintiff
P.R.: probate record
pr, prob: probate or probated
pvd: proved

q.v.: *quot vide*: which see
R.I.P.: *requiescat in pace*: rest in peace

s: son
s: schilling
sic: thus
sine die: without date
s/o: son of
s.p.: *sine prole*: without issue
s.p.s.: *sine prole supersite*: without surviving issue
supra: above

t, temp: *tempore*: in the time of
tp, twp: township

ult: *ultimo*: in the month immediately preceding

ux: *uxor*: wife

v: volume

v: *versus*: against

v: *vidi*: see

V.O.M.: *Voluns Deus Minister*: minister by the will of God

viz: *videlicet*: that is to say

vs: *versus*

w: wife or widow

w/: with

W.B.: will book

wid, widr: widow or widower

w/o: wife of

w/o: without

Y.M.: Yearly Meeting (Quaker)

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