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MISSISSIPPI PERIOD ARCHAEOLOGY OF THE GEORGIA VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

DAVID J. HALLY AND JAMES B. LANGFORD, JR.

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA

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MISSISSIPPI PERIOD ARCHAEOLOGY OF THE
GEORGIA VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

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1988

Reprinted, 1995

For John Wear, energetic pioneer
in the archaeology of northwest Georgia

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INTRODUCTION

Georgia has exceedingly rich and varied archaeological resources. In order to increase the effectiveness of research and preservation efforts directed at these resources, the Office of the State Archaeologist has embarked upon a program to develop a comprehensive plan for the management and protection of the state's archaeological resources. The present report has been prepared as part of this program and is designed to serve as a guide for identifying, evaluating, and protecting Mississippi period sites in the Valley and Ridge section of the state. The report has been prepared according to guidelines presented in A Strategy for Cultural Resource Planning in Georgia (Crook 1986).

This report evaluates and synthesizes existing information on the Mississippi period occupation in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Physiographic Province, proposes appropriate topics for future research, recommends which types of sites should be investigated or preserved, and determines those land-use activities in the Valley and Ridge Province which are either compatible or incompatible with the preservation and investigation of Mississippian sites. The Mississippi period is defined as the prehistoric period extending from ca. A.D. 900 to A.D. 1540, the year when the first Spanish explorers entered the Piedmont of Georgia. Later aboriginal activities will be reported in a separate document concerning the historic Indian occupation.

There is relatively little published information available on the Mississippi period in the Valley and Ridge Province. In order to synthesize the Region's archaeology, we have had to rely primarily on unpublished manuscripts, site forms, and artifact collections stored at the University of Georgia as sources of information. We have undoubtedly made errors of judgement and omission in writing the present report, but we hope that the report will prove to be a valuable planning tool and that it will serve to stimulate new research in the region.

Our synthesis of Mississippi period archaeology has been broken down into subsections entitled "Early Mississippi Period", "Middle Mississippi Period", and "Late Mississippi Period". Under each subsection we describe the cultures that were present in the Valley and Ridge Province at that time. Cultures are further subdivided into regional or temporal phases. In certain cases, our nomenclature differs from that used by other authors. For example, we call "Wilbanks" a phase of the Savannah culture, although others have considered Savannah and Wilbanks to be two separate entities. Whenever we use new terminology, it has been done for the sake of clarity and organization or to simplify a cumbersome culture historical sequence. We realize that other archaeologists will disagree with our approach, but some consistency was needed to make this document intelligible.

THE VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

The Valley and Ridge Province occupies the northwest corner of Georgia (Figures 1 and 2). The Province consists of a broad belt of unmetamorphosed sedimentary rocks of Paleozoic age that extends from New York State to Alabama. These rocks are for the most part strongly folded and faulted, and, through erosion, have been formed into a series of parallel ridges and valleys.

Three topographically distinct regions can be recognized within the province (Figure 3) (Clark and Zisa 1976; Wharton 1977). Along the northwestern side of the Province, in the Chickamauga Valley District, topography is characterized by a series of parallel northeast trending, gently rolling valleys and low, linear ridges. Valley floors occur at approximately 200-250 m above sea level and are underlain by limestone and dolomite. Ridges are capped by cherty strata and attain elevations of approximately 300 m above sea level.

The Armuchee Ridges District is characterized by a series of linear and chevron-shaped ridges with elevations in the range of 400-500 m above sea level. Sandstone caps the ridges, while valley floors are predominantly shales and limestones. The district is bounded on the south and east by the Rome Fault.

The Great Valley District, known locally as the Coosa Valley, occupies the southeastern half of the Province. It measures 30-40 km across and is relatively flat. Elevations throughout the district range from 200-250 m above sea level, and the few scattered ridges and hills seldom exceed 30 m in height. Hills are underlain by shales, sandstones and limestones, while flatter terrain is underlain by limestone and dolomite.

The Valley and Ridge Province is bordered on the east and south by the Blue Ridge and Piedmont physiographic provinces and on the west by the Cumberland Plateau Province. The Blue Ridge and Piedmont Provinces are composed of metamorphic rocks of Paleozoic and Precambrian age. In the Cohutta Mountains district of the Blue Ridge, elevations reach 1200 m above sea level, and terrain is quite rugged. Further south in the Piedmont, elevations are lower -- 300-450 m above sea level -- and terrain is less rugged (Clark and Zisa 1976).

The Valley and Ridge Province is separated from the Blue Ridge and Piedmont by a sharp structural boundary, the Cartersville or Great Smoky Fault. The latter is an overthrust fault, along which the metamorphic rocks of the Piedmont and Blue Ridge have been thrust westward over the folded rocks of the Valley and Ridge Province (Hunt 1967; Hurst 1970). A prominent escarpment marks the fault as the hills of the Blue Ridge and Piedmont rise abruptly from the floor of the Great Valley. Elevation differences along the escarpment range from more than one

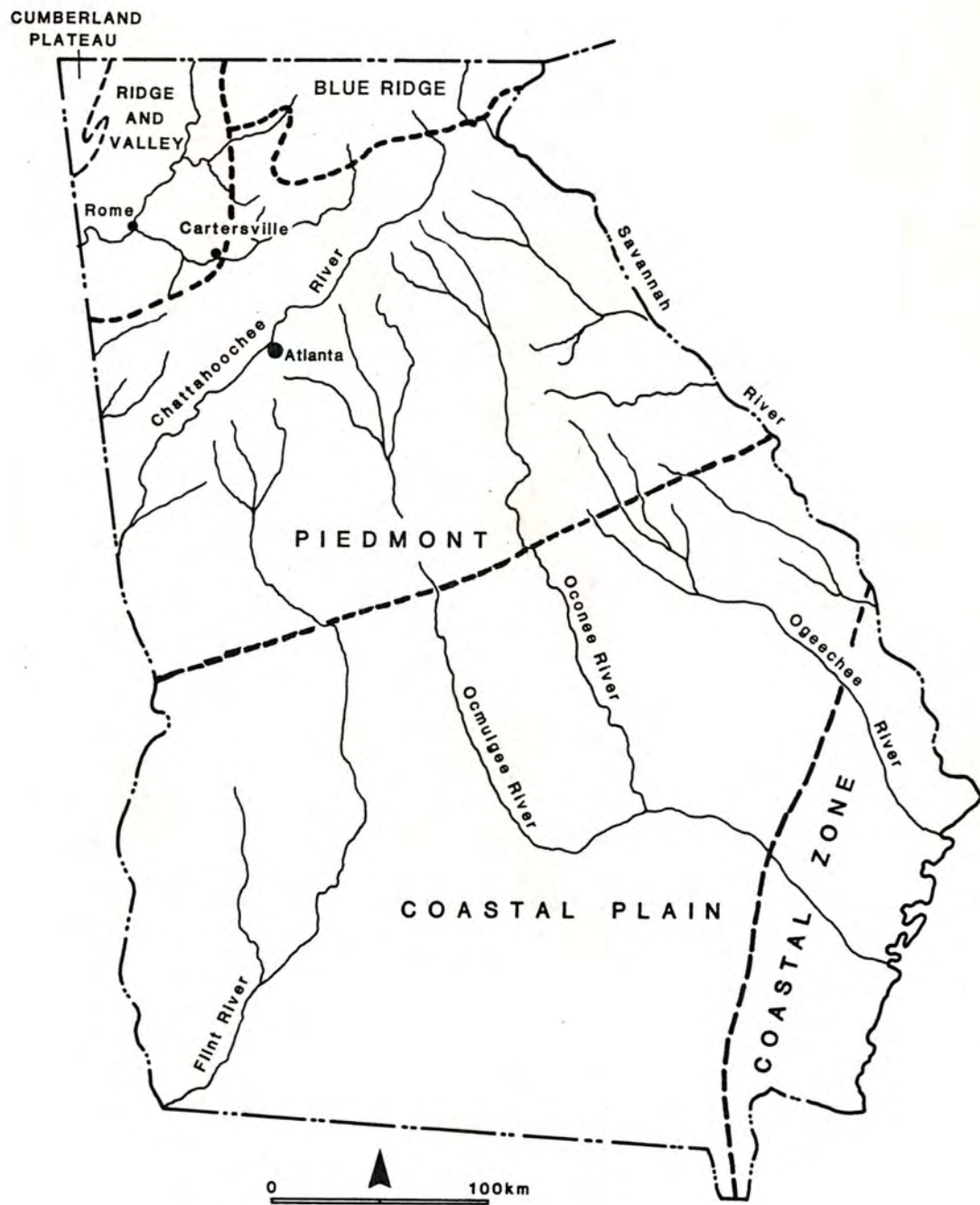


Figure 1. Physiographic Provinces of Georgia

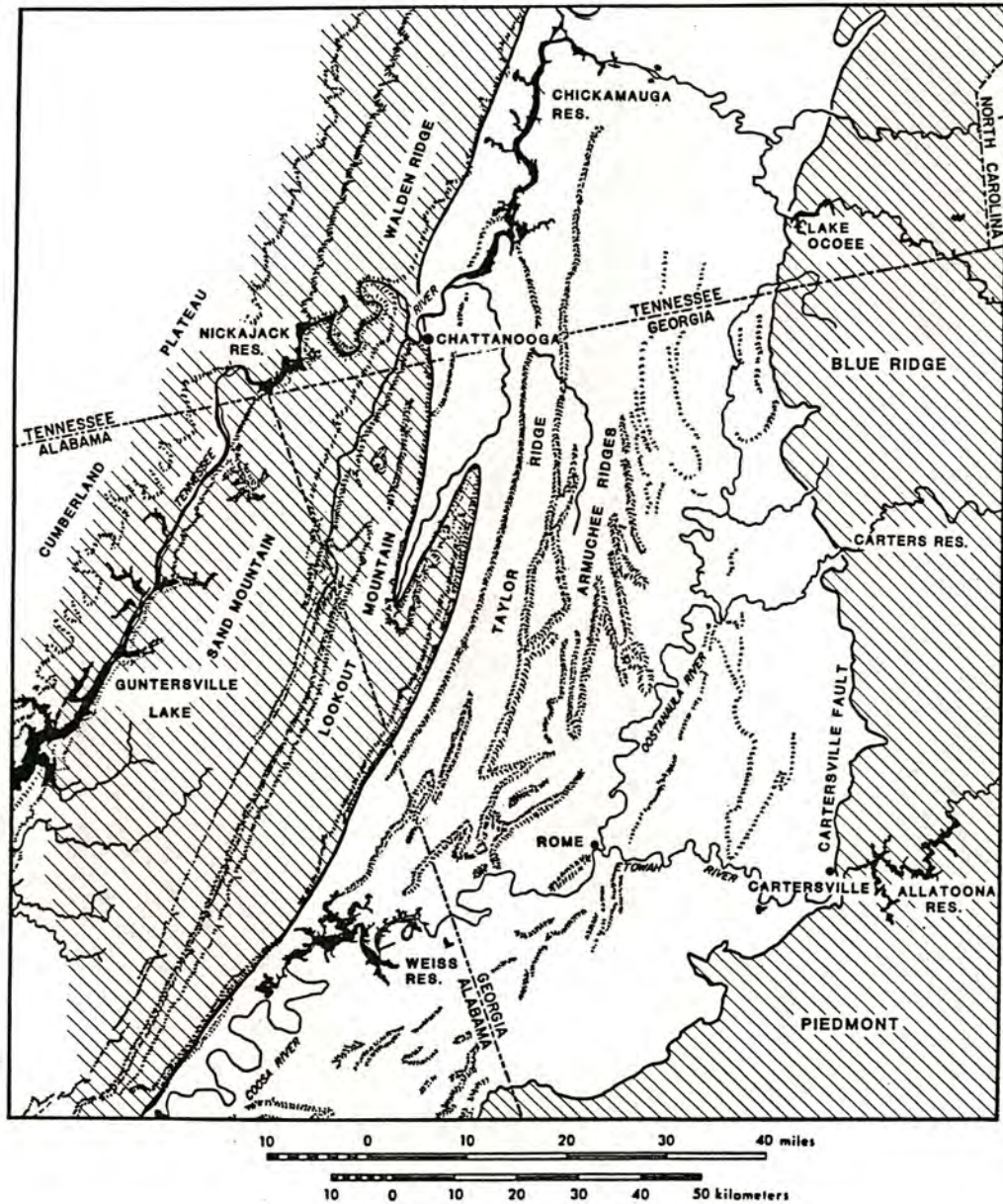


Figure 2. The Georgia Valley and Ridge Province. (map adapted from Clark et al. 1976)

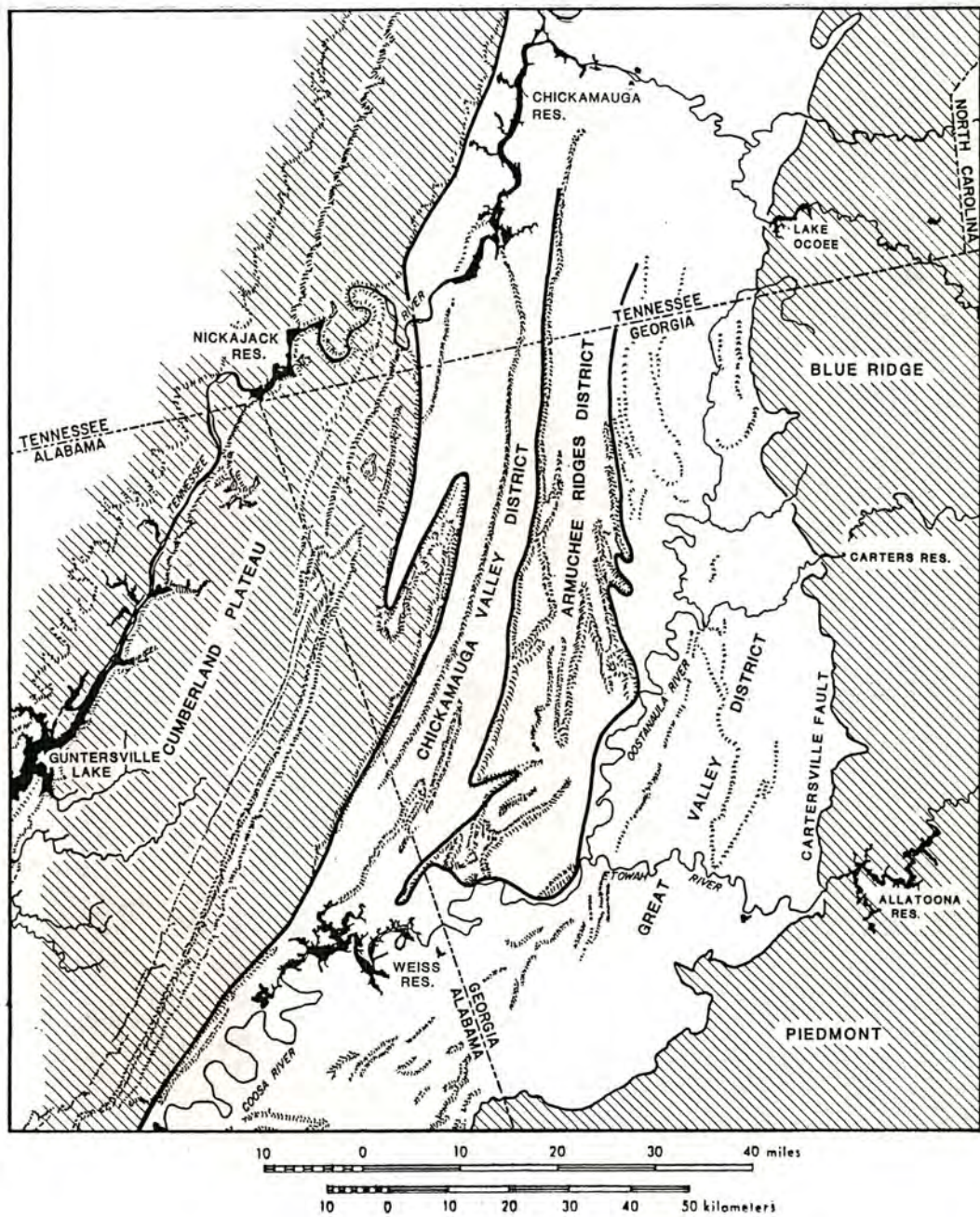


Figure 3. Physiographic Divisions of the Valley and Ridge Province

thousand meters at the Cohutta Mountains to little more than one hundred meters near the Georgia/Alabama border (Clark and Zisa 1976).

The Cumberland Plateau consists of an elevated area of nearly horizontal and gently folded strata. Rocks are unmetamorphosed and of Paleozoic age. In Georgia, the Plateau is represented by Lookout-Pigeon Mountain and Sand Mountain, nearly flat topped mountains with elevations in excess of 600 m above sea level (Clark and Zisa 1976). The southeast side of Lookout-Pigeon Mountain is marked by a prominent escarpment 240-300 m high. Part of the Allegheny Escarpment which extends from Pennsylvania to Alabama, the escarpment forms the boundary between the Valley and Ridge and Cumberland Plateau provinces.

Rocks in the Valley and Ridge Province are primarily sedimentary in nature and include sandstone, siltstone, shale, limestone, dolomite, quartzite and chert. Ridges tend to be formed of sandstones, while the less resistant rocks form the valley areas. Chert bearing formations occur throughout the province, but are most abundant in the western portion (Goad 1979). Chert is abundant in the Conasauga Formation, Knox Group, Newala Limestone, and Fort Payne Chert, and typically occurs as discontinuous beds and nodules. Chert deposits reported by Goad (1979: Appendix I) are mapped in Figure 4.

Metamorphic and igneous rocks occur in the Piedmont and Blue Ridge Provinces and along the Cartersville Fault that forms the eastern border of the Valley and Ridge Province. Common rocks here are gneiss, schist, slate, quartzite, vein quartz, and metagreywacke. As water rolled pebbles and cobbles, these rocks are also present in the Valley and Ridge Province along streams that originate in the Piedmont and Blue Ridge Provinces.

Streams in the Valley and Ridge Province tend to flow along a northeast/southwest axis in conformity with the topography and geological structure of the region (Figure 2). The Coosawattee and Etowah Rivers, which flow almost due west, are exceptions to this pattern (Figure 5). The northwestern third of the Province lies within the Tennessee River watershed and is drained by streams such as Chickamauga Creek. The remainder of the Province falls within the Alabama River watershed and is drained by the Coosa River and its tributaries, the Etowah River and the Conasauga-Coosawattee-Oostanaula Rivers.

The Etowah River originates in the Upper Piedmont and flows westward into the Great Valley at Cartersville. The Conasauga River drains the northern portion of the Great Valley and adjacent portions of the Cohutta Mountains. The larger Coosawattee River drains areas of both the Upper Piedmont and the Blue Ridge. All these rivers flow several kilometers through narrow valleys in the Piedmont and Blue Ridge Provinces before entering the Great Valley District. Within the District these rivers, as well as the Oostanaula and Coosa Rivers, flow through generally broad alluvial floodplains.

The valleys of the Coosa, Etowah, Oostanaula, Coosawattee, and Conasauga Rivers are not sufficiently wide to permit river channels to

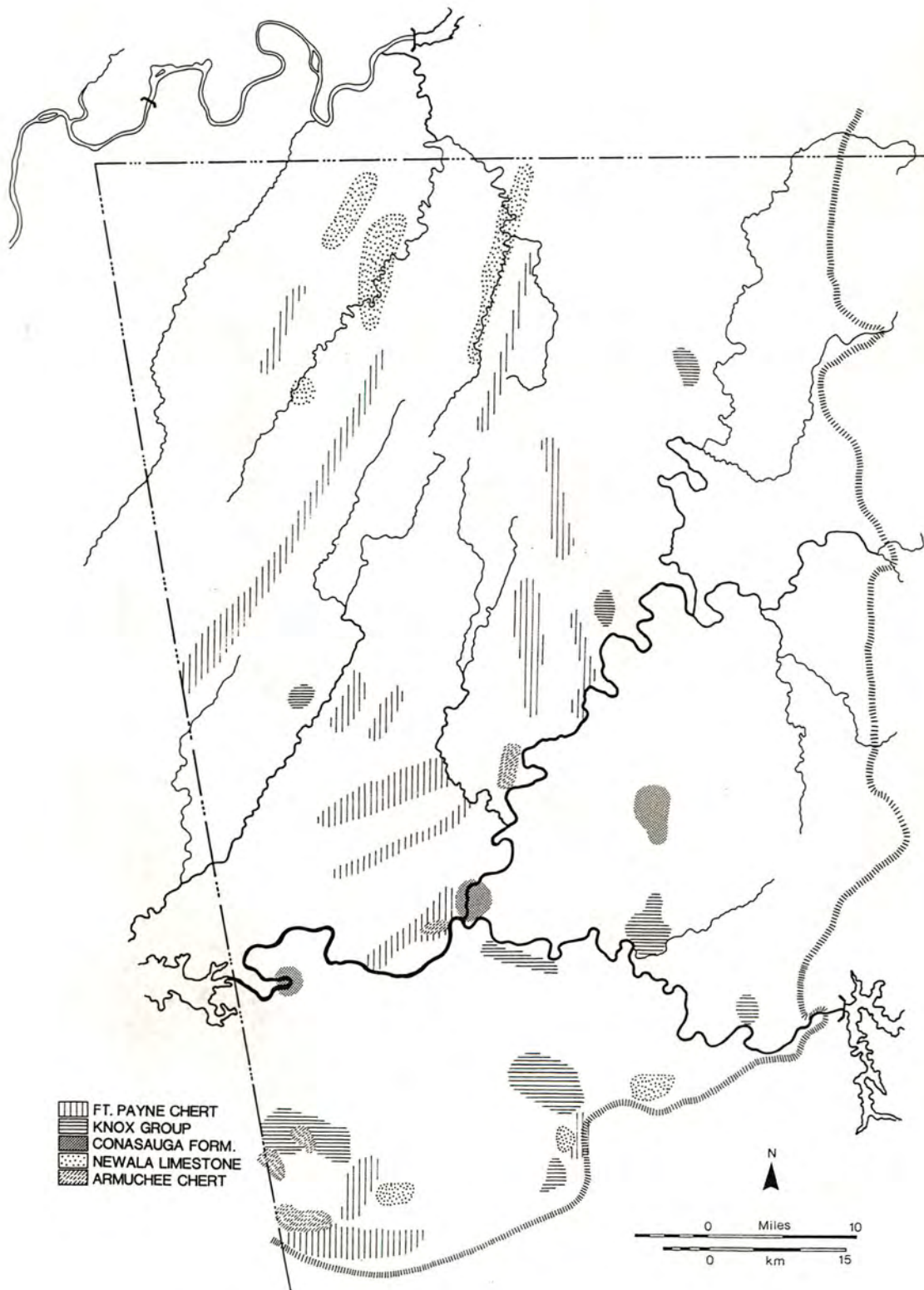


Figure 4. Distribution of Chert Resources in the Valley and Ridge Province.

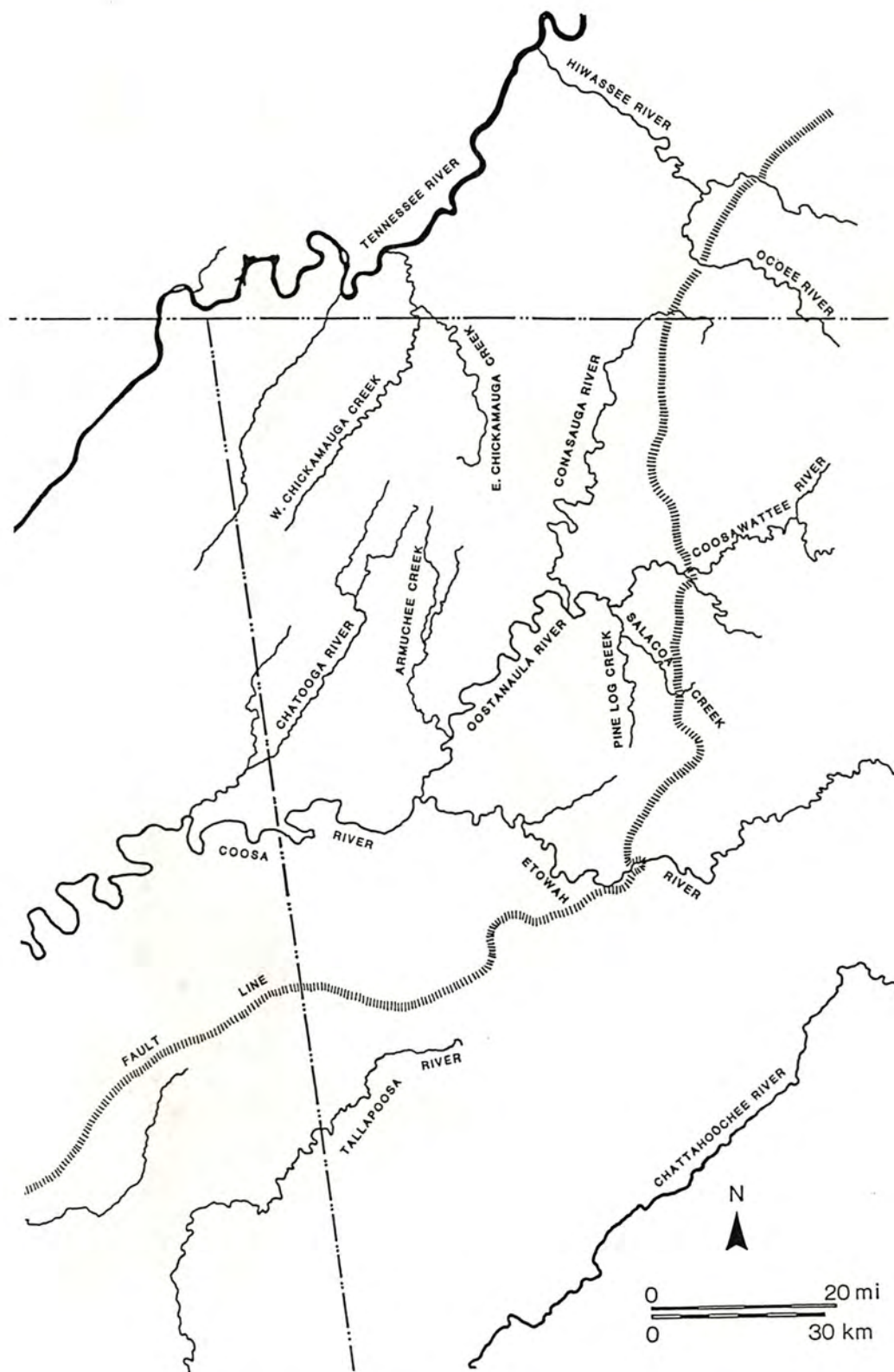


Figure 5. River Systems in the Valley and Ridge Physiographic Province.

meander freely. As a result, oxbow lakes are not a common floodplain feature. Natural levees are also poorly developed, this being due to the generally fine textured sediments carried by streams in the Valley and Ridge province (Robert Carver, Department of Geology, University of Georgia personal communication). However, alluvium becomes more coarse textured and natural levees increase in size along the Conasauga, Coosawattee, and Etowah Rivers in the vicinity of the Cartersville Fault (Henry E. Perkins, Department of Agronomy, University of Georgia, personal communication).

Except for a 15 km stretch of the Etowah River east of Rome, large rocky shoals are non-existent along the major rivers. Extensive shoals do however, occur along the Etowah, Coosawattee, and Conasauga where they cross the Cartersville Fault and enter the Great Valley.

Large streams such as the Coosawattee occur only in the Great Valley District. Streams in the northwestern portion of the Province, that is in the Armuchee Ridges and Chickamauga Valley Districts, are all relative small, a reflection of the size of their watersheds.

Soils in the Valley and Ridge province can be assigned to eight major soil groups or associations (Bramlett 1965; Perkins and Shaffer 1977; Tate 1978). In the Chickamauga Valley District, level or gently sloping soils in valley floors and on ridge tops belong to the Conasauga, Lyerly, Wolftever Association. These soils are formed from shale and limestone and are moderately productive, yielding 55-70 bushels of corn per acre under a high level of management (involving application of fertilizer and lime and turning under crop residue). Gently sloping to steeply sloping soils on the sides of ridges and mountains belong to the Shack, Fullerton, Bodine Association, 2-10% slope; and the Shack, Fullerton, Bodine Association, 10-60% slope. These soils are weathered from cherty limestone. With the exception of the shallow Bodine soils, these soils are moderately productive, yielding 65-75 bushels of corn per acre under high level management.

In the Armuchee Ridges District, soils on level to gently sloping ridge tops and valley floors are of the Shack, Fullerton, Bodine Association, 2-10% slope. Steep ridge slopes have soils of the Nellar, Townley, Hector Association. These soils are weathered from sandstone, siltstone, and shale and are poorly suited for agriculture.

In the Great Valley District, broad, flat upland areas are characterized by soils of the Conasauga, Lyerly, Wolftever Association. As noted above, these soils are moderately productive. Soils on slopes and summits of ridges and hills belong to the Shack, Fullerton, Bodine Association, the Townley, Cunningham, Montevallo Association, 2-10% slopes; and the Townley, Montevallo, Cunningham Association, 10-60% slopes. In the latter association, all soils except the Cunningham series are poorly suited for agriculture. Alluvial floodplain and terrace soils occurring along the Etowah River are of the Etowah, Holston, Rome Association. These soils are derived from weathered shale, limestone and sandstone, and are ranked as high in agricultural productivity, yielding 90-100 bushels of corn per acre under high level management. Alluvial floodplain and terrace soils associated with the

remaining large streams in the Coosa drainage (Conasauga, Coosawattee, Oostanaula, and Coosa Rivers) are of the Cartecay, Toccoa, Wehadkee Association. With the exception of the poorly drained and highly acidic Wehadkee soil series, these soils are ranked as high in agricultural productivity, yielding 80-90 bushels of corn per acre under high level management.

The best agricultural soils in the Valley and Ridge Province, as measured by corn yield under modern management conditions, are the alluvial floodplain soils (Tate 1978; Bramlett 1965; Taylor et al. 1941). Most are well drained, low in acidity, and easily worked.

Farmers along the Coosawattee River claim that floodplain soils increase significantly in fertility within 10 to 15 km of the Cartersville Fault. In fact, the highest non-fertilized, per acre yield of several types of row crops reported in the study area is from the Coosawattee River bottomland immediately below Carters Dam. Although there is little direct evidence to support these claims, a reasonable argument can be made for why alluvial soils along the Conasauga, Coosawattee, and Etowah Rivers should be more productive in the vicinity of the Cartersville Fault. To begin with, overbank flooding is probably more common immediately below the fault due to the sudden reduction in stream gradient. The resulting periodic deposition of fresh alluvium serves to replenish soil nutrients removed by crops. Perhaps more important, the plant nutrient content of river-born (and deposited) sediments may be highest at the point where rivers enter the Great Valley and decrease steadily downstream from that point. Sediments carried by the Conasauga, Coosawattee, and Etowah Rivers when they enter the Great Valley are derived entirely from Piedmont and Blue Ridge soils which are high in base element content (calcium, magnesium, manganese, potassium, and sodium). Down stream from the Cartersville Fault, these sediments are gradually replaced by sediments derived locally from slates, sandstones, and limestones which are low in base element content (Henry F. Perkins, Agronomy Department, University of Georgia, personal communication).

Streams in the Chickamauga Valley District and the Armuchee Ridge District, by virtue of their small size, have only limited tracts of alluvial soils. The Conasauga, Coosawattee, Oostanaula, Etowah, and Coosa Rivers in the Great Valley District, on the other hand, generally have extensive alluvial floodplains and terraces (Figure 6). The width of these deposits is relatively uniform along these streams although most of the Etowah River and a section of the Conasauga River north of Calhoun have narrow valley floors. Floodplain/terrace width is greatest along the Coosa River west of Rome and apparently continues to expand in size to the west in Alabama.

Braun (1950) and Kuchler (1964) identify the forest of the Valley and Ridge Province as Oak-Pine and Oak-Hickory-Pine respectively. Dominant species are oaks (white, black, post, red, and southern red oak) and hickory (white and pignut). Pine (shortleaf and loblolly) is also common, but, except on drier and poorer soils, is probably sub-climax; the result of secondary succession or of localized gaps in the climax hardwood canopy caused by ice storms and other natural

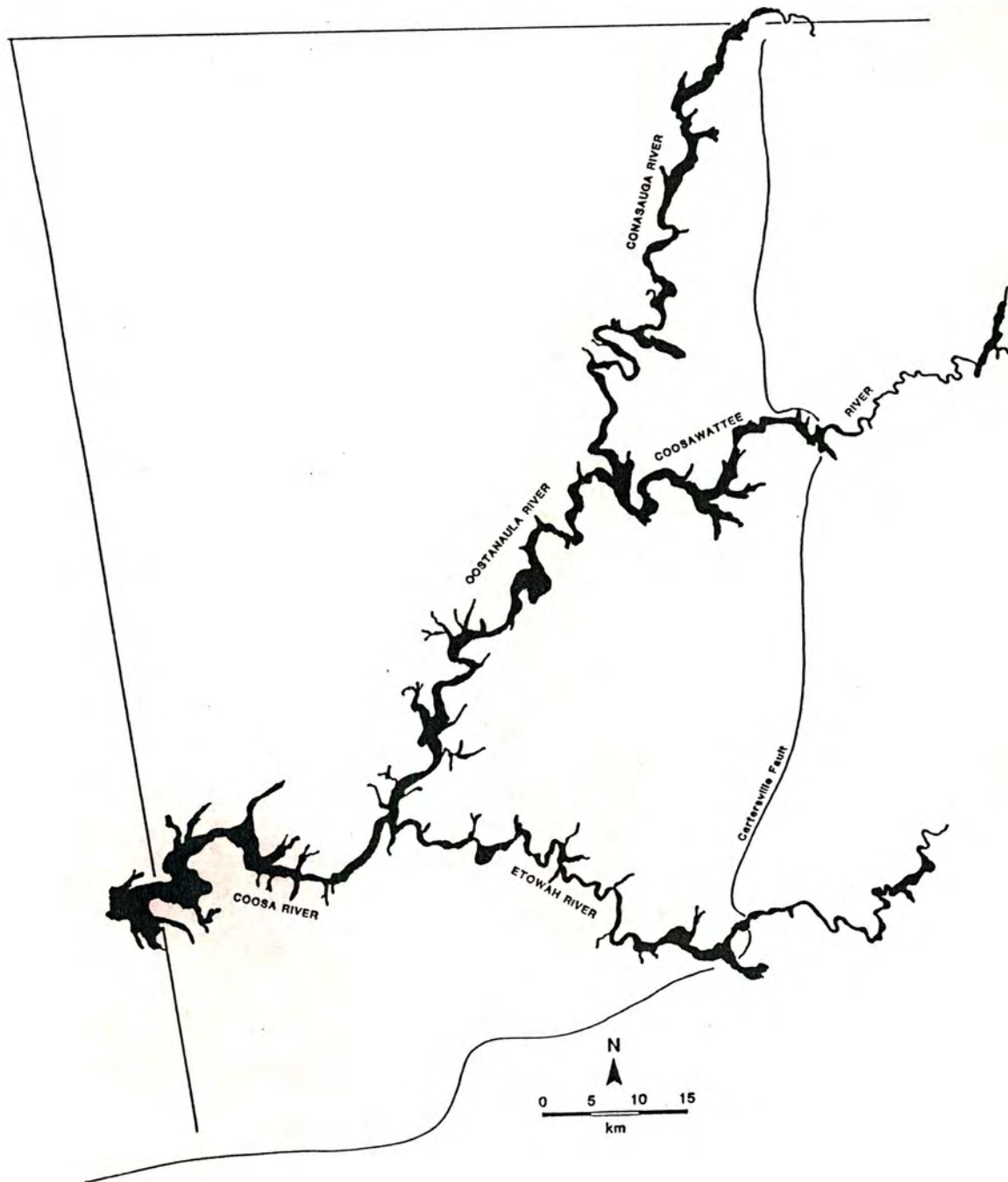


Figure 6. Distribution of Floodplain Soils Along Major Rivers in the Valley and Ridge Province.

catastrophies. Early 19th century survey records indicate that oak, pine, and hickory occurred with a ratio of 50:18:8 (Plummer 1975). Other species known to be common in the region include ash, beech, sweetgum, yellow popular, sycamore, sourwood, dogwood, and willow.

Bruan and Kuchler identify a similar forest type for the Piedmont. In the Blue Ridge (Braun's oak-Chestnut forest and Kuchler's Appalachian Oak forest) chestnut replaces hickory as a dominant species and white pine and hemlock are the most common evergreen species. Bruan and Kuchler identify a Mixed Mesophytic forest as characteristic of the Cumberland Plateau Province. Dominant species in this forest include sugar maple, buckeye, beech, tulip tree, yellow popular, white oak, northern red oak, and basswood.

Climate throughout the Valley and Ridge Province is relatively uniform (Bramlett 1965, Tate 1978). Precipitation amounts to between 50 and 65 inches per year. Much of this (40%) falls in the period, December-March, as rain produced by the interaction of moist warm southern air masses and cold northern air masses. Rainfall at this time covers large areas and may last for several hours at a time. Only slightly less rain falls in the summer, but it occurs normally in the form of localized, sometimes intense showers. Average maximum and minimum temperatures for Gordon County in the Great Valley District are: annual maximum, 70.6° f; annual minimum, 48.5° f, July maximum, 87.5° f; January minimum, 32.3° f. The average number of frost free days for the area is 215.

PREVIOUS ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN THE VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

INTRODUCTION

The first descriptions of Mississippian sites in the Valley and Ridge Province were published by Charles C. Jones in 1861 and 1873. Jones made an accurate, detailed map of the Etowah mound group (9BR1) and reported briefly on the existence of other mounds in the Coosa drainage. He observed the remnants of one mound (9FL162) at the confluence of the Etowah and Oostanaula Rivers that had formerly stood 12 - 15 ft high. Two additional "burial mounds", one measuring 5 - 6 ft high, were reported at the mouth of Armuchee Creek on the Oostanaula River north of Rome. These three mounds can not be relocated and presumably no longer exist. They may not be Mississippian.

In 1883, John Rogan, Cyrus Thomas' representative in Georgia, conducted extensive excavations for the Smithsonian Institution at Etowah, particularly in Mound C, and on several other mound sites located within a few miles of Etowah (Thomas 1894). At least four of these sites can not be relocated and are presumed destroyed. They may not all be Mississippian.

Stimulated by the success of Rogan, Warren K. Moorehead descended on Etowah in 1925 for three years of excavation (Moorehead 1932). Like Rogan, Moorehead was successful in collecting fancy Southern Cult artifacts from burials in Mound C, and like Rogan his field techniques were very bad. Subsequent to his work at Etowah, Moorehead spent two weeks excavating in the mounds and village at the Little Egypt site (9MU102).

Following the termination of Moorehead's Etowah site excavations, Margaret E. Ashley visited and tested a number of sites on the Coosawattee and Coosa Rivers in February, 1928. Her most ambitious investigations were at Plant Hammond (9FL3) and Two Run Creek (9BR3) where she excavated trenches into each mound and at King (9FL5) where she excavated a number of test pits in the village. Results of these investigations were briefly summarized in a brief, untitled report submitted to Warren K. Moorehead at the Robert S. Peabody Foundation for Archaeology in Andover, Massachusetts.

Professional archaeological research in the Valley and Ridge Province began in 1938 with Robert Wauchope's north Georgia survey (Wauchope 1966). A number of sites were visited and surface collected in Bartow and Floyd Counties, and excavations were conducted at four sites, three of which were Mississippian mounds.

Survey and excavation by Wauchope, Caldwell, Fairbanks, and Sears in the Georgia Piedmont, particularly in the Allatoona Reservoir on the upper Etowah River, led to the development of a detailed ceramic sequence for the Mississippi period in northwest Georgia by 1950

(Caldwell 1950; Fairbanks 1950; Sears 1950, 1958; Wauchope 1948, 1950). All research conducted in the Valley and Ridge Province in subsequent years has relied on this sequence as a means for chronologically ordering artifact collections.

Almost all major excavation projects in the Valley and Ridge Province have occurred at the Etowah site or at Carters Dam on the Coosawattee River. Etowah has been the subject of intensive, if somewhat intermittent, investigation since the days of Rogan. Subsequent to Moorehead's work at the site, Sears (1953) conducted extensive testing in various areas of the village in 1953; Larson (Kelly and Larson 1956; Larson 1971a) excavated the remaining portion of Mound C in 1954 - 1956; Kelly (Kelly and Larson 1956) tested extensively around Mound B in 1954 - 1956; and Larson excavated in the village and plaza area in 1962, 1964, 1965, 1972 and 1973. Although the site is probably the largest mound and village complex in Georgia and has major Etowah, Wilbanks, and Lamar occupations, it is the spectacular Southern Cult artifacts recovered from burials in Mound C that have received the most attention in the Southeastern archaeology literature.

Investigations at Carters Dam began in 1962 and continued, at least during summer months, without interruption until 1972. Brief surveys were conducted behind the main dam and in the reregulation pool in 1962-1964 (Kelly n.d.). The major effort over the years, however, went into the excavation of three mound sites and one non-mound site located in the valley between the main dam and the reregulation dam (Kelly et al. 1965; Kelly 1970, 1972; Hally 1970, 1979, 1980). The Carters Dam locality was the scene of Mississippian cultural developments only slightly less spectacular than that which occurred in the Etowah Valley near Cartersville, but the scientific contribution of much of this work has been minimal because of the general unavailability of final reports.

Only two major excavations have been conducted outside of the Cartersville and Carters Dam areas. A University of Georgia crew under the direction of A. R. Kelly spent approximately three months in 1967 excavating in the late Savannah period Plant Hammond mound (9FL100) located on the Coosa River west of Rome. Material recovered from this work has not been analyzed, and there is no report describing the excavations.

The King site (9FL5), located on the Coosa River near the Alabama border, was the subject of investigation intermittently from 1971 through 1975 (Garrow and Smith 1973; Hally et al. 1975). Excavations at this site have provided important information on Lamar community layout and social differentiation. The site also represents an important link in the emerging picture of early Spanish exploration in the region. No final report detailing these findings has, however, been published.

Several extensive but non-systematic surveys conducted in the study area since 1970 have recorded Mississippian sites. These include the surveys of J.H. Chapman for Georgia State University along the Etowah River between Cartersville and Rome, Pat Garrow and Roger Grosser for Shorter College in Floyd County, and the junior author along the Coosawattee River in Gordon and Murray Counties.

Survey and excavation by John Wear and Wayne and Johnny Long in the Coosawattee River drainage has contributed greatly to our knowledge of that area. Most of the large Lamar villages located on the Coosawattee River were first reported by these individuals.

Archaeological research in the Valley and Ridge Province has been restricted almost exclusively to the major rivers in the Great Valley District. With the expansion of federally mandated CRM archaeology during the past 10 years, the more mountainous Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts have begun to receive attention in the form of a number of mostly small scale surveys. These projects, including the 1000 ha Rocky Mountain Pumped Storage Project in Floyd County (Garrow and Fortune 1973; Garrow and Warner 1978; G. Williams 1979) and the East Tennessee - Ball Ground Pipeline Corridor Survey (Blanton et al. 1987), have failed to turn up evidence of significant Mississippian occupation.

The final development in Valley and Ridge archaeology that needs to be noted is that relating to the De Soto and Luna expeditions of A.D. 1540 and A.D. 1560 respectively. Hudson and his colleagues (Hudson et al. 1985; Smith 1987) have argued that both expeditions visited northwest Georgia seeking the town of Coosa. They identify the Little Egypt site at Carters Dam as Coosa. Working with collectors in the area Jim Langford and Marvin Smith (1986) have been able to identify a number of sites on the Coosa and Coosawattee Rivers, in addition to Little Egypt and King, which have yielded mid-16th century Spanish artifacts.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECTS IN THE GEORGIA VALLEY AND RIDGE

The following projects have yielded information on Mississippi period archaeological sites in the study area.

PROJECT NAME: Bartow County excavations of the Division of Mound Explorations, Smithsonian Institution
 PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River near Cartersville
 PROJECT DURATION: 1883
 PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: John Rogan
 PROJECT SPONSOR: Smithsonian Institution
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Extensive excavation in Mounds C, B, D, and E at Etowah (9BR1); excavations in Conyers Farm Mound (9BR40), Leake Mound (9BR2), and three other mounds which cannot be relocated today.
 PROJECT RESULTS: Encountered burials with elaborate Southern Cult grave goods in Mound C at Etowah
 PROJECT EVALUATION: Excavator seems to have been interested primarily in finding burials and did not use stratigraphic controls
 PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Thomas, 1984
 COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C.

PROJECT NAME: Etowah Site (9BR1), Mound C Excavation

PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River; Bartow County
PROJECT DURATION: 1925-1927
PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Warren K. Moorehead
PROJECT SPONSOR: Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.
NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Unsystematic excavations in Mound C and
test pitting in village
PROJECT RESULTS: Encountered burials with elaborate grave furnishings
PROJECT EVALUATION: Excavator was primarily interested in burials and
did not use stratigraphic controls
PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Moorehead, 1932
COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: R.S.Peabody Foundation for
Archaeology, Andover, MA

PROJECT NAME: Carters Quarters (Little Egypt site, 9MU102)
PROJECT LOCATION: Carters Dam, Coosawattee River, Murray County
PROJECT DURATION: Several weeks in 1927
PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Warren K. Moorehead
PROJECT SPONSOR: Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.
NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Excavation of 30 ft by 40 ft pit in Mound
A and excavation of burials in village
PROJECT RESULTS: Recovery of iron artifacts from burials in Mound A,
and Late Southern Cult artifacts from village area
burials
PROJECT EVALUATION: Excavator was primarily interested in burials and
did not use stratigraphic controls
PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Moorehead, 1932
COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: R.S.Peabody Foundation for
Archaeology, Andover, MA

PROJECT NAME: North Georgia Survey
PROJECT LOCATION: 40 counties in north Georgia; Coosa, Chattahoochee, Savannah, and Little Tennessee drainages
PROJECT DURATION: 1938-1940
PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Robert Wauchope, University of Georgia
PROJECT SPONSOR: WPA, University of Georgia, Society for Georgia Archaeology
NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Site reconnaissance, surface collecting, test excavations and extensive excavations in numerous sites
PROJECT RESULTS: Established cultural sequence for north Georgia, with emphasis on Woodland and Mississippi periods
PROJECT EVALUATION: Unsystematic survey, with heavy emphasis on local informants. Field records and most of collections no longer available for study
PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Wauchope, 1966
COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Middle American Research Institute, Tulane University, New Orleans, LA

PROJECT NAME: Etowah Village and Mounds (9BR1) Excavation
 PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River; Bartow County
 PROJECT DURATION: June through August, 1953
 PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: William H. Sears, Georgia Historical Commission
 and University of Georgia
 PROJECT SPONSOR: Georgia Historical Commission
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Mapping and testing of village deposits
 and Mound C; one large area excavation in village
 PROJECT RESULTS: Confirmation of Etowah-Wilbanks-Lamar sequence at
 site; excavation of Lamar domestic structure;
 identification of Lamar component as Cherokee
 PROJECT EVALUATION: Emphasis on ceramics and site chronology
 REFERENCES: Sears, 1953
 COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and
 Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Etowah Mounds B and C (9BR1) Excavations
 PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River; Bartow County
 PROJECT DURATION: 1954-56
 PROJECT INVESTIGATION: Lewis H. Larson, Georgia Historical Commission;
 A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia
 PROJECT SPONSOR: Georgia Historical Commission
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Excavation of west side of Mound B,
 adjacent village deposits and remaining portion of
 Mound C
 PROJECT RESULTS: Determined Mound B and C chronology; recovery of
 elaborate Southern Cult burials in Mound C; and
 reconstruction of Mound C architectural history
 PROJECT EVALUATION: Results incompletely reported. Field notes for
 Mound B excavation do not exist
 PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Kelly and Larson, 1956; Larson 1971a
 COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology
 and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA;
 Department of Sociology and Anthropology, West
 Georgia College, Carrollton, GA; Etowah Indian Mounds
 State Park, Cartersville, GA

PROJECT NAME: Weiss Reservoir Survey and Excavations
 PROJECT LOCATION: Coosa River; Cherokee County, Alabama
 PROJECT DURATION: 1957-1960
 PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: David L. DeJarnette, Edward B. Kurjack, and
 Bennie C. Neel, University of Alabama
 PROJECT SPONSOR: Alabama Power Company; University of Alabama, and
 Florida State Museum
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Survey of 27,000 acre Reservoir; test
 pitting, test trenching, and large area excavations
 at 30 sites
 PROJECT RESULTS: Recorded 305 sites of which 21 yielded
 shell-tempered, late Mississippi period pottery.
 Trade goods indicate occupation dating to the late
 16th-early 17th centuries and the late 18th-early

19th centuries

PROJECT EVALUATION: No indication of survey methods; no subsurface survey; site excavations generally small

PUBLISHED REFERENCES: DeJarnette et al., 1963

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Office of Archaeological Research, Mound State Monument, Moundville, AL

PROJECT NAME: Etowah Site (9BR1) Village and Plaza Excavations

PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River; Bartow County

PROJECT DURATION: Summers of 1962, 1964, 1965, 1972 and 1973

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Lewis Larson

PROJECT SPONSOR: West Georgia College, Georgia State University, Georgia Historical Commission

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Excavation of house floors, features, and burials

PROJECT RESULTS: Information gathered on house form and configuration of plaza, palisade and ditch

PROJECT EVALUATION: Results have not been reported except for Larson (1972)

PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Larson, 1972

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Sociology and Anthropology, West Georgia College, Carrollton, GA

PROJECT NAME: Sixtoe Field (9MU100) Excavations

PROJECT LOCATION: Carters Reservoir; Coosawattee River; Murray County

PROJECT DURATION: Summer months of 1962-65

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia

PROJECT SPONSOR: National Park Service

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Test pits and large area excavations in seven different locations in Sixtoe Field portion of floodplain below Carters Dam

PROJECT RESULTS: Partial excavation of an Etowah mound and excavation of several Etowah and Lamar domestic structures

PROJECT EVALUATION: Poorly reported

REFERENCES: Kelly et al., 1965

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Plant Hammond Mound (9FL3) Excavations

PROJECT LOCATION: Coosa River, Floyd County

PROJECT DURATION: Summer months, 1967

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly and Archie Smith; University of Georgia

PROJECT SPONSOR: Georgia Power Company

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Excavation of mound summit and exploratory trenches to mound base

PROJECT RESULTS: Mound dates to late Savannah Period and is underlain by Swift Creek midden. Three superimposed structures

exposed on mound summit.

PROJECT EVALUATION: Excavations restricted to mound. No report written and field notes have been lost.

REFERENCES: None

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Bell Field Site (9MU101) Excavations

PROJECT LOCATION: Carters Reservoir; Coosawattee River; Murray County

PROJECT DURATION: Summer months, 1965-1968, 1970-1971

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia

PROJECT SPONSOR: National Park Service

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Partial (50%) excavation of mound

PROJECT RESULTS: Mound found to consist of eight building stages with at least three having multiple summit structures connected by passageways; Savannah culture

PROJECT EVALUATION: Only central portion of mound excavated; poor stratigraphic control; poorly reported

REFERENCES: Kelly, 1970, 1972

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Potts' Tract Site (9MU103) Excavation

PROJECT LOCATION: Carters Reservoir; Coosawattee River; Murray County

PROJECT DURATION: 10 weeks beginning in June, 1968

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: David J. Hally, University of Georgia

PROJECT SPONSOR: National Park Service

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Excavation of midden and three Lamar structures

PROJECT RESULTS: Description of three Lamar structures; definition of two components, Woodstock culture and Barnett phase of Lamar culture

PROJECT EVALUATION: Excavations not extensive enough to determine limits and configuration of site

PUBLISHED REFERENCES: Hally, 1970

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Little Egypt Site (9MU102) Excavation

PROJECT LOCATION: Carters Reservoir; Coosawattee River; Murray County

PROJECT DURATION: Summer months, 1969-1972

PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: David J. Hally, University of Georgia

PROJECT SPONSOR: National Park Service

NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Extensive test pitting and test trenching; six large area excavations; partial mound excavation

PROJECT RESULTS: Definition of Little Egypt and Barnett phases of Lamar; detailed study of Barnett phase domestic structures

PROJECT EVALUATION: Mounds not sufficiently excavated; site limits and site configuration not determined sufficiently
 REFERENCES: Hally, 1979, 1980
 COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: King site (9FL5) Excavation
 PROJECT LOCATION: Foster Bend; Coosa River; Floyd County
 PROJECT DURATION: June, 1973 - September, 1974
 PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Patrick Garrow, Shorter College; David J. Hally, University of Georgia
 PROJECT SPONSOR: National Endowment for the Humanities; National Geographic Society, University of Georgia
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Extensive excavation involving stripping and mapping of approximately 3/5 of the 2 ha site; excavation of five house floors; and excavation of 213 burials.
 PROJECT RESULTS: Delineation of village layout; detailed study of Barnett phase domestic structures; and thorough osteological and demographic analysis of human skeletal population
 PROJECT EVALUATION: Results largely unreported. One third of site remains to be excavated; no subsurface investigation outside of site defensive perimeter; no excavation of postholes
 REFERENCES: Garrow and Smith, 1973; Hally, 1982; Hally et al., 1975; M. Smith, 1975; Seckinger, 1975; Tally, 1975
 COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA; Harold King, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: East Tennessee - Ball Ground Pipeline Corridor Survey and Testing
 PROJECT LOCATION: Cherokee, Bartow, Gordon, Murray, Whitfield, and Catoosa Counties
 PROJECT DURATION: April - July, 1987
 PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: Dennis Blanton, Stephen Bryne, and Lisa O'Steen; Garrow & Associates, Inc.
 PROJECT SPONSOR: Atlanta Gas Light Co.
 NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Pedestrian survey of 90 miles of 50 ft wide pipeline corridor, and test excavation at four sites
 PROJECT RESULTS: Recorded 103 sites, three of which have definite Mississippian (Woodstock culture) components.
 PROJECT EVALUATION: Corridor traverses Great Valley (61 miles) and Armuchee Ridges (6 miles) Districts, but narrowness of survey transect (50 ft) reduces value of survey for providing reliable site location and density data
 REFERENCES: Blanton et al., 1987

COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and
Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PROJECT NAME: Leake site (9BR2) Excavation
PROJECT LOCATION: Etowah River near Cartersville
PROJECT DURATION: June 1988 - July 1988
PROJECT INVESTIGATOR: David J. Hally, University of Georgia; James B.
Langford, Jr., Coosawattee Foundation
PROJECT SPONSOR: Coosawattee Foundation and the University of Georgia
NATURE AND SCOPE OF PROJECT: Extensive test pitting and test trenching
in Woodland period mounds and Brewster phase village
PROJECT RESULTS: Determined that mounds were constructed in the Middle
Woodland period and revealed the existence of a
Brewster phase village covering at least 1 ha.
PROJECT EVALUATION: Project failed to determine full size and
configuration of Brewster phase village
REFERENCES: None
COLLECTIONS AND RECORDS CURATION: Department of Anthropology and
Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA

PREHISTORIC OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The Valley and Ridge Province in Georgia has abundant and spectacular Mississippian archaeological resources. A number of large scale archaeological projects have been conducted in the area, but few have been published, and most that have been are concerned with the protohistoric and early historic periods. Only three phases have been defined in print, and there have been no published attempts to outline a phase sequence or synthesize what is known about the Mississippian occupation of the area. As a result, it has not been possible to write the prehistoric overview section without conducting a certain amount of basic research: including analysis of artifact collections, compilation of site distributions from data contained in the state site files; definition of phases; and construction of a phase sequence.

Six sites have been especially important in developing the present synthesis: Etowah (9BR1), Sixtoe (9MU100), Bell Field (9MU101), Little Egypt (9MU102), Potts Tract (9MU103), and Plant Hammond (9FL3). Sears (1953) and Kelly (Kelly and Larson 1956) both conducted extensive test excavations in the stratified deposits located in the small "plaza" between Mounds B and C at Etowah, but only Sears has completed a report detailing his work. The present authors have benefited from Sears' report, but have relied heavily on their own analysis of Kelly's and Sears' collections to characterize Mound B area occupations. Both Kelly and Sears identified Etowah II, III, IV, Wilbanks, and Lamar components, and Sears defined a new Pumpkinvine phase for the latter.

The stratigraphically earliest deposits that Kelly encountered in his excavations at Mound B were a series of large saucer-shaped pits which contained pottery he identified as Etowah II and Etowah III. These were overlain by a 60 cm thick midden containing structures and pottery identified as Etowah IV. This stratum in turn underlay the fill of terminal Mound B construction stages. Mound slopewash deposits also overlay this stratum and were in turn overlain by a black midden containing Wilbanks ceramics. Collections from all of these contexts have been analyzed for the present report.

Kelly (Kelly et al. 1965) excavated the latest preserved construction stages of the Sixtoe mound and several large units in the village. Portions of five domestic structures and a number of refuse-filled pits were explored in the latter. Kelly identified the mound and pit features as Etowah II and III and the structures as Dallas and Lamar. Collections from the mound and the refuse-filled pits have been analyzed for the present report.

Kelly's (1970, 1972) Bell Field excavations were limited almost exclusively to the mound. Portions of the summits of several construction stages and their associated buildings were explored. Unfortunately, artifact collections from these contexts were very small, and as a result Kelly was not able to establish phase affiliation for

the mound with certainty. Most of the collections from building floor and mound flank contexts have been analyzed for the present report.

Midden strata and domestic structures were excavated at the Potts Tract site by the senior author. The site, its artifact contents, and its Woodstock and Lamar components have been described in print (Hally 1970). A new Barnett phase was defined for the latter component.

Extensive excavations were conducted in both mound and village contexts at the Little Egypt site by the senior author. The site, its artifact contents, and its Woodstock and two Lamar components have been described in print (Hally 1979, 1980, 1981). A new Little Egypt phase of Lamar culture was defined.

Kelly's excavations at Plant Hammond (9FL3) were restricted to the mound. Kelly never analysed the resulting collections, and field notes from the excavations have been lost. The pottery collection from mound strata, however, is very uniform, indicating that construction and use were confined to a single phase. This phase is identifiable with Savannah Culture. Most of the collections from the site have been analyzed for this report.

Several characteristics of the pottery collections from Etowah, Sixtoe, Bell Field, and Plant Hammond have the potential to adversely affect the reliability of any ceramic analysis. In the absence of detailed field notes, the stratigraphic context of collections from Sixtoe, Bell Field, and Plant Hammond mounds was difficult to establish with certainty. As a result, it has been more difficult to determine whether the sherd collections from some strata represent a single component or several. This situation was especially critical in the case of the Bell Field mound where collections were quite small and frequently contained sherds from earlier components. In the case of Bell Field and Plant Hammond and to a lesser extent Etowah, it has not been possible to analyze collections from a variety of functionally distinct contexts. The potential, therefore, exists for some observed ceramic frequencies to be the result of intra-site vessel usage patterns rather than style change through time. Finally, sherd collections from the large refuse-filled pits excavated at Etowah and Sixtoe contained large quantities of sherds, but these seem to represent relatively few different vessels. As a result, there is the potential for ceramic counts to be skewed by chance factors.

Every effort has been made to counter these potential difficulties. Analyzed collections have been drawn to the extent possible only from stratigraphic contexts that clearly represent occupation surfaces. Where possible, large numbers of sherds were analyzed from each component, and these were drawn from a number of different excavation lots and stratigraphic contexts. Despite these precautions, it is possible that some of the ceramic variability we have documented may reflect factors other than change through time and across space.

A large number of pottery types will be referred to in the following pages. Some of these types are defined differently by different researchers. In order to avoid confusion over what we mean

when we use a particular type name, we list in an Appendix all types that we refer to in this report together with the published sources for the definition we adhere to.

Important cultural sequences have been defined for three areas adjacent to the study area: The Allatoona Reservoir sequence from the Piedmont portion of the Etowah River, (Fairbanks 1950; Wauchope 1948, 1950; Caldwell 1950, 1957; Sears 1950, 1958); the Chickamauga Reservoir sequence from the Tennessee River Valley in Tennessee (Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946); and the Guntersville Basin sequence from the Tennessee River Valley in Alabama (Webb and Wilder 1951; Heimlich 1952; Walthal 1980) (Table 1). One of these sequences, that from the Allatoona Reservoir, forms the basis for the sequence presented in this report (Table 2). The others provide comparative perspectives that are essential for understanding cultural developments in northwest Georgia. The basic ceramic characteristics of the phases and cultures comprising each sequence are summarized in Table 3.

The Allatoona sequence is built primarily on a series of changes in the motifs characteristic of complicated stamped pottery (Figure 7). The earliest Mississippian culture in the sequence, Woodstock, is characterized by the near exclusive occurrence of concentric oval, concentric diamond, and lineblock stamped motifs. Woodstock pottery is characterized by fine-textured, micaceous paste with fine sand temper and is typically manufactured in the form of elongated jars with rounded bottoms, slightly constricted necks, and outflaring plain rims.

Etowah culture, which follows, is divided into four phases. Etowah I is supposedly characterized by the nearly exclusive use of ladder base diamond and lineblock motifs. The existence of Etowah I as so defined has not been established, however, with certainty. Caldwell (1957) found no pure components in the Allatoona Reservoir. Eight were identified in the Buford Reservoir (Lake Lanier) survey (Caldwell 1953a), but there is no published description of the collections in question. Since the ladder base diamond is generally considered to have developed out of the Woodstock oval and diamond motifs, one might expect to find the latter persisting into Etowah I. Presumably temper, paste, and vessel shape characteristics do not change from Woodstock.

In Etowah II, the inventory of pottery types increases considerably over that characteristic of Woodstock and Etowah I (Sears 1958). The dominant complicated stamped motifs in both Etowah Complicated Stamped and its shell-tempered equivalent, Hiwassee Complicated Stamped, are ladder base diamonds and two bar diamonds. Mississippian ceramic features are an important element in the complex. Twenty-two percent of the pottery in the type collection from Wilbanks is shell tempered, and at least two Mississippian vessel shape modes, globular jar and peaked jar rims, occur with the shell-tempered type, Sixes Plain. Hiwassee Complicated Stamped combines Etowah Complicated Stamped vessel shape and stamping characteristics with shell-tempered paste.

Etowah III phase is well represented in ceramic collections from Wilbanks (Sears 1958) and Stamp Creek (9Br139) (Caldwell 1957). The ceramic assemblage from Wilbanks includes most of the Etowah II types

TABLE 1

CULTURE SEQUENCES FROM AREAS ADJACENT TO THE
GEORGIA VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

	<u>Allatoona Reservoir</u>	<u>Guntersville Reservoir</u>	<u>Chickamauga Reservoir</u>
A.D. 1600			
	Brewster	Crow Creek/ Gunterlands IV	
A.D. 1500			
	Early Lamar		Dallas/ Mouse Creek
A.D. 1400			
	Wilbanks	Henry Island/ Gunterlands III	
A.D. 1300			
	Savannah		
	IV		
A.D. 1100	III	Langston/ Gunterlands III	Hiwassee Island
	Etowah II		
A.D. 1000	I		
	Woodstock		
A.D. 900			
	Napier		
			Hamilton

TABLE 2

VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE PHASE SEQUENCE

	<u>Period</u>	<u>Culture</u>	<u>Phase</u>
A.D. 1600			
	Late		Barnett/Brewster
A.D. 1500	Mississippi	Lamar	
			Little Egypt
A.D. 1400			
	Middle		
A.D. 1300	Mississippi	Savannah	Wilbanks
A.D. 1200			
			Late Etowah
A.D. 1100		Etowah	
	Early		
A.D. 1000	Mississippi		Early Etowah
		Woodstock	Woodstock
A.D. 900			

TABLE 3

Ceramic Characteristics of Phases: Allatoona, Chickamauga
and Guntersville Reservoirs

Phase/culture	Type sites	Ceramic characteristics	References
<u>ALLATOONA RESERVOIR SEQUENCE</u>			
Woodstock	Woodstock (9CK2) Woodstock Fort (9CK85)	Major types: Woodstock Complicated Stamped (concentric diamond, oval and circle motifs and lineblock motif). Minor types: Woodstock Check Stamped, Woodstock Plain, Woodstock Incised.	Caldwell, 1957
Etowah I	No "pure" sites in Allatoona. Eight surface sites in Buford Reservoir	Major types: Etowah Complicated Stamped (ladder base diamond and line block motifs).	Caldwell, 1957
Etowah II	Wilbanks (9CK5)	Major types: Etowah Complicated Stamped (ladder base diamond decreases in frequency, 2 bar diamond important), Etowah Plain, Sixes Plain. Minor types: Hiwassee Complicated Stamped, Etowah Red Filmed, Etowah Polished Black, Etowah Burnished Plain.	Sears, 1958
Etowah III	Wilbanks (9CK5) Stamp Creek (9BR139)	Major types: Etowah Complicated Stamped (2 bar diamond important, line block important, appearance of filfot cross), Etowah Plain. Minor types: Hiwassee Complicated Stamped, Etowah Red Filmed, Hiwassee Red Filmed, Hiwassee Red on Buff, Etowah Polished Black, Etowah Incised.	Sears, 1958; Caldwell, 1957

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Phase/culture	Type sites	Ceramic characteristics	References
<u>ALLATOONA (cont.)</u>			
Etowah IV	Woodstock Fort (9CK85) (9CO82)	Major types: Etowah Complicated Stamped (barred diamond, Filfot cross), Savannah Complicated Stamped (figure 8 and figure 9 motifs). Minor types: Etowah Plain, Etowah Polished Black, Hiwassee Island Red on Buff.	Caldwell, 1957
Savannah	9BR60, 9BR62	Major types: Savannah Complicated Stamped (figure 8, figure 9, concentric circle, circle with motifs), Savannah Plain.	Caldwell, 1957
Wilbanks	Wilbanks (9CK5)	Major types: Wilbanks Complicated Stamped (bullseye, quatrefoil with dot, elongate U with cross bar, and scroll motifs), Wilbanks Plain. Minor types: Wilbanks Red Filmed.	Sears, 1958
Early Lamar	Stamp Creek (BR139)	Major types: Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Plain.	Caldwell, 1957
Brewster	Stamp Creek (9BR139) Chambers (9CK23)	Major types: Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Incised, Lamar Plain.	Caldwell, 1957
<u>CHICKAMAUGA RESERVOIR SEQUENCE</u>			
Hiwassee Island	Hiwassee Island, Sale Creek, Hixon, Davis	Major types: Shell-tempered plain, shell-tempered cordmarked, fabric impressed salt pans. Minor types: Hiwassee Island Complicated stamped (ladder base, 2 bar, and cross-bar diamond, one bar cross concentric circle)	Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Phase/culture	Type sites	Ceramic characteristics	References
<u>CHICKAMAUGA (cont.)</u>			
Dallas	Hiwassee Island, Sale Creek, Dallas	Hiwassee Island Red Filmed, Hiwassee Island. Red on Buff, Etowah Complicated Stamped (ladder base and 2 bar diamond). Major types: Dallas Plain, shell-tempered cordmarked, fabric marked salt pans. Minor types: Dallas Incised, Dallas Modeled, Dallas Filleted, Dallas Negative Painted.	Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946
Mouse Creek	Mouse Creeks, Ledford Island, Rymer	Major types: Shell-tempered plain, plain-surfaced salt pans. Minor types: Dallas Incised, Dallas Modeled, Dallas Filleted, shell-tempered cordmarked, Hiwassee Island Red Filmed, Hiwassee Island Red on Buff, Dallas Negative Painted, grit-tempered complicated stamped.	Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946; Sullivan, 1986
<u>GUNTERSVILLE RESERVOIR SEQUENCE</u>			
Langston/ Gunterlands III	Langston, Gunter's Landing	Major types: Shell-tempered plain, Langston Fabric Marked. Minor types: Mulberry Creek Plain, McKelvey Plain, Kirby Complicated Stamped, Moundville Red Filmed	Walthal, 1980; Webb and Wilder, 1951; Heimlich, 1952
Henry Island/ Gunterlands III	Hardin, Rudder, Snodgrass	Major types: Shell-tempered plain. Minor types: Langston Fabric Marked, Cox Red on Buff, Moundville Red Filmed, Moundville Black Filmed, Hardin Complicated Stamped, Kirby Complicated Stamped, Rudder Incised,	Walthal, 1980; Webb and Wilder, 1951; Heimlich 1952

TABLE 3 (cont.)

Phase/culture	Type sites	Ceramic characteristics	References
<u>GUNTERSVILLE (cont.)</u>			
Crow Creek/ Gunterlands IV	Sauty, Cox, Crow Creek	Rudder Cordmarked, Rudder Comb Incised, Major types: McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Cordmarked. Minor types: McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, Langston Fabric Marked, Cox Complicated Stamped, Moundville Red Filmed.	Walthal, 1980; Webb and Wilder, 1951; Heimlich, 1952

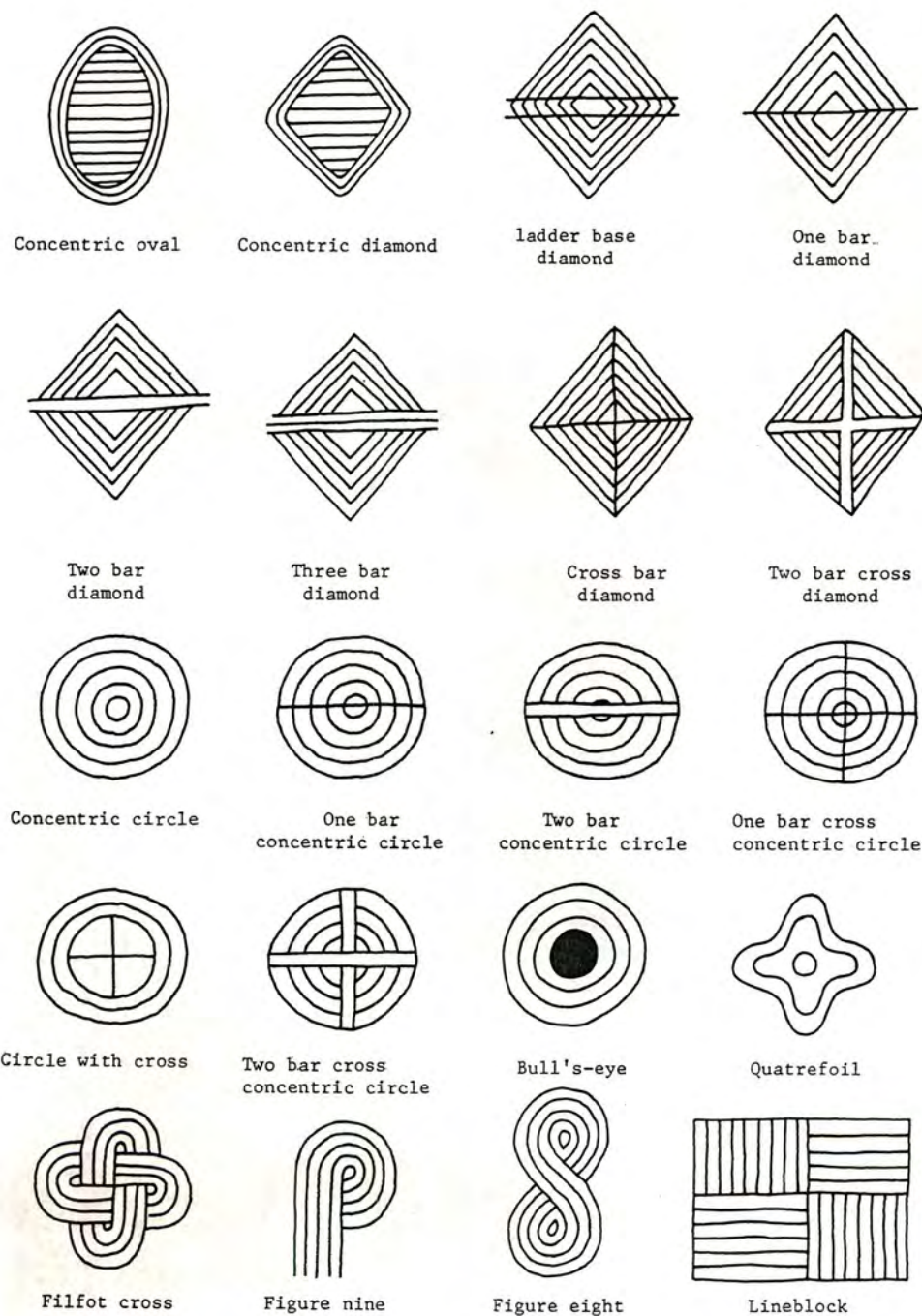


Figure 7. Complicated Stamped Motifs Referred to in Text.

and two new types, Hiwassee Red on Buff and Etowah Incised. The latter is sand tempered and occurs in two Mississippian vessel shapes: globular jar with strap handles and bowl with outflaring rim. Complicated stamped pottery is characterized by the occurrence of the two bar diamond, line block, and filfot cross motifs. A "concentric polygon" motif is also reported from Stamp Creek. Shell tempering decreases markedly in frequency, and limestone tempering is reported for a small proportion of the Etowah Complicated Stamped pottery from Stamp Creek.

Etowah IV is defined by Caldwell (1957) on the basis of a single pit feature at the Woodstock Fort site (9Ck85) in Allatoona Reservoir. Etowah Complicated Stamped motifs are limited to the two bar and three bar diamond and filfot cross. There is a tendency for this pottery to be thicker walled and stamped with larger motifs and heavier lines than is the case in Etowah II and III. Sherds identified as Savannah Complicated Stamped are also present in the complex according to Caldwell and are also characterized by thicker vessel walls and heavier stamping. Stamp motifs include the figure 8 and figure 9. Shell tempering is absent except for a single example of Hiwassee Red on Buff. Some Savannah Complicated Stamped sherds are limestone tempered. A similar ceramic complex occurs at 9C082, also in the Allatoona Reservoir (Caldwell 1957).

Caldwell (1957) recognized a "Savannah Period" occupation in small pottery collections from nine sites in the Allatoona Reservoir. Diagnostic pottery types include Savannah Plain and Savannah Complicated Stamped, the latter characterized by figure 8, figure 9, concentric circle, and concentric circle with cross motifs. Rectilinear motifs are said to be absent. Although Caldwell is silent on the matter, stamp motifs presumably continue to be large and heavy. Mississippian ceramic features, represented in burial vessels from the Stamp Creek site, include globular jars with strap handles and rim lugs and narrow neck water bottles.

Sears (1958) defined Wilbanks culture on the basis of a large excavated ceramic collection from the Wilbanks site. Only three types are included in the ceramic complex: Wilbanks Complicated Stamped, Wilbanks Plain, and Wilbanks Red Filmed. Paste is described as coarse and tempered with coarse sand. Vessel walls are thick and jars are characterized by pronounced shoulders. Motifs characteristic of Wilbanks Complicated Stamped are scroll, bullseye, concentric quatrefoil with dot, and elongated U with crossbar. A number of miscellaneous types -- check stamped, cordmarked, burnished plain, shell-tempered plain, shell-tempered complicated stamped, and red on buff -- are represented in the collection by small numbers of sherds, but Sears dismisses them as being older, idiosyncratic, or unidentifiable as to type.

The relationship between the Savannah, Wilbanks, and Etowah ceramic complexes in the Allatoona Reservoir as described by Sears (1958) and Caldwell (1957) is complex and confusing. Sears (1958:176) argues that Wilbanks is probably later than Savannah. The emphasis on curvilinear stamp motifs in Savannah and Wilbanks contrasts with the rectilinear

diamond and lineblock motifs characteristic of the preceding Etowah phases. Sears argues that this discontinuity in complicated stamping represents the appearance of alien people in the Etowah Valley, people who presumably originated much farther south in the state. The position taken in the present report is that Sears has over emphasized the discontinuity in complicated stamping styles and that there is considerable evidence (Hally and Rudolph 1986; Rudolph and Hally 1985) for in situ development of Savannah and Wilbanks ceramics from preceding Etowah pottery types. This question, as well as that of the relationship between Wilbanks and Savannah, will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.

Caldwell (1957) distinguished two phases of Lamar culture in the Allatoona Reservoir. What he called Early Lamar was represented primarily at one site, Stamp Creek (9BR139), and was characterized by the absence of Lamar Incised and the presence of Lamar Complicated Stamped with "aberrant Etowah style stamps" and "incidental rim treatment." Brewster phase, identified as late Lamar, was best represented at Stamp Creek and the Chambers site (9CK23). The ceramic assemblage from these sites is characterized by three pottery types: Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Incised, and Lamar Plain. Lamar Complicated Stamped is poorly executed and heavily over stamped and occurs on jars with thickened and pinched rims. Lamar Incised occurs exclusively on carinated bowls. Incised line width is intermediate to that of Lamar Bold Incised and Ocmulgee Fields Incised as represented in central Georgia.

THE MISSISSIPPI PERIOD IN THE GEORGIA VALLEY AND RIDGE PROVINCE

With the possible exception of Woodstock culture, all known Mississippi period site components and phases in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province can be identified as Mississippian culture. Woodstock culture may lack a number of important characteristics of Mississippian culture -- intensive maize agriculture, platform mounds, large villages, and Mississippian pottery features -- and, as a result, there is some question whether it is not more appropriately identified with Late Woodland culture.

Table 2 summarizes the phase sequence developed for the Mississippian occupation of the Valley and Ridge Province as a result of analysis of pottery collections from Sixtoe (9MU100), Bell Field (9MU101), Little Egypt (9MU102), Potts Tract (9MU103), Etowah (9BR1), and Plant Hammond (9FL3) sites. The dates assigned to these phases are based on radiocarbon determinations from sites in the study area as well as on ceramic crossdating with radiocarbon dated phases located elsewhere in North Georgia. Table 4 and Figures 8 and 9 summarize these radiocarbon dates. Table 4 lists only dates that can be reliably associated with Mississippian components identifiable to phase or culture. These dates are graphed by phase/culture and period in their uncorrected form in Figure 8 and in their MASCA (Ralph et al. 1973) corrected form in Figure 9. A line, representing what we consider to be the central tendency of these dates by phase or culture, is superimposed on each figure.

TABLE 4

Radiocarbon Dates for Mississippian Sites in Georgia
Valley and Ridge Province and Surrounding Areas

Date Number	Laboratory Identification	Site	Phase/Culture	Uncorrected Date	Corrected Date	Reference
1	UGA 5375	9Ck131 (Hobgood)	Woodstock	A.D. 790±60	A.D. 850	B. Smith 1985
2	Beta 4354	9Ck123 (Cagle)	Woodstock?	A.D. 880±50	A.D. 940	Crook 1984
3	UGA 55	9Mu103	Woodstock	A.D. 928±40	A.D. 980-1000	Hally 1970
4	UM 1675	9Lu(Dot)1 (Chestatee)	Woodstock	A.D. 970±105	A.D. 1020	Crook 1982
5	I 981	9B11 (Macon Plateau)	Macon Plateau	A.D. 1015±110	A.D. 1055	Wilson 1964
6	M 940	9B15 (Brown's Mount)	Macon Plateau	A.D. 980±150	A.D. 1030	Wilson 1964
7	Beta 8961	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 900±80	A.D. 960	Gresham et al 1985
8	Beta 8962	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 1520±50	A.D. 1430	Gresham et al 1985
9	Beta 8963	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 1170±60	A.D. 1220-1200	Gresham et al 1985
10	Beta 8964	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 1020±50	A.D. 1060	Gresham et al 1985
11	Beta 9551	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 1430±70	A.D. 1400	Gresham et al 1985
12	Beta 9554	9Me21 (Carmouche)	Averett	A.D. 830±60	A.D. 910-890	Gresham et al 1985
13	UGA 1978	9Ge10	Armor	A.D. 905±95	A.D. 965	Smith 1981b
14	UGA 70	9Mu100	Etowah II	A.D. 1045±50	A.D. 1085	Kelly et al 1965
15	M 1064	9Br1 ¹	Etowah II/III	A.D. 1100±200	A.D. 1150-1180	Crane and Griffin 1959
16	M 1062	9Br1 ¹	Etowah II/III	A.D. 1500±200	A.D. 1430	Crane and Griffin 1962

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Date Number	Laboratory Identification	Site	Phase/Culture	Uncorrected Date	Corrected Date	Reference
17	UGA 2374a	9Ge5	Stillhouse	A.D. 1015±60	A.D. 1055	Smith 1981a
18	UGA 2366	9Ge5	Stillhouse	A.D. 1615±60	A.D. 1475-1525	Smith 1981a
19	UGA 2842	9Ge5	Stillhouse	A.D. 1685±85	A.D. 1535-1615	Smith 1981a
20	UGA 1348	9St1	Jarrett	A.D. 1355±65	A.D. 1350	Williams & Branch 1978
21	M 933	380c47	Jarrett	A.D. 830±150	A.D. 890-910	Kelly and Neitzel 1961
22	M934	380c47	Jarrett	A.D. 880±150	A.D. 940	Kelly and Neitzel 1961
23	M935	380c47	Jarrett	A.D. 1180±150	A.D. 1220	Kelly and Neitzel 1961
24	M 1061	9Br1 ¹	Etowah III/IV	A.D. 1280±200	A.D. 1300	Crane and Griffin 1962
25	Beta 1792	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 1150±80	A.D. 1210	Rudolph and Hally 1985
26	Beta 1791	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 1190±200	A.D. 1230	Rudolph and Hally 1985
27	DIC 2119	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 1210±55	A.D. 1240	Rudolph and Hally 1985
28	DIC 2117	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 1570±50	A.D. 1460-1500	Rudolph and Hally 1985
29	DIC 2118	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 330±100	A.D. 400	Rudolph and Hally 1985
30	DIC 2120	9Eb85	Beaverdam	A.D. 1720±80	A.D. 1640	Rudolph and Hally 1985
31	M 542	9Br1 ¹	Wilbanks	A.D. 1040±200	A.D. 1080	Crane and Griffin 1959
32	M 543	9Br1 ¹	Wilbanks	A.D. 1450±250	A.D. 1410	Crane and Griffin 1959
33	M 1060	9Br1 ¹	Wilbanks	A.D. 1725±130	A.D. 1645	Crane and Griffin 1962
34	M 402	9Br1 ¹	Wilbanks	A.D. 1225±200	A.D. 1245	Crane and Griffin 1959

TABLE 4 (Continued)

Date Number	Laboratory Identification	Site	Phase/Culture	Uncorrected Date	Corrected Date	Reference
35	UGA 142	9FL100	Wilbanks	A.D. 1120±70	A.D. 1180	Kelly 1972
36	UGA 143	9FL100	Wilbanks	A.D. 1290±70	A.D. 1310	Kelly 1972
37	UGA 206	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1480±70	A.D. 1420	Kelly 1972
38	UGA 213	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1280±60	A.D. 1300	Kelly 1972
39	UGA 215	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1165±55	A.D. 1200-1220	Kelly 1972
40	UGA 224	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1280±70	A.D. 1300	Kelly 1972
41	UGA 509	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1060±50	A.D. 1100	Kelly 1972
42	UGA 510	9MU101	Bell Field	A.D. 1220±60	A.D. 1240	Kelly 1972
43	Beta 2803	38An8	Rembert	A.D. 1320±40	A.D. 1330	Wood 1981
44	DIC 2304	9Eb91	Rembert	A.D. 1360±60	A.D. 1360	Anderson and Schuldenrein 1983
45	DIC 2305	9Eb91	Rembert	A.D. 1410±60	A.D. 1390	Anderson and Schuldenrein 1983
46	DIC 2303	9Eb91	Rembert	A.D. 1450±70	A.D. 1410	Anderson and Schuldenrein 1983
47	UGA 403	9Mu102	Little Egypt	A.D. 1415±65	A.D. 1395	Hally 1979
48	UGA 2376	9Ge5	Duvall	A.D. 1075±65	A.D. 1100-1130	Smith 1981a
49	UGA 1906	9Ge5	Duvall	A.D. 1690±90	A.D. 1530-1630	Smith 1981a
50	UGA 2843	9Ge5	Duvall	A.D. 1825±50	A.D. 1680-1800	Smith 1981a

TABLE 4 (Continued)

<u>Date Number</u>	<u>Laboratory Identification</u>	<u>Site</u>	<u>Phase/Culture</u>	<u>Uncorrected Date</u>	<u>Corrected Date</u>	<u>Reference</u>
51	UGA 2367	9Ge5	Duwall	A.D. 1570±60	A.D. 1460-1500	Smith 1981a
52	UGA 545	9St1	Tugalo	A.D. 1480±65	A.D. 1420	Williams and Branch 1978
53	UGA 205	9Mul02	Barnett	A.D. 1450±70	A.D. 1410	Hally 1979
54	UGA 208	9Mul02	Barnett	A.D. 1525±55	A.D. 1435	Hally 1979
55	UGA 210	9Mul02	Barnett	A.D. 1555±65	A.D. 1455	Hally 1979
56	UGA 56	9Mul03	Barnett	A.D. 1664±45	A.D. 1520-1610	Hally 1970
57	UGA 2375a	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1555±60	A.D. 1455	Smith 1981a
58	UGA 2372	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1650±80	A.D. 1520-1610	Smith 1981a
59	UGA 2368a	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1725±65	A.D. 1645	Smith 1981a
60	UGA 2368	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1765±145	A.D. 1655	Smith 1981a
61	UGA 2375a	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1555±60	A.D. 1450	Smith 1981a
62	UGA 1907	9Ge5	Dyar	A.D. 1105±145	A.D. 1180	Smith 1981a

¹Phase associations for Etowah site dates have been provided by Lewis H. Larson, Jr. (personal communication, November 28, 1983).

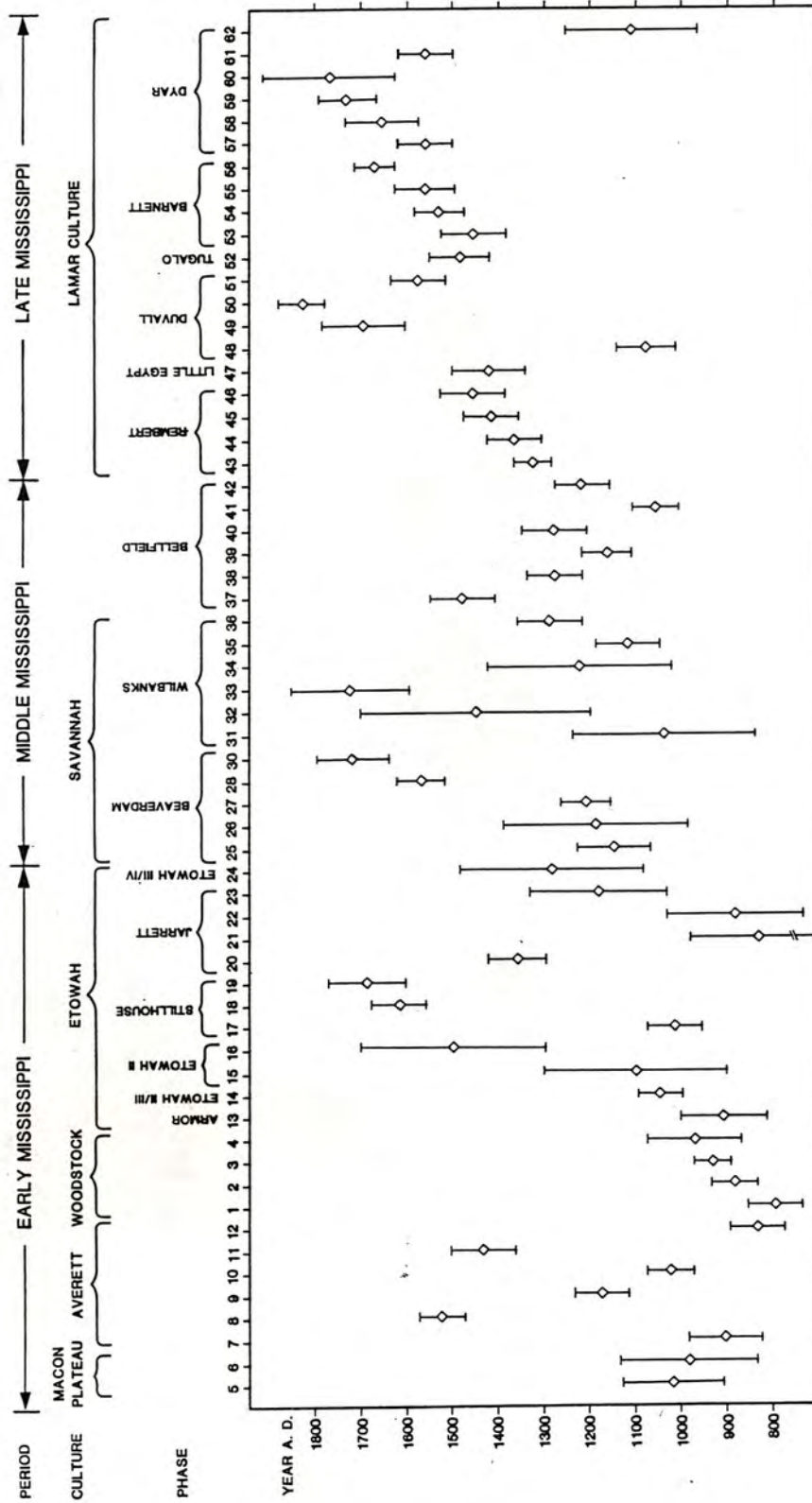


Figure 8. Radiocarbon dates for Mississippian sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province and surrounding areas, uncorrected.

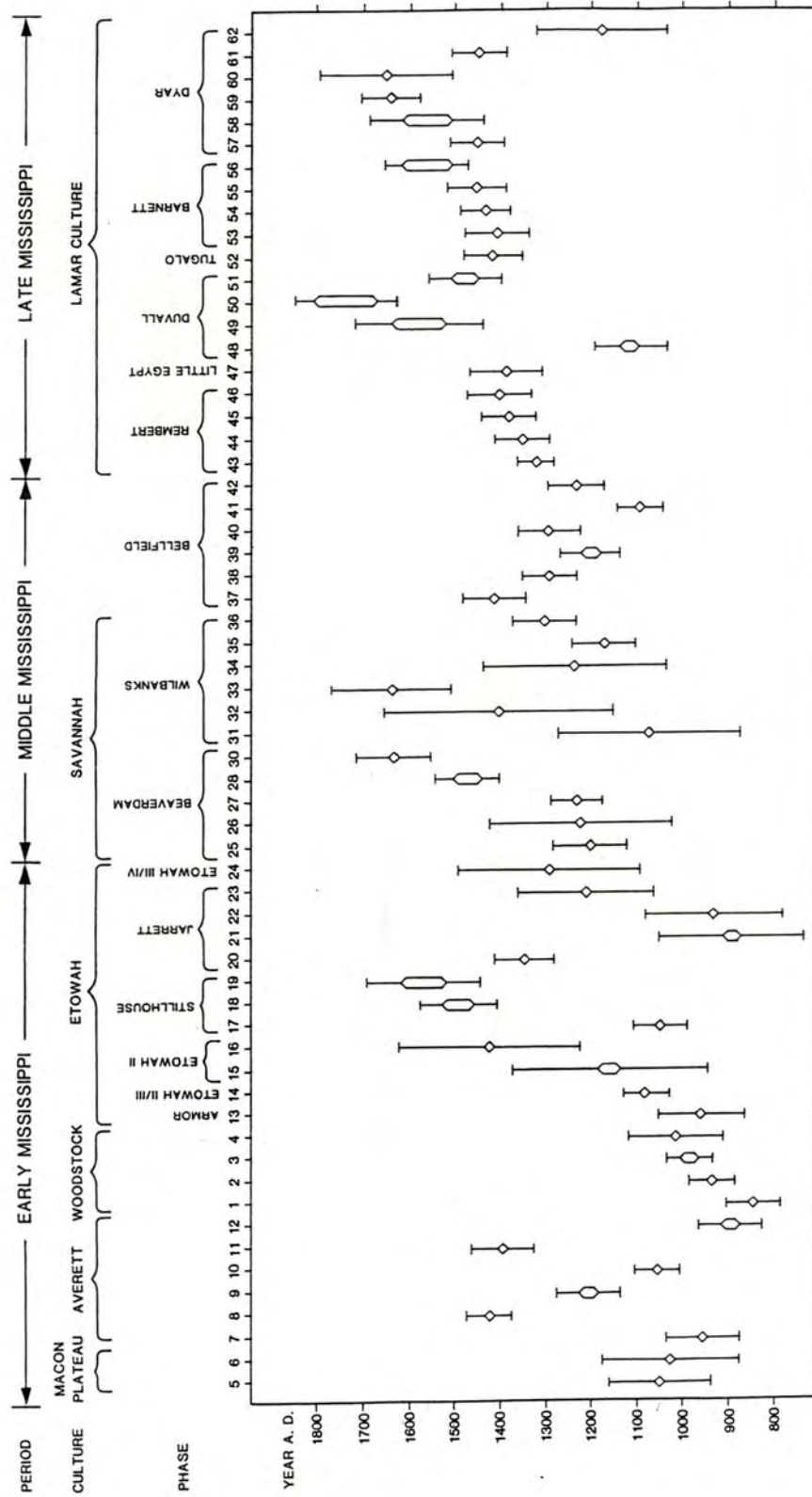


Figure 9. Radiocarbon dates for Mississippian sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province and surrounding areas, MASCA corrected.

Figure 10 plots the distribution of known Mississippian sites in the study area. The great majority of these sites are located in three areas: along a 15 km stretch of the Etowah River west of the Cartersville Fault; along the Coosawattee River west of Carters Dam; and along the Coosa River between Rome and the Alabama border. The northwestern two-thirds of the study area is devoid of Mississippian sites as are the Oostanaula River and all but the northernmost section of the Conasauga River. To some extent, this distribution reflects the distribution of archaeological activity by professionals and amateurs. There have been very few archaeological surveys in the Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts and none along the Conasauga and Oostanaula Rivers. Amateurs have been active on the Coosawattee River, Salacoa Creek, the Coosa River, and the entire stretch of the Etowah River. They have not been active, or at least as active, on the Conasauga and Oostanaula Rivers.

Several pieces of evidence indicate that the distribution of known Mississippian sites is not entirely a function of where there has been archaeological activity.

1. Intensive surveys have been conducted in the Armuchee Ridges District [Rocky Mountain Pumped Storage Project - 1012 ha (Garrow and Fortune 1973; Garrow and Warner 1978)], in the Chickamauga Valley District [Soil Conservation Service Structure 1M on Town Creek - 250 Ha (Johnson and Sheldon 1975)], and in the Cumberland Plateau Province [Lookout Valley - 5800 ha (Jefferies 1975), Johnson Crook - 251 ha (C. Smith et al. 1986a) and Cedar Grove - 368 ha (C. Smith et al. 1968b)]. A total of 241 prehistoric sites were recorded in these surveys, but not one yielded diagnostic Mississippi period pottery.

2. A fairly intensive survey of the Weiss Reservoir portion of the Coosa River in Alabama (DeJarnette et al. 1963) failed to record any prehistoric Mississippian sites.

3. Survey by Chapman along the western portion of the Etowah River succeeded in finding a few Mississippian sites, but they are all small and may be limited activity sites, perhaps fishing camps associated with the extensive shoals that are present in this area.

4. Collectors working the Coosa and Coosawattee Rivers have been attracted by the artifact rich burials that occur in the large village sites found in these areas. They know of no large Mississippian sites along the Conasauga and Oostanaula Rivers, a fact that is reflected by the absence of active pothunting in those areas.

5. With the exception of possible Mississippian mounds at the mouth of Armuchee Creek 8 km north of Rome (Jones 1861), all known Mississippian mound sites occur in the same three locations where Mississippian sites in general are most common. In other words, the populations that supported these centers and were served by them may have tended to concentrate around the centers.

Undoubtedly, there are Mississippian sites in those areas of the Figure 10 map that are blank. It is quite likely, however, that they

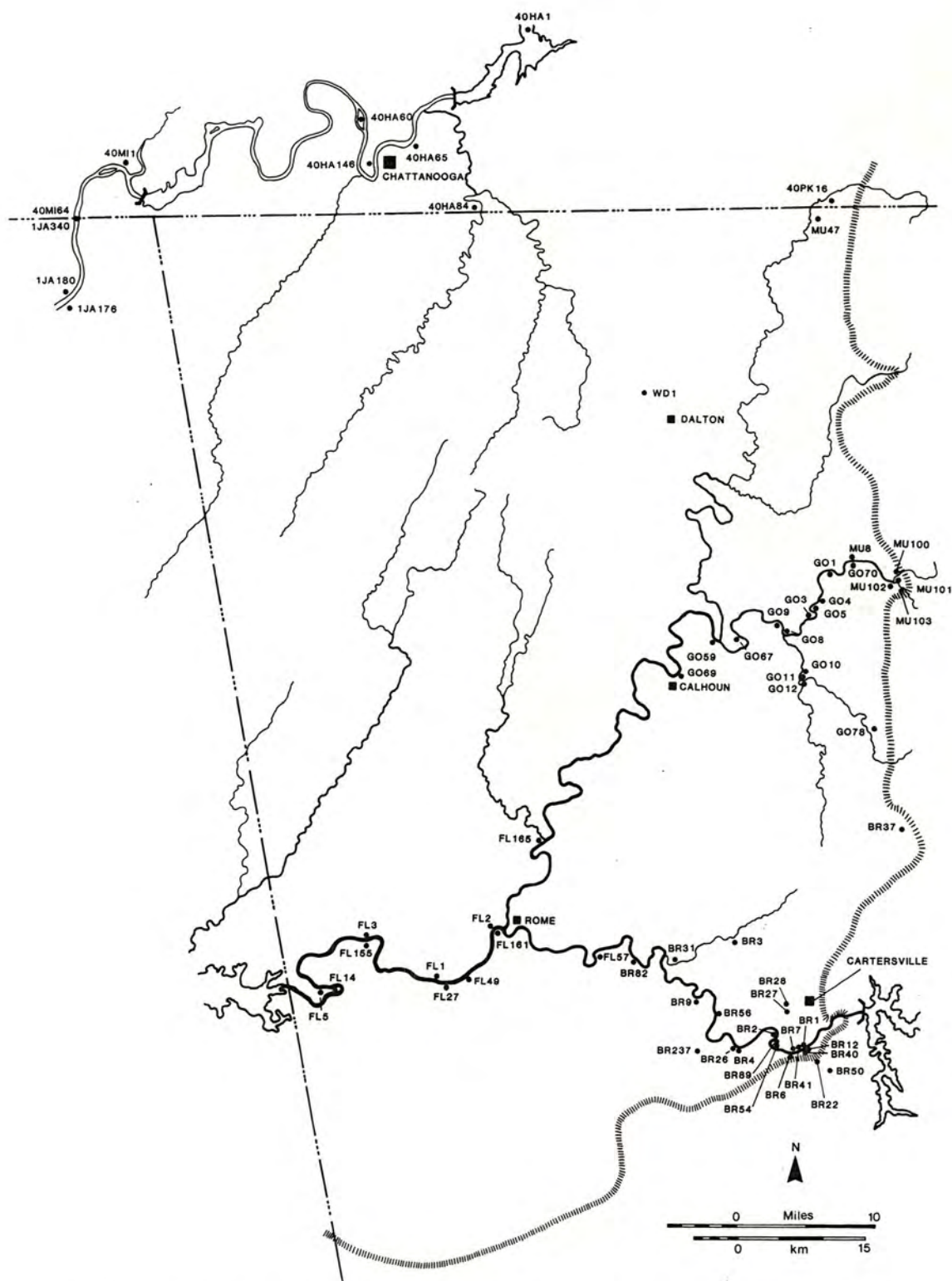


Figure 10. Mississippiian Archaeological sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

are primarily small, limited activity camps and that the map reflects fairly accurately the demographic and political centers of Mississippian occupation in the Valley and Ridge Province.

EARLY MISSISSIPPI PERIOD

Woodstock Culture

Nineteen sites in the study area have yielded diagnostic Woodstock pottery (Figure 11). Only seven sites -- Bell Field (9MU101), Little Egypt (9MU102), Potts' Tract (9MU103), Bertha Petty (9MU8), Etowah (9BR1), Two Run Creek (9BR3), and Walt Jones Farm (9Br9) -- however, have yielded sufficiently large numbers of diagnostic sherds or have been described in sufficient detail in print to allow certain identification of Woodstock components. With the exception of Lum Moss (9G059) and Walt Jones Farm, each of the 19 sites has at least one other later Mississippi period component.

The Potts Tract site at Carters Dam on the Coosawattee River has yielded the largest collection of Woodstock pottery in the study area. The site had a stratigraphically distinct midden and several pit features dating to the Woodstock component. Sherd counts for the collection are presented in Table 5. In general, the collection closely resembles the Woodstock pottery complex as defined for the Allatoona and Buford Reservoirs (Caldwell 1953, 1957). Paste is fine textured and micaceous and is tempered with fine grit. Complicated stamping is numerically dominant and is characterized by concentric diamond, concentric oval, and lineblock motifs.

Table 5

Relative Frequency of Woodstock Pottery Types at Potts' Tract

Woodstock Complicated Stamped	38
Woodstock Check Stamped	1
Etowah Complicated Stamped	2
Woodstock Incised	1
Woodstock Plain	17
Unidentified stamped	42
Sample size	2072

A number of sherds with a ladder base diamond motif (identified as Etowah Complicated Stamped) are also represented in the collection. They were found in stratigraphic contexts indicating that they are part of the Woodstock component. This stamp motif is supposedly diagnostic of Etowah I and II in the Allatoona Reservoir. Its presence in the Woodstock component at Potts Tract suggests that the component is somewhat later than the Woodstock Components identified by Caldwell

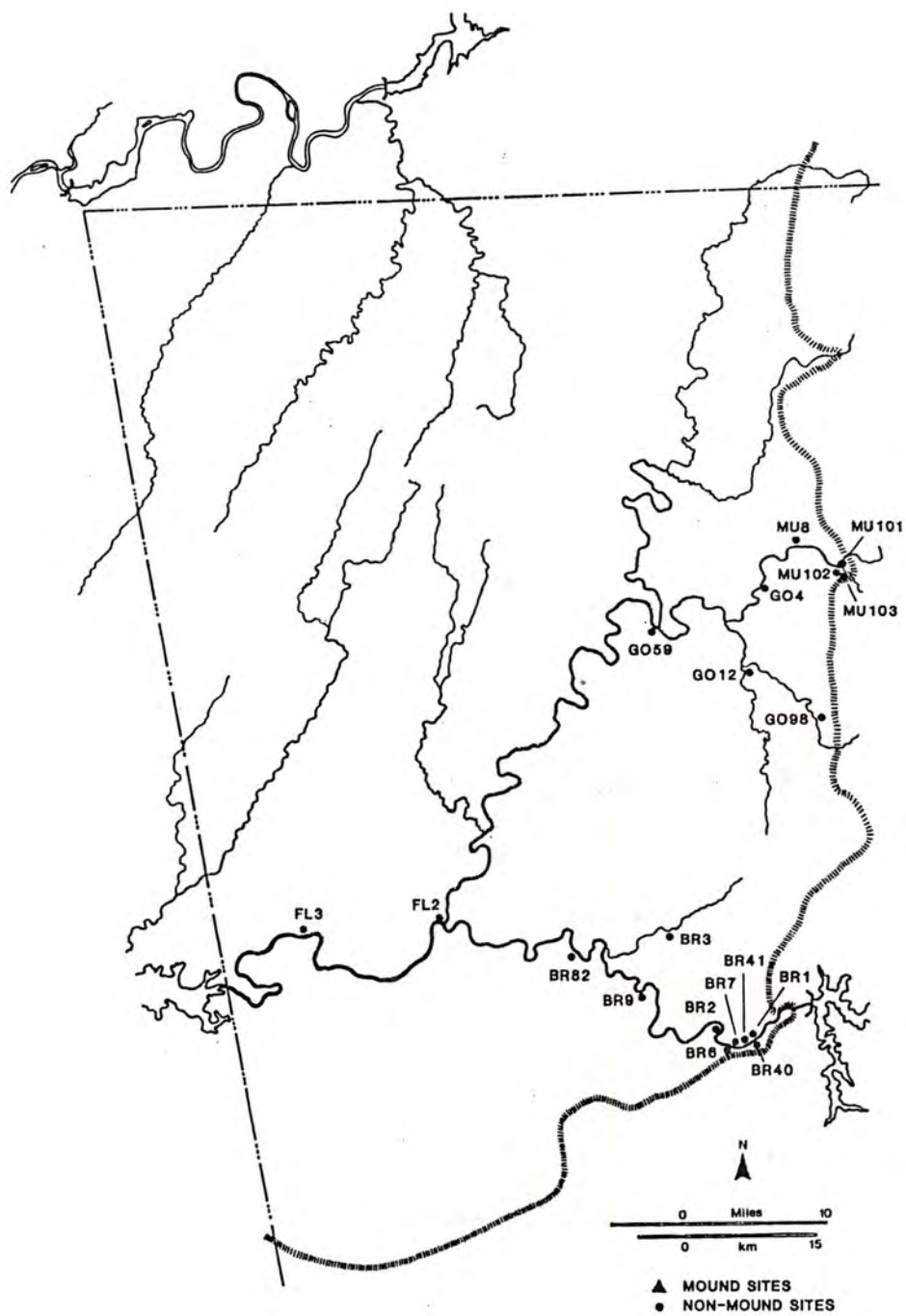


Figure 11. Woodstock Sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

(1953, 1957) in the Allatoona and Buford reservoirs and that it is transitional between Woodstock and Etowah cultures.

At the Lum Moss site (9G059), Baker (1970) excavated four pits containing both grit-tempered Woodstock Complicated Stamped pottery and limestone-tempered plain sherds. This is the only reported stratigraphic association of the two temper types in Woodstock contexts in the study area, which is surprising, given the importance of limestone tempering in Woodland and later Mississippian ceramic complexes. No shell-tempered pottery has been found in association with Woodstock pottery in the study area.

Other than pits at Potts' Tract and Lum Moss, no architectural features are known for Woodstock culture in the Valley and Ridge Province. In the Piedmont, possible Woodstock domestic structures have been reported for the Chestatee site (9LU7) (Crook 1982), the Woodstock Fort site (9CK85) (Caldwell 1957), and the Hobgood site (9CK131) (B.A. Smith 1985). The single possible Woodstock structure at 9CK85 was of single-post wall construction and measured 1.8 m by 2.1 m. Small, rectangular, single-post wall construction structures were also found at Hobgood.

At the Woodstock Fort site (9CK85), Caldwell (1957) exposed a shallow ditch, a palisade with bastions, and three square structures. Two of the structures overlap the palisade line. Ditch fill contained no pottery later than Woodstock, but Etowah III sherds were found in association with the two structures overlapping the palisade. Given these conditions, it is reasonable to conclude that the palisade and ditch were both constructed to surround a Woodstock village and that the site was subsequently occupied during the Etowah III phase.

Caldwell (1953, 1958) partially excavated a possible Woodstock platform mound, the Summerour Mound (9F016), located on the Chattahoochee River in the Buford Reservoir. This mound was erected in a single construction stage 2.1 m high and had a rectangular wall-trench structure measuring 5.6 m by 4.9 m on its summit. Caldwell initially (1953) identified the mound as post-Woodstock, but later (1958) identified it as of Woodstock construction.

Potts' Tract (Hally 1970) has yielded the largest collection of faunal and floral material from Woodstock context anywhere in Georgia. Unfortunately, the collection, which contains acorn, walnut, hickory nut, a variety of seeds, deer, bird, turtle, fish, and a variety of molluscs, has not been systematically analyzed. Walnut and hickory nut have also been recovered from the Hobgood site (B.A. Smith 1985).

Baker (1970) recovered corn from a pit at Lum Moss. No pottery was found in the feature, but a C14 date of A.D. 980±95 and the absence of later Mississippian components at the site, suggests that the corn is indeed Woodstock in age. A small quantity of maize was also found in Woodstock contexts at the Stamp Creek site (9BR139) in Allatoona Reservoir (Caldwell 1957).

Although Late Woodland Napier sites are not known from the study area (T. Rudolph 1985), Woodstock Complicated Stamped almost certainly developed out of Napier Complicated Stamped. It can be reasonably argued that Woodstock culture itself is Late Woodland in terms of material culture. Until additional and better information on subsistence pattern and settlement pattern is available, however, this issue can not be completely resolved.

Regardless of what the taxonomic status of Woodstock culture should be, it is quite clear that the Woodstock pottery complex, consisting of Woodstock Complicated Stamped, Woodstock Incised, Woodstock Check Stamped, and Woodstock Plain, is ancestral to the Etowah pottery complex that follows it in time.

Radiocarbon dates and the occurrence of a handful of Woodstock Complicated Stamped sherds at the Martin Farm site on the Little Tennessee River (Schroedl et al. 1985) indicate that Woodstock culture is roughly contemporaneous with what has been called Emergent Mississippian (Faulkner 1975) or Mississippian I (Schroedl et al. 1985) in the eastern Tennessee River Valley. With its emphasis on complicated stamping and nearly exclusive use of grit tempering, however, Woodstock bears little ceramic similarity to this culture or to any other Late Woodland or Early Mississippian cultures (ie. Hamilton, Hiwassee Island, Langston/Gunterlands III) that have been defined in eastern Tennessee or northeast Alabama. In this regard, it contrasts with the later Etowah, Savannah and Lamar phases in the study area which do share a number of ceramic features with their chronological counterparts in the eastern Tennessee River Valley.

Etowah Culture

Thirteen sites in the study area have yielded diagnostic Etowah sherds (Figure 12), but large pottery collections from stratified contexts are available only from Etowah (9BR1) and Sixtoe (9MU100). We have distinguished only two Etowah phases, early Etowah and late Etowah, rather than the four recognized in the Allatoona sequence. We have done this because:

1. There is uncertainty concerning the specific ceramic characteristics of Etowah I and IV phases in the Allatoona sequence.
2. The ceramic assemblages at Etowah and Sixtoe differ in several respects from the Etowah II and III assemblages in the Allatoona sequence.
3. Our component identifications for the Etowah Mound B collections do not agree with Kelly's (Kelly and Larson 1956). It is probable that the stratigraphic situation in the Mound B area is considerably more complex than Kelly's and our own limited analyses have led us to believe.

Ultimately, as additional pottery collections become available for analysis in the study area, it should be possible to formally define

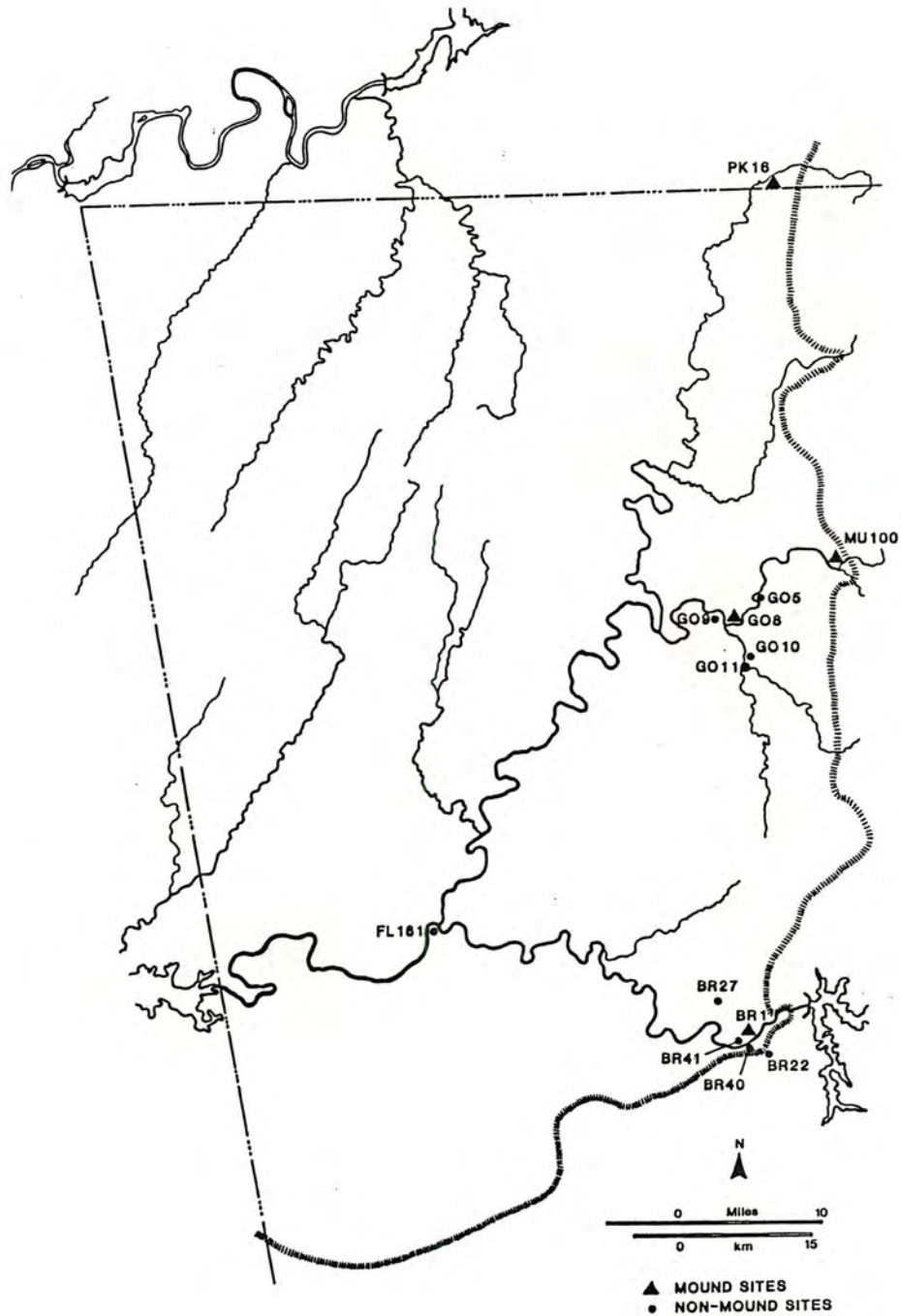


Figure 12. Etowah sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

phases of Etowah culture. Until that time, we feel it is preferable to distinguish only early and late variants of Etowah; the former incorporating sites with pottery generally assignable to Etowah I and II, and the latter incorporating sites with pottery generally assignable to Etowah III and IV. Table 6 lists the phase affiliation of the 13 known Etowah culture sites.

Etowah (Kelly and Larson 1956; Sears 1953) and Sixtoe (Kelly et al. 1965) sites have both yielded large early Etowah phase pottery collections from stratified contexts. Table 7 lists the relative frequencies of pottery types in the portions of these collections which we have analyzed and in the Etowah II assemblage from Wilbanks (Sears 1958).

TABLE 6

Phase Affiliation of Etowah Sites

<u>Early Etowah</u>	<u>Late Etowah</u>	<u>Unknown</u>
Etowah (9BR1)	Etowah (9BR1)	Conyers Farm (9BR40)
Sixtoe (9MU100)	Harris (9BR22)	9BR41
Will Davis (40PK16)	Nancy Creek (9BR27)	9G05
	Baxter (9G08)	9G09
	9G010	
	9G011	
	Coosa Country Club (9FL161)	

The three assemblages are similar in having complicated stamped pottery with ladder base diamond, two bar diamond, and line block motifs as their dominant decorated types. They also share a number of Mississippian ceramic features: shell tempering (Table 8), red filming, jars with peaked rims and loop handles, and bottles with tall narrow necks and short wide necks. Sixtoe is distinctive in having a high percentage of limestone tempering (classified as Hiwassee Island Complicated Stamped and Sixes Plain in Table 7), while Etowah is distinctive in having a high percentage of shell tempering (classified as Hiwassee Complicated Stamped and Sixes Plain in Table 7), plain surfaced pottery, and three minority types -- McKee Island Brushed, McKee Island Cordmarked, and Hiwassee Red on buff -- not represented in the other assemblages.

Stamped motifs identified on Etowah Complicated Stamped and Hiwassee Island Complicated Stamped pottery from the three sites are listed in Table 9. The three assemblages are similar except that Etowah has a very high percentage of ladder base diamonds indicating that it may be somewhat earlier than the other two components. The relative frequencies of ladder base diamond and two bar diamond motifs at Sixtoe are similar to those in the Wilbanks site assemblage indicating that it is roughly contemporary with Etowah II phase in the Allatoona sequence.

TABLE 7

Relative Frequency of Pottery Types in Etowah Culture Assemblages

	<u>Early Etowah</u>			<u>Late Etowah</u>	
	<u>Wilbanks¹</u>	<u>Etowah²</u>	<u>Sixtoe³</u>	<u>Wilbanks⁴</u>	<u>Etowah⁵</u>
Etowah Complicated Stamped	56	21	18	69	35
Hiwassee Island Complicated ⁶ Stamped	2	4	48	1	21
Etowah Incised				1	1
Etowah Red Filmed	1	1	1	1	2
Hiwassee Island Red Filmed	1	1	1	1	1
Etowah Red on Buff				1	1
Hiwassee Island Red on Buff		1		1	
McKee Island Cordmarked		1			
Grit-tempered cordmarked			1		
McKee Island Brushed		1			1
Corn cob impressed					1
Etowah Plain	21	8	2	21	7
Sixes Plain ⁶	11	65	29	2	18
Etowah Burnished Plain ⁷	9	2	1	5	16
Sample Size	3958	1104	1010	8318	824

¹ Sears, 1958:150-153.

² Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 3 and Sears' lots 289-292.

³ Authors' counts for collections from XUH and XUJ.

⁴ Sears, 1958:154-157.

⁵ Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 2 and overlying midden.

⁶ Includes shell- and limestone-tempered pottery.

⁷ Category includes both Etowah Burnished Plain and Etowah Polished Black (Sears 1958).

TABLE 8

Relative Frequency of Temper Types in Etowah Culture Assemblages

		<u>Grit</u>	<u>Limestone</u>	<u>Shell</u>
	Wilbanks (9CK5) ¹	87		13
Early Etowah Collections	Etowah (9BR1) ²	32	2	66
	Sixtoe (9MU100) ³	22	75	3
	Wilbanks (9CK5) ⁴	96		4
Late Etowah Collections	Etowah (9BR1) ⁵	61	27	12

¹ Sears, 1958:150-153.

² Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 3 and Sears' Lots 289-292.

³ Authors' counts for collections from XUH and XUJ.

⁴ Sears, 1958:154-157.

⁵ Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 2 and overlying midden.

TABLE 9

Relative Frequency of Complicated Stamped Motifs in
Etowah Culture Assemblages

	<u>Early Etowah</u>			<u>Late Etowah</u>	
	<u>Wilbanks</u> ¹	<u>Etowah</u> ²	<u>Sixtoe</u> ³	<u>Wilbanks</u> ⁴	<u>Etowah</u> ⁵
Ladderbase diamond	35	75	29	2	17
One bar diamond	4			4	2
Two bar diamond	53	14	48	45	53
Three bar diamond	5		2	7	3
Cross bar diamond			5	2	1
Line block	4	11	8	24	3
Filfot Cross				16	19
Concentric square			10		2
Scroll					1
Sample Size	454	87	200	562	191

¹ Sears, 1958:150-153.² Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 3 and Sears' lots 289-292.³ Authors' counts for collections from XUH and XUJ.⁴ Sears, 1958:154-157. These percentages differ slightly from those presented in Hally and Rudolph (1986: Table 5) due to computational error made in the earlier publication.⁵ Authors' counts for collections from Saucer 2 and overlying midden.

Seventy-five percent of the pottery in the Sixtoe site collection is limestone tempered (Table 8). A similar proportion (76%) of the pottery at the early Etowah phase Will Davis site (40PK16) located on the Conasauga River north of Carters Dam is also limestone tempered. To the south, limestone tempering is poorly represented at Etowah and reportedly (Sears 1958) absent at the Wilbanks site. The distribution of shell tempering is essentially the reverse of this, with the temper type being most common at Etowah and absent at Will Davis. Limestone tempering is used with nearly equal frequency in all early Etowah phase pottery types, while shell tempering is restricted largely to plain surfaced pottery and Mississippian vessel forms.

The early Etowah phase assemblages from Sixtoe and Etowah sites bear a number of similarities to the Mississippian Hiwassee Island (Lewis and Kneberg 1946) and Langston/Gunterlands III (Walthal 1980; Webb and Wilder 1951) pottery complexes on the Tennessee River in Alabama and Tennessee. These include: extensive use of shell (and limestone) tempering and Mississippian vessel forms, and red filmed and red on buff pottery as minority types. They differ in having relatively great quantities of grit tempering and complicated stamping, only small quantities of cordmarking, and no salt pans. Etowah has a greater variety of Mississippian pottery types and vessel shape modes than Sixtoe and has them in greater quantity. In this regard it is more similar to the Tennessee River complexes than is Sixtoe.

The two assemblages, as we have seen, also bear a number of similarities to Etowah culture as represented in the Allatoona Reservoir and elsewhere in the Georgia Piedmont (Hally and Rudolph 1986; Anderson et al. 1986; M. Smith 1981b). As we shall see, the pottery complexes of later phases in the study area also combine ceramic types and features from the Tennessee River Valley and the Georgia Piedmont. We believe that this situation is largely the result of style drift between two long-standing ceramic traditions: a Tennessee River tradition characterized by plain, cordmarked, and brushed pottery and limestone tempering (Heimlich 1942; Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946; Faulkner and Graham 1966; McCollough and Faulkner 1973) and ultimately shell tempering and numerous Mississippian features (Heimlich 1942; Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946; Schroedl et al. 1985) and a Piedmont tradition [Southern Appalachian Tradition in Caldwell's (1958) terminology] characterized by emphasis on grit tempering and complicated stamping. The Great Valley in northwest Georgia is geographically intermediate to the Tennessee River and the Piedmont, and the societies located within it incorporated stylistic and technological elements from both traditions in their ceramics.

The only large, late Etowah phase pottery collection currently available in the study area is from Etowah (Kelly and Larson 1956; Sears 1953). The portion of that collection which we have analyzed is derived from Saucer 2 and the overlying 60 cm thick midden encountered by Kelly in the Mound B area. It is compared with the Etowah III assemblage from Wilbanks in Tables 7 - 9. Relative frequencies of complicated stamped types and complicated stamped motifs are quite similar between the two assemblages. The major difference between them is in tempering, with Etowah having considerably more shell-tempered and limestone tempered

pottery. As is the case in the early Etowah phase, limestone tempering occurs with roughly equal frequency in all pottery types, while shell tempering is found predominantly in plain surfaced pottery.

Ceramic change from early Etowah to late Etowah involves primarily shifts in complicated stamped motifs -- ladder base diamonds decrease in frequency while the filfot cross appears for the first time -- and a decrease in the use of shell and limestone tempering. Limestone tempering increases at the Etowah site over its frequency in the early Etowah component, but it is still relatively uncommon compared to the early Etowah component at the Sixtoe site. Red filmed and red on buff painted pottery continue relatively unchanged in frequency as does McKee Island brushed. Cordmarking, however, disappears, while two new elements appear, Etowah Incised and corn cob impressing on the necks of jars. The latter feature is found most commonly in late Etowah, Savannah, and early Lamar assemblages in northeast Georgia. New Mississippian vessel shapes include plates and strap handles with and without button-shaped nodes.

Only three sites in the study area can be dated to the early Etowah phase with certainty (Table 6, Figure 13). At the type site, the early component is represented primarily by several saucer-shaped pits encountered by Sears (1953) and Kelly (Kelly and Larson 1956) on the east side of Mound B. These features stratigraphically underlie the margin of terminal Mound B construction stages. This stratigraphic situation does not rule out an early Etowah phase date for the beginning of mound construction, but Sears (1958) argues that all mound construction at the site began in Etowah III (late Etowah) phase. In light of the site's importance as a political and ceremonial center in late Etowah and Wilbanks phases, we consider it likely that mound building began in early Etowah phase.

The mound at Will Davis (40PK16) is three meters high, but has lost some height due to plowing. The major component represented in the surface collection from the site is early Etowah, indicating that most, if not all, mound construction occurred during that phase.

Sixtoe mound is the only early Etowah mound that has been excavated in the study area. Kelly (Kelly et al. 1965) recognized two construction stages in the mound but explored only the later one sufficiently to find evidence of summit structures. The fact that the mound was little more than a low rise at the time of excavation and that there was more than 30 cm of soil overlying the second stage summit suggests that one or more construction stages had been destroyed by plowing.

Kelly's excavations were limited largely to the northwest half of the mound. In this area, he found evidence for at least four superimposed structures on the second stage summit. These were of wall trench construction and devoid of internal features. Dimensions for the three measurable structures were 12 m x 20 m, 12 m x 20 m, and 9.5 m x 9.5 m. A fifth structure, said to measure 6 m x 6.5 m, is identified as of single-post construction, but field maps do not provide very much evidence for its existence. Several large post pits, measuring up to 80

cm in diameter, were encountered within the walls of the larger structures, but it is not clear how they are related chronologically and architecturally to them. A layer of large stream cobbles bordered and partially overlay the northeast and southeast walls of the two larger structures. Presumably there were structures on the unexcavated southeast portion of the mound as well.

The Hiwassee Island mound, which was at least partly contemporaneous with Sixtoe mound, had a two level summit with wall-trench structures on each level (Lewis and Kneberg 1946). Buildings were square and rectangular in floor plan and had an attached porch-like room on the side facing the plaza. Mound architecture differs from that at Sixtoe in a number of ways: interior building features such as hearths, platforms, "seats," and partition walls are absent at Sixtoe; there seem to have been no porch-like rooms at Sixtoe; and summit structures at Sixtoe were larger. Since Kelly's excavations were limited in extent, we will never know whether Sixtoe mound had multilevel summits and multiple summit structures.

Langston (1JA9) is the only Langston/Gunterlands III phase mound site in the Gunterville Reservoir that has yielded evidence of summit architecture. In this case, the summit building is of single-post construction. This difference in construction technique may be due to the fact that Langston mound is probably contemporary with late Etowah phase in the study area. The sole example of Etowah culture summit architecture in the Piedmont, Tugalo site (9ST1), is also of single-post construction and is also late Etowah in age.

If mound building at the Etowah site began in early Etowah phase, we have the interesting situation where all known early Etowah administrative centers are located on rivers immediately downstream from the Cartersville Fault. This same pattern is evident in the Middle and Late Mississippi periods and probably reflects the greater availability of key natural resources in those locations. This matter will be discussed in greater detail in the next section.

There is very little evidence available for early Etowah subsistence patterns. Kelly (Kelly et al. 1965) recovered deer, small animal, fish, turtle, fresh water molluscs, acorns, hickory nut and maize from the Sixtoe mound, but he did not employ systematic recovery techniques, nor have the recovered food remains been analyzed by trained archaeobotanists.

Seven sites can be assigned to the late Etowah phase on the basis of pottery counts (Table 6, Figure 14). With the exception of Etowah, all of these sites are known only through surface collections. The component at Etowah, identified as Etowah III and IV by Kelly (Kelly and Larson 1956), is represented by at least one saucer-shaped pit and an overlying 60 cm thick midden. Two structures of single-post wall construction were encountered within the midden. These features stratigraphically underlay the margin of terminal Mound B construction stages.

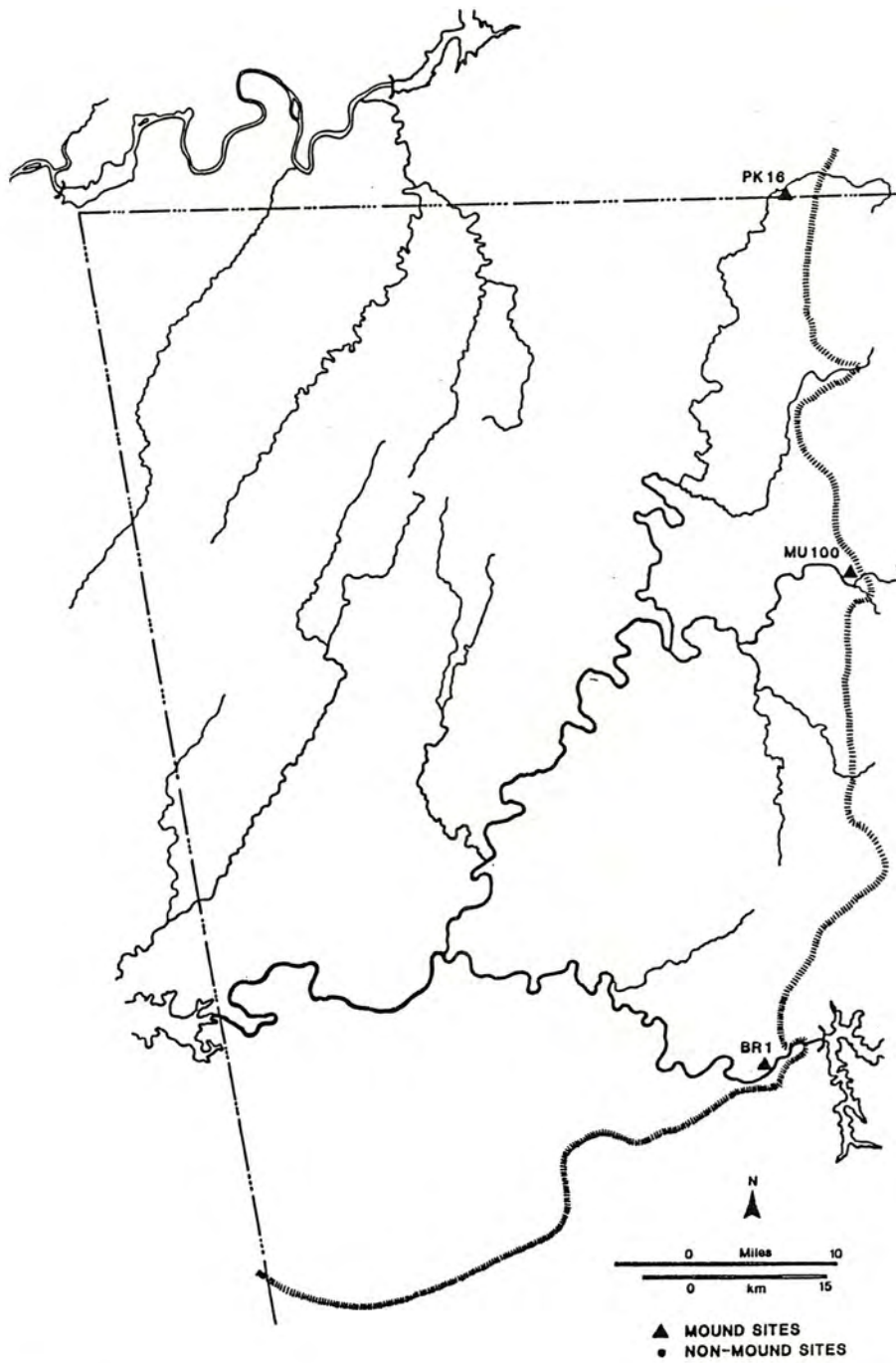


Figure 13. Early Etowah Sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

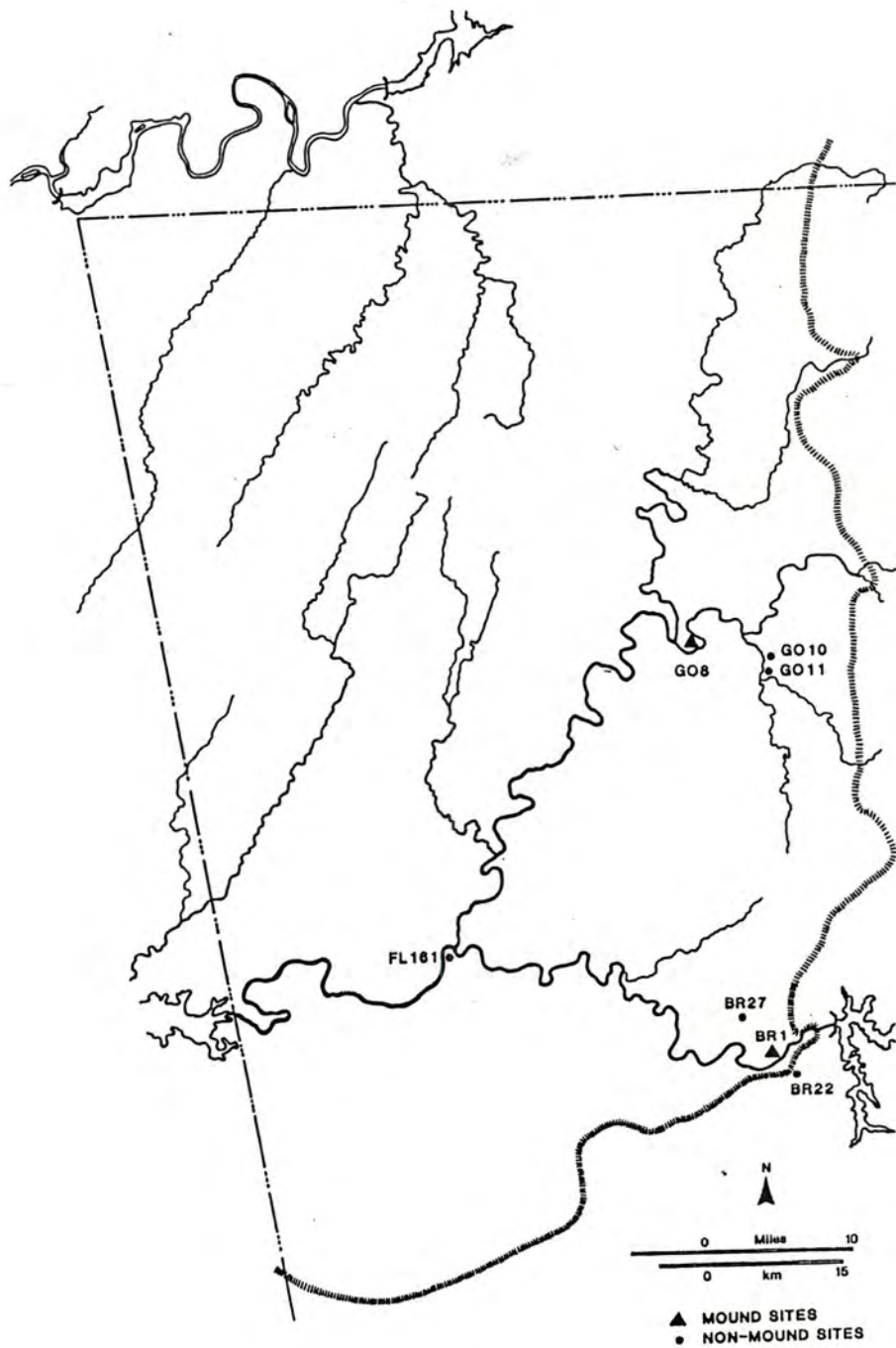


Figure 14. Late Etowah Sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

Kelly found a large "Etowah IV" wall trench 50 cm wide and 1 m deep that extended at right angles into Mound B. He identifies this feature as a "compound wall" that enclosed "some sort of ceremonial ground" (Kelly and Larson 1956:9). As noted earlier, Sears (1953) argues that initial stages of Mounds A, B, and C were constructed during the late Etowah phase. According to Larson (personal communication), Mound C construction began in the late Etowah phase.

The Baxter site (9G08) mound is presently 2 m high, but is reported to have originally stood 6-7 m high. The major component at the site, represented in surface collections covering an area measuring 350 m by 190 m (60,000 m²) and centering on the mound, is late Etowah. Pottery from the area of the mound itself is predominantly late Etowah, indicating that mound construction took place during that phase.

At present, we have no evidence for a late Etowah phase component at Sixtoe site or anywhere else at Carters Dam. We think it likely that analysis of additional pottery collections from Sixtoe will show that the site did have a late Etowah component and that terminal mound stages, destroyed by overbank erosion and plowing, were constructed at that time.

Virtually nothing is known about the size and stratigraphic nature of the five non-mound late Etowah sites in the study area.

Limited additional information about late Etowah phase is available from sites in the Piedmont. Rectangular wall-trench structures, presumably domestic in nature, have been excavated at Stamp Creek site (9BR139) and Woodstock Fort (9CK85) in Allatoona Reservoir (Caldwell 1957). Platform mounds surmounted by square structures and dating to the Jarrett phase are represented at the Tugalo (9ST1) and Chauga (38OC47) sites on the Tugalo River in northeast Georgia (Kelly and Neitzel 1961; M. Williams and Branch 1978; Anderson et al. 1986). These structures measured 7.5 - 8.5 m on a side, were of single-post wall construction, and had entrance passages. Earth was banked against exterior walls.

At Wilbanks (9CK5), mound construction began with a ground level, 14 m square structure. Sears (1958) identifies this structure as an earth lodge, but it is probable that it was earth embanked rather than earth covered (Rudolph 1984). The structure was eventually covered with a low earth mound.

Botanical remains from a Stillhouse phase feature under the mound at the Dyar site (9GE5) on the Middle Oconee River include acorn, walnut, hickory nut, maize, and may pop seeds (M. Smith 1981a).

MIDDLE MISSISSIPPI PERIOD

The Middle Mississippi period in the Valley and Ridge Province lasts from A.D. 1200 to A.D. 1350. All components but two dating to this period have been assigned to a single culture, Savannah and to a single phase, Wilbanks. There is evidence, however, for at least two

additional phases, one earlier than Wilbanks phase, and one probably contemporaneous with it but located on the Coosawattee River 50 km north of the main concentration of Wilbanks sites on the Etowah River.

Savannah Culture

There is some disagreement among archaeologists concerning the origin of Savannah culture and its relationship to Etowah culture. Fairbanks (1950) and Sears (1958) have argued that Savannah culture represents a break in the in situ development of complicated stamping in northern Georgia. New stamp motifs appear in Savannah culture, and, more importantly, they see a major stylistic shift from rectilinear stamp motifs supposedly characteristic of Etowah to curvilinear motifs supposedly characteristic of Savannah. Sears (1958) attributes this shift to the arrival of new people in northwest Georgia from the Atlantic coastal region.

The position taken here is that the Savannah pottery complex is a direct development out of the preceding late Etowah complex. The evidence for this is as follows.

1. The filfot cross, which appears in northwest Georgia as early as the Etowah III phase, is a common motif in Savannah culture pottery assemblages in north Georgia (Table 12; Hally and Rudolph 1986).
2. Caldwell (1957) noted a tendency for diamond motifs to become less angular and more rounded beginning in the Etowah III phase in the Allatoona Reservoir.
3. Most Savannah Complicated Stamped motifs can be derived from Etowah Complicated Stamped antecedents. For example, the figure nine may derive from the filfot cross; and the concentric circle, bar concentric circle, cross concentric circle, and circle with cross may derive from earlier concentric diamond motifs.
4. Caldwell's (1957) description of the Etowah IV phase in northwest Georgia demonstrates his awareness that both curvilinear "Savannah" motifs and rectilinear "Etowah" motifs could occur with high frequencies in a single ceramic assemblage.
5. The Beaverdam (Rudolph and Hally 1985) and Scull Shoals (M. Williams 1985) phases illustrate a situation similar to that of the Etowah IV phase in which the late Etowah cross bar diamond motif occurs in ceramic complexes with sherds bearing standard Savannah stamp motifs.

Evidence is rapidly accumulating that the ceramic transition from Etowah culture to Savannah culture is a gradual one. The Beaverdam phase (Rudolph and Hally 1985) of Savannah culture has several Etowah ceramic markers. The late Etowah Stillhouse phase (M. Smith 1981b) on

the middle Oconee River has several Savannah ceramic markers. The dividing line between the two cultures, as represented by the distinction between these two phases, is clearly an arbitrary one. There is, however, no evidence at this time to suggest that a better dividing line exists.

Sixteen sites in the study area have components that can be identified as Savannah culture (Table 10, Figure 15).

TABLE 10

Savannah Culture Sites

<u>Non-mound Sites</u>	<u>Mound Sites</u>	<u>Number of mounds</u>	<u>Height of tallest Mound</u>
Floyd Farm (9FL1)	Plant Hammond (9FL3)	1	2.5+ m
Will Vann Farm (9FL2)	Etowah (9BR1)	7	18.0 m
Lewis (9BR7)	Two Run Creek (9BR3)	1	2.5+ m
Walt Jones Farm (9BR9)	Free Bridge (9BR6)	1	2.0+ m
Pumpkinvine Creek (9BR12)	Raccoon Creek (9BR26)	1	---
Nancy Creek (9BR27)	Conyers Farm (9BR40)	1	2.5+ m
Pettit Creek (9BR28)			
Pine Log (9BR37)			
Winneman Farm (9BR41)			
9BR56			

Wilbanks Phase

Two sites in the study area, Etowah (9BR1) and Plant Hammond (9FL3), have yielded large pottery collections from stratified contexts that can be identified as Wilbanks phase. The relative frequency of pottery types in these collections are presented in Table 11 along with those for the type collection from the Wilbanks site (9CK5). All three assemblages are very similar at the level of type frequency. The presence or absence of minority types such as Rudder Comb Incised, Hiwassee Island Red Filmed, and Savannah Burnished Plain probably reflect sampling error. Complicated stamped pottery from all three sites is similar in having relatively thick walls, large stamp motifs, and heavy, poorly executed stamping.

Savannah Complicated Stamped motifs are essentially the same in the Plant Hammond and Etowah site assemblages (Table 12). The Wilbanks assemblage appears to be quite different, but the differences are probably not that significant. To begin with, Savannah Complicated Stamped motifs are difficult to recognize due to motif size and overstamp. The bullseye and scroll motifs represent rather minor variations on the concentric circle motif. Many of the specimens from Plant Hammond and Etowah identified as concentric circles by the authors could, in fact, prove upon closer inspection to be bullseye or scroll motifs. Sears' elongate U with cross bars motif is probably nothing

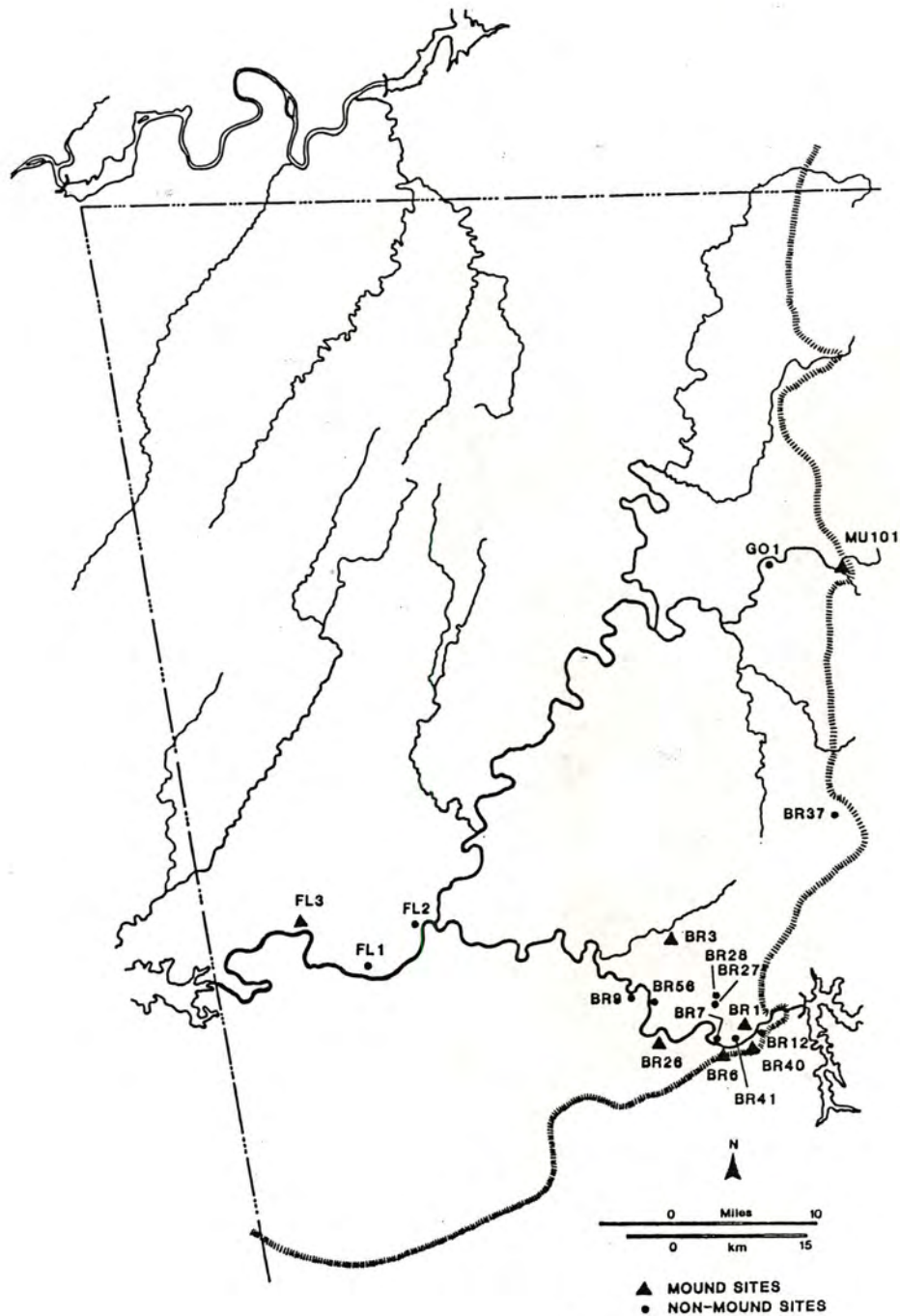


Figure 15. Middle Mississippi Period Sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

TABLE 11

Relative Frequency of Pottery Types in Middle
Mississippi Period Assemblages

	Wilbanks ¹ (9CK5)	Plant Hammond ² (9F13)	Etowah ³ (9BR1)	Bell Field ⁴ (9MU101)
Savannah Complicated Stamped	58	63	58	15
Savannah Check Stamped	1	2	1	1
Etowah Red Filmed	2		1	
Hiwassee Red Filmed				2
Hiwassee Red on Buff	1			1
Grit-tempered cordmarked	1	1	1	1
McKee Island Cordmarked		1		24
Rudder Comb Incised		1	1	
Grit-tempered brushed				1
McKee Island Brushed				2
Dallas Filleted				1
Unidentified incised ⁵	1	1		1
Salt pans				7
Savannah Plain	38	9	31	22
Sixes Plain	1	23	5	23
Savannah Burnished Plain		1	4	2
Corn cob impressed			1	
Cane-punctated rims and rosettes		1	1	
Sample size	1643	306	892	1179

¹ Sears, 1958:173-175.² Authors' counts for selected collections from site.³ Authors' counts for collections from "black midden" east of Mound B.⁴ Authors' counts for selected collections from site.⁵ Includes shell- and limestone-tempered pottery.

TABLE 12

Relative Frequency of Stamp Motifs in Middle
Mississippi Period Assemblages

	<u>Wilbanks</u> ¹	<u>Plant Hammond</u> ²	<u>Etowah</u> ³	<u>Bell Field</u> ⁴
Concentric circles		36	50	22
Bullseye	44	3		
Circle with cross			17	
Scroll	16			
Figure 8 or 9		44	11	56
Filfot cross		6		11
Lineblock		11	11	11
Quatrefoil with dot	6			
Quatrefoil with cross			11	
Elongate U with cross bars	32			
Lozenge with dot	1			
Sample size	169	36	18	9

¹ Sears, 1968:174.

² Authors' counts for selected collections from site.

³ Authors' counts for collections from "black midden" east of Mound B.

⁴ Authors' counts for selected collections from site.

more than a poorly stamped figure 9 or filfot cross. Finally, given the small sample of identifiable motifs from all three sites, the absence of minority motifs such as the circle with cross, quatrefoil and lozenge from one or more collections is not surprising.

Except for the absence of limestone tempering at Wilbanks site, all three assemblages are fairly similar with respect to relative frequency of temper types (Table 13). Sears (1958) does not refer to limestone tempering in his description of the Wilbanks assemblage, but the senior author has observed "Wilbanks Complicated Stamped" sherds with limestone tempering in the type collection.

TABLE 13

Relative Frequency of Temper Types in Middle
Mississippi Period Assemblages

	<u>Grit</u>	<u>Limestone</u>	<u>Shell</u>
Wilbanks	98		2
Plant Hammond	80	5	15
Etowah	95	1	5
Bell Field	43	1	56

The decrease in use of shell and limestone tempering noted in the late Etowah phase continues into Wilbanks. Mississippian vessel shape modes -- strap handles, loop handles, effigy loop handles, peaked jar rims with nodes and lugs -- are represented in the collections from Etowah and Plant Hammond, but they have decreased in frequency and variety compared to late Etowah phase. Red filmed pottery is present in the collection, but red on buff painted pottery is absent, probably as a result of sampling error.

A number of minority types and decorative modes in the collections are also found in contemporary pottery complexes from outside the study area. Rudder Comb Incised was first defined in the Guntersville Reservoir (Heimlich 1952) but appears to be more common in the study area. Several rim sherds with cane punctations and/or large button-shaped nodes are represented in the collections from Etowah and Plant Hammond. This feature is best known from the Hollywood phase (DeBaillou 1965; Hally and Rudolph 1986) on the Savannah River and the Belmont Neck, Adamson, and Pee Dee phases (DePratter and Judge 1986) in Piedmont South Carolina. Corn cob impressed pottery and check stamping are also more common in the Beaverdam (Rudolph and Hally 1985) and Scull Shoals (Williams 1985) phases of eastern Georgia.

In addition to Plant Hammond and Etowah, only one other site in the study area, Two Run Creek (9BR3) has yielded a pottery collection sufficiently large to allow identification of a Wilbanks component with certainty. The remaining 13 sites listed in Table 10 can only be identified as Savannah with the presently available data.

Non-Wilbanks Phase Components

Stamp motifs characteristic of both Etowah Complicated Stamped -- one bar cross diamond and two bar cross diamond -- and Savannah Complicated Stamped -- concentric circles, two bar concentric circles, and one bar cross concentric circles -- are common in the pottery complexes of two Savannah phases, Beaverdam and Scull Shoals, in eastern Georgia. Caldwell (1957) reports a similar combination of motifs in a collection (referred to as Etowah IV) from a feature at the Woodstock Fort site (9CK85) in Allatoona Reservoir. Components with this combination of stamped motifs are almost certainly earlier than Wilbanks phase as represented at the type site (9CK5), Etowah, and Plant Hammond. This being the case, Wilbanks phase should date to the latter part of the Middle Mississippi period and should be preceded by an earlier phase of Savannah culture. There is, however, no evidence for such a phase in the study area at the present time.

Two sites located on the Coosawattee River, Bell Field (9MU101) and Poarch (9G01) have Middle Mississippi period components that are ceramically quite different from Wilbanks phase. Only the pottery collection, excavated by Kelly (1970, 1972) from the mound at Bell Field is large enough for reliable taxonomic analysis. The senior author has analyzed approximately 90 percent of this collection. The collection differs in a number of ways from the Plant Hammond and Etowah site assemblages (Tables 11-13). McKee Island Cordmarked (Heimlich 1952), a type characterized by shell tempering and Mississippian jar vessel forms, is the numerically dominant type in the collection. Fifty-six percent of the pottery is shell tempered. The collection is also distinctive in having Dallas Filleted, McKee Island Brushed and Hiwassee Island Red on Buff pottery, salt pans, and early forms of Lamar thickened and pinched rims. Similarities with the Wilbanks phase collections do exist, however, and include complicated stamped pottery with concentric circle, figure 9, and filfot cross motifs as well as a single jar rim sherd with large button-shaped nodes below the rim.

Unfortunately, there are a number of problems associated with the Bell Field collection that limit its usefulness: sherd collections from most stratigraphic units are small; most of the field records from the site disappeared at the time of Kelly's death in 1974; at least four mound construction stages have been destroyed by plowing and are unrepresented in excavated collections; and it is not certain that Kelly's excavations reached the earliest stages of mound construction. Because of the lack of precise stratigraphic information for most of the collection, it is not possible to determine whether all of the identified types and vessel shape modes belong to a single ceramic complex or several complexes that succeeded one another during the period of mound construction and use. The early Lamar thickened and pinched rims, for example, could date to the final construction stages.

We hesitate to create a new phase for the Bell Field and Poarch sites because of the problems noted above. Until additional large

collections from sites excavated with tight stratigraphic controls are available for use in defining a phase, we recommend that the collections from the two sites be recognized as dating late in the middle Mississippi period but that they not be given any special taxonomic status.

The Etowah and Coosawattee Valleys appear to diverge from one another ceramically during the Middle Mississippi period. The Wilbanks phase assemblage from Etowah has very few Mississippian features. Shell and limestone tempering occur with very low frequency, and most of the pottery types characteristic of the contemporary Mississippian cultures [Henry Island/Gunterlands III (Walsh 1980; Webb and Wilder 1951) and Dallas (Lewis and Kneberg 1946)] on the Tennessee River -- McKee Island Cordmarked, McKee Island Brushed, Hiwassee Island Red Filmed, Hiwassee Island Red on Buff, Dallas Filleted, Dallas Incised, and salt pans -- are absent. The Bell Field site assemblage, on the other hand, is predominantly Mississippian in character. Complicated stamping accounts for only 15% of the assemblage, while most of the pottery types characteristic of the Dallas component at Hiwassee Island (Lewis and Kneberg 1941, 1946) are present and in the same relative frequencies. The Wilbanks phase assemblage at Plant Hammond on the Coosa River is stylistically intermediate, although it is more similar to Etowah than to Bell Field.

To the extent that the pottery collections from Bell Field and Etowah are representative of late Middle Mississippi period ceramic complexes in their respective regions, we can conclude that the inhabitants of the northern portion of the study area had stronger ceramic stylistic ties to the Tennessee River Valley, while the inhabitants of the southern portion of the study area had stronger ceramic stylistic ties to the Georgia Piedmont. This stylistic divergence continues into the Late Mississippi period.

Non-ceramic Cultural Characteristics

Very little is known about Middle Mississippi period domestic life. Kelly (Kelly and Larson 1956) reports finding three Wilbanks phase structures adjacent to Mound B at Etowah. They are described as being erected in shallow basins, 20 - 30 cm deep, having walls of individually set posts and wattle and daub construction, and having earth embanked against exterior walls. Field drawings show one of these structures as measuring 5 m square.

Platform mounds are known from seven sites, including the ceramically distinct Bell Field site (Table 10). Details of mound construction are available for five of these. All were built in multiple stages ranging from a minimum estimated three stages at Plant Hammond to ten at Two Run Creek (9BR3) (Wauchope 1966). In all cases, except Mound C at Etowah which had five construction stages (Larson 1971a), plowing has destroyed terminal mound stages. Kelly counted 5-6 destroyed stages at the Bell Field Mound (9MU101) which measured 2 m in height at the time of excavation.

With the exception of Mound C at Etowah, excavations have been limited to areas smaller than the mound summits with the result that the full configuration of mound summits, not to mention that of entire mounds, is not known. At Etowah, excavations by Rogan and Moorehead succeeded in destroying all Mound C summits but not the margins of mound construction stages (Larson 1971a).

Mound summits seem to have generally had at least two buildings. Two buildings measuring 7.5 m square are present on the excavated portion of the first stage summit of the Plant Hammond mound. Bell Field, on the other hand, had four structures on each of the two summits that were extensively excavated (Kelly 1972). These were arranged in a tight square with 1-3 m separating adjacent structures and were connected to one another by wall-trench passageways. The southwestern half of each summit was constructed approximately 1 m higher than the northeastern half, and two structures were erected on each level. Wauchope (1966) found evidence for a two level summit at Two Run Creek (9BR3) and wall-trench entrance passages connecting adjacent buildings at Free Bridge (9BR6).

Summit structures seem to always be of single-post wall construction and range in size between 6.0 m and 8.5 m. Wall-trench entrances are present at Bell Field, Plant Hammond, and Free Bridge. Four interior roof support posts are reported for structures at Plant Hammond and Bell Field. Interior furnishings such as clay "altars" do not occur, although one of the better preserved structures in the Bell Field mound had a raised clay bench covered with cane matting that completely encircled the outer half of the floor area. Well formed central fire basins were present in some, but not all structures.

All of the architectural features listed above are characteristic of Dallas culture platform mounds at the Toqua site (40MR6) on the Little Tennessee River (Polhemus 1987). Dallas culture mound construction stages at the Hiwassee Island site (40MG31) (Lewis and Kneberg 1941) also have two summit levels and multiple structures, but wall construction is of the wall-trench type, and wall-trench entrances are absent.

Kelly (1972) reports finding earth lodges in the earliest levels of the Bell Field mound. Descriptions are sketchy, and field records are lacking, but the available evidence indicates that these structures were earth embanked, not earth covered. There are suggestions of earth embankments in the stratigraphy of the Free Bridge mound. Structures at the base of the slightly earlier Beaverdam Creek mound (9EB85) (Rudolph and Hally 1985) on the Savannah River were earth embanked. Polhemus (1985) argues that wall-trench entrance passages were designed to prevent the earth banked against the outer walls of structures from washing into the structure. If he is correct, then most of the known Wilbanks phase mound summit buildings were earth embanked.

Mound C at Etowah was erected in five stages beginning in Late Etowah phase. Evidence from an undisturbed portion of the first mound stage suggests that structures were placed on mound summits. A wall of posts, either set individually or in trenches, was placed around the

base of each stage. Burials were excavated into the foot of the later mound stages just inside of these palisades. The last mound stage, dating to the Wilbanks phase, measured 45 m square at the base and had approximately 100 individuals interred around its perimeter (Larson 1971a).

Etowah is the only site in the study area for which we have some evidence for overall site configuration. It is, of course, also the largest and presumably most elaborate site of the period. The site is enclosed on three sides by a ditch 9 m wide and 3 m deep and on the fourth side by the Etowah River (Larson 1972). A palisade, constructed of posts measuring 30 - 35 cm in diameter and set in a trench lies 5 m from the inner edge of the ditch. Twenty-one hectares are enclosed by this defensive perimeter (Larson 1972). Most of this area was probably devoted to domestic habitation during the Etowah and Wilbanks phase occupations, but public constructions in the form of mounds and plazas covered a sizable portion of the site.

The site is dominated by three large mounds: Mound A, measuring 18 m; Mound B, measuring 10.5 m; and Mound C, measuring 7.5 m. Mound A faces onto a large plaza measuring approximately 100 m square and artificially raised above the elevation of the surrounding village (Larson, personal communication). Three small mounds, identified in early descriptions of the site, lie across the plaza from Mound A.

Construction and use of Mounds A, B, and C is generally believed to have occurred during the late Etowah and Wilbanks phases (Sears 1953; Kelly and Larson 1956; Larson, personal communication). Presumably the defensive perimeter also dates to these occupations.

The individuals interred around the base of the terminal construction stage of Mound C represented all ages and both sexes and were generally accompanied by finely crafted and exotic Southern Cult artifacts. Larson (1971a:66) identifies these individuals as members of a "descent group that occupied a superordinant position in the total society." He argues, furthermore, that rank positions within this descent group were inherited.

Middle Mississippi period mound sites occur in three widely separated locations within the study area (Figure 15): on the Coosawattee and Etowah Rivers immediately west of the Cartersville Fault and on the Coosa River 17 km west of Rome. One mound site, Bell Field (9MU101), and one non-mound site are known to exist on the Coosawattee River, while one mound site, Plant Hammond (9FL3), and two non-mound sites are known to exist on the Coosa River. The straight line distance between the Bell Field and Plant Hammond sites is 73 km. Five mound sites -- Etowah (9BR1), Two Run Creek (9BR3), Free Bridge (9BR6), Raccoon Creek (9BR26), and Conyers Farm (9BR40) -- and seven non-mound sites are located on the Etowah River. These sites all lie within a 15 km stretch of the river and its tributaries, but are more than 40 km from Plant Hammond site and more than 45 km from Bell Field. Chapman surveyed the entire Etowah River valley between Cartersville and Rome in the early 1970's but found no Middle Mississippi period sites along the western half of the River. This finding suggests that the clustering of

sites in the eastern half of the valley is real and not the result of uneven survey coverage.

Mississippian mound sites throughout north Georgia are spaced at intervals of either less than 18 km or more than 30 km (Hally 1987). These intervals may be significant as marking, in the former case, the maximum distance separating mound sites belonging to a single polity, and, in the latter case, the minimum distance separating mound sites belonging to different polities. If true, Bell Field, Plant Hammond, and Etowah were the administrative centers for three distinct polities. According to the ceramic evidence, the three sites may have all been functioning as administrative centers simultaneously for at least a portion of their occupational histories.

The cluster of mound sites on the Etowah River contains five mound sites, the largest of which is Etowah with six mounds. The other four sites all have a single, relatively small mound (Table 10). Following the arguments of Peebles and Kus (1977), Steponaitis (1978), and Smith and Kowalewski (1980) these five sites, if contemporaneous, can be considered to represent major and minor administrative centers of a single two-tiered political system. The seven known non-mound sites located in the same area may represent some of the villages, hamlets, and limited activity camps utilized by the people belonging to this system.

As illustrated in Figure 6, the Coosawattee River flows through a broad alluvial floodplain from the point where it enters the study area to its junction with the Conasauga River, a straight line distance of 20 km. Bell Field is the only Middle Mississippi mound site known to occur along this stretch of the river despite fairly intensive collecting activity by local amateurs throughout the area. Bell Field lies less than .5 km from the Cartersville Fault. It is surrounded by several hundred acres of floodplain, but there is almost 20 km of river floodplain down stream from the site and none upstream. This location does not make sense from the stand point of administrative efficiency and ease of communication (Steponaitis 1978) since most of the population served by Bell Field must have lived down stream.

A similar situation exists along the Etowah River. Broad floodplain occurs along the River for a straight line distance of about 12 km. Four Savannah culture mound sites occur along this stretch of river, but three of them, including the huge Etowah site, are located at the eastern end of the valley. Etowah, which as we have seen may have been the primary center for a multilevel political system, is located less than 2 km from the point where the Etowah River floodplain first widens significantly after entering the Valley and Ridge Province. Again, the location of Etowah, as well as some of the secondary centers associated with it, does not make sense from an administrative perspective.

We suggest that in the case of both Bell Field and Etowah, the advantage in terms of natural resource availability offered by a location near the Cartersville Fault may have offset the disadvantage resulting from a geographically non-centralized location. Specifically,

we suggest that the locations of the two sites offered ready access to the most extensive shoals in the area, to the natural resources of both the Piedmont and the Valley and Ridge Provinces (Larson 1971b), and, perhaps most importantly, to the most fertile agricultural soils. That these advantages were real is further suggested by the fact that mound building occurs in both locations throughout almost the entire Mississippi period.

The location of Plant Hammond site, 52 km west of Etowah and 73 km southwest of Bell Field, may reflect several different factors, including spacing mechanisms operating between competing societies and distribution of alluvial floodplain suitable for cultivation. The junction of the Etowah River with the Oostanaula River at Rome, lies only 37 km (straight line distance) from the Etowah site, and the floodplain of the Etowah River is quite narrow for much of the last 20 km of this distance. Given these conditions, it is unlikely that a second Middle Mississippi period polity could have developed along the Etowah River.

The location of the Plant Hammond site so far (17 km) west of the Etowah - Oostanaula River junction is more difficult to account for. Site survey in the Weiss Reservoir and along the Etowah River indicates that the territory administered from the Plant Hammond site extended no more than 20 km (straight line distance) along the Coosa River between the Alabama border and Rome. The location of the Plant Hammond site approximately mid-way between these two points would presumably have placed the site in a central location vis a vis its territory and would have provided ready access to the larger floodplain that is characteristic of the Coosa River near the state line.

The straight line distance separating Bell Field and Plant Hammond, 73 km, would seem to be sufficient for a third polity to develop along the Oostanaula River. Large expanses of alluvial floodplain occur at several locations along the river, most notably southwest of Calhoun. Only three Mississippian sites are currently known to exist along the entire length of the Oostanaula River, and there is no evidence that any section was heavily occupied. Given the lack of professional, systematic survey along the river, however, the existence of a Middle Mississippi period polity in the area can not be ruled out.

LATE MISSISSIPPI PERIOD

The Late Mississippi period extends from approximately A.D. 1350 to A.D. 1550. The period begins with the ceramic transition from Savannah culture to Lamar culture and ends with the De Soto and Luna expeditions of A.D. 1540 and A.D. 1560 respectively. Lamar is the only recognized culture in the study area during the period. Three phases of Lamar are currently recognized on ceramic evidence: Little Egypt, Barnett, and Brewster.

Lamar Culture

Little Egypt phase: Little Egypt phase is currently known at only two sites: the type site, Little Egypt (9MU102), and 9MU7 (Table 14, Figure 16). The relative frequencies of pottery types in the type collection are listed in Table 15. The ceramic assemblage represents an early variant of the widespread Lamar ceramic complex. It differs from late Lamar pottery complexes such as those characteristic of Barnett, Tugalo, and Cowarts phases (Hally and Rudolph 1986) in having little or no Lamar Incised, and in having early forms of the thickened and pinched rim (Hally 1979). It differs from all other Lamar phases, except Barnett, in having an abundance of shell-tempered pottery and Mississippian pottery types (Tables 15 and 16).

The assemblage is dominated by the Mississippian pottery types, Dallas Plain, McKee Island Cordmarked, Dallas Incised, Dallas Negative Painted, Dallas Filleted, and salt pans. In this respect, it bears great similarity to the pottery collection from Bell Field which precedes it in time. Shell tempering and Dallas Plain have increased in frequency, but only one Mississippian type, Dallas Incised, is new.

The type, Lamar Complicated Stamped, has a number of characteristics that are found in early Lamar phases elsewhere in north Georgia and which mark it as early: relatively fine grit tempering, jar form with fairly pronounced shoulders, and narrow thickened rims with pinching that extends across the entire rim width. Stamped motifs include filfot cross, concentric circle, figure eight, and nested rectangles or frets. The motifs, the generally large size of motifs, and the heavy and poorly executed stamping all represent continuity with Savannah Complicated Stamped in the preceding Bell Field assemblage and in the Wilbanks phase assemblages from Etowah and Plant Hammond. A small number of thickened and pinched jar rims recovered from the Bell Field mound are earlier versions of the rim mode as it is represented in the Little Egypt phase complex.

The Little Egypt phase pottery complex is very similar to the Dallas culture pottery complex at Hiwassee Island (Lewis and Kneberg 1946). All Dallas culture pottery types are represented and in roughly the same relative frequency. The major difference is in the presence of grit tempered plain and complicated stamped pottery which amount to 19% and 10% of the Little Egypt complex respectively. These categories are virtually absent at Hiwassee Island. Of the 240 complicated stamped sherds recovered from Hiwassee Island site and said to resemble Lamar Complicated Stamped (Lewis and Kneberg 1946: 96-97), 182 are shell tempered and 58 are grit tempered. One illustrated sherd (ibid: Figure 21) bears a thickened and pinched rim of a type characteristic of the Little Egypt phase.

The first four stages of Mound A at Little Egypt were constructed during the Little Egypt phase. The site at this time apparently consisted of a fairly extensive village and one mound. Domestic structures are known from one partially excavated structure at Little Egypt that had a depressed floor, single-post wall construction, and a wall-trench entrance passage.

TABLE 14

Phase Affiliation of Lamar Culture Sites

<u>Little Egypt Phase</u>	<u>Barnett Phase</u>	<u>Brewster Phase</u>
Little Egypt (9MU102) 9MU7	Little Egypt (9MU102) Potts' Tract (9MU103) Poarch (9G01) Thompson (9G04) Baxter (9G08) Brown Farm (9G067) Swancy (9G070) King (9FL5) Johnstone (9FL49) Mohman (9FL155) Coosa Country Club (9FL161)	Etowah (BR1) Leake (9BR2) Free Bridge (9BR6) Walt Jones Farm (9BR9) Pumpkinvine Creek (9BR12) Nancy Creek (9BR27) Pettit Creek (9BR28) 9BR31 Conyers Farm (9BR40) 9BR54

Unknown Phase Affiliation

Lingerfelt (9WD1)	9BR4
9G03	Lewis (9BR7)
9G05	Harris (9BR22)
9G011	Raccoon Creek (9BR26)
Floyd Farm (9FL1)	Pine Log (9BR37)
Will Vann Farm (9FL2)	Winneman (9BR41)
9FL14	9BR56
9FL27	9BR89
9FL165	

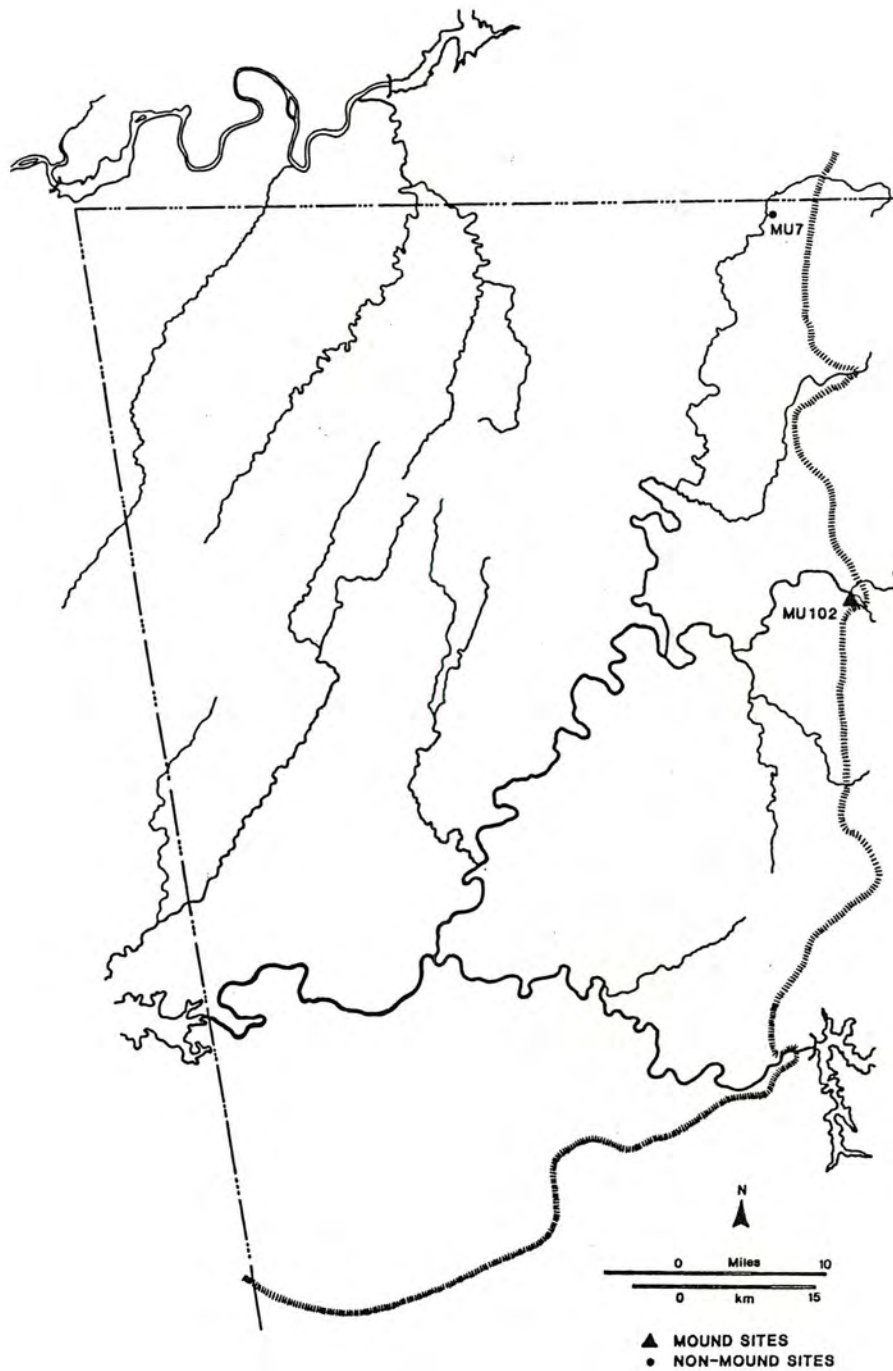


Figure 16. Little Egypt Phase Sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

TABLE 15

Relative Frequency of Pottery Types in Lamar Culture Assemblages

	<u>Little Egypt</u> ¹ <u>Phase</u>	<u>Barnett</u> ² <u>Phase</u>	<u>Brewster</u> ³ <u>Phase</u>
Lamar Incised		9	9
Lamar Complicated Stamped	10	11	35
Dallas Incised	1	1	
Dallas Filleted	1	1	
McKee Island Cordmarked	7	1	
Grit-tempered cordmarked	1	1	
McKee Island Brushed	1		
Rudder Comb Incised	1		
Dallas Negative Painted	1		
Salt pans	1		
Lamar Plain	8	28	33
Lamar Coarse Plain	11	26	21
Dallas Plain	62	23	2
Sample size	3191	2582	376

¹ Hally, 1979: Table 26.

² Hally, 1970: Table 4.

³ Senior author's counts for collection from a structure excavated by Larson at the Etowah site in 1965.

TABLE 16

Relative Frequency of Temper Types in Lamar Culture Assemblages

	<u>Grit</u>	<u>Shell</u>
Little Egypt phase	29	71
Barnett phase	75	25
Brewster phase	98	2

Excavation Unit 3 at Little Egypt (Hally 1980) exposed a series of superimposed sand occupation surfaces and irregularly shaped hearths. These features probably represent a courtyard adjacent to domestic structures where a variety of activities associated with food preparation took place. Through time as refuse accumulated, the courtyard was periodically resurfaced with fresh sand and the hearths were renewed by the addition of new clay surfaces. Food remains recovered from these features included maize, beans, squash, acorn, walnut, hickory nut, and grape and a variety of fish, reptile and mammal species.

As more Little Egypt components are recorded, it is probable that the phase will be found to be limited in distribution to the northeastern portion of the study area. No early Lamar sites are presently known in the Etowah and Coosa valleys. There is no reason to suspect, however, that this portion of the study area was unoccupied at this time. We anticipate that when components are eventually recorded, they will have greater ceramic similarities to early Lamar phases in the Piedmont than to the Little Egypt phase.

Barnett phase: Eleven sites in the study area can be identified as Barnett phase (Table 14, Figure 17). The relative frequencies of pottery types in the type collection from Potts' Tract (9MU103) are listed in Table 15. The Barnett phase pottery complex bears numerous similarities to the Little Egypt phase complex and clearly developed out of it. McKee Island Cordmarked decreases substantially in frequency as does shell tempering in general (Table 16). Lamar Incised becomes a common type, and Lamar Complicated Stamped undergoes minor changes in vessel shape and in the thickened rim mode. Ceramic continuity is indicated by the continued mix of grit and shell tempering, continuation of Dallas Incised and Dallas Filleted, and obvious developmental relationships in Lamar Complicated Stamped motifs and vessel shape modes characteristic of Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Plain, and Dallas Plain.

Barnett phase almost certainly post-dates the Dallas Component represented by mound construction stages A - D at the Hiwassee Island site (Lewis and Kneberg 1946:Table 19). The two pottery complexes share a number of types, including: Dallas Plain, Dallas Incised, and Dallas Filleted. They differ markedly, however, in the relative frequency of two types, McKee Island Cordmarked and Lamar Incised. The former

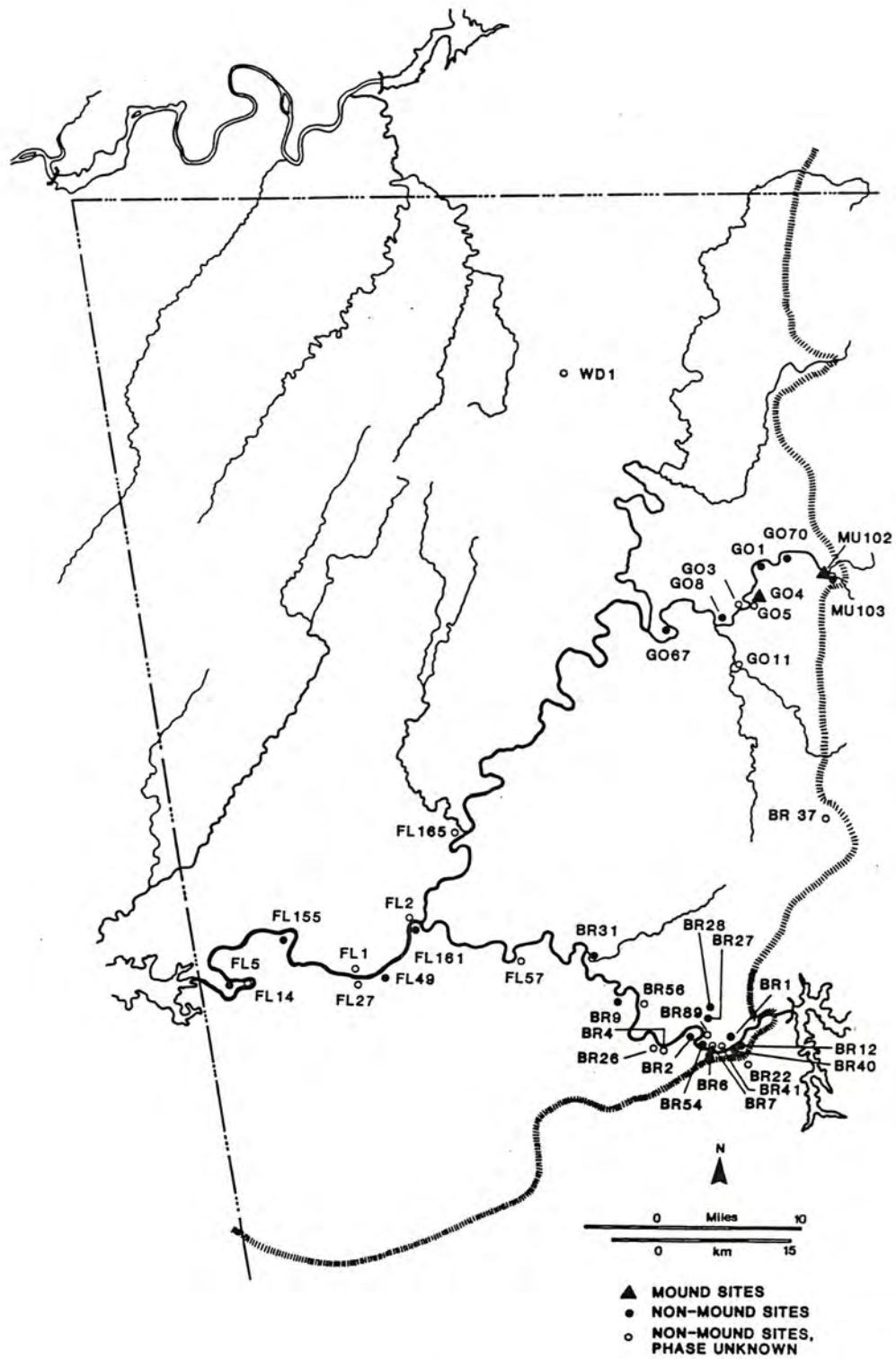


Figure 17. Late Lamar sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province.

accounts for 20 - 30% of the pottery at Hiwassee Island but for only 1% of the Barnett phase pottery complex. Lamar Incised is the second most common decorated type in Barnett phase. Its shell-tempered equivalent at Hiwassee Island, which Lewis and Kneberg include in the type, Dallas Decorated, is found only in the last mound construction stage where it accounts for less than 1% of the pottery.

The Mouse Creek ceramic complex resembles the Dallas complex in having almost 100% shell-tempered pottery and a predominance of plain surface pottery (Evans et al. 1981; Evans and Karhu 1984; Lewis and Kneberg 1941; McCollough and Bass 1983; Sullivan 1986). The two also share most of their decorated and minority types, including: Dallas Incised, salt pans, Dallas Filleted, and McKee Island Cordmarked. Mouse Creek differs from Dallas and resembles Barnett phase in having McKee Island Cordmarked in low frequency (1-8%) and in having a shell-tempered variant of Lamar Incised, variously referred to as DeArmond Incised, Ten Mile Incised, and Laurel Incised (King 1969). The Mouse Creek and Barnett pottery complexes share a number of additional ceramic features, including: flaring rim bowls, blank-faced hooded effigy bottles, jars with incised and punctated decoration and effigy handles [included in the Dallas Incised category in Barnett phase ceramic counts (Hally 1979)], and noded gravy boat (saddle pot) bowls. The major differences between the two complexes are the near absence of grit tempering and complicated stamping in the Mouse Creek complex.

Archaeologists in Tennessee have had some difficulty determining the culture-historical relationship of Dallas and Mouse Creek cultures. The phase sequence for the Coosawattee River --Bell Field assemblage, Little Egypt phase and Barnett phase -- strongly suggests that Dallas is generally earlier than Mouse Creek. As represented in the Chattanooga area and along the Tennessee River northward to the Hiwassee River, Dallas is contemporary with Bell Field site (late Middle Mississippi period) and Little Egypt phase. In this area, it probably develops into Mouse Creek by A.D. 1500. Indeed, the pottery collection from the "Present Humus" capping the Hiwassee Island mound may be Mouse Creek. Cordmarking drops to 7% in the collection, and Dallas Decorated, which includes pottery with Lamar Incised decoration and vessel shapes, increases to 5%. North of the Hiwassee River, Dallas may continue up to the Spanish contact period.

While Mouse Creek and Barnett share a large number of ceramic features, they are clearly distinct at the phase level. We do not agree with Garrow's (1975) suggestion that Barnett phase should be included in Mouse Creek phase.

Crow Creek/Guntersland IV phase (Walthal 1980; Webb and Wilder 1951) in the Guntersville Reservoir is at least partly contemporaneous with Barnett phase and is ceramically very similar to it. The Crow Creek/Guntersland IV pottery complex is dominated by McKee Island plain, Langston Fabric Marked salt pans, McKee Island Cordmarked, and McKee Island Incised. The latter is a shell-tempered equivalent of Lamar Incised and is the major evidence for contemporaneity with Barnett phase. Differences between the two pottery complexes include the low frequency of McKee Island Cordmarked and salt pans in Barnett and the

virtual absence of complicated stamping and grit tempering from the Crow Creek/Guntersland IV complex.

The roughly contemporary Kymulga phase (Knight 1985; Knight et al. 1984), located in the Middle Coosa River drainage in eastern Alabama, also bears close ceramic resemblances to Barnett phase. Most Barnett phase ceramic markers are present. Differences include the occurrence of grog or clay tempering and jars with brushed and cob marked surface treatments.

The Barnett phase pottery complex differs from other late Lamar phases such as Brewster (Caldwell 1958), Dyar (M. Smith 1981a) and Tugaloo (Hally 1986a; Anderson et al. 1986) in having abundant Mississippian types and attributes which are almost totally lacking in the others. Remove these Mississippian features, and the complex is almost indistinguishable from them. As is the case with earlier phases in the study area, the Barnett phase pottery complex combines features from both the Tennessee Valley and the Piedmont ceramic traditions.

A great deal is known about Barnett phase culture. Domestic structures are rectangular in floor plan, measure approximately 6-7 m square, have depressed floors, single post-wall construction, wall-trench entrances, four interior roof support posts, and central hearths. Exterior walls were probably plastered with mud and may have had earthen embankments (Garrow and Smith 1973; Hally 1980; Hally et al 1975). Similar structures are found in village contexts in Dallas (Polhemus 1987) and Mouse Creek (Sullivan 1986) culture and Dyar (M. Smith 1981a) phase sites. This kind of structure was probably utilized primarily during the colder months of the year.

Rectangular post patterns measuring approximately 3 m by 6 m occur adjacent to the depressed floor structures at King site and probably represent combination summer houses and corn cribs. This kind of structure is also found in Dallas and Mouse Creek sites (Polhemus 1987; Sullivan 1986).

Human burials are usually placed in and around both kinds of structures. Individuals of all ages and both sexes are usually present, suggesting that they represent the members of a single household. Burial mode is predominantly flexed inhumation. Similar burial patterns are characteristic of Dallas (Polhemus 1987) and Mouse Creek (Sullivan 1986) cultures.

Two types of sites are known to exist in the Barnett phase: mound and village sites and large villages. The former is represented by two sites: Little Egypt (9MU102) and Thompson (9GO4). Thompson covers approximately 24,300m² and has a single plowed-down mound. The Little Egypt site covers approximately 50,000 m² and has two platform mounds. The Little Egypt mounds were originally each more than 2.5 m high and are located on adjacent sides of a plaza measuring approximately 100 m by 65 m. Village zone surrounds both mounds and the plaza.

Several stages of Mound A at Little Egypt were constructed during the Barnett phase. The mound had a central platform measuring

approximately 18 m square surmounted by a structure of single-post wall construction measuring 9 m square. The platform was flanked on several sides by slightly lower terraces which also bore structures. At least one terrace structure seems to have been domestic in function (Hally 1980, 1981, 1986).

Eight large village sites are known from the Coosawattee and Coosa Rivers. They range in size from 8000 m² to 55,000 m², are fortified in some, if not all, cases, and probably have plazas with public buildings. Only one of these sites, King (9FL5) has been extensively excavated. It measures 146 m square (21,400 m²) and is encircled by a defensive ditch and palisade (Hally et al. 1975). A plaza measuring 80 m by 50 m is located in the center of the site. A large post pit marks the center of the plaza and of the site itself. Two structures are located in the northern portion of the plaza. One resembles the cold season domestic structure in size and configuration. The other structure is considerably larger, measuring 15.5 m square, and has eight interior support posts and interior partitions. A similar structure occurs on the north edge of the plaza at the Mouse Creek culture Ledford Island site (Sullivan 1986). The village zone encircling the plaza at King site contains an estimated 47 winter houses and several identifiable summer structures.

A third type of site, the farmstead or hamlet, may be represented by the Potts' Tract site (9MU103). Unfortunately, excavations at this site (Hally 1970) were not sufficiently extensive to allow determination of site size.

Clusters of Barnett phase village sites and mound and village sites are known to exist in two locations within the study area (Figure 17). Six sites -- two mound and village sites and four villages -- are distributed at fairly regular intervals along an 18.2 km stretch of the Coosawattee River (Langford and Smith 1986). Sizes range between 7,700 m² and 55,000 m². Given the distances separating these sites from one another and the distances separating them from contemporaneous site clusters on the Coosa (60 km) and Etowah (55 km) Rivers, it is reasonable to conclude that these sites constituted a single polity. Little Egypt site, with two mounds, may have functioned as the primary administrative center for this polity. The single mound Thompson site, located 8.6 km downstream from Little Egypt may have served as a secondary administrative center.

As was the case during the Middle Mississippi period, the primary center (Little Egypt) is located less than 1 km from the Cartersville Fault. In this case, though, we know of five additional large villages that were contemporary with Little Egypt, and all were located downstream from it. With the exception of Potts' Tract, a habitation site of unknown but probably small size, no contemporary sites are known to occur up river. The Little Egypt site was located on the extreme eastern edge of the polity over which it had control. Again, we can only cite the advantages offered by greater resource accessibility to account for the seemingly anomalous location of Little Egypt.

The second group of large Barnett phase villages includes four sites -- Coosa Country Club (9FL161), Johnstone Farm (9FL49), Mohman (9FL155), and King (9FL5) -- distributed at fairly regular intervals along a 20 km stretch of the Coosa River. None of these sites have mounds, and except for King, site dimensions are not known with certainty, although all are large. Given the distance separating these sites from one another and the distance separating them from contemporaneous site clusters on the Coosawattee and Etowah Rivers, it is reasonable to conclude that these sites also constitute a Barnett phase polity. Given the lack of mounds --although the mound that Jones (1861) saw at the junction of the Oostanaula and Etowah Rivers may have been constructed during Barnett phase -- this polity was probably less important than the polity on the Coosawattee River.

Large collections of plant and animal remains have been recovered by flotation from Little Egypt (9MU102), Potts' Tract (9MU103), and King (9FL5) sites. Only the Little Egypt samples have been completely analyzed (Hally 1980, 1981). They indicate that maize, beans and squash were cultivated and that a variety of wild plant and animal species were gathered, including: acorn, hickory nut, walnut, butternut, persimmon, honey locust, grape, maypop, white-tailed deer, black bear, raccoon, opossum, cotton tail rabbit, turkey, drum, sucker, catfish, box turtle and river cooter.

Very few burials and very few exotic burial goods were recovered from the mounds at Little Egypt, and none were recovered from good stratigraphic context. The largest collection of Barnett phase burials recovered under controlled excavation conditions are from the villages at King (9FL5) and Little Egypt. As expected, given the difference in burial context, none of the more costly artifact classes found in Mound C at Etowah -- embossed copper plates, copper celts, monolithic axes, stone paint pallets, and stone statues -- were found with these burials. Nevertheless, a number of exotic items showing continuity with the Southern Cult material at Etowah are represented, including: pierced spatulate celts, monolithic-axe effigy pipes, chert blades, conch shell cups, and engraved shell gorgets. Most exotic artifact classes appear to be associated with specific sex and age categories of interments at King site suggesting that ascribed status positions were unimportant (Seckinger 1977). Sullivan (1986) also found that ascribed status distinctions were unimportant or absent in Mouse Creek culture burials. Grave furnishings from the late Lamar Nacoochee Mound (9WH3) in northeast Georgia more closely correspond to Mound C grave goods in variety and presumed value, but there is no information on the age and sex of interments (Heye et al 1918).

Brewster Phase: The Brewster phase was defined by Caldwell (1957) on the basis of pottery collections from Stamp Creek (9BR139) and Chambers (9CK23) sites in the Allatoona Reservoir. Sears (1953) used a collection of approximately 2000 sherds from a domestic structure he dug at Etowah to define a Pumpkinvine phase. The pottery assemblages from Stamp Creek, Chambers, and Etowah are essentially identical as far as we can tell. Since only Caldwell's phase name has appeared in the literature (Hally and Rudolph 1986; Ledbetter et al 1987), we have

opted to use it rather than the name, Pumpkinvine, for the late Lamar occupation of the Etowah Valley.

The collection listed in Tables 15 and 16 is from an Etowah site structure excavated by Larson in 1956 which the senior author has been able to analyze. The most outstanding feature of the assemblage is the almost total absence of shell tempering and Mississippian pottery types. In this, it differs considerably from its Barnett phase contemporary to the north, but conforms to the local trend toward decreased use of Mississippian ceramic features in the Etowah Valley which begins in late Etowah phase. The assemblage is quite similar to other late Lamar phases across the state (Hally and Rudolph 1986).

Sears (1953, 1955) identifies Brewster phase (his Pumpkinvine phase) as protohistoric Cherokee. In the context of what we now know about Lamar culture ceramic variability (Hally and Rudolph 1986; Hally 1986) and the linguistic and sociopolitical landscape of Georgia and the Carolinas in the early historic period (Hudson et al 1985; M. Smith 1987), this type of across the board equation of ceramics and linguistic/ethnic groups is no longer tenable. In fact, the Brewster phase complex differs in several important features from the protohistoric Tugaloo and 18th century Estatoe phases which can be identified with Cherokee speakers in northeast Georgia (Hally 1986) and western South Carolina (M. Smith et al. 1984).

Altogether, 10 sites have yielded pottery collections that can be identified as Brewster phase with some degree of reliability (Table 14, Figure 16). With the exception of the Etowah (9BR1) and Leake (9BR2) sites, these components are known entirely from surface artifact collections. Based on the excavations of Larson (personal communication) and Sears (1953), we know that the Brewster phase village at Etowah covered approximately 20,000 m² and that domestic structures conform to the type characteristic of Barnett and other late Lamar phases in the state. Larson believes that the Etowah site had lost its political and ceremonial importance by late Mississippian period. Mound C construction terminated in Wilbanks phase, and the large Wilbanks phase plaza in front of Mound A was being used for domestic purposes by the Brewster phase inhabitants. Nevertheless, until the terminal stages of Mounds A and B are investigated and dated, we can not rule out the possibility of mound construction and use at Etowah during the Brewster phase.

Leake site (9BR2) originally had three mounds, one of which was a large platform with basal dimensions of approximately 100 m by 75 m. Recent excavations in the basal remnant of this mound by the authors indicate that it was constructed in the Middle Woodland period. Excavation also revealed that, as reported by Wauchope (1966), a large Brewster phase village, measuring at least 10,000 m², was located immediately adjacent to the mound.

A large number of Lamar sites of Brewster phase and unknown phase affiliation occur in the Etowah River valley near Cartersville (Figure

17). At least two of these sites, Etowah and Leake, had fairly large occupation zones. Given the importance of the Cartersville area earlier in the Mississippi period, it is certainly possible that a major polity existed in this section of the Etowah Valley during the Brewster phase. Brewster phase sites in the Allatoona Reservoir (Caldwell 1957; Ledbetter et al. 1987) may also have belonged to this polity.

Sixteenth Century Spanish Contact in the Valley and Ridge Province

Considerable evidence has accumulated in the past several years indicating that the Lamar inhabitants of the study area had direct contact with the mid-16th century expeditions of De Soto and Luna. Iron celts and chisels, swords, crossbow bolts, horseshoes and Nueva Cadiz and Chevron beads have been recovered by collectors and professional archaeologists from a number of sites, including: Little Egypt (9MU102), Poarch (9G01), Thompson (9G04), Baxter (9G08), Brown Farm (9G067), Etowah (9BR1), Leake (9BR2), Johnstone Farm (9FL49), King (9FL5), and possibly Mohman (9FL155) (M. Smith 1976, 1987; Langford and Smith 1986).

Hudson and his colleagues (Hudson et al. 1985) have identified the Little Egypt site as the town of Coosa visited by both De Soto and Luna. Poarch, Thompson, Baxter, and Brown Farm, which we have argued were part of a single Barnett phase polity administered from Little Egypt, may represent some of the communities which the Gentleman of Elvas saw when he described the country around Coosa as "thickly settled in numerous and large towns" (Elvas 1968:76) and some of the eight towns mentioned in the Luna papers (Langford and Smith 1986). Hudson and his colleagues (Hudson et al. 1985) have also suggested that Etowah, Coosa Country Club (9FL161), Johnstone Farm (9FL49), and King (9FL5) may represent other named towns visited by De Soto after his expedition departed from Coosa.

The geographical distribution of Barnett and Brewster phase sites suggests that three separate polities existed in northwest Georgia during the mid-16th century. Three additional contemporary polities may be represented by clusters of Mouse Creek phase sites in the Tennessee River drainage (Figure 18). One of these clusters consists of the large Rymer (40BY11), Ledford Island (40BY13), and Mouse Creek (40MN3) villages on the Hiwassee River (Sullivan 1986). Spanish artifacts from Ledford Island and Rymer indicate that the polity dates to the middle of the 16th century (M. Smith 1987). None of the sites has mounded architecture. Hiwassee Island may be part of the same polity, as it is located only 18 km downstream. As noted earlier, it is possible that the mound at Hiwassee Island had a Mouse Creek construction stage.

A second cluster of sites -- Citico (40HA65) (Hatch 1976), Audubon Acres (40HA84) (Evans et al. 1981), Hampton Place (40HA146) (McCollough and Bass 1983), and Williams Island (40HA60) (Evans and Karhu 1984) -- is located on the Tennessee River at Chattanooga. On the basis of Spanish artifacts, M. Smith (1984; 1987) dates Audubon Acres and Citico to the A.D. 1540 - 1600 period and Williams Island and Hampton Place to the A.D. 1600 - 1630 period. The European artifacts from the latter sites

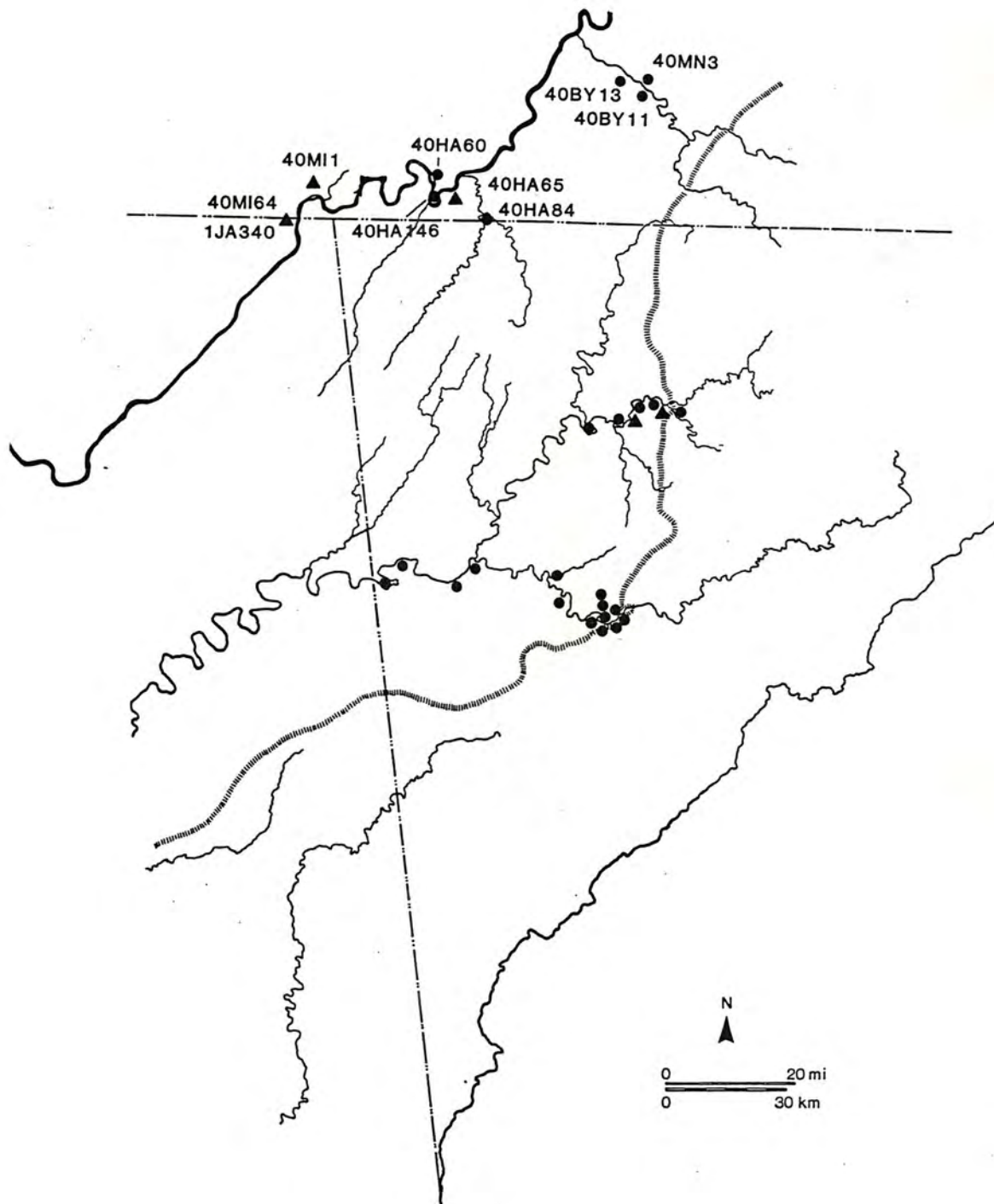


Figure 18. Mouse Creek phase site clusters in the Tennessee River Drainage.

do not, however, preclude mid-16th century beginning dates for those components. All four sites are large villages, and Citico has two mounds. Mound construction at Citico apparently began in the Middle Mississippi period, but there is no evidence that it did not continue into the 16th century.

The third polity is represented by two mound sites -- Wilson (40MI1) (Moore 1915) and Long Island (1JA340/40MI69) (Ball et al 1976) -- located approximately 30 km down river from the Chattanooga group. A copper tubular bead recovered from Wilson suggests that the site dates to the A.D. 1540 - 1570 period (M. Smith 1984, 1987). Long Island is approximately 8 km down river from Wilson.

If the Hudson et al. reconstruction of De Soto's route through northwest Georgia is correct, it is possible that all six of these site clusters belonged to the Province of Coosa. If so those site clusters on the Etowah, Coosa, Tennessee, and Hiwassee Rivers were subordinate in some fashion to Little Egypt site and the site cluster on the Coosawattee River. There is as yet no archaeological evidence for such relationships.

The Barnett and Brewster phase occupations of the Valley and Ridge province in northwest Georgia apparently came to an end early in the second half of the 16th century. Smith (1977, 1987) argues that abandonment of the area was stimulated by European epidemic diseases and was part of a gradual population movement down the Coosa Valley to the location of the 18th century town of Coosa near Childersburg, Alabama.

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CONSIDERATIONS

In this chapter we assess the archaeological resource base for the Mississippian period in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province and identify the kinds of natural processes and human activities that have a destructive impact on it. We also identify the significant research problems that need to be addressed in order to more fully understand the nature of the adaptive pattern characteristic of the area and period. Finally, we identify significance criteria for Mississippian resources in the Valley and Ridge Province and offer recommendations for the preservation and protection of significant resources.

THE CULTURAL RESOURCES

Nature and Distribution of the Resources

Fifty-four Mississippian sites (not including 40PK16) have been recorded in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province (Figure 10, Table 17). Seven of these are upland sites, while the remaining 47 are located in the floodplains of streams and rivers. Four upland sites have sub-surface features such as pits, postmolds, and burials. Eleven floodplain sites have earthen mounds and sub-surface midden deposits and/or features. Sub-surface midden deposits and/or features are also reported for twelve non-mound floodplain sites. The remaining 23 floodplain sites are known only through surface scatters of artifacts.

Three culturally significant types of sites can be distinguished among the 54 recorded sites: large villages with mounds, of which there are 11 (Table 17); large non-mound villages, of which there are eight definite examples (9G01, 9G067, 9G070, 9BR2, 9FL5, 9FL49, 9FL155, and 9FL161) and one possible example (9BR54); and upland stone box grave cemeteries, of which there is one recorded example (9G010). Numerous other site types -- farmsteads, hamlets, upland hunting and gathering camps, hunting blinds, fishing camps, stone fish weirs, quarries, and shrines -- probably also exist in the study area, but either have not been recorded yet or can not be identified with the information currently available in the State site file.

The location of the 54 recorded archaeological sites is illustrated in Figure 10. All but one of these sites, 9WD1, is located in the Great Valley District, and of these, almost 90% are distributed along the major rivers. Approximately 80% of the known sites are concentrated in three locations: along the Coosawattee River between the Cartersville Fault and the mouth of the Conasauga River, along a 15 km (straight line distance) stretch of the Etowah River west of the Cartersville Fault, and along the Coosa River between Rome and the Alabama border.

TABLE 17

NATURE, LOCATION, AND PRESERVATION STATE
OF MISSISSIPPIAN SITES

<u>Site</u>	<u>Topographic Location</u>	<u>Documented site Characteristics</u>	<u>Preservation state</u>
9MU47	upland	surface artifacts	plow disturbed
9WD1	upland	sub-surface pits	destroyed - highway
9GO10	upland	stone box graves	pot hunted
9GO59	upland	sub-surface pits	80% destroyed - const.
9BR9	upland	possible sub-surface features	unknown
9FL1	upland	surface artifacts	eroded
9MU100	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	destroyed - reservoir
9MU101	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	destroyed - reservoir
9MU102	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	destroyed - reservoir
9GO4	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	plow disturbed, pot hunted
9GO8	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	leveled, plow disturbed, pot hunted
9BR1	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	plow disturbed, some excavation, protected
BR3	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	plow disturbed, some excavation
9BR6	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	plow disturbed, some excavation
9BR26	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	unknown
9BR40	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	some excavation
9FL3	floodplain	mound, sub-surface features	destroyed - const. some excavation
9MU8	floodplain	sub-surface features	plow disturbed
9MU103	floodplain	sub-surface features	destroyed - reservoir, some excavation
9GO1	floodplain	sub-surface features	eroded, plow disturbed, pot hunted
9GO67	floodplain	sub-surface features	eroded, plow disturbed, pot hunted
9GO69	floodplain	sub-surface features	destroyed - highway
9GO70	floodplain	sub-surface features	plow disturbed, pot hunted
9BR2	floodplain	sub-surface features	plow disturbed, heavily damaged - highway
9FL5	floodplain	sub-surface features	eroded, plow disturbed, excavated
9FL27	floodplain	sub-surface features	unknown

TABLE 17 (cont.)

<u>Site</u>	<u>Topographic Location</u>	<u>Documented site Characteristics</u>	<u>Documented Preservation state</u>
9FL49	floodplain	sub-surface features	eroded, plow disturbed, pot hunted
9FL57	floodplain	sub-surface features	plow disturbed
9FL155	floodplain	sub-surface features	eroded, plow disturbed, pot hunted
9FL161	floodplain	sub-surface features	partially destroyed - construction
9FL165	floodplain	sub-surface features	plow disturbed, pot hunted
9G03	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9G05	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9G09	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9G011	floodplain	surface artifacts	pot hunted
9G012	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9G078	floodplain	surface artifacts	plow disturbed
9BR4	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR7	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR12	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR22	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR27	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR28	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR31	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR41	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR50	floodplain	surface artifacts	eroded
9BR54	floodplain	surface artifacts	plow disturbed
9BR56	floodplain	surface artifacts	plow disturbed
9BR82	floodplain	surface artifacts	plow disturbed
9BR89	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9BR237	floodplain	surface artifacts	stream bank erosion
9FL2	floodplain	surface artifacts	unknown
9FL14	floodplain	surface artifacts	plow disturbed

Forty-seven of the recorded sites are located in the floodplain of streams and rivers. Seven sites are upland sites and occur on hill slopes or knolls adjacent to rivers and large streams.

Archaeological survey in the study area has been minimal, unevenly distributed, and generally non-systematic. With the exception of the Rocky Mountain Pumped Storage Project (Garrow and Fortune 1973; Garrow and Warner 1978; G. Williams 1979), the Soil Conservation Service Structure IM survey on Town Creek (Johnson and Sheldon 1975), and a short section of the East Tennessee - Ball Ground Pipeline Corridor Survey (Blanton et al. 1987), the more mountainous Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts have not had any extensive surveys. Within the Great Valley District, where most survey and excavation has occurred, site survey by trained archaeologists has been limited to the floodplain of the Etowah and Coosawattee Rivers. The Conasauga, Oostanaula, and Coosa Rivers have not been surveyed, and uplands and small streams in the District have had very little survey coverage.

In the absence of reliable site survey data, it is difficult to estimate the original density of Mississippian sites. Historical records (Jones 1861; Holmes 1894) indicate that originally there may have been as many as 20 mound sites in the study area. If large, non-mound villages were a common settlement type throughout the entire Mississippi period, there should be two to four times as many of them along the Coosawattee, Etowah, and Coosa Rivers as we have records of today; that is, 15 - 20 along each river. The number of smaller sites -- farmsteads, hunting and gathering camps, quarries, etc -- that originally existed in the study area can only be guessed at because of the lack of adequate survey coverage, especially in the Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts and in the uplands and small stream valleys of the Great Valley District. Certainly the number must be in the thousands.

State of Preservation

Of the 11 recorded sites with mounds, only one, Etowah (9BR1) remains largely intact. Four sites -- Sixtoe (9MU100), Bell Field (9MU101), Little Egypt (9MU102), and Plant Hammond (9FL3), have been, for all practical purposes, totally destroyed. The remaining seven mound sites -- Thompson (9GO4), Baxter (9GO8), Two Run Creek (9BR3), Free Bridge (9BR6), Raccoon Creek (9BR26), and Conyers Farm (9BR40) -- have been reduced to barely perceptible rises by bulldozing and plowing and are riddled with trenches and pits excavated by various professionals and collectors over the last 50 years. An additional six mound sites, described in the late 19th century literature (Jones 1861; Thomas 1894) can not be located today and are presumed destroyed. Some of these, such as 9FL162 at the junction of the Oostanaula and Etowah Rivers, were probably Mississippian.

Five of the eight large non-mound village sites -- Poarch (9GO1), Brown Farm (9GO67), King (9FL5), Johnstone (9FL49), and Mohman (9FL155) -- currently known have been scoured by overbank erosion, and extensively looted by collectors. The Coosa Country Club

(9G0161), has been disturbed over a large area by construction activities.

We have little or no information on the state of preservation of the remaining sites. Most, however, have almost certainly been at least plow disturbed (Table 16).

RESEARCH PROBLEMS IN VALLEY AND RIDGE MISSISSIPPIAN ARCHAEOLOGY

The Mississippian Adaptive Pattern

In this section, we summarize what we think are the basic features of the Mississippian adaptive pattern in the Valley and Ridge Province of Georgia. This effort should be seen as an initial formulation based on minimal, often biased evidence. Its purpose is to give direction to future research by raising questions about Mississippian adaptation in the study area and by drawing attention to shortcomings in the data base.

Subsistence focused on the cultivation of maize, beans and squash and the gathering of wild plants and animal species, the most important of which were deer and various species of fish and nuts. Floodplain soils were probably the most intensively cultivated; shoals were probably the most productive locations for gathering riverine resources; and interfluvial uplands were probably a major source of game and nuts.

Human settlement was most intensive along stretches of rivers having large areas of tillable floodplain soils, especially where those rivers crossed the Cartersville Fault and entered the Valley and Ridge Province. These latter locations had the most fertile alluvial soil in the entire province and offered ready access to extensive shoals and a greater variety of natural resources. People typically resided in permanent settlements located near their cultivated fields. Riverine and upland food resources were exploited from these habitation sites as well as from temporary camps located adjacent to shoals and in the uplands away from the major streams.

Settlements were typically large villages that covered two hectares or more and were occupied by several hundred people. These villages consisted of a central plaza with one or more communal buildings and a surrounding domestic habitation zone. Households typically utilized a winter and a summer dwelling and a granary, the latter possibly also providing the superstructure and roof for the summer habitation.

Ascribed social status differences seem to have existed in Mississippian societies in the Valley and Ridge Province. They were probably most important with respect to the allocation of political power. Early European accounts suggest that at least in the Late Mississippi period, leaders had considerable power and could exercise some degree of control over large numbers of communities and substantial populations.

Neighboring villages formed polities that were integrated by means of centralized leadership hierarchies and administered from capital towns. The latter usually had earthen platform mounds which served as the foundation for chief's residences and public meeting houses as well as for temples and mortuaries.

Polities were restricted to a single drainage and consisted of a half dozen or more villages that were distributed in a linear fashion along a 10-20 km stretch of river. Polities were separated from one another by buffer zones 20 km or more across. These buffer zones were utilized for hunting and gathering, but were not resided in on a permanent basis. Villages located on the edge of these zones tended to be fortified with palisades and ditches.

Individual polities went through cycles of growth and decline, but those geographical locations that had the most favorable natural resource base -- the Etowah and Coosawattee Rivers where they enter the Valley and Ridge Province -- continued to be the loci for political developments throughout most of the Mississippian period.

Inter-polity relationships might vary from open hostility to political alliance to political domination of one polity by another. The latter involved primarily relationships between chiefs and tended to be more symbolic than real.

Research Problems and Investigation

The Mississippian period has been the subject of more archaeological research than any other period in the Valley and Ridge Province. Unfortunately, this research has been of rather uneven quality. At best, it has been opportunistic and narrowly focused; at worst, it has been haphazard, poorly executed, and unreported. With the archaeological resource base already so badly depleted, archaeologists can no longer afford to conduct field investigations that fail to make significant contributions to our understanding of the Mississippian adaptive pattern.

Several major problem areas can be identified in Valley and Ridge Mississippian period archaeology.

Ceramic classification and phase definition: We believe that detailed phase sequences must be developed for at least the following localities: the Conasauga River Valley at the Georgia-Tennessee border, the Coosawattee River Valley, the eastern half of the Etowah River Valley, the Coosa River Valley, and the Chickamauga Creek drainage in the northwest corner of the study area. These sequences are a necessary prerequisite for all investigations of Mississippian subsistence, settlement, socio-political, and economic systems.

Specific questions that need to be addressed in future investigations include the following:

1. What does the pre-Woodstock Swift Creek/Napier ceramic complex look like?
2. When does the transition to Woodstock culture occur?
3. Is there an early Savannah phase in the study area comparable to Beaverdam and Scull Shoals phases in the Georgia Piedmont that combines Etowah and Savannah ceramic characteristics?
4. Do Wilbanks phase ceramics develop out of the preceding late Etowah ceramic complex or is there a sharp stylistic break between them?
5. Are Wilbanks phase and the Bell Field site component contemporaneous, and do they date to the latter part of the Middle Mississippi period?
6. What do early Lamar ceramics look like in the Etowah and Coosa Valleys?
7. Why are three types of temper -- shell, limestone, and grit -- used by potters in the study area throughout much of the Mississippi period, and why do they vary so much in frequency through time and between the Coosawattee and Etowah River drainages?
8. Why do Mississippian and South Appalachian pottery types occur together throughout much of the Mississippi period, and why do they vary so much in frequency and variety through time and between the Coosawattee and Etowah River drainages?

Phase sequences can not be developed and the type of questions listed above can not be answered without detailed and systematic ceramic classification. Ceramic typological analyses must be performed on pottery collections from all of the localities listed above. These analyses can be carried out with pottery recovered by surface collection, test excavation, and intensive site excavation. Samples of pottery, however, must be large and should be derived from contexts appropriate for the particular research problem. For example, pottery samples used for identifying phases should come from several locations at a number of different sites to insure that the phase reflects the ceramic assemblage of the society as a whole rather than one particular activity. In order to develop phase sequences, archaeologists should obtain at least some of their samples from stratified contexts.

Subsistence economies: Although we have a general knowledge of what Mississippian subsistence systems in the Valley and Ridge Province were like, we do not know the details of how they worked. Without information on such things as relative quantities of species harvested and consumed, seasonality of exploitation, horticultural techniques, hunting and gathering techniques, and food preparation and storage techniques, we can not determine how Mississippian subsistence systems

might have varied through time and across the region, and we can not understand why they took the form they did.

Specific questions that need to be addressed in future research include the following:

1. How important was maize horticulture in the Woodstock culture subsistence pattern?
2. Was agriculture restricted to the floodplain of rivers and streams, or were upland areas also cultivated?
3. If uplands were cultivated, how intensively were they cultivated and did intensity of use vary through time and from region to region?
4. Does the natural fertility of floodplain soils along the Conasauga, Coosawattee, and Etowah Rivers decrease significantly downstream from the Cartersville Fault?
5. Does the role of maize horticulture in the total subsistence system differ significantly between the eastern Etowah and Coosawattee River Valleys on the one hand and the Coosa River Valley on the other?
6. Are there significant differences in the kinds of wild plant and animal resources that are exploited in the Coosa River Valley and the eastern Etowah and Coosawattee River Valleys?
7. What role did the more mountainous Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts play in Mississippian subsistence patterns?

Subsistence economies are most easily and accurately reconstructed from faunal and botanical remains, although tools and utensils may also yield important evidence. Like ceramic samples, faunal and botanical samples must be large enough to answer the particular research question being posed. They must also be derived from suitable contexts. Many research questions require very large samples of bones and plant remains that can come only through the excavation of sites with good organic preservation and the extensive use of flotation recovery techniques. However, even small poorly preserved samples can provide important information.

Settlement systems: The available archaeological evidence suggests that a significant portion of the Mississippian population resided in large villages, that these villages tended to be located along major rivers, and that they tended to cluster in a few locations along those rivers. This picture needs to be verified or modified and fleshed out.

Specific questions that need to be addressed in future research include the following:

1. What proportion of Barnett phase populations, if any, resided in dispersed farmsteads and hamlets as opposed to large permanent villages.
2. Were large villages as characteristic of the Early and Middle Mississippi periods as they were of the Late Mississippi Period?
3. Were there concentrations of Late Mississippi period sites along the Conasauga and Oostanaula Rivers as well as along the Coosawattee River, the eastern section of the Etowah River, and the Coosa River?
4. Did the Carters Dam and Cartersville areas have large population concentrations throughout the Mississippi period, or were there times when they were partially or totally abandoned?
5. Were all large villages fortified, or were fortifications important only at certain times (for example, the Middle Mississippi Period in the Etowah Valley) and in certain locations (for example, along the frontiers of polities).
6. Were there populations permanently resident in the more mountainous Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts, or were these areas unoccupied and visited only for brief periods of time by people permanently settled along the Tennessee River and the major rivers in the study area?
7. Why do mound sites on the Conasauga, Coosawattee, and Etowah Rivers tend to be located immediately downriver from the Cartersville Fault?

In order to increase our understanding of Mississippi Period settlement systems in the study area and answer questions such as those posed above, we need to identify functionally distinct site types and determine their relative frequency and spatial distribution as well as characterize the kinds of activities that took place at them. These kinds of data are best obtained through intensive, systematic site survey and large scale site excavation. The Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts, the Conasauga and Oostanaula River Valleys, and uplands and small drainages in the Great Valley are especially in need of systematic site survey. Farmsteads, hamlets, and specialized activity sites are especially in need of large scale excavation.

Socio-political organization: We believe that during much of the Mississippi period the Valley and Ridge province contained three to four different polities and that each was controlled by an hereditary leadership hierarchy which conducted much of its administrative activities at a capital town. Considerable research is necessary to test, modify, and fill out this picture. The absence of Lamar platform mound sites on the Coosa River and the elaborate nature of the Etowah site during Wilbanks phase suggest that political systems varied

considerably through time and across the region. This possibility also needs to be investigated.

Specific questions that need to be addressed in future research include the following:

1. Do the Late Mississippi period site clusters on the Coosawattee, Etowah, and Coosa Rivers represent distinct polities?
2. Did similar kinds of polities exist during the Early and Middle Mississippi Periods?
3. Do these kinds of polities go through developmental cycles of growth and decline?
4. What kinds of relationships existed between contemporary polities?
5. Did the Wilbanks phase polity in the Etowah Valley have political control of some kind over other contemporary polities in the study area and beyond?
6. Do Little Egypt and the other Barnett phase villages known to exist along the Coosawattee River comprise the Coosa polity visited by De Soto and Luna?
7. If so, what kind of control did this polity have over other polities in the study area and beyond?
8. Was the Carters Dam locality a seat of political power throughout the Mississippi period, or were there times when mound building ceased and power shifted to other polities?
9. What kind of relationship did polities in the study area have with those existing further down the Coosa River, along the Tennessee River to the north and along the Upper Etowah and Chattahoochee Rivers to the east and south?
10. What, if any, causal relationship exists between the mixture of Mississippian and Piedmont ceramic styles characteristic of most ceramic complexes in the study area and political and economic ties that may have existed between polities in the Tennessee River Valley, Coosa drainage, and the Piedmont?

Several kinds of information can be used to investigate socio-political organization in the study area. These include spatial distribution of sites, mound and plaza architecture, mortuary patterns, health and nutritional status of individuals represented in skeletal samples, and inter-site and intra-site distribution of ceramic styles, faunal remains and exotic grave goods. These kinds of information can only be obtained by a combination of systematic site survey and intensive site excavation.

RESOURCE SIGNIFICANCE

Three general criteria can be used to assign historical significance to Mississippi period sites in the Valley and Ridge Province: site type (mound and village, non-mound village, farmstead, hunting and gathering camp, fish weir etc); frequency of sites by type and phase; and preservation state.

Some site types can provide more information on a greater variety of research problems than others, but all types of sites have the potential to provide useful information not available from others. For example, mound sites can provide information on most aspects of the Mississippian adaptive pattern because a wide variety of activities generally took place at such sites. Mound sites are also among the best sources of information on the nature of political organization, religion and social ranking. A small shell midden, on the other hand, may yield information on little more than aquatic resource gathering, but it may be one of the few sources of such information.

Since the Mississippian adaptive pattern may vary significantly through time and from river drainage to river drainage, it is clear that no one site can be considered representative of a particular site type for the entire Mississippian occupation of the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province. A site may be judged to have historical significance for a variety of reasons, but this should not blind us to the fact that its scientific importance must be evaluated in the context of particular geographically or temporally bounded phases or socio-political systems. A Wilbanks phase mound site in the Etowah River valley, for example, may be very useful for investigating broad questions of importance to our understanding of Mississippian political organization throughout the Eastern Woodlands, but it may tell us relatively little about the precise nature of political organization or social status differentiation along the Coosa River two centuries later.

Some site types occur with low frequency and in terms of information yield represent a scarce but very important resource. Approximately 11 sites with platform mounds are known to exist in the Valley and Ridge Province. Each probably represents an administrative center within a Mississippian polity. Each, therefore, represents the sole source of much of the information necessary to understand the socio-political organization of a particular society at a particular point in time. Other sites, such as upland hunting and gathering camps, are probably quite common -- perhaps numbering in the hundreds -- and are probably represented by multiple examples in each Mississippian phase. The loss of one such site potentially causes less of a problem for archaeological research because other examples of the type can yield the same kind and quality of information. However, some information in the form of site distribution pattern is lost even when the more common types of sites are destroyed.

Significance is also determined by the preservation state of the site. Sites with intact cultural features and preserved faunal and botanic material can yield considerably more information about past lifeways than can sites consisting only of plowed and eroded surface

scatters of non-diagnostic stone artifacts. Nevertheless, if all examples of a particular site type (for example, upland hunting camps) in a region are surface scatters of this sort, their information yield, low as it may be, may be quite significant in the context of the larger settlement and subsistence system.

All Mississippi period sites in the Valley and Ridge Province are potentially historically significant because all may yield information useful to the understanding of the Mississippian adaptive pattern and its temporal and regional variants. Some sites, however, yield more scientifically valuable information than others. Generally speaking, sites that were the scene of a variety of human activities and have a good preservation state have the greatest potential information yield. Mound sites and large villages are the site types that typically manifest these characteristics. The potential significance of these kinds of sites is increased by their rarity.

At the other end of the significance spectrum, upland artifact scatters, that may represent upland hunting and gathering camps, are likely to yield less scientifically valuable information. These site types are generally poorly preserved and were probably the scene of only a limited variety of activities. They may be, furthermore, a common site type. Nevertheless, they do represent an aspect of prehistoric culture that is very poorly understood, and until a number of well preserved examples have been thoroughly investigated in each drainage and time period, they must be considered historically significant.

PRESERVING ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESOURCES

Archaeological sites are a finite resource that, like endangered species of plants and animals, must be carefully managed and conserved. Archaeology has made major methodological and theoretical advances in the last 30 years and will no doubt continue to do so in the future. With each such advance, new and more sophisticated ways of investigating and understanding the archaeological record become possible. For this reason, it is imperative that some proportion of the State's archaeological resources be set aside and preserved for future research efforts. It is also necessary that some sites with physical characteristics that can be appreciated by the public be preserved for recreational and educational use.

How should archaeological sites in the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province be selected for protection and preservation? At least three criteria should be considered in site selection: low frequency of occurrence, research potential, and public educational potential. Most mound sites and village sites meet these three criteria and should be preserved. Stone fish weirs and camps located in rockshelters may also meet these criteria and should be preserved. Most other site types probably exist in relatively large numbers throughout the Valley and Ridge Province today. Ideally, several examples of these other site types from each phase in each drainage should be preserved.

Predicting Site Location

The paucity of recorded sites in the Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts may reflect the lack of site survey in those areas, or it may reflect a low level of aboriginal utilization. Two features of these districts suggest they may have been poorly suited for permanent settlement. To begin with, topography is often rugged, and alluvial floodplain soils are limited in extent. Second, the area represented by these districts may have served as a buffer zone between the large scale Mississippian societies that existed to the northwest in the Tennessee River Valley (Figure 10) and to the southeast in the Coosa River drainage. Nevertheless, it is difficult to believe that Mississippian populations did not visit the area for at least brief periods of time to exploit wild plant and animal resources and mineral resources such as chert (see Figure 4). Limited activity sites, at least, should be present in the area. Indeed, triangular projectile points have been found at a small number of sites in the Rocky Mountain Pumped Storage survey area (Garrow and Fortune 1973; Garrow and Warner 1978) in the Armuchee Ridges District and in the Lookout Valley (Jefferies 1975), Johnson Crook (C. Smith et al. 1986a) and Cedar Grove (C. Smith et al. 1986b) survey areas in the Cumberland Plateau Province. These points are probably the by product of Mississippi period hunting and gathering activities.

Within the Great Valley District, where the most intensive survey and excavation work has occurred, two major rivers, the Conasauga and the Oostanaula, are devoid of sites for most of their lengths. Does this reflect the lack of professional site survey along these rivers, or was human habitation light because of natural and cultural environmental conditions?

Within the Great Valley District, site survey and excavation have been limited almost entirely to the floodplains of major rivers. Surrounding uplands and smaller, tributary streams have been almost entirely neglected. Yet these locations must have been exploited by people living along the major rivers. Survey by John Wear on Salacoa Creek has demonstrated that Mississippian sites do occur on the smaller streams, but we do not yet have a basis for evaluating the site potential of upland areas.

In the absence of reliable site distribution data, it is difficult to develop a reliable predictive model for Mississippian site location. The available archaeological evidence indicates that Mississippian populations were concentrated in large towns and that these were situated in the floodplains of major rivers in four locations: the eastern portion of the Etowah River, the Coosa River, the Coosawattee River and the Conasauga River near the Georgia-Tennessee border. The latter area has received little attention in this report because of the limited information we have on it. Yet the existence of an early Etowah platform mound indicates that population density must have been fairly heavy in the area at least during that phase. Distances between these known areas of site concentration are sufficiently great that we can not rule out the existence of additional site concentrations along the Oostanaula and Conasauga Rivers.

The importance of large towns in the Late Mississippi period is clearly demonstrated by sites such as King (9FL5) on the Coosa River, Little Egypt (9MU102) and Poarch (9GO1) on the Coosawattee River, and Etowah (9BR1) on the Etowah River. Nearly all large village sites currently known date to the Late Mississippi period. We really do not know whether large villages were also common in the Early and Middle Mississippi Periods and, if so, where they were located.

Some proportion of Mississippian populations may have resided in smaller hamlets and farmsteads. Whether such site types do exist and whether they occur on smaller streams and in upland locations as well as in the floodplains of the major rivers is not known. Likewise, limited activity sites undoubtedly exist in the Chickamauga Valley and Armuchee Ridges Districts as well as in various locations in the Great Valley. With the possible exception of fish weirs located in the western section of the Etowah River and chert quarries both of which are difficult to date, no such sites have been recorded to date.

Site Destructive Land Use Activities

Several types of land use activity have the potential to damage Mississippian sites. Agricultural activities can have a severe impact on archaeological sites located on or just below ground surface. Mounds may be obliterated during land leveling or over time through continued plowing. Midden deposits and architectural features located within 30 cm or so of ground surface can be obliterated by plowing and by land clearing, leveling, and terracing. Surface erosion and gulleying, accelerated by poor agricultural practices, may also affect surface and near surface sites.

In terms of number of sites damaged and extent of area affected, plowing is by far the single greatest destructive agent in the Valley and Ridge Province. Cultivation has done considerable damage to the mound sites and large village sites along the Coosawattee, Etowah, and Coosa Rivers. Most mounds have been considerably reduced in height by continued cultivation, sometimes with the aid of bulldozers. Five to six stages of mound construction had been removed from the Bell Field mound (9MU101) by the time Kelly began excavations in 1965. The Baxter Mound (9GO8) is reported to have lost up to six meters of height through plowing and intentional leveling activities. Plowing has destroyed a significant portion of the village midden deposits at Little Egypt (9MU102), Poarch (9GO1), Baxter (9GO8), Brown Farm (9GO67), King (9FL5), Johnstone (9FL49), Mohman (9FL155), and Leake (9BR2). Overbank erosion by rivers in flood stage has aided this process by removing surface deposits and allowing the plow to cut deeper into cultural deposits.

Overbank erosion has itself done considerable damage to floodplain sites. The Little Egypt site (9MU102), for example, had been extensively scoured by the Coosawattee River prior to Moorehead's visit in 1925, since he observed exposed burials in several locations. Stratigraphic excavation at the site by the senior author in 1969 - 1972 (Hally 1979, 1980) further documented the destructive impact of this erosion. Overbank erosion probably increased in severity during the

late 19th century and early 20th century due to extensive land clearing in northwest Georgia. The construction of Allatoona and Carters Dams has probably reduced overbank erosion in recent years.

Most upland sites have probably been affected by cultivation and the erosion that may accompany it. However, except for 9FL1, which is described in the state site files as being eroded, we have little actual evidence of the impact of plowing on upland sites.

Timbering may also have a major destructive impact on surface and near surface sites. Mechanical equipment used to harvest and transport timber may disturb the soil to a depth of a foot or more. Surface erosion and gulleying, initiated by clear cutting, may also damage surface and near surface sites. Timbering, like agriculture, affects large areas of the Valley and Ridge Province, but, because it is generally concentrated in upland areas and limited to more rugged terrain, its impact is probably limited primarily to smaller and more functionally specialized upland sites. The lack of archaeological activity in the more mountainous sections of the study area means that we have seen little evidence of the impact of timbering on archaeological sites.

Along with plowing and erosion, pot hunting has been the major source of site destruction in the study area. Collectors estimate having excavated 200-300 burials from the Brown Farm site (9G067) and 300-400 burials from the Poarch site (9G01). A seige of activity at Baxter (9G08) in 1986-87 resulted in literally hundreds of holes being dug through rich village midden and the mound itself. Since Lamar burials are frequently placed within domestic structures, these activities have undoubtedly resulted in heavy damage to what were formerly intact house floors.

Construction activities--highway, residential and commercial--are also responsible for the destruction of large numbers of archaeological sites. Because they may involve land leveling, fill borrowing and foundation excavation, construction activities may adversely affect deeply buried as well as surface sites. As the population and economy of northwest Georgia expands, the impact of these activities will grow with increasing speed. In some areas, commercial and residential construction are rapidly replacing agriculture as the major agent of site destruction. Unfortunately, two of the most rapidly growing communities in northwest Georgia, Cartersville and Rome, are located in areas of major Mississippian occupation.

C.C.Jones (1861) witnessed the destruction of a mound (9FL162) at the junction of the Oostanaula and Etowah Rivers for construction fill, and the Rowland Mounds, located by Thomas (1894) three miles southeast of Cartersville were apparently destroyed by construction activities prior to 1938. Construction of tennis courts and other facilities at the Coosa Country Club have destroyed a significant portion of 9FL162, while approximately 80% of the Lum Moss site (9G059) near Calhoun has been destroyed by golf course construction. Highways have destroyed 9G067 and 9WD1.

Reservoirs are especially destructive because they may cover large areas and because they are located where Mississippian occupations were most intense--the valleys of major streams and rivers. Most site destruction results from inundation, but dam and power line construction activities also take their toll, primarily as a result of land clearing and leveling and earth borrowing. Reservoirs stimulate residential and, to a lesser extent, commercial development in their vicinity, and therefore can be said to also have a major secondary impact on archaeological resources located outside the floodpool.

Construction of the main and reregulation dams at Carters Dam on the Coosawatee River destroyed three mound sites, Sixtoe (9MU100), Bell Field (9MU101), and Little Egypt (9MU102), and an unknown number of smaller, less visible sites such as Potts Tract (9MU103). Sixtoe Mound was destroyed by dam construction activities. Bell Field and Little Egypt still exist in the reregulation pool where they are inundated and exposed on a daily basis in response to the rhythm of the electric power needs of Atlanta.

Compatible Land-use Activities

Few if any Mississippian sites are safe from the impact of modern land use activities. Upland sites tend to be surface and near-surface sites and are vulnerable to agricultural, timbering, and construction activities. Bottomland sites generally occur immediately below the plowzone and are therefore also vulnerable to agricultural, timbering, and construction activities.

Most Mississippian sites have already been damaged by agricultural activities. As long as soil erosion is controlled and as long as land leveling, terracing, and deep plowing (chisel plowing) are not undertaken, continued cultivation should have little further impact on them. Timbering activities such as log skidding, loading ramp construction, and stump removal may cause sub-surface disturbance to a depth greater than that of the plowzone. Such activities should not be undertaken on upland or bottomland sites. Areas that have not been previously plowed, a rare phenomenon in the Valley and Ridge Province, should not be brought into cultivation or clear cut. Very few, if any, kinds of construction activity are compatible with archaeological site preservation. If the construction activity itself does not destroy the resource, the alteration of the sub-surface environment resulting from construction may ultimately damage features and organic material.

APPENDIX I

PUBLISHED SOURCES FOR TYPE DEFINITIONS

Dallas Filleted (Lewis and Kneberg 1946; Hally 1979)
 Dallas Incised (Hally 1979)
 Dallas Negative Painted -----
 Dallas Plain (Hally 1979)
 DeArmond Incised (King 1969)
 Etowah Burnished Plain (Sears 1958)
 Etowah Complicated Stamped (Sears 1958)
 Etowah Incised (Wauchope 1966)
 Etowah Plain (Sears 1958)
 Etowah Polished Black (Sears 1958)
 Hiwassee Island Complicated Stamped (Lewis and Kneberg 1946)
 Hiwassee Island Red Filmed (Lewis and Kneberg 1946)
 Hiwassee Island Red on Buff (Lewis and Kneberg 1946)
 Lamar Complicated Stamped (Hally 1979)
 Lamar Incised (Hally 1979)
 McKee Island Brushed (Heimlich 1952)
 McKee Island Cordmarked (Heimlich 1952)
 McKee Island Incised (Heimlich 1952)
 McKee Island Plain (Heimlich 1952)
 Rudder Comb Incised (Heimlich 1952)
 Savannah Burnished Plain (Rudolph and Hally 1985)
 Savannah Check Stamped (Rudolph and Hally 1985)
 Savannah Complicated Stamped (Wauchope 1966; Rudolph and Hally 1985)
 Savannah Plain (Rudolph and Hally 1985)
 Sixes Plain (Sears 1958)
 Woodstock Check Stamped (Caldwell 1957)
 Woodstock Complicated Stamped (Wauchope 1966)
 Woodstock Incised (Wauchope 1966)
 Woodstock Plain (Caldwell 1957)

REVIEW COMMENTS AND REPLY

COMMENTS

By Marvin T. Smith

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Hally and Langford have produced a monumental compilation of the results of over a century of archaeological research in the Valley and Ridge Province of Georgia. Their thorough treatment leaves little room for criticism; however, a few minor omissions can be noted.

Their discussion of past research in the area is somewhat incomplete, although the sources that they give are the ones which produced the best data for their times. Scholars interested in the history of research in the area might also want to consider the 1819 description of the Etowah site by the Reverend Cornelius (Cornelius 1819; Wauchope 1966:251-253), the map of the Etowah site prepared by C. S. Rafinesque and published by Squier and Davis (1848), and other nineteenth century accounts of this site reviewed by Wauchope (1966:253-256). Charles C. Jones also provided early information. He describes two silver crosses found at the Carters Quarter (Little Egypt) site and attributes them to the De Soto expedition (1883:60), although they clearly date to the late eighteenth or early nineteenth century Cherokee occupation.

Although mentioned in a subsequent section, survey along Lookout Creek by Richard Jefferies is not mentioned in the Previous Archaeological Research chapter. A small survey downstream of Carters Dam in 1968 by William and Marsha Scheppler, assisted by John Wear, recorded a number of important Mississippian sites such as the Baxter (9G08) and Thompson (9G04) sites, securing collections for the University of Georgia. Smith (1987) discusses the abandonment of several Mississippian sites in the region, and presents survey data for several poorly known sites in an appendix. Work by James Hatch (1975) on Dallas culture mortuary patterning also includes burials from northwestern Georgia. Finally, large scale testing excavations directed by Vic Hood of the University of Tennessee took place at the Mohman site on the Coosa River. Unfortunately these excavations were never reported, but it is assumed that records are on file and valuable data on this little known site could be assembled.

Although some researchers will criticize Hally and Langford's treatment of Etowah, i.e. the change from the established Etowah I-IV sequence to a simple "early" and "late" Etowah (pg. 44), as a step in the wrong direction, it seems entirely appropriate at this time. Anyone who has ever tried to identify an Etowah I or Etowah IV site will appreciate this simplification. As the authors note, Etowah IV was defined from the contents of one feature, and lacks a sufficient visibility on other sites to be defined as a cultural period. We are clearly dealing with a continuum, and with the data now available, Hally and Langford's simplification seems most pragmatic.

On page 81 there is a brief mention of stone box grave cemeteries in the discussion of the nature and distribution of cultural resources. These unusual sites have been known for years, and work by Wear and more recently Langford has done much to plot their distribution along the Coosawattee River and Salacoa Creek. Yet their temporal placement remains virtually unknown. Do they date to the Savannah Period like the examples at the Etowah site? I suspect that some may prove to be emergent Mississippian in date. A discussion of stone box cemeteries is called for, and the further understanding of this mode of burial should be an important research goal.

There is some confusion in my mind over the author's use of the term "grit" for temper in early ceramics, particularly in conjunction with discussions of Etowah and Savannah materials (pg. 50, 61). "Sand" has traditionally been used to describe the temper of these types (Sears 1958, Wauchope 1966).

In their discussion of the Barnett phase, the authors mention "minor changes ...in the thickened rim mode" (pg. 72). This discussion should be expanded to include Hally's data on the change in rim fold width over time. Hally has conclusively demonstrated that rim folds increase in width over time, and has presented supporting metric data (1976).

Hally and Langford go to great lengths to discuss the possibility of upland Mississippian settlement in farmsteads or hamlets (e.g. pg. 85). The question of such settlement is certainly important as they note, but there is absolutely no evidence of upland occupations in the area to date (as they also note, pg. 95). It seems entirely possible that the entire protohistoric populations lived in settled, often fortified villages. If this is true, then an explanation must be sought, since it is a dramatic contrast to settlement patterns in the Piedmont Oconee Valley. And, judging from the evidence as presently known, this pattern may go back to Etowah times. To my knowledge, no post-Woodstock hamlets have been identified in the Valley and Ridge.

Hally and Langford have presented useful information on site patterning and clusters along the Cartersville Fault in Georgia and Tennessee, but they fail to follow the pattern into Alabama. Sites such as 1Ce308 (Little and Curren 1981) and Davis Farm (Holstein and Little n.d.) also appear to conform to this pattern, and have furthermore been identified as Barnett Phase components. How are these sites tied into the settlement patterns Hally and Langford discuss, and how do they fit the ethnohistoric accounts from the Soto and Luna expeditions?

Hally is perhaps too modest in failing to discuss much of his own research and that of his students into the Barnett Phase. Due to the efforts of Hally and his students, we now know much more about Barnett Phase domestic life than about this aspect of virtually any other prehistoric culture in Georgia. Before Hally began work at Potts Tract and Little Egypt (1968), most sites were known by work on temple mounds, ceramics, and burials. Hally saw the need to understand the common domestic situation, and began a program to extensively excavate villages. Due to his efforts we now know much about domestic structures

and subsistence (Hally 1969, 1970, 1980), vessel assemblages (Hally 1983a, 1983b, 1986c), chipped stone tools (Conner 1985), and ground stone tools (Pennington 1977). When the final results of excavations at the King Site are published, much more will be known about the variability of domestic contexts.

Hally and Langford should be congratulated on presenting a well written and thought provoking work. This volume should guide research into the Valley and Ridge of Georgia and the adjacent states for years to come.

By Gerald F. Schroedl

Department of Anthropology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville

As specified in the "Introduction", the report is intended, "to serve as a guide for identifying, evaluating, and protecting Mississippian sites in the Valley and Ridge section of Georgia" (p. 1). Furthermore, the report provides an overview of current knowledge respecting Mississippian sites in the region, identifies appropriate topics for future research, and makes recommendations regarding site preservation and associated land use planning. I will restrict my comments to how well the report meets these goals considering that it represents a single study unit in the development of a comprehensive plan for protecting and preserving Georgia's archaeological resources. My suggestions for clarification or improvement attempt to maintain the cultural resource management theme of the document.

First the State of Georgia and its archaeological community, especially David Hally and Morgan Crook, have set an ambitious goal of developing study units for six physiographic regions according to six culture periods. The present volume is thus just one of 36 potential documents designed to establish the framework for managing Georgia's archaeological heritage. Geographically, the Ridge and Valley, Cumberland Plateau, and Blue Ridge comprise a comparatively small area in the north and northwest portions of the state. While small in size, archaeological sites in these areas have played a significant role in the development of Mississippian period studies in the Southeast. The Mississippian period cultural resources of the north Georgia Ridge and Valley Province are made more significant in view of contemporary culture manifestations and long established research programs in the immediately adjacent portions of Alabama, Tennessee, South Carolina, and North Carolina. Hally and Langford might have given greater acknowledgement to this larger regional view and by doing so made an even stronger argument for the importance of cultural resources in this part of Georgia.

Hally and Langford are in the unenviable position of having to establish a consensus culture history for their area where none exists, before addressing resource management considerations. Their list of 16 projects is confined to those that have produced "information on Mississippi period archaeological sites" (p. 15). General reference or comparison to the total effort made in the area might provide a better

sense of just how much work has or has not been accomplished. The list of projects provides extremely useful information for resource management planning. The project evaluations, however, are uneven, ranging from citations of published references to statements regarding the integrity of the work conducted. Consistently identifying major published references and the locations of associated records and materials would add great value to each project summary. Collections and records curation are important resource management concerns that have an appropriate place in this document. There is unquestionably a critical need to locate and preserve the materials already recovered from projects in north Georgia and the authors should make this need explicit. In this context, the prehistoric overview is justifiably considered a first attempt and future management plans should recognize the importance of producing a refined culture historical sequence for the area.

The prehistoric overview is unavoidably complicated by the wide range of available data that differ in both quality and interpretation. Nevertheless, Hally and Langford present materials that require further classification or revision. Respecting the presentation of radiocarbon dates (Table 4 and Figures 8 and 9), it would help to include relevant dates for Mississippian sites in East Tennessee, since some of these sites are prominently mentioned in the discussion. Some that come to mind are the Martin Farm and Hiwassee Island phase dates from several sites, and the Dallas phase dates from Toqua. The Mouse Creek phase dates from Hampton Place and Ledford Island also are relevant.

Concerning the general distribution of Mississippian sites, Hally and Langford's argument about the absence of sites in northwest Georgia might better serve cultural resource management needs if rephrased. It would be useful to show on Figure 10, for example, the location of survey areas that "yielded no diagnostic Mississippian pottery" (p. 39). Most archaeological surveys in the Southeast, furthermore, are site oriented (rather than non-site, i.e. artifact distribution) and focus on discovery of large sites (especially villages with mounds of the Mississippian period). It is likely then that pottery, the criterion for identifying Mississippian sites, and traditional survey techniques have biased the available data against small, limited activity sites—the very sites that Hally and Langford believe are prevalent in northwest Georgia and which appear underrepresented elsewhere (e.g. along the Coosawattee River in Figure 10). Hally and Langford perhaps should acknowledge as well as recommend more sophisticated settlement pattern models and innovative research strategies which could be implemented to eliminate these biases. As the document now reads one could form the mistaken impression that no sites or no sites of archaeological interest occur in much of northwest Georgia. Such a view has the potential for severely restricting or eliminating future research.

Detailed discussion of ceramics is used to characterize individual cultures or culture phases, but some pottery identifications appear inconsistent with those used elsewhere. For example, limestone tempered complicated stamped pottery is classified as Hiwassee Island complicated Stamped. This type is only shell tempered in East Tennessee. The type

"Sixes Plain" according to the report can be shell or limestone tempered. This raises problems of comparability with ceramics elsewhere, particularly given the general concerns with changes from limestone tempered to shell tempered wares. Invoking "style drift" to explain regional differences in Etowah ceramics is a poor way for Hally and Langford to say that they cannot explain the variability they observe in the ceramics, unless of course they are prepared to produce a model or theory of style drift that accounts for their observations.

The concept of polity also requires clarification and the authors are urged to use it with greater caution. As they present it, polities are geographical associations of contemporary sites, with the term inferring hierarchically ordered and allied ethnic groups. Polity approximates a Willey and Phillips culture phase, although Hally and Langford restrict the use of phases to comparable occurrences of ceramics. Since this is a planning document, the authors should make a clear distinction between inferential concepts such as polities and archaeological distributional patterns. If Hally and Langford wish to use polities, then they have an obligation to develop, define, and operationalize this concept more thoroughly than they have done. This is important because a great many of the research problems they pose are phrased in terms of this concept. Polities of the kind they envision may attribute unsupportable socio-political complexity to Mississippian cultures.

Hally and Langford's "Resource Management Considerations" is the most important part of their study. How they have chosen to address these issues deserves special attention and this, in turn, serves to summarize most of the issues developed in this review. Self-evident is that nearly all known Mississippian sites in the north Georgia area have been destroyed or severely damaged. Wherever possible, known sites, excavation records, and artifact collections must be properly curated and protected.

The report does not convey a very good feel for environmental conditions in north Georgia relevant to archaeological resources. This could be improved by providing more detailed and precise descriptions of landscape variability, contemporary land use patterns, and current patterns of land use development. For example, what percentage of the area is federally and state owned? What percentage is river bottomland, uplands, forested, and so on? With these or similar kinds of data, Hally and Langford would be in a much better position for assessing problems of site distributions and for at least offering some alternative research strategies that would produce patterns from which to make improved predictions about site locations. Hally and Langford need to identify the kind of surveys and analyses that they believe will resolve the archaeological problems they have raised. Without this, many of their research questions are likely to remain unanswered despite future surveys or excavations that show no improvement over what is now available. Land-use models, demographic models, or socio-political models relating to chiefdoms might prove useful sources for specifying the appropriate kinds of research strategies.

Because this document is restricted to a single culture historical period, the concern with questions that deal with change and development are unintentionally minimized. Such problems include, for example, the study of Mississippian origins, the relationships of Dallas and Barnett phases and the related questions concerning Mouse Creek phase development. These research problems are further related to more general issues about the development of complex socio-political organizations and to the study of culture patterns in the sixteenth century and later in the Southeast. Paying greater attention to these issues would further strengthen the document's research and cultural resource management importance.

Hally and Langford by their diligence have organized the disparate and, in some instances, what can only be called, chaotic material for north Georgia. By accomplishing this important task, they have exposed the current state of the difficulties understanding the Mississippian archaeological record in this area. They now have the opportunity to establish the direction of future research. The greater implication of this is the likely use of their efforts as a model for similar documents elsewhere.

REPLY TO REVIEWERS' COMMENTS

By David J. Hally and James B. Langford, Jr.

We appreciate the time and effort that Marvin Smith and Gerald Schroedl put into reviewing and commenting on this operating plan. For the most part, their remarks address different topics, and we will therefore respond to each separately.

Marvin Smith correctly points out that we failed to list all of the published and unpublished research projects in our review of Mississippi period research in the study area. We appreciate his completing the job for us. It should be noted however, that we did not mention Richard Jefferies' survey of the Lookout Creek Valley in that section because the project area is located in the Cumberland Plateau Province.

We had little information of stone box grave cemeteries at the time we wrote the first draft of this operating plan. We now know of five occurrences of stone box graves in the study area. They occur in the late Etowah phase mound at Baxter (9GO8) and in the Wilbanks phase construction stage of Mound C at Etowah. Cemeteries occur in floodplain and hill side locations along the Coosawattee River and Salacoa Creek. Except for those in Mound C at Etowah, stone box graves are generally devoid of diagnostic artifacts. In two instances, Baxter and Etowah sites, we can date this form of burial to late Etowah and Wilbanks phases. Whether stone box graves are restricted to these phases is unknown at the present time. Clearly they represent a major gap in our knowledge of the Mississippi period in northwest Georgia.

Throughout the Prehistoric Overview section we have used the term, "grit" as though it was synonymous with "sand" as a tempering agent. Our preference for that term is entirely one of habit. There is no

scientific basis for our use of the term. Smith is correct in pointing out that the term "sand" is more commonly used in the study area. We doubt, however, that either term is used correctly in most of the literature since few archaeologists base their identifications of tempering material on microscopic analysis of sherds.

We agree with Smith's suggestion that the Late Mississippi period population of the Valley and Ridge Province in Georgia may have been almost totally confined to large towns and that this type of settlement pattern may extend back to the beginning of the Mississippi period. These expectations can, of course, be tested by intensive survey along one or more of the three rivers where Mississippian occupation is known to be concentrated. Actually, this type of settlement pattern may be duplicated along the Fall Line where rivers such as the Oconee and Ocmulgee leave their narrow Piedmont valleys and begin to meander through broad floodplains on the Coastal Plain.

We regret that the Prehistoric Overview section did not include a discussion of the late Lamar sites occurring in the Coosa River drainage of northeast Alabama. At least three groups of late Lamar sites can be recognized in this area. The first group, including Terrapin Creek, Bradford Ferry (1CE73), and 1CE173, is located in the Weiss Reservoir immediately west of the state border. Smith (1987) dates these sites to the late 16th - early 17th centuries and argues that they represent an intermediate step in the movement of the Coosa people down the Coosa River.

The second group, located on Choccalocco Creek and Terrapin Creek near Anniston, includes sites such as 1CE308, Davis Farm (1CA196), Ogletree Island, and 1CA42. On the basis of ceramics, these sites have been identified as Barnett phase (Little and Curren 1981; Holstein and Little n.d.). Davis Farm has a low platform mound, and two sites (1CE308 and Ogletree Island) have yielded Spanish material dating to the mid-16th Century. Since sites are spread over an area approximately 70 km in length, it is unlikely that they all belong to a single polity. Nevertheless, it is possible that there was a polity in the Choccalocco Creek area that centered on the mound at Davis Farm and that was roughly contemporary with the Barnett and Brewster phase polities in Georgia.

The third group of sites, located in Talladega county, belongs to the Kymulga phase (Knight 1985; Knight et al. 1984). This group, which includes the Hightower (1TA150) and the Rogers CETA (1TA171) sites, may represent a polity that is contemporaneous with those of Barnett and Brewster phase affiliation in northwest Georgia.

Smith points out that several Alabama sites, including 1CE308, Davis Farm, 1CE42, Hightower, and Rogers CETA, occur in natural settings that are similar to what we have described for the Etowah and Little Egypt sites; that is along rivers immediately adjacent to the Cartersville Fault. On closer inspection, however, it appears that site settings in the two areas differ in several respects. The Alabama sites are situated on streams that are considerably smaller than the Etowah and Coosawattee Rivers. The amount of alluvial floodplain available for cultivation in these locations is also smaller. Finally,

there seems to be a tendency for the Alabama sites to be located individually on a number of different streams, rather than in groups along a single stream as is the case for the Coosawattee and Etowah Rivers.

We are somewhat disappointed by Gerald Schroedl's review. We had hoped that he would bring a Tennessee Valley perspective to bear on our prehistoric overview. We had hoped that he would comment on similarities and differences in the archaeology of the Tennessee and Coosa Drainages and the way researchers in the two areas view that archaeology. Instead he has chosen to focus largely on technical aspects of the operating plan that he regards as inadequate.

Schroedl refers to the State of Georgia's "ambitious goal" of developing 36 operating plans. It is indeed an ambitious goal, and it is one that will be difficult to attain given current limitations on time, money and personnel. We believe that several of the suggestions Schroedl makes for improving our operating plan are valid but impractical given these limitations.

We agree with Schroedl that our review of archaeological projects would be more useful if it identified published and unpublished references and the institutions where artifact collections and field records are curated. Accordingly, we have added this information to the 16 project descriptions.

We feel that Schroedl has overstated the case for bias against small, limited activity sites in existing archaeological surveys. Early surveys such as Wauchope's in north Georgia were almost certainly biased in this way. It is unlikely, however, that such a bias exists in most recently conducted CRM surveys. For example, 13 out of 31 sites recorded in the survey of Soil Conservation Service Structure 1M on Town Creek in Walker and Chattooga counties (Johnson and Sheldon 1975) yielded six or less artifacts. Five sites were represented by only one or two artifacts.

We do not feel that our report implies that ".....no sites or no sites of archaeological interest occur in much of northwest Georgia." Statements to the contrary may be found on pages 39, 41, 85, 93 and 94. We, furthermore, list two research questions on pages 88 and 89 that pertain to the aboriginal utilization of the northwest portion of the study area.

We purposefully chose to lump limestone and shell-tempered pottery together in the types, Hiwassee Complicated Stamped and Sixes Plain. If we had been writing a research report rather than an area synthesis, we might have done otherwise. We were not able to conduct the type of ceramic analysis that would have allowed us to define new limestone-tempered types, and since we specified that the types, Hiwassee Island Complicated Stamped and Sixes Plain, included both temper types we felt our usage would create no real problems of comparability for other archaeologists.

We do feel that the variability in the frequency of limestone,

shell, and grit/sand temper in time and space does need to be investigated and explained. It was for this reason that we devoted as much attention to it in the Prehistoric Overview section as we did. We believe that there may be several factors affecting this variability including the regional availability of different tempering materials, the technological requirements of different kinds of pottery clay, the affect of different tempering materials on the mechanical performance characteristics of pottery vessels, and the amount of social interaction and communication that takes place between communities. We suspect that the latter is the most important causal factor and used the term, "style drift," to refer to it. Perhaps we should have used "Mississippianization" (Schroedl et al. 1985).

Schroedl objects to our use of the word, "polity," to refer to spatially isolated clusters of contemporaneous sites. His criticism that we should have better defined the concept is well taken. For us, a polity is any politically organized community [see Webster's Third New International Dictionary (Gove 1981)]. We believe that Mississippi period polities in the study area consisted of multiple settlements that were under the control of a single, centralized authority. The evidence for this kind of polity is as follows:

1. The existence of spatial clusters of sites measuring 20 km or less in diameter and separated from one another by distances of 40 km or more.
2. Site clusters consist of at least 4-6 large habitation sites measuring in excess of three acres.
3. At least one site in each cluster will be considerably larger than the others and will possess a platform mound or a ground level complex of structures identifiable on the basis of size and location as having administrative and ceremonial functions.

At present, only two site clusters -- the Wilbanks phase sites on the Etowah River and the Barnett phase sites on the Coosawattee River -- are known to have all of these features. We believe that additional research will demonstrate that other currently recognizable site clusters in the study area have all of these features as well.

We have chosen to identify site clusters as polities rather than as phases because the two concepts refer to different things: groups of sites exhibiting similarities in material culture in the case of phases, and groups of sites that exhibit marked spatial clustering and hierarchical organization in the case of polities. While we suspect that further research will allow us to distinguish all site clusters in terms of material culture (ie. ceramics), at the present time we can not. In the final analysis, we have used the polity concept because we believe that the site clusters in question represent politically organized societies and not just contemporaneous neighboring communities that, through some unspecified mechanism, share much of their material culture. The "socio-political complexity" implied by the concept is, we feel, amply demonstrated by the archaeological evidence of mound construction and mortuary programs and by the written accounts of early Spanish expeditions to the interior Southeast.

Noting the impoverished state of Mississippi period sites in the study area, Schroedl points to the need to protect the remaining resources and the need for proper curation of excavation records and artifact collections. We would add to this the need to inventory collections from the area that are held by private collectors and by museums located outside the state.

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