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**MISSISSIPPI PERIOD ARCHAEOLOGY
OF THE GEORGIA BLUE RIDGE MOUNTAINS**

By

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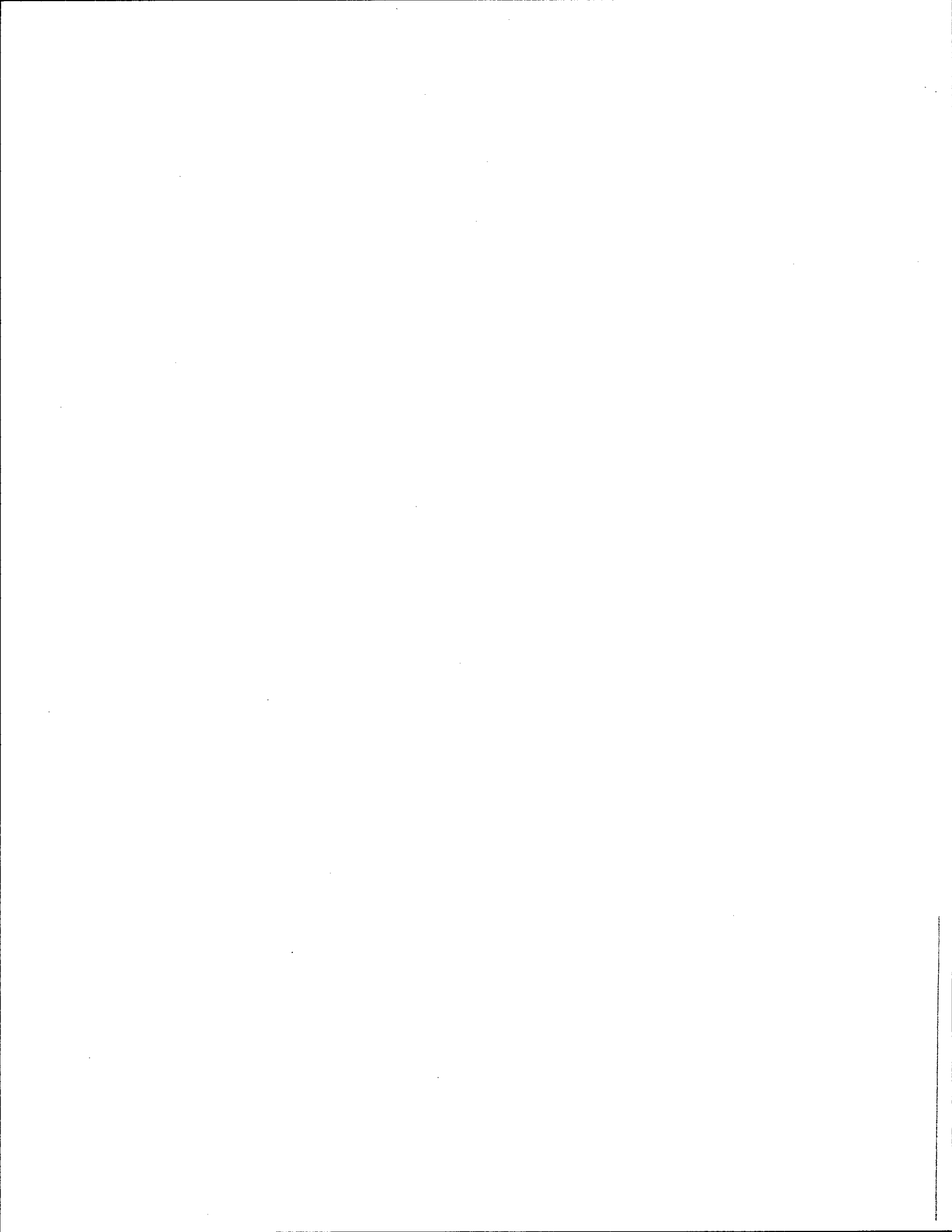


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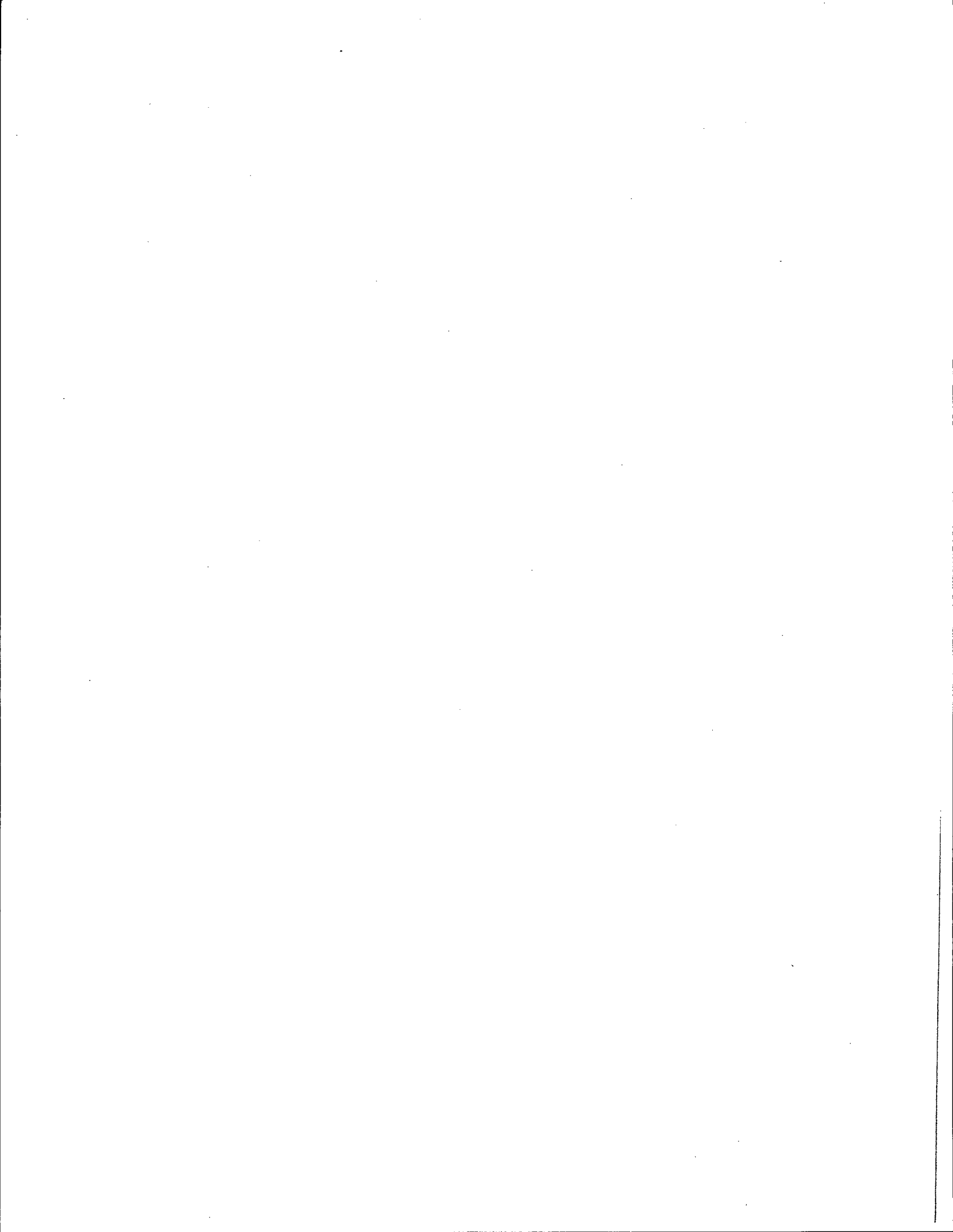
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

This paper is one of the Operating Plans or Archaeological Contexts, described by Crook (1985) and the Georgia Historic Preservation Plan (HPS 1989) as basic to the process of cultural resources planning for the State of Georgia. These planning documents outlined 36 contexts, based on six major physiographic zones and six significant time periods within the state. Several of the contexts have been completed at this writing, and others will soon follow.

The Mississippi period is defined here as spanning approximately A.D. 900 to 1540 in the southern Blue Ridge Mountains. During this period, many, though possibly not all, Blue Ridge peoples participated in Mississippian Culture. That culture has been notoriously difficult to define despite 80 years of study, since it varies greatly from one place to another. The following brief definition is based on Jennings (1974), Walthall (1980), and Jenkins and Krause (1986), modified by recent research into Mississippian culture on the Georgia Piedmont.

For the purposes of this context, Mississippian culture is recognized as that exhibited by people during the period A.D. 900 through 1540, who participated in socially stratified chiefdoms or kingdoms headed by hereditary, semi-divine rulers who accumulated and were buried with elaborate, highly-crafted and often exotic goods. These items were obtained through long-distance trade with distant places, such as the Rocky Mountains, Lake Superior, the Gulf of Mexico or the Atlantic Ocean.

Mississippian people lived in substantial, often fortified, villages in the flood plains of major rivers, and in outlying support communities or farmsteads. In the major centers, one or more earthen mounds might support temples, elite houses, or council structures, surrounded by less elaborate residential, storage, and other structures. Floodplain and upland horticultural production was heavily based on MesoAmerican domesticates of maize, beans, and squash, augmented by numerous local plants and animal foods.

Use of bow and arrow is indicated, with tiny triangular stone points, as is elaborately decorated pottery, usually tempered with crushed shell, though rarely so in the Blue Ridge. Religious concepts shown in artistic treatments of pottery, stone, wood, shell, and copper were oriented to agricultural production and used symbols related to dieties of sun and fire.

Mississippian culture seems to have arisen in the middle Mississippi River valley about A.D. 700, spreading up and down river. From there it spread eastward into the Tennessee and Cumberland river valleys and their tributaries. In Georgia, a major center was established at Etowah, near Cartersville.

Occupants of the mountains during the Mississippi Period shared much cultural and environmental information with people of the Piedmont Plateau,

immediately south of them, and the Ridge and Valley to the west. For this reason, and the need for each of these context papers to stand alone, there will be a considerable amount of repetition and similarity between the contexts of this series, especially between adjacent physiographic areas and between succeeding time periods within the same area. This is as it should be, because the authors were asked to provide answers to the same set of organizational questions by Crook's (1985) strategy paper, the State Plan, and the proposals under which they are being written.

Dr. David Hally, of the Anthropology Department of the University of Georgia, co-author of the Piedmont Mississippian volume with James Rudolph (1986) and the Valley and Ridge volume with James Langford (1988), has been kind enough to assist in many ways in the preparation of this context. Hally has agreed to the use of much of their material, to avoid the necessity for each author to re-invent the potsherd for each succeeding Plan. His kindness and cooperation are greatly appreciated and gratefully acknowledged. Extensive use of Hally and Rudolph (1986) and Hally and Langford (1988) is made here, since their areas border the Blue Ridge.

The general outline here is as follows. Chapter II contains a physical description of the Georgia Blue Ridge Mountains, their resources, boundaries, and adjacent ecotones, likely to have been exploited by the Mississippian occupants. Next (Chapter III) is a presentation of archaeological research done in the Blue Ridge, organized chronologically.

The prehistoric overview (Chapter IV) follows the outline presented in Hally and Rudolph (1985:19-80), using the Early, Middle, and Late Mississippian periods, to present what is presently known of the mountains from about A.D. 900 to 1540. Resource management considerations, needs and recommendations are presented in the concluding Chapter V. Peer reviewers' comments are in the Appendix, followed by the author's reply.

CHAPTER II

ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

The Georgia Blue Ridge Mountains Physiographic District is described by several geographers familiar to most archaeologists working in the state. The most important of those is probably Wharton (1978), but Clark and Zisa's (1976) map and notes are usually easier to use. Hodler and Schretter's (1986) Atlas of Georgia is also helpful, though rather general. For the purposes of this paper, the map outlines of Clark and Zisa (1976) are followed, though certain peripheral areas will also be included in the presentation. The Cohutta Mountains and the McCaysville Basin are incorporated into the Blue Ridge here for convenience, and Wharton's descriptions of the sectional environments have been heavily relied upon. Figure 1 indicates the Blue Ridge area within the state, and Figure 2 presents the major drainages and towns within the study area.

Strictly speaking, following Clark and Zisa (1976) and Wharton (1978), the Blue Ridge province (with the Cohuttas and McCaysville Basin) includes only Rabun, Towns, Union, Fannin, and Gilmer counties, with portions of Murray, Pickens, Dawson, Lumpkin, White, and Habersham counties around the peripheries. This paper will include those counties, plus portions of Stephens as applicable to particular discussions. These Blue Ridge and ecotone counties occupy the northern two or three tiers of counties in eastern and central north Georgia.

Physiography

The Blue Ridge province in Georgia is the southern terminus of the Appalachian Mountain chain, extending from Pennsylvania southward, including the Great Smoky Mountains and paralleling the Ridge and Valley province for most of that length. Generally thought of as low, rounded mountains when compared to the Rockies, the slopes are nonetheless quite steep and the ridges narrow in many places.

Being metamorphic, the Blue Ridge mountains are distinctly different from the sedimentary Ridge and Valley area to the west, and are some of the oldest mountains in the world. Five or six miles of surface is thought to have eroded away during the past 400 million years (Wharton 1978:123). Since the mountains are so old, it is thought that some plant communities (and perhaps some animal species) are likewise extremely old (Ibid.).

The Blue Ridge Mountains District (Clark and Zisa 1976), is made up of rugged mountains and ridges, 3,000-4,700 feet in elevation, with peak-to-valley differences of 1,500-2,000 feet, and a southern boundary with the Piedmont marked approximately by the 1,700 foot contour, where slopes change dramatically. Within this area is the McCaysville Basin, a colluvial highland basin, 1,600-1,800 feet in altitude, which is broken through the center by the upper Jasper Ridges, running northward from the Piedmont. It is drained northward by the Toccoa-Ocoee River and its tributaries. The Cohutta Mountains District is an irregular mass, 3,000-4,000 feet in alti-

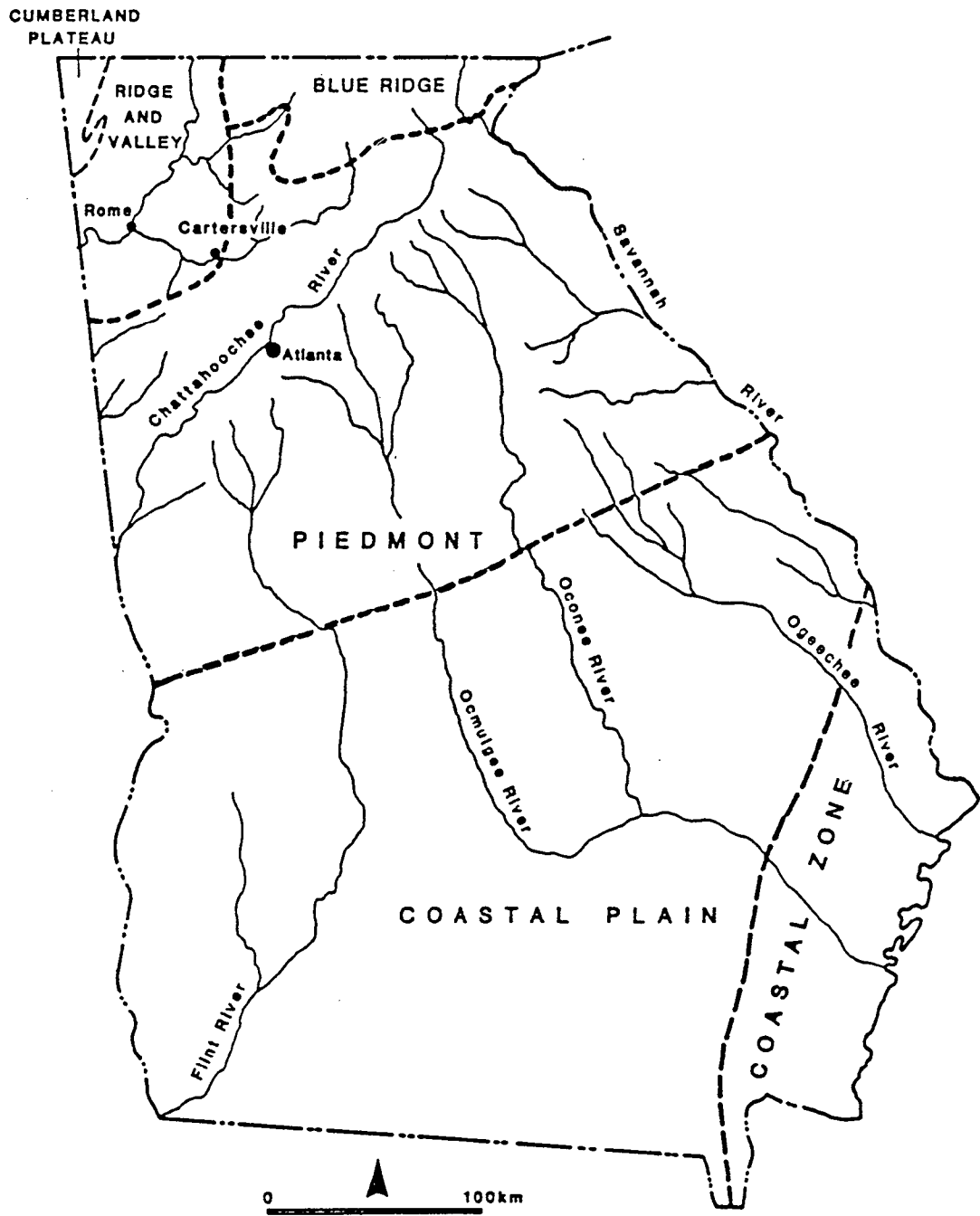


Figure 1: Physiographic Provinces of Georgia

Source: Hally and Langford, 1988

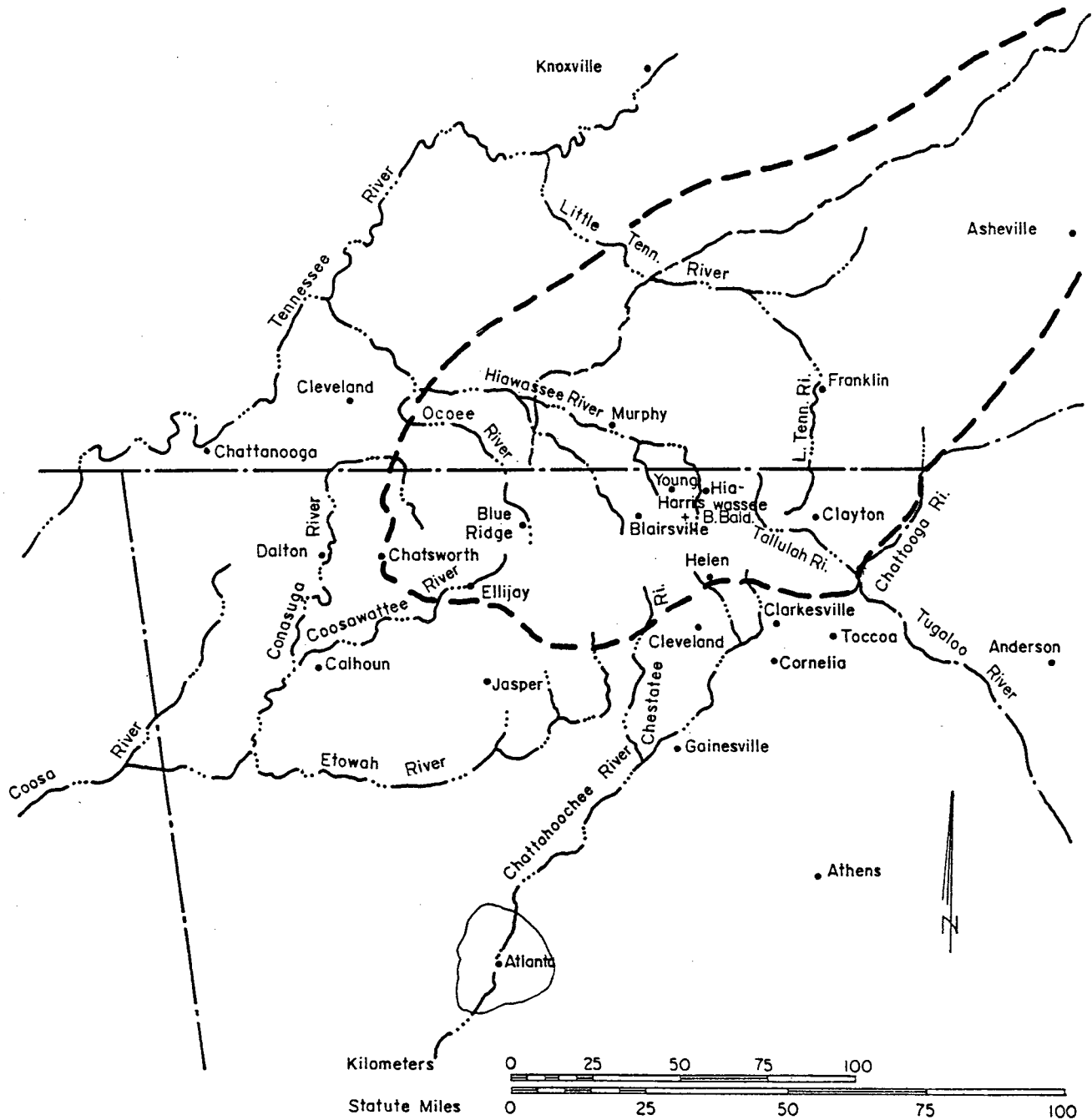


Figure 2: Southern Blue Ridge Province and its Ecotones

tude, drained by southwestward and northward flowing streams, cutting 1,000-1,500 feet below the peaks.

The Cohutta Mountains in Murray, Gilmer, and Fannin counties are dendritic like the Blue Ridge but are of different origin, being "Cambrian rocks: slates, quartzites, and conglomerates of the Oconee Series and quite different from the biotite schists and gneisses of the more highly metamorphosed sedimentary rocks from which the Blue Ridge is constructed" (Wharton 1978:105). They are the south end of the Great Smokey Mountains. The Blue Ridge itself may be an extension of the Nantahala Mountains in Georgia running along an eastern escarpment from Transylvania County, North Carolina, to Rabun Bald (Ibid.).

Boulderfields are found in various places, usually on northern slopes, which provide indication of both erosion and major ice fracturing. There also is evidence of major climatic changes about 9,000 years ago, with rapid temperature increases, more rain, erosion and alluvium in the valleys (Hack 1969, in Wharton 1978:124). Most of the mountain areas are forested, with exceptional high-altitude mountain balds. There stunted tree and shrub growth, mountain laurel, lichens, and fauna of northerly regions predominate. Brasstown Bald, the highest point in Georgia, at 4,784 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) is said to have climate more like New Hampshire than Georgia.

The mountain soils are well-drained but shallow, sandy loam topsoils with sandy loam to clay subsoils, which are highly erodable, on steep and rolling hillslopes (Hodler and Schretter 1986:36). Soils found today range widely in material and condition. Natural subsoils eroded to the surfaces of the ridgetops are often barely covered by a thin layer of humus from the past 50-60 years of forest re-growth.

In a few places, a deep black residual soil may remain under dense rhododendron or mountain laurel thickets from previous conifer forests (Wharton 1978:125). The mountain bedrocks provide a wide range of soil types that are difficult to classify, based as they are on mica schists, feldspars, gneisses, quartzites, and others. Nearly all mountain terrain has highly acidic soils which, with high rainfall, strongly affect the survival of buried cultural remains.

Dense alluvial and colluvial concentrations fill mountain valleys, washed from the slopes after historic logging, mining and farming, or from millennia of natural erosion. Cove soils are mostly colluvial, while the narrow bottom lands, supporting flood-plain agriculture and pasture today, contain Toccoa soils, with brown sandy loam surfaces (Wharton 1978:125). Tusquittee stony loam formed in narrow cove colluvium in the Cohutta, Rich Mountain and Tallulah drainages. Considerably more research is needed into relationships between mountain valley soil types and their prehistoric inhabitants.

Flora and Fauna

Until the 1930s Southern Appalachia had predominantly oak-chestnut forests. These fast-growing, prolific trees produced large crops of nuts, feeding much of the wildlife and human populations. The introduction of

the Eurasian fungus (Endotheca parasitica) on lumber in New York City from Asia, quickly spread by wind, birds, and other agents, brought the end of the eastern American chestnut within about 10 years. The effect on wildlife must have been dramatic, even without the accompanying logging at about that time. While some chestnuts survive in isolated well-drained high coves, the trees only grow a few years, often from root stock, before dying from the fungus. Continuing research to develop a blight-resistant American chestnut have as yet been unsuccessful. In the higher elevations, red oak has inherited the chestnut's niche, while further down (and farther south) the chestnut oak, white oak, and black oak have filled in, though in the drier areas hemlock has expanded into the lower slopes (Wharton 1978:24).

The mountains have been cleared, farmed, pastured, and logged (with resultant erosion) several times since the Euro-Americans moved into them. Nearly all the pure pine stands result from human intervention, though there may be a few rocky outcrops with pine naturally predominant. Settlers' pastures and orchards on steep slopes can now be recognized by the dense stands of tulip poplar and black locust.

Wharton (1978:125-143) provides detailed descriptions of eleven ecological systems found in the Blue Ridge, including broad leaf deciduous forests, oak-chestnut-hickory forests, combination deciduous and needle leaf evergreen forests, and rock cliffs and gorges. They vary widely in slope, elevation, aspect, and moisture, providing home range to both general and specific flora and fauna.

Fauna of the mountain summits, ridges, slopes, and coves are diverse and numerous. Aquatic life includes native brook trout and other fish species (many of which are introduced), salamanders, land snails (167 species), box turtles, frogs, toads, and skinks. Snakes found are ring neck, garter, copperhead, and rattlesnakes. High-altitude breeding birds include golden eagle, snipe, sapsucker, owls, flycatchers, raven, chickadee, nuthatch, creeper, wren, thrushes, kinglet, vireo, warblers, bobolinks, and finches. Other birds known in the mountains are wild turkey, wood duck, grouse, and woodpecker. Small mammals include various shrews, mice, voles, wood rats, and bats; chipmunks, woodchucks, ground hogs, muskrat, opossum, raccoon, fox, bobcat, squirrels, and wood rabbit. Deer, black bear, and (occasional) mountain lion are the only large mammals (Ibid.).

The very great age of these mountains has allowed both alluvial and colluvial deposits in the valleys, with sheet wash, ice tumbles, landslides and the like, so that the valley floors often may be quite deep, with layered soils unlike the materials on the slopes above them. Wharton (Ibid.) describes what he calls "colluvial flats" seen on topographic maps as flat valleys surrounded by steep slopes.

River Systems

The Georgia Blue Ridge is drained by four major river systems: the Tennessee, the Coosa, the Chattahoochee, and the Savannah, more or less in four directions. The Tennessee River itself enters Georgia only in the northwestern-most corner of the state. However, its northward-flowing tributaries are important elements in the Blue Ridge.

The Little Tennessee River drains portions of north central Rabun County, and the Hiwassee River and its tributaries, including Brasstown Creek, drain central Towns County, a large portion of which is covered with TVA Lake Chatuge. The Nottely River drainage includes most of central Union County, and includes TVA Lake Nottely. The Toccoa River, with its major tributary Noontootla Creek, drains the central part of Fannin County, including TVA Lake Blue Ridge.

The Coosa River is formed at Rome by the confluence of the Etowah, which drains the southern Blue Ridge slopes, and the Oostenaula. The latter, with its principal tributary, the Coosawattee, drains the western end of the mountains, including the Cohuttas. Cartecay is a principal Coosawattee tributary.

The Chattahoochee River is one of Georgia's major river systems, providing water for much of the present population, since it passes through the most heavily populated parts of the state. It rises in the Blue Ridge in southwestern Union County, moves through White and Habersham counties south into the Piedmont, then southwesterly to Columbus on the Fall Line. From there it continues south, forming the border between Georgia and Alabama, and empties with the Flint, into the Gulf as the Appalachicola. The Chattahoochee's uppermost tributaries drain the southern mountain slopes. For an important discussion of the Chattahoochee's geological relationship to the Savannah, see Mark Williams' comments in the Appendix.

The Savannah River system, draining the Blue Ridge to the southeast, also serves much of Georgia. It is an important resource today, and was a major historic and prehistoric focus as well. The upper Savannah River is called the Chattooga, then the Tugaloo as it separates Georgia from South Carolina. A primary tributary, the Tallulah, drains much of Rabun County, supporting hydroelectric power lakes, including Burton, Seed, and Rabun, with Tugaloo and Hartwell lakes on the upper Piedmont.

The vast majority of the mountain streams are fast-running, with cold water and many waterfalls. The upper reaches have dendritic patterns, steep slopes and little or no floodplains or basins. Thus these are not the "boudin" valleys of the Piedmont, with their broad bottoms and great stream meanders found in more open piedmont terrain. However, the middle and lower bottomlands do have relatively broad bases, quantities of deep alluvium or colluvium, providing well-watered, level habitat for human settlers during the past 10,000 to 12,000 years, and agriculturally productive for centuries.

A cursory examination was made of 38 USGS 7.5 minute quadrangle maps covering the Blue Ridge area, to determine the extent of habitable or arable floodplain would have been available to the prehistoric peoples. There are at least 120 such valleys which could have been exploited during the Mississippi Period. Some have either broad or very long valleys, such as the Conasauga, Etowah, Toccoa, Nottely, Little Tennessee, Chattooga, Cartecay, Cossawattee, Soquee, Chattahoochee, Chestatee, Hiwassee and Coahulla rivers, and Chickamauga, Cane, Holly, Mill, Tiger, Wolf, Bettys, Hothouse, Hemptown, Little Fightingtown, Brasstown (2), Hightower (2) and Noontootla creeks. The Appendix lists stream valleys in the Blue Ridge and vicinity which were possibly inhabited prehistorically. Only a small fraction of this number have had sites recorded within them.

Climate and Natural Resources

Climates in the Blue Ridge are moderate, though generally cooler than the rest of the state. Hodler and Schretter (1986:38-41) indicate winter mean daily maximum temperatures in Blairsville at 48 degrees F., and minimums at 22 degrees, while summer means are 82 and 55 degrees. Average January temperatures in the Blue Ridge range between 25 and 50 degrees, with "normal" 40-42 degrees. Average July temperatures range from 65 to 85 degrees, with "normal" about 75 degrees.

Average annual precipitation in the mountains varies from east to west. The highest rainfall for the state is at the northeast corner, around Rainy Mountain, and into North and South Carolina, with 70-80 inches per year. The lowest is in the Blairsville - Lake Nottely basin, with 55 inches. Much of the mountainous area has more than 90 days per year with at least 0.1 inch of rainfall, whereas the northern piedmont has only 80 such rain days per year, and the coastal plain between 70 and 80 rain days, and only 45-50 inches of overall rain annually.

Natural resources for human habitation are abundant today. For prehistoric peoples, this was no less true. Bamboo species provided copious raw materials for basketry and other uses. Roots and berries abound, and nut-bearing oaks, hickories, chestnuts, and walnuts provided food for both humans and animals. A wide range of medicinal herbs were available for treating ailments. Other plants provided food, tools and building materials. The long list of fauna mentioned above, particularly deer, provided ample meat and many other useful and necessary items, such as antler, sinew, bone, hide, fur, brains, etc.

Minerals were also abundant. Clays were found in stream banks, quartz was nearly everywhere, and steatite or soapstone outcropped several places. Some chert came from the Tennessee River valley and its tributaries, though a few quarries were located in the Georgia Blue Ridge. Although copper is native to north Georgia and used prehistorically (Schneider et al. 1972), archaeological copper also came from the Lake Superior region.

Historic Land Use

Historic period land use has greatly affected the study of prehistoric life in the Blue Ridge. Earliest migrations by Europeans and Americans in this area followed Indian trails and occupied the already-opened river bottoms. Cherokees adapted European government, economic and farming methods as early as the 18th century, clearing ever greater expanses of bottom farm land. In 1776, William Bartram (Van Doren 1955:284) noted well-worn trails through villages and towns. "All before me and on every side, appeared little plantations of young Corn, Beans and &c. divided from each other by narrow strips or borders of grass, which marked the bounds of each one's property, their habitation standing in the midst." They maintained pastures and meadows (possibly old fields) for horses and cattle. They burned off vegetation to clear land occasionally, and this was accelerated by the whites when they took over.

Wilms' (1974:58) land use study of Cherokee Georgia indicated linear concentrations of Indian improvements (houses, barns, sheds, fences,

orchards, fields, and pastures, etc.) clustered along stream bottoms in 1831. His population distribution map compiled from the Cherokee census of 1835 (Ibid., p.70) likewise showed linear clusters in larger valley bottoms throughout the Cherokee Nation. One such cluster, the town of Coosawattee, was two and a quarter miles long on Georgia Surveyor-General Bethune's map of the period (Ibid., p. 53).

Discovery of gold in the Dahlonega and Dukes Creek areas in the 1820s brought an influx of white miners and speculators into the Cherokee Nation. Their greed for gold and land caused its eventual destruction in the east. Mining became a major economic activity from about 1830 until the 1870s, and mining technology advanced from simple pick-and shovel holes and gold pans to stamp mills and hydraulic operations which devastated whole hillsides, washing them into the streams. Traces of such destruction are still visible in the gold belt, from southwest of Dahlonega into Rabun County.

Despite two major U.S. Supreme Court decisions in the early 1800's respecting the Cherokees' rights to their national territory within the southeastern states, States' Rights issues appeared to President Andrew Jackson as likely to destroy the new republic. He felt unable to coerce Georgia to follow the Supreme Court's ruling, and most felt that rights of the Cherokees would be less important than preservation of the Union. When it became obvious that other solutions would not be effective, they used every political mechanism available, and won authorization to move themselves. They went under guard of the U.S. Army under command of General Winfield Scott, and due to many misfortunes and hardships, including severe weather, drought, disease, lack of adequate food, supplies and equipment, over 4,000 died in what became known as the "Cherokee Trail of Tears."

After expulsion of the Cherokee Nation in the 1830s, the pressure of western expansion from Virginia, the Carolinas, and primarily from Georgia, changed the face of the land dramatically. Clearing moved rapidly, and burning to green up the fields and woods accelerated erosion, as did the major logging operations of the 1920s.

Early 20th Century logging harvested mostly high-quality timber for bridges, railroad ties, and other construction. Southern Appalachia was also a major source of tanbark for the important leather industry. Much virgin timber was cut and stripped of its bark in place, then left to rot on the ground. As logs were cut for timber, they were rolled down to streams, crushing smaller trees in their paths. Resultant clearing allowed topsoil to silt in streams, covering spawning beds of fish and shellfish. Settlers and loggers fished the streams heavily, also reducing the spawning stock. The reduction of the forests heavily damaged the wildlife habitat, and overhunting to feed logging crews wiped out deer herds and other fauna.

Fish and deer populations were not replenished until the 1930s, when large blocks of denuded terrain were purchased for National Forests. Millions of trees were planted, trout streams restocked, and deer and turkey were reintroduced by the U.S. Forest Service, Georgia Game and Fish Commission and the Civilian Conservation Corps.

Presently a high percentage of the mountainous land in north Georgia is owned and managed by the U.S. Forest Service. Much land in the basins is controlled by the Tennessee Valley Authority and Georgia Power Company

for electric power generation. The Piedmont lakes adjacent to the Blue Ridge (Allatoona, Lanier, Hartwell, and others) are under U.S. Army Corps of Engineers management.

The lakes also provide vast recreational opportunities to millions of people annually. Second homes and retirement homes are rapidly increasing the population, service, and use demands on the whole Blue Ridge area. The private land is being rapidly developed, with new roads, housing, public service and industrial construction, as well as off-roads vehicle (ORV) use increasing dramatically. All of these activities drastically reduce the amount of undisturbed land, and thus the number of undisturbed archaeological sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge, Piedmont, and Ridge and Valley Provinces.

Ecotone Valleys

In addition to the culturally vital Blue Ridge valleys, there is a series of major river valleys with broad flood plain terraces and low ridges in and adjacent to them which are of importance to the study of Mississippian occupation in the Blue Ridge. These are located in ecotone areas, that is, in intermediate zones between the major ecological zones, such as the Blue Ridge and Piedmont.

Cultures situated on such ecotones can participate in and exploit the resources of both adjacent zones, and it is in these locations that predominant societies are often found. For example, the Ocmulgee site near Macon, long predominant in Georgia prehistory, is located on the Fall Line hills, between the Piedmont and the Coastal Plain. Furthermore, it is beside a major stream, allowing access to both the mountains beyond the Piedmont and the Atlantic Ocean beyond the coastal plain. Resources from both have been found there. The Etowah site, located on the Cartersville fault and the Etowah River, is at an ecotone between Piedmont, Ridge and Valley, and the Blue Ridge. River corridors connect it with all three, and others beyond.

Three specific ecotone valleys which will be covered by this paper include (1) the upper Tugaloo River Valley in western Stephens County and eastern Oconee County, South Carolina, which contains three important Mississippian mound sites. The Nacoochee Valley (2), called the Sautee-Nacoochee, on the upper Chattahoochee River, northern White County, also contains excavated mound sites, as does Carters Lake (3) on the upper Coosawattee River, in a notch in the western side of the Blue Ridge.

Each of these valleys provide a broad flood plain bottomland which can support large numbers of horticulturally dependant people for extended periods. They are also surrounded by upland areas with a wealth of other resources, both for food and raw materials. The rivers provided transportation, food and raw materials also, as they drain from the Blue Ridge into the adjacent Valley and Piedmont provinces. These ecotone valleys had considerable cultural influence on the Blue Ridge occupants during the Mississippian Period.

NOTES TO THE READER, CONCERNING SPELLINGS OF NORTH GEORGIA NAMES

1) The Toccoa River changes its name to Ocoee as it enters Tennessee. The Oconee River drains the east central Georgia Piedmont, and is not in the Blue Ridge.

2) The town of Hiwassee is located on the Hiwassee River, which is dammed in North Carolina to form Lake Chatuge. The Chattooga River forms the upper boundary between South Carolina and Georgia, and is the uppermost portion of the Chattooga-Tugaloo-Savannah River system.

3) The Tugalo Site (9St1) is located just north of the Tugaloo Village Site (9St6), both on the Tugaloo River, between Georgia and South Carolina. The Chauga site (380c47) is just across the Tugaloo River and between these two, over in South Carolina.

4) Nacoochee Valley and Sautee-Nacoochee Valley are two names for a portion of the upper Chattahoochee River valley, particularly the segment which widens below Helen, and receives several smaller creeks and branches. It is best known for the Nacoochee Mound (9Wh3), which is visible to the tourists on Highway 75, marked by a white gazebo on top. There are at least 26 other Mississippi period sites in the valley, without gazebos.

CHAPTER III

PREVIOUS ARCHAEOLOGY IN THE BLUE RIDGE

Archaeology in the Georgia Blue Ridge has had a long history, although it has been sporadic at best. Many of the major figures in southeastern archaeology have worked on its edges, the Piedmont, Ridge and Valley, Appalachian Summit, and Tennessee River, if not in the Blue Ridge proper.

The intrepid Charles C. Jones (1873), provided important early reports on the Etowah mounds. He mentioned mounds in the Nacoochee Valley, but apparently did not visit there, as he presented no description of them.

Cyrus Thomas's (1894) Smithsonian report on mound explorations in the eastern United States lists only John Rogan's work around Etowah, a Tugaloo River site in old Habersham (now part of Stephens) County, and the Rembert and Hollywood mounds along the middle and lower Savannah River. Thomas' report on the Tugaloo River site was limited to a single pit, and it is unclear which site Rogan visited. It produced a lens of charcoal, a possible hearth, and at least two midden layers, in stratigraphy that suggests rebuilding stages. A single vessel illustrated from the Hollywood mound shows the "filfot cross" pattern which typifies the Mississippi period in Georgia (Ibid., Plate XIX).

Heye, Hodge, and Pepper (1918) of the New York Museum of the American Indian, Heye Foundation, reported on partial excavation in the Nacoochee Mound (9Wh3) near Helen, where they found stone-box graves, and illustrated a range of Mississippian materials.

William Colburn (1936), of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters, partially excavated the Greenwood Mound (9Ra3), reporting on little more than the chunky stone "bowling alley" he found on the south slope of the mound, and possible existence of a second, smaller mound southwest of the main mound, which has since disappeared.

Robert Wauchope's major 1938-40 WPA survey of northern Georgia (1950, 1966) produced the most comprehensive coverage of Georgia to date. His crews surveyed the major river drainages, collected from and recorded nearly 300 sites, and excavated many of them. He reported on 27 Mississippian period sites, including three mounds, in the Sautee-Nacoochee Valley portion of the upper Chattahoochee River alone. His crews worked at Etowah (9Br1) and in the Allatoona Lake area, with excavations at Wilbanks (9Ck5), Two Run Creek (9Br3), and Long Swamp (9Ck1). His definitions of ceramic types, periods, and phases, reached through discussions with Sears, Caldwell, Fairbanks, Kelly, and others, were presented in his long-awaited report in 1966. They were vital to all the research that followed, and most stood the test of time well.

Wauchope found a low mound at Eastwood (9wh2), near its contemporary at Nacoochee (9Wh3). Eastwood had nine oval houses, some with firebasins, occupied from Woodstock times, with limited Etowah use, but heavily occupied during early Lamar phases. Lumsden site (9Wh5), a "village" (basically a site without a mound) was also occupied during Woodstock, Etowah, and

Lamar times, with small triangular, leaf-shaped, pentagonal, and stemmed points present in addition to stamped pottery.

At Mauldin Creek (9Wh18), another "Lamar village" he found "Deptford" Simple Stamped, Lamar, and animal bones in the same features, which might now suggest some contemporaneity, following Elliott and Wynn (1988) and Elliott (1989) rather than the mixed Woodland context Wauchope had suggested. Etowah ceramic material there was all rectilinear, with both curvilinear and rectilinear Lamar patterns. Stephenson mound and village (9Wh28) had one house, minor Woodstock and Etowah occupations, and predominantly Lamar rectilinear stamped excavated collections, with three small flint triangular points.

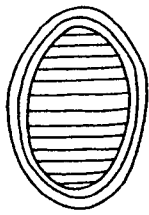
The Will White site (9Wh29) on upper Duke's Creek, was in the Blue Ridge, not the adjacent Nacoochee Valley ecotone. It apparently was a lithic workshop with one house pattern found in the test pits. It had Woodland pottery types all in minor quantities, overlain by a massive Lamar occupation, with both curvilinear and rectilinear patterned stamps. Incised ware was also a minority, suggesting Middle to Late Lamar phases. One burial contained glass beads, indicating European contact (Late Lamar).

In 1946, Joseph Caldwell (1957) of the Smithsonian recorded 180 sites in bottomlands behind the Allatoona Dam, and in 1949 returned to record 13 sites in detail, excavating six: Stamp Creek (9Br139), 9Br141, Kellogg (9Ck102), Woodstock Fort (9Ck104-F), Guess (9Co60), and Chambers (9Ck23). William Sears (1958) of the University of Georgia excavated the Wilbanks site (9Ck5) in 1948-49, the only Mississippian mound site found in the Allatoona reservoir area.

Caldwell, in 1953, also surveyed Hartwell Reservoir, and excavated Tugalo Mound (9St1) in 1956, though his work was only partly reported 25 years later (Williams and Branch 1978). Tugalo Mound contained ten construction strata which Caldwell interpreted as a continuity, beginning with middle Swift Creek and Early Etowah in the pre-mound phase. Middle and late Etowah stamped material identified four earthlodge stages. An ash layer produced a radiocarbon date of AD 1355 (UGA 1348) with Etowah pottery, primarily rectilinear stamped. Hally and Rudolph (1986:50) place this in their Jarrett phase, which includes some Savannah traits.

Lamar pottery, marked by incised sherds and modeled nodes, appeared slowly at Tugalo as minority types above the ash layer and in later levels Etowah rims and nested diamonds patterns disappeared. The northeast dump, now considered normal in Lamar mound sites, produced masses of Lamar sherds and food bones. Stamping continued (Figure 3), but with more rectilinear than curvilinear patterns, with the heavy over stamping seen earlier. The Lamar dump also produced a radiocarbon date of AD 1480 \pm 65 (UGA 545). At the historic level, incising drastically decreased and curvilinear stamped patterns predominated in Caldwell's notes, though not in UGA collections, according to Williams and Branch (1978).

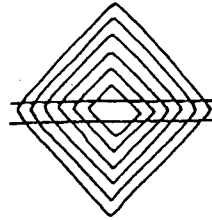
Chauga Mound (380c47), excavated in 1958 by A. R. Kelly and Stuart Neitzel (1961), was actually in South Carolina, but its location near the upper Savannah--Tugaloo River, and near the sites of Tugalo and Estatoe, made it important to understand the late prehistoric to early historic period of north Georgia. Thus it is included here.



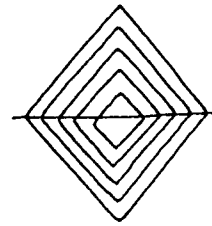
Concentric oval



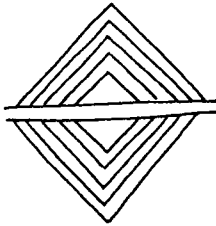
Concentric diamond



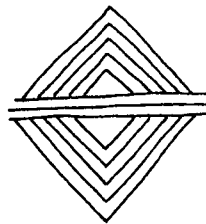
ladder base
diamond



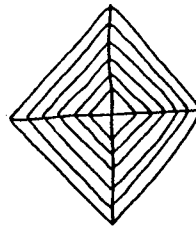
One bar
diamond



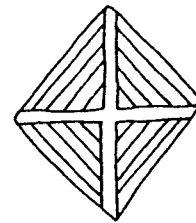
Two bar
diamond



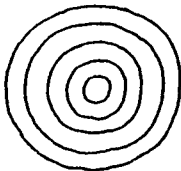
Three bar
diamond



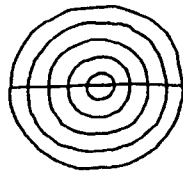
Cross bar
diamond



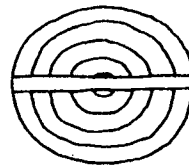
Two bar cross
diamond



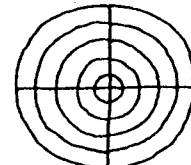
Concentric circle



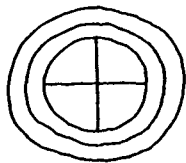
One bar
concentric circle



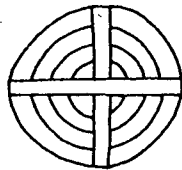
Two bar
concentric circle



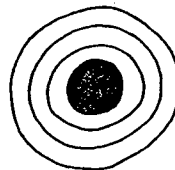
One bar cross
concentric circle



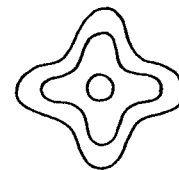
Circle with cross



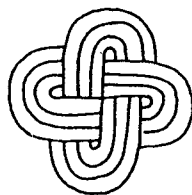
Two bar cross
concentric circle



Bull's-eye



Quatrefoil



Filfot cross



Figure nine

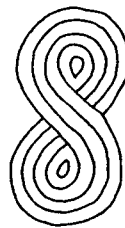
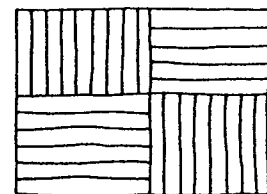


Figure eight



Lineblock

Figure 3: Complicated Stamp Motifs Source: Hally and Langford, 1988

Kelly and Clemens DeBaillou (1960) dug at "The Presumptive Site of Estatoe" in 1959. Estatoe mound (9St3) revealed a multi-stage, mostly 15th Century construction with 18th-century materials on the top. Pottery in the precontact layers at Estatoe was predominately plain, Lamar Complicated Stamped and Simple Stamped, with incision and check stamping as secondary components. Etowah patterns were present, but minor compared to Lamar. A small Woodstock occupation predated the mound. The 15th Century layers at Estatoe mound contained posts with erection pits and central fire hearths in each level, covered with a mantle of large cobbles. The stones were themselves covered by a clay cap (final stage) containing 18th Century materials.

North Georgia archaeological interest in the 1960's and 1970's was in large part directed towards the Carters Lake sites in Bartow and Murray counties, in part because of the construction of dams at Carters Quarters. The Carters Lake sites: Sixtoe Field (Kelly, et. al 1965), Little Egypt (Hally 1980), Bell Field (Kelly 1970-72), and Potts' Tract (Hally 1970) pertain to the Ridge and Valley province, and are fully reported by Hally and Langford (1988). Thus they are not detailed here.

Archaeological or cultural resource surveys were undertaken by various agencies beginning in the 1970s in the Blue Ridge and its ecotones. These included USDA Soil Conservation Service reservoir surveys by Marvin Smith (1976) in the Upper Soquee River, and by Jeffries, Lee, and Fish (1978) along several streams in the mountains and eastern foothills, and others.

Meanwhile, the USDA Forest Service conducted surveys of land exchange, timber sale, road and other construction areas (Wood 1976, Graybill and Seckenger 1976, Seckinger 1977, Futch 1977, Willingham 1983, Wynn 1986, and many others), recording prehistoric lithic and ceramic sites, and historic occupations as well. Hoojah Branch Site (9Ra34) was tested (Willingham 1984), and later listed on the National Register of Historic Places.

The Appalachian Development Highway (I-575), arching across the Blue Ridge area, crossed both valleys and gaps. Georgia Department of Transportation (GDOT) sample surveys (Anderson and McNichael 1978, Bowen 1981a-e) produced a few Mississippi period sites in valley locations.

Oglethorpe Power Corporation's long line corridor survey from Tallulah Falls to Helen (Webb 1984) produced very few new sites, since much of it crossed steeply sloping terrain. Webb attempted to relocate Wauchope's 9Wh4, in the Sautee Valley. It appeared to have been destroyed by home-building activity (Webb 1984:17).

Garrow and Associates (Blanton, et al. 1987) surveyed a pipeline corridor 90 miles long by 50 feet wide from near Chattanooga down the Great Valley and across the southwestern Blue Ridge. One hundred and three sites were recorded, only three of which had Mississippian traits.

The largest recent project adjacent to the Blue Ridge has been the Allatoona Lake survey, by Southeastern Archeological Services, Inc., of Athens. Directed by W. Dean Wood and reported by Ledbetter, et al. (1987), this major Phase I survey recorded 1,063 sites, ranging from the Paleo-Indian through recent historic periods in a 32,000-acre area of US Army Corps of Engineers land above the 840' elevation, plus shorelines, terraces

and upper level floodplains exposed by a prolonged drought in north Georgia in winter of 1985-86. Sixty-five of the sites contained one or more Mississippi period components. Many of Caldwell's original sites were relocated, collected, and re-evaluated.

Further afield of the Blue Ridge, the multi-year, multi-contract surveys and excavations in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir on the upper Savannah River below Lake Hartwell (central Piedmont) made major contributions to nearly every phase of southeastern archaeology. Work there is summarized in Anderson and Joseph (1988), and Rudolph and Hally's (1985) Beaverdam Creek project is most pertinent to this period.

Various other cultural resources surveys have been conducted for counties and municipalities, for the construction of sewer, water and industrial installation. Only Morgan (1978) at Ellijay and Wood and Miller (1986) near Chattsworth are applicable.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL PROJECTS IN THE GEORGIA BLUE RIDGE MOUNTAINS

The following are projects which have been conducted in the Georgia Blue Ridge Mountains. Portions from Hally and Langford (1988), slightly modified, begin with asterisks, and are followed by "* H&L 1988."

PROJECT:	DESCRIPTION:
NAME:	Habersham County, excavations of the Smithsonian Institution [Now in Stephens County]
LOCATION:	Tugaloo River at Toccoa Creek (Tugaloo Mound, 9St1)
DURATION:	A short period during 1883
INVESTIGATOR:	John Rogan
SPONSOR:	Smithsonian Institution
NATURE, SCOPE:	Sank a single shaft in mound
RESULTS:	Noted nine strata in mound, 100' diameter, by 14' high; the lower ones contained a few sherds
EVALUATION:	Limited data, as land owner limited work there
REFERENCES:	Thomas, 1894.
CURATION:	National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian Institution, Wasington, D.C.

*	
NAME:	Carters Quarters (Little Egypt Site, 9MU102)
LOCATION:	Carters Dam, Coosawattee River, Murray County
DURATION:	Several weeks in 1927
INVESTIGATOR:	Warren K. Moorehead
SPONSOR:	Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.
NATURE, SCOPE:	Excavation of a 30 ft by 40 ft pit in mound A and excavation of burials in village
RESULTS:	Recovery of iron artifacts from burials in Mound A, and late Southern Cult artifacts from village area burials
EVALUATION:	Excavator was primarily interested in burials and did not use stratigraphic control

REFERENCES: Moorehead, 1932
 CURATION: R.S. Peabody Foundation for Archaeology, Andover,
 MA.
 * H&L 1988.

NAME: Greenwood Mound (9Ra3) Excavations
 LOCATION: Dillard, Little Tennessee River, Rabun County.
 DURATION: January-March 1932
 INVESTIGATOR: William B. Colburn, Cranbrook Institute of Science, Bloom-
 field Hills, Michigan.
 SPONSOR: Unknown
 NATURE, SCOPE: Partial excavation of mound edge, on south side.
 RESULTS: Four 5' wide x 60' long strips and one 100' by 5' strip
 across southern toe of mound slope; found arrangements of
 logs and stones suggesting "bowling alley," complete with
 chunky stones presumed used there.
 EVALUATION: No excavation into mound proper reported; poorly reported.
 REFERENCES: Colburn, 1936.
 CURATION: Unknown.

*

NAME: North Georgia Survey
 LOCATION: 40 counties in north Georgia; Coosa,
 Chattahoochee, Savannah and Little Tennessee
 Drainages.
 DURATION: 1938-1940
 INVESTIGATOR: Robert Wauchope, University of Georgia
 SPONSOR: WPA, University of Georgia, Society for Georgia
 Archaeology.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Site reconnaissance, surface collecting, test
 excavations, and extensive excavations in numerous sites.
 RESULTS: Established cultural sequence for north Georgia, with empha-
 sis on Woodland and Mississippi Periods
 EVALUATION: Unsystematic survey, with heavy emphasis on local infor-
 mants. Field records and most of collections no longer
 available for study.
 REFERENCES: Wauchope, 1966.
 CURATION: Middle American Research Institute, Tulane University, New
 Orleans, LA
 * H&L 1988.

NAME: Tugalo Mound Site (9St1) Excavations.
 LOCATION: Tugalo River, Hartwell Reservoir, Stephens County.
 DURATION: October-December 1956.
 INVESTIGATOR: Joseph R. Caldwell, Smithsonian Institution.
 SPONSOR: Smithsonian Institution.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Excavation of mound site.
 RESULTS: Excavation of trench through summit of mound;
 Etowah log-and-earth covered structures; C-14 dates of A.D.

1355 for Etowah and A.D. 1480 for Lamar.
 EVALUATION: Never formally reported; data from summary by others later.
 REFERENCES: Williams and Branch, 1978.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.

NAME: Chauga Mound and Village Site (380c1) Excavations
 LOCATION: Tugaloo River, Oconee County, S.C.
 DURATION: August-December, 1958.
 INVESTIGATOR: A.R.Kelly, R.S. Neitzel
 SPONSOR: National Park Service, Smithsonian Institution, US Army Corps of Engineers, University of Georgia.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Excavation of about 2/3 of mound and limited portions of village area.
 RESULTS: Archaic and Woodland pre-mound occupations; 10-stage Etowah-Savannah-Lamar mound construction, 62 burials in mound or village, and 18th Century Cherokee materials near the surface of mound and village.
 EVALUATION: More detailed, professional reporting and concern with ceramic chronologies than Estatoe.
 REFERENCES: Kelly and Neitzel, 1961
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.

NAME: Estatoe Site (9St3) excavations
 LOCATION: Tugaloo River, Stephens County.
 DURATION: 1959-1960
 INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia
 SPONSOR: University of Georgia, National Park Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Complete excavation of the mound.
 RESULTS: Description of multi-stage Lamar mound, each with structures and hearths, with a stone "mantle" under the last stage, and 18th Century artifacts over it.
 EVALUATION: Although "village" area mentioned in artifact lists, no indication in report of work there.
 REFERENCES: Kelly and DeBaillou, 1960
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.

*

NAME: Sixtoe Field (9Mu100) Excavations
 LOCATION: Carters Reservoir: Coosawattee River; Murray County.
 DURATION: Summer months of 1962-65.
 INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia
 SPONSOR: National Park Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Test pits and large area excavations, seven locations, Sixtoe Field portion of floodplain below Carters dam.
 RESULTS: Partial excavation of an Etowah mound and excavation of several Etowah and Lamar domestic structures.

EVALUATION: Poorly reported.
 REFERENCES: Kelly, et al., 1965.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA.
 * H&L 1988.

*
 NAME: Bell Field Site (9Mu101) Excavations
 LOCATION: Carters Reservoir, Coosawattee River, Murray County.
 DURATION: Summer Months, 1965-68, 1970-1971.
 INVESTIGATOR: A.R. Kelly, University of Georgia
 SPONSOR: National Park Service.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Parital (50%) excavation of mound.
 RESULTS: Mound found to consist of eight building stages with at least three having multiple summit structures connected by passageways; Savannah culture.
 EVALUATION: Only central portion of mound excavated; poor stratigraphic control; poorly reported.
 REFERENCES: Kelly, 1970, 1972.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.
 * H&L 1988.

*
 NAME: Potts' Tract Site (9Mu103) Excavation
 LOCATION: Carters Reservoir, Coosawattee River, Murray County.
 DURATION: 10 weeks, beginning June, 1968.
 INVESTIGATOR: David J. Hally, University of Georgia.
 SPONSOR: National Park Service.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Excavation of midden and three Lamar structures.
 RESULTS: Description of three Lamar structures; definition of two components, Woodstock culture and Barnett phase of Lamar culture.
 EVALUATION: Excavations not extensive enough to determine limits and configuration of site.
 REFERENCES: Hally, 1970.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.
 *H&L 1988.

*
 NAME: Little Egypt Site (9Mu102) Excavation
 LOCATION: Carters Reservoir, Coosawattee River, Murray County.
 DURATION: Summer months, 1969-1972.
 INVESTIGATOR: David J. Hally, University of Georgia
 SPONSOR: National Park Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Extensive test pitting and test trenching; six large area excavations; partial mound excavation.
 RESULTS: Definition of Little Egypt and Barnett phases of Lamar; detailed study of Barnett phase domestic structures.
 EVALUATION: Mounds not sufficiently excavated; site limits and site

configuration not determined sufficiently.
 REFERENCES: Hally, 1979, 1980.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.
 * H&L 1988.

NAME: Chattahoochee National Forest, Rabun County
 LOCATION: Rabun County, National Forest land only
 DURATION: 1976
 INVESTIGATOR: Donald A. Graybill and Ernest W. Seckinger, Jr.
 SPONSOR: USDA Forest Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Reconnaissance survey of proposed timber sales, roads and land exchange tracts.
 RESULTS: Identification of 42 sites from Early Archaic through Lamar.
 EVALUATION: Low-intensity survey, insufficiently reported; sites were not entered into State Site Files.
 REFERENCES: Graybill and Seckinger, 1976.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.

NAME: Survey of Hoojah Branch timber sale area
 LOCATION: Darnell and Hoojah Branches, NE Rabun County
 DURATION: 1983
 INVESTIGATOR: Charles G. Willingham
 SPONSOR: USDA Forest Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Reconnaissance survey of Forest Service timber sales, steep slopes and upland flats.
 RESULTS: Identificaiton of Archaic--Mississippian sites
 EVALUATION: Low-intensity survey
 REFERENCES: Willingham, 1983
 CURATION: USDA Forest Supervisor's Office, Gainesville.

NAME: Phase II Testing at Hoojah Branch Site (9Ra34)
 LOCATION: Northeast Rabun County, National Forest land
 DURATION: January, 1984
 INVESTIGATOR: Charles G. Willingham
 SPONSOR: USDA Forest Service
 NATURE, SCOPE: Limited testing of site to evaluate for National Register
 RESULTS: Identification of occupation from Middle Archaic through early Mississippian.
 EVALUATION: Very limited testing; eight 1 x 1 m squares
 REFERENCES: Willingham, 1984.
 CURATION: USDA Forest Supervisor's Office, Gainesville.

NAME: Allatoona Lake Survey.
 LOCATION: Allatoona Lake, Etowah River, Bartow, Cherokee and Cobb Counties.

DURATION: Six months in winter of 1985-1986.
 INVESTIGATOR: Southeastern Archeological Services, Inc., Athens.
 SPONSOR: US Army, Corps of Engineers, Mobile District.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Phase I survey of 32,141 acres of Corps land (a) above the 840' AMSL contour, and (b) shorelines and flats exposed by prolonged drought.
 RESULTS: Recorded 1,063 sites, from Paleo-Indian through the present, including many of Caldwell's 1946 sites.
 EVALUATION: Thorough coverage of upland areas around the lake and portions of exposed terraces, low ridges and floodplains, using shovel testing where surface visibility was restricted.
 REFERENCES: Ledbetter, Wood, Wood, and Ethridge, 1987.
 CURATION: US Army, Corps of Engineers, Mobile District, Mobile, AL.

NAME: Boardtown Substation and Transmission Line survey
 LOCATION: Gilmer County
 DURATION: several weeks, 1987
 INVESTIGATOR: Charlotte Smith, Southeastern Archeological Services, Inc.
 SPONSOR: Oglethorpe Power Corporation
 NATURE, SCOPE: Survey of corridor and substation site
 RESULTS: Five sites: 3 unknown prehistoric, 1 late Archaic, 1 Mississippian.
 EVALUATION: Intensive survey of limited (narrow corridor) area
 REFERENCES: Smith, 1987.
 CURATION: Department of Anthropology and Linguistics, University of Georgia, Athens.

NAME: Young Harris Park Site Survey.
 LOCATION: Brasstown Creek, Young Harris area, Towns County.
 DURATION: November, 1987.
 INVESTIGATOR: Daniel L. Simpkins, State Archaeologist's Office.
 SPONSOR: Department of Natural Resources.
 NATURE, SCOPE: Phase I survey of 400-acre floodplain, limited shovel testing. (Phase II report in preparation).
 RESULTS: Recorded 12 sites, including six Mississippian.
 EVALUATION: Low-intensity survey; test pits excavated later. Pottery analysis placed some sites within phase.
 REFERENCES: Simpkins, 1988.
 CURATION: Office of State Archaeologist, West Georgia College, Carrollton.

NAME: Phase II Investigation of Mountain Park near Young Harris.
 LOCATION: Brasstown Creek Valley, Towns County.
 DURATION: July-August, 1988.
 INVESTIGATOR: Daniel L. Simpkins, State Archaeologist's Office.
 SPONSOR: Department of Natural Resources
 NATURE, SCOPE: Test excavation of eight sites for National Register eligibility.

RESULTS: Six sites eligible, two more possibly so. Occupations included thin Early and Middle Archaic and Woodland, Etowah, Savannah, Connestee, Lamar, and Qualla materials.

EVALUATION: Adequate sample to indicate importance of the sites, area. Two sites (9T044 and 9To48) contain major cultural sequences for the Mississippi period.

REFERENCES: Simpkins, 1990. (Incomplete when this paper was prepared.)

CURATION: Office of State Archaeologist, West Georgia College, Carrollton.

CHAPTER IV
PREHISTORIC OVERVIEW

Introduction

Archaeology in the Georgia Blue Ridge has been uneven over the past century. Robert Wauchope's (1966) WPA survey and excavation projects produced the most important results there. His report provided a framework to understand all that followed, and to interpret what went before. While Wauchope's crews did not explore the mountain valleys as intensively as he did the Piedmont and foothills areas, the framework and especially his excavations in the Sautee-Nacoochee valley of the upper Chattahoochee River have been most useful.

Based on Wauchope's work, and that of the others listed in the previous chapter, we now have the basis for a cultural chronology in the Blue Ridge. Serious modern survey and excavation projects must be undertaken yet to fill in the gaps, and these are suggested in the final chapter.

This project is an overview of available material and published reports. Since both are limited, some unpublished data was incorporated from the State Site Files. Furthermore, many discussions with David Hally, Mark Williams, Dean Wood, Ray Crook, Marvin Smith, Charlotte Smith, Marshall Williams, and many others, have been most helpful. Some phase definitions are still lacking, but it has been possible to lean heavily upon the overviews prepared by Hally and Langford (1988), Hally and Rudolph (1986), and Ledbetter, et al. (1987) for adjacent areas.

Overall, the three-segment breakdown does seem to apply to the Blue Ridge. Each seems to be antecedent to the next, based on ceramic patterns despite earlier discussions to the contrary.

The chronological sequence here (Table 1) is somewhat simplified from that presented for the Valley and Ridge province (Hally and Rudolph 1988), since the published data allow for a less detailed breakdown of temporal site assignments. In this sense, it follows the categories used by Ledbetter et al. (1987) in the Allatoona survey report. The radiocarbon dates (Table 2) and north Georgia Mississippian site radiocarbon dates (Figures 3 and 4) provide a framework for the the discussion which follows (Hally and Langford 1988).

The Early Mississippian period is defined as covering approximately the period A.D. 900 to 1200, and incorporates the transitional Woodstock culture from A.D. 900 to 1000 and the dominant Etowah culture from A.D. 1000 to 1200. Etowah in the Blue Ridge and its ecotones can be subdivided, if at present only arbitrarily, into Early and Late Etowah, the latter represented in the upper Savannah/Tugaloo River area by the Jarrett phase, defined by Hally and Rudolph (1986).

The Middle Mississippian period is short, incorporating only Savannah culture, from A.D. 1200 to 1350. A single Wilbanks Phase was defined in the Allatoona, but the distinctions are unclear in the Blue Ridge.

Table 1

CULTURAL SEQUENCE FOR THE BLUE RIDGE
AND ADJACENT CULTURE AREAS

TIME	PERIOD	CULTURE	PHASES			
A.D.			Ridge & Valley Area	Lake Allatoona Area	Upper Savannah Riv. Area	Blue Ridge Area
1700						Estatoe
		L. Lamar				
1600	LATE	LAMAR	Barnett	Brewster	Tugalo	Tugalo
1500		M. Lamar				
	MISS		Little Egypt	Stamp Creek		
1400		E. Lamar			Rembert	E. Lamar

1300	MIDDLE	SAVANNAH	Wilbanks	Savannah		Savannah
	MISS				Beaverdam	
1200	-----			Etowah		
1100	EARLY	ETOWAH	Late Etowah		Jarrett	Jarrett
1000	MISS		Early Etowah	Woodstock		E. Etowah
		WOODSTOCK				
900			Woodstock			Woodstock

=====

* Adapted from Anderson and Joseph (1988), Hally and Langford (1988), Hally (1986), Hally and Rudolph (1986), Rudolph and Hally (1985), Ledbetter et al. (1987).

Table 2

Radiocarbon Dates for areas adjacent to the Georgia Blue Ridge

<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>
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	9Ce10	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 2 (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>
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 2 (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>
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 2 (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	9Mu102	Barnett	A.D. 1450±70	A.D. 1410	Hally 1979
54	UGA 208	9Mu102	Barnett	A.D. 1525±55	A.D. 1435	Hally 1979
55	UGA 210	9Mu102	Barnett	A.D. 1555±65	A.D. 1455	Hally 1979
56	UGA 56	9Mu103	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).

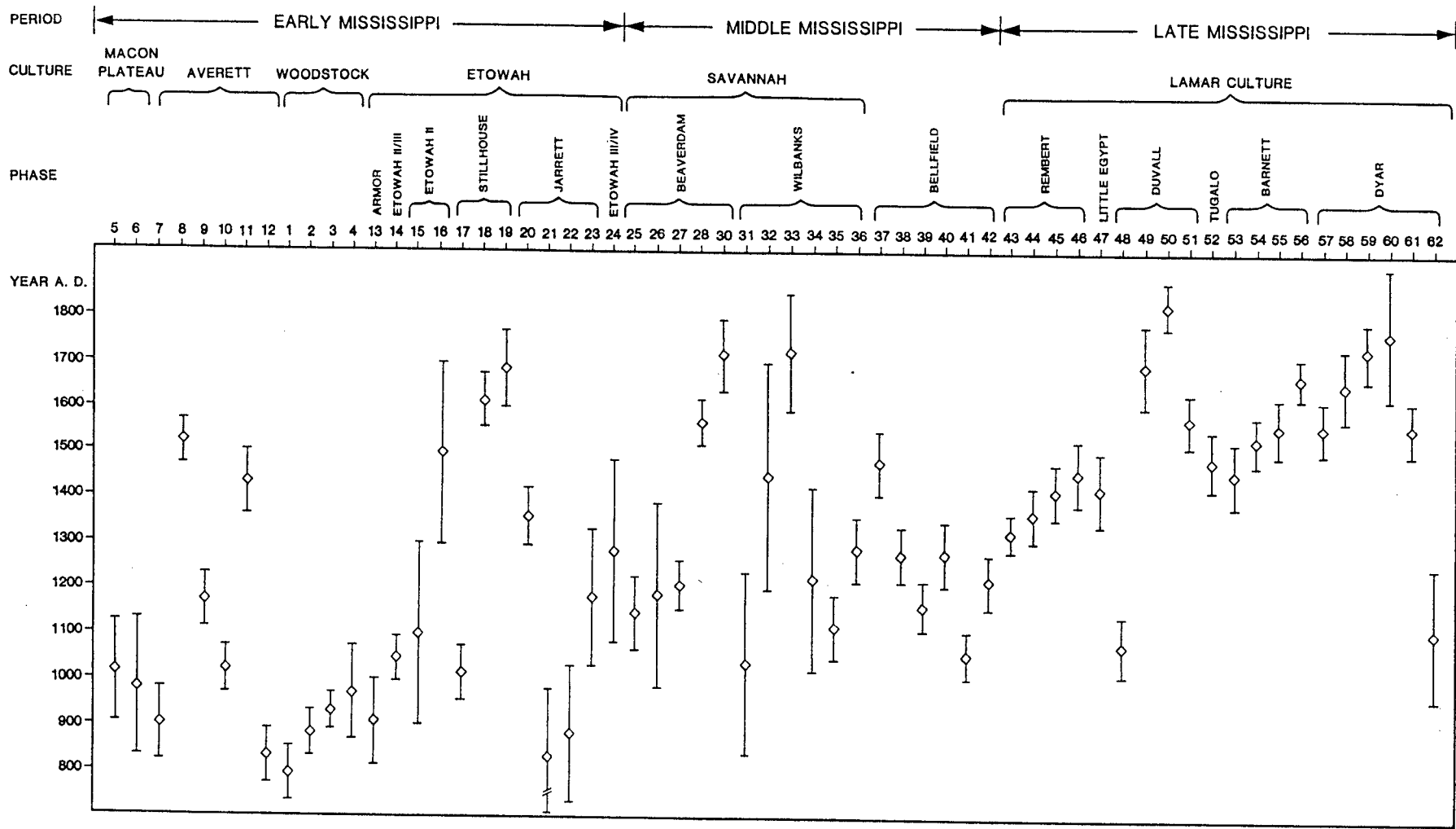


Figure 4
 Radiocarbon Dates for Mississippian Sites
 in North Georgia, Uncorrected
 (Source: Hally and Langford, 1988)

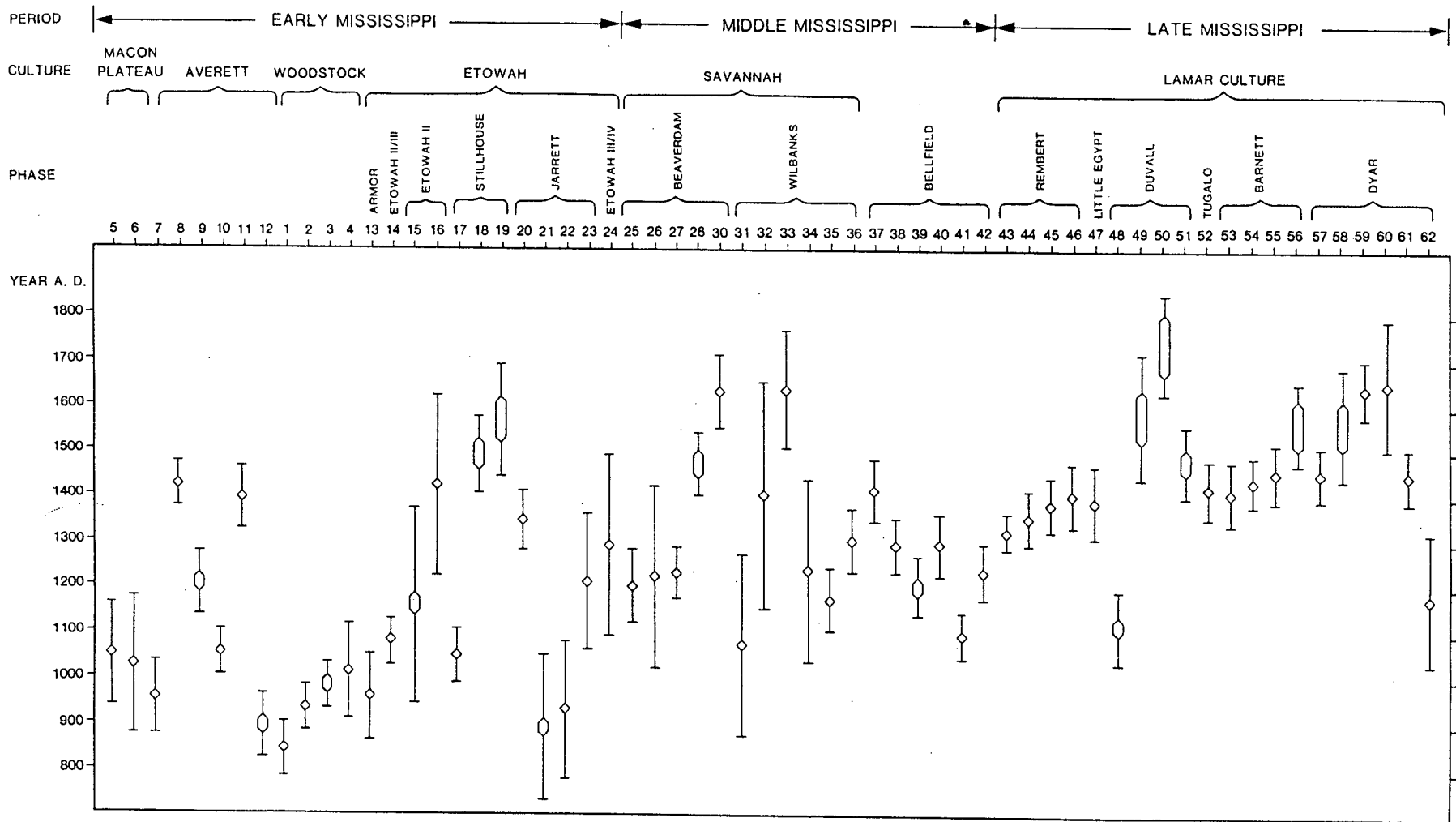


Figure 5
 Radiocarbon Dates for Mississippian Sites
 in North Georgia, MASCA Corrected
 (Source: Hally and Langford, 1988)

The Late Mississippi period lends itself to multiple definitions, but for the present purposes, will be defined as the time between the end of the Savannah period (A.D. 1350) and the entry of Spanish culture into the southeast, beginning with DeSoto entrada in A.D. 1540. The predominant archaeologically defined culture is Lamar, and during this period, we see the Early Lamar phases of Stamp Creek, Rembert, and Little Egypt represented in the adjacent regions from A.D. 1350 until 1450. Middle Lamar culture is represented by Tugalo phase from A.D. 1450 until 1540.

Not included in this survey, but important to overall understanding of cultural developments in the Blue Ridge, is the Late Lamar culture, now seen as a post-contact archaeological culture, existing from AD 1540 until perhaps the 19th century, and including the Estatoe Phase, beginning around AD 1700. Late Lamar ceramics in the post-contact period were described by Hally (1986) at the Conference on Cherokee Prehistory.

The Appalachian Summit

The geographical proximity of the Appalachian Summit of western North Carolina-East Tennessee to the Georgia Blue Ridge requires comment on their possible cultural relationships. The Pisgah and Qualla of North Carolina/Tennessee have characteristics which are similar overall to Georgia Mississippian culture, but execution of ceramic patterns differs. The impression one gets from looking at the published motifs is of a slightly different "mental template" for ceramic patterns north of Georgia. This may prove to be either simplistic or just plain wrong, once careful comparative ceramic analyses are made on collections from: (a) the "North Slope" sites on the upper Little Tennessee, Hiwassee, and Brasstown Creek sites in Georgia, (b) the known Pisgah and Qualla sites in southwestern North Carolina, and (c) sites from the "South Slope," those streams draining south or westward, and not eventually going into the Tennessee River.

Dickens' (1976) Pisgah phase was confined to the Appalachian Summit, just north of the Georgia state line. Pisgah ceramic styles resemble both Etowah and Savannah, in that both rectilinear and curvilinear patterns are present. Some everted rims and strap handles are found in both, though Pisgah handles are decorated. However, stamped patterns are distinct, using different paddles or stamps for decorating vessels. Incising and punctation were limited to rim treatments. Thus the rim treatments were also different, despite being very close geographically.

Pisgah mound sites are found in North Carolina on drains continuous with those in the Georgia Blue Ridge, to which they may be related. They are Notla (31Ce5), on Brasstown Creek, and Nuquassee (31Ma1), on the Little Tennessee in downtown Franklin.

Lamar ceramics somewhat resemble the Qualla phase in North Carolina, though the time fit is less controlled. Some of the Qualla designs appear less carefully made than some Lamar, though early historic Georgia Cherokee pottery also seems somewhat less neatly made than Lamar. The definitions of what Qualla is and when the sub-sets of the style appear and decline need much more study, and better chronological control in order that Qualla and its subdivisions be comparable to the sequences here in Georgia.

Other Qualla mound sites, some of which may be related to Georgia Blue Ridge sites include the following. The list is from David Moore's notes of 2/15/87, on file at Department of Anthropology, University of Georgia. The reader should also see Moore's comments in the Appendix for additional sites, and important observations on their geographical relationships to Georgia sites.

1. Notla (31Ce5), Brasstown Creek, dug by C.O. Turbyfill of Heye Foundation, 1926, leveled by farmer, 1961.
2. Peachtree Mound and Village (31Ce1), Hiwassee River, excavated by Setzler and Jennings (1941).
3. Spikebuck Town (31Cy1), Hiwassee River; village area tested by Harwood, 1960s, and J. Dorwin, 1970s; now in pasture, intact.
4. Shooting Creek, reported by Dorwin to be inundated by Lake Chatuge; no other data.
5. Coweeta Creek (31Ma34), Little Tennessee River, reported by Dickens 1976, Keel 1976, and Egloff 1967.
6. Nuquassee (31Ma1), Little Tennessee River, preserved in downtown Franklin.
7. Cowee (31Ma5), Little Tennessee River, relatively intact; pasture.

MISSISSIPPI PERIOD SITES: BLUE RIDGE AND ECOTONES

The following presentation is based on the database provided in the Georgia State Site Files at the University of Georgia, and survey reports from the Blue Ridge and adjacent ecotone areas. It is heavily biased by two major factors. First, Wauchope's (1966) WPA-supported survey of north Georgia spent much more time in some valleys, e.g., the Nacoochee Valley of the upper Chattahoochee River, than others. Second, there have been few systematic surveys since then, as noted in previous chapters.

EARLY MISSISSIPPI PERIOD, A.D. 900 - 1200

Woodstock Culture, A.D. 900 - 1000

Considered earlier as a transitional culture, Woodstock appears to be the earliest Mississippian culture here, as in the Ridge and Valley, presumably beginning about A.D. 900. It was identified by Caldwell (1957) at the type site of 9Ck2 near Allatoona.

"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 rims." (Hally and Langford 1988:24).

Wauchope (1966:60) also noted a tendency of Woodstock potters towards thin-walled, fine-tempered, dark-colored, and neatly made ceramics.

Decoration was predominantly stamped diamonds with horizontal parallel lines inside (concentric diamonds, or concentric ovals), often with rounded corners, and two- or more- lined frames (Figure 3). Line-blocks, which Wauchope considered proto-typical to the Etowah styles, and some herringbone patterns also occurred in the Woodstock collections (Ibid.). Several of these patterns derived from the Napier, and carried through into the next period, as when Woodstock concentric diamonds preceded the sharper, more recitilinear Etowah diamonds. The Etowah trait of ladder-based diamonds also co-occurs with Woodstock in Carters and Allatoona complexes (Hally and Langford 1988:41). Horizontal incised bands, hatchured zones, and punctated zones were also typical decorations on Woodstock pottery (Wauchope 1966:62-63).

No architectural features directly related to Woodstock are known from the Blue Ridge, though they have been defined at Potts' Tract (9Mu103) and Lum Moss (9Go59) in the Ridge and Valley, and at Chestatee (9Lu7), Woodstock Fort (9Ck85), and Hobgood (9Ck131) sites in the Piedmont. At Woodstock Fort and Hobgood, small single-post wall rectangular structures were found. A palisade may have surrounded the Woodstock structure at Woodstock Fort,

though its heavy occupation was of Etowah time. Potts' Tract and Hobgood site excavations also produced collections of food remains, suggesting a broad range of plant and animal resources being utilized (Hally and Langford 1988:43).

Evidence for Mississippian dependency on maize was not frequent in Woodstock, but found enough to be generally accepted as belonging to the period. Hally and Langford (1988:43) cite corn from Lum Moss site with a radiocarbon date of A.D. 980 \pm 95, and Caldwell's maize at Stamp Creek site in Allatoona Reservoir.

Ledbetter et al. (1987:233) note that Woodstock sites tend to be located on alluvial terraces above the floodplain in the Allatoona Reservoir, though others may be found on levees, knolls, ridges or down in the floodplain.

There are eight Woodstock sites (Figure 6) in the Blue Ridge proper, and another twelve in the ecotone areas around the mountains. Only two Blue Ridge sites were excavated, both in limited tests. Dial (9Fn4) had been heavily disturbed by flooding, and was somewhat mixed, and Will White (9Wh29) had a heavy Lamar occupation over limited Woodland, Woodstock and Etowah scatters, as seen in the Wauchope crew's test pits. Thus most current Blue Ridge Woodstock material is from surface collections.

TABLE 3: Blue Ridge Woodstock Sites

9Dw1, Amicalola Creek, surface
 9Fn4, Dial, Noontootla Creek, test pits
 9Gi23, Roy, upper Cartecay River, surface
 9To2, Brasstown Creek, surface
 9T011, Hiwassee River, surface
 9To19, Young Harris, Brasstown Creek, surface
 9Un10, Nottely River, surface, upland site
 9Un29, Will White, Dukes Creek, test pits

The ecotone areas with Woodstock sites (Figure 6) include Carters Lake, the Nacoochee Valley (upper Chattahoochee River), and the Tugaloo River complexes contributing to our understanding of Blue Ridge development. Woodstock sites include several excavated stratigraphic collections.

It was thought from a preliminary survey of Brasstown Creek near Young Harris that there might be more Woodstock components there, but analysis by Simpkins (1990) following his Phase II work suggests otherwise.

Clusters suggesting related communities during the Woodstock Phase can be seen at Carters Lake and in the Sautee-Nacoochee Valley, and two sites each occurred on the Tugaloo River and Brasstown Creek at this time. The two sites on Brasstown Creek are known only from surface collections, and were not part of the recent survey (Simpkins 1988). There is no evidence as yet of mound building at any of these sites during Woodstock times.

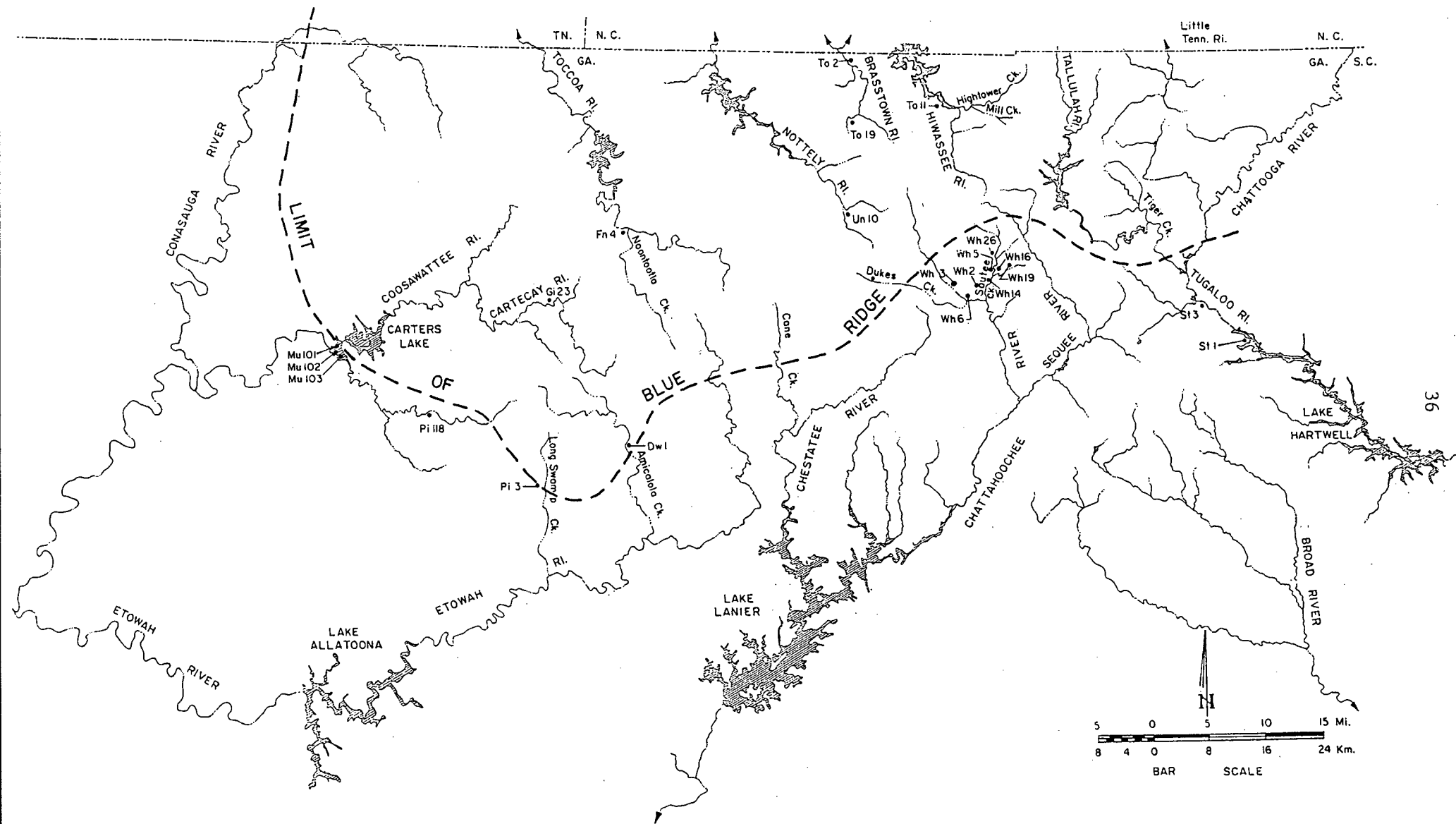


Figure 6: Woodstock Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

Table 4: Ecotone area Woodstock sites

9Mu101,	Bell Field, Carters Lake, excavated
9Mu102,	Little Egypt, Carters Lake, excavated
9Mu103,	Potts Tract, Carters Lake, excavated
9Pi118,	Talking Rock, surface
9St1,	Tugalo, Tugaloo R., excavated
9St3,	Estatoe, Tugaloo R., excavated
9Wh2,	Eastwood Mound, Nacoochee, excavated
9Wh3,	Nacoochee Mound, Nacoochee, excavated
9Wh5,	Lumsden, Sautee Creek, excavated
9Wh6,	Williams, Nacoochee, test pits
9Wh8,	New, Nacoochee, surface
9Wh14,	J. Lumsden, Sautee Creek, surface
9Wh16,	Sutton, Sautee Creek, surface
9Wh19,	Berrong, Sautee Creek, surface
9Wh26,	Tatum, Chickamauga Creek, surface

The relationship between the Woodstock community at 9Gi23 and the Carters Lake complex is unclear. Site 9Gi23, located near Roy on the Cartecay River, is about 30 km (straight-line) upstream. Hally's thesis (Hally and Langford 1988:66) on mound center distribution maintains that mound sites were located on 18-30 km spacing. This then might be related to Carters, but lack of survey in the intervening area make interpretation very difficult. Site 9Fn4 is well within the distance, but not connected by water. In fact, it lies over major ridges and is unlikely to have regular economic or political contacts in the sense now understood for the known 16th century polities in the Coosa and Oconee drainages.

It should be noted here (as elsewhere) that lack of systematic surveys (and thus a lack of sites) in so many upper alluvial valleys in this area must distort the picture dramatically. Their long, narrow alluvial floodplains were agriculturally productive for centuries, and probably occupied over 10,000-12,000 years.

Etowah Culture

This is the initial portion of what might be loosely referred to as the "Classic" period of Georgia prehistory. The period is named for the Etowah site (9Br1) near Cartersville, where excavations of portions of three large mounds were conducted over nearly a century, and initial interpretations were made of elaborate burial remains, and the rise of the "Southern Cult" was recorded for northern Georgia. It appeared to be a ceremonial center important for northern Georgia and portions of adjacent states. The mound complex resembled those found in the Mississippi Valley, complete with multiple mounds, plaza, exotic imported items from great distances, elite and non-elite burials and residences, suggesting stratification of the social order. The peak of ceremonial activity there occurred in the following Savannah period, but foundations for that peak intensity were laid during the Etowah building phases.

Etowah culture is currently understood in Early (A.D. 1000-1100) and Late (A.D. 1100-1200) phases. Etowah was divided into four phases, Etowah I-IV, and when applied to Allatoona presented some difficulties in application. Hally and Rudolph (1986) presented the full range in the Piedmont, but thus far they seem to have limited utility. In the 1988 Allatoona survey (Ledbetter, et al. 1988) Etowah material was combined, since collections were small and sherds were mostly small and indistinct.

In later efforts on the Ridge and Valley, Hally and Langford (1988) described the Etowah sites in Early and Late phases, with the break approximately between Etowah II and Etowah III, where the filfot cross ceramic motif makes its appearance. Common Etowah Complicated stamped motifs in both phases include nested diamonds with ladder and two bar bisectors, and line blocks.

Both Woodstock and Etowah (wherever found) tend to have relatively thin-walled, fine-tempered pottery, which got progressively thicker in the Late Etowah phase.

Etowah period sites found in the recent Allatoona survey were generally on alluvial features: levees, terraces or slight rises in the floodplain, with fewer on ridges or knolls, close to floodplains (Ledbetter, et al. 1987:238).

Early Etowah, A.D. 1000 - 1100

Early Etowah phase was generally marked by rectilinear patterns, mostly ladder based and two bar diamond stamped motifs, which seem to have developed from Woodstock designs. Line block design carried throughout most of the Mississippi period, and thus is not very phase-diagnostic. Complicated stamped wares were predominant, made with clay stamps or carved wooden paddles, on sand or grit-tempered wares. The "standard" Mississippian trait of shell-tempering was so very rare in the mountains as to suggest that when it occurred, it was probably not on a locally made item, but one transported into the area.

Hally and Langford (1988:46-51) have only three Early Etowah sites in the Ridge and Valley, all located just downstream from the Cartersville fault: Etowah (9Br1), Sixtoe Field (9Mu100), and 40Pk16, on Chickamauga Creek in the edge of Tennessee. They also present Etowah II collections from the Wilbanks site (9Ck5) for comparison. Geographic placement of these apparently administrative sites at the ecotones allowed their occupants to exploit and perhaps control the resources on adjacent portions of both Blue Ridge and Piedmont provinces.

In the Ridge and Valley, Etowah collections from these main sites show common traits of grit, shell, and some limestone temper. They share types and traits from Tennessee River sites, most of which are missing in Georgia Blue Ridge sites. Here, for example, we do not find shell or limestone tempering in most sites. When it occurs, it is interpreted as trade ware. Thus early Etowah ceramics in these three collections (Wilbanks, Etowah, and Sixtoe) are predominantly two bar diamonds, ladder based diamonds, and line block, with a few one bar, three bar, and cross diamond motifs.

Based on Sears' (1958) observations and the ceremonial or political importance of the Etowah site (9Br1), Hally and Langford (1988) suggest that the major mound constructions there began in Early Etowah times, continuing into Late Etowah and Savannah phases. The Sixtoe mound (9Mu100) had been heavily disturbed before Kelly's crews worked there. This early Etowah mound had four structures superimposed on it, all of wall trench type. Two measured 12 m x 20 m, and another was 9.5 m square. Kelly suggested another structure may have been single-post type, measuring about 6 x 6.5 m (Kelly et al., 1965).

Other features of Early Etowah include single-post wattle-and-daub village buildings with circular clay hearths, as at Wauchope's (1966) Long Swamp site (9Ck1), and Etowah site's broad saucer-shaped refuse pits. Cold Springs (9Ge5), an Armor Phase site on the Oconee River, had a 5 x 6 m wall trench house with walled entryway and central hearth, and others built in single-post style. Refuse patterns suggested possibly 13 buildings there at this time (Hally and Rudolph 1986:43-44).

Using as criteria primarily the reduction in percentages of ladder-based diamonds, and/or presence of the filfot cross motifs (see Late Etowah descriptions below), the Etowah sites in our data base were sorted into Early and Late phases, from descriptions in available reports and site file forms. Twenty-six Early Etowah sites were found, 14 in the core area, and the rest in the ecotones. Early Etowah sites in the Blue Ridge are presented in Table 5 and shown in Figure 7.

In the Carters Lake and Nacoochee Valley ecotones were twelve known Early Etowah sites, listed in Table 6 and shown in Figure 7. There are doubtless many more in other valleys, however the lack of detailed surveys hampers a clear understanding of the overall picture.

Table 5: Blue Ridge Early Etowah sites

9Fn4,	Dial, Noontootla Cr.	9To2, Brasstown Cr.
9Lu2,	Cane Cr.	9To11, Hiwassee Cr.
9Ra3,	Dillard mound	9To44, Brasstown Cr.
9Ra31,	Thomas Cr.	9To48, Brasstown Cr.
9Ra88,	Barron, L. Tenn R.	9Wh29, Dukes Cr.
9To1,	Hiwassee R.	

Table 6: Ecotone area Early Etowah Sites

9Dw1,	Amicalola Cr.	9Wh15, Sautee Cr.
9Mu100,	Sixtoe, Carters L.	9Wh16, Sautee Cr.
9Hm1,	Lanier, Nacoochee V.	9Wh18, Nacoochee V.
9Pi3,	Tate	9Wh19, Sautee Cr.
9Pi118,	Talking Rock	9Wh28, Nacoochee V.
9Wh2,	Soquee R.	9Wh37, Nacoochee V.
9Wh5,	Sautee Cr.	9Wh66, Nacoochee V.
9Wh6,	Nacoochee V.	

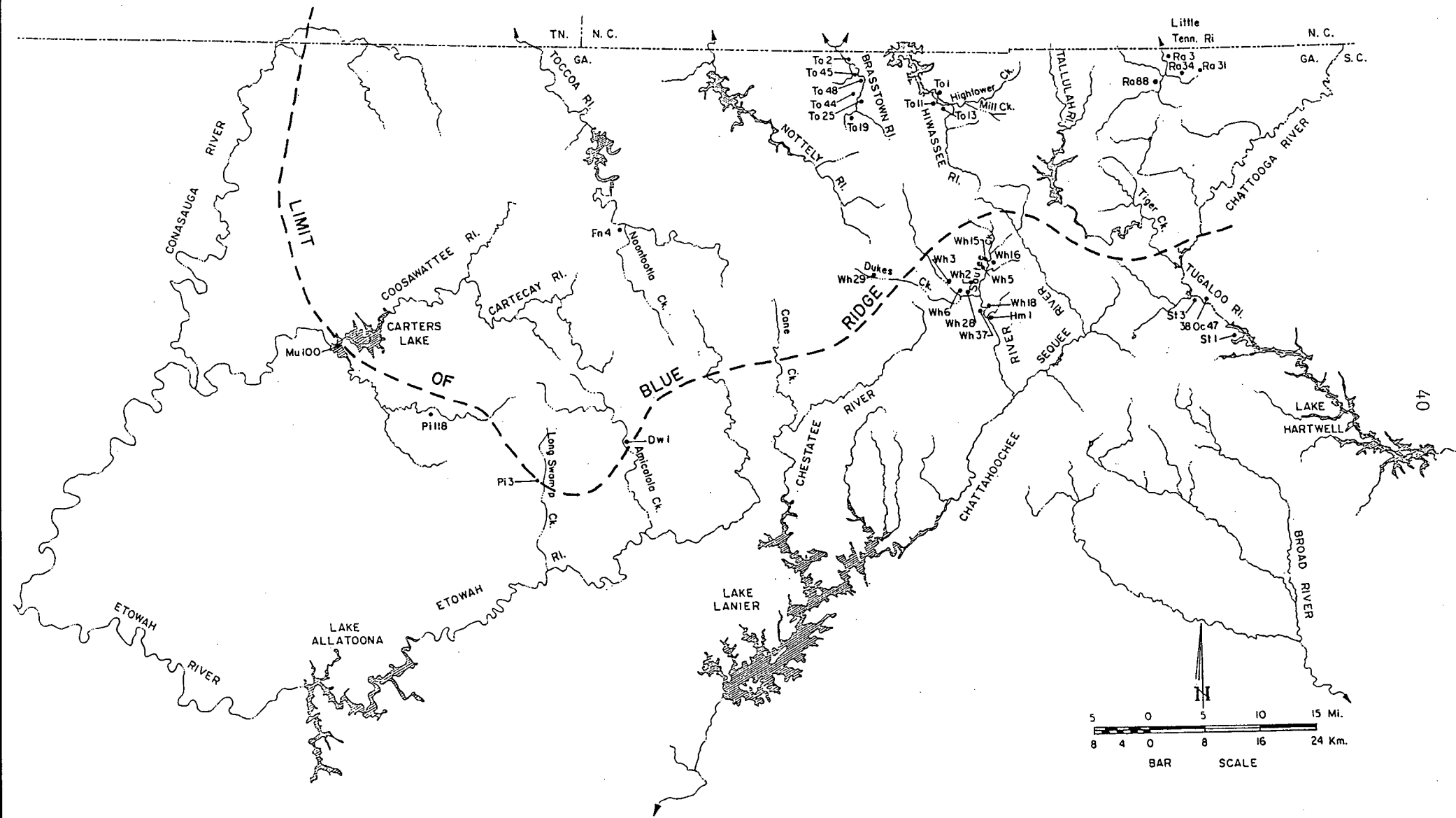


Figure 7: Early Etowah Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

Site clustering as currently understood for Early Etowah times is seen only in Brasstown Creek, Hiwassee River, Little Tennessee River, Tugaloo River, and the Nacoochee Valley of the upper Chattahoochee River. There are doubtless others in the unsurveyed valleys. Mound sites are expected in the cluster foci, and are present in three, if not four, of these known clusters. Sites 9Wh2 and 9Wh3 in Nacoochee, 9St1, 9St3, and 380c47 in Tugaloo, and 9Ra3 at Dillard provide those foci. There were local oral reports of a mound in Brasstown valley, but none exists now. Site 9To44 may have had a mound which was plowed down, but it is not yet known if it was an Etowah construction. Such questions remain important for future research, especially in light of planned development there.

Late Etowah, A.D. 1100 - 1200

Late Etowah phase ceramics generally continued to have predominantly two bar diamonds, but much lower percentages of ladder base diamonds and one bar, three bar and cross bar diamonds remained as minorities. The "filfot cross" motif appeared as a diagnostic item in Late Etowah, with 16-19% of the collections at Etowah and Wilbanks sites. Also appearing were "concentric polygons," nested squares, crosses, rectilinear spirals, and "L's," sometimes made with clay stamps.

Late Etowah apparently was not represented at Sixtoe, though Hally (Hally and Langford 1988) suspects that if the Etowah phase collections were to be reanalyzed, it would prove to have both Early and Late phases, not recognized earlier, since the upper (later) mound portions were destroyed before Kelly arrived.

Shell and limestone tempering decreased in these three sites (Etowah, Wilbanks, and Sixtoe) during Late Etowah times. New traits appearing in this phase included Etowah Incised ware and jar necks with corncob impressions. This was a trait which carried on through Savannah and into early Lamar times. Plates and strap handles, some with button nodes, also appeared at this time. Shell and limestone tempering occur too infrequently in the Blue Ridge to be useful diagnostic traits, but could indicate trade relations.

Late Etowah phase is best described at Etowah (9Br1) and Wilbanks (9Ck5) sites, with the beginning of platform mound construction, though some mound work may have begun in the previous Early Etowah phase (Hally and Langford 1988). It is represented at Etowah site in large saucer-shaped refuse pits and a 60-cm deep midden. The latter contained evidence of two single-post structures. Kelly and Larson (1956) also reported a large "compound wall" trench 50 cm wide by 1 m deep near Mound B. At Wilbanks site a 14 m square building with earthbanked walls was recorded. Possible "earthlodges" were also reported for Horsehoe Bend and Bell Field, but those may have had only earth-banked lower walls, rather than earth coverings (Hally and Rudolph 1986).

Domestic architecture is represented at Stamp Creek (9Br139) with two rectangular, wall-trench buildings without hearths. At Woodstock Fort (9Ck1) a semi-subterranean rectangular building did contain a hearth.

Subsistence bases for this period are poorly known, but a list of items from observations and waterscreening at Sixtoe (9Mu100) is instructive. Kelly et al. (1965) listed deer, small animal, fish, turtle, freshwater mollusc, acorn, hickory nut, and maize.

Stillhouse, a Late Etowah phase in the Oconee River basin, represented by Dyar site (9Ge5), had a possible public building and smaller structures on the platform mound. Botanical evidence from Dyar included maize, hickory nut, walnut, acorn, and maypop seeds (M. Smith 1981).

Etowah period sites in the recent Allatoona survey were generally on alluvial features: levees, terraces, or slight rises in the floodplain. Others were on ridges or knolls close to the floodplains (Ledbetter, et al. 1987:238).

Jarrett Phase, A.D. 830 - 1350

The name Jarrett phase was suggested by Hally and Rudolph (1985) for the Etowah III and IV material at Tugalo (9St1) and the earliest mound stages at Chauga (380c47), which Kelly and Neitzel (1961) called Late Etowah, and which were mixed with Savannah Complicated Stamped ware. Jarrett also includes the corn cob impressions on jar necks and collared rims mentioned for the Ridge and Valley. Radiocarbon dates applicable to the Jarrett phase at Tugalo and Chauga were A.D. 830-1350 (Table 2).

It is possible that the Jarrett phase extends into the far reaches of the upper Chattahoochee valley, although artifact analysis had not been conducted to verify this. Surface collections from the Nacoochee site (9Wh3) in White County contained at least 100 Etowah Complicated Sherds. Sherds with identifiable motifs (35) showed two bar diamonds (48.5%), one bar diamonds (17.1%), ladder based diamonds (17.1%), line blocks (8.6%), cross diamonds (5.7%), and three bar diamonds (2.9%) [Wauchope 1966:355-356]. At the Eastwood site (9Wh2), about 3 km downriver from the Nacoochee mound, a low mound contained 1763 Etowah Complicated Stamped sherds in addition to many Lamar sherds. Over 70% of the Etowah Complicated Stamped sherds had concentric diamond motifs. Identifiable motifs included two bar diamonds (89.7%), three bar diamonds (5.8%), and one bar diamonds (4.7%) [Wauchope 1966]. (Hally and Rudolph 1986:50).

At Tugalo (9St1) and Chauga (380c47) on the Tugaloo River, Jarrett phase (late Etowah) square single post structures, 7.5-8.5 m in size, with entrance halls sat on platform mounds. Earth banked on outside walls led early researchers to call them earthlodges, though Larson (1986) and Rudolph (1984) have suggested that true earthlodges were unlikely.

The Late Etowah-Jarrett phase is not really represented in the Blue Ridge, and it was poorly represented in the Ridge and Valley (Hally and Langford 1988). There were only four sites which could be assigned to Late Etowah-Jarrett, all in ecotone areas of Tugaloo River and Nacoochee Valley, and all containing mounds, with multiple phase occupations (Table 7 and Figure 8).

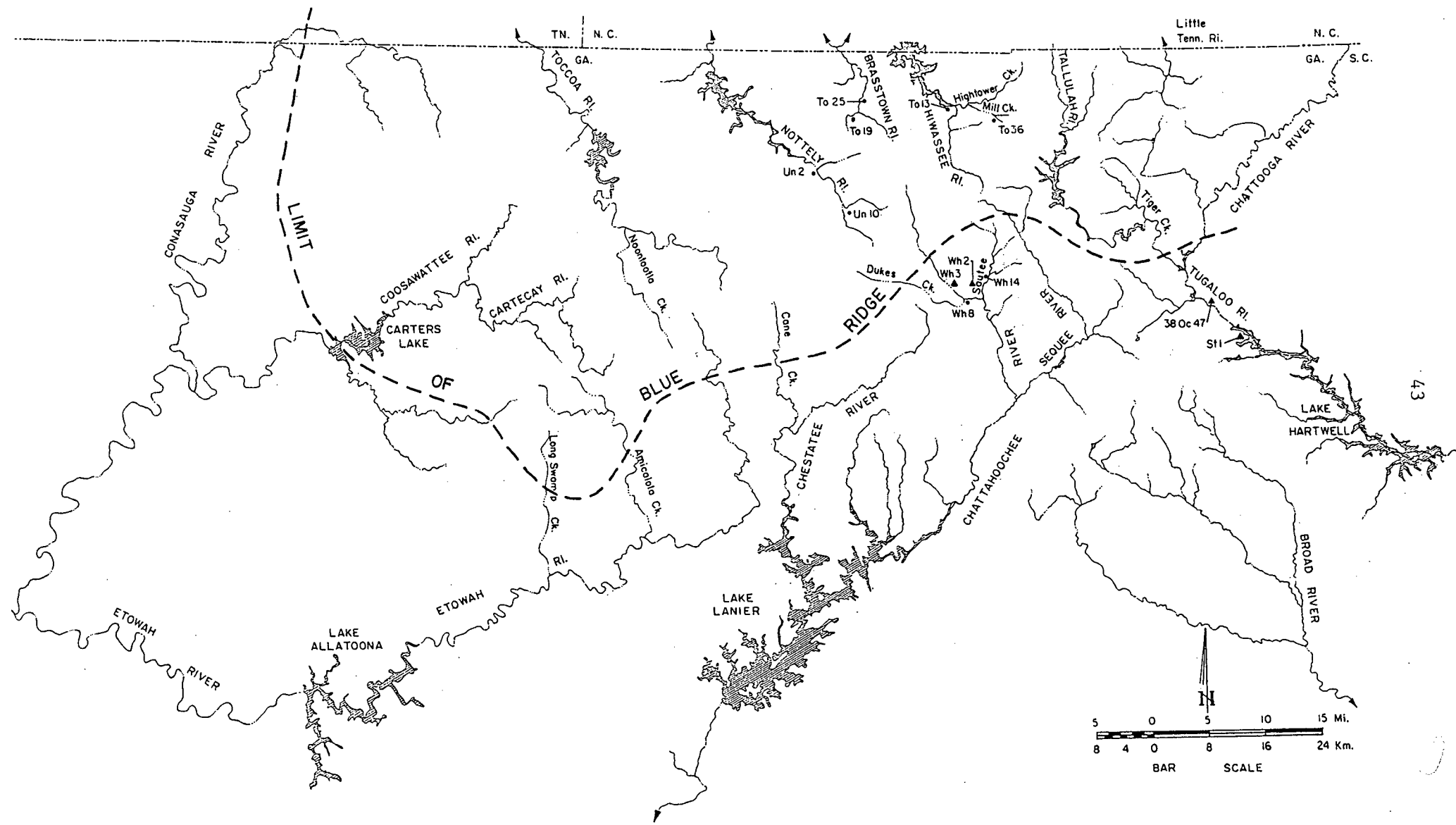


Figure 8: Late Etowah Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

Table 7: Ecotone area Late Etowah Sites

9St1, Tugalo	9Wh2, Eastwood
380c47, Cahuga	9Wh3, Nacoochee

The number of sites occupied during Early Etowah and post-Etowah periods, together with a lack of data on the Late Etowah phase suggests several possible explanations. Either our sorting criteria are not sophisticated enough to identify later occupations, or there are some key traits which are missing from the collections or the criteria.

A third possibility is that there were intermittent occupations at these sites, somewhat like that seen in the Oconee River Valley, where mound sites like Dyar and Scull Shoals appear to have alternated leadership in 40-60 year intervals, with construction ceasing and population drastically declining during those periods in the communities which were out of power. Williams and Shapiro (1990) called these "Paired Towns," and we may expect to see other examples in Georgia, with additional study. Thus some Blue Ridge and ecotone sites may simply have been unoccupied, or at least a majority of the population shifted to other locations, during the three or four generations of the Late Etowah phase. This might be consistent with hereditary political regimes focusing first at one center, then at another, as power transferred between leading families.

Finally, there were eight sites listed in the site files for the core and Nacoochee Valley (Table 8) which were described as Etowah, but phase assignments could not be determined, using the criteria mentioned above. These may have had late Etowah components which we cannot yet identify. They are shown on Figure 8.

Table 8: Etowah sites without phase assignments

9Un2, Nottely R.	9To25, Brasstown C.
9Un10, Nottely R., upland	9To36, Mill C.
9To13, Hiwassee R.	9Wh8, Nacoochee V.
9To19, Brasstown C.	9Wh14, Sautee C.

Research questions on Etowah culture in the Blue Ridge will require initial attention to finer chronological indicators, best obtained on large collections from stratified excavations. Alternatively, large surface collections from other sites may be seriated. This is less desirable than excavated collections, of course. Unfortunately, most large WPA collections and Wauchope's field notes are no longer available for study and reanalysis using differing sorting criteria.

Regional variations may be affecting our interpretations also. The simple lack of collections of any kind from so many valleys severely hampers studies of settlement patterns and exploited areas. We rely heavily on complicated stamp motifs, but often they are severely eroded, so that determining the time period of a site from a small surface or plow zone collection is difficult if not impossible.

Since ceramics are so important, the relationships between Woodstock and Etowah, and Etowah and Savannah need to be clarified. The thin ware of Woodstock, and one patterns seem to clearly lead into Etowah, but distinctions are often far from clear. Savannah patterns added curvilinear designs, but even that distinction is difficult to make in many instances.

We need to understand the relationships between Blue Ridge sites and peoples and those in the adjacent physiographic regions: Appalachian Summit, Ridge and Valley, and Piedmont. Why were there apparently so few sites we can assign to the late Etowah period, when so much was going on in adjacent areas, particularly the Piedmont? There were no clearly Late Etowah sites in the Blue Ridge, though some of those "unclassified" ones in Table 8 may pertain to Late Etowah times. How were the Early Etowah sites organized, and how did they relate to each other (economically, socially, politically)? Do we have outliers here of the Etowah site (9Br1) polity or is a local nucleus of a separate polity visible at this stage?

The fact that most of the Blue Ridge Etowah sites were found in or near the floodplains suggests overwhelming population concentrations there. What uses did the Etowah peoples make of the mountains? How dependent were they on farming/horticulture, and what portions of their livelihood could be gathered from nature in times of droughts or floods which destroyed their crops? Much is made of the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex outside the Blue Ridge. Very little can be made of it here, for lack of excavated sites, particularly elite burials. What was the isolation effect of the mountain valleys on this cultural manifestation?

MIDDLE MISSISSIPPI PERIOD: A.D. 1200 - 1350

Savannah Culture

The Savannah culture is the only one known in the Middle Mississippi Period. It is presently understood to have lasted from AD 1200 to AD 1350, based on research at Etowah (9Br1) and Wilbanks (9Ck5) sites. It is the high point of the Mississippian "Classic" ceremonialism in Georgia, with large platform mound and plaza centers, and based on horticulture involving maize, beans, squashes and a wide variety of local cultigens. The Southeastern Ceremonial Complex of elaborate burial furniture, elite status items, and exotic trade materials continued also.

This period is marked in part by the introduction of the curvilinear motifs to the paddle-stamped pottery decorations. Sears (1958) argued that this was an intrusion from elsewhere, but Hally and Langford (1988) point out that it most probably developed in place, since the filfot cross was found in the Late Etowah ceramics, and the later nested diamonds tended to get rounder with time. That is, the sharp edges and corners of the diamonds became more barrel-shaped. Caldwell (1957) noted that both curvilinear and rectilinear patterns appeared in his Etowah IV collections. Hally and Langford (1988) also point out the presence of 1, 2, and 3 bar and 1 and 2 line crosses in both the concentric diamond and concentric circle patterns. In the Scull Shoals (Williams 1984, 1988) and Beaverdam (Rudolph and Hally 1985) collections, Late Etowah cross bar diamond motifs appeared on vessels with Savannah stamp patterns.

Hally and Rudolph (1986:51) suggest that Beaverdam, an early Savannah phase includes four ceramic types: (a) Etowah Complicated stamp (rectilinear), with nested diamonds, mostly with 2 bar cross diamonds, with some 1 bar cross diamonds and herringbones; (b) Savannah Complicated Stamp (curvilinear), with concentric circles in plain, 2 bar, and 2 bar cross varieties; (c) Savannah Check Stamped; and (d) Savannah Plain.

The design elements, following a trend seen in Late Etowah, tended to be larger and "heavier" than Early Etowah or Woodstock patterns. Shape features "include globular jars with strap handles and rim lugs and narrow neck water bottles" (Hally and Langford 1988:31).

Wauchope (1966:77-79) notes that the Savannah check stamps are large, rather faint diagonal lines. He also indicates that the filfot cross and figure 8 are also in the phase. Execution is with wider lines than Etowah, widely spaced, and lower relief, yet still neater than Lamar stamping.

Ledbetter et al. (1987:241) indicate that Savannah or Wilbanks sites in the Allatoona Valley are about evenly spread over the floodplain and upland areas, with 44% on knolls or ridge noses, while 56% are on terraces or in the floodplain. They tend to be somewhat away from the alluvial soils, unlike earlier and later period sites.

The Etowah site (9Br1) presumably dominated the Lower Etowah valley during the Savannah period, as suggested by its high-status burials and elaborate Southeastern Ceremonial Complex mortuary offerings. There seem to be fewer sites identified as Savannah in the Blue Ridge, but that may be due to misinterpretation, insufficiently clear reporting, or lack of surveys in many of the Blue Ridge valleys.

In their Piedmont paper, Hally and Rudolph (1986) noted no Savannah sites in the Blue Ridge, but reported three Savannah site clusters: (a) the Wilbanks phase on the Etowah River, (b) the Beaverdam cluster on the upper Savannah-Tugaloo River, and (c) the Scull Shoals phase cluster on the middle Oconee River. Bell Field Site (9Mu101) was not clearly described, but may on reanalysis provide early Savannah material also.

In the Blue Ridge (Figure 9), Wauchope (1966) had only one site with Savannah materials, the Will White Site (9Wh29) in Duke's Creek. While the site's location is not clear from his description, the test excavations there produced material from several phases, including Savannah. Will White site was apparently not heavily occupied until Lamar times. Three additional sites have appeared in recent fieldwork. The Young Harris survey (Simpkins 1988) produced possible Savannah components on Brasstown Creek. Phase II testing at 9To43, 9To44, and 9To45 recently confirmed these components (Simpkins 1990). An unpublished site (9To36) on Mill Creek, off the Hiwassee River, also has Savannah materials.

Bell Field and Chauga had one mound each, and Brasstown Creek may have had one. Will White and Mill Creek sites appeared not to have had mounds. Bell Field and Chauga, both now under lakes, had detailed excavations, Will White, 9To43, 9To44, and 9To45 received test pits, and Mill Creek is known only from surface collections.

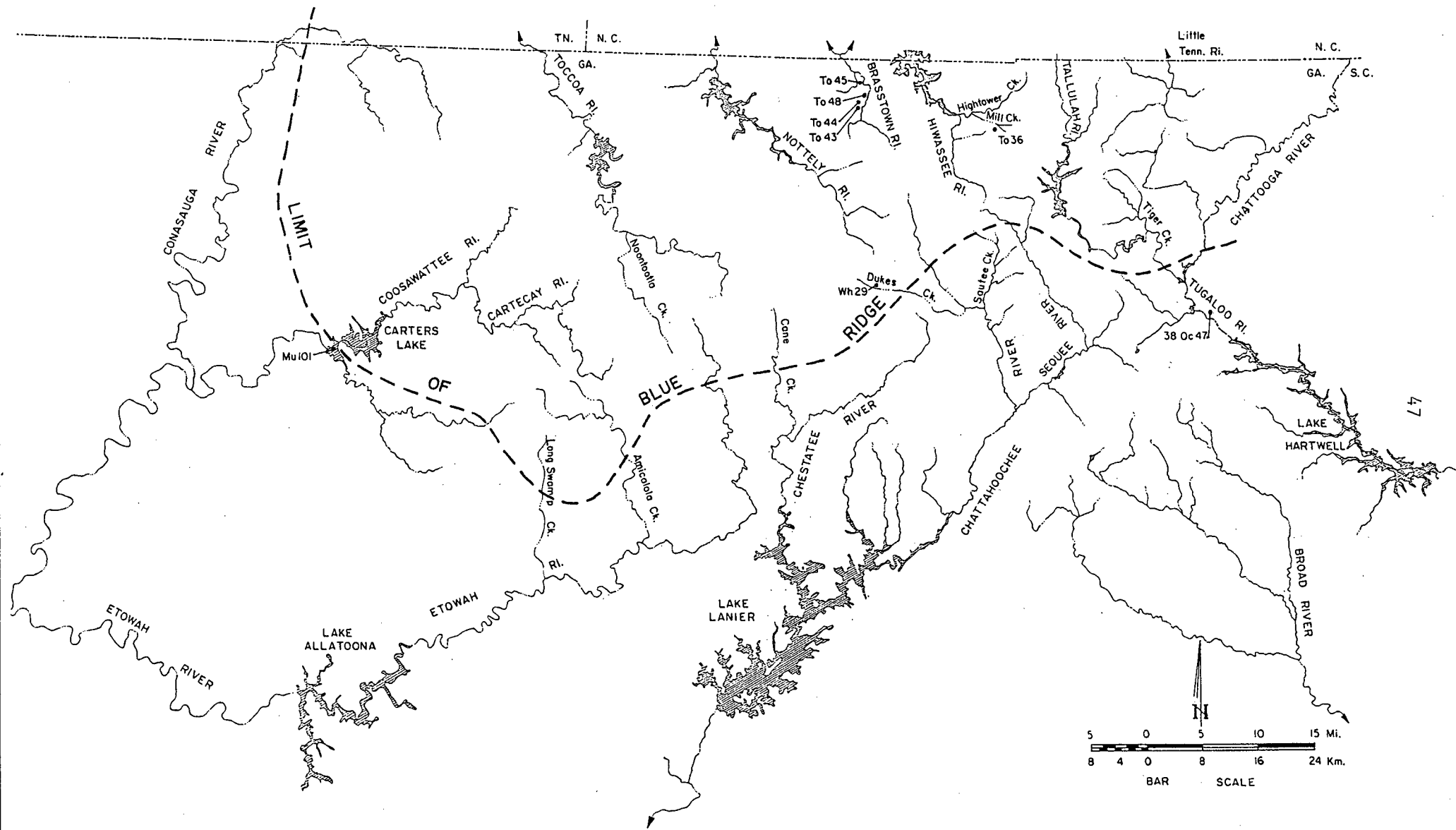


Figure 9: Savannah Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

Table 9: Savannah Sites in Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

9Mu101, Bell Field, Coosawattee	9To45, Brasstown Cr.
9To36, Mill Cr.	9Wh29, Will White, Dukes Cr.
9To43, Brasstown Cr.	380c47, Chauga, Tugaloo R.
9T044, Brasstown Cr.	

Lack of additional sites in this time period is certainly a question in need of an answer. The Savannah culture is well represented in peripheral areas, representing as it does the peak of ceremonial activity at Etowah site. In the Blue Ridge, however, Savannah and Late Etowah may represent a period of retrenchment or partial abandonment of large centers. Populations may have moved to other areas following some major political change or natural disaster in the mountains during this period, of which we have no other indications as yet. Population centralization at or near the political centers, such as around Etowah, may have affected the mountain sites. The Blue Ridge mound centers appear to have maintained at least some of their populations, but outlying sites may have been less important, or we simply lack data from adjacent valleys where populations may have taken refuge or sought alternative resources at this time.

LATE MISSISSIPPI PERIOD, A.D. 1350 - 1540

Lamar Culture

Prehistoric Lamar culture develops out of the preceding Savannah, generally dated from about A.D. 1350 until the Spanish explorers' arrival in 1540. There are two temporal segments, Early and Middle Lamar, in that 200 year block. Late Lamar culture appears to continue well into the Contact or Protohistoric and Early Historic periods. This context deals with the Early and Middle segments, leaving the Late Lamar period to the Historic Aboriginal period context paper, now in preparation. At least eleven Lamar phases have been defined in Georgia, and there will doubtless be more. Those related to the Blue Ridge are discussed below.

Probably more has been written and said about Lamar culture than any other in Georgia. Initially presented from excavations by James Ford and Gordon Willey (Kelly 1938) at the Lamar site near Macon, work continued by Fairbanks and Jennings (1939). The two-mound palisaded village on an island in the Ocmulgee River swamp had predominantly grit-tempered, Lamar Complicated Stamped pottery, with a strong minority type, Lamar Bold Incised, which was absent in earlier levels.

As surveys and excavations continued over the state, more and more sites were identified with this combination of late prehistoric features, and as David Chase (1962) put it, the term "Lamar" spread like kudzu. There was a long period of some confusion, during which the term was applied to many different cultures, over wide areas, from Florida into Tennessee, North and South Carolina (Russell 1975:54). Ferguson (1971), though unhappy with the concept, saw Lamar as a general style, still in need of more study to understand.

Within the past 10 years, the Lamar problem has come under serious and continued examination by faculty and students of the University of Georgia and their colleagues elsewhere. Founding of the LAMAR Institute, whose participants are interested in the late prehistoric-contact period of Georgia and adjacent states, is perhaps indicative of the depth of the interest in understanding what "Lamar" is - and is not. Cooperative ventures between ethnohistorians and archaeologists to re-establish the route of the De Soto, De Luna, and other expeditions (e.g., Hudson et al. 1985) have made great strides in understanding both the archaeology and early history of the 16th to 18th century southeast.

The Lamar culture extends beyond the prehistoric period, but for this paper, we will consider primarily the period from A.D. 1350 to 1540, and attempt to describe the culture as understood in the Georgia Piedmont and Ridge and Valley provinces and apply that knowledge to the Blue Ridge.

Lamar is primarily defined archaeologically from its pottery: plain, complicated stamped, and incised wares patterns, with folded and decorated vessel rims, and some particular house forms and burial patterns (Hally and Rudolph 1986:63). Often phase descriptions are dependent on relative frequencies of specific decorative styles or elements, so larger collections mean more secure designation.

Subsistence base data for Lamar are not as detailed as we would like, partly due to extremely acidic soils, but we do have a general picture of the primary elements. The culture is fully "Mississippian," in having a horticulture-based society, set in major floodplains. The "Mesoamerican Triumvirate" of maize, beans, and squash were present as basic food staples. These were augmented by a wide range of local items, such as hickory nuts, chestnuts, grapes, plums, persimmons, and maypops. Deer provided the predominant meat food, augmented by box turtles and turkeys (Hally and Rudolph 1986:69). Shellfish were utilized to some extent in Piedmont and Ridge and Valley areas, but apparently not in the Blue Ridge.

Architecture falls into two major classes, mounds with their related structures, and household buildings. The mound sites were located in floodplains, with one or two Lamar mounds each, at fairly regular intervals along the drainages. Mounds range from 1 to 13 meters high, with elevations clustering at 1 meter (4 known), 3-4.5 m (5 known), and 10 m (4 known). Many have indications of a plaza and houses around the bases, with or without fortifications surrounding the community. The multiple-stage mounds are squared, with flat tops, some with more than one level on top, each with a structure. Scull Shoals (9Ge4) and Dyar (9Ge5) in the Oconee Valley had evidence of elite moundtop residences, including food preparation debris and serving and storage pottery there and in the "Lamar dumps" on the northeast sides of the structures.

Residential buildings are generally 4-5 meters square in the mound villages, with depressed floors, and wall-trench entryways. Wattle and daub covered single-post walls supported thatched or bark covered roofs. There were probably open ramadas, or unwalled roofs for summer activities, but they have been hard to identify in the hundreds of post molds on most excavated sites. Houses were often found arranged around small patios, suggesting household clusters or grouped extended family dwellings.

Upland Piedmont Lamar hamlets or farmsteads, have been recently investigated in the Oconee Valley (Hatch and Schroeder 1990) which have had primarily round structures, 6-9 meters in diameter, with burials beneath the floors. Additional rectangular structures were also identified, which may be summer dwellings or storage structures. Large trash pits, perhaps initially dug for clay to daub the round (winter?) house walls, were found contemporary to most houses. They contained pottery, tools, debitage, and food remains.

There are many phases now designated for the Late Mississippi period, involving various Lamar traits. The prehistoric period can be roughly divided into two sub-periods, Early and Middle, based on presence or absence of incised ware. Late Lamar is now seen as the historic or proto-historic period, with increasing numbers and kinds of European artifacts in American Indian sites, dating from AD 1540 into the 18th Century.

"The earliest Lamar ceramic assemblages lack Lamar Incised; have relatively narrow, thickened jar rims which are decorated with large punctations or pinches; and utilize fine grit temper. Through time, tempering becomes coarser, thickened jar rims become wider and decoration becomes increasingly confined to the lower edge of the rim. Lamar incised appeared by approximately A.D. 1450. Through time, the width of incised lines decreases, the number of incised lines used to carry out a design increases, and designs become more complex" Hally and Rudolph (1986:63).

Hally and Rudolph (1986) address a number of phases within the Piedmont (Little Egypt, Stamp Creek, Stubbs, Duvall and Rembert), and Hally and Langford (1988) present Little Egypt, Barnett, and Brewster in the Ridge and Valley, based primarily on ceramics. Most of the presentation here is likewise heavily based on pottery style distinctions.

Early Lamar

The Early Lamar period, characterized by complicated stamping without incising, was represented in Little Egypt phase at Carters Lake, Stamp Creek in the Allatoona Basin, Duvall in the middle Oconee River and Rembert in the upper Savannah River area. It appeared to develop from previous Savannah phase, based on curvilinear stamping techniques common to both.

Little Egypt phase, in Carters Lake and upper Conasauga River areas (Coosa province), is a very "Mississippian" Early Lamar phase, with extensive ties to Dallas occupations of the Tennessee River, including shell tempering and Dallas pottery types. It is represented in Georgia by Little Egypt site (9Mu102) and 9Mu7, located in the Ridge and Valley province. There is little or no Lamar Incised ware in this early phase, and early versions of the thickened, pinched rims are represented.

The Lamar Complicated Stamped ware is fine grit tempered, in jars with pronounced shoulders, and narrow thickened rims pinched across the full width of the rim addition. Stamped patterns include filfot cross, concen-

tric circles, figure 8, and nested rectangles or frets. The patterns are large, poorly executed, showing continuity with preceding Savannah phase.

In the Allatoona area, Stamp Creek phase is Early Lamar, about A.D. 1350-1500, when thickened, punctated, pinched or noded rims appear on vessels. The pottery carries curvilinear stamped impressions like those of the earlier Savannah phase, but they become less distinct, and the stamping less precise than before. Stamp Creek was defined from the type site (9BR139) by Caldwell (1958), where he found a burned wattle and daub house with this pottery and a pit with maize in it. Stamp Creek phase sites in Allatoona are mostly on alluvial terraces or in the floodplain, with only one-quarter of them on knoll or ridge nose locations.

In the upper Savannah River area, Rudolph and Hally (1985:456-9) describe Rembert phase, from their reanalysis of Caldwell's (1953) mound excavations at Rembert Site (9Eb1), with their data from Beaverdam Creek site (9Eb85). They stress a very low percentage of early Lamar Incised (2 sherds out of 628), and a majority of Lamar Complicated Stamped (n=305), mostly bearing the filfot cross, with concentric circles also important.

Most Rembert site sherds with unidentifiable patterns (68% of complicated stamped sherds) had straight lines only while others had curved lines which could be part of any of the patterns, such as filfot cross, concentric circles, figure 8 or figure 9. Heavy over stamping was noted, though the stamping was "crisp." They recorded folded rims with notched, pinched, and punctated treatments. Non-folded rims with punctates and with punctated nodes were also present. (Rudolph and Hally 1985:456-457).

Based on the ceramic distinctions presented here (and those reported in the site files), particularly the presence or absence of Lamar Incised ware, a possibly artificial division of known Lamar sites was constructed for the Blue Ridge from the database. Since rim fold descriptions were not usually included in the literature, that important criterion could not be applied. The Early Lamar sites in the core and ecotone areas, according to this admittedly crude division, are in Table 10, and shown in Figure 10.

Table 10: Blue Ridge Early Lamar Sites

9Dw1, Amicalola Cr.	9To42, Brasstown Cr.
9Gi1, Ellijay	9To48, Brasstown Cr.
9Gi2, Ellijay	9Ra89, Persimmon Cr.
9Gi3, Ellijay	9Ra91, Persimmon Cr.
9To1, Hiwassee R.	9Ra92, Poplar Gap
9To2, Brasstown Cr.	(upland)

For this time period, our database suggests three possible site clusters. A three-site complex appeared at the confluence of the Ellijay and Cartecay Rivers, where they form the Coosawattee. They are known only from surface collections, and probably no longer exist, following industrial construction there. A second cluster of sites occurred in Brasstown Creek, which apparently did not include a mound site at that time. The two Persimmon Creek sites are tiny upland camp or farmstead sites, whose descrip-

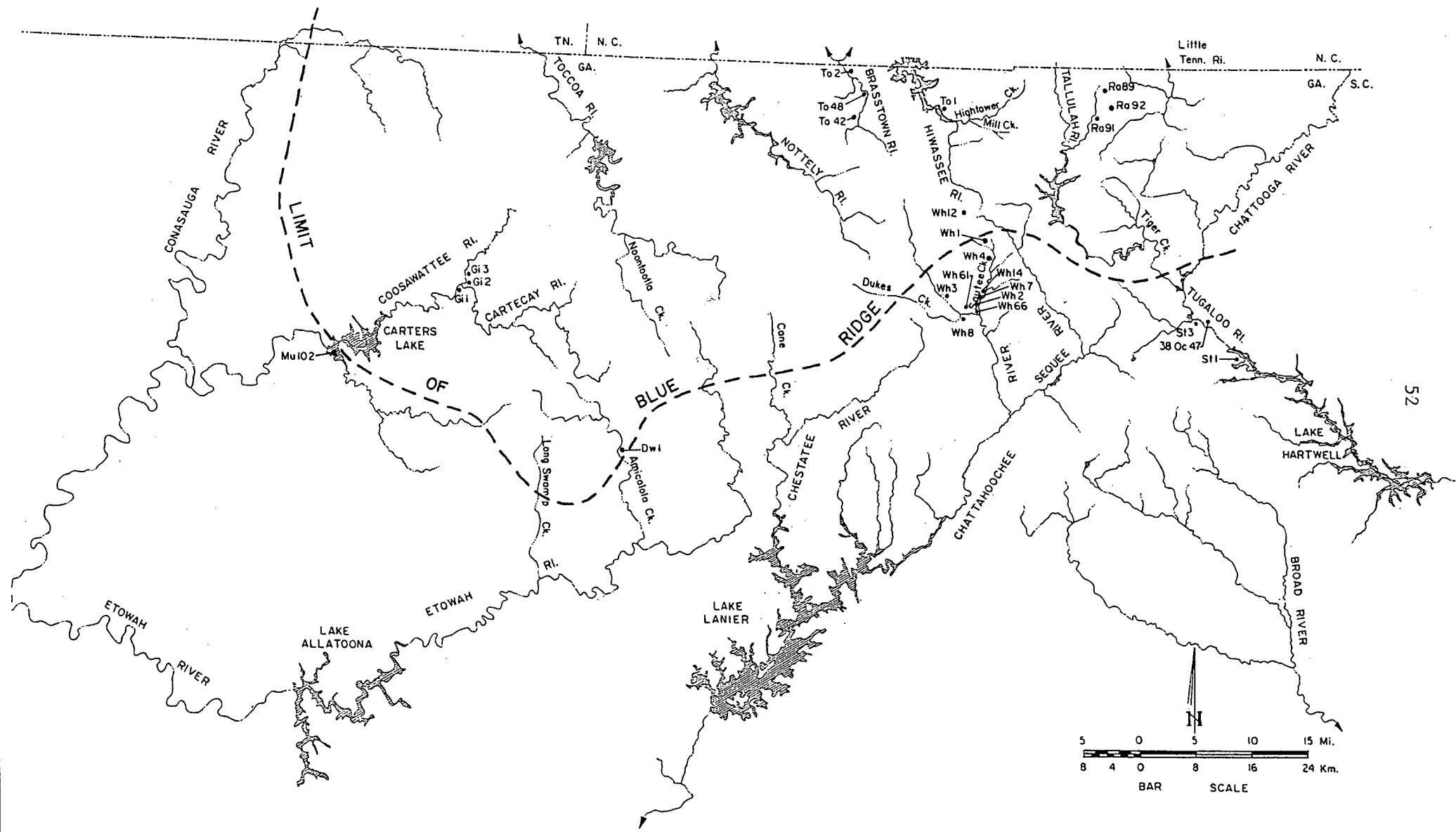


Figure 10: Early Lamar Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

tions are based on small surface collections. The same is probably true for 9Ra92, except that it was found on a small high terrace below the gap, and shovel tests suggest possibly undisturbed midden.

The artificiality of our time segments may affect our interpretation of these sites or clusters. Since the collections were all small, there is a possibility that incised ware on these sites was a victim of that small sample size. On none of our sites do we have sufficient data to even determine if they fit into one of the suggested phases.

Sites for the Early Lamar phase in the ecotone area are listed in Table 11, and shown on Figure 10.

Table 11: Ecotone Area Early Lamar Sites

9St1, Tugalo	9Wh4, Sautee C.
9St3, Estatoe	9Wh7, Sautee C.
380c47, Chauga	9Wh8, Nacoochee V.
9Mu102, Little Egypt	9wh14, Sautee C.
9Wh1, Sky Lake	9Wh61, Nacoochee V.
9Wh2, Eastwood	9Wh66, Nacoochee V.
9wh3, Nacoochee V.	

The only known Early Lamar mound sites are in the periphery, on the Tugaloo River: Tugalo, Estatoe, and Chauga. The other sites are known only from surface collections, as possible villages, hamlets or farmsteads. Clusters may be represented by: (a) three mounds on the Tugaloo River, and (b) the Sautee-Nacoochee Valley. As before, there are probably additional clusters, both in the Blue Ridge and ecotone areas, which have not yet been recorded. Sites in the Sautee-Nacoochee at this time are somewhat different from those noted earlier, and may represent resettlement in different parts of the valley.

Middle Lamar

The Middle Lamar period, from AD 1450 to AD 1540, is represented in several phases, primarily in the Piedmont. These include Barnett phase (Hally 1979) in the Coosawattee River, Brewster (Caldwell 1957) in the Allatoona Reservoir, Dyar phase (M. Smith 1981, M. Williams 1984) in the middle Oconee River, and Tugalo (Anderson et al. 1986) in the upper Savannah/Tugaloo River.

Lamar Bold Incised type, a horizon marker for Middle Lamar phase, appears around AD 1450, and consists of incised decoration applied to upper walls of plain or curvilinear-stamped vessels, particularly carinated bowl forms. Incising undergoes modifications in breadth and number of incised lines; when they first appear, lines are broad, bold and relatively few: 3-4 lines per element. By late Lamar Dyar and Bell phases, lines are very fine, almost razor-thin, and more numerous. Incised designs appear on the shoulders of carinated bowls, where lower parts are plain or stamped.

The classic folded, pinched rim, also a major Lamar temporal marker, increases in width through time, so that present understanding is that Early and Late Lamar phases can be sorted by the relative average widths of the rim folds. Thus, those rims measuring less than 15-17 mm wide are considered Early, those greater than 17 mm, Late Lamar. The possibility of finer divisions in this continuum is promising, and researchers continue to develop the sorting system. In addition, the decorated portion of rim fold decreases. Thus in Early Lamar Little Egypt phase, most of the rimfold has been pinched, whereas during Tugalo phase, Middle Lamar, only the lower half of the folded portion was decorated (Hally 1989, pers. comm.).

Sites with large collections of Lamar sherds can be sufficient to allow such sorting, with heavy percentages of incision and rim sherds available. Applying such criteria to small collections can be misleading, simply because of the statistical dangers inherent in small sample sizes, missing key indicators which are themselves represented in low frequencies.

Brewster phase in the Allatoona area introduces the bold, simple incisions on bowls in major frequencies. The rim thickening strips were more often pinched, rather than punctated or noded. Coarser sand tends to be used for temper in the Brewster phase than in preceding Stamp Creek. Caldwell's Brewster phase house at Stamp Creek site was square and semi-subterranean, but without mud-daubed walls (Caldwell, 1957, in Ledbetter, et al, 1987:246).

Tugalo Phase

At Tugalo, Estatoe, and Chauga sites, Tugalo phase is represented, described by Anderson et al. (1986:42). It appears to evolve from the Rembert phase, continuing until A.D. 1550-1600. Ceramics from early mound stages at Estatoe show predominantly complicated stamping, with rectilinear (68%) to curvilinear (32%) frequency ratios remaining about the same as for Rembert. Patterns include concentric circles, figure 9, simple stamped and line blocks. Lamar Incised increases dramatically, with concentric circles, ovals, and line-filled triangle patterns in more lines, closer together. Folded, pinched rims occur exclusively as jar decorations. Multiple stage square structures occupied the first four mound stages, with central hearths and large corner posts, but without entry passageways.

Though Tugalo mound (9St1) itself was so heavily disturbed that there was no Tugalo phase construction remaining, the "Lamar dump" on the side held thousands of Tugalo phase sherds, suggesting construction during that period had been removed. (Duncan 1985; Anderson et al. 1986). Williams and Branch (1978) reported a radiocarbon date of 1480 ± 65 from the lower portion of the "Lamar Dump" at Tugalo.

In addition to the three primary mound sites of this phase in the Tugalo Valley, the sites at Dillard (9Ra3), Nacoochee (9Wh3), and Eastwood (9Wh2) also seem to be contemporaneous, based on published descriptions and ceramic illustrations (Hally and Rudolph 1986).

Dillard (9Ra3, also called Greenwood) Mound, while initially built during early Etowah, was augmented during early Tugalo, and possibly com-

pleted by 18th century Cherokees. Test excavations in 1987 by David Hally and Marshall Williams indicated Lamar Incision, complicated stamping, and folded, pinched rims. The rim width measurements ranged from 17.9 mm to 19.9 mm, suggesting Late Lamar occupation. Hally feels ceramic traits indicate Dillard mound was built during early Tugalo phase, about A.D. 1500, a bit earlier than Barnett at Carters Lake (Hally, Pers. Comm. 1989).

Barron site (9Ra88), a non-mound site above the Little Tennessee River south of Dillard, has large amounts of Lamar Incised pottery, and wide, notched rims, found in two surface surveys. This combination would place it in Tugalo phase, and probably contemporary with Dillard Mound.

The Middle Lamar sites in the Blue Ridge core and ecotone areas are listed in Tables 12 and 13, and shown in Figure 11.

Table 12: Blue Ridge Middle Lamar Sites

9Pi3, Tate, Long Swamp C.	9To36, Mill C.
9Ra3, Dillard, L. Tenn. R.	9To37, Hiwassee R.
9Ra88, Barron, L. Tenn. R.	9To38, Hiwassee R.
9Ra90, Persimmon C. Upland	9To44, Brasstown C.
9To2, Brasstown C.	9To48, Brasstown C.
9To13, Hiwassee R.	9To49, Brasstown C.
9To17, Hiwassee R.	9Un2, Nottely R.
9To18, Hiwassee R.	9Wh29, Dukes C.

Clusters of Blue Ridge Middle Lamar sites include (a) Dillard and Barron, which indicate there are probably others in that portion of the Upper Little Tennessee River valley, and (b) the four in Brasstown Creek, possibly centered on the mound which might (or might not) have been at site 9To44. Site 9Wh29 on Dukes Creek probably was an outlier of the Nacoochee Valley complex, focused on Nacoochee and Eastwood mounds (Table 13). There are many more Middle Lamar Sites in the periphery areas (Table 13, Figure 11) than in the core. Again they are concentrated in the Nacoochee Valley.

Table 13: Ecotone Area Middle Lamar Sites

9Hm1, Nacoochee V.	9Wh13, Sautee C.
9Mu102, Little Egypt	9Wh16, Sautee C.
9Mu103, Potts' Tract	9Wh17, Nacoochee V.
9Pi118, Talking Rock	9Wh18, Nacoochee V.
9St1, Tugalo	9Wh19, Sautee C.
9St3, Estatoe	9Wh22, L. Tesnatee C.
9St6, Togaloo V.	9Wh24, Chickamauga C.
38Oc47, Chauga	9Wh25, Nacoochee V.
9Wh2, Eastwood	9Wh26, Chickamauga C.
9Wh3, Nacoochee V.	9Wh27, Nacoochee V.
9Wh5, Lumsden, Sautee C.	9Wh28, Nacoochee V.
9Wh6, Nacoochee V.	9Wh37, Nacoochee V.
9Wh8, Nacoochee V.	9Wh61, Nacoochee V.
9Wh9, York C.	9Wh62, Nacoochee V.

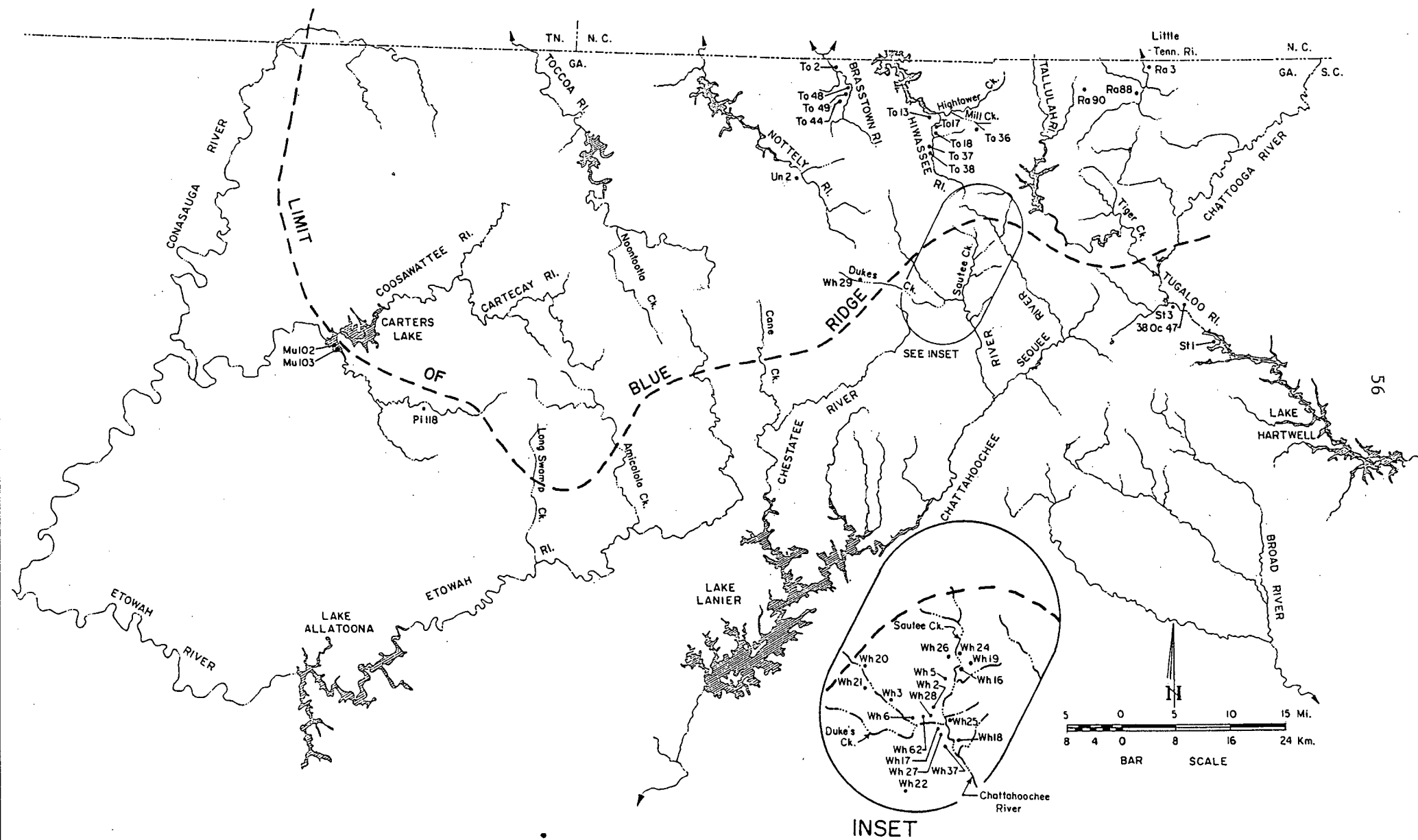


Figure 11: Middle Lamar Sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

Clusters noted in Figure 11 include: (a) Carters Lake Sites (9Mu102 and 9Mu103), (b) Tugaloo River sites ((St1, 9St3, and 9St6, a non-mound site between the two mounds), and (c) the Sautee-Nacoochee Valley sites (9Wh2--9Wh19, and 9Wh24--9Wh62). Hally and Rudolph (1986) suggest that the Tugaloo phase might be extended to include the sites in White County (Nacoochee Valley). Given the large numbers of them, and the fact that they occupy a totally different drainage, this currently seems unlikely.

What may be more likely is the presence of a separate Nacoochee phase, representing a distinct socio-political entity in the Nacoochee Valley. This could represent a rather large chiefdom which was not visited by the Spanish explorers, and for which we have no contemporary reports. If this is the case, it is particularly ironic, because one of the major goals of their quest in the southeast was to find a gold source, and this was the site of the the first American gold rush, beginning in 1820, some 320 years after the DeSoto expedition. Since the Indians did not use the metal, they professed no knowledge of its presence in the valley, so their neighbors and trading partners would not know about it either. Thus, the Piedmont peoples could not have told the Spanish about a gold source in the Nacoochee chiefdom and resources they were unaware they had.

Some Lamar phase mound and non-mound complexes in Piedmont and Ridge and Valley areas are interpreted as representing Sixteenth Century aboriginal political entities, as visited and described by the DeSoto and DeLuna expeditions. They are understood to be operating on the chiefdom level of socio-cultural organization, based on territory, construction, and sociological complexity seen in burial data. In some cases there appear to have been subordinate and paramount chiefdoms indicated in the early explorers' descriptions. At present, the following appear to be correlated:

COOSA PROVINCE: Barnett phase sites of the Coosawattee - Carters Lake and upper Coosa River area (Little Egypt, Potts' Tract, Thompson, Mammon, and King sites)

OCUTE PROVINCE: Dyar phase sites of the middle Oconee River (Dyar, Scull Shoals, Shoulderbone, Shinholser, and Little River sites).

ICHISI PROVINCE: Lamar, Stubbs and Bullards mound sites, middle Ocmulgee River (Macon area).

With those "Provinces" approaching being understood, there seems to be no reason not to expect other chiefdoms in areas the Spanish explorers did not describe, in the Blue Ridge and elsewhere (Figure 11, Tables 12 and 13), such as:

TUGALOO phase mound and village centers in the Tugaloo River: Tugaloo, Estatoe, Chauga and Tugaloo village (9St6).

NACOOCHEE Valley mound and non-mound sites (at least 20, possibly more) in the upper Chattahoochee, Sautee, Chickamauga, and Soquee valleys.

RABUN GAP Valley complex: Dillard (Greenwood) Mound, Barron, Hoojah Branch, and 9Ra31 sites in the upper Little Tennessee drainage. These may be related to Qualla mound complexes in southwestern North Carolina.

BRASSTOWN Valley complex, perhaps centered on the possible mound at 9To44 (however, see Simpkins' review comments in the Appendix). Whether or not this is a viable complex, the sites may be related to Qualla mound sites in North Carolina.

Late Lamar Period, A.D. 1540 - 1800

The Late Lamar period will be treated in another volume on the post-contact Native American cultures of northern Georgia, but because of the gradual transition from one to the other, and the fact that in earlier literature, only the Early/Late dichotomy is presented, a short discussion seems warranted here. It is represented by several phases as now understood in the surrounding ecotones.

Because it represents such a long time block, Late Lamar will doubtless need to be broken down into short-term phases in different areas. Presently we see only three. They are the Bell phase in the middle Oconee River around A.D. 1600 (M. Smith 1981, M. Williams 1984), Ocmulgee Fields phase around A.D. 1700 in the Macon area of the middle Ocmulgee River (Hally and Rudolph 1986), and Estatoe phase in the upper Savannah/Tugaloo River area also about 1700 (Anderson et al. 1986). From the Appalachian Summit area of western North Carolina a "Qualla phase" may also be appropriate here. However, lack of tighter definition of what Qualla is and when it is, makes it less useful in this context. It is likely that there is a relationship between the Qualla culture of the Appalachian Summit and the cultures of the "north slope" drainages in the Georgia Blue Ridge which will prove important to our understanding of either or both of them.

Estatoe Phase

The Estatoe phase is now understood to be a 17th-Century (Late Lamar) occupation in the upper Savannah/Tugaloo River area. Hally (1986) has described the phase based on the Estatoe, Tugalo, and Chauga sites.

The 18th Century Estatoe phase material from these sites contain primarily curvilinear complicated stamped ware, with a minority of incised ware (3-5.0%), and 8-14% plain ware. Incised patterns include superimposed brackets and line-filled triangles, with some concentric circles, semicircles and ovals, with punctuation in some cases. The complicated stamping has wide lands and grooves in large motifs, with over stamping common. Straight-line motifs are twice as frequent as curvilinear ones, including parallel lines Hally (1986:103) calls simple stamped. Concentric crosses, blocks of parallel lines, concentric squares or rectangular spirals are important, as are herringbone and panels of horizontal lines, reminiscent of the Pisgah stamps. Three recognizable jar forms and three bowl forms are recorded, with rolled, L-shaped, filleted, and folded rims, which may be either pinched or punctated.

CHAPTER V

RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

This chapter provides a list of known Mississippi period sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge and immediate peripheries, their characteristics, and evaluation of conditions and significance. It suggests research questions to produce data on human adaptation in the mountains during the last pre-historic phases. Lastly conditions affecting sites, and recommendations for preservation and enhancement of significant resources are presented.

The Cultural Resources

Eighty-six Mississippi period sites have been identified within or adjacent to the Blue Ridge (Figure 12 and Table 14). All but eight were in river basins, with those few on ridgetops, bluffs or small high-altitude coves, away from floodplains.

In the Blue Ridge and surrounding ecotones, we notice that half the sites discussed are in the "core" area, and the other half in the ecotones. Most of the discussion which follows focuses on Blue Ridge sites, with less concern to the ecotone sites. They are actually in other physiographic zones, and thus treated elsewhere.

In some cases, specific locational data was unclear or not available, and thus they were not discussed in the preceding chapters, nor were they placed on the maps (Figures 7-12). They are presented here (Table 14) in the interest of completeness, and in hopes that they may be revisited and recorded more in more detail, so their data might not be lost forever.

Eight of the sites in the Blue Ridge database, or about 9%, are in upland locations. The remainder are either in the floodplains or on low terraces or ridges close to the floodplains, and thus directly associated with the farmable and flood renewed bottomland soils. The floodplains are the expectable locations for Mississippian culture sites. Upland Mississippi period sites are relatively little known in the state, and represent a category which should be carefully sought, preserved, and industriously investigated.

Thus far, most effort has been expended on small upland Lamar sites in the Oconee basin. There, six or seven upland Lamar hamlets or farmsteads have been investigated, but none have been reported in print. In each case, one or more circular houses, with burials and trash pits were identified. These were presumably outliers to the major cultural centers represented by one or more mounds in the floodplains.

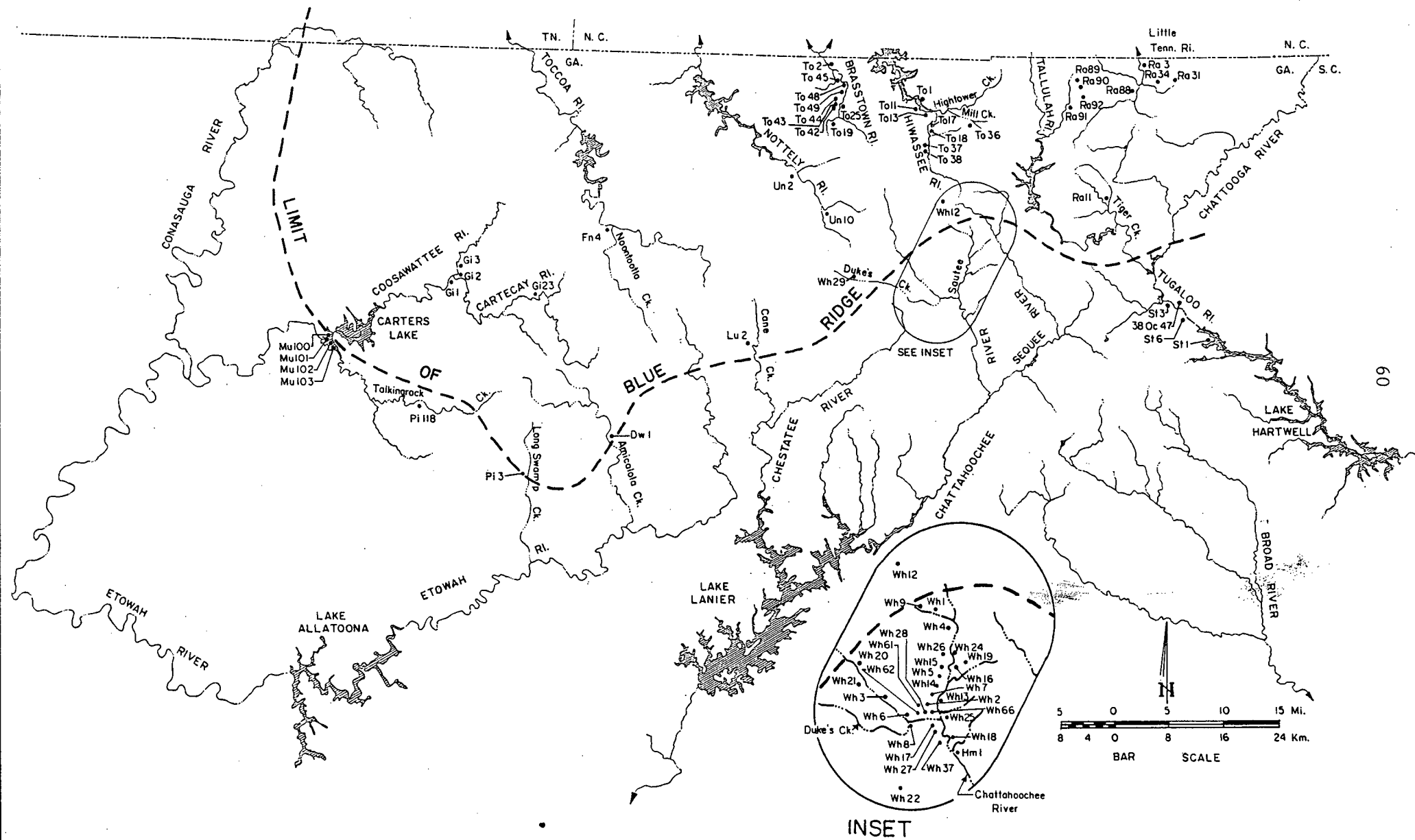


Figure 12: Mississippi Period Sites in the Blue Ridge and Ecotone Areas

TABLE 14
 MISSISSIPPI PERIOD SITES IN THE
 GEORGIA BLUE RIDGE AND ADJACENT ECOTONE AREAS

BLUE RIDGE CORE AREA

Number	Drainage	Components	Condition
9Dw1	Amicalola C.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Unknown
9Fn4	Noontootla C.	Woodstock, E. Etowah	Flood disturbed
9Fn34	Fightingtown C.	Etowah	Destroyed
9Gi1	Cartecay	E. Lamar	Industrial site
9Gi2	"	E. Lamar	Industrial site
9Gi3	"	E. Lamar	Industrial site
9Gi23	Cartecay	Woodstock	Unknown
9Gi28	Town Creek	Mississippian	Unknown
9Lu2	Cane Creek	Early Etowah (Upland)	Unknown
9Pi3	Long Swamp C.	Woodstock, Etowah, Savannah, Lamar	Unknown
9Ra3	Little Tenn.	E. Etowah, E. Lamar/Tugalo	Cultivated
9Ra11	Tiger Creek	Mississippian	Cultivated
9Ra31	Thomas C.	Etowah/Pisgah (Upland)	Forested
9Ra34	Hoojah Br.	E. Etowah (Upland)	Cultivated
9Ra88	Little Tenn.	M. Lamar/Tugalo	Cultivated
9Ra89	Persimmon C.	E. Lamar, Upland	Forested
9Ra90	Persimmon C.	M. Lamar, Upland	Forested
9Ra91	Persimmon C.	E. Lamar, Upland	Forested
9Ra92	Persimmon C.	E. Lamar, Upland	Forested
9To1	Hiwassee R.	Etowah, Lamar	Poss. Flooded
9To2	Brasstown C.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Unknown
9To11	Hiwassee R.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Flooded
9To13	Hiwassee R.	Etowah and Lamar	Flooded
9To16	Hiwassee R.	Lamar	Flooded
9To17	Hiwassee R.	Lamar	Cultivated
9To18	Hiwassee R.	Lamar	Cultivated
9To19	Brasstown C.	Woodstock, Etowah	Cultivated
9To24	Brasstown C.	Lamar, poss Cherokee	Cultivated
9To25	Brasstown C.	Etowah	Water Plant
9To36	Mill Cr.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9To37	Hiwassee R.	Lamar	Cultivated
9To38	Hiwassee R.	Lamar	Cultivated
9To42	Brasstown C.	Lamar	Cultivated
9To43	Brasstown C.	Woodstock, Etowah	Cultivated
9To44	Brasstown C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9To45	Brasstown C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9To48	Brasstown C.	Etowah, Savannah, Lamar	Cultivated
9To49	Brasstown C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated

TABLE 14 (Continued)

Number	Drainage	Components	Condition
9Un2	Nottely R.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Un10	Nottely R.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar (Upland)	Cultivated
9Un30	Nottely R.	Mississippian	Cultivated
9Un31	Nottely R.	Etowah	Lake Flooded
9Wh12	Indian Gr. Gap	Lamar (Upland)	Roads, Camping
9Wh29	Duke's Creek	Woodstock, Etowah, Savannah, Lamar	Unknown
Total: 45			
=====			
PERIPHERY OR ECOTONE AREAS			
9Dw3	Etowah/Palmer	Etowah, Lamar	Heavily eroded
9Hm1	Nacoochee V.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Hm2	Soquee	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Hm3	Soquee	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Hm4	Unknown	Woodstock, Etowah	Unknown
9Mu100	Coosawattee	Etowah, Lamar mound	Flooded
9Mu101	Coosawattee	E. Lamar, Savannah, md	Flooded
9Mu102	Coosawattee	Woodstock, E-M Lamar md	Flooded
9Mu103	Coosawattee	Woodstock, Barnett	Flooded
9Pi118	Talking Rock	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Disturbed
9St1	Tugaloo R.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Lake Hartwell
9St3	Tugaloo R.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Lake Hartwell
9St6	Tugaloo R.	Etowah, Lamar	Lake Hartwell
380c47	Tugaloo R.	Etowah, Savannah, Lamar	Lake Hartwell
9Wh1	Chickamauga C.	Lamar	Unknown
9Wh2	Nacoochee V.	Woodstk, Etowah, Lamar Md.	Pasture
9Wh3	Nacoochee V.	Woodstk, Etowah, Lamar Md.	Pasture
9Wh4	Sautee C.	Etowah, Lamar	Road
9Wh5	Sautee C.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Pasture
9Wh6	Nacoochee V.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Pasture
9Wh7	Sautee C.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh8	Nacoochee V.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh13	Sautee C.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh14	Sautee C.	Woodstock, Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh15	Sautee C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh16	Sautee C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh17	Nacoochee V.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh18	Nacoochee V.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh19	Sautee C.	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh20	Nacoochee V.	Woodstock, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh21	Nacoochee V.	Lamar	Cultivated

TABLE 14 (Continued)

Number	Drainage	Characteristics	Condition
9Wh22	L. Tesnatee	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh24	Chackamauga C.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh25	Nacoochee V.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh26	Chickamauga C.	Woodstock, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh27	Nacoochee V.	Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh28	Nacoochee V.	Lamar Mound Village	Pasture
9Wh30	Tesnatee Cr	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh37	Chattahoochee	Etowah, Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh47	Chickamauga C.	M. Lamar	Forested
9Wh61	Nacoochee V.	E. Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh62	Nacoochee V.	L. Lamar	Cultivated
9Wh66	Nacoochee V.	E. Etowah, E. Lamar	Cultivated

Notes: "Nacoochee V." indicates the Sautee-Nacoochee Valley of the upper Chattahoochee River.
 Mill Creek is a tributary of Hightower Creek, tributary of the Hiwassee River.
 Chickamauga Creek is a tributary of Sautee Creek in the upper Sautee-Nacoochee Valley.

Upland Sites

Sites in the core area include eight upland sites: 9Lu2, 9Ra31, 9Ra34, 9Ra89, 9Ra90, 9Ra91, 9Ra92, and 9Wh12, located near stream heads, in small valleys, and known only from surface or shovel test collections, often with contents, setting, location, time or functions inadequately reported. The sites' collections amount to a few stamped sherds, occasionally with incision. Indian Grave Gap site (9Wh12) has probably been destroyed by road intersections, a borrow pit, and heavy camping in that gap. The Hoojah Branch site (9Ra34), located on a toeslope, was tested in more detail, but even then only enough to indicate its significance in National Register criteria.

Site 9Un10 is on an upland ridgetop field above the Nottely River. It was occupied during Woodstock, Etowah and Middle Lamar times, and has had only surface collections analyzed. Even so, it may be the best-studied of the upland Mississippi sites in the Blue Ridge. It continues to be plowed and planted each year as part of University of Georgia's Agricultural Experiment Station.

More detailed investigation is needed on this important site category, including systematic sampling of each site. If the site warrants, more intensive operations should be undertaken. From the recovered data, perhaps predictive models could be designed to indicate where additional sites of the various time periods represented may be found.

Why should these often tiny, isolated sites receive more attention? They are few in number, and in unusual locations during this time period. Further, they may provide data on their functions, occupation phases, relationships to the bottomland sites. There are at least two general types of upland sites, gap sites and upland valley sites.

The first are small probable campsites in the gaps or saddles between larger valleys. They are on high ridges, usually far from major water supplies, but may be located close to unrecorded springs. The second kind are probable upland farmstead-type sites (analogous to known Lamar upland sites in the Oconee drainage). These sites are above the floodplain, on prominent low ridges, bluffs or knolls, well away from the major streams. They can tell us about economic, social, political and religious activities away from the major (often fortified) valley-bottom ceremonial centers. Inhabitants of both site types may also be monitoring, hunting, fishing or collecting upland resources, providing valuable support to the valley center populations or advance warning of attacking forces.

Floodplain sites

The remainder of Blue Ridge sites are located either on floodplains of the major streams or their tributaries, or on small terraces or ridges near floodplains. Ledbetter, et al. (1987) make a distinction in the Allatoona Reservoir between floodplains and these adjacent slightly elevated lands. At present, there are not enough sites to make reasonable predictions on time, intensity, function, or significance of this distinction in the Blue Ridge, primarily due to the lack of detailed surveys.

Floodplain sites may provide answers to many questions asked of the upland sites, namely how they relate to major centers, in economic, social, political, and military terms. These are concerns both to prehistoric occupants and to current inhabitants of the floodplains. If we can determine how past human actions affected the environment so strongly as to render an area uninhabitable or unproductive, perhaps we can avoid doing the same, or benefit from their experience.

Mound sites

Mound sites in the Blue Ridge are rare today. Dillard (9Ra3), may be the only one remaining. It is on the Little Tennessee, and is probably related to the Pisgah and Qualla mounds in the upper Little Tennessee valley in North Carolina: Coweeta Creek (31Ma34), (31Ma21), Nuquassee (31Ma1), and Cowee (31Ma5). Based on test excavations by Hally and Williams in 1987, it dates from Early Etowah and Middle and Late Lamar (David Hally, 1989, pers. comm.).

Additional Pisgah and Qualla mound sites are reported for the Hiwasee River in North Carolina: Shooting Creek, Spikebuck Town (31Cy1), Peachtree (31Ce1), and perhaps Notla (31Ce5), on Brasstown Creek, just north of the cluster in the Young Harris Valley in Georgia (lists from David Moore's notes, 2/15/87; also see his comments in the Appendix).

One site in the Brasstown Valley, 9To48, was thought to have been a mound, plowed down long ago. Recent work there by Dan Simpkins tends to suggest otherwise, however. Surface collections of artifacts, primarily decorated pottery, from there held by local collectors are impressive. Local reports indicate there was a mound in that vicinity, though they may be misleading. Site 9To48 appears to date from Early Etowah, Early, Middle and perhaps Late Lamar (Dan Simpkins, 1989, pers. comm.; see also his comments in the Appendix).

The mound sites are interpreted as ceremonial, religious, political and military centers. There the concentration of both common and exotic goods indicate social stratification within the society, and the economic strengths of society as a whole. Past research has concentrated on the mounds themselves; additional study is needed of the village area surrounding the mound also. These were probably not large population centers. Indications from elsewhere in the state are that support populations lived in the surrounding territories. Thus mound centers cannot be completely understood by themselves, without study of the outlying villages, hamlets, and farmsteads.

Lack of intensive survey and site recording in so many alluvial valleys in the Blue Ridge hampers more complete description of both mound and non-mound sites. There may be additional mound sites in this area, but they have yet to come to the attention of serious archaeologists.

Non-mound Sites

There is every reason to believe, based on historic contact descriptions, that some major prehistoric political centers did not have mounds. It is likely that these would have outlying villages or hamlets as did the mound centers. They may also have occurred in clusters, as we see in some valleys.

The same problem of insufficient survey applies to the non-mound clusters. We have recorded clusters: (a) in the Brasstown Valley (possibly focusing on 9To48) above Young Harris, (b) two or three small clusters in the Hiwassee River valley above the city of Hiwassee, and (c) three sites at the Ellijay-Cartecay confluence, forming the Coosawattee River.

The testing project at the single recorded site (9Fn4) at Dial (Wynn, in preparation) on the upper Toccoa River produced suggestions of a cluster in that area. Local informants indicated two or three more sites exist in bottomlands of the Toccoa River and Noontootla Creek, but these have yet to be formally recorded. Likewise, the single Hicks Site (9Ra11) in Tiger Creek Valley is on the edge of a larger floodplain which undoubtedly contains additional unrecorded sites. This broad mountain valley is part of the Tallulah-Savannah complex.

No Mississippi period sites are recorded for the lower Toccoa River north of Lake Blue Ridge, or the Nottely River bottoms below Nottely Dam. Neither have locally-known sites in Lake Nottely been properly recorded. One large unrecorded site within the lake bed (periodically left bare by lowered lake levels) was devastatingly looted over the years.

In addition to the mound site clusters, that is, mounds with associated non-mound sites presumably forming socio-political units, there is a category of isolated hamlet or farmstead, located well out from the larger mound (or non-mound) centers. Hoojah Branch may be an example of that category, perhaps related to the Dillard mound. Sites 9Ra89, 9Ra90, 9Ra91, and 9Ra92 appear to be isolated units, possibly without foci in the larger valley. Since the Tallulah River valley was flooded in 1908, without known sites recorded, we have no way of knowing if there were mounds or village sites in the Lake Burton bottoms.

Other types of sites, such as hunting and gathering camps, fishwiers, quarries, etc., do not appear in the files, either. Surveys of mountain lands by USDA Forest Service found only a few tiny upland scatters; nothing like the numbers of upland sites expectable to support larger valley populations. Since we depend heavily upon pottery of recognizable decorative patterns to identify Mississippian sites, we may not be properly identifying quarries, hunting, fishing, collecting camps, if pottery was never used there. Additional effort needs to be expended to identify stone tool types belonging to Mississippian sites, so those on ridges or upland areas without pottery can be properly dated and accounted for.

Original Site Density

The overview results have been enlightening. Whereas the Georgia Blue Ridge has been thought of as a relatively uninhabited area during the Mississippi period, there were several clusters of sites, not all occupied at the same times, during this period. Thus we are not looking at an "empty quarter" during the final pre-contact phases. The lack of data on the Blue Ridge in the State Site Files is now obviously a function of lack of surveys rather than the lack of populations living there.

An earlier analysis of the temporal distribution of Mississippi period sites in the Blue Ridge and these ecotones (Wynn 1989) indicated that about 28 percent were occupied during Woodstock times, 49 percent during Etowah, only 0.8 percent during Savannah times, and an overwhelming 93 percent by Lamar peoples.

Maps used here were grossly simplified for ease of presentation, locating mostly those major streams which contain recorded sites. In fact, a scan of 43 USGS quadrangle sheets showed at several streams with floodplains, in each of them. A cursory glance at the quadrangle maps at the State Site Files showed most valleys have no known sites in them.

These bottomlands have been farmed for at least 150 years, many for centuries longer. Agricultural disturbance is a fact of life in Georgia, and nearly every site has had some of it. However, we know from experience that shallow plowing done before the mid-20th Century did relatively little damage to subsurface features. Fortunately, it appears that deep chisel plowing has not been widespread in mountain valleys. Many upland fields have been out of cultivation for 30-50 years, now supporting trees or pasture. In fact, the percentage of pastureland converted to row crops rises in the mountains, as it is in much of the Piedmont.

Original density of prehistoric sites in the Blue Ridge is extremely difficult to determine, for two important reasons. First, there was almost no survey, and very little site recording in the vast majority of the mountain province until 1976. Two segments, floodplains and uplands, require detailed, carefully executed surveys to determine what is missing from the database, and which sites most urgently need investigation. Next, many major floodplain areas are under water, and inaccessible. The Tennessee Valley Authority Lakes Blue Ridge, Nottely, and Chatugue, and Georgia Power Company Lakes Burton, Seed, and Rabun account for much bottomland. Most were built before modern archaeological recording was begun.

The density of sites in the few surveyed valleys suggest that there should be at least one cultural center in each major valley, with 5-15 outlying sites of the same time period along floodplains up and down stream. In the Ridge and Valley and the Piedmont, Hally noted clusters with 10-20 km diameters (or lengths along the river basins). In the Blue Ridge, clusters may be smaller, in the smaller floodplains available. For example, in the Nacoochee Valley ecotone, probable seat of a series of chiefdoms, at least two mounds and 27 Mississippi period sites are all situated within a 4 km radius.

Blue Ridge cultural centers may or may not be mound sites, but should be fairly large sites or complexes of sites near the confluences of major streams, and at shoals or breaks in the topography which would provide multiple resources to be exploited with minimum travel.

The upland sites are so poorly known that it may be difficult, without additional surveys, to predict where they might be found. We have examples of those just barely out of the floodplains as well as some high-altitude isolated camps, possibly for hunting, gathering or quarry purposes. The Allatoona survey data (Ledbetter et al. 1987) indicated that site locations contemporary with major centers may vary considerably from one time period to another.

Site Preservation States

Within the Blue Ridge, we are aware of at least one mound site, Dillard or Greenwood mound (9Ra3) which is still in relatively good condition, despite excavations by Colburn (1936) and several others who did not record their efforts. The site has a large dip (presumably a looter's trench, now washed in) on the southwest side, for which we have no data. It continues to be plowed and pastured from time to time.

Site 9To48 in Brasstown Creek is known as a mound only from hearsay, the field having been plowed intensively for generations. The increase of site vandalism in the past few years, due in part to the rise in sale value of prehistoric artifacts, may quickly bring the remainder of both known and unknown sites under the looters' shovels and backhoes.

The remainder of known non-mound sites have all been plowed for several generations, and are coming increasingly under threats from construction and commercial development as the dramatic 1980s population increases continue in the Blue Ridge.

Research Questions on the Blue Ridge Mississippian

This and the following sections are so similar to those in the Piedmont and Ridge and Valley volumes that credit must be given to Hally and Rudolph (1986) and Hally and Langford (1988) in advance. Basic to research in Georgia in the Mississippi period are many of the same questions, seeking the same or similar answers, couched in the environments of higher altitudes and narrower valleys, with the addition of greater diversity and extent of slope and upland resources.

The Mississippian adaptive patterns appear to remain the same here as in the adjacent zones. The large, stratified horticultural societies were based in the farmable floodplains, and situated at points where multiple resource exploitation was facilitated. The primary food source was the maize-beans-squash trio, planted in the fertile valleys, augmented by local nuts, berries, and other non-domesticated plants, with deer, turkey and fish providing meat proteins from the surrounding areas.

With heavy dependancy on horticulture, villages were fairly stable, with mound centers as foci of multiple village complexes, directed or led by probably hereditary chiefs. Households were situated around plazas near the mounds, or in non-mound towns, near principal assembly structures. Family residences would have had round winter houses, well daubed with mud to maintain heat in winter, and open-sided shelters for summer. The latter may have been less necessary in the mountains than the Piedmont. They have often been more difficult to define archaeologically.

Based on examples from the adjacent zones, there were probably strong polities situated in at least several of the major valleys, for example, Rabun Gap Valley, Brasstown Creek, Hiwassee, Nottely, and Toccoa River valleys probably all had such socio-political or cultural centers in them. They would have occupied at most a single valley, or perhaps several smaller ones in a single drainage. In the Ridge and Valley, they were spread over 10-20 km stretches of river, and the same would probably apply here, with smaller (3-5 km) territories. Buffer zones would be more than amply provided by the ridges which so obviously separate the basins.

Williams (1988) and Williams and Shapiro (1990) noted in the Piedmont middle Oconee Valley that major sites appeared to hold leadership, and thus population and mound construction phases, by turns, alternating between mound centers at 50-60 year intervals. This was the Twin Towns concept. We also noted here that there were fluctuations in sites that were occupied during different phases in the Nacoochee Valley clusters. This fluctuation was also seen in Brasstown Creek, and possibly the Hiwassee River valley.

There is no reason not to expect a similar phenomenon in other Blue Ridge valleys, once they have been recorded and investigated. Presently there is very little data to suggest the nature of inter-polity or inter-valley relationships, but they could certainly vary between open hostility and conviviality, probably with some sort of leadership hierarchies between them which also fluctuated with time.

The Mississippi period sites have received more attention than most others combined in Georgia, perhaps because of the attraction of the large

sites with massive earth architecture, elaborate and exotic grave goods, and the large numbers of sites with ubiquitous pottery. This attention through the years has been both good and bad. With the dwindling resources, careful attention to survey planning and detailed, well-reported surveys are absolutely essential to the preservation of these important cultural resources in the state of Georgia.

Ceramic chronologies remain the backbone of archaeological research questions, as they provide the time scaffolding on which everything else is hung, and thereby related, one bit of data to the next. We need a continuing effort to provide stratigraphic excavations with temporal controls, to better define decorative style changes, both in time and space.

Great strides have been made in defining ever smaller time segments in the Lamar period, due to the efforts of David Hally, Mark Williams, Marvin Smith, Jim Rudolph, and their colleagues. Nuances of rim decoration and width, incising patterns, and the like should be duplicated in stamped patterns, or perhaps surface treatments or tempering variations which can direct us to temporal or spatial phase differences.

Specific questions have been posed in several of the earlier sections, relating to specific time periods, but additional ones on chronologies and phases are provided here.

Why do we have such an intensive series of occupations during the Etowah phases, and relatively fewer in the preceeding Woodstock? Is this indicative of increased dependence on agriculture, population increases, aggregations of smaller sites, or population migrations from other areas?

Why are there so few identifiable Savannah culture sites in the Blue Ridge, when they are so prevalent in adjacent areas? Is this a function of ceramic identification, or were the mountain valleys we have data from simply not occupied during that century and a half? If not, why not?

What are the relationships between the Pisgah and Etowah ceramics and between Qualla and Lamar? Are they the same things, with variations, either temporally or spacially, or both?

Systematic sampling surveys, detailed testing and intensive excavation of stratified, or at least definitely datable, sites is needed to answer these questions, and many others. Stratified site excavations will best provide the temporal relationships between ceramic types.

The discussions above about the operations of subsistence, economy, technology, and socio-political organization in the Blue Ridge Mississippian cultures are drawn mostly from adjacent areas. Lack of intensive excavations in the mountains denies us the data to understand how these aspects of prehistoric mountain life functioned. Questions about subsistence needing research include, but are not limited to, the following.

What was the transition process from local food plants and the maize-beans-squash dependency, and when, specifically, did it occur? Is this an integral part of Woodstock expansion?

Wilhelm (1978) showed that the white occupants of the Virginia Blue Ridge settled first in the lower valleys in the 19th Century. Their descendants then moved uphill into the coves as the population increased, so that the latest generations got the highest slopes of the coves. Did this same pattern occur with prehistoric peoples? What evidence do we have to support that idea? Did their use of the uplands vary through time, and if so, how did it do so?

Were there significant differences in food or other resources utilized by inhabitants of each valley? What sort of exchanges might have occurred between valleys, or between the Blue Ridge and adjacent ecotone valleys?

Most of the populations seemed to be settled in the valleys, based on the number of sites now known in them. What were the relationships between valley and upland sites, both in gaps and lower uplands? What part or portion of the population lived in the uplands?

Were upland sites year-round occupations, or only seasonal resource gathering places (hunting, fishing, collecting camps)? What seasons were they used? Where did those people live the rest of the year?

Are there classes of Mississippi period sites which do not usually contain pottery or other diagnostic Mississippian artifacts, and how would we identify them?

In other zones, Mississippian centers were fortified. Were the Blue Ridge Centers also thus protected? If so, how? During which periods were these indications of warfare necessary? In what locations were fortifications located? Are the scattered rock walls, stone cairns and circles on hilltops in the mountains and adjacent ecotones (previously unidentified as to time period) parts of that protection during these periods?

Were the populations of some valleys greater than others, and why? Which valleys were the more favored? Are there time differences in this element?

What are the functional distinctions between sites? We can identify mound and non-mound sites, floodplain, terrace and ridge sites, and upland (high-altitude) campsites by form and location. What were their functions in these locations?

The combination of archaeological and ethnohistorical research produced evidence of several socio-political provinces in the southeast, particularly where the early Spanish explorers visited or had contacts. Since they did not visit the Georgia Blue Ridge, we lack names or descriptions of such polities here. The archaeological evidence is strong that there was at least one large pre-contact polity in the Nacoochee Valley, south of the Blue Ridge. Archaeological site clusters in the upper Little Tennessee (Rabun Gap), Hiwassee, Brasstown, Nottely, and Toccoa river valleys indicate strongly that there probably were others.

What combinations of factors would support polities in these valleys? What would those polities look like, archaeologically? How do they resemble the Piedmont or Ridge and Valley chiefdoms?

Did these polities go through the pulsing of power, construction, population growth, etc., that we see elsewhere? How did they relate to each other; for example, do we see the Twin Towns system here?

Were the Nacoochee Valley communities related to those in the Tugaloo Valley, as Hally and Rudolph (1986) suggest? Was there a wider, multi-valley polity which encompassed these sites and those farther upstream in the mountains?

Did Nacoochee valley polities exercise suzerainty over mountain valleys and their polities? If so, what form would that control have, and how would it be shown archaeologically?

What relationships did the Blue Ridge polities have with the documented 16th Century polities nearby, Coosa and Ocute?

What relationships existed between the Georgia Blue Ridge sites and those in the adjacent north slope valleys in Tennessee and North Carolina: the Appalachian Summit?

What relationships were there between: (a) the "North Slope" basins of the Little Tennessee, Hiwassee, Brasstown, Nottely, and Toccoa; and (b) the "South Slope" basins of Cooswattee-Ellijay, Cartecay-Talking Rock, Etowah, Chestatee, Chattahoochee-Sautee-Soquee, Chattooga, Tallulah, Tiger, and Tugaloo rivers?

Resource Significance

Significance is a thorny subject at best, but one which is vital to the study, and more importantly, the protection afforded to sites under present Federal cultural resources protection laws. Sites have a legal definition of significance, based on their potential to provide additional data on the history and prehistory of the area, as defined in National Register of Historic Places criteria, 36 CFR 60 and 36 CFR 800.

In many senses, every Mississippi period site in the Blue Ridge is significant, because each one has some potential, however small, to contain data important to prehistory. From a practical research and preservation standpoint, however, significance relates to the (a) condition, (b) rarity, and (c) type of the site in question.

A small site which has been heavily disturbed by plowing or bulldozer activity, and which shows only a thin scatter of artifacts, without subsurface features, is in very poor condition, and would be unlikely to produce much additional research data beyond settlement location, unless temporally diagnostic items were found which could suggest site phase and function.

This type of site (a small isolated surface scatter) also tends to be the most frequently, which would give us some choice in preserving and studying it. The greater number available, the more likelihood of having a representative sample which is in good condition (or at least better than the above description), and thus able to provide additional data. On the other hand, a mound site or non-mound site with large area or stratified

deposits has much greater potential for providing data on a wider range of human activities at that location, over a longer time period. Thus it would be of greater significance than the smaller, short-term occupation.

Mound sites can provide data on engineering, construction, political organization, social stratification, health and disease mortality (particularly through burial data), architecture of both residential and public structures, inter-polity relations, fortification if present, long-term effects of occupation, long and short-distance exchange systems, subsistence economy, and religious systems. Similar data can be expected at other large (wide-spread or deeply stratified) sites without mounds.

There are large numbers of other site types, such as quarries, extracting, hunting, fishing, gathering, and collecting locations which may be represented as short-term or intermittent use campsites, widely scattered on the landscape. They are often in upland locations, well away from major centers. Because they are usually small, they are frequently written off as insignificant. They are, however, important aspects of the economy of their time periods. These have often been ignored, resulting in a distortion of the picture of resource exploitation built from main sites alone. They play important parts in the settlement patterns of their cultures.

Cultural Resources Management

This subject has had a great deal of attention in the past 15-20 years. Activities which have potential to affect the historic and prehistoric resources are many, from road building and logging, to businesses, shopping centers, public use items such as landfills and recreation areas, industrial growth and rapidly expanding retirement and second-home construction which has been so dramatic recently in the Blue Ridge.

In the past, agricultural activities were the primary disturbing element, and most level or near-level spots were farmed to some extent, even high in the mountain coves. Now only a portion of that land is cultivated regularly, with pastureland taking over locations of row crops. The result of the farming, however, is a 12-25 cm deep plow zone in most of the potential site locations, and considerably deeper where deep chiselploving was practiced. The shallow farming, with resultant erosion, produced a thin plow zone over the hopefully undisturbed remains, and in many cases post molds and pit features remain below that.

Archaeological sites, like endangered species, are non-renewable, and thus must be protected from loss through selection of the most potentially productive and preservation of them for future research and public education. The selection should be made on the basis of rarity, research potential and public educational potential.

The least frequent sites, should have highest priority for protection, in the same sense that the rarest of plant or animal species should get the most vigorous protection. The rarest types, and those with lowest frequencies in each type, should receive special attention. Those with highest public education potential, usually mound sites or large-area village sites should also receive early attention, as we have learned that the public

supports financially those things it can understand and appreciate. These major sites can provide the public with a basic education in the values of history and prehistory. They can in turn help protect some of the smaller, less dramatic sites which provide more esoteric data for the third (though certainly not least) category, the research potential.

A coherent study of Georgia Blue Ridge prehistory needs elements of each type of site in each drainage. Thus some representative samples, preferably those in best condition, but at least examples of each category, should be preserved in each of the valleys or drainage systems, including the lower, middle, and upper slopes of the drainages.

Afterword

Well-planned and executed survey, testing and intensive excavation projects are desperately needed to answer the questions posed here, and many more which will arise in the course of each successive project. Equally important is the complete, detailed and timely reporting of the results of each project. An archaeological project is just as destructive of limited cultural resources as the most malicious looter, or the most uninformed or unthinking construction project, if the data retrieved are not carefully and conscientiously analysed and reported, for the education of the succeeding generations.

Public education by each and every working archaeologist is a vital element to the discipline. Only if the public is aware of the values of the prehistoric past will they be willing to provide the legal support and public funding for this important work. Where the public's interests lie, there the money also goes. If the general public, and more specifically, public leaders, have no idea that the context of an artifact is as important as the item itself, whose fault is that?

APPENDIX I

FLOODPLAINS IN THE BLUE RIDGE AREA, BY QUADRANGLE
 SOURCE: USGS/FS 7.5 min Quadrangles

QUADRANGLE	STREAM	QUADRANGLE	STREAM
Amicalola	Amicalola C. L. Amicalola C. Licklog C.	Ellijay	Coosawattee R. Cartecay R. Owltown C.
Beaverdale	Conasauga R. Perry C. Sumac C.	Epworth	Turniptown C. Fightingtown C. Patterson C.
Blairsville	Butternut C. West Gumlog C. Byers C. Ivylog C.	Helen	Higdon C. Chattahoochee R. Sautee R. Chickamauga C.
Blue Ridge	Cherrylog C. Weaver C. Toccoa R. Big C.		Bean C. Mauldin C. Mill C. Brasstown C.
Campbell Mountain	Etowah R. Cane C. Clay C. Bull C.	Hemtop	Dukes C. Freeman C. Jacks R. Wilson C.
Culberson	Mill C. Cutcane C. Nottely R. Owenby C. Dooley C.	Hightower Bald	Tallulah R. Popcorn C. Coleman R. Persimmon C.
	Hempton C.	Lake Burton	Tallulah R. Wildcat C. Moccasin C. Timpson C.
Crandall	Mill C. Holly C.		Acorn C. Jones Br. Bridge C.
Cohutta	Coahulla C. Mills C.		Soquee R. Toccoa R. Hothouse C.
Dahlonega	Chestatee R. Yahoola C. Wards C. Cavenders C. Moose C.	Mineral Bluff	Young Stone C. Cutcane C. Sugar C. Weaver C. Creaseman Br.
Dillard	Little Tenn. R. Betty C. Blacks C. Timpson C. Sardis Br. Persimmon C.		Hempton C. Anderson C. L. Fightingtown C. Kiutuestia C. Mulky C. tribs. Cooper C. Youngcane C.
Dyer Gap	Mountaintown C. L. Mountaintown C. Conasauga C. Harkins C.	Mulky Gap	

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QUADRANGLE -----	STREAM -----	QUADRANGLE -----	STREAM -----
Neels Gap	Cooper C. Chestatee R. Mill C.	Tiger (cont)	Tallulah R. Worley C.
Nimblewill	Nimblewill C. Jones C. Cochrans C. Poverty C. Gap C.	Tugaloo Lake	Tugaloo R. L. Toccoa C. Panther C.
Noontootla	Noontootla C. Toccoa R.	Webb	Mountaintown C. Tails C. Davis C. Conasauga C. Coosawattee R.
Nottely Dam	Nottely R. Conley C. Barnes/IvyLog C. Youngcane C.	Wilscot	Flat C. Toccoa R. Pigeon C. Skeena C. Wilscot C. Star C.
Rainy Mountain	Stekoa C. She C.	Hiawasse	Hiwassee R. Brasstown C. Hog C. Crooked C. Sutton Br. Woodring Br.
Ramhurst	Rock C. Yellow C. Chicken C. Sugar C. Tails C. Wurley C. Wilbanks Br.	Macedonia	Hiwassee R. Hightower C. Bell C. Scataway C. Hall C. Cynth C. Swallow C. Bearmeat C.
Russell Lake	Mineral Spgs Br. M. Fork Broad R. B. Leatherwood C. L. Leatherwood C.		
Satolah	Chattooga R. West Fork Little C. Reed C.		
Suches	Toccoa R. Suches C. Kennedy C. Blackwell C. Davis C. Grizzle C.		
Tenna	Conasauga R. Sumac C. Perry Cr. North Prong		
Tickanetley	Cartecay R. Tickanetley C. Rolston C. Bearden C.		
Tiger	Timpson C. Stekoa C. Tiger C. Stonewall C.		

NOTE: This list is NOT complete; it is a first attempt to find level valleys and provide an alert for areas which may have been inhabited in prehistoric times. There is much repetition as some streams cross more than one quad sheet. There are also several streams with the same name in different places.

REVIEW COMMENTS AND REPLY

COMMENTS

By David G. Moore

North Carolina Office of State Archaeology

Wynn has produced an important addition to Georgia's comprehensive resource protection planning process. He clearly describes the temporal range and spatial distribution of Mississippi period sites presently known in the Blue Ridge. Though the number of sites in the Blue Ridge is relatively small, Wynn incorporates discussion of ecotone sites to effectively demonstrate the potential cultural influences from the adjacent Piedmont and Ridge and Valley provinces.

Wynn also addresses potential relationships to the north and points out that several Pisgah and Qualla mound sites of southwestern North Carolina may be related to Georgia Blue Ridge sites. Unfortunately, the chronologies of the Pisgah and Qualla phases are not refined to the point where it is possible to compare them easily with the chronological sequences in Georgia. As Wynn says, the lack of temporal comparability presents an obstacle to a better understanding of the Mississippi period in the Blue Ridge in North Carolina as well as in Georgia.

That said, I would like to reinforce the probability of these interstate relationships with a few observations regarding mound site distributions in the Hiwassee and Little Tennessee river valleys in North Carolina. Only two of the mounds (Peachtree in Setzler and Jennings 1941, and Coweeta Creek in Egloff 1971 and Keel 1976) have been investigated and reported upon. However, most of the mounds are believed to be platform mounds and each of the sites is known to have a major Qualla component.

At least ten mounds have been reported in Cherokee and Clay counties just north of Union and Towns counties, Georgia. Some of these reports cannot be confirmed but four, and possibly six, mounds are known to be located on the Hiwassee River and its tributaries, the Nottely and the Valley. The Peachtree site (31Ce1) on the Hiwassee River is perhaps the largest of these sites and appears to be located near the center of the distribution.

The other confirmed mounds are found north, south and east of Peachtree. The Notla Mound site (31Ce5) is located on the Nottely River southwest of Peachtree. The overland distance between the two sites is about 20 km. The Andrews mound (31Ce3) is located 24 km north of Peachtree on the Valley River, and 20 km to the east of Peachtree on the Hiwassee is the Spikebuck Town site (31Cy1). A fifth possible mound is located in Andrews; it is clearly visible today but has never been confirmed as a mound. The sixth mound is reportedly located approximately 15 km east of Spikebuck Town on Shooting Creek. Unfortunately the site is inundated by Chatuge Lake.

As to a possible relationship with the Georgia Blue Ridge, Wynn states that some reports indicate that a mound was once present at site 9To44 on

Brasstown Creek. If true the mound was located about 22 km southwest of Peachtree. In sum, the upper Hiwassee River and its tributaries in North Carolina feature a cluster of Mississippi period mound sites at relatively regular intervals. The degree to which this distribution included mound (and non-mound) sites in the Georgia Blue Ridge is uncertain, though it seems likely to have included sites along the Hiwassee River, the Nottely River, and Brasstown Creek.

A similar situation occurs on the little Tennessee River in Macon County, North Carolina, and Rabun County, Georgia. Four mounds are located on the Little Tennessee River at regular intervals. The Greenwood mound (9Ra3) is located at Dillard, just south of the Georgia/North Carolina state line. North, or downstream, 13 km from the Greenwood mound is the Coweeta Creek site (31Ma34). Nuquassee (31Ma1) is located in Franklin, 14 km north of Coweeta Creek site, and the Cowee site (31Ma5) is located 14 km north of Nuquassee.

Unfortunately, the lack of intensive investigations and a refined Qualla chronology prevents any meaningful discussion of how these sites may be related within Mississippi period settlement systems. Clearly, however, the mound sited distributions in the two drainage systems provide potential opportunities to evaluate current models of mound sites locations. Hally indicates that distance between mound sites may be correlated with polity size (Hally and Langford 1988). The distance between the Hiwassee Valley sites is 20-24 km, while the distance between sites is considerably less in the Little Tennessee Valley (13-14 km). Additional study is needed to determine the contemporaneity of these sites in order to help delineate Mississippi period Blue Ridge polities and to develop additional models of Mississippi period settlement.

This southernmost Blue Ridge region is especially relevant to the current interest in 16th century polities sparked by the work on Hernando DeSoto's route through the southeast. Recently, a number of mid-16th century Spanish artifacts have been reported from the Peachtree site (Ann Rogers 1989). Regardless of whether De Soto was present at the Peachtree Site, it now appears that one or more polities were present in the Hiwassee Valley at this critical period. This seems to strengthen Wynn's expectation of additional 16th Century chiefdoms. I only suggest that the proposed Rabun Gap Valley complex and the Brasstown Valley complex are, in fact, associated with larger Little Tennessee and Hiwassee valley complexes, respectively. Finally, I think that Wynn's "north slope" and "south slope" designations will prove to be fruitful as we learn more about the interaction of the Mississippi period chiefdoms.

Wynn's recommendations are important to both resource managers and researchers. The Blue Ridge can no longer be considered an empty quarter, nor should it be considered a marginal area as far as Mississippi period cultures are concerned. It is important now to follow the recommendations for additional survey, testing, and excavation to document more fully the extent of Mississippi period occupation in the Blue Ridge.

By Dan Simpkins
West Georgia College

We should first acknowledge some of the difficulties that had to be overcome to produce this document. The lack of archaeological work in many of the reservoirs within the Blue Ridge of Georgia creates an archaeological vacuum that is particularly troublesome. The general lack of excavations of any kind in this region of the state is also apparent.

One must also sympathize with the inherent difficulty of working in an area where four state boundaries converge. Travel and communications have never been easy in the mountains, and typologies, of course, vary between states.

Mention is made several times of a possible mound in the Brasstown Creek drainage at Young Harris in Towns County. There are several erosion-remnants and alluvial and gravel terraces in the valley. Sites are present on most of these, and burials have been uncovered at several of the sites through the years. However, in local terminology, any high ground with an associated archaeological site in the valley is called a "mound." The existence of any mound in the area is extremely problematic.

For reasons that should become apparent in the following discussion, I was surprised to find that my brief testing of sites along Brasstown Creek may have encountered the center of a "polity" which I had completely failed to recognize.

My remaining remarks will focus upon my unease regarding the use of the terms "culture" and particularly "phase."

I have no quibbles with the presentation of descriptive site classifications. Rather, I am impressed at how much information has been derived from such fragmentary data (particularly from the Young Harris sites, which I had not yet documented in a formal report).

But perhaps in the archaeological era when the definition of new phases is proceeding at a rate that rivals the definition of new ceramic types by the previous generation of Georgia archaeologists, we should consider how we use the term.

In Georgia (as elsewhere), many of our phases have been and are being defined at a relatively early stage in the process of compiling regional syntheses, and in some cases through examination of excavated samples from specific sites. We then attempt to find other sites with components that fit within the phase. It is this second step Jack Wynn's document addresses, and I believe him when he says it was "a lot of hard work." He is surrounded by defined phases on all sides and lacks the necessary archaeological work within his own study area to determine whether the Blue Ridge has its own phases, incorporates transitional elements linking diverse phases on the physiographic and political borders, or whether the edges between these phases exist within the Blue Ridge.

Many of the Mississippian phases are described largely upon the basis of several co-occurring ceramic types. Individual types and motifs often

crosscut phases, so phase determinations are dependent upon examination of percentages of each type within an assemblage, aided by the presence of horizon markers such as folded rims of a particular width, and number and width of incisions. We hope these follow each other in mutually exclusive succession over a wide area (e.g., the Piedmont and Georgia Blue Ridge). Assuming accurate chronology as suggested by these horizon markers, it still must be determined if the associated assemblages belong to the same phases or merely the same period.

Unless we simply define a particular phase near the beginning of our studies, we must determine the variation in type percentages that occurs at different sites within a phase. Of course, it would be easier if we had knowledge of a large set of sites to begin with, and only then tried to assign phases. However, there are few excavated sites within the the Blue Ridge in Georgia, and even fewer with reliable stratigraphy, individual features, discrete mound levels, or other contexts for which some degree of confidence can be assured that the associated ceramics were deposited over a fairly short span of time (and, moreover, are not mixed, redeposited collections). In fact, most available collections are either surface or plowzone collections.

With plowzone or surface collections, and early in a regional study, how many components are represented when various motifs are found together on a single site? Is it a multi-component site or a diverse phase? Might it be a multi-component site with representation from two ceramically diverse phases with overlapping types?

Although we can identify a percentage of the motifs and types represented, the number of sherds having identifiable motifs even in well-excavated, large assemblages, is often (surprisingly) small. And in assessing reports of past work, how many simple stamped sherds are fragments of the various diamond stamps? How many rectilinear stamped sherds are fragments of fillet stamps?

We will always have difficulty moving from phases defined largely upon the basis of a single or a few sites to a larger set of components and/or sites representative of a phase. The larger the study area, the more difficult this problem will be. The examination of phases at their chronological edges should be augmented with more information regarding the characteristics of phases at their spatial edges. The tendency at present appears to be a general feeling that these latter phase boundaries are rather sharp, but in what cases are they clinal? How do we recognize (and reformulate) the chronological and spatial edge of a poorly understood phase that was originally defined upon the basis of a relatively non-representative site or sites?

Assuming for the moment that our archaeological phases do reflect some ethnographic entity, how much variation could be expected within and between ancestors of the Cherokees in the Mississippian period? Were there any hints of the forthcoming separation of Overhill, Valley, and Underhill groups? Do phases crosscut any such cultural boundaries present, or do the cultural boundaries crosscut the phases? Are these problems considered solved, insoluble, or irrelevant?

Perhaps I would find these difficulties to be less troubling if, in a McKernian sense, we were to allow for expansion and contraction of our classification system for varying purposes. Larger taxonomic units ("culture" as used here?) might synthesize and refine information currently glossed under our phase definitions while finer grained units might be used for tentatively defined "phases." My dissatisfaction with the current use of the term "phase" might lie primarily in the fact that of the McKernian terms, "phase" is the one that has the clearest claim to having some correspondence with concepts such as "culture," or "archaeological culture," or even "society." For this reason, statements made regarding "phases" should strive toward anthropological rather than descriptive archaeological communications.

We need more attempts at regional (and interstate) syntheses aimed at determining how our archaeological typologies relate to each other in a broader (interstate/interregional) perspective of the kind offered by Rudolph and Hally (1985) for the Beaverdam phase. It may also be appropriate to refine our systematics and reconsider what we want them to do.

By Mark Williams
LAMAR Institute

This is an excellent workman-like compilation of the meager data on Mississippi period sites in the Blue Ridge Mountains and forms a valuable addition to this series. Wynn is correct when he says that the Blue Ridge area can no longer be ignored as an "empty quarter." As researchers have focused for many years on the Mississippian mound sites and communities of the Piedmont, Ridge and Valley, lower Chattahoochee River, and Georgia coast, a general impression has developed that, except for the apparently anomalous Nacoochee site, there was little or no Mississippian occupation in the mountains. This was incorrect. Wynn has shown that almost every little mountain valley with even minimal amounts of arable valley soil had clusters of Mississippian sites with virtually full-sequence Mississippian histories, albeit probably with rather small populations. This was news to me, and must be carefully considered in future discussions of the evolution of and interactions with Mississippian chiefdoms in the adjacent Piedmont and Ridge and Valley areas.

I would like to simply add a few comments and observations here to complement Wynn's review of the data. First, the Tugalo site area (including Chauga and Estatoe) is not really in the Blue Ridge, but in the upper section of the Piedmont. Its location, however, serves to be the exception that proves an important rule for the locations of Mississippian polities. While most such polities in Georgia are at the junction of the Piedmont and either the Coastal Plain or the Ridge and Valley area, Tugalo is not. But why is it there? To understand the answer, it is first necessary to discuss briefly the local geology and hydrology of this northeast Georgia area.

The Brevard fault is a major northeast-southwest trending ridge/fault that cross-cuts the Piedmont. The Chattahoochee River parallels it along its northwest flank and the Flint, Ocmulgee, Oconee, and Broad rivers head up on its southeast flank. The Savannah River would have followed this

pattern and the Chattooga River would have been a simple northeast continuation of the Chattahoochee River had it not been for a 10 mile diameter resistant area of pure quartzite located northwest of the fault in extreme northeast Georgia. This quartzite material prevented the Chattooga River from joining the Chattahoochee River and forced it to cut steeply down through the Brevard fault, at right angles to it, and toward the southeast, where it joined and became part of the Savannah River.

Hydrologists speak of this as the Savannah River "beheading" the Chattahoochee River. The steep short trek down and through the Brevard fault caused the river to be very active there and ultimately eroded out and then eventually filled with silt a large area on the upper Savannah River. This is the rich silt area discovered by the Mississippian farmers around Tugalo. Thus, this unusual set of geological circumstances in the upper Piedmont created an area between the Blue Ridge and the Piedmont that is analogous to those between the Piedmont and the Coastal Plain or the Ridge and Valley.

Although it is a bit less obvious, the location of the Nacoochee site is also just below the junction of the Blue Ridge and Piedmont and this environmental explanation seems adequate to explain its presence here. Williams and Shapiro (1990) have shown, with the Oconee Valley Mississippian data, that environmental reasons for the location of Mississippian mound centers were typical for the early portion of the Oconee sequence, but that political reasons were more important later in time. It would appear that most, if not all, of the Blue Ridge mound centers were responding merely to environmental factors for the determination of settlement location. This might imply that outside social pressures, either positive or negative, were not intense.

In general, although there are indeed Mississippian occupation clusters--mini-chiefdoms--in the Blue Ridge, this area is not conducive to large population development because of the ultimate limitation of good floodplain soil within each cluster. The small valleys are fine for small populations, however. But people are power and I suspect that the chiefdoms that may have developed here were never very powerful in comparison to those further south and west.

One thing we still lack for the Blue Ridge provinces is some notion of the variability of sites within each valley cluster. How big are the largest sites, even if they do not have mounds? What do we know about homesteads in these Blue Ridge valley clusters? Was the settlement pattern more like that in northwest Georgia with large towns but virtually no homesteads, or like the later history of the Oconee Valley, where there were thousands of homesteads? Specifically, are there homesteads in the valleys near Dillard, Nacoochee and Tugalo sites? Caldwell did excavate a least one probable homestead near Tugalo. Is this sort of site common or rare in the Blue Ridge?

What was the role of these small provinces as potential suppliers for copper or other mountain-derived minerals? Was the copper that was apparently bound for Etowah and beyond mined by people in these small mountain provinces? Are there quarry sites for copper close to these mountain chiefdoms?

The apparent lack of Blue Ridge occupation in the Savannah period as suggested by Wynn is quite interesting. First, is this gap real, or is it merely a problem of recognition? This will clearly take more research to answer confidently. If it turns out to be real, and since this was the peak period of the Etowah site, might that chiefdom have actually pulled populations out of the mountains or controlled them in some direct manner?

While it may be a bit premature to define new archaeological phases for the Blue Ridge without specific and unique ceramic assemblages, Wynn is on the right track. As stated above, the mountain valleys were logically more likely to form worlds to themselves--provinces. I suspect that when we look close enough at the ceramics from each little valley we will find them different to some minor degrees. I agree that Nacoochee should be looked at now as separate from the phases of the Tugalo area, but believe that the specifics of the the Nacoochee phase assemblage must be better defined. My guess is that Dillard will be found to be more associated with sites further north up the Little Tennessee River Valley in western North Carolina.

Although it is perhaps beyond the scope of this Operating Plan, Wynn has made no mention of whether he thought the Mississippian sites of the Blue Ridge were Cherokee ancestors or those of some other historic group. This is a difficult, but very important question. For myself, I doubt that they were Cherokee, but believe they were probably Hitchiti speakers. This question must be addressed in the future.

The potentially important matter of lithic raw material availability should also be studied further. Apparently there is no native chert in the Blue Ridge area. The large quantity of high quality chert in the Ridge and Valley area to the west is the most obvious source, but I am curious if any of the chert from the Coastal Plain far to the south was used in Mississippian times in the Blue Ridge. The major point here is that kinds and proportions of chert used by the Blue Ridge Mississippian people may provide us with good indicators of political alliances and trade connections. This data should loom important for future socio-political research on the Blue Ridge Mississippian.

In conclusion, Jack Wynn has given us a solid compilation of the all too meager data for Mississippian in the Blue Ridge area and it will stand us in good stead for the near future. Additionally, it will smooth the integration of this important area into larger models of chiefdom economic and social interaction during the Mississippian period in Georgia and beyond.

REPLY TO REVIEWERS' COMMENTS

By Jack T. Wynn

This has been a most enlightening effort, in many ways, and I sincerely appreciate the efforts of the various reviewers, including those whose comments are presented here, to improve the final product. The volume is really incomplete without the additional comments, since they add so much to the presentation.

David Moore's comments on the relationships between Georgia and North Carolina Blue Ridge mound sites are well taken. He has added to the list of mounds presented in the text, with useful insights into their possible political clusterings. Moore points out the possible polities on the Hiwassee and Little Tennessee rivers which involve territories in both states. He is even willing to include 9To44 on Brasstown Creek in his Peachtree site cluster, if it existed as a mound site at the proper time periods. The fact that it fits well into his cluster model speaks well for the site's participation in the polity, whether or not there was an artificial mound there.

We can only hope that efforts will be put forth in the near future to clarify and define shorter temporal phases within the Pisgah and Qualla time periods. When such temporal units are presented, we will be in position to make better temporal comparisons across state lines. Only then can we tighten up the present looseness in our descriptions of prehistoric polities in the Appalachian Summit and adjacent portions of Georgia.

The problems Simpkins mentions relating to fragmentary sherds being misclassified since they present only portions of design elements is real: we don't often have full patterns, and many time things are classified based on whatever portion of the pattern is available. Thus we probably do misclassify items. That is also why we often have a large category of "unclassifiable" or "unidentified rectilinear" sherds in any given collection. These tell us something, but less than we would desire. We deal with "the exigencies of the field situation," the real, rather than the ideal world. We must proceed on the basis of the data in hand, and modifications can be made later in light of a broader data base.

Simpkins is correct, however, in calling our attention to the vast area of possible confusion we are bringing on ourselves when we assume that the phases (however defined) are sharp-edged, either chronologically or spatially. While it is possible to think of spatial phase definitions as having relatively sharp boundaries such as rivers or ridges, it is more likely that there will be some interchange of ideas and genes, if not cultural elements like pottery vessels, across the river or ridge in times of peace.

Phase boundaries are probably never sharp, but always clinal to some degree, particularly in the case of temporal elements. Definition or even recognition of "clinal edges" will always be difficult, and lead to some inconsistencies and misapplications.

Discussions between Simpkins and the author during the preparation of this text, before completion of his final Phase II report (Simpkins 1990) somehow did not reveal the differences in our understanding of site 9To44 in Young Harris Valley on Brasstown Creek. He feels it probably was not an artificial mound, and does not see any sort of "polity" there. He has commented that local reports indicate several high points with burials and high artifact densities: the sites he recorded which are listed here. However, an artificial mound would not be necessary to fulfill the function of minor polity center. It might be simply a reoccupied natural high spot in the floodplain.

I have no problem in defining, however preliminarily, a small cluster polity in Brasstown Creek, based on his reports, even if Simpkins does not yet want to do so. The occurrence of a continuing cluster of sites there seems to fit the pattern for such polities. Further, it is located at the proper distance, as David Moore points out, from the larger polity center at Peachtree site in North Carolina. Thus it would seem that the central-place theory, or cluster of clusters concept may hold, even if there never was an artificial mound there.

Mark Williams' description of the "beheading" of the Chattahoochee River, and the unusual geographic position of the major Mississippian sites in the upper Savannah-Tugaloo-Chattooga River system was welcome here. The fact that the Piedmont swings so far north in this area often leads to confusion. Additional sites along that system are currently being investigated, such as Chattooga Old Town, by University of Tennessee's Gerald Schroedl, which will help round out our understanding of this area.

Williams has posed a great number of questions which are beyond the scope of this paper to respond to, but which need to be considered in the management of prehistoric resources in this area. I would argue that not all chiefdoms are going to be on the large scale of Etowah or those the Oconee Valley. Based on the clusters we can see in Appalachia, and those suggested by the patterns of valleys which have not yet been investigated, there may well be a whole hierarchy of lower-level chiefdoms (to avoid saying "mini-chiefdoms) based in these upland drainages. Their territories, as Williams suggests, will be limited in large part by valley size and available resources. This is in itself a whole field of investigation which needs doing soon, before the bottomlands are further built up.

The lack of detailed studies of sites and clusters in this area severely limits understanding of the early relationships, as Simpkins and Williams suggested, between Overhill, Valley and Underhill Cherokee groups, and their predecessors. Current thought is that the Cherokees, an Iroquois-speaking group, migrated into the southern Appalachian area around A.D. 1500, probably displacing native Muscogean-speakers: the Creeks or Hitchiti, as Williams suggests. This would make it difficult to tie specific prehistoric sites to historic Cherokee settlements. However, when two groups come in contact, they may fight or not, but they nearly always mate and trade. As one group moves into another's territory, there may also be a general intersettlement, with absorption of local traits by the newcomers, while the locals are absorbing the outsiders' cultures. This may help explain why there seem to be relatively little change in the remaining material culture seen in sites of the final prehistoric period. Obviously this question needs a great deal of further study, to allow us to recognize these relationships, if they are reflected in the remaining artifacts.

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