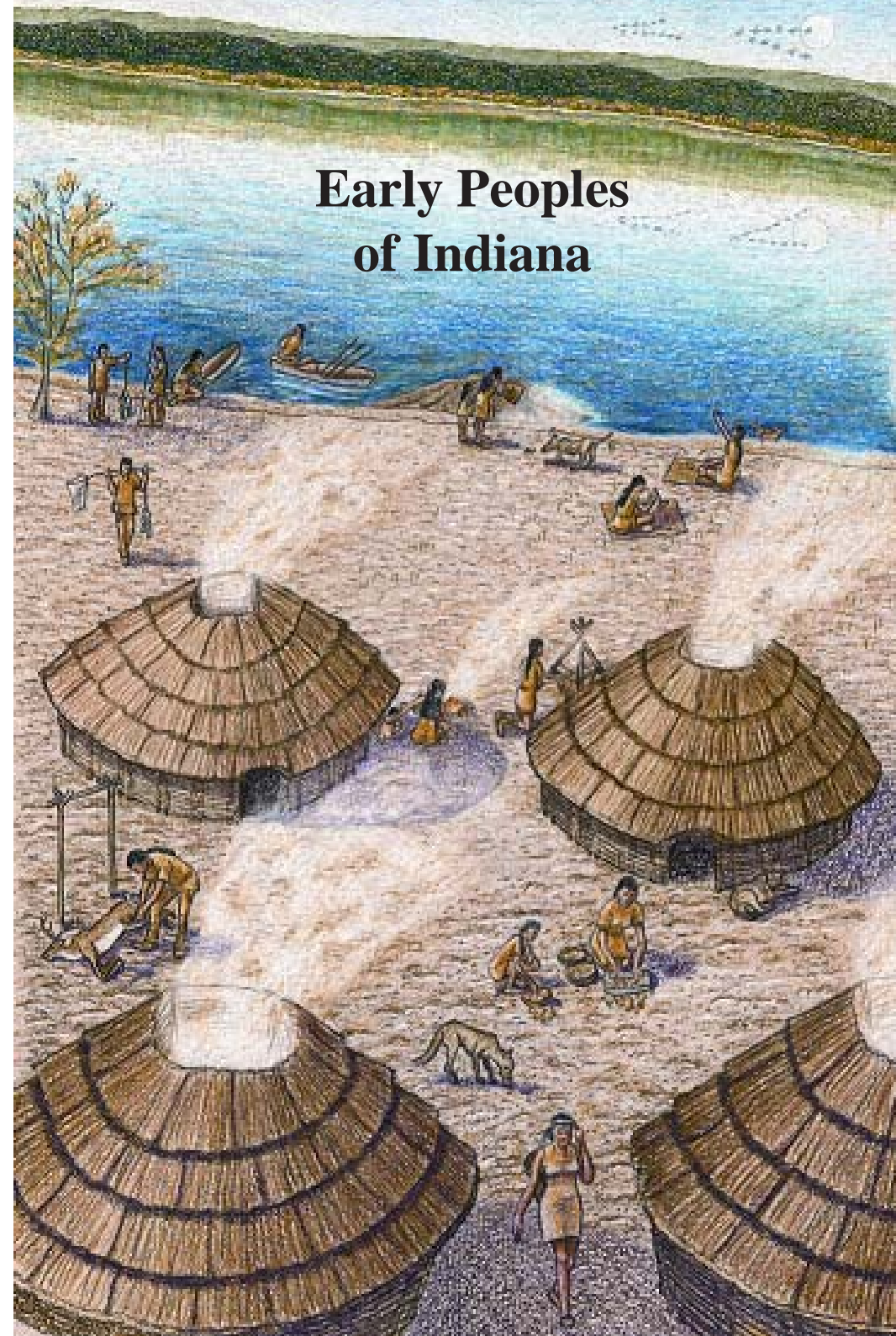


Early Peoples of Indiana



EARLY PEOPLES OF INDIANA

Indiana Department of Natural Resources

**Division of Historic Preservation and
Archaeology (DHPA)**

**James R. Jones III, Ph.D.
and
Amy L. Johnson**

Revised 2008

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INTRODUCTION

This document was first published in 1999, revised in 2003, and updated again in 2008. This is our most requested archaeology outreach product, and much has been discovered, and learned, since the original. This document is designed to provide an introduction to the rich, varied, and complex nature of the prehistoric cultures who once inhabited Indiana, to inform the reader about the science of archaeology, and relate its importance and how and why it is practiced in our state. We hope that this introduction will help further interest in our state's prehistoric heritage, and create a desire to inquire in greater depth into archaeology and Indiana prehistory.

The rich and varied histories and prehistories of people living in the area that was to become the state of Indiana are fascinating in their complexity, achievements, and contributions to Indiana's heritage and history, not to mention cultural and scientific studies of the past. We hope that a better understanding and appreciation of these cultures and their contributions (which are still with us today) will be gained through reading this publication. It is also hoped that some readers will be stimulated enough to pursue further studies of these groups, or even to pursue careers in, and contribute to, the study of the past.

In telling the story of Indiana prehistory and archaeology, archaeologists use technical terms at times. Such words and terms are placed in bold in the text, and a glossary is provided for those unfamiliar with the terminology.

OVERVIEW OF INDIANA'S PREHISTORY

Below is a concise description of the rich **prehistory** and **protohistory** of Indiana. The word prehistory is a technical term used by archaeologists to indicate information about cultures before written records were kept--in North America at first by Europeans and people of Old World descent--in that area. It does not imply by any means the cultures described did not have long, rich, and varied cultural and oral histories and traditions. All of the cultures certainly did. Protohistory refers to the transitional time from late prehistory to the time of early contact with Euroamerican cultures and written records. These terms are simply technical ones, used frequently by archaeologists. In such a short format, this account is not totally comprehensive, but it is intended to provide a general, basic background for learning about the **archaeology** (a branch of **anthropology**) of prehistoric cultures within the state. As our view of history changes, and as new information is brought to light, the picture of our Hoosier heritage will become more complete. Only by understanding our past can we hope to understand ourselves and our rich heritage and to appreciate the contributions of the past to our present lives. An understanding of the past helps us to appreciate our archaeological and cultural resources and what they can tell us, leading us to acknowledge that the preservation of these irreplaceable resources for future generations is not only extremely important, but necessary.

PREHISTORY OF INDIANA

As currently known, the prehistory of Indiana ranges from ca. 10,000 B.C. to approximately A.D. 1650 when peoples of European descent began to keep historical accounts of the area. Prehistoric cultures in Indiana follow the same general cultural sequence, and display similar cultural traits, as those found in the Eastern Woodlands area of the United States. However, given Indiana's location among different Great Lakes-riverine cultural areas, and its geographic and environmental setting bordering the Southeast and the upper Great Lakes area, one would expect, and indeed does find, a number of cultures and historic contexts unique to the state. Some of the latter possess a combination of characteristics of cultures from nearby cultural areas and of similar time frames, while others are unique in the region and beyond.

Paleoindians (ca. 10,000 - 7500 B.C.)

Based upon current evidence, Paleoindians are thought to be the earliest Native Americans who populated the New World (including the area now known as Indiana) during the end of the last glaciation (Wisconsin) of the Ice Age. Thus, their adaptations were to cooler and changing climates with different vegetation than today. A recent study indicates that, given their large territorial ranges and low population, Clovis Paleoindians were specialized large-game hunters, although they did also take small game (Waguespack and Surovell 2003:348). Most likely, they were small bands of hunting, gathering, foraging individuals who brought with them a sophisticated tool kit technology for killing and dressing large game, such as caribou, and including some species which are now extinct.

Paleoindian projectile points are lanceolate and many are consistent or similar in form throughout the Americas, and often are ground at the base for hafting purposes. Their tools are well made, out of good quality **chert** raw materials, and for the most part, exhibit fine workmanship. Common projectile point types found in Indiana include Clovis, Gainey, Hi-Lo, Agate Basin, Cumberland, Quad, Plainview, and, in late Paleoindian times, Dalton (Figure 1).



Figure 1. Paleoindian projectile points (courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

Paleoindian points are present in nearly every county in Indiana (see Tankersley, Smith, and Cochran 1990). Other tools include scrapers and long blades.

The Paleoindian occupations in Indiana were of low population density, and often **sites** are short-term, specialized activity areas found near large streams and other major water sources. Often, only surface finds of a few scattered **lithics** are present. Paleoindian sites are also found near chert sources.

An example of a well-known Paleoindian site in Indiana is the Magnet or Alton site, a **multicomponent** occupation of some time and intensity on a terrace of the Ohio River, and near a **Wyandotte** chert source (Smith 1984:35-38).

A recent study of Paleoindian occupations in the Kankakee area of Indiana notes that Paleoindian chert type usage reflects their territorial movement, particularly distances of source of raw material to discard sites of their stone tools (White 2007:141). From this kind of study, White states: “The data are clearly consistent with a higher mobility during Early Paleoindian times” (2007:143). His study found that later Hi Lo points were found in a smaller range than that of the Early Paleoindian and Agate Basin groups (2007:143).

Early Archaic (ca. 8000 - 6000 B.C.)

Early Archaic sites in Indiana are found in most environmental settings, and in much larger numbers than in earlier times. This is due to population increase and because the Early Archaic time period was a time of environmental and climatic change and diversification, becoming more similar to the environmental situation we are familiar with today. Early Archaic peoples were using resources in most of the environmental settings. Still, Early Archaic peoples were nomadic hunter-gatherers, seasonally exploiting the resources in their environment.

Technologically, there is an increase in the types and variety of Early Archaic tools, and the appearance of new hafting techniques is related to the new resources being exploited and the use of a spear thrower or **atlatl**. Hafting techniques include notching and bifurcated bases of spear points and knives. Processing of wild faunal resources involved the use of grinding and pitted stones. Projectile point types associated with the Early Archaic include Thebes, St. Charles, Big Sandy Side-Notched, Kirk, MacCorkle, St. Albans, LeCroy, and Kanawha (Figure 2).

Studies of raw material types for Thebes and Kirk groups indicate higher quality chert types for Thebes and medium-quality chert types for Kirk (Cantin 1993:1-2). Based upon the raw material studies, Cantin proposes “that Thebes home ranges may have been as much as one order of (drainage) magnitude greater than those of Kirk-users” (1993:3).



Figure 2. Early Archaic projectile points (right, courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

A notable Early Archaic site is the Swan’s Landing site (12Hr304), a tool manufacturing and habitation site (Smith 1986) that has been damaged by looting and river flooding/erosion. Recent investigations at another archaeological site, 12Hr520, revealed a substantial Kirk component and lithic workshop (Stafford 1998). This site may be viewed as an early Kirk stone tool factory. At least three Early Archaic ceremonial/mortuary sites are recorded in the state, and two of these sites had cremations and evidence of rituals involving the use of red ochre (Cochran 1997; Tomak 1991).

Middle Archaic (ca. 6000 - 3500 B.C.)

The Middle Archaic is not well-defined or understood in Indiana. This cultural period is associated with a climatic warming trend, and some tools appear which continue in manufacture and use into the Late Archaic. Side notched points are present, and diagnostic projectile points include Stanley Stemmed, Faulkner-Raddatz, Godar, Karnak, and Matanzas (Figure 3). The latter two point types, for example, continue into Late Archaic times.

Many ground stone tools were used and appear during this time period. Grooved axes and spear thrower weights occur. Middle Archaic settlements appear to have lasted longer, indicating increased sedentism, and occur along major drainages. In a study of Late Archaic in southern Indiana, Stafford and Cantin note that Middle Archaic populations express more mobility than the subsequent Late Archaic populations in the area (2005:44). More evidence of mortuary activities is apparent. Harvesting of resources such as nuts, and possible starchy seed use, are also characteristics.

An example of a Mid-Late Archaic site in Indiana is the Bluegrass site, with evidence of human and dog burials, trash pits, and hearths (Anslinger 1988).



Figure 3. Middle Archaic Godar point (left) and other Middle Archaic points (right, courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

Late Archaic (ca. 4000 - 1500 B.C.)

There is no clear transition from Middle to Late Archaic, and Late Archaic appears to be a changing continuation of Middle Archaic. Late Archaic peoples appear to show distinguishable cultural or ethnic differentiation or boundaries, from drainage to drainage. These groups show a detailed knowledge of the environment, and likely scheduled their activities according to seasonal changes and resources. Definite evidence of the use of weedy plants such as goosefoot and lambsquarters is known. Late Archaic cultures or groups include French Lick, Bluegrass, Glacial Kame, Early **Red Ochre**, and Maple Creek.

Projectile point types for this time period include Matanzas, Brewerton, Karnak, McWhinney and other stemmed projectile points (Figure 4). Generally, these points are manufactured from local, and lower quality cherts, and there appears to be less concern for quality in craftsmanship or workmanship of projectile point technology.

The number of tool types increases greatly in the Late Archaic, including many varieties of woodworking tools and tools for food processing. Tool types include manos, mortars, grinding slabs, nutting stones, and bone and antler tools (e.g., fishhooks, awls, pins). Ornaments such as beads made of shell, pearls, and copper, pendants, **gorgets**, and hairpins, are also present.



Figure 4. A Late Archaic Lamoka point (left) and other Late Archaic points (right, courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

Many site types occur, including shell middens or “mounds,” fishing sites, large semi-permanent villages, and cemeteries. Mounds and ritualistic treatment of burials are present in the latter stages of Late Archaic.

An example of a Late Archaic site in Indiana is the McCain site, which yielded information regarding subsistence, settlement, and burials. A shell midden was present at the site (Miller 1941). The McKinley site (e.g., Little 1970) is an example of a large Late Archaic village, now mostly destroyed, from which **avocational archaeologists** recovered substantial information.

Terminal Late Archaic (ca. 1500 - 700 B.C.)

This cultural period in Indiana is primarily represented by the Riverton culture, Terminal Archaic barbed projectile points, and transitional Late Archaic-Early Woodland sites (e.g., sites with Turkey-tail points). Characteristics of the Riverton culture include small projectile points and **microtools** often made of local cherts--including glacial and pebble cherts--termed Riverton and Merom points. The Riverton occupations may be described as riverine, as sites are found along major rivers and streams such as the Lower Wabash, Ohio, and the White River drainages.

Terminal Archaic barbed points have rather long stems with tangs or barbs on the point. Turkey-tail points and evidence of red ochre ritual and mortuary activities (with copper beads and implements) are also found in the Terminal Late Archaic (Figure 5).

A well-known Riverton site with pit features, midden, large amounts of lithic materials, and house structures--revealed by linear patterns of post molds--is the Wint site, in southeastern Indiana (Anslinger 1986:63-157). A more recently recorded Riverton site,

12D563, was discovered in Dearborn County in 2003, greatly expanding the range of known Riverton sites in Indiana. This site yielded large numbers of features, Riverton and other earlier Late Archaic points, and some apparently ceremonial burials were present.



Figure 5. Terminal Late Archaic projectile point examples (courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

Early Woodland (ca. 1000 - 200 B.C.)

For archaeologists, the somewhat arbitrary differentiation of Early Woodland from Late Archaic groups is based on the appearance of pottery or **ceramics**. Mounds continue to be constructed, with elaboration of ritual and mortuary activity. Mortuary complexes with log tombs and red ochre are found. There is evidence of selection of plants, including gourds and sunflowers, and horticulture. Large bladed projectile points (Figure 6) are diagnostic, including Adena, Kramer, Dickson, Motley, and Gary Contracting stemmed points.

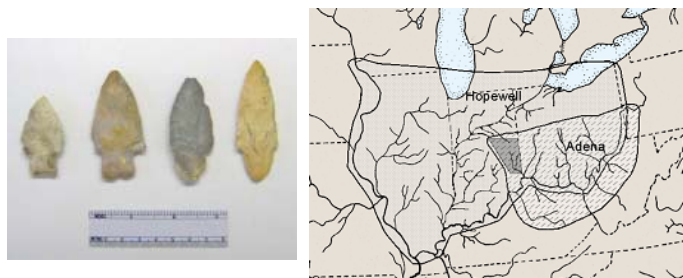


Figure 6. Some Early Woodland points (courtesy of ARMS/BSU) and general distribution of Adena and Hopewell sites (Cochran and McCord 2001).

Cultural groups or phases include Adena (Figure 6) and Crab Orchard. Adena sites in Indiana include burial mounds with log tombs and grave goods. The Crab Orchard Phase, in southwestern Indiana, is characterized by **fabric-impressed ceramics** (see Ruby 1994).

An example of an Early Woodland site is the Nowlin Mound (Black 1936; Kellar 1993) with log tombs. Notable Early to Middle Woodland sites include the earthwork complexes at Mounds State Park and the New Castle in eastern Indiana.

Middle Woodland (ca. 200 B.C. - A.D. 600)

Although there is no exact cut off point between Early and Middle Woodland, the latter demonstrates many new and complex characteristics which distinguish it as a distinct cultural period. The Hopewell manifestation of Middle Woodland has been described as a “florescence” of cultural activities, and certainly a complex of inter-regionally related cultural groups with mounds and earthworks complexes, ceremonial and mortuary sites, and hierarchical social organization (indicating tribal groups).

Diagnostic projectile points include Snyders, Chesser, Baker’s Creek, Lowe, and Steuben (Figure 7). Some of these points extend into the early portion of Late Woodland as well. Ceramic sherds dating to this period include Havanna, Scioto, Late Crab Orchard, Mann, Allison-Lamotte, and others (Figure 7).



Figure 7. Snyders projectile points (left). Pottery sherds from the Mann site (courtesy of the Glenn A. Black Laboratory of Archaeology and the Trustees of Indiana University).

Other diagnostic tools include blades and blade **cores**, clay figurines, copper **celts**, panpipes, and platform pipes. Interregional trade networks exchanged galena, copper, mica, shell, and obsidian

raw materials and artifacts. In Indiana, some of these sites have astronomical alignments within and between mound complexes (e.g., Cochran 1992). Mound complexes, such as these, are examples of public and monumental architecture. Horticulture was practiced, and plants such as goosefoot, marshelder, and sunflower were harvested. Cultural and regional expressions of Middle Woodland in Indiana include Mann, the Goodall Focus, Crab Orchard, Allison-Lamotte, Havana, and Scioto.

The Mann site, in southwestern Indiana, is an example of an elaborate earthworks and village complex with mounds and embankments (Figure 8). It is a major, unique site with exotic artifacts, including southeastern **complicated stamped** sherds (e.g., Kellar 1979; Ruby 1993; Peterson et al. 2007). Noteworthy artifacts from the site include blades and blade cores, copper, cut mica, obsidian, quartz crystals, and clay human figurines. This site is one of the largest and most important Middle Woodland sites in the Eastern United States, and remote sensing indicates two large circular features (possibly astronomically related) at the site (Peterson 2007). Another example of Middle Woodland sites in Indiana is the Goodall site (e.g., Quimby 1941; Schurr 1997a, 1997b) in northwestern Indiana. This site is a mound group of 22 mounds with strong evidence of interaction with the Illinois River Valley. The Archaeological Conservancy recently acquired the site for preservation.

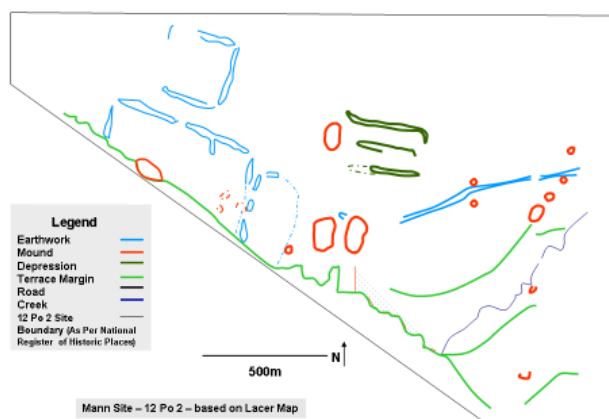


Figure 8. The Mann site (Peterson et al. 2007).

Late Woodland (ca. A.D. 500 - 1200)

During the Late Woodland period, a number of new cultural characteristics arise. The bow and arrow appears, with the first arrowheads: small triangular chipped stone projectile points with names such as Madison. Notched points such as Racoon Side-Notched and Jack's Reef Corner-Notched points are also present (Figure 9). Commissary knives, large triangular knives for cutting purposes, are found. Other artifacts present include hoes for agricultural purposes. Full-scale, intensive agriculture first appears, with maize, beans, and squash being the major foodstuffs being cultivated.



Figure 9. Late Woodland points (courtesy of ARMS/BSU).

In very general terms, Late Woodland sites continue in time until A.D. 1000-1200 in areas when Mississippian culture arises, and may continue to as late as ca. A.D. 1650 in some areas, particularly in the northeastern part of the state.

Late Woodland sites are generally smaller and more dispersed than the preceding Middle Woodland and subsequent Mississippian groups. Mounds are present, but are generally smaller and few appear in large complexes. Large villages are fewer in number.

Ceramics from Late Woodland include thinner, **cordmarked** vessels, some with **collared** or thickened rims, such as Albee and Newtown pottery containers, for example (Figure 10). Late Woodland cultural groups or phases include Yankeetown, Newtown, Allison-Lamotte, and Albee. As mentioned above, in northeastern Indiana, Late Woodland cultural occupations apparently continued until just before contact with historically recorded cultures.

Figure 10. An Albee vessel (photo by John Maxwell, DNR; artifact courtesy of GBL/IU).



The Albee Phase or complex is found in northwestern, central, and southwestern (McCord 2005:205) Indiana, and is recognized by the presence of collared or wedge-shaped thickened rims with decoration on the neck, peak of the wedge, or interior portion of the lip. Other Late Woodland manifestations in Indiana include Newtown in the southeastern portion of the state, and Allison-Lamotte, which extends from Middle-Late Woodland. The Yankeetown Phase (see Redmond 1986) is found in extreme southwestern Indiana and exhibits diagnostic incised ceramics, often **grog tempered**. Another occupation, termed the Oliver Phase (Figure 11), refers to a late prehistoric “emerging Mississippian” culture that inhabited the White River drainages in central and south-central Indiana (discussed below). Many Yankeetown and Oliver Phase sites have been preserved or investigated under federal laws, state law, and with Historic Preservation Fund grants.



Figure 11. Oliver Phase sherd, left, (McCullough 1991) and vessel (photo by John Maxwell, DNR; vessel courtesy GBL/IU).

An example of a Late Woodland site in Indiana is the Heshel site, an Albee cemetery with human and dog burials (Cochran 1988). The Van Nuys site is an occupation site related to the Heshel site and another site called the Commissary site (Burkett and Cochran 1984; Burkett and Hicks 1986; Cochran 1988).

Another instance of a habitation site is the Morrell-Sheets site (McCord and Cochran 1994). A portion of this site was excavated as part of a highway project, while the rest was avoided and preserved for the future.

Mississippian (ca. A.D. 1000 - 1650)

Mississippian peoples include some transitional Late Woodland-Mississippian or emerging Mississippian cultural manifestations as well as various Mississippian groups. Toward the end of the Late Woodland time frame, unique and transitional cultural groups occur, including the Oliver and Yankeetown phases. Oliver Phase (see McCullough 1991; McCullough and Wright 1996, 1997; Redmond and McCullough 1993) occupations are best known as nucleated villages, with some ceramics having thickened rims or collars with **cord-impressed** designs, and others with evidence of Fort Ancient characteristics (see below). These “transitional” cultures display both Late Woodland and Mississippian traits.

So-called “classic” Mississippian archaeological sites have characteristics such as platform (truncated) mounds, public and ceremonial architecture, plazas, nucleated villages/towns with nearby hamlets and farmsteads, palisaded settlements, cemeteries, intensive agriculture (maize, beans, and squash), and stratified or hierarchical (non-egalitarian) **chiefdom** levels of social organization. The best known site with such characteristics is the Angel site (see below; Figure 22) in southwestern Indiana.

Artifacts characteristic or diagnostic of Mississippian occupations in the state include **shell-tempered** pottery, pottery with lugs and handles, salt pans, hoes, ladles, effigies, and triangular projectile points (Figure 12) and Nodena and Cahokia point forms.

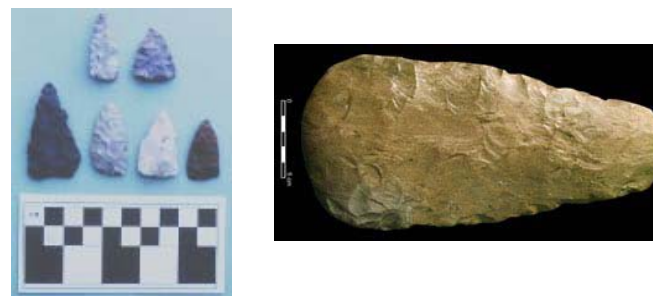


Figure 12. Triangular projectile points (left) and a complete Mississippian hoe made from Dover chert (right, Munson 2008a).

Mississippian cultural occupations in Indiana may be divided into Middle Mississippian and Upper Mississippian groups. Middle Mississippian groups include the Angel Phase (ca. A.D. 1050-1400), the Caborn-Welborn Phase (ca. A.D. 1400-1700), and Vincennes groups in southwestern Indiana (Figure 13). The Angel Phase consists of a fortified town and temple mound complex with connections to nearby villages and hamlets, and classic (see above) Middle Mississippian characteristics (see Black 1967). The best known Middle Mississippian site in Indiana is the Angel site, in Vanderburgh County (Black 1967). The site was a town with flat-topped mounds and a large plaza, and was tied to nearby hamlets and farming communities.

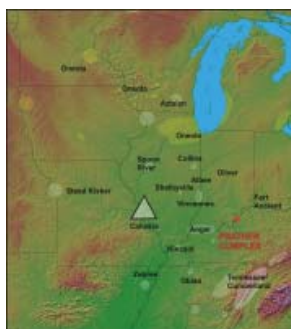


Figure 13. Mississippian and Late Woodland manifestations, ca. A.D. 1100 (Munson et al. 2006:7).

The Caborn-Welborn Phase is a later Mississippian expression with smaller, dispersed villages and hamlets (see Munson 1995). Caborn-Welborn yields some evidence of indirect contact with Euroamerican cultures and can be characterized as protohistoric. Researchers have not been able to connect this culture with historically recorded ones in Indiana.

Another Middle Mississippian manifestation, found in southwestern Indiana and in nearby Illinois, is the relatively unknown Vincennes Culture (Barth 1982; Winters 1967).

Upper Mississippian groups in Indiana are generally found in the northern, central, and southeastern parts of the state and demonstrate less “classic” characteristics of Mississippian cultures. Upper Mississippian cultural groups in Indiana include Fisher and Huber in northwestern Indiana, and Fort Ancient in southeastern Indiana. Fisher and Huber groups exploited wetland and marsh edges in prairie environments, hunted bison, were hunter-gatherers and farmers, and lived in nucleated villages (Faulkner 1972).

Fisher and Huber sites appear to be related to the Oneota complex or groups associated with the western Great Lakes and the

eastern Plains (e.g., Faulkner 1972; Fowler and Hall 1978; Brown and Asch 1990; Jeske 1998; McCord and Cochran 2003; Arnold et al. 2007). Artifacts associated with Oneota include triangular points, and diagnostic pottery vessels with incised or trailed lines that are “globular to elliptical in shape, shell-tempered” (Harvey 1979:43). The Davidson site (Jeske 1998) is recorded as a Huber site in northwestern Indiana. In central Indiana, a local manifestation thought to be related to Oneota is the Crouch site, with many storage pits and indications of the use of wild rice (McCullough and Wright 1997:149, Appendix D:9), situated near a wetland, an environment similar to that described by Faulkner (1972; see above) for Fisher-Huber (Arnold et al. 2007:32). Other central Indiana expressions include the Taylor Village (McCord and Cochran 2003: 32-33; Arnold et al. 2007:24), and the Strawtown Enclosure (McCullough et al. 2004; Arnold et al. 2007).

In the southeastern portion of the state, Fort Ancient occupations occurred. The classic 1943 work by James B. Griffin on Fort Ancient describes Fort Ancient peoples as living in nucleated farming villages, that were circular in shape and surrounded by wooden post stockade walls, along major drainages with large expanses of cultivable floodplain.

At least one Mississippian phase or complex which is less understood is the Prather complex (Figures 13, 14), which lies between, and may exhibit characteristics or influences of, both Angel and Fort Ancient groups (Janzen n.d.). Recent work by several researchers (e.g. Munson et al. 2006) have provided much new information regarding this complex. The Prather site, and related sites such as Newcomb and Ana Lynn, may reflect a localized Mississippian culture with minimal outside contact (Jackson 2005; Munson et al. 2006).

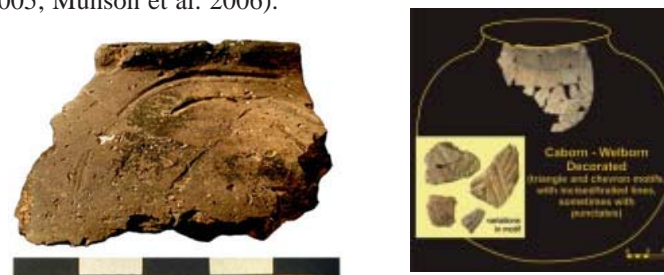


Figure 14. Unusual incised jar rim sherd from the Prather site (left, Munson 2008b), and Caborn-Welborn sherds (Munson et al. 2004).

Protohistoric (post A.D. 1400)

A natural question is which cultural groups arose or continued out of the late prehistoric occupations in Indiana? Protohistoric cultures are those thought to be ancestral to—or developing into—those cultural groups beginning to be recorded in early historic times. **Protohistoric** cultures can be defined as those prehistoric groups developing or continuing directly into early recorded history, some associated with early historic artifacts. They can be seen as transitioning into history through association with historic artifacts, appearing in historical documents, and/or associated or potentially associated with a historically documented tribe or cultural group. They are prehistoric cultures thought to be transitioning into historic contact times, from which historical groups arose.

Ideally, a marker of an archaeological site from protohistoric times would be one with sealed or undisturbed deposits containing both prehistoric and historic artifacts—demonstrating a physical connection between prehistoric and historic groups. In Indiana, a difficulty in connecting prehistoric cultures with historically recorded ones is that during the Iroquois wars in the mid-late 17th century, Native American groups were apparently displaced from the area. Thus, there appears to be a “break” between prehistoric and historic occupations here.

Well-known groups of Native Americans documented in Indiana from the late 1600s to the early to mid-19th century include Miamis, Weas, Piankashaws, Potawatomis, Kickapoos, Mascoutens, Delawares, and Shawnees (Figure 15). Brief Winnebago and Wyandot occupations are also documented. Again, the question is which prehistoric/precontact groups are related to those from historic and modern times? Accounts of Native American groups in the historical record in the area that was to become the state of Indiana appear in the mid-late 1600s and in the early 18th century.

In general, the Miamis, and two of their sub-groups or bands—the Weas and Piankashaws—are geographically associated with the Wabash River. Potawatomis are recorded generally in extreme northern Indiana above the Kankakee River in early times, and later further south to the north side of the Wabash River. The closely associated Kickapoos and Mascoutens appear in northwestern Indiana in the 18th century, following the extension of prairies from Illinois into Indiana, south of the Kankakee and west of the Tippecanoe River. Delawares are associated with the two forks of



Figure 15. General historical tribal distributions in Indiana (DHPA image).

the White River, in the late 18th and early 19th centuries in central Indiana. For the most part, Shawnees are associated with the drainages along the Ohio River in southern Indiana and adjacent states. For tribal distributions, see, e.g., Callender (1978a, 1978b), Callendar et al. (1978), Clifton (1978), Goddard (1978a, 1978b), Lurie (1978), Tucker (1978). These tribes, in early historical times, interacted with, and participated in trade with Euroamerican cultures, and Figure 16 depicts the Miami Chief Pacanne wearing decorative items acquired through this trade.

Historic trade goods (Figure 17) have been documented archaeologically at sites with components of at least three defined Late Prehistoric–protohistoric groups—Caborn-Welborn, Fort Ancient, and Berrien (e.g., Munson 1995, 1997; Drooker 1996; Cremin

1996)—indicating some degree of cultural contact with European-derived cultures. However, it is more difficult to associate these groups with specific tribes documented in historical times.



Figure 16. Sketch of Pacanne, a Miami Indian Chief from historical times (courtesy of Houghton Library, Harvard College Library. MS Eng 509.2).

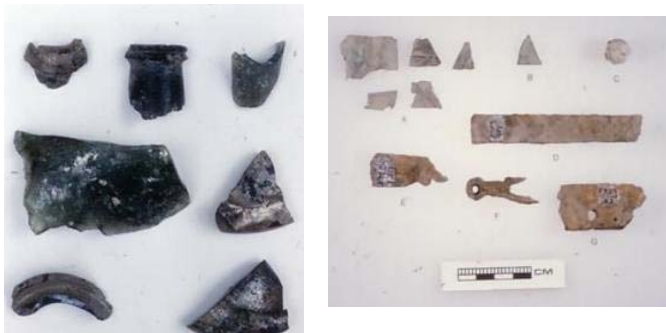


Figure 17. Olive green glass bottle sherds (left) and copper alloy, lead, and iron trade good items (photo by Dr. Jones).

Cremin (1996:408) proposes the Berrien phase of southwestern Michigan and perhaps northern Indiana as antecedent to the Potawatomis. He dates the phase from 1400-1600 A.D. (1996:383). O’Gorman (2007) questions the correspondence of a historically-derived model of Potawatomis with that of prehistoric evidence. Fort Ancient sites (Madisonville Horizon, ca. A.D. 1400-1450 to 1650-1750, Drooker 1997:68-69, quoted in McCullough et al. 2008:28), in southeastern Indiana and southwestern Ohio, have been suggested as ancestral to the Shawnees (e.g., Griffin 1943; Drooker 1996). Drooker (1996:175) has found no definitive evidence of the connection. The Caborn-Welborn phase (e.g. Munson 1995, 1997; Pollack et al. 1996) in southwestern Indiana, and bordering areas of Kentucky and Illinois, is considered a protohistoric culture, but has not been associated with any known historical groups. Munson and McGill (2008:2) dates the phase “from about A.D. 1400-1650, or somewhat later . . .”. Late Prehistoric sites in northwestern Indiana posited as Fisher or Huber (related to Oneota) have been suggested as ancestral to the Miamis or Illiniwek (e.g., Faulkner 1972:178). In evaluating a Huber-Miami connection, Brown (1990:155-159) found evidence lacking.

In short, although cultural groups date from Protohistoric times, no direct evidence of connections with historically recorded tribes have been conclusively demonstrated. This is not to say that connections cannot be demonstrated in the future for Indiana groups. Archaeological sites that are predominantly early historical Native American in our state yield different frequencies and patterns of artifacts than those that are primarily Euroamerican or those villages that were occupied by Native Americans and persons of European background (e.g., Jones 1985, 1987, 1989, 1992). Thus, further studies of Late Prehistoric and early historical Native American sites and their patterns of artifacts, ecofacts, and features may yet yield ethnic affiliations from protohistory to history.

ARCHAEOLOGY AND THE EVIDENCE OF ARCHAEOLOGY

Archaeology is the study of past, recent, and sometimes living **cultures** through the analysis of the material remains they left behind. These remains include **artifacts** and **features** and the **associations** of each to the others. Counts, frequencies, and maps of these through time and space indicate patterns reflecting the unique characteristics and configurations of past peoples or cultures.

From this, you can see that the locations of features and artifacts are all important. Without the precise location, **provenience**, or **context** of the particular artifact or feature, these patterns and cultural arrangements can never be determined by the archaeologist, and the story of the people leaving these behind can never be written. If you do not know what site an artifact came from, it becomes considerably less meaningful in terms of the information it can reveal about the past.

If you are a collector of artifacts, remember that archaeological artifacts are unique and irreplaceable, and the information they hold is invaluable. Thus, it is very important to record their locations and to properly record information about the artifact, its collection, and the site it came from.

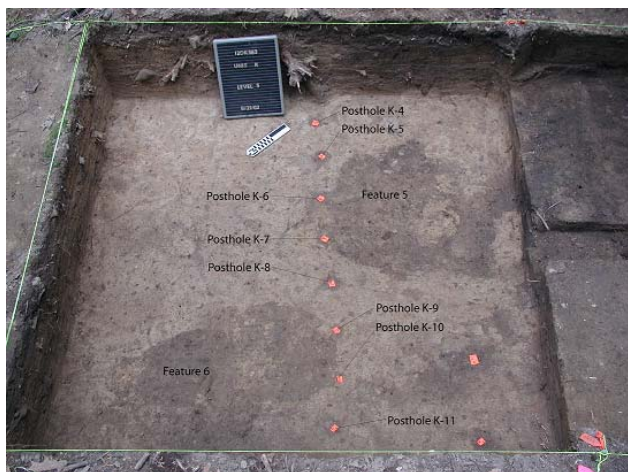


Figure 18. Unit with archaeological features such as postholes identified (White et al. 2003:91).

As mentioned, there are two basic types of archaeological evidence which indicate the presence of an archaeological site:

artifacts and features (Figure 18). Artifacts are evidence of human behavior, but may be more precisely distinguished from features as any portable object made and/or used by humans. Features are defined as non-portable evidence of past human behavior, activity, and technology. Artifacts and features may be either prehistoric or historic. Prehistoric artifacts and features are Native American in origin and date to a time before recorded history in Indiana, ca. 10,000 B.C. to perhaps as late as A.D. 1650-1700. Historic artifacts and features in Indiana generally date after the mid-17th century and refer to peoples of many ethnic and cultural backgrounds, including Native Americans, who lived in and populated the region which later became the state of Indiana.

Prehistoric artifacts include tools made of materials such as stone, bone, clay, shell, copper, and other--usually natural--raw materials. Some examples of prehistoric artifacts (some illustrated below) are spear points, arrowheads, knives, scrapers, **flakes**, ground stone axes, grinding stones, mortars and pestles, pottery, bone pins, awls, hammerstones, and beads (Figures 19, 20).



Figure 19. A variety of lithic tools (left, Munson et al. 2004) and a ground stone axe.



Figure 20. Prehistoric pipe (left, courtesy of ARMS/BSU) and pottery vessel fragments (Munson et al. 2004).

Prehistoric features include fire pits and hearths (Figure 21), burned earth and clay, trash and garbage pits, post molds, evidence of house floors or basins, storage pits, clusters of artifacts (e.g., chipped and broken stones, ceramics or pottery sherds, caches of projectile points), human burials, animal burials, clusters of animal bone, earthworks (such as mounds and circular enclosures), **petroglyphs** and **pictographs**, and **middens**.



Figure 21. A pit feature that has been partially archaeologically excavated (Strezewski et al. 2007).

An archaeological **site** is an instance of past human behavior or activity, where humans conducted some activity and left evidence of it behind. The presence or occurrence of one or more artifacts or features indicates an archaeological site. Features may be recognized by the presence of non-portable evidence of past human activities.

Prehistoric site types common in Indiana include campsites, villages, mounds (Figure 22), chert quarries, cemeteries, artifact caches, tool manufacturing areas, food processing and gathering areas, hunting and butchering sites, lithic scatters, and isolated artifact finds.



Figure 22. Example of an archaeological site in Indiana. This is one of the earthworks at Angel Mounds State Historic Site.

Currently, there are over 56,000 prehistoric and historic archaeological sites which are documented in Indiana. Prehistoric sites in this database range from Paleoindian through Mississippian, and include similar site types as cited above, and large mound and earthwork groups, towns, hamlets, special use/activity areas, and nut and food processing sites. Some Indiana sites listed in the National Register of Historic Places include: the Early Archaic Swan's Landing site, the Early-Middle Woodland New Castle mounds complex, the Early-Middle Woodland Mounds State Park, the Middle Woodland Mann site, the Middle Woodland Mount Vernon (GE Mound) site, the Late Woodland transitional Yankeetown site, the Middle Mississippian Angel Mounds site, and the Hovey Lake Archaeological District that includes Mississippian to protohistoric Caborn-Welborn sites.

Archaeological Methods and Techniques

Before an archaeologist begins to study past cultures and to investigate archaeological sites and the artifacts and cultural deposits they left behind, he or she will spend a lot of time researching what is already known about the particular group or culture of interest, and learn as much as possible about this past research and studies already conducted; what is already known about the site or sites to be investigated; and what is known about the known and recorded sites in the vicinity or region. Details about other factors, such as environment, climate, geology, past vegetation and fauna in the area, hydrology, soils, and other elements, influencing past cultures and their adaptations are also important.

Before and during this process of research, the archaeologist will have developed research questions about the past which he or she wishes to investigate. General questions are sometimes asked, such as who were the people living in an area, what were they like, and what were their everyday lifeways like? Other times, more specific and scientific questions are posed, about human **culture** in general, or specific cultures, such as asking how did people from the past adapt to their changing surroundings, and how and why did aspects of their culture(s), such as technology, particular beliefs and values, economics, settlement patterns and subsistence, social groupings, and other important aspects of their lives and culture change or adjust through time?

An archaeologist will not investigate, survey, or excavate a site without very detailed research questions and a systematic plan

for fieldwork and laboratory analysis of the information that will be recovered. The information, interpretation, and recording of the site, features, and artifacts are what is important. Sites, features, and artifacts are finite in number, and once disturbed, destroyed, or excavated, cannot ever be replaced. The patterns and relationships of these through time and space are most important, so that the archaeologist can view what artifacts, features, and sites are associated at certain times and in certain places. Since the ways people live and behave are patterned, the patterns of archaeological evidence reflect this and allow the archaeologist to reconstruct past lives and behavior. Thus, it is extremely important to record and recover the information from its original location, provenience, and context. If the features and artifacts are removed, disturbed, or destroyed without detailed mapping and recording, then the patterns of the past cannot be determined.

There are two basic methods archaeologists use to discover, investigate, or to recover information from archaeological sites: **survey** (reconnaissance) or controlled **excavation**. The purposes of a survey are to locate sites and to recover preliminary information concerning their boundaries, samples of artifacts, possible occurrences of features or concentrations of artifacts, cultures that once occupied the site, possible dates of the site, and information about the environment such as soils, landforms, and water.

Survey is usually accomplished by walking an area at certain intervals, such as every five or ten meters, looking for evidence of a site. If there is adequate ground surface visibility, such as in a plowed field, artifacts will be seen when encountered (Figure 23). The artifacts are then collected, and the surface of the site is also examined for evidence of any features which may be apparent. Site boundaries are determined by mapping where the artifacts and/or features begin and end. Artifacts from the site are placed in bags labeled with the date surveyed, site number, names of crew members, and any other relevant information, so that the archaeologist always knows what site the artifacts came from.

If the surface of the ground is mostly or completely obscured and cannot be seen, the archaeologist may use shovel probes as a technique to look below the surface for artifacts and features. Shovel probes are small holes excavated to find evidence of a site. They are often excavated every 5, 10, or 15 meters on a grid over the entire site. Again, when artifacts or features cease to be discovered by the probes, the site boundaries have been reached. Shovel probes also allow the investigator to obtain evidence of soils

and stratigraphy at the site. Occasionally, the archaeologist may take soil samples with coring or augering tools during a reconnaissance. Also, non-invasive techniques, such as ground penetrating radar, are being utilized more often as part of investigations (Figure 24).



Figure 23. Systematic archaeological pedestrian survey (courtesy of ARMS/BSU).



Figure 24. Electrical resistivity is just one way to gain subsurface data (courtesy of IPFW Archaeological Survey).

Archaeological excavations are conducted according to a systematic plan and with specific questions and research goals in mind. Excavations may take place after a survey. Before excavations take place, professional research is conducted into what is already known about the site. Research into past archaeological projects conducted in the vicinity and region of the site is completed as well. A knowledge of past cultures present in the area is also necessary.

Once a research design has been developed, a site has been chosen for excavation (**test excavation** or **mitigation**), and the site and surrounding region have been researched, a grid system of intersecting points and lines is set up with a surveying instrument, such as a transit, on the site. A coordinate system is developed for the grid so that it is always known where on the site the archaeologist is excavating. Square or rectangular units are laid out on the site in areas where the archaeologist wants to excavate. These units are designated by the coordinate system and large nails, pin flags, or stakes are placed in the corner of each of the units.

Excavation is a slow and careful process (Figure 25). Units are systematically dug in levels (either by arbitrary measurements or by stratigraphic or natural levels), and the archaeologist records the position of every artifact or feature, as well as the depth. When a unit is excavated, everything encountered is systematically recorded and recovered. This information provides the archaeologist with an understanding of the context in which these data are found. This also allows the archaeologist to understand the relationship of the site to other sites in the area.

Before excavation of a unit begins, a wooden or metal screen with standardized size (usually 1/4 inch) metal hardware “cloth” or mesh is set up into which the soil excavated from the unit is placed. Archaeologists then shake the soil through the screen and recover the artifacts left behind. The archaeologist has plastic or paper bags into which he or she places the artifacts recovered. Each bag is labeled by site number and name, unit, level excavated, feature (if present), date, the name of the project, and the names or initials of the individuals excavating the unit. In this way, all artifacts recovered will be able to be referenced to location, exactly where they were found on a site in space (horizontally) and by depth (vertically or through time).

Units are excavated carefully, generally with hand tools--specifically, shovels and trowels. The top of the unit is measured and mapped according to elevation (depth) below a reference point on or near the site and in space on a map of the site. Excavation takes place in levels, often in 10 centimeter levels. Once a level is excavated, the soil screened, and artifacts recovered and placed in labeled bags recording their location, then the floor or base of the unit at that level is hand troweled so that the archaeologist can inspect the base of the level for features or concentration areas of artifacts. Features are often discerned as areas of differences in soil coloration. Sometimes artifacts, evidence of burning, evidence of past digging or

disturbance of the soil, or other non-natural evidence are present. A feature may also consist of a concentration of artifacts.



Figure 25. Large scale excavation block (left, McCullough et al. 2004) and measuring a feature in an archaeological unit.

When a feature is encountered, it is mapped, measured (Figure 25), and photographed, no matter where in the level it is discovered. A feature is then numbered and excavated separately. The soil from the feature is excavated, screened, and artifacts recovered and bagged and labeled in separate bags. Sometimes, a flotation sample of soil is recovered from a level or feature, so that smaller artifacts or organic remains can be recovered using finer techniques in the archaeological laboratory.

A unit is excavated, level after level, until no more features or artifacts are encountered. This is what archaeologists call “sterile soil,” or natural soil without artifacts or cultural deposits.

In excavation, then, artifacts are recovered, the soil from the units is screened so that artifacts may be recovered in that way, soil samples are taken, detailed notes and measurements are recorded, photographs are taken, and illustrations and maps are made. Even profiles of the soils and **stratigraphy** of the site and the units are mapped and photographed.

Once the excavation is complete, another, even more time-intensive, process takes place. All artifacts and records are taken to a laboratory for inventory, cataloging, and analysis. Laboratory work involves the careful cleaning of artifacts, the cataloging of every item that was discovered, and the analysis of the form, function, and type of every artifact. The dates or age of artifacts are also determined when possible. Artifacts are also counted,

photographed and/or illustrated, and often measured. Analyzing this information helps the archaeologist piece together the puzzle of what was happening at the site and why.

Maps of all units, features, and the overall site are prepared (Figure 26). Tabulations of artifacts from units, levels, and features are prepared, so frequencies of artifact types can be studied, and the artifacts compared to those of other sites. All of the fieldwork records, and copies of the report, are curated in a laboratory or museum, so that there is a permanent record of the work done at the site. In most cases, the artifacts are curated at these institutions as well, so that they may be viewed or studied at a future time.

After the analyses are completed, the professional report of the findings is written. This report summarizes the results of the excavation, explains the methods used, provides information on all of the artifacts and features which were uncovered, explains how the specific questions and research goals were addressed, and discusses the relationship of the site to any others in the region. This document is meant to give future researchers and archaeologists a clear understanding of the excavation work at this site, what was learned from it, whether further archaeological work is necessary at the site, and whether the site is potentially eligible to the State or National registers. The report should provide a permanent record of the site, the people who created it, and of the past. The archaeological report, records of the archaeological investigation, and the artifacts recovered are often all that remains after a site is investigated.

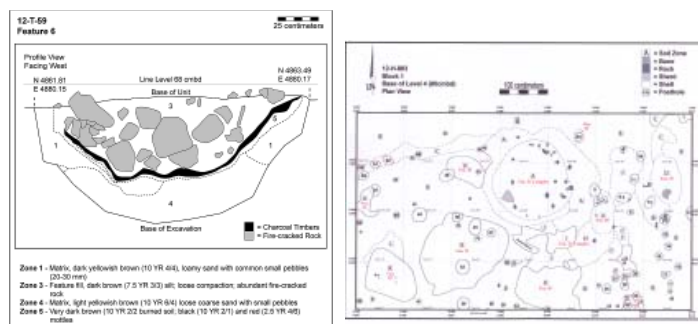


Figure 26. This detailed profile of an excavated feature (left, Strezewski et al. 2007:104) and plan map (McCullough 2008:65) are the types of data that are included in an archaeological excavation report.

In addition to a professional report, the archaeologist must obtain an official site number and complete an archaeological site form for each site discovered, excavated, or reinvestigated. These forms provide a synopsis of what was found, the site location, and recommendations for the site. This data is entered into a computerized database.

Becoming an Archaeologist and Archaeology in Indiana

For the student who wishes to have a career in archaeology, it is never too soon to begin studying and taking appropriate courses. If a high school, junior high, or even elementary school student has access to classes involving, for example, history, geology, soil sciences, statistics, computers, Native American studies, or humanities in general, these would be excellent choices.

Although the training and educational requirements for students will vary with the type of archaeology they choose to go into, generally it is safe to state that a bachelor's degree will not be adequate to become a professional with a career in archaeology (Stuart and McManamon 1996). Most professional archaeologists go on to obtain a graduate degree (either an M.A. or M.S.) usually in anthropology, sociology, or archaeology. Generally, to obtain a Master's degree, two years of course work beyond the undergraduate degree is necessary, in addition to experience in fieldwork and completion of a thesis. Some students choose to continue their college educations by obtaining an additional graduate degree in the form of a Ph.D. Generally, pursuing a Ph.D. will take approximately three more years of college beyond the Master's level and will require the completion of a dissertation. At Indiana University, a person may choose to pursue a Ph.D. directly after receiving their B.A. or B.S. They must then complete some five years of classes, fieldwork, and a dissertation.

Currently, the universities in Indiana with anthropology/archaeology programs include (*=graduate program): Ball State University*, Indiana State University*, all Indiana University campuses (Bloomington*), University of Notre Dame, all Purdue campuses (West Lafayette*), Martin University (Indianapolis) and the University of Indianapolis*. Students in these programs learn the value of the science of archaeology, the endangered nature of archaeological sites, and the public benefits of archaeology. Many of these universities also have active cultural resource management programs that allow professionals and students to participate in

federally or state-mandated archaeological investigations, as well as archaeological research and grant programs.

Educators from many of these institutions have been awarded Historic Preservation Fund grants from the Division of Historic Preservation and Archaeology (DHPA) to conduct scientific archaeological investigations in Indiana, have assisted the Division with the investigations of numerous “accidental discoveries” of archaeological and human burial sites, and have actively supported and participated in Indiana’s annual *Archaeology Month* (formerly *Indiana Archaeology Week*).

In Indiana, professional archaeologists are usually found working in universities, state or federal government, museums, or private businesses. Archaeologists at universities may be professors, researchers, and/or **CRM** archaeologists. Professors predominately teach archaeology to college students, and conduct research into past cultures. These individuals may also be involved in projects where they are hired to conduct archaeological investigations on properties which are slated for development, construction, or extraction (e.g., mining) projects which disturb the ground and which fall under state or federal historic preservation laws. There may be researchers at universities whose duties do not involve teaching, but who conduct archaeological field and laboratory research as employees of a university, or under grants providing monies for research. Professors and researchers may also be affiliated with university museums.

Professional archaeologists working for federal or state agencies are responsible mainly for protecting significant archaeological sites and preserving information from them for the future. They do this under state and federal laws written to protect our national, state, and local heritage. In Indiana, these agencies include the Department of Natural Resources, Division of Historic Preservation and Archaeology; the USDA Forest Service; the Natural Resources Conservation Service; the Indiana Department of Transportation and others.

The DHPA is the state’s lead agency for protecting and preserving information from Indiana’s prehistoric and historic archaeological heritage. The Division holds and maintains the state’s official repository of archaeological records and reports, and manages the state’s computerized database of archaeological site information. The archaeological staff’s primary duty is to review, evaluate, and comment upon federal and state projects that may affect archaeological resources. Among its many other duties are:

implementing the state law that provides protection to archaeological sites and human remains, maintaining archaeological standards and guidelines, conducting archaeological surveys on state properties, reviewing and overseeing grant-funded archaeological projects, reviewing National Register nominations for archaeological sites, providing technical assistance and advice to the public and professionals, and implementing public education initiatives such as the state’s largest archaeology outreach event, Indiana Archaeology Month.

The DHPA conducts a number of field projects each year, depending upon what projects are taking place on state properties, discoveries of archaeological sites or human remains around the state, assistance to the public for projects, and opportunities for research. Past and recent endeavors include archaeological reconnaissance to inventory and protect archaeological resources on state property in northwestern Indiana, investigation of Late Prehistoric sites, investigation of a historic contact site, investigations at a Late Archaic site in central Indiana, and survey and inventory of sites related to the Revolutionary War and War of 1812 in Indiana. Occasional editions of the *Indiana Archaeology* journal are edited by the DHPA archaeology staff and published on various archaeological topics.

Today, many people gather information about archaeology by going to the world wide web. To learn more about the DHPA, go to our webpage at www.IN.gov/dnr/historic. To find out about the archaeological programs at the universities in Indiana, the following pages will be great to access. This is only a partial list of available sites:

Ball State University:

<http://arms.iweb.bsu.edu/>

<http://mdgroover.iweb.bsu.edu/>

Indiana University, Bloomington

<http://www.gbl.indiana.edu/>

<http://www.indiana.edu/~archaeo/>

Indiana University-Purdue University Fort Wayne:

<http://www.ipfw.edu/archsurvy/Home.html>

University of Notre Dame

<http://www.nd.edu/~mschurr/>

<http://anthropology.nd.edu/>

Indiana State University
<http://www.indstate.edu/gga/gga/javatest/anthropology/anthropology.html>

Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis
<http://www.iupui.edu/~anthpm/home.html>

Becoming Involved in Archaeology and Ways to Help

Indiana's archaeological resources are non-renewable. As a result, we have to try and learn as much we can about the evidence left behind by earlier peoples. It has been stated that "if the present rate of archaeological destruction continues, there may be no more sites to preserve in much of the world in 50 to 100 years" (Stuart and McManamon 1996:29). Citizens interested in preserving information about Indiana's rapidly disappearing archaeological resources can help in a variety of ways.

One of the best, and most effective, ways for persons to become involved is to familiarize themselves with the people (and resources) in the archaeological community who can help. To start with, learn about the staff at the State Archaeologist's office. They are there to serve the public, and one of their main duties is to help the public understand more about their archaeological heritage. The staff can provide you with information about recording sites, identifying artifacts, the laws which protect archaeological and human burial sites, and many other topics.

Become involved with one of the many avocational archaeological groups which are active in Indiana. These groups advocate the wise collecting of artifacts, the proper recording of sites, and the study of prehistoric and historic archaeology in the state. In the past, members of these groups have participated in grant-funded archaeological projects, have assisted the Division with investigations of accidental discoveries of archaeological resources, and have obtained state permits to conduct proper archaeological investigations. Many avocational archaeologists have also participated in *Archaeology Week* or *Month* activities by attending stewardship classes which promote the proper preservation of the state's archaeological resources.

Volunteering to work on a "dig" or professional excavation is another great way to become involved and gain valuable experience in various archaeological field techniques. Contact the

universities, and ask if volunteer opportunities would be available with their next summer field school.

Learning more about the laws which protect archaeological and human burial sites in our state will also help. Spread the word, and let other interested people learn more about how resources are protected in Indiana. You can take an active role by "keeping an eye out" for any illegal looting or digging activities. If you see, or know of any illegal digging, contact your local law enforcement officials, or our office, immediately.

Indiana Archaeology Month is also an excellent way to participate. Each year in September, numerous activities are available all over the state which allow people to: go on archaeological laboratory tours, visit excavations, have artifacts identified, record site locations, and many more opportunities. *Archaeology Month* allows the citizens of Indiana to learn more about their archaeological heritage, as well as learn more about the science of archaeology itself (Figure 27).



Figure 27. Each year there is a commemorative Indiana Archaeology Month poster which features a "theme," as well as sites and artifacts from various parts of our state. On the right are visitors viewing an archaeological display at an Indiana Archaeology Month event (McGill and Munson 2008).

Learn more about archaeology through books, videos, lectures, and now even the world wide web. There are many sources of information on the latest trends and topics in archaeology and anthropology. Keeping up-to-date is important for both the

professional and nonprofessional. For example, contact the National Park Service, national archaeological organizations, or the State Archaeologist for information on ways to keep current.

If you surface collect for artifacts and would like to share with professional archaeologists any site locations you know about, that is another way of helping record valuable information about the past. When the Division of Historic Preservation and Archaeology knows where a site is, it becomes easier to try and afford protection for the site. If no record of a site exists, it is obviously much harder to protect. Thus, keeping accurate and complete records of sites is important, and the individual doing so contributes additional protection for important resources.

These are just a few ways to become involved and help. There are many more, but any level of involvement that you choose will undoubtedly be satisfying to you.

THE HISTORIC PRESERVATION AND ARCHAEOLOGY LAW

Indiana has a law which protects archaeological sites. The Indiana Historic Preservation and Archaeology Law (IC 14-21-1) protects archaeological sites and historic burial sites regardless of their location on state or private lands. All archaeological sites dating before December 31, 1870 are protected under this act, as are buried human remains dating before 1940.

If someone wishes to surface collect artifacts, they may do so as long as they have permission to be on the property. Artifacts belong to the landowner, so a surface collector must also have permission from the landowner to collect and keep the artifacts.

To dig for artifacts, even on your own land, an approved plan for the excavation must be applied for and obtained from the Division of Historic Preservation and Archaeology. Even professional archaeologists must go through the same process to receive an approved plan to conduct an excavation. This process allows for the controlled, systematic recovery of artifacts and information from sites.

The law also requires that if an archaeological or human burial site is accidentally discovered, work must stop, and the discovery must be reported to the Department of Natural Resources within two working days. When the discovery is reported to the DNR, law enforcement officers and professional archaeologists in-

investigate the discovery and decide on a course of action to protect the site. Any looting or illegal purposeful disturbance to an archaeological or human burial site should also be reported immediately to either the DNR or law enforcement officials.

The law which protects sites in Indiana is one of the strongest of its type in the country. As a result of the passage of this law, and increased public awareness of it, important archaeological sites are being investigated and protected. Individuals conducting illegal excavations have been convicted, and the word is out that Indiana does not tolerate disrespect for the past and our irreplaceable archaeological resources.

Other special types of sites, such as cemeteries or burial grounds, are protected under other Indiana laws as well.

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GLOSSARY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL TERMS

Anthropology	The study of humankind, with particular emphasis on its cultural and biological adaptations.
Archaeology	The anthropological study of past lifeways, cultures, and cultural processes through the investigation of material remains left behind by humans.
Artifact	Any portable object made, used, and/or modified by humans. Or, more generally, any evidence of human behavior. Common prehistoric artifacts found archaeologically include spear points, arrowheads, knives, chipped or broken stone debris, ground stone axes, grinding stones, mortars and pestles, awls, adzes, gouges, pottery, clothing and ornamental pins, decorative items and ornaments, scraping tools, hammerstones, bone fishhooks, stone perforators, and beads.
Associations	The relationships of artifacts and features at a site, based on provenience and context.
Atlatl	A spearthrower.
Avocational archaeologist	A person who participates in archaeology but does not practice it as a profession. Avocational archaeologists may volunteer to work with qualified professional archaeologists, and many take courses and gain substantial experience in archaeological methods and techniques. Others may be involved in archaeology as a hobby. Generally, avocational archaeologists subscribe to a preservation ethic to protect archaeological resources and to responsibly and legally preserve and study information from sites.
Celt	An ungrooved axe. Celts may be made of pecked and ground stone, or hammered copper.
Ceramics	Pottery vessels or potsherds.
Chert	Stone of microscopic or small quartz particles used for the making of stone tools. Some types of chert include

flint, agate, and jasper.

Chieftdom	A non-egalitarian hierarchial social organization with a fixed and permanent role for a chief/leader.
Collared	A thickened area present below the rim and above the neck on a clay pottery vessel.
Complicated stamped	Decorations of curvilinear or rectilinear design on a paddle stamped into a clay vessel.
Context	The position of an artifact or feature in its soil matrix, horizontal, and vertical location, and its relationship with other artifacts and features, related to the behavioral activities which placed it there.
Cord-impressed	Impression into a clay vessel surface before firing by a stick wrapped with cord, or cord on the edge of a paddle.
Cord-marked	Cordage impressions on a pottery vessel as a result of stamping with a cord-wrapped paddle.
Core	A stone which exhibits one or more flake scars, showing that it has been used as a raw material for flintknapping.
CRM	Cultural resource management. The protection, preservation, and recovery of information from archaeological sites, under federal and state laws. Universities and private archaeological companies often are hired to conduct CRM archaeology mandated under federal or state laws.
Culture	A system of shared, learned, symbolic human behavior for adaptation to our natural and social environment. Culture may be thought of as a system composed of interrelated parts or subsystems, where a change in one part affects or influences the other parts. Subsystems interrelated with culture include technology, communication (and language), demography, psychology, economics, sociological organization, beliefs and values, subsistence, settlement, environment, etc.

Excavation	The systematic recovery of archaeological deposits through the removal and screening of soil. These can be either test excavations or mitigation.
Fabric-impressed	Impressions of woven fabric in the surface of a pottery vessel.
Feature	Non-portable evidence of past human behavior, activity, and technology found on or in the ground. Prehistoric features commonly include fire pits and hearths, burned earth and clay, trash and garbage pits, post molds, evidence of house floors or basins, storage pits, clusters of artifacts (e.g., chipped and broken stones, caches of projectile points, ceramics or pottery sherds), human and animal burials, clusters of animal bone, earthworks (such as mounds and circular enclosures), petroglyphs and pictographs, and middens.
Flake	A byproduct of flintknapping, toolmaking, use, or other human activities, resulting in a fragment of stone detached from a parent stone. Often, a flake has evidence of purposeful removal, including a bulb of percussion, ripple marks, a striking platform, etc.
Gorget	Decorative object worn on the chest.
Grog-tempered	Ceramics tempered with fragments of crushed pottery.
Lithics	Stones used or modified for human activities such as the manufacture of prehistoric tools, cooking, hunting, etc.
Microtools	Small tools predominately of stone manufactured and used to perform certain tasks.
Midden	Cultural refuse or deposition built up at a site.
Mitigation	The large-scale recovery, by excavation, of enough archaeological information from a site so that the entire range of materials present and information on past

	activities and behavior there may be retrieved. Termed Phase III in CRM investigations.
Multi-component	An archaeological site with occupations from more than one culture or time period.
Petroglyphs	Naturalistic or symbolic representations or depictions carved into stone.
Pictographs	Pictures or drawings painted on rocks, cave walls, stone outcrops, or rockshelters.
Prehistory	Human activities, events, and occupations before written records. In North America, this primarily includes Native American prehistoric cultures, but does not imply that these cultures did not have long, rich, and varied cultural and oral histories and traditions.
Protohistory	Protohistoric cultures can be defined as those prehistoric groups developing or continuing directly into early recorded history, some associated with early historic artifacts.
Provenience	The horizontal and vertical location of an artifact at a site.
Red Ochre	Late Archaic-Early Woodland culture with burial practices, usually in mounds, involving the use or placement of red ochre (a red hematite pigment).
Shell-tempered	Ceramics (pottery) tempered with fragments of crushed shell.
Site	The presence or occurrence of one or more artifacts or features indicates an archaeological site. An archaeological site is an instance of past human behavior or activity, where humans conducted some activity and left evidence of it behind, on or in the ground. Some common prehistoric site types include artifact caches, villages and camps, cemeteries, burials, workshops (e.g., stone debris from flintknapping activities), quarries, and earthworks (mounds, embankments, enclosures, fortifications, etc.).

Stratigraphy	Horizons, strata, or layers of soil deposited at a location, where the deepest strata were deposited the earliest, and the more recent layers deposited higher in the stratigraphic sequence.
Survey	The systematic recovery and recording of archaeological information such as site locations and artifacts by visually inspecting the surface of the ground. Termed Phase I in CRM investigations.
Test excavation	Systematic excavation of a representative portion or percentage of a site to evaluate and determine its nature and extent, what information is present, whether there are intact or in situ deposits present, and the degree of disturbance to the site, often to determine whether it is eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Termed Phase II in CRM.
Wyandotte	A type of dark blue-gray chert found in southern Indiana.