

NEWSLETTER
of the
SOUTHEASTERN ARCHAEOLOGICAL CONFERENCE

Vol. 9, No. 2

Cambridge, Mass.

December, 1963

AT LONG LAST, MORE FROM THE EDITOR

Excuses, excuses... Well, enough of that. Herewith is something of value for the dues that you paid; including an out-dated financial report. We also have a new pottery type from South Carolina by Mr. Wadell--the first description in many a year for this publication which used to have such as its mainstay. The Medieval archaeology article was selected for I felt that few Americans, even those in Historic Site archaeology, are very aware of what has gone on in this closely allied field in terms of strategy and methodology.

We have set something of a speed record (for a change) in getting the last item to you; the report on the recent Macon meeting. The really important news there, is to be found in the decision to hold the 21st Conference at New Orleans under the auspices of Bob Wauchope of Tulane University on November 6th and 7th, 1964. The topic will be "Agriculture in the East."

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A Financial Statement of the
Southeastern Archaeological Conference 1960-1962

Income - May, 1960 to January, 1963

Balance received from W. G. Haag, May, 1960	\$ 73.88
Publication subvention, Florida State University	75.00
Dues and sale of publications	747.00
Miscellaneous receipts	1.14
	\$897.02
TOTAL INCOME	\$897.02

Expenses - May, 1960 to January, 1963

Bank charges	\$ 21.91
Postage and mailing	127.58
Printing	539.98
Miscellaneous	10.29
Reimbursement for overpayment	2.50
	\$702.26

TOTAL EXPENSES \$702.26

Income, 1960-1962	\$897.02
Expenses, 1960-1962	<u>702.26</u>
BALANCE, Jan. 4, 1963	\$194.76

EDITOR'S REPORT: During this period from May 1960 to January 1963
(Not including this volume), four issues of the Newsletter were
published:

Volume 7, No. 1	22 pages
Volume 7, No. 2	18 pages
Volume 8	102 pages
Volume 9, No. 1	98 pages
	240 PAGES

GRAND TOTAL 240 PAGES

THOM'S CREEK PUNCTATE

Eugene G. Waddell

PASTE:

Method of manufacture: Coiling or successive annual rings

Tempering: usually consists of generous portions of fine sand.
Sherds with little or no apparent tempering material occur;
grit tempering is rare

Texture: in most cases an even distribution of particles;
diagonal lamination also frequent

Hardness: 2.0 - 2.5

Color: very homogeneous throughout most vessels with the usual
surface range from tan to brownish-orange with occasional
darker browns. The core ranges from the predominant tan
through grey to black.

SURFACE FINISH:

Interior and exterior surfaces are moderately compact. The
finish varies from roughly smoothed to polished, depending princi-
pally on the amount and size of temper. Tooling marks are rarely
visible. The exterior and interior were apparently smoothed before
the vessel was decorated. The interior was resmoothed after the
decoration was completed to remove the protrusions which appeared
as a result of pressing the puncheon into the exterior. Sherds not
resmoothed, allowing the protrusions to remain, are encountered
infrequently.

DECORATION:

This type includes punctations of a vast variety of sizes and shapes
(Fig. 1; 2a). These were apparently made through the use of ma-
terials such as bone, wood, stone, and shell as puncheons (Fig. 2b).
Punctations made with the entire end of a dowel or reed occur, but
most frequently only half or part of such an instrument left the im-
pression (Fig. 2a). This mode is a result of the fact that the pun-
cheon in this instance was split and pressed into the surface with

the split or flat side facing the surface being decorated. Often shallow extensions may be found between punctates where the punch was not lifted from the surface while the vessel was being decorated, often termed linear punctation or "drag-punched" (Fig. 1 e-g). More elaborate treatments occur rarely; in most instances this group is composed of circular or angular arrangements of linear punctation. Typical punctate designs "varied with blank spaces" (Fig. 1f) similar in character to the many Stalling's Island sherds decorated in this manner (Claflin, 1931:pl. 18) are also found. Random punctation occurs in many instances. Sherds have been found that include several different varieties of punctates. On the South Carolina coast punctations range from neat circular impressions left by a periwinkle (*Littorina irrorata*, say) to wavering lines made by the edge of a cockleshell (*Trachycardium muricatum* and *Dinocardium robustum*). The punctations generally occur in bands or rows running parallel to the lip. Punctation is usually found on the entire exterior surface except for the area closest to the base, but it is not uncommon to find large rim sherds with only two or three rows of punctation and the remainder of the surface undecorated.

FORM:

Rim: straight and incurving slightly near the lip, rarely excurving to a slight degree (Fig. 2 c)

Lip: rounded, occasionally pointed or flat, and rarely angled (diagonally flattened)

Body: hemispherical and globular (Fig. 2 d)

Thickness: 5-9 mm., mean 7 mm.

Appendages: none

THOM'S CREEK PUNCTATE

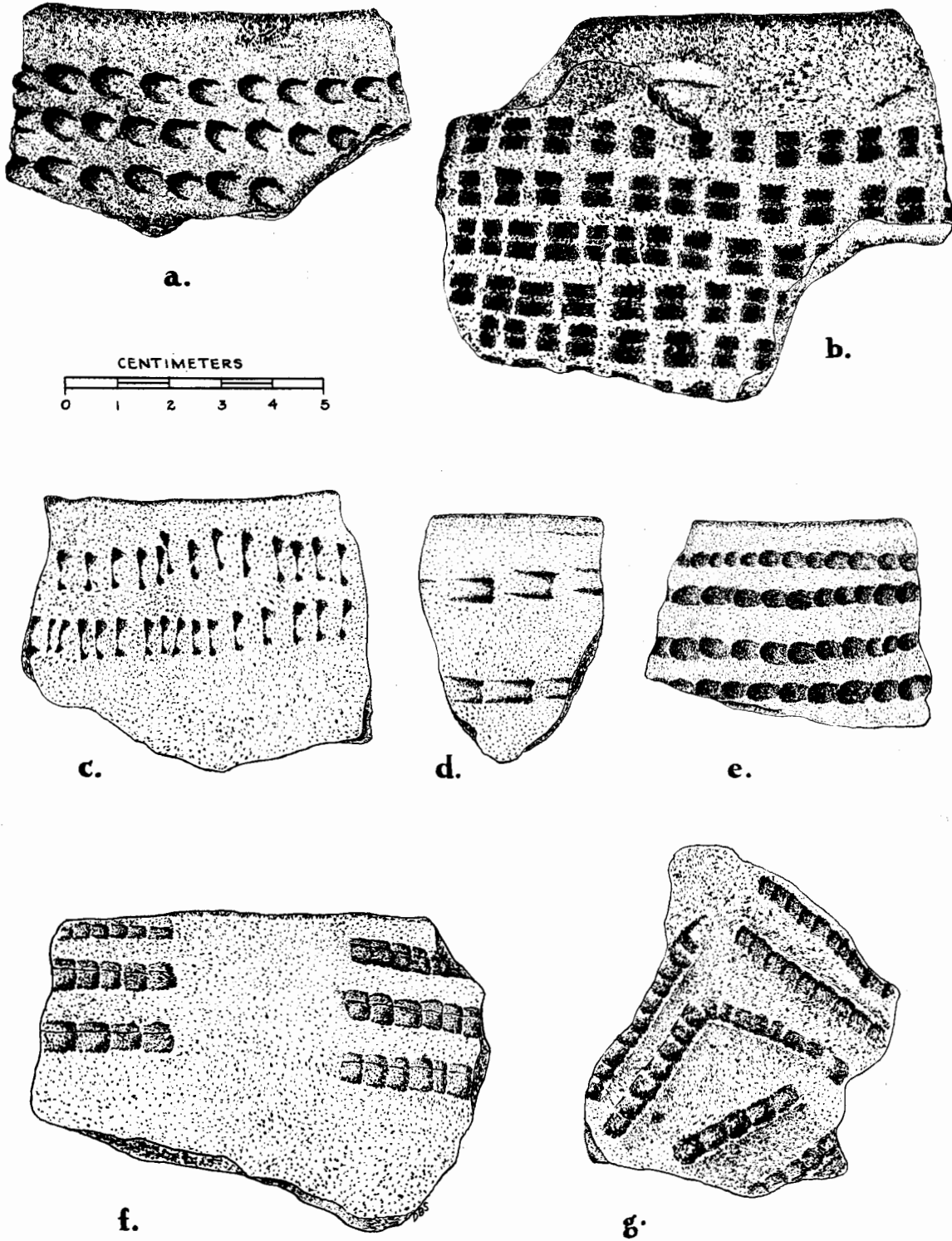
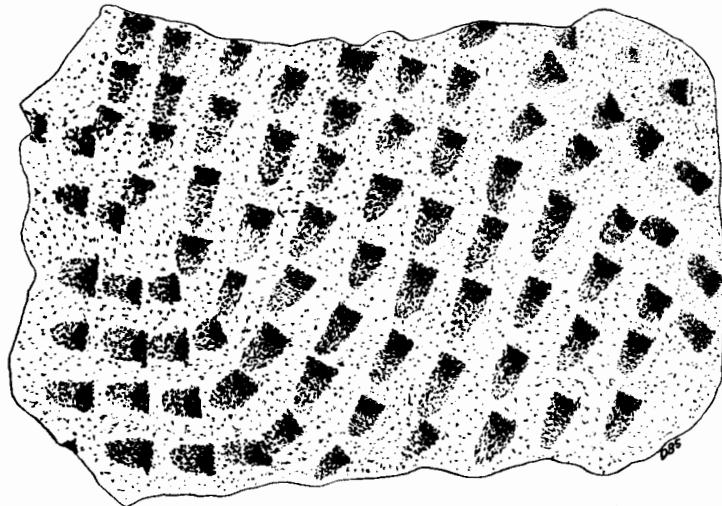


Figure 1.

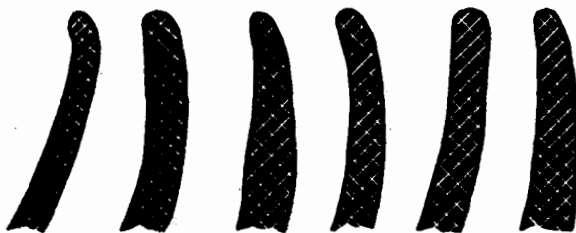
THOM'S CREEK PUNCTATE



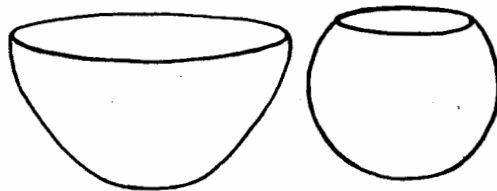
a.



b.



c. rim profiles



d. vessel shapes

Figure 2.

USUAL RANGE OF TYPE:

Thom's Creek Punctate does not apparently occur in any notable quantity south of the Savannah River. It occurs at least as far north as Darlington County and as far west as Edgefield County in South Carolina. At present sherds of this type have been found in the following South Carolina counties: Florence, Lexington, Orangeburg, Sumter, Charleston, Berkeley, Horry, Marion, Darlington, Lee Kershaw, Clarendon, Edgefield, Barnwell, Richland, Williamsburg, and Dorchester.

CHRONOLOGICAL POSITION OF THE TYPE IN RANGE:

Overlies the Stallings Island Fiber Tempered Complex and underlies the Deptford Complex (Caldwell, 1952; Griffin, 1945).

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METHODS AND TECHNIQUES OF MEDIEVAL VILLAGE ARCHAEOLOGY

by

Ralph M. Rowlette

Until as late as 1950 professional archaeologists in Britain devoted scant attention to the remains of medieval villages. Archaeologists in nearly all other European countries also exhibited this same lack of interest in settlement remains dating from the Middle Ages. A fair amount of archaeological work was done in Britain and elsewhere on ruined castles, churches, and monumental structures of medieval times, but these remains were also the ones best illuminated by historical documents. The amount of effort expended on the relatively unknown village sites where a majority of the people had lived was so slight that before 1948 only nineteen medieval village sites had been excavated with anything like scientific archaeological methods. (Hurst, 1953:192)

Maurice Beresford, an economic historian, wanted some data about deserted medieval villages and found it could be derived only by archaeological means. In 1948 he set about establishing a group to get research underway in this relatively new archaeological genre. This organization, the Deserted Medieval Village Research Group, was composed of people directly concerned with medieval archaeology or the contributions which archaeology could make to their studies. Among the founding members were an economic historian (Beresford), a settlement and soils geographer, an historical geographer, an architect, and three archaeologists, including an inspector of ancient monuments of the Ministry of Works (J. G. Hurst). The consulting members were archaeologists and specialists in other disciplines, including physical anthropology (J. C. Trevor). (Anonymous, 1953:164).

This paper is concerned with the methods and techniques with which the Deserted Medieval Village Research Group is conducting its research. It will treat the nature of the problems with which the group is dealing, the ways these problems are handled, and the possibilities of the wider applications of their methods.

Investigating the numerous villages of England that were deserted in late medieval times is the main interest of the research group. Their approach is definitely problem-oriented as the group has firmly in mind the kind of sites they wish to study. Well-planned from the beginning, their highly systematic plan of attack is actually a direct historical approach to archaeology. Their immediate aim is to compile an index file which summarizes information arrived from historical documents such as the Domesday Book and tax records, topographical details, the present stage of the site, and details of any previous study. Aerial photographs, where possible, are also included with each card.

The strategy of the group calls for a systematic search for the sites of unknown "lost villages." Once these are found, the actual excavations will at first consist primarily of the sampling of a large number, with only periodic excavation of complete sites. (Hurst, 1956:271). New techniques developed during the total excavation of a rather clear-cut test site, Wharram Percy, are used. As may be suspected, the project will be a long one and the work accomplished so far is just a small beginning. More details will be given as soon as the nature of the problem of cultural historical research on the deserted villages of England has been summarized.

The "lost villages" being studied were flourishing peasant communities during the Middle Ages, but now have, at the very most, only a manor house and a farm or church to mark their location. Also included in the category are sites which were once depopulated, but now have a settlement built over them. (Beresford, 1954:64). There seem to be enough lost villages to make long-range plans necessary. Hurst (1956:255) reports that more than 1,300 villages depopulated since about A. D. 1066 have been identified, their locations of the ground discovered, and their positions plotted on maps.

There were several important factors responsible for village desertion since the Norman Conquest, and it is hoped that this archaeological study will greatly improve the understanding of these causes. A few of the lost villages were those of Saxon and Danish rebels against the Normans, which the latter destroyed and did not rebuild (Beresford, 1954a:151). The Norman aristocrats and their subordinate landholders also emptied villages by the creation of forest preserves for their sport and amusement (Golson, 1953:181). The Cistercian order, in their desire for solitude, depopulated villages when they founded abbeys in the thickly settled parts of England (Colvin, 1953:130). The Black Death of 1349 indirectly caused depopulation only in very small villages established in marginal farming country. With the decline in total population as a result of the plague, the peasants of the poor land moved to more favorable farming areas where manpower was lacking (Hurst, 1956:260-261). The main flood of depopulation in England occurred from 1440 to 1520, when the English landlords of the Midland found it was more profitable to convert their estates into sheep ranches than to continue them as wheat farms. With the resultant drop in the need for farm workers, the tenants of these converted or "enclosed" estates were evicted and their villages were torn down or allowed to fall into decay. (Beresford, 1954b:74-133). At the end of the medieval period, a few more villages were depopulated when the landed gentry fashionably created extensive parks around their manor houses (Golson, 1953:181). All during the medieval period occasional villages were deserted, of course, as a result of local and isolated causes, such as erosion by the sea, fires, and retaliatory raids of the Scots (Beresford, 1954b:154-55). Less attention, however, will be paid to those villages depopulated by isolated causes (Beresford, 1953:161-63) as the ultimate objective of the study is the application of archaeological data to illuminate the broad and recurrent processes that led to village

desertion.

The personnel of the several disciplines represented in the Deserted Medieval Village Research Group want detailed data of many different kinds. They want the archaeologist to peel away the layers of settlement and let them see how the medieval village developed, expanded, and contracted through time. They want the peasant cottage presented in all grades and constructed of different materials and information about the tools, pottery, house furnishings, equipment, articles of dress, and crops and animals raised. Comparative materials are needed to answer questions about the relative positions of the free peasants of the north and manorial villeins of the Midlands. Trevor, the physical anthropologist, needs skeletal material to compare changes in physical type in the country with those that took place in the cities. (Hurst, 1956:263-67). Not only do they expect archaeology to give detailed information on the material culture of the peasant villages, but also to make the dating of the village desertions more precise. While documentary knowledge is heavily relied upon to find the sites of the lost villages, this evidence is too general and so irregular that they expect that, once pottery horizons have been established, the dates of desertions can be narrowed down to within a century (Beresford, 1954b:137-162).

In order to collect the data required for the reconstruction of the culture of these medieval villages and answer questions about technology, distribution, chronology, and the operation of cultural processes in the Middle Ages, sites had to be found for the archaeologists to dig. The method of survey by the group is a double attack utilizing documentary sources and field evidence. While not all the names and general locations of lost villages can be found by the use of documentary sources, the area of inquiry is greatly narrowed. Historians pored over a series of tax records, manorial documents, church and monastic records, land charters, law court records, and old maps to find mention of towns that had once existed (Beresford, 1954b:279-336). The maps were not directly used for they were made too late to show villages deserted in the Middle Ages, but field names often give a good clue to the presence of village remains. Also very helpful for field and farm names, they discovered, were folk traditions and folk names (Beresford, 1954b:327-331).

This kind of work -- providing the archaeologist with as much information as possible about locations and dates of sites -- is considered by Beresford (1954b:67-68) as the main task of the historian (who should then offer himself as a trainee excavator).

The documentary studies were supplemented by leg-work in the field and aerial photographs. A close inspection of air ministry photographs taken by J. K. S. St. Joseph has revealed a number of sites hitherto unsuspected (Beresford, 1954a:42). Since immediate excavation of over 1,300 sites is impossible, aerial photographs have been heavily relied upon for the plan and semi-organized layout of the medieval peasant settlement and its relation to the field systems that accompanied it (Beresford and J. K. S. St. Joseph, 1958:12). Local citizens were also made "lost village" conscious and a body of correspondents has been

built up among the interested laymen who know their localities well.

As was mentioned earlier, a card file recording the relevant details of each village's history is maintained. To put each example in its correct natural setting, special attention is paid to factors of soil, relief, drainage, and natural vegetation. This system not only provides a convenient index of sites, but is also the basis from which long term maps showing the relationships of different types of desertions to different soils, and so on, can be compiled (Hurst, 1956:256).

With the index of sites available, the program has been carefully planned. It includes a sequence of what Piggott (1959:33) calls selective excavation and then total excavation. Essentially, the first part of the program calls for the selective work on a number of sites. This will be accomplished by excavating one house each at a large number of village sites and help to determine how they should be arranged chronologically. Since selective excavation, however, is supposed to be efficient only where there is some information already available to guide the selection which takes place and aid in interpreting the data derived from the excavation, the complete stripping of some sites must also be used. Total excavation was started in 1953 on Wharram Percy, a pilot site to test the efficiency of the new techniques being formulated for the study of medieval village archaeology. (Hurst, 1956:271)

This complete stripping of whole villages, which ought to yield data useful for the study of village social organization and economics, provides a kind of control on the sampling excavations. Since there are so many villages which were deserted during the latter half of the Middle Ages, and a great number of these desertions came from the period of the conversion of wheat lands to sheep-runs, many of these villages should be similar enough to prevent the consequences of total excavation from being as destructive and far-reaching as they would be in the case of a practically unique site or monument, such as Stonehenge in England, or in North America, the Serpent Mound of Adams County, Ohio.

The emphasis of the research group on total excavation -- either of a complete site or an entire house -- is based on the fact that trenching has been found to allow too much data to be missed and even destroyed. (Hurst, 1956:269). This discovery was made in Denmark where the study of medieval villages is older than in England. Experience there (Steensberg, 1955:183) and in England (Hurst, 1956:266) has shown that settlements in historic times were much more long-lived than in pre-historic times. As a result, up to five subsequent structures were built on each site, but only about eighteen inches to two feet of deposit accumulated to separate the top from the bottom floor level. There are several possible reasons for this. Most medieval peasant dwellings were built as flimsily as were houses in the Metal Ages of Europe. But unlike sites of that era, not even stone door sills and hearths help the excavator recognize the clay floors of dwellings. The medieval peasant was apparently much cleaner than is commonly supposed and left little occupation debris on his well-swept floors. Therefore, the different floor levels representing six centuries of occupation can be missed entirely by trenches and vertical forms of excavation which obscure the

differentiation of the floor levels.

In order to avoid the difficulties outlined above, Gudmund Hatt, a Danish pioneer in medieval village archaeology, abandoned a grid system of excavation and uncovered whole site units at once, peeling off the floor levels as they lay on top of each other in the ground (Steensberg, 1955: 183). This technique is essentially the one used by Steensberg (1955) and Hurst (1956) who lay out a grid system over the proposed excavation to use the squares for reference in recording the locations of finds; but vertical sections representing the grid system are not left standing as the floors are troweled away. As each level is cleared, a plan is drawn and a photograph made, showing each artifact, down to the last potsherd, in place. Both archaeologists initially determine the vertical position of artifacts by means of arbitrary levels. They hope that by doing so, all artifacts can be related to the appropriate floor level when the differentiation between levels is indistinct and hard to determine. By using a very detailed system of recording the exact location of every item uncovered and the separate bagging of finds, vertical sections can be reconstructed for any part of the site.

The Deserted Medieval Village Research Group archaeologists, however, are basically dissatisfied with this method of locating the vertical positions of artifacts. In some of the more recent excavations, such as Beere in Devon (Jope and Threlfall, 1958:116-117) and Riseholme in Lincoln (Thompson, 1960 :102-104) the attempt has been made to peel off the thin layers of superimposed house floors according to their "natural" stratification. In Denmark, also, excavators are now required to distinguish, by any combination of qualities such as texture, color, compactness and natural cleavage, floor levels scarcely one centimeter thick. Major vertical excavation consists of the sectioning of all holes, so as to accurately segregate the post holes and cache pits from root holes and animal burrows (Steensberg, 1955:183; and Hurst, 1956:232-233).

Along with selective and total excavation, the Research Group has an emergency excavation technique for gathering data from sites threatened by immediate destruction, utilizing a fifteen-ton mechanical scraper for the wholesale stripping of the entire site. This, Hurst (1956:271) estimates, allows the recovery of the complete plans of villages, including enclosures, house patterns, and streets, but about half of the stratigraphy and the artifacts are not recovered.

After the data has been gathered, the historians, geographers, architects, and other specialists converge upon it to work toward the reconstruction of the culture of the medieval peasantry and to define better the cultural forces and processes at work. The combined historical information and archaeological discoveries have been especially effective in answering problems about medieval architecture (Singleton, 1954). Much has been revealed concerning Dark Age and late Iron Age buildings as the dwellings of the poorer folk do not seem to have changed much over one thousand years. The revelation by more careful techniques of how closely the floors of these structures are packed together where houses have been built on the same place for centuries may have

far-reaching consequences if applied to prehistoric sites. Already Hatt has found with the techniques used on medieval settlements, which revealed four and five levels at the loci of Danish Iron Age dwellings, (Steensberg, 1955:183), that some Iron Age sites were much more permanent than had been previously recognized.

The work of the Deserted Medieval Village Research Group has provided archaeologists and other scholars with a good example of how to initiate research in an archaeological genre in which previous work is almost completely lacking. It demonstrates the quick results that may be derived from archaeological research based upon a well-planned strategy and how scholars in other disciplines can extensively use data which is obtainable only by archaeological methods. Despite the highly fragmented nature of British intellectual disciplines, the cooperation of specialists from different fields has been fruitful even in the initial stages of the program, and should facilitate maximum use of the data found.

In Europe as a whole such joint effort has generally been lacking. The proto-historic Iron Age cultures have been neglected by archaeologists, historians, and ethnologists alike. Most of the countries of Europe have similar problems concerning the remains of the Middle Ages which are still relatively uninvestigated. In Europe and the Old World archaeological methods and techniques utilized by the research group could be applied with little modification.

In the New World, also, there is a hiatus between the studies of historians, ethnologists, archaeologists, and geographers, especially with regard to the Indians of the eastern United States who were almost completely disrupted or extinct before ethnography had developed. The applicability to the New World of the methods of the group must of necessity be somewhat general. Nevertheless, the procedures worked out certainly have some use to archaeology devoted to colonial and pioneer sites, an area of study still in its beginning stages. Even for the American aborigines, the effective combination of historic, ethnographic, and archaeological data is still lacking. Although much has been done toward relating immediately prehistoric and proto-historic assemblages to ethnic groups since Steward (1942) wrote about the need for a direct historical approach to archaeology, this method has never been applied in anything resembling an organized and comprehensive manner. It has, furthermore, been applied less in the eastern United States than in the West, although the latter area is the one better known ethnographically. Although Willey and Phillips (1958:49-50) have pointed out that societies and archaeological groupings often may not coincide, in the eastern United States there are known Indian villages which probably do, but have not yet been located on the ground. The excavation of such sites would greatly supplement the scanty and irregular ethnographic data on the Indians of the eastern part of North America. Problems pertaining to the Shawnee represent one example. A fair amount has been written concerning both the aboriginal location of the Shawnee and their connections with proto-historic archaeological assemblages, but the results have been somewhat inconclusive. There do exist, however, enough historical references to enable Shawnee village sites to be found,

and undoubtedly the combined archaeological and ethnohistoric data would go far to solve the problems concerning that tribe.

Also applicable in a general way to the New World is the British and Danish experience in the exploitation of the advantages of horizontal excavation. New World sites are also likely to be thin (thinner than those of medieval Europe) and easily missed in excavations. Archaeologists here who were stunned by Wheeler's (1954:53) condemnation of the use of arbitrary levels in the location of the position of artifacts may feel somewhat vindicated by the research group's use of this technique to help correct errors made in interpreting the stratigraphy of the lost villages. One of the more pertinent aspects of British techniques relates to the rapid excavation of sites threatened with destruction. Although, unfortunately, not too much detailed information about the emergency excavation measures of the British archaeologists has been written, excavators in both the Old and New Worlds can well use all the helpful ideas they can get about the hasty extraction of optimum amounts of data from the many sites threatened to be ruined forever.

Although primarily interested in cultural processes that refer in some way to economics and technology, the Deserted Medieval Village Research Group sets an admirable example in the interweaving and synthesizing of the results of both synchronic and diachronic studies. They follow cultural processes over rather long periods of time and discern how these are affected by, and counter-affect at any given point in time, the socio-cultural situation. There is an inherent theoretical significance in the efforts of both Medieval and Dark Age (Wainwright, 1962) archaeologists in Britain to determine just how socio-cultural situations, known partially from documentary sources, show up as an archaeological residual. This potential verification, or the lack of verification, of common assumptions in archaeology could have far-reaching importance for archaeological studies anywhere in the world.

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REPORT OF THE 20th SOUTHEASTERN CONFERENCE

by

Stephen Williams

The 20th Southeastern Conference was held at the Ocmulgee National Monument, Macon, Georgia, on Friday, November 1 and Saturday, November 2, 1963. The main topic of the Conference was the Paleo-Indian Era in the Southeast. The discussion of this topic by the Conference will be used as a background for a paper being written by Stephen Williams with the assistance of James B. Stoltman of Harvard University as a review paper to be published by the International Congress for Quaternary Research (INQUA). Conference members had been asked to bring together data on distribution of this material in their various states.

Session I on Friday morning was devoted to reports on Current Field Work in the Southeast; The Chairman was Edward D. Jahns. A series of short formal papers started the session. The first by David W. Chase was on the Walker Street site. This site is located about four miles south of Columbus, Georgia, on the Chattahoochee River. It was explored by Harold A. Huscher and Chase in February, 1963, under a National Science Foundation Grant.

The site appears to be a "sealed-off" situation having been covered by river-laid silts to an average depth of five feet. A few artifacts were scattered throughout this overburden, but no well defined later level was detected. To save time and expense, the site was partly excavated by power machinery to a depth of 7.5 feet and then hand excavated from that level with the aid of a power screen.

Generally, it may be assumed that these artifacts represent the products of the Cartersville Period--a western Georgia phase of Deptford in an Early Woodland context. Most commonly, vessels were of the semi-conoidal type with moderately everted rims, rounded lips and tetrapodal supports. Decoration usually consisted of either large (not bold in Deptford sense), small, or a roughed-over check. The stamping was usually applied to most of the exterior of the vessel except above the shoulder. Rims above the checked zone often were smoothed to a burnished finish.

The second paper was a brief summary of work carried out in the Walter F. George Dam and Reservoir area by Harold A. Huscher of the Smithsonian River Basin Survey. A check list of excavated sites was handed out and distribution maps of the major sites which have been excavated were shown.

The third paper was a report on current excavations by Douglas Schwartz and Lee Hanson on the past summer's work in Kentucky where two sites were excavated. Both were marginal representations of well-known cultures, best known from sites further north and west:

They were Mississippian and Fort Ancient complexes. The last formal paper was given by Gregory Perino and described excavations at the Peisker Mounds in Illinois. These excavations were interesting in that early Hopewellian burial mounds were found to overlie Black Sand cultural deposits. The Hopewellian Mounds included a number of large tombs with extended burials with relatively few grave goods. The pottery included wares of the Havana series. The pre-mound occupation contained a number of reconstructable vessels of Black Sand pottery types and suggest that the side-notch concave projectile points formerly thought to be contemporaneous with Black Sand pottery are in fact on an Archaic time level. The projectile points found at this site associated with Black Sand were contracting stem points referred to as Dickson Broadblade, and resemble some of the varieties of Gary Stemmed.

The rest of the morning session was devoted to brief reports on current work in the following states: Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, West Virginia, Virginia, Tennessee, Missouri, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana.

Session II on Friday afternoon began the working part of the Conference devoted to the Paleo-Indian era. A brief introduction was given by the author and a tentative time chart was presented as a framework for the discussion that followed. In this we noted that the Paleo-Indian era was set as concluding at approximately 6000 B. C. This cut-off line was a purely arbitrary one based on certain lines of evidence and was not intended as a rigidly established fact. Considerable discussion about this terminology followed in which it was suggested that this time period be referred to by some other term than Paleo-Indian since that particular phrase "Paleo-Indian" had been too strongly identified with a single type of cultural manifestation--the well-known fluted point cultures both of the Great Plains and parts of the Eastern United States. Although no better term was proposed, the difficulties in using this term seem to make it imperative that some other terminology ultimately be adopted for this segment of time.

A series of informal presentations followed discussing the distribution of artifacts thought to pertain to this "Paleo-Indian Era" and the typology of the artifacts was invariably discussed by each participant. A survey of such artifacts in Louisiana was presented by Sherwood Gagliano and Pete Gregory. Dr. Clarence H. Webb followed with some added comments on the significance of this material in Louisiana. Douglas Schwartz summarized the evidence from Kentucky. These latter data were drawn from manuscripts now in press prepared by Schwartz and Martha Rawlingson.

James B. Stoltman of Harvard University presented a discussion of the distribution of these artifacts as known from survey of the existing literature on the States of Virginia, Tennessee and Alabama. Williams then presented a short discussion of the occurrences in the Lower Mississippi Valley and William Lazarus, Charles H. Fairbanks and Ripley P. Bullen presented data from Florida. Arthur R. Kelly discussed some of the few known finds from Georgia.

Joffre Coe discussed early finds from North Carolina with some comments on the typology of material found in this pre-6000 B. C. Period. He felt that the fluted points were not the only materials that should be discussed in this time segment. Carl Miller described a sequence of projectile points in Russell Cave, Alabama and Paul Hahn spoke briefly on the few known occurrences of fluted points in northern Mississippi. Gregory Perino presented some evidence on the occurrence of Dalton points in Arkansas. Dan Morse presented data on distribution of finds in Tennessee and Dick Marshall concluded the session with a coverage of this material in Missouri.

The conference dinner was held Friday evening with a cocktail hour courtesy of the Ocmulgee Auxiliary Corporation preceding it.

Session III on Saturday morning was a round table discussion in an attempt to summarize some of the Conference findings. The major participants were Douglas Byers, Robert S. Peabody Foundation; Douglas Schwartz, University of Kentucky; David De Jarnette, University of Alabama and Stephen Williams of Harvard University with comments from the floor by Conference members.

While it is impossible in this brief report to do justice to the many topics covered during this morning session period and since many of these will be incorporated in the INQUA paper by the author to be prepared for that Congress, only certain major findings may be briefly summarized. Although the Conference obviously did not solve the many problems which exist in the general area of Paleo-Indian or Early Man Research in the Southeast, it was the consensus of the conference that certain specific findings have been made. The quantity, coupled with the near universal distribution, of fluted points found in the Southeast and in the East as a whole would seem to indicate that it is likely that these points are as early if not earlier than those known from the High Plains to the West. Thus the older hypothesis, that these fluted forms may reflect an actual migration of people from the Plains into the Eastern Woodlands during altithermal times, is no longer tenable especially in the face of Carbon 14 dates of Dalton projectile points at a time preceding the dates of Altithermal in the West by several thousand years. A sequence of artifacts beginning with Clovis points was accepted by most of the conference and this sequence would include the Clovis, Cumberland, and possible Quad points and ultimately Dalton points in its many numerous varieties. There is no strong evidence for this theory. In fact there is a positive lack of stratigraphic evidence for the first part of this sequence which is admittedly based primarily on typology and comparisons with the sequence as known in geological stratigraphic sequences of the High Plains.

Although there is a little question that typology is not perfect, it can be used as a working basis for plotting distributions which are known to date. The fact that Clovis projectile points are perhaps the most widespread through the East suggests that they may have been used by the first inhabitants, and the fact that few if any occupation sites are known in the Southeast proper makes one consider a wandering nomadic pattern since only a few sites comparable to the Bull Brook site

in Massachusetts have been found which represent an excellent camp site. The typology and distribution of the forms that follow Clovis and precede Daltons are much less well known. These include Cumberland Point and its non-fluted variant known as Beaver Lake, the Quad Point, the Redstone point which is a triangular form, both fluted and unfluted variant, which appears in a number of different complexes and rarely, if ever, as a majority type. The Wheeler lanceolate forms should be mentioned also with fluting and with basal thinning occasionally.

The dearth of data of a paleo-geological sort which can be applied to this problem was described by various speakers. It seems that the best data of fossil forms possibly associated with this general time period comes from Florida. It must be stated as a fact that at this time there is an unfortunate absence of satisfactory association of man and fossil forms anywhere in the Southeast.

The final session was concluded with a brief Business Meeting at which publication problems were discussed. It was suggested that the major publications of the Conference be called Bulletins rather than Newsletters. It was accepted by the Conference since it was felt that the term "Newsletter" suggests an ephemeral publication and is often not given proper treatment by Librarians.

The invitation to hold the 1964 Conference at Tulane University in New Orleans, Louisiana was extended by Robert Wauchop of that Institution and accepted by the Conference with a unanimous vote.

The topic for the 21st Conference will be the Origin, Spread and Diffusion of Agriculture in the Southeast. There was some discussion as to the kind of program to be undertaken for the next Conference, and it was felt by many that while the Reports on Current Field Work were of use in keeping the members informed of the many projects going on, that not sufficient time could then be devoted to the topic selected. It was the decision of the Conference that the Field Reports should be maintained as a part of the program, but that the Conference should then be extended an extra half day, making it a full two day Conference rather than a day and a half as has been the practice in recent years. A resolution offering grateful thanks to the Staff of the Ocmulgee National Monument for hosting the Conference was offered at the close of the Business Meeting.