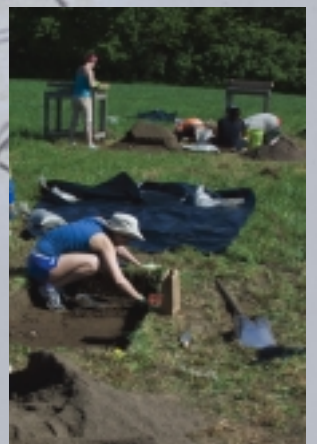


Discover Illinois Archaeology



ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION FOR ADVANCEMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGY
ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Discover Illinois Archaeology

Illinois' rich cultural heritage began more than 12,000 years ago with the arrival of the ancestors of today's Native Americans. We learn about them through investigations of the remains they left behind, which range from monumental earthworks with large river-valley settlements to a fragment of an ancient stone tool. After the arrival of European explorers in the late 1600s, a succession of diverse settlers added to our cultural heritage, leading to our modern urban communities and the landscape we see today. Archaeological studies allow us to reconstruct past environments and ways of life, study the relationship between people of various cultures, and investigate how and why cultures rise and fall.

DISCOVER ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGY, summarizing Illinois culture history, is truly a

collaborative effort by 18 archaeologists from across the state, with a major contribution by Design Editor Kelvin Sampson. Along with summaries of each cultural period and highlights of regional archaeological research, we include a short list of internet and print resources. A more extensive reading list can be found at the Illinois Association for Advancement of Archaeology web site www.museum.state.il.us/iaaa/DIA.pdf.

We hope that by reading this summary of Illinois archaeology, visiting a nearby archaeological site or museum exhibit, and participating in Illinois Archaeology Awareness Month programs each September, you will become actively engaged in Illinois' diverse past and DISCOVER ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGY.

Alice Berkron Michael D. Wiant



ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION FOR ADVANCEMENT OF ARCHAEOLOGY

Founded in 1969, IAAA unites all persons interested in the archaeology of Illinois, and encourages site preservation and scientific study of our prehistory and early history.
www.museum.state.il.us/iaaa



ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

An organization of professional archaeologists founded in 1965, IAS documents, interprets and seeks to preserve the archaeological record of Illinois.
www.illarchsurvey.org

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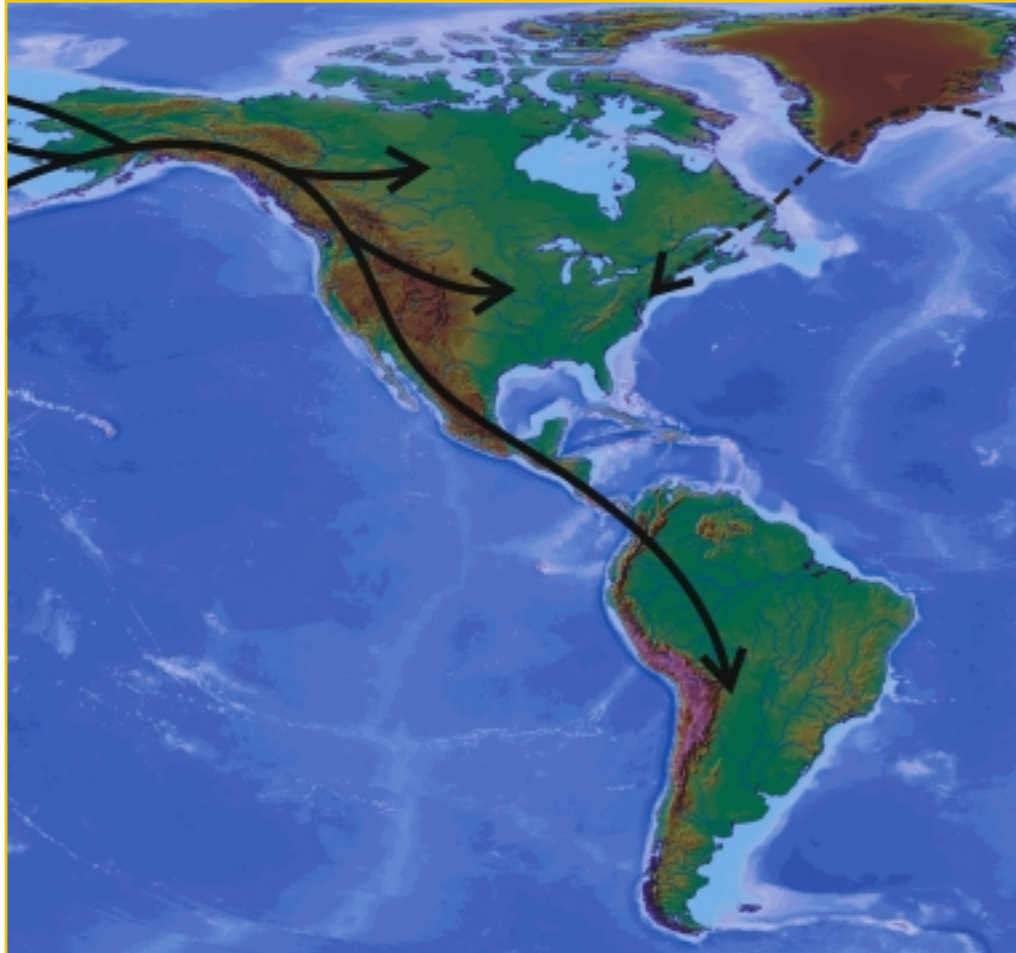
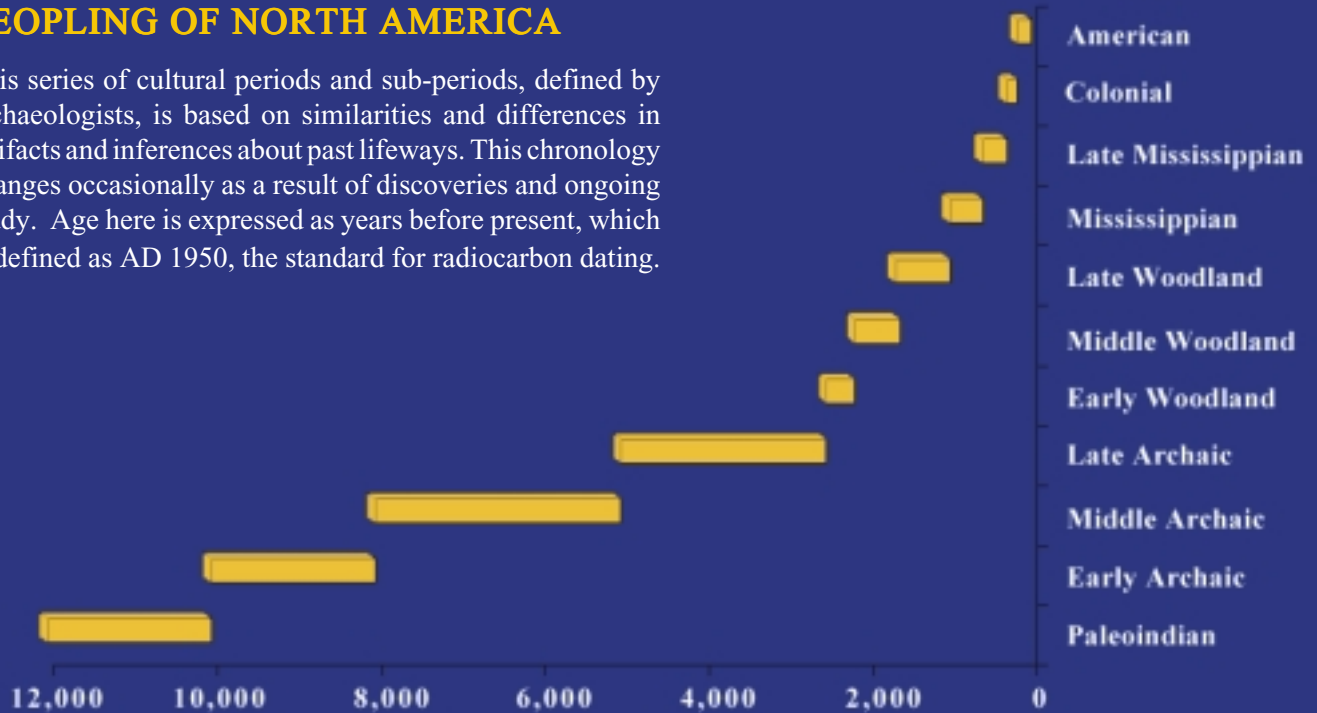
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*Cover illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson
Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.*

CULTURAL SEQUENCE AND PEOPLING OF NORTH AMERICA

This series of cultural periods and sub-periods, defined by archaeologists, is based on similarities and differences in artifacts and inferences about past lifeways. This chronology changes occasionally as a result of discoveries and ongoing study. Age here is expressed as years before present, which is defined as AD 1950, the standard for radiocarbon dating.



NATIVE AMERICANS WHERE DID THEY COME FROM AND WHEN DID THEY ARRIVE?

To the best of our knowledge, people first arrived in the western hemisphere during the last Ice Age, when land connected the continents of Asia and North America. Current research suggests that Asian people may have arrived in North America as early as 17,000 years ago. They resided in present-day Alaska for a period of time before moving to locations throughout the western hemisphere. A new theory, based on similarities of some artifacts, suggests the possibility that people also migrated from Europe to North America, but at this time there is little supporting evidence for this idea. Archaeologists and other scientists continue to study artifacts and the context of their deposition, DNA, and linguistic evidence to learn about this topic. By doing so, they expand our understanding of human history and the circumstances that encouraged the development of culture.

THE PALEOINDIAN PERIOD

Unlike most other parts of the world, North and South America were not inhabited until late in the Pleistocene Epoch, or Ice Age. These earliest Americans are the ancient ancestors of the Native Americans encountered by European explorers. When and how Paleoindians arrived, and from where, are questions that continue to be

the state had retreated northward, and spruce and pine forest and parkland had replaced glacial tundra.

CLOVIS CULTURE

Clovis points are found across the United States and are distinctive because of their lanceolate shape and long flakes, or flutes, chipped into the base, or haft element. Clovis points were hafted on short wooden or bone foreshafts that were in turn lashed to the main spear shaft. These stone-tipped spears were propelled by hand, perhaps with the aid of an atlatl, a handheld hooked stick that increased the power and distance the spear travels, in effect extending the reach of the thrower's arm. The Clovis tool kit typically includes end scrapers and side scrapers, beveled flakes of stone used to dress hides and work bone and other materials.

Clovis hunters were organized into small, highly mobile family groups that hunted a variety of large and small animals. While there is little evidence of their use of wild plant foods, it is hard to believe that they did not take advantage of these resources. At the Kimmiswick site, south of St. Louis, Missouri, re-

who frequently moved through areas to intercept herds but apparently rarely settled into any given area long enough to locate, explore, and routinely use these natural shelters. Clovis sites are typically found on prominent, well-drained landforms, such as bluff tops and high terraces, that provide a commanding view the surrounding area. Such locations were good spots not only for monitoring the movements of herds but also for gathering together dispersed family groups.

Little is known concerning the social and ritual life of Paleoindians. Because groups moved frequently, they did not routinely bury their dead in cemeteries—people who died were probably buried nearby, soon after death. There are indications that some male hunters were buried with new, freshly-chipped spear points that are much larger than normal-size points used on hunting spears. Based on studies of hunting groups thought to be similar to Paleoindians, widely-scattered Paleoindian groups likely met on a seasonal basis at particular, well-known rendezvous locations. These multi-band gatherings would have been held for social and ritual activities, the formation of alliances between bands, the initiation of young people into adult status, the selection of marriage partners, feasting, and the sharing of information and knowledge about hunting practices and the location of good chert sources and hunting grounds.

CLOVIS IN ILLINOIS

Typical Clovis sites in Illinois are small scatters of stone tools and chipping debris. Often the bulk of material found on Paleoindian sites consists of chert (or flint) chipping debris, the waste products of tool manufacture and maintenance, or resharpening. These artifact scatters represent the durable remains of brief campsites, but some scatters could be the remains of kill sites such as that at Mastodon State Park. Larger campsites and quarry-workshop sites are less common but no less significant. Workshops are spots near chert outcrops where stone tools were manufactured. We know that Clovis groups were highly mobile because at these workshops we find heavily resharpened, or expended, Clovis points made from non-local cherts. Workshops are also important because they contain unfinished tools that were broken or rejected during manufacture, and these items provide unique insights into Clovis technology. Workshops were also “classrooms” for teaching youngsters tool-making skills.

Large campsites, some encompassing several acres, are places on the landscape that were periodically revisited because they



Illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

debated because information is limited. Most scientists had believed that Paleoindians entered North America across a land bridge between Siberia and Alaska that formed during the Ice Age when vast quantities of ocean water were locked into glaciers, causing a drop in sea level. However, recent discoveries have led some researchers to believe that Paleoindians arrived by boat and that they initially settled along coastal areas, eventually migrating inland.

Based on the repeated discovery of distinctive chipped-stone spear points called Clovis points, which were first discovered in the American Southwest amidst the bones of extinct Ice Age animals, archaeologists know that by about 12,000 years ago small bands of hunters lived in the region now known as Illinois. By this time, the massive continental ice sheets that had once covered much of

searchers from the Illinois State Museum unearthed Clovis points and other stone tools in direct association with the bones of a mastodon. These forest-dwelling elephant-like creatures died out with a number of other large mammals at the close of the Ice Age. Along with mastodon bones, the remains of other animals, such as the ground sloth, were found at the site. In addition, modern game animals, such as the white-tailed deer, were also recovered.

From other Paleoindian sites across North America, we know that bone and ivory were worked into tools. The discovery of bone needles indicates that animal hides were fashioned into tailored clothing, footwear, bags, and other items. Hides were probably used to cover portable shelters like wigwams or conical tents. Rock shelters and caves were seldom visited by Clovis groups,

were adjacent to ideal hunting grounds, such as wetlands, salt licks, and stream crossings. They were also ideal spots for bands to

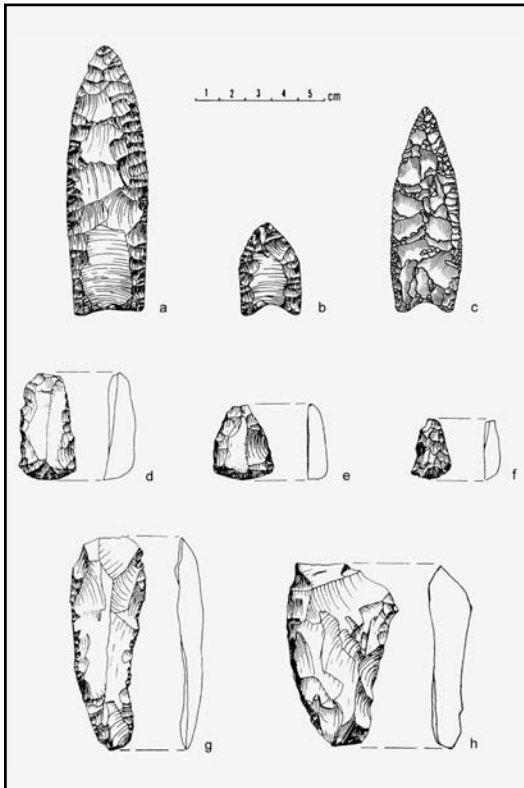
nual rounds, moving as much as 480 to 640 km (300 to 400 mi.) between chert sources in southern Illinois, northern Illinois, western Illinois, and eastern Indiana.

DALTON CULTURE

The groups that made Clovis points and later styles of fluted points, such as Cumberland, were replaced by or incorporated into groups that made Dalton points. Dalton groups were adapted to the developing, essentially “modern” climate and moved northward in tandem with the spread of deciduous woodlands. Evidence of this woodland adaptation is found in the appearance of the chipped-stone adze, hafted onto a short L-shaped handle and used to make dugout canoes, wooden bowls, and other utensils and equipment. Dalton groups did not trek hundreds of miles to hunt or retool, and they hunted modern game animals, like white-tail deer, because mastodons and other large Ice-Age mammals were extinct. Dalton populations were the first groups to settle into the landscape, routinely using caves and rock shelters and local chert sources. Moreover, they were the first to establish formal cemeteries and systems of ritualized exchange. These exchange networks facilitated the formation of alliances with neighboring groups. The inter-band alliances helped to mediate potential conflicts and food shortfalls stemming from the less mobile Dalton lifestyle.

more intensively, but also existed in larger numbers. While additional research is necessary to bolster these interpretations, there is considerable evidence of Dalton groups representing the first populations to have truly settled into southern Illinois, especially the Mississippi Valley and its tributaries. By “settling in,” we mean they explored and used the landscape (and its various resources) with greater intensity than ever before. Clovis groups, in contrast, appear to have moved through the region more rapidly, less frequently, and in smaller numbers, probably following herd animals and apparently reusing specific locales and resources.

The settling-in process was triggered during the close of the Ice Age (about 9,000 years ago) when temperate, deciduous forest expanded northward up the Mississippi Valley into Illinois. With the retreating continental ice sheets, Clovis groups were repeatedly faced with new and dynamic climatic conditions, coupled with often rapid shifts in plant and animal communities, which contributed to large-mammal extinctions. Dalton groups probably moved northward into Illinois in tandem with the change in plant and animal communities. Dalton groups were very successful at carving a foraging lifestyle out of these developing, expanding woodlands. New woodland habitants harbored seasonally predictable resources, such as nuts, white-tailed deer, squirrels, and other game. Developments in Illinois during the following Archaic periods are, in large part, built on the foraging lifestyle Dalton groups carved out of the newly emerging deciduous woodlands.



Clovis and Dalton points and scrapers from Illinois: a, Clovis point (little use wear); b, Clovis point (heavily used and resharpened); c, Dalton point (note beveling along right-hand blade edge); d-f, endscrapers; g-h, side scrapers. Drawings courtesy of the Illinois Transportation Archaeological Research Program and the Wisconsin Archeological Society.

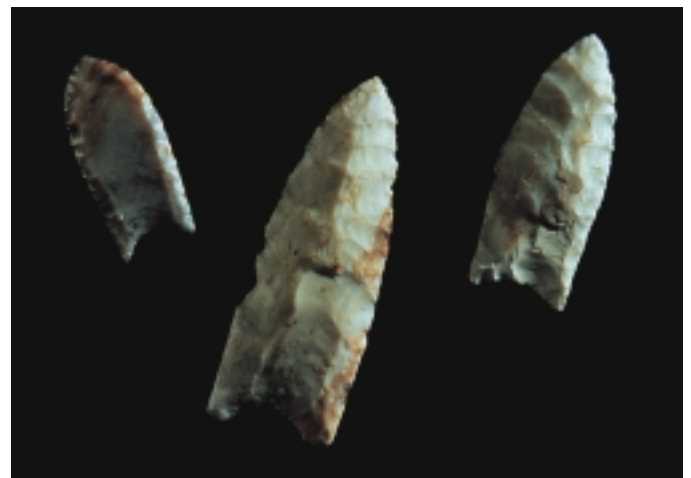
congregate, owing to their proximity to overland trails or to prominent landmarks. These large sites, such as the Mueller site in St. Clair County in southwestern Illinois, are typified by tools made from non-local cherts. More than 200 Clovis tools have been collected at the Mueller site. All but a few are made from a single non-local raw material – Attica chert from the Wabash Valley in Indiana. At the Bostrom site, also in St. Clair County, large numbers of Clovis tools were also recovered, but they are made from a wide assortment of non-local cherts. The Bostrom site appears to be a well-used hunting camp, possibly a gathering place for groups coming from different directions, obtaining chert from a variety of sources. In contrast, the Mueller site appears to be a campsite that was repeatedly visited by a single group that periodically traveled across Illinois from the Attica chert source to the Mississippi Valley.

While chert may have been exchanged between individuals in different bands, this kind of exchange does not easily explain the overwhelming pattern of non-local chert use, as evidenced at workshops and at campsites all over Illinois and Indiana. In fact, differences in cherts found at Clovis sites suggest that Clovis groups followed seasonal or an-

DALTON IN ILLINOIS

The differing patterns of chert procurement evident in Illinois between Clovis and Dalton populations indicates that Clovis groups were more mobile, traveling hundreds of square kilometers each year to hunt and to retool at select chert sources. Dalton groups, on the other hand, appear to have operated within much smaller annual ranges (perhaps 50-100 sq. km or 20-40 sq. mi.), and there is strong evidence of ritualized exchange between Dalton bands, which probably took place at multi-band gathering places. In contrast, there is little evidence in Illinois of Clovis ritualized exchange.

In southern Illinois, Dalton sites typically outnumber Clovis sites, indicating that Dalton groups not only used the landscape



Paleoindian points from West-Central Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum. Photograph by Micheal Brohm.

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THE ARCHAIC PERIOD

The end of the Ice Age in Illinois led to an abrupt environmental change. The warmer climate encouraged the growth of new plants, and in many areas deciduous trees replaced spruce and pine. Ice-Age mammals became extinct, and Paleoindian people had to alter their way of life and adjust to a changed environment. This new way of life, named the Archaic Period of Native American cul-

Illinois.

Archaeologists have identified more than 8,300 Archaic Period sites in Illinois. These include small, temporary campsites that may have been used by hunters and gatherers in search of game or plant foods to collect, as well as larger villages that were the location of long-term or repeated occupation. Such sites are identified by the

presence of certain chert projectile point types, including a variety of stemmed and notched chipped-stone tools that functioned as spear points and knives. Stone tools at Archaic sites are often made from nearby chert sources, indicating increasing familiarity with the resources available in certain locations. Grooved axes made from ground and polished igneous rock are also associated with the Archaic period. More perishable artifacts made from animal bone and mussel shell are sometimes found in Illinois, but wooden items, plant fibers,

and animal hides that would have been used extensively throughout prehistory are rarely preserved except as pieces of charcoal.

EARLY ARCHAIC HUNTERS AND GATHERERS

Early Archaic people hunted animals as diverse as white-tailed deer, elk, bear, cottontail rabbit and turkey. Wetland areas adjacent to lakes and marshes in the uplands were favored resource areas, as were the major river valleys. In addition to hunting, Early Archaic people gathered plant foods as an integral part of their diet. Roots and tubers were available in early spring. During the summer, berries and other plants could be harvested, while in the fall, nuts such as walnut, pecan, and hickory were an important source of protein and fat.

There are many more recorded Early Archaic sites in Illinois compared to Paleoindian sites, suggesting a substantial increase in population. Most Early Archaic sites are small, with few artifacts. Following a settlement pattern similar to that of the Paleoindian Period, groups of Early Archaic people, perhaps only ten family members, lived at the sites for a short time before

moving to another location. The choice of site location, often on high river terraces or upland areas adjacent to wetlands, was based on seasonal availability of resources. Some of the temporary locations later became villages where Archaic people lived for extended periods.

Few excavations have taken place at Early Archaic sites in Illinois. The Modoc Rock Shelter, located at the edge of the Mississippi River floodplain in Randolph County, was occupied by Archaic peoples for more than 6,000 years. Excavations there in the 1950s produced charcoal that was used for some of the first radiocarbon dating in eastern North America. At the Koster site in Greene County, excavations in the 1970s revealed a series of stratified occupations spanning the Archaic period. Early Archaic occupations there included some of the oldest evidence in North America of the use of ground stone manos, metates, and pestles for food preparation, the establishment of a cemetery for deceased members of the community, and the presence of domesticated dogs.

Information on what Early Archaic people may have looked like, and how long they lived is sketchy because few skeletons from this period have been studied by osteologists. The Archaic people averaged around five feet tall and lived for 25 or 30 years. While they had relatively few dental cavities because their diet was a healthy mixture of foods with relatively little sugar, a comparatively large number of Archaic people had bone fractures and arthritis. During the Early Archaic Period, hunters continued to use spears for hunting. Use of the atlatl or spear thrower included placing weights on the atlatl shaft, probably improving its balance, as well as serving as ritual objects. Lanceolate projectile point types in the Early Archaic lack the distinctive flute associated with the Paleoindian Period.

MIDDLE ARCHAIC PERMANENT SETTLEMENTS

The eastward expansion of the prairie from the Plains began around 8,000 years ago with a warmer, drier climatic pattern. This notable shift, named the Hypsithermal Interval, resulted in a climate slightly warmer, with less precipitation than that found in Illinois today. With fewer resources available in the uplands, the focus of prehistoric settlements shifted from generalized use of upland areas to the major river valleys, which



Illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

ture, began around 10,000 years ago and lasts until 3,000 years ago. The Archaic is divided into three sub-periods: Early (10,000 to 8,000 years ago), Middle (8,000 to 5,000 years ago), and Late Archaic (5,000 to 3,000 years ago).

Climatic changes during the Archaic Period affected the types of plant and animal resources in Illinois. At the beginning of the Archaic, the average annual temperature was cooler, and there was more precipitation. Ice-age mammals such as the mastodon, mammoth, and peccary were extinct by the beginning of the Archaic Period, replaced by animals new to Illinois, such as the white-tailed deer, raccoon, and opossum. A variety of amphibians, reptiles, fish, and mussels, along with migratory waterfowl, became common. The cool, moist climate of the Early Archaic gradually changed so that by 5,000 years ago, the average annual temperature and precipitation were similar to present-day levels. In central Illinois, changes in weather patterns transformed the deciduous forests of the Early Archaic to a landscape of vast prairies with forests bordering ponds, streams, and rivers. Forests persisted throughout the Archaic Period in southern Illinois and portions of northern

offered abundant and diverse resources. Instead of living primarily in short-term occupations, Middle Archaic people situated base camps at the edge of the floodplain, where a variety of seasonal resources

axe or adze. Igneous or metamorphic rock was pecked away and shaped into a rough form that was finished and polished with an abrasive material like sandstone. Large igneous grinding stones or metates found at

Middle Archaic sites demonstrate both the extensive processing of nuts and other plant materials, and the sedentary nature of the occupations.

LATE ARCHAIC REGIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

During the Late Archaic, villages with increased populations continued to be located near a variety of food resources. Some settlements, such as the Riverton Culture

the first time, they supplemented their diet with cultivated plant foods. For example, sumpweed (*Iva annua*) seeds at the Napoleon Hollow site, located on the Illinois River in Pike County, were much larger than those found today in nature, indicating that they were cultivated. Sunflower, goosefoot, and squash were also cultivated in the Late Archaic Period.

In the Late Archaic, elaborate artifacts found in the graves of some people suggest that these individuals had a special status, perhaps as group leaders, hunters, or spiritual leaders. The types of artifacts included in the graves are finely made axes, some of copper, finely crafted spear points made from non-local chert, marine shell, and polished stone atlatl weights. Red ochre made from ground hematite was sometimes sprinkled over the human remains and artifacts. This distinctive Red Ochre mortuary complex, originally defined by archaeologists working in the central Illinois River valley, occurs across the southern Great Lakes region at the very end of the Late Archaic period.

The seven-thousand year span of the Archaic period includes several trends in cultural adaptations, including an increase in population, settlement of larger villages over increased periods of time during certain seasons of the year, exploitation of aquatic resources in floodplain environments, de-



Archaic diorama, *Peoples of the Past* exhibit. Courtesy of the Illinois State Museum.

could be reached without having to move the settlement location. Migratory waterfowl, fish, freshwater mussels, turtle, marsh roots and tubers, and seeds from wild plants could all be found in the floodplain, while nearby upland forests supported white-tailed deer and offered protein-rich nuts for harvesting.

Evidence for this change in prehistoric resource exploitation patterns has been found at sites in Illinois. In some areas, Middle Archaic people concentrated on aquatic resources, especially in the warm-weather months. Archaeologists found evidence at the Koster site that people built shelters with large support posts as early as 5000 B.C. In addition, abundant pits, some used for processing hickory nuts, large quantities of burnt limestone and fire-cracked rock, and numerous chipped-stone and ground stone artifacts indicated a permanent settlement. Koster also had a cemetery where deceased members of the community were buried.

The spear points or knives for the Middle Archaic include large, side-notched points and artifact types that are specific to certain regions. Exploitation of an increased variety of resources resulted in the use of a greater variety of ground-stone and bone implements and chert tools, such as rough bifaces or “preforms,” choppers, end and side scrapers, drills and flake tools. A chipped-stone chert tool would have been used to cut and shape deer bone implements used in sewing and weaving, as well as to make bone and shell ornaments. In comparison to chert tools, ground-stone tools required many hours of effort to make a single

communities along the Wabash River in southeastern Illinois, may have had as many as 200 residents.

There is little evidence for trade during the Early and Middle Archaic periods. Non-local items, such as unusual chert for stone tools, found on early sites in Illinois probably were acquired as people moved from place to place. In contrast, by the Late Archaic period, materials were obtained through trade from a variety of places. Long-distance trade now included marine shell from the Atlantic and Gulf Coasts, hematite and magnetite from the Ozarks, copper from the Lake Superior region, galena from the Upper Mississippi Valley and southeastern Missouri, and distinctive chert types from areas of the Midwest outside Illinois. Use of large spear points or knives continued, but smaller dart points made during the Late Archaic could fly farther and more readily penetrate an animal. The use of specialized ground-stone and chipped-stone tools continued in the Late Archaic, reflecting the increased exploitation of regionally available animal and plant communities.

Late Archaic people relied on hunting and gathering like their predecessors, but for



Archaic artifacts from the Sampson collection, Knox and Fulton Counties, Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

velopment of specialized stone and bone tools and ceremonial objects, and the use of horticulture to supplement hunting and gathering.

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THE WOODLAND PERIOD

The Woodland period in Illinois prehistory was an era of growing population and increasing cultural complexity that witnessed important changes in social and religious systems, long-distance trade and communication, and the fabric of everyday life. The period began with the regional appearance of pottery vessels and of small, shifting groups of hunters and gatherers. It ended

the south (Black Sand culture) made temporary settlements in Illinois. At this time, Prairie Lake villages disappear from the archaeological record, along with associated Red Ochre mortuary ceremonialism and trade. In southern Illinois, the earliest Woodland pottery is associated with small Crab Orchard culture settlements. Because of stable subsistence adaptations in this region, Crab Orchard culture remains persist into Middle Woodland times.

HAVANA HOPEWELL CULTURE

In the central Illinois valley, the arrival of Marion peoples may have minimized Black Sand occupations and sparked interaction with residents, perhaps including participation in a late form of the Red Ochre mortuary cult. This may have led to the local development of an Early Havana culture and the florescence of social, political and ritual complexity that are the hallmarks of Middle Woodland times.

The “Havana” culture derives its name from the present-day town of Havana, situated on the banks of the Illinois River in the central valley at the site of a major Middle Woodland village and mound group. The term “Hopewellian” is used to underscore the similarities of Middle Woodland trade goods and mortuary ritual to artifacts and mortuary activities discovered at a mound/earthwork on Capt. M. C. Hopewell’s farm in south-central Ohio.

Rapid central Illinois valley culture change resulted in early Havana sites and artifact assemblages by about 200 to 150 B.C., followed by development of extensive mound building and participation in Hopewellian mortuary ritual by around 100 B.C. to A.D. 1. At this time, Middle Woodland settlements spread south into the lower Illinois valley, following an apparent exodus of Black Sand people 200 years earlier, eventually filling its drainage with over 350 settlements, and more than 300 mound groups and a variety of small mortuary-related sites. The richness of its natural resources and the departure of preceding Early Woodland

populations made the lower Illinois Valley an ideal setting for the growth and development of Illinois Middle Woodland communities and elaboration of social and political systems associated with Hopewellian ritual and trade.

The first evidence of pioneer Hopewellian Middle Woodland settlement (in the northern lower Illinois valley) seems to be a single river-edge mortuary/ritual locality, surrounded by several single-household to small-hamlet sized habitations. Subsequently, floodplain Hopewellian mounds and ritual centers were established at approximately 15-20 km (9-12 mi.) intervals along the river. Each floodplain ritual precinct was associated with larger bluff-base villages (of perhaps 25 to 30 people) having adjacent bluff-top mounded cemeteries, perhaps indicating separate subsistence territories. Large populations of deer, fish, mussels, and migratory waterfowl were exploited. Middle Woodland communities also appear to have practiced an early form of horticulture in selecting certain edible seed plants for cultivation, including a variety of nut crops and starchy and oily annual seed plants such as knotweed, goosefoot, marsh elder, and sunflower. Squash, gourds, and little barley were also grown, along with a small amount of tobacco. While the earliest securely-dated contexts for corn are from A.D. 500-600 (after Middle Woodland), some researchers have contended that there were Middle Woodland experiments in corn-growing.

Initially, Illinois Hopewellian developments were thought to have been fueled by direct trade with Hopewellian centers in Ohio. But recent studies have shown that while some materials, such as obsidian, Knife River chalcodony, mica, and marine shells were transported great distances, most were made or acquired nearby. Elaborately decorated pottery vessels, pipestone animal-efigy platform pipes, lead ore, and colorful cherts appear to have originated in or near Illinois. Given the similarities in Hopewellian ritual practices between south central Ohio and the Illinois Valley, it is a near certainty that communication existed on several levels. The focus of this interaction may have been different in adjacent regions and likely changed through time. Gatherings at sacred Hopewellian sites probably reinforced group solidarity through shared mortuary ritual, seasonal earth-renewal fertility rites, and communal feasting. Such ritual events likely also helped validate territorial, leadership, and marriage claims, while encouraging



Illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

with large-village sedentary agriculturalists who used the bow and arrow for hunting and for territorial defense.

LATE ARCHAIC TO WOODLAND TRANSITION

The Early Woodland period is sometimes called “Late Archaic with pots.” However, in the Illinois/Mississippi River confluence region, the cultural shift between Terminal Archaic and Early Woodland groups appears to be rapid and pervasive. This suggests more complex population interactions took place, not simply the addition of clay-pot cooking technology to Archaic lifeways. The principal Terminal Archaic bluff-base occupations, called the Prairie Lake culture, have substantial villages with associated cemeteries. Early Woodland sites are usually small and impermanent, often located in large floodplains, and lacking evidence of associated burials or mortuary activity, but they contain fragments of the first Native American hand-made pottery in Illinois. From around 600 to 200 B.C., pottery-making people from the Great Lakes region to the north (Marion culture) and from the Mississippi Valley to

wide-ranging trade in everything from foodstuffs to exotic ritual materials.

While the most extensive and complex populations of Middle Woodland consumers in Illinois are clearly those of the lower



Middle Woodland artifacts from the central Illinois River valley. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

and central Illinois River valleys, important “gateway” trade and ritual centers and their surrounding village clusters are found as far north as the Albany site (Whiteside County) and as far south as the Twenhafel site (Jackson County). Havana culture settlements and evidence of Hopewellian ritual have also been discovered along other river systems throughout the northern two-thirds of the state, including the Kankakee and Wabash River valleys. Notably, Middle Woodland residents of much of the Mississippi valley from the American Bottom to the Iowa River were more marginal participants in Hopewellian interaction, as were southern Illinois late Crab Orchard groups and early Steuben communities in northern Illinois. Such groups may have played an important role in the Late Woodland cultural shift that occurred after the elaborate Hopewellian trade and ritual system unraveled and disappeared from the archaeological record at about A.D. 350-450.

LATE WOODLAND

There are rapid regional culture changes, including artifact assemblage changes, and a shift in settlement patterns leading to Late Woodland cultures around A.D. 350 to 650. Several contemporaneous early Late Woodland cultural groups are named White Hall, Weaver, Steuben, and Rosewood for their ceramic styles. They abandoned the decorative ceramic diversity of Middle Woodland times in favor of a comparatively homogeneous group of cordmarked jars. Distinctive Middle Woodland projectile point styles and diagnostic chert tools like lamellar blades vanished from the tool kit, as did the trade goods

associated with the Hopewellian communication and exchange network.

From a subsistence and settlement perspective, the Weaver culture inhabitants of Illinois appear to be the children and grandchildren of Hopewellians. However, it has been difficult to separate the two cultural groups for study, because they often occupy the same sites and there appears to be less than a 100-year gap between Havana and fully-developed Weaver assemblages (ca. A.D. 350-450). The period of culture change may have been a fairly orderly one. Some early Weaver culture ves-

sels seem to be copied from earlier Middle Woodland ceramics, both in their shapes and in the cross-over use of design elements. However, mortuary ceremonialism, as measured by grave offerings and distinctive mound structure, all but disappears. By mid-Weaver times, comprehensive regional social change had already occurred, but archaeologists cannot yet provide an explanation for this change and the disappearance of Hopewell. The earliest appearance of maize agriculture and first use of the bow and arrow occur in the final century of large-valley Weaver occupations.

Late Woodland sites are numerous throughout Illinois after A.D. 700. They are called the Bluff culture in the southwestern part of the state, Dillinger in southern Illinois and Maples Mills, Bauer Branch, and Langford in the central and northern areas. Sites from this period have been most extensively studied along the major river valleys, particularly in the American Bottom, where there is a smooth transition from Late Woodland to “Emergent Mississippian” communities after A.D. 850-900. The most substantial of these sites appear to be much larger than the largest Havana and Weaver culture settlements, with perhaps 50 to 100 residents, hinting at a developing political complexity not reflected in their mortuary sites. The bow and arrow was an efficient weapon for hunting

white-tailed deer, and at the margins of their regional territories, it was used against humans to emphasize territorial claims and to discourage other transgressions. There appears to have been substantial population expansion, not only in major river valleys but also encompassing larger secondary stream systems, with over 200 late “Jersey Bluff” phase habitation sites and more than 300 burial Late Bluff mounds known from Macoupin valley alone. During this period, individual health and life expectancy deteriorated with increased dependence on maize in the diet. Late Woodland cemeteries show limited evidence for social hierarchies, and few burials contain grave offerings beyond occasional cordmarked pottery vessels and simple clay or limestone smoking pipes.

Because of the filling of the landscape and the rapid development of regional culture traditions, Bluff culture Late Woodland groups were faced with the necessity to defend regional boundaries or accept aspects of dissimilar nearby cultures. This is particularly apparent in the lower Illinois Valley, whose numerous post-A.D. 1000 Jersey Bluff phase occupants resisted American Bottom Mississippian acculturation for at least 200 years, except at some larger valley-trench occupations where elements of Mississippian mortuary ceremonialism were integrated into local burial traditions.

Thus, a 1500-year period that began

with mobile, extended-family groups of Early Woodland floodplain hunter-gatherers, later saw small Middle Woodland hamlets where people pursued intensive harvest-collecting of renewable natural resources, practiced seed plant horticulture, and participated in the elaborate Hopewellian mortuary ritual associated

with long-distance trade and social interaction. Finally, Late Woodland time

saw the development of corn agriculture, the arrival of bow-and-arrow technology, and the establishment of large Bluff culture villages. At about A.D. 1000, a sometimes-violent clash of lifestyles resulted from the development of Mississippian towns and ritual systems in the American Bottom.

Havana Ware pottery vessel from the Dickson Camp site, Fulton County, Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.



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THE MISSISSIPPIAN PERIOD

At the end of the first millennium, Illinois was the scene of tremendous social and political transformations, resulting in the creation of what archaeologists call Mississippian. The Mississippian period is distinguished by the appearance of characteristics found in complex societies, such as large population clusters, some verging on urban centers, monumentally scaled architecture, maize and starchy seed agricultural systems, hierarchical organization, recognizable ethnic diversity, and a rich array of accompanying political and religious symbols.

Mississippian material culture and technology, while it differed in detail, shared many similarities with that of the preceding Late Woodland period. Mississippians hunted, fished, and fought with the bow and arrow. The main agricultural implements were stone hoes made from southern Illinois Mill Creek chert, along with digging sticks. The vast majority of raw material needs

MISSISSIPPIAN ORIGINS

Between about A.D. 600 and A.D. 1000, Late Woodland societies in the rich floodplain of the American Bottom had become increasingly more sedentary and were living in many small communities spread across the region. They had perfected a system of maize agriculture and become dependent on it. This lifestyle had led to increased numbers of people and larger and more organized villages. Socially and politically, these people could be characterized as “tribal” in nature, with patterns of informal leadership and kin-dominated relationships.

At about A.D. 1050 this all changed. Within an archaeological “blink-of-an-eye” the lifeways of American Bottom populations were transformed. The people abandoned their scattered villages and clustered into one of several large temple mound and plaza centers. Subsequently, single-family households re-occupied the countryside. The

influence of the mound centers may have attracted peoples from outside the area who were ethnically different from the Cahokians. Massive temple and burial mounds, huge wooden post-circles and large temples were built in these new population centers. These monuments were distributed about a central plaza and surrounded by multitudes of houses organized into discrete neighborhood clusters. Abandoning a tradi-

tion of diverse pottery designs, a new homogenous shell-tempered ceramic style was adopted, including many new vessel forms such as water bottles, shallow plates and pans, cup-like beakers, and salt-processing pans. Even the basic houses they lived in changed from single-post to wall-trench construction.

CAHOKIA LIFEWAYS

With the emergence of Mississippian society we see a real dichotomy in peoples’ lifestyles. The towns became the residences of religious and political leaders, crafts specialists, and their supporters. The countryside also contained the homes and temples of some leaders, but most of their followers probably lived in the surrounding rural areas on farmsteads or in hamlets. These farms were the homes of small family groups who were the primary producers of the maize that

allowed the towns to exist. The farms typically included one or two buildings (each about 3.6 m x 4.5 m or 12 x 15 ft.) made of upright poles interwoven with branches. Both their roofs and walls were covered with rain-repellent thatch. These were the residences of Cahokian farmers as well as their main storage containers. Food and tools were stored in the eaves of the houses and in storage pits dug in the house floor or in the surrounding yard. Archeologically, such farm sites produce the broken remnants of utilitarian pottery jars and bowls, stone hoes, small chert cutting and scraping tools, and plant and animal debris – the stuff of everyday life in the Cahokian world.

The evidence that may provide the most insight into these changes relates to the emergence of significant social divisions within Mississippian societies. The large mounds of the centers were platforms for the homes of the leaders and the temples of the gods. We now see the presence of a segment of society, referred to by some as nobility, that is intimately associated with spiritual, political, and social power, and which is spatially segregated from those who comprise the vast majority of the population. Nowhere is this separation more clearly indicated than in the Cahokia Mound 72 mortuary, where several burials show evidence of a ceremony that involved the sacrifice of many followers and war prisoners. Such burials also included elaborate shell capes, hundreds of arrows, chunky stones, mica and copper.

The leaders of Cahokia were responsible for organizing large communal feasts and celebrations of religious and political events, which were a major factor in maintaining group solidarity. They also enhanced and formalized intricate religious practices that included priests, temples and a rich art that focused on aspects of life renewal, fertility, and, later, warfare. These depictions included some of the most spectacular images produced in native arts, such as the red stone goddess figurines of Cahokia. Very likely the same class of people were also the war leaders in the numerous conflicts that characterized the Mississippian period. Such war parties may have traveled long distances overland or along the rivers in large fleets of dugout canoes to attack the palisaded villages of their neighbors.

MISSISSIPPIAN INFLUENCES

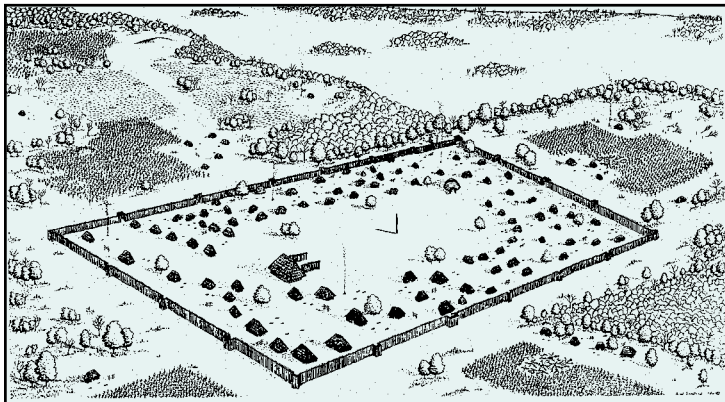
To a large extent, the cultural history of Illinois beginning a thousand years ago is intimately tied to the social and political trajectory of the Mississippian peoples of Cahokia and the American Bottom. Cahokia’s influence through warfare, and political, social, and economic interactions with its neighbors had a profound, but un-



Illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

were obtained from nearby regional resources, with the Ozarks providing the main source of white cherts, galena, copper, red flint clays for figurines, minerals, and crystals. As in earlier times, a limited number of objects, such as seashells or mica, continue to be brought from distant sources. Corn and many domesticated native plants provided their main foods but wild animals, especially fish and deer, were important supplements. One of the earliest, most impressive and influential centers of Mississippian culture appeared in the American Bottom near East St. Louis. Now known as “Cahokia,” this massive political and cultural center and the adjacent mound centers at St. Louis, East St. Louis, Mitchell, and Pulcher served as the catalyst for change across much of the state and the midcontinent over the three centuries of its existence.

even, influence on the configuration of the late prehistoric cultural landscape. In Illinois we see evidence of cultural change directly related to Cahokia among the people who live in the valleys of the Illinois, Apple, Kaskaskia, and Vermilion rivers. The lower Illinois River valley appears to have been occupied contemporaneously by scattered Mississippian groups and fairly dense populations of Late Woodland peoples in the 11th and 12th centuries. It is possible that the lower valley was actually a buffer zone between the American Bottom and central Illinois River valley groups, suggesting a less than friendly relationship.



Artist's rendering of Settlement D at the Orendorf site, Fulton County, Illinois. Drawing by Kelvin Sampson. Courtesy of the Upper Mississippi Valley Research Foundation.

Mississippian groups also appear in the Black Bottom on the Ohio River and in the Wabash River valleys but Cahokia does not strongly influence these people. They were firmly tied to the Mississippian cultures of Indiana and Kentucky. The largest of these early river towns was Kincaid, located on the border of Massac and Pulaski counties. Here, in a fortified town containing nineteen platform and mortuary mounds organized around two ceremonial plazas, resided the people of the most powerful southern Illinois chiefdom. While Kincaid dwarfed its neighbors, it was less than one-fifteenth the size of Cahokia. Like many other outlying centers, most of Kincaid's population lived in the surrounding farms and hamlets. The palisaded town center functioned as the abode of society's elite, and as a ceremonial-political center and a place of refuge in troubled times for the entire population.

In several localities, including the Spoon and LaMoine Rivers, the Apple River valley in northwestern Illinois, and the lower Kaskaskia River valley, Mississippian villages appear in the 12th century. Archaeologists debate about the origins of these villages but, in general, they seem best explained by the movement of actual residents of the American Bottom to these locations. The newcomers brought their distinctive lifestyle patterns and, through commingling with the resident Late Woodland inhabitants, created distinctive new Mississippian cultures. There is little evidence of continued contact between these outlying Missis-

sippian peoples and those of the American Bottom, indicating independence from Cahokian control.

MISSISSIPPIAN IN THE ILLINOIS RIVER VALLEY

The most thoroughly studied groups of northern Mississippians are the peoples who lived in the Spoon River and adjacent central Illinois River valleys. During the 12th to 15th centuries, at least seven major fortified temple towns were built there. These villages carry on the general patterns of American Bottom Mississippian life, but one adapted to the differing social and political realities of the

northern regions. While villages of 300 to 500 residents are often laid out in an orderly fashion about a central plaza, small platform and burial mounds, as well as farmsteads, are located outside the villages. They used the same tools as their more southerly relations, although they had ties to the west that led to the replacement of the

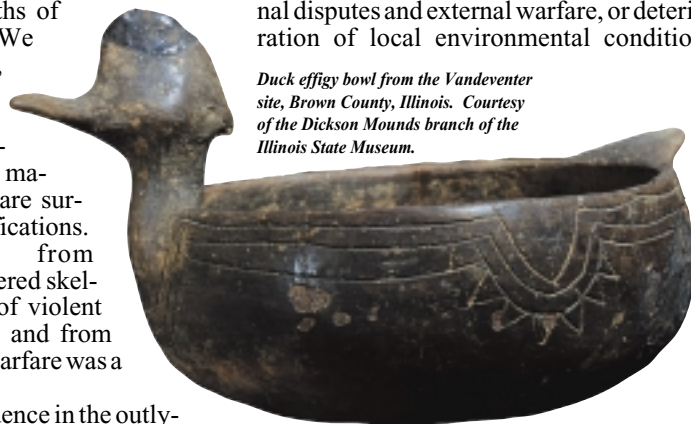
stone hoes with those made from bison scapulas. They were farmers, hunters, and fishers who, based on excavated animal and plant remains, lived in a very productive environment. Because of excavations at Dickson Mounds and the Larson and Orendorf villages we know much about the health, lives and deaths of these early natives. We know, for example, that while the people were fairly healthy, the valley was a dangerous place since the majority of the villages are surrounded by stout fortifications. It is apparent from archeologically recovered skeletons showing signs of violent death and mutilation, and from burned villages, that warfare was a constant threat.

There is little evidence in the outlying Mississippian areas for the rigid segmentation of society into distinct hierarchical groups similar to the American Bottom. While the village leaders may have lived in larger houses fronting on the plaza, they were still neighbors to their followers residing in adjoining houses laid out in neat rows. The leaders did possess locally significant political and religious symbols, such as stone animal effigy pipes, copper ornaments, and stone "swords" and "maces," and their status was recognized in death with more elaborate offerings. While they were clearly still

"chiefs," northern Mississippian societies were less stratified and more egalitarian in nature than those at Cahokia, probably as a result of the relatively small populations and their location in a frontier.

A similar pattern of interaction is found in the upper Illinois River valley. Around 900 years ago, a new cultural pattern arises in the valley north of the Big Bend near Starved Rock State Park. The new culture is referred to by archaeologists as the Langford Tradition and emerges out of the interaction of Late Woodland groups with the new Mississippian chiefdoms of the central Illinois River valley, changing their lives dramatically. The previous Late Woodland people lived in small, widely scattered camps, growing some corn, hunting elk, but living a fairly mobile lifestyle. While the Late Woodland people may have traded and even intermarried with the Mississippians, we see an increased level of violence in the central and upper Illinois River valley during this period. The Langford people clustered together in large villages, perhaps with a central open plaza, and often accompanied by a communal burial mound area. They also modified their pottery vessels to more closely resemble those of their Mississippian neighbors and became more dependent on corn agriculture. This material culture and lifestyle has been labeled Upper Mississippian by archeologists to distinguish its blend of Late Woodland and Mississippian characteristics.

By 600 years ago, Mississippian culture disappears from the American Bottom and areas to the north such as the Illinois River and the Apple River valleys. There have been suggestions that small, but significant, shifts in climatic conditions, increased internal disputes and external warfare, or deterioration of local environmental conditions



Duck effigy bowl from the Vandeventer site, Brown County, Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

through over-exploitation may have been important in this event. No answers are completely satisfactory but we do know that Mississippian peoples in southern Illinois and the southeastern United States did continue their traditions until the 16th century, in some cases until contact with Europeans.

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THE LATE MISSISSIPPIAN PERIOD

In Illinois, the Late Mississippian Period extends from A.D. 1300 until the arrival of French explorers in A.D. 1673. During this time we have no written records pertaining to Illinois. Native American

violence. The decline of Cahokia probably had little effect on northern and eastern Illinois.

The climate also became cooler and farming people had to adjust to a shorter growing season and harsher winters. Whatever the cause, social instability clearly increased -- the violence that was present in Mississippian times escalated and many areas of the state seem to have had fewer and fewer people, continuing a trend that started at the beginning of Mississippian times.



Illustration by Andy Buttram. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

history is recorded through oral tradition and by artifacts and related materials, the subject of archaeological research.

The Late Mississippian Period was a time of great change. Some changes have to do with the impact of distant Europeans. After A.D. 1500, as Europeans expanded their contacts along the coastal areas, Native Americans obtained European goods through trade networks long before their first encounter. Epidemics of European diseases, such as smallpox, may have swept through Illinois, decimating native populations. But many of the important changes in the Late Mississippian Period happened before and did not have to do with the distant effects of European contact.

Much changed in Illinois after about A.D. 1250. In the Illinois River valley and southern Illinois, Mississippian culture continued until after the 13th century, but the population seems to have diminished and the center of Mississippian influence shifted south. In the northern part of Illinois, there were several varieties of "Upper Mississippian" culture. Some groups moved into, and out of, the state. It is difficult to say what caused this change. The waning influence of Cahokia might have created a local political vacuum in southern and western Illinois, destabilizing the region and leading to increased

to lessen in Illinois all through the Late Mississippian Period. Cahokia and its surrounding temple mound centers had declined by A.D. 1300. Mississippian people continued to occupy smaller temple mound centers in southern Illinois and along the Illinois River until at least A.D. 1400. South of the American Bottom, along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, Mississippian culture continued for another century. In Arkansas and Tennessee, Mississippian culture was still present and documented by the first explorers in the 1540s. Mississippian culture ceased shortly thereafter and much of the area around the southern tip of Illinois seems to have been abandoned by Mississippians before that time.

In the Ohio and Wabash River valleys in Illinois, Indiana, and Kentucky, a Late Mississippian phase called Caborn-Welborn (A.D. 1400-1600) follows the Mississippian Angel Phase. Like those participating in other Late Mississippian cultures, Caborn-Welborn people lived in a simpler fashion than their predecessors, who had built the impressive Angel Mounds site in southern Indiana. Caborn-Welborn people, whose tribal affiliation is not known, were not present when Europeans arrived; in fact, explorers found few people living in this region.

CENTRAL ILLINOIS - MISSISSIPPIAN AND UPPER MISSISSIPPIAN PEOPLE

In the Illinois River valley, the mound centers and extended networks of smaller settlements established after A.D. 1100 continued during the early part of the Late Mississippian. After A.D. 1200, until perhaps A.D. 1400, Mississippian sites became more common in the Sangamon and LaMoine rivers region of the Illinois Valley. Although still rare, a few more small Mississippian sites were found in the lower Illinois River valley. While earlier Mississippians occupied tributary streams of the Illinois River, nearly all later Mississippian settlements in central Illinois were confined to the river valley.

After A.D. 1300, Mississippian territory in the Illinois River valley between the mouth of Spoon River and Peoria appears to have been shared with a group of Oneota people archaeologists identify as Bold Counselor. There is substantial evidence for violence at this time, although it is not known if the Bold Counselor and Late Mississippians were fighting one other or a common foe. By A.D. 1400, a small number of Bold Counselor Oneota people were living with Mississippians at the Crable site, the last Mississippian temple mound center. By A.D. 1450, Mississippians had abandoned the Illinois Valley. At present, the tribal affiliation of Illinois River valley Mississippians and Bold Counselor Oneota is not known.

Between about A.D. 1300 and A.D. 1500, there were a number of Oneota villages along the Mississippi River between Quincy, Illinois and Muscatine, Iowa. These communities also were abandoned before European explorers visited Illinois.

NORTHERN ILLINOIS - UPPER MISSISSIPPIAN CULTURES

During the Mississippian Period, people identified by archaeologists as Langford became prominent in northern Illinois. At about the same time, Oneota culture was emerging to the north and west. Before A.D. 1300, Oneota was present across much of the Upper Mississippi River valley from Minnesota to northern Missouri and northern Illinois to Nebraska. Two divisions of Oneota, Fisher and Huber, were present in northern Illinois during the Late Mississippian Period. Lastly, another Upper Mississippian group, identified as Danner on the basis of their

distinctive pottery, appears to have moved into Illinois at the very end of the Late Mississippian Period.

Langford culture was similar to Mississippian culture found in the Illinois River valley. Langford groups lived in small villages with mounds, but probably had a less complex social structure. They farmed intensively but also relied heavily on hunting and gathering, especially the rich wetland resources of northern Illinois. Langford culture in the upper part of the Illinois Valley appears to have ended soon after A.D. 1300, although it persisted longer in northeastern Illinois. The tribal affiliation of Langford is currently unknown.

The Fisher Oneota culture emerged during the 12th century in northern Illinois, occupying the region with groups still following Langford traditions. By about the 15th century the Fisher people had changed enough to be known as the Huber Oneota. Huber Oneota culture was concentrated largely in northeastern Illinois and northwestern Indiana in the Chicago/Kankakee area. Huber culture persisted until after A.D. 1600, when the earliest European trade goods began to come into Illinois. Some archaeologists have suggested that the Huber culture might be related to certain Siouan people, such as the Winnebago. Very similar Oneota groups in Iowa and Missouri have been identified as the Ioway and Missouri tribes, close relatives of the Winnebago.

People making Danner pottery came to Illinois near the end of the Late Mississippian Period. Pottery essentially identical to Danner is found along the southwestern shore of Lake Erie until the 16th century. Sites with Danner ceramics in Illinois have many types of European trade goods, so these people were not in Illinois before the 17th century. Sometime between A.D. 1550 and A.D. 1650, people making Danner pottery must have moved to Illinois. Excavations at the Grand Village of the Illinois, also known as the Zimmerman site, and a village in northeast Missouri, confirm that those with the Danner ceramic tradition were members of the Illinois tribe.

LIFE IN THE LATE MISSISSIPPIAN PERIOD

Mississippian lifeways in the southern part of Illinois probably changed little in the Late Mississippian Period. Mississippian social structure probably continued to have multiple levels of status based on lineage. Upper Mississippians are assumed to have had social systems where personal status had more to do with accomplishments. For instance, a person's participation in the trade networks probably conferred considerable status.

Climate change or decreasing human populations probably relate to another important change on the Illinois landscape. After about A.D. 1500, and for the first time in thousands of years, bison herds were present on the prairies of central and north-

ern Illinois. This new resource was very quickly incorporated into Upper Mississippian diets and cultural practices. By A.D. 1200 elk also seem to become more common in Illinois. Nonetheless, for people throughout Illinois, farming of corn, beans, squash and a focus on hunting and gathering riverine and aquatic resources remained the primary means of getting food.

Many of the Upper Mississippians in northern Illinois lived in long houses in which a number of families resided. Farther south, Mississippians used single-family houses, much as they had for several centuries. In the Illinois River valley, Oneota and Mississippian people crowded into a few large towns and did not live throughout the countryside as they had in the previous centuries. In extreme southern Illinois, Mississippians still built larger towns with temples, although never again on the scale of Cahokia.

Artifacts associated with the height of Mississippian Period art and symbolism are less common during the Late Mississippian

Period. Copper and marine shell artifacts (and the trade networks that moved them around the country) were still very important, but the items are not as elaborate. As European trade goods become available after A.D. 1600, changes in technology took place far in advance of the coming of the first Europeans. For instance, when Jolliet and Marquette came to Illinois in 1673, they found the Indians fully armed with guns and busily occupied collecting furs for the French trade.

AT THE TIME OF CONTACT

Progressively through the Late Mississippian Period, large areas of Illinois appear to have been depopulated, suggesting there was much conflict. Between A.D. 1500 and A.D. 1600 there appears to have only been a few places in Illinois that were occupied. Near Chicago, Huber Oneota maintain a large population, but all of northwestern and central Illinois appear to have been uninhabited. In all of eastern Illinois between the Kankakee River and the Lower Wabash River, where the Caborn-Wellborn people lived, there are no recorded pre-contact sites later than A.D. 1400. All the former Mississippian and/or Oneota occupants of the central and lower Illinois River valley had moved elsewhere by A.D. 1450 and very

few Oneota villages seem to be present along the Mississippi River in Illinois after A.D. 1500. Up the Missouri River, west of Illinois, lived Oneota people who became known as the Missouri tribe. North of Illinois, and west of the Huber Oneota in the Chicago Region, the land was also unoccupied all the way to the Mississippi River. In the Iowa/Minnesota/Wisconsin tri-state region lived another Oneota group, the forebearers of the Ioway tribe. It was into this landscape lacking permanent settlements that the Native American groups known as the Illinois Tribe moved sometime after A.D. 1600. It was the Illinois who met the French explorers here and they who gave the state its name.

Oneota jar from the Norris Farms #36 site, Fulton County, Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.



Marine shell spider gorget from the Norris Farms #36 site, Fulton County, Illinois. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.



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THE COLONIAL PERIOD

The Colonial Period began in the summer of 1673, when a small party of French explorers became the first Europeans to set foot on land that would later become the State of Illinois. Leaders of the expedition included a young Canadian fur trader named Louis Jolliet and a Jesuit priest named Jacques Marquette. Jolliet and Marquette, accompanied by five boatmen in two birchbark canoes, descended the uncharted waters of the Mississippi River to the mouth of the Arkansas River. Upon determining that the Mississippi does, indeed, flow south toward the Gulf of Mexico, the explorers reversed course and returned to the Great Lakes via the Illinois River.

Jolliet and Marquette are justifiably famous for their geographical discoveries in the Midwest. But their cultural discoveries were equally important. The explorers visited two villages of Illinois Indians on their 1673 voyage: a Peoria village located near

historically can be found in two very different places: *first*, in written documents that describe particular people, places, and events; *second*, in archaeological remains of the camps, villages, and forts that people occupied. Together, documents and archaeology tell powerful stories about the rich history of Illinois and its diverse peoples. This section focuses on the Colonial Period of Illinois history (A.D. 1673-1778), when Native American tribes shared their lands with French and British colonists.

NATIVE AMERICANS

In the late 1600s, the Illinois and Miami nations were the predominant Native American ethnic groups in Illinois. The Illinois controlled most of central, western, and southern Illinois, land that became known to French settlers as the “Illinois Country.” The Miami occupied several villages in northern Illinois. In the early 1700s, however, as

Illinois territory shrank and the Miami departed for present-day Indiana, other tribes began migrating into the Illinois Country to fill the void. By 1770, a variety of tribes—including the Mesquakie (Fox), Iowa, Kickapoo, Mascouten, Piankashaw, Potawatomi, and Sauk—occupied much of the territory formerly claimed by the Illinois. The ethnic landscape became even more diverse in the early

1800s when the Winnebago (Ho-Chunk) tribe migrated into the Rock River valley. However, treaties and land cessions with the United States government led to the virtual abandonment of the state by Native American tribes in the early 1830s.

Illinois Tribes. At the time of European contact, the Illinois nation was a powerful, but loosely organized, confederation of independent tribes. The tribes spoke a common Algonquian language, had similar ways of life, and shared a large territory in the central Mississippi River valley. In the late 1600s there may have been as many as twelve different Illinois tribes, but over time many of these disappeared or merged with

others. Five Illinois tribes survived into the 1700s: the Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Michigamea, Peoria, and Tamaroa. Only the Kaskaskia and Peoria tribes continued to exist in the early 1800s.

The Illinois had a diverse economy based on agriculture, hunting, fishing, and the gathering of wild foods. Maize (corn) was the most important crop, but they also raised beans, squash, pumpkins, and watermelons. Women stored vast quantities of maize in underground pits to be eaten during the lean winter months. Male hunters generally pursued game animals as individuals or in small groups. In June, however, huge numbers of people left the villages for communal bison hunts in the prairies. Upon finding a herd, runners would surround the bison on foot and, firing their guns and arrows, drive them toward the remainder of the hunting party where they were shot. After skinning and butchering the animals, women and girls would preserve the meat by smoking it on wooden drying racks. In the summer of 1688, the Illinois killed more than 1,200 bison and a variety of other animals on a single hunting expedition.

The Illinois were mobile and lived in three types of settlements during the year. Summer villages, located near rivers, were inhabited in April and May during maize planting and again from mid-July to mid-October when the maize crops were harvested. The summer villages were re-occupied from year to year and were quite large, some containing as many as 350 mat-covered longhouses. Summer hunting camps, established in the prairies in June and July during communal bison hunts, were occupied briefly and consisted of temporary bark-covered lodges. Winter villages, inhabited from mid-October to the end of March, were located in river bottoms where good hunting was expected, often some distance away from the summer villages. To ensure good hunting, winter villages were smaller, containing from five to twenty oval, mat-covered lodges called wigwams. However, larger winter villages were sometimes constructed when the Illinois were in danger of being attacked.

Archaeologists have documented several Historic Period Illinois villages in northern and western Illinois. Using historical descriptions and archaeological surveys, they rediscovered the Grand Village of the Illinois (Zimmerman site) in La Salle County



Robert A. Thom painting, *Jolliet and Marquette Visit Great Village of the Illinois*. Reproduced with permission of The Illinois State Historical Society.

the Mississippi River in northeastern Missouri, and a Kaskaskia village located on the Illinois River, opposite Starved Rock, in north-central Illinois. Marquette's description of the Illinois Indians and their way of life is our earliest detailed account of the largest and most powerful Indian nation that occupied Illinois during the late 1600s. The Illinois suffered drastic decreases in population and territory during the 1700s and early 1800s as they adjusted to life with their new Euroamerican neighbors—first the French, then the British, and ultimately the Americans.

Information about Native Americans and Euroamericans who lived in Illinois

near Starved Rock. This site was occupied intermittently by the Kaskaskia and Peoria tribes from 1673, when Jolliet and Marquette visited the village, until about 1720. Excavations there uncovered a distinctive shell-tempered pottery (Danner type) and a variety of French trade goods. Animal remains indicate that bison provided over half the total meat supply, although elk, deer, fish, bear, and dog were also consumed. Illinois villages along the Mississippi River in southwestern Illinois were occupied by the Cahokia, Kaskaskia, Michigamea, and Tamaroa tribes during the 1700s. One of these, the River L'Abbe Mission site, was a Cahokia village and French chapel located on the first terrace of Monks Mound in Madison County. Another example is the Waterman site, a fortified Michigamea village that was strategically located for protection from raiding Indian war parties near the French Fort de Chartres in Randolph County.

Engraved arrow-shaft wrench made from bison rib, Guebert site, Randolph County, Illinois. Courtesy of Robert Warren, Illinois State Museum.



Kickapoo Tribe. The Kickapoo Indians spoke an Algonquian language distantly related to that spoken by the Illinois. When they first came into contact with the French in the late 1600s, the Kickapoo were living in southern Wisconsin. In alliance with the Sauk, Fox, and Mascouten tribes, the Kickapoo pushed the Illinois tribes southward and took over much of their territory. The Kickapoo began to establish villages in central and eastern Illinois about 1770. They ceded their Illinois lands to the United States in 1819, but some remained in the state until 1834. The Kickapoo economy was based on a mixture of agriculture, hunting, and gathering. In summer they lived in relatively permanent villages of rectangular bark-covered houses that were often located in upland prairies near the prairie-forest border.

Archaeologists have conducted excavations at two Kickapoo settlements in central Illinois: the Grand Village of the Kickapoo in McLean County and the Rhoads site in Logan County. Historical documents

indicate these sites were occupied discontinuously between about 1790 and 1832. Many artifacts from the sites are of Euroamerican origin (e.g., muskets, copper kettles, silver crosses) and reflect a heavy reliance on trade goods obtained from British or American merchants. However, excavations also show that the Kickapoo maintained their traditional economic focus on maize agriculture and the hunting of white-tailed deer.

EUROAMERICANS

The migration of Euroamericans into the Illinois Country began slowly during the French era (1673-1765) and actually declined during the British era (1765-1778), but eventually reached flood proportions at the end of the Colonial Period when the Americans seized control (1778-present).

French Colonists. The 1673 voyage of Jolliet and Marquette paved the way for French expansion into the Illinois Country. Among the first to arrive was René-Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, who sought to create a profitable fur-trade empire. In 1682, La Salle descended the Mississippi River to its mouth and claimed title to the entire drainage basin in the name of Louis XIV, King of France. He then returned to Illinois and built a fortified trading post named Fort St. Louis atop a prominent sandstone cliff later known as Starved Rock. Excavations at Starved Rock in the late 1940s uncovered many European artifacts, including a lead bale seal that dates to the reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715). The bale seal was found in a square cellar that La Salle evidently constructed beneath a powder magazine or warehouse inside the fort.

At the end of the 17th century, the French shifted their hold in Illinois to the Mississippi River. In 1699, three priests from the Seminary of the Foreign Missions in Quebec founded a mission at a village of Cahokia and Tamaroa Indians located in the American Bottom east of present-day St. Louis. The mission attracted French traders. Soon a village was formed that took the name of Cahokia, the second-oldest (after Peoria) permanent European settlement in Illinois. The Cahokia Courthouse, built about 1740 and dismantled in 1901, was reconstructed in 1940 based on

archaeological excavations that uncovered the original limestone foundation, fireplace footings, and fragments of cedar porch columns.

In 1718, the governor of the French colony of *Louisiane* sent a detachment of soldiers up the Mississippi River from New Orleans to build a fort that would serve as the seat of French military and civil power in the Illinois Country. Fort de Chartres, the first of three forts with that name, was completed in 1721 on the east bank of the Mississippi between the villages of Cahokia and Kaskaskia. This fort and its successor were built of wood and soon deteriorated. They were replaced, in 1755, by a massive limestone fortification that enclosed a number of stone buildings. No battles were ever fought at the stone fort, but it did become an important staging area for French troops and their Indian allies, who fought British forces hundreds of miles east of the Illinois Country during the French and Indian War (1755-1763).

British Colonists. The French commandant surrendered Fort de Chartres to British troops in 1765, two years after France relinquished *Louisiane* east of the Mississippi River to England. Many residents of Cahokia and other French villages responded by abandoning their homes and moving west of the Mississippi to Ste. Genevieve and the newly established town of St. Louis. The British gave Fort de Chartres a new



Reconstructed main gate, Fort de Chartres, Randolph County, Illinois. Courtesy of Gary Andrashko, Illinois State Museum.

name, Fort Cavendish, but they abandoned it in 1772 when the Mississippi threatened to undercut its western wall. Part of the fort did, indeed, wash away and the remainder soon fell into ruin. Today, some sections of the fort have been reconstructed based on the results of archaeological excavations.

*Robert E. Warren
Illinois State Museum*

THE AMERICAN PERIOD

The American Period traditionally begins with George Rogers Clark's capture of the British-held town of Kaskaskia in 1778. "Americans," however, were in Illinois prior to this date and Clark's army included guides familiar with southern Illinois. Clark's victory and the end of the Revolutionary War resulted in a flood of American immigrants into southern Illinois. These earliest settlers primarily were small farmers drawn from the hilly back country of the Carolinas,

trade with the estimated 2,000 Native Americans who surrounded them. Archaeological investigations at two early 19th-century Native American settlements — the Grand Village of the Kickapoo in McLean County and the Potawatomi-occupied Windrose site in Kankakee County — revealed that Native American groups engaged in the fur trade maintained many aspects of their traditional culture, despite pressure from missionaries and settlers to change their way of life.

Although certain tools and weapons compatible with a traditional way of life, such as guns and brass kettles, were accepted, items associated with acculturation such as cows and American-style clothing were rejected. American sentiment for the "removal" of all Native Americans from Illinois reached a peak after the

Black Hawk War of 1832. Government officials negotiated a series of treaties with the various Native American groups in which tribes relinquished their lands in Illinois in return for trade goods, money, and new lands west of the Mississippi River. Despite the treaties, many Native Americans did not wish to leave Illinois and had to be forcibly removed to reservations.

The removal of the Native Americans resulted in a dramatic influx of American settlers into northern Illinois. By 1837 the American population of Chicago had grown to over 4,000, an increase of over 1000% in only four years. These new settlers, the majority of whom were from the northern United States, traveled west to Illinois by way of the St. Lawrence River and the Erie Canal. These northern settlers followed a different cultural tradition than those in the southern part of the state, a difference that is evident in the architectural landscapes of the two regions, as well as in the archaeological remains of farmsteads within the two areas. Even today in southern Illinois, it is not unusual to see the remains of old log structures located next

to early roads. Settlers of southern ancestry constructed their homes, barns, and outbuildings of hewn logs, a pattern that persisted in the region into the early 20th century. In central and northern Illinois, in contrast, the richer farmland yielded better economic conditions and prosperity. Larger and more ornate houses of milled lumber dominated the 19th-century landscape and large stone and milled lumber barns were the rule rather than the exception.

The marked difference between the lifeways of 19th-century farmers in the northern and southern parts of the states has been demonstrated through archaeology. Excavation of several farmsteads in southern Illinois including the Davis, Huggins, and Fairview Farm sites revealed that the inhabitants of these farms relied on hogs and corn for their sustenance, similar to farms in other parts of the Upper South. Excavation of rural farmsteads in northern Illinois, such as the Hughlett site near Galena, reveal a different pattern, one centered on the wheat and cattle complex of the northern states.

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS AND GROWTH

Throughout the 1840s, stagecoaches and freight wagons remained the primary means of transporting people and goods across the state. Taverns, ranging in size from small one-room log houses to large two-story buildings with bedrooms for travelers and stables for their horses, sprang up along almost every road in the state. The archaeological excavation of one such site, the Young Tavern in Marion County, provided detailed information about a one-room pioneer southern homestead that also served as a tavern. The excavation of Old Landmark, a second tavern on the same property, revealed that by the 1830s taverns had become more like modern-day hotels, consisting of large structures with kitchens, dining rooms, and bedrooms designed for the use of travelers.

The need for a better method of shipping Illinois products to exterior markets helped fuel an internal improvement boom in the 1830s. The two most significant achievements of this boom were the Illinois and Michigan Canal, begun in 1836 and completed in 1848, and the construction of the Illinois Central Railroad in the 1850s. The completion of these two transportation systems meant that farm products and manufactured goods could now be shipped out of



George Parrish Jr. painting, *George Rogers Clark Raids Fort Sackville*. Reproduced with permission of The Illinois State Historical Society.

Kentucky, and Tennessee. Following natural migration routes such as the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, these settlers fanned out across southern Illinois along dirt roads or "traces" that linked the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers. By 1818 the American population of Illinois was approximately 35,000, 99% of whom were farmers. Archaeological excavations at the Watts site, a late 18th- to early 19th-century American site in the American Bottom, provided information about the types of cellars and artifacts found on these earliest American farmsteads.

SETTLERS AND NATIVE AMERICANS

American settlement remained largely confined to southern Illinois, the lower Illinois River valley, and Galena in northwestern Illinois until the 1830s. Native Americans continued to maintain a traditional lifestyle centered around farming, hunting, and fishing throughout the remainder of the state during this same time. As late as 1833, Chicago had only 300 American citizens, almost all of whom were engaged in the fur

Illinois to distant markets. The recent discovery and excavation by archaeologists of several sunken canal boats provides first-hand documentation on the construction of

class workers in Alton, Illinois. Archaeologists have been able to use the artifacts from these sites, particularly the ceramics and food remains, to examine issues such as socio-economic status, gender relationships, consumerism, and differences in food preparation and consumption between lower and upper class households in 19th-century Illinois.

The population of Illinois became steadily more ethnically diverse throughout the 19th century. Among the new immigrants to the state were freed African Americans, who established a series of farming communities in southern Illinois and the lower Illinois River valley during the 1840s and 1850s. Such communities must have been important in helping fugitive slaves travel along the Underground Railroad through Illinois to freedom. Ongoing archaeological investigations at one of these communities, Miller Grove in Pope County, are providing our first

glimpses of the material culture and lifeways of free African-American farmers in Illinois prior to the Civil War.

Although Illinois contains numerous Civil War-related sites including Confederate prisoner-of-war camps, training camps, hospitals, and major military bases such as the city of Cairo (U.S. Grant's headquarters during the early part of the war), few of these sites have been investigated archaeologically.

One exception is the site of the United States Marine Ways, a former naval shipyard once located in Mound City in southern Illinois. Limited archaeological investigations at this river-front site uncovered the remains of the "ways" or frameworks on which noted Union gunboats such as the Carondelet and Cincinnati were built and launched into the Ohio River. Civil War-related artifacts including bullets, uniform buttons (both Union and Confederate), and other equipment are often encountered

during the excavation of civilian homes and hotels occupied during or shortly after the Civil War.

ARCHAEOLOGY OF RECENT SITES

The late 19th and early 20th centuries were a period of increased industrialization and the standardized, mechanical mass production of everyday items such as bottles, stoneware ceramics, and clothing, previously made by hand. This change has been vividly documented at a number of archaeological sites in the state, most often in the form of a great increase in all types of artifacts, almost all of which were mass-produced and non-local in origin. Hand-made items such as bone clothing buttons, bone-handled tools, hand-forged iron tools, and bottles with hand-finished lips disappear and are replaced by mass-produced items available throughout the country.

Archaeological investigations also have taken place at a number of early 20th-century sites, primarily as a byproduct of the excavation of 19th-century household sites that continued to be occupied into the 20th century, such as the Fairview Farm site in southern Illinois. Other types of 20th-century archaeological sites that have been investigated include Camp Pomona in Union County, which contains the remains of a 1930s African-American occupied Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camp.

In sum, archaeological investigations at a number of American Period sites have provided us with much information regarding 19th- and 20th-century lifeways not found in written records of the time. The archaeological assemblages from these sites vividly document the transformation of Illinois from a frontier territory at the western edge of American settlement to a highly industrialized state in the heart of the Midwest.

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Pearlware teacup and saucer from the Young Tavern site, Marion County, Illinois. Courtesy of the Sangamo Archaeological Center.

the boats used on the Illinois and Michigan Canal.

By 1850 Illinois had become the fourth-largest state in the Union in terms of population. Led by Chicago, a series of Illinois cities including Peoria, Galena, and Quincy expanded rapidly, becoming the state's first urban and industrial centers. Industrial activities included ship building, mining, railroad construction, and stoneware pottery production. Archaeologists have excavated several 19th-century stoneware pottery production sites, including the Jughtown site in Grundy County and the Wilhelm Pottery in Madison County, providing a wealth of previously unknown information about the types of vessels that formed one of Illinois' earliest industries.

URBAN AND RURAL LIFE

The inhabitants of early cities in Illinois followed a way of life that was greatly different from that of the rural countryside, while also showing wide variation in terms of wealth, ethnic background, and occupation. Middle to late 19th-century urban household sites investigated by archaeologists range from that of Abraham Lincoln, a wealthy Springfield lawyer and future president of the United States, to those of laborers, clerks, wagon drivers, and other lower

Mid to late 19th century coins plowed from abandoned farmsteads, Knox County, Illinois. Courtesy of Kelvin Sampson.



THE ARCHAEOLOGY OF ILLINOIS: REGIONAL PERSPECTIVES

NORTHWESTERN ILLINOIS

The archaeology of northwestern Illinois is similar to that of central and northeastern Illinois and eastern Iowa. However, this region is unique for distinctive mineral resources, such as Moline and Galena cherts, galena crystals (lead ore), and Rock River pipestone, that were used extensively by Native Americans.

Paleoindian artifacts are found throughout the region. Clovis and Dalton lithic workshops associated with Moline chert quarry sites are located near the mouth of the Rock River. Dalton points are found in the Quad Cities area in large numbers, but this area represents the known northern extent of their distribution.

Diagnostic artifacts from the entire span of the Archaic period are common across the region. The terminal Middle Archaic Period has been illuminated by recent excavation of Eisle's Hill, a late Middle Archaic occupation buried in a colluvial fan in the Mississippi Valley near Muscatine, Iowa. It dates to around 2,500 B.C. and features a deep, charcoal-rich midden, large roasting pits, oval houses, Osceola projectile points and drills, full-grooved pebble axes, and beautifully fashioned three-quarter and half-grooved (Keokuk) axes. Extensive mussel shell middens and mounds located along the shores of the Mississippi and Rock River rapids in the Quad Cities region are tentatively attributed to the Late Archaic and Early Woodland cultures. Late Archaic Nebo Hill artifacts found south of the Quad Cities represent the northern extent of that cultural complex.

The Early Woodland Period is repre-

sented by Black Sand variety Liverpool ceramics, found throughout the region, and Marion Thick ceramics, known mostly from the middle and southern areas. A buried Black Sand occupation dating to around 500 B.C. was also excavated at Eisle's Hill. The site yielded contracting stemmed points, celts, and very large circular houses with entryways oriented to the southeast.

Middle Woodland sites are prolific, and

major sites are located at regular intervals along the Mississippi and Rock Rivers. Bluff-top and floodplain mounds, earthworks, and large conical, linear and compound mound types are found at some of these sites. The Albany site, which originally contained 96 mounds, is the largest Hopewell village and mound complex in Illinois. Artifacts from the site include Havana and Hopewell ceramics; chipped-stone

artifacts, some made of non-local cherts; plain and effigy platform pipes made from Rock River pipestone; unmodified galena crystals, and a rich assortment of diagnostic Hopewell mortuary artifacts. By A.D. 300, Middle Woodland is succeeded by the Weaver culture, which is defined by Weaver Plain ceramics and Steuben points made from local Burlington chert. Followers of the Weaver tradition were the first Woodland people to establish substantial habitation sites in the interior along smaller streams.

During the Late Woodland, large mound groups that feature low, linear and conical types were constructed in the Quad Cities area and north along both the Rock and Mississippi Rivers. Effigy mounds are found in the extreme northern limits of this region.

Sparse evidence indicates that people following the linear and effigy mound tradition were using Madison cord-decorated and Sepo-like ceramics. The terminal Late Woodland Period is represented by Grant Corded and Collared ceramics in the northern part of the Mississippi valley, and by scattered small villages that yield Starved Rock Collared ceramics and maize and elk remains in the upper Rock River valley.

The Mississippian Period is represented by Oneota, Middle Mississippian, Langford, and Fisher cultures. Substantial Middle Mississippian sites are found along the lower Apple River valley in Jo Daviess County and in Adams and Hancock counties. The Apple River sites feature platform and conical mounds, Stirling Phase artifacts, and, at the 12th-century Lundy site, ceramics almost identical to those found in the central Illinois Valley at the Larson Site. Mississippi Valley Oneota sites are generally small and rare on the Illinois side except for Adams and Hancock counties, where they are large and more frequently found like those found across the Mississippi River in Iowa. Langford Tradition sites and one Fisher site date to A.D. 1100-1300, and are found on the upper Rock River.

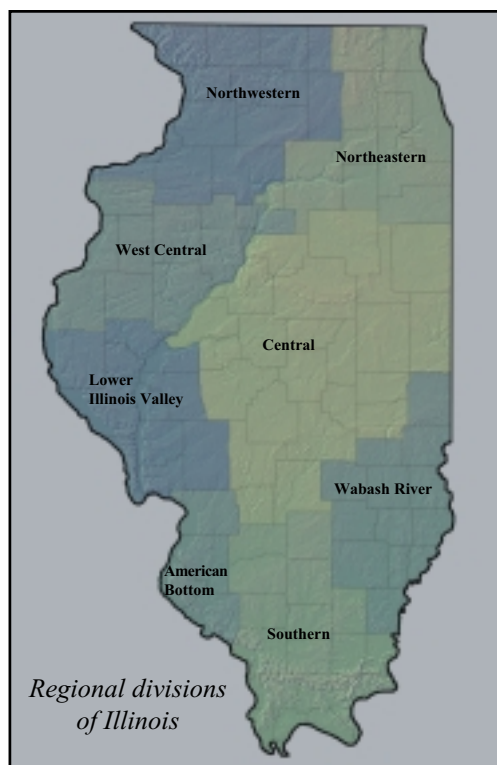
Historic Native American groups of this region include the Illinois, Kickapoo, Sauk, Mesquakie (Fox), Winnebago, and Ottawa. The Crawford Farm site, which was excavated by the University of Illinois in 1960-1961, is located on the south shore of the Rock River four miles from its mouth. It is most certainly the principal village of the Sauk (Saukenauk) that was reported by Zebulon Pike in 1805. Native American presence in this region essentially ended with the expulsion of the Sauk from Illinois after the Black Hawk War in 1832.

Ferrel Anderson

Quad Cities Archaeological Society

NORTHEASTERN ILLINOIS

Few people who live in Northeastern Illinois realize that this part of the state has a rich prehistoric and historical heritage. For most, archaeology means exhibits of exotic cultures and art displayed at Chicago's several world-class museums. Yet there are thousands of recorded archaeological sites



(from 13,000 years old to less than 100 years old) in the region and many county and municipal museums and historical societies exhibit local artifacts representing prehistoric, early historic and Euroamerican pioneer lifeways.

While the culture history of Northeastern Illinois follows the general pattern noted for the rest of the state, specific adaptations were influenced by the local landscape and available natural resources. The landscape is relatively young, exposed and developed after the retreat of the Wisconsin glacial advance approximately 14,000 years ago, leaving extensive wetlands. Marshes, ponds and kettles dotted the hilly morainal uplands and marshes abounded in other poorly drained areas. North-to-south flowing rivers (the Chicago, Upper Des Plaines, Du Page, Fox, and Upper Rock) and a major east-west water corridor (the Kankakee, Lower Des Plaines, and its many tributary creeks, which join to form the Upper Illinois) provided important transportation routes as well as food and materials for making tools, clothing, and housing. The more deeply entrenched east-west corridor contains sites that are larger, more deeply buried, and better preserved, including the extensively-studied Grand Village of the Illinois (Zimmerman site), Gentleman Farm, New Lenox, and Utica Mounds.

Northeastern Illinois is a chert-poor region, presenting problems for prehistoric peoples who used chert for making spear and arrow points and a variety of other tools. Chert-bearing dolomite and limestone is covered in most areas by up to 60 m (200 ft.) of glacial till. Heat-treating chert to improve its quality, use of bipolar manufacturing to break up small pieces of chert, and reworking broken tools were techniques for coping with local chert resources.

Important sites from all time periods have been investigated in Northeastern Illinois. One of the few extensively studied Clovis sites in Illinois is located in a plowed field on a hillside overlooking a wetland not far from the Fox River in Lake County. Repeated surface collections and limited excavations at the 11,000-year-old

Hawk's Nest site have yielded over 150 chipped stone tools, including fluted points and preforms, end and side scrapers, and graters. Stone for tool manufacture comes primarily from quarries along the Des Plaines or Illinois rivers, but exotic chert types from up to 350 miles away have been identified at the site.

The New Lenox site in Will County is important for understanding the transition from prehistoric to early Historic Period lifeways in northeastern Illinois. Radiocarbon dates range from A.D. 1278 to 1666 for the site. Nearly 350 excavated features include a burial, hearths, processing, storage and trash pits, and several structures. The complete structures include an Oneota long house, a semi-subterranean burned structure with post holes around the perimeter, and a 24-m x 16-m (79-ft. x 53-ft.) enclosure, which may have had a ceremonial function.



Excavation at the Hoxie Farm site, Cook County, 2001-2002. Photo courtesy Illinois Transportation Archaeological Research Program.

Well-preserved animal and plant remains show that hunting and fishing as well as native grass seeds augmented the typical Mississippian diet of corn, squash and beans. Also present are European trade goods (brass, iron, seed and necklace beads), and an array of ceramic types, substantiating historical

accounts of intermingling among Midwestern Native American groups during the 17th century.

The 36-ha (90-acre) Grand Village of the Illinois State Historic Site is situated on the north side of the Illinois River, a little over a mile upstream from Starved Rock State Park. Studies of the site from the 1940s to 1990s add to our knowledge of this important locality where Marquette and Jolliet visited a village of 1,150 Kaskaskia in 1673. Although occupied since Archaic times, the Upper Mississippian and Historic materials are the best known. Excellent preservation of plant and animal remains allows detailed examination of subsistence practices; distinct ceramic assemblages may be linked to different historic period Indian tribes; and an assortment of trade goods (particularly beads) and documents provide evidence about French and Indian interaction.

Field school excavations at Macktown, a 12-ha (30-acre) National Register site located in the Winnebago County Forest Preserve just south of Rockton, have uncovered evidence of mid-19th-century cellars, privies, and cisterns, as well as Native American camp sites that span the Middle Archaic to Late Woodland time periods. While Historic Period artifacts are clustered around spots where structures once stood, prehistoric remains are spread out across the 12 ha (30 acres). Excavations have focused on a large Woodland shell midden and habitation, and on the cellar of the early 19th-century Hayes Tavern.

Northeastern Illinois was once home to a succession of diverse prehistoric and Historic Period cultures. More than 5,550 archaeological sites are recorded for the region at this time, demonstrating that substantial remains of the past are still present, though threatened by burgeoning urban development.

Rochelle Lurie

Midwest Archaeological Research Services

WEST CENTRAL ILLINOIS

The Illinois River and its principal tributaries, the LaMoine and Spoon rivers, drain much of west-central Illinois. Throughout most of human history, the area was an unusually productive mosaic of mixed forest and prairie. Ten thousand archaeological sites recorded here during two centuries of scientific inquiry provide unique perspectives about 12,000 years of human existence in the region.

Some time after the last glacial retreat, Paleoindian hunters and gatherers moved onto a landscape of spruce and deciduous forests. Little is known of their lifeways. Aside from numerous fluted points found at some 70 upland locations, evidence of Paleoindian activity is limited to the discovery of butchering marks on young mastodon bones recovered near Spring Lake.

There is a ten-fold increase in the numbers of Early Archaic sites, corresponding to the warmer, drier climate. Over 1,200 Archaic sites are recorded in almost every ecological niche, but the only Archaic habitation site test excavated is the Rench site. Excavations at the Morse and Morton sites produced information about the Late Archaic Red Ocher mortuary complex.

Following Early Woodland Marion and Black Sand phases, primary occupation of the Illinois Valley continued throughout the Middle Woodland period between 200 B.C. and A.D. 200. Increasing numbers of Middle Woodland people began to cultivate intensively starchy seed plants, and populations consolidated around large centers that featured substantial earthen mounds. Some mounds were cemeteries for elite persons who were placed in log tombs, along with elaborate artifacts, often obtained through long-distance trade. Excavations at such centers as Clear Lake, Dickson, Havana, Liverpool, Ogden-Fettie, Sister Creeks, and Steuben formed the basis for the identification of the Middle Woodland Havana Tradition. By A.D. 300, Havana Hopewell culture was beginning to wane and ceramic forms became simpler with the appearance of Weaver ware. For the first time in six centuries, habitation sites were dispersed over the landscape.

The Late Woodland period between A.D. 500 and 1100 was characterized by widespread population movement, refining of plant husbandry, and social adjustment. Regional Late Woodland pottery types include the Adams tradition along the Mississippi and Bauer Branch in the LaMoine

River drainage. Near the end of the Late Woodland, ceramic traditions such as Maples Mill, Mossville, Sepo, and Starved Rock Collared appeared in western Illinois. Combinations of these regional pottery traits and outside influences indicated that Late Woodland peoples readily interchanged ideas and probably intermarried. The principal focus of habitation again became the major valleys, with nearly 600 recorded sites. By



Larson site excavation, west-central Illinois, Fulton County. Photo courtesy of the Dickson Mounds branch of the Illinois State Museum.

A.D. 800, corn began to replace native plants, the first of a series of adaptations generated by close contact with the developing cultural center of Cahokia that would forever change the face of Woodland culture in western Illinois.

By A.D. 1100, Mississippian people began to move out of the Cahokia region into western Illinois, introducing elements of a new lifeway that were quickly adopted by local Woodland people. This movement featured exotic religious expressions, rigid forms of social control, and a vast array of new technologies. The abrupt appearance at the Dickson Mounds, Kingston Lake, Emmons, and Crable sites of human sacrifice, important persons buried with great material wealth, and ceremonially equipped subordinate leaders dramatically reflects the impact of these social changes. The primary focus of this occupation was a 100-mile stretch of the Illinois River valley and its major tributaries between Peoria and Meredosia, Illinois. There, Mississippian emigrants joined local Woodland groups in forming a distinctive variation of Cahokia Mississippian called the Spoon River Culture. Over a 400-year period, they erected a series of fortified temple mound centers surrounded by related clusters of support

communities. Excavations at sites such as Eveland, Larson, Orendorf, and Myer-Dickson provided unprecedented information about community life. Increased populations led to greater reliance on cultigens, principally corn, and encouraged consolidation of large numbers of people into restricted villages. Such consolidation, coupled with poor diet selection, caused disease to become more prevalent, and the general health of the population deteriorated. Competition for land and resources led to increased warfare throughout the 13th century.

Around A.D. 1300, Oneota people from the northern Mississippi Valley moved into western Illinois. Although generally similar to Mississippian, the Bold Counselor culture lacked temple mounds and the associated elite leadership. Settling an unoccupied section of the Illinois Valley, the Oneota found little peace for all of their effort. Nearly half of the adults in one of their cemeteries, Norris Farms 36, were killed in a series of ambushes and raids on their village, an indication of unprecedented social unrest. The abandonment of the Crable site near Anderson Lake in the mid-1400s marked the end of extensive prehistoric Native American occupation in western Illinois.

The two centuries between the end of Mississippian occupation and the arrival of Europeans are not well documented. Following sporadic occupation by groups of late Oneota people, small bands of Potawatomi and Kickapoo moved south and westward into the Mississippi and Illinois river valleys. Early settlers' accounts are rife with references to the presence of Indians or to their recently abandoned "wigwams" along virtually every major waterway in western Illinois.

Native American occupation in the late 17th century around Lake Peoria included 300 cabins in 11 villages, comprised primarily of Peoria and Kaskaskia. This location along the Illinois River would be the principal theater of European and Native American activity in west-central Illinois until the latter were removed in the 1830s.

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Dickson Mounds Museum*

THE AMERICAN BOTTOM REGION

Traditionally, the American Bottom refers to the Mississippi River floodplain between Alton and Chester, and includes from north to south Madison, St. Clair,

Monroe, and Randolph counties in southwestern Illinois. The confluence of the Missouri and Illinois rivers with the Mississippi River occurs to the north, while to the south the Kaskaskia River joins the Mississippi. Numerous smaller tributaries, such as Cahokia, Prairie du Pont, and Fountain creeks flow into and across the aquatic-rich bottom to the Mississippi. For over two centuries, there has been an abiding interest in the legacy left behind by Native Americans and the more recent remains of Euroamericans. Most of the early work was born out of curiosity centered on the mounds at the edge of the bluffs and those concentrated on the floodplain east of St. Louis. Systematic investigations began in the 1920s and since the 1950s, a wealth of information has been generated, mostly centered around the large Mississippian center of Cahokia. Since the 1970s, archaeological resource surveys and excavations required by historic preservation laws, especially those connected with the FAI-270 project, resulted in recording nearly 6,000 sites in the four Illinois counties encompassing the American Bottom.

Evidence in the form of fluted points characterizes the earliest human habitation in the region. A number of large Paleoindian sites with extensive occupation have been identified. Significantly, the nearby Kimmswick site in

Missouri produced fluted points in association with the mastodon. With the onset of the Holocene, the Late Paleoindian occupation Dalton culture exhibits marked changes in technology, subsistence, and settlement patterns, documented in the 1950s at the Modoc Rock Shelter in the southern part of the region. Highway salvage excavations at the Nochta site near Collinsville revealed buried Dalton and Early Archaic features. Along with information from Modoc, excavations at Nochta and the upland Strong site have contributed to our understanding of the Middle Archaic. Sites during this period are often restricted to the aquatic-rich Mississippi floodplain or adjacent bluff crest where resources were readily available.

The Late Archaic period is the best-known part of the pre-ceramic sequence in the American Bottom. The initial sequence of complexes are known from early to late as Falling Springs, Titterington, Mule Road, Labras Lake, and Prairie Lake. The well-documented Prairie Lake phase is characterized by large permanent settlements along the margins of abandoned ox bow lakes, as well as numerous smaller extractive camps with distinctive projectile point styles readily linked to similar forms found to the south.

The shift from the Late Archaic to the Early Woodland in the American Bottom is associated with the production of ceramic vessels and other changes, especially in settlement patterns. Marion culture sites known as the Carr Creek phase are smaller, seasonal encampments distributed as a series of clusters within the American Bottom. Subsequent Florence phase pottery, found near Goose Lake, stands in marked contrast to the undecorated Marion ceramics and is geographically restricted to southern St. Clair



Excavation of a 19th-century brick cellar in McLean County, Illinois. Photo courtesy of the Public Service Archaeology & Architecture Program, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

County. More recently, Black Sand occupations have been identified from excavations in the northern part of the region. Middle Woodland sites parallel the Havana sequence in the Illinois River valley to the north, but the intensity of occupation and participation in the Hopewellian Interaction Sphere is far less than the Havana tradition or the Crab Orchard to the south. During the Middle Woodland to Late Woodland transition, we see changes in the location of settlements across the American Bottom, with large permanent villages located on the Mississippi floodplain and the cultivation of numerous native crops.

The development of Mississippian culture in the American Bottom is marked by

significant increases in population and a focus of small villages with distinct organizational plans on the floodplain. These plans, identified at the Range, Westpark, and Cahokia sites, embody certain symbolic messages regarding the organization of society. Maize is introduced into the existing broad spectrum diet. Two separate cultural traditions, Pulcher and Late Bluff, emerge that are critical in the development of Mississippian culture. The Pulcher tradition persists into the beginning of the Mississippian period, while there is a significant change at the end of the Late Bluff tradition with the emergence of Cahokia as the dominant community of over 10,000 persons at the onset of the Mississippian.

Cahokia represents the coalescence of many traditions into a single community and the redefinition of society. Mississippian mound centers are distributed the length of the valley with the largest and most numerous mounds distributed in the northern part of the valley opposite St. Louis. The Mississippian tradition at Cahokia lasts until the end of the 14th century when Cahokia was abandoned as a Mississippian mound center.

Sites along the bluff margins between Centerville and Dupon represent the 15th- and 16th-century Oneota utilization of the American Bottom, possibly by individuals derived from Cahokia Mississippian populations. When the French arrived at the end of the 17th century, the area was occupied by Illinois groups, especially near the present settlement of Cahokia. Historical archaeology in the region has been focused on the early French settlements such as the historic town of Cahokia, as well as the later American settlements of the 19th century.

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CENTRAL ILLINOIS

Central Illinois stretches from the Wabash River westward to the Illinois River valley and from the Shawnee Hills northward to the Illinois and Kankakee rivers. It is largely a flat to gently rolling plain, broken only by several rivers such as the Vermilion, Iroquois, Mackinaw, Sangamon, Kaskaskia, and their tributaries. Before it was farmed, central Illinois had long been a vast prairie, criss-crossed by streams and dotted by marshes and shallow ponds. The changing variety of plants and animals that flourished on this landscape sustained people throughout the past.

Despite relatively little archaeological research in central Illinois, a total of 8,236 sites has been recorded. However, compared with major river valleys, central Illinois generally had a small resident population except during the Early Archaic.

Although rare, Paleoindian sites tend to be located on high ground. For example, in Vermilion County isolated fluted points have been found on late Ice Age moraines overlooking stream valleys. A substantial increase in the number of 8,000 to 9,000-year-old Early Archaic camps suggests a rapidly growing population. Early Archaic camps are also often found on higher elevations of end moraines, suggesting that there was more water on the upland surface at that time. There is a sharp decline in the number of Middle Archaic sites in central Illinois. This reduction corresponds to a period of warmer and drier climate, during which prairie expanded at the expense of forest. Upland Middle Archaic settlements, such as the Barton-Milner site near Tonica, cluster around and along a reduced number of permanent water sources. At Barton-Milner, Middle Archaic residents constructed a shelter at the edge of a pond more than 5,000 years ago. Late Archaic sites are more numerous in the region. Excavations at the Pabst site near Clinton and the Airport site near Springfield provide information on Late Archaic culture and the environment 3,000 to 4,000 years ago.

Woodland sites are more common along large rivers than elsewhere in central Illinois. Few Early Woodland sites have been found, but their apparent absence may be due to our lack of understanding of Early Woodland artifacts, rather than a change in Native American land use. Middle Woodland sites related to the Havana tradition are widely dispersed across the major river valleys of the region, from the Kankakee in the north to the Kaskaskia in the south. Excavations have been carried out at several Middle Woodland village sites in the Kaskaskia valley, including the Boulder site in the Carlyle Reservoir and the Jasper Newman and Sweat Bee sites in the Shelbyville Reservoir. The Lake Fork mound complex near

Elkhart is especially unusual. It is situated on a bluff overlooking what was a vast shallow lake, rather than on a major stream, but we know little about life here 2,000 years ago. The number of Late Woodland sites in central Illinois increases substantially, along with the diversity of regional traditions represented. Late Bluff culture sites are common in the central Kaskaskia drainage, while

a few, such as the Shire Site, have been identified. Sites associated with the Upper Mississippian Langford culture and the Fisher-Huber Oneota tradition occur in the Upper Illinois and Kankakee drainages.

In the late 17th and early 18th centuries, tribes of the Illinois confederacy may have used central Illinois as a hunting territory, but few sites are known. During the second half of the 18th century the Illinois were replaced by the Kickapoo and Potawatomi. Several important Kickapoo sites occur in the region, including the Grand Village in McLean County and the Rhodes site in Logan County.

As part of the settlement of the Blackhawk War, the Native American tribes that remained in Illinois moved west of the Mississippi River, though a few, like Shabbona's band in LaSalle County, remained. Settlers move into the region in greater numbers during the early to middle part of the 19th century. The invention of plows that could work prairie sod and technology to drain the wet prairie would transform central Illinois into one of the most productive agricultural regions in the world.

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*Koster site excavation, lower Illinois River valley, Greene County.
Photo courtesy of the Center for American Archeology.*

Maples Mills sites extend into the Sangamon drainage. Sites with collared pottery related to the Albee tradition occur in the northern drainages, but they also extend into the upper Kaskaskia valley and the upper Sangamon drainage. The Hood site is an example of an Albee-related seasonal camp.

After A.D. 1000 cultural differences between the northern and southern drainages in central Illinois become more striking. Middle Mississippian hamlets and farmsteads, possibly related to Cahokia or to the Vincennes Culture of the Wabash Valley, are widespread in the Kaskaskia drainage and the Shoal Creek drainage. A few of these sites have small platform mounds, but no major ceremonial centers have been identified. Middle Mississippian sites seem to be less common in the Sangamon drainage, but

THE LOWER ILLINOIS VALLEY

The lower Illinois River valley extends from McKee Creek in Brown County south to the confluence of the Illinois with the Mississippi River at Grafton. In the past, the broad alluvial floodplain, up to five miles wide, was covered by a dense forest of cottonwood, willow, and other water-tolerant trees interspersed with wet prairie, sloughs and shallow lakes. Tributaries flowing into the Illinois River cut through precipitous limestone bluffs, allowing access into the vast uplands to the east and into the dissected bluffs adjoining the Mississippi Valley on the west.

For more than a century, extensive archaeological studies in the region have explored the rich record of human history in an environment that offered the abundant resources of the river, floodplain, bluff-edge and uplands. To date there are 4,112 sites recorded in the lower Illinois valley, spanning the entire range of Illinois history from Paleoindian through the Historic Period. Of the 25 Paleoindian sites recorded here, the best known is the Scenic Hills or Ready site.

More than 200 fluted points and other Paleoindian tools recovered from the site suggests repeated occupations by groups of Illinois' first residents.

The bluff-base settlement called the Koster site in Greene County is a cornerstone of lower Illinois Valley archaeology. First occupied 8,700 years ago, the site is a series of mostly Archaic period camps and villages layered one over another. Re-occupation of Koster continued for centuries with soil from higher elevations covering over and separating cultural deposits. Excellent preservation of animal bones, charred plant remains, and tens of thousands of artifacts chronicle the history of environmental change and human life in this part of Illinois.

Early Archaic settlements were seasonally-shifting residential camps found in upland areas, the bluff base and floodplains. These include bluff-base sites such as Koster, Titus, and Napoleon Hollow, and Twin Ditch, situated on the Greene County floodplain. Settlements probably centered around camps that served as temporary home bases. During the Middle Archaic, increasingly abundant river valley resources drew more permanent settlements, as evidenced by house floors associated with year-round base camps at Koster. Seasonal or multi-seasonal encampments in the floodplain focused on harvesting riverine resources such as mussels, fish, waterfowl, and weedy plants. At the same time, upland resources were gathered at special-purpose hunting camps, nut collection or tool manufacturing workshops such as Buckshaw Ridge in Pike County. By the Late Archaic Period 4000 years ago, larger numbers of people in the lower Illinois valley were living in permanent villages, cultivating native seed crops, and engaging in long-distance exchange to acquire materials such as copper and marine shell.

Archeologists have intensively investigated some of the 1,172 Woodland Period sites in the lower Illinois valley. Early work centered on floodplain burial mounds, including Kamp, Peisker, and Moundhouse; and those situated on the bluffs, such as Gibson, Klunk, and L'Orient. Habitation

sites from the Early Woodland, represented by the Marion and Cypress phases, tend to be scarce and scattered. By Middle Woodland times, there is evidence of population growth, large base camps, and an increased use of all valley and tributary areas for villages. Knowledge of every day life comes from excavations at Apple Creek, Macoupin, Crane, Loy, Smiling Dan, and other sites. These sites chronicle the development of more sophisticated gardening practices, intensive harvesting of riverine and backwater lake resources, unprecedented artistic expression and a complex social and political organization that included a far-reaching trade system. Elaborately decorated Hopewell vessels from the Elizabeth Mounds show incised geometric patterns and bird motifs, excellent examples of the diverse ceramics of the period. Clay figures such as those from the Knight site in Calhoun County and Smiling Dan in Scott County give glimpses of clothing and hair styles at around A.D. 100.

Late Woodland peoples at the Newbridge site in Greene County and Worthy-Merrigan in Calhoun County begin to rely more on corn as a food staple, supplemented by native seed cultivation and hunting. With an increasing population, villages are more common across the landscape and there is a greater number of associated burial



University of Chicago excavation at Cove Hollow, Johnson County, Illinois, 1939. Courtesy of the Illinois State Museum.

mounds. Ceramics technology continues to improve, with stronger and longer-lasting pottery, but decorations are less elaborate than Middle Woodland pottery types.

Mississippian cultures did not penetrate in large numbers into the lower Illinois River valley. The Audrey site, located along Apple Creek in Greene County, is the only example of a palisaded Mississippian village. Small hamlets, such as Hill Creek Homestead at a

tributary outlet in Pike County, are situated along the edges of the valley, suggesting a more scattered Mississippian presence. This pattern continues into the Oneota Period.

Numerous tribes moved through this region during the 17th and 18th centuries, with a few remaining Tamaroa, one of the Illinois tribal groups, living at the southern end of Calhoun County. The Naples Archeological District at the northern end of this region produced the only evidence of Historic Period Native American use, bringing to a close thousands of years of Native American cultures in the lower Illinois River valley.

Karen A. Atwell

Farmland Archaeological Services

WABASH RIVER AND ITS TRIBUTARIES

The Wabash River and its tributaries drain eastern Illinois from the headwaters of the Vermilion River in Livingston County to the confluence of the Wabash and Ohio rivers in Gallatin County. There has been little archaeological research in this region compared to some areas of Illinois. The 3,557 recorded archaeological sites in the Wabash River drainage represent fewer than eight percent of registered sites in Illinois.

Human history in the Wabash River drainage is similar to the rest of Illinois, but there are interesting differences. Some of these differences may represent local developments, but others reflect the influence of other cultures.

The Late Archaic Period Riverton culture is the best known prehistoric culture in the region. It represents a complex system of settlements based on differences in site locations, artifact assemblages, and site function. The principal villages were located in the Wabash River floodplain, where Riverton people carried out most domestic activities such as food preparation and storage, tool production and repair, clothing fabrication, and building construction. At other settlements, often occupied during a particular season, Riverton people sought specific foods such as roots, tubers, berries, nuts, fish, turtles, migratory waterfowl, and white-tailed deer.

Less well known but equally interesting are the Middle Woodland communities in the region. At present, archaeologists have documented 120 Middle Woodland sites in the Wabash River drainage, mostly located along the Wabash River and its major tribu-

taries. Villages and hamlets, some with mounded cemeteries, dot the Wabash River valley floodplain from its confluence with the Ohio River to at least Terre Haute, Indiana. In particular, the pottery from these sites reflects the influence of far-flung Middle Woodland cultures including the Havana-Hopewell culture of the Illinois River valley, the Crab Orchard culture of southern Illinois, and Ohio River valley Middle Woodland cultures, especially that represented by the simple and complicated stamp pottery found at the Mann site in southwestern Indiana. The Allison Culture is a later local Middle Woodland culture (circa A.D. 250 - A.D. 300). The best examples of the Allison culture are the Stoner and Lowe sites, with copper and non-local stone artifacts showing additional evidence of connections with other cultures and regions.

By A.D. 1000, two Mississippian centers, Kincaid in Massac and Pope Counties, Illinois, and the Angel Site near Evansville, Indiana, influenced life in the Wabash River valley. Mississippian sites are found along the lower reach of the Wabash River in floodplain settings, along the lower reach of the Embarras River, and to a lesser extent, in other sections of the Wabash Valley. Particularly noteworthy is the Otter Pond site in Lawrence County. Located on a terrace of the Embarras River, the site has twelve large platform mounds arranged in a rectangular pattern around a central, open plaza. Among the artifacts found at Otter Pond are Mill Creek hoes, manufactured at aboriginal quarries along Mill Creek in Union County. The presence of these artifacts and others from distant locations underscores the importance of long-distance commerce between large Mississippian communities. Smaller Mississippian communities are found nearby in both the Embarras and Wabash valleys.

Centered at the mouth of the Wabash River in Indiana and Illinois is a series of sites that represent the Caborn-Welborn culture, named after two sites in Indiana. Caborn-Welborn people occupied this area from A.D. 1400 to A.D. 1600. As did the

Mississippians before them, Caborn-Welborn people grew corn, collected fish and mussels, and hunted white-tailed deer, but they also occasionally hunted bison, an animal then relatively new to the area. The presence of European trade goods on late Caborn-Welborn sites suggests these people had contact with Europeans, either indirectly through Native American neighbors or in direct contact with French traders.

The Wea and the Piankashaw tribes were resident along the Wabash River in the



Excavation at the Miller Grove site, Pope County, Illinois. Courtesy of the U.S. Forest Service.

17th and 18th centuries. Although there are many historical documents, including maps, that refer to the locations of Wea and Piankashaw villages, archaeologists have yet to discover these sites. By 1746, the Shawnee tribe established a village where Shawneetown stands today. The Kickapoo and Potawatomi resided along the Vermilion River and the headwaters of some of the other Wabash River tributaries.

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Dickson Mounds Museum*

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS

Encompassing the Mississippi and Ohio River floodplains, the Cache River-Bay Creek wetland corridor, the southern portions of the glaciated till plains, and the dissected uplands of the Shawnee Hills and eastern Ozarks, the southern Illinois region exhibits some of the greatest topographic and environmental diversity in the state. The prehistoric archaeological record is likewise diverse and varied, as the region is also a transitional zone between Midwestern and Southeastern cul-

ture areas.

The Paleoindian and Early Archaic record of the region is similar to other parts of the state except for a greater frequency of certain projectile point types more common in the Midsouth. The first notable concentration of settlement takes place in the late Middle Archaic Period, the same time as the major Koster site occupations in southwestern Illinois. A cluster of large Archaic sites with heavy middens is documented in the South and Bankston forks of the Saline River, especially the Carrier Mills locality in Saline County.

The Early and Middle Woodland are represented by the Crab Orchard tradition, a culture centered in southernmost Illinois and largely restricted to areas of deciduous forest. Ceramics appear in the region by 600 B.C., but no distinctive Early Woodland ceramic complex has yet been identified. Vessels are thick cord- or fabric-marked jars with flat bases; fabric-marked surfaces soon predominate until around A.D. 1, when cord marking again assumes some importance. Hopewellian burial mound ceremonialism makes only limited inroads in the area; the major exception is in Jackson County, with the Twenhafel mound and village complex and several nearby sites.

Rock shelters are an important aspect of the record of this region, providing spaces for short-term occupations ranging from the late Paleoindian through Mississippian times. Most of these do not show a great deal of use until the Middle Archaic. Although such sites are most numerous in the interior uplands, there are large, deeply-stratified shelters on the edge of the Mississippi floodplain.

Most of the state's prehistoric rock art is within the region, usually on sandstone outcrops in remote locations away from major settlements. Most of it is late prehistoric in age, very late Late Woodland and Mississippian. Examples may be seen in the Piney Creek Nature Preserve on the Jackson/Randolph county line and at Millstone Bluff in Pope County.

One special feature of the region are the so-called Late Woodland "hill forts." These are ten upland enclosures created by placing low stacked rock walls across the necks of bluff-bound projections or

fingers. In a few instances, other stone features are also present. The sites are scattered across the region on the margins of the most rugged terrain in the Shawnee Hills away from major Late Woodland settlements. Most contain few artifacts. Although popularly viewed as forts, refuges, or even buffalo corrals, these sites appear to be some kind of special locations reserved for periodic social or ceremonial activity, perhaps where the wall serves to delimit the sacred area from the mundane world. Examples of these can be seen in Giant City State Park in Jackson County and on the Rimrock Trail at the Pounds Hollow Recreation Area in Gallatin County.

The Mississippian Period is represented by a number of large mound centers along the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. The best known is the Kincaid site, located in the Black Bottom of the Ohio River near Paducah, Kentucky. The Kincaid site, portions of which are state owned, was investigated in the 1930s and 1940s by the University of Chicago. Kincaid developed as a center early in the period and reached its zenith in the 13th century, serving as the principal site of a chiefdom that extended from near the mouth of the Ohio to the Saline River. After A.D. 1300, Kincaid declines as a political power and is increasingly replaced by smaller local centers. There is a movement by some groups into interior upland settings, as evidenced by Millstone Bluff, a late Mississippian village on a isolated hill top in the upper Bay Creek drainage. The Mississippian of the region is stylistically different from the Cahokia sphere and is more closely linked to the lower Tennessee-Cumberland-Ohio valleys and Southeast Missouri.

Other important Mississippian locales include the Great Salt Spring on the lower Saline River in Gallatin County, a location where small groups processed the brine from a natural salt spring to produce salt. Centuries of activity produced large accumulations of debris including countless pieces of large ceramic pans, used in the process. In southern Union County, near the community of Mill Creek, is the source area for the chert used to make most Mississippian hoes, adzes, and many of the large knives used in Illinois and adjacent areas. The Mill Creek chert locality features several quarries, numerous workshops, one small mound center, the Hale site, and at least one permanent hill-top village, Dillows Ridge, where occupants manufactured these tools for local use as well as extensive trade.

Although there are indications of scattered settlements persisting as late as the early 1500s, Mississippian occupation in most of the region had disappeared by around A.D. 1450. The singular exception is the Caborn-Welborn phase, a late Mississippian expression on the Ohio River centered around the mouth of the Wabash River. Thought to be in part

descended from people associated the Angel site in Indiana, Caborn-Welborn populations persist into the 1600's, with some sites yielding European trade goods. Following the dissolution of Caborn-Welborn, the region is apparently uninhabited except for occasional intrusions by distant groups, such as the Shawnee, who began traversing the region beginning in the late 17th century.

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ILLINOIS INVENTORY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL

The Illinois Archaeological Survey (IAS), an organization of professional archaeologists, was formed in 1956 in response to the United States Federal-Aid Highway Act, which initiated the construction of interstate highways. In Illinois, and elsewhere, agreements provided for the salvage of archaeological, historical, and paleontological data from proposed highway routes. Among the first actions of the IAS was to create a site file, an inventory of archaeological sites in Illinois. Today, the Illinois Archaeological and Paleontological

Resources Protection Act requires the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, with the assistance of the Illinois State Museum, to maintain an inventory of archaeological and paleontological sites. Archaeologists routinely submit information on sites, which is transformed into a Geographic Information System-based file and made available to qualified individuals for research and cultural resource management. The file now includes information on more than 60,000 sites, as shown on this map in red.

ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES AN ENDANGERED CULTURAL RESOURCE

Archaeological sites contain artifacts and traces of past human activity that allow us to learn about the people who once lived in Illinois. Most of the more than 60,000 sites recorded thus far in Illinois were found at or near the present-day land surface, and



Field school at Hildemeyer, a Mississippian Period site near Peoria, Tazewell County, Illinois. Summer 2000. Courtesy of Western Illinois University.

they contain items as diverse as stone tools, hand-built ceramics, animal bone, charred nuts and seeds, garbage pits and house floors. For at least 12,000 years of Native American occupation, these remains represent the only direct evidence of cultures that once flourished here. More recent sites may be the location of a pioneer cabin, a rural tavern, a stoneware manufacturing facility, or an immigrant's homestead. Like other non-renewable resources, archaeological sites are being destroyed at a rapid rate by construction projects throughout the state. The following section provides answers to some basic questions about archaeological sites in Illinois.

Can I surface collect or dig on private land in Illinois?

The only sites on private land having legal protection in Illinois are burial sites. No one, including professional archaeologists, may excavate or disturb burial mounds, or collect burials, burial artifacts, or burial markers without legal authorization. Generally a person only needs the permission of the landowner to collect from or dig on non-burial sites in Illinois. However, collecting artifacts from or digging on a site that is in a proposed development project under review for the project's effects on cultural resources would be a problem, since it could be seen as part of an attempt to avoid compliance with state and federal laws protecting sites.

Where do I go to report a site?

The Illinois State Museum in Springfield keeps the state archaeology site file, as required under state law. Contact the Illinois State Museum, Research and Collections Center, 1011 East Ash Street, Springfield, IL 62703. Phone (217) 524-0328.

Can I collect artifacts or dig on public lands?

Are there state and federal laws that protect sites?

All archaeological sites on federal land are protected under federal laws such as the Archaeological Resources Protection Act, the Native American Grave Protection and Repatriation Act, and the National Historic Preservation Act, and all artifacts on

federal land are property of the federal government. All archaeological sites on lands owned by state government agencies, state universities, counties, townships, municipalities, and special districts (such as forest preserve districts) are protected by Illinois' Archaeological and Paleontological Resources Protection Act. All artifacts found on state or local public land are property of the state. Sites and artifacts on federal land have been protected since 1903, on state land since 1961, and on local public land since 1990. No surface collection or excavation may be done on these public lands by anyone, even professional archaeologists, without legal authorization. Copies of federal archaeology laws are available from federal agencies, libraries, the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency (IHPA), and on the internet at "www.cr.nps.gov/archeology.htm". State archaeology laws are available from IHPA, libraries, and on the internet at "www.legis.state.il.us".

I have heard stories of people being arrested and prosecuted for taking artifacts across state lines, are they true?

Yes, but this can only happen to someone who obtains artifacts illegally.

What should I do if I find human remains?

All burials are protected by the Human Skeletal Remains Protection Act. Under this law you are obligated to notify the coroner within 48 hours of any discovery. If you believe the remains are from an archaeological site, you may contact IHPA after you notify the coroner. If the coroner determines that human remains are not a crime scene, their office will transfer jurisdiction to the IHPA.

When are archaeology sites in development projects subject to cultural resource review laws?

Any development project that is on federal land, or that uses money originally from the federal government, or that must get a permit or license from a federal agency, is subject to federal review. Any development project that uses money originally from state agencies, or that must get a permit or license from a state agency, is subject to state review.

Additional information about these and other topics, including State Permits to dig or collect artifacts, and the status of human remains in private collections, can be obtained from the Illinois Historic Preservation Agency, 1 Old State Capitol Plaza, Springfield, IL 62701-1507. Phone (217) 782-4836, TTY (217) 524-7128, FAX (217) 782-8161.

Mark E. Esarey, Cahokia Mounds State Historic Site

Joseph S. Phillippe, Illinois Historic Preservation Agency



Dickson Mounds Museum archaeologist, Duane Esarey identifying artifacts for visitors. Courtesy of the Dickson Mounds Branch of the Illinois State Museum.

For Further Explorations into Illinois Archaeology

INTERNET RESOURCES

www.illinoisarchaeology.org

ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGY AWARENESS MONTH (IAAM) provides a state-wide calendar of events, a poster and related materials each September.

www.museum.state.il.us

Illinois State Museum web sites includes **museumlink Illinois**, an overview of the state's natural and cultural history, and a link to Dickson Mounds Museum.

<http://dnr.state.il.us/orep/cultural/cultural.htm>

Illinois Department of Natural Resources link has articles and brochures on prehistoric and historic sites, plus a 40-page booklet *Illinois Historic Cemetery Preservation Handbook*.

www.illinoishistory.gov/

The **Illinois Historic Preservation Agency** has links to state-wide historic and archaeological sites you can visit.

www.caa-archeology.org

Center for American Archeology (CAA)

Educational programs for all ages based in Kampsville, Illinois.

www.cahokiamounds.com

Take a virtual visit to the World Heritage site.

<http://riverweb.cet.uiuc.edu/>

Environmental and cultural information and images about the American Bottom region.

www.saa.org

Society for American Archaeology (SAA)

National organization of professional archaeologists; includes quarterly newsletter and curriculum materials.

www.sha.org

Society for Historical Archaeology (SHA)

National organization of archaeologists who study the historic period; includes bibliographies.

<http://archaeology.about.com>

Moderated by a former Midwest archaeologist, this web site is a wealth of accurate information on a broad range of topics, including educational resources.

PUBLICATIONS

Magazines

Illinois Antiquity www.museum.state.il.us/iaaa

Quarterly Publication of the Illinois Association for Advancement of Archaeology

american archaeology www.americanarchaeology.com.

Quarterly Publication of the Archaeological Conservancy

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FOR ADDITIONAL READINGS IN ILLINOIS ARCHAEOLOGY
SEE www.museum.state.il.us/iaaa/dia.pdf.



Excavations at the Morton site near Dickson Mounds, Summer 2009. All images courtesy of the Dickson Mounds Branch of the Illinois State Museum.