LEARNING THROUGH ARCHAEOLOGY:
ETOWAH INDIAN MOUNDS

Etowah, c. A.D. 1325-1375, © 2004 by Steven Patricia; courtesy of the Art Institute of Chicago.
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Georgia’s archaeological landscape includes numerous sites with artificial earthen mounds. Created by diverse Native American cultures, mainly between 500 B.C. – A.D. 1550, these remarkable monuments are vivid reminders of ancient societies that once flourished in every corner of our state.

In an effort to learn about—as well as to learn from—the people who once occupied these mound sites, archaeologists study the artifacts excavated from these sites. Many of the mound sites were constructed during the prehistoric period, a time for which there is no written record to consult. A number of the mound sites recorded around the state were inhabited, however, during the historic period, a time for which there are written records. Accounts from early explorers provide glimpses into the lives of the Native Americans who inhabited these sites long ago, including their physical characteristics, clothing, religious ceremonies, diet, hunting techniques, games, and warfare.

Archaeological investigations at Etowah began under Cyrus Thomas of the Smithsonian Institution in 1884. Later excavations revealed evidence of distinctions based on social class, burial practices, everyday lifeways, and mound construction techniques. In 1964, the Secretary of the Interior named Etowah Mounds a National Historic Landmark. National Historic Landmarks are nationally significant historic places based on their exceptional value or quality in illustrating or interpreting the heritage of the United States. Fewer than 2,500 historic places bear this national distinction. At the present time, only 48 historic places in Georgia have been designated National Historic Landmarks. Although archaeology began at Etowah many years ago, archaeologists continue to investigate portions of the site, as much remains to be learned.

MOUND A – SYMBOL OF A CHIEFDOM

Etowah was a Native American chiefdom. Chiefdoms consisted of a highly structured social order and permanent political officials. Kinship rules guided social ranking, and political officers received the right to rule by virtue of birth. As both a political and religious leader, a chief ruled until his death. From his temple and home atop Mound A, the chief could rule his people and perform religious ceremonies.

Georgia’s chiefdom societies emerged around A.D. 1000 toward the end of the Woodland Period (1000 B.C. to A.D. 900) and marked the onset of the Mississippian Period (A.D. 900 to 1541). Early Spanish explorers, including Hernando de Soto, who visited Etowah around A.D. 1540, described a complex system of paramount chiefdoms where individual chiefs and their supporters formed strong connections with other groups and fought wars to establish their regional political dominance.

Mound A, a temple mound, stands about 65 feet high. A broad ramp projects from its eastern side, and a smaller terrace is attached to the south. Native Americans most likely began construction of this mound in the early years of Etowah’s occupation, about A.D. 1000. Around A.D. 1300, Etowah rose to prominence, reaching its peak about A.D. 1325. Considerable mound construction occurred during these years. The inhabitants also built a staircase for Mound A by packing clay between logs. This staircase was approximately 22 feet wide.

MOUND B AND STRUCTURE 3

Archaeological excavations show that Mound B’s first two construction phases took place during Etowah’s Late Etowah Period (A.D. 1100 to 1200). This construction resulted in a small platform mound about one half of its final size. After a short period when the site was abandoned, construction continued on Mound B from A.D. 1250 to 1325. Mound building increased the footprint of the mound to the north, and structures were built on the top of the mound known as the summit.

Archaeologists discovered the remains of a structure along Mound B’s western edge and named it Structure 3. This structure appears to be a series of rebuilt circular buildings, approximately 42 feet in diameter. The circular ring of posts and changes in soil texture and color led archaeologists to conclude that the building’s central portion served as a hearth (floor of a fire pit), and had no roof. A six-inch wide trench extended from the central hearth westward out of the structure entrance. This trench most likely drained off liquids used to extinguish the hearth fire. Other evidence suggests an open-walled, shed-like structure. A defensive wall known as a palisade surrounded Structure 3 and the surrounding area.

Structure 3 probably served as an area for special functions associated with a restricted, and probably elite, segment of Etowah’s society. It appears that this structure was burned and rebuilt with each period of new construction at Mound B. During the height of Etowah’s occupation, about A.D. 1325 to 1375, a terrace was built over Structure 3 and a new rectangular building (Structure 4) was constructed on this terrace. Archaeologists believe Structure 4 served Etowah’s population in the same manner as Structure 3.

MOUND C – CEREMONIAL MORTUARY

Much of Etowah’s fame derives from impressive Native American art objects recovered from Mound C burials during archaeological excavations. The large quantity of ceremonial goods reveals how village residents participated heavily in the exchange of exotic materials from distant regions. These materials include Tennessee chert (flint), Gulf Coast shells, and copper from the Great Lakes area.

Etowah’s residents built Mound C in seven stages from A.D. 1250 to 1375. The mound eventually grew to a height of 19 feet. Each stage consisted of a layer of fill where its summit, flanks (extensions on the side of mounds), and bases were used as burial grounds. Archaeologists found evidence of structures built on...
THE DEFENSIVE DITCH/BORROW PIT

The Etowah River formed the southern border of the village. A series of borrow pits connected by a large ditch, once 9 to 10 feet deep, surrounded the remainder of the site. A borrow pit is an area that has been excavated so that the fill dirt can be used in another area. Originally, the ditch enclosed some 56 acres, before portions were filled during the nineteenth century for agricultural purposes. Using handmade stone tools, the native peoples dug soil, forming the borrow pits and ditch, and carried it in baskets to build six earthen mounds. Mound building occurred at the site for more than 500 years, with renewal of the mounds and new mound building occurring at various times.

THE VILLAGE

The population at Etowah increased and decreased in size throughout its 550 years of occupation. At times, disease, famine, drought, floods, fires, harsh winters, and seasonal storms drove villagers from their homes in the village. Residents took refuge where shelter could be found. Etowah saw periods of abandonment, often coinciding with one of these natural disasters or during times of regional warfare. Yet, the people returned to this valley because of its ceremonial importance and its status as an ancient capital.

After A.D. 1550, Etowah’s residents moved down river toward the Coosa River and Alabama. Some researchers believe the arrival of additional Europeans caused this social disruption. It is well documented that European diseases, such as measles and smallpox, decimated many native populations. By the time the Etowah River Valley saw its first European settlers, the local Cherokee Indians attributed the mounds to an ancient people known only through their oral traditions.
A hallmark of the Mississippian Period (A.D. 900 to A.D. 1541), large-scale agriculture allowed for a more sedentary or permanent way of life. This change in lifestyle paved the way for a rapid growth in population in the New World. The population grew so fast that in some cases small villages blossomed into bustling towns. Corn, beans, berries, goosefoot, sunflowers, and other cultivated and collected plants constituted part of the diet of the Native Americans inhabiting the site. Tobacco was also cultivated. The fields were cleared using stone axes, then, planted and cultivated using shell hoes. Corn was a major crop that was harvested fresh to be cooked and eaten, as well as cut from the cob and dried for future use. Corn was also allowed to mature and dry in the fields. Dried corn kernels were soaked in a lye solution and processed to make hominy, as well as ground into meal to be used for baking bread and other food items.

Corn, beans, and pumpkins were planted together to aid in the growth process. Pumpkins helped control the growth of weeds due to their wide leaves branching over the ground surface. The fruit could be sliced and dried for future use. Gourds provided drinking vessels and storage containers. Cornstalks served as natural trellises for the growth of beans. In turn, because they are a legume, beans added nitrogen to the soil which helped the corn to grow. When gathered and processed in large quantities, acorns of the white oak trees were used in a number of dietary items such as bread and stews.

Skeletal remains (bones) of birds, deer, fish, rabbits, squirrels, and turtles have been recovered in excavations at Etowah. These remains lend further evidence to the types of animals used to supplement the diet of the inhabitants of the village. An interesting feature spanning the Etowah River at the site is the fish weir (trap) constructed by the Native Americans centuries ago. Look for the two walls of rocks slanting to the center of the river from the banks. Fish weirs were built where the current was swift and the water shallow. Most fish traps were constructed by piling rocks to form a V-shaped dam across a river, pointing downriver. Cone-shaped fish trap baskets, nets, or cane poles were placed at the point of the “V” so that fish were forced into them by the current and kept from swimming back out. Indians also fished using hooks and spears, but the fish trap was the most efficient method of fishing. There are remains of 40 fish traps along the 99-mile length of the Etowah River.

NONINVASIVE ARCHAEOLOGY

Given the technology of today, researchers are able to learn a great deal about an archaeological site without having to put a shovel in the ground. Remote sensing techniques, such as Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR), electrical resistivity, magnetometry, infrared photography, and satellite imagery, enable researchers to gather various types of information about what lies beneath the ground without having to "damage" a site in the process. This technology has the capability to depict anomalies...
(unusual areas) in the ground that may be part of the archaeological site, such as postholes, fire pits, trash pits, and burials.

The most effective remote-sensing method employed at Etowah to date is magnetometry using a Fluxgate Gradiometer System. This system measures the intensity of the magnetic field in buried deposits on archaeological sites and allows the researcher to map patterns of magnetism in the soil. Materials that have been burned or partially burned tend to show up well, as burning alters the magnetic structure of an object. Therefore, hearths as well as burned palisades and structures should leave noticeable details in the data. Remote sensing at Etowah has revealed that the site is much more complex than previously imagined and is allowing researchers to correct previously inaccurate interpretations. For instance, we now know that there were at least four structures atop Mound A rather than just one chiefly residence. To date, nearly 150 structures have been identified as a result of the new data, and there is still much to be learned.

VARIOUS TYPES OF REMOTE SENSING SURVEYS IN ACTION.

OVERLAY OF THE ETOWAH SITE ONTO GOOGLE™ MAP WITH MAGNETOMETER SURVEY ATOP MOUND A AS AN INSET. Source: AGA-LLC.

QUESTIONS

1. What is a chiefdom? Societies that consisted of a highly structured social order and permanent political officers.

2. What is wattle and daub? How was it used to construct a shelter for early Native American people? A framework of woven sticks and/or cane plastered with clay. Sticks and/or cane were woven by hand between a series of upright posts to form the walls of the structure. This wattle base was then plastered over with clay to produce a water-repellent exterior.

3. What is magnetometry, and how is this technology used in archaeology? A remote sensing method that measures the intensity of the magnetic field in buried deposits on archaeological sites and allows the researcher to map patterns of magnetism in the soil.

4. What is a weir? How was it used to supplement the diet of Native Americans? A fish trap constructed by piling rocks to form a V-shaped dam across a river, pointing downstream. Cone-shaped fish trap baskets, nets, or cane poles were placed at the point of the “V” so that fish were forced into them by the current and kept from swimming back out. Weirs provided a more efficient way to catch fish than fishing with a hook and line. Fish were a major food source of the Native Americans.

WEBITES

Georgia State Parks – Etowah Indian Mounds State Historic Site: http://gastateparks.org/info/etowah/
Explore this website to learn more details about the history of Etowah, ongoing projects, and the calendar of events.

Georgia State Parks – Kolomoki Mounds State Historic Park: http://gastateparks.org/info/kolomoki/
Visit this website to learn about the history of the mounds at Kolomoki near Blakely, Georgia.

Explore this website to learn about the history of the mounds at Ocmulgee and the Lamar Mounds and Village near Macon, Georgia.

Society for American Archaeology: www.saa.org

Society for Georgia Archaeology (SGA): www.thesga.org

The Archaeology Channel:
http://www.archaeologychannel.org/content/TR_Group.asp?category=276640&name=Lesson%20Plans

The New Georgia Encyclopedia: http://www.georgiaencyclopedia.org/
RESOURCES AND RECOMMENDED READING

Adair, James

Dickens, Roy S., Jr. and James L. McKinley

Dickens, Roy S., Jr. and James L. McKinley

King, Adam

Milner, George R.

Waselkov, Gregory A. and Kathryn E. Holland Braund, Editors

White, John R.

White, Max E.

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