RESEARCH DESIGN AND INDIGENOUS COLLABORATION IN CULTURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

by

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(Under the Direction of Jennifer Birch)

ABSTRACT

Cultural Resource Management (CRM) accounts for a significant portion of archaeological work done in the United States. Much of this work follows guidelines and regulations set out in Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act. Although Section 106 requires federal and state agencies to consult with Tribal Nations, often this consultation does not foster a sense of true collaboration, and members of Tribal Nations are left out of the research of their own cultural resources. To help understand why this might be and how to overcome this deficiency, this thesis examines Phase III research design on archaeological projects in Georgia and how these practices are perceived by members of Tribal Nations. It concludes with suggestions on how to overcome institutional barriers to meaningful collaboration. By collaborating with Tribal Nations, CRM archaeologists can discover new research topics and make their data more useful to archaeologists and members of Tribal Nations.

INDEX WORDS: Cultural Resource Management, Collaboration, Consultation, Indigenous, Archaeology

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B.A., The University of Georgia, 2022

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF ARTS

ATHENS, GEORGIA

2022

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Too often, western scientific perspectives and Indigenous knowledge can be perceived to be at odds by both archaeologists and Tribal Nations, particularly when it comes to managing archaeological data and cultural resources. This should not be the case. Incorporating Indigenous knowledge and voices into archaeology is greatly beneficial to archaeologists, Tribal Nations, and the public. It can lead archaeologists to look for and think of things they might otherwise not consider, and it can provide a deeper understanding of cultural resources and the archaeological record. Furthermore, integrating Indigenous perspectives into archaeological work can help connect people with their heritage. Even in instances where Tribal Nations do not feel as if they need archaeologists to help connect them with their past, working together and combining knowledge sources can still benefit both archaeologists and Tribal Nations. Members of the Tribal Nation can promote research and methodology that ensures their cultural resources are being protected and respected and incorporating Indigenous knowledge and ways of knowing into archaeological work can allow archaeologists to "access bodies of information which can be used in correlation with data from archaeological sources advancing archaeological understanding" (Harris 2005:38). Combining sources and types of knowledge can allow archaeologists to expand on what they know, or think they know, about the past, and Indigenous knowledge and ideas can "expand and transform archaeological theory and indicate new direction for archaeological investigations and new ideas for archaeological interpretation" (Harris 2005:38). Archaeologists working in the academic sector are not as constrained by time

limits, contracts, and the wishes of clients, so they have significantly more freedom in setting research goals. This allows those archaeologists who wish to build strong, collaborative relationships to do so freely. On the other hand, archaeologists working in Cultural Resource Management (CRM) do not have the same latitude when it comes to forming relationships and developing research due to legislative restrictions on the mandated consultation process, which CRM archaeologists are not a part of. This means that any conversations that occur between archaeologists and Tribal Nations must occur outside of the federally required consultation process, which can make it difficult to build collaborative relationships. However, this should not be interpreted as intimating that academic archaeologists collaborate and CRM archaeologists do not. There are examples of academic archaeologists who chose to collaborate (e.g., Townsend et al. 2020; Steere 2015), and those who do not (e.g., McGhee 2008). Additionally, there are examples of collaboration between CRM archaeologists and the Tribal Nations they work with (Britt 2019; Brannan 2018), and there are examples of where collaboration did not happen (Jackson et al. 2009). Archaeology has moved away from the days of the Mound Builder myths, and "archaeologists can no longer work with impunity; we must discuss all our research activities with the people who are affected by our work" (Ferguson 2009: 181). Archaeologists have to work with the people who are impacted by their work. However, for collaboration to be successful, both archaeologists and Tribal Nations have to choose to collaborate.

Considering the benefits that can come from collaboration between archaeologists and Tribal Nations, conversations and building relationships between the two groups should begin as early as possible in the project planning process. That said, the research design process associated with Phase III data recovery as part of compliance with the Section 106 process (discussed below), offers opportunities for collaboration around the creation of research

questions and interpretation of results. To that end, this research was framed around two primary questions:

1. What are the research questions and goals that guide the Phase III data recovery process of CRM projects conducted in Georgia?
2. How might CRM-based archaeologists foster enhanced collaboration with Tribal Nations and cultural heritage managers in the research design process?

Answering these questions will help understand current practices in Phase III research, how these practices are perceived by members of various Tribal Nations, and help in making suggestions on how to overcome institutional barriers to meaningful collaboration.

A few basic definitions that were used to frame this research need to be established. For the purposes of this study Cultural resources should "be understood as those aspects of the environment—both physical and intangible, both natural and built—that have cultural value to a group of people" (King 2013:3). These should include both physical manifestations of culture such as archaeological materials, historic sites as well as nonmaterial social institutions such as belief systems, values, customs, etc. (King 2013: 3-7). Cultural resources can also include places that are "noted in oral traditions" and places where traditional resources were gathered (Stapp and Burney 2002: 5). In practice, it is the physical aspects of culture that CRM practitioners emphasize, such as "historic properties, archaeological sites and Native American graves and cultural items" (King 2013: 5). Cultural resources, particularly those that are important to Native Americans culture and religion, can be easily overlooked or ignored if they are not tangible, physical sites on the landscape.

CRM is "managing all these sociocultural aspects of the environment and all the contemporary world's impacts on them" (King 2013: 3). In a more technical sense, CRM is

"archaeology performed in response to statutory mandates" (Neumann et al. 2010: 3). These statutory mandates are laws and regulations, typically at the federal or state level, which guide when, how and by whom CRM needs to be done. Taken all together, CRM can be defined as the management of cultural materials by archaeologists who are working under federal compliance laws and regulations.

CRM firms are private companies that are contracted by federal agencies to perform archaeological work on qualifying projects. These companies can include engineering or historic preservation firms (Neumann et al. 2010: 19). They employ archaeologists who are familiar with "the laws and regulation and can envision creative, cost effective, responsible ways of complying with them" (King 2013:14). CRM archaeologists are those individuals working for such companies as opposed to nation-to-nation relationships between Tribal Nations and federal agencies.

The focus here is on Phase III CRM projects that were initiated in order to mitigate adverse effects to a historic property that is eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) under Section 106 criteria of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA). Section 106 of NHPA (referred hereinafter as Section 106) mandates that on any project that "a Federal agency that enables- through funding, or a permit, or just access to Federal land- some kind of activity must first take into account the effects that that activity will have on anything present that could be listed on the National Register of Historic Places" (Neumann et al. 2010: 31). The Section 106 process occurs in four steps. The first step is to determine if a federally funded project has the potential to adversely affect cultural resources or historic properties that are potentially eligible for the NRHP by conducting basic background research on the site and the surrounding area. The next step is to identify historic properties,

typically through a Phase I survey. Phase I is meant to see if there are unknown cultural resources in the impacted area, and if so, establish the horizontal and vertical extent, cultural affiliation and integrity of the materials (Neumann et al. 2010: 93). If cultural resources are found during Phase I, Phase II is initiated to collect more information about whether the site and materials are eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (Neumann et al. 2010: 135). The third step in the overall Section 106 process is to assess adverse effects to the property. If the site is considered eligible during Phase I or II, and it is determined that there will be adverse effects to the property, then the final step is to mitigate adverse effects. Mitigation of adverse effects often occurs as a Phase III data recovery project which "attempts the recovery, analysis, and dissemination of anthropological... information stored within the threatened part of the matrix" (Neumann et al. 2010: 175). This step should be treated the same as a formal, full investigation performed by museum or university researchers (Neumann et al. 2010: 176). It requires archaeologists to establish research questions or goals, conduct the appropriate type of field work and write a formal report. The types of information that can be gathered from a Phase III data recovery project will depend on the goal of the project, but ultimately, enough data, whether that be artifacts, soil samples, maps, field notes, etc. should be collected so that any negative impacts to the site can be mitigated and the sites "information potential is captured" (Neumann et al. 2010: 175). When collaboration is factored into this part of the process, it can open up new avenues for research and lead archaeologists to reconsider and expand their ideas about what parts of the site should be considered eligible, what data is collected and how the data is collected. The process does not always move this smoothly or straightforward, but in general, these are the steps that should be taken.

Section 106 requires consultation. Consultation as required by Section 106 is a government-to-government activity for Tribal Nations. The parties involved in mandated consultation include: the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) or Tribal Historic Preservation Officer (THPO); the Federal agency; Indian Tribes and Native Hawaiian organizations; representatives of local governments; applicants for Federal assistance, permits, licenses and other approvals; and additional parties with a demonstrated interest in the undertaking (36 CFR § 800.2) Different states and agencies have different laws and procedures regarding consultation, but ultimately the federal agency that is funding the project is responsible for ensuring that all requirements for consultation are met (ACHP 2022). Consultation requires that Federal agencies allow descendant communities a "reasonable opportunity to identify its concerns about historic properties, advise on the identification and evaluation of historic properties, including those of traditional religious and cultural importance, articulate its views on the undertaking's effects on such properties, and participate in the resolution of adverse effects" (36 CFR § 800.2). Basically, the purpose of Section 106 consultation is to allow Tribal Nations, or other descendant communities, to give input on identification of historic properties and the mitigation of adverse effects.

There are no specific guidelines on exactly how consultation should occur or exactly what steps should be taken; Section 106 states that the consultation method should be "appropriate to the scale of the undertaking and the scope of Federal involvement and coordinated with other requirements of other statutes" (36 CFR § 800.2). However, the federal agency does have several responsibilities in the consultation process.

1. Identify Tribal Nations that attach significance to properties within the project area

2. Gather information from those Tribal Nations to identify properties with cultural or religious significance that might be eligible for the National Register
3. Address concerns about confidentiality
4. Consult with the Tribal Nation regarding the identification of cultural or historic properties and their potential eligibility for the National Register
5. Invite Tribal Nations to participate in assessing effects on the property
6. Notify the Tribal Nation if there is a no-adverse-effect finding and seek concurrence with that finding- Tribal Nations have 30 days to respond to these notifications
7. Consult with the Tribal Nation regarding avoidance or mitigation of adverse effects and invite the Tribal Nation to be signatories on the Memorandum of Agreement (AASHTO 2016)

In the best-case scenario, "consultation seeks to discuss and take into account multiple views concerning the way historic properties should be identified, evaluated and managed" (Ferguson 2009: 176). This can include multiple face-to-face conversations or email exchanges to discuss identification of cultural resources and how to mitigate or avoid adverse effects (AASHTO 2016). However, consultation does not always go this far, and the agency or applicant are "simply checking the box" of consultation without really considering other opinions or viewpoints or working towards a solution that benefits all parties (Stapp and Burney 2002: 119). External pressures, such as numerous large, complex projects, understaffing, underfunding, and the sheer number of consulting parties can be causes of ineffective consultation (ACHP 2015). It is important to note that CRM archaeologists are not a part of the Federally mandated consultation process. They are outside contractors who have been hired to complete a job and have no say in the government-to-government consultation process.

Collaboration differs from consultation in several ways. Collaboration can occur between CRM archaeologists and Tribal Nations, and in fact, "archaeological contractors have an obligation to talk with and involve tribes and descendant communities in their research even if the formal consultation required by law is handled by federal or state agencies" (Ferguson 2009: 182). CRM archaeologists engaging in collaborative research efforts have to be careful to respect the sovereignty of the Tribal Nations they are working with. Collaboration between archaeologists and Tribal Nations is meant to gain background information, develop research agendas and goals, and involve interested parties in "research before, during and after fieldwork" in order to make it beneficial for all involved (Ferguson 2009: 181, 183). Collaboration between CRM archaeologists and Tribal nations must be kept separate from consultation meant to gather information to apply to Section 106 process decisions regarding property identification and mitigation (Ferguson 2009: 183). Collaboration has the ability to go further than legally mandated consultation and should "emphasize communication, joint decision-making, equitable communication, mutual respect and ethics" (Silliman 2008: 8). Additionally, successful collaboration requires flexibility, fluidity, reciprocity, and willingness to work together towards shared goals as long term, equal partners (Ferguson 2009; Silliman 2008). Collaboration can include incorporating different perspectives and knowledge sources into research design and development in order to obtain as much information and data from a site as possible. Consultation is required by law and is meant to identify eligible properties and how to mitigate adverse effect. When done correctly, collaboration can, and should, go a step further than what is legally mandated by involving Indigenous perspectives into all aspects of the archaeological process and creating meaningful research and professional relationships that can benefit all those involved.

Finally, Indigenous archaeology is defined primarily using this often-cited definition by George Nicholas.

> "Indigenous archaeology seeks to (1) make archaeology more representative of, responsible to, and relevant for Indigenous communities; (2) redress real and perceived inequalities in the practice of archaeology; and (3) inform and broaden the understanding and interpretation of the archaeological record through the incorporation of Aboriginal worldviews, histories, and science" [Nicholas 2008: 1600].

Additionally, Indigenous archaeologies "respect openness, multivocality, personal engagement, ethics, sharing of authority and interpretation, local and cultural knowledge, and the fact that history matters to people" (Silliman 2008: 3). Indigenous archaeologies have their own set of methods, theories, themes and practices which do not have to include collaboration, but Indigenous archaeologies and collaborative archaeology can share many of the same goals and values such as sharing authority, multivocality, and the importance of history to people (Silliman 2008: 3). Therefore, although Indigenous archaeology does not have to include collaboration, and collaboration can include other stakeholders and descendant communities, the two do share similar goals and ideas and can be utilized by CRM archaeologists.

There are certainly limitations on the extent to which CRM archaeologists can collaborate. Sometimes, agencies and clients put limits on CRM firms when it comes to talking to and collaborating with descendant communities (King 2020: 27). Additionally, there are the time, funding and personnel limitations that archaeologists, Tribal Nations and agencies all have to deal with.

While recognizing the limitations CRM archaeologists face, the fact remains that there is significant room for improvement when it comes to collaboration. Approximately 80% of archaeologists in the United States work outside of an academic setting, and 50% of those are employed by engineering, historic, or cultural preservation firms (Neumann et al. 2010: 19). Section 106 requires consultation which can involve as little as agencies sending a THPO a letter asking for comments on a project or even just notifying them of the project and assuming no answer indicates a green light (King 2013: 119). This type of consultation is the bare minimum and is not collaboration. The current system has its flaws and, in many cases, does not foster any sense of true collaboration. At its core, "collaborative research provides a means by which to best meet the needs of all parties interested in archaeological research" (Silliman and Ferguson 2010: 52). CRM archaeology and Indigenous people and perspectives do not have to be at odds. Collaboration can benefit CRM by building trust and stronger professional relationships which in turn can make the CRM process flow more smoothly and directly benefit archaeologists, archaeological data, projects and Indigenous communities. How then can archaeologists encourage that collaboration?

CHAPTER 2

Historical Overview of CRM and Archaeology

To understand why modern CRM functions the way that it does, it is important to look at legislation and archaeological practices of the last 200 years that led to the creation of modern CRM. The relationships between archaeologists and Tribal Nations is built upon centuries of colonial power dynamics and unequal control of cultural resources.

Colonial Archaeology and the Myth of the Mound Builders

Archaeology in the southeastern United States started with antiquarians collecting "curiosities" and "oddities" that were primarily the sacred goods and cultural items belonging to the millions of Native people that were dying at the hands of colonizers (Atalay 2006: 281). Academic interest in these materials as well as large cultural features, such as burial mounds, were often rooted in proving that contemporary Native populations were culturally stagnant or inferior (Downer 1997; Watkins 2000). A primary example of this is the Myth of the Mound builders which was the idea that a missing, more complex group, such as the Lost Tribes of Israel, were responsible for building the great Mississippian mounds that were found throughout the southeast (Downer 1997). These types of archaeological arguments and theories "bolstered arguments for moving the 'savage' Indians out of the way of white 'civilization'" and set the tone of the relationship between archaeologists and Indigenous people that continues today. (Watkins 2000: 5). Both the physical removal of Tribal Nations from their ancestral land and the split from their cultural heritage through colonial archaeological endeavors had the effect of

severing ties between descendant communities and the physical and cultural landscapes of their ancestors, and these issues are still being dealt with today. For example, although there are clear cultural affiliations between the Muscogee Nation today and the mound builders, there is rarely any connection made between these two groups (Birch et al. 2022: 6). In many cases, consultation and Tribal involvement in CRM are complicated by the fact that many Tribal Nations are located hundreds of miles from their ancestral homelands (Ferguson 2009: 176). American archaeology began as a colonialist endeavor that was "part of an intellectual development that occurred in many places where native populations were replaced or dominated by European colonists'" (Ferguson 1996:64). Native perspectives were not considered because archaeologists did not see them as valid, and this early valuation of knowledge has had lasting impacts on the field of archaeology.

Antiquities Act of 1906 and Historic Sites Act 1935

The first piece of legislation passed to protect historic properties and archaeological sites was the Antiquities Act of 1906. In the early 1900's, there was a "widespread fear that natural wonders of the United States were in danger and a nationwide conservationist movement developed to save them" (McGuire 1992: 823). This movement led to the Antiquities Act "which was intended to protect archaeological sites on federal and tribal lands from looters" (Tsosie 1997: 68). It required anyone excavating on public lands to have a permit from the secretary of the interior (King 2010: 16). Although this law was meant to protect Native American sites, it "defined dead Indians interred on federal lands as 'archaeological resources', as objects of historic or scientific interest, and treated those deceased as federal property" (Tsosie 1997: 68). By establishing federal interest in and control over archaeological properties on public lands, the

Antiquities Act “had an enormous effect on subsequent developments in historic preservation law in the United States” (Sebastian 2009: 7). However, this law failed to establish specific policy in regard to why or how to preserve archaeological sites (Sebastian 2009: 7).

The next major piece of historic preservation legislation was the Historic Sites Act of 1935. The Historic Sites Act established "a national policy to preserve for public use historic sites, buildings, and objects of national significance for the inspiration and benefit of the people of the United States." (Historic Sites Act 2021). This act also “authorized the Secretary of the Interior to obtain information, survey, conduct research, maintain, and preserve sites with archeological significance” (Historic Sites Act 2021). Additionally, the Historic Sites Act “institutionalized the within the National Parks Service many of the New Deal Programs pertaining to history and archaeology,” which included the work done by the Works Progress Administration (Sebastian 2009: 7). This law established the idea of National Historic Landmarks and laid the groundwork for future historic preservation legislation (King 2010: 17). Both the Antiquities Act and the Historic Sites Act gave the federal government control over archaeological, cultural and historic resources and set early standards for how these resources should be managed which would have a lasting impact on modern CRM.

Works Progress Administration Archaeology

Archaeology remained a small, fragmented academic field well into the 20th century. However, the onset of the Great Depression and the subsequent implementation of President Roosevelt’s New Deal programs would provide a catalyst for the growth of archaeology and the public’s involvement in it. The Works Progress Administration (WPA) was one of the largest New Deal programs, and a great deal of archaeological work was done as a part of this program, (Neumann et al. 2010: 4). WPA archaeology played a large role in the development of “new

techniques, methods and theories" and developing regional syntheses (Sullivan and Childs 2003: 11). Archaeology was ideal for the WPA because it was labor intensive, could employ large numbers of people for a long time, cost of materials was low, and it did not compete with private sector businesses (Means 2013:8). WPA archaeology was especially prominent in the Southeast where there was a large labor force, mild climate, and a lot of undiscovered cultural resources (Lyon 1996:30). Many well-known southeastern archaeologists, such as Robert Wauchope, Gordon Wiley, W.S. Webb, etc. began their careers with the WPA (Lyon 1996: 205). These men would go on to be some of the founders of professional archaeology, and their time in the WPA would significantly influence the development of the field. Four aspects of WPA archaeology had a significant, lasting influence over the development of professional, government funded archaeology. These issues were the perception that the government imposed too many bureaucratic expectations, short deadlines led to sloppy work, excavation was being done for the sake of excavation, and there was a serious lack of analysis, publication and adequate curation of the cultural resources (Neumann et al. 2010: 8). Although many of these issues were out of the hands of archaeologists, as they went on in their careers, they learned from these problems and worked to resolve them in future work. WPA archaeology was the first example of large-scale Federally funded archaeology and had an impact on the development of professional archaeology by showing future generations what to do and what not to do on this type of project (Neumann et al. 2010: 13).

Although Georgia WPA archaeology was the most disorganized program in the Southeast, the largest WPA project took place at Ocmulgee Mounds in Macon, Georgia (Lyon 1996: 107,180). Ocmulgee represented a site with significant historic and 'pre-historic' potential, and interest in the site "coincided with the increasing concern of the NPS with historic

preservation" which ultimately led to the site becoming a National Monument in 1934 (Lyon 1996: 178-179). Despite the special attention paid to this site, and the almost quarter of a million dollars in funding, the lead archaeologist, Arthur Kelly, still faced issues such as undertrained field technicians, lack of time and never publishing a finalized report (Lyon 1996). However, the work done at Ocmulgee and the other Georgia projects in Glynn county, Chatham county, and the Georgia statewide archaeological survey did provide a base of archaeological data on Georgia's early history and material culture that is still utilized today (Lyon 1996). Specifically, the ceramic classifications that came from WPA archaeology are still used not only in Georgia but throughout the southeast (Lyon 1996: 191).

The Missouri Basin Project

The Missouri Basin Project began in 1945 and was another large-scale federally funded archaeological project (Neumann et al. 2010: 13). This work built upon the foundations of WPA archaeology and further established how federally funded archaeological projects should be done to provide the best results. The Missouri Basin project was part of a plan by the U.S. Army Corp of Engineers and Bureau of Reclamation to develop the Missouri River as a series of reservoirs, and the archaeological work was coordinated by the Smithsonian Institute and the National Parks Service (Lehmer 1971: 1). The Missouri Basin project helped pave the way for private, professional archaeology, and "helped establish all of the pieces that would emerge in professional archaeology at the national level" (Neumann et al. 2010: 13). This included coordination by the National Parks Service, subcontracted non-government archaeologist performing the work, formation of joint academic and government committees to draft Memorandum of Agreement (MOA), establishing an efficient site numbering system, writing

more reports in a timelier manner, and the development of research plans and background research (Neumann et al. 2010: 13-14). Archaeologists and federal agencies involved in the Missouri Basin project worked to fix some of the issues that were prevalent in WPA archaeology and laid the groundwork for future professional archaeology.

Post-World War II Legislation

Following World War II, most archaeologists in the southeast were still employed in an academic setting, such as museums and universities, or worked for the government. Even those who worked on projects like the Missouri Basin project were employed by universities or museums and were contracted by the government to do survey work. However, in the 1960's this began to change, and more archaeologists were employed in the public sector. This shift occurred as a result of two main pieces of legislation; the Reservoir Salvage Act and the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA). The Reservoir Salvage Act was passed in 1960 to protect the nations cultural resources from federally funded dam and reservoir building programs (Stapp and Burney 2002: 24). This act mandated that cultural resources be preserved or collected to stop them from being destroyed. The Reservoir Salvage act also made archaeology become "an integral part of land-use planning and federal agency decision making" (Sebastian 2009: 11). These pieces of legislation, which served a similar purpose of protecting cultural resources from being destroyed, can be seen as a precursor to modern CRM,

The passage of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) in 1966 had a large impact on the shift from academic to public sector archaeology (Neumann et al. 2010: 15). Section 106 requires any activity or undertaking that is federally funded or permitted to consider the impacts of that activity on the nation's cultural resources, particularly those that are eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) (Neumann et al. 2010: 15). A place can be

eligible for listing on the NRHP under four criteria. Criterion A covers properties that are "associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history" (36 CFR §60.4). Criterion B covers properties associated with significant people from the past, and Criterion C covers properties that have distinctive characteristics of a specific type, have high artistic value, or "represent the work of a master" (36 CFR 60.4). Finally, Criterion D is any place that has "yielded, or is likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history" (36 CFR 60.4). Archaeological sites are generally considered eligible for the NRHP under Criterion D due to their potential to yield information on history or prehistory. When the legislation was passed, only sites that were already included on the register had to be considered; this was an issue since the Register was new and there were few sites included (King 2013: 21). This problem was solved in 1972 when President Nixon passed Executive Order 11593 which required that sites eligible for inclusion on the NRHP had to be considered as if they were already listed (King 2013: 21).

In its early days, Section 106 only applied to and considered Federal agencies and the applicants for Federal funding. In fact, it was not until the 1980s that tribes began to become more involved with CRM and historic preservation, and an amendment to NHPA in 1980 gave tribes legal grounds to conduct archaeological research on their own land (Watkins 2000: 45). It was not until 1992 that amendments were made to NHPA that allowed THPOs to take on the responsibilities of SHPOs (King 2013: 29). Amendments passed in 1992 protected cultural properties under NHPA, as long as the tribes could prove cultural relevance, which was itself a point of contention among many Native Americans who felt that as if they should not have to prove relevance to the point that the law required (Tsosie 1997: 71). With these amendments, in addition to the funding Federal Agency, Section 106 now lists six consulting parties. These are

the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO), Tribal Historic Preservation Officer (THPO), any Indigenous or Native Hawaiian group that attaches religious or ceremonial importance to the site, local governments, the applicant receiving Federal funding and anyone else with a legal or economic interest (Neumann et al. 2010: 39). Although Section 106 requires consultation with a wide range of stakeholders, including THPOs and other Indigenous people, CRM developed in a world where these requirements did not yet exist, so only input of archaeologists were considered in the development of research goals.

CHAPTER 3

CRM and Archaeological Theories

CRM was primarily developed and directed by archaeologists who equated cultural resources with archaeological resources which are "any material remains of past human life or activities which are of archaeological interest" (Archaeological Resources Protection Act § 470bb). This resulted in "most cultural aspects of the environment -social institutions; cultural use of plants, animals, and land; and religious practices" being largely ignored by CRM (King 2013:30). This was problematic because in many cases these are the aspects of culture that are important to Indigenous groups. However, archaeologists such as Robert McGimsey and Robert Lipe emphasized the key role that CRM must play in saving archaeological materials and knowledge for future generations (McGimsey 1972; Lipe 1974).

Processual Archaeology

While CRM was being developed, the primary theoretical school of thought in archaeology was processualism. Processual archaeology was largely focused on identifying universal truths and laws. Archaeologists were asking questions about why events happened the way they did, and processualists "basic premises are materialist, etic and generalizing, and include an emphasis on structure over agency" (Urban and Shortman 2019: 73). Processualists were focused on making broad generalizations about human culture and behavior rather than studying "local particularities," so settlement pattern studies were particularly popular because they allowed archaeologists to describe "the full array of activities pursued at different sites

within a specific area that was occupied, or at least used, by members of a culture" (Urban and Shortman 2019: 82). Since these were the primary concerns of archaeology, archaeological research did little to explain differences between individual tribes or cultural differences in general (Ferguson 1996: 65). CRM developed during this time, and these foundational theories and research goals have not changed much over the years.

Post-Processual Archaeology

During the 1980's theory in archaeology began to turn towards post-processual ideas. Post-processual theory covers a wide range of ideas and topics, but its main components include a reactionary shift away from the scientific laws and generalizations of processualism and towards more interpretive, subjective archaeology. Post-processualism puts more of an emphasis on agency, thoughts, and values, the individual and context than processual archaeology did (Johnson 2020: 112-116). Another important aspect of post-processual archaeology is the acceptance that "interpreting the past is always a political act" (Johnson 2020: 116). Additionally, there was an emphasis on "opening archaeology to a broader range of theoretical positions (Hodder 2012: 2). This opening of archaeology encouraged engaging with perspectives and critiques from other groups, particularly Indigenous groups in North America (Hodder 2012: 3).

This shift in archaeological theory corresponded with increased involvement of Indigenous people in archaeology (King 2013: 27). Larger tribes and intertribal organizations especially were becoming more involved in CRM and "were active influences on the ACHP in revising its Section 106 litigation" (King 2013: 28). Additionally, they were advocating for the return of their cultural resources and ancestors (King 2013: 28). Activism in the 1970's and

1980s by groups such as the American Indian Movement, American Indians Against Desecration, the American Indian Student Association and others played a vital role in passing the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act (NAGPRA) (Fine-Dare 2002). Up to this point, archaeologists viewed ancestral human remains and cultural items to be nothing more than artifacts to be collected, studied and put on display.

The passage of NAGPRA in 1990 was a direct result of the Indigenous Advocacy of the 1970s and 1980s. This important piece of legislation is meant to address the "civil rights violations of America's first Citizens" by creating laws to regulate and govern "the repatriation of human remains, funerary objects, sacred objects, and objects of cultural patrimony, and provides for the protection and ownership of materials unearthed on federal and tribal lands" (Echo-Hawk and Trope 2014: 22). NAGPRA requires all federal agencies and museums to return any of the items mentioned to any Native American or Hawaiian group that can show their cultural affiliation with the item (Echo-Hawk and Trope 2014: 23). By establishing protocols for excavating and returning cultural items NAGPRA was a vital step in making CRM archaeology more inclusive of Indigenous perspectives and reconnecting Tribal Nations with the cultural and historical resources they had been separated from. It was ultimately the activism conducted by these groups, not the incorporation of post-processual theoretical perspectives, that had the biggest impact on changing historic preservation and cultural resource laws (Moss 2005: 584).

Theory of the late 1990s Through the Present

In the late 1990s defining a specific theoretical paradigm in archaeology became more difficult. Michelle Hegmon attempted to classify the theoretical landscape of this period into two main parts: 1) self-identified theoretical perspectives that include evolutionary ecology,

behavioral archaeology and Darwinian archaeology and 2) processual-plus archaeology (Hegmon 2003: 214). The self-identified perspectives are those that can be tied to a specific person or group of people and, with the exception of the Darwinian archaeology, encourage theoretical sharing and diversity (Hegmon 2003: 214-215). Processual-plus is a term Hegmon coined herself. It is loosely defined and refers to a broad range of perspectives, but essentially processual-plus attempts to "combine processual and post-processual insights," often by using processual theories and techniques to study and develop general themes about post-processual concepts such as agency and identity (Hegmon 2003: 216-218). Processual-plus is not meant to represent a single, unified theory but rather to "consider crosscutting trends," and it can be applied to a number of different "theoretical directions" including engendering the past, agency and symbols (Hegmon 2003: 217-221). Processual-plus provides a useful way to consider theoretical trends in archaeology today, while recognizing a wide variety of specific theories that are employed.

More recently, a survey conducted by Kintigh and several colleagues from a variety of academic and theoretical backgrounds, surveyed archaeologists in order to identify the most important challenges in archaeology today (Kintigh et al. 2014). They received 181 responses, most of which came from male, American archaeologists over the age of 50 who work in academia (Kintigh et al. 2014: 7). The authors "privileged questions that represent dynamic cultural processes and the operation of coupled human and natural systems-not on particular events of the past," and based on these responses, the authors compiled a list of 25 grand challenges to archaeology which should "not only apply to domains outside of archaeology but also be relevant to contemporary society" (Kintigh et al. 2014: 7). The 25 grand challenges were grouped into 5 main categories which include: 1) Emergence, communities, and complexity; 2)

resilience, persistence and collapse; 3) movement, mobility and migration; 4) cognition behavior and identity; 5) human-environment interactions (Kintigh et al. 2014: 8). Although this study does not support any specific theoretical agendas, it does provide an example of various different future directions for archaeological research.

Each of these articles provide examples of more recent trends in the theoretical landscape of archaeology and future direction for archaeological research. However, neither fully captures the state of archaeology today because they do not fully consider perspectives of those outside of academic archaeology. For example, the language of processual archaeology was written into the laws that govern CRM, and in many cases, it is still these theoretical frameworks that guide CRM work (Moss 2005: 584). By 1990, CRM already had strong foundations. During the rest of the 1990s CRM practice became more "standardized and embedded in governmental and private sector operations" (King 2013: 30). Therefore, while academic archaeologists were moving towards post-processual or processual-plus research goals and theoretical ideas, CRM was being taken over by a new generation of archaeologists who "for the most part seem[ed] satisfied with the status quo (King 2013: 30). CRM began in a context in which rules and regulations were minimal, and the increase in "rules, processes and lawsuits," many of which were processual in nature, during the latter half of the twentieth century as well as insufficient time and resources made this shift to complacency almost inevitable because CRM archaeologists had to focus more on meeting these requirements in a cost-effective manner (Mackey 2009).

Additionally, Hegmon and Kintigh and colleagues' work both inadequately account for the voices and perspectives of Tribal Nations. Some aspects of processual-plus theory, such as an interest in agency and site-specific cases, do fit well with tribal histories (Hegmon 2003: 217). However, Tribal histories can, and should, be incorporated into "important questions" in

archaeological research (Cobb 2014: 590). Despite changes in archaeological theory and continued activism of Tribal Nations, “many archaeologists still believe that as scientists, they are the ultimate authorities over archaeological sites and materials” (Moss 2005: 585). Although the grand challenges established by Kintigh and colleagues is meant to be applicable and relevant to a wide range of audiences, by only talking to other archaeologists and including those questions that fall under a scientific, natural history, framework, they fail to consider the interests of Tribal Nations (Cobb 2014). Tribal Nations are more interested in research which emphasizes histories and lived experiences, not “trans historical” questions (Cobb 2014: 590,592). Although the grand challenges and processual-plus theories are useful and provide interesting research avenues for archaeologist, they fail to consider other stakeholders in the past, and do not always result in research that is actually applicable to a wide range of people.

CHAPTER 4

Indigenous Archaeology

Over the last 20 years, more archaeologists in the academic sector have begun to practice or incorporate Indigenous archaeology into their work. Indigenous archaeology in its simplest terms is "archaeology done by, for and with Indigenous groups," and it is built upon collaboration between archaeologists and Native peoples (McNiven 2017: 28). Meaningful collaboration with Indigenous people and critically engaging with Indigenous ways of knowing and relating to the past are vital aspects of Indigenous archaeology (Atalay 2006: 292-294). Additionally, Indigenous archaeology is a way to challenge archaeology's "historical political economy and expand its intellectual breadth" (Colwell-Chanthaphonh et al. 2010: 229). It can force archaeology to reconsider "its strong connections to a colonial past that involved using science to support and reinforce various forms of inequality; racial, gender, ethnic, and cultural inequalities" (Gould et al. 2020: 6). Practicing Indigenous archaeology can not only help archaeology become a more morally and ethically diverse practice, but it can also provide more useful and diverse ways of understanding the past which will expand overall knowledge of the past (Atalay 2006: 295-299). Despite the difficulties associated with combining scientific and Indigenous knowledge, "more and more archaeologists are trying to accommodate Indigenous values" (Watkins 2003: 277). This can be done using a variety of techniques including non-invasive survey techniques, increasing Native involvement, only excavating certain sites, etc. (Watkins 2003: 277). In recent years, non-invasive survey techniques, such as ground penetrating radar (GPR), have become utilized more regularly to "provide data and

interpretations for whole sites and landscapes complementary to or beyond that of excavation, especially regarding the intactness and sensitivity of cultural heritage sites" (Nelson 2021). Right now, Indigenous archaeology lacks a clear theoretical agenda and is more a set of goals focused around "colonial, political, ethical and repatriation issues" (McNiven 2017: 28-29). Most of this work has taken place in an academic setting where archaeologists have the privilege of time to build personal relationships and develop specific research questions for sites of their choosing. However, Indigenous archaeologies can be extremely beneficial to CRM. In fact, one of the main goals and measures of success for Indigenous archaeology will be its ability to become more frequently utilized in mainstream archaeology (McNiven 2017:36). In many cases, "CRM archaeology is routine, and many practitioners feel constrained in their work to address a restricted range of questions and apply a limited series of methods" (Green and Doershuk 1998: 130). Incorporating Indigenous archaeologies into CRM can open new doors for research and encourage archaeologists to ask different, more creative questions about a site.

Examples of Collaborative Indigenous Archaeology

Collaborative archaeological projects have already proven to be successful and have significantly contributed to both academic and CRM archaeology. These projects can take a variety of forms and provide multiple new lines of archaeological data as well as information that is relevant to Tribal Nations. One example is a study done by Kurt Dongoske in collaboration with the Pueblo of Zuni. Zuni have "deep emotional and psychological bonds. To ancestral- including archaeological- sites and to their ancestors who continue to live there" (Dongoske 2020: 226). However, these bonds and connections are rarely, if ever, considered during the Section 106 process (Dongoske 2020: 226). The Zuni have strong cultural connections

to the Grand Canyon, the Colorado River and the Little Colorado River, and all the archeological and cultural sites within this region are connected and cannot be "understood without considering the greater social, cultural, geo- graphical, and historical contexts in which they were and continue to be used" (Dongoske 2020: 227-229). Often, archaeological research done on these sites is not considered particularly meaningful to Zuni because the research does not consider Zuni connections to these places (Dongoske 2020: 229). However, in 2014 the Bureau of Reclamation agreed to fund a Zuni led video-documentary project that would document the importance and meaning of ancestral sites (Dongoske 2020:229-230). By allowing the Zuni to document their ancestral sites in a way that was meaningful to them, this project not only successfully mitigated negative impacts to these sites, but also provided information that could be used in future archaeological investigations as well as by Zuni.

Additionally, a 2015 project initiated by Tribal Historic Preservation Office of the Eastern Band of Cherokee and the Coweta Long Term Ecological Research Program at the University of Georgia sought to "generate new information about the distribution of late prehistoric mounds and historic period townhouses in western North Carolina" (Steere 2015: 196). This project successfully provided new archaeological information regarding the location and distribution of Cherokee mound and townhouse sites which will improve understanding of the Mississippian period in this region (Steere 2015: 211). Additionally, the data collected from this project not only provides the Eastern Band of Cherokee with added information about their past, but also will allow them to more closely monitor these mound and town sites, many of which have a high probability of containing ancestors (Steere 2015: 213).

As an example of meaningful consultation between agents of a federal agency and Tribal Nations which incorporated aspects of Indigenous archaeology, we can look towards a project

conducted by the Georgia Department of Transportation in 2008 at the New Echota State Historic Site. GDOT archaeologists invited Tribal elders and members Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians THPO to the site to discuss a proposed bridge replacement and roadway improvements (Johnson 2008). As a result of this consultation and communication, both parties came to agreements on "mitigation measures such as context-sensitive design, archaeological data recovery (including a co-op program to provide Cherokee students and opportunity to participate in excavations), the development of a landscape plan, as well as additional interpretive initiatives" (Johnson 2008) Additionally, elders who were not directly involved in cultural resource or historic preservation were given the opportunity to tour the site and be more involved in the process than they might have been otherwise (Johnson 2008). This is an example of meaningful consultation in which Tribal Nations were invited to actively participate in determining how to mitigate impacts to a site that was meaningful to them and set up future opportunities for Tribal engagement in archaeological data recovery.

Even in situations where time and money are major determining factors on how archaeology is conducted, archaeologists can still benefit from Indigenous perspectives and collaboration. For example, during a Phase III data recovery project (Report 13911), conducted by New South Associates in Gordon County, Georgia descendant communities were concerned about cultural resources in the plow zone being overlooked in favor of deeper, intact cultural deposits (Brannan 2018: 11). Therefore, the archaeologists working on the project reconsidered how to answer their research questions using these plow zone contexts (Brannan 2018: 11). In this case, listening to the concerns of the involved Tribal Nations ensured that valuable information was not overlooked simply because it could not provide the vertical, stratigraphic context that archaeologists tend to look for.

Additionally, cultural sensitivity training programs can teach archaeologists history from an Indigenous perspective and be a crucial first step in encouraging them to "embrace different perspectives in future context" (Britt 2019: 507). Nation-to-Nation summits and one-on-one meetings open lines of communication between CRM archaeologists and Tribal Nations which is vital in developing strong collaborative relationships later (Britt 2019: 508-509). Establishing these relationships and encouraging CRM archaeologists to consider other perspectives can make future collaborative efforts run more smoothly and encourages outside perspectives to be considered in research design.

The above examples demonstrate just a few ways that Indigenous archaeology has already been utilized by archaeologists in both academia and CRM. However, it is important to note that these types of examples can be difficult to find, and consultation and collaboration are often not well documented, or documented at all, within CRM literature. CRM reports, particularly Phase III reports, are focused on recording the quantitative archaeological data, not the qualitative data of collaboration.

In each of these cases, research was facilitated or designed by members of a Tribal Nation, or earlier collaboration ensured that Indigenous wishes and concerns were considered in the project. These examples show how archaeology can benefit from incorporating Indigenous perspectives and research goals into archaeological data recovery. In comparison with many of the questions that are asked during Phase III CRM research, these Indigenous led studies open new doors for research as well as potentially expand what can be considered eligible for the NRHP. Understanding the types of research questions and goals that are common in Phase III archaeological data recovery and how members of Tribal Nations feel about current

implementation of the Section 106 process and how it can be improved can serve as a foundation for stronger collaboration in the future.

CHAPTER 5

Methods

To answer my research questions (see Chapter 1), research was split up into two main parts: 1) a literature review of Phase III CRM reports written by CRM archaeologists and 2) a survey sent to members of Tribal Nations who engage in heritage management and historic preservation which asked for their thoughts and opinions on the state of their relationship with archaeologists employed by CRM consulting firms, what types of research they would like to see in the future, and how to make CRM a more collaborative field. There were two main purposes for the literature review. First, was to provide background information on the nature of research conducted by Georgia-based CRM firms between 1986 and 2020 during Phase III data recovery, and asses how CRM research has changed over time. It was important to have reports that covered as much of the time that modern CRM has been practiced, and 1980-2020 was the time span that was chosen because there were very few reports available prior to 1980. The second purpose of the literature review was to provide information that could be used to create survey questions. For the survey to achieve the goal of answering questions about Indigenous views on current CRM practices, it was important to identify those practices. The survey questions asked about common practices in CRM, such as methodology, how communication occurs between members of Tribal Nations, and CRM archaeologists and how frequently those conversations occur. The survey also asked questions about the relevance of research questions and goals that were copied directly from the Phase III reports reviewed in the literature review. There were also

several open-ended questions which asked about how to make CRM more collaborative and what archaeologists can do to improve in the future.

Literature Review

The first part of this research was a literature review of Phase III CRM archaeological reports. The results from this portion of the study can be found in Appendix A. The Georgia Archaeological Site File (GASF), housed in the Laboratory of Archaeology at the University of Georgia, provided an initial list of Phase III reports on file from 2010-2020. There were 30 reports on this list, but many of them had no resources that were attributed to Indigenous groups. Instead, the reports detailed information on resources such as historic homes and settlements. Therefore, the search was expanded to include all Phase III reports archived at the GASF from 1980-2020 to have access to more archaeological reports and get a better idea of long-term changes in CRM archaeology, within Georgia specifically. An initial list of reports was compiled that would meet my requirements of a) being in the time frame 1980-2020 and b) having a Native American component. An initial list of 23 sites was produced that met the requirements for this study.

Georgia's Natural, Archaeological and Historic Resources GIS (GNAHRGIS) which houses the digital data for GASF was utilized to access reports and site locations. The sample selection was limited to only reports available through GASF because they were the most accessible. While going through this initial list, it became clear that some reports were duplicates, while others had been incorrectly labeled and were actually Phase I or Phase II. Still other reports did not have any Native American artifacts associated with the site or simply did not have enough information to be useful. In total, eight reports were eliminated. This process

was repeated one more time to ensure that there were as many reports included as possible and they all had enough data to be useful. This resulted in 24 reports overall to be included in this study. These reports were grouped into 10-year categories to ensure that the sample spanned the entire 40-year time span. Of the 24 reports, three were written between 1980-1990, four between 1991-2000, eight between 2001-2010, and nine between 2011-2020 for a total of 24 reports. Many of those reports are from 2011-2020, and the least are from 1980-1990, which was expected because there were very few complete reports from 1980-1990 on file with the GASF.

Once the list of reports was finalized, the desired information was extracted. Information was tabulated on data collection sheets that included the criteria detailed on Table 1. Initially there was a section for the results and conclusions of the project. However, further into the research this section was removed from the form. Although this information was important and relevant to the study overall, it was not going to be of much use in creating the survey because the survey was specifically about the research questions being asked by CRM archaeologists, not the results of the project. Since it was not directly applicable to this part of the research, the results/conclusion section was removed from the general form, but these sections of each report were always read as a part of my research process.

The information about research goals and methodology that was taken from the literature review of archaeological reports, was used to develop some of the survey questions (see Survey Design and Distribution, below). A list of ten themes and concepts to look for and compare between each report was written to make sense of the data from the literature review of archaeological reports. These questions listed below, and their answers will be discussed further in the Literature Review results section.

1) What were the most common research goals and/or questions?

2) What methods were used?
3) What time periods were studied the most and why?
4) Is there a correlation between when the report was written and what methods were used?
5) Is there a correlation between when the report was written and what the research goals were? Did the research goals and types of questions being asked change over time?
6) Is there a relationship between research goals and the time period that is being studied?
7) How does tribal consultation impact the research goals and questions?
8) How does tribal consultation impact the methods used?
9) Do individual CRM companies tend to ask similar questions across all of their projects?
10) Which tribes were consulted with and by who?

Table 1: Data Collection Categories and Descriptions

Category	**Description**
Report Number:	Unique ID number assigned by GASF
Site Number:	Smithsonian Trinomial of site referenced in report
Title:	Report title
Location:	Georgia county that site is located in
Year:	Submission date
Author(s):	Lead and co-authors of report, CRM firm
Phase:	Archaeological Phase of the Project
Funding Institution:	Proximate and Ultimate client/agency
Impacted Tribes:	Tribal nations that consider the site in their area of interest
Tribal Consultation:	Degree of tribal consultation that is indicated in report
Recommended NRHP Eligible:	All Phase III data recovery sites are NRHP eligible, this was
Methods Summary:	Author evaluations of methods employed for research
Research Goals and Questions:	Summary of research goals and questions stated in report
Additional Notes:	Additional information relevant to study not included in another category

To start analyzing the information, reports were put in chronological order to make it easier to notice patterns of change and similarity over time. Next, the aspects of the reports that were going to be focused on (research goals/questions, methodology and time period being studied) were color coded to help visualize patterns and frequency. I then created a chart to show research goals vs. time and another one to show methods vs. time (Table 2 and Table 3). Next, I studied all of the reports that had information about consultation either in the report itself or in the appendices in order to see which tribes were being consulted, by who, when, what types of research questions were asked, what methods were used, and if there was any difference between these reports and the ones that did not mention consultation. This process allowed patterns and continuity and change over time to be easily recognized.

Survey Design and Distribution

The first step in survey design was to produce a list of general research questions to answer with the survey. These include questions about Indigenous perspectives on current collaboration, areas of research interest and preferred methodologies. This was the starting point for developing survey questions. The next step was to research how to design an effective survey. The best surveys start with simple questions, leave open-ended and more personal questions until the end, use simple precise language, only ask about one topic per question, have self-explanatory questions and do not use leading questions (Briggs 2015). Additionally, the order of questions can significantly impact the way people respond to a survey (Pew Research Center 2021). Asking a simple, interesting question first will engage respondents and encourage more responses, and throughout the survey, more difficult questions should be separated by questions that are easier to answer (Pew Research Center 2021).

These basics on how to write effective questions were used to write a first draft of the survey. The survey included several different question types including simple yes/no, Likert scales, open ended questions, and a few multiple-choice questions. In both the consent form and the first question, CRM archaeologists are defined as "those individuals working for such companies as opposed to nation-to-nation relationships between Tribal Nations and federal agencies." This definition was provided to help standardize the results and avoid confusion related to who was being talked about. The first draft was distributed to my committee for review, and changes were made based on their comments and suggestions. One of the main changes was providing examples of some of the research goals that were asked about, and rephrasing questions to make them easier to read and understand. While working on the survey, I also developed a consent form that would inform survey participants of the purpose of the survey, potential risks, benefits and how their personal information would be protected. This form was based on examples of other consent forms obtained from the International Review Board (IRB) through the University of Georgia. The final versions of the consent form and survey can be found in Appendix B.

Once the survey and consent form were completed, they were submitted for approval from the IRB. IRB determined that the study did not require IRB oversight since the purpose of the research is to ask questions about policy and practice rather than the individuals answering the questions.

While waiting on IRB approval, I curated a list of who to send the survey to. Contact information for Southeast Tribes that was provided by Laboratory of Archaeology at the University of Georgia and was used as a starting point. In addition to this list, I searched each tribe online to look for contact information for additional people who are involved in the cultural

resource management process. When each of these lists were combined, there were a total of 51 people to contact. These people included Tribal Historic Preservation Officers (THPO's), Tribal consultants, Tribal archaeologists, and other Tribal cultural resource and historic preservation specialists. The sample size wound up being small which had an impact the number of responses received. However, participants were limited to these groups for two reasons. First, all the data from the CRM reports came specifically from Georgia and companies that primarily work in the Southeast, so it made the most sense for the survey participants to be from the same region to avoid regional differences. Second, the main purpose of the survey was to learn about the CRM process and implementation from the perspective of Tribal Nations, so CRM archaeologists or members of federal agencies that would also be involved in the process were not included.

The survey was sent out using an anonymous email link from Qualtrics, an online survey platform that has built in tools and functions to help with data collection and analysis. Participants had the option to leave their email at the end of the survey, but the anonymous link ensures that participants who did not wish to be identified at all would have complete confidentiality. Survey responses were recorded for 21 days (January 24th, 2022- February 18th, 2022), and reminders were sent out every Monday morning during this period. The survey was closed on February 18th, so I would have time to analyze the results before submitting a draft of this thesis.

Results from the survey were analyzed using the built in Data and Analysis and Results page on Qualtrics. These pages allowed me to see all the responses for each question and see counts and percentages for each answer to the questions. It also grouped all the open-ended responses together which made it easy to see how the responses to those questions were different and similar.

CHAPTER 6

Literature Review Results

The first part of my research consisted of a literature review of Phase III CRM archaeological reports that were on file at the GASF at the University of Georgia. Most of the Phase III reports make no direct mention of Section 106 consultation or any other part of the process that leads up to the archaeological work on the site. The reports are not meant to show the full process or all the legal parts that are involved in the beginning of a Phase III project. Rather, these reports are meant to record the archaeological process and record and analyze data to mitigate adverse effects (Neumann et al. 2010: 212). A few of the reports included the Scope of Work (S.O.W) or Memorandum of Agreement (M.O.A), which is where consultation would be laid out, but even this was rare, and the details of consultation were not always explicitly explained or mentioned. Therefore, the main purpose of this part of the research was to focus on the methods and research goals and questions that were developed by CRM firms as a part of the research process, and in cases where consultation or outside collaboration was mentioned, what, if any, impact it had on research goals and methods.

The Phase III archaeology reports were written by multiple CRM firms based out of the Southeast and Georgia specifically. Most of the reports were written by Panamerican Consultants, Brockington and Associates, New South Associates, and R.S. Webb and Associates. Several other companies, including: Resource Analysts Inc, Southeastern Archeological Services, Environmental Services INC, and others were also included. A complete list of firms can be found in the literature review document in Appendix A. The Georgia Department of

Transportation, the U.S. Department of the Army, and US Army Corps of Engineers were the lead agencies that funded most of the Phase III projects, and therefore were the agencies involved in consultation as required by Section 106.

Although none currently reside in Georgia, multiple federally recognized Tribal Nations have ancestral connections to Georgia and were consulted with for the Phase III reports used in this study. The groups with ancestral connection to Georgia are primarily the descendants of the historic Muscogee (Creek) Confederacy and the historic Cherokee Nation. The federally recognized descendant communities of the historic Muscogee Creek that were consulted with for these reports include: the Muscogee Nation, the Poarch Band of Creeks, the Seminole Tribe of Florida, and the Seminole Nation of Oklahoma. The federally recognized descendant communities of the historic Cherokee Nation that were consulted with for these reports include: The Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians (those that remained behind after Removal in 1838), the Cherokee Nation of Oklahoma, and the United Keetoowah Band. These are not the only descendant communities who have ties to Georgia, but the reports only mention these federally recognized descendant communities as being involved in Section 106 consultation. These Tribal Nations are seven out of the 24 Southeastern Tribes that were on the UGA's Laboratory of Archaeology's NAGPRA contact list which was used as the contact list for the survey portion of my research.

Regarding research goals and questions, the primary focus was on which research goals and questions were the most common in the Phase III reports and how they were impacted by when the report was written, the time period being studied, the CRM firm responsible for the work, and whether or not there was tribal consultation. In Georgia, many of the questions that are still asked by CRM archaeologists today are guided by a series UGA Laboratory of

Archaeology Publications from the 1980's and 1990's referred to as "Blue Books". Some of the most common research themes across all the reports were site formation processes, settlement patterns, site chronology, ceramic and lithic technologies, diet and nutrition, subsistence patterns and population movement and migration (Table 2).

Table 2: Research Goals Over Time

Research Goal	1980-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	2011-2020	Total	Percentage of reports
Site Formation Processes	1	1	1	1	4	16.67%
Settlement patterns	2	2	5	7	16	66.67%
Site Chronology	1	3	6	5	14	58.33%
Ceramic/Lithic technology	1	1	7	5	14	58.33%
Diet and Nutrition	0	0	2	1	3	12.50%
Subsistence	1	1	7	4	13	54.16%
Population Movement and Migration	0	1	4	5	10	41.67%

These were the goals that were specifically asked about on the survey. Other frequent research goals had to do with site function and evidence of trade. The two most common research goals across all time periods were settlement patterns and site chronology, which were

both research goals that were especially common during the processual period. Questions about ceramic/lithic technologies and subsistence patterns were the next most common.

Only three reports were written between 1980 and 1990, while nine were written between 2011 and 2020. There were very few Phase III reports from before 1990, and most of them were missing sections or pages. However, even with the skewed and limited data, it was possible to tell that the research questions and goals that were most frequently asked were similar across all periods. For example, the earliest report (13641), which was from 1986, had the original research goal of finding "structural and subsistence patterns by searching for post holes, trash pits and other features," as well as defining site limits to get a better picture of the site's size, configuration, complexity, and stratigraphy (Rock 1985). Report 11530 was written in 2019, 33 years later, and one of the research questions was "Does 9GE552 represent a single longer-term Dyar Phase occupation, or two (or more) short-term occupations?" (Butler et al. 2019). Despite 40 years and significant changes in archaeological theory, each of these reports ask similar questions. Although there were standard research goals and questions that were present in reports across all time periods and CRM companies, the reports written between 2001 and 2020 generally included more site-specific questions and goals than the earlier reports.

Overall, only eight out of the 24 reports made mention of consultation at all, and in five of these eight it was only included in the S.O.W. which was an appendix of the report. All five of these reports where consultation was mentioned in the S.O.W were reports written by Panamerican Consultants. In these reports, mention of consultation was just a few lines such as these in report 7674

> "In particular, time and appropriate process for the removal of Indian burials must be allowed in project planning in accordance with the Native American Graves &

> Protection Act of 1990. Consultation with the Federally recognized Tribes associated with Fort Benning shall be directed by the installation with assistance provided by the contractor, as needed" [Carruth et. Al 2012].

All five of these reports (8062, 6709, 6711, 6725, 7674) provide evidence that consultation was done between the federal agency and the Tribal Nations, with the CRM firm providing additional assistance if necessary. Panamerican Consultants uses the same set of five research goals and questions for every project. Having a standard set of research goals allows for quicker project development, but it does not allow for site specific variation or indicate tribal input was considered. The Panamerican Consultants' research goals are the following:

1) Occupational History: determine what components are there, their age, occupational duration, material culture associated with each, and examine changes over time
2) Site Function: determine the nature of the successive occupations at each site, determine occupational focus during each time period, identify evidence for seasonality, site use change over time
3) Subsistence: identify taxa of plants and animals during each component, changes in subsistence assemblage through time, identify markers of floral domestication
4) Technology: identify tool and ceramic types, variation in lithic reduction strategy, morphological changes of hafted bifaces and ceramics over time,
5) Trade and Exchange: determine prevalence of tools from non-local sources, determine sites' role in local and regional trade networks [Pearce et al. 2009; Pearce et al. 2011; Wendt et al. 2011; Bagget et al. 2011; Carruth et al. 2012].

The other reports mention tribal involvement or consultation within the reports themselves. Report 4405 (New South Associates 2008), mentions that the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians participated in a public outreach day at the conclusion of the project, but their involvement with other aspects of the project is not explicitly stated. The MOA that was included in Report 8102 was reached between the Cherokee Nation, the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians, the United Keetoowah Band of Cherokee Indians, the State Parks and Historic Sites Division of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources (DNR), FHWA, GDOT, and the Historic Preservation Division of the DNR (Keith et al. 2015). The MOA included stipulations such as allowing the Cherokee Nation to receive a first draft and final copy of the report, the possibility of using abandoned sections of State Road 225 for a trail with educational purposes, the development of a landscape plan for New Echota that includes new signs, sculptures, etc., and making archaeological data available to tribal governments. This site was located within the boundaries of New Echota National Historic Landmark and the New Echota Traditional Cultural Property but was not considered to be a "contributing resource of these properties" (Keith et al. 2015). The construction project that this work was being done for involved building new bridges, and these new bridges incorporated Cherokee design elements. Additionally, members of the Muscogee Creek Nation visited the site during excavation. Both report 4405 and 8102 tailor their research questions to the specific site and develop questions that pertain to each archeological component of the site. Report 8102 is an example of particularly good research questions that are specific to the site and ask about current research topics. For example, one of the research topics for the Woodland component of the site is "sacred and secular pottery" which looks at how items that might be viewed by archaeologists as purely secular, could have been used in a ceremonial context and then been transformed into a sacred item (Keith et al. 2015). Although

both of these reports provide examples of consultation, they are not examples of meaningful consultation or collaboration. The Tribal Nations are only involved with the site once the archaeological work was completed. There is no collaboration in development of research questions or design.

Report 13911 states that "Federally Recognized Indian Tribes were consulted and entered into a MOA with the TVA and Georgia SHPO" (Brannan 2018). Since most of the materials recovered during the Phase I and II for this project were lithic materials, research at this site was organized under an organization of technology framework to compare early Archaic and Mississippian periods, and provide information on site layout, function, and subsistence practices. This is another good example of research being tailored to the site itself. Most of the material deposits at this site were in the plow zone, and descendant communities and the SHPO were originally worried that these deposits would be ignored. Therefore, New South Associates considered how they could answer their research questions using the plow zone context instead of ignoring it and losing valuable information (Brannan 2018). This report was the only example in the study sample of Phase III reports which showed research methods that were specifically designed to accommodate Tribal wishes and opinions.

Although no evidence of consultation directly impacting research goals was present in the Phase III reports, there did appear to be a correlation between reports that specifically mention tribal consultation or involvement in the report itself and projects that had research questions that were specific to the site and its components and extended beyond the basic culture history and processual research goals and question. It is important to recognize that additional collaborative efforts could have been taking place outside of what is detailed in the Phase III CRM report or even the MOA or SOW. Often collaborative efforts are not reported or recorded at all, or those

efforts are only recorded in information which is not accessible to the public. This makes it difficult to develop models for collaboration in CRM because the information is not easily accessible.

Additionally, although there is continuity across time in regard to what types of research goals are most frequent, in more recent years, there is a shift towards research goals that align with those identified in the Grand Challenges. Specifically, goals and questions related to movement, mobility, and migration are more frequently asked about after 2001 which reflects trends in general archaeological theory.

The other portion of literature review research pertained to methods used in the field and how it was impacted by when the research was done, the CRM firm responsible for the work, and tribal consultation. Since the reports being analyzed were all Phase III, most of the surface survey and shovel testing had already been done as a part of Phase I and II testing. Therefore, the most common method used at almost every site was excavation, either by hand or mechanical stripping (Table 3)

Table 3: Field Methods Over Time

Methods	1980-1990	1991-2000	2001-2010	2011-2020	Total
Surface Survey	1	0	2	1	4
Geophysics	0	0	2	5	7
Shovel Test	0	2	2	2	6
Excavations	3	4	9	8	24

In the cases where surveys or shovel tests were performed, they were typically done to supplement the work done during earlier phases, narrow down where to excavate or to help better define the site limits. Additionally, based on the archaeological report data set starting in 2009, geophysical methods, including ground penetrating radar (GPR), remote sensing, Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR), etc. were more frequently incorporated into the methodology as these technologies became more readily available. These methods are typically used for site mapping and finding large cultural deposits or features. Overall, time of research did not have much of an impact on what field methods were used. This was not very surprising since by the late 1980's basic field methods were well established, and there is an established set of guidelines for archaeological investigations in Georgia (Georgia Council of Professional Archaeologists 2019). For the most part, methodology was based on what work had previously been done at the site and the goals of the research. Panamerican Consultants typically used the same methodological process at each of their sites. This process started with remote sensing to produce site maps. Then, when possible, a surface survey was done. Finally, Panamerican Consultants typically used a combination of shovel tests and excavation units across the site. Other companies' methodology varied slightly more based on the site itself, how much needed to be excavated and where, and the research goals.

In this data set of Phase III reports, Tribal consultation had a limited impact on field methods. In report 13911, consultation with the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) tribal liaison Marianne Shuler influenced where some excavations took place as well as how the plow zone was excavated (Brannan 2018). The S.O.W for report 8062 has one line about how remote sensing should be used to accommodate the Muscogee Creek Nation's wishes but does not go into much more detail (Pearce et al. 2009). No other reports make any mention of changing their

methodology based on Tribal concerns or consultation. However, a survey of THPO's nationwide found that non-invasive techniques, such as surface survey and geophysics were preferred methods, and any studies that disturbed ancestors or took place in a mortuary context were highly disproved of (Sanger et al. 2020: 27). Additionally, excavation of non-mortuary contexts was found equally acceptable and unacceptable by those surveyed (Sanger et al. 2020: 27). This survey found that THPO's were relatively comfortable with most field methods as long as they did not disturb mortuary contexts or ancestors, so it makes sense that the Phase III reports in this data set did not show much change in methodology based on consultation.

This research was limited to the reports available through GASF. Opening up research to multiple states or the entire Southeast would provide access to more reports, especially those written before 1990. The uneven distribution of years represented in these reports also skewed the result. Based on the data available, it appeared that reports written after 2001 had more site-specific questions and goals than those written before 2001, but this could be proven to be untrue if more earlier reports were available. Additionally, to get a better idea about how Section 106 Tribal consultation was incorporated into and impacted the research process, more research would need to be focused on other documents such as SOW and MOA.

CHAPTER 7

Survey Results

The survey was sent to 51 members of Tribal Nations who are involved in CRM and historic preservation, and seven responded which corresponds to approximately a 14 percent response rate. According to Qualtrics, the average response rate for an email survey is approximately 30 percent, so 14 percent is below average (Qualtrics 2022). The small response rate could have been improved by sending the survey to more people, making it slightly shorter or potentially making it more personal to each respondent. It is also possible that contact information was incorrect or outdated, but Qualtrics did not provide any notification if an email address was incorrect or a mailbox was full. Regardless of the small response rate, those who did respond provided useful insights and information. Not every participant responded to the open-ended question, which was expected based on survey design research. However, those who did respond generally went into great detail and even asked for more space to express specific opinions.

The first set of questions had to do with what types of conversations participants have with CRM archaeologists and how those conversations occur. CRM archaeologists were defined as "those individuals working for such companies as opposed to nation-to-nation relationships between Tribal Nations and federal agencies." The first question asked how frequently respondents communicated with CRM archaeologists. All seven indicated that they communicate with CRM archaeologists at least three times a year, and five of the seven respondents communicate with CRM archaeologists more than four times each year (Figure 1).

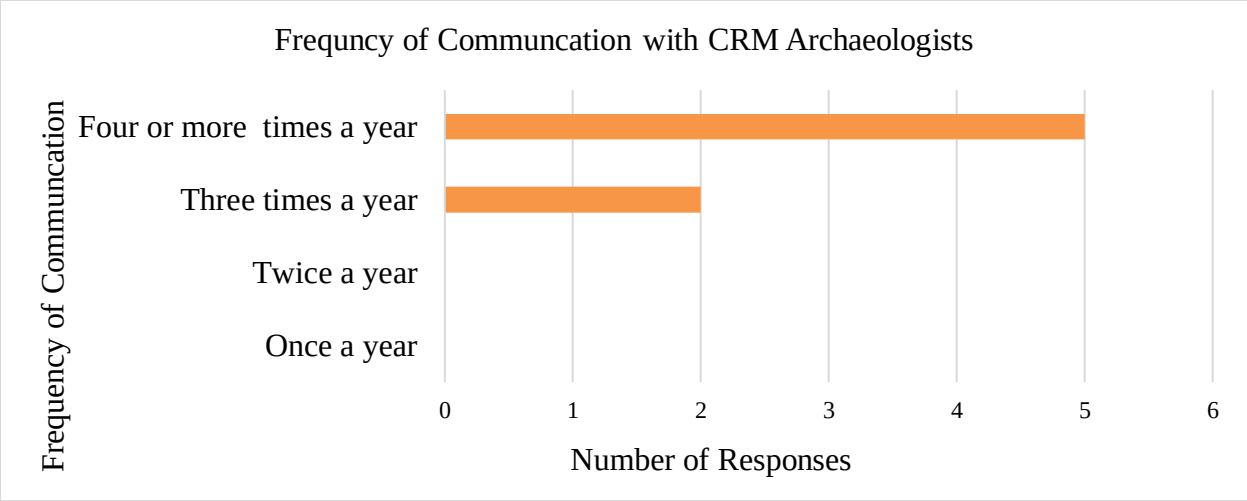

Figure 1: Frequency of Communication between CRM Archaeologists and Tribal Nations

These conversations most often occur because of Section 106 requirements. However, one participant indicated that for them, these conversations occurred most commonly as a part of post-field results. Additionally, one participant indicated that they communicate with CRM archeologists in all of the ways suggested (as a part of NAGPRA consultation, as part of Section 106, unsolicited conversation outside of a specific project, in field progress reports, post-field results, and when your Nation reaches out regarding archaeological resources). Five of the respondents said that they found these conversations to be generally somewhat positive, one found them largely positive, and one found them somewhat negative. It is encouraging to see that in general the tribal respondents see their communication with CRM archaeologists as positive.

The next set of questions had to do with some of the methods and theories that CRM archaeologists often use in the field. Question 5 used a Likert scale, which is a question type "designed to measure people's attitudes, opinions or perceptions" by asking subjects to choose from a range of responses, in this case extremely uncomfortable to extremely comfortable (Jamieson 2017). The purpose of this question was to determine how comfortable or

uncomfortable participants were with various field methods including: pedestrian surface survey, geophysics, shovel tests, excavation including mortuary contexts, excavation excluding mortuary contexts and other (Table 4).

Table 4: Responses to Question 5

Field Method	Extremely Uncomfortable	Somewhat Uncomfortable	Neither Comfortable or Uncomfortable	Somewhat Comfortable	Extremely Comfortable	Total
Pedestrian Surface Survey	1	1	0	2	3	7
Geophysics (GPR, LiDAR, Magnetometry, etc.)	0	0	0	3	4	7
Shovel Tests	0	0	0	5	2	7
Excavation, including funerary contexts	4	2	0	1	0	7
Excavation, excluding funerary contexts	1	0	0	5	1	7
Other	0	1	0	0	0	1

All the participants indicated that they were at least somewhat comfortable with geophysics and shovel tests, and all but one participant was at least somewhat comfortable with excavations excluding mortuary context being done by archaeologists in the field. Two respondents indicated that they were uncomfortable with archaeologists performing pedestrian surface surveys in the field. This was very surprising since this method is non-invasive. Other studies have shown that surface survey is typically preferred over other methods such as non-

mortuary excavation (Sanger et al. 2020: 28). Six of the seven respondents indicated that they were either extremely uncomfortable (n=4) or somewhat uncomfortable (n=2) with excavations that included mortuary contexts. The remaining respondent indicated that they were somewhat comfortable with this method. The overall response being uncomfortable with mortuary excavation was unsurprising. "Other methods" was an option, but there was no way for participants to clarify what other types of methods they were referring to. Therefore, even though one respondent indicated that they were somewhat uncomfortable with other field methods, there was no way to know what this was referencing.

The next question asked, "Archaeologists frequently use the following time periods to divide up historical periods. In what periods of your history are you most interested? Please rank from least to most interested with 5 being least interested and 1 being most interested." The time periods that were used were:

1) Paleo-Indian (Before ~8000 BC)
2) Archaic (~8000 BC-1200 BC)
3) Woodland (~1200 BC-1000 AD)
4) Mississippian (~1000 AD -1600 AD)
5) European Contact
6) European Contact-1800 AD
7) 1800 AD-1900 AD
8) 1900 AD-1970 AD

The cut-off date is 1970, because to be considered eligible for the NRHP, a site needs to be at least 50 years old (36 CFR 60.4). Although there was a lot of variety in the responses to this question, the European Contact and Contact-1800 AD periods were selected as the most

interesting by five participants (Table 5). When given the chance to choose what time periods to research, Indigenous communities often choose to focus on more recent history because archaeological data from these sites can both add to their existing histories or be used to "rediscover, reengage, and reclaim recent traditional sites and forgotten dimensions of their recent heritage" (McNiven 2017: 32-33).

Table 5: Responses to Question 6

Time Period	5 (Least interested)	4	3	2	1 (Most interested)	Total
Paleo-Indian (Before ~8000 BC)	0	1	0	3	3	7
Archaic (~8000 BC- 1200 BC)	0	1	0	4	2	7
Woodland (~1200 BC- 1000 AD)	0	1	1	2	3	7
Mississippian (~1000 AD-1600 AD)	0	2	0	1	4	7
European contact period	1	1	0	0	5	7
Contact -1800 AD	0	0	0	2	5	7
1800 AD-1900 AD	0	0	1	2	4	7
1900 AD-1970 AD	1	1	1	0	4	7

A ranking of 5 (least interesting) was only given to the Contact period and 1900-1970 time period and only by one participant each. Overall, responses indicated that participants were somewhat interested in all of the historical time periods. However, this does not mean that participants felt that these time periods accurately represent the ways that they see their own history. Five of the seven participants indicated that they did not feel that the cultural historical periods archaeologists typically use accurately represent how they think about their own history.

This response was not surprising since these time periods were created by archaeologists for their own use. These time periods are inherently problematic in that they generalize the past before colonization as pre-history and post colonization as history. These culture-history periods have contributed to a "culture-history dichotomy whereby Europeans have histories and Indigenous peoples have cultures" (Birch et al. 2022: 1) There is no reason that these periods would be representative of how Indigenous people view their past.

The next two questions were based directly on information pulled from the literature review of Phase III CRM reports. In this way, they get at the core of the questions being asked in this thesis. Question 10 identified several research topics that were common in Phase III research and asked participants to indicate how relevant these topics were to their Tribal Nation. These research topics included:

1) Site Formation processes (e.g., site burial processes, later human action, plant and animal activity, etc.)
2) Settlement patterns (e.g., where people were living, how people interacted between and/or within sites)
3) Site Chronology/age (e.g., how old the site is and relative time periods of use and occupation)
4) Ceramic/lithic technologies (e.g., what types of ceramics and lithics were being used at the site)
5) Diet/Nutrition (e.g., what types of plants and animals' people were eating, where nutrients came from)
6) Subsistence Patterns (e.g., agriculture/foraging/hunting, etc.)
7) Population movement/migration (e.g., movement between sites and across the landscape)

Once again, responses to this question had a good deal of variation (Table 6). Site formation processes was the only topic to receive a 1 (least relevant), and yet one participant selected a 5 (most relevant). Six participants gave subsistence patterns a ranking of 5, and the one other participant selected a 4 for subsistence patterns. Settlement patterns and diet/nutrition had five participants select a ranking of 5, and site chronology and population movement both received four participants select a ranking of 5. Overall, participants found all these research topics to be of relevance to their Tribal Nations. Although site formation processes were the only topic to receive a 1, it was still considered at least somewhat interesting (n=3, n=2) by five participants. Overall, subsistence practices were the most interesting.

Table 6: Responses to Question 10

Research Topic	5 (Least interested)	4	3	2	1 (Most interested)	Total
Site Formation processes (ex. site burial processes, later human action, plant and animal activity, etc.)	1	0	2	3	1	7
Settlement patterns (ex. where people were living, how people interacted between and/or within sites)	0	1	0	1	5	7
Site Chronology/age (ex. how old the site is and relative time periods of occupation/use)	0	1	1	1	4	7
Ceramic/lithic technologies (ex. what types of ceramics and lithics were being used at the site)	0	1	0	3	3	7
Diet/Nutrition (ex. what types of plants and animals' people were eating, where nutrients came from)	0	0	1	1	5	7
Subsistence Patterns (ex. agriculture/foraging/hunting, etc.)	0	0	0	1	6	7
Population movement/migration (ex. movement between sites and across the landscape)	0	0	1	2	4	7

Question 11 included 10 questions that had been pulled directly from Phase III reports. The specific source of each question was not identified to survey respondents. These questions were chosen because they represent a broad range of archaeological questions as well as question types that are representative of different perspectives in archaeological theory. Participants were asked to indicate how relevant to their Nation's historical interest the information that would come from answering these questions would be. Like the question above, participants were asked to rank these questions from least to most interesting with 5 being least interesting and 1 being most interesting. The questions that were used were:

1) What (lithic) reduction technologies were used at the site?
2) How are the cultural occupations represented through the material remains?
3) What (ceramic) evidence is there for a sacred and secular material culture dichotomy?
4) Can patterns of intra-site variability be elucidated? If so, do specific activities vary temporally as well?
5) What plants and animals were utilized by the site occupants?
6) Did subsistence strategy change over time?
7) Are similar sites likely to have occurred throughout the region, or was this a unique site type that occupied the apex of a settlement hierarchy?
8) Was the region occupied by groups that were culturally related to communities in neighboring regions, or did populations in the study area have a unique set of traditions including material culture styles and political history?
9) Were exotic resource materials present at the site?
10) Do the raw materials sources yield information on residential mobility patterns?

As with the two previous questions, responses to this question were variable (Table 7).

Table 7: Responses to Question 11

Research Questions	5 (Least interested)	4	3	2	1 (Most interested)	Total
What (lithic) reduction technologies were used at the site?	2	2	1	1	1	7
How are the cultural occupations represented through the material remains?	1	1	0	2	3	7
What (ceramic) evidence is there for a sacred and secular material culture dichotomy?	1	0	1	1	4	7
Can patterns of intra-site variability be elucidated? If so, do specific activities vary temporally as well?	0	0	2	0	5	7
What plants and animals were utilized by the site occupants?	0	0	1	2	4	7
Did subsistence strategy change over time?	0	0	0	4	3	7
Are similar sites likely to have occurred throughout the region, or was this a unique site type that occupied at the apex of a settlement hierarchy?	0	0	1	1	5	7
Was the region occupied by groups that were culturally related to communities in neighboring regions, or did populations in the study area have a unique set of traditions including material culture styles and political history?	0	0	0	3	4	7
Were exotic resource materials present at the site?	1	1	2	1	2	7
Do the raw material sources yield information on residential mobility patterns?	0	0	1	2	4	7

The question about lithic reduction strategies was the only one given a rank of 5 (least interesting) by more than one participant, and this question was generally seen as the least interesting. The other questions to receive a rank of five were the questions about how cultural occupations were represented through material remains, ceramic evidence for a sacred/secular culture dichotomy and the presence of exotic materials. However, this does not mean that these questions were not found to be interesting or important. In fact, every response, other than lithic

reduction strategies, received at least two rankings of most important. Overall, the questions about exotic resource materials and lithic reduction strategy were the least interesting to participants while the questions about intra-site variability and whether a site was like others in the region were the most interesting. A possible explanation for these trends is that these types of questions are simply not relevant or would produce data or answers that can already be found in traditional sources (Sanger et al. 2020 30). Additionally, the questions that were less interesting emphasize material culture, not human histories. It could have been beneficial to include a space for participants to indicate why they did or did not find a question relevant, which was mentioned later in the open-ended questions. Although responses were variable, they indicate that all of the questions were at least somewhat interesting to the participants. Additionally, answers to the following question (Question 12), point out that most Tribal Nations want to know as much about every aspect of their past as possible.

Question 12 was an open-ended question that served as a follow up to questions 9-11 by asking if there was any way that the questions above could be improved. Responses to all the open-ended questions are direct quotes but have been lightly edited to correct for spelling errors. There were four responses to this question. The responses were as follows:

Respondent 1) “Not sure”

Respondent 2) “Ranking areas of interest or importance to the Tribe is problematic since it is their history and all of it is important”

Respondent 3) “As a tribal nation, we care about all aspects of a cultural site, it is difficult to rank interest when our mission and job is to help protect and document our cultural history on the landscape. A lower ranking should not be considered to be that it is information we do not care to see, we really want to know as much information as we can about cultural sites.

However, we do not support or understand why Archaeologist focus on studying the mortuary practices, that is a sensitive topic, and those ancestors did not give consent to be studied or excavated."

Respondent 4) "Providing additional comment boxes. For example, why I do not agree with something. Note that paternalism in archeology is overwhelming to the point that those in the field don't even notice it."

These answers show where personal bias came into effect and respondent 4 specifically points it out. It also could have been useful to provide a space for participants to indicate why they felt a certain way about the given research topics and goals. I expected respondents to be more interested in research themes and questions that more closely represented current trends in archaeological thinking rather than research questions and themes that were more reminiscent of archaeological thinking from the 20th century. However, these responses show that asking tribal members to rank how important or relevant aspects of their history is to them is problematic which was not considered during survey design. These answers do help explain the responses on questions 9-11. Based on the open-ended response, members of these Tribal Nations would be interested in learning about all time periods of their history, so it makes sense that the answers would tend to lean towards all research goals and questions being relevant or important as the answers to question 10 and 11 indicate. However, the variation in the responses shows that generalizations about what is important cannot be made because it will vary between Tribal Nations and even within them.

The next set of questions asked about research questions that may have been developed by Tribal Historic Preservation offices, Tribal governments, or individuals. Only one participant indicated that their office/government had developed a set of research questions that they would

like to see employed in archaeological or historical research, but they chose not to share them. Question 15 asked "Do you, as an individual or agent of your tribal nation, have research questions you are personally interested in, and if you are willing to share them, what are they?" The five responses to this question are:

Respondent 1) "1. Smaller Tribal Nations, either by population or region, tend to be affiliated among the larger population for certain regions. This leads to assumptions a smaller Tribe was not in that region or part of an absorption. What methods are being used to isolate those individual existences as opposed to assuming material culture is evidence and since this Tribal population has been "documented" to be present, then this belongs to them? 2> How are clusters of individual sites within an area of potential effect (APE) being interpreted, as a means of scientific study of the lifeways within the APE?"

Respondent 2) "No"

Respondent 3) "We promote research that benefits both the archaeological community and the tribal community. Phase III research should include several meetings to discuss and consult on the mitigation strategy. Phase III means more to us than just a set of standards required by law, the site may be destroyed, and this is the last opportunity to learn from it. Careful consideration is needed. Not all tribes may feel this way or have the time to consult but [it's] always important to ask first."

Respondent 4) "Identifying historic Native American sites from post 1776 until removal for non-Cherokee sites. There is so little data on this for the other tribes and honestly scholars get lazy and use all the Cherokee [excavations] to [describe] other [southeastern] tribes."

Respondent 5) "Yes."

Responses 1, 3 and 4 represent different research goals and questions which shows the importance of consultation with individual Tribal Nations. Respondent 3 brings up a key point by pointing out that for them, Phase III is not just a requirement that has to be checked off. It is often the last opportunity for any information about a site to be gathered and therefore should be taken seriously by archaeologists. They also mention that not every Tribal Nation may feel that way, which once again highlights the importance of collaboration on an individual level. This is especially true when it comes to smaller Tribal Nations. As respondent 1 points out, these smaller Tribal Nations are often grouped in with larger Nations in the region, which leads to them being overlooked or left out of the history of the region. Going forward, both archaeologists and Tribal Nations could benefit from more research focused on the history of these groups because it can provide a more complete picture of the history of a region.

Question 16 simply asked "would you like to have the opportunity to name sites?" Four participants said they would and three said no. This question was included here partially to break up the longer, open-ended questions and to introduce question 17 which was "What other aspects of the archaeological process would you like to be involved in?"

Respondent 1) "Tribal monitoring, tribal archaeological teams, and traditional cultural places inventories"

Respondent 2) "NA"

Respondent 3) "Field work, lab work, presentations, publications, outreach"

Respondent 4) "Teaching to students about our culture and how we see archaeology."

Respondent 5) "Research design and questions"

Both respondents 3 and 4 mention outreach and education as areas where they would like to be more involved. Outreach and education are both areas where archaeology in general is

lacking. Respondent 5 specifically mentions wanting to be more involved in research design and formulating research questions. Responses to this question spanned the entirety of the archaeological process from research design to post-field work outreach and education.

Questions 19 and 20 both revolve around collaboration and the impacts of the CRM process on Indigenous people. Question 19 asked "What do you think collaboration between tribal nations and CRM archaeologists should include?" Answers included:

Respondent 1) "Early in the process commitments, open invitation discussions and site visits, awareness of Tribal preferences and expectations, and documented collaborations between tribes and firm"

Respondent 2) "Quality engagement where folks listen to Tribal interests"

Respondent 3) "Cultural sensitivity"

Respondent 4) "trust, respect, open communication, tribal liaison at each CRM, annual meetings or gatherings to meet each other, etc."

Respondent 5) "CRM companies are not a government. Tribes are to have government to government consultation. CRM companies should stay in the background unless Tribes request them to take an active role in the process."

Respondent 6) "The option to direct research rather than to simply be the subject of it."

Respondents 1-4 all include some aspect of increasing trust and communication between archaeologists and members of Tribal Nations, especially early in the process. As mentioned in the introduction to this paper, "collaborative research provides a means by which to best meet the needs of all parties interested in archaeological research" (Silliman and Ferguson 2010: 52). What best meets the needs of one group might not necessarily meet the needs of another group which is why collaboration with each tribe is important rather than assuming that what one

Tribal Nation would like to see in terms of research or methodology applies for every other. Each of these respondents indicate that building trust and rapport with Tribal Nations is essential to effective collaboration. Respondent 5 points out that CRM companies are not a government and therefore should not be the ones leading the process. Response 5 is an example of how collaboration can occur on a scale, from resistance to "full-fledged involvement of descendant groups" (Silliman and Ferguson 2010: 52). Not all Tribal Nations will want to engage in full-fledged collaboration with CRM archaeologists. Although Section 106 mandates that consultation with Tribal Nations be conducted as a government-to-government undertaking, this does not always happen as it should in practice (Marincic 2018: 1797). As respondent 6 indicates, too often, Indigenous people are left out of the research development process and simply treated as the subjects of research. This is a case where collaboration between archaeologists and Tribal Nations outside of Section 106 could be beneficial because the Tribal Nation could work with the CRM firm directly to direct research. Treating Tribal Nations as subjects of research rather than including them as active participants in research is based on a long history of colonial ideals about who has the right to be the stewards of the past (Atalay 2006; McGuire 1992; Riding-In 1992; Stapp and Burney 2002).

Question 20 was the last open-ended question and asked, "Is there anything else you think I, or CRM archaeologists in general, should know about how the CRM process impacts Indigenous history?"

> Respondent 1) "When dealing with a particular tribe or region, it is important to realize the entire Indigenous history may have never been fully documented. There are many assumptions perpetuated by the professional world that 1) if there is not a trickle of documented evidence, other tribes did not exist in that landscape; 2) sites or artifacts must

then be attributed to the larger population; and 3) becomes part of archaeological instruction and expectation. Due diligence means to actually interact with the tribe and other tribes claiming affiliation in that region. Otherwise, the history becomes biased by CRM and the tribe attributed to those sites and artifacts. Secondly, mounds and ceremonial places should not be limited in its physical existences. These are not accidental and have a purpose beyond archaeology. Thus, the viewshed should not be limited to archaeological standards and treatments."

Respondent 2) "Rewrite Tribal history to take into account Tribal oral histories that a Tribe views as shareable"

Respondent 3) "Predictive modeling"

Respondent 4) "We are a CRM for our Tribal Government, we have RPAs on staff, we conduct Geophysical work, Tribes are not that far behind in terms of education and staff level expertise. We deserve a seat at the table."

Respondent 5) "Culture history sections have become stale. As a part of your background research, CRM people need to research exactly what is going on in the area a survey is taking place. If we do not tell all voices in the area with any sort of [equitability], we will keep repeating the mistakes of the past and ignore all the voices that help create these places on the map."

Respondent 6) "You are not the experts in our history. We are living people and while we appreciate working together toward mutual understanding, you are not capable of speaking for us."

Responses 1,2, 5 and 6 have similar ideas. There are voices that get lost in the CRM process, despite laws and regulations that are supposed to stop that from happening. Respondent

1 specifically points out the issues faced by smaller tribes where their history is attributed to or included as part of that of larger tribes. This can lead to the mistakes of the past and the ignored voices that are mentioned by respondent 5. Respondent 5 also mentions how culture histories that make up a lot of CRM background research are stale at this point. Additionally, this background research often only includes the culture history of the tribe that has been written by archaeologists which is problematic for many reasons. Respondent 6 points out that archaeologists are not the experts in Tribal history, so rewriting Tribal histories to incorporate Tribal oral histories and giving them equal weight to the Western versions of the history can make research more useful and inclusive of the Tribal Nations entire history. This also can help avoid issues of leaving out the history of smaller groups. Respondents 1 and 2 also both bring up the fact that there are parts of a Tribal Nations history or cultural resources that are unknown to archaeologists. Respondent 1 specifically mentions the way that the area of potential effect (APE) for mounds and ceremonial places are limited to what is physically visible, even though this is only a part of the location's importance and significance. Part of this issue can be resolved by incorporating Tribal Nations oral histories as Respondent 2 suggests. However, since these places are sacred, archaeologists must acknowledge and accept that there are some parts of their history that they cannot know. Respondent 4 brings up the key point that THPO's and their offices are equally as qualified as CRM archaeologists and therefore deserve to be more involved in the process. It should not be that archaeologists are the only one talking, the knowledge, perspectives and expertise of Tribal Nations should be taken seriously. This corresponds with response 6 from both this question and question 19. Tribal archaeologists are equally qualified, and members of Tribal Nations know what they want to know about their own past. Therefore, it

is important that CRM archaeologists make room for those voices and stop trying to speak for Indigenous people.

This survey provided important insights into the ways that Tribal Nation members who participate in CRM or historic preservation view the current implementation of CRM process and procedure. In several cases, respondents provided insights and answers to questions that I would not have even considered. This alone illustrates how there are some fundamental differences in the way that archaeologists and Tribal Nations view the past. Overall, survey responses indicate that although participants had a mostly positive view of their current communication with CRM archaeologists, there is still a lot of room for improvement. Based on survey responses, more open communication and quality Tribal involvement in all steps of the CRM process can help facilitate stronger, more positive professional relationships between CRM archaeologists and Tribal representatives. Additionally, taking the time to consider what specific Tribal Nations would like to see regarding the level of collaboration as well as research design and development can be extremely beneficial to all groups involved.

Respondents provided interesting and pertinent research goals and questions that could be studied in a CRM project. Considering multiple perspectives and ideologies can open lines of research that could otherwise be easily overlooked and helps ensure that valuable information is not lost. The results of this survey show the importance on collaboration on an individual Tribal level. This can not only ensure that Tribal Nations and their wishes are not overlooked, but also help build meaningful professional relationships between archaeologists and Tribal Nations of all sizes. Building collaborative relationships can give Tribal Nations more agency in what aspects of their history is studied, and how it is studied. Collaboration can open new and exciting avenues of research that are beneficial not only to archaeologists but also Tribal Nations.

CHAPTER 8

Discussion

Combining the data from the literature review portion of the study with survey data can show current trends in CRM archaeology, how those trends are perceived by Indigenous people who are also involved in CRM, and what steps can be taken to improve these relationships and get more meaningful data out of Phase III research and data recovery projects.

The literature review portion of research was meant to answer questions concerning what types of research questions and goals are being asked by CRM archaeologists during Phase III in the present, and how these questions have changed, or not, over the last 40 years. Analyzing the 24 Phase III CRM data recovery reports from this 40-year time period showed that there has been a lot of continuity in the types of research questions and goals that CRM archaeologists have used since the 1980's. As mentioned previously, a lot of research in Georgia is guided by the out of date "Blue Books" provided by the University of Georgia Laboratory of Archaeology which is a possible explanation for this continuity. Some of these goals and questions do provide necessary information. For example, questions about settlement patterns, which were very frequently asked about by processual archaeologists were one of the most interesting to survey participants. However, in many cases only the most basic information can be learned from these types of questions. Since in many cases Phase III is the last chance for an archaeological site to be excavated, it is important to make the best possible effort to gather information that goes beyond how old or how big a site is.

These reports also demonstrate the significant differences in research done by CRM firms today. Some companies use previous background information and other sources to develop research questions that focus on specific, relevant aspects of a site; others have a standard set of questions and methods that are applied to every site regardless of the nature of the site.

CRM archaeologists do not get any say over where they excavate. That means they also have no say in what they will excavate. This is part of why it is so important that the data and knowledge that are collected from these sites be useful and provide new information that can be used and built upon by future archaeologists and Tribes interested in their past. However, determinations of significance are up to the parties involved in the process, so issues about what counts as significant and what should be studied can arise. This is why meaningful Section 106 consultation is important.

Survey participants found all the culture history periods significant and were interested in all the examples of research goals and questions that had been taken from Phase III reports. Additionally, two participants specifically stated that ranking areas of importance was problematic because "it is their history and all of it is important," and "[a]s a tribal nation, we care about all aspects of a cultural site, it is difficult to rank interest when our mission and job is to help protect and document our cultural history on the landscape. A lower ranking should not be considered to be that it is information we do not care to see." However, even though they find all aspects of their history important, there were certain research topics and questions (site formation processes and lithic reduction strategies) that were ranked as less interesting than the others.

The spaces between archaeological sites are important to Native Americans, and a site is often part of a broader landscape (McNiven 2017: 31). These seemingly empty spaces are

essentially useless to archaeologists despite their importance to the Native people (McNiven 2017: 31). One response to the survey was about how certain aspects of a site can get overlooked by archaeologists. This response said “mounds and ceremonial places should not be limited in its physical existences. These are not accidental and have a purpose beyond archaeology. Thus, the viewshed should not be limited to archaeological standards and treatments.” In Dongoske’s work with the Zuni tribe, the cultural and emotional aspects of the archaeological sites were captured in the Zuni video project, which successfully mitigated the negative impacts to the site (Dongoske 2017). Furthermore, using Indigenous knowledge allowed archaeologists to go beyond the physical in both Dongoske and Steere’s work.

The only example of where a Phase III project attempted to go beyond what was physically left behind at the site was in report 8102, by New South Associates in which they had a set of questions regarding secular vs. ceremonial use of artifacts. This is a concept that is shared by multiple Indigenous groups. These sorts of themes can be beneficial to CRM, but they require collaboration especially when analyzing artifacts because these types of connections are likely to be missed by an archaeologist who can only infer these types of differences

Based on the results of the literature review, research goals regarding settlement patterns and site chronology were the most common across all the time periods included in the reports. This makes sense considering, as King stated, that even as archaeology developed and changed as a practice, CRM practitioners in the 1990s seemed to remain comfortable doing the same work that their processual predecessors had been doing in the 1970s (King 2013: 30). Rather than work to change the field and keep it moving forward, the 1990s were a time when CRM became standardized and formulistic (King 2013: 31). Evidence of this can be seen in Phase III reports from the last 10 years. Some companies create a formula for research questions and

report writing and they stick to it regardless of the nature of individual sites or potential wishes of Tribal Nations.

In the cases where there have been changes in the types of research questions asked, such as the trend towards more questions about migration and movement specifically, these shifts align with many of the research goals defined in the 25 grand challenges (Kintigh et al. 2014). However, although these types of research question may provide interesting research for archaeologists, they are typically asked in ways that emphasize archaeological, scientific objectives (Cobb 2014: 590). These types of questions are significantly less interesting to Tribal Nations who are primarily interested in learning about their histories and the history of their ancestors, not the culture-history of material artifacts. One survey respondent said that "culture histories have become stale." It is in this regard that better collaboration with Tribal Nations can be so beneficial to CRM.

Time and money will always be a barrier in CRM archaeology, so having a formulaic process can be beneficial and help navigate all of the rules and regulations surrounding CRM archaeology. However, it can create stale results, and makes it much easier to overlook smaller Tribal Nations. One survey respondent specifically wanted to know what methods are being used to ensure that smaller tribes are not just lumped in with the history and material culture of larger tribes. The best way to do this is by creating questions that are catered to a specific site or Tribal Nation through collaboration. That way, people and information do not get lost or overlooked because CRM archaeologists do not know what to look for.

Site chronology and placing the site within its culture-historical time period was also a common goal in the Phase III studies analyzed in the literature review. Because archaeological knowledge and ways of viewing have been privileged by CRM when it comes to determining

significance and NRHP eligibility, **"**[t]ribal and First Nations are relegated to using categories defined by archaeologists whose categories and material links only may be loosely reflective of the lived histories and connections to ancestral peoples, waters, and lands" (Birch et al. 2022: 2). Survey respondents specifically indicated that although information about all periods of time were relevant and important, cultural historical periods used by archaeologists do not accurately represent how Tribal Nations think about their own history. However, survey respondents did indicate more interest in the contact period and the contact-1800 time period than the other culture-history periods asked about in the survey These would have been the periods during which Tribal Nations would have been actively being removed from their ancestral lands both physically and intellectually as European colonizers forced Tribal Nations west. A key aspect of Indigenous archaeology is historicizing the present which "involves bringing the recent archaeological past into the present and at the same time extending the ethnographic present into the archaeological past." (McNiven 2017: 32). When given a choice about which sites to investigate archaeologically, many Indigenous people choose to focus on the more recent past because it helps them connect with ancestors, fill in gaps in oral histories and learn about parts of their recent history that were forgotten (McNiven 2017: 32). Historicizing the past allows Native people to use archaeology to "rediscover, reengage and reclaim" their more recent history, and archaeology can also potentially shed light on these older uses of these more recent sites (McNiven 2017: 33).

Too often, contemporary Tribal Nations are separated from their ancestral communities that existed prior to European colonization. For example, the Muscogee Nation has ties to multiple states in the southeast, including Georgia, Alabama, and portions of the Carolinas, Mississippi, Tennessee, Florida and the routes by which their ancestors were forcibly removed.

However, contemporary Muscogee Nation are never associated with the Muskogean mound builders who inhabited these same areas, despite there being significant evidence for cultural affiliation (Birch et al. 2022: 6).

One survey response specifically indicated interest in "Identifying historic Native American sites from post 1776 until removal for non-Cherokee sites. There is so little data on this for the other tribes and honestly scholars get lazy and use all the Cherokee [excavations] to [describe] other [southeastern] tribes." Of the reports included in the literature review, contact and post contact period sites were the least common, and were often understudied. Phase III reports which were removed from consideration for this study were often removed because if it was a "historic period" site, no mentions of Indigenous history were made. Based on the Phase III reports, historic period Indigenous sites are largely underrepresented, despite the fact that these are periods of particular interest to many Indigenous groups, especially those who feel as if this part of their history has been ignored.

The methods that were most used during Phase III projects include excavation, shovel test, surface survey and geophysical studies. Participants in this survey were generally comfortable with all methods except excavation including mortuary contexts. This corresponds with a study by Matthew Sanger in 2020 found that almost seventy five percent of those surveyed said that "analysis of human remains, use of DNA, and excavation of mortuary contexts were" unacceptable or at least highly discouraged (Sanger et al. 2020: 27). However, two survey participants expressed being uncomfortable with surface surveys which was surprising since this is a non-invasive method and other works have demonstrated that this method is generally preferred (Sanger et al. 2020; Watkins 2003). As geophysical methods became more readily available, these technologies were frequently incorporated into CRM field

methods. The way these technologies are used can continue to be expanded on so that they become a final step in archaeological research, not just a method used to find features (Nelson 2021). Using geophysical methods in this way can also ensure that sites are preserved and protected for future generation (Nelson 2021). General comfort levels with the most common archaeological methods utilized during Phase III can help explain why there were very few changes in methodology during Phase III data recovery based on Tribal concerns.

Section 106 requires consultation. The requirements are vague about how to consult but go into great depth on whom to consult, so often the who overshadows the what which result in the consultation lacking the subsistence it needs to be meaningful (King 2013: 165). Agencies have to be careful to not lose track of the purpose of consultation in the process of making sure it is completed. In other words, making sure that consultation is meaningful can prevent the it from becoming just a box that has to be checked.

Outside of federally mandated Section 106 consultation, seven survey respondents indicated that they communicate specifically with CRM archaeologists at least three times a year, and although CRM archaeologists are not directly involved in Section 106 consultation, the majority of these conversations are a result of Section 106 requirements. These two groups are communicating. If consultation that is legally mandated and already happening can go one step further than simply sending a letter to the right THPO, it can bring immense benefits to CRM archaeology.

It is important to also recognize that not all Tribal Nations will necessarily want to be more involved in the CRM research process than they already are. One respondent wrote: “Phase III means more to us than just a set of standards required by law, the site may be destroyed, and this is the last opportunity to learn from it. Careful consideration is needed. Not all tribes may

feel this way or have the time to consult but [it's] always important to ask first." This response brings up two particularly important points. First, to this Tribal Nation and many others, Phase III is more than a box that needs to be checked off on a list of requirements to get to the final goal. In some cases, it is the last chance to extract valuable information about a site or an aspect of the Tribal Nations history, especially when, as another respondent wrote, "dealing with a particular tribe or region…entire Indigenous history may have never been fully documented."

Communication and consultation often do not exceed what is legally required, and Tribal Nations are still frequently left out of the process of studying their own past. One respondent points out that Tribal Nations deserve the "option to direct research rather than simply be the subject of it." In years to come, archaeologists must start to incorporate the wishes and desires of Indigenous groups into their work and better educate themselves on Native ways of viewing the past (Britt 2019). By working together, archaeologists and Tribal Nations can learn more about the full history of the United States. Collaboration occurs along a scale "from resistance, to communicating research plans, to full-fledged involvement of descendant groups in the design, implementation, and interpretation of results" (Silliman and Ferguson 2010: 52).

The fact that only one survey respondent felt as if their communication with CRM archaeologists was somewhat negative can be interpreted as a positive sign that collaboration is, for the most part, not on the resistance edge of the scale anymore. However, it is certainly not at the "full-fledged involvement" end of the scale either. Collaboration is something that archaeologists must choose (Britt 2019: 506). Survey responses indicated several ways in which meaningful collaboration can occur. These include early involvement, more involvement in research design, quality engagement, cultural sensitivity, trust, respect, open communication, etc. Respondents also expressed interest in being more involved in almost every step of the Phase III

process, including tribal monitoring, field work, publications, outreach, and education. The one place that one Phase III report did explicitly show how a tribe was involved was in outreach. As a part of the project associated with report 4405 included a public archaeology day in which several members of the Eastern Band of Cherokee participated. Although it is not collaboration in research design, this is one example of how something that Tribal Nations want has already been implemented into CRM. Making CRM archaeology a more collaborative endeavor might not be a quick process, but it is possible. Survey responses indicate that, Tribal members involved with CRM and historic preservation would appreciate and benefit from collaborative efforts outside of Section 106 that would not take much additional work on the part of a CRM firm. Phase III projects that did take more time to consult were better reports and provided better information than those that worked from a preset group of research questions or goals. Furthermore, the survey indicates several areas of research interest that go beyond the questions that have been asked by CRM for 40 years. Incorporating these perspectives can bring about benefits for archaeology, Tribal Nations, and the public.

CHAPTER 9

Conclusion

There is no one right answer or way to conduct a Phase III data recovery project. What works best for or is preferred by one Tribal Nation may not hold true for another. This is why improved conversation and collaboration from the very beginning of a CRM project is so important. Standardizing research goals for all projects may save time in the short term, but in the long-term valuable information could be lost. Communication and meaningful collaboration with individual Tribal Nations and descendant communities can avoid wasting time on research that has been done or answering questions that could be at least partially answered simply by communicating with the tribe.

For much of the history of archaeology, archaeologists had sole authority over archaeological resources. Collaboration and Indigenous archaeologies work to reverse this power dynamic by promoting shared authority over cultural resources and the types of knowledge that are prioritized. Indigenous archaeologies work to incorporate Indigenous voices and perspectives into archaeological research design and implementation. Collaboration and incorporating Indigenous archaeologies into CRM can provide new, exciting research opportunities and improve entire CRM process.

During Section 106 consultation, federal agencies can do a better job making sure that Tribal perspectives are actively considered and listened to during the entirety of the site identification and mitigation process. This means starting the process early, knowing the laws, being prepared to listen to and actively engage with other cultures, knowledges and perspectives,

and being fully and consistently invested in tribal engagement (Ketz and Blackhouse 2021). It is these collaborative steps and processes that make consultation meaningful. Meaningful consultation means that cultural resources are properly identified, and adverse effects will be mitigated or avoided in a way that best serves all those involves. When consultation is a collaborative effort, it "leads to greater efficiencies and understandings for implementing the Section 106 process," before excavation even begins (Ketz and Blackhouse 2021). Making the consultation process more collaborative will encourage and empower CRM firms to also act more collaboratively.

When it comes to the archaeological data recovery process, CRM archaeologists need to include more collaboration in the design of research questions and goals, and work to build strong, equal collaborative relationships with Tribal cultural resource managers and preservationists. When developing research goals and questions, those questions that focus on Tribal histories, not culture histories, should be considered. Areas of specific interests to the respondents of this survey include research questions with an emphasis on contact and post-contact period sites, the histories of smaller and underrepresented Tribal Nations, and subsistence and settlement patterns as they relate to Tribal histories. Additionally, Tribal perspectives can be incorporated more into earlier parts of the CRM process, including Phase I and II research and considerations of whether or not sites should be considered eligible or potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

This does not have to mean that CRM firms have to start from the beginning every time they collaborate. CRM firms should collaborate with Tribal Nations who have an interest in areas the firm regularly works in to establish research goals, question and methods that consider and put Tribal interest in the forefront while also contributing to the existing archaeological

knowledge base. If they focus on building strong relationships, getting a general idea of what specific tribes would like to see in terms of research goals and how to apply those to different types of sites and data, the CRM process can be streamlined. Additionally, collaboration does not have to be an extensive process every time. Best meeting the needs of all parties involved can be as simple as designing research to include plow zone contexts, such as in report 13911, or the work done by GDOT in 2008. It can also be as elaborate and detailed as Dongoske's work with the Zuni or Steere's work with the Cherokee. What matters is that both groups actively chose to collaborate, respect each other, share authority and work together as equal partners to establish research goals and agendas that work towards the best interest of all those involved.

Finally, when it is possible, CRM firms should work to make the literature regarding collaborative efforts within CRM easier to find so that successful projects can be used to provide a good framework for future collaborations. Additionally, including information about collaboration along with Tribal perspectives into CRM reports can help "offset the physical loss of ancestral sites" (Ferguson 2009: 185).

This research is not meant to be overly critical of current CRM laws and implementation; under the current circumstances, valuable research can and has been achieved as a part of Phase III archaeology. However, going forward, CRM can benefit from collaboration and Indigenous archaeology because it will open up new possibilities for research which will help the field continue to move forward rather than being held back by asking the same questions that were being asked 30 years ago. There are of course institutional barriers and other issues, such as time and money, and government regulation which can make initiating and maintaining meaningful, collaborative relationships difficult. However, when time and effort are placed on collaboration, not only can professional relationships between archaeologists and Tribal Nations improve, but

the quality and significance of research results can improve as well. Collaboration requires trust, and “it takes change in attitude by archaeologists to implement trust; it cannot be legislated” (McGimsey 2002: xvi). There have been overall improvements and changes for the better in CRM archaeology, especially in the last 10 years. Survey responses indicated that Tribal Nations did have some interest in the research goals and questions that are being asked by CRM archaeologists already. Furthermore, survey responses indicating that current relationships between CRM archaeologists and the Tribal members they communicate with are seen as somewhat positive is a good sign. There is already a strong foundation of knowledge and communication that can continue to be built upon. By continuing on a path towards more collaborative research, CRM archaeologists can continue to improve these relationships and the knowledge that CRM produces to make it more useful and applicable to everyone with an interest in cultural resources.

This research can be expanded to include more data not only from the Southeast but the United States as a whole. There are barriers that can make collaboration difficult, but possible. It is a process that will take time and effort, but continuing to build strong lines of communication, establishing good relationships and recognizing that there are multiple ways of thinking about and doing archaeology are good first steps towards improving CRM archaeology and the data that comes from it.

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Appendix A: Literature Review Document

Research Themes Key:

Site Formation processes (ex. site burial processes, later human action, plant and animal activity, etc.)

Settlement patterns (ex. where people were living, how people interacted between and/or within sites)

Site Chronology/age

Ceramic/lithic technologies (ex. what types of ceramics and lithics were being used at the site)

Diet/Nutrition (ex. what types of plants and animals' people were eating, where nutrients came from)

Subsistence Patterns (ex. agriculture/foraging/hunting, etc.)

Population movement/migration (ex. movement between sites and across the landscape)

Other → Site function and trade were the 2 most common

Methods Key:

Surface Survey

Geophysics

Shovel Test

Excavation

Time Periods Key:

Paleo-Indian (Before ~8000 BC)

Archaic (~8000 BC- 1200 BC)

Woodland (~1200 BC-1000 AD)

Mississippian (~1000 AD -1600 AD)

European Contact

European Contact - 1800 AD

1800 AD-1900 AD

1900 AD-1970 AD

1980-1990: 3

1991-2000: 5

2001-2010: 8

2011-2020: 12

Total: 28

Report Number: 13641

Site Number: 9CM170

Title: Archaeological Survey and Testing at the Rabbit Run Site

Location: Camden County, Ga

Year: 1985

Author(s): Carolyn Rock

Phase: III

Funding Institution: United States Department of the Navy

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: None

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Sensitive areas were flagged so they would be completely undisturbed. The site was then surveyed and tested based on the methods used during a survey in 1977. 103 tests were excavated overall: Most were 50x50 cm test pits that were excavated as one unit. 10 were 1x2 m units that were excavated according to natural stratigraphy or arbitrary 10 cm levels. All soils were screened through ½ inch mesh.

Research Goals and Questions: Originally the objective was to "find structural and subsistence patterns by searching for post holes, trash pits and other features." Later, the goal was changed to define site limits to get a better picture of the site's size, configuration, complexity and stratigraphy.

Results and Conclusions:

Other Notes: Site could possibly be a bulldozed burial mound.

Report Number: 1342

Site Number: GP-FL-9D, GP-FL-9B, GP-FL-5, and GP-FL-15 (Smithsonian system)

Title: Cultural Resource Mitigation: Prehistoric Investigations at GP-FL-9D, GP-FL-9B, GP-FL-5, and GP-FL-15. Rocky Mountain Pumped Storage Project, Floyd County, Georgia

Location: Floyd County, Ga

Year: 1986

Author(s): Resource Analysts Inc.;, Carol A. Ebright

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Power Company

Impacted Tribes: None identified

Tribal Consultation: none mentioned

NRHP Eligible: yes

Methods Summary: Excavation method "designed primarily to recover prehistoric site data concerned with site stratigraphy and aspects of lithic technology". Excavation of 75 sq. m in 5 cm intervals. However, excavation unit size, placement, and depth of excavations differed, as well as the size of the screen mesh used to process the dirt. 5 block excavations and 4 trenches

Research Goals and Questions: Site stratigraphy and lithic technology, site boundaries, site function (lithic manufacturing station that was used intermittently over long period)

Report Number: 1119

Site Number: 9DG46 (WGC1583)

Title: A Phase III Archaeological Excavation of the Glass Site in Dodge County, Georgia

Location: Dodge County, Ga

Year: 1990

Author(s): Daniel L. Simpkins, for Archaeological Research Services of University of West Georgia

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Fisheries Section of Georgia Department of Natural Resources

Impacted Tribes: Mentions that the site might have ties to “historical aboriginal” groups but does not give any more information

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Originally, the entire site was supposed to be excavated because they believed that it was pretty small. However, once the extent of the site was realized, they changed the plan. 12 2x2 m squares were excavated down the center of the site, starting with the original square that was dug during phase 2. Each unit was dug at 15cm levels and went down to at least 60 cm.

Research Goals and Questions: No specific research goals and/or questions were given prior to excavation. Based on results and summaries it seems that the primary goals were to identify types of artifacts at the site, develop site chronology, and discover what the site was used for (a camp most likely). In the recommendations portion of the report, the following research questions are posed for what could be addressed using what is left of the site and what was excavated: What “are the archaeological phases represented within the study unit and what are their components” ? and "What land-use activities have disturbed and continue to threaten the resource base”?

Report Number: 13640

Site Number: 9RI34, 9RI86, 9RI178

Title: Golf, Transportation and the Archaic Period: Archaeology for the Bobby Jones Expressway Extension Project

Location: Richmond County, Georgia

Year: 1991

Author(s): Southeastern Archeological Services, Dr. Elizabeth A. Gordon, R. Jerald Ledbetter,

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: None

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Yes?

Methods Summary: Phinizy Swamp (9RI178): There were no surface artifacts for surface collections, but shovel tests showed that the site had archaic components. The site was deeply stratified, had few features and was excavated by hand in small units.

Lovers Lane (9RI86): The site area was first defined by shovel tests, four test units (1x2 and 2x2) and a trench. Then 49m^2 were excavated in 1x1 subunits. Finally, two blocks, A and B, totaling 1133 m^2 were mechanically stripped. More than 50% of features were excavated on all sides, and the remaining features were partially excavated or sampled.

Research Goals and Questions: One goal is to record evidence of human occupation over the past 10,000 years. the issues addressed in the research proposal include: "archaic projectile point typology, seriation of late archaic ceramics, food preparation technology, intra-site settlement and site patterning, paleoenvironmental reconstruction and subsistence, refinements in archaic chronology, regional exchange networks and social organization."

Results and Conclusions: 9RI178 (Phinizy Swamp) contained the oldest remains and was dated to the Early to Middle archaic period. 9RI86 (Lovers Lane) was most active during the Late Archaic. Since Phinizy Swamp was deeply stratified and excavated by hand, it was very useful for artifact analysis which could help answer questions about chronology and typologies. Lovers

Lane included at least 400 features and was a shallow site, so it yielded useful information regarding social organization, settlement patterns, etc.

Additional Notes: 9RI34 (The Old Dike Site) was studied least extensively because it was found early on to not have much research potential. Phinizy Swamp and Lovers Lane were analyzed by two different authors.

Report Number: 5563

Site Number: 9EB44

Title: Phase 3 Mitigative Data Recovery at the F.M Hall Site, 9EB44, A Multicomponent Site in Elbert County, Georgia

Location: Elbert County, Ga

Year: 1992

Author(s): New World Research Inc.; Joseph Meyer, James Moorehead, James Matthews, Christopher Hays, Newell O. Wright Jr.

Phase: III

Funding Institution: EMANCO Inc.

Impacted Tribes: None mentioned

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: yes

Methods Summary: General field methods applied to the whole site, with some variation between sectors based on specific research goals. Datum points were set up and the site was mapped. Excavation was main technique in both areas, soils screened in both wet and dry screens, rain caused issues with excavations, 2 trenches

Research Goals and Questions: The Phase 3 investigations were directed toward data recovery to address two broad topics: 1) culture sequence refinement and 2) site culture history. Cultural sequence refinement mainly focused on the middle and late woodland periods. a goal of this study was to determine if temporal differences could be determined in the simple-stamped ceramic assemblage by an analysis of the horizontal and vertical variation in their occurrence and by radiocarbon date corroboration.

Site culture history had a couple of components. 1) chronology and function: determine components and their spatial limits, delineate the nature and intensity of site use by the various prehistoric occupants, and reconstruction of tool kits through the analysis of lithics would potentially shed light on site function from a temporal perspective. 2) Regional comparisons of data from this site to overall regional trends in Archaic, Woodland, Mississippian and historic time periods.

Report Number: 13593

Site Number: 9Br1

Title: Steps to the Past: 1994 Archaeological Excavations at Mounds A and B the Etowah Site

Location: Bartow County, Ga

Year: 1994/1995

Author(s): Adam King, Lisa O'Steen, Leslie Raymer, Lewis H. Larson Jr.

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Department of Natural Resources

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: None

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Already eligible. Purpose of this study was to decide where new visitor steps could be constructed.

Methods Summary: Excavations conducted at the base, slope and summit of both mounds A and B. A grid unit was set up and test pits were dug in areas that would be impacted by construction. Test units were excavated in 10 cm levels and screened through ¼ in mesh.

Research Goals and Questions: The **"**Goal of these excavations is to archeologically define the nature, including the construction characteristics, of the prehistoric ramp on the east face of Mound A and the slope on the north side of Mound." Additionally, "the origin and deposition of floral and faunal remains" was studied in order to see if the remains "represent domestic middens associated with habitations at the mound's bases or slope wash of trash deposits from the summits of the mounds."

Results and Conclusions: Mound A: At the base and on the slope, excavations uncovered a clay staircase and a landing area for the staircase. Additionally, above the landing area, post molds and features, including redistributed middens, point to domestic activities taking place or parts of a palisade. Due to erosion and disturbed soils, there was no evidence of the staircase at the summit of the mound, but excavations did uncover several artifacts that are associated with elite inhabitants. The new staircase should be constructed in the same place as the original, but deep disturbances should be avoided.

Mound B: Useful information regarding the dating and construction of this mound was found during excavations. Three construction phases were evident at the base of Mound B; the earliest was the Late Etowah phase. It is recommended that the new staircase should not go very deep because there is a possibility of burials on the slope of the mound.

Report Number: 5577

Site Number: 9FY84, 9FY86, 9FY106, 9FY116

Title: Phase III Data Recovery at Four Prehistoric Sites in the Horton Creek Reservoir Project Area

Location: Fayette County, Ga

Year: 1995

Author(s): New South Associates; Charles E. Cantley, Leslie E. Raymer; Johannes H. N. Loubser; Mary Beth Reed, Garry X. Guan and Lisa O'Steen

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Mallett & Associates, Inc.

Impacted Tribes: None mentioned

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: yes

Methods Summary: Based on methods used during phase II so first step was to reestablish the original grid system. Machine stripping used at 3/4 sites to get below the plow zone. Features were flagged and excavated if it was determined to be cultural. Then 5x5 m blocks were excavated in 10cm levels and screened through ¼ in. mesh. Additional 1x1 m units excavated at each site.

Research Goals and Questions: Site chronology, layout and function

Report Number: 13599

Site Number: Lots. 38MC1107, 38MC1106, 38MC1123, 38MC1137, 38MC1138, 38MC1158, 38MC1159, 38MC1168, 38MC1170, 38MC1177 have Native American components.

Title: Cultural Resources Survey of a 7,256 Acre Timber Harvest Area, Thurmond Lake, McCormick County, South Carolina

Location: Thurmond Lake, McCormick County, South Carolina

Year: 1995-1996

Author(s): Panamerican Consultants, Jennifer Grover, Terry Lolley

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Department of the Army Savannah District, Corps of Engineers

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: None

NRHP Eligible: 8MC1117, 38MC1122, 38MC1130, 38MC1132, 38MC1170, 38MC1191, 38MC1212, 38MC1223, 38MC1233, 38MC1241, 38MC1243, 38MC1244, 38MC1245, 38MC1141,38MC1144, and 38MC1145 were considered potentially eligible

Methods Summary: Intensive surface survey and 10,197 shovel tests.

Research Goals and Questions: The chapter containing research goals was missing from the report. From what I could put together based on other information, it was hypothesized that there would be more sites along the Savannah River drainage, so Site location was probably something they were looking at. Also were going to look at co-occurrence of the MALA and Middle Archaic. Overall, it seems that there was not enough evidence from the Native American sites to really answer any research questions anyway.

Additional Info: This was a survey of 2936.5 hectares of land, and 152 total sites were found, as well as 38 isolated finds.

Report Number: 4599

Site Number: 9CK1142 and 9CK1133, 9CK1133 has the Native American components

Title: Phase III Data Recovery at the Labelle Gold Mine Site (9CK1142) and Site 9CK1133 Prominence Point Development

Location: Cherokee County, Ga

Year: 2003

Author(s): R. S. Webb and Associates, William Jordan, W. Heath Brooks, Heather Howdeshell and Brian Lancor

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Prominence Point Development Corporation

Impacted Tribes: Cherokee,

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: "Fieldwork at 9CKI133 was accomplished through: I) block excavations; and 2) backhoe stripping. The equivalent of two, five by five-m blocks wear excavated. Following Block Excavations, the equivalent of two, ten by ten-m blocks were mechanically stripped by a backhoe. After completion of fieldwork, a site plan was drawn, showing block excavations, stripped areas and surface features (i.e., roads, disturbances, etc.). The close-scale topographic map prepared by Rochester & Associates, Inc. served as a base for the site plan."

Research Goals and Questions: Focus on early, middle and late archaic components. Research focused on: refinement of Archaic period chronology through radiometric dating, stratigraphic sequencing, detailed artifact description and comparative study. *"How do the temporal ranges and diagnostic artifacts for Archaic period phases represented at Site 9CKI133 compare to those in other regions? In particular, how do date ranges and assemblages compare to the Middle and*

Late Archaic data recovered from Sites 9CK713, 9DW64 and 9DW77 in the Yellow Creek drainage?"

Site Structure: *I) Was Site 9CKI133 host to an Early and/or Middle Archaic foraging (i.e., summer/ warm weather)*

camp or was it a more ephemeral occupation (e.g., a temporary task camp)?

2) Reviewing Sassaman's (1991) Late Archaic site type hierarchy, how does Site 9CKI133 fit into this scheme (e.g., upland habitation, limited-activity location)?

3) Do the occupations represent household groups or special use groups?

Subsistence: *I) What were the subsistence habits of the prehistoric occupants at Site 9CKI133?*

2) How did subsistence habits vary over time?

Report Number: 2544

Site Number: 9BA65

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at Site 9BA65, A Prehistoric Soapstone Quarry, in Banks County, Georgia

Location: Banks County Ga

Year: 2003

Author(s): R.S. Webb and Associates, William Jordan, Robert S. Webb, W. Heath Brooks and Phillip W. Quirk

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Waste Management Inc.

Impacted Tribes:

Tribal Consultation:

NRHP Eligible: Yes (the prehistoric portion of the site only though)

Methods Summary: site prepared, surface inspected and cleared special attention paid to areas with exposed ground surface. Then, block excavation in 10 cm levels.

Research Goals and Questions: Research issues include: Cultural/temporal affiliations (When was Site 9BA65 active? When was the site used for soapstone vessel manufacture? Did the use of space, technology, and/or style vary through time?)

Quarry Technology: Does the technology exhibited at Site 9BA65 fit within the existing ultramafic extraction/ reduction/refinement paradigm or are modifications needed? How did raw material type and/or quality affect the paradigm?

Quarry Products: What types of objects and/or vessels were being manufactured at Site 9BA65? Site Structure: How do artifact assemblages vary across workspaces? Is a nearby lithic workshop/domestic activity area present?

Product distribution: Does this site contain evidence that soapstone products were exported to other regions? How and where might the products of Site 9BA65 have been distributed? Were they for local use or were they transported or traded to other regions?

Report Number: 14200 and 14201

Site Number: 9GN199 and 9GN200. 9GN200 is the focus here because of its association with Native American/Prehistoric contexts.

Title: Phase III Data Recovery Excavations at Pikes Bluff (9GN199) St. Simons Island, Glynn County, Georgia/Phase III Data Recovery Excavations at Pikes Bluff (9GN200) St. Simons Island, Glynn County, Georgia

Location: Glynn County, Georgia

Year: 2004 (Report published 2020)

Author(s): Brockington and Associates

Phase: III

Funding Institution: The Sea Island Company

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: Although human remains were found at 9GN200, no tribal consultation is mentioned

Recommended NRHP Eligible: yes

Methods Summary: There were 28 hand excavated units and 11 mechanical scrapes. A total of 972 50x50 cm units were excavated at 10 m intervals.

Research Goals and Questions: None are mentioned in the report, likely due to the fact that it was incomplete.

Results and Conclusions: Two shell middens separated by a drainage ditch were uncovered during the course of excavations. The artifact assemblage consists mostly of ceramics (Swift Creek complicated stamped and Weeden Island phase ceramics). Based on the ceramics and radiocarbon dating, the site is dated to the Middle Woodland period. 176 features were identified and 10 of those included human remains (11 individuals).

Additional Notes: These sites mostly overlap, but historical data is associated with 9GN199 and prehistoric data with 9GN200. These reports are unofficial because the Sea Island Company went into receivership, and the property was sold. The report went unfinished and in 2013, all of the archaeological artifacts were returned to Bill Jones, the former CEO of the Seas Island Company. The human remains and associated artifacts were reburied at a specially designated

spot on St. Simons Island. The report does not mention how or by whom the reburial process was managed or decided.

Report Number: 7371

Site Number: 9BI132 (Great Wolf), 9BI133(Four Oaks), 9BI134 (Prima Donna)

Title: Data Recovery of the Cherokee Brick Sites

Location: Bibb County, Ga

Year: Field work: 2006, report publication: 2013

Author(s): Environmental Services INC. Scott Seibel, Melissa Dye, Rebecca Gorman

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Cherokee Brick and Tile Company, US Army Corp of Engineers

Impacted Tribes: None mentioned

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Excavation methods followed those of the Secretary of Interior's *Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation* (36 CFR 61) (not going into more detail can be revisited if needed). The three sites were different in regard to stratification and types of deposits, so they had to be excavated slightly differently. 9BI133 and 9BI134 were deep and 9BI132 was relatively shallow. At all three sites the post settlement alluvium was removed with a backhoe. At 9BI132, the primary goal was to expose cultural features in place, so the block was shovel and trowel scraped, and exposed features were marked and recorded with the total station. Similar techniques were used at 9BI133 and 9BI134. Both had excavation units of

2x2m that were further divided into 1x1m quadrants that were excavated at 10cm levels. All units were water screened.

Research Goals and Questions: "Mitigation activities at the Cherokee Brick sites were expected to produce a wide range of important research information and answers to multiple research questions:

- How are the cultural occupations represented through the material remains?
- Determine what function each site served during each occupational phase.
- Can it be determined if sites or components were the result of long-term occupations or multiple short-term occupations (Intensity of site use)?
- For the Late Archaic components, can differences and similarities between the different phases be determined?
- What is the nature of cultural continuity or the lack thereof in the Late Archaic from the Savannah River to the Stallings Island phases?
- How do patterns of lithic raw material acquisition and use at each site vary based on temporal periods of occupation and differences in site function(s)?
- Are there noticeable patterns in lithic procurement related to geographic regions (i.e., Piedmont, Coastal Plain, Fall Line, Mountains)?
- What types or stages of lithic reduction occurred during each temporal period at each site? What types of lithic tools were produced and how do these relate to site function and use?
- Phase I and II studies failed to recover zooarchaeological or paleoethnobotanical materials. Can the employment of flotation techniques produce subsistence remains present at any of the sites and can the subsistence strategies at each site be determined?
- How is each site/component structured? Can site structure and activity patterns be determined through the examination of horizontal and vertical stratigraphy?
- Can single or multiple structures be identified at any of the sites, but specifically at Great Wolf? If so, can patterns of activity within and adjacent to the structure(s) be determined?
- Can patterns of intrasite variability be elucidated? If so, do specific activities vary temporally as well?
- How do the sites compare to different models of settlement patterning for the different cultural periods/phases present? Do they fit well into the known models or are there significant deviations?"

Basically, these are all culture history questions.

Results and Conclusions: Found that at all the sites, there were various types of occupations from the early Archaic to the Mississippian time period.

Report Number: 1221

Site Number: 9SU10 and 9SH23

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at Sites 9SU10 and 9SH23

Location: Sumter and Schley County, Ga

Year: 2007

Author(s): Brockington and Associates, Thomas Whitley, David Lineberry, Wendy Weaver

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: None mentioned

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned

NRHP Eligible: Unsure.

Methods Summary: At 9SU10, the entire APE was excavated in 50x50cm units placed 10m apart with a total of 22 units excavated. Unit levels were based on natural stratification and were excavated down to sterile soil. 9SH23 had five 2x2m units placed over areas that had been established during phase I and II. They were excavated in 10cm levels.

Research Goals and Questions: What kinds of activities occurred at these sites? How do these sparse, but similar, assemblages reflect different kinds of behaviors? What is the nature of these behaviors? What can we say about the duration of occupation? How do these sites fit within the overall picture we have of Archaic and Woodland upland resource procurement patterns? What of the transition between these periods?

Other general research goals include: season of occupation, potential areas of plant and animal resource procurement, horticultural and/or hunting and gathering practices, site placement within a larger regional context, patterns of resource procurement, regional variation in subsistence patterns, daily activity areas, site function and seasonality, social and economic connectivity between sites, development of settlement systems and trade networks, functional site variation across the region, tool curation and extent of usage, intrasite artifact distribution, identification of activity areas.

Additional Notes: Both of these were relatively small sites, but they were combined for interpretive/report purposes as a way to compare and contrast similar assemblages, habitats, and settings, for two sites with overlapping (mostly Archaic and Woodland) occupations.

Report Number: 7173

Site Number: 9BK444

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at Site 9BK444, Burke County, Georgia

Location: Burke County, Georgia

Year: 2008

Author(s): William P. Barse, Nathaniel Heller for R. Christopher Goodwin and Associates

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Elba Express Company/El Paso Corporation

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: No tribal consultation. An MOA was reached between the FERC, Georgia SHPO and Elba express. If tribes were consulted it is not included in the report.

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Phase I consisted of shovel tests, and phase II was more shovel test and four 1x1 m test excavation units. Phase III expanded on unit 2 and 4 from phase II. Additional units and blocks of various sizes were placed around unit 2 and 4, as well as a few close to the edges of the site. Overall, 38 sq meters were excavated.

Research Goals and Questions: Based on earlier work done at the site, it was believed to contain information on lithic reduction strategies during the late Paleo-Indian and Early Archaic period. Additionally, the site would be able to provide information on the relationship between "the buried paleosol with key early Archaic diagnostic cultural materials."

Results and Conclusions: This site provides a "pedological context for the late Paleo-Indian and Early Archaic point types recovered from the excavations." The paleosols at this site are marker horizons which can be compared with other sites. Information from this site can also be used to generate chronological information. Most of the lithics at this site are associated with the Early Archaic period, and most of the data points to the site being used for primary and secondary reduction sites.

Report Number: 4385

Site Number: 9HY321

Title: Phase III Data Recovery at Site 9HY321 (Walnut Creek Field Site 2).

Location: Henry County Georgia

Year: 2008

Author(s): Sudha Shah, Thomas Whitley, Andrew Pappas, Paul Brockington. For Brockington Cultural Resources Consulting

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: Unknown

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned in the report.

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Excavation was based on information gained during phase I and II. A 4x4 m block was excavated in the area known to have the highest artifact density, and three 2x2 excavation units were dug in areas where there were known cultural features. Units were excavated in arbitrary 10 cm levels. Once excavations were complete, shovel tests were done to supplement information from phase I and II, and were used to get a better idea about the distribution of artifacts across the site.

Research Goals and Questions: Results from this site will be used to address several questions relating to "middle Archaic domestic-level social and economic organization." More specifically, data from this site will be used to "examine changes in the spatial dynamics and organization of activities over temporally discrete occupations, and use these results to gain insight into the social dimensions of settlement mobility." Several areas of specific focus include:

mobility and social flexibility: Focus on the relationship between settlement patterns, mobility strategies and foraging strategies and how those relationships may have changed seasonally or over the course of several years.

Subsistence practices at a site and regional level: Understanding subsistence practices at the site level could provide an understanding of seasons of occupation, areas of resource procurement and horticultural and hunting/gathering practices. At the regional level, it could provide an understanding of the placement of the site in a larger regional system, regional patterns of resource procurement and variation in subsistence practices throughout the region.

Settlement information at a site and regional level; Based on previous research, researchers felt that most of the settlement information from the site would likely come from the site's position within a larger regional context and interpretations of behaviors that could be made based on the density and diversity of the lithic toolkit.

Material culture: Most of the artifacts at this site were lithics. Understanding these assemblages can help answer questions about tool curation and use and how and when specific areas of the site were used.

Results and Conclusions: Three cultural features, all clusters of fire cracked rocks, were found. Soil samples were analyzed for archaeobotanical remains. Prehistoric artifacts consisted primarily of lithic materials, but fire cracked rock and seven pieces of ceramic sherds were also identified. Evidence from the site suggests that it was occupied intermittently between the Archaic and historic time periods. Most of the materials used in tool production were local materials, and the most common production method was "non-core biface production starting with natural pebbles/cobbles, shatter from initial reduction of large masses, or a large flake," which matches with other known processes from Archaic sites. No faunal remains were found at the site, and there were limited archaeobotanical remains found in soil samples. The fire cracked rocks found at the site are likely associated with cooking, and the presence of a small amount of hickory nuts and acorns near the rocks could point to nut processing activities that were common during the Archaic period. The data from the site does not provide specific information about spatial organization of activities, but a few general hypotheses were developed. These include hypotheses about gender or sex related division of labor, activities taking place over long periods of time, and the possibility that this site was used primarily in the fall. The results from this site provide a basis for future research regarding multiple occupation Archaic sites.

Report Number: 4405

Site Number: 9BR34

Title: A Middle Woodland Household on the Etowah River: Archaeological Investigations of the Hardin Bridge Site

Location: Bartow County, Ga

Year: 2008

Author(s): New South Associates

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Greenhorne and O'Mara, Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: The Eastern Band of Cherokee

Tribal Consultation: Tribe participated in a public outreach day

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: A North/East oriented grid was placed on top of the datum points from phase II work and unit and feature numbers were based on earlier GDOT excavations. Three blocks were excavated. Block 1 was mechanically stripped and blocks 2 and 3 were hand excavated. Two trenches were also dug for geomorphological investigations.

Research Goals and Questions: *this is an example of particularly good questions in my opinion* There were a lot of different research questions that pertained to 1) early middle woodland site use, chronology/typology and subsistence, and 2) organization of lithic technology and tool manufacture for the late archaic and middle woodland. Some of the questions include:

- Are the checked and simple stamped ceramic contemporary?
- Where do pits occur in relation to post molds and middens

- Does the site have the semi-circular arc shape that is common at other middle woodland sites?
- Are there bigger communal areas or a plaza?
- How does Cartersville subsistence and plant life differ from that of the late archaic?
- When did domestication of plants become an important part of the economy and how important were aquatic plants?
- How did this site function within late archaic society and economy?
- Are shifts in production technologies discernable over time?

Report Number: 8062

Site Number: 9CE2470

Title: ARCHAEOLOGICAL MITIGATION OF SITE 9CE2470 FOR FORT BENNING MILITARY RESERVATION, CHATTAHOOCHEE COUNTY, GEORGIA

Location: Chattahoochee County, Ga

Year: 2009

Author(s): Panamerican Consultants Inc.; Paul Jackson, Kenny R. Pearce, Kristen R. Reed, LeeAnne Wendt, and H. Lee Harrison, Jr.

Phase: III

Funding Institution: US Department of the Army

Impacted Tribes: Muscogee Creek, Seminole Tribe of Florida

Tribal Consultation: The research design for 9Me63 should accommodate participation and cooperation with the Muscogee (Creek) Nation and the Seminole Tribe of Florida in the use of remote sensing technology. The research design(s) are to be forwarded to the Georgia State Historic Preservation Officer, as well as to Fort Benning, for review and comment.

NRHP Eligible: eligibility removed

Methods Summary: 4 main parts: conducting a remote sensing survey of the site area; producing a topographic site map; hand excavation of trenches and block units; and finally, mechanically stripping the remainder of the site.

Research Goals and Questions: 5 main research goals:

Occupational History: determine what components are there, their age, occupational duration, material culture associated with each, and examine changes over time

Site Function: "determining the nature of the successive occupations at Site 9CE2470 was also a key research objective." determine occupational focus during each time period, identify evidence for seasonality, site use change over time

Subsistence: identify taxa of plants and animals during each component, changes in subsistence assemblage through time, identify markers of floral domestication → no flora or fauna were found so this wasn't possible

Technology: identify tool and ceramic types, variation in lithic reduction strategy, morphological changes of hafted bifaces and ceramics over time,

Trade and Exchange: determine prevalence of tools from non-local sources (none present), determine sites' role in local, regional trade networks.

Additional Notes: Panamerican uses the same research goals for each site and answers the questions that are applicable. Methodology also is pretty standardized.

Report Number: 6709

Site Number: 9ME158, 9ME472, 9ME742. Focus on 9ME472 because it had the largest Native American component. 9ME724 had a small archaic component.

Title: Archaeological Mitigation of Sites 9ME158, 9ME472 and 9ME742 for Fort Benning Military Reservation in Muscogee County, Ga

Location: Muscogee County, Ga

Year: 2011

Author(s): Pan American Consultants Inc. Kenny Pearce, Jan Jamison and Karla Oesch

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Department of the Army

Impacted Tribes: Creek

Tribal Consultation: "Special attention shall be afforded for the identification and possible protection and/or removal of human remains that may be found on all sites. In particular, time and appropriate process for the removal of Indian burials must be allowed in project planning in accordance with the Native American Graves &Protection Act of 1990. Consultation with the Federally recognized Tribes associated with Fort Benning shall be directed by the installation with assistance provided by the contractor, as needed."

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: First, conducted a remote sensing survey to produce a new topographic map of the site that included both natural and man-made structures/phenomenon. Then, site ground survey. Finally, shovel tests (30cm wide and 75cm or to clay subsoil) and excavations of test units. Test unit location was based on survey and results of the shovel tests. 10 Units dug at 10cm arbitrary levels, terminated once sterile soil was reached.

Research Goals and Questions: Even though the time periods associated with the sites were vastly different (Archaic through the early 20th century), the research questions/themes for all were the same. They were:

Occupational History: age of each component, occupational duration, identify types and changes in material culture over time

Site Function: occupational focus, evidence for seasonality in occupation, changes in site use over time

Subsistence: identify types of plants and animals and how they change over time

Technology: identify types of tools, variation in lithic reduction strategies, types of raw materials used

Trade and Exchange: Presence of non-local cherts, site role in local and intraregional trade (none of the Native American artifacts were non-local).

Report Number: 7134

Site Number: 9FN341

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at Site 9FN341

Location: Fannin County Ga

Year: 2011

Author(s): Brockington and Associates, Thomas G. Whitley, Sudha Shah, Jeff Sherard, Jessica Allgood, Kandace Hollenbach

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Blue Ridge Golf and River Holdings, LLC/ US Army Corps of Engineers

Impacted Tribes: Cherokee

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned, MOA was executed between the Blue Ridge Golf and River Club, the USACE, Savannah District, and

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Summary: Used phase I survey results to locate areas with large artifact assemblages. Areas with high densities that would be impacted by construction were chosen for excavation. A 10 m grid was laid out, and excavation units were 50cm x50cm and were excavated by natural strata. Once hand excavations were finished, they did mechanical scraping to expose possible cultural features and areas that weren't done by hand.

Research Goals and Questions: 4 Research Questions: Relationships between populations in Toccoa River Valley and neighboring regions: 1. *Was the Toccoa River Valley occupied by groups that were culturally related to communities in neighboring regions during the Mississippian period, or did populations in the study area have a unique set of traditions, including material culture styles, and political history? If Occupants of the Toccoa River Valley were aligned with polities in neighboring regions, what was the nature of this relationship and how did it change or shift over time?*

Site Function and Spatial Organization: *2. Do the archaeological deposits within the site boundary represent a single Mississippian village or are they the result of materials accumulated from a sequence of individual farmstead occupations? What was the spatial organization of activities within individual occupations? How did site function change over time, and was the site more intensively occupied during some subperiods (e.g., Early! Middle Mississippian) than during others?*

Types of resources that were collected and used: *3. What kinds of specialized production activities occurred at the site? Was there any relationship between the identified double apex stonefish weir (9FN281) in the Toccoa River and the possible collection and processing of aquatic resources at 9FN341?*

Site position within Mississippian settlement patterns in the region: *4. What place did the site hold within a regional settlement system? Are sites similar to 9FN341 likely to have occurred throughout the valley, or was this a unique site type that occupied the apex of a settlement hierarchy?*

Report Number: 6711

Site Number: 9CE100/114, 9CE101, 9CE1733, and 9CE1938

Title: ARCHAEOLOGICAL MITIGATION OF SITES 9CE100/114, 9CE101, 9CE1733, AND 9CE1938 FOR FORT BENNING MILITARY RESERVATION IN CHATTAHOOCHEE COUNTY, GEORGIA

Location: Chattahoochee County, Ga

Year: 2011

Author(s): Panamerican Consultants, LeeAnne Wendt, Rosalie T. Gorecki, Kelley Sommers, and H. Lee Harrison, Jr.

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Department of the Army

Impacted Tribes: Creek → 9CE1733 has potential for human remains and should be closely monitored

Tribal Consultation: "In particular, time and appropriate process for the removal of Indian burials must be allowed in project planning in accordance with the Native American Graves & Protection Act of 1990. Consultation with the Federally recognized Tribes associated with Fort Benning shall be directed by the installation with assistance provided by the contractor, as needed" -SOW

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Remote Sensing and hand excavation at each site. Visual and subsurface examinations.

Research Goals and Questions: Panamerican seems to use the same set of research goals and sets for every site, regardless of variation in time period and site type. These include

Occupational History: age of each component, occupational duration, identify types and changes in material culture over time

Site Function: occupational focus, evidence for seasonality in occupation, changes in site use over time

Subsistence: identify types of plants and animals and how they change over time

Technology: identify types of tools, variation in lithic reduction strategies, types of raw materials used

Trade and Exchange: Presence of non-local cherts, site role in local and intraregional trade (none of the Native American artifacts were non-local).

Report Number: 6725

Site Number: 9CE578, 9CE608, and 9CE876

Title: GOODHOPE ACCESS ROADS: ARCHAEOLOGICAL MITIGATION OF SITES 9CE578, 9CE608, AND 9CE876 FOR FORT BENNING MILITARY RESERVATION IN CHATTAHOOCHEE COUNTY, GEORGIA

Location: Chattahoochee County, Ga

Year: 2011

Author(s): Panamerican Consultants, Paul Jackson

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Department of the Army

Impacted Tribes: Creek

Tribal Consultation: "In particular, time and appropriate process for the removal of Indian burials must be allowed in project planning in accordance with the Native American Graves & Protection Act of 1990. Consultation with the Federally recognized Tribes associated with Fort Benning shall be directed by the installation with assistance provided by the contractor, as needed" -SOW

NRHP Eligible: Only the Southern Portion of 9CE876 is eligible

Methods Summary: Remote Sensing and hand excavation at each site. Visual and subsurface examinations.

Research Goals and Questions: Panamerican seems to use the same set of research goals and sets for every site, regardless of variation in time period and site type. These include

Occupational History: age of each component, occupational duration, identify types and changes in material culture over time

Site Function: occupational focus, evidence for seasonality in occupation, changes in site use over time

Subsistence: identify types of plants and animals and how they change over time

Technology: identify types of tools, variation in lithic reduction strategies, types of raw materials used

Trade and Exchange: Presence of non-local cherts, site role in local and intraregional trade (none of the Native American artifacts were non-local).

Report Number: 7674

Site Number: 9CE873, 9CE894, 9CE899, 9CE910: Focus on 9CE873 as it was the only site with a significant amount of identifiable artifacts. All contained debitage

Title: Archaeological Mitigation of Four sites (9CE873, 9CE894, 9CE899, and 9CE910) Within Training Area B-06, Fort Benning Military Reservation, Chattahoochee County, Georgia

Location: Fort Benning Military Reservation, Chattahoochee County, Georgia

Year: 2012

Author(s): Panamerican Consultants Inc. Terrestrial Archaeology Division, Amy Carruth, Klint Baggett, Kenny Pearce, Kelley Sommers

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Department of the Army

Impacted Tribes: Probably the Lower Creek,

Tribal Consultation: None mentioned. The SOW said that "Consultation with the Federally recognized Tribes associated with Fort Benning shall be directed by the installation with assistance provided by the contractor, as needed" (Appendix D). However, no other mention is made

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: GPR was used at site 9CE873. GPR data along with info from earlier investigations and site topography was used to determine where to place excavation units. Shovel tests were done across the site, and then units were placed. Units were mostly 2x2m (two were 2.5x2x1) and were dug in 10cm levels and terminated after 2 sterile levels.

Research Goals and Questions: Even though the time periods associated with the sites was vastly different (Archaic through the early 20th century), the research questions/themes for all

were the same. They were: Occupational History, Site Function, Subsistence, Technology, Trade and Exchange, *See report 6709 for more details*

Results and Conclusions: Several lithic tools and chert debitage were found, as well as one fiber tempered plain ceramic sherd. Also, some historic materials. Based on the materials found, it is likely that the site was never a long-term habitation site. Rather it was probably used as a campsite for seasonal rounds. The site was probably occupied intermittently from the late archaic through the middle woodland. Then, it was left empty until the 19th century. Really the only research themes that were addressed for this site were occupational history and some theories were proposed about site function.

Report Number: 7507

Site Number: 9BK14

Title: Archaeological Investigations at the Gertrude Shell Midden Site, 9BK14, Burke County, Georgia

Location: Burke County, Ga

Year: 2013

Author(s): Jerald Ledbetter, Lisa D. O'Steen

Phase: Not sure actually. Still included because it was a case that was different from the others I look at.

Funding Institution: Georgia Council on American Indian Concerns, Georgia Department of Natural Resources

Impacted Tribes: Although there were definite human remains at the site, the report makes no mention of which tribes were impacted

Tribal Consultation: There is also no mention of consultation efforts.

NRHP Eligible: Not sure

Methods Summary:

Research Goals and Questions: The main goal at this site was to restore, identify and rebury the disturbed human remains, but there were also efforts to determine whether any cultural deposits remained

Results and Conclusions:

Additional Information: The site had previously been looted, and human remains had been exposed to the surface. The looting was discovered by DNR personnel who contacted the state archaeologist. The looters were found, arrested and prosecuted. Additionally, a portion of the court fines were set aside for "site restoration, reburial of human remains, limited site investigation, and analysis and curation of a sample of the disturbed artifacts found on the surface of the site."

Report Number: 8102

Site Number: 9GO297

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery Mitigation of 9GO297

Location: Gordon County, Ga near New Echota National Landmark and Cultural Property (but not culturally affiliated).

Year: 2015

Author(s): New South Associates: Scot Keith, Leslie Raymer, Valerie Davis, Patrick Severts, Keith Seramur

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Atkins Global and Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: The Cherokee Nation, the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians, and the United Keetoowah Band of Cherokee Indians were all involved in the MOA. Members of the Muscogee Creek Tribe also visited the site.

Tribal Consultation: Yes. An MOA was reached between the Cherokee Nation, the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians, the United Keetoowah Band of Cherokee Indians, the State Parks and Historic Sites Division of the Georgia Department of Natural Resources (DNR), FHWA, GDOT, and the Historic Preservation Division of the DNR. The MOA included stipulations such as allowing the Cherokee Nation to receive a first draft and final copy of the report; the possibility of using abandoned sections of SR 225 for a trail with educational purposes; the development of a landscape plan for New Echota that includes new signs, sculptures, etc.; archaeological data should be made available to tribal governments. (Volume 2, Appendix F).

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: In total, about 702 meters were excavated using a combination of machine and hand excavation.

Research Goals and Questions: Research issues were developed for each temporal component of the site as well as a few for all components of the site. Research goals and questions for all components of the site included: Site formation processes, layout and function, settlement patterns, chronology, subsistence, and lithic technology and activities.

Early-Middle Archaic: Settlement and Chronology

Woodland: Settlement and Site Function, Woodland structures, The Nature of Swift Creek cultures, Ceramic technologies (hunter gatherer pottery use, *C*hanges and Continuity in Ceramic Technology, Style, and Form, Sacred and Secular Pottery in the Middle Woodland Period), Subsistence, Defining Woodland traits

Mississippian and Historic Woodland: least represented period, Settlement, Subsistence, Material Culture and cultural change

Report Number: 9574 and 10051

Site Number: 9HT249

Title: ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA RECOVERY PLAN FOR SITE 9HT249 (10051) and ASSESSMENT OF EFFECTS REPORT GDOT PROJECT P.I. NO. 0011685, SR247 BRIDGE REPLACEMENTS OVER BIG INDIAN CREEK, HOUSTON COUNTY (9574).

Location: Houston County, Ga

Year: 2016

Author(s): Edwards-Pitman Environmental Inc.

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Georgia Department of Transportation

Impacted Tribes: Muscogee (Creek) Nation, Muscogee (Creek) National Council, Poarch Band of Creek Indians, Seminole Tribe of Florida, and the Thlopthlocco Tribal Town

Tribal Consultation: All of the above tribes were invited to participate in the section 106 Process, but no more is mentioned about their involvement.

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Not enough information. Possibly 5 m close interval shovel testing.

Research Goals and Questions: Total of 6 research goals, but one is missing from the reports. The other 5 are

Refuse Disposal to look at extent or duration of occupation; site function to determine if it was a seasonal camp; regional variation in subsistence practices, settlement patterns and exotic resource materials

Additional Notes: Neither of these reports was complete, so I used both to get as much information as possible.

Report Number: 9391

Site Number: 9JK59

Title: Archaeological Appraisal of Rock Pile Site 9JK59 Jackson County, GA

Location: Jackson County, Ga

Year: 2016/2017

Author(s): J.H.N Loubser for Stratum Unlimited LLC

Phase: ?

Funding Institution: Watson Brown Institution, Jackson County Government

Impacted Tribes: Possibly Cherokee or Creek people.

Tribal Consultation: No mention of direct consultation with any Native American tribes. However, while doing background research on stone piles, Cherokee oral narratives, writings and ethno-historic records were consulted. Additionally, the report makes a mention of minimally invasive techniques that can be used when studying rock piles. These techniques include remote sensing, taking core soil samples and chemical analyses.

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Used GPS, GIS and LIDAR to map the site and pinpoint specific objects and locations. Surface survey, aerial photos and metal detectors were used first, and then shovel tests were done at 10m intervals in a cross shape across the site. Based on the results of the shovel tests 3 1x1 m test units were excavated near well-defined stone piles. Units were subdivided into 20cm squares and excavated at 10cm levels, and rocks and soil samples were removed and placed to the side.

Research Goals and Questions: The main goal was to essentially just to establish the age of the site: " The main aim was to determine if the piles rest in a plow zone (i.e., are historic in age), rest in undisturbed soils (i.e., are probably prehistoric), contain or cover prehistoric features and/or artifacts, or were piled on top of historic artifacts."

Results and Conclusions: Results from the shovel tests showed that there was very little disturbance of the plow zone, which meant there had not been a lot of human activity during the historic period. Further dating of these stone piles is difficult because they usually do not have a lot of easily dateable archaeological materials. However, based on artifacts recovered from other nearby sites, one artifact near the base of one of the stone piles, and the relatively shallow depth of the piles, it is estimated that these piles likely date to the Late Lamar period (1550-1670 A.D.). Some of the piles had similar hexagonal shapes, but otherwise they were all very different in regard to size, shape, type and number of rocks used, etc. Based on their shape, these piles are very rare and should be preserved and used as an educational tool for the public.

Additional Notes: I don't think this actually falls under Section 106 review. I kept it in though because it talks about using Cherokee oral histories for background research and less invasive methodologies that can be used.

Report Number: 13911

Site Number: 9GO375 and 9GO390

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at Sites 9GO375 and 9GO390 On the Center Point Moss Lake No.2 Transmission Line

Location: Gordon County, Georgia

Year: 2018

Author(s): Stefan Brannan and Scot Keith for New South Associates

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Tennessee Valley Authority

Impacted Tribes: Specific tribal communities are not mentioned, but "No remnants of the Muscogee (Creek) Confederacy remained in Georgia after their forced removal to Oklahoma and no federally recognized tribes or groups currently reside in the state. Federally recognized descendant communities connected to the historic Muscogee (Creek) Confederacy, either directly or indirectly, include the Muscogee (Creek) Nation, the Poarch Band of Creeks, the Seminole Tribe of Florida, and the Seminole Nation of Oklahoma." AND "No known members affiliated with the Cherokee Nation remained in Georgia after their forced removal to Oklahoma and no federally recognized tribes or groups are currently based in the state. Federally recognized descendant communities connected to the historic Cherokee Nation include the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians, those that remained behind after Removal in 1838, the Cherokee Nation of Oklahoma, and the United Keetoowah Band."

Additionally, tribal concerns were taken into account when it came to plow zone contexts.

Tribal Consultation: Federally Recognized Indian Tribes were consulted and entered into a MOA with the TVA and Georgia SHPO.

Recommended NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Archaeological "Fieldwork at sites 9GO375 and 9GO390 included total station mapping, block excavations, feature excavations, soil sampling, sample collection for specialized analysis, and digital photography" (77). Excavations were both hand excavations of 1x1 m units and stripping of the plow zone. Most of the excavations were done in 10cm levels. At 9GO375, there were 100 contiguous hand excavated test units and a 436 square meter machine stripped block. 9GO390 had 3 blocks of continuous 1x1 m test units, 1 block of different sized test units and 2 blocks of machine stripped ground. Previously known archaeological features and areas where new structures were supposed to go were located and mapped with the total station first. Test units were then placed in areas with high artifact concentration and where there was a high potential for intact and well-preserved artifacts. Cultural features were excavated completely

Research Goals and Questions: Sites both provide a good opportunity to compare early archaic and Mississippian periods, and provide information on site layout, function, and subsistence practices. The organization of technology was used as a framework for the analysis and interpretation of these sites. 14 specific research question were outlined

- What is the nature of the lithic technological organization?
- What types of cultural features are associated with the sites? Are there additional storage pits, structural features, or other cultural features present?
- Given the quantity of debitage and presence of cores, did either site serve lithic workshop functions?
- What reduction technologies were used?
- Do the types, quantities, and distribution of lithic materials suggest the signature of a specialized procurement site?
- Are there intra-site artifact and feature patterns that might suggest that activity areas can be identified, or was each site a general-purpose area serving multiple functions?

- Is there evidence to suggest that either site served as a specialized procurement location?
- Did either site serve as a hunting camp?
- Does the location reflect use of elevated ground near the Oostanaula River?
- How do the sites relate to each other and other sites in the region?
- Do the raw materials sources yield information on residential mobility patterns?
- Does the evidence indicate a permanent year-round occupation, a seasonal recurrent occupation, or an irregular but recurrent occupation?
- At 9GO375, given this is a single component Early Woodland occupation, what is the specific time range of the site?
- At 9GO390, was there continual occupation from the Middle Archaic through the Early Woodland periods, or was the site abandoned and reoccupied?

Report Number: 11530

Site Number: 9GE552

Title: Phase III Archaeological Data Recovery at the Horseshoe Bend Site (9GE552) in Reynolds Lake Oconee Development

Location: Greene County, Ga

Year: 2019 (field work 2017-2018)

Author(s): Brockington and Associates; Scott Butler, Meagan Brady, Carolyn Rock

Phase: III

Funding Institution: Reynolds Lake Oconee, LLC and Savannah District U.S. Army Corps of Engineers

Impacted Tribes: N/A

Tribal Consultation: Not mentioned. The report mentions consultation between the funding institution(s), the SHPO and Brockington, but there is no mention of impacted tribes or tribal consultation.

NRHP Eligible: Yes

Methods Summary: Relocate original test units from earlier phases. Excavated 2x2 meter units starting with a known artifact concentration. Additional units were placed in areas where there was the possibility of uncovering a structure. After hand excavations were completed, a track

excavator was used to mechanically scrape an additional 400 square meters at 10 cm intervals. The purpose of this was to find any additional intact subsurface features that had been missed during earlier excavations. Were extra careful with the collection of charcoal for dating purposes.

Research Goals and Questions: 5 main research topics.

1. Building layout and house configuration: "*What was the building layout at 9GE552? Does this layout match other patterns identified at more upland Lamar farmsteads? Was the domestic house rectangular or round? Did these building layouts and house configurations change over time?"*

2. Site Chronology: "*Does 9GE552 represent a single longer-term Dyar Phase occupation, or two (or more) short-term occupations?"*

3. Site Comparison: "*How does Site 9GE552 compare with other Lamar farmsteads along the Oconee River? How does it compare with Lamar farmsteads in upland settings?"*

4. Red Pebbles: "*What were the uses of "red pebbles" on Lamar sites? Does their presence indicate a technological shift in cooking or baking? Perhaps their use corresponds in a greater reliance on small seeds, hickory nuts, or some other food source not previously relied on heavily?"*

5. Diet and Nutrition: "*What plants and animals were utilized by the site occupants at 9GE552? Did subsistence strategy change over time?"*

Appendix B: Consent Form and Survey

Consent Form for Online Surveys

You are invited to participate in a web-based online survey on the relationship between members of Indigenous Tribal Nations who are involved in heritage management and historic preservation and archaeologists employed by cultural resource management (CRM) consulting firms. For the purposes of this survey, we are defining "CRM archaeologist" as those individuals working for such companies as opposed to nation-to-nation relationships between Tribal Nations and federal agencies. This research will clarify how archaeological research, specifically Phase III data recoveries, can yield better data for both archaeologists and Indigenous Tribal Nations and facilitate stronger professional relationships between CRM archaeologists and tribal representatives who are involved in cultural heritage and archaeology. This research should also contribute towards improving the relationship and understanding between these two groups and help improve understanding of thoughts and feelings about the current implementation of Section 106 Consultation requirements. This is a research project being conducted by Julianne Clark, a graduate student at The University of Georgia. It should take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason.

BENEFITS

You will receive no direct benefits from participating in this research study. However, your responses will help us learn more about the current state of collaboration in CRM and how to improve it.

RISKS

There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your survey answers will be recorded via Qualtrics.com where data will be stored in a password protected account. Qualtrics will not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. Therefore, your responses will remain anonymous to everyone including the researcher. If the answer to a question includes wording, language or information that could possibly be linked to a certain individual, the identifying information will be left out of any publications or presentations. No one will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study.

At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you are interested in receiving an email copy of the final thesis paper. If you choose to provide contact information such as your phone number or email address, your survey responses may no longer be anonymous to the researcher. However, no names or identifying information would be included in any publications or presentations based on these data, and your responses to this survey will remain confidential.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact me via email at Julianne.clark@uga.edu or my research supervisor, Professor Jennifer Birch via email at jabirch@uga.edu

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form or that your rights as a participant in research have not been honored during the course of this project, or if you have any questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, you may contact the University of Georgia Institutional Review Board at 212 Tucker Hall, 310 E. Campus Rd., Athens, GA 30602 or email irb@uga.edu.

ELECTRONIC CONSENT: Please select your choice below. You may print a copy of this consent form for your records. Clicking on the "Agree" button indicates that

- You have read the above information
- You voluntarily agree to participate
- You are 18 years of age or older

¨ Agree

¨ Disagree

Survey Questions:

1. For the purposes of this survey, we are defining "CRM archaeologists" as those individuals working for such companies as opposed to nation-to-nation relationships between Tribal Nations and federal agencies. What is the frequency with which you

communicate (via email, phone, Zoom, in person, etc.) with Cultural Resource Management (CRM) archaeologists?

- Once a year
- Twice a year
- Three times a year
- Four or more times

2. Would you consider your organization's communication with CRM archaeologists as?
   - Largely positive
   - Somewhat positive
   - Neutral
   - Somewhat negative
   - Largely negative
3. How do these conversations most commonly occur?
   - As a part of NAGPRA consultation
   - As part of Section 106
   - Unsolicited conversation outside of a specific project
   - In field progress reports
   - Post-field results
   - When your Nation reaches out regarding archaeological resources
4. What methods are you most comfortable with archaeologists using in the field?
   - Very uncomfortable, somewhat uncomfortable, somewhat comfortable, very comfortable
   - Pedestrian Surface Survey

- Geophysics (GPR, LiDAR, Magnetometry, etc.)
- Shovel Tests
- Excavation, including funerary contexts
- Excavation, excluding funerary contexts
- Other
- Decline to answer

5. Archaeologists frequently use the following time periods to divide up historical periods. In what periods of your history are you most interested? Please rank from least to most interested with 5 being least interested and 1 being most interested.
   - Paleo-Indian (Before ~8000 BC)
   - Archaic (~8000 BC- 1200 BC)
   - Woodland (~1200 BC-1000 AD)
   - Mississippian (~1000 AD -1600 AD)
   - European Contact
   - European Contact - 1800 AD
   - 1800 AD-1900 AD
   - 1900 AD-1970 AD
6. Do you feel like the culture-historical periods outlined above accurately represent how you think about your history?
   - Yes
   - No
   - Decline to answer
7. Please indicate how relevant the following research topics are to your Tribal Nation.

- Please rank from least to most relevant with 5 being least relevant and 1 being most relevant.

■ Site Formation processes (ex. site burial processes, later human action, plant and animal activity, etc.)

■ Settlement patterns (ex. where people were living, how people interacted between and/or within sites)

■ Site Chronology/age (ex. how old the site is and relative time periods of occupation and use)

■ Ceramic/lithic technologies (ex. what types of ceramics and lithics were being used at the site)

■ Diet/Nutrition (ex. what types of plants and animals' people were eating, where nutrients came from)

■ Subsistence Patterns (ex. agriculture/foraging/hunting, etc.)

■ Population movement/migration (ex. movement between sites and across the landscape)

8. Each of the following questions has been asked as a part of a Phase III research project. Please indicate how relevant to your Nation's historical interest the information that would come from answering these questions is. Please rank from least to most interesting with 5 being least interesting and 1 being most interesting.

■ What (lithic) reduction technologies were used at the site?

■ How are the cultural occupations represented through the material remains?

■ What (ceramic) evidence is there for a sacred and secular material culture dichotomy?

- Can patterns of intra-site variability be elucidated? If so, do specific activities vary temporally as well?
- What plants and animals were utilized by the site occupants?
- Did subsistence strategy change over time?
- Are similar sites likely to have occurred throughout the region, or was this a unique site type that occupied the apex of a settlement hierarchy?
- Was the region occupied by groups that were culturally related to communities in neighboring regions, or did populations in the study area have a unique set of traditions including material culture styles and political history?
- Were exotic resource materials present at the site?
- Do the raw materials sources yield information on residential mobility patterns?

9. Is there any way that the questions listed above could be improved?
10. Has your office/government developed a set of formal research questions that you want to see employed in archaeological and historical research?
    - Yes
    - No
11. If your office/government have developed a set of formal questions, and you are willing to share them, what are they?
12. Do you, as an individual or agent of your tribal nation, have research questions you are personally interested in, and if you are willing to share them, what are they?
13. Would you like to have the opportunity to name sites?
    - Yes
    - No

14. What other aspects of the archaeological process would you like to be more involved in?
15. What do you think collaboration between tribal nations and CRM archaeologists should include?
16. Is there anything else you think I, or CRM archaeologists in general, should know about how the CRM process impacts Indigenous history?
17. Would you like to receive a copy of this thesis upon completion?
    - If so, please include the email address to which you would like it sent. This information will be completely left out of any published work.