

# *Cultural Resources Survey of the Proposed Kirby Parkway Alternate Q, Shelby County, Tennessee*



***PREPARED FOR:***

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**DRAFT REPORT — OCTOBER 2006**

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**CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF  
THE PROPOSED KIRBY PARKWAY ALTERNATE Q,  
SHELBY COUNTY, TENNESSEE**

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**OCTOBER 2006**

## **MANAGEMENT SUMMARY**

At the request of Palmer Engineering Company, Inc. and the Tennessee Department of Transportation (TDOT), the Memphis office of Panamerican Consultants, Inc. (PCI) conducted a Phase I archaeological survey for the proposed Kirby Parkway "Alternate Q" in Shelby County, Tennessee. Work followed the "Scope of Work for TDOT Phase I Archaeological Assessments" (Hodge and Kline 2006). The purpose of this study was to identify any archaeological resources present within the Right-of-Way (ROW) for the proposed road connection through Shelby Farms and also to provide appropriate management recommendations for any such resources encountered.

Fieldwork for this archaeological survey was conducted on October 9 and 10, 2006, by a crew of three. No sites were encountered or recorded during this work. One previously recorded site, 40SY642, was mapped as within a portion of the project area, but was not relocated and is presumed destroyed by agricultural practices.

As no new sites were recorded and Site 40SY642 is presumed destroyed, we recommend the project area cleared from further archaeological work.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

Panamerican Consultants, Inc. appreciates the opportunity to have provided Palmer Engineering Company, Inc with these archaeological services. Mr. Chris Blevins served as representative for Parsons Brinkerhoff during the course of the project. Mr. Gerald Kline served as representative for the of the Tennessee Department of Transportation. These individuals thanked for their assistance.

Suzanne Hoyal, site files curator at the Tennessee Division of Archaeology, is thanked for her assistance during the literature and records search for the project.

Panamerican personnel who contributed to the project include the following individuals: Kate Gilow, who provided administrative support during all phases of the project; archaeological technicians Terry Childs and Phil Landry; and Jessie Flanders, who edited this document.

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## **INTRODUCTION**

At the request of Palmer Engineering Company, Inc. and the Tennessee Department of Transportation (TDOT), the Memphis office of Panamerican Consultants, Inc. (PCI) conducted a Phase I archaeological survey for the proposed Kirby Parkway "Alternate Q" in Shelby County, Tennessee. Fieldwork was conducted on October 9 and 10, 2006. Additionally, work followed the "Scope of Work for TDOT Phase I Archaeological Assessments" (Hodge and Kline 2006). The purpose of this study was to identify any archaeological resources present within the Right-of-Way (ROW) for the proposed highway improvements and also to provide appropriate management recommendations for any such resources encountered.

As several archaeological sites are known to be in the vicinity of the study area, Palmer Engineering was requested to comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended: Executive order 11593, the Advisory Council's "Protection of Historic Sites (36 CFR Part 800)," effective June 17, 1999. All field and office work was conducted in accordance with the Standards and Guidelines established in 36 CFR Part 66, Recovery of Scientific, Prehistoric, Historic, and Archaeological Data: Methods, Standards and Reporting Requirements (Federal Register, Volume 42, Number 19-Friday, January 18, 1977).

### ***PROJECT LOCATION***

The proposed alternate route for Kirby Parkway is located in Shelby Farms, near the south-central portion of Shelby County. Specifically the proposed route extends from the intersection of Whitten and Mullins Station roads westwards to Farm Road and then south-southwest to Walnut Grove Road (Figure 1.01). The proposed route runs through hayfields, cultivated fields, and woods. It is approximately 2.9 km (1.8 mi.) long and has a right-of-way approximately 67 m (220 ft.) wide.

### ***REPORT OUTLINE***

The technical report that follows is organized in the following manner (see also Table of Contents). The most salient aspects of the local environmental setting area are outlined in Chapter 2. A discussion of the local cultural sequence in southwest Tennessee is provided in Chapter 3. The results of the literature and records search are presented in Chapter 4. The field methods and results are presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 provides a summary and recommendations. A references cited concludes the report.

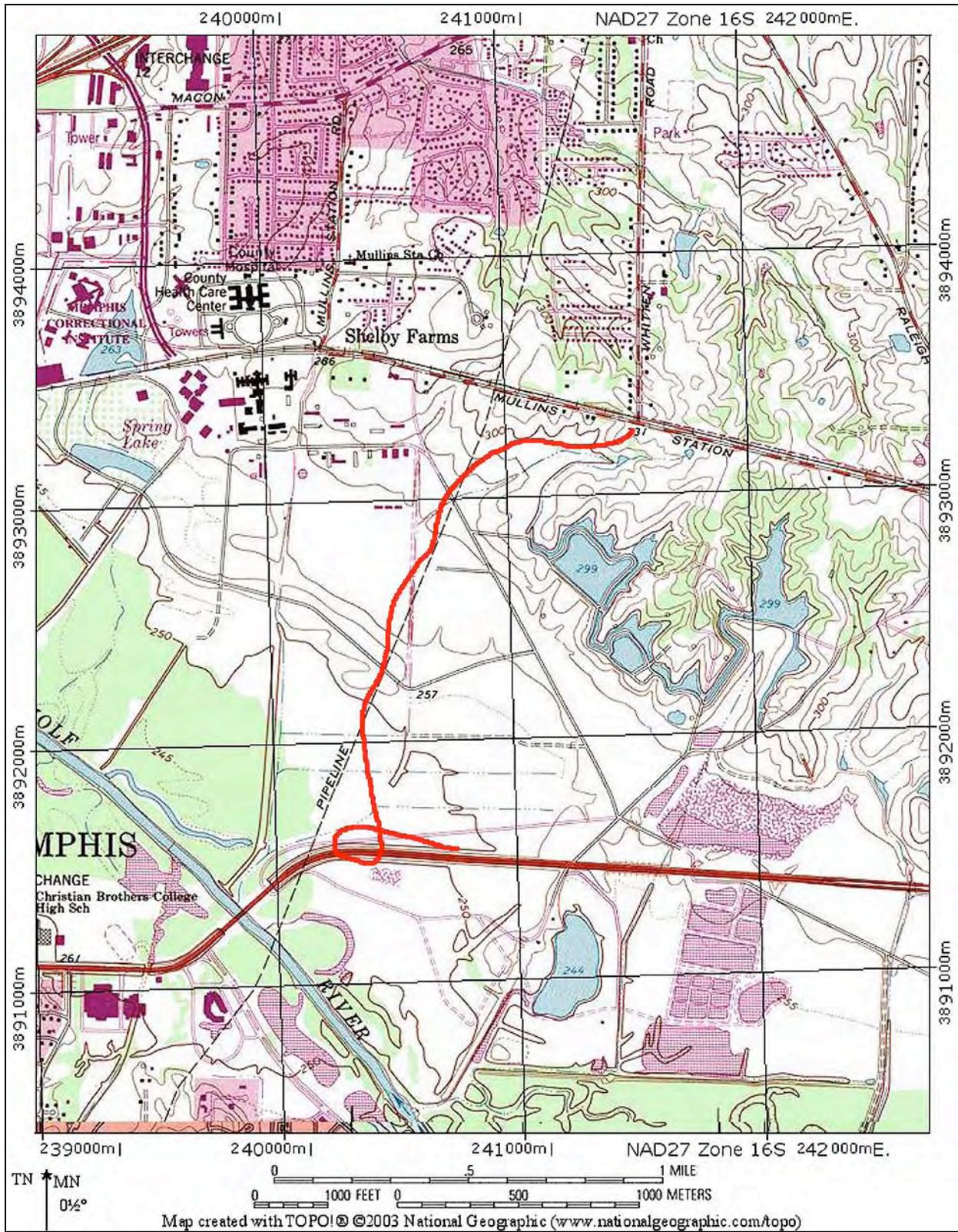


Figure 1-01. Kirby Parkway "Alternate Q" project area, shown in red (base map: 1965 Ellendale, TN 7.5 minute quadrangle, photorevised 1983).

## **ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING**

The project area crosses Pleistocene terraces and the floodplain of the Wolf River. This study reviews the existing models of Pleistocene and Holocene fluvial development and chronology within the Tennessee/Lower Mississippi River basins. Eolian deposition of loess during the Pleistocene and Holocene periods, as well as alluvial deposition on the floodplains of the area, has resulted in wide terrace deposits and intensively dissected uplands. Terrain observations, previous archaeological surveys, and profile descriptions have yielded a model of the Late Holocene fluvial history of the area investigated.

### ***PALEOCLIMATES***

For the Late Pleistocene and Holocene periods, H. Delcourt (1979), P. Delcourt (1979), and Delcourt et al. (1980) have defined a series of forests and climates that alternated in the upland Southeast. The Wisconsin glacial advance began at roughly 20,000 B.P., terminating by about 12,500 B.P. A major warming period was also noted between 16,300 and 12,500 B.P. During the Late Wisconsin—the continental glacier's maximum advance—forests of spruce, fir, and jack pine were dominant in the area. During the climatic amelioration by 12,000 B.P., the deciduous forest replaced the more cold-hardy spruce-fir climate. Ash, hickory, birch, butternut, beech, and maple became the dominant species. The spruce-fir forests gradually retreated north to the Canadian border states.

During the following Early Holocene, from 12,500 to 8,000 B.P., the mixed mesophytic forest existed in a cool temperate environment in the middle Tennessee area. The Hypsithermal Interval or Middle Holocene, began by 6,000–2,500 B.P. The climate became warmer and slightly drier. There were local extinctions of the mesic forest and a shift to a more xeric oak-chestnut forest (H. Delcourt 1979; Watts 1975). At the conclusion of the Hypsithermal the climate stabilized, and the mixed-species forest continued until the first European settlers entered the area.

### ***MODERN FLORA***

The biotic community of western Tennessee has been defined by Shelford (1963) as a mixed oak-hickory forest characteristic of the upland Southeast general region. This includes the earlier designation of mixed mesic and western mesic forests that Braun (1950) defined for the area. The botanic community has been modified over the last 200 years by Euro-American settlement. By the mid-nineteenth century, the forests were all cut and cleared for cultivation with an emphasis on cotton. Within 100 years, the loess upland soils had become heavily eroded, and cotton cultivation became less successful. The marginal upland soils were abandoned for agriculture and left fallow or converted to pasture. The abandoned fields have started successive growth to a pine forest subclimax, and hardwood species are succeeding the pine forest.

### ***GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND***

The project area is situated within the western Tennessee portion of the Gulf Coastal Plain physiographic province (Fenneman 1938). The terrain of Shelby County can be described as level to gently rolling upland terrain with poorly drained lowlands. The area is part of the Loess Hills, which trend north-south following the Mississippi River from southwestern Kentucky to central Mississippi (Thornbury 1965). The eolian silt-loess was deposited during the Pleistocene-Early Holocene interstitial periods when the continental glaciers melted and the Mississippi River, overloaded with sediment, shifted to a braided stream channel (Saucier 1974). Wind erosion picked up the loose silt and blew it east, following the prevailing winds. The loess in Tennessee has been divided into four stratigraphic units that are separated by buried soils. The loess reaches a maximum depth of 30 m on the Chickasaw Bluffs, overlooking the Mississippi River floodplain; it rapidly thins to six to seven meters or less within 16 km east of the bluffs

(Sterns et al. 1989). Minimal deposits of loess soils are reported up to 160 km east of the Mississippi River (Hardeman 1966).

Marcher (1959) first discussed the deposition of loess in Dyer County, in west Tennessee, associated with a Pleistocene-age elk fossil preserved within loess deposits. Brister et al. (1981) describe the occurrence of mastodon remains in Nonconnah Creek, in Shelby County, during the Late Wisconsin glacial advance. Smith (1979b) has estimated a deposition rate of 1.5 ft. per 1,000 years since the Late Pleistocene based on data from mastodon remains in Memphis. Recovery of lithic debris incorporated within a loess horizon may have potential for dating early Holocene settlements within western Tennessee.

Beneath the loess deposits, Pliocene/Pleistocene-age fluvial deposits consist of a stratum up to 70 ft. thick of reddish sand with gravel and clay. The Lafayette gravel or Citronelle formation, consisting of chert and quartz pebbles as well as occasional exotic chert specimens, occurs in localized beds (Sterns et al. 1989). This was deposited in the ancestral Mississippi River alluvium. Below the Quaternary-age materials, the Tertiary-age material consists of the Jackson, Claiborne-Wilcox, and Midway group of loosely consolidated sands and clays. Ferruginous sandstone occurs in fragipan deposits throughout the area. Russell and Parks (1975) have described sandstone exposed in truncated hillside profiles throughout the west Tennessee area. The lowest strata exposed in the Chickasaw Bluffs consist of Eocene-age alluvial deposits. The Cook Mountain formation and the Memphis sand, as well as lignite, have been mapped. Lignite, a low-quality coal with limited commercial potential, has been discovered in deposits up to three meters thick.

The dendritic drainage pattern within the Gulf Coastal Plain of western Tennessee has produced broad upland topography with gently rolling hills. The drainage channels are narrow and deeply incised with a V-shaped cross section near their middle segment. In their lower segments, the drainage channels widen to become meandering, wide valleys. The drainage is west trending toward the Mississippi River in western Tennessee.

Modeling floodplain development, Chorley (1971), Schumm (1977), Schumm and Parker (1973), and Schumm and Brackenridge (1987) have proposed that changes in environmental input may be responsible for changes in the depositional pattern within the fluvial systems. The deposition and erosion of river levees and terraces are attributable to fluctuations in temperature and precipitation. Subsequent changes in vegetation, runoff, and sediments available resulted in the Holocene fluvial development. This study follows the hypothesis that the effects of Quaternary environmental change will be reflected in the rates and patterns of river terrace development and soil horizon processes within the terraces. Sea level, as well as local base levels within a drainage, also affects the cycles of deposition, erosion, and meandering within a drainage profile.

An interpretation of regionally significant environmental fluxion within the preceding 10,000 years is critical for the interpretation of the upland Mississippi River Valley fluvial development. This preliminary analysis presents a model for interpreting problems of archaeological site interpretation and geomorphologic predictive modeling of alluviated cultural deposits.

In the Duck River Basin of middle Tennessee, Brackenridge (1984) and Mahaffy (1983) have developed a descriptive model of the Holocene fluvial features as a series of alluvial terraces, river levees, and lithostratigraphic units. The distinctive features developed by Brackenridge for describing the floodplain alluvial terraces and levees will be identified on the basis of seven criteria: (1) elevation above the present river level; (2) relative distance from the river channel; (3) typical particle size distribution of sediments collected from vertical profiles; (4) soil classification of surface sediments; (5) a series of related pedogenic features, including elevation,

alluviation, oxidation, and precipitation of iron (Fe) and manganese (Mn); (6) the age of archaeological remains within the terrace deposits; and (7) soil types developed by the USDA.

Radiocarbon samples and archaeological materials within the soil profiles have dated the lithostratigraphic units. Brackenridge (1984) has described the following informal system. The second terrace is designated as T-2, the first alluvial terrace as T-1, and the active floodplain closest to the present river channel as T-0. These alluvial features have been named and a set of distinctive features defined. These features are defined as follows: The Cheek bend formation (T-2) was deposited between 18,000 and 10,000 B.P.; the Cannon Bend formation (T-1a) was deposited between 10,000 and 6,000 B.P.; the Leftwich formation (T-1b) was deposited between 6,400 and 3,000 B.P.; and the Sowell Mill formation (T-0) was deposited in two episodes, one starting in 500 B.P. and the second in 120 B.P. These periods of floodplain stability and alluviation can be generally correlated with periods of Holocene climatic shift in eastern North America. The archaeological record within the floodplain helps date the deposits and understanding the Holocene depositional sequence helps predict the location of alluviated archaeological sites.

Saucier (1974) has noted that the present terrace features were shaped during the Wisconsin glaciation from 70,000-10,000 B.P., although earlier Sangamonian terrace remnants are also identified. The Pleistocene-age alluvial deposits form the upper terraces that border the drainage channels 20–45 m higher than the present course. The lower alluvial deposits comprise the Holocene terraces, which also parallel the present drainage channels at one to eight m higher than the current floodplain levels. Brackenridge (1981) has identified corresponding features in the Pomme de Terre River of southern Missouri. In the upper Tombigbee River, Muto and Gunn (1981) have described a similar set of topographic features. Late Pleistocene-Early Holocene transition in Tennessee uplands has been described by H. Delcourt (1979). The initial deposition of Holocene floodplains can be dated to the climatic amelioration that began following the retreat of the Laurentide Ice Sheet at 15,000–10,000 years B.P. and the replacement of boreal spruce and fir forests with southern deciduous forests. H. Delcourt (1979) has also described this climatic transition as one of increasing warmth and precipitation.

Tundra conditions in the higher elevations or southern Appalachians were largely gone by 12,500 B.P. At this time, the alluvial valleys in the upland Southeast were flushed, and the second terrace (T-2) scarp was created. The second terrace is consistent and distinctive within the upland southeastern river systems. It is elevated 10–15 m above the floodplain, and a conspicuous scarp is present. This sedimentation is consistent with the early Farmdalian interstitial epoch. Basal deposits in this terrace have been dated at Watts Bar to 32,380 B.P. and 31,280 B.P. by Chapman (1977). During the ensuing Holocene, a new series of floodplain features was deposited. This transition resulted in the flushing of sediment from the uplands and rapid aggradation of the adjacent floodplains. At Bussell Island, Foley and Chapman (1977:82) reported radiocarbon dates of 14,910 B.P. and 10,810 B.P. for organic deposits interbedded with channel lag sands. Brackenridge (1984) also suggests a transition from the deposition of T-2b to the T-1a by 10,000 B.P., and the transition from the T-1a to the T-1b by 6,500–5,000 B.P.

Archaeological studies have indexed the geomorphologic correlates of the Hypsithermal climatic fluxion between 6,500 and 5,000 B.P. The Hypsithermal period also marks the transition between the deposition of the T-1a and T-1b deposits. In the Southeast, the period from 5,000–3,000 B.C. has been noted for extreme desiccation of the environment followed by soil profile truncation and the development of molic epidome soils with Middle Archaic settlements (Alexander 1983; Bense 1982). In the Tennessee River Valley, archaeologists are continuing to define the effect of these episodes of floodplain stability and deposition with archaeological settlement-pattern studies. Within the Nashville Basin, intact, stratified Middle and Late Archaic deposits have been described by Alexander (1982), Alexander and Walling (1995), Amick et al. (1985), Autry et al. (1989, 1991), Hofman (1984), Leach and Jackson (1987), and Mahaffy (1982). Within the

Tennessee River Valley, deep testing and excavations by Alexander (1989, 1991), Chapman (1978), H. Delcourt (1979), and Foley and Chapman (1977) documented the Middle and Late Holocene floodplain fluvial developments and archaeological settlement patterns.

Moving from the incised, mature floodplains found in the Tennessee River Valley to the meandering alluvial deposits in unconsolidated alluvial deposits of the Tertiary age in the Gulf Coastal Plain, a distinctly different set of features is encountered. This environment is less dynamic, with a large, readily available sediment load and a regionally distinct set of Holocene fluvial features.

Alexander et al. (1983), Anderson et al. (1987), Jolly (1981), Smith (1979a), and others have conducted surveys in the Gulf Coastal Plain of western Tennessee and northern Mississippi. In this area, "Midden Mounds" have been located on the T-0 floodplain of these meandering river systems. The Midden Mounds are remnants of terraces isolated during the Late Pleistocene-Early Holocene alluvial flushing of the upland drainages. These erosion remnants illustrate profile truncation at approximately 10,000 B.P., and again at 5,000 B.P. Polygonal soil development is noted in the clay subsoil beneath this profile truncation (Alexander et al. 1983; Bense 1982). Archaeological occupation of these low hills began during the Early Archaic and continued intermittently through the Mississippi period. The floodplain surrounding the erosion remnants has gradually filled with silt, and the archaeological deposits have been buried within the floodplain silts. Smith (1979a) has described Midden Mounds in other areas of west Tennessee.

## **SOILS**

Within a geological matrix of terrace and floodplain deposits, these landforms can be correlated with the Shelby County soil associations and profile descriptions. The upland terraces T-2/T-3 soils consist of the Memphis-Grenada-Loring soil association (Sease et al. 1970:7). Soils in the study area are composed of eolian loess of Pleistocene age. The uplands have been subjected to extensive erosion as a result of agriculture during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The eroded soils were redeposited on the alluvial floodplains within the drainage basin. The erosion and redeposition have resulted in low, rounded Pleistocene terraces that have been deeply dissected with dendritic erosion channels. The subsoils in these units are consistently a reddish-brown silt loam soil. Minerals and clays readily percolate through the subsoil. The manganese (Mn) concretions present within the eroded subsoil are locally referred to as "buckshot lands." Areas are noted where erosion has removed as much as two to five meters of soil (Sease et al. 1970). Erosion in the upland soils largely precludes the potential of intact upland deposits. In the project area, the Pleistocene terrace (T-2) is located above the 300 ft. AMSL contour level. The soil is mapped as Memphis silt loam, which occurs as upland terrace soils throughout the region (Sease et al. 1970:Sheet 32). The Memphis silt loam two to five percent slope is described as follows:

This is a deep, well-drained soil on broad tops of low-lying hills. The plow layer is brown, very friable silt loam 7 inches thick. The uppermost 10 to 20 inches of the subsoil is brown to reddish-brown, friable silty clay loam. Below this is brown to reddish brown, friable silt loam several ft. thick [Sease et al. 1970:29].

The Holocene terrace (T-1) at Hall Creek, at 275–290 ft. AMSL, consists of the Falaya-Waverly-Collins soil association (Sease et al. 1970:7). These soils are alluvium deposited on the floodplains during the Holocene. The Early Holocene deposits (T-1a) located at 280–290 ft. AMSL have been mapped as Collins silt loam, described by Sease et al. (1970) as follows:

This series consists of deep, level, moderately well drained silty soils on the first bottoms. These soils formed in strongly acid sediment recently washed from nearby loess hills...This is a deep, moderate well drained soil on the first bottoms. It has a silt loam texture to a depth of 3 ft. or

more. Gray mottles below a depth of about 18 inches are indications of wetness [Sease et al. 1970:14].

The post-Hypsithermal soils (T-1b) have been mapped on Hall Creek as Falaya silt loam. Sease et al. (1970) describe these soils as follows:

This series consists of somewhat poorly drained, strongly acid, nearly level, silty soils on bottom lands...This is a somewhat poorly drained, very silty, nearly level soil on the first bottoms. It occurs throughout the county, except on the Mississippi River bottoms. The surface layer is brown, friable silty loam about 6 inches thick. The underlying material is a friable silt loam that contains brown and gray mottles. It extends to a depth of several ft....In winter and early in spring, the water table is often within a foot of the surface. In summer and fall, it is several ft. below the surface. Floods cover most areas during winter and spring, but the floodwater seldom stands more than a few hours [Sease et al. 1970:16].

The wet, silty soils of the T-0 are largely composed of the Waverly-Swamp association. Sease et al. (1970) describe this soil, topographic, and alluvial association as follows:

This series consists of poorly drained, level, silty soils on low, broad first bottoms. These soils were formed in medium acid and strongly acid loess that washed from uplands...This is a poorly drained, level soil on broad first bottoms along the small rivers and creeks...The surface layer is dark grayish-brown silt loam 3 to 5 inches thick. The underlying material is gray or mottled gray and brown silt loam...This soil is flooded nearly every year. In winter and spring, the water table is seldom more than a foot below the surface... [Sease et al. 1970:35].

Very crooked, winding streams meander through these T-0 floodplain environments. The low, flat, swampy areas contain oxbow lakes that fill old stream channels scattered throughout these floodplains.

Anderson et al. (1987) describe the T-0 soils, sedimentation, and stratigraphy along the Obion River north of the project area as follows:

The major soils originally occurring along the river and now buried, are characterized by a “marsh type” morphology, with minimal pedogenic (soil) development. Most of the buried soils below the dredge spoil material showed a single surface horizon, with a small amount of organic matter remaining. Major diagnostic horizons occurring in the soils of the study area are ochric epipedons, argillics, and fragipans. No buried soil zones (Ab horizons), other than the original surface before channelization, were observed in the areas examined in detail during the reconnaissance [Anderson et al. 1987].

## CULTURAL BACKGROUND

As is the case in many areas of the Southeast, definition of culture periods is an ongoing process within the West Tennessee Coastal Plain region. Many questions remain to be answered. Study units previously developed by the Tennessee Division of Archaeology (TDOA) for the Paleoindian, Woodland, and Mississippi stages are used as guidelines for the following presentation.

### *PALEOINDIAN STAGE (12,000–9,000 B.P.)*

This stage represents the earliest documented prehistoric occupation in the Southeast. Paleoindian components are characterized by large, fluted projectile point/knives (PP/Ks), scrapers, and other tools fashioned using narrow chert blades and the prepared cores from which the blades were struck. Subsistence is generally considered to have been based on the hunting of large game animals, supplemented by small-game trapping and hunting, and the gathering of edible plant material. Social units consisted of small bands of kinsmen with settlement patterns configuring to the seasonal large-game migrations (Smith and Weinstein 1987:8, 12).

In Tennessee, the Paleoindian stage has been divided into early and late periods. The early period is associated with Clovis and Cumberland PP/Ks. Clovis point types have been dated from roughly 11,500 and 10,500 B.P. Cumberland PP/Ks are believed to be slightly more recent, but no firm dates have been established. The Late Paleoindian period is often referred to as “transitional,” and dates from 10,500 to 9,000 B.P. Lanceolate projectile point types generally associated with late or transitional Paleoindian occupations include Beaver Lake, Dalton, Wheeler, and Quad (TDOA 1989).

Due to a paucity of data, few dates for the Paleoindian period have been established. General information concerning Paleoindian occupations in Tennessee has been inferred, for the most part, from isolated artifact finds and surface sites. A survey by the TDOA identified 14 new Paleoindian component sites in the Kentucky Lake region. Numerous fluted point types and uniface tools were recovered from these sites. These finds should increase understanding of changes from Early to Late Paleoindian settlements (Broster et al. 1991). One recently excavated site, the Johnson site (40DV400), yielded two radiocarbon dates. One sample was taken from a shallow basin feature located 2,030 cm below the Early Archaic occupation at this site. The date produced by this feature is 12,660±970 B.P. Another sample was taken from the same stratum 20 cm west of the feature and 30 cm from a Clovis preform. A date of 11,700±980 B.P. was obtained from this context (Broster et al. 1991).

Peterson (1979:32) notes that fluted PP/K types are absent from the Loosahatchie and the Wolf River drainages. Twelve sites within the Loosahatchie Drainage were found to have characteristic PP/Ks, and an additional seven sites exhibited lithic technologies that may be attributable to the Late Paleoindian. Diagnostics from these sites include Greenbriar, Quad, and Dalton, which many archaeologists would consider transitional Paleo/Archaic forms at best (Peterson 1979:32).

### *ARCHAIC STAGE (10,000–2500 B.P.)*

This stage is characterized by progressively increasing emphasis on plants in subsistence strategies, the introduction of woodworking tools and grinding stones, and the making of notched PP/Ks. A shift to local raw material sources also occurred during this stage (Smith and Weinstein 1987:12).

Early Archaic projectile point markers include Kirk, Lost Lake, Hardaway, Pine Tree, and Big Sandy types. Some researchers may also include transitional Paleo/Archaic points such as

Greenbriar, Dalton, and Quad types (Smith and Weinstein 1987:12). Peterson (1979) notes that the Early Archaic is well represented in the Loosahatchie drainage by a variety of side- and corner-notched points, particularly along the river south of Millington, along the ridge between the Loosahatchie and Little Cypress Creek, and along Big Creek.

The Middle Archaic period is distinguished by the emergence of stemmed projectile points, often rather large, which were formed using minimal flaking (Smith and Weinstein 1987:12). On the Loosahatchie, Peterson (1979:36) found the early Middle Archaic period poorly represented. The early part of the period is represented mostly by Morrow Mountain variants and Nonconnah points, as well as some irregular lanceolate forms. The latter part of the Middle Archaic is characterized chiefly by Benton PP/Ks, which are rather evenly distributed throughout the upper and lower Loosahatchie (Peterson 1979:36–37).

During the Late Archaic, PP/K types became more irregular. Sites increased in area and number, perhaps due to a subsistence/site specialization. The Late Archaic in the Loosahatchie is essentially the same as for other western Tennessee tributaries of the Mississippi. Point types attributed to this period are Cotaco Creek, Lick Creek, and Kays, among others (Peterson 1979:40). The time span of the Late Archaic period varies from area to area. Smith and Weinstein (1987:12) give a beginning date of 5,500 B.P. Their end date of 3,500–3,000 B.P., however, overlaps the following Gulf Formational stage, as defined by Walthall and Jenkins (1976). Smith and Weinstein (1987:12) also limit Poverty Point culture to the Mississippi Valley proper, although baked clay objects are typically associated with this phenomenon.

#### ***GULF FORMATIONAL STAGE (4,500–2,100 B.P.)***

Although simply referred to as “Transitional” by Peterson (1979:42), the Gulf Formational is recognized as a discrete stage in cultural development in some areas of the Southeast. The comprehensive plan study unit on the coastal plain Early Woodland acknowledges the presence of this stage, giving a cursory definition based on the one presented at the 1975 Southeastern Archaeological Conference by Walthall and Jenkins (1976). They proposed the term “Gulf Formational” to define the early, pre-Marksville, ceramic-producing cultures that existed in the southeastern U.S. from approximately 4,500 to 2,100 B.P. These sites are characterized by fiber-tempered ceramics (Wheeler) and highly decorated sand-tempered ceramics (Alexander) later in the stage (TDOA 1988a:1). A few relevant dates suggest that Alexander wares were being produced as late as 2,400 B.P. (Dye and Galm 1986). Walthall (1980) assigns an end date of 2,100 B.P. for the Gulf Formational.

#### ***WOODLAND STAGE (2,300–1,500 B.P.)***

Initial Woodland cultures in this area probably correspond to late Early Woodland period manifestations elsewhere, which are generally characterized by fabric-marked, sand- and/or clay-tempered ceramics. While this basically agrees with Smith (1979a), it is contrary to Jenkins (1982), who assigns fabric-marked wares to the early Middle Woodland. Jenkins’s interpretation is based on the presence of these wares in association with Middle Woodland burial mounds at Bynum and Pharr. Based upon the contexts of fabric-marked ceramics at the Pinson Mounds site (40MD1), MainFt. (1986) indicates that in ca. 1,999 B.P. fabric-marked wares accounted for a small percentage of the ceramic assemblage. Plain and cordmarked wares were the predominant types at that time. A radiocarbon date of 205±115 B.C. (uncorrected) was obtained from an undisturbed occupation zone underlying Mound 12. Over 70 percent of the ceramic assemblage from this context comprised fabric-marked wares (TDOA 1988a:2).

With some exceptions, site components have been assigned to the late Early Woodland period if the ceramic assemblage either (1) contains only fabric-marked ceramics, (2) contains only fabric-marked and plain ceramics, or (3) contains primarily fabric-marked ceramics with fewer than 20 percent cordmarked sherds present. Sites with more than 20 percent cordmarked sherds are

considered Middle Woodland, unless there are extremely large numbers of both types present. In that event, both early Late and Middle Woodland components are assumed (TDOA 1988a:3). Another characteristic of late Early Woodland sites seems to be the presence of baked clay objects, otherwise known as "Poverty Point Objects." These have been reported from Sites 40FY205 and 40FY210 in 1984 (Weaver and Bowman 1984). While these objects are similar in shape and age to those found at Poverty Point and at Poverty Point phase sites (e.g., Jaketown), the implied reference can be very misleading. These objects have been found in a variety of contexts ranging from pre-ceramic (Smith 1979a) to Middle Woodland (Marksville) in the Central Mississippi Valley (Morse and Morse 1983). Obviously, more contextual evidence and study are needed.

Middle Woodland on the Coastal Plain is generally associated with mound construction and elaborate mortuary ritualism affiliated with Hopewellian culture. Mound construction may have begun around 2001 B.P., with peak construction occurring from 1999 to 1700 B.P. Some small burial mounds were built until about 1500 B.P. Although it is debatable whether or not Middle Woodland began with the appearance of fabric-marked ceramics (Jenkins 1982), some mound construction at the site of Pinson Mounds has been tentatively associated with the fabric-marked ceramic horizon. The last sand floor on Ozier mound is associated with a strong representation of fabric-marked ceramics (MainFt. and Walling 1992). The co-occurrence of mound construction and fabric-marked ceramics is rare.

Middle Woodland sites seem to fall within three categories: (1) large ceremonial centers (of which Pinson [40MD1] and Johnston [40MD3] are the only documented examples); (2) conical mound groups (e.g., Elijah Bray [40CS95]); and (3) single conical mounds. Although no habitation sites have actually been excavated, survey data suggest the presence of base camps and short-term habitation areas. Sites have been recorded on slope/upland interfaces and along stream terraces. Little evidence for habitation is present on river terraces (TDOA 1988b:2).

The primary diagnostic artifact class of the Middle Woodland is cordmarked pottery tempered with sand, grog, or a mixture of the two. This is in contrast to Late Woodland ceramics, which are largely clay tempered. Other Middle Woodland markers are non-local raw materials such as copper, mica, and galena, although these are rare. Non-local chert is also present and not quite as rare as the material mentioned above. Marksville-style decorated sherds may also be present in small amounts. Greenstone celts and Copena points are also found infrequently on these sites. Since the temporal range of Middle Woodland PP/Ks is not known, it would be premature to assign cultural affiliation based on the general types for this period without appropriate ceramic associations. The paucity of data prevents the assignment of specific PP/K types to this period (TDOA 1988b:3).

The Late Woodland period is considered to range from 1,500 to 1,000 B.P., or from the decline of Middle Woodland mound construction to emergent Mississippian platform mound construction and shell-tempered ceramic production. This period is poorly understood and meagerly represented in the region. The few known Late Woodland component sites are open habitation types. The ceramic marker for the period appears to be clay-tempered ceramic wares, sometimes with the addition of sand. Two primary types are Baytown Plain and Mulberry Creek Cordmarked. Small triangular points first appeared during this period, and their manufacture continued throughout the Mississippi stage. When no ceramics are present, these points are typically (and arbitrarily) assigned to the Mississippi stage. Due to the lack of data, little can be said at present about Late Woodland settlement patterns or site location criteria (TDOA 1988c:1-2).

### ***MISSISSIPPI STAGE (1,100–400 B.P.)***

This stage is generally considered to represent the last fully prehistoric cultural manifestation in the Southeast, and dates roughly from 1,100 to 400 B.P. It is characterized by a hierarchical settlement system; multiple platform mound towns; an economy based on maize, squash, and beans; chiefdom-level sociopolitical organization; shared iconography; and shell-tempered ceramic manufacture (TDOA n.d.:1).

The earliest Mississippi occupations are represented by a wall trench construction house at Pinson Mounds (40MD1), and several platform mound complexes (40OB4, 40FY7, 40D85, 40HM2). These mound sites are unusual in that very little cultural material is present, suggesting that they were neither ceremonial centers nor heavily populated. The best-known Early Mississippi site in the Coastal Plain region is the Obion Mounds site (40HY14), which represents the typical large Mississippi stage town. Smaller Mississippian component sites may represent farmsteads or camps (TDOA n.d.:2).

Characteristic Mississippian features include rectangular single-set post or wall trench houses. These have been documented within the study areas at Chucalissa, Pinson Mounds, and Obion Mounds.

Shell-tempered pottery is considered the most typical indicator of Mississippian occupation. It should be remembered, however, that clay-tempered pottery was produced into the Mississippi stage, and that fine clay tempering frequently can be found in Bell paste. Early vessel forms include jars, pans, and hooded bottles.

Specific ceramic types during the middle period include O'Byam Incised, Matthews Incised, Mound Place Incised, and Nashville Negative Painted, in the northern portions of the state. Typical late Mississippian ceramic types (Parkin Punctated, Barton Incised, Walls Engraved, Nodena Red and White, etc.) have been documented in the study area along the Mississippi River floodplain and adjacent loess hills (TDOA n.d.:3).

Other diagnostic materials encountered infrequently are chipped-stone hoes and polished hoe flakes of non-local cherts, such as Dover and Mill Creek. Ritual paraphernalia typically associated with burials, such as copper plates and shell gorgets, has not been documented in the study area.

### ***HISTORIC PERIOD***

We assume that the reader is familiar with the themes of dramatic change related to North America's massive settlement by people of Europe and Africa, primarily. The subsequent American culture and regional trends of the Creole (in its original sense) that developed in the southeastern U.S. continue as a complex, distinctive culture studied by anthropologists, including historical archaeologists. Below we discuss the regional context of the historic period at a level more focused on the area of West Tennessee.

### ***COLONIAL PERIOD***

In the waning sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, more or less continuous contact was established between European and aboriginal populations. Initial Spanish, French, and English settlements were all located on the coast. The English established Jamestown in 1607, and in 1609 King James I granted a charter to the London Company for a vast region that included present-day West Tennessee. The coastal Virginians armed the local Westo Indians, who proceeded to raid the Muscogee, or Creeks, who lacked firearms (Braund 1993:28). Such direct and indirect European-induced social disruptions, such as introduced disease (Ramenofsky

1987), would characterize the entire colonial period and lead to shifting allegiances as the European powers struggled for territory and profits in North America.

In 1665, all land south of 36° 30' was granted to the Lord Proprietors of Carolina by King Charles II. The English established Charlestown in 1670, and in 1685 Henry Woodward's packtrain traveled overland from Charlestown to the lower Creek towns, an act that is generally regarded as the formal opening of the English deerskin trade.

In the early-eighteenth century, the deer and slave trades continued to expand, as interior aboriginal populations became increasingly dependent on European goods such as flintlock muskets, metal tools, and textiles. Carolina companies "reaped huge benefits as hides and furs from interior tribes soon became the colony's major export" (Braund 1993:29). For example, in the period from 1699 to 1705, Charleston traders shipped an average of 45,000 deerskins annually to London. Above, we noted that in 1701 a group of French Canadian traders ascended the Tennessee River.

While deerskins were the staple exchange, the sale of captive enemies was also profitable, fostering the breakdown of ancient traditions and a profound change in the nature of aboriginal warfare. Western groups such as the Choctaw and disrupted, weak coastal groups became targets for Creek-English slave raids.

During the 1740s, tensions between the colonial powers mounted, and alliances with Indians were critical for seizing and holding both territory and deerskin-trading profits. The French launched raids on the Chickasaw during 1736–1740 in retaliation for Chickasaw raiding of their shipping (primarily Illinois wheat-laden barges) on the Mississippi. In 1739, Ft. Assumption was built by the French on the Chickasaw Bluffs, now Memphis, in an attempt to curb the Chickasaw. Also at about this time the introduction of significant numbers of Negro slaves began along the coast, supplying the colonists with a more stable and controlled supply of labor.

In 1756, the French and Indian War (Seven Years' War) broke out, partly as a result of French efforts to fortify the Ohio Valley. France was defeated, and signed the Treaty of Paris on February 10, 1763, ending the war; however, English colonists were still forbidden to settle west of the Appalachians. English traders began infiltrating pro-French tribes in Louisiana in the 1770s; for example, in 1773, a Quapaw chief adopted an English trader, and they attended a conference at Pensacola together (Arnold 1991:109).

No significant activity took place in West Tennessee during the American Revolution. The nearest engagement was Englishman James Colbert's attack on Arkansas Post with a Chickasaw war party in April 1783 (Arnold 1991:111–112). This action took place well after Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown (October 1781), essentially forcing the British to abandon the war effort and sign a preliminary peace treaty at Versailles in November 1782. The peace treaty that ended the American Revolution was formally ratified in Paris on September 3, 1783.

After the American Revolution, significant numbers of settlers from North Carolina and Virginia began to migrate over the Blue Ridge Mountains into Tennessee and Kentucky. Tennessee at this time was part of North Carolina, as specified in the charter issued by the British Crown. In 1785, there were significant tensions between the settlers in the Cumberland and the legislators in North Carolina; a separate assembly was formed, resulting in the birth of the "Lost State" of Franklin (Gerson 1968:36). In 1790, George Washington established the Territory of the United States South of the River Ohio, which provided a formal federal separation. In 1796, Tennessee became a state.

### ANTEBELLUM PERIOD

The early nineteenth century is better understood and represented in the archaeological record in Middle and East Tennessee, as this is where most settlements were located. In 1811 and 1812 West Tennessee was rocked by a series of massive earthquakes known as the New Madrid earthquakes (Fuller 1912). The town of New Madrid, Missouri was destroyed, a series of oxbow lakes were enlarged/connected to form Reelfoot Lake, and significant aftershocks continued for months. After the War of 1812 ended (in 1815) and the British-Creek Confederacy was defeated, immigration increased again.

In 1818 the Jackson Purchase Treaty resulted in the acquisition of West Tennessee from the Chickasaw Indians in Mississippi. Shelby County was established by the Tennessee Legislature on November 24, 1819, and was named for Isaac Shelby, one of the Jackson treaty negotiators. The City of Memphis was laid out in 1819 and incorporated in 1826. Raleigh, which was centrally located, served as the county seat from 1824 to 1868.

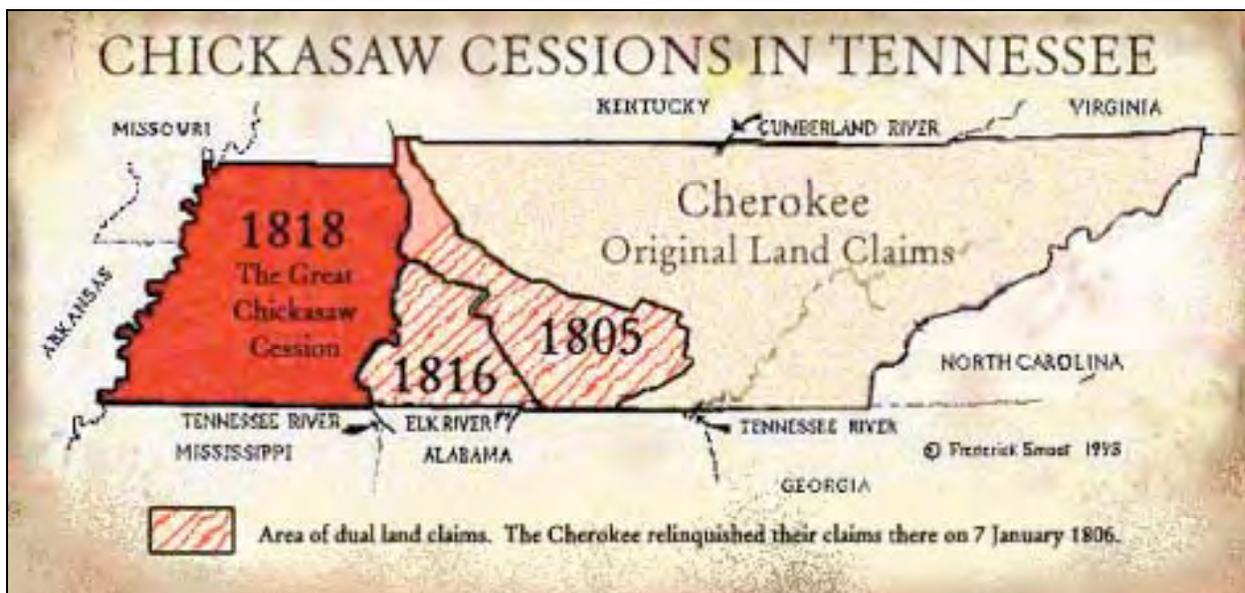


Figure 3-01. Chickasaw land session map (after Smoot 1998).

Early settlements in east Shelby County include the following (Davies-Rodgers 1990; Magness 1994; Van West 1998). The log cabin that would become Davies Manor in Brunswick was built in 1807. In 1825, Frances Wright founded the utopian plantation Nashoba on 2,000-a. along the Wolf River. This failed in 1829. The Memphis to Somerville Stage Road (now U.S. 64) was authorized by the Shelby County Court in 1826. In 1830, the Morning Sun Post Office was established in the Wash Store, located at the intersection of Seed Tick and Old Stage Coach Roads. In 1835 Thomas C. Crenshaw built Mt. Airy, a two-story plantation home southeast of Morning Sun. Other plantations, such as the Eklin family's Woodlawn, existed in east Shelby County in the 1830s. The Davies Plantation was not acquired by the Davies family until 1851, but the "manor" had been added to the log cabin by 1831.

Memphis was racked by repeated yellow fever epidemics during the early- and mid-nineteenth century. Epidemics in 1828, 1855, and 1867 killed many residents. More widespread outbreaks in the 1870s killed thousands in the city and led to a near abandonment of the city during an 1878 outbreak of the disease that killed over 5,000 residents (Caplinger 1998:1090).

Railroad development came in the 1850s. The Memphis to Charleston Railroad construction began in 1852 (Magness 1994:213); by 1853, the tracks reached Moscow. The line was completed in 1857, connecting Memphis with the Atlantic Coast for the first time. The Memphis and Ohio Railroad was established through Shelby Depot (Brunswick after 1880) (Davies-Rodgers 1990:123). This became part of the Louisville and Nashville (now Seaboard) Railroad.

Most of the antebellum archaeology in Shelby County has been conducted in urban contexts, near the riverfront (see *Previous Investigations* above). No plantations have been excavated in Shelby County (S. Smith 1996). The lopsided state of Shelby County historic archaeology is largely the by-product of the availability of public funding for urban projects and, conversely, the absence of public funding in the largely privately owned county lands.

### CIVIL WAR

Tennessee's position in the Civil War was complex, as it was a slave border state. By the end of the war, Tennessee "would have more battles fought within its borders than any other state except Virginia" (Whiteaker 1998:171).

The state was divided over secession from the Union in 1861, and an initial vote to call a secession convention failed. Following the firing on Ft. Sumter in April 1861, social tides swung in favor for the Confederacy in Tennessee. The state legislature voted to secede from the Union in May 1861. A referendum on the issue was passed on June 8 of the same year, despite the persistence of anti-confederate counties in East Tennessee. The state made a military alliance with the Confederacy, and Tennessee began to raise an army. The construction of forts along the Mississippi River, such as Ft. Pillow in Lauderdale County, began under the order of then Governor I.G. Harris (Whiteaker 1998:168).

The defense of Tennessee was initially charged to General A.S. Johnston, who arrived in September 1861. Under Johnston's command, efforts to complete forts to defend the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers, such as Ft. Henry and Ft. Donelson, were accelerated through the late fall and winter of 1861-1862. Johnston concentrated defensive efforts on Middle Tennessee, which he saw as the most likely route for invasion by Union forces (Whiteaker 1998:168-169).

The fortification of the Tennessee and Cumberland proved inadequate as both Ft. Henry and Ft. Donelson fell to Union forces in early February of 1862. With Nashville undefended, it became the first Confederate capital to fall in the war on February 23, 1862. Governor Harris and the state government retreated to Memphis after the fall of Nashville. Also following the fall of Nashville, Gen. Johnston moved the main defensive force south to Corinth, Mississippi to regroup and reinforce (Whiteaker 1998:169).

On April 6, 1862, Gen. Johnston's forces attacked a large Union contingent under the command of Gen. U.S. Grant at Shiloh, on the Tennessee River. The battle at Shiloh would become the "bloodiest battle yet fought on North American soil" (Whiteaker 1998:169). At the end of the day Johnston's forces had nearly defeated Grant's army, pushing them back almost into the Tennessee River; however, the near-victory was short-lived and costly. Gen. Johnston was himself killed during the first day of fighting at Shiloh while leading a charge against a Union line that has become known as "the hornet's nest" (Craddock 1998:490). Johnston's second in command, Gen. P.G.T. Beauregard, assumed command of the Confederate forces. Reinforced during the night of the 6<sup>th</sup>, Grant's forces drove the Confederates from the field the following day. Beauregard's forces again retreated to Mississippi as the Union's hold on Middle Tennessee was solidified (Whiteaker 1998:169). With the Union in control of Middle Tennessee and a large contingent of Union sympathizers remaining in East Tennessee, Union generals turned their attention to West Tennessee (Whiteaker 1998:169).

Confederate forces stationed in the unfortified city of Memphis realized the Union threat to the east and evacuated the city burning stores along the way to prevent capture by Union forces. After a minor naval engagement near Ft. Pillow, it too was abandoned by Confederate forces on June 4, 1862 and quickly seized by Union forces (Cimprich 1998:328).

Two days later, Memphis itself fell following a decisive Union naval victory over the outclassed Confederate vessels set to defend the city. The engagement lasted just 90 minutes, with seven of the eight confederate vessels sunk, or disabled. Many citizens of Memphis lined the riverbanks to observe the spectacle. Upon surrender of the city, Memphis would face occupation by Union troops for the next three years. (Harkins 1998:605-606). During the Federal occupation of the city, Union armies fortified the city which was used as a supply base for the remainder of the war. The largest of these fortifications was Ft. Pickering, located on the bluff overlooking the river in what is now downtown. Other smaller fortifications to protect rail lines and numerous small field camps were also constructed in and around Memphis (Prouty and Barker 1996).

Guerilla warfare and sporadic raiding characterized most military action in West Tennessee for the remainder of the war. During that time, Gen. N.B. Forrest launched numerous cavalry raids into Tennessee interrupting rail and communication lines, destroying stores, and taking garrisons at Trenton, Dyer, Union City and several other towns (Whiteaker 1998:169).

The last significant engagement in West Tennessee took place at Ft. Pillow in the spring of 1864. A detachment of 1,500 confederate soldiers, under the command of Forrest, assaulted Ft. Pillow on April 12, 2004. The inexperienced Union contingent at the Ft. was quickly defeated by the superior Confederate forces. During a brief hiatus in the fighting, Forrest asked for surrender of the Ft., which was refused by the Union commander. A second assault by Forrest and his men destroyed the Union force. A matter of controversy developed over the incident. Surviving Union soldiers claimed Forrest's soldiers massacred many of their fallen brothers at arms while attempting to surrender. Forrest himself claimed that the Union contingent refused surrender until most of their forces had been killed. Ft. Pillow was abandoned by both the Union and Confederate armies following the brief battle (Cimprich 1998:328; see also MainFt. 1980).

Farther afield, the newly formed Confederate Army of Tennessee under the command of Gen. B. Bragg launched several unsuccessful campaigns to free Middle and East Tennessee from the grips of the Union army during 1862 and 1863. Eventually forced to retreat into northern Georgia, Bragg regrouped and won a victory over Union forces at Chickamauga on September 19, 1863 forcing the Union forces to retreat to Chattanooga. Following a two-month siege of the town, Union forces eventually broke out winning victories at Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge, forcing the Army of Tennessee to retreat farther into Georgia (Whiteaker 1998:169-171).

Sherman's so-called "march to the sea" displaced the Army of Tennessee from Atlanta, where they had been assumed under the command of J.T. Hood following the Union counter-attack from Chattanooga. Hood and his army again attempted to retake the state, striking first Franklin on November 30, 1864. The Battle of Franklin left the Army of Tennessee broken, losing more than 6,000 men in a single day of fighting. Following their defeat, Hood's army took up defensive positions outside of Nashville. On December 15, 1864, Union forces under the command of G.H. Thomas defeated the remainder of Hood's army in two days of fighting at the Battle of Nashville. Hood's surviving forces retreated again to Mississippi. The defeat of Hood at Nashville essentially marked the end of the war in Tennessee (Whiteaker 1998:169-171).

In April 1864, the Confederate cavalry, under General Forrest, raided Ft. Pillow and routed the Union (see Mainfort 1980). Following the capture of Memphis, sporadic raiding characterized local combat of the latter war years.

### ***RECONSTRUCTION***

Reconstruction is traditionally defined by historians as the period from Gen. R.E. Lee's surrender at Appomattox to the final withdrawal of federal troops from southern soil in 1877. McKenzie (1998:778) aptly notes that this temporal range does not hold true for every state of the former Confederacy, as reconstruction in Tennessee lasted a very short time. Tennessee initially requested readmission to Congress in December 1865, after quickly ratifying the Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery. Delayed by Congress' further requirement of Fourteenth Amendment (which made former slaves U.S. citizens), Tennessee was finally re-admitted to the Union in July 1866. Thus, "...reconstruction in Tennessee have formally ended only slightly more than one year after..." the surrender of the Confederacy (McKenzie 1998:778).

Tennessee was led by Republican governor W.G. Brownlow, who was elected in March 1865. During his tenure, the Tennessee legislature formally disenfranchised former Confederates and enfranchised former slaves, primarily as a ploy to expand the Republican voter base. Brownlow also declared martial law in a number of Tennessee counties to curb the growing influence of the Ku Klux Klan. Locally, Brownlow, using the "Metropolitan Police Act," abolished the Shelby County government, replacing it with a commission of members chosen by himself. Brownlow resigned the governorship in February 1869 to accept a seat in the U.S. Senate, and Tennessee Senator D.C. Senter completed his term as governor (McKenzie 1998:778).

The economic impact of the Civil War was fully recognized reconstruction itself took a heavy toll on Tennessee. Middle Tennessee was particularly affected (Whiteaker 1998:171). A Congressional investigating committee estimated Tennessee's non-slave property during the war at almost 90 million dollars. The 275,000 slaves owned by Tennessee whites resulted in an estimated 100 million dollar loss following emancipation. Prewar values of the slaves are estimated at three times the latter amount. Regarding slave value losses, McKenzie (1998:779) notes, "emancipation did not constitute a true loss to the state, but rather a redistribution of wealth from slaveholders to former slaves."

### ***TENANT PERIOD***

The period from 1875 to 1950 is known as the tenant period, named for the sharecropping or tenant farm labor system that was a significant characteristic of southern U.S. agriculture after the Civil War. This decentralization of the old plantation system developed during Reconstruction as a means of stabilizing labor relations between former slaves and landowners. Prunty (1955) has interpreted tenancy as a postbellum modification of the plantation system.

The importance of the tenant farm period in the archaeological record is that it may represent the maximum occupation of rural east Shelby County prior to the recent development of non-farm rural settlement patterns. The dispersed settlement pattern of the tenant period contrasts sharply with the clustered settlement pattern prior to 1865 (Orser and Nekola 1985:68), and can be clearly observed on 1930s-era quadrangle sheets and aerial photographs, with regular spacing (100 to 400 m) and alignments along roads and bayous. Sites dating to this period are numerous, and the issuance of NRHP status to these sites has generated commentary (see Wilson 1990).

The colonial/pre-Jackson Purchase period is very poorly known for the area. The Chickasaw Indians used the bluffs as access to the river and as their hunting territory in Arkansas. In 1739, the French governor of Louisiana, Sieur de Bienville, established Ft. Assumption as a base for operations against Chickasaw towns located within the vicinity of modern Tupelo, Mississippi. The location of the fort is thought to be along the Chickasaw bluffs in the area of DeSoto Park, west of our study area. After the Jackson Purchase of west Tennessee and Kentucky from the Chickasaws in 1818, the area began to fill rapidly. In 1802, a trading post was established in the area of Ft. Assumption (Capers 1966:19); it continued to operate until 1822, when circumstances leading to the founding of Memphis and surrounding towns were well under way.

## PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

Nine previously recorded sites are located within a two-mile radius of the project area (Table 4-01). Four of these sites (40SY363, 40SY491, 40SY641, and 40SY642) are designated unknown aboriginal based on the presence of lithics recovered from these sites with no diagnostics present. One site, 40SY643, is a possible Early Archaic lithic scatter. Two sites, 40SY68 and 40SY364, are small Early to Middle Woodland sites, based on the presence of clay- and sand-tempered sherds. The large site, 40SY548, is a multi-component site with diagnostic material from the Paleoindian period through at least the Early Woodland period. Site 40SY640 is a moderately sized multi-component site with material from Late Archaic, Early/Middle Woodland, and twentieth-century historic periods.

**Table 4-01. Previously Recorded Sites near the Project Area.**

Site	Cultural Affiliation	Site Type	NRHP Recommendation
40SY68	Early and Middle Woodland	open habitation	not assessed
40SY363	Unknown aboriginal	open habitation	not assessed
40SY364	Middle Woodland	open habitation	not assessed
40SY491	Unknown aboriginal	open habitation	not assessed
40SY548	Paleoindian through Early Woodland	camp, village	not assessed
40SY640	Late Archaic, Early/Middle Woodland, Twentieth Century Historic	open habitation	not eligible
40SY641	unknown aboriginal	open habitation	not eligible
40SY642	unknown aboriginal	open habitation	not assessed
40SY643	possible Early Archaic	open habitation	not assessed

Within the general vicinity of the present project, there have been five previous large-scale cultural resource studies. In addition, there have also been numerous other small cultural resource management survey projects within Shelby and Fayette counties, most of which are “negative findings” reports. The areas covered by these surveys are for the most part small and localized.

In 2000, Panamerican Consultants, Inc. conducted a Phase I survey of the Kirby Parkway Reevaluation Project through Shelby Farms (Chapman 2000). A total of nine miles of alternate routes was surveyed and four sites were recorded. Two of these sites were recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP, while the other two were declared not formally assessed.

One large-scale survey was carried out by the staff of the C.H. Nash Museum, in conjunction with the proposed West Tennessee Tributaries Project, along the Obion and Forked Deer rivers as well as Reelfoot and Indian creeks (Smith 1979).

Garrow and Associates, Inc. conducted an intensive survey along a portion of the Obion River (Anderson et al. 1987). Three sites and two isolated finds were recorded within the survey area, and an additional 16 sites and four isolated finds were recorded or revisited within two kilometers of the survey area. All sites within the survey area were recommended not eligible for the NRHP.

An archaeological survey performed for the Memphis District Corps of Engineers (COE) investigated selected localities within the Obion and Forked Deer drainages (Mainfort 1985). Blockage Number 3 was the closest area to the present survey and was located north of Trezevant on the Obion River.

Additional investigations within the Obion River drainage, including survey and testing, were directed by Mainfort for the U.S. Corps of Engineers, Memphis District (Mainfort 1994). Twenty-two sites were recorded or re-investigated within the project area, twelve were recorded or re-investigated outside the project area, and an additional six received moderate to extensive testing.

An historic marker is located along the northern stretch of the project area where the proposed ROW intersects with Mullins Station Road.

One site, 40SY642, is mapped as being within the current project area. The work done to relocate this site is described in the following chapter.

## **FIELD METHODS AND RESULTS**

### ***FIELD METHODS***

The field survey methods consisted of a crew of three field technicians running parallel transects, spaced 20 m apart, across the parts of the project area where surface visibility was poor or nonexistent. A pedestrian visual survey was conducted in areas where there was sufficient surface visibility to allow it, along four transects spaced 15 m apart. In areas where the vegetation precluded surface inspection, shovel tests were excavated at 20 m intervals along the transects.

A shovel test consisted of the excavation of a hole at least 30 cm across (0.09 square m). Each shovel test was excavated to culturally sterile deposits or subsoil. To ensure consistent artifact recovery, all sediment was hand screened through 0.25 in. mesh hardware cloth. All natural and cultural strata information that was revealed in the individual shovel test profiles was recorded using metric depth measurements, and described in terms of textural class and color (using the Munsell Soil Color Chart). Additional strata descriptions were provided as needed, such as moisture level, natural rock content, and number and size of roots. Following the recording of a shovel test's information, artifact sample bags (if any) were labeled. Subsequently, all holes were backfilled.

All cultural materials were to be collected and returned to the laboratory for analysis and curation.

All artifact loci identified during the survey, either by surface inspection or by subsurface recovery, were further investigated through additional subsurface and visual examinations to delineate horizontal and vertical limits of artifact distribution. Site and isolated find limits were determined by 10 m interval shovel testing in a grid pattern of shovel tests from the assumed center of a site (generally an area of high artifact concentration). These site delineation shovel tests were to be assigned provenience designations based on relative direction (N-north, E-east, S-south, W-west, etc.) from the cruciform grid datum, as well as their metric (m) distance from the grid origin.

Photographs were taken during the fieldwork to illustrate field conditions and to document sites that were recorded. Field notes and site forms were completed to further document the work performed.

### ***RESULTS***

The proposed alternate route for Kirby Parkway is located in Shelby Farms, near the south-central portion of Shelby County. Specifically, the proposed route extends from the intersection of Whitten and Mullins Station roads westwards to Farm Road and then south-southwest to Walnut Grove Road. Just north of Walnut Grove, the ROW forms a circle that is the access point to and from the proposed "Alternate Q" (Figure 1-01). The proposed route runs through hayfields, cultivated fields, and woods. It is approximately 2.9 km (1.8 mi.) long and has a right-of-way approximately 67 m (220 ft.) wide.

As the proposed right-of-way was only 67 m across, it was possible to survey the area with three transects spaced 20 m apart in areas with poor or no surface visibility, and 15 m apart in areas with good surface visibility, as per the TDOT Scope of Work for this project.(Hodge and Kline 2006).



**Figure 5-01. Project area south of intersection of Whitten and Mullins Station roads, view to southwest.**

Starting at the north end of the proposed alternate, at the intersection of Mullins Station and Whitten roads, the ROW runs west and southwest through a hayfield to Farm Road (Figures 5-01 and 5-02). The area has compacted soil as the result of contouring in an effort at erosion control,. A penal farm employee informed us the area had been rather substantially altered due to this work. A gas pipeline also runs southwest to north-northeast through the area. This area had very poor surface visibility and required shovel testing for approximately 600 m. Each of the three transects had 30 shovel tests, although not all were excavated due to disturbances (i.e., erosion control). A typical shovel test profile in this area was: 0-30 cmbs, 10YR 5/8 (yellowish brown) very compact silty loam.



**Figure 5-02. Hayfield along northern portion of ROW, view to northeast from Farm Road.**

From Farm Road, the ROW turns to the southwest and passes through a short section of grass east of some Penal Farm maintenance sheds. This distance was approximately 100 m and required three shovel tests on each of the three transects. All nine of these shovel tests were negative for cultural material. A typical soil profile in this area was: 0-15 cmbs, 10YR 4/3 (brown) silt loam; 15-40 cmbs, 10YR 5/3 (brown) compact silt loam.



**Figure 5-03. Cotton field; view to north from Gardener Road.**

From the grassy area, the ROW proceeds south-southwest through a cotton field to a gravel road called Gardener Road. At the time of investigation the field had not been harvested, but the surface visibility was good to excellent for the extent of the ROW, about 700 m (Figures 5-03 and 5-04). This area was surveyed and visually inspected with four transects spaced 15 m apart. No cultural remains were observed in this field.



**Figure 5-04. Close up of cotton field showing surface visibility.**



**Figure 5-05. Soybean field south of Gardener Road; cotton field is in the distance, view to south.**

From Gardener Road, the ROW continues south-southwest for approximately 300 m, running through a cultivated soybean field for the first 150 m, then through a cotton field for another 150 m. Both fields had good to excellent surface visibility (Figures 5-05 and 5-06). A low ridge is located within the soybean field and promised the best chance for locating a site; however, we visually inspected the entire area within the ROW with four transects spaced 15 m apart, as well as a substantial portion of the ridge outside the ROW, and no cultural remains were observed.



**Figure 5-06. Close up of soybean field showing surface visibility.**

South of the second cotton field, the ROW turns and runs south-southeast through a wooded area for approximately 300 m. This area was in moderately dense vegetation and with no surface visibility (Figure 5-07). Two man-made drainage ditches cut through the area from east to west, and there is an area of grass, possibly used as a feed plot for deer. Three transects, each having 14 shovel tests, were run through this area; all were negative for cultural material. A typical soil profile was: 0-20 cmbs, 10YR 5/3 (brown) silt loam; 20-40 cmbs, 10YR 5/3 and 7/1 (brown and light gray) very compact silt loam.



**Figure 5-07. Wooded area near the southern end of ROW, view to south.**

Emerging from the woods the ROW continues south-southeast to Walnut Grove Road. This portion of the ROW is in a soybean field with excellent surface visibility. This area was walked and visually inspected along four transects spaced 15 m apart. No cultural items were observed.



**Figure 5-08. “Trumpet” area in south part of ROW, view to south.**

At the time of investigation the portion of the ROW north of Walnut Grove Road was being disturbed by the excavation of a sewer line (see Figure 5-08). Also, much of the “trumpet” portion of the ROW has been disturbed by work occurring south of Walnut Grove Road (Figure 5-09). Those areas that were not affected, mainly along the western portion of the “trumpet” were in soybeans and were visually inspected. No cultural remains were observed.



Figure 5-09. “Trumpet” area in southern portion of ROW, view to north across Walnut Grove Road.

#### *SITE 40SY642 REVISIT*

During the course of this fieldwork, the location for Site 40SY642 was revisited. It was recorded in 2000 by Panamerican (Chapman 2000). The site was recorded along what was “Alternate C,” south of Gardener Road, in a harvested soybean field. The surface visibility at the time was good to excellent; no shovel tests were excavated.



Figure 5-10. Site 40SY642, view to south. Crewmembers are digging a shovel test at the site datum.

There is some discrepancy in the site size; the text says the site is 75 m N/S by 225 m E/W, but the accompanying map shows the site as about 50 m by 100 m. The site is described as a surface scatter of aboriginal lithic material south of Gardener Road, along a ridge. Ten artifacts were collected, including a PP/K fragment, but no component information was recovered. No NRHP recommendation was given, as no subsurface investigations were conducted.

The current ROW for Alternate Q passes over or near this site, according to the project plans. When we visited the area, the field was in soybeans, but had not been harvested. There was good to excellent surface visibility across the ridgetop, as erosion had washed away many of the plants. Although three individuals spent 20 minutes inspecting the ridge no artifacts were observed. A shovel test was excavated on the ridgetop, at the site coordinates given in the report, but it was negative. The soil profile was: 0-30 cmbs, 10YR 6/2 (light brownish gray) fine silty loam. The soil became very compact at about 20 cm below the surface.

The site, already a sparse surface scatter to begin with, has apparently been destroyed through agricultural practices. We recommend the site as not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

## **SUMMARY**

At the request of Palmer Engineering Company, Inc. and the Tennessee Department of Transportation (TDOT), the Memphis office of Panamerican Consultants, Inc. (PCI) conducted a Phase I archaeological survey for the proposed Kirby Parkway "Alternate Q" in Shelby County, Tennessee. Fieldwork was conducted on October 9 and 10, 2006. The purpose of this study was to identify any archaeological resources present within the right-of-way (ROW) for the proposed highway improvements and also to provide appropriate management recommendations for any such resources encountered.

The proposed route runs through hayfields, cultivated fields, and woods. It is approximately 2.9 km (1.8 miles) long and has a right-of-way approximately 67 m (220 feet) wide.

At the time of investigation, the project area was in three types of vegetation: hayfields, cultivated fields, and woods. In areas where there was no surface visibility, three transects were spaced 20 m apart with shovel tests every 20 m along each transect. In areas of good surface visibility, there were four transects spaced 15 m apart.

Although the proposed Alternate Q passed over the mapped location of a previous site, 40SY642, the site was not relocated. Since the site was described as a sparse lithic scatter in a cultivated field, it is likely that the site has been destroyed by agricultural practices.

No cultural resources were encountered during the course of this fieldwork; therefore, we recommend that the proposed route be cleared from further archaeological work, and no additional management actions are needed.

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