

# IDAHO ARCHAEOLOGIST



COVER PHOTO: From the files of the Idaho Historical Library, J. L. Chapman Collection, taken early in this century along the Snake River south of Lewiston.

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# THE NATIVE POTTERY OF THE UPPER SNAKE AND SALMON RIVER COUNTRY

By  
B. Robert Butler

## ABSTRACT

An extensive collection of potsherds from the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country can be referred to generally as Shoshonean or Intermountain, a ware associated with the Late Archaic in the region and of special interest in connection with the so-called "shoshonean migration" hypothesis espoused by certain linguists and archaeologists. At least one other ware or group of wares is also represented by the region. This ware or group of related wares may have derived from pottery traditions associated with regional Fremont cultural manifestations in Utah, and is found only as far north as the Snake River Plain.

Idaho Museum of Natural History  
Idaho State University  
May, 1979

Pottery fragments occur widely in Idaho south of the east-west course of the Salmon River, but are extremely rare or absent north of there. The significance of this cannot be lost on anyone familiar with the literature on the native peoples of the Intermountain region. Historically, the area north of the Salmon River was occupied by Plateau peoples, such as the Nez Perce, among whom pottery was seldom made or used, while the area south of the Salmon River was occupied by Basin peoples, mostly Shoshonean speakers, among whom a relatively crude form of pottery was widely made and used. I mention this only because there has been a recent tendency among some writers to ignore the substantial Basin affiliation of the native peoples of southern Idaho and casually lump them with their Plateau neighbors to the north (e.g., Aikens 1978).

That pottery occurs in southern Idaho has been known for 50 years or more. The earliest finds came from along the Snake River and its tributaries in southwestern Idaho, and all of them could be assigned to a single general type, usually referred to as "Shoshoni" or "Shoshonean" ware (Schellbach 1930, de Laguna 1947, Tuohy 1956, Coale 1963). One of the best general descriptions of this ware was that made by Coale while a graduate student at the University of Washington in the early 1950s, but was published a decade later:

The most outstanding, and therefore perhaps the most diagnostic, characteristic of the ceramic ware under discussion, is its shape. Normally, vessels of this ware are generalized truncated cones, flat-bottomed with straight walls which are flared out of the vertical plane at angles of from approximately five to twenty-five degrees. The form of the vessel may vary from

this norm in two respects without falling outside of the ware shape range. First, the shoulder formed by the juncture of the bottom and wall may constitute a simple angle, or it may have an annular flange development. Secondly, the wall may be slightly inverted at the mouth so that the greatest diameter of the vessel may fall at a distance approximately one-third of the vessel height below the rim. . . . [An example of this type of pottery, from the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country, is illustrated in Fig. 2].

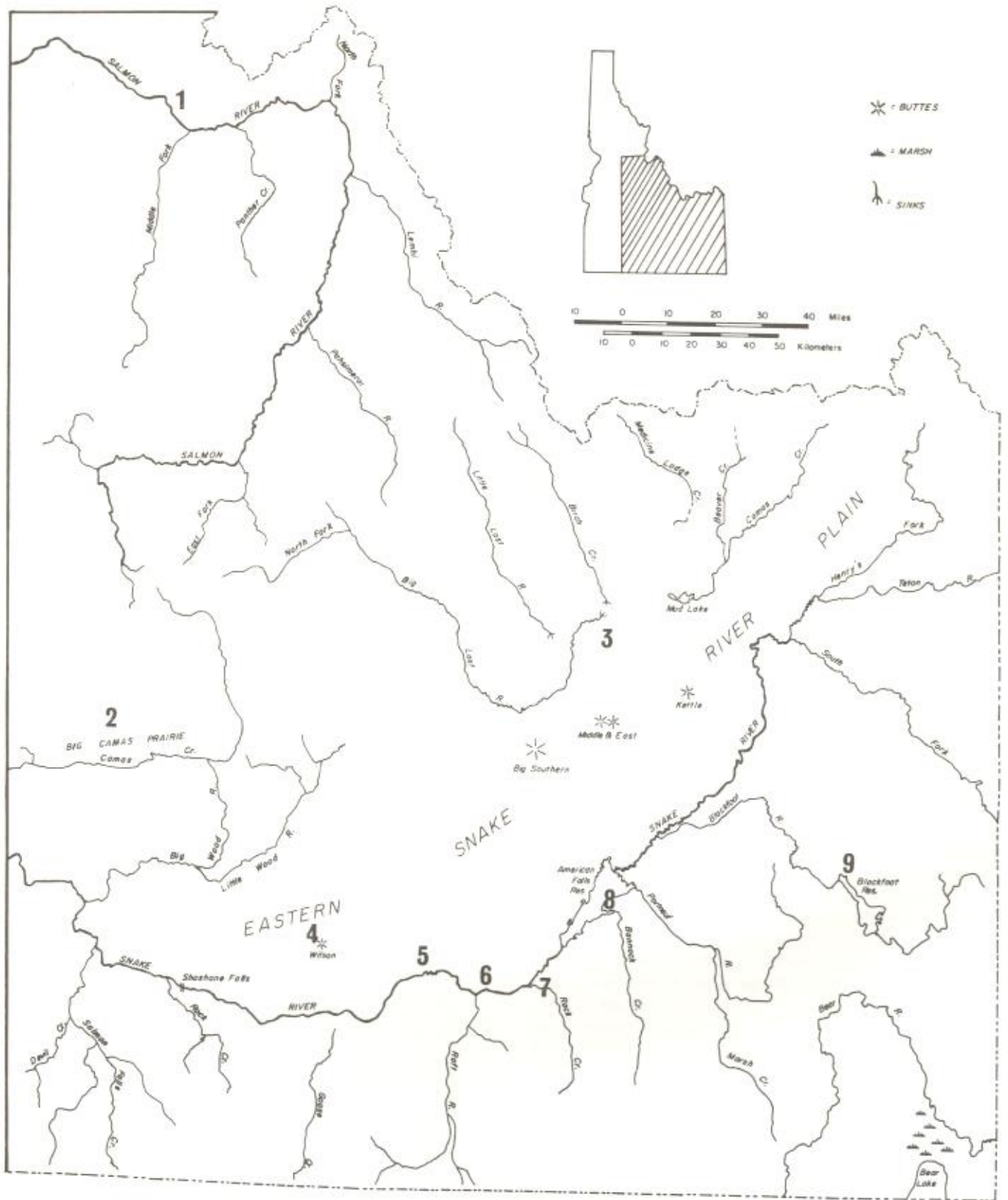
Ranking next most important as a diagnostic feature is tempering material. The temper consists of grit, sand, or crushed rock. In case of grit and sand, the paste may not always have been intentionally tempered since aplastics occur naturally in sedimentary clays. Quartz fragments may also be natively present in imperfectly decomposed residual clays. The temper is ordinarily quite coarse compared with Puebloan wares, but still there is a great deal of variability of temper-particle diameter within Shoshonean pottery as a unit.

\* \* \*

The surface treatment of Shoshonean pottery, evidenced by numerous sherds, varies from roughly scraped to well smoothed and "floated" (manipulation of the paste surface with a moist implement). The smoothing and floating operation occurs generally on the exterior surface. Floating may impart a pseudo-slip appearance to the finish, but the finish is always plain, without the addition of a slip or wash. Pots are seldom decorated, ornamentation usually being limited to incised or indented geometric designs in a narrow zone around the firm [sic], either inside or out.

As to methods of construction, both coiling and "modeling" techniques appear to have been used to fashion the vessels. In most, if not all, cases, construction has been completed by paddle-and-anvil treatment. . . .

Firing temperatures and methods appear to have been highly variable, but it would seem that compared with the technically superior pottery of the Southwest, firing of Shoshonean pottery must have been at consistently lower temperatures. The general grey or greyish cast of large numbers of sherds and pots

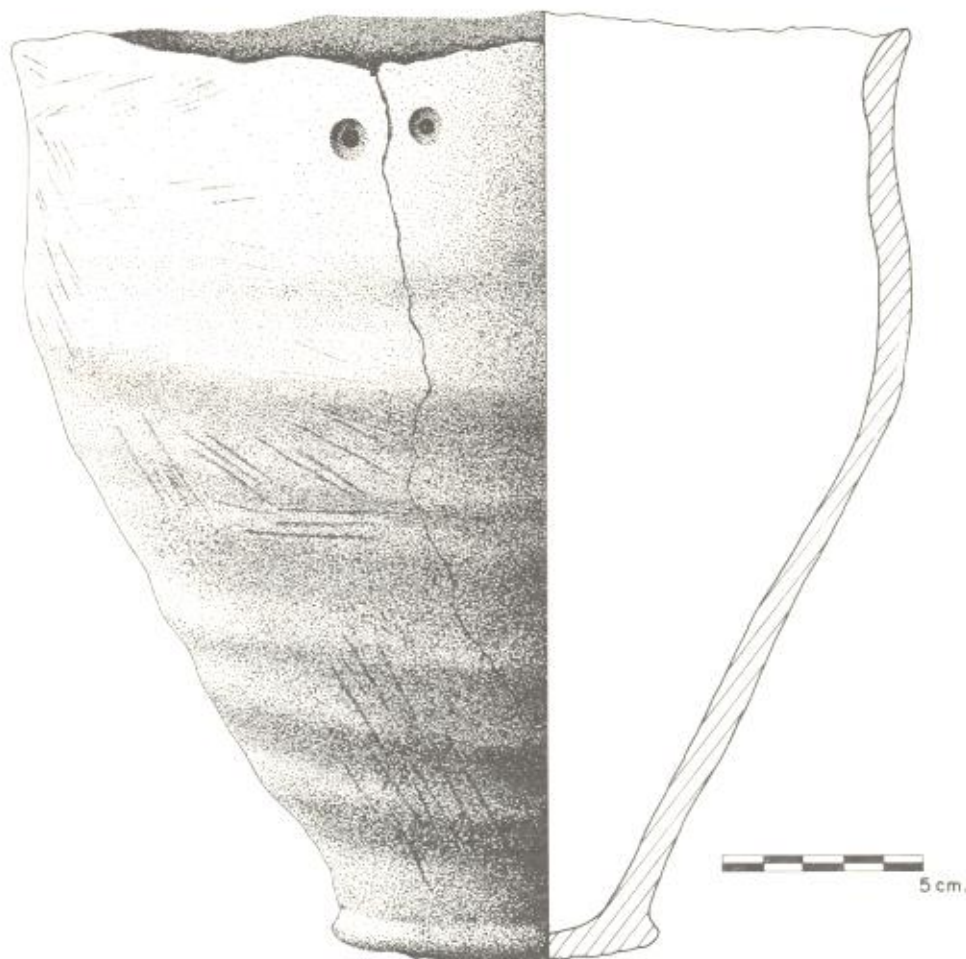


**FIGURE 1**

Map of Upper Snake and Salmon River Country showing locations yielding pottery mentioned in text; (1) Corn Creek; (2) Big Camas Prairie; (3) Pioneer Basin; (4) Wilson Butte

Cave; (5-8) surface finds of Fremont-like pottery; and (9) Poison Creek.





**FIGURE 2**

Complete example of Intermountain ware, collected from a lava overhang on the Snake River Plain northeast of the American Falls Reservoir. Ht. 22.5cm; max. dia. 22.5cm.

suggests that a reducing atmosphere was the rule. Brown and buff splotches which are frequently present indicate oxidation at higher firing temperatures due to two possible causes: (1) uneven and poorly controlled firing, or (2) subjection to subsequent, higher temperatures in cooking use. Even so, examination of sherd sections shows that the zone of oxidation present in these cases seldom penetrates the thickness of the wall. Low firing temperatures coupled with reduction atmosphere, then, must be added to our list of characteristics [Coale 1963:1-2].

In his description, Coale also noted that Osborne (unpublished Ms.) proposed dividing sherds in the Washington State Museum collection from the Snake River Shoshone area into two distinct wares, tentatively termed "Snake River Shoshone Coarse" and "Snake River Shoshone Fine" on the basis of temper size. Since that time (early 1950s), others have also proposed separate names for the thin, well-made variety of this pottery (e.g., "Wilson Butte Plain Ware," Gruhn 1961a). Based on the Museum collections, the latter appears to be more

common in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country than the thick, crude variety. In general, however, most workers appear to treat all of the specimens involved as comprising a single tradition varying considerably in such details as size and composition of temper, thickness of wall, and the like (e.g., Rudy 1953, Fowler 1968), but there is more than one name for the tradition. Based on examples of pottery of the kind described by Coale but found in southwestern Montana and western Wyoming, Mulloy (1958:196) proposed the name "Intermountain Tradition." This tradition, according to Mulloy, would embrace all of the reported specimens of the same kind found in Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Nevada and southern Idaho. Presumably, it would or could include ethnographic as well as archaeological specimens.

Shoshonean or Intermountain pottery is commonly accepted as an indication of former Shoshonean presence or occupation, largely because this was the



kind of pottery known to have been made and used widely by the native peoples of the Great Basin culture area (see summary in Coale 1963). As a corollary of the apparently firm ethnographic association of this kind of pottery with Shoshonean (Numic) speakers in the Great Basin, archaeological occurrences of Intermountain pottery have been taken by some writers (especially Madsen 1975 and Wright 1978) as a means of testing the so-called Shoshonean migration or expansion hypothesis. This hypothesis was derived from studies of Numic, the name given to the language family that embraces nearly all of the languages spoken by the native peoples of the Great Basin culture area. In general, the hypothesis proposes (1) that the homeland of all Numic languages, Shoshonean included, was probably in the southwestern corner of the Great Basin culture area; (2) that by A.D. 1000 all Numic languages had begun to show dialect differences; and (3) that coextensive with the latter was a rapid expansion of Numic speakers northward and eastward into and across the Great Basin proper towards southern Idaho and western Wyoming (there is an excellent summary of the background to this hypothesis in Miller 1966). According to the archaeologists Madsen (1975) and Wright (1978), the temporal-geographical data on the occurrences of Intermountain pottery, particularly that from eastern Idaho (the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country), lend strong support to the Shoshonean migration hypothesis. For reasons that may become apparent after my discussion of the pottery of the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country, I do not agree with their interpretation of the existing data.

Over the past 25 years or so, the Idaho Museum of Natural History has accumulated a substantial quantity of pottery from the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country (Fig. 1), most of it in the form of surface collected sherds. Only one complete pot, found near Blackfoot and donated to the Museum in September, 1977, exists in the collection (Fig. 2). However, four pots have been reconstructed from sherds and a fifth complete pot, found on the Salmon River near Corn Creek, has been measured and photographed.

Sherds have also been recovered from excavated sites, some of which have been radiocarbon dated. Altogether, there appears to be sufficient data to outline the probable range of variation in and the geographical distribution of the pottery to be found in the region and also to indicate something of its temporal distribution as well.

On the basis of the whole and reconstructed pots that I have examined firsthand and the rim and bottom sherds in the collection, the typical pottery of the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country is that described by Coale above and called either Shoshonean or Intermountain ware. The latter term is probably more precise, as I shall point out below.

On the same basis, it is equally clear that other pottery forms occur in the region. Interestingly, none of the other pottery forms have been found north of the Snake River Plain.

One of the other pottery forms, evident from a reconstructed pot, the pieces of which were collected near Massacre Rocks, on the Snake River downstream from the American Falls Reservoir, is similar to Intermountain ware in general, except that it has a rounded or pointed bottom (Fig. 3). Elsewhere, the same variation in form has been included in the definition of "Shoshonean ware" (viz., Rudy 1953, Tuohy 1963), but is probably better treated as a separate ware, Paiute utility ware, which was first described by Baldwin as follows:

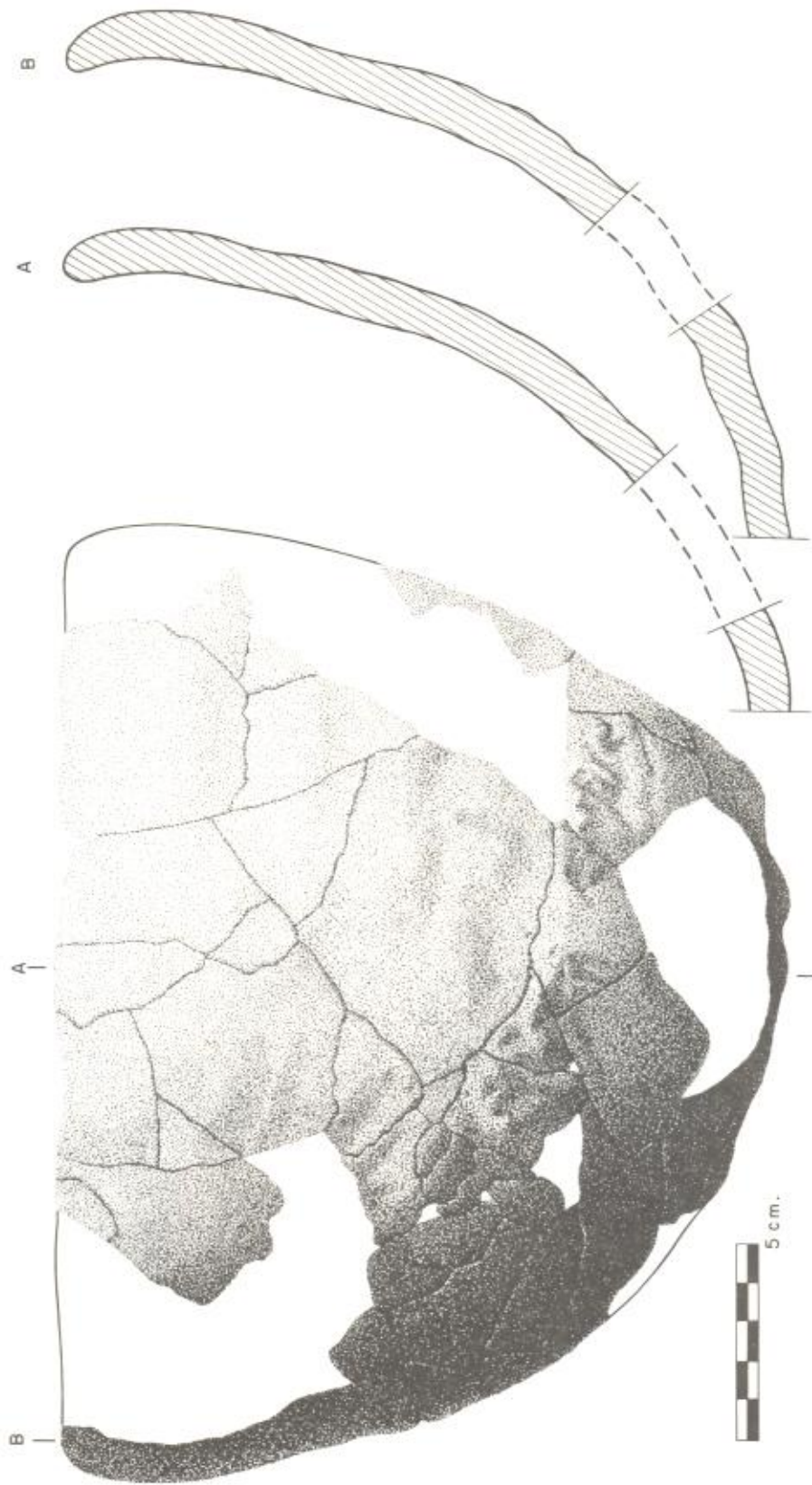
The pottery is relatively coarse in texture, thick-walled, dark brown to black in color, and rather heavily tempered with sand. Minute flecks of mica are generally conspicuous on the surface. Exterior surfaces commonly are quite rough, often showing small fingernail indentations. Vessel shapes are characterized by thick pointed bases, wide mouths with slightly out-curving rims, and medium to tall globular bodies.... [Baldwin 1942:187].

All of the characteristics of Paiute utility ware mentioned by Baldwin, except the thick pointed bases, are typical of Intermountain ware, and to a lesser extent, to some other wares found in the Intermountain West, as will become apparent below. Given a random collection of sherds, only the bottom sherds would serve to distinguish these wares from one another.

There is another form or group of related forms represented along the Snake River in southern Idaho that cannot be assigned to either the more loosely defined Shoshonean ware or the more narrowly defined Intermountain ware. Based on a large rim sherd from Bronco Jim Point on the southern shore of the American Falls Reservoir (fig. 4, upper left), a reconstructed pot from Gifford Springs on the north shore of the Snake River below the American Falls Reservoir (Fig. 4, lower), and a partially reconstructed pot from Minidoka County (Fig. 4, upper right) on the north shore of the Snake well below Gifford Springs, the other form or forms are globular with rounded bottom(s) and vertical or outcurving neck and rims. These Snake River pottery finds are strongly reminiscent of pottery traditions associated with the Fremont culture in Utah, particularly those which have been previously referred to collectively as Desert Gray ware (Rudy 1953). According to Madsen, the types of pottery formerly called Desert Gray ware (e.g., Snake Valley Gray, Great Salt Lake Gray and Sevier Gray)

... are coil constructed and tempered with a variety of igneous and sedimentary materials, ranging from crushed basalt or calcite to sand. The grey to dark grey color was produced by smudging or firing in a reducing atmosphere. Although this pottery is unslipped, a fugitive red (hematite) wash is often found





**FIGURE 3**

Example of Paiute type ware reconstructed from sherds found at location 7 in Fig. 1. Est. ht. 18.5cm; est. max. dia. 24.5cm.



**FIGURE 4**  
 Fragmentary examples of Fremont-like pottery found along Snake River. **Upper left**, rimsherd from location 8, Fig. 1; **Upper right**, portion of pot from location 5, Fig. 1; **lower**, pot reconstructed from sherds found at location 6, Fig. 1. Est. ht. 19.5cm; max. dia. 28cm.



over the entire exterior surface. Finishing was accomplished by scraping, smoothing, and sometimes polishing. . . [Madsen 1977:v-vi].

Fremont culture took its name from the Fremont River drainage of east-central Utah. There, on the basis of a comprehensive archaeological survey and study, Morss (1931) defined a tradition related to but outside the main stream of Southwestern development, a tradition based on both horticulture and hunting and gathering and which involved pottery distinctive from that of the neighboring Anasazi. Since Morss' time, knowledge of Fremont cultural manifestations has grown considerably and today at least five regional variants are known (Marwitt 1970). The northernmost of these, the Great Salt Lake, touches on or overlaps with the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country in southeastern Idaho. It dates from A.D. 400 to approximately A.D. 1350 and embraces such diverse sites and components as the Promontory Caves excavated by Steward in the mid-30s (Steward 1937), Hogup Cave strata 12 to 14 (Aikens 1970), and the Bear River sites nos. 1-3 (Aikens 1966, 1967; Shields and Dalley 1969), which collectively are "notable for the rather large numbers of bison and/or waterfowl bones they contain, in distinct contrast to other Fremont variants" (Marwitt 1970:147). Further, "it seems apparent that maize horticulture, which formed the subsistence base for Fremont peoples farther south, was of relatively minor importance in the Great Salt Lake Variant, being only incidental

to seed collecting, bison and waterfowl hunting, and fishing" (Marwitt 1970:147). Except for maize horticulture, this is the subsistence base for peoples in nearly every period of habitation in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country. The flaked stone artifacts characteristic of the Great Salt Lake variant, such as Elko and Rose Spring corner-notched and Desert and Rose Spring side-notched points, are found at many sites in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country, but sites of the age in question (ca A.D. 400-1350) have rarely yielded pottery of which two types are characteristic of the Great Salt Lake variant of Fremont culture, namely Great Salt Lake Gray and Promontory Gray. The former was described above, under the collective name "Desert Gray Wares." Promontory Gray, on the other hand, is

... a paddle-and-anvil constructed pottery which may have originated in the Northwestern Plains (Aikens 1966). Surfaces are rough and poorly finished. Temper shows marked variation, but mostly consists of large angular crushed particles of calcite. Decorative techniques are limited to incising, punching and applique. This tradition appears quite late, having been manufactured during the Levee phase (A.D. 1000 to 1350) of the Great Salt Lake Fremont (D. Madsen n.d.) [Madsen 1977:vi].

The oldest known examples of pottery in southern Idaho are clearly later in time than the main thrust of Fremont culture, but do overlap in time with the Levee phase of the Great Salt Lake regional variant.

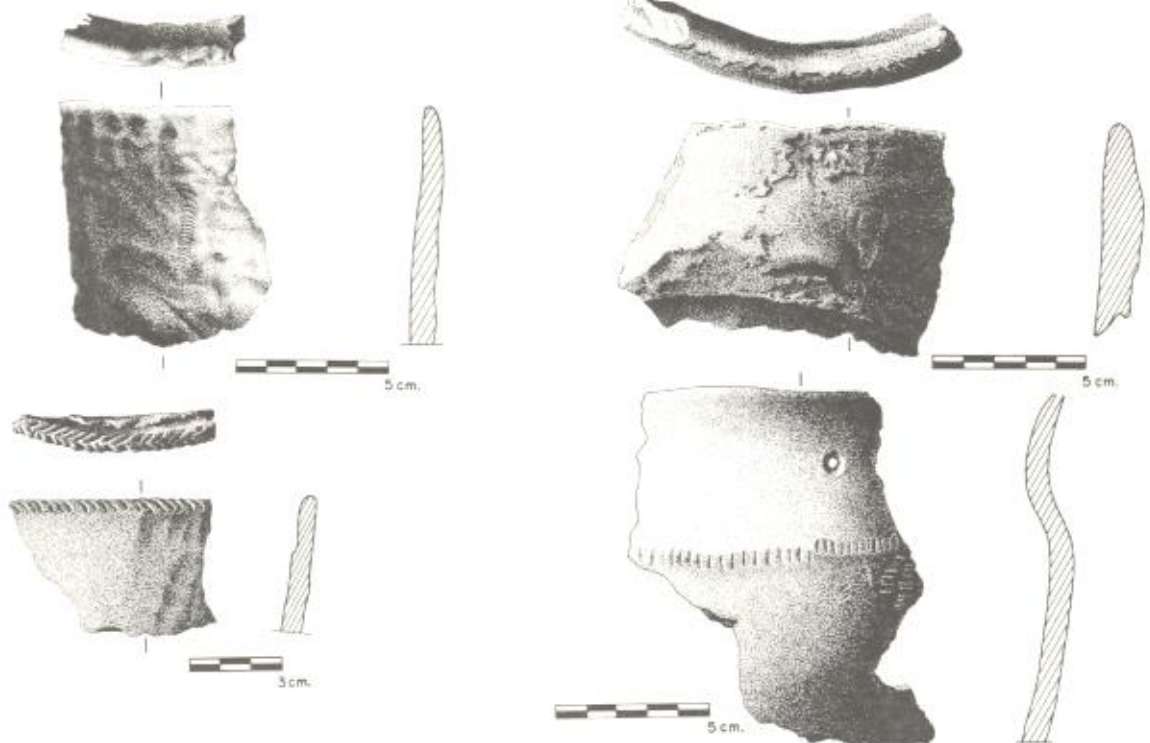


FIGURE 5

Pottery fragments, probably of Intermountain ware. **Upper right and left**, from earth oven at Poison Creek (10-BM-50) radiocarbon dated at A.D. 1230 ± 70 years; **lower left**, finger-

nail decorated rimsherd from Stratum A, Wilson Butte Cave; **lower right**, fingernail decorated sherd from the Wasden Site (Owl Cave).



The pottery examples in question were recovered in 1975 (Neudorfer 1976) from an earth oven at the Poison Creek site on the Blackfoot Reservoir some 25 miles north of the great bend of the Bear River in the southeastern corner of Idaho. The reservoir itself is on the Blackfoot River which flows north-westward into the Snake River near Fort Hall, Idaho. The earth oven was radiocarbon dated at A.D. 1230  $\pm$  70 (WSU-1478). There were eight sherds, four of which formed a decorated rim section of an Intermountain ware pot, the decoration consisting of vertical rows of light fingernail impressions below the rim (Fig. 5, upper left). Three other sherds may also have been from this same pot. The eighth sherd, also from a rim, was from a much thicker walled, more roughly finished vessel (Fig. 5, upper right). In these regards, thickness and finish, Neudorfer (1976:53) considered this specimen comparable to Promontory ware as defined by Rudy (1953). The sherd came from a vessel made by flattening large coils; perhaps by paddle and anvil, but the temper is neither crushed calcite nor is it coarse. This may be simply an unusually thick-walled Intermountain ware vessel.

Two years earlier, another part of the Poison Creek site yielded sherds of another Intermountain ware vessel with an outward flaring lip. This part of the site was radiocarbon dated at A.D. 1500  $\pm$  80 (WSU-1441; Miss 1974; A.D. 1420 corrected), very close to the radiocarbon age, A.D. 1525  $\pm$  150 (M-1088; A.D. 1450 corrected), for the middle zone of Stratum A at Wilson Butte Cave which yielded a considerable number of potsherds, apparently all from a form with thin, hard, well shaped and finished walls and fingernail indentation on the lip (Fig. 5, lower left). Although Gruhn (1961a) identified this pottery as a distinctive type, Wilson Butte Plain ware, she did note that the sherds had been examined by Rudy, who informed her "that all of the rimsherds are undoubtedly 'Shoshoni ware,' although the fingernail decoration on the lip is unique; some of the body sherds have a smoother finish than others and contain more mica, and are reminiscent of [another] type, Deep Creek Buff (personal communication, February 1961)" (Gruhn 1961a:99-100). A large quantity of pottery, some extensively fingernail decorated (Fig. 5, lower right), was also recovered from the uppermost layers at the Wasden Site (Owl Cave), but these layers have not been radiocarbon dated, nor has any other layer containing pottery in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country been radiocarbon dated, though the evidence generally indicates that all of these layers are late prehistoric or early historic in age.

On the other hand, there are radiocarbon dated layers of late prehistoric age in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country that do not contain pottery, a fact which has been used by some writers to support the late Shoshonean migration hypoth-

esis. Wright, for example, notes that while pottery had appeared in Wyoming to the northeast of the Blackfoot Reservoir by the late 15th century

...it is still absent from Birch Creek during the Blue Dome Phase. The distance from Blackfoot Reservoir to Birch Creek is less than 100 miles. A C-14 date for the Blue Dome Phase at Veratic (Swanson 1972) corrects to A.D. 1460-1500, the same time range for Piney Creek and Mummy Cave far to the east in Wyoming. The Blue Dome Phase terminated no earlier than the early seventeenth century. . . . From the stratigraphically later Lemhi Phase, which can be associated with Shoshonean speakers, one vessel is known, this from 10-CL-100, layers 1 and 2 where it was associated with a trade bead (Swanson et al., 1964:96). It clearly dates to posthorse times [Wright 1978].

On the basis of such data, Wright then goes on to say that:

The distribution and spread of Intermountain ware conforms to what would be expected from the migration hypothesis, following as the earliest dated ceramics do, a particular migration route. This extends from southern Idaho into the Green River Basin and over South Pass "Which was the major route for the expansion of Shoshoneans onto the High Plains" (Frison 1971:282, cf Secoy 1953:33). It next spread onto the Northwestern Plains where it is in some instances associated with Crow pottery in historic territory (Frison 1976) [op. cit].

Wright ignored or failed to appreciate the significance of published data on the distribution of pottery finds generally in the upper Snake and Salmon River Country. Pottery finds are far more common in certain parts of the region than in others, very probably as a function of types of food resources and the sexual division of labor involved (Butler 1970). They are particularly abundant in and around the camas meadows bordering the northern edge of the Snake River Plain, along the Snake River, especially below the American Falls Reservoir where many food plants were apparently collected in aboriginal times, and along various parts of the Salmon River at least as far downstream as the Corn Creek Campground below the confluence of the Middle Fork with the main Salmon River. Pottery finds are also common in the Lost River Sinks locality (Pioneer Basin) but very scarce or absent from the Lost River Valleys themselves, a fact which I have attributed to use of these valleys as hunting grounds by small parties of males (Butler 1970). Thus, the geographic disparity in the distribution of pottery in southern Idaho may not be so much a function of time as Wright would have us believe but of differential food gathering and hunting activities. I believe that this variable needs to be taken into account in any distributional study of pottery.

The question of geographic disparity in the distribution of pottery in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country resulting from sexual differences in food gathering and hunting activities is of crucial importance in connection with recovery of data bearing on the relation of Fremont culture to the Middle and Late Archaic in this region. If the distribution of pottery in the region is, indeed, a function



of sexual division of labor and the food resources being exploited, then previous archaeological studies in the region cannot be used as a basis for settling questions regarding either the antiquity of pottery in this region or the occurrence of Fremont cultural manifestations generally and their relationship to the Middle and Late Archaic patterns in the region. Most studies in the region to date have focused on hunting encampments, especially at cave and rock-shelter sites; seed and root-gathering locations have been neglected, and no major excavation has taken place along the Snake River in those localities where the major pottery finds have been made, a fact which I stressed in the third edition of *A Guide to Understanding Idaho Archaeology* (Butler 1978).

In summary, the native pottery of the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country embraces at least two very distinct wares, each exhibiting considerable variation in form and decoration. The last is particularly true of Intermountain ware, the most widely represented ware in the region, and one which dates back to the early years of the thirteenth century. The other principal ware appears to be restricted to the area lying south of the Northern Rockies in eastern Idaho and may represent a northern extension of Fremont culture. This other ware is of unknown age, but, if related to Fremont, may antedate Intermountain ware in the region. Interestingly, fragments of Fremont type basketry have been found at dry cave sites at the southern end of the Northern Rockies and on the Snake River Plain (Swanson 1972:206). The age of the basketry fragments is not certain, but based on their apparent association with Desert side-notched points at these sites, they are probably manifestations of the Late Archaic (ca. 1200-1860). At Pence-Duerig Cave on the Snake River Plain (Gruhn 1961b), the Fremont-type basketry may have been associated with fragments of Intermountain ware as well as Desert side-notched points. I say may have been associated, because the available records on the excavation, made by amateurs in 1937, are very sketchy.

The age, geographical distribution and associations of these apparently distinctive wares in the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country would appear to indicate a much more complex cultural developmental problem than that implied in the Shoshonean migration hypothesis. Certainly, the evidence from the Upper Snake and Salmon River Country doesn't seem to fit the hypothesis as easily as some writers would have us believe.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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participants at that conference for their enthusiastic reception of the paper and for their encouragement in having it published. A warm note of thanks is also due Ms. Frankie Forrest for her drawings of the pottery illustrated herein.

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- Wright, Gary A.  
 1978 The Shoshonean Migration Problem. Plains Anthropologist 23(80):113-137.



## ARCHAEOLOGY AND THE LAW

### Editor's Note:

The following article, "Archaeology and the Law," by Charles R. McGimsey III is quoted here to remind everyone concerned with or interested in archaeology, including the preservation of sites, that we all have a role to play, as individuals and as an organization. Idaho is one of those states referred to by McGimsey which had not established "effective enabling legislation" in 1971. Only a handful, not including Idaho, have passed meaningful legislation since that time.

The Federal Government has, on the other hand, made some progress since 1971. Specifically, Congress, in 1976, passed Public Law 94-579, known as the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976. This law, when fully implemented, will widen and enhance the protection afforded historical and archaeological sites and resources and will provide ongoing programs for cataloguing such sites and classifying them for systematic development and/or preservation for future study.

We will endeavor to keep our readers informed as these policies and procedures are developed as well as to obtain from Federal agencies (BLM and USFS) their respective programs regarding our archaeological heritage as they are implemented.

Archaeology, like any field of endeavor, cannot and does not exist apart from the world around it. Nonetheless, most of us, much of the time, pretend that it can and does. We become tremendously upset because that world has impinged itself upon us by destroying or threatening to destroy our sites, but there has been too little evidence as yet that the society, or the profession as a whole, is inclined to take the necessary preventative action— for to do so involves getting out of our little world and into the world of "the public" and, worse, into the world of politics.

Like it or not, archaeology's only salvation lies in the laws of the land and in public support for those laws. To obtain such legislation and the necessary public support, a greatly increased number of archaeologists, actively supported by this society, are going to have to take their heads out of their two-meter pits and become involved with the outside world.

If past experience is any guide, some of you now are thinking that what we need is more antiquities legislation, laws to protect sites from wanton destruction and prevent excavation by other than archaeologists, or at least laws to eliminate the pot hunter; an equally large number of you are commenting that antiquities legislation simply won't work. In my view, both groups are dead wrong.

There is not one but three basic types of legislation affecting archaeology: enabling legislation which establishes archaeological research and preservation as a public policy and creates a mechanism for carrying out that policy; appropriation legislation which provides the funding necessary to carry out that policy; and antiquities legislation which provides elements of both positive and negative control. Of the three, the so-called antiquities law is most

popular, but is easily the least important, though, as part of a total program, it too has a significant role to play.

On the federal level, only the Smithsonian Institution, the Department of the Interior, and, to a lesser degree, the Departments of Transportation and of Housing and Urban Development, currently are authorized to concern themselves with archaeology or the effect of their programs on the nation's archaeological resources, though there is an effort at the present time to correct this imbalance. The Federal Antiquity Act of 1906, the Historic Sites Act of 1935, the Reservoir Salvage Act of 1960, and the Historic Preservation Act of 1935, the Reservoir Salvage Act of 1960, and the Historic Preservation Act of 1966 have provided legal cornerstones for federal activity and have served as models for various state programs. Nonetheless, actual federal funding for archaeological programs has decreased rather than increased in the recent past, despite increased federal activity in other areas which, however inadvertently, is accelerating the loss of the nation's archaeological resources.

No more than 15 of the states have what could be termed effective enabling legislation, that is, legislation which goes beyond mere creation of a post of state archaeologist, and which at least envisions the establishment of a responsible state agency and the capacity for carrying out a realistic program of archaeological research and development. Even in these states, only a few have developed truly effective programs. Only one state without specific enabling legislation could be said to have anything approaching a developed archaeological program. The exact mechanisms vary from state to state and there is not space to go into them here. However, one salient fact should be pointed out: almost without exception, those states with reasonably funded programs are those which legislatively or administratively recognize in a clear-cut manner the separate existence and responsibility of an archaeological program.

In terms of the level of funding (and of administrative structure), only five states have what might be called developed programs, while another 16 have minimal basic programs. The remaining states have programs which range from less than minimal to nothing whatever. Small wonder our archaeological resources are disappearing so rapidly!

Antiquities legislation, though almost totally ineffective alone, has long been popular (it is found in approximately 40 states) and frequently it is the only legislative approach attempted. Since the results of such legislation are consistently lacking or negative, why has it remained so popular? One answer seems readily apparent: it is the simple obvious approach and requires, before or after passage, the least personal involvement on the part



of the archaeologist (or anyone else!). It supports the archaeologist's own moralistic beliefs, and generally is the responsibility of someone else (if anyone) to enforce. Antiquities protection laws are important and need strengthening, but other necessary action is seldom considered. Surely it should be apparent to archaeologists, as anthropologists, that laws reflect society and that only to the extent that laws are based upon public opinion will they be effective. Archaeology has attempted to accomplish by fiat what can be accomplished only by education. The present near total lack of success is hardly surprising.

The only approach which holds any hope for success in providing protection for and the recovery of our archaeological resources is not the negative approach of prohibiting action, but rather the development of appropriate programs which encourage and make possible positive action. Positive action becomes possible only through adequate funding of programs of archaeological research and development, programs which are carried out in accordance with professional standards, and draw generously upon the public for active assistance and support. The only adequate source of permanent funding for such programs is through state and federal appropriation legislation. State or federal legislation, in turn, is possible only through widespread public understanding and support of archaeology's place and needs. Archaeologists are not noticeably averse to hard work, but success in this particular area requires not just hard work, but hard work in the fields of public coordination and education (which is quite different from academic education), and in practical politics.

Given the typical archaeologist's lack of involvement with the public and with politics, it should come as no surprise that public support of archaeological research is grossly inadequate. Less than one-tenth of the states have minimally adequate programs. None appropriate sufficient funds for archaeological research. We in the profession must get out and fight the battles necessary to achieve appropriate legislation and adequate funding. This job must be viewed as part of our professional responsibility. The public, and the politicians who answer directly to that public, will not, on their own initiative, design the necessary programs and voluntarily provide sufficient funding.

We have long heard the professional battle cry of "publish or perish." I suggest that if this professional society and its members continue their near total emphasis on research and publication (and academic teaching), to the virtual exclusion of all else, then "publish *and* perish" will be more appropriate. What *will* happen is that our basic resource materials will disappear, and archaeology's final contribution to mankind will be to provide future generations with an excellent example of suicide by an entire profession.

CHARLES R. MCGIMSEY III  
Arkansas Archaeological Survey  
University of Arkansas Museum

"Archaeology and the Law," by Charles R. McGimsey III, is reproduced by permission of the Society for American Archaeology from *American Antiquity* 36:125-126, 1971.



## STYLE GUIDE FOR THE IDAHO ARCHAEOLOGIST

To provide handy reference for our contributors, we are publishing in this issue the *Style Guide for American Antiquity* as prepared by the Editors of that publication for the guidance of their contributors. It is reproduced by permission of the Society for American Archaeology from *American Antiquity* 44:193-205, 1979.

Professionals will be expected to conform completely with this style guide. Non-professionals (amateurs) will be expected to conform as nearly as possible to the same style requirements, keeping

in mind that the editors would rather help edit contributions into the proper style than to forego their receipt. If you have something to say or a question to ask, *please* send it in typed double-spaced and we will be onto too happy to help the author in attaining the correct publishing format.

In all cases, as we've mentioned previously, edited manuscripts will be returned to the author if there is any possibility of our changing the meaning or intent.

### STYLE GUIDE FOR AMERICAN ANTIQUITY

This style guide is intended to standardize important elements of style and thus to aid authors, editors, and proofreaders in preparing copy for publication in *American Antiquity*. For matters of style not included here, consult *A Manual of Style*, twelfth edition (University of Chicago Press, 1969). In the few cases of conflict between this style guide and the *Chicago Manual*, the directions given here are to be followed.

#### TYPING THE MANUSCRIPT

1. **Paper.** Type the manuscript on one side of white bond paper. Do not use "onionskin" or "Corrasable" paper.
2. **Double-Spacing.** Double-space *all* typed sections of the manuscript, including references, acknowledgments, set-off quotes, figure captions, abstracts, and tables.
3. **Margins.** Top, bottom, and both side margins should be about 1.5 inches (3.7 cm).
4. **Sections of the Manuscript.** Each of the following sections of the manuscript should be on a separate page or should start a new page. Arrange the parts of the manuscript in the order given below:
  - Title page (title, authors, and authors' affiliation note)
  - Abstract (separate page)
  - Text (start a new page)
  - Acknowledgments (separate page)
  - References Cited (start a new page)
  - Figure Captions (separate page or pages)
  - Tables (separate page or pages for each table)Number all pages consecutively.
5. **Title Page.** Prepare as in the following example:

A NEW TECHNIQUE FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF ARTIFACT ANGLES

Robert J. Burgess and Kenneth L. Kvamme

(at bottom of title page);

Robert J. Burgess and Kenneth L. Kvamme,

Department of Anthropology, Colorado State University,

Fort Collins, CO 80523

6. **Abstract.** Provide an abstract of no more than 150 words that specifically refers to and outlines the text material. Prepare the abstract as an ordinary paragraph.
7. **Headings.**
  - Primary heads should be typed in all caps, centered, with two lines of space above and below.
  - Secondary heads should be typed flush with the left margin, initial caps on significant words, underlined (will be set in italic), with space above and below.
  - Head for the reference list (REFERENCES CITED) should be typed as a primary head.

#### METRIC MEASUREMENTS

1. **Measurements of distance, area, volume, etc.** All such measurements should follow the metric system.

*Examples:* 405 ha (not 1000 acres)  
2.8 m<sup>2</sup> (not 30 square feet)  
about 40 km (not about 25 miles)  
5.7 l (not 6 quarts)  
85 g (not 3 ounces)

2. **Abbreviations.** All measurements should be expressed with arabic numerals and abbreviated metric measurements, except (a) when used nonspecifically and (b) when used at the beginning of a sentence.

*Examples:* Several cubic meters of fill were removed.  
Three kilometers from the site . . .

3. **Time.** Units of time of a second or less are considered metric (and should therefore be abbreviated); units of time greater than a second are not metric (and should not be abbreviated).

*Examples:* After 3.2 sec had elapsed . . .  
Approximately 65 years later . . .

## MATHEMATICAL AND STATISTICAL COPY

1. **Mathematical formulas and equations.** Mathematical copy is difficult and expensive to set and should therefore be avoided when possible. Follow these general rules for formulas and equations:
- For displayed equations, use plenty of space above and below the equation (setting it off from the text) and between elements of the equation (around equals signs, for example).
  - All letters that represent mathematical variables should be underlined (to be set in italic).
  - Mark, in pencil, all symbols that might be ambiguous or confusing to the typesetter.

*Examples:* is x a variable, a multiplication sign, or  
a lower case chi?  
is 1 a one or a lower case "el"?  
is B a cap "bee" or a Greek beta?

2. **Statistics.** Type statistical equations in the following form:

*Example:*  $F = 13.67$ ,  $df = 1, 24$ ,  $p < .05$ .

## NUMBERS

1. **Cardinal numbers.** Use arabic numerals for all numbers above nine; spell out numbers zero through nine.

**Exceptions:**

- a. Spell out any number that begins a sentence.

*Examples:* Twelve of the vessels . . .

Three hundred years earlier . . .

- b. Spell out numbers that are used in general expressions in narrative text.

*Example:* There were hundreds of beads . . .

- c. Always use arabic numerals for the following:

**Measurements**

*Examples:* 16 m, 4 hours, a capacity of 3 l

**Dates**

*Examples:* 150 years later, on June 12, 1976

**Page numbers**

*Examples:* (1977:34-37); on page 12 of the article . . .

**Mathematical copy**

8% of the artifacts, significant at the .05  
level,  $n = 6$



2. **Ordinal numbers.** Always spell out.

*Examples:* In the middle of the twelfth day . . .  
The twenty-seventh test . . .

3. **Dates.**

a. Do not use apostrophes in decades.

*Example:* 1960s (not 1960's)

b. Spell out, in lowercase letters, references to centuries.

*Example:* nineteenth century (not 19th century or  
Nineteenth Century)

c. Use full entries for years inclusive.

*Example:* 1963-1972 (not 1963-72)

### RADIOCARBON AGES

1. Always give age *and* date in first direct citation (date alone may be used in subsequent citations).

*Examples:* radiocarbon age of 11,950 ± 100 years: 10000 B.C.  
(Lab. #)

(Lab # is used if age is announced for the first time)

age of 950 ± radiocarbon years: A.D. 1000

(citation)

(cite published reference if previously announced)

2. Use the following for chemical symbols:

*Examples:* C-14, Th-230, U-234 (not C<sup>14</sup>, <sup>230</sup>Th, U<sub>234</sub>)

### QUOTATIONS

1. Quotations of fewer than five typewritten lines should be run in with the text. After the quotation, cite author, year of publication, and page number(s) in parentheses.

*Example:* The conclusion was that "we may expect systems to exist where there are major distinctions between residential and special-purpose sites" (Binford 1978:357).

2. Quotations of five typewritten lines or more should be set off from the text (although they will probably be typeset in reduced type, they should be typed *double-spaced*).

*Example:* The authors concluded:  
Thus, while the Meggers, Evans, and Estrada thesis of a Jomon drift voyage appears highly improbable, our rejection of it does not mean we altogether rule out the possibility of trans-Pacific contacts at Valdivia or elsewhere in the New World (McEwan and Dickson 1978:369).

### ITALICS

1. Words in natively written languages are italicized; use standard orthographies, including diacritical marks, and explain unusual symbols (see also ACCENTS).
2. Generic, specific, and varietal names are italicized; all other taxonomic designations are printed in roman face.
3. Titles of books, journals, poems, and other literary works are italicized when mentioned in text; article titles are roman, set off by quotation marks.

- Letters that represent mathematical variables are italicized (see MATHEMATICAL AND STATISTICAL COPY).
- Foreign words and phrases in common usage should *not* be italicized. Consult *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*: any word or phrase that appears in the main section of the dictionary should not be italicized; any word or phrase that appears at the end of the dictionary, in the "Foreign Words and Phrases" section, should be italicized.

*Examples:* *in situ*, *a priori*, *et al.*, *vis-à-vis*

amor patriae, sic transit gloria mundi

## CAPITALIZATION

- For capitalization of nonarchaeological terms, consult the *Chicago Manual*, chapter 7.
- Capitalize names of specific archaeological and geographical areas.  
*Examples:* Mesoamerica, Lowland Maya, the Southwest
- Lower case directional, topographic, and general geographic terms unless they are derived from proper names of political or ethnic entities.  
*Examples:* mesoamerican, southwestern  
but Maya Lowlands, Mexican desert
- Capitalize taxonomic names of generic and higher rank.  
*Examples:* order Artiodactyla, family Bovidae,  
genus Bison
- Capitalize proper names (including Lower, Middle, Early, Late, when part of the name) of chronological cultural, and geologic divisions, but lowercase generic division names and restrictive modifiers.  
*Examples:* Upper Paleolithic period, late Pleistocene,  
Middle Mississippi culture, early Middle Prehistoric period, Upper Republican aspect,  
Koster site; also horizon, phase, complex
- Capitalize proper names of archaeological classes, but lower-case generic division terms.  
*Examples:* Quina scrapers, Cody knives, Folsom fluted points, Kayenta polychrome, Tiahuanaco variety,  
Hopewell Zoned Stamped, Jocote Orange-brown

## HYPHENS

- For rules governing hyphenation of nonarchaeological compound words, consult the *Chicago Manual*, pp. 133-136, or *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*.
- Compounds are spelled solid if they can be considered permanent combinations.  
*Examples:* preconquest, Postclassic, Precolumbian,  
preceramic  
but pre-Basketmaker, paleo-Indian
- Hyphenate descriptive terms that are combinations of words including a preposition.  
*Examples:* red-on-buff, Snowflake Black-on-white,  
Maverick Mountain Black-on-red
- Hyphenate spelled out fractions.  
*Examples:* seven-tenths, sixty-nine hundredths

## ACCENTS

- Include all common accents for French, Spanish, and German in the text and in the reference list. Be sure the accents are clearly marked. Pay particularly close attention to proper names and titles of works.  
*Examples:* Mission Archéologique et Ethnologique  
Française au Mexique  
the Mixtec term ñuhu



## TABLES

1. Typesetting tables is difficult, time-consuming, and therefore expensive. Tabular presentation of data should be used only where necessary (data in a very short table, for example, can often be included in text, with no loss of clarity).
2. Size. When setting up a table, keep in mind the physical limitations of the journal page. A table more than 12 columns wide, for example, will usually (depending on the width of the columns and column heads) have to be turned sideways on the page; a table more than 18 columns wide will usually have to be broken into two tables or set in reduced type.
3. Rules. Do not include vertical rules in tables; mark horizontal rules in black pencil.
4. Numbering. Number all tables (arabic numerals) chronologically, in the order in which they are cited in text.
5. Title. Provide a short title for each table, typed at the top of the page, with significant words in initial caps.

*Example:* Table 3. Variation by Bands in Bayport Chert.

6. Footnotes. There are three kinds of footnotes to tables:

- a. General notes pertaining to the whole table.

*Example:* Note. Numbers in italic indicate items

that would have been removed when site

was abandoned.

- b. Notes specific to one entry, section, or head.

*Examples:* <sup>a</sup> Estimate of number.

<sup>b</sup> Fragments

- c. Notes indicating a level of statistical significance.

*Examples:* \*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

Arrange notes in the order of the examples above (i.e., general notes, specific notes indicated by superscript lower-case letters, and significance notes indicated by asterisks).

7. Citation. Every table must be cited in text, using the following form (do not abbreviate the word Table):

*Examples:* (Table 1), Tables 2, 3, and 6), (Tables 3-6),

As shown in Table 5 . . .


8. Typing. Type *all* sections of the table *double-spaced*.

## FIGURES

1. Authors are responsible for supplying figures "camera ready," that is, suitable for reproduction.
2. Size. Keep in mind that almost all figures are photographically reduced before publication in the journal. The maximum width of a published figure is 5 inches (12.7 cm); if turned sideways on the page, 8 inches (20.3 cm). Extremely complex charts or maps, then, with considerable detail and small lettering, often will not reduce well.
3. Drawing and Lettering. Freehand or typewritten lettering is *not* acceptable.
  - a. All drawing and lettering should be done professionally or with a stencil or press-on lettering kit.
  - b. Be sure to use lettering of sufficient size to withstand reduction.
  - c. Very light or very heavy lettering generally does not reduce well (the former tends to break up and the latter to bleed together).
4. Paper. Any of the following are acceptable (photocopies are *not* acceptable):
  - a. Good quality white drawing paper.
  - b. Graph paper (with *blue* grid lines).
  - c. Plastic or acetate transparency.
  - d. Glossy photographic prints.
5. Scales. Include a scale when objects, plans, sections, etc., are included in the figure. Place the scale on the actual figure, *not* in the caption, and *not* in the form, "one inch equals 450 feet." Because almost all

figures are reduced before publication, such scales will not be accurate after reduction.

*Example:*

Use a drawn scale--  on the figure, which will then be reduced the same amount as the figure and will remain accurate.

6. **Caption.** For each figure, provide a caption (type all captions *double-spaced*, on a separate sheet or sheets of paper).

*Example:* Figure 1. Locations of cairn burial sites in the California deserts.

7. **Citation.** Every figure must be cited in text, using the following form (do not abbreviate the word Figure):

*Example:* (Figure 2), (Figures 1, 3, and 4), (Figures 4-6). As shown in Figure 3 . . .

#### REFERENCE CITATIONS IN TEXT (Articles, Reports, Comments, Cultural Resource Management Sections)

1. **Simple citation, with no page numbers, etc., specified.**

(Smith 1976) or Smith (1976)

2. **Two authors.**

(Smith and Brown 1967) or Smith and Brown (1967)

3. **Three or more authors.**

(Smith et al. 1972) or Smith et al. (1972)

4. **Several different authors cited in one place.**

(Smith 1972; Warren and Jones 1956; Wilson 1965) or Smith (1972), Warren and Jones (1956), and Wilson (1965)

5. **Several references by same author.**

(Brown 1965, 1970, 1974) or Brown (1965, 1970, 1974)

6. **Two or more references by the same author or authors in the same year.**

(Jones and Brown 1972a, 1972b; Wilson 1973c) or Jones and Brown (1972a, 1972b) and Wilson (1973c)

7. **Citation with pages, figures, or tables specified.**

(Smith 1977:23), (Jones and Wilson 1972: Figure 3), (Brown 1968:533-534), (Johnson et al. 1970: Table 1), Taylor (1964:23, 67-69)

8. **In-press reference.**

(Wilson, in press)

9. **No author specified** (cite the group issuing the report or the publisher).

(United Nations 1963), (Committee on Ethics 1977)



## REFERENCES CITED

1. *All* references cited in text must appear in References Cited list, and *all* entries in the list must be cited in text.
2. Alphabetize reference list by last names of authors. Two or more works by the same author or authors should be listed chronologically; two or more by the same author or authors in the same year should be alphabetized by the first significant word in the title and differentiated by lower case letters following the date (1977a, 1977b, etc.).
3. Authors are responsible for the accuracy and completeness of their reference lists.
4. Arrange the parts of the reference in the following general order:  
Author(s)  
Date  
Title  
Publication information
5. Type reference list *double-spaced*.

## SAMPLE REFERENCES

### 1. Book, single author.

Kroeber, Alfred L.  
1948 Anthropology. Harcourt, Brace, New York.

### 2. Book, volume in a series.

Biggar, H. P.  
1929 The works of Samuel de Champlain (Vol. III). The Champlain Society, Toronto.

### 3. Book, multiple authors.

Hampton, David R., Charles E. Summer, and Ross A. Webber  
1978 Organizational behavior and the practice of management (third ed.). Scott, Foresman, Glenview, Illinois.

*Note:* Place only the *first* author's name in reverse order. For name of publisher, do not include "and Company," "Inc.," "Publishers," "Publishing Company," etc.

*Note:* If city is not well known, include state name in place of publication.

### 4. Edited book.

Graburn, Nelson (editor)  
1971 Readings in kinship and social structure. Harper & Row, New York.

### 5. Article in edited book.

Binford, Lewis R., and Jack B. Bertram  
1977 Bone frequencies--and attributional processes. In For theory building in archaeology, edited by L. R. Binford, pp. 77-156. Academic Press, New York.

### 6. Technical report.

Meyers, J. Thomas, and Mark DeNies  
1972 LONGTERM and PEAKSCAN: neutron activation analysis computer programs. Museum of Anthropology, University of Michigan, Technical Reports 2.

**7. Book, no author, government publication.**

U.S. Government Printing Office

1967 Style manual. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

**8. Article in edited series.**

Nash, Ronald J.

1976 Cultural systems and culture change in the central Arctic. In Eastern Arctic prehistory: Paleoeskimo problems, edited by Moreau S. Maxwell. Memoirs of the Society for American Archaeology 31:150-155.

**9. Series or monograph.**

Shepardson, Mary

1963 Navajo ways in government: a study in political process. American Anthropological Association, Memoir 96.

**10. Unpublished dissertation or thesis.**

Dunnell, Robert C.

1967 The prehistory of Fishtrap, Kentucky: archaeological interpretation in marginal areas. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Anthropology, Yale University.

**11. Dissertation available from University Microfilms.**

Hevly, Richard H.

1964 Pollen analysis of Quaternary archaeological and lacustrine sediments from the Colorado plateau. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Arizona. University Microfilms, Ann Arbor.

Note: If it is available, supply University Microfilms number.

**12. Article in journal.**

Wilke, Philip J.

1978 Cairn burials of the California desert. American Antiquity 43:444-448.

Note: Issue number is not necessary when journal is paginated continuously throughout volume (see next example).

**13. Article in journal, paginated by issue.**

Shepard, Eugene

1965 Tecopa burial customs. Pacific Coast Archaeological Society Quarterly 1(4):26-27.

Note: If each issue of a journal begins with page 1, the issue number should be included, in parentheses, following the volume number.



**14. Article, group author.**

The Royal Society Conference of Editors  
1968 Metrication in scientific journals.  
American Scientist 56:159-164.

**15. Article in magazine, no author.**

The Puritans  
1978 Time, October 9:64-65.

**16. Manuscript in press.**

Troike, Nancy P.  
1978 Fundamental changes in the interpretations of the Mixtec Codices. American Antiquity, in press.

*Note:* Use this form only if the manuscript has been accepted for publication, and cite the date the manuscript was accepted. For a book, cite the publisher.

**17. Unpublished manuscript.**

Adams, R. E. W.  
1968 Maya highland prehistory: new data and implications. Ms. on file, Department of Anthropology, University of Minnesota.

*Note:* Cite the year in which the manuscript was written. Give complete information about where a copy may be obtained. Do not use *n.d.*

**18. Article in proceedings.**

Gruhn, R., and A. L. Bryan  
1977 Los Tapiales: a Paleoindian site in the Guatemalan highlands. Proceedings: American Philosophical Society 121(3):235-273.

**19. Paper presented at meeting.**

Carter, George  
1973 A hypothesis suggesting a single origin of agriculture. Paper presented at the IXth International Congress of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences, Chicago.

**REFERENCES (Current Research and Reviews sections)**

1. References in reviews and current research are infrequently necessary. When they occur, they should be placed in text, in shortened form, enclosed in parentheses.
2. **Samples.**
  - a. Article.  
(Wilke, American Antiquity 43:444-448)
  - b. Book  
(Willey, Introduction to American Archaeology, 1966)
  - c. Review.  
(Plog, Review of Haury, American Antiquity 43:536-538).

## FOR FURTHER REFERENCE

American Psychological Association

- 1974 *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (second ed.). APA, Washington, D.C.  
Helpful sections on metrics, figures, numbers, and especially tables.

Bernstein, Theodore M.

- 1965 *The careful writer: a modern guide to English usage*. Atheneum, New York.  
Alphabetically arranged list of good and bad usage.

Skillin, Marjorie E., and Robert M. Gay (compilers)

- 1974 *Words into type* (third ed.). Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.  
An excellent general source for authors, with particularly useful and concise sections on grammar and usage.

Strunk, William, Jr., and E. B. White

- 1972 *The elements of style* (second ed.). Macmillan, New York.  
A classic guide to writing clear, graceful English.

University of Chicago Press

- 1969 *A manual of style* (twelfth ed.). University of Chicago Press, Chicago.  
The most complete source for authors and editors. Clear, useful sections on hyphenation, capitalization, tables, figures, mathematical copy, and all aspects of manuscript preparation.

*Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*

- 1976 Merriam, Springfield, Massachusetts.  
The authority for spelling in *American Antiquity*.

*Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (unabridged)

- 1968 Merriam, Springfield, Massachusetts.  
For anything not in the *New Collegiate*.



## IAS BOARD OF DIRECTORS' MEETING

The Board of Directors of the Idaho Archaeological Society held their annual business meeting and Biannual election of officers on Monday evening, June 4, 1979, in the conference room of the Elks Rehabilitation Center in Boise.

The financial report was read for Max Burke, Treasurer, who could not attend, as follows:

Balance in bank on June 5, 1978		384.35
Income:		
Memberships	350.00	
Annual Conference	356.00	
Idaho Archaeologist	10.00	
Miscellaneous	10.00	
Total Receipts		726.00
Expenses:		
Membership refunds to Chapters	117.50	
Annual Conference	270.12	
Idaho Archaeologist	281.49	
Miscellaneous	49.00	
Total expenditures		718.11
Balance on June 4, 1979		392.24

Officers were elected for a two-year term as indicated below. Unfortunately, the nominating committee was unable to persuade any Society members to run for office except those who have served for most of the period since organization of the IAS in 1971. As outgoing president John Schaertl indicated, this is unfortunate, since wider participation in governing the organization is most desirable in any activity.

The following slate was unanimously elected following presentation by Nominating Committee Chairman, J. Perry Silver, Jr., there being no nominations received from the floor:

President . . . . .	Florence Schaertl
Vice President . . . . .	Max Burke
Secretary . . . . .	John Schaertl
Treasurer . . . . .	J. Perry Silver, Jr.
Director of Education . . . . .	Bill Norquist
Professional Advisor . . . . .	Max Pavesic

For the first time in a number of years, no changes were proposed in either the By-Laws or Objectives of the Society.

One item of interest to members of the Society throughout Idaho is that of formation of new chapters. It has been decided that a team of "Organizers" composed of one amateur and one professional member of the Board will travel, beginning this fall, to those locations at or near colleges or universities to make presentations to groups who may be interested in forming chapters of the IAS. "At Large" members, appropriate school faculty members and archaeologists who are interested in serving as professional advisors will be contacted prior to coming into each community. The team will be supplied with recruiting and educational materials plus a slide presentation for interested groups.

### COMING EVENTS

The Seventh Annual Conference of the IAS will be held on October 6 at BSU. Letters have been sent to prospective speakers with a number going to archaeologists who worked in the state ten or more years ago. This should make for some different approaches than we have had in the past.

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