

## Appendix G

### Cultural Overview from Prehistory To Project Development

#### Prehistoric Cultural Chronology

Archaeological evidence suggests that Paleoindian groups reached Alabama at least 11,000 years ago. North Alabama, in particular, contains numerous sites dating to this stage. These early sites are difficult to identify because of their age and the mobility of the small family units which left scant material remains. There is little documentation regarding Paleoindian sites in the Coosa Valley; however, fluted Cumberland projectile points have been recovered from nearby Sand Mountain (Clayton 1965 and 1967).

The Paleoindian stage may be separated into Early (10,000 B.C. to 9,000B.C.), Middle (9,000 B.C.), and Late (8,500 B.C. to 8,000 B.C.) periods (Bense 1994). The fluted Clovis projectile point is considered the diagnostic artifact for the Early Paleoindian period. Typically, these artifacts are made from exotic, non-local materials. Although the identifiable tool kit for this time period is limited, it was well suited for hunting Pleistocene megafauna such as mastodon, bison, and giant sloth. It is notable, however, that the Pleistocene megafauna were already becoming extinct during the Early Paleoindian period (Mead and Meltzer 1984). It is suspected that these early inhabitants were at least supplementing their megafauna subsistence with other strategies such as hunting smaller animals, fishing, and harvesting nuts, berries and other plant resources (Bense 1994).

The presence of Paleoindian groups in Alabama is more prominent during the Middle Paleoindian period. The Pleistocene megafauna are presumably extinct and subsistence strategies were now focused upon Holocene animal populations (Bense 1994). Artifacts from this period become more diverse and there is an increased use of local raw materials for tool manufacture. The fluted Cumberland and unfluted Quad projectile points are considered diagnostic for the Middle Paleoindian period. Several regional cultures emerged throughout the southeastern U.S. during this time period. Most notably, the Redstone-Quad-Beaver Lake culture is defined for the central Tennessee Valley in North Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee (Bense 1994, Futato 1982).

Populations appear to have increased in Alabama during the Late Paleoindian period as they did elsewhere. These groups had adapted even more to their local environments and had expanded into new environmental zones, especially the uplands (Bense 1994). Rock shelters and caves in the Tennessee Valley were occupied seasonally as evidenced by sites like Russell Cave (Griffin 1974) in northeast Alabama, Stanfield-Whorley Bluff Shelter (DeJarnette *et al.* 1962), and Dust Cave (Driskell 1994, 1996) in northwest Alabama. Futato (1982) suggests that this later Paleoindian settlement may have been organized around an upland-lowland dichotomy. Paleoindian settlement may also have been regulated by seasonal changes in availability and distribution of resources

(Hubbert 1989). Subsistence during this time period relied upon hunting a wide variety of animals, fishing, and harvesting wild plants, nuts and fruits. The tool assemblage of the Late Paleoindian period was even more diverse and is dominated by the Dalton projectile point type. In the Coosa Valley, the Late Paleoindian phase is defined as the Dalton/Hardaway horizon.

The beginning of the Archaic stage (8000 B.C. to 1200 B.C.) corresponds with the beginning of the Early Holocene and is marked by shifts in the climate and a resulting change in local environments. These major changes within the Eastern Woodlands are reflected in the pollen studies (Delcourt *et al.* 1983, Delcourt and Delcourt 1985). The shift from the Pleistocene to the Holocene created an unstable environment as the cooler glacial conditions gave way to a warmer climate characterized by greater seasonal extremes. Archaic people successfully adapted to the changes in the weather, vegetation, and animal populations. The Archaic stage is divided into Early (8000 B.C. to 6500 B.C.), Middle (6500 B.C. to 3200 B.C.), and Late (3000 B.C. to 1200 B.C.) periods.

Hunting and gathering remained the primary subsistence strategy during the Early Archaic. Sites related to this period have been identified across Alabama, though they are still most numerous in the Tennessee Valley area. Faunal and botanical data indicate that a wide array of resources were being exploited including both large and small mammals, birds, fish and mussels, as well as nut and fruit crops (Chapman and Shea 1981, Gardner 1994, Griffin 1974, Grover 1994, Parmalee 1962, Walker 1998). Settlement patterns reflect use of both riverine and upland localities. Larger, more permanent settlements flourished in the river valleys. It is suspected that the uplands and the river valleys were utilized at different times of the year depending on the availability of resources during that time of the year.

The Early Archaic tool assemblage was more diverse than before and included side notched, corner notched, and bifurcated projectile points such as Big Sandy and Kirk Corner Notched types. The atlatl or spear thrower was a technological innovation which was made during this period. Other artifacts are documented for the Early Archaic period, as they are for succeeding times periods, including other flaked stone tools, ground and chipped stone celts and adzes, notched pebble weights, and bone and antler items (Bense 1994; Chapman 1985; Ensor 1981, 1982, 1985). Three Early archaic horizons have been defined for the middle Coosa Valley including Big Sandy/Autauga, Kirk, or Kirk Stemmed/Crawford Creek (Knight 1985).

The Middle Archaic is marked by the Altithermal, or Hypsithermal, which was a post-glacial, global warming trend. The climate became warmer and drier, resulting in decreased rainfall and changes from cool, temperate mixed hardwood forests to oak-hickory, mixed hardwood, and southern pine forests (Delcourt *et al.* 1983, Delcourt and Delcourt 1985). Settlement patterns and subsistence strategies remained virtually the same as the previous period, although there seems to have been an increase in population and sedentism. Large shell midden sites are found throughout the larger river valley and cemeteries are commonly associated with the settlements. Studies on Middle Archaic

burials suggest that there was an egalitarian social system (Bense 1994). Long-distance trade appears to have played an important role in the economy.

There were additional advances in the stone tool technology, like the process of heat treating chert, and grinding and polishing stone tools or ornaments (Bense 1994). Diagnostic projectile points for this period include Kirk Stemmed, Kirk Serrated, Cypress Creek, Crawford Creek, Eva, Morrow Mountain, Benton, and Sykes-White Springs types. The Middle Archaic is not well defined in the Coosa Valley, especially the early part of the period. Knight (1985) suggests that “there may actually be a regional decline in population for approximately 1,000 to 2,000 years, corresponding roughly with the hypsithermal climatic episode.” The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain.

The Late Archaic coincides with a climatic regime that is similar to the present day. Settlement patterns are similar to those of the Middle Archaic, although there is a marked increase in sedentism. Large base camps are common along the major river valleys. Large storage pits are common features on Late Archaic base camp sites (Futato 1983, Oakley and Futato 1975). There is an increased reliance upon aquatic resources and wild plant foods, which served as a steady food supply for the larger, more sedentary populations. The beginnings of horticulture are apparent during the Late Archaic including container crops such as bottle gourds and hard-rind squash (Bense 1994).

Technological advances includes pecked and ground stone axes, weights, plummets, ornamental items and stone bowls made from steatite or sandstone. Stemmed projectile points are characteristic to the Late Archaic cultures, including Ledbetter, Pickwick, Little Bear Creek, and Wade cluster types. Aspects of economic and social complexity become even further developed during this period. More extensive trade networks had evolved, focusing on steatite, marine shell, and high quality lithic resources (Futato 1983). Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985).

The Gulf Formational Stage begins with the advent of pottery (Walthall and Jenkins 1976). These earliest ceramics usually occurred along the Coastal Plain but in Alabama they extend up the major river valleys. With the exception of pottery, the cultural patterns are the same as for the Late Archaic. There is little evidence for the Gulf Formational Stage in the upper Coosa River Valley (Knight 1998). However, within the middle Coosa River Valley, the Gulf Formational Stage becomes apparent around 1200 B.C. and lasts until about 100 B.C., and is locally defined as the Dry Branch phase of the Alexander culture. The northeastern boundary for this cultural manifestation appears to have been somewhere within the vicinity of the Neely Henry and Logan Martin Reservoirs (Walling and Schrader 1983).

For the middle and lower Coosa River Valley, the preceding Gulf Formational Stage replaces the Early Woodland Stage. However, the Weiss Basin contains little evidence of Gulf Formational occupation. In general, the Woodland Stage begins about

A.D. 100 to about A.D. 1000 in the Coosa River Valley and is marked by several important technological developments including the introduction of the bow and arrow, an increase in horticulture, larger and more permanent villages and the building of mounds. Trade was of great importance and was probably essential to the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

By A.D. 1000 the Late Woodland Stage is represented by the Coker Ford phase in the Weiss Reservoir (Walthall 1980). Within the middle Coosa River Valley, three different cultural groups appear to have been residing at the same time. Some of the material culture within the middle Coosa began to resemble that of cultural groups to the north and west, while others show evidence of indigenous development. Evidence suggests that West Jefferson-like peoples appeared in the middle Coosa Valley contemporaneously with the appearance of the Moundville variant of the Mississippian Stage along the Black Warrior River, leading to the suggestion that the West Jefferson peoples may have migrated from the Black Warrior and Cahaba River basins as part of an acculturation process that included the Mississippians' access to economically important greenstone outcrops within the Coosa Valley (Little and Holstein 2001; Jenkins 2003).

The Mississippian Stage appears within the Coosa River Valley by A.D. 1000 and is characterized by a complex hierarchical society supported by an agrarian economy based on the cultivation of maize, beans and squash. Mound centers serve as a social and religious hub with farmsteads and villages distributed throughout the river valleys. Although some evidence of Late Mississippian occupation associated with the Etowah magnifications of this culture has been recorded within the Coosa Valley, little evidence has been recorded of the Early and Middle Mississippian occupation (Knight 1998).

The Late Mississippian occupation is represented in the upper Coosa Valley by the Barnett phase. In northwest Georgia and parts of northeastern Alabama, the Late Mississippian begins with the ceramic transition from shell tempered ceramics to sand/grit tempered ceramics of the Lamar cultures and ends with the DeSoto and DeLuna expeditions of A.D. 1540 and A.D. 1560 respectively. Sixteenth century European artifacts also have been found in association with several Barnett phase sites (Smith 1975, 1976, and 1977; Morrell 1964).

The Coosa Valley is well known for the aboriginal occupation during historic times. Marvin Smith (1987 and 1993) suggests that the Coosa chiefdom, which originated in northwestern Georgia, gradually migrated down the Coosa River Valley after Spanish contact in the mid 1500s. Late sixteenth century sites were found in Alabama around Terrapin Creek in Cherokee County, although only few sites have been identified. By the beginning of the seventeenth century, settlement was centered in the Weiss Lake area where the Coosa and Chattooga Rivers join. By 1630, settlement had moved further south in the vicinity of present day Gadsden. Settlements moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island sites located in the lower segments of Neely Henry Reservoir and the upper segments of Logan Martin Reservoir. This occupation had the first contact with British traders. By the early 1700s, settlements moved further south around Childersburg. Here the Coosa people joined an "indigenous population, the

descendents of the Kymulga phase” and “reentered the historic record as the Coosas and Abihkas” (Smith 1993).

More than 20 historic Native American villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). Both the Cherokee and the Creek populated the general area, with Cherokee towns situated primarily along the Coosa River and the Creek settlements being scattered throughout the area (Holstein and Hill 1992).

### **European Explorations and Early American Utilization**

These historic Native American groups underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the Weiss Basin area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers. A British Indian agent, traveling across Lookout Mountain to Will's Town in 1809, wrote of Cherokee farmsteads resembling the white frontier farmsteads (NPS 1991). Following the American Revolution, the Cherokee Nation ceded significant lands in South Carolina to the newly formed government. These displaced Cherokee, led by Dragging Canoe, fled to north Alabama, seceded from the Cherokee Nation and founded the five lower towns of the Chicamagua. Wills Town (named for Red Headed Will) was one of these. From here the Chicamagua waged a bloody war on white settlers in the state of Franklin until they were finally defeated. Later in the early nineteenth century, the Chicamagua rejoined the Cherokee Nation and John Watts (relative of Dragging Canoe) became principal chief of all the Cherokee Nation. This meant that during Watts' tenure as chief, Will's Town was the capitol of the Cherokee Nation (Brown 1971).

During the 1700s, changing alliances between the Native Americans and Europeans, primarily the British and French, characterized the region (Logan and Muse 1998). In 1763 the British laid claim to the region under the Treaty of Paris (Logan and Muse 1998).

After the American Revolution, no longer were European powers trying to gain control of the region, but the newly formed United States was looking to expand. The United States laid claim to Mobile under the 1803 Louisiana Purchase, allowing access to the interior through the port of New Orleans and gained authority over much of the region that would later become Alabama. Multiple treaties in Alabama opened large areas for settlement beginning in 1804 and large tracts of Native American lands were ceded. The War of 1812 presented further conflicts in the area among various alliances between the United States and England and the Native Americans.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The War ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and in August of that year many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). These lands comprised almost half of the

Alabama Territory that was established in 1817 and later as the 22<sup>nd</sup> state in 1819. In many ways the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and as the campaign continued within this area. Also, at that time this area was the boundary point between the Cherokees and the Creeks (Perry 2004).

During the “Settlement and Emergence of King Cotton Period” (1820 to 1862), the population of the region increased and individuals were establishing small farms, or plantations and communities were developing along the rivers. Advances in transportation, including ferries, steamboats, and railroads (in the 1840s) promoted regional trade of goods. Cotton became the principal export and provided the economic means for the expansion of the infrastructure. Increased pressure on the lands and the institution of the cotton economy led to the relocation of Native Americans from Alabama to Oklahoma in the 1830s.

By the 1830s, seven antebellum iron works were located along the eastern edges of the middle Coosa River drainage. Deposits of iron and coal within the region required cheap and safe transportation to market and the Coosa River was regarded by many as the logical avenue by which these commodities could be most efficiently moved to market. James Lafferty, as ship builder from Ohio, built the first steamboat appropriately named the *Coosa* and began regular commerce between Rome, Georgia and Greensport, a thriving river community located ten miles south of present day Gadsden. However, numerous shoals and rapids south of Ten Islands (Neely Henry Dam) made river traffic to Montgomery a hazardous undertaking.

With the outbreak of the Civil War, the importance of the coal and iron deposits increased as the Confederacy needed war materials. Cane Creek Iron Furnace, located within the Logan Martin Reservoir produced iron for the construction of the Merrimac during the war. In 1864 General Lovell Rousseau crossed the shoals at Ten Islands and destroyed both Cane Creek and Janney Furnaces. During the raid Rousseau was engaged by a small unit of the Confederate Home Guard at Ten Islands. In 1864 Captain Cummins Lay, in an effort to elude Union raiders became the first and only man to ever pilot a steamboat from Rome to Montgomery. In 1866 he became the first and only man to pilot a steamboat from Montgomery to Rome as he took his steamboat home. This was a formidable task as a series of falls and rapids located 14 miles north of Wetumpka was known as the Devil’s Staircase and was thought by many to be impossible to traverse by boat.

After the Civil War, the powerful railroad industry seeking quick access to high quality coal fields in the region pressed the federal government to move ahead with a river improvement plan that included thirty-one low lift dams to aid river transportation. In 1876 the Rivers and Harbors Act authorized the construction of the first three of the proposed lock and dams on the Coosa river in the vicinity of Ten Islands, thus opening the upper half of the Coosa River to steamboat traffic but only to Rome as a destination and only to a railhead waiting conveniently to take the commerce to a seaport in Savannah (Perry and Oakley 2000). In 1887 and just below the recently finished Lock

Number 3, the East and West Railroad of Alabama was authorized to build a bridge across the Coosa River. Subsequent improvements of rail lines in the region combined with the high cost of constructing the additional low lift locks needed to join the Coosa with the Alabama River prompted Congress to abandon the lock system.

Because of abundant streamflow and numerous excellent power sites, the Alabama-Coosa River system has long been recognized as having vast hydroelectric power potentialities. In AD 1907, APC's founding President, Captain William Patrick Lay, received congressional approval for APC to construct the company's first dam and electric generating plant on the Coosa River. The Project originally known as Lock 12 dam was constructed from AD 1910 to 1914. In November AD 1929, dignitaries and APC Board members gathered at the Lock 12 Dam and recognized Captain William Lay's contribution to APC and service to the public by renaming the Project in his honor.

The Mitchell development is the second oldest of APC's hydroelectric projects. The development was named after James Mitchell who was APC's president from 1912 to 1920. Construction of this development began on July 1, 1921 and Units 1-3 were placed into service on August 15, 1923. Unit 4 construction began in June 1948 and was placed into service on November 9, 1949. Units 5-7 construction started on October 26, 1977 and were placed into service on April 1, 1985. In addition, on May 1, 1985 Units 1-3 were retired from service.

Both private interests and the federal government have studied the hydropower potential of the Coosa River system. In 1925 APC conducted a study of the storage possibilities of the Coosa River above their existing Lay Dam with regard to the development of five additional power dams.

The Coosa River, beginning approximately 14 miles north of Wetumpka, was an area of falls and rapids that was called The Devil's Staircase. Jordan Dam was constructed at this location between June 15, 1926 and December 31, 1928 (in-service date). At that time, this Project was the largest power project undertaken by a private entity in the South. The development, in honor of Reuban and Sidney Mitchell, was named after their mother's maiden name. These men played an important role in the early development of APC.

In addition in 1928, APC prepared a report on complete "canal-ization" of the Coosa River as a result of the study initiated in 1925. That report included the study of a power and navigation dam at the site of the existing Federal Lock 2. The report identified this as the Patlay site which is about 1.5 miles upstream from the present day Neely Henry Dam.

In 1934, the USACE developed a general plan for the overall development of the Alabama-Coosa River system. That plan included a power and navigation dam on the Coosa River at the Patlay site previously studied by APC.

Congress directed further studies in resolutions adopted by the Committee on Rivers and Harbors, House of Representatives, on April 1, 1936 and April 28, 1936, and by the Committee on Commerce, United States Senate, on January 18, 1939. That report recommended development of the Alabama-Coosa River and tributaries for navigation, flood control, power generation, and other purposes in accordance with plans being proposed by the Chief of Engineers. The improvement outlined in House Document No. 414 included a dam with a powerhouse at the Patlay site.

On June 28, 1954, the 83rd Congress enacted Public Law 436, which suspended the authorization under the River and Harbor Act of March 2, 1945, insofar as it concerned federal development of the Coosa River for the generation of electric power. This was done in order to permit development of the river by private interests under a license to be issued by the Federal Power Commission (FPC). The law stipulated that the license shall require provisions for flood control storage and for future navigation. It further stated that the projects shall be operated for flood control and navigation in accordance with reasonable rules and regulations of the Secretary of the Army.

On December 2, 1955, APC submitted an application to the FPC for a license for development of the Coosa River in accordance with the provisions of Public Law 436. The development proposed by APC, designated in the application as FPC Project No. 2146, included Leesburg Dam (later named Weiss Dam) with a 4-mile cutoff canal.

The FPC issued a license to APC on September 4, 1957, for the construction, operation, and maintenance of Project 2146. The license directed that construction of the Weiss Project commence within one year from August 1, 1957 and be completed within 5 years from that date. Construction started on July 31, 1958 and the spillway section was completed in late September 1960. Filling of the reservoir to operating level commenced late in March 1961.

The license also directed that construction of Neely Henry (Lock 3) development commence within 5 years and be completed within 8 years from the date of commencement of construction of Weiss Dam. Construction of the Neely Henry development started on August 1, 1962 and the dam was completed in June 1966, with the Project beginning operation by June 29, 1966.

The license directed that construction of the Logan Martin (Kelly Creek) development commence within 3 years from September 4, 1957, and be completed within 7 years. Construction began in July 1960, the dam and spillway were completed in July 1964 and the Project placed in commercial operation on August 10, 1964.

Bouldin Dam was the last built as part of APC's development of the Coosa River. Construction of the development was started in August 1963 and was completed on September 30, 1967. The Project is located on a man-made canal located approximately one mile upstream of the Jordan Dam. The forebay of the development is interconnected with Jordan Lake and the Jordan Dam provides the spillway for the development. An embankment on the east side of the spillway was breached on February 10, 1975

(Hendron 1996). During that same year, APC investigated the causes of the breach and began reconstruction of the Project. The reconstruction was completed in late 1984 (Hendron 1996).

The following sections discuss each respective development that comprises the Project and the associated history.

### **Weiss Development**

Weiss Lake is predominately located in northeastern Alabama in Cherokee County while the upper reaches extend into northwestern Georgia in Floyd County. Situated within the upper Coosa Valley and just south of Lookout Mountain, the reservoir is surrounded by terraces and gently sloping uplands. A considerable amount of information is known about the prehistoric inhabitants who occupied this area primarily because archaeological investigations were carried out in the late 1950s and early 1960s prior to reservoir inundation (DeJarnette *et al* 1973a and 1973b).

To date, information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Gulf Formational, have been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified for the Weiss Basin that should be addressed.

The Weiss Basin contains little evidence of Gulf Formational occupation but Early Woodland traditions from the Tennessee Valley (Colbert) and northern Georgia (Kellog) manifest themselves in this area. The Early Woodland pottery from the Weiss Basin contains two primary surface finishes—plain and fabric impressed, although tempering can occur as sand or limestone (DeJarnette *et al* 1973a and 1973b). The limestone tempered wares apparently are related to the Colbert I cultures that occupied the Tennessee Valley while the sand tempered wares are associated with the Kellog culture of northern Georgia (Knight 1998). The presence of Early Woodland traditions within the Weiss Basin is interesting when one considers that these traditions apparently did not extend much farther to the south.

The Middle Woodland tradition of the Upper Coosa Valley is complex. Affinities with both the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley and the Cartersville culture of north Georgia are apparent, as evidenced by the identified pottery types (Mistovich 1981). Two successive Middle Woodland phases have been designated for the upper Coosa Valley: Cedar Bluff and Yancey's Bend. The excavation of five major Middle Woodland sites provide valuable information about these two phases (Watson Ford [1Ce194], Coker Ford [1Ce200], Yancey's Bend [1Ce12], Forks [1Ce215], and Lanier Cobia [1Ce250] [DeJarnette *et al* 1973a and 1973b]).

The Cedar Bluff phase dates from approximately 300 B.C. to A.D. 100 and is distinguished by limestone tempered pottery, steatite vessels, bar gorgets, medium-sized triangular projectile points, and stone capped burial mounds (Walthall 1980). It is

speculated that Cedar Bluff people occupied the valley bottomlands during a substantial portion of the year, probably exploiting the riverine resources and the fertile terrace soils for horticulture, and relocated into the uplands during the fall and winter months for hunting and gathering activities.

The Yancey's Bend phase spans from A.D. 100 to A.D. 500. This phase differs from the Cedar Bluff phase by the appearance of new, predominately sand tempered ceramic types, the absence of village burials and presence of cave burials, and the presence of small habitation sites without subterranean storage pits (Walthall 1980). The lithic tool assemblage remains essentially the same for both phases. However, base camps located on valley ridges do contain underground storage pits.

The Late Woodland stage dates from about A.D. 500 to A.D. 1000 and is represented by the Coker Ford phase in the upper Coosa Valley, although a date from A.D. 700 to A.D. 1100 has been suggested for this phase in the Weiss Basin (Walthall 1980). Manifestations of this phase are similar to the Flint River culture of the Guntersville Basin. Ceramics predominately include limestone tempered plain and brushed pottery. Small triangular projectile points are also characteristic of Coker Ford phase sites. Two Coker Ford phase components were excavated in the Weiss Basin at the Coker Ford (1Ce200) and Money Bend (1Ce3) sites (Keel 1960, DeJarnette *et al.* 1973a and 1973b). Excavations suggest that Coker Ford phase habitation sites represent small, nucleated villages practicing maize horticulture as well as hunting and gathering pursuits. Village burials and stone capped burial mounds are also evident during this phase.

While occupation of the Weiss Basin had been moderately intensive during the preceding Late Woodland, Coker Ford phase, there is a conspicuous absence of Early Mississippian sites from the area. The earliest occupation of the upper Coosa region is during the Middle Mississippian, Etowah II phase which dates from approximately A.D. 1200 to A.D. 1400 (Holstein and Hill 1992). This culture is manifested in Etowah Complicated Stamped pottery. A number of sites within the Weiss Basin have produced shell tempered ceramics but have been presumed to belong to the later protohistoric Weiss phase.

Occupation of the area does not appear again until the Late Mississippian. In northwest Georgia and parts of northeastern Alabama, this period begins with the ceramic transition from shell tempered ceramics to sand/grit tempered ceramics of the Lamar culture and terminates with the DeSoto and DeLuna expeditions of A.D. 1540 and A.D. 1560 respectively (Hally and Langford 1988). The Late Mississippian is represented in the upper Coosa Valley by the Barnett phase. Barnett phase sites, generally located along the Coosa River, are identified by Lamar grit tempered ceramics, shell tempered pottery, and an amalgamation of the two ceramic types (Hally 1970 and 1979). Sixteenth century European artifacts also have been found in association with several Barnett phase sites (Smith 1975 and 1976; Morrell 1964).

The Coosa Valley is well known for its aboriginal occupation from about 1500 to 1800. Marvin Smith (1987 and 1993) suggests that the Coosa chiefdom, which

originated in northwestern Georgia, gradually migrated down the Coosa River Valley after Spanish contact in the mid 1500s. Settlements dating to the sixteenth century are found in northern Georgia on the Coosawattee, Etowah, and Coosa Rivers (Hally *et al.* 1990). Late sixteenth century sites are found in Alabama around Terrapin Creek in Cherokee County, although only few sites have been identified. By the beginning of the seventeenth century, settlement was centered in the Cedar Bluff area (now Weiss Lake) where the Coosa and Chattooga Rivers join. At least three village sites and thirteen possible hamlets have been identified. By 1630 settlement had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near Gadsden.

The Weiss phase occurs during this period though it probably originated during the Late Mississippian. It, like the Barnett phase, may overlap both temporal periods. Marvin Smith (1993) states that at the beginning of the seventeenth century, settlement appears to have focused on the Weiss Reservoir area. The Barnett phase ends during the early part of the second half of the sixteenth century in northwest Georgia (Hally and Langford 1988). Abandonment probably was the result of European epidemic diseases. It has been suggested, too, that populations gradually moved down the Coosa Valley throughout the seventeenth century. Thus, the Barnett and Weiss phases may have abandoned this area sometime during the early or mid seventeenth century.

From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851, Swanton 1946). The general area was populated by both the Cherokee and Creek, with Cherokee towns situated primarily along the Coosa River and the Creek settlements being scattered throughout the area (Holstein and Hill 1992). These historic Indian groups underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the Weiss Basin area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers.

By 1800, the Cherokee inhabitants of the Weiss Basin, under pressure from the expansion of American settlements in Tennessee and Georgia, were increasingly forced to compromise in order to preserve their sovereignty. During the years leading up to the War of 1812, prominent Cherokee Chiefs engaged in trade and commerce with Tennesseans. As the threat of invasion of the Gulf Borderlands by Britain loomed, the United States adopted an early version of the public trust doctrine and declared a natural right to commerce on the Coosa River. This declaration led to open warfare in the region by 1813 and the establishment of Fort Armstrong near what is today known as Sewell's Ferry (U.S. Department of the Army 1898). Fort Armstrong was occupied by the East Tennessee Militia and a large Cherokee contingent for the duration of the Creek Indian War of 1813-1814.

By the 1830s, the Cherokee strategy of cooperating with the Americans had failed to protect their sovereignty. Under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed and forced removal was undertaken by the U.S. Army. During this period the federal government once again found the need for a

fortified post in the region and Fort Lovell was constructed and occupied near present day Cedar Bluff.

After this period, the Weiss Basin area was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important, especially between Rome, Georgia and Greensport, Alabama. Rapids and shoals were an ever present problem which necessitated the construction of low lift locks by the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers. One such lock, Mayo's Lock & Dam, was constructed in 1910 and was open to navigation in 1913. This National-Register-listed property is not within the Weiss Reservoir but is located within the upper reaches of the Coosa River approximately eight miles southwest of Rome, Georgia. Mayo's Lock & Dam is currently operated by the Rome-Floyd Parks & Recreation Authority as a historical park facility.

### **Neely Henry Development**

Neely Henry Lake is located in Cherokee, St. Clair, Calhoun, and Etowah Counties, Alabama. This reservoir is located immediately downstream from Weiss Lake and is situated within the Coosa Valley district of the Alabama Valley and Ridge physiographic section. This lake is situated in the northern part of the central Coosa River drainage. It is surrounded by moderate to steeply sloping ridges and stream and river terraces. Several large ridges surround the lake, including Lookout Mountain, Dunaway Mountain, Shinbone Ridge, Shoal Creek Mountains, and Greens Creek Mountain. Several tributaries drain into Neely Henry Lake, notably Big Wills Creek, Black Creek, and Big Canoe Creek. This section of the Coosa River has been the subject of considerable archaeological research including some investigations conducted prior to reservoir inundation in the 1960s (Graham 1966; Morrell 1964) and additional research continuing over the next several years (Knight 1985, 1993, and 1998; Mistovich 1981a and 1981b; Mistovich and Zeanah 1983; Morrell 1965; Walling and Schrader 1983; Waselkov 1980).

Information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Archaic, has been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. While site components related to these earlier stages no doubt do occur within the boundaries of Neely Henry Reservoir, they have not been recognized to any great extent. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified and should be addressed.

Knight (1985) suggests that "there may be a regional decline in population for approximately 1000 to 2000 years, corresponding to the hypsithermal climatic episode." The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain culture. Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985). Sykes/White Springs actually appears at the end of the Middle Archaic and continues to about 3000

B.C. About this time, projectile point types grade into the Savannah River types around 2000 B.C. The latest Late Archaic horizon, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter, is a “typological potpourri” with some projectile point types resembling upland Middle South types, like Ledbetter, Pickwick, Elora, and Cotaco Creek, and other conforming to the Piedmont types, such as late Savannah River and Gypsy projectile point types (Knight 1985:9).

The Late Gulf Formational period extends from about 500 B.C. to 100 B.C. Pottery at this time is tempered with sand. The Alexander culture is defined for the Late Gulf Formational in the Tennessee Valley, Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valleys (Jenkins 1976), and has been identified in the Coosa River Valley. Pottery types for this culture include O’Neal Plain, Alexander Incised, Alexander Punctuated, and Alexander Pinched (Jenkins 1981; O’Hear 1995). Flint Creek projectile points commonly occur with Alexander components. The Dry Branch phase is defined for the Coosa Valley (Walling and Schrader 1983), which often includes a mix of Alexander pottery and Early Woodland fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked.

The preceding Gulf Formational stage replaced the Early Woodland period within this region of the middle Coosa Valley. Therefore, the Woodland stage for this region includes the Middle Woodland (A.D. 100 to A.D. 700) and Late Woodland (A.D. 700 to A.D. 1000) periods. The Woodland cultures still rely on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow is developed during this stage. However, horticulture becomes increasingly important throughout the Woodland, which helps to support the burgeoning population. Larger, more permanent villages were being occupied, but extractive camp sites are still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building is common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Societies were less egalitarian and more hierarchical. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

Two complexes are defined for the Middle Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley—the earlier Cleveland complex and later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex (Knight 1985 and 1998). Small burial mounds have been identified in association with the Cleveland complex, yielding galena cubes, shell beads, and stone effigy pipes, which link the mounds to the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley region. Ceramics of the Cleveland complex are sand tempered and predominately include Cleveland Plain and Cleveland Check Stamped (Knight *et al* 1984). Greeneville projectile points are usually found in association with the Cleveland complex sites. The later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex is distinguished from the earlier complex by its projectile point types, i.e., Bradley and Flint River Spike. Associated ceramics consist mostly of plain coarse sand/grit tempered pottery.

A provisional Late Woodland complex has been defined by Knight as the Lightwood complex (1985). The complex appears to be related to the Dead River and Hope Hull cultures of the Alabama River and the Baytown culture of the Tennessee River (McKelvey) and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River (Miller III) drainages. Three plain wares co-occur in the Lightwood ceramic assemblage: Adams Plain, which is related to

the Dead River/Hope Hull; Baytown Plain, associated with McKelvey and Miller III cultures; and a crushed quartz/chert/grit tempered ware which is undefined. Projectile point types associated with the Lightwood complex include Flint River Spike and small triangular projectile points such as the Hamilton and Madison types.

The terminal Late Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley is similar to the West Jefferson phase of the Black Warrior and Cahaba drainages (Knight 1985 and 1998). Ceramics of this complex are dominated by grog tempered plain wares, such as Baytown Plain, and small quantities of shell tempered plain, limestone tempered plain such as Mulberry Creek Plain, and some decorated limestone tempered wares. Hamilton projectile points are associated with this complex, as are tubular clay pipes, chunkee stones, and bone awls.

The Mississippian stage in the middle Coosa Valley dates from about A.D. 1100 to about A.D. 1500 (Knight 1998), although there is an apparent lack of settlement with this region. What has been identified is “limited to small groups and short-term occupations” (Knight 1998:197), Etowah II-III begins at the Early Mississippian and ends during the early part of the Middle Mississippian period. This complex is related to the Etowah culture in northern Georgia, which is named after the renowned civic-ceremonial site of that region. Ceramic types related to this complex include Etowah Plain, Etowah Burnished Plain, and Etowah Complicated Stamped. Etowah II-III sites are primarily located on the floodplain environments in the northern segment of the middle Coosa Valley (Knight 1985). The later part of the Middle Mississippian period is poorly defined and is called the Wilbanks/Savannah complex. These sites are distinguishable by Wilbanks Complicated Stamped pottery. Little else is known about this culture. No sites have been identified for the succeeding Late Mississippian period.

As indicated for the upper reaches of the Coosa River and the vicinity of the Weiss Reservoir, aboriginal occupation during the historic times (1500 to 1800) gradually migrated down stream after Spanish contact. These groups were probably affiliated with the Coosa chiefdom which originated from the northwestern Georgia region (Smith 1987 and 1993). By 1630, these groups had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near present day Gadsden. Six or seven sites have been identified, four of which may be villages. These populations moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island region located at Neely Henry Dam in St. Clair County. This occupation had the first contact with the British traders. Knight (1985) defines three historic phases for the middle Coosa Valley that relates to these groups: Kymulga (1500 to 1650), Woods Island (1650 to 1715), and Childersburg (1715 to 1800). A fourth phase is defined for the Gadsden area called McKee Island (1630 to 1670) (Knight 1998).

The Kymulga phase, dating 1500 to 1650, is centered in Talladega County. Its pottery assemblage is similar to the Barnett phase, which is roughly contemporaneous and found in the upper Coosa drainage, containing a combination of Lamar and Late Dallas (McKee Island) characteristics (Knight 1985). Kymulga pottery is generally plain, with a “smorgasbord” of tempers, like grog, shell, and/or sand/grit (Knight 1998:200). Decoration includes Lamar-like decorations, including complicated stamped, brushed,

and bold incised. Effigy adorns and clay pipes are common to Kymulga components, as are small triangular arrow points, greenstone celts, stone pipes, mortars, and hammerstones (Knight 1985). European trade goods are also found on Kymulga sites, most of which are Spanish in nature, which indicate that occupation extended well into the seventeenth century (Knight 1998).

Both the McKee Island and the Woods Island complexes exhibit shell tempered pottery which “have their stylistic ancestry to the Dallas-Mouse Creek Mississippian complexes, as refracted through the Barnett phase in northwest Georgia” (Knight 1998: 201). Pottery types include McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, and McKee Island Cord Marked. Varying percentages of each type help to define different complexes. The McKee Island phase is defined for the Gadsden area, dating between 1630 and 1670 (Knight 1998). The Woods Island phase dates from 1650 to 1715 and is generally defined for the central Coosa Valley. English trade goods are associated with Woods Island, which would have reached this region by 1690 following the establishment of the Carolina trade system (Knight 1985).

The Childersburg phase as defined by DeJarnette and Hanson (1960) is related to the Upper Creek between 1715 and 1800. Pottery associated with Childersburg occupations is predominately shell and grog tempered McKee wares, including plain, incised, and brushed types. European trade goods commonly occur.

From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). The general area was populated by both the Cherokee and Creek, with Cherokee towns situated primarily along the Coosa River and the Creek settlements being scattered throughout the area (Holstein and Hill 1992). These historic Indian groups underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders, and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the upper and middle Coosa area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The war ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and in August of that year many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). In many ways the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and, as the campaign continued, within the area. It was during this time frame that the Woods Island area, located at Neely Henry Dam, served as the location of a substantial Native American occupation. This area was subsequently occupied by at least some units of Jackson’s army during this conflict with the Creek Indians. Farther south, but within the immediate vicinity, Fort Strother was established by Jackson on the west bank of the Coosa River (Perry 2004).

In the 1830s, under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed which forced removal of the Cherokee, the Creek, as well as

other southeastern Indian tribes by the U.S. Army. As a result, this region of the Coosa Valley was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important, especially between Rome, Georgia, and Greensport, Alabama which is located downstream from present day Gadsden. While river trade was important between these areas, it was never expanded to any degree until the establishment of a series of low-lift locks within the middle and upper Coosa River Valley (Locks 1 and 2 are located within this reservoir area). Even then, river transportation was never fully developed and commercial travel from the upper reaches of the Coosa to the lower Alabama River and beyond to the port of Mobile is not possible to this day.

### **Logan Martin Development**

Logan Martin Reservoir is located in central Alabama in Talladega and St. Clair Counties and is positioned just down stream from the Neely Henry Reservoir. This reservoir is located within the Coosa Valley district of the Alabama Valley and Ridge physiographic section, within the central Coosa River drainage and is surrounded by moderately to steeply sloping uplands and stream and river terraces. Ohatchee, Cane, and Choccolocco Creeks drain the surrounding regions into the Coosa River. This section of the Coosa River has been the subject of considerable archaeological research including archaeological investigations conducted prior to reservoir inundation in the 1960s and additional research continuing over the next several years (Graham 1966; Knight 1985, 1993, and 1998; Mistovich 1981a and 1981b; Mistovich and Zeanah 1983; Morrell 1964 and 1965; Walling and Schrader 1983; Waselkov 1980).

Information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Archaic, has been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. While site components related to these earlier stages no doubt do occur within the boundaries of Logan Martin Reservoir, they have not been recognized to any great extent. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified for the Logan Martin area and should be addressed.

Knight (1985) suggests that “there may be a regional decline in population for approximately 1000 to 2000 years, corresponding to the hypsithermal climatic episode.” The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain culture. Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985). Sykes/White Springs actually appears at the end of the Middle Archaic and continues to about 3000 B.C. Projectile point types grade into the Savannah River types around 2000 B.C. The latest Late Archaic horizon, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter, is a “typological potpourri” with some projectile point types resembling upland Middle South types, like Ledbetter, Pickwick, Elora, and Cotaco Creek, and others conforming to the Piedmont types, such as late Savannah River and Gypsy projectile point types (Knight 1985:9).

The Late Gulf Formational period extends from about 500 B.C. to 100 B.C. Pottery at this time is tempered with sand. The Alexander culture is defined for the Late Gulf Formational in the Tennessee Valley, Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valleys (Jenkins 1976), and has been identified in the Coosa River Valley. Pottery types for this culture include O'Neal Plain, Alexander Incised, Alexander Punctuated, and Alexander Pinched (Jenkins 1981; O'Hear 1995). Flint Creek projectile points commonly occur with Alexander components. The Dry Branch phase is defined for the Coosa Valley (Walling and Schrader 1983) which often includes a mix of Alexander pottery and Early Woodland fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked.

The preceding Gulf Formational stage replaced the Early Woodland period within this region of the middle the Coosa Valley. Therefore, the Woodland stage for this region includes the Middle Woodland (A.D. 100 to A.D. 700) and Late Woodland (A.D. 700 to A.D. 1000) periods. The Woodland populations still rely on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow is developed during this stage. However, horticulture becomes increasingly important throughout the Woodland which helps to support the increasing population. Larger, more permanent villages were being occupied, but extractive camp sites are still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building is common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Societies were less egalitarian and more hierarchical. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

Two complexes are defined for the Middle Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley, the earlier Cleveland complex and later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex (Knight 1985 and 1998). Small burial mounds have been identified in association with the Cleveland complex, yielding galena cubes, shell beads, and stone effigy pipes, which link the mounds to the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley region. Ceramics of the Cleveland complex are sand tempered and predominately include Cleveland Plain and Cleveland Check Stamped (Knight *et al* 1984). Greeneville projectile points are usually found in association with the Cleveland complex sites. The later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex is distinguished from the earlier complex by its projectile point types, i.e., Bradley and Flint River Spike. Associated ceramics consist mostly of plain coarse sand/grit tempered pottery.

A provisional Late Woodland complex has been defined by Knight as the Lightwood complex (1985). The complex appears to be related to the Dead River and Hope Hull cultures of the Alabama River and the Baytown culture of the Tennessee River (McKelvey) and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River (Miller III) drainages. Three plain wares co-occur in the Lightwood ceramic assemblage: Adams Plain, which is related to the Dead River/Hope Hull; Baytown Plain, associated with McKelvey and Miller III cultures; and a crushed quartz/chert/grit tempered ware which is undefined. Projectile point types associated with the Lightwood complex include Flint River Spike and small triangular projectile points such as the Hamilton and Madison types.

The terminal Late Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley is similar to the West Jefferson phase of the Black Warrior and Cahaba drainages (Knight 1985 and

1998). Ceramics of this complex are dominated by grog tempered plain wares such as Baytown Plain, and small quantities of shell tempered plain, limestone tempered plain such as Mulberry Creek Plain, and some decorated limestone tempered wares. Hamilton projectile points are associated with this complex, as are tubular clay pipes, chunkee stones, and bone awls.

The Mississippian stage in the middle Coosa Valley dates from about A.D. 1100 to about A.D. 1500 (Knight 1998), although there is an apparent lack of settlement with this region. What has been identified is “limited to small groups and short-term occupations” (Knight 1998:197). Etowah II-III begins at the Early Mississippian and ends during the early part of the Middle Mississippian period. This complex is related to the Etowah culture in northern Georgia, which is named after the renowned civic-ceremonial site of that region. Ceramic types related to this complex include Etowah Plain, Etowah Burnished Plain, and Etowah Complicated Stamped. Etowah II-III sites are primarily located on the floodplain environments in the northern segment of the middle Coosa Valley (Knight 1985). The later part of the Middle Mississippian period is poorly defined and is called the Wilbanks/Savannah complex. These sites are distinguishable by Wilbanks Complicated Stamped pottery. Little else is known about this culture. No sites have been identified for the succeeding Late Mississippian period.

As indicated for the upper reaches of the Coosa River, during the historic times (1500 to 1800), Native American populations gradually migrated down stream after Spanish contact. These groups were probably affiliated with the Coosa chiefdom which originated from the northwestern Georgia region (Smith 1987 and 1993). By 1630, these groups had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near present day Gadsden. These populations moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island region located at Neely Henry Dam in St. Clair County. By the early 1700s, settlement moved farther south around Childersburg. Here the Coosa people joined an “indigenous population, the descendants of the Kymulga phase” and “reentered the historic record as the Coosas and Abihkas” (Smith 1993:68). Knight (1985) defines three historic phases for the middle Coosa Valley that relates to these groups: Kymulga (1500 to 1650), Woods Island (1650 to 1715), and Childersburg (1715 to 1800). A fourth phase is defined for the Gadsden area called McKee Island (1630 to 1670).

The Kymulga phase, dating 1500 to 1650, is centered in Talladega County. Its pottery assemblage is similar to the Barnett phase which is roughly contemporaneous and found in the upper Coosa drainage, containing a combination of Lamar and Late Dallas (McKee Island) characteristics (Knight 1985). Kymulga pottery is generally plain, with a “smorgasbord” of tempers, like grog, shell, and/or sand/grit (Knight 1998:200). Decoration includes Lamar-like decorations, including complicated stamped, brushed, and bold incised. Effigy adorns and clay pipes are common to Kymulga components, as are small triangular arrow points, greenstone celts, stone pipes, mortars, and hammerstones (Knight 1985). European trade goods are also found on Kymulga sites, most of which are Spanish in nature, which indicate occupation extended well into the seventeenth century (Knight 1998).

Both the McKee Island and the Woods Island complexes exhibit shell tempered pottery which “have their stylistic ancestry to the Dallas-Mouse Creek Mississippian complexes, as refracted through the Barnett phase in northwest Georgia” (Knight 1998: 201). Pottery types include McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, and McKee Island Cord Marked. Varying percentages of each type help to define different complexes. The McKee Island phase is defined for the Gadsden area, dating between 1630 and 1670 (Knight 1998). The Woods Island phase dates from 1650 to 1715 and is generally defined for the central Coosa Valley. English trade goods are associated with Woods Island which would have reached this region by 1690 following the establishment of the Carolina trade system (Knight 1985).

The Childersburg phase as defined by DeJarnette and Hanson (1960) is related to the Upper Creek between 1715 and 1800. Pottery associated with Childersburg occupations is predominately shell and grog tempered McKee wares, including plain, incised, and brushed types. European trade goods commonly occur.

From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). The general area was populated by both the Creek, with Cherokee towns situated primarily along the Coosa River and the Creek settlements being scattered throughout the area (Holstein and Hill 1992). These historic Indian groups underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders, and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the upper and middle Coosa area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The war ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and, in August of that year, many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). In many ways, the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and as the campaign continued within the area. Within the immediate vicinity of Woods Island (immediately below Neely Henry Dam), Fort Strother was established by Jackson on the west bank of the Coosa River (Perry 2004).

In the 1830s, under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed which forced removal of the Cherokee, the Creek, as well as other southeastern Indian tribes by the U.S. Army. As a result, this region of the Coosa Valley was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important, especially between Rome, Georgia and Greensport, Alabama which is located downstream from present day Gadsden. While river trade was important between these areas, it was never expanded to any degree until the establishment of a series of low-lift locks within the middle and upper Coosa River

Valley. One such lock, Lock 3, is located within the upper reaches of Logan Martin Reservoir between Woods Island and the west bank of the Coosa River. Even then, river transportation was never fully developed and commercial travel from the upper reaches of the Coosa to the lower Alabama River and beyond to the port of Mobile was not possible, even to this day.

### **Lay Development**

Lay Lake is located in central Alabama in Shelby, Talladega, Coosa, and Chilton Counties. Most of Lay Lake is situated in the central Coosa River drainage and is positioned just down stream from the Logan Martin Reservoir. This reservoir is located within the Coosa Valley district of the Alabama Valley and Ridge physiographic section, and is surrounded by moderate to steeply sloping uplands and stream and river terraces. Several large tributaries drain into the Coosa in this region including Kelly Creek, Talladega Creek, Tallaseehatchee Creek, Yellowleaf Creek, Peckerwood Creek, and Waxahatchee Creek. The lower segment of Lay Lake is set within the lower Coosa drainage which is part of the Northern Piedmont Uplands of the Piedmont Upland physiographic section and is distinguished by rugged and steep upland topography. Due to the rugged nature of this terrain, these lower portions were sparsely populated by Native Americans while the upper portions of Lay Lake were the scene of extensive human occupancy.

It should be noted that information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Archaic, has been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. Site components related to these earlier stages no doubt do occur within the Lay Lake region, but have not been recognized to any great extent. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified and should be addressed.

Knight (1985) suggests that “there may be a regional decline in population for approximately 1000 to 2000 years, corresponding to the hypsithermal climatic episode.” The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain culture. Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, and Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985). Sykes/White Springs actually appears at the end of the Middle Archaic and continues to about 3000 B.C. About this time, projectile point types grade into the Savannah River types around 2000 B.C. The latest Late Archaic horizon, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter, is a “typological potpourri” with some projectile point types resembling upland Middle South types like Ledbetter, Pickwick, Elora, and Cotaco Creek, and others conforming to the Piedmont types, such as late Savannah River and Gypsy projectile point types (Knight 1985:9).

The Late Gulf Formational period extends from about 500 B.C. to 100 B.C. Pottery at this time is tempered with sand. The Alexander culture is defined for the Late Gulf Formational in the Tennessee Valley, Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valleys (Jenkins 1976), and has been identified in the Coosa River Valley. Pottery types for this

culture include O'Neal Plain, Alexander Incised, Alexander Punctuated, and Alexander Pinched (Jenkins 1981; O'Hear 1995). Flint Creek projectile points commonly occur with Alexander components. The Dry Branch phase is defined for the Coosa Valley (Walling and Schrader 1983) which often includes a mix of Alexander pottery and Early Woodland fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked.

The preceding Gulf Formational stage replaced the Early Woodland period within this region of the middle the Coosa Valley. Therefore, the Woodland stage for this region includes the Middle Woodland (A.D. 100 to A.D. 700) and Late Woodland (A.D. 700 to A.D. 1000) periods. The Woodland cultures still rely on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow is developed during this stage. However, horticulture becomes increasingly important throughout the Woodland which helps to support the increasing population. Larger, more permanent villages were being occupied, but extractive camp sites are still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building is common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Societies were less egalitarian and more hierarchical. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

Two complexes are defined for the Middle Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley—the earlier Cleveland complex and later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex (Knight 1985 and 1998). Small burial mounds have been identified in association with the Cleveland complex, yielding galena cubes, shell beads, and stone effigy pipes, which link the mounds to the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley region. Ceramics of the Cleveland complex are sand tempered and predominately include Cleveland Plain and Cleveland Check Stamped (Knight *et al* 1984). Greeneville projectile points are usually found in association with the Cleveland complex sites. The later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex is distinguished from the earlier complex by its projectile point types, i.e., Bradley and Flint River Spike. Associated ceramics consist mostly of plain coarse sand/grit tempered pottery.

A provisional Late Woodland complex has been defined by Knight as the Lightwood complex (1985). The complex appears to be related to the Dead River and Hope Hull cultures of the Alabama River and the Baytown culture of the Tennessee River (McKelvey) and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River (Miller III) drainages. Three plain wares co-occur in the Lightwood ceramic assemblage: Adams Plain, which is related to the Dead River/Hope Hull; Baytown Plain, associated with McKelvey and Miller III cultures; and a crushed quartz/chert/grit tempered ware which is undefined. Projectile point types associated with the Lightwood complex include Flint River Spike and small triangular projectile points such as the Hamilton and Madison types.

The terminal Late Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley is similar to the West Jefferson phase of the Black Warrior and Cahaba drainages (Knight 1985 and 1998). Ceramics of this complex are dominated by grog tempered plain wares such as Baytown Plain, and small quantities of shell tempered plain, limestone tempered plain such as Mulberry Creek Plain, and some decorated limestone tempered wares. Hamilton

projectile points are associated with this complex, as are tubular clay pipes, chunkee stones, and bone awls.

The Mississippian stage in the middle Coosa Valley dates from about A.D. 1100 to about A.D. 1500 (Knight 1998), although there is an apparent lack of settlement within this region. What has been identified is “limited to small groups and short-term occupations” (Knight 1998:197). Etowah II-III begins at the Early Mississippian and ends during the early part of the Middle Mississippian period. This complex is related to the Etowah culture in northern Georgia which is named after the renowned civic-ceremonial site of that region. Ceramic types related to this complex include Etowah Plain, Etowah Burnished Plain, and Etowah Complicated Stamped. Etowah II-III sites are primarily located on the floodplain environments in the northern segment of the middle Coosa Valley (Knight 1985). The later part of the Middle Mississippian period is poorly defined and is called the Wilbanks/Savannah complex. These sites are distinguishable by Wilbanks Complicated Stamped pottery. Little else is known about this culture. No sites have been identified for the succeeding Late Mississippian period.

As indicated for the upper reaches of the Coosa River, Native American populations, during the historic times (1500 to 1800), gradually migrated down stream after Spanish contact. These groups were probably affiliated with the Coosa chiefdom which originated from the northwestern Georgia region (Smith 1987 and 1993). By 1630, these groups had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near present day Gadsden. These populations moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island region located at Neely Henry Dam in St. Clair County. By the early 1700s, settlement moved farther south around Childersburg. Here, the Coosa people joined an “indigenous population, the descendants of the Kymulga phase” and “reentered the historic record as the Coosas and Abihkas: (Smith 1993:68). Knight (1985) defines three historic phases for the middle Coosa Valley that relates to these groups: Kymulga (1500 to 1650), Woods Island (1650 to 1715), and Childersburg (1715 to 1800). A fourth phase is defined for the Gadsden area called McKee Island (1630 to 1670) (Knight 1998).

The Kymulga phase, dating 1500 to 1650, is centered in Talladega County. Its pottery assemblage is similar to the Barnett phase which is roughly contemporaneous and found in the upper Coosa drainage, containing a combination of Lamar and Late Dallas (McKee Island) characteristics (Knight 1985). Kymulga pottery is generally plain, with a “smorgasbord” of tempers like grog, shell, and/or sand/grit (Knight 1998:200). Decoration includes Lamar-like decorations, including complicated stamped, brushed, and bold incised. Effigy adorns and clay pipes are common to Kymulga components, as are small triangular arrow points, greenstone celts, stone pipes, mortars, and hammerstones (Knight 1985). European trade goods are also found on Kymulga sites, most of which are Spanish in nature, which indicate occupation extended well into the seventeenth century (Knight 1998).

Both the McKee Island and the Woods Island complexes exhibit shell tempered pottery which “have their stylistic ancestry to the Dallas-Mouse Creek Mississippian complexes, as refracted through the Barnett phase in northwest Georgia” (Knight 1998:

201). Pottery types include McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, and McKee Island Cord Marked. Varying percentages of each type help to define different complexes. The McKee Island phase is defined for the Gadsden area, dating between 1630 and 1670 (Knight 1998). The Woods Island phase dates from 1650 to 1715 and is generally defined for the central Coosa Valley. English trade goods are associated with Woods Island, which would have reached this region by 1690 following the establishment of the Carolina trade system (Knight 1985).

The Childersburg phase as defined by DeJarnette and Hanson (1960) is related to the Upper Creek between 1715 and 1800. Pottery associated with Childersburg occupations is predominately shell and grog tempered McKee wares, including plain, incised, and brushed types. European trade goods commonly occur.

From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). The general area was populated by both the Cherokee and Creek, with Cherokee towns situated primarily along the Coosa River and the Creek settlements being scattered throughout the area (Holstein and Hill 1992). These historic Indian groups underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders, and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the upper and middle Coosa area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The war ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and, in August of that year, many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). In many ways, the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and as the campaign continued within the area. It is within this time frame that Fort Williams was constructed. After the battle of Horseshoe Bend on March 27, 1814, General Jackson's dead and wounded were taken back to this fort. A recent survey, conducted on behalf of the National Parks Service, indicate that both Fort Williams and its associated cemetery appear to have been inundated by the impoundment of Lay Lake (NPS 2002), although the headstones and the monument to the soldiers were moved to a new location 57 miles north of Horseshoe Bend Military Park.

In the 1830s, under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed which forced removal of the Cherokee, the Creek, as well as other southeastern Indian tribes by the U.S. Army. As a result, this region of the Coosa Valley was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important, especially between Rome, Georgia, and Greensport, Alabama which is located downstream from present day Gadsden. While river trade was important between these areas, it was never expanded to any degree until

the establishment of a series of low-lift locks within the middle and upper Coosa River Valley. Even then, river transportation was never fully developed and commercial travel from the upper reaches of the Coosa to the lower Alabama River and beyond to the port of Mobile is not possible, even to this day.

Use of the river dwindled after the Civil War as new modes of transportation were established. In AD 1889, the Federal Government appropriated money to develop a system of navigation to connect the Coosa with the Alabama River; however, only three locks were completed before it was decided that navigation in the lower Coosa would not be feasible.

Because of abundant streamflow and numerous excellent power sites, the Alabama-Coosa River system has long been recognized as having vast hydroelectric power potentialities. In AD 1907, APC's founding President, Captain William Patrick Lay, received congressional approval for APC to construct the company's first dam and electric generating plant on the Coosa River. The Project originally known as Lock 12 dam was constructed from AD 1910 to 1914.

In November AD 1929, dignitaries and APC Board members gathered at the Lock 12 Dam and recognized Captain William Lay's contribution to APC and service to the public by renaming the Project in his honor. The Lay development has been in continuous service ever since.

### **Mitchell Development**

Mitchell Lake is located in central Alabama in Coosa and Chilton Counties within the lower Coosa River drainage. Situated within the Northern Piedmont Uplands of the Piedmont Upland physiographic section, the topography is distinguished by rugged and steep uplands. Yellow Leaf, Walnut, and Hatchet Creeks drain into this lake. Occupancy of the rugged Northern Piedmont zone was sparse and probably served as more of a hinterland of the surrounding cultural traditions. In fact, this rugged terrain is probably responsible for the separation of two major cultural zones, i.e., the middle Coosa Valley located to the north and the Alabama River to the south. Therefore, discussions for Mitchell Lake draw from these two areas. Vernon Knight (1985 and 1998) provides references for the cultural chronology of the middle Coosa drainage while David W. Chase (1998) provides reference for the Alabama River drainage area.

It should be noted that information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Archaic, has been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. While site components related to these earlier stages no doubt do occur within the Mitchell Lake region, they have not been recognized to any great extent. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified and should be addressed.

Knight (1985) suggests that "there may be a regional decline in population for approximately 1000 to 2000 years, corresponding to the hypsithermal climatic episode."

The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain culture. Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985). Sykes/White Springs actually appears at the end of the Middle Archaic and continues to about 3000 B.C. Projectile point types grade into the Savannah River types around 2000 B.C. The latest Late Archaic horizon, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter, is a “typological potpourri” with some projectile point types resembling upland Middle South types, like Ledbetter, Pickwick, Elora, and Cotaco Creek, and other conforming to the Piedmont types, such as late Savannah River and Gypsy projectile point types (Knight 1985:9).

The Millbrook phase, located farther to the south in the Alabama River valley, is defined by Eugene Futato (1973). This phase is distinguished by large stemmed projectile points, including Elora, Savannah River, Little Bear Creek, Mulberry Creek, Pickwick and others. Other lithic tools include biface blades, choppers, axes, turtle back flakes and various expedient tools. Futato (1973) dates the Millbrook phase between 3000 B.C. and 1000 B.C.

The Middle Gulf Formational period roughly extends from 1200 B.C. to about 500 B.C. Fiber tempered pottery is the hallmark of this culture. There is little evidence of this early ceramic occupation within the Coosa Valley (Knight 1998). Furthermore, it is undetermined if these finds would be related to the Wheeler culture, found within the Tennessee River and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River drainages, or if they relate more to the Stallings or Norwood cultures found to the east. To the south in the Alabama River drainage is the Millbrook phase for the Middle Gulf Formational defined by Chase (1998). This is the same phase that Futato (1973) had defined for the Late Archaic, except for the addition of fiber tempered pottery. Millbrook Plain is the only ceramic type defined for this phase.

The Late Gulf Formational period extends from about 500 B.C. to 100 B.C. Pottery at this time is tempered with sand. The Alexander culture is defined for the Late Gulf Formational in the Tennessee Valley, Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valleys (Jenkins 1976), and has been identified in the Coosa River Valley. Pottery types for this culture include O’Neal Plain, Alexander Incised, Alexander Punctuated, and Alexander Pinched (Jenkins 1981; O’Hear 1995). Flint Creek projectile points commonly occur with Alexander components. The Dry Branch phase is defined for the Coosa Valley (Walling and Schrader 1983) which often includes a mix of Alexander pottery and Early Woodland fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked. Farther to the south in the Alabama River drainage the Ivy Knoll phase is located which appears to be Alexander related (Chase 1998). Chase’s pottery types Ivy Knoll Plain and Ivy Knoll Punctuated correlate with O’Neal Plain and Alexander Punctuated.

For this region of Alabama, the preceding Gulf Formational Cultures and Early Woodland cultures appear to have co-existed. The Woodland cultures still rely on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow is developed during this stage. However, horticulture becomes increasingly important throughout the Woodland which helps to support the increasing population. Larger, more permanent

villages were being occupied, but extractive camp sites are still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building is common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Societies were less egalitarian and more hierarchical. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

In the middle Coosa Valley, no pure Early Woodland components have been identified. Limestone fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked, co-occur with Alexander wares and these components have been dated to the Late Gulf Formational Dry Branch phase (Walling and Schrader 1983). These Early Woodland ceramics appear to have originated from the Tennessee Valley Colbert I phase. Farther south in the Alabama River Drainage, we find the Robinson Pond phase for the Early Woodland (Chase 1998). Little is known about this phase except that it is distinguished by sand tempered, fabric impressed pottery. It is undetermined if it relates to Early Woodland cultures migrating out of Georgia, or if it relates to the Miller I culture found in the Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valley.

Two complexes are defined for the Middle Woodland period to the north in the middle Coosa Valley, the earlier Cleveland complex and later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex (Knight 1985 and 1998). Small burial mounds have been identified in association with the Cleveland complex, yielding galena cubes, shell beads, and stone effigy pipes, which link the mounds to the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley region. Ceramics of the Cleveland complex are sand tempered and predominately include Cleveland Plain and Cleveland Check Stamped (Knight *et al* 1984). Greeneville projectile points are usually found in association with the Cleveland complex sites. The later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex is distinguished from the earlier complex by its projectile point types, i.e., Bradley and Flint River Spike. Associated ceramics consist mostly of plain coarse sand/grit tempered pottery.

Farther south in the Alabama River Valley are the Cobbs Swamp and Calloway phases. The Cobbs Swamp phase is related to the Deptford-Cartersville complex of western Georgia (Chase 1998). The ceramic complex consists of checked stamped, plain complicated stamped, and simple stamped types. Greeneville and Camp Creek projectile points are also common to Cobbs Swamp components. The Calloway phase follows the Cobbs Swamp and is often associated with Swift Creek Complicated Stamped pottery. Chase (1998) has recently divided the Calloway phase into two separate phases: Catoma and Maxwell. Ceramics associated with the Catoma phase are sand and mica tempered and includes Tensaw Creek Plain and Tensaw Creek Stamped. These ceramics commonly have small tetrapods, notched rims, and rocker stamping, suggesting a link with Santa Rosa-Swift Creek cultures (Chase 1998; Futato 1973). The Maxwell phase is distinguished by Calloway Plain ceramics which have little to no mica in the paste as opposed to the Tensaw Creek Plain. Weeden Island and Swift Creek pottery types are often associated with Maxwell phase components (Chase 1998).

A provisional Late Woodland complex has been defined by Knight as the Lightwood complex (1985). The complex appears to be related to the Dead River and

Hope Hull cultures of the Alabama River and the Baytown culture of the Tennessee River (McKelvey) and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River (Miller III) drainages. Three plain wares co-occur in the Lightwood ceramic assemblage: Adams Plain, which is related to the Dead River/Hope Hull; Baytown Plain, associated with McKelvey and Miller III cultures; and a crushed quartz/chert/grit tempered ware which is undefined. Projectile point types associated with the Lightwood complex include Flint River Spike and small triangular projectile points such as the Hamilton and Madison types.

The terminal Late Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley is similar to the West Jefferson phase of the Black Warrior and Cahaba drainages (Knight 1985 and 1998). Ceramics of this complex are dominated by grog tempered plainwares such as Baytown Plain and small quantities of shell tempered plain, limestone tempered plain such as Mulberry Creek Plain, and some decorated limestone tempered wares. Hamilton projectile points are associated with this complex, as are tubular clay pipes, chunkee stones, and bone awls.

Numerous Late Woodland phases have been identified for Alabama River drainage. Chase (1998) has defined five distinct phases including Dead River, Hope Hull, Henderson, Whiteoak, Autauga, and Union Springs. However, the Henderson and Whiteoak phases occur farther down the Alabama River and will not be discussed here.

Dead River and Hope Hull sites are difficult to distinguish between one another. The Dead River phase follows the Middle Woodland Calloway phase. The ceramics from this period, at least initially, resemble some Calloway pottery. Dead River phase ceramics include Kirby plain and Dead River Red Filmed. The complex is estimated to date between A.D. 500 and A.D. 700. The Dead River phase develops into the Hope Hull phase. Hope Hull material is found in all of the major drainage systems over a broad area of Central Alabama. R.P. Burke (1933 and 1934) published two articles in the 1930s initially defining the culture as the *Orange Red Pottery Culture*. The complex name is derived from the orange-colored slip pottery that is characteristic of the culture which is now termed Montgomery Red Filmed. Burke describes other distinctive artifacts including bone gorgets, conch shell artifacts, and greenstone celts. James Griffin (1946) later redefined the culture as the Hope Hull. The ceramic forms for the Hope Hull phase are sand tempered Adams Plain and Montgomery Red Filmed (Chase 1998). Projectile point forms include Hamilton types. Hope Hull settlements were large, fortified villages and primarily occur on the Coosa, Tallapoosa, and Alabama rivers and their major tributaries.

The Autauga phase appears at the end of the Late Woodland period in Central Alabama and is centered between Montgomery and Selma (Chase 1998; Dickens 1971; Walthall, 1980). This culture is associated with extensive village settlements. Chase (1998) divides the Autauga phase into the earlier Bear Creek subphase and the later Hickory Bend subphase, which are distinguishable by their ceramic assemblage. Chase (1968) defined the ceramic types related to the Autauga phase. Vessel forms in the Autauga complex (originally termed 'Bear Creek' by Chase (1967) but later changed) include Autauga Plain, Autauga Roughened, Tallapoosa Punctuated, Autauga Pinched,

Autauga Check Stamped, Autauga Incised, Anderson Incised, Oliver Incised and Oliver Punctuated (Chase 1998). The various surface treatments include fingernail incising, 'brushed' type of incising, stab and drag incising, check stamping, and zone punctuations. The Autauga phase lasts from about A.D. 800 to some time after A.D. 1000.

Finally, Chase (1998) defines the Union Springs phase in Bullock County. This phase seems to be associated with the Tallapoosa River Watershed. Little is known about this culture but it seems to be a later variant of Hope Hull. Ceramics are coarse sand tempered and frequently contain mica. Two types are defined for the culture - Union Springs Plain and Town Creek Red Filmed (Chase 1998), the later of which is probably related to Hope Hull's Montgomery Red Filmed. Small triangular projectile points are also found within the assemblage. Chase (1998) acquired a single radiocarbon date for the Union Springs phases at 700+/- B.P., A.D. 1160.

The Mississippian stage in the middle Coosa Valley dates from about A.D. 1100 to about A.D. 1500 (Knight 1998), although there is an apparent lack of settlement within this region. What has been identified is "limited to small groups and short-term occupations" (Knight 1998:197). Etowah II-III begins at the Early Mississippian and ends during the early part of the Middle Mississippian period. This complex is related to the Etowah culture in northern Georgia which is named after the renowned civic-ceremonial site of that region. Ceramic types related to this complex include Etowah Plain, Etowah Burnished Plain, and Etowah Complicated Stamped. Etowah II-III sites are primarily located on the floodplain environments in the northern segment of the middle Coosa Valley (Knight 1985). The later part of the Middle Mississippian period is poorly defined and is called the Wilbanks/Savannah complex. These sites are distinguishable by Wilbanks Complicated Stamped pottery. Little else is known about this culture. No sites have been identified for the succeeding Late Mississippian period.

The resident Woodland populations of the Alabama River Valley were influenced by the Moundville culture which is centered in the Black Warrior River Valley in West Alabama. This influence is evidenced by the presence of Moundville vessels such as Moundville Engraved, Carthage Incised, Moundville Incised, and Warrior Plain, on Alabama River sites. The local Mississippian phases are termed Shine by Chase (1967: 48), named after a site, the Shine site (1Mt6), excavated on the Tallapoosa River. The site contained four earthen mounds, one of which contained four burials. The types, Shine Plain and Shine Incised, are shell tempered. The Shine phase is divided into two periods based on variations and differences in the ceramic wares. Shine I dates to A.D. 1000 to A.D. 1200, and Shine II dates to about A.D. 1200 to about A.D. 1400. These changes also demonstrate additional influences from other regional populations as exemplified by the presence of varieties of Lamar wares and Fort Walton Incised (Chase 1998). It is notable, also, that Shine I ceramics have been found in association with Autauga phase ceramics.

As indicated for the upper reaches of the Coosa River, Native American populations during the historic times (1500 to 1800) gradually migrated down stream after Spanish contact. These groups were probably affiliated with the Coosa chiefdom

which originated from the northwestern Georgia region (Smith 1987 and 1993). By 1630, these groups had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near present day Gadsden. These populations moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island region located at Neely Henry Dam in St. Clair County. By the early 1700s, settlement moved farther south around Childersburg. Here the Coosa people joined an “indigenous population, the descendants of the Kymulga phase” and “reentered the historic record as the Coosas and Abihkas” (Smith 1993:68). Knight (1985) defines three historic phases for the middle Coosa Valley that relate to these groups: Kymulga (1500 to 1650), Woods Island (1650 to 1715), and Childersburg (1715 to 1800). A fourth phase is defined for the Gadsden area called McKee Island (1630 to 1670) (Knight 1998).

The Kymulga phase, dating 1500 to 1650, is centered in Talladega County. Its pottery assemblage is similar to the Barnett phase which is roughly contemporaneous and found in the upper Coosa drainage, containing a combination of Lamar and Late Dallas (McKee Island) characteristics (Knight 1985). Kymulga pottery is generally plain with a “smorgasbord” of tempers like grog, shell, and/or sand/grit (Knight 1998:200). Decoration includes Lamar-like decorations, including complicated stamped, brushed, and bold incised. Effigy adorns and clay pipes are common to Kymulga components, as are small triangular arrow points, greenstone celts, stone pipes, mortars, and hammerstones (Knight 1985). European trade goods are also found on Kymulga sites, most of which are Spanish in nature, which indicate occupation extended well into the seventeenth century (Knight 1998).

Both the McKee Island and the Woods Island complexes exhibit shell tempered pottery which “have their stylistic ancestry to the Dallas-Mouse Creek Mississippian complexes, as refracted through the Barnett phase in northwest Georgia” (Knight 1998: 201). Pottery types include McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, and McKee Island Cord Marked. Varying percentages of each type help to define different complexes. The McKee Island phase is defined for the Gadsden area, dating between 1630 and 1670 (Knight 1998). The Woods Island phase dates from 1650 to 1715 and is generally defined for the central Coosa Valley. English trade goods are associated with Woods Island, which would have reached this region by 1690 following the establishment of the Carolina trade system (Knight 1985).

The Childersburg phase as defined by DeJarnette and Hanson (1960) is related to the Upper Creek between 1715 and 1800. Pottery associated with Childersburg occupations is predominately shell and grog tempered McKee wares including plain, incised, and brushed types. European trade goods commonly occur.

There are some historic Native American cultures within the Tallapoosa River Valley that are worthy of note for this region. The Nelsons Bend phase has been defined by Knight (1998) for the upper Tallapoosa River which has close affinities with the Central Georgia Lamar culture. Pottery types for this phase include Lamar Plain, Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Bold Incised, Wedowee Cord Marked, and Ocumulgee Fields Incised. Shell tempered, sand tempered cord marked, and residual black filmed pottery also occurs within Nelsons Bend components. This phase may date to the late

1500s and early 1600s. The Atasi phase has been dated from A.D. 1600 to A.D. 1715 for the upper and lower Tallapoosa River and is a protohistoric Creek complex. Knight (1985) considers that Atasi is descendant of Shine II and predecessor to the classic Tallapoosa Ocumulgee Fields. Atasi ceramics include cob marked, brushed and bold incised surface treatments. Temper primarily includes coarse sand or grit. Shell tempering occurs less frequently and decorative motifs are defined for the upper and lower segments of the Tallapoosa River dating 1715 to 1837. Chattahoochee Brushed, Lamar Incised, and Kasita Red Filmed distinguish Tallapoosa phase components.

As indicated, this segment of the Coosa River may be considered a hinterland which was used principally by the Creeks but with no apparent large settlements along the river proper. However, there are reports of settlements along the associated tributaries of Mitchell Lake. From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). While the general area of the upper and central Coosa River Valley was populated by both the Cherokee and Creek (Holstein and Hill 1992), it is unlikely that the Cherokee extended this far south. Like the rest of the Native American tribes who lived within the Coosa Valley, these groups also underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders, and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the upper and middle Coosa area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers. These migrations would in turn put pressures on Creeks who lived farther south within the lower Coosa Valley.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The war ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and, in August of that year, many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). In many ways, the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and as the campaign continued within the area. It is within this time frame that Fort Williams was constructed upstream in the Lay Lake area.

In the 1830s, under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed which forced removal of the Cherokee, the Creek, as well as other southeastern Indian tribes by the U.S. Army. As a result, this region of the Coosa Valley was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important in the central and upper Coosa River Valley but was not possible in this area due to a series of rapids which is characteristic of this river segment. A number of low lift locks were proposed to make the entire Coosa navigable but were not constructed in this area due to high construction costs, especially between Rome, Georgia, and Greensport, Alabama which is located downstream from present day Gadsden. Thus, river transportation was never fully developed and commercial travel

from the upper reaches of the Coosa to the lower Alabama River and beyond to the port of Mobile is not possible, even to this day.

Because of abundant streamflow and numerous excellent power sites, the Alabama-Coosa River system has long been recognized as having vast hydroelectric power potentialities. The Governor of Alabama recognized the importance and potential of the Coosa River for inland navigation in 1819 and in 1823 the Coosa Navigation Company was established. The Federal Rivers and Harbors Act of 1870 provided the preliminary study of the Coosa River for navigation. In 1876, three locks and dams were authorized on the lower Coosa River. Two of the low navigation dams were completed in 1886 and 1890 near Greensport and Riverside and the third near Wetumpka was abandoned in 1905. The first major project on the Coosa River was Lock No. 12, known now as Lay Dam, which was named after William Patrick Lay.

### **Jordan and Bouldin Developments**

Jordan and Walter Bouldin Lakes are located in central Alabama in Elmore County within the lower Coosa River drainage. These lakes are situated at the Fall Line between the Coastal Plain and the Piedmont Upland. Jordan Lake is set within the Northern Piedmont Upland and generally is surrounded by moderately sloping uplands. Located within the alluvial valley of the Coosa River, Walter Bouldin Lake is situated within the Coastal Plain Fall Line Hills. Surrounding topography includes stream terraces and gently sloping uplands.

Due to its geographical proximity, this part of the lower Coosa River is probably more related to the cultures found in the nearby Alabama River drainage. Therefore, discussions for Jordan and Walter Bouldin Lakes draw from both the Coosa River and Alabama River chronologies. Vernon J. Knight (1985 1998) provides references for the middle Coosa drainage while David W. Chase (1998) provides references for the Alabama River drainage. It should be noted that information about the early cultural stages, Paleoindian through Middle Archaic, has been more adequately derived from other areas within the Coosa River Valley or from adjoining physiographic regions. Site components related to these earlier stages no doubt do occur within this region but have not been recognized to any great extent. There are, however, important sites and historical events that have been identified and should be addressed.

Knight (1985) suggests that “there may be a regional decline in population for approximately 1000 to 2000 years, corresponding to the hypsithermal climatic episode.” The later part of the Middle Archaic is related to the Morrow Mountain culture. Three Late Archaic horizons are defined for the middle Coosa Valley: Sykes/White Springs, Savannah River, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter (Knight 1985). Sykes/White Springs actually appears at the end of the Middle Archaic and continues to about 3000 B.C. About this time, projectile point types grade into the Savannah River types around 2000 B.C. The terminal Late Archaic horizon, Gypsy/Late Savannah River/Ledbetter, is a “typological potpourri” with some projectile point types resembling upland Middle South types, like Ledbetter, Pickwick, Elora, and Cotaco Creek, and others conforming to

the Piedmont types, such as late Savannah River and Gypsy projectile point types (Knight 1985:9).

Farther to the south in the Alabama River valley, the Millbrook phase is defined by Eugene Futato (1973). This phase is distinguished by large stemmed projectile points, including Elora, Savannah River, Little Bear Creek, Mulberry Creek, Pickwick and others. Other lithic tools include biface blades, choppers, axes, turtle back flakes and various expedient tools. Futato (1973) dates the Millbrook phase between 3000 B.C. and 1000 B.C.

The Middle Gulf Formational period roughly extends from 1200 B.C. to about 500 B.C. Fiber tempered pottery is the hallmark of this culture. There is little evidence of this early ceramic occupation within the Coosa Valley (Knight 1998). Furthermore, it is undetermined if these finds would be related to the Wheeler culture, found within the Tennessee River and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River drainages, or if they relate more to the Stallings or Norwood cultures found to the east. Chase (1998) defines the Millbrook phase for the Middle Gulf Formational to the southwest in the Alabama River drainage. This is the same phase that Futato (1973) had defined for the Late Archaic, except with the addition of fiber tempered pottery. Millbrook Plain is the only ceramic type defined for this phase.

The Late Gulf Formational period extends from about 500 B.C. to 100 B.C. Pottery at this time is tempered with sand. The Alexander culture is defined for the Late Gulf Formational in the Tennessee Valley, Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valleys (Jenkins 1976), and has been identified in the Coosa River Valley. Pottery types for this culture include O'Neal Plain, Alexander Incised, Alexander Punctuated, and Alexander Pinched (Jenkins 1981; O'Hear 1995). Flint Creek projectile points commonly occur with Alexander components. The Dry Branch phase is defined for the Coosa Valley (Walling and Schrader 1983), which often includes a mix of Alexander pottery and Early Woodland fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked. Farther to the southwest in the Alabama River drainage is located the Ivy Knoll phase which appears to be Alexander related (Chase 1998). Chase's pottery types, Ivy Knoll Plain and Ivy Knoll Punctuated, correlate with O'Neal Plain and Alexander Punctuated.

For this region of Alabama, the preceding Gulf Formational Cultures and Early Woodland cultures appear to have co-existed. The Woodland cultures still rely on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow is developed during this stage. However, horticulture becomes increasingly important throughout the Woodland, which helps to support the increasing population. Larger, more permanent villages were being occupied, but extractive camp sites are still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building is common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Societies were less egalitarian and more hierarchical. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political and religious ideas.

In the middle Coosa Valley, no pure Early Woodland components have been identified. Limestone fabric impressed wares, i.e., Long Branch Fabric Marked, co-occur with Alexander wares and these components have been dated to the Late Gulf Formational Dry Branch phase (Walling and Schrader 1983). These Early Woodland ceramics appear to have originated from the Tennessee Valley Colbert I phase. Farther south in the Alabama River Drainage, we find the Robinson Pond phase for the Early Woodland (Chase 1998). Little is known about this phase except that it is distinguished by sand tempered fabric impressed pottery. It is undetermined if it relates to Early Woodland cultures migrating out of Georgia, or if it relates to the Miller I culture found in the Black Warrior-Tombigbee River valley.

Two complexes are defined for the Middle Woodland period to the north in the middle Coosa Valley—the earlier Cleveland complex and later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex (Knight 1985 and 1998). Small burial mounds have been identified in association with the Cleveland complex, yielding galena cubes, shell beads, and stone effigy pipes, which link the mounds to the Copena culture of the Tennessee Valley region. Ceramics of the Cleveland complex are sand tempered and predominately include Cleveland Plain and Cleveland Check Stamped (Knight *et al* 1984). Greenville projectile points are usually found in association with the Cleveland complex sites. The later Bradley/Flint River Spike complex is distinguished from the earlier complex by its projectile point types, i.e., Bradley and Flint River Spike. Associated ceramics consist mostly of plain coarse sand/grit tempered pottery.

Farther southwest in the Alabama River Valley are the Cobbs Swamp and Calloway phases. The Cobbs Swamp phase is related to the Deptford-Cartersville complex of western Georgia (Chase 1998). The ceramic complex consists of checked stamped, plain complicated stamped, and simple stamped types. Greenville and Camp Creek projectile points are also common to Cobbs Swamp components. The Calloway phase follows the Cobbs Swamp and is often associated with Swift Creek Complicated Stamped pottery. Chase (1998) has recently divided the Calloway phase into two separate phases: Catoma and Maxwell. Ceramics associated with the Catoma phase are sand and mica tempered and include Tensaw Creek Plain and Tensaw Creek Stamped. These ceramics commonly have small tetrapods, notched rims, and rocker stamping, suggesting a link with Santa Rosa-Swift Creek cultures (Chase 1998; Futato 1973). The Maxwell phase is distinguished by Calloway Plain ceramics which have little to no mica in the paste as opposed to the Tensaw Creek Plain. Weeden Island and Swift Creek pottery types are often associated with Maxwell phase components (Chase 1998).

A provisional Late Woodland complex has been defined by Knight as the Lightwood complex (1985). The complex appears to be related to the Dead River and Hope Hull cultures of the Alabama River and the Baytown culture of the Tennessee River (McKelvey) and Black Warrior-Tombigbee River (Miller III) drainages. Three plain wares co-occur in the Lightwood ceramic assemblage: Adams Plain, which is related to the Dead River/Hope Hull, Baytown Plain; associated with McKelvey and Miller III cultures; and a crushed quartz/chert/grit tempered ware which is undefined. Projectile

point types associated with the Lightwood complex include Flint River Spike and small triangular projectile points such as the Hamilton and Madison types.

The terminal Late Woodland period in the middle Coosa Valley is similar to the West Jefferson phase of the Black Warrior and Cahaba drainages (Knight 1985 and 1998). Ceramics of this complex are dominated by grog tempered plainwares, such as Baytown Plain, and small quantities of shell tempered plain, limestone tempered plain such as Mulberry Creek Plain, and some decorated limestone tempered wares. Hamilton projectile points are associated with this complex, as are tubular clay pipes, chunkee stones, and bone awls.

Numerous Late Woodland phases have been identified for Alabama River drainage. Chase (1998) has defined five distinct phases including Dead River, Hope Hull, Henderson, Whiteoak, Autauga, and Union Springs; however, the Henderson and Whiteoak phases occur farther down the Alabama River and will not be discussed here.

Dead River and Hope Hull sites are difficult to distinguish with one another. The Dead River phase follows the Middle Woodland Calloway phase. The ceramics from this period, at least initially, resemble some Calloway pottery. Dead River phase ceramics include Kirby Plain and Dead River Red Filmed. The complex is estimated to date between A.D. 500 and A.D. 700. The Dead River phase develops into the Hope Hull phase. Hope Hull material is found in all of the major drainage systems over a broad area of Central Alabama. R.P. Burke (1933 and 1934) published two articles in the 1930s initially defining the culture as the *Orange Red Pottery Culture*. The complex name is derived from the orange-colored slip pottery that is characteristic of the culture, which is now termed Montgomery Red Filmed. Burke describes other distinctive artifacts including bone gorgets, conch shell artifacts, and greenstone celts. It was later redefined as the Hope Hull. The ceramic forms for the Hope Hull phase are sand tempered Adams Plain and Montgomery Red Filmed (Chase 1998). Projectile point forms include Hamilton projectile types. Hope Hull settlements were large, fortified villages and primarily occur on the Coosa, Tallapoosa, and Alabama rivers and their major tributaries.

The Autauga phase is at the end of the Late Woodland period in Central Alabama and is centered between Montgomery and Selma (Chase 1998, Dickens 1971, Walthall 1980). This culture is associated with extensive village settlements. Chase (1998) divides the Autauga phase into the earlier Bear Creek subphase and the later Hickory Bend subphase, which are distinguishable by their ceramic assemblage. Chase (1968) defined the ceramic types of the Autauga phase. Vessel forms in the Autauga complex (originally termed 'Bear Creek' by Chase (1967) but later changed) include Autauga Plain, Autauga Roughened, Tallapoosa Punctuated, Autauga Pinched, Autauga Check Stamped, Autauga Incised, Anderson Incised, Oliver Incised and Oliver Punctuated (Chase 1998). The various surface treatments include fingernail incising, "brushed" type of incising, stab and drag incising, check stamping, and zone punctuations. The Autauga phase lasts from about A.D 800 to sometime after A.D. 1000.

Finally, Chase (1998) defines the Union Springs phase in Bullock County. This phase seems to be associated with the Tallapoosa River Watershed. Little is known about this culture but it seems to be a later variant of Hope Hull. Ceramics are coarse sand tempered and frequently contain mica. Two types are defined for the culture—Union Springs Plain and Town Creek Red Filmed (Chase 1998)—the later of which is probably related to Hope Hull’s Montgomery Red Filmed. Small triangular projectile points are also found within the assemblage. Chase (1998) acquired a single radiocarbon date for the Union Springs phases at 700+/- B.P., A.D. 1160.

The Mississippian stage in the middle Coosa Valley dates from about A.D. 1100 to about A.D. 1500 (Knight 1998), although there is an apparent lack of settlement within this region. What has been identified is “limited to small groups and short-term occupations” (Knight 1998:197). Etowah II-III begins at the Early Mississippian and ends during the early part of the Middle Mississippian period. This complex is related to the Etowah culture in northern Georgia which is named after the renowned civic-ceremonial site of that region. Ceramic types related to this complex include Etowah Plain, Etowah Burnished Plain, and Etowah Complicated Stamped. Etowah II-III sites are primarily located on the floodplain environments in the northern segment of the middle Coosa Valley (Knight 1985). The later part of the Middle Mississippian period is poorly defined and is called the Wilbanks/Savannah complex. These sites are distinguishable by Wilbanks Complicated Stamped pottery. Little else is known about this culture. No sites have been identified for the succeeding Late Mississippian period.

The resident Woodland populations of the Alabama River Valley were influenced by the Moundville culture which is centered in the Black Warrior River Valley in West Alabama. This influence is evidenced by the presence of Moundville vessels such as Moundville Engraved, Carthage Incised, Moundville Incised, and Warrior Plain, on Alabama River sites. The local Mississippian phases are termed Shine by Chase (1967: 48), named after a site, the Shine site (1Mt6), excavated on the Tallapoosa River. The site contained four earthen mounds, one of which contained four burials. The types Shine Plain and Shine Incised are shell tempered. The Shine phase is divided into two periods based on variations and differences in the ceramic wares. Shine I dates to A.D. 1000 to A.D. 1200, and Shine II dates from about A.D. 1200 to about A.D. 1400. These changes also demonstrate additional influences from other regional populations as exemplified by the presence of varieties of Lamar wares and Fort Walton Incised (Chase 1998). It is notable, also, that Shine I ceramics have been found in association with Autauga phase ceramics.

As indicated for the upper reaches of the Coosa River, Native American populations, during the historic times (1500 to 1800), gradually migrated down stream after Spanish contact. These groups were probably affiliated with the Coosa chiefdom which originated from the northwestern Georgia region (Smith 1987 and 1993). By 1630, these groups had moved farther south to the Whortons Bend area near present day Gadsden. These populations moved again around 1670 to the Woods Island region located at Neely Henry Dam in St. Clair County. By the early 1700s, settlement moved farther south around Childersburg. Here the Coosa people joined an “indigenous

population, the descendants of the Kymulga phase” and “reentered the historic record as the Coosas and Abihkas: (Smith 1993:68). Knight (1985) defines three historic phases for the middle Coosa Valley that relates to these groups: Kymulga (1500 to 1650), Woods Island (1650 to 1715), and Childersburg (1715 to 1800). A fourth phase is defined for the Gadsden area called McKee Island (1630 to 1670) (Knight 1998).

The Kymulga phase, dating 1500 to 1650, is centered in Talladega County. Its pottery assemblage is similar to the Barnett phase, which is roughly contemporaneous and found in the upper Coosa drainage, containing a combination of Lamar and Late Dallas (McKee Island) characteristics (Knight 1985). Kymulga pottery is generally plain, with a “smorgasbord” of tempers, like grog, shell, and/or sand/grit (Knight 1998:200). Decoration includes Lamar-like decorations, including complicated stamped, brushed, and bold incised. Effigy adornos and clay pipes are common to Kymulga components, as are small triangular arrow points, greenstone celts, stone pipes, mortars, and hammerstones (Knight 1985). European trade goods are also found on Kymulga sites, most of which are Spanish in nature, which indicate occupation extended well into the seventeenth century (Knight 1998).

Both the McKee Island and the Woods Island complexes exhibit shell tempered pottery which “have their stylistic ancestry to the Dallas-Mouse Creek Mississippian complexes, as refracted through the Barnett phase in northwest Georgia” (Knight 1998: 201). Pottery types include McKee Island Plain, McKee Island Incised, McKee Island Brushed, and McKee Island Cord Marked. Varying percentages of each type help to define different complexes. The McKee Island phase is defined for the Gadsden area, dating between 1630 and 1670 (Knight 1998). The Woods Island phase dates from 1650 to 1715 and is generally defined for the central Coosa Valley. English trade goods are associated with Woods Island, which would have reached this region by 1690 following the establishment of the Carolina trade system (Knight 1985).

The Childersburg phase as defined by DeJarnette and Hanson (1960) is related to the Upper Creek between 1715 and 1800. Pottery associated with Childersburg occupations is predominately shell and grog tempered McKee wares, including plain, incised, and brushed types. European trade goods commonly occur.

There are some historic Native American cultures within the Tallapoosa River Valley that are worthy of note for this region. The Nelsons Bend phase has been defined by Knight (1998) for the upper Tallapoosa River, which has close affinities with the Central Georgia Lamar culture. Pottery types for this phase include Lamar Plain, Lamar Complicated Stamped, Lamar Bold Incised, Wedowee Cord Marked, and Ocumulgee Fields Incised. Shell tempered, sand tempered cord marked, and residual black filmed pottery also occurs within Nelsons Bend components. This phase may date to the late 1500s and early 1600s. The Atasi phase has been dated from A.D. 1600 to A.D. 1715 for the upper and lower Tallapoosa River and is a protohistoric Creek complex. Knight (1985) considers that Atasi is descendant of Shine II and predecessor to the classic Tallapoosa Ocumulgee Fields. Atasi ceramics include cob marked, brushed, and bold incised surface treatments. Temper primarily includes coarse sand or grit. Shell

tempering occurs less frequently, and decorative motifs are defined for the upper and lower segments of the Tallapoosa River, dating 1715 to 1837. Chattahoochee Brushed, Lamar Incised, and Kasita Red Filmed distinguish Tallapoosa phase components.

As indicated, at least the area encompassing Jordan Lake may be considered a hinterland which was used principally by the Creeks, but with no apparent large settlements along the river proper. No doubt fishing may have been important utilizing fish weirs along the Devils Staircase and other rapids that are characteristic of the Fall Line and Piedmont Upland region. Indian settlements may have occurred along the river but were more likely along the tributaries, especially during historic times. From about 1750, more than 20 historic Indian villages are documented for the Coosa Valley, as well as numerous small villages and hamlets (Pickett 1851; Swanton 1946). While the general area of the upper and central Coosa River Valley was populated by both the Cherokee and Creek (Holstein and Hill 1992), it is unlikely that the Cherokee extended this far south. Like the rest of the Indian tribes who lived within the Coosa Valley, these groups also underwent constant acculturation throughout the eighteenth century as European settlers, traders, and missionaries encroached on their lands as early as the 1700s. During the eighteenth century, the Cherokee moved into the upper and middle Coosa area in response to growing pressures induced by European American settlers. These migrations would in turn put pressures on Creeks who lived farther south within the lower Coosa Valley.

The United States (under the command of Andrew Jackson) waged the Creek War (1813 and 1814) against the Creek Nation. The war ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend and, in August of that year, many of the Creek lands were ceded to the United States (Logan and Muse 1998). In many ways, the Coosa River Valley may be considered the geographical flash point for this conflict as Jackson established a number of forts and staging areas within the valley and as the campaign continued within the area. Downstream from Jordan Lake, the Coosa converges with the Tallapoosa to form the Alabama River. It is within this area, after the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, that General Jackson constructed Fort Jackson on the ruins of the French Fort Toulouse. From this staging area, he burned several villages including Hickory Ground which is located near present day Wetumpka. It was at Fort Jackson on August 9, 1814 that a treaty was signed by many of the chiefs and warriors.

It is interesting to note that the state, Alabama, is named for the Alibamos tribe that lived farther downstream mostly within the Alabama River area. This tribe was politically aligned with the Upper Creeks. While many of the Alibamos left the area when the French abandoned Fort Toulouse in 1763, others remained. At the outbreak of the war in 1813, six villages remained within the area. Linguistically, the Alibamos are more related to Choctaw than to Muscogee.

In the 1830s, under the administration of Andrew Jackson, the Native American Removal Act was passed which forced removal of the Cherokee, the Creek, as well as other southeastern Indian tribes by the U.S. Army. As a result, this region of the Coosa Valley was open to settlement and development by European Americans. As populations

increased, agricultural pursuits, mineral extraction (coal and iron ore) and trade activities required the development of a transportation infrastructure. River transportation by steamboat became increasingly important in the central and upper Coosa River Valley but was not possible in this area due to a series of rapids which is characteristic of this river segment. A number of low lift locks were proposed to make the entire Coosa navigable, but they were not constructed in the lower Coosa Valley due to high construction costs. Thus, river transportation was never fully developed and commercial travel from the upper reaches of the Coosa to the lower Alabama River and beyond to the port of Mobile is not possible, even to this day.

Because of abundant streamflow and numerous excellent power sites, the Alabama-Coosa River system has long been recognized as having vast hydroelectric power potentialities. The Governor of Alabama recognized the importance and potential of the Coosa River for inland navigation in 1819 and in 1823 the Coosa Navigation Company was established. The Federal Rivers and Harbors Act of 1870 provided the preliminary study of the Coosa River for navigation. In 1876, three locks and dams were authorized on the lower Coosa River. Two of the low navigation dams were completed in 1886 and 1890 near Greensport and Riverside and the third near Wetumpka was abandoned in 1905. The first major project on the Coosa River was Lock No. 12, known now as Lay Dam, which was named after William Patrick Lay.

The Coosa River, beginning approximately 14 miles north of Wetumpka, was an area of falls and rapids that was called The Devil's Staircase. The Jordan Dam was constructed at The Devil's Staircase between June 15, 1926 and December 31, 1928 (in-service date). At that time this Project was the largest power project undertaken by a private entity in the South. The development, in honor of Reuban and Sidney Mitchell, was named after their mother's maiden name. These men played an important role in the early development of APC.

Bouldin Dam was the last built as part of APC's development of the Coosa River. Construction of the development was started in August 1963 and was completed on September 30, 1967. The Project is located on a man-made canal located approximately one mile upstream of the Jordan Dam. The forebay of the development is interconnected with Jordan Lake and the Jordan Dam provides the spillway for the development. An embankment on the east side of the spillway was breached on February 10, 1975 (Hendron 1996). During that same year, APC investigated the causes of the breach and began reconstruction of the Project. The reconstruction was completed in late 1984 (Hendron 1996).

## References Cited

Bense, Judith A.

- 1994 *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I*. Academic Press, San Diego.

Brown, John

- 1971 *Old Frontiers*. Amo Press, New York.

Burke, R.P.

- 1933 Orange-Red Pottery People: A Preliminary Study of an Isolated Culture in Central Alabama. *Arrowpoints* 19(5-6):33-43.
- 1934 Orange-Red Paint Culture. *Arrowpoints* 20(1-2):2-12.

Chapman, Jefferson

- 1985 Archaeology and the Archaic Period in the Southern Ridge-and-Valley Province. In *Structure and Process in Southeastern Archaeology*, edited by Roy S. Dickens, Jr., and H. Trawick Ward, pp. 137-153. The University of Alabama Press, University.

Chapman, Jefferson, and Andrea B. Shea

- 1981 The Archaeobotanical Record: Early Archaic to Contact in the Lower Little Tennessee River Valley. *Tennessee Anthropologist* 6(1):61-84.

Chase, David W.

- 1967 New Pottery Types from Central Alabama. In *Proceedings of the Twenty-Second Southeastern Archaeological Conference*, edited by Bettye J. Broyles, pp. 41-49. Bullentin 5. Southeastern Archaeological Conference, Morgantown.
- 1968 The Hope Hull Complex. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 14(1):17-29.
- 1998 Prehistoric Pottery of Central Alabama. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 8(1-2).

Clayton, Margaret V.

- 1965 Bluff Shelter Excavations on Sand Mountain. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 11(1).

Clayton, Margaret V.

- 1967 Boydston Creek Bluff Shelter Excavations. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 13(1):1-41.

DeJarnette, David L. and Asael T. Hansen

- 1960 *The Archeology of the Childersburg Site, Alabama*. Notes in Anthropology 4. Department of Anthropology, Florida State University, Tallahassee.

- DeJarnette, David L., Edward B. Kurjack, and James W. Cambron  
1962 Stanfield-Worley Bluff Shelter Excavations. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 8(1-2).
- DeJarnette, David L., Edward B. Kurjack, and Bennie C. Keel  
1973a Archaeological Investigations of the Weiss Reservoir of the Coosa River in Alabama: Part I. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 19(1).  
1973b Archaeological Investigations of the Weiss Reservoir of the Coosa River in Alabama: Part II. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 19(2).
- Delcourt, Hazel R., Paul A. Delcourt, and Elliott C. Spiker  
1983 A 12,000-Year Record of Forest History from Cahaba Pond, St. Clair County, Alabama. *Ecology* 64(4):874-887.
- Delcourt, H.R., and P.A. Delcourt  
1985 Quaternary Palynology and Vegetational History of the Southeastern United States. In *Pollen Records of Late Quaternary North American Sediments*, edited by V.M. Bryant and R.G. Holloway, pp. 1-37. American Association of Stratigraphic Palynologists Foundation.
- Dickens, Roy S., Jr.  
1971 Archaeology in the Jones Bluff Reservoir of Central Alabama. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 17(1).
- Driskell, Boyce N.  
1994 Stratigraphy and Chronology at Dust Cave. In *Preliminary Archaeological Papers on Dust Cave, Northwest Alabama*, edited by Nurit S. Goldman-Finn and Boyce N. Driskell, pp. 17-34. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 40(1-2).  
1996 Stratified Late Pleistocene and Holocene Deposits at Dust Cave, Northwestern Alabama. In *The Paleoindian and Early Archaic Southeast*, edited by David G. Anderson and Kenneth E. Sassaman, pp. 315-330. The University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.
- Ensor, H. Blaine  
1981 *Gainesville Lake Area Lithics: Chronology, Technology, and Use*. Archaeological Investigations in the Gainesville Lake Area of the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway, vol. 3. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Report of Investigations 13. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.  
1982 Paleo-Indian and Archaic Studies in the Gainesville Lake Area. In *Archaeology of the Gainesville Lake Area: Synthesis*, by Ned. J. Jenkins, pp. 15-47.

Archaeological Investigations in the Gainesville Lake Area of the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway, vol. 5. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Report of Investigations 23. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.

1985 The Joe Powell Site (1Pi38): A Dalton Manifestation on the Alabama Gulf Coastal Plain. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 31(1):1-47.

Futato, Eugene M.

1973 I-65 Highway Salvage: The Position of Twelve Archaeological Sites in Central Alabama Prehistory. M.A. Thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of Alabama, University.

Futato, Eugene M.

1982 Some Notes on the Distribution of Fluted Points in Alabama. *Archaeology of Eastern North America* 10:30-33.

Futato, Eugene M.

1983 Comments on the AENA Fluted Point Survey. *Archaeology of Eastern North America* 11:20.

Gardner, Paul S.

1994 Carbonized Plant Remains from Dust Cave. In Preliminary Archaeological Papers on Dust Cave, Northwest Alabama, edited by Nurit S. Goldman-Finn and Boyce N. Driskell, pp. 192-211. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 40(1-2).

Graham, J. Bennett

1966 *An Archaeological Local Sequence Chronology in the Lock 3 Reservoir*. M.A. Thesis. University of Alabama, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, University.

Griffin, John W.

1974 *Investigations in Russell Cave, Russell Cave National Monument, Alabama*. Publication in Archeology 13. National Park Service, Washington.

Grover, Jennifer E.

1994 Faunal Remains from Dust Cave. In Preliminary Archaeological Papers on Dust Cave, Northwest Alabama, edited by Nurit S. Goldman-Finn and Boyce N. Driskell, pp. 116-134. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 40(1-2).

Hally, David J.

1970 *Archaeological Investigation of the Potts' Tract Site (9-Mu-103), Carters Dam, Murray County, Georgia*. Laboratory of Archaeology Series, Report 6. University of Georgia, Athens.

Hally, David J.

- 1979 *Archaeological Investigation of the Little Egypt Site (9Mu102), Murray County, Georgia, 1969 Season*. Laboratory of Archaeology Series, Report 18. University of Georgia, Athens.

Hally, David J., and James B. Lankford, Jr.

- 1988 *Mississippi Period Archaeology of the Georgia Valley and Ridge Province*. Georgia Archaeological Research Design Paper 4. Laboratory of Archaeology Series, Report 25. University of Georgia, Athens.

Hally, David J., Marvin T. Smith, and James B. Lankford, Jr.

- 1990 The Archaeological Reality of de Soto's Coosa. In *Archaeological and Historical Perspectives on the Spanish Borderlands East*, edited by David H. Thomas, pp. 121-138. *Columbian Consequences*, vol. 2. Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington.

Hendron, Dr. Alfred J., Jr.

1996. 1995 Review of Safety of Walter Bouldin Dam; Thirty Five-Year Review after Reconstruction.

Holstein, Harry O., and Curtis E. Hill

- 1992 *An Archaeological Pedestrian Survey of Portions of Lookout Mountain*. Report submitted to the Alabama Historical Commission, Montgomery by the Archaeological Resource Laboratory, Jacksonville State University, Jacksonville.

Hubbert, Charles M.

- 1989 Paleo-Indian Settlement in the Middle Tennessee Valley: Ruminations from the Quad Paleo-Indian Locale. *Tennessee Anthropologist* 14(2):148-164.

Jenkins, Ned J.

- 1976 The West Jefferson Phase and Alabama Archaeology. Paper presented at the 33rd Southeastern Archaeological Conference, Tuscaloosa.

- 1981 *Gainesville Lake Area Ceramic Description and Chronology*. Archaeological Investigations in the Gainesville Lake Area of the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway, vol. 2. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Report of Investigations 12. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.

- 2003 "The Terminal Woodland/Mississippian Transition in West and Central Alabama" *Journal of Alabama Archaeology*, vol 49, nos. 1 and 2.

Keel, Bennie C.

1960 The Money's Bend Site, Ce<sup>v</sup>3, Cherokee County, Alabama. *The Florida Anthropologist* 13(1):1-16.

Knight, Vernon J., Jr.

1985 *East Alabama Archaeological Survey: 1985 Season*. Report submitted to the Alabama Historical Commission, Montgomery by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa. Report of Investigations 43. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University

1993 Introduction: Archaeological Research in the Middle Coosa Valley, Alabama. In *Archaeological Survey and Excavations in the Coosa River Valley, Alabama*, edited by Vernon J. Knight, Jr., pp. 1-5. Bulletin 15. Alabama Museum of Natural History, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.

1998 Aboriginal Pottery of the Coosa and Tallapoosa River Valleys, Alabama. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology*, Volume 44(1-2):188-207.

Knight, Vernon J., Jr., Gloria G. Cole, and Richard Walling

1984 *An Archaeological Reconnaissance of the Coosa and Tallapoosa River Valleys, East Alabama: 1983*. Report submitted to the Alabama Historical Commission, Montgomery by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Report of Investigations 43. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.

Little, Keith L., and Harry O. Holstein

2001 "Terminal Woodland Manifestations in the Coosa Valley of Northeast Alabama", Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southeastern Archaeological Conference, Chattanooga.

William Bryant Logan and Vance Muse

1998 "The Deep South: Smithsonian Guides to Historic America" Stewart Tabor & Chang Press, Washington, DC

Mead, J.I., and D.J. Meltzer

1984 North American Late Quaternary Extinctions and the Radiocarbon Record. In *Quaternary Extinctions: A Prehistoric Revolution*, edited by P.S. Martin and R.G. Klein, pp. 440-450. University of Arizona Press. Tucson.

Mistovich, Tim S.

1981a *An Intensive Phase II Cultural Resources Survey of Selected Areas on the Coosa River Navigation Project, Volume I*. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Report of Investigations 20. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.

- 1981b *An Intensive Phase II Cultural Resources Survey of Selected Areas on the Coosa River Navigation Project, Volume II*. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. *Report of Investigations* 32. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.
- Mistovich, Tim S., and David W. Zeanah
- 1983 *An Intensive Phase II Cultural Resources Survey of Selected Areas on the Coosa River Navigation Project, Volume III*. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. *Report of Investigations* 35. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.
- Morrell, L. Ross
- 1964 Two Historic Sites in the Coosa River. *The Florida Anthropologist* 27(2):75-76.
- Morrell, L. Ross
- 1965 *The Woods Island Site in Southeastern Acculturation, 1625-1800*. Notes in Anthropology 11. Department of Anthropology, Florida State University, Tallahassee.
- NPS
- 1991 Special Resource Study: Little River Canyon Area, Cherokee, DeKalb and Etowah Counties, Alabama. United States Park Service.
- NPS
- 2002 *Revolutionary War/War of 1812 Historic Preservation Study*. Report submitted to the Cultural Resources GIS Facility, Preservation Initiatives Branch, Heritage Preservation Services, National Park Service.
- Oakley, Carey B., and Eugene M. Futato
- 1975 *Archaeological Investigations in the Little Bear Creek Reservoir*. Report submitted to the Tennessee Valley Authority, Chattanooga by the Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University. Research Series 1. Office of Archaeological Research, University of Alabama, University.
- O'Hear, John W.
- 1995 *Archaeological Investigations at the Sanders Site (22CI917), an Alexander Midden on the Tombigbee River, Clay County, Mississippi*. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Cobb Institute of Archaeology, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State. *Report of Investigations* 6. Cobb Institute of Archaeology, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State.

Parmalee, Paul W.

1962 Faunal Remains from the Stanfield-Worley Bluff Shelter, Colbert County, Alabama. In *Stanfield-Worley Bluff Shelter Excavations*, by David L. DeJarnette, Edward B. Kurjack, and James W. Cambron, pp. 112-114. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 8(1-2).

Perry, Robert Earl

2004 *The Historical Significance of the Creek Indian War of 1813-1814, Land Use and Archaeology of Fort Strother in St. Clair County, Alabama*. Unpublished Masters Thesis, Jacksonville State University, Jacksonville, Alabama.

Perry, Robert E. and Carey B. Oakley

2000 *Phase I Archaeological Resources Survey, Proposed S.R. 25 Overpass, Chatham County, Georgia*, Prepared for the Georgia Ports Authority, Savannah (Birmingham: Law Engineering & Environmental Services, Inc.

Pickett, Albert James

1851 *History of Alabama, and Incidentally of Georgia and Mississippi from the Earliest Period*. Walker and James. Charleston..

Smith, Marvin T.

1975 European Materials from the King Site. In *Proceedings of the Thirty-First Southeastern Archaeological Conference*, edited by Drexel A. Peterson, Jr., pp. 63-66. Bulletin 18. Southeastern Archaeological Conference, Memphis.

1976 The Route of DeSoto through Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama: The Evidence from Material Culture. *Early Georgia* 4(1-2):27-48.

1977 The Early Historic Period (1540-1670) on the Upper Coosa River Drainage of Alabama and Georgia. In *The Conference on Historic Site Archaeology Papers: 1976, Volume 11*, edited by Stanley South, pp. 151-167. The Conference on Historic Site Archaeology, Columbia.

1987 *Archaeology of Aboriginal Culture Change in the Interior Southeast: Depopulation during the Early Historic Period*. Ripley P. Bullen Monograph in Anthropology and History 6. Florida State Museum, University of Florida, Gainesville.

1993 Seventeenth Century Aboriginal Settlement on the Coosa River. In *Archaeological Survey and Excavations in the Middle Coosa Valley, Alabama*, edited by Vernon J. Knight, Jr., pp. 63-70. Bulletin 15. Alabama Museum of Natural History, University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.

Swanton, John R.

1946 *The Indians of the Southeastern United States*. Bulletin 137. Bureau of American Ethnology, Washington.

U.S. Department of the Army

1898 National Archives of the Inspector General, Microfilm File, Washington

Walker, Renee Beauchamp

1998 *The Late Paleoindian through Middle Archaic Faunal Evidence from Dust Cave, Alabama*. Dissertation presented to the University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Walling, Richard, and Bonnie Schrader

1983 The Dry Branch Site, 1Sh42, and the Late Gulf Formational in the Central Coosa River Drainage. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 29(2):154-173.

Walthall, John A.

1980 *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast: Archaeology of Alabama and the Middle South*. The University of Alabama Press, University.

Walthall, John A., and Ned J. Jenkins

1976 The Gulf Formational Stage in Southeastern Prehistory. In *Proceedings of the Thirty-Second Southeastern Archaeological Conference*, edited by Drexel A. Peterson, Jr., pp. 43-49. Bulletin 19. Southeastern Archaeological Conference, Memphis.

Waselkov, Gregory A.

1980 *Coosa River Valley Archaeology: Results of a Cultural Resources Reconnaissance*, vol. 1. Report submitted to the United States Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile by the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Auburn University, Auburn. Archaeological Monograph 2. Auburn University, Auburn.