

Appendix J

Cultural Overview from Prehistory to Project Development

Paleoindian (10,000 to 8,000 B.C.)

- *Early Paleoindian (10,000 to 9,000 B.C.)* - Few sites have been identified in Alabama.
- *Middle Paleoindian (9,000 to 8,500 B.C.)* - The presence of Paleoindian groups in Alabama is more prominent during this stage. During this time period inhabitants relied on many of the same subsistence practices, but the tool kits became more diverse and local raw materials were used in the manufacture of their tools. Several regional cultures emerged throughout the Southeast 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).
- *Late Paleoindian (8,500 to 8,000 B.C.)* - Human population appears to have increased in Alabama during this stage, as it did elsewhere. These people had adapted even more to their local environments and had expanded into new environmental zones, especially the uplands (Bense, 1994). Rockshelters and caves in the Tennessee Valley were occupied seasonally, as evidenced by sites like Russell Cave (Griffin, 1974) in northeast Alabama; and Stanfield-Worley Bluff Shelter (DeJarnette et al., 1962) and Dust Cave (Driskell, 1994 and 1996) in northwest Alabama. Paleoindian settlement may also have been regulated by seasonal changes in availability and distribution of resources (Hubbert, 1989).

Archaic Stage (8,000 to 1,200 B.C.) - The beginning of the Archaic is marked by shifts in the climate and local environments. Archaic people successfully adapted to the changes in the weather, vegetation, and animal populations. The Archaic stage is divided into early, middle, and late periods.

- *Early Archaic (8,000 to 6,500 B.C.)* - During this stage, hunting and gathering remained the primary subsistence strategy, though there were significant changes from the previous Paleoindian culture. A wide array of resources were believed to be 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). Early Archaic sites are recorded across Alabama, though they still are most numerous in the Tennessee Valley. Settlement patterns for the Early Archaic reflect use of both riverine and upland (i.e., sinks, caves, and bluff shelters) localities with larger more permanent settlements flourishing in the river valleys. It is suspected that the large river valleys were primarily used during the spring and summer months, while the upland sites were occupied during the fall and winter months. The tool kit for the Early Archaic hunter was much more extensive than before and included points that would have been attached to a spear thrower, or atlatl, which was an important technological innovation for hunting.
- *Middle Archaic (6,500 to 3,200 B.C.)* – This stage is marked by a post-glacial, global warming trend. The climate became warmer and drier, resulting in decreased rainfall and changes from cool, temperate mixed hardwoods forest 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. For the first time, 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).
- *Late Archaic (3,000 to 1,200 B.C.)* - 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 basecamps are common along the major river valleys with large storage pits as common features (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 settlements. The beginnings of horticulture are apparent during the Late Archaic, which at least included container crops, like bottle gourds and hard-rind squash (Bense, 1994). Technological advances include axes, weights, plummets, ornamental items, and stone bowls (steatite or sandstone). Aspects of economic and social complexity became even further developed. More extensive trade networks had evolved, focusing on steatite, marine shell, and high quality lithic resources (Futato, 1983). Continued interment of the dead with assorted grave goods was practiced.

Gulf Formational Stage (1,200 to 300 B.C.) - The Gulf Formational stage, as defined by Walthall and Jenkins (1976), begins with the advent of ceramic technology. The earliest ceramics in the Southeast are found on the Coastal Plain, although in Alabama the culture apparently extended into the Tennessee Valley and portions of the Cumberland Plateau. Cultural patterns of this stage are virtually the same as the Late Archaic. The only marked difference is the addition of pottery. There are three periods, early, middle (1,200 to 500 B.C.) and late (500 to 100 B.C.), defined for the Gulf Formational stage, but only the middle and later periods are present in Alabama.

Woodland Stage (A.D. 100 to 1000) - For the Basin area and many other regions in Alabama, the preceding Gulf Formational periods replace the Early Woodland period. Therefore, the Woodland stage in the Basin includes just the Middle Woodland (A.D. 100 to 700) and the Late Woodland (A.D. 700 to 1000) periods. The Woodland cultures relied on hunting and gathering as their primary subsistence. The bow and arrow was developed during this stage. However, horticulture became increasingly important throughout the Woodland, which helped to support the increasing population. Larger, more permanent villages were being occupied, but extractive campsites were still important for hunting and foraging. Mound building was common, especially during the Middle Woodland period. Trade was of great importance to the local economies and probably was essential in the spread of social, political, and religious philosophies.

Mississippian Stage (A.D. 1000 to 1500) - The Mississippian stage is characterized by a complex society and generally extends between A.D. 1000 to 1500, though there is some regional variation. Mississippian society was hierarchical with an agrarian economy. The cultivation of corn, beans, and squash was a primary part of the Mississippian culture and the larger river valleys were the preferred environment for their expansive societies (Walthall, 1980). Mound centers served as the social, political, and religious hubs, with farmsteads and villages distributed throughout the river valleys.

Euro-American History

During the Proto-Historical Period (1540 to 1600 A.D.) and the Exploration to Territorial Period (1519 to 1819 A.D.) the French, Spanish, and British struggled with the Native Americans. European contact within Alabama began in 1540 when Spanish explorers, led by Hernando De Soto, battled with Native Americans near Mauvila (Logan and Muse, 1998). The Native Americans that were present during the initial European contact included the Chickasaw, Cherokee, Creek, and Choctaw. By the 1600's English and French settlements were established in the region.

During the 1700's, 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 in 1763 (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 to Caucasians beginning in 1804 and large tracts of Native American lands were ceded to them. The War of 1812 presented further conflicts in the area and 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 to 1814) against the Creek Nation. The War ended in March 1814 at the Battle of Horseshoe Bend, and in August 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. Alabama became the 22nd state in the Union on December 14, 1819.

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, railroads (in the 1840’s), and a system of river control mechanisms (including dams and locks) allowed for increased access throughout Alabama. Cotton became the principal export and provided the economic means for the expansion of the infrastructure. During this period the Warrior River was used for trade and industry. Increased pressure on the land and the institution of the cotton economy led to the relocation of Native Americans from Alabama to Oklahoma in the 1830 Indian Removal Act.

During the Civil War, Alabama joined and fought with the Confederate States of America, who established the first confederate capital in Montgomery. The Civil War caused a shift from the production of cotton to the manufacturing of war supplies in many of the rural regions and led to the enlistment of soldiers into the war. This period was marked by disruption of state and national affairs. The hardships of war, emancipation of slaves, and construction of earthworks, factories, hospitals, and other permanent and temporary works formed new cultural patterns. Following the Civil War, Alabama refused to sign the 14th Amendment of the Constitution and was placed under military rule in 1867. In 1868, Alabama signed the amendment, which protected civil rights for African Americans, and was readmitted to the Union. Alabama’s economy returned primarily to agricultural production, but Reconstruction led to increased industrialization and urbanization in several Alabama cities.

Walker County was established in 1824 and was named after John W. Walker, one of Alabama's first senators (The Chamber of Commerce Walker County, 2000). The City of Jasper, located approximately 30 miles from the lake, was settled in 1815 and incorporated in 1886. The city was named after the Sergeant William Jasper who served in the Revolutionary War (The Chamber of Commerce Walker County, 2000). The installation of two major railroads through Jasper in 1886 initiated growth in Jasper and other towns in Walker County. The City of Jasper is the county seat of Walker County.

Winston County was created in 1850 and was originally named Hancock County in honor of Governor John Hancock of Massachusetts (Brooms and Hubbert, 1978). The name was later changed in 1858 to Winston after the state Governor John H. Winston. Winston County is best known to historians as the "free State of Winston" because of the number of its northern sympathizers who declared Winston to be "ceded from the Confederacy" during the Civil War (Logan and Muse, 1998). Individuals from this county served in both the Union and Confederate armies during the war. Double Springs is the county seat.

Cullman County was founded in 1873 by the German expatriate Colonel John G. Cullman (Cullman County Chamber of Commerce, 1998; Logan and Muse, 1998). The Colonel purchased the lands of the county from the Louisville & Nashville Railroad in order to establish a cooperative agricultural German-American community (Cullman County Chamber of Commerce, 1998; Logan and Muse, 1998). The county seat is the Town of Cullman.

The Bankhead National Forest, located in Winston, Lawrence, and Franklin Counties, was created in 1936 by a proclamation by President Franklin D. Roosevelt (Great Outdoor Recreation Pages, 2000). Originally named the Black Warrior National Forest, it was renamed William B. Bankhead National Forest in 1942. Bankhead served in the U.S. Congress from 1917 to 1940 and was Speaker of the House from 1936 to 1940 (Great Outdoor Recreation Pages, 2000).

The Warrior River served as a waterway for Native Americans, traders, and early settlers. In the 19th century, use of the river as a transportation route expanded due to the trade of cotton and the invention of the paddlewheel steamboat (USACE, 1998). The first plans to provide improvements to navigation began in 1875. The USACE established a system of 17 locks and dams between 1895 and 1915 between Mobile and Birmingham. The original dams and locks were designed to provide a six foot navigation channel; in 1937, the system was modernized by the USACE to provide a nine foot navigation channel. The modernization included the replacement of the 17 locks and dams by six larger locks that created the 457 mile long waterway.

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