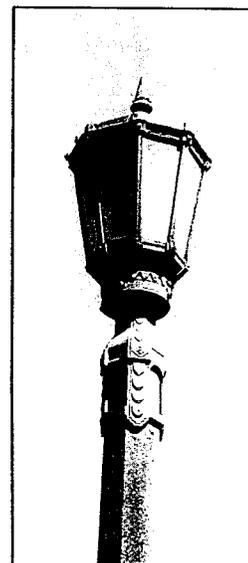
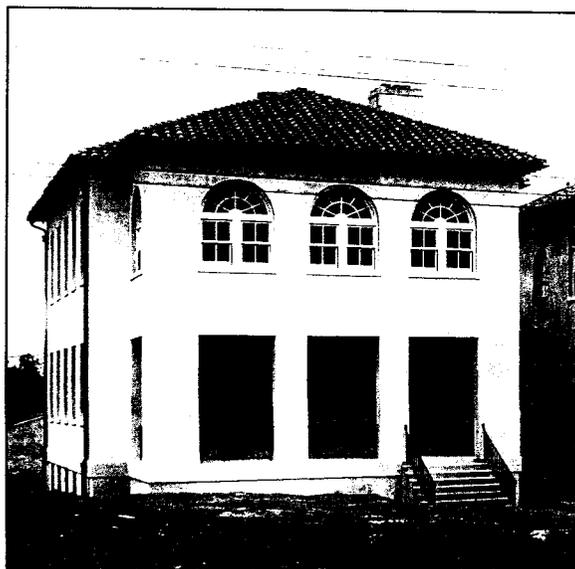
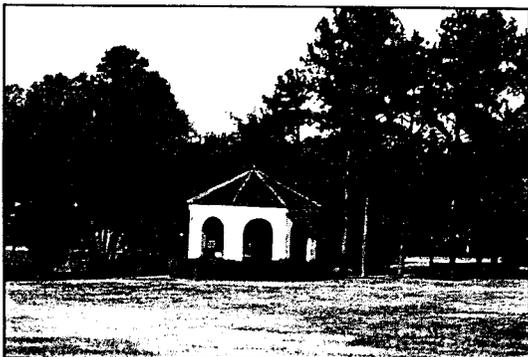
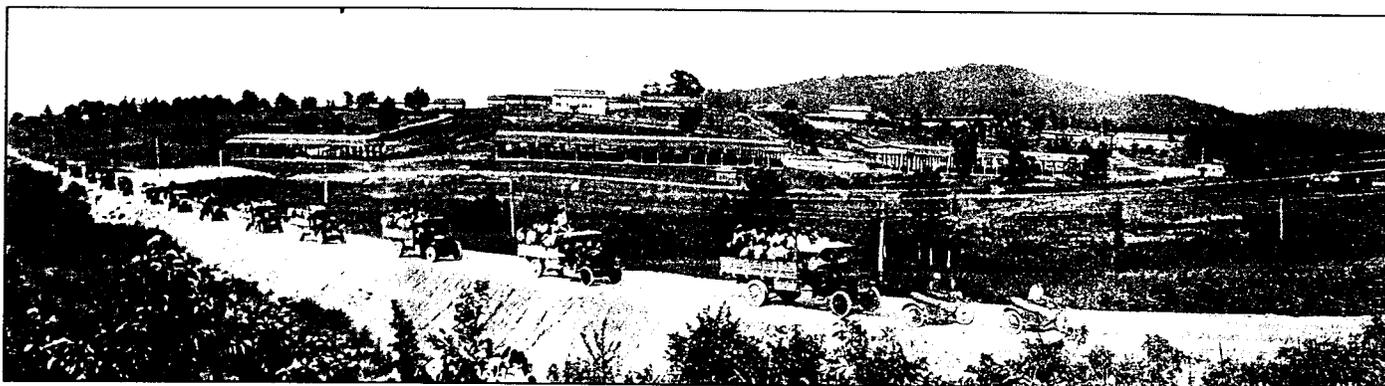


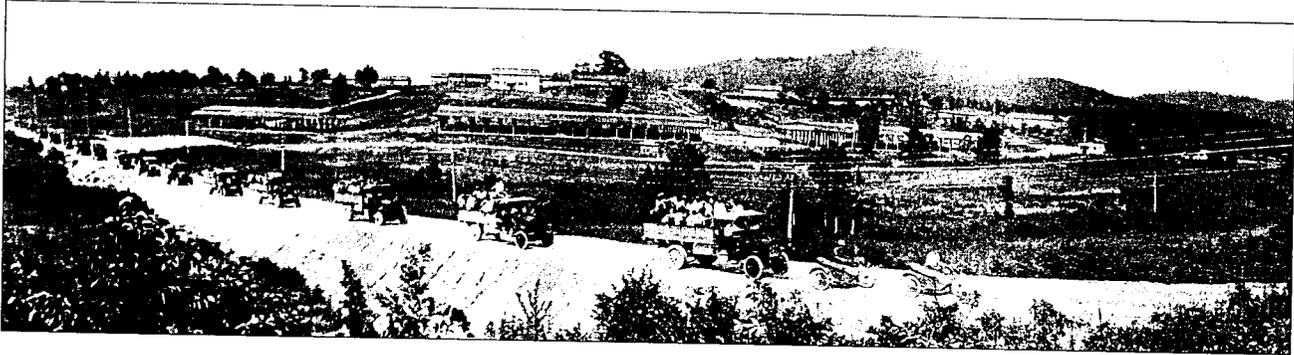
# Fort McClellan

A Popular History



By Mary Beth Reed, Charles E. Cantley and J.W. Joseph

COESAM/PDER-96-008



# Fort McClellan

## A Popular History

Report Prepared for  
U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile District  
Contract No. DACA01-93-D-0033

By Mary Beth Reed, Charles E. Cantley and J.W. Joseph

New South Associates  
6150 East Ponce de Leon Avenue  
Stone Mountain, Georgia 30083

Cover: Work Crew en route to Camp McClellan, 1917.

Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County;

Unidentified World War I soldiers with protective masks, Camp McClellan.

Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County;

Y.M.C.A. Building, Fort McClellan, circa 1949.

New South Associates

Gazebo "on the hill," circa 1949.

New South Associates

Hospital Administration Building, circa 1949.

New South Associates

Street Light "on the hill."

New South Associates

Title Page: Work Crew en route to Camp McClellan.

Courtesy of the Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County

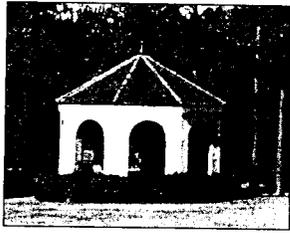
### Acknowledgements

We thank the following for the use of illustrations and photographs: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County; Archaeological Resource Laboratory, Jacksonville State University; Alabama Historical Commission; University of Alabama Press, Academic Press, University of Florida Press and the University of Tennessee Press, and Ms. Julia C. Cantley.

Graphic Design: Tracey Fedor, New South Associates

Tony Brischler, The Brischler Art Studio

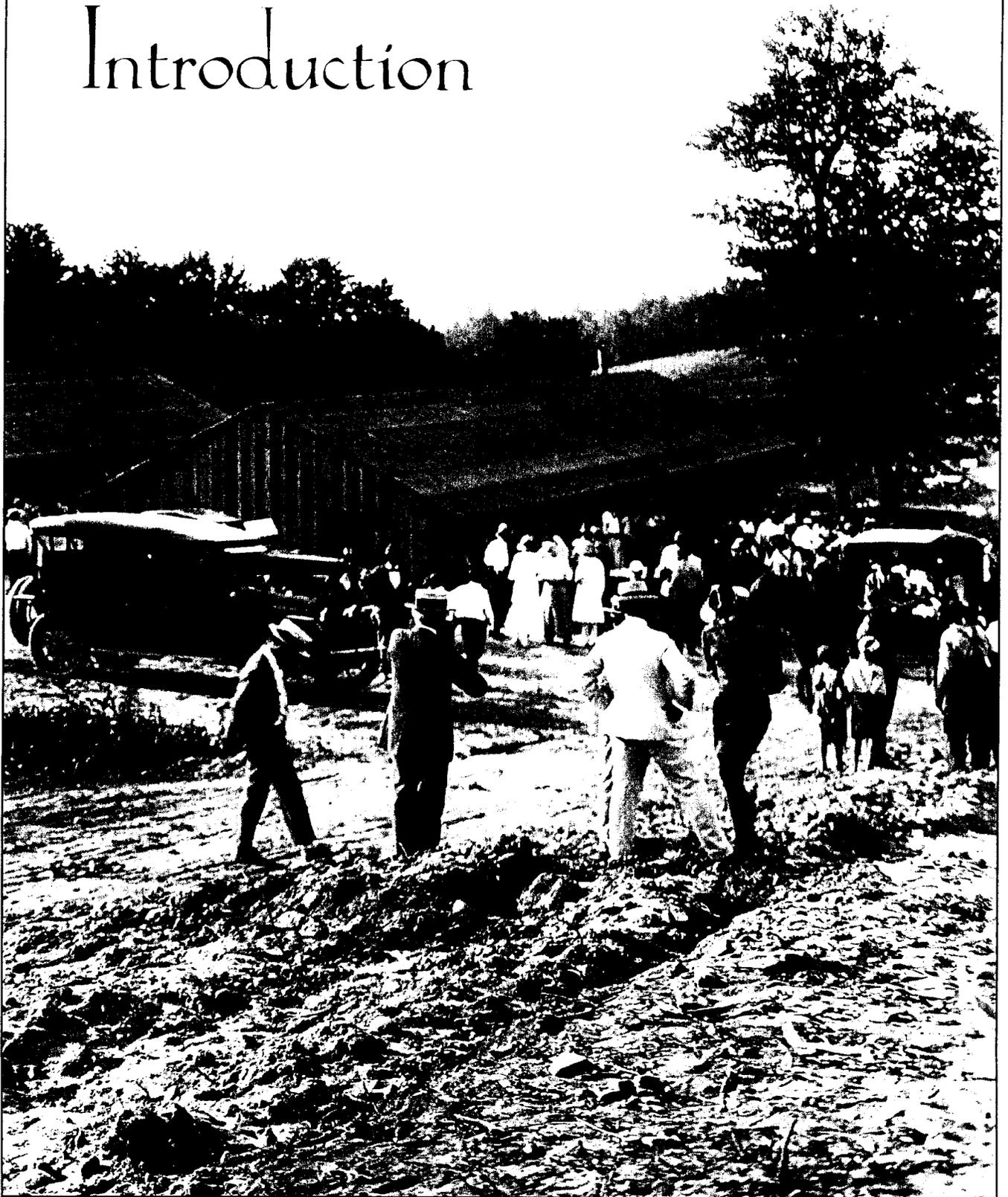
Original Photography by Richard T. Bryant



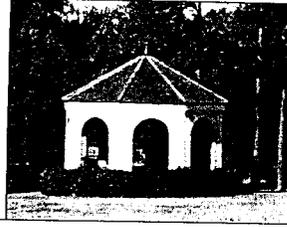
# Contents

Chapter One .....	1
Introduction	
Chapter Two .....	5
Lines of Evidence	
Chapter Three .....	15
First Arrivals	
Chapter Four .....	29
Contact and Confederacy	
Chapter Five .....	45
Settlement and Expansion	
Chapter Six .....	71
Military Camp	
Chapter Seven .....	85
Military Community and World War II Fort	
Chapter Eight .....	109
A Sense of Place and Time	
References and Suggested Readings	

# Introduction



# Chapter 1

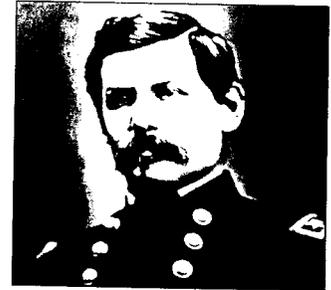


Fort McClellan has a proud and fascinating history. Companion to the “Model City of the South,” Anniston, Alabama, the military has been a presence in this region since the Spanish-American War and the creation of Camp Shipp. These seeds of military life were fostered during the first World War and raised to maturity during World War II.

The history of Fort McClellan extends beyond this military presence, however. Prior to the Army’s arrival, farmers and tenants, shopkeepers and manufacturers shaped the landscape on this stretch of north Alabama hillside. Their legacy is still present on the base and witnessed by historic cemeteries, old house sites, the remains of iron furnaces, and other tangible pieces of the past.

Humankind’s first arrival in the area of what is now Fort McClellan remains in the shadows, yet is also part of Fort McClellan’s past. Prehistoric peoples were present in the region for thousands of years before Americans first settled the hills north of Anniston. Their story is read through archaeology, by the recovery of flaked stone projectile points, broken pieces of pottery, fragments of animal bone, and stone mounds. While these Native Americans left no written record of their time on Fort McClellan, their lives connect with those of historic farmers and manufacturers, who in turn reach out to the base’s first battalions and its current troops and mission to form an unbroken chain of human history. These shared histories collectively create the story of Fort McClellan.

This book tells the Fort McClellan story. It is written as a popular history, a history that tells about American Indians and engineers,



Major General George B. McClellan  
Source: *Anniston, Alabama Centennial 1883-1983 Commemorative Book and Centennial Program*, 1983, p.82.



World War I Soldier Source: *Annie's Town*: Morgan, 1990, p. 271.

Opposite: Annistonians Visit Camp McClellan, circa 1917.

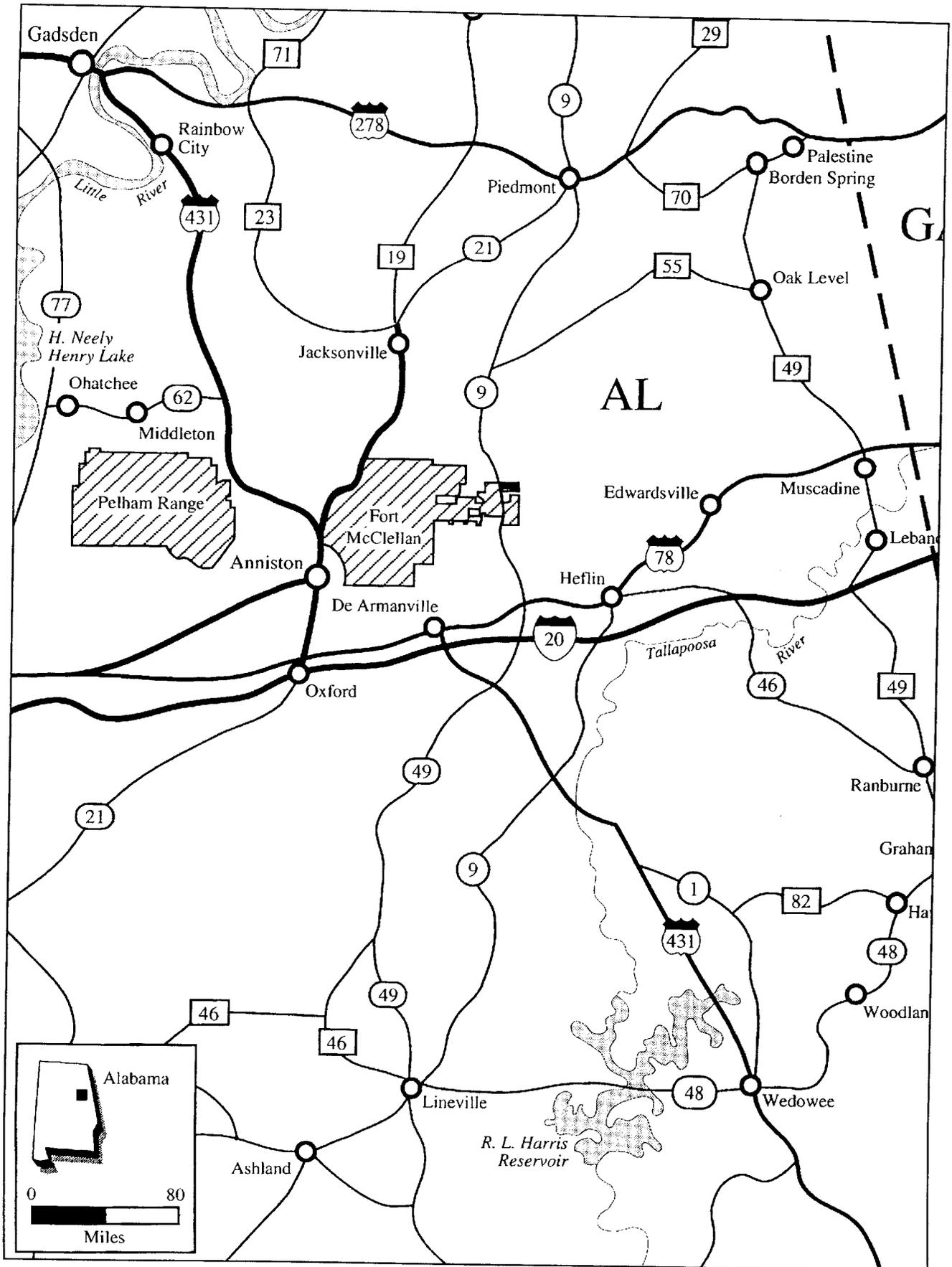
colonels and carpetbaggers, farmers and first lieutenants. It is a family history, providing the Fort McClellan family, both new and old, military and civilian, a shared sense of the past. The need to tell this story is made more poignant by Fort McClellan's scheduled closure under the Base Realignment and Closure Act. Fort McClellan has a distinguished history, one worth remembering.

This publication was sponsored by Fort McClellan to provide the fort's present and future community a sense of Fort McClellan's past and to honor those who had a part in that past. We hope that it conveys to its reader an appreciation of the importance of the fort that was one of the southeastern United States' premier military bases and was lauded as "The Military Showplace of the South" for its excellence in planning and architectural design.

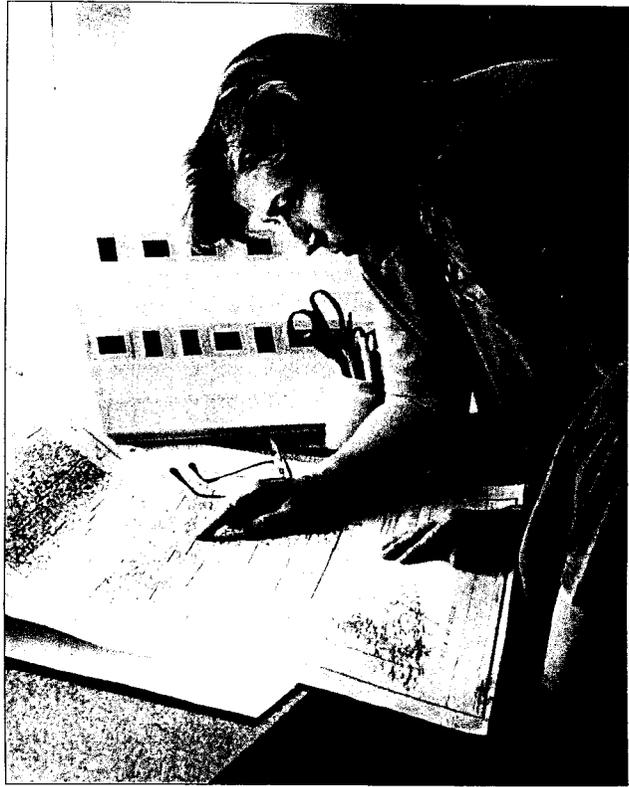
Camp McClellan changed forever the environment experienced by native Americans and early settlers. Source: *Public Library of Anniston - Calhoun County*

Opposite: Fort McClellan's Location in Alabama.

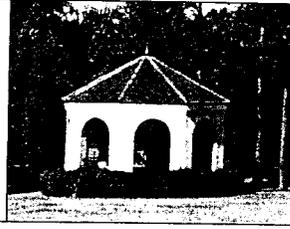




# Lines of Evidence



# Chapter 2



## The Interpreters

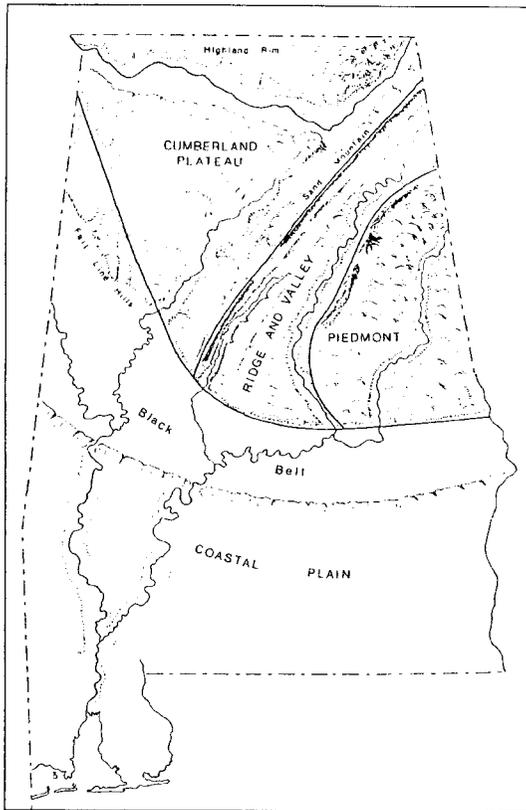
A number of scholars with a wide variety of disciplinary skills have interpreted the history, prehistory and past environments of Fort McClellan. These include historians, architectural historians, and prehistorians from both the private and public sectors. Each pulls from a different theoretical background and methodology that produces a line of evidence concerning the past. This chapter shows how these different lines of evidence come together in an interpretation of the diversity of past human experience at Fort McClellan.

## Present and Past

An understanding of Fort McClellan begins with a description of its location and environment within Calhoun County, Alabama, just north of the City of Anniston. The land area of the fort spans approximately 40,000 acres with the Choccolocco Mountain range bounding the eastern rim of the fort, running north to south.

The geographic area Fort McClellan embraces is contained within Alabama's Valley and Ridge and Piedmont physiographic provinces. These two provinces are part of a broad geographic classification system that allows geologists and geomorphologists to describe the physical landscape and to study its origins and characteristics. For example, the Valley and Ridge Province is characterized by a series of elevations interspersed with valleys. In contrast, the Piedmont Province is part of a regional plateau that includes parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia and Alabama between the coastal plain and the Appalachian Mountains.

Opposite: Views of Archaeological, Historical and Architectural Historical Studies. Source: New South Associates and Archaeological Resource Laboratory, Jacksonville State University.



Physiographic Regions of Alabama.  
 Source: *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast*,  
 Waldhall, 1980, p.14.

Many geologic formations are associated with the Valley and Ridge physiographic province. These formations have produced slate, a variety of dolomites, chert, limestone, shale, and sandstone. The presence of iron-rich dolomites and significant chert deposits has played an important role in the area's prehistoric and historic development. Chert was mined by prehistoric peoples interested in producing stone tools; some chert deposits, such as Fort Payne chert, were used extensively. Tools made from Fort Payne chert became extremely desirable particularly to those that did not have access to such resources.

Likewise, dolomite formations containing iron ore attracted nineteenth-century Southern ironmasters. These men not only began a successful regional industry but developed the company town of Anniston, founded as the "Model City of the New South."

Fort McClellan is well-drained by three river basins: the Choccolocco Basin, east and south of the Choccolocco Mountains; the Little Tallasseehatchee Basin within the north central section of the Main Post; and the Cane Creek Basin in the central and western regions of the Post. The region's plants are indicative of the Oak-Pine Forest Region which stretches across the North American Continent. Oak and hickory trees are mixed with pine; the abundance of the latter is attributed to timbering and land-clearing activities associated with the area's early settlers. Pines are usually the first trees to reoccupy areas that have been denuded of their vegetation. The drastic nature of the area's historic land use has led to corresponding changes in the types and sizes of animal populations in the area embraced by Fort McClellan.

Reconstruction of these past environments, including flora, fauna, climate, and landscape, is typically performed by a number of specialists, including palynologists, paleontologists, geologists, and archaeologists. The prehistoric peoples who crossed or lived in the area that became Fort McClellan were players on a stage with varying climactic and environmental backdrops. These forces and their changes over time helped to shape human behavior; thus, the study of past or paleoenvironments has great importance to the prehistorian.

Paleoenvironmental studies have revealed a dynamic record of climatic and vegetational changes in the Southeastern United States. About 40,000 years ago, the Laurentide Ice Sheet covered the Great Lakes Region, creating a number of temperature and vegetation geographic sheds that extended into the Southeast. Northwest Alabama was within one of these sheds. Characterized by a cool climate and oak, hickory, and Southern pine forests, this paleoenvironment lasted until about 25,000 years ago. It was followed by a warming trend before the Full Glacial Period of about 18,000 years ago. Spruce trees mixed with conifers and hardwoods were characteristic of this period. Other waves of climactic change followed as the Glacial Age ended 10,000 years ago and the Holocene Period began.

While the Holocene began with a cool, moist climate, a warming trend began about 5,000 years ago that again permitted the growth of oak, hickory and Southern pine forests. Essentially, our modern environment was in the throes of birth. A second signature of this new maturity was the rising of sea levels to almost their current levels around 4,000 to 5,000 years ago. This change created major swamp formations in the coastal plain for the first time and the formation of the Southeastern pine forest along the Gulf and Atlantic coasts.

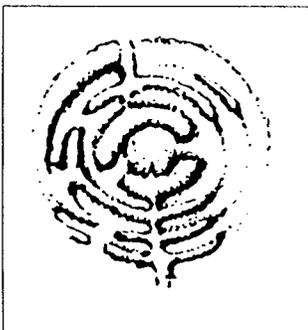
As past environments changed, so did their complement of animal and plant species. The long-ago presence of animals such as the

mammoth in Alabama is an exotic example of such change. Paleontological studies have identified other species living in Alabama during these earlier environments, including the giant ground sloth, the mastodon, horse, and bison. Radiocarbon dates suggest that some of these animals may have been present during the earliest human occupation of Alabama.

Early agriculturalists and Euroamerican settlers began to alter the historic environment through agricultural and industrial activities. Their activities forced dramatic shifts in the area's forests and grasslands. New plants and animal species appeared in the wake of those that had lost their ecological niche through natural or cultural agents. Therefore, the environment that sheltered the World War I camp at Camp McClellan was quite different from that experienced by settlers even one hundred years earlier.

## Interpreting the Cultural Past

Archaeology is a field within the larger discipline of anthropology, which claims as its focus the study of humans, their physical selves and culture. The archaeologist studies and researches the lives of humans in the past, excavating the remains of past cultures and using this evidence to reconstruct past cultures. There are two broad fields within American archaeology: prehistory and history. While the prehistorian and the historic archaeologist both study past human behavior and culture, each devotes attention to a particular time and, in some cases, region.



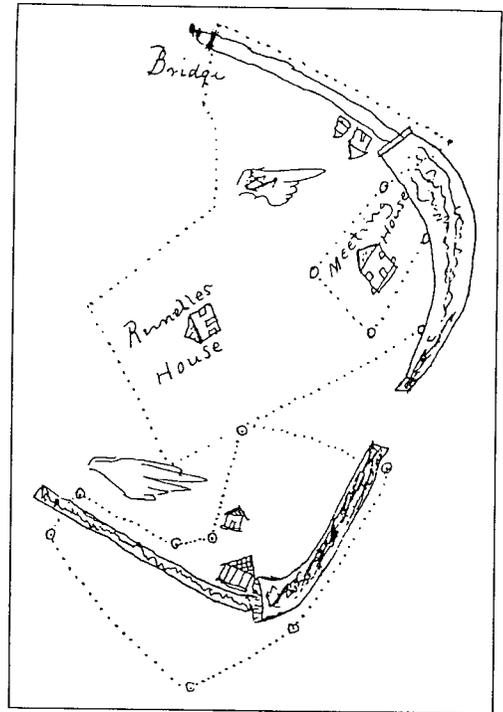
Concentric circles petroglyph found carved on the side of a sandstone ridge in Blount County Alabama. Source: *Alabama's Aboriginal Rock Art*; Henson and Martz, 1979, p.8.

The prehistorian looks at the time before humans began to write. Research consists of excavating and recording cultural remains such as stone tools, rock art, basketry, ceramics, buildings, camps, mounds and town sites. Changing climates, vegetation, and animal species are lines of evidence also pursued by the prehistoric archaeologist to help explain

past environments and their impact on past human behavior. These supporting lines of evidence gain in importance with the age of some sites. Typically, prehistoric archeologists, especially those interested in the Paleoindian and Archaic periods, pull from as many supporting disciplines as possible to strengthen their results.

In contrast, the historical archaeologist studies past cultures from the beginning of their written record into the early twentieth century, using both the documentary record and the available archaeological data to reconstruct the past. Each of these lines of evidence are woven together to enrich the historical archaeologist's interpretation. For example, an archaeological study of the historic townsite of Morrisville within Pelham Range at Fort McClellan brings historic maps, deed research, family biographies, and historic photographs to the laboratory analysis table, along with artifacts such as cut nails, bricks, ceramics, and buttons. Both history and archaeology are blended into a narrative to tackle research questions about historic societies or groups that are not answered solely by either documents or archaeological evidence alone.

Both prehistorians and historical archaeologists look at the first encounter of American Indian groups with European explorers and the fascinating threads of prehistory that led to this meeting and the historic events that followed. Historic and prehistoric archaeologists sometimes choose to research a particular area, culture or region throughout their careers, while other pursue a more general view of their discipline. Still others combine their general or regional interests with a fascination with a particular artifact type, becoming exceptionally skilled at the classification and description of these types. Finally, some archaeologists use "experimental archaeology," or an applied approach, by learning a pre-



Plats showing Morris' lower and upper mills located within Morrisville. Source: Calhoun County Deed Book, 10:386.



Experimental archaeology reveals the methods used to make projectile points, also known as flint knapping. Source: *Tellico Archaeology*; Chapman, 1985, p.31.

historic or historic skill that allows them a greater understanding of the skills and resources that go into the production of artifacts such as arrowhead points and a more thorough understanding of the object being made.

The archaeological record is composed of material culture or things preserved as artifacts, sites, or landscapes. An artifact is man-made, a product of an individual's culture, and can range from a stone tool or a hoe to a building such as the World Trade Center. Most artifacts collected by archaeologists are broken rather than whole; ceramic pieces called sherds are the most common on historic sites. Archaeologists use the word "site" when they refer to a place that has evidence of past human behavior such as stone tools, bricks, or a dam. Architectural remains such as four aligned piles of fieldstone signal the presence of a house site; remnants of outbuildings, fencelines, trash piles, and domestic vegetation are considered part of this site. The presence of a number of contiguous sites that share a common use or identity allows the archaeologist to speak about past landscapes. For example, the area that became Fort McClellan was cultivated by many small farmers in the nineteenth century. Their labor created an agricultural landscape of fields, farmhouses, and outbuildings that was distinctively patterned. The pattern contained in this landscape informs us about past agricultural practices, family and tenure, and ways of life in the Alabama piedmont.

Artifacts are classified by their form, function or date and then placed within their context, the site. In an almost evolutionary sense, the archaeologist, whether prehistoric or historic, begins his or her interpretation with an artifact, then moves to a broader level of interpretation that places sites and landscapes in their context. Thus the recovery of the rusty metal head of a hoe with the manufacturing date imprinted upon it yields a date and a suggestion of function for the site.

Broader, interpretive studies have allowed archaeologists to build archaeological sequences that highlight periods, time, and characteristic cultural patterns and features for a region or for the totality of the human experience under study. A cultural timeline is a sum-



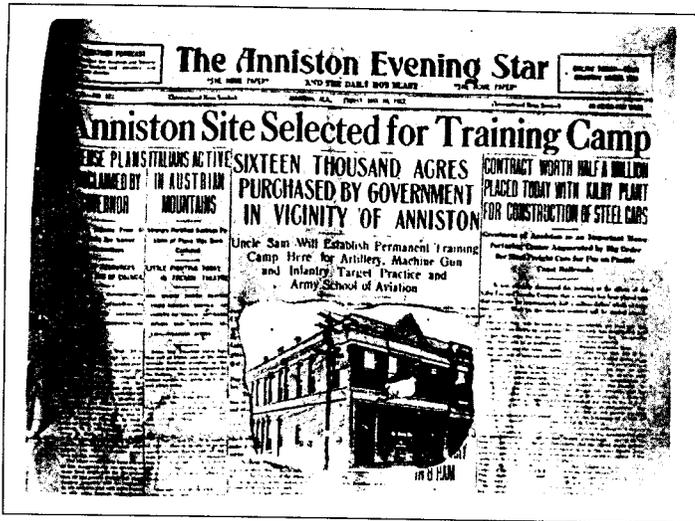
mary of these sequences that refers to a span of time usually called a period, and to a stage within a continuum of changing social complexity. The timeline of north central Alabama records the division between prehistoric and historic events, as well as patterns in subsistence and economy, settlement, and key elements known as diagnostic features.

Excavation at Fort McClellan. Archeologists cleans floor of unit before mapping features. Source: *Archaeological Resource Laboratory, Jacksonville State University.*

Survey, testing, and excavation or data recovery are the three main levels of investigation of Fort McClellan's archaeological resources. Federal regulations have assured that this archaeological heritage is safeguarded and responsibly managed under the provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act. Surveys are undertaken to identify sites, while testing is geared toward establishing the size, density, and preservation of a site. Full excavation or data recovery is called upon when a significant site's preservation is threatened by development.

## Public History and Architectural History

Public historians have the same training as academic historians but work in the public sector rather than the university. The public historian conducts historical research studies for a variety of clients, using traditional approaches within a short time span; most public historians' work is done for a "project." The public historian typically reports the results of his or her research within technical reports or studies.



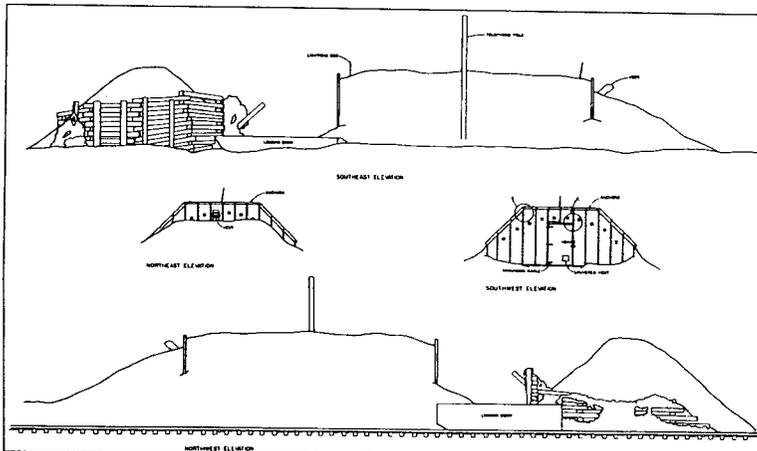
Historians piece together the written record using personal documents such as diaries, family photographs and other memorabilia saved from the past. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.

Whether working alone or as part of a team with historical archaeologists and architectural historians, the historian attempts to piece together the past through the written record. Personal documents such as diaries, family photographs, wills, and inventories are joined with public records such as the census, agricultural statistics, tax rolls, and land records to tell the story of a family, community, city or region.

Typically, the first sources to be gathered in a historical study of a geographic area are historic maps that show physical change over time. This map research is usually followed by a search of secondary source literature. Sometimes an overview or context is prepared to give historians, archaeologists or a broader public audience a basic understanding of the project area.

In other cases, a specific subject such as a technology, a time period, or an individual may be identified for more intensive research. Historic American Building Survey or Engineering Record studies are also performed by historians and architectural historians. An example of this detailed type of research, analysis, and recording was undertaken with Fort McClellan's historic ammunition supply buildings. Each building was surveyed and evaluated for its historical significance,

HABS Documentation of World War II igloo. Source: New South Associates.



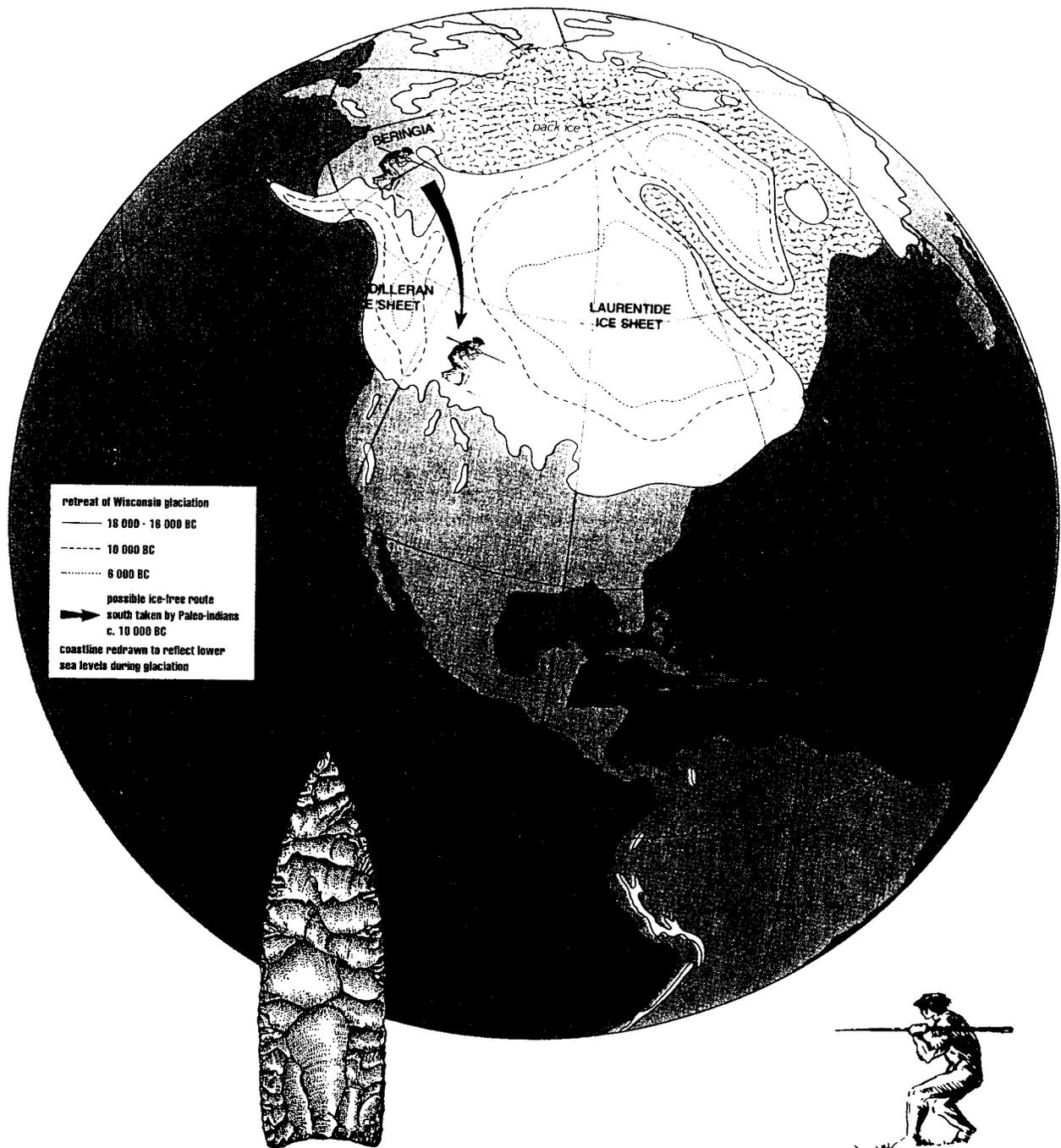
then recorded through drawings, photographs, and historical research to the most detailed level of study recommended under National Park Service criteria. The technology the buildings represent and their form was thoroughly studied and reported upon, so that other historians of military architecture

may gain a better understanding of these significant buildings that, though commonplace on World War II posts, played a very important role.

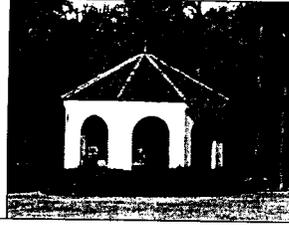
The architectural historian studies buildings, settings and landscapes for clues about the past built environment. Architectural styles date a building and inform the scholar about the status and world view of the builder and its occupant. A building's setting within a landscape or a setting that is either informally or formally designed is also evaluated by architectural historians. A military community such as Fort McClellan was the product of an important urban design movement between the two World Wars. The architectural historian works to identify such historical connections and tie them into either regional or national trends.

Building surveys and evaluations are part of the architectural historian's job. Each state has a survey form that documents a historic building's form, style and history. If a building or grouping of buildings meet the criteria for eligibility for the National Register of Historic Places, then the architectural historian nominates the property to the National Register. (The National Register is our country's official list of historic buildings, structures, sites, objects, and districts worthy of preservation.) To date, three National Register districts containing noteworthy buildings and landscapes have been nominated at Fort McClellan after architectural survey, historical investigation, and recording.

# First Arrivals



# Chapter 3

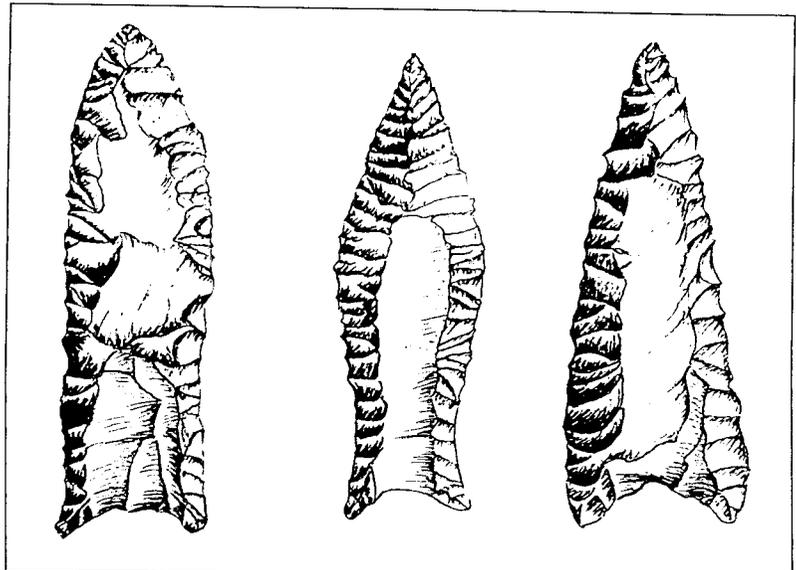


The first people to arrive in north Alabama were Native Americans belonging to what archaeologists refer to as the Paleoindian Period. These ancient ancestors of the North American native population are believed to have crossed the Bering Straits during the last glacial episode. By approximately 12,000 years ago, these nomadic hunters had arrived in what is now the eastern United States. Their presence in northern Alabama and other regions of the south is recognized by the discovery of a distinctive type of projectile point.

Called “fluted” points by archaeologists, these stone blades feature parallel grooves starting at the base of the point. The grooves were used to connect, or haft, the blade to a wooden shaft. During the Early Paleoindian Period (12,000-10,500 Before Present [BP]) large fluted lanceolate projectile points known as Clovis Points were used.

By the Middle Paleoindian Period (11,000-10,500 BP), projectile points included both fluted and nonfluted types with flared bases resembling fish tails. Projectile points identified as the Cumberland, Redstone, Beaver Lake, and Quad types are typically found in the southern Tennessee and northern Alabama regions. By the Late Paleoindian Period (10,500-9900 BP), the Dalton point, a concave-based, side-notched projectile point with grinding along its base and sides, had become common.

Paleoindian projectile point forms.  
Source: *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast*,  
Walthall, 1980, p. 28.





Paleoindian tool kit; (top row from left to right), 2 bifaces, unsharpened Dalton point, 2 resharpened Dalton points, burin, end scraper, and awl; (second row), adz preform, adz (front and back), and historic metal adz for comparison; (third row), end scraper (front and back), end scraper with graver points, backed blades, (above) graver, (below) microlith, bone needle, (top) utilized flake with scraper retouch, (below) notched abrader, bladeflake, and piece esquillee (front and back); (bottom row) discoidal hammerstone, edge-ground cobble and grooved sandstone abrader. Source: *Archaeology of The Southeastern United States*, Bense, 1994.

Other stone tools found on Paleoindian sites include what are referred to as “curated” and “non-curated” items. Curated tools are tools that were made deliberately and carried by Paleoindians from place to place. These types of stone tools include projectile points, hafted drills and knives, hafted and unhafted end-scrapers and side scrapers, burins and graters, spokeshaves, and multi-use tools. Non-curated stone tools are stone artifacts that were used and then thrown away, such as flakes used temporarily for cutting and scraping. Since no particular effort was spent on the production of these items, and since they could be quickly and easily made, they were not carried about as part of the Paleoindian “tool kit.”

Flakes and debitage are the byproducts of making stone tools. These byproducts are a red flag to the archaeologist, signaling that flintknapping once occurred at a particular site.

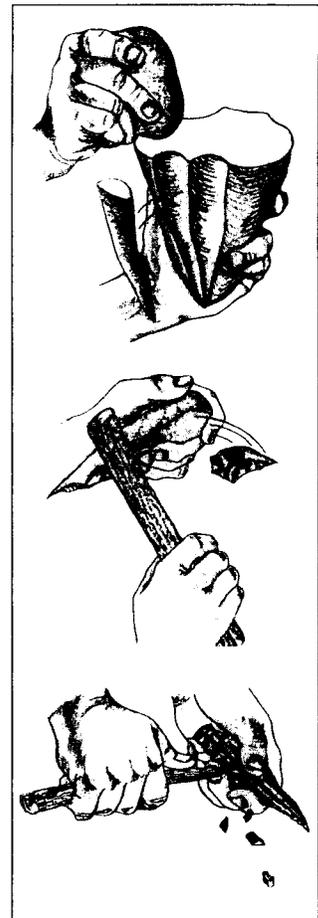
Native Americans made their projectile points, knives, drills, and other tools from a variety of stones, including chert, slate, rhyolite, and quartz. During the earlier time periods, chert was the preferred material. Using a hard implement such as a deer antler hammer, American Indians would remove small pieces of stone from a larger cobble until the required tool had been formed. These smaller fragments, referred to as flakes and shatter, often possessed sharp edges, and could be used for simple cutting and scraping tasks. Since they were easily made, they were

not kept once they were used. Archaeologists frequently encounter small flake scatters where early hunters camped overnight or stopped to make some new tools.

The types of artifacts found in Paleoindian tool kits and the absence of evidence of any long-occupied Paleoindian sites have led archaeologists to the conclusion that Paleoindians existed as hunting bands, tracking now-extinct large animals. Evidence supporting this argument includes the location of recorded Early Paleoindian sites along major river valleys and uplands, which served as the migration routes for large game animals. In northern Alabama, a large number of Early Paleoindian sites have been recorded in the Cumberland Plateau, particularly along the upper terraces of the Tennessee River.

Middle and Late Paleoindian sites are found in a broader range of environmental settings, including both uplands and major river bottoms. Cumberland, Quad, and Beaver Lake points have been found at sites along the terraces of the Tennessee River and in rockshelters, suggesting that during the Middle and Late Paleoindian periods, the Paleoindian diet included small game animals as well as nut crops.

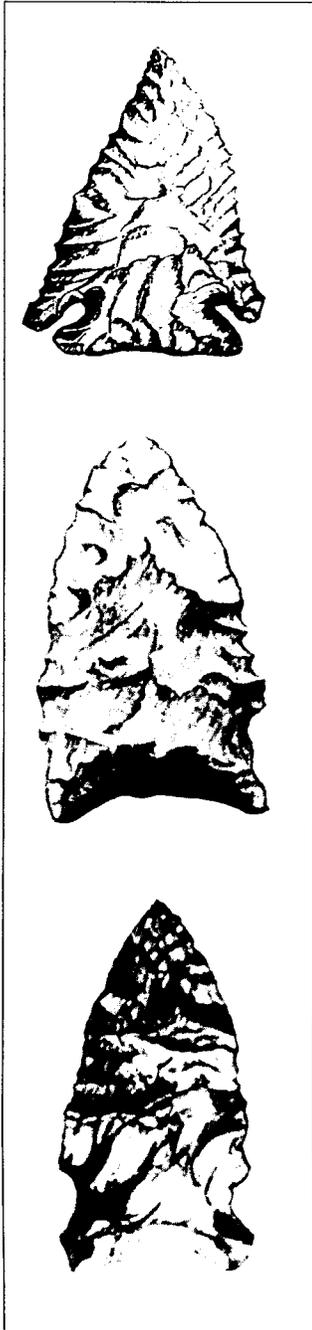
Archaeologists believe that the shifts in Paleoindian settlement and in the types of foods Paleoindians used probably resulted from changes in the environment. The transformation continued into the next period of prehistory, known as the Archaic. The Archaic Period lasted from approximately 10,000 to 3,000 years BP. This period was a time of population growth and change, as evidenced by the increased presence of plant foods and a broader range of animal foods within the Archaic diet. At first, Archaic peoples hunted and gathered in small groups called "bands". Over time, the Archaic witnessed one of the most important changes in human history: the transition from a migratory way of life to the establishment of villages and what is known as sedentary life. Because of these changes, the Archaic is subdivided into Early



Manufacturing chipped stone tools.  
Source: *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States*; Bense, 1994, p. 41.

(10,000-8,000 BP), Middle (8,000-5,000 BP), and Late (5,000-3,000 BP) stages, based on artifact assemblages and radiocarbon dates taken from a number of southeastern sites.

Early Archaic projectile points; Kirk, Dalton and Big Sandy types. Source: *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast*; Walthall, 1980, pp. 49, 53.



The Early Archaic Period in north-central and northeastern Alabama is identified primarily by the recovery of numerous corner-notched, side-notched, and stemmed projectile points, including the St. Charles, Lost Lake, Big Sandy, Kirk, Pine Tree, Damron, Decatur, MacCorkle Stemmed, St Albans, LeCroy, and Kanawha Stemmed types. Archaeological examination of Early Archaic collections reveals a number of similarities with materials from earlier Paleoindian sites, including well-made projectile points, the curation of personal tool items, a preference for high-quality stones for tool manufacture, and the continued use of earlier specialized tool forms (such as hafted end scrapers) intended for processing animal foods. Some investigators interpret these similarities as indicating a continuation of basic life patterns from the preceding Paleoindian Period.

In Northern Alabama, archaeologists found that Early Archaic peoples made hunting camps, work camps, and camps where hunting and other activities took place. These camps were situated under rockshelters as well as in open locations. The excavation of Early Archaic sites and the recovery of plant and animal remains, storage pits, mortars, pitted cobbles and bone fishhooks all indicate that Early Archaic people were beginning to diversify their diet through the addition of fish and plant foods as well as through hunting a wider range of animals.

Information on the Middle Archaic Period is less well-documented in the southeastern United States. The period corresponds with the mid-Holocene warming climate known as the Hypisthermal, which caused prehistoric adaptations throughout the midwest and northeast. While similar cultural adjustments to environmental change are not as

obvious in the southeastern United States as in the north, these southeastern American Indian populations were almost certainly affected by population movement, reorganized boundaries and trading networks, and other new social and technological developments.

The Middle Archaic Period in northern Alabama is marked by the presence of basally notched and stemmed projectile points. Basally notched Eva points have been recovered in the Tennessee Valley at the Stanfield-Worley, Flint Creek, and Little Bear Creek rockshelters in archeological deposits dated from 8,000 to 6,000 BP. Stemmed points include both Stanly and Morrow Mountain types. Probably the most revealing information concerning the Morrow Mountain peoples of the Middle Archaic Period has come from burials found in rockshelter sites in northern Alabama. A number of the graves contained offerings such as projectile points, scrapers, bone awls, antler flakers, and turtle shell.

Middle Archaic sites in Georgia and Alabama have been traditionally referred to by archaeologists as belonging to the Old Quartz Industry. This term was used because quartz replaced chert in many areas as the preferred stone for tools during this time. Archaeologists now believe that this preference for quartz in the northern Alabama piedmont was because Middle Archaic peoples traveled less than their Paleoindian and Early Archaic forebearers. Since chert outcrops are found both in the mountains and along the coast of Alabama, the recovery of chert artifacts from Paleoindian and Early Archaic sites may be a sign that these people traveled great distances. The use of quartz for tool manufacture by Middle Archaic peoples in northern Alabama suggests that by this period there was less travel.

The development of a less mobile way of life may have inspired an increase in social complexity during the Middle Archaic Period. For example, the presence of grave goods in Middle Archaic burials may indicate the development of a belief in an afterlife during this period.

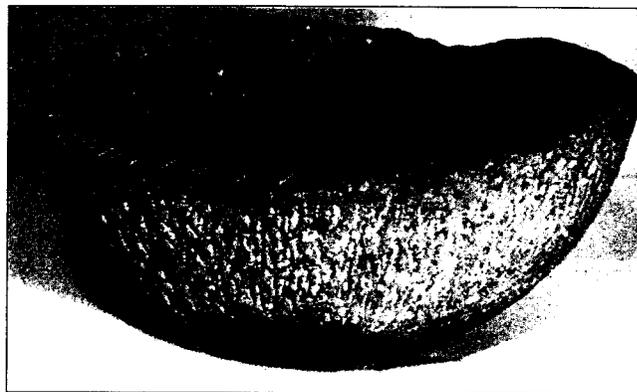
The Late Archaic Period saw the continued development of social and economic processes having their roots in Middle Archaic times. Archaeological studies increasingly reveal that Late Archaic peoples conducted not only hunting and gathering, but also horticultural activities. Bottle gourd, squash, sunflower, and other plant remains recovered in Late Archaic sites indicate the widespread use of horticulture - - the intentional growth and care of food-producing plants. Investigations of the dietary remains of Late Archaic sites in northern Alabama indicate the use of such diverse foods as hickory, walnut, acorn, shellfish, deer, raccoon, beaver, turkey, opossum, gray fox, and rabbit.

In the Fort McClellan area, Late Archaic components are identified by the presence of stemmed projectile points, particularly the Savannah River, Ledbetter/Pickwick, and Wade/Cotaco Creek types. In addition to these projectile points, another important marker of the Late Archaic Period is the presence of steatite objects. Steatite, or soapstone, was used during the Late Archaic to create boiling stones, atl-atl weights, pipes, gorgets, pendants, and other objects.

The introduction of clay pottery vessels signals the beginning of the Gulf Formational Period (4,500 to 2,100 BP). This period was first defined by archaeologists John Walthall and Ned Jenkins for the purpose of distinguishing Late Archaic sites containing pottery from those without pottery. In addition, archaeologists use the way these pots are made and the materials used in their manufacture to make cultural distinctions, such as the way a clay pot is “tempered.”

“Tempering” refers to adding items to the clay to make a stronger ceramic body. Fiber-tempering, the addition of fibers of Spanish Moss or other plant remains, is a key trait of the Late Archaic Period.

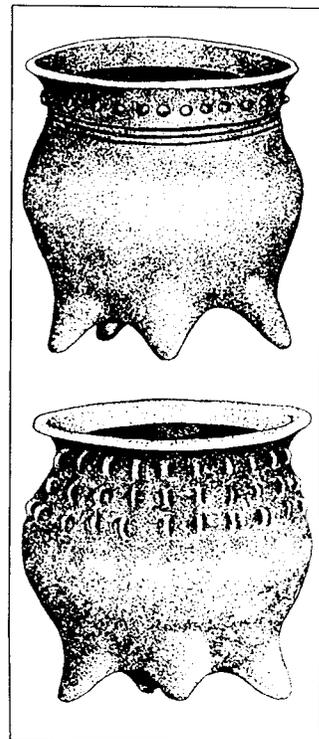
Pottery types dated to the Gulf Formational Period include the fiber-tempered Stallings Island variety, a type defined along the Savannah River in Georgia; the fiber-tempered Orange and St. Johns types from the Gulf Coast of Florida and Alabama; fiber-tempered Wheeler and sand-tempered Alexander ceramics from the Tennessee River Valley; the sand- and fiber-tempered Norwood types from the Gulf Coast; and sand-tempered Thoms Creek ceramics from the Georgia and South Carolina coast.



Steatite Bowl. Source: *Sun Circles and Human Hands*; Fundaburk, 1957, plate 73.

Stallings Island and Thoms Creek pottery appears most often as bowls, while Orange, Norwood, and Wheeler wares occur most frequently as flat-based beakers. While plain ceramics dominate these earlier styles, decoration, including punctation, incision, finger-pinching, and simple stamping does occur. Archaeologists are particularly sensitive to these different ways of decorating pottery, which define both different time periods and different social groups. Other artifacts of the Gulf Formational Period include projectile points and steatite bowls, "netsinkers," full and three-quarter grooved axes, cruciform drills, baked clay objects, atlatl weights, and grinding basins.

Along the Middle Chattahoochee River drainage southeast of Fort McClellan, both Norwood sand- and fiber-tempered ceramics have been reported. The presence of these ceramics, first found along the Gulf Coast, suggests trade or social relationships sometime after 3,200 BP between populations living in the Middle Chattahoochee Valley of Georgia and Alabama and those living much farther to the south. However, the appearance of earlier Stallings Island pottery in the Oliver Reservoir basin (near Columbus, Georgia), suggests the Fort McClellan region may have been more closely associated with the Savannah River region and South Atlantic coast before 3,200 BP.



Gulf Formation pottery. Source: *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast*; Walthall, 1980, p. 101.

A number of Gulf Formational Period sites have been found along the Coosa River drainage in the vicinity of the Fort McClellan. Throughout northern Alabama, Late Gulf Formational Period shell middens and non-shell midden sites are found along stream terraces, upland ridges, and in rockshelters. Shell midden sites contain large quantities of shell, where prehistoric peoples lived near rivers or streams and gathered fresh water shellfish as a food source.

The Archaic Period is followed by what is referred to as the Woodland Period in eastern North America. The Woodland Period covers the time span from 2,300 to 900 BP and is divided into the Early Woodland (2,300-1,900 BP), Middle Woodland (1,900-1,500 BP), and Late Woodland (1,500-1,000 BP) periods.

Strictly speaking, Early Woodland Period sites are not found within Fort McClellan. In northern Alabama, sites from this time period are generally identified as belonging to either the Gulf Formational Period or the Early Middle Woodland Period.

Regardless of how archaeologists identify the Early Woodland period, the subsistence and settlement systems of these people does not appear to have changed dramatically from earlier cultural periods. To

date, there is no real evidence for the appearance of agriculture - - the planting, tending, and harvesting of crops - - during Early Woodland times. It is probable that the Early Woodland inhabitants of the southeastern United States still hunted and gathered food while experimenting with the

The atlatl was replaced by the bow and arrow during the Woodland period. Source: *Sun Circles and Human Hands*; Fundaburke, 1957, plate 5.

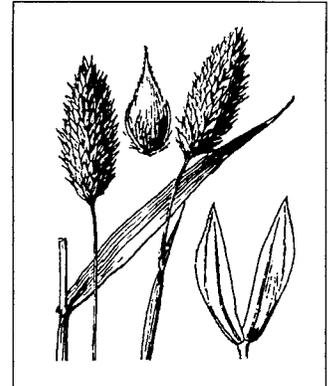


growth of various plant species. Such experimentation would result in what is referred to as the “domestication” of these plants for cultivation as foods.

In the upper Coosa River Valley of northern Alabama, Early Middle Woodland (2,300-1,900 BP) sites occur along both bottomlands and upland ridges. Archaeological investigations of bottomland sites have yielded evidence of occupations with numerous storage pit features and scattered posts. The presence of these storage pits indicates a diet which depended on production, or at least very intensive gathering, of plant foods, while the appearance of postholes indicates that peoples of this time were building and living in houses. In contrast, there is little information about the function of upland sites during this time. Such sites may represent short-term, special activity sites used for hunting and gathering purposes.

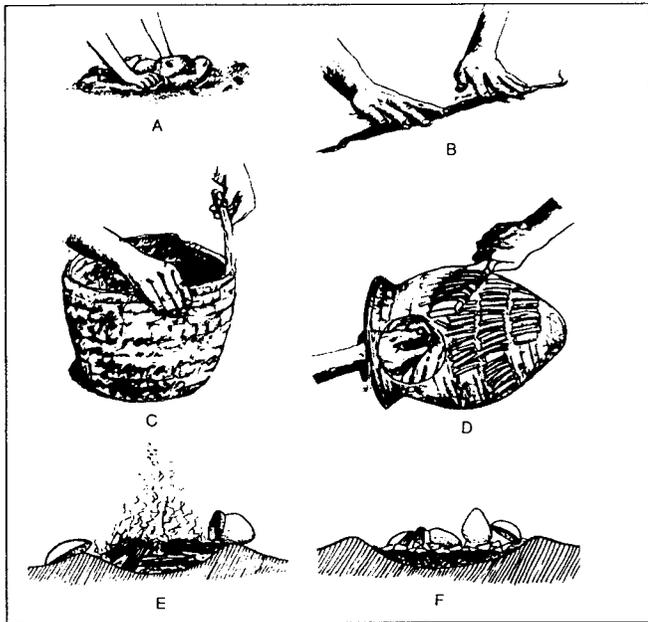
Archaeological sites representative of the Coosa River Early Middle Woodland Period have been classified as the Cedar Bluff Phase. Artifacts commonly found on these sites include limestone-tempered plain and fabric-impressed ceramics, triangular Camp Creek/Greenville projectile points, steatite vessels, and stone-capped burial mounds.

The Late Middle Woodland Period (1,900-1,500 BP) or Yanceys Bend cultural phase follows the Cedar Bluff Phase in the upper Coosa Valley. The beginning of this phase marks the introduction of check-stamped pottery into the existing plain and fabric-marked assemblages. Check stamping was created by carving a wooden paddle with a cross-hatched, waffle-like design and then using this paddle to “stamp” the design into the wet clay body of a pot before it was hardened by cooking in an open fire. Fabric-impressed pottery was similarly decorated by pressing a piece of fabric against an unfired pot; this type of decoration gradually disappeared from the Late Middle Woodland assemblage and



Plants are domesticated during the Woodland period. Source: *Tellico Archaeology*: Chapman, 1987, p. 62.

was replaced by other styles of simple stamped wares. While both the simple stamped and checked stamped wares were used until the end of Middle Woodland Period, simple stamping was far more common than check stamping during the later half of the Yanceys Bend cultural phase. While hunting and gathering still played an important role in the daily life of Late Middle Woodland people, the presence of large village sites



Techniques in making pottery. Source: *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States*; Bense, 1994, p. 112.

along major rivers and streams suggests an increasing reliance on domesticated products. At a site in the West Point Lake Reservoir, a large Middle Woodland storage facility yielded a variety of plant remains including both domesticated and wild species. Although Late Middle Woodland Period sites containing storage facilities have been discovered in both upland and floodplain settings in eastern Alabama, no evidence has been found for the use of cultivated plants in the upper Coosa River Valley during this period.

The most significant changes believed to have occurred during the Yanceys Bend Phase occupations were changes in ritual and mortuary practices. For the first time, natural caves served as burial tombs and repositories of ceremonial related artifacts. Investigations of two burial caves in DeKalb County recovered a cache of exotic items including a polished pendant; copper, stone, and shell beads; galena nodules; a ground deer mandible; and triangular projectile points. The contents of these burial caves indicate there were both social and ritual interactions between the Yanceys Bend groups and other Middle Woodland peoples living in northern Alabama and Georgia.

In addition to the cave tombs, Yanceys Bend groups are believed to have built numerous stone wall enclosures and stone mounds on nar-

row, upland ridges. The purpose of these enclosures, besides their possible ritual use, are not known because few artifacts are found with them. While the stone structures are sometimes described as fortifications, they appear to have had limited value as defensive structures. Stone mounds, on the other hand, are located in both



Recreation of a Woodland settlement. Source: Ms. Julia C. Cantley.

uplands and bottomlands. Reports by amateur archeologists living in the Coosa Valley today indicate that some, if not many, of these mounds served as burial markers. Stone mounds and enclosures are numerous within Fort McClellan and represent one of the most important classes of archaeological sites present on the base.

Excavation of prehistoric stone mounds, Fort McClellan. Source: Archaeological Resource Laboaratory, Jacksonville State University.



Late Woodland Period (1,500-1,000 BP) sites in northeastern Alabama are represented by the Coker Ford Phase. Representative artifacts of this phase include limestone-tempered plain, brushed, cord-marked, and red-filmed ceramics; plain grog- and shell-tempered ceramics; stone and ceramic tobacco pipes; and small triangular projectile points. Excavations conducted at the Coker Ford type site indicate that these people lived in small villages and buried their dead either in the village midden deposits or in stone-capped earthen mounds.

A site near Anniston, Alabama, contained a large circular structure with internal storage pits. The function of this structure is unclear given its size of 33 feet in diameter. If this feature represents the remains of a domestic structure, then Coker Ford people may have lived in structures large enough to accommodate extended families. However, this structure may have served some other function besides that of a dwelling. By this period, corn (maize) was cultivated as an important food source, as were other crops, although hunting and gathering also continued.

The Woodland Period is followed by the period known as the Mississippian, recognized throughout the southeastern United States as representing the height of American Indian civilization. Among the defining characteristics of the Mississippian Period are large villages organized around plazas and ceremonial and civic platform earthen mounds; the development of a chiefdom level of society; intensive reliance on agriculture; and the appearance of warfare and cultural conflict. Cultural traits became more clearly defined, so that specific chiefdoms and territories can be identified.

Fort McClellan falls between the limits of defined Mississippian chiefdoms during much of the Early and Middle Mississippian periods. Reconstruction of the distribution of Early and Middle Mississippian chiefdoms in the southeast by archaeologists John Walthall and David

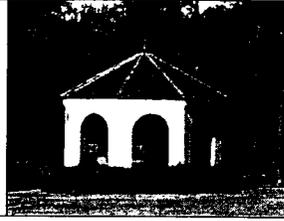
Hally and Jim Rudolph indicates that the area that became Fort McClellan was peripheral to the major Early Mississippian occupations. It was on the edge of the Harmon's Creek/Hiwassee Island province to the north, the Woodstock/Macon Plateau/Averett provinces to the east, and the Black Warrior River Valley province to the west. Despite its peripheral position, the area did witness some Early Mississippian occupations in the upper Coosa and Tallapoosa drainages.

Following this Early Mississippian occupation of the upper Tallapoosa and middle Coosa River Valleys, there appears to be a gap of approximately 100 to 150 years, or until Late Mississippian times, before the Fort McClellan region was re-occupied. Despite this later phase, there is little documentation of a Mississippian presence within Fort McClellan.

# Contact and Controversy



# Chapter 4



When Hernando DeSoto and his troops explored the Southeast between 1540 and 1542, they were the first Europeans to encounter the large Indian chiefdoms in the interior South. They were also virtually the last to see them at the height of their social development. The Spaniards left a written record of the groups they met. There are four narratives which are associated with the DeSoto expedition: the travel log of Rodrigo Ranjel, DeSoto's secretary; the account of the Portuguese Gentleman of Elvas; a secondhand account written by the factor for the expedition, Luys Hernandez de Biedma; and a compilation work completed by Garcilaso de la Vega. This last work was based on oral accounts given by survivors as well as the writings of two men whose written works have not survived. These tales provide us with a fascinating glimpse of American Indian life in the region at the end of the Mississippian Period.

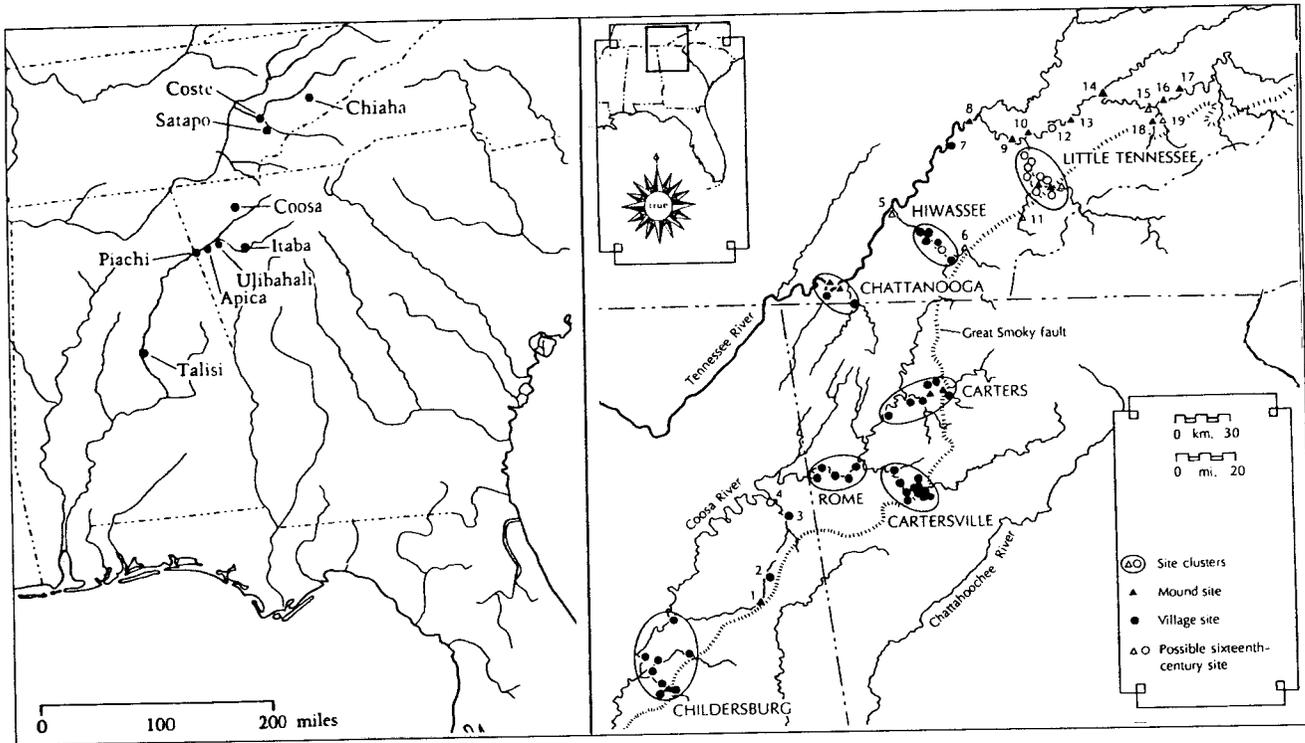


Hernando de Soto portrayed by a late eighteenth-century artist. Source: *First Encounters*, Milanich & Milbrath, 1989, p. 78.

Hernando DeSoto was a veteran of the conquest of the Peruvian Incas. His goal for the 1540 expedition into North America was similar, to gather gold and silver from the Native Americans through the use of force. DeSoto advanced into the interior of North America with an army of 600 men, approximately 100 servants and slaves, 220 horses, a herd of hogs, mules, and a pack of Irish wolfhounds.

According to current scholarship, their expedition originated at Tampa Bay and negotiated a path northward through Florida, Georgia,

Opposite: Detail from engraving showing the chief of Coosa greeting DeSoto. Source: *First Encounters*, Milanich & Milbrath, 1989, p. 136



Mississippian chiefdoms within the southeast. Source: Smith in *First Encounters*, Milbrath & Milbrath, 1989, p. 78.

Tennessee, south through Alabama, then west to Mississippi and Arkansas. As DeSoto moved into the interior, he encountered Indian towns and villages which increased in size and population but were buffered either by rivers or large unpopulated territories.

The Coosa province is considered to be one of the most important native provinces DeSoto encountered. It has been extensively studied archaeologically. Fort McClellan is contained within its geographic boundaries. Archaeological data indicates that this province was composed of seven to ten smaller chiefdoms, which were in turn composed of four to seven towns. Each town was inhabited by 200 to 1,000 individuals. The chief of the province of Coosa maintained an army and ruled a large portion of the Piedmont and Ridge and Valley regions near the southern end of the Appalachian Mountains. The Coosa were agriculturalists, but protein was supplied by limited fishing and by hunting deer, bear, small mammals. Those who maintained a journal during the DeSoto expedition or later gave an account describing the province enthusiastically.

The Gentleman of Elvas wrote:

“ In the barbaocoas was a great quantity of maize and beans: the country, thickly settled in numerous large towns, with fields between, extending from one to another, was pleasant, and had a rich soil with fair river margins. In the woods were many amexas, as well as those of Spain as of the country; and wild grapes on vines up into the trees, near the streams; likewise a kind that grew on low vines elsewhere, the berry being large and sweet but, for want of hoeing and dressing had large stones. ”

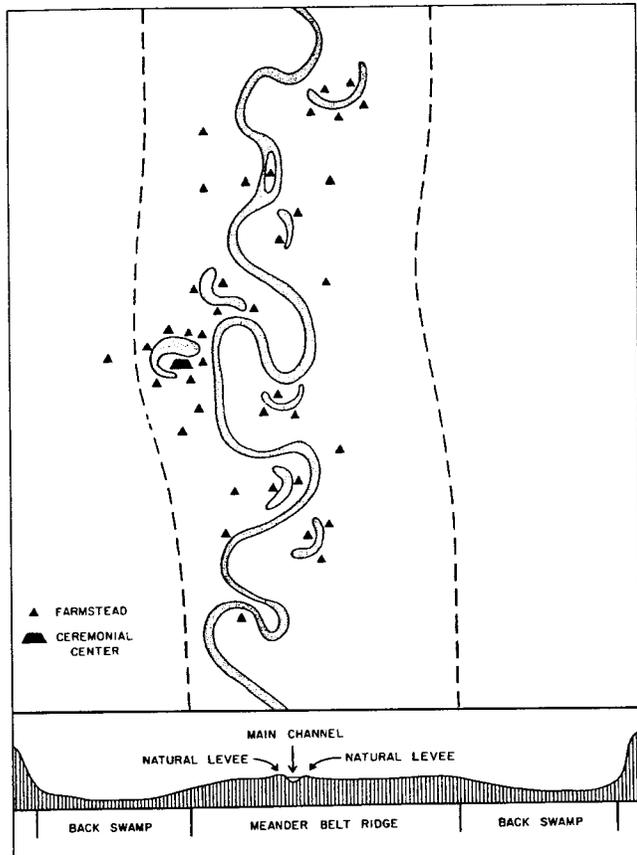
The chief of the Coosa's encounter with DeSoto was noteworthy; he was carried on a litter by a company of 60 or 70 men dressed in white, accompanied by flute players and singers. The Spaniards remained in Coosa for one month, staying in a section of the town hospitably vacated by the Coosa for the Spanish to occupy.

The layout of Mississippian towns such as Coosa was distinctive, with the mound acting as a ceremonial and visual focus. Usually flat-topped, earthen pyramids, these mounds served as the foundations for temples, cemeteries, chiefs' houses, and other important buildings. For example, the Coosa chief who met DeSoto lived in houses on three mounds within the town. Mounds were continually enlarged as the size and importance of their villages increased. Dirt was added to the mound basketful by basketful by people who then stamped the loose dirt down so it would adhere to the mound. A ramp with log steps was placed on one side of the mound to provide a path to the top. The primary mound was joined by a plaza used for ceremonial and community purposes. A ring of lesser mounds, dwellings, and other buildings surrounded the plaza, and a defensive structure composed of ditches or palisades enclosed the whole.

Most Mississippian families lived away from the mound center in homesteads strung out along rivers. These homesteads, usually placed in a floodplain, were scattered to take advantage of soils that were suited to agricultural use. In times of warfare, families from these outlying farms would seek protection in the fortified village center. They would also travel to the central town to partici-

Engraving showing the chief of Coosa greeting DeSoto. Source: *First Encounters*, Milanich & Milbrath, 1989, p. 136





Missippian settlement system. Source: *Alabama and The Borderlands From Prehistory to Statehood*, Smith, 1985.

pate in community affairs. Temporary housing may have been available within the center on these occasions, or some families may have been able to operate two households, one in town and another outside. From evidence garnered from the Coosa province, archaeologist David Hally and his colleagues believe that towns within the chiefdom were dispersed along a river at 3 to 5 kilometer (km) intervals for a distance of 20 km. The cluster closest to Fort McClellan was located around Childersburg, Alabama.

DeSoto's reaction to the Indian groups he encountered was in line with his goal to find gold. He made no effort toward establishing goodwill but preferred a course of plunder and harm. The Indians' reaction to the Spanish explorers was peaceful initially, but changed as DeSoto's destructive reputation began to precede him. In addition to gold, he and his men would demand food, slaves and women at the villages they visited; further, they destroyed many villages despite the cooperation of inhabitants. After reaching the densely populated Coosa province and staying for a month, DeSoto had the chief and a group of his men put in chains to be used as burden bearers as they proceeded south.

Current studies indicate that DeSoto traveled through the area of Fort McClellan, with the chief of the Coosa in tow, on his way to Talisi, a town at the edge of the Coosa province. The chief was released at that point but DeSoto kept his sister. The expedition continued to Mabila, where the Indians staged an attack that was ultimately beaten back by the Spanish.

Despite this victory, the Spanish expedition was doomed. The lack of food and clothing, the continual warfare, and the absence of "treasure" all spelled failure to DeSoto and his men.

DeSoto made a final thrust at accomplishing his goals by pushing northward rather than south to the Gulf Coast. Ethnohistorian Charles Hudson notes that although the Gulf Coast offered safety, an appearance there would have announced DeSoto's failure. In order to save his career, he kept the expedition on the move. He and his men proceeded through the Choctaw territory and into what are now the states of Mississippi and Louisiana. DeSoto died there in May of 1542. His successor, Luis de Moscoso de Alvarado, led the remnants of his army down the Mississippi River. By July of 1542 they were en route to Mexico, where 300 survivors debarked at Panuco. Some remained there, others returned to Spain, and another group emigrated to Peru.

"De Soto's discovery of the Mississippi,"  
1988. Source: *First Encounters*; Milanich &  
Milbrath, 1989, p. 88.



Other Spanish expeditions followed DeSoto. Tristan DeLuna guided an army of 300 soldiers, 1,200 women, and white and Indian servants back into the Coosa province in 1559. Like the earlier venture, this two-year expedition also failed to find gold or silver. However, DeLuna did report that the Indians along the Alabama River were much less in number than estimates given by the accounts of the DeSoto expedition.

Other explorers made subsequent forays. Juan Pardo, in his second expedition, also reached into the Coosa province but his explorations were confined to eastern Tennessee, north of what is considered the core area. Interestingly, he found documentation at Coosa of the earlier Spanish explorations as well as artifacts. Spanish coastal garrisons such as Santa Elena and St. Augustine helped maintain a Spanish presence on the Atlantic Coast from which Pardo's expedition began. The documentary accounts plus an increasing body of archaeological data have thrown light on the fate of the sixteenth-century province of Coosa. These findings indicate that the decline of the Mississippian society began with the Spanish encounters. The introduction of European diseases, namely smallpox, measles, influenza, and bubonic plague, are believed to have brought about the loss of many Mississippian lives.

With an enormous decline in population, the once regimented American Indian societies capable of creating monumental architecture and fortified town sites disappeared. There was a move away from a central settlement plan and towards a more dispersed plan. Towns were no longer palisaded nor featured central mounds. Craft specialization, supported in the sixteenth century by chiefs who stockpiled agricultural goods to pay for such specialization, disappeared.

Another change within this period was the movement of populations and the banding together of descendants of the sixteenth-century chiefdoms. Archaeologists note a gradual southward progression throughout the seventeenth century, a migration whose goal appears to have been to flee an epidemic. Archaeological sources and eighteenth-century documents note the movement of entire towns such as Coosa and Apica and their later unification with towns of other traditions. By examining aboriginal ceramics and the presence of European artifacts at the Weiss Lake, Gadsden and Woods Island sites, archaeologist Marvin Smith has documented the southward movement of members of the Alabama Coosa people during the seventeenth century. Evidence of early seventeenth-century settlement is found in the vicinity of Weiss Lake in the form of three village sites and thirteen smaller sites, many identified as farmsteads. The Gadsden sites were occupied circa 1630, while the Woods Island Site, where contact first occurred with English traders, was occupied circa 1670.

The sites in the environs of Childersberg were occupied by an early eighteenth-century people known in the documentary record as the Coosas and Abihkas. These people, descendants of formerly large and powerful chiefdoms, became known historically as the Upper Creeks. While the Fort McClellan area was uninhabited during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Creek Indians, unlike their Coosa forebears would occupy Fort McClellan proper.

The existence of a confederacy among these many dispersed Indian groups gained considerable attention from eighteenth-century visitors to their territory and still provokes the interest of scholars. The Muskogee Indians, whose tradition held that the tribe emanated from Alabama, composed the majority within the group. The Utchees and Natchez were confederates, as were the Seminoles of Florida, until the United States signed treaties with them separately. Eighteenth-century

writers such as Bernard Romans noted the presence of the "Cowittas, Talepoosas, Corsas, Apalachias, Conshaes or Coosadas, Oakmulgees, Oconees, Okchoys, Alibamons, Natchez, Wetumkas, Pakanas, Taensas, Chacsihommas, Abekas and others." Despite this diversity, each of these groups used as their common language one of the five Creek languages, namely, Muskogee, Hitchitsee, Uchee, Natchez, and Alabama. The descriptions "Creek" and "Muskogean" were given to the confederates by outsiders.

While earlier historians thought of this confederacy in European terms, the current understanding of the confederacy in its eighteenth-century form is more anthropologically based. As discussed above, the province was the paramount unit within the seventeenth- and early eighteenth-century Southeast. These provinces were composed of a number of towns united under a head chief. After the disappearance of the Mississippian chiefdoms, remnant tribes formed the confederacy, an eighteenth-century response to the growing European presence. This union as acted out by the Creeks deserves explanation. Jim Knight defined the confederacy as a conditional political body in which ethnically related groups, non-ethnically related but allied groups, and those joined by special friendships entered into an association. The town or talwa was the basic political unit, acting independently within the larger organization. A grouping of towns with shared kinship composed the next level of political organization, followed by the province or tribe and, finally, the nation.

Over time, the towns of the Abihka province along the upper and middle Coosa River area began to cooperate with members of the Tallapoosa province. This cooperative action and the later joining of the Abihka, Tallapoosa, and the peoples of the Alibamo towns would give rise to the term Upper Creek Nation. The alliance of the lower towns would earn them the title of the Lower Creek Nation. Geographically,

the Lower Creeks embraced the Euchee and Hitchitee towns and some Muskogean towns on the Flint and Chattahoochee rivers. The Muskogean and Alabama towns on the Coosa, Tallapoosa, and Alabama rivers comprised the Upper Creek groups and territory. Fort McClellan was part of the Upper Creek territory. Bounded on the east and west by the Tombigbee and Savannah Rivers, the Creek territory, which included between fifty and sixty towns, extended from the Gulf of Mexico north to Tennessee.

Charles Hudson notes that the Creek, unlike other historic Southeastern Indians, had a traditional town plan. Plazas still centered their towns like those of their Mississippian forebears. The plaza typically included three buildings: the town house, the summer council house, and a chunky yard. The town house was windowless and circular, usually 25 feet in diameter and 25 feet high. Interior furnishings included a centrally located firepit, and beds raised off the floor. In some instances, tiers of beds filled the townhouse, which was a communal building used for tribal festivities as well as decision making.

The summer council house replicated the summer house plan, having four sheds or "arbors." The square ground usually measured a half-acre, having a central fire built of logs. The square was surrounded on each side with one-story buildings that were open on the square side. Inside the shed compartments of the three sided buildings were benches covered with cane mats. The square ground has only been associated archaeologically with historic Creek sites that postdate 1700. It appears to have developed from the Mississippian tradition, where buildings of the same plan and with similar interior furnishings were built atop mounds for social or ceremonial purposes.

Naturalist William Bartram described the importance of towns to Creek society during a late 1790s visit to the Southeast:

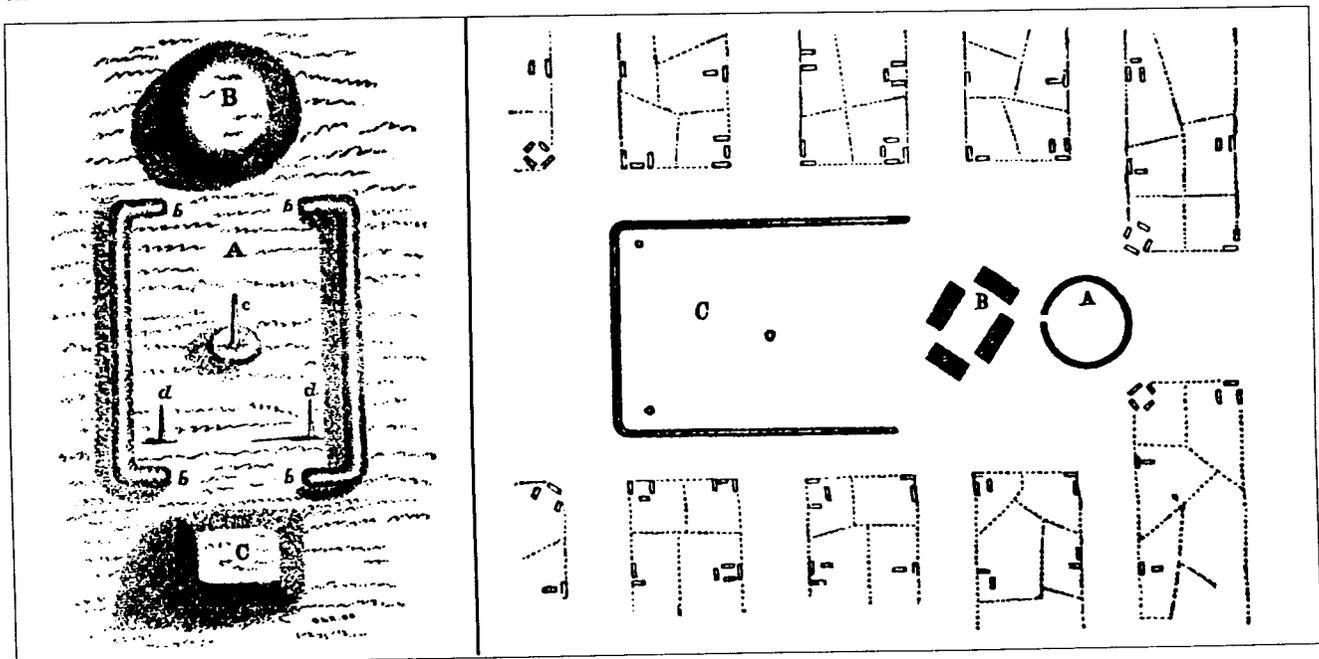
“ The Muscogulges are under a more strict government or regular civilization than the Indian in general. They lie near their potent and declared enemy, the Chactaws. Their country having a vast frontier, naturally accessible and open to the incursions of their enemies on all sides, they find themselves under the necessity of associating in large populous towns, and these towns as near together as convenient, that they may be enabled to succor and defend one another in case of sudden invasion. This consequently occasions deer and bear to be scarce and difficult to procure, which obliges them to be vigilant and industrious; this naturally begets care and serious attention, which we may suppose in some degree forms their natural disposition and manners, and gives them that air of dignified gravity, so strikingly characteristic in their aged people...”

The third element within the plaza area was the chunkey yard. A public space set aside for community purposes, the chunkey yard was typically defined by small earthen embankments.

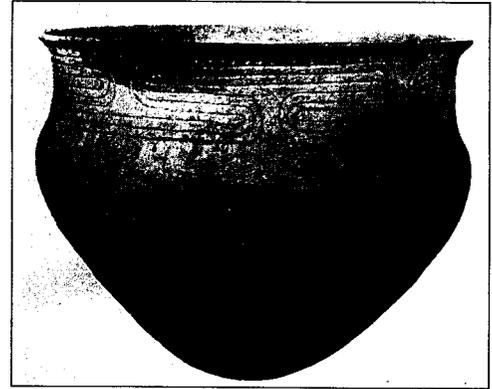
This general layout for the Creek plaza was described by William Bartram, whose sketches indicate that the plaza and its architectural features were undergoing changes during the late eighteenth century. Interestingly, the changes were both in elevation and plan. Earlier ceremonial grounds had townhouses set on circular mounds at one end of a chunkey yard and a square ground on a square mound in an opposing position. Later, the townhouse and square ground were adjacent to one another at one end of the chunkey yard.

Rectangular blocks containing households were laid out around the square. Eighteenth-century Creek households, which were composed of a matrilineal extended family, were served by a group of buildings: a summer house, a winter house, a storage house, etc. Both summer and winter Creek residences had rectangular floor plans; other Southeastern groups built circular-plan winter homes. A third house was typically two

(Left) Ancient Creek ceremonial center; (A) Chunkey yard, (B) Banks of Earth, (C) Mound and (D) Slave Posts. (Right) Creek town plan; (A) The Town House, (B) The Square Ground and (C) The Chunky Yard. Source: *The Southeastern Indians*, Hudson, 1982, pp. 214, 222.



stories high; each story divided into two rooms. The lower room on one end would be used for food storage, the upper room as "council." The food storage room's equivalent on the first floor was used for tool storage; the fourth room was used as a parlor for entertaining guests. A final building was used for deerskin and fur storage. Hudson notes that the number of houses within a household varied. This variation hinged upon status and the size and ages of the family members who used the buildings.



Creek storage jar; Source: *Sun Circles and Human Hands*, Fundaburk, 1957, plate 127.

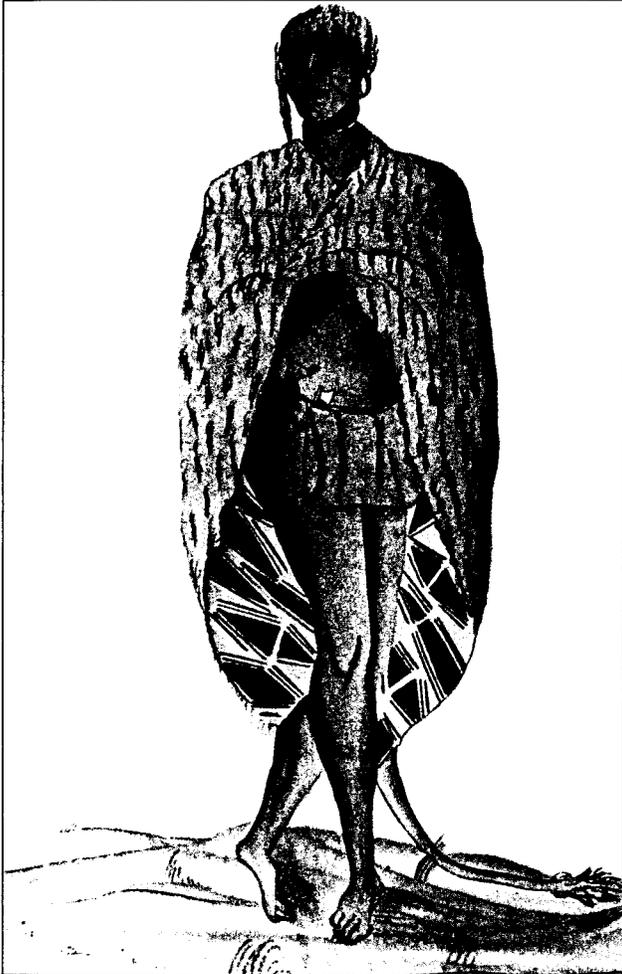
Creek men and women relied on agriculture and hunting for subsistence. Which of these pursuits provided the bulk of their subsistence is not known. Female responsibilities focused upon household organization and agricultural production for the group as well as individual kitchen gardens, wild food and firewood collection. Male duties included hunting, building construction, politics, defense, and ceremonial affairs. As noted earlier, the Creek were a matrilineal society and thus their homes and fields were owned by women.



Creek women at the creek. Source: Ms. *Julia C. Cantley*.

The confederacy was a defensive mechanism, contrived and strengthened during the eighteenth century to protect the Creeks from Europeans who were eager to trade. This commerce over the next century was focused upon deerskins; for the English, the center of this commerce was Charleston, established in 1670. Trade was limited initially, but the businessmen of Charleston quickly saw the profits to be made if deerskins could be exported to England. For a short time, deerskins would be the colony of South Carolina's leading export. One source notes that between the years of 1699 and 1715, 54,000 deerskins were exported to England each year to be sewn into buckskin breeches.

The Charleston traders dealt with the Creek and Chickasaw Indians at first, but traded later with the Cherokees as well. By 1715, the number of Charleston traders had reached 200. They and their employees worked out of principal Indian towns to collect and ship the pelts via horseback over the inland trails.



Southeastern Indian wearing a bison coat. Source: *The Southeastern Indians*, Hudson, 1982, p. 263

The merchants and traders were not oblivious to the potential trade advantages of judicious agreements with certain Indian groups. In some cases these alliances were called upon in war, certainly against the French, who had begun establishing their own commercial network in the interior via their colonies in Louisiana.

Indians who were defeated in battle were also sold into slavery. A population census of Charleston in 1708 indicated that 1,400 of the total population of 9,580 were Indian slaves. In return for deerskins and slaves, the Southeastern American Indian groups received guns, tomahawks, hoes, brass kettles, knives, rum, beads, hawk bells, and cloth.

These items and the trade itself brought change to the Indian groups. For men, more time was spent hunting deer. Hunting trips, once confined to a season, became prolonged and covered great distances, especially after substantial thinning occurred among the deer herds. The availability of ready-made cloth was as welcome to the female Creek weaver and spinner as it was to her European counterpart and the Creek woman's agricultural duties were lightened with the use of metal hoes and other tools.

For the majority of the Southeastern Indians, the eighteenth century was a century of conflict. The Yamasee War (1715-1717) was waged against the Carolina traders by the Creeks, Choctaws, and Cherokees. The traders, using a divide-and-conquer strategy, managed to pit the Cherokee and Creek against one another. The English traders' success at this ploy and similar successes at a later date by the French would bring about even more conflict between the Indian groups. The French and Indian War (1756-1763) and the American Revolution both directly involved the Southeastern Indians, as tribes developed loyalties to different colonial powers.

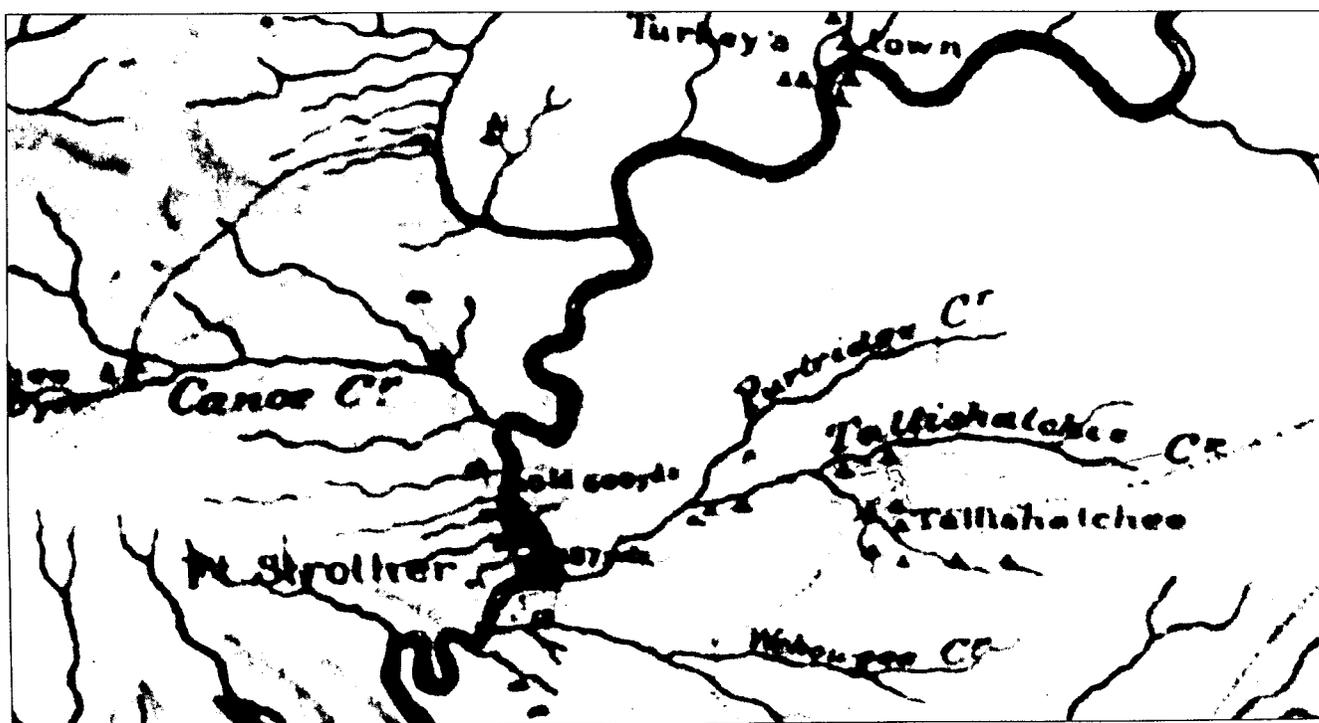
During the second half of the century, another type of conflict was engaged: the acquisition and annexation of Indian lands. From the 1750s through the 1830s, the Creeks and other Southeastern Indians were rapidly dispossessed of their land as the push for land by the farming population of the early nineteenth-century South heightened. An almost throw-away attitude had developed toward the soil; farmers and planters would use land until its fertility was exhausted, then resettle, since cheap fertile land seemed to be constantly available in great quantities. The War of 1812 brought this home to the Creeks in Alabama.

When hostilities broke out between America and Britain, one group of Creek Indians, known as the Red Sticks, fought on the side of the British. This acceptance of British arms led to a civil war with the other Creek faction. When some members of the rival faction occupied Fort Mimms, a frontier stockade, the Red Sticks successfully mounted an attack against Fort Mims. The United States was quick to respond sending forces into Creek territory from Mississippi, Georgia, and Tennessee. The Cherokees and Choctaw Indians joined forces with the Tennessee militia under Andrew Jackson. While the Red Sticks fought with remarkable courage at Horseshoe Bend, they were defeated by the Cherokee's attack on their flank. More than one thousand Creeks died

in the battle. At the close of the war, Jackson was able to open a corridor from Tennessee to the Gulf of Mexico. This corridor split the Indians apart and isolated them from each another.

A detail from "General Jackson's Campaign against the Creek Indians, 1813-14" shows the approximate location of Fort McClellan and the Creek occupation at that point. Fort Strother, which was built by Andrew Jackson, General Coffee, and the Tennessee Volunteers in 1813, is shown on the Coosa River across from the mouth of Ohatchie Creek. A palisaded Creek town was located on a branch of the Tallishatchee Creek, and five other areas of Creek occupation are noted below Fort Strother, east of the Coosa River. One of these is located on Wehowgee Creek and four south of it. Wehowgee Creek is currently known as Cane Creek, and the Creek site shown on the creek was approximately 2.5 miles east of the Coosa River but west of the western boundary of Pelham Range. By treaty at the close of this war, the Creek Indians were left with 150,000 square miles of territory. They ceded all their lands west of the Coosa and the lands south and west of the boundary that ran

Detail from a map of "General Jackson's Campaign Against the Creek Indians 1813-1814," showing Fort Strother and the location of Indian villages. Source: National Archives.



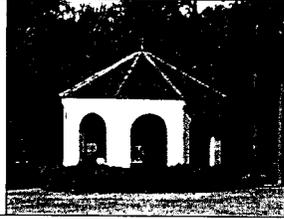
up the Tallapoosa to Line Creek, then southeast to the boundary of Georgia. Confined into this pocket of land in northeast Alabama, the Upper Creeks resided for 22 years.

In the 1832 treaty of Cusseta, they further surrendered their land to the United States for lands in Arkansas Territory. By treaty, chiefs and subchiefs were to receive 640 acres and every head of a household 320 acres in northern Alabama, which could not be sold for five years. After that time, they could settle on the property or sell. The treaty was not upheld, and whites moved in, some legally, while others simply took the land. Ironically, Frances Scott Key (author of the national anthem), sent to assess the situation, advised Washington that the remaining Indians - - now poor, landless, and dispirited - - should be rounded up and deported to the Arkansas Territory to join others who had left voluntarily after 1814. Key's recommendation was followed and the "Removal" began. The army was given the responsibility of rounding up Indians, and the Alabama Emigration Company was established to handle the move. Those Indians who remained in the Anniston area were posted at Ladiga Station near Piedmont in Calhoun County and at Howell's Cove on the Coosa in Talladega County prior to their journey. The men were handcuffed and chained in slave gang fashion for the long trip; women and children had to keep pace. The trip killed many; one census at the close of the journey counted one in four dead. At a great cost, unperceived by most whites at the time, northeastern Alabama was now officially open for white settlement.

# Settlement and Expansion



# Chapter 5



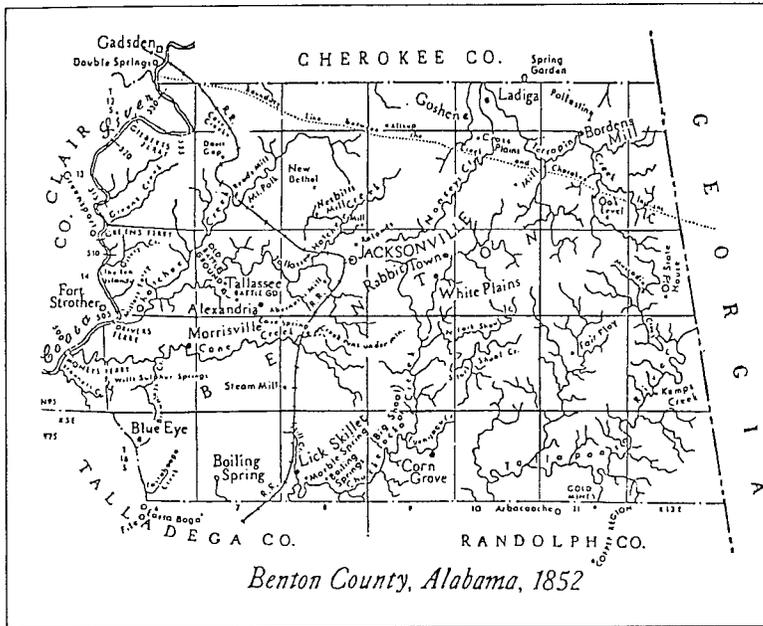
## Settlement

With the announcement of the public sale of the former Creek lands in 1834, interest in northeast Alabama grew dramatically. A number of paths were traveled by settlers into the newly opened territory. The Huntsville Road led immigrants into Jones Valley and further south to the falls of the Black Warrior River where Tuscaloosa was established in 1816. Another route leading to the Valley and Ridge area crossed southeastward from Ditto's Landing on the Coosa River to Fort Strother. A third road, crossing the Coosa Valley, was cut in the 1830s between Rome, Georgia and Fort Strother.

The Federal Road also connected northeast Alabama with Georgia and was the preferred route for many into central and southern Alabama. These highways were heavily used; wagons filled with belongings streamed into the frontier. Settlers to the region came primarily from South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, and Tennessee. The highway from Virginia to Alabama received so much emigrant traffic that it was likened to the route of an army of occupation rather than a public highway.

Many within this "army of occupation" chose home sites in geographic areas similar to their former homes, lessening their sense of change. The incoming settler looked at hardwood growth as an indicator of soil type, a uniform pattern in the growth of tree rings as an indicator of steady rainfall, and the presence of flat bottom lands near streams. A home site was typically located near a spring or stream but on high ground. Town sites were chosen for proximity to water, and adequate space for expansion. Kinship also played a role as family mem-

Opposite: Downing's lumber mill, Shady Glen community, now part of Pelham Range. Source: *Public Library of Amiston-Calhoun County.*



Benton County, 1852. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.

bers joined forces with groups that had emigrated earlier or as families emigrated in a group.

William Garrett, a Benton County resident from the time of its establishment, wrote in the Jacksonville Republican about frontier life. His remembrances identify the first families that lived along Cane Creek within Pelham Range. Another source lists early settlers west

of the Choccolocco Creek within what would become Fort McClellan's Main Post. Known as Dark Corner, it was home to Asa Skeleton and the Lambert, Milner, Bonds, Browning, Terry, and Lloyd families.

1833 brought an influx of settlers to the area. John P. and William Montgomery and William McCampbell settled in the Cane Creek area. McCampbell, who arrived with a company of settlers, erect-

“ On the 1st of January, 1833, when the writer first came into the County, the settlements were sparse. The Indians had only sold their lands the March Previous. No assignments of reservations had been made. Indeed the process of preparation under the Treaty, such as the survey of the land and taking the Census of the Indians, designating heads of families by towns, was not fully complete.... The Indians were generally in the undisturbed possession of their homes, and their laws and customs in force. The County was open, the annual burning of the woods by the Indians kept down the undergrowth, and really to a stranger riding through it looking over it as far as the eye could see, crossing the beautiful, clear streams of water with which it abounds, the impression was altogether favorable and the prospect encouraging.

The Largest settlements were in Tallasehatchee Valley, particularly the Battle Ground, then called "Old Town." The settlers here were mostly from St. Clair County. William D. Bradford had a large settlement and lived near the present residence of Doctor Pelham. Daniel Crow had a settlement nearby. V. Crawford, John M. Turner and J. R. Green lived nearby and all around were squatters -- the Wagners, Kings, Hills, Holms, Glovers, Parris and others. John Love had one at or near the "Battle Ground."

There were a few settlers on Cane Creek, John Simpson, William Carl, Young Weatherly and others. John Maddox was a pioneer and settled at the place afterwards owned by Colonel McGee. On Eastaboga Creek there was a good settlement of the Selfs, Taylors, Varmans, Towns, etc. Frank Self, a man of substance and character, had a fine settlement. Here also at the same time, lived his son-in-law, Rev. Harris Taylor, so long and greatly esteemed by the people as an able Minister, a pious man and orderly good Citizen. On Blue Eye, the Graysons and Dulaney's had settled. John Sartain lived at Plumb Spring, where a voting place was established. Charley Hughes had already settled on Cold Water, the only one in that vicinity. John Gooden had a trading house (mostly of whiskey) at Boiling Springs. There were a few settlers in this vicinity. An old man named Sharp lived a mile West, near a large pond.”

William Garrett

ed a mill on a bend in the creek. This mill site and its vicinity, later called Morrisville, was an industrial hub throughout the nineteenth century. McCampbell only remained for a short period before he sold his improvements and moved West. Other settlers in the Cane Creek area included the Brothers, Weatherlys, Cokers, Downings, Mehargs, Morrises and Crows.

Early farmers initially lived in log buildings. As prosperity grew, the early dwellings were enlarged or replaced by traditional house types built either with log or frame construction. The layout of early farmsteads in the Fort McClellan area is described through personal accounts. Garrett remembers that squatters typically had a "rude cabin, a patch and a small deadening." Those who owned their property improved their acreage with a deadening and a few enclosed acres. "Deadenning" was practiced by Alabama farmers. The tree bark was ringed (cut) at the foot of the tree trunk and the trees were left in place

to die. Hence, cultivated fields were punctuated with tree stumps "with vast Quantities of dead and decaying Timber on them."

Enough people were present in the region by the 1830s to warrant a political division into counties and the incorporation of two towns. Benton County, which contained present day Calhoun and Cleburne counties and parts of Cherokee and Talladega counties, was established in 1832, with Jacksonville as the county seat. Jacksonville and White Plains were both incorporated in 1836. Calhoun County was carved out from Benton in 1858 and named after John C. Calhoun as "the philosophies of John C. Calhoun were more in keeping with the

" I am weary with travelling over Mountains, thro Swamps & Mud & living in the middle of Piles of Logs with no other windows than the large spaces between them (there not being a Pane of Glass to 5,000 People in the Country) of living on Hog & Corn, with a few raccoon....

The Buildings throughout this Country are, almost wholly miserable Log Cabins or Pens so open as not to require Windows either for the purpose of lighting or ventilating them. Even in this Town [Tuscaloosa], which is said to contain 800 Inhabitants, all Squatters, & 20 Stores of one kind or another, there is not one building which in Hartford would be worth \$50, many of them are made by driving Poles or Stakes in the ground and nailing Staves on the outside covering them over head with the same kind of Stuff for shingles the rest of rough or hewed Logs....

But here in the Spring you may travel days in-succession, & neither a green field, nor a blooming orchard, shall greet your Eye, & what they call houses, appearing more like the haunts of wild and savage man, than residences of civilized members of Society: no Roads skirted with grass, except the wild grass of the Forrest... no flocks or herd... but disgusting droves of little half starved cattle and Swine, roaming the forests for sustenance, and all the enclosed cultivated fields, wholly naked and bare of vegetation, with vast Quantities of dead & decaying Timber on them."

Anonymous in Alabama Folk Houses  
Wilson, 1975.

thinking of people of the area than were those of Senator Thomas Hart Benton for whom the county was named.”

The 1840 population census of Benton County listed 14,260 individuals in the county, with a total white population of 11,360 and a slave population of 2,894. Only six free blacks resided in the county. Population growth occurred throughout the antebellum period. Federal census data underscore the importance of agriculture to the young county, in which resided “the modest farmer, professional man and merchant.” County crops included tobacco, cotton, Indian corn, potatoes, wheat, oats, rye, barley, wool and wax. Horses and mules were part of the farmstead, as well as cattle, hogs, sheep and poultry. Grist, saw, and cotton

mills, extensions of the agricultural economy, were numerous.



Source: *Annie's Town*, Morgan, 1990, p. 128.

Morrisville and a Quarterly Conference was held there as early as March of 1840.

Eleven Baptist churches existed in the county prior to 1860. Unfortunately, little documentation survives on the rural churches that may have been present within Fort McClellan, particularly on Pelham Range. An oral account of the town of Morrisville notes the existence of a Methodist and Baptist church in that small community.

Other evidence of early religious activity is the presence of church-affiliated cemeteries. County cemetery surveys note the private Hampton cemetery in which James Hampton (1786-1854) and his wife Sarah (1791-1851) are buried. James' gravestone indicates that he was a devout member of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The Morrisville and Cane Creek cemeteries, which both have burials dating to the 1850s, appear to have been community- and church-oriented. Only one grave marker alludes to the Baptist Church, and that is located within the Cane Creek cemetery. Yet when both tracts were acquired by the military, the Morrisville cemetery was owned by the Methodist Episcopal South Church, while the Cane Creek cemetery was under the trust of the Deacons of the Cane Creek Baptist Church.

Information on African-American churches for the early period is sparse, but probably reflects an omission in the nineteenth-century documentary record rather than reality. The acquisition data for Pelham Range notes a small tract, probably a cemetery, which was owned by the African-American Cane Creek Baptist Church. This tract is now known as the New Mt. Sellers Cemetery.

## Farming

Farming was the basis for the early historic economy in the region. Agriculture underwent some changes in the two decades prior to the Civil War. Subsistence farming or growing enough for their own families was first practiced. With the establishment of farmsteads and the growth of a regional economy, this changed. Cotton replaced tobacco as the principal cash crop and the cultivation of produce diminished.

Using census data, historian A. D. Edwards has constructed agricultural profiles of the average Benton County farmer in 1850 and 1860 that illustrate this change. The farmer in 1850 cultivated only 61 acres of his 168 acre farmstead. His farm was valued at slightly over \$1,000



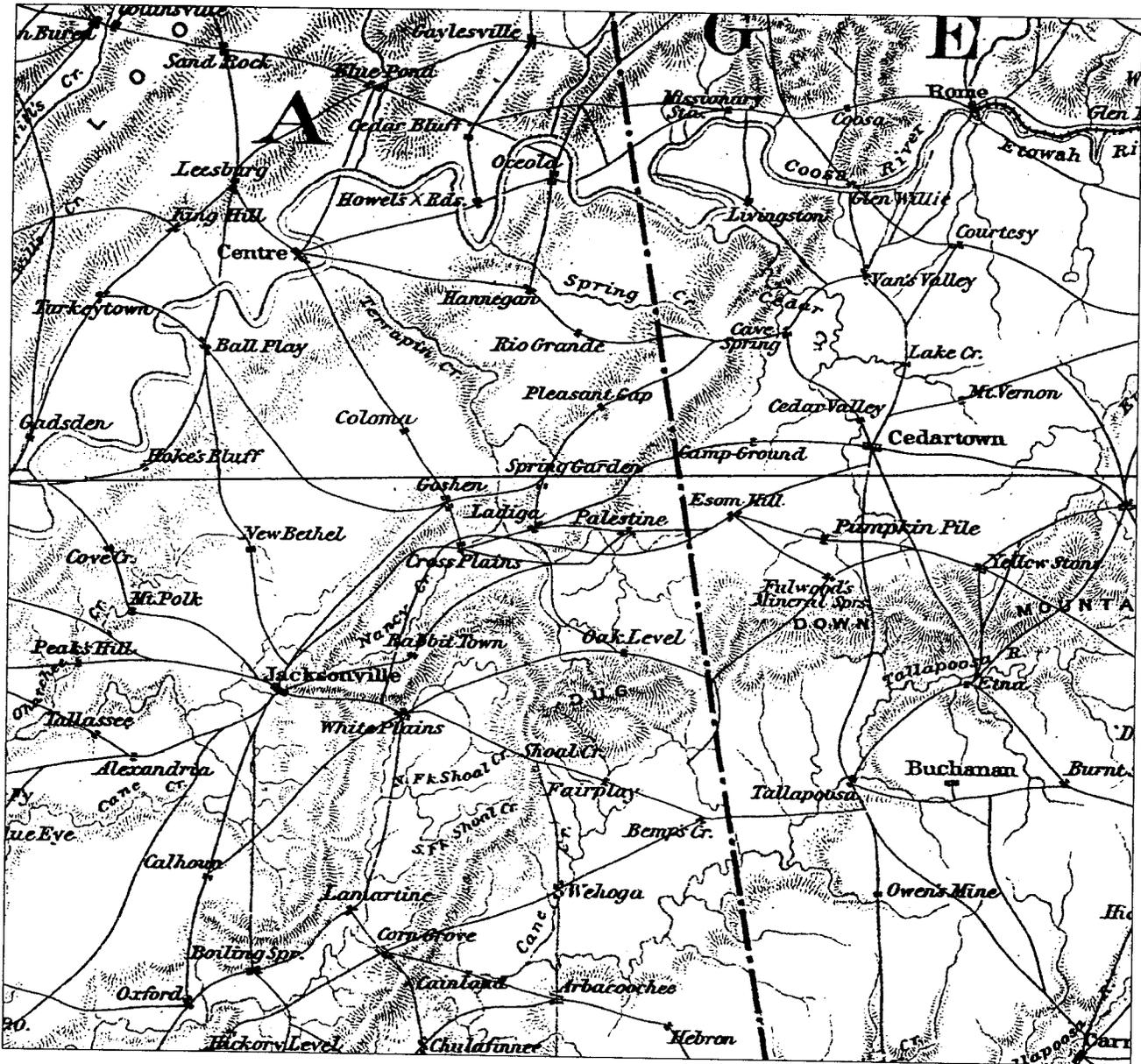
Source: *Annie's Town*, Morgan, 1990, p. 130.

and his livestock at \$275.35. Livestock included three horses or mules, one or two oxen, five beef cattle, three or four milk cows, five or six sheep, and about 28 hogs. Wheat, oats, rye, buckwheat, barley and other grains were planted along with Indian corn, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, and peas and beans. Tobacco, cotton, and rice were grown for cash, with cotton leading tobacco as the cash crop. The 4.87 bales of cotton grown by the county farmer typically netted

he and his family \$189 at the New Orleans cotton market.

Ten years later farm size slightly increased, tobacco and wool were no longer produced, and the production of other food crops, except wheat, lessened. Edwards attributes these changes to Benton/Calhoun County's farmers switch to cotton as their sole cash crop by 1860. In short, Calhoun County farmers were part of a regional success story. They joined in the success of their Black Belt neighbors, the planters and were able to participate economically in this story despite very real political and social differences.

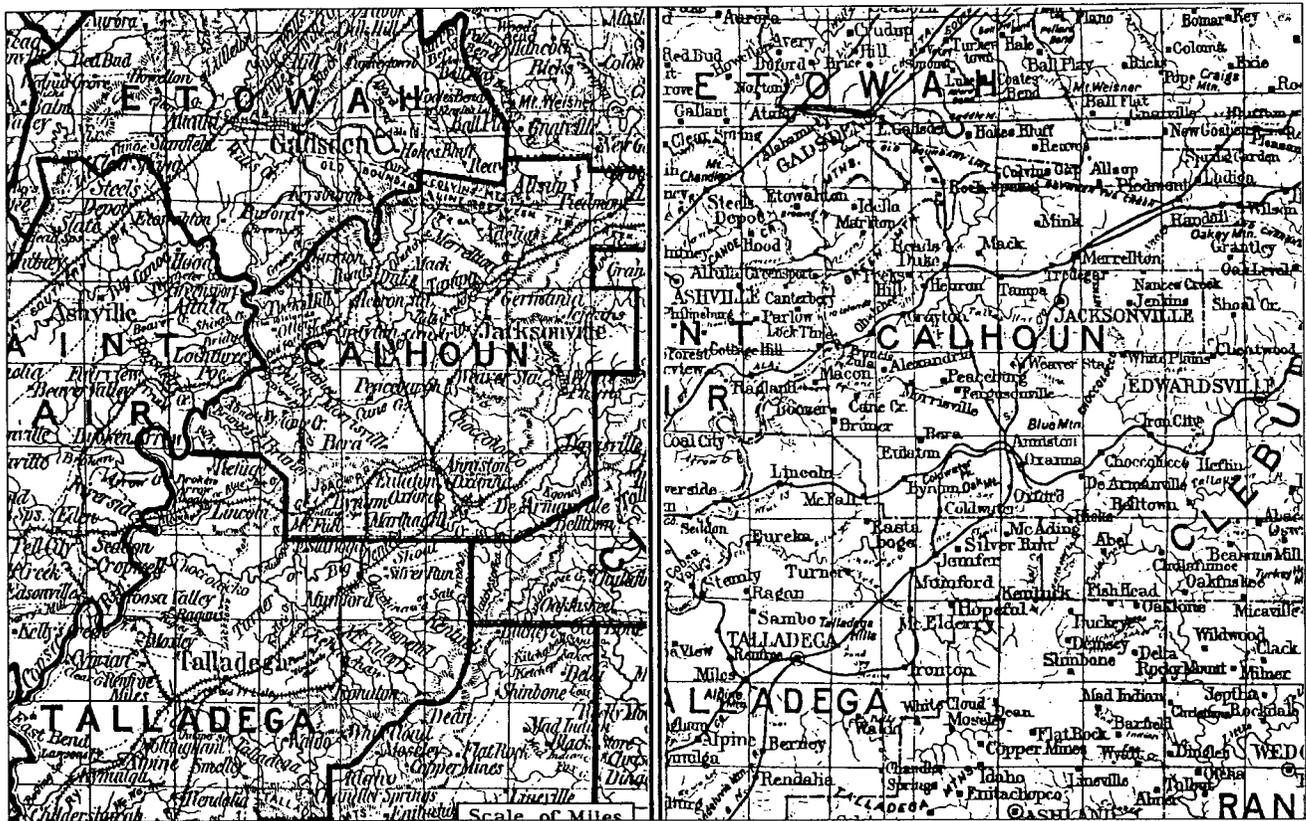
After the Civil War, Calhoun County farmers continued to cultivate the same crops. By the turn of the century, the county's farms increased in number but dropped in their average size. Sharecroppers composed 44 percent of the county's farmers. The trend toward smaller farms continued over the next few decades. Dark Corner, which embraced the area that would become the Main Post, supported fewer farms due to its poor soil, and these were small and dispersed.



## County Growth

If the modest farmer resided in rural areas of Calhoun County, "the professional man, merchant and their families" were found in the hamlets, villages, and towns. Seven post offices served the county in 1842: Alexandria, Corn Grove, Cove Creek, Jacksonville, Kemp Creek, Ladiga, and White Plains. Many of these post offices were located at crossroads, as part of the crossroad store, or at mill sites. They acted as social and economic hubs within the rural agricultural landscape. Even in the county seat, the post office was located in the store of Hoke and Abernathy, general merchandisers.

Topographic map, Civil War era. Source: *The Official Military Atlas of the Civil War.*



Detail from "State of Alabama, 1889" and "State of Alabama, 1895." Source: National Archives.

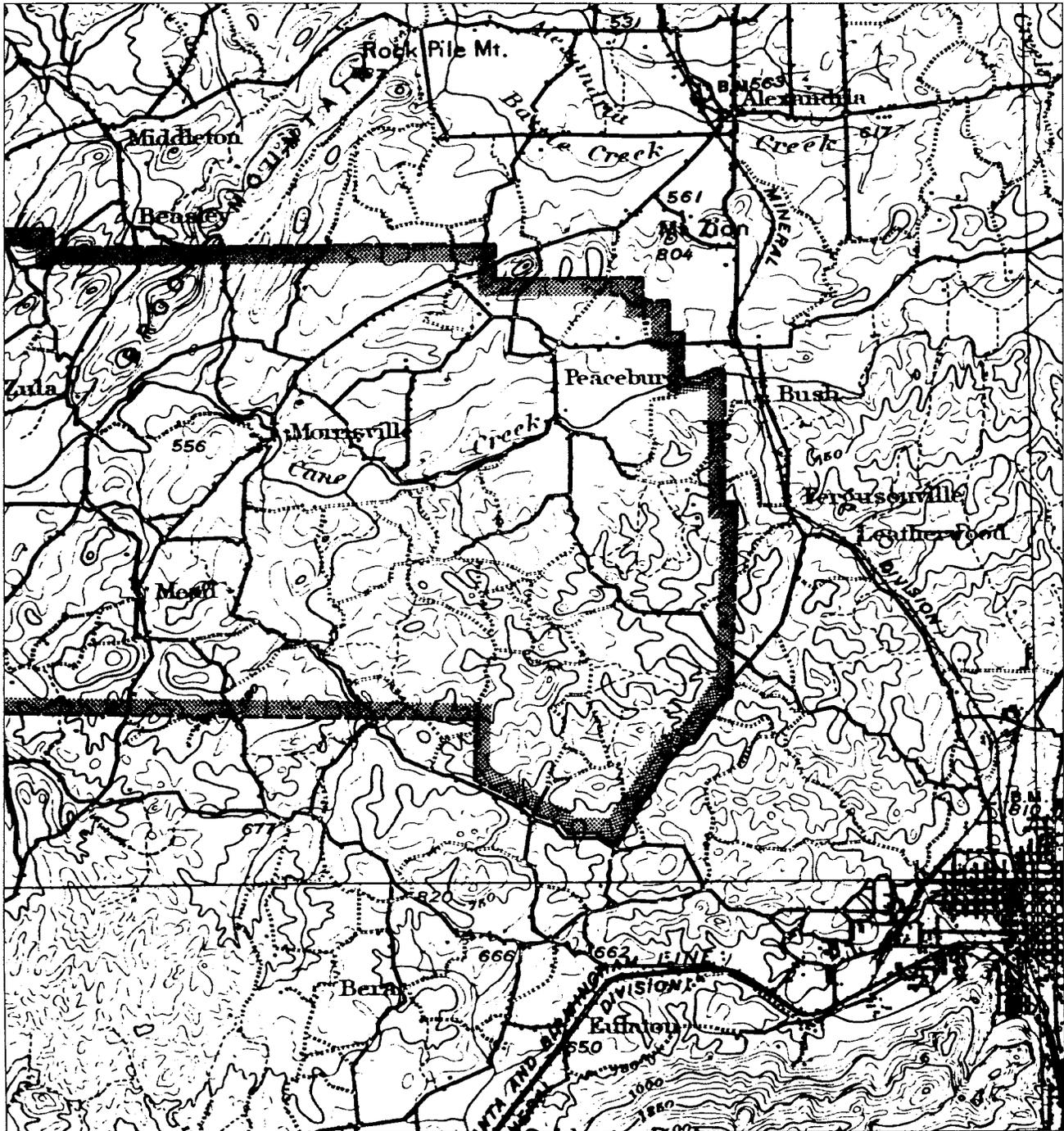
The locations of some of these towns and villages within future Fort McClellan are shown on historic maps. Thus an 1852 map only shows Morrisville within Fort McClellan, despite the fact that Polkville, an industrial community and post office, had been in existence since the 1840s. Maps also show the current transportation routes. Thus a Civil War topographic map gives the major road connections for the period and clearly demonstrates Jacksonville's centrality within the county and region, not only as a political center but also as an economic hub.

The first railroads were bursts between towns, such as the Georgia and Alabama Railroad, which led from Jacksonville, Alabama, in the direction of Rome, Georgia, in 1850. Another railroad under the same company name but different charter was constructed between Oxford, Alabama, and Newnan, Georgia. With the consolidation of rail lines in the latter end of the nineteenth century, these stretches of track were tied into the larger rail networks; the L & N Railroad and Southern



Historic maps depicting the settlement of Fort McClellan from 1900 to the present are more numerous. The 1900 topographic map provides a detailed view of historic settlement at the turn of the century. Both the Main Post and Pelham Range areas were extremely rural, punctuated by unimproved roads and small farms. Only four small communities were noted within the study area: Morrisville, Peaceburg, Mead,

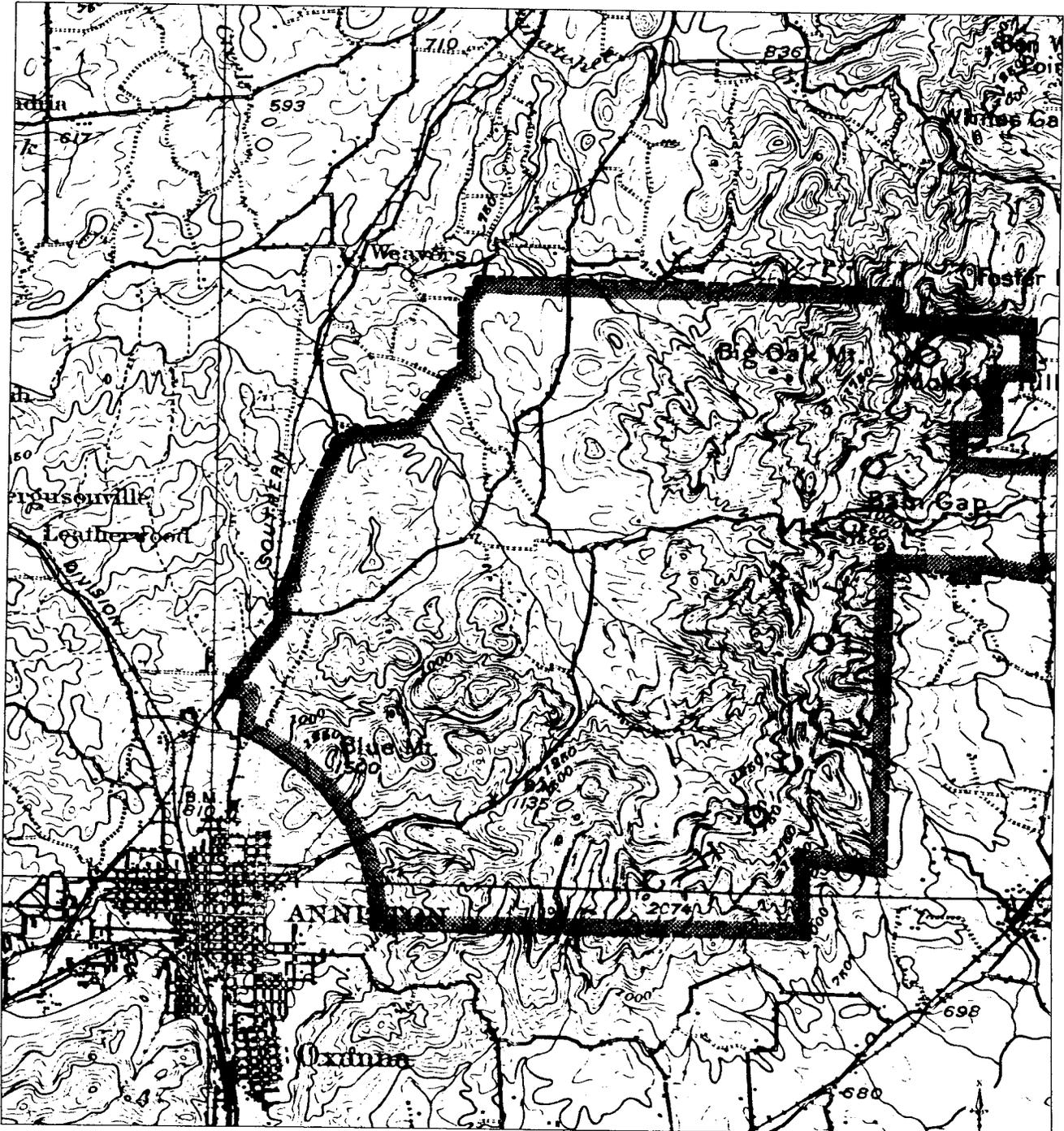
Details from 1900 Topographical Map, showing future Pelham Range. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.



and Zula. Farms, schools, churches, and cemeteries were lightly dispersed along the creeks and roads. This rural pattern continued through the 1930s.

The northwest corner of the Main Post was noted as Dark Corner on maps from the 1930s. The area that became Pelham Range was

Details from 1900 Topographical Map, showing future Main Post area. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.





Downings Lumber Yard, Shady Glen, Pelham Range. Source: *Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.*

slightly more settled, particularly along Cane Creek. A 1932 map shows the towns of Morrisville and Old Fergusonville as well as two churches; New Bethel and Rock Creek Churches. The Shady Glen community is noted southwest of Morrisville, and the "Peaceburgh Campgrounds" are also shown. The location of Brother's Mill at Old Polkville is also denoted as well as a number of households and crossroads.

Beside Polkville, a pre-Civil War town, and Morrisville, which was an industrial village (both are discussed separately below), the remaining communities evolved as either crossroads communities or dispersed neighborhoods, centered by a school, church or store, within an agricultural setting. Very little information is known about these communities. It is probable that there were other crossroad communities as well which escaped the notice of the mapmakers.

## Cane Creek Furnace and Polkville

The iron works at Polkville operated between 1840 and the Civil War and were known by at least five names: Cane Creek Iron Works, Hades Iron Works, Benton Iron Works, Moore and Goode Furnace, Crowe's Iron Works, and the Old Polkville Furnace. The site was established under the direction of Jacob Stroup and Noah Goode. Stroup was a well-known ironmaster, having established ironworks across the northern sections of South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. His participation within the industry was perhaps a result of his ancestry. His father, David Stroup, was a Pennsylvania gunsmith who emigrated with his son, Jacob, to North Carolina after the Revolution. Jacob Stroup was essentially an iron works entrepreneur. The historical record suggests that his interest was centered on the establishment of ironworks, not in their day-to-day management. At Cane Creek, Historian E. Armes states that Jacob provided the capital and expertise to set up the enterprise. Noah P. Goode was an employee of Stroup's, acting as his assistant and book-keeper until Stroup sold his interest in the concern in 1842. An advertisement in the *Alabama Reporter*, November 7, 1844 indicates that Goode took over the furnace under the name "Noah Goode and Company" and referred to it as the "Hades Iron Works."

By 1845, Stroup's share of the iron furnace was sold to Dr. John M. Moore of Talladega, who contributed capital and slave labor to the firm. Both were much needed by Goode to continue successfully. The firm advertised in 1845 that it could supply buyers with "Castings and Hollow Wares... of the very best quality, and will sell them cheaper than they can be procured any where else north of Mobile." By 1849, the proprietors were able to inform the iron industry's fact-gatherer, J. D. B. De Bow, about their expanded enterprise.

### **IRON WORKS.**

THE subscribers have bought J. M. Moore's interest in the CANE CREEK Iron Works, and have made, and are still making, large improvements on the Furnace and Machinery.

We are now prepared to make Hollow ware, **DOO IRONS, G.I.V. G.E.A.R.**, and **MIL MACHINERY** generally.

**Such as Cranks, Wing Gudgeons, Concave Gudgeons, Rods, Ways, Rack, and Pintons;**

**Noddleheads, and Saw Mill Irons of ALL SIZES for WATER MILLS.**

Also, heavy Gearing for Mills, and Light Gear for Smelters, Bolts, and Elevators, Spindles, Balance Irons and Drivers, Couplings, and Pullies, and can have them all turned and fitted up ready for use.

Also Morris celebrated

**Cast Iron Water Wheels,**

for Factories, Saw Mills, Grist Mills, Cotton Gins, &c., also, Hotchkiss's and Intervent, water wheels.

**IRON Columns, Bases, & Caps, Window Sills, and Lintels, Balustrade, Window Wrights, Cellar Girders, &c.**

Particular attention paid to the getting up Patterns.

Country Produce, such as Pork, Bacon, Wheat, Corn, &c., taken in payment.

Forty or Fifty industrious laboring men can have EMPLOYMENT here at all times.

Address, **GOODE, MORRIS & Co.**

**MORRISVILLE, Benton Co., Ala.**

Aug. 22, 1855.—15

*The Story of Coal and Iron in Alabama; Source: Armes, 1973*

"We have a blast furnace, a puddling furnace, and forge in operation. We turn out daily about 6,000 pounds of iron, 2,000 of which we put into hollowware and machinery castings, 2,000 pounds in bar iron, and 2,000 pounds in pigs. We use 600 bushels of charcoal every 24 hours. Our iron ore beds (some of them) are within 600 yards of the furnace. Our limestone is at the furnace and in abundance. The nearest Stone Coal Beds that have been worked are thirteen miles off. We are now preparing to put up a rolling mill, and that in short time we will be able to roll iron successfully. Our establishment is five miles east of the Coosa River, opposite the Ten Islands, and eleven miles from Greensport. We ship our iron down the Coosa in flat boats to Wetumpka, Montgomery, and Mobile. We have found the articles we produce here of a ready sale in either of those markets. We are prepared to make, turn off, and fit up, all kinds of machinery except fine castings for cotton mills, and we will very soon be ready to furnish them."

Report to De Bow, 1854

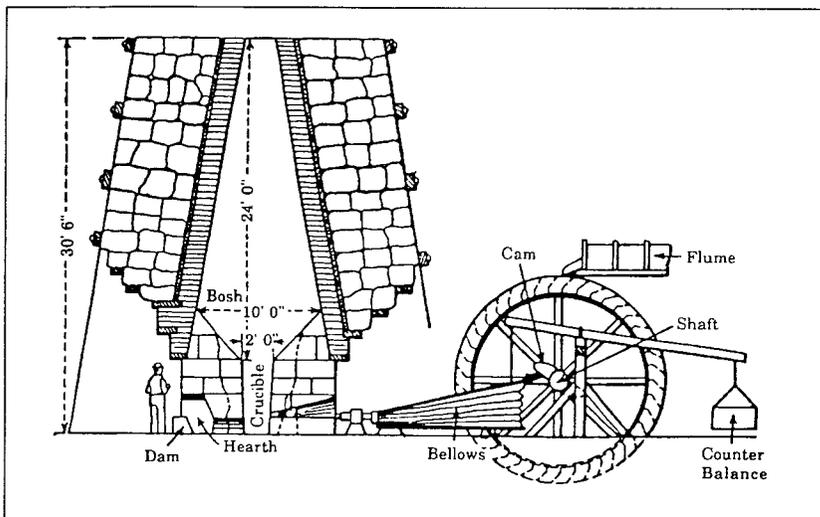


Illustration of an Iron Furnace. Source: *An Archival and Field Survey of Selected Historic Cultural Resources*, Jeane, 1984.

The history of the study area indicates that the area was only sparsely settled in the 1830s and 1840s; few if any local workers were found to man the many operations involved in iron manufacturing. Nor were there large slaveholding families nearby. Goode found his labor force at the plantation of Dr. Moore of Talladega, Alabama. The latter's

contribution of the labor of his slaves was a boon for the young company. An account of a mining tragedy involving a slave named Vann indicates that within the complex, slaves were assigned "tasks." Some were assigned to mining, charcoal production, and other tasks, but an account book for the furnace makes clear that slaves were also integrally involved with actual furnace work.

The need to be close to large amounts of natural resources usually forced the ironmaster to locate away from established settlements. For example, Goode & Moore's iron complex was located on a peninsula created by a bend in Cane Creek. To an extent, the iron complexes became small communities. At Polkville, the complex consisted of the furnace, forge hammer, machine shop, saw and grist mills, a dam, a commissary store, a post office, a general merchandise store, a doctor's office, a blacksmith shop, and a wagon shop. "Biweekly horse mail" was delivered to the iron master, farmers, skilled mechanics, carpenters, machinery men, and foundrymen who comprised the population within the village. The labor force also included 50 slaves.

Like most furnaces of the period, the Goode and Moore furnace was probably shaped like a truncated pyramid and constructed of stone blocks built around a hollow chamber. Furnaces ranged in height

between 19 and 40 feet and from four to eight feet in diameter. The furnace constructed at Polkville was 32 feet high and seven feet across the bosh (the bosh is the widest portion of the chamber), making it one of the larger furnaces of the time. A hill, man-made or naturally occurring, was needed to load the charge, given the height of the furnace. At the furnace, two founders (skilled help who worked in twelve-hour shifts to keep the furnace in continuous operation), moldmakers, guttermen, and fillers were required.



Example of an iron furnace, Donaldson's Furnace, Cherokee County, Georgia. Source: Richard T. Bryant.

J. P. Lesley's 1859 Iron Manufacturers Guide states that the furnace was rebuilt in 1857, two years after E. G. Morris bought out Moore's holdings in the firm. In 1854, the furnace was run 41 weeks, producing 450 tons of iron. In 1855, 350 tons were produced in 35 weeks, and 350 tons in 30 weeks a year later. Lesley's guide notes that the furnace used two-thirds brown hematite and one-third honeycomb from a bed on Chalbyeate Springs two miles north of the furnace as well as from six other beds in the area. Two forges were associated with the furnace: one that produced blooms, and a second known as a Catalan Hammer which made bars from the blooms produced by the other forge. Both operated only during the winter as the water supply dwindled in the summer months.

A log of the furnace accounts available to Armes when she wrote her history of the iron industry in Alabama contains a listing of the iron produced

“The boating down the Coosa was extra hazardous, floating over the fall and rocks, going through Weduska shoals, passing through the narrows, and darting down the "devil's staircase" and other rapids of the lower Coosa. The crew from the Coosa would deliver the boats at Wetumpka and foot it back to their homes. W. N. Coker, a citizen of Calhoun County, who was born and raised near the furnace, says that when a boy he had seen these old boatmen footing it home from Wetumpka, where they had left their boat, making the distance, 90 miles in two days, afoot. This was tall sprinting.... Many of the men who did this hauling, as shown by the old books, have left descendants who have become men of prominence in the professions and businesses of our country. Among those paid for hauling pig iron and blooms to the river and creek as far back as 1846 are P. Brothers, L. Coker, Willima C. Ritchie, the Englands, R. Ingram, I. Meharg, Louis Meharg, Lewis Downing, G. B. Douthit and many others.”

*The Story of Coal and Iron in Alabama,*  
Armes, 1973:92.

counts showing who haul [redacted] d the blooms to market. They  
over land, then loaded [redacted] nto flatboats at the mouth of  
Creek for shipment to [redacted] etumpka, Montgomery, Selma,  
t the Coosa.

iron they transported w [redacted] as used in the construction of  
n Montgomery, for defe [redacted] sive use during the Mexican-  
nd finally by the Confec [redacted] erate Army.

nership of the furnace ch [redacted] aged over time. After Goode  
ris, Hicks and Loyd, S [redacted] epard and Moses, and lastly  
e either joined in partn [redacted] rship with Goode or were full  
vas still involved with [redacted] he works in 1860. A North  
e was 49 years old and a [redacted] father of five. Moulders from  
North Carolina as well [redacted] as a laborer from Ireland were  
ily as one household in [redacted] the 1860 Census. A fifteen-  
American slave girl wa [redacted] also part of the household.  
perated through the Ci [redacted] vil War, making iron for the  
product was sent to [redacted] elma, Alabama, and Rome,  
vas used in the casting o [redacted] cannons, the manufacture of  
e construction of gunboa [redacted] s. Reportedly, iron produced  
k works was used to [redacted] onstruct the Merrimack the  
ad which fought the M [redacted] onitor in 1862. The furnace  
General Lovell H. Rous [redacted] au and his Union troops on

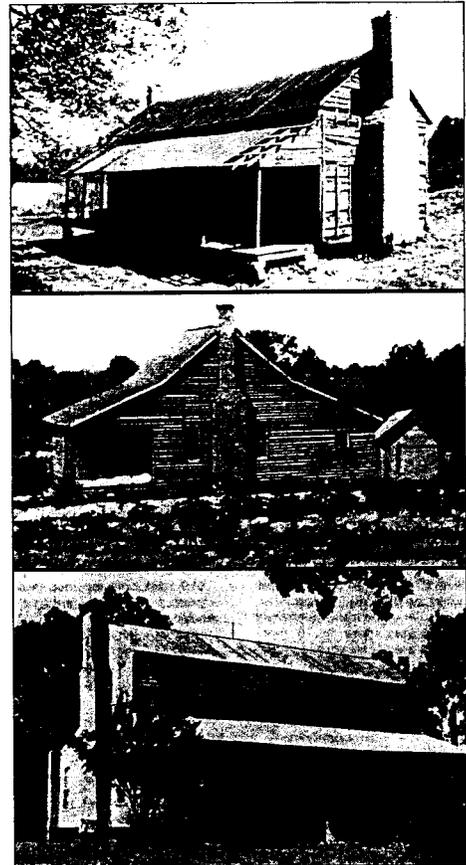
by Bessie Coleman Rob [redacted] nson, a local historian, pub-  
iston Times on May 19 [redacted] 1933, gives a description of  
'Old Polkville" in the [redacted] arly twentieth century. The  
hin the town and its [redacted] vicinity were the Brothers,  
s, Downings, Mehargs, [redacted] Morrises and Crows. She  
homes of the ironmaste [redacted] s were situated on a crest of

the hill across the mill race on Cane Creek across from the Brothers home. Dwellings were described as well-built with plaster walls and heart pine woodwork. The store was situated across the creek south of the furnace and was of the same construction as the ironmasters homes. Robinson's account notes that a portion of the store was still standing in 1933. Only a three- or four-ton cog wheel remained of the furnace, half-buried at the site.

The furnace was not rebuilt after the war, and the property was sold by Crow to Patton Brothers. The Brothers dug a canal across the neck of the peninsula and built a grist mill on the furnace site. The grist mill was successful; Robinson notes that its water-ground meal had a county-wide reputation. The Brothers mill was destroyed in 1886 when the mill and dam were washed away during a storm. Both the dam and mill were later rebuilt by Dr. Philip Brothers.

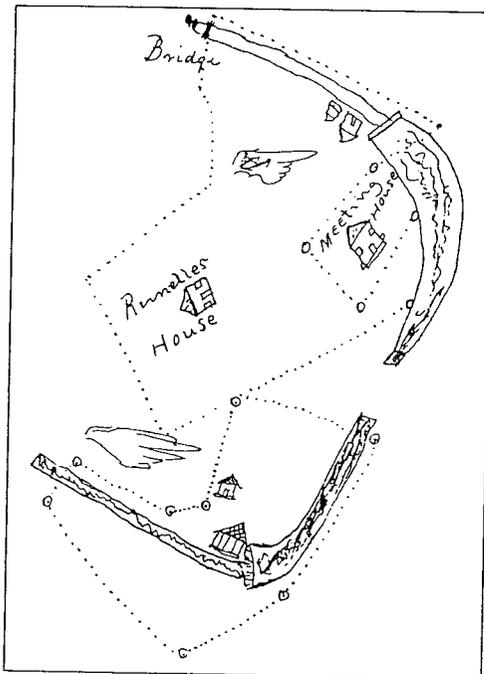
## Morrisville

The town of Morrisville developed around a millseat first established by Elijah Lloyd. Lloyd had built a corn mill and a small sash-saw mill for cutting lumber which he sold along with 400 acres of land to E. G. Morris, a North Carolina house builder and carpenter. The deed states that this land was first conveyed to Wm. B. and J. A. "McCamble." Like Goode in Polkville to the west, Morris was an industrial entrepreneur. The business concerns of the Morris family, established over time, drew workers, their families and other businesses into the town which bore their name. And the businesses of Morrisville were linked to the Cane Creek furnace through Morris' ownership of the furnace along with Hicks and Lloyd in the 1850s. Morris' tombstone thus reads "Pioneer - Inventor - Ironmaster."



Regional vernacular House Types including The Hall and Parlor Type and I-House. Source: *Alabama Folk Houses*, Wilson, 1975, pp. 31, 43.

Morris purchased the property in August of 1846, but did not inhabit the land until after his marriage in December of the same year. At that point, he used the sawmill's products to advance his construction company's business in Talladega and Jacksonville. Unfortunately, his sawmill was destroyed by fire soon after he moved to the property, but he soon rebuilt it. An undated article written by J. A. Roberson on Morrisville notes that the saw mill was initially built at the lower site, while the corn mill was located at the upper mill seat. Two plats of the



Plats showing Morris' lower and upper mills located within Morrisville. Source: Calhoun County Deed Book, 10:386.

millseats show their original location. The plats also show nearby houses and a "Meeting House." The deed between Lloyd and Morris states that the church property was excluded from the conveyance but unfortunately does not identify the church by name. The mill sites were switched in the 1850s, and Morris built a three-story structure to house cotton manufacturing equipment at the upper site. As early as 1849, Goode and Morris stated that they intended to make "fine castings for cotton mills" once the furnace was improved. It is possible that the Morris factory was to be the first recipient of the locally made machinery. However, Morris' mission for the building at the upper site was never fulfilled, probably due to timing.

The furnace was used by the Confederacy, then demolished in 1864. A letter written by Morris to a family member lamented "a perfect stream of misfortunes attending me ever since the beginning of the war." His letter goes on to say that prior to the war he had made a considerable fortune investing in slaves and an iron works. He already owned a machine shop and had an interest in two or three sawmills and four grist mills. After the Civil War he purchased three other mills. All of these proved to be poor investments. His slaves were freed after the war; the furnace was demolished; and since crop failure turned local farmers away from wheat cultivation, the mills became "a dead weight"

to be sold. He used the mill structure instead as a buggy and wagon factory and later as a furniture factory. The factory was a success and "long rows of houses" were built to accommodate the workers. The village even included an "entertainment hall."

Morris' success with the furniture factory ended with the railroad; inexpensive furniture was then brought in from North Carolina at prices which forced him to close the furniture factory. Never at a loss, Morris invented a new turbine water wheel, and he and his sons built a foundry to produce this invention. The foundry was located approximately two miles below Morrisville on Cane Creek.

In April of 1884, a flood took everything. The water level rose to 21 feet, 4 inches at the mill, twice as high as it had ever reached in the past. Morris lost his dam, shops, machinery, patterns, woodworking machinery, saws, lathes, flour mill, foundry and "everything we had that would make a nickel." Undaunted, he once again resurrected his business, rebuilding the foundry, machine and pattern shop, and blacksmith shop, but this time at Morrisville proper.

In the *State Gazetteer and Business Directory for 1887-8*, Morristown was characterized as a small village southwest of Jacksonville with a population of 200. The businesses in town included:

- Bates, J P, flour mill
- Bates, Mrs. M C, seamstress
- Brown, J A, pattern maker
- Francis, T W, grist mill
- Fulmer, W G , blacksmith

E. G. Morris' daughter remembered nineteenth-century Morrisville from her childhood:

“ In addition to all types of furniture, the plant also turned out water-wheels, which were much in demand at that time, and the luxuriant carriages with colorful upholstery and "fringe on the top".

My father had a large farm, some 500 acres and life was exciting. Each of the children had individual saddle horses which my father trained himself. Those for the girls were always trained with the use of umbrellas for no young girl went out in those days without her parasol and they frightened the horses unless they were used in training them. There were always interesting goings on about the farm with its own flour mill and wool mill. Our cook used to spend most of her spare time at the big loom, working at some kind of cloth and singing her favorite hymns while she spun the yarn.

For the "extra nice" things, the family made the long, somewhat tiresome trip to Rome, Ga. Then in between times there were the groups of "show folks"--arriving in large vans. On Sundays, the young people went with their families to one of the two churches--the Methodist and Baptist--in the community. ”

Daughter of E.G. Morris in  
Bessie Coleman Robinson Collection

Haynie, R C , constable  
Johnston, G V, moulder  
Johnston, W D, blacksmith  
Morris, E G & Sons, general store, flour and saw  
mill, and foundry  
Morris, Louis, postmaster  
Reid, Ed M, justice and general store  
Reid, E W, justice  
Smith, Ott, express agent

The directory underscores Morris' resurrection and also indicates that his first mills at Morrisville (those purchased by Lloyd in 1849) were still in operation. Elbert J. Morris Jr. and John Morris, the sons of E. G. Morris, continued to work and live in the town their father had established. The Morris holdings were known as "The Morris Manufacturing Company."

The Morris Brothers sold their family property in 1911 to T. J. Johnson of Birmingham. The sale of the family holdings suggests that Morris Manufacturing Co. was not financially successful. That Morrisville lost its status as a post office in 1907 also suggests a decline in importance. Johnson conveyed the Morrisville property to Judge Basil M. Allen of Birmingham after a short time. Judge Allen invested in the land for agricultural rather than industrial reasons; thereafter the tract was developed more as a farm than as a business. When this tract was sold to the Federal government in 1941, it belonged to Addie McCaa Butler.

Despite this change in ownership, the property and the name Morrisville was still identifiable through the 1930s. The "Morrisville Cemetery" is still in existence. The earliest burials, which date to 1854 and 1857, are of the children of Elbert G. and E. H. Morris. It appears

that the cemetery was first used by the family and then used publicly by other residents of the industrial town. It was owned by the Methodist Episcopal Church South when Pelham Range was acquired. Seventy-seven marked graves are located there, along with an unknown number of other graves, either marked with wood or unmarked. Further examination of the cemetery markers shows that burials continued at the cemetery through the 1970s. The cemetery and the concrete Morrisville dam are the only remnants of the town.

## Anniston

Immediately south of the area which would become Fort McClellan, a new industrial town was established in 1872. Taking advantage of the wreckage of the Civil War, the Noble and Tyler families joined together in an ironmaking venture that made use of timber and mineral lands once the domain of the Oxford Iron Company. The Oxford furnace was destroyed along with the Cane Creek furnace during the War. Unlike the latter, the Oxford furnace had been built to serve the Confederacy. The post-war ironmasters, Alfred Tyler and Samuel Noble, who set up their company with machinery made at the Noble's family factory in Rome, Georgia, envisioned their new enterprise a success in all respects. Ore beds and timber were plentiful and the climate healthy.

Despite these advantages, a labor pool was not available, forcing the ironmen to bring in their workers. Skilled workmen were sought in England, and charcoal burners were brought to northeast Alabama to work for the Woodstock Iron Company. With the workers came families, and the fledgling iron company began to lay plans for a "model" industrial city. Noble and Tyler created a planned community in which separate areas were established by function. Residential areas, containing 500 homes, were to be set aside from areas devoted to commerce. The city streets were lined with oaks. A sewer system, water and other



General Daniel Tyler, 1799-1882.  
Source: *Anniston's Town*, Morgan, 1990, p.3.

amenities were furnished by the company, as well as schools and churches. A 500-acre farm operated so that town inhabitants would have fresh produce.

As the iron company prospered, so did the town, which was called Anniston. The iron produced at Woodstock was fashioned into railroad car wheels, which had a ready market in both the north and the south. Business expanded and the valley that had once housed small firms became an industrial center. An article written by Henry Grady and published in *The Atlanta Constitution*, June 10, 1883, paints a picture of the young town which "eclipsed the Pullman Enterprise:"

Grady's prediction proved false. The Woodstock Company's suc-

cess lasted until the Panic of 1893. By that year, the timber sources needed to supply the furnaces with charcoal had dwindled, resulting in huge costs to secure adequate amounts of charcoal. In addition, the company had overexpanded, only to find itself in the midst of an economic depression.

The Woodstock Iron Company never recovered, but fortunately, the town fathers had given Annistonians more than one industry to maintain the town.

In the 1880s Alfred Tyler also established the Anniston Manufacturing Company, a textile

An article written by Henry Grady and published in the *Atlanta Constitution*, June 10, 1883, paints a picture of the young town which "Eclipsed the Pullman Enterprise:"

"As noted above a population of between 3,000 and 4,000 is attained. Ninety-five percent of this population is provided with profitable, steady labor, and sure pay and good homes. Their houses are built with plastered rooms 18 feet square, wide halls, and each has a patch of ground. Besides the two furnaces which coin wood ore and limestone into a daily income of 41,500, the cotton factory, the planing and grist mills, the foundry and machine shops, there are immense buildings going up to accommodate engine and machine works, that will give employment to 100 additional hands. Plans for extensive car works have been made, and the ground is now cleared for the building. Two coke furnaces will be added to the charcoal furnaces now at work, and a cotton seed oil mill erected....

A force of carpenters and masons ranging from 60 to 125 men is kept constantly at work in building. A block of stores is just being finished, new streets of buildings for the workingmen are extending rapidly, and the plans for a hotel to cost from \$30,000 to \$50,000. Every department of the work of the town is kept separate. The streets are in charge of a supervisor who has all the men and wagons he needs, and who is constantly pushing the improvements on. The farm hands are in the charge of a competent man who with 28 hands, horses and the best implements and machines, has the farm settlement away from town, watches the herds and flocks and raises huge crops of hay for the 200 mules of the company, and grain for its mills. A mayor elected by the people has charge of the city, and a marshall enforces his rule. A happier, healthier or more contented community I never saw, nor so prosperous a town, or one so well arranged, and so admirably adopted for the making of a great city. It is my opinion that in the next census, it will have more than 10,000 inhabitants."

Henry Grady  
*The Atlanta Constitution*, 1883

mill, to afford employment to the iron workers' families. Another economic boon to the town was the United States Rolling Stock Company. This railroad car manufacturing factory, established by English industrialists, employed 1,700 workers and operated in Anniston from 1880 through 1890. It created tremendous growth within the young industrial town. Noble and Tyler were also successful in tying their businesses into the various railroad networks of the late 1880s. In the words of Houston Cole, Alfred Tyler was a "railroad man." He had already served as the superintendent of the Macon Railroad, and he parlayed his previous experience into getting Anniston suitably connected. The Anniston and Atlantic line was established in 1883, another line in 1888, and both were later acquired by the L & N railroad. Anniston was finally connected to Birmingham in 1905.



Samuel Noble, 1834-1888. Source: *Annie's Town*, Morgan, 1990, p. 4.

Anniston was open to the public in 1883. Until that time, it was a closed or private city. The paternalism of the Noble and Tyler families did not end after its opening, however. The Anniston Opera House, the Anniston Inn, the Church of St. Michael and All Angels, as well as schools for both boys and girls, were established by Noble and Tyler. Some residents did view the Noble's paternalism in a negative manner, and this attitude was heightened as the model city began a campaign to have the county seat moved from Jacksonville to Anniston. The area's newspapers were filled with periodic attacks launched by each town against the other as they fought for control of the county. Anniston had already fought an economic war with a rival industrial town, Oxanna, and won. It was also victorious over Jacksonville. In 1899, Anniston became the new county seat.

Anniston was initially a town of outsiders within the valley, which had been sparsely settled prior to the 1870s. Until it opened to the public and even for a time afterwards, there must have been some animosity between the original settlers and their families and the new-

comers. These feelings were aired during the battle over the county seat as Jacksonville papers called the new town "greedy" and "villainous." While Anniston may have been both, it was also a breeding ground for influential Alabamians who were able to use politics to advance the city's interest. This characteristic came into play when the American military began to scout the Southeast for an area to quarter troops during the Spanish-American War.

Although the Spanish-American War ended in August of 1898, a peace agreement had not been reached. In the event that hostilities might begin anew, the United States Army decided to maintain a reserve force. A site in Alabama was a likely choice as Mobile was the port of departure for service in Cuba. Anniston's candidacy was based upon its rail connections to Mobile, the healthy climate and organization of the model city, and, perhaps most importantly, the political pressure applied by Annistonians on influential members of Congress. Anniston was selected and Camp Shipp was established north of town on Blue Mountain.

While the new installation was lauded for its healthy environment and for the unique training stage it provided for the Fourth Alabama Artillery, it was phased out in 1899 and Anniston returned its attention to industry. This early encounter with the military was pivotal in Anniston's later courtship of the United States Army in 1917 for a National Guard camp.

In 1912, Anniston again became interested in the military. In that year Fred L. Blackmon, Congressman from Alabama's Fourth district, visited an artillery range in Tennessee. Impressed by what he saw, Blackmon recognized the potential of the Choccolocco Mountains for artillery training, and he began to make advances toward the War Department to spur their interest in the hills of Alabama.

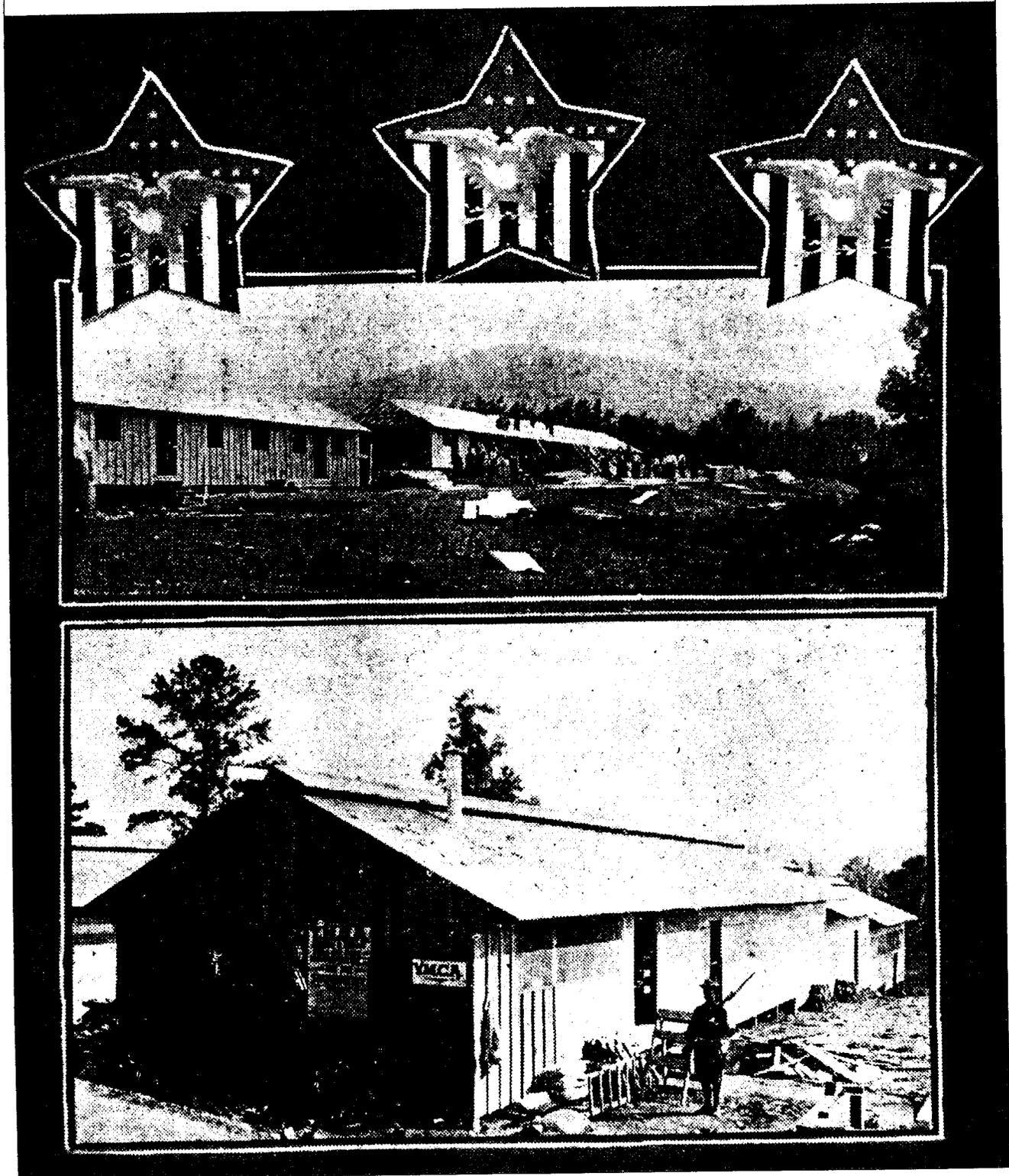
Twenty thousand National Guardsmen were brought to the valley for maneuvers in response to Blackmon's urging. General Albert L. Mills, president of the Army War College, and his staff, which included Major Charles P. Summerall, the head of the Artillery Bureau of the War College, were also part of the entourage sent to ascertain the utility of the area for the Army's needs. Summerall was enthusiastic about the adaptability of the terrain for artillery training and advocated the purchase of land. Consequently, the Federal Government decided to purchase property north of Anniston as a range in 1917.

The agency that orchestrated the acquisition was the Anniston Chamber of Commerce under the direction of John B. Carrington, president, and L. C. Watson, secretary. Three appropriations totaling \$247,000 were made and the contract called for the purchase of 18,952 acres. The acquisition was completed on March 17, 1917; farmers were allowed to work their fields through the summer as there was no immediate need for their land. The manner in which the 1917 camp was chosen echoes Anniston's earlier experience with the military during the Spanish-American War. A key factor in the success of Anniston's proposal was the cohesive manner in which city leaders approached the military. The town acted as a harmonious economic unit, much like the 1880s company town it once was.

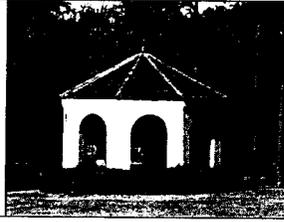


F.L. Blackmon. Source: *Annie's Town*, Morgan, 1990, p. 179.

# Military Camp



# Chapter 6



Fort McClellan was a 1917 camp. It offered not only an array of "conveniences of existence" to the World War I soldier, in stark contrast to the material comforts available to the soldier of 1861, but the rapidity of its construction placed it in the realm of the marvelous. The events of 1917 followed one another without pause. War was declared on Germany on April 6th. The Selective Service Bill was passed on May 18th. The Cantonment Division, formed from the Construction and Repair Division of the Quartermaster General's Office, was established on May 19th. As President Wilson had maintained a neutral stance refusing to begin military planning even after the breaking of diplomatic ties with Berlin in February of 1917, no plans had been prepared for mobilization.

The Cantonment Division Office was in the center of the maelstrom. Historians Fine and Remington helped describe the pandemonium at that office. "There were a couple of Army officers and stenographers.... Every contractor in the country was there. All those men did was to stand in front of the desk and shake hands all day. Paper was stacked high on the desk and there was confusion galore".

The Army officers who handled the division initially were Colonel Isaac W. Littell and his assis-

"The science of warfare has made mighty strides since America's last war, that of 1861-1865, but in no respect more than in those matters relating to the individual soldier's comfort and bodily welfare. The soldier of 1863 lived in a tent, or in the chance shelter of a billet. When the weather was cold he might alternately toast and congeal at his camp fire, and at night he rolled himself in his blanket and reposed on a pallet of straw. His grandson warrior who went to the training camp in 1917 found life comfortable in a substantial barrack, warmed with steam heat or with stoves. A good mattress on a hygienic metal bed wooed his slumbers after a hard day of training.

The soldier of 1861 bathed where he could and when he could. He of 1917 kept clean daily under the shower bath. The soldier of 1861 slaked his thirst at neighboring wells or streams; and waterborne diseases, such as typhoid fever, reaped a harvest of lives. His successor drank water which was tested and filtered, sterilized when necessary, and the once fatal epidemics of armies were kept away from his cantonment. This water, moreover, came to him in a pipe under a pressure sufficient to throw a stream from a nozzle clear over his barrack, an efficient safeguard against the fire that might destroy his wooden city.... The [1861 soldier] suffered from scurvy because of the limitations of his diet. The soldier of 1917 ate tender beef and green vegetables kept fresh in ammonia-cooled refrigerators. The fighter of 1861 relished the hoeecake baked in the ashes; his successor partook of white bread fresh from camp ovens.

The camps of 1861 were arranged in haphazard fashion; those of 1917 were laid out by expert city planners. In the spring the soldier of 1861 waded and toiled through mud; the soldier of 1917 walked dry-shod upon walks or drove his autotruck upon macadamized or concrete or brick camp roads. The illumination of the camps of 1861 was the light of the stars and the bivouac fires; the 1917 barracks were built along streets radiant with electrical incandescence. For amusements the soldiers of 1861 had their campfire choruses and rough military sports, but the private in the National Army had the theater, the motion picture, a library of good reading matter, the Y.M.C.A. and similar clubhouses, the gymnasium, the post exchange where he could buy periodicals, candy, fruit, and other small luxuries.

The marvel of the cantonments of 1917 was not that a grateful Republic gave to its conscripted soldiers the conveniences of existence enjoyed by all urban communities, but that it provided them in such short time. Ninety days after the first spade struck into the ground the cantonments were ready to receive two-thirds of their men.... "

Benjamin Crowell, 1919.

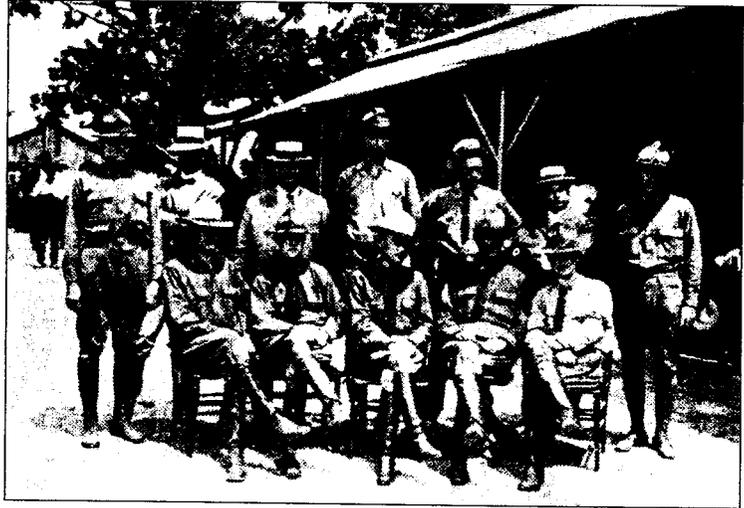
tants, Captain William H. Oury and Captain Richard C. Marshall, Jr. The staff grew exponentially, embracing both military and civilian experts as workers. The government mandate for this new division was simple in its wording - - to have 32 divisional camps ready by September 1. Camp McClellan was one of the chosen thirty-two, a National Guard cantonment able to handle 27,152 soldiers. It would be the first Southern installation named in honor of a Northerner - worse, the commander of the Union forces between 1861 and 1862. This challenge to Southern sensibilities was forgiven in light of the economic boost the camp would inject into the town of Anniston and Calhoun County, Alabama. Anniston, built by the Woodstock Iron Company and known as the "the Model City" of the New South, was ready for this infusion after the depression of the 1890s.

## National Guard Camp

While Anniston's candidacy for a military installation predates 1917, the events of that year compelled the construction of a National Guard camp. After the order to construct 32 divisional cantonments was issued on May 7, a number of civilians converged on Washington to volunteer their services. These men ranged in talent from well-to-do industrialists and construction experts to designers of water and sewage systems and landscape architects. They formed the Committee on Emergency Construction, with William Starrett, president of Starrett and Van Vleck, a New York-based architectural company, as chair. The first act of the committee was to extricate Colonel Littell from the War Department and to establish the newly formed Cantonment Division under his care. After some discussion, the Starrett committee then set up a building program in which typical plans and layouts were designed for the proposed camps, building materials were procured, and personnel was assigned to monitor budgets and construction. Moreover, a Constructing Quartermaster was assigned to each camp along with a staff of engineers, draftsmen, auditors, inspectors, and checkers. This program was promptly approved and placed into action by Colonel Littell.

Wood construction was specified for the 16 National Army camps, while canvas tentage was chosen for the fifteen National Guard camps. This decision was based on the fact that the National Guard would be sent to France. The tent camps were less expensive to construct and better reflected their impermanent nature. Camp McClellan had the highest cost per capita construction cost of the National Guard Camps, virtually all of which were in the Southeast and western United States (with the exception of Camp Doniphen, later known as Fort Sill).

Charles L. Dulin was the Constructing Quartermaster placed in charge of Camp McClellan. His 1917 Completion Report of Camp McClellan, Anniston, Alabama gives a terse but well-written account of his labor in the Choccolocco Valley. Dulin arrived in Anniston in June of 1917 under orders to build a machine gun camp to accommodate six machine gun companies. In July, his orders changed. A telegram from the Officer in Charge of Cantonment Construction informed him that Anniston had been selected as a National Guard Camp; that Morris Knowles, Incorporated, had been appointed Supervising Engineers of the new camp; and that their representative, Maurice R. Scharff, was en route.

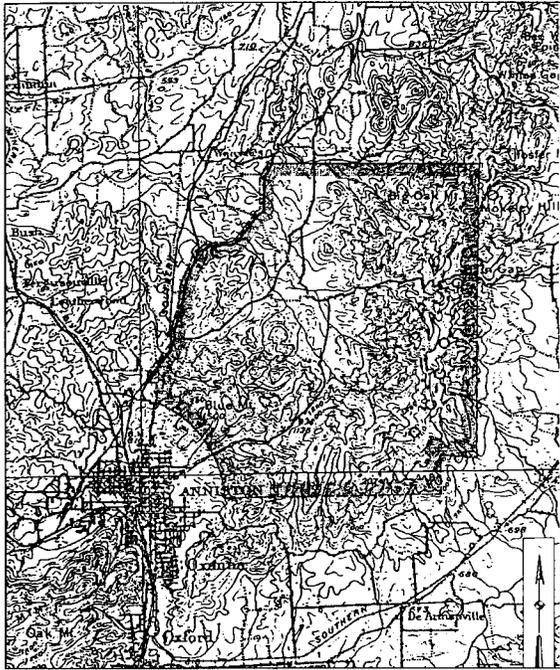


Colonel Charles Dulin (seated, center), Construction Quartermaster, Camp McClellan. Source: *Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.*

Scharff, upon arrival, advised Dulin that he (Dulin) had been appointed Constructing Quartermaster and that he, Scharff, was carrying plans and instructions to build the camp. Dulin immediately apprised the Anniston Chamber of Commerce that the government wanted immediate ownership of a large portion of the land involved in the contract. The immediacy of the demand changed the original purchase agreement, which had allowed farmers to cultivate their land through the year. The crops lost were valued at \$136,000, and the Chamber of

Commerce underwrote the difference. This debt would not be absolved until 1934 through prodigious effort by the community.

After survey, Dulin chose the site of the new camp, locating it within Township 15 South and Range 8 with a small portion in Range 9 of the same township. Three major roads traversed the camp site.



Camp McClellan Boundary Map. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.

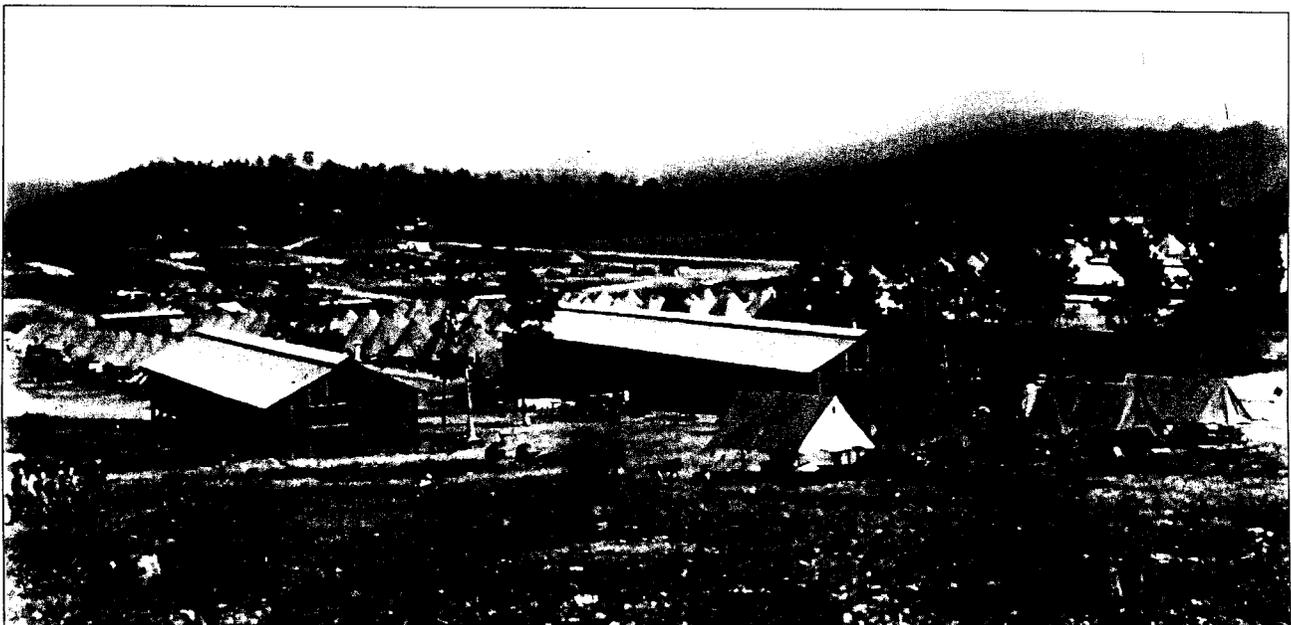
Leaving Anniston, Rocky Hollow Road crossed Blue Mountain and intersected with Bain Gap Road in the center of the camp. Bain Gap Road lead eastward over the Choccolocco Mountains. An unidentified road leading to Jacksonville crossed the northwestern sector of the reservation. The northwest portion of the reservation, known locally as Dark Corner, contained fairly level terrain. Cane Creek and its tributaries, Cave and Carrot Creeks, coursed through it, flowing in a south, east, and southeasterly direction. The Choccolocco Mountains, which cup the remainder of the reservation, stopped their flow. Land use prior to the federal occupation was mostly agricultural, and no small villages or towns were displaced by the new camp.

Dulin's choice for the camp's location in the northwestern quadrant of the reservation was based on topography and geography. The northwest corner was fairly level, well-drained, and connected by roads already in place leading to Anniston and Jacksonville. This area was also closest to the tracks of the Southern Railway. Avoiding the rigidity of a grid but adhering loosely to a linear plan, Dulin began to lay out the division camp between the forks of Cane Creek and along the creek terraces. He hired a large local labor force and began construction. When John O. Chisholm & Co of New Orleans arrived to begin construction, Dulin had already built seven mess halls.

Historic maps shows the original configuration of the camp. The post was laid out in 26 blocks designated as areas, each performing a specific function and containing a set number of buildings. The layout of the buildings within each block, particularly those devoted to housing the Infantry units, was highly regimented. Barrack-like buildings (mess halls) were placed with uniform precision in the front of the blocks with latrines and showers located at some distance (approximately 800 feet) to the rear, strategically placed near the creeks. Those blocks or areas designated for the infantry were composed of 13 long, narrow buildings and three shorter buildings. All 16 were aligned along a frontage which was hooked via an unimproved street with a second block that echoed the plan of its neighbor. A photograph taken in 1918 shows the types of buildings that were first built, along with the columns of tents that stretched behind each building to the latrines and showers. Each tent was floored and furnished with a stove or heater. The areas set aside for the Artillery Brigade contained fewer buildings but more space.

In an almost building-block fashion, the blocks or areas were tied into an overall plan reflective of neither a straight line or a U-shape, the first "typical" layouts. Instead, the positioning of the "blocks" appears to

View of Artillery Camp, September 1917. Source: *Public Library of Amiston-Calhoun County.*



have been dependent on the most advantageous way to use the the creeks which coursed through the site. The overall pattern suggests that a linear plan was perhaps the desired effect but that topographical features and creeks really determined the final outcome. In addition to the creeks, the need for a railroad spur to provide easy access for supplies and incoming soldiers also posed design problems. Colonel Dulin and Maurice Scharff chose to layout the tracks as an arc. The arc led from the Southern Railway in a southeastern direction, crossed two creeks, and curved to the north, dividing the camp.

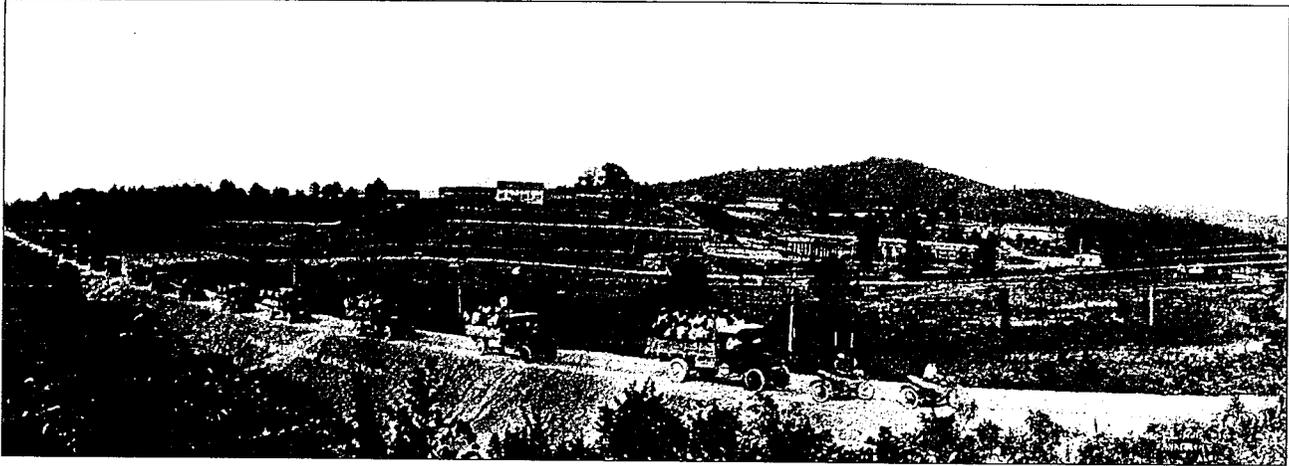
The logistics of establishing this incipient city were laboriously orchestrated by Colonel Dulin. His completion report gives a diary-like account of the first days, as he struggled with water supply, finding laborers, dealing with labor strikes, the scientific management of labor, road construction, and heavy rainfall.

“The City of Anniston is small with a population said to be in July about 18,000. There were about seventeen carpenters... and about fifty common Negro laborers available. There were no accommodations for either carpenters or laborers in Anniston; there was no means of transportation between the camp and Anniston other than vehicles traversing the country pike-road. The nearest railroad to the camp was the main line of the Southern Railway located exactly one mile from the nearest point to the southwest boundary line of the reservation. It was absolutely necessary to bring carpenters and laborers from other sections of the country and to provide quarters and mess facilities at the camp site. Accordingly, the six mess halls which had been completed at the machine gun camp under direction of the Militia Bureau were filled with workmen. These workmen were carried to the division camp site by auto trucks and wagons, there being only four auto trucks available in the City of Anniston at that time. These men constructed mess halls in advance of the letting of the contract, or in advance of the contractor taking hold of the work. As fast as these mess halls were completed they were filled with workmen... 95% of all carpenters and skilled mechanics were housed at the camp site. During the earlier stages of the work in July and up to about the 20th of August, 80% of the common negro labor was quartered at the camp, being the highest order of laborers and those used as carpenter helpers, etc. About August 31st all laborers were removed from the camp site and were requested to furnish their own quarters and board, but they were furnished transportation to and from the camp.”

Colonel Dulin, 1917

Special arrangements were made to convey laborers to and from Anniston and the camp. For the first week or so, owing to the scarcity of auto trucks, the price paid averaged between fifteen and twenty cents per trip; about August 10th an agreement was reached with various owners of auto trucks whereby labor was hauled to and from the camp at ten cents per man per trip. During the months of August and September about six hundred men were hauled daily.

Dulin's report notes that some labor trouble occurred, apparently due to the I. W. W. rumor of outbreaks of typhoid fever, yellow fever, and smallpox. Seven hundred men struck one day but were persuaded by Dulin to return to work that afternoon. Other labor problems emanated from overtime pay. Prior to the



signing of the contract, workers labored a ten hour day without overtime. This situation was corrected on July 18 when workers were placed on an eight-hour, time-and-a-half overtime basis. After the arrival of troops, the soldiers were ordered to work alongside the craftsmen and laborers. The publication of an article comparing the wages of the soldier and workman in the *Anniston Star* highlighted differences between the two groups. The disparity in wages at the time, which favored the nonmilitary, was noted, as well as the lack of time limits placed on the soldier's workday. However unfair, soldiers would be delivered by train, marched over fields, and taken to a cleared area to begin constructing their camps.

Train bring laborers into Fort McClellan. Source: Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.

Other problems stemmed from weather conditions. The Anniston area was well-watered between July 20th and August 18th; for eleven days the rain was incessant, almost completely halting the work. In addition, the volume of rain made the chert and limestone road between the camp and Anniston impassable. Loads were decreased to allow mule-drawn wagons and trucks to negotiate the muddy inclines leading to the division camp more easily, but work still bogged down. Within the first year, Dulin constructed a chert roadway, twenty feet wide and seven inches thick between the camp and Anniston. But the roadway needed replacement before the year's end. In its stead, Dulin persuaded the county and his superiors that a brick road was preferable; accordingly, a contract was let and the brick roadway built.

The railroad spur to the camp was not completed in time for most of the construction. Only one-fourth of the materials used in the camp's construction actually arrived by rail at the site; the bulk of the materials were brought in by truck or wagon on the country pike.

The camp site was lucky enough to have spring water available from the first. Box Spring had a capacity of 200,000 gallons of water per day. The crew housed the spring, fenced it, and employed "gasoline pump engine outfits" to force water into newly installed water mains in that section of the camp. The water from Box Spring was only considered a temporary measure, as city water was later furnished to the camp.

Despite all this progress, Major James Ulio, the new Division Adjutant for the 29th Infantry Division, had to write out his first General Orders for the camp sitting on a box in a vacated bungalow. In those orders, Major-General Charles G. Morton was assigned to have command over the division, itself newly formed of troops from New Jersey, Virginia, Maryland, and the District of Columbia. The first troops arrived late in August, and they and their commander received a formal welcome to Anniston. Community relations were forged with the election of a special town representative, W. P. Acker, assigned to deal with the military.

By November, all officers and enlisted men of the division, totaling 27,753 individuals, had arrived. Draftees arrived later. In Morton's own words, it took "a generous stretch of the imagination to see in this beginning the magnificent fighting unit which was to form later" (in Lane 1965:7). The history of the 29th Division, which carried the insignia identifying its members as the "Blue and Gray," indicates that training at the camp was hard. A network of trenches, dugouts, and command posts had been built to further the soldier's training. Stories indicate that fire calls and temporary moves from one place in the camp



to another to prepare the troops for what might be ahead in Europe were legion, usually occurring at night. The 29th Division remained at Camp McClellan until June 1918, when orders arrived sending the troops to France. The division took heavy casualties in the Meuse-Argonne offensive, returning stateside in May of 1919. It was deactivated later that month.

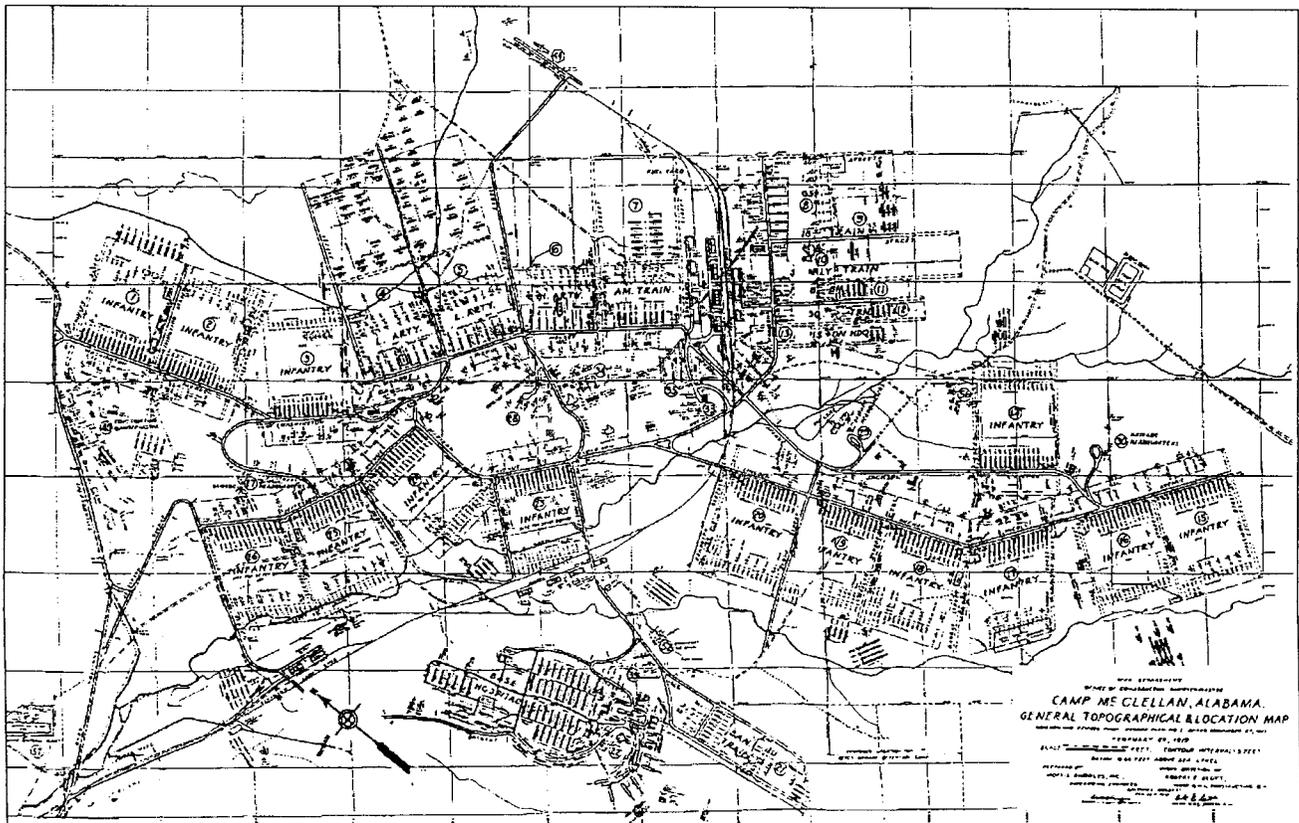
Prize Winning Polo Team, 6th Cavalry.  
Source: *Public Library of Amiston-Calhoun County.*

Other troops were also trained at the camp during World War I. In October of 1917, 190 officers and men from the 1st Separate Negro Company of Maryland arrived at the camp from Pittsburgh. At the outset, the 1st Separate Negro Company was assigned to the Horsed Section of the Ammunition Train, and then transferred to the Auxiliary Remount Depot near Anniston. Later they were sent to Camp Stuart in Newport News, Virginia, to become a part of the 372nd Infantry. In addition to this group, the 6th Division, 157th Depot Brigade, 11th and 12th Training Battalions, and the 1st, 2nd, 3rd Development Regiments were all trained at Camp McClellan during World War I.

Two historic maps contain information on the 1919 camp. A "General Topographical & Location Map" and a "General Location of U.S. Reservation and Vicinity," completed under the authority of Morris Knowles, Inc. as Supervising Engineer and Robert E. Scott, Major Q.M.C., Constructing Quartermaster, both date to February 1919. Both are credited to the Office of the Constructing Quartermaster (Major Scott was Colonel Dulin's successor).

The 1919 map showing the General Location of U.S. Reservation and Vicinity shows the camp and the surrounding geography. The Aviation Field, the Machine Gun & Rifle Ranges, Remount Depot, the Camp Sewage Plant, and the Machine Gun Camp are featured. Three springs, called Wellborne, Box, and Reeves-Truitt, are shown within the camp's boundaries, and the brick road built under Dulin's direction stretches from Anniston to the camp. In contrast, the 1919 "General Topographical and Location Map" offers greater detail about the plan

General Topographical and Location Map, Camp McClellan. Source: National Archives.

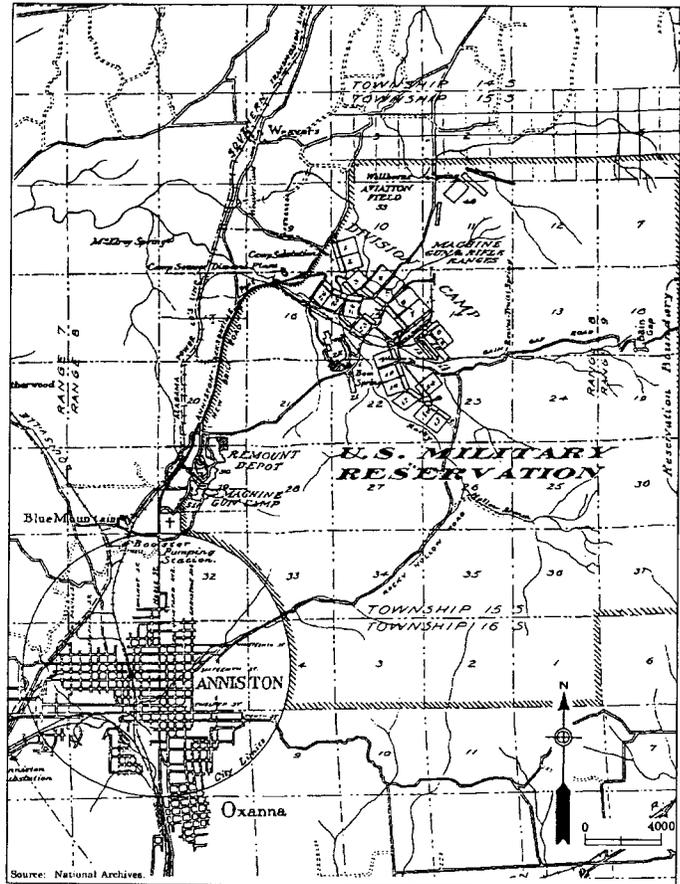


and makeup of the new community. While the building blocks of 1917 are still visible, the camp is considerably more crowded. Area previously open is laced with streets bearing presidential or military names. References to old creek beds and "canals" indicate re-channeling efforts in the creeks. Ingram Lake, a man-made lake located east of Jackson Avenue, was a new addition to the landscape in 1917. Athletic fields also appear in this sector.

By February of 1919, 1,534 buildings had been constructed at Camp McClellan. The base hospital alone included 118 buildings. Mess halls dominated as a building type, with showers without heaters and latrines following in that order. Latrines were the most impermanent of the early structures. By 1919, 374 latrines had been replaced with "lavatories." "Kitchen incinerators" were also quickly replaced with more efficient technology.

The multi-building base hospital was imposing, with single ward buildings aligned in four columns and joined by walkways. The buildings at the southern extremity of the hospital area included nurse's quarters, offices, the Red Cross building, post exchange, an "operating" building, laboratory, a mess hall, and a dental clinic. At the northernmost section, the neuropsychiatric, isolation, and officers' wards stood along with kitchens, mess halls and lavatories.

The year 1920 witnessed strong debate within the federal government as to the propriety of some of the decisions made by the Starrett



Detail from General Location of U.S. Reservation and Vicinity, 1919. Source: National Archives.

committee. This debate fueled thought as to how military construction should be conducted and under which department's direction. The Corps of Engineers, the Construction Division of the Army, and the Quartermaster Corps were all candidates for what had finally become recognized as a vital part of mobilization. In June, 1920, the Quartermaster Corps was chosen as the most proper supervisory authority, and the Construction Division of the Army was dissolved. The authors of a history of the Corps of Engineers, Fine and Remington, aptly call the 1920s "the lean years." The incredible expansion of the previous decade was cut off, particularly during the Harding Administration; permanent construction was discouraged; and maintenance on a reduced budget became the Quartermaster Corps' primary mission.

The future of the military posts of World War I rested in the hands of Secretary of War John W. Weeks. Weeks placed nine of the 1917 camps and cantonments on caretaking status to be used as training areas for the nine corps areas. Camp McClellan, slated to be used by the Fourth Corps Area, was one of the nine. (The others were Devens in Massachusetts, Dix in New Jersey, Meade in Maryland, Knox in Kentucky, Custer in Michigan, Funston in Kansas, Travis in Texas, and Lewis in Washington.) Five other cantonments were selected as home bases for certain branches. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Edgewood Arsenal, eight airfields, two general hospitals, and a score of other installations remained in the government's hands; the remainder were to be sold off.

The stringency of the cutbacks was appropriate to the mood of the twenties. The war was over, and with it, the need for a standing army. The mood of the public began to swing in the opposite direction, however, by the mid-1920s, when articles on the condition of the posts were published in the *New York Times*, *Outlook* and the *Literary Digest*. Essentially, the monies allowed for the upkeep of the posts was not sufficient and these World War I camps began to fall into disrepair.

In 1924, Secretary of War Weeks submitted to Congress a long-range plan to alleviate the problem. His plan required an expenditure of \$110 million over a ten-year period on permanent barracks, quarters, and hospitals and on updating water and sewage systems. Adequate heating and the addition of cold storage plants were also part of this reform, and if funding was available, utilitarian buildings would follow. Congress answered in 1926 with the largest appropriation since the war. Fourteen million dollars were allotted to the barracks and quarters fund; between \$400,000 and \$500,000 was put aside for hospital construction and repair; and a five-year air corps expansion program was passed.

## **ARMY POSTS FALLING IN RUIN, OFFICERS SAY**

**Governors Island and Others  
Near City Called Victims  
of False Economy.**

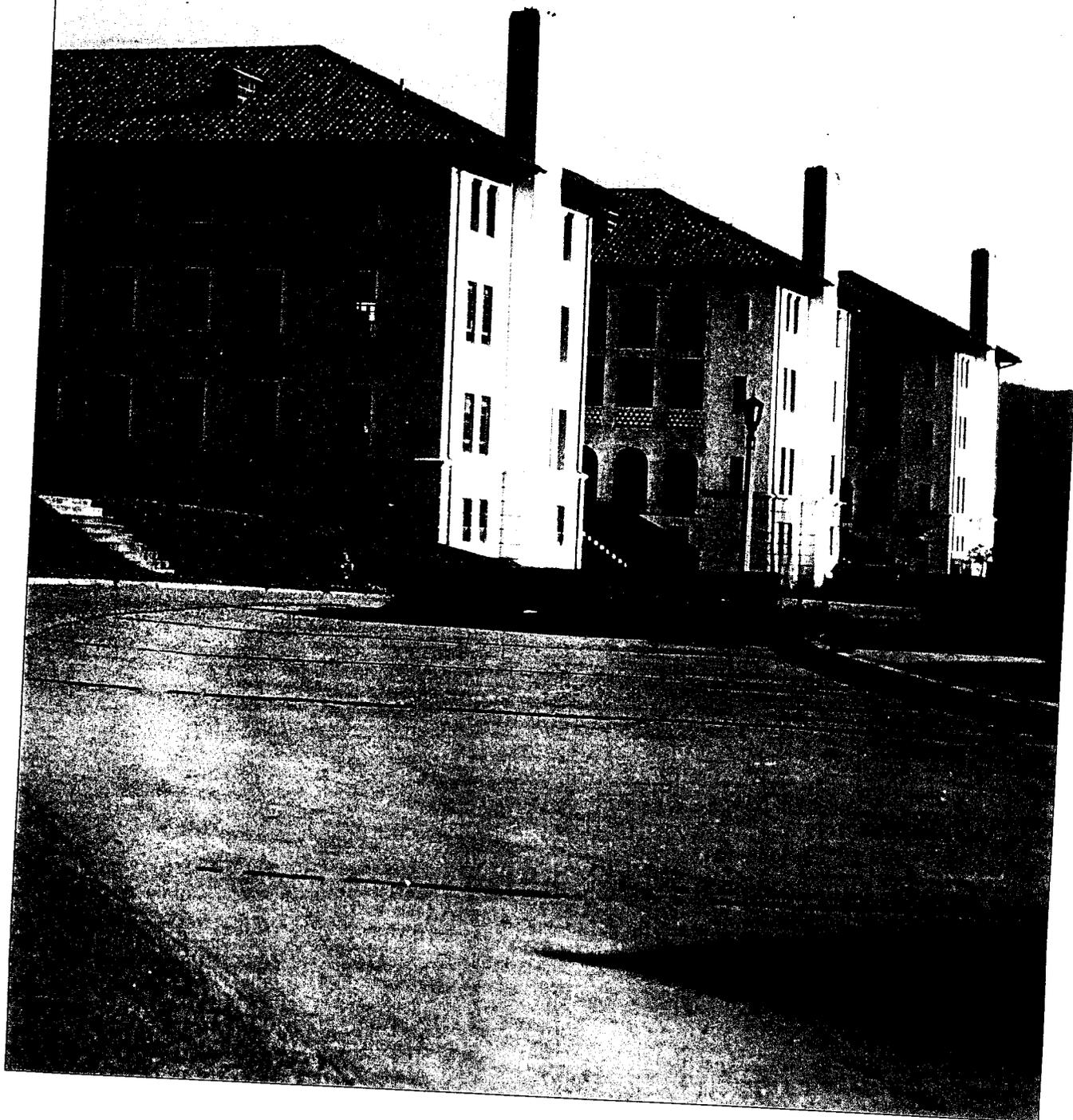
### **SOLDIERS 'CHIP IN' TO HELP**

**They Pay for Lights at One  
Camp—Fish for Driftwood  
to Repair Barracks.**

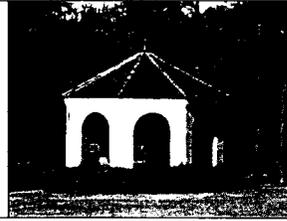
"The United States Army post at Governors Island and other posts near New York are literally rotting away for want of proper maintenance," it was asserted yesterday by Colonel F. H.

Source: *New York Times*, February 1924.

# Military Community and World War II Fort



# Chapter 7



## Building the Community, the Housing Program of the Army

Major General B. Frank Cheatham, the Quartermaster General, defined military post development under the new Housing Program of the Army. In his words, the new posts would be a "deviation from the set type of military post." His first move was to assemble a group of noted architects, including Lt. Colonel Francis B. Wheaton, Luther M. Leisenring, and First Lt. Howard B. Nurse, as well as other professionals in the field of architecture, to develop plans for the permanent buildings. These men were able to produce designs that could be cast in regional styles appropriate to the venue in which they were to be built. Thus the Georgian and Federal styles were considered appropriate for installations on the Atlantic seaboard, French Provincial for Louisiana posts, and Spanish mission for the Southeast and Southwest. Coherence in plan was achieved through advice provided by nationally recognized city planners such as George B. Ford, who was selected from the ranks of the American Institute of Architects to act as a consultant to the War Department.

The progress was applauded by all. Its success can be at least partially measured by the volume of funding, \$126 million, that Congress appropriated to the Construction Service between 1926 and 1930. Certainly one factor in the success of the program was the recruitment of talented men to fill the ranks of the Quartermaster Corps. Cheatham was the first to actively recruit West Point graduates, trying to interest capable young men in

“ As the program expanded, pleasing vistas opened before the "homeless Army." Handsome masonry buildings began to replace the unsightly tempos of World War I. Telephones, oil burners, automatic stokers, storm doors, screens, and lighted streets enhanced the amenities of life on reservations. The new Air Corps stations were to be showplace installations. New medical facilities would be the last word in hospital design. These innovations and improvements sparked a sprucing-up campaign. Station commanders started nurseries and promoted the planting of trees and shrubs. Garden clubs sprang up at almost every post ”

Lenore Fine and Jesse A. Remington,  
1972

Spanish colonial style Officers' Quarters. Source: *New South Associates*.



becoming career Corps members. Three West Point graduates from the 1929 class were persuaded, and in successive years more followed. Other talented individuals were culled from different branches of the military to serve within the Corps' Construction Division. Some of these individuals became leading figures within the military construction movement of the 1930s, as well as future Quartermaster Generals. For the Quartermaster Corps, it was truly a period of successful and healthy growth.

Fort McClellan, no longer Camp McClellan by authority of a 1929 War Department Order, was part of this new wave in military post development. The site was now considered a permanent installation; General Charles P. Summerall, head of the Citadel in Charleston and the Chief of Staff of the Army between 1926-1930, officiated at the ceremonies. Summerall had a special rapport with the Alabama camp, having negotiated its purchase in 1917 when he was head of the Artillery Training at the War College. The order spelled out that Fort McClellan would be a Regular Army post for one regiment of Infantry (1,500 officers and enlisted men) and would also have a standard layout for a summer camp with a capacity for 6,400 civilian trainees.

If General Summerall was influential in attaining permanency for the camp, the Housing Program, initially headed by Major General Cheatham and his staff, was pivotal in making that status manifest at Fort McClellan. Major General Cheatham indicated in his statement to the Congress that individual plans were being developed in 1926 for each of the posts affected by the Housing Program of the Army. Yet at that point, Fort McClellan was still Camp McClellan; it was not made a permanent fort until 1929. Cheatham's housing program began in 1927 with a \$7,020,000 budget, but Camp McClellan did not receive monies until 1929 to begin its progress toward permanency. Its entry into the program hinged on its selection as a permanent post. Hence, McClellan entered into the post improvement program two years behind

regional counterparts such as Fort Benning, Georgia; Fort Bragg, North Carolina; and Maxwell Air Field, located west of Montgomery in Alabama. The experience gained from these improvement projects as well as from other forts benefitted the newly established permanent post. McClellan's World War I heritage also affected its shape in the 1930s.

Although no plan attributed to the AIA's George Ford has been found that could be construed to be the "original" design for Fort McClellan, the deliberateness of the layout of the permanent buildings indicates strongly that such a plan did exist. Historical accounts of the fort mention that General Summerall "drew up the plans" for its development. Although Summerall was not post commander, he had a previous relationship with the camp and was in a position to comment upon the chosen design, given Cheatham's policy of planning. Hence he very well may have been a leading force for the plan chosen for the fort in the 1930s.

Rear Elevation at Post Headquarters,  
circa 1949. Source: *New South Associates*.



Ford and his cohorts took the 1917 fort and intensively developed areas of "reasonable concentration" in which buildings of similar uses were grouped. Under the new plan, the fort area was expanded, creeks channelized, and buffers established between areas. The planner pushed battalion areas beyond the creek, while maintaining the cantonment areas north of the railroad spur. The northern and southern reaches of the fort contained the training areas and cantonments and, despite every planning effort, the buildings within them were highly regimented.

Despite the success the permanent buildings enjoyed, the intensity of the Depression halted further progress. When Franklin Delano Roosevelt took office in 1933, monies set aside under the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of July 21, 1932, were impounded and military spending curtailed. The New Deal president launched two programs, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) and the Public Works Administration (PWA), to help stem unemployment. Funds diverted from military construction were channeled into these programs, which, in turn, created and sustained work for the Construction Division. The Construction Division was first asked to build 1,400 CCC camps at a pace likened to 1917. Secondly, and most importantly, \$61.4 million was allocated to military construction from the PWA funds.

The improvements made with PWA funds ranged from a chapel at Fort Meade to extensive construction at Aberdeen Proving Ground. Military construction also benefitted from monies provided through the Civil Works Administration (CWA), created in 1933. Manual labor was utilized at over 250 military posts to correct drainage or grade. This program, and the later Federal Works Administration and the Works Progress Administration, would create many jobs that benefitted construction at military posts across the United States.

The change from a well-funded housing program to public assistance channeled through New Deal social programs is well-documented at Fort McClellan. From 1933 through 1935, funding from federally assisted programs was used to construct a number of permanent buildings and post improvements. In her 1955 (unpublished) history of Fort McClellan, Major Mary C. Lane of the Women's Army Corps, states that a total of \$87,000 was spent in 1933, \$180,000 in 1934, and \$915,000 in 1935 under the relief program.

While initial permanent construction focused on housing, the projects undertaken during the 1930s that were funded by relief programs ran the gamut from quarters to a coal trestle. Specifically, the building projects included both officers' and non-commissioned officers quarters, an enlisted men's barracks, a fire station and guard house, a truck park, and a repair shop. In 1936 and 1937, WPA workers constructed the Enlisted Men's Service Club, the gymnasium, the assembly hall auditorium (Hutchinson Hall or Post Theater No.1), the main post exchange, the officer's club (now called Remington Hall), Silver Chapel, stables, wagon sheds, the regimental garage and vehicle shop, a bakery, three additional warehouses, the Quartermaster utility shop and office build-

Silver Chapel, circa 1949. Source: New South Associates.



The change from a well-funded housing program to public assistance channeled through New Deal social programs is well-documented at Fort McClellan. From 1933 through 1935, funding from federally assisted programs was used to construct a number of permanent buildings and post improvements. In her 1955 (unpublished) history of Fort McClellan, Major Mary C. Lane of the Women's Army Corps, states that a total of \$87,000 was spent in 1933, \$180,000 in 1934, and \$915,000 in 1935 under the relief program.

While initial permanent construction focused on housing, the projects undertaken during the 1930s that were funded by relief programs ran the gamut from quarters to a coal trestle. Specifically, the building projects included both officers' and non-commissioned officers quarters, an enlisted men's barracks, a fire station and guard house, a truck park, and a repair shop. In 1936 and 1937, WPA workers constructed the Enlisted Men's Service Club, the gymnasium, the assembly hall auditorium (Hutchinson Hall or Post Theater No.1), the main post exchange, the officer's club (now called Remington Hall), Silver Chapel, stables, wagon sheds, the regimental garage and vehicle shop, a bakery, three additional warehouses, the Quartermaster utility shop and office build-

Silver Chapel, circa 1949. Source: New South Associates.



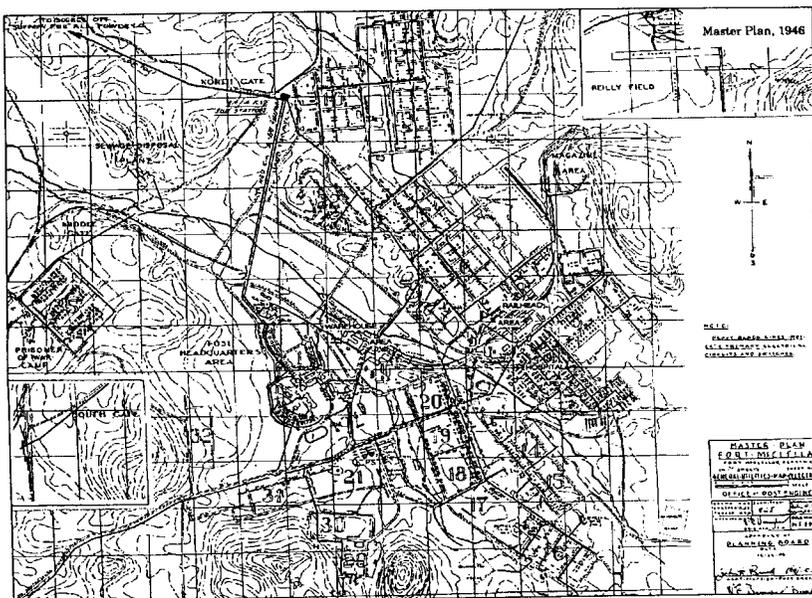
ing, ordnance magazines, a railroad spur, the coal trestle and yard, the gasoline storage system, a sewage disposal plant, the concrete reservoir and booster station, new primary and secondary roads, street lighting, a perimeter fence, a target range, and other public utilities. An estimated \$1,370,000 dollars were channeled through the WPA for new construction at Fort McClellan during that two-year period. An additional \$425,000 was expended on street improvements, additional buildings, the construction of Reilly Field, a golf course and landscaping in 1938.

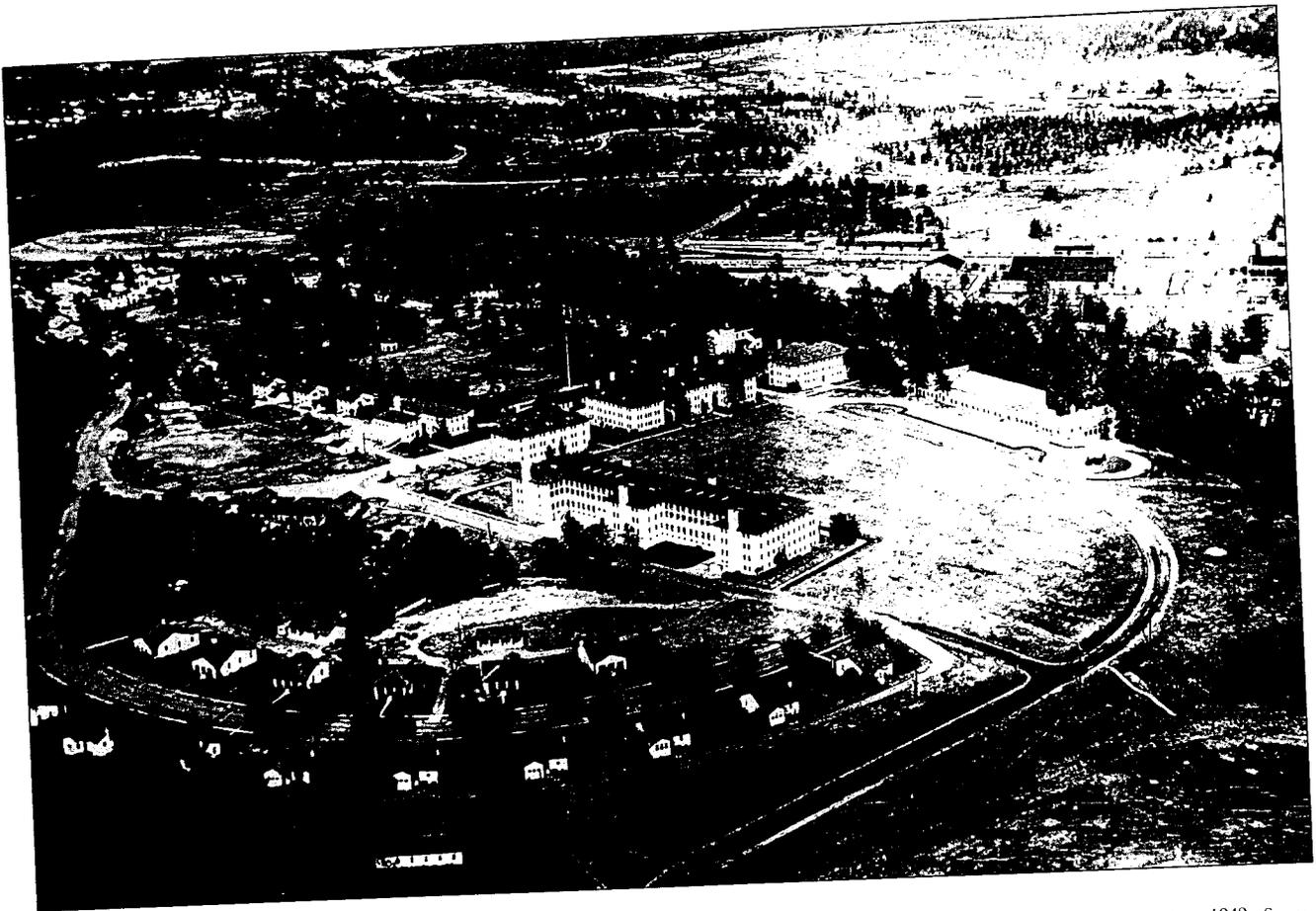
It is apparent, then, that most of the permanent structures, improvements, and other projects that defined and enhanced the post were predominantly products of Depression era relief programs. The benefit was twofold. First, the military establishment reached the goal set in the late 1920s by Major General Cheatham for post improvement and cancelled out the national disgrace that the state of army housing of the early twenties had caused. Second, the relief programs afforded work to the unemployed.

## Post Design

The post was divided into at least five areas: the Post Headquarters Area, the Warehouse Area, the Railhead Area, the

Master Plan, 1946. Source: Fort McClellan.





Hospital Area, and the Magazine Area. Historic maps shows these areas of "reasonable concentration." A 1946 map shows this plan.

Headquarters area circa 1949. Source: New South Associates.

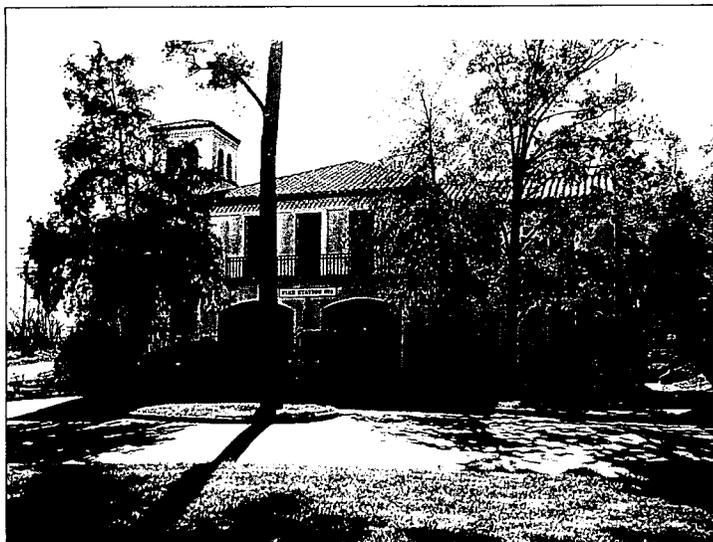
The new Post Headquarters Area was occupied by long, narrow hospital buildings in 1919. The 1930s permanent post construction layout reduced the hospital to a single building and incorporated it into the new Headquarters Area, which supplanted the hospital on the knoll. Spanish Colonial Revival architecture was the chosen architectural style. Residential in tone, imposing in its architecture and set on a rise, the post command area would become known colloquially as "the Hill." Drills and athletic fields were situated to the south and by 1937, a 9-hole golf course was in place to the northeast. Three sub-areas were included in the new arrangement: the officers' residential area, the buildings related to post command, and the N.C.O residential area. The officers' quarters lined two open areas, noted as "parks," in an elongated horse-

shoe configuration. This configuration is similar to the design, also by George Ford, for Fort Benning, Georgia. At Fort McClellan, however, this community area was smaller and blended residential use with administration.

Alleys with garages were visible behind the quarters, which were nicely buffered by distance from post traffic. Building 1, the commander's quarters, was situated on an angle almost facing Post Headquarters. This building was constructed with a circular driveway to the front door. As noted, space was left for future development along the horseshoe. By the late 1930s, the officer's quarters, contained two types of Spanish Colonial Revival residences. The Officers' Open Mess and Bachelor Officer's quarters, now the Officer's Club, were located on the curve of the horseshoe completing the officers' quarters sub-area. This sub-area combined beauty and economy in space, allowed room for future expansion and, most importantly, was organized with a sense of community.

Post Headquarters, a low, one-story building, occupied the opposite end of the axis. It was flanked on the east by Silver Chapel and on the west by the Hospital. The Post Headquarters building served as an architectural bridge between the residential architecture and the large-scale, three-story buildings that lay behind it. These large-scale buildings were the barracks, the first permanent buildings constructed (See Chapter Frontispiece). Three separate buildings, connected by a loggia, contained an Assembly Hall and a gymnasium. This group of buildings, monumental in scale, embraced a parade ground on three sides.

The third sub-area comprised the N.C.O. quarters and the Post Office building. Arranged in tiers in a semicircular formation, these homes were one-story and had alleys allowing access to multi-family garages.



Fire Station circa 1949. Source: *New South Associates*.

Another significant building in this area was the Fire Station. Also Spanish Colonial Revival in style, the fire station was situated centrally between the command area and the permanent buildings in the industrial and transportation areas. Like Post Headquarters, the fire station also had a transitional role in the architecture of the post, bridging the more functional, utilitarian areas with the style of the post command area.

Moving eastward from the Post Headquarters Area, the next building concentrations were the "Warehouse Area" and the "Railhead Area." Unlabeled but in existence between the two was a third district related to transportation. Finally, the Magazine Area was situated in isolation at the northern extremity of the railroad spur. The connection between all four was the route of the railroad spur extending from the Middle Gate, now Baltzell Gate, entrance to the Magazine area. The railroad, essential to supply materials and equipment to the fort, was the focal point of the industrial activities undertaken at Fort McClellan.

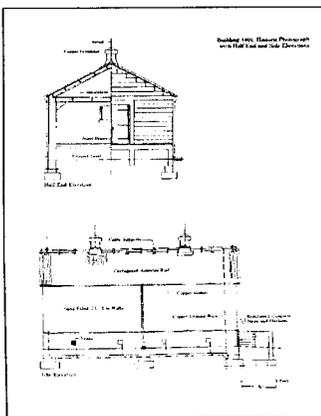
When first constructed, the railroad was the primary means used for the shipment of men, equipment and materials. Goods were transported via the "mainline" by commercial carrier and "routed" to the fort

via the spur line. With the exception of high explosive munitions, all materials and goods passed through the Warehouse Area or the Railhead Area. While the former functioned as a storage area, the latter was a distribution point. The Railhead Area was essentially a depot where supplies were unloaded and prepared for distribution or forwarding by truck or other means. Materials were inventoried, inspected, and stored in the Warehouse Area. Given its function, the Warehouse Area was a focus of permanent construction in the 1930s. Although its buildings belonged to the same generation of structures built on “the Hill,” those in the Warehouse Area were Utilitarian in style; simply constructed of brick with cast stone or concrete trim and asphalt shingle roofing, and sited in a linear fashion along the rail spur.

Lying adjacent to the warehouse area were other buildings related directly to transportation, primarily stables and garages. Like the Warehouse Area, the transportation district was furnished with permanent buildings constructed in brick and cast in Utilitarian style. Because horses were kept in this area, pasture and corrals were also part of this district.

Another area established by Scharff and Dulin and maintained for decades in the same was the Ammunition Supply Area, located at the northern end of the railroad spur.

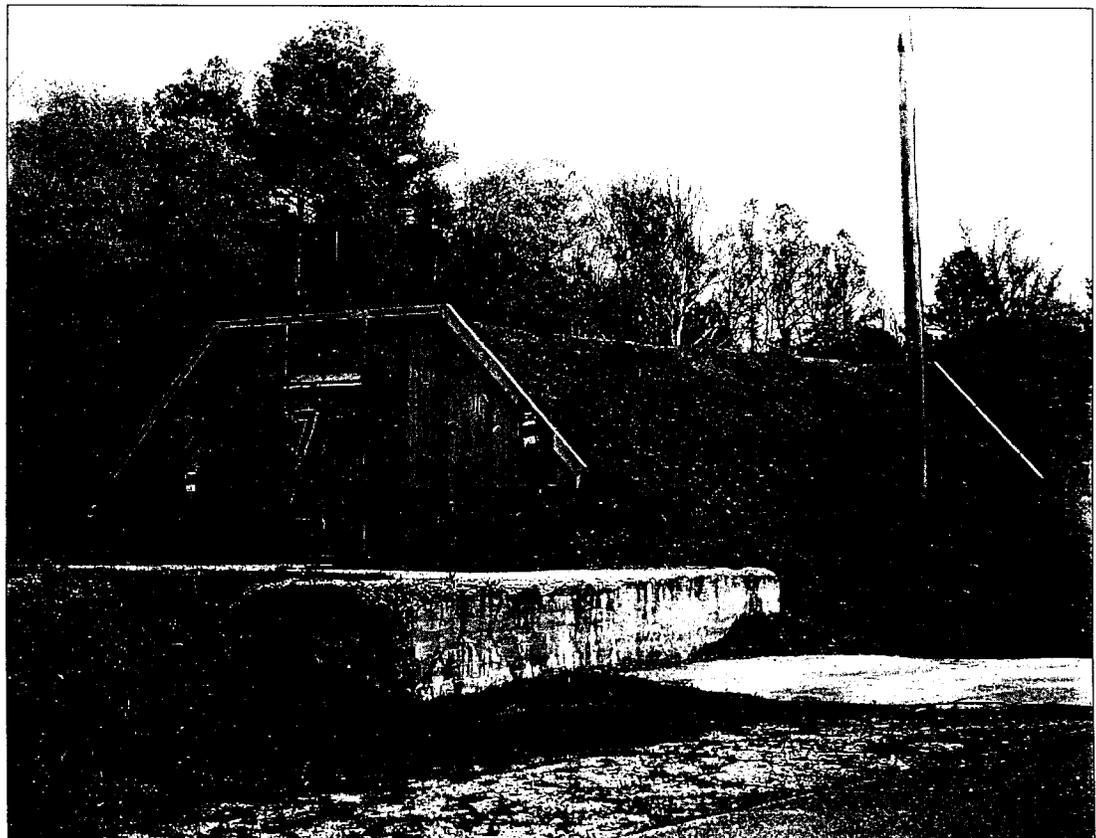
Barn-type ammunition supply building, constructed in 1919. Source: *New South Associates*.



Ammunition storage was a particular challenge for the base planners, because ammunition needed to be accessible for training but stored at some distance from populated areas in the event of accident. To this end, the Quartermaster Corps designed special buildings to provide a safe, dry, and fireproof storage environment for munitions. The early examples are barn-like in form, while later magazines are igloos. Taking its name from its semi-arched, earth-covered appearance, the igloo type magazine was an improvement in design advanced in 1928 following a

disaster in munitions storage in New Jersey. An explosion at the naval munitions factory in New Denmark, New Jersey, due to lightning destroyed most of the naval facilities and did considerable damage to the Army's adjacent Picatinny Arsenal. The advantage of the newly designed igloo magazine with its semi-circular shape was its ability to direct the explosion upward instead of outward. Later improvements included an elaborate lightning protection system which used the traditional lightning rod and the magazine's structural steel reinforcing rods to reduce the possibility of accidents. The igloo type replaced the earlier magazine types and continued to be the standard for magazine design until 1941. The wartime demands for the conservation of materials, especially steel, which had been designated a strategic material, led to design modifications and the use of alternative materials. For example, the Corbetta beehive magazine, shaped like an elliptical dome and built primarily of reinforced concrete, was built extensively during World War II. Despite the popularity of this type, none exist at Fort McClellan.

Igloo Type Ammunition Storage Building. Source: *New South Associates*.



The Railhead Area and the new Hospital Area were not furnished with permanent buildings in the late 1920s and 1930s. In 1937, the Railhead Area consisted of six unidentified rectangular structures (four north of the tracks and two south), a refrigeration plant, an office, and a coal storage facility. By 1946, the area had grown. More tracks had been added to the north of the 1937 grouping, and at least ten long rectangular structures, some with attached buildings to the rear, and an assortment of other buildings were added south of Eighteenth Street.

The Hospital Area consisted primarily of rectangular temporary buildings used as wards. A 1946 map of the area indicates over eighty buildings connected by catwalks. The remaining space was devoted to battalion housing.

The Post Garrison occupied the updated installation. The men of the 22nd Infantry Regiment were responsible for the training of Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) units, units within the Organized Reserve Corps, the annual encampment of the 32nd Infantry Division (the National Guard from Alabama), and for maintaining headquarters for District "D" of the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). The latter supervised 45 CCC camps in Alabama, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Florida.

The 22nd Infantry Regiment continued in the role of Post Garrison until 1941, when it was ordered to Fort Benning. The Fifth Division, or "Red Diamond" Division, was also stationed at Fort McClellan for winter training in 1939. This mechanized division only wintered at McClellan, engaging in intensive training during its stay.

## World War II Fort

The 1940s witnessed a second boom period for Fort McClellan directly related to world affairs as Japan expanded, France fell to

Germany, and Great Britain became increasingly vulnerable to attack. Delays in beginning mobilization ended as Roosevelt began taking steps to prepare for war. An outlay of \$175 million was allocated for the construction of coastal defense works, updating arsenals, expanding existing military installations, and creating new posts. The Selective Service Bill of 1940 was passed on the condition that the draft would commence once proper arrangements for housing, sanitation, and medical care were made for the draftees. Thus the need to house men, particularly draftees, was foremost.

A new era in caring for America's military had arrived, much like the rapid progress during World War I. Immediacy was once again key. The first camps to be prepared were Forts Jackson, Lewis, Dix, and Sill. McClellan was placed within the second tier of forts, to be made ready by October 15, 1940. Many of the eighteen sites were newly selected, unlike McClellan, whose military association dated to 1917.

For the new camps, "typicals" were used to formulate layout. The typicals were a codification of prior experience in camp layout as well as current improvements in design published by the Quartermasters' Office. Architects and engineers would then adapt the typical to local conditions and the dictums of the Corps area commanders. The typicals were probably also helpful to planners charged with expanding older posts such as Fort McClellan.

At Fort McClellan, the functional areas already developed - - namely, the Post Headquarters, Warehouse, Hospital, Railhead, and Magazine Areas - - remained intact. The areas housing the troops were situated as they were in 1937, albeit with more buildings. Units remained intact within their separate camps. Their autonomy was insured by the presence of adjacent mess halls, service clubs, and theaters. A "Civilian Village" was added between 1937 and 1946, and this

residential zone was laid out similar to the post command area. A traffic circle was also added near the firehouse, joining "Middle Gate Road" (now Baltzell), 15th Street, 20th Street, "South Gate Road," and Post Headquarters Road. Significantly, the base plan still retained the overall look of the 1917 camp, with the main areas clustered around the railroad spur while the battalion areas remained in block formation stretching to the north and south.

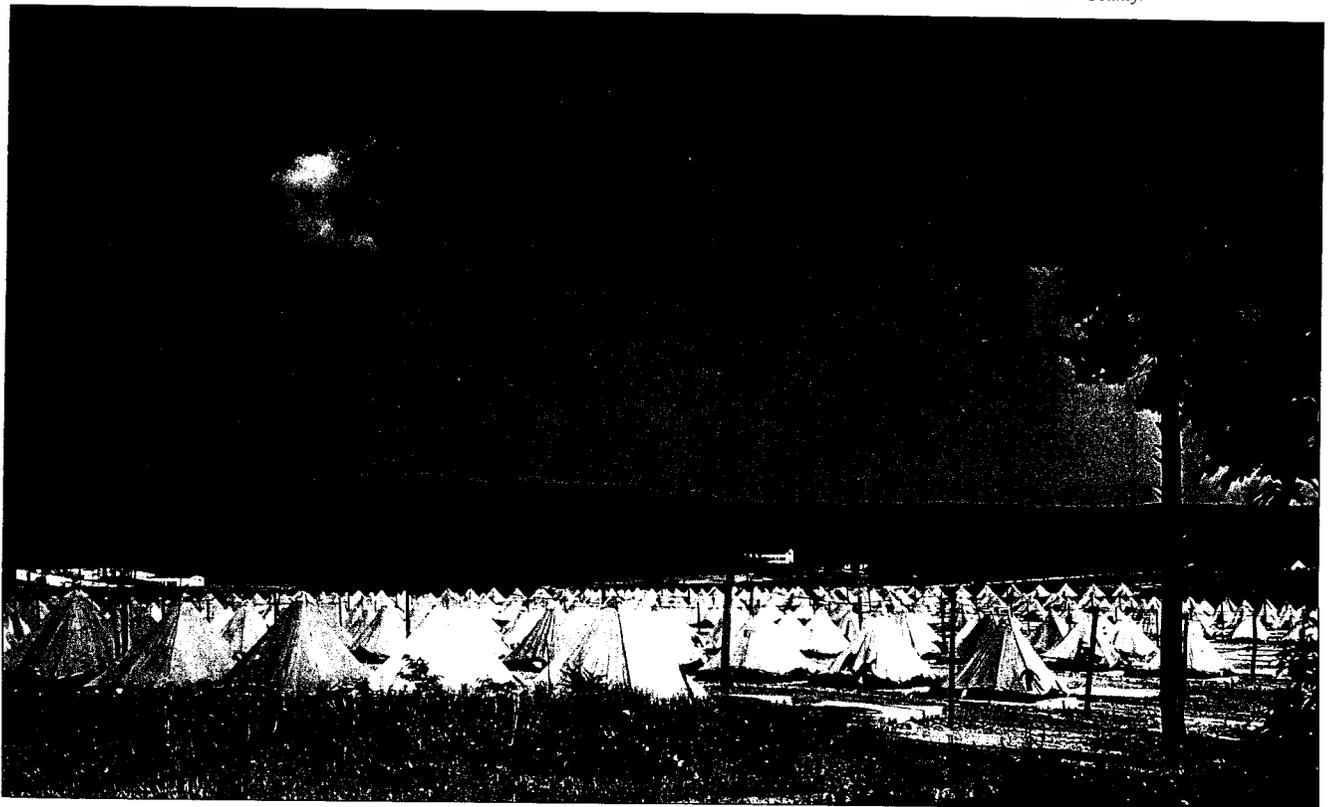
As discussed above, the permanent buildings constructed within the command area in the 1920s and 1930s have counterparts at other Army bases in the Southeast and Southwest. The expansion of the portfolio of temporary or wooden structures needed to house the army of World War II was the responsibility of the Quartermaster Corps. This entailed not only the composition of standardized plans for barracks but plans for all the other buildings needed to care for the newly inducted soldier. Mess halls, hospitals, bakeries, laundries, storehouses, shops, administration buildings, recreation halls, post exchanges, and theaters were all part of the inventory of designs created by the Quartermaster staff. While a series of standardized plans for temporary buildings known as the 600 Series had survived World War I, they were transformed many times over during World War II.

Both permanent and temporary construction took place at Fort McClellan in the 1940s to accommodate the 27th Division. This phase of construction was accomplished with \$ 6.5 million in federal funding. Two firms shared the McClellan contract for the projected construction: the Dunn Construction Company of Birmingham and John S. Hodgeson of Montgomery. The policy set by the Quartermaster's Office was to hire local or regional firms capable of meeting federal standards. Size and workload were two important criteria in the selection. Engineering skill was provided by an Atlanta firm, Weidman and Singleton, and supervision for all was supplied by Major Samuel C. MacIntyre.

An article in the Anniston Star on March 31, 1946 stated that the majority of the men of the 27th lived in tents until the summer of 1942; historic photographs confirm that this was the case. Tents dominate the scene rather than wooden buildings. In 1942, however, the men were placed in five- and fifteen-men hutments.

This generation of buildings was constructed during the tenure of Commanding Officer Colonel John L. Jenkins. Overall, the improvements included 47 miles of paved roads, 27 miles of unpaved roads, 27 warehouses, 12 shops and a small foundry, school buildings, a cold storage facility able to meet the needs of 40,000 individuals, sewage facilities for 50,000, a general hospital, new cantonments, three dormitories for civilian workers, four swimming pools, two libraries, service clubs, guest houses, 200 dayrooms, three bowling alleys, five theaters, and an amphitheater with a 12,000-person seating capacity. The size of the hospital in operation at the fort mandated the construction of four and a half miles of catwalks to negotiate the entire facility.

View of McClellan showing tentage.  
Source: *Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County.*



The post amphitheater, later overgrown and abandoned, deserves comment. Completed in June of 1943 and named the Monteith Amphitheater in 1945, the outdoor arena saw the likes of Joe E. Lewis in a boxing competition and a performance by Percy Grainger, as well as a host of other shows.

By the close of the World War II, \$17 million were expended to further this generation of construction. at Fort McClellan. In addition, the fort was expanded to the east and west to provide more advantageous training facilities for the 27th Division. A 22,168-acre tract, first called the Morrisville Maneuvering Area and later Pelham Range, was purchased for \$675,000 and used for artillery, tank, and heavy mortar firing and as a bivouac area. This purchase entailed the relocation of 200 families of the town of Peaceburg as well as a number of homesteaders who had farmed along Cane Creek and its tributaries. On the east, a corridor of land was acquired to connect the post with Talladega National Park, allowing the military access to the forest for training maneuvers.

The 27th Division, a National Guard unit from New York, was the first to enjoy the expanded post. This division, composed of 1,200 men and officers, was lead by Major General William N. Haskell. Their training, devised by the War Department, was staged in three levels. First was a 16-week basic training course, followed by combat training on a division level emphasizing cooperation between infantry, artillery, and air corps branches. The final phase was devoted to actual field maneuvers.

The success of the first phase of training was actually tested at Fort McClellan. Under the auspices of several high-ranking military officials. Major General Frederic H. Smith, Commanding General, VII Corps, conducted the test while Lt. General Lear, Commanding General, Second Army, and Major General Leslie McNair, General Headquarters,

Washington, D.C., observed. As it was the first of its kind, the testing process took on national significance. The 27th passed admirably and soon began the more detailed training within the set regime. The field maneuvers involved in the last stage of training were held in Tennessee, where the participating armies met in a mock battle. Capturing General Haskell or General George S. Patton Jr., commander of the Second Armored Division during the war games, guaranteed not only the success of the operation, but also a small cash award, as each of the two World War I veterans posted money for the other's capture.

As the 27th Division began to settle into the local environment, they and the city of Anniston began a close and harmonious relationship. Articles published in the *Anniston Star* in 1941, for example, herald the return of the 27th from maneuvers and announce a public dance in their honor on Main Street, exclaiming happily "A Yankee army will invade Anniston tonight." Not to be outshone, the Anniston Chamber of Commerce sent individual invitations to Anniston women; cars were hired to ferry women from Birmingham-Southern College and Jacksonville State Teacher's College to the gala (*Anniston Star*, October 8, 1941). Vaudeville shows and boxing events were also scheduled to hold the interests of the servicemen. An opinion piece titled "The Army's War on Vice," published in the March issue of *American Magazine* and excerpted for publication in the local papers, also notes the special rapport that Annistonians and Fort McClellan had for one another.

This harmonious relationship was interrupted after the attack on Pearl Harbor. The 27th Division was ordered to an "unknown destination" on December 19, 1941. They arrived in Hawaii on May 21, 1942. The 27th fought in the Pacific theater of war until 1945, and participated in the occupation of Japan.

“ If conditions around Benning were the worst which I encountered on my tour, those at Fort McClellan, which lies 110 miles north of Fort Benning at Anniston, Ala., were probably the best. Here the 27th Division, made up of New York National Guard units and selectees, is training, and the co-operation between civilian and military authorities seems to have reached its happiest fruition. Churches in Anniston have provided clubrooms for the soldiers, the troops have hired their own hostesses to arrange entertainment for them in town.

This does not mean that all was sweetness and light at Anniston. The county is dry and, as a result, there is bootlegging. Vice has been driven out of town and, consequently, has spread somewhat to roadside honky-tonks. Yet, on the whole, the enlisted men with whom I talked in Anniston seemed pleased with their surroundings, the civilians appeared happy to have them, and I saw less license than I did elsewhere.”

Anniston Times, August 6, 1941

The Branch Immaterial Replacement Training Center (BIRTC) replaced the 27th Division at McClellan. It was one of two such units during the early days of mobilization, it was actually an experiment in training centers. Recruits received eight weeks of basic training, including rifle marksmanship, close and extended order drill, field hygiene and sanitation, care of equipment, military courtesy and discipline, and defense against chemical, air and mechanized attacks. At ease with this set of military information, recruits would then be sent to combat units for training or to a special branch of the Army if their civilian skills warranted such a selection.

In 1943, the BIRTC was replaced by the Infantry Replacement Training Center (IRTC). The IRTC elongated the training period to seventeen weeks with combat training confined to the last eight weeks. During the first months of IRTC's existence, troops were sent to additional combat training areas after their training at Fort McClellan. However, once the program was established, trainees went immediately into combat positions. The training they received while at McClellan included infiltration courses, training within simulated urban areas, and overhead artillery fire, as well as experiencing the movement of tanks over foxholes built by the trainees. Geared toward the war in Europe, the accouterments and tactics taught were changed after the end of the war with Germany. The site-specific problems of the Pacific theater took precedence, and training courses in tropical diseases were held. In its final transformation at the close of the war the program began to prepare the soldiers for occupation duty rather than combat. IRTC was phased out at Fort McClellan in 1946 when it was replaced by the Recruit Training Center (RTC).

After the 27th Division left, Fort McClellan had the distinction of acting as headquarters for the 92nd Division, the Army's second African-American division, activated on October 15, 1942. At least

6,500 men from the 92nd were trained at McClellan, while others from that division were trained at Camps Robinson, Atterbury, and Breckenridge. Both the 92nd and 93rd Infantry Division were survivors of frontline combat during World War I; moreover, the 93rd had served with distinction with the French forces. Despite this track record, the Army still held rigidly to a segregationist policy, a legacy of World War I. This policy came under fire as civil rights leaders began to take the Army to task. World War II brought into focus many of the stumbling blocks in the path of integration, and the White House, civil rights groups, and the military debated over how to enable the African American soldier to participate fully within the American military.

Regardless of the talk at the top of the political and military hierarchy, most African American soldiers who served during World War II were housed and taken care of in separate facilities from white soldiers. The men of the 92nd remained at McClellan until 1943. They were first moved to Arizona, then later ordered overseas to the Europe where the division fought in both the North Apennines and the Po Valley campaigns in Italy. The 92nd Division was deactivated in 1945.

Other groups housed on the post included the station complement which tripled in number during World War II. In addition, the post complement included two detachments of Women's Army Corps. The women in these detachments acted in administrative and clerical roles at the Post Headquarters, handled the post motor pool, and worked in the bakeries, service clubs, mess, and supply. Women in the corps were afforded housing considered "separate but better" than that given to male soldiers. The essential WAC barrack was known as the converted Theater of War barrack. The early housing for the WACs was replaced in 1955 as Fort McClellan became the center for all WAC training and the first permanent home of the WAC since the group's organization in 1942.

The Prisoner of War (POW) camp established at Fort McClellan in June of 1943 also figures significantly in the history of the base. Initially, the U.S. government had agreed to handle 50,000 prisoners then stationed in England, but with the North African campaign ongoing, camps were needed to accommodate a greater number of prisoners.

Thirty POW camps were built in 1942 and others followed. McClellan's camp was completed in May of 1943. Established west of the Headquarters area and south of "Middle Gate," the camp was laid out in three sections, with rows of barracks in each section. The camp was essentially self-contained, featuring kitchens, orderly rooms, dayrooms, dispensaries, a library, a reading room, chapel, open air stage, and athletic fields.

Shortly after receiving its first prisoners, the camp was visited by Edward Shannahan, Captain, C.M.P. of the Provost Marshall's Office. His report noted the presence of two officers and 3,002 enlisted men, housed in barracks or "Caribbean type buildings" measuring 20' by 40'. Twenty men inhabited one barrack. A similar inspection occurring in July

1945 enumerated seven officers, 889 non-commissioned officers, and 1,650 enlisted men.



POW murals in Remington Hall



By mid-1944 German POWs had become a significant part of the labor pool at most of the army bases where they were interned. Their entry into the workforce freed up an already diminished corps of American soldiers and other support staff who were much needed elsewhere. While military installations had first claim on the POW's labor, they could also be contracted out to work in the agricultural and industrial sectors. Some of the men interned at McClellan were involved with local employers who contracted for their labor. In their off hours and in jobs assigned to them on post, POWs created a substantial legacy at Fort McClellan in masonry and art as well as more invisible improvements. Two hundred prisoners were detailed daily for excavation, drainage, and clearing operations on the main post; 170 were involved with food preparation; and others worked on vehicles on post. *The Fort McClellan News* on April 28, 1980, cited numerous examples of stonework, including stone walls, chimneys, a patio built behind the old Recreation Center, drainage ditches, and landscaping as featuring POW handiwork. The carved bar at the Officer's Club and the exceptional murals which dress the club's walls are also credited to POWs.

It is unfortunate that the names of the men who contributed to changing the face of the fort are unknown, much like their WPA predecessors who helped to create the permanent buildings that dominate the hill. While wage scales are the only official record documenting the participation of the latter, official lists noting POWs former livelihood give some information on some of the individuals. While a 1943 POW Occupational Summary noted the existence of four artists, three stonecutters, seven woodworkers, 13 stonemasons, and one

Edouard Patte, a Red Cross Inspector, to Fort McClellan's Internment Camp described the activities of the men interned in 1944:

“The country was covered with snow. I called the Post, and the Commander was kind enough to send an army car to bring me to his headquarters. I had the most interesting conversation with Lt. Col. Schmidt, who controls the large POW camp and the only sub-camp left. Since my last visit 4 barracks were set aside as art studios. Within them are working a few painters, sculptors, toy-makers and handicraft addicts who do some commendable work. Those little studios with self-made benches, old canvas frames, tin cans full of red, blue, yellow, black and white, with paintings of European landscapes, of marines, of winter scenes, of still nature, cheeses, sausages and beer, of glorious bouquets of geranium, with portraits of soldiers, or arabs, of nude women or of a child offer a striking resemblance to the Montparnesse Penthouse. I ignored whether a would-be Picasso is among the POW's but I do know that you will find amidst them sincere artists who have found painting, drawing and sculpturing the best outlet for their inner force.

With great understanding Col. Schmidt has helped those men in setting some space, in ordering materials and equipment, and in attempting to secure in the various canteens of the Fort a ready market for the finished work. Weaving, leather work, wood carving absorb the time of 120 men in special workshops...

The camp paper “Die Oasew”, printed every week but due to lack of paper now only once a month.”

Edouard Patte

sculptor, it did not associate occupations with prisoners names. The camp at Fort McClellan not only acted as the processing center for all prisoners interned in the Alabama camps, but was the last camp to be deactivated, on April 10, 1946.

### The Post-War Fort

With the cessation of war with Japan, the number of trainees at Fort McClellan diminished and a corresponding reduction took place within the post complement. The WAC detachments were deactivated in 1945 and early 1946. The lean years following World War I were repeated after the Second World War as well, when a \$2 billion budget cut was applied to Army appropriations. In response to the cuts, Fort McClellan was placed on inactive status and remained on inactive status despite all the pressure Alabama politicians tried to apply. Alabama's Congressional representatives even went so far as to invite Dwight D. Eisenhower, then Chief of the Staff, U.S. Army, to review the situation. On his visit, Eisenhower would admit that McClellan was a "jewel among Army installations," but he firmly supported the cut, noting that "sometimes jewels must go when bread and meat are necessary".

This picture changed by 1950, as Fort McClellan was restored to active status under the leadership of Brigadier General Theodore R. Wessels. The initial idea was to use the fort for National Guard training once again; to that end, the 44th Engineer Construction Battalion was ordered to McClellan to begin preparations. With the onset of the war in Korea, the 44th was ordered to the Far East Command before completing the mission at Fort McClellan. The job then fell into the hands of the past commander, General Wessels. With \$10 million in funding, he tackled the job with enthusiasm, restoring the parade grounds, ranges and lawns and earning him the name, "Father of the New Fort McClellan."

While political persuasion was useless in 1947, the situation was reversed in 1951, when the Army reactivated the fort to operate the Chemical Corps School, later the U.S. Army Chemical Center and School. Funding was appropriated to build new facilities for the school; these new facilities were completed in 1954. The new Center offered eight weeks of basic training, followed by a similar stretch devoted to chemical training involving the operation of smoke generators, flame throwers, decontamination procedures, and chemical warfare protection.

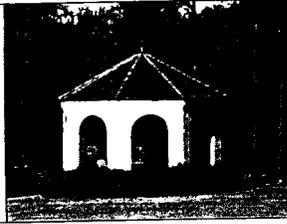
Fort McClellan's hospital was also refurbished to focus on the care of chest diseases, becoming known as the Specialized Treatment Center of the Third Army Area. The health facility functioned until 1955, when it was closed and the patients transferred. Another newcomer, the Women's Army Corps Center, was established in 1954. As discussed above, the WAC center acted as the receiving, processing, and training center for all female inductees to its service. Civilian summer training was also practiced at the fort in the early 1950s.

The rebirth of fort McClellan was shortlived, however. Both the U.S. Army Chemical Center and School and the WAC Center were closed in the 1970s. Once again, Alabama politicians began to petition Washington for the fort to remain open, and once again, they were successful. The Army moved the Military Police School to Anniston from Fort Gordon in 1975, and the U.S. Army Chemical School was relocated to Anniston in 1979, assuring the survival of Fort McClellan at that time.

# A Sense of Place and Time



# Chapter 8



Fort McClellan's past is a complex microcosm of national and local historic events. The rural areas acquired for the National Guard Camp in 1917 and Pelham Range had been used by prehistoric peoples, possibly crossed by explorers, tended by historic Native American groups, and farmed and mined by Euroamerican colonists and African-American slaves. The impression of these cultures has been left in their documents, artifacts, photographs, buildings, and archaeological sites. Many of these have been shown to attest to the area's rich pre-military past.

The city of Anniston has also been a strong player in the region's historical development. Its nineteenth-century beginnings as a company town were rooted in the iron industry. Orchestrated by the Noble family, the city was considered a premier example of a New South City. The industrialists and businessmen who settled there took part in establishing a new model city in 1917, called Camp McClellan.

From the outset, Camp McClellan was a joint venture between the military and the public. Anniston entrepreneurs and area farmers joined with military engineers and Construction Quartermasters in a vision of economic gain. This combined vision helped create a new landscape within northern Alabama that expanded in the decades between the world wars. Using new ideas learned from civil architects and planners that combined efficiency with beauty, the posts of this generation were attractive military communities that remain unparalleled in later military architecture. Fort McClellan, once described by President Eisenhower as a jewel among military bases, is an excellent example of this generation of posts. Three proposed National Register Historic Districts celebrate the historic character of its buildings and its setting.

Finally, Fort McClellan possesses a strong sense of place and time. Its military history extends from the Great War to the present, providing a timeline of national and military events that span the twentieth century. It has witnessed the introduction of the automobile, the outbreak of two world wars and their respective mobilizations, and innovations in communications and weaponry unfathomed by the Anniston farmers who sold their farms to the government in 1917. It has had training roles in subsequent wars and has acted as the U.S. Army's Chemical School since 1979. While its history is again in transition, its sense of place remains.

## References and Suggested Reading

### *Alabama Reporter*

1844 Published November 7, 1844. On file, Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.

### Alabama State Gazetteer and Business Directory

1887 On file, Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.

### Anderson, David. G. and J. W. Joseph

1988 *Prehistory and History Along the Upper Savannah River: Technical Synthesis of Cultural Resources Investigations, Richard B. Russell Reservoir.* Russell Papers. National Park Service, Atlanta.

### *Anniston Star*

1941- News clippings, March 31 and October 8. Vertical file. Public Library of 1946 Anniston- Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama

### Anniston Times

1941 News clipping, Vertical File. Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.

### Armes, Ethel

1973 *The Story of Coal and Iron in Alabama.* Arno Press, New York.

### *Atlanta Constitution*

1883 News clipping, June 10, 1883. Vertical File. Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.

### Bartram, William

1955 *Travels of William Bartram.* edited by M. V. Doren. Dover Publishers, New York.

### Bense, Judith A.

1994 *Archaeology of the Southeastern United States.* Academic Press, San Diego.

- Brose, David S.  
 1991 *Yesterday's River: The Archaeology of 10,000 Years Along the Tennessee-Tombigbee Waterway*. U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile District.
- Cambron, J. W. and D. C. Hulse  
 1975 *Handbook of Alabama Archaeology, Part I, Point Types*, Revised edition edited by David L. DeJarnette. Archaeological Research Association of Alabama, University of Alabama.
- Chapman, Jefferson  
 1985 *Tellico Archaeology*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville.
- Cotterill, R. S.  
 1954 *The Corps of Engineers: Construction in the United States*. In *The United States in World War II: The Technical Services*. Center for Military History, Washington, D. C.
- Crowell, Benedict  
 1919 *America's Munitions, 1917-1918*. Washington D.C.
- Davis, Major George B, Leslie J. Perry, Joseph W. Kirkley  
 1978 *Official Military Atlas of the Civil War*. Arno Press, New York
- De Bow, J.D.  
 1966 *The Industrial Resources Statistics, Etc. of the U.S. and More Specifically of the Southern and Western States, Vol. 1 (1854)*. Third Edition. Augustus M. Kelly, New York.
- Dulin, Colonel Charles  
 1917 *Completion Report for Camp McClellan, Anniston, Alabama*. Issued December 10, 1917. National Archives, Suitland, Maryland
- Edwards, A.D.  
 1941 *Economic and Social History of Benton County, Alabama*. Unpublished M.A. thesis. Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.

- Fine, L. and J. A. Remington  
1989 *The Corps of Engineers: Construction in the United States. In The United States in World War II: The Technical Services.* Center for Military History, Washington, D. C.
- Fretwell, M. E.  
1954 *Benjamin Hawkins in the Chattahoochee Valley: 1798.* Valley Historical Association Bulletin 1. West Point, Georgia.
- Fundaburk, Emma Lila and Mary Douglass Fundaburk Foreman  
1957 *Sun, Circles, and Human Hands.* Published by Emma Lila Fundaburk, Luverne, Alabama.
- Garrett, William  
1970 *Settlers from Northeast Alabama.* Northeast Alabama Genealogical Society, Gadsden, Alabama.
- Gates, G. H.  
1978 *The Model City of the New South, Anniston, Alabama.* The Strode Publishers, Inc. Huntsville, Alabama.
- Griffin, J. W.  
1974 *Investigations in Russell Cave. National Park Service Publications in Archaeology 13.*
- Hawkins, B.  
1974 *A Combination of "A Sketch of the Creek Country in the Years 1798 and 1799" and "Letters of Benjamin Hawkins 1796-1806."* The Reprint Company, Spartanburg, South Carolina.
- Henson, Bart and John Martz  
1979 *Alabama's Aboriginal Rock Art.* Alabama Historical Commission, Montgomery.
- Holstein, H. O. and K. Little  
1985 *An Archaeological Pedestrian Survey of Portions of Northeast Alabama. Report submitted to the Alabama Historical Commission.* Jacksonville State University Archaeological Resource Laboratory, Jacksonville State University.

- 1985 Preliminary Investigations into Stone Mound Complexes in Northeast Alabama. *Journal of Alabama Archaeology* 31(2).
- Hudson, Charles  
 1976 *The Southeastern Indians*. The University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville, Tennessee.
- Lane, Major Mary. C.  
 1955 *History of Fort McClellan*. Unpublished Mss. Fort McClellan, Environmental Office.
- Lesley, J. P.  
 1859 *The Iron Manufacturer's Guide*. The American Iron Association, Pennsylvania.
- Milanich, Jerald T. and Susan Milbrath  
 1989 *First Encounters: Spanish Explorations in the Caribbean and the United States, 1492-1570*. The University of Florida Press, Gainesville.
- Morgan, Tee  
 1990 *Annie's Town. A Picture History of Anniston, Alabama 1880-1940*. Higginbotham, Inc., Anniston, Alabama.
- New York Times  
 1924 *Army Posts Falling Into Ruin*, Tuesday, February 25.
- Pate, Edouard  
 1944 Enemy POW Information Bureau Inspection and Field Reports. National Archives, Record Group 389, Suitland, Maryland.
- Reed, Mary Beth, William R. Henry, and J. W. Joseph  
 1993 "The Military Showplace of the South," *Fort McClellan, Alabama: A Historic Building Inventory*. U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile District.
- Reed, Mary Beth, Charles E. Cantley, G. Ishmael Williams, and J. W. Joseph  
 1993 *Fort McClellan: A Cultural Resources Overview*. U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, Mobile District.

- Rifkind, C  
1980 *A Field Guide to American Architecture*. Bonanza Books, New York.
- Robinson, Bessie Coleman  
n.d. Collection on file at Alabama Room, Public Library of Anniston-Calhoun County, Anniston, Alabama.
- Smith, B. D.  
1985 "*Mississippian Patterns of Subsistence and Settlement*" in *Alabama and the Borderlands from Prehistory to Statehood*. Edited by R.R. Badger and L.A. Clayton. The University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.
- Smith, Marvin T.  
1987 "Archaeology of the Aboriginal Culture Change in the Interior Southeast: Depopulation during the Early Historic Period." In *First Encounters: Spanish Explorations in the Caribbean and the United States, 1492-1570*. edited by Jerald T. Milanich and Susan Milbrath. University of Florida Press, Gainesville.
- Walker, E. B.  
1988 "German P.O.W.s" *Alabama Heritage*, No. 7.
- Walthall, J. A.  
1980 *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast: Archaeology of Alabama and the Middle South*. The University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa, Alabama.
- Wasch, D. and P. Busch  
1989 *World War II Temporary Structures: the U. S. Army*, compiled by John A. Burns. National Park Service, Washington, D. C.
- Wilson, E. M.  
1975 *Alabama Folk Houses*. Alabama Historical Commission, Montgomery, Alabama.