

PREHISTORIC HUNTERS AND GATHERERS: KENTUCKY'S FIRST PIONEERS

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Kentucky Archaeological Survey
(jointly administered by
the Kentucky Heritage Council and the
University of Kentucky Department of Anthropology)
Education Series Number Three
Lexington, Kentucky
1998

Although this booklet draws on Paleoindian research that archaeologists have carried out in Kentucky for over thirty years, it focuses particularly on the results of doctoral research carried out recently in the mountainous portions of Cumberland and Clinton counties. This research was sponsored in part by the National Science Foundation. The goal of this research was to find out when humans first began to live in the Appalachians and why Kentucky's first inhabitants avoided them. Traditional explanations reference aspects of the region's paleo-environment and modern cultural factors. Yet, results of this research have shown that the process of early colonization and the routes by which the earliest peoples arrived in the Appalachians were just as important.

The authors would like to extend their sincerest thanks to Dale Cross, Beldon Allen, Preston Riddle, Doc Young, Clint Carter, Terry Percy, Don Cross, Doris Cary and to other southeastern/south-central Kentucky citizens. These individuals permitted access to their property and shared knowledge of their sites and property. The research upon which this booklet is based would not have been possible without their gracious assistance.

We also would like to thank Tom D. Dillehay of the University of Kentucky, Dennis Stanford of the Smithsonian Institution, C. Vance Haynes of the University of Arizona, David G. Anderson of the National Park Service, Kenneth B. Tankersley of Kent State University, and the many other professional archaeologists who provided support and advice during the project. The numerous professionals, students, and volunteers who served as field and laboratory workers from 1995 through 1998 deserve special mention for having worked so hard to collect and process the artifacts on which the research and this booklet are based.

The preparation of this booklet would not have been possible without the assistance of Ed Winkle, Barbara Gortman, Jennifer Harr, and David Pollack. Thanks also go to Kathy Lane, Leslie Mudd, Thomas N. Sanders, Kary L. Stacklebeck, and Stephanie Tharp for their editorial comments.

Jimmy A. Railey's line drawings of early hunter-gatherer lifeways and spear points were taken from the Kentucky Heritage Council's Kentucky Before Boone poster. The picture on page 5, prepared by William M. Melvin, is used with the permission of the Kentucky Historical Society. The picture on page 11, also by William M. Melvin, is taken from the Kentucky Archaeological Survey's booklet, Mute Stones Speak.

This publication was funded by grants from the Kentucky Heritage Council and the University of Kentucky.

Cover Illustration: Early Paleoindian colonizers arrive in western Kentucky.

Who Were the First Americans?

History books of the early 1900s taught that Christopher Columbus discovered America in 1492. Later, students learned that a Viking named Leif Ericson was the first person to set foot in North America around A.D. 1000.

But during the 1930s, archaeologists working on the southern plains of New Mexico and Colorado began to challenge both ideas. They found spear points with the bones of extinct mammals at prehistoric *kill sites* (places where people had killed large numbers of animals). This proved that prehistoric people had lived in the region and hunted these animals near the end of the last Ice Age over 12,000 years ago.

Today, thanks to the research archaeologists have carried out at sites all over North America, we can identify the first Americans. They were

hunting-and-gathering peoples who moved eastward into North America from Asia. They arrived thousands of years before European explorers ever dreamed of a “New World.”

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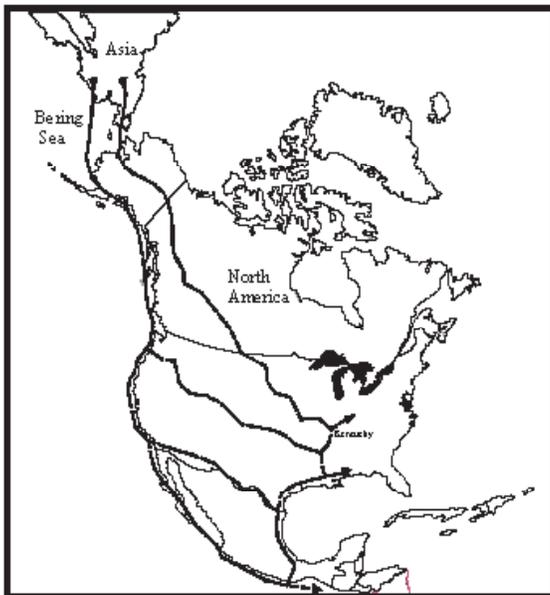
What was North America like back then and how did these people get here? During the last Ice Age, glaciers covered large sections of land, including almost all of what is now Canada and much of the northern United States. At their greatest extent, these glaciers reached as far south as Boone County in northern Kentucky.

Much of the world’s water was frozen in these huge glaciers and in the polar ice caps. This made sea level about 300 feet lower than that of today. Because sea level was lower, large areas

of dry land existed then where only water is present now. Scientists call the area that once linked Siberia and Alaska the Bering Land Bridge, or *Beringia*.

Archaeologists think the first people, who they call Early Paleoindians, came to North America sometime before 13,000 years ago. Some groups may have arrived on

General routes by which the first Americans colonized North America.

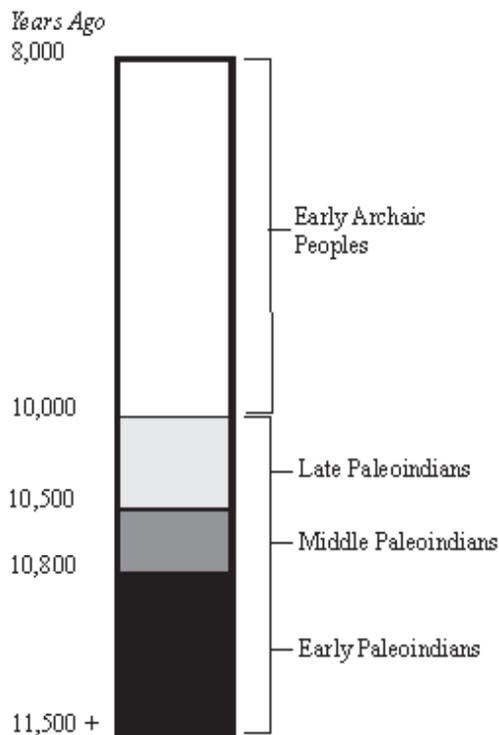


foot by following migratory animals across Beringia. Others could have come by boat as they hunted sea mammals along Beringia's coast. Either way, the Early Paleoindians did not know that they were the first humans to set foot in a new land.

Once on the North American continent, some of these early colonists likely followed the Pacific Coast southward. Others traveled inland, following the rivers southward and eastward. These inland travelers settled beyond the glaciers' edge in the warmer climates of the southern portions of North America.

In the west, Early Paleoindians found a place much wetter and greener than today's arid landscape. East of the Mississippi River, they found mainly a spruce and northern pine parkland. This was a patchwork landscape of evergreen tree stands and grasslands, similar to parts of Canada today. Along the Gulf Coast, temperate (warmer-climate) oak and hickory forests grew, similar to those of Kentucky today. Large Ice-Age megafauna (now extinct animals such as mammoths, mastodons, and giant bison, bear, and ground sloth) lived in North America at this time. So, too, did other cold climate mammals, like caribou, elk, horses, antelope, and deer. These animals lived in small, widely scattered groups, or in large migratory herds that moved long distances between feeding grounds.

Beginning about 12,000 years ago, the Ice Age came to a close as the



Timeline showing Paleoindian and Early Archaic occupations of Kentucky.

earth began to warm-up. The melting glaciers began their northward retreat. Major and sometimes rapid environmental changes took place. These changes were part of a complex process: they did not occur all at once nor did they take place uniformly. Human colonization and settlement of eastern North America, including Kentucky, took place during this period of great environmental change.

The spruce and pine parklands moved northward. The Gulf Coast forests of oak and hickory moved northward, too, replacing the parklands. For over a thousand years, the landscape was a mixture of Canadian-like spruce and pine parklands and today's oak and

hickory forests.

Some Early Paleoindian groups chose to follow the Ice Age animals of the parklands. Other groups chose to remain in the south.

Archaeologists think that early hunter-gatherers colonized North America by leap-frogging into new areas from their home bases, leaving unoccupied areas in-between. They think that these early colonists traveled along major river ways instead of moving across the landscape uniformly.

Between 10,800 and 10,500 years ago, Middle Paleoindian people completed the colonization of North America.

By 10,000 years ago, the climate and environment of eastern North America had become similar to that of today. The glaciers had completed their northward retreat to the Arctic Circle. Ice Age megafauna disappeared forever, due to environmental changes and hunting by humans.

Oak and hickory forests covered more and more of the land. Plants and animals were generally abundant in these temperate forests. With the new plants came new, and smaller, game animals that still live in these forests today. Deer, bear, elk, turkey and raccoon did not migrate over long distances like the earlier megafauna. Instead, they ranged across smaller territories.

From 10,500 to 10,000 years ago, the Late Paleoindians began to settle the unoccupied areas of North America. Their descendants, whom archaeologists call the Early Archaic peoples, completed the process by 8,000 years ago. It had taken over 4,000 years, but humans were now completely at home

in their “New World.”

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Our way of thinking about the first Americans has come a long way from Christopher Columbus, the “discoverer” of America. Today we have a better understanding about who the earliest Americans were and when they arrived.

But archaeologists are still making discoveries about this period in prehistory, adding fascinating details to what we already know. This booklet presents some of these details. It discusses how early peoples colonized and settled eastern North America, and in particular, Kentucky. It draws on the results of current research carried out in the mountainous portions of southeastern and south-central Kentucky (along the upper reaches of the Cumberland River in Cumberland and Clinton counties).

Kentucky Colonizers at the End of the Ice Age

The Early Paleoindian colonists arrived in Kentucky from the west about 11,500 years ago. They appeared during the period of change, when the earth was beginning to warm-up at the end of the Ice Age. By 10,500 years ago, their descendants, the Middle Paleo-indians, had completed the colonization of Kentucky.

Temperatures were becoming warmer in summer and colder in winter, and precipitation (both rain and snow) was increasing. The forests and grasslands of the spruce and pine parklands grew in patches, mainly on the higher mountains. The last of the megafauna, and animals that are found in northern regions today, lived in this parkland environment.

Temperate, closed-in oak and hickory forests were moving up the major river and stream valleys from the Gulf Coast. These forests grew throughout the lowlands of southern Kentucky at this time. They sheltered animals, like the white-tailed deer, that were accustomed to this kind of climate.

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Because these people lived so long ago and in such small groups, very little remains for archaeologists to study. They have to rely almost exclusively on information from stone spear points (which they call *projectile points*). Since these people changed the size and shape of their spear points over time, these artifacts have proven very helpful. Archaeologists can use them to trace the history of these early peoples and their movements across the landscape.

Archaeologists are still unsure what the spear points of the very first peoples looked like. But by 11,500 years ago, people in Kentucky were making distinctive, beautifully crafted lanceolate-shaped spear points. Throughout North America, archaeologists call them *Clovis* points. Thus archaeologists call the first colonizers of Kentucky the Clovis peoples. Much of what we know about them is based on the study of the tools they made and where they left them.

Clovis peoples led a *nomadic* way of life, moving from place to place over very large territories. In southeastern/south-central Kentucky, the Clovis peoples camped along river terraces and on ridgetops, though



Clovis projectile point.

sometimes they lived in rockshelters and cave openings. They hunted Ice Age mega-fauna and other cold-climate mammals. The people used these animals as sources of food, as well as sources of raw materials for clothing, tools, and shelters. They also hunted small animals and collected and ate nuts, berries, and other plant foods.

Clovis peoples lived in small groups of between 15 to 25 people, related by either birth or marriage. Each

she could recite the group's history back through time for many generations.

People knew and interacted with the people who lived in neighboring groups. Archaeologists call these larger interacting groups of people *bands*. Men and women looked for spouses within their band, and individuals from several groups within a band probably formed hunting parties when mastodon or mammoth was the prize.



A Paleoindian group butchering and cooking a mastodon.

group had a leader, perhaps an excellent hunter, who guided others across their territory in search of food and other resources. Moving on foot, these groups probably would have looked like a large family. At least one member in each group, probably an elder, would have served as the tradition keeper. He or

When the number of groups in a band became too large, some groups would split-off and form a new band with new leaders. This band would set up housekeeping in a new place, beyond the boundaries of the old band's home territory.

“Too large” was in the eyes of the

beholder, however. For today we would consider even the largest bands small. Back then, because of the requirements of their hunting and gathering lifestyle, each group in a band needed a large home territory. Maintaining space between groups also allowed them to move away from trouble when disagreements arose between neighbors. This space also ensured that they had unoccupied areas to use in times of need.



← rounded indentation for shaping spear shafts

Paleoindian spokeshave.

Through the natural increase of families, eventually many people lived in the home territory. If band size became too large, the whole band ran the risk of not being able to find enough food to eat. So groups would split-off from the band.

Given the Clovis peoples' mobile lifestyle, each person likely carried a hide or leather pouch that held an assortment of tools. They used stone spear points and knives for hunting and butchering animals and preparing plant foods. Cleaning and preparing

animal hides required scrapers. *Spokeshaves* were tools used to shape spear shafts and tool handles. They used engravers to make and decorate wood and bone tools. Awls and needles also may have been carried in their pouches. They used these wooden or bone tools for punching holes through hides and for sewing them together to make clothing, shelters, and containers.

Often a single stone tool combined the features of two or more tools. For example, Clovis craftspeople often shaped one corner of a scraper to serve as an engraver. The Clovis spear point itself was a kind of Swiss Army knife of the Ice Age. Hunters used it as a spear point to kill an animal, as a knife for skinning and butchering what they had killed, or for processing plants. This way of making and using stone tools cut down on the amount of stone needed to make a tool. It also reduced the weight of a person's total tool kit without giving up its versatility.

These tools clearly show us that Clovis tool-makers were master craftspeople. They made many of their tools out of a fine-grained rock, called *chert* or *flint*, which is abundant in southeastern and south-central Kentucky.

Using harder, hand-sized round-ed stones and softer sections of antler, they skillfully shaped these tools by knocking off chips or



spur for engraving ↘

Paleoindian endscraper

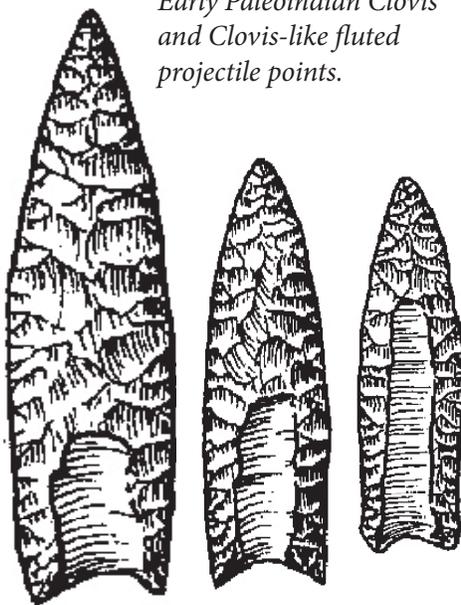
flakes from chert chunks. Wood and bone also served as the raw materials for their tools.

The most distinctive feature of a Clovis spear point is the long scar or channel of a single flake found on one or both of its sides. Called a *flute* by archaeologists, the scar begins at the base of the spear point and extends upward toward the tip. It took much technical skill, experience, and patience to flute a Clovis spear point. One poorly placed blow, and the finished point could break before it was fluted.

Why did these ancient craftspeople take such care to chip flutes into their spear points? Archaeologists think the flute may have helped hold the spear point tightly to its wooden shaft. By *fluting* both sides of a point, toolmakers made a central channel or groove that thinned it along the center. They could then easily slip the point into the tip of the wooden spear shaft along the groove and firmly attach it by wrapping, or *hafting*, it with sinew. Another explanation for fluting is that it made the spear point lighter without reducing its strength.

Whatever the reason, these fluted spear points were perfect for hunting Ice Age megafauna like mammoth or mastodon. In the hands of expert hunters, the finely crafted, simple Clovis spears were deadly weapons. Several people worked together

Early Paleoindian Clovis and Clovis-like fluted projectile points.



to separate an animal from the rest of the herd - perhaps a sick one or a young one that could not keep up. After they surrounded the lone animal, they threw their spears at it or ran up close to it and repeatedly thrust their spears into it. In this way, the hunters brought down

these large animals that gave the meat, bones, and skins their families needed to live.

Around 10,800 years ago, Kentucky's Middle Paleoindian colonists began to make new styles of spear points. Though still lanceolate in shape, these points were smaller. They narrowed near the base, then flared outward again to form ears at the base. At first, these points had long



A Paleoindian toolmaker at work.

flutes like the points of their ancestors. But as time passed, the distinctive flutes became less important, and later styles of spear points lacked flutes altogether.

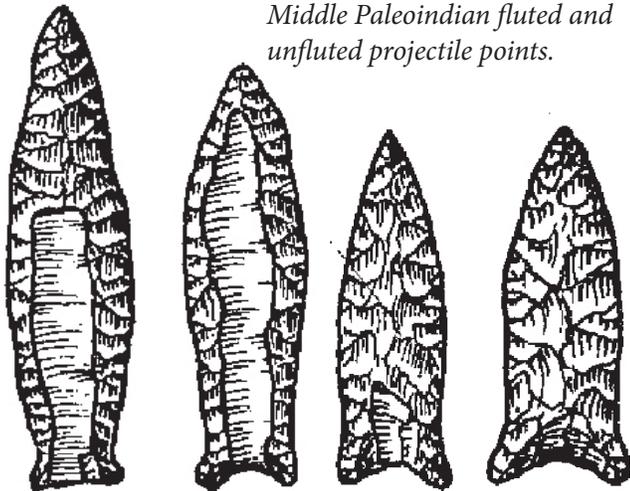
Archaeologists do not know exactly why these early toolmakers changed the shape and size of their spear points. Perhaps these changes were linked to the types of animals they hunted.

Over time, the descendants of the

Yet these changes in shape and size may have gone beyond the purely functional. People may have wished to show that they were unique and different from their ancestors and their neighbors. What better way to show this than to change the shape of their spear points?

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Middle Paleoindian fluted and unfluted projectile points.



first Clovis peoples came to rely less on the megafauna and cold-climate animals. They began to rely more on white-tailed deer and the other animals of the temperate oak and hick-ory forests. Hunters no longer needed large, long spear points. Instead, they needed smaller, lighter ones to hunt the smaller and faster animals. As spear points became smaller, the flutes that had helped to lighten and hold the earlier, larger points to their wooden shafts were no longer necessary. Narrowing the points near the bases may have served the same purpose.

The Clovis peoples colonized eastern North America and Kentucky by leap-frogging into new areas from their home territories. Because the Appalachians were located in the interior, colonizing groups physically reached this part of southeastern North America last. Here's how it happened.

Kentucky's earliest colonists came as small groups of explorers. They traveled along major rivers following the retreating spruce and pine parklands and cold-climate animals. They colonized first the confluence areas of the Mississippi, Ohio, Cumberland, and Tennessee rivers in western Kentucky. This is where we find the largest sites and the most sites and artifacts.

The size, number, and types of colonizer sites provides us with a clue to what happened next. As population increased, bands split into smaller groups. Some groups remained behind

in the band's original territory (the parent populations). The other groups moved east to colonize distant territories.

As time passed, the daughter populations grew larger. After many generations, they produced their own daughter populations, who colonized new areas.

Archaeologists speculate that these people moved because their homeland was getting too crowded, not because they had exhausted food and other resources. As we have seen, their hunting and gathering lifestyle required that they keep plenty of space between themselves and their nearest neighbors.

In the mountains of southeastern and south-central Kentucky, it appears that the Clovis peoples may have been the first to explore the mountains. Their descendants, the Middle Paleoindians, were the primary mountain colonists in Kentucky, arriving in the mountains later than the non-mountainous areas.

Archaeologists think this because Middle Paleoindian spear points are found more commonly in those areas than Early Paleoindian points, and because Middle Paleoindian spear points occur very rarely in the mountains, when compared to how often they occur in the adjacent non-mountainous areas.

These groups not only stayed in contact with their parent populations, but probably had contact with groups living in river valleys to the north as well. This is because Early Paleoindian spear points in southeastern and south-central Kentucky are similar to those found both to the south and to the north.

Those who colonized the confluence area of the Cumberland and Wolf rivers (in Cumberland and Clinton counties) gave rise to the daughter populations that moved further up the Cumberland River to its headwaters. These were the people who colonized

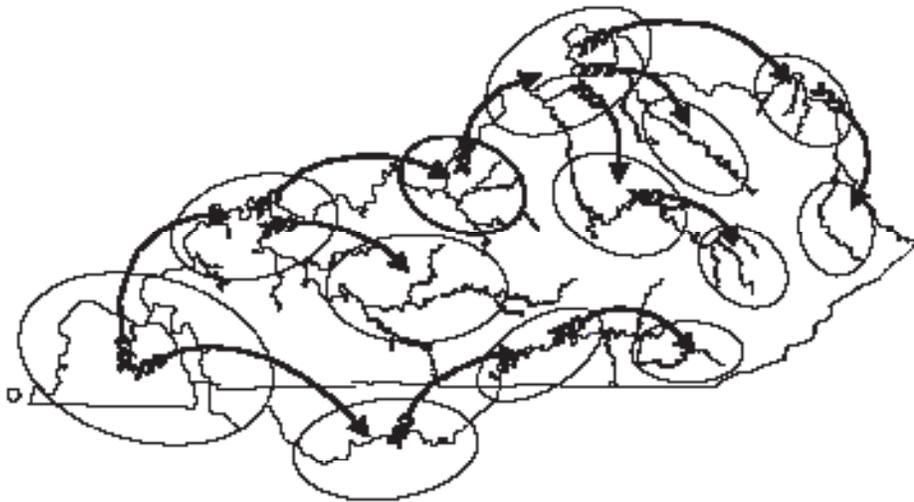


Diagram of how early hunter-gatherers leap-frogged along the rivers to colonize Kentucky.

the portion of the Appalachian Mountains located in southeastern Kentucky. These people camped at the Alma Nation site in Cumberland County and at Great Rock Sink in Pulaski County.

Eventually, early hunter-gatherers colonized all of North America in this manner. Once colonization was finished, bands lived in territories divided by unoccupied, empty *buffer* areas. These buffer areas are important to the next chapter in our story, that of settlement.



Paleoindian and Early Archaic projectile points from southeastern and south-central Kentucky.

Settlers of Kentucky's Oak-Hickory Forests

Between 10,500 to 10,000 years ago, the Late Paleoindians began the settlement of Kentucky. By 8,000 years ago, their descendants, the Early Archaic peoples, had turned Kentucky into their permanent home.

With the retreat of the Ice Age glaciers, the climate grew warmer and more like that of today. The patches of spruce and pine parklands disappeared completely, replaced by a closed-in temperate oak-hickory forest.

Like their colonizing ancestors, the Late Paleoindian and Early Archaic hunter-gatherers were nomadic. They lived with their relatives in small groups, which were part of larger bands. They interacted with their neighbors at certain times of the year to

meet prospective spouses, share food and stories, and trade.

Groups moved from camp to camp within defined territories throughout the year as the seasons changed. Because plant and animal resources were distributed evenly and densely across the landscape, their home territories were smaller than those of their ancestors'. Territories also overlapped one another.

These people scheduled their movements to take advantage of food resources. They may have fished at one camp in the spring during the spawning season, and gathered nuts at another camp in the fall when the nuts were ripe. Some spots were important campsites because good sources of stone for tools were available nearby.

Daily activities would have consisted of gathering plants and hunting animals for food. Just as important would have been the scraping and tanning of animal hides; preparing a variety of both animal and plant foods; and making new tools, clothing, and shelters. Stone resources were

Women and children return to camp after gathering plant foods.



collected for tools.

Some of these chores were the responsibility of the women; others were tasks for the men. Children likely carried out some jobs, too. The oldest, not unlike grandmothers or grandfathers today, were respected for their wisdom, especially regarding the location of resources. Everyone had a part to play.

The settlers' tool kits, like those of their colonizing ancestors, were versatile, reflecting the needs of a nomadic, hunting and gathering society. As they came to rely more and more on the plants and animals of the oak and hickory forests, they developed new tools and hunting techniques.

They began to make tools for specific tasks, and so the variety and number of tools increased. For the first time, people used ground stone tools at their campsites. Through the slow process of pecking and grinding, they turned coarse-grained rocks into tools like grinding stones, *nutting stones*, and *pestles*. They used these tools to prepare acorns and hickory nuts, wild fruits, and roots. This shows that plants had become an important source of food. In time, plants came to equal, but not surpass, animals as a source of food.

Tools used purely for hunting remained important, as reflected in the quality of Late Paleoindian and Early

Archaic chipped stone spear points. These toolmakers made an even wider variety of points than their predecessors. This may reflect a continuing need for groups to set themselves apart from their neighbors. It is more likely, though, that these new styles reflect changes in the way Late Paleoindians and Early Archaic peoples hunted.

Given the changes in environment and climate, the days of hunting Ice Age megafauna and cold-climate animals were over. Groups of hunters no longer traveled across open spruce and pine parklands in search of large herd

animals. Large spear points thrust at close range or thrown over a short distance were no longer appropriate weapons. Instead, small groups of hunters now quietly stalked their prey through the underbrush of the oak-hickory forest. Hunters,

alone or in pairs, built blinds in trees, then climbed into them to wait for the animals to pass within range. Stone tipped weapons had to be accurate and fast to bring down the faster, smaller, animals.

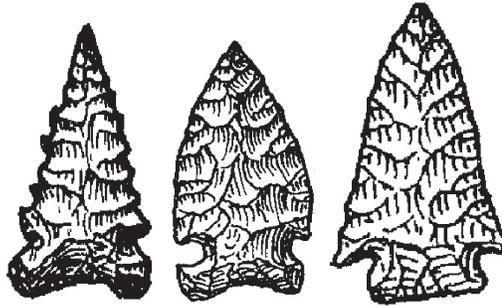
Late Paleoindian peoples continued to make lanceolate spear points that had narrow bases but with more downturned ears. They made increasingly smaller and lighter spear points, too. Often these points bear the marks



An Early Archaic woman cracks nuts using a pestle and nutting stone.

of having been sharpened over and over again, which sometimes formed toothed or *serrated* edges.

As time passed, these settlers gave up lanceolate-shaped spear points altogether. Spear points gradually became smaller and more triangular. Early Archaic toolmakers began to experiment with different ways of hafting points to a wooden spear shaft. These new hafting methods involved knocking notches into either the sides or corners of the point base. Archaeologists call these *side-notched* and *corner-notched* spear points. Later,

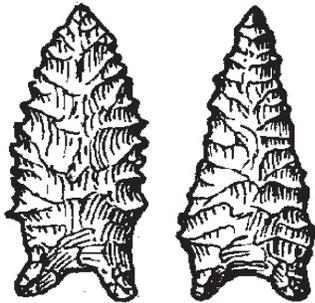


Early Archaic side- and corner-notched projectile points.

side the animal once it was shot. This would have increased the point's killing efficiency, permitting Early Archaic hunters to use only a single shot to kill an animal.

The decrease in point size may signal the invention of the spear thrower or *atlatl*. The atlatl increased the length of a hunter's forearm. Along with a light-weight spear, the atlatl helped hunters throw their weapons with increased speed, distance, and accuracy.

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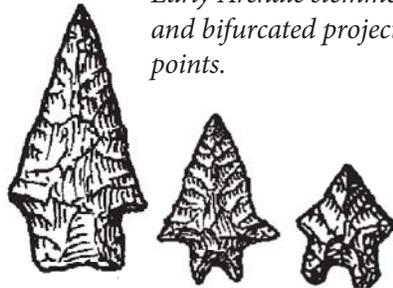
Late Paleoindian projectile points with serrated edges.

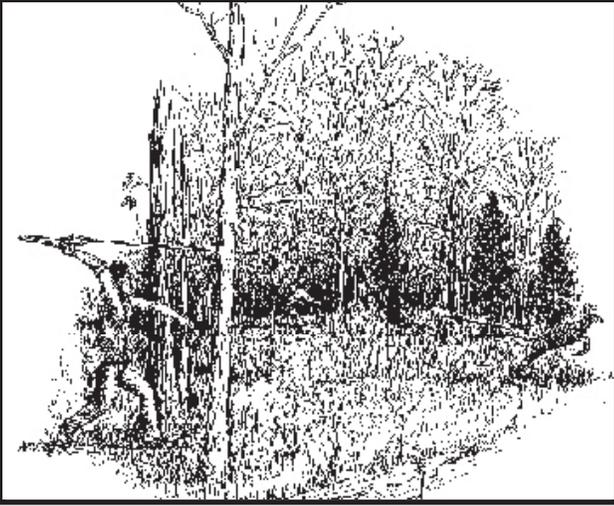
these people made points without notches, which archaeologists call *stemmed* points. Some of these were indented at the base of the stem, which formed two prongs. These are known as *bifurcated* stemmed points.

These changes in spear point shape may have been a way to make barbs that stuck out from the wooden shaft once the point was attached to it. Because Early Archaic hunters followed moving targets (deer), they may have needed a spear point with barbs that stayed in-

The process of settlement, like that of colonization, was driven by population growth. Even as daughter populations moved away to colonize other areas, their original parent populations continued to grow, splitting into new,

Early Archaic stemmed and bifurcated projectile points.





Hunters with spears and atlatls stalk a deer in the oak-hickory forest.

separate daughter groups. All across Kentucky, archaeologists have documented an increase in the number of Late Paleoindian campsites. They interpret this as the spread of these early hunter-gatherers into the previously unoccupied buffer areas.

As time passed, Early Archaic peoples were left with even fewer unoccupied places to settle. This forced them to move into the smaller drainages of tributary streams. In this way, hunter-gatherers occupied the entire landscape by 8,000 years ago.

Climatic and environmental changes may have shaped how people finally settled all of Kentucky. The oak-hickory forests that replaced the spruce and pine parklands were a different kind of environment. The plentiful game species, though smaller, were more evenly distributed across the land. Plants that could be used for food increased in abundance. Because of this, people could live in smaller, overlapping territories and still find

more than enough food to eat. But it came at a price. As the landscape filled up with people, they had to give up the empty buffer areas between territories that they liked so much.

Later Archaic peoples followed the traditions of their ancestors. In time, important changes took place, and these early hunter-gatherers became Woodland gardeners.

Looking Ahead Into The Past

Based on the research archaeologists have carried out in Kentucky over the past three decades, they now see how complex the process of early colonization and settlement really was at the end of the last Ice Age. Once they thought early hunter-gatherer groups slowly and steadily fanned out from western Canada in an ever-expanding wave. New research suggests instead that groups followed the rivers, leap-frogging into new areas from home bases, and then later settling the empty areas in-between. Research at sites in the mountainous portions of southeastern and south-central Kentucky supports this new explanation. It has completed the picture of how Kentucky's very first pioneers colonized and settled the Commonwealth.

Yet our understanding of these first peoples is not complete. Large areas of Kentucky, especially in the Eastern Mountains, still need to be studied for the clues they hold. Archaeologists also need to re-examine already documented sites and artifacts to gain a deeper understanding of Paleoindian society, trade relationships, and beliefs.

One of the many important questions that remains unanswered is "How did they decide where to live"? The Early Paleoindians, as well as their Middle Paleoindian descendants, appear to have rarely used caves and rockshelters as campsites. Yet, the Late Paleoindians and their Early Archaic descendants appear to have commonly

lived in these places.

Does this pattern mean that settlement choice changed through time? Or is it just a reflection of where archaeologists have worked? The clues that may answer this question lie in the deepest deposits in Eastern Kentucky's rockshelters and in the caves in other parts of the state.

The study of early hunter-gatherers in the past has focused on particular areas in Kentucky. Yet as shown in this booklet, studying the distribution of spear point styles across large areas gives the best picture possible of Kentucky's earliest colonization and settlement.

It will take archaeologists and interested citizens working together and sharing their knowledge to up-date a map that shows the locations of all the spear points and campsites. Once completed, this map will provide important information about the distribution and density of early hunter-gatherer settlements. It also will record the great accomplishments of Kentucky's first pioneers that are unknown to most Kentuckians and only faintly remembered in the mythologies of Native American peoples today.

The Past is Yours . . . to Preserve

We have learned much about Kentucky's earliest peoples since archaeological research first began in the early 1900s. The careful investigations carried out by archaeologists and the volunteers who have joined them have generated a wealth of information. Archaeologists have learned much from individuals with an interest in Kentucky's cultural heritage, too, who have shared their information about the locations of sites and have permitted scientific research at the sites they own. All Kentuckians, archaeologists and citizens alike, owe a debt of gratitude to landowners who have taken steps to preserve their sites for the future.

Despite these research and preservation activities, archaeological sites are rapidly disappearing, and with them, the record of Kentucky's past. Each campsite, village, and rockshelter contains a unique record of the past. A single pass of a bulldozer or an after-noon's digging by relic hunters can destroy in an instant the record of thousands of years of prehistory. Once these sites are destroyed, they can never be replaced and the clues to the past they contained are lost forever.

You can take an active part in discovering, recording, and preserving our archaeological heritage. If you discover an archaeological site, record where you found it and what kinds of artifacts you saw. Never dig

to find more artifacts. Report your site to the Kentucky Heritage Council, the Kentucky Archaeological Survey, or the Office of State Archaeology at the University of Kentucky. Information on site locations is kept confidential.

If someone asks to dig on your land, first make sure they are a professional archaeologist. Ask why they want to dig and what they hope to discover. Insist that they give you a copy of the report they will write once they have finished their research.

Many professional archaeologists around the state welcome volunteers on their projects. Contact them through either your local college or university or through the Kentucky Archaeological Survey.

You also can help preserve the past by discouraging looting and reporting it. Speak out against the buying and selling of artifacts. The market in artifacts encourages looting and leads to the destruction of archaeological sites for profit.

Each of us has a responsibility to preserve our cultural heritage. You can make a difference.

KENTUCKY ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY

The Kentucky Archaeological Survey is jointly administered by the Kentucky Heritage Council (State Historic Preservation Office) and the University of Kentucky Department of Anthropology. Its mission is to provide a service to other state agencies, to work with private landowners to protect archaeological sites, and to educate the public about Kentucky's rich archaeological heritage. For more information write: Kentucky Archaeological Survey, 1020-A Export Street, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40506-9854.

KENTUCKY HERITAGE COUNCIL

The mandate of the Kentucky Heritage Council is to identify, preserve, and protect the cultural resources of Kentucky. The Council also maintains continually-updated inventories of historic structures and archaeological sites and nominates properties to the National Register of Historic Places. By working with other state and federal agencies, local communities, and interested citizens, the Council seeks to build a greater awareness of Kentucky's past and to encourage the long-term preservation of Kentucky's significant cultural resources. Through its various programs (e.g., Main Street, Grants, Publications, Rural Preservation, Civil War Initiative, Conferences), the Council strives to show how historic resources contribute to the heritage, economy, and quality of life of all Kentuckians. For more information write: Kentucky Heritage Council, 300 Washington Street, Frankfort, KY 40601.

UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY DEPARTMENT OF ANTHROPOLOGY

The University of Kentucky Department of Anthropology has a mission to educate students and promote scholarly research in the field of archaeology. The Department also is charged by state law with enforcing and administering the State Antiquities Act, which prohibits the destruction of archaeological sites on state and municipal lands. It maintains comprehensive inventory files and records on archaeological sites in the Commonwealth through the Office of State Archaeology, and supports the major state curation repository for archeological collections (The William S Webb Museum of Anthropology). For more information write: Department of Anthropology, University of Kentucky, 211 Lafferty Hall, Lexington, KY 40506-0024.

Other Booklets in This Series

Number One: **Slack Farm and the Caborn-Welborn People** by David Pollack, Cheryl Ann Munson, and A. Gwynn Henderson (1997). This booklet summarizes what has been learned about this Mississippian society based on the research that followed the looting at the Slack Farm Site. The authors describe the lifeways of these farming people who lived in western Kentucky from A.D. 1400-1700. \$5.00.

Number Two: **Mute Stones Speak: Archaic Lifeways of the Escarpment Region in Jackson County, Kentucky** by William E. Sharp and A. Gwynn Henderson (1997). This booklet reviews the prehistory of the Escarpment Region of Eastern Kentucky, focusing on the lifeways of Archaic hunter-gatherers and how they made stone tools. \$3.00.

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