CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF TWO TRACTS IN BREVARD, TRANSYLVANIA COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 390
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BREVARD, 
TRANSYLVANIA COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of two tracts, Tract A consisting of 13 acres and Tract B consisting of 10.1 acres, located in northeastern Transylvania County, North Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Froehling & Robertson, Inc. comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

Both of the tracts are to be used for commercial development. Tract A is bordered by US 276/64 to the north, Ecusta Road to the west, and the Davidson River to the east. The Ecusta Paper Mill is the approximate southern boundary for the tract. Tract B is located across US 276/64 from Tract A. Only the southeastern portion of the tract borders the road, while the other boundaries are located among a pine and hardwood forest. The city of Brevard is expanding north in the direction of the survey area, so much of the surrounding area is being commercially developed.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tracts, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. Individual lot construction will involve grading, additional utility construction, and subsequent building of structures. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites which may be in the project tract. For this study and area of potential effect (APE) about 1,000 feet from each proposed tract was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the Asheville, North Carolina Department of Cultural Resources identified two sites, 31TV43 and 31TV667, within the project APE. Site 31TV43 is a Woodland site recorded by Holden in 1964. Site 31TV667 is a Middle Archaic and Early Woodland scatter along with a small historic component. This site was recorded by Wetmore in 1986.

The archaeological survey of Tract A incorporated shovel testing at 50-foot intervals on transects which were placed at 50-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 253 shovel tests were excavated along 23 transect lines. For Tract B, due to the extremely steep slopes, transects and shovel tests were placed at 100 foot intervals for a total of 54 shovel tests along 14 transects. An additional nine shovel tests were placed at 50-foot intervals at the site.

As a result of these investigations one archaeological site, 31TV828, was found. This site consists of a surface scatter of Middle Archaic lithics. It is unlikely that this site will be able to address any significant research questions due to the lack of significant data sets and the severe erosion to the site.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).
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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Buddy Hill of Froehling & Robertson, Inc. in Greenville, SC. The work was conducted to assist Froehling & Robertson and their client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of two tracts (Tract A: 13 acres and Tract B: 10.1 acres) proposed to be used for commercial development in Brevard, North Carolina (Figure 1). Both tracts are irregular in shape with Tract A bordering SR 276/64 to the north, Ecusta Road to the west, and the Davidson River to the east. Tract B is located across SR 276/64 from Tract A. Only the southeastern portion of the tract borders the road, while the other boundaries are located among a pine and hardwood forest. (Figure 2).

Tract A is in the floodplain of the Davidson River and is located just north of the Ecusta Paper Mill. Tract B has much more slope and is covered with a pine and hardwood forest. The surrounding area is expanding with commercial development is rapidly occurring.

Both tracts, as previously mentioned, are intended to be used for commercial development. This work will require the construction of utilities such as electrical lines as well as an expanded road system when development begins. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to cause extensive damage to any archaeological resources which may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Transylvania County.

We were requested by Mr. Buddy Hill of Froehling & Robertson, Inc. to provide a proposal for the survey on August 5, 2003. A proposal was supplied on the same day. Field work on the project began on September 1.

Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the North Carolina State Historic Preservation Office and the office of State Archaeology. As a result of that work, two sites, 31TV43 and 31TV667, were identified. Site 31TV43 is a Woodland site next to the Davidson River (recorded by Holden in 1964. At that time much of the site had been destroyed for use by the Ecusta Paper Corporation. Site 31TV667 (recorded by Wetmore in 1986) is a Middle Archaic and Early Woodland scatter along with a small historic component.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted from September 1-4, 2003 by Mr. Tom Covington and Ms. Nicole Southerland under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.
Figure 1. Project vicinity in Transylvania County (basemap is USGS North Carolina 1:500,000).
INTRODUCTION

Figure 2. Project tracts and previously identified archaeological sites (basemap is USGS Pisgah Forest 7.5').
NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

The project tract is located in Transylvania County, North Carolina. It is located in the Blue Ridge physiographic province of the Appalachian Mountains (Fenneman 1938). To the north, Transylvania County is bordered by Haywood County, to the east is Henderson County, and to the west is Jackson County. To the south are Pickens and Oconee counties, South Carolina.

The Blue Ridge Province consists of mountains that are the remnants of former highlands that antedate the lower peneplains on either side (Fenneman 1938). In geological terms they are classified as “subdued,” indicating that their height and steepness are so far lost that only a relatively thin mantle of decayed rock remains over the underlying bedrock. Talus slopes and bare cliffs, while present, are rare. Summits are commonly rounded and true mountain peaks are infrequent. Compared to ranges such as the Rocky Mountains, the Blue Ridge is not high. Moreover, the climate in the area is far more humid and this has also helped to round the peaks (Trinkley 2000:7).

Figure 3. View of pasture on Tract A.

County is mountainous with the lower elevations on the valley floors ranging from 1,200 to 3,000 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) and many peaks exceeding 6,000 feet AMSL (Purrington 1983).

Elevations in the project area ranges from 2,120 feet AMSL in Tract A to over 2,200 feet in Tract B. Tract A is in the floodplain of the Davidson River, so is flat with very little change in elevation. Tract B, however, has a high ridge top and a difference of 50 feet in elevation from the lowest point to the highest point.

Climate

The North Carolina mountains are not only cooler than elsewhere in the state, giving the region a climate similar to coastal Washington
and Oregon, but they result in increased precipitation because of their orographic influence. In other words, the warm, moist air masses moving in from the west (and from the south) will cool and condense water vapor as they rise over the mountains. The resulting cloud cover usually results in either dense rainfall, or snowfall. Once over the mountains, the air warms rapidly as it descends and causes drier conditions elsewhere in the state.

This effect can be seen locally, as well. For example, the average annual rainfall for Transylvania County is about 63.5 inches (Wetmore 1993:5). Similar variations occur in temperature, snowfall, freeze dates, and the length of the growing season.

The average daily maximum temperature for Brevard in the summer is 84°F with the minimum temperature for summer at 60°F. In the winter the daily high is 51°F with the low at 27°F (King et al. 1974).

Geology and Soils

The rocks that make up the province include Precambrian granite and gneiss, while to the south there is also a thick layer of late Precambrian sedimentary rocks, consisting of poorly sorted siltstones, sandstones, and conglomerates (Hunt 1967). Elsewhere there are crystalline schists — metamorphic rocks created during the process of the mountain building. Much of the area is characterized by the presence of steep mountains cut by rivers and creeks with generally narrow valleys that are subject to flooding.

The geology of the region provides a wealth of raw materials useful to Native Americans. Quartz is common, either as low-quality weathered materials or higher-quality materials found in small outcrops. Chert is found to the west in the Ridge and Valley area of eastern Tennessee. This was recognized years ago as one of the favorite sources of raw materials for the Cherokee and other native groups in the area (see Keel 1976:5).

Tract A is located in the floodplain of the Davidson River. The soils are almost entirely Toxaway silt loams which are very poorly drained soils. This series has an Ap horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) silt loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a very dark grayish brown (2.5Y3/2) silt loam to a depth of up to 2.5 feet (King et al. 1974).
This tract also exhibits a very small area of Rosman fine sandy loams. These well drained to moderately well drained soils have an Ap horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) fine sandy loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a dark brown (10YR3/3) fine sandy loam to a depth of 1.3 feet (King et al. 1974).

While these two soil types were encountered, the tract has been the location of soil moving activities which have also produced a dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) silt loam surface layer to a depth of about 0.4 feet over a yellowish red (almost orange in color) (5YR5/8) clay (King et al. 1974).

Tract B is almost entirely made up of Fannin loams with a slope from 15 to 45% grade. These are well drained soils consisting of an A1 horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loam to a depth of 0.2 foot over a brown (7.5YR5/4) loam to a depth of 0.5 foot. The subsoil consisted of a yellowish red (5YR5/8) fine sandy clay loam to a depth of almost 1.0 foot. The ridge tops tended to be highly eroded with the yellowish red (almost orange in color) exposed (King et al. 1974).

A very small portion of the tract exhibited Toxaway silt loam. Similar to Tract A, these soils are very poorly drained with an Ap horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) silt loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a very dark grayish brown (2.5Y3/2) silt loam to a depth of 2.5 feet (King et al. 1974). These soils were found at the southeast portion of the tract at the base of a steep slope.

Floristics

Watson voices the observation that most historians have noticed - frequently the one characteristic which drew the attention of visitors, traders, or explorers, was the vegetation. He comments that these early travelers all agreed on one subject - that trees were everywhere, “everywhere there were woods - dark, forbidding, and dense” (Watson 1983:5). This was echoed in Bartram’s comment as his guide, Mr. Galahan, left him in the midst of the Jore Mountains, “I was left again wandering along the dreary mountains, nor entirely pathless, nor in my present situation entirely agreeable” (Bartram 1980[1792]:358).

The natural vegetation of the project area is classified by Braun (1950) as the Southern Appalachians of the Oak-Chestnut Forest Region. Here, too, there is tremendous variation, depending on elevation. Braun notes that because
of the diversity in topography and range in altitude, there “are great differences in forest vegetation” (Braun 1950:196). She observes that many classify the vegetation into three distinct categories: moist slope and cove, dry slope and ridge, and spruce forests. Barry (1980) recognizes this diversity and proposes a range of vegetative types, including riverbank and alder zones, floodplain forests, mixed mesophytic forests - cove segregates, mixed mesophytic forests - slope segregates, ridgetops and upland oak forests, pine forests, and rock communities.

On the steep south-facing gaps, there is often a deciduous forest of beech, yellow birch, and sugar maple, known as “northern hardwoods” and this frequently replaces the spruce-fir forest which is more sensitive to wind stress. Deciduous forests, however, are best developed in the lower elevations where conditions promote large, dense growth. Cove forests, in contrast, contain a variety of plants, including tulip poplar, yellow buckeye, hemlock, white pine, beech, birch, and maple. On the drier, south-facing slopes there are oaks, which have replaced the American chestnuts (these covered up to 80% of the area prior to the introduction of the blight in the 1920s).

It was out of this exceedingly rich and diverse flora that the Cherokee developed a wide variety of medicinal plants. Mooney (1891:324-327) identified 20 plants. Bass (1977) has suggested that it was the cove hardwood associations or mixed mesophytic forests - cove segregates that offered the most medicinal and edible wild plants to the Cherokee.

The flora of the project area today bears little resemblance to that which might have been present even 500 years ago. The bottomlands are entirely cleared, and much of the upland has been converted into pasture. As Webb and Keith (1998:10) observe, this process of alteration began shortly after the American Revolution, but there is today increased pressure resulting from economic development.

In the floodplain of Tract A, a grass pasture covers the majority. Along the Davidson River, there are a line of pines and hardwoods. Tract B is almost entirely forested in pines and hardwoods.
PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNTHESIS

Previous Research

Transylvania County has been the location of many early studies into prehistoric sites. The earliest studies come from Joffre Coe in the 1930s who organized activities such as site location, surface collections, and excavation of a feature at 31TV1 (Archaeological Society of Brevard College 1935). In 1964, through the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, Coe initiated the Cherokee Archaeological Project which studied the origins and development of Cherokee culture. As part of this project Holden (1966) conducted a reconnaissance survey of Transylvania County. One-hundred and fifty sites were analyzed in her discussion.

One of the more recent reports is by Wetmore (1993) which is an update of the work Holden did in the 1960s. In addition to this survey, many cultural resources surveys have been conducted in the county (see for example Padgett 1984 and Wetmore 1991).

Prehistoric Synthesis

Overviews for North Carolina’s prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some “classic” sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe’s Formative Cultures (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Mathis and Crow 1983). There are also a number of theses and dissertations prepared exploring the Cherokee region. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a “feel” for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal. Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found

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1 While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward’s (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).
along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is rather dated for North Carolina (Brennan 1982; Peck 1988; Perkinson 1971, 9173; cf. Anderson 1990). In spite of this, the distribution offered by Anderson (1992b:Figure 5.1) reveals a rather general, and widespread, occurrence throughout the region.

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often
not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

**Archaic Period**

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.\(^2\), does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.
changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Guilford lanceolate hafted bifaces occur in the Middle Archaic phase and are normally made with local raw materials (Bass 1977; Coe 1964). One exception, however, is in 1983 when Purrington found the use of nonlocal quartzite increased toward the upper Watauga Valley (Purrington 1983). Anderson and Joseph (1988:152-154) also state that the Guilford points recovered from the Georgia/South Carolina Piedmont and Appalachian Summit do not meet Coe's (1964:43-44) formal typological criteria.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations ... [including] a wide range of adaptive responses."

Most importantly, he notes that:

the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a
complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Piedmont of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

**Woodland Period**

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery. While this may have occurred as early as about 2000 B.C. along the Carolina coast, it likely didn’t happen until about 700 B.C. in the North Carolina mountains. In some areas of the Carolina Piedmont, pottery may not have made an introduction until 500 B.C. Regardless, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter. It was probably fairly late in the Woodland before horticulture, much less agriculture, became a significant means of subsistence.

**Early Woodland**

Artifacts typical of the Early Woodland in the Piedmont and Appalachian region consist of Dunlap (Wauchope 1966:46-47) and Swannanoa (Keel 1976:260-266) ceramics (similar to the Kellogg focus of Northern Georgia). The Dunlap series is characterized by a medium to coarse sand paste, fabric impressions, and vessels with a
simple jar or cup form. The Swannanoa ceramics, with heavy crushed quartz temper, are cord marked or fabric impressed conoidal jars and simple stamping, check stamping, and smoothed plain (Keel 1976:230). Early Woodland projectile point types consist of Savannah River Stemmed (and its variants), Swannanoa Stemmed (Keel 1976:196-198), Plott Stemmed (Keel 1976:126-127), and the Transylvania Triangular (Holden 1966:54-56; Keel 1976:130).

This is ample evidence from both North and South Carolina that there was increased mobility and the exploitation of a greater variety of environmental zones, including much greater use of the inter-riverine zone. In addition, research suggests that these Early Woodland sites may be classified as either having pottery or characterized by only diagnostic points.

Middle Woodland

Pottery typical of the Middle Woodland in the area consists of the Pigeon (Keel 1976:256-260) and Cartersville series. Pigeon is quartz tempered with surface treatments of check stamping, simple stamping, and brushing. This phase is expected to range from about 350 B.C. to about A.D. 300. The Cartersville type is characterized by sand or grit paste with the primary surface treatment being cordmarking, although there are also check stamped and simple stamped varieties. The Cartersville series is thought to be closely related to the Deptford series on the Coast. Anderson and Schuldenrein (1985:720) suggest that Cartersville continues well into the Late Woodland period. Projectile points characteristic of this phase include the Haywood Triangular (Keel 1976:132-133), probably from the late Connestee and perhaps early Pisgah, as well as the Connestee Triangular (Keel 1976:131-132).

Some suggest that the Middle Woodland period reflects a new pattern of settlement, with a move to the floodplain that is suggested to signal a shift to horticulture (Purrington 1983:136). To date this has not also been accompanied by very convincing ethnobotanical evidence.

Keel (1976:229) and others suggest a strong external influence on the Pigeon culture, with the ceramics suggesting a continuum with the materials found in the Georgia Piedmont or perhaps the east Tennessee area. As Purrington (1983:137) observes, this is not, however, in agreement with Dickens' (1980) analysis of ceramic diversity during the Woodland Period. Nevertheless, there is much about the Middle Woodland for which we have little evidence and the period remains among the least well understood in the mountains.

Late Woodland

Napier (Wauchope 1966:57-60) and Connestee (Keel 1976:247-255) Series pottery are typical Late Woodland types for the Mountain area and likely date from about A.D. 300 to 1000 (cf. Keel 1976:221). The Napier series is a fine sand tempered ware with fine complicated stamped designs. The Connestee series is a thin walled sand tempered ware with brushed or simple stamped surface decorations. There are also cordmarked, check stamped, fabric impressed, and plain varieties. Projectile points characteristic of this phase include the Haywood Triangular (Keel 1976:132-133), probably from the late Connestee and perhaps early Pisgah, as well as the Connestee Triangular (Keel 1976:131-132).

External influences are pretty clear during the Connestee Phase and include a range of prismatic blades that Keel (1976:136) notes as being virtually indistinguishable, in metric terms, from those found at Ohio Hopewell sites. Not only was there contact with the Hopewell, but there seems to also have been considerable internal development. For example, Keel (1976:225-226) suggests that the hazy period of transition between Connestee and Pisgah may
hold evidence of increasing dependence on cultigens.

Keel (1976) reported on the Garden Creek Mound No. 3 which contained a dominant Connestee component based on George Heye's 1915 examination of the mound. Later work at Garden Creek Mound No. 2, examined a portion of a village with a large quantity of Connestee remains. A number of post holes were exposed revealing one discernable square house with rounded corners measuring about 19 by 19 feet in outline. In addition, there were a number of refuse pits and hearths. The hearths included both rock filled and surface hearths. There were also a number of burial pits (see Keel 1976:99, Figure 15). It is likely that Connestee sites in the region will contain similar features.

Mississippian Period

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers.

In the Appalachian region, Mississippian pottery includes the Pisgah and Qualla series. Pisgah ceramics are tempered with unmodified river sand, although some earlier examples contain both river sand and crushed quartz. It is decorated with complicated stamping, check stamping and ladder-like rectilinear patterns (Dickens 1970; Holden 1966). It should be noted that the Qualla series extends well into the historic period (ca. 1500-1908) and is characterized by complicated stamping and bold incising. Other types described by Egloff (1967) include burnished, plain, check stamped, cord marked, and corncob impressed. At Tuckasegee brushed examples were also identified (Keel 1976). Other artifacts associated with the Mississippian period include triangular projectile points, flake scrapers, microtools, gravers, perforators, drills, ground stone objects (celts, pipes, and discoidals), and worked shell and mica (Keel 1976).

The largest amount of regional work has taken place in the North Carolina mountains at sites such as Tuckasegee, Garden Creek, and Warren Wilson. At Tuckasegee a possible town house was uncovered measuring about 23 feet in diameter with a central hearth (Keel 1976). At Warren Wilson several roughly square structures were uncovered and they all measured on the average about 21 feet square. Burials were common inside of these houses and pit features were abundant. Artifacts at the Warren Wilson site included ceramics from the Swannanoa series up through the Pisgah series (Dickens 1970). More recently Moore (1981) has examined the Pisgah assemblage of the Brunk Site (31BN151).

Homes Hogue Wilson (1986) examined burials from the Warren Wilson site in western North Carolina and provided some preliminary conclusions regarding social structure based on location of burials according to age and sex. For instance, she found more males than females were buried under structure floors. These males included primarily those under 25 or over 35 years old. She also found that individuals buried inside of structures were more likely to have burial goods than those buried in public areas. Burial feature types included pit burials, side-chambered burials, and central-chambered burials. Studies such as this can give great insight into the social organization of prehistoric societies.

It is during the Pisgah Phase that evidence of agriculture is clearly documented and the settlement system seems to include both large villages - sometimes with mounds - and smaller hamlets or farmsteads located along the valley
CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF TWO TRACTS IN BREVARD

margins. Dickens uses this to suggest that the Pisgah people were still dependent on hunting and gathering.

**Overhill/Qualla Cherokee**

The Cherokee were divided into five distinct settlements by the British Colonial government. While the rationale for the division itself was based on the needs of establishing and controlling trade, the actual divisions reflect not only historical factors, but also the physiography of the region.

The five areas include the **Lower Towns**, situated at the foot of the Blue Ridge along the major rivers flowing into the Atlantic. Found in South Carolina and Georgia, clustered around the Savannah River, these include Chauga, Tugalo, and Estatoe. The **Middle Towns** were found along, at the headwaters of, the Little Tennessee River and include Cowee, Joree, and Nequasee. These towns are about 30 miles north of the Lower Towns and the two are separated by a series of primarily small mountains. The **Valley Towns** may be considered a western subdivision of the Middle Towns and were located along the Valley, Nottely, and Hiwassee rivers in western North Carolina. These towns tended to be more isolated, being separated from the east by the Nantahala Mountains and from the north and west by the Great Smoky Mountains. Villages here include Peachtree. The **Out Towns** were situated to the north of the Middle Towns on the southeastern slopes of the Smoky Mountains along the banks of the Tuckasegee and Oconaluftee rivers. Here the terrain is very rugged and the villages of Nununyi and Kituhwa, as well as the Cherokee Reservation are found. The **Overhill Towns**, sometimes called the Upper Towns, were situated in the Appalachian Great Valley Province. The towns extend from Great Tellico and Settacco westward along the Little Tennessee, Hiwassee, and Tennessee rivers.

Hatley (1993) states that the Cherokee hunting grounds had been modified by years of purposeful intervention and some of the most productive hunting areas were the old fields and planting lands. These patches – soil licks, sand ridges, canebrakes, and old fields, maintained in a sere of young growth by light burning – provided a habitat where deer could predictably be found” (Hatley 1993:212).

The settlement pattern for the village sites and individual house sites was at the base of hills adjacent to tillable land and sources of fresh water. If arable land was abundant, houses would sometimes be clustered in the middle of fields (Fogelson and Kutsche 1961:90). The seasonal planting cycle seems to have strongly affected the rhythm of eighteenth century Cherokee life. Small hunting parties went out from late October to the early spring, with shorter hunting trips during the summer (Gearing 1958:1150). Often, these summer hunting forays took place only after the corn was planted and before it was ready to be harvested (Fogelson and Kutsche 1961).

Bartram describes their pattern of settlement:

An Indian town is generally so situated, as to be convenient for
procuring game, secure from sudden invasion, having a large district of excellent arable land adjoining, or in its vicinity, if possible on an isthmus betwixt two waters, or where the doubling of a river forms a peninsula. . . . At other times however they choose such a convenient fertile spot at some distance from their town, when circumstances will not admit of having both together (Bartram 1980 [1791]:400-401).

Artifacts associated with the historic Cherokee include the previously discussed Qualla ceramic type. It should be noted that Egloff (1967:68-75) argues that there is marked variation in Qualla ceramics between the Georgia and South Carolina towns, the North Carolina towns, and the Tennessee towns. This argument was later bolstered by evidence from Tuckasegee (Keel 1976). In addition to Qualla ceramics, small triangular projectile points are also typical, as well as evidence of European interaction.

The Cherokee in the Historic Period

While the first Europeans to make contact with the Cherokee were the Spanish, it isn’t entirely certain whether de Soto’s 1539-1540 entrada into the interior managed to find its way to the Cherokee (for a discussion of the various interpretations, see Wilson 1983:Appendix 1). It seems reasonable that the mountains were reached, and that the Cherokee became acquainted with the Spanish, although the impact may not have been as great as might be imagined. It is more clear the expeditions led by Pardo and Boyano reached the Cherokees. Regardless, the first substantive, and continued impact, came from English trading ventures, largely originating from Virginia (Crane 1928; Rights 1957). If his enthusiasm for presenting the Hebraic origin of the Cherokee can be discounted, Adair’s (1930) History of the American Indians presents invaluable information on the tribe during the English Colonial Period.

Given the often unscrupulous trading practices of many whites, coupled with the constant encroachment by planters cutting down the forests and creating plantations, the Yemassee War (1715-1718) should have come as no surprise.

During the first half of the Yemassee War there were scattered reports of Cherokee hostility, counterbalanced by frequent assurances from the western traders that the Cherokee were, at worst, neutral. The fear that the Cherokee would align with Creek and wipe out the English settlements, however, was strong. It was also strengthened by the appearance that the Cherokee were involved in the raid on Schenkingh’s Cowpen near the Santee River (Hatley 1993:23). A delegation of Cherokees, from the Middle Towns, came to Charleston and promised to join with the English against the Creeks. Heartened by this show of solidarity, Maurice Mathews led troops out of Charleston, intending to meet with a large Cherokee force and wage war on the Creeks. The Cherokee, however, failed to appear and Mathews instead of waging war on the Creeks marched to the Lower Towns, arriving at Tugaloo. There he found a considerable diversity of opinion regarding the wisdom of going to war against the Creeks. While the more western Middle Towns were somewhat isolated from the Creeks, many in the Lower Towns feared the cost of such an undertaking. The Cherokee also quickly discovered that the English were more interested in whipping the Lower Towns into a war frenzy than in going to war themselves. Mathews repeatedly avoided promising any “joint undertaking” and was hard pressed to even make promises of weapons or powder.

Eventually a Creek party, under a banner of truce, came to Tugaloo to discuss peace. The entire Creek delegation was killed by the most hostile of the Cherokee. Hatley observes that, "sensing that the war against the Creeks which they had hoped to incite among the Cherokees, but which the colonists wished personally to avoid themselves, was about to begin, the English
The Lower Cherokee Towns would pay a high price for their "alliance" with the English. The act of violence was returned almost immediately and constituted "the beginnings of an episode of intertribal war which would continue over the next thirty years" (Hatley 1993:27). Muskhogean people as far south as Apalachee joined forces and began raiding the Cherokee. The effects were so damaging to the Cherokee that in 1724 they attempted to make peace directly with the Spanish in order to dampen the crippling slave raids by the Creeks. The overture to the Spanish was largely rejected and the Cherokee continued to suffer for their "alliance" with Charleston.

This event affected the future assumptions of both the English and Cherokee for years to come. For example, the English seized on the massacre of the Creeks as proof of a Cherokee-English alliance. The Cherokee, however, came away with a very different understanding which largely focused on the failure on the English to fulfill the basic obligation of allies to fight together. This lack of trust would still be strongly felt among the Cherokee forty years later.4

In 1720 ex-Governor Johnson wrote to the Council of Trade and Plantations about the number of Indians on the border of South Carolina (see Wilson 1983:160-161). Using data gathered by traders just before the Yemassee War in 1715, Johnson reported that the Cherokee, divided into "Upper," "Middle," and "Lower" towns, accounted for 10,200 individuals and were located between 320 and 450 miles northwest of Charleston. By 1725 the Cherokee were complaining bitterly about the influx of white settlers, suggesting that this buffer between the Cherokee and Catawba was primarily considered to be Cherokee land. The colonial response was limited, at best. The effects of the Yemassee War had crippled South Carolina, nearly destroyed her economy, and drove a wedge between the colonists and the Proprietors.

It was during South Carolina Governor James Glen's 13 year term — the longest of any colonial governor in the state — that he advocated Carolina's manifest destiny. Harkening back to such expansionists as Naire, Glen realized that the Cherokee blocked South Carolina's perceived right to more land. While Cherokee trade increased (at a time when Indian trade was beginning to decline in economic value), there was a growing fear of the Cherokee among South Carolinians. In what seems almost to be a repeat of history, Glen attempted to organize a conference with the Cherokee in 1755 to determine their support. The importance of the timing cannot be overstated, since this marks the beginning of what elsewhere was known as the Seven Years War, but is known as the French and Indian War in the colonies.

The Cherokee, perhaps tired of colonial gamesmanship, refused to come to Charleston, suggesting a more neutral location midway between the two seats of government. Saluda was selected and Glen put on a grand show. Rounding up local pioneer settlers for show, there was a great deal of talk, with the Cherokee eventually proposing an alliance. Glen, either through ignorance or greed, misinterpreted the Cherokee intention of good will, believing that the Cherokee had provided him with a fee-simple deed to all of their lands in the region. Known as the Treaty of Saluda, the land embracing the present counties of Edgefield, Abbeville, Laurens, Newberry, Greenville, Saluda, McCormick, Union, Spartanburg, Cherokee, Chester, Richland, Fairfield, and a portion of York was given up by the Cherokee. The lands in Pendleton — the modern counties of Anderson, Pickens, and Oconee — and Greenville County, were reserved...
for the Cherokee, along with their holdings in North Carolina and Georgia (Milling 1969:284). The present line dividing Greenville and Spartanburg was established as the Indian Boundary by this treaty. Two forts also resulted from the treaty — Fort Prince George at Keowee and Fort Loudon on the Tennessee River.

Of course the Cherokee had no such intention. As previously mentioned, while this territory was largely devoid of settlement, it served as a buffer between the English and Cherokee, between the Cherokee and the Catawba, and likely between the Cherokee and the Creek (Hatley 1993:82). Hatley observes that not only were there population shifts in the Lower Towns, with the Creeks taking on increased prominence, but there also seems to be some evidence of Cherokees moving northward from the Lower Towns, coming into contact with the emerging colonial settlements of the region.

After the 1755 Treaty of Saluda, settlers from Maryland, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina began to flood into the newly opened territory. The range of ethnic groups distinguished this migration from many others and Scotch Irish, Germans, Swiss, Welsh Baptists, Quakers, and even French Huguenots made up the assemblage. Largely, however, the Ninety Six District became associated with the Scotch-Irish who settled the Spartanburg area to the east of Greenville around the Tyger River in the 1760s. With settlement came increased tensions — and conflicts.

In August of 1759 South Carolina’s Governor Lyttleton halted arms and ammunition sales to the Cherokees. Not satisfied that this had the desired effect, in October he announced that he would “take command of the forces myself and carry the war into the Enemy’s country” (quoted in Hatley 1993:114). Sensing that tensions were high, the Cherokee sent a delegation to Charleston to make peace with the English. This effort was rebuffed by Lyttleton who went beyond the realm of the acceptable and took the delegation hostage. This began what historians usually call the Cherokee War, lasting from 1759 through 1761, although there is no evidence that the Cherokee called it, or wanted it. In actuality, it consists of three separate campaigns launched into the Cherokee territory, but they are usually blurred together, likely because no one campaign was decisive. Hatley comments that in spite of this:

the three initiatives, like acts in a play, were distinct, with each moving toward the same ending. A kind of public drama for Carolina society, the Cherokee War moved from near failure in 1759 to half-success a year later, to the achievement, at least on paper, of military objectives under James Grant’s leadership in 1761 (Hatley 1993:119-120).

The first campaign was described as "a wild and ridiculous parade" by no less than James Adair, who pointed out that Lyttleton has no understanding of Indian politics. He marched to Keowee and camped across the river from the town. Over the course of many weeks he threatened and bullied, but failed to either win concessions or show any meaningful force. Smallpox finally drove him out of Indian country and back to Charleston, where his gift to the City was to introduce a smallpox epidemic. He, however, had left his Cherokee hostages at Fort Prince George and these Indians were eventually "butchered . . . in a Manner too shocking to Relate" by the troops in reprisal for the killing of one of their number (Hatley 1993:126). In

5 The actual cause of the hostilities is relatively clear. The Cherokees, most particularly those in the Overhill town of Settico and a few of the Lower Towns, returned the injuries they received at the hands of Virginia settlers attacking several western settlements of South Carolina.
response, the Cherokee and Creek began negotiations, an event which sent shock waves through Charleston.

In the early Spring of 1760 the killing of the Indian hostages was revenged by Cherokees as they swept through the backcountry. The area dissolved into chaos and South Carolina convinced London that British troops were needed. Regulars under the command of Archibald Montgomery began the second campaign. The Lower Towns of Keowee, Estatoe, Toxaway, Qualatchee, and Conasatche were all burned along with their food supplies. On the way to the Middle Towns, however, Montgomery's troops were attacked by the Cherokee and routed. After regrouping they marched to the abandoned town of Echoe, only to retreat back to Charleston. Immediately upon his arrival Montgomery announced that he would board ships in the harbor and set sail out of South Carolina's Indian problems. This, as might be imagined, caused a new round of panic and paranoia in Charleston, which was only deepened by the discovery that the troops of the Overhill Fort Loudon garrison were slaughtered by the Cherokee under a flag of truce.

The third campaign was organized and initially lead by Lt. Governor William Bull. This campaign resulted in 33 days of raising havoc in the Cherokee settlements. Enough damage was done this time to cause Little Carpenter, recognized as an overall leader of the Cherokee to seek peace that fall (Hatley 1993:153-154).

The campaigns were traumatic, revealing the embarrassing military and financial weakness of the colony, the inability of its leaders to devise military operations, and the lack of enthusiasm on the part of North Carolina to be brought into troubles to the south. The war also challenged the myth of a special relationship between the Cherokee and English. Both sides behaved in reprehensible fashion, slaughtering innocents and those under a flag of truce. But perhaps most of all, it continued to gnaw at the psyche of the Colony, emphasizing the discord between planter and merchant, upcountry pioneer and lowcountry planter, and white owners and black slave. Further, peace did not come quickly or convincingly. The relations between red and white were so strained that the Cherokee did not welcome back traders has they had in the past. In particular, the younger members of the Cherokee towns expressed an intensive denial of white culture, wanting nothing to do with the white man, his way, or his trade goods.

The boundary line was re-established and, for the Cherokee, it offered an opportunity to
re-establish their relationship with South Carolina. The Cherokee desired what might be called a semi-permeable boundary. Something which might allow trade when it was advantageous and permit diplomacy to keep the peace, but which would curtail, perhaps even prevent, the swelling farmer settlements. This problem was recognized by Superintendent of Indian Affairs John Stuart, who cautioned that a more eastern boundary should be established than that desired by Bull, "the inhabitants of those back Countries are in general the lowest and worst Part of the People, and as they and the Indians live in perpetual Jealousy and Dread of each other, so their rooted Hatred for each other is reciprocal" (quoted in Hatley 1993:206).

The American Revolution caused the next clash between the colonists and the Cherokees. The period between 1776 and 1780 was one of relative calm in the backcountry, while the revolution raged on primarily in the northern colonies. There were pillaging raids in the backcountry by loyalists based in East Florida, but these were minor compared to what would occur later. The greatest raid, in the backcountry, was the final Cherokee solution. It seems that whatever hopes the whigs had of continuing peaceful relations with the Cherokee were abandoned in the spring of 1776. There were occasional Indian raids, which might have been participated in by the Cherokee (see Milling 1969:313-315). As in the past, however, anger was generated more by what the Cherokee might do, rather than by what they, in fact, had done.

Individuals such as William Henry Drayton, who in the past supported the Cherokees, suddenly spoke out urging their virtual elimination:

It is expected you make smooth work as you go — that is you cut up every Indian corn field, and burn every Indian town — and that every Indian taken shall be the slave and property of the taker; that the nation be extirpated, and the lands become the property of the public. For my part I shall never give my voice for a peace with the Cherokee Nation upon any other terms than their removal beyond the mountains (Drayton quoted in Hatley 1993:192).

The old voices of colonial manifest destiny were thereby united with the whig philosophy of freedom and independence.

To achieve their goals the whigs quickly devised an intercolonial campaign with troops from several colonies penetrating the tribal territory for the purpose of destroying the Cherokee. As in the past, the campaign was marred by poor planning, poor coordination, and poor leadership, but it did succeed in seriously damaging the Cherokee landscape, with one participant noting that the Cherokee "were reduced to a state of the most deplorable and wretched being often obliged to subsist on insects and reptiles of every kind" (Hatley 1993:195). Soconee, Keowee, Sugar Town, Estatoe, Tugaloo, Tamassee, Cheowee, and Eustaste were burned and fields full of crops were destroyed.

The Cherokees were to face at least seven major offensives before the Revolutionary War was over. For example, in August 1776, Griffith Rutherford lead North Carolina troops against the towns along the Tuchasegee, Oconaluftee, Hiwassee, and upper Little Tennessee rivers. In September South Carolinians attacked the Lower Towns and then aided Rutherford in destroying the Middle Towns. Colonel Samuel Jack burned towns at the heads of the Chattahoochee and Tugaloo rivers, while the Virginians burned the Overhill towns found on the Little Tennessee.

Each attack was similar to the previous and eventually the Cherokee will was broken. With only a handful of settlements intact and

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6 These are briefly discussed by Milling (1969:320-321).
many of her people starving, the Cherokees sued for peace, signing two separate treaties. The first was signed on May 20, 1777 at DeWitt's Corners. Here the Cherokee surrendered nearly all their remaining territory in South Carolina, including the present counties of Greenville, Anderson, Pickens, and Oconee. The Indians, however, were permitted to remain in the ceded Indian territory, "by political indulgence" and it is clear that they began to rebuild a number of their Lower Towns in Oconee County (Milling 1969:319). A second treaty was signed on July 20, 1777 at the Long Island of the Holston. Here the Cherokee ceded everything they possessed east of the Blue Ridge, fulfilling the colonial governments' lust for land and driving the Cherokees (at least on paper) "beyond the mountains." Sporadic raids, however, continued until the Treaty of Paris in 1782.

By this time there were signs of political and social disintegration. The population was slowly shifting to the southwest, into Alabama, northwestern Georgia, and the far western portions of North Carolina. Migration also began to the Indian Territory west of the Mississippi River. In 1789 the federal government began a "civilization program" of training and subsidies to entice the Cherokee into Anglo-agricultural activities. Most of this aid was distributed to the region which had become the political center of the Cherokee, focusing on the southern Overhill and norther Lower Town areas, with little attention paid the Middle Towns (Riggs 1988:10). Riggs notes that the more traditional Cherokee – many in the Middle Towns – resisted these efforts.

The Middle Towns, suffering from war, depopulation, a decline in the fur trade, and a lack of viable alternative economic opportunities continued to suffer. A census of the Cherokee in 1809 records a population of about 1054 individuals in the region and documents the extraordinary poverty of the region. Riggs observes that the census reveals 0.21 horse, 0.68 cattle, and 0.62 hogs per capita, compared to averages 15 to 20 times as great in the more mixed-blood Overhill Towns (Riggs 1988:13).

The United States/Cherokee Treaty of 1819 ceded Cherokee lands in Tennessee, North Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama for lands in the Western Cherokee Nation. A brief clause in this treaty allowed Cherokees who wished to stay to become citizens and thus be granted a 640 acre "individual reservation" (Riggs 1988:13). The response was far greater than the United Government anticipated and a number of these parcels were eventually laid out in the study area of the Middle Towns (including one to the west on Iotla Creek to Ah-leach. North Carolina, however, refused to grant citizenship to these Indians, at the same time that the Cherokee Nation passed a law that refused citizenship to those who emigrated to Arkansas or who took individual reservations.

Milling notes that there were not less than 17 treaties with the Cherokee between 1785 and 1835. In more the 75% of these treaties the Indians ceded land and in each case the remainder of their territory was "guaranteed forever." He notes that this eternity was, on average, about four years (Milling 1969:334).

The Removal Act of 1830 and the 1835 Treaty of New Echota resulted in an unprecedented crisis for the North Carolina Cherokee. This treaty exchanged all remaining Cherokee lands east of the Mississippi for western territory and required the removal of all Cherokee nationals. As Riggs observes:

Because of the reservees' peculiar citizenship status (they had renounced Cherokee citizenship, but North Carolina would not acknowledge them as citizens) they were not legally subject to the forced Cherokee Removal of 1838. Many were aware, however, of the inability or unwillingness of federal troops and militia to discriminate between Cherokees, and took refuge in the mountains to avoid internment and deportation.
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(Riggs 1988:19).

The final removal is widely recognized as one of the cruelest and most despicable events in American history. Of the 17,000 Cherokees rounded up for forced deportation, 4,000 died during the journey. Those who were able to flee and hide in the mountains formed the nucleus of what later became legally recognized as the Eastern Band of the Cherokee and who continue to live in the Qualla Boundary Reservation.7

Historic Synopsis

For a general history of Transylvania County, see McCrary’s (1984) Transylvania Beginnings: A History. Also see Wetmore (1993) for a brief history of Transylvania County.

Many early settlers of the area now known as Transylvania County had received land grants for their military service in the American Revolution (Wetmore 1993). Many of these early settlements were made in the areas of Cherryfield, the Davidson River, and the Little River (King et al. 1974; McCrary 1984).

The early nineteenth century saw the settlement of the area before clear boundaries of the frontier area were drawn. This resulted in a three-state conflict known as the Walton War. Poorly performed surveys and state and federal lands grants issued for the same territory resulted in overlapping claims by the Carolinas and Georgia (Wetmore 1993). The dispute was resolved in 1819 in North Carolina’s favor (Reidinger 1981).

The residents of the area who protested the resolution petitioned for a separate county to be known as Hawkins. While the petition was not successful, Henderson County, created in 1838, had nearly identical boundaries to Hawkins, however, the proposed location of the county seat was now in dispute. The county seat, known as Hendersonville, was finally located along the Buncombe Turnpike (Thompson 1991). In 1861 Transylvania County was formed from portions of Henderson and Jackson counties (Corbitt 1950).

The economy at this time consisted of subsistence agriculture. Although the area did not have a plantation economy, there were nearly 25 slaveholders in the county prior to the Civil War. Saw and grist mills were located throughout the county and some mining of ores for the Davidson Iron Works was done (McCrary 1984).

7 It wasn’t until 1874 that the United States courts finally affirmed that the Cherokee had title to the Qualla Reservation and it wasn’t until 1930 that the United States Congress finally agreed that members of the Eastern Band were U.S. citizens.
Transylvania County saw some effects of the Civil War, where an underground railroad was established to Tennessee to move escaped slaves, information, and supplies to Federal forces (Gavin 1970). Outlaws and deserters of the armies also hid out in the mountains and posed a threat to several farmsteads, where most men were off at war.

Agriculture remained the chief occupation, however transportation of goods was a problem due to the few paved roads and the unnavigable rivers (see Dykeman 1955; Pettitt 1991). The railroad reached Brevard in 1895 which connected to Asheville and Hendersonville. The operation of the railroad brought a boom in logging and mining and lured northern investors such as G.W. Vanderbilt and Joseph Silversteen who bought large tracts of standing timber (Wetmore 1993). By 1900, steam sawmills were in operation and the manufacture of timber and lumber products was North Carolina's second leading industry (Eller 1982).

The early twentieth century brought tourism to the county were where the mountain scenery and cool temperatures lured people to stay in anything from rustic cabins to luxurious hotels (Wetmore 1993). The increase in people also caused more roads to be widened and paved, making travel to this area easier. It also aided in the creation of the Pisgah and Nantahala National Forests (1916 and 1919) and the Blue Ridge Parkway (1930s).

The Depression caused many people to seek jobs in more industrial cities. The Federal Government controlled about 25% of the land in western North Carolina during this time (McKinney 1987). The Ecusta Paper Plant, just east of the current project area, was established in 1938, along with other industries such as DuPont, NASA, and American Thread (Thompson 1991). These industries helped cause a balance in today's economy which consists of farming, industry, and tourism (Wetmore 1993).
METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques at Tract A involved the placement of shovel tests at 50-foot intervals along transects also placed every 50 feet. Due to the steep slopes of Tract B, shovel tests and transects were placed at 100-foot intervals.

All soil would be screened through \( \frac{1}{4} \)-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 foot intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of North Carolina site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with few modifications. Transects at Tract A were set up from north to south along Ecusta Road with shovel tests running east to the Davidson River. A total of 253 shovel tests along 23 transects were excavated. Transects at Tract B were set up along US 64/276 with shovel tests running north. A total of 54 shovel tests along 14 transects were excavated along with nine additional tests at 25-foot intervals for the located site.

The GPS positions were taken with a Garmin GPS 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was not a vital concern for the study area since the site was in an open area.

GPS accuracy is generally affected by a number of sources of potential error, including errors with satellite clocks, multipathing, and selective availability. Satellite clock errors can occur when the satellite’s clock is off by as little as a millisecond, or when a slightly-askew orbit results in a distance error. Multipathing occurs when the signal bounces off trees, chain-link fences, or bodies of water. Multipathing probably did not occur in the project area due to the lack of tree cover in the site area. The source of most extreme GPS errors is selective availability (SA), which has been turned off by the Department of Defense.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the North Carolina Division of Archives and History.
Figure 9. Tract A with transects.
Figure 10. Tract B with transects.
The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and

a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

Figure 11. View down steep slope from the site area.
• evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

• identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the Office of State Archaeology, the closest regional repository. The site form for the identified archaeological site has been filed with the Office of State Archaeology. Field notes and photographic materials have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of prehistoric materials were defined by such authors as Coe (1964) and Moore (1981 and 2002).
RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey one archaeological site (31TV828) was identified (Tract B). This site is a middle Archaic site with sparse remains. This site has poor integrity due to erosion and it is unlikely that the site will be able to address significant research questions.

Archaeological Resources

31TV828

Site 31TV828 consists of a surface scatter of Middle Archaic artifacts. The site is situated on a ridge top at an elevation of about 2200 feet AMSL. The site is about 700 feet west of the Davidson River.

Vegetation on the tract is primarily mixed pines and hardwoods, however, the portion of the tract where the site was found had been bulldozed, revealing an exposed surface area. A central UTM coordinate is E344670 N3904374 (NAD27 datum). The site is accessible from US 64/276.

Shovel tests were completed at the originally proposed 100-foot intervals with Transect 6, Shovel test 4 and Transect 7, Shovel test 3 falling in the site area. Shovel tests were performed at 25-foot intervals in the site area, however none were positive. The extent of the site was determined by surface collections with the dimensions estimated to be 100 feet east-west by 25 feet north-south.

Figure 12. Topographic map showing the site area.
Figure 13. Sketch map and soil profile for the site.
RESULTS OF SURVEY

Figure 14. View of site area looking northwest.

This point measures 54.4 mm in length, 21.8 mm in width, and 11.62 mm in thickness. As previously mentioned, this point dates to the Middle Archaic period. Also found were 13 quartzite flakes, one chert flake, and one sherd.

Shovel tests in the site area normally produce Fannin loams with a 15-45% slope and an A1 horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loam to a depth of 0.2 foot over a brown (7.5YR5/4) loam to a depth of 0.5 foot. The subsoil consists of a yellowish red (5YR5/8) fine sandy clay loam to a depth of almost 1.0 foot. However, erosion on the ridge top caused the yellowish red (almost orange) soil to be exposed.

Only one diagnostic artifact was recovered, a Guilford lanceolate projectile point (Coe 1964:43-44). Figure 15. View of cabin on Tract B, looking west.

31TV828 is extremely sparse and dispersed with no locus of materials. Subsurface testing failed to reveal any artifacts due to severe erosion. It is unlikely that this site will be able to provide any additional information which could address significant research.
Site 31TV828 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

Other Resources

The North Carolina State Historic Preservation Office recommended that the cabin located on the property of Tract B, be examined for its National Register potential.

A closer examination of the cabin reveals a single story structure with rough clapboards set on a concrete foundation. Windows are 6/6 and the roof has asphalt shingles. The structure appears to have been constructed ca. 1960 and possesses no defining or unique traits. The structure is considered recent and no architectural form was completed.
CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of two tracts of land totaling about 23.1 acres (Tract A: 13 acres and Tract B: 10.1 acres) for commercial development in Brevard, Transylvania County, North Carolina. Activities on the tract will include clearing, grubbing, grading, construction of utilities, and erection of structures. This study, conducted for Froehling & Robertson, Inc., provides the results of that investigation and is intended to assist that organization and its client comply with the historic preservation responsibilities associated with permitting the facility.

The survey consists of two tracts with one a floodland pasture and the other a steep pine and hardwood forest. Both tracts are located along US 64/276.

One archaeological site (31TV828) was identified during the survey. The site is an prehistoric surface scatter of Middle Archaic lithics. Due to the lack of integrity coupled with the inability to address significant research questions, this site is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places and no additional management activities are recommended.

In addition, the cabin on Tract B was examined and found to be recent moreover it does not exhibit traits that would make it eligible for the National Register.

The surrounding areas are still fairly rural, although the area is being quickly developed for commercial properties. The Ecusta Paper Company is located just south of the project.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).
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