ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY FOR PORTIONS OF THE PROGRESS ENERGY ASHEVILLE–ENKA 115KV TRANSMISSION LINE PROJECT INVOLVING THE BLUE RIDGE PARKWAY, BUNCOMBE COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

FINAL REPORT

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR ARPA PERMIT BLRI 2011-001
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ABSTRACT

TRC Environmental Corporation (TRC) has completed an intensive archaeological survey of those portions of Progress Energy's Asheville–Enka 115kV transmission line project that will potentially result in ground disturbances on the Blue Ridge Parkway in Buncombe County, North Carolina. The two survey areas include the proposed locations of new plantings along the Parkway and the Mountains to Sea Trail at the transmission line crossing east of the French Broad River, as well as the location where a ca. 0.23-mile (371-m) section of existing overhead distribution line is proposed to be buried north of the Blue Ridge Parkway/US 74A intersection (Pike Electric 2010). The field survey took place on November 1, 2010 and was directed by Michael Nelson. The work was conducted to ensure compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and its implementing regulations, 36 CFR 800 (*Protection of Historic Properties*), and took place under the terms of U.S. Department of the Interior Archeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA) Permit BLRI 2011-001. The project has been assigned Southeast Archeological Center (SEAC) Accession No. 2319.

The background research identified no previously recorded archeological sites in either project area. The field survey included systematic 20-m interval shovel testing of those parts of the potential disturbance areas that exhibit less than 15 percent slope, as well as visual inspection of the ground surface for cultural remains. A total of 18 shovel tests were excavated, five at the proposed transmission line crossing and 13 along the distribution line north of the Blue Ridge Parkway/US 74A intersection. No artifacts were found, and no surface or subsurface indications of archaeological sites or other cultural resources were encountered. Consequently, no further archaeological investigation of these project areas is recommended.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank Dr. David Morgan, National Park Service Regional Archeologist, for facilitating issuance of an Archeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA) permit, and Steven Kidd, Blue Ridge Parkway Cultural Resource Specialist/ Archeologist, for his assistance. J. David Anderson, Parkway Landscape Architect/ROW Specialist, is also thanked for providing Park Land Use Maps (PLUMs) of the project areas.

We also would like to thank Buzz Bryson and Mark Venvell of Progress Energy, Will Buie of William G. Lapsley and Associates, and Clement Riddle and Rebekah Newton of ClearWater Environmental, for their assistance and support.

For TRC, Michael Nelson and Chris Pettyjohn conducted the survey. The background research was conducted by Heather Olson, and Matt Paré produced the graphics. The report was copyedited by Heather Millis.

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1. INTRODUCTION

TRC Environmental Corporation (TRC) has completed an intensive archaeological survey of those portions of Progress Energy's Asheville–Enka 115kV transmission line project that will potentially result in ground disturbances on Blue Ridge Parkway (Parkway) property in Buncombe County, North Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The two survey areas include the proposed locations of new plantings along the Parkway and the Mountains to Sea Trail at the transmission line crossing east of the French Broad River, as well as the location where a ca. 0.23-mile (371-m) section of existing overhead distribution line is proposed to be buried north of the Blue Ridge Parkway/US 74A intersection (Pike Electric 2010). The field survey took place on November 1, 2010 and was directed by Michael Nelson. The work was conducted to ensure compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and its implementing regulations, 36 CFR 800 (*Protection of Historic Properties*), and took place under the terms of U.S. Department of the Interior Archeological Resources Protection Act (ARPA) Permit BLRI 2011-001. The project has been assigned Southeast Archeological Center (SEAC) Accession No. 2319.

The existing Asheville–Enka transmission line corridor crosses the Blue Ridge Parkway east of the French Broad River and NC Highway 191 in Buncombe County. As there will be no tower construction or associated activities on Parkway property at this location, the only proposed ground disturbances will consist of new plantings along the Parkway and the nearby Mountains to Sea Trail. The second survey area is located some distance to the north, north of the Blue Ridge Parkway/US 74 intersection and southwest of the Blue Ridge Parkway Headquarters complex, where Progress Energy proposes to bury a ca. 0.23-mile (371-m) section of an existing distribution line extending northwest from US 74 across the Parkway (and Trail) to Gashes Loop Road (SR 2764).

The background research identified no previously recorded archeological sites in either project area. The field survey included systematic 20-m interval shovel testing of those parts of the potential disturbance areas that exhibit less than 15 percent slope, as well as visual inspection of the ground surface for cultural remains. A total of 18 shovel tests were excavated, five at the proposed transmission line crossing and 13 along the distribution line north of the Blue Ridge Parkway/US 74A intersection. No artifacts were found, and no surface or subsurface indications of archaeological sites or other cultural resources were encountered. Consequently, no further archaeological investigation of these project areas is recommended.

This report is organized in the following way. Chapter 2 provides information on the natural environment, and Chapter 3 presents a summary of the culture history of the project region, including information on local history and previous research in the area. Chapter 4 specifies the research goals and methods, and the results of the background research and survey are presented in Chapter 5. The conclusions and recommendations are provided in Chapter 6, which is followed by a list of references cited.

Figure 1.1. Location of southern project area at the Asheville–Enka 115kV transmission line Blue Ridge Parkway crossing, Buncombe County, North Carolina.

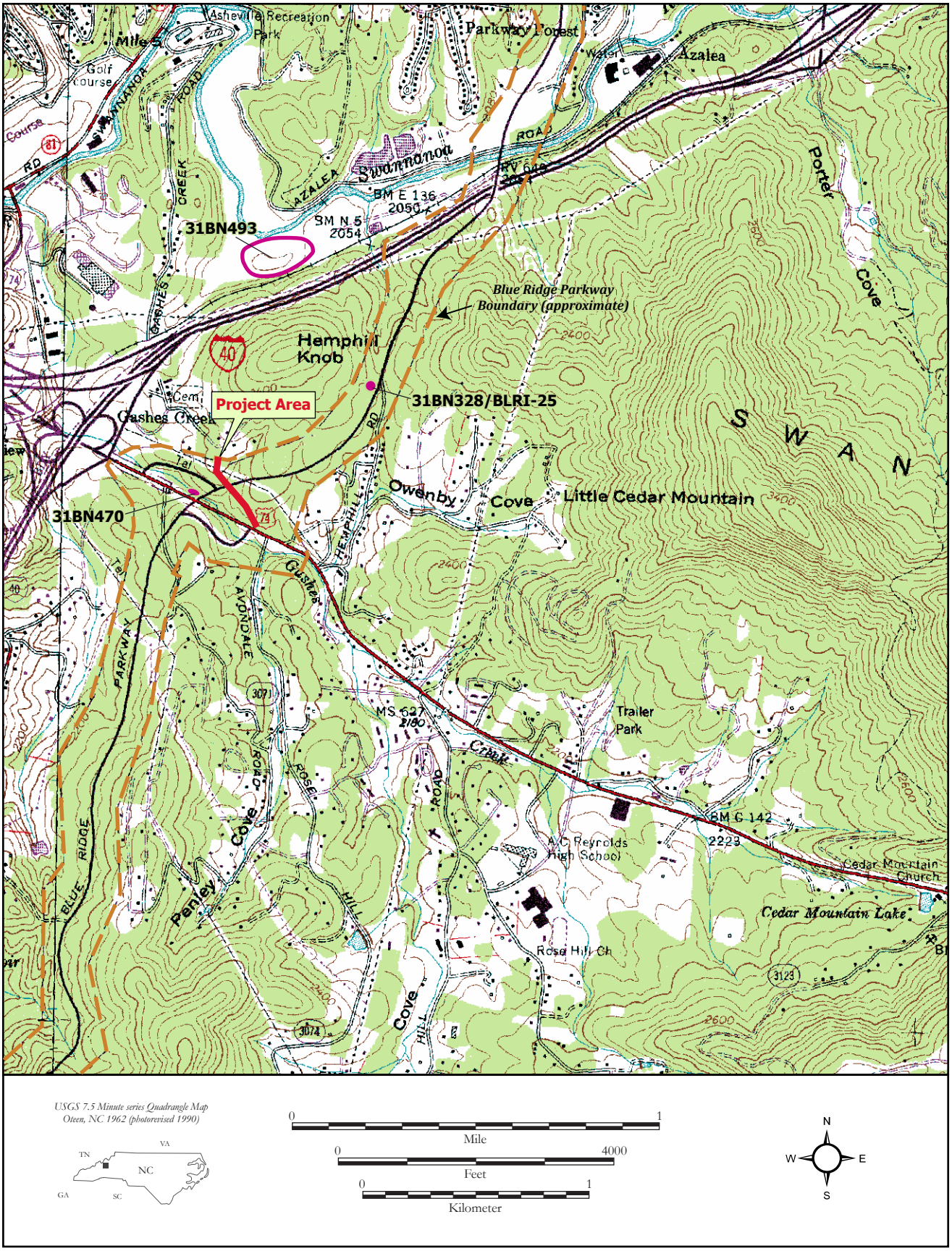

Figure 1.2. Location of northern project area and previously identified sites near the Blue Ridge Parkway/ US 74/A intersection, Buncombe County, North Carolina.

2. ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

PROJECT SETTING

The two project areas are located along the Blue Ridge Parkway southeast of Asheville in Buncombe County, North Carolina. The first survey area is located at the transmission line crossing, approximately 0.30 miles due east of NC Highway 191 and 0.20 miles east of the French Broad River south of Asheville (Figure 2.1). The second survey area is north of US 74A and approximately 0.50 miles southeast of Interstate 40, and follows an existing overhead distribution line northwest before turning north and ending at Gashes Loop Road (Figure 2.2). Both sections include land on the north and south sides of the Parkway and also cross the Mountains to Sea Trail. Both sections include slightly sloping areas containing heavy secondary growth beneath existing overhead lines, as well as graded and grassy areas along the shoulders of the Parkway.

PHYSIOGRAPHY, GEOLOGY, HYDROLOGY, AND SOILS

The study areas are situated in the Blue Ridge province of the Appalachian Mountains, within the intermountain plateau (Asheville Basin) physiographic subdivision (Goldston et al. 1954:3), which is the largest intermountain basin in the Blue Ridge. In North Carolina, the Blue Ridge stretches from the Unaka and Great Smoky Mountains in the west to the Blue Ridge escarpment, which borders the Piedmont at the Brevard fault in the east (Orr and Stuart 2000:21–20). The Blue Ridge Province is traditionally described as the area between the Brevard fault zone and the Blue Ridge fault systems, and is characterized by thrust sheets with separate tectonic histories (Hatcher and Goldberg 1991). The intermountain plateau is a broad valley on either side of the French Broad River that is characteristically rolling and hilly with an average elevation of 2,300 ft above mean sea level (AMSL) (Goldston et al. 1954:4). Elevations within the southern project corridor (east of the French Broad River) range from 2,100 ft AMSL atop the southern bank to 2,040 ft AMSL along the north shoulder of the Parkway. Within the northern project corridor (north of US 74A), elevations range from 2,200 ft AMSL adjacent to Gashes Loop Rd to 2,140 ft AMSL adjacent to US 74A.

Geologically, the project areas is contained within the Blue Ridge Belt (NCGS 1985). The Blue Ridge Belt is an area that has a similar complex geologic history characterized by metamorphosed sedimentary and igneous rocks that have been transformed by the intense pressures and temperatures related to internal plate tectonics. The project areas fall within the Ashe Metamorphic Suite and Tallulah Falls Formation as mapped by the North Carolina Geological Survey (NCGS 1985), which consist of younger rocks (543–900 my) than the basement rocks, which are biotite gneisses and amphibolites representing the oldest rocks in the region (900–1600 my). The project areas are mapped as containing metagraywacke, "…interlayered and gradational with mica schist, muscovite-biotite gneiss and rare graphitic gneiss" (NCGS 1985). Important materials in prehistoric times that were locally available were quartz, quartzite, and mica, all occurring in the general area. Soapstone outcrops also occur, but are not plentiful. During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, such minerals as garnet, olivine, and mica were mined in the western North Carolina Mountains.

The southern survey area is drained by a small unnamed tributary that is crossed by the corridor just north of the Parkway, and which flows into the French Broad River just north and east of its confluence with Bent Creek. The northern survey area (north of US 74A) is drained by Gashes Creek, which is situated southwest of the project corridor. Gashes Creek flows northwest before joining the Swannanoa River north of the I–40 and I–240 intersection. The Swannanoa River then flows along a slightly southeast course through Asheville until it meets the French Broad River just east of the I-40 and I–26 intersection.

Figure 2.1. View of shovel test location along Mountains to Sea Trail in southern project area, view to northwest with Parkway in background.

Figure 2.2. View along existing overhead distribution line in northern project area, view to southeast.

The French Broad's headwaters are in Transylvania County to the south. From there, it flows north and west through Henderson, Buncombe, and Madison counties before entering Tennessee. In Tennessee, the French Broad heads west and south, joining the Holston River just east of Knoxville to form the Tennessee River. The Tennessee River flows west and south into Alabama and then turns north back into Tennessee, continuing north into Kentucky and eventually joining the Ohio River. The Ohio River flows west into the Mississippi River, which empties into the Gulf of Mexico to the south.

The southern survey area is composed primarily of soils belonging to the Tate or Clifton series. Both Tate loam (15–30% slope) and Clifton sandy loam (15–30% slope) are very deep well-drained soils. Tate loam is formed in colluvium derived from weathered granite, gneiss, or schist and is found on fans, benches and foot slopes, while Clifton loam is found on ridge tops and side slopes. The northern survey area contains soils from either the Clifton series or the Evard-Cowee series. A small pocket of Clifton clay loam (8–15% slope) was found at the southern end of this corridor closest to US 74A, while Evard–Cowee complex (15–30% and 30–50% slope) soils were found at the middle and northern end of the corridor. Like the Clifton sandy loam and Tate loams, soils in the Evard-Cowee complex are well-drained, deep soils, and are generally found on side slopes (NRCS 2010).

MODERN CLIMATE

The climate of Buncombe County is temperate and humid, but is generally cooler than other parts of the state found at lower altitudes. Summers are normally cool and short, while winters are fairly cold (Goldston et al. 1954:8–9). Asheville averages 37 inches of precipitation a year (Orr and Stuart 2000:25). The spring and fall months receive the most precipitation, while summer months are the driest. Temperature and precipitation records indicate that the growing season lasts for about 190 days, extending from the beginning of April through mid-October (Goldston et al. 1954:9–10). Accumulation of snowfall in the mountains can average 10–14 inches per year; however, this can be misleading since one storm might produce nearly a foot of snow, while little accumulation may occur during several storms in other years (Orr and Stuart 2000:25).

FLORA AND FAUNA

The study area is located in the Southern Appalachians section of the Oak-Chestnut Forest region (Braun 1950). Prior to 1920 and the blight, chestnut (*Castanea dentata*) dominated the region, but a great mix of species including tulip poplar (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), ash (*Fraxinus* spp.), hemlock (*Tsuga* spp.), white basswood (*Tilia* spp.), buckeye (*Aesculus* spp.), oak (*Quercus* spp.), red maple (*Acer rubrum*), walnut (*Juglans nigra*), wild cherry (*Prunus serotina*), birch (*Betula* spp.), and beech (*Fagus grandifolia*) could be found in the valleys, coves, and along sheltered mountain slopes (Holmes 1911:38). Little or no primary forest vegetation remains in this section of the region due to the blight, logging, and other human activity (see Braun 1950:199). Presently, oak and pine (*Pinus* spp.) are the most common species with red maple, locust (*Gleditsia* spp.), black gum (*Nyssa sylvatica*), sourwood (*Oxydendrum arboreum*), and dogwood (*Cornus* spp.) all common as well on the intermountain plateau (Orr and Stuart 2000:36–37).

In addition to arboreal species, the forests supported a variety of undergrowth species. The latter included several varieties of edible berries, such as blackberries and raspberries (*Rubus* spp.) and huckleberries (*Gaylussacia* spp.), as well as numerous other species used for food and medicinal purposes by both the Cherokee and later Euro-American settlers (Mooney and Olbrechts 1932; Oliver 1989:29).

The varied forests in the area would have supported a substantial and diverse fauna during and prior to Euro-American settlements. Potential game species include white-tailed deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*), black bear (*Ursus americanus*), elk (*Cervus elaphus*), raccoon (*Procyon lotor*), opossum (*Didelphis*

marsupialis), gray squirrel (*Sciurus carolinensis*), and fox squirrel (*Sciurus niger*). Other species present included beaver (*Castor canadensis*), gray fox (*Urocyon cinereoargenteus*), otter (*Lutra canadensis*), muskrat (*Ondatra zibethica*), mink (*Mustela vison*), wolf (*Canis* sp.), panther or mountain lion (*Felis concolor*) and bobcat (*Lynx rufus*) (Shelford 1963). Avian species of possible economic importance included turkey (*Meleagris gallopavo*) and smaller species; other species may have been valuable non-food resources as well. The French Broad River and its tributary streams would have provided a variety of fish, including catfish (Ictaluridae), sunfish (Centrarchidae), and largemouth (*Micropterus salmoides*) and smallmouth (*Micropterus dolomieui*) bass, while brook trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*) were present in upland tributaries.

3. CULTURAL BACKGROUND

PREHISTORIC OVERVIEW

This chapter presents an overview of the prehistoric and historic period occupations of western North Carolina. Much of the earlier part of the cultural sequence for the region is based on Coe's (1964) investigations of the prehistoric cultures of North Carolina, coupled with more recent research in North Carolina (e.g., Daniel 1998), Tennessee (e.g., Davis 1990; Kimball 1985), and Georgia (Stanyard 2003). Information on the later pre-contact and historic Native American occupations of the region is derived from a variety of sources, including Dickens (1976), Keel (1976), Purrington (1983), Riggs (1988, 1996, 1999); Riggs and Rodning (2002), Rodning (2008), Ward and Davis (1999), and Wetmore (2002).

The prehistory of western North Carolina can be divided into four basic time and cultural periods. These periods—Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, and Mississippian—relate to both social and technological factors. Several authors (e.g., Dickens 1976:10; Keel 1976:18; Ward and Davis 1999; Wetmore 2002) divide some or all of these periods into phases, some of which overlap in time and name but vary in precise definition (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. Generalized Chronology for American Indian Occupations of Western North Carolina through 1838*.

Period	Phase	Chronology
Historic Cherokee	Late Qualla	A.D. 1700–1838
Protohistoric	Middle Qualla	A.D. 1500–1700
Mississippian	Early Qualla	A.D. 1400–1500
	Late Pisgah**	A.D. 1200–1400
	Early Pisgah**	A.D. 1000–1200
Late Woodland	Undefined (Napier/Woodstock?)	A.D. 800–1000
	Undefined (Cane Creek/Late Swift Creek?)	A.D. 600–800
Middle Woodland	Connestee	A.D. 200–600 ↑
	Pigeon	200 B.C. – A.D. 200
Early Woodland	Swannanoa	1000?–200 B.C.
Late Archaic	Otarre	1500–1000 B.C.
	Savannah River	3000–1500 B.C.
Middle Archaic	Guilford	4000–3000 B.C.
	Morrow Mountain	6000–4000 B.C.
	Stanly	6000–5500 B.C.
Early Archaic	LeCroy	7000–6000 B.C.
	Kirk/Palmer	7500–7000 B.C. ↑
	Big Sandy	8000–7500 B.C.
Paleoindian	Undefined (Hardaway-Dalton?)	9000–8000 B.C.
	Clovis	10,000–9000 B.C.
Pre-Paleoindian	Undifferentiated	Unknown

↑ represents overlap into a later culture period. *Adapted from several sources including Rodning (2004), Stanyard (2003), and Ward and Davis (1999). **The Hiawassee and upper Little Tennessee River Valleys appear to contain Early and Middle Mississippian ceramic types that are more related to the Woodstock, Etowah, and Savannah cultural sequence of north Georgia (see Riggs and Kimball 1996).

Paleoindian Period (ca. 10,000?–8000 B.C.)

The Paleoindian period represents the earliest well documented human occupation of the Southeast. Key diagnostic artifacts of this period are fluted and unfluted lanceolate projectile points; a variety of flake tools, such as endscrapers, gravers, retouched blades, and burins, are also found. Almost all of the Paleoindian materials found in the region have come from surface contexts, and as a result few data are available concerning regional subsistence or social organization (Anderson 1990). Hunting of late

Pleistocene megafauna is inferred based on evidence from other areas, although direct evidence for use of animals of any kind is rare in the Southeast. Most, if not all, Paleoindian populations probably relied extensively on other animal and plant foods as well (Meltzer and Smith 1986; Purrington 1983). Paleoindian projectile points are exceedingly rare occurrences in the North Carolina mountains.

Paleoindian populations were generally highly mobile, and settlements are thought to have included small temporary camps and less common base camps that were occupied by loosely organized bands. Paleoindians selected high-quality lithic materials for tools, and many sites are linked to important source areas. Keel (1976:17) suggested that the earlier Clovis phase (pre-9000 B.C.) populations may have been confined to south of an east-west line at the latitude of Asheville because of permafrost to the north. The later Paleoindian phase appears to include Dalton (Goodyear 1982) and perhaps Hardaway (Ward 1983) points and related cultures, although both types of artifacts are also very rare in the Appalachian Summit region (Purrington 1983).

Archaic Period (ca. 8000–1000 B.C.)

The Archaic period began with the onset of Holocene, post-glacial climatic conditions in the East, and has been subdivided into three subperiods: Early, Middle, and Late. Diagnostic projectile points are the primary criteria used to identify and date distinct Archaic manifestations. As a whole, the Archaic may be seen as a relatively long and successful foraging adaptation, with subsistence based on hunting, fishing, and the collection of wild plant resources. The period is also marked by a general increase in the density and dispersal of archaeological remains, more regionally distinct tool forms, and the increased use of locally available lithic raw materials. Group size gradually increased during this period, culminating in relatively large populations by the end of the period. While Archaic groups no doubt used a variety of materials to fashion utilitarian and other items, lithics are all that remain on almost all sites in the Southeast due to lack of preservation in acidic soils. Architectural evidence is rare, indicating that most structures were not substantial constructions. Few Archaic sites have been the focus of intensive excavation in the Appalachian Summit (but see Purrington 1981; Shumate and Kimball 2001; Webb et al. 2005), although several Archaic sites have been investigated in eastern Tennessee in the Tellico area (e.g., Chapman 1981) and in the North Carolina Piedmont (Coe 1964).

Early Archaic (ca. 8000–6000 B.C.). During the Early Archaic period, the mixed coniferous forests present in much of the Southeast were replaced by mixed hardwood communities dominated by oak, hemlock, beech, and maple (Claggett and Cable 1982:212). A modern faunal assemblage was in place following the extinction of the Pleistocene megafauna. Diagnostic markers of the Early Archaic period in western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee include side-notched Big Sandy projectile points and later Palmer-Kirk projectile points (ca. 8000–6800 B.C.). Palmer-Kirk projectile points are fairly common and widespread occurrences in the area, but are sparse compared to Middle and Late Archaic types. Bifurcate-based points such as the St. Albans, LeCroy, and Kanawha types (ca. 6900–5800 B.C.) are also found in the area (Kimball 1985), but appear to occur more rarely in the mountains than Kirk forms as is the case in northern Georgia and eastern Tennessee (Kimball 1996; Stanyard 2003). However, a survey near Asheville by an amateur archaeologist (Henry 1992) documented more bifurcates than Kirks, perhaps a reflection of better survey coverage up a smaller tributary (Kimball 1996). Other tools that occur on Early Archaic sites include knives, adzes, end and side scrapers, drills, perforators, and expedient tools (Stanyard 2003).

Low regional population densities and a continued high degree of group mobility are inferred for this period in the mountains, where most known sites are located in high upland areas, and over 90 percent of projectile points found are of non-local chert (Bass 1975); however, site burial in the floodplains could be largely masking Archaic period use of these landforms (see Benyshek 2007b; Benyshek and Webb 2004; Kimball 1995; Webb et al. 2005). The nature of more general land use patterns and strategies for

technological organization remain the subjects of discussion. To the west in Tennessee, Kimball (1996) has proposed an ongoing change from logistical (relatively more permanent base camps used from which a variety of other satellite camps and specialized use sites were accessed) to residential mobility patterns (wholesale moving frequently within zones to map onto resources) during the later Early Archaic period, perhaps as a result of the first signs of warming climatic conditions. Kimball (1996:173) notes that settlement patterns for bifurcate and Kirk groups were different, with more bifurcate sites found on T1 terraces and islands compared to Kirk sites, which are more dispersed on various landforms, suggesting a change in foraging strategy in the latter Early Archaic. Regardless, based on current data, generally compared to later periods, a high degree of mobility occurred in the Early Archaic and use of the Appalachian Summit was less permanent or as intensive than seen in eastern Tennessee.

Middle Archaic (ca. 6000–4000 B.C.). During the Middle Archaic, the cool, moist conditions of the early Holocene are generally considered to have given way to the warmer, drier climate of the Mid-Holocene Hypsithermal interval (although there is increasing evidence that the Mountains may have seen increased rainfall during this period [e.g., Leigh 2002]). Extensive estuarine marshes and riverine swamps began to emerge in coastal regions as sea levels ceased their post-Pleistocene rise by 3000 B.C. The northern hardwoods vegetational matrix in those regions was replaced by an oak-hickory forest, which was in turn replaced by a southern hardwoods-pine forest characterized by the species occupying the region today (Claggett and Cable 1982:212–216; Delcourt and Delcourt 1983, 1985). Subsistence economies became increasingly diversified, particularly evident in the Mid-South and lower Midwest during the Shell Mound Archaic, where riverine settings were chosen more often for occupation (Sassaman 1996).

The Middle Archaic witnessed the first substantial occupation in the Smoky Mountains (Bass 1975:109). Based on site file data, a marked increase in number of sites is evident from the Early to the Middle Archaic periods in Georgia and the Carolinas in general (Anderson 1996), and Morrow Mountain projectile points increase markedly compared to earlier types in western North Carolina (Leftwich 1999). Three subperiods recognized in most of North Carolina are identified by the presence of Stanly (ca. 6000–5000 B.C.), Morrow Mountain (ca. 5000–4200 B.C.), and Guilford (ca. 4200–3500 B.C.) projectile points, following the classic Archaic sequence first identified by Coe (1964). Archaeologically, the transition from the Early Archaic to the Middle Archaic is characterized by the appearance of stemmed rather than notched projectile points, and an increased incidence of groundstone tools. Reliance on locally available quartz and quartzite, rather than higher quality non-local chert, for stone tools increased in the Appalachian Summit and other areas, such as other parts of the North Carolina, northern Georgia and South Carolina. Atlatl weights make their first appearance in the archaeological record during the Middle Archaic, found in Stanly contexts at Doerschuk. Stone net sinkers also first make their appearance. The use of expedient stone tool technology predominates during the Middle Archaic, even with formal tools (Stanyard 2003).

Settlement pattern theories for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain peoples based on Sassaman's (1983) and Blanton and Sassaman's (1989) studies in South Carolina, involve foragers mapping onto resources until depleted and then moving on (similar to Binford's [1980] residential mobility). This is based on the redundant generalized and expedient stone tool technology utilizing local material, small site size and wide distribution in various landscape settings, lack of evidence for occupations of duration, and no discernable substantial trade networks (Stanyard 2003:48–49). Morrow Mountain sites are frequently encountered in the uplands of western North Carolina (e.g., Purrington 1981) and also on smaller drainages (Yu 2001) and in floodplains of major rivers, where they are sometimes buried (e.g., Benyshek and Webb 2004; Webb et al. 2005). Bass (1975) found half of the Middle Archaic sites in the uplands, with the others in valleys and coves. If further settlement pattern data were amassed from the Appalachian Summit, similar conclusions would likely emerge concerning Morrow Mountain populations in the mountains, as suggested by survey data in the Little Tennessee River valley where a dispersed settlement pattern was identified and larger sites found on terraces were not at all typical (Davis 1990).

Late Archaic (ca. 4000–1000 B.C.). Like Middle Archaic sites, Late Archaic sites are common in the study area, although few have been the primary focus of archaeological investigations. The lower Southeast in general saw an increase in sites from the Middle to Late Archaic, and most researchers agree that a population increase is reflected in these data (Anderson 1996). During the Late Archaic period, sites occurred in a wide range of environmental zones, although most major settlements were in riverine or estuarine settings (Bass 1975; Ward 1983). In particular, many Late Archaic sites in the Smoky Mountains region appear to be situated near quartzite sources (Bass 1975:77; Shumate and Kimball 2001). The existence of formal base camps occupied seasonally or longer is inferred, together with a range of smaller resource-exploitation sites, such as hunting, fishing, or plant collecting stations (Claggett and Cable 1982; Ward 1983). Grinding implements, polished stone tools, and carved soapstone bowls become fairly common, suggesting increased use of plant resources, and possibly changes in subsistence strategies and cooking technologies. Although regional evidence is minimal, the first experiments with horticulture probably occurred at this time, with the cultivation of plants such as squash (*Cucurbita pepo*), sunflower (*Helianthus* sp.), and *Chenopodium* (Cowan 1985; Ford 1981; Smith 1989).

Late Archaic occupations in the Appalachian Summit region are marked by a variety of large- to small-stemmed points. The most prominent and recognizable of these is the Savannah River Stemmed type, a large, broad-bladed, square stemmed point that appears ca. 3000 B.C. and lasts to ca. 1500 B.C. Subsequent Late Archaic sites frequently contain slightly smaller stemmed points of the Iddins Undifferentiated Stemmed or Otarre Stemmed types (Ward and Davis 1999:71). Size reduction of these stemmed forms, on the average, is clearly indicated over the course of the Late Archaic/Early Woodland in the region (Oliver 1981, 1985). At Warren Wilson and at the Iddins site, the most common feature type during the Late Archaic is the rock-filled pit (Chapman 1981; Keel 1976). Toward the end of the Late Archaic, fiber tempered pottery appeared in the coastal regions (Sassaman 1993), but was very rare in the Appalachian Summit (Webb et al. 2005). Evidence for trade increases in the Late Archaic compared to the Middle Archaic, indicated by the presence of soapstone, slate, and rarely olivine outside their source areas (Chapman 1985).

Woodland Period (ca. 1000 B.C.–A.D. 1000)

The Woodland period began as early as 1000 B.C. and continued until the appearance of the Mississippian adaptation, around A.D. 1000. Across the eastern Woodlands the period is marked by the appearance of widespread pottery use, a greatly increased role for horticulture in subsistence economies, and an elaboration of mortuary ceremonialism, including the construction of mounds.

Early Woodland (ca. 1000–200 B.C.). Initial Woodland occupations are generally thought to reflect a largely unchanged continuation of Late Archaic lifeways coupled with the first widespread introduction of ceramics. The earliest Early Woodland manifestation in the project area is the Swannanoa phase, which dates ca. 1000–200 B.C. One date available for western North Carolina from 31SW393 from a probable feature containing a portion of a Swannanoa fabric impressed conoidal pot is 2,130±40 B.P. (C13/C12 corrected) with a 2-sigma range of 350–50 B.C. (Benyshek and Webb 2006; Reimer et al. 2004). A Swannanoa pit feature at 31MA77 has also been dated to 2435±25 B.P. (C-13/C-12 corrected), with a 2-sigma range of 750–400 B.C. (Benyshek and Webb 2009; Reimer et al. 2004). The hallmark of the Early Woodland is the distinctive thick, crushed quartz or coarse sand tempered fabric impressed ceramics. Cord marked, plain, check stamped and simple stamped wares are also thought to have occurred late in the Early Woodland period (Keel 1976:260–266; Ward and Davis 1999:140–143; Wetmore 2002:254–257). Vessel forms consist of unrestricted conical pots and simple bowls. Eastern Tennessee's Watts Bar and northern Georgia's Kellogg phases are similar stylistically to Swannanoa materials, as are Vinette ceramics from as far away as eastern New York (Ward and Davis 1999:142).

Early Woodland projectile points consist of smaller stemmed point forms including Otarre/Gypsy and Swannanoa stemmed, the terminal expressions of the large stemmed point tradition associated with the Late Archaic. Large triangular varieties are first seen in this period, including Transylvania and Garden Creek types, which are morphologically equivalent to Badin and Yadkin Piedmont types (Keel 1976; Oliver 1985). Although Swannanoa site distributions have not been thoroughly documented, it is apparent that the settlement pattern included both large floodplain sites, such as Warren Wilson, Garden Creek, and Tuckasegee, along with numerous small upland extractive camps. Direct evidence is lacking at present, but it seems likely that the Early Woodland inhabitants of the region were engaged in at least some degree of horticulture (Ward and Davis 1999:145). Based on evidence at Phipps Bend in eastern Tennessee, deer, elk, and turkey were the animals primarily hunted in the Early Woodland (Lafferty 1981). To date, no well-defined Early Woodland structures have been definitely identified in the region.

Middle Woodland (ca. 200 B.C.–A.D. 600). The Middle Woodland period is characterized by intensified long-distance trade throughout the Eastern Woodlands, and there is increasing evidence that some western North Carolina groups participated in the Hopewell exchange network (Chapman and Keel 1979; Keel 1976; Wetmore 2002:263). Sites with Middle Woodland components that have been the focus of intensive investigations in the region include Garden Creek in Haywood County (Keel 1976), Biltmore Mound in Buncombe County (Kimball and Shumate 2003; Kimball et al. 2004), Ela in Swain County (Wetmore 1989), Harshaw Bottom in Cherokee County (Robinson 1989), Tuckasegee in Jackson County (Keel 1976), the Tyler-Loughridge site in McDowell County (Robinson 1996), the Cherokee EMS site in Swain County (Benyshek 2007a), the Bent Creek site in Buncombe County (Shumate and Kimball 2006), the Macon County Airport site (Benyshek and Webb 2009), and the Icehouse Bottom site in Monroe County in eastern Tennessee (Chapman 1973; Cridlebaugh 1981).

Bass (1975:81) reports that while over 50 percent of Middle Woodland sites in his sample occurred on the floodplain, 40 percent were located above the valley in coves and on benches. Numerous large and small sites dating to this period have been found, suggesting periodic aggregation and dispersion or some kind of a village/base camp–specialized resource extraction station settlement dichotomy. By Connestee times, however, sites have been demonstrated to occur most often in the floodplains and a higher percentage are present on the first rise above the river than in the preceding Pigeon or Swannanoa phases (Wetmore et al. 2000).

Horticulture also is thought to have become increasingly important during this period, although mast resources remain the most visible dietary contributor. Possible late Middle Woodland cultigens in the region include maygrass, little barley, sumpweed, maize, squash, and perhaps *Chenopodium* (Benyshek 2007a; Chapman and Crites 1987; Crites 2004; Robinson 1989). Evidence for the use of animal resources is scarce from Middle Woodland sites in the area, save Biltmore Mound where preservation is excellent. Faunal information from the Connestee phase mound area may not be representative of overall diet and utilization due to the probable ceremonial activities including feasting that took place there, but no information is available from the village site to date. The assemblage is dominated by terrestrial species (white-tailed deer, turkey, box turtle, raccoon, squirrel) with aquatic resources (fish, mussels) used much less frequently (Whyte 2004).

Diagnostic early Middle Woodland ceramics in western North Carolina include the Pigeon series, which Keel (1976:256–260) defines as including check stamped, simple stamped, plain, brushed, and complicated stamped varieties with crushed quartz temper. Vessel forms include conical jars, hemispherical bowls, and tetrapodal and shouldered jars with flaring/everted rims. Pigeon ceramics are relatively common in the region, but are generally found in mixed contexts (Ward and Davis 1999:146), perhaps indicative of stable populations inhabiting the same areas for long periods of time.

Subsequent Middle Woodland ceramics consist of the Connestee series, which are generally thinner, sand tempered wares most often plain or decorated with simple stamped, cord marked or brushed surfaces. Crushed quartz temper was added in small amounts. Fabric impressed and check stamped sherds are also included in the series. Plain necks are characteristic, with punctated shoulders rarely occurring (Keel 1976:247–255). Swift Creek ceramics are often found as a minority ware on Middle Woodland sites in the area (Kimball and Shumate 2003; Robinson 1989; Ward 1977). Extremely rare are Ohio Hopewellian ceramics of non-local manufacture or locally made copies (e.g., rocker stamped) and figurines, but these have been identified at Garden Creek, the Biltmore Mound site, and at Icehouse Bottom (Keel 1976; Kimball and Shumate 2003). Lithic artifacts characteristic of the late Middle Woodland consist of large triangular and side-notched projectile points (Garden Creek and Connestee triangulars, Pigeon side notched), gorgets, and also a prismatic blade and polyhedral core technology that was probably ultimately derived from the Hopewellian Midwest (Chapman and Keel 1979:157). Copper is also found on Middle Woodland sites in the area, such as at the Garden Creek Mound, Cherokee EMS, and Peachtree, but is rare (Chapman and Keel 1979; Setzler and Jennings 1941).

Connestee phase populations engaged in mound building, evidenced by such substructure mounds as Garden Creek No. 2 and the Biltmore Mound, and interacted with Hopewellian populations in the Midwest and elsewhere (Keel 1976; Kimball and Shumate 2003; Ward and Davis 1999:151–153). Connestee series sherds are present on Hopewellian sites, and small numbers of Hopewellian ceramics and bladelets made of chalcedony from Flint Ridge in Ohio are present at the Garden Creek site, at the Biltmore Mound site, and at Icehouse Bottom (Chapman 1973; Chapman and Keel 1979; Kimball and Shumate 2003; Moore 1984). Marine shell was also traded (Kimball et al. 2004). It has been hypothesized that western North Carolina was one source of the mica that was traded and used widely during this period.

Architectural information has been limited, but at Garden Creek Mound No.2, at the base of the premound layer, a square structure measuring approximately 6 m across was identified and was attributed to the Connestee occupation (Keel 1976). At Ela, eight circular structures 7–8 m in diameter were identified as representative of Connestee phase constructions (Wetmore 1989, 2002). Recent excavations at the Macon County Airport site have also uncovered both circular and square to rectangular Woodland structures (Benyshek and Webb 2009).

Late Woodland (ca. A.D. 600–1000). The Late Woodland period in much of the Southeast saw the emergence of sedentary village life and intensive maize (*Zea mays*) horticulture and the development of complex tribal and chiefdom-level political structures. Certainly, by A.D. 1000, many interior Southeastern groups were producing substantial amounts of corn, which continued into the Mississippian period when wild food resources were supplemental to cultivated ones (Scarry 2003:88–89).

In the Appalachian Summit, the Late Woodland is largely invisible, raising questions about its character there (Wetmore 2002). A similar lack of recognition of distinctive Late Woodland components has been described in northern Georgia (Rudolph 1991). Part of the problem may be the lack of specific diagnostic artifacts useful for unequivocally identifying sites of this period (i.e., plain sherds, small triangular projectile points), but it is also possible that the Appalachian Summit region was more lightly populated during this time and small, dispersed sites were more typical. Robinson et al. (1994, 1996) have suggested that the Connestee phase may have lasted well into the Late Woodland period based on work at several sites. One Late Woodland manifestation was identified by Keel and Egloff (1984) at the Cane Creek site; the distinctive, largely plain-surfaced assemblage from that site is similar to Connestee wares and a single radiocarbon date from that site is 1340±90 B.P. (uncorrected). Site 31BN943 (Idol 2010) contained plain and brushed ceramics exclusively, and a date of 1200±40 (C13/C12 corrected) was obtained from a probable pit feature, suggesting that Cane Creek may be a viable Late Woodland manifestation in the area. Anderson and Schuldenrein (1985:720) suggest that some materials identified as Middle Woodland

Cartersville Phase in the central Piedmont of Georgia and South Carolina may actually be Late Woodland in age. Plain-surfaced ceramics predominate in the contemporaneous Simpson's Field assemblage, and the longevity of simple stamped and plain assemblages was demonstrated at the Rucker's Bottom and Bullard sites, which returned late Late Woodland dates from contexts containing those wares (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985). Other parallels may also exist farther to the south in Georgia, where the Late Woodland Vining Phase ceramics are largely plain and simple stamped (Pluckhahn 1997; Elliott and Wynn 1991; Meyers et al. 1999; Worth 1996).

Scattered Napier and Late Swift Creek ceramics and sites (such as the Cullowhee Valley School site [31JK32] [Greene 1996:120–121], Biltmore II [31BN175] [Hall and Baker 1993], Ravensford [31SW78/136], Hominy Creek [31BN828] [Paré et al. 2007], and Sneed [31JK466] [Benyshek 2008]) also occur in the region and reflect influences from the south during this period. For northern Georgia, Rudolph (1991) notes that Caldwell's Swift Creek "B complex" wares are characteristic of the Late Woodland in that area; these wares consist of finer-lined stamping than classic Swift Creek pottery, and occur with Napier forms at sites in the upper Chattahoochee and Savannah River valleys, such as the Annewakee Creek, Tugalo, and the Simpson's Field site (38AN8), which is in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir (Wood et al. 1986). The B-complex wares appear to be a Late Woodland marker for western North Carolina as well, if perhaps an infrequent one. David Moore conducted salvage operations at the multi-component Cullowhee Valley School site, and many of the sherds recovered are very similar in appearance to the ones found at the single component Sneed site (David Moore, personal communication 2007). In addition, one radiocarbon date obtained from Feature 18 at that site is close to the dates obtained from the Late Swift Creek Sneed site dates, which are 1270±40 and 1290±30 (uncorrected). The accepted date range of the Late Swift Creek component at Simpson's Field is very similar to the Sneed and Cullowhee Valley School site dates (Benyshek 2008). Rudolph (1991) also suggests that increased regionalization of ceramic styles occurred during this period in northern Georgia and points out that site dispersal seems to be the trend compared to earlier Middle Woodland site aggregation and this appears be the case for western North Carolina as well.

Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1000–1540)

The Mississippian period in the Southeast is marked primarily by the increasing intensification of maize horticulture, the establishment of increasingly hierarchical social structures and settlement systems, and an increase in ceremonialism expressed architecturally in the construction of flat-topped substructure mounds. Increasing evidence exists that territorial boundaries between chiefdoms were closely maintained during the Mississippian period, although individual chiefdoms rose and fell in cyclical patterns. Studies of relations between native chiefdoms and Spanish expeditions suggest that some type of supra-chiefdom level organization was maintained through a system in which paramount chiefs traveled from fief to fief, displaying royal powers and prerogative and receiving gifts and tribute from subservient chiefdoms (Smith and Hally 1992).

The Pisgah phase (ca. A.D. 1000–1450) corresponds with the early centuries of the Mississippian period, at least in parts of western North Carolina (Dickens 1976:13–14). Sites with Etowah phase (ca. A.D. 1100–1300) components are present in the Hiwassee River valley (Riggs and Kimball 1996) and in the upper Little Tennessee River valley (Benyshek and Webb 2009). Sites with a larger percentage of Pisgah pottery are found primarily in the eastern and central part of the Appalachian Summit region, and range from small sites such as Brunk (Moore 1981) to nucleated villages with substructure mounds such as Garden Creek (Ward and Davis 1999:160–161). Pisgah pottery is also found in the western part of the summit region as well, however, and down into northern South Carolina, and into southwestern Virginia and northeastern Tennessee (Dickens 1976). Diagnostic Pisgah artifacts include small triangular projectile points and distinctive rectilinear complicated stamped vessels with collared, slash punctated rims. Dickens (1976) suggests that finer-lined complicated stamping and lack of rim elaboration characterizes

the earlier portion of the phase, and Moore (1981) documents some of this material from the Brunk site. Maize and other crops were important sources of food, but floral and faunal remains document the persistence of wild resources as major components of the diet (Ward and Davis 1999:171). Warren Wilson is the most extensively explored Pisgah village to date, and work there over several field seasons documented at least seven palisade lines and 17 structures; seven of these had entry trenches (Dickens 1976; Moore 2002; Ward 1986). Garden Creek Mound and Village also contains a Pisgah component and the main mound (Mound No. 1) at that site was constructed during the Pisgah phase (Dickens 1976).

The Qualla phase represents the final centuries of Native American autonomy in the region. Although elements of the material culture, belief systems, place names, and social structure of Mississippian society lingered in the region well into the 19th century (and in some cases to the present day), this period is largely one of social change due to increasing Euro-American intrusion and settlement. This part of the Native American occupation of the region is discussed below as part of the historic background.

HISTORIC CHEROKEE OCCUPATION

Pre-Removal Cherokee Occupations

The first Euro-American intrusion into western North Carolina took place in 1540, when Hernando de Soto's expedition passed through the area. Several different reconstructions of de Soto's route have been proposed, with some early scholars (e.g., Swanton 1985:201–202) suggesting that he crossed Cherokee country by way of the Hiwassee River valley. A later reconstruction (Hudson et al. 1984) proposed that de Soto crossed the Blue Ridge farther to the north at Swannanoa Gap, and then continued along the French Broad River into Tennessee; more recently, Beck (1997) and Hudson (1997:193) have agreed that the expedition probably followed a more northerly route along the Toe River. The route through the Swannanoa Gap may have been taken by Juan Pardo, however, who traversed much of the region in 1567–1568 (Beck 1997:167; Hudson 1990:27–46, 1997:193).

Whatever the precise routes of these explorers, it is clear that the ancestral Cherokees' first encounter with Europeans occurred in the mid-16th century. These encounters were to have dramatic effects. The introduction of European diseases to which the native populations had little resistance caused a major reduction in Native American population levels and extensive changes in political organization. Elsewhere in the Southeast, the fragmentation and reformation of political groups resulted in a general decrease in social complexity and the total disappearance of some prehistoric societies (Smith 1987). Although substantial disruption occurred, the Cherokee managed to retain control of portions of their homeland.

The historic-period Cherokee occupation of western North Carolina is known archaeologically as the Qualla phase (ca. A.D. 1450–1838). Although early formulations of the phase (Dickens 1976) divided it into two segments (Early Qualla, ca. A.D. 1450–1650; and Late Qualla, ca. A.D. 1650–1838), more recent analysts (Riggs and Rodning 2002; Rodning 2004, 2008; Ward and Davis 1999) suggest a tripartite division. Following this latter scheme, the Early Qualla phase predates A.D. 1500, and thus was likely contemporaneous with at least the latter part of the Pisgah occupations in the region. These authors suggest that Qualla represents an *in situ* development in the Upper Little Tennessee and Hiwassee basins and likely is not a direct derivative of the Pisgah phase. Early Qualla phase ceramics show affinities to the more southern Savannah and Wilbanks styles, and samples from Coweta Creek and 31SW291 are characterized by "grit" tempered, primarily rectilinear complicated stamped wares (Riggs and Rodning 2002:39), sometimes with "sawtooth" rims. Red filming also occurs (Rodning 2004). Pisgah collared and punctated rims are not an uncommon occurrence with these Early Qualla wares, however, and Early and Late Pisgah ceramics have been identified at Ravensford. Domestic winter structure forms during the Early Qualla are the same as Late Pisgah forms (Benyshek and Webb 2008).

Subsequent Middle Qualla phase (ca. A.D. 1500–1700) ceramics are characterized by jar forms with notched appliqué, or more often, folded and notched everted to flared rims, and also by the presence of carinated or cazuela bowls with incised designs. Curvilinear complicated stamping predominates, although rectilinear designs are also present (Rodning 2004). By the Late Qualla phase (post-A.D. 1700), some variations occur; incised ceramics become much less common, while rectilinear stamped designs, rims with notched appliqué strips or fillets, and check stamping become more common in later, pre-Removal (pre-1838) assemblages. Sometime during the Middle Qualla phase, domestic structure forms change to paired winter and summer dwellings sometimes attached by entryway trenches. Summer dwellings were rectangular in shape, while winter houses were circular to octagonal (Shumate et al. 2005; Webb and Benyshek 2008).

The Qualla subsistence base was mixed, and included cultivation of maize, beans, and other foods as well as wild plant gathering, hunting, and fishing (Dickens 1976:14). The Late Qualla phase is marked by the increasing appearance of European goods at Cherokee sites, as well as a shift toward more European-style architecture (Dickens 1976:15). Although small triangular projectile points are found in Early and Middle Qualla assemblages, these largely disappear with the increasing prevalence of European firearms after A.D. 1700.

During most of the 18th century, the Cherokees were concentrated in towns and villages scattered throughout much of present-day western North Carolina, eastern Tennessee, northeastern Georgia, and northwestern South Carolina. The towns in western North Carolina were known as the Middle Towns (along the Little Tennessee), the Out Towns (along the Tuckasegee drainage), and the Valley Towns (in the Valley River area to the southwest) (Smith 1979; Duncan and Riggs 2003:17). The French Broad drainage lies east of the core area of known 17th and 18th century Cherokee settlement, which was concentrated in the Blue Ridge Mountains to the west and southwest. The area was likely frequented by Cherokee hunters, however, and may have contained small settlements at various times as well. According to Mooney (1900:380–381), the French Broad lies west of a neutral area between the Cherokees and the Catawbas, which was bounded by the Catawba River on the east and the Broad River on the west (Mooney 1900:380–381).

The 18th century brought the continuous arrival of Europeans and the resulting loss of Cherokee lands. Early interaction between the two parties consisted mostly of trade. By the mid-18th century, increased Euro-American settlement began to lead to hostility, and expeditions under Archibald Montgomery and James Grant burned many Cherokee towns in 1760 and 1761. Many Cherokees sided with the British during the American Revolution out of fear of colonial expansion and the loss of more territory. In 1776, after several Cherokee raids, General Griffith Rutherford led a force from Old Fort through present-day Buncombe, Haywood, Jackson, and Macon counties to counter the Cherokee threat. Like the de Soto and Pardo expeditions, the route Rutherford took is open to interpretation. It is believed that his army took a known Native American Indian trail through Swannanoa Gap, down the Swannanoa River, and then a short distance up the east bank of the French Broad River, before crossing at Warrior's Ford (Dykeman 1965:34). It is then believed that the path continued on to present-day Waynesville and then to the southwest to the Middle and Valley towns of the Cherokees.

With the signing of the Treaty of Hopewell in 1785, the Cherokees lost much of their lands east of the Blue Ridge, leading to widespread Euro-American settlements east of Asheville (Mooney 1900:61–62). A subsequent treaty in 1791, the Treaty of Holston, resulted in additional cessions by the Cherokees in the west (Mooney 1900:68–77), and a treaty in 1798 ceded additional land south and southwest of Asheville within present-day Buncombe, Henderson, Transylvania, and Haywood counties (Royce 1899:660–661).

The early 19th century witnessed the increasing acculturation of many Cherokees, largely as a result of increasing contact and intermarriage with white traders and settlers. Other Cherokees resisted changes to

their traditional lifestyles, especially those residing in western North Carolina (Riggs 1988:10–11). Accounts by contemporary observers indicate that the population of that area was strongly traditionalist, and contained the highest proportion of fullbloods to be found in the Cherokee Nation (McLoughlin and Cosner 1984:224–225). The late 18th century was marked by a general shift to a more dispersed settlement pattern (Dickens 1976:15), but some nucleated settlements remained in the region into the 19th century.

Most remaining Cherokee land claims in North Carolina were ceded to the U.S. government by the Calhoun Treaty of February 1819 (Royce 1884, 1887), and the signing of the Treaty of New Echota in 1835, which set in motion the forced removal of many of the remaining Cherokees to lands in the Arkansas Territory (Mooney 1900:123–133). The cruelty of this march, known as the Trail of Tears, has been well documented.

Post-Removal Cherokee Occupations

Despite the Treaty of New Echota and the Trail of Tears, however, some Cherokee remained in their former lands. A sizeable population living along the Oconaluftee River and nearby was allowed to remain as a result of their assistance in the Tsali affair. Other Cherokees remained in the vicinity of Cheoah (along Buffalo Creek in present-day Graham County), primarily due to the difficulty in removing them along poor roads (Duggan 1998). Finally, still other Cherokees managed to evade the Army, escaped during the Removal, or, like Junaluska, returned from the Arkansas territory soon afterwards. These groups became the nucleus of the Eastern Band of Cherokee (King 1979). After the death of Chief Yonagusta in 1839, they were increasingly assisted by William H. Thomas, a white merchant who was Yonagusta's adopted son. Thomas worked on the Cherokees' behalf for the next 40 years, acquiring land for both individual Cherokees and the tribe. Thomas eventually acquired some 73,000 acres for these communities, mostly within the present-day Qualla Boundary.

The mid-19th through 20th century social and political history of the Eastern Band has been described in detail by Finger (1984, 1991), Hill (1997), Mooney (1900), and others, and needs only be recapped here. By 1840, Thomas had assisted the Quallatown residents in organizing into three towns, including Paint Town, Wolf Town, and Bird Town. Two other towns, Big Cove and Yellow Town, were later added to these three (Finger 1984:67). By 1851, approximately 883 Cherokees were living in three towns in the Quallatown area. The Cherokees' rights to the lands bought by Thomas were confirmed by a federal court decision in 1874, providing some measure of security to the local population. In 1889, the Cherokees in North Carolina were officially incorporated under state law as the Eastern Band of Cherokee Indians (Finger 1984). Most Cherokees continued to practice a farming economy throughout the 19th century, although hunting, fishing, and gathering wild plant foods were also important subsistence activities. Logging became an important source of jobs for a time beginning in the late 1800s, although most logging jobs were gone by the early 1930s. Although the Cherokee population has increasingly become outwardly acculturated since the growth of the modern tourist industry beginning in the 1930s, it has preserved a distinct cultural and ethnic identity through the retention of the Cherokee language and aspects of both day-to-day and ceremonial life (Riggs et al. 1997:19).

REGIONAL HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Prior to the American Revolutionary War, the Blue Ridge Mountains formed the western terminus of European settlement in North Carolina. The first documented English foray into the French Broad drainage west of the Blue Ridge Escarpment occurred in 1674. This doomed expedition was led by James Needham and included an indentured servant Gabriel Arthur and eight native guides. Financed by a wealthy Virginian, Abraham Woods, the expedition did not provide the profits expected by the financier,

but it did begin the opening of the vast lands of the Cherokee, which were coveted by the Euro-American settlers for its natural resources and beauty (Dykeman 1965:27–41).

After the Revolutionary War, large numbers of settlers (mostly Scots-Irish but also English, Welsh, German, and French) moved into western North Carolina (Ager 1981:10; Blethen and Wood 1987:76; Sondley 1930:398). After 1783, Land Act legislation was approved that allowed land sales for western settlements. In addition, war veterans were rewarded with land grants in the west as compensation for time served.

In 1784 Samuel Davidson, his family and a single slave became the first known colonial settlers west of the Blue Ridge Mountains, in what was to become Buncombe County. They settled along the Swannanoa River near Jones Mountain. After Samuel Davidson's death, his brother (Major William Davidson), sister (Rachel Alexander), their families and several friends followed in his footsteps and established a settlement a year later near the confluence of Bee Tree Creek and the Swannanoa River.

As the new settlement grew, western expansion into the mountains was rapid. By 1792, the County of Buncombe was created, including present-day Buncombe, Cherokee, Clay, Graham, Henderson, Jackson, Macon, Madison, Polk, Swain, Transylvania, and Yancey counties. Eventually, the Buncombe County Court was established between the Bee Tree Creek settlement and the Reems Creek Valley settlement; the court met on the property of Colonel William Davidson (a cousin of Major William Davidson), near the present-day entrance to the Biltmore Estate (Ager 1981:10–11; Sondley 1930:460). The joining of the two settlements was originally known as Morristown in 1792 (Blackmun 1977:162). In 1794, John Burton was granted 200 acres by the State of North Carolina next to William Davidson's property. Forty-two half-acre lots were laid off and sold on Burton's property along two newly formed roads now known as Broadway and Biltmore Avenue (Powell 1981:33). The town was incorporated in 1797 and renamed Asheville after Governor Samuel Ashe (Van Noppen et al. 1973:379).

Although the communities along the Swannanoa River were the first establishments in Buncombe County, Asheville became the dominant city and county seat. By 1800, Asheville had a hatter, a tailor, a blacksmith, an inn, a gristmill, and several merchants (Powell 1981:33). A post office was established in 1800 and the Public Square (now known as Pack Square) was laid out in 1805 (Sondley 1930:648–649; Stroupe et al. 1996). A brick courthouse was built in the square between 1825 and 1833 (Sondley 1930:649). By the early 1800s Asheville was a stopping point for livestock, as herders moved cattle from Tennessee and Kentucky to market in Georgia and South Carolina along the Buncombe Turnpike (Powell 1981:34). The road ran from Greeneville, Tennessee, to Hot Springs and then along the French Broad into Asheville. From there, the road headed toward Old Fort and then on to Greenville, South Carolina. Most of the roadway was completed by 1827 and helped to contribute to the growth of the town (Blethen and Wood 1987:88). With a higher traffic flow through the region, Asheville experienced an economic and population boom (Powell 1981:34). In addition to drovers, the turnpike also brought in some of Asheville's first tourists. By 1860, the town had a population of 1,100, while 12,654 people resided in Buncombe County (Blackmun 1977:288; Powell 1981:38; Sondley 1930:827–828).

During the Civil War, a rifle factory was located in the town for a short time, but because of the fear of Union troops in nearby Tennessee it was later moved to Columbia, South Carolina. In April 1865, a small skirmish occurred near Reed Creek north of the town, on land that is now part of the University of North Carolina at Asheville campus (Powell 1981:36–37; Sondley 1930:691–697). Overall, little physical damage from the Civil War occurred in the town, but growth was interrupted and railroad construction was delayed.

In 1880, the railroad (Western North Carolina Railroad) was established to Asheville from Old Fort, connecting towns that had earlier been served by the Buncombe Turnpike. Just the year before, the first

telegraph line was built, and a public library opened (Bishir et al. 1999:56; Van Noppen et al. 1973:379). In 1882, the rail line was completed to the Tennessee state line, and by 1886 the railroad connected Asheville to points in all directions (Bailey et al. 2000). With new and easier access, Asheville experienced a revival in growth. From a population of about 2,600 in 1880, it had swollen to over 10,000 in 1890. By 1920, nearly 28,500 people resided in the town (Sondley 1930:828). In addition to an increase in industries such as logging in Buncombe County, Asheville grew as a resort for leisure and health. In the years after 1880, several sanitariums were opened in the town as many doctors recommended the healthy climate of Asheville and the surrounding area (Van Noppen et al. 1973:379). As tourism grew, many of the people who visited built second or vacation homes in the Asheville area or returned to invest in local industries.

PREVIOUS ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Western North Carolina has been the subject of archaeological research for over a century, and most trends in the history of North American archaeology are reflected in the region. As early as the 1880s, workers from the Valentine Museum in Richmond investigated several mound sites in the region (Dickens 1976:7), and other early investigations were carried out by the Osbornes (Keel 1976). The museum's work was primarily oriented toward recovering artifacts, although in some cases the resulting data have been useful in addressing present-day research questions (e.g., Dickens 1976:91). Also in the 1880s, researchers from the Smithsonian Institution's Bureau of Ethnology excavated sites in western North Carolina as part of their investigations into the origin of the "Mound Builders" (Thomas 1894). That research was instrumental in demonstrating that the mounds in western North Carolina and elsewhere had in fact been built by American Indians and were not the products of a mysterious, vanished race.

Early 20th century work in western North Carolina continued to focus on mound explorations. Between 1915 and 1919, George Heye and associates excavated at the Garden Creek site in Haywood County and at other nearby sites (Harrington 1922; Heye 1919; Heye et al. 1918). Although that work was designed to gather artifacts for Heye's Museum of the American Indian in New York, it did provide some data on the antiquity of the Cherokees in the region (Dickens 1976:7–8). Subsequent work in 1933 and 1934 by the Smithsonian Institution at the Peachtree Mound and Village in Cherokee County was also designed to investigate the relationship between the Cherokees and prehistoric cultures in the area (Setzler and Jennings 1941). Also in the 1930s, George MacPherson (1936a, 1936b) and Hiram Wilburn conducted surveys of numerous sites in Great Smoky Mountains National Park. Although many of their data were to be incorporated into later research (Bass 1975), at the time their work had little impact on the understanding of the region's prehistory.

Intensive, systematic work in the Appalachian Summit region did not begin until 1964, when the University of North Carolina instituted the Cherokee Archaeological Project. This project, which lasted until 1971, included large-scale surveys and salvage excavations, as well as intensive investigations of late prehistoric and historic Cherokee sites (Purrington 1983:98–99; Ward 1979; Ward and Davis 1999:17–18). Data from this project have been reported in several theses, dissertations, and other publications (e.g., Dickens 1976; Egloff 1967; Keel 1976), and provide much of the background information on the Appalachian Summit region. As part of that project, substantial work was conducted at the Warren Wilson site that documented a Mississippian period Pisgah phase village as well as earlier Woodland period occupations (Keel 1976). Other substantial work was accomplished at Coweta Creek (Rodning 2004), Garden Creek (Keel 1976), Townson (Ward and Davis 1999: 268–271), and at the Tuckasegee site (Dickens 1976).

Beginning in the 1970s, the establishment of federal cultural resources legislation and management procedures resulted in an increasing number of archaeological projects in Buncombe County and the rest

of western North Carolina. Many such projects have been conducted in Buncombe County, including multiple highway projects (e.g., Fiegel 1991; Jones 2005; Paré et al. 2007; Snedeker and Young 2002), as well as those in the Bent Creek vicinity (e.g., Baker and Hall 1987; Espenshade 2005; Shumate and Kimball 2006) and on the Biltmore Estate. Other projects have been conducted on Forest Service lands, including a survey prior to construction of the Blue Ridge Parkway Headquarters on Hemphill Knob (Snedeker and Ruesch 1987).

4. RESEARCH GOALS AND METHODS

RESEARCH GOALS

The primary goal of the project was to systematically gather data on any archaeological resources present within the survey tracts. If resources were encountered, the archaeological field data were to be combined with information obtained in the background research to address the nature of the prehistoric and historic period occupations of the area.

RESEARCH METHODS

Specific research methods were utilized for the background studies, field research, analysis, and reporting stages of the project. The methods used in each stage of research are outlined below.

Background Research

Background literature review was conducted to gather information on any known cultural resources on and adjacent to the tract, and included examination of the following materials:

- Archaeological site files and reports at the North Carolina Office of State Archaeology in Asheville and Raleigh;
- Park Land Use Maps (PLUMs) obtained from the Blue Ridge Parkway; and
- Historical maps and other data available on-line, in the UNC-Chapel Hill North Carolina Collection, the North Carolina State Archives, and in TRC's collection.

Archaeological Field Methods

The archaeological survey complied with all pertinent state and federal regulations, including those outlined in the ARPA permit and in the North Carolina Office of State Archaeology's (OSA) *Guidelines for Preparation of Archaeological Survey Reports in North Carolina.* The field survey was conducted by a team of two, consisting of the Field Director and one Archaeological Technician.

Following standard regional procedures, the archaeological survey consisted of excavation of shovel test pits at 20-m intervals within those portions of the project that may be disturbed and that exhibit less than 15 percent slope.

All shovel tests measured about 30 to 35 cm in diameter and were excavated to sterile subsoil or at least 60 cm below surface. All soil was screened through ¼ inch screen for uniform artifact recovery. The depth and stratigraphy and the texture and Munsell soil color of representative soils and artifact content (when applicable) were recorded for each shovel test.

In addition to the archaeological survey, a visual surface inspection of the right-of-way was conducted to search for any evidence of cemeteries, or other potentially significant resources that might be affected by the project; none were noted.

Artifact Analyses and Curation

No artifacts were recovered by the project, and no artifact analysis or curation was necessary. Project records will be curated at the NPS Southeast Archeology Center under accession number 2319.

5. RESULTS

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

Previously Identified Resources

A review of the site files and reports at the OSA revealed no previously recorded archaeological sites within either the northern or southern project area. Three sites are situated within 0.5 miles of the northern project area, however (Table 5.1; see Figure 1.2). Site 31BN328 (BLRI-25) is the remains of a possible historic outbuilding and a surface scatter of historic refuse; that site was recorded during survey for the current Blue Ridge Parkway Headquarters and was recommended ineligible for the National Register of Historic Places (Snedeker and Ruesch 1987). Site 31BN470, located southwest of the current project area along Gashes Creek, consists of earthen features and an apparent crib dam associated with a late 18th to early 20th century mill complex. Finally, 31BN943 was recorded during Kimball's 1995 buried site survey along the Swannanoa River north of and across I-40 from the project area, and contained Connestee and Pisgah ceramics in both surface and buried contexts.

Table 5.1. Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites within One-Half Mile of the Northern Project Area.

Site No.	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Reference
31BN328/ BLRI-25	historic outbuilding and refuse scatter	Not Eligible	Snedeker and Ruesch 1987
31BN470	Whitson's Mill Complex	Unassessed	Fiegel 1991
31BN493	Moyer Site (Middle Woodland to Mississippian)	Unassessed	Kimball 1995

The southern project area is situated on the Blue Ridge Parkway where it crosses a portion of the Biltmore Estate known as the Arrowhead Peninsula (due to its shape, and not to any association with prehistoric artifacts). When the Biltmore Estate was designated a National Historic Landmark (NHL) in 1963 this area was included within the NHL boundaries (Hood 2003:81–84), but it was removed from the NHL boundaries in 2005 due to the extent of subsequent modifications (including the construction of I-26) and changes in land use (Hood 2003:81–89, 154).

Historic Maps of the Project Area

Historic Map Review. A series of historic maps dating from the early to mid 20th century were consulted to determine if there was any evidence of potential historic structure locations in or adjacent to the project areas.

The earliest detailed map of the southern project area is the 1901 1:125,000 USGS Asheville quadrangle (USGS 1901), which is based on surveys conducted in 1898–1899 (Figure 5.1). That map shows an existing network of roads in the area, but does not depict any structures at the project location. A subsequent 1920 soils map (Figure 5.2) (Perkins et al. 1923) depicts the same road network, but also does not show structures in the project area. An undated Park Land Use Maps (Number 2R-17) showing the project area at the time of its acquisition also does not depict any structures within the project area.

The 1902 Mount Mitchell quadrangle (USGS 1902), which is based on surveys conducted in 1899–1900, shows a series of structures along Gashes Creek and an adjacent road (the predecessor of US 74A) near the northern project area (Figure 5.3), but does not depict structures at the project location. The 1920 soil survey map (Figure 5.4) (Perkins et al. 1923) does depict two structures near the approximate northern

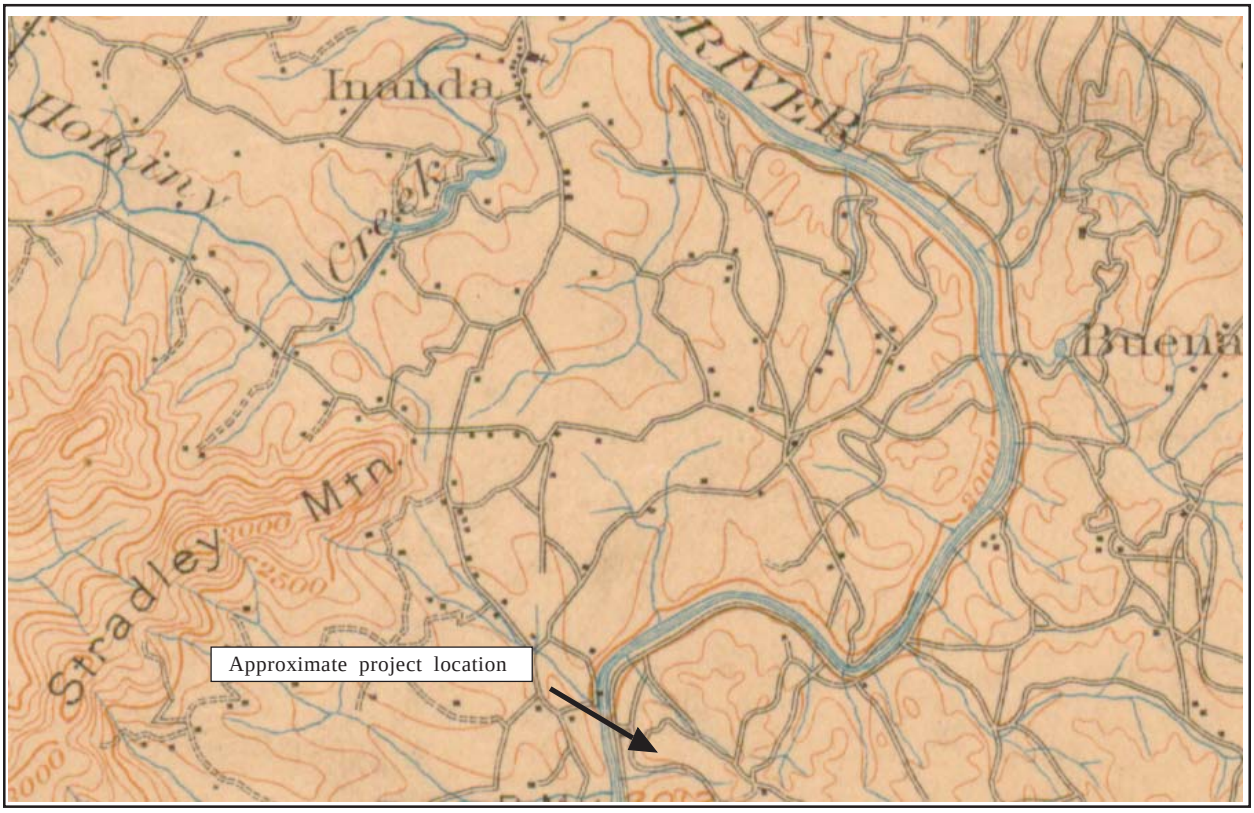

Figure 5.1. The southern project location as shown on the 1901 Asheville quadrangle.

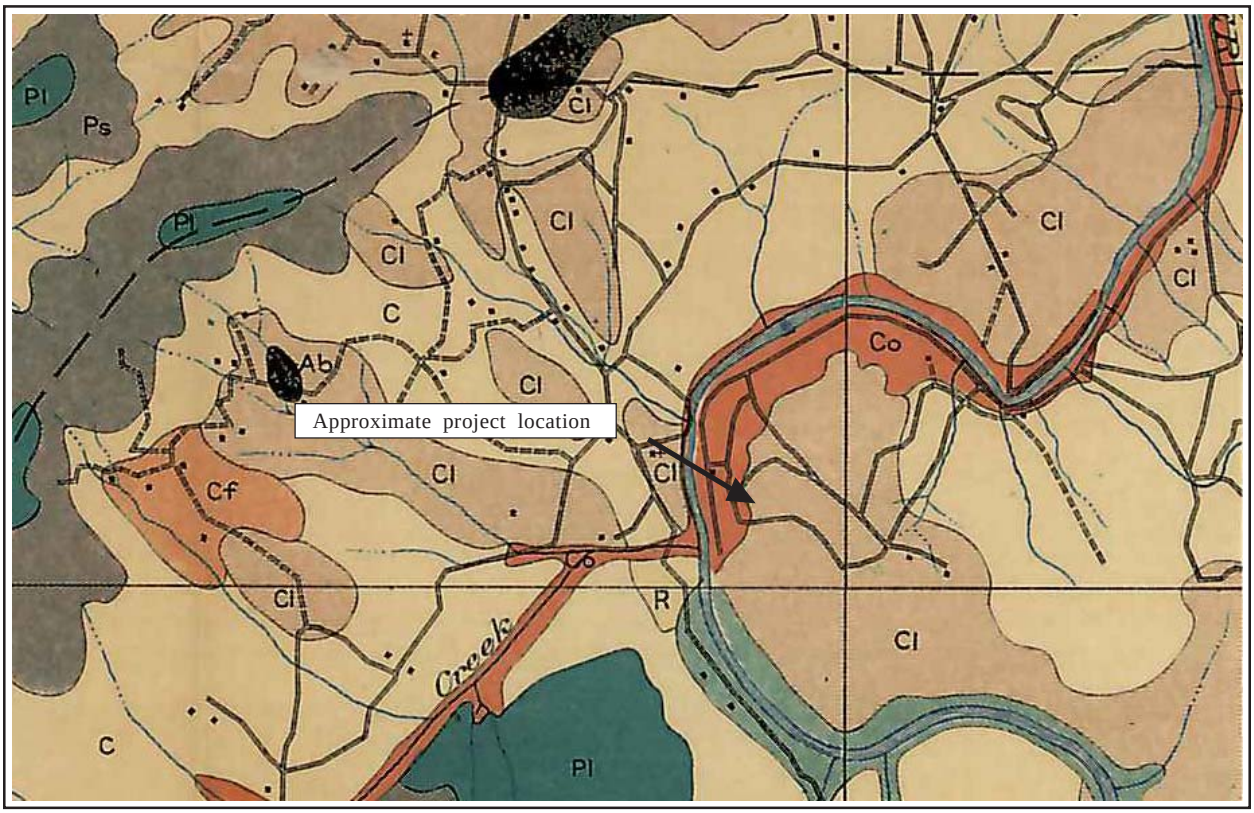

Figure 5.2. The southern project location as shown on the 1920 soils map.

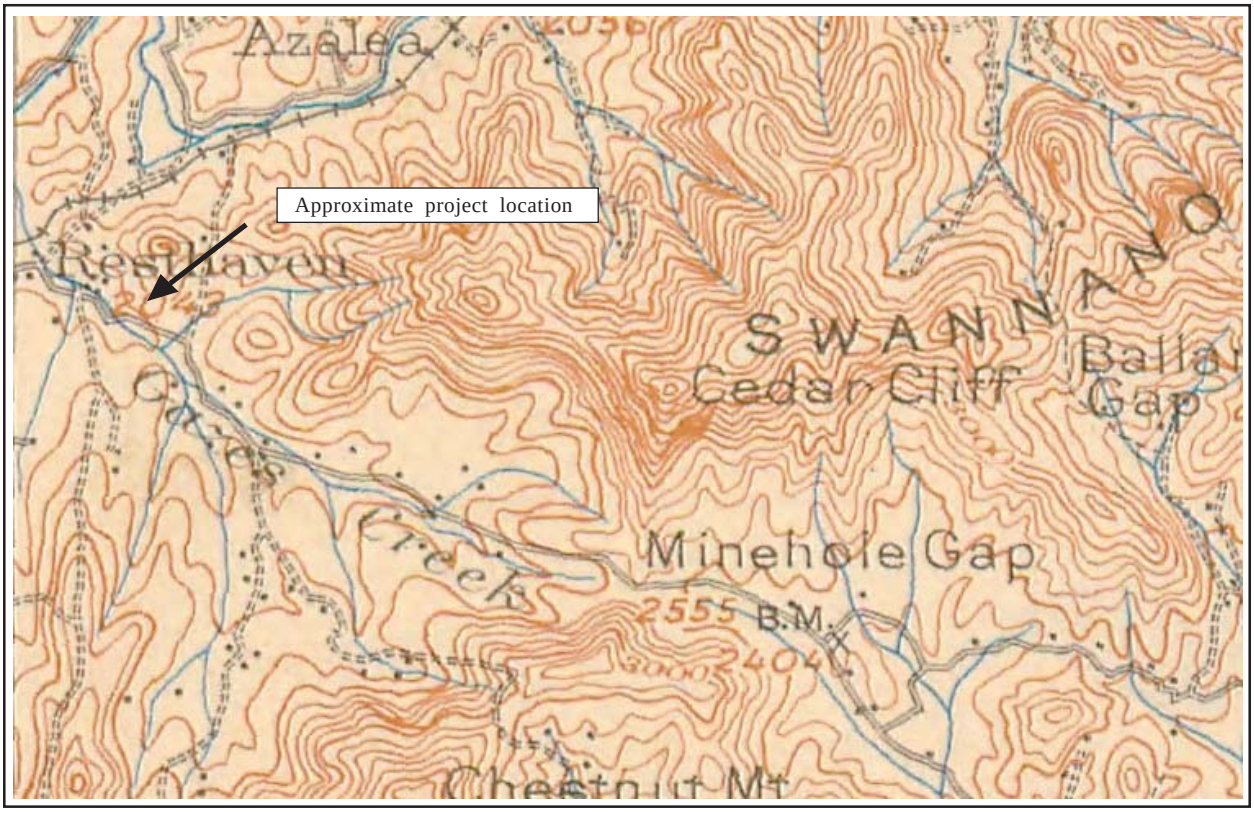

Figure 5.3. The northern project location as shown on the 1902 Mount Mitchell quadrangle.

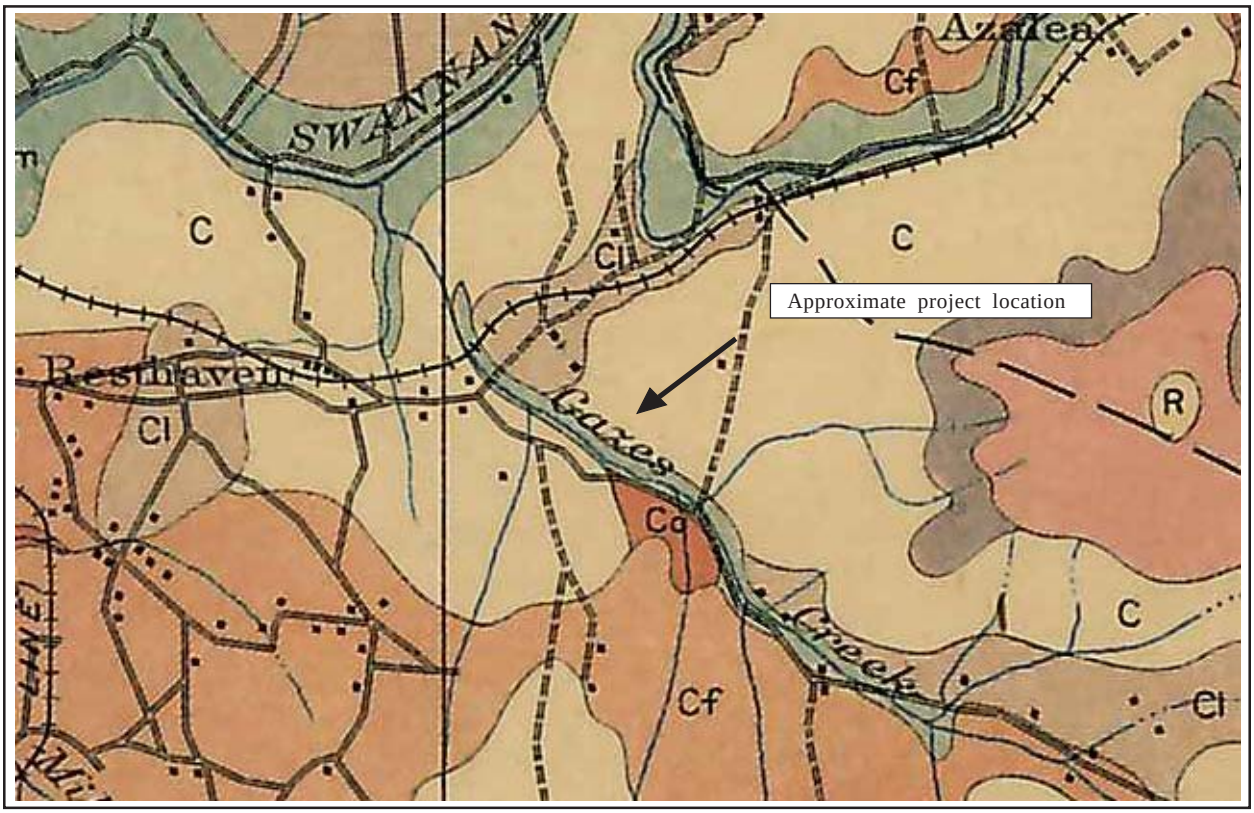

Figure 5.4. The northern project location as shown on the 1920 soils map.

end of the current survey area north of US 74A, in the vicinity of the current Gashes Creek community, but it is not possible to determine from that map how close those structures were to the current project area. Undated Park Land Use Maps (Number 2R-3) showing the project area at and shortly after its acquisition suggest that the distribution line predated the property's acquisition, and do not depict any structures within the project area.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL FIELD SURVEY

The field survey included a systematic pedestrian examination and the excavation of a total of 18 shovel tests, five in areas potentially to be affected by plantings along the transmission line corridor in the southern project area (Figure 5.5), and 13 in areas to be potentially affected by burial of the existing distribution line in the northern project area (Figure 5.6). Many parts of both survey areas exhibited greater than 15 percent slopes, and no shovel tests were excavated in those areas.

In the southern project area, three shovel tests excavated along the north shoulder of the Parkway encountered dark brown (10YR 3/3) gravelly and rocky silt loam extending to approximately 10 cm below surface (cmbs) and underlain by a dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) sandy clay loam containing numerous cobbles. Two other shovel tests were excavated adjacent to the Mountains to Sea Trail on the south side of the Parkway. Both encountered a brown (10YR 4/3) rocky silt loam extending to an average depth of 29 cmbs; that stratum was underlain by strong brown (7.5YR 4/6) rocky silt loam.

The 13 shovel tests excavated along the existing distribution line corridor in the northern project area encountered very rocky soils and were relatively shallow, with an average depth of 35 cmbs. The typical soil profile along this corridor consisted of a brown (10YR 4/3) silt loam A horizon, which extended to approximately 11 cmbs and was underlain by yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) or dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/6) silt loam. That stratum was underlain by a yellowish red (5YR 4/6) silty clay loam subsoil, which was encountered at approximately 35 cmbs. The shovel tests along the northern end of the corridor were slightly deeper than those excavated at the southern end.

No artifacts were found in any of the shovel tests, and no indications of an archaeological site were observed on the surface of either area.

Figure 5.5. Aerial photograph depicting location of shovel tests in the existing and proposed transmission line corridor.

Figure 5.6. Aerial photograph depicting location of shovel tests in northern project area.

6. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

TRC has completed an intensive archaeological survey of two areas where Progress Energy's Asheville–Enka 115kV transmission line project will potentially result in ground disturbances on Blue Ridge Parkway property in Buncombe County, North Carolina.

Background research identified no previously recorded sites within or immediately adjacent to either project area, and a review of historic maps found no evidence that structures were previously situated at either location. The field survey included a systematic pedestrian survey as well as excavation of shovel tests across those portions of each area exhibiting less than 15 percent slope, and encountered no evidence of archaeological sites or other cultural resources.

Based on the project results, no additional archaeological investigation is recommended for either project area in association with the Asheville–Enka 115kV transmission line project.

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