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2. An Archeological Survey of the Chatham County 201 Facilities Planning Area, Blood Run Section.

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An Archeological Survey of the
Pittsboro 201 Wastewater Treatment Facilities

Final Report

presented to
Alley, Williams, Carmen, and King, Inc.

by

J. Ned Woodall
Archeology Laboratories
Museum of Man
Wake Forest University

5 September 1975
Acknowledgements

The archeological survey herein described was aided greatly by contributions from several individuals. I would like to thank Mr. Laurence A. Alley for providing us with detailed maps on the impact area, and Mr. Darrell Russel for his work with the field crew, walking the pipeline routes in an August heatwave. Mr. Gary McGee, town manager of Pittsboro, facilitated our work in many ways with his attitude of cooperation and understanding. Mr. George Reeves of Pittsboro, a local collector of Indian artifacts, was kind enough to point out several archeological sites to our field investigators.

The foot survey was done by Mr. William G. Rasch and Mr. Gary Coleman, both of whom deserve commendation for facing with equanimity tangles of brush, poison ivy, and the August temperatures of Chatham County. The line drawings in this report were prepared by Mr. Rasch, the artifacts were processed in the laboratory by Mr. J.T. Cardwell, and artifact photographs were done by Ms. Judith Newkirk. For the aid of all the above I am sincerely grateful.

J. Ned Woodall
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5 September 1975
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Introduction

In July of 1975 the Archeological Laboratories of the Museum of Man were visited by Mr. Laurence A. Alley of Alley, Williams, Carmen, and King, Inc., the contractors with the town of Pittsboro for an expansion of its existing 201 wastewater treatment facilities. Because federal funds were to be used in the project the filing of an Environmental Impact Statement was required, and Mr. Alley's visit initiated the involvement of the Museum of Man in the preparation of the archeology section of that statement.

Submission of a budgeted proposal and its acceptance followed, and the fieldwork began in August of 1975. A total of six man-days was spent in the field, first by Mr. William Rasch and later by Mr. Rasch and Mr. Gary Coleman. Three archeological sites were located within the route of the proposed pipeline. The nature of those sites and their significance is the purpose of the following report.
Pittsboro is a small town in east central Chatham County, located in central North Carolina 50 kilometers west of Raleigh. One of the major rivers of North Carolina, the Haw, is 6.5 kilometers east of Pittsboro. The small streams in Pittsboro, including Robertson's Creek, are tributaries of the Haw.

Chatham County is in the piedmont region of North Carolina, a physiographic province characterized by undulating terrain and numerous streams that trend in a southeastern direction. Except for alluvium in the stream bottoms, the soils are derived from underlying granitic rocks or (in the eastern one-fourth of the county) shales, sandstone and mudstone. The red-brown clay soil in and near Pittsboro results from the decomposition of the parent granite bedrock, with little contribution from humus decomposition. As a result archeological materials here—as in much of the Piedmont—seldom are deeply buried, but rather remain near the surface on which they were deposited.

In the central, northern and western portions of the county are rock formations of the Carolina Slate Belt, an extensive geological feature containing various felsitic rocks that are well suited for aboriginal techniques of tool manufacture. Outcrops of such stone, including dacite, rhyolite, and argillite, undoubtedly were exploited for raw material by the Indians. Less tractable quartz and quartzites are present as seams in the clay soils, and represent an alternative source of stone for tools.

Elevations in the county range from about 200 meters to 60 meters with the slope to the east, toward the sea. Pittsboro is built on elevations ranging from 145 meters (472 feet) to 106 meters (350 feet). The surveyed
pipeline route usually followed the lower elevations near the streams, and all three archeological sites recorded were on or near the 106 meter contour.

The climate of Chatham County is continental, with cool winters and warm summers. Mean winter temperature is 6° Celsius (43° Fahrenheit), with a summer mean of 25° Celsius (77° Fahrenheit). Rainfall is distributed evenly throughout the year, with an average snowfall of 13 centimeters each winter.

The climatic conditions and soils of Chatham County support a variety of plants and animals, many of which were doubtlessly exploited by the aborigines. Prior to extensive cultivation accompanying white settlement the rolling hills were covered with forests of pine and oak, with some beech, poplar, hickory, and walnut trees. In disturbed areas and along streams can be found dense tangles of small shrubs, briers, and honeysuckle vines. The fauna associated with these plants is common to most of the Piedmont, consisting principally of white-tailed deer, raccoon, opossum, rabbit, turkey and smaller wild birds, and a variety of lizards, snakes, and turtles. In the streams several species of fish and molluscs are available.

The above environment was well suited to aboriginal exploitation as was the Carolina piedmont generally. Prior to the appearance of plant domesticates and a consequent population shift to the loose, well-drained plains along the large rivers, the upland areas of Chatham County probably saw many campsites of Indians living by hunting and gathering wild foods. The three Pittsboro sites probably represent such camps since they have no prehistoric pottery in them, and pottery is generally thought to have come into use among the Indians here at about the time domesticated plants appeared.

The area investigated by the survey lies within or immediately adjacent to the town limits of Pittsboro. The pipeline route follows Robertson's Creek
and its smaller tributaries, which together drain the northern two-thirds of the town (Figure 1). A short section—the Anthony Street Outfall—does not follow a watercourse but is to be built from a residential section in the southern part of the town northeastward to the treatment plant. The streams in Pittsboro eventually join Robeson Creek, which flows into the Haw River southeast of the town. The survey route was 12 meters (40 feet) wide and totaled approximately 15 kilometers in length.

Survey Method

The pipeline route was surveyed on foot searching for surface evidence of prehistoric occupation such as stone flakes, tools, or charcoal. In the occasional cleared areas this procedure was fairly easy, but much of the route passes through heavy undergrowth where the actual ground surface is invisible. In such situations a one-meter square area was raked clear at approximately 30 meter intervals, and the soil was troweled down to 10 cm. below the accumulated humus. If indications of a site were found, then 1 meter squares were cleared at one-meter intervals extending along the cardinal directions from the original findspot. The upper 10 cm. of soil from each square was screened through 1/4" mesh. This allowed us to determine the size of a site as well as obtain a collection.

In each site a control sample was taken, "control" referring to the spatial dimension of the collected area. This was done by placing a chaining pin in the site and attaching a 2 meter line, the other end being tied to the archeologist. All material present within the 4-meter circle thus accessible was retrieved, allowing us to calculate the relative amounts of debris at the sites.

The location of the site was plotted on large-scale project maps and on the county map (Figure 2). Field notes were taken on the natural environment, soil type, erosion damage, and other pertinent data. These data, along with the
artifacts, were returned to the Archeology Laboratories at Wake Forest University for processing, analysis, and storage.

**The Sites**

Three acknowledged sites were located within the area to be affected by construction. Two of these are on Robertson's Creek Outfall downstream of the town reservoir fed by that stream, while the third is on a small tributary of Robertson's Creek that enters it from the north paralleling the Hillsboro Street Outfall. Each of these sites is discussed separately below.

31Ch2

**Site description**

This floodplain site is located on the north side of Robertson's Creek 152 meters east of Highway 15-510-87 and at Station 26+83.35 (Figure 2). When visited by the survey the area was in grass, growing on light brown sandy clay, and yielded only one artifact. The site obviously had been disturbed earlier by construction of the original Robertson's Creek pipeline, and screening one-meter squares around the findspot failed to turn up additional specimens.

**Artifact**

The single artifact recovered consists of a large thick retouched flake of gray felsitic stone. The flake is rectangular, with the striking platform on one of the long sides. The edge shows evidence of extensive platform preparation, and the opposite edge has been bifacially worked by percussion to yield an irregular, sinous outline. In addition one of the short sides has been unifacially retouched, also by percussion, to produce an acute sharp surface. The resultant artifact could have served as an efficient chopping tool and knife (Figure 3b).
Recommendations

Although this site lies directly in the pipeline route it already has been largely destroyed by construction so no further work is recommended.

31Ch3

Site description

This site is located in the angle formed by the confluence of Robertson's Creek and its small tributary that parallels the Hillsboro Street Outfall. Artifacts were found scattered over an area approximately 30 meters in diameter with its center about 20 meters from Robertson's Creek. The site lies on a moderately eroded low terrace at the base of a hill, and presently is planted in corn. The hard red clay here has been farmed for the past 10 years and possibly longer. A total of six artifacts was recovered.

The Artifacts

Ceramics: Two sherds were collected, both fragments of wheel-thrown, salt-glazed stoneware vessels. These are clearly historic and almost certainly not related to the aboriginal occupation responsible for the stone artifact.

Lithics: Stone debris at the site consisted of three unretouched flakes and a bifacial tool. One is a large primary flake that seems to have been removed from aodule of felsite in order to expose the unweathered interior. The others are small flakes of low-grade, coarse felsite. The single tool consists of a piece of pale gray felsite 14 cm long, 8.3 cm wide, and 4.6 cm thick. Bifacial flaking on both long edges has produced two wide shallow notches, while the broad end has been unifacially retouched to a sharp edge (Figure 3a). The form of the tool suggests its use as a hoe or adz.
Recommendations

This site lies directly in the path of the proposed pipeline, and probably will be adversely affected by construction. The paucity of artifacts here, however, coupled with the deflated ground surface and past disturbance due to cultivation make it unlikely that Ch3 will yield any additional information. No further work is recommended.

31Ch4

Site description

The small stream that joins Robertson's Creek at 31Ch3 also passes along the eastern edges of Ch4, located 120 meters upstream from the juncture and 60 meters north of the Johnson Street crossing. The site measures about 40 meters north-south and 25 meters east-west, and is on a 12°-15° slope leading to the stream. At present the red clay land is in cultivation as a vegetable garden.

The Artifacts

A total of 78 specimens were obtained at Ch4, but only 22 are definitely tools or waste flakes. The remainder consists of heavily weathered pebbles, many of them rolled and some broken, that may represent artifacts but cannot confidently be identified.

Eleven unaltered flakes are present. With one exception, a dark gray flake of course felsite, all are of a fine grained light gray or green felsite—probably rhyolite—that apparently was obtained as nodules from a stream bed. Several of the flakes (and some of the tools) retained the weathered, rolled surface of the parent pebble. Three cores also are present, again of the gray-to-green fine grained felsite.
The tools consist of large, thick, bifacially retouched nodules or flakes (Figure 3c-g). Commonly the cortex has been removed along the edge only or along a portion of the edge. Raw material is the same except for one specimen of white quartzite (Figure 3f). None of the tools has been shaped to a symmetrical form, but rather seem to have received a minimal amount of retouch to produce a cutting or hacking edge. Length ranges from 9.6 cm. to 3 cm. In one instance a steeply retouched concave surface has been created along the edge of one pebble, possibly for use as a scraping surface.

**Recommendations**

This site lies directly astride the proposed Hillsboro Street Outfall, and will be disturbed or destroyed by construction. No additional mitigation efforts are recommended, however, because there is no appreciable depth to the cultural deposits and the site already has been adversely affected by cultivation and erosion of the slope on which it lies.
The archeological survey of the area to be impacted by the Pittsboro 201 Wastewater Treatment Facilities revealed the presence of three archeological sites. The aboriginal components at all three sites consist of stone tools, waste flakes, and core fragments. These sites probably represent temporary camps established for specific functions, possibly butchering of game animals. The latter activity is suggested by the high frequency of heavy, crude shoppers and chopping tools, the complete absence of projectile points, small scrapers, borers and other tools, and the scarcity of artifacts generally. Although all three sites are threatened directly by construction, their presently disturbed condition and the remote likelihood of buried materials make additional work unnecessary.
Figure 1

VICINITY MAP OF PITTSBORO, N.C.

PROPOSED SANITARY SEWER = --------
LAKE = 

1. Robertson Crk.
2. Hillsboro St.
3. Anthony St.
4. Thompson St.
Figure 2
FIG. 3: 31Ch2, b; 31Ch3, a; 31Chh, c-g.
AN ARCHEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE
CHATHAM COUNTY 201 FACILITIES PLANNING AREA
BLOOD RUN SECTOR

Introduction

In January of 1976 the Archeology Laboratories of the Museum of Man, Wake Forest University, were contacted by the firm of Alley, Williams, Carmen, and King, Inc., contractors with Chatham County for an expansion of the existing 201 wastewater treatment facilities. A proposal for an archeological survey of the Blood Run Sector of the Chatham County 201 Facilities Area was requested to provide an assessment of the impact such expansion might have on local archeological resources.

The survey area consisted of a 12 meter wide (40 feet) easement along approximately 1.07 kilometers of Blood Run Creek. Also surveyed was a 46 meter square (150 foot square) sector east of the creek at the corridor's southern terminus, an area to be used for construction of a pump station. The affected portion of the Blood Run Creek begins 50 meters north of SR 1106 and continues for approximately 300 meters past West 3rd Street at its southern terminus.

On 30 April, 1976, the field work was carried out by Judith Newkirk and Karen Barnette, graduate students in anthropology at W.F.U., under the direction of J. Ned Woodall. One aboriginal site was recorded within the survey area and is described below, along with an assessment of its significance.

Survey Methods

A pedestrian survey was conducted along the sewer route searching for surface evidence of prehistoric occupation. Along those portions of the
creek bounded by cleared fields or power lines this procedure was relatively effective; a larger portion of the route, however, follows the creek through areas of dense vegetation with no ground visibility. In such situations the surveyors stopped at 25 meter intervals and cleared an area approximately 50 centimeters square, troweling the soil down to 10 centimeters below the accumulated humus and searching for any evidence of prehistoric activity.

The location of the site recorded by the survey was plotted on a large scale project map provided by Alley, Williams, Carmen, and King, Inc. Field notes were taken on the natural environment, soil type, erosional damage, and other pertinent data. These data, along with a single artifact, were returned to the Archeology Laboratories at Wake Forest University for processing, analysis, and storage.

One artifact was recovered from the western creek bank immediately adjacent to the stream bed, 125 meters due south of SR 1107 from the point where Blood Run Creek crosses that road. The specimen is an ovate biface exhibiting crude percussion retouch along all edges. Length is 5.2 centimeters, maximum width is 2.3 centimeters, and thickness is 1.6 centimeters. Made of felsite, this tool probably represents an unfinished Archaic projectile point. A thorough search revealed no other aboriginal remains. The position of the artifact at the edge of the stream bed and the total lack of other cultural materials make it probable that the artifact was deposited here by the stream. This site is of little archeological value and no further work is deemed necessary.
In summary, the area to be impacted by sewer line construction in this portion of the Blood Run Sector of the Chatham County 201 Facilities Planning Area contains no archeological sites requiring further mitigation efforts. It is recommended, therefore, that clearance be given for the construction activities.

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Karen L. Barnette

Survey Archeologists

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AN ARCHEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE
SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE STRUCTURE 18 AREA

DAVIE COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

by

J. Ned Woodall

Report submitted to the North Carolina Department of Cultural Resources, Division of Archives and History, Archeology Section, by the Museum of Man, Wake Forest University.
ABSTRACT

In April 1975 an archeological reconnaissance of the Soil Conservation Service Structure 18 reservoir area was carried out by the Museum of Man, Wake Forest University. The survey recorded 15 sites, all of which will be affected or destroyed by the proposed project. These sites represent small temporary camps, probably of the Archaic stage although no diagnostic artifacts were found. A total of 187 artifacts and pieces of debitage was recovered. These specimens, along with the collected data on the sites and their location, probably comprise an accurate sample of the archeological resources in the affected area. None of the sites require additional investigation or other mitigation.
INTRODUCTION

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THE AREA

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CONCLUSIONS

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INTRODUCTION

In March of 1975, personnel of the Archeology Section, Division of Archives and History, Department of Cultural and Natural Resources, contacted the Museum of Man at Wake Forest University regarding the archeological survey here reported. Upon submission of a budget and timetable, and approval by the Soil Conservation Service, field work was begun on 25 April and completed on 27 April 1975. The reconnaissance covered an area to be affected by construction of Floodwater Retention Structure 18 in Dutchman's Creek Watershed of Davie County, North Carolina.

Appreciation is offered to Dr. Stephen Gluckman of the Division of Archives and History, Archeology Section, in Raleigh, as well as Mr. Royce W. Espey of the Soil Conservation Service. The field work was carried out by Mr. William Rasch, who was aided by Mr. Robert Johnson of the Soil Conservation Service in Mocksville, North Carolina. The laboratory work was done by Elizabeth Shattuck, and the map of the survey area was drawn by William Rasch. To all of the above I extend my sincere thanks.

J. Ned Woodall
Museum of Man, Wake Forest University
5 May 1975
METHODS

The reconnaissance of the Structure 18 area was carried out on foot, with sites plotted on a 7.5 minute USGS topographic map (Farmington Quadrangle) as well as a large scale aerial photograph of the proposed reservoir area. The terrain was crossed on regular transects; in the heavily overgrown areas the ground was raked clear of debris and searched at approximately 500 meter intervals, while occasional clear or nearly clear spots (old road beds, fields, etc.) were closely examined. In addition those topographic features likely to attract settlement, especially knolls or ridges near the streams, were searched carefully. Once a site was located a circular area 4 meters in diameter was defined and all material within that circle was collected. Additional material was collected if present outside the circle, but was bagged and labeled separately. This method allowed us to measure the relative abundance of artifacts at the various sites, an index to the frequency, duration and/or activities of the occupation. A small hole was dug in most of the sites to determine if there was buried material present. In all cases, however, the surface finds were the extent of the collection. Because of the heavy forest and tangled underbrush that covers most of the survey area, it is very likely that sites were missed by our survey. We appear to have a representative sample, however, and this suffices to assess the impact of the reservoir on the archeological record of the area. The recovered specimens, along with notes and other related data, are the property of the United States government. They are on file at the Museum of Man, Wake Forest University.
THE AREA

Structure 18 will create a flood pool covering some 60 acres, with another 10 acres affected by construction of the dam. The tract of land lies in northwestern Davie County, approximately 8 kilometers west-northwest of the community of Farmington. The dam is located on the upper reaches of Cedar Creek, a tributary of Dutchman's Creek, which in turn flows into the Yadkin River at a point 20 kilometers (airline distance) southeast of the reservoir site.

Physiography and Geology

Davie County is part of the North Carolina Piedmont area, a physiographic region characterized by rolling hills and numerous streams that flow in a generally southeastern direction. The affected portion of Cedar Creek lies at an elevation of 235 meters above sea level; the terrain immediately adjacent to it varies between 238 meters and 240 meters above sea level and consists of low hills and ridges of Iredell loam (Jurney and Bacon 1930). These hills represent a peneplain maturely dissected by streams; as a result interstream areas are less rolling than those adjacent to streams such as Cedar Creek, where elevation changes are still minor but closely spaced, creating an undulating surface everywhere except on the active flood plain of the creek itself. The creek flood plain varies in width from 30 meters to over 200 meters near the dam site. This land is low and marshy, the poor drainage resulting from the minimal relief in this area. Also, the headwaters of Cedar Creek are near enough so that the stream's sediment load is low, and natural levees and backswamp alluviation have not raised the bottomland sufficiently for thorough drainage.
The survey area lies within the Charlotte Belt, a geological formation characterized by a complex sequence of intrusive rocks, mainly metamorphic schists and gneisses (Duke Power Co. 1974:2.4-1). In the survey area there are other rocks, particularly granite and basalt, which occasionally are revealed as outcrops. None of these rocks is suitable for aboriginal tool-making techniques. In the stream beds are found cobbles of quartz and quartzite, which were used as raw material. The nearest source of felsitic rock (felsitic tuff, tuffaceous argillite, and rhyolite) lies some 50 kilometers to the southeast along the Silver Hill Fault, and a minor amount of this material found its way to the survey area.

**Climate**

Davie County enjoys a mild climate, with a mean winter temperature of 40° Fahrenheit and a mean summer temperature of 74.4° Fahrenheit. Precipitation averages 125 cm. per year evenly distributed through the seasons, with about 18 cm. of snow each winter. The first and last killing frosts define an average growing season of 189 days (Jurney and Bacon 1930). The area is far enough inland to experience little effect from the tropical storms that occasionally strike the Carolina coast during the late summer.

**Flora and Fauna**

Within the survey area are found three forest types, their distribution determined by the amount of man-induced disturbance and drainage. On the upper slopes, in areas not recently cultivated or timbered, is found an oak-hickory community, composed primarily of white oak and red oak, with minor species such as sweet gum and blackjack oak (Iredell loam is locally known as
Undergrowth is moderate, consisting of greenbrier, poison ivy, wild grape vines and various shrubs. In upland areas that were cleared or timbered and allowed to revert to forest, the hardwood trees are small and mixed with various types of pine. This represents a transitional community and in prehistoric time such areas probably supported an oak-hickory forest. In the low marshy bottoms near Cedar Creek is found an alluvial forest or alluvial thicket community composed of water-tolerant species. Trees include box elder, river birch, sycamore and winged elm, with occasional tangles of shrubs, saplings, and vines.

Davie County, like the rest of the Carolina Piedmont, belongs in the Carolinian Biotic Province. Animal species present now or in the recent past include white-tailed deer, panther, black bear, opossum, raccoon, rabbit, squirrel, lynx, fox, and a variety of small rodents and aquatic animals. Several of the above creatures still are present in the survey area, evidenced by sightings or tracks during the reconnaissance. The forest types present are particularly well-suited for deer, providing browse in the alluvial community and mast in the upland regions. Birds available to the aborigines included wild turkey, passenger pigeon, occasional ducks or geese strayed from the coastal flyway, various raptors, and small songbirds. Some fish were observed in Cedar Creek during the survey, and two stone weirs located near the dam site attest to the prehistoric interest in fishing. A fresh-water mussel shell found indicates that these creatures also were available.

PREVIOUS ARCHEOLOGY

Most of the archeological investigations in the Davie County area have been along the Yadkin River, which forms the eastern boundary of the county. Some 60 kilometers southeast of the survey area Coe (1964) excavated two sites,
Doerschuk and Hardaway, which allowed him to establish a sequence of projectile point styles covering a period of some 8000 years. The bulk of this time-span covers the Archaic stage, a term denoting an adaptive strategy of hunting and gathering wild foods. About the time of Christ domesticated plants are introduced into the Piedmont area, and in the following millennium settled villages appear in the alluvial flood plains of the larger streams. One such village, the Parker Site, has been partially excavated by the Museum of Man. It is located in Davidson County (immediately east of Davie County) 23 kilometers southeast of the survey area. In southeastern Davie County, the Museum of Man recently conducted an archeological survey and testing of some 28 archeological sites threatened by construction (Cooper, Wellborn, and Linthicum 1974; Woodall and Newkirk 1974).

Since most effort has been directed toward sites along the Yadkin, we remain ignorant of cultures inhabiting -- or activities exploiting -- the upper reaches of its tributaries. Certainly the artifacts recovered by this survey are quite different from those previously recognized, and their chronological and/or functional relationship to the excavated assemblages is not at all clear. We do know that the area has been inhabited for 12,000 years and possibly longer -- a Clovis point has been found in Iredell County, only a short distance west of Cedar Creek. Such points have been found in contexts dated at 10,000 B.C. and older.

**THE SITES**

31De109

Location: This site is located at the end of the dirt access road leading to the dam site, in a small clearing 90 meters north
of Cedar Creek. A small amount of debris was observed scattered over an area of 4 meters by 8 meters atop a low knoll, now growing up in scrub pine and honeysuckle.

Specimens Recovered: Retouched quartz flakes (2), quartz cores (2), quartz flakes (7), felsite flakes (2), quartz and quartzite chunks (13).

Comments: The raw material here, as is the case at most of these sites, does not lend itself to aboriginal techniques of stone knapping. The quartz often exhibits natural internal cleavage planes and inclusions preventing regular conchoidal fracture. Consequently, flakes intentionally struck — and the cores from which they were derived — are easily confused with naturally broken specimens. In the case of regularly retouched specimens there is little difficulty, but with the others their location, coupled with breakage, seems to warrant the conclusion that they are artifacts or at least manuports. The term "chunk" indicates an angular piece of quartz or quartzite with no cortex present.

Recommendations: No further work is recommended.

31De110

Location: Just 60 meters east of the dam site the access road mentioned above crosses Crooked Run Creek, a small tributary of Cedar Creek. A scatter of material was observed along both sides of the road and both sides of the creek, concentrated on the higher ground above the stream bed. An older bed, probably the course of the creek before disturbance by the road building
activity, lies to the east of the site. The total area of scatter measures 10 meters by 15 meters, with the long axis east-west.

Specimens Recovered: Bifacially retouched quartz flake (1), quartz flakes (7), quartz cores (5), core fragments (5), and miscellaneous broken quartz chunks (61).

Comments: It is possible that several of the specimens listed as "chunks" could have served as cores. These have only one or two flake scars, however, and could have been fractured unintentionally by grading or plowing.

Recommendations: No further work is necessary.

31De111

Location: North-northwest of Del09 a strip of undergrowth has been cleared for transit sighting. In this cleared zone, 60 meters upslope from Del09, a light scatter of broken quartz cobbles was present over a 10 meter square area.

Specimens Recovered: Retouched quartz chunks (2), quartz flakes (2), quartz chunks (5).

Comments: The unretouched quartz chunks consist of slightly rolled angular stream detritus with one or two small unrolled flake scars. The retouched specimens exhibit regular, closely spaced flake scars along at least one edge.

Recommendations: No additional work is recommended.

31De112

Location: This tiny site was found on a slight rise above the northern
Cedar Creek flood plain, 75 meters north-northeast of the juncture of Cedar Creek and a small unnamed tributary flowing from the north. Material was observed scattered over a heavily wooded area 2 meters by 3 meters.

Specimens Recovered: Bifacially retouched quartz chunk (1), quartz flakes (2), quartz chunks (3).

Comments: Only one of the above, the biface, is unequivocally an artifact.

Recommendations: No further work is warranted.

31Dell3

Location: This site lies on the south bank of Cedar Creek at the end of an old tractor road leading to the creek from the south. At present the area is in second growth timber, and the immediately surrounding terrain consists of relatively flat, marshy alluvial deposits. The scanty artifact collection was made within a 3 meter by 4 meter area on both sides of the road bed.

Specimens Recovered: Bifacially retouched quartz flake (1), quartz flakes (4), quartz chunks (4).

Comments: At least two of the chunks may be cores, but the lack of defined striking platforms and the overall irregularity of the broken faces make natural breakage a possibility. The biface is a small (5 cm.) round flat flake of quartz with retouch on both faces around its circumference.

Recommendations: No additional work is recommended.

31Dell4

Location: This small site lies on the southern margin of the Cedar Creek
flood plain, 60 meters south of the stream and 105 meters southeast of Dell3. At present the area is in an alluvial thicket. Three artifacts were found within a 3 meter square area; raking of the surface, and a small test pit, failed to turn up additional specimens.

Specimens Recovered: Unifacially retouched quartz cottle (1), quartz cores (2).

Comments: The quartz tool consists of a river cottle 11 cm. long and 9 cm. wide, roughly triangular in cross-section. One edge has received extensive unifacial retouch along two-thirds of its length.

Recommendations: No further work is required at this site.

31Dell5

Location: Some 450 meters up the minor tributary that joins Cedar Creek near 31Dell2, a site is present on the edge of the uplands bordering the stream channel. Cultural debris was found scattered over an area approximately 3 meters square, now located in a dense stand of woods. Subsurface testing and raking in the surrounding area failed to turn up additional material.

Specimens Recovered: Retouched quartz flake (1), felsite flakes (13), quartz flake (1).

Comments: This site is distinctive in the high frequency of felsite flakes, representing raw material from the Carolina Slate Belt some 50 kilometers distant. Most of these flakes are small thin specimens, which can result from tool repair. It is likely that Dell5 represents a temporary camp where tool refurbishing
was carried out.

Recommendations: No further work is necessary.

31Dell6

Location: This site is located at the western edge of the proposed reservoir, 45 meters from Cedar Creek on the edge of the uplands overlooking the southern bottomlands. A dirt road crosses the creek some 60 meters to the west. This area has been timbered recently, and the site is in small pines and grass. Six artifacts were recovered within an area 7 meters square.

Specimens Recovered: Ovate quartz biface (1), quartz flakes (3), quartz chunks (2).

Comments: The biface measures 3 cm. long and 2.5 cm. wide, manufactured on a flake by retouch on alternate faces around the entire circumference.

Recommendations: No further work is recommended.

31Dell7

Location: This site is immediately adjacent to Cedar Creek, located atop a low rise on its south bank near the edge of the hilly uplands. This rise supports a dense stand of alluvial forest, surrounded by a marsh now in an alluvial thicket. The material recovered was found within a 4 meter by 3 meter area.

Specimens Recovered: Broken quartz projectile point (1), triangular quartz biface (1), quartz flakes (2), quartz chunks (4).

Comments: The projectile point is missing one shoulder and the distal tip, but probably measured, when complete, approximately 4.5 cm.
Comments: One of the retouched flakes is triangular with a trihedral cross-section, and a small amount of retouch is present on all three faces near the pointed end. The second specimen is square in outline; fine unifacial retouch has produced a shallow concavity on one edge.

Recommendations: No further work is recommended.
CONCLUSIONS

It is clear from the site descriptions that the survey area supported no permanent or semi-permanent villages in prehistoric times. It appears to have been exploited by transient groups, possibly hunting parties, that maintained small camps at varying locations for a short period. The assignment of these sites to a particular cultural period or stage is inappropriate in the absence of those tools (mainly projectile points) used by archeologists to define the periods or stages. The complete absence of potsherds in our collection suggest that the most intensive use of the region was during the Archaic stage, but the possibility exists that a non-ceramic Formative hunting camp may be confused with a preceramic Archaic camp.

An interesting finding of the survey has to do with the raw material used in tool manufacture. The bulk of the artifacts and debitage consists of quartz, mainly a white milky quartz or, less frequently, a red-brown quartz. The latter was obtained from creek beds in the form of cobbles, while the milky quartz probably was found in seams that outcrop on eroded clay slopes. Either kind is difficult to flake, and probably was used because of the scarcity of felsitic materials such as rhyolite, dacite or argillite in the region. These materials are abundant in the Carolina Slate Belt, and are found widely distributed in sites in or near the major river valleys. It now seems likely that cultures represented by sites in the Structure 18 area had limited access to the trade network that moved principally along the large water courses. This model must be tested by further survey in uplands well away from the Yadkin River, and particularly needed is the location of a base camp that represents a wide range of aboriginal activities. Such a site would allow us to determine if the more desirable stone was available but reserved for tools used in activities not
carried out in the ephemeral camps described in this report, or whether it was generally scarce. If the latter possibility proves to be the case, then a new concept of Archaic cultures in the Piedmont may result. The conceptual model would involve at least two cultural systems, one near the river basins and trafficking in desirable raw materials (and possibly finished products), the other confined to the hinterlands and using locally available resources. The articulation of these systems is also of concern; the presence of some felsite in the Structure 18 area suggests that a trickle of this stone was reaching that area, and the processes involved might also shed light on other questions of cultural change and conservation during the Archaic and Formative stages.
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Jurney, R.C. and S.R. Bacon

Woodall, J. Ned, and Judith A. Newkirk
THE ARCHEOLOGICAL RESOURCES OF THE
HAYWOOD COUNTY 201 FACILITIES PLANNING AREA

by

Karen Barnette
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Survey Archeologists

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Principal Investigator

June 3, 1976

Museum of Man
Archeology Laboratories
Wake Forest University
Winston-Salem, North Carolina

Report submitted to the Haywood County Board of Commissioners, Waynesville, North Carolina, and to the Archeology Section of the Division of Archives and History, Department of Cultural Resources, Raleigh, North Carolina.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several individuals made contributions to this archeological survey. We would like to thank Mr. Harold Long, Haywood County Manager, for alerting us to changes in the survey route, clearing our work with landowners, and providing general information about an unfamiliar area. Mr. Tai Y. Lee of Foy and Lee Architects provided a map of the sewer outfall route. We are grateful to both for facilitating our project.

K.B.
J.N.

Archeology Laboratories
Museum of Man
Wake Forest University
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INTRODUCTION

In May 1976 the Archaeology Laboratories of the Museum of Man were contacted by Mr. Bill G. Gibson, Co-Director of the Southwestern North Carolina Planning and Economic Development Commission, concerning an archaeological survey of the Jones Cove Branch sector of the Haywood County 201 Facilities Planning Area. In view of the county's application for federal funds to aid in construction, an assessment was required of the project's impact on natural and cultural resources, including archaeological sites.

The survey route consisted of a sewer line corridor approximately 1.65 kilometers (5425 feet) long on the western side of Jones Cove Branch, from the new hospital construction site to an existing sewage treatment plant northeast of the town of Waynesville. An easement 12 meters in width (40 feet) was assumed. While the immediate vicinity of the treatment plant is residential with some garden and crop cultivation, a large section of the survey area is presently pasture land.

A budgeted proposal was prepared and its acceptance confirmed on 17 May 1976. The fieldwork was carried out on 24 May 1976 by Karen Barnette and Judith Newkirk under the supervision of Dr. J. Ned Woodall. One archeological site was located within the area to be impacted. A description of that site and an assessment of its significance is the purpose of this report.
THE AREA

Haywood County is in the southwestern portion of North Carolina, bordering Tennessee on the northwest. Waynesville (its county seat) is located in the southeast section of the county only a few kilometers from the survey area.

The county is within the Blue Ridge physiographic and geologic provinces, a maturely dissected landscape of deep valleys surrounded by mountains rising 600-900 meters above the valley floors. Elevations range from 427-2018 meters above sea level. The county is drained by the Pigeon River, a moderate to rapid stream which flows west to join the French Broad River before it enters the Tennessee River. An extensive system of tributaries, including Jones Cove Branch, provides the uplands with complete surface drainage.

The survey area is underlain by muscovite and biotite schists and biotite or granitic gneisses which have been intruded by veins and dikes of pegmatite and quartz (Hatcher 1974). These geologic formations are roughly similar throughout the southern portion of the county, while in the northeast Max Patch and Cranberry granites are predominant. The northwest sector is a conglomerate of unnamed granite gneisses, Snowbird formation (fine and coarse-grained quartzites interstratified with slates and arkose), and Great Smoky conglomerate (Graywacke sandstone and conglomerate in thick graded beds with interbeds of slate). Noticeably lacking are limestone formations in which chert forms, although this raw material accounted for almost one third of the artifacts found during the survey; the remainder are made of quartz, quartzite, or various felsic rocks.
The high altitudes influence Haywood's humid and temperate climate. Waynesville has a mean winter and summer temperature of 3.6° C. (38.5° F.) and 20.9° C. (69.7° F.) respectively. Average snowfall each winter is 24 cm. with rainfall distributed evenly throughout the year.

Before the blight of the mid-twenties (1925-32), the chestnut tree constituted almost 50% of the original tree growth in Haywood County, with lesser numbers of oak, hemlock, balsam, hickory, black walnut, dogwood, black cherry, buckeye, red spruce, locust and a few pine. In the higher altitudes (above 1200 meters) beech, birch and sugar maple thrived. Today most of this deciduous forest has been cut for timber, but in aboriginal times it provided abundant food resources as well as a habitat for a variety of fauna.

**SURVEY METHOD**

The entire sewer route was traversed on foot from its northern terminus at the existing sewage treatment plant to its intake at the hospital site. A careful search was made for evidence of prehistoric occupation such as stone flakes, tools or charcoal. In cleared areas where ground visibility was good a surface search was considered sufficient, but much of the route crosses pasture land with limited ground visibility. Where possible under such conditions a strategy involving sub-surface testing was employed. This procedure required clearing an area approximately 50 cm. square and troweling down the soil to 10 cm. below the humus layer. Such test pits were placed at 25-meter intervals by the crew members as they walked transects 25 meters apart—in effect setting up a square grid.
When a site was located both a general surface collection and a controlled collection were obtained. The controlled collection was made using the two-meter "dog leash" method, in which every item was collected from a circle described by a line of string two meters long attached to a surveyor and to a stake. The intent of the dog leash sample is to obtain an unbiased sample of the site's contents and to provide an index to the amount of cultural material present.

The location of the single site was recorded in the field on the USGS 7.5 Minute Topographic Series, Clyde, North Carolina, Quadrangle; subsequently it was recorded on a large scale project map of the sewer outfall area prepared by Foy and Lee Architects and on the North Carolina State Highway Map of Haywood County. Field notes were taken on the natural environment, soil type, erosional damage and other pertinent data. These data, along with the artifacts, were returned to the Archeology Laboratories at Wake Forest University for processing, analysis and storage.

31Hw4

One site was located along the survey route. A description of that site follows, along with recommendations for mitigation. Projectile point names are according to Coe (1964); the lithic materials are described by the general geologic categories of felsite, quartz, and quartzite, as more detailed analysis was considered inappropriate to this study.

LOCATION AND DESCRIPTION

This site is located approximately 76 meters west of Jones Cove Branch and 70 meters southeast of Richland Creek, on the colluvial slopes which
form a transition zone between the floodplain and the surrounding hills. Jones Cove Branch feeds into Richland Creek, a tributary of the Pigeon River, 245 meters northeast of the site. Artifacts were recovered from a garden plot adjacent to the sewage treatment plant and from a grassy area adjoining the garden's western edge. The site extends for 140 meters along a north-northeast/south-southwest axis and has a maximum width of 30 meters near the southern boundary. A residence to the east prevented exact determination of that boundary. The soil here is of the Halewood series, eroded rolling phase—a soil probe revealed a dark-brown sandy loam changing to basal red clay 15 cm. below surface. The proposed sewer line crosses the site on a diagonal running southwest from the southwestern corner of the treatment plant impoundment.

THE ARTIFACTS

BIFACIAL TOOLS

Projectile Points (5 specimens)

Only one diagnostic point was found, a Morrow Mountain I dart point measuring 3.1 cm. in length, 2.3 cm. in width and .7 cm. in thickness.

Two of the remaining points were crudely fashioned from white quartz. The first is round-based and unstemmed with a small amount of pressure retouch evident. Measurements are length 5.9 cm., width 2.6 cm. and thickness, 1.3 cm. The second specimen is small and thin with very shallow side-notches and a broad stem. It measures 2.6 cm. in length, 1.9 cm. in width and is .7 cm. thick. There is a possibility that this point was abandoned unfinished due to the poor workability of the quartz.
Also recovered were 2 quartzite specimens, both crudely made and possibly unfinished. One is white with shallow side-notches and a broken base. It measures 6.1 cm. long, 3.3 cm. wide, and 1.2 cm. thick. The second is also side-notched and has a broken base; rose quartzite, probably obtained from the broken river cobbles littering the site, is the raw material. Measurements are 3.7 cm. in length, 2.2 cm. in width and .8 cm. thick.

**Triangular Biface (1 specimen)**

This is a small, thin specimen of gold quartzite showing regular retouch along two sides. There is a possibility that it was used as a projectile point.

**Biface Fragments (3 specimens)**

Two specimens are of quartzite. The first is large and thick and may represent the medial section of a large dart point. The second may also represent a portion of a large dart point or knife; it is the distal section, thinner, and shows flat retouch on all sides.

**UNIFACIAL TOOLS**

**Retouched Flakes (9 specimens)**

Seven of these show small amounts of retouch along one or more edges; six are of white quartz and one is of gray felsite. The two remaining tools were made on small chert pebbles. They exhibit flat pressure retouch with varying amounts of cortex still present.

**DEBITAGE**

**Flakes (57 specimens)**

Chert flakes total 23 specimens, felsite 14, quartzite 12 and quartz 8.
The flakes varied in size and could represent both artifact finishing and primary flake production.

**Cores (3 specimens)**

All three specimens are of chert. As there are no limestone deposits (necessary for chert formation) in this area, it is probable that this raw material was imported from surrounding areas such as the Tennessee River valley.

**CERAMICS (3 specimens)**

Three small sherds were recovered, one of which is aboriginal. The two historic sherds are salt-glazed stoneware, one gray and one black in color; these probably date to the 20th century.

**CONTROL SAMPLE**

The Morrow Mountain I projectile point, one chert flake, one quartzite flake, the aboriginal potsherd and 19 miscellaneous stones were recovered by the dog leash collection.

**COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This is a multicomponent site, the Morrow Mountain I point indicating a Middle Archaic component (circa 5000-4000 B.C.) and the single aboriginal potsherd a later occupation. The large number of tools and the potsherd make it likely that this site served as a base camp for aboriginal living groups; its proximity to two creeks and to the Pigeon River supports this suggestion. This site will receive some damage from the sewer line installation, but the location of all the artifacts on or near the disturbed surface and the size of the survey collection make further work unnecessary.
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The survey of the Haywood County 201 Facilities Planning Area, Jones Cove Branch sector, resulted in the discovery of one archeological site. The site is multicomponent, representing at least two periods of prehistoric occupation. The surface collection is deemed an adequate sample of the material recoverable and thus no further work is recommended.
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CULTURAL RESOURCE EVALUATION OF
THE BROWN SITE (31 JK 129)
JACKSON COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

Dr. Peter S. Miller, Principal Investigator
Ms. Martha Eblen, Chief, Historic Archaeology
Mr. Kenneth Hollingsworth, Chief, Prehistoric Archaeology

Department of Anthropology and Sociology
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Cullowhee, North Carolina

May, 1977
CULTURAL RESOURCE EVALUATION OF
THE BROWN SITE (31 JK 129)
JACKSON COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA

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CULTURAL RESOURCES EVALUATION
OF THE BROWN SITE (31 JK 129)

Abstract

The location of the planned Mountain Heritage Center and Administration Building on the campus of Western Carolina University is a site of archaeological and historical value. The extent of the cultural resources at and pertaining to the site has been evaluated.

Robert Brown settled in the Jackson County area during the 1780s. The Brown family has persisted in this region with several homesites, the one in Cullowhee being occupied from 1869 until the 1960s. The structures on that property have been bulldozed, except that there are remains of cellars, a well and trash deposits. Archival research, interviews with existent Browns, and an archaeological reconnaissance were conducted in order to rapidly assess the homesite before it is further obliterated.

The Cullowhee Valley contains a rich archaeological heritage. There are numerous sites near the flood plain. The knoll of the Brown site would have been a possible place for an Indian occupation. Soil tests, a bank profile, and archaeological sampling were done to evaluate the possibility. Although numerous chips and portions of stone points were found, information is insufficient to confirm the nature and extent of any prehistoric Indian utilization of the site.

The Brown family has made significant contributions to the history of this region. The report presents a partial record of that history, as reflected in one of the oldest known western North Carolina homes.
I. INTRODUCTION

This project was designed, administered, carried out, and funded by Western Carolina University. It is a product of the concern for local history of members of the university community.

The realization of a need for an evaluation of the Brown homestead developed during the late Fall and Winter of 1976-77. Richard Iobst, University Archivist, gave me a series of informal but highly rewarding history lessons on this region of North Carolina. My general interaction with other university colleagues helped me to further learn of and appreciate the social and historical milieu of Cullowhee and the University. The campus in Cullowhee always seems to be incomplete, for growth in programs, student enrollments, and particularly new buildings is a regular continuing activity. The planning office personnel, particularly Kenneth Wood, gave me ready access to engineering maps and sketches of actual, planned and proposed new buildings and altered (landscaped) areas of the campus. By the end of January, 1977, it was clear to me that construction of a new building was going to begin on the site of the prior homestead of a family with a long and significant history in this region.

Convincing others of the need to evaluate the site before construction began was not a problem. Patrick Morris, the Chairman of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, offered immediate active support. We contacted Dean John McCrone, School of Arts and Sciences. He in turn communicated the need for the investigation and a budget for the work to Vice-Chancellor Robert Stoltz. An expression of concern for the need for an historical and archaeological assessment of the Brown site was given to the Chancellor of the University, H. F. Robinson. I was already aware of his strong commitment to history and the need to record and preserve the heritage of this region. Within a short time Vice-Chancellor Stoltz's assistant, Yvonne Phillips, had set up an account for the project. Dean McCrone urged me to begin the field work as soon as possible. A firm commitment of interest, support, and money was given within one month of my expression of a need to do this project.

Once the project began my two assistants and I relied on the goodwill of the university community. Susie Ray of the Counseling, Advisement, and Placement Center, actively recruited competent crew workers for the project. The Plant Office provided daily transportation of tools and equipment. Time and money was available for archival research in nearby county courthouses. The Office of Public Affairs gave me photographs of the Brown
homestead before it burned down. Most important of all was that the oldest living members of the Brown family gave us their time, their support and some rewarding interviews. To Fred Brown in particular, we owe a particular debt of gratitude.

The archaeological, archival, and primary historical data collection for this project took place during March, 1977. Martha Eblen directed the historical archaeology, assisted by a crew of between 4 and 8 student workers. Kenneth Hollingsworth directed the prehistoric archaeology phase of the field work; assisted by 4 crew workers. Ms. Eblen also conducted the interviews with Edwin and Fred Brown and sorted through an extensive amount of local archival information. I provided the overall supervision for the project. The report, however, is a collaborative effort of Martha, Kenneth, and me.

This report is not intended as a definitive view of a significant cultural resource. This is about salvage archaeology. The investigation was conducted in a short time frame. There are no statements regarding the eligibility of the Brown site for the National Register of Historical Places. There is no mention of specific executive orders or guidelines for environmental impact assessment. There is no resource management plan contained herein. That such material is omitted, does not mean that the Brown homestead was not significant to local history. It was significant. The Brown family has carried out a major role in the development of Cullowhee and of Western Carolina University. I think that there is a general consensus among many university officials that there should be in the future consultations on environmental and cultural resource evaluation much earlier in the planning and development of new facilities on this campus. I write this introduction on a warm spring day from a hill overlooking the Brown site. There is a cool breeze, the extensive vegetation is in full leaf and bloom. I look down upon the site as a bulldozer pushes clay over what was once the location of a shed. The Mountain Heritage Center is under construction. The Brown site has been impacted. No further mitigation plan is possible. No concluding recommendations can be given.

Peter S. Miller
Cullowhee, North Carolina
May, 1977
II. THE ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

A. Location

Cullowhee is located near the confluence of Cullowhee Creek and the Tuckasegee River in Jackson County, North Carolina. The county boundaries coincide with the headwater drainage divides of the Tuckasegee River; the entire county is drained by this river. Cullowhee Valley lies within the heart of the Southern Appalachian Highlands, an area that has perpetually retained a degree of cultural distinctiveness.

Cullowhee lies at approximately 35° 19' North latitude, and 83° 11' West longitude. The elevation of the community of Cullowhee and the campus of Western Carolina University at the lower (north) end of Cullowhee Creek is about 2100 feet above mean sea level.

The Brown home site lies between the campus of the university and Cullowhee Creek. The site is situated on a raised landform feature that we are interpreting as a stream terrace (see Fig. 1). Cullowhee Creek flows north past the Brown site, and is located to the west and southwest of the site.

B. Physiography

While the physiographic elements of geologic structure, topography, drainage, and to a certain extent soils, have remained relatively constant interacting factors of the physical environment, other physiographic elements have gone through dynamic changes during the period of known human occupation. Assuming the currently acceptable models of Pleistocene and Holocene glacial chronology and radiocarbon age determinations are fairly correct, as they seem to be, the period of known human occupation in the area involves at least 10,000 years (Willey, 1966: 30). Concerning New World prehistory in general, more "liberal" estimates, and there is accumulating corroborative evidence, would place man on the North American continent as far back as 40,000 years ago. In any case, the occasional surface find of certain types of diagnostically recognizable artifacts in the Southern Appalachian Highlands, which have been reliably dated elsewhere at circa 10,000 B.C., indicates a comparable antiquity for the local area. This is a fairly safe assumption, for these early artifacts appear to have continent-wide distribution with nearly contemporaneous age and little regional variation. This is, in fact, the warranted basis for recognition of fluted
points as evidence of Paleo-Indian occupation.

Therefore, we must consider environmental conditions just prior to and during the period of known human occupation. This will involve about the last 15,000 years. The problem of reconstructing the former environmental setting has been approached by a number of studies, and these by and large provide a tentative scheme and consensual validation for late-Pleistocene and Holocene environments. The sections on climate, vegetation and fauna present a reconstruction of the environmental characteristics which have changed significantly during the last 15,000 years.

1. Geologic Structure

The Cullowhee Valley area lies between two groups of mountains which together comprise the Southern Appalachian Highlands. To the west are the Great Smoky (Unaka) Mountains which are lithologically (structurally) distinct from the Southern Blue Ridge, which lie to the east. Both groups of mountains are, nonetheless, comprised of pre-Cambrian and lower-Cambrian rock, approximately 1 billion to 600 million years old. The vast majority of this rock has been highly metamorphosed (altered by pressure and heat). There are some intrusions of ultramafic (igneous) bodies, however, which are generally of Permian age, around 270 million years old (Stuckey, 1965). The Webster "ring dike", an intrusion of igneous rock, which adjoins the Cullowhee Valley on the north and west, is an example.

The trend of the Southern Appalachians as a whole is a manifestation of the regional structure, which runs approximately northeast-southwest. These mountains are interpreted in terms of plate tectonics as a type of "pressure ridge" resulting from the action of two major "plates." The area has apparently undergone several periods of uplift, and this has tended to fracture and fault the bedrock along lines approximately parallel to the trend of the entire mountain system, i.e., northeast by southwest.

2. Topography

These ancient mountains have been much subdued by the continuing forces of erosion, yet some rugged, sharp, and relatively high summits remain. No doubt the most important factor creating the regional distinctiveness of the Appalachian area is related to topography.
The elevation of Cullowhee Mountain, which is the most prominent peak within the immediate Cullowhee Valley area, is 4292 feet. The confluence of Cullowhee Creek with the Tuckasegee River is at about 2070 feet. Thus the relief of the area is approximately 2200 feet. The topography and relief of the area are of particular importance; these factors, working in conjunction with climate, have perpetually created microenvironmental zones and mosaic biotic communities (Whittaker, 1948). The topographic configuration of the land leads to differential slope exposure, which in turn creates different rates of evaporation, different soil moisture conditions, and so forth.

3. Drainage

To a certain degree, drainage is controlled by geologic structure. The fractures and faults in the lithic mantle (bedrock), which streams often seek, are oriented northeast by southwest. The headwaters of the French Broad River, for instance flow along the direction of the Brevard Fault, to the northwest. The Oconaluftee River is a notable exception; its course is fault controlled, but it flows southeast. P. G. White (personal communication) noted that many of the small headwater streams in the Cullowhee vicinity flow northeast or southwest. Some examples are Tilley Creek, Pressley Creek, Long Branch, Bumgarner Branch, Locust Creek, Cane Creek, Wayehutta Creek, etc. (cf. U.S.G.S. Quadrangle Map, Sylva South, North Carolina).

At the same time, many of the large (older) streams in the vicinity do not follow the structural directions. For example, the Pigeon, the lower portion of the French Broad, the Little Tennessee, and the Tuckasegee, among others, flow generally northwest. These streams had probably established their courses prior to periods of gradual uplift, and channel degradation allowed them to maintain their courses during uplift. The lower course of the French Broad is a notable example of this phenomenon.

Many of the headwater streams in the area have a relatively steep gradient, often more than 200 feet per mile. These are the areas characterized by falls, rapids, and cascades. Along the lower courses of some of the major streams there is substantial alluvial plain development. This alluvial deposition
is generally where the streams gradients are less than 10 feet per mile. Cullowhee Creek could, in many respects, be considered a typical tributary stream in the Southern Appalachian Highlands. The vast majority of the drainage systems in the area are well integrated. The virtual absence, in fact, of bogs and ponds in the area poses a monumental problem for paleo-environmental reconstructions, which depend largely upon limnological and palynological information.

The drainage basin of Cullowhee Creek lies between Savannah Ridge (to the west), the Wolf Knob range (to the south), and Cullowhee Mountain (to the east).

4. Soils

The flood plain soils surrounding the Brown Site are of the Codrus-Comus-Hatboro association. This association of soils is described as well-to-poorly drained, typically found on nearly level flood plains. Sporadic flooding of short duration has formed these alluvial deposits. The flood plain soils are, in the immediate vicinity, somewhat poorly drained, but this condition is probably aggravated by modern-day land moving activities. This association of soils is capable of fairly high agricultural production for both the prehistoric and historic residents.

It is quite likely that Cullowhee Creek did not flood often prior to intensive deforestation beginning in the 1800's. Virgin forests typically prevent flooding by possessing a great capacity for absorption of precipitation and slow, gradual release of groundwater. Nevertheless, even in prehistoric times the possibility of flooding existed and probably influenced the location of dwelling construction.

This type of flood plain soil is by definition a loam, consisting of quantities of clay, mica, sand, and various organics. It is a dark grayish brown in color, and easily tilled (friable) in texture. Stream worn pebbles and cobbles are sparse in the uppermost 30 centimeters, but increase in frequency to a well-defined strata at approximately one meter in depth. The rock constituents consist largely of quartz, quartzite, gneiss, and schists, which are common types of rocks.
The soils of the immediate Brown Home Site, which is situated on a terrace (bench) ranging approximately 4 to 6 meters above the flood plain, are of the Braddock-Hayesville-Tate association. This association of soils is typically associated with gently sloping and rolling foothills, and stream terraces. This soil is a type of naturally occurring mantle of unconsolidated material that develops as a result of the interacting factors of climate, parent material (bedrock), biota, topography, and time. None of the soil on the top of the terrace is now of an alluvial nature. The topsoil (the "A" horizon) at the site (see Figure 2) ranges in thickness from 16 to 30 centimeters. It is a dark grayish brown in color, and is generally good for agriculture, but the nutrients become rapidly depleted when grain or mast producing plants are grown on them.

Below the A horizon on the terrace is the red-yellow podzol (subsoil) which typically develops in the humid subtropical climate of the southeastern United States (both Purrington, 1975, and Holden, 1966, consider the climate to be a modified continental type). In any case, this type of weathering mantle of soils is largely a product of climate rather than parent material. The red-yellow podzol contains varying quantities of iron, aluminum, and clay minerals. At the site, this is a deeply weathered subsoil, somewhat clay-like, containing a large quantity of weathered, rounded rock. Nearly all of the unconsolidated rock in the uppermost 30 cm. of the terrace per se is quartz and quartzite. Apparently the hardness and resistance to erosion of these rocks has sustained their presence. Below the level containing the quartz and quartzite are fragments of the gneiss bedrock. In some places on the western "toe" of the terrace are outcrops of the underlying gneiss bedrock formation.

There are three notable characteristics of the pebble and cobble sized rock on the top of the terrace: (1) they are unlike the bedrock, which is gneiss (2) they are, by and large, fairly rounded which would imply that they had been stream transported and (3) the extant surfaces of these rocks have a deep patina (weathered shell), which is unlike the "fresh" surfaces of the stream transported rock of the flood plain and the channel. It would appear, then, that these stream-worn rocks were originally deposited
Figure 2
when the channel of Cullowhee Creek was as high as
the present top of the terrace (see Figure 2),
and much closer to the terrace than at present.
In other words, the present terrace was at one
time a part of an alluvial plain of an ancestral
Cullowhee Creek. Channel degradation (downcutting)
and meandering to the west left these rocks "perched",
in a sense, on the terrace.

These inferences further suggest that the
terrace itself has been above the flooding zone of
the stream for a very long duration. P. G. White
(personal communication) feels that this landform
is older than the Pleistocene, or perhaps early
Pleistocene in age. White also noted that there
is no apparent evidence of recent changes in the
energy regime of the stream; in other geographical
areas noticeable stream changes (actually energy
level changes) are often the result of climatic
vicissitudes, stream piracy, neck cutoffs, etc.
Apparently the processes presently active in the
drainage and sculpting of Cullowhee Valley have
been at work, with little noticeable change,
for a considerable time.

5. Climate

Toward the end of the Wisconsin Stage, which was
the fourth and final stage of maximum glaciation
during the Pleistocene geological epoch, a
warming trend began and glaciers began to wane.
This was about 10,000 B.C. (Willey, 1966: 28).
Although glaciers have been on the wane since
Wisconsin times, paleoclimatologists would
make much finer distinctions. There was a minor
advance of glacial ice, the Cochrane advance, about
6000 B.C., which was followed by a "climate
optimum" or warm period from 5000 B.C. to 2500 B.C.
(Willey, 1966: 28; Olafson, 1971: 80; Barlow, 1971:
Table 4). After 2500 B.C. climate conditions have
been essentially the same as those of the present,
although there have been some slight local
fluctuations within the last 4500 years that
seemingly affected human cultures. For instance,
Griffin (1961: 711-717) has suggested a 550 year
periodicity for climatic fluctuations and
corresponding cultural changes.

The entire Southern Appalachian area seems to have
been south of the area affected significantly by late
Pleistocene glaciation. At least, no reliable evidence of mountain glaciation has been located (Hasselton, 1975: Abstract). However, there are numerous relict landform features in the Southern Appalachians which suggest intense frost action. These consist of block fields, block streams, sorted ground patterns (Clark, 1975), and fan-like features (Michalek, 1969).

During the ten year period from 1951 to 1960 Cullowhee had a mean temperature of 56.7°F, with the coldest month being in December, which had a mean monthly temperature of 40.3°F. The warmest month for this period was July, which had a mean monthly temperature of 73.9°F. The mean annual precipitation was 47.46". Precipitation is distributed fairly evenly throughout the year, but the months of September to November tended to be somewhat drier, while the month of July received the most precipitation. Between 1951 and 1960 the highest temperature recorded for Cullowhee was 99°F in the month of July, while the coldest temperature for this period was 18°F in the month of January (Climate Summary of the U.S., 1965). The growing season is approximately 160 - 170 days.

An important meteorological factor which is not seen in local means and averages involves the intensity with which some of the precipitation comes. The factors of stagnating tropical storms and the orographic effect created by the relatively sudden ascent into the Southern Appalachians has produced some devastating floods in the spring and summer months. The floods of 1916, 1940, and 1973 on the Tuckasegee River and some of its tributaries are well remembered by local residents. Numerous debris avalanche scars can be seen on the slopes in the area. This is especially true of areas having highway and railroad cuts.

6. Native Vegetation

Studies attempting to reconstruct the vegetational history of the Southern Appalachians have generated much information about the former climatic conditions. For as Butzer (1971: 50) has stated:

...the elements of the natural environment generally show some order in their location and occurrence on the continents. The most important single distribution affecting the face of the earth is climate. Since all living things require warmth and moisture in varying degree, they ultimately reflect resources primarily controlled by climate.
Relevant information concerning the vegetational history of the area was made possible by the palynological research by Whitehead (1965: 417-432; 1975: Abstract) of sediments in the "Carolina Bays." Whitehead (1975: Abstract) states that:

The full-glacial forests of coastal North Carolina were clearly boreal in character, dominated by jack pines (and some spruce) in the Bladen Lakes region, by spruce (with some jack pine) in northeastern North Carolina. Many other boreal elements were present; no temperate taxa were represented. This is consistent with a vegetational displacement (azonal in character) of some 1300 Km. This further suggests lowering of vegetational zones in the mountains by between 1000-2000 meters. This would result in extensive areas of tundra vegetation (my emphasis).

Whitehead's assertions have been supported by numerous paleo-environmental studies (Guilday, 1971; King, 1973; Ray, 1967; Watts, 1970). Thus, by extrapolation we have a general idea of the nature and location of the forests in the Southern Appalachians during the early period of human occupation. There were isolated or possibly extensive areas of tundra-like vegetation in the higher elevations, with boreal forests displaced down into the lower valleys. It should be noted, however, that a long-held contrary opinion was promulgated in Braun's (1950) classic work, Deciduous Forests of Eastern North America. Braun felt that the major forest biomes were affected very little, if any, south of the glacial border.

Little is known about the dynamic ecological succession between the late-Wisconsin Stage and historic times. Let it suffice to say that with the onset of warmer climate, there was a gradual ingress of the mixed deciduous forests into the area. The boreal conifers (pines, spruce, fir, etc.) were displaced upward several thousand feet, and today are found only on the higher summits, generally above 4,500 feet (Whittaker, 1948: 16). Also, some smaller relict plant species are found in deeply-incised, damp valleys, such as the Tuckasegee Gorge (Moore, personal communication); these attest to the cooler climatic conditions of former times.
Wright (1974: Abstract) expresses the significance of these environmental changes:

Through postglacial time the forests of mixed deciduous trees and southern pines that succeeded the boreal conifers 10,000-12,000 years ago have changed their character in a systematic way, as a result of slow migration of dominant tree types (such as beech, hemlock, chestnut) at different rates. Such a dynamic ecosystem has important implications for animal distributions and for the evolution of human cultures.

Since there has been little significant climatic change in the past 4,500 years, it is possible to assess the environmental setting of the late prehistoric period with much more detail and certainty by drawing inferences from extant biotic and climatic characteristics of the area. Admittedly, historic European cultural practices created much ecological attenuation. Nevertheless, paleoenvironmental data for the late prehistoric period are relatively detailed, and early ethnohistoric accounts provide much valuable information.

During late prehistoric times much of the Cullowhee Valley was probably covered by mixed deciduous forests related to the northern harwood complex; as most of the immediate valley is below 4,200 feet, there probably was little spruce-fir forest. However, a varying moisture gradient, varying insolation resulting from slope orientation, and edaphic characteristics resulting from certain parent material rock created a great deal of diversity in the natural vegetation.

In the lower and more moist sections of the valley a mixed mesic oak-chestnut-hickory forest was once present. Unfortunately, the chestnut blight which entered the area in the 1920's has virtually eliminated the American chestnut. At elevations of about 2,700 feet, there is generally a transition from the oak-chestnut-hickory forest to the maple-beech-basswood forest. The chestnut was also present in this zone as a minor species (Whittaker, 1948: 15). The maple-beech-basswood forest extended up to about 4,200 feet,
and there merged with hemlock on the higher summits of the valley area, such as Cullowhee Mountain.

Below the canopy of major forest species, there is a great diversity of shrubs and herbs. Evergreen shrubs include the rhododendron, doghobble, laurel, and mountain magnolia. Incidentally, the mountain magnolia is a "tropical" species, a relict of climatic conditions warmer than those of the present (Cooper and Hardin, 1970: 327). Non-evergreen shrubs and flowering plants literally number in the hundreds.

7. Native Fauna

During the Paleo-Indian period northern fauna dominated the animal communities. Some extinct species of extinct megafauna were represented. Paleontological studies of the Wisconsin Stage fauna of the Southern Appalachians indicate the presence of the following species: mammoth, mastodon, horse, forest musk-oxen, giant and modern beaver, ground sloths, extinct peccary, elk, caribou, and the white tailed deer (Ray, Cooper, and Benninghoff, 1967: 608-622; Guilday, 1971: 233-262). There is a dearth of information concerning small faunal species and aquatic life forms during this period.

The more recent faunal populations of the deciduous forest are very diverse. Prior to European settlement the more important animals were deer, black bear, wolf, mountain lion, bobcat, gray fox, fox squirrel, gray squirrel, eastern chipmunk, various mice species, pine vole, shrews (Shelford, 1963: 23), bats, bison, groundhog, beaver, oppossum, otters, skunk, and weasel (Holden, 1966: 14).

Permanent avian residents included owls, hawks, eagles, quail, grouse, turkey, and many smaller species. Seasonal migratory birds include the ducks, geese, and coots (Shelford, 1963: 23).

There are numerous species of snakes, turtles, and amphibians. At one time trout, perch, bass, sturgeon, pike, and catfish were common in the streams. Fresh water shellfish are found up to the foothills of the area, but seem never to have been present in the highland streams (Holden, 1966: 15).
III. PREHISTORIC ARCHAEOLOGY

An archaeological understanding of the Cullowhee Valley, an area that was apparently at certain times heavily populated by aboriginal peoples, has remained difficult to formulate for a number of reasons. In order to develop a prehistoric chronology, at the very least, of the immediate locale it is necessary to be comparative in a rather broad sense. This is particularly true when considering that stratigraphic sequences, which ultimately provide initial definitions of artifact types per period, have not been developed for the immediate area. However, since the Cullowhee Valley lies within the heart of the Southern Appalachian Highlands, an area that has remained both environmentally and culturally distinct from adjacent areas, we may assume that existing archaeological knowledge of the entire physiographic province is applicable to more restricted areas (such as the present study) within the larger setting. In other words, the existing archaeological knowledge of the Southern Appalachian Highlands is the universe from which our cultural extrapolations are drawn. Typological correlations are, in fact, the necessary recourse in reconstructing the prehistory of the local area.

A. Limitations

The absence of local stratigraphic profiles comparable in age to those in other areas of the southeast is mainly due to two realms of factors; these factors may properly be termed limitations.

There are several limitations resulting from characteristics of the physical environment. In the first place, the Southern Appalachian Highlands area as a whole is generally not a depositional environment, but rather, an area subject to perpetual erosion. The relatively steep gradient of the slopes and streams produces a "high energy" geomorphic situation. In short, there is little deposition, which provides stratigraphy, but considerable erosion. Also, the area receives a considerable amount of annual precipitation. Several monitoring stations within the Great Smoky and Blue Ridge mountains record more than 80 inches of precipitation per year. This factor coupled with the steep character of the area produces various forms of erosion (channel degradation, sheet erosion, gullying, debris avalanches, etc.). The PH of the soils in the area is another physical limitation to the archaeological knowledge, particularly concerning
organics. While the soils of the area are generally acidic, they are not so highly acidic as to inhibit bacterial decomposition. Also, as previously stated, there is available moisture and, of course, a long warm season. These factors provide excellent conditions for bacterial decomposition. One of the major problems in the reconstruction of the cultural ecology of the area is the high rate of organic decomposition. This is especially true for the older known sites.

A second group of limitations arises from human activities, both prehistoric and historic. Concerning prehistoric occupations, the kinds of places chosen for temporary, sporadic occupations quite frequently do not lend contextual information. Many "upland" sites are examples. For instance, assume there is occasional occupation, covering several thousand years, of a small area on a ridge. Continuous erosion and removal of the soil from such a site would result in cultural debris from the oldest to the most recent being kept on the surface. In other words, such a site would contain no contextual integrity. This is in fact the case for the vast majority of multi-component sites known for the Southern Appalachian Highlands.

Historic activities have produced a number of problems. Vigorous deforestation beginning in the 1800's and poor cultivation practices aggravated the already erosion-prone landscape.

Another most important limitation to an understanding of the local prehistory was a certain tenacity of some "modern" archaeologists to insist on explaining local archaeology in terms of existing knowledge of contiguous areas. For example, Keel (1972: 1) states that: "By 1966 it was evident that the Woodland manifestations of the area were different from what had been expected on the basis of knowledge about the areas adjacent to the Appalachian Highlands."

We feel, as did Coe (1961), that a truer understanding of the prehistoric cultural developments of the Southern Appalachian Highlands can be gained by investigations within the interior of the area, but only a minimal understanding of the local archaeological problems may be gained by extrapolating information, for instance, from the "Carolina Piedmont" or eastern Tennessee. For these reasons, it remains highly desirable on the part of local archaeologists to seek out the kinds of sites which may generate a priori knowledge for the area.
D. Prehistoric Cultural Sequence

As inferred in the preceding section, we may best understand the prehistoric cultures of the Cullowhee Valley within the context of its larger and homogenous setting--the Southern Appalachian Highlands. Our semantic reality of terminology, phraseology, and concepts, however, makes it necessary to speak of local prehistoric cultural stages and traditions within the context of the Eastern United States in general. Four major prehistoric cultural stages have been identified for the Eastern United States. These same stages and some substages are for the most part applicable to the Southern Appalachian area. However, it should be recognized that the delineation of these units is an archaeological construct and does not necessarily reflect the actual continuum of human cultures.

1. Paleo-Indian Period

The initial period of human occupation in the Southern Appalachians is indicated by the presence of distinctive types of fluted projectile points (probably spear or stabbing lance points). This period is termed the Paleo-Indian Period (or lithic stage). In the Eastern United States Paleo-Indian artifacts have been assigned various type-names, such as Clovis, Folson, Cumberland, Dalton, and Quad points, but these reflect only a slight degree of regional variation. The antiquity of these tools has not been established a priori for the study area, but radiocarbon age determination for these recognizable types in other areas generally fall prior to 8000 B.C. These early cultures are thought to have had a subsistence economy largely dependent upon Pleistocene megafauna. Since the associated organic remains have been destroyed, the presence of the fluted points is the sole criteria for identifying a Paleo-Indian component in the east (Coe, 1964: 120). The small campsites where these fluted points are usually found suggests that the Paleo-Indian people existed in small, roving bands composed of a nuclear or possibly extended family unit.

Unfortunately, little provenience data exists for the distribution of these early tools; none have been found in their "proper" contextual position, and as of the present time, all have been surface finds. Mason (1962) notes that the Paleo-Indian tradition was widespread in the Eastern United
Evidence is slowly accumulating concerning the Paleo-Indian period in the local area. Williams and Stoltman (1965: 669-683) indicated that only four fluted points had been found in the southern Appalachians. Holden (1966) stated that she had inspected fluted points in private collections from Transylvania County, North Carolina. Five Clovis-type points, all from western North Carolina, were examined by Keel (1972: 30). Also, numerous Paleo-Indian points (Dalton- and Quad- types) are contained within the McCracken collection which, apparently, was accumulated over a period of several decades from the area around Haywood County, North Carolina. Additionally, this writer has examined more than a dozen fluted points (both fragmentary and complete) in a private collection from Jackson County, North Carolina. White (1976) maintains that he knows of "eight or ten" Paleo-Indian points from the Balsam range of Jackson and Haywood counties.

It is much debated as to the role the Paleo-Indians had in the rather rapid extinction of numerous species of the Pleistocene beastiary. To the north, in the Blue Ridge mountains around Saltville and the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia, Michlovic (1975: 101-105) found in situ evidence of extinct megafauna and Paleo-Indian artifacts. There is no doubt that the early inhabitants of North America exploited the megafauna for food, but it has never been demonstrated that the large animals were a major source of food. Numerous smaller animals, and hundreds of plants, were also present. In any case, numerous species are conspicuously absent from the present tundra area of high latitudes. Aside from the "prehistoric overkill" hypothesis, mysterious diseases have also been postulated as causes of extinction.

2. Archaic Period

For whatever reasons, the dwindling and finally vanishing megafauna had important implications for human cultures. The subsistence base shifted to the smaller yet more numerous mammals. This marks the beginning of the second major cultural stage, the Archaic Tradition, which generally lasted from 8000 to 1000 B.C. (Willey, 1966: 60-61). This stage was certainly a tradition, lasting 7000 years or longer, but we prefer to define this stage not
by time brackets, but rather by the major cultural patterns. Indeed, the Archaic Tradition persisted up until historic times in some areas of North America.

The traditional aspect of the Archaic was that throughout the entirety of the stage, subsistence was based on small game hunting, fishing and wild plant collecting; the entire stage is pre-agricultural. In the Southern Appalachians, diverse microenvironments, with their highly varied plant and animal assemblages, were ideal for the hunting-fishing-gathering economy of the Archaic cultures. In general, settlement during the Archaic reflected either seasonal wandering from one kind of food (or other raw material) resource station to another, or in some cases, semi-permanent to permanent residence, with a definite trend toward increased sedentism (Willey, 1966: 60).

The Archaic Tradition is well represented in the Cullowhee Valley. Projectile points dating from the early Archaic Period (circa 6500 B.C.) have been found in numerous localities in the valley. Kirk and Palmer-type projectile points (cf. Fig. 3) have been recovered from the Forest Hills section, from the Ferguson field in the Speedwell section, and from the site (Jk 15) excavated at the new Western Carolina University football stadium. Most of these early points were surface finds, but one Kirk-type and one Palmer-type were recovered from the plow zone in ancillary areas of the 1972 stadium site (NC Jk 15) excavation. Another frequently represented projectile point is the LeCroy-type, which was defined in West Virginia by Broyles (1971). The LeCroy tool dates from about circa 6300 B.C. (Broyles, 1971: 49). These have been found in numerous localities in Jackson County.

Mid-Archaic artifacts (5000 to 3000 B.C.) have also been recovered from several locations within the Cullowhee Valley. The earliest artifacts uncovered in situ within the Southern Appalachian Highlands were Morrow Mountain projectile points at the Warren Wilson site in Buncombe County (Keel, 1972: 32). The relative date for these points is circa 3500 B.C. (Keel, 1972; Coe, 1964). The Ferguson field in the Speedwell section of Cullowhee Valley has produced many Mid-Archaic artifacts, including projectile points, and ground and polished stone implements.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Period/Tradition</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Point Type</th>
<th>General Outline</th>
<th>Predominant Material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mississippian</td>
<td>Qualla</td>
<td>Madison</td>
<td>△</td>
<td>Chert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pisgah</td>
<td>Pisgah Triangular</td>
<td>△</td>
<td>Chert</td>
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<tr>
<td>Late Woodland</td>
<td>Connestee</td>
<td>Haywood Triangular</td>
<td>△</td>
<td>Chert</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Garden Creek Triangular</td>
<td>△</td>
<td>Chert, quartz</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middle Woodland</td>
<td>Connestee</td>
<td>South Appalachian Pentagonal Connestee Triangular</td>
<td>△</td>
<td>Chert, quartz, quartz</td>
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<tr>
<td>Early Woodland</td>
<td>Pigeon</td>
<td>Pigeon Side Notched</td>
<td>Chert, quartz</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bradley Spike</td>
<td>Chert</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Coosa Notched</td>
<td>Chert, quartz</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Swannanoa Transylvania Triangular Swannanoa Stemmed</td>
<td>Quartz</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pott Short Stemmed</td>
<td>Quartz</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Late Archaic</td>
<td>Otarre Stemmed</td>
<td>Otarre Stemmed</td>
<td>Quartz, quartzite</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Savannah River Stemmed (Appalachian Stemmed)</td>
<td>Chert, quartzite</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Archaic</td>
<td>Guilford Lanceolate Stanly Stemmed</td>
<td>Quartzite</td>
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<tr>
<td>Early Archaic</td>
<td>Kirk Corner Notched, Kirk Stemmed</td>
<td>Chert, quartz, quartz</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Palmer Corner Notched Lecroy Bifurcated Stemmed</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hardaway</td>
<td>Hardaway</td>
<td>Chert, quartz</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paleo-Indian</td>
<td>Clovis</td>
<td>Clovis</td>
<td>Chert</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the stratigraphically derived projectile point sequences formulated by Coe (1964) and Keel (1972).
Late Archaic period material (2000 to 600 B.C.—or perhaps considerably later) is quite common in the area. As Joseph Caldwell (1958) maintained, this was the time of maximum population density for the aboriginal cultures of the southeastern United States, and it was a time of "primary forest efficiency"—a culminating knowledge and technology for maximum exploitation of the forest resources prior to agricultural practices. The Late Archaic Guilford and Savannah River Stemmed projectile points (see Fig. 3) are found in many areas of the Cullowhee Valley.

3. Woodland Period

After the Archaic Period, the next major cultural pattern is the Eastern Woodland Tradition. In the Southern Appalachians, the Woodland Period extended from about 600 B.C. to about A.D. 1000 (Keel, 1972: 31). In terms of cultural manifestations, the Woodland Period is minimally defined by the presence of cord-marked and fabric-impressed ceramics, triangular projectile points, continuation of the ground and polished stone tradition, construction of artificial earthen structures, and a rudimentary knowledge of agriculture. Forest resources, though, continued to play an important role in subsistence. Several sites within the Cullowhee Valley have produced Woodland artifacts.

4. Mississippian Period

The fourth and final prehistoric cultural pattern is that of the Mississippian Period. The Mississippian Period lasted from circa A.D. 1000 to protohistoric times. The accretion of novel cultural traits which characterize the Mississippian cultures include elaborate ceremonialism, complicated paddle stamped ceramics, construction of large earthen mounds to serve as a platform for wooden structures, and intensive use of agriculture. Meggars (1972: 123) makes these additional observations:

It has been suggested that the Mississippian radiation represents the dispersion of a population possessing an agricultural technology superior to that of the surrounding Woodland groups, who continued to depend heavily on wild foods. Mississippian sites from Wisconsin to Florida exhibit great uniformity in village pattern, pottery, burial practices, and other characteristics, and except in the
region of development display no continuity with proceeding local cultures. There is no evidence that this colonization was resisted by the previous occupants, who often adopted various Mississippian material cultural traits. Leaving the Mississippian to the best agricultural land, they continued to follow their centuries-old way of life. Villages were small and frequently moved, as nearby hunting became unrewarding.

With reference to the Southern Appalachians, the Mississippian period is represented by the Pisgah phase, which was defined by Dickens (1970). An interesting archaeological problem involves the manner in which the Pisgah phase is spatially represented in the Southern Appalachians. While the Pigeon River basin, especially in Haywood County, and as previously stated, the Tuckasegee River basin in Jackson County were concentrations of Pisgah phase cultures, the upper Hiwassee River basin is virtually devoid of Pisgah material. Dorwin (1975) recognized this anomaly in the upper Hiwassee drainage. Why would areas so environmentally similar have been differentially populated by Pisgah phase peoples?

5. Historic Period

The Qualla phase represents the historic period of the Cherokee culture in the Southern Appalachians. The Qualla phase is thought to extend from about A.D. 1550 to the time of forced removal. Qualla phase artifacts are found over the entire Tuckasegee River basin. The single structure excavated by Dorwin in 1972 was apparently a Qualla ceremonial lodge (Dorwin, personal communication). This site (NC Jk 15) was excavated as a salvage operation prior to the construction of the new football stadium in Cullowhee. No report of this excavation has been written. In 1964 a strikingly similar structure was excavated by Keel near the confluence of the two major forks of the Tuckasegee River, near the community of Tuckasegee, Jackson County, North Carolina (Keel, 1972: 34). Both the stadium site in Cullowhee and the Tuckasegee site contained historic trade items, including metal objects, glass trade beads, and gun flints. Also, both structures could possibly have been burned during punitive raids in the late 1700's. Many aspects of the prehistoric heritage are, however, retained in the Qualla phase culture. These would include such traits as paddle stamped and incised ceramic ware,
small triangular projectile points, aboriginal housing construction, and ideological characteristics.
The projectile point sequence for the Southern Appalachian Highlands is shown in Fig. 3.

C. Methods and Procedures of Prehistoric Archaeology at the Brown Site

1. General Considerations

Given the current understanding of prehistoric settlement patterns in the Southern Appalachian Highlands, there seemed to be a number of attributes of the physical environment at the Brown site which would have made it a likely spot for prehistoric occupation (either temporary or permanent). The site has a southwestward exposure, so it gets sunlight late in the evening. The top of the terrace is relatively flat, which makes for a more amenable location for temporary camping or construction of a dwelling unit. The terrace is surrounded on three sides by rich alluvial soils, making for a good location during the Mississippian agricultural period. Yet, the terrace location is above the flooding zone of Cullowhee Creek.

Additionally, when considering the social environment, we know that the campus area of Western Carolina University was a major Pisgah phase (circa. A.D. 1000 to 1500) ceremonial center (Keel, 1972: 30), with a ceremonial mound and associated village debris covering an area of several acres. The Brown site is approximately 400 meters from this known concentration of Pisgah phase material on the Western Carolina University campus. Also, in 1972 Dorwin excavated an historic Cherokee structure at the site of Western Carolina University's new football stadium, which lies approximately 300 meters south of the Brown site. Since settlement considerations involve "coping with a social environment, as well" (Collins, 1975: 20), the proximity of the Brown site to the known Pisgah and Qualla phases occupations lends support to the assumption that the Brown site was a probable location for a prehistoric dwelling and/or functional "station" for chipping stone tools, hide preparation, ceramic manufacture, etc.

In effect, we were testing the hypothesis that the Brown site was a likely prehistoric occupation site for those characteristics of the physical and social environment as described above.
2. Objectives

The primary objective of the prehistoric excavation phase at the Brown site was to systematically test the hypothesis that the location probably contained evidence of prehistoric occupation. This was executed in such a fashion as to provide detailed provenience data concerning any prehistoric and/or historic features or artifacts that may have been encountered in excavation. Locational documentary of cultural materials was recorded with respect to: 1) the horizontal excavation unit, 2) the vertical level of the horizontal unit, and 3) the association of artifacts with soil characteristics and/or other artifacts or features.

A secondary objective was to identify and describe existing edaphic and lithic characteristics of the site which would provide geologic and geomorphic interpretations. It was hoped that correlations could be made with existing stratigraphic information from similar local situations. Keel (1972: 39-42) described a stratigraphic profile at the Tuckasegee site (Jk'12) measuring eighteen feet in thickness. In this endeavor, Keel was able to isolate specific flood deposits, such as the 1940 flood of the Tuckasegee River. This could serve as a possible basis for comparison with stream deposits at the Brown site.

With this two-fold objective in mind, a practical consideration was the location of excavation units so as to reveal both the prehistoric and depositional record at the site. It should be noted that as the entire site was covered with grass and low shrub, no preliminary surface collection was made. Since Cullowhee Creek is located to the west of the terrace, it was deemed that the downstream (north) slope of the terrace (see Fig. 1) had been an area of low-energy deposition during flooding. Thus, it was decided that a systematic cut-bank profile beginning on the top of the terrace and extending down the northward site to the floodplain would best achieve the objectives (see Figure 4).

3. Procedures

Excavation for the cut-bank profile began with the N16W33 square and proceeded northward to the N39W33 square. All the cut-bank profile squares were along the W33 line. Spatially defined, the excavation units consisted of one meter square, arbitrarily excavated in 10 centimeter units. Depths were measured from ground level of the southeastern corner stakes of each square. Each level (10 cm.) per square received a
Cut Bank Excavation

Viewing South

Figure 4
field specimen number, which was recorded on the
master field specimen list and the corresponding bag.

Retrieved specimens from each excavation unit
included artifacts, unmodified stone, and soil
samples. Soil was sifted through \( \frac{1}{2} \) inch hardware
screen.

Other than the cut-bank profile squares, three
one meter excavation squares were randomly located at
the site (see Figure 1). All squares were excavated
down to the subsoil (see Figure 2).
Summary and Conclusions

Considering the number of squares which were excavated, the frequency of prehistoric artifacts recovered was extremely low. Two projectile points were retrieved. We are able to classify these on typological grounds. One point was found in square N16 W33 in the 10-20cm. level; this was in the topsoil. It is a medium-sized triangular type with an incurvate base (See Figure 5.a). It was manufactured from locally obtainable yellow quartzite. This specimen fits Keel's (1972) description of the Connestee Triangular points. Keel feels that this type of point is Middle Woodland (Connestee Phase) in age (Keel, 1972: 177). The Connestee Phase is thought to have extended from circa A.D. 300 to A.D. 1000 (Keel, 1972: 33).

A Guilford-type projectile point (Coe, 1964) was recovered from the 20-30 cm. level in N28 W33. This point also came from the topsoil. It has a shattered tip (See Figure 5.b). Guilford points are Late Archaic in age, dating from about 4000 B.C. (Coe, 1964: 118), and are fairly common in the area. This specimen was made from white quartz, which is quite abundant in the area.

Two large quartzite scrapers were recovered. One was found in the 0-10 cm. level of N13 W33 square. This specimen (See Figure 5.c) was made from white quartzite, and the edge is much dulled from wear. The other "scraper" was manufactured from yellow quartzite (See Figure 5.d). The bifacial character and secondary shipping on this specimen suggest that this specimen may have been a preform blank for projectile point manufacture.

Two small chips of chert, which is not native to the area, were recovered from the N20 W9 square. These are probably waste flakes from chipping activities. Neither piece displays any retouch flaking or wear patterns.

Also recovered from N20 W9 was a single thin, plain surface potsherd. It came from the 10-20 cm. level. We could not assign this specimen to any specific temporal order, but the thinness, abundant quartz temper, and plain surface resemble Keel's description of Pigeon Phase ceramics. The Pigeon Phase is thought to have extended from 200 B.C. to A.D. 300 (Keel, 1972: 32).

With this paucity of artifactual evidence, we can make no speculation as to the functional activities carried on at the site in prehistoric times. We are, nonetheless, able to state that Late Archaic and Early Woodland people were present at the Brown Site.
Prehistoric Artifacts

Figure 5.a. & Figure 5.b.

Figure 5.c. & 5.d.
IV. THE HISTORICAL ARCHAEOLOGY

A. Preface

In the quest to obtain an understanding of our colorful mountain heritage, the Archaeology Laboratory submits this section of the report on the history of the Robert Brown family. The Browns, one of the first settlers in this area, were and are presently a prominent family in this mountain community. It is believed their family history will represent an excellent case study in understanding the settlement of Jackson County.

Systematic historical archaeology is relatively new method of scholarly investigation. It concerns both the documentation of historical records and the archaeological excavation of historical remains especially as they relate to the American past since the first arrival of Europeans.

The historical research involved archival research in the Western Carolina University library, deed investigation in the Haywood and Jackson County Courthouses, interviews with descendants of the Browns, and graveyard exploration. The written and/or published material on the history of White settlement in Jackson County is scattered and limited. Therefore, most of the information in the historical report is from letters, papers, and interviews. The factuality of this primary source material must be considered in this light.

The archaeological excavation was oriented toward the problem of finding and mapping the original cellar and any other surviving structures of the Hamilton Brown homesite. Because the area was bulldozed and burned, artifact accumulation was minimal. Details of the archaeological methodology will be stated later in this section.

This chapter is not intended to be the absolute or final word on the subject. It is a contribution of information to aid in the expansion of knowledge about the early Southern Appalachian settlers and where and how they lived.

B. Settlement of Western North Carolina

The territory of Jackson County lies within what was once the Middle Settlement of the Cherokee Indians. The various historical incidents which opened up this territory for
white settlement will be summarized.

The conquest of the Cherokee Indians cannot be fully understood when it is viewed as a succession of events. It was achieved by one culture, known as the Old South, assimilating the culture of the indigenous peoples. The Old South was a system which valued and depended upon great amounts of land; and one that justified the acquisition of the land and the removal of the Indian population by giving them knowledge of civilization and Christianity (Hudson, 1976: 428). Therefore, the events leading towards white settlement should be seen as actions seeded by the underlying culture of the settlers.

The first wave of contact the Southeastern Indians had with Europeans was with missionaries in the middle of the sixteenth century. The real assault against the Indians began in 1670 when British colonists, who were more interested in trading than spreading Christianity, landed in South Carolina (Ibid: 434). These men employed many schemes to manipulate the Indians. However, as the traders' abuse increased, the Indians struck back. At the same time the Indians were becoming involved in wars against the colonies, there began numerous battles between Indian nations (often instigated by the colonists) which were considerably weakening the Indians. The Southeastern Indians were such active participants in the seven year conflict between France and Britain (1756-1763) that the war was called the French and Indian War in this country. After this war, the victorious English attempted to establish a policy of segregation of the white settlers and Indians. A boundary line running along the Appalachian Mountains from Maine to Georgia was instituted. This line was ineffective and as years passed the Indians continued to lose land (Ibid: 438).

During the American Revolution the majority of Southeastern Indians remained neutral, but the Cherokee were an exception. According to one source the Cherokee supported the Tories and clashed out against the colonial Rebels (Hudson, 1976: 443). In retaliation, the colonists fought back with a terrible vengeance. The most important campaign against the Cherokees was the expedition of General Griffith Rutherford in August, 1976. General Rutherford, with his 2,400 men, raided and burned the Cherokee towns along the banks of the Tuckasegee. Resistance was impossible and most of the Indians fled.
into the mountains. In 1871, Colonel John Sevier fell upon the Tuckasegee Indians and left them with the same fate as Rutherford (Stillwell, 1927: 123-124).

Few Indians were actually killed in these campaigns, but their homes and crops were completely wiped out. This destruction to the Cherokee was so great that they never were the same; their nation was crippled. Another important consequence was just as drastic. The colonists that participated in the campaigns became attracted to the new lands and saw new possibilities of settlement in them. As a result, after the revolution there was a rapid settlement of whites and a great reduction of Indian lands (Dickens, 1967).

1. Cherokee Land Cessions

By the year 1752, the state had issued 49 land grants to families in the "western area." In 1777, white people could settle as far west as the Swannanoa Gap on the Continental Divide. Then the boundary was moved slightly east of the present city of Asheville in 1785. Six years later the Cherokee lost more land; the Pickins line was established halfway between Asheville and Mt. Pisgah. In 1798, after the "First Treaty of Tellico" the boundary line was moved southwest of Waynesville. This dividing line was surveyed in 1802 and instituted as the Meigs-Freeman line. This treaty caused many Cherokee to cross the Balsam Mountains and make new homes along the Tuckasegee River and its tributaries. Many Cherokee already lived in this valley, so as the new Indians migrated west, their numbers swelled until Indian towns stretched all along the Tuckasegee (Stillwell, 1927: 123).

Another large cession of land occurred in 1819. "The Treaty of 1819," sometimes referred to as "Second Treaty of Washington" enabled white settlers to buy titles to the lands of what is now Jackson County. The new boundary line ran along the Nantahala Mountains and included the watershed of the Little Tennessee River. All the lands that the government acquired from this treaty were sold at public land auctions in Waynesville, North Carolina beginning in 1820.

The final catastrophe for the Cherokee Indians was when a partial group of Indians signed over the total cession of all Cherokee lands east of the Mississippi. This treaty was signed in New Echota, Georgia, in 1835 and was ratified the following year.
It gave the Cherokee two years to voluntarily leave their homelands. Most of them refused to leave. Within the two years only about 2,000 Cherokees had migrated west.

The "Cherokee Removal" was initiated in 1838. Approximately 15,000 Indians were harshly moved by the United States government to Oklahoma. About 4,000 Cherokee died during this dramatic journey. Nearly 600 Cherokee were able to legally remain on the Qualla reserve or become North Carolina citizens and at least another 1,000 hid in remote areas of the mountains.

In 1838 the conquest of the Cherokee Indians was completed and the settlement of North Carolina "was the forward sweep of the white people into the intermittently created voids resulting in the conquest" (Browder, 1973: 89 and Hudson, 1976: 462-464). Please see Figure 6 for a graphic summary of the land cessions.

2. Cherokee Land Sales

Upon the ratification of the treaty ceding all Cherokee lands east of the Mississippi, the State of North Carolina came into legal possession of 1,112 square miles. Immediately, the State government took measures to organize the survey and sale of these lands. The land was surveyed into districts and sections and rated as first to fourth rate property. First rate land sold at $4.00 an acre, fourth rate land went for $.50 an acre. On the first Monday of September, 1838, the land was sold at a public auction in Franklin, North Carolina. A family had to pay 1/8 of the sale contract, at which time they were given a certificate as record of the transaction. The following year, 1/8 more must be paid and then 1/4 of the contract annually until the total amount was paid. Only then was the official grant received by the owner. (Browder, 1973).

Tracing the official records of the various land grants is confusing. First of all, there is evidence that quite a few settlers moved into the area before it was legally opened by treaties. These settlers purchased land directly from the Indians. Because there are no government land
In 1838, all Cherokee lands east of the Mississippi were ceded.

Approximate legal western boundaries for white settlement
grant records concerning these purchases, the dates of arrival, and the location of the tracts are unknown. Legally, these settlers would have to repurchase their land from the government at land sales to reestablish their title. But much of this information cannot be found.

Another problem exists because of the confusion of the creation of counties. Buncombe County was established in 1792 and included much of western North Carolina. In 1808, Haywood County was formed out of lands from Buncombe County. As treaties opened up more land, its boundary extended as far west as the Tuckasegee River. Macon County (1828) took in all lands west of the Tuckasegee until Jackson County was formed in 1851. This new county acquired acreage from both Haywood and Macon Counties. So, the land that is presently Jackson County has been part of three other counties. Land grants, according to the year of sale, are found in different county courthouses. To add to this confusion, some of the oldest documents are in the State Archives in Raleigh. This researcher was able to visit only the Jackson and Haywood County Courthouses because of time and fund limitations.

The exact disposition of the record of sales previous to 1819 is unknown to this researcher. Stillwell quotes grants from 1796 in the Buncombe County deed books. The record of sales of land after the 1819 treaty are available in the North Carolina State Archives including the original land survey and plat books. A few early grants are recorded in the Haywood County Courthouse, but the information is incomplete. Records of the 1838 land sales can be found in the Haywood County Courthouse (land east of the Tuckasegee) or Macon County Courthouse (land west of the Tuckasegee). Jackson County Courthouse has all the deed records of this area starting in the late 1850's.

C. Settlement of the Brown Family

According to the family history told by the Browns, the first Brown in the area of Jackson County was Robert Brown. He entered this country through the Charleston seaport in the colony of South Carolina around the year 1740. From the coast he moved westward and within 20 years of his arrival in this country, he had pushed over the Balsam Mountains and settled in
LOCATION OF ROBERT BROWN'S HOMESITE

Approximate location of Robert Brown's Homesite

The Brown Cemetery

LEGEND

STATE HIGHWAYS
COUNTY ROADS 1st CLASS
COUNTY ROADS 2nd CLASS
COUNTY ROADS 3rd CLASS
TRAILS

RAILROADS
COUNTY SEAT
PUBLIC SCHOOLS
CHURCHES

Maris & Freeman Line
the section called Caney Fork. These lands were still owned by the Cherokee Indians, but by establishing a friendly relationship with the Indians, Robert was able to purchase several hundred acres, at a very low price with the understanding that the Indians would be allowed to fish and hunt on the land (Grace Brown).

An estimate of the location of the original Brown land can be determined because family history explains that the western border of the land was right on the Meigs Freeman line. This boundary line was surveyed in 1802, after the Treaty of 1798. By knowing this boundary and the location of the descendants' land, the original tract can be established (See Figure 7). The first home is no longer in existence, but the house built by Robert's son, William, in the 1850's is standing near the location of the older home (See Figure 8).

Until 1819, the Brown's were living in Indian territory and no treaties affected them. By the "Treaty of 1819" all lands east of the Nantahala Mountains became territory of the United States. In order to regain legal title, Robert Brown would then have to had purchased his land from the government at a land sale. However, there is no record in the Registrar of Deeds in Haywood County of Robert or William purchasing the Caney Fork land. At this point there is much difficulty in interpreting the Brown history. The earliest record of land transaction concerning a Brown in Haywood County is in 1827, when a Hugh Brown purchased 81 acres of Cherokee land in District 4, Section 4. Hugh Brown's name is found frequently in the deed books in reference to the Cullowhee and Caney Fork areas. In interviews, he was unknown and could not be placed in the genealogy. Edwin Brown thought Hugh Brown may have been the "Daddy Rabbit" of the Cullowhee Brown's and possibly Robert Brown's brother. The information in the Registrar of Deeds in Haywood County is as follows:

December 1838; the State of North Carolina gave Grant # 297 (50 acres in Caney Fork) to Hugh Brown.
August 1839; the State of North Carolina gave Land Grant # 553 to John D. Brown (This is a verification of the 81 acres in District # 4, Section # 4 bought in 1829.)
February 1843; John D. Brown gave tract on Tuckasegee River to William Brown.
December 1845; Hugh Brown gave Tract # 1 in Caney Fork to William Brown.
William Brown's House

built 1853

photographed 1977
The location of the lands and the conflict in the names could not be resolved by the researcher because of unavailability of documents. It is believed the tract of land in District # 4, Section # 4 (owned by Hugh Brown) is located on the east bank of the Tuckasegee River in the Cullowhee area, and is not a part of the Robert Brown ownership, but the lack of record for Robert Brown's land grants and the various land transactions make the issue complicated. In the final Brown genealogy, Hugh Brown is placed as a possible sibling relation to Robert, who settled early in the Cullowhee area (See Figure 9). Intense work in the State Archives might give insights into this problem.

Robert and William Brown and their families subsisted off of their land. Their main staple was cattle and hogs, but they also had vegetable gardens and large cultivations of hay and corn for their livestock. The Browns supplemented their income by logging in the area (Fred Brown: personal communication, March, 1977).

In opposition to most historical accounts about the friction between settlers and Indians, the Brown's and the Cherokees shared a friendship of respect and reciporcity. When the government took over all the Cherokee lands, William permitted a large number of Indians to hide on his property so they could stay in their home land. William helped feed them from his farm produce and in return, they fished and hunted. When the generation of Browns past on that the Indians knew (after William's death), the Indians never returned to the Brown farm. (Grace Brown: memographed paper).

William Brown married Phiniah Rodgers, daughter of Hugh Rodgers from Cullowhee. They resided in Caney Fork and built their home there. This still exists though it had been renovated several times (See Figure 7). Edwin Brown says this was the first wood frame house built in the area and that William and his sons sawed all their own boards and made their own bricks from clay found on their land. On the chimney of this home is the date 1859, but the house was built two to six years before the chimney. William and Phiniah had six children: three daughters, Emily, Minerva, and Sarah; and three sons, David, Robert Hamilton, and William Albert. Robert Hamilton was the grandfather of Fred and Frank Brown, Jr. (See Figure 10).

Robert Hamilton married Anna Bryson, daughter of William Bryson of Cullowhee. They moved to Cullowhee and lived with David Brown, Hamilton's brother.
Robert Hamilton Brown
1841 - 1922
David Brown had married a Davis girl and acquired considerable property in the Cullowhee area. Around this same time, the William Brown family was also buying great amounts of Cullowhee acreage from the Brysons. In the Deed Books of Jackson County this data is found:

1858 - Henderson Bryson granted William Brown a tract along Dick's Branch & Cullowhee Creek.
1860 - J. B. Bryson granted William Brown a tract along the Hickory Flats of the Tuckasegee River.
1869 - William Bryson granted William Brown a considerable amount of land in District # 7 and # 9. It sold for $2,000.00.

The Record of Deeds suggest that in the 1860's the land purchased for the Hamilton Brown Homesite was bought from Anna's father, Major Billy Bryson (The 1869 Grant). Hamilton and Anna, his wife, built their first home along the terrace above the Cullowhee Creek in 1869 (Fred Brown). This home was a white framed, one story structure with three rooms, brick chimneys at either end, and a dirt cellar for storage. They had several out buildings, one of which was a combination well house and "dairy." The "dairy" contained a wooden trough into which cool spring water was pumped to keep the dairy products fresh. The "dairy" was used until about 1920 (See Figure 11).

Hamilton Brown's livelihood was much like his father's and grandfather's. He kept cattle and hogs, farmed corn, hay and the family vegetable garden. He also logged walnut and poplar in the areas of Haywood and Jackson Counties. Fred Brown believes his grandfather, Hamilton, shipped the logs overseas to England.

Hamilton was also very active in the political and civic affairs of his community. He was one of the first legislators representing Jackson County in Raleigh (Asheville Citizen Times, 1969: 11). Mr. Brown was also one of the original nine board members of the Cullowhee School, which later would become Western Carolina University. The Browns and other Cullowhee families were staunch supporters of Madison's school and opened up their homes to boarders for little cost (Sutton, 1949, p. 6). Also stories are told that the Brown home was the stopping place for travelers to refreshen. The Browns were probably rewarded with many friendships because of their hospitality.

In 1898, a large two story structure was added onto the west wall of the original home in order to house the growing family (See Figure 11 and 12). By this time Anna and Hamilton had four children: William, John, Sarah, and Frank Hamilton.
View is to the east

View is to the south

The Brown Homesite

1965
Frank's generation was exposed to a different lifestyle than his ancestors. He and his sister, Sadie, were two of the first students to attend Madison's Cullowhee School in 1899 (Madison Letters). After this education, Frank attended the North Carolina State College and received a Bachelor Degree in Agriculture. Later, he obtained a Masters in Chemistry. Frank began teaching at the Cullowhee Normal School around 1908 and continued with this career for almost 50 years. Mr. Brown also has an interesting hobby of keeping the official record of the Cullowhee weather and sending in monthly reports to the National Weather Service. He was given formal Government recognition for contributing these services.

Mr. Brown and his wife, Hattie Norton, continued to farm the land and live in the house that was his father's. On the Brown Homesite they raised a family of four: Annie, Francis, Frank, Jr., and Fred. Anna lives in Spruce Pine and married Winston Felts. Francis had a career as a librarian in Maryland. Frank, Jr. married Elsie Earp and is presently the "Special Assistant to the Chancellor" at Western Carolina University. In the past, Frank Brown, Jr. has been a three time member of the State Legislature and the Vice-President for Administration at Western Carolina University. Fred Brown works for the Soil Conservation and Agriculture Agencies on the Cherokee Indian Reservation.

In the early 1900's, Hamilton sold part of the Brown property to the Cullowhee Normal School. As the college expanded, the Brown's continued to sell acreage. Frank, Sr. lived on the Homesite until his death in 1965; His wife lived there a few more years and then the house was rented to college students. In 1973, Fred Brown sold the rest of the property to the University and in the same year the old home was torn down and the land bulldozed level. The homestead which had sheltered three notable generations of the Brown family was leveled.

D. Other Early Families in the Cullowhee Valley

The first land grant in the Cullowhee area was Grant # 1, Tract # 7, owned by John W. Bryson, the great, great grandfather of Fred and Frank Brown, Jr. This plot covered almost 700 acres. Mr. Bryson paid $.25 an acre for his land (Sutton, 1949: 2).

John Bryson's son, William, (or Major Billy) built his home on the knoll where the Cullowhee Creek emptied into the Tuckasegee River. According to Mrs. Sutton, his home was relatively elaborate.
"The home was built of hugh poplar logs and contained two large rooms downstairs and upstairs. So, Cullowhee's first homes were not one room huts as most persons writing of this mountain section would have you believe" (Ibid: 2).

Major Billy's home became the "Ol Painter's Place" and was torn down in 1946.

Major Billy Bryson opened up the first post office in Cullowhee, which was also the meeting place for all local folks. He deeded the acreage for the Cullowhee Baptist Church (constituted in 1821) and a community cemetery. Major Billy and his father are buried in this graveyard.

Major Billy's daughter, Anna, married Hamilton Brown. After this reunion, Major Billy sold a great amount of his property to the Browns and Anna and Hamilton settled along Cullowhee Creek.

In a sketch of other families that settled in the Cullowhee Valley, names still popular in this area will be seen. The Hoopers settled along the Tuckasegee River in East Laport along with the Wikes, Allisons, Woodrings and Parkers. Early families in the Caney Fork area were the Sheltons, the Davises, and the Zacharys. Settlers around present Cullowhee, besides William Bryson and Hamilton Brown, were the Painters, the Hensons, the Watson, the Odoms, other Browns, the Chastains, the Underwoods, and Davises (Stillwell, 1927: 127-128 and Sutton, 1949: 4-6). These family names symbolize the birth and growth of Cullowhee and the surrounding mountain communities.

E. The Cullowhee Community

The view that Horace Kephart portrays of the mountain community is one of hardship, loneliness, poverty, and numbed intellectuality. The researcher does not dispute Kepharts' portrayal, nevertheless, she cannot apply it to the mountain communities surrounding Cullowhee. By in large, these communities reflect growing and prosperous settlements. The factors responsible for this may be due to the individual personality of the settlers, the high quality of the farming environment, the population density, the location in relation to other settlements, or a combination of all these and other factors. Evidence does exist that Cullowhee was not the typical Southern Appalachian community depicted by Kephart. In a subtle
form it can be seen in the type of homes they built, as was mentioned previously in a quote from Sutton (p. 12). In support of this, when Robert Madison came to the Cullowhee area in the early 1880's he wrote:

"The Cullowhee Valley and adjacent territory was at that time sparsely settled, but much of the land was fertile and the owners, most of whom lived in good homes, were intelligent, progressive, and public spirited."

Mr. Madison used such words as "hospitable, busy, and good livers" to describe the Cullowhee inhabitants. Madison also mentions the Cullowhee Literary Society which meet one night a week and was open to all ages (Madison Letters).

The most outstanding evidence of all can be seen by what the settlers contributed to the area. They started a school for their children that evolved into an institution that educates thousands, Western Carolina University. They raised children that became active in political, educational, and civic duties as exemplified by the Brown family.

In conclusion, the Cullowhee community was not one of desolation, ignorance, and stagnation, but rather a community-conscious group which was ready, willing, and able to advance their ideas toward a more progressive social environment.

F. Methods and Procedures of the Historical Archaeology at the Brown Site

1. Objectives

After interviews with Mr. Fred Brown, the researchers were able to establish the approximate location and dimensions of the main house and out buildings. Since these buildings were torn down, burned, and leveled, the only structures that may have stayed intact would have been those underground, namely the cellar and the well. For this reason, the historical archaeological investigation was pinpointed towards finding, photographing, and mapping the cellar walls and the well. This was executed in a controlled and systematic process so that any historic artifacts or structures could be recorded and mapped with precision.

2. Procedures

Setting up the grid system for the historical archaeology
began by selecting an arbitrary point NO E0 and establishing a base line through this point on an angle of N76° E. The next step involved moving 15 meters east along the base line to point NO E15 and creating a line perpendicular to the base line at an angle of S14° E. This line was extended for 16 meters south (See Figure 13). Two meter square grinds were set up east and west of this line. Squares were arbitrarily excavated in 14 centimeter units. East level was mapped and photographed.

After the house structure was torn down, the debris was pushed into the cellar. The cellar was merely cut into the ground and was not made from any other building materials. Therefore, our excavation procedures were defined so as to find and map the "line" at which the fill ended and sterile soil began. Hypothetically, this line would be the beginning of one cellar wall.

The fill consisted of organic soils, stone, brick glass fragments, and metal and covered the entire grid system for a depth of 14 cm. Beyond this depth sterile, clayish soil was mapped in square S6 E15 and S14 E17. All work was concentrated in these two squares in the search for the corners of the cellar. At the depth of 70 cm., the clay walls could be positively determined in both squares (See Figure 14.a).

The well was located after systematic sampling in the grid system near the wellhouse. The location of the wellhouse was determined from Fred Brown's interviews and photographs of the house. At the depth of 83 cm., the circular, stone wall of the well was clearly visible (See Figure 14.b). The well was approximately 1.2 centimeters in diameter.

Artifacts accumulation was of minimal importance in the historical excavation because the area excavated was land fill. No material was screened. If any artifact of interest was uncovered, it was placed in a field specimen bag and labeled with needed provience data. These artifacts, along with the appropriate field notes, data sheets, and photographs, have been retained in the archaeology archives of Western Carolina University.
SAMPLING OF HISTORIC STRUCTURES

31 Jk 129

The Well

The Cellar Wall

Base Line
NOE17 NOE15 NOE13 NOE4 NOE2 NOE0

Equals 1 meter
Depth 30 cm.

Soil and Fill
Sterile Soil & Clay
East Wall of the Original Cellar
S6E17
Figure 14.a

The Well
Figure 14.b
Historical Artifacts

Figure 15.a
Bottle-neck Fragments
Circa 1880

Figure 15.b
Fitted Glass Stoppe
Circa 1900
Figure 16

Indian Head Nickle
Circa 1900
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