ABSTRACT

The Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) has commissioned cultural resource studies as part of the I-81 Corridor Improvement Study (Tier 2, I-77/I-81 Overlap) in Wythe County and the Town of Wytheville, Virginia. The study area for the proposed improvements extends from Wytheville to just east of Fort Chiswell and will involve a separation of the two roads. Two Candidate Build Alternatives (CBAs) have been selected for the separation. This archaeological assessment of CBAs 7 and 10 is one component of the cultural resource studies and compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966; the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation’s regulations for compliance with Section 106, codified as 36 CFR Part 800; and Section 4(f) of the Department of Transportation Act.

Coastal Carolina Research, Inc., prepared this archaeological assessment for Vanasse Hangen Brustlin, Inc. (VHB), the firm retained by VDOT to prepare the transportation study for the project. The assessment involves comparison of the archaeological potential of each CBA’s Area of Potential Effects (APE). One, CBA 7, involves a new alignment to the north of the existing alignment. The other, CBA 10, involves widening of the existing I-77/I-81 overlap.

CCR conducted reviews of the files at the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (VDHR) and compiled information on previously recorded resources and the historic context for the project vicinity. The assessment for each CBA began with the identification of any known archaeological sites or significant sites of events not manifested by material remains that may be affected and that may be valued chiefly for preservation in place. The assessment of potential was then based on thorough review of the known resources, cartographic sources, information available on past cultural practices, archaeological site settlement models pertinent to the region, and reasonably accessible evaluation records at VDHR. The review resulted in the assessment of any appreciable differences between alternatives in terms of the range, quantity, and integrity of archaeological resources. It also allowed the identification of the potential for any alternatives to contain sites meriting preservation in place, or sites that would be extraordinarily complex and/or expensive to excavate.

The review of previous research indicates that while sites from any of the precontact and postcontact periods could be recorded during systematic archaeological survey of the CBAs, only one of the anticipated categories of intact sites from these periods would have potential for extraordinarily costly excavation or preservation in place. The category is Woodland or Protohistoric villages with potential for complex features and human burials. Further review of the characteristics of the terrain covered by each CBA indicates that the potential for this type of site is high in the APE for CBA 7 and moderate in APE for CBA 10. The potential is related to the presence of Reed Creek crossings with floodplain or terrace areas comprised of well-drained or moderately well-drained soils. One previously recorded site within CBA 7 and adjacent to CBA 10, 44WY0239, is already suspected to be a Woodland village site and could have human burials.
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INTRODUCTION

Description of the Project

The Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) has commissioned cultural resource studies as part of the I-81 Corridor Improvement Study (Tier 2, I-77/I-81 Overlap) in Wythe County and the Town of Wytheville, Virginia (Figure 1). The study area for the proposed improvements extends from Wytheville to just east of Fort Chiswell and will involve a separation of the two roads (Figure 2). In February 2009 two Candidate Build Alternatives (CBAs) were selected for the separation (Figure 3). This archaeological assessment of the two CBAs is one component of the cultural resource studies and compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966; the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation’s regulations for compliance with Section 106, codified as 36 CFR Part 800; and Section 4(f) of the Department of Transportation Act. The remaining archaeological investigations will include an identification survey for archaeological resources within the selected alternative (once it is selected) and presentation of recommendations for sites that appear potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

Coastal Carolina Research, Inc. (CCR), prepared this archaeological assessment for Vanasse Hangen Brustlin, Inc. (VHB), the firm retained by VDOT to prepare the transportation study for the project. The assessment involves comparison of the archaeological potential of the two CBAs. One, CBA 7, involves a new alignment to the north of the existing alignment. The other, CBA 10, involves widening of the existing I-77/I-81 overlap. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) for CBA 7 is defined as a 500-foot-(152.4-m-) wide corridor. The APE for CBA 10 is defined as the area including 250 ft on either side of the existing pavement of 1) the current I-77/I-81 6-travel-lane facility and 2) the ramp lanes at Exit 81. The existing pavement is assumed to cover a 250-foot-wide corridor.

CCR conducted reviews of the files at the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (VDHR) and compiled information on previously recorded resources and the historic context for the project vicinity. The assessment for each CBA began with the identification of any known archaeological sites or significant sites of events not manifested by material remains that may be affected and that may be valued chiefly for preservation in place. In general, such sites may include, but not be limited to,
Figure 1: General Location of the Project Area.
Figure 2: Study Area of the I-81 Corridor Improvement Study (Tier 2, I-77/I-81 Overlap) in Wythe County, Virginia.
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battlefields, mounds, resources containing a substantial number of human burials, and petroglyphs/pictographs. The assessment of potential was then based on thorough review of the known resources, cartographic sources, information available on past cultural practices, archaeological site settlement models pertinent to the region, and reasonably accessible evaluation records at VDHR. The review resulted in the assessment of any appreciable differences between alternatives in terms of the range, quantity, and integrity of archaeological resources. It also allowed the identification of the potential for any alternatives to contain sites meriting preservation in place, or sites that would be extraordinarily complex and/or expensive to excavate.

Loretta Lautzenheiser, RPA, was the project manager and Susan E. Bamann, Ph.D., RPA, was the principal investigator. Bill Hall coordinated the background research, building upon previous CCR research conducted for a cultural resources overview for proposed improvements to the I-77/-I-81 overlap (Lautzenheiser et al. 2001). Dennis Gosser compiled GIS data and prepared the graphics, and Kevin McKinney assisted with the site data compilation.

**Methods**

To help guide the outcome of the assessment, the following research questions were taken into consideration:

1. Are there areas within the APEs for the alternatives that are so disturbed that no significant archaeological resources are likely to be present and that do not warrant field survey?
2. What types of archaeological resources are likely to be present in the APEs for each alternative?
3. Are there appreciable differences between the alternatives in terms of the significant (on or eligible for the NRHP) archaeological resources that might be present [referring to the range and quantity of significant sites; the presence of extraordinarily complex sites; or the presence of sites extraordinarily expensive to excavate (e.g., stratified sites with Paleoindian components or Woodland village sites with burials)]?
4. Do the APEs for the alternatives contain any significant archaeological resources that have compelling associated values other than their potential to yield significant information about prehistory or history (e.g., battlefield landscapes)?

The assessment was prepared by gathering information on previously recorded sites in the VDHR archives and information on the history of the region. In assessing the two alternatives, information on sites, terrain, and the potential for sites has been gathered. Using this information, an attempt has been made to assess the likelihood that each alternative will contain sites that could affect location decisions. Such sites, for the most part, would merit preservation in place or be costly and time consuming to excavate.
As topography has guided current and past land uses, USGS quadrangles and recent (2006) aerial imagery were important sources of information on site potential. Areas unlikely to yield sites, such as areas of extensive disturbance due to modern development, were identified. Key inhabitable landforms, such as broad stream terraces, were also taken into consideration when assessing site potential. Examination of the quadrangles and aerial maps allowed for the subjective assessment of site potential. The aerial images used for this project were supplied by VHB.

The background research included examination of historic maps with information on historic settlement and Civil War activity. CCR researchers also examined more recently compiled maps regarding Civil War activity. The Civil War Sites Advisory Commission (CWSAC) was established in 1990 to identify and map the country’s most significant Civil War sites. The CWSAC was to determine the integrity of, and potential threats to, the sites (CWSAC 1993). Examination of maps on file at VDHR indicates that there are no CWSAC sites within the current study area. The nearest is the Battle of Cove Mountain. The CWSAC maps show that the battle was confined to the area north of the current study area at the intersection of SR 600 and SR 603.

The Virginia Historical Inventory search engine (Library of Virginia 2009) was examined to see if specific types of resources recorded by the Writers’ Project of the Works Progress Administration are located within the project CBAs. The results suggest that the sites of historic dwellings may be present, but they indicate no resources from the categories of cemeteries, mills or millworks, commercial buildings, or public buildings within CBA 7 or 10. The latter categories would be more likely to contain sites meriting preservation in place or costly documentation.

The section of I-77/I-81 located within the current study area follows the same route as the Southwestern Virginia Turnpike constructed during the middle of the nineteenth century. Many of the original records of the company known as the South Western Turnpike Road are archived at the Library of Virginia in Richmond. These records were searched for any information that might aid in this assessment.

The following United States Geological Survey (USGS) quadrangles were examined for the assessment of the CBAs:

7.5-minute Max Meadows, VA (1965/photorevised 1985)
7.5-minute Wytheville, VA (1968/photorevised 1991)
15-minute Speedwell, VA (1939/reprinted 1945; surveyed 1927, 1935, and 1936)
15-minute Max Meadows, VA (1930, surveyed 1927)

Mapping Disclaimer

The mapped data contained within this report is to be used solely for locating the cultural resource components and cannot be substituted for data provided by registered land surveyors or any licensed architect or engineer.
Project Setting

**Location and Physiography.** The study area falls within a predominantly rural section of Virginia’s Southwest Cultural Region, and the CBAs pass along the northeastern edge of the Town of Wytheville. The study area also falls within the Ridge and Valley physiographic province. The Ridge and Valley province, sometimes referred to as the “Folded Appalachians,” is defined as an assemblage of parallel ridges and valleys underlain by folded sedimentary rock (Fenneman 1938; Thornbury 1965). Generally, this province can be divided into an eastern section, which is dominated by valley formations, and a western section, which is dominated by ridge formations (Thornbury 1965). The Wytheville area falls within the eastern section, which is also known as the Great Valley subprovince (Bailey 1999).

The Ridge and Valley topography displays a conspicuous influence of alternating strong and weak strata upon topographic forms. A few major transverse streams, with notable development of subsequent streams, give to many areas a trellis-like drainage pattern (Thornbury 1965). The explanation for the uniform elevation of the ridge tops is that they are parts of a former widespread erosional surface, or peneplain. This surface is uplifted, and the ensuing renewal erosion has cut the extensive valley system. The numerous water gaps and wind gaps attest to past cases of stream diversion (Fenneman 1938; Thornbury 1965). Within the study area and the current CBAs, habitable landforms are numerous and include broad and narrow ridge tops, knolls, gentle slopes, stream terraces, and floodplains.

**Geology.** The study area is underlain by rocks of the Rome Formation which typically includes siltstone, shale, sandstone, dolomite, and limestone (Gathright et al. 1993). The siltstone and shale are often banded and range from greenish-gray to grayish-red. Micaceous sandstone is common and tends to be thin-bedded and locally glauconitic. The dolomite deposits are light to dark gray in color, and range in thickness from very thin to thick with ripple marks and mud cracks. Argillaceous limestone is also common and tends to be thin to medium-bedded. The limestone deposits range in thickness from one or two feet in some areas to 50 feet thick in other areas. In most areas, the Rome Formation is overlain by Pumpkin Valley shale (Gathright et al. 1993). Pumpkin Valley shale is often 350-feet thick and possesses a lithology similar to the Rome formation.

**Soils.** The published soil survey for Wythe County (Gall and Edmonds 1992) indicates that the study area spans four general soil units:

*Frederick-Hagerstown.* These soils, associated with the Great Valley, are generally found along U-shaped drainageways, usually in a dendritic pattern, and on rolling hills with broad ridgetops and convex side slopes. The soils form from residuum of limestone interbedded with shale, siltstone, and sandstone. Soils vary
from deep to very deep and have a clayey subsoil. Slopes range from 0 to 45 percent. Both the Fredrick and Hagerstown soils are considered well drained with the potential for erosion. This soil unit comprises the largest percentage of the current study area.

*Chiswell-Groseclose-Litz.* These soils, also associated with the Great Valley, are generally found along V-shaped drainages in a trellis pattern and along narrow, parallel ridgetops. The soils can also be found on long, convex side slopes and colluvial foot slopes, which vary from 7 to 60 percent in slope. The soils form from material weathered from a heterogeneous mixture of shale, siltstone, limestone, and sandstone. Soils vary from moderately deep to very deep and can have either a loamy or clayey subsoil. The soils are well drained and considered to have a low available water capacity. This soil unit is found in the southern and eastern portions of the current study area.

*Jefferson-Weikert-Berks.* These soils, associated with the Allegheny Mountains, are generally found along deep, V-shaped drainageways in a dendritic pattern and along narrow ridgetops and colluvial foot slopes. The soils form from either colluvium from sandstone and shale or residuum of shale interbedded with siltstone and sandstone. Soils vary from shallow to moderately deep and very deep, with a slope range between 7 and 65 percent. Subsoil is typically loamy, with a high degree of rock fragments. The soils are considered to have a low available water capacity and a high degree of erosion potential. This soil unit is found in the northern and eastern portions of the current study area.

*Matneflat.* These soils are generally found along V-shaped drainageways at higher elevations and U-shaped drainageways at lower elevations. They are also found on narrow and broad ridgetops, long side slopes, and long colluvial foot slopes, with slopes ranging from 7 to 65 percent. The soils form from colluvium derived from sandstone, quartzite, and shale. The soils are well drained and considered to have a low available water capacity. This soil unit is found along the southern portion of the current study area.

*Hydrology and Vegetation.* Wythe County is located in the New River drainage basin, with Reed and Cripple Creeks, two main New River tributaries, draining most of the county (Gall and Edmonds 1992). The study area includes portions of Reed Creek and small drainages and unnamed tributaries to Reed Creek, including Cove Creek, Muskrat Branch, and Glade Creek. Each CBA crosses Reed Creek.

The Oak-Chestnut forest is the dominant forest type identified in the Ridge and Valley province (Braun 1950). The chestnut blight has eliminated the native chestnut and the Oak-Chestnut forest no longer occurs in its original condition. Chestnut had been used extensively in tanning processes and had been clear-cut for pulpwood and charcoal over great areas of the forest. The forest type seems related to slopes, rarely occupying flat areas. In the broad valleys of the Ridge and Valley region white oak forests dominate (Braun 1950).
Previous Research

Previous archaeological research provides considerable information that can be used to characterize the potential for archaeological sites from various time periods within the proposed corridors. Some of the earliest research in southwestern Virginia was conducted by Howard MacCord of the Archaeological Society of Virginia. MacCord recorded sites in the region, including sites in Wythe County, as early as the 1940s. He encouraged other researchers to visit what he considered an underappreciated “blind” area (MacCord 1948). A major survey of archaeological sites in southwestern Virginia was conducted by C. G. Holland of the Smithsonian Institution in the 1960s (Holland 1970). The survey was conducted under the auspices of the National Science Foundation with the goal of recording as many sites as possible to reconstruct a general prehistoric framework for the southwestern Virginia region. By the time Holland published his results there were 12 known sites in Wythe County, many originally recorded by MacCord. Since the 1970s a number of sites have been recorded in the context of cultural resource management investigations. Many of the sites are located along Reed Creek and Cove Creek, which form some of the larger floodplains within the overall study area.

Examination of the files in the archives of VDHR indicates that 78 archaeological sites have been recorded to date within the study area. Table 1 lists the sites in numerical order along with a brief description and summary of previous recommendations. Table 2 includes four previously recorded architectural resources in the current CBAs that are notable for their potential to have significant archaeological components. The table also lists a previously recorded cemetery. Information on these resources appears in the CCR architectural survey report covering the current project’s existing alignment (Stewart et al. 2008). The previous architectural research information in this report addresses CBA 10 and those portions of CBA 7 overlapping with the CBA 10 existing alignment APE.

While many of the archaeological sites in Table 1 were recorded during cultural resource surveys or independent studies, information on some sites is available only on the state site forms maintained by VDHR. The Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026; also 44WY0019 and 44WY0045), a Native American and historic site located within the current study area, is already listed on the NRHP and is a Virginia Landmarks Register site (VDHR 2008). The NRHP boundaries for this site cover a large area spanning a portion of CBA 10 in the vicinity of the Exit 81 ramp. Thirty-one of the sites are potentially significant or significant; they are recommended for further work, are potentially eligible for the NRHP, or have been recommended or determined eligible for the NRHP. The remaining archaeological sites either lack specific recommendations or are not eligible for the NRHP.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Site/Resource #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Previous Recommendation or NRHP Status</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<td>VDHR site form; Brady et al. (2001)</td>
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<td>VDHR site form</td>
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<tr>
<td>44WY0205</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0206</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0207</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter, possible quarry site</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0208</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0209</td>
<td>Native American: Middle and Late Woodland period, camp</td>
<td>Eligible</td>
<td>Bradley and Lautzenheiser (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0210</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0212</td>
<td>Historic: Nineteenth and Twentieth, Wythe County Poor Farm Cemetery, numerous unmarked graves</td>
<td>None Available</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0213</td>
<td>Historic: Wythe County Poor Farm, 1858-1958</td>
<td>None Available, Possible Intact Strata</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0218</td>
<td>Native American: Late Woodland period, artifact scatter</td>
<td>None Available</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0219</td>
<td>Native American: Late Woodland period, artifact scatter</td>
<td>None Available</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0221</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site Code</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Further Work / Avoidance</td>
<td>References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0222</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0223</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>None Available</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0224</td>
<td>Native American: Late Archaic to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0225</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0226</td>
<td>Native American: Late Woodland period, camp</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999) and VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0227</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0228</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0229</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0230</td>
<td>Native American: Middle to Late Woodland period, possible village</td>
<td>Further Work or Avoidance</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0231</td>
<td>Native American: Late Woodland period, camp</td>
<td>Further Work</td>
<td>Barber (1999) and VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0232</td>
<td>Native American: Late Woodland period, camp</td>
<td>Further Work</td>
<td>Barber (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0235</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Recommended Not Eligible</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0236</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Recommended Not Eligible</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0238</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Recommended Not Eligible</td>
<td>VDHR site form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0241</td>
<td>Native American: Woodland period lithic and ceramic scatter</td>
<td>Further Work; Potentially Eligible for the NRHP</td>
<td>O’Neal (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0244</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Recommended Not Eligible</td>
<td>Clifford (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0245</td>
<td>Native American: Middle Archaic to Early Woodland period habitation site</td>
<td>Recommended Eligible</td>
<td>Clifford (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0246</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Recommended Not Eligible</td>
<td>Clifford (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0247</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter</td>
<td>Not Eligible</td>
<td>Brady et al. (2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-0026 (includes 44WY0019, 44WY0045)</td>
<td>Native American: Middle Archaic period, lithic scatter; possible Woodland period lithic scatter; Historic: Eighteenth to Twentieth century occupations</td>
<td>Listed on NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register</td>
<td>McCartney (1976); VDHR (2008)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Sample of Previously Recorded Architectural Resources Within the Current CBAs, Including Structures with Potential for Significant Associated Archaeological Components.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site/Resource #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Previous Recommendation or NRHP Status</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>098-0005</td>
<td>Historic: Fort Chiswell Manor, 1839; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Listed on NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-0022</td>
<td>Historic: McGavock Cemetery, 1812</td>
<td>Listed on NRHP</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-5051</td>
<td>Historic: Keesling Log House ca. 1790; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Potentially Eligible; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-5129</td>
<td>Historic: Locust Hill House/Farm, ca. 1784; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Potentially Eligible; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139-5063</td>
<td>Historic: John Allen Toll House, ca. 1850; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Not Eligible Due to Alterations; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paleoindian Period Context and Potential

Context: Native American occupation of eastern North America dates to at least 13,450 calendar years ago (approximately 11,500 B.C.), the conventional temporal boundary associated with the Clovis tradition (Anderson et al. 2007; Goodyear 2006). The evidence for occupations at this time includes fluted projectile points (i.e., the Clovis type) (Griffin 1967; Justice 1987). These points are generally scarce and often occur as isolated finds in disturbed surface contexts. Geographic concentrations of fluted points, including the Clovis type and related types such as Cumberland, occur in the eastern half of the United States. Nearly 1,000 fluted projectile points have been reported from Virginia (Anderson and Faught 1998). Other Paleoindian projectile point types found in Virginia are Mid-Paleo, Dalton, Hardaway-Dalton, and a type with affinities to Folsom (Barber and Barfield 1989; McAvoy and McAvoy 1997; McCary 1996). In Virginia, the majority of these points were manufactured from cryptocrystalline lithic material. Tools associated with the Paleoindian period include scrapers, gravers, wedges, unifacial tools, hammerstones, abraders, and a variety of “banging, smashing, chopping, and hacking tools” (Gardner 1989:18).

Evidence for much earlier New World lithic industries suggests that the makers of fluted points may represent relatively late migrations to the New World. Alternatively, the distinct fluted point technology may have developed within the New World in the context of populations established prior to the Clovis temporal boundary (Anderson and Faught 1998; Goebel et al. 2008; Meltzer 1989). The Cactus Hill site in southeastern Virginia has produced lithic artifacts (prismatic blades, polyhedral cores, and bifaces) from sandy deposits below intact Clovis horizons (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997). Radiocarbon dating suggests that the sub-Clovis material may date to as early as 17,000 radiocarbon years before present (RCYBP), which is significantly earlier than the Clovis temporal boundary (Goodyear 2006; McAvoy and McAvoy 1997). This stratified site is situated on a sand dune along the Nottoway River. Stratification was the result of
relatively steady aeolian sand deposition throughout the occupation of the site (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997; Wagner and McAvoy 2004). The Topper site, located in the Piedmont of South Carolina, has also produced evidence for pre-Clovis occupations (Goodyear 1999, 2000, 2006). The evidence includes concentrations of unusual microlithic artifacts reflecting a “smash-core” technology. The artifacts were recovered beneath Clovis-age sediments on a scoured, gray, silty clay Pleistocene terrace and in alluvial sand just overlying this terrace. The SV-2 site, located in the Saltville Valley (Valley and Ridge province) of southwestern Virginia, has yielded a distinctive concentration of proboscidean bone in association with a possible bone tool yielding a bone collagen date of 14,510±80 RCYBP (Goodyear 2006; McDonald 2000). Overlying strata have yielded additional evidence, including microdebitage and exotic chert, suggesting the possibility of pre-Clovis occupations of the Saltville Valley (McDonald 2000). Given the varied evidence from these widely distributed sites, Goodyear (2006) recommends a more aggressive program of survey and testing for appropriate landforms with Pleistocene-aged deposits.

Stratified sites containing Paleoindian occupations from Clovis times or later include the Williamson site and the Thunderbird and Fifty sites of the Flint Run Complex in the Shenandoah Valley (Barber and Barfield 1989; Carr 1975; Gardner 1974; Johnson 1996). Evidence from these sites has been used to construct what has been referred to as the “Flint Run Lithic Deterministic Model” of Paleoindian settlement strategies (Anderson and Sassaman 1996:23). In this model, Paleoindian and Early Archaic settlement patterns were driven by the locations of the high-quality lithic material. Five functionally distinct site types have been identified in the Flint Run Complex: quarries, reduction sites, quarry-related base camps, maintenance camps, and non-quarry associated base camps (Gardner 1989). The small, highly mobile bands characteristic of Paleoindian times were also focused on food collection and the hunting of animals such as caribou, deer, elk, and moose (Boyd 1989; Turner 1989). Therefore, hunting and gathering, as well as lithic procurement played a significant role in settlement patterns. Sites such as base camps are often found on resource-rich floodplains and adjacent alluvial fans. The only cluster of Paleoindian points recovered from southwestern Virginia is located around Smyth County where salt licks would have attracted the animals exploited by Paleoindian groups (Turner 1989). Smyth County is just west of Wythe County.

Potential. There are no sites in the study area with known Paleoindian components, and an additional search of VDHR sites indicates that only one Paleoindian site, located within a terrace of Cripple Creek to the south of the current project, has been recorded in Wythe County. However, the potential for Paleoindian sites must be considered low to moderate (rather than low) based on the cluster of Paleoindian points in adjacent Smyth County and the presence of numerous habitable floodplains and terraces in corridor areas along Reed Creek. In general, though, the potential for a Paleoindian site that would affect decision making is very low. Such a site might involve a lithic quarry or a stratified rockshelter occupation.
Archaic Period Context and Potential

**Context:** The Archaic period (8000-1000 B.C.) is divided into three phases: Early, Middle, and Late. The tool kits from the Early Archaic are similar to those from the later part of the preceding Paleoindian tradition, as are the settlement and subsistence patterns. Existing data suggests that there was no distinct division between the two periods (Anderson et al. 1996; Claggett and Cable 1982). Instead, the Early Archaic is marked by growth in the size of sites and an increase in both the number of artifacts and the number of sites (Egloff and McAvoy 1990).

The onset of this period occurs during a time of climatic change. A shift from boreal forests to northern hardwoods occurred around the time of the Early Archaic period (8000-6800 B.C.). In the early Holocene, a cool, moist climate prompted the expansion of species-rich Mixed Hardwood Forest in the eastern United States. During this Hypsithermal, the Oak-Chestnut Forest became dominant in the central and southern Appalachians (Delcourt and Delcourt 1985, Delcourt and Delcourt 1981). A significant increase in the number of upland sites in Virginia and a postulated growth in population coincided with this shift in climate (Custer 1990). Hunting and gathering continued as the subsistence pattern during the Archaic, with a possible seasonal round of movement between base camps and hunting camps.

The Early Archaic period is typified by small corner-notched projectile points (such as Palmer and Kirk) and an increase in the use of hafted end scrapers (Coe 1964). Near the end of this period, inhabitants of the region began utilizing a wider variety of lithic resources and relying less heavily on the cryptocrystalline materials that had been so important during the Paleoindian period. Also during this period ground stone tools, such as adzes, celts, axes, and grinding stones, made their first appearance.

The Middle Archaic period (6800 to 3500 B.C.) coincides with a shift in the environment toward the warmer and drier conditions prevalent today. Projectile point types characteristic of this period include Stanley, Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Halifax, St. Albans, LeCroy, and Kanawha (Custer 1990). Settlement and subsistence patterns show a high degree of continuity with those of the Early Archaic period. However, it appears that Middle Archaic sites may have been occupied for longer periods of time than their earlier counterparts and may have been more frequently located in the floodplains along larger streams and rivers (Custer 1990).

The Late Archaic period began in Virginia around 3500 B.C. and is marked by distinctive projectile point types. The adaptations of this time, however, differ little from those of the Middle Archaic period. According to Mouer (1991:10), the primary attributes of Late Archaic culture are “small-group band organization, impermanent settlement systems, infrequent aggregation phases, and low levels of regional or areal integration and interaction.” Blanton (2003) emphasizes the diversity of site types reflected by typically numerous lithic scatter or “extractive” sites. These sites appear to reflect a variety of activities ranging from chipped stone tool reduction and subsistence
procurement to habitation. Late Archaic projectile points include Halifax, Lamoka, Merom, Lackawaxen, and Brewerton (Mouer 1991).

The time from ca. 2500 B.C. until 1200 B.C. is called the Transitional period by some researchers in Virginia (Mouer 1991). By 2500 B.C., the rise in sea level had dramatically altered the Atlantic coast, creating large estuaries and tidal wetlands that, in turn, vastly increased coastal resources such as fish and shellfish. Anadromous fish runs extended from the coast, up the rivers, to the foothills of the Blue Ridge. Settlement during this time was concentrated in the river valleys, and archaeological sites are more numerous and larger than sites from earlier periods. In southwestern Virginia, the Transitional period is characterized by Savannah River points and possibly Lamoka, Iddins, and Merom points, which are usually classified as Late Archaic (Mouer 1991). Broad-blade or “broadspear” types such as Savannah River Stemmed are frequently associated with soapstone vessels and other soapstone objects. Fire-cracked rock concentrations and platform hearths are also common on Transitional period sites (Mouer 1991; Dent 1995).

**Potential:** Sixteen sites with Archaic components are located within the current study area. Within these sites, Early Archaic components (n=1), Middle Archaic components (n=7), and Late Archaic components (n=7) are represented along with those generally attributed to the Archaic period. A number also include evidence for later Woodland occupations.

Site 44WY0181, which contains the Early Archaic component, is located on a slight rise along a bend in Reed Creek (Barber et al. 1997). Diagnostic artifacts suggest the site was first occupied during the Early Archaic period, then used again in the Late Archaic and Woodland periods. In all, 25 diagnostic projectile points were recovered along with lithic debitage and a few Native American ceramic sherd.

Site 44WY0016 is located on a broad floodplain of Reed Creek and contains both Middle and Late Archaic components and a Late Woodland component (Barber et al. 1997). The site has been heavily looted. Although the VDHR site form indicates that burials had been previously excavated by local parties, no further details concerning these burials were given. According to the survey report by Barber et al. (1997), surface collection yielded diagnostic projectile points and quartz-, sand-, and limestone-tempered ceramics. The material suggests that the most intensive occupation took place at the end of the Late Woodland period, and a shell bead on the surface was taken as a likely indication that burials with grave goods had been disturbed. The site was recommended as potentially eligible for the NRHP.

Sites 44WY0174, 44WY0193, and 44WY0199 are located at intermittent stream confluences and contain Middle and/or Late Archaic components (Barber et al. 1997). Site 44WY0174 yielded lithic debitage, a Middle Archaic Stanly point, and a small triangular point attributed to the Late Woodland period. Site 44WY0193 yielded lithic debitage and seven bifaces including a Middle to Late Archaic Halifax Side-Notched point. Site 44WY0199 yielded a Middle Archaic Halifax point, an indeterminate ceramic
sherds, and bone fragments. CCR conducted evaluations at these sites for the Wythe County Industrial Development Authority, and all lacked sufficient integrity for NRHP eligibility (Bradley and Lautzenheiser 2007; Lautzenheiser and Hall 2005).

Site 44WY0200, which includes Middle and Late Archaic components, is located along a small, intermittent tributary in close proximity to Reed Creek (Barber et al. 1997). Several diagnostic points were recovered including an Orient Fishtail point (Late Archaic), a Kanawha Stemmed point (Middle Archaic), and a small triangular point (Late Woodland). However, the site lacked subsurface integrity, and no further work was recommended.

Evidence for Middle Archaic, Late Archaic, and Early Woodland occupations was documented at 44WY0245 during a site evaluation conducted for a natural gas pipeline project (Clifford 2002). The site is located on the floodplain and terraces of a small, unnamed stream. More than 3,000 artifacts were recovered, many in the context of seven sub-plow-zone features. One feature, a possible refuse pit, yielded a Late Archaic Brewerton projectile point and an Early Woodland radiocarbon date. Another feature, a hearth, yielded a radiocarbon date falling within the Middle Archaic period. Given the intact features and potential for further information on the suspected periods of occupation, the site was recommended as eligible for the NRHP.

A Native American component of the Fort Chiswell site (VDHR #098-0026; 44WY0019) dates to the Middle Archaic period. This period is represented by diagnostic projectile points and lithic debitage in materials such as chert and chalcedony. No features related to the Middle Archaic component, however, were encountered during salvage excavations (Funk 1976). Another Native American component (recorded as site 44WY0045) was recorded on a high bank above Reed Creek at the northwestern corner of Fort Chiswell’s NRHP boundary. This site, which is described on a VDHR site form, is a small Woodland lithic scatter that yielded triangular projectile points and lithic debitage. The Fort Chiswell site is already listed on the NRHP and is a Virginia Landmarks Register site (VDHR 2008). The northeastern corner of the NRHP boundary is immediately adjacent to CBA 7, and proposed widening along the existing alignment and the Exit 81 ramp (CBA 10) will involve the NRHP boundary.

At sites 44WY0195 and 44WY0224, the Archaic period is represented by Late Archaic components. Site 44WY0195 is in the uplands above Reed Creek and lacked sufficient integrity to merit further work (Barber et al. 1997). Site 44WY0224, located on a broad terrace above Reed Creek, also includes evidence for Early, Middle, and Late Woodland occupations and was recommended for further work or avoidance due to the potential for intact features and strata (Barber 1999).

The remaining sites with an Archaic affiliation are either single-component lithic scatters or contain an indeterminate Archaic component in addition to a Woodland occupation. Site 44WY0018, located on a terrace above Reed Creek, is recommended for further work and may include a Woodland village component (Barber 1999). The VDHR site form for 44WY0031 indicates that it may be potentially significant, but this large
A floodplain site is listed as a possible Woodland village as well. The potential significance of the Archaic components of these two sites is unclear.

Based on the range and number of Archaic period components that have been previously recorded in the study area, the potential for additional Archaic components is high. Corridor areas with Reed Creek terraces and floodplains are especially likely to contain Archaic components, and existing information suggests that Archaic components may also be encountered on upland landforms near smaller tributaries. The likelihood of Archaic sites that would affect project decision making or involve costly and time consuming excavation is low, except that some sites with Archaic components also contain Woodland components that may represent villages with extensive features and associated human burials.

Woodland Period Context and Potential

Context: The transition from Late Archaic to Early Woodland (1200 to 800 B.C.) in southwestern Virginia is not well understood. In the Piedmont, large, broad points are replaced by smaller notched, stemmed, and lanceolate points, and steatite-tempered ceramics (Marcey Creek wares) are introduced ca. 1200 B.C. (McLearen 1991). Crushed-quartz or coarse-sand-tempered Swannanoa ware is the earliest pottery in southwestern Virginia and does not appear until ca. 500 B.C. (Egloff 1991). The trend of settling in riverine habitats that began during the Middle Archaic period continues through the Early Woodland period in southwestern Virginia (Klein and Klatka 1991). However, Woodland sites are also found in non-floodplain settings such as valley floors, ridges, hills, and plateaus (Egloff 1987).

The Middle Woodland period (300 B.C. to A.D. 1000) is marked by the introduction of triangular projectile points. The characteristic indigenous pottery is limestone-tempered and cord-marked or fabric-impressed (e.g., Candy Creek Cord-Marked, Long Branch Fabric-Impressed). These ceramics are more typical of the southern Appalachians and the Southeastern Cultural Area than are the ceramics found in other portions of Virginia at this time (Stewart 1992; McLearen 1992). In the Appalachian Summit region of North Carolina, Conestee ware is common during the Middle Woodland period and is associated with a late Hopewellian influence (Keel 1976; Purrington 1983). This pottery is rarely found in southwestern Virginia (McLearen 1992). Although there is little evidence from the Middle Woodland period in this region, it appears that settlement continued to be semisedentary or sedentary and some horticulture may have been practiced. Evidence of ranked societies has been recovered from other areas of the Middle Atlantic region during this period but has yet to be found in southwestern Virginia (McLearen 1992).

During the Late Woodland period (A.D. 1000 to 1600) many of the people of southwestern Virginia lived in palisaded villages located primarily in the floodplains of major rivers, but they also settled the surrounding hills and ridges (Egloff 1987). Research involving a sample of Late Woodland villages from southwestern Virginia indicates that human burials were placed in a variety of areas including near palisades,
near structures, within structures, or in central site areas. Most burials were single interments in simple oval pits or more complex shaft-and-chamber pits. A smaller number of burials has been found within refuse pits, and one site contained burial pits with multiple individuals. Other documented human burial practices for the Late Woodland period in southwestern Virginia include placement of one or more burials in a substructure mound or a cave (Boyd and Boyd 1992).

Domestic crops such as corn, squash, and beans became increasingly important although wild plants and animals continued to be staples of the diet. The presence of exotic trade goods, coupled with evidence of a diversity of burial practices and possibly hierarchical settlement patterns suggests the presence of ranked societies or chiefdoms and the influence of Mississippian cultures from the area of Tennessee (Egloff 1992). Ceremonial mounds, such as the Ely and Carter Robinson Mounds in Lee County, offer further evidence of a Mississippian influence.

Archaeological evidence indicates that during the Late Woodland period, southwestern Virginia was under the influence of three major ceramic traditions: Eastern Woodland, Southern Appalachian, and Mississippian (Egloff 1992). The most common pottery, “a cord-marked, net-impressed, or corncob-impressed pottery with either sand, soapstone, or limestone temper” is of the indigenous Eastern Woodland Tradition (Egloff 1992:198). The Southern Appalachian Tradition, more typical of areas to the south, is represented by a sand-tempered ware with either rectilinear or curvilinear stamped exterior. Finally, the Mississippian Tradition is represented by plain or cord-marked, shell-tempered pottery. In some instances, examples of all three ceramic traditions have been recovered from a single site, emphasizing the high degree of cultural interaction in southwestern Virginia prior to the arrival of Europeans (Egloff 1987). Although Europeans did not settle in the Appalachian region until the mid-eighteenth century, rivalry for trade opportunities was causing hostilities between Native American groups beginning in the seventeenth century Protohistoric period. When Europeans finally arrived in the mountains, they found evidence that the native populations had left the region years earlier (Hodges 1993).

Potential: Thirty-five sites in the study area contain Woodland period components. Only two possible Early Woodland period components are present, but the Middle Woodland (n=9) and Late Woodland (n=24) periods are well represented. The majority of the sites with Middle and Late Woodland attributions, and a few generally attributed to the Woodland period, are listed as camps and potential villages. Sites with a potential village component (n=18) include 44WY0003, 44WY0004, 44WY0016, 44WY0018, 44WY0031, 44WY0099, 44WY0180, 44WY0181, 44WY0194, 44WY0221, 44WY0222, 44WY0224, 44WY0225, 44WY0227, 44WY0228, 44WY0229, 44WY0230, and 44WY0239. These potential village sites are discussed in more detail below.

Sites 44WY0003 and 44WY0004, described on VDHR sites forms, are located on floodplains along Reed Creek. The former is reported as containing human burials and was recommended for further work. Site 44WY0016, also located on a floodplain of Reed Creek, may also contain human burials. The site has been heavily looted, but
recovered material (including quartz-, sand-, and limestone-tempered ceramics) suggests that the most intensive occupation took place at the end of the Late Woodland period. A shell bead on the surface was taken as a likely indication that burials with grave goods had been disturbed. The site was recommended as potentially eligible for the NRHP (Barber et al. 1997).

Site 44WY0018, located on a terrace above Reed Creek, was recommended for further work and may include a Woodland village component (Barber 1999). Artifacts recovered from the site include projectile points, lithic debitage, ceramic sherds, celts, and gorgets. Barber (1999) mentions local reports of at least one human burial. The VDHR site form for 44WY0031 indicates that it may be potentially significant; this large floodplain site is listed as a possible Woodland village and, like 44WY0018, also contains evidence for one or more Archaic components.

The VHDR site form for 44WY0099, located on the Reed Creek floodplain within a few miles of some of the previously discussed villages, suggests that it could be a small Woodland period village site. It has yielded triangular projectile points, limestone-tempered ceramics, and shell and bone fragments from surface contexts. Additional excavations were recommended; the form indicates that the Reed Creek Chapter of the Archaeological Society of Virginia intended to do additional work, but no record of such work could be found.

Sites 44WY0180 and 44WY0181 are described as possible villages dating to the Late Woodland period, and, in the case of 44WY0180, possibly also the Early Woodland period (Barber et. al. 1997). Site 44WY0180 is located on a terrace above Reed Creek, and recovered artifacts include eleven diagnostic Late Woodland projectile points, a scraper, a spokeshave, lithic debitage, and Radford series ceramic sherds. Site 44WY0181 is located on a slight rise along a bend in Reed Creek. Diagnostic artifacts suggest the site was first occupied during the Early Archaic period, then used again in the Late Archaic and through the Woodland period. Both sites were recommended for further work if impacted by the proposed development of Wythe County’s Progress Park industrial park.

Site 44WY0194, a very large site and another potential village, is attributed to the Middle to Late Woodland periods (Barber et al. 1997). This site is located on an elevated floodplain along Reed Creek and is just east of 44WY0099. It has yielded diagnostic projectile points, lithic tools, and lithic debitage. In addition, an undisturbed feature or midden deposit was noted in one shovel test. In 2003, CCR monitored the encapsulation of the site to avoid effects from development of the Progress Park industrial park (Lautzenheiser 2007).

Sites 44WY0221, 44WY0222, 44WY0224, 44WY0225, 44WY0227, 44WY0228, 44WY0229, and 44WY0230 were recorded during additional cultural resources surveys associated with the Progress Park industrial park (Barber 1999). These were identified as possible village sites dating to the Middle to Late Woodland periods. Each site is located on a terrace above Reed Creek, yielded similar Woodland artifact assemblages (quartz-
and limestone-tempered ceramics, projectile points, lithic tools, and lithic debitage) in subsurface deposits, and appeared to have potential significance. The exception was site 44WY0228, where all artifacts were recovered from the plow zone and no further work appeared necessary. A small portion of 44WY0222 was evaluated (Barber 1999) and did not appear to retain intact subsurface deposits or further information potential. However, further consideration of the potential for the remainder of the site was still recommended.

Site 44WY0239, which is located in the APE for CBA 7 and is immediately adjacent to CBA 10, is another possible village site and may contain Woodland and Protohistoric period components. The site is situated on a cultivated terrace above a broad Reed Creek floodplain area and has dimensions of approximately 125 x 100 m. It is near the possible village recorded as 44WY0031 and is several miles downstream from the floodplains with potential village sites such as 44WY0016. The site also contains an indeterminate Archaic component. Survey-level investigations at the site, conducted for a gas pipeline project (O’Neal 2004), resulted in recovery of Dan River Plain and Net/Knot Roughened ceramics, a Yadkin projectile point, a Pee Dee projectile point, a Clarksville projectile point, an Archaic point blade, and lithic debitage. The Dan River ceramics suggest occupation of the site during the Late Woodland and/or Protohistoric periods. A high density of artifacts was documented, especially at the transition between the plow zone and the subsoil. This suggested potential for undisturbed features below the plow zone, and the site was recommended as eligible for the NRHP.

The results of previous research suggest that the potential for Woodland sites is high, especially along floodplain and terrace areas within the proposed corridors. The most likely Woodland site type would date to the Middle and/or Late Woodland periods, and sites of the subsequent Protohistoric period may also be present. Woodland or Protohistoric sites that would affect project decision making include large village sites with potential for human burials within the village area. The current review indicates that five sites in the study area have been described as possible Woodland village sites that may contain human burials. Examples include 44WY0016 and 44WY0018. As these occur on broad floodplains or terraces of Reed Creek, the potential for such a site within appropriate Reed Creek floodplain areas of the current corridors must be considered high. Site 44WY0239, a possible village site dating to the Late Woodland and/or Protohistoric periods, is located in the APE for CBA 7 and is immediately adjacent to CBA 10. It has been recommended as eligible for the NRHP based on survey-level investigation, but the present information is insufficient to estimate the potential for human burials.

Postcontact Period Context and Potential

**Settlement to Society (1607-1750) Context:** Exploration of the southwestern part of Virginia began as early as 1651 though details of these explorations are not clear, and settlement of the region did not begin until the 1740s (Kegley 1972). At the time the region was settled, Wythe County was part of Augusta County. The area remained sparsely populated until war broke out between the French and English in 1743. Although this preview of the French and Indian War lasted only two years, the consequences for western Augusta County were far-reaching. The Virginia Council
viewed settlement of its western frontier as the best defense against the French. The council therefore granted 100,000 acres of land to James Patton and others. This grant, made in 1745, was referred to as the “Great Grant” or the “Wood’s River Company.” The grant was along Wood’s River, later known as the New River. One of the branches of the river was Reed Creek. The opening of this land increased the number of settlers in the area (Chitwood 1978).

One of the first settlers of the county was a German Seventh-Day Baptist (Dunkard) named William Mack. Mack was from Pennsylvania and around 1743 moved to Augusta County, where he built a cabin along Reed Creek. The location of his cabin was near Max Meadows, named for him (Chitwood 1978). Mack died in 1745, after living in his Reed Creek cabin for about two years. However, another family, the Calhoun family, took up the settlement of this frontier land at about the time of Mack’s death, settling near his cabin.

**Colony to Nation (1750-1789) Context:** Settlement of the area came to a standstill with the onset of the French and Indian War in 1754. Native American attacks in the area not only stopped migration to the area but also caused settlers to leave, including all of the settlers along Reed Creek. Between 1754 and 1756, 80 people along the New River, Holston River, and Reed Creek were either killed, wounded, or captured (Chitwood 1978; Kegley 1972). The defeat of General Braddock’s army in 1755 brought the realization that the frontier settlements of Virginia could not be defended, so the settlers left the area (Kegley 1972).

While settlement in the area was suspended, events important to the future of Wythe County took place during the war. The first event was the discovery of lead mines by Colonel John Chiswell in 1756. The mines were reportedly discovered on the southeast side of the New River southeast of the present-day town of Austinville (formerly called Lead Mines) (Kegley 1972; Wythe County Historical Review 1978). The lead mines were the center of the first major industrial activity in Wythe County. The second was the construction of Fort Chiswell by Colonel William Byrd III in 1760 (Chitwood 1978). It is believed that Byrd named the fort in honor of his friend John Chiswell, who owned the lead mines along the New River at what later became Austinville (McCartney 1979). Letters from William Byrd III illustrate how far removed from established settlements Fort Chiswell was. Byrd’s letters concerning Fort Chiswell often bemoan problems of supplies and provisions. One such letter to General Jeffery Amherst, dated September 18, 1762, states,

…[w]e were extreamly unfortunate, for the many waggons that were employ’d by my orders to carry up our new cloathing, repair’d arms, amunition, medicine chests, baggage for my self and officers, & every other necessary from Winchester to Fort Chiswell were detain’d near a month to my knowledge between two branches of Shenandoa River by the excessive rains that fell that spring (Byrd 1762:761).
After the French and Indian War ended, the settlers began to return to the area. Many of these settlers, from the Shenandoah Valley and Pennsylvania, were of Scotch-Irish and German backgrounds (Chitwood 1978). Before the beginning of the Revolution, at least 75 German families had settled along upper Reed Creek and Cripple Creek (Wust 1969). While the French and Indian War had caused settlers to leave the area, the troops stationed in the area at places such as Fort Chiswell during the war improved the roads and trails in such a way as to make settlement easier after the war (Kegley 1972).

As the population in the western part of Virginia grew, it became necessary for new counties to be formed to make governing and administration easier. The area now known as Wythe County became part of Botetourt County in 1770 when that county was formed from Augusta County. Two years later, Fincastle County, which encompassed present-day Wythe County, was formed. Fincastle’s county seat was established at Lead Mines (Chitwood 1978).

Meanwhile, the Fort Chiswell location reverted back to a more peaceful use. Before Byrd fortified the location, Fort Chiswell was the site of a log cabin owned by Alexander Sayers. By May of 1772, James McGavock held the title to the property embracing Fort Chiswell. McGavock took advantage of Fort Chiswell’s location at an intersection of the main westward road and the road leading southward and obtained a license to run an ordinary there. A short time after, McGavock constructed a mill on his property. Fort Chiswell’s location made McGavock very successful. His trading post “included dry goods, food staples, hardware, paint, medicinals, liquor, and paper” (McCartney 1979:7-8). McGavock’s milling operation produced planking, and his blacksmith and carpenter shops further increased his commercial success (McCartney 1979).

McGavock was not only a commercial leader in the area but also a community leader who was active in the church and government. In 1775, as the American colonies’ relationship with Britain became more and more strained, McGavock was elected to the Fincastle County Committee of Safety. Although Lead Mines continued to be the county seat, the committee met often at the home of James McGavock between 1775 and 1776 (McCartney 1979).

The mines at Lead Mines (present-day Austinville) and Fort Chiswell became strategic locations as the Revolutionary War started. The mines were taken over by the state of Virginia, and production of lead increased to aid in the war effort. Fort Chiswell was important as a depot for lead, powder, salt, and other military necessities. Although the British never reached the area, Tory attacks were always a real threat at these vital locations. The residents also feared a possible attack by the Cherokees if they decided to throw in their lot with the British (Chitwood 1978).

In the midst of the war, Fincastle County was divided and the area destined to become Wythe County became part of Montgomery County. The county court began meeting at Fort Chiswell in January 1777. The following year, McGavock donated
twenty acres of land on the north side of the road near his house for the building of a courthouse (Chitwood 1978).

**Early National Period (1789-1830) Context:** Within a few years following the Revolution, Wythe County was formed. People continued to move into the area, making necessary the creation of another county. Created in 1789, the new county was named for George Wythe, who was well known in Virginia as a signer of the Declaration of Independence. His name was chosen, not because of his association with the newly formed county, but because of his service to the state (Chitwood 1978).

After the Revolution, Fort Chiswell remained a thriving center of commerce at the intersection of the Great Road and the road to the Carolinas. Despite the prosperity of Fort Chiswell, the justices of Wythe County decided after only one meeting to locate the courthouse elsewhere (Chitwood 1978). As early as 1779, when Fort Chiswell acted as the county seat for Montgomery County, the court complained that the location set aside for the public buildings was not conducive to attracting settlement (McCartney 1979). The new county seat was located 12 miles west of Fort Chiswell on one hundred acres of land located to the south of the “New Road” (Chitwood 1978:15). Initially the county seat was called Abbesville, but by late 1792 the Virginia General Assembly selected the name Evansham (later changed to Wytheville) in honor of Jesse Evans, an early trustee of the new town (Chitwood 1978). Despite the new location of the county seat, settlement there was slow. In 1796, Evansham merely had along with the courthouse, “only a jail, a tavern and about twenty-five houses” (Chitwood 1978:16).

The shifting of the county seat and a decrease in migration westward along the route through Fort Chiswell harmed Fort Chiswell economically. James McGavock, Jr., continued to run the ordinary there and entertain people traveling through on the stage, reportedly including his friend Andrew Jackson (McCartney 1979).

One famous visitor to Fort Chiswell at the close of the eighteenth century was the future King of France, Louis-Philippe. The young future king was touring America with his two brothers while in exile from their own country during the Reign of Terror. Louis-Philippe reported that a “big fort” on the south side of the road had been torn down there. Fort Chiswell was probably never an enclosed fort in the traditional sense in which we now think of forts. The young Frenchman most likely was referring to a trading post, which the French word “fort” also referred to in the eighteenth century (McCartney 1979).

The mines at Lead Mines continued to be active following the American Revolution. Lead continued to be in demand not only for ammunition but for domestic goods as well (Wythe County Historical Review 1978). Stephen Austin was born at Lead Mines on November 3, 1793, to Moses Austin. Moses was unsuccessful there and moved westward to Missouri (Newberry 1976). However, Moses did give Lead Mines its new name of Austinville. Moses’s son, Stephen Austin, went on to become known as the “Father of Texas” (Wythe County Historical Review 1978).
The lead mines at Austinville spurred the building of what was to become a major landmark in Wythe County, the Shot Tower. Thomas Jackson built the Shot Tower between 1815 and 1820 near the public ferry landing he owned across the New River (Johnson 1971). The tower was built about four miles from the lead mines in order to avoid involvement in the legal problems surrounding the mines, in which Jackson owned an interest (Johnson 1971; Wythe County Historical Review 1978). By as early as 1839, the Shot Tower was probably no longer in use, at least not on any kind of significant scale. No hard evidence exists that links the Shot Tower as a producer of ammunition during the Civil War (Coleman 1955). The tower was constructed of gray limestone and was 70 feet high. In 1981 the American Society of Mechanical Engineers named the Shot Tower a National Historic Mechanical Engineering Landmark (Lacy 1988).

Figure 4 shows a portion of an 1821 map of Wythe County and includes the general area covered by the current CBAs. Many of the structures shown on the map, including Toneray’s Mill, were along a road shown as the Old Stage Road on later maps and would fall outside CBAs 7 and 10. Although difficult to determine given the imprecise cartography of the map, structures that might fall within the CBAs appear to include dwellings and the McGavock Mill. The latter is located inside the boundaries of the NRHP-listed Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026).

**Antebellum Period (1830-1860) Context:** By 1836 Evansham had grown to about 100 homes with about 600 residents. The town also had a printing office, a Methodist church, nine stores, two tanyards, six blacksmith shops, and four taverns. Nearly a third of Evansham was destroyed by a fire set by a slave in December 1838. When the town was rebuilt, it was incorporated in 1839 as Wytheville (Chitwood 1978).

What is known as the Fort Chiswell Mansion was built in 1839 by Stephen and Cloyd McGavock, grandsons of James McGavock. The house is located about a mile south of what was originally known as Fort Chiswell, but the house was named Fort Chiswell in honor of the original Fort Chiswell. The house remained in the McGavock family until 1918, when it was sold to George L. Carter (Herndon 1974).

By the early 1840s, Fort Chiswell was all but finished as a commerce center. Upon his death, James McGavock’s belongings were inventoried and some sold. A large number of the items sold related to Fort Chiswell’s commercial ventures, such as the blacksmith and carpenter shops. Fort Chiswell now entered a period during which it served primarily as a family home rather than a business. The McGavock family occupied the cabin homestead there until it was destroyed by fire in 1901 (McCartney 1979).

The I-77/I-81 overlap follows a portion of the route of the Southwestern Turnpike (also referred to as the Southwestern Virginia Turnpike), which was constructed in the mid-nineteenth century. One of the prominent historians of the southwestern Virginia region, Lewis Preston Summers, wrote of the Turnpike, “Among the public improvements that attracted the attention of the people of Southwest Virginia, and the one that was of greater importance than all others combined, was the Southwestern
Figure 4: Portion of 1821 Map of Wythe County (Wood 1821) Including the Areas of CBAs 7 and 10.
“Turnpike road” (Summers 1903:506). In 1846 the Virginia General Assembly passed the 
act incorporating the South Western Turnpike Road. The road was to be macadamized 
and stretch from Salem westward to the Tennessee line via Christianburg, Wytheville, 
Marion, and Abingdon. The specifications were for the road to be graded to a width of at 
least 24 feet, of which at least 22 feet were to be macadamized. The grade of the road 
was not to exceed three percent at any point. By 1848 the road was constructed as far 
west as Wytheville (Summers 1903).

The idea for the Turnpike originated at least a decade prior to the start of 
construction. James Herron conducted a survey for the Turnpike during the early 1830s. 
As part of his survey, Herron prepared sketches that are archived at the Library of 
Virginia. The sketches for the area east of Wytheville are dated 1833. The corridor 
surveyed by Herron does not appear to be the same one that was ultimately constructed, 
but some sections of Herron’s survey do include areas through which the historic 
Southwestern Turnpike was constructed. Near the eastern end of the current study area, 
Herron noted the location of the “Kiesling” house on his sketch. The location noted 
corresponds to the previously recorded architectural resource, the Keesling Log House 
(VDHR# 098-5051; see Table 2). To the northwest of the house on Herron’s sketch a 
“Grave Yard” is mapped (Herron 1833). This cemetery is noted in the same approximate 
location as a cemetery shown on the current USGS topographic map of the area and 
appears to be just north of the assessment APE for CBA 7.

Another sketch made by Herron shows an area of Reed Creek that eventually 
became a Turnpike crossing. This crossing location is nearly identical to the current 
CBA 10 crossing of Reed Creek near Kent. The Herron sketch shows that the area where 
CBA 10 crosses Reed Creek consisted of a cultivated field on the east side (Herron 
1833). On the west side a “Poor House” is shown. The Turnpike skirted just to the south 
of the Poor House when it was eventually constructed (Herron 1833; Shaw 1849a).

The Turnpike company contracted out sections of the road, as well as the bridges 
and toll houses, to be constructed. To ensure the quality of the road very specific 
construction guidelines were drawn up. Some of the details concerning specifications for 
construction have already been discussed. A review of the Turnpike records revealed 
more information on the Turnpike’s construction. Once the road was graded, it had to be 
beaten down by travel or other means prior to the laying of stones. The thickness of the 
stones, referred to as “metal,” had to be nine inches. None of the stones laid could 
exceed two inches in width. Mileposts were also ordered to be erected at each mile. The 
posts were to be made of locust wood and be at least seven feet long, eight inches square, 
and set two feet into the ground (Shaw 1849b).

Specifications for the construction of bridges were very detailed for the 
contractors. The “foundations for the abutments, wing walls, and piers will be upon rock, 
where that can be obtained” (Shaw 1849c). Robert Kent was contracted to construct a 
bridge over Reed Creek near Kents Mill. This bridge would have been located in the 
same approximate location as CBA 10 crossing of Reed Creek near Kent. Robert Kent
was to construct “a Wooden arch bridge, with all the appurtenant works of Stone & Iron” (Shaw 1849c).

A toll house was constructed on the west side of Reed Creek at the same spot where Kent constructed his wooden arch bridge. This toll house is shown as the John Allen Toll House on later maps and is the previously recorded John Allen Toll House (VDHR# 139-5063) architectural resource (see Table 2).

Also beginning in the 1840s, railroads were built in southwestern Virginia. These railroads generally brought economic success to the towns through which they ran. The Virginia-Tennessee Railroad passed through the town of Wytheville in December of 1858, providing a link to outside markets far beyond what roads could establish (Walker 1985).

Civil War (1861-1865) Context: The people of southwestern Virginia as a whole did not have firm loyalties for the Union or Confederacy. Southwestern Virginia was very inward looking and voted against secession more as a way to prevent war than as an expression of a political philosophy (Walker 1985). Whatever their feelings about secession, Virginia left the Union, and the country was at war. Wythe County became a target of Union forces because of the resources that it could provide the Southern armies.

The first sign of war in Wythe County was the establishment of Camp Jackson at the west end of Wytheville. Camp Jackson was an induction camp where young recruits were mustered into the Confederate Army. By June 1861, there were at least 22 companies, numbering almost 2000 troops, stationed in Wytheville (Hoch 1996).

On July 13, 1863 a Union Cavalry force of about 900 men under the command of Colonel John T. Toland started out from Charleston, West Virginia, and headed through southwestern Virginia with the goal of destroying the Saltville saltworks in Washington County. In an engagement with a small Confederate cavalry force on July 17, Toland’s troopers captured 35 of the 36 Confederates. Fearing that the escaped Confederate would sound the alarm, Toland changed his plans and decided to target the High Bridge of the Virginia-Tennessee Railroad at Wytheville. The bridge crossed Reed Creek to the west of Wytheville. Destruction of the bridge would stop the flow of traffic on the railroad for weeks. Toland was encouraged by the knowledge that there was no permanent Confederate force stationed at Wytheville, just a supply depot. Toland was further helped by the fact that when the Confederates did learn of the raid they were convinced that Saltville was the target (Walker 1985).

As the Union force continued their ride through Burkes Garden, the Confederate authorities began to realize that Saltville was not the target of the raiders. When news reached Wytheville that the town maybe in danger of attack, the residents sent for Joseph Kent. Kent resided about 3.5 miles east of Wytheville and had served in the Confederate army at Manassas. However after Manassas and his promotion to rank of colonel, Kent resigned and returned home. Kent began to gather a meager force of poorly armed local men to repel the raiders. Kent’s men were reinforced by about 130 men hastily
assembled by Major T. M. Bowyer who rushed to Wytheville from Dublin by way of train (Walker 1985).

Toland’s troopers approached Wytheville along the road leading from Big Walker Mountain. As they neared Wytheville the cavalrymen found the town’s defenders in position on a ridge to the town’s north. A quick charge easily routed the Confederates, who fled into Wytheville down Tazewell Street. The Union cavalry advantages were negated in the tight streets of town and shots were fired at them from the buildings as they rode down the street. Colonel Toland was killed and his second in command was wounded as the Federal advance through the town slowed. One Federal unit dismounted and began to advance down the street resulting in a Confederate rout. However, the loss of the two senior Federal officers caused confusion among the Union raiders. Some homes, public buildings, and businesses in Wytheville were burned and/or looted, but the troopers did not press on to accomplish their goal of destroying the rail bridge west of town. A small detachment did move along the railroad to the east of town and destroyed a small bridge and a culvert. Content with this, the Federals left the town and moved back towards Big Walker Mountain (Walker 1985).

Union forces mounted a much larger raid that impacted the current study area towards the end of the war. In December 1864, General George Stoneman had his troopers begin their ride from eastern Tennessee to raid southwest Virginia. Stoneman’s force was strong and the Confederates in the Department of Southwest Virginia were undermanned. Only one company was located in the town of Wytheville, but the area home guard was ordered mobilized. The home guard marched off to Saltville where the Confederates had decided to concentrate. Meanwhile it appeared that Wytheville may actually be in danger (Walker 1985).

Correspondence included in the official records of the Union and Confederate armies (Graham 1864) indicates that a few Confederate troops may have camped in the Fort Chiswell area in December of 1864. These troops, under Captain Gassaway, were partly concerned with establishing telegraphic communication between forces in Max Meadows and Wytheville. There are no specific details on the encampment, and only a second-hand account of Captain Gassaway’s intention to camp in the Fort Chiswell area is expressed in the letter.

One officer, Major J. Stoddard Johnston, the area quartermaster, was one of almost a dozen Confederate soldiers remaining in Wytheville. Stoddard busied himself with the loading of supplies onto rail cars for evacuation. Once he heard that the possibility of attack on Wytheville was likely, he began the task of having rifle pits prepared, though he had no one to man them. In addition, he placed cannons in defensive positions. These cannons were placed to bluff any potential attackers. The guns were not serviceable and were in Wytheville to be repaired or smelted. When a Union force did approach the town, Johnson’s rifle pits and guns caused some hesitation, but the Union cavalry entered the town causing Johnson and his four man garrison to flee. The Union detachment then burned supplies and foundries in Wytheville, as well as two locomotives and a number of rail cars (Walker 1985).
When the Federal force left Wytheville, they traveled in the direction of Max Meadows along the railroad. Another Union force that had burned the depot in Max Meadows marched west. The two commands met along the tracks about three miles east of Wytheville where they camped for the night (Walker 1985).

In March of 1865 General Stoneman set out on another raid that would impact Wytheville area residents. On April 6 Union troopers fought Confederate troops outside of Wytheville. The Union troopers appear to have been unable to enter the town, but the depot south of town was burned along with a large amount of supplies. Troopers also burned the bridge to the east and west of town (Walker 1985).

Maps from the Civil War era provide information on roads and structures within the CBAs. Figure 5 shows two maps from ca. 1863 with approximate overlays of CBAs 7 and 10. The structures within or adjacent to the CBAs are indicated. Most appear to be dwellings, but the previously recorded John Allen Toll House (VDHR # 139-5063) and a church are also shown. The maps reflect a major change in the area: the construction of the Southwestern Virginia Turnpike and the addition of a small number of dwellings, the toll house, and the church along its route.

**Reconstruction and Growth (1865-1917) Context:** After the Civil War, Wythe County was slow to recover. Although the war ended in 1865, it was not until the 1880s and 1890s that significant changes took place in Wythe County. Prior to the war, crop growing and cattle raising were the economic mainstays of Wythe County. By 1886, the average farm in Wythe County was 400 acres. Crops grown in Wythe County during this period included hemp, corn, wheat, flax, rye, oats, cabbage, potatoes, and apples (Kegley 1989). Cabbage also became a major crop in the Rural Retreat area of the county. Cattle, sheep, and hogs also became important economically during this period.

Mills to process corn and other products became important factors in the Wythe County economy. Kent’s Mill, later called Newberry’s, was known for its hat and woollen mills, as well as for its gristmills and sawmills (Kegley 1989). In an advertisement in the *Wytheville Dispatch* in 1869, the mills were called the “Bellefield Mills” and were described as “First Class Flouring and Grist Mills,” mentioning improvements such as “smutters and Cleaners, Corn Sheller, Cob Crusher, Plaster Mill, etc.” (Kegley 1989:283). The mills processed wheat flour, buckwheat flour, rye flour, cornmeal, and chop for horses and cows.

Another important mill in Wythe County was the Orth Mill, located on the south fork of Reed Creek in the west end of the county. This mill was later called the Harkrader and Slater Mill and was in operation until the late 1930s. A number of other mills operated in the county during the Reconstruction period. The only water-powered
Figure 5: Civil War-Era Maps Showing the Southwestern Virginia Turnpike, the Old Stage Road, and Structures Within or Adjacent to CBAs 7 and 10. Top: Izard (ca. 1863) Map; Bottom: Anonymous (ca. 1863) Map (Hotchkiss Collection). Overlay of CBAs is Approximate; the Positions are Slightly Shifted to the South at the Eastern End of Map.
mill still in operation in the county is located south of Wytheville on Reed Creek (Kegley 1989).

In addition to cattle production and farming, the lead mines at Austinville and the saltworks at Saltville provided economic support for the county. After the war these two industries were in shambles, and it was apparent that the best days of operation were over (Whisonant 1998). Although salt and lead production continued after the war, zinc manufacture outstripped lead production, and salt production was decreasing. By 1906, all salt production at the mines in Saltville had ceased (Whisonant 1998).

During this period, however, the iron industry in southwestern Virginia experienced a boom that extended from the post-Civil War days into the early 1900s. The improved technology of coke (hot blast) furnaces greatly influenced the rise of the iron industry. The old coal furnaces heated up to 2,000 tons of iron ore per year, while the new coke furnaces could handle up to 90,000 tons of ore per year. This new technology combined with extensive ore deposits in southwestern Virginia, lower labor costs, and the high demand for iron ore propelled the iron industry of Virginia into a prominent position in the national market.

**World War I Through the New Dominion (1917-Present) Context:** During the first half of the twentieth century, Wythe County remained primarily a rural community. Figure 6 shows USGS 15-minute quadrangles from the 1930s and illustrates the limited number of structures (primarily residential) along the CBAs during that time. Agriculture and livestock continued to be the mainstays of the economy. The iron industry declined considerably in the 1920s due to competition from Great Lakes ore, unfavorable freight rates, and inefficient furnace practices (Whisonant 1998). Iron production in southwestern Virginia ceased around 1930 due to mounting economic obstacles.

However, the growing livestock industry prospered during this period. The Wytheville Livestock Market was incorporated in 1933, and cattle were sold weekly at the market. The market burned in 1946 but was promptly rebuilt (Kegley 1989). By 1949, about 75 percent of the livestock (including cows, sheep, and pigs) raised in Wythe County were sold through the livestock market and shipped to packing plants in Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey.

In 1932, the Wythe County Farm Bureau was established with 27 members. The organization, an extension of the Virginia Farm Bureau Federation, was concerned with improving economic conditions for farming families. The organization offered group auto insurance as well as life, farm, and homeowners insurance. In 1950, the Wythe County Farm Bureau became one of the first in Virginia to establish an office and was housed in its own building by 1968 (Kegley 1989). The bureau is still active in the county today.

Another improvement to rural life came with the passage of the Rural Electrification Act in 1935 (Kegley 1989). This piece of legislation brought electricity to
Figure 6: CBA 7 and 10 Locations on the 1939 Speedwell and 1930 Max Meadows, Virginia, 15-Minute Topographic Quadrangles.
the farms. Electricity provided farmers with the opportunity to increase production with new appliances and equipment like electric milking machines and coolers.

During this period, a number of nonagricultural businesses were also established, especially in Wytheville. Businesses located in Wytheville in the early part of the twentieth century included insurance companies, clothing retailers, butcher shops, a photography studio, a jeweler, a merchant tailor, a saloon, and stores offering general merchandise (Kegley 1989). In addition to these businesses, several agricultural equipment and supply stores were operating in town.

Through time, Wythe County has remained primarily a rural and agricultural community. In the late 1940s, horses were replaced with tractors and the availability of modern conveniences and equipment changed the face of agriculture. Modern machinery has allowed for increased production with less manpower and fewer acres of land (Kegley 1989). In addition to agriculture, business and industry has also become an important part of the Wythe County economy and the economy of southwestern Virginia.

**Postcontact Period Potential:** The study area includes 13 previously recorded sites from the Postcontact period. They represent domestic, industrial, or institutional activities from the mid-eighteenth to twentieth centuries (n=1), the late eighteenth to twentieth centuries (n=1), the nineteenth to twentieth centuries (n=4), the nineteenth century (n=3), the twentieth century (n=2), and unknown periods (=2). The time span of the sites begins in the Colony to Nation period in the 1750s; significant settlement of the area had only begun in the 1740s.

The earliest postcontact component occurs within the Fort Chiswell site, which is on the NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register (VDHR #098-0026; VDHR 2008). The NRHP boundary lies immediately adjacent to CBA 7, and it is crossed by CBA 10 and it’s related Exit 81 ramp improvements. The site is located on a ridge and slope area between Reed Creek and the existing I-77/I-81 corridor, just east of the locality of Fort Chiswell. The NRHP boundaries, which cover a large square area, are currently bisected by the highway access ramp for Exit 81. This site was recorded and investigated in the 1970s. Excavations were conducted prior to construction of the highway ramp (Cleland and Funk 1975; Funk 1976; Hazzard and McCartney 1976). Native American (Middle Archaic and possible Woodland) and eighteenth- to twentieth-century components were documented. Fort Chiswell was historically significant as a frontier outpost that became a trading post and eventually a center of commerce (Hazzard and McCartney 1976).

The main components of what has been generally known as Fort Chiswell represent three successive periods of occupation beginning with the earliest settlement by Alexander Sayers (1752-1765). Salvaged archaeological features from this period include brick chimney bases and a brick foundation brace from two log cabin-forts and a smokehouse. The second occupational period relates to the encampment of Colonel William Byrd and his troops (1760-1761). This is represented by the remains of a magazine that was placed adjacent to one of the Sayers cabins. The third occupation of Fort Chiswell was by James McGavock (beginning in 1771). Archaeological features
from this occupation include limestone foundation walls from three buildings. The walls appear to represent a courthouse, the original McGavock home, and an ordinary or kitchen (constructed in circa 1772). The remains of at least one other structure outside of the salvage project right-of-way were evident, and it is expected that other structures associated with the Sayers and McGavock occupations are present within unexcavated portions of the site (McCartney 1976). Hazzard and McCartney (1976) noted the presence of stone foundation remnants just north of the current right-of-way, possibly the remains of an original springhouse. The springhouse area, which is shown in Figure 7, would fall within the current APE for CBA 10. A twentieth-century dwelling from the Davis family was also erected at the site. This was demolished in 1968 (McCartney 1976).

Site 44WY0044 is a brick kiln of unknown age located along Reed Creek near the town of Wytheville. According to the VDHR site form, test pit excavation revealed rows of handmade brick surrounded by black soil. No other artifacts were recovered, but the handmade bricks may suggest an early date. Further work was recommended to determine the site’s age and potential significance, but the site is now located within the Wytheville sewage treatment plant, and no record of additional work was found.

The Antebellum period Johnson House site, recorded as 44WY0053, is located in the study area to the north of Wytheville and includes burned structural remains and a standing spring house. The site was revisited in 2000 for a VDOT project, and shovel testing of the site area revealed architectural and domestic artifacts in undisturbed contexts (Pullins 2000). The site was recommended as potentially eligible for the NRHP as it might yield important information on rural economy, commerce, and the development of Wytheville.

Although now totally destroyed, site 44WY0094 was a nineteenth-century forge site. The site was located in the Grahams Ford vicinity along Reed Creek. Another industrial site, the Annie Lee iron furnace site (44WY0163), dates to the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The furnace was closed in the 1920s, and when recorded in 1996 consisted of a stack base, a concrete pad, and slag piles. The VDHR site form mentions possible subsurface integrity, but no specific recommendations are included.

Site 44WY0115 is a nineteenth- to twentieth-century artifact scatter located along Reed Creek within CBA 7. This site, recorded during a VDOT survey (Jones 1987) includes a Native American component with indeterminate Woodland ceramics. The historic scatter, including ceramics, glass, cut nails, suggested debris from a tenant house or farm outbuilding. The entire site appeared disturbed from flooding and erosion, however, and the site was recommended as not eligible for the NRHP. The current VDHR site form contains no information on NRHP eligibility.

Four nineteenth- to twentieth-century domestic sites, 44WY0189, 44WY0190, 44WY0191, and 44WY0197, were recorded in the study area during survey for the Progress Park industrial park (Barber et al. 1997). These were encountered on a terrace of Reed Creek or in the uplands to the north of the creek. One, 44WY0189, had been
Figure 7: Map of Previous Excavations at the Fort Chiswell Site (VDHR #098-0026), Showing Investigated Areas Within the Current Exit 81 Ramp Area and the Spring/Springhouse Area to the North of the Current Right-of-Way (from Hazzard and McCartney 1976).
Site 44WY0212, the Wythe County Poor Farm Cemetery, was identified during a 1998 gas pipeline survey. The cemetery is located in an upland portion of the current study area near Stringtown, and according to the VDHR site form, is marked by one tombstone and a series of depressions in rows and columns. The poor farm used the cemetery between 1848 and 1958. The VDHR site form does not contain a recommendation, and a report is not on file. Nearby is site 44WY0213, the site of the Wythe County Poor Farm itself. According to the VDHR site form, this consists of a complex of extant buildings, structural foundations, former privy locations, and intact stratified cultural strata. There is no report on file for the farm site, and no recommendations are included on the site form.

Review of the postcontact sites in the study area suggests that sites of all periods of settlement may be encountered within the CBAs. Some may, despite twentieth-century growth in the Wytheville area, retain intact strata or features, as was found for the eighteenth- to twentieth-century Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026) and the Antebellum period Johnson House ruins (44WY0053). The NRHP boundary for the Fort Chiswell site lies immediately adjacent to CBA 7 and is crossed by CBA 10. Given the proximity of the APEs to an area of known early settlement, the potential for early settlement sites must be considered high. Two later eighteenth-century architectural resources are known within the current CBAs: the Keesling Log House (VDHR# 098-5051) and Locust Hill (VDHR# 098-5129). These may have associated archaeological components. The potential for sites from subsequent settlement of the area is also high. Potential site types include domestic sites as well as sites of industry. Sites of Civil War military activity, however, are unlikely given the lack of a major battle site in the study and the limited extent of troop activity in the area between Wytheville and Fort Chiswell. Union forces moved through the area on horseback, camping for a night or two. There was one documented camp site along the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad about three miles east of Wytheville. However, this was likely north of the current CBAs. Confederate forces may have established a short-term camp in the Fort Chiswell area in the vicinity of the current CBAs. However, the likelihood of a site related to a brief encampment is low.

The potential for postcontact site types that would affect decision making is low. The early settlement sites, though potentially significant, would not necessarily be
unusually complex to excavate and would be unlikely to merit preservation-in-place as sites. Examples of postcontact site types that might affect decision making include Civil War battlefields or intact industrial sites with extant facilities (e.g., an early forge or furnace) meriting preservation in place. As these sites types are either unlikely in the CBAs or unlikely to retain significant above-ground features (see sites 44WY0044, 44WY0094 and 44WY0163), the low potential rating for postcontact sites that would affect decision making is appropriate.

**Summary of Potential**

Table 3 presents the potential for sites from different time periods in each of the CBAs. The results are based on consideration of the previously recorded sites and structures in the study area, settlement patterns discussed for each period, historic background research, and the terrain crossed by the alternatives. It should be noted that the CBAs cross a variety of habitable landforms including terraces and floodplains associated with Reed Creek and its tributaries. Previously recorded site types in the study area include Archaic lithic scatters; multicomponent sites with Woodland material and evidence for Early, Middle, or Late Archaic occupations; possible Woodland village sites; Woodland village sites with reported human burials; multicomponent historic sites with eighteenth, and/or nineteenth and twentieth-century domestic components; and sites of nineteenth-century industry. Paleoindian sites have not been recorded in the study area, but are known in the adjacent region. An understanding of previous research and the nature of the terrain covered by the CBAs suggests that additional sites from all major time periods have at least some potential of being encountered in unsurveyed areas.

Table 3: Potential for Encountering Sites from Specific Time Periods in CBAs 7 and 10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CBA</th>
<th>Paleoindian Period</th>
<th>Archaic Period</th>
<th>Woodland Period</th>
<th>Postcontact Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>low to moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>low to moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The terraces and floodplains of Reed Creek are particularly significant as they may contain large Woodland period village sites with potential for human burials. Archaic components may be encountered on these landforms, but may also be encountered on upland landforms near smaller tributaries. Archaic sites would be unlikely to affect project decision making or involve costly and time consuming excavation, except that some sites with Archaic components also contain Woodland components that may represent villages with extensive features and associated human burials.

Both CBAs cross Reed Creek. One possible village site with Late Woodland and/or Protohistoric components is already known on a Reed Creek terrace in the APE for CBA 7 (also immediately adjacent to CBA 10). The site, 44WY0239, has not been evaluated.
Sites of all periods of historic settlement may be encountered, and early settlement locations are known within the CBAs. The NRHP boundary for the eighteenth- to twentieth-century Fort Chiswell site (VDHR # 098-0026) lies immediately adjacent to CBA 7 and is crossed by CBA 10. Two later eighteenth-century architectural resources are known within the current CBAs: the Keesling Log House (VDHR# 098-5051) and Locust Hill (VDHR# 098-5129). These may have associated archaeological components and have been recommended as potentially eligible for the NRHP for architecture (Stewart et al. 2008). An early site may also be associated with the 1839 Fort Chiswell Manor (VDHR# 098-0005), which has NRHP boundaries crossed by CBA 10. The ca. 1850 John Allen Toll House (VDHR# 139-5063), within CBA 10, may also have an associated archaeological component. Historic maps and records indicate that additional sites of dwellings, and possibly a church, may be present within the CBAs.

Potentially significant sites of all periods may be encountered within the project area, but the only expected intact site type that would have substantial impacts on project decision making would be the Woodland or Protohistoric village if it included complex features and human burials. Such a site could require either avoidance or complex and costly excavation including identification and removal of all human remains. Other site types that might affect decision making, such as a Civil War battlefield, are unlikely. Sites such as the Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026), though significant, would not necessarily involve avoidance or extraordinarily complex excavation efforts.
ARCHAEOLOGICAL POTENTIAL BY CANDIDATE BUILD ALTERNATIVE

Introduction

Four previous archaeological surveys have involved small areas within the CBAs under consideration in this assessment. The other previous investigations within the current CBAs were the excavations at the Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026), all of which occurred within the current NRHP boundaries (Cleland and Funk 1975; Funk 1976; Hazzard and McCartney 1976). Figure 8 indicates those areas in CBAs 7 and 10 that have been previously surveyed. The earliest archaeological survey was conducted by Jones (1987) for the replacement of the bridge over Reed Creek at Route 649. This survey covered a small area, involving only 800 ft for the bridge approaches. One new site recorded during the project, 44WY0115, is within CBA 7. Another survey involved a new alignment for the proposed Lithia Road project (Pullins 2000) near the western terminus of CBA 7. No sites were recorded in CBA 7 during this project. CCR conducted a survey for the proposed Fort Chiswell waterline extension for the Progress Park industrial park (Baicy et al. 2005). This survey crossed Reed Creek and paralleled the existing I-77/I-81 alignment in the vicinity of Kent. No sites were recorded during the project, and much of the area along the existing interstate in CBA 10 was disturbed. A series of surveys for the Patriot Extension Natural Gas Pipeline (O’Neal 2004) involved several narrow corridors crossing the current CBAs near the eastern project terminus. This survey resulted in the recording of 44WY0239, which is within CBA 7.

A total of three previously recorded archaeological sites are located within the CBAs (Table 4; see Figure 8). Site 44WY0115 has a Native American component with indeterminate Woodland period ceramics and a historic component described as a nineteenth- to twentieth-century artifact scatter. The site is located along Reed Creek within CBA 7. Jones (1987) reported that the entire site was disturbed from flooding and erosion. The site was recommended as not eligible for the NRHP, but the current VDHR site form contains no information on NRHP eligibility.

Site 44WY0239, which is located in the APE for CBA 7 and is immediately adjacent to CBA 10, is a possible village site and may contain Woodland and Protohistoric period components. The site is situated on a cultivated terrace above a broad Reed Creek floodplain area and has dimensions of approximately 125 x 100 m. The site also contains an indeterminate Archaic component. Survey-level investigations at the site (O’Neal 2004) resulted in recovery of Dan River Plain and Net/Knot Roughened ceramics, a Yadkin projectile point, a Pee Dee projectile point, a Clarksville projectile point, an Archaic point blade, and lithic debitage. The Dan River ceramics suggest occupation of the site during the Late Woodland and/or Protohistoric periods. A high density of artifacts was documented, especially at the transition between the plow zone and the subsoil. This suggested potential for undisturbed features below the plow zone, and the site was recommended as eligible for the NRHP. The current site information is insufficient to estimate the potential for human burials, but review of the
Figure 8: Locations of CBAs 7 and 10, Previously Surveyed Areas, Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites in the CBAs, and Previously Recorded Architectural Resources Discussed in the Text.
Table 4: Summary of Previously Recorded Resources in CBAs 7 and 10 Including Archaeological Sites, Cemeteries, and Architectural Resources with Possible Significant Archaeological Components.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Site/Resource #</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Previous Recommendation or NRHP Status</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>CBA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44WY0115</td>
<td>Native American: lithic scatter; Historic: Nineteenth to Twentieth century, artifact scatter</td>
<td>No Further Work</td>
<td>Jones (1987)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44WY0239</td>
<td>Native American: Archaic, Woodland, and Protoploty period, camp/village</td>
<td>Recommended Eligible</td>
<td>O’Neal (2004)</td>
<td>7, adjacent to 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-0026 (includes 44WY0019, 44WY0045)</td>
<td>Native American: Middle Archaic period, lithic scatter; possible Woodland period lithic scatter; Historic: Eighteenth to Twentieth century occupations</td>
<td>Listed on NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register</td>
<td>McCartney (1976); VDHR (2008)</td>
<td>10, adjacent to 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-0005</td>
<td>Historic: Fort Chiswell Manor, 1839; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Listed on NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-0022</td>
<td>Historic: McGavock Cemetery, 1812</td>
<td>Listed on NRHP</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-5051</td>
<td>Historic: Keesling Log House ca. 1790; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Potentially Eligible; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>098-5129</td>
<td>Historic: Locust Hill House/Farm, ca. 1784; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Potentially Eligible; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
<td>7, 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>139-5063</td>
<td>Historic: John Allen Toll House, ca. 1850; possible archaeological component</td>
<td>Architecture Not Eligible Due to Alterations; site not yet defined</td>
<td>Stewart et al. (2008)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study area indicates that five previously recorded sites have been described as possible Woodland village sites with human burials. These occur on broad floodplains or terraces of Reed Creek. Human burials within village areas is a documented aspect of Late Woodland settlement patterns in southwestern Virginia (Boyd and Boyd 1992).

The Fort Chiswell site, which is on the NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register (VDHR #098-0026; VDHR 2008), has an NRHP boundary crossed by CBA 10 and lying immediately adjacent to CBA 7. This site was recorded and investigated in the 1970s. Salvage excavations were conducted prior to construction of the current Exit 81 highway ramp (Cleland and Funk 1975; Funk 1976; Hazzard and McCartney 1976). Native American (Middle Archaic and possible Woodland) and eighteenth- to twentieth-century components were documented. Fort Chiswell was historically significant as a mid-eighteenth-century frontier outpost that became a trading post and eventually a center of commerce (Hazzard and McCartney 1976). The remains of at least one other structure outside of the salvage project right-of-way were evident during the salvage work, and it is expected that other structures associated with later eighteenth-century occupations are
present within unexcavated portions of the site (McCartney 1976). Hazzard and McCartney (1976) noted the presence of stone foundation remnants just north of the current right-of-way, possibly the remains of an original springhouse. The springhouse area, which is shown in Figure 7, would fall within the current APE for CBA 10.

Table 4 includes four previously recorded architectural resources in the current CBAs that are notable for their potential to have significant archaeological components. Information on these resources appears in the CCR architectural survey report covering the current project’s existing alignment (Stewart et al. 2008). Two eighteenth-century dwellings, the Keesling Log House (VDHR# 098-5051) and Locust Hill House/Farm (VDHR# 098-5129) are located in CBA 7. The latter is also in CBA 10. The NRHP boundary of the 1839 Fort Chiswell Manor (VDHR# 098-0005) is crossed by CBA 10. Finally, the ca. 1850 John Allen Toll House (VDHR# 139-5063) lies within CBA 10 along Reed Creek.

Table 4 also lists a previously recorded cemetery, the McGavock Cemetery (VDHR# 098-0022). This NRHP-listed cemetery has a boundary crossed by CBA 10. This is the only previously recorded cemetery within the two CBAs, and no additional cemeteries are shown in the CBA areas on current topographic maps or historic maps.

The review of previous research indicates that while sites from any of the precontact and postcontact periods could be recorded during systematic archaeological survey of the CBAs, only one of the anticipated site categories within these periods would have potential for extraordinarily costly excavation or preservation in place. The category, based on review of previously recorded sites and site distribution data, is Woodland or Protohistoric villages with potential for complex features and human burials. The potential for sites related to Civil War activity or sites of early industry (such as millworks or furnaces) that might merit preservation in place was also considered. However, these site types are either unlikely in the APEs for the CBAs or are unlikely to be preserved. Important sites of early colonial and postcolonial settlement may be present, but such sites are unlikely to require extraordinarily complex excavation or in-place preservation. One cemetery has been previously recorded in the current CBAs. Additional historic cemeteries may be recorded, but it is unlikely that any large historic cemeteries that would affect decision making will be encountered since none are indicated in the APEs on the current USGS quadrangles.

Although the two CBAs cross similar terrain, and each involves crossings of floodplains associated with Reed Creek, the built environment is different, with CBA 7 following a new alignment and CBA 10 covering areas adjacent to the existing I-77/I-81 alignment. Areas within CBA 10 involve some disturbance from frontage roads and commercial structures alongside the existing interstate. The following sections compare the areas covered by the CBAs with respect to size, type of terrain present, and disturbance. The assessment of potential for sites in each that would affect decision making is then presented.
**Candidate Build Alternative 7**

CBA 7 is approximately 10 miles in length, and the APE for the 500-foot-wide corridor covers a total area of 625.36 acres (Table 5). This CBA follows a new alignment, except where the eastern and western ends taper into existing interstate areas. Only a small portion of the CBA 7 APE, less than 10 percent, can be characterized as disturbed based on mapping of the Udorthents-Urban Land complex in Gall and Edmonds (1992). Inspection of recent aerial images provided by VHB indicates that there is little additional disturbance that is not reflected in the Udorthents-Urban Land mapping. The overall character of land within the APE is rural. Only a small portion of CBA 7 has been previously surveyed for archaeological sites (3.09 acres), as is the case for CBA 10.

The previously recorded sites within this CBA include 44WY0115, the Native American and nineteenth to twentieth-century artifact scatter and 44WY0239, the possible Late Woodland or Protohistoric period village site with an indeterminate Archaic component. VDHR# 098-0026, the NRHP-listed Fort Chiswell site, is immediately adjacent to CBA 7. All three sites are located in close proximity to Reed Creek, with 44WY0239 on a broad, moderately well-drained terrace within one of the creek’s bends. Site 44WY0239 appeared to have potential for intact features below a plow zone (O’Neal 2004), and as a possible Late Woodland to Protohistoric village site might include human burials as a feature type. Late eighteenth-century historic components may be encountered at the Keesling Log House (VDHR# 098-5051) and Locust Hill House/Farm (VDHR# 098-5129) architectural resources.

In general, researchers expect to locate precontact and historic habitation sites in close proximity to a source of water, in areas of adequately drained soils, and on terrain that is not excessively sloped. Many other site types are likely to occur in similar terrain. Water sources are frequent along CBA 7 where it crosses drainage heads, small tributaries, or Reed Creek. More than 85 percent of the soils covered by the CBA 7 APE are characterized as well drained or moderately well drained (see Table 5). Excessively sloped areas are present within the APE, but there are also many areas with habitable floodplains, terraces, terrace toes, ridgetops, and gentle side slopes. Portions of the western end of the APE cover broad upland ridge areas. Given this alternative’s characteristics, and taking account the results of the assessment of site potential by period, the potential to record additional precontact and postcontact sites appears high.

The potential for Woodland or Protohistoric period village sites that may include complex features and human burials is high for CBA 7. First, a possible Late Woodland to Protohistoric village site, 44WY0239, has already been recorded within the APE on a terrace of Reed Creek. This site was recommended as eligible for the NRHP based on survey-level data, and while there is no specific information on the likelihood of human burials, our current understanding of Late Woodland mortuary patterns suggests that the potential exists. Second, CBA 7 includes seven crossings of Reed Creek in areas with well-drained or moderately well-drained floodplain or terrace soils that are similar to the soils underlying 44WY0239. The well-drained and moderately well-drained soils, as
Table 5: Characteristics of CBAs 7 and 10 and Potential for Sites Affecting Decision Making.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CBA</th>
<th>Total Corridor Length (miles)</th>
<th>Total Area of APE (acres)</th>
<th>Total Disturbed Land* (acres)</th>
<th>Well-Drained and Moderately Well-Drained Soils (acres)</th>
<th># of Crossings of Reed Creek</th>
<th>Reed Creek Floodplain or Terrace Areas with Well-Drained or Moderately Well-Drained Soils</th>
<th>Potential for Woodland or Protohistoric Villages That May Include Complex Features and Human Burials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>625.36</td>
<td>60.68</td>
<td>537.26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>67.48</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.45</td>
<td>687.68</td>
<td>175.15</td>
<td>473.47</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.72</td>
<td>moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Acreage of disturbed land is based on acreage of Udorthents-Urban land complex (areas covered by cut and fill areas, highways, streets, parking lots, and structures), as described in Gall and Edmonds (1992) mapped in the county soil survey (Gall and Edmonds 1992), constitute a total area of 67.48 acres (see Table 5). Some of the areas with these soils are extensive and might accommodate a large village site. For example, one area within a large bend of Reed Creek involves more than 20 contiguous acres of moderately well-drained and well-drained soils (Guillon loam, 0-3 percent slopes, occasionally flooded; Nomberville silt loam, 0-3 percent slopes, occasionally flooded; Pagebrook silt loam 0-3 percent slopes, rarely flooded; and Botetourt silt loam, 2-7 slopes) and appears to have limited disturbance from cultivation. The other Reed Creek crossings, though involving smaller areas of well-drained and moderately well-drained soils, also appear to have limited disturbance.

**Candidate Build Alternative 10**

CBA 10 is nearly 12 miles in length, and the APE for the 500-foot-wide corridor (comprised of two 250-foot-wide corridors on either side of the existing interstate pavement corridor) covers a total area of 687.68 acres (see Table 5). This CBA follows the existing alignment of the I-77/I-81 overlap and the Exit 81 interchange ramp. Portions of the APE are disturbed by frontage roads and commercial development along the interstate route. Approximately 25 percent of CBA 10 can be characterized as disturbed based on mapping of the Udorthents-Urban Land complex in Gall and Edmonds (1992). Inspection of recent aerial images provided by VHB suggests that there is some additional disturbance from commercial structures and parking areas that is not reflected in the Udorthents-Urban Land mapping. The overall character of land within the APE is mixed, with both rural land and commercial zones. Only a small portion of CBA 10 has been previously surveyed for archaeological sites (5.02 acres excluding the area of the Fort Chiswell site excavations).

The previously recorded sites within and adjacent to this CBA include 44WY0239, the possible Late Woodland or Protohistoric period village site with an
indeterminate Archaic component and VDHR# 098-0026, the Fort Chiswell site. Both are located in close proximity to Reed Creek, with 44WY0239 on a well-drained terrace immediately adjacent to the CBA 10 APE and the Fort Chiswell site NRHP boundaries crossed by the APE. A late eighteenth-century historic component may be encountered at the Locust Hill House/Farm (VDHR# 098-5129) architectural resource, and mid-nineteenth-century components may be encountered in association with the John Allen Toll House (VDHR# 139-5063) and the NRHP-listed Fort Chiswell Manor (VDHR# 098-0005). The NRHP boundaries for the Fort Chiswell Manor and one cemetery, the McGavock Cemetery (VDHR# 098-0022), are crossed by the CBA 10 APE.

Approximately 69 percent of the soils covered by the APE for CBA 10 are characterized as well drained or moderately well drained (see Table 5). Excessively sloped areas are present within the APE, but there are also some areas with habitable floodplains, terraces, terrace toes, and gentle side slopes. Portions of the western end of the APE cover broader upland landforms. Given this alternative’s characteristics, and taking account the results of the assessment of site potential by period, the potential to record additional precontact and postcontact sites appears high. As this CBA follows the approximate route of the historic Southwestern Virginia Turnpike, built in the mid-nineteenth century, there is greater potential for postcontact sites than along the route of CBA 7. Mapping from the Civil War era shows a number of structures along the Turnpike’s route. Earlier records from the Southwestern Turnpike company include information on structures present along the Turnpike route prior to its construction and structures built as part of the Turnpike (e.g., bridges and the John Allen Toll House).

The potential for Woodland or Protohistoric period village sites that may include complex features and human burials is moderate for CBA 10. Site 44WY0239, the possible Late Woodland to Protohistoric village site with potential for human burials, is immediately adjacent to the APE on a terrace of Reed Creek. The APE for CBA 10 skirts this terrace along somewhat sloping terrain, effectively avoiding the main site area as currently mapped from survey-level data in O’Neal (2004). CBA 10 crosses Reed Creek just to the east of this site and includes two other crossings with well-drained or moderately well-drained floodplain or terrace soils. The total area of such soils is 27.72 acres (see Table 5). Areas with these soils are more extensive at the westernmost crossing in the vicinity of Kent, and might accommodate a large village site. The other areas, however, involve narrower floodplains or terraces. Disturbance that would diminish the potential for sites at the Reed Creek crossings is not apparent from the project aerial mapping.
SUMMARY

The review of previous research indicates that while sites from any of the precontact and postcontact periods could be recorded during systematic archaeological survey of the CBAs (Table 6), only one of the anticipated categories of intact sites from these periods would have potential for extraordinarily costly excavation or preservation in place. The category, based on review of previously recorded sites and site distribution data, is Woodland or Protohistoric villages with potential for complex features and human burials. Other types of important precontact sites may be encountered, and important sites of early colonial and postcolonial settlement may be present. However, most of these sites would be unlikely to require extraordinarily complex excavation or in-place preservation. The NRHP and Virginia Landmarks Register Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026) is a notable example of an important previously recorded postcontact site. Its NRHP boundary is crossed by the APE for CBA 10 and is immediately adjacent to CBA 7. Salvage excavations have already been conducted for a portion of the site; these were conducted in the 1970s in advance of the construction of the Exit 81 interstate ramp.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CBA</th>
<th>Total Area Previously Surveyed (acres)*</th>
<th>Total Area of Disturbed Land with Little or No Site Potential (acres)**</th>
<th>Potential for Sites By Period</th>
<th>Potential for Sites Affecting Decision Making: Woodland or Protohistoric Villages That May Include Complex Features and Human Burials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>60.68</td>
<td>low to moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>175.15</td>
<td>low to moderate</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*excludes excavated areas within the NRHP boundaries of the Fort Chiswell site (VDHR# 098-0026)

** acreage of disturbed land is based on acreage of Udorthents-Urban land complex (areas covered by cut and fill areas, highways, streets, parking lots, and structures), as described in Gall and Edmonds (1992)

The two CBAs cross similar terrain, and each involves crossings of floodplains associated with Reed Creek. This suggests similar potential for site discovery, especially since neither has areas with extensive previous archaeological surveys (see Table 6). The built environment of each CBA is different, however, with CBA 7 following a new alignment and CBA 10 covering areas adjacent to the existing I-77/I-81 alignment that involve some disturbance from frontage roads and commercial structures. Given this, the total disturbed area within CBA 10 is significantly greater than in CBA 7 (see Table 6). Approximately 175.15 acres (25.47 percent of the total area) within CBA 10 appear to be disturbed. Approximately 60.68 acres (9.70 percent of the total area) within CBA 7 appear to be disturbed. The extent of disturbance in CBA 10 diminishes, to some extent, the potential for sites. However, key areas of site potential such as crossings of Reed
Creek with well-drained or moderately well-drained floodplain or terrace soils do not appear to be entirely disturbed.

The potential for sites affecting decision making, which would involve Woodland or Protohistoric Period villages that may include complex features and human burials, is related to the presence of Reed Creek crossings with floodplain or terrace areas comprised of well-drained or moderately well-drained soils. Such areas are present in both CBAs, but are more numerous and extensive in CBA 7. One previously recorded site within CBA7 and adjacent to CBA 10, 44WY0239, is a possible village site that may contain Woodland and Protohistoric period components. The site is situated on a cultivated terrace above a broad Reed Creek floodplain in an area of moderately well-drained soils. The current survey-level site information in O’Neal (2004) is insufficient to estimate the potential for human burials, but review of the study area indicates that five previously recorded sites have been described as possible Woodland village sites with human burials. These occur on broad floodplains or terraces of Reed Creek. Human burials within village areas is a documented aspect of Late Woodland settlement patterns in southwestern Virginia (Boyd and Boyd 1992). Given the presence of 44WY0239 in CBA 7 and the extent of additional well-drained and moderately well-drained floodplain and terrace areas in CBA 7, the potential for sites affecting decision making is ranked high. For CBA 10, the potential is only moderate. CBA 10 skirts the landform with 44WY0239 and has fewer well-drained or moderately well-drained floodplain or terrace areas.
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