

**CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF
THE SPERO TRACT,
GREENVILLE COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 520

CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF THE SPERO TRACT, GREENVILLE COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 520



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ABSTRACT

This study reports on a cultural resources survey of a 14 acre tract located in the northwest portion of Greenville County, South Carolina, just north of Travelers Rest. The work was conducted to assist Mr. Jeff DeWitt of SPERO Corporation comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract is bordered by a hospital to the east, a row of houses along Park Avenue and Geer Highway (SC 276) to the north, and a sewage disposal pond to the south. The surrounding area is somewhat rural, but being developed quickly into neighborhoods.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tract, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be on the project tract.

A cultural resource assessment (CRA) was performed on the property in January of 2009 by New South Associates (Adams and Young 2009). In a conversation with the client, Mr. DeWitt stated that he had spoken to Mr. Chuck Cantley of the State Historic Preservation Office who said that the Area of Potential Effect (APE) was the property itself. Given this information, Chicora's background research was confined to the 14 acre property (as had been the earlier CRA).

The investigation included background research on ArchSite to check for any National Register properties, archaeological sites, buildings and structures that are eligible for the National

Register, and areas previously surveyed for cultural resources. As a result, site 38GR347 - identified during the CRA, was found on the property. The site was described as a "mid-late twentieth century historic period house site" (site form by Ms. Stacey Young, 2009). Since no shovel testing was performed, additional work was recommended before a NRHP eligibility could be made.

A cartographic survey for Greenville County (Trinkley et al. 1995) was also referred to in performing background research. A local had identified artifacts on the eastern property line of the tract, however no information concerning the site was given.

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects that were placed at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the contents assessed. A total of 81 shovel tests, which included testing of the site, were excavated along nine transect lines.

The originally identified site (38GR347) was intensively tested during this survey. No additional sites were identified during the study. Site 38GR347 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

Finally, it is possible that other archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in

36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Jeff DeWitt of SPERO Corporation. The work was conducted to assist the client with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The study consists of a tract of about 14 acres located in northwest Greenville County, just north of Travelers Rest (Figure 1). This is an area of limited development, although several neighborhoods and businesses are increasing in the area. The tract is bounded by a hospital to the east, houses along Park Avenue and Geer Highway (SC 276) to the north and sewage desposal ponds to the south (Figure 2).

drained soils and exhibits ridge tops and side slopes suitable for habitation. A low elevation area is located through the middle of the property, which has collected soils from the eroding ridges at the north and south ends of the tract.

The tract is being considered for use as a senior care center. This is likely to include clearing, grubbing, grading, below ground placement of infrastructure such as water and other utilities, and above grade construction. It is possible that construction activities will produce at least short-term increases in traffic, noise, and dust-levels. These actions all have the potential to affect above and below grade cultural resources that may be present on the tract.

Most of the property consists of well

We were contacted by Mr. Jeff DeWitt of

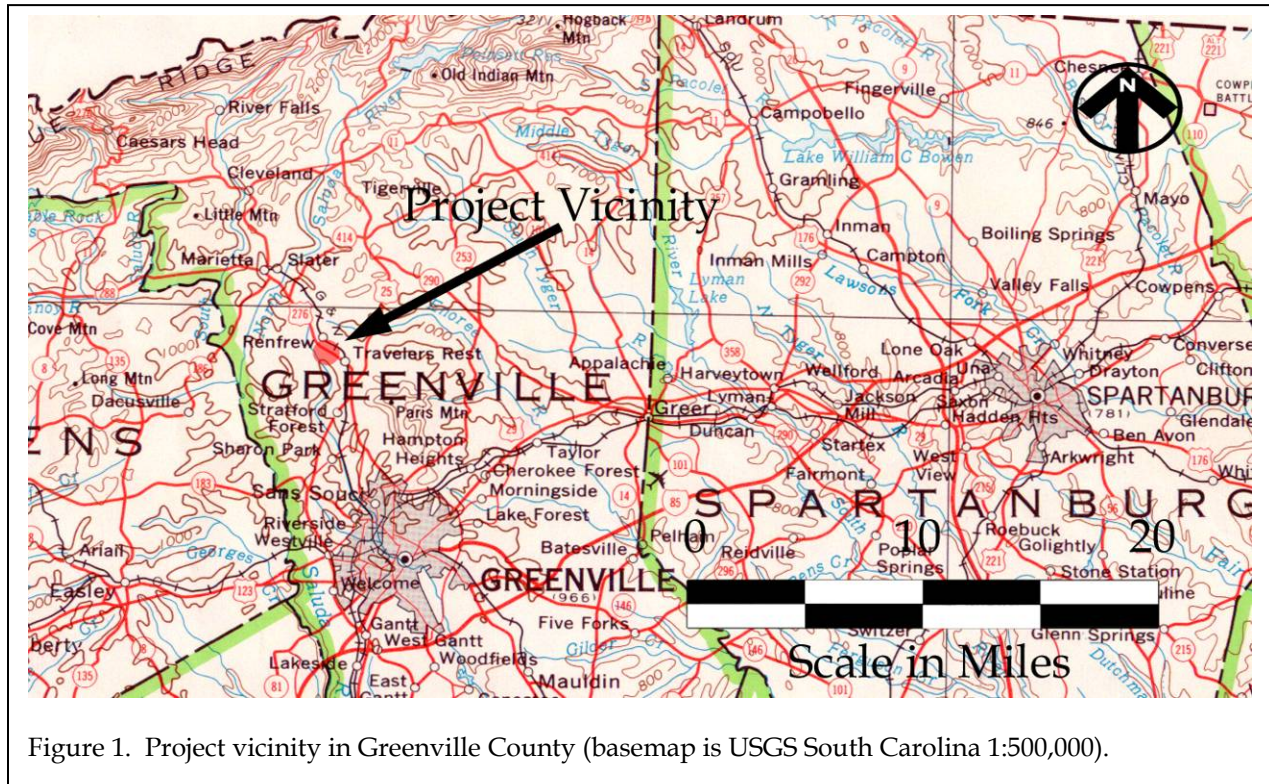


Figure 1. Project vicinity in Greenville County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

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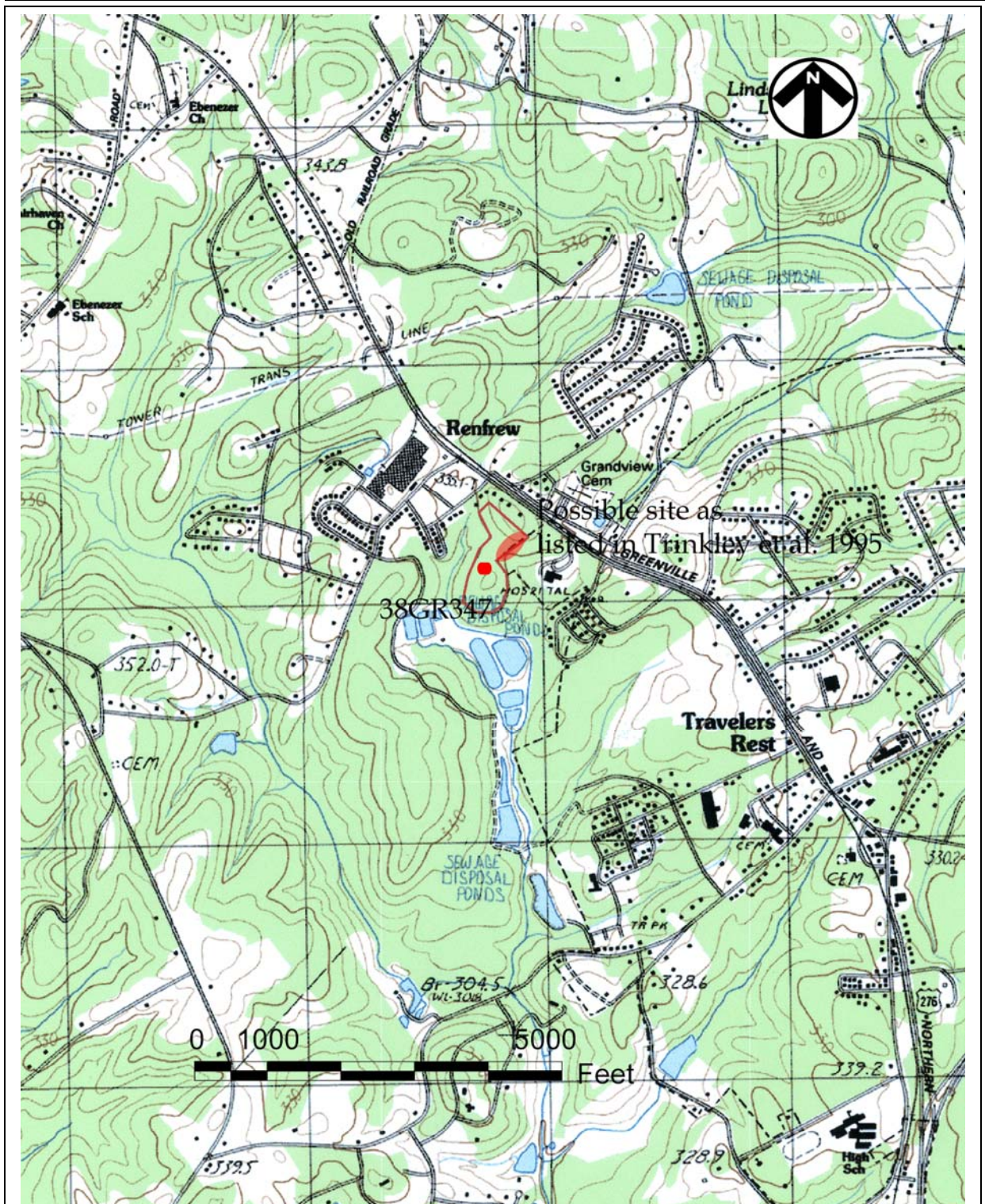


Figure 2. Project Area with previously identified archaeological site (basemap is USGS Paris Mountain 7.5').

INTRODUCTION

SPERO Corporation on March 10, 2009 with a request to provide a proposal for an intensive survey of the tract. This proposal for the work was sent on March 14. The initial size of the property was about 36 acres, however the client had spoken with Mr. Chuck Cantley at the SHPO who said only the high ground needed to be investigated. An updated proposal for the newly formed 14 acre property was sent on September 9, 2009. The proposal was approved on September 16 with initial work beginning on September 21. The field survey was completed on September 28, 2009.

Initial background investigations included an examination of previously recorded archaeological and architectural sites on ArcSite. One site, 38GR347, was recorded on the property from the CRA performed by New South Associates in January 2009 (Adams and Young 2009). The cartographic survey for Greenville County (Trinkley et al. 1995) also identified a possible site, identified by a local, along the eastern boundary of the property. No additional information was given about the site. In discussions between our client and Mr. Chuck Cantley at the SHPO, Mr. Cantley stated that the APE was the tract itself, so no additional research was performed for the surrounding area.

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

The archaeological field survey was conducted on September 28, 2009 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Mr. Travis Woods under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. The investigation tested the previously identified site (38GR347) on the property, but failed to identify any additional sites.

This report details the intensive investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiographic Province

The project tract is located in the northwestern portion of Greenville County, northwest of the city of Greenville and just north of Travelers Rest. The bulk of Greenville County falls within the Piedmont physiographic province, although the northern one-quarter is found in the Blue Ridge Mountains.

The general slope of the terrain in the county is southeastward, which is the general direction of the major drainages within the County, such as the Reedy River. The south edge of the tract borders sewage disposal ponds that were once tributaries of the Reedy River.

The land ranges from nearly level to steep, but most areas are gently sloping to moderately steep. Like elsewhere in the Piedmont, the drainages form a dendritic pattern and throughout the Piedmont, the terrain has been extensively dissected and degraded.

Elevations range from about 750 to 850 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) most of the county, although in the Blue Ridge Mountains to the north, elevations rise up to nearly 3,300 feet AMSL. Being in the upper Piedmont just south of the mountains, elevations in the project area range from about 1,050 to 1,115 feet AMSL. The highest elevation of the tract occurs in the south near the identified site, 38GR347.

Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont are gneiss and schist,

with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively meta-morphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In Greenville County there are eight geologic formations ranging from alluvium recently deposited on the floodplains through fine-grained rocks that are diabase dikes that cut across formations of granite and gneiss to coarse-grained rocks such as muscovite pegmatite dikes. This geologic diversity promotes both floristic and topographic diversity.

The study tract includes three soil series: Cecil, Cartecay, and Toccoa - with Cecil and Toccoa soils being well drained and Cartecay soils being somewhat poorly drained (Camp 1975). The Cecil soils, which cover about 96% of the project area, range in slope from 6 to 15%. The soil profile

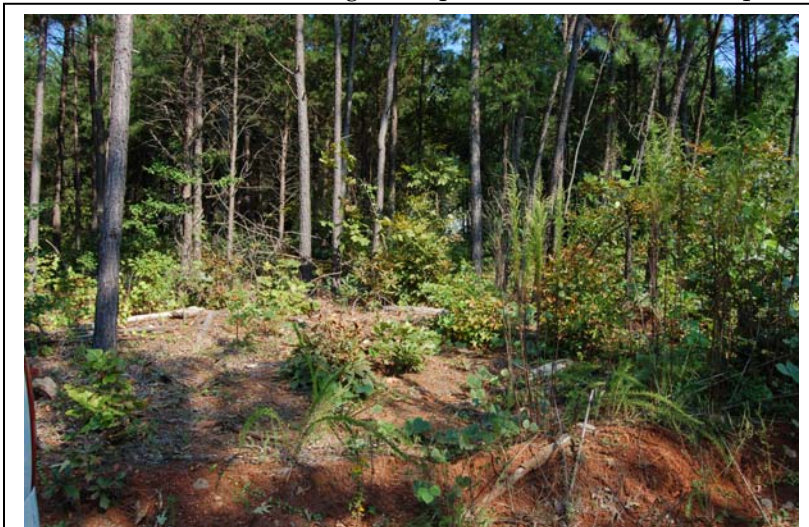


Figure 3. View of mixed pine and hardwood forest on the tract.

consists of an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot over a red (10YR4/8) clay that extends to about 1.1 feet in depth.

The remaining small area of the tract is



Figure 4. View of kudzu at the entrance of the property.

covered in a mixture of Cartecay and Toccoa soils. Cartecay soils have an Ap horizon of brown (10YR4/3) loam to a depth of 0.8 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR5/4) loam extending to 1.5 feet in depth. Toccoa soils have an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 1.0 foot in depth over a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/6) loam to 1.8 feet in depth.

In the early nineteenth century, Robert Mills observed that Greenville County soils were:

Various, embracing the sandy, clayey, gravelly, and stony character. Its productiveness is regulated by circumstances of position and culture: most of the land being capable of yielding a generous product in proportion to the industry bestowed by the cultivator. It is well adapted to

the culture of all the small grains and corn. . . . The quantity of wheat produced to the acre, averages about 12 bushels; of corn 25 bushels; of clean cotton 125 pounds per acre (Mills 1972[1826]: 572).

As discussed in more detail below, this was an area of yeoman farmers who placed little pressure on the soils during the early nineteenth century. Prior to the Civil War, however, the population increased, transportation improved, and cotton began to be planted in earnest. With cotton came, for the first time, abandonment, erosion, and gullies.

By 1859, John Logan remarked that the Enoree River, separating Greenville and Spartanburg counties, “is now a turbid stream discolored by the dissolving clay of a wasted soil” (Logan 1859: 237). After the Civil War, cotton was seen as the only salvation of the Southern farmer. Between 1870 and 1880 the acreage of tilled land doubled in the area just below the Blue Ridge. After 1900, erosion became acute because of rising cotton prices that culminated in the agricultural “war boom” during World War I. By 1910, what virgin land remained, even in steep areas, was being cleared for cotton cultivation.

These agricultural practices brought the same disastrous soil losses in this region as already experienced in other sections of South Carolina. Lowry (1934) found significant portions of Greenville County suffering from severe sheet

erosion and occasional gullies. Trimble found nearly 0.9 foot of soil had eroded off most of Greenville County, largely as a result of postbellum cotton farming (Trimble 1974: 15). A study of erosion in the vicinity of the Spartanburg Municipal Reservoir Watershed, located on the South Pacolet River about 13 miles north of Spartanburg, provides some comparative information since both Spartanburg and Greenville counties suffered similar erosional histories. The authors of the study remark that:

nearly all the land in the watershed has been affected by erosion or erosional debris. . . . A little more than 17 percent of the land has been severely or very severely eroded, having lost at least three-fourth of the surface soil [estimated to be from 8 to 36 inches of soil loss] or slightly less than three-fourths of the surface soil from areas with frequent gullies. Slightly more than 42 percent have been affected by erosion designated as moderate to severe. Damage has been most severe on the cultivated Cecil soils on slopes of 7 percent and over. Erosion is moderate to severe, severe, or very severe on 88.6 of the cropland (Bass and Martin 1940: 12).

It is ironic that the crop that made textile mills hum was the same crop that depleted the soil, forcing farmers off the land and into the mill.

Climate

In the nineteenth century, Mills described the climate of Greenville as:

one of the most delightful in the world. The lands are well drained, and the major part sufficiently far removed from the mountains, not to be affected by

the vapors; yet near enough to partake of their refreshing coolness in summer, and protection from the cold northern blasts in winter (Mills 1972[1826]: 575).

Indeed, most of Greenville County does have a temperate climate characterized by mild winters and warm summers, at least by our standards. Winter temperatures, however, frequently hover between the low fifties and freezing, while in the summer, temperatures will frequently be in the upper 80s to mid-90s. with nearly 3000 heating degree days¹, Greenville can be considered cold, especially if you are in a poorly constructed, uninsulated wood frame house.

During the fall, winter, and spring the weather is controlled largely by the west to east motion of fronts and air masses. Air exchanges are less frequent in the summer and maritime tropical air can persist in the region for relatively long periods – giving rise to very warm, humid days. Precipitation is well distributed throughout the year and averages around 50 inches, adequate for a wide range of crops. For most of Greenville County the average growing season is between 210 and 200 days.

Floristics

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). Most common are white oaks, black oaks, and red oaks, although a wide range of additional species may be found including hickories, loblolly and shortleaf pines, black gum, and sweetgum. In low areas beech, ash, hickories, and birch may replace the oaks and at the water's edge there may

¹ A "degree day" is a measurement of heating requirement. It represents the difference between each day's mean temperature and 65°F, the temperature below which houses are assumed to need heat. For example, if a winter's day mean temperature (highest + lowest / 2) equals 45°, then its degree-day total for that day would be 20 degree days.

be willows and alders. The Piedmont diversity is largely related to variations in the moisture content and fertility of the soils. Barry, expressing the attitude of many, remarks that:

the present aspect of piedmont landscape has doubtless come about as a result of one or more erosion cycles. These cycles have left us with an area as complex as anyone would like to make it, yet an area which, for a layman's viewpoint, is relatively unimpressive (Barry 1980: 61).

Mills, in the nineteenth century, remarked that Greenville had "short leafed pine, poplar, chestnut, white, red, and Spanish oak, some curled maple, black walnut, and wild cherry" (Mills 1972[1826]: 574), suggesting that the vegetation has remained relatively stable for the past several hundred years.

Vegetation within the project area today consists of a mixed pine and hardwood forest. To the north along the entrance to the tract has been overtaken by kudzu.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Previous Research

The Piedmont has been the focus of considerable archaeological research. Derting et al. (1991), for example, cite 101 studies specific to Greenville County prior to 1991. Two-thirds of these (n=66) are associated with highway projects, eight represent sewer improvements, two are other types of compliance projects, and the remaining five represent various other non-compliance related projects. Consequently, while there is no denying that much work has been done in the county, relatively little of it involves significant research.

As a result, there is no single synthesis of the area's archaeology. Perhaps the most thorough overview specific to the area is the survey of the Laurens-Anderson highway connector (Goodyear et al. 1979). In this study, the bulk of the prehistoric sites were low density Archaic Period lithic scatters found in the uplands along the larger streams. This provides a basic model for site location that is largely supported by the work of Rodeffer et al. (1979) in nearby Greenwood County where reconnaissance level studies identified 358 archaeological sites. Of these, 295 contained prehistoric components, while 167 contained historic components.

In addition, the Paleoindian and Early Archaic is carefully explored by a variety of authors in an edited volume by Anderson and Sassaman (1996). These same researchers have also explored the Middle and Late Archaic (Sassaman and Anderson 1994). The Woodland and Mississippian is less well researched for the Piedmont, although Anderson (1994) does provide a generalized overview.

Historic site location is more difficult to gauge given the scarcity of work in the area. In

general, researchers have found in neighboring areas the earliest occupations were located on rivers, but as the eighteenth century progressed, creeks were also a focus of settlement. During the nineteenth century, settlement became more road oriented (see Brooks and Crass 1991).

Trinkley et al. (1995: 99-159) provide a detailed overview of Greenville archaeology, the temporal periods, the types of sites anticipated for the county, and their projected locations. Readers are referred to that document for additional information. In fact, this publication shows the potential for an archaeological site on the current property identified by local Wes Breedlove.

Prehistoric Overview

In the Carolina Piedmont, lithic scatters are the most common type of prehistoric site encountered. Goodyear et al. (1979:131-145) found that lithic scatter sites located in the inter-riverine Piedmont were geographically extensive and exhibited little artifact diversity. These sites have been interpreted as:

limited or specialized activity sites which represent resource exploitation or other distinct functions. Nearly all investigators working in the Piedmont have related these sites to activities involving hunting, nut gathering, and procuring of lithic raw materials (Canouts and Goodyear 1985:185).

Although the vast majority of these sites are located in eroded areas and exhibit little to no subsurface integrity, Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue that they have analytical value. This value lies in their horizontal rather than vertical

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dimensions. They argue that:

[f]uture investigators of upland site must effect broad-scale spatial analyses comparable to the temporal analyses effected through excavation of deeply stratified sites. Both endeavors are necessary, and neither is sufficient for the total

understanding of Piedmont prehistory" (Canouts and Goodyear 1985: 193).

One observation that Canouts and Goodyear (1985) made is that lithic raw material ratios change through time. For instance, at the Gregg Shoals site in Elbert County, Georgia, the Early Archaic assemblage reflects greater use of non-local cryptocrystalline materials and the Late

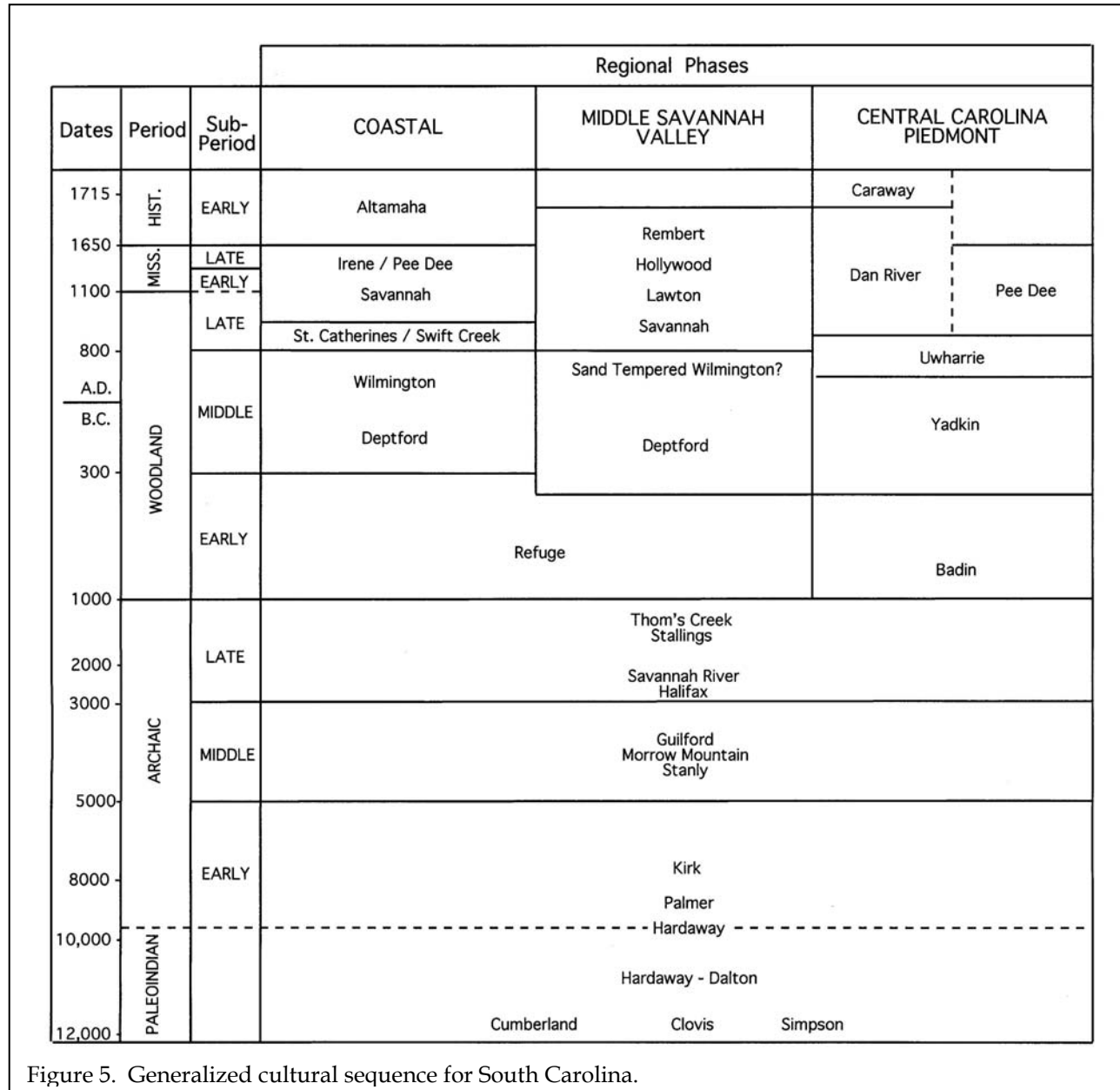


Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

Archaic, greater use of non-quartz local material (see Tippitt and Marquardt 1981). Examination of changing use of lithic resources will help archaeologists better understand issues such as the extent of seasonal rounds, trade networks, and social organization. Clearly, the discussions by Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue strongly for a higher regard for the "lowly" lithic scatter – a very common occurrence in the Piedmont.

Figure 5 provides an overview of the cultural sequence commonly found in the Carolina Piedmont.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Points usually associated with this period include the Clovis and several variants, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton (Goodyear et al. 1989:36-38).

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

Very little work in the state has been able to focus on Paleoindian settlements because of the rarity of the site type. No evidence was found for Paleoindian occupation in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine area, which is not surprising since elsewhere in the state these sites are usually found clustered along major drainages and their tributaries which is interpreted by Michie

(1977:124) to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna."

One site identified in the Sumter National Forest (Price 1992), in neighboring Laurens County, is believed to have a possible Paleoindian component (38LU317). It is situated on a ridge saddle adjacent to a spring, which feeds into the Enoree River, located only about 0.3 miles to the north. This fits well with previous arguments that Paleoindian sites will be located adjacent to major drainages.

Anderson (1992:32) suggests that the comparatively low density of Paleoindian diagnostics in South Carolina may be because the state could have been on the edge of the ranges of groups centered in other areas. He suggests that permanent settlements elsewhere probably occurred later in the Paleoindian period, only when population levels had grown appreciably in these centers. This would help to explain the overlap in stylistic traditions (such as the Clovis, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton) observed in South Carolina which perhaps resulted from populations expanding outward from these centers.

Archaic Period

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to as late as 500 B.C. in the Piedmont, does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched, side-notched, and broad stemmed projectile points, are common in the vicinity, although they rarely are found in good, well-preserved contexts (for a thorough discussion of the Early Archaic, see Anderson and Sassaman 1996, while Anderson and Joseph 1988 offer a review of prehistoric archaeology along the upper Savannah River).

Prehistoric sites in the Piedmont inter-riverine zones are for the most part characterized

as "upland lithic scatters" (House and Wogaman 1978:xii). These sites are shallow deposits without stratigraphic definition, contain a diversity of artifacts, and are commonly disturbed by plowing and/or erosion (Canouts and Goodyear 1985; Trinkley and Caballero 1983:27).

Early Archaic

During the Laurens-Anderson study (Goodyear et al. 1979), four sites with Early Archaic components were identified. Each of these sites contained a single example of Dalton¹ points or probable Dalton preforms made of indigenous Piedmont quartz. The following Palmer phase was found to be very common in the area and was represented by 28 sites. While most of the specimens were manufactured from the local quartz, some were manufactured from Coastal Plain chert from the Flint River formation located in the lower coastal plain of South Carolina and Georgia. There were also examples of metavolcanic rhyolite from the Carolina Slate Belt and what may be "Ridge and Valley chert" from eastern Tennessee.

At these sites a wide range of tool types were identified including a large number of unifacial and flake tools believed to be associated with the Early Archaic occupation. Goodyear et al. (1979:197) found that while Early Archaic sites with unifaces were found throughout the corridor, sites on ridgetops which were large watershed divides produced higher counts. They believe that the large number of sites producing Palmer points is related to environmental changes at that time. The large diversity in lithic raw material provided information regarding their "mobility patterns and regions of interactions" (Goodyear et al. 1979:198).

Anderson and Hanson's (1988) band/macroband model of Early Archaic settlement was formulated primarily to evaluate

data from the Savannah River basin. In the Savannah River Valley, settlement organization of the Early Archaic people was "characterized by the use of a logistically provisioned seasonal base camp or camps during the winter, and a series of short-term foraging camps throughout the remainder of the year" (Anderson 1992:36). During the early spring, the groups are believed to have moved toward the coast, then back into the upper coastal plain and piedmont during the later spring, summer, and early fall. During the winter they returned to their base camp incorporating some side trips to other drainages for aggregation events by groups from two or more different drainages. These aggregation sites are believed to have been located on Fall Line river terraces (Anderson 1989a:36). One example of a postulated base camp is the G.S. Lewis site at the Savannah River Site. This site is located on a ridge adjacent to the confluence of Upper Three Runs Creek and the Savannah River. Given this scenario for the Savannah River basin (which likely applies to other river basins), Early Archaic sites in the Piedmont were likely occupied from summer until fall and don't include aggregation sites. Anderson and Hanson (1988) place the Upper Piedmont in the Saluda/Broad macroband settlement system. At the band level, they proposed "co-residential population aggregates" consisting of 50 to 150 people that occupied and moved primarily within one drainage basin. They projected that individual macroband population was between 500 and 1500 people. They also formulated a spatial model for the distribution of individual bands over the South Atlantic Slope.

Anderson (1989b) notes that data from the Savannah River Site and the Richard B. Russell Reservoir "suggest that a decline in utilization of the Coastal Plain may have occurred at the same time as an increase in utilization of the Piedmont [and] may be a part of a trend noted in the terminal Early Archaic in the general region. Settlement patterning in any given area was thus likely shaped by a range of variables, such as local resource structure, as well as by more regional trends in climate, population density, and these

¹ Some researchers (see, for instance, Anderson 1992) classify Dalton as Paleoindian while others (Goodyear et al. 1989) classify it as Archaic.

patterns apparently changed appreciably over time" (Anderson 1992:39). Data from the Laurens-Anderson study and the Savannah River project suggests that inter-riverine sites will be found on hills between watershed divides and riverine sites will be located on knolls adjacent to a major confluence.

Middle Archaic

Morrow Mountain and Guilford points constituted the primary evidence for Middle Archaic (5000 to 3000 B.C.) occupation in the Laurens-Anderson corridor (Goodyear et al. 1979). Morrow Mountain constituted the vast bulk of these projectile points and were present in both the I and II varieties.² Over 95% of the 145 points were manufactured from the local quartz, which parallels other findings in Piedmont South Carolina. Guilford was not nearly as prominent and consisted of 35 finished specimens or preforms, all of which were manufactured from quartz.³

The Middle Archaic period was found to consist of the largest number of sites. In terms of geographic distribution, Goodyear et al. (1979) found that the Morrow Mountain phase was much like the Palmer phase, with sites occurring on ridges between watersheds. However, the almost

² Coe (1964) describes Morrow Mountain I as a small triangular blade with a short pointed stem, while the Morrow Mountain II is described as a long narrow blade with a long tapered stem. While he describes them as different types, he notes that many people have chosen not distinguish between the two.

³ Preforms represent an intermediate stage between flakes from secondary cores and quarry blades. Some are worked bifacially, although most are unifacial and still retain the platform and bulb of percussion. Quarry blades are usually bifacially worked and are made to allow easy transportation of lithic materials until the time it is needed to be made into a projectile point. Some researchers have used the terms preform and quarry blade interchangeably, meaning the bifacially worked ovate blade.

complete reliance on local quartz separates the Morrow Mountain and Guilford phase sharply from the earlier Palmer phase. They suggest that "[t]he large number of Middle Archaic sites well dispersed through the inter-riverine areas and the abundant nature of chipped quartz remains on these sites suggest frequent movement and activity throughout the Piedmont of South Carolina" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). Data from early reservoir projects (see, for example, Wauchope 1966) as well as inter-riverine observations by Caldwell (1954; 1958) and Coe (1952) made it clear that there were sharp contrasts between riverine and inter-riverine sites in terms of artifact diversity and density, and in the use of shellfish (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:134). With the advent of cultural resource management in the 1970s, additional data was available and further emphasized these differences. All of this data indicated that the largest and densest sites were located along large rivers, and that small, sparse sites were found throughout the uplands. While these differences were clear, what remained unclear was the relationship between riverine and inter-riverine sites in a settlement-subsistence system, and how, if at all, this system changed over time (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:135).

House and Ballenger studied this issue during their survey work on the proposed Interstate 77 project in 1976. They classified riverine zones of containing only the largest rivers while inter-riverine zones consisted of smaller rivers and streams. House and Ballenger (1976) argued that streams with a ranking of 3 or higher⁴

⁴ According to the system, based on Strahler (1964) 1st order streams are the fingertip tributaries at the head of a stream and may either be year-round or seasonally flowing streams. A 2nd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 1st order streams. A 3rd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 2nd order streams, etc. This system requires that at least two streams of a given order be joined to form a stream of the next highest order. The main stem of a river will always have the highest order.

contained resources that were not abundant in the uplands (fish, turtle, raccoon, etc.), whereas smaller streams had a higher density of deer and nut masts. The resulting archaeological assemblages from these distinct areas should, themselves, be distinct (House and Ballenger 1976; Sassaman and Anderson 1994). They divided their sites into habitation and extraction sites⁵ using a lithic tool classification scheme that would allow functional sorting of the two site types. From the information gathered using this analysis, coupled with data on the seasonal availability of resources, they created a Middle and Late Archaic settlement model:

involving spring and summer residence along major rivers; a move to seasonal base camps in upland creek valleys in September to take advantage of deer concentration in upland hardwood zones, with some exploitation of other resources as well; and then a return to riverine-located winter quarters with permanent houses in about December when the coldest months arrived, the deer rutting season came to an end, and the acorn mast in the hardwood forests began to be exhausted (House and Ballenger 1976:117).

The Windy Ridge site (House and Wogaman 1978), while fitting the expected upland site profile as proposed by House and Ballenger (1976), may have been used as a habitation site during the Middle Archaic. Other projects also complicated the model. Work in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir (Anderson and Schuldenrein

1985; Tippett and Marquardt 1981) examined a number of sites with Morrow Mountain components. Interestingly, none of these riverine sites produced denser or more diverse remains than did inter-riverine sites. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were not using the riverine and inter-riverine areas much differently in this part of the state (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:137).

Sassaman (1983) attempted to more closely examine Middle and Late Archaic settlement patterns by examining sites from a number of piedmont studies. He found that Middle Archaic settlement in the South Carolina Piedmont did not fit the riverine-inter-riverine model. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were much more mobile, perhaps moving residences every few weeks which fit Binford's (1980) definition of a foraging society. Binford (1980) proposed that foragers had high levels of residential mobility, moving camps often to take advantage of dispersed, but similar resource patches. Collectors stayed in one location longer, by sending out specialized work parties to exploit resources in widely dispersed and distinct resource patches. He believed that differences in environmental structure could be traced to large scale climactic factors. He further noted that a collector system could arise under any conditions that limited the ability of hunter-gatherers to relocate residences. During his work in the Haw River area of North Carolina, Cable (1982) argued that postglacial warming at the end of the Pleistocene led to increased vegetational homogeneity which encouraged foraging.⁶

Sassaman (1983) suggests that this indicates a large degree of homogeneity of the piedmont environments. They also had a high degree of social flexibility, allowing them to pick up and move when needed. This high level of

⁵ An extraction site is an area where resources (such as fish, lithic raw material, etc.) were obtained and is often represented by lithic debitage and perhaps small camp sites. A habitation site is a seasonal or temporary camp where these resources were usually consumed, used, or worked.

⁶ Since the vegetation was homogeneous and there were no concentrations of resources people moved from place to place foraging rather than settling near or in these resource concentrations.

mobility did not allow them to transport much material, which in turn, alleviated the need for elaborate or specialized tools to procure and process resources at locations distant from camp. Since quartz is practically everywhere in the piedmont, tools could be easily replaced and were expedient. The high mobility and the expediency of tools help to explain the abundance of Middle Archaic sites in the piedmont without having to imply a population explosion. Sassaman called this model the "Adaptive Flexibility" model (Sassaman 1983; Sassaman and Anderson 1994).

Late Archaic

Savannah River Stemmed and Otarre⁷ stemmed points are the primary indicators of Late Archaic settlement in the Laurens-Anderson study area. Ten Savannah River phase sites and seven Otarre phase sites were identified. Quartz tools, which were found in overwhelming abundance at earlier sites, consisted only of about 57% of the Savannah River assemblage. Other materials included "silicates, volcanic slate/argillite, and unknown igneous/metamorphic" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). The Otarre assemblage reflected a trend away from igneous/metamorphic rock, with a concentration of quartz and siliceous materials. The incorporation of more types of lithic raw material as well as the fact that Late Archaic diagnostics are much fewer than Middle Archaic diagnostic artifacts indicates a sharp decrease in residential mobility.

Many of these Late Archaic sites produced fire cracked rock which was found on major ridges between watersheds. Goodyear et al. (1979:209-210) found that the inter-riverine picture of the Late Archaic contrasted quite sharply with river sites. Artifacts at riverine sites were diverse and included steatite vessels and netsinkers⁸, ground

stone axes, rock mortars and handstones, atlatl weights, and chipped stone drills. In the upland sites, the assemblage consists almost entirely of chipped stone bifaces and debitage. Purrington (1983) also noted this trend for the mountain region of North Carolina. At the Savannah River Plant, both riverine and upland sites contained a full range of tools, but no architectural features have been located.

Soapstone became an important lithic resource in the Late Archaic period for manufacturing of cooking vessels, and a number of soapstone quarries have been identified in Spartanburg and Cherokee counties (Ferguson 1976). Unfortunately, little is known about patterns in local soapstone use, although Elliott (1981) argues that soapstone exchange in the upcountry was facilitated by local reciprocal relationships. Soapstone was also probably used as a mechanism to maintain long distance relationships through long distance trade. Sassaman et al. state that:

[c]ompared to sites in the upper and lower reaches of the Coastal Plain, a higher proportion of sites in the middle portion of the plain contain soapstone artifacts. This may indicate that soapstone distributions were not merely the result of distance-decay from sources, but were much more dependent on the social composition of exchange alliances (Sassaman et al. 1988:90).

For the Late Archaic, John White (1982) also applied a riverine/inter-riverine dichotomy. He demonstrated that riverine sites were much

⁷ According to Oliver (1981) the Otarre type is contemporaneous with the Savannah River stemmed type and fall within the category of "Small Savannah River Stemmed".

⁸ Sassaman (1991:87-88) states that "perforated

and grooved objects are common items in Late Archaic assemblages of the Savannah River Valley. Both the grooved and perforated varieties have been referred to as "netsinkers", but the more common perforated slave was apparently used as a cooking stone."

more dense and diverse than inter-riverine sites, but also identified the existence of diverse and sometimes dense assemblages at upland sites. He argued that they were habitation camps during periods of seasonal dispersal from riverine aggregation bases.

Although Steven Savage (1989) has proposed a "Late Archaic Landscape" model, a number of researchers (i.e. Anderson 1989a; Cable 1994; and Rafferty 1992) have noted that his study was seriously flawed by the "misappropriation of data from the Richard B. Russell survey" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142). The purpose of the work was to attempt to apply the locational methods of GIS to the analysis of Late Archaic social systems in the Upper Savannah River Valley. However, he only chose to use early intensive survey data and ignored subsequent data from testing and excavation. In addition, he chose to ignore problems such as multicomponentcy and representativeness (Cable 1994). Although it was considered a noteworthy study since it was the first to use Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for the analysis of settlement distribution, "the errors detract from the potential value of Savage's approach" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142).

Woodland Period

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast and much later in the Carolina Piedmont, about 500 B.C. Regardless, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of

band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter.

Early Woodland

Brooks and Hanson (1987) noted significant changes in the density and distribution of upland tributary sites during the Woodland period in the Steel Creek area of the Savannah River Plant. Brooks proposed that as tributary associated habitats became more productive with floodplain maturation that upland tributary terraces became areas of more permanent occupation. For the Savannah River area, the data suggested to Brooks that annual settlement ranges in the Early Woodland period were restricted to tributary watersheds (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Artifacts typical of the Early Woodland in the Upper Piedmont consist of Dunlap and Swannanoa ceramics (similar to the Kellogg focus of Northern Georgia). The Dunlap series is characterized by a medium to coarse sand paste, fabric impressions, and vessels with a simple jar or cup form. The Swannanoa ceramics, with heavy crushed quartz temper, are cord marked or fabric impressed conical jars and simple bowls. Other surface treatments consist of simple stamping, check stamping, and smoothed plain (Keel 1976:230). Early Woodland projectile point types consist of Savannah River Stemmed (and its variants) and Swannanoa Stemmed.

Land use during the Early Woodland period in some areas of the Piedmont suggests extensive use of the inter-riverine zone. Two sites (one in Greenville County and one in Laurens County) contained dense remains and were located on the south face of a slope adjacent to springs. Goodyear et al. (1979:230) suggest that these sites "reflect a fall-winter occupation period with subsistence activities primarily related to nut gathering and deer hunting. If these two sites in fact represent fall-winter base camps it would

represent a strong break with previous Archaic systems and their settlement strategies for exploiting inter-riverine biotic resources". Based on these previous studies, Early Woodland sites are most likely to be found adjacent to springs or the upland terraces of tributaries.

Middle Woodland

The Middle Woodland period is found "virtually lacking" in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine zone. One densely occupied site in adjacent Laurens County was found in an unusually large floodplain of a rank 2 stream. Goodyear et al. state that:

[g]iven the habitation like character of this site, plus the large number of simple stamped bearing floodplain sites along larger streams such as the Reedy River, it is tempting to see agriculture playing a role in the apparent re-orientation to floodplain environments during the middle Woodland period in the Piedmont environment. In this regard, the middle Woodland period sites and their locations would seem to presage the late prehistoric Mississippian period pattern during the latter, where large agriculturally related villages were constructed along fertile stretches of floodplain (Goodyear et al. 1979:230-231).

This new pattern is also reflected in the Savannah River Valley where Savannah terrace sites at the mouth of Upper Three Runs Creek were being occupied again for intensive settlement. Midden accumulations at several sites indicate long term occupation or repeated occupations of these sites by relatively large groups (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Pottery typical of the Middle Woodland in

the Upper Piedmont consists of the Pigeon and Cartersville series. Pigeon is quartz tempered with surface treatments of check stamping, simple stamping, and brushing. The Cartersville type is characterized by sand or grit paste with the primary surface treatment being cordmarking, although there are also check stamped and simple stamped varieties. The Cartersville series is thought to be closely related to the Deptford series on the Coast. Anderson and Schuldenrein (1985:720) suggest that Cartersville continues well into the Late Woodland period. Projectile points typically found in association with this pottery are the Pigeon Side Notched and Corner Notched types.

Testing at 38LU107 (Wood and Gresham 1981) demonstrated that one of the most intensive occupations of this multicomponent site was during the Middle Woodland period. This site is located on a knoll adjacent to South Rabon Creek, near its confluence with North Rabon Creek. A number of features were encountered including a large, deep pit, post holes, and a stone hearth. This indicated that even sites on plowed knolls can and do produce subsurface features.

Since the Middle Woodland period reflects a new pattern of settlement, questions regarding how quickly this change occurred and how the transition to horticulture affected their material culture should be examined. Clearly, this change did not occur over night and perhaps examination of radiocarbon dates from upland and riverine sites during this transition period will begin to clarify questions regarding change in lifeways.

Late Woodland

Small triangular points which are generally believed to be diagnostic of the Late Woodland and Mississippian periods consisted of 12 examples in the Laurens-Anderson study. Ten of these were manufactured from quartz while the other two were manufactured from either rhyolite or a Piedmont silicate. These projectile

points were typed as "Mississippian triangulars" and included what they believed were Uwharrie or Pee Dee Triangular types and the Hamilton Incurvate Triangular type. Napier and Connestee Series pottery are typical Late Woodland types for the Upper Piedmont region. The Napier series is a fine sand tempered ware with fine complicated stamped designs. The Connestee series is a thin walled sand tempered ware with brushed or simple stamped surface decorations. There are also cordmarked, check stamped, fabric impressed, and plain varieties (Trinkley 1990).

According to Sassaman et al. (1990:317) Late Woodland occupations in the Savannah River Valley consisted of small habitation sites along all available terrace locations of both tributaries and the Savannah River. This increasing use of low-lying terraces suggests the increased exploitation of floodplain habitats, perhaps including maize agriculture, although no direct evidence has yet been found at the Savannah River Site.

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

Mississippian Period

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European

disease.⁹ The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers.

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

Very little evidence of Mississippian period occupation was found in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine survey area which is not surprising given the focus on riverine resources during this time period. Very little evidence of Mississippian occupation has been documented at the Savannah River Plant and no formal settlement-subsistence model has been created for this area (Sassaman et al. 1990:317). However, Anderson (1994) has provided a detailed examination of evidence for political change at Mississippian sites in the Savannah River Valley and should be consulted for more information.

Excavations at large Mississippian sites in

⁹ Small pox was a major cause of death to a large number of Native Americans during the historic period. The smallpox epidemics of 1734 and 1783 reportedly killed half of the Cherokee population (Hatley 1993).

the Upper Piedmont include work at the I.C. Few site which was examined as a part of the Keowee-Toxaway Reservoir project sponsored by Duke Power Company (Grange 1972). Simpson's Field (38AN8) on the Savannah River was also investigated during the Richard B. Russell Reservoir studies (Wood et al. 1986). Work at the Chauga site (38OC47) in nearby Oconee County evidenced occupation in the Early and Late Mississippian period. Ten stages of mound building were found at the site along with burials and palisades. There is evidence for increasing impoverishment of the residents through time, since burials associated with the latest phases of mound building contained fewer grave goods than earlier phases in both the occupation during the Early Mississippian and the Late Mississippian (Anderson 1994:303-305). Homes Hogue Wilson (1986) examined burials from the Warren Wilson site in western North Carolina and provided some preliminary conclusions regarding social structure based on location of burials according to age and sex. For instance, she found more males than females were buried under structure floors. These males included primarily those under 25 or over 35 years old. She also found that individuals buried inside of structures were more likely to have burial goods than those buried in public areas. Burial feature types included pit burials, side-chambered burials, and central-chambered burials. Studies such as this can give great insight into the social organization of prehistoric societies.

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

Historic Overview

Historical accounts of the territory encompassing the Piedmont began with the DeSoto expedition in 1540 (Swanton 1946). This area, referred to as the "Up Country" or "Back Country" interchangeably, was recognized by the Indians and the early settlers to be the hunting grounds of the Lower Cherokee (Logan 1859: 6). In these early years the principal source of interaction between the European settlers and the Cherokee involved a loosely organized trading network.

After the establishment of South Carolina as a British province in 1670, organization and delineation into more manageable territorial units began. In 1682, the Proprietors sectioned the new province into four counties. Present Greenville County was included in the largest of these. Colleton County remained as Indian land until 1776 (Kennedy 1940: 34). A further refinement of boundaries in 1769 saw the creation of the Ninety Six District, although Greenville (along with Pickens, Oconee, and Anderson counties) was not considered part of the Cherokee Lands. It was not until 1786 that Greenville County, taken from Cherokee during the American Revolution, was created.

The 1755 treaty between the Cherokee and Governor James Glen ceded nearly half of the territory of present South Carolina to the whites (Mills 1972[1826]: 604). An early and sparse influx of settlers from the north was composed mainly of cattlemen and Indian traders. These semi-permanent settlements were concentrated along the streams and rivers where land was both productive and easily cleared. Cattlemen constructed temporary "cowpens" and planted small sections of corn, grains, and produce for home consumption. Mills (1972[1826]: 571-572) reports that one of the earliest settlers of Greenville was Richard Pearis or Paris. Pearis operated a trading post and grist mill on the Reedy River overlooking a 15-foot fall, near the present Bowater Company building on Camperdown Way in downtown Greenville (see

also Building Conservation Technology 1981).

After the initial settlements of the 1750s the white population of the Up Country did not increase significantly until 1761, with the expulsion of the Native American population at the end of the Cherokee War. This created a second wave of immigration and settlement, spearheaded by farmers from the northern colonies of North Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. These settlers developed a self-sufficient economy based on planting flax, tobacco, corn, wheat, and oats, and raising cattle and hogs for their own use. Slaves were relatively uncommon until the early 1800s.

In this early period of European settlement there was little connection with the legal authorities on the coast (i.e., Charleston), leaving the Up Country largely autonomous. This led to the emergence of the Regulator Movement of the 1760s, a vigilante organization that attempted to maintain order and provide security through a system of courts and offices (Racine 1980: 13). By the eve of the Revolution, two-thirds of the South Carolina population lived in the Up Country (Racine 1980: 14).

By the onset of the American Revolution, the population of the Carolina Up Country was quite diverse in its ethnic, religious, and political backgrounds. These differences seemed to localize the hostilities between Whigs and Tories living side by side. Pearis, an avid Tory, lost his mill and home to Whig sympathizers, although the county saw relatively few skirmishes. In fact, the only two events of note were at the "Great Cane Break" on December 22, 1775, and at the headwater of the Tyger River in November 1781 (Lipscomb 1991).

The engagement at "the Brake of Canes" represents the culmination of what has become known as the "Snow Campaign." In early December 1775 the patriot leaders in South Carolina demanded an end to Loyalist activities in the Ninety Six District. Three thousand men were

placed under the command of Colonel Richard Richardson and they set off for the Up Country. By December 12 they captured Richard Pearis and eight other Tory leaders. By December 21 Richardson's command had swelled to 5,000 troops and he sent 1,300, under the command of Colonel William Thomson, to pursue other Loyalists into Indian Territory.

After marching all night they found the Loyalist camp at "the Brake of Canes," considered to be about 7 miles southwest of present-day Simpsonville. The patriots surrounded the camp and mounted a surprise attack at dawn on December 22. While the Loyalist leader Patrick Cunningham escaped, 130 prisoners were taken and marched back to the patriot camp (see Huff 1995: 22-23).

While this temporarily ended the Loyalist threat in the region, the Cherokees continued to support the British and engaged in a long campaign against settlers in the area. In response, the Cherokee faced at least seven major offensives before the Revolutionary War was over. Each attack was similar to the previous, with each one further reducing Cherokee food reserves and population. Soconee, Keowee, Sugar Town, Estatoe, Tugaloo, Tamasee, Cheewee, and Eustate were burned and fields full of crops were destroyed. Eventually the Cherokee will was broken and with only a handful of intact settlements the Cherokee sued for peace, signing two separate treaties.

In the first, signed on May 20, 1777 at DeWitt's Corners, the Cherokee surrendered nearly all their remaining territory in South Carolina, including the present counties of Greenville, Anderson, Pickens, and Oconee. A second treaty was signed on July 20, 1777 at the Long Island of the Holston. Here the Cherokee ceded everything they possessed east of the Blue Ridge, fulfilling the colonial South Carolina lust for land and driving the Cherokees (at least on paper) "beyond the mountains."

Though the end of the Revolutionary War brought few changes to the life of the Up Country farmers, a solid framework of social and political organization was beginning to emerge. In 1797 Lemuel J. Alston offered a 400 acre site for the Greenville County courthouse and the formal organization of the area began to be recognizable. The original village, called Pleasantburg, was largely an unsuccessful speculative venture on Alston's part. Perhaps embarrassed by the failed real estate venture and a political defeat, Alston in

beautifully situated on a plain, gently undulating. The Reedy River placidly leaves its southern borders previous to precipitating itself in a beautiful cascade, over an immense body of rocks [the site of Pearis' earlier mill]. The village is regularly laid out in squares, and is rapidly improving. It is the resort of much company in the summer, and several respectable and wealthy families have located themselves here on account of the salubrity of the climate. These have induced a degree of improvement, which promises to make Greenville one of the most considerable villages in the stats. . . . The number of houses is about 70. . . (Mills 1972[1826]: 572-573).

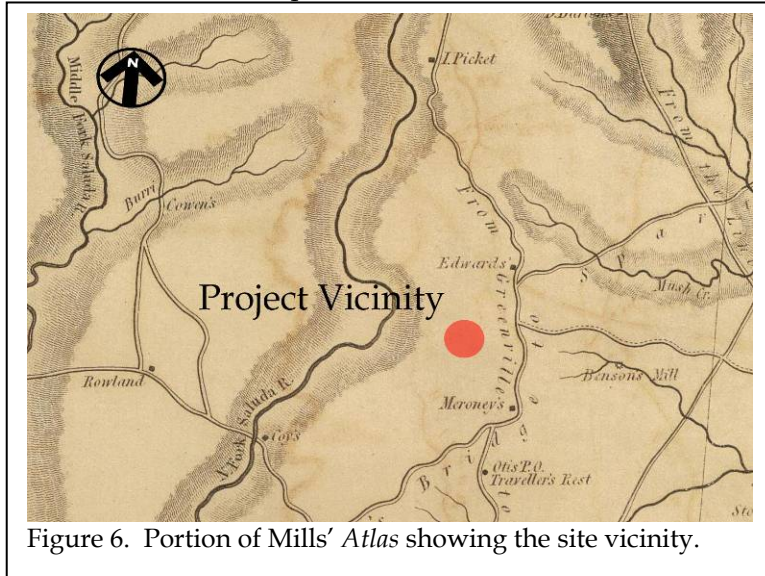


Figure 6. Portion of Mills' Atlas showing the site vicinity.

Mills' *Atlas* reveals that the project tract is located in an area where roads have yet to be established. Nearby settlements include Edwards and Meroney (Figure 6).

1815 sold his 11,000 acre holdings to Vardry McBee and left the area (Building Conservation Technology 1981: 11). Virtually all of the City of Greenville can be traced back to McBee's ownership during the early nineteenth century.

Greenville County, by 1850, had 13,370 white inhabitants and 6,691 African American slaves, most operating the 1,068 farms scattered across the county. There were 130,727 acres of improved farm land, or about 122 acres per farm. This compares favorably with adjacent Spartanburg County and is in excess of Pickens' 78 improved acres per farm (DeBow 1854: 302-305).

In 1790, the Piedmont, with 81,533 inhabitants, accounted for 32.7% of South Carolina's population. By 1800 the population of this area had increased to 120,805, an increase of 48.2% over the previous decade. One obvious reason, clearly, was the promise of good agricultural lands, by this time a rare commodity in the coastal region.

James Henry Hammond's defense of the South before the United States Senate declared, "No, you dare not make war on cotton. No power on earth dares to make war upon it. Cotton is King." This sentiment was the culmination of nearly fifty years of agricultural and economic practices that led the South to the brink of destruction. The Up Country's participation in this economic roller coaster has been described in

By 1826 Greenville was a thriving, if small town:

the village of Greenville . . . is

some detail by Ford (1988) and only a brief synopsis will be presented here.

Lacking a consistently profitable staple crop, the Up Country concentrated on the production of subsistence crops until the early 1800s with the introduction of the cotton gin and the rise of English textile mills, the out-growth of the industrial revolution. This early emphasis on food stuffs, while retarding upward mobility, had a lasting influence on the region, its economy, and its world view. Cotton spread quickly during the first decade of the 1800s and by 1811 the Up Country was exporting over 30 million pounds of short-staple cotton (Ford 1988:7). This cotton boom promoted tremendous growth in the region, a growth that even the yeomen farmers could participate in since it required little capital outlay and was subject to no particular economies of scale.

Examining the agricultural base of Greenville, it is clear that the bulk of the farms produced subsistence, rather than cash crops, until the Civil War - making Greenville unique in the region. While the county ranked seventh in the production of 11,074 bushels of rye and oats, it also ranked 26th in the production of cotton. Only Georgetown, Horry, and Pickens counties produced fewer than the 2,452 bales from Greenville (DeBow 1854). The only significant cash crop produced by Greenville was tobacco. With 12,505 pounds reported, the county ranked third in tobacco production for 1850 (DeBow 1854). This continued a long tradition of tobacco cultivation, in spite of low yields, poor quality, and strong competition (see Trinkley and Hacker 1992 for additional details).

Ford cautions against the easy trap of accepting the "dual-economy" hypothesis that views the Up Country as divided into planters raising cotton and yeoman farmers raising food stuffs and tobacco. Ford notes:

by and large, Upcountry yeomen were not forced to make an all-

or-nothing choice between commercial agriculture and subsistence farming, or between traditional mores and market values. Instead Upcountry yeomen made a set of crop-mix decisions each year, balancing their need for a sure and steady food supply with their desire for cotton profits, a cash income, and a higher standard of living (Ford 1988: 72).

There remained an uneasy peace between yeoman and plantation owner in the Up Country. In order to maintain the political support of the yeoman majority, planters were forced to moderate their economic and legal power, molding themselves to the community mores and opinion.

Ford argues that the Up Country actively participated in Secession because of the "country-republican ideal of personal independence, given particular fortification by the use of black slaves as a mud-sill class" (Ford 1988: 372). Yeomen and planters both rose to defend this common ideal.

The Civil War had little military impact on Greenville and no significant battles were fought in the County. The war did, however, change Greenville's history, destroying the basis of its wealth and creating in its place a system of tenancy - the hiring of farm laborers for a portion of the crop, a fixed amount of money, or both.

Immediately after the Civil War, cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again, in the hope of recouping losses from the War. The single largest problem across the South, however, was labor. While some freedmen stayed on to work, others, apparently many others, left. An Englishman traveling through the South immediately after the war remarked that, "Thirty-seven thousand negroes, according to newspaper estimates, have left South Carolina already, traveling west" (quoted in Orser 1988: 49).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

The hiring of freedmen began immediately after the war, with variable results. The Freedmen’s Bureau attempted to establish a system of wage labor, but the effort was largely tempered by the enactment of the Black Codes by the South Carolina Legislature in September 1865. These Codes allowed nominal freedom, while establishing a new kind of slavery, severely restricting the rights and freedoms of the black majority (see Orser 1988: 50). Added to the Codes were oppressive contracts that reinforced the power of the plantation owner and degraded the freedom of the Blacks. The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

renting required that he pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. In sharecropping, the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the fertilizer, the seed, tools, work animal, animal feed, wood for fuel, and the other half of the needed fertilizer. In return the landlord received half of the crop at harvest. This system became known as “working on halves,” and the tenants as “half hands,” or “half tenants.”

In share-renting, the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer costs. The tenant supplied the labor, animals, animal feed, tools, seed, and the remainder of the fertilizer. At harvest, the crop was divided in proportion to the amount of fertilizer that each party supplied. A number of variations on this occurred, one of the most common being “third and fourth,” where the landlord received one-fourth of the cotton crop and one-third of all other crops. In cash-renting the landlord provided the land and housing, with the renter providing everything else and paying a fixed per-acre rent in cash.

Between 1880 and 1925 the number of owner-operated farms in the Piedmont increased by 35.3%, while the number of cash renters increased by 375.4% and the number of sharecroppers increased by 155.8%. Moreover, 1880 was the only year between 1880 and 1925 during which a majority of Piedmont farmers were owners, and this occurred in only three counties. Afterwards the population of owner-operators in the Piedmont remained at about 30% (Orser 1988: 60).

In 1884, the labor system of Greenville County was described as encompassing either cropping or a rent system:

Where money is paid the terms, strictly speaking, are monthly payments, but the custom that

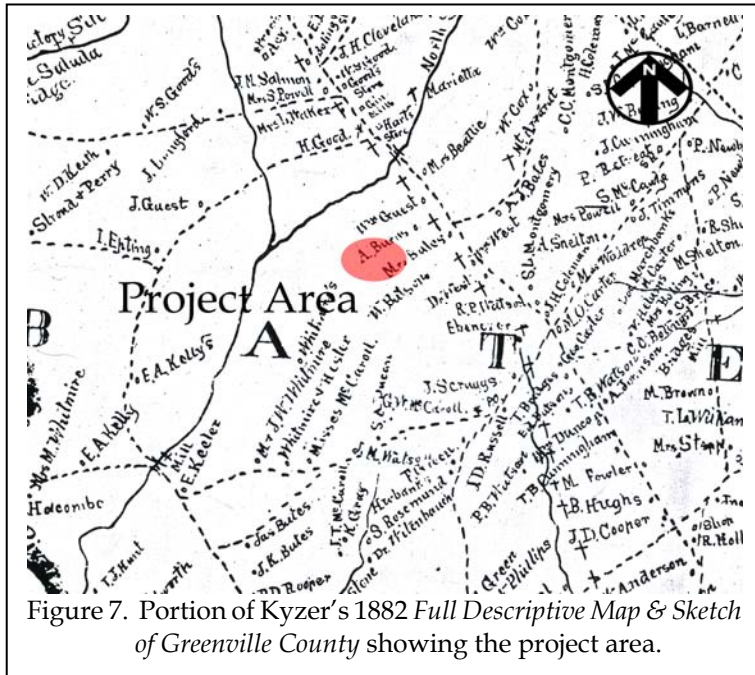


Figure 7. Portion of Kyzer’s 1882 Full Descriptive Map & Sketch of Greenville County showing the project area.

Gradually owners turned away from wage labor contracts to two kinds of tenancy – sharecropping and renting. While very different, both succeeded in making land ownership very difficult, if not impossible, for the vast majority of Blacks. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay his landlord part of the crop produced, while

prevails most generally is a running account, with settlement at the end of the year (The News and Courier 1884: n.p.).

The account continued by noting that the cost of cotton production was about \$40 per 500 pound bale. There were about 200 gins operating in Greenville County and the distance cotton would be hauled to a gin never exceeded 1½ miles. The report indicated that freedmen engaged in agriculture “rarely make more than a bare support and in the end they get into debt and never pay out” – the legacy of poor agricultural training, the inability to obtain assistance, and the effect of Jim Crow laws (The News and Courier 1884: n.p.).

Figure 7 shows the spread of farms in the project area by the early 1880s. Nearby land owners include Wm. Guest, A. Burns, Mrs. Bales,

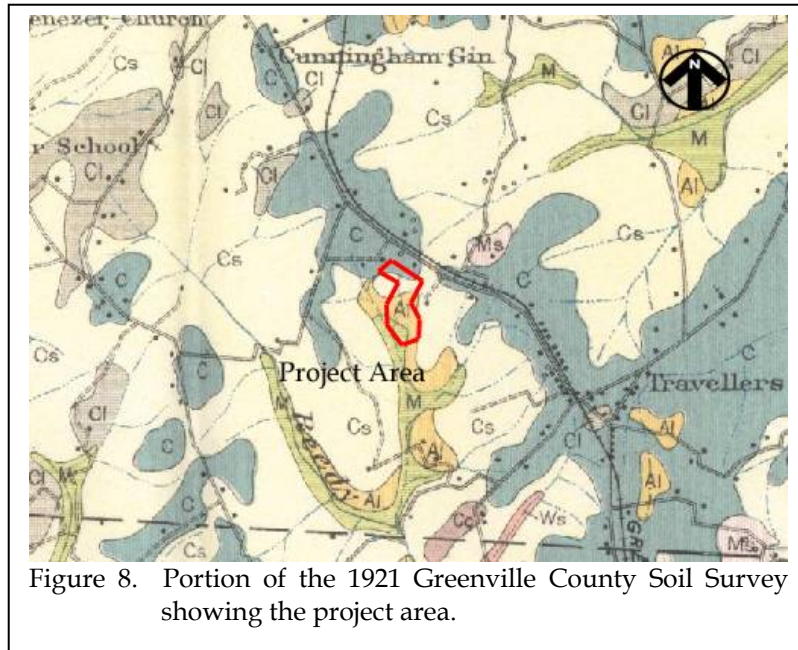


Figure 8. Portion of the 1921 Greenville County Soil Survey showing the project area.

and W. Butson, although it is unclear whether any of these people owned the property with the identified site 38GR347.

Orser notes that the period from 1880 to 1920 is one of consistent agricultural expansion, with a concomitant increase in cotton production.

This trend, however, changed between 1920 and 1925, when both the number of farms and the cotton production dramatically decreased (Orser 1988: 69). The causes of this reversal are at least two-fold: increasing Piedmont erosion and the introduction of the boll weevil (Orser 1988: 77).

In Greenville, however, the news was not planting cotton, but rather weaving it into “golden” yarns and fabric. In 1872 Greenville, recovering from the economic collapse of the Civil War, received its second railroad. Between 1874 and 1875 the Camperdown Mill was built. By 1888 there were eight cotton mills in Greenville County using both steam and water power, with capital of nearly a million dollars and an annual output in excess of two million dollars. These included the Piedmont Mill (on the Saluda River about 10 miles south of Greenville), Camperdown Mills 1 and 2 (located in Greenville), Batesville (on Rocky Creek about 10 miles east of Greenville),

Pelham Mill (on the Enoree River 11 miles east of Greenville), Reedy River Factory (on the Reedy River 6 miles southeast of Greenville), Fork Shoals Factory (on the Reedy River 12 miles south of Greenville), and Huguenot Mills (on the Reedy River in Greenville). Even at this early date the focus was on expanding the textile base of the county:

there is hope of the material advancement of the county by the development of the many fine water powers along the streams of the county that are standing invitations to capitalists who desire to invest in manufacturing enterprises

(The News and Courier 1884: n.p.).

A historian clearly expresses the fervor that accompanied cotton mills:

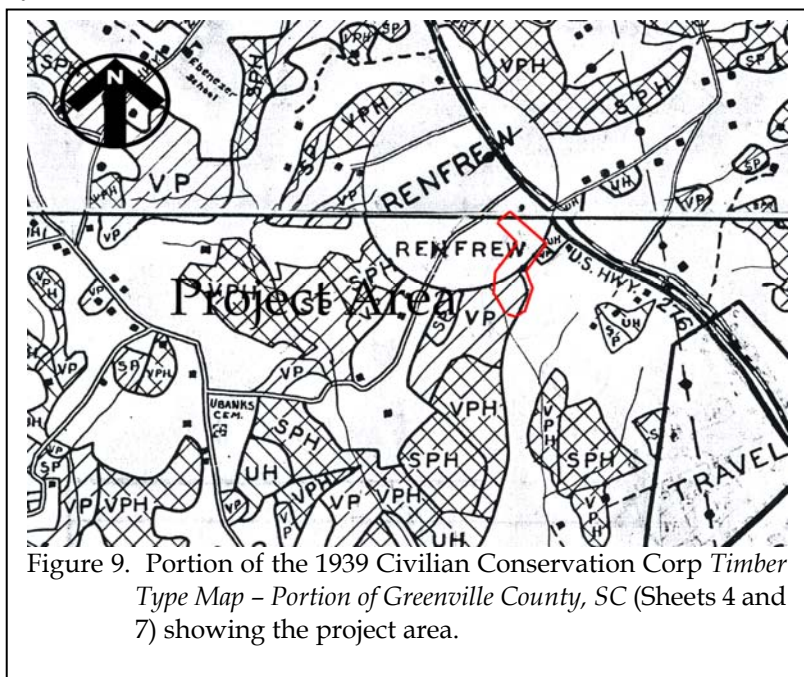
The “Cotton Mill Campaign” of the 1880s approached the status of a religious crusade, especially in the Carolina piedmont towns along the northern-owned Southern Railway: Charlotte, Greenville, and Spartanburg, among the more prominent participants in the “Campaign.” “Next to God, what this town needs is a cotton mill,” bellowed on Piedmont preacher, and a Salisbury, North Carolina, evangelist informed his listeners that “the establishment of a cotton mill would be the most Christian act” they could perform. Southerners evidently took heed; by 1900, one half of the South’s looms were within a hundred mile radius of Charlotte, and the total number of looms in the South grew from 11,900 to 110,000 between 1880 and 1900 (Goldfield 1982: 123-124).

The collective hope was that heavy investment in cotton mills would provide the jobs that Greenville (and other counties) so desperately needed, more effectively use the region’s primary agricultural product (cotton), and would draw producers in related manufacturing and service fields to the region. In turn, the rapid urbanization brought about by the concentration of workers would create or increase the demand for locally made goods, as well as for agricultural, dairy, and meat products - all resulting in a healthier economic climate and prosperity - at least for the wealthy.

The social environment of the Piedmont contributed to the distinctive character of its industrialization, especially at its mills. Because

mills were often constructed either in rural areas, or in areas that were not yet able to support truly urban growth, the mill owners had to provide housing for the workers. This, coupled with other aspects of “welfare work” were intended to attract workers to the mills from the countryside. It is ironic that the relative isolation of Southern mills, when compared to their Northern counterparts, is what created the comprehensive pattern of paternalism which, in turn, assisted the owners in thwarting unionization. Also beneficial was the threat of black labor, just as effective to break unionization efforts in the early twentieth century as it was to control poor whites in the antebellum.

More significantly, the process “delayed the development of a skilled and literate non-farm labor force, an essential resource for the attraction



of high-wage, capital-intensive industry” (Oates 1989: 730). In spite of the pervasiveness of the textile industry, it is important to realize that South Carolina (as well as the South as a whole) remained rural and agrarian. For example, in 1900 only 4% of the people were employed in manufacturing jobs, the remainder were largely rural and agrarian, steadfastly maintaining their ties to earlier times.

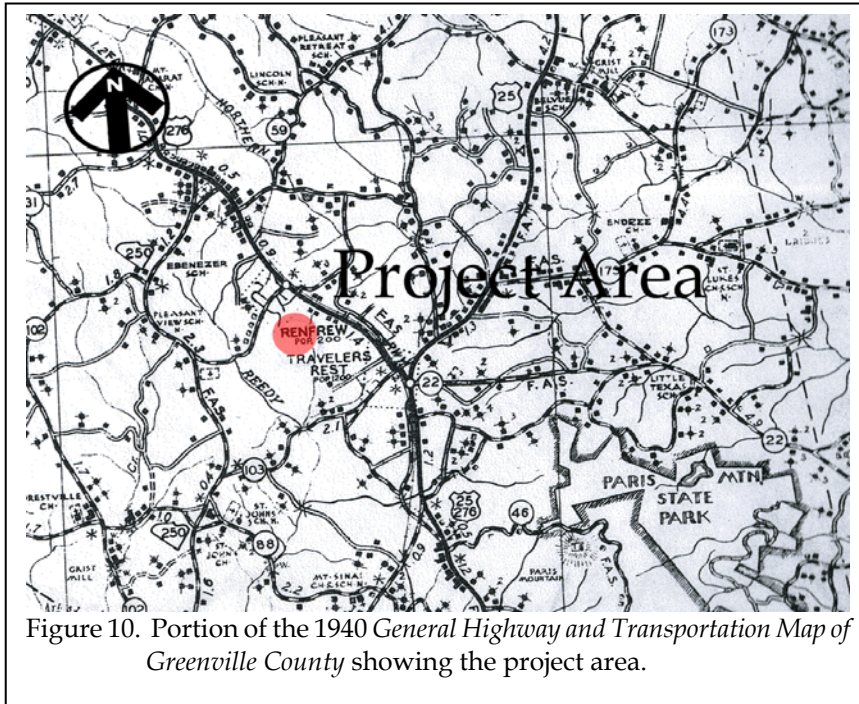


Figure 10. Portion of the 1940 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Greenville County* showing the project area.

The 1921 Greenville County Soil Survey map (Figure 8) shows many structures in the area, all along roads. No structure is shown in the project area, however, the low area of the tract is shown as a drainage showing at least seasonally being wet.

In 1939 the CCC produced a timber map of Greenville County (Figure 9). The project tract is shown partially in the town of Renfrew, however no structures are shown in the site area. The 1940 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Greenville County* (Figure 10) also fails to identify any structures in the project area. Most settlements are along the main system of roads.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed every 100 feet.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.5 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site and revisit site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

A total of 9 transects were set up running from the east side of the tract, west. Shovel tests were performed to the south with a total of 81 excavated, including close-interval testing.

The GPS positions were taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem.

WAAS, or Wide Area Augmentation System, is a system of satellites and ground stations that provide GPS signal corrections, yielding higher position accuracy - generally an accuracy of 10 feet or better 95% of the time.

Architectural Survey

Generally, we elect to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites,

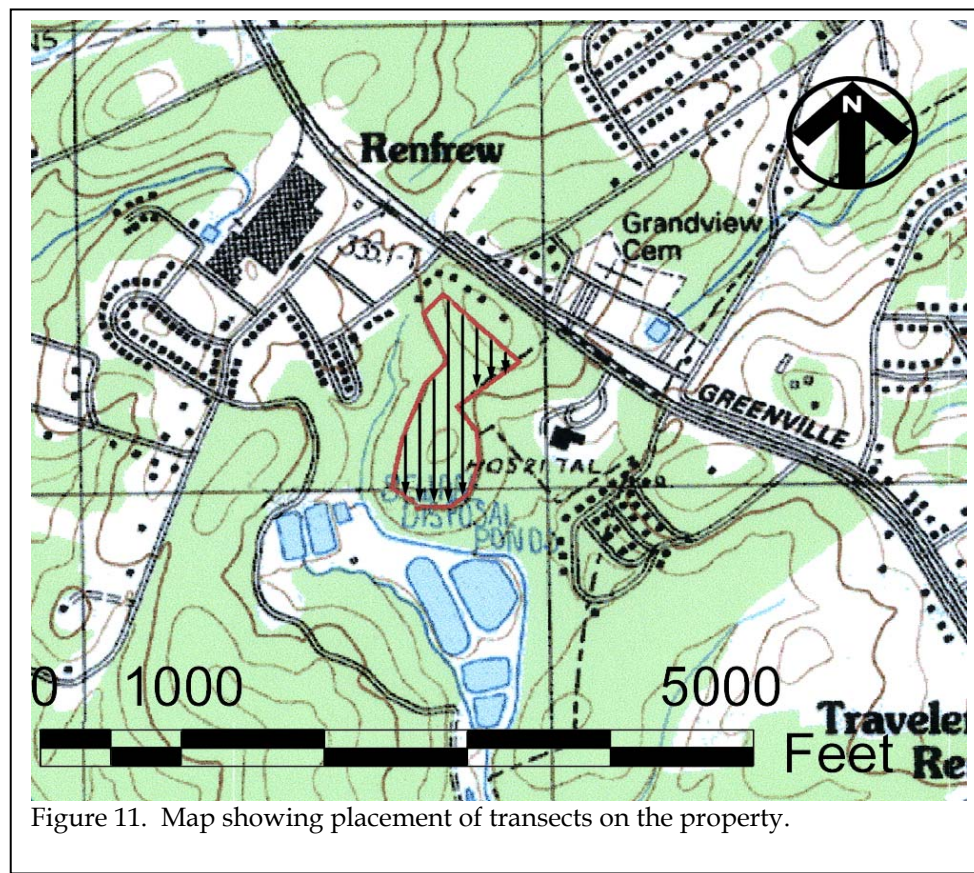


Figure 11. Map showing placement of transects on the property.



Figure 12. Working at the project.

structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained “some measure of its historic integrity” (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource, we would complete a Statewide Survey Site form and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff and the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

No architectural survey, however, was completed. Our client, Mr. Jeff DeWitt, stated that he had spoken to Mr. Chuck Cantley at the SHPO who said the APE was the tract itself and that no architectural survey would be needed.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

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

- a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a

master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

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

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

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;
- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been

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

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA), the closest regional repository.

A revisit form for the previously identified archaeological site has been filed with SCIAA. Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to SCIAA as soon as the project is complete. Non-archival digital photographic materials will be retained by Chicora for 60 days.

Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1979) and South (1977).

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey one archaeological site (38GR347) was tested (Figure 13). The site consists of the remains of a twentieth century structure. It is recommended not eligible for the National Register for lacking the quantity and quality of artifacts needed to determine the function of the site.

A management plan has been prepared for Greenville County showing the potential for archaeological sites (Trinkley et al. 1995). One archaeological site is shown along the east portion of the tract. While no site was located during the survey, two pieces of whiteware were found along the road that is denoted in the management plan. A local, Mr. Wes Breedlove, identified the site, however, no additional information was gathered from his work.

Archaeological Resource

38GR347

Location: Zone 17; 366744E 3871159N (NAD27 datum)

Elevation: 1070 feet AMSL

Component: Twentieth century structure scatter

Size: 150 feet x 100 feet

Nearest water source: Reedy River to the south

Previous disturbance: It appears that the area has been bulldozed and there is significant erosion in the area.

Landform location: Ridge saddle

Vegetation: Mixed pine and hardwood forest

Site Description

Site 38GR347 is located on the central portion of the project area (Figure 14). It contains artifacts from the twentieth century, possibly even into the late nineteenth century. The site is located on a ridge saddle that has been damaged from bulldozing and erosion. The extent of damage is unknown.

Investigation Methods

The site was originally identified during a CRA of the property performed by New South Associates earlier in the year (Adams and Young 2009). Since no shovel testing was performed at the time, no determination of eligibility could be

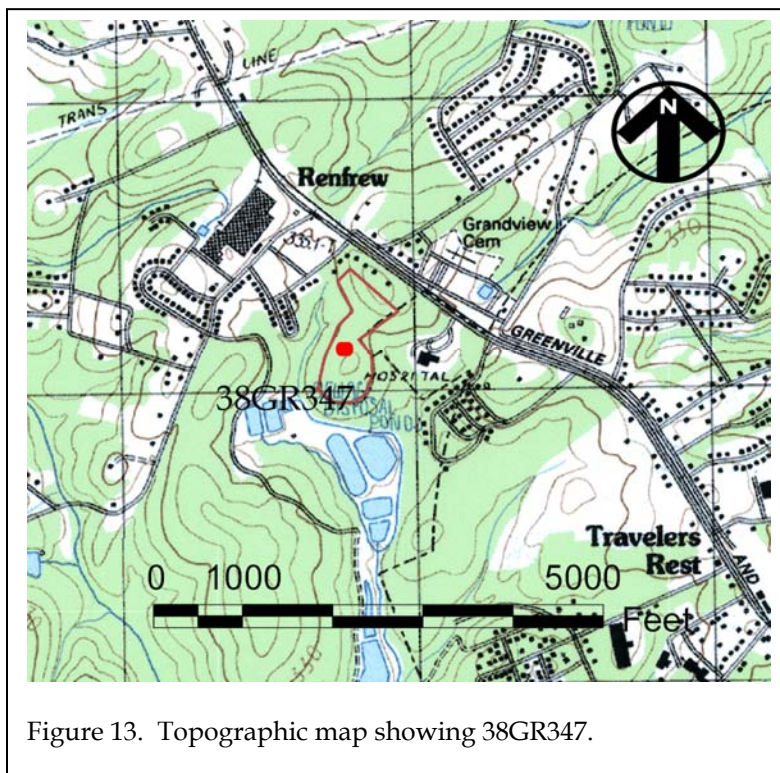


Figure 13. Topographic map showing 38GR347.

made. The current survey tested the site at 50-foot intervals in an attempt to determine the research potential. A total of 20 shovel tests were excavated around the site area, producing only two positive shovel tests (2%).

Shovel tests produced Cecil soils that have an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot over a red (10YR4/3) clay. While this profile was found in the site area, most of the shovel tests produced an Ap horizon of

It is unclear what the melted glass once was, but the one piece of clear glass is from a bottle. No other ceramics or otherwise Kitchen artifacts were identified and the glass is not diagnostic.

The remainder of artifacts are from the Architecture Group. Wire nails were found in abundance and while these nails were first produced in the late nineteenth century, it was in the twentieth century when they almost entirely

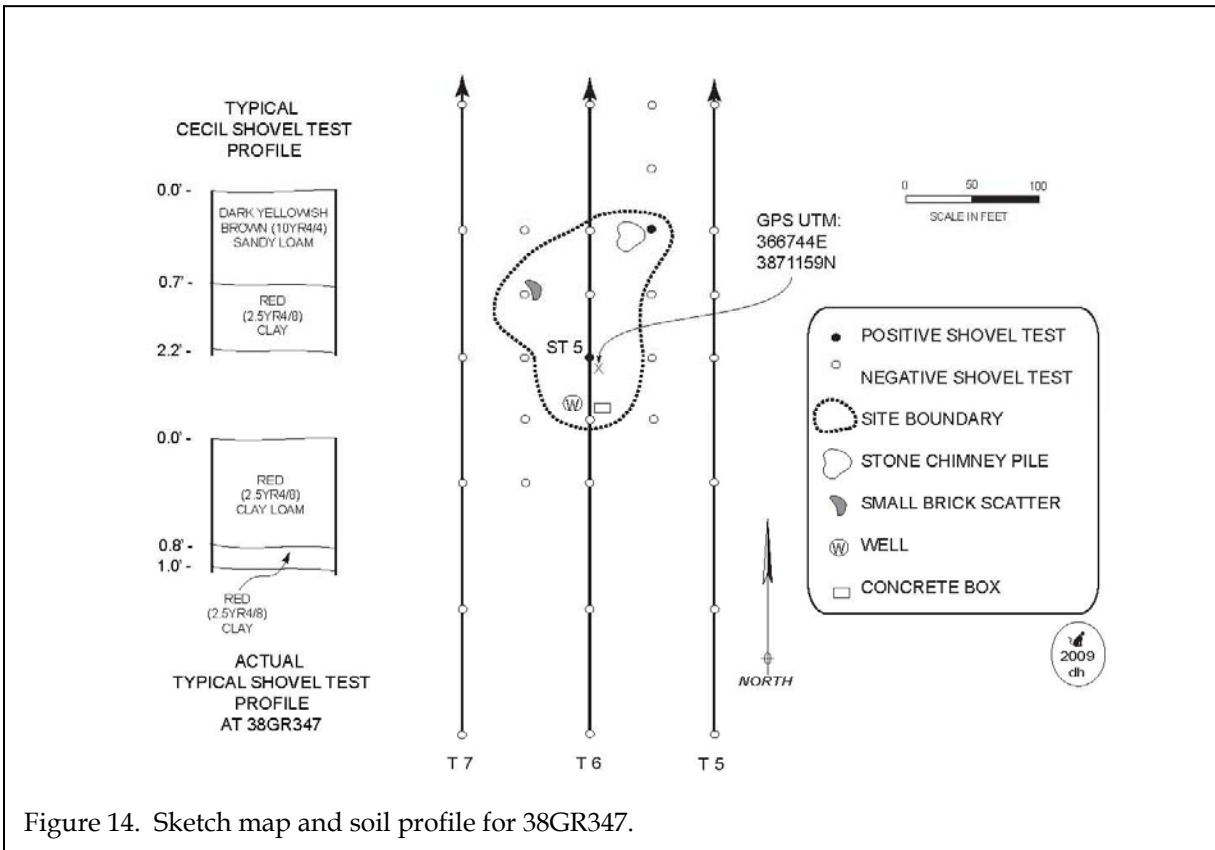


Figure 14. Sketch map and soil profile for 38GR347.

brownish red clay loam to about 0.8 foot in depth. Artifacts were found in the upper 0.7 to 0.8 foot of soil.

Artifacts

A total of 15 historic artifacts were recovered from the site: 6 melted glass, 1 clear glass, 1 window glass, 5 wire nails, 1 machine cut nail, and 1 roofing nail.

replaced machine cut nails (Howard 1989: 55). Only one machine cut nail was found, which is a nineteenth century artifact, however, that is not to say that it might have been used on a more modern structure. The roofing nail is also wire cut. The single piece of window glass is not diagnostic.

While artifact density was sparse, this site did exhibit a well, concrete privy, stone chimney fall, and a couple of small brick scatters. Shovel

tests in the well and privy failed to produce artifacts and in fact, the well was still wet. Testing was performed around the chimney remains, which produced the architectural artifacts and melted glass. This suggests that the structure burned down - no rust was identified on the nails. The two small brick scatters are not in situ and do not appear to be the remnants of piers - each brick was different and they were all whole. No fragments were seen and a couple bricks appeared to be more modern, exhibiting three holes.



Figure 15. View of the well at 38GR347.

Summary and NRHP Evaluation

Evaluation of this site's potential for listing on the National Register of Historic Places should be based on factors such as archaeological site integrity, data sets present, and potential to contribute significant research. Only two data sets are present at the site, however, it is difficult to give an accurate date to the structure. It is unlikely that this sparse site can provide any meaningful information about homesites. In addition, bulldozing of the land seems to have destroyed a portion of the site - the amount of which is unknown.

While wells and privies are generally very good sources of bio-anthropological data, these two resources failed to



Figure 16. View of the privy at 38GR347.

produce any artifacts. It appears as though this is a recent site and will do little to further our knowledge of the site.

Consequently, we recommend 38GR347 not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activity is recommended pending the review and concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office.



Figure 17. View of a brick scatter. Note the three holed brick to the left.

CONCLUSIONS

The 14 acre survey tract is located in northwestern Greenville County. This intensive survey was performed for Mr. Jeff DeWitt of SPERO Corporation and is intended for the better understanding of archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the project area. This work is intended to assist the client in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

A CRA performed earlier in the year by New South Associates identified one site - 38GR347. No determination of eligibility was made. The current survey revisited the site and tested the site to determine if it would be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

The site failed to produced the quality or quantity of remains needed to address significant research questions. We recommend 38GR347 not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

No architectural survey was performed

with the study, however, a newly constructed hospital to the east of the tract and various new neighborhoods in the area have already visually affected any historic structures that may be in the area.

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

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