

**CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF  
THE EMERALD ROAD TRACT,  
GREENWOOD COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**



**CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 515**

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EMERALD ROAD TRACT,  
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## ABSTRACT

This study reports on a cultural resources survey of a 61.9 acre tract located in the central portion of Greenwood County, South Carolina, east of the city of Greenwood. The work was conducted to assist Mr. Chip Funderburk of Heaner, Inc. comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract is bordered by Emerald Road to the south, Capsugel Court to the west, and the Seaboard Coast Railway Line to the north. The surrounding area is being developed for industrial use.

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. For this study, an area of potential effect (APE) 1.0 mile from the proposed tract was assumed.

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, no National Register properties or historic sites are within 1.0 mile of the tract.

ArchSite, in consultation with the site files of the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, did identify four archaeological sites (38GN334 A-C and 38GN446) within 1.0 mile of the tract. The three 38CN334 sites each

contained sparse prehistoric and historic scatters, but it is unclear whether these loci are part of one site. Site 38GN446 is a Late Archaic scatter. No determination of eligibility was recorded for any of these sites.

The current project tract was also assessed at a reconnaissance level in December 2008. That work identified four sites (38GN584-587). Site 38GN584 is a nineteenth to mid-twentieth century scatter; 38GN585 is a Woodland scatter; and 38GN586 and 38GN587 are sparse prehistoric scatters. Since intensive testing was not undertaken, no recommendation of eligibility was provided. Instead, a more intensive survey was recommended.

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 224 shovel tests, which included testing of sites, were excavated along 16 transect lines.

The four originally identified sites (38GN584-587) were intensively tested during this survey. The current survey also identified two additional sites (38GN589-590). Site 38GN589 is a nineteenth to twentieth century garbage dump and site 38GN590 is a brick pile that appears to be from an early twentieth century structure. All six of the sites are 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. Chip Funderburk of Heaner, Inc. 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 61.9 acres located in central Greenwood County, east of the city of Greenwood (Figure 1). This is an area of limited development, although several industrial plants are located in the vicinity. The tract is bounded by Emerald Road to the south and railroad tracks to the north (Figure 2). The western boundary is Capsugel Court.

drained soils and exhibits ridge tops and side slopes suitable for habitation. A low gullied area is located through the middle of the property, however no water was seen.

The tract is being considered by Heaner, Inc. for industrial development. 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.

The entire property consists of well

We were contacted by Mr. Chip

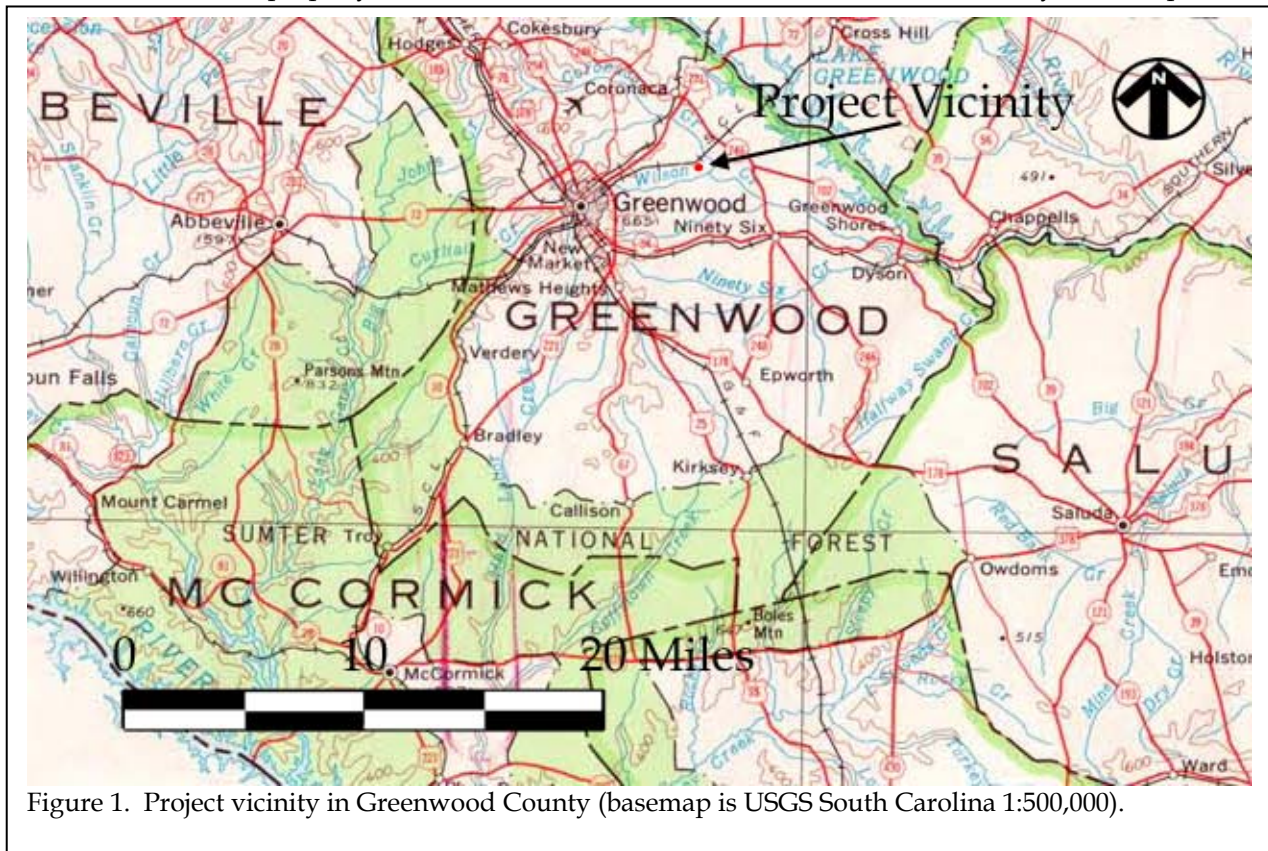


Figure 1. Project vicinity in Greenwood County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF THE EMERALD ROAD TRACT

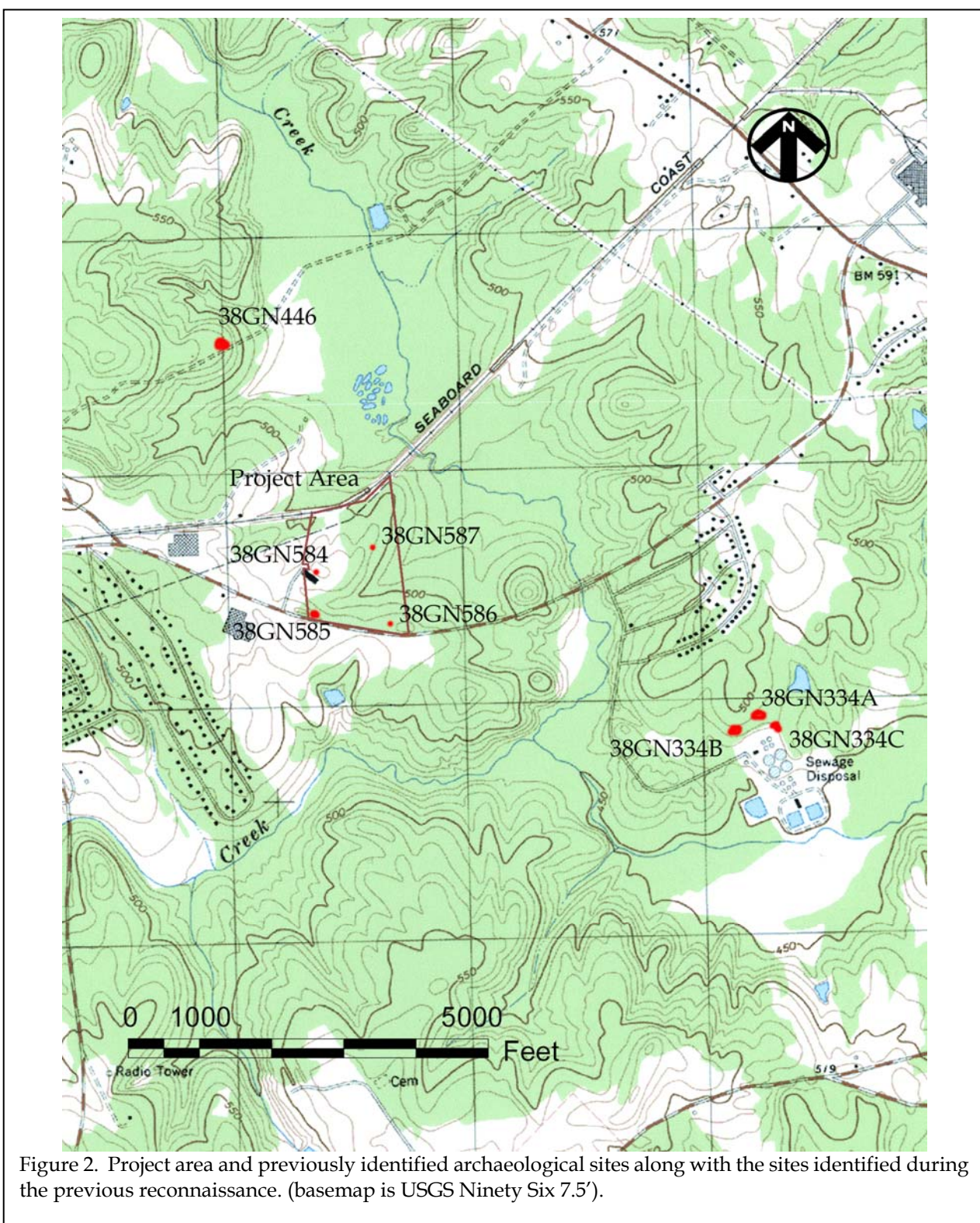


Figure 2. Project area and previously identified archaeological sites along with the sites identified during the previous reconnaissance. (basemap is USGS Ninety Six 7.5').

## INTRODUCTION

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Funderburk of Heaner, Inc. with a request to provide a proposal for a reconnaissance investigation of the tract. This proposal for the work was sent and was accepted on December 19, 2008. Initial work began on December 22, 2008. The report was finished January 6, 2009 and since the tract showed a high potential for producing archaeological sites, we were requested to perform an intensive survey. The survey was conducted from April 20-22, 2009.

Initial background investigations included an examination of previously recorded archaeological sites at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA). A total of four sites (38GN334A-C and 38GN446) were identified within 1.0 mile of the project area. Sites 38GN334 A-C were recorded during a 1979 archaeological reconnaissance for Greenwood County (Rodeffer et al. 1979). Each site contains both historic and prehistoric components and it is unclear whether each loci is part of the same site. Site 38GN446 is a Late Archaic scatter, recorded by Dennis Blanton in 1985 who was remembering the site from 1973-74. No materials were listed on the site form. None of the sites had a determination of National Register eligibility.

The background work also incorporated a review of the ArchSite website, that contains information on National Register properties, archaeological sites, buildings and structures that are eligible for the National Register, and areas previously surveyed for cultural resources. No architectural resources were found within a mile of the project area.

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

The archaeological field reconnaissance was conducted on December 29, 2008 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Ms. Ashley Guba under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley (Trinkley and Southerland 2009). That investigation revealed four sites (38GN584-587). Site 38GN584 is a nineteenth to early twentieth century scatter; site

38GN585 is an Early Woodland period scatter; and sites 38GN586 and 38GN587 are sparse prehistoric scatters. Additional work was needed to provide a recommendation of National Register potential.

The intensive cultural resources survey was conducted from April 20-22, 2009 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Ms. Ashley Guba under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley. The four sites (38GN584-587) found during the reconnaissance were tested and evaluated in this stage of study. In addition, two more sites - 38GN589 and 38GN590 were recorded and evaluated.

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 situated in central Greenwood County with most of the study area consisting of ridge toes and side slopes pitched east toward Coronaca Creek. A gullied area runs east to west through the project area from Coronaca Creek, but was dry at the time of the survey.

Greenwood County is situated in the western piedmont of South Carolina, bounded to the north by Laurens County, to the east by Newberry and Saluda counties (and the Saluda River), to the south by Edgefield and McCormick counties, and to the west by Abbeville County. The western and southern boundary incorporates large portions of the Sumter National Forest.

Physiographically, the area is a thoroughly dissected plain. The relief ranges from nearly level to steep, but it is dominantly gently sloping to moderately steep (Herren 1979:1). Although throughout the piedmont area the elevations range from 450 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) to 1,014 feet AMSL, the elevations in the project area range from about 480 to 540 feet.

The drainages form a dendritic pattern and throughout the Piedmont this terrain has been extensively dissected and degraded. Greenwood County is neatly divided by a ridge occupied by US 178. To the east, the county is drained by Ninety Six, Wilson, and Coronaca creeks, all flowing eastward toward

the Saluda River. To the west, the county is drained by Johns, Hard Labor, and Cuffytown creeks, all flowing southward and eventually into the Savannah River.

### Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed 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). The project area is just above the Slate Belt, in an area characterized by highly metamorphosed gneisses, schists, and amphibolites (Murphy 1995:47). The bulk of the soils are formed in materials weathered from the underlying bedrock of granite, schist, or gneiss.



Figure 3. Cleared area with exposed red clay.

The study tract includes two soil series: Cecil and Pacolet – both of which are well drained (Camp and Herren 1980:12-13). The Cecil soils, which cover about 80% of the project area, range in slope from 2 to 15%. The soil profile 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.

Pacolet soils, which are found in the gullied area of the tract forming slopes from 15-40%, have an A horizon of brown (7.5YR5/4) sandy loam to 0.2 foot over a red (2.5YR4/6) clay to about 1.0 foot in depth.

In 1826 Robert Mills remarked that the soils of the Abbeville District (of which Greenwood comprised the southern half) were "most generally clay covered with a rich mould, sometimes mixed with sand and gravel" (Mills 1972 [1826]:349). Cotton dominated the agriculture of the district and Mills was already sounding an alarm, commenting that:

The deteriorating effects consequent upon the planting system, observable in other districts, should prove a lesson to this, to avoid falling into the same error. The woods will disappear fast enough, without clearing more land than can be cultivated to advantage; and, in a hilly country . . . , particular care should be taken, when the lands are left in fallow, to keep them enclosed; and to given them a vegetable coat, to guard the surface from being washed away. It is deplorable to see the neglect of many of our planters in different districts, in this respect; and the consequent destruction of some of the finest farming lands (Mills 1972 [1826]:683-684).

Fairfield planter William Ellison remarked in 1828

that "the successful cotton planter sits down in the choicest of his lands, slaughters the forest, and murders the soil" (quoted in Ford 1988:38). In 1842 agricultural reformer Edmund Ruffin warned of impending disaster from the reliance on cotton and observed that little effort was being made to protect the land (Ruffin 1843:73).

In spite of these early warnings, the South Carolina Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration, as late as 1907, found no reason to remark on the threat of erosion, noting only that "the second best cotton lands are found in Anderson and Laurens Counties" (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:255). As Barry has noted:

[m]any years ago virgin areas of the Piedmont Province were highly fertile and highly productive, as demonstrated by the high degree of agricultural productivity over the past 150 years. However, mismanagement, over-cropping, erosion, and a multitude of other factors have reduced the once fertile lands to eroded ridges that require high applications of fertilizers to remain productive (Barry 1980:57).

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry found that this portion of the Piedmont exhibited severe sheet erosion with occasional gullies (Lowry 1934). This portion of the state has lost up to 1.1 foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III – the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Within recent times, at least some portions of the project tract have been logged, likely increasing soil loss originating during earlier

agricultural activities. The United States Forest Service has determined that logging accounts for upwards of 0.36 tons of soil erosion per acre per year in this region, while areas of skid trails have erosion rates of about 9.91 tons per acre per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980:25). This is clearly evidenced by the shovel tests conducted in

localized and tended to occur several years in a row, increasing the hardship on those attempting to recover from the previous year's crop failure (Hilliard 1984:16). Perhaps the best wide-scale example of this was the drought of 1845, which caused a series of very serious grain and food shortages throughout the state.



Figure 4. View of recently logged areas on the tract.

the project area.

### Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina, including the Piedmont. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderate many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses that cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont.

Consequently, the climate in this area is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of about 46 to 47.5 inches is adequate. In general, about 23 inches of rain occur during the growing season, with periods of drought not uncommon during the summer months. As Hilliard illustrates, these droughts tended to be

The average growing season is about 217 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this period by as much as 10 or more days (Camp and Herren 1980: Table 11). Consequently, most cotton planting, for example, did not take place until middle May, avoiding the possibility that a late frost would damage the young seedlings.

### Floristics

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). The potential natural vegetation of the area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak. In actuality, the Piedmont is composed of a patchwork of open fields, pine woodlots, hardwood stands, mixed stands, and second growth fields. Shelford (1963) includes the Carolina Piedmont in the Oak-Hickory zone of the Southern Temperate Deciduous Forest Biome.

Today the "patchwork" is more than ever clearly visible. The survey tract includes a few areas of planted pines, mixed stands, and cleared areas with exposed clay. A large portion of the tract has been recently logged.



## PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

### Previous Research

The Piedmont has been the focus of considerable archaeological research. Derting et al. (1991), for example, cite 73 studies specific to Greenwood County. Virtually all of these are compliance related.

There is no single synthesis of the area's archaeology. Perhaps the most thorough overview specific to nearby Anderson County 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.

More recently the Sumter National Forest (situated to the south and west of Greenwood) has produced an overview that also includes site modeling. Three zones have been identified; Zone 1 is identified as broad floodplains and larger drainage bottoms, Zone 2 is identified as upland areas of low topographic relief, and Zone 3 is classified as areas of high relief containing slopes greater than 10%. High probability for prehistoric sites has been identified for those Zone 1 areas that are elevated, such as old levees and ridges and for Zones 2 and 3 where there are ridge tops, noses, saddles, crests, and other well-defined low slope areas within 500 feet of water sources or Zone 1 areas. Moderate probability areas are defined as Zone 1 areas of broad floodplains or bottoms and Zone 2 and 3 areas of less than 10% slope, even if greater than 500 feet from water. Finally, low probability areas include Zone 1 floodplains that are active and Zones 2 and 3 where the slopes are greater than 10% and where there is loss of soil (Benson 2006:225-226).

Although these models sound complex,

they are actually quite simple and follow what has been generally accepted among archaeologists for a number of years. Much of the study tract would be considered as evidencing high to moderate archaeological potential with no further evaluation of soil loss and erosion - there are numerous ridge tops, noses, and saddles - all in close proximity to water sources. Steep soils are limited to a band perpendicular to Coronaca Creek in the southern half of the tract. There are, however, few clearly defined ridges or high areas in the Coronaca floodplains and these areas are generally narrow, with few areas that would be classified as broad.

The bulk of archaeological research in Greenwood County consists of surveys in Sumter National Forest or S.C. Department of Highways and Public Transportation surveys which are too numerous to individually list (see Derting et al. 1991). Rodeffer et al. (1979) published a reconnaissance level survey report for Greenwood reporting on 358 archaeological sites. Of these, 295 contained prehistoric components, while 167 contained historic components.

In addition, the Paleoindian and Early Archaic are 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. The bulk of historical archaeology in the county has been performed at Ninety-Six, associated with the late eighteenth century use of the village of Cambridge and the star fort occupied by the

CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF THE EMERALD ROAD TRACT

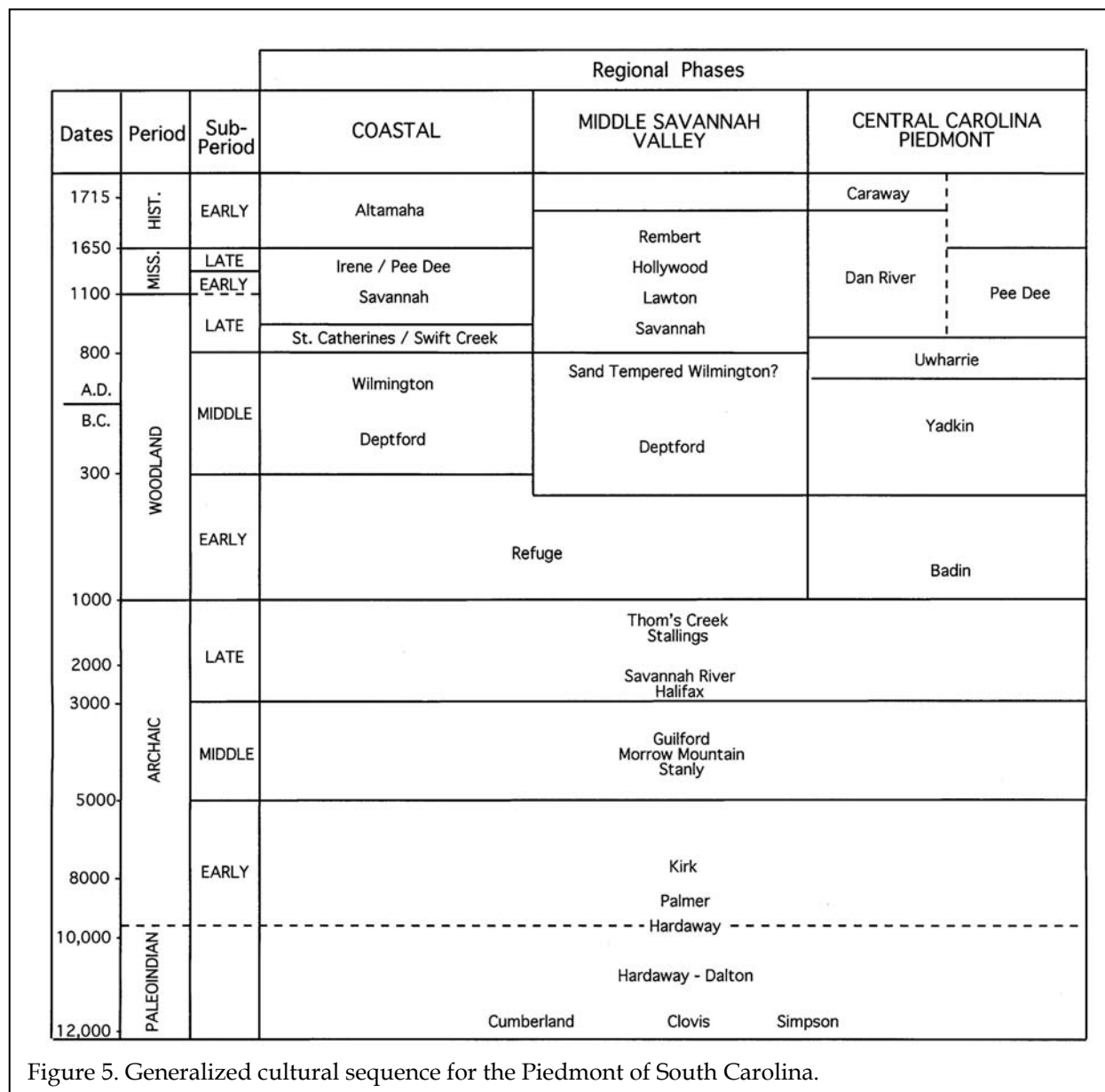


Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for the Piedmont of South Carolina.

British (see, for example, Baker 1972; Holschlag and Rodeffer 1976a; 1976b; 1977). Brooks and Crass (1991) have provided synthetic information on research at the nearby Savannah River site. It is likely that their predictive model for site location can be transposed to Greenwood County. They found that 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. Another project nearby also included an industrial plant and identified both prehistoric and historic components along with an early nineteenth century cemetery (Trinkley and Southerland 2006).

**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 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 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 Dalton<sup>1</sup> 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

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

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 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.<sup>2</sup> 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.<sup>3</sup>

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 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

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<sup>2</sup> 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.

<sup>3</sup> 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.

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 higher<sup>4</sup> 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,

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<sup>4</sup> 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.

themselves, be distinct (House and Ballenger 1976; Sassaman and Anderson 1994). They divided their sites into habitation and extraction sites<sup>5</sup> 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

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<sup>5</sup> 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.

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.<sup>6</sup>

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 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

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<sup>6</sup> 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.

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 Otarre<sup>7</sup> 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 netsinkers<sup>8</sup>, ground

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<sup>7</sup> 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".

<sup>8</sup> 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."

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 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 conoidal 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.<sup>9</sup> The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social

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<sup>9</sup> 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).

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, graters, perforators, drill, ground stone objects (celts, pipes, and discoids), 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 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**

Although exploration of the Savannah River Valley began as early as the sixteenth century (DePratter 1989), substantial settlement of the area did not begin until after the Yamasse Indian War (1715-1718). By the mid-eighteenth century, cattle ranchers and subsistence farmers cleared land and established small farms and

plantations (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:69-71), and by the eve of the American Revolution cattle ranching was well established in the area (Brooks 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

South Carolina population lived in the Up Country.

By the onset of the American Revolution, the population of the 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 (Wallace 1958).

Probably the most significant Revolutionary War activity in Greenwood County was at Ninety-Six, a British stronghold in the Up Country. The earthen star-shaped fort commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel John H. Cruger fell under siege by troops under the command of General Nathaniel Greene on June 18, 1781. The attempt to capture the fort failed, and Greene retreated toward Winnsboro. Later the British abandoned the fort because they were expecting the French at Beaufort.

The evacuation of Ninety-Six rendered the British hold on the middle and back country precarious and unprofitable. Partisans cut communications, seized supplies, and captured abandoned posts. No attempt was made to re-establish a British hold in the back country (Wallace 1951:317).

After the American Revolution, the village of Cambridge grew up on the site of the Ninety Six fortification. It thrived as a seat of the District Court and

as an upcountry trading center until the first decade of the nineteenth century when it began to decline and finally passed out of existence in the mid-nineteenth century (Baker 1972:3).

The study tract was historically part of the

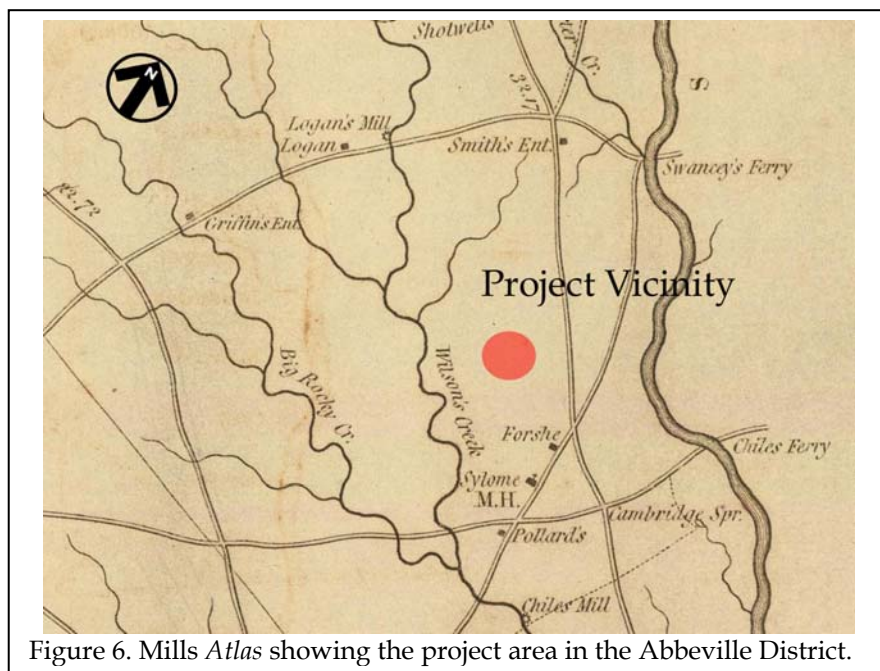


Figure 6. Mills Atlas showing the project area in the Abbeville District.

settlement there was little connection with the legal authorities on the coast (centered in Charleston), leaving the Up Country largely autonomous. This led to the Regulator Movement of the 1760s, a vigilante organization that attempted to maintain order and provide security. By the eve of the Revolution, two-thirds of the

Abbeville District (created by the Legislature in 1785 from the old Ninety Six District). In 1826 Mills indicated that:

[t]he first important settlement in this district occurred as early as the year 1756, when Patrick Calhoun, with four families of his friends, settled at Long Cane Creek. On his arrival, there were only two families of white settlers, one named Gowdy, the other Edwards, in that northwestern extremity of the province. (Mills 1972 [1826]:348).

The 1820 *Mills' Atlas* plan of Abbeville District (Figure 6) fails to reveal any subscribers in the project area. To the east of the project area is the Forshe Settlement and the Sylome Meeting House.

Prior to the introduction of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century, the area experienced only slow growth and moderate changes in its society and economy. Initially an area of small, independent and diversified farmers, the shifting focus on cotton caused dramatic changes. It also began to create clear differences between what would become Anderson and Abbeville counties. This is perhaps best illustrated by looking at the changing complexion of the population. In 1800 only 22% of Abbeville's population, then at about 13,500, was enslaved. By 1810 this figure climbs to 32%. By 1830 nearly half (47%) of Abbeville's 22,906 citizens were African American slaves. At the 1850 census Abbeville reported a population of 32,318 individuals, of whom 19,262 (or 60%) were slaves.

In contrast, the Anderson area never exhibited this level of slave ownership. In 1810 the Pendleton District (which included Anderson) had a population of 22,897, of whom only 3,485 (or 15%) were slaves. This percentage climbed to only 26% (4,427 of 17,169) in 1830. By 1850 there was a population of 21,475 in Anderson, with 7,514 (or only 35%) being African American slaves.

Figure 7 reveals the difference in slave ownership between Abbeville and Anderson districts by the eve of the Civil War. Abbeville had slowly become characterized by larger cotton plantations, a reliance on slavery, and a one crop system eventually ruinous to the soil. In contrast, Anderson consisted of smaller farms and a somewhat more diversified farming economy.

In 1850 Abbeville's 1,814 farms (with an average size of 351 acres) produced 27,192 bales of cotton, compared to only 6,670 bales produced by the 1,986 farms (with an average of 232 acres) in Anderson County. Perhaps because the average per farm acreage was smaller in Anderson, these farms tended to have slightly more acreage (nearly 39%) in improved lands, while on Abbeville's larger holdings only an average of a third of the acreage was improved for cultivation. Perhaps

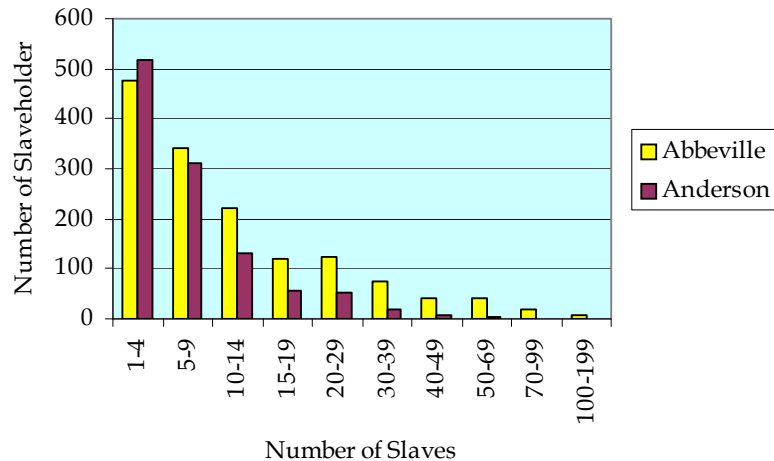


Figure 7. Comparison of slaves held by slaveholders in Abbeville and Anderson districts in 1860.

more telling, the combined farm value in Abbeville was nearly double that of Anderson (\$4,740,923 compared to \$2,399,120).

While some of this difference in the prosperity of Abbeville and Anderson counties may have to do with their early settlement (Anderson was not really available for settlement until the Cherokees ceded their lands in 1776), far more has to do with the history of slavery. Edgar (1998:286) observes that the free per capita wealth of Abbeville in 1860 was \$47,771 (in 1996\$), while in Anderson the per capita wealth of freeholders was only \$22,114. In Abbeville 64.4% of the population was African American, while in Anderson the percentage of African American slaves was only 37.5%. Slavery brought wealth, yet wealth was necessary to acquire slaves.

There were other signs of the differing wealth and prosperity. In Abbeville District there were nine libraries with 6,658 volumes, while there were no libraries in Anderson County. And while there were 48 public schools in Abbeville District with a total annual income of over \$16,000, the 39 schools in Anderson County seem to have been barely supported with an income of just under \$6,500.

In 1850, the Anderson farms, however, produced 240,277 pounds of butter and cheese, ranking just behind Abbeville County. It also produced 120,382 bushels of wheat, making it the second largest producer in the state, just behind Laurens. While relatively inconsequential compared to the coastal area, Anderson also produced nearly a million pounds of rice (compared to only 7,180 pounds in Abbeville County). Anderson was also producing far more tobacco, 18,540 pounds in 1850, than was Abbeville (where only 4,455 pounds were reported). In fact, Anderson ranked second in tobacco production, just behind Pickens County. Anderson farms also produced more bushels of peas and sweet potatoes than Abbeville, as well as more wine, cheese and flax. Home production valued \$86,795 in Anderson, compared to only

\$71,774 in Abbeville, although statewide they rank second and third.

Co-existing with agriculture, Anderson also supported a thriving industry which ranked fifth in annual production behind Charleston, Edgefield, Laurens, and Richland counties. Although Abbeville ranked seventh in production, it had double the invested capital.

Westward emigration of people lured by the expanding cotton kingdom caused increased damage to the region's soils. Mills commented that, "the system of cultivation now pursued is destructive to such land, as no provision is made to prevent the washing" (Mills 1972 [1826]:357). Cotton was encouraged by the Greenville and Columbia Railroad opening a branch line running from Hodges to Abbeville in the 1850s. The railroad, linking the up country to Columbia and Charleston exported Abbeville's cotton and imported the necessary subsistence crops to feed the county (Baker 1931:13). Another branch line linked the main route (running from Newberry to Saluda up to Greenville) with Anderson and Pendleton about the same time, helping to unify the state.

The impact of these early railroads, however, was mixed. Edgar (1998:283) reports that property values in Anderson increased fourfold between 1848 and 1860, all because the town became a stop on the Greenville and Columbia Railroad. Yet Nelson (1999:12) suggests that most followed old trading paths, generating few new villages and that often the railroad were enormously unsuccessful. While farmers needed outlets for their cotton, they bought little from outside their region. With all of the traffic flowing in one direction, most railroads found backhaul a serious economic drain. It seems unlikely that the produce brought into the region was a significant source of income. Thus, very few new towns were created along the rail lines.

Cotton also spread on the sweat of African American slaves, and caused increasing political

polarization as planters more aggressively defended slavery in the first half of the nineteenth century. This led to almost unanimous citizen support in the area for nullification and secession in Abbeville.

The Civil War necessitates that the Confederate states become more self-sufficient and one step toward that goal was the production of more subsistence crops, even if this meant a reduction in the planting of cotton. Although cotton production was reduced (at least partially by the blockade making it difficult or impossible to export to England), the Governor of South Carolina was still pleading with planters as late as 1863 to reduce the acreage of cotton and increase the production of food stuffs (*The Abbeville Press*, March 20, 1863). When this failed to have the desired effect, the Legislature passed a law limiting cotton production to three acres per full hand. This, however, seems only to have resulted in planters dumping what fertilizer was available on their cotton lands, in an effort to maximize the yield of the limited acreage – at the expense of subsistence crops. In response, the Legislature reduced the allowed acreage to one acre per hand, although it is unclear if this action had any meaningful result (Baker 1931:15-16).

In spite of these efforts it seems that the Abbeville area (as well as much of the state) was always on the “verge of starvation.” One Due West resident wrote, “have only as yet got 5 bu. corn and 1 bbl. of flour. I don’t know what I am going to do but my trust is still in a kind providence” (quoted in Baker 1931:17). Another significant problem was that on many of the subsistence farms, especially those with few or no slaves, there were no able-bodied men to plant, tend, and harvest crops. Even those planters with slaves began to feel pressure, as the Confederate government began demanding that slaves be provided for the construction of coastal defenses. The situation in some areas was so bad that the Legislature voted for funds to help relieve the suffering on the farm-front.

There is some indication that the local planters began to once again fear slave rebellion. One white, “who dared interfere with their property” was hung in Abbeville and the district passed additional laws regulating where slaves might live and forbidding them to enter town without special permission (Baker 1931:20).

The Civil War had little military impact on Abbeville District and no significant battles were fought in the Up County. It did, however, change the region’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.

Although the Civil War disrupted labor supply, it also forced up-country planters to re-examine the crops they planted. Immediately after the Civil War cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again in the hope of recouping losses from the War. In 1867 there was a corn famine which caused considerable concern in the region. Corn was brought in from New York and Kentucky as part of the relief effort, although the region’s farmers were not convinced to improve production techniques. In 1868 the caterpillar was particularly prevalent in Abbeville County and a late frost damaged a variety of crops, especially the cotton, in 1869 (Baker 1931:27-29). Coupled with long-term falling cotton prices, the region’s farmers never really recovered from the devastating economic effects of the Civil War.

Gradually the region’s farmers began to turn to oats as a forage crop, although the commitment in Abbeville was short-lived. In 1860, Abbeville produced over 96,000 bushels of oats, but by 1900 the figure had fallen to 70,460 bushels. Only in Anderson, where there continued to be a focus on small farms and self-sufficiency, did the production of oats dramatically increase – from 28,761 bushels in 1860 to 86,690 in 1900.

It was also during this period that tobacco production fell in Abbeville, as it migrated

eastward into the Pee Dee region. In 1900, for example, Abbeville reported less than one acre in tobacco, while Darlington County boasted nearly 7,000 acres and Marion over 7,300 acres.

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).

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. Many white planters, including those in Abbeville County, formed "Democratic Clubs," designed to counter the "radical" influence (Baker 1931:36). Members of these clubs resolved not to hire "radicals," or blacks associated with radical politics.

The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the initially high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

Gradually owners turned away from wage labor contracts, at least partially because of the scarcity of money, but also because of the prevailing belief among whites that blacks were so lazy that with money in their pockets they would not work (Baker 1931:38). In its place two kinds of tenancy — sharecropping and renting —

developed. 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 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 landlord supplied everything else — land, house, tools, work animals, 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.

Tenancy took a variety of forms. Baker, for example, describes the system used by Col. D. Wyatt Aiken of Abbeville. He leased his fields to freedmen, typically in 20 acre increments. With the tenant providing a mule, the rent was 1,600 pounds of lint cotton. An extra 400 pounds were required if Aiken provided the mule (Baker 1931:39).

The 1870s, however, were not simply hard years for Southern planters and African Americans. By 1873 the entire country had plunged into a severe economic depression. This distracted Congress, furthered the anger of Southerners, and caused the Northern public to

retreat from Reconstruction (Foner and Mahoney 1995:128). Violence in South Carolina increased, flaunting the belief that there was little to fear from Washington. In 1876 Wade Hampton, one of the state's most popular Confederate veterans (at least among white South Carolinians), was nominated for Governor. Hampton's supporter's, in red shirts and formed into "rifle clubs," disrupted Republican gatherings, drove freedmen from their homes, and made it known that they intended to carry the election. One planter remarked that they would win, even "if we have to wade in blood knee-deep" (quoted in Foner and Mahoney 1995:131).

Not only did Hampton win, but these events also affected the national Tilden-Hayes election. The election was so close that it was decided by Congress – in favor of Republican Hayes. Nevertheless, in order to ensure inauguration, the "Bargain of 1877" was struck where by Hayes would recognize Democratic control of the Southern states, including South Carolina, and would remove the last of the federal troops. Thus, Reconstruction was officially dead in the South. Republicans did not even offer a gubernatorial candidate in 1878. Moreover, the federal government stood by silently as Southern states such as South Carolina (in 1895) passed laws stripping African Americans of their rights, including their right to vote. This formalized the ad hoc measures of the black codes developed in the 1870s (Zuckek 1996). Wallace (1951:600) notes that Abbeville was an area of considerable Klan activity, although Klan violence seems to have been centered in nearby Newberry and Union counties.

The attitude of white planters (as well as at least some difference in the attitude of those associated with large plantations as opposed to small farms) can be gleaned from a publication chronicling the "progress" of South Carolina since the Civil War. A series of similar questions were put to representatives from every county. To the question, "Efficiency of colored labor," Abbeville County responded:

Colored labor is regarded as somewhat more efficient than five years ago. This is owing to the fact that it is better controlled since the negro has entirely withdrawn from politics. The negro does not work very willingly, and renders rather poor service unless closely looked after; but when working for himself he works better than for hire unless closely looked after (Anonymous 1884).

In the 1880s nearby Anderson reported two cotton mills (one at Pelzer on the Saluda and another at Pendleton on Twenty-Three Mile Creek). Abbeville reported no cotton mills. Cotton was, however, being produced in large amounts and it was estimated that the average cost of producing merchantable cotton was about eight cents a pound and 40 dollars to bale 500 pounds. Anderson boasted 275 cotton gins, while Abbeville had about 100 gins that moved from point to point as needed. Although a few horse-powered gins were still being used, the bulk were by this time steam operated.

It appears that a large portion of the manufacturing in the region was milling grain or producing lumber and turpentine. Of the 70 manufacturing establishments in Abbeville, there were 25 flour mills, seven grist mills, and 21 lumber mills. Other manufacturers included carriage and wagon factories, brick making and printing establishments (Anonymous 1884).

In 1897 Greenwood County was created from adjacent Abbeville and Edgefield Counties, with the project area within Abbeville.

Tenancy continued to be a significant feature of the region. By 1900 there were 4,574 farms in Abbeville County and the average farm size was 76.3 acres. In newly created Greenwood County there were 3,719 farms, with an average size of 75.3 acres. The difference is the result of

CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY OF THE EMERALD ROAD TRACT

Abbeville’s 730 square miles to Greenwood’s 530. Of these farms, in Greenwood 2,694 or 72.4%, were operated by tenants, while in Abbeville 74.1% of the farms (3,389) were operated by tenants. Even the proportion of African American tenants was almost the same, with 63.4% in Abbeville and 62.8% in Greenwood.

When production is compared, the two

could remember – brought on an enormous crop (Wallace 1951:664). Then a long agricultural depression began in 1921 (Wallace 1951:688). Edgar (1998:481) reports cotton prices fell precipitously from around 40¢ a pound to about 13½¢, while tobacco declined from 40¢ to just over 21¢. Debts, based on the inflated value of land and produce, began piling up to extraordinary levels. Edgar observes that, “farmland and buildings had

Table 1.  
Cotton Mills in 1907

County	Location	Name	Date Organized	Spindles	Looms	Yearly Product	Employees	Mill Population
Abbeville	Abbeville	Abbeville Cotton Mill	1896	28,800	940	\$650,000	375	750
Greenwood	Greenwood	Greenwood Mills	1889	22,000	684	\$400,000	350	500
	Greenwood	Grendel Mills	1897	33,152	834	\$750,000	400	750
	Ninety-Six	Ninety-Six Mills	1902	20,608	474	\$285,000	150	300
	Ware Shoals	Ware Shoals Mill	1902	50,000	1,400	\$1,500,500	600	2,500

counties remain very similar. Greenwood produced 21,888 bales of cotton on 70,601 acres, while Abbeville produced 28,121 bales on 94,001 acres (for both production was just under a third of a bale per acre).

While the agricultural production of Greenwood and Abbeville remained close during the first decade of the twentieth century, Greenwood quickly took a lead in industrial production. By 1907 Greenwood had four cotton mills to Abbeville’s one (Table 1) (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce and Immigration 1907:571). What is perhaps most important about the rise of these mills is that they began to siphon the population off the farms. By 1907 about 12.5% of Greenwood’s population was living not in the agrarian countryside, but in a mill village.

Several things happened in the twentieth century that profoundly affect Greenwood and surrounding counties. In terms of agriculture, there was first the cotton panic of 1914, when the price was depressed to the lowest point most

lost more than one-half their value. One-third of the state’s farms were mortgaged, and 70 percent of the state’s farmers survived on borrowed money” (Edgar 1998:485).

The situation in Greenwood was even a little worse with slightly over 36% of the farms mortgaged and the average farm debt was \$1,836. In Abbeville County 41.8% of the farms were mortgaged, although the average debt was only \$1,681.

South Carolina never really recovered from these earlier problems before the stock market crash of 1929, which ushered in the Great Depression. Between 1921 and 1933, 34 national banks and 283 state banks were forced to close their doors (Wallace 1951:688). This represented about two-fifths of the national banks and nearly three-quarters of the state banks.

Some indication of agriculture collapse can be seen in Table 2. The average farm size tended to decrease as part of the World War I crash, stabilize about 1930, at least partially due to

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Table 2.  
Changes in Greenwood Farms Between 1910 and 1940

Date	# farms	Average Acres	Average Improved Acres	Average Value
1910	4,493	64.3	33.5	\$2,102
1920	4,005	54.8	32.0	\$5,188
1930	3,084	73.0	35.0	\$2,189
1940	2,099	97.1	38.8	\$2,512

government programs, and rebound by 1940 with economic recovery. One part of the government action to encourage agricultural recovery was an effort to limit the acreage in farms, especially on farms with limited economic potential. This is reflected by the drop in improved acres. But perhaps most revealing of the hard times is the decline in average value. In Greenwood County the farm price declined by nearly 43% in just the one decade between 1920 and 1930. There was a modest increase in value between 1930 and 1940, but not nearly enough to help farmers recover from the earlier losses.

Cotton acreage, as well as production, declined from 1920 to 1930. The 1920 acres of 70,102 declined to 40,740 acres in 1930, while production declined from 30,910 bales to nearly half - 15,725. The only bright note was that the bales per acre increased from 2.3 to 2.6 - a very modest increase that probably did little to help the dire situation.

The 1929 Soil Survey of Greenwood County shows the project area with one settlement located at Emerald Road to the south (Figure 8). This structure was identified as a brick pile (38GN590) during the survey. Intensive logging has erased most of the footprint of this structure.

The 1930 census helps us understand something concerning the daily lives of Greenwood farmers as well. Of the 3,084 farms,

only 104 (3.4%) had a telephone, only 115 (3.7%) had piped interior water and even fewer - 80 or 2.6% -- had interior bathrooms. Only 141 (4.6%) of the County's farms had electricity. There were also only 1,077 automobiles on the farms - and nearly 52% of the farms were still situated on unimproved dirt roads that were probably impassable to automobiles much of the time anyway. Farms were also still largely cultivated using mules - there were only 79 tractors in the county.

On the other hand, it seems that times weren't nearly as hard for mill operators. In places like Anderson these operators were typically leading members of the business and profession community, reflecting a home-grown bourgeois elite. Carlton observes that in nearby Anderson County:

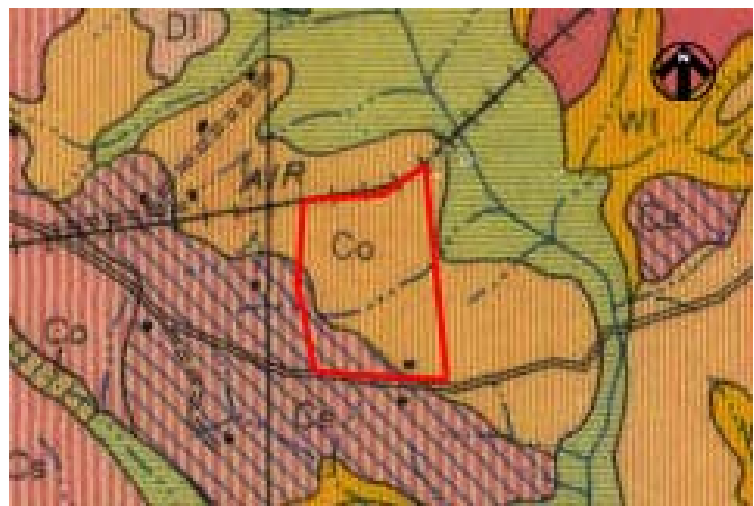


Figure 8. Portion of the 1929 Soil Survey of Greenwood County showing the project area.

Six major corporations were organized between 1899 and 1904 to build cotton factories in or about Anderson: the forty-three seats on their boards were held by twenty-nine individuals, all of whom have been identified. Twenty-one of the directors lived

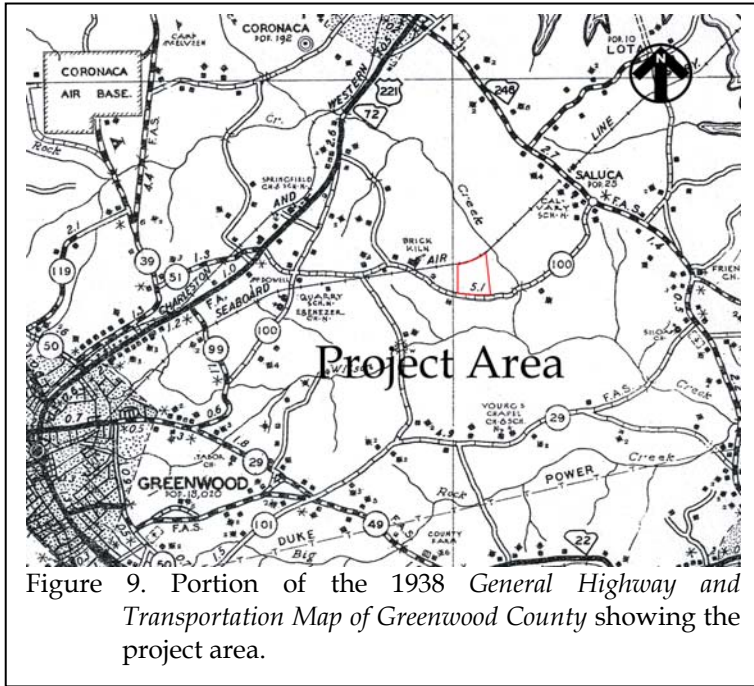


Figure 9. Portion of the 1938 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Greenwood County* showing the project area.

in or near Anderson; of these, eleven were merchants, three bankers, three lawyers, one a physician and druggist, one a cottonseed products manufacturer, and one a career textile executive (Carlton 1982:50-51).

By 1940 the value of South Carolina manufactures, \$446,000,000, was over three and a half times the value of the crops raised by the state's farmers. In addition, we see a steady growth through the first quarter of the twentieth century, so that by 1931 there were 239 mills in the state.

Abbeville, Anderson, and Greenwood continued to boast of 24 mills with nearly 848,000 spindles and over 17,000 looms in 1915. Nevertheless, the number of mill hands employed had dropped slightly, although the proportion of the population employed by mills remained fairly steady (Watson 1916).

Wallace (1951:689) observed that the mills were a "God-send to the suffering small farmers of the early 1890's and later." Clearly this is a belief that depends on one's perspective. The mills did provide employment, albeit for pitiful wages and oppressive working conditions. It was in Anderson County, in fact, where striking mill workers, supported by Anderson sheriff Joe M.H. Ashley, were eventually evicted from their mill houses by National Guardsmen sent in by Governor Manning in 1916 (Carlton 1982:253).

It is also important to understand the mills also felt the down-swings in South Carolina's economy. With the agricultural depression of the 1920s, textile profits plummeted. With the decline in profits,

wages also declined, often being reduced from record highs of around \$24/week to about \$15/week. This resulted in unprecedented suffering. Deaths in South Carolina mill villages increased by 20% between 1920 and 1921 (Beardsley 1987:60).

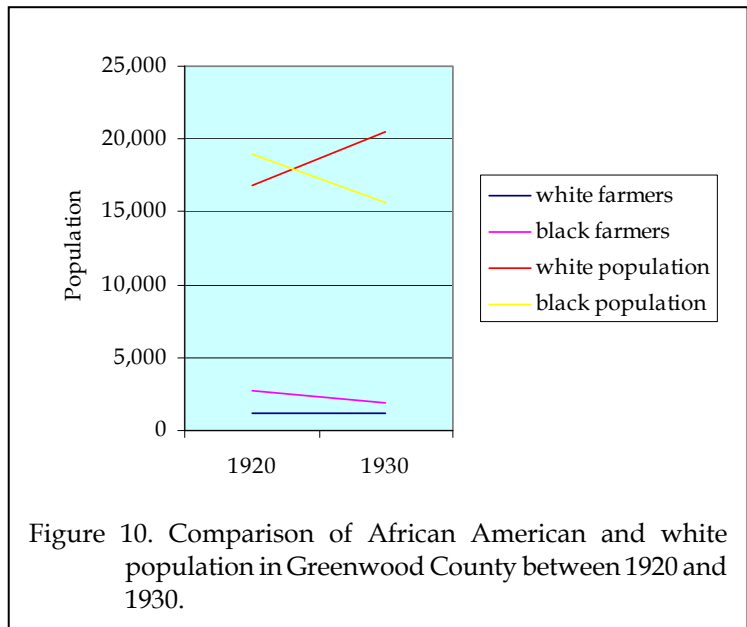
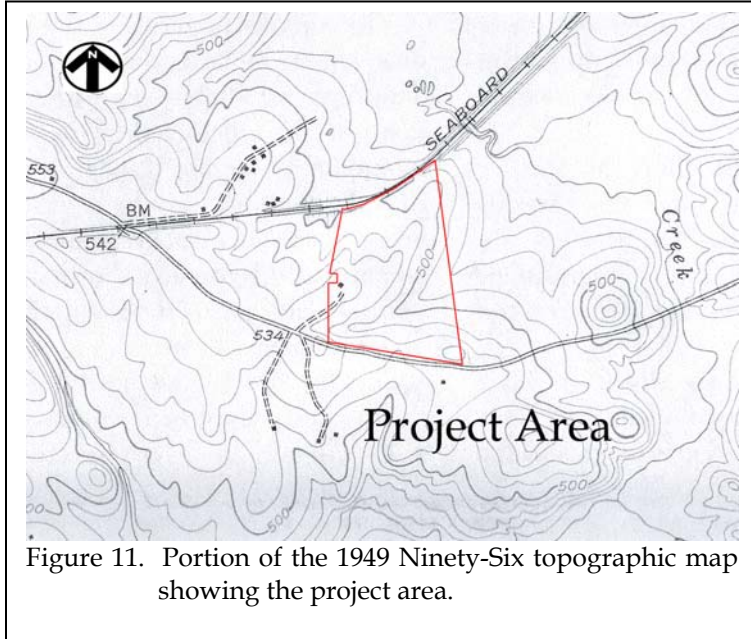


Figure 10. Comparison of African American and white population in Greenwood County between 1920 and 1930.



The study area, remained rural. Figure 9 illustrates a map from 1938 showing no development in the project area.

African American had begun migrating out of South Carolina during the nineteenth century, largely in response to the oppressive political and social climate. This exodus continued through at least the mid-twentieth century. Figure 10 clearly reveals the decline in both African American farmers and general population - while the white population in Greenwood steadily increased.

The 1949 Ninety-Six 7.5' topographic map shows the project area with a structure on the western edge of the tract (Figure 11). This structure was identified as 38GN584 and has been severely damaged by construction.



## 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 16 transects were set up running from Emerald Road at the south along Capsugel Court north to the railroad tracks. Shovel tests were performed to the east with a total of 224 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.

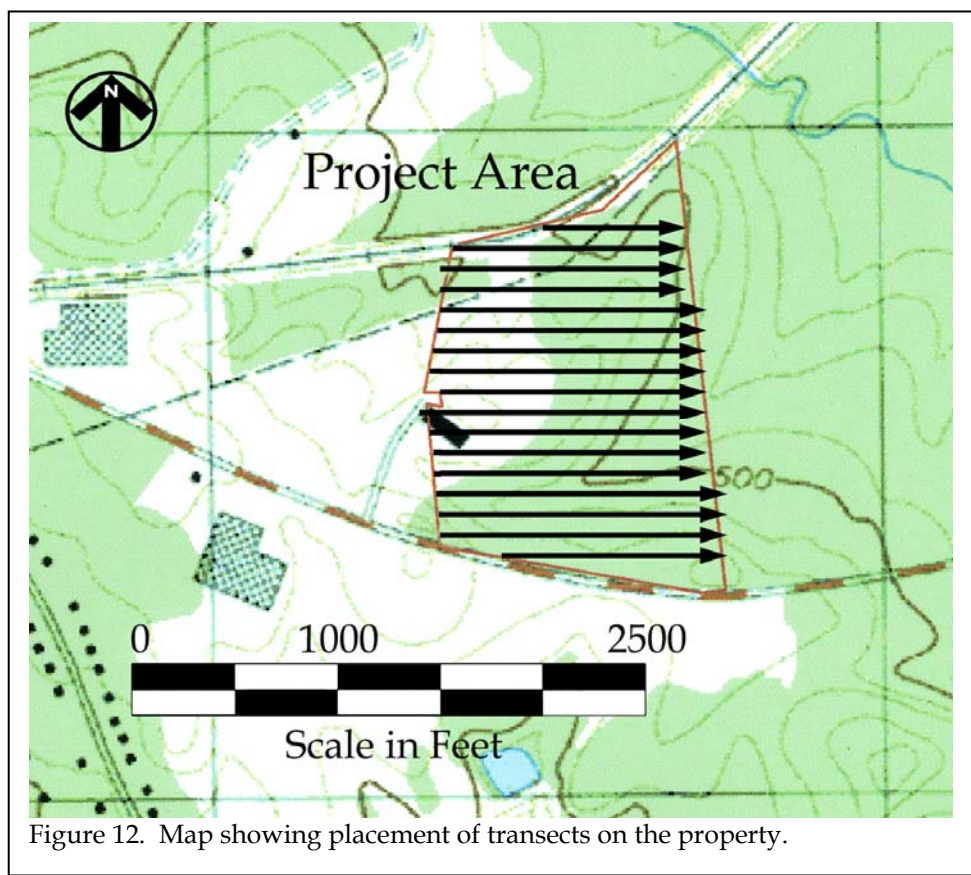


Figure 12. Map showing placement of transects on the property.

### Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect



Figure 13. Former location of a building on the project tract.

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

(APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, 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.

### Site Evaluation

Archae-ological 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

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.

Revisit forms for the four previously identified archaeological sites have been filed with SCIAA along with site forms for the two newly recorded sites. 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.



Figure 14. Recording a site on the survey tract.

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 prehistoric materials were defined by such authors as Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986). Historic remains follow such authors as Price

(1979) and South (1977).

## RESULTS OF SURVEY

### Introduction

As a result of this cultural resources survey six archaeological sites (38GN584-587 and 38GN589-590) were recorded (Figure 15). Site 38GN584 is a nineteenth to early twentieth century scatter; site 38GN585 is an Early Woodland period scatter; sites 38GN586 and 38GN587 are sparse prehistoric scatters; site 38GN589 is a nineteenth to twentieth century trash dump; and site 38GN590 is a brick pile representing an early twentieth century structure. All six sites are recommended not eligible for the National Register for their inability to address significant research questions.

No comprehensive architectural survey has been performed for Greenwood County. A 1978-1984 SHPO survey recorded 12 sites in the county, none of which are near the current project area. The current architectural survey failed to identify any structures or other resources in the project APE that would be considered potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

### Archaeological Resources

#### 38GN584

**Location:** Zone 17; 400390E 3786579N (NAD27 datum)

**Elevation:** 530 feet AMSL

**Component:** Late nineteenth to twentieth century domestic settlement

**Size:** 50 feet x 100 feet

**Nearest water source:** Coronaca Creek about 2,000 feet to the northeast

**Previous disturbance:** A portion of the area has been logged, grubbed/graded, and cut down about 8 feet for an industrial building that has been recently torn down

**Landform location:** Ridge top

**Vegetation:** Mixed pine and hardwood forest with some grassed areas

### *Site Description*

Site 38GN584 is located on the western portion of the project area (Figure 16). It contains artifacts ranging in age from late nineteenth to mid-twentieth century. The site is located on a

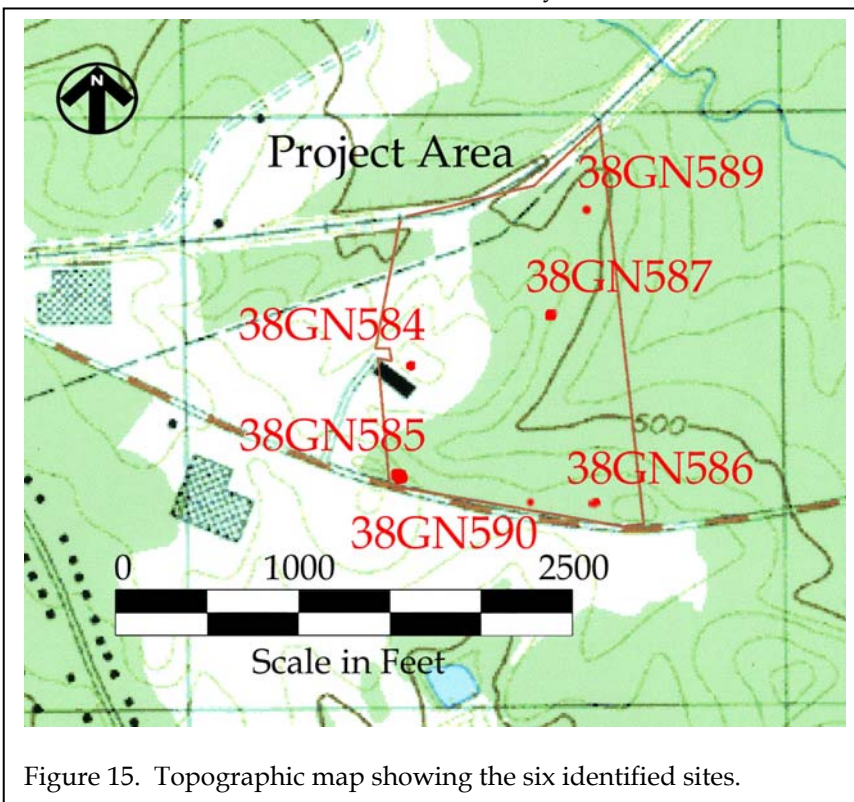


Figure 15. Topographic map showing the six identified sites.

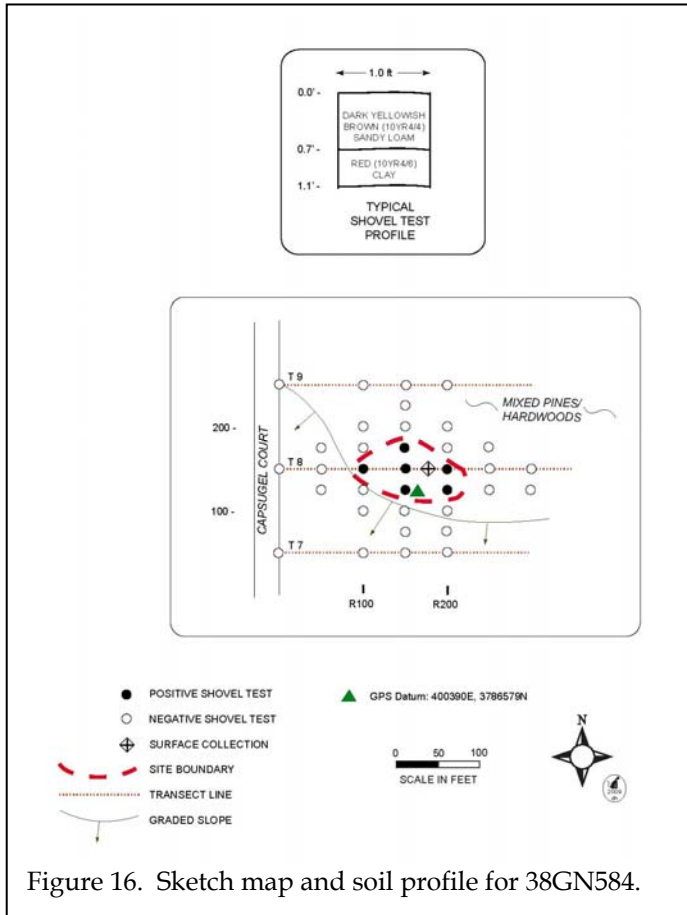


Figure 16. Sketch map and soil profile for 38GN584.

ridge top that has been damaged from grubbing and grading (down about eight feet in depth in some areas) for an industrial building that was once located on the property. It appears construction has removed part of the site.

*Investigation Methods*

The site was originally identified during the reconnaissance of the property, revealing three positive shovel tests. The current survey tested the site at 50-foot intervals, producing three additional positive shovel tests. Including both the reconnaissance and the intensive survey, a total of 25 shovel tests were excavated with six (24%) positive.

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. Artifacts were found in the upper 0.7 foot of soil.

*Artifacts*

A total of 27 historic artifacts were recovered from the site. The results can be seen in Table 3. Two artifact groups are represented – Kitchen and Architecture.

The Kitchen Group dominates the collection with 74% of the total assemblage. Glass comprises most of the collection (95% of the Kitchen assemblage) while a single piece of ceramic accounts for the remaining 5%.

The ceramic, an undecorated piece of pearlware, has a mean ceramic date (MCD) of 1805. Glass can be more difficult to date, however, the cobalt glass was common in the late eighteenth to nineteenth centuries, generally used for medicine and cosmetic bottles (Jones and Sullivan 1985:14).

The Architecture Group consists of nails, a small piece of brick, which was noted and discarded on site, and a piece of window glass. The only diagnostic nail is a machine cut fragment, which was produced in large quantities by the 1820s (Howard 1989:55).

Table 3.  
Artifacts from 38GN584

	125 R150	125 R200	150 R100	150 R150	150 R200	175 R150	Surface	Total
<b>Kitchen Group</b>								<b>20</b>
Pearlware, undecorated	1							
Glass, clear	2		4	2	1	4	1	
Glass, cobalt							1	
Glass, light green	3					1		
<b>Architecture Group</b>								<b>7</b>
Window Glass					1			
Nail fragment, machine cut		1						
Nail fragment, UID	3				1			
Metal, UID				1				
<b>TOTAL</b>								<b>27</b>



Figure 17. Site 38GN584 shown with a graded area adjacent in the foreground.

### 38GN585

**Location:** Zone 17;  
400368E 3786380N  
(NAD27 datum)  
**Elevation:** 530 feet  
AMSL  
**Component:** Early  
Woodland lithic scatter  
**Size:** Approximately  
150 feet x 100 feet  
**Nearest water source:**  
Wilson Creek about  
1,900 feet to the south.  
**Previous disturbance:**  
Area has been logged  
and cleared, exposing a  
red clay surface  
**Landform location:**  
Ridge saddle

#### *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, both producing artifacts commonly found at homesites from a range of different time periods. It is unlikely that this sparse site can provide any meaningful information about turn-of-the-century homesites. In addition, grading of the land seems to have destroyed a portion of the site – the amount of which is unknown (Figure 17).

We do know that a structure at this location is shown on a 1949 map (see Figure 11), however, the artifacts suggest a structure earlier than the map's mid-twentieth century date.

Consequently, we recommend 38GN584 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.

**Vegetation:** None

#### *Site Description*

Site 38GN585 is located in the southwest corner of the survey tract – at the corner of Emerald Road (S-100) and Capsugel Court (Figure 18). The area has been cleared, exposing the red clay subsoil (Figure 19). The site was identified by the scatter of surface artifacts.

#### *Investigation Methods*

The site was originally recorded during the reconnaissance. No shovel testing was performed, but a pedestrian survey estimated the site as 100 feet by 100 feet. The current survey tested the site at 50-foot intervals and expanded the site to 150 feet by 100 feet.

Soil profiles in this area usually resemble Cecil sandy clay loam that has an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot over a red (10YR4/3) clay. Severe erosion in the area has removed the top 0.7 foot of soil, revealing the red (10YR4/3) clay horizon exposed at the surface.

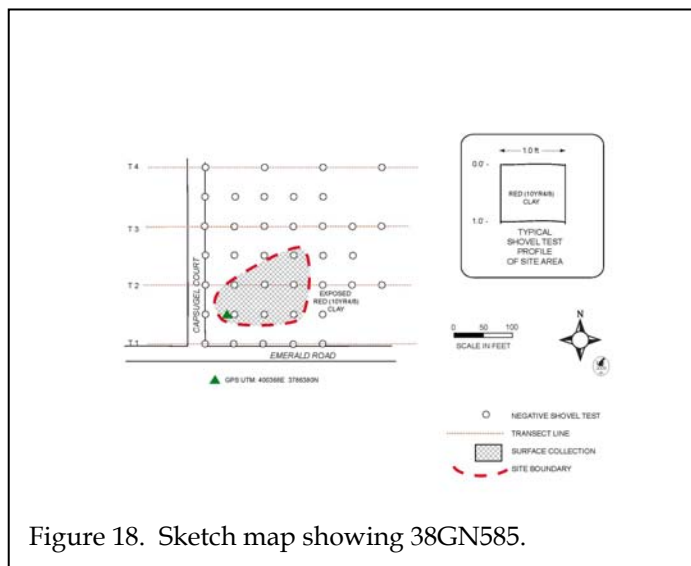


Figure 18. Sketch map showing 38GN585.

measures 32.6 mm in length, 21.5 mm in width, and is 9.0 mm thick. Although small and heavily eroded, the pottery resembles Yadkin ware, which dates from Early to Mid-Woodland. Table 4 summarizes the artifacts collected at the site.

### 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 meaningful research. This site is entirely superficial – no subsurface remains were found. In addition, the size of the collection is small, producing only one definitively diagnostic artifact.

### Artifacts

A total of 19 lithics and two small sherds were found at this site. Although the sample size is small, a variety of materials were recovered including quartz, rhyolite, and chert. In addition, at least one diagnostic artifact – a Gypsy projectile point – was recovered (Oliver 1981).

The Gypsy point is made of quartz and dates to the Early Woodland. This point

Given the small size, it is unlikely that this site will be able to address any significant research questions related to the Woodland period. Site 38GN585 is recommended 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.

### 38GN586



Figure 19. View of exposed subsoil revealing artifacts at 38GN585.

**Location:** Zone 17; 400667E 3786345N (NAD27 datum)  
**Elevation:** 525 feet AMSL  
**Component:** Prehistoric lithic scatter  
**Size:** 50 feet x 50 feet  
**Nearest water source:** Coronaca Creek about 2,000 feet to the east  
**Previous disturbance:** Logging and erosion  
**Landform location:** Ridge saddle  
**Vegetation:** Recently logged pines and scrub

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Table 4.  
Artifacts from 38GN585

	Surface	Total
Projectile Point, Gypsy, Quartz	1	
Biface, Rhyolite	1	
Flake, Quartz	6	
Flake, Rhyolite	2	
Flake, Chert	9	
Sherd, small	2	
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>21</b>

*Site Description*

Site 38GN586 is located on Emerald Road (S-100) near the southeast corner of the project tract (Figure 20). The site was identified during the reconnaissance from the scatter of artifacts on the surface. Recent logging and scrub vegetation provided only about 50% surface visibility (Figure 21).

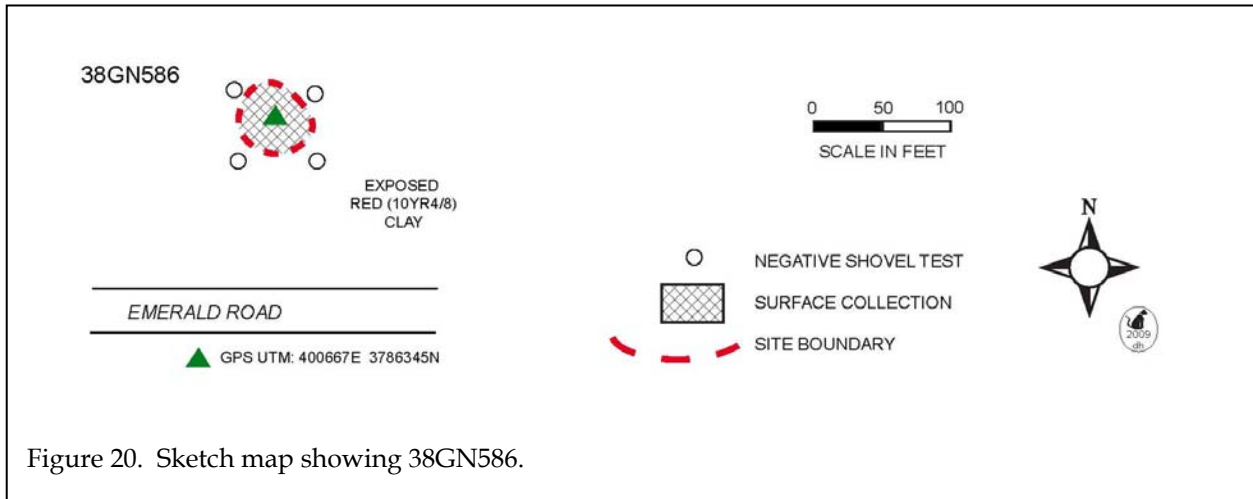


Figure 20. Sketch map showing 38GN586.

*Investigation Methods*

The location of the site was found during a pedestrian survey during the reconnaissance that identified a small surface scatter of lithics. The current investigation shovel tested in the area of the site at 50-foot intervals, with four shovel tests in immediate vicinity of the site. No subsurface remains, however, were found.

While soil profiles generally produce the

Cecil Series that have an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot over a red (10YR4/3) clay, the area where artifacts were found had the red (10YR4/3) clay exposed at the surface.

*Artifacts*

Only three artifacts were recovered from this site - all flakes. Materials of the flakes include quartz (n=1) and chert (n=2).

*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 meaningful research. This site produced only three artifacts, none of which are

diagnostic. With only three artifacts, questions such as function of the site still remain.

Site 38GN586 is recommended 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.

**38GN587**

**Location:** Zone 17; 400611E 3786647N (NAD27)

datum)

**Elevation:** 510 feet AMSL

**Component:** Prehistoric lithic scatter

**Size:** Approximately 50 feet x 50 feet

**Nearest water source:** Coronaca Creek about 1,500 feet to the east

**Previous disturbance:** Logging and erosion

**Landform location:** Ridge side slope

**Vegetation:** Mixed pines and hardwoods with cleared areas and exposed red clay

*Site Description*

Site 38GN587 is located in the northeast portion of the project tract (Figure 22). It was identified by a sparse scatter of lithics in exposed clay (Figure 23).



Figure 21. Site 38GN586 in a recently logged area.

*Investigation Methods*

The site was located during a pedestrian survey of areas with greater than 50% surface visibility during the reconnaissance. The current survey examined the site by shovel testing at 50-foot intervals around the locus. A total of four shovel tests were within the vicinity of the site, however all the shovel tests were negative.

While soil profiles generally produce the Cecil Series that have an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot over a red (10YR4/3) clay, the area where artifacts were found had the red (10YR4/3) clay exposed at the surface.

*Artifacts*

The only artifacts found at this site are six quartz flakes – none of which are diagnostic.

*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 meaningful research. This site

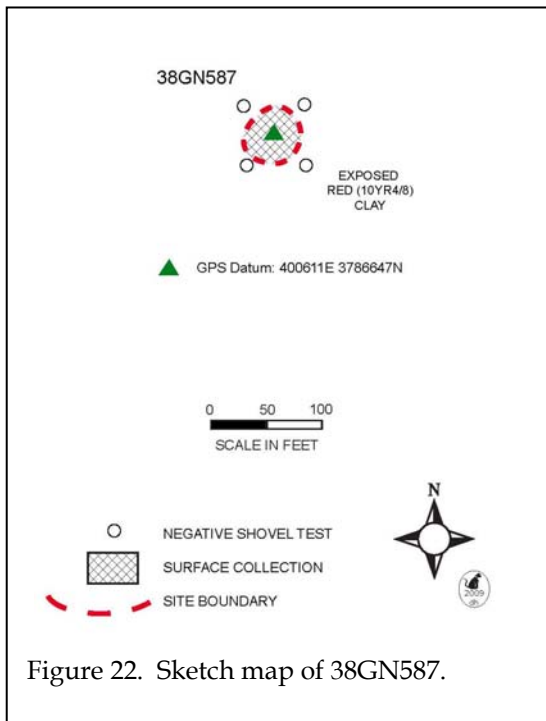


Figure 22. Sketch map of 38GN587.



Figure 23. Site 38GN587 in an area with good surface visibility.

produced only a small amount of artifacts, none of which were diagnostic. It is unlikely that the site will be able to produce any additional information that could address significant research question about the prehistory of the region.

Site 38GN587 is recommended not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. No additional management activities are recommended pending the review and concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office.

### 38GN589

**Location:** Zone 17; 400676E 3786824N (NAD27 datum)

**Elevation:** 505 feet AMSL

**Component:** Nineteenth to twentieth century dump site

**Size:** Approximately 30 feet x 30 feet

**Nearest water source:** Coronaca Creek about 930 feet to the northeast

**Previous disturbance:** Logging and erosion

**Landform location:** Ridge toe

**Vegetation:** Logged with scrub vegetation

#### Site Description

Site 38GN589 is located in the northeast portion of the tract (Figure 24). It was identified during shovel testing of the entire property with Transect 14, Shovel test 10 (150R100) positive.

#### Investigation Methods

Although there was approximately 50% surface visibility, the site was encountered through shovel testing. The shovel test produced four artifacts, which can be found in Table

5. Close interval testing was performed at 25-foot intervals along the cardinal directions until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. A total of eight additional shovel tests were excavated with only the original 150R100 test positive.

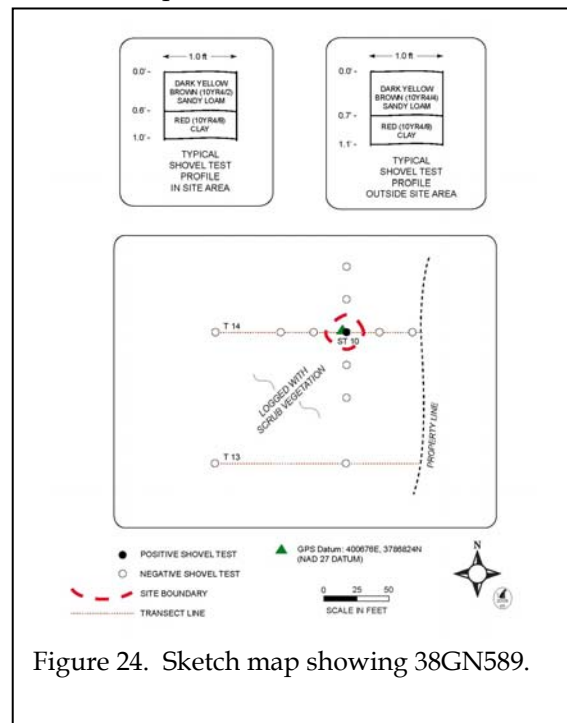


Figure 24. Sketch map showing 38GN589.

Table 5.  
Artifacts from 38GN589

	T14 ST10	Surface	Total
<b>Kitchen Group</b>			<b>69</b>
Whiteware, undecorated		8	
Glass, brown	3		
Glass, cobalt		9	
Glass, clear		30	
Glass, milk		4	
Glass, green milk		14	
Fork		1	
<b>Architecture Group</b>			<b>1</b>
Nail, machine cut		1	
<b>Prehistoric</b>			<b>1</b>
Flake, chert	1		
<b>TOTAL</b>			<b>71</b>

A large amount of surface artifacts were collected in vicinity of the shovel test, producing a total of 67 additional artifacts.

Soil profiles generally resembled the Cecil Series, but varied slightly. The surface layer produced a dark yellowish brown (10YR4/2) sandy loam to a depth of 0.6 foot (slightly shallower than a typical Cecil horizon). The subsurface is the red (10YR4/3) clay found throughout the property.

#### *Artifacts*

A total of 70 historic artifacts were recovered from the site. A single flake, thought to be a prehistoric isolate. Two artifact groups are represented – Kitchen and Architecture.

The Kitchen Group dominates the collection with 99% of the total historic assemblage. Glass comprises most of the collection (87% of the Kitchen assemblage) while 12% of the collection consists of undecorated whiteware. A fork accounts for the remaining 1%.

The ceramic, undecorated whiteware, has a mean ceramic date (MCD) of 1860, but is commonly found through the twentieth century. The fork has “CROSBY SILVER PLATE” on the

back and has a flower pattern on the front. This specific pattern dates to 1935 ([www.replacements.com](http://www.replacements.com)).

Glass can be more difficult to date; however, cobalt glass was common in the late eighteenth to nineteenth centuries, generally used for medicine and cosmetic bottles (Jones and Sullivan 1985:14). The green milk glass, commonly called jadite, has been in production from c.1930 to the present.

The Architecture Group consists of a single machine cut nail. These nails were produced in large quantities by the 1820s (Howard 1989:55).

#### *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 meaningful research.

As such, only two data sets are represented in the collection, consisting almost entirely of kitchen related items. The only definitive date we have for the site is a fork that was manufactured in 1935, giving us a terminus post quem for the site.

The site’s integrity, however, is questionable. Only one shovel test was positive and the surface collection appears isolated. The site gives the appearance of not being a home location, but a dump site for trash. No artifacts were found that could tie this site to nearby structures. The site is out of context and can not address any significant research questions.

Consequently, we recommend this site is 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.

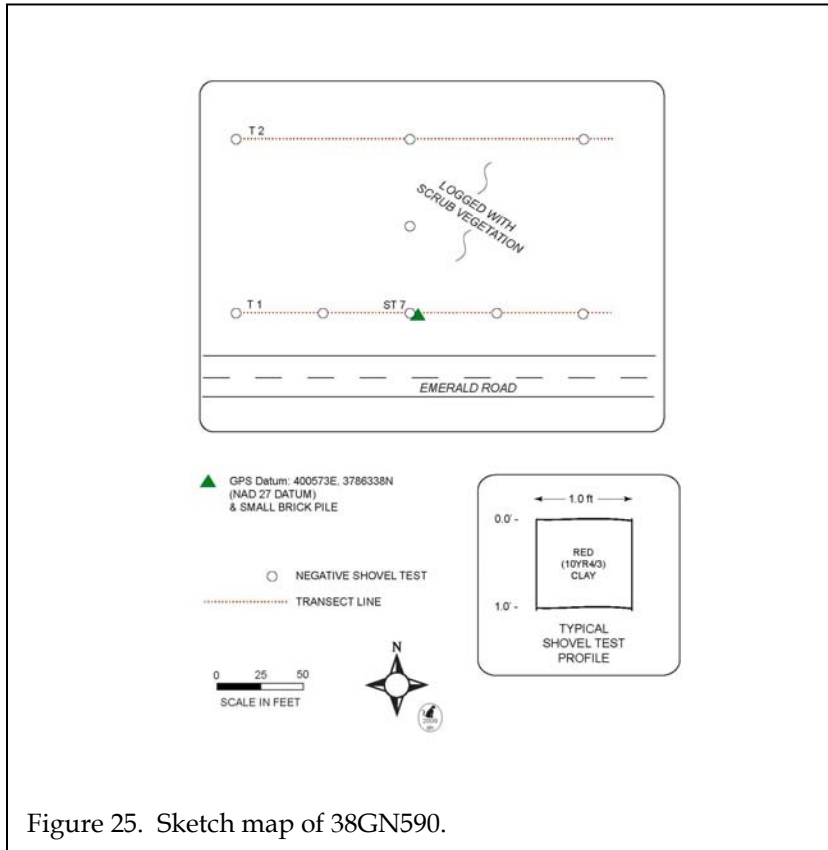


Figure 25. Sketch map of 38GN590.

**38GN590**

- Location:** Zone 17; 400573E 3786338N (NAD27 datum)
- Elevation:** 530 feet AMSL
- Component:** Twentieth century house site
- Size:** 5 feet x 5 feet
- Nearest water source:** Wilson Creek, 2,000 feet south
- Previous disturbance:** Area has been logged and cleared, exposing a red clay surface
- Landform location:** Ridge side slope
- Vegetation:** Scrub

*Site Description*

Site 38GN590 (Figure 25) is located on the southern portion of the tract, along Emerald Road (S-100). The area has been intensively logged and cleared, exposing the red clay subsoil. The site was identified by a pile of bricks next to the road (Figure 26).

*Investigation Methods*

The site was originally identified during shovel testing at 100-foot intervals with Transect 1, Shovel test 7 located next to the brick pile. Although no artifacts were found in the shovel test, close interval testing was performed at 50-foot intervals along the cardinal directions (except south to Emerald Road) until two consecutive negative tests were encountered. Six additional tests were excavated, but no artifacts were found. No surface artifacts were found beyond the pile of bricks.

Soil profiles in the area usually resemble Cecil sandy clay loam that has an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot in depth over a red (10YR4/3) clay. Severe erosion in the area has removed

the top 0.7 foot of soil, revealing the red (10YR4/3) clay horizon exposed at the surface.

*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 meaningful research.

We do believe that the brick pile is what remains of the structure shown in the 1929 Soil Survey for Greenwood County (see Figure 8). The lack of artifacts for the site suggest significant land altering since the time of the structure. The brick pile is close to the road – seemingly out of the way of logging equipment. It is possible that the structure was razed and with years of logging and erosion, what remained of the structure has been destroyed.



Figure 26. View of brick pile from 38GN590.

Consequently, this site can not address significant research questions about historic home sites, since we don't even have a definitive date beyond the 1929 map. We recommend the site 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.

#### **Architectural and Other Historic Resources**

No comprehensive architectural survey has been performed for Greenwood County; however 12 sites were recorded by the SHPO between 1978 and 1984. None of these structures are in the project APE.

The architectural survey failed to identify any structures that might be considered potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. The area is being rapidly developed with industrial companies.

## CONCLUSIONS

The 61.9 acre survey tract is located in eastern Greenwood County. This intensive survey was performed for Mr. Chip Funderburk of Heaner, Inc. 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 reconnaissance level survey earlier in the year produced four archaeological sites (38GN585-587). These sites were tested for their potential for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. In addition, two more sites - 38GN589 and 38GN590 - were recorded and tested.

None of the sites produced the quality or quantity of remains needed to address significant research questions.

A survey of public roads within 1.0 mile

failed to identify any structures at least 50 years in age that might be potentially eligible for the National Register. The area is being developed with industrial buildings.

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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