



Cultural Resource Survey
City of Newberry Recreation Complex
Newberry County, South Carolina
S&ME Proposal No. 4261-18-043
SHPO Project No. 18-KL0085

PREPARED FOR:

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March 2018



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March 2018



Management Summary

On behalf of Alliance Consulting Engineers, Inc. (Alliance), S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed a cultural resources survey of 200 acres for the City of Newberry Recreation Complex in Newberry County, South Carolina. The project area is located south of Dixie Drive (SC Highway 34) and east of Glenn Street Extension, to the south of the city limits of Newberry (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area will be developed into a recreation complex and will include an entrance off of Glenn Street Extension, development of a baseball field, tee ball field, splash pad area, and a mulch walking trail around an existing pond (Figure 1.3).

This work is being completed in anticipation of applying for a grant from the Land and Water Conservation Fund, part of the South Carolina Department of Parks, Recreation, & Tourism. In addition to consultation with the State Historic Preservation Office, the grant application requests consultation with Tribal Historic Preservation Offices; the Catawba Indian Nation, Eastern Band of Cherokee, and the Muscogee (Creek) Nation will also be consulting parties on this project. The following work was conducted in response to the grant application and was carried out in general accordance with the agreed-upon scope, terms, and conditions presented in Proposal No. 42-1800273, dated March 12, 2018.

Fieldwork for this project was conducted on March 15, 2018. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) for direct effects is limited to the project footprint, while the APE for indirect effects consists of resources within or directly adjacent to the proposed project area. As a result of the survey, three archaeological sites were identified (38NE1365, 38NE1366, and 38NE1367), three historic resources were recorded (1967, 1968, and 1969), and one NRHP-listed resource (0021/1059) was revisited (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1).

Table 1.1. Cultural resource identified/revisited during the survey.

Resource	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Recommendation
38NE1365	Middle Archaic isolate; 20 th century artifact scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
38NE1366	20 th century house complex	Not Eligible	No Further Work
38NE1367	20 th century artifact scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
0021/1059	Timberhouse, ca. 1858	Listed	No Effect; No Further Work
1967	Norfolk Southern/CSX railroad corridor	Not Eligible	No Further Work
1968	House, ca. 1965	Not Eligible	No Further Work
1969	House, ca. 1965	Not Eligible	No Further Work

It is S&ME's opinion that the project area has a low probability for containing additional cultural resources based on the results of the current investigations, the current soil characteristics, historic map research, the extent of silviculture over the project area, and the lack of intact soil deposits within the project area. It is recommended that no additional cultural resource investigations should be necessary for the currently proposed project.



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1.0 Introduction

On behalf of Alliance, S&ME has completed a cultural resource survey of 200 acres for the City of Newberry Recreation Complex in Newberry County, South Carolina. The project area is located south of Dixie Drive (SC Highway 34) and east of Glenn Street Extension, to the south of the city limits of Newberry (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area will be developed into a recreation complex and will include an entrance off of Glenn Street Extension, development of baseball field, tee ball field, splash pad area, and a mulch walking trail around an existing pond (Figure 1.3).

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S&ME carried out background research and field investigation tasks in March 2018. The fieldwork was conducted by Senior Archaeologist Kimberly Nagle, M.S., RPA and Crew Chief Paul Connell, and consisted of excavating shovel tests and photo documenting the project area. Structure evaluations and impacts were assessed by Senior Architectural Historian Heather Carpini, M.A.; the report was written by Ms. Nagle and Ms. Carpini. Artifact analysis was completed by Mr. Connell; graphics and mapping were completed by Ms. Nagle and Ms. Carpini.

This report has been prepared in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended; the Archaeological and Historic Preservation Act of 1979; procedures for the Protection of Historic Properties (36 CFR Part 800); and 36 CFR Parts 60 through 79, as appropriate. Field investigations and the technical report meet the qualifications specified in the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (Federal Register [FR] 48:44716–44742), and the *South Carolina Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Investigations* (COSCAPA et al. 2013). Supervisory personnel meet the Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards set forth in 36 CFR Part 61.



2.0 Environmental Setting

2.1 Location

The project area is located in the central portion of Newberry County, southeast of the limits of the City of Newberry. Newberry County, which covers approximately 647 square miles is bounded by Union County to the north, Fairfield County to the east, Lexington and Richland counties to the southeast, Saluda County to the south, Greenwood County to the southwest, and Laurens County to the northwest.

2.2 Geology and Topography

The project area is located within the Piedmont physiographic province, which consists of gently to steeply sloping ridges underlain by soils weathered in place from the parent crystalline bedrock material. Rocks found in the Piedmont are generally metamorphic with igneous granite intrusions (Kovacik and Winberry 1989). There are many granite outcrops in the project area, including one known locally as Tarleton’s Tea Table. Mining of the granite is apparent in portions of the project area. Topography at the site ranges from 500 ft above mean sea level (AMSL) along the intermittent stream in the northwestern portion of the project area to 580 ft AMSL near the transmission line corridor in the southeastern portion of the project area (Figure 1.1).

2.3 Hydrology

An unnamed intermittent stream is located in the northwestern portion of the project area, the intermittent stream flows into an unnamed tributary of Bush River, roughly 3.3 miles southwest of the project area. Bush River flows south, into the northwestern portion of Lake Murray and the Saluda River. The Saluda River joins with the Broad River in Columbia to form the Congaree River, and ultimately the Santee River.

2.4 Soils

The project area is located in the Cecil-Applying-Durham soil association, which consists of gently sloping or sloping sandy loams (USDA 2008). There are five specific soil types within the project area, their specific characteristics and locations within the project area can be found in Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1.

Table 2.1. Specific soil types found within the project area.

Soil Name	Type	Drainage	Location	Slope
Callison	Silt loam	Moderately well drained	Ridges/Side slopes	2–6%
Cecil	Sandy loam	Well drained	Ridges/Side slopes	2–10%
Hard Labor	Sandy loam	Moderately well drained	Ridges/Side slopes	2–10%
Mecklenburg	Sandy clay loam	Well drained	Ridges/Side slopes	2–6%
Winnsboro	Sandy loam	Well drained	Ridges/Side slopes	2–6%

2.5 Climate and Vegetation

The climate of Newberry County is subtropical. It is characterized by long, hot summers and moderately short, cool winters. The average daily temperatures range from 45.5° Fahrenheit in winter to 78.5° Fahrenheit in summer. Precipitation is relatively evenly distributed throughout the year, averaging 48.5 inches annually. Rainfall is adequate for most crops during the peak-growing season of April through October. Snowfall is uncommon and averages only 2.9 inches per year (Holsonback and Brewington 2008).

Vegetation in the project area is a mixture of planted pine and secondary growth over previously cleared areas (Figures 2.2 and 2.3). Disturbances in the project area include transmission line corridors, dirt roads, and two ponds with associated berms (Figures 2.4 through 2.8).



Figure 2.2. Typical vegetation in an area of planted pine, facing northeast.



Figure 2.3. Typical secondary growth in an area that has been previously cleared, facing north.



Figure 2.4. Typical transmission line and vegetation in project area, facing northwest.



Figure 2.5. Typical dirt road in the project area, facing west.



Figure 2.6. Pond in western portion of project area, facing northwest.



Figure 2.7. Pond and berm in central portion of project area, facing west.



Figure 2.8. Dirt road traversing the project area, facing north.



3.0 Cultural Context

3.1 Prehistoric Context

Most of North America has been occupied by humans since at least 13,000 radiocarbon years before present (B.P.) (Anderson and O’Steen 1992; Bense 1994); however, a date for the initial settlement of North America is part of an ongoing debate (e.g., Adovasio and Pedler 1996; Dillehay and Collins 1988). In South Carolina, archaeologists divide the past 13,500 years into four broad prehistoric periods based on changes in technology, social structure, subsistence, environmental conditions, and presumed ideology. Each of these periods is discussed below.

3.1.1 *Paleoindian Period (ca. 13,000–10,000 B.P.)*

When humans first arrived in North America is a subject of great debate, with suggested dates going back more than 35,000 years (Dillehay and Collins 1988; Goodyear 2005). Evidence for pre-Clovis occupations are posited for Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, the Cactus Hill and Saltville sites in Virginia, and at the Topper site in South Carolina, although this evidence is not widely accepted and has not been validated (Adovasio and Pedler 1996; Dillehay and Collins 1988; Goodyear 2005). Recently, a number of sites providing possible evidence for a presence in the New World dating between 15,000 and 13,500 years ago have been discovered. Although far from numerous, these sites are scattered across North and South America, including Alaska, Florida, Oregon, Wisconsin, and southern Chile. Despite this, the earliest widely accepted dates for occupation in the Southeastern United States are at the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 13,000 years ago (Anderson and O’Steen 1992; Bense 1994).

Unfortunately, most data about Paleoindian lifeways in the Southeast comes from surface finds of projectile points rather than from controlled excavations. However, the Tree House site (38LX531) located along the Saluda River near Columbia, has shed light on Paleoindian lifeways in the area. The Tree House site is a multi-component, stratified site containing occupations ranging from the Early Paleoindian to Mississippian periods (Nagle and Green 2010). Evidence from the site, which yielded an *in-situ* Clovis point, indicated short-term use by relatively mobile populations. The tools found at the Tree House site could have been used for hunting and butchering, and it is likely that the site was used as a hunting camp during the Early and Late Paleoindian subperiods. Lithic raw materials associated with the Paleoindian component tended to be higher quality stone such as Black Mingo chert, Coastal Plain chert, and crystal quartz, although lesser quality local materials such as quartz were used as well (Nagle and Green 2010:264).

The limited information we have for the Paleoindian Period suggests the earliest Native Americans had a mixed subsistence strategy based on hunting (or scavenging) of the megafauna and smaller game combined with the foraging of wild plant foods. Groups are thought to have consisted of small, highly transient bands made up of several nuclear and/or extended families. Paleoindian artifacts have been found in both riverine and inter-riverine contexts (Charles and Michie 1992:193). Paleoindian projectile points appear to be concentrated along major rivers near the Fall Line and in the Coastal Plain, although it is almost certain that many additional sites along the coast have been inundated by the rise of sea level that has occurred since that time (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Sassaman 1996).

Paleoindian tools are typically well-made and manufactured from high-quality, cryptocrystalline rock such as Coastal Plain and Ridge and Valley chert, as well as Piedmont metavolcanics such as rhyolite (Goodyear 1979).



Paleoindians traveled long distances to acquire these desirable raw materials and it is likely that particularly favored quarries were included in seasonal rounds, allowing them to replenish their stock of raw material on an annual basis.

The most readily recognizable artifact from the early Paleoindian period is the Clovis point, which is a fluted, lanceolate-shaped spear point. Clovis points, first identified from a site in New Mexico, have been found across the nation, although they tend to be clustered in the eastern United States (Anderson and Sassaman 1996:222). Paleoindian artifact assemblages typically consist of diagnostic lanceolate projectile points, scrapers, graters, unifacial and bifacial knives, and burins. Projectile point types include fluted and unfluted forms, such as Clovis, Cumberland, Suwanee, Quad, and Dalton (Anderson et al. 1992; Justice 1987:17–43).

In South Carolina, the Clovis subperiod is generally thought to date from 11,500 to 11,000 B.P. (Sassaman et al. 1990:8). Recent radiocarbon data indicate that a more accurate time frame for the Clovis period in North America may be 11,050 to 10,800 B.P. (Waters and Stafford 2007); however, this has yet to gain widespread acceptance. Suwanee points, which are slightly smaller than Clovis points, are dated from 11,000 to 10,500 B.P. This is followed by Dalton points, which are found throughout the Southeast and date from about 10,500 to 9900 B.P.

3.1.2 *Archaic Period (ca. 10,000–3000 B.P.)*

Major environmental changes at the terminal end of the Pleistocene led to changes in human settlement patterns, subsistence strategies, and technology. As the climate warmed and the megafauna became extinct, population size increased and there was a simultaneous decrease in territory size and settlement range.

The Archaic was characterized by a long postglacial adaptation where technology became more diversified, including the introduction of ground stone woodworking and plant processing tools, carved and polished stone bowls, atlatl weights, stone pipes, and beads (Benson 2006:35). There is also a shift in lithic production toward smaller projectile points, possibly reflecting a change in hunting patterns from large to smaller game (Anderson and Joseph 1988:102; Goodyear 1974, 1982). Much of the Southeast during the early part of this period consisted of a mixed oak-hickory forest. Later, during the Hypsithermal interval between 8000 and 4000 B.P., southern pine communities became more prevalent in the inter-riverine uplands, and extensive riverine swamps were formed (Anderson et al. 1996; Delcourt and Delcourt 1985).

The chronology for the Archaic Period in the Carolinas is still derived primarily from Coe's (1964) seminal work in the Piedmont of North Carolina, with some revisions from Benson's (2006) overview of the Sumter National Forest. The Archaic is typically divided into three subperiods: Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.), Middle Archaic (8000–5000 B.P.), and Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.). Each of these subperiods appears to have been lengthy, and the inhabitants of each were successful in adapting contemporary technology to prevailing climatic and environmental conditions of the time. Settlement patterns reflected a fairly high degree of mobility, making use of seasonally available resources in the changing environment across different areas of the Southeast. People relied on large animals and wild plant resources for food. Group size gradually increased during this period, culminating in a fairly complex and populous society by the Late Archaic.

Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.)

The Early Archaic subperiod reflects a continuation of the semi-nomadic hunting and gathering lifestyle of the Paleoindian groups, although there was a focus on modern game species rather than megafauna, which had



become extinct by this time. Changes during this subperiod include a population increase (Goodyear et al. 1989) and a shift in settlement patterns, with people concentrated in temporary encampments along river floodplains.

In the Carolinas and Georgia, various models of Early Archaic social organization and settlement patterns have been proposed (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Hanson 1988). In general, these models hypothesize that Early Archaic societies were organized into small, band-sized communities of 25 to 50 people whose main territory surrounded a portion of a major drainage (Anderson and Hanson 1988). During the early spring, groups would forage in the lower Coastal Plain and then move inland to temporary camps in the Piedmont and mountains during the summer and early fall. In the late fall and winter, these bands would aggregate into larger, logistically provisioned base camps in the upper Coastal Plain, near the Fall Line. It is believed that group movements would have been circumscribed within major river drainages, and that movement across drainages into the territories of other bands was limited. At a more complex level of organization, bands were believed to be organized into larger "macrobands" of 500 to 1,500 people that periodically gathered at strategic locations near the Fall Line for communal food harvesting, rituals, and the exchange of mates and information.

Daniel (1998, 2001) has argued that access to high quality lithic material has been an under-appreciated component of Early Archaic settlement strategies. He presents compelling evidence that groups were moving between major drainages just as easily as they were moving along them. In contrast to earlier models, group movements were tethered to stone quarries rather than to specific drainages. Regardless of which model is correct, settlement patterns generally reflect a relatively high degree of mobility, making use of seasonally available resources such as nuts, migratory water fowl, and white-tailed deer.

Diagnostic markers of the Early Archaic subperiod include a variety of side and corner notched projectile point types, including Hardaway, Kirk, Palmer, Taylor, and Big Sandy, and later bifurcate base projectile point types such as Lecroy, McCorkle, and St. Albans. Additional tools of the Early Archaic subperiod include end scrapers, side scrapers, graters, microliths, and adzes (Sassaman et al. 2002), and likely perishable items such as traps, snares, nets, and basketry. Direct evidence of Early Archaic basketry and woven fiber bags was found at the Icehouse Bottom site in the mountains of eastern Tennessee (Chapman and Adovasio 1977). There was also a greater reliance on local lithic sources than there was during the preceding Paleoindian Period, and tools are sometimes made of lesser quality materials (Goodyear et al. 1989:38–39).

Middle Archaic (8,000–5000 B.P.)

The beginning of the Middle Archaic subperiod coincides with the start of the Altithermal (a.k.a. Hypsithermal), a significant warming trend where pine forests replaced the oak-hickory dominated forests of the preceding periods. It was during this time that extensive riverine swamps were formed, and the river and estuary systems took their modern configuration. These environmental changes caused changes in human behavior as well (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:10). However, the relationship between climatic, environmental, and cultural change during this period is still poorly understood (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:5–14).

In contrast to both the Early and Late Archaic, there seems to be a wider geographic distribution and a higher density of Middle Archaic sites in the region, suggesting that a mid-Holocene population increase may have taken place. This population increase should be viewed with caution, however, as it is primarily based on the distribution of Morrow Mountain points. Morphological correlates of Morrow Mountain points (e.g., Rossville, [Ritchie 1961]), have been found in other regions dating to the Late Archaic and Early Woodland subperiods. Thus Morrow Mountain-like points could span a much longer period than is currently believed. Anderson also argues against a

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substantial population increase, stating “site concentrations in Georgia and the Carolinas are ... unlikely to represent the presence of dense populations, but instead reflect the remains of small, organizationally uncomplicated groups ranging widely over the landscape” (Anderson 1996:164).

Regardless of whether there was a population increase, small, mobile hunting and gathering bands probably still formed the core social and economic unit in South Carolina during the Middle Archaic. Larger and more intensively occupied sites tend to occur near rivers, especially within the Coastal Plain, and numerous small, upland lithic scatters dot the interriverine landscape. Subsistence was presumably based on a variety of resources such as white-tail deer, nuts, fish, and migratory birds; however, shellfish do not seem to have been an important resource at this time.

During the Middle Archaic, ground stone tools such as axes, atlatl weights, and grinding stones became more common, while flaked stone tool styles became less diverse and tended to be made of locally available raw materials such as quartz (Blanton and Sassaman 1989). In addition to Morrow Mountain points, diagnostic point types of the Middle Archaic include Stanly, Guilford, Halifax, and Brier Creek (Blanton and Sassaman 1989; Coe 1964).

Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.)

The Late Archaic subperiod saw a number of important developments in the region, including increasing sedentism, the introduction of soapstone and ceramic vessel technology, the use of pit storage, an increased focus on riverine locations and resources (e.g., shellfish), and possibly the beginnings of small-scale horticulture.

Analyses of Late Archaic settlement patterns in the Sand Hills and adjacent areas indicate that groups gathered in large numbers at sites along major rivers in the spring and summer and established base camps near large tributaries that were occupied during the spring through early fall. These large gathering areas may have been used for ritual feasting and other communal activities; at least one site, Stallings Island in the middle of the Savannah River Valley, seems to have functioned as a mortuary as well (Sassaman et al. 2006). These congregation areas are probably analogous to the Late Archaic shell rings on the coast, which served as seasonal gathering, feasting, and ceremonial areas (Saunders and Russo 2002). In the late fall and winter, populations dispersed into the uplands and lived in small, semiautonomous groups (Sassaman and Anderson 1995; Sassaman et al. 1990).

In the spring and summer, Late Archaic people gathered large quantities of shellfish. It is not known why this productive resource was not exploited earlier, but one explanation is environmental conditions conducive to the creation of shellfish beds were not in place until the Late Archaic. Other resources that would have been exploited in the spring and summer months include anadromous and freshwater fish, white-tailed deer, small mammals, birds, and turtles (House and Ballenger 1976; Stoltman 1974). During the late fall and winter, populations likely subsisted on white-tailed deer, turkey, and nuts such as hickory and acorn. It is also possible that plants such as *Cucurbita* (squash and gourds), sunflower, sumpweed, and chenopod were being cultivated on a small-scale basis, although direct evidence for these cultigens is lacking in South Carolina.

Both Stallings Island and Thom’s Creek pottery date from about 4500–3000 B.P. and have a wide variety of surface treatments including plain, punctate, and incised designs (Sassaman et al. 1990). For a long time it was believed that fiber-tempered Stallings Island pottery was the oldest pottery in the region (perhaps in the New World) and that sand-tempered Thom’s Creek wares appeared a few centuries later (Sassaman 1993). Recent work at several shell ring sites on the coast, however, has demonstrated that the two types are contemporaneous, with Thom’s



Creek possibly even predating Stallings Island along the coast (Heide and Russo 2003; Russo and Heide 2003; Saunders and Russo 2002).

The Savannah River phase, which appears during this subperiod, is marked by the presence of larger sites containing steatite bowls, human burials, and prepared hearths (Ward 1983). The most common diagnostic biface of this subperiod is the Savannah River Stemmed projectile point (Coe 1964), a broad-bladed stemmed point found under a variety of names from Florida to Canada.

3.1.3 Woodland Period (ca. 3000–1000 B.P.)

Like the preceding Archaic Period, the Woodland is conventionally divided into three subperiods—Early, Middle, and Late—based on technological changes, increasing social complexity, and population increase. Among the changes that occurred during this period was the widespread adoption of ceramic technology, an increased reliance on native plant horticulture, and a more sedentary lifestyle. Ceramics became more refined and regionally differentiated, particularly with regard to temper. There was also an increase in sociopolitical and religious interactions, as evidenced by an increased use of burial mounds, increased ceremonialism, and expanded trade networks (Anderson and Mainfort 2002).

Early Woodland (3000–2300 B.P.)

The Early Woodland subperiod is generally marked by the intensification of horticulture, an increased use of ceramics in association with a semisedentary lifeway, and the introduction of the bow and arrow. The earliest expression of the Early Woodland subperiod in the Piedmont is the Badin phase (Ward and Davis 1999). Representative cultural material includes sand-tempered cordmarked or fabric-impressed ceramics and large, crude triangular projectile points (Ward and Davis 1999). Differences between the southern and northern Piedmont traditions become more pronounced through time and, by the Late Woodland subperiod, ceramics are quite diversified (Ward 1983).

Middle Woodland (2300–1500 B.P.)

In some areas of the Piedmont, the Middle Woodland subperiod is characterized by the Yadkin phase, whose ceramics are similar to the previous Badin type except they are tempered with crushed quartz rather than sand (Ward and Davis 1999). However, as Webb and Leigh (1995:29) point out, there is no clear, linear relationship between the development of the two phases. In some areas, Yadkin may represent the earliest ceramics, whereas in other areas Badin may be the earliest type. The Yadkin Large Triangular Point is the diagnostic point of the Early and Middle Woodland subperiods throughout much of North and South Carolina. Although substantial regional differences appear during this time, the Piedmont region was relatively unaffected by the elaborate Hopewell and Swift Creek cultures.

Late Woodland (1500–1000 B.P.)

Very little is known about the Late Woodland subperiod in South Carolina and sites of subperiod are rarely encountered. Some have suggested (e.g., Trinkley 1990) that the South Carolina Piedmont may have been a relatively uninhabited buffer zone between groups, as it was during the subsequent Mississippian Period. A more likely explanation is that sites of this subperiod are underrepresented because of the difficulty in recognizing Late Woodland artifact assemblages. In general, Late Woodland societies tend to be marked by an increasingly sedentary lifestyle and improvements in food storage and preparation technologies. Although corn and squash



were used in the region at this time, they did not comprise a significant part of the diet.

Pottery of the Late Woodland subperiod throughout much of the Piedmont is characterized by the later stages of the Yadkin-Uwharrie sequence proposed by Coe (1964). Uwharrie ceramics include plain, brushed, cordmarked, textile-impressed (including net and fabric), simple stamped, and curvilinear complicated stamped types that are tempered with sand and crushed quartz inclusions (Anderson et al. 1996). Associated lithic artifacts include small and medium sized triangular projectile points (e.g., Uwharrie points). In the upper Savannah River Valley and surrounding areas of the Piedmont, a variety of complicated stamped Swift Creek and Napier period ceramics are found in Late Woodland assemblages. Anderson and Joseph (1988:246) also believe that that Middle Woodland Cartersville and Connestee ceramics with plain, simple stamped, and checked stamped surface treatments may extend later in time than originally thought.

3.1.4 Mississippian Period (ca. 1000–350 B.P.)

The Mississippian Period saw dramatic changes across most of the Southeastern United States. Mississippian societies were complex sociopolitical entities that were based at mound centers, usually located in the floodplains along major river systems. The flat-topped platform mounds served as both the literal and symbolic manifestation of a complex sociopolitical and religious system that linked chiefdoms across a broad network stretching from the Southeastern Atlantic Coast to Oklahoma (Spiro Mounds) in the west and Wisconsin (Aztalan) to the north. Mound centers were surrounded by outlying villages, hamlets, and farmsteads that provided tribute and services to the chief. While Mississippian subsistence was focused to a large extent on intensive maize agriculture, the hunting and gathering of aquatic and terrestrial resources supplemented Mississippian diets (Anderson 1994).

Mound centers have been found along most river systems in the Southeast and South Carolina is no exception. Mississippian mounds in the Upstate region include the Lindsey Mound (a.k.a., North Fork) in Greenville County, Sullivan’s Mound in Laurens County, the McCollum and Blair Mounds along the Broad River in Chester and Fairfield counties, and the I.C. Few Mound in Pickens County (Anderson 1994; Green and Bates 2003). Large numbers of other mound centers are also found stretched along the entire Savannah River Valley.

Diagnostic artifacts of the Mississippian Period include small triangular projectile points and grit-tempered Lamar, Savannah, and Etowah pottery types (Anderson and Joseph 1988; Elliot 1995). These types are primarily identified by their complicated stamped designs, although simple stamped, check stamped, cordmarked, and other surface treatments also occur. Various ceremonial items made from stone, bone, shell, copper, and mica were used as symbolic markers of chiefly power and status.

3.2 Historic Context

The Piedmont region of South Carolina has long been the site of human habitation. European explorers first visited the area in the sixteenth century and these early forays were followed by other expeditions into the area, particularly after the English established their permanent settlement at Charles Towne in 1670. By the end of the 1700s, European settlers had begun to encroach on the lands traditionally occupied by Native Americans as they expanded their colonial territory. This infringement would continue through the 1800s, as native groups became more marginalized as a result of the growing wealth and influence of white settlers.



3.2.1 *Early Settlement*

Although settlers of European descent began arriving along the Broad and Saluda rivers during the mid-eighteenth century, only a handful of early colonists actually resided near the project area. During the early years of the colony, this region was considered the backcountry and it was sparsely settled. The area was distinctly different from the Lowcountry, where the plantation system had already developed to produce rice and indigo as cash crops (Klein 1981:662). Geographically, this inland region is split between the Sandhills and Piedmont, neither of which provided the soils or rainfall needed to produce these early staple crops, thus delaying the adoption of plantations in this region (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:41).

Although Europeans had ventured into the Midlands throughout the 1700s, seeking to trade with the local native groups, these men were transient and did not establish permanent settlements in the area (Moore 1993:9). Some Lowcountry South Carolina residents did migrate to the backcountry, lured by the large unclaimed expanses of land, but the majority of the earliest white settlers came from more northern areas, including Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina. These colonists were often families having English, German, Scots-Irish, or Swiss backgrounds; they were hearty settlers who were willing to work hard to establish themselves in this new land (Moore 1993:13).

The 1730 plan of Governor Robert Johnson, which called for the establishment of townships in frontier areas of the colony to encourage settlement of the backcountry as a protective buffer for the Lowcountry plantations, caused an increase in the population of the upcountry (Edgar 1998:52). Between this influx of new immigrants and the bands of settlers from Pennsylvania who traveled to South Carolina via the great wagon road, the area around the Saluda and Broad rivers began gaining population quickly (Edgar 1998:56). A large percentage of these settlers, both foreign immigrants and those who had migrated from Pennsylvania, were German-speaking. This concentration allowed these colonists to adhere to their cultural and ethnic customs, including religious and linguistic traditions, through the end of the eighteenth century, long after other groups had assimilated into the predominantly English society of South Carolina. For example, a Quaker settlement was established along Bush River and Beaverdam Creek by the 1760s. Due to this large population of German speaking families, the area between the two rivers became known as the Dutch Fork, possibly a corruption of *Deutsche Volk*, meaning German people (Edgar 1998:62; O’Neill 1892: 28).

Land grants along the Saluda and Broad rivers during the 1700s tended to be small, encompassing much less area than the massive Lowcountry plantations. An analysis of the early land records from the fork of the Broad and Saluda rivers, and lands bounding the Saluda, indicates that 66 percent of the land grants and holdings were comprised of 150 acres or less. Although some landowners acquired more than one tract to expand their property holdings, single grants for more than 500 acres were rare, comprising only three percent of land transactions (Hicks 2000; Surveyor General’s Office [SGO], South Carolina Department of Archives and History [SCDAH] 1731).

3.2.2 *Eighteenth Century Conflicts*

The second half of the eighteenth century was a period of unrest in the South Carolina backcountry, including the area surrounding the project area. The beginnings of the instability occurred during the 1750s, as the Cherokee became frustrated by the unfulfilled promises of the British colonies and began attacking settlements along the Carolina frontier. The attacks increased and grew continually worse, eventually inaugurating the French and Indian War, which is generally recognized as lasting from 1754 to 1763 (Edgar 1998:205–206).



Cherokee raids occurred throughout the 1750s and they were severe enough for John Fairchild to comment, in a 1757 letter to the Governor, “that a Neighbourhood of People living on the southerning Branch of Broad River was drove from oft their several Settlements by the severe Threats of Indians and are still obligated to keep from their Lands and Livings.... [S]ome inhabitants from the...Great Saludy” had also been targeted and were beginning to suffer “unspeakable Uneasyness ... declaring that they cannot possibly stay much longer, for Fear worse should happen” (Bryan 2003). The most brutal of the attacks, however, came in early 1760. In February, a wagon train of refugees was massacred at Long Cane Creek, along the western edge of the colony. In the ensuing months settlers in the Dutch Fork area also became targets, with many leaving their homes to seek shelter in backcountry forts. Although the French and Indian War finally ended in 1763 with the Treaty of Paris, by 1761 the Cherokee had already been vanquished and had signed a treaty, essentially ending the Indian attacks on inland South Carolina settlements (Edgar 1998:206–207).

The end of the Cherokee threat did not restore order to the Midlands area, however. With a growing population, the backcountry residents felt that their needs were being neglected by the Charleston government. Settlers who had sought shelter within the forts during the Cherokee conflict had been victims of greed and extortion from the private fort owners. At the same time, the militiamen who were supposed to be protecting their property were raiding and squatting at the abandoned homesteads (Edgar 1998:206).

The treaty with the Cherokee and the subsequent end to the Indian threat did little to alleviate the situation. During the mid-1760s, gangs of bandits swept through the Broad and Saluda river basins, “burning and looting, torturing victims presumed to have items of value, raping wives and daughters, making off with horses, furniture and household goods” and generally terrorizing residents of the Dutch Fork (Moore 1993:23; Edgar 1998:212). A lack of response from the colonial government in Charleston compelled the victims to band together and pursue vigilante justice in an attempt to protect themselves. This group became known as the Regulators, a movement which “united frontiersmen in an effort to make their region safe for planting and property [as] they struggled to establish a particular type of order consistent with the needs of hardworking farmers and rising slave owners” (Klein 1981:668). The issues of the 1760s were not limited to the conflict between gang members and the vigilante Regulators, however. The colonial government resented both the Regulators’ tactics and the demands for backcountry equality that they made. As a result, Regulators were arrested and tried for their actions just as often as bandits were (Moore 1993:25). Ultimately, order was reestablished in the backcountry and the Regulator movement diminished in its power and influence. The Charleston government had agreed to establish circuit courts to meet the legal needs of backcountry residents. Although these did not begin operation until 1772, tensions between the two regions of South Carolina were lessened for the moment (Edgar 1998:215-216).

This short period of peace would soon be ended by a more broad-reaching conflict, the third period of unrest to affect the backcountry in a quarter of a century. The residents of the Lowcountry, along with the citizens of other colonies, were becoming increasingly dissatisfied with the policies of the British. After Bostonians led a well-known protest against the Tea Act in 1773, the British government implemented harsh regulations as a punishment measure. Seeing the situation in Boston reminded Charleston residents of their own recent struggles with the British-led colonial government—the Laurens-Leigh Controversy of 1767–1768 and the 1769 Wilkes Fund Controversy. Knowing that their own port could be easily closed by the British, Charlestonians generally supported Boston and the resolutions of the First Continental Congress (Edgar 1998:217–220).

Although the Lowcountry lent its support to the original tenants of the American Revolution, most backcountry settlers did not, highlighting the differences and tensions that still separated the two regions. Many backcountry

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settlers felt more slighted by the colonial government in Charleston than by the British. In the areas surrounding the Broad and Saluda rivers, many of the settlers were not of English descent; instead they were German and Swiss-German and had come to the colony seeking some measure of freedom. Many of these residents had acquired their lands through grants from the king and they felt a certain amount of loyalty and indebtedness to the monarchy (Moore 1993:28; Pope 1973:43). The words of “one of the most prominent men in the backcountry, Thomas Fletchell, of the District between the Broad and Saluda,” echo the sentiment of the regions residents: “I am resolved and do utterly refuse to take up arms against my King” (Edgar 1998:223). In 1775, a compromise was reached, which allowed the backcountry residents to remain neutral in the conflict, in return for the provincial government basically leaving them alone. However not all residents abided by this agreement, including “Robert Cunningham, of the Saluda River,” who “openly defied congress, was arrested, and was imprisoned in Charleston” (Edgar 1998:226). For the most part, however, backcountry residents remained loyal to the crown, but essentially neutral, for the first four years of the Revolution.

In May 1780, the capture of Charleston and the subsequent British conquest of inland South Carolina, along with the atrocities that accompanied the nearby fighting, stirred the anti-British sentiments of settlers in this area. Though no major battles were fought in Newberry County, the population suffered small skirmishes and raids. Loyalist and patriot bands traveled through the region, terrorizing enemy families (Moore 1993:30–31; Edgar 2003: 122–24).

Three major movements of armies passed through the county: Major Ferguson and his men marching to the Battle of King’s Mountain, Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton marching to the Battle of Cowpens, and Gen. Nathaniel Greene withdrawing from an attempted attack on Ninety-Six (NCHS 1989:8–9). The movement of Tarleton’s troops arguably had the greatest local impact. On January 1, 1781, Colonel Tarleton and his troops arrived in Newberry County. General George Cornwallis had sent Tarleton to protect the British Fort at Ninety-Six from potential attack by American Brigadier General Daniel Morgan. Heavy rains and flooding hampered travel. Half of Tarleton’s soldiers were trapped on the west side of the flooded Bush River. After it became clear that Morgan would not attack Ninety-Six, Tarleton made plans to force Morgan into a battle. By January 11, Tarleton had received reinforcements and his divided army was reunited. That night, Tarleton and his 1,100 soldiers camped near Tea Table Rock, which is north of the current project area adjacent to Interstate 26. The next morning, Tarleton and his forces began chasing Morgan. They fought the Battle of Cowpens, a resounding American victory, five days later (Bearss 1996:4–5; O’Neill 1859:36–37; Babits 2001:49–52; Pope 1973:48; Tarleton 1787:217–219).

The result of the decades of conflict and unrest in the backcountry was the creation of a new political order. The large districts that had existed since 1769 were divided into smaller counties, each of which had its own court that could try most civil and criminal cases. These local government entities would also be responsible for the taxes, road maintenance, and tavern licensing. This 1785 act created six counties from Ninety-Six District, including Newberry County (Pope 1973:61; Stauffer 1998:9).

Each new county was required to build a courthouse. As there was no prominent town in the county, Newberry’s leaders had to navigate a controversy over where to build it. They commissioned a land survey, which determined that Samuel Teague’s land near Tea Table Rock was best suited. While they were preparing to buy two acres from Teague, John Coate gifted two acres of his land to the county. Construction began, and Newberry was founded in 1789 (O’Neill 1892: 15–16). A town had grown up around Newberry Court House by the end of the eighteenth century, with homes, taverns, and stores built on the lots surrounding the public square. At the turn of the



nineteenth century, the town of Newberry remained small and was populated largely by middle-class residents (Pope 1973: 72).

In addition to the formation of new counties, Lowcountry politicians made a more important concession to the increasingly influential backcountry settlements in 1786 with the transfer of the state capital from Charleston to Columbia, a new town located on the bank of the Congaree near the confluence of the Broad and Saluda rivers (Edgar 1998:248). These developments signaled a shift in South Carolina's social and political order, as power and influence became more concentrated in inland areas.

When the first census was conducted in 1790, South Carolina had just under 250,000 inhabitants, with 56.3 percent free whites, 0.7 percent other free persons, and 43 percent slaves. For the 1790 census, the project area was enumerated within Ninety-Six District, which included Newberry County. Newberry had 9,342 inhabitants. The county comprised only three percent of the total state population and overall had a higher free population percentage (87.7%) than the state average (United States Census Bureau [USCB] 1907).

3.2.3 *Nineteenth Century*

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the region encompassing the project area was primarily agricultural, although some districts were more profitable than others. Before 1800, the area's agriculture was dominated by subsistence farmers. Although some indigo had been grown prior to the American Revolution, the loss of British bounties ended the profitability of this practice. Tobacco was also grown by upcountry farmers, but poor soils resulted in low yields and the crop was never as successful in South Carolina as it was in more northern areas such as Virginia (Edgar 1998:270; Moore 1993:65).

Eli Whitney's cotton gin, patented in 1794, would significantly alter the agricultural character of the Midlands area. When locally made gins became available in the early 1800s, short-staple cotton became the primary crop in most of the upcountry. The cotton gin made production of this type of cotton easier and more profitable. The initial capital investment needed to grow cotton was small, since the only tools required were a plow, hoe, gin, and baler. Many small farmers did not have a gin or baler of their own, but they could pay a small fee to use their neighbor's equipment, allowing them to participate in the new cotton growing boom. The enormous profits available from cotton growing and processing during the early nineteenth century influenced a large number of upcountry farmers to engage in this activity. These profits allowed cotton farmers to purchase more land and slaves, ultimately creating a plantation-based economy in much of the area (Moore 1993:65–66; Edgar 1998:271). As a result, the upcountry slave population increased significantly. In Newberry County, between 1800 and 1810, the slave population nearly doubled (Pope 1973:113).

Robert Mills indicated, in his *Statistics of South Carolina*, that the most valuable farmland in the area was in the Dutch Fork area lying between the Broad and Saluda rivers. While this area could grow both corn and cotton, the sandy soils of other farms in the district could not support these crops and relied instead on wheat, rye, and oats (Mills 1826:612). In Newberry District, Mills mentioned that although farmers did not practice crop rotation to maximize soil efficiency, corn and cotton, along with some other food crops, were the primary agricultural products of the area. He claimed that in Newberry District the yield per acre for corn was 10 to 40 bushels and for cotton 150 to 250 pounds (Mills 1826:521, 641, 697).

During the early nineteenth century, the population of South Carolina grew, doubling within a 30 year span. At the same time, Newberry County was experiencing population growth as well, but at a slightly slower rate. The 1820

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census counted just over 500,000 people in South Carolina, with approximately 47 percent white, 51 percent slaves, and the remaining two percent free blacks. Newberry County had 16,104 inhabitants, or about three percent of the state's population. By 1825, Newberry's county seat had developed into a small, thriving town. Although it had a white majority, at 65 percent of the population, Newberry's population of slaves was steadily growing (United States Census Bureau 1820).

The nineteenth century was also a period of significant expansion for railroads, which helped contribute to growth of Newberry County. As cotton became the primary income-producing crop in South Carolina, creating a transportation network that reached into the upcountry portion of the state was imperative. In December 1845, the Greenville and Columbia Railroad received a charter to build a line connecting those two cities (Pope 1973:139–141). By July 1850, the railroad line had been completed from Columbia to Alston, and in March 1851, the line spanned from Columbia to Newberry, across the Broad River. By the time the Civil War began, nine years later, South Carolina could boast 11 railroads in operation and the upstate area had over 400 miles of rail line (Pope 1973:140–146).

Railroads proved to be an economic boon to the areas they traveled through. Many small settlements in the upcountry grew into villages and towns after the railroads were completed, often developing into station stops. Although post offices had existed at many of these locations before the railroad arrived, afterwards new businesses began developing in these communities, including banks, stores, and service industries. Many of these small communities, including Peak, Pomaria, and Prosperity, doubled and tripled in size in short periods of time (CMRPC 1982).

As the antebellum period moved forward, the population of South Carolina grew at a slow, but steady rate. Between 1830 and 1860, the total population grew approximately 21 percent, from 581,185 to 703,708. By 1830, slavery had already been firmly entrenched in the state for many decades, so the percentage of slave population remained relatively static, increasing only 2.9 percent, from 54.3 to 57.2 percent of the total state population. During this same period, however, Newberry County experienced a significant increase in its slave population. In 1830, its demographic makeup was 52.3 percent free persons and 47.6 percent slaves. By 1860, slaves made up 66 percent of the population, with free persons accounting for the remaining 34 percent. This shift was the result of a movement towards cotton as a staple crop and the plantation based economy associated with cotton cultivation (USCB 1832, 1864b).

Agricultural statistics indicate that farmers in Newberry County were successful producers. In 1840, the primary cash crop was cotton. Newberry's yield of 3,105,107 pounds of cotton made it the fifth largest producer of the crop. Farmers also grew wheat, oats, corn, and potatoes and had large numbers of cattle and swine (USCB 1841). In 1850, South Carolina had about 25.1 percent of its farmland improved. At 53.2 percent, Newberry County was higher than the state average. Wheat, corn, and potatoes continued to be grown in significant numbers, but it is clear that cotton remained the primary crop. Newberry County's yield of 19,894 400-pound bales of cotton was the third highest in the state, after Edgefield and Abbeville counties (USCB 1853).

3.2.4 *The Civil War*

By 1860, the South Carolina upcountry had developed a dual society, with plantation owners living alongside yeomen farmers. Although the majority of small yeomen farmers owned no slaves, they chose to ally themselves with the planters in the defense of slavery. As the questions of slavery, nullification, and secession loomed over antebellum South Carolina during the 1850s, the support of yeomen farmers was important in the ultimate course



that the state would take. Ford (1988) argues that these upcountry yeomen held a firm belief in their own independence and liberty, stemming from an inclusive political structure, widespread ownership of land, and a social system that encouraged white unity by holding black slaves as the lowest caste. Ultimately, yeomen could view themselves as independent and important because they were not slaves. Maintaining slavery was, therefore, an important part of affirming their independence and self-professed inherent superiority to blacks (Ford 1988:370–373). Therefore, when local governments held meetings to discuss secession in late 1860, the majority of upcountry residents favored seceding from the Union. On December 17, 1860, a statewide convention was held in Columbia and delegates from districts throughout South Carolina met and voted unanimously in favor of secession. Before the Ordinance of Secession could be drafted, a smallpox scare necessitated a change of venue, and the convention was moved to Charleston. There, on December 20, 1860, the Ordinance was presented and signed, officially declaring South Carolina independent from the United States (Moore 1993:183).

During most of the war, the project area was affected only indirectly as actual fighting did not come to the region until 1865. Early in 1861, when excitement for the war was high and Southerners were rallying to the Confederate cause, many men volunteered for the army and traveled from the Midlands to help defend Charleston. These same men, and many others of fighting age, went into battle in skirmishes throughout the South, leaving many farms to be run by wives, children, slaves, and old men. Women in the counties organized relief and aid societies, raising money and performing whatever services they could to help the war effort and the soldiers. The farms that continued to produce crops aided the war effort by supplying food to supplement shortages throughout the state and in the armies. Initially voluntary, this effort became compulsory after an 1863 state mandate required farmers to limit the amount of cotton planted and donate one-tenth of their crop yields to state government (Moore 1993:183–191; Pope 1973:9–10).

As the tide of the Civil War changed, and the Confederate army went on the defensive in an attempt to protect its major cities, the fighting came closer to home for residents near the project area. As General William T. Sherman's Union army advanced towards Columbia, it looted and destroyed property in a 30 mile swath along its route. Residents of Newberry prepared for an attack, but were spared when Union troops traveled toward Winnsboro instead. Private residences did not escape the destruction, and both small farms and larger plantations were looted along the route (Pope 1973: 10; Edgar 1998:372; CMRPC 1982). On February 17, 1865, the Confederate forces evacuated Columbia and Union forces entered; sometime during the night, a large, uncontrollable fire devastated the city, claiming approximately one-third of its structures. As the Union army left the city on February 20, 1865, they left behind a devastated countryside and significantly damaged the area's largest city. Their most lasting legacy, however, was the destruction of the slavery-based plantation system and the concomitant development of a new economic order (Edgar 1998:373).

3.2.5 *Reconstruction*

After the end of the war, Newberry County retained many of the same characteristics that it had during the antebellum period. The county's population grew by 26.6 percent during the second half of the nineteenth century, from 20,879 in 1860 to 26,434 in 1890. However, it actually decreased its percentage of the statewide population, from three percent in 1860 to two percent in 1890. The racial composition of the county also remained relatively static; Newberry retained a black majority of 66 percent between 1860 and 1890 (USCB 1864b, 1872, 1883b, 1895).

Despite the end of slavery, agriculture continued to dominate much of the region, although crop production fell during the early Reconstruction era. Cotton remained a primary crop in many areas, with farmers often planting it



in lieu of food crops in an attempt to make a quick profit and pay the debts they had incurred. The market would soon become saturated with cotton, however, causing the prices to fall steadily during the 1880s, pushing the farmers further into debt (Edgar 1998:427–428).

In areas where the landholdings had been large, these plantations were often broken up into smaller units. Most owners could no longer afford such large holdings, since they could not make them profitable without slave labor. During the late nineteenth century, tenancy and sharecropping developed across South Carolina, as landless farmers, both black and white, sought arrangements that would allow them to continue farming to support their families. The newly freed black slaves were forced into these arrangements because they had no land, little money, and few other options. As the 1800s drew to a close, many white farmers succumbed to large debts and also became tenants for large landholders. Two categories of tenancy developed, cash tenants and share tenants. Cash tenants provided their own tools and seed, gaining ownership of the crop they produced while paying rent on their house and land to the landlord. Sharecroppers could not afford their own tools or seeds; the landlords supplied these items and subtracted their value from the farmer's share of the crop. Both systems resulted in many small farmers living meager existences (Moore 1993:210; Orser 1988:57).

At the dawn of the twentieth century, only 33.8 percent of South Carolina's farms were operated by their owners. Comparatively 36.6 percent were operated by cash tenants, 24.3 percent by share tenants, and 3.3 percent were operated under other arrangements, including by managers or by a combination of tenancy methods. Newberry County was close to these figures, with 27.3 percent of farms operated by owners, 32 percent by cash tenants, 35.8 by share tenants, and 4.9 percent under other arrangements (USCB 1901).

In the state, as well as in the region, black farmers were more likely to be tenants than whites, with 53.1 percent of white farms operated by their owners and only 18.2 percent of black farms being owner-operated. In Newberry County, white farms were owner-farmed 60.5 percent of the time. Additionally, for white farmers cash tenancy was more prevalent than share tenancy, which made up 8.5 percent in Newberry. Conversely, only 4.8 percent of black farms in Newberry County were operated by owners. Blacks in South Carolina engaged in both cash and share tenancy, and in Newberry County, cash tenants made up 35.6 percent of black farmers and share tenants accounted for 59.5 percent (USCB 1901).

3.2.6 *The Twentieth Century*

As the twentieth century dawned, agriculture remained an important part of Newberry County's economy. One farm existed for every 10 residents, and 47.5 percent were owner-operated. Blacks continued to fare worse than whites, however, with at least 80.9 percent of all owner-operators being white in Newberry County. Share tenancy increased to 47.4 percent during the first decade of the century (USCB 1913).

However, this rural, agricultural society had already begun to shift as railroads attracted new industries to the county. By 1890, the town of Newberry became a hub for the Southern Railroad and the Columbia, Newberry, & Laurens Railroad Company. Newberry quickly became a central cotton market, due to the easy access to shipping. A cotton mill, a steamroller mill, a cottonseed oil mill, and several cotton warehouses were built near the rail line during the next several decades. Other industries, such as the W.T. Davis Planing Mill, and Newberry Oil Mill and Fertilizer Company also thrived in the growing town (Pope 1973:113; Revels 2003:26).

As in many other upstate counties, the textile industry became the primary economic driver in Newberry County. Upstate businessmen, as well as the Lowcountry coastal elite, provided capital for new mills and cotton prices



boomed. Hoping to maximize profits, many farmers began growing cotton exclusively. Farms that no longer grew food crops became less self-sufficient and increasingly relied on an unpredictable market. Cotton flooded the market and prices dropped. Textile manufacturers' profits soared, and many expanded their mills during the first quarter of the twentieth century (Edgar 1998:427–429).

Though industry began to play a more dominant role in Newberry County, it required a thriving agricultural economy. Farmers worked with rural merchants to divide their crop between textile and seed oil mills. Demand for fabric grew during World War I, and farmers hoped for continued increases. Unfortunately, they soon faced an economic depression. By 1921, cotton and tobacco prices dropped dramatically. To make matters worse, the boll weevil destroyed cotton crops during the decade. Cotton prices stayed low until World War II, and farmers struggled to survive (Edgar 1998: 480–485).

In 1927, the Lexington Water Power Company began constructing a dam and powerhouse at Dreher Shoals on the Saluda River. The massive project provided an economic boost to the area. Thirty-seven lumber mills were built to process cleared timber from the site, and over 2,000 men were hired to build the dam and reservoir. However, the project also dramatically changed the landscape. Three churches, six schools, 193 graveyards and many families had to be relocated (Green et al. 2007; Revels 2003). The lake that resulted from the construction of the dam extends its shoreline into Newberry County and provides recreation activities to residents of and visitors to the county.

World War II brought the economic depression in Newberry County to an end. Textile production increased, and many businesses obtained government contracts. After the war, many veterans returned to the county and opened new businesses. The textile industry became less central to Newberry County's economy during the last half of the twentieth century. However, agriculture and industries related to agriculture remain prominent. Louis Rich, the county's largest employer, processes turkeys from states surrounding South Carolina (Pope 1973:149).

3.3 Previously Recorded Cultural Resources

On March 14, 2018, a background literature review and records search was conducted using ArchSite, a GIS-based program containing information about archaeological and historic resources in South Carolina. The area examined was a 0.5-mile radius around the project area (Figure 3.1). If cultural resources were noted within the 0.5-mile search radius, then additional reports and site forms contained at SCIAA and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (SCDAH) were consulted.

A review of ArchSite indicated there are no previously recorded archaeological sites, one NRHP-listed resource, 16 previously recorded historic structures, and two previously conducted cultural resources surveys within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area (Figure 3.1; Table 3.1). None of the previously recorded resources are within the current project area; a small portion of one of the previously conducted cultural resource surveys covers the southwestern portion of the project area (Harvey 2013). No archaeological sites and two above-ground resources were identified during the survey; neither of these resources is within the current project area.

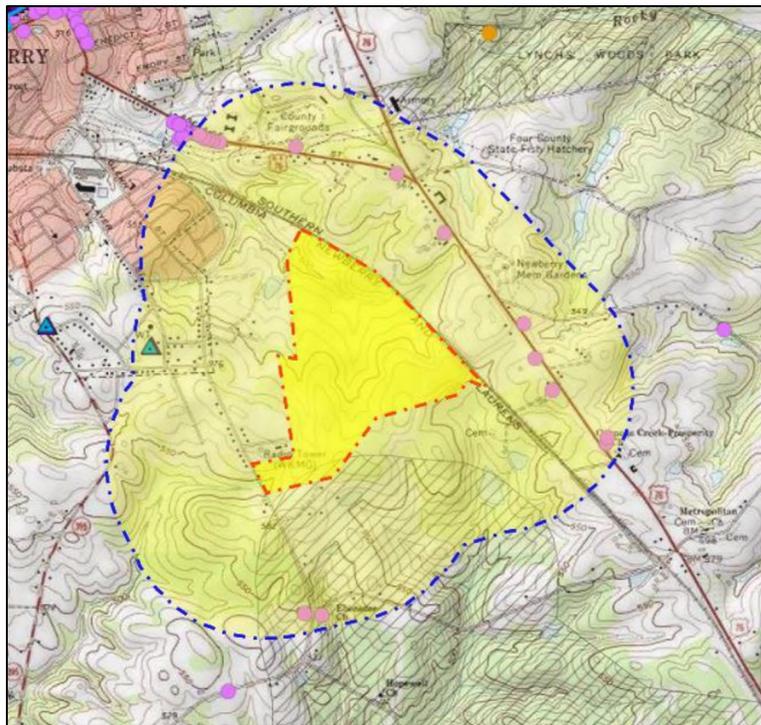


Figure 3.1. ArchSite map showing 0.5-mile search radius.

Table 3.1. Previously recorded cultural resources within a 0.5-mile search radius of the project area.

Resource #	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Source
0021/1059	Timberhouse, ca. 1858	Listed	ArchSite
1332	Ebenezer United Methodist Church	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1333	Structure, ca. 1915	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1484	Structure, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1485	Structure, ca. 1925	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1486	Structure, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1487	Structure, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1488	Structure, ca. 1925	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1489	Structure, ca. 1940–50	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1490	Structure, ca. 1920	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1491	Structure, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1492	Structure, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1500	Structure, ca. 1925	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1501	Structure, ca. 1915	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1502	Structure, ca. 1915	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1765	Structure, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Revels 2002
1766	Structure, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Revels 2002

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As part of the background research, Henry Mouzon's (1775) map of North and South Carolina, Mills Atlas map (1825), a 1921 United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) soil survey map, South Carolina Department of Transportation (SCDOT) Highway maps from 1938, 1951, and 1961, aerial maps from 1941, 1964, 1970, and 1981, and a United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic map from 1968 were examined. Mouzon's map indicates that the property was part of Ninety-Six Precinct with no landowners near the project area, but landowners Allen and Milsgrave are located to the south along the Saluda River (Figure 3.2). Mill's Atlas of Newberry District shows an established Newberry Village to the northwest of the project area, with Croftwell as the closest labeled landowner to the north (Figure 3.3).

The 1921 USDA soil survey map shows the established town of Newberry with an expanding road and train network; a roadway and four structures appear to be in the southwestern portion of the project area (Figure 3.4). The 1939, 1951, and 1961 SCDOT maps show no structures within the project area, but an increasing residential area to the north, east, and west of the project area (Figures 3.5 through 3.7). The aerial maps from 1941 and 1964 show the majority of the project area as agricultural fields with the northwest portion in woods, multiple structures are seen along a dirt road in the western portion of the project area (Figures 3.8 and 3.9). The 1968 USGS topographic map shows nothing within the project area and continued residential development to the north, east, and west (Figure 3.10). The aerial map from 1970 shows that the southern portion of the project area has been covered in planted pine and that the large transmission line in the southern portion of the project area has been constructed (Figure 3.11). The aerial map from 1981 shows that the majority of the project area is now covered in planted pine, the two ponds in the project area have not been created, and Dixie Road (Highway 34) has been constructed in the northern portion of the project area (Figure 3.12).

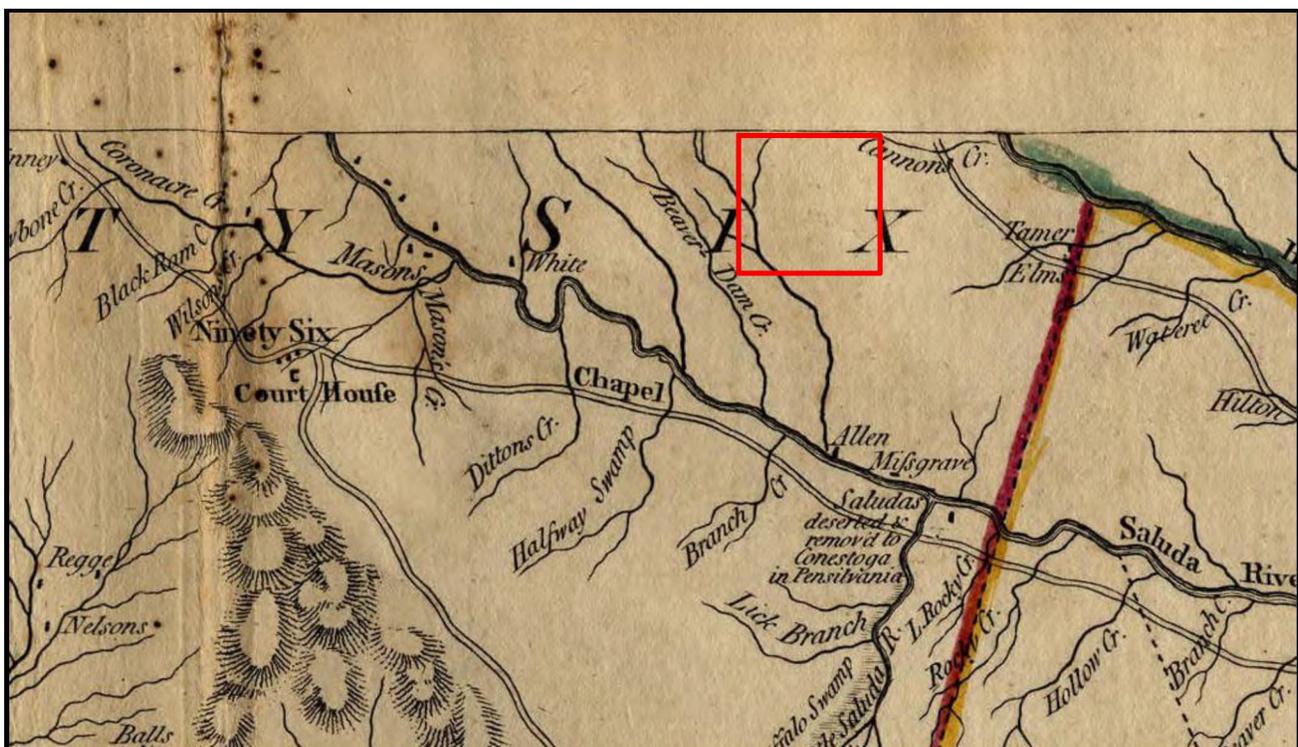


Figure 3.2. Portion of Mouzon's map (1775), showing vicinity of project area.



Figure 3.3. Portion of Mills' Atlas map of Newberry District (1825), showing vicinity of project area.

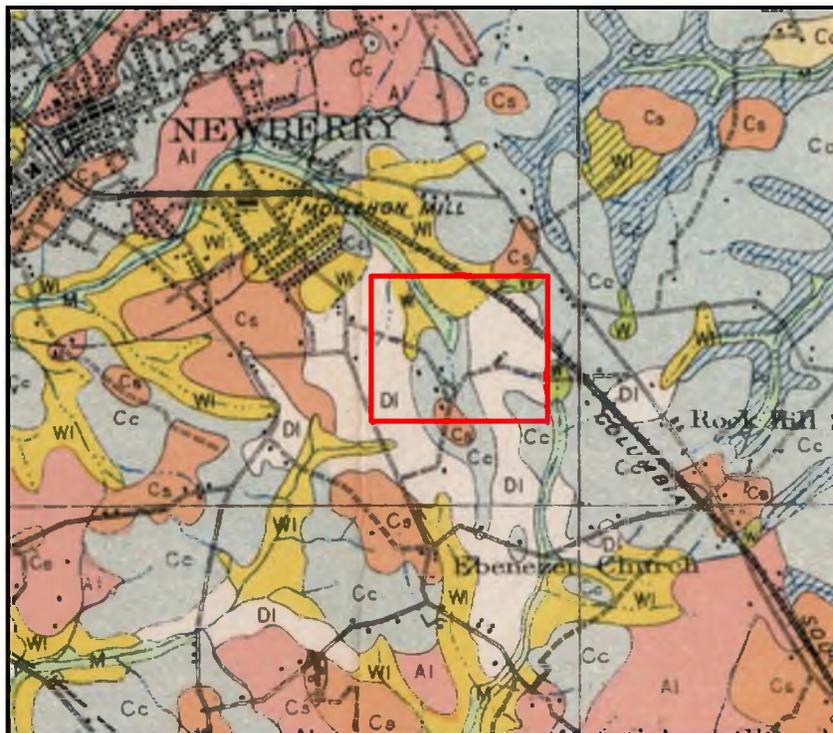


Figure 3.4. Portion of USDA soil survey map (1921), showing vicinity of project area.

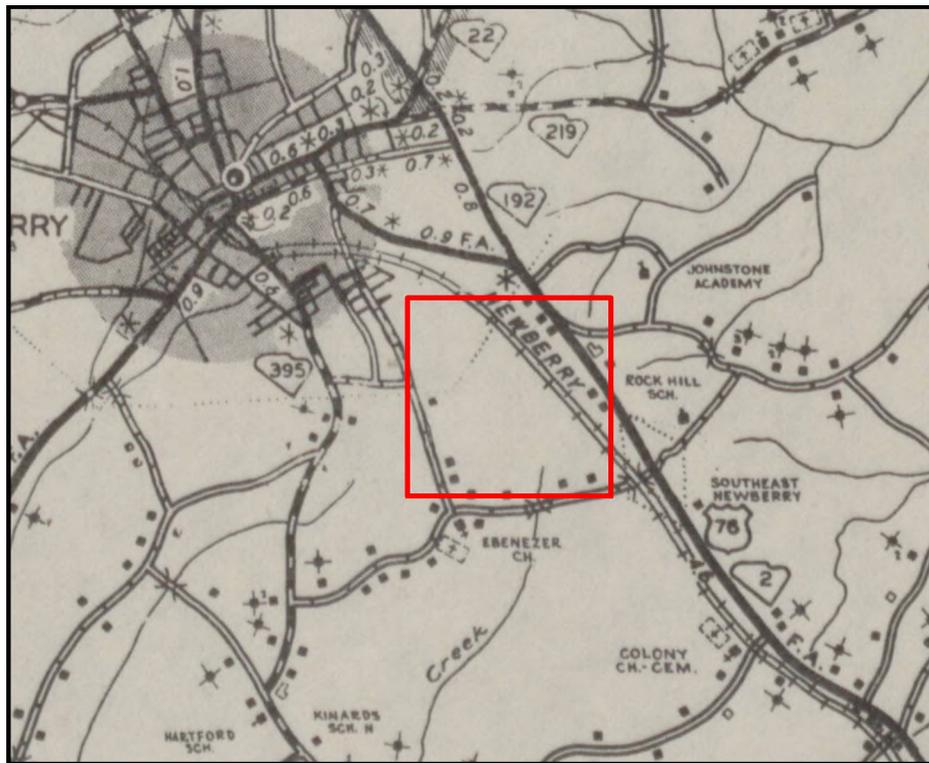


Figure 3.5. Portion of SCDOT highway map (1939), showing vicinity of project area.

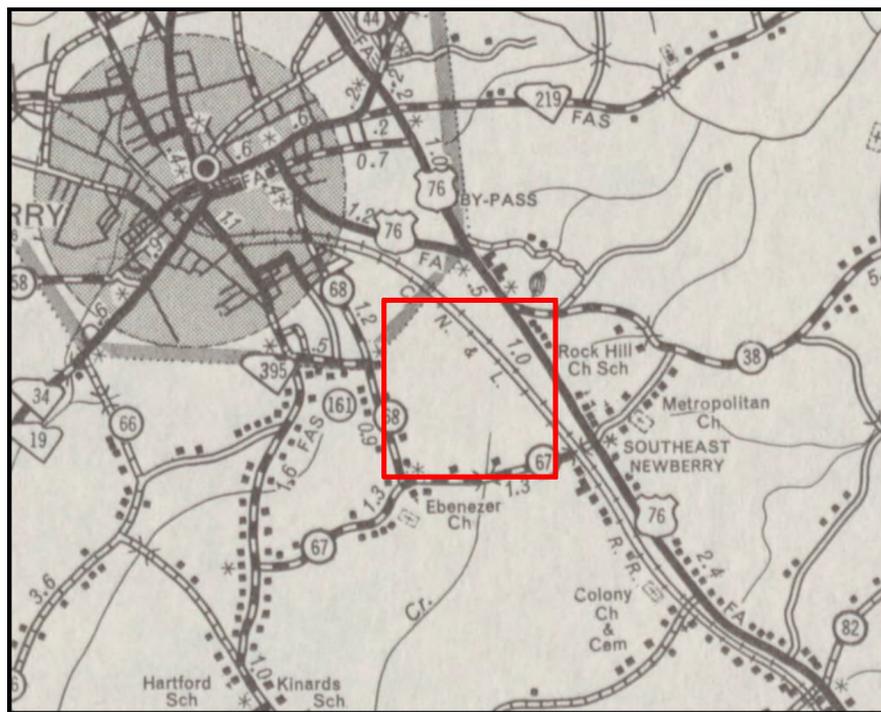


Figure 3.6. Portion of SCDOT highway map (1951), showing vicinity of project area.

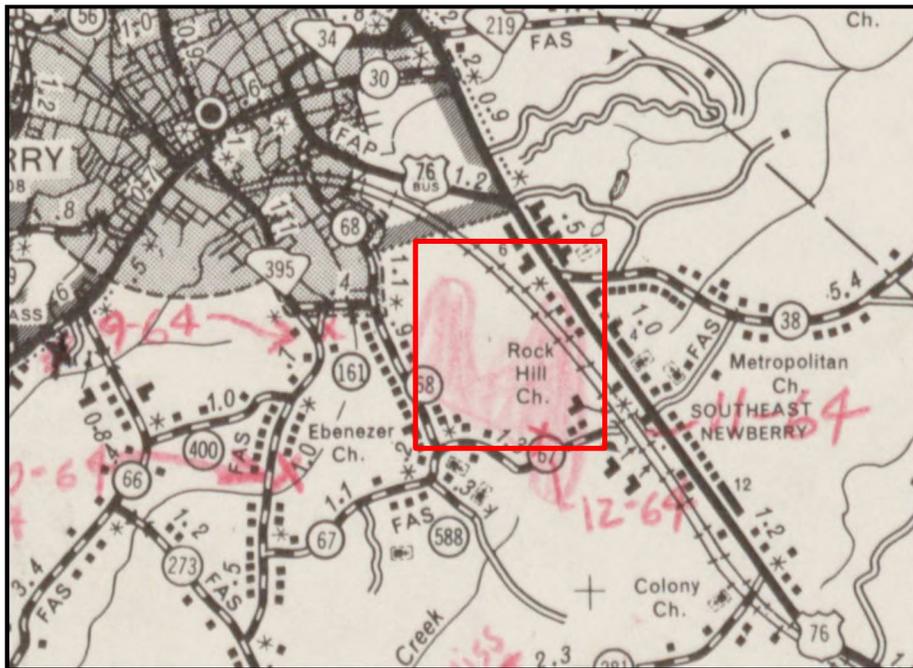


Figure 3.7. Portion of SCDOT highway map (1961), showing vicinity of project area.



Figure 3.8. Aerial map from 1941, showing approximate location of the project area.



Figure 3.9. Aerial map from 1964, showing approximate location of the project area.

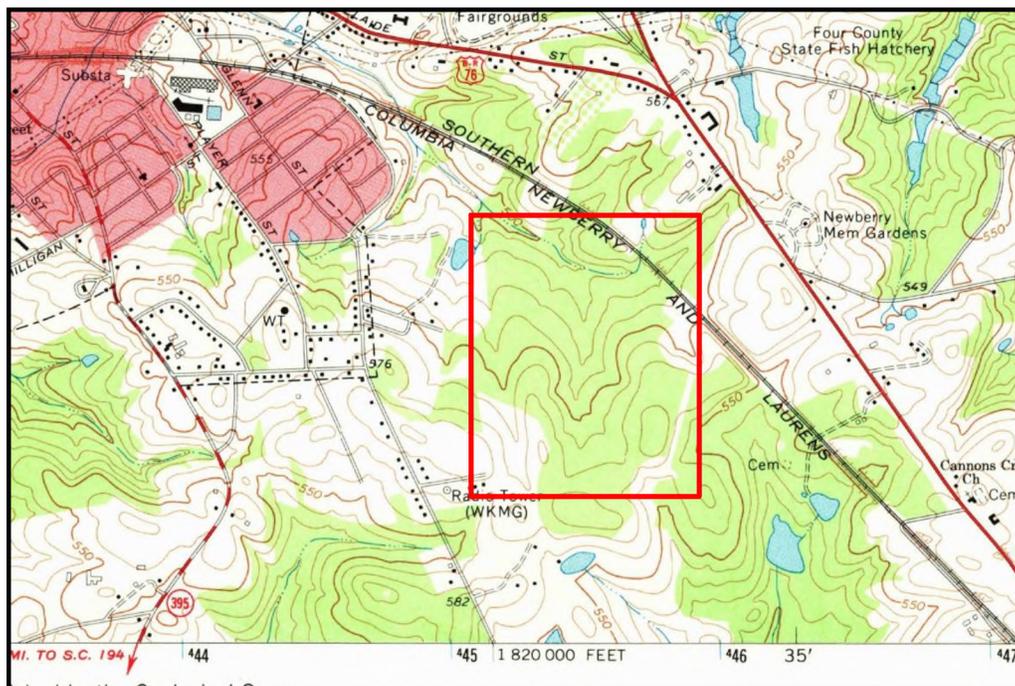


Figure 3.10. Portion of USGS Newberry East 7.5-minute quadrangle (1968), showing approximate location of the project area.



Figure 3.11. Aerial map from 1970, showing approximate location of the project area.

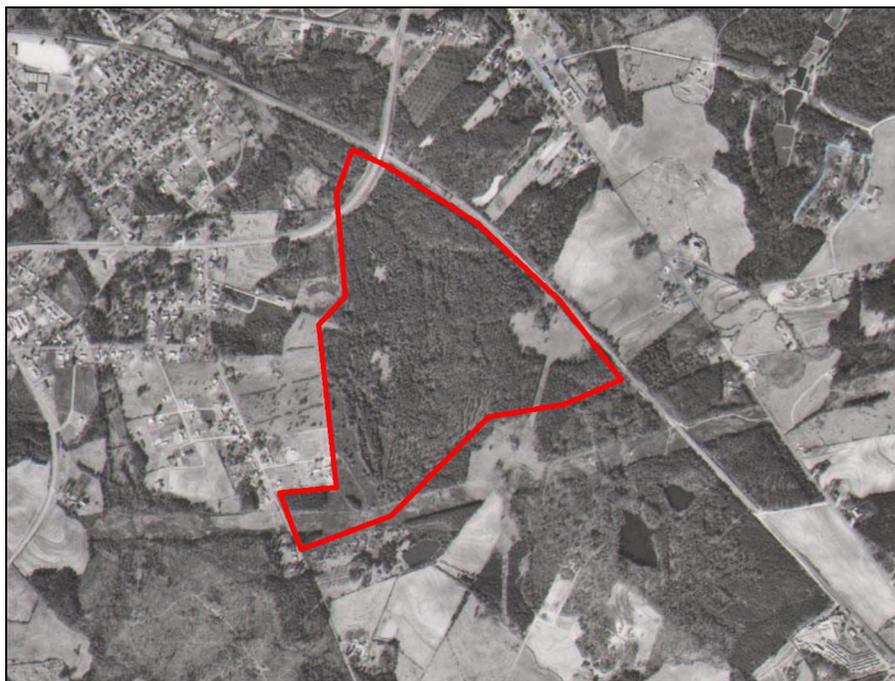


Figure 3.12. Aerial map from 1981, showing approximate location of the project area.



3.4 Potential for Archaeological Resources

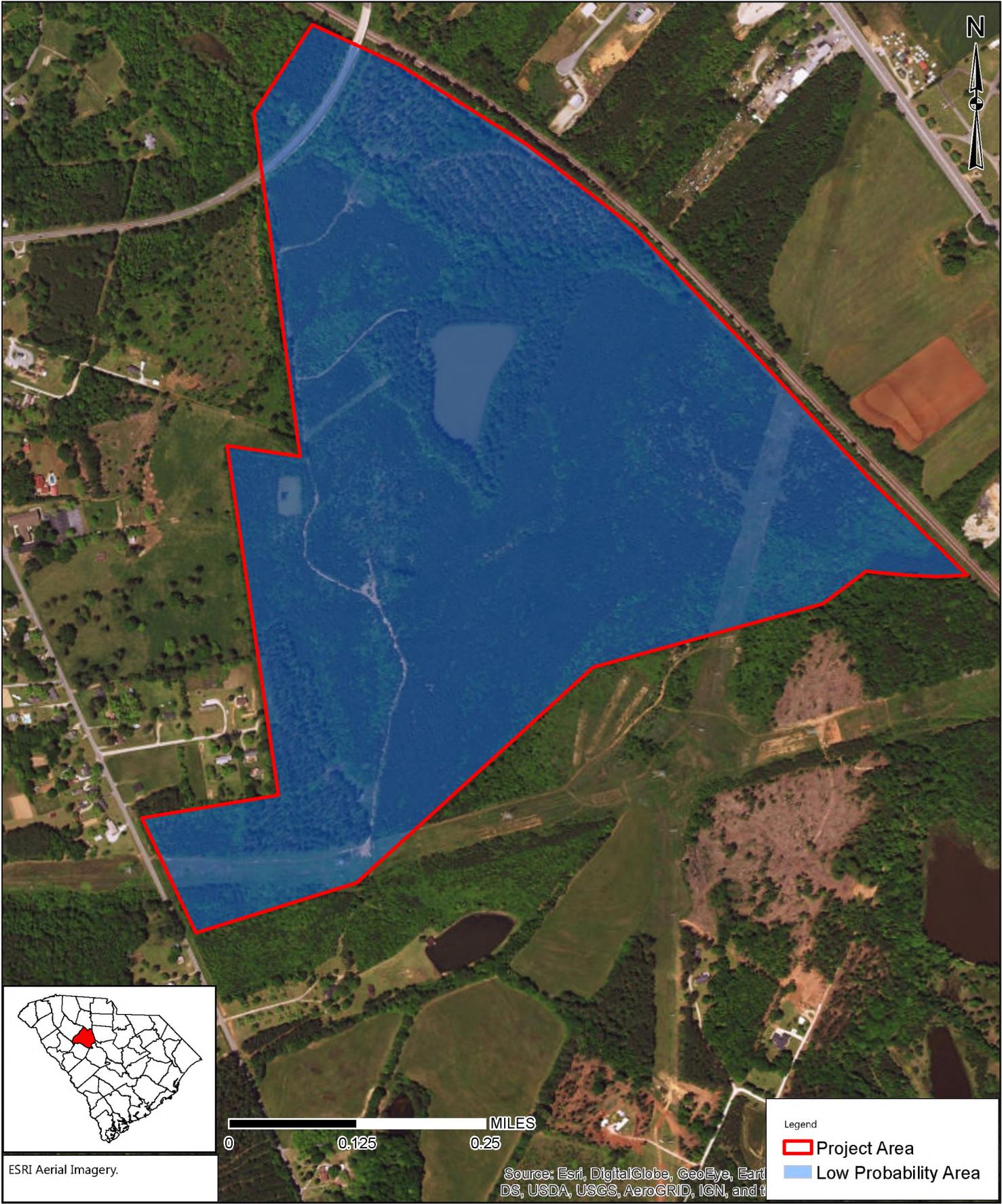
Various predictive models assist researchers in identifying areas having a high potential for containing archaeological sites (e.g., Benson 2006; Brooks and Scurry 1978; Cable 1996; Scurry 2003). In general, the most significant variables for determining site location are distance to a permanent water source, proximity to a wetland or other ecotone, slope, and soil drainage. Prehistoric sites tend to occur on relatively level areas such as ridge tops or knolls, with well-drained soils that are near a permanent water source or wetland. Historic home sites tend to be located on well-drained soils near historic roadways.

The South Carolina Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Investigations outlines three site occurrence probability categories. The categories listed in South Carolina Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Investigations (2013) are:

- A. Indeterminate Probability. Areas that are permanently or seasonally inundated; tidal areas; and active floodplains (or other active depositional environments) where deposits are so deep that finding sites using conventional methods is unlikely.
- B. Low Probability. Areas with slopes greater than 15 percent; areas of poorly drained soil (as determined by subsurface inspection); and areas that have been previously disturbed to such a degree that archaeological materials, if present, are no longer in context. Documentation of disturbance can include recent aerial photographs, ground views, or maps showing the disturbance (e.g., recent construction).
- C. High Probability. Areas that do not meet any of the foregoing criteria are considered to possess high probability.

Based on the current soil characteristics, historic map research, the extent of silviculture over the project area, and the lack of intact soil deposits within the project area, the project area is considered low probability for containing archaeological sites (Figure 3.13).

Drawing Path: T:\Projects\2018\ENV\4261-18-037 Alliance_Mid-Carolina CC_Prosperty Working_Documents\GIS\Figures\Figure 3-13 probability.mxd plotted by KNagle 05-22-2018



ESRI Aerial Imagery.

0 0.125 0.25 MILES

Legend

- Project Area
- Low Probability Area

Source: Esri, DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, Earthstar, USDA, USGS, AeroGRID, IGN, and the



SCALE: 1:8,000
 PROJECT NO: 4261-18-043
 DRAWN BY: KJN
 DATE: 3/22/2018

Probabiility Map
 City of Newberry Recreation Complex
 Newberry County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
3.13



4.0 METHODS

4.1 Archaeological Field Methods

An archaeological survey of the project area was conducted on March 15, 2018. Shovel tests were at least 30 x 30 cm and excavated to sterile subsoil or 80 cm below surface (cmbs), whichever was encountered first. Soil from the shovel tests was screened through ¼-inch wire mesh and soil colors were determined through comparison with Munsell Soil Color Charts. Sites were located using a GPS unit and plotted on USGS 7.5 minute topographic maps. Artifacts recovered during the survey were organized and bagged by site and relative provenience within each site.

Site boundaries were determined by excavating shovel tests at 15-m intervals radiating out in a cruciform pattern from positive shovel tests or surface finds at the perimeter of each site. Sites were recorded in the field using field journals and standard S&ME site forms and documented using digital imagery and detailed site maps. State site forms were filled out and submitted to SCIAA once fieldwork was complete. For purposes of the project, an archaeological site is defined as an area yielding three or more historic or prehistoric artifacts and/or an area with visible or historically recorded cultural features (e.g., shell middens, rockshelters, chimney falls, brick walls, piers, earthworks, etc.). An isolated find is defined as yielding less than three historic or prehistoric artifacts.

4.2 Laboratory Methods

Artifacts recovered during the survey were cleaned, identified, and analyzed using the techniques summarized below. Following analysis, artifacts were bagged according to site, provenience, and specimen number. Acid-free plastic bags and artifact tags were used for curation purposes.

Lithic artifacts were initially identified as either debitage or tools. Debitage was sorted by raw material type and size graded using the mass analysis method advocated by Ahler (1989). When present, formal tools were classified by type, and metric attributes (e.g., length, width, and thickness) were recorded for each unbroken tool. Projectile point typology generally followed those contained in Coe (1964) and Justice (1987).

Prehistoric ceramics greater than 1 cm² were sorted first by sherd type (rim or body), surface treatment, and temper (using the Wentworth scale). Once sorted, these categories were further analyzed for other diagnostic attributes such as paste texture, interior treatment, rim form, and rim/lip decoration. Where possible, this data was used to place the sherds within established regional types. Information on the ceramic typology of the project area was derived primarily from Anderson et al. (1996b), Coe (1964), DePratter (1979), Sassaman et al. (1990), Trinkley (1990), and Ward and Davis (1999). Sherds less than 1 cm² were classified as “residual sherds” and only their count and weight were recorded.

Historic artifacts were separated by material type and then further sorted into functional groups. For example, glass was sorted into window, container, or other glass. Maker’s marks and/or decorations were noted to ascertain chronological attributes using established references for historic materials, including Noel Hume (1970), South (1976), and Miller (1991).

The artifacts, field notes, maps, photographs, and other technical materials generated as a result of this project will be temporarily curated at the S&ME office in Columbia, South Carolina. After conclusion of the project, S&ME will



transfer the artifacts back to the landowner or to a curation facility meeting the standards established in 36 CFR Part 79, *Curation of Federally-Owned and Administered Archaeological Collections*.

4.3 Architectural Field Methods

An architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect aboveground historic properties. Accessible public roads within and adjacent to the project area were driven, and if previously unrecorded structures 50 years old or older existed they were photographed and evaluated for the NRHP. NRHP-listed resources were photographed and pictures were taken to and from the project area in order to determine if the undertaking would have an adverse effect on the resource.

4.4 National Register Eligibility Assessment

For a property to be considered eligible for the NRHP it must retain integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association (National Register Bulletin 15:2). In addition, properties must meet one or more of the criteria below:

- A.** are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- B.** are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- C.** embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- D.** have yielded or may be likely to yield information important in history or prehistory.

The most frequently used criterion for assessing the significance of an archaeological site is Criterion D, although other criteria were considered where appropriate. For an archaeological site to be considered significant, it must have potential to add to the understanding of the area's history or prehistory. A commonly used standard to determine a site's research potential is based on a number of physical characteristics including variety, quantity, integrity, clarity, and environmental context (Glassow 1977). All of these factors were considered in assessing a site's potential for inclusion in the NRHP.



5.0 RESULTS

A cultural resources survey was conducted on the 200 acre project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). Vegetation in the project area is a mixture of planted pine and secondary growth; disturbances in the project area include transmission line corridors, dirt roads, and two ponds (Figures 5.1 through 5.4). As a result of cultural resources survey three archaeological sites (38NE1365, 38NE1366, and 38NE1367) and three above-ground resources (1967, 1968, and 1969) were identified, and NRHP-listed resource 0021/1059 was revisited (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). The archaeological and architecture surveys are discussed below along with the newly recorded resources.

5.1 Archaeological Survey Results

During the archaeological survey, 79 shovel tests (47 shovel tests and 32 radials), ranging from 10–35 cm deep, were excavated within the project area (Figure 5.5). There were two different soil profiles encountered during the survey; shovel tests with a plow zone leading to subsoil and subsoil on surface. A typical soil profile for a shovel test with a plow zone consisted of approximately 15 cm of reddish brown (5YR 4/4) silty sand, overlying 10+ cm (15–25+ centimeters below surface [cmbfs]) of yellowish red (5YR 5/8) silty clay subsoil (Figure 5.6). A typical soil profile for a shovel test with subsoil on surface consisted of 10+ cm of red (2.5YR 5/8) silty clay subsoil. Three archaeological sites (38NE1365, 38NE1366, and 38NE1367) were identified during the investigations, each of the sites is discussed in greater detail below.

5.1.1 Site 38NE1365

Site Number: 38NE1365	NRHP Recommendation: Not Eligible
Site Type: Prehistoric isolate; Historic artifact scatter	Elevation: 580 ft AMSL
Components: Middle Archaic; 20 th century	Landform: Hilltop
UTM Coordinates: E445303, N3790498 (NAD 83)	Soil Type: Cecil sandy loam
Site Dimensions: 15 E/W x 15 N/S m	Vegetation: Secondary growth
Artifact Depth: Surface	No. of STPs/Positive STPs: 9/0

Site 38NE1365 is a Middle Archaic isolate and a twentieth century artifact scatter located on a hilltop in a dirt road and cleared transmission line corridor in the southern portion of the project (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site is situated in a cleared area with some secondary growth and measures approximately 15 m east/west by 15 m north/south and is bounded by two negative shovel tests to each of the four cardinal directions (Figures 5.7 and 5.8).

Nine shovel tests were excavated at the site; a total of four artifacts (one prehistoric and three historic) were recovered from the surface of the site. A typical soil profile consisted of 10+ cm of red (2.5YR 4/6) sandy clay subsoil. The prehistoric artifact consisted of a quartz Guilford projectile point; the historic artifacts consisted of two pieces of blue transfer printed whiteware and one piece of clear glass (Appendix A). The Guilford projectile point dates to the Middle Archaic (8000–5000 B.P.) and the blue transfer printed whiteware dates from 1815–1915. The historic maps show no structures in the vicinity of site 38NE1365.

Site 38NE1365 is a Middle Archaic isolate and a twentieth century artifact scatter with no stratigraphic integrity. The artifacts were recovered from the surface of the site along a dirt road and transmission line corridor. There were no artifacts identified within the shovel tests and subsoil is on the surface, resulting in no intact soil deposition at the site. Given the disturbed context of the site and based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that site 38NE1365 is not associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the



Figure 5.1. Area of planted pine within the project area, facing east.



Figure 5.2. Area of secondary growth in the project area, facing north.

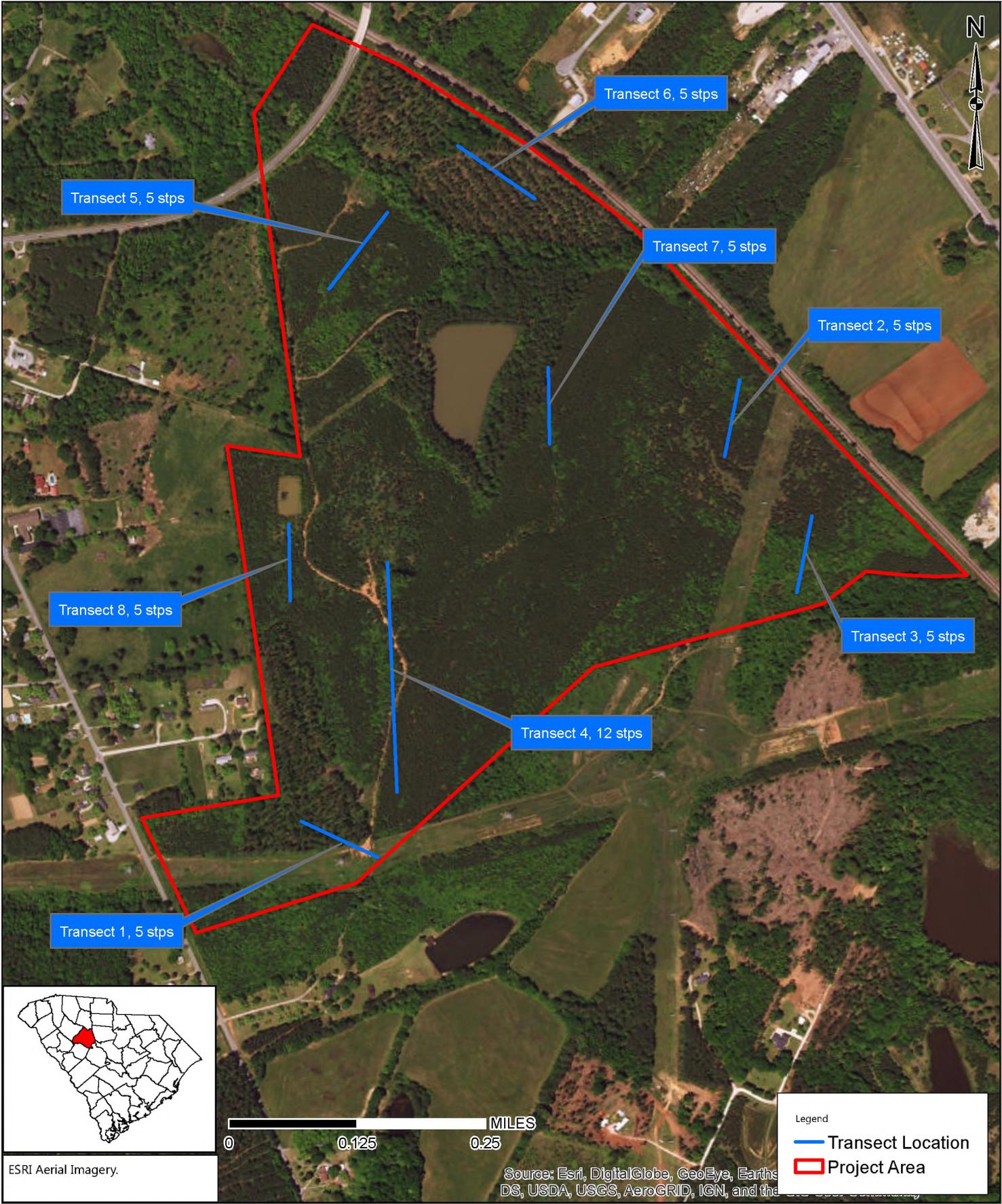


Figure 5.3. Typical dirt road in the project area, facing north.



Figure 5.4. Transmission line along the southeastern portion of the project area, facing northeast.

Drawing Path: C:\Users\KNagje\Desktop\Proposed Costs and Wording - Not Projects Yet\South Carolina\City of Newberry\GIS\Figures\Figure 5-5 transects.mxd plotted by KNagje 03-19-2018



ESRI Aerial Imagery.

Source: Esri, DigitalGlobe, GeoEye, Earthstar, USGS, USDA, USGS, AeroGRID, IGN, and the

Legend

- Transect Location
- ▭ Project Area

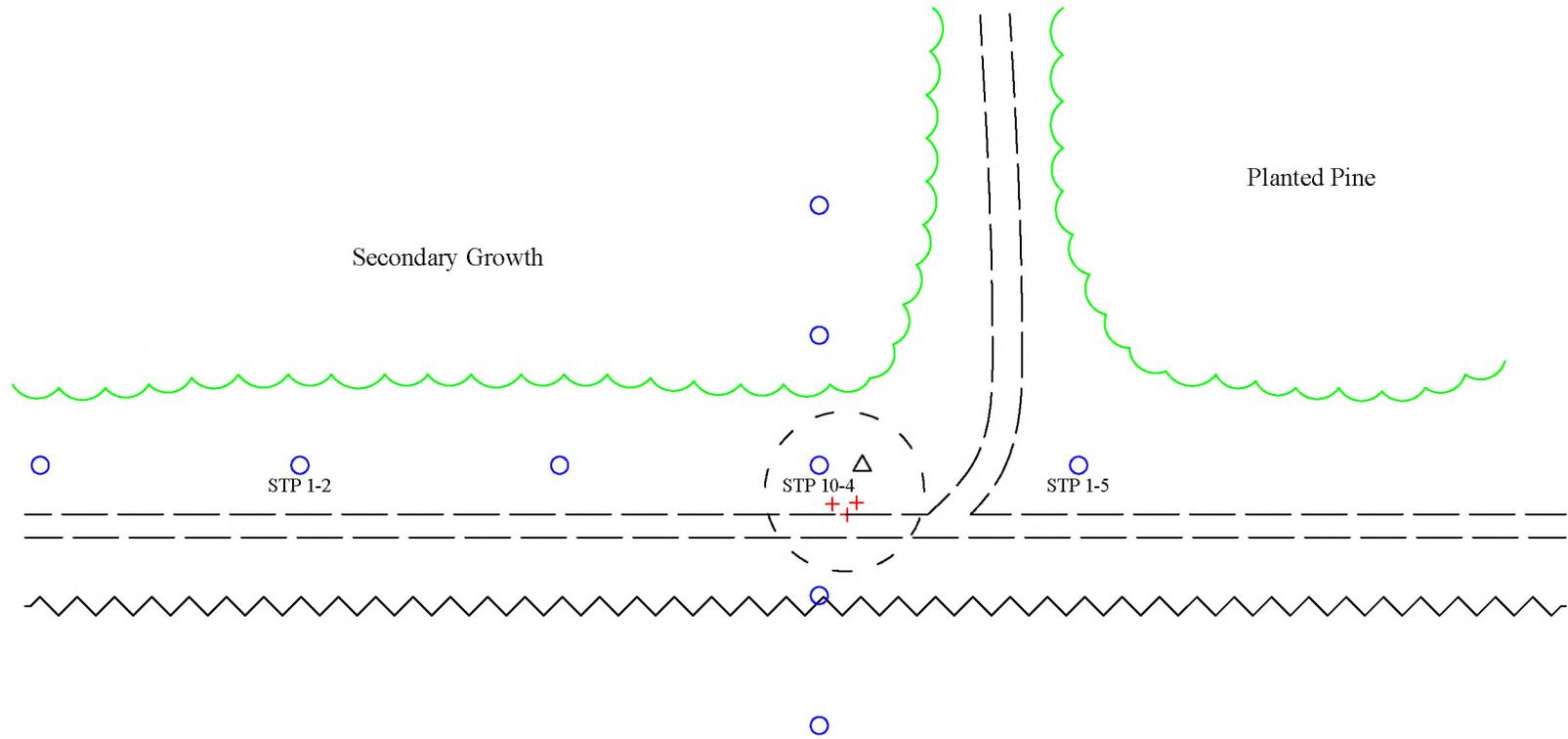
	SCALE: 1:8,000	Transect Map City of Newberry Recreation Complex Newberry County, South Carolina	FIGURE NO.
	PROJECT NO: 4261-18-043		5.5
	DRAWN BY: KJN		
	DATE: 3/19/2018		



Figure 5.6. Typical soil profile within the project area.

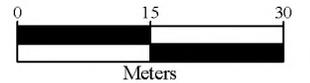


Figure 5.7. Overview of site 38NE1365, facing northwest.



LEGEND

-  Surface Scatter
-  Negative STP
-  Site Datum
-  Site Boundary
-  Dirt Road
-  Transmission Line
-  Tree Line



Site Map - 38NE1365

Cultural Resources Survey
City of Newberry Recreation Complex
Newberry County, South Carolina

SCALE:	FIGURE NO.
As Shown	5.8
DATE:	
PROJECT NUMBER	
4261-18-043	



broad patterns of history (Criterion A), is not associated with the lives of significant persons in the past (Criterion B), does not embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or methods of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C), and is unlikely to yield significant information on the prehistory or history of the area (Criterion D). As such, site 38NE1365 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.1.2 Site 38NE1366

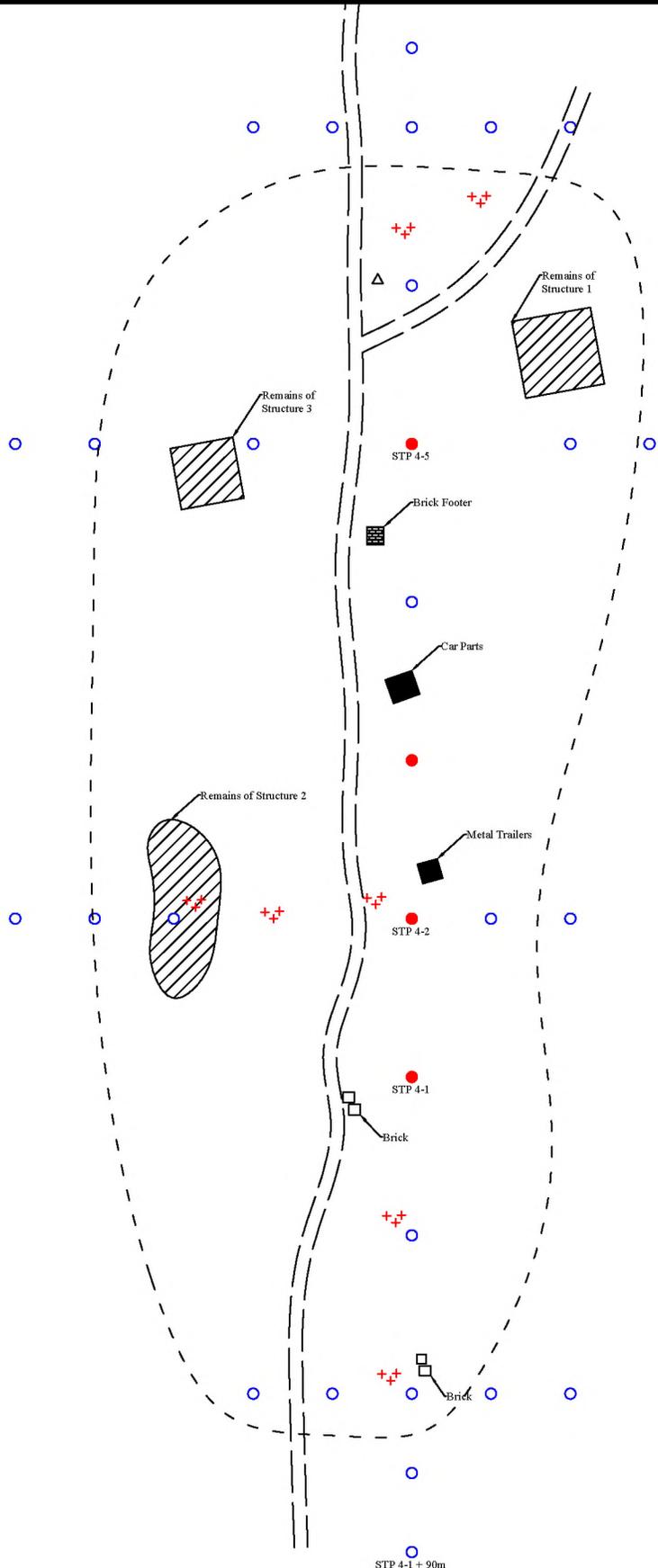
Site Number: 38NE1366	NRHP Recommendation: Not Eligible
Site Type: Historic house complex	Elevation: 570 ft AMSL
Components: Early to mid-20 th century	Landform: Hilltop/hillslope
UTM Coordinates: E445343, N3790760 (NAD 83)	Soil Type: Cecil sandy loam
Site Dimensions: 300 N/S x 105 E/W m	Vegetation: Planted pine/secondary growth
Artifact Depth: Surface; 0–25 cmbs	No. of STPs/Positive STPs: 31/7

Site 38NE1366 is an early to mid-twentieth century house complex located on a hilltop and hill slope on either side of a dirt road in the western portion of the project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site is situated in an area of planted pine and on the surface of a dirt road; it measures approximately 300 m north/south by 105 m east/west and is bounded by two negative shovel tests to each of the four cardinal directions (Figures 5.9 and 5.10).

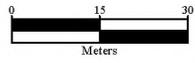
Thirty-one shovel tests were excavated at the site; a total of 33 historic artifacts were recovered from the surface and from between 0–25 cmbs in seven shovel tests. A typical soil profile consisted of 15 cm of brownish yellow (10YR 5/8) silty sand, terminating with 10+ cm (15–25+ cmbs) of mottled brownish yellow (10YR 5/8) and strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) silty clay subsoil. The artifacts consisted of 20 pieces of glass (six milk, four clear, three window, two aqua, two brown, one solarized, one green, and one light green), 11 pieces of undecorated whiteware, one piece of alkaline glazed stoneware, and one wire nail (Appendix A). The undecorated whiteware dates from 1815 to the present, the solarized glass dates from 1850 through 1915, and the stoneware dates from 1880 through 1950. The 1921 soil map and the 1941 and 1964 aerial maps show structures in the vicinity of site 38NE1366 (Figures 3.4, 3.8, and 3.9), but the buildings are not seen on the maps after 1964. The artifacts and historic maps date the site to the early to mid-twentieth century.

There were four areas with concentrations of architectural debris and household items; these areas included cut stone footers, cement and brick footers, brick fragments, corrugated metal, an assortment of bottles and glass objects, and various car parts and trailer hitches (Figures 5.11 through 5.13). The architectural debris was contained in push piles, likely associated with the clearing done for silviculture as the area is covered in planted pine.

Site 38NE1366 is an early to mid-twentieth century house complex with no remaining stratigraphic integrity. The structures have been demolished; the remains no longer represent an outline of a house and the footers have been knocked over and likely moved. Given the disturbed context of the site and based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that site 38NE1366 is not associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history (Criterion A), is not associated with the lives of significant persons in the past (Criterion B), does not embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or methods of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C), and is unlikely to yield



- LEGEND**
- Positive STP
 - ⊕ Surface Scatter
 - Negative STP
 - △ Site Datum
 - ⊆ Site Boundary
 - == Dirt Road



STP 4-1 + 90m

	Site Map - 38NE1366	SCALE: As Shown	FIGURE NO.
	Cultural Resources Survey	DATE: 03/19/2018	5.9
	City of Newberry Recreation Complex	PROJECT NUMBER: 4261-18-043	
	Newberry County, South Carolina		



Figure 5.10. Overview of site 38NE1366, facing east.



Figure 5.11. Pile of architectural debris and artifacts at site 38NE1366, facing north.



Figure 5.12. Pile of corrugated metal and artifacts at site 38NE1366, facing northeast.



Figure 5.13. Cut stone footers at site 38NE1366, facing northeast.

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significant information on the history of the area (Criterion D). As such, site 38NE1366 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.1.3 Site 38NE1367

Site Number: 38NE1367	NRHP Recommendation: Not Eligible
Site Type: Historic artifact scatter	Elevation: 550 ft AMSL
Components: 20 th century	Landform: Hillslope
UTM Coordinates: E445201, N3790986 (NAD 83)	Soil Type: Winnsboro sandy loam
Site Dimensions: 45 N/S x 30 E/W m	Vegetation: Planted pine/secondary growth
Artifact Depth: Surface	No. of STPs/Positive STPs: 10/0

Site 38NE1367 is a twentieth century artifact scatter located on a hillslope adjacent to a manmade pond (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site is situated in an area of secondary growth and planted pine, measures approximately 45 m north/south by 30 m east/west, and is bounded by two negative shovel tests to each of the four cardinal directions (Figures 5.14 and 5.15).

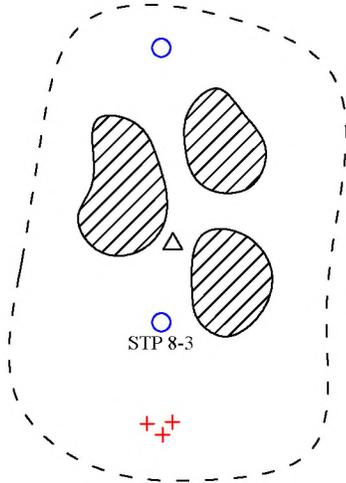
Ten shovel tests were excavated at the site; a total of four historic artifacts were recovered from the surface of the site. Although four artifacts were collected, push piles containing glass bottle and Mason jar fragments, car parts, metal straps, metal cookware, and metal tools make up the majority of the site (Figures 5.16 and 5.17). Only a few smaller artifact fragments were collected from the site; the remaining artifacts were left in place. The artifacts appear to be contained within the push piles, with the exception of a few of the larger car parts. Shovel tests were not placed within the push piles; a typical soil profile consisted of 10 cm of reddish brown (2.5YR 4/4) silty sand, terminating with 10+ cm (10–20+ cmbs) of red (2.5YR 4/6) silty clay subsoil. The artifacts consisted of one piece of green bottle glass, one piece of clear vessel glass, one piece of polychrome hand-painted whiteware, and one pieces of undecorated porcelain (Appendix A). There is no structure shown on the historic maps in the vicinity of site 38NE1367.

Site 38NE1367 is a twentieth century artifact scatter with no remaining stratigraphic integrity. The artifacts at the site are within push piles and there were no artifacts identified within the shovel tests. This is a poor example of a common site type in the region. Given the disturbed context of the site and based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that site 38NE1367 is not associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history (Criterion A), is not associated with the lives of significant persons in the past (Criterion B), does not embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or methods of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C), and is unlikely to yield significant information on the history of the area (Criterion D). As such, site 38NE1367 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.



Pond

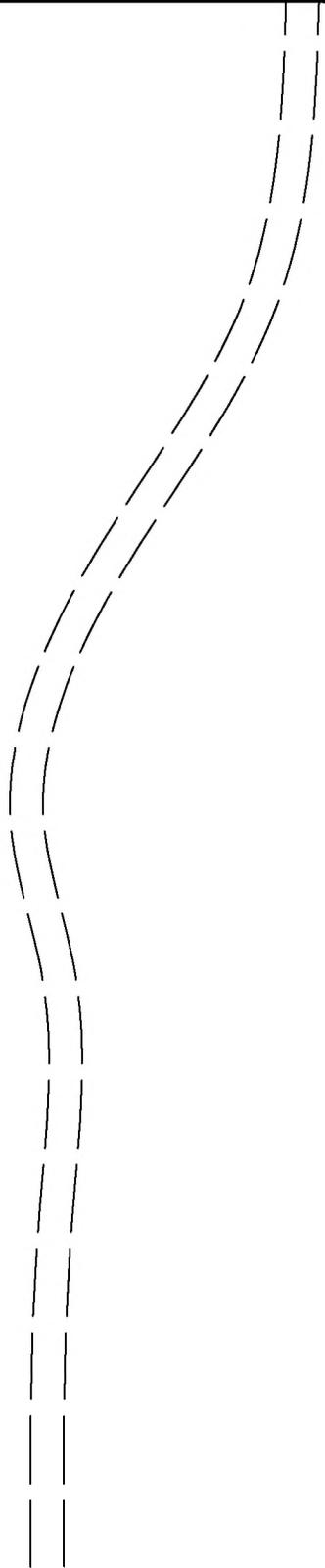
STP 8-5



STP 8-3

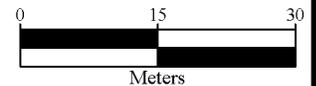


STP 8-1



LEGEND

-  Surface Scatter
-  Negative STP
-  Site Datum
-  Push Piles (structure debris and household artifacts)
-  Site Boundary
-  Dirt Road



Site Map - 38NE1367

Cultural Resources Survey
City of Newberry Recreation Complex
Newberry County, South Carolina

SCALE:

As Shown

DATE:

03/19/2018

PROJECT NUMBER

4261-18-043

FIGURE NO.

5.14



Figure 5.15. Overview of site 38NE1367, facing northeast.



Figure 5.16. Push pile of architectural debris and artifacts at site 38NE1367, facing west.



Figure 5.17. Push pile of architectural debris and artifacts at site 38NE1367, facing south.

5.2 Architectural Survey Results

During the architectural survey, S&ME visited the buildings recorded on historic maps that are within or directly adjacent to the project area. S&ME identified three previously unrecorded aboveground resources (1967, 1968, and 1969) and revisited one previously recorded NRHP-listed resource (0021/1059). Each of these resources is discussed in detail below.

5.2.1 Resource 1967

Resource 1967 is the Norfolk Southern/CSX railroad corridor, which runs along the eastern border of the project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The Norfolk Southern Railway corridor contains two sets of tracks, which are standard gauge metal tracks, and are level with or located on a lower elevation than the adjacent land in the vicinity of the project area (Figure 5.18). The tracks adjacent to the project area were built as two separate rail lines. One span of tracks was constructed as part of the Greenville and Columbia Railroad, which was chartered in 1845 and began operation in 1854 with tracks from Greenville to Columbia; it served as a main transportation route from the upstate areas of South Carolina to Columbia during the Civil War. The Greenville and Columbia Railroad operated for 26 years, before it was reorganized as the Columbia and Greenville Railroad. In 1903, the Columbia and Greenville Railroad was purchased by the Southern Railway, which continued to operate the line until 1982, when it merged with the Norfolk and Western Railway to form Norfolk Southern Railway. The second line of tracks along this corridor was constructed as part of the Columbia, Newberry, and Laurens Railroad, which was chartered in 1885 and began operations six years later. In 1924, the Columbia, Newberry, and Laurens Railroad merged with the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad and became part of the Seaboard Coast Line Railroad in 1967 and CSX



Figure 5.18. Resource 1967, facing north.

Transportation in 1986. The railroad tracks associated with Resource 1967 continue to be operated by Norfolk Southern Railway and CSX systems.

The railroad appears on Sanborn Fire Insurance maps beginning in the 1890s, as well as the 1921 USDA soil survey map (Figure 3.4); it continues to appear on both USGS topographic maps and SCDOT maps throughout the twentieth century (Figures 3.5–3.8). The former Greenville and Columbia Railroad and Columbia, Newberry, and Laurens Railroad systems were important developmental parts of upcountry transportation and aided in the industrial development of the area. The current tracks run along the same route as the lines laid in the 1850s and 1880s. However, the original tracks have been replaced and the landscape associated with the railroad has been altered since the original construction. This section of the rail corridor is set apart as a separate, delineated corridor through the landscape, which is graded and covered with gravel. It is one of many rail lines built in South Carolina during the mid- to late nineteenth century and, although it retains integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association, it has lost integrity of design, materials and workmanship. Therefore, Resource 1967 is recommended ineligible for the NRHP.

5.2.2 *Resource 1968*

The house at 146 Oliver Court (Resource 1968) is a circa 1965 Ranch style residence. The house is four bays wide, with a central door located within an inset porch that is created by a slight overhang of the main roofline that is supported by decorative metal posts; the façade of the house beneath the porch is covered with fiberboard, to contrast with the surrounding brick (Figure 5.19). To the west of the door is a sixteen pane picture window which is typical in Ranch-style homes to provide light to a public space, such as a living room. East of the door are one paired and one single six-over-six, double-hung wooden frame windows. Attached to the west elevation is an



Figure 5.19. Resource 1968, facing southeast.

open, side-gabled carport supported by decorative metal posts; a portion of the carport is enclosed with one-over-one, metal frame windows and a newer style of brick. The roof is covered with asphalt shingles and there is an exterior brick chimney visible along the west elevation, between the house and carport. A structure at this location appears on the 1968 USGS topographic quadrangle, indicating a construction date prior to that year, and the style of the house is indicative of mid-1960s Ranch style houses (Figure 3.8). The house is a common type of mid-century residence. Although it retains integrity of location, design, materials, workmanship setting, and feeling, the house is not a significant example of an architectural style, nor does it represent a particular period in history. It has no known historical associations. Therefore, S&ME recommends it as ineligible for the NRHP.

5.2.3 *Resource 1969*

The house at 114 Oliver Court (Resource 1969) is a circa 1965 Ranch style residence. The house is of frame construction, with a side-gabled roofline and brick veneer exterior (Figure 5.20). The house is four bays wide, with an off-center door located beneath a slight overhang of the main roofline that is supported by metal posts. To the east of the door is a projecting picture window, with a single frame window flanked by canted single vertical panes, each with a metal frame; this large window is typical in Ranch-style homes to provide light to a public space, such as a living room. West of the door are two small one-over-one, double-hung metal sash windows that signify private interior spaces, like bedrooms. The roof is covered with asphalt shingles and there is an interior brick chimney visible along the roof ridge. Along the eastern portion of the house is an attached two-car garage. A structure at this location appears on the 1968 USGS topographic quadrangle, indicating a construction date prior to that year, and the style of the house is indicative of mid-1960s Ranch style houses (Figure 3.8). The house is a common type of mid-century residence. Although it retains integrity of location, design, materials,

workmanship setting, and feeling, the house is not a significant example of an architectural style, nor does it represent a particular period in history. It has no known historical associations. Therefore, S&ME recommends it as ineligible for the NRHP.



Figure 5.20. Resource 1969, facing north.

5.2.4 *Timberhouse (0021/1059)*

Timberhouse (Resource 0021/1059) is a circa 1858 Greek Revival residence. The house is two stories and of frame construction, with a side-gabled roofline and wooden weatherboard exterior (Figure 5.21). The house is three bays wide, with a full width double porch that is supported by six square wooden columns on each level; there is central doorway on both the upper and lower levels flanked by a single six-over-six window on either side. Timberhouse was placed in the National Register in 1980 as part of the Newberry Multiple Resource Area. It is located at 1427 Ebenezer Road, approximately 0.43-mile west of the western boundary of the project area. During fieldwork, S&ME evaluated potential adverse effects to Timberhouse by the proposed project. The proposed project is a recreation complex, which will not have a tall vertical component. There is development and vegetation between Timberhouse and the proposed project area and the project area will not be visible from the resource (Figure 5.22). Therefore, S&ME recommends that the proposed project will have no effect on Timberhouse.



Figure 5.21. Timberhouse (0021/1059), facing north.



Figure 5.22. View from Timberhouse (0021/1059) toward the proposed project area, facing southeast.



6.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

On behalf of Alliance, S&ME has completed a cultural resources survey of 200 acres for the City of Newberry Recreation Complex in Newberry County, South Carolina. The project area is located south of Dixie Drive (SC Highway 34) and east of Glenn Street Extension, to the south of the city limits of Newberry (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area will be developed into a recreation complex and will include an entrance off of Glenn Street Extension, development of a baseball field, tee ball field, splash pad area, and a mulch walking trail around an existing pond (Figure 1.3).

This work is being completed in anticipation of applying for a grant from the Land and Water Conservation Fund, part of the South Carolina Department of Parks, Recreation, & Tourism. In addition to consultation with the State Historic Preservation Office, the grant application requests consultation with Tribal Historic Preservation Offices; the Catawba Indian Nation, Eastern Band of Cherokee, and the Muscogee (Creek) Nation will also be consulting parties on this project. The following work was conducted in response to the grant application and was carried out in general accordance with the agreed-upon scope, terms, and conditions presented in Proposal No. 42-1800273, dated March 12, 2018.

Fieldwork for this project was conducted on March 15, 2018. The APE for direct effects is limited to the project footprint, while the APE for indirect effects consists of resources within or directly adjacent to the proposed project area. As a result of the survey, three archaeological sites were identified (38NE1365, 38NE1366, and 38NE1367), three historic resources were recorded (1967, 1968, and 1969), and one NRHP-listed resource (0021/1059) was revisited (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1).

It is S&ME's opinion that the project area has a low probability for containing additional cultural resources based on the results of the current investigations, the current soil characteristics, historic map research, the extent of silviculture over the project area, and the lack of intact soil deposits within the project area. It is recommended that no additional cultural resource investigations should be necessary for the currently proposed project.



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8.0 Appendix A – Artifact Catalog

Appendix A - City of Newberry Recreation Complex Artifact Catalog

Site #	Cat. #	Provenience	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (g)	Class	Category	Sub-Category	Type/Description	Material	Portion	Notes
38NE1365	1.01	STP 1-4	Surface	2	4.4	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Transfer-printed Blue		Body	1815-1915
38NE1365	1.02	STP 1-4	Surface	1	10.3	Lithic	Chipped Stone	Projectile Point	Guilford	Quartz		
38NE1365	1.03	STP 1-4	Surface	1	2.7	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear		Body	
38NE1366	1.01	STP 4-1	0-5	1	2.8	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Amethyst/Solarized		Body	1880-1915
38NE1366	2.01	STP 4-2	Surface	2	3.3	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Body	1815-Present
38NE1366	2.02	STP 4-2	Surface	2	1.5	Glass	Window Glass					
38NE1366	2.03	STP 4-2	Surface	1	10.6	H. Ceramic	Stoneware	Alkaline-glazed			Body	1800-1950
38NE1366	3.04	STP 4-2	0-25	1	1.6	Glass	Window Glass					
38NE1366	3.05	STP 4-2	0-25	1	0.4	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Aqua		Body	
38NE1366	3.06	STP 4-2	0-25	1	1.1	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear		Body	
38NE1366	4.01	STP 4-3	0-5	1	7.4	Metal	Hardware/Tools	Nail	Wire			1850-Present
38NE1366	4.02	STP 4-3	0-5	1	2.7	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Rim	1815-Present
38NE1366	5.01	STP 4-5	Surface	4	7.9	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Milk			Mason Jar Lid
38NE1366	5.02	STP 4-5	Surface	1	1.3	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Body	1815-Present
38NE1366	5.03	STP 4-5	Surface	1	2.7	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Brown		Body	
38NE1366	5.04	STP 4-5	Surface	1	42.6	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear		Base	
38NE1366	6.01	STP 4-6	Surface	2	3.1	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Body	1815-Present
38NE1366	6.02	STP 4-6	Surface	1	4.0	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Green		Body	
38NE1366	6.03	STP 4-6	Surface	1	3.2	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Brown		Body	
38NE1366	6.04	STP 4-6	Surface	1	14.0	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Milk		Body	
38NE1366	7.01	STP 4-2+45 W	Surface	2	17.2	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear		Body	
38NE1366	7.02	STP 4-2+45 W	Surface	1	20.6	Glass	Machine Molded	Bottle	Aqua		Rim	
38NE1366	7.03	STP 4-2+45 W	Surface	2	17.9	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Rim	1815-Present
38NE1366	7.04	STP 4-2+45 W	Surface	1	3.8	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Body	1815-Present
38NE1366	7.05	STP 4-2+45 W	Surface	1	17.1	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Rim	1815-Present: Scalloped Rim
38NE1366	8.01	STP 4-1+30 S	Surface	1	3.1	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Milk		Body	
38NE1366	8.02	STP 4-1+30 S	Surface	1	1.8	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Lt. Green		Body	
38NE1366	9.01	STP 4-1+60 S	Surface	1	1.7	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		Body	1815-Present
38NE1367	1.01	General Surface	Surface	1	83.9	Glass	Machine Molded	Bottle	Green			
38NE1367	1.02	General Surface	Surface	1	44.6	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear		Body	
38NE1367	1.03	General Surface	Surface	1	15.5	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Hand-painted, polychrome		Rim	1815-Present
38NE1367	1.04	General Surface	Surface	1	3.5	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Porcelain	Hard Paste, plain		Rim	Scalloped Rim



9.0 Appendix B – SHPO/Tribal Correspondence



April 30, 2018

Kimberly Nagle
S&ME, Inc.
134 Suber Road
Columbia, SC 29210

Re: City of Newberry Recreation Complex CRS
Newberry County, South Carolina
SHPO Project No. 18-KL0085

Dear Kimberly Nagle:

Our Office has received the documentation dated March 23, 2018 that you submitted as due diligence for the project referenced above, including the draft report, *Cultural Resource Survey City of Newberry Recreation Complex Newberry County, South Carolina*. This letter is for preliminary, informational purposes only and does not constitute consultation or agency coordination with our Office as defined in 36 CFR 800: "Protection of Historic Properties" or by any state regulatory process. The recommendation stated below could change once the responsible federal and/or state agency initiates consultation with our Office.

The cultural resource survey investigated the approximately 200-acre project area. As a result of the investigations, three archaeological sites (38NE1365, 38NE1366, 38NE1367) and three above-ground resources (SHPO Site Nos. 1967, 1968, 1969) were newly recorded. One previously recorded resource, The Timberhouse (SHPO Site No. 0021/1059) which listed on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) in 1980, is located in proximity to the project area and was revisited. Sites 38NE1365, 38NE1366, and 38NE1367 and SHPO Site Nos. 1967, 1968, and 1969 are recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Our office concurs with these recommendations. The survey determined that the project area will not be visible from the Timberhouse (SHPO Site No. 0021/1059). No additional cultural investigations were recommended for the project tract.

If the City of Newberry Recreation Complex were to require state permits or federal permits, licenses, funds, loans, grants, or assistance for development, we would recommend to the federal or state agency or agencies that no additional cultural resource investigations are needed for the project area.

The federal or state agency or agencies will take our recommendation(s) into consideration when evaluating the project and will determine if additional investigations will be required.

Our office accepts the draft report as final. To complete the reporting process, please provide at least two (2) hard copies of a final report: one (1) bound and one (1) unbound hard copies and a digital copy in ADOBE Acrobat PDF format for SCIAA. Investigators should send all copies directly to the SHPO. The

SHPO will distribute the appropriate copies to SCIAA. Please ensure that a copy of our comments letter is included in the Appendices and Attachments of the final report.

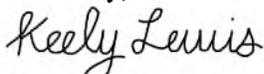
Please also provide electronic PDF copies of the architectural survey forms. The photographs can be provided as JPEG files, labeled by their SHPO Site Number, or they can be provided as imbedded images on the survey form PDFs and/or a continuation sheet.

Please provide GIS shapefiles for the surveyed area (and architectural sites as applicable). Shapefiles for identified archaeological sites should be coordinated with SCIAA. Shapefiles should be compatible with ArcGIS (.shp file format) and should be sent as a bundle in .zip format. Please see our GIS Data Submission Requirements and shapefile templates that are available in the left side bar on the following webpage <http://shpo.sc.gov/research/Pages/ArchSite.aspx>. SHPO recommends e-mailing the shapefiles to the address link on the noted webpage or using a File Transfer Protocol website such as WeTransfer.com to send large files.

The State Historic Preservation Office will provide comments regarding historic architectural and archaeological resources and effects to them once the federal or state agency initiates consultation. Project Review Forms and additional guidance regarding our Office's role in the compliance process and historic preservation can be found on our website at: <http://shpo.sc.gov/programs/revcomp>.

Please refer to SHPO Project Number 18-KL0085 in any future correspondence regarding this project. If you have any questions, please contact me at (803) 896-6181 or at KLewis@scdah.sc.gov.

Sincerely,

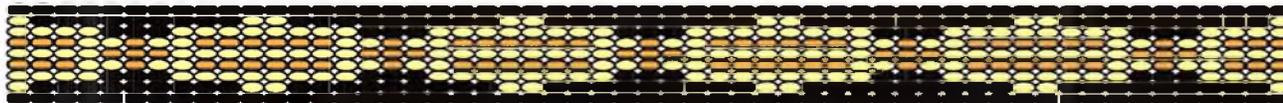


Keely Lewis
Archaeologist
State Historic Preservation Office

cc: Keith Derting, SCIAA

Catawba Indian Nation
Tribal Historic Preservation Office
1536 Tom Steven Road
Rock Hill, South Carolina 29730

Office 803-328-2427
Fax 803-328-5791



April 19, 2018

Attention: Kimberly Nagle
S&ME, Inc.
134 Suber Road
Columbia, SC 29210

Re. THPO #	TCNS #	Project Description
2018-8-45		City of Newberry Recreation Complex – Newberry Co., SC S&ME Project No. 4261-18-043

Dear Ms. Nagle,

The Catawba have no immediate concerns with regard to traditional cultural properties, sacred sites or Native American archaeological sites within the boundaries of the proposed project areas. **However, the Catawba are to be notified if Native American artifacts and / or human remains are located during the ground disturbance phase of this project.**

If you have questions please contact Caitlin Rogers at 803-328-2427 ext. 226, or e-mail caitlinh@ccppcrafts.com.

Sincerely,

Wenonah G. Haire
Tribal Historic Preservation Officer

Kimberly Jean Nagle

From: Section106 <Section106@mcn-nsn.gov>
Sent: Friday, April 27, 2018 10:30 AM
To: Kimberly Jean Nagle
Subject: RE: Cultural Resource Report for your Review - Newberry County, South Carolina

Follow Up Flag: FollowUp
Flag Status: Flagged

Ms. Nagle,

Thank you for contacting the Muscogee (Creek) Nation concerning the Cultural Resource Report for the Newberry Recreation Complex in Newberry County, South Carolina. This project is located within our historic area of interest and is of importance to us. After reviewing the material provided, it has been determined that the Muscogee (Creek) Nation has no objections to the proposed project. Please consider this letter as our concurrence to your request and findings of **no historic or traditional cultural properties affected**. However, should cultural material or human remains be encountered during ground disturbance, construction or demolition, we request to be notified. Also, if there are any additional updates, we ask to be informed of these. Should further information or comment be needed, please do not hesitate to contact me at (918) 732-7852 or by email at lwendt@mcn-nsn.gov.

Regards,
LeeAnne Wendt

LeeAnne Wendt, M.A., RPA
Historic and Cultural Preservation Department, Tribal Archaeologist
Muscogee (Creek) Nation
P.O. Box 580 / Okmulgee, OK 74447
T 918.732.7852
F 918.758.0649
lwendt@MCN-nsn.gov
<http://www.muscogeenation-nsn.gov/>

From: Kimberly Jean Nagle [<mailto:KNagle@smeinc.com>]
Sent: Friday, March 23, 2018 6:18 AM
To: Section106
Subject: Cultural Resource Report for your Review - Newberry County, South Carolina

Good Morning,

A cultural resource report associated with the development of a recreation complex in Newberry County, South Carolina is attached for your review. Please let me know if you have questions or would like additional information.

Thank you for your help and I look forward to hearing from you,

Kimberly

Kimberly Nagle, M.S., RPA

Senior Archaeologist/Project Manager



S&ME
134 Suber Road
Columbia, SC 29210 [map](#)
O: 803.561.9024
M: 814.599.0154
www.smeinc.com
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