Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey
Project Lego
Lancaster County, South Carolina
S&ME Project No. 1461-19-001

PREPARED FOR:

Continental Tire the Americas, LLC
1830 MacMillan Park Drive
Fort Mill, South Carolina 29707

PREPARED BY:

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

January 2019

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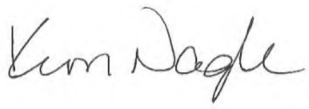

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Principal Investigator

Authors: Paul Connell and Heather Carpini, M.A.

January 2019

Management Summary

On behalf of Continental Tire the Americas, LLC, S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed a cultural resource reconnaissance survey of the proposed approximately 45-acre project area associated with the expansion of the Continental Tire facility in Lancaster County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The approximately 45 acres is divided into two noncontiguous Area A and Area B. Area A is approximately 33 acres and Area B is approximately 12 acres. The project area is located along Macmillan Park Drive approximately 3.8 miles southeast of the community of Fort Mill, South Carolina.

The purpose of the survey was to assess the project area's potential for containing significant cultural resources and to make recommendations regarding additional work that may be required under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, and other pertinent federal, state, or local laws. This work was done in anticipation of federal funding or federal permitting and was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 14-1800715R1, dated December 14, 2018.

Fieldwork for the project was conducted on January 15, 2019. This work included the excavation of thirteen shovel tests in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites, as well as a limited architectural survey. As a result of the investigations, no archaeological sites and one above ground resource (1189) were identified during the investigation and five previously recorded above ground resources were revisited (0029, 0296, 0297, 0298, and 0299) (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). S&ME concurs that previously recorded above ground resources 0029 and 0299 are not eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) and recommends that Structure 1189 is also ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP. Resources 0296, 0297, and 0298 are no longer extant and were not evaluated during this survey.

It is the opinion of S&ME that the approximately 45-acre project area is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological sites since it contains a mixture of poorly drained soils with areas of standing water, slope greater than 15 percent, no intact soil stratigraphy with many areas containing subsoil on surface, and disturbance associated with development and grading. No further cultural resource work is recommended for the project area as currently proposed.

Table 1.1. Cultural resources identified during the survey.

Resource	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Recommendation
0029	James Parkerson Bailes House, circa 1874	Not Eligible	No Additional Work
0296	House, circa 1930	Not Eligible	No Longer Extant
0297	House, circa 1930	Not Eligible	No Longer Extant
0298	House, circa 1930	Not Eligible	No Longer Extant
0299	House, circa 1925	Not Eligible	No Additional Work
1189	House, circa 1950	Not Eligible	No Additional Work

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1.0 Introduction

On behalf of Continental Tire the Americas, LLC, S&ME has completed a cultural resource reconnaissance survey of the proposed approximately 45-acre project area associated with the expansion of the Continental Tire facility in Lancaster County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The approximately 45 acres is divided into two noncontiguous Area A and Area B. Area A is approximately 33 acres and Area B is approximately 12 acres. The project area is located along Macmillan Park Drive approximately 3.8 miles southeast of the community of Fort Mill, South Carolina.

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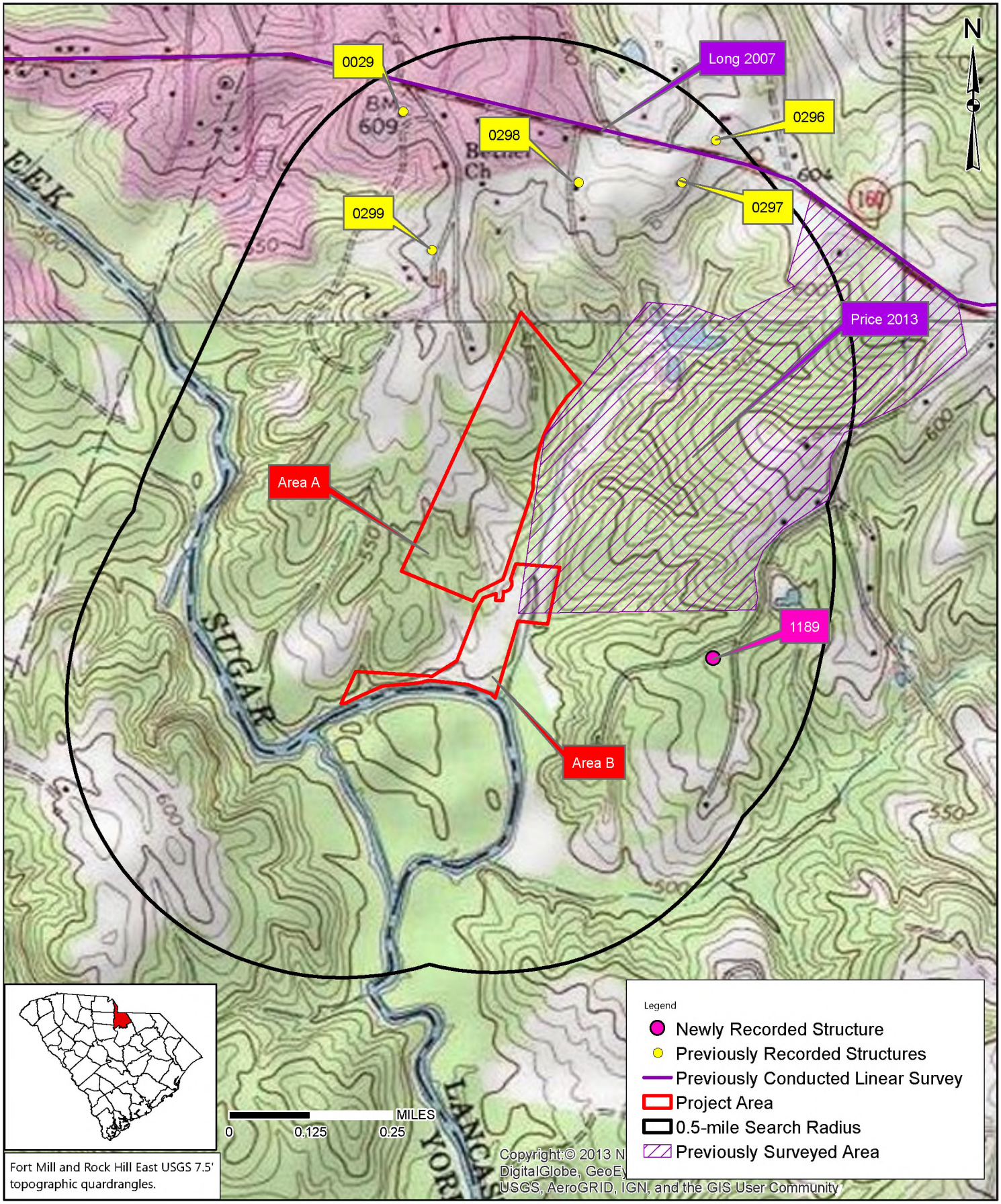
S&ME carried out background research and field investigation tasks in January 2019. The fieldwork was conducted by Field Director Joseph A. DeAngelis, M.A. and Crew Chief Paul Connell and consisted of excavating shovel tests and photo documenting the project area. Graphics, GIS maps, and photographs were prepared by Paul Connell and Senior Architectural Historian/Historian Heather Carpini, M.A. Architectural evaluations and historic research for the project was conducted by Ms. Carpini. Senior review of the report was conducted by Ms. Nagle.



Fort Mill and Rock Hill East USGS 7.5' topographic quardrangles.

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Topographic Map
Project Lego
Lancaster County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
1.1

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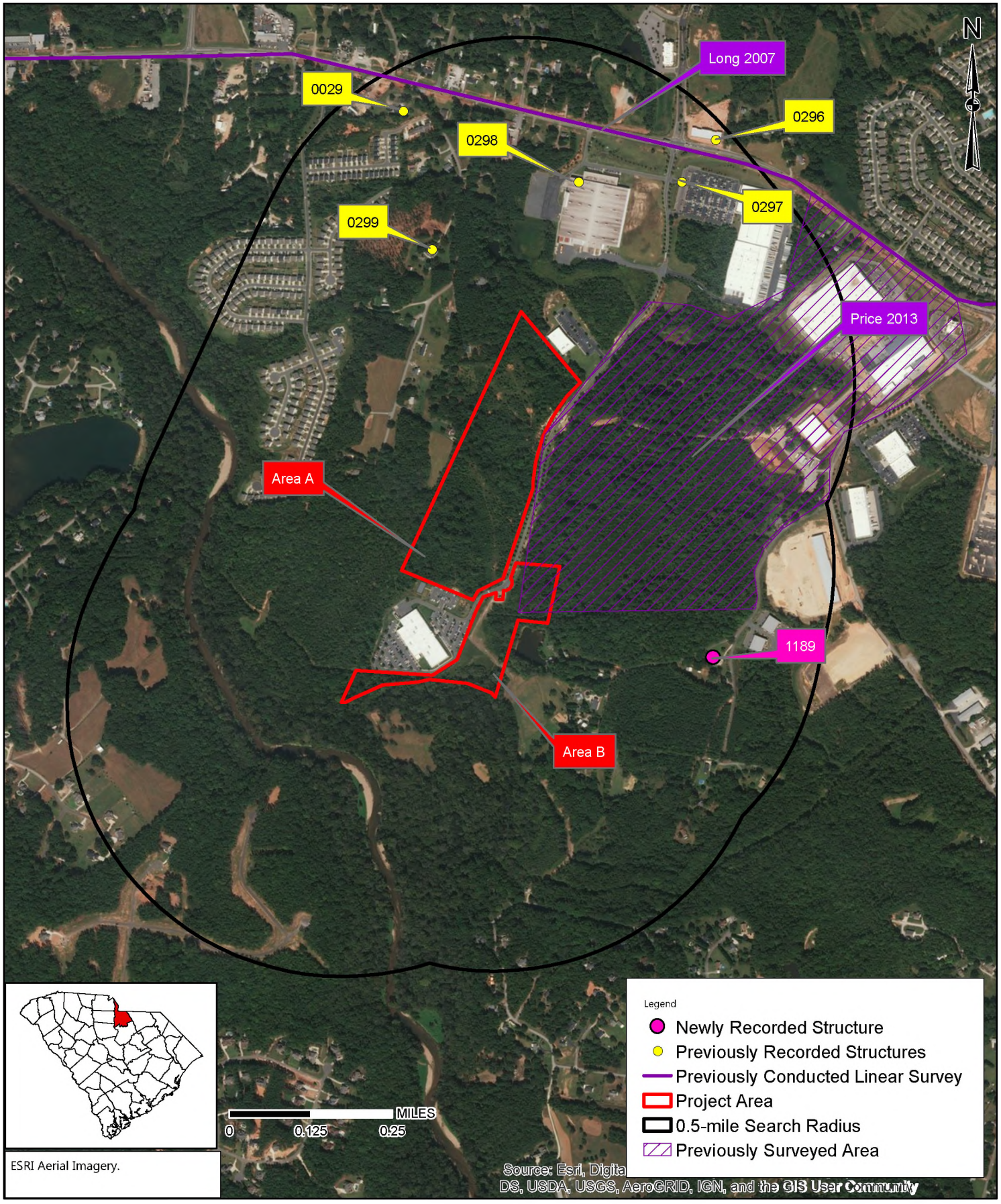

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Aeriai Map
Project Lego
Lancaster County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
1.2

2.0 Environmental Setting

The project area is located along MacMillan Park Drive, approximately 3.38-miles southeast of the town of Fort Mill (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located in the Piedmont physiographic province of South Carolina, which consists of a 100-mile wide belt between the Blue Ridge and the Sandhills (Kovacik and Winberry 1989). Topography in the project area ranges from 490 ft above mean sea level, (AMSL) along Sugar Creek in the southern portion of the project area, to 580 ft AMSL along the northern boundary of the project area (Figure 1.1). Two unnamed tributaries and a pond associated with Sugar Creek are located within the project area; Sugar Creek is the southern boundary of the project area.

Vegetation in the project area includes areas of secondary growth, grassy field, and mixed pine and hardwood forest (Figures 2.1–2.3). Disturbances in the project area include dirt roads throughout the project area, a pond, a paved pathway, and sewer utilities (Figures 2.4 through 2.6).

The project area is located in the Cecil-Davidson soil association, which consist of deep, well drained soils (USDA 1973). There are four specific soil types located within the project area (Figure 2.7); their descriptions can be found in Table 2.1 (United States Department of Agriculture [USDA] Web Soil Survey, Accessed January 14, 2018).

Table 2.1. Specific soil types within the project area.

Soil Name	Type	Drainage	Location	Slope
Cecil	Fine Sandy Loam	Well drained	Hillslopes	2-15%
Cecil	Clay Loam	Well drained	Interfluves	6-25%
Chewacla	Silt Loam	Somewhat poorly drained	Flood Plains	0–2%
Wedowee	Sandy Loam	Well drained	Hillslopes	10-25%

Figure 2.1. Area of secondary undergrowth in the project area, facing northwest.

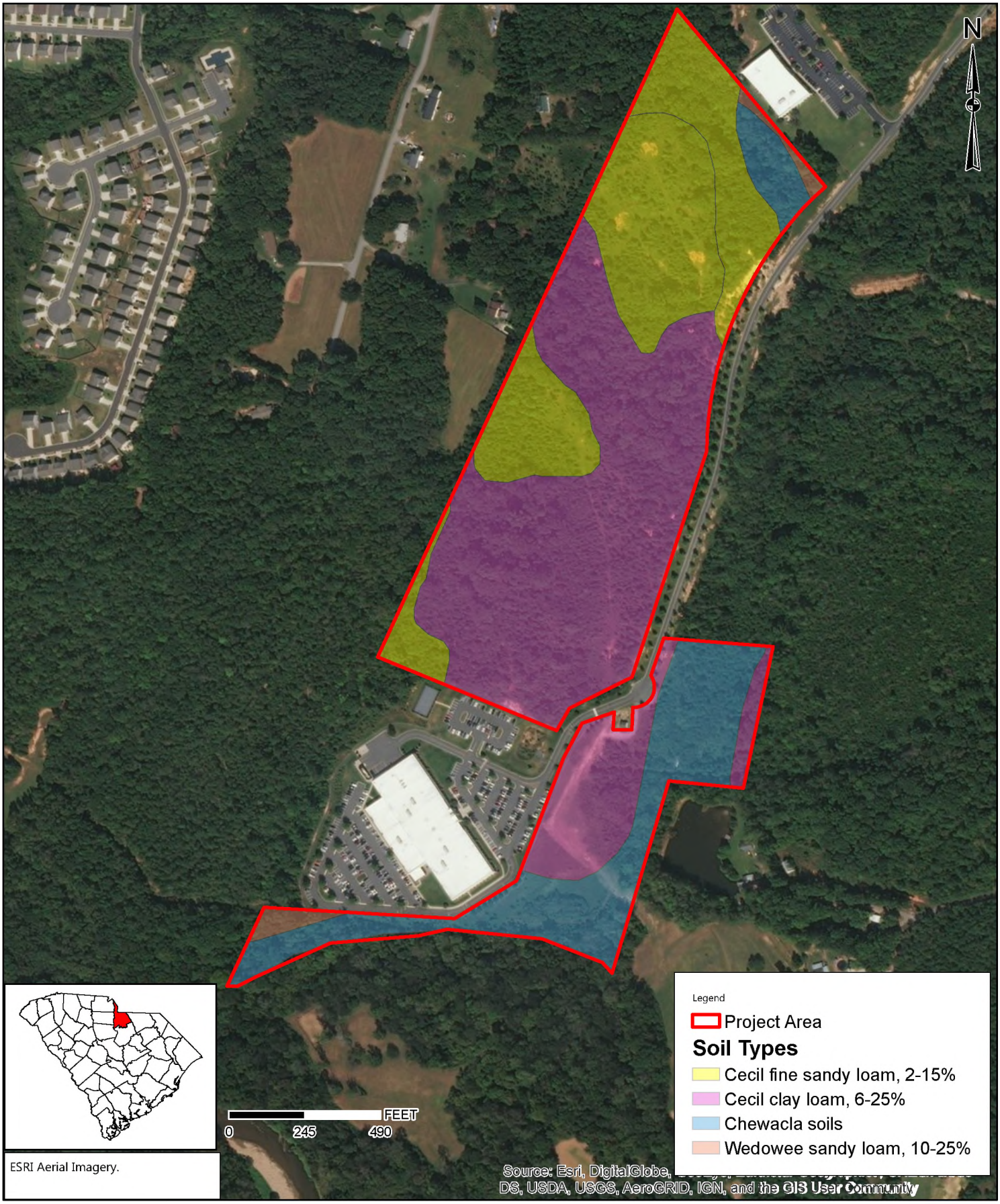
Figure 2.2. Area of grassy field in the project area, facing east.

Figure 2.3. Area of mixed pine and hardwood forest in low-lying areas, facing south.

Figure 2.4. Typical dirt road within the project area, facing northwest.

Figure 2.5. Paved pathway and sewer line within the project area, facing north.

Figure 2.6. Pond within the project area, facing west.



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Soiis Map
Project Lego
Lancaster County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
2.7

3.0 Cultural Context

The cultural context of the region is reviewed below for two purposes: first, to outline previous research in the region as well as the nature of historic and prehistoric resources that might be expected in the project area, and second, to provide a comparative framework in which to place resources identified within the project area and APE in order to better understand their potential significance and NRHP eligibility. The cultural context of the project area, includes the prehistoric record and the historic past, which are discussed in this section of the report.

3.1 Prehistoric Context

Over the last three decades there has been much debate over when humans first arrived in the New World. The traditional interpretation is that humans first arrived in North America via the Bering land bridge that connected Alaska to Siberia at the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 13,500 years ago. From Alaska and northern Canada, these migrants may have moved southward through an ice-free corridor separating the Cordilleran and Laurentide ice sheets to eventually settle in North and South America.

Some researchers have suggested that initial colonization of the New World began well before Clovis, with some dates going back more than 35,000 years (Dillehay and Collins 1988; Goodyear 2005). Evidence for pre-Clovis occupations are posited for the Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, the Cactus Hill and Saltville sites in Virginia, and 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). A number of sites providing better 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, Missouri, Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin, and southern Chile. Despite this, the earliest definitive evidence for occupation in the Southeastern United States is at the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 13,000 years ago (Anderson and O'Steen 1992; Bense 1994).

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

Unfortunately, most information 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 the 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, gravers, 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 sub-period is generally thought to date from 11,500 to 11,000 B.P. (Sassaman et al. 1990:8). Fairly 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 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. 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 interriverine uplands and extensive riverine swamps were formed (Anderson et al. 1996; Delcourt and Delcourt 1985).

The Archaic Period typically has been 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 are presumed to reflect a fairly high degree of mobility, making use of seasonally available resources in the changing environment across different areas of the Southeast. The 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 in the Late Archaic.

Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.)

During the Early Archaic, there was a continuation of the semi-nomadic hunting and gathering lifestyle seen during the Paleoindian Period; however, there was a focus on modern game species rather than on the megafauna, which had become extinct by that time. During this time there also appears to have been a gradual, but steady increase in population and a shift in settlement patterns. In the Carolinas and Georgia, various models

of Early Archaic social organization and settlement 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 river (Anderson and Hanson 1988: Figure 2). 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 other band territories was limited. At a higher 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 include a variety of side and corner notched projectile point types such as Hardaway, Kirk, Palmer, Taylor, and Big Sandy, and bifurcated point types such as Lecroy, McCorkle, and St. Albans. Other than projectile points, tools of the Early Archaic subperiod include end scrapers, side scrapers, gravers, 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 Tennessee (Chapman and Adovasio 1977).

Middle Archaic (8,000–5000 B.P.)

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. By approximately 6000 B.P., extensive riverine and coastal swamps were formed by rising water tables as the sea level approached modern elevations (Whitehead 1972). It was during this subperiod that river and estuary systems took their modern configurations. The relationship between climatic, environmental, and cultural changes during this period, however, is still poorly understood (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:5–14). It is assumed that population density increased during the Middle Archaic, but small hunting and gathering bands probably still formed the primary social and economic units. Larger and more intensively occupied sites tend to occur near rivers 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, groundstone tools such as axes, atlatl weights, and grinding stones became more common, while flaked stone tools became less diverse and tend to be made of locally available raw materials (Blanton and Sassaman 1989). Middle Archaic tools tend to be expediently manufactured and have a more rudimentary appearance than those found during the preceding Paleoindian and Early Archaic periods. The most common point type of this subperiod is the ubiquitous Morrow Mountain, but others such as Stanly, Guilford, and Halifax also occur, as well as transitional Middle Archaic-Late Archaic forms such as Brier Creek and

Allendale/MALA (an acronym for Middle Archaic Late Archaic) (Blanton and Sassaman 1989; Coe 1964). The major difference in the artifact assemblage of the Stanly Phase seems to be the addition of stone atlatl weights. The Morrow Mountain and Guilford phases also appear during the Middle Archaic, but Coe (1964) considers these phases to be without local precedent and views them as western intrusions.

Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.)

The Late Archaic is marked by a number of key developments. There was an increased focus on riverine locations and resources (e.g., shellfish), small-scale horticulture was adopted, and ceramic and soapstone vessel technology was introduced. These changes allowed humans to occupy strategic locations for longer periods of time. In the spring and summer, Late Archaic people gathered large amounts of shellfish. It is not known why this productive resource was not exploited earlier, but one explanation is that the environmental conditions conducive to the formation 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 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.

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. There are also smaller variants of Savannah River points, including Otarre Stemmed and Small Savannah River points that date to the transitional Late Archaic/Early Woodland. Other artifacts include soapstone cooking discs and netsinkers, shell tools, grooved axes, and worked bone.

The earliest pottery in the New World comes from the Savannah River Valley and coastal regions of South Carolina and Georgia. 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, punctated, 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). 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).

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

Like the preceding Archaic Period, the Woodland is traditionally divided into three subperiods—Early Woodland (3000–2300 B.P.), Middle Woodland (2300–1500 B.P.), and Late Woodland (1500–1000 B.P.)— based on technological and social advances and population increase. Among the changes that occurred during this period were a widespread adoption of ceramic technology, an increased reliance on native plant horticulture, and a more sedentary lifestyle. There is 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). In addition, ceramics became more refined and regionally differentiated, especially with regard to temper.

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 became more pronounced through time and by the Late Woodland subperiod ceramics were 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.)

The Late Woodland subperiod is one of the least understood prehistoric subperiods, both in the South Carolina Piedmont and in the Southeast as a whole. Few diagnostic artifacts are known that can definitively date occupations to this subperiod. The few diagnostic artifacts associated with the Late Woodland subperiod in the South Carolina Piedmont include small triangular and pentagonal projectile points, as well as Swift Creek, Napier, and Woodstock ceramics (Benson 2006:53–54).

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

The Mississippian Period saw dramatic changes across most of the Southeast. 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, to as far north as Wisconsin (Aztalan). Mound centers were surrounded by outlying villages that usually were built along major rivers to take advantage of the rich floodplain soils. Smaller hamlets and farmsteads dotted the landscape around villages and provided food, tribute, and services to the chief in return for protection and inclusion in the sociopolitical system. 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 major river systems in the Southeast, and South Carolina is no exception. Major Mississippian mounds in the area include the Belmont and Mulberry sites along the Wateree River in central South Carolina; Santee/Fort Watson/Scotts Lake on the Santee River; the Irene site near Savannah; Hollywood, Lawton, Red Lake, and Mason's Plantation in the central Savannah River Valley; and Town Creek along the Pee Dee River in North Carolina (Anderson 1994).

Diagnostic artifacts of the Mississippian Period include small triangular projectile points and sand-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.

There is increasing evidence that territorial boundaries between chiefdoms were closely maintained during the Mississippian Period. Within the South Carolina Piedmont, Judge (2003, see also DePratter and Judge 1990) has identified six phases of Mississippian occupation within the Wateree Valley: Belmont Neck (A.D. 1200–1250), Adamson (A.D. 1250–1300), Town Creek (A.D. 1300–1350), McDowell (A.D.1350–1450), Mulberry (A.D. 1450–1550), and Daniels (A.D. 1550–1675). Cable (2000) adds a Savannah phase (A.D.1200–1300) to this list, between the Belmont Neck phase (which he puts at A.D. 1100–1200) and Adamson phase (which he places between A.D. 1300–1350). Meanwhile, groups living in the southern part of the North Carolina Piedmont were part of the Pee Dee culture, which includes the Teal (A.D. 950–1200), Town Creek (A.D. 1200–1400), and Leak (A.D. 1400–1600) phases (Ward and Davis 1999:123–134).

The Protohistoric period refers to the first contact between Native Americans and Europeans. The Protohistoric Caraway tradition developed in the Piedmont from the preceding Uwharrie and Dan River traditions of North Carolina (Ward and Davis 1999). Ceramics of this period are burnished and stamped wares with a compact fine sandy paste (Coe 1964). Another type of protohistoric pottery, found primarily in the Upper Catawba River drainage, is Burke series pottery first described by Holmes (1903) from the Jones Mound. This series contained vessels that were more modern in appearance in terms of shape and finish than other pre-contact pottery and looked decidedly like modern Catawba wares (Moore 2002:257). Keeler (1971) refined Burke ceramics, remarking on its similarity to Lamar pottery of Georgia and noting that the stamped designs, rim treatments, and vessel forms of the Burke series and historic Catawba ceramics closely resembled historic Cherokee Qualla pottery. The core area of Burke pottery is found in Burke County, North Carolina, east of the Linville River (Moore 2002).

3.2 Historic Context

The project area is located northwest portion of Lancaster County and is approximately 3.3 miles southeast of the town of Fort Mill. Present day Lancaster County is bordered to the northeast by Union County, North Carolina, and to the north by Mecklenburg County, North Carolina; to the east by Chesterfield County, to the south by Kershaw County, to the southwest by Fairfield County, and to the west by Chester and York counties.

3.2.1 Early Settlement and Eighteenth Century Conflicts

From its earliest settlement, South Carolina was viewed as a source of wealth for its colonial power, primarily through agricultural production. When English settlers established Charles Towne in 1670, they were following in the footsteps of both the Spanish and the French by attempting to found a permanent settlement along the Carolina coast. Unlike previous attempts, however, the Charles Towne settlement was ultimately successful. Although the earliest colonists concentrated themselves along the coast, throughout the area known as the Lowcountry, some settlers began to move further inland during the early and mid-eighteenth century. The establishment of inland townships in the 1730s attracted more residents to the area, although the closest townships to present-day Lancaster county were Saxe Gothe, which developed into Lexington near the confluence of the Congaree and Saluda rivers, and Fredericksburg, which later became Pine Tree Hill and then Camden located northeast of the Wateree River (Edgar 1998:53–60).

Although a portion of the land that comprises Lancaster County was still part of the Catawba territory, during this time the area attracted settlers and, by 1755, approximately 500 white families resided within a 30 mile radius of the Catawba Nation. The majority of early settlers in the area migrated from northern colonies, such as Virginia and Pennsylvania, although some did move inland from Lowcountry areas (Merrell 1989:177–180; Shankman et. al. 1983:13–15; Kovacik and Winberry 1989:80). In 1764, a boundary was surveyed between North and South Carolina, which established the area as the northern portion of South Carolina. In 1769, when the colony was divided into districts, the area became part of Camden District (Stauffer 1998:8).

By 1765, there were at least 10,000 settlers residing in the Piedmont region. At the outbreak of the American Revolution, a decade later, population increases had made the European settlements in this area important strategic points (Moore 1993:19). Fighting in the inland areas of South Carolina increased in 1780, after the capture of Charleston and Camden by the British. The American victory at King's Mountain in northern York County, in October 1780, significantly hindered British attempts to recruit more loyalist soldiers in the South Carolina interior, caused General Cornwallis to delay his march into North Carolina, and ultimately proved to be a considerable blow to British confidence (Gordon 2003:116; Edgar 1998:235). Eventually, the British were forced to abandon their inland outposts, and subsequently Charleston, in December 1782 (Edgar 1998:240).

From the late seventeenth century into the early eighteenth century, rice and indigo were the primary cash crops for South Carolina farmers, with the largest settlements concentrated around the coast and tidal rivers. After the American Revolution, indigo underwent a sharp decline and, although rice was still grown in tidal areas, it was surpassed in importance by cotton, especially in areas further from the coast. Eli Whitney's 1793 invention of the cotton gin significantly bolstered this migration to cotton as the principal agricultural yield in South Carolina. This invention made farming of short-staple cotton in upcountry areas profitable by greatly decreasing the amount of labor needed to separate the cotton seeds from the fibers (Green et al. 2002; Kovacik and Winberry 1989:83–95).

3.2.2 Nineteenth Century

In 1790, the new United States government conducted the first census. At this time in Lancaster County, the population was 6,302 residents, with only 22 percent of the total comprised of slaves. Following the turn of the nineteenth century, until the Civil War, the population of Lancaster County not only expanded, but it also changed significantly in its composition. By 1800, area farmers had begun to convert to mass cotton production and slave populations increased dramatically during the first decades of the nineteenth century. Lancaster County had a higher slave population in 1790, but it also doubled by 1820, and more than tripled by 1830. Although slavery had become more widespread in Lancaster County by 1830, slaves only accounted for just fewer than 40 percent, which remained significantly below the state average of 54.2 percent.

In addition to the cotton gin and the growth in slave labor, cotton farmers also benefited from canal construction, which peaked in South Carolina during the early 1800s. These canals, including the Langsford and Lockhart canals, made shipment of raw cotton to coastal markets easier and significantly less expensive than travel over roads. Access to coastal markets made selling cotton as a cash crop a profitable enterprise, allowing plantation owners to increase land holdings and wealth (Shankman et al. 1983:19–24; Kovacic and Winberry 1989). Also benefiting upstate cotton farmers was the presence of railroads, which proved to be a better means of transporting agricultural products than canals by traveling more quickly, carrying more cotton, and reaching more areas. The Charlotte and South Carolina Railroad, spanning from Charleston to Chester, began running through York County in 1852; three years later, a spur line, King's Mountain Railroad, was completed and a railroad trestle was constructed at the natural river crossing of Nation Ford. Lancaster County, however, did not benefit from the

railroad system until 1883, with the completion of the Charlotte, Columbia, and Augusta Railroad's line from Chester to Lancaster (Kovacik and Winberry 1989: 95–98).

The advent of the railroad fostered the development of towns near the places where trains stopped. Expansion of the railroad system in the Piedmont region of South Carolina encouraged growth in the surrounding counties. Small towns appeared along the railroad routes, and some villages that had already existed grew larger and more prominent. Fort Mill could boast a railroad depot by 1851, although the line coming through the area would not be completed until the following year.

3.2.3 The Civil War and Reconstruction

By 1861, the region was facing the reality of the Civil War. Agriculture was disrupted by men leaving for war and cotton, no longer being sold and shipped to Northern manufacturers, sat in warehouses waiting for a buyer. Although Lancaster County experienced significant battles during the conflict, the Piedmont region of South Carolina, especially along the Catawba River, was important to the Confederacy. The roads, canals, and railroads provided vital routes for the movement of supplies and troops from the lower south into North Carolina and Virginia. As the war progressed, troop movements and skirmishes came closer to home. During 1864 and 1865, Union troops moved northward through South Carolina, burning and looting, with residents from captured cities fleeing before them. Some of these refugees fled to Lancaster and York counties for protection, ahead of the approaching army. Recognizing the importance of the railroad trestle at Nation Ford, as it provided an essential link between the northern and southern Confederacy, the Confederate army had constructed a three-sided earthwork to defend this strategic point. Yet this proved of little consequence, since the trestle was destroyed by fire during an April 1865 skirmish between Union and Confederate troops. Shortly afterward, Confederate President Jefferson Davis retreated southward with his cabinet and crossed the Catawba River at Nation Ford, near the charred ashes of the trestle, signaling the approaching end of the Confederacy (Shankman et al. 1983:38; Green et al. 2002).

Like many other South Carolina residents, those in the Catawba River region mostly returned to cotton farming after the Civil War, often limiting their production to only cotton, or supplementing it with a small amount of corn. As cotton prices dropped, farmers had to grow more of the crop just to pay their bills. Farms in Lancaster County increased in number but decreased in size after the war. From 1860 to 1920, the number of farms in the county grew nearly five times, from 797 to 3,724, as large plantations were divided and worked by tenant farmers or sharecroppers. These systems, where small farmers worked for larger landowners, often for only a small share of profits, created a perpetual system of borrowing and debt. In turn, this necessitated the cultivation of more marginal land (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:108–111; Green et al. 2002).

In addition to the breaking up of large farms, exhausted soils caused many farmers to migrate towards the Catawba River area, looking for lands that were more fertile to increase their yields. Tenants were constantly seeking better soils and larger plots to help stay afloat in the poor cotton market. This ongoing cycle of tenancy and mobility lasted throughout the early twentieth century. The situation was further exacerbated by boll weevil infestations that caused a virtual collapse of the state's cotton industry. By the end of World War I, nearly 73 percent of farms in Lancaster County were operated by tenants, approximately 10 percent higher than the state average. Although both black and white farmers were part of this system, blacks often were more marginalized than their white counterparts and were more affected by these developments. This left them unable to free themselves from tenancy and sharecropping, and resulted in 64 percent of tenants in Lancaster County being classified as "non-white" (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:108–111; Green et al. 2002).

3.2.4 *Twentieth Century*

Although cotton production still dominated the South Carolina Piedmont region, industrial development began to develop in the late nineteenth century. Following a pattern that was occurring throughout the South, investors began financing and building mills to bring textile production closer to the source of raw cotton. They also reinvested in railroads, in an attempt to link more rural farming areas directly to mill towns and ultimately to northern markets (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:114–115). The Fort Mill Manufacturing Company opened in 1887 and was the original production facility of Springs Industries, one of the United States' largest textile companies. The Lancaster Cotton Mill was established in 1895 and, by 1900, numerous other mills had been built in the surrounding areas. In 1903, the Lancaster Cotton Mills Plant #2 and office were completed and the operation continued to grow into a global enterprise (Moore 1989:220, 226–227).

By 1910, the network of textile mills in the Piedmont region were offering a large number of jobs, which influenced many people to move into the nearby towns, including Lancaster, Rock Hill, and Fort Mill. Many of these mills were associated with large towns and cities and the mill communities began to interlace with the larger community, as was the case in Rock Hill. In other instances, mill owners situated their mills, as well as the associated housing and commercial ventures, away from the established cities. This created isolated mill towns, such as Red River. Although textile mills were popular investments in the early twentieth century, economic and agricultural depressions hit hard in the 1920s and many mills closed during this time. Some reopened with the increased need for production brought on by World War II (Pettibon 2001:1A; Green et al. 2002).

Lancaster County was no different from many Southern communities during the first half of the twentieth century. While the total population of the county increased from 1910 to 1940, the non-white population dropped by 2,000 residents as many African-Americans left the rural south for larger cities in the Northeast and Midwest, searching for steady work and better pay (Kovacik and Winberry 1987).

In addition to the expansion of industrial and residential development, the Catawba River area also underwent some major changes that would greatly affect the topography of the Piedmont region. The new textile mills needed electricity to run their machines and, in 1900, brothers Walker G. Wylie and Robert H. Wylie realized this opportunity and incorporated the Catawba Power Company. In 1904, they began to operate a hydroelectric station at India Hook on the Catawba River. This was the first station in what would become a network of generators. A flood destroyed the dam and generating station in 1916, but both the station and the dam were rebuilt in 1925 and named Wylie for the original founders. The Catawba Power Company changed its name to the Southern Power Company, which then merged with the Duke Power Company in 1927. In 1985, Duke Power began the operation of the Catawba Nuclear Station on Lake Wylie (Green et al. 2002; Shankman et al. 1983).

World War II provided a jumpstart to the textile industry, which continued after the fighting, was over; the county population increased accordingly and production included different types of textiles, such as rayon, poplin, printed and finished cottons, and hosiery. Truck bodies, soft drinks, and dairy products were also made in the county. By 1950, Lancaster County's population was 37,071, about ten percent higher than a decade earlier (Shankman et al. 1983:156–157).

3.3 Background Research

On January 14, 2019, a background literature review and records search was conducted at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA) in Columbia. The area examined was a 0.5-mile radius around

the project area (Figure 3.1). The records examined at SCIAA include a review of ArchSite, a GIS-based program containing information about archaeological and historic resources in South Carolina. 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, five previously recorded structures, and two previously conducted cultural resource surveys within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area (Figure 3.1, Table 3.1). One of the previously conducted cultural resource surveys was conducted in 2007 and was completed for a road widening project associated with SC Route 160 (Long 2007). The other previously conducted cultural resource survey was completed in 2013 on a 140-acre project area; no archaeological sites or structures were recorded as part of the survey (Price 2013). The southwest corner of the 2013 survey area covers a portion of the current project area.

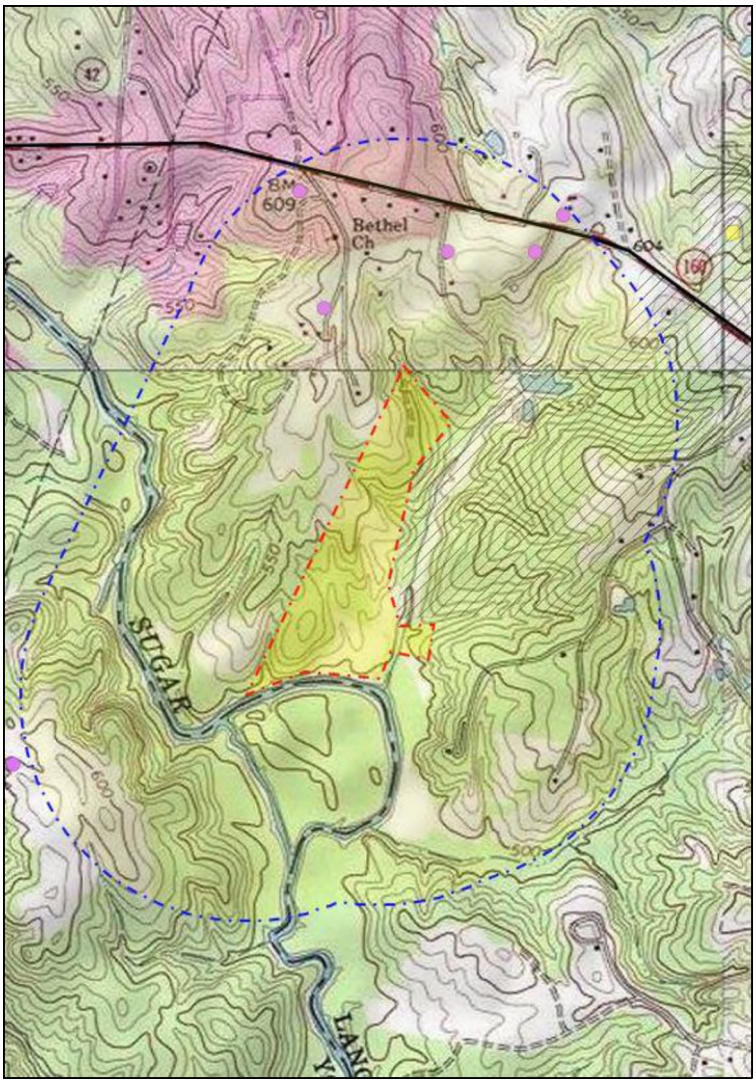


Figure 3.1. ArchSite map showing 0.5-mile search radius.

Table 3.1. Previously recorded cultural resources within a 0.5-mile search radius.

Resource No.	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Source
0029	James Pakerson Bailes House	Not Eligible	Site Form
0296	Ca. 1930 (Demolished)	Not Eligible	Preservation Consultants 1986
0297	Ca. 1930 (Demolished)	Not Eligible	Preservation Consultants 1986
0298	Ca. 1930 (Demolished)	Not Eligible	Preservation Consultants 1986
0299	1925 House	Not Eligible	Preservation Consultants 1986

As part of the background research, Henry Mouzon's (1775) map of North and South Carolina, Mills Atlas map (1825), a USDA soil survey map from 1904, South Carolina Department of Transportation (SCDOT) maps from 1939, 1958, and 1969, and a United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic map from 1968 were examined. Mouzon's map indicates that the project area was located within the Catawbaw Nation with the labeled Catawbaw Town located southeast of project area (Figure 3.2). Mill's Atlas of Lancaster District shows the project area was located in the northern portion of the district in the area labeled Catawba Indian Land; nearby landowners are named Climer's, Blues, Harris, and Miller's (Figure 3.3). The 1904 USDA soil survey map of Lancaster County shows the project area along an unnamed road that travels east (Figure 3.4). The 1939, 1958, and 1969 SCDOT highway maps of Lancaster County show the project area south of US 160. The area surrounding the project area has increased roadways and residential development over the 30 years period the SCDOT maps represent (Figures 3.5–3.7). No structures are present within the project area. The 1968 USGS 7.5' Rock Hill East topographic map shows the project area along Sugar Creek and no structures present within the project area (Figure 3.8).

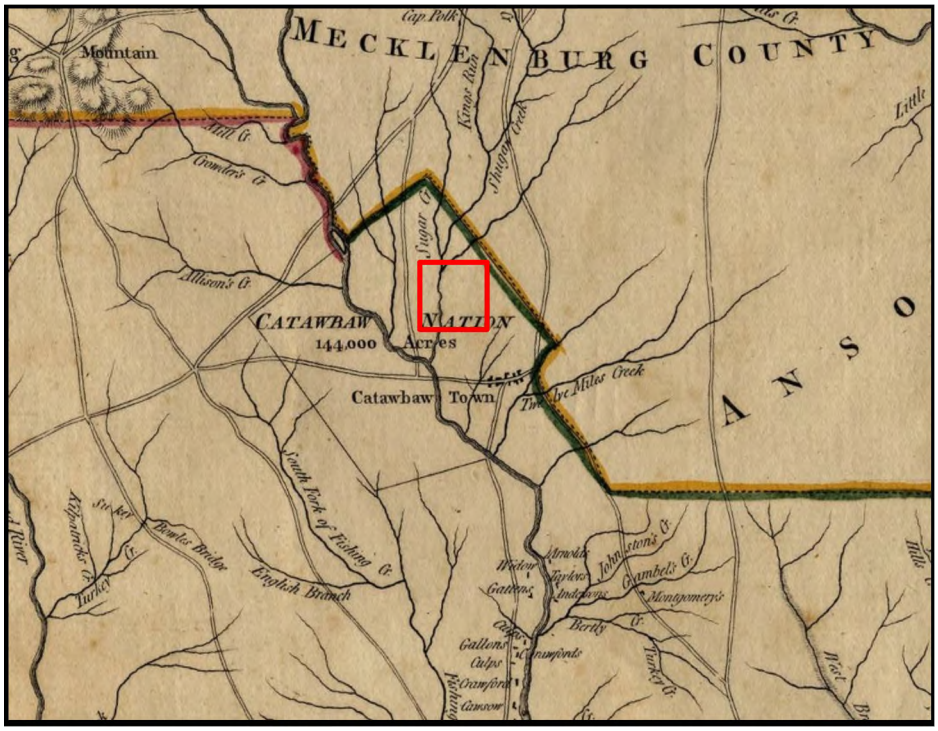


Figure 3.2. Portion of Mouzon's map (1775), showing vicinity of project area.

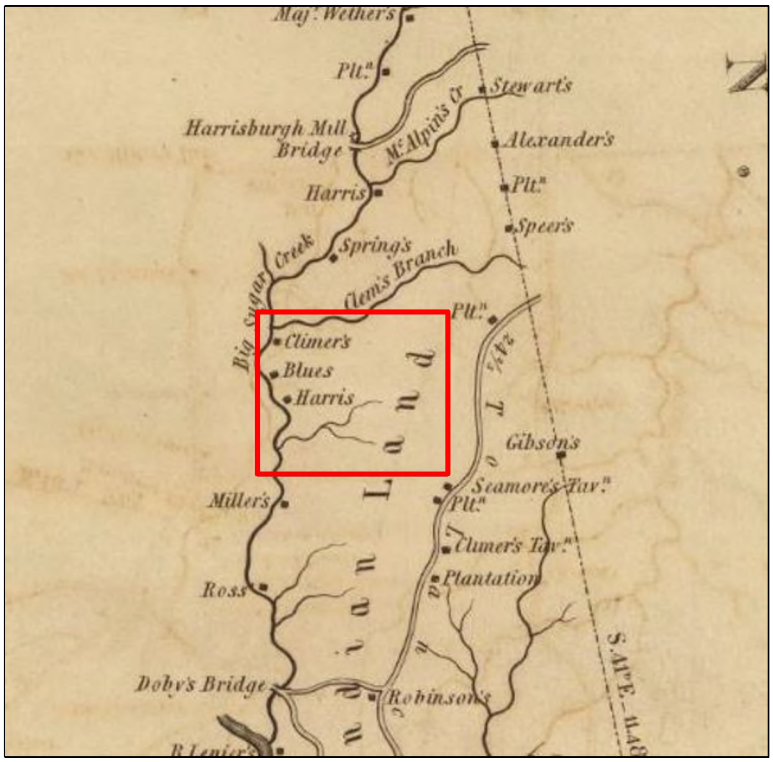


Figure 3.3. Portion of Mills' Atlas map of Lancaster District (1825), showing vicinity of project area.

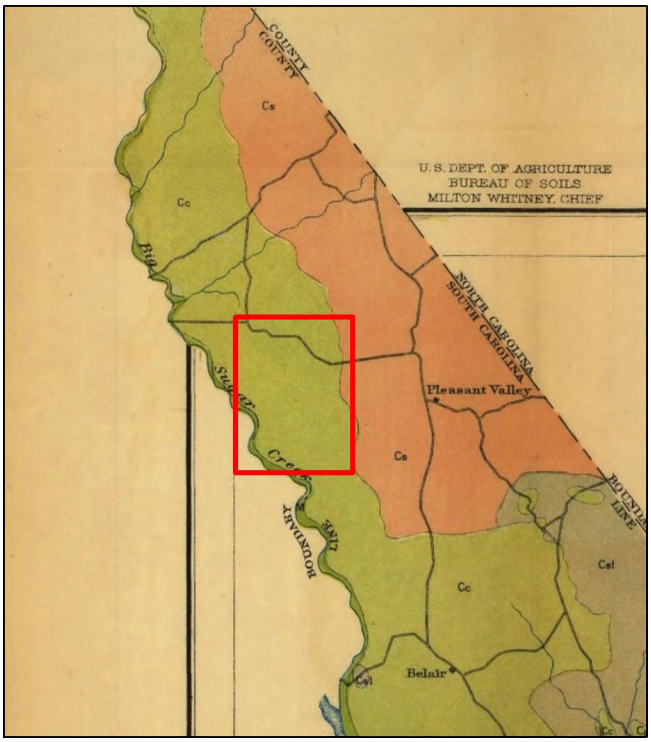


Figure 3.4. Portion of 1904 USDA soil survey of Lancaster County, indicating the vicinity of project area.

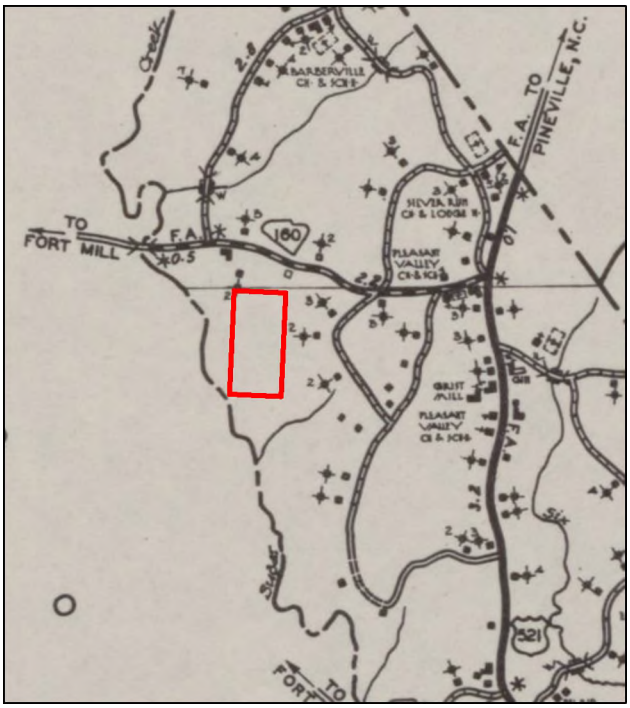


Figure 3.5. Portion of 1939 SCDOT map of Lancaster County, indicating vicinity of the project area.

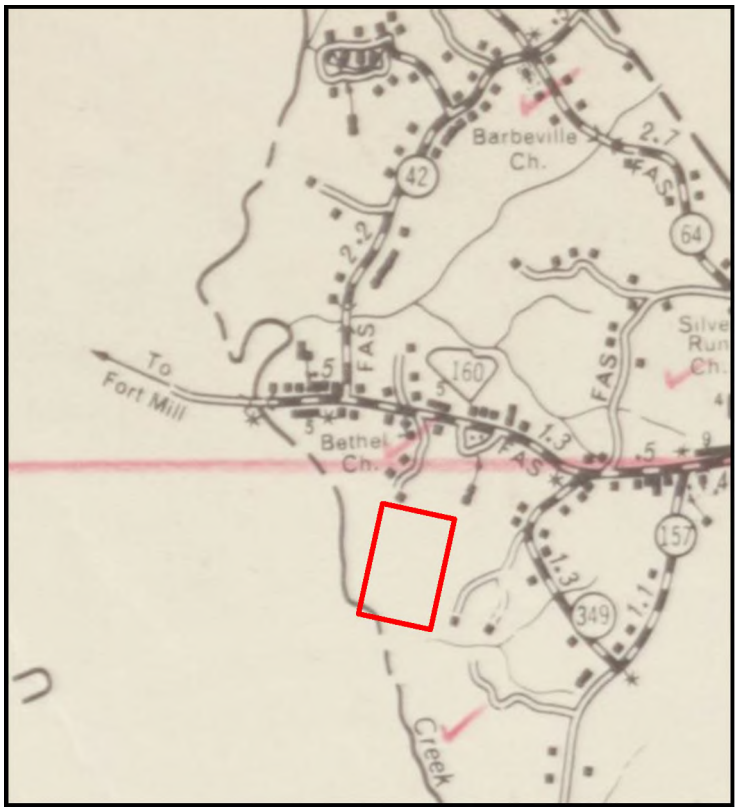


Figure 3.6. Portion of 1958 SCDOT map of Lancaster County, indicating vicinity of the project area.

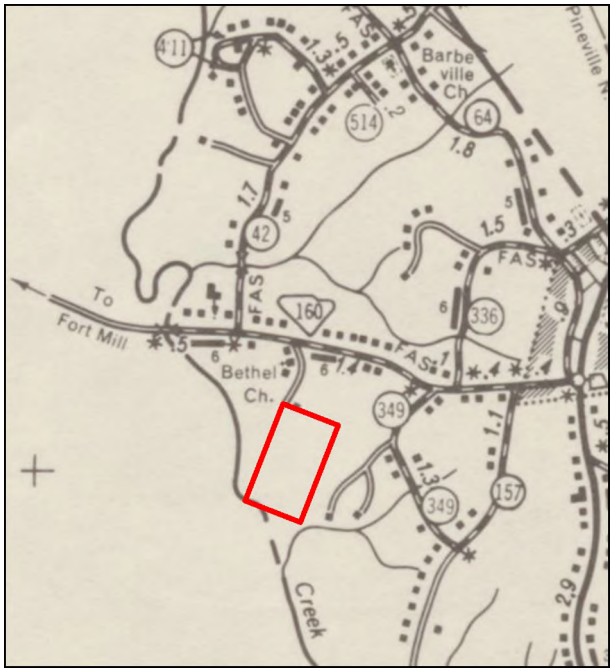


Figure 3.7. Portion of 1969 SCDOT map of Lancaster County, showing vicinity of the project area.

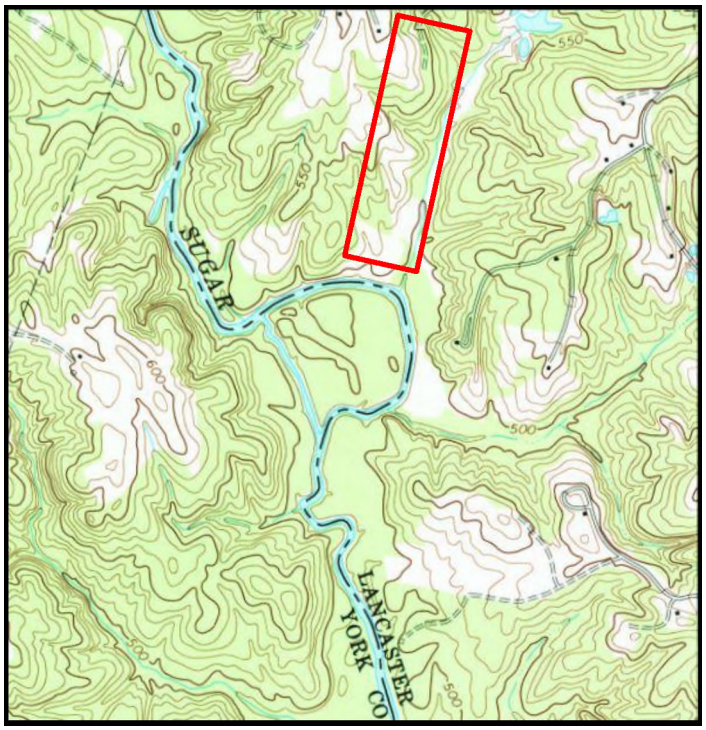


Figure 3.8. Portion of USGS Rock Hill East 7.5-minute quadrangle (1968), indicating vicinity of the project area.

3.4 Potential for Archaeological Resources

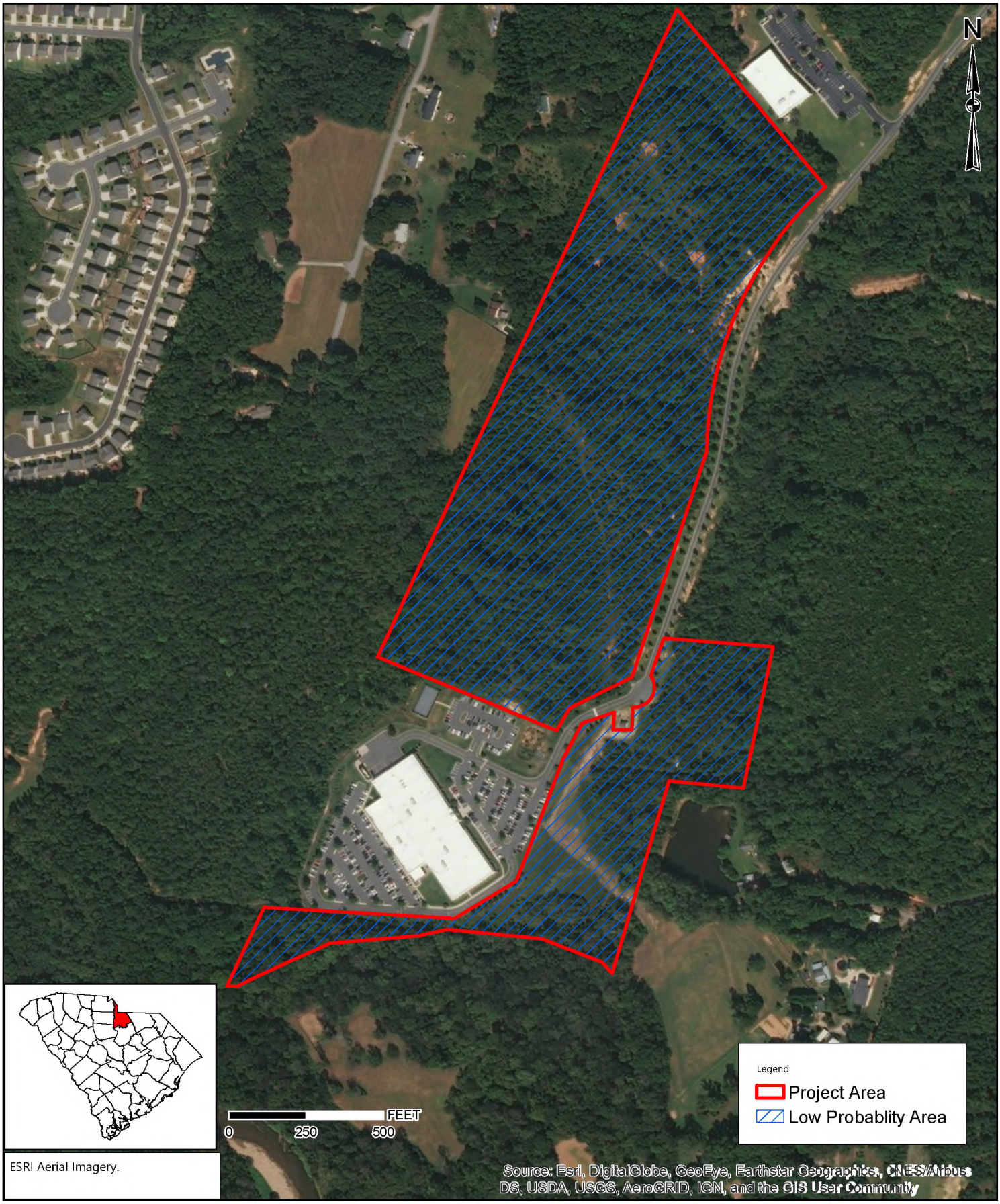
Various predictive models assist researchers in identifying areas having a high potential for containing archaeological sites (e.g., Benson 2006; Brooks and Scurry 1978; Cable 1996; Scurry 2003). In general, the most significant variables for determining site location are distance to a permanent water 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 soil characteristics, topography, historic maps, previously completed surveys, and current site conditions, the approximately 45-acre project area is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological resources (Figure 3.10).



SCALE:	1:5,000	**Probabiiity Map**	FIGURE NO.
PROJECT NO:	1461-19-001	Project Lego	3.10
DRAWN BY:	PAC		
DATE:	1/21/2019	Lancaster County, South Carolina	

4.0 Methods

4.1 Archaeological Field Methods

The archaeological survey was conducted primarily with shovel tests in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites based on landform type, soil drainage, distance to water, and the results of the background research. Pedestrian survey was undertaken along dirt roads and other areas with good ground surface exposure.

Shovel tests were at least 30 cm by 30 cm and excavated to sterile subsoil or 80 cm below surface (cmbs), whichever was encountered first. Soil from the shovel tests was screened though ¼-inch wire mesh and soil colors were determined through comparison with Munsell Soil Color Charts. If sites were identified, they would be 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 Architectural Survey

In addition to the archaeological survey, an architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect aboveground National Register listed or eligible properties. Existing aboveground resources within or adjacent to the project area were examined for National Register eligibility using the Criteria established by the U.S. Department of the Interior and the National Park Service. Previously unrecorded resources 50 years or older were digitally photographed and marked on the applicable USGS topographic quadrangle maps. State resource forms were filled out and submitted to SCDAH once fieldwork was complete.

4.3 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).

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 (1977), 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 either return the artifacts to the landowner or transfer the artifacts and relevant notes to a curation facility meeting the standards established in 36 CFR Part 79, *Curation of Federally-Owned and Administered Archaeological Collections*.

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 reconnaissance survey for the approximately 45-acre project area was conducted on January 15, 2019. Vegetation in the project area includes areas of secondary growth, grassy field, and mixed pine and hardwood forest (Figures 5.1–5.3). Disturbances in the project area include dirt roads throughout the project area, a pond, a paved pathway, and sewer utilities; areas of water on surface, areas of subsoil on surface, and slopes greater than 15 percent are were also present within the project area (Figures 5.4–5.9). As a result of the investigations, no archaeological sites and one above ground resource (1189) were identified and five previously recorded above ground resources were revisited (0029, 0296, 0297, 0298, and 0299) (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The results of the archaeological and architectural surveys are discussed below in more detail.

5.1 Archaeological Survey Results

A total of 13 shovel tests were excavated within the project area along three transects (Figure 5.10; Table 5.1). Two soil profiles were encountered: the first transitioned from plow zone directly to subsoil, with no intact soil horizon and the second was subsoil on the surface. The typical soil profile where subsoil was encountered beneath the plow zone consisted of 20 cm of brown (7.5YR 4/4) sandy loam, terminating with approximately 10+ cm (20–30+ cmbs) of red (2.5YR 4/8) sandy clay loam subsoil (Figure 5.11); the typical soil profile where subsoil was encountered at the surface consisted of 10+ cm of red (2.5YR 4/8) sandy clay loam subsoil (Figure 5.12). As a result of the investigations, no new archaeological sites were identified.

Table 5.1. Summary of transects within the project area.

Transect No.	No. of Shovel Tests	Landform	Findings
1	2	Plain	No Sites
2	8	Hillslope	No Sites
3	3	Hillslope	No Sites

5.2 Architectural Survey Results

An architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect aboveground historic properties. Accessible public roads within the project area and 0.5-mile search radius were driven and existing resources greater than 50 years old were photographed. The locations of five previously recorded historic resources (0029 and 0296 through 0299) were revisited and one previously unrecorded structure (1189) was identified within the 0.5-mile search radius (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). Three of the previously recorded structures (0296 through 0298) are no longer extant; they have been demolished and replaced with commercial and industrial buildings; historic aerial imagery indicates that the structures were demolished between 1995 and 1998, with the new buildings being completed by 2002 (Figures 5.13 through 5.15).

Figure 5.1. Area of secondary undergrowth in the project area, facing east.

Figure 5.2. Area of grassy field in the project area, facing southwest.

Figure 5.3. Area of mixed pine and hardwood forest in the project area, facing north.

Figure 5.4. Typical road within the project area, facing southeast.

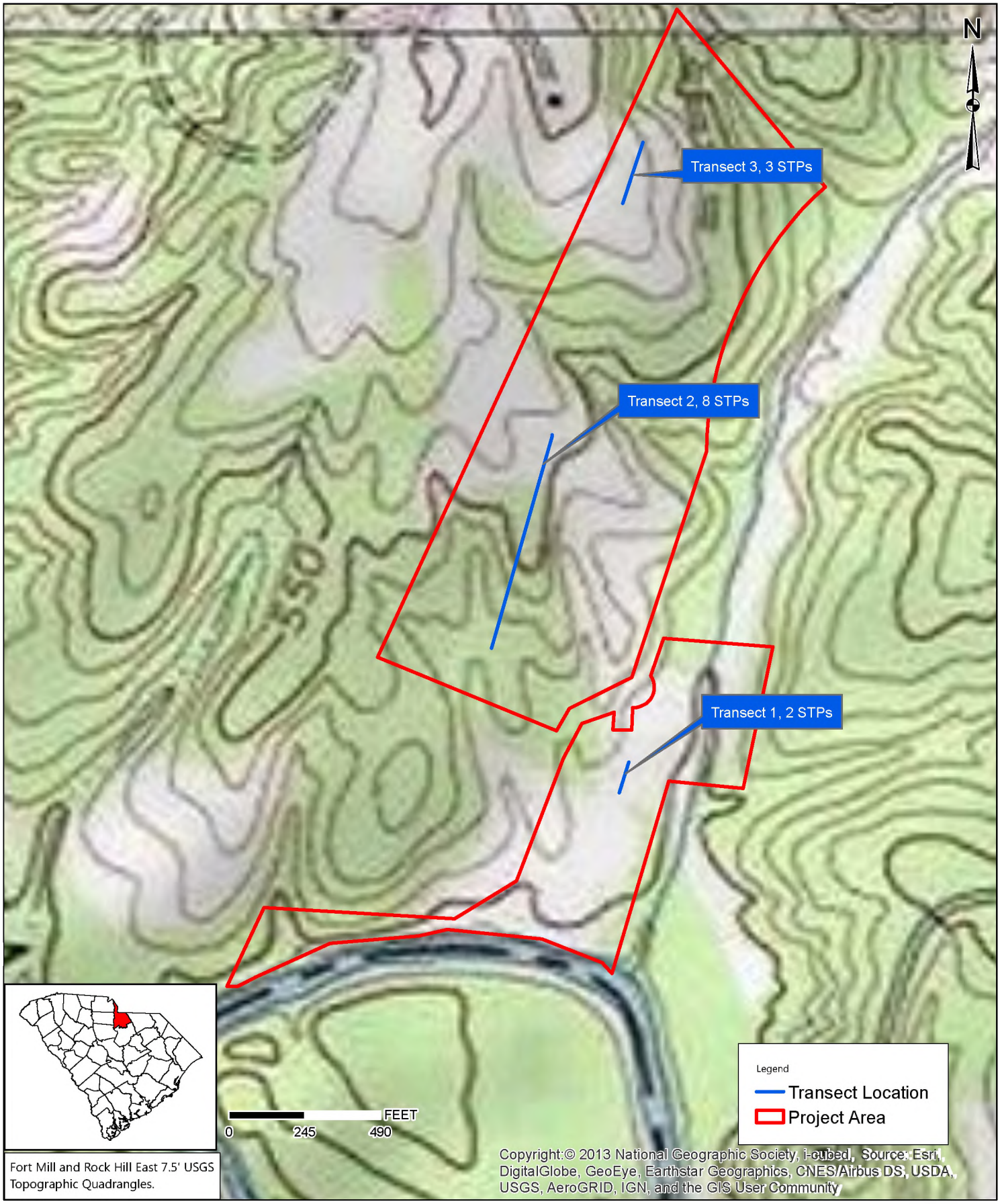
Figure 5.5. Paved pathway and sewer line within the project area, facing north.

Figure 5.6. Typical pond within the project area, facing south.

Figure 5.7. Water on the surface of the project area, facing east.

Figure 5.8. Area of slope greater than 15 percent within project area.

Figure 5.9. Area of where subsoil is present on surface of project area, facing west.



Drawing Path: T:\Projects\2019\GEO\1461-19-001 Continential_Project Lego_Ft Mill\Working_Documents\5. Phase 440 Cultural Resources\GIS\Figures\Figure 5-10 Transtect File.mxd plotted by KNagle 01-22-2019

SCALE:	1:5,000
PROJECT NO:	1461-19-001
DRAWN BY:	PAC
DATE:	1/22/2019

Transect Location Map

Project Lego

Lancaster County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.

5.10

Figure 5.11. Typical soil profile in areas where the plow zone transitions to subsoil.

Figure 5.12. Typical soil profile in areas where subsoil was encountered at surface.

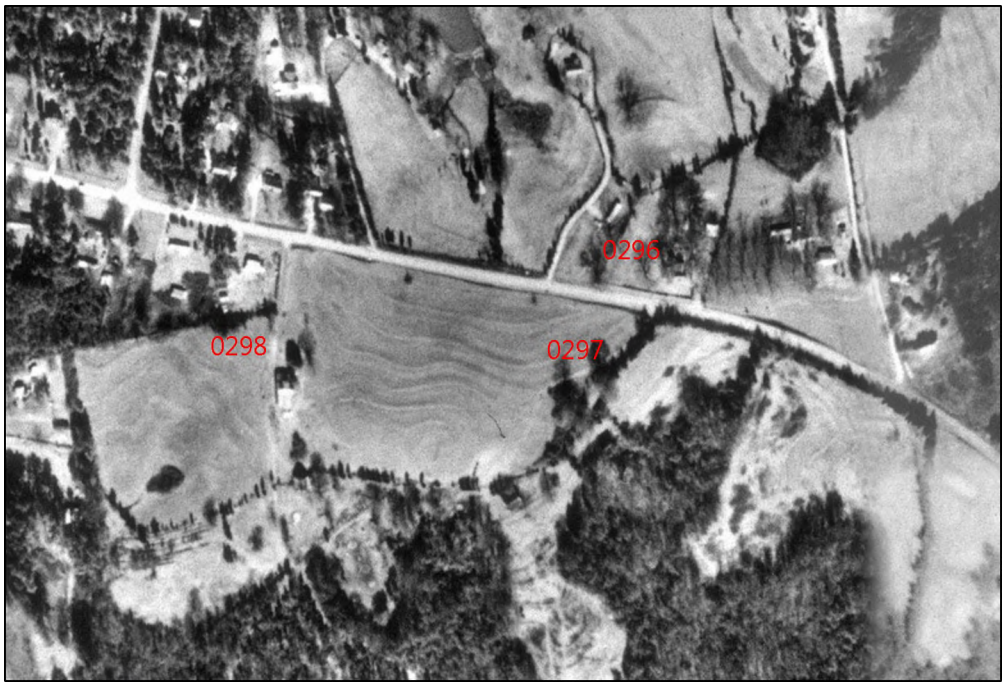


Figure 5.13. Historic aerial photograph showing locations of structures 0296, 0297, and 0298 (1995).

Figure 5.14. Historic aerial photograph showing locations of structures 0296, 0297, and 0298 (1998).

Figure 5.15. Historic aerial photograph showing locations of structures 0296, 0297, and 0298 (2002).

5.2.1 0029

The James Parkerson Bailes House (0029) is a circa-1874 house that was recorded in 1992. It is located at 9849 Blackwelder Road, approximately 0.45-mile northwest of the proposed project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The house is a two-story, frame residence with a gable-front-and-wing plan that rests on a brick foundation (Figure 5.16). The front elevation has a flat-roofed porch that spans most of the first story facade, and then extends north to form a porte-cochere; the porch is supported by single and paired square columns that rest on a short brick wall. The side-gabled section is three bays wide, with a modern central door, with sidelights, and two, single, six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash windows on the first story and two single, six-over-one, double-hung, vinyl sash windows flanking a leaded glass, oval window on the second story. The front-gabled section is one bay wide, with a modern door on the first story and a single, six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash window on the upper story; it is two bays deep, with two single, six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash windows on each story. The gables each have deep cornice returns and arched attic vents. A single story addition, built in multiple construction phases, extends from the rear of the structure. The house is sheathed in vinyl siding and the roof is composition shingles. The house has lost its integrity of design, materials, workmanship, and feeling because of multiple modern alterations, including vinyl siding and windows, and the setting has been altered by the removal of surrounding residential structures from the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries and the construction of new residential developments, as well as commercial and industrial properties. The James Parkerson Bailes House (0029) was previously recommended as ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP; S&ME concurs with this recommendation.

Figure 5.16. The James Parkerson Bailes House (0029), facing southwest.

5.2.2 0299

Structure 0299 is a circa-1925 frame residence that was recorded in 1986. It is located at 9747 Blackwelder Road, approximately 0.25-mile northwest of the proposed project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The house is a one and one-half-story, frame residence with a pyramidal hipped roof, which rests on a stone foundation (Figure 5.17). The front elevation has a full-width, hipped-roofed porch that is supported by square columns that rest on stone piers. The three-bay front façade has a central door with a single one-over-one, double-hung, vinyl sash window to the west and a paired one-over-one, double-hung, vinyl sash window to the east. The house is three bays deep, with a paired one-over-one, double-hung, vinyl sash window flanked by a single, one-over-one, double-hung, vinyl sash window on either side. The front elevation has a large, gabled dormer centered within it and the dormer has two, tall, two-pane horizontal sliding windows within it; symmetrical, smaller gabled dormers are located centered in the roofline on both side elevations. There is an interior brick chimney visible along the northeastern corner of the roof ridge. The house is sheathed in vinyl siding and the roof is composition shingles. The house has lost its integrity of design, materials, workmanship, and feeling because of multiple modern alterations, including vinyl siding and windows, and the setting has been altered by the removal of surrounding residential structures from the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries and the construction of new residential developments, as well as commercial and industrial properties. Resource 0299 was previously recommended as ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP; S&ME concurs with this recommendation.

5.2.3 1189

Structure 1189 is a circa-1950 frame residence located at 9518 Yarborough Road, approximately 0.35-mile east of the proposed project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The structure is a single story residence that rests on a poured concrete foundation that is partially revealed by a sloping lot on the northeastern elevation (Figure 5.18).

Figure 5.17. Structure 0299, facing southwest.

Figure 5.18. Structure 1189, facing southwest.

The house has a C-shaped plan, with a hipped roofline. The front elevation is four bays wide, with a central doorway located beneath a hip-roofed portico that is supported by decorative metal posts. To the east is a single six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash window and a paired six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash window, that is set on a slightly recessed portion of the house; to the west of the door is a single six-over-six, double-hung, vinyl sash window and a Chicago window that consists of a 16-pane central picture window flanked by four-over-four, double-hung, vinyl sash windows. Along the western elevation there is a metal carport. An interior brick chimney is visible along the roof ridge. The house is covered with fiberboard siding and the roof is asphalt shingles. The house is a common type of mid-twentieth century residence. Although it retains integrity of location, design, and feeling, it has lost integrity of setting, materials, and workmanship due to the replacement of original windows and the modern commercial and industrial construction surrounding the property. The house has no known historical associations. Therefore, Resource 1189 is recommended ineligible for the NRHP.

6.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

On behalf of Continental Tire the Americas, LLC, S&ME has completed a cultural resource reconnaissance survey of the proposed approximately 45-acre project area associated with the expansion of the Continental Tire facility in Lancaster County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The approximately 45 acres is divided into two noncontiguous Area A and Area B. Area A is approximately 33 acres and Area B is approximately 12 acres. The project area is located along Macmillan Park Drive approximately 3.8 miles southeast of the community of Fort Mill, South Carolina.

The purpose of the survey was to assess the project area's potential for containing significant cultural resources and to make recommendations regarding additional work that may be required under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, and other pertinent federal, state, or local laws. This work was done in anticipation of federal funding or federal permitting and was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 14-1800715R1, dated December 14, 2018.

Fieldwork for the project was conducted on January 15, 2019. This work included the excavation of thirteen shovel tests in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites, as well as a limited architectural survey. As a result of the investigations, no archaeological sites and one above ground resource (1189) were identified during the investigation and five previously recorded above ground resources were revisited (0029, 0296, 0297, 0298, and 0299) (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). S&ME concurs that previously recorded above ground resources 0029 and 0299 are not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP and recommends that Structure 1189 is also ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP. Resources 0296, 0297, and 0298 are no longer extant and were not evaluated during this survey.

It is the opinion of S&ME that the approximately 45-acre project area is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological sites since it contains a mixture of poorly drained soils with areas of standing water, slope greater than 15 percent, no intact soil stratigraphy with many areas containing subsoil on surface, and disturbance associated with development and grading. No further cultural resource work is recommended for the project area as currently proposed.

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8.0 Appendix A – SHPO Correspondence

EST. 1905
SOUTH CAROLINA DEPARTMENT OF
ARCHIVES & HISTORY

March 6, 2019

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

Re: Project Lego
Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey
Lancaster County, South Carolina
SHPO Project No. 19-KL0043

Dear Kimberly Nagle:

Our Office received documentation on February 5, 2019 that you submitted as due diligence for the project referenced above, including the draft report, *Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey Project Lego Lancaster 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 reconnaissance survey of the approximately 45-acre project area investigated two non-contiguous parcels. As a result of the investigations, no archaeological sites were identified within the project area. One newly recorded architectural resource (SHPO Site No. 1189) and five previously recorded architectural resources (SHPO Site Nos. 0029, 0296, 0297, 0298, 0299) were identified adjacent to the project area. SHPO Site Nos. 0296, 0297, and 0298 are no longer extant. SHPO Site Nos. 0029, 0299, and 1189 are recommended as not eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. Our office concurs with these recommendations.

If Project Lego 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 additional cultural resources/historic property identification survey are not needed.

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

Our office accepts the draft report as final. To complete the reporting process, please provide at least three (3) hard copies of a final report: one (1) bound hard copy and a digital copy in ADOBE Acrobat PDF format for the SHPO; 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.

Our office has additional technical comments on the survey forms that we ask to see addressed (please see attached). We will accept the forms as final once these comments are addressed; there is no need to send revised drafts. Please provide final electronic copies of the survey forms and photographs for the above-ground resources following the Electronic Submission Requirements for Planning Surveys and Review & Compliance Surveys.

Please provide GIS shapefiles for the surveyed area (and architectural sites as applicable). 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, available on our website at: https://scdah.sc.gov/historic-preservation/historic-properties-research/archsitegis . 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: https://scdah.sc.gov/historic-preservation/programs/review-compliance.

Please refer to SHPO Project Number 19-KL0043 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

Keely Lewis
Archaeologist
State Historic Preservation Office

Technical Comments

Survey Forms

- Please submit site revisit forms for SHPO Site No. 0296-0298 stating that the structures are no longer extant.

- SHPO Site No. 0029
    - Category- Please correct to "Building".
    - Digital Photo IDs- Please change 0089003 to 0029003.

- SHPO Site No. 0299
    - Category- Please correct to "Building".

- SHPO Site No. 1189
    - Digital Photo IDs- Please specify View for second photo.
    - Please correct Historic Core Shape to "U".