Archaeological Survey
Rock Hill Quarry Expansion
York County, South Carolina
S&ME Project No. 216798

PREPARED FOR:

Martin Marietta
8701 Red Oak Boulevard, Suite 540
Charlotte, North Carolina 28217

PREPARED BY:

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

October 2021

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Kimberly Nagle, M.S., RPA
Principal Investigator

Authors: Paul Connell, B.A. and Ms. Nagle

October 2021

Management Summary

On behalf of Martin Marietta, S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed an archaeological survey of the proposed approximately 400-acre project area associated with the Rock Hill Quarry expansion in York County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located west of South Carolina Highway 245 and approximately 1.7 miles southeast of the city center of Rock Hill, 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 pursuant to the South Carolina Mining Act and 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 216798, dated July 19, 2021.

Fieldwork for the project was conducted on October 4, 2021. This work included the excavation of 44 shovel tests within the project area. As a result of the investigations, one new archaeological site was recorded (38YK645) and one isolated find (IF-1) was identified. The newly recorded archaeological site and isolated find are recommended not eligible for inclusion the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1).

The project area contains somewhat poorly drained and poorly drained soils, portions of the project area have been disturbed by silviculture activities and the associated vehicles, contains large boulders on surface, as well as rock impasses within the shovel test throughout most of the project area. Based on the reasoning above, It is S&ME's opinion that the 400-acre project area is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological resources and no additional archaeological work is recommended for the project area as currently proposed.

Table 1.1. Cultural resources identified during the survey.

Resource	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Recommendation
38YK645	20th century artifact scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
IF-1	Quartz lithic debitage isolate	Not Eligible	No Further Work

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1.0 Introduction

On behalf of Martin Marietta, S&ME has completed an archaeological survey of the proposed approximately 400-acre project area associated with the Rock Hill Quarry expansion in York County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located west of South Carolina Highway 245 and approximately 1.7 miles southeast of the city center of Rock Hill, South Carolina.

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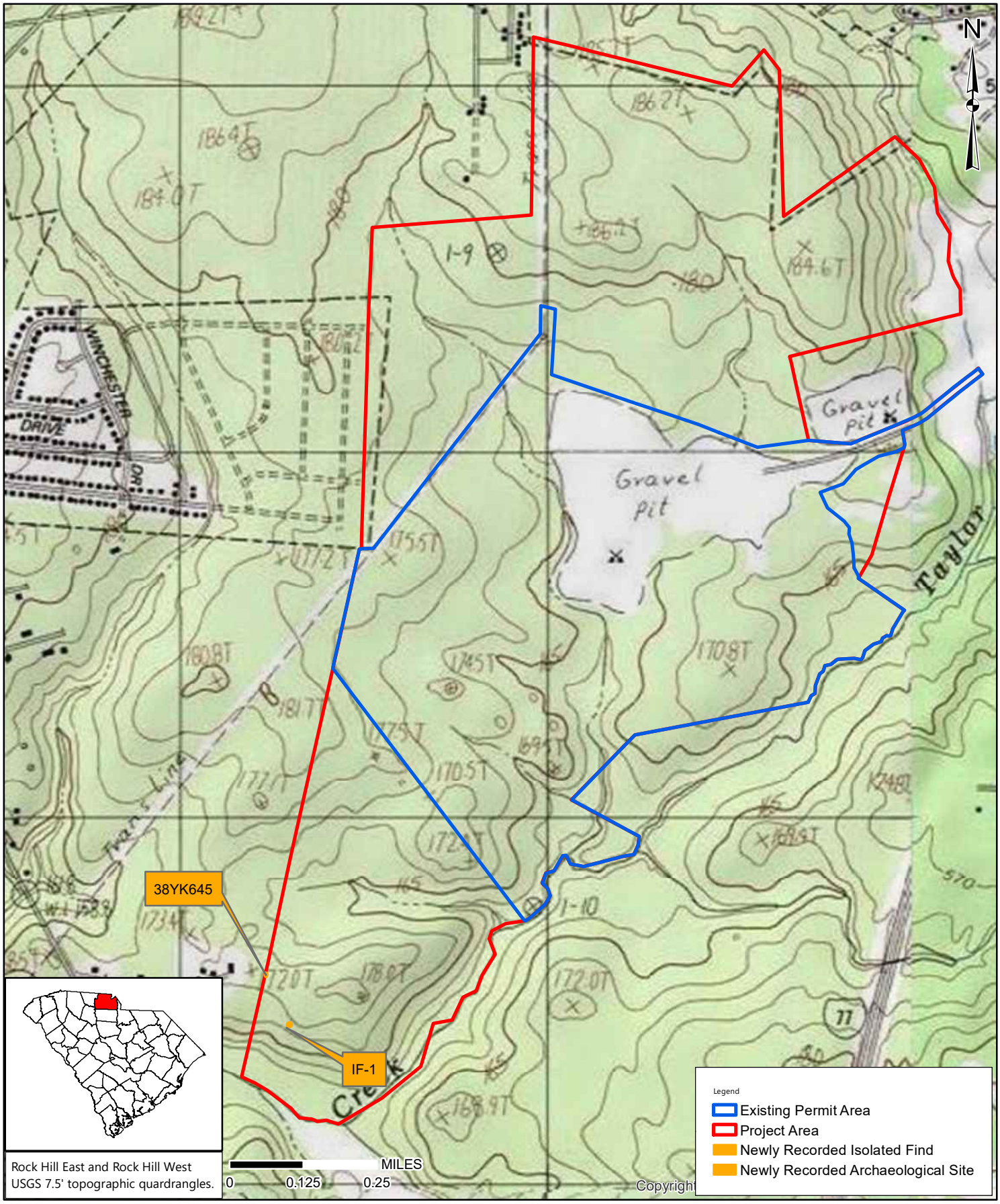
S&ME carried out background research and field investigation tasks in September and October 2021. The fieldwork was conducted by Senior Archaeologist Kimberly Nagle, M.S., RPA and Senior Crew Chief Paul Connell, B.A. Fieldwork consisted of excavating shovel tests and photo documenting the project area. Graphics, GIS maps, and photographs were prepared by Mr. Connell, Ms. Nagle, and Senior Architectural Historian/Historian Heather Carpini, M.A. The report was senior reviewed by Ms. Nagle.

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.



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SCALE:	1:13,842
PROJECT NO:	216798
DRAWN BY:	PAC
DATE:	10/20/2021

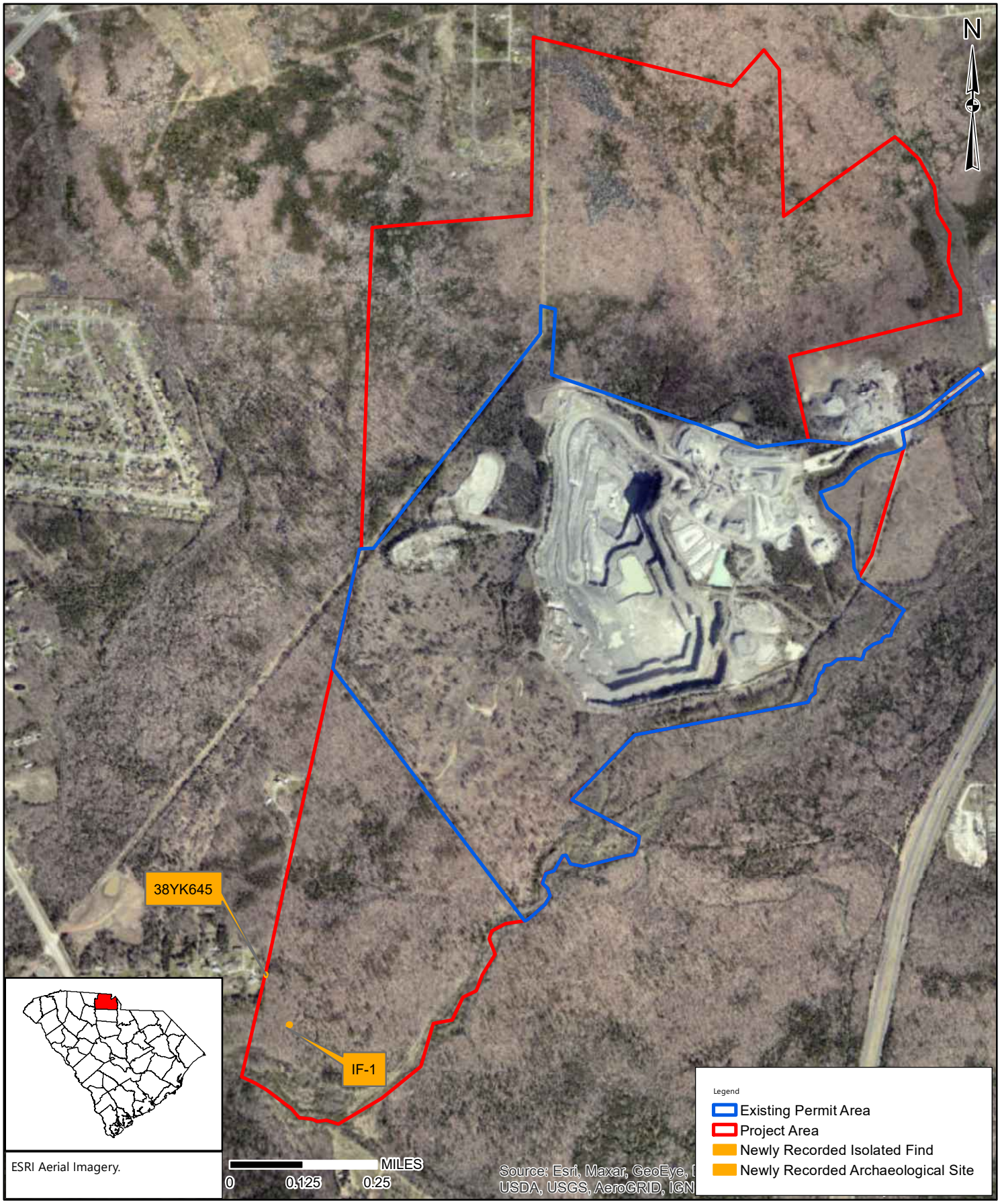
Topographic Map

Rock Hill Quarry Expansion

York County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.

1.1



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Aerial Map

Rock Hill Quarry Expansion

York County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.

1.2

2.0 Environmental Setting

2.1 Location

The project area is approximately 1.7 miles southeast of the city center of Rock Hill, in the southeastern portion of York County. York County. which covers approximately 696 square miles, is bounded by Gaston County, North Carolina to the north, Mecklenburg County, North Carolina to the northeast, Lancaster County to the east, Chester County to the south, Union County to the southwest, Cherokee County to the west, and Cleveland County, North Carolina to the northwest.

2.2 Geology and Topography

The project area is located in the Piedmont physiographic province of South Carolina (Kovacik and Winberry 1989). The Piedmont is a 100-mile-wide belt that encompasses most of the northwest portion of the state (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:16). The Piedmont physiographic province, which is 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). Topography in the project area consists of numerous hilltops and steep slopes; large boulders are present on the surface on hill tops, which are indicative of the Piedmont region (Figures 2.1). Elevations range from 520 ft above mean sea level (AMSL) along Taylor Creek in the southern portion of the project area to 640 ft AMSL in the northern portion of the project area (Figure 1.1).

2.3 Hydrology

The project area is located in the Catawba River drainage basin, which covers approximately 2,315 square miles and consists of approximately 7.5 percent of the state's area (South Carolina Department of Natural Resources [SCDNR] 2013). The closest permanent water source to the project area is Taylor Creek which flows along the eastern and southern edges of the project area (Figure 1.1). Taylor Creek flows southwest into Fishing Creek, approximately 2.8 miles southwest the project area, which continues south/southeast and empties into the Catawba River approximately 20.6 miles southeast of the project area.

2.4 Climate and Vegetation

The climate of York County is characterized as humid subtropical, with hot, humid summers and cool, dry winters. Precipitation does not vary greatly by season; July is the hottest month with an average temperature of 91° Fahrenheit (F) and January is the coldest month with an average daily temperature range from 53° F (Kovacik and Winberry 1987).

Vegetation within the project area consists primarily of wooded areas, with areas of secondary growth and low grassy areas surrounding Taylor Creek; disturbances within the project area consist of a transmission line corridor, a trash dump, clear cut areas associated with silviculture, deep tire ruts relating to logging activities, and water located on the surface (Figures 2.2 through 2.8).

2.5 Soils

There are five soil types located within the project (Figure 2.9); their descriptions can be found in Table 2.1 (USDA Web Soil Survey, Accessed September 2021)

Figure 2.1. View of large boulder outcrops within the project area, facing northeast.

Figure 2.2. Hardwoods within the project area with scattered rock on surface, facing east.

Figure 2.3. Taylor Creek along the southeastern edge of the project area, facing southwest.

Figure 2.4. Typical area of clear cut in northern portion of the project area, facing east.

Figure 2.5. Typical vegetation in a cleared area with secondary growth, facing northeast.

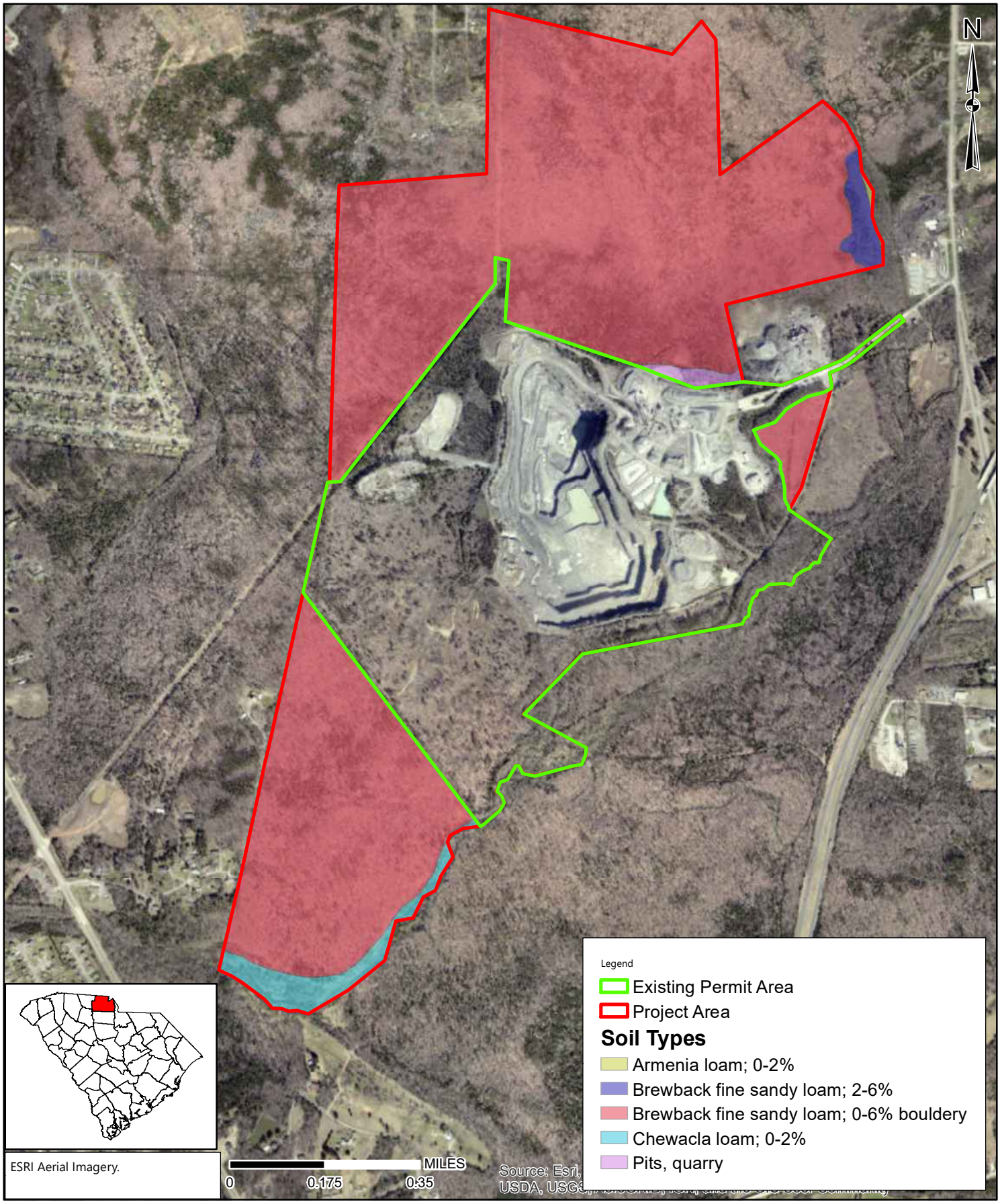
Figure 2.6. View of transmission line within the project area, facing north.

Figure 2.7. Trash dump found in the northern portion of the project area, facing northeast.

Figure 2.8. Water on surface within the deep tire ruts related to logging activities, facing northwest.

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

Soil Name	Type	Drainage	Location	Slope	% in Project Area
Armenia	Loam	Poorly drained	Drainageways	0–2%	0.1%
Brewback	Fine sandy loam	Somewhat poorly drained	Interfluves	2–6%	1.4%
Brewback	Fine sandy loam, boulder	Somewhat poorly drained	Interfluves	0–6%	94.6%
Chewacla	Loam	Somewhat poorly drained	Floodplains	0–2%	3.2%
Pits, quarry					0.7%



SCALE:	1:15,000	**Soils Map**	FIGURE NO.
PROJECT NO:	216798	Rock Hill Quarry Expansion	2.9
DRAWN BY:	PAC		
DATE:	10/11/2021	York County, South Carolina	

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 area of potential effects (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 subperiod is generally thought to date from 11,500 to 11,000 B.P. (Sassaman et al. 1990:8), however, radiocarbon data indicate that a more accurate time frame for the Clovis subperiod in North America may be 11,050 to 10,800 B.P. (Waters and Stafford 2007); 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. 1996a; 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 subperiod, 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).

3.2 Historic Context

With its fertile soil and natural transportation advantages, land along the Catawba River has long been attractive for human settlement. During the seventeenth and eighteenth century, encroachment of European settlers and their African slaves into the coastal areas forced many Lowcountry native groups to migrate north and west towards the area around the Catawba River. Here these groups eventually merged and became known as the Catawba Nation (Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989). From the 1700s through the present day, the Catawba Nation and the expanding population of South Carolina have carried out their lives in the Piedmont region. Like other Native American tribes, the Catawba were often at odds with state and federal governments during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, fighting to maintain their ancestral homelands and hunting grounds. Today, the Catawba Nation continues to survive in the area around the river, retaining some aspects of their traditional culture (Green et al. 2002).

3.2.1 York County

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 York 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 York 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).

Yorkville (which shortened its name to York in 1915), originally referred to as Fergus Crossroads, was made the county seat when York County was created in 1785. The community had been settled in the 1750s by Scots-Irish families, who had migrated to the area from Pennsylvania via the Great Wagon Road. The original settlement was named after the tavern, which was owned by William and John Fergus, and the crossroads became the intersection of Congress and Liberty streets. A frame courthouse and a jail were constructed in 1786, on land donated by William Edward Hayne; a new brick courthouse replaced the frame structure shortly afterward. By 1823, the town had a population of 415 residents, comprised of 292 white residents (approximately 70 percent) and 123 black residents. Yorkville was officially incorporated in 1841, the town charter was drafted in 1849, and the first city council met in 1850 (*Yorkville Enquirer* 1889 February 27; *The State* 1958 October 5; Burr 1979).

In 1790, the new United States government conducted the first census. At this time York County had a population of 6,604, with 5,600 of the residents classified as free whites, 29 considered "other free persons," and only 923, or less than 15 percent of the population, listed as slaves. Following the turn of the nineteenth century, until the Civil War, the population of York 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. By 1810, the number of slaves in York County had tripled from the 1790 figure, and by 1830 there were 6,633 slaves in the county—more than six times the number recorded only forty years earlier. Although slavery had become more widespread in the county by 1830, slaves only accounted for slightly more than 35 percent of the York County's total population, which remained significantly below the state average of 54.2 percent (Social Explorer 2019).

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; Kovacik 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 (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 the growth of York and 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. In 1852, in an area planned and laid out by local residents Alexander Templeton Black, George Pendleton White, and James Moore, consisting of twenty-three lots on either side of the track and a Main Street, a post office was established and named Rock Hill (Brown 1953:74–77, 87; Green et al. 2002). Yorkville experienced significant growth after the construction of King's Mountain Railroad, as it served as a primary backcountry depot for the Piedmont area. The population of the county seat doubled between 1850 and 1860, to reach nearly 1,500 residents; the per capita wealth of the town was second among the urban areas in the state; and it obtained the nickname "the Charleston of the Upcountry" (*The State* 1958 October 5; Burr 1979; *Yorkville Enquirer* 1889 February 27).

By 1861, the region was facing the reality of the Civil War. 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 York County, seeking 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).

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 75 percent of farms in York 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 75 percent of tenants in York County being classified as "non-white" (Social Explorer; Kovacik and Winberry 1987:108–111; Green et al. 2002).

As in the early nineteenth century, towns near railroad depots were established and grew prodigiously. The antebellum settlement of Rock Hill was incorporated as a town in 1870 and, within twenty years, it had become the largest town in York County with 2,744 residents. Two railroads had trains that went through the city during the 1880s, when mill industries began appearing. In 1890, there were 689 residents in Fort Mill, but by 1900 that number had more than doubled to 1,394. Yorkville, which was situated at the junction of the north-south and east-west railroad lines, had a population of 1,600 residents in 1880 and was considered to have tremendous advantages that would only foster additional growth. In addition to the five churches, there were two hotels, two telegraph offices, saw and grist mills, cotton gins, a weekly newspaper, and two major schools. The continued growth of the textile industry during the late 1800s and early 1900s, with the establishment of Cannon Mills and Springs Mills, increased the economic development of the town. However, during the second half of the nineteenth century, Yorkville was also a major hub of Ku Klux Klan activity in South Carolina (US Department of the Interior 1897; Green et al. 2002; *Yorkville Enquirer* 1889 February 27).

Although cotton production still dominated the South Carolina Piedmont region, industrial development began to develop in the late nineteenth century. In 1881, prominent local citizens organized the first textile mill in Rock Hill, the Rock Hill Cotton Factory. 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 (Moore 1989:220, 226–227). York Cotton Mill, which became Cannon Cotton Mills, opened in 1897; shortly afterward, other mills were built around York, including Victory Cotton Oil Company and Lockmore Cotton Mills (Salo et al. 2008).

By 1910, the network of textile mills in the Piedmont Region was offering a large number of jobs, which influenced many people to move into the nearby towns, including York, 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).

York 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 fell by over 4,000, 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; Social Explorer 2019).

World War II provided a jumpstart to the textile industry, which continued after the fighting, was over; York County populations increased accordingly. By 1946, 16 textile companies employed over 6,000 residents in the Rock Hill area. 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, York County's population had grown to 71,596, up from the 58,663 in 1940. Rock Hill, the largest city in York County and the fifth largest in the state, had a population of 24,502 (Shankman et al. 1983:156–157; Social Explorer 2019).

In the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, the Catawba River area has retained its importance and has continued to expand. The December 1983 opening of Interstate 77 was a significant factor in this growth, establishing the Catawba River area as a vital connection between Columbia, South Carolina and Charlotte, North Carolina and ultimately the northeast (Moore 1987: 238–239, 251). Beginning in 1970, residential growth boomed around Lake Wylie and Tega Cay. Regardless of this growth, York County has been unable to sustain its flourishing textile industry, as many companies have moved their businesses out of state and often out of the country. Springs Industries' plant at Fort Mill closed in 1983 and Randolph Yarns closed its Red River mill in December 2000, demolishing the structure in April 2001 (Green et al. 2002; Pettibon 2001:A1).

3.2.2 History of the Catawba Nation

The earliest comprehensive Euro-American account of Native Americans in the Piedmont region of South Carolina came from of John Lawson's 1701 visit to the area. While Lawson actually documents little regarding the Catawba, his description of the Waxhaw is likely representative of the Catawba as well (Hudson 1970:2). Having left Charleston, Lawson visited Sewee, Santee, Congaree, and Wateree villages along the Santee and Wateree rivers before encountering the Waxhaw, Esaw, and Sugaree along the Catawba River in the Piedmont (Merrell 1986:1–7; Hudson 1970:1–2).

Early ethnohistorical accounts of the Catawba identify them as descendants of Siouan-speaking groups who migrated to the Piedmont after A.D. 1000 (Mooney 1894; Speck 1935; Swanton 1946; Brown 1996). Historian James Merrell (1989) has argued that these groups settled at various places along the rivers and streams of South Carolina, creating distinctive identities but sharing a common cultural heritage. By 1700, European influences such as disease, warfare, and trade, as well as battles with the Iroquois, forced these distinctive groups further north and west, toward the Catawba River and into the Piedmont (Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989).

The Catawba River and Nation Ford, a natural ford near the intersection of the Catawba River and Sugar Creek, was an attractive area for the migrating native groups to relocate to, due to its accessibility and rich soils. This was also the area in which the Occaneechi Path, a Native American trading route, connected the Catawba with the Cherokee to the northwest, the English settlements around Jamestown to the north, and European settlements along the South Carolina coast (Hudson 1970). The Occaneechi Path, also known as the Catawba Road or Nation Ford Road, had existed since at least 1645, when forts were constructed along the frontier. This intersection of trade routes placed the Catawba in the powerful position of middlemen between the Virginia colonists, the South Carolina colonists, and the Cherokee (Hudson 1970).

By the seventeenth century, traders from Charleston began to expand into areas beyond the coastal settlement, engaging Native American groups in a lucrative trade of deerskins and slaves for weapons, alcohol, textiles, and other goods. In the Piedmont, South Carolina traders competed with traders from Virginia who had been trading with native groups along the Occaneechi Path since about 1680 (Hudson 1970: 31–39; Merrell 1989).

By 1715, many Indian groups fleeing colonial expansion found refuge among the Catawba. By 1750, the Catawba Nation had become an important player in Colonial politics and militarism (Davis and Riggs 2004; Hudson 1970). These complex political and military alliances can be divided into five periods; English Contact (ca. 1675–1715), Coalescent (1716–1759), Late Colonial (1760–1775), Revolutionary (1776–1781), and Federal (1781–1820). Each is marked by specific cultural changes (Davis and Riggs 2004).

During the English Contact period, trade between Native Americans and the English began sporadically, but soon developed into strong economic relations, as the Native Americans became dependent on first English and then American goods (Davis and Riggs 2004; Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989). Also during this period, European colonists and Indian raiders captured Native Americans for use as slaves on large plantations. Although provincial laws forbade the practice, traders forced many Native Americans into slavery. By 1708, approximately one third of the slave population in South Carolina was Native Americans (Weir 1997:26–27, 62).

The Coalescent Period began with the Yamasee War in April 1715, when groups such as the Yamasee and Creek attempted to eliminate white settlement in South Carolina because of enslavement, trader abuse, and encroachment on their lands (Green 2001). Although the Catawba had not yet been subjected to enslavement by the settlers, colonial trade practices were a source of contention and, by May 1715, the Catawba had decided to join the war. In 1716, the colonists, with the help of the Cherokee, had defeated the allied native groups, who fled south to find refuge with the Spanish in Florida and north to the Catawba in the Piedmont (Hudson 1970:42–43; Merrell 1986: 66–80). Hudson (1970) has argued that since their participation in the Yamasee War, none of the Catawba's political or military decisions were made without consideration of colonial political power and interests.

In the years following the Yamasee War, the Catawba maintained their homeland in the Piedmont, serving as a buffer for the English settlements along the South Carolina coast from the French intrusion in the north (Davis and

Riggs 2004; Merrell 1989). The unintentional protection they provided and the economic base they created forced South Carolina politicians to tolerate and accept, if not respect, the Catawba. At the same time they lost their favored middleman trader status, as Charleston merchants established direct trade routes with the Virginia colonists and the Cherokee (Hudson 1970). Furthermore, the Catawba Nation faced continuing threats from their longtime enemy, the Iroquois. They withstood the Iroquois threats for at least two decades, eventually making peace in 1751 (Merrell 1989). However, disease and continued participation in wars further decreased the number of Catawba, so that, by 1760, a population of only 500 remained (Merrell 1989:195). With a decrease in hunting lands and an increase in disease and warfare, the once powerful Catawba Nation became almost totally reliant on colonial powers and traders for its continued existence.

In 1756, John Evans, a frequent trader to the Catawba, was sent by Governor Glen to document the results of the Treaty of Catawba Town (Brown 1966:206). Evan's observations included a map of the military capabilities of the Catawba Nation (Figure 3.1). Recent research by the University of North Carolina Research Laboratories of Archaeology [UNCRLA] (Davis and Riggs 2004) has attempted to locate and study the Catawba towns represented on the Glen Map of 1756. Four of these towns, Sucah Town, Weyane, Charraw Town, and Noostee are believed to be located along the Great Trading Path near the Catawba River.

The Catawba continued their military alliance with the colonial powers throughout the Late Colonial and Revolutionary periods, fighting against the French in the French and Indian War of 1760–1761 and then against England in the Revolutionary War of 1776–1781 (Brown 1966; Davis and Riggs 2004; Hudson 1970:49–51; Merrell 1989). In 1760, in return for their alliance during the French and Indian War, the Catawba were granted 225 square miles, or 144,000 acres, of land through the Treaty of Pine Tree Hill. Three years later, this grant was confirmed by the Treaty of Augusta (Pettus 2005:6). By 1764, colonial settlement into the Piedmont areas of both North and South Carolina had increased so much that an official boundary was needed between the two states; the Catawba had their traditional lands along the Catawba River surveyed as well and in 1775 the tract appears on Henry Mouzon's Map (Figure 3.2). Colonial expansion and increased settlement in the backcountry required the creation of judicial districts beyond Charleston and coastal settlements. In 1769, the region, including the project area, became part of the Camden District; York County was created in 1785 (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:7–9; Merrell 1989:198–201).

Throughout the post-Revolutionary Federal Period, the population of the Catawba declined and they consolidated in their 15 square mile area along the Catawba River; at the same time, the white settlement in the area continued to increase. The Catawba's military and economic importance diminished as American settlers, fresh from their victory against the British crown, continued their westward expansion. The Catawba began allowing individual tribe members to rent their acreage to white settlers through leases with up to 99 year terms (Pettus 2005:8). The lease system required the signatures of the tribe headmen on the lease and the state appointed a set of commissioners to oversee and approve the documents. Although there were a number of complaints about this system, from both the Catawba and the white lessees, the leasing system continued into the nineteenth century. Many of the white settlers divided and subleased their land, charging up to 10 dollars per acre for land they had leased for only a few cents per acre. The Catawba complained about this practice, seeking restitution and payments from the "squatters" (Pettus 2005:30–32). However, while they were still recognized by the South Carolina government as a "nation," in reality they numbered little more than 100 persons (Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989). By the turn of the nineteenth century, the Catawba were reduced to a subsistence based on farming and hunting, supplemented with sales of their traditional pottery and leases of their land to American settlers (Davis and Riggs 2004; Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989).

As South Carolina continued to develop and grow throughout the mid-nineteenth century, the state attempted to acquire the meager lands that the Catawba still owned. In 1840, the Catawba signed the Treaty of Nation Ford with the state of South Carolina, which gave them land near the Cherokee in western North Carolina and a yearly stipend in return for their land along the Catawba River. However, South Carolina failed to live up to its agreement and there was continued tension between the Catawba and Cherokee. As a result, in 1848 the Catawba requested to move west of the Mississippi (Hudson 1970: 64–66). In the following decades the Catawba were essentially a people without a home, migrating between North and South Carolina without an official place to reside. In addition, they received little to no money from the government of South Carolina for the sale of their land. By 1850, approximately 100 Catawba were again living on what remained of their traditional land along the Catawba River (Hudson 1970; Merrell 1989: 247–257).

During the twentieth century, the Catawba Indian Nation expanded and changed, as it faced the same economic and military disruptions as the rest of America. With the urging of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, along with state and local governments, the Catawba were encouraged to assimilate into the surrounding community. At the dawn of the new century, the census listed only 66 residents living on the Catawba Indian Reservation (US Department of Interior 1901). During the mid-twentieth century, many Catawba were assimilated into the larger community. They found work in the rapidly increasing textile industry, conducted work for the Works Progress Administration, or joined the military during World War II (Brown 1966; Hudson 1970:81-87). Concurrently, the Catawba revived and maintained some of their traditions, such as pottery production, while losing others, as when the last native speaker of the Catawba language died in the 1950s (Brown 1966). By 1980, the Catawba numbered approximately 1,300, the majority of whom lived away from the 630-acre reservation. In 1980, the Catawba Nation filed suit against the state of South Carolina, claiming that their 1840 treaty had never been ratified by the United States Senate, and was therefore invalid. The Catawba claimed that they had legal right to the 144,000 acres that comprised their original reservation established in 1760 (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:62–63). After years of legal battles, in 1993 the two sides reached an agreement that restored Catawba federal recognition and provided a $50 million cash settlement (Pettus 2005:56).

3.3 Background Research

In September 2021, 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 four previously recorded archaeological sites (38YK0026 and 38YK0037 through 38YK0039) and two above ground resources (SHPO Survey No. 1402 and SHPO Survey No. 1404) within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area; none of the previously recorded resources are within or adjacent to the project area (Figure 3.1, Table 3.1). Two previously completed cultural resource surveys were conducted within the 0.5-mile radius of the project area, but neither covers a portion of the current project area.

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

Site Number	Description	Eligibility	Source
38YK0026	Prehistoric lithic scatter	Unassessed	ArchSite
38YK0037	Prehistoric lithic scatter	Unassessed	ArchSite
38YK0038	19th/20th century house site	Not Eligible	ArchSite
38YK0039	Prehistoric lithic scatter	Unassessed	ArchSite
1402	House, circa 1920	Not Eligible	ArchSite
1404	House, circa 1915	Not Eligible	ArchSite

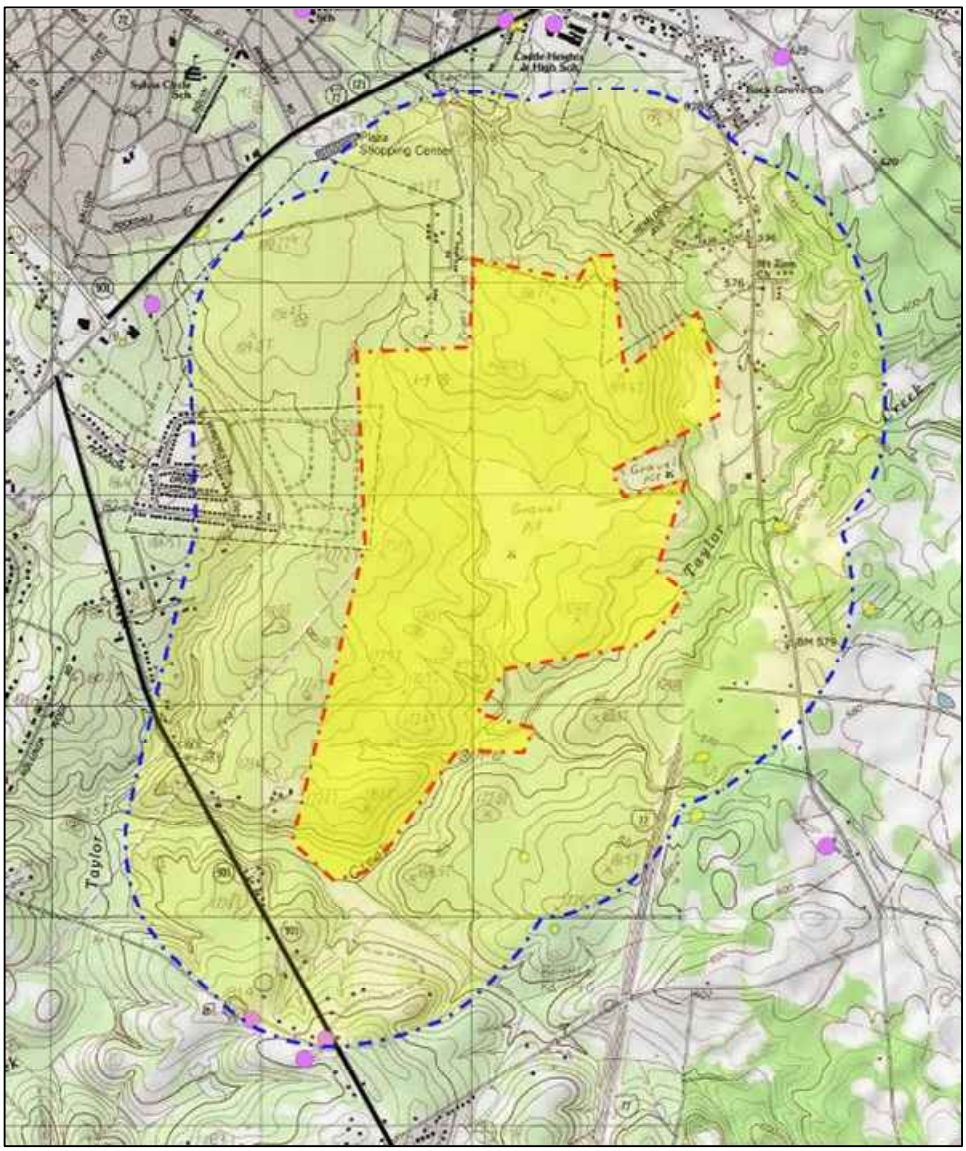


Figure 3.1. ArchSite map showing 0.5-mile search radius.

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 1905, South Carolina Department of Transportation (SCDOT) maps from 1939, 1951, and 1961, and United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic maps from 1949 were examined. Mouzon's map indicates that the project area was located within the Catawbaw Nation with an unnamed road within the vicinity of the project area (Figure 3.2). Mill's Atlas of York District shows the project area along Taylor Creek within the Catawba Nation between two roads (Figure 3.3).

The 1905 USDA soil survey map shows the city of Rock Hill had been established to the northwest of the project area along with several roads traversing the area. Two railroads have been established near the project area and intersect in Rock Hill; no structures are depicted in the vicinity of the project area (Figure 3.4). The 1939 SCDOT map depicts the continued growth of Rock Hill and the surrounding area near the project area, but no structures are present within the project area (Figure 3.5). The 1949 topographic map depicts a jeep trail crossing the project area, but no structures within the project area (Figures 3.6). The 1951 and 1961 SCDOT maps depict the continued growth of the city of Rock Hill and the area surrounding the project area, but no structures are present within the project area (Figures 3.7 and 3.8).

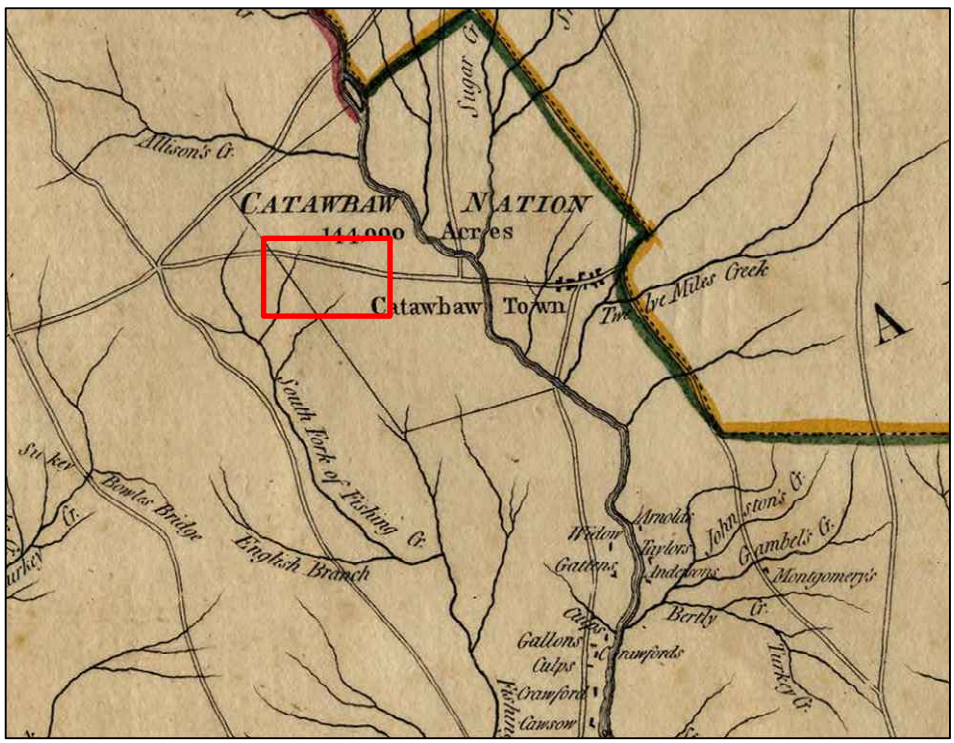


Figure 3.2. Portion of Mouzon's map (1775), showing vicinity of project area.

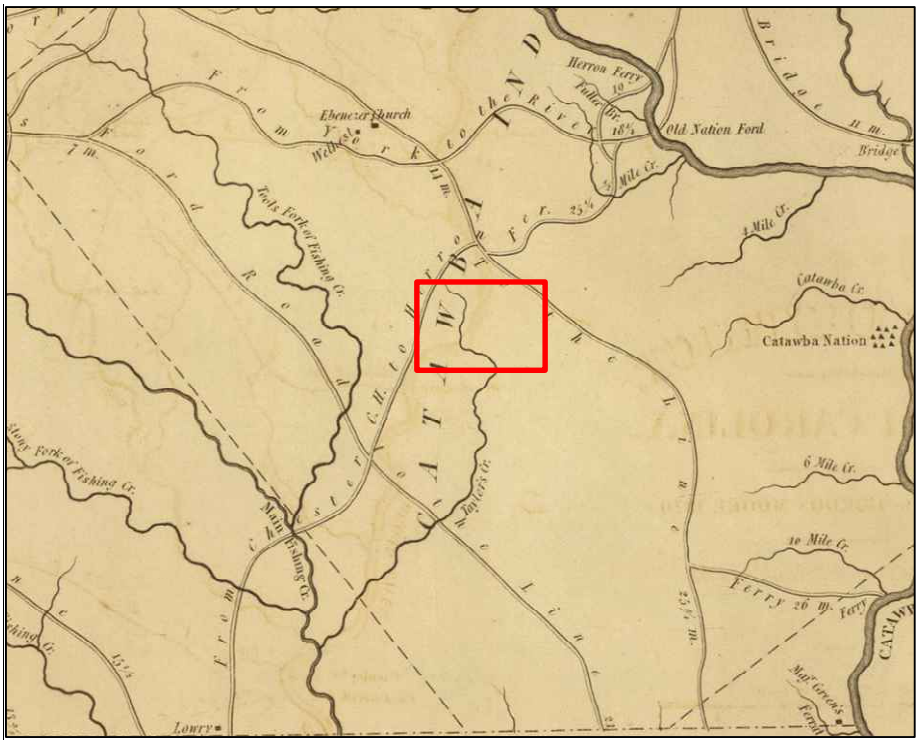


Figure 3.3. Portion of Mills' Atlas map of York District (1825), showing vicinity of project area.

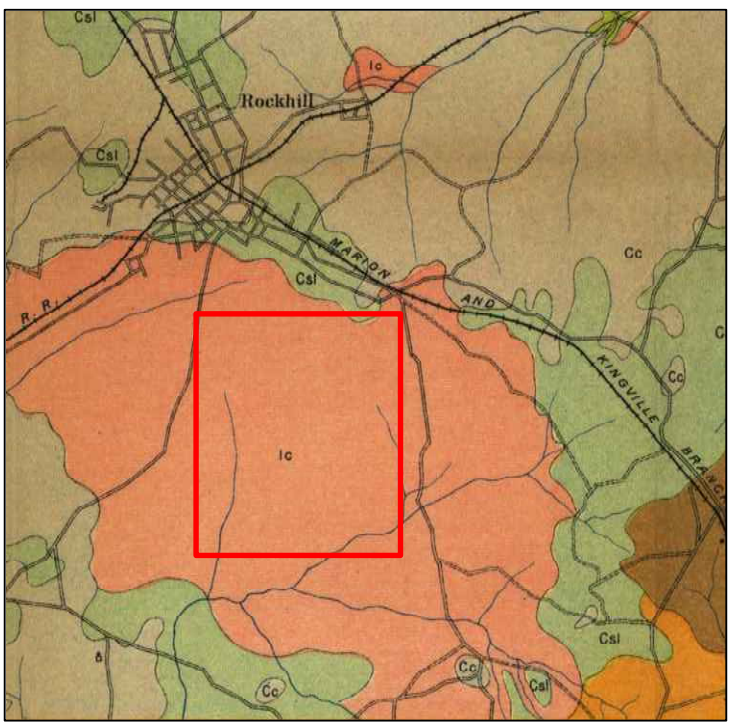


Figure 3.4. Portion of 1905 USDA soil survey map of York County, indicating vicinity of the project area.

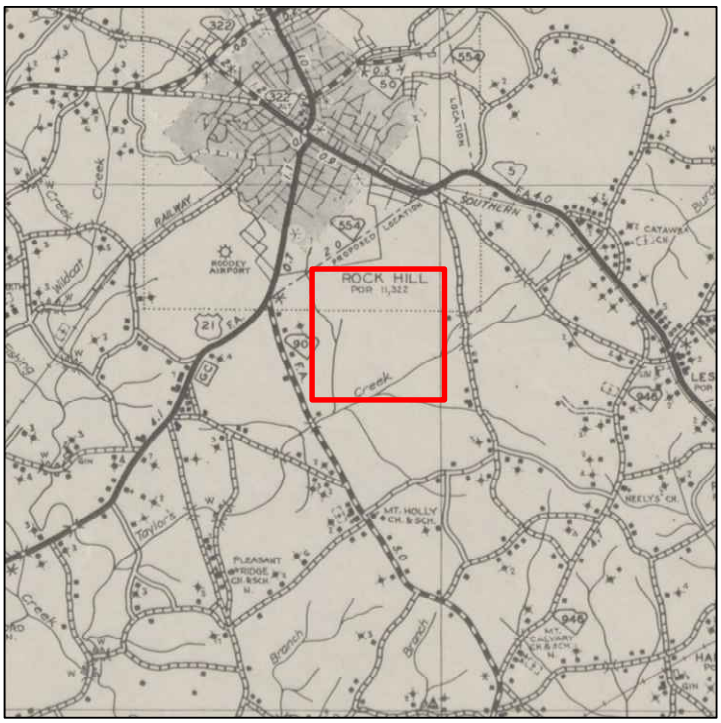


Figure 3.5. Portion of 1939 SCDOT map of York County map, showing vicinity of the project area.

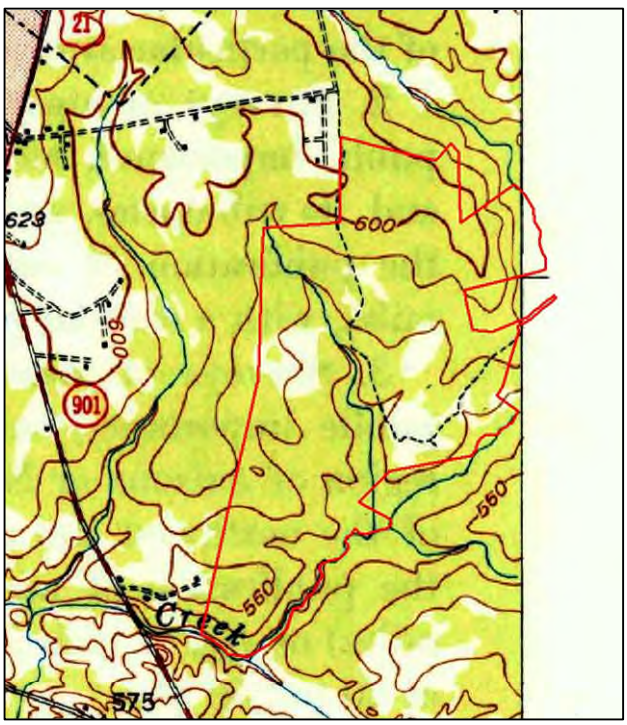


Figure 3.6. Portion of USGS *Rock Hill* topographic map (1949), showing vicinity of project area.

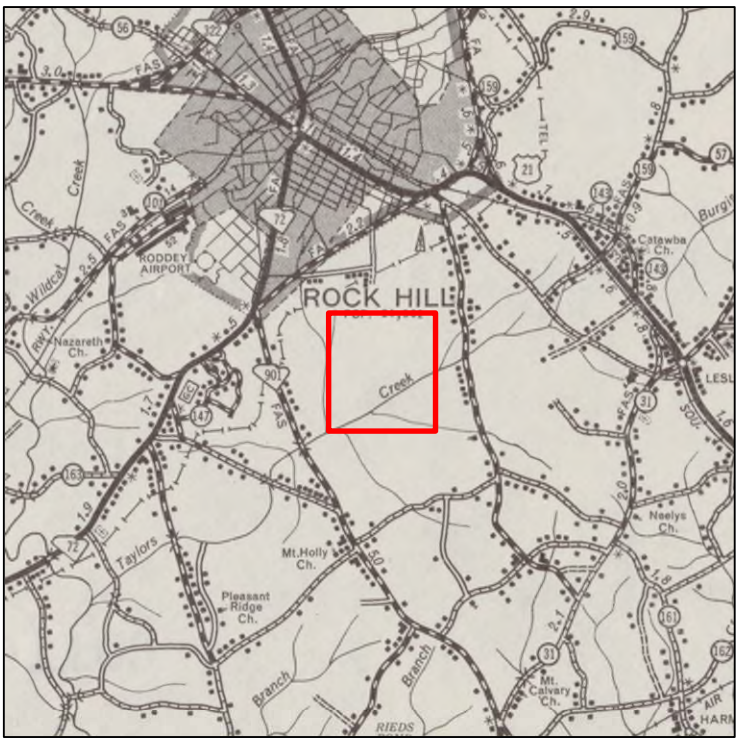


Figure 3.7. Portion of 1951 SCDOT map of York County map, showing vicinity of the project area.

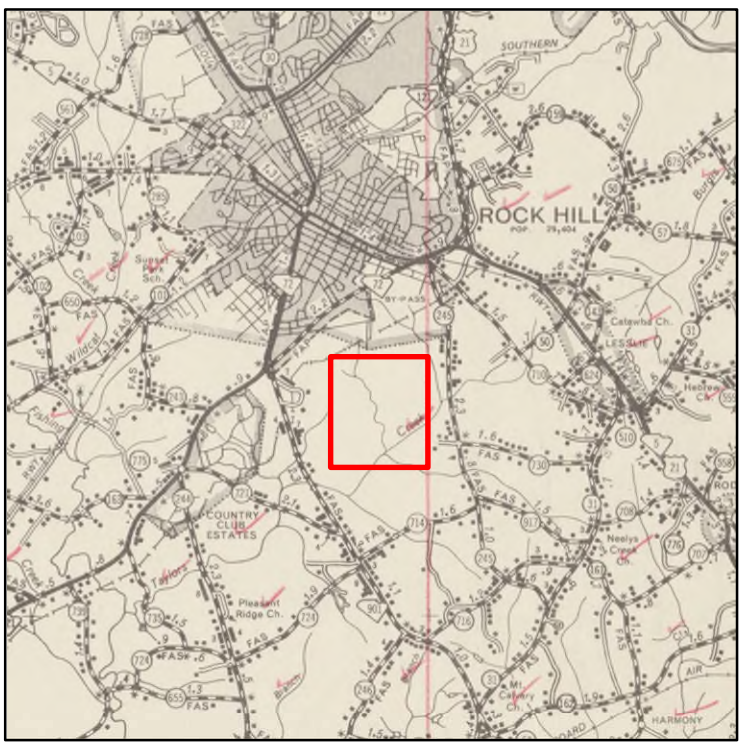


Figure 3.8. Portion of 1961 SCDOT map of York County map, showing vicinity of the project area.

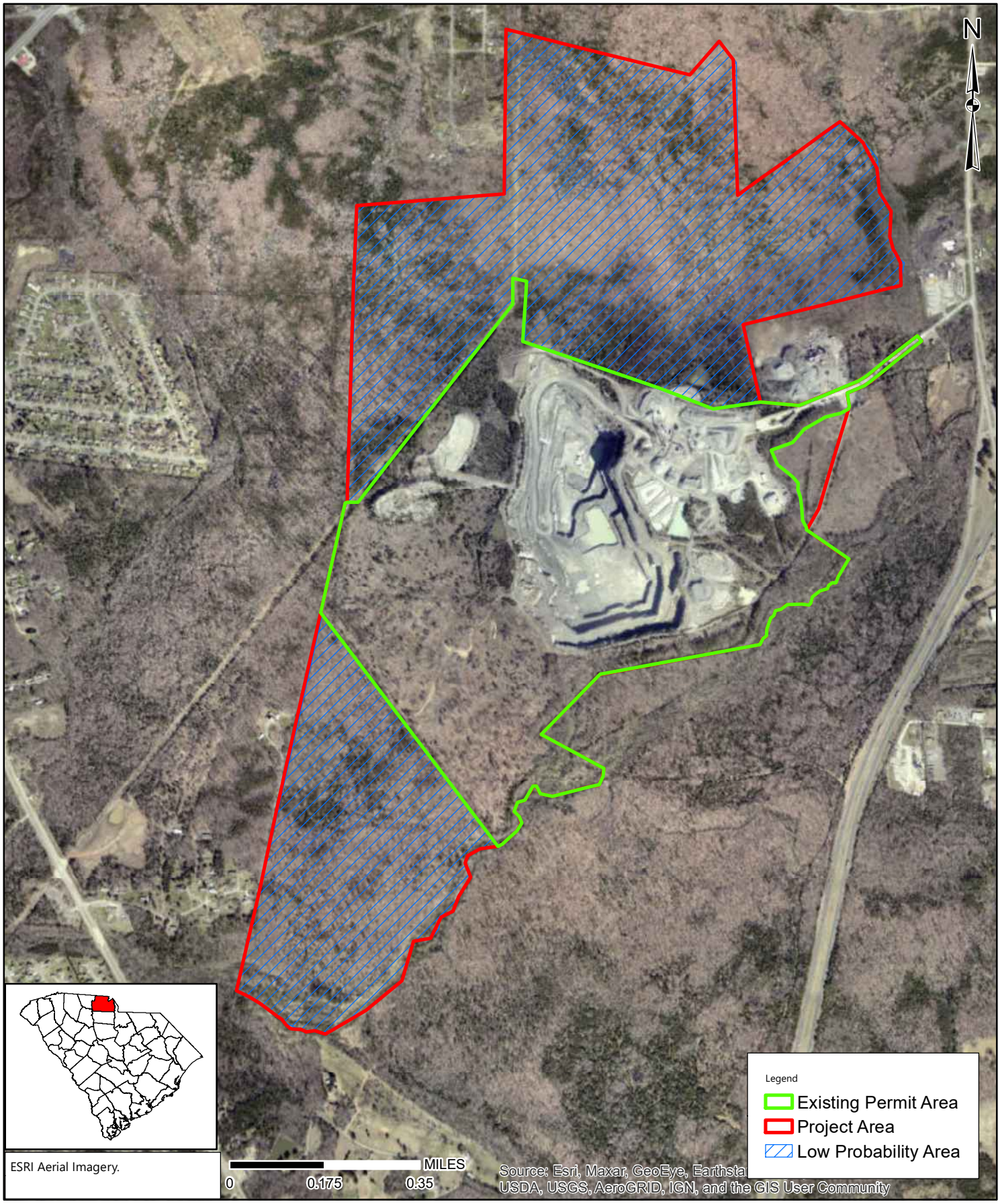
3.4 Potential for Archaeological Resources

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 the criteria listed above, the 400-acre project is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological resources due poorly drained soils, soils that contain boulders, no noted historic occupation or historic roadways through or adjacent to the project area, the tree clearing and visible standing water within the northern portion of the project area in aerial mapping, and the location of the project area over two miles from navigable water ways (Figure 3.9).



SCALE:	1:15,000
PROJECT NO:	216798
DRAWN BY:	PAC
DATE:	10/17/2021

Probability Map
Rock Hill Quarry Expansion
York County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
3.9

4.0 Methods

4.1 Archaeological Field Methods

An archaeological survey for the approximately 400-acre project area associated with the Rock Hill Quarry expansion was conducted on October 4, 2021. The archaeological reconnaissance 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 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*.

4.3 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). These factors were considered in assessing a site's potential for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.0 Results

An archaeological survey for the approximately 400-acre project area associated with the Rock Hill Quarry expansion was conducted on October 4, 2021. As a result of the survey, one new archaeological site (38YK645) and one isolated find (IF-1) were identified and recorded. Each of the resources listed above is discussed below.

5.1 Archaeological Survey Results

A total of 44 shovel tests were excavated within the project area (Figure 5.1). The northern portion of the project area had been clear cut and was clearly wet and/or disturbed during the survey, resulting in judgmental shovel testing in these areas to confirm the soil stratigraphy was not intact; the vegetation within the southern portion of the project was predominately wooded with Taylor Creek running along the southeastern border of the project area; both the northern and southern areas contained large boulders (Figures 5.2 through 5.9).

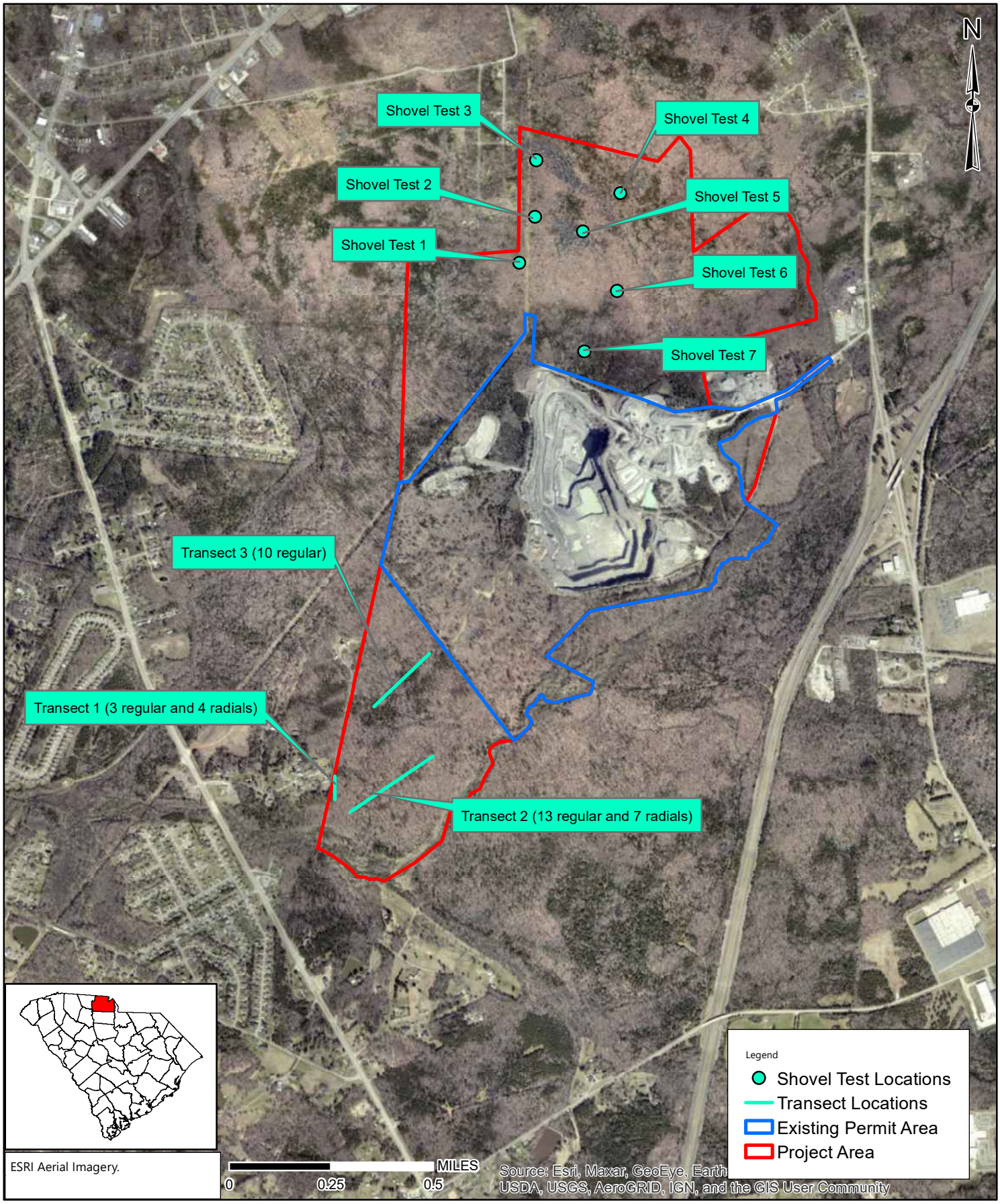
Three distinct soil profiles were encountered: the first consisted of plow zone transitioning to a rock impasse, the second profile consisted of subsoil on the surface, and the third profile consisted of hydric soils. The typical soil profile where subsoil was encountered at the surface consisted of 10+ cm of strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) sandy clay subsoil (Figure 5.10). The typical soil profile in areas where plow zone transitioned to rock impasse consisted of 10 cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) silty loam, terminating at a rock impasse (Figure 5.11). The typical soil profile in areas where hydric soils were encountered consisted of 15 cm of mottled grayish brown (10YR 5/2) and strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) hydric soils (Figure 5.12).

5.1.1 Site 38YK645

Site Number: 38YK645	**NRHP Recommendation**: Not Eligible
Site Type: Historic Scatter	**Elevation:** 570 ft AMSL
Components: 20th century	**Landform:** Hilltop
UTM Coordinates: E498255, N3859778 (NAD 83)	**Soil Type**: Brewback fine sandy loam
Site Dimensions: 15 m N/S x 10 E/W m	**Vegetation:** Clear cut
Artifact Depth: Surface	**No. of STPs/Positive STPs:** 6/0

Site 38YK645 is a twentieth century artifact scatter located on a hilltop along the western edge of the project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site consists of a surface scatter and is located in an area of mixed hardwoods along a dirt road that measures approximately 15 m north/south by 10 m east/west and is bounded by two negative shovel tests to the south and east and by the project boundary to the north and west (Figures 5.13 and 5.14).

Six shovel tests were excavated at the site; none of the shovel tests yielded artifacts. A typical soil profile consisted of 10 cm of brown (10YR 4/3) sandy loam that ended at a rock impasse (Figure 5.15). A total of six historic artifacts were recovered from the surface of the site; the artifacts include four pieces of glass (two clear, one milk, and one brown), one piece of hand-painted whiteware, and one piece of unidentified brick (Appendix A). The hand-painted whiteware dates from 1815 to the present. None of the historic maps show a structure in the vicinity of the site (Figures 3.4 through 3.8).



Drawing Path: T:\ENV\Projects\2021\216798_Martin Marietta_Rock Hill Quarry Ext Arch. survey_Rock Hill SC\Phase 440 Cultural Resources\GIS\Figures\5-1 Shovel Test Locations.mxd plotted by KNagle 10-20-2021

SCALE:	1:20,000
PROJECT NO:	216798
DRAWN BY:	PAC
DATE:	10/20/2021

Shovel Test Locations Map
Rock Hill Quarry Expansion
York County, South Carolina

FIGURE NO.
5.1

Figure 5.2. Mixed hardwood and pine forest within project area, facing southwest.

Figure 5.3. Clear cut area with secondary growth within project area, facing northeast.

Figure 5.4. Large boulder outcrop within the project area, facing east.

Figure 5.5. View of Taylor Creek along the southeastern edge of the project area, facing northeast.

Figure 5.6. View of transmission line and boulders within the project area, facing northwest.

Figure 5.7. Modern trash dump located in northern portion of the project area, facing northeast.

Figure 5.8. Clear cut associated with silviculture in project area, facing east.

Figure 5.9. Water on surface within the deep tire ruts related to logging activities, facing southeast.

Figure 5.10. Typical profile for shovel test containing subsoil at surface.

Figure 5.11. Typical profile for shovel test containing plowzone transitioning to rock impasse.

Figure 5.12. Typical profile for shovel test containing hydric soils.

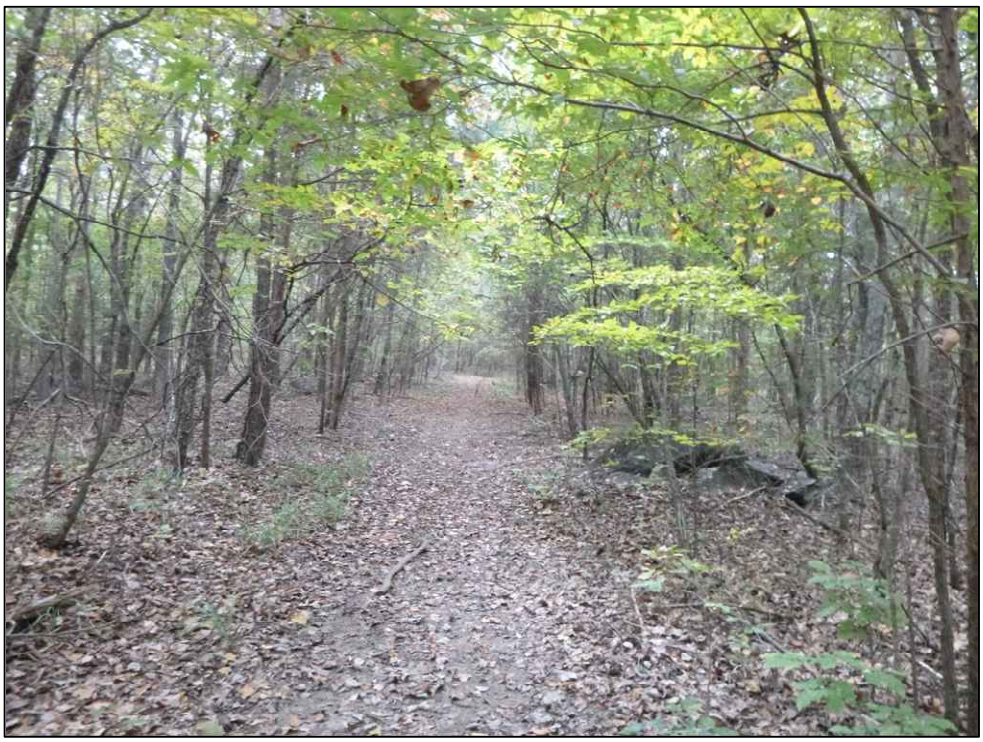
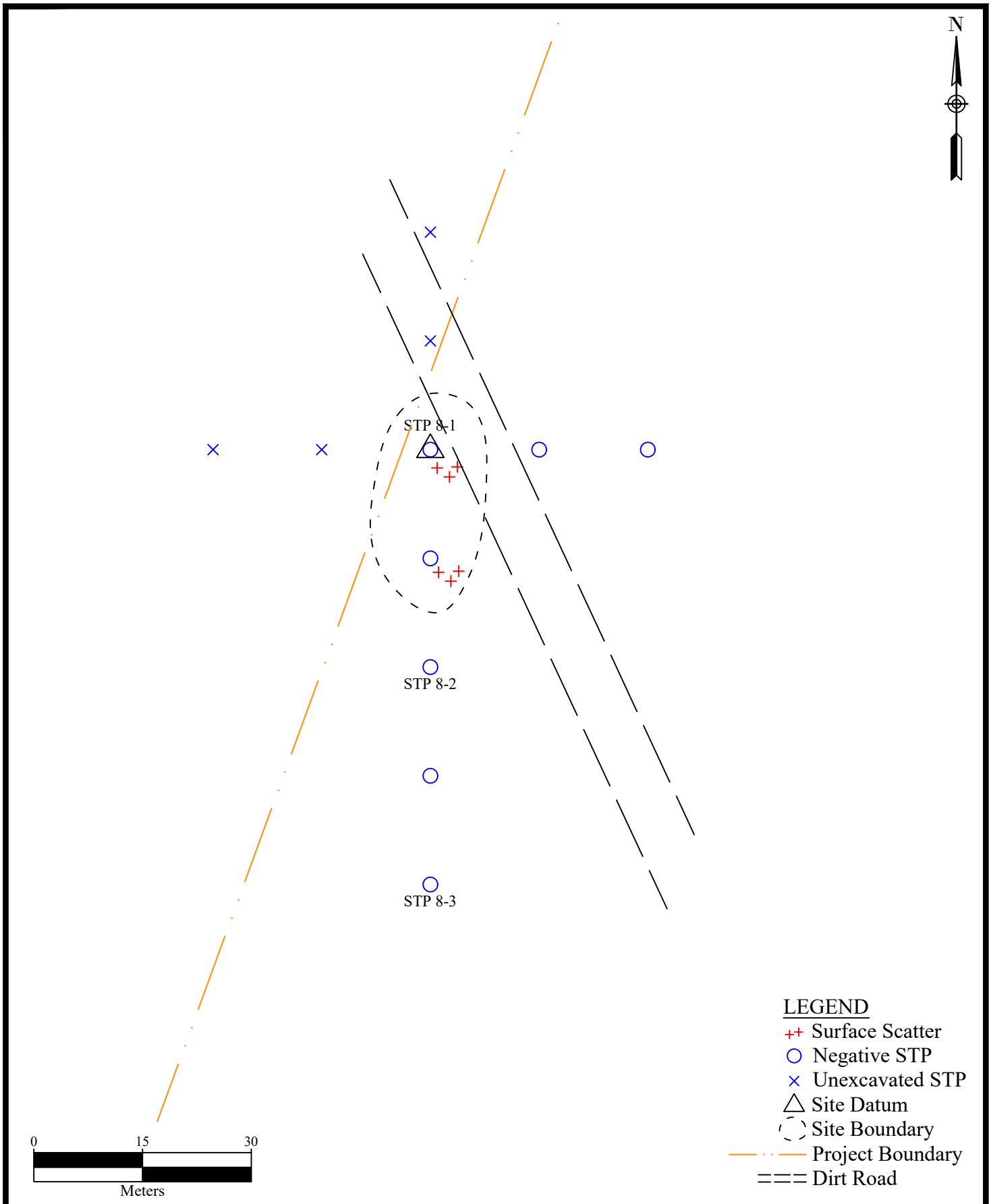


Figure 5.13. Overview of site 38YK645, facing south.



Site Map - 38YK645

Archaeological Survey
Rock Hill Quarry Expansion
York County, South Carolina

SCALE:	FIGURE NO.
As Shown	5.14
DATE:	
10/10/2021	
PROJECT NUMBER	
216798	

Figure 5.15. Typical shovel test profile at site 38YK645.

Site 38YK645 is a twentieth century artifact scatter located in an area along a dirt road, that contains large boulders, and has no intact soils. The site has no evidence of a structure or structural remains, a low quantity of artifacts, and lacks stratigraphy. Based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that the site 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 38YK645 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.1.2 Isolated Finds

Isolated Find 1 (IF-1) consists of a single piece of quartz debitage collected from the surface, in an area of mixed pine and hardwoods adjacent to a dirt road, at UTM coordinates E498320 N3859639 (NAD 83) (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). A total of nine shovel tests were excavated at and around the initial surface find at 15- and 30-m intervals in each of the cardinal directions. None of the additional shovel tests contained artifacts and no other artifacts were identified on the surface. Based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that the site 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 prehistory of the area (Criterion D). As such, IF-1 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

6.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

On behalf of Martin Marietta, S&ME has completed an archaeological survey of the proposed approximately 400-acre project area associated with the Rock Hill Quarry expansion in York County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located west of South Carolina Highway 245 and approximately 1.7 miles southeast of the city center of Rock Hill, 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 pursuant to the South Carolina Mining Act and 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 216798, dated July 19, 2021.

Fieldwork for the project was conducted on October 4, 2021. This work included the excavation of 44 shovel tests within the project area. As a result of the investigations, one new archaeological site was recorded (38YK645) and one isolated find (IF-1) was identified. The newly recorded archaeological site and isolated find are recommended not eligible for inclusion the NRHP (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1).

The project area contains somewhat poorly drained and poorly drained soils, portions of the project area have been disturbed by silviculture activities and the associated vehicles, contains large boulders on surface, as well as rock impasses within the shovel test throughout most of the project area. Based on the reasoning above, It is S&ME's opinion that the 400-acre project area is considered low probability for containing significant archaeological resources and no additional archaeological work is recommended for the project area as currently proposed.

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8.0 Appendix A – Artifact Catalog

Appendix A - Rock Hill Quarry Expansion Artifact Catalog

Site #	Cat. #	Provenience	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (g)	Class	Category	Sub-Category	Type/Description	Material	Portion	Temper	Lithic Size Grade	Notes
38YK645	1.01	STP 8-1	Surface	1	39.1	Other	Masonry	Brick	Unidentified					
38YK645	1.02	STP 8-1	Surface	1	0.7	H. Ceramic	Ref. Earthenware	Whiteware	Underglaze Hand-painted Green		Body			1815-Present
38YK645	1.03	STP 8-1	Surface	1	2.7	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Milk					
38YK645	1.04	STP 8-1	Surface	2	2.4	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Clear					
38YK645	1.05	STP 8-1	Surface	1	2.1	Glass	Machine Molded	Unid. Vessel	Brown					
IF-1	1.01	STP 9-1	Surface	1	1.0	Lithic	Debitage	Non-cortical		Quartz			3	