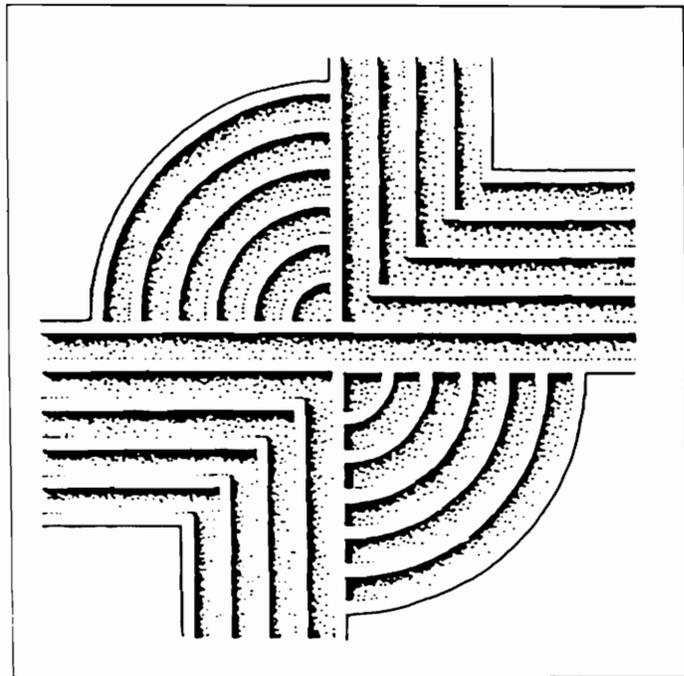


**ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE  
PROPOSED PROJECT INDIGO TRACT,  
FLORENCE COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**



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PROPOSED PROJECT INDIGO TRACT  
FLORENCE COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**

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## ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive archaeological survey of the approximately 508 acre Project Indigo tract for Willis Construction Company. The tract is situated about a mile south of the Town of Timmons ville, about 10 miles southwest of the City of Florence in western Florence County.

The project tract includes a range of upland farmland, most of which was fallow at the time of the investigations, as well as broad areas of mixed pine and hardwood forests, most representing heavily logged tracts. In general, these forested areas are low and poorly drained. Even the upland areas tend to exhibit clayey soils with only moderate drainage. There are no prominent swamp edge bluffs in the survey area, although a portion of the study tract does grade into Sparrow Swamp.

The archaeological survey consisted of both pedestrian survey of cultivated fields, with close interval shovel testing at identified sites and 100 to 200 foot interval shovel testing through woods. No shovel testing was conducted in areas of standing water.

Prior to this study no archaeological sites were recorded for the study tract and there were no known National Register sites in the immediate project area. Nor were there any known architectural sites. As a result of the investigations, seven new archaeological sites were identified (38FL340 through 38FL346).

Three sites (38FL340, 38FL343, and 38FL344) are recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register. All three are what are often called tenant sites because they represent the domestic sites occupied by agricultural tenants during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Two of the sites are plowed, with no standing remains, while the third site (38FL344) is associated with the ruins of a

frame structure.

These three sites may be further tested in order to evaluate their eligibility for inclusion on the National Register, or they may be avoided by the proposed activities, "greenspacing" the sites.

The remaining four sites (38FL341, 38FL342, 38FL345, 38FL346) are all recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. For these sites no additional management activities are necessary, pending concurrence by the lead agency and the State Historic Preservation Office.

There is also the possibility that additional resources will be identified during construction. Crews should be made aware that if pottery, arrowheads, concentrations of bricks, or the presence of bones are found in the project area, ground disturbing work should be suspended until the finds can be assessed by either the project archaeologist or the State Historic Preservation Office.



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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I want to thank Mr. Frank Willis and Mr. Ron Scott for their assistance during the course of this project. They provided a great deal of support during the survey efforts, providing equipment and operators to open up heavily wooded areas that would otherwise have either received only limited survey or would have required extensive hand clearing. Their help ensured the very rapid investigation of the tract. We appreciate their continued support and confidence.

Because of the time frame historical research was limited to the Florence County Clerk of Court, the Darlington County Clerk of Court, and the Darlington County Historical Commission. The staffs at these institutions, however, provided exceptional assistance. In particular, we want to thank Mr. Horace Rudisill, who freely gave of his time to assistance in the historic research at the Darlington County Historical Commission.

Mr. Keith Derting, at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology assisted us with site recordation and we thank him for his speedy and thorough work. Ms. Sharon Pekrul was responsible for assisting us with curation at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, and again we offer our sincere appreciation for her time and efforts. Finally, Dr. Tracy Power helped in the review of the State Historic Preservation Office's master topographic maps and we appreciate his continued efforts to provide timely information and assistance.

The field crew for this project include Ms. Sabrina Buck, Mr. Gregg Dickey, Ms. Amy Dodenhoff, Mr. Ian Hamer, Mr. John Hamer, and Mr. Brian Young. The field director was Mr. William Barr. I appreciate their hard work and efforts to ensure that the site locations and details were well researched and recorded. I also appreciate the efforts of Ms. Debi Hacker, who was responsible for the analysis and cataloging of the resulting collections, as well as for the maps

and other project graphics. Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs was responsible for coordinating the initial background research, recording the identified sites, and also for cataloging collections.

We were also assisted by the visit of an individual who had lived in the area for much of his life, Mr. Son James. His accounts of tenancy during and after the "Hoover Days," provided much local insight and he will be an exceptional informant should additional research be necessary on the tract.



## INTRODUCTION

### Background

This investigation of the proposed 508 acre Project Indigo tract was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Willis Construction Company of Florence, South Carolina. The project is situated in the western portion of Florence in the Middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina (Figure 1).

The study area has a rather odd shape, resulting from its amassing from a series of 10 different property tracts or parcels. Eight of these had been previously acquired by an arm of Florence County, while two were recently added to increase the total acreage. The property has a large central core bounded to the south and southeast by I-95. The eastern boundary extends to S-83. A portion of the northern boundary follows S-214, with a long strip extending west to Sparrow Swamp (Figure 2). The tract borders other, relatively small, landholdings to the north, northeast, and southwest.

About 50% of the project area consists of fields, many of which were fallow (Figure 3) or planted in grass at the time of this study. These fields offered very limited surface visibility. Open, recently cultivated fields were limited to the eastern portion of the study area. The remainder of the tract consists of dense woods, typically of mixed pine and hardwoods (Figure 4). Many of these areas were so densely forested that survey without mechanical intervention would have required extensive hand clearing. We found that the property had been logged about 20 years ago, with much of those areas logged a second time within the past five years.

The tract is proposed to be used for industrial development. This will necessitate the clearing and grubbing of large portions of the property. There will be the need for an extensive road network, as well as paving. Utilities will

include water, sewer, power, and telephone. There will likely be a sewage treatment facility on-site. In other words, the proposed development has the potential to seriously damage or destroy any archaeological or historical sites which may exist on the tract — hence the need for the current study.

We were requested by Willis Construction Company to submit a technical and cost proposal for an intensive survey of the tract on March 31. This proposal, submitted that same day, was approved on April 3, 1997, with an agreement signed on April 7.

These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology by Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs. No previously recorded sites were found in the project area. In addition, Dr. Tracy Power at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History was asked on April 8, 1997 to check the master topographic maps at his office to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, his office was asked about the results of any structures surveys which might have been completed in the study area. He reported that there were no National Register properties in the corridor. In addition, there are no known architectural sites on the project tract.

Archival and historical research was conducted at the Florence County Clerk of Court, the Darlington County Clerk of Court, and the Darlington County Historical Commission. While it is likely that additional resources are present at the Thomas Cooper Map Repository, the South Caroliniana Library, and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, the time allowed for these investigations did not permit a more extensive historical review. We did, however, use resources present in the Chicora Foundation files concerning the general area.

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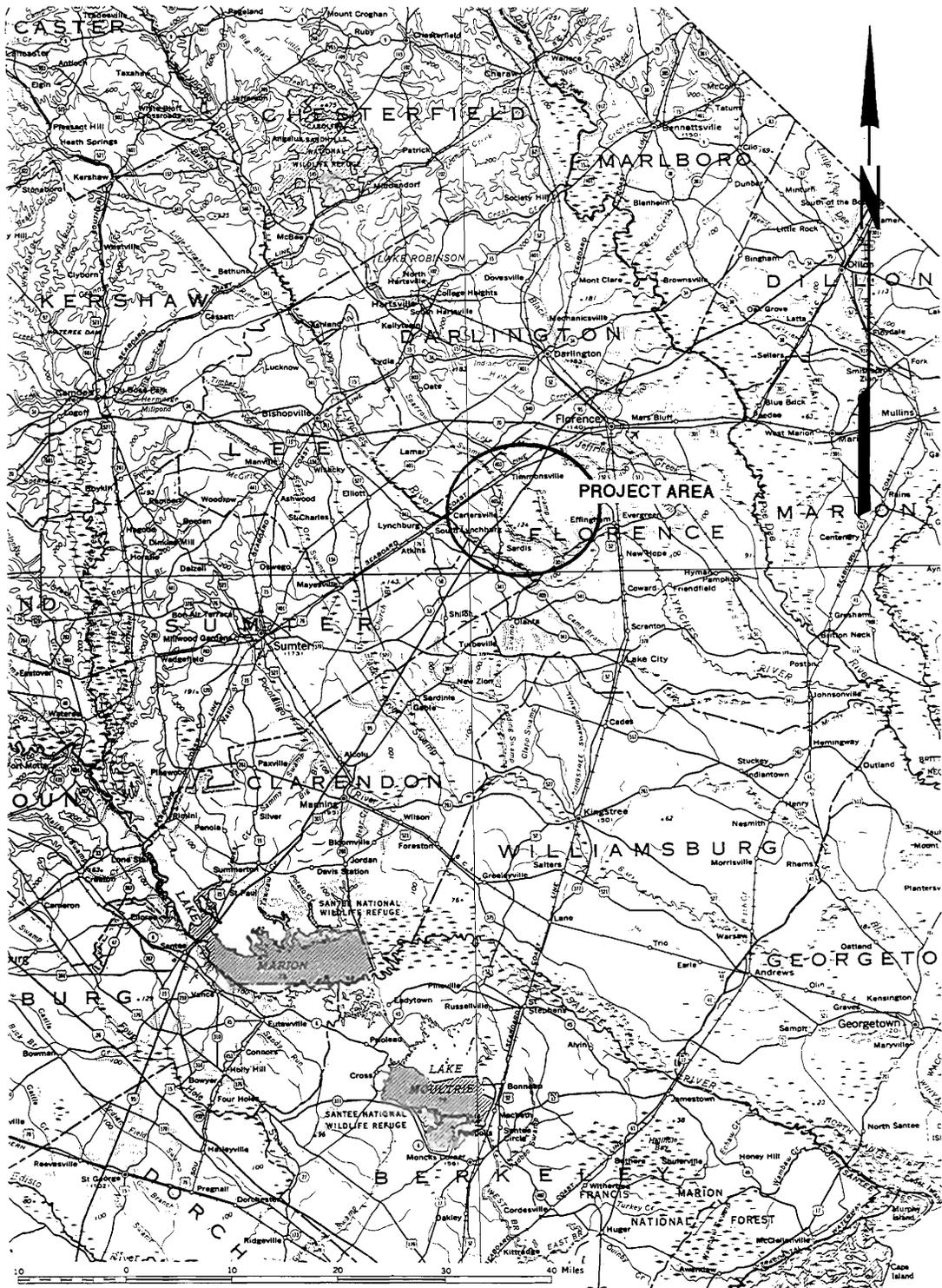


Figure 1. Project vicinity in Florence County, South Carolina (basemap is USGS South Carolina, 1:500,000).





Figure 3. View of fallow fields in the survey tract.



Figure 4. View of dense forest areas in the survey tract. Also shown is ponded water in an old logging rut.

## INTRODUCTION

The survey was conducted from April 14 through April 17, 1997. The field director for the project was Mr. William Barr. The field crew included Ms. Sabrina Buck, Mr. Gregg Dickey, Ms. Amy Dodenhoff, Mr. Ian Hamer, Mr. John Hamer, and Mr. Brian Young. A total of 240 person hours were required for this investigation.

The analysis and cataloging of the collections was conducted by Ms. Debi Hacker at Chicora's Columbia laboratories between April 15 and April 20. During this work all materials were evaluated for conservation needs. No materials were found which warranted conservation treatments. Additional information concerning curation is available at the end of this section.

### Goals and Methods

The primary goals of this study were, first, to identify the archaeological resources of the survey corridor and, second, to assess the ability of those resources to contribute significant archaeological, historical, or anthropological data. The second aspect essentially involves the site's eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places, although Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead compliance agency in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

To identify sites within the tract, a strategy of shovel testing of wooded areas and fallow fields was coupled with pedestrian survey of plowed fields. For the purpose of this study a site is identified as three or more artifacts within a 25-foot area. Fallow fields, which provided very limited surface visibility (typically less than 10%) were shovel tested at 100-foot intervals along transects placed every 100 feet (Figure 5).

One grassed field was actively being used for cattle. Although surface visibility was only about 40%, it was subjected only to a pedestrian survey given concern over the cattle tripping in the soft soil of backfilled shovel tests.

As previously mentioned, the wooded area

were very heavily overgrown, largely the result of recent logging and the dense second growth vegetation. In these areas a bulldozer was used to open transects, typically about 8 to 10 feet in width. The dozer was not used to remove trees or create a prepared surface — only to beat down the vegetation and allow easier access. Figure 6 is an example of one such transect.

Most of the wooded areas were found in areas not deemed agriculturally productive, typically in areas of lower, less well drained soils. Consequently, shovel testing was conducted at 200-foot intervals along these transects which had been bulldozed open every 200 feet. Areas of dense swamp, characterized by wet soils or standing water were not shovel tested (Figure 4 shows one area of standing water, ponded in ruts from logging). These areas were, however, walked.

It is important to point out that the majority of the wooded areas were very wet. In general, we found a relatively dry crust, about 0.5 foot in depth, overlying very wet soils. Often, it was not immediately apparent how wet, or unstable, these soils were. On one occasion, for example, two bulldozers became stuck on a survey line that originally appeared dry (Figure 7).

All shovel tests were about 1-foot square and were excavated to subsoil, typically 1.0 to 1.5 feet in depth. All fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh with the tests backfilled immediately afterwards. All materials recovered from shovel testing, except brick and mortar which were noted and discarded in the field, were bagged. Shovel tests were sequentially numbered and recorded on a shovel test log.

Agricultural fields were subjected to a pedestrian survey with two or three individuals slowly walking in single file about 30 feet apart. The boundaries of sites in open fields were marked and then additional, closer interval passes were made through the area to collect a representative sample of exposed materials. None of the sites were subjected to intensive, or controlled, surface collections.



Figure 5. Shovel testing fallow field at 100-foot intervals along transects spaced every 100 feet.



Figure 6. Example of a bulldozer transect run through heavy woods, opening up the vegetation.

INTRODUCTION



Figure 7. Two D-5 bulldozers stuck on one of the transects in the wooded area of the survey tract.



Figure 8. Close interval shovel testing of identified archaeological site in a cultivated field.

Sites identified either through the shovel testing or through surface collections were subjected to close interval (50-foot) shovel testing (Figure 8). Normally the entire area of identified sites received shovel testing on a grid. In a few cases the sites were so small that only cruciform shovel testing was performed. When sites were identified in plowed fields, the boundaries were based on the extent of the surface scatter. In wooded areas or fallow fields, site boundaries were primarily based on the shovel testing, although even under these conditions we attempted to ensure that the boundaries included any obvious features or surface materials.

Figure 9 illustrates the various survey methods used on the Project Indigo tract.

Notes were retained on representative shovel tests and photographs were taken of individual sites if warranted in the opinion of the field director. At each site the information necessary for the completion of a South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site form was collected.

Once identified, sites were evaluated for their potential eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This assessment process follows that outlined by Townsend et al. (1993) in *National Register Bulletin* 36. This evaluative processes involves five steps, forming a clearly defined, explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as artifacts, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important

research questions the site *might* be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets are sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of "important" research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

Taking each of these steps individually, the first is simply to determine what is present at the site — for example, are features present, what types of artifacts are present, from what period does the site date? This represents the collection of basic, and essential, information concerning the site and the types of research contributions it can offer. Obviously there is no reason to propose research on eighteenth century plantation development if only early twentieth century ceramics are present. Nor is it perhaps appropriate to explore questions focused on subsistence if no faunal materials are present in the collection. This first step is typically addressed through the survey investigations, often with supporting documentation provided by historic research.

Next, it is important to understand the historic context of the site — what is the history of the project area and of the specific locality? Research questions must be posed with an understanding of this context and the context helps to direct the focus of research. The development of a historic context can be a lengthy process. The historic synopsis in this study provides a preliminary context for a wide range of different site types, although we recognize that it many ways it is superficial and lacking in detail.

Associated with the development of the context is the formation of research questions *applicable to the site, its context, and its data sets*. Often this research will grow out of previous projects in the area. Certainly topics of exceptional



interest continue to be the examination of Middle Woodland ceramics and settlement systems, the spread of eighteenth and nineteenth century plantations into the Upper Coastal Plain, and the development and lifeways of tenancy in the region. Each of these topics is more fully discussed in the following historic overview.

Next it is essential to compare the data sets with the research questions — the information necessary to address the research questions must be present at the site, else posing the question is meaningless in the evaluative process. Focusing on small projects, it may be more appropriate to concentrate on only one or perhaps two research questions and devote the energy necessary to fully explore them, then to propose a range of questions which can be only superficially explored with the data sets or resources available.

Finally, Townsend et al. recognize that not all research questions are of equal importance and that only those of fairly high value should be considered in the evaluation of National Register eligibility. Of all the steps this may be the most difficult to address. Some research questions proposed may seem pedestrian. Our society has viewed history as great events happening to great individuals. Many view architectural significance with the same jaundiced eye — significance being equated with white columns and famous architects. And certainly if the available archaeological studies of low country plantations are examined, there is a similar bias toward big plantations with relatively grand lifeways. Curiously, we know much less about the common planter, the yeoman farmer, or the tenant — and their probably more vernacular architecture — than we do about the famous or the high style. Some historians have referred to the common man as the "invisible person." Others have offered some understanding using the concept of the "marginal man." It is consequently important to understand that significance of archaeological research questions is not judged from the perspective of the wealth, or power, or prestige of the historic persons involved. It is judged from the perspective of what the research can tell us about the past that traditional historical research cannot.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites actually being nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluation process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation where only, typically, one discrete site is being considered. In the case of survey evaluations some modifications of the approach seem reasonable, if not actually essential. Regardless, the approach advocated by Townsend et al. encourages researchers to carefully consider, and justify, their recommendations regarding National Register eligibility.

### Curation

Archaeological site forms have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. The field notes and artifacts resulting from these investigations will be curated with that institution using their proveniencing system which consists of site number-site provenience number- artifact number.

All original records and duplicate copies were provided to the institution on pH neutral, alkaline buffered permanent paper. The artifacts are housed in ziplock bags with pH neutral, alkaline buffered tags. Photographic materials, which consist only of color prints, are not archivally stable and have therefore been retained in Chicora's project files.

## ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

### Physiography

Florence County is situated in the Inner and Middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the north by Marlboro and Dillon counties, to the west by Darlington, Lee and Sumter counties, and the Lynches River, to the south by Clarendon and Williamsburg counties and to the east by the Pee Dee River, which separates it from Marion County. The land primarily consists of gently rolling hills with elevations ranging from about 20 feet above mean sea level in parts of the river floodplains to a high of about 150 feet above sea level in the Florence-Timmonsville area. Most of the county has an elevation between 70 and 150 feet above sea level (Pitts 1974:109).

The county is drained by the Pee Dee river system which flows in a southeasterly direction and forms somewhat of a dendritic drainage pattern. It includes Lynches River, which merges with the Pee Dee in the southeastern corner of the county, as well as smaller streams such as Claussen Creek, Jeffries Creek, and Muddy Creek. In the project area, Sparrow Swamp to the west and Lake Swamp to the east both drain southeastwardly to the Lynches River, which in turn empties into the Pee Dee at the southern edge of the county. The headwaters of a small unnamed tributary flowing into Lake Swamp are located in the northeastern portion of the survey tract (see Figure 2).

The Project Indigo tract is situated in the western portion of Florence County — an area which is generally characterized by low, flatlands interspersed with small drainages, a few larger swamps, and numerous small bays.

The only natural border for the tract is a small section of Sparrow Swamp, on the parcel's western edge. Elsewhere boundaries are entirely arbitrary constructs — primarily private landholdings, although the southeastern boundary is I-95 and a portion of the eastern boundary is S-

83.

The topography tends to be flat with a range of elevation between 40 and 45 feet above sea level. The eastern half of the tract tends to drain to the southeast, following an old drainage which has recently been partially channelized by the County. The rest of the tract has a barely noticeable dip to the south.

Often described as flatwoods, this area is characterized by broad flat areas, which consist of a few low ridges and bay depressions. The most common depressions in the Coastal Plain are Carolina bays, usually marshy and oval in shape (Richards 1950:45-46). Water depth varies from shallow lakes to areas with a preponderance of peat and herbaceous species (Barry 1980:131-13). Edmond Ruffin, a mid-nineteenth century observer, commented that these features provided good pasturage for cattle (Mathew 1992:210). Soils in such areas are generally poorly drained loamy sands and the typical vegetation is usually mesic or swampy, often characterized by bay trees.

### Geology and Soils

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits which consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There are four primary geologic formations deposited at different periods during alternating transgression and recession of the ocean: the Duplin Marl Formation underlies parts of the southern and western portions of the county; the Black Creek Formation is found in the northern portion of the county. The Black Creek Formation directly underlies the Pee Dee Formation and is Upper Cretaceous in age. It is described as fossiliferous, pyritic, lignitic white to gray, fine to medium-grained phosphatic sands, and blue-gray to black pyritic, plastic, or brittle clays (Park 1980).

Overlying all of these formations is a relatively thin mantle of undifferentiated light-colored sands and gravels with clay layers of Plio-Pleistocene age. The Pleistocene deposits include the Brandywine terrace (215 to 270 feet MSL), the Coharie terrace (170 to 215 feet MSL), the Sunderland terrace (100 to 170 feet MSL), the Penholoway terrace (42 to 70 feet MSL), the Talbot terrace (25 to 42 feet MSL), and the Pamlico terrace (less than 25 feet MSL) (Pitts 1974:109-110).

The project area contains seven soil series including Coxville, Duplin, Goldsboro, Lynchburg, Norfolk, Rains, and Varina soils. Of these, Coxville and Rains are poorly drained, while the Lynchburg soils are somewhat poorly drained. These soils have seasonal high water tables ranging from 0 to 2.0 feet below the surface. For the purpose of this study they are lumped together and account for about 75% of the tract. These soils are most commonly associated with the wooded tracts, but may be incorporated into cultivated fields if drainage ditches are present.

The Duplin and Goldsboro soils are moderately well drained while the Norfolk, and Varina soils are well drained. These soils have seasonal highwater tables ranging from 1.5 to 6 feet below the ground surface and together account for about 25% of the soils in the study tract (Figure 10). Most of these better drained soils are found where fields have been opened for cultivation, such as on the eastern and western edges of the study area.

Mills comments that the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil". He notes for nearby Marion District that "[w]hile the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars an acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars an acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]). The flatlands, "are, by comparison, sand barrens; yet occasionally [sic] presenting some good timber land" (Mills 1972:513 [1826]). And while the uplands were healthy, with summers free of disease, he observed that, "on the rivers, creeks, and flat lands, this district is subject to bilious fevers, and cannot be called healthy" (Mills

1972:515 [1826]). The products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972:623 [1826]).

### Climate

The general climate of the Florence county area is characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian mountains which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. However, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Pitts 1974:108).

The average annual precipitation in the Florence area is 44.5 inches and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 28.9 inches occurring from April through October which is the primary growing season (Pitts 1974:108).

The climate, according to Mills (1972:625 [1826]), "taking the whole year round, is pleasant". The annual average temperature in Florence is 63.2°F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 44.8°F in January to 80.3°F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered showers and thunderstorms in the summer. Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (NOAA 1977). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much more infrequent. Notable droughts have occurred twice in modern times; in 1925 and 1954. Typically a serious drought may occur once every fifty years. Less severe dry periods have occurred more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Pitts 1974:109).

ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

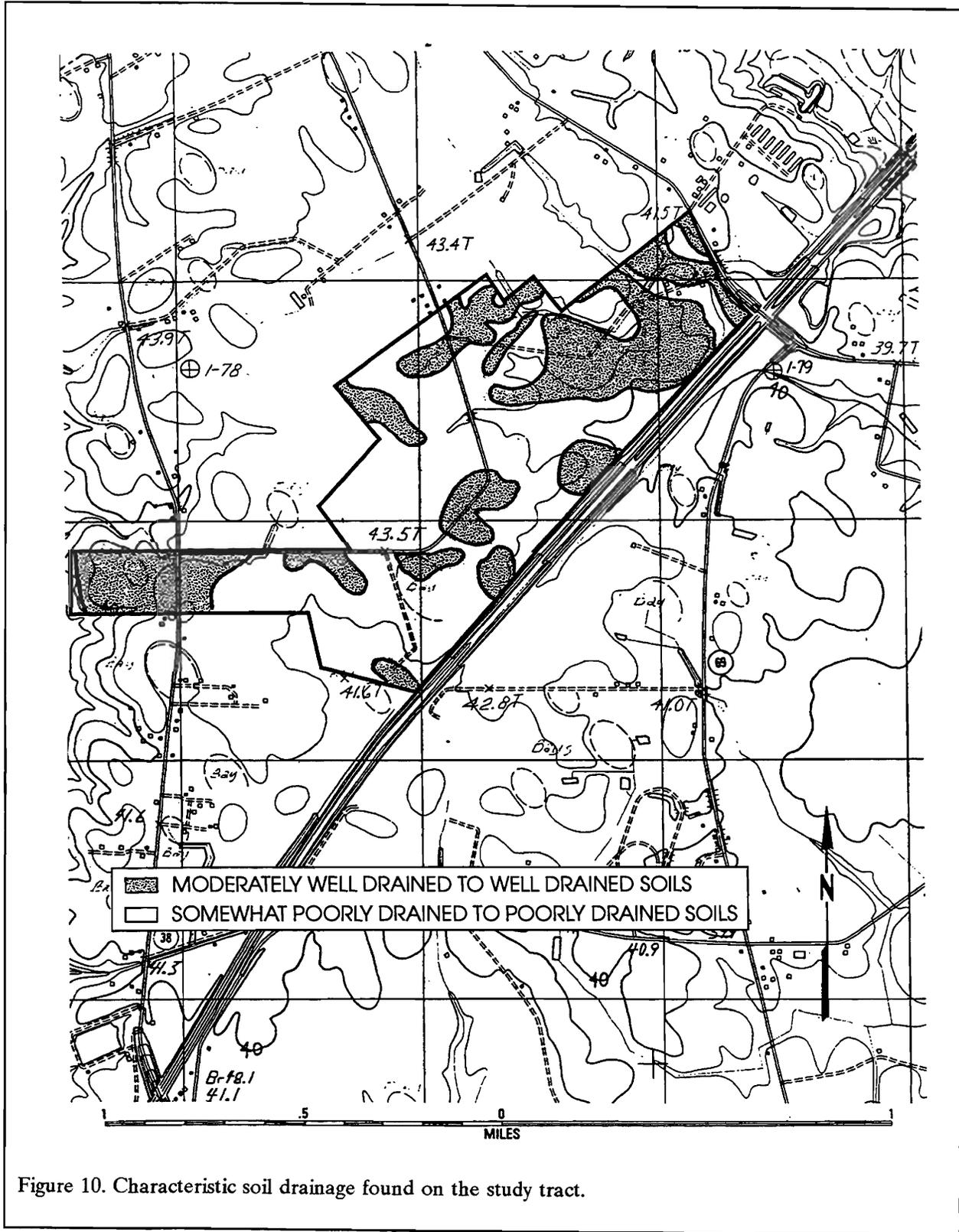


Figure 10. Characteristic soil drainage found on the study tract.

### Floristics

There are two major categories of plant communities, based primarily on topographic location, which exist in the project area. The first category consists of upland vegetation. Supported here are a mixture of coniferous and deciduous forests dominated by pines and broadleaf taxa such as upland oaks, sweetgum, hickories, and various understory species. Incorporated may be small upland depressions and drainages, which contain more hydric species.

Portions of the upland area were found to contain pine forest, typically found on soils of low fertility, high acidity, and excessive drainage. Most often these area have been subjected to extensive disturbance, including repeated logging operations, and the pine represent an early stage of revegetation. A few areas of hardwood forest exist in the project area, where oaks, maple, sweetgum, black gum, and mockernut hickory are prevalent. More common, however are mixed forests, containing both pines and hardwoods.

Lowland forests, which account for the second category, are located on the floodplain of Sparrow Swamp. This floodplain is about 20 feet lower in elevation and is defined by a gradual slope. These floodplain soils are forested with bald cypress, gum, sycamore, water hickory, lowland oaks, soft maples, willows, and other herbaceous species.

In the early nineteenth century Mills observed that:

the long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupilo &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum,. &c. are common (Mills 1972:624 [1826]).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting that "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972:625 [1826]). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be

imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local "shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion which appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972:628 [1826]).

Today, about a third of the Florence's uplands have been cleared for cultivation. On the survey tract, approximately 50% of the land is in fallow fields or active cultivation. The remainder of the area consisted primarily of coniferous and deciduous trees including pines, oaks, sweetgums, and hickories. In addition, the wooded areas consisted of a very thick understory of plants including various shrubs, vines, and herbaceous species. Most common are blackberry (particularly along field edges), muscadine, and poison ivy.

### Paleo-Environmental Reconstructions

Table 1 offers a generalized view of one possible reconstruction of Florence area ecology, based on data from a wide variety of sites on the Atlantic Slope. Obviously, any such reconstruction would be more reliable based on data from nearer the project. One study used in the reconstruction is from sediments and pollen collected at White's Pond near Camden, South Carolina (Watts 1980), less than 75 miles from the project location.

There are several significant issues involved in this brief reconstruction. First is that by the time of the earliest occupation of South Carolina (correlating with the Post-Glacial) the landscape was dominated by a closed canopy oak-hickory forest. Of equal importance is that pine did not achieve its partial dominance in the overstory, taking on a more "modern" appearance.<sup>1</sup> The forest types present would have played important role in the nature and distribution of critical resources, and hence the distribution and subsistence rounds of Native American populations.

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<sup>1</sup> The modern Pee Dee upland flora largely reflects land uses over the past 300 years, such as forest management, agricultural activities, and timber management. It is admittedly difficult to conceive of an original forest, given the extent of these disturbances.

In spite of this, accounts of Native Americans making it clear that even they dramatically altered the nature and appearance of the Southeastern forests. Through fire, many believe that the Indians created a

Table 1.  
Generalized Paleo-Environmental Reconstruction

Episode	Climate	Vegetation
Late Glacial (15,000 - 10,000 B.P.)	Cooler and moister than present	Oak, hickory, beech, hemlock
Early Post Glacial (10,000 B.P. to 8,000 B.P.)	Warming trend continued from Early or Full Glacial Period with increased moisture	Oak and hickory maximum, sharp decline in beech and gum
Later Post Glacial (8,000 B.P. to present)	Continued warming with gradual desiccation.	Oak and pine. Pine increases relative to the decreasing oaks. Modern vegetation patterns by 7000 B.P.

heterogeneous forest, interspersed with different vegetation, erosional areas, old growth, and new growth. There is some correlation between the apparent "haphazard" burning and the nature of Native American forest utilization. There is good evidence from areas surrounding South Carolina that at least in the late protohistoric and early historic periods the native inhabitants were irregular and unpredictable in their use of resources. One observer, Hugh Jones, an early eighteenth century professor at the College of William and Mary, observed that, "They have no notion of providing for futurity; for they eat night and day while their provision lasts, falling to as soon as they are well crammed." Silver remarks that:

Indians were equally cavalier about food shortages. During their summer migrations, when they depended largely upon berries and other wild produce, they sometimes went for days without food. Late winter, too, could bring periods of sporadic hunger as game animals moved out of the oak forests and supplies of corn began to dwindle. In keeping with their stoic nature, the natives accepted such lean times as inevitable and rode them out without complaint. Their

seemingly imprudent eating habits and willingness to go hungry in a land of apparent plenty never ceased to amaze Europeans. John Smith spoke for many Englishmen when he remarked about the "strange" manner in which the Indians' "bodies alter[ed] with their diet." Like "deare and wilde beastes they seem[ed] fat and lean, strong and weak" (Silver 1990:65).

It should be clear that paleo-environmental reconstructions can be useful for better understanding where resources **might** be located, but they cannot tell us how these resources were **actually used** by the Native Americans. Reconstructions of subsistence rounds based on logic and availability are likely to mask the reality of human nature. The caution here is not to throw one's hands up in despair (since we must try to make sense of the data), but rather that we cannot take for granted that Native Americans were humans and fell prey to the same inconsistencies that "plague" humans today.

One interesting reconstruction is that offered by Hanson et al. (1981) for their investigation of the Steel Creek drainage in Aiken County. Although their study area is within a sand hill region, rather than the inner coastal plain, there are broad similarities in vegetational,

hydrological, and faunal resources. Although most of their specific resource zones are related to streams, Zone I represents the Upland Sand Hills. Zone I faunal resources are most abundant in the fall and winter, and early spring; floral resources are found in both the fall and winter (representing nuts and acorn masts) and in the spring (representing fruits and greens).

We must also realize that the alteration of the environment, begun by the Native Americans on a limited scale, continued through the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and into the early twentieth century. Indeed, using European technology and African slave labor, the early colonists found it easy to clear lands which had been too heavily forested for the Native Americans. The process of clearing changed the pattern of animal use, reducing many species while opening up new niches for others. The clearing, specially in the piedmont, brought sudden erosion to a land where erosion was limited (Trimble 1974). The extent of this clearing is evidenced in nearby Williamsburg County where there were 70,360 acres of improved land in 1850 and 160,000 acres in 1978 (DeBow 1854:304; Ward 1989:55).

The gradual changes in the land included increased use of very toxic pesticides, increased infertility and finally exhaustion of land overplanted in cotton, and large areas of second growth as land went out of use during the 1930s. As Raper and Reid observed:

nowadays the South is anything and everything. It is problem and opportunity, proud and pitiful — a land of unlimited possibility and of unrelieved privation. Potential adequacy and actual deficiency walk hand in hand across the Southern scene (Raper and Reid 1941:v).

### The Effects of Agriculture

The South's large arable area, in relationship to its relatively small population (at least prior to the growth of the "sunbelt") has resulted in two centuries of unparalleled land

exploitation. Historian Lewis C. Gray remarked that, "planters bought land as they might buy a wagon — with the expectation of wearing it out." Poor husbandry coupled with a fragile environment resulted in extensive changes to the natural environment.

Cotton's history, coupled late with tobacco, is the history of Florence County, and the history of the environment. From slavery through tenancy, cotton ruled the agricultural efforts of Florence, her plantation owners, and her tenants. Work began in the spring, breaking the land, running rows, and planting. After the seeds sprouted and plants emerged, there was constant chopping and hoeing in an effort to keep the cotton from being swallowed by the weeds. Lay-by time arrived in mid-summer and in the autumn the bolls matured and opened, signalling the time for picking. While typically associated with slavery and later with large plantations, even the South's yeoman farmers could never resist the siren lure of cotton (see Eaton 1964:148; Harris 1985:25-26).

The crop was always subject to problems. Beginning in the 1920s, the cotton boll weevil, *Anthonomus grandis* B., arrived in South Carolina, having begun its journey from Mexico nearly 30 years earlier. By depositing eggs in the cotton square, the boll weevil prevented the development of the locks of fiber. Planters attempted to reduce the impact by modifying growing practices, for example by planting early maturing varieties earlier in the spring. While such cultural practices helped, recovery was never quite achieved. Likewise, a variety of pesticides were developed for the boll weevil, beginning with calcium arsenate in 1919. While these succeeded in polluting the land, poisoning the farmers, and increasing production costs, they had less significant affects on the boll weevil.

Cotton has also long been recognized for its ability to deplete soils. Early agricultural practices included limited efforts to fertilize fields, with planters preferring abandonment and opening of new lands. By the 1850s one commentator remarked, "tens of thousands of acres of once productive lands are now reduced to the maximum of sterility," another exclaimed that "the destroying

## ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

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angel has visited these once fair forests and limpid streams . . . everything everywhere betrays improvident and reckless management," while a third used even more morbid terms:

nearly all the lands have been cut down and appropriated to tillage: a large maximum of which have been worn out, leaving a desolate picture for the traveler to behold (Olmsted 1953 [1856]:533).

Tobacco, another important crop in the Florence area, affecting not only the culture of the region, but also its land and environment. Bright leaf tobacco was developed in North Carolina during the 1850s and spread into Virginia, South Carolina, and Georgia by the 1880s. Instead of air-drying the tobacco leaf on the stalk in well ventilated houses, this new process cured tobacco leaves, minus the stalks, using carefully controlled heat in tightly closed tobacco barns — turning the leaves a bright golden color. To prevent the leaves from being darkened by smoke and soot, a flue-curing method was adopted, which also served to distribute the heat more uniformly, producing a smoother, and milder, tobacco.

Tobacco was turned to by farmers in the Florence region as an alternative to cotton and its low prices of the 1880s and early 1890s.<sup>2</sup> The new tobacco grew best in the light-colored sandy loams which dominated the Pee Dee region. In fact, the imported "experts" from North Carolina advised that the best tobacco grew in thin soils and that "starved leaf made the lightest and most aromatic weed," providing hope to farmers with exhausted cotton lands. The initial boom of tobacco turned sour with the depression. Tobacco was a hard crop

— using intensive hand labor and practically no machinery. Over production eventually resulted in low prices and collapse of this commodity.

Like cotton, tobacco required pest control procedures that poisoned pests, users, and land alike. Arsenical compounds such as London purple and Paris green were the main insecticides for chewing insects. In spite of the early claims farmers quickly found that tobacco grew best on newly cleared lands rich in humus. Consequently, a new round of land clearing and exhaustion began, since tobacco removes large amounts of potash and nitrogen (Duggar 1921:525).

The cultivation of the soil was not, as the agrarianists believed, especially blessed by God, nor was agriculture especially likely to create an ideal social order. In spite of this agrarian romance which infected the South, it is clear that agricultural production was as devastating in its own way to the natural environment as was the industrial development of the North.

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<sup>2</sup> In 1893 cotton reached an all-time low of 4¢ a pound, making tobacco both attractive and lucrative, even for the uninitiated. Even with an average price of 8¢ a pound and an average yield of 400 pounds per acre, a Pee Dee farmer in 1885 might *gross* about \$32 from a typical acre of cotton. *Net* profits on tobacco, however, could run as high as \$116 an acre -- about what four acres of cotton would yield, before taking out all of the expenses.



## PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

### Prehistory of the Region

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleo-Indian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleo-Indian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleo-Indian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited mammal. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coastal plain and piedmont. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stem projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and

drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

In the Coastal Plain of the South Carolina there is an increase in the quantity of Early Archaic remains, probably associated with an increase in population and associated increase in the intensity of occupation. While Hardaway and Dalton points are typically found as isolated specimens along riverine environments, remains from the following Palmer phase are not only more common, but are also found in both riverine and interriverine settings. Kirks are likewise common in the coastal plain (Goodyear et al. 1979).

The two primary Middle Archaic phases found in the coastal plain are the Morrow Mountain and Guilford (the Stanly and Halifax complexes identified by Coe are rarely encountered). Our best information on the Middle Woodland comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work in the Little Tennessee River Valley. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and South Carolina, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued the intensive exploitation of the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups. The bulk of our data for this period, however, comes from work in the Uwharrie region of North Carolina.

The Woodland period begins by definition with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast (the introduction of pottery, and hence the beginning of the Woodland period, occurs much later in the Piedmont of South Carolina). It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about

2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) pottery (see Figure 11 for a synopsis of Woodland phases and pottery designations). The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia.

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235-236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens, small, sparse shell middens; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland, sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Coastal Plain, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base

camp" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1976). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina. The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32-33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

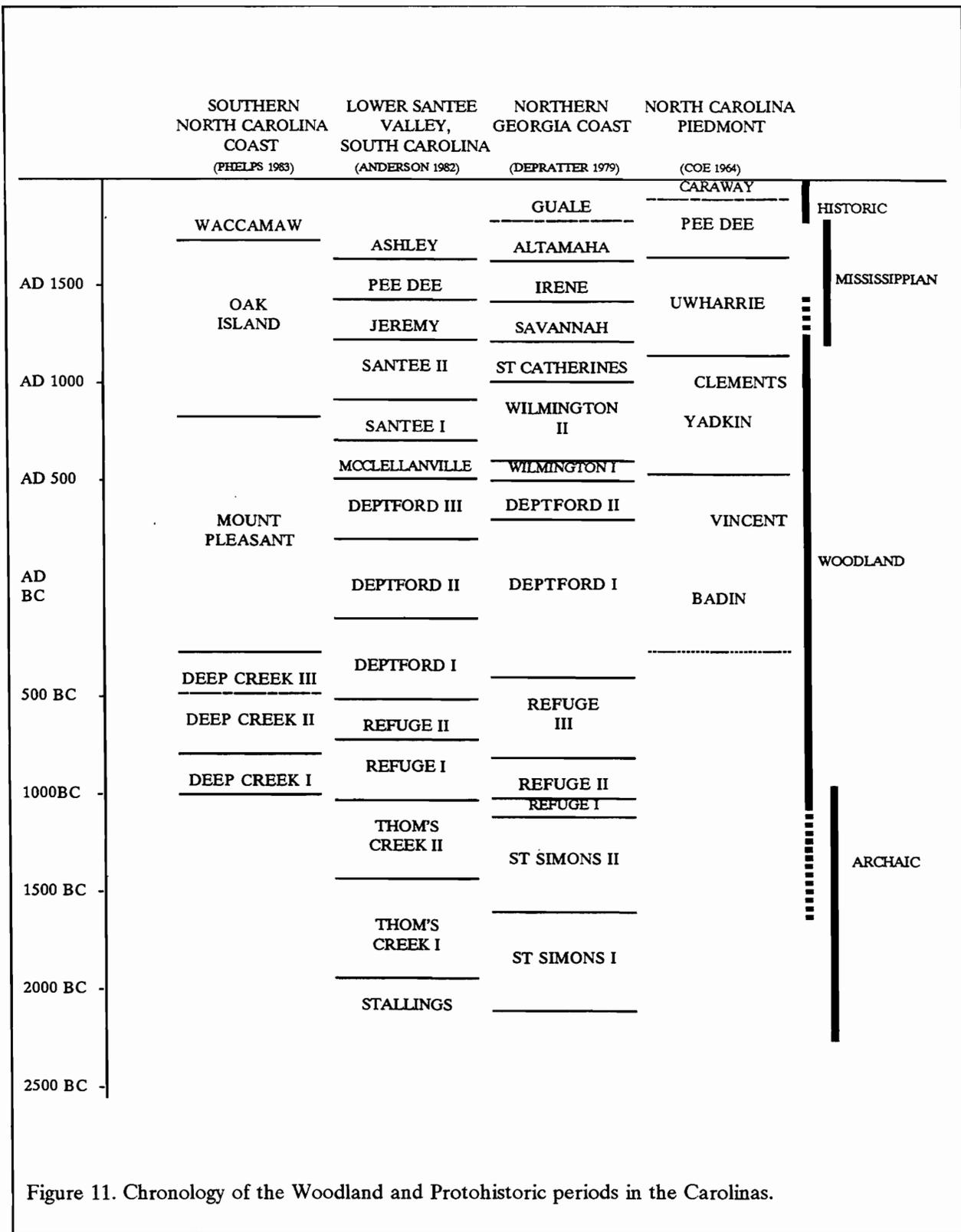


Figure 11. Chronology of the Woodland and Protohistoric periods in the Carolinas.

points (Coe 1964:110-111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are found.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25-26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Research at 38FL249 on the Roche Carolina tract in northern Florence County revealed an assemblage including Badin, Yadkin, and Wilmington wares (Trinkley et al. 1993:85-102). Anderson et al. (1982:299-302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example, rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle

Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1990:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The South Appalachian Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest phases include the Savannah and Pee Dee (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

### The Protohistoric Period

The principal secondary sources for the Native Americans of South Carolina are Mooney (1894), Hodge (1910), and Swanton (1952). Despite considerable investigation of the recognized primary sources, little can be added to these earlier, rather sketchy, accounts of the Pedee.

The first Native American groups to make contact with the English settlers and explorers were the "feeble and unwarlike coast tribes" (Gregorie

1926:8), such as the Cussoes, Wandos, Wineaus, Etiwans, and Sewees. The Pedee are first mentioned in 1711 when they formed a small part of Colonel John Barnwell's force against the Tuscarora in North Carolina (Milling 1969:118). Mooney (1894:76-77) notes that their village, in 1715, was situated on the east bank of the Pee Dee, probably in the vicinity of Marion County. A military map dating from 1715 shows the Pedees to be about 38 miles down river from the "Saraus" (Saras) and about 80 miles up river from the Atlantic Ocean. This would place the Pedee very close to their location shown by DeBrahm on his 1757 map.

By 1716 the Pedees were in a region called Saukey (thought by Swanton to be what is today Socatee) which was mentioned as a possible trading post or "factory" site (McDowell 1955:80). Several months later, however, the Indian Trade Commissioners abandoned Saukey in favor of Uauenee (or Great Bluff, today known as Yauhannah). It was observed that:

1st, its Vicinity to our English Plantations, will afford us News from thence, at all Times, by Land, within three or four Days, at most; whereas Saukey (the appointed Place) is much more remote; 2ndly, that Saukey being only covered by the Pedea's, is exposed to the Insults of the Charraws; 3rdly, that (besides the Interest it will be to us, in obliging the Wackamaws, a People of greater Consequence then the Pedees, by such a Settlement), Uauenee being contiguous to the Wackamaws, the most populous of those two Nations; so on the other Hand, 'tis the best seated for a general Concourse and frequent (McDowell 1944:111).

This passage, while ambiguous, suggests that Saukey was situated further north, perhaps along the Pee Dee River. But it is unlikely that it was at Socatee as suggested by Swanton.

During the early eighteenth century there was constant warfare between the southern and northern Indian groups, with a tremendous loss of life. An account in the British Public Records Office states:

Before the end of the said year [1716] we recovered the Charokees and Northward Indians after several Slaughters and Blood Sheddings, which has lessened their numbers and utterly Extirpating some little tribes as the Congarees, Santees, Seawees, Pedees, Waxhaws and some Corsaboys, so that by Warr, Pestilence and Civill Warr amongst themselves, the Charokess may be computed reduced to about 10,000 souls & the Northern Indians to about 2500 Souls (quoted in Mills 1972:223-224).

While it is possible that the Pedee suffered a severe reduction in population, it is clear from the historic accounts that some of their number survived. In February 1717 a Pedee, Tom West, came to Charleston to arrange a peace between the English and the Charraw (McDowell 1955:160, 176). Apparently the peace was not formed, or at least was short lived (McDowell 1955:209). Late in 1717 the Pedee appealed to the English not to move the trading post from Uauenee to the Black River (McDowell 1955:208).

At least as early as the 1740s some of the Pedee had joined with the Catawba in an uneasy confederation (Mooney 1894:77), while the remaining Pedee were classified as "Settlement Indians," living among the English (McDowell 1958:85, 166). Mooney reports that the Settlement Pedee joined in a variety of Anglo activities, even keeping black slaves (Mooney 1894:77). In 1752 the Catawba wrote Governor James Glen:

There are a great many Pedee Indians living in the Settlements that we want to come and settle amongst us. We desire you to

send for them and advise them to this, and give them this String of Wampum in Token that we want them to settle here, and will always live like Brothers with them. The Northern Indians want them all to settle with us, for as they are now at Peace they may be hunting in the Woods or stragling about killed by some of them except they join us and make but one Nation, which will be a great Addition of Strength to us (McDowell 1958:362).

While many of the remaining Pedee apparently joined the Catawba, it did not provide total protection. As late as 1753 the Northern Indians took at least one Pedee Indian slave during a "visit" to the Catawba area (McDowell 1958:388). In 1755 a Settlement Pedee was killed by the Notchee and Cherokee (Mooney 1894:77, 84).

De Brahm's "Map of South Carolina and a Part of Georgia," dated 1757 shows the "Peadea Indian Old Town" situated almost immediately east of the survey tract. By the time of Mouzon's "An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina" in 1775 no further evidence of the Pedee was shown.

The last mention of the Pedee comes from Ramsay's History of South Carolina:

Persons now living remember that there were about thirty Indians, a remnant of the Pedee and Cape Fear tribes that lived in the Parishes of St. Stephens and St. Johns. King John was their chief. There was another man among the same tribe who was called Prince. Governor Lyttelton give him a Commission of Captain General and Commander-in-Chief of the two tribes, which superseded Johnny. The latter took umbrage at the promotion of the former and attempted to kill him. There were some shots exchanged, but no mischief was

done. All this remnant of these ancient tribes are now extinct except for one woman of a half-breed (Ramsay 1808:Appendix II).

Swanton was able to determine little more than this about the Pedee, observing that no words survived. In spite of this, he attributed the Pedee to the Siouan linguistic stock, probably on the basis of their frequent identification with other, supposedly Siouan, groups.

No archaeological sites attributable to the Pedee have been identified and Swanton observed, "no village names are known apart from the tribal name, which was sometimes applied to specific settlements" (Swanton 1952:97). The presumed protohistoric remains in this region are essentially identical (at least in a gross sense) to those found elsewhere. They include small, triangular projectile points, often crudely made; complicated stamped pottery with motifs ranging from finely applied to crudely stamped; and diminutive ground stone celts. Protohistoric to historic Pedee villages, when found, are likely to be evidenced by a significant quantity of trade goods, including glass beads, copper bangles, guns or gun parts, tobacco pipes, iron hatchets and knives, and similar items.

The presence, and particularly the association, of these trade items may be of considerable importance. Work in North Carolina by Wilson (1984) has revealed that at Siouan sites the trade goods assemblage changes dramatically from the terminal seventeenth century through the early eighteenth century, with an increase in kitchen, arms, and tobacco artifacts and the replacement of beaded clothing by European fashions with buttons.

At the present, however, there is virtually nothing known of the Pedee Indians and their villages remain lost. The Pedee settlement which should be most easily identified based on period maps has received no professional attention, although there is some evidence that it has been looted by relic hunters.

**Historic Overview**

The area today known as Florence County received little attention until the Yemasee War of 1715 forced many of the Native Americans from the region, allowing a more aggressive settlement policy in the region below the fall line, termed the "lower middle country" (Brown 1963:2; see also Wallace 1951). From about 1715 to 1727 there was a period of tremendous lust for land, with the accompanying fraud so common to period politics. In 1730 Governor Robert Johnson began a policy of frontier settlement, hinged on the creation of 11 townships and intended to increase the number of small, white farmers. This increased settlement would provide protection from South Carolina's enemies from within (as the African American slaves were viewed) and from without (including both the Spanish and the Native Americans).

With the creation of Georgia, only nine of the proposed 11 townships were actually established. One of these was Queensborough, 20,000 acres situated on the east and west sides of the Pee Dee River (Figure 12). Although well east of survey tract, the Queensborough boundaries have frequently been extended to include a large portion of southern Florence County (see King 1981:5). While not strictly a township, the Welch Tract was another center of frontier settlement. Joining Queensborough on the northwest, the Welch Tract originated in 1736 and was settled by a colony of Welsh Baptists from Newcastle County, Pennsylvania (Wallace 1951:155).

Settlement in Queensborough was sporadic and limited, at least partially because the topography and soils were better suited to large plantations than to small farms. The rather limited high ground area was quickly obtained by a limited number of settlers (Merriwether 1940:89-90). One early settler in the Queensborough Township was Jacob Buckholt, a native of Prussia, who obtained two tracts in 1735 (Suzanne Linder, personal communication 1992). Buckholt apparently obtained several additional parcels on the Pee Dee in 1738 (S.C. Department of Archives and History, Mortgage Book B, p. 330, 410).

During this period the economy of the Pee

Dee was oriented toward both mixed agricultural production, supplying the needs of the Georgetown rice plantations (see Rogers 1970:27) and also to the cash crop of indigo (Rogers 1970:52-53; Suzanne Linder, personal communication 1992). King (1981:11) found that a resident of the Mars Bluff area, Malachi Murphy, offered 1800 acres, ideal for the planting of indigo, for sale in 1745.

Only certain areas of the low country could produce rice profitably. This limiting factor, coupled with the dramatic decline in rice prices in the 1720s (see Coclanis 1989:106), provided the incentives necessary for serious consideration of indigo by planters. The economic motive for indigo was clear. Carman noted:

Mr. Glen's account is that one acre of good land will produce 80 lb. and one slave may manage two acres and upwards, and raise provisions besides, and have all the winter months to saw lumber and be otherwise employed: 80 lb. at 3s., the present price, is 12£ per acre; and 2½ acres at that rate amount to 30£ per slave, besides lumber, which is very considerable: but I should observe, that there is much indigo being brought now from Carolina which sells in London for from 5s. to 8s. a pound, some even higher, though the chief part of the crop may not yield more than 3s. or 4s.; this will alter the average price (Carman 1939:281-290 [1775]).

Copenhaver (1930) suggests that a yield of 80 pounds per acre was high and a better average was 30 to 40 pounds per acre. Eight slaves could cultivate, harvest, and prepare the dye from a 40 acre plot -- with returns from 30¢ to \$2.25 per pound.

The industry also flourished because of its unusual advantages -- an indirect bounty, a protective tariff, and a monopoly on the British



market during the various wars which cut off access to the better Spanish and French indigo supplies (Sharrer 1971). Winberry also suggests that South Carolina's love affair with indigo ran hot and cold, unlike its commitment to rice. At the end of King George's War in 1748, many Carolina planters returned to rice. Indigo cultivation continued, but it was always of poor quality, typically the cheapest "copper indigo" quality. Carolina planters failed to pay close attention to the exacting requirements of processing, and the result was disastrous. According to Winberry, "importers also noticed that in many of the casks there was nothing but a black spongy substance producing a muddy effect, as if the indigo were mixed with soil" (Winberry 1979:248).

If processing was difficult, cultivation was fairly simple. The crop was planted from seed in middle April, with a preference for dry, loose soil typical of "hickory lands and pine barrens." The plant was harvested in late June or early July, immediately after it blossomed, by cutting it off at ground level. This allowed the roots to produce a second, and sometimes a third, crop before it was filled by frost.

The plants were hauled to the indigo vats and placed in a steeper made from pine or cypress planks measuring 16 feet square and 3½ to 5 feet deep. The plants were weighted down, covered with water, and allowed to ferment for 10 to 14 hours to remove the dye. The "liquor" was drained off to the wooden beating vats, which were typically 15 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 5 feet deep. There the solution was oxidized by beating. After visible precipitation began, limewater was added from the adjacent lime vat to aid coagulation of the dye. Agitation was continued for about an hour. Afterwards the liquid was drained from the vat and strained through woolen cloth to catch the dye. As Carman notes, "indigo has a very disagreeable smell, while making and curing; and the foeces, when taken out of the steeper, if not immediately buried in the ground (for which it is excellent manure) breeds incredible swarms of flies" (Carman 1939:288 [1775]).

The wet dye was carried to the curing shed where it was pressed to remove as much water as

possible and cut into cubes about 2 inches square. It was dried on trays in the shade, then placed in barrels with damp moss, where it was allowed to mold for several days. Afterwards it was brushed off and graded into four categories -- fine blue, ordinary blue, fine purple, and ordinary copper, the least desirable (Copenhagen 1930:895).

While geographically part of the "low country," the Florence and Pee Dee region was too remote and isolated from the seat of government in Charleston to feel the "taming influences of church and state" (King 1981:7). More to the point, however, there were a variety of serious complaints the Pee Dee region (as well as the rest of the "lower middle country") had with Charleston. In 1767 citizens of the region petitioned Charleston, noting:

Married Women have been ravished - virgins deflowered, and other unheard of cruelties committed by these barbarous Ruffians - who, by being let loose among us (and connived at) by the Acting Magistrates, have thereby reduced numbers of Individuals to Poverty (quoted in King 1981:7).

The region's repeated requests for assistance to stem the tide of lawlessness were rejected, creating a division between the wealthy planter elite of Charleston and the small farmers of the interior. In the wake of the broken trust the Regulator Movement was formed, the most significant vigilante movement in the pre-Revolutionary back country (see Brown 1963 for additional details). By the summer of 1768 the Regulators, to many, had become the criminals. A skirmish of shorts was fought in July 1768 between a group of Regulators, led by Gideon Gibson, and a band of constables intent upon restoring order. One of the constables was killed and several Regulators were wounded, with the battle a victory for the Regulators (Wallace 1951:226). Shortly afterward a second effort by Provost Marshall Roger Pinckney met similar, if not so severe, failure when the region's militia refused to take action (King 1981:9; Wallace 1951:226-227).

The establishment of judicial districts for the South Carolina back country in April 1768 offered some political stability for the region. What is today northern Florence County was placed in the Cheraws District (St. David's Parish), with court located at Long Bluff on the Pee Dee, near Society Hill. The southern part of Florence County, including the survey tract, remained in the Georgetown Judicial District of Prince Frederick Parish (Wallace 1951:166). Typical of the region's distrust of authority, Long Bluff quickly became known as a "resort of judges and lawyers" and in spite of this improvement in the political system, the residents still lacked free schools, adequate bridges and roads, and ordinances to provide for the safe navigation of the Pee Dee River.

In 1757 the white population of the region later to become Florence County was approximately 4300, while there were only about 500 black slaves. This predominance of white farmers was typical of the entire back country and, to some degree, exacerbated the differences between the low country and the back country. Certainly the back country was little concerned with world affairs during the last half of the eighteenth century. Instead, the region continued to turn inward, working to improve both land and river navigation. The first road in the region was the Cheraw-Georgetown stagecoach road, established in 1747, but it wasn't until 1768 that a public ferry across the Pee Dee was established on James Welch Tract property (King 1981:18).

Mouzon's map (Figure 13) reveals only two property owners in the project area — Harrison and Courtney, both on the east side of Sparrow Swamp. Although the map, fails to reveal any road network in this area, it seems likely that these houses were associated with a road running along the eastern edge of the swamp.

In fact, the South Carolina Provincial Congress sent William H. Drayton into the region in 1774 to explain to the rural population how badly they were being treated by England and engender support for the growing revolutionary movement (King 1981:19). From the beginning of the war until about 1780 the American Revolution in the Pee Dee region was little more than a civil

war, with occasional desultory raids by Whig and Tory factions. In 1780 this changed, as the British sought to "Americanize" the war, bringing it to the South and encouraging "local participation" using large numbers of Tories. At first the strategy was very successful, with Charleston falling in mid-1780 and Camden falling later that same year.

In an effort to consolidate their hold on South Carolina, the British, under Major General James Wemyss, took up a savage war in the South Carolina back country. Ostensively to destroy local resistance, and particularly to isolate and neutralize General Francis Marion, Wemyss marched through the back country, leaving a trail of destruction 15 miles wide and 70 miles long. Many of the plantations shown on the 1775 Mouzon map were likely destroyed by Wemyss (King 1981:23; Rankin 1973:79). This proved to be a mistake, as it encouraged even more aggressive resistance to British military rule. Marion relentlessly attacked British lines of communication, camping at Snow Island (at the confluence of Lynches and Pee Dee rivers).

While the Revolutionary history of the Florence area is complex, it is well documented by King (1981) and Rankin (1973). Only four notable engagements were fought in the region (although most of the action consisted of maneuvers and partisan activities). These include the capture of Snow Island by British troops in March of 1781, the engagement at Witherspoon's Ferry that same month, a skirmish at Black Creek, and the Lynches Creek Massacre (Lipscomb 1991). None of these, however, are in the immediate survey area.

By September 1781 the British abandoned the back country, fleeing to Charleston and fighting in the Pee Dee region ended with the June 1782 surrender of Tory forces. On December 14, 1782 the British evacuated Charleston, ending the southern campaign of the American Revolution.

The transition from war to peace appears to have come rapidly to the Pee Dee region. Prince Frederick Parish, the political subdivision of Georgetown District which then encompassed the study area, sustained the majority of war activity. Yet by 1790 the Parish contained 3500 whites and

4500 slaves, figures which Rogers (1970:158-169) interprets to show that social and economic recovery after the Revolution was reasonably rapid.

Shortly after the Revolution efforts were again made to make the political divisions of the region more responsive. In 1785 the new districts of Marlboro, Chesterfield, Darlington, and Marion were created, with Marion called Liberty Precinct until 1795. Modern Florence County was contained within Marion, Darlington, and Marlboro districts, with the survey vicinity part of Darlington (see Stauffer 1994).

The period from about 1784 until 1860 is characterized a maturing of the economic and, especially, agricultural potential of the region. By 1820 the Pee Dee had been made navigable up to Cheraw and it was noted that:

cotton has been carried from Chatham [Cheraw Hill] and Society Hill to Georgetown fort seventy-five cents the bale; whereas it could not be carried the same distance by land for less than two dollars, or by water by the former navigation for less than one dollar and twenty-five cents (Kohn 1938:85).

The Pee Dee continued to be the major transportation route until the arrival of the railroads in the late 1840s and early 1850s. Land transport continued to be unreliable at best and life threatening at worst.

Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 (Figure 14) fails to show any subscribers in the project area. His map also fails to reveal any road system in this area, although it is almost certain that a road had been built paralleling the eastern edge of Sparrow Swamp. An 1833 plat shows this road (Darlington County Plat Book 1, page 229) and by 1840 it was apparently known as the Sparrow Swamp Road (Darlington County Plat Book 1, page 111).

By 1820 Darlington District had a population of 10,949, of which over 40%, or 4,473, were African American slaves. Compared to the

1800 census, there was a fairly significant increase in the proportion of black slaves in the district, probably the result of an increasing emphasis on cotton (Mills 1972:515, 623 [1826]). Mills notes that the swamps, if properly drained, yield the most valuable lands, bringing upwards of \$40 to \$60 an acre (still far below the \$100 an acre demanded for prime Georgetown rice lands). Vast amounts of the creek swamps, however, were classed as waste lands since no efforts had been made to either drain and reclaim them. These tracts were most often used as cattle ranges or for timber, continuing practices that was common in the low country during the early eighteenth century, but abandoned as the region began to emphasize cash crops (Mills 1972:512-513, 519 [1826]).

The proportion of African-American slaves continued to increase in the Darlington-Florence area. By 1850 slaves accounted for nearly 68% of the total population (DeBow 1854:302). The district had 857 farms, accounting for a total of 663,570 acres. The average farm size was 774 acres, of which about 144 acres were improved. Darlington was the ninth largest grower of cotton, producing 13,005 bales, for an average of about 15 bales per farm (DeBow 1854:306).

Florence in some ways was better treated by the Civil War than it had been by the Revolution. The Pee Dee Rifles were created in July 1861 and joined as Company D of the First South Carolina Regiment, as well as the Pee Dee Light Artillery (King 1981:46). In November 1862 a site just above the Wilmington and Manchester Railroad was selected by the Confederate Navy for the Pee Dee Navy Yard. One of the three completed vessels of this yard was the CSS Pee Dee, which was scuttled March 1865. King reports that the propellers of the gunboat were "salvaged" in 1926 while the hull was removed from the Pee Dee River in the 1950s. When it failed as a tourist attraction in the Florence area it was moved to the South of the Border Complex near Dillon (King 1982:55-56). Still unsuccessful as a tourist attraction, these remains were apparently destroyed during the construction of I-95 (Hartley n.d.).

The closest the war ever got to Florence

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED PROJECT INDIGO TRACT

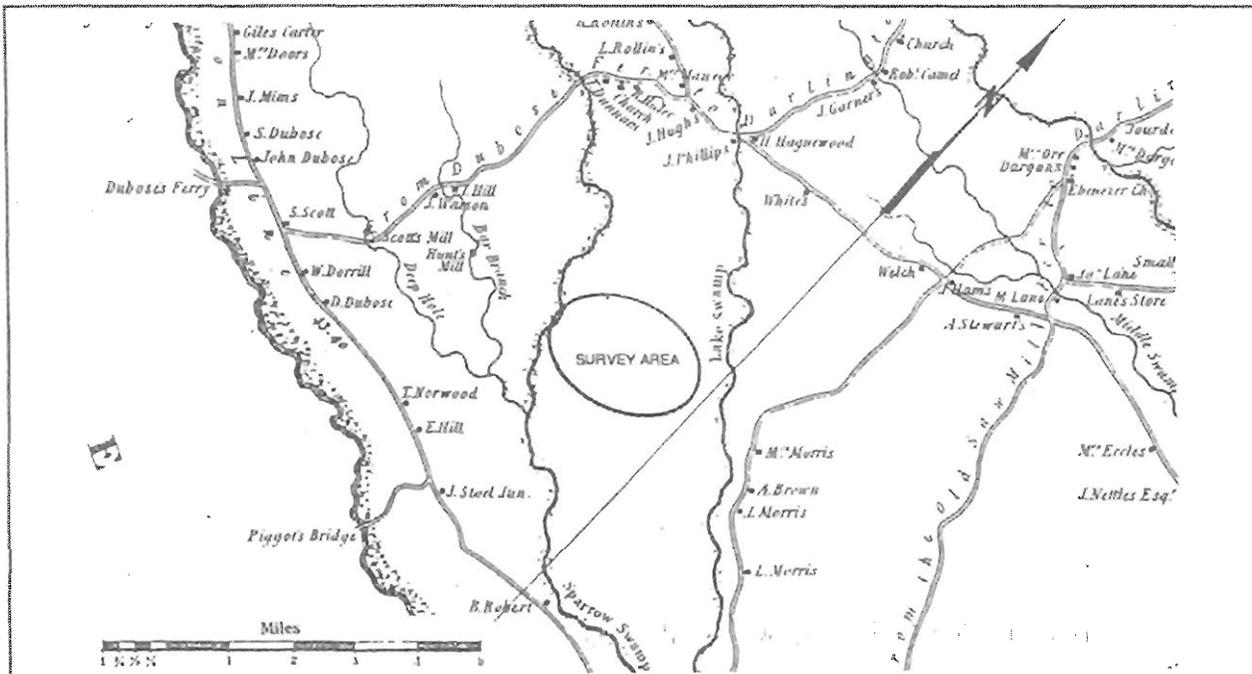


Figure 14. Portion of Mills' 1826 map of Darlington District showing the Sparrow and Lake Swamp area.

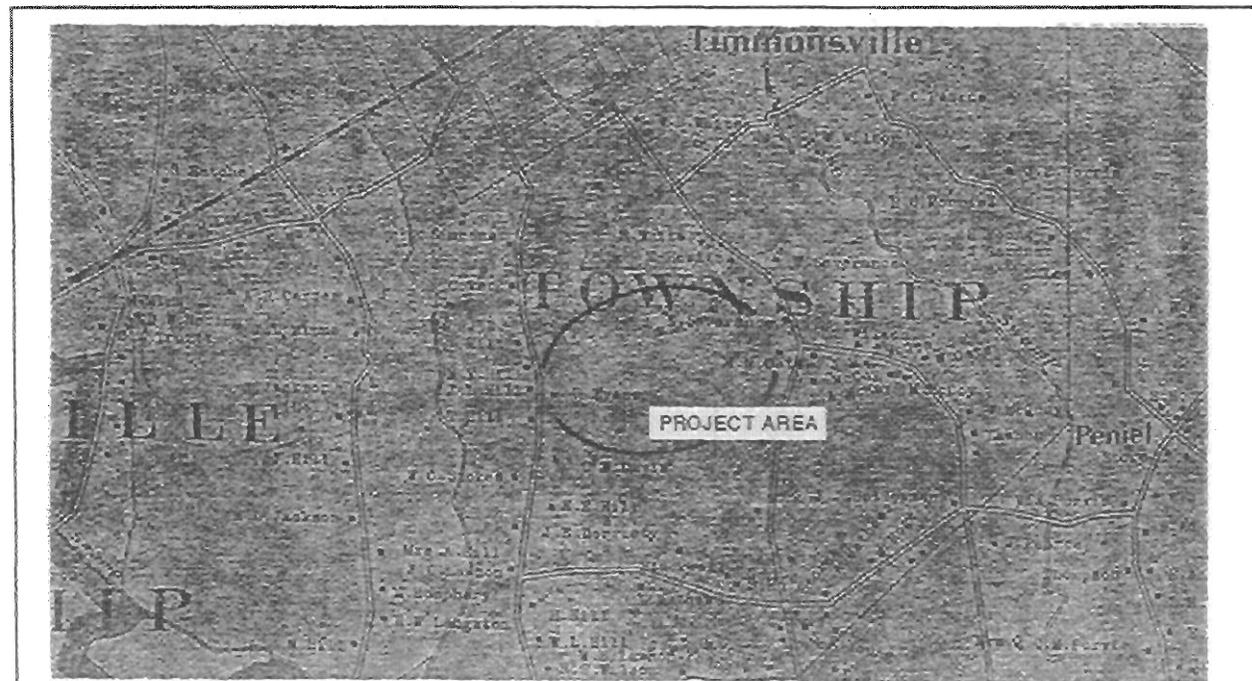


Figure 15. A portion of the 1913 Adams and Ervin "Map of Florence County, S.C."

September 1864. Widely recognized as comparable to Andersonville in brutality and cruelty, the camp functioned for only five months before the advancing Union army necessitated its abandonment. At least 2800 Union soldiers, or about 560 a month, died at the 24 acre camp (King 1974).

Sherman's troops passed to the northwest of Florence, leaving the town and the Pee Dee region little worse for the experience. Eventually, the 167th New York Infantry occupied Florence, ensuring at least in the short term its reconstruction (King 1982:60). In spite of military occupation, violence was typical during the reconstruction period and Florence saw considerable Klan activity into the early twentieth century.

Farmers in the Florence area, like elsewhere in South Carolina, experimented with wage labor immediately after the Civil War. Faced with uncertainty, but the need to begin planting immediately, many accepted the wage labor solution begun by the Union Army and latter espoused by the Freedman's Bureau. To support the wage system no less than seven major types of contracts were used by Southern planters (see Sholmowitz 1979). This system, however, was doomed to failure, being disliked by both the Freedmen, who found it too reminiscent of slavery, and the plantation owners, who found that it gave the Freedmen too much liberty. In response to both the Freedman's Bureau and the growing freedom the blacks, the South Carolina legislature passed the Black Codes in September 1865. These extended the restrictions placed on blacks and, in Charles Orser's words, "the Black Code had established what whites wanted for blacks: a nominal freedom that would lead them to a new kind of slavery" (Orser 1988:50).

Beginning in 1887 there was a growing sentiment for the creation of a new county. A pamphlet arguing the cause from the perspective of those in adjacent Marion District explained:

The foremost and most powerful reason is, that Marion - a county possessing the area of Rhode

Island, and three-fifths that of Delaware - is divided in two by the Great Pee Dee River. The court house is in the eastern portion, the people in the western portion are thus not only remote from the county seat, even if access were easy, but access is attained only by penetrating the dense river swamp . . . by perilous and roundabout roads, so called, and crossing the stream by ferries, there being no bridges, public or private . . . . To go from west Marion to the court house, involves two days in traveling, besides spending the night at a Marion hotel (Evans 1888:1).

It further explained that as trade from western Marion County began to desert Marion, it turned to the City of Florence:

...a town which has spring up where 30 years ago there was seen an unbroken forest. The junction there of three important (and completed) railroads first give it an impetus (Evans 1888:2).

Florence was created as a county that same year — 1888 — carved out of neighboring Marion, Darlington, and Marlboro counties.

The creation of the new county began what King (1981) calls an era of "boasterism," loudly proclaiming the benefits of Florence. One example is the advertisement of Florence County at the 1895 Atlanta Cotton Exposition:

. . . situated as she is, the great railroad center of eastern South Carolina, surrounded by lands which produce corn, wheat, rye, oats, tobacco, rice, sugarcane, cotton, potatoes, onion, and vegetables of all kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, grapes, berries, melons in profusion,

whose forests contain most of the woods of commerce, with water power and easy access to fuel for manufacturing, Florence County presents an inviting field for investment and immigration (quoted in King 1981:168).

This advertisement is interesting since it begins the promotion of tobacco in Florence County, as well as encourages immigration.

Tobacco was a growing concern during this period, with the first tobacco growers association formed in 1895. Tobacco was referred to "Our Nicotiana Tobacum - Pearl of the Pee Dee." That same year there were 139 tobacco growers, with most planing around 5 acres and the largest planting only 40 acres (King 1981:170). By the mid-1890s the average profit on an acre of tobacco was \$150 to \$200 an acre, well over the \$10 an acre provided by cotton.

Acreage increased from about 1200 acres in 1891 to over 4400 acres just a year later, in 1892. Pee Dee tobacco production grew at an even more fantastic rate in the first decade of the twentieth century, with the acreage increasing from 25,000 to 98,000 acres. Table 2 indicates that Florence participated in the gradual recovery of cotton after the Civil War, only to evidence the decline in 1930 resulting from the boll weevil and the depression. Tobacco, in contrast, held strong.

Coupled with the increased planting of tobacco were efforts to bring tobacco markets to South Carolina. The first tobacco warehouse auction in South Carolina was organized by Frank Rodgers in 1890 at his Florence Tobacco Manufacturing and Warehouse Company. Even this first auction was a social event, with 300 persons attending. Other businessmen and investors followed this lead and a number of warehouses were established in the Pee Dee<sup>1</sup>. These warehouses were visible indications of prosperity and progress and often the buildings

<sup>1</sup> At the height of bright leaf production there were 77 markets in 29 towns across South Carolina.

Table 2.  
Cotton and Tobacco in Florence County  
from 1900 through 1930

Year	Cotton		Tobacco	
	acres	lbs	acres	lbs
1900	37,966	17,707	3,961	2,995,410
1910	56,590	36,062	5,052	4,362,338
1920	59,768	38,797	17,060	11,991,883
1930	31,253	11,259	25,201	19,221,611

were financed by joint stock companies composed of local citizens hoping to cash in on this new wealth. One such warehouse in Florence was described:

It is a handsome structure, having a floor space 60 by 100 feet, and this is lighted by twenty large ground glass skylights. In front is a two-story brick structure, 40 by 50 feet in size, containing the offices. It has large sliding doors on all sides and is equipped with the latest improved trucks, etc. (*The State*, August 30, 1895).

Farmers brought their tobacco to these warehouses from mid-July through September. The tobacco was weighed and stacked in long rows on the floor for sale, with the auctions being memorable social events, often compared to fairs. When the auctions were over, the buildings continued to be a focal point in the community, being used for political rallies, tobacco exhibits, and social events.

This last decade of the nineteenth century marked the culmination of 30 years of effort to remove blacks for the political process and to re-assert white supremacy. The 1895 South Carolina Constitutional Convention almost totally disenfranchised blacks and the Federal government's retreat from its duty to protect the freedom of black citizens was symbolized by the 1896 Supreme Court decision of Plessy v. Ferguson which established the doctrine of "separate but equal." The Ku Klux Klan remained active in Florence County well into the 1920s, with the 1923 Confederate Veteran's Reunion in 1923 marking

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS



Figure 16. Project area shown on the 1914 "Soil Survey of Florence County, South Carolina."

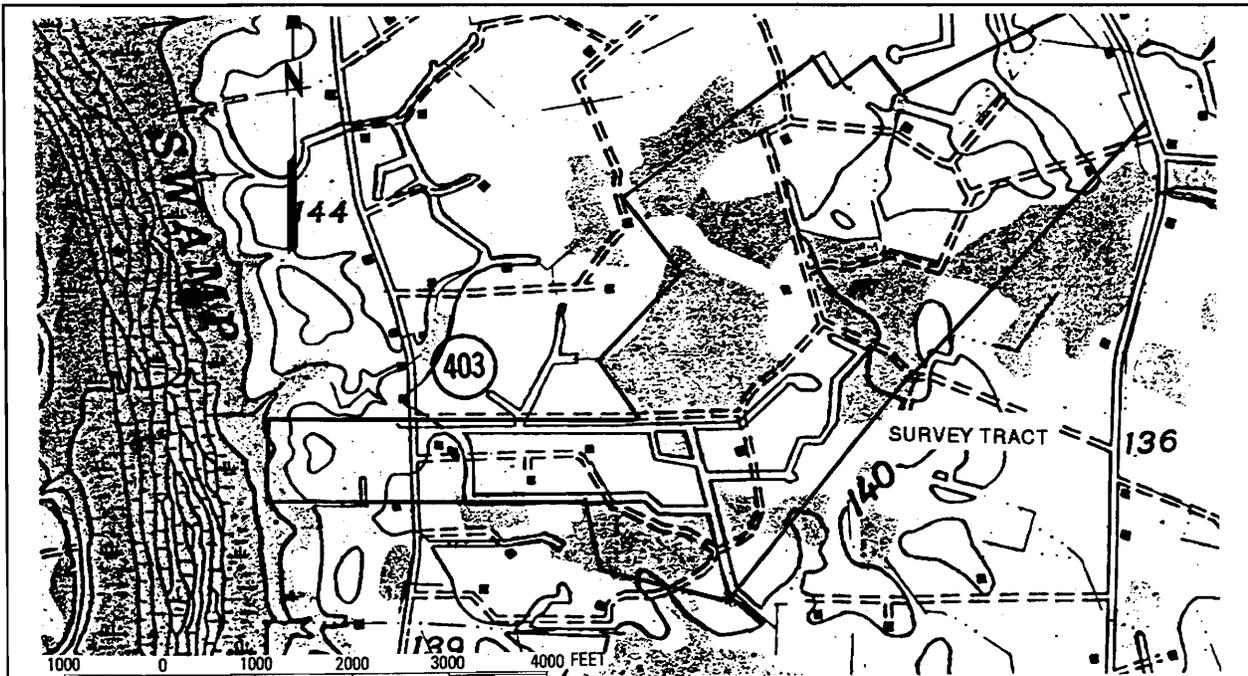


Figure 17. Portion of the 1940 Florence West 15' topographic map showing the survey tract.

the climax of their activity (King 1981:331).

Being unable to vote in elections, an increasing number of Florence County blacks "voted with their feet," leaving Florence and South Carolina for the north. This exodus spurred many to encourage immigration into the region, in order to replenish the work force. In spite of this, by 1923 upwards of 100 blacks a month were leaving Florence.

In the most simple of terms, two types of tenancy existed in the South — sharecropping and renting. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay the landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required the tenant to pay a fix rent in either crops or money. While similar, there were basic differences, perhaps the most significant of which was that the sharecropper was simply a wage laborer who received his portion of the crop from the plantation owner, while the renter paid his rent to the landlord.

Further distinctions can be made between sharecropping, share-renting, and cash-renting (see Table 3). With sharecropping the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the necessary fertilizer, while the landlord supplied everything else, including the land, housing, tools, work animals, feed, and seed. At harvest the crop would be divided, usually equally. In share-renting the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer, while the tenant supplied everything else necessary, including the animals, feed, seed, and tools. At harvest the crop was divided equal to the portion of fertilizer each party provided. Finally, with cash-renting the landlord supplied the land and the housing, while the tenant supplied everything else. The owner

Table 3.  
Systems of Tenure

	Share-Cropping	Share Renting	Cash Renting
Landlord furnishes:	land housing fuel tools work stock seed half of fertilizer feed for stock	land housing fuel $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ fertilizer	land housing fuel
Tenant furnishes:	labor half of fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ fertilizer	labor work stock feed for stock tools seed fertilizer
Landlord receives:	$\frac{1}{2}$ of crop	$\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ of crop	fixed amount in cash or lint cotton
Tenant receives:	$\frac{1}{2}$ of crop	$\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ of crop	entire crop less fixed amount

received a fixed rent per acre in cash.

Agee et al. provide some general information on agricultural activities during the early twentieth century, observing that:

Farms operated by tenants are usually devoted mainly to the production of cotton, corn, and tobacco. The ordinary yield of cotton on such farms is a little over one-half bale per acre, while that of corn is about 16 bushels. These yields could easily be increased, as is demonstrated by the better farmers, who obtain 1 bale to 2 bales of cotton and 40 to 60 bushels of corn per acre. . . . About 65 per cent of the farms are operated by tenants. . . . The ordinary yield of tobacco in the county is somewhat over 800 pounds per acre. The price has averaged about 14 cents per pound (Agee et al. 1916:9).

By the late 1920s the boll weevil was reaching Florence County and one newspaper editorial reported that the weevil had "put a stop to the lazy man's crop," and that now planting took "brains, money, hard work, and poison to raise cotton hereabouts these days" (quoted in King 1981:338).

Florence County is within the Atlantic Coastal Plain of the Cotton Region, while further to the west (and encompassing most of the South Carolina) was the Black Belt (Woofter 1936). The Atlantic Coastal Plain was characterized by medium sized plantations, while the Black Belt was the heart of the South's oldest Southern cotton plantations. As a consequence of these historical differences the two regions developed distinctively different forms of tenancy.

There was little difference in owner wealth between the two areas and the difference in net income per average plantation (\$5,343 compared to \$3,087) is partially the result of the smaller average plantation size in the Black Belt. There was considerable difference in the net income of tenants in the two areas. In the Atlantic Coastal Plain croppers averaged \$255 and share-renters averaged \$426 a year. The tenants in the Black Belt fared far worse, averaging \$127 for croppers and \$106 for share-renters. In addition, the tenancy rates varied from about 60% in the Atlantic Coastal Plain to 74% in the Black Belt. The Atlantic Coastal Plain tenancy system, however, had a high percentage of wage tenants (10.7%) than did the Black Belt (1.8%).

Florence County was in most respects typical of these findings. The tenancy rate in 1930 was about 66%, slightly higher than the region, but below that typical of the Black Belt. On the other hand, wage renters comprised fully a quarter of the tenants. Florence had nearly equal numbers of white and black tenants — 1927 white tenants (51.6%) and 1807 black tenants (48.4%) in 1930. Yet the white tenants farmed 101,185 acres compared to the blacks' 63,047 acres, suggesting a disproportionate distribution of agricultural wealth.

Figure 17 shows the project area in late 1930s and early 1940s. Ten structures are shown on

this map in the project area. Although not reproduced here, the 1938 General Transportation and Highway map for Florence County offers very similar information. In addition, it reveals that just south of the project area, on S-106, were two schools. Both were called Center School, although one was for whites and the other for blacks. At the intersection of S-106 and another dirt road was a gin, while to the southwest, on S-38, a grist mill was still operating.

### Project Specific History

Historical research for the project area was hindered by the small size and relatively large number of tracts which comprise the survey area. The tract consists of 10 different parcels, shown on Florence County Tax Map 035 as Parcels 1-5 and 14 and Florence County Tax Map 036 as Parcels 2, 4, and 20. The sizes ranged from under an acre to slightly over 200 acres.

Given the limited time a decision was made to explore the specific titles of only two parcels, specifically Parcel 14 on Tax Map 035 and Parcel 20 on Tax Map 036. Combined, these today account for approximately 300 acres according to the Florence County Tax Assessor, or about 60% of the study tract. Initially, we hoped that the properties might converge into one title, simplifying the research. Such, however, was not going to be the case.

In fact, we found that it was impossible to extend the titles back past the Civil War. Not only that, but these tracts further fragmented into smaller parcels.

We identified some evidence that much of the general area was owned by various Hills at least as early as about 1830, although the tracts were generally not large, typically under 1,000 acres. Through time it appears that these tracts were significantly reduced in size, likely through division among children.

Table 4 and 5 show the chains of title which could be developed. Parcel 20 through much of its early history was apparently Hill property, being owned by James Hill. It appears to have

Table 4.  
Chain of Title for Parcel 20 on Tax Map 035

Florence County Industrial Loan and Development Commission			
↑ (1966, 213a) Mary Jones Lockhart			
↑ (1946, 216a) Wallace R. Jones			
↑ (1945, 216a) Maggie D. Hill (wife of Jesse L. Hill)			
↑ (his rights) B. Leon Hill			
↑ (will) Jesse L. Hill			
↑ (1895, 40a) W.T. Hill	↑ (1900, 62a) John McSween	↑ (1904, 88a) Annie R. White	↑ (1888, 42a) W.T. Hill Silas P. Hill John McSween Anna L. Davis
⋮		↑ (1901, 88a) J.A. Banks	
⋮		↑ (1898, 88a) R. McLeuden, Sheriff (J.W. McCown v. M.E. Westberry)	⋮ Thomas Hill
Thomas Hill		↑ (1884, 88a) W.J. Westberry	
		↑ (1884, 88a) Sarah W. Hunter	
		⋮	
		William Journigan	
		↑ James Hill	

not clear if this individual was related to the earlier James Hill). The tract stayed in the Hill family until 1945 when it passed to Wallace R. James.

Parcel 14 could be traced back only to the late nineteenth century, when about a third was in the estate of Annie Lawhorn. It was eventually acquired by W.B. White in 1937. The other two thirds of the tract were acquired by White sometime prior to 1944, but no deed could be identified. It is likely that it, too, was acquired from a family member, but time did not allow detailed probate records searches.

Perhaps representative of the planters owning parcels in the project area at the time of the Civil War was Thomas Hill who died in 1868 (Darlington County Will Book 11, page 165). Even after the ravages of the war and its associated economic upheavals, it appears that Hill managed to keep his small land holdings intact and productive. The first inventory and appraisal of his estate, conducted in December 1868 reported 12 head of cattle, nine hogs, one horse, one mule, and four geese. Plantation equipment included a set of blacksmith tools, a set

passed out of the family sometime around the Civil War, as several deeds refer to its ownership by William Journigan — an individual who fails to appear in either the Florence or Darlington indexes. It was also possible to document that at least 126 acres of this tract was owned by Thomas Hill, either just before or just after the Civil War. By the early twentieth century much had been re-assembled under the ownership of Jesse Hill (it is

of carpentry tools, a cross-cut saw, spades, shovels, pitch forks, axes, plows, rakes, a two-horse wagon, a buggy and harness, a horse cart, and a saddle and bridle.

Agricultural produce included 150 bushels of corn, potatoes and potato plantings, cotton seed, seed cotton, and peas in the hull. Household furnishings included five tables, two clocks, books,

a looking glass, a shot gun, three beds, pots and cooking utensils, fire dogs, a smoothing iron, crockery, tinware, knives, forks, spoons, a loom, two spinning wheels and a reel. Also itemized was 300 pounds of salted pork, probably purchased as rations for the hands on the farm.

The total value of Thomas Hill's personal estate was placed at \$998.50 (John McSween v. J.P. Hill et al., Court of Common Pleas, Darlington County). Nearly half of this wealth (\$410), however, was tied up in livestock. Another \$233 was tied up in crops. Consequently, Thomas Hill's household appears rather modest — suggested by the presence of fairly simple "crockery" and "tinware."

The historical research gives the impression that the farms in this section of Florence County were small, with the farmers striving to achieve middle class. Certainly there does not seem to be any evidence of great wealth or large slave holdings.

Toward the end of the field project a gentleman by the name of Son James stopped by and explained that he had moved into the survey area when he was 10 years old, living at one of the tenant houses identified in our survey (and also shown on Figure 17). He pointed out the site where his grandfather had died, and was also aware of a number of the other houses present in the area. He also spoke of a road, no longer present, but which is clearly shown on the 1940 topographic map (Figure 17). He has very clear memories of "Hoover Days," as well as planting in the project area. Although no formal interview was conducted, Mr. James can provide an exceptional oral history of the project area, dramatically expanding the interpretative potential of both documentary history and archaeological research.

**Previous Archaeological Studies and Research Orientation**

The Inner Coastal Plain has received relatively little archaeological attention. For example, the only major surveys conducted in the Florence County area are the 1984 investigation of 2700 acre Santee Cooper Pee Dee Electrical

Table 5. Chain of Title for Parcel 14 on Tax Map 036	
Florence County Industrial Loan and Development Commission	
↑ (1966, 114a) Corbett A. White	
↑ (1944, 131a) W.B. White	
↑ (1937, 43a) Annie R. White	↑ (? , ca. 88a) ?
↑ (1911, 36a) Wm. Young & Rosa Young	
↑ (?) estate lands of Annie Lawhorn	

Generating Station (Taylor 1984), the 1,400 acre Roche Carolina facility (Trinkley and Adams 1992) and the recent investigation of about 500 acres for the proposed Honda facility (Trinkley 1997).

This survey work has produced a fairly well defined model of prehistoric and historic site locations for the Florence area. Prehistoric sites tend to occur in two principal settings: on bluff edges and along swamp tributaries. Relatively few prehistoric sites are found on intermittent drainages or in upland areas. Most sites are also found on relatively well drained soils. Historic sites tend to be associated either with the bluff or swamp edges (especially early) or with the developing road network (especially in the nineteenth century) or in cultivated fields (during the twentieth century).

Although the previous work has allowed a fairly well developed locational model, there is very little data away from the major drainages — such as in the current survey area. Also lacking in the data base for Florence County are well documented excavations of prehistoric sites. The only such detailed report is that produced as part of the data recovery efforts for the Roche Carolina tract, where an Early Archaic through Middle Woodland site was excavated (Trinkley et al. 1993). In fact, there are actually very few excavation

reports available for any Inner Coastal Plain prehistoric sites.

There is likewise relatively little historical archaeology from this region, the most notable exception again being the recent investigations at the Roche Carolina tract (Trinkley et al. 1993). There are, however, a few studies from other areas which are essential to the formulation of a research context.

Excavations at a manager's site (38BK397), situated on Daniels Island in Berkeley County on the Lower Coastal Plain, revealed an occupation from about 1899 through about 1907. The site, while plowed, appeared to be relatively intact and offered the opportunity to explore yard proxemics utilizing the research of the Richland/Chambers project (Raab 1983; Jurney et al. 1983) where evidence of yard cleaning, accumulation of debris in specific areas, and activity area differentiation was possible. Adams (1980), from excavations at the late nineteenth century Waverly Plantation, also found evidence of patterning, with a very low artifact distribution near structures. The surface data from 38BK397 failed to reveal any recognizable patterns, although the excavated data revealed what the authors term a "diffusion-from-the-center" pattern, with the density decreasing as collection units become more distant from the structure (Brockington et al. 1985:228). The highest artifact density is encountered under the house, with moderately dense deposits found in the near back and side yards.

Similar analysis of yard trash associated with a late nineteenth-early twentieth century tenant site in Horry County (38HR131), also situated on the Lower Coastal Plain, revealed somewhat similar patterns of trash disposal (Trinkley and Caballero 1983a). Concentrations were found on either side of the house, with a specific trash dump identified in the rear far yard of the structure. Since the structure was standing at the time of the work it was not possible to examine under the house or porch for artifact density. Work by McBride (1984) also found that late nineteenth and early twentieth century low status sites in Barton, Mississippi tended to have refuse scattered in the near yard, declining in density in the far

yard areas (typically 30 feet or so).

Although not a major theme of their research Zierden et al. (1986) explored several additional tenant assemblages on Daniels Island in the Lower Coastal Plain. One of the more interesting discoveries was that at both sites the percentage ratio of container glass to utilitarian ceramics was between 23 and 26% to about 3%, compared to earlier nineteenth century ratios of 2 - 4% to 9 - 18%, clearly distinguishing the sites from both planter and slave (Zierden et al. 1986:7-13). Curiously, this same preponderance of glass was found at piedmont tenant sites by Trinkley and Caballero (1983b), where the shift away from coarse earthenwares was explained by the decline in glass prices during the last several decades of the nineteenth century and the early twentieth century.

Of the few tenant sites explored in the vicinity is 38SU81 (Trinkley et al. 1985). Here test excavations revealed a dense late nineteenth and early twentieth century settlement (pre-dating 1924, when the site is documented to have been abandoned). The excavated assemblage revealed 77.8% of the collection was kitchen related, with only 10.7% being architectural. Activity related artifacts account for an additional 10.0% of the assemblage. Glassware accounted for 49.3% of the Kitchen Artifact Group and 38.3% of the total assemblage, while ceramics accounts for only 24.1% of the Kitchen Group or 18.4% of the total assemblage. It's not clear whether the difference between the proportion of ceramics and glass at this site compared to the Daniel Island research is affected by its geographic location, social status, or perhaps temporal span. Nevertheless, it does reveal the exceptional amount of research which is still necessary at these sites. Flatwares accounted for 92.3% of the identifiable whitewares, with hollowwares accounting for 4.6% of the collection.

Kennedy et al. (1991) explored the difference between two structures on Hilton Head Island in Beaufort County, South Carolina (38BU966 and 38BU967) — one belonging to a small African American land owner and the other associated with a black who was probably a cash-renter. Both dated from the last decade of the

nineteenth century into the first decade of the twentieth century. Not surprisingly, they found recognizable differences in the artifact assemblage of the two sites, with the owner site evidencing more ceramic sets, a larger minimum number of individual ceramics, a greater diversity of ceramic forms and types, and an overall higher artifact frequency. Perhaps of more interest is that both sites exhibited a low incidence of hollow vessels (such as bowls) in favor of plates. This seems to suggest that these black farmers were forsaking the one-pot stews so common in slavery -- indicative of a basic change in foodways. Examination of the floral and faunal remains is less convincing, with the floral remains indicating primarily domesticates, while the faunal remains suggesting a diet of both domesticates (primarily pig) and wild animals (Kennedy et al. 1991:126). Tin cans, indicative of processed foods, are nearly absent.

While not specifically dealing with tenancy, two reports are worthy of special mention because of their comparative value. One is the research conducted at the freedmen site of Mitchelville (38BU805) on Hilton Head Island (Trinkley 1986), which provides a baseline for immediate post slavery freedmen settlement, subsistence, status, and artifact pattern studies. Spanning the period from about 1863 through about 1890, the site offers a unique view of how slaves were transformed into wage earners, owners, or tenants. Another equally significant, albeit brief, study is that of the Midway slave settlement in Georgetown County (also on the Lower Coastal Plain of South Carolina). At this site Smith (1986) examined a small sample of slave settlement occupied from at least the last decade before the Civil War until about 1890. Consequently, the site spans almost equal periods of slavery and freedom, offering an assemblage somewhat akin to Mitchelville, but not organized around an "urban" concept. The Millwood data, in fact, may be similar to the work gang system used by plantation owners immediately after the Civil War. While not emphasizing the transitional nature of the collection, Smith (1986:53) does observe that the resulting artifact pattern "appears to be unusual."

From Florence County, research at 38FL240 provided an opportunity to explore the

transition from slavery to tenancy at an interior settlement. In comparison with low country slave sites, the Gibson Plantation shows no improvement -- the artifacts are sparse and the assemblage is impoverished; the dwelling investigated is even more cramped than those on the coast; the diet reflects the same monotonous regimen of pork probably supplemented with corn meal. Since there seems to be good evidence that the effects of slavery were at least slightly ameliorated by the wealth and success of the master, it seems likely that slavery was even more overpowering at interior plantations since wealth was concentrated on the coast. The study also suggested that the diet of the freedmen on the plantation did not dramatically improve and, in fact, it appeared to get more monotonous, with less diversity in the foods present. There still was little opportunity, even in freedom, to supplement the diet with the range of wild plant and animal foods present near the site. While the diversity and quantity of artifacts slowly increased, what was most noticeable is how many of the artifacts of slavery seem to quickly drop out of the assemblage as the freedmen turned their backs on them.

Consequently, edged and annular wares are a small percentage of the assemblage, bowls are quickly replaced by plates, more elaborate clothing and personal items are found. Other signs of freedom include a greater effect on the landscape and a gradually increasing diversity in housing forms and features. One of the most interesting features is the low incidence of tobacco related items on the sites, even when the effects of cigarettes and chewing tobacco are factored in. It is suggested that tobacco might also have been strongly associated with slavery and may be another symbol of the past rejected by the freedmen.

While conducted in the piedmont, rather than the coastal plain, the efforts by Joseph et al. (1991) at the Finch Farm (38SP101) in Spartanburg County, South Carolina are also worthy of brief mention. Excavations at the main house, as well as at two structures found little distinction in artifact assemblages. They observe that the owner distinguished himself from his tenants through architecture and the settlement

plan, with the material culture perhaps being of little consequence since he did not regularly interact with his social contemporaries. They, as others, noticed that cheaper production "made the bottle and jar ubiquitous artifacts of little value," but also remark that these items, not being burnable and capable of quickly encompassing yards, were hauled to "non-productive locations" for dumping (Joseph et al. 1991:258-259).

From this previous research comes a series of obvious concerns over identifying the material basis of tenancy (and comparing that basis with both higher and lower status occupations), identifying the subsistence remains typically associated with tenancy, exploring the nature of the refuse patterns associated with tenant sites, and examining the different artifact patterns. There has been relatively little attention devoted to exploring the shift from slavery to tenancy, probably because the overlap is great and our analytical precision is rather ineffectual at this level. Likewise, there has been relatively little effort to translate the studies into an understanding of what life as a tenant was like (beyond the information available in historical accounts).

We hope to avoid giving the reader the uneasy feeling or impression that archaeology can contribute little toward our understanding of tenancy. While many of the studies cited date from the 1980s, archaeological exploration of tenancy has had an uneven history, being plagued by waves of interest and activity, only to then be ignored. The unevenness of the research interest and support has likely caused many researchers to stop short of a full commitment of time and resources. Consequently, at least in the Inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina, we are still in a data acquisition phase which is essential prior to any significant theoretical breakthroughs can be claimed.

The research at tenant sites has also helped us better understand the limitations of conventional compliance methodology. For example, the limited research has revealed that cruciform shovel testing, even at close intervals, may fail to accurately determine site boundaries, leaving sites open to damage even once green spaced.

Studies have found that controlled surface collection produces a very different pattern than controlled excavations, with the surface collection over-selecting for kitchen related items (primarily ceramics and glass), while under-selecting for architectural materials (such as nails). Curiously, the other artifact groups are very proportionally very similar, suggesting that they are not greatly affected by collection strategy.

Research also suggests that it is the number of artifacts collected, not necessarily how they are collected, which will lead to the most reliable conclusions and that researchers should strive to ensure they achieve the largest practical collections in the course of their studies.

Finally, investigations have illustrated the need for additional research on late historic sites in South Carolina — there are few assemblages suitable for comparative studies. Even a cursory review of compliance literature will reveal a relatively large number of "tenant" sites being recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. There is certainly no shortage of research questions, especially for tenant sites which can be clearly tied to one discrete plantation, or which reveal clearly documented temporal spans, or for which there are oral informants.

## IDENTIFIED SITES

### 38FL340

Site 38FL340 is located northeast of the intersection of S-214 and Parot Road, about 4,700 feet northeast of the junction of S-214 and S-38. The central UTM coordinates are E599160 N3774790. The site is situated in a plowed field at an elevation of about 130 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) and the soils are identified as Coxville loamy fine sands. At the time of the survey the field had been recently plowed and rained on, providing excellent surface visibility, probably close to 100%.

Topography at the site is very level, with no noticeable slope. The closest well-defined drainage is Lake Swamp, about 6,000 feet to the east, although an intermittent drainage to Lake Swamp is found about 1,000 feet to the south.

Artifacts were first encountered in the open plowed areas during a pedestrian survey of the field. Materials were found dispersed over an area parallel to Parot Road for about 180 feet, while extending north-south for about 70 feet (Figures 18 and 19). A grab surface collection produced a fairly large quantity of primarily late nineteenth and early twentieth century remains. No surface features, such as brick concentrations or burned areas, were noted during the surface collection.

Materials recovered from the surface collection include nine undecorated whitewares, two polychrome stamped whitewares, three white porcelains, one white porcelain with a blue transfer print motif, one yellowware, 10 gray salt-glazed stonewares, three Bristol slip stonewares, one fragment of aqua glass, three fragments of milk glass, one amethyst glass fragments, six clear glass (one of which was melted), and 14 fragments of manganese glass.

The dispersion of these surface materials was used to identify an approximate mid-point for the site, designated N200E200. Shovel tests were then excavated in a grid pattern every 50 feet from this central point (see Figure 19). A total of 38 such tests were excavated, with eight (or 21%) found to produce material.

Test N150E300 produced one fragment of clear glass, N150E350 yielded a black glass button having a diameter of 26.7mm, N150E400 produced a burnt refined earthenware (probably whiteware), and the shovel test at N200E100 produced two fragments of clear glass. The shovel test at N200E150 yielded one fragment of manganese glass, while an undecorated whiteware ceramic was recovered from N200E200. A fragment of manganese glass was recovered from N200E250, two fragments of clear glass and one unidentifiable nail fragment were recovered from N200E300.

These shovel tests tend to confirm the spread of materials east-west parallel to the road, suggesting that the site complex may have been oriented in such a way that refuse was primarily deposited in the side, rather than rear yard.

All of the shovel tests revealed very similar profiles. There was typically about 0.1 foot of very dark gray (10YR3/1) sand overlying about 1.0 foot of gray (10YR6/1) sandy clay. This profile is consistent with the Coxville soils, which have A and B horizons of gray sandy loam and sandy clay loam (Pitts 1974:16). Although the soils were moist, they did screen and there was no standing water or water seepage.

The mean ceramic date for the collection of 1858 is shown in Table 6. It is likely that the mean ceramic date is slightly old, although the quantity of manganese glass does suggest a pre-1914 period before selenium replaced manganese to produce colorless glass unaffected by sunlight

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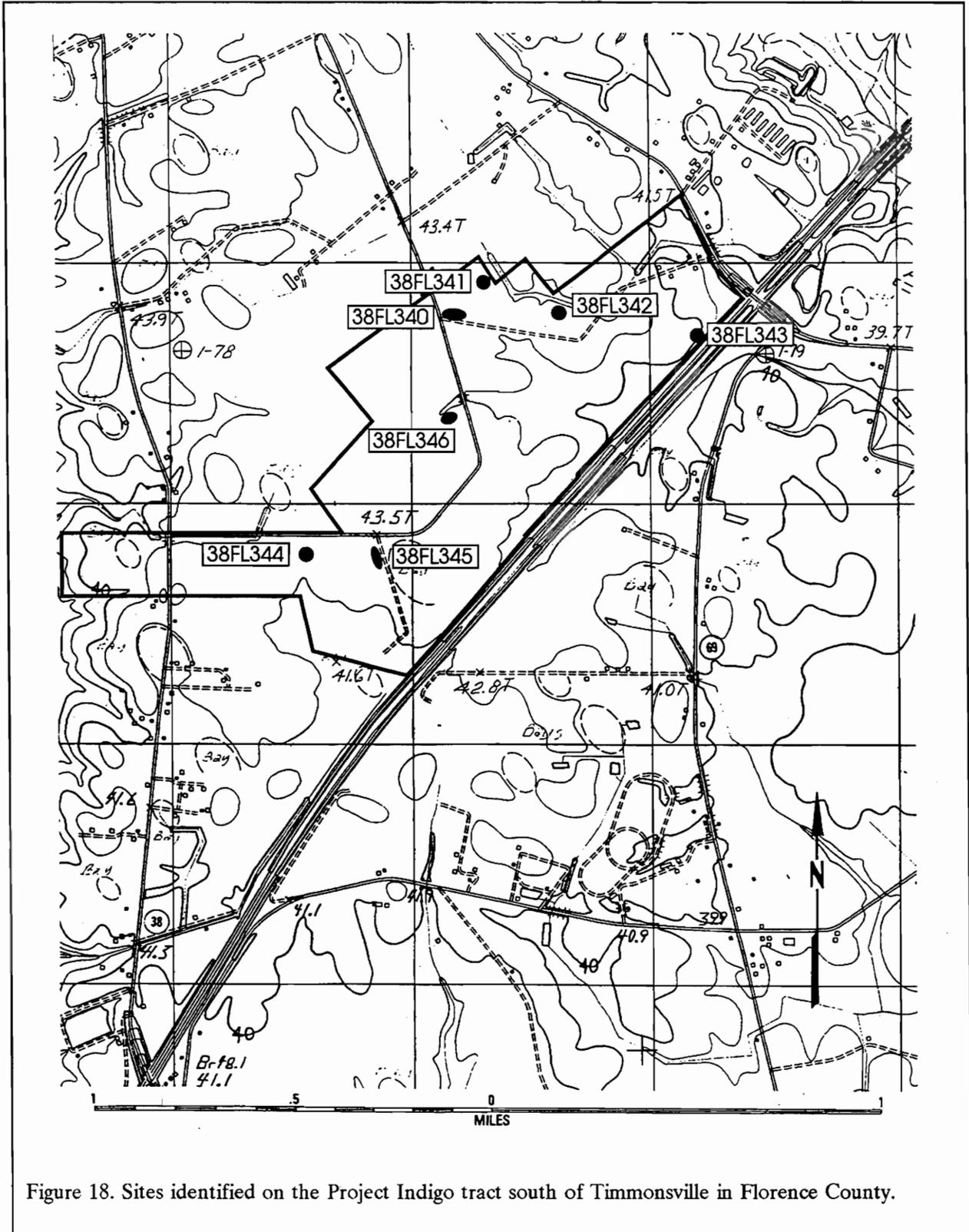


Figure 18. Sites identified on the Project Indigo tract south of Timmonsville in Florence County.

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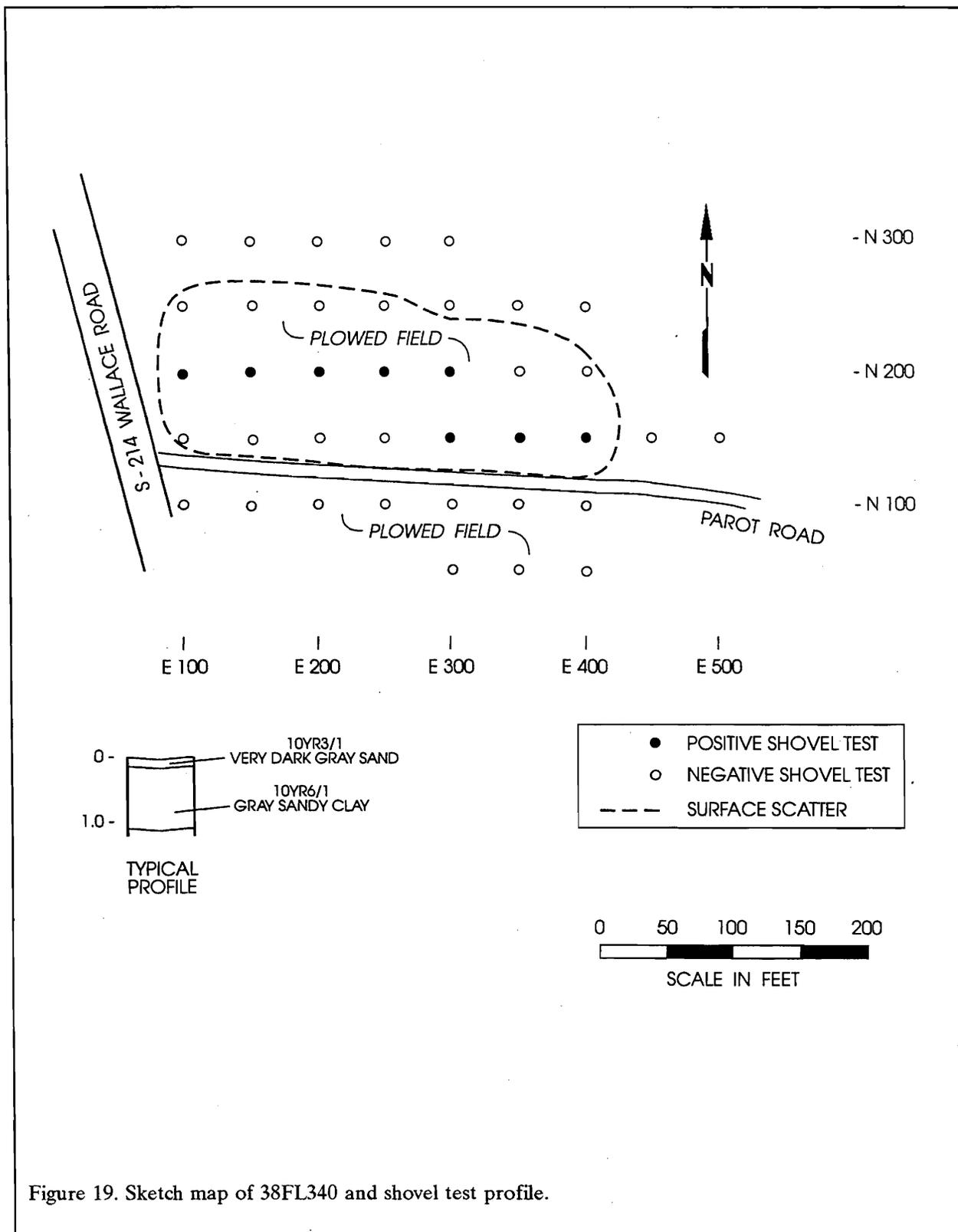


Figure 19. Sketch map of 38FL340 and shovel test profile.

(Lorrain 1968). Likewise the stonewares and aqua glass are consistent with a site originating in the late nineteenth century. This site is shown on both the 1914 soil survey (Figure 16) and the 1940 topographic map of the project area (Figure 17). It appears that the road originally ran on the north side of this structure and has only recently been cut through to the south. Regardless, it appears that 38FL340t may date from about 1880 to perhaps as late as 1945. Mr. Son James remembered a structure in this vicinity, offering additional documentation.

Data sets from this site include a fairly narrow range of archaeological remains, primarily kitchen related, although a nail was collected and brick fragments were observed in the field. nevertheless, the quantity of materials present were fairly high, with the current collection designed to minimize the materials removed from the site.

In addition, the shovel tests also produced materials. Since tenant sites often yield relatively few remains in shovel testing, the fact that 21% of the tests produced materials is promising. It seems likely that materials are well distributed throughout the site and in the plowzone.

Our previous discussions in the historic overview section have outlined a context appropriate for evaluating the significance of tenant sites. There is concern by some that such sites in plowed fields may not be able to address the broad range of questions proposed. This issue was dealt with at length by previous work at several tenant sites on the Roche Carolina tract. There, Chicora investigated two plowed "tenant" sites, 38FL235 and 38FL269 (Trinkley et al. 1993:58-68). It is appropriate to briefly quote from the conclusions to that work:

The research also requires that so-called "tenant" sites be very carefully evaluated by both the field archaeologist and the regulatory agency. There may be that the most significant research questions can be formulated only as the data is

Table 6.  
Mean Ceramic Date for 38FL340

Ceramic	Range	(xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Whiteware, stamped	1836-1870	1853	2	3706
undecorated	1813-1900	1860	10	18600
Yellowware	1826-1880	1853	<u>1</u>	<u>1853</u>
			13	24,159
$24,159 \div 13 = 1858.4$				

better understood, such as the case with 38FL269. It is also surprising that there is a tendency to discount the potential contributions of sites like 38FL235 or 38FL269, simply because they are plowed or because they produce few artifacts. It is unlikely that such sites will make major contributions to our understanding of either architectural layout or subsistence (given how shallow foundations and chimneys tend to be laid and how dispersed subsistence materials will be by plowing). Yet, it is clear that there are other research issues of equal or greater importance -- exploration of intra-site patterning and variability, the effects of plowing on dispersion of tenant artifacts, and the signatures of different types of tenant sites around the state -- to name only a few.

It is also important to guard against the argument of redundancy -- which is little more than an excuse for professional callousness and a cavalier attitude toward archaeological resources. For a resource to be redundant implies, first, that we know how many such resources exist at any given time, and second, that we have studied a large number of sites throughout the state. All

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tenant sites are not the same -- it is likely that there will be at least temporal, spatial, and economic differences. There will also be idiosyncratic differences which can be balanced only by having adequate samples to understand the expected variation (Trinkley et al. 1993:68).

There is every indication that this site has the same ability to address a similar range of questions. Of equal importance, it has the potential to expand our comparative data base for such sites. Since the current survey effort was not able to devote time to opening formal test units, the site is recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

It may be that the site can be avoided by development activities on the proposed tract. If so, then it is unnecessary to conduct additional testing necessary for an eligibility determination. If avoidance is not possible, Phase II testing is recommended. It is possible that this additional work may be sufficient to collect the data sets which are important at this site. If not, then the site would be recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

If testing is necessary it is recommended that it incorporate a controlled collection using between a 20 and 25-foot grid over the entire site, with 100% collection of all materials within each collection unit. These controlled collection units have been shown to be a very cost-effective strategy, allowing the collection of very large assemblages useful in site pattern studies, as well as site characterization work. They are also very accurate at identifying structural locations, as well as much more precise site boundaries.

This should be supplemented with controlled excavations to evaluate the potential for subsurface features such as foundation evidence and features. Controlled excavations have also been shown to produce artifact patterns slightly different from controlled collections, and the two combined likely provide a much more accurate understanding of the total site.

### 38FL341

Site 38FL341 is located about 700 feet northeast of the intersection of S-214 and Parot Road, on the edge of the Project Indigo tract. The central UTM coordinates are E599300 N3774900. The site is situated in a plowed field at an elevation of about 140 feet AMSL and the soils are identified as Goldsboro loamy sands. At the time of the survey the field had been recently plowed and rained on, providing excellent surface visibility, probably close to 100%.

Topography at the site is very level, with no noticeable slope. The closest well-defined drainage is Lake Swamp, about 5,500 feet to the east, although there is a channelized drainage about 300 feet to the east of the site, flowing southeastward toward Lake Swamp.

A thin scatter of artifacts was first encountered in the open plowed area during a pedestrian survey of the field, which at the time of the survey exhibited near 100% surface visibility. Materials collected include one white porcelain ceramic, one undecorated whiteware, one Bristol slip stoneware, and a fragment of a white porcelain doorknob. These materials appear to represent either a very late nineteenth century or early twentieth century time period.

The scatter was cruciformed by the excavation of seven shovel tests (Figure 20). None of these yielded any remains. In this area we found the Ap horizon of dark gray (10YR4/1) sands laying on a horizon of yellowish brown (10YR5/4) sand at a depth of about 1.0 foot. This profile is entirely consistent with the Goldsboro series, suggesting that the site area has seen very little ground modification or disturbance.

This site appears on the 1914 soil survey (Figure 16), but is not found on the 1940 topographic map (Figure 17). This suggests that it was abandoned prior to late 1930s when the topographic map was compiled.

Regardless, data sets from this site are very sparse. The assemblage is limited to a

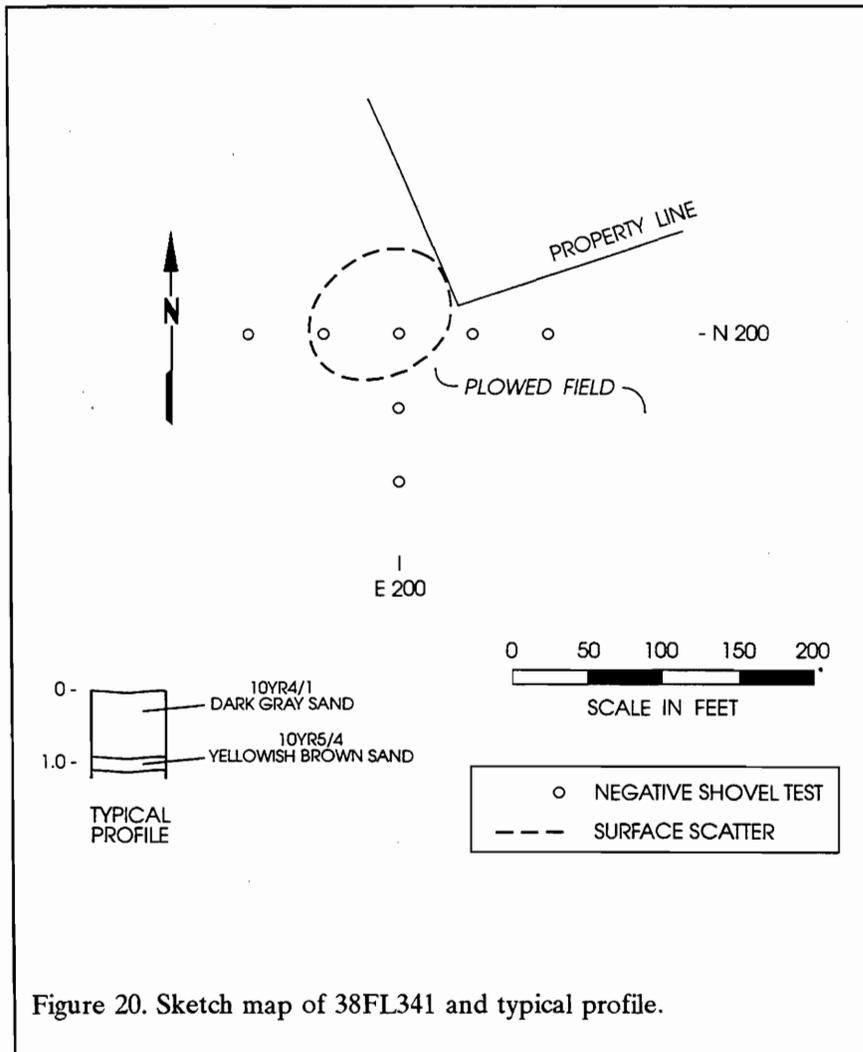


Figure 20. Sketch map of 38FL341 and typical profile.

concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office, no additional management activities are necessary.

**38FL342**

Site 38FL342 is located about 1,500 feet due east of the intersection of S-214 and Parot Road, on the edge of the Project Indigo tract. The central UTM coordinates are E599560 N3774800. About half of the site is situated in moderate woods, while the remainder extends into a cultivated field. Within the woods surface visibility is about 30 to 40%, while visibility in the field is near 100%. The site elevation is about 140 feet AMSL and the soils are identified as Goldsboro loamy sands.

Topography at the site is very level, with no noticeable slope. The closest well-defined drainage is Lake Swamp, about 5,000 feet to the east, although there is a channelized drainage or ditch about 100 feet to the west of the site, flowing southeastward toward Lake Swamp. This ditch, it appears, helps to define the western site boundary.

A thin scatter of artifacts was first encountered in the open plowed area forming the southeastern half of the site. The pedestrian survey identified the presence of several features in the adjacent woods (Figure 21) and the site boundaries were initially extended to include these remains, incorporating an area measuring about 170 feet northwest-southeast by 70 feet northeast by southwest.

The woods, which consist of mixed pine and hardwoods with a light understory of primarily herbaceous vegetation, appear to have formed the

collection which hardly appears appropriate for a tenant site, based on what we have to expect from other locations in the Florence area. Although the doorknob fragment (representing an architectural component), no brick or other structural remains were encountered. It appears that this site was very aggressively removed, with subsequent plowing further reducing its archaeological visibility.

Given these limited data sets, and our uncertainty regarding even the nature of the site, it is highly unlikely that the site can address any of the previously posited questions regarding tenancy in the Florence area. Consequently, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending

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field edge for a number of years. Found just off the field, in these woods, was a brick trough about 2.0 feet in width, 5.5 feet in length, and 2.5 feet in height. The bricks are laid up in a hard cement mortar, which has also been plastered on the inside of the trough and used to create the bottom (which is about 0.5 to 1.0 foot above grade). This probably served as an animal watering trough. Also present is a trash pile, which included a wide range of fairly recent domestic material, including soft drink bottles and a child's shoe, as well as several scattered sheets of tin roofing.

Materials collected from the surface, primarily in the adjacent plowed field, include an annular yellowware, two white porcelain ceramics, six undecorated whitewares, one polychrome hand painted whiteware, one green edged whiteware, two tinted whitewares, two fragments of light green glass, two fragments of milk glass, five clear glass fragments, two fragments of manganese glass, one wire nail, and one white metal toy fragment.

The dispersion of the surface materials in the plowed field was used to identify an approximate mid-point for the site, designated N200E200 (this point is actually a midpoint for the materials in the field; materials in the woods extended further to the north). Shovel tests were then excavated in a grid pattern every 50 feet from this central point (see Figure 21). A total of 16 such tests were excavated, with four (or 25%) found to produce material. Two of these, however, yielded only brick or mortar. Shovel test N200E200 yielded one fragment of blue glass, one fragment of green glass, one piece of clear glass, and two unidentifiable nail fragments. The test at N300E200 produced one fragment of clear glass, one unidentifiable nail fragment, and one unidentifiable iron fragment.

The typical profile at the site reveals about 1.0 foot of very dark gray brown (10YR3/2) sand over a very pale brown (10YR7/4) sandy clay. This profile is consistent with Goldsboro soils, suggesting that there has been little disturbance to the general area.

The materials from this site reveal a mean ceramic date of about 1870 (Table 7), largely because of several fairly old pieces, such as edged ware and the polychrome hand painted fragment. Tempering this assessment, however, are a variety of much more recent materials, including the tinted glaze whitewares, as well as the dominance of clear glass, suggestive of a post-1914 date. The trash pile in the woods indicates that the site area continued to be used (at least for trash disposal) until the last few years.

While there appears to be a significant date range, it is equally important to consider the nature of the site. Although several nails were found in the shovel testing, and sheet tin and brick rubble was identified in the woods, no structural remains were found. The total assemblage seems

Table 7.  
Mean Ceramic Date for 38FL342

Ceramic	Range	(xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Whiteware, poly hand painted	1826-1870	1848	1	1848
green edged	1826-1830	1828	1	1828
tinted	1911-1970	1941	2	3882
undecorated	1813-1900	1860	6	11160
Yellowware	1826-1880	1853	<u>1</u>	<u>1853</u>
			11	20,571

$$20,571 \div 11 \approx 1870.1$$

more appropriate for a utility building, perhaps a barn, than for a domestic structure. The dispersion of remains, the discrete trash piles, the presence of tin, the brick trough — all are appropriate for a barn or similar utility structure. Even the location, at the very edge of the woods, adjacent to a ditch, is appropriate for secondary farm structures.

Both the 1914 soil survey (Figure 16) and the 1940 topographic map (Figure 17) identify a structure in this area. It seems likely, however, that the house was in the field, with a barn or utility building in the rear. The structure itself was not recovered by this investigation, although it may account for some of the smear in the field.

There are a variety of data sets present at

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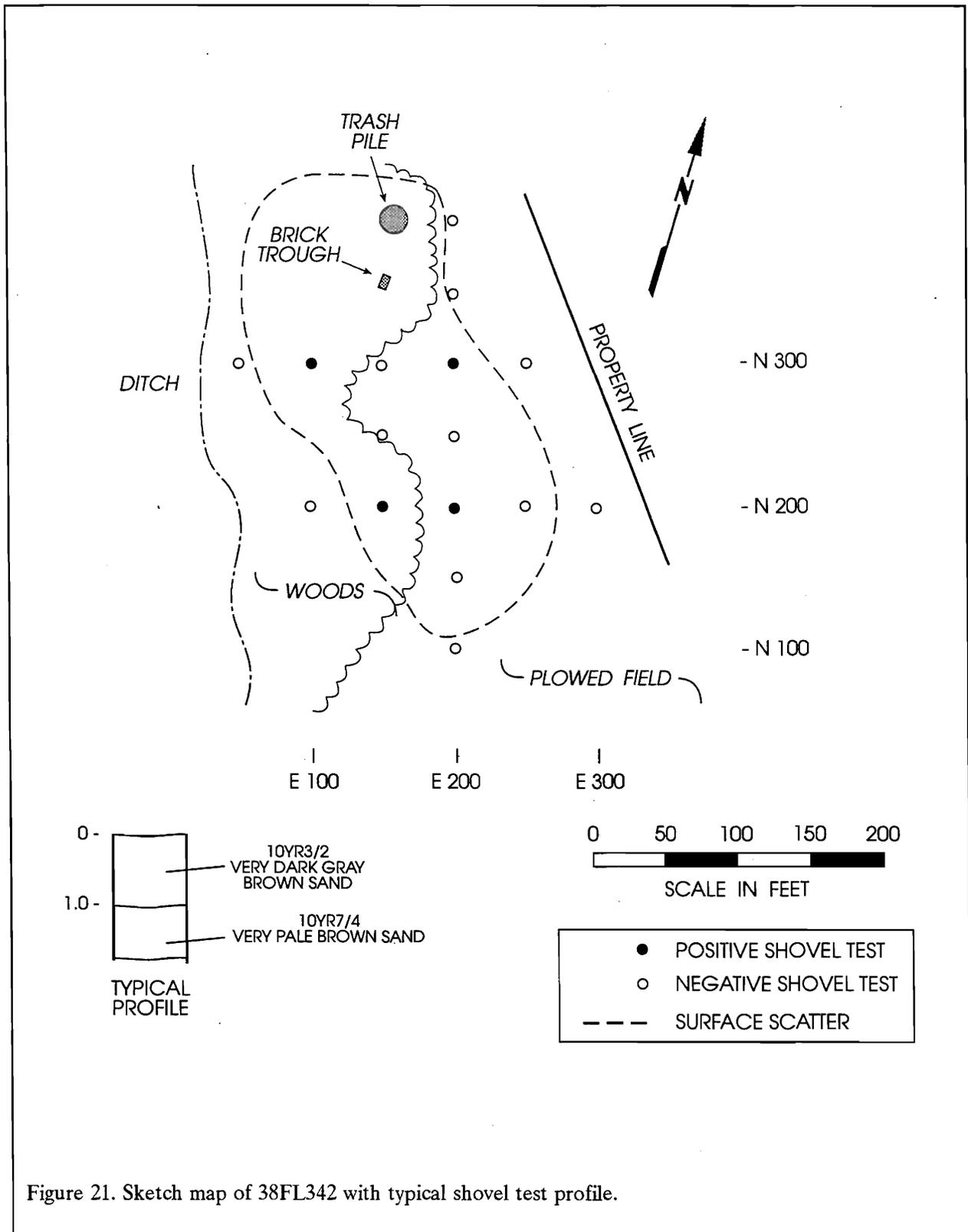


Figure 21. Sketch map of 38FL342 with typical shovel test profile.

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this site — artifacts, structural remains, and an in-situ feature (the trough). There is also evidence that the site area has been only minimally affected by cultivation or logging, although it does appear that the structure which once existed at this site has been demolished and well salvaged.

In addition, the site suggests that it may have been used over a fairly long period of time. While it is possible that some remains were deposited during the antebellum period, it seems more likely that the site was used from about 1870 until perhaps as late as 1990.

Nevertheless, the remains present do not appear to be a good candidate for addressing the broad range of questions which we have proposed for tenant sites in the Florence area. Most specifically, the probability of the site representing a barn or utility structure, coupled with its very long use, compromises its ability to provide significant information. Consequently, this site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending concurrence by the State Historic Preservation Office, no additional management activities are necessary.

### **38FL343**

Site 38FL343 is located about 1,200 feet southwest of the junction of S-83 and I-95, immediately north of a frontage road running along the northwest side of the interstate. The central UTM coordinates are E600100 N3774600. The site is situated in the southwest corner of a plowed field at an elevation of about 130 feet AMSL (see Figure 8) and the soils are identified as Norfolk loamy sands. At the time of the survey the field had been recently plowed and rained on, providing excellent surface visibility, probably close to 100%.

Topography at the site is fairly level, with the site situated on a barely perceptible ridge running through field. This location may have assisted with drainage, although the Norfolk soils are typically well drained. The site is situated on the northeast edge of a drainage which originally crossed the interstate and flowed to Lake Swamp,

about 1.5 miles to the southeast. This drainage was the closest open water source for the site.

Artifacts were first encountered in the open plowed areas during a pedestrian survey of the field. Materials were found dispersed over an area perpendicular to the frontage road for about 130 feet, while the east-west dimension was found to be about 50 feet (Figure 22). A grab surface collection produced a fairly large quantity of materials primarily dating from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. No surface features, such as brick concentrations or burned areas, were noted during the surface collection.

Materials recovered from the surface collection include two white porcelain ceramics, 28 undecorated whitewares, one polychrome hand painted whiteware, one blue transfer printed whiteware, one non-blue transfer printed whiteware, one fragment of alkaline glazed stoneware, and one Bristol slip stoneware. Also recovered was one fragment of brown glass, three blue glass fragments, three milk glass, one fragment of aqua glass, five light green bottle glass fragments, eight clear glass fragments, one manganese glass fragment, one red clay marble, and one brass cap.

The dispersion of these surface materials was used to identify an approximate mid-point for the site, designated N100E200. Shovel tests were then excavated in a grid pattern every 50 feet from this central point (see Figure 22). A total of 25 such tests were excavated, with four (or 16%) found to produce material.

The shovel test at N50E150 produced four fragments of clear glass and one unidentifiable metal fragment. The test at N50E200 yielded one fragment of aqua glass and one clear glass. Shovel test N100E200 produced two clear glass and one fragment of window glass. The shovel test located at N150E200 produced four fragments of light green glass (two of which were melted), two fragments of clear glass (one melted), and two manganese glass fragments.

The shovel testing program also revealed that the soils at this site are characteristic of the

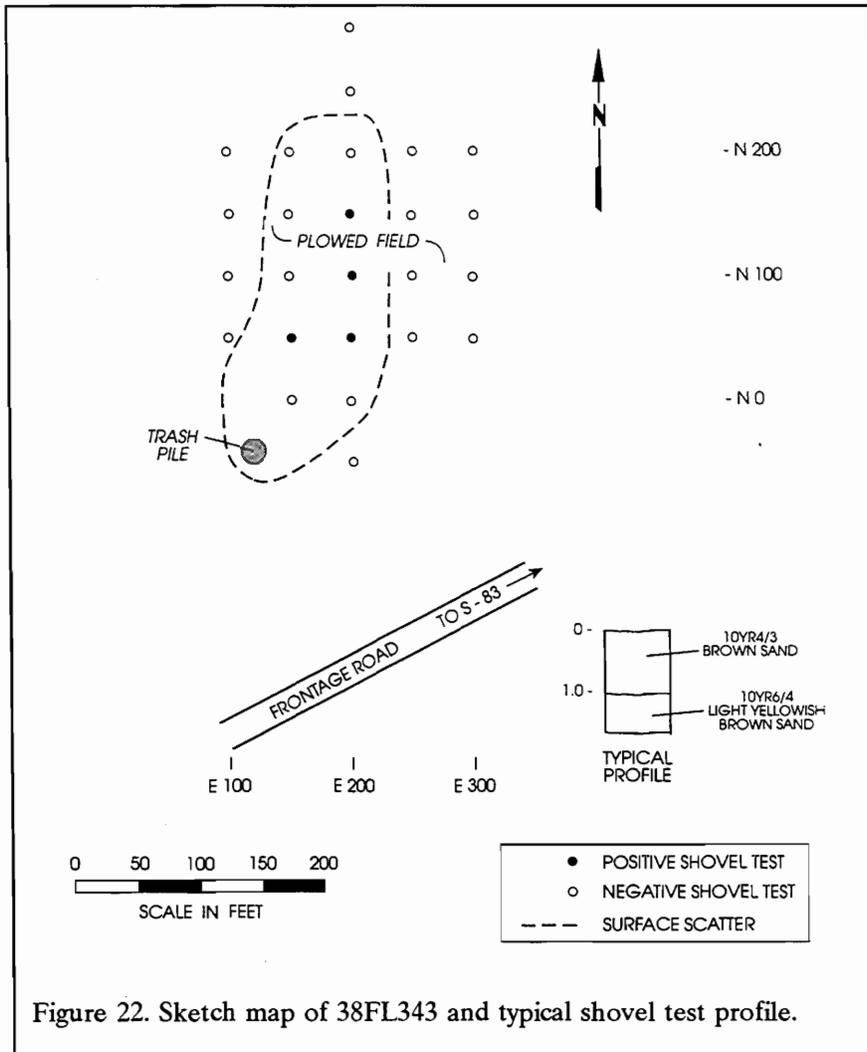


Figure 22. Sketch map of 38FL343 and typical shovel test profile.

Gartley (1990:56) note that these common low-fired earthenware marbles, also called "commies," were in use from at least the colonial period into the early 1920s, when they were largely replaced by glass marbles. The commies were most frequently used by poorer children because they were so inexpensive. Consequently, while this specimen may help us better understand the economic status of the tenants living on this site, it still is only suggestive of a late nineteenth to early twentieth century time frame.

This particular assemblage, however, includes a greater range of materials than several of the previously discussed sites. Kitchen, architecture, and activity group artifacts are present. This is also one of the few collections which reveals the presence of window glass, perhaps suggesting that there were status differences among the various houses (since there appears to be relatively little

Norfolk series, consisting of an Ap horizon of brown (10YR4/3) sand about a foot in depth overlying a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) sand. This profile reveals that there has not been particularly deep plowing and that the site, while situated on a slight ridge, has not been significantly eroded or damaged.

Table 8 shows the mean ceramic date for the collection from this site to be nearly 1859. Like several of the other dates, this is likely too old, especially when the entire assemblage is examined. For example, the clear glass likely post-dates 1914. The clay marble is especially interesting, but offers relatively little dating assistance. Carskadden and

difference in age).

The data sets at this site, while lacking in situ remains, do include a range of archaeological materials. In addition, the site is shown on both the 1914 soil survey (Figure 16) and the 1940 topographic map (Figure 17), with a road (no longer present) running to its north. Further, we have identified an oral information who is familiar with this property and the various families (as well as owners).

As we have discussed for 38FL340, these sites have been shown capable of addressing a broad range of significant research questions. Just as importantly, they are capable of providing

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Table 8.  
Mean Ceramic Date for 38FL343

Ceramic	Range	(xi)	(fi)	fi x xi
Whiteware. poly hand painted	1826-1870	1848	1	1848
blue transfer print	1831-1865	1848	1	1848
non-blue transfer	1826-1875	1851	1	1851
undecorated	1813-1900	1860		
			<u>28</u>	<u>52080</u>
			31	57,627

$$57.627 \div 31 \approx 1858.9$$

essential comparative data in order to help assess, and better understand, sites in other regions of South Carolina. Consequently, we recommend this site as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

It is possible that this site can be avoided by development activities on the proposed tract. If so, then it is unnecessary to conduct the additional testing necessary for an eligibility determination. If avoidance is not possible, however, Phase II testing is recommended. It is possible that this additional work may be sufficient to collect the data sets which are important at this site. If not, then the site would be recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

If testing is necessary it is recommended that it incorporate a controlled collection using between a 20 and 25-foot grid over the entire site, with 100% collection of all materials within each collection unit. These controlled collection units have been shown to be a very cost-effective strategy, allowing the collection of very large assemblages useful in site pattern studies, as well as site characterization work.

They are also very accurate at identifying structural locations, as well as much more precise site boundaries.

This should be supplemented with controlled excavations to evaluate the potential for subsurface features such as foundation evidence and features. Controlled excavations have also been shown to produce artifact patterns slightly different from controlled collections, and the two combined likely provide a much more accurate understanding of the total site.

The archaeological work should be carefully integrated with an oral history of the property, since Mr. James can provide essential information to supplement the archaeological research.

**38FL344**

This site is situated about 1,700 feet east-southeast of the junction of S-214 and S-38, on the south side of S-214. The central UTM coordinates are E598530 N3773820. The site is situated entirely within a heavily wooded area surrounded

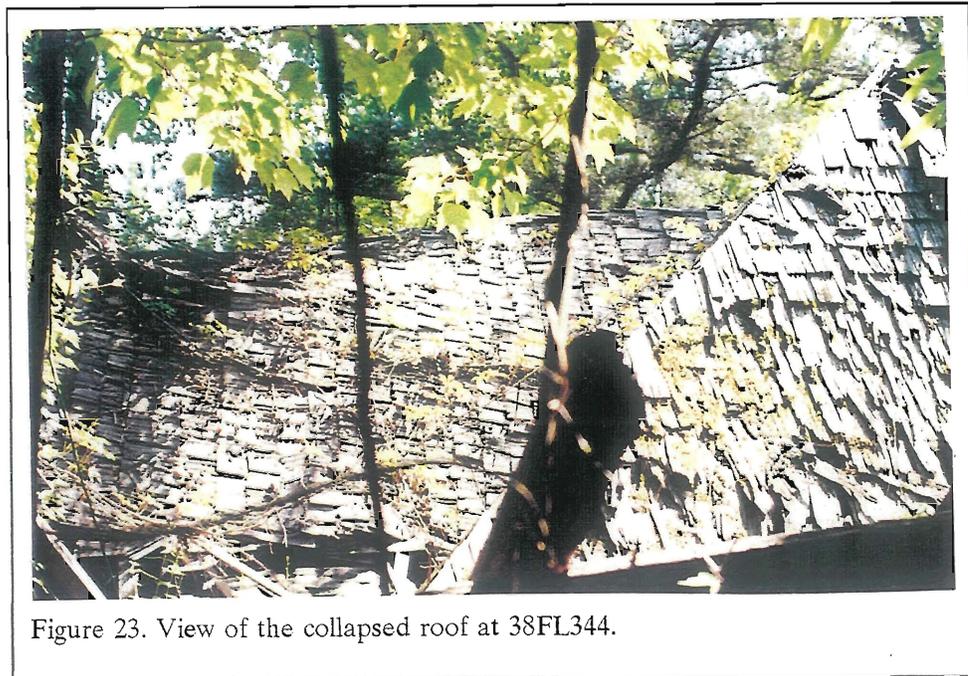


Figure 23. View of the collapsed roof at 38FL344.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED PROJECT INDIGO TRACT

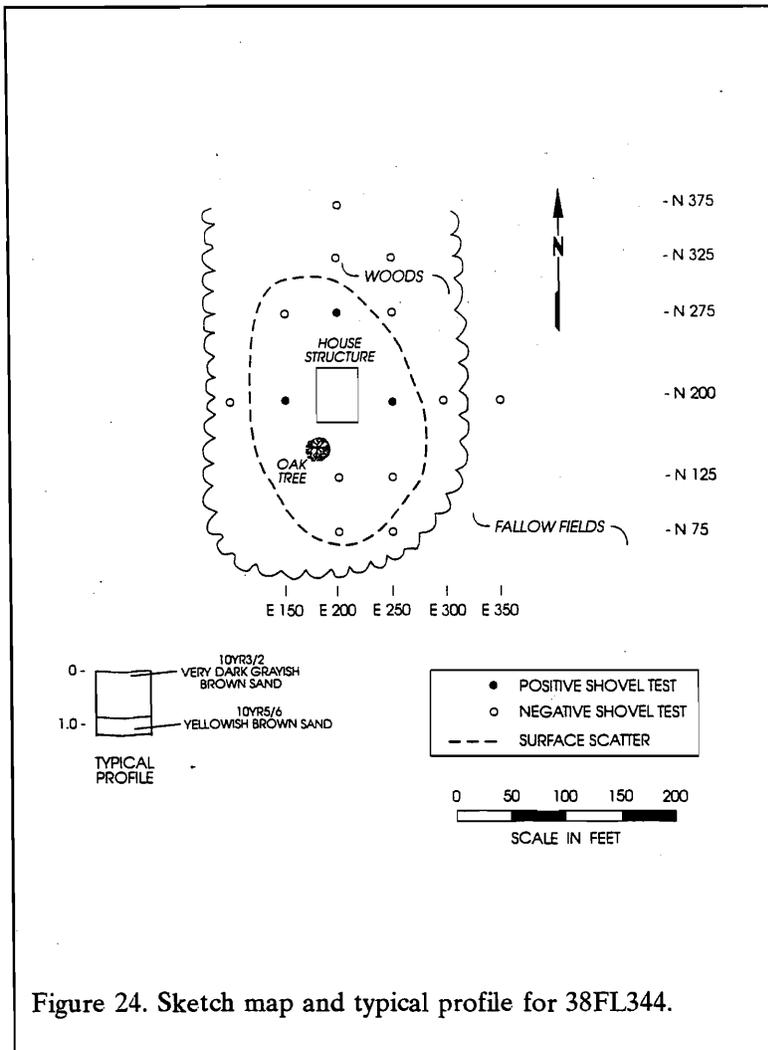


Figure 24. Sketch map and typical profile for 38FL344.

to the north, east and west by fallow fields. Visibility in the wooded tract was at best 5%, while the surrounding fields perhaps offered 10% visibility. The elevation for this site is about 130 feet AMSL and the soils are identified as Coxville loamy fine sands.

This site had been noted on the engineering survey of the tract, and was encountered during an inspection of the woods. No bulldozer transects were run in this area because we were concerned that they might impact the site. Once identified, an effort was made to determine if there were any associated features, but this was largely prevented by the dense vegetation. A well (likely a piped well), for example, is reported on

the engineering drawings, but could not be identified during the survey.

The structure is in complete failure, with the roof having slipped to the east, and the walls collapsing outward. Some sections of flooring are intact, as are the majority of the foundation supports. Figure 23 shows the roof of the structure, which is entirely clad in hand split shingles. Some basic recordation of the house plan is likely possible, but was not undertaken during the survey because of the very tight time frame.

Topography at the site is very level, with no noticeable slope. The closest well-defined drainage is an intermittent drainage about 700 feet to the east.

Because this area is so densely vegetated, only three undecorated whiteware ceramics and one window glass fragment were collected from the fallow field on the periphery of the woods. A series of 15 shovel tests were excavated at 50 and approximately 60 foot intervals (see Figure 24). Of these, 3 (20%) produced material, although two of these yielded brick rubble. The third test, N200E250, produced one fragment of clear glass and one unidentifiable nail fragment. The shovel tests suggest a site size of about 200 feet north-south by about 150 feet east-west, although these are very imprecisely determined at the present time.

The soil profiles from the shovel tests reveal about 0.8 foot of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) sandy loam Ap horizon overlying a yellowish brown (10YR5/6) sandy clay subsoil. This is not typical of the Coxville soils, but is very characteristic of the nearby Norfolk loamy sands.

This assemblage appears to date from the early twentieth century. It is not shown on the 1914 soil survey, but is present by the late 1930s when the 1940 topographic map was prepared. In fact,

## IDENTIFIED SITES

Mr. Son James, a local informant, reported that his grandfather lived in this house.

The site includes a number of different data sets. Like other sites in the tract, we have recovered a range of archaeological materials — limited at this site because of very poor visibility. Also present are structural remains. In fact, these are the only such remains identified on the tract. These remains help to tie down the exact structural location and allow estimations of yard areas to be more precise. The architectural details still present may also be able to further refine the status of this particular site.

Taken together, these remains have the potential to address a broad range of the questions previously outlined for tenant sites in the project area. An oral informant has also been identified who can significantly expand our knowledge of this site. Consequently, we recommend this site as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

It is possible that this site can be avoided by development activities on the proposed tract. If so, then it is unnecessary to conduct the additional testing necessary for an eligibility determination. If avoidance is not possible, however, Phase II testing is recommended. It is possible that this additional work may be sufficient to collect the data sets which are important at this site. If not, then the site would be recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

If testing is necessary it is recommended that it include careful recordation of the structural remains. Since the area is heavily wooded, it will be necessary to clear the area by hand to allow recordation of additional surface features. This should be followed by close interval (20 foot) shovel or auger testing around the site. The extant site boundaries may be significantly increased to reflect the results of this additional work. Some minimal controlled excavations should also be undertaken to provide larger artifact assemblages useful in pattern studies.

The archaeological work should be carefully integrated with an oral history of the

property, since Mr. James can provide essential information to supplement the archaeological research.

### 38FL345

Site 38FL345 is located about 3,400 feet east of the junction of S-214 and S-38 and about 150 feet south of S-214. The central UTM coordinates are E598810 N3773800. The site is situated in a fallow field immediately west of a large wooded bay (Figures 18 and 25). The site is at an elevation of about 130 feet AMSL. Although the area appears relatively flat, there is a very slight slope to the east, toward the Carolina bay.

The soils are identified as Coxville loamy fine sands. At the time of the survey the field was fallow, with vegetation 1.5 to 2 feet in height. Consequently, surface visibility was, at best, 20%, with much of the field allowing only occasional glimpses of the ground surface. The closest water source is probably the bay depression about 100 feet to the east of the site, although the closest running water is likely Sparrow Swamp, nearly a mile to the west.

The site was first encountered during routine shovel testing along transects in the fallow field. During those efforts a brick scatter was observed and a careful surface survey revealed a small collection of materials. These included one undecorated whiteware, one decalcomania whiteware, three blue glass fragments, one aqua glass fragment, four fragments of clear glass, one window glass fragment, and one machine wrench.

The dispersion of these surface materials was used to identify an approximate mid-point for the site, designated N300E150. Shovel tests were then excavated in a grid pattern every 50 feet from this central point (see Figure 25). A total of 21 such tests were excavated, with eight (or 38%) found to produce material (three of these tests, however, yielded only brick or mortar).

The shovel test at N200E100 produced two fragments of clear glass, while the N200E200 shovel test yielded a unidentifiable iron fragment. The N200E250 shovel test produced an

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED PROJECT INDIGO TRACT

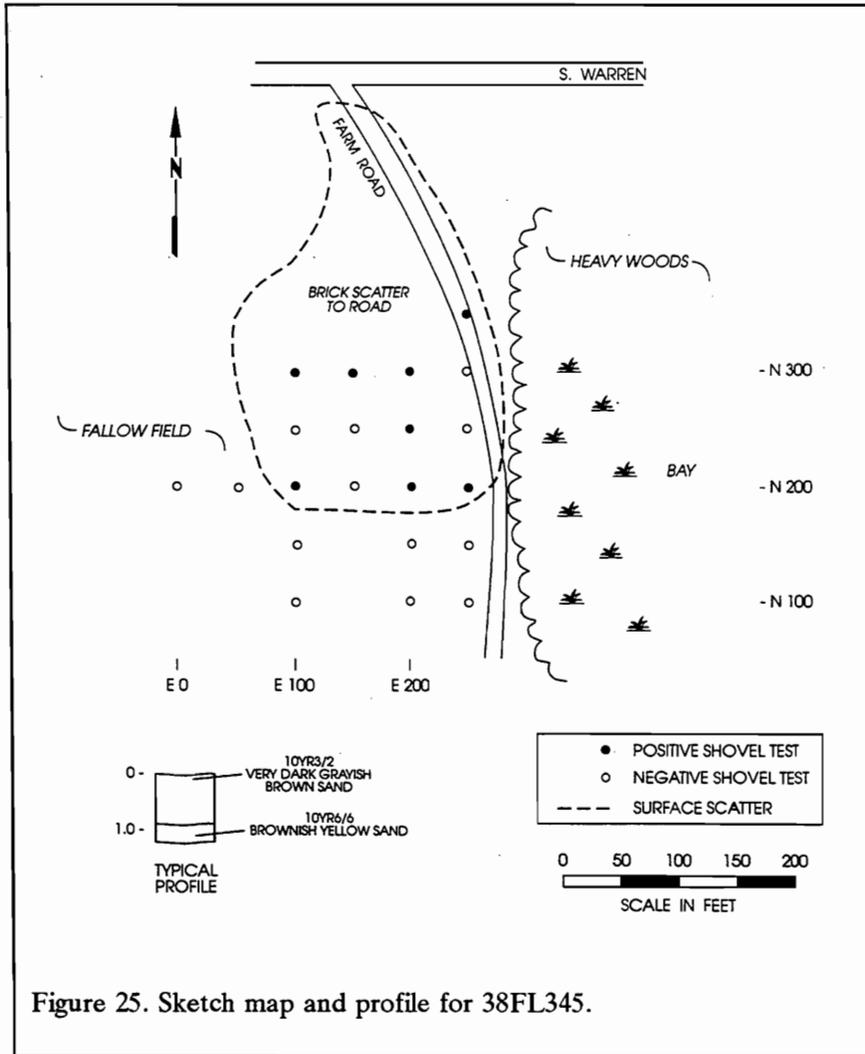


Figure 25. Sketch map and profile for 38FL345.

undecorated whiteware and an unidentifiable nail fragment. At N300E100 an undecorated whiteware and a fragment of window glass were recovered, while N300E150 produced one undecorated whiteware, five fragments of clear glass, two fragments of window glass, and one wire nail fragment.

The shovel tests reveal a very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) sandy loam Ap horizon about 0.8 foot in depth overlying a brownish yellow (10YR6/6) sandy clay subsoil. This profile is not typical of Coxville soils, but suggests a much stronger affinity for the nearby Duplin series.

The collection from this site seems to fall

within the span proposed for other sites on the survey tract, probably about 1910 through perhaps 1940. It is not present on the 1914 soil survey (Figure 16), but is shown on the 1940 topographic map (Figure 17), indicating that it was standing at least that late. This is likely reflected in the abundance of brick rubble still present in the field, in spite of cultivation. There are, however, no structural remains.

There are a variety of data sets present at this site. The artifact collection, for example, includes both kitchen and architectural remains. The dispersion of brick on the surface suggests that there may still be concentrations of these remains. And, our informant is familiar with this site.

Nevertheless, we believe that the questions proposed for tenant sites in the Florence area can be better addressed by other sites. We are, for example, concerned that the demolition of this site after 1940 may have relied on

more aggressive techniques, especially bulldozing. The two other sites found in plowed fields appear to have been removed prior to the introduction of such techniques and are therefore likely in better condition. We also believe that 38FL344 provides a much better opportunity to explore the late tenancy typical of the project area since it also contains structural ruins.

Consequently, we recommend this site as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending approval of the State Historic Preservation Office no additional management activities are necessary.

IDENTIFIED SITES

**38FL346**

This site is situated about 300 feet west of S-214 about 1,500 feet south of the junction of S-214 and Parot Road. The site is found at the north edge of a cultivated field, in an area low, but dense vegetation. The field was fallow at the time of this investigation, providing about 20% visibility. The wooded area provided almost no visibility.

The central UTM coordinates are E599180 N3774320 and the site is at an elevation of about 130 feet AMSL. The soils in the site area are identified as Rains sandy loams. Like other sites in the survey tract, the closest water was likely one of the smaller intermittent sloughs flowing to either Sparrow or Lake Swamp. In the case of 38FL346 the closest drainage was about 600 feet to the northeast.

When the fallow field was first surveyed using shovel tests at 100 foot intervals no evidence of the site was encountered. Likewise, the bulldozer cuts through wooded areas, every 200 feet, failed to identify any of these remains — entirely missing the site area. When our informant, Mr. Son James, came out he told us that the house he lived in was situated in this particular field. Since we had failed to find any evidence of it, we did additional close interval testing every 50 feet throughout the northern half of the field. This work also failed to reveal anything except a few brick fragments — certainly not adequate evidence of a tenant house based on our past experiences.

We shifted our attention further north, into the light woods at the field edge. There we

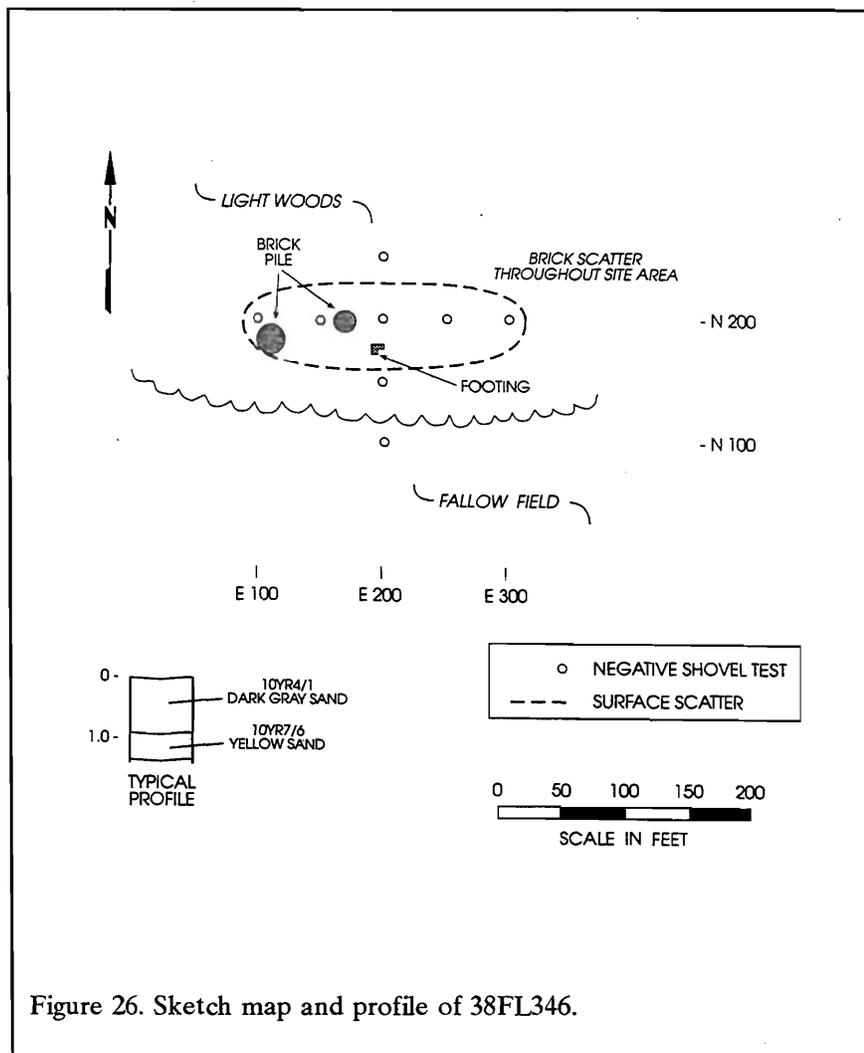


Figure 26. Sketch map and profile of 38FL346.

discovered a large brick pile. Using a bulldozer to open up the vegetation, we eventually identified two additional brick piles, as well as one intact footing. In this area we collected 16 fragments of clear glass, one fragment of window glass, one roofing nail, and one fragment of cast iron, possibly a machine or stove part. These materials coincided with a moderate scatter of brick remains, covering an area measuring about 200 feet east-west by 65 feet north-south.

A series of eight shovel tests were used to cruciform the brick scatter. All were negative, although they did reveal a truncated profile of about 0.8 foot of dark gray (10YR7/6) sandy loam overlying yellow (10YR7/6) sandy clay to a depth

of at least 1.2 feet.

This is all that could be identified of the house site and barn where Son James grew up as a child in the 1930s and 1940s. While not present on the 1914 soil survey, the site is clearly shown on the 1940 topographic map, helping to verify Mr. James' memory. Nevertheless, there seem to be far too few archaeological remains for a tenant site.

It appears that the structures were aggressively removed from the field, probably by bulldozing. Much of the debris was apparently pushed over to the north edge of the field, where it was allowed to be covered by vegetation. Although the soil profile does not clearly indicate this episode, the presence of large masses of mortared bricks, coupled with the smear of brick rubble, does support this scenario. It is possible that additional shovel tests in this area might have produced a larger collection of artifacts, eventually confirming that yard trash had been pushed off to the edge of the field. This effort was not expended, however, since there seemed to be little purpose in exploring a site which clearly had been disturbed.

This site is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. Pending the approval of the State Historic Preservation Office no additional management activities are recommended.

#### **Late Discoveries**

While unlikely, it is always possible that additional archaeological sites may be present on the Project Indigo tract, but were not identified during these studies. Contractors should be made aware that if brick concentrations, pottery, arrowheads, bottles, bone, or other potentially historic remains are encountered work should be suspended and either Chicora Foundation or the State Historic Preservation Office should be notified. These late discoveries should be evaluated prior to any construction related activities.

## CONCLUSIONS

### Introduction

As a result of the intensive survey of the approximately 500 acre Project Indigo tract south of Timmonsville in Florence County, seven archaeological sites were identified and assessed. Of these, four are recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places, while three are recommended as potentially eligible for inclusion. All are recommended eligible under Criterion D, that they have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history. In each case, the potentially eligible sites have been evaluated as potentially capable of addressing significant research questions regarding late nineteenth and early twentieth century tenancy in the Upper and Middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

Two of the sites are found in cultivated fields. A grab collection from each site, coupled with limited shovel testing, yielded a fairly large number of artifacts, with many more present but not collected. One of these sites is shown on the 1940 topographic map, while the other is not present, or at least is not shown in the correct location. Nevertheless, both sites are remembered by a local information. While the artifact assemblages are similar, there are also distinct differences, such as the recovery of window glass from one site, but not the other. In addition, the two sites are situated on historically distinct tracts under different ownership.

A third site was identified with the ruins of the original structure. Found in dense woods, this site did not yield a particularly large collection, although it is likely that additional excavations would discover a similar artifact density (or at least we expect so). This site is shown on the 1940

topographic map and is also well known to our informant, since his grandfather lived in the house prior to his death. This structure is situated on yet a third parcel, also with different ownership.

If the three sites can be avoided by construction activities then no additional work is necessary to complete the evaluation process. The sites can be "green spaced" and protected through a historic easement.

If this is not possible for one or more of the sites then it will be necessary to collect additional information in order to determine whether the sites are eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

In the case of the two sites in plowed fields we recommend that an intensive controlled collection be made, coupled with both formal excavations and collection of oral history. In the case of the wooded site a different approach will be necessary, including careful hand clearing of vegetation, detailed mapping of the structural remains, use of close interval shovel or auger tests, and the excavation of a limited number of formal units.

Table 9.  
Archaeological Sites Identified in the Project Indigo Tract

Site Number	Components	Site Size (ft.)	Eligibility
38FL340	Historic	70x180	PE
38FL341	Historic	40x50	NE
38FL342	Historic	170x70	NE
38FL343	Historic	130x50	PE
38FL344	Historic	200x150	PE
38FL345	Historic	300x230	NE
38FL346	Historic	200x65	NE

NE = not eligible for inclusion on the National Register  
PE = potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register

It may be that this level of effort will be adequate to address the research potential of the tested sites. If so, then the sites will be evaluated as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. Alternatively, it may be that the sites will be found eligible for the National Register, indicating that they do contain additional significant information. Under these circumstances, it is still possible to green space the sites, simply avoiding them. Or, it will likely be possible to conduct data recovery excavations at the sites, which will allow the significant information to be collected. Afterwards, no additional management activities at the sites will be necessary and the land may be used as necessary.

### Site Locations

This survey is of considerable interest since the survey tract is situated in a portion of Florence County for which there is very little information. The flatwoods or interior plains present in this area are dramatically different from the swamp edge topography of projects such as our previous survey for Honda (Trinkley 1997), or the Roche Carolina tract (Trinkley and Adams 1992) or the Santee Cooper Pee Dee Generating Facility tract (Taylor 1984). In the simplest of terms, the current survey tract is dominated by the topography that is typically associated with very low prehistoric archaeological potential — low land, poor drainage, wet soils, and the absence of sandy swamp edge bluffs. It appears that our traditional model is fairly accurate since there were no prehistoric sites encountered in the current survey. In fact, not even a single sherd or isolated flake was identified.

Likewise, no pre-Civil War sites were identified. The reasons for this is equally clear. Not only was the survey area in one of the poorer areas of Darlington County, where farms were small and occupation was sparse, but only a small portion of the survey tract encompassed a historic road where occupation is most likely to occur.

What was found were a small number of tenant sites. Even these, however, are much less common than on previous survey tracts which include better soils. In addition, the Project Indigo tract suggests that there were only one or two

tenants per landholding, probably because the small farms would support a much lower population. For example, while only seven such sites were identified in the current survey (or about one per 71 acres), we identified nearly one historic site every 31 acres in the Honda survey (Trinkley 1997). The difference is entirely attributable, we believe, to the poor drainage and limited arable land in the current survey.

It is likely that at both tracts there were sites which were not located — that is almost always the case using conventional archaeological survey techniques. It is virtually impossible to identify every site.

In the current study, a 1914 soils map reveals the presence of 11 early twentieth century sites. One of these sites has almost certainly been destroyed by the solid waste and recycling center at the junction of S-214 and S-38. Four of the remaining 10 sites (40%) were identified through our archaeological survey techniques. Six sites were not found.

We do not, however, attribute this relatively low recovery rate to survey methodology. Given the exceptional damage seen at sites such as 38FL341 and 38FL346, it seems more likely that these older tenant sites are simply more likely to have been destroyed by modern agriculture, as well as cultural practices that attempt to remove such sites from the landscape.

The 1940 topographic map reveals the presence of 10 sites. Two of these, southeast of the junction of S-214 and S-38 were destroyed by the construction of the recycling and solid waste center. One site was in an area which may have been disturbed by the relocation of S-83 when the interstate was constructed. Six others were identified in the survey efforts. This leaves only one site not accounted for by the survey. This site should have been found in what is today a fallow field and the only evidence of the site recovered in 100 foot shovel tests was a single fragment of manganese glass (which as an isolated artifact was not assigned a site number).

In other words, although the survey

## CONCLUSIONS

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methodology was not perfect, we came very close to identifying, and recovering, every mid-twentieth site documented for the tract. Consequently, our data set for the survey, at least for the later period of tenancy, should be very accurate.

The loss of the two sites under the recycling and solid waste center is particularly regrettable since one of these structures, based on a plat of the Thomas Hill land partition (Darlington County, Judgement Roll 3041), was likely the home of John McSween, a small landowner, rather than a tenant house. It would have been especially helpful to have evidence of a documented landowner's residence, not only to better understand what such sites look like, but also to allow comparisons with the known tenant sites recovered on the tract.

Two of the sites recommended as potentially eligible (38FL340 and 38FL343) are found on both the 1914 and 1940 maps. It is likely that they represent the greatest longevity. The third site, 38FL344, is shown only on the later (1940) map.

### **Recommendations**

Those sites evaluated as not eligible, pending State Historic Preservation Office concurrence, require no additional management activities. This means that Willis Construction Company need not make any special provisions for their protection or preservation.

For those sites recommended as potentially eligible Willis Construction Company has two options. Either additional archaeological investigations can be undertaken to collect the data necessary for a thorough evaluation, or the site can, essentially, be treated as an eligible property and avoided during construction, as well as subsequent maintenance operations. It is important to emphasize that green spacing requires perpetual preservation and protection.

This green spacing approach is likely the most cost effective, assuming that avoidance is possible. It is also likely to be the most timely approach, allowing Willis Construction Company

to commence construction as soon as the State Historic Preservation Office has concurred with our recommendations.

Finally, it is possible that in spite of this intensive survey, additional archaeological remains may be encountered during construction. If concentrations of pottery, ceramics, arrowheads, bottles, or other remains are identified, all work in the site area should cease until the site can be assessed by either Chicora Foundation or the State Historic Preservation Office. The contractor should be notified to be alert to the possibility of additional archaeological remains.



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