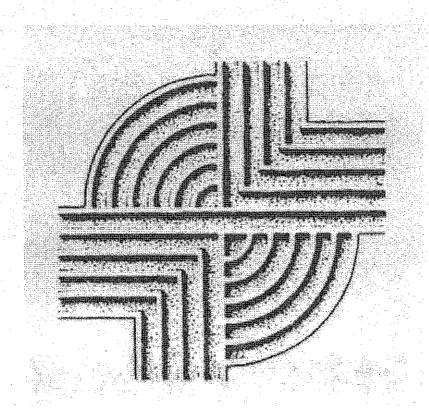
CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE ANTIOCH 1156kV TRANSMISSION LINE, DARLINGTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 310

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CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE ANTIOCH 1156kV TRANSMISSION LINE, DARLINGTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on a cultural resources survey of the approximately 6.25 mile long Antioch 1156kV transmission line corridor in Darlington County, South Carolina. The corridor is situated in northwestern Darlington County, beginning about 4 miles north of Hartsville and terminating about 4.5 miles northwest of Dovesville. The corridor, throughout its length 75-feet in width, parallels an existing transmission corridor for all but 1.7 miles of its length—thus its potential effect on cultural resources is fairly limited and largely confined to direct impacts to archaeological and historical sites within the proposed rights-of-way. The corridor is entirely north of Black Creek, largely on a sandy ridge parallel to this creek and Boggy Swamp to the north.

The study was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work is intended to assist the Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

This section of Darlington County is largely situated in the Sand Hills — an area thought to possess a very low agricultural potential. As a result, antebellum farms were typically small and it wasn't until the late nineteenth and early twentieth century that the region's agriculture expanded with the introduction of tobacco. As a result, early settlement in the area is sparse and oriented to either the swamp edge during the colonial period or the more inland road system during the antebellum and postbellum periods. Native American settlement was largely focused on the ecotone at the swamp-high ground interface. As a result, this corridor, crossing more in the center of the sandy of ridge, has a relatively low archaeological potential.

In addition, nearly 73% of the corridor is immediately adjacent to an existing alignment which is not only much wider (ca. 150 feet) that this additional corridor, but which also contains taller steel towers than the single wood poles proposed for this work. As a result, it is likely that the proposed addition will little or no impact on cultural resources beyond the direct construction zone. Nevertheless, the area of potential effect (APE) for this project was defined as 1.0 mile.

One previously recorded archaeological site was identified in the area. Site 38DA88 is situated about 5,000 feet to the north at the edge of the terrace overlooking Boggy Swamp. The site exhibited a wide range of both prehistoric and historic remains — documenting the extensive use of these swamp edge areas.

Consultation with the S.C. Department of Archives and History GIS failed to identify any National Register properties in the APE. Likewise, an examination of the available mapping for previous architectural survey in the County failed to identify any identified structures in the APE.

The intensive archaeological survey consisted of shovel testing at 100 foot intervals along a single transect down the center of the proposed corridor, which was staked in the field. A total of 311 shovel tests were excavated. An additional 19 were not excavated, falling either in grassed yards of occupied houses or, primarily, in the wetlands of the Boggy Swamp crossing or the swamp of two small branches to the northeast.

This survey identified a single archaeological site, 38DA90, in the survey corridor. Consisting of a thin scatter of historic remains the site likely represents a heavily plowed early twentieth century domestic site. The site is recommended not eligible.

In addition, we conducted a survey of the APE by driving public roads and looking for any structures which were over 50 years of age and which retained integrity.

This survey identified 16 historic resources, 1310036-1310038 and 2200039-0051 in the APE. Of these resources, one (2200039) is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register, two (2200045 and 2200046) are recommended potentially eligible, and the remainder are recommended not eligible. Nevertheless, we do not believe that any of the identified resources will be affected by the proposed undertaking.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during construction. Construction crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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INTRODUCTION

The investigation of the 6.25 mile long Antioch 1156kV transmission line was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The tract is situated in northwestern Darlington County, beginning about 4 miles north of Hartsville and terminating about 4.5 miles northwest of Dovesville (Figure 1). This particular area of Darlington County is situated primarily in the Sand Hills, but extends into the adjacent Upper Coastal Plain to the east. The Sand Hills was not a particularly favorable area for antebellum agriculture and this northwestern corner of Darlington County had fairly small farms throughout its history. Today the region is still largely agricultural, with primarily cotton and soybeans being planted.

This work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800. The work will involve the construction of a new transmission line, 75 feet in width, on which single poles will be erected. For all but 1.7 miles this corridor will parallel an existing transmission corridor about 150 feet in width on which are steel transmission towers. Construction will consist of clearing, followed by augering for placement of poles and the erection of the necessary lines. The work may involve heavy equipment staging and movement, shortterm increased traffic on the nearby highways, the potential for siltation and erosion associated with the clearing activities, the potential for increased dust levels during construction, and increased noise levels for short durations associated with the various construction activities.

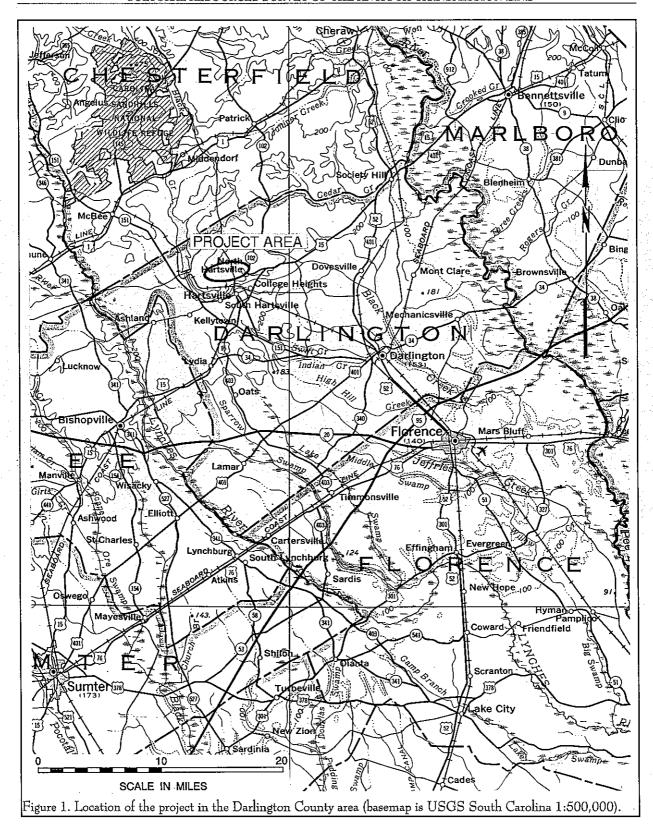
Given the much wider existing powerline easement, as well as the much more intrusive metal towers which already exist, most of the proposed corridor is anticipated to have no visual impact. The remaining 1.7 miles on new alignment are expected to have only a very minor impact because of the project's

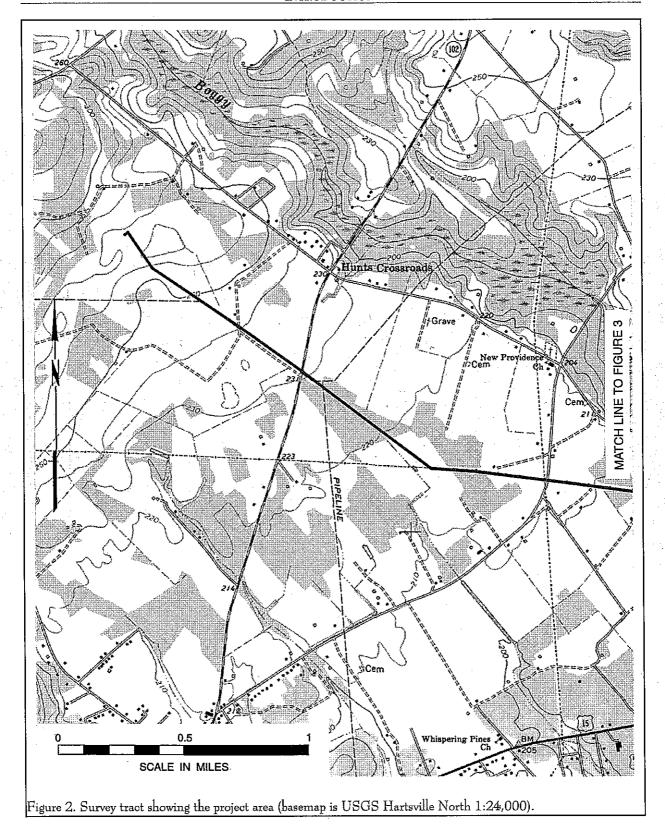
design features. The poles being used are typically shorter than the mature trees found in the region and will be difficult to see in many areas.

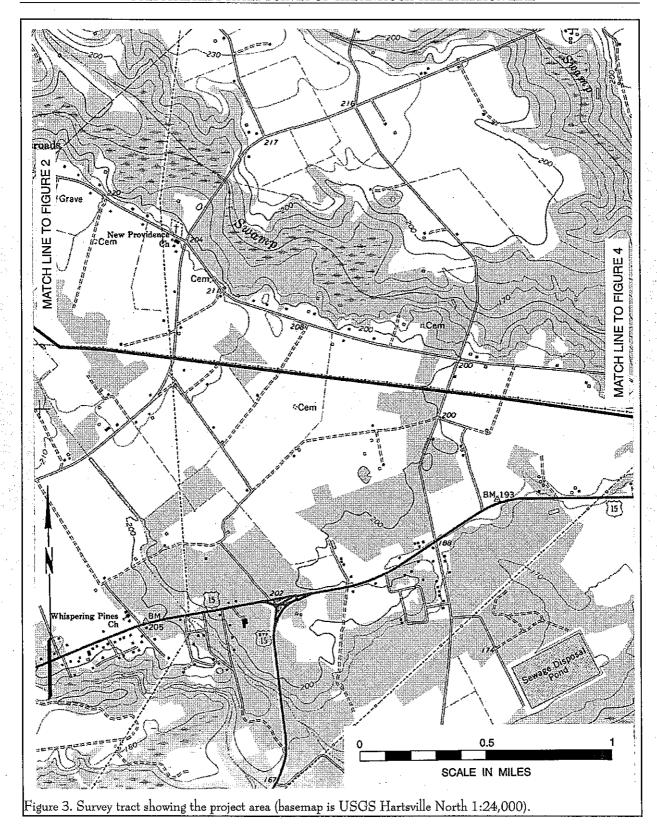
The corridor begins at an existing line about 2,500 feet southeast of the existing Grantham Switching Substation (near the intersection of S-23 and S-13). The corridor runs on new alignment for about 8,500 feet southeast across agricultural fields and woodlots, crossing SC102 about 2,500 feet south of Hunt's Crossroads before tying into an existing transmission line. It follows this existing line as an extension to the south for about 12,500 feet before it cuts across S-13 (N. Center Road) and then ties into another existing transmission line that continues to the northeast. It follows this existing alignment on the north side for about 10,500 feet before turning to southeast and terminating at a new substation southwest of the intersection of S-366 (New Hopewell Road) and S-136 (Bethlehem Road). Following the existing alignment, the corridor crosses through a number of agricultural fields, all planted (but exhibiting good surface visibility) at the time of this survey. It also crosses through the swamp and wetlands associated with Boggy Swamp and two smaller tributaries of Black Creek (Figures 2-4).

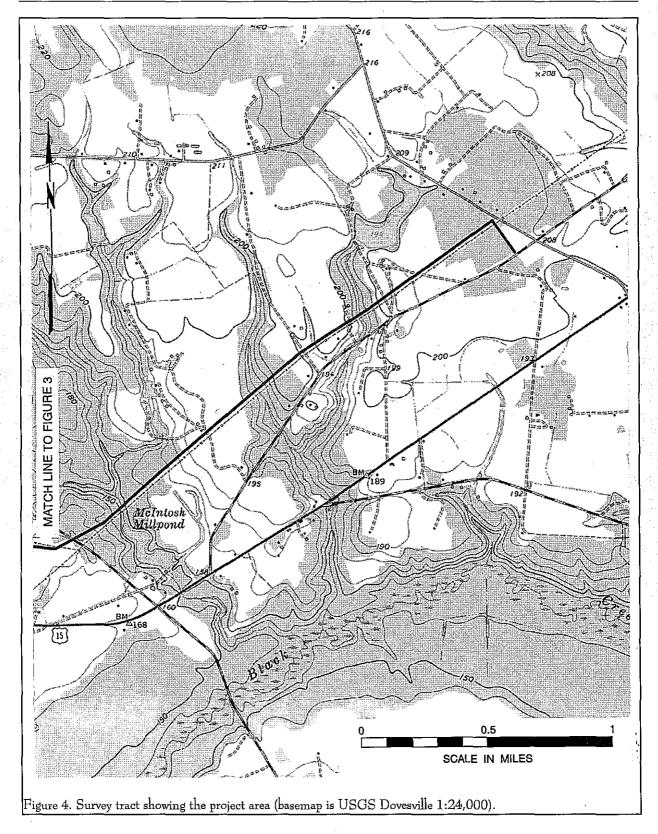
Chicora was requested to submit a budgetary proposal for an intensive survey by Central Electric Power Cooperative on March 6, 2000. A proposal was submitted on March 20, 2000 and a notice to proceed was received in early July. The archaeological investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley. The field crew consisted of Mr. Tom Covington, Mr. Philip MacArthur, Ms. Monica Wiggers, and Ms. Jill Langenburg. The field investigations were conducted on August 17 and 18 and required 64 person hours. The architectural survey was conducted by the author and required 10 person hours.

Although, as previously explained, the current









project is not expected to have significant long-term or short-term "visual, audible, or atmospheric elements" effects beyond a quarter of a mile, this project presented an opportunity to define the area of potential effect (APE) to be 1.0 mile.

The statewide archaeological site files held by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology were examined by Mr. Tom Covington on for information pertinent to the project area. Only one archaeological site, 38DA88, had been previously identified within a mile of the proposed corridor. This site was found at the edge of the bluff overlooking Boggy Swamp, in an ecotone setting that was frequently attractive to Native American populations. The site contains a wide variety of flakes and tools and has been recommended potentially eligible.

In addition, the South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS database was reviewed. There are no National Register of Historic Places buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects on or within a mile of the project area. Nor were any architectural sites previously recorded for the APE. In fact, Darlington has received so little attention that only 35 architectural sites have been previously recorded. As a result, the current survey significantly increases the data base for the county.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

The project area is situated in northwestern Darlington County. The western two-thirds of the corridor is situated on the south side of Black Creek, primarily on an interior sandy ridge ranging from 1,000 to 2,500 feet south of the swamp or ridge edge. Consequently, the bulk of the project is not closely associated with the ridge or terrace edge. The remaining portion of the corridor crosses Boggy Swamp and several smaller drainages, as well as the intervening ridges (Figures 2-4).

Darlington County, situated in the northeastern part of South Carolina, is bounded to the northwest and north by Chesterfield County and to the northeast by the Pee Dee River, which separates Darlington from Marlboro County. To the southeast and south is Florence County, while to the southwest is Lee County. To the west Darlington touches Kershaw

County along with the intersection of Lee and Chesterfield counties.

The county is located entirely within one distinct physiographic provinces — the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The northern portion of the coastal plain is known as the Sand Hills and the northwestern corner Darlington - and about two-thirds of the survey corridor — is found within this Sand Hill region. To the south is the Upper (or Inner) Coastal Plain. This is an area of rolling and hilly topography that is often difficult to distinguish from the topography of the Sand Hills or even the lower Piedmont. The eastern third of the survey corridor is found in this region.

The Carolina Sand Hills is an area of discontinuous hilly topography characterized by rounded hills with gentle slopes, moderate relief, and sandy soils. Although technically part of the Coastal Plain geology, the Sand Hills are distinct geographically. Much of the sand was blown into dunes during the Miocene, although weathered clays and very old river deposits are also present. In many cases these sandy deposits lie directly on the crystalline rocks of the Piedmont (Kovacik and Winberry 1987; Murphy 1995).

Sand Hill and Upper Coastal Plain elevations



Figure 5. Corridor crossing through cultivated fields.

may range from 500 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) to 200 feet AMSL, and in the project area the terrace overlooking Boggy Swamp is about 200 to 220 feet AMSL.

Darlington County is drained primarily by the Great Pee Dee River. Originating in North Carolina with the confluence of the Yadkin and Uwharrie rivers near Badin, the Pee Dee crosses the fall line just north of the project to begin its slow movement through a wide, swampy flood plain to the Atlantic Ocean. A postbellum account noted that five steamboats were finding "profitable employment" on the river, which was navigatable up to Cheraw. The account went on to explain that:

the swamp proper of the River has an average width of two and a half miles. and then comes what is known as the upper low lands, above high water mark, and with an average width of from one and a half to two miles. Of the swamp proper, from one-third to one-half has been or is now under cultivation. The portions uncleared are covered by a growth of valuable trees, such as White and Red Oak, Cypress, Ash, Hickory, and Gum (Committee on Immigration 1874:8-9).

It was, however, Black Creek which was "the pride of the County." The same postbellum account explained that through its route:

> it has very little . . . swamp, its banks being mostly high and dry, and shaded by stately trees. Its bottom is of hard fullers earth, and it is fed mainly by innumerable springs of pure and cold water. The riparian lands of this stream are among the most healthy in the State; and though not unfit for the cultivation of cotton, are distinguished in the County as fine grain lands (Committee Immigration 1874:10).

In contrast, Boggy Swamp was not mentioned, either by this postbellum account or by Mills, nearly forty years earlier.

Geology and Soils

The Sand Hills, as previously mentioned, are characterized by a plain that has generally gentle slopes and elevations of 350 to 500 feet. The soils, like those in the Coastal Plain, are typically unconsolidated marine deposits of light colored sands and kaoline clays. These soils are generally well drained, although some soil series do exhibit fragipans.

Metamorphic and volcanic rocks of the Carolina Slate Belt outcrop north of the survey area in Anson County, North Carolina and west along the fall line in southeastern Lancaster, northern Chesterfield, and Kershaw counties in South Carolina. In the survey area the geology consists of cross-bedded sands, gravel lenses, and impure clays (Bell 1974:9).

The soils of the project area belong to two associations: in the Sand Hills the Lakeland-Vaucluse-Gilead Association and in the Coastal Plain the Norfolk-Coxville Association (Colburn 1960). The corridor crosses 11 distinct soil series.

Most common are the Norfolk soils, found on 47.7% of the corridor. These are generally level to sloping and consist of deep unconsolidated sands and clays found on the uplands. They may have an Aphorizon about 0.6 foot in depth consisting of a grayish-brown (10YR5/2) light sandy loam. Below, to a depth of about 1.1 foot, is a pale-brown (10YR6/3) sand. This rests on a brownish-yellow (10YR6/6) sandy loam that grades into a yellowish-brown (10YR5/6) sandy clay. These soils are also the most common in Darlington County.

The next most common soils on the corridor are Lakeland sands, where they account for 25.2% of the area. The Lakeland soils are common in this section of Darlington and are also unconsolidated sands found in upland areas. They are classified as excessively drained, meaning that they can be droughty. These soils, where cultivated, will have an Ap horizon about 0.7 foot in depth consisting of a gravish-brown



Figure 6. Corridor crossing through cultivated fields with pine woods in background.

(2.5YR5/2) loose sand overlying a very deep (up to 3.3 feet) layer of light yellowish-brown (2.5YR6/4) sand.

The Gilead loamy sands comprise 5.6% of the corridor. They are found in sloping areas, primarily in the northwestern section of the county. The A horizon consists of about 0.4 foot of olive-gray (5Y4/2) sandy loam overlying an additional 0.7 foot of pale-olive (5Y6/3) sandy loam. The B horizon is a light yellowish-brown (2.5Y6/4) sandy clay loam.

Other well drained soils in the corridor include the Eustis (2.0%), Alluvial (1.9%), Vaucluse (1.2%) and Ruston (1.1%) soils. These all have sandy A horizons that are over sands and sandy clays.

The corridor does cross areas of poorly drained soils, typically associated with drainageways. The Coxville sandy loams are found on 5.5% of the corridor, primarily in depressed areas. The soil exhibits an A horizon on dark-gray (10YR4/1) sandy loam about 0.5 foot in depth, overlying a B horizon of gray (10YR5/1) sandy clay to a depth of nearly 2 feet.

Nearly as common is the Dunbar Series. These have an A horizon of very dark grayish-brown

(10YR3/2) sandy loam about 0.6 foot in depth. Below this is about 0.2 foot of light brownish-gray (2.5Y6/2) sandy The loam. horizon consists of gravish-brown (2.5Y5/2) sandy clay loam to about I foot below grade. Below this is a gray (5Y5/1) sandy clay to nearly 3 feet.

Other poorly drained soils include the Grady sandy loams (2.6% of the corridor)

and the Swamps (accounting for about 2.1% of the corridor). None of the Swamp soils were shovel tested in this study since they are consistently flooded and evidence standing water.

Although there are some gullied lands in Darlington County, the region generally avoided the heavy erosion found further north and west and the Sand Hills were characterized as having either little erosion or moderate sheet erosion (Lowery 1934).

Ward has noted that "the most striking feature of these [Sand Hill] soils is their infertility and general unsuitability for agricultural use (Ward 1978:10). In 1934 the Land Policy Section of the Department of Agriculture was authorized to purchase land from Sand Hill farmers as part of a voluntary resettlement program. Mitchell observed that "most persons are appreciative of a chance to dispose of their land, which for the most part is unfit for farming purposes, and to purchase and move to better lands elsewhere" (Mitchell 1937:3).

Even in the early nineteenth century, Mills observed that the agricultural lands were those adjacent to the rivers and in the swamps, while the sandy uplands

were much less productive:

The river lands are of inexhaustible fertility. . . . The swamps on Black river and Lynch's creek are narrow, but rich in soil. The intermediate lands are, by comparison, sand barrens, yet occacionally [sic] presenting some good timber lands (Mills 1972 [1826]:513).

Less than 20 years later Edmund Ruffin had a similar opinion of the sand hills and the wasteful cultivation of the land, yet it seems to have had little impact on the planters he met (Mathew 1992).

In spite of these early warnings, a boosterism spirit seems to have prevailed. An 1874 account notes that:

the Sand Hill Region . . is just beginning to be properly appreciated. In the past it has had no attention for the farmer, its arable land being believed to be confined to a few narrow strips of rich soil in its hollows and along the banks of its streams. Quite recently a few enterprising men have demonstrated, by the indisputable evidence of profitable farms, that its area of land, capable of making a rich return to cultivation, is far more extensive than was supposed" (Committee on Immigration 1874:17).

In the first quarter of the twentieth century the South Carolina Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration found no reason to remark on the threat of erosion, noting only that "elevated flats can be brought to a high state of fertility by proper methods of farming" and that the soils are "superior for peanuts, sweet potatoes, sorghum, watermelons and the staples, oats, cotton, corn, and some wheat" (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:255).

Floristics

Braun (1950), classifies the Sand Hills as part of the Southeast Evergreen Forest Region. Regardless, the potential natural vegetation of the project area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadlead deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak.

John Berry rightly comments that "a walk through the most xeric stages of the fall line sandhills would probably be very boring." Such areas are dominated by turkey oaks, scrubby post oaks, and broad expanses of open sandy soil. Intensively logged areas are frequently found in slash or loblolly pine. There are, however, other econiches. For example, on the more mesic soils pines and mixed hardwoods can be common, dominated by loblolly pines, cedars, southern red oaks, and even pignut and mockernut hickories. In these mesic woods the understory includes dogwoods, sassafras, blackgum, and persimmon (Berry 1980: 103, 114-115). In the floodplain of Boggy Swamp there are black-gum, scrub oak, tupelo gum, sweet gum, and yellow poplar.

In fact, the general area exhibits considerable ecological diversity. Within a mile of the corridor there are several creeks associated with such trees as pond pine, red maple, and sweet bay. There are shrub layers that are very attractive to a diverse range of mammals, including deer, opossum, and raccoon. The Pee Dee basin is a major fly-way and migratory birds, particularly mallard and black duck, are attracted to the region in great numbers. Mills observed that, "quantities of shad and sturgeon are caught in the Pedee during the spring" (Mills 1972 [1826]:635), certainly being a major protein source for the Native Americans. The Sandhills are well suited to turkeys, which are found nesting along the edge of the swamp. The ecotone between swamp and uplands, Piedmont and coastal plain, offers a prime habitat for a wide variety of mammals. It is likely that the swamps associated with Boggy Swamp and other creeks in the area were present prior to the creation of the various mill ponds. In fact, these swamps may owe their original formation to the beavers which were once very common in the region (Ward 1978:11).

It is this diversity which probably made the project area attractive to Native Americans, who saw the site area as providing a range of different environmental zones in close proximity, not a "boring" or sterile sand wasteland (which admittedly is more typical of some sand hill areas).

Today, however, much of this diversity has been lost to either agriculture or industrial development. The survey corridor, for example, is dominated by cultivated fields in cotton and soybeans or fallow fields grown up in brambles and briers. Wooded areas are in second growth and there are relatively few remnant areas of swamp bottom vegetation.

Climate

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

Consequently, the climate of Marlboro County is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of about 44 inches is adequate, although less than in some neighboring counties. About 25 inches of rain occur during the growing season, with periods of drought not uncommon during the summer months(Colburn 1960:85-86). As Hilliard illustrates, these droughts tended to be localized and tended to occur several years in a row, increasing the hardship on those attempting to recover from the previous year's crop failure (Hilliard 1984:16). Perhaps the best wide-scale example of this was the drought of 1845, which caused a series of very serious grain and food shortages throughout the state. In the twentieth century the region saw severe droughts in 1925 and again in 1954.

The average growing season is about 220 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this period. Consequently, most cotton planting, for example, did not take place until early May, avoiding the possibility that a late frost would

damage the young seedlings.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's Formative Cultures (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I. Figure 7 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points, side scrapers, end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has

considerable technological appeal. Oliver suggests a continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian 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 toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie 1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b:Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaption" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps

¹ While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

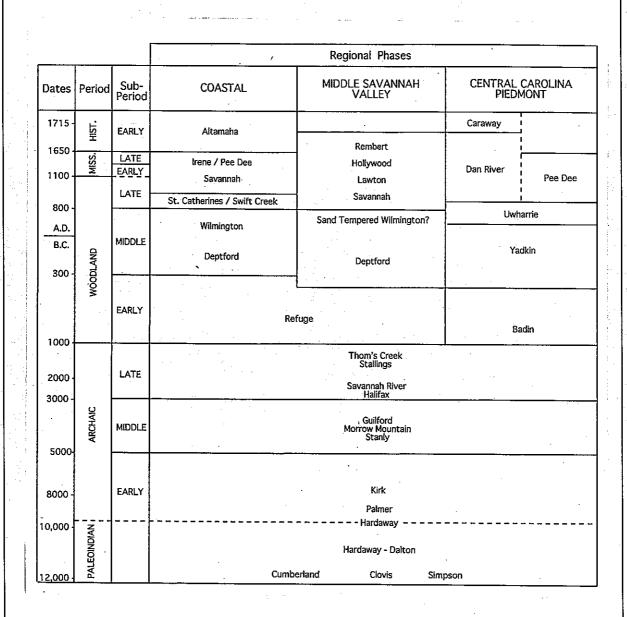


Figure 7. A generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina (partially adapted from Coe 1964: Figure 116).

reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on 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).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.², does not form a sharp break

² The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether ceramics, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics

with the Paleoindian 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 animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broadstemmed projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites which can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts — these are the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials

provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the Sandhills, unfortunately, is not well known.

which has suggested to many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to more commonly occur and storage pits are identified. 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 the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very

Among the most common of all Middle Woodland artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point. Originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem, Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups which would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for

increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one which includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations which focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting "alternative explanations... [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain micro-environments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories there would have been significantly greater pressure to successfully exploit the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sandhills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993) offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to intensively exploit the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000 B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-

44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine which reduced the oak-hickory nut masts which previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sandhills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and microenvironmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery which is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series

found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., 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 Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, 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 camps" 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; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin.³ This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

³ The ceramics suggest clear regional differences during the Woodland which seem to only be magnified during the later phases. Ward (1983:71), for example, notes that there are "marked distinctions" between the pottery from the Buggs Island and Gaston Reservoirs and that from the southcentral Piedmont.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with mediumsized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) 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 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historical Synopsis

Historical accounts of the territory encompassing the Darlington area begin with early trading efforts between Europeans and the Native Americans. Often accounts begin with mention of the "Cheraw," one of the many small tribes that likely joined together forming what are known today as the Catawba. Regardless, in these early years the principal

source of interaction between the European settlers and the Cheraw involved a loosely organized trading network.

After the establishment of South Carolina as a British province in 1670, organization and delineation into more manageable territorial units began. In 1685, the Proprietors sectioned the new province into four counties. Present Darlington was situated beyond even the 1733 extension of Craven.

Although Carolina was settled by the English as a small cog in the mercantile system, the early economy was based more on Indian trade, ranching, subsistence agriculture, and the harvesting of forest products — all forms of rudimentary plunder — than on the production of raw materials so essential to the wealth and power of England. This post was on the path from Charleston to Keowee, the capital of the Cherokee Nation, while other paths lead from the Congarees to the Creek and Catawba nations. It was this pattern of Indian-White relations which lead to the death of six out of every seven Native Americans along the South Carolina coast.

The Yemassee War (1715-1716) resulted in many of the Native American groups in South Carolina being either destroyed, enslaved, or driven out of the region. After the defeat of the Indian threat, the General Assembly opened Indian lands to settlement. In 1730 George II ordered that eleven townships be established in the back country to promote settlement. Within each township, a town would be drawn up fronting the river and each settler would receive a town lot and 50 acres of plantation lands for each family member. The closest to the project area was Fredericksburg, centered at Camden on the east bank of the Wateree River, about 40 miles from Darlington.

By the late 1730s there was an influx of Welsh settlers from Pennsylvania and Delaware. While there were no townships, lands were set aside along the Pee Dee for use by the Welsh Baptists coming from Delaware. Most of these early settlers, with the last names of James Devonald, Evans, Harry, Wilds, and Jones, occupied the bend in the Pee Dee opposite the small town of Long Bluff (later Society Hill) and organized the Baptist Church of Christ at Welsh Neck

in 1738 (Rudisill 1970:5).

Bluff Long represents an earlier settlement of Welsh in the region. Originally they settled on the low-lying east bank of the Pee Dee, but by 1748 they had moved to the high bluffs on the western side of the river. A community developed along the road that ran parallel to the Pee Dee from Georgetown on the coast to Cheraw further inland to the north (Gregg 1867:118). Long Bluff received some measure of fame in 1769 when the Cheraw District was created as one of the seven original judicial districts South Carolina. A court house was built there in 1770 and court was held from 1772 to 1791 when it was moved to further Darlington

south. Nevertheless, equity court continued to be held at Long Bluff until 1824.

Long Bluff's development, however, was stymied by its poor trading location. Cheraw, situated at the head of navigation on the Pee Dee was a far more important commercial center. Cheraw gained further importance with the organization of St. David's Parish in 1768. Long Bluff, however, remained a farming village for many years. It gradually died, while a new settlement only a mile away, but further inland, was established. At first called Greeneville, this new community eventually took the name Society Hill (Rudisill 1970:7).

The early Welsh settlers first attempted to raise



Figure 8. Portion of Mouzon's 1775 An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina showing the project area.

flax and hemp, although largely unsuccessfully (Rice and Thomas 1902:291). They found the sandy soil provided far better pasturage and the area became widely known for its cattle and hogs, which were allowed to run wild, and which were herded together only for slaughter. Coupled with grains, the region "was for a time celebrated for its exportation of meat and breadstuffs" (Rice and Taylor 1902:292).

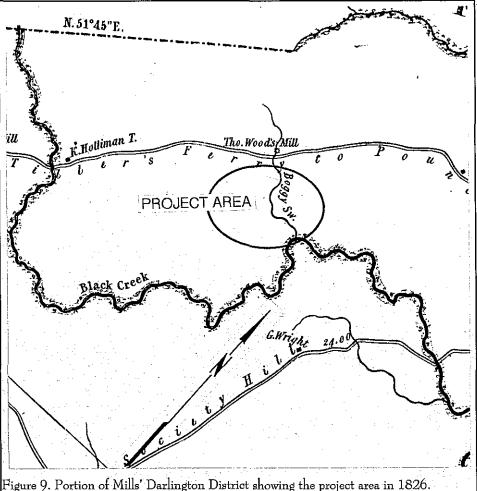
Eventually the initial Welsh Baptists mixed with Scotch-Irish, French Huguenot, and German Palatine settlers, first brought in by the Indian attacks on Scotch-Irish settlements in Pennsylvania during the French and Indian War and later by the defeat of Braddock in 1755. These other settlers brought different religious beliefs, although none were as strong

as the Baptist. The Methodists were unable to gain a foothold in the region until 1789 with their missionary work in the Lydia area and the formation of the Wesley Chapel or Gully Church. The first Presbyterian church was established until 1827 and the Episcopalians did not have a church in the region until 1833, with the formation of Trinity Church at Society Hill (Rudisill 1970:6).

1775 the Mouzon shows extensive settlements along the Pee Dee to the east and the East Branch of Lynches Creek to the west, as well as the Court House at Long Bluff. Between the two drainages comprising the central portion of what would Darlington become

County — there is nothing (Figure 8). While certainly there was settlement in this region, the map helps us understand that settlement during the colonial period was strongly associated with the larger drainages with wide floodplains. It was in these areas that the early settlers focused their agricultural efforts. As late as 1874 one account was remarking that the Pee Dee had been extensively banked and "thus protected from freshets, [the lands] were so productive, that thirty dollars an acre was deemed not too high a price for clearing them from trees and that opportunities for their purchase, at any price, were exceedingly rare" (Committee on Immigration 1874:9).

Although the British occupied Long Bluff in 1780 and Cheraw served as Green's headquarters during the winter of 1780-1, the Darlington area was on the



rtion of Mills Darlington District showing the project area in 1820.

periphery of much of the Revolution. Cornwallis' route north in 1780 was by way of the Santee and Wateree, and Tarleton's route to and from Cowpens in 1781 was to the west of the Darlington area (Morrill 1993). Nevertheless, the economy of the area was wrecked by the Revolution. Indigo, which had been introduced as a cash crop in 1747, was no longer profitable without the various English price supports.

One of the more interesting footnotes in the region's Revolutionary War history was the establishment of a cotton factory by David R. Williams on Cedar Creek near Society Hill. This water powered establishment, initially called the Cheraw Union Factory, produced a variety of cotton goods, primarily bagging and oznaburgs (Rudisill 1970:8). Mills' explains that Williams:

did very well during the nonintercourse act; but, when trade opened again, the employment of the hands was more profitable in raising the cotton than in manufacturing it into cloth (Mills 1972 [1826]:515-516).

This points out that after the Revolution the region began to turn almost exclusively to cotton. In 1800 Darlington (which had been established as a district in 1785) had a population of 7,631, with nearly 31% being African American slaves. By 1820 the District had a population of 10,949 and the slave population had increased to 4,473 — representing nearly 41% of the district's population (Mills 1972 [1826]:516). Mills' Atlas provides a glimpse of the area in the 1820s. Allowing for the bias of including only subscribers, the map (Figure 9) reveals that settlements by the nineteenth century had shifted away from the swamp margins and had become oriented to the various roads. Rice and Taylor comment that after the Revolution there was an increasing awareness of the "unhealthfulness of the lowlands [which] induced a removal to points along the old Camden Road, which follows the sand ridge from Society Hill to Camden" (Rise and Taylor 1902:292).

In was in the 1840s that the village of Hartsville was organized through "the pioneering efforts of Thomas E. Hart who possessed a cultural breadth of view upon the value of developing new lands" (Coker 1976:55). Hart owned lands on the north side of Black Creek, along with other settlers such as the Dalrymples, Kilgores, and Prestwoods (Coker 1976:57). The town, however, was slow to grow and an 1846 account described it as still a rural farming area with not even a store:

when my parents settled in Hartsville, Hartsville extended only along the public road from my grandfather's, Thomas E. Hart, for about three miles east to Snake Branch . . . north of Black Creek which was recognized as the dividing line between Hartsville and the Sand Hill, was a very thinly settled region.

The planters of the neighborhood, all slaveholders, had their residences strung along the ridge just south of the creek, and their farms lay in the level lands in front of them, while they used the poor, sand hill lands north of the creek for open pasturage and fire wood (Thomas Hart Law, quoted in Coker 1976:61).

Some additional support to this view of the county is provided by Rudisill, who observes that the wealth of Darlington was concentrated in the eastern half of the district where there were large plantations. In the western half there were "smaller and less prosperous plantations and farms, and fewer slaves" (Rudisill 1970:8).

Nevertheless, by 1850 the district had a population of 16,830 — with African Americans representing 60% of those living in the district. In terms of farm value, Darlington ranked 12th out of 29 districts. But the area was no longer known for its "breadstuffs." It ranked 17th in wheat production (with 12,092 bushels) and 18th in corn production (with 471,357 bushels). It did do slightly better in the production of rye and oats, with a yield of 73,955 bushels ranking it 12th in the state. It was, however, cotton where the planters made their wealth — Darlington produced 13,005 bales in 1850, placing it 9th in the state (DeBow 1854).

In the late antebellum a number of small communities began to form in the area. Dovesville was originally called Dove's Depot and was on the plantation of Daniel Dove at the C&D railroad. Lamar, originally known as Mims Crossroads, grew up on George Mims plantation. And Leavensworth, with John F. Wilson's store and gristmill, along with a school and post office, developed on Dr. Nathan Leavensworth plantation (Rudisill 1970:7).

Like the Revolution, the Civil War had primarily generalized economic affects on the Darlington area. There were no battles in the district and even the bulk of Sherman's army missed the survey area (Rudisill 1970:8).

Immediately after the Civil War cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again, in the hope of recouping losses from the War. The single largest problem across the South, however, was labor. While some freedmen stayed on to work, others, apparently many others, left. An Englishman traveling through the South immediately after the war remarked that, "Thirty-seven thousand negroes, according to newspaper estimates, have left South Carolina already, traveling west" (quoted in Orser 1988:49).

The hiring of freedmen began immediately after the war, with variable results. The Freedmen's Bureau attempted to establish a system of wage labor, but the effort was largely tempered by the enactment of the Black Codes by the South Carolina Legislature in September 1865. These Codes allowed nominal freedom, while establishing a new kind of slavery, severely restricting the rights and freedoms of the black majority (see Orser 1988:50). Added to the Codes were oppressive contracts which reinforced the power of the plantation owner and degraded the freedom of the Blacks. The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

Gradually owners turned away from wage labor contracts to two kinds of tenancy — sharecropping and renting. While very different, both succeeded in making land ownership very difficult, if not impossible, for the vast majority of Blacks. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay his landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required that he pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. In sharecropping the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the fertilizer, the landlord supplied everything else — land, house, tools, work animals, animal feed, wood for fuel, and the other half of the needed fertilizer. In return the landlord received half of the crop at harvest. This system became known as "working on halves," and the tenants as "half hands," or "half tenants."

In share-renting, the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer costs. The tenant supplied the labor,

animals, animal feed, tools, seed, and the remainder of the fertilizer. At harvest the crop was divided in proportion to the amount of fertilizer that each party supplied. A number of variations on this occurred, one of the most common being "third and fourth," where the landlord received one-fourth of the cotton crop and one-third of all other crops. In cash-renting the landlord provided the land and housing, with the renter providing everything else and paying a fixed per-acre rent in cash.

Just a decade after the Civil War Darlington whites were still trapped in their efforts to make sense of the sudden turn of events. A period publication assured readers that as slaves Blacks had been "treated kindly" and as a result "their natural increase was rapid," — all polite language to describe the efforts by plantation owners to ensure the increase of their slave populations by breeding. The publication went on to explain that the freedmen has "credulous and excitable natures," but that in spite of carpetbaggers the ex-slave in Darlington was "utterly unable to regard and treat as enemies those who had been his life-long friends" - his owner (Committee on Immigration 1874:12-13). Of course, this publication was being distributed in an effort to bring more whites into Darlington, both as owners and also as laborers, to dilute Black voting strength.

In 1884 the labor system of Darlington had changed little. Hoeing and picking was done by day labor, with wages of \$8 to \$10 per month, with rations. Corn was the most common crop, being found on 27,400 acres, followed by cotton on 16,940 acres. All other crops were on far fewer acres, with the observation that:

what we want is more diversified farming. All our efforts to grow fruit and vegetables for market have failed (The News and Courier 1884:n.p.).

The account also explained that the 400 gins in the county (all but 17 powered by water or horses) ginned about 30,000 bales a year. The county's industrial activity was rather sparse. There were 58 flour mills, with 50 of these being small, local grist mills, 20 lumber mills, and 12 turpentine distillers. The single foundry was located in Florence (which didn't become a distinct County until 1888).

In 1887 the cultivation of bright leaf tobacco was introduced and by 1900 Darlington had devoted 6,975 acres to tobacco, with a yield of 5,083,150 pounds. In fact, Darlington ranked second in tobacco production behind Marion County with 6,145,000 pounds. The third ranked producer, Florence County, had a yield of only 2,995,410 pounds. The bulk of the county, however, was still planted in cotton. Darlington's 55,951 acres of cotton yielded 28,778 bales of cotton, placing it 9th in cotton production — the same spot it held before the Civil War.

A 1902 account of cultivation in the county revealed that about a third of the 4,000 farms were operated by share-tenants, where the:

landowner furnishes the land, the work animals, and fertilizers, and the farm implements, and in return receives half of the crop at the time of the sale. The tenant, usually a negro, secures provisions for himself and family from the town merchant, whom he makes secure by a mortgage on the remainder of the crop. Owing to the great risk which he takes, the merchant must add a large margin of profit on such credit sales, and as a result the tenant has little to show for the year's work (Rice and Taylor 1902:306).

At the turn of the century there were only about 20 tracts in Darlington with more than 1,000 acres and these were largely in the eastern section of the county, along the Pee Dee. Labor was reported to be increasingly scarce, with pay ranging from \$7 to \$10 a month — almost exactly what was offered two decades earlier. Another sign that South Carolina was "stuck in time" was the comment that pay for picking cotton was still by the "task," with 40¢ paid for every 100 pounds picked (Rice and Taylor 1902:307).

By 1920, 76,149 acres had been devoted to cotton and the production had risen to 46,253 bales, although the ranking had dropped to below 14th. The acreage to tobacco had also increased — to 11,465 acres — and production was up to 7,660,986 pounds,

representing over 10% of the state's total yield and ranking Darlington third, behind Florence, Horry and Marion counties.

While this seems like a respectable showing, there were serious problems. By 1920 the average farm size had dropped to 56.3 acres from 69.9 acres in 1900 and the rate of farm tenancy had climbed to 75.5% from 67.8% in 1900 — and the state average was only 64.5%.

The 1920s, as one historian has noted, did not roar very loudly in rural South Carolina (Edgar 1998:483). While cotton prices opened high in 1921 (around 40¢ a pound), they dropped steadily, so that in December the price was down to 13½¢. A crop which cost farmers \$250 million to plant, was worth only \$140 million. County populations showed little growth, rural poverty was rampant, and the boll weevil sucked what little life was left out of cotton. Farms who had been on a spending spree in the teens had no ability to weather the economic crisis. Debts, based on the inflated value of land and produce, began piling up to extraordinary levels. Edgar observes that, "farmland and buildings had lost more than on-half their value. Onethird of the state's farms were mortgaged, and 70 percent of the state's farmers survived on borrowed money" (Edgar 1998:485).

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

Some indication of agriculture collapse can be seen when the average acreage, average improved acreage, and average value is examined between 1910 and 1940. The average farm size tended to decrease as part of the World War I crash, going from 60.7 acres in 1910 to 56.3 acres in 1920, with a gradual increase in size to 67.9 acres in 1930 and 71.2 acres in 1940. At least some of this increase is due to government programs and the post-World War II economic recovery. One part of the government action to

encourage agricultural recovery was an effort to limit the number of small, unprofitable farms. We see an increase in improved acreage from 30.1 acres in 1920 to 43.9 acres in 1930, leveling off at about 41.6 acres in 1940. Curiously, the average farm value jumps dramatically from \$2,803 in 1910 to \$6,191 in 1920, climbs slightly to \$6,234 in 1930, and then drops again in 1940 to \$3,029. This farm value, we believe, is at least partially the result of tobacco's high yields.

Figure 10 shows the project area in 1938. A number of farm units, almost all with associated tenant houses, are shown along the major roads bordering the corridor. Settlement continues to

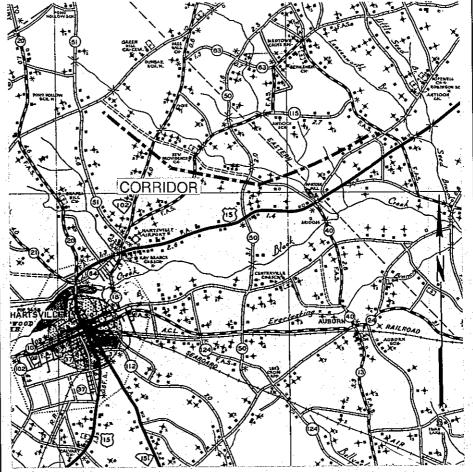


Figure 10. Portion of the 1938 General Highway and Transportation Map of Darlington County showing the project corridor.

be strongly tied to the road network and there are relatively few indications of settlements away from the road system.

METHODS

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100 foot intervals along the centerline of the corridor. Since this corridor is only 75 feet in width, only one transect was proposed. All soil would be screened through 1/4 inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially by transect. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 2 feet or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of two or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 25 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators.

These proposed techniques were implemented with no significant modifications. In addition to the shovel testing, much of the corridor exhibited good surface visibility and a pedestrian survey was also conducted as crew members walked between shovel tests or back from the end of a line to a vehicle.

A total of 311 shovel tests were excavated on the corridor. An additional 19 shovel tests were not excavated. Five were not excavated because they fell into the yard of a modern, occupied house. Six tests were within the floodways of Boggy Swamp, and eight were within the floodways of the two small tributaries of Black Creek. All of these 14 potential tests exhibited standing water.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 1.0 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey recorded buildings, sites, structures, and objects which appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which "have kept their integrity" (Anonymous n.d.:4).

For each identified resource a Statewide Survey Site Form was completed and at least two representative photographs were taken. Permanent control numbers were assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study have been submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

The survey was conducted by driving the public roads (typically county or state secondary roads) in the APE. The roads included S-13 (N. Center Road) from its intersection with S-23 southeast, crossing the corridor to just beyond its Black Creek crossing; a short segment of S-23 about 0.25 mile on either side of the S-13 intersection; SC 102 a mile on either side of the corridor; S-115 (Antioch Road) from a mile south of the corridor northeast to its intersection with S-136 (Bethlehem Road); S-50 (N. Rolling Road) from its intersection with S-115 south to about 2,000 feet past the US 15 intersection; US 15 from the US 15 By-Pass interchange northeast to just past the Levenworth Branch crossing; S-366 (New Hopewell Road) from its intersection with US 15 northeast to just north of S-1082 (Meadowlark Road); S-136 (Bethlehem Road) from just north of the S-115 intersection southeast for about 0.2 mile south of the US 15 intersection; S-1082 (Meadowlark Road) between S-366 and US 15; and S-41 from US 15 to Leisure Lane.

The background research on individual properties was more limited than is the case on county-wide local history surveys. We collected all of the information readily available to us in the field. In other words, where we found residents willing to discuss their property, we took advantage of this to collect additional information. We did not, however, pursue individuals who were not at home, attempt to make contact with others in the area, or aggressively seek out property owners. We did not conduct deed research, nor did we search newspaper archives for property-specific citations.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and

 a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or

method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction: or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context:
- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on each archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we have focused on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, focusing on the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As National Register Bulletin 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials — the physical items used on and in the property - are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. These materials have been catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites have been filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes and photographic materials have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will

be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete.

Analysis of the historic collections follow professionally accepted standards with a level of suitability to the quantity and quality of the remains. In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of historic remains follow such authors as Price (1970) and South (1977). Glass artifacts are identified using sources such as Jones (1986), and Jones and Sullivan (1985). Sutton and Arkush (1996) provide an excellent overview of a broad range of other historic material, although primary sources will typically be provided in the text if the remains require a more detailed analysis.

RESULTS OF SURVEY

Introduction

The cultural resources identified during the intensive survey of the 6.25 mile Antioch transmission line corridor include one archaeological site (38DA90) which is recommended as ineligible for the National Register. The site has been damaged by agricultural activities and we do not believe that it possesses sufficient integrity to allow significant research questions to be addressed.

Also identified are 16 historic resources, including five cemeteries (2200037, 2200039, 2200042, 2200043, and 2200044), four massed-plan folk houses, nearly square under hipped roofs (2200036, 1310040, 2200045, and 2200047), three gable front-and-wing houses (2200046, 2200048, and 1310051), one hall and parlor plan house (2200038), one front-gabled-roof house with Craftsman details (1310050), one massed-plan folk house with a lateral gable roof (2200049), and one isolated (i.e., not associated with a farm complex) tobacco barn (2200041) (Figures 11-13).

Of these resources one cemetery (2200039) is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register and two structures (2200045 and 2200046), both massed-plan folk houses under hipped roofs, are recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register, pending additional historical research beyond the scope of this survey. None of the eligible or potentially eligible resources will be affected by the proposed undertaking.

Archaeological Site 38DA90

Site 38DA90 is a probable twentieth century historic domestic scatter measuring about 125 feet north-south by 75 feet east-west, yielding an scatter of about 9,375 feet² (Figure 14). The site is located within the corridor at station 72+60 about 3,700 feet southeast of the intersection of SC 102 and S-13 (N.

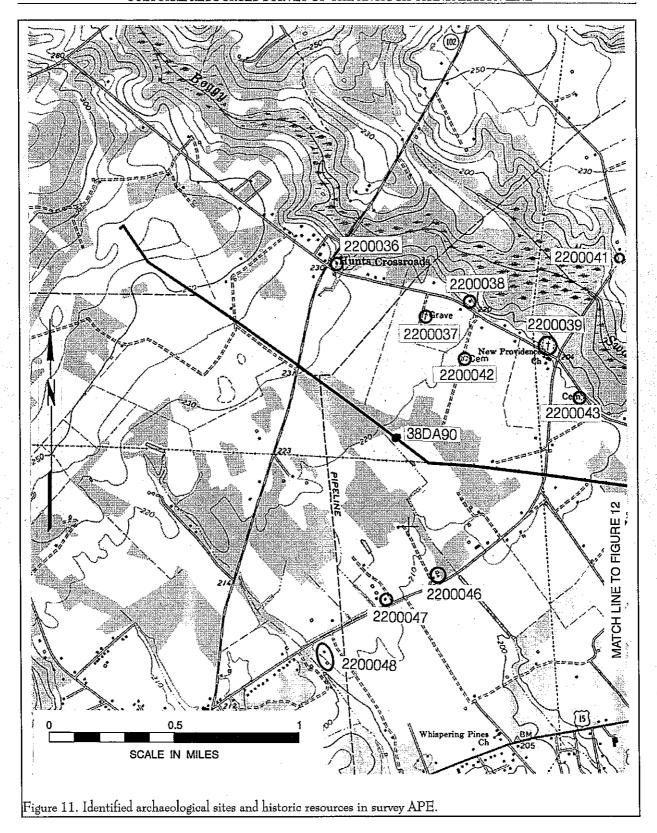
Center Road). The central UTM coordinates are E587960 N3809100 (NAD27 datum) and the elevation is about 215 feet AMSL on a broad interior ridge that exhibits only a very slight slope to the southeast. The area was in a cotton field at the time of the survey, although there was a wooded area about 150 feet to the west. The nearest drainage is Boggy Swamp, about 4,200 feet to the northeast.

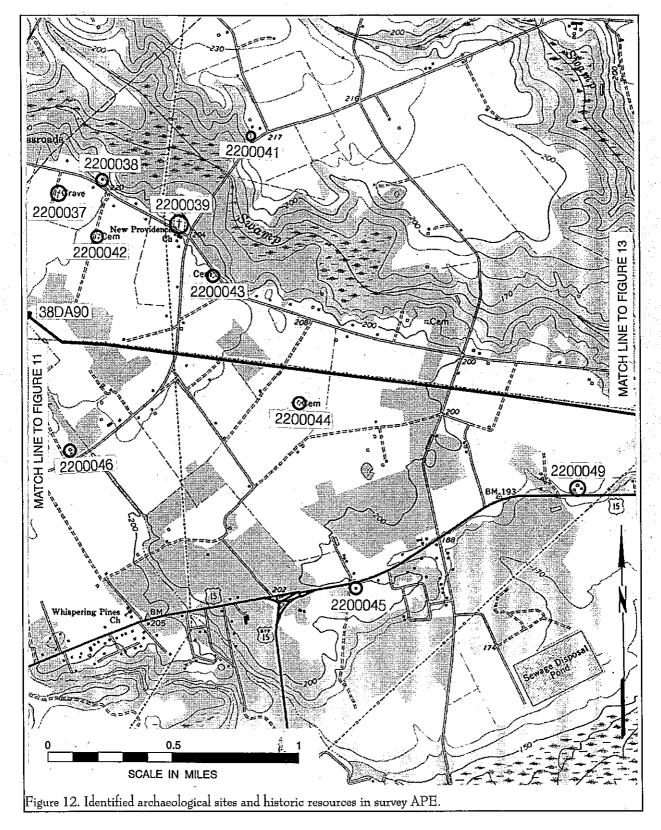
The site was initially identified by surface materials during the pedestrian survey, although routine shovel testing at station 72+60 was positive. A series of 13 additional shovel tests were excavated in a cruciform pattern at 25 and 50-foot intervals across the site in an effort to recover artifacts from intact site areas. Seven of these tests (54%) were positive. The recovered artifacts are itemized in Table 1.

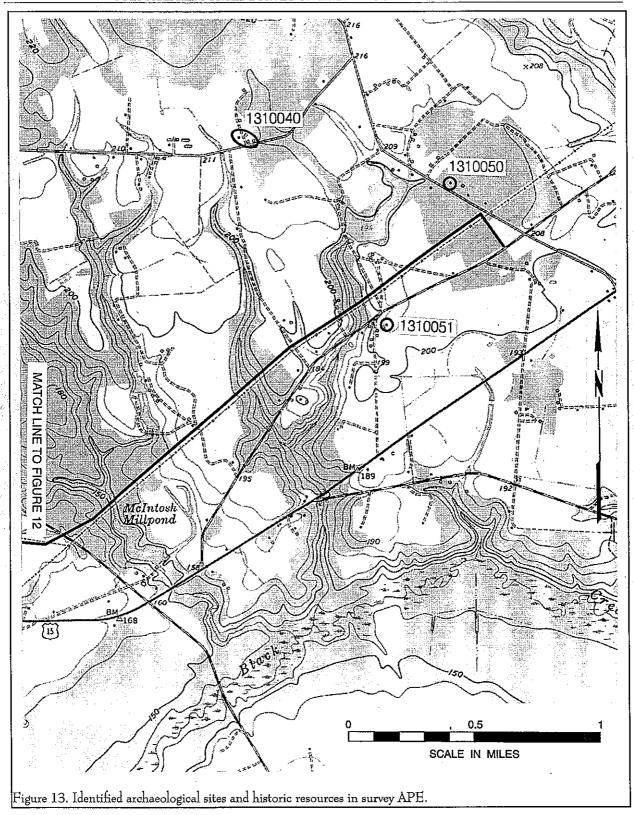
The shovel tests revealed a well defined plowzone (with plowscars) 0.8 foot in depth consisting of a grayish-brown (10YR5/2) sandy loam. All of the recovered artifacts were found in this plowzone. Below was a pale brown (10YR6/3) sand loam to a depth of about 1.1 feet. This graded into a brownish-yellow (10YR6/6) sand loam which extended to a depth of 1.3 feet. The soils got increasing lighter and excavations were terminated at about 2.0 feet in a yellowish-brown (10YR5/6) sandy clay loam. These soils are consistent with a Norfolk soil.

This site is not shown on the 1938 highway map (Figure 9) or on the 1949 aerial photograph of the survey corridor (2F-170). It is, however, shown on the aerials dating from 1957 (Colburn 1960:Map 10). This indicates that the site post-dates 1949.

Although 44 artifacts were recovered from this site, the range of data sets is very limited. The bulk (24 specimens) of the collection represents container glass. An additional 17 specimens are undecorated whiteware. The only non-kitchen group artifacts are a bolt fragment, a 20d machine cut nail, and a hard fired







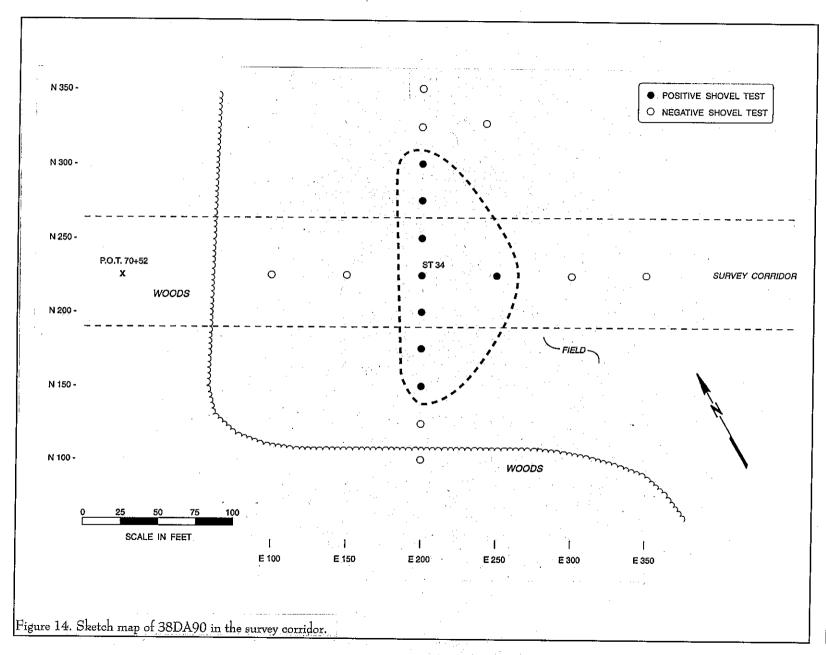


	Table 1. Artifacts Recovered from 38DA90											
			E200 N150	E200 N175	E200 N200	E200 N225	E200 N250	E200 N275	E200 N300	E250 N225	Surface	
Whiteware, undec.			1	7			3			. 6		
Glass, brn.			1			*.					1	
, lt green				. 1		1		1			4	
, milk				2		1					2	
, clear			-	1		2	3	1	3		1	
, blue				i.							2	
, melted	7.5				•		·	1				
Nail, machine cut		14				1						
Bolt fragment Brick fragment									1	1		

brick fragment. Beyond these kitchen items and the few architectural remains, no other artifact classes were identified. Nor were any features found in the course of shovel testing. We were also unable to define any clear concentrations of artifacts that might suggest intrasite patterning — the site appears to be heavily plowed with the artifacts uniformly spread over the site area.

The narrow range of artifact data sets, compromised integrity, and very recent date all suggest that the site is unable to address significant research questions concerning the lifeways of early twentieth century African American or white tenant farmers in the Darlington area. Consequently, we recommend the site as not eligible. No additional management activities are recommended pending the review and concurrence of the State Historic Preservation Office.

Historic and Architectural Resources

There are no architectural or historical sites within the proposed corridor. There are, however, 16 sites identified in the 1-mile APE.

Most of the sites in the APE are residences, with those built between 1910 and 1930 predominating. Most of those that retain integrity are modest-to-substantial dwellings probably occupied by their owners or long-term renters. There are very few whose plan and detailing indicate impressive displays of affluence. None, however, appear to represent the remnants of very modest sharecroppers' houses. Those

dwellings appear to have been especially selected against. Likewise, only one tobacco barn is recorded as a distinct site; these, too, appear to have been largely removed from the landscape.

The properties that have greater architectural interest or integrity reveal some aspects of architectural choices or opportunities in the survey area. As more survey is done in this area, appropriate comparisons and summaries will be possible. The sites that are too deteriorated or altered to warrant National Register consideration, nevertheless provide a good resource for an architectural survey of a larger area than this limited APE.

As previously discussed, we looked primarily at eligibility under Criterion C, and most properties are not considered eligible because of their lack of integrity. Those that are considered eligible are either the best examples of types found in the project area, such as the I-house, or the lateral gable 1½ story structure with Craftsman influences. Also present are three cemeteries, two examples of rural church cemeteries (not to be confused with the suburban results of the nineteenth century "rural cemetery" movement, and one example of a small family graveyard. Finally, one example of relatively ornate church architecture is also identified.

The most common resource type identified in the APE is the cemetery. Four of the five cemeteries identified are likely small family plots, although all have been extensively damaged. Three of these plots (2200037, 2200042, and 2200044) are found in agricultural fields and have been plowed around since at least the 1940s, although they have been allowed to grow up in dense brush over the past decade or so. One of the sites (2200043) is today situated in the front yard of a large, recently constructed house. Each site consists of only one or two marked graves, although it is likely that the number of graves in each is far greater. The marked graves date back, in several cases, to the early or mid-nineteenth century. Nevertheless, the sites have lost all integrity. While they are likely still eligible under Criterion D (ability to contribute significant information) and are protected under South Carolina law, they are not eligible under Criterion C (distinctive characteristics).

The fifth site, the Providence Baptist Church Cemetery, 2200039, is situated northwest of the intersection of S-115 (Antioch Road) and S-13 (N. Center Road). The cemetery dates to at least 1899 and contains approximately 500 marked graves in the old section - representing the western 80% of the cemetery. The Providence Baptist Church on the opposite side of S-13 is a modern structure and is not included with the cemetery site. Almost all of the burials are individual plots or very loosely arranged family groupings. Only one clearly marked (with coping) family plot was found. This site includes a wide variety of marble and granite commercial stones. Several of the marble stones are of special interest since they appear to represent the primitive work of local craftsmen. While often using common themes, they are distinctly different interpretations from the stock motifs typically seen. In addition, the cemetery includes one of the largest extant collections of concrete markers we have seen in this part of South Carolina. While many are repaired (using techniques typical of perhaps the 1970s), many others are in excellent condition. All are significant since, as an assemblage, they represent considerable variation in the theme, providing an exceptional range of verses and sub-styles. This site is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register under Criterion C: art, Criteria Consideration d: cemetery.

Numerically the most common house type in the limited corridor considered during this survey is the massed-plan folk house, nearly square under a hipped roof (McAlester and McAlester1984:100-101). The broad facade often has single windows and full-width porch. A center hall plan, with four main rooms sharing the two internal chimneys, is typical; it is common to find angled fireboxes at the interior walls. This national style developed during the last half of the nineteenth century, and variants were built in the survey area at least into the 1930s.

Two of the four examples are recommend not eligible because of loss of integrity (2200036 and 1310040) - addition of synthetic siding, decorative shutters, metal awnings, storm windows and similar features. Two of the structures, however, are recommended potentially eligible (2200045 and 2200047) because they appear to be good examples of the type and have retained their integrity. Structure 2200047 has a centered front gable with a Craftsman style gable window using colored glass. The gable is decorated with textured shingles. There are exposed rafter tails and the chimneys are corbeled. The center entrance is flanked with sidelights. Structure 2200045 is more elaborate with a porch that wraps around both the right and left facades. The porch has paired gables. The structure has a hipped roof with a lower cross gable, as well as a gabled dormer. All of these gables are clad in textured wood shingles. The main entrance has both sidelights and a transom. We do, however, believe it is appropriate to gather additional information concerning the history and ownership of the structures before a final determination is made.

Three examples of gable-front-and-wing houses are found in the survey corridor (2200046, 2200048, and 1310051). Both one and two stories, these have a side gable wing added at a right angle to a gable-front structure (McAlester and McAlester 1984:92-93). These typically had a shed-roofed porch placed within the L made by the two wings. This style porch is found on all three from the survey area. The specimens from the study area are not especially good examples — all are altered in some manner. The most noticeably altered had wings added to the rear right and left, dramatically changing the view of the front facade. Consequently, none are recommended eligible.

Another form that is associated with folk architecture throughout the South is the side-gabled

house with a massed hall-and-parlor plan (McAlester and McAlester 1984:94-105). Two examples of this form were identified in the survey area (2200038 and 2200049). Structure 2200038 is a single story structure with two interior corbeled chimneys. Dating to about 1880, the structure's facade has been altered by the addition of insect screening on the full facade porch with shed roof. There is also a lean-to addition on the rear. The second structure, 2200049, has been extensively modified with the addition of a screened porch on the right side, metal awnings and a rear addition. The asbestos siding appears original, suggesting a date of ca. 1930. These structures are recommended not eligible.

A single front-gabled roof structure with vague Craftsman-like features was found in the APE (1310050). The structure retains its original cladding, decorative beams at the gable eaves, and exposed roof rafters. Alterations include replacement of the front door, addition of a screen door, and storm windows. This structure is recommended not eligible.

The final structure is a log tobacco barn (2200041). The logs are saddle notched and the chinking is mud, not concrete. The structure was raised on a brick foundation. While the current roof is v-crimp metal, this covers original wood shakes. There are no penetrations for venting or use of oil or gas driers, suggesting that this barn was heated with an exterior wood fire and underground flue (which is not currently visible). Unfortunately, the structure is seriously dilapidated and will not likely survive an additional decade. Although containing a variety of early features, the structure is also isolated from a farm context, currently being found in a lightly wooded area. We recommend the structure not eligible.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of the 6.25 mile long Antioch transmission line corridor situated in northwestern Darlington County. The corridor is 75 feet in width and will be used to construct a 1156kV line on single posts about 60 feet in height. For all but 1.7 miles this corridor will parallel an existing transmission corridor about 150 feet in width on which are steel transmission towers — as a result, the current project represents a relatively minor addition to an existing, and much more prominent, facility. The project will nevertheless result in some clearing (although much of the corridor consists of cultivated fields in which no clearing will be required), placement of poles and lines, and subsequent easement maintenance. This research, conducted for Central Electric Power Cooperative, provides results of the cultural resources investigation and is intended to assist that organization comply with their historic preservation responsibilities.

Historic research reveals that this portion of Darlington County, largest situated in the Sand Hills on an interior ridge, was only sparsely settled or farmed during the colonial and antebellum periods. Even into the early postbellum the region was thought to be poorly suited to cultivation and was used primarily for pasture lands and fire wood. It wasn't until cotton and tobacco were both recognized as viable cash crops in the postbellum economy that this portion of Darlington County became more aggressively cultivated.

Prehistoric settlement similarly appears to have avoided these interior terraces, preferring the swamp edge ecotones instead. The corridor crosses Boggy Swamp and two additional unnamed tributaries of Black Creek, but these areas account for only a very small portion of the corridor.

Although much of the conridor was under cultivation and exhibited good surface visibility, the archaeological survey relied on shovel testing. Shovel tests were excavated at 100 foot intervals down the

centerline of the proposed transmission line, which had been staked prior to the field work. A total of 311 shovel tests were excavated on the corridor. An additional 19 shovel tests were not excavated. Five were not excavated because they fell into the yard of a modern, occupied house. Six tests were within the floodways of Boggy Swamp, and eight were within the floodways of the two small tributaries of Black Creek. All of these 14 potential tests exhibited standing water. The shovel tests general revealed profiles consistent with the soils identified by the Darlington soil survey (Colburn 1960).

One archaeological site, 38DA90, was identified during this survey. The site represents a midtwentieth century (post-1949) domestic site, probably a tenant house. The collection consisted of a narrow range of primarily kitchen remains. Shovel testing revealed no features, although extensive plowing was documented. It seems unlikely that the site, with limited data sets and loss of integrity, can address significant research questions. Its late date also suggests that oral history and documentary research are likely to be more productive than archaeological investigation for the time period. As a result, the site is recommended not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

The failure to identify prehistoric sites is almost certainly the result of the corridor's location, toward the center of the sandy ridge that runs between drainages. Had the corridor skirted the edge of the ridge, in the fields immediately adjacent to the swamps, it is likely that prehistoric sites would have been common. In addition, two of the three drainages which are crossed by the corridor are small and were probably less attractive to Native American settlement.

The failure to identify more historic sites may also be associated with the location of the corridor. It appears that from the nineteenth century on, settlement was largely associated with road systems and interior field areas were far less likely to have been the location of settlements.

A survey of historic sites was conducted within a 1.0 mile APE. A series of 16 historic resources were identified, including five cemeteries (2200037, 2200039, 2200042, 2200043, and 2200044), four massed-plan folk houses, nearly square under hipped roofs (2200036, 1310040, 2200045, and 2200047), three gable front-and-wing houses (2200046, 2200048, and 1310051), one hall and parlor plan house (2200038), one front-gabled-roof house with Craftsman details (1310050), one massed-plan folk house with a lateral gable roof (2200049), and one isolated (i.e., not associated with a farm complex) tobacco barn (2200041).

Of these resources one cemetery (2200039) is recommended eligible for inclusion on the National Register and two structures (2200045 and 2200046), both massed-plan folk houses under hipped roofs, are recommended potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register, pending additional historical research beyond the scope of this survey. The remaining sites are considered not eligible because of their loss of integrity. Nevertheless, since this study increases the number of recorded sites for Darlington County by 50%, it provides an interesting overview of the types of resources which are present in the region — and it demonstrates the need for a comprehensive survey of the area.

None of the sites identified and recommended eligible will be affected by the proposed undertaking.

The corridor is situated about 2,700 feet south of the cemetery (2200039). Although the intervening area is almost entirely cultivated, the existing much more massive corridor stands between the cemetery and the proposed new corridor. The additional lines and single poles will be dwarfed by the existing transmission facilities and will not add any significant visual intrusion.

Structure 2200045 is situated about 4,500 feet (0.85 mile) south of the corridor. Between the structure and the corridor is a large woodlot area. The new corridor will not be visible from the structure. Even if the forested area were to be clear cut, the visual

impact of the proposed corridor is lost between the massiveness of the existing corridor and the proximity of US 15 — a major highway immediately north of the structure.

Structure 2200046 is situated 2,300 feet south of the corridor. Between the two is a drainage and a forested area which is controlled by the structure's owners. But again, even if these woods were to be removed, the proposed corridor is dwarfed by the far more massive existing transmission line.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the corridor during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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