

**RECONNAISSANCE ARCHAEOLOGICAL
SURVEY OF THE TAYLOR/THEUS TRACT AND
HAWKINS BRANCH GRAVITY SEWER LINE,
RICHLAND COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 436

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January 5, 2006

This report is printed on permanent paper ∞

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on a reconnaissance archaeological survey of an approximately 150 acre tract and 1.1 mile corridor in northern Richland County, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist B.P. Barber & Associates, Inc. in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project tract is to be used for a mixed-use development while the corridor is intended for a gravity sewer line that will extend from the property, running southwest along Hawkins Branch to an existing subdivision (Stonington). There the corridor will connect to an existing sewer easement to Beasley Creek.

Three areas (Area A, Area B, and Area C) were examined within the project tract. Area A is located toward the north of the tract and is a toe slope, which extends to the wetlands. Area B is a ridge top located in the eastern portion of the tract near I-77. Area C is just south of the wetland. The corridor was assessed through a pedestrian survey. The purpose of this work was to examine the areas of highest probability for archaeological sites in order to provide B.P. Barber & Associates with information on the probable historical and archaeological involvement anticipated in the development of the tract.

The investigation included the examination of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS to look for any information on National Register sites in the areas, as well as for information on any previous architectural surveys that may have been conducted in the general vicinity. While a comprehensive architectural survey has been performed for Upper Richland County, no sites were found that were on the National Register of Historic Places. However, two houses (4811 and

4812) were recorded within 1.0 mile of the project area. Site 4811 is the c. 1920 Hollis house while site 4812 is a c.1910 house. Both were determined not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

The site files of the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology were also examined. One site, 38RD147, was found within 1.0 mile of the project area. The site consisted of a prehistoric scatter of lithics and eighteenth to twentieth century artifacts. No eligibility was determined for the site, which was recorded in 1977.

To further evaluate the potential for historical and archaeological sites, a number of maps were examined for the area. These maps were either found at the Caroliniana Library or in the files of Chicora Foundation.

No prehistoric sites are known for the project area, but may exist based on the topography of the area, which overlooks a source of water (Hawkins Branch).

Background research revealed at least one structure (shown on the 1935 Killian topographic map) at the southern edge of the project area. The 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Richland County* shows the same structure and a possible tenant structure, which may or may not be on the property.

The archaeological study of the three targeted areas incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals. A total of 12 transects and 84 shovel tests were excavated. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study.

No sites were found as a result of the investigation. Each of the three tested areas, however, did produce quartz prehistoric flakes on the surface. None of the flakes were within 50 feet of each other and there did not appear to be a clear concentration of artifacts.

While reconnaissance studies are not able to provide definitive eligibility determinations, they are able to suggest the need for additional research. No archaeological sites were found in the three targeted areas. This does not mean that no sites exist in the project area, only that no sites were found in these three areas.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. 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

On December 9, 2005, Mr. George Whatley of B.P. Barber & Associates contacted Chicora Foundation requesting a proposal for a reconnaissance archaeological survey of the Taylor/Theus Tract. This property is a 150 acre tract located between I-77 and U.S. 21 in northern Richland County near the city of Blythewood. A 1.1 mile corridor was also included in the study.

For this study, we were asked to conduct some limited field investigations to determine the likelihood that archaeological sites might be found on the property.

To accomplish this work, we reviewed the files of both the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA) and the S.C. Department of Archives and History (SHPO). We then examined several maps of the property found at Caroliniana Library and in-house at Chicora Foundation. We then targeted three areas where there was a high probability to find archaeological remains. Those three areas (we labeled as A, B, and C) were then subjected to an archaeological survey, including both a pedestrian survey where the surface visibility was adequate and also shovel testing in those areas where no surface visibility was possible.

Reconnaissance studies are not, by their nature, adequate to fulfill Section 106 compliance studies for projects requiring federal or state permitting. They are, however, adequate to document the potential for significant sites to exist in a study area. In this case, if it was possible to identify sites, we felt that it would suggest that archaeological remains were preserved on the property and that additional research was prudent. Consequently, this study was not designed to identify all of the archaeological resources on the study property, but rather to just examine selected areas to see if remains would be

present. This level of investigation was requested by the SHPO based on our discussions with Mr. Whatley.

These background investigations were conducted on December 28, 2005, with the report prepared from January 5 to 10, 2006. The historic research was conducted by Ms. Julie Poppell and Ms. Nicole Southerland.

The project area is situated in northern Richland County, south of the city of Blythewood (Figure 1). The project tract consists of about 150 acres and is situated between I-77 and US 21, while the corridor is about 1.1 miles and extends southwest along Hawkins Branch (Figure 2).

The survey area is located in the Carolina Sand Hills, which has hilly topography. The survey area ranges in elevation from 374 feet to 436 feet AMSL with the topography sloping down to Hawkins Branch. Almost the entire property is wooded, primarily in pine and mixed hardwoods.

The study tract includes at least four soil series, with two moderately well drained (Pelion loamy sand and Blanton sand), one well drained (Fuquay sand), and one excessively drained (Lakeland sand) soil. These soils generally occur from 0 to 15% slopes.

In general, the natural conditions of the property suggest that prehistoric sites might be found adjacent to the lowlands. Erosion does not appear, normally, to be a significant issue.

The archaeological survey of the tract and pedestrian survey of the corridor was conducted on January 4, 2006 by Ms. Julie Poppell and Ms. Nicole Southerland. The survey failed to produce any archaeological sites.

INTRODUCTION

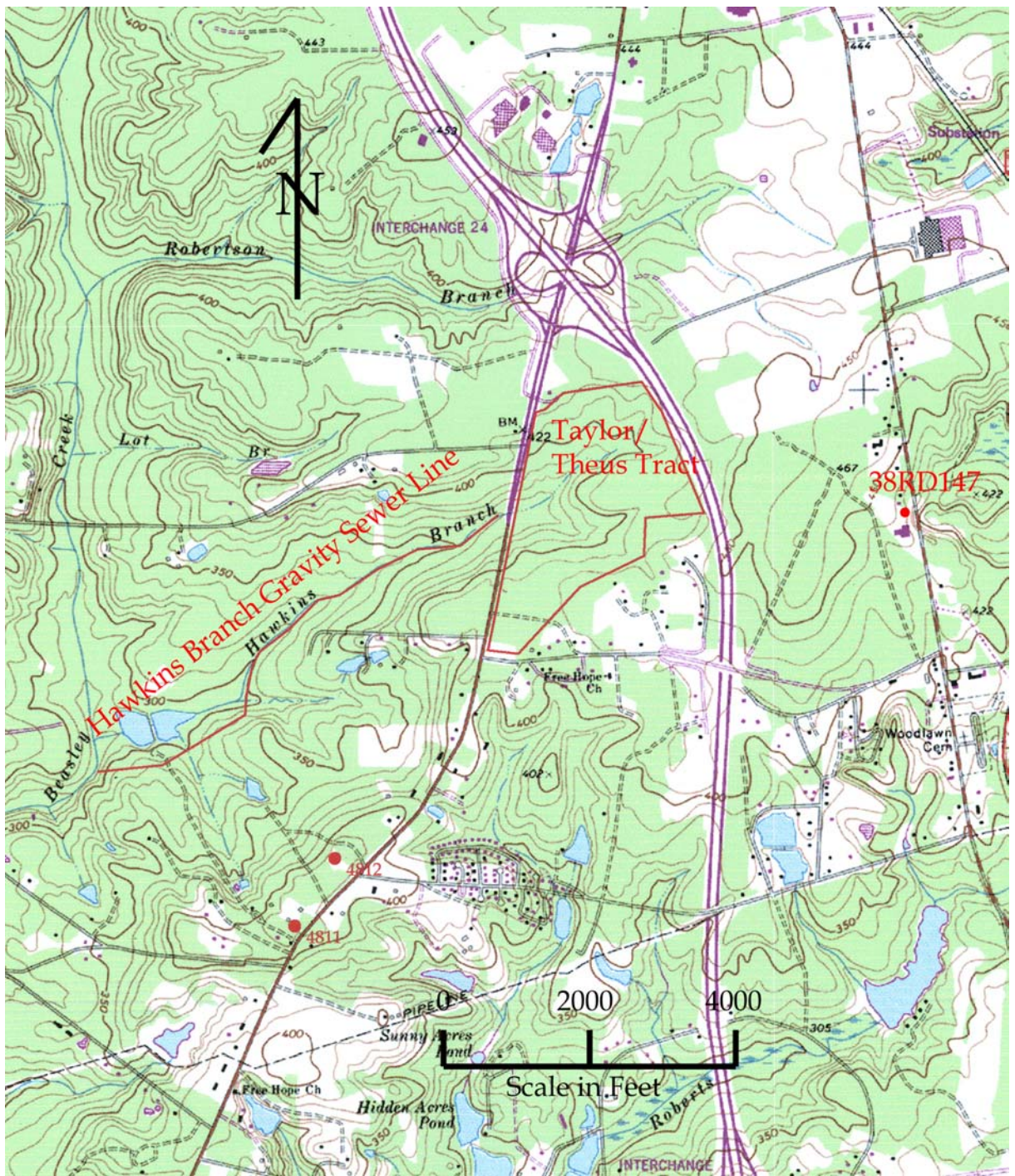


Figure 2. Project area with previously identified archaeological and architectural sites (basemap is USGS Blythewood 7.5').

ENVIRONMENTAL BACKGROUND

Physiographic Province

Richland County, situated in the approximate center of South Carolina, is bounded to the southwest by the Congaree River, to the southeast by the Wateree River, to the northeast by Kershaw County, to the north by Fairfield County, as well as sections of both Cedar Creek and the Broad River, and to the northwest by Lexington County.

The county is located within two distinct physiographic provinces – the Piedmont Plateau and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The northern half of the coastal plain is known as the Sand Hills. About a third of Richland County is found within the Piedmont, separated from the coastal plain by an irregular line, known as the Fall Line, which extends north from the vicinity of Columbia and runs west of US 21 to Blythewood. From Blythewood, the Fall Line continues southeast, entering Kershaw County at the confluence of Twentyfive Mile Creek and Rice Creek.

The project area is technically situated in the Carolina Sand Hills, 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).

The study area, therefore, is in close contact with a range of physiographic regions. To the northwest are the dissected plains consisting of the hills and valleys cut by creeks and rivers as they flow toward the coastal plain. Possibly part of the peneplain, the Piedmont is characterized by the dendritic stream patterns. It is also characterized by a range of metavolcanic, quartz, and quartzite materials used by Native Americans for stone tools. To the south is the Coastal Plain, where the topography changes dramatically, the hilly upper Coastal Plain giving way to the broad expanses of relatively flat, level ground associated with the lower Coastal Plain. These areas provide sources for Coastal Plain cherts, also used extensively for tool manufacture.



Figure 3. View of mixed pines and hardwoods on the property.



Figure 4. View of Hawkins Branch.

The survey area consists of mostly moderately well drained to excessively drained soils. The most common soil found on the tract is Pelion loamy sand. This series, which ranges in slope from 2 to 15%, has an A horizon of very dark gray (10YR3/1) loamy sand to 0.4 foot in depth to a pale brown (10YR6/3) loamy sand to just under 1.0 foot. This soil is moderately well drained, as is the Blanton Series, which has an A horizon of

dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) sand to 0.8 foot in depth over a pale yellow (2.5Y7/4) sand to a depth of 1.8 feet.

In the project area, the elevations range from about 374 to 436 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). Slopes are steep, ranging from 0 to 15%, and slope down to Hawkins Branch.

Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont, just north of the project, are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In Richland County, many of the Piedmont soils, such as the Nason-Georgeville unit, are weathered from argillites rich in silica and alumina. Other soils are formed in saprolite that weathered from crystalline rocks and "Carolina slates". Soils from the river floodplains formed in sediment that washed from the uplands of the Piedmont province.

One well-drained soil, Fuquay sand, was found on the tract. This soil has an Ap horizon of grayish brown (2.5Y5.2) sand to 0.7 foot over a light yellowish brown (10YR6/4) sand to 3.0 feet in depth.

One excessively drained soil, Lakeland sand, was found, which covered most of the southern area of the tract. Lakeland sands have an A horizon of dark gray (10YR4/1) sand to 0.2 foot over a yellowish brown (10YR5/6) sand to 2.4 feet in depth.

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry (1934) found that this portion of Richland County exhibited moderate sheet erosion and occasional gullies. Although Richland County was not included in Stanley Trimble's erosion study of the Southern Piedmont, Fairfield County, within only a few miles of the project area, was reported to have lost over a foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum

erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III - the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina, including the Piedmont. 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.

Consequently, the climate of Richland County is temperate (Lawrence 1978). The winters are relatively mild and the summers hot and humid. The average temperature for the winter is 48EF while the average summer temperature is 80EF. Rainfall in the amount of about 27 inches is adequate.

The average growing season is about 232 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this by as much as 30 days (Lawrence 1978:73). 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.

Floristics

Piedmont forests, just north of the survey area, generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). Regardless, the potential natural vegetation of the



Figure 5. View of corridor along a steep slope.

project area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak. In actuality, the Piedmont is composed of a patchwork of open fields, pine woodlots, hardwood stands, mixed stands, and second growth fields. Shelford (1963) includes the Carolina Piedmont in the Oak-Hickory zone of the Southern Temperate Deciduous Forest Biome.

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. While most of the pines have been logged out, there are other econiches. 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).

Today little of the study tract exhibits

anything resembling these original forests. Cultivation and logging have taken most of the original forests. The study area is generally covered in a mixed pine and hardwood forest with dense underbrush (Figure 3). The wetland area, surrounding Hawkins Branch (Figure 4), is covered in a variety of hardwoods. The corridor, since it follows Hawkins Branch, consisted of a mostly sparse hardwood forest, however the area was covered in steep slopes (Figure 5).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Previous Research

Richland County has received a large amount of archaeological and historical attention. Most of the surveys performed in the county are compliance related including some near the current survey area (see for example Trinkley 2000 and Southerland and Trinkley 2004).

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 6 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).

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 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

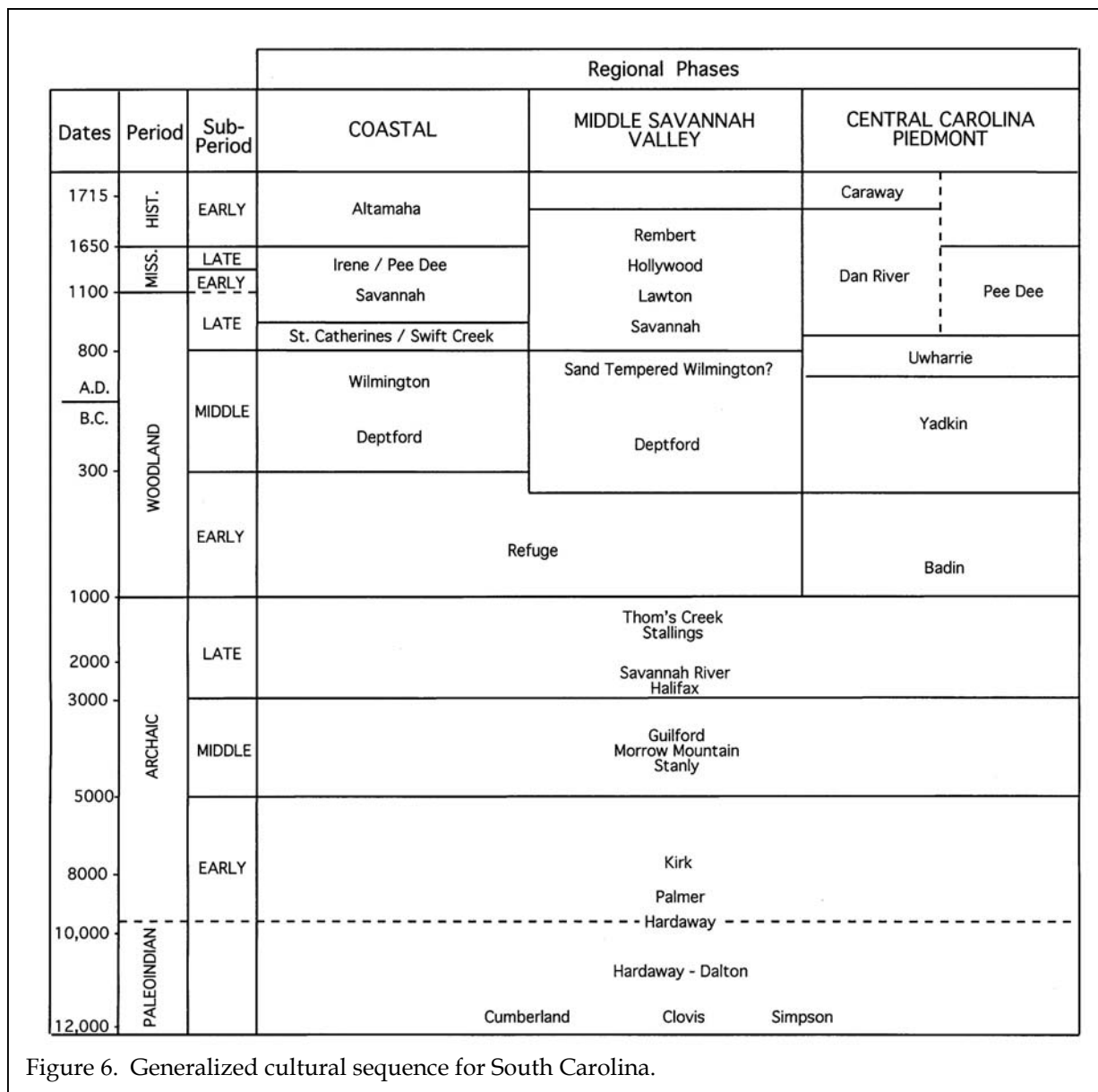


Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

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.¹, does not form a sharp break 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 broad-stemmed 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 that 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, 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

¹ 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 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.

Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Archaic 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 that 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 that 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 that 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 Gypsy 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 South 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 that 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 micro-environmental 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 that 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.² 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.

² 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 south-central 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 medium-sized 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

There are several histories of Richland County that should be consulted for a more detailed information concerning the project area,

including Green's *A History of Richland County* (Green 1932) and Moore's (1993) *Columbia and Richland County: A South Carolina Community*. This synopsis will only briefly cover the major historic influences on the region.

While the coastal region has received much of the historical research, the interior of the state is equally interesting. 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. By 1700, only 20 years after the founding of Charles Towne, the trading post at the Congarees (Congaree Creek near Columbia), was well established (see Michie n.d.). 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 that 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 and in 1718 Fort Congaree was established at the Congarees to protect settlers in the region. Fort Congaree was abandoned and later replaced by Fort Granby, further to the north. The area, however, was far from safe, apparently being near the undivided Cherokee and Catawba hunting ground.

When South and North Carolina were divided in the early 1700s there were no interior settlements. 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. Two

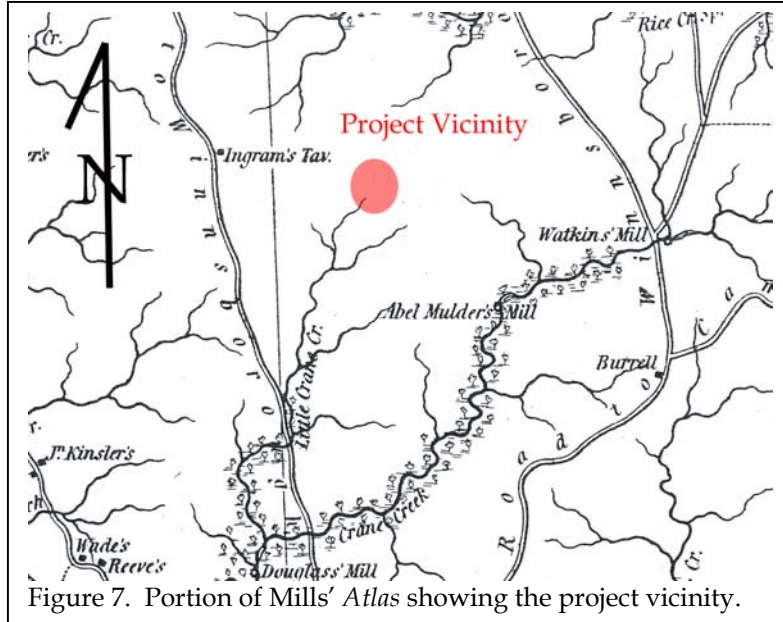


Figure 7. Portion of Mills' Atlas showing the project vicinity.

of these townships, Amelia and Saxe Gotha, are south and west of Columbia and a third, Fredericksburg, was located to the east, in the Camden area. By the late 1730s, settlers were moving into the area between the Wateree and Congaree rivers. These first settlers included not only South Carolinians from the coastal region, but also individuals from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Nevertheless, DeBrahm's *Map of South Carolina and a Part of Georgia* from 1757 shows northern Richland County as uncharted – and likely very sparsely settled. Even as late as 1773, James Cook shows little activity in this region on his *Map of the Province of South Carolina*.

Settlement in the region was largely spurred by the Indian attacks on Scotch-Irish settlements in Pennsylvania and Virginia during the French and Indian War. A wave of immigration flooded the Wateree region with the defeat of Braddock in Virginia in 1755 (Oliphant 1964:125).

The American Revolution had little impact on the project area. Although Camden, to the west, fell to the British in 1780, a skirmish at Fort Granby, to the south, in 1781 was won by the Americans who took possession of the fort.

Additional skirmishes were also fought at Friday's Ferry and Juniper Spring in nearby Lexington County (Lipscomb 1991). It seems that most of the region's farmers were supportive of the patriot forces. By 1782, the British had been forced out of the upcountry.

Richland District is one of seven districts or counties that were taken from the Camden District (originally formed in 1768). Created in 1785, Richland was the result of increased interior population and demand for local government. Because of Columbia's central location, it became the state capital in 1786, although it wasn't until the promotion of the cotton gin in the

1790s that cotton became the economic backbone of the region. Mills (1972 [1826]: 697) remarked that "everything is neglected for the culture of cotton," likely because of the rich lands around the new capital yielded upwards of 500 pounds of cotton per acre. Mills' 1825 *Atlas* shows the gradual increase in plantations spreading out around Columbia, although the project area continues to be shown as unsettled (Figure 7).

The dependence on cotton resulted in the failure to diversify crops and establish any meaningful industry (see Adams and Trinkley 1992 for a discussion of the Columbia Canal and Trinkley 1993 for a discussion of the Palmetto Foundry). It also resulted in the number of African American slaves increasing from 1,451 in 1790 (when there were 2,479 white residents) to 3,168 in 1800 (at which time there were only 2,929 whites in the county). This disparity of population continued until 1920.

Just as the area saw little activity during the American Revolution, the Civil War made little impact in the northern Richland County area. In fact, it is likely that the greatest action was seen at the end of the war in 1865, when General William T. Sherman marched toward Columbia

rather than Charleston as was expected. Sherman crossed the Saluda River, north of Columbia, and moved into the land between the Saluda and Broad Rivers. Part of his force (the 20th Corps) moved on into Fairfield County, while another group turned east and entered Columbia, crossing the Broad River near the present crossing of Broad River Road and I-126. The 17th Corps, upon leaving Columbia, followed the route of what is today SC 555 north to Winnsboro, while another wing moved northward further to the east. There are no specific comments concerning the Killian area, although it is clear that considerable activity took place in the vicinity. One account remarks that

687).

By this time, Killian, to the southeast, was mapped as a post office, although Neuffer reports that Killian was “named for a family who lived . . . in . . . a great mansion across the railroad” (Neuffer 1981:9). Moore (1993:186) also suggests that Killian’s was a training or parade ground for Confederate troops. Nevertheless, there is no mention of the plantation or any special commissary stores in this area.

The immediate postbellum period was difficult for many in South Carolina – black and white alike. The loss of property and life, the near

On the 20th the command moved without opposition to Dako [Ridgeway] Station, seventeen miles north of the city [Columbia]. Details were engaged in destroying the railroad up to this point, and on the following morning one brigade from each division was detached to move along and thoroughly destroy the railroad (OR’98, pp. 379-380).

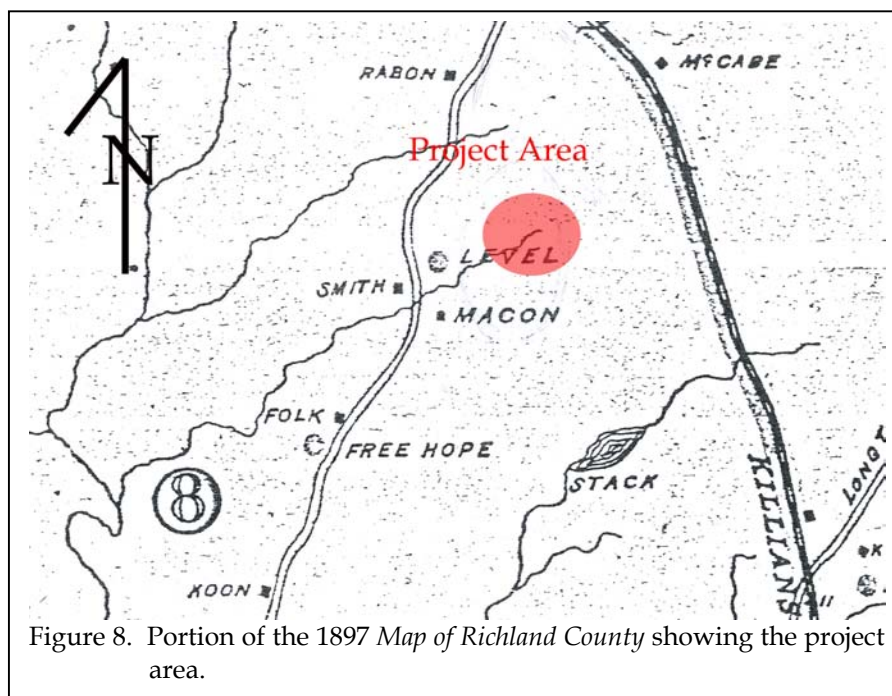


Figure 8. Portion of the 1897 Map of Richland County showing the project area.

While another explains that the general vicinity was “high and rolling, with occasional outcroppings of the granite formation, a more fertile region and better cultivated than any passed over in South Carolina” (OR 98, p. 188). Yet another account remarked, “the country on our route today was a rich one, and forage and supplies were plentiful. The soil was a good, rich loam, with subsoil of yellow or red clay” (OR 98, p.

total destruction of transportation networks and industrial facilities, combined with the collapse of traditional financing and slave labor, created a situation of exceptional misery. The Union failed to follow through on provisions to ensure the safety, education, and self-sufficiency of its new black citizens and the South sought measures to re-establish the old order. Contracts, and eventually the Black Codes, created something approaching a new for of slavery.

By 1880 there were 21 grist mills, four

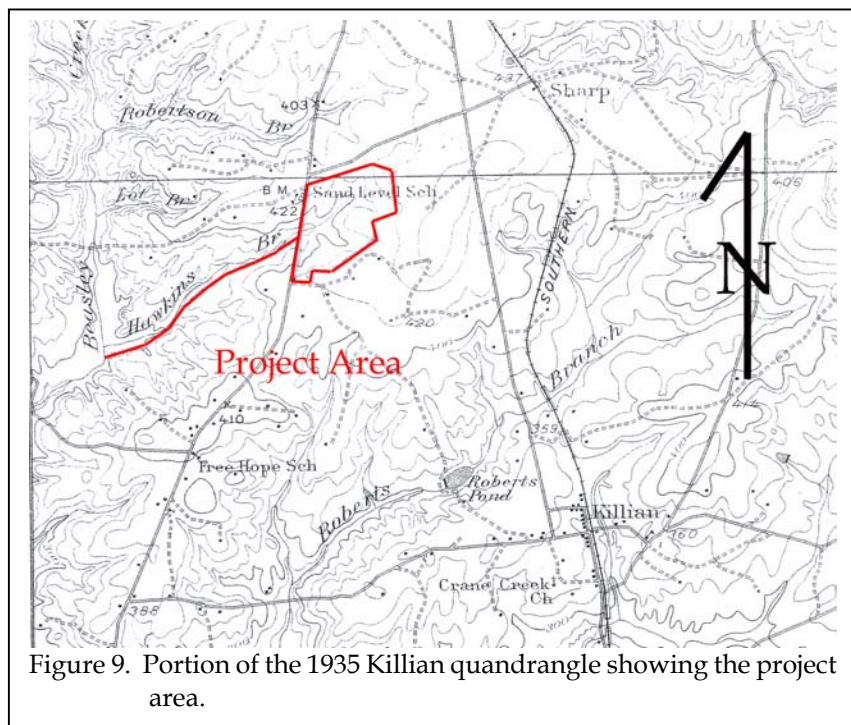


Figure 9. Portion of the 1935 Killian quadrangle showing the project area.

foundries, 12 lumber mills, and 17 turpentine mills in Richland County capitalized at just under half a million dollars. These industrial activities were largely small operations – only one of the grist mills, for example, was a merchant mill. The rest were scattered around the county and ground corn into meal for immediate neighborhood wants, operating one or two days a week. Agricultural activities were little more focused. The county boasted only one sower, 50 reapers, and three sulky plows, although there were over 2,200 guano distributors and nearly 750 harrows. The vast majority of agricultural activities were still conducted by hand, with over 85% of the labor supplied by blacks. There were 1,540 white owned farms operated by blacks, and the wage system (with daily wages ranging from 30¢ to 50¢) and

sharecropping were both equally used. Like elsewhere in South Carolina the white owners reported their laborers to be inefficient. In fact, it was suggested that “the large tracts of land now owned by a few proprietors should be sold to working white men in small areas, instead of being rented to colored tenants, who injure it by bad cultivation” (The News and Courier 1880:n.p.). It was figured that each pound of cotton cost about 8¢ to produce (or about \$40 per bale), with 72% of that cost occurring during the raising of the cotton.

An 1897 Map of Richland County, South Carolina (Figure 8) shows two structures near the project area, the Level School and a Macon house. Both of these structures are shown on the east side of the road, however, more modern maps show the school on the west side of the road, suggesting either the road had been

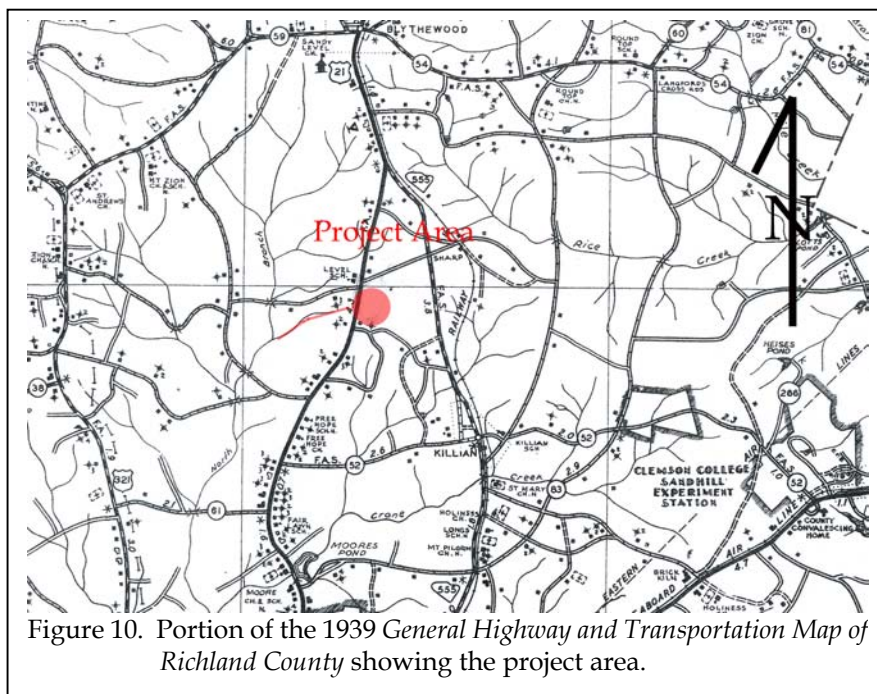


Figure 10. Portion of the 1939 General Highway and Transportation Map of Richland County showing the project area.

reworked or the school was relocated. We found no evidence that the school was ever on the project tract, but since this is a reconnaissance level survey, the location is uncertain.

By 1907, corn was planted on almost as many acres as cotton (30,399 acres compared to 35,182 acres of cotton). Industry was more common, including brick works, lumber mills, quarries, and most importantly, cotton mills. In fact, the Olympia Mill was the largest cotton mill under one roof in the world with 10 acres of floor space, 100,000 spindles and 2,250 looms (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:560).

One of the earliest detailed maps of the region is the 1935 topographic map shown in Figure 9. By this time, Killian is a small railroad community. In the survey area, one structure is shown in the southern portion of the tract, which could possibly be the Macon house as shown in Figure 8. Moore comments that one by-product of the postbellum dissolution of large plantations was "the creation of village life" (Moore 1993:210). There were a number of small rail town which also served as post offices similar to Killian, such as Sharp's, located just north of Killian and just east of the current project area. Following the pattern established at least by the early nineteenth century, most of the settlements were situated along the major road network, not along the creeks and streams, which offered, limited transportation potential. By 1939, the structure from the 1935 map is still shown, but there also appears to be a tenant structure nearby, which may or may not be in the project area (Figure 10).

The Great Depression of the 1930s was perhaps less disruptive in the Columbia area than many other places. Loften (1977) suggests that the diversified industrial base of Columbia, combined with its strong professional orientation helped buffer it from the depression's effects. More to the point, outside the city agriculture was already so depressed that there were no abrupt changes in the farming community - many farm laborers were already out of work or were marginally

surviving. The number of farms in Richland County was declining during the first quarter of the twentieth century (from 2,927 in 1900 to 2,748 in 1910). Although a change in the method of calculating farm units increased the number to 3,889 in 1920, the number again steadily declined to 2,787 in 1930 and 2,428 in 1940. Just as the number of farms declined, so too did the acres in farms, from a high of 238,193 in 1900 to 191,430 in 1930. Most telling, however, was the decline in farm values. In 1920, the average farm value for Richland County was \$5,575 or about \$54.11/acre. Within 10 years about half of this average value was lost - in 1930 the average value was calculated at \$2,852. While the average value held steady between 1930 and 1940, the value per acre continued to slip - from nearly \$42 in 1930 to only about \$33 in 1940.

This change gradually continued over the next forty years so that in 1980 there were only 382 farms listed for Richland County, with an associated decline in farm size. Replacing agriculture in Richland County was an increased dependence on industrial and governmental activities. While the county was largely urban even as early as 1920, when 51.3% of the population lived in urban areas, this increased to 61.6% in 1940.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Introduction

Based on background research of maps including:

1. Mills' *Atlas* of 1825 (see Figure 7)
2. Stoeber's *Richland County* of 1873
3. *Map of Richland County* of 1897 (see Figure 8)
4. *Map of Richland County Showing School Districts* from 1915
5. *New Map of Richland County* of 1929
6. 1935 Killian 7.5' topographic map (see Figure 9)
7. *General Highway and Transportation Map of Richland County* from 1939 (see Figure 10)

we were able to determine that the property tract and corridor had a low probability for finding historic sites. The exception is beginning on the 1935 map is a structure to the south on the tract. A modern surveyor map, however, showed three areas (which we labeled A, B, and C) that appear to have a high probability for producing prehistoric sites (Figure 12).

Area A is located in the northern portion of the tract and is a toe slope extending into the wetland created

by Hawkins Branch. Area B is located in the eastern portion of the tract, bordering I-77 (Figure 13) and property just south off the tract. This area forms a ridge top that overlooks the wetlands of Hawkins Branch. Area C is in the central western portion of the tract, just south of wetlands. This area also forms a toe slope into the wetlands.

Field Survey and Findings

The three areas were examined using a systematic intensive survey methodology. The study was conducted using shovel tests placed at 100 foot intervals on transects also spaced at 100 foot intervals. For Area A, a total of four transects were established and a total of 22 shovel tests were excavated. For Area B, five transects were established and 50 shovel tests excavated. Area C incorporated three transects and 12 shovel tests. The corridor, which runs along Hawkins Branch



Figure 11. Shovel testing in the project area.

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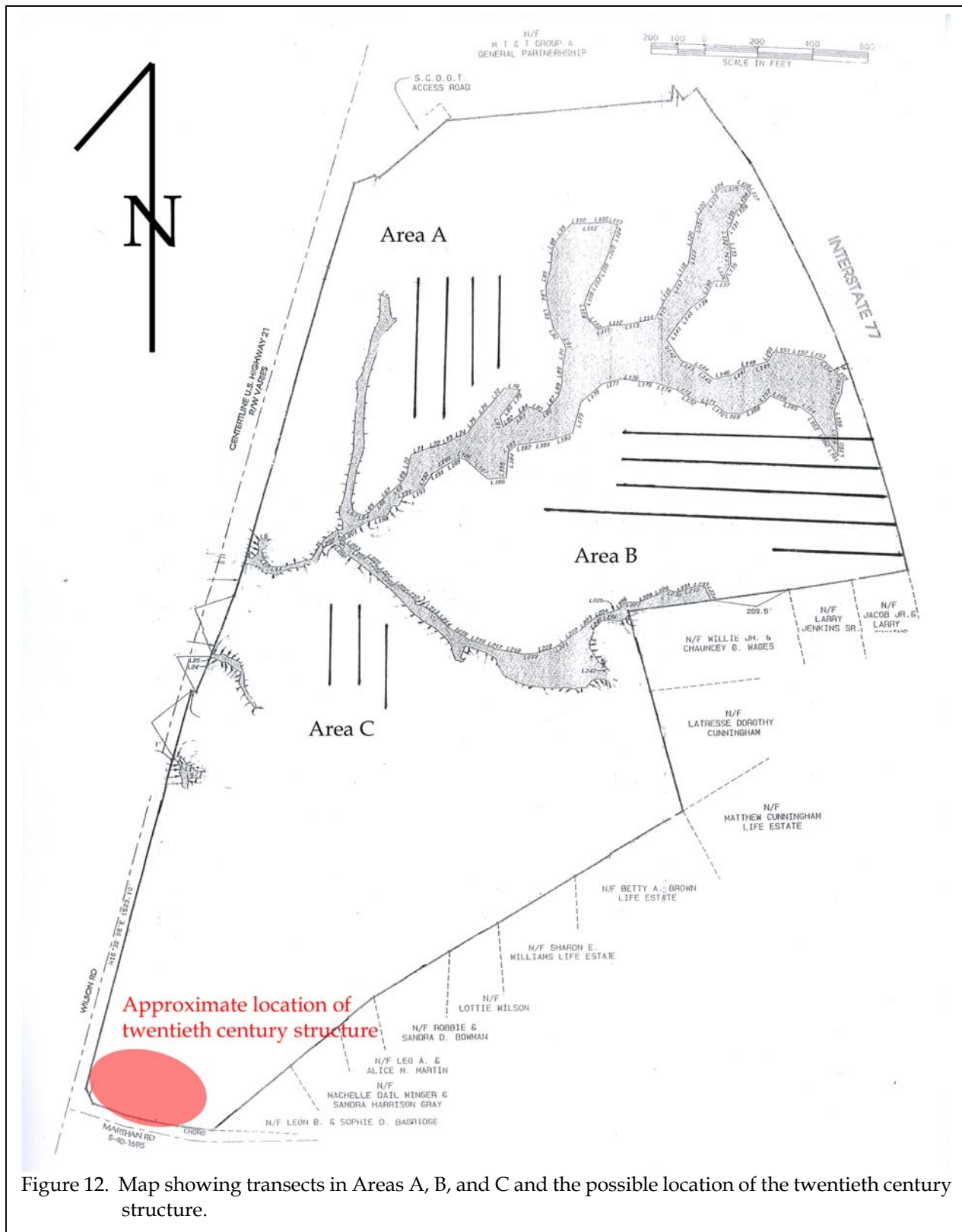


Figure 12. Map showing transects in Areas A, B, and C and the possible location of the twentieth century structure.



Figure 13. View of I-77 from Area B.

to the southwest, was assessed using a pedestrian survey to attempt to locate possible mills or other waterside sites.

All shovel tests were approximately one-foot square and were excavated to sterile subsoil, usually about 1.0 to 1.5 feet below the surface. All soils were screened through ¼-inch mesh and soil profiles were recorded as appropriate, using Munsell soil colors. All shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the work.

If evidence of archaeological sites was encountered during shovel testing, boundaries would be determined and information would be collected from each site in order to complete site forms required by the South Carolina State Historic Preservation Office. Since this study was conducted at a reconnaissance level, it would not be possible to collect the quantity of data or detail necessary to allow the sites to be evaluated for their potential significance and eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

Regardless, this reconnaissance survey failed to identify any significant subsurface remains in the three areas of high probability.

That is not to say that remains were not found, however. At Areas A and B, some surface quartz flakes were identified. No concentrations of prehistoric materials, however, were found and the few flakes were not found within 50 feet of each other, suggesting the lack of a distinct site. A surveyor working on the project found an almost entire projectile point in Area A, however, he said he did not notice any more points elsewhere on the

tract. It seems unlikely that even if more flakes



Figure 14. Existing sewer line near the Stonington Subdivision.

were found on the surface that they would lack integrity and the site would be considered not eligible for the National Register.

The pedestrian survey of the corridor also failed to produce any sites. The corridor followed very sloping topography, which is generally not conducive for a prehistoric or historic site. Figure 14 shows the existing sewer line.

The southern portion of the tract was not surveyed given the natural time constraints that a reconnaissance ensues. However, it is likely that an early twentieth century site (and possibly another structure) will be found in that area (see Figure 12).

CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions

The survey tract and corridor are located in the Sand Hills of northern Richland County. The topography is rolling and the survey area is forested with mixed pines and hardwoods and areas of wetlands from Hawkins Branch.

Historical research of the property examined the potential for both prehistoric and historic sites. Prehistoric sites are potentially the most difficult to project since there is relatively little predictive information available for them.

Consequently, no subsurface artifacts were found in the three areas, however, Areas A and B were noted to have some surface prehistoric flakes. No concentration of these artifacts was found and these flakes would have been considered isolated finds given that they were not found within 50 feet of each other. It is possible that logging on the tract may have significantly damaged the prehistoric remains, since only surface artifacts were found.

One historic site, shown on the 1935 and 1939 maps, and one possible tenant house may be located in the southern part of the tract. While this area was not examined in the field, similar sites were found eligible about 2.0 miles to the east (Southerland and Trinkley 2004).

As previously mentioned, no sites were found during the pedestrian survey of the proposed gravity sewer line. Historic maps confirm the findings and the lack of distinct ridge tops or toe slopes makes it unlikely that prehistoric sites will be found. No evidence of historic mill sites were encountered.

Recommendations

This study indicates that it is unlikely that significant archaeological remains will be found in the upper two-thirds of the tract. Shovel testing has been performed in the areas of highest prehistoric probability around the wetland and no artifacts were found.

Minimally, we recommend that the southern third of the property be subjected to an intensive survey to attempt to identify the early twentieth century structure. This survey will likely require shovel testing at 100 foot intervals where no archaeological remains are anticipated and closer interval testing in those areas where historic resources are projected.

While there is evidence of logging and possible cultivation damage, it is possible that the projected site will possess sufficient integrity to be considered eligible for inclusion on the National Register. This assessment will depend on what is found at the site and the condition of those remains.

Of course, the final determination regarding survey methodology and requirements is made by the lead agency in consultation with the SHPO.

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