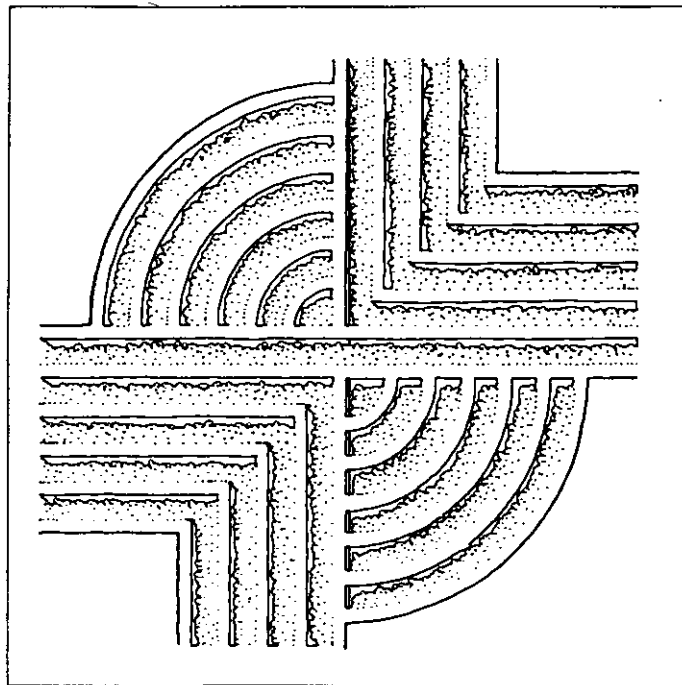


ARCHAEOLOGICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF THE  
37.3 ACRE SEASIDE PLANTATION TRACT,  
CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 150

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ARCHAEOLOGICAL RECONNAISSANCE OF THE  
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CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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## ABSTRACT

This study presents the results of a reconnaissance level survey of 37.3 acres located east of Secessionville Road on the Seaside Plantation development tract. The purpose of this investigation was to locate known sites on the tract and investigate high probability areas.

As a result of this work, one site (38CH507) was revisited and two new sites (38CH1514 and 38CH1515) were identified. 38CH507 consists of the James Island siege line and Battery 5. An indeterminate area of this site is to be greenspaced by the developer. Sites 38CH1514 and 38CH1515 are both shell middens eroding into Seaside Creek. Both appear to have been severely impacted by erosion.

This reconnaissance study, exploring those areas anticipated to exhibit a high probability of archaeological remains, may be taken to suggest that no significant archaeological sites are likely in the project area. The nature of Civil War sites, coupled with the nature of a reconnaissance level investigation, however, makes assessment of site probability, and especially boundaries, tenuous. It is likewise inappropriate to offer eligibility assessments based on a reconnaissance study. Consequently, this study should be used, and the results interpreted, only after a clear understanding of the methodological limitations.

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## INTRODUCTION

Chicora Foundation was requested to submit a budgetary proposal for an archaeological reconnaissance level survey of the 37.3 acre Seaside Plantation development tract. One previously identified site (38CH507) was located on the tract, indicating at least some presence of cultural resources. However, 38CH507 consisted of a very large area including the entire peninsula bounded by Secessionville Road, Seaside Creek, Clark Sound, and an un-named tidal creek, and it is likely that the site consists of dispersed artifacts with discrete concentrations. In other words, 38CH507 likely consists of a number of sites scattered over the entire area. Site 38CH507 also contains the James Island siege line (including Battery 5) which is to be green spaced by the developer. Battery 5 (which is outside the study area) is listed on the National Register of Historic Places. Specifically, the study was intended to:

- locate historical and archaeological remains known to exist on the tract, and
- to determine how deep disturbances in the area are and the likelihood that they may have affected cultural resources.

Chicora Foundation provided Bankers First with a budgetary proposal and a brief outline of the tasks involved in a reconnaissance level study on August 1, 1994. The proposed work would consist of:

- reviewing the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site files;
- coordinating with the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office for information on National Register sites or previous architectural surveys in the immediate area;
- determining if any of the known archaeological and historic sites exhibited integrity;
- revisiting previously identified archaeological sites;
- examining areas with good surface visibility (e.g., road cuts and plowed fields) as well as areas with high archaeological probability,
- intuitive shovel testing in high probability areas, and
- metal detecting areas in the immediate vicinity of the earthworks.

This proposal was developed after detailed discussions with the client's representative, Mr. Ron Brune. It is our understanding that the S.C. State Historic Preservation Officer's (SHPO) archaeologist, Mr. Lee Tippet, requested only that a reconnaissance level investigation be conducted for this project with the general intent to determine where other archaeological sites might be found in the project area. It is important to clearly indicate that since this study incorporated only a reconnaissance level investigation of the 37.3 acre tract, no intensive investigations of either the historical or archaeological resources were undertaken. The methodology of the investigation (discussed in a following section) is based on the SHPO's request.

This proposal was accepted by Bankers First on August 1, 1994. Ms. Natalie Adams examined the site files of the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. A project area map was faxed to the S.C. Historic Preservation Office requesting information on National Register sites and previous architectural surveys. A verbal

response was given by Dr. Tracy Powers on August 8, 1994 stating that there were two National Register properties in the immediate vicinity of the tract.

The project area is located just south of Charleston (Figure 1) just east of SC-10-171 (Folly Road), and is bounded to the west by Secessionville Road, to the north by Stiles Bee Avenue, to the east by privately owned property, and to the south by existing development and Seaside Creek (Figure 2).

The field investigations were undertaken by Ms. Natalie Adams and Ms. Missy Trushel on August 4 through August 5, 1994. The laboratory processing of the resulting collections, curation preparations, and report production took place at Chicora Foundation's laboratories in Columbia on August 8th and 9th, 1994.

Arrangements are being made to curate the field notes from these investigations at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. All original field records and duplicate copies will be provided to the institution on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper.

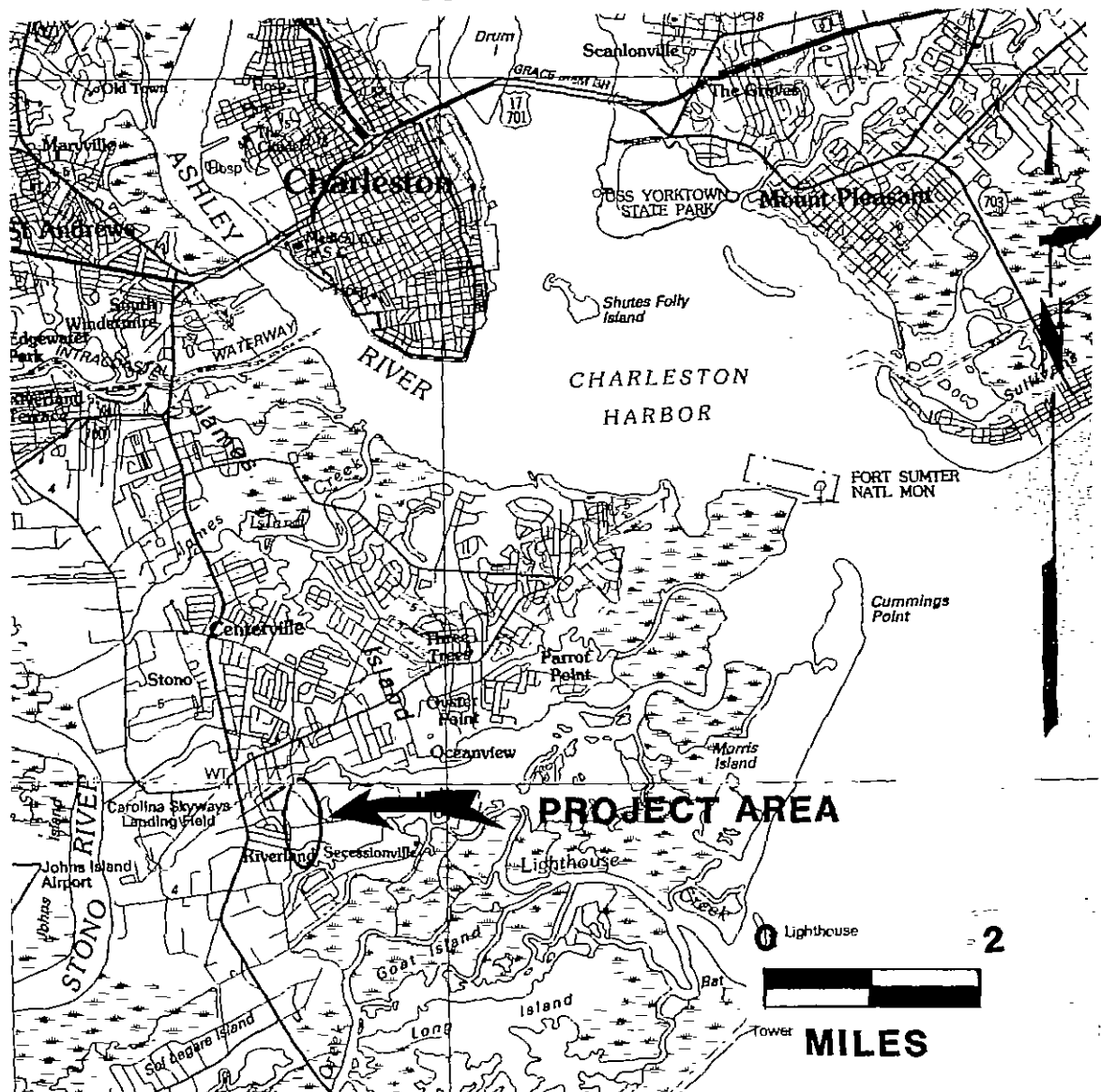


Figure 1. Location of study area on the Charleston 1:100,000 scale topographic map.

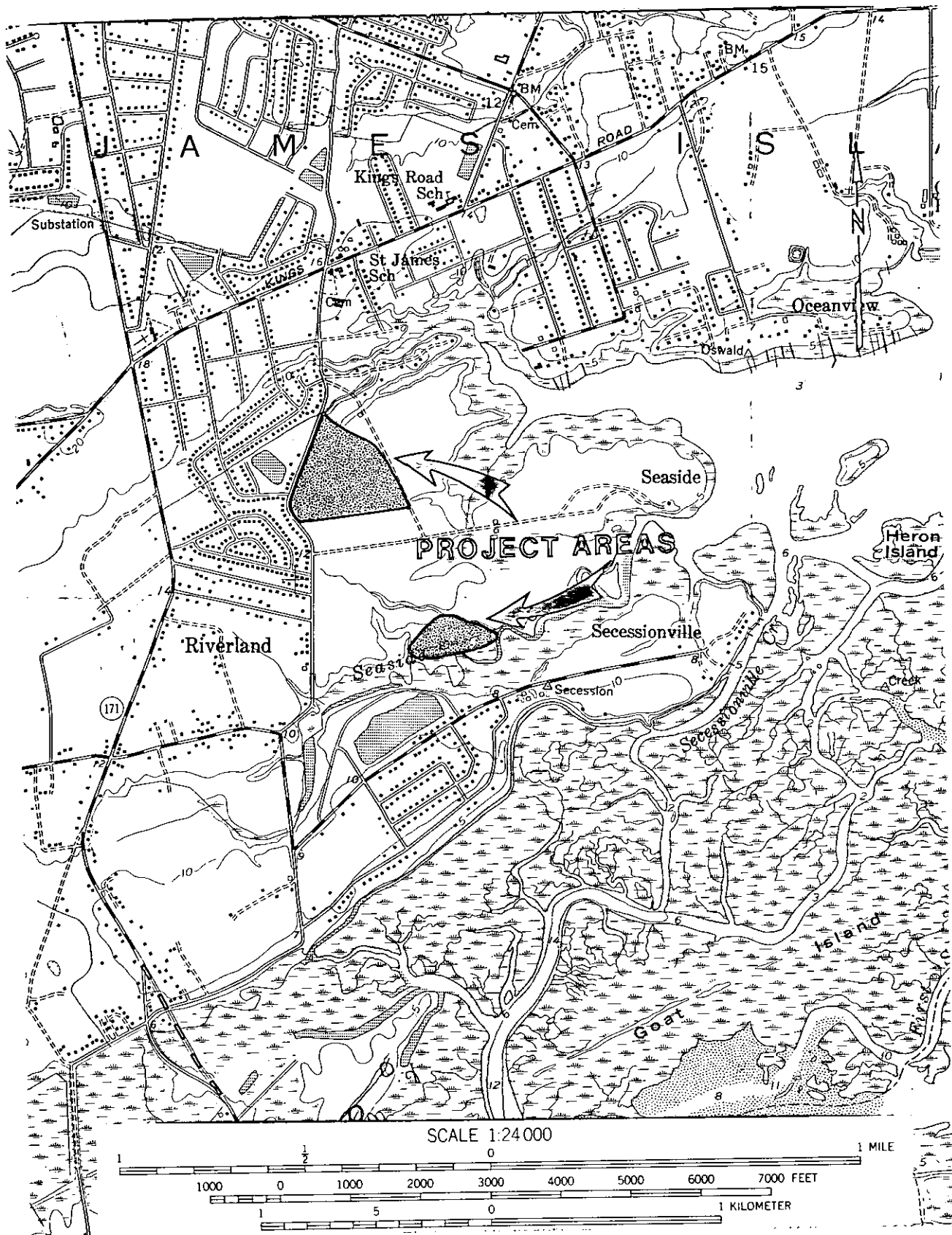


Figure 2. Location of the study area on the 1979 James Island USGS topographic map.

## EFFECTIVE ENVIRONMENT

### Physiology and Geology

Charleston County is situated in the central lower coastal plain of South Carolina and is bounded on the east by about 75 miles of irregular Atlantic Ocean shoreline and marsh, barrier, and sea islands. The mainland topography consists of subtle undulations in the landscape characteristic of ridge and bay topography of beach ridge plains. Elevations in the county range from sea level to about 70 feet mean sea level (MSL) (Mathews et al. 1980:133).

Seven major drainages are found in Charleston County. Four of these, the Wando, Ashley, Stono, and North Edisto, are dominated by tidal flows and are saline. The three with significant freshwater flow are the Santee, forming the northern boundary of the County, the South Edisto, forming the southern boundary, and the Cooper, which bisects the County. The distinctions between these rivers were of particular significance to the area planters since the fresh water rivers became areas of extensive tidal rice cultivation. Rice cultivation was tried on the more saline rivers, but with limited success. The Wando River rice planters, for example, found early in the nineteenth century that they could not compete with the more favorable resources of rice planters on the Santee or Edisto.

Because of the low topography, many broad, low-gradient interior drains are present as either extensions of the tidal rivers or as flooded bays and swales. These are often seen as small creeks or even as low, poorly drained interior areas. This feature is also known to have been of considerable importance to the area planters. While these low soils were frequently fertile, they had to be drained. Not only did this require constant attention, but it was realized to be unhealthy work.

The geology of the county is characteristic of the coastal plain, with unconsolidated, water-laid beds of sands and clays up to 20 feet in thickness overlying thick beds of soft marl (Miller 1971). The Seaside Plantation development tract is characterized by four different soil types including poorly to very poorly drained Dawhoo and Rutlege loamy fine sands, somewhat poorly drained Kiawah loamy fine sand, moderately well drained Seabrook loamy fine sand, and excessively drained Wando loamy fine sand (Miller 1971:Map 69).

Coastal Plain geological formations are unconsolidated sedimentary deposits of very recent age (Pleistocene and Holocene) lying unconformably on ancient crystalline rocks (Cooke 1936; Miller 1971:74). The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar, geomorphic units, or terraces, parallel to the coast.

The Recent terrace ranges from about sea level to six feet above and occurs along the coast and for a few miles up major streams. Soils are primarily Capers series and Tidal marsh lands. The Pamlico terrace ranges from six to 25 feet above sea level. This terrace includes most of Charleston County. The Talbot terrace ranges from 25 to 42 feet and occurs southeast of Ladson, in parts of the western portion of the county, and along the Berkeley County line from southwest of Wambaw Creek almost to the Wando River (Miller 1971:74).

Another significant aspect of coastal geology to be considered in these discussions is the fluctuation of sea level during the late Pleistocene and Holocene epochs. Prior to 15,000 B.C. there is evidence that a warming trend resulted in the gradual increase in Pleistocene sea levels (DePratter and Howard 1980). Work by Brooks et al. (1989) clearly indicates that there were a number of fluctuations during the Holocene. Their data suggest that as the first Stallings phase sites along the South Carolina coast were occupied about 2100 B.C. the sea level was about 4.2 feet

lower than present. Following that period there was a gradual fall in the sea level to about 11.0 feet below current levels by 1850 B.C. Sea levels gradually increased during the Thom's Creek phase to a level within about 2.0 feet of the current stands by 1650 B.C. Following this was a second lowering about 1250 B.C., to a level of 9.7 feet below that of today. The sea level increased through the late Thom's Creek phase to a high about 2.8 feet below modern levels by 1050 B.C. Another low, about 9.7 feet, occurred at 350 B.C. after which the sea levels tend to maintain a gradual rise to their modern levels. Quitmyer (1985) does not believe that the lower sea levels at 2100 B.C. would have greatly altered the estuarine environment, although drops of nearly 10 feet would have reduced available tidal resources and would have affected the overall drainage patterns and soil moisture of coastal sites.

Data from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries suggest that the level is continuing to rise. Kurtz and Wagner (1957:8) report a 0.8 foot rise in Charleston, South Carolina sea levels from 1833 to 1903. Between 1940 and 1950 a sea level rise of 0.34 foot was again recorded at Charleston. These data, however, do not distinguish between sea level rise and land surface submergence.

Within the coastal zone the soils are Holocene and Pleistocene in age and were formed from materials that were deposited during the various stages of coastal submergence. The formation of soils in the study area is affected by this parent material (primarily sands and clays), the temperate climate (to be discussed later in this section), the various soil organisms, topography, and time.

The mainland soils are Pleistocene in age and tend to have more distinct horizon development and diversity than the younger soils of the sea and barrier islands. Sandy to loamy soils predominate in the level to gently sloping mainland areas. The island soils are less diverse and less well developed, frequently lacking a well-defined B horizon. Organic matter is low and the soils tend to be acidic. The Holocene deposits typical of barrier islands and found as a fringe on some sea islands, consist almost entirely of quartz sand which exhibits little organic matter. Tidal marsh soils are Holocene in age and consist of fine sands, clay, and organic matter deposited over older Pleistocene sands. The soils are frequently covered by up to 2 feet of saltwater during high tides. Historically, marsh soils have been used as compost or fertilizer for a variety of crops, including cotton (Hammond 1884:510) and Allston mentions that the sandy soil of the coastal region, "bears well the admixture of salt and marsh mud with the compost" (Allston 1854:13).

The survey tract is characterized by elevations ranging from about 5 to 12 feet MSL, with the bulk of the property at or below 10 feet MSL. There is a gradual slope toward the marshes of Clark in the eastern edge of the tract as well as Seaside Creek in the southern portion of the tract. The southern portion of the tract is separated from the rest of the property by Seaside Plantation Boulevard and an expanse of fallow fields. A gravel boat landing road is found along the eastern edge of the southern portion of the tract.

### Climate

John Lawson described South Carolina, in 1700, as having "a sweet Air, moderate Climate, and fertile Soil" (Lefler 1967:86). Of course, Lawson tended to romanticize Carolina. In December 1740 Robert Pringle remarked that Charleston was having "hard frosts & Snow" characterized as "a great Detriment to the Negroes" (Edgar 1972:282), while in May 1744 Pringle states, "the weather having already Come in very hott" (Edgar 1972:685).

The major climatic controls of the area are latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracks of migratory cyclones. Charleston County's latitude of places it on the edge of the balmy subtropical climate typical of Florida, further south. As a result, there are relatively short, mild winters and long, warm, humid summers. The large amount of nearby warm ocean water surface produces a marine climate, which tends to moderate both the cold and hot weather. The Appalachian Mountains, about 220 miles to the northwest, block the shallow cold air masses from the northwest, moderating them before they reach the sea islands (Mathews et al. 1980:46).

The average high temperature in the Charleston area in July is 89 degrees. Mills noted:

in the months of June, July, and August, 1752, the weather in Charleston was warmer than any of the inhabitants before had ever experienced. The mercury in the shade often rose above 90°, and for nearly twenty successive days varied between that and 101° (Mills 1972 [1826]:444).

Charleston normally experiences a high relative humidity, adding greatly to the discomfort. Pringle remarked in 1742 that guns "sufferr'd with the Rust by Lying so Long here, & which affects any Kind of Iron Ware, much more in this Climate than in Europe" (Edgar 1972:465).

The annual rainfall in the Charleston area is 49 inches, fairly evenly spaced over the year. While adequate for most crops, there may be periods of both excessive rain and drought. Mills remarks that the "Summer of 1728 was uncommonly hot; the face of the earth was completely parched; the pools of standing water dried up, and the field reduced to the greatest distress" (Mills 1972 [1826]:447-448). Another significant historical drought occurred in 1845, affecting both the Low and Up Country.

The annual growing season for Charleston County is 295 days, one of the longest in South Carolina. Along the "sea shore" the close proximity to the water extended this growing season allowing parts of Christ Church to rival the Florida growing season. This mild climate, adequate rainfall, and long growing season was particularly useful during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries when the area emphasized truck cropping.

Hilliard (1984) points out that "any description of climate in the South, however brief, would be incomplete without reference" to a meteorological event frequently identified with the region – the tropical hurricane. Hurricanes occur in the late summer and early fall, the period critical to antebellum cane, cotton, and rice growers. These storms, however, are capricious in occurrence:

in such a case between the dread of pestilence in the city, of common fever in the country, and of an unexpected hurricane on the island, the inhabitants . . . are at the close of every warm season in a painful state of anxiety, not knowing what course to pursue, not what is best to be done (Ramsay, quoted in Calhoun 1983:2).

The coastal area is a moderately high risk zone for tropical storms, with 169 hurricanes being documented from 1686 to 1972 (0.50 per year) (Mathews et al. 1980:56).

The climate of the Charleston area, regardless of storms, temperature, humidity, or rainfall, was often viewed as harsh and unhealthful, especially for the white population. Mills states:

the numerous swamps, bays, and low grounds which indent the low country, retain the waters that fall in rains; and in consequence of these, occasion thick fogs throughout the night, during the summer months. Under such circumstances it is a matter of little surprise that fevers prevail. . . . The two fevers most dreaded here, are, what are commonly termed the country and yellow fever. The first is peculiar to the country, and to avoid it, the planters are in the habit either of residing in Charleston during the sickly season, or retiring to the Sea Islands or Sand hills. The second belongs exclusively to the city, and is generally fatal to strangers only, who have not, as it is termed, become climatized (Mills 1972 [1826]:140-144).

Expounding on the evil of the swamps, Mills also explained:

that to the extensive swamps and stagnant pools, which cover its surface, are we to attribute the cause of our epidemical diseases. The rank luxuriance of vegetation on these waste lands, their perpetual moisture, and the operation of a powerful sun, produce at certain seasons of the year, in a degree indeed extensive, the rapid decomposition of this vegetable matter: the miasma arising from this decomposition contaminates the surrounding air, which afterwards is wafted by the winds over the country, and poisons, more or less, the whole atmosphere (Mills 1972 [1826]:462).

## Floristics

The Charleston County area contains three major ecosystems: the maritime forest ecosystem which consists of the upland forest areas, the estuarine ecosystem of deep water tidal habitats, and the palustrine ecosystems which consist of essentially fresh water, non-tidal wetlands (Sandifer et al. 1980:7-9).

The maritime forest ecosystem has been found to consist of five principal forest types, including the Oak-Pine forests, the Mixed Oak Hardwood forests, the Palmetto forests, the Oak thickets, and other miscellaneous wooded areas (such as salt marsh thickets and wax myrtle thickets).

*In some areas of Oak-Pine forests palmetto becomes an important sub-dominant. Typically these forests are dominated by the laurel oak with pine (primarily loblolly with minor amounts of longleaf pine) as the major canopy co-dominant. Hickory is present, although uncommon. Other trees found are the sweet gum and magnolia, with sassafras, red bay, American holly, and wax myrtle found in the understory.*

In the Mixed Oak Hardwood forests pine is reduced in importance and the laurel oak is replaced by the live oak. Yaupon holly and red bay or magnolia are found in the understory. The Palmetto forests are characterized by open palmetto stands with an understory of wax myrtle, red cedar, yaupon holly, and magnolia. The miscellaneous wooded areas include wax myrtle thickets found in low areas behind the dune fields.

Mills, in the early nineteenth century, remarked that:

*South Carolina is rich in native and exotic productions; the varieties of its soil, climate, and geological positions, afford plants of rare, valuable, and medicinal qualities; fruits of a luscious, refreshing, and nourishing nature; vines and shrubs of exquisite beauty, fragrance, and luxuriance, and forest trees of noble growth, in great variety (Mills 1972 [1826]:66).*

The loblolly pine was called the "pitch or Frankincense Pine" and was used to produce tar and turpentine; the longleaf pine was "much used in building and for all other domestic purposes;" trees such as the red bay and red cedar were often used in furniture making and cedar was a favorite for posts; and live oaks were recognized as yielding "the best of timber for ship building;" (Mills 1972 [1826]:66-85). Mills also observed that:

*in former years cypress was much used in building, but the difficulty of obtaining it now, compared with the pine, occasions little of it to be cut for sale, except in the shape of shingles; the cypress is a most valuable wood for durability and lightness. Besides the two names we have cedar, poplar, beech, oak, and locust, which are or may be also used in building (Mills 1972 [1826]:460).*

The "Oak and hickory high lands" according to Mills were, "well suited for corn and provisions, also for indigo and cotton" (Mills 1972 [1826]:443). The value of these lands in the mid-1820s was from \$10 to \$20 per acre, *less expensive than the tidal swamp or inland swamp lands (where rice and, with drainage, cotton could be grown).*

The estuarine ecosystem in the vicinity includes those areas of deep-water tidal habitats and adjacent tidal wetlands. Salinity may range from 0.5 ppt at the head of an estuary to 30 ppt where it comes in contact with the ocean. Estuarine systems are influenced by ocean tides, precipitation, fresh water runoff from the upland areas, evaporation, and wind. Estuarine systems are extremely important to our understanding of both prehistoric and historic occupations because they naturally contain a high biomass (Thompson 1972:9). The estuarine area contributes vascular flora used for basket making, as well as mammals, birds, fish (over 107 species), and shellfish.

While shellfish are only briefly itemized by Mills in the context of a food source, he elaborates in his discussion of building material, observing that:

lime is obtained from burning oyster shells. It makes a very good mortar, where good sharp sand is used, though it is not equal to the stone lime (Mills 1972 [1826]:460).

While the primary historic use of shellfish may have been for the production of lime, the large numbers of shell middens in coastal area clearly indicate the importance of shellfish in the aboriginal diet (see Trinkley 1991:214-215).

The last environment to be briefly discussed is the freshwater palustrine ecosystem, which includes all wetland ecosystems, such as the swamps, bays, savannas, pocisins, and creeks, where the salinities measure less than 0.5 ppt. These palustrine ecosystems tend to be diverse, although not well studied (Sandifer et al. 1980:295).

A number of forest types may be found in the palustrine areas which would attract a variety of terrestrial mammals. The typical vegetation might consist of red maple, swamp tupelo, sweet gum, red bay, cypress, and various hollies. Also found would be wading birds and reptiles. It seems likely that these freshwater environs were of particular importance to the prehistoric occupants.

## PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

### Previous Research

The survey area is adjacent to Battery 5 of the James Island siege line and the Secessionville Historic District, both on the National Register of Historic Places. Battery 5 (Figure 3) is located just outside of the property and is the eastern-most battery in the siege line. The siege line was built in 1863 under the direction of General Beauregard to replace General J.C. Pemberton's faulty defense line. The battery was designed to protect against an infantry attack via the Secessionville area of southern James Island. It also supplemented the firepower of the Secessionville batteries.

The Secessionville Historic District is located south of the study area, on the opposite side of Seaside Creek. The district encompasses the site of the Battle of Secessionville, the unmarked graves of over 300 Union soldiers and the remains of Fort Lamar.

The James Island siege line and Battery 5 are incorporated into an archaeological site (38CH507) first recorded by Donald Sutherland in 1978. 38CH507 also included historic and prehistoric scatters covering an area of approximately 80 acres (although the area shown is closer to 200 acres). The site is bounded to the north by a small tidal drainage, to the east by Clark Sound, to the south by Seaside Creek, and to the west by Secessionville Road. The site was identified through pedestrian survey of plowed fields and he described the area as "low lying open fields with thin scatter of cultural material - some recognizable concentrations



Figure 3. Battery 5, view to the south.

(though they are sparse) - some areas devoid of remains. Much of the area low and poorly drained" (38CH507 site form).

In 1991 Linda Stine revisited the site, although she was primarily interested in the integrity the earthworks. She re-defined the site boundaries to include only the earthworks, measuring approximately 2700 feet by 100 feet.

Few sites are found in the interior, away from marsh or freshwater habitats. Most sites, based on the previous studies, are found on excessively to well drained soils, although a few are consistently found in areas which are poorly drained (which suggests that factors other than drainage may occasionally have determined prehistoric settlement locations). Research in the Low Country also suggests that sites will most commonly be found on major sand ridge elevations overlooking the wetland habitats.

Work by South and Hartley (1980) suggests that major historic site complexes will be found on high ground adjacent to a deep water access. Plantation main houses tend to be located on the highest and best drained soils, while slave settlements may be found in intermediate or even poorly drained areas. Both settlement types, however, tend to be in close proximity to the rice fields. Extractive or milling sites will be located near necessary raw materials and where the products can be easily transported in and out. Healthful conditions and drainage are not usually significant considerations.

Based on these previous studies and the presented data on the soils and drainage typical of the survey area, the Seaside Plantation tract tends to have a relatively high probability of prehistoric archaeological remains along the bank of Seaside Creek. The probability of prehistoric remains further away from the water are low.

### Prehistoric Synopsis

#### Paleo-Indian and Archaic Periods

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drill (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968; Goodyear et al. 1989). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). No Paleo-Indian projectile points, however, have been recovered from the Charleston County area (Michie 1977).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleo-Indian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages are rare in the Sea Island region, although the sea level is anticipated to have been within 13 feet of its present stand by the beginning of the succeeding Woodland period (Lepionka et al. 1983:10). Brooks and Scurry note that:

Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically small, relatively few in number and contain low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

Alternatively, the general sparsity of Archaic sites in the coastal zone may be the result of a more attractive

environment inland adjacent to the floodplain swamps of major drainages. Of course, this is not necessarily an alternative explanation, since coastal Archaic sites may represent only a small segment in the total settlement system.

### Early Woodland

The earliest phase of the Woodland period (Figure 4) is called Stallings, after the type site excavated by the Cosgroves in 1929 (Clafin 1931). These "Stallings Island people" produced a rich cultural assemblage of bone and antler work, polished stone items, grooved and perforated "net sinkers" or steatite disks, stone tools (including projectile points, knives, scrapers, and cruciform drills), and fiber tempered pottery (see also Williams 1968). It was over a decade before the typological significance of the Stallings ware was recognized and a formal type description was offered (Fairbanks 1942; Griffin 1943). The definitive feature of this pottery is its large quantity of fiber, now identified as Spanish Moss (Simpkins and Scoville 1981), included in the paste prior to firing.

The following Thom's Creek phase dates as early as  $2220 \pm 350$  B.C. (UGA-584) from Spanish Mount in Charleston County (Sutherland 1974) and continues to at least  $935 \pm 175$  B.C. (UGA-2901), based on a date from the Lighthouse Point Shell Ring, also in Charleston County (Trinkley 1980c:191-192). The Thom's Creek phase is characterized by an artifact assemblage almost identical to that of Stallings sites. The only major differences include the replacement of fiber tempering with sand, or a clay not requiring tempering, and the gradual reduction of projectile point size.

Thom's Creek pottery, first typed by Griffin (1945), consists of sandy paste pottery decorated with the motifs common to the Stallings series, including punctations (reed and shell), finger pinching, simple stamping, incising, and very late in the phase, finger smoothed (Trinkley 1980a). Investigations at the Lighthouse Point and Stratton Place shell rings, stratigraphic studies at Spanish Mount and Fig Island, radiocarbon dates from Lighthouse Point and Venning Creek, and the study of surface collections from a number of sites, have suggested a temporal ordering of the Thom's Creek series. Reed punctated pottery appears to be the oldest, followed by the shell punctated and finger pinched motifs. Late in the Thom's Creek phase, perhaps by 1000 B.C., there is the addition of Thom's Creek Finger Smoothed (Trinkley 1983a:44). Vessel forms include deep, straight sided jars and shallow conoidal bowls. Lip treatments are simple, and coiling fractures are common. Firing of the Thom's Creek vessels is certainly better than that evidenced for Stallings, but there continues to be abundant incompletely oxidized specimens.

By far the most work has been conducted at Thom's Creek phase shell rings (see Trinkley 1980b, 1985). These sites are circular middens about 130 to 300 feet in diameter, 2 to 6 feet in height, and 40 feet in width at their bases, with clear interiors. These doughnut-shaped accumulations were formed as small mounds, arranged around an open ground area, and gradually blended together. The ring itself is composed of varying proportions of shell, animal bone, pottery, soil, and other artifacts. These shell rings were apparently mundane occupation sites for fairly large social units which lived on the ring, disposed of garbage underfoot, and used the clear interiors as areas for communal activities. The sites further suggest relatively permanent, stable village life as early as 1600 B.C., with a subsistence base oriented toward large and small mammals, fish, shellfish, and hickory nut resources (Trinkley 1985).

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePratter 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from  $1070 \pm 115$  B.C. (QC-784) to  $510 \pm 100$  B.C. (QC-785), is found primarily along the South Carolina coast from the Savannah drainage as far north as the Santee River (Williams 1968:208). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

The Refuge series pottery is similar in many ways to the preceding Thom's Creek wares. The paste

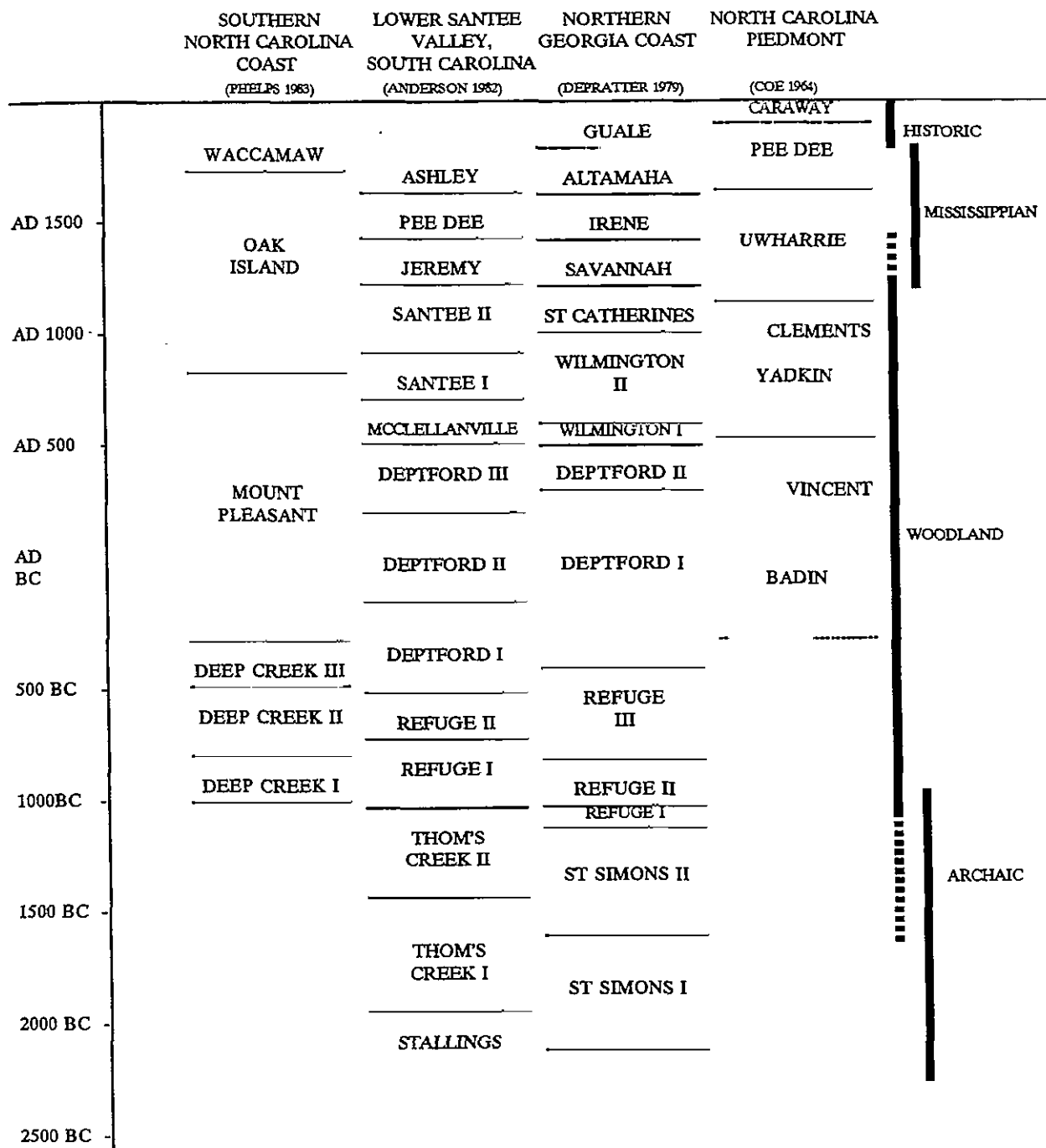


Figure 4. Woodland Period phases in the South Carolina locality.

is compact and sandy or gritty, while surface treatments include sloppy simple stamped, dentate stamped, and random punctate decorations (see DePratter 1979:115-123; Williams 1968:198-208). Anderson et al. note that these typologies are "marred by a lack of reference to the Thom's Creek series" (Anderson et al. 1982:265) and that the Refuge Punctate and Incised types are indistinguishable from Thom's Creek wares. Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as both a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and also as a bridge to the succeeding Deptford series.

The Deptford culture takes its name from the type site located east of Savannah, Georgia, which was excavated in the mid-1930s (Caldwell 1943:12-16). Deptford phase sites are best recognized by the presence of fine to course sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. This pottery is typically in the form of a cylindrical vessel with a conoidal base. The flat bottomed bowl with tetrapodal supports found at Deptford sites along the Florida Gulf coast (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:79) is very rare in South Carolina. Other Deptford phase pottery styles include cord marking, simple stamping, a complicated stamping which resembles early Swift Creek, and a geometric stamping which consists of a series of carved triangles or diamonds with interior dots (see Anderson et al. 1982:277-293; DePratter 1979).

The Deptford technology is little better known than that of the preceding Refuge phase. Shell tools are uncommon, bone tools are "extremely rare" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:77), and stone tools are rare on Coastal Zone sites. All of this indicates to some researchers that "wood must have been worked into a variety of tool types" (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75). One type of stone tool associated with South Carolina Deptford sites is a very small, stemmed projectile point tentatively described as "Deptford Stemmed" (Trinkley 1980c:20-23). This point is the culmination of the Savannah River Stemmed reduction seen in the Thom's Creek and Refuge phases. Also found at Deptford sites are "medium-sized triangular points," probably similar to the Yadkin Triangular point (Coe 1964:45, 47, 49; Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:75-76).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing (see Trinkley 1987). Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1960). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina, based on two radiocarbon dates of  $120 \pm 130$  B.C. (QC-1358) and A.D.  $210 \pm 110$  (QC-1357). The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

#### Middle Woodland

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson 1985:53). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Deptford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. Wilmington and Hanover may be viewed as regional varieties of the same ceramic tradition. The pottery is

characterized almost solely by its crushed sherd (perhaps with grog as well) temper which makes up 30 to 40% of the paste and which ranges in size from 3 to 10 mm. Wilmington was first described by Caldwell and Waring (Williams 1968:113-116) from coastal Georgia work, while the Hanover description was offered by South (1960), based on a survey of the Southeastern coast of North Carolina (with incursions into South Carolina). The Wilmington phase was seen by Waring (Williams 1968:221) as intrusive from the Carolina coast, but there is considerable evidence for the inclusion of Deptford traits in the Wilmington series. For example, Caldwell and McCann (1940:n.p.) noted that, "the Wilmington complex proper contains all of the main kinds of decoration which occur in the Deptford complex with the probable exception of Deptford Linear Checkstamped" (see also Anderson et al. 1982:275). Consequently, surface treatments of cord marking, check stamping, simple stamping, and fabric impressing may be found with sherd tempered paste.

Sherd tempered Wilmington and Hanover wares are found from at least the Chowan River in North Carolina southward onto the Georgia coast. Anderson (1975:187) has found the Hanover series evenly distributed over the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, although it appears slightly more abundant north of the Edisto River. The heartland may be along the inner Coastal Plain north of the Cape Fear River in North Carolina. Radiocarbon dates for Wilmington and Hanover range from  $135 \pm 85$  B.C. (UM-1916) from site 38BK134 to A.D.  $1120 \pm 100$  (GX-2284) from a "Wilmington House" at the Charles Towne Landing site, 38CH1. Most dates, however, cluster from A.D. 400 to 900; some researchers prefer a date range of about 200 B.C. to A.D. 500 (Anderson et al. 1982:276).

Largely contemporaneous with the sherd tempered wares are what have been termed the Mount Pleasant, McClellanville, and Santee series. The Mount Pleasant series has been developed by Phelps from work along the northeastern North Carolina coast (Phelps 1983:32-35, 1984:41-44) and is a Middle Woodland refinement of South's (1960) previous Cape Fear series. The pottery is characterized by a sandy paste either with or without quantities of rounded pebbles. Surface treatments include fabric impressed, cord marked, and net impressed. Vessels are usually conoidal, although simple, hemispherical, and globular bowls are also present. The Mount Pleasant series is found from North Carolina southward to the Savannah River (being evidenced by the "Untyped Series" in Trinkley 1981c). North Carolina dates for the series range from A.D.  $265 \pm 65$  (UGA-1088) to A.D.  $890 \pm 80$  (UGA-3849). The several dates currently available from South Carolina (such as UGA-3512 of A.D.  $565 \pm 70$  from Pinckney Island) fall into this range of about A.D. 200 to 900.

The McClellanville (Trinkley 1981a) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excurvate rims and interior rim stamping, not so far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series. Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Mattassee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

#### Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1989:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Along the central and northern South Carolina coast, Anderson et al. (1982:303-304) suggest a continuation of the Santee series into the Late Woodland. The Hanover and Mount Pleasant series may also be found as late of A.D. 1000. Along the southeastern North Carolina coast, South (1960) has defined the Oak Island complex, which is best known for its shell tempered ceramics with cord marked, fabric impressed, simple stamped, and net impressed surface finishes. The phase is briefly discussed by Phelps (1983:48-49), but curiously this manifestation is almost unknown south of the Little River in South Carolina. Very little is known about the northern coastal South Carolina Late Woodland complexes, although sites such as 38GE32 may document the occurrence of village life in the Late Woodland.

The South Appalachian Mississippian is typically characterized by the construction of truncated temple mounds, reliance on cultivated crops, the development of a social elite, and complicated stamped pottery. The best information for the coastal area comes from the only incompletely reported excavations at the Charles Town Landing site (South 1971). In addition, Anderson (1989) provides an excellent synthesis of Mississippian research in South Carolina, observing that "while we have a fair appreciation for the culmination of the Mississippian in South Carolina, its origins and immediate Woodland antecedents remains largely unknown at the present" (Anderson 1989:114).

Anderson also notes the need for additional research in the area of

relationships between Woodland and Mississippian occupations in South Carolina, particularly the mechanisms bringing about the transition between the seemingly markedly dissimilar forms of social organization and subsistence adaptation (Anderson 1989:113).

While Trinkley (1981b, 1983a, 1983b) has offered a cultural sequence for the Mississippian remains in the coastal area that encompasses the Jeremy, "classic" Pee Dee, "post-classic" Pee Dee, Wachesaw, and Kimbel series, Anderson (1982:312-319) offers an alternative perspective incorporating Pee Dee and Ashley wares.

#### Protohistoric

The history of the numerous small coastal Indian tribes is poorly known. As Mooney noted, the coastal tribes:

were of but small importance politically; no sustained mission work was ever attempted among them, and there were but few literary men to take an interest in them. War, pestilence, whiskey and systematic slave hunts had nearly exterminated the aboriginal occupants of the Carolinas before any body had thought them of sufficient importance to ask who they were, how they lived, or what were their beliefs and opinions (Mooney 1894:6).

In truth, our knowledge of these groups has also been limited because too few scholars have taken an active interest in the primary sources and there has been too little desire to evaluate critically the early research by Mooney (1894) and Swanton (1952). For South Carolina Anderson (1989:117-118) briefly notes the current status of ethnohistoric research.

The groups commonly associated with the Charleston County coast, such as the Wando and Sewee, are traditionally thought to be Muskhogean speakers, although little else is known about them (see Waddell 1980). The Sewee have recently been examined in some detail by Trinkley and Wilson (1988) who found that the traditional scenarios may be inadequate to explain the protohistoric settlement along the Carolina coast.

#### The Battle of Secessionville's Place in the Siege of Charleston

By April 1862, after the fall of New Orleans, Charleston had become the Confederacy's largest seaport. The network of rivers and railroads running into the interior from this seaport made it very important to the

wealth and success of the area planters as well as vital to getting supplies to the interior of the state. In addition to its strategic significance it also had a symbolic significance since it was "the Cradle of Secession" to many Southerners and "that viper's nest and breeding place of rebellion" to Northerners (Powers 1992:156). For these reasons, the sea islands surrounding Charleston Harbor were the focus of Union army and navy activities in an attempt to gain a foot hold in the area, and from there, capture Charleston.

During 1862 the Confederates began to center their defence plans on the city of Charleston because of the city's strategic significance as well as the increasing Union pressure caused by the occupation of Sea Islands (such as Port Royal, Edisto, and John's Islands) to the southwest. The occupation of John's Island opened up the Stono River to Union activity. James Island became the main line of Confederate defenses south of the city. If Union forces could take James Island and hold it, Charleston would most likely fall (Powers 1992:157). General Robert E. Lee wrote General Pemberton: "The loss of Charleston would cut us off almost entirely from communications with the rest of the world and close the only channel through which we can expect to get supplies from abroad, now almost our only dependence" (in Burton 1970:98).

Although clearly an attack on James Island and subsequently Charleston was imminent, the Confederate forces had no idea when or where the attack would take place or what the strength of the attackers would be. The defenses on James Island had just been recently built and were relatively weak since most of them were unfinished. Their most impressive aspects were their length and number. The interior defenses were flanked at each end by large earthworks. Fort Pemberton was located at the northwest end of the island overlooking Stono River. The other earthwork and the summer planters village at Secessionville was of less strategic importance and was located near the center of the island. It had not been completed and was still unnamed (Powers 1992:158) (Figure 5).

The Secessionville earthwork was located on a small peninsula surrounded on three sides by marsh and tidal creeks. Construction was begun in January of 1863 under the direction of Col. Lewis M. Hatch. Hatch's regiment erected the earthwork, a bridge to connect the peninsula with the main body of the island, and an observation tower in the rear of the earthworks (Figure 6).

On June 2, 1863 Benham's Federal divisions landed on the southwest end of James Island, having been transported by steamers up the Stono River. The 7,500 troops under the command of Brig. Gen. Isaac I. Stevens's Second Division landed at Thomas Grimball's plantation and established a camp just south of it. About 4,000 additional troops followed shortly thereafter. The Confederate forces did not have enough available troops to accomplish much during scouting expeditions, and coordination between Confederate commanders was almost non-existence (Powers 1992:159-160).

The first significant conflict on the island took place on June 10 when Pemberton tried to push the Union troops off of the island. Sixty or seventy Confederates and twenty Federals were lost in this conflict and the Union troops were able to hold their position. One primary reason for the Confederate failure was Union gunboat fire (Powers 1992:160).

Six days later the battle of Secessionville began. When the Federals were within a few hundred yards of the earthworks, the battery fired its first shot. The Federals encountered not only both battery and musketry fire at close range, but difficult terrain including high and thick hedges as well as plowed cotton fields. The Federals took heavy casualties during the initial assault on the parapet. During subsequent advances the Federal infantry was supported by two steamers in Big Folly Creek. However, shots from these ships fell short and caused casualties for the Union as well (Powers 1992:164-165).

Confederate support arrived at the sound of the firing primarily from Johnson Hagood's demibrigade. Hagood sent some of his troops (about 500 men) to a wooded area to clear brush north of the marsh and further to the right. There they met fire from Federals as they attempted to flank a Confederate position. Additional support for the defenders came from a small battery to the rear of Secessionville which had been



Figure 5. Map of the Defense of Charleston City and Harbor, 1862-1863 (National Archives Record Group 77, I58-1)

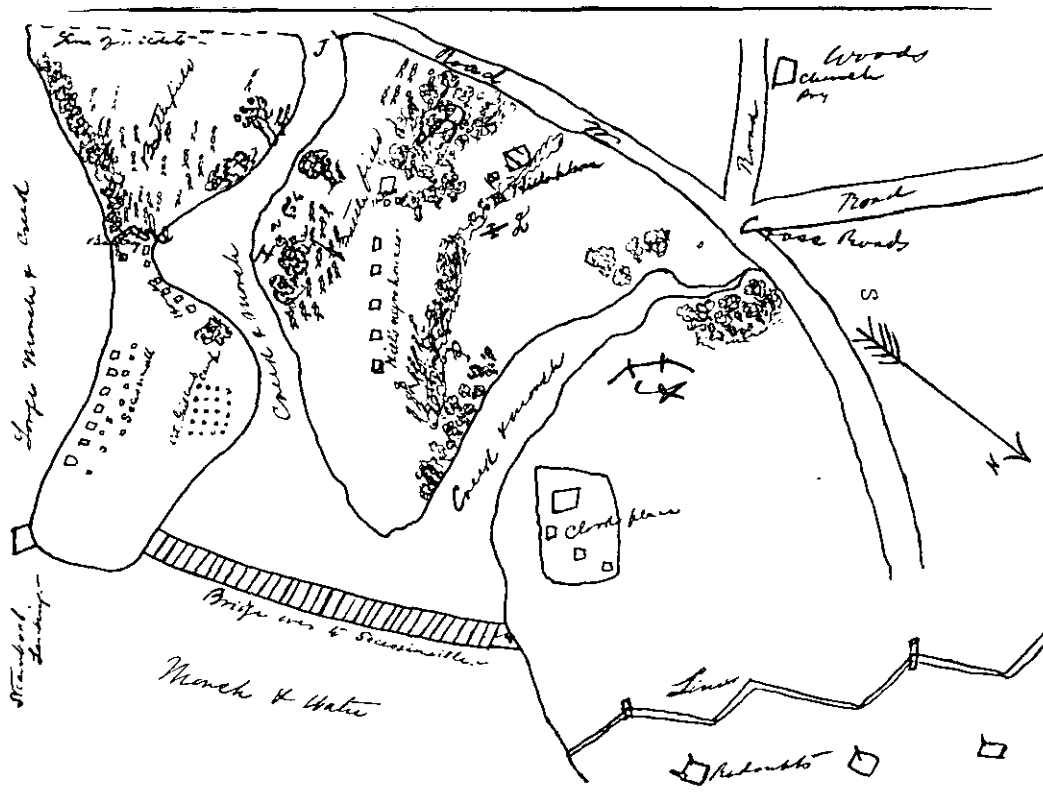


Figure 6. Cultural features located in the vicinity of Secessionville in 1862 (from Wilcox and Ripley 1966).

built to cover that position and disrupt the Federals' flank. The second Union charge was as unsuccessful as the first (Powers 1992:166).

Since they could not dislodge the Confederates from Secessionville, the Federals began their withdrawal about three and half hours after the battle began. Of the 683 Union casualties, 107 were killed, 487 wounded, and 89 captured or missing. This consisted of about one-fifth of the 3,500 troops involved in the attack. The Confederates had 204 casualties of which 52 were killed, 144 wounded, and eight captured or missing (Powers 1992:169).

According to many Civil War historians, Secessionville was the most significant Civil War battle fought in South Carolina (see, for example, Power 1992). The Union troops hoped to capture Secessionville in order to obtain an early occupation of Charleston. If they had succeeded, it is very likely that the war would have been shortened a great deal. Despite numerous attacks by Union troops from Charleston harbor and the sea islands, it was not until February of 1865 that they actually took Charleston -- from the interior of South Carolina (Powers 1992:170).

## FIELD METHODS

The initially proposed field techniques for this reconnaissance level investigation involved a pedestrian survey of areas with good surface visibility, intuitive shovel testing in high probability areas, and a metal detector survey in the vicinity of the earthworks. The minimum definition of a site in this study was two or more artifacts within a 25 foot area.

As previously discussed, the goals of the field investigations were to,

- locate historical and archaeological remains known to exist on the tract, and
- to determine how deep disturbances in the area are and the likelihood that they may have affected cultural resources.

Should sites be identified by surface collection and/or shovel testing, further tests would be used if possible to help obtain additional data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. The information required for the completion of the 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 investigator.

All soil from the shovel tests would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to subsoil. All cultural remains would be collected, except for shell, mortar, and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered. Actual field techniques deviated somewhat from those originally proposed. Surface visibility was relatively poor in the plowed areas of the site, so these fields were shovel tested at 200 foot intervals on transects at 200 feet. Wooded areas with a light understory of vegetation were also shovel tested in this manner. Areas of very thick vegetation were not investigated. These areas were located primarily in the northern portion of the tract (Figure 7). A total of 15 shovel tests were excavated across the property.

A metal detector survey was performed in an area north, west and south of the earthworks. The equipment consisted of a Tesoro Bandito II™ metal detector with a 10 inch coil. The metal detector was set to discriminate against iron artifacts since it was expected that most items associated with military activity would consist of brass or lead. This survey was not performed in any systematic fashion and consisted of a random walkover of accessible areas in the vicinity of the earthworks.

It is anticipated that field notes and artifacts will be accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as soon as the project is complete.

Figure 7. Study area showing intensity of reconnaissance.

## SITES IDENTIFIED

As a result of the archaeological reconnaissance of the 37.3 acre Seaside Plantation tract, two new sites (38CH1514 and 38CH1515) were identified, one site (38CH507) was revisited (Figure 8).

It should be stressed that reconnaissance level surveys are not designed to offer definitive determinations of site eligibility. Nonetheless, opinions regarding site integrity or ability to address important research questions are offered *based on the level of investigation the sites have received*. These assessments should not be considered definitive, but are intended to serve only as a guide and general indicator of probable site significance.

### Previously Identified Archaeological Sites

As stated previously, 38CH507 was originally recorded by Donald Sutherland in 1978. The site included not only the James Island siege line and Battery 5, but also a number of sparse historic and prehistoric concentrations found in an 80 acre area (although the area outlined by Sutherland is closer to 200 feet). Sutherland does not mention the siege line in the site form, but recommends that 38CH507 is not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places based on his pedestrian survey and limited subsurface testing. Subsequently, Battery 5 was listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1982. In 1991, Dr. Linda Stine revisited the site, redefining the boundaries to include only the siege line and Battery 5.

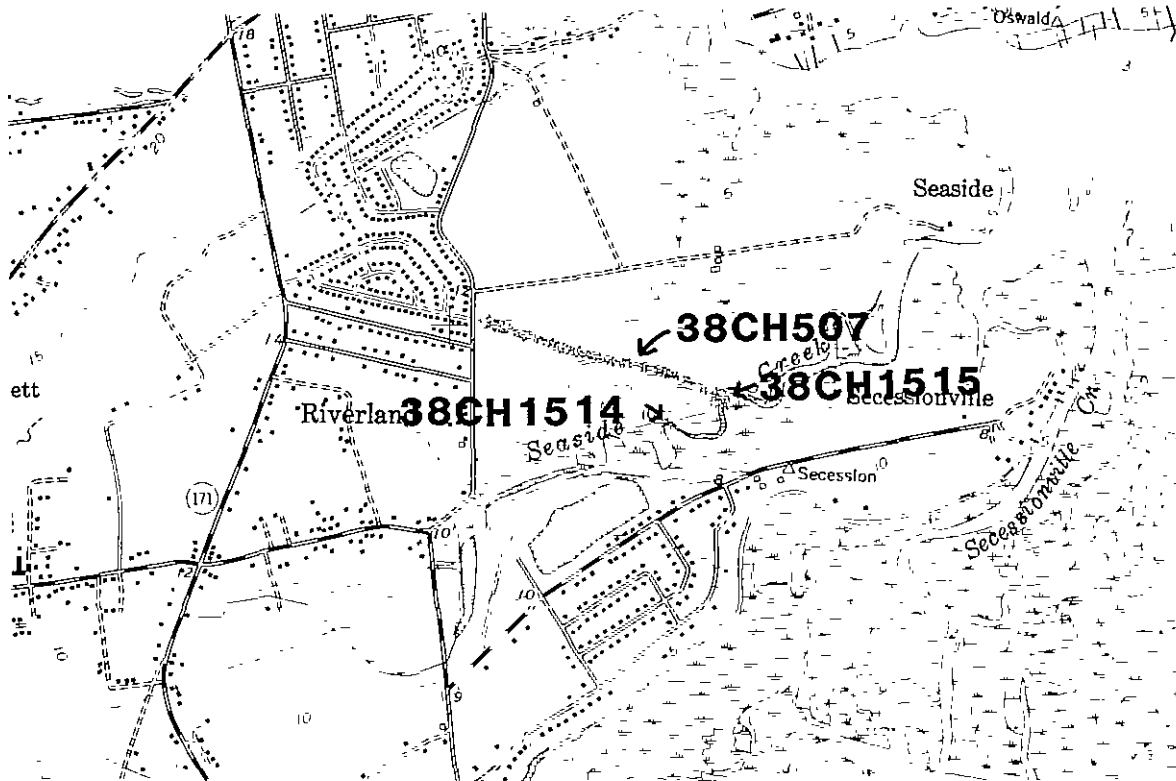


Figure 8. Sites located within the study area.

During the current project, the site was revisited. Under the direction of Mr. Ron Brune of Carolina Development Corporation, the earthworks were relocated to determine if they were properly shown on survey maps and to examine their condition (Figure 9). Visual inspection indicated that the earthworks were in varying states of preservation and had been breached in at least four different areas: the boat landing road, one development road, a large expanse of plowed field, and a farm drainage ditch (Figure 10). An aerial photograph taken in the 1940s indicates that the earthworks were in much better condition at that time than they are today, fifty years later (Figure 11). Off of the property to the east near Seaside Creek, much of the earthworks had eroded into the ditch. Mr. Brune stated that much erosion has taken place in this area, and in recent years the ditch has eroded approximately 8 feet on either side (Ron Brune, personal communication 1994). Therefore, it is likely that erosion has destroyed a section of these earthworks.

Erosion has also damaged the earthworks further away from the water. Although covered in thick vegetation, the earthworks are constructed of sandy soil with little to no clay content. Therefore, in areas where there was very little understory either in the past or the present, the earthworks are washing away. Probing at the base of the ditch in front of the works suggested that approximately 2 feet of fill has washed into the ditch.

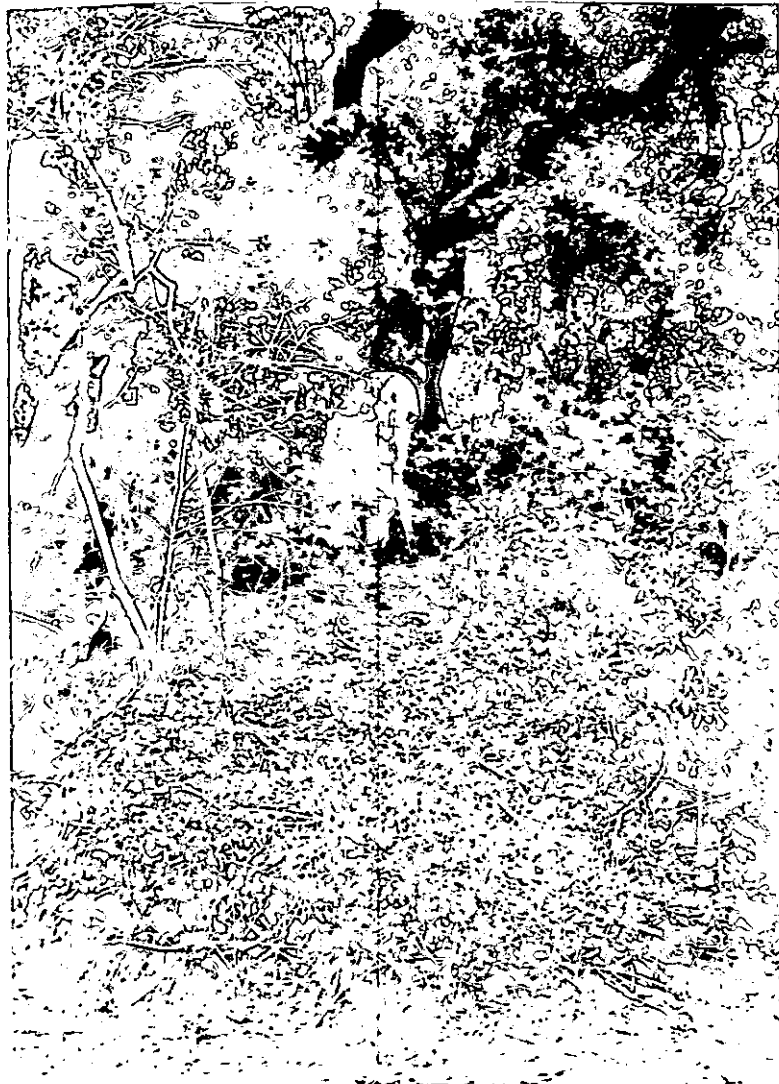


Figure 9. A portion of the siege line, view to the southwest.

FIGURE NOT AVAILABLE

Figure 10. Aerial photograph showing present development and condition of the earthworks.

FIGURE NOT AVAILABLE

Figure 11. Circa 1940s aerial photograph of the project area.

In addition to the visual inspection, a metal detector was used in the vicinity of the earthworks, primarily in the areas where encampments were likely to be found. This survey consisted of a general walkover and was not performed in any systematic fashion. No artifacts dating to the Civil War period were located. The metal detector located primarily beer and soda cans. This area has been scoured by local collectors and Mr. Brune has witnessed as many as 10 collectors metal detecting the site during one of his visits (Ron Brune, personal communication 1994). It is likely that the soil zone within the range of the metal detector has been completely collected.

The UTM coordinates are E598400 N3619080 at the west end and E597700 N3619320 at the east end, and the soils are Wando loamy fine sands. The earthworks are approximately 2700 feet long and 100 feet wide.

This site served an important role in the defense of Charleston during the Civil War. This significance is clearly recognized by a portion of the site (Battery 5) being including on the National Register of Historic Places. We understand that the developer intends to green space the earthworks, although we are not familiar with any discussions regarding the boundaries or extent of this green spacing. Nor does this study incorporate any specific recommendations for the long range preservation of the fortifications.

### New Sites

**38CH1514** is located approximately 500 feet west of a boat landing on Seaside Creek. The site consists of a shell midden eroding onto the marsh of the creek. An intensive surface survey was performed on the marsh edge recovering no artifacts. However, two fragments of modern brick were located in this vicinity.

Three shovel tests were excavated parallel to the marsh at approximately 25 foot intervals about five feet from the marsh edge. None of these tests yielded any artifacts.

Central UTM coordinates are E598360 N3618960 and the soils are Wando loamy fine sands. The surface remains were found over an area measuring approximately 5 feet north-south by 75 feet east-west. Shovel testing yielded an average profile of 0.9 feet of dark brown (10YR4/3) sand overlying brown (7.5YR5/4) sand.

Based on the shovel testing, the site has completely eroded into the marsh. It is very unlikely that it can address significant research questions.

**38CH1515** is located just east of and underneath a turn-around for a boat landing on Seaside Creek. The site exists on either side of a marsh slough which is just beyond the eastern end of the James Island siege line (38CH507). An intensive surface survey was performed at the mouth of the slough where shell was found eroding. No artifacts were observed; however, one water worn brick fragment was noted.

Six shovel tests were excavated intuitively in the area of the boat landing. None of these tests yielded artifacts. However, two yielded small quantities of oyster shell.

The central UTM coordinates are E598501 N3619002 and the soils are Wando loamy fine sands. Based on shovel testing and surface survey the site measures approximately 50 feet southeast-northwest by 100 feet southwest-northeast. Only about one third of the site actually exists within the survey tract. Shovel testing yielded an average profile of 0.8 feet of dark brown (19YR4/3) sand overlying either brown (7.5YR5/4) sand or black (10YR2.5/1) marsh mud. In two instances these soils were overlaid by about 0.8 feet of a hard sandy clay fill. Much of the site in the vicinity of the slough has eroded a great deal. This is in the area pointed out by Mr. Ron Brune as having been subjected to a great deal of recent erosion. The site area further west contained only sparse amounts of shell in isolated areas.

## CONCLUSIONS

During this study, the site files of the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the National Register files of the S.C. Department of Archives and History, and the research files of the S.C. Department of Natural Resources (Heritage Trust Program) were examined. A brief synopsis of the historical background was prepared. The accuracy of the existing topographic surveys was evaluated and the previously existing archaeological site was revisited. Controlled shovel testing, limited pedestrian survey, intuitive shovel testing, and metal detecting were combined to explore the project area.

One goal of the work was to determine if additional cultural remains were present on the tract. As a result of this reconnaissance level investigation of the 37.3 acre Seaside Plantation tract, one previously recorded site (38CH507) was revisited and refined, and two new sites (38CH1514 and 38CH1515) were recorded.

Site 38CH507 was redefined by this survey, in consultation with Mr. Keith Derting of the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, as consisting of the James Island siege line and Battery 5. This battery has been previously listed on the National Register of Historic Places, although the flanking siege line itself is not listed on the National Register.

This study certainly suggests that the site is significant, at least historically (perhaps best documented by Powers 1992). Its archaeological significance, however, is less clear. No Civil War artifacts were found, either on the earthworks, adjacent to the siege line, or even on the survey tract. This, however, is not necessarily surprising considering the extensive collecting (and possibly looting) to which the site has been subjected. As previously mentioned, it is likely that whatever artifacts survived plowing were probably collected, leaving virtually nothing in the plowzone to collect. Since most metal detectors are limited to the upper 0.8 foot of soil, even this approach may be unsuccessful at identifying clusters of materials. We also realize from other research at other Civil War sites that encampments, in particular, produce few artifacts through traditional shovel testing. Further complicating our understanding of this site, the erosion of the earthworks may have, in some areas, buried artifacts sufficiently deep to prevent their discovery through metal detecting. It is therefore not possible to speculate on the presence, or absence, or archaeological materials associated with 38CH507 through either picket duty or any possible nearby encampments. The absence of artifacts associated with the earthworks also limits us to offering only gross level boundaries for the earthworks themselves.

The study, however, provides some indications of threats to the site -- collectors, erosion, improper vegetation, and the absence of a maintenance plan. All of these, of course, can be readily addressed in a long-range conservation plan.

Sites 38CH1514 and 38CH1515 are both shell middens found eroding into Seaside Creek. No diagnostic artifacts were recovered from these sites, although two fragments of modern, machine made brick were observed at 38CH1514 and one water worn brick fragment was observed at 38CH1515. Both sites have been subjected to severe erosion and even limited shovel testing suggests that the vast majority of the sites is on the creek bank or actually in the creek. It seems unlikely that either site can address significant research questions to the discipline.

A second goal of the study was to determine the nature of disturbances in the project area and their potential to affect cultural remains. Clearly, the intensity of collector activity has affected the cultural remains in this area. While a reconnaissance level of investigation does not allow us to conclude that no remains are

associated with the earthworks (38CH507), none were encountered. Other human actions potentially affecting the archaeological record include cultivation and other activities such as creation of boat landings and farm roads. Some sense of this can be obtained by comparing the aerial photograph of the project area, taken in the 1940s (Figure 11) to the remains as they exist today. Shovel tests reveal a plow zone minimally 0.8 foot in depth. The pedestrian survey also revealed losses in the earthworks, primarily dating from the past forty years. Erosion, either caused by the creek or by rainfall, as affected the integrity of all the sites identified.

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