ENGINEERING INTEGRITY

CULTURAL RESOURCES LITERATURE REVIEW AND RECONNAISSANCE SURVEY OF APPROXIMATELY 320 ACRES AT THE PROPOSED POCOTALIGO INDUSTRIAL PARK SUMTER COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

FINAL REPORT

Prepared for:

Alliance Consulting Engineers
P.O. Box 8147
Columbia, SC 29202

Prepared by:

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

S&ME Project No. 1616-08-424

Jason D. Moser, M.A., RPA
Principal Investigator

Authors:
Jason D. Moser and Heather Jones

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MANAGEMENT SUMMARY

On behalf of Alliance Consulting Engineers (Alliance) and Sumter County, S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed a cultural resource reconnaissance survey of 320± acres at the proposed Pocotaligo Industrial Park in Sumter County, South Carolina (Figure 1). Fieldwork for the project was conducted from September 24–26, 2008 and on October 15, 2008, and was done in anticipation of review by the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO). Work for this project was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 1614-6397-08, dated September 4, 2008.

As a result of the reconnaissance survey, two archaeological sites and one cemetery were recorded within the project area (Figure 2, Table 1). Sites 38SU1078 and 38SU1079 are late nineteenth through twentieth century domestic artifact scatters. Both sites are recommended ineligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The White Cemetery, which dates from the early twentieth century, is recommended as potentially eligible for listing in the NRHP.

In addition to the archaeological sites, eight previously recorded historic structures (58-0066, 59-0067, 58-0068, 58-0076, 58-0077, 58-0078, 58-0079, and 58-0080) are located within the proposed 0.5-mile radius of the project area; only structure 58-0067 has previously been determined eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places. These eight structures were revisited during the reconnaissance survey. Based on the close proximity of the Bradford House (58-0067) to the project area and the location of the screening vegetation, this NRHP eligible structure may be affected by the proposed undertaking. One previously unrecorded historic structure (58-0208) was also identified adjacent to the project area. Structure 58-0208 dates to the 1940s and is recommended ineligible for listing in the NRHP.

Table 1. Summary of Cultural Resources with 0.5-miles of the Pocotaligo Industrial Park tract.

Site No.	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Recommendation
38SU1078	Late 19th/Early 20th artifact scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
38SU1079	Late 19th/Early 20th artifact scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
White Cemetery	Early 20th Century	Potentially Eligible	Avoidance
58-0066	Unnamed House, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0067	Bradford House, ca. 1850	Eligible	Consultation
58-0068	Unnamed House, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0076	Unnamed House, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0077	Commercial Building, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0078	Unnamed House, 1859	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0079	Unnamed House, 1893	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0080	Unnamed House, ca. 1950	Not Eligible	No Further Work
58-0208	Unnamed House, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	No Further Work

After completing the reconnaissance survey, S&ME recommends no additional work at sites 38SU1078 and 38SU1079, and structure 58-0208; additionally, S&ME recommends that the White Family Cemetery be avoided during the proposed undertaking. However, based on this survey, S&ME has determined that portions of the project tract have a moderate to high potential

for containing additional archaeological resources within the project area. If compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is required, then it is S&ME's opinion that a Phase I archaeological survey should be conducted on 193 acres of the tract. The remaining 126 acres have a low potential for containing significant archaeological resources and we recommend no additional work in these areas. Additionally, if compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is required, then it is also S&ME's opinion that consultation with the SHPO over potential affects to the Bradford House (58-0067) may be necessary.

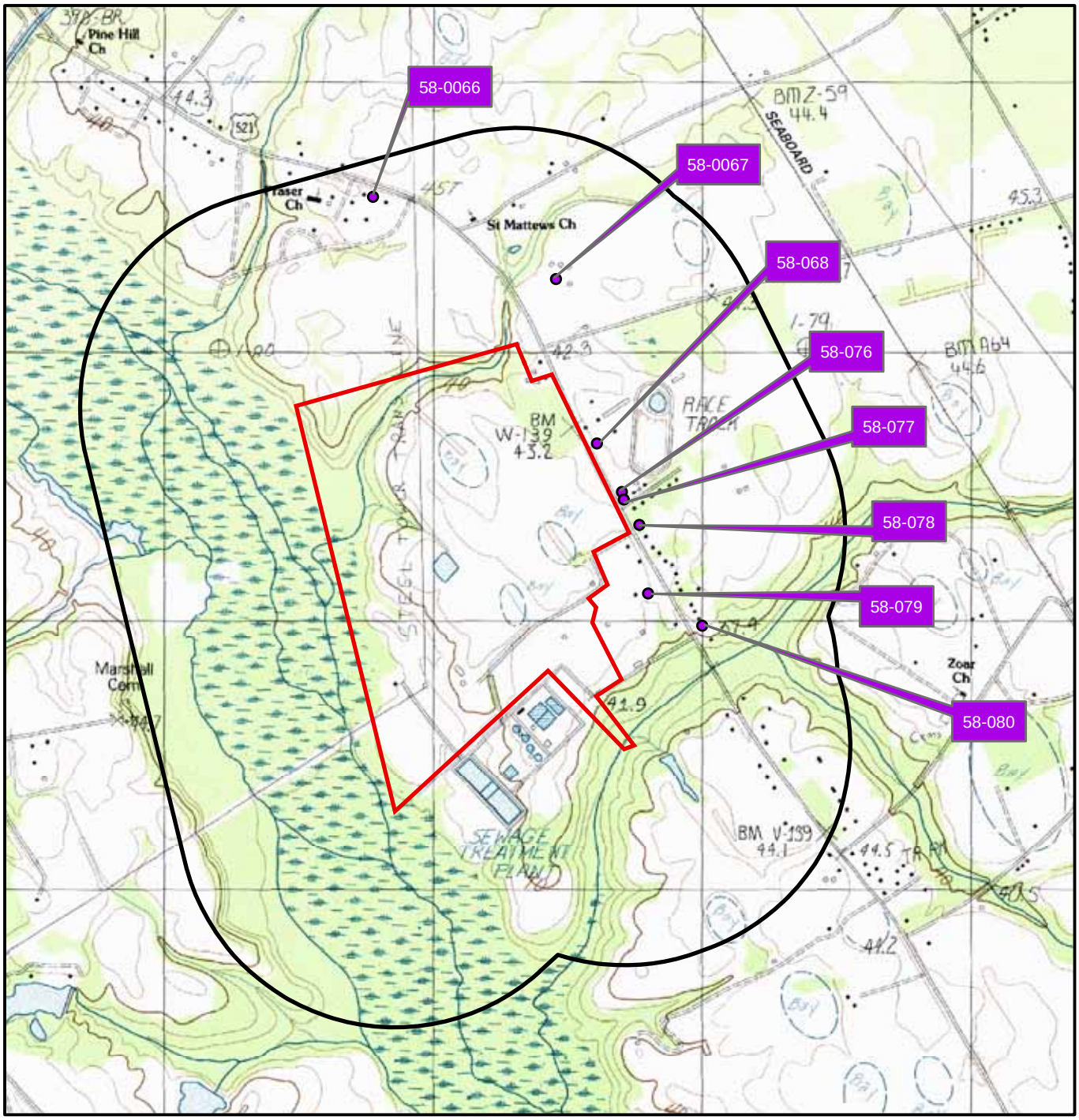


Figure 1. Project area and previously recorded cultural resources within a 0.5-mile radius.

Base Maps: Brogdon (1983) 7.5' USGS topographic quadrangles.

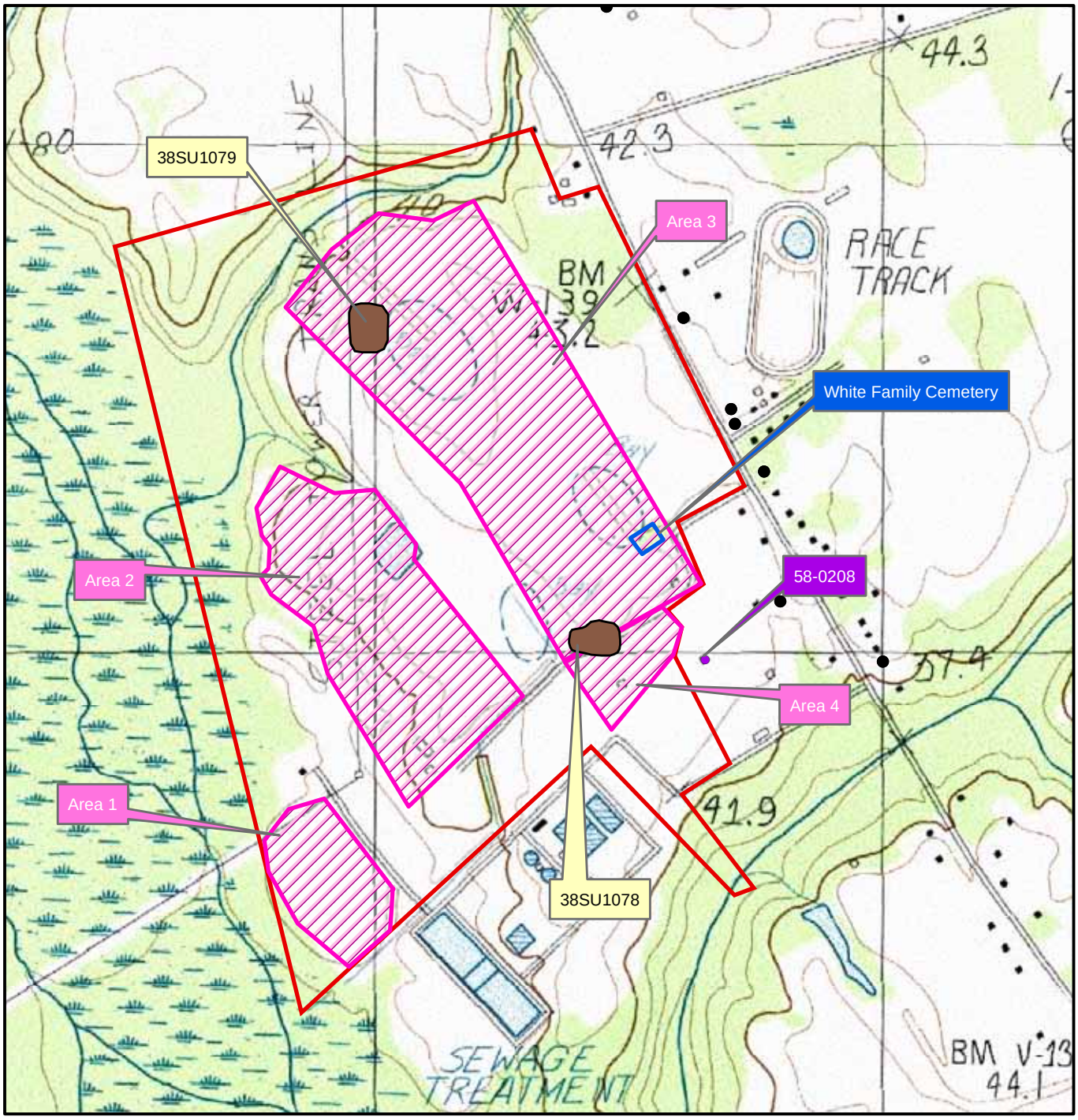


Figure 2. Survey areas and recorded cultural resources.

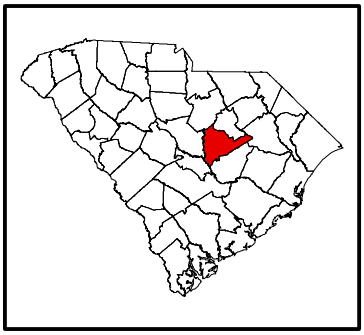
0 300 600
Meters

Base Maps: Brogdon (1983) 7.5' USGS topographic quadrangles.

Structure
White Family Cemetery
Project Area (approximate)
Survey Areas
Archaeology

N
W E
S

S&ME



ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

S&ME would like thank Mr. Deepal Eliatamby and Mr. Jamie Frost of Alliance Consulting Engineers, and Mr. Rick Farmer of Sumter County for their help, support, and guidance throughout this project. We would also like to thank Mr. Chuck Cantley and Ms. Rebekah Dobrasko of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (SCDAH) for their review of this report, Mr. David Kelly of SCDAH for providing architectural site numbers, and Mr. Keith Derting of the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology for providing archaeological site numbers.

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I. INTRODUCTION

On behalf of Alliance Consulting Engineers (Alliance) and Sumter County, S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed a cultural resources literature review and reconnaissance survey for a proposed 320± acre industrial park located near the town of Sumter in Sumter County, South Carolina (Figure 1). Work for this project was carried out in anticipation of federal permitting through the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, and was done in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 1614-6397-08, dated September 4, 2008. Fieldwork for the project was conducted between September 24–26, 2008 and on October 15, 2008.

The project area consists of a large contiguous tract located approximately 2.5 miles south of the town of Sumter in Sumter County. Sumter County, which covers approximately 682 square miles, is bounded by Lee, Kershaw, and Florence counties to the east and north, Clarendon County to the southeast, Calhoun County to the southwest, and Richland County to the west. The project area is located within the Upper Coastal Plain physiographic province.

The project area is bounded by Manning Road (US 521) to the east and the Pocotaligo River to the west. An unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo forms most of the northern project boundary; however, approximately 12 acres are located on the north side of the creek (Figure 1). Justin Lane forms most of the southern project boundary; however, approximately six acres of the project is located south of Justin Lane. The Pocotaligo wastewater treatment plant and an unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River are also located just south of the project area.

Most of the project area is under cultivations with crops of soybeans and some areas that had been planted with corn and were recently harvested. A small number of residential structures are located southeast of the project area on the west side of Manning Road. Most of these residential structures are screened from the project area by vegetation. Switchback Road, a rural farm road located north of Justin Road provides access to the southern portions of the project area and some of the residences located southeast of the tract. Based on the topography, vegetation, and nature of the proposed undertaking, the proposed Area of Potential Effects (APE) is considered to be a 0.5-mile radius around the project tract.

As a result of the survey, two new archaeological sites—38SU1078 and 38SU1079—and a cemetery were recorded within the project area. In addition to these, eight previously recorded historic structures and one previously unrecorded structure (58-0208) were located within the proposed APE (Figure 2). One of the eight previously recorded historic structures, the Bradford House (58-0067), is eligible for listing on the NRHP. S&ME recommends newly recorded structure 58-0208 as not eligible for listing on the NRHP.

Fieldwork for the project was conducted from September 24 to September 26, 2008 and October 14, 2008. Jason D. Moser, M.A., RPA, served as the Field Investigator and Principal Investigator for the project. Artifacts were analyzed by Jason D. Moser. Architectural Historian Heather Jones, M.A. prepared the historical background, and Graphics Specialists Kristen Seibert and Heather Jones produced the graphics for this report.

This report has been prepared in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended; the Archaeological and Historic Preservation Act of 1979; procedures for the Protection of Historic Properties (36 CFR Part 800); and 36 CFR Parts 60 through 79, as appropriate. Field investigations and the technical report meet the qualifications specified in the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (Federal Register [FR] 48:44716–44742) and the South Carolina Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Investigations (COSCAPA et al. 2005). Supervisory personnel meet the Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards set forth in 36 CFR Part 61.

II. ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

LOCATION AND SETTING

The project area is a large contiguous tract located in Sumter County, approximately 2.5 miles south of the town of Sumter. Sumter County, which covers approximately 682 square miles, is bounded by Lee, Kershaw, and Florence counties to the east and north, Clarendon County to the southeast, Calhoun County to the southwest, and Richland County to the west.

The project area is bounded by Manning Road (US 521) to the east and the Pocotaligo River to the west (Figure 3). An unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo forms most of the northern project boundary; however, a small portion of the northern project boundary extends across the creek to the north (Figure 1). Justin Lane forms most of the southern project boundary; however, a small portion of the project area extends south of Justin Lane, across portions of the Pocotaligo Wastewater Treatment Plant, to an unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River (Figure 4). Most of the project area contains large agricultural fields planted with soybeans and some areas that had been recently harvested of corn (Figures 5 and 6). A small number of residential structures are located adjacent to the project area on the west side of Manning Road. Most of these residential structures are screened from the project area by vegetation. A rural farm road called Switchback road traverses the southern portion of the project area and allows access to some of these residences.

GEOLOGY AND TOPOGRAPHY

This area falls within the Upper Coastal Plain physiographic, which is characterized by gently rolling terrain underlain by unconsolidated sediment (Kovacik and Winberry). The project area is located within the Black River drainage basin, adjacent to the Pocotaligo River and two small tributaries. Topography consists of gently sloping ridges surrounding three Carolina Bays which have been drained through artificial ditching. All three Carolina Bays are sufficiently well drained for soybean and corn crops. Elevations range from approximately 115 ft above mean sea level (AMSL) along the northern unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River to 141 ft AMSL in the northeast quadrant of the tract.

HYDROLOGY

The Pocotaligo River forms the western border of the project area. An unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River, borders most of the northern portion of the tract and another unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River located south of the wastewater treatment plant, bounds a small portion of the southern part of the project tract. The Pocotaligo River is part of the Pee Dee River Basin. The Pocotaligo River is a blackwater river which joins with Rocky Bluff Swamp, Pudding Swamp, Kingstree Swamp Canal, and Black Mingo Creek to form the Black River. The Black River joins with the Pee Dee River and the Waccamaw River just north of Georgetown, South Carolina where it flows into Winyah Bay. The Black River Drainage Basin has its headwaters in the Sandhills, and covers an area of more than 2,051 square miles.

Figure 3. Manning Road (US 521), facing north.

Figure 4. Wastewater treatment plant located south of Justin Lane, facing south.

Figure 5. Soybean field in Area 2, facing west.

Figure 6. Cornfield and Carolina Bay in area 3, facing north

SOILS

The soils within the project area belong to the Coxville-Norfolk-Lynchburg soil association. These soils consist of nearly level to gently sloping, well drained soils along ridges, and somewhat poorly drained soils in broad level, depressions, and lower elevations (Pitts et al. 1974).

Nine soil types occur within the project boundaries: Coxville, Goldsboro, Lynchburg, Norfolk, Osier, Rains, Rembert, Rutlege and Wagram. The Norfolk series underlies the majority of the project area while the remaining soils represent much smaller areas adjacent to the rivers, creeks, and Carolina Bays (Figure 2). A description of each of these series is presented below (http://ortho.ftw.nrcs.usda.gov/cgi-bin/osd/osdname.cgi; USDA 1976).

The Coxville series soils are nearly level, poorly drained soils formed in clayey Coastal Plain sediments. A typical soil profile consists of 15 cm of dark gray (10YR 3/1) fine sandy loam (Ap horizon), followed by 10 cm of gray (10YR 5/1) sandy clay loam (B1g horizon), overlying 30 cm of gray (10YR 5/1) sandy clay loam (B21tg horizon).

The Goldsboro series soils are nearly level, deep, and moderately well drained soils that are formed in loamy sediment on stream terraces. A typical soil profile consists of 21 cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) loamy sand (Ap horizon), followed by 10 cm of pale brown (10YR 6/3) loamy sand (E horizon), overlying 7 cm of brownish yellow (10YR 6/6) sandy loam (BE horizon), followed by 26 cm of yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) sandy clay loam (Bt1 horizon), and ending with 50 cm of pale brown (10YR 6/3) sandy clay loam (Bt2 horizon).

Lynchburg series soils are nearly level, deep, and somewhat poorly drained soils that formed in loamy Coastal Plain sediment. A typical soil profile consists of 12 cm of very dark gray (10YR 3/1) sandy loam (A1 horizon), followed by approximately 10 cm of dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) fine sandy loam (A2 horizon), overlying 16 cm of pale brown (10YR 6/3) fine sandy loam (B1 horizon), followed by 33 cm of light olive brown (2.5Y 5/4) sandy clay loam (B21t horizon), and ending with 70 cm of gray (10YR 6/1) sandy clay loam (B22tg horizon).

Norfolk series soils are nearly level to gently sloping, deep, well drained soils formed in loamy Coastal Plain sediments. A typical soil profile consists of 20 cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) loamy sand (AP horizon), followed by 12 cm of pale brown (10YR 6/3) loamy sand (A2 horizon), overlying 57 cm of yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) sandy clay loam (B21t horizon).

Osier series soils are nearly level and poorly drained to very poorly drained soils formed in sandy Coastal Plain sediment. A typical soil profile consists of 10 cm of black (10YR 2/1) loamy sand (A1 horizon), followed by 10 cm of light brownish gray (10YR 6/2) and dark gray brown (10YR 4/2) sand (ACg horizon), overlying 12 cm of light brownish gray (10YR 6/2) sand (C1g horizon), ending with 45 cm of gray (10YR 6/1) sand (C2g horizon).

Rains series soils are nearly level, deep, and poorly drained soils formed in loamy marine sediment on uplands and stream terraces. A typical soil profile consists of 18 cm of very dark gray (10YR 3/1) sandy loam (A horizon), followed by 12 cm of light brownish gray (10YR 6/2)

sandy loam (Eg horizon), overlying 21 cm of gray (10YR 6/1) sandy loam (Btg1 horizon), and ending with 51 cm of gray (10YR 6/1) sandy clay loam (Btg2 horizon).

Rembert series soils are nearly level, moderately deep, and poorly drained soils formed in clayey and sandy Coastal Plain sediments. A typical soil profile consists of 10 cm of black (5YR 2/1) loam (A1 horizon), followed by 7 cm very dark brown (10YR 2/2) sandy clay loam (A3 horizon), overlying 10 cm of dark gray (10YR 4/1) sandy clay loam (B1g horizon), overlying 17 cm of gray (10YR 6/1) clay (B2tg horizon).

Rutlege series soils are nearly level, very poorly drained soils formed in sandy sediments. A typical soil profile consists of 30 cm of black (10YR 2/1) loamy sand (A1 horizon), overlying 20 cm of dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) loamy sand (ACg horizon), followed by 60 cm of light gray 10YR 7/1 sand (C1g horizon).

Wagram series soils are level to strongly sloping, deep, and well drained soils formed in loamy Coastal Plain sediments. A typical soil profile consists of 17 cm of grayish brown (2.5Y 5/2) sand (Ap horizon), followed by 47 cm light yellowish brown (2.5Y 6/4) fine sand (A2 horizon), overlying 22 cm of yellowish brown (10YR 5/8) sandy clay loam (B21t horizon).

CLIMATE AND VEGETATION

The climate of South Carolina is classified as humid subtropical. Abundant precipitation is distributed evenly throughout the year and temperatures show seasonal variation. Summers are hot and humid and winters are mild, with rare instances of below-freezing temperatures (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:31).

The climate of Sumter County is characterized by long, hot summers and moderately short, cool winters. The average daily temperatures range from 47° F in the winter to 81° F in the summer. Sumter County receives 42 inches of rainfall throughout the year, which is adequate for most crops during the peak growing season (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:31-36). Vegetation in the most of the project area consists of soybean and corn fields. Field boundaries and areas adjacent to wetlands are comprised of mixed pine and hardwood forests. The wetlands to the west are dominated by cypress trees (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Cypress swamp adjacent to the Pocotaligo River, facing west.

III. CULTURAL CONTEXT

PREHISTORIC CONTEXT

Over the last two decades there has been much debate over when humans first arrived in the New World. The traditional and still more widely accepted interpretation is that humans first arrived in North America via the Bering land bridge that connected Alaska to Siberia at the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 13,500 years ago. From Alaska and northern Canada, these migrants moved southward through an ice free corridor separating the Cordilleran and Laurentide ice sheets, to eventually settle in North and South America.

Recently, this interpretation has been called into question, with several sites providing possible evidence for earlier (Pre-Clovis) occupations. These sites include Monte Verde in southern Chile (Dillehay 1989; Meltzer et al. 1997), Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania (Adavasio et al. 1979, 1980a, 1980b, 1990), the Cactus Hill (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997) and Saltville (McDonald 2000) sites in Virginia, and more locally, the Topper site in Allendale County, South Carolina (Goodyear 2005). Despite the growing number of sites attributed to pre-Clovis occupations, there are still major problems surrounding each site, precluding their widespread acceptance.

Paleoindian Period (ca. 13,000–10,000 B.P.)

The Paleoindian period can be tentatively dated from about 13,000–10,000 B.P. At the beginning of this period, most of South Carolina was cool and dry, with boreal tundra and spruce/pine forests covering most of the state. By the end of this period, the climate ameliorated, rainfall was more frequent, and the state was covered with deciduous forests that contained beech, elm, hickory, oak, and birch (Anderson et al. 1996; Anderson and O'Steen 1992; Goodyear et al. 1989). It was also during this time that the large megafauna, including mammoth, mastodon, giant sloth, and bison became extinct. It is still not clear whether humans or the climate played a more prevalent role in the extinction of these large animals, although it is likely that both contributed to their extinction.

Unfortunately, most of our knowledge about the Paleoindian period in the Southeast is based on surface collections and inference rather than controlled subsurface excavations. The limited information we do have, however, suggests that the earliest Native Americans had a mixed subsistence strategy based on the hunting (or scavenging) of the megafauna and smaller game combined with the foraging of wild plant foods. Groups are thought to have consisted of small, highly transient bands made up of several nuclear and/or extended families. Settlements appears to be concentrated along major rivers near the Fall Line and in the Coastal Plain, although it is almost certain that many additional sites along the coast have been inundated by the rise of sea level that has occurred since that time (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Sassaman 1996).

Paleoindian artifact assemblages typically consist of diagnostic lanceolate projectile points, scrapers, gravers, unifacial and bifacial knives, and burins. Projectile point types include fluted

and unfluted forms, such as Clovis, Cumberland, Suwanee, Quad, and Dalton (Anderson et al. 1992; Justice 1987:17–43). Tools were typically well-made and manufactured from high-grade, cryptocrystalline rock such as Coastal Plain and Ridge and Valley chert, as well as Piedmont metavolcanics such as rhyolite (Goodyear 1979). Paleoindians traveled long distances to acquire these desirable raw materials, and it is likely that particularly favored quarries were included in seasonal rounds, allowing them to replenish their stock of raw material on an annual basis.

Archaic Period (ca. 10,000–3000 B.P.)

Environmental change at the end of the Pleistocene led to changes in human settlement patterns, subsistence strategies, and technology. As the climate warmed and the megafauna became extinct, population size increased and there was a concomitant decrease in territory size and settlement range. Much of the Southeast during the early part of this period consisted of a mixed oak-hickory forest. Later, during the Hypsithermal interval between 8,000 and 4,000 B.P., southern pine communities became more prevalent in the interriverine uplands, and extensive riverine swamps were formed (Anderson et al. 1996; Delcourt and Delcourt 1985).

The Archaic period has typically been divided into three subperiods, Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P), Middle Archaic (8000–5000 B.P.), and Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.). based on changes in projectile point morphology, settlement patterns, and subsistence practices. Each of these subperiods appears to have been lengthy and successful in adapting technology to prevailing climatic and environmental conditions of the time.

Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.)

Diagnostic artifacts of the Early Archaic include a variety of side- and corner-notched projectile point types such as Dalton, Hardaway, Palmer, Kirk, and Taylor. Other tools of this period include hafted and non-hafted unifacial scrapers, perforators, drills, gravers, hammerstones, grinding stones, and choppers (Coe 1964; Daniel 1992:74). There is also a greater reliance on local lithic sources that there was during the preceding Paleoindian Period, and tools are sometimes made of lesser quality materials (Goodyear et al. 1989:38–39).

During the Early Archaic there appears to be a gradual, but steady increase in population and a shift in settlement patterns. In the Carolinas and Georgia, various models of Early Archaic social organization and settlement have been proposed (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Hanson 1988). In general, these models hypothesize that Early Archaic societies were organized into small, band-sized communities of 25 to 50 people whose main territory surrounded a portion of a major river such as the Saluda and Broad rivers (Anderson and Hanson 1988:).

During the early spring, groups would forage in the lower coastal plain and then move inland to temporary camps in the Piedmont and Mountains during the summer and early fall. In the late fall and winter, these bands would aggregate into larger, logistically provisioned base camps in the upper Coastal Plain, near the Fall Line It is believed that group movements would have been circumscribed within major river drainages, and that movement across drainages into other band territories was limited. At a higher level of organization, bands were believed to be organized

into larger "macrobands" of 500 to 1500 people that periodically gathered at strategic locations near the Fall Line for communal food harvesting, rituals, and the exchange of mates and information. Archaeological sites near the project area that may represent aggregation sites include Nipper, Manning, Taylor, and Thom's Creek (Anderson and Hanson 1988:271).

Recently, Daniel (1998, 2001) has argued that access to high quality lithic material has been an under-appreciated component of Early Archaic settlement strategies. He presents compelling evidence that groups are moving between major drainages just as easily as they are moving along them. In contrast to earlier models, group movements are tethered to stone quarries rather than to specific drainages. Regardless of which model is correct, settlement patterns generally reflect a relatively high degree of mobility, making use of seasonally available resources such as nuts, migratory water fowl, and white-tailed deer.

Middle Archaic (8000–5000 B.P.)

The Middle Archaic subperiod (ca. 8000–5000 B.P.) coincides with the start of the Altithermal (a.k.a. Hypsithermal), a significant warming trend where pine forests replaced the oak-hickory dominated forests of the preceding periods. It was during this time that extensive riverine swamps were formed, and the river and estuary systems took their modern configuration. The relationship between climatic, environmental, and cultural change during this period; however, is still poorly understood (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:5-14).

In contrast to both the Early and Late Archaic, there seems to be a wider geographic distribution and a higher density of Middle Archaic sites in the region, suggesting that a mid-Holocene population increase may have taken place. This population increase should be viewed with caution; however, as it is primarily based on the distribution of Morrow Mountain points. Morphological correlates of Morrow Mountain points (e.g., Rossville, [Ritchie 1961]), have been found in other regions dating to the Late Archaic and Early Woodland periods. Thus, Morrow Mountain-like points could span a much longer period than is currently believed. Anderson (1996:164) also argues against a substantial population increase, stating "site concentrations in Georgia and the Carolinas are … unlikely to represent the presence of dense populations, but instead reflect the remains of small, organizationally uncomplicated groups ranging widely over the landscape." Regardless of whether there was a population increase, small, mobile hunting and gathering bands probably still formed the core social and economic unit in South Carolina.

There are a number of large, muliticomponent sites with substantial Middle Archaic components found in the Midlands, including Manning, Nipper Creek, Thom's Creek, and 38LX5 (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:75-78). Large Middle Archaic sites tend to occur along rivers, while numerous small upland lithic scatters dot the interriverine landscape. Subsistence was likely based on a wide variety of resources such as white-tailed deer, squirrel, nuts, fish, and migratory birds, although direct evidence of Middle Archaic subsistence is generally lacking in South Carolina. Unlike the subsequent Late Archaic, shell fish do not seem to have been an important part of the diet.

Middle Archaic tools tend to be expediently manufactured and have a more rudimentary appearance than those found during the preceding Paleoindian and Early Archaic periods. They

are also made predominately of locally available raw materials such as quartz (Blanton and Sassaman 1989). Diagnostic projectile points of the Middle Archaic include bifurcated points including McCorkle, Lecroy, St. Albans, and later stemmed points such as Stanly and Morrow Mountain. There are also several transitional Middle Archaic-Late Archaic forms such as Guilford, Brier Creek and Allendale/MALA (an acronym for Middle Archaic Late Archaic). Ground stone tools such as axes, adzes, grinding stones, and atlatl weights also become more common during the Middle Archaic.

Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.)

The Late Archaic subperiod, which lasted from about 5000–3000 B.P., saw a number of important developments in the region, including increasing sedentism, the introduction of soapstone and ceramic vessel technology, the use of pit storage, and possibly the beginnings of small-scale horticulture.

Recent analyses of Late Archaic settlement patterns in the Sand Hills and adjacent areas indicate that groups gathered in large numbers at sites along major rivers in the spring and summer, and established base camps near large tributaries that were occupied during the spring through early fall. These large gathering areas may have been used for ritual feasting and other communal activities; at least one site, Stallings Island in the middle Savannah River Valley, seems to have a functioned as a mortuary as well (Sassaman et al. 2006). These congregation areas are probably analogous to the spectacular Late Archaic shell rings on the Coast, which served as seasonal gathering, feasting, and ceremonial areas (Saunders and Russo 2002). In the late fall and winter, populations dispersed into the uplands living in small, semiautonomous groups (Sassaman and Anderson 1995; Sassaman et al. 1990).

In the spring and summer, Late Archaic people gathered large amounts of shellfish. It is not known why this productive resource was not exploited earlier, but one explanation is that the environmental conditions conducive to the creation of shellfish beds were not in place until the Late Archaic. Other resources that would have been exploited in the spring and summer months include anadromous and freshwater fish, white-tailed deer, small mammals, birds and turtles (House and Ballenger 1976; Stoltman 1974). During the late fall and winter, populations likely subsisted on white-tailed deer, turkey, and nuts such as hickory and acorn. It is also possible plants such as *Cucurbita* (squash and gourds), sunflower, sumpweed, and chenopod, were being cultivated on a small-scale basis, but direct evidence for these cultigens is lacking in South Carolina.

The most common diagnostic stone tool of the Late Archaic period is the Savannah River point (Coe 1964), a broad-bladed stemmed point found under a variety of names from Florida to Canada. There are also smaller variants of Savannah River points, including Otarre Stemmed and Small Savannah River points, that date to the transitional Late Archaic/Earl Woodland. Other Late Archaic artifacts include soapstone cooking discs, winged bannerstones, cruciform drills, shell tools, worked bone, and most importantly fiber-tempered Stallings Island and sand-tempered Thom's Creek pottery. The type site for Thom's Creek pottery is located just south of Columbia along the Congaree River (Griffin 1945).

Both Stallings Island and Thom's Creek pottery date from about 4500–3000 B.P. and have a wide variety of surface treatments including plain, punctated, and incised designs (Sassaman et al. 1990). For a long time it was believed that fiber-tempered Stallings Island pottery was the oldest pottery in the region (perhaps in the New World), and that sand-tempered Thom's Creek wares appeared a few centuries later (Sassaman 1993). Recent work at several shell ring sites on the coast; however, has demonstrated that the two types are contemporaneous, with Thom's Creek possibly even predating Stallings Island along the coast (Heide and Russo 2003; Russo and Heide 2003; Saunders and Russo 2002).

Woodland Period (ca. 3000–1000 B.P.)

The Woodland period sees a number of important developments in the region, including a gradual increase in population and sedentism, the widespread adoption of ceramic vessel technology, the introduction of the bow and arrow technology, the intensification of horticultural activities, the establishment of long distance trading networks, and the use of conical burial mounds for interring the dead. Like the preceding Archaic Period, the Woodland is traditionally divided into three subperiods: Early Woodland (3000-2500 B.P.), Middle Woodland (2500-1500 B.P.), and Late Woodland (1500-1000 B.P.). Each of these subperiods is discussed below; however, it should be noted that there is no well-defined cultural sequence for the South Carolina Midlands, and that ceramic typologies are drawn primarily from surrounding areas.

Early Woodland (3000–2500 B.P.)

By 2500 B.P., pottery was used throughout most of the Southeast and there is a proliferation of pottery styles in the Carolinas and Georgia. In the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, Refuge phase ceramics are indicative of the Early Woodland period. This pottery is characterized by coarse sand-tempered wares with surface treatments that include simple stamping, punctate, plain, and dentate stamping (DePratter 1979, Sassaman 1993, Williams 1968). In the Piedmont, Early Woodland assemblages are identified by the presence of coarse sand-tempered Badin and Dunlap fabric impressed and cord marked pottery. Diagnostic bifaces of this period include Otarre, Swannanoa, and Gary stemmed points, as well as Badin Crude Triangular points (Anderson and Joseph 1988; Coe 1964:123–124, Sassaman et al. 1990).

The limited data available on Early Woodland settlement patterns in the sandhills indicates a shift away from riverine settings, with small, semiautonomous groups living in the uplands at sites containing relatively few artifacts and little artifact diversity (Sassaman et al. 1990:13). In the Piedmont, there are few Early Woodland sites and a low population density is inferred (Ward and Davis 1999:83). Subsistence data indicate a continuation of Late Archaic diet, including white-tailed deer, bear, small mammals, reptiles and freshwater fish (Hanson and DePratter 1985; Marrinan 1975). One major difference, however, is that shellfish do not appear to have been an important part of the diet.

Middle Woodland (2500–1500 B.P.)

Middle Woodland pottery in coastal areas of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida is represented by the Deptford pottery series, which dates from about 2800–1500 B.P. This coarse sand/grit-tempered pottery represents a continuation of the Early Woodland Refuge series and is often found in association with Refuge pottery. Surface treatments include plain, check stamped, linear check stamped, cordmarked, and simple stamped applications (DePratter 1979; Waring and Holder 1968). On the northern South Carolina coast and in coastal North Carolina, a similar series, Deep Creek, has been identified. Like Deptford, this is a coarse sand tempered pottery that contains cordmarked and simple stamped surface treatments. Unlike Deptford, however, fabric and net impressed surface treatments are prevalent and check stamping is absent (Phelps 1983; Trinkley 1990). In the upper Coastal Plain and Piedmont, Early/Middle Woodland pottery consists of the Yadkin series, which is characterized by its crushed quartz temper and cordmarked, fabric impressed, check stamped, linear check stamped, and simple stamped surface treatments (Blanton et al. 1986, Coe 1964, Ward and Davis 1999). Yadkin Large Triangular points are the most common diagnostic projectile points of the Middle Woodland (Coe 1964), although Trinkley (1989:78) mentions a very small stemmed point he calls Deptford Stemmed. Other artifacts found in Middle Woodland assemblages include clay platform pipes, ground and polished stone ornaments, engraved shell and bone, bone tools, bifacial knives, and sharks tooth pendants (Sassaman et al 1990:96, Waring and Holder 1968).

Middle Woodland occupations in South Carolina are not well documented, especially in non-coastal areas. Coastal models tend to follow Milanich's "seasonal transhumance" model for the Deptford period in Florida (Milanich 1971, Milanich and Fairbanks 1980), which posits that in the winter and summer months groups moved to the coast and lived in small, semipermanent villages adjacent to tidal creeks and marshes. From these locations they would fish, gather shellfish, and exploit a variety of other marine and estuarine resources. In the fall, small groups moved inland to terraces adjacent to swamps to gather nuts and hunt white-tailed deer (Cantley and Cable 2002:29; Trinkley 1989:78-79). Horticulture is thought to have increase in importance during this period, with plants such as maygrass, goosefoot, knotweed, and sunflower being harvested. Unfortunately, evidence for Middle Woodland horticulture in South Carolina is still lacking.

In contrast to Milanich's model, evidence from the G.S. Lewis West site (38AK228) in Aiken County (Sassaman et al 1990:96-98) suggests a year round settlement occupied by a small resident population. Over 500 features, including pits, posts, human burials, and dog burials, were found at the site. White-tailed deer was the primary food source, with alligator, turtle, fish, turkey, freshwater mussels, hickory and acorns also being found (Sassaman et al. 1990:96). On the other end of the settlement spectrum, site 38LX5 in Lexington County contained few features and little artifact diversity, suggesting a repeatedly occupied, seasonal hunting/butchering camp (Anderson 1979:123). Based on the evidence at G.S. Lewis and surrounding sites at the Savannah River Site, Sassaman et al (1990:98) suggest a pattern where small villages were occupied on a year-round basis, with smaller outlying sites (e.g., 38LX5) representing seasonally occupied logistical camps.

Late Woodland (1500–1000 B.P.)

Very little is known about the Late Woodland period (1500-1000 B.P.) in South Carolina and sites of this time period are rarely encountered. Some have suggested (e.g., Trinkley 1990) that the South Carolina Piedmont may have been a relatively uninhabited buffer zone between groups as it was during the subsequent Mississippian period. A more likely explanation is that sites of this time period are underrepresented because of the difficulty in recognizing Late Woodland artifact assemblages. In general, Late Woodland societies tend to be marked by an increasingly sedentary lifestyle and improvements in food storage and preparation technologies. Although corn and squash were used in the region at this time, they did not comprise a significant part of the diet.

Pottery of the Late Woodland period throughout much of the Piedmont is characterized by the later stages of the Yadkin-Uwharrie sequence proposed by Coe (1964). Uwharrie ceramics include plain, brushed, cordmarked, textile-impressed (including net and fabric), simple stamped, and curvilinear complicated stamped types that are tempered with sand and crushed quartz inclusions (Anderson et al. 1996). Associated lithic artifacts include small and medium sized triangular projectile points (e.g., Uwharrie points). In the upper Savannah River Valley and surrounding areas of the Piedmont, a variety of complicated stamped Swift Creek and Napier period ceramics are found in Late Woodland assemblages. Anderson and Joseph (1988:246) also believe that that Middle Woodland Cartersville and Connestee ceramics with plain, simple stamped and checked stamped surface treatments may extend later in time than originally thought.

In the Coastal Plain, there is a confusing proliferation of ceramic types for the Late Woodland period, including Wilmington, Hanover, Mount Pleasant, and Cape Fear (Anderson et al. 1996). Ceramics are tempered with either sand or grog and contain cordmarked or fabric-impressed surface treatments. Grog-tempered Wilmington cordmarked pottery is found more frequently on the southern coast, whereas Hanover grog-tempered fabric impressed pottery is found more often to the north, although there is substantial overlap between the two (DePratter 1979; Herbert and Mathis 1996:149). As the two series are very similar, Anderson et al. (1996:264) recommend combining them both into the Wilmington series.

Cape Fear pottery is nearly identical to the Hanover series, but is tempered with sand rather than grog. Also, cordmarking seems to be more common on Hanover sherds, while fabric impressing is more common on the Cape Fear pottery (Herbert and Mathis 1996). Cape Fear ceramics have been found at the Mattassee Lake site (38BK226), with dates ranging from 1240–1430 B.P. (Anderson et al. 1982:354), while similar ceramics have been found at the Sandy Island site (38GE469) with dates ranging from 820–1180 B.P. (Clement et al. 2001:30), and at the Tidewater site (38HR254) dating from 860–1020 B.P. (Southerlin et al. 1997:75–77).

Toward the latter end of the Late Woodland and incipient Mississippian periods ceramic assemblages in coastal South Carolina show more localized developments. St. Catherines pottery is a fine grog-tempered found along the lower coast, with surface treatments that include cordmarked net impressed, plain and burnished plain (Anderson et al. 1996; DePratter 1979). Along the upper coast and interior Coastal Plain, Santee Simple Stamped is transitional Late

Woodland/Early Mississippian type, with dates from Mattassee Lake ranging from 610–1140 B.P. (Anderson et al. 1982:354).

Mississippian Period (ca. 1000–500 B.P.)

The Mississippian Period saw dramatic changes across most the Southeastern United States. Mississippian societies were complex sociopolitical entities that were based at mound centers, usually located in the floodplains along major river systems. The flat-topped platform mounds served as both the literal and symbolic manifestation of a complex sociopolitical and religious system that linked chiefdoms across a broad network stretching from the Southeastern Atlantic Coast, to Oklahoma (Spiro Mounds) in the west, to as far north as Wisconsin (Aztalan). Mound centers were surrounded by outlying villages that usually were built along major rivers to take advantage of the rich floodplain soils. Smaller hamlets and farmsteads dotted the landscape around villages and provided food, tribute, and services to the chief in return for protection and inclusion in the sociopolitical system. While Mississippian subsistence was focused to a large extent on intensive maize agriculture, the hunting and gathering of aquatic and terrestrial resources supplemented Mississippian diets (Anderson 1994).

Mound centers have been found along most major river systems in the Southeast, and South Carolina is no exception. Major Mississippian mounds in the area include the Mulberry site along the Wateree River in central South Carolina; Santee/Fort Watson/Scotts Lake on the Santee River; the Irene site near Savannah; Hollywood, Lawton, and Mason's Plantation in the central Savannah River Valley; and Town Creek along the Pee Dee River in North Carolina (Anderson 1994). The closest mound centers to the project area are Adamson, Mulberry, Belmont Neck and Boykin found approximately 20 miles to the east along the Wateree River in Kershaw County.

Diagnostic artifacts of the Mississippian period include small triangular projectile points, ground stone tools, and polished stone objects. Various ceremonial items were manufactured from stone, bone, shell, mica, and copper that were used as symbolic markers of chiefly power and status. Mississippian ceramic styles were also very different from the preceding Woodland Period, which has allowed archaeologists to differentiate this period into temporal subdivisions and distinct cultural areas.

There is increasing evidence that territorial boundaries between chiefdoms were closely maintained during the Mississippian period. Within the Wateree Valley, Judge (2003, see also DePratter and Judge 1990) has identified six phases of Mississippian occupation: Belmont Neck (A.D. 1200–1250), Adamson (A.D. 1250–1300), Town Creek (A.D. 1300–1350); McDowell (A.D.1350–1450), Mulberry (A.D. 1450–1550) and Daniels (A.D. 1550–1675). Cable (2000) adds a Savannah phase (A.D.1200–1300) to this list, between the Belmont Neck phase (which he puts at A.D.1100–1200) and Adamson phase (which he places between A.D.1300–1350. Meanwhile, groups living in the southern part of the North Carolina Piedmont are part of the Pee Dee culture, which includes the Teal (A.D. 950-1200), Town Creek (A.D. 1200–1400), and Leak (A.D. 1400–1600) phases (Ward and Davis 1999:123–134).

HISTORIC CONTEXT

Introduction

The project tract is located along Pocotaligo Swamp in the southern portion of Sumter County. This area, south of the city of Sumter, has historically been a rural portion of the state. Although the project area was included as part of the proprietary Craven County, the original counties of South Carolina, established when it was still a colony, mainly encompassed the coastal area where most settlers lived. As more people moved into the upper reaches of the state, commonly referred to as the backcountry, long and difficult travel prohibited them from easily utilizing the government functions centralized in Charleston. To combat this issue, in 1769 the General Assembly divided the state into seven judicial districts and the project area became part of the Camden District. When South Carolina became a state after the American Revolution, the legislature agreed to further decentralize government services, and in 1785 it divided each district into counties. Camden District contained seven of the new counties, including Claremont and Clarendon (Figure 8). As South Carolina grew, local governments became more important and new counties were created. In 1791, Salem County was created from the eastern portions of Claremont and Clarendon counties, changing their borders (Stauffer 1998:7-9, 12; Edgar 1998:215, 248, 265). Nine years later, however, all counties in South Carolina were reinvented as districts, with Claremont, Clarendon, and Salem counties being combined into Sumter District. In 1855, Clarendon District was recreated from the southern portion of Sumter District (Stauffer 1998: 13–14). As other counties were formed, the boundaries of Sumter County changed slightly, but the project area has always remained within the county.

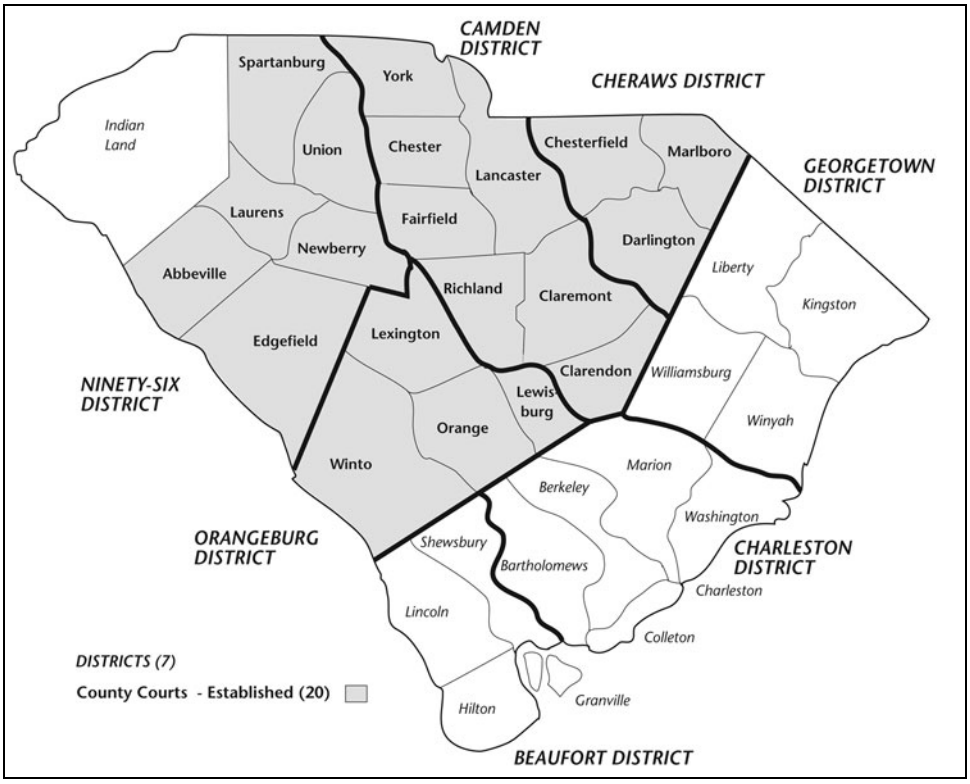


Figure 8. South Carolina's counties in 1785 (Stauffer 1989:9).

First European Settlers

The lands that lie in southern Sumter County did not see permanent European settlement until the mid- and late-eighteenth century. The area that would become Sumter County essentially lies between the Wateree River to the west and portions of the Lyches and Black Rivers to the northeast. Indian traders, following these rivers likely came through the area in the late 1600s and early 1700s, but permanent habitation of this backcountry area lagged behind settlement in coastal regions. In the 1730s and 1740s, when European settlers did begin to migrate to the area, they originally claimed the fertile lands along the rivers banks. The establishment of inland townships in the 1730s attracted more residents to the area. Fredericksburg, chartered in 1734, which later became Pine Tree Hill and then Camden, was located to the northwest on the Wateree River. Williamsburg, where Scots-Irish settlers began to acquire land in 1732, was located to the southeast, just below where the Pocotaligo River flows into the Black River (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:79; Edgar 1998:55–56; Gregorie 1954:8). Despite a growing interest in the backcountry by settlers, because of the difficulty of transportation over land and the lack of adequate roads between the nearby townships, the lands that would become Sumter County remained mostly unsettled woodlands. The earliest landowners in the area were primarily cattle owners and herdsmen, who used the land for pasture and built cattle pens to house their stock (Gregorie 1954:9).

Things began to change around the mid-eighteenth century. As settlers moved upwards along the Black River basin from Williamsburg Township, the southern portions of the original Sumter District (now part of Clarendon County) were quickly claimed, followed by the lands in the northern and western portions of the District. These new inhabitants of the area either came from the coastal counties of South Carolina, including immigrants who had landed in Charleston, or had migrated south from Virginia and other established counties (Gregorie 1954:14). During the 1730s and 1740s, John and Josiah Cantey settled north of Williamsburg, where John Cantey began his development of Mount Hope Plantation in 1739. In 1744, Richard Richardson, who had come to the area from Virginia, began acquiring land holdings north of the Santee River, between Halfway Swamp and Jacks Creek (Gregorie 1954:9). As settlers spread throughout Sumter District during the mid eighteenth century, Isaac Brunson, David Anderson, John Frierson, Samuel Bradley, and others moved into the lands between the Santee River, Black River, and Lyches Creek. Just north of the project area, John and Samuel Neilson began acquiring land on Turkey Creek and Rock Bluff Swamp in 1744; they were joined in the area within the next few years by John Hope, Robert Wilson, Hugh Ervin, James Bradley, James Grimes, Henry Cassels, and others, eventually growing into a settlement of approximately 25 families (Gregorie 1954:10–11).

These early settlers were mostly subsistence farmers, growing a variety of food crops for local consumption and often raising cattle for sale to the coastal markets. Settlers in the area also attempted to grow cash crops, such as tobacco, indigo, and cotton; although nearby Williamsburg prospered after the introduction of indigo in the 1740s and its success along the Black River, sizeable cash crops did not become commonplace in the Sumter District until after that colonial period (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:77; Gregorie 1954:22). The grants that farmers in the area received were primarily for small parcels, usually 50 acres per lot, and few families amassed multiple grants totaling more than 500 acres (Gregorie 1954:15). Early dwellings in the area

were simple cabins, which were often expanded later into frame houses as necessary (Gregorie 1954:16–18).

Figure 9. Mouzon's Map (1755) showing southern Camden District and approximate project area.

In 1765, approximately 5,000 "gunmen" were living in St. Mark's Parish, although this area included all the land between the Santee and Peedee Rivers to the North Carolina line (Gregorie 1954:14, 24). Lack of order was the primary concern for residents of these inland areas during the mid to late 1700s. Backcountry life in the 1760s was marred by a massive wave of robberies and murders that swept through the area. With no local government officials to dispense justice, crimes against settlers in the region went virtually unchecked for two years. Anyone thought to possess money or goods of value was considered a target, with even settlements like Williamsburg and Camden suffering raids and looting. With no help coming from the government in Charleston, residents of the area joined together to protect their property. These "Regulators" often used vigilante methods to defend their communities and punish the perpetrators of the crimes. Eventually their persistent cries for local law enforcement and justice were answered in 1769 with the creation of districts, although it was still years before law and order were completely established and judges did not arrive in Camden for the first circuit court until 1772 (McMaster 1946:17; Gregorie 1954:27–30).

The beginning of the Revolutionary War in 1776 did not have much affect on the residents of the area that would become Sumter County. The extent of war activities in the area during this time involved the movement of troops along the "Great Road" through the county between Camden and Charleston, and the war remained "out of sight, out of mind," for its first four years. When Charleston fell to the British in May 1780; however, the fighting came much closer to home, especially when the British were victorious at Camden in August that same year. At that time, residents who previously remained neutral were forced to choose between the Patriot and the Loyalist causes, and this often resulted in neighbors fighting neighbors. Both sides committed plunder, theft, and murder, and many residents were probably loyal to whatever side was raiding the area on that particular day.

Following the capture of Camden, the British forces and the Patriot militias struggled against each other throughout the backcountry for control of strategic lands. The lands of present day Sumter County were part of this struggle, as the swamps, rivers, and creeks in the area were the locations of multiple skirmishes, including some involving South Carolina's military heroes Francis Marion and Thomas Sumter (Gregorie 1954:52–55). The war would soon leave the area, but as the Revolution was ending and British forces withdrew from the coast, citizens in the backcountry still had to fear lawlessness similar to that which occurred in the 1760s. The responsiveness of the state government, and the establishment of new counties from the 1769 judicial districts, helped to return order. Peace, coupled with the success of tobacco as the area's main crop in the 1780s and 1790s, lured settlers to the backcountry. This move helped spread the concepts of plantation society and slavery into the region from the coast (Gordon 2003:93-99, 153; Moore 1993:30-31, 33-35).

In 1786, as a concession to backcountry residents who protested the control of state government by the Charleston elite, the legislature passed a bill to move the state capital to a centralized location. In 1787, John Gabriel Guignard surveyed and laid out the new capital in a two mile square area formerly owned by Colonel Thomas Taylor. When the new state constitution was written in 1790, it reaffirmed Columbia as the capital, although many government services continued to be provided in Charleston (Edgar 1998:248, 255; Edgar and Woolley 1986:17; Tomlinson Engineering Company 1931). The establishment of Columbia as the capital city

proved important to the inland residents of the South Carolina. As the nineteenth century neared, the presence of the legislature and the availability of government services made the region more attractive to settlers and the population of the region began to grow.

By 1790, Camden District had 38,265 residents and comprised 15.4 percent of the total population of the state. Clarendon County was the smallest of Camden's seven counties with only 2,392 residents, while Claremont County was the third smallest with a population of 4,548. During this period, slaves only comprised 23.2 percent of the district's population, a significantly lower percentage than the 43 percent in South Carolina as a whole. Claremont County actually had a larger percentage than the statewide average, with 46.4 percent of its residents being enslaved, whereas Clarendon County had only a 25.2 percent slave population (United States Census Bureau [USCB] 1907).

Eli Whitney's cotton gin proved a boon for South Carolina's inland areas because it significantly cut down on the effort needed to separate the seeds from the fibers of short-staple cotton. Although area farmers grew cotton throughout the eighteenth century, and the first cotton factory in the district was constructed in 1789 along the Santee River, cotton did not become a widely accepted cash crop in the area until around the turn of the nineteenth century. In 1796, a test crop of cotton was planted, and in 1797, John Mayrant harvested the first actual cotton crop in Sumter District (Gregorie 1954:109). Cotton production spread throughout the inland areas of South Carolina, and by 1810 many families were buying land and slaves to increase their cotton production. With the price of cotton booming from the 1790s to nearly 1820, the surge in production helped make the fortunes of many Sumter district residents. Although Charleston was the primary point of export for cotton, Columbia and other smaller towns served as important regional markets and businessmen involved in the cotton trade moved to the city and surrounding areas (Edgar 1998:273; McMaster 1946:35).

In the first half of the nineteenth century, agriculture was the most important economic pursuit in the Sumter County area. Although farmers in the region raised livestock and produced a large variety of staple crops such as wheat, oats, potatoes, and corn, these products were primarily for home or local consumption, and farmers allocated only a small percentage of land to these items. Cotton held the promise of large profits and therefore it was the most widely grown crop in the area. In 1840, Sumter County harvested 2,298,712 pounds of cotton, a yield that ranked it 10th among the 29 counties in the state. By 1850, Sumter had more than tripled its cotton production, harvesting 18,799 bales of cotton weighing 7,519,600 pounds, moving it to fourth among cotton producing counties. Moreover, Sumter had room to grow, as farmers used only 25.8 percent of its 878,209 acres for cotton production. Farming was the primary pursuit of most Sumter residents and the county's farms were valued at $3,547,743, the seventh highest in the state. Columbia was the primary market for these crops, and from there they were generally shipped to Charleston by boat (Moore 1993:88; USCB 1841, 1853).

Fueled by the prospect of successful cotton crops, the antebellum years saw significant growth in the Sumter area, with population increasing at a significantly higher rate than the total statewide average. From 1790 to 1820, Sumter County more than tripled its total population from 6,940 (the total for Claremont and Clarendon counties) to 25,639. By 1840, the growth in the area had slowed and Sumter County's population only numbered 27,892. This trend of slowed growth

continued until the Civil War, and in 1860, Sumter County's population was 23,859, although in 1855 Clarendon County had been created out of Sumter and it contained approximately 12,000 residents in 1860 (USCB 1821, 1832, 1841, 1853, 1864b, 1907).

As the population of the area grew, demographics also underwent change, especially in Sumter County. Slave labor proved to be an important resource for South Carolina, as cheap labor was necessary for producing a profitable cotton crop. Since 1790, Sumter County had reflected statewide trends in terms of slave population, with the percentage of enslaved people in the county being close to or above that in South Carolina as a whole. In 1820, slaves made up 63.6 percent of Sumter's population, a significant increase from thirty years prior, when the combination of Claremont and Clarendon counties only had a 39 percent slave population. This trend continued though 1860 when Sumter's population consisted of 69.9 percent slaves and South Carolina's average was 57.2 percent (USCB 1821, 1832, 1841, 1853, 1864b, 1907).

During the colonial and antebellum periods, there were few towns in Sumter District. Statesburg was laid out in 1783, by a company headed by General Thomas Sumter, who hoped that it might become the new state capital when the legislature moved the state government from Charleston (Gregorie 1954:62). The village of Manchester also began near the close of the American Revolution. It was approximately eight miles south of Statesburg, along the Charleston-Camden Road (Gregorie 1954:68). Both towns were small settlements with typical small stores, businesses, and a tavern to house and entertain travelers (Gregorie 1954:122). After the creation of Sumter District in 1800, a new site was chosen to be its municipal center and courthouse. The site of the new courthouse was near the center of the district on the plantation of John Gayle, who transferred two acres to the district for the construction of public buildings. Despite being the location of the courthouse, growth was slow in the new town of Sumterville; its location was some distance away from the rivers and the public road, making transportation difficult. In 1812, a traveler remarked that she thought the town was "a well-settled plantation and was much surprised to learn that it really was Sumterville" (Gregorie 1954:92). In 1824, Sumterville only had about 12 houses, but it also had two newly organized churches—the Baptist church was built in 1820 and the Presbyterian Church was organized in 1823. Growth occurred at a more rapid rate during the 1830s and 1840s, and in 1845, Sumterville was incorporated, with boundaries on one and one half miles square (Gregorie 1954:97). By 1850, the town had 840 residents, 330 of whom were slaves. In 1855, the name of the town was changed to Sumter by a legislative act (Gregorie 1954:90–107). In addition to these towns, some large plantation settlements did develop in Sumter District, but the Mills Atlas map (Figure 10) shows that the population in the district was primarily made up of numerous smaller landholdings, clustered together near water sources (Mills 1825).

Figure 10. Mills Atlas map of Sumter District, showing the approximate project location (Mills 1825).

Transportation developments were an important contributor to the growth of the Sumter District. In colonial and antebellum periods, water transport was the easiest method for movement of goods and people. Navigation of the rivers in the district was difficult, because of the frequently flooded swamps and numerous logs and shoals (Gregorie 1954:9). In 1818, South Carolina began investing in the improvement of its water transportation network and provisioned money for a series of canals to bypass significant obstacles. Two canals helped improve water transportation to and in Sumter District—the Wateree Canal near Camden and the Santee Canal, linking the Santee and Cooper Rivers (Jones 1971:134; Gregorie 1954:64).

Although canal building improved water transportation, another important development occurred that would significantly influence the development of South Carolina—the construction of the railroad. In the 1830s, South Carolina began financing railroad construction and in 1833, Charleston was connected to Hamburg via the newly completed South Carolina Railroad. Entrepreneurs proposed railroad links to cities throughout the state in the 1830s, and by 1842, Columbia had been linked to Charleston. In 1836, the legislature chartered a corporation to construct a railroad from Darlington to the Santee River, via Sumterville. Economic depression doomed this development; however an offshoot of the Charleston to Columbia line was constructed through Sumter District to Camden in 1848. The railroads brought economic advantages to Sumter and the surrounding areas as they brought goods from larger cities. Railroads also brought helped spur population growth as some of the men who built the tracks eventually settled in the area. The main purpose of the railroad, however, was the transportation of cotton from rural farms to urban markets, making profits for both the farmers and the cotton brokers in the city (Herring 1984:21; Moore 1993:137-138).

Civil War and Reconstruction

In 1860, census figures showed that Sumter County had begun a trend that it would continue throughout the rest of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Bolstered by the growth of the city of Sumter and the railroad construction, Sumter County was adding residents at a faster rate than many of its neighbors. Although the creation of Clarendon County diminished its overall size, Sumter maintained diverse agricultural pursuits, producing food crops and livestock, but cotton was still the dominant cash crop. In 1860, Sumter ranked near the middle of counties, with the 18th most valuable farmland in the state, worth $3,893,683. Sumter was also the 13th largest producer of corn, and it produced the eighth highest yield of cotton. Producing livestock for consumption was also important to Sumter's economy, with animals valued at $217,482 ranking 11th among South Carolina counties. Orchard products, peas, beans, and sweet potatoes were also important crops in the county. At the same time, manufacturing had grown in Sumter and in 1860, it ranked first among South Carolina counties in value of manufactured goods, at $99,750 (USCB 1864a, 1864b).

After the secession of South Carolina in December 1860, the state and county would continue preparations began to be made for war, although actual fighting was slow to come. Throughout most of the war the Sumter area was affected only indirectly as actual fighting did not come to the region until the early part of 1865. Early in 1861, while excitement for the war was high and Southerners were rallying to the Confederate cause, the Sumter Volunteers, Company D of the Second Palmetto Regiment, was organized and sent to Virginia. Women in the county organized relief and aid organizations, raising money and performing whatever services they could to help the war effort and the soldiers; the women of Statesburg and Sumter founded the Soldier's Relief Association early in the war (Gregorie 1954:257). The rural farmers of the area aided the war effort by supplying food to supplement the shortages in the city and elsewhere. This was not always a voluntary effort, especially after 1863, when the state required farmers to limit their planting of cotton and to donate one-tenth of their crop yields to the government (Moore 1993:183-191). Physicians were employed to tend the wounded soldiers sent back from battlefields and churches were converted into makeshift hospitals (Gregorie 1954:258–259).

As the tide of the Civil War changed, and the Confederate army went on the defensive to protect its major cities, Columbia's population swelled with refugees retreating ahead of the advancing Union army of General William T. Sherman. In early 1865, as Sherman's army worked its way through Georgia, residents of inland South Carolina were uncertain as to his ultimate path, leading to fear and confusion. Ultimately, the Union army marched north through Columbia, leaving behind a state of ruin as they looted and burned houses along the way and destroying the railroad connections that led to Sumter. In April 1865, Brigadier General Edward Potter began marching his forces inland from the coast to destroy supply stores. On April 9, 1865, approximately 150 men from the South Carolina Reserve Militia and local volunteers confronted Potter's force of 2,500 near Dingle's Mill. They hoped to utilize Turkey Creek and the flooded millpond to bolster their defensive position. Potter's men eventually outflanked the Confederate forces and marched into Sumter that evening (Gregorie 1954:263–264; Thigpen 1999:256).

After the Civil War, the rural areas of Sumter County generally returned to the path they had been following before the war. For instance, Sumter County continued to produce many of the

same crops but, due in part to changes brought about by the Civil War, its agricultural yields were declining. By 1870, nearly all of the crops harvested in Sumter were at numbers that were less than half their yield in 1860. Larger farms were broken up into smaller parcels utilized for sharecropping and tenant farming. However, Sumter County's small farming traditions helped it cope better with the new economic and social realities. While areas that had few large plantations suffered under new labor systems, many pats of Sumter County retained the small farm enterprises that had existed since the colonial area. This trend resulted in a slight increase in the total number of farms in the county, from 889 to 1,089, with most of the farms in the county ranging in size between 20 and 100 acres. By 1880, however the number of farms in Sumter County had more than doubled to 4,167, with 70 percent of the farms having less than 50 acres. Also, cotton was again becoming a primary crop grown in the county, with 22,469 bales produced, ranking it 12th out of 33 counties. Sweet potatoes, orchard products, peas, and beans also remained important (McMaster 1946: 50; Moore 1993:210; USCB 1872b, 1883a).

The railroad played an important role in the continued postbellum growth of Sumter and the surrounding areas. It was imperative that the railroad companies repair the damage that the Union armies had done, and by 1866 repairs had begun. The South Carolina Railroad connection to Camden was repaired in 1867. The Wilmington, Columbia and Augusta Railroad opened in 1871, creating a direct railroad route from Columbia to Sumter (Gregorie 1954:316–317). In addition to fixing the lines that had been severed during the war, Sumter's importance on the railroad lines grew as new routes were constructed, with six new lines built in Sumter County between 1882 and 1900. Along these lines, new rail depots had emerged throughout the Midlands. Eventually, residential settlements began to grow around these depots and post offices were established to serve the more rural communities (Moore 1993:210-214).

Reconstruction did little to change the rural way of life in Sumter County. In the first few years after the end of the Civil War, dealing with hardships was a way of life, as drought ruined many of the crops. Many whites were struggling to survive, and freedmen were still waiting for the United States government to give them land. In 1867, Congress instituted a radical program of reconstruction and blacks began to acquire positions of power in the city of Columbia. Most blacks, however, continued to work as farmers in the rural areas they had lived in before the war. Between 1860 and 1870, the population of Sumter County had increased by less than 2,000 residents, from 23,859 to 25,268 people. Over 70 percent of the population was newly freed blacks looking to support themselves and their families. By the 1880s, Sumter's population was steadily growing, increasing over 10,000 residents within the decade, to 37,037 residents (USCB 1872a, 1883b, 1895).

The 1880s and 1890s were a time of growth and change in the Sumter area. Some of the small communities that had emerged around railroad depots were growing and becoming towns. Sumter was still a predominantly rural county, but the city of Sumter was growing. Manufacturing and industry were springing up in the Sumter County, and Bellemont Cotton Manufacturing Company began in 1881, while other factories, including flour mills, grist mills, lumber mills, and a turpentine factory, also began operation in the area (Gregorie 1954:487). At the same time, agricultural yields were beginning to recover from their postwar lag and were surpassing antebellum highs. (Moore 1993:229-232).

Twentieth Century

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Sumter County was embarking on a period of growth. By 1900, Sumter's population had swelled to 51,237. Ten years later, Sumter County's population was only 38,472, although the population loss can be attributed to the 1902 creation of Lee County from a portion of Sumter County (Stauffer 1998:17). During the early part of the twentieth century, Sumter County retained its rural character. In 1920, the city of Sumter was the only municipality in the county with over 2,500 residents, which was the contemporary United States Census definition of an urban area. Although the city of Sumter had 9,508 residents in 1920, this only accounted for 23.1 percent of the county's population; the remaining 77.9 percent of Sumter County's population were rural inhabitants (Ramsey and Green 1922:29). Additionally, demographic trends of the late nineteenth century continued and Sumter County's black population comprised 70.9 percent of its residents (Ramsey and Green 1922:29).

Although Sumter County had undergone some industrial development during the 1800s, and many new factories had opened in the closing decades of the century, the economic base of the county remained primarily agricultural during the first decades of the 1900s. In 1920, the industrial output of Sumter County was valued at $2,622,819, while the top eleven crops grown in the county accounted for $14,200,441 of production. Without taking livestock into account, agriculture was nearly five and one half times more productive than industry (Ramsey and Green 1922:31). However, as in much of South Carolina, the majority of Sumter County's agricultural production in the early twentieth century was by tenant farmers. In 1910, 72.8 percent of Sumter County's famers were tenants and, although the percentage had decreased to 68.3 percent by 1920, it still ranked above the statewide number of 64.5 percent. Additionally, in 1920, 52.1 percent of tenant farms in Sumter County were operated by share tenants, who lived on and worked the land in exchange for a percentage of the crops they produced (Ramsey and Green 1922:60–61).

World War II also contributed to growth in the area and it economic base, as the United States opened a training base, now Shaw Air Force Base, northwest of the city of Sumter (Gregorie 1954:600). Transportation was improved in the area with the state funding of road maintenance projects and the building of bridges in the first half of the 1900s; Sumter County also invested in road improvement, passing a $2,500.000 bond issue for the building and surfacing of county roadways (Ramsey and Green 1922:89). In the 1950s, the federal highway expansion brought I-95 to the area (Moore 1987).

Beginning in 1940, life in central South Carolina was affected by numerous conflicts both at home and abroad. World War II, Korea, and Vietnam all drew soldiers from the region. On the home front, racial tensions were deepening as blacks fought the formal system of segregation that had been legal in the state for nearly 50 years. More recently, rural life in many areas of central South Carolina has changed dramatically. Agriculture, once the major staple of the region's economy, had decreased in importance, and many new residents began moving into areas formerly used for farming, although portions of the county are still primarily rural. New highways and roads leading out from Sumter have aided this flight from the city, and the result has been a shift in demographics and character of these once rural areas.

HISTORY OF THE PROJECT TRACT

The land in and around the project tract was likely settled in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, as settlers moved inland and away from the banks of the major rivers in the area. Many of the early county property records were destroyed during the Civil War, making identification of individual property owners difficult. Additionally, place names were often different in the eighteenth century, with multiple names or multiple spellings of the same name referring to the same place. Surviving state records do seem to indicate that settlers claimed the lands near the interior creeks that surround the project area over a long period of time, beginning in the 1770s and continuing well into the 1800s. Even this can be somewhat deceiving, however, because in early Colonial times all state records were recorded in Charleston, and travel to Charleston from rural Sumter County was long and difficult. Consequently, many immigrants to the area probably did not register their claims immediately or possibly at all (Herring 1984:30; McMaster 1946:12; SCDAH, Surveyor General's Office [SGO] 1784a, 1784b, 1796).

Mouzon's map of 1755 shows the Brunston and Nighton settlements along the branch of the Black River, later known as the Pocotaligo River, near the project area (Figure 9). Although settlement near the project tract increased during the early nineteenth century, the area remained rural in character, relying on agriculture to sustain itself. Mills Atlas shows the road "to the Pocotaligo River" roughly following the course of US 521 near the project area. The Davis family and the Wilder family are the two primary landholders around the project tract. The map shows the residences of "W. Wilder" and "As. Davis" located along the northeast boundary of the project tract (Figure 10). The "W. Wilder" residence is shown on the south side of Pocotaligo Road midway between the northern and southern tributaries of the Pocotaligo River which bound the project area. The "As. Davis" residence is also located on the south side of Pocotaligo Road near the crossing of the southern unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River that bounds the project area. The 1840s brought new life to the rural areas of South Carolina's interior, as railroad pioneers began a tremendous building effort to link inland areas to major cities such as Charleston on the coast and even as far as Cincinnati, Ohio.

The present day town of Sumter, located to the north of the project tract, was laid out as the courthouse town of Sumter District in 1800. As the nineteenth century progressed, Sumterville became an important railroad outpost between Columbia and Camden, and during the middle and late nineteenth century, the railroad was the lifeblood of the area (Figure 11). Cotton and produce that were grown in the surrounding areas were shipped from the depots and a post office was created there in 1857. In 1845, Sumterville was incorporated as a town, and in 1855, State Senator Franklin I. Moses introduced a bill into the legislature to extend the town charter, which was set to expire, and to change the name to Sumter (Gregorie 1954:97, 107).

After the Civil War, the rural character of the project area remained intact, although the town of Sumter continued to grow. The number of farms in Sumter County increased throughout the late nineteenth century, indicating a breaking up of larger estates into smaller sharecropping and tenant farm parcels. Records of the local Freedmen's Bureau indicate that whites often suffered in destitution to nearly the same extent as blacks, and they sometimes looked to the Bureau for assistance. This demonstrates that many rural farmers were having a difficult time making ends meet.

At the turn of the twentieth century, while much of the country and state was developing an urban mentality, life near the project tract, in southern Sumter County, continued to be predominantly rural. A 1907 map of Sumter County shows only a few structures along US 521 near the project area (Figure 12), and maps from the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s show similar development (Figure 12, 13, and 14). At this time, Sumter County encompassed approximately 574 square miles and had a total population of 38,472, comprised of 10,369 white and 28,103 black residents. Running through the county in 1908 were 83.11 miles of railroad tracks and 644.6 miles of highway.

The rural character of the area remained during the next several decades. Residents living near the project tract did not have many of the conveniences that were available in major cities during the period. Roads remained unpaved and were often nearly impossible to travel because of the mud. Although electricity was available in Sumter during the 1890s, rural residents did not have access to this service until the early twentieth century. During the economic booms that followed the two World Wars, most area residents could not afford the manufactured goods that were popular, and by the time of the Great Depression of the 1930s, poverty had been a way of life for so long that many rural residents noticed no change. Some of the increasing population during the mid and late twentieth century, however, did begin to change the character of life in area (Gregorie 1954:483).

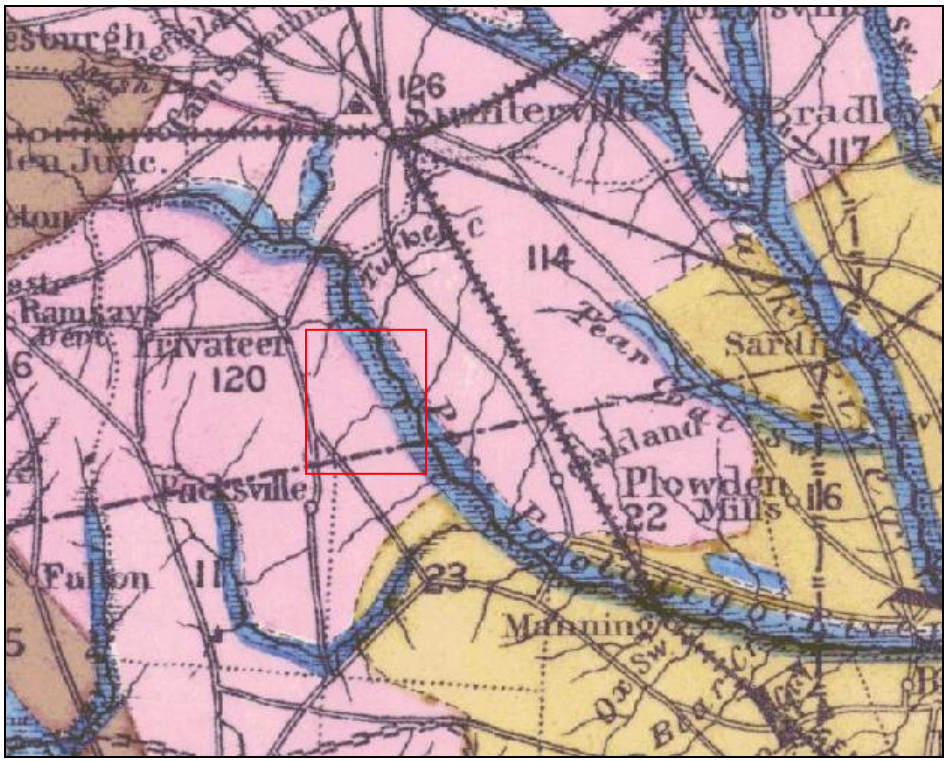


Figure 11. South Carolina Department of Agriculture Map (1883) showing approximate project area.

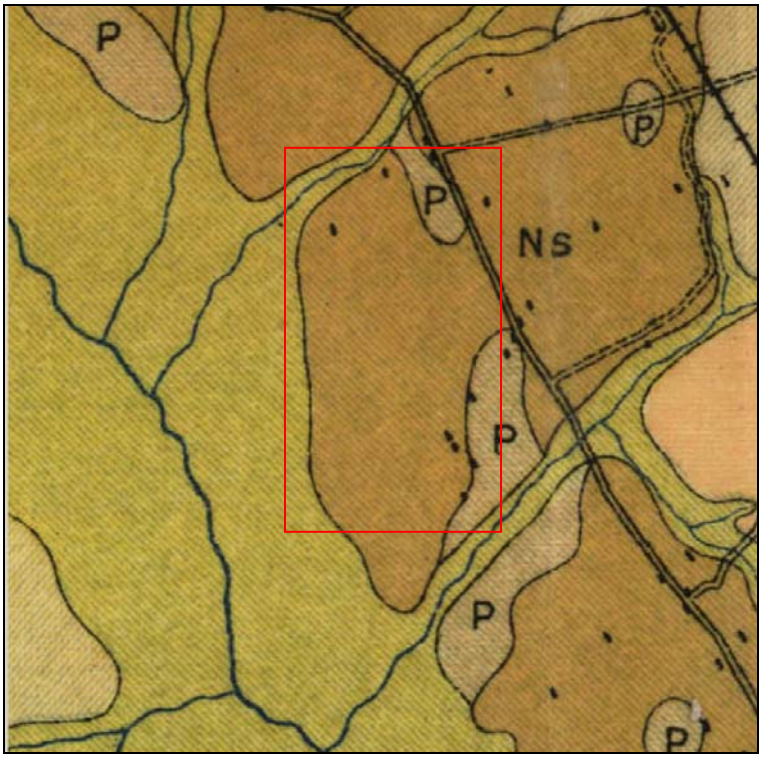


Figure 12. Soil survey map showing approximate project location (USDA 1907).

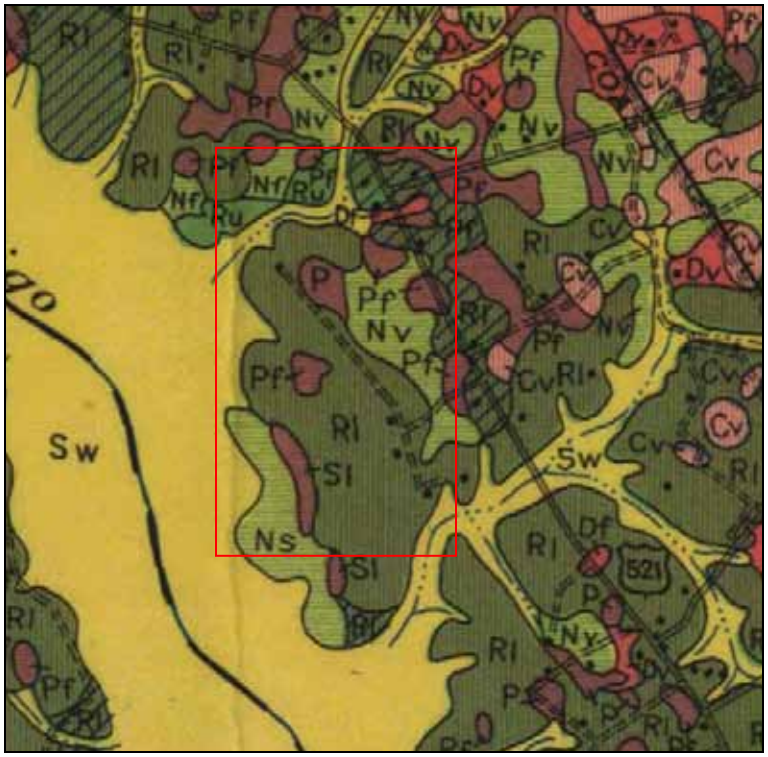


Figure 13. Soil survey map showing approximate project location (USDA 1935).

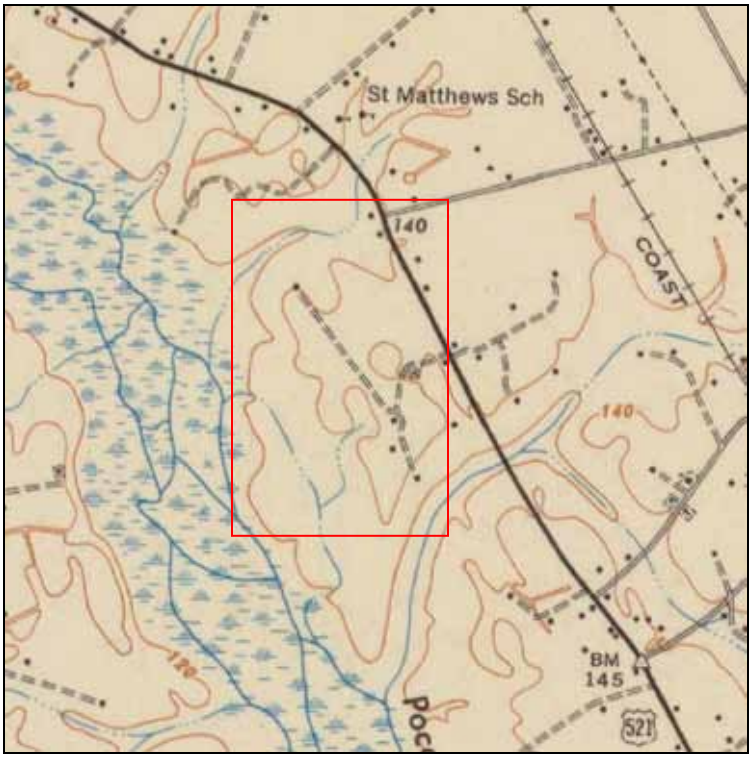


Figure 14. USGS 15-minute Sumter quadrangle, showing approximate project area (USGS 1946).

Figure 15. USGS 15-minute Sumter quadrangle, showing approximate project area (USGS 1959).

PREVIOUSLY RECORDED CULTURAL RESOURCES

On September 23, 2008, a background literature review and records search was conducted at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (SCDAH) in Columbia, and at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA) in Columbia. The area examined was a 0.5-mile radius around the project tract (Figure 1). The records examined include a review of ArchSite, a GIS-based program containing information about archaeological and historic resources in South Carolina. If cultural resources were noted within the 0.5-mile search radius, then additional reports and site forms contained at SCIAA and SCDAH were consulted. In addition to the files and records mentioned above, historic maps of the area were examined, including Mill's Atlas from 1825 (Figure 10), 1907 and 1935 USDA soil maps (Figures 12 and 13), and 1946 and 1959 15-minute United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic quadrangles (Figures 14 and 15).

A review of the files and records at SCDAH and SCIAA indicates that only one cultural resource survey has been conducted within the APE. In 1999, Brockington and Associates conducted a cultural resources survey for the proposed widening of US Route 521 located on the eastern side of the project area (Southerlin et al. 1999). This investigation failed to identify new archaeological sites; however, the survey did identify eight historic structures within a 0.5-mile radius of the project tract (Figure 1, Table 1). Seven of the eight structures identified within the 0.5-mile radius of the project area are ineligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). One structure 58-0067 is eligible for listing in the NRHP (Southerlin et al. 1999).

The Bradford house (58-0067) is a one and one half story, frame residence dating from the 1850s. The five-bay wide house is lateral gabled and the roof is covered with composition shingles; two interior brick chimneys break the roofline. A hipped roof porch spans most of the front façade of the structure, with a front facing gable over the main entry door. The porch features decorative turned posts and balusters. The exterior of the house is clad in weatherboard siding. The central entry door features a transom and sidelights; the windows are double hung, with six-over-six pane configuration. A small, one room addition has been built on the right elevation of the house. The addition and the porch are alterations to the structure, but they have been part of the house since before 1940. In addition to its architectural significance, the house has historical significance as the home of Wade Bradford during the Civil War and its use as a Union hospital during the nearby battle of Dingle's Mill (Southerlin et al. 1999).

Table 2. Previously recorded cultural resources within a 0.5-mile radius of project tract.

Site No.	Description	NRHP Eligibility	References
58-0066	Unnamed House, ca. 1930	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0067	Bradford House, ca. 1850	Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0068	Unnamed House, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0076	Unnamed House, ca. 1940	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0077	Unnamed House, ca. 1945	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0078	Unnamed House, ca. 1859	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0079	Unnamed House, ca. 1893	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999
58-0080	Unnamed House, ca. 1950	Not Eligible	Southerlin et al. 1999

A review of the Mills Atlas shows that in 1825 there were two structures located on the south side of US 521 within or very near the project area. The map shows the residences of "W. Wilder" and "As. Davis" located along the northeast boundary of the project tract (Figure 10). The "W. Wilder" residence is shown on the south side of Pocotaligo Road (approximate US 521) midway between the northern and southern tributaries of the Pocotaligo River which bound the project area. The "As. Davis" residence is also located on the south side of Pocotaligo Road near the crossing of the southern unnamed tributary of the Pocotaligo River that bounds the project area. The precise location of this residence is difficult to establish given the lack of landmarks on the map, but it appears to be located in the vicinity of 58-0079.

The 1907 and the 1935 USDA soil surveys of Sumter County show four structures within the project area with three additional structures located near the edge of the project area (Figures 12 and 13). The 1946 15-minute Sumter USGS quadrangle shows four structures within the project area and additional structures located near the southern border of the project boundary (Figures 14 and 15). Based on the scale of the map it is difficult to determine whether these structures were located within or outside of the project boundaries. Based on the 1959 15-minute Sumter USGS quadrangle one of the structures appears to be resource 519-1004 located just outside the S&ME project area. In addition to the structures, the 15-minute Sumter USGS quadrangles also show a cemetery located in a small wooded area approximately 200 m from US 521. This cemetery may be the White Family cemetery. The 1983 7.5-minute Brogden topographic quadrangle indicates that there were four historic structures within the boundaries of the project area.

IV. METHODS

ARCHAEOLOGICAL FIELD METHODS

Between September 24 and 26, 2008 and on October 15, 2008, Senior Archaeologist Jason D. Moser conducted a reconnaissance level cultural resources survey of the proposed project area. The archaeological survey was conducted primarily with shovel tests in areas deemed likely to contain archaeological sites based on landform type, soil drainage, distance to water, and the results of the background research. Shovel testing was supplemented by the surface collection of artifacts in areas with good ground surface exposure (Area 3 only). Shovel tests were approximately 30 cm in diameter and excavated to sterile subsoil, the water table, or at least 80 cm below surface (cmbs), whichever was encountered first. Soil was screened through 0.25-inch hardware mesh, and artifacts, if encountered, were bagged according to provenience.

Sites were located using a Garmin GPSMAP 76 receiver (5-m accuracy with WAAS correction) and plotted on USGS 7.5 minute topographic maps. Notes were kept in a field journal and on standard S&ME site forms. Site boundaries were determined by excavating shovel tests at 15-m and 7.5-m intervals radiating from an initial positive shovel test until two negative shovel tests were excavated. Sites were recorded in the field using field journals and standard S&ME site forms, and documented using high resolution digital photographs (four megapixel or higher resolution) and detailed site maps.

Four models are generally used for predicting prehistoric archaeological site location in the Coastal Plain of South Carolina (Brooks and Scurry 1978; Cable 1996; Clement et al. 2001; Scurry 2003). These models use environmental variables such as slope, soil drainage characteristics, distances to permanent potable water, and distance to the interface between well drained and poorly drained soils. These models predict high probability zones for prehistoric sites to occur relatively level and well drained soils that are located within 200 m of permanent potable water and the interface between well drained and poorly drained soils. Historic sites are typically located near old roads. Based on these models much of the project area contains a moderate to high probability of containing archaeological resources.

LABORATORY METHODS

Artifacts recovered during the survey were cleaned, identified, and analyzed using the techniques summarized below. Following analysis, artifacts were bagged according to site, provenience, and specimen number and the information was entered into an Excel spreadsheet (Appendix A). Acid-free plastic bags and artifact tags were used for curation purposes.

Historic artifacts were separated by material type and then further sorted into functional groups. For example, glass was sorted into window, container, or other glass. Maker's marks and/or decorations were noted to ascertain chronological attributes using established references for historic materials, including Noel Hume (1970), South (1976) and Miller (1991).

The artifacts, field notes, maps, photographs, and other technical materials generated as a result of this project will be temporarily curated at the S&ME office in Columbia. Upon conclusion of the project, project materials will be delivered to a curation facility meeting the standards established in 36 CFR Part 79, *Curation of Federally-Owned and Administered Archaeological Collections*.

ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY

In addition to the archaeological survey, a limited architectural resource survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect any aboveground National Register listed or eligible properties. Accessible public roads within and adjacent to the project area were driven. Historic structures, if encountered, were photographed using high quality (i.e., four megapixel or higher resolution) digital images. Photographs were also taken from the historic structure toward the project area to help assess possible visual effects caused by the undertaking.

NATIONAL REGISTER ELIGIBILITY ASSESSMENT

For a property to be considered eligible for the NRHP it must retain integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association (National Register Bulletin 15:2). In addition, a property must meet one or more of the criteria below:

A. are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
B. are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
C. embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
D. have yielded or may be likely to yield information important in history or prehistory.

The most frequently used criterion for assessing the significance of an archaeological site is Criterion D, although other criteria were considered where appropriate. For an archaeological site to be considered significant, it must have potential to add to the understanding of the area's history or prehistory. A commonly used standard to determine a site's research potential is based on a number of physical characteristics including variety, quantity, integrity, clarity, and environmental context (Glassow 1977). These factors were considered in assessing a site's potential for inclusion in the NRHP.

V. RESULTS

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY RESULTS

Between September 24–26, 2008, and October 15, 2008, S&ME conducted a reconnaissance survey of the proposed 320± acre Pocotaligo Industrial Park Tract. A total of 26 shovel tests, ranging from 20–80 cm deep, were excavated within four separate areas of the project tract (Figure 2, Table 3). An additional twenty-seven shovel tests were excavated to define the boundaries of two historic artifact scatters—38SU1078 and 38SU1079—located within the survey area. A portion of area of Area 3 was also investigated using a pedestrian survey of recently plowed fields; during this pedestrian survey, a small family cemetery was identified in the southeast corner of Area 3. Soils were highly varied across the project tract. Soil profiles typically consisted of approximately 25–35 cm of gray (10YR 5/1) sand (Ap horizon), overlying 10–25 cm (25–50 cm below surface [cmbs]) of pale brown (10YR 6/3) sandy loam, followed by 10 cm (35–60 cm) of (10YR 5/6) yellowish brown sandy clay subsoil.

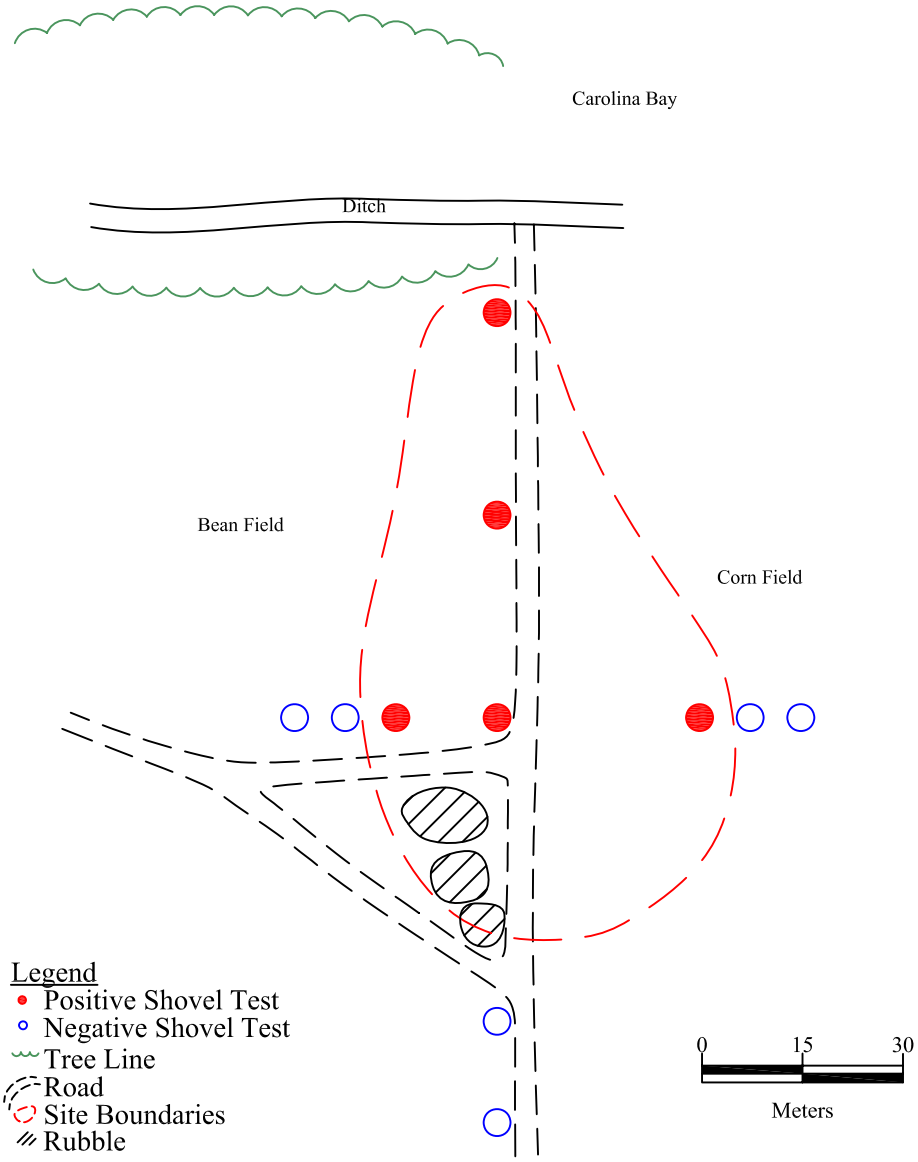
Table 3. Survey areas within the project tract.

Area	Acreage	No. of Shovel Tests	Artifacts	Recommendations
Area 1	12	3	None	Additional work
Area 2	41	8	None	Additional work
Area 3	77	12 (plus surface collection)	Historic Site	Additional Work/ Avoid Cemetery
Area 4	8	3	Historic Site	Additional work
Total	**126**	**26**		

Site 38SU1078

Site Number: 38SU1078	**NRHP Recommendation**: Not Eligible
Site Type: Historic Artifact Scatter	**Elevation:** 460 ft. AMSL
Components: Late 19th/Early 20th century	**Landform:** Carolina Bay
UTM Coordinates: E563443, N3746025 (NAD 27)	**Soil Type**: Norfolk Loamy Sand/Rembert Loam
Site Dimensions: 45 N/S x 90 E/W m	**Vegetation:** Soybeans and Corn
Artifact Depth: 0-35 cm	**No. of STPs/Positive STPs:** 10/5

Site 38SU1078 is a historic artifact scatter located at the boundary of two agricultural fields and the boundary between areas 3 and 4 (Figures 2 and 16). The site is located near the edge of a Carolina Bay and bisected by Switchback Road, a farm road that was present on early twentieth century maps (Figures 16-17). A large pile of concrete debris was present on the eastern side of the site. Analysis of the northwest quadrant of the 2006 Brogden Digital Orthophoto Quarter Quadrangle (DOQQ) shows two agricultural silos near the location of the concrete debris pile. Analyses of several early through mid-twentieth century historic maps depicting the project area indicate that site 38SU1078 is located within a cluster of buildings (Figures 13-15). The site measures approximately 90 m east-west by 45 m north-south.



SCALE: AS SHOWN	S&ME	**SITE MAP** 38SU1078 Pocotaligo IP Recon Sumter County, South Carolina	FIGURE NO: 16
APPROVED BY:			
DRAWN BY: KRS			
DATE: 09–30–08		JOB NO: 1616-08-424	

To determine the boundaries of the site, a cruciform pattern of nine additional shovel tests were excavated at 7.5-m, 15-m and 30-m intervals radiating out from the initial positive shovel test. A total of ten shovel tests were excavated across the site, with five shovel tests containing artifacts. The artifacts consisted of brick (n=5), refined white earthenware (n=2), solarized glass fragments (n=2), a clear glass fragment (n=1), and a single 9mm bullet which were all recovered between 0–35 cmbs. The recovery of refined white earthenware and solarized glass in the same context indicate the presence of a late nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of this site. Refined white earthenware was manufactured between 1815 and present (median 1911) while solarized glass was manufactured between 1880 and 1914 (median 1897) (South 1977).

A typical soil profile for site 38SU1078 consists of 25–35 cm of gray (10YR 5/1) silty loam (AP horizon), overlying 10 cm of brownish yellow (10YR 6/3) clayey loam (A2 horizon), followed by [35–45+] yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) sandy clay subsoil. During the delineation of the site boundaries a large pile of concrete debris overgrown with vegetation was identified east of initial positive shovel test. Two shovel tests were excavated further east of the concrete rubble and both were negative. Based on date of the artifacts recovered from this site, the concrete debris was included within the site boundary. Two negative shovel tests delineated the site to the north and south and a Carolina Bay delineated the site to the west.

Site 38SU1078 is interpreted as a late nineteenth through early twentieth century artifact scatter located entirely within the plowzone. The presence of a large pile of concrete debris within the site boundary also indicates the demolition of one or more agricultural structures at this location. The site contains very few artifacts, has limited artifact diversity, and few temporally diagnostic artifacts. Site 38SU1078 lacks integrity and is unlikely to provide any significant information about the historic inhabitants of Sumter County. As a result, this site is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Figure 17. Site 38SU1078, facing east from edge of Switchback Road.

Site 38SU1079

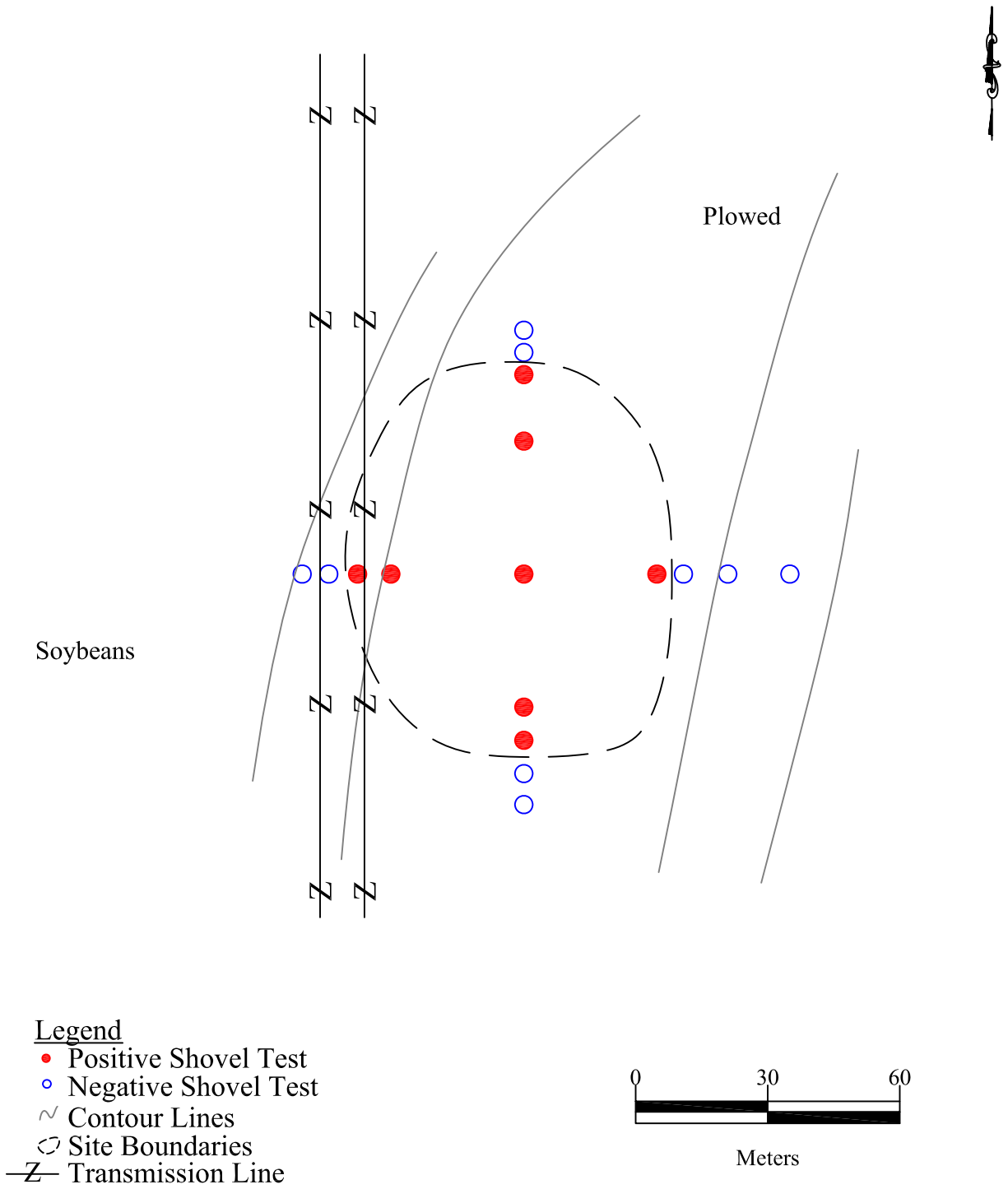
Site Number: 38SU1079	**NRHP Recommendation**: Not Eligible
Site Type: Historic Artifact Scatter	**Elevation:** 144 ft. AMSL
Components: 19th/20th Century	**Landform: Carolina Bay** nose
UTM Coordinates: E562978, N3746640 (NAD27)	**Soil Type**: Norfok Loamy Sandy/Rembert Loam
Site Dimensions: 75 E/W x 90 N/S m	**Vegetation:** Cornfield
Artifact Depth: 0-35 cmbs	**No. of STPs/Positive STPs:** 17/8

Site 38SU1079 is a late nineteenth through early twentieth century historic artifact scatter identified during a shovel testing around the margins of a Carolina Bay. The site measures approximately 75 m east-west by 90 m north-south (Figures 2 and 18). The site is located within a plowed cornfield under a power transmission line (Figures 19 and 20). Artifacts were recovered from the plowzone between 0–35 cmbs. Analyses of twentieth-century historic maps of the area show that site 38SU1079 is located in area of a structure that is depicted on several maps between 1907 and 1946 (Figures 12-15).

To determine the boundaries of the site, a cruciform pattern of shovel tests was excavated at 7.5-m, 15-m and 30-m intervals radiating out from the initial positive shovel test. A total of 17 shovel tests were excavated across the site, with eight shovel tests containing artifacts. A typical soil profile from the site consists of consists of 15–25 cm of dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) clay loam (Ap horizon), overlying 10–15 cm [25–40 cmbs] of light yellowish brown (10YR 6/4) clayey sand (A2 horizon), followed 10 cm [25–50+] yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) clay subsoil.

The artifacts recovered from this site include brick (n=23; 158 g), whiteware (n=3), porcelain (n=2), curved glass fragments (n=24), milk glass (n=1), an unidentified nail fragment (n=1), slag (n=1), a hexagonal nut (n=1), and miscellaneous metal (n=3) (Appendix A). Eight of the curved glass fragments were solarized and one was fragment was milk glass. These artifacts were recovered between 0–35 cmbs (Figure 16). The artifacts recovered indicate a late nineteenth through early twentieth century occupation of this site. Refined white earthenware was manufactured between 1815 and present (median 1911) while solarized glass was manufactured between 1880 and 1914 (median date 1897) (South 1977).

Site 38SU1079 is a late nineteenth through early twentieth century artifact scatter located entirely within the plowzone. Shovel testing indicates that even the plowzone of the northern portions of this site is deflated. The site lacks integrity and is unlikely to provide any significant information about the historic inhabitants of Sumter County. As a result, this site is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP



SCALE: AS SHOWN	S&ME	**SITE MAP** 38SU1079 Pocotaligo IP Recon Sumter County, South Carolina	FIGURE NO: 18
APPROVED BY:			
DRAWN BY: KRS			
DATE: 09-30-08		JOB NO: 1616-08-424	

Figure 19. Site 38SU1079 along the ridge, facing southwest.

Figure 20. Site 38SU1079 and adjacent Carolina Bay, facing south.

CEMETERIES

A small cemetery was identified within the southeast quadrant of the project tract adjacent to Switchback Road approximately 200 meters southwest of US 521 (Figure 2). Tax records indicate that this cemetery is associated with the White Family (Sumter County Tax Assessment 2008). The cemetery is surrounded by a galvanized chain-link-fence which encloses an area approximately 20-x-20-m in size (Figure 21). The southeast corner of the fence has collapsed. The area is heavily overgrown with dense underbrush. Several of the headstones have toppled and are lying on the ground. One headstone bears the name of James G. White who was born Sept 6, 1836 and died on August 10, 1902 (Figure 22). Another headstone records the burial of an infant in 1904. Five headstones were located during the survey. Several of these stones were inaccessible or unreadable during this survey. The dense underbrush and thick leaf mat also prevented a reliable count of the number of graves present within the cemetery. Given the age of the cemetery, it could be eligible for inclusion in the National Register under Criterion D (and possibly other criteria) and will need additional investigation and evaluation. Also, the area of the cemetery should be cleared to determine that there are no additional graves within or adjacent to the enclosed portion of the cemetery. Until such time, the White family cemetery should be avoided by ground-disturbing activities.

Figure 21. Chain-link-fence surrounding the White Family Cemetery.

Figure 22. The base of the toppled grave monument for James G. White.

ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY

A limited architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect any aboveground historic properties within the APE. Accessible public roads within and adjacent to the project area were driven, and existing structures greater than 50 years old were examined for National Register eligibility (Figure 1). As a result of the architectural survey, eight previously recorded structures (58-0066, 58-0067, 58-0068, 58-0076, 58-0077, 58-0078, 58-0079, and 58-0080) were re-located within a 0.5-mile radius of the project tract and (Figures 23-30). Of these, only structure the Bradford House (58-0067) was eligible for listing in the NRPH. In addition, one previously unrecorded historical structure (58-0208) was identified within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area (Figure 31). A silo, located adjacent to the project area, was also identified and photographed (Figure 32).

58-0066

Structure 58-0066 is a one and one half story residence dating from ca. 1930 (Figure 23). The house is a frame structure, built in the Craftsman style. The central hipped roof covers a three-bay front elevation with a central entrance. The main roof extends past the right edge of the house to form a porch (or carport), supported by four columns. There is a full length porch on the front elevation, supported by paired columns resting on brick posts. There is a central, gabled dormer above the main entry door; an interior brick chimney is visible at the rear of the roofline. Double hung windows are paired on either side of the central doorway and they feature nine-over-one pane configuration. Since its original survey in 1999, alterations have been made to the porch support columns and the gabled dormer. Structure 58-0066 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0067

The Bradford House (58-0067) is a one and one half story, frame residence dating from the 1850s. The five-bay wide house is lateral gabled and the roof is covered with composition shingles; two interior brick chimneys break the roofline (Figure 24). A hipped roof porch spans most of the front façade of the structure, with a front facing gable over the main entry door. The porch features decorative turned posts and balusters. The exterior of the house is clad in weatherboard siding. The central entry door features a transom and sidelights; the windows are double hung, with six-over-six pane configuration. A small, one room addition has been built on the right elevation of the house. The addition and the porch are alterations to the structure, but they have been part of the house since before 1940. In addition to its architectural significance, the house has historical significance as the home of Wade Bradford during the Civil War and its use as a Union hospital during the nearby battle of Dingle's Mill (Southerlin et al. 1999). The Bradford house has been determined eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Figure 23. Structure 58-0066, facing south.

Figure 24. NR Eligible structure 58-0067, facing northeast.

58-0068

Structure 58-0068 is a single story, frame residence dating from ca. 1940. The three-bay main house has a front gabled roof, and a single room, cross-gabled addition is visible at the left elevation. A hipped roof porch covers the central entrance, supported by metal posts, and there are exposed rafter tails on the porch roof. Double hung windows are visible on either side of the central doorway and they feature six-over-six pane configuration. Structure 58-0068 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0076

Structure 58-0076 is a single story, frame residence dating from ca. 1940 (Figure 25). The main house has a wide, front gabled roof; a single room, shed roofed addition is visible at the left elevation and there is a cross gabled section on the right elevation. The front façade is recessed under the gable roof, and a front porch has been enclosed with screens. The house has a brick veneer. Structure 58-0076 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0077

Structure 58-0077 is a single story, masonry structure dating from 1945 (Figure 26). This commercial structure features a three-bay main façade with a front gabled roof; a flat roofed, concrete addition has been added to the left elevation. The entrance door, at the center of the main elevation, is a double door; windows are visible on either side, although they are boarded over and pane configuration cannot be determined. Structure 58-0077 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0078

Structure 58-0078 is a one and one half story, frame residence dating from 1859 (Figure 27). The house sits on a tall, brick pier foundation and the five-bay main house has a lateral gabled roof, which is covered with composition shingles. A hipped roof porch covers the front façade and right elevation, supported by wooden piers. There are two gabled dormers along the roofline on the front elevation. Double hung windows are visible on either side of the central doorway and they feature six-over-six pane configuration. Significant alterations were made to the structure ca. 1960. Structure 58-0078 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Figure 25. Structure 58-0068, facing east.

Figure 26. Structure 58-0076, facing east.

Figure 27. Structure 58-0077, facing east.

Figure 28. Structure 58-0078, facing east.

58-0079

Structure 58-0079 is a one and one half story, frame structure dating from 1893 (Figure 29). This residential structure is set on a brick pier foundation and has weatherboard siding. The main house has a hipped roof and two gabled additions are visible on the right façade. The roof is covered with standing seam metal. A gabled roof porch covers the central entrance door. The entry door features sidelights and the windows are double hung with six-over-six pane configuration. A screened porch was added to the left elevation ca. 1920. Structure 58-0079 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0080

Structure 58-0080 is a single story, frame structure dating from 1950 (Figure 30). This residential structure is side gabled, with a large, projecting front gabled porch on the primary façade. The exterior of the house features synthetic siding and the roof is covered with composition shingles. A single entry door in the front elevation is off center and the windows are double hung with two-over-two pane configuration. Structure 58-0080 has previously been determined ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

58-0208

Structure 58-0208 is a single story, frame structure dating from 1940 (Figure 31). This residential structure is side gabled, with a projecting front gabled porch on the primary façade. The exterior of the house features synthetic siding and the roof is covered with composition shingles. The porch has been enclosed with siding and screening. No entry door is visible and it is likely behind the screened porch; the windows are double hung with six-over-six pane configuration. Structure 58-0208 has been altered since its construction and is not a premier example of any architectural style or movement. Therefore, S&ME recommends it as not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

Figure 29. Structure 58-0079, facing southwest.

Figure 30. Structure 68-0080, facing east south.

Figure 31. Structure 58-0208, facing south.

Figure 32. Kudzu covered silo at the corner of Justin Lane and US 521, facing north.

VI. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

S&ME has completed a literature review and a cultural resource reconnaissance survey of 320± acres at the proposed Pocotaligo Industrial Park tract in Sumter County, South Carolina (Figure 1). As a result of these investigations, two new archaeological sites, 38SU1078 and 38SU1079, and one cemetery were documented within the project area (Figure 1, Table 1). In addition to these sites, eight previously recorded historic structures were revisited and one previously unrecorded historic structure was documented within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area (Figure 1).

Archaeological sites 38SU1078 and 38SU1079 are late nineteenth through twentieth century historic artifact scatters (Figure 2). Artifacts recovered from both sites were confined to the plowzone. Both sites are recommended ineligible for listing in the NRHP. A small family cemetery was identified within the southeast quadrant of the project tract. The White family cemetery is an early twentieth-century cemetery that is potentially eligible for listing on the NRHP. The cemetery requires additional investigation and evaluation to determine its NRHP eligibility. Until the additional investigations and evaluation are completed, this area should be avoided by ground-disturbing activities.

Of the eight previously documented historic structures were documented within a 0.5-mile radius of the project area only the Bradford House (58-0067) is eligible for listing in the NRHP (Figure 1). One previously undocumented historic structure (58-0208) was identified within 0.5-mile radius of the project area and is recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP. The Bradford House is a ca. 1850s residential structure that was determined eligible for NRHP listing (Southerlin et al. 1999). The Bradford House is located approximately 280 m northeast of the project area. The house is partially screened by vegetation and a raised roadway approach carrying US 521 over an unnamed creek. Another stand of trees located along the perimeter of the project boundary also screens the house from the project tract. The removal of the trees from the perimeter of the project area may adversely affect the viewshed of the Bradford house. If compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is required, then it is S&ME's opinion that consultation with the SHPO may be necessary.

Based on Coastal Plain predictive settlement models (Brooks and Scurry 1978; Cable 1996; Clement et al. 2001; Scurry 2003) the environmental variables present within the project tract indicate that the project area has a moderate to high potential for containing additional archaeological sites. Tthe close proximity of the Pocotaligo River and its tributaries, three Carolina Bays, large areas of well-drained Norfolk and Wagram soils, and moderately well-drained Goldsboro soils throughout the project area suggest a moderate to high probability that prehistoric archaeological sites are present in the project area. In addition, the proximity of Switchback Road through the project area and US 521 adjacent to the project area also indicates that portions of the project tract have a moderate chance for containing additional historical archaeological sites.

Based on these variables it is S&ME's opinion that approximately 193 acres of the project area has a moderate to high probability of containing additional archaeological resources (Figure 33).

If compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act is required, then it is S&ME's opinion that a Phase I archaeological survey should be conducted of these 193 acres. The remaining 126 acres have a low probability of containing significant archaeological resources and we recommend no additional work in these areas.

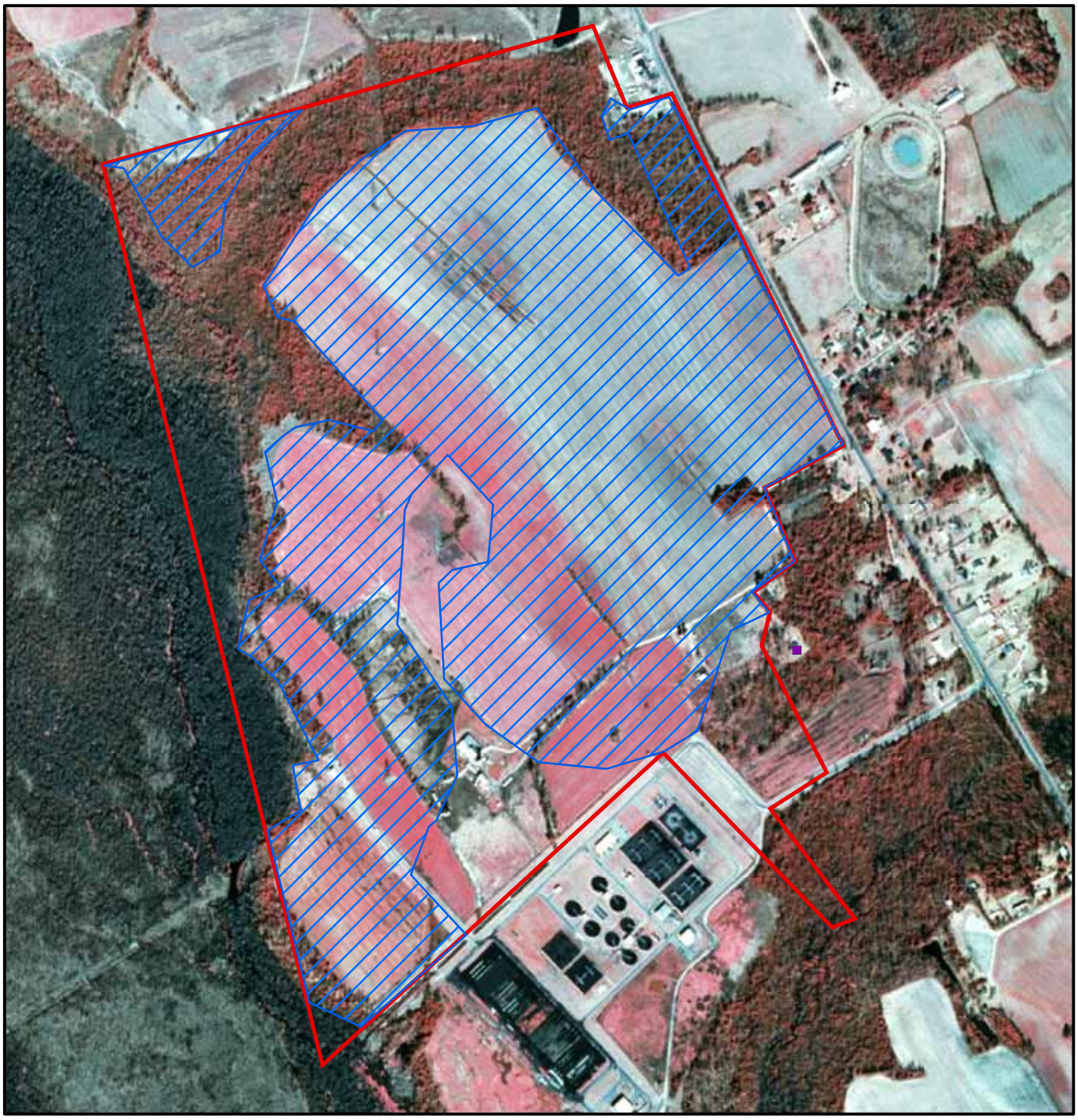


Figure 33. Aerial photograph showing area recommended for Phase I survey.

Base Map: Brogden (2006) northwest quadrent DOQQ.

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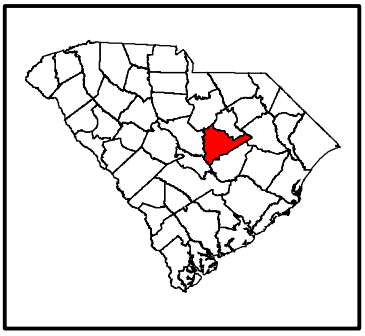
Project Area (approximate)

Area Recommended for Phase I Survey

S&ME



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APPENDIX A – ARTIFACT CATALOG

Appendix A - Pocotaligo Industrial Site Reconnaissance Survey Artifact Catalog

Site #	Cat. #	Provenience	Depth (cmbs)	Count	Weight (g)	Class	Category	Sub-Category	Type/Description	Portion	Description
38SU1078	1.01	ST 14	0-35	1	4.3	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain	Body	
38SU1078	1.02	ST 15	0-35	3	7.7	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1078	2.01	ST 14 + 15m S	0-35	1	1.9	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Solarized	Neck	Pharmaceutical bottle
38SU1078	3.01	ST 14 + 30m W	0-35	1	0.8	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain	Rim	
38SU1078	3.02	ST 14 + 30m W	0-35	1	0.5	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1078	4.01	ST 14 + 60m W	0-35	1	8.9	Ammunition	Ammunition	Bullet	9mm		
38SU1078	4.02	ST 14 + 60m W	0-35	1	0.3	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1078	4.03	ST 14 + 60m W	0-35	1	0.8	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Solarized		
38SU1078	5.01	ST 14 + 30m N	0-35	1	0.8	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	1.01	Surface	Surface	1	61.6	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	2.01	ST 26	0-35	4	9.1	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	2.02	ST 26	0-35	2	16.9	Metal	Unknown		Misc.		Unid.
38SU1079	2.03	ST 26	0-35	7	7.3	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Solarized		
38SU1079	2.04	ST 26	0-35	5	5.9	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	2.05	ST 26	0-35	1	1.0	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Burned		
38SU1079	2.06	ST 26	0-35	1	0.4	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Lt. Green		
38SU1079	2.07	ST 26	0-35	1	0.4	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Brown		
38SU1079	2.08	ST 26	0-35	1	0.6	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Whiteware	Plain		
38SU1079	2.09	ST 26	0-35	1	0.6	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Milk		
38SU1079	3.01	ST26 + 30m N	0-30	8	11.7	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	3.02	ST26 + 30m N	0-30	1	1.2	Metal	Unknown		Misc.		Unid.
38SU1079	3.03	ST26 + 30m N	0-30	2	1.3	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Whiteware	Possible decal		
38SU1079	3.04	ST26 + 30m N	0-30	1	1.8	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Porcelain	Plain	Rim	
38SU1079	3.05	ST26 + 30m N	0-30	1	1.3	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	4.01	26 + 37.5m N	0-30	5	11.0	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	4.02	26 + 37.5m N	0-30	1	4.1	Metal	Unknown		Misc.		Unid.
38SU1079	4.03	26 + 37.5m N	0-30	2	4.2	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	4.04	26 + 37.5m N	0-30	1	1.2	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Brown		
38SU1079	5.01	26 + 15m S	0-30	1	2.7	Metal	Other	Slag			
38SU1079	5.02	26 + 15m S	0-30	2	6.4	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	5.03	26 + 15m S	0-30	1	2.1	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Aqua		
38SU1079	6.01	26 + 37.5m W	0-30	2	39.0	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	6.02	26 + 37.5m W	0-30	1	2.1	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	6.03	26 + 37.5m W	0-30	1	2.1	Metal	Architecture	Nail			Unid.
38SU1079	7.01	26 + 30m W	0-30	1	5.7	Metal	Architecture	Nut			Hexagonal
38SU1079	7.02	26 + 30m W	0-30	1	2.4	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Solarized		
38SU1079	7.03	26 + 30m E	0-30	1	0.5	Glass	Curved Glass	Unknown	Clear		
38SU1079	8.01	26 + 30m E	0-30	3	17.3	Brick	Architecture	Brick			
38SU1079	9.01	26 + 22.5 m S	0-30	1	4.0	Historic Ceramic	Refined Earthenware	Porcelain	Plain	Footring	

APPENDIX B: ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY CARD

Statewide Survey of Historic Properties

State Historic Preservation Office
South Carolina Department of Archives and History
8301 Parklane Road
Columbia, SC 29223-4905 (803) 896-6100

Control Number: U / 85 / 58-0208
Status County Site No.
Quadrangle Name: Brogden
Tax Number: 2530002015

Reconnaissance Survey Form

Identification

Historic Name:

Common Name: Hatfield-Geddings House

Address/Location: 680 Switchback Road

City: Sumter

County: Sumter

Vicinity of:

Ownership:
- ☒ Private
- ☐ Corporate
- ☐ City
- ☐ County
- ☐ State
- ☐ Federal
- ☐ Unknown/Other

Category:
- ☒ Building
- ☐ Site
- ☐ Structure
- ☐ Object

Historical Use:
- ☒ single dwelling
- ☐ multi dwelling
- ☐ commercial
- ☐ other

Current Use:
- ☒ single dwelling
- ☐ multi dwelling
- ☐ commercial
- ☐ other

Date: ca. 1940

SHPO National Register Determination of Eligibility:
- ☐ Eligible
- ☐ Not Eligible
- ☐ Contributes to Eligible District
- ☐ Contributes to Listed District
- ☐ Potentially Eligible
- ☐ Listed
- ☐ Determined Eligible/Owner Objection
- ☐ Removed from NR

Other Designation:

Notes:

This house is a single story, frame structure dating from ca. 1940. This residential structure is side gabled, with a projecting front gabled porch on the primary façade. The exterior of the house features synthetic siding and the roof is covered with composition shingles. The porch has been enclosed with siding and screening. No entry door is visible and it is likely behind the screened porch; the windows are double hung with six-over-six pane configuration. The house has been altered since its construction.

Photographs

Roll No.	Neg. No.	View of
1	1	Front of house (north elevation)

Attach Photographs Here

Program Management

Recorded by: Jason D. Moser, S&ME, Inc.

Date Recorded: October 14, 2008