INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF 38CH1023 AND 38CH1030, PARKER'S ISLAND, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 159

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INTENSIVE SURVEY OF 38CH1023 AND 38CH1030, PARKER'S ISLAND, CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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ABSTRACT

This study presents the results of an intensive archaeological survey of two previously identified sites (38CH1023 and 38CH1030). Both sites were previously recommended by Southerlin et al. (1988) as potentially eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. The primary purpose of this investigation was to further assess the National Register eligibility of the sites for a recommendation as either eligible or not eligible.

Site 38CH1023 represents a sparse eighteenth century scatter adjacent to an upland wetland which is believed to represent an old clay borrow pit. Shovel tests were placed at 50 foot intervals in a grid pattern in the site area and positive tests were further examined with either 10 foot or 20 foot interval shovel tests in cardinal directions. As a result of this survey, 38CH1023 is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. The remains are sparse and scattered, and there was no evidence for subsurface features. It is likely that the artifacts are related to clay mining activities and the site was used sporadically with no permanent occupation. Alternatively, the clay extraction pit was dug into an old eighteenth century settlement.

Site 38CH1030 represents a nineteenth century settlement and brick kiln. Shovel tests were placed at 50 foot intervals in a grid pattern yielding very few artifactual remains. Several areas were further examined with a metal detector which identified the existence of at least one domestic structure. This area was further investigated with shovel tests at 10 foot intervals in cardinal directions and with a two foot test pit. Artifacts were primarily colonowares, transfer printed pearlware, and annular whiteware. The brick kiln area contains intact structural features. This site is recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register. It represents an industrial site with an associated slave settlement which probably housed slaves with specialized skills whose primary job was brick making.
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INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Ms. Natalie Adams of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Chris Thomas of Thomas & Hutton Engineering Company. The two sites (38CH1023 and 38CH1030) to be intensively surveyed are located approximately seven miles north of the town of Mt. Pleasant on Parker’s Island (Figure 1).

38CH1023 is located on a linear expanse of land and is bordered to the north and west by a remnant dirt road. To the south and west the site is bounded by marshland. Topography at the site is relatively level although there is a slight rise in the center of the tract. Near the center of the rise is a wetland which is believed to be an old clay extraction pit. Vegetation at the site consisted either of hurricane damaged pine woods with a dense understory of vegetation or pines with a moderate understory of vegetation.

38CH1030 is located on a point of land bordered to the west and south by the confluence of the Wando River and Hortbeck Creek, to the north by marsh, and to the east by low lying land and marsh. Topography at the site consists of a linear ridge running parallel to river and creek. Vegetation at the site is mixed pine/hardwoods with a moderate understory of vegetation.

This study is intended to provide a detailed explanation of the archaeological survey of the two sites and the findings. Chicora received a request for a proposal on October 3, 1994. This proposal was accepted on October 28, 1994.

The field investigations were undertaken by Ms. Natalie Adams and Ms. Missy Trushel between November 2 and 4, 1994. The laboratory processing of the resulting collections, curation preparations, and report production have taken place at Chicora Foundation’s laboratories in Columbia on November 14 and 15, 1994.
NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Charleston County is located in the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain of South Carolina and is bounded to the east by the Atlantic Ocean and a series of marsh, barrier (such as Sullivans Island), and sea islands (Mathews et al. 1980:133). Elevations in the County range from sea level to about 70 feet mean sea level (MSL). The mainland topography, which consists of subtle ridge and bay undulations, is characteristic of beach ridge plains. Elevations in the project area range from five to seven feet above mean sea level (MSL).

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

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

Charleston County is made up of one broad physiographic area, often called the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain or the Atlantic Coast Flatwoods. The surface soils are almost entirely sedimentary and were transported into the area from elsewhere. At 38CH1023 soils consist of moderately well drained Hockley loamy fine sand, whereas soils at 38CH1030 consist of poorly drained Yonges loamy fine sand.

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

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

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

in the months of June, July, and August, 1752, the weather in Charleston was warmer than any of the inhabitants before had ever experienced. The mercury in the shade often rose above 90°, and for nearly twenty successive days varied between that and 101° (Mills 1972:444).
Figure 1. Location of 38CH1023 and 38CH1030 on the Cainhoy USGS topographic quadrangle map.

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

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

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

Mills, in the early nineteenth century, remarked that:

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

Indeed, an examination of the region around Charleston County reveals tremendous diversity. One detailed study revealed a mosaic including the oak-hickory-pine forest common to upland areas, oak-gum-bald cypress forest typical of the southern floodplains, pine forests found in mesic to xeric upland sites, mesophytic broadleaved forests on more mesic slope sites, old rice fields, and a variety of swamp forests such as the tupelo-cypress, low hardwood, and ridge hardwoods (Federal Power Commission 1977). All of these forest types have different dominants and different understory vegetation (see Barry 1980).
PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC SYNOPSIS

Previous Archaeological Investigations

In 1988 Brockington and Associates surveyed the 800 acre Parker Island tract (Southerlin et al. 1988) discovering 17 new sites and revisiting one previously identified site, including the two sites (38CH1023 and 38CH103) visited in this current study.

Southerlin et al. (1988:26) described 38CH1023 as a late eighteenth-early nineteenth century domestic site with a light scatter of Woodland Period artifacts. A series of 28 shovel tests were excavated with 17 yielding artifactual remains in a 240 foot (north-south) by 270 foot (east-west) area surrounding a wetland. The recovered artifacts consisted primarily of Colofoneware, dark green bottle glass, and brick fragments. These artifacts were concentrated in two areas. No intact deposits were encountered and artifact density was described as moderate. Further work was recommended to better determine if the site was eligible for the National Register.

38CH1030 was described as an eighteenth/nineteenth century historic site with associated brick piles. The site was originally noted as shell midden with scattered brick rubble eroding along the shoreline. Two large brick piles were recorded and were believed to be associated with separate structures. The boundaries were determined by the landform (360 feet east-west by 225 feet north-south) as opposed to shovel testing. Five shovel tests were intuitively placed near the center of the site, with three yielding artifacts. Artifacts suggested an antebellum to early twentieth century occupation (Southerlin et al. 1988:40).

Perhaps the most comprehensive archaeological and historical study of this area is Lacy Wayne’s PhD dissertation on brick making in the Wando River basin (Wayne 1992). Given the importance of brick making at Parker’s Island and the fact that brick-making related activities took place at both sites, this study takes on greater importance. Included in her dissertation are discussions of the brick operations at Parker's Island Plantation, and she clearly argues for the significance of these brickyards as “a part of a regional response to a market demand as well as evidence of the diversity of the southern plantation system” (Wayne 1992:130). Wayne noted that brick kilns were normally found on poorly drained soil adjacent to bodies of water. She also found that the existing shorelines were normally used as landings and were simply covered with brick rubble to provide a hard surface. Historic maps and archaeological surveys indicated that many of the brickyards had associated slave and/or overseer housing (Wayne 1992:104).

Prehistoric Synopsis

The Paleo-Indian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, sid-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drill (Coee 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1968; Goodyear et al. 1989). The Paleo-Indian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna” (Michie 1977:124).

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

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

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

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

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

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePrater 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from 1070±115 B.C. (QC-784) to 510±100 B.C. (QC-785), is found primarily along the South Carolina coast from the Savannah drainage as far north as the Santee River (Williams 1968:268). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

It is difficult to reconstruct the subsistence base, although the sites suggest small, seasonal camps for small groups (Trinkley 1982). The settlement fragmentation, which began at the end of the Thom's Creek phase, around 1000 B.C., probably relates to the increase in sea level, from a Thom's Creek phase low of 10 feet below the current high marsh surface at 1200 B.C. to a high of about 3 feet below the current high marsh surface at 950 B.C. (Colquhoun et al. 1980; Brooks et al. 1989). This increasing sea level drowned the tidal marshes (and sites) on which the Thom's Creek people relied. The following Refuge phase evidences the fragmentation necessary when the environment which gave rise to large sedentary populations disappeared. Hatchett (1982:21-23), based on Savannah River data, suggests that subsistence stress present during the Thom's Creek phase may have resulted in an expansion of the settlement system into diverse environmental settings. It seems likely, however, that the development of mature, upland tributaries was also essential ingredient in this process (see Sassaman et al. 1989). This same "splitting" is observed on the South Carolina coast.

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson 1983:33). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of
wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Depford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. Wilmington and Hanover may be viewed as regional varieties of the same ceramic tradition. The pottery is characterized almost solely by its crushed sherd (perhaps with grog as well) temper which makes up 30 to 40% of the paste and which ranges in size from 3 to 10 mm. Wilmington was first described by Caldwell and Waring (Williams 1968:113-116) from coastal Georgia work, while the Hanover description was offered by South (1960), based on a survey of the Southeastern coast of North Carolina (with incursions into South Carolina). The Wilmington phase was seen by Waring (Williams 1968:221) as intrusive from the Carolina coast, but there is considerable evidence for the inclusion of Depford traits in the Wilmington series. For example, Caldwell and McCann (1940:671) noted that, "the Wilmington complex proper contains all of the main kinds of decoration which occur in the Depford complex with the probable exception of Depford Linear Checkstamped" (see also Anderson et al. 1982:275). Consequently, surface treatments of cord marking, check stamping, simple stamping, and fabric impressing may be found with sherd tempered paste.

Sherd tempered Wilmington and Hanover wares are found from at least the Chowan River in North Carolina southward onto the Georgia coast. Anderson (1975:187) has found the Hanover series evenly distributed over the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, although it appears slightly more abundant north of the Edisto River. The heartland may be along the inner Coastal Plain north of the Cape Fear River in North Carolina. Radiocarbon dates for Wilmington and Hanover range from 1350-55 B.C. (UM-1916) from the 38BK134 to A.D. 1120±100 (OX-2284) from a "Wilmington House" at the Charles Towne Landing site, 38CH1. Most dates, however, cluster from A.D. 400 to 900; some researchers prefer a date range of about 200 B.C. to A.D. 500 (Anderson et al. 1982:276).

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

The McClellanville (Trinkley 1981a) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excrave rims and interior rim stamping, not so far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series. Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Matussee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.
In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1989:14-15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The previous survey by Southerlin et al. prepared a chain of title "back to 1875, at which point record deficiencies precluded further progress" (Southerlin et al. 1988:22). The research found 16 different owners during the postbellum and twentieth century, a situation typical of Charleston County during the upheavals following the Civil War. The earliest owner identified by Southerlin et al. was Thomas D. Parker, whose heirs in 1875 were forced to sell the 700 acre island through a Sheriff's sale.

Although very little additional historical research was conducted as part of this intensive survey, it was possible to readily identify an 1844 plat for the property (S.C. State Plats, Charleston Series, 1784-1860, v. 42, p. 224) in which the Deputy Surveyor, Thomas L. Jones prepared a plat for the 850 acre Parker Island for Robert D. Parker. The plat was produced so that Parker "could obtain a new grant" for the property, suggesting perhaps that the original grant had never been filed (an unusual circumstance for this late period, especially in Charleston County). The plat (Figure 2) shows a variety of features on the island, including "Robert D. Parker Settlement" in the immediate vicinity of 38CH1030. At this time, in 1844, the plantation consisted of 500 acres of pine land, 200 acres of "worthless land marsh," and 150 acres of rich marsh. A new grant for Parker Island was filed for the plantation on February 3, 1845 (Secretary of State Grants, Columbia Office, Class I, vol. 6P, 1841-1854), p. 184).

Robert D. Parker is first listed in the 1840 census. At that time he and two white females are enumerated on the Charleston Neck, along with six slaves (1840 U.S. Census, Charleston County, p. 105). This suggests a modest house on the Neck, an area of Charleston described by Zloder and Callow (1894:96) as containing a curious mix of both well-to-do planters and merchants, free blacks, and African American slaves "living out." Neighborhoods slowly developed along class, not racial lines, and the Neck (that area above Callow Street) was not annexed into Charleston proper until 1849. Also in 1840, Robert D. Parker was recorded as owning a plantation in Christ Church Parish, almost certainly Parker Island (1840 U.S. Census, Charleston County, p. 183). Enumerated on the plantation, however, were only 40 African American slaves, suggesting that the island was operated by a slave driver, rather than by Parker or a white overseer. The slaves on the plantation included 21 females, ranging in age from under 10 years old to under 55, and 19 males, ranging in age from under 10 years to under 100 years.

By 1850 Parker, 52 years old, was listed only in Christ Church (1850 U.S. Census, Charleston County, p. 381). His household consisted of his wife, Rachel, three teenage daughters, and a female child. His occupation was listed as planter and Parker Island was valued at $5000.

The 1850 agricultural census lists Robert Parker owning 826 acres, of which 100 acres were improved. The value is listed as $5000, along with $150 worth of farming implements. The plantation included three horses, two mules, 12 milk cows, 40 head of cattle, and 25 pigs, for a combined value of $600. The previous year the plantation produced 300 bushels of corn, 130 bushels of oats, 1600 bushels of sweet potatoes, 100 pounds of butter, and 4 tons of hay, although the cash crop was certainly the 7 bales of ginned cotton. While these figures provide us with an "absolute understanding" of Parker's management skill, they fail to help us understand his place in plantation society. It helps to compare his economic worth and plantation management skills with his peers in Christ Church. The average value of the 62 enumerated plantations in 1850 is $4945 (with a standard deviation of $4,351). While there was considerable variation in the worth of Christ Church plantations, Parker was clearly in the middle. Likewise, the mean value of farming implements was $175, only slightly more than claimed by Parker. The average number of horses was 4.2, the average number of milk cows was 9.8, and the average plantation contained 25.1 pigs. In Christ's Church Parish the average value of livestock was $622.25. In most respects, therefore, Parker's holding appear "average," no better than, or worse than, his neighbors. The average plantation produced 426.8 bushels of corn and 120.2 pounds of butter -- again close to the values claimed by Parker. Curiously, however, while Parker produced 7 bales of cotton in 1849, the average production for Christ's Church Parish was only 1.8 -- reflecting that a number of the plantations were more oriented toward supplying the tables in Charleston than toward cash crops. This sets Parker apart, illustrating that
his plantation was apparently striving to maximize production of cotton, likely on the "rich marsh" lands listed on the 1844 plat.

An examination of the 1850 Industrial Census for Charleston County reveals that while five individuals or plantations are listed producing bricks, Parker's was not among them. The industrial census is often rather incomplete and relatively little can be made of presence or absence of inclusion. It is, however, interesting to evaluate the data present for the five listings. Capital investment ranges from a low of $4,000 to a high of $75,000 and production ranges from a low of 14,000 bricks to a high of 4,000,000 bricks. The cost of producing a single brick (including wages and fuel) ranges from a low of .0025¢ to a high of .0044¢. Considering the reported sale prices, the value per brick ranged from .007¢ to .06¢. These figures suggest a "mark up" of slightly more than 100% (or 50% on cost), not considering initial capital investment. Looking at the returns of the five producers after subtracting immediate costs, they range from a low of only $257 to a high of $3794.

Ruffin (Mathew 1992:99) reports that about this time Sea Island cotton was selling for anywhere between 18¢ to $1 per pound, with production rates ranging from 150 pounds per acre for the less valuable to as little as 30 pounds per acre for the most demanding cotton. Using the lower figure of 18¢ per pound and a production rate of about 90 pounds per acre, the very modest brick profit of $257 represents only 3.5 bales of cotton, while the higher return of $3794 represents nearly 53 bales of cotton. The point is that even small brick yards, after expenses, cleared a reasonable return on their investment, especially compared to the economic fluctuations of cotton.

While the 1850 census fails to list any of the Parkers as brick producers, Wayne (1992:51) does list Robert and Thomas Parker (Parker's Island, Horlbeck Creek) as producing brick in the 1850-1860 period and before them, John and George Parker (also Parker's Island) producing brick in the 1790-1830 period. Consequently, it appears that the Parkers combined not only very respectable agricultural production with the additional profits offered by brick making.

This plantation offers exceptional research potential. Additional title research, focused on both the Charleston County RMC and the Charleston County Probate records, will likely provide a complete record of ownership. Examination of the court records surrounding the action by Susan Drayton against Thomas Parker may also serve to help us understand the 1844 regrant of the property, as well as the eventual loss of the island by the Parker family. Examination of Charleston City Directories, tax returns, and census information may help to better place the different Parker generations within an economic and social framework. Exploration of earlier and later agricultural census information may help us to understand the changes which befell Parker's Island after the Civil War and which may have resulted in the eventual loss of the island.

At present, however, it is clear that Parker Island was an active agricultural plantation in the late antebellum, in many respects paralleling other small holdings in Christ's Church Parish. Added to Robert Parker's agricultural success was his ability to tap the brick production market. This diversification suggests an alternative economic strategy and indicates that plantations, even in close proximity to Charleston, had a variety of options. It seems unlikely, therefore, that we can talk about "plantations" at an archaeological level as though there is an archetypical model.
FIELD AND LABORATORY METHODS

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests across each of the sites at 50 foot intervals on transects 50 feet apart. Closer interval tests would be used to further investigate areas of interest or dense concentrations. In addition, a Tesoro Bandito II metal detector would be used to help determine site boundaries.

A total of 111 shovel tests were placed at 38CH1023 in intervals ranging from 10 to 50 feet. In addition, a metal detector was used to further examine any concentrations of materials. At 38CH1030, a total of 49 shovel tests were excavated at intervals ranging from 10 to 50 feet. A metal detector was also used at this site to examine concentrations of materials. In addition, a two foot square unit was excavated in the area of a suspected house site.

All soil from the shovel tests would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to subsoil. All cultural remains would be collected, except for shell, mortar, and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained from profiles of positive tests and colors would be designated with a Munsell soil color chart. The survey methods were carried out with no deviation.

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts was conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories on November 14 and 15, 1994. These materials are being catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Original and duplicate field notes have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology as soon as the project is complete. Analysis of the collections followed professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.
SURVEY RESULTS

38CH1023

Site 38CH1023 is located in the center of a narrow linear land form, just south of a remnant dirt road and surrounding a wetland area believed to be an old clay extraction pit (see Wayne 1992 for similar examples at other Wando River plantations). Southerlin et al. (1988:26) described 38CH1023 as a late eighteenth-early nineteenth century domestic site with a light scatter of Woodland Period artifacts. The recovered materials consisted primarily of Colonoware, dark green bottle glass, and brick fragments. These artifacts were concentrated in two areas. No intact deposits were encountered and artifact density was described as moderate. The site was recommended as potentially eligible.

During the current survey a total of 111 shovel tests were excavated across the site during the current survey at 10 to 50 foot intervals (Figure 3). Of these tests, only 12 (or 10.8%) yielded remains. They revealed a very sparse and disperse scatter of eighteenth century materials. Artifacts collected consist of three Colonoware sherds, one dark olive green bottle glass, and one unidentifiable iron object, suggesting an eighteenth century deposition date. Small quantities of brick and shell were also located (Table 1). Surface visibility was poor and no surface collection was made.

Table 1.
Artifacts Recovered from 38CH1023

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provenience</th>
<th>Shell</th>
<th>Brick</th>
<th>Colonoware</th>
<th>Bottle Glass</th>
<th>Iron</th>
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<tr>
<td>T3ST5</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>T6ST3</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>60'WT3ST5</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>20'N of 40'WT3ST5</td>
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</table>

Key: L=light amounts (subjective term meaning more than 3 pieces, but less than approximately 0.5 pounds).

Southerlin et al. (1988) defined the boundaries of the site as being 240 feet by 270 feet. However, positive shovel tests during the current survey indicated that the site was very scattered and sparse. Some of these positive tests are quite isolated from other positive tests. Nonetheless, the boundary definition was left unchanged since it was suspected that activities may have taken place around the central wetland which probably was originally a clay extraction pit. Wayne (1992:107) notes that plantations which were involved in brick production presently contain clustered wetlands in upland areas which are the result of clay extraction. Clay extraction resulting in "large, steep-sided pits, often may feet in depth" (Wayne 1992:116). The pits filled with
Figure 3. Location of shovel tests at 38CH1023.
water, forming ponds, and over time, filled in and developed wetland vegetation (Wayne 1992:117). Alternatively, these activities may have not been involved in clay extraction, but rather the clay extraction pit was excavated into an old settlement.

The central UTM coordinates are E608620 N3638630 and the soils are classified as moderately well drained Hockley loamy fine sand. Soil profiles indicate that the A horizon consists of about 0.7 feet of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand overlying grayish brown (10YR5/2) subsoil. Vegetation at the site consists of hurricane damage pine forest with a dense understory vegetation.

38CH1023 is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register. The site is sparse and scattered with no evidence of intact features. In addition, the site has been clear cut at some point (since the pines are about 20 years old) which has likely damaged the site. Also, it is possible that the clay extraction pit has destroyed a large portion of the site.

38CH1030

Site 38CH1030 is located on a linear landform adjacent to the confluence of the Wando River and Horlbeck Creek. It was described as an eighteenth/nineteenth century historic site with associated brick piles. It was originally identified by shell midden with scattered brick rubble eroding along the shoreline. Two large brick piles were recorded and were believed to be associated with separate structures. The boundaries were determined by the landform (360 feet east-west by 225 feet north-south) as opposed to shovel testing. Five shovel tests were intuitively placed near the center of the site, with three yielding artifacts. Artifacts suggested an antebellum to early twentieth century occupation (Southerlin et al. 1988:40).

During the current intensive survey total of 49 shovel tests were excavated across the site at intervals ranging from 10 to 50 feet (Figure 4). Of those 49 tests, 17 (or 34.7%) contained artifactual remains (Table 2). A metal detector survey was used around Transsect 7, Shovel Test 1 to determine the potential for structural remains. These tests (MD#1 through MD#3) yielded a variety of metal artifacts including nails, kettle fragments, and a hoe. In addition, a two foot square unit was placed adjacent to MD#2 to retrieve a larger collection of diagnostic artifacts. Artifacts from the shovel tests and test pit yielded a mean ceramic date (MCD) of 1846.9.

The dispersion of artifacts and features across the site suggests that there are three loci (Figure 4). These include:

- Prehistoric - located on the southern portion of the landform (transects 1 through 4). The prehistoric component is characterized by light to dense shell and no brick rubble. One prehistoric shell was collected from the surface of this area;

- Historic Domestic - located in the central portion of the landform (transects 6 through 8). It is characterized by at least two areas of light brick surface scatter. These house sites appear to have been occupied for only a short time (based on the sparsity of remains found at 50 foot interval transects and shovel tests) and consist of tightly clustered (approximately 40 by 40 feet) remains. A historic plat dating to the 1840s shows a settlement labeled as “Robert Parker’s settlement” consisting of seven structures in two rows (Figure 2); and

- Historic Industrial - located on the northern portion of the landform (transects 9 and 10). It is characterized by dense mounds of brick rubble (Figure 5) in a 75 feet north-south by 100 feet east-west area. There is an intact portion of a foundation in the northern portion of the brick rubble mounds (Figure 6). In addition, there is a large quantity of brick rubble on the marsh surface adjacent to the brick rubble mounds. This locus is believed to be a brick kiln based on descriptions provided by Wayne (1992).
Figure 4. Location of shovel tests, metal detector tests, test pit #1, and brick scatters at 38CH1030.
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<tr>
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<th>Brick</th>
<th>Shell</th>
<th>Probateic</th>
<th>Und. WW</th>
<th>Accr. WW</th>
<th>BTPWW</th>
<th>RUPWW</th>
<th>BEWW</th>
<th>BTPPW</th>
<th>SGSW</th>
<th>Colored</th>
<th>BBQ</th>
<th>Kettle</th>
<th>Window</th>
<th>Nails</th>
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Total: 1 5 6 3 1 1 8 2 5 1 2 1 7 1 3

Key: L=Light; M=Moderate; D=Dense; Und. WW=Undecorated whiteware; Accr. WW=Anncular whiteware; BTPWW=Blue transfer print whiteware; RUPWW=Red transfer print whiteware; BEWW=Blue edged whiteware; BTPPW=Blue transfer print pewterware; SGSW=North American salt glazed stoneware; Colored=Colored ware; BBQ=Black bottle glass; UID=Unidentified.
Figure 5. Brick rubble mounds at 38CH1030.

Figure 6. Intact brick foundation at the 38CH1030 kiln.
Table 3.  
Mean Ceramic Date of Artifacts from 38CH1030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ceramic</th>
<th>(xi)</th>
<th>(f)</th>
<th>f x xi</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North American salt glazed stoneware</td>
<td>1866</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearlware, blue transfer printed</td>
<td>1818</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whiteware, undecorated</td>
<td>1860</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue edged</td>
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<td>1853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blue transfer printed</td>
<td>1848</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>red transfer printed</td>
<td>1851</td>
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<td>1851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>annular</td>
<td>1866</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11196</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: MCD = 48020 + 26 = 1846.9

The central UTM coordinates are E60280 N3638460 and the soils are poorly drained Yonges fine sandy loam. Soil profiles consist of 0.5 ft. of dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand overlying light brownish gray subsoil. The site measures approximately 775 feet northwest by southeast and 200 feet southwest by northeast. There is also brick rubble on the marsh for approximately 150 feet along the northern shore.

The historic component of 38CH1030 is recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register under Criterion D which includes sites "that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history" (Townsend et al. 1993:16). The site can address a number of significant research questions about brick production, middling plantations and the organization of plantation labor. The prehistoric component is small and contains few data sets (only shell and one surface sherd were encountered). As a result, the prehistoric component can not address any significant research questions and is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register.

At this point several inconsistencies between the historical and the archaeological data need to be discussed before a full interpretation can be made and before research questions can be posed. The historical research indicates that Robert Parker's plantation was typical for those in Christ Church parish. He did not produce significantly more or less cotton, corn, etc. than the surrounding planters and his plantation was not worth significantly more or less than anyone else's. In 1850, 40 slaves occupied the plantation, while six others lived at his Charleston townhouse. This information suggests that his main house plantation complex would not be significantly different than main house complexes elsewhere. Based on previous research (see, for instance, Adams and Trinkley 1991b; Trinkley 1993) a main house complex might consist of main house ruins with a kitchen, house slaves quarters, an ornamental garden, and a number of other outbuildings. The geographic setting for most main house settlements include: high, well drained soil adjacent to deep water access (see South and Hardley 1980); well drained soils adjacent to a public road (see, for instance, Adams and Trinkley 1991a); and high, well drained soils located on knoll peninsula extending into marsh (see, for instance, Poplin et al. 1978). All of these locations have one thing in common: well drained soils. In addition, historic plots often show main houses as larger than slave houses and are often the central focus of the settlement (see, for examples of Wando River Plantations, Wayne 1992:40, 43). There seems to be no obvious reason why Robert Parker’s settlement should be any different.

The 1840s plat of Parker's Island plantation, has site 38CH1030 labeled as “Robert Parker’s settlement” suggesting that this was the location of Parker's plantation house. However, the site is located on low, poorly drained Yonges loamy fine sand in complete isolation from the rest of the plantation, and the plat shows double row of seven houses which a typical configuration of a slave settlement; not a main plantation complex. In addition, the archaeological survey found evidence for a slave settlement and a brick kiln, but no main house. There are several possible explanations for the lack of clear evidence for a main house: 1) the house has eroded...
into the river; 2) Robert Parker's main house settlement was atypical; 3) what was originally defined as a brick kiln is actually a main house; and 4) Robert Parker's main house is not located at 38CH1030.

The suggestion that the main house has completely eroded into the river, leaving no evidence of its existence seems unlikely. Although clearly some erosion has taken place (as evidenced by eroding shell middens along the shore), at least 100 feet of erosion would have had to occur to totally obliterate the main house. However, erosion studies for the Wando River need to be examined before this possibility is totally eliminated.

As previously stated, Wayne (1992) noted that brick kilns were normally found on poorly drained soil adjacent to bodies of water. The soils at 38CH1030 are poorly drained Yonges loamy fine sand and the site is adjacent to the Wando River and Horlbeck Creek. She also found that the existing shorelines were normally used as landings and were simply covered with brick rubble to provide a hard surface. The marsh surface at 38CH1030 was covered with brick rubble and at low tide, deep water access was available only about 100 feet from high ground. Figure 7 shows the proximity of water to the site at high tide. Historic maps and archaeological surveys indicated that many of the brickyards had associated slave and/or overseer housing (Wayne 1992:104) and, indeed, there is both cartographic and archaeological evidence for a slave settlement at 38CH1030. As a result, the initial perception of the brick rubble piles as a kiln seems to be correct.

Of the four explanations for the lack of clear evidence of a main house, two may be dismissed, leaving the remaining two that Robert Parker's settlement is atypical, or that Robert Parker's main house was located elsewhere. The first objective of a data recovery plan should be obtaining a better understanding of the structures located at 38CH1030. This should include close interval (maximally 20 feet) shovel or auger testing of the site to pinpoint individual structures, to get a better idea of the status of the individual occupying each structure, and to
get a better collection of artifacts from the brick kiln to provide better evidence that the site is, indeed, a brick kiln.

If preliminary auger testing suggests the possibility that Parker's settlement is atypical, then the site can address a number of research questions relating to the lifestyles of a "middling" planter. For instance,

- Is the settlement atypical because the historical research suggests that Robert Parker spent very little time there, choosing to spend most of his time at his Charleston townhouse?

- What do the artifacts and features from Parker's house suggest about Parker's lifestyle on the island? For instance, was his house more like an overseer's house? Do his material possessions suggest a spartan existence?

- How does the main house assemblage compare to that of the slaves? If Parker did live at the settlement, the 1840s plat suggests that his house was incorporated into a slave settlement. Did this situation affect the possessions he had and how did this affect his relationship with his slaves?

- What type of outbuildings (if any) are associated with this atypical plantation complex?

If the archaeological evidence shows no evidence for the main house, examination of slave row could help determine how labor was organized on the plantation. An 1840s plat shows a cluster of structures on the south end of Parker's Island which include six structures to the south and a row of four structures to the north. Although the results of the survey by Southerlin et al. (1988) were inconclusive, they identified extensive kiln ruins as well as domestic structures in the southern cluster of buildings. The northern cluster contained at least two possible domestic structures. Given the complexity of these two areas, it is possible that these two clusters represent Parker's main house complex and a small slave row associated with operation of the adjacent brick kiln.

In addition, the plat shows a double row of seven houses labeled "settlement" which is the site in question (38CH1030). Based on the archaeological evidence and the isolation of the site, this "settlement" was occupied by slaves who were responsible for the brickworks there and not by the plantation owner as the label "Robert Parker's settlement" suggests. It is possible that this settlement was labelled this way because it was the most visible aspect of his plantation, being located on the Wando River where river travel would have been heavy. Because of the isolation of the site from the probable location of agricultural fields, it is possible that the settlement was occupied only when bricks were being made full time (during periods when slaves were not planting or harvesting crops). The relative sparsity of domestic remains found at 50 foot interval shovel testing, suggests either a short occupation span or an intermittent occupation. When they were not making bricks at this kiln, they may have lived elsewhere, either in the possible slave settlement on the south end of the island or in a settlement that is not shown on the plat, perhaps at site 38CH1039 which (Southerlin et al. 1988:54) describes as linear (210 feet by 600 feet) and containing low status artifacts which are contemporaneous with 38CH1030.

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1A similar argument was made for a slave settlement at nearby Lexington Plantation by Wayne and Dickinson (1990). However, that argument was based on faulty reasoning. Wayne and Dickinson (1990:7-17 - 7-19) are perplexed by the sparsity of artifacts at a slave barracks on Lexington Plantation and argue that the settlement was used intermittently. However, examination of Figure 7-5 illustrating the placement of units shows that 14 of the 18 units were excavated inside of the structure. It is widely known that structure interiors produce significantly fewer artifacts than yard areas since many houses had flooring. The structure at Lexington Plantation is interpreted as having a raised wooden floor (Wayne and Dickinson 1990:7-9).
Research questions at 38CH1030 regarding organization of plantation labor should be oriented toward:

- determining period of occupation, perhaps through seasonality studies of oyster and faunal remains;
- examining the architectural remains of houses that may have been occupied intermittently; and
- comparing kiln size for possible production volume (as compared to kiln size of remains at 38CH1031 through site visitation). If the kiln at 38CH1030 produced a smaller volume of bricks than the kiln in the possible main complex at 38CH1031 where it may be more likely that slaves were making bricks full time, then a seasonal occupation of 38CH1030 is more likely.

Additional questions relating to the lifestyle of slaves at 38CH1030 should include:

- How does this assemblage compare to assemblages at slave settlements in closer proximity to the core of plantation activities?
- Are there artifacts or patterns which are unique to slave settlements associated with brickmaking?

Lucy Wayne (1992:126-130) argues quite eloquently for the urgency of examining brickyard sites on the Wando. She states:

The clock is running for a large proportion of the 23 or more brickyard sites in the Wando River basin. Growth and development in the region surrounding Charleston are increasing. The impending opening (now open) of the new Mark Clark Expressway will provide access to areas of Berkeley County which have previously been relatively inaccessible. The Wando Neck in Charleston County has already experienced extensive growth; with the new highway this will only increase. Several major residential and commercial developments are already in progress or in the planning stages at this time. All are located on the old plantation properties; many contain brickyard sites (Wayne 1992:126).

As for examination of the actual kilns, she states that research goals should include: 1) determining kiln type; 2) determining size of the kiln to estimate the possible production volume; 3) identifying details of the operation such as type of wood burned and the type of structures associated with the kiln; and 4) obtaining samples of the brick for technological analysis to address questions concerning the sources of bricks for structures in the Charleston historic district (Wayne 1992:128-129).

Clearly, brick production was an important activity at Parker's Island since the plantation is known to have had three brick yards. Examination of the kiln at 38CH1030 in tandem with investigations at the slave row will address questions about the production volume of a potentially seasonally used brick kiln. Subsequently, this information can be used to address how much impact production at the kiln had on the economy of this average sized Wando River plantation.
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Sites 38CH1023 and 38CH1030 were intensively surveyed to determine eligibility for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

38CH1023 is a sparsely scattered eighteenth century site surrounding an abandoned clay extraction pit which is now a wetland with freshwater wetland flora. Of the 111 shovel tests placed in the area only 11 yielded artifacts. The occurrence of these artifacts may be the result of sporadic clay extraction activities. Alternatively, the clay pit may have been excavated into an old settlement. Based on the sparsity of remains and the fact that the site has been damaged by clear cutting as well as, perhaps, by clay extraction, 38CH1023 is recommended as not eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places.

38CH1030 is a early to mid-nineteenth century settlement and brick kiln site. A small prehistoric component was also identified. Evidence of intact architectural features were identified and the archaeological data indicates that the site can address a number of important research questions about middling plantations, brick-making, and intermittently used slave settlements. As a result, the historic component of 38CH1030 is recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register. The prehistoric component of this site is recommended as a non-contributing resource. That is, no additional research is recommended at this prehistoric focus.

Sites recommended as eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places may be either green spaced or subjected to data recovery. Green spacing is recognized as an appropriate, and often cost-effective, mitigation measure for archaeological site conservation. This procedure involves placing the site aside and protecting it from all future ground disturbing activities in perpetuity. This is usually accomplished by placing a protective covenant on the property or by establishing preservation easements, held by some other organization.

If green spacing is not possible, it can be mitigated through data recovery, or the excavation, analysis, proper curation of recovered remains, and publication of findings. The level of effort should be sufficient to address the research questions previously raised.
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APPENDIX 1.
DATA RECOVERY AND GREEN SPACING PLAN FOR 38CH1030

Background and Purposes

Normally, or at least under best circumstances, archaeological data recovery projects are conducted on entire archaeological sites, and not small portions of sites. The reason for this is that sites, by their nature, can best be understood in the broadest possible context. For very similar reasons archaeologists usually compare the results of data recovery projects to other excavated archaeological sites and assemblages -- allowing broad patterns to be recognized and studied. In contrast, excavating only a small proportion of an archaeological site often presents very significant analytical problems: Are the artifacts and features representative? How do the recovered materials relate to the remainder of the site? How might the unexplored portion of the site change our understanding of the total complex? Explained differently, excavating a portion of a site is something akin to looking at only a page or two of a book and trying to reconstruct the plot line and characters. The challenges of archaeological research are great enough without adding this additional complication.

In this particular case, however, the client has requested that Chicora explore the possibility of combining limited data recovery tied to the “footprint” of construction features with broader green spacing, with the intent of developing a data recovery and green spacing plan for 38CH1030. Consequently, we have attempted to reconcile the best interests of the discipline, the best interests of the resources, and the best interests of the client.

The following data recovery plan is only a recommendation. While it represents our best professional judgement in our efforts to arrive at a plan acceptable to our client, it must also be reviewed and approved by the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office. This office ultimately will make the decision of whether this plan is appropriate and whether the best interests of the all those concerned have been met.

Our goal, therefore, is to develop a strategy for green spacing which will serve to (1) provide long-term protection to the surface and below ground archaeological remains, and (2) will allow appropriate data recovery measures to be implemented in the future, should they be necessary. Our goals for the data recovery plan are perhaps more complex: (1) using the available data, to develop reasonable research questions for those areas potentially affected, (2) arrive at a methodology that will be both flexible enough to allow for adjustment during the field investigations and yet detailed enough to allow budgetary estimates, and (3) determine how the obtained information can be related to a larger picture certainly present at the site.

Green Spacing Recommendations

Chicora had the opportunity to explore a range of problems which can occur when a site is green spaced, only to require data recovery excavations a number of years later (see Trinkley 1994). These may include inadequate information to allow the site to be accurately relocated using commonly available equipment; inadequate information concerning the appearance, condition, and contents of the site before green spacing; inadequate monitoring for short-term and long-term changes; inadequate plans for recovery after disasters such as hurricanes; inadequate specifications concerning the actual techniques of green spacing (i.e., placement of fill and fill type); and inadequate plans for associated development activities. These previous lessons have been incorporated into these recommendations to ensure that green spacing does what it is intended to do -- ensure that significant cultural resources will be in at least as good a condition a generation from now as they are today.

In this sense green spacing is very similar to conservation treatments of museum objects -- both have the
goal of preservation (either of the site or the object). Both must also be guided by two ultimate principles: First, to do no harm, and second, to be reversible. It is imperative that in our efforts to “protect and preserve” we do no damage to the resource — we don’t make the situation worse than it is currently. Likewise, it is essential that whatever we do today can be “undone” years from now. If a green spacing plan cannot assure these two essential conditions will be met then it fails to achieve the ultimate goal of the plan and should be rejected.

Current Factors Affecting the Green Spacing Plan

We know that certain aspects of the site, its past and present history, and how it will be used will affect its ability for long-term green spacing. Two significant features affecting the green spacing plan are the site’s potential for natural and man-induced erosion, as well as damage from hurricanes and tropical storms. In addition, we know that the developer intends to place fill on portions of the site in order to raise the elevation — a prerequisite for development activities. We also know that development pressures will be low — that there will be only one single-family house built on the site and this will minimize many issues.

Finally, while fill is a common approach for protecting archaeological sites, there is much we don’t know about the long-term impact of fill on archaeological resources. How does the additional compression weight affect archaeological features and materials? How does the chemical make-up of the fill affect preservation of bone and metal artifacts? How does the placement of fill change leaching and permeability of the soil, affecting soil status and features? Consequently, we believe that if fill is to be used for green spacing every effort possible should be taken to ensure that it does no harm.

Initial Needs and Requirements

Prior to the actual placement of fill over the site (incorporated below as part of the green spacing plan) there are several significant needs outlined below:

* All vegetative clearing which is to be done should be conducted by hand. No mechanized equipment (such as bulldozers, hydro-axes, or bush hogs) should be allowed on the site. The reason for this is that heavy equipment can seriously damage archaeological sites even under the best conditions. If the equipment is used by an inexperienced or uncaring operator the damage is greatly increased. If equipment is used when the soils are wet rutting is likely. To avoid these problems, we recommend hand clearing of the site area. We have seen crews perform similar work and believe that this is a reasonable approach. Stumps must be allowed to remain in place. Use of equipment to dislodge stumps will create disturbances several times the size of the rootball and are unacceptable.

* A registered land surveyor should be used to prepare a base map of the site, incorporating contour intervals of no greater than 0.25 foot and tied into a USGS, Coastal Survey, or similar mean sea level datum. The surveyor should also be instructed to ground truth the map, correcting minor errors caused by computer generation of topographic features. The purpose of this map is to have, on record, how the site appeared prior to green spacing so that if data recovery excavations are necessary in the future it will be possible to reconstruct the original topography. This map will also be used in the data recovery excavations described below.

* The surveyor should place at least three permanent datum or reference points suitable for reconstructing the topographic survey. Each should be identified horizontally (perhaps using the S.C. Plane Coordinate System) and vertically (using mean sea level elevations). These points should be well protected from damage and should be recoverable even after the fill has been put in place. They should be protected from foreseeable erosion.
Use of Fill As Buffering

As previously mentioned, the client intends to fill portions of the site area. It is reasonable to incorporate this need for fill, as well as additional filling, on other portions of the site with the green spacing plan. Doing so, however, requires that some special conditions be met:

* Prior to the placement of fill a barrier fabric must be placed over the entire site area. The goal of this measure is to physically separate the upper fill from the site area, while allowing movement of ground water. A fabric with a minimal 20-year life expectancy should be used.

* Whatever the depth of the proposed fill, at least 50% of that depth should be clean sand with no inclusions. The remainder can be sandy loam or humic soil. The goal of this approach is to provide what we perceive to be a relatively chemically neutral barrier between the site and the upper fill. While it seems unreasonable to demand that the chemical profile of the site soil be matched by the fill, the use of this barrier will help to buffer chemical changes. In addition, the use of a clean sand will preclude mixing of cultural materials from off-site. Finally, the use of clean sand will allow a visual warning during any subsequent work at the site, such as placement of utility lines that the site zone is able to be breached. For example, if 3 feet of fill is determined necessary for development purposes, at least 1.5 feet must be clean sand.

* A minimum of 2 feet of fill must be used to cover the site area. In no area should there be less than two feet of fill. This is an admittedly arbitrary figure, but it is based on the depth of most typical landscaping activities in the Charleston area. Rarely is it necessary to bury underground utilities deeper than this and it allows a wide range of landscaping activities without endangering the archaeological site.

* All fill must be placed on the site only in dry weather using small, rubber-tired vehicles with care not to rut or otherwise damage the site area. This precludes the use of dump trucks with tracked equipment spreading the fill. Such an approach has the potential to damage the archaeological resources. Appropriate equipment might include bobcat-type front-end loaders moving fill from an off-site stockpile to the site area.

Subsequent Landscaping/Construction Activities

* All construction activities should be evaluated in terms of the protective barrier and no work should be conducted which penetrates more than the upper 50% of the fill. This provision allows the upper 50% of the fill to be considered "sacrificial" and suitable for general landscaping and construction needs, i.e., placement of roads, excavation for underground utilities, and so forth. It, however, recognizes that the buffering effects of the fill should be maintained intact by preventing penetration of the lower 50% of the fill, easily discernable by the presence of clean sand.

* Only essential construction activities should be allowed on the site area. This provision recognizes that some construction activities are essential, while others are simply a matter of convenience. Essential activities may continue, while those activities which are simply for the convenience of the contractors should be moved off-site. For example, typically construction sites have a portable toilet on-site. While this toilet does not, in itself, cause any damage, the truck used to deliver and service it can cause substantial damage. Consequently, the portable toilet should be located off the site area, eliminating the potential for the associated delivery and maintenance vehicles causing damage to the site. Often a trash container for scrap is placed on site, again causing little or no damage. However, the vehicle which empties the trash container can cause extensive rutting, especially in loose or wet soils. Consequently, the trash container should be placed off-site. Stockpiling of construction materials should be evaluated for potential for damage. The degree to which these issues should be considered is, of course, related to the buffer area.
incorporated into the data recovery plan.

Long-Term Provisions

- This green spacing plan should be incorporated into deed for the site property as a covenant. While we are hesitant to recommend cumbersome legal restrictions, we understand that as a people our corporate memory is relatively short. It is essential that future owners of the site understand the exact provisions of the green spacing plan and restrictions on their use of the property. The only way to ensure this long-range memory is to incorporate the provisions in the deed for the property. It would be appropriate to likewise file the topographic map as a plat of the property.

- In the case of damage to the site area, for example as caused by a hurricane or tropical storm, all clean-up measures must take into account the underlying archaeological site. In particular, removal of trees must follow the same restrictions as the original site clearing -- the work should be done by hand, avoiding the use of heavy equipment.

- Erosion is a serious concern, but one not easily dealt with in green spacing provisions. We recommend that if, on an annual basis, erosion exceeds 0.5 foot during two successive years, based on measuring standard established by the registered surveyor, the property owner should notify the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office, seeking their opinion on the continued suitability of green spacing. This provision alone leaves the property owner at the mercy of the elements, however, it is critical to re-evaluate the appropriateness of the green spacing decision if there is future evidence of significant erosion. In the face of significant erosion, it may be appropriate to require the land owner to institute erosion control measures.

Data Recovery Recommendations

Parameters of the Investigations

This data recovery plan is developed to incorporate two specific areas, both situated at the northeastern edge of the site. The first, measuring 100 feet square, encompasses the proposed house area. Nearby is the location of a proposed swimming pool, measuring 80 by 40 feet. While there is some buffer built into the house area, little buffer is added to the swimming pool area. As a matter of convenience and also to ensure some buffer for both construction sites, we have combined these two areas into a single block measuring 150 feet by 225 feet, for a total of 0.8 acre. This represents about 31% of the total historic site component measuring 2.6 acres. All other areas of the historic site area are intended to be green spaced as previously described.

Research Questions

The research questions appropriate for this site have been previously described (see pages 18-22). Clearly not all will be appropriate for the reduced level of investigation proposed. For example, research questions concerning the broad topics of industrial archaeology and brick production are not appropriate since the data recovery zone does not appear to contain a kiln. The remaining questions may, or may not, be applicable since it is difficult to predict exactly what will be present in the small site area defined for data recovery. Regardless, the methodology proposed is intended to gather the data necessary (and available) to address those research questions.

Methodology

The first phase of the data recovery will be to undertake additional historical research, directed to answering the questions and exploring those avenues previously discussed (see page 11). This work will be conducted at the
Charleston County RMC, the Charleston County Probate Court, the South Carolina Historical Society, the South Caroliniana Library, and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History. The level of research will be the same for the reduced data recovery zone as it would be for the entire plantation, since it is impossible to scale up or down the historical research minimally necessary to understand and help interpret the archaeological evidence. This research will require about a week, prior to the field investigations.

While data recovery is limited to a relatively small portion of the site, it is important to understand how this site area is related to those involved in green spacing. Consequently, we are proposing some involvement outside the 0.8 acre data recovery boundaries:

- Topographic features, such as brick piles and kiln architecture will be recorded on the site topographic map prepared by the registered surveyor prior to the placement of fill.

- A close interval (i.e., 20 foot) auger test survey will be conducted over the entire site area, again prior to the placement of fill.

- A metal detector survey will be conducted over the entire site area, with information on “hits” recorded using the auger test grid.

The recording of topographic and structural features will ensure that obvious spatial data will be available for the synthesis of the site area. The close interval auger test survey will allow a collection of artifacts to be made over the entire site. This collection will be suitable for computer generated density mapping. Based on past projects, such as data recovery excavations at Seabrook Landing Plantation on Hilton Head Island and at the West Pasture site on Kiawah Island, this level or interval of testing is adequate to define structural remains and provide some information concerning plantation activity area. The metal detector survey has likewise proven to be very useful in pinpointing specific structures. It will be used to help determine the number of placement of buildings on the site. In sum, we believe these approaches will provide cost-effective information on those portions of the site not incorporated into data recovery.

The information generated by the overall exploration of the site will be used to more specifically determine the placement of excavation units within the data recovery zone. While we cannot project the actual number or placement of units within the data recovery zone, we believe that there is a good possibility that portions of Richard Parker’s settlement are incorporated. This may mean either what is normally thought of as a main plantation or it may be little more than a farmstead. It may even be only a slave settlement. To investigate these alternatives, we are proposing a combination of block excavations coupled with possible mechanical stripping at the conclusion of hand excavation.

- Hand excavation is intended to explore specific architectural features (revealed either by concentrations of artifacts or metal detector “hits”) and to obtain larger collections of artifacts suitable for pattern analysis, exploration of status and lifestyle, and more thorough site dating.

- Hand excavation will also permit careful excavation of features representing sealed contexts, helping to frame our interpretation of the site and its function.

- Mechanical stripping will be used at the conclusion of the hand excavations if, in the opinion of the field investigators, there is the potential for additional, undiscovered architectural features, such as structures or work areas. If stripping is undertaken the identified features will be plotted on the overall site map, allowing a broader understanding of intra-site patterning.

Investigations at the sites will follow professionally accepted standards. Vertical and horizontal control will be maintained using the permanent points established by the registered surveyor for green spacing purposes. This
degree of precision will ensure that the excavation units can be relocated, if necessary, in the future.

The minimal excavation unit will be a 5 by 5 foot unit, although typically 10 by 10 foot units (potentially divided into quadrants for greater analytical precision) will be used for horizontal control. Chicora has adopted engineering measurements (feet and tenths of feet) for consistency in its work, especially on European sites where structural measurements are most often in feet. We have also adopted the Chicago grid system, using a (typically) off-site OR0 point. The southeast corner of each unit designates the feet north and right (or east) of this arbitrary OR0 point. Hence, the southeast corner of unit 10R50 would be 10 feet north and 50 feet right, or east, of the OR0 point.

The excavations will be by the natural soil zones. Excavation will be by hand with all fill dry-screened through 1/4-inch mesh using both mechanical and hand sifters.

Flotation samples (typically 5 gallons in size) will be collected from areas which exhibit a high potential for the recovery of ethnobotanical remains. These typically include hearth areas, and dark organic trash refuse areas. We have found from past experience on historic sites that routine flotation of samples is not cost-effective – they simply don’t provide samples large enough for meaningful analysis. It is better to search for samples which are likely to produce good samples of food remains than to float materials by rote in the hope of finding adequate samples. A mechanical water flotation process will be used.

A one-quart soil sample is also collected from each provenience for future soil chemistry needs. All such soil samples have soil pH measured at the time of the investigation using a microprocessor-based pH tester (resolution of 0.1 and accuracy of ±0.1), with the result recorded on the Unit Level Form.

We will also be collecting pollen and phytolith samples from up to two identifiable structures under the direction of Dr. Arthur Cohen.

Chicora Foundation routinely collects all brick and rubble from screen, weighing and discarding the material in the field. These weights provide information on total brick and can assist in evaluating construction details such as pier height, presence of continuous brick inset skirting, and height of chimney stacks. It can also be used as an indicator of salvage or possible reuse of brick.

Each unit will be troweled at the top of subsoil, photographed in b/w and color slide film, and profile and plan views will be drawn. Drawings and/or photographic documentation will occur more frequently as conditions warrant. Chicora Foundation routinely uses T-Max 100 film for black and white prints, since this film provides exceptional shadow detail and very fine grain. Color transparency film may be either Kodachrome 64 or Fujichrome 400, depending on the client’s needs. Kodachrome has very good color saturation and fine grain. Its long-term color stability is good, assuming that the slides are not routinely projected (maximum projection time is about an hour and a half). Fujichrome provides a faster film, often very useful in the field, without sacrificing shadow detail. In addition, Fujichrome offers superior color stability of projected images. If the client intends for the color transparencies to be frequently projected, this is an appropriate choice.

Features encountered during the excavations will be plotted and photographed. Features, or samples of redundant features, will be bisected to provide profiles, photographs, and drawings. All feature fill will be screened through 1/4-inch mesh. Samples retained will minimally include a soil sample and flotation sample(s).

Analysis of the Collections

We anticipate that the excavations will produce a modest collection of historic remains, including ceramics, glass, and metal artifacts. In addition there may be zooarchaeological (faunal) materials, and ethnobotanical (carbonized floral) remains, at least from feature contexts.
The first phase of analysis will be the washing and rough sorting of collections. This work may take place in the field, during rain periods, with completion in the Chicora laboratories.

The second phase of analysis includes final sorting and cataloging, which will be conducted at the Chicora laboratories in Columbia. Ms. Hacker will be responsible for the cataloging, analysis, and curation of the collections. Faunal materials will be sorted out and sent to Dr. Jack Wilson, Jr. for additional study. Ethnobotanical materials will be separated for study by Dr. Trinkle. Shellfish samples, if present, will be sent to Dr. David Lawrence, Dr. Cheryl Claassen, or other researchers. In contrast, pollen and phytolith samples will be forwarded to Dr. Arthur Cohen during the actual field investigations.

The temporal, cultural, and typological classification of historic remains will follow Noel Hume (1970), Miller (1980, 1991), Price (1979), South (1977), and others. Pattern studies, mean ceramic dates, and status studies, as appropriate, will be conducted on the historic artifacts recovered from the excavations.

Chicora has extensive experience working with historic remains. For example, we have worked with collections which range from very high status (such as the Skipwith Plantation house on Kiawah Island where elaborate marble, shaped bricks, extensive hardware, and a variety of slates were recovered) to very low status or simple dwellings (such as the eighteenth century dwelling used by slave cattle tenders on Spring Island). We have had the opportunity to explore plantation architecture at a number of sites in Georgetown, Charleston, and Beaufort counties. We have also had experience on industrial sites such as the nineteenth century Palmetto Foundry in Columbia, S.C. and the nineteenth century Reed Gold Mine in North Carolina.

Dietary Analysis

The faunal studies will include a broad range of detailed analyses, including:

- minimum number of individuals represented,
- biomass of species represented,
- seasonality indicators,
- possible procurement and butchering techniques,
- diversity of species, and
- equitability determinations for the recovered species.

This study will not only address the most obvious questions of what the Parker Island slaves were eating, how they were procuring these animals, and how they were preparing the foods, but also the very important question of how this diet compares to slaves on other plantations.

The ethnobotanical examination will include:

- identification of wood species recovered,
- seasonality indicators, and
- identification of food remains, including both wild and domesticated species.

The pollen and phytolith analysis, previously discussed, will focus on both plant food indicators (such as wind-borne cultigen pollen and phytoliths in cereal grains), as well as environmental reconstruction on both the local and broader plantation-wide levels.

Of considerable importance will be the integration of these studies into a coherent picture. An attempt will be made to qualify the importance of each resource to the diet and to integrate the total site assemblage into the subsistence system. Of equal importance will be the comparison of various site assemblages, exploring the differences between the materials from the individual slave houses to the plantation main house, for example.
Conservation

Some artifacts, once removed from the stable environment of the soil, begin to rapidly deteriorate and items of bone and shell are particularly prone to further deterioration as a result of excavation. Chicora Foundation routinely conserves its own collections, offering the collections to the curatorial facility in stable condition.

Field Records

Chicora will also provide the curatorial facility field records and photographic documentation in archival condition. For example, Chicora's field records will be on alkaline buffered, pH neutral paper and photographic materials will be processed to archival standards. Chicora is one of the few research institutions which maintains such high standards.

Report Production

Report production will involve the submission of a brief letter management summary within two weeks of the completion of the field work at the site to provide the client and the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office with information on the preliminary findings; and the development of a professional monograph, detailing the scope of the work, the effective environment, the nature and history of the project area, the field methods, the laboratory and analysis methods, the results of the study, the results of specialized studies, and references cited.

Chicora Foundation, as previously explained, uses several computer graphics programs for maps. Photographs are scanned into the text to produce metal plate quality photographs. Reports are typically produced using single spaced 10pt Dutch typeface, printed on the front and back of 80 pound acid free, alkaline buffered offset paper.

The format and style of the final monograph will resemble previous Chicora Foundation Research Contributions. A draft report will be submitted for review by the sponsor and, with the permission of the client, for peer review. Five bound copies of the final report will be submitted to the client. Chicora also distributes the report to professional and lay audiences to ensure that the findings are available to the community. The dissemination of this information is a significant aspect of public archaeology, since the work is being undertaken to preserve a significant aspect of South Carolina's heritage.

At this stage Chicora Foundation will transfer the recovered artifacts, field notes, and associated records to a curatorial facility, likely the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology.

Schedule

Chicora Foundation recognizes the need to provide the client with services in a timely and cost-effective manner. While no specific start date is proposed, we will work with all of the client to develop a schedule which is satisfactory to all of the parties involved.

We anticipate that the field investigations at the data recovery zone at 38CH1030 will require a crew of six archaeologists (including the Principal Investigator and Field Director) for approximately 2½ weeks. The management summary for the excavations will be provided within two weeks of completing the investigations and the analysis will begin immediately.

As previously discussed, all of the various specialized analyses (floral, pollen, faunal, and potentially shellfish) are time consuming. Even with perfect coordination and exceptional "luck," the analysis stage will require at least 10 weeks. While we understand the desire of International Paper not to have the analysis drag on, we must also emphasize that time is essential if the results are to be well researched, useful, and coherent.
Sources

Miller, George L.

Noel Hume, Ivor

Price, Cynthia R.

South, Stanley

Trinkley, Michael (editor)
Archaeological Investigations

Historical Research

Preservation

Education

Interpretation

Heritage Marketing

Museum Support Programs

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