CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE JOHNS ISLAND TRACT CHARLESTON COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 453

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of a 21 acre tract located on Johns Island in Charleston County, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Ms. Pam Byrd and Coastal Ventures comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The tract, which borders River Road (S-54) to the east will be developed for single family occupancy. The surrounding area is being quickly developed with neighborhoods and commercial structures.

The proposed undertaking will require the clearing of the tract, followed by construction of various infrastructure elements, such as roads, stormwater drainage, and utilities. Individual lot construction will involve grading, additional utility construction, and subsequent building of structures. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project tract. For this study an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile from the proposed tract was assumed.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology identified seventeen previously recorded sites (38CH84, 38CH1146, 38CH1292-1293, 38CH1656, 38CH1716-1717, 38CH1812-1814, 38CH1830, 38CH1861-1866) in the APE. Site 38CH84 is the National Register of Historic Places listed Fenwick Hall, which dates to the eighteenth century; 38CH1146 is an eighteenth century causeway on the Fenwick Hall property that was recommended potentially eligible; 38CH1292 is a prehistoric and historic site that is recommended potentially eligible; 38CH1656 is an eighteenth to twentieth century site with a brick kiln and a prehistoric ceramic scatter that is recommended potentially eligible; and 38CH1830 is an eighteenth century dike that is recommended potentially eligible for the National Register. The remaining sites, while determined not eligible, still provide important information on where sites may be located and the types of sites that may be present in the project area.

The maps at the S.C. Department of Archives and History were also consulted to see if any National Register of Historic Places sites were in the vicinity of the project area. One site, Fenwick Hall is located about 0.26 mile northeast of the project area. Four additional resources (1382 – the c. 1917 Johnny Cox House , 1429 – St. Stephens AME Church Cemetery, 1430 -- house, and 1455 -- house) are located within 0.5 mile of the project area, but these have been determined not eligible for the National Register. An architectural survey for Johns Island was performed in 1989, so these records are thought to be complete (Fick et al. 1989).

The archaeological survey of the tract incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals on transects which were placed at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 95 shovel tests were excavated along 13 transect lines.

As a result of these investigations, no sites were identified. This is likely the result of the numerous poorly drained soils and the distance from a permanent water source. The absence of historic sites is likely also related to the tract's distance from the river – the primary transportation route during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be

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

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Ms. Pam Byrd of Coastal Ventures in Bloomfield Hills, Michigan. The work was conducted to assist Coastal Ventures with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a 21 acre tract proposed to be used for residential development in Johns Island, South Carolina (Figure 1). The tract is bounded by River Road (S-54) to the east and an existing neighborhood to the west.

The tract consists of level topography with areas of wetland. Also found in the area are forests of mixed pines and hardwoods and areas of hardwood stands. The surrounding area is being quickly developed.

The tract is intended for a residential development. This work will require the construction of utilities such as electrical, sewer, and water lines as well as an expanded road system when development begins. There will likely be increased short-term noise, traffic, and dust levels associated with the project. These activities have the potential to damage or otherwise affect any cultural resources that may be present on the tract.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Charleston County.

We were asked to provide a proposal for a Cultural Resources Survey on June 26, 2006. A proposal was sent the same day. The proposal was accepted and the Services Agreement was issued on July 10, which served as a notice to proceed.

Initial background investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work seventeen previously recorded sites in the APE. These are shown in Table 1.

Examination of architectural sites at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History identified one NRHP site (Fenwick Hall) within the 0.5 mile APE. Four additional resources (1382 – the c. 1917 Johnny Cox House , 1429 – St. Stephens AME Church Cemetery, 1430 – - house, and 1455 -- house) are located within 0.5 mile of the project area, but these have been determined not eligible for the National Register. The 1989 architectural survey for Johns Island is thought to be complete (Fick et al. 1989).

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey for the tract was conducted on August a 15, 2006 by Ms. Nicole Southerland, Ms. Julie Poppell, and Ms. Kim Igou under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

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

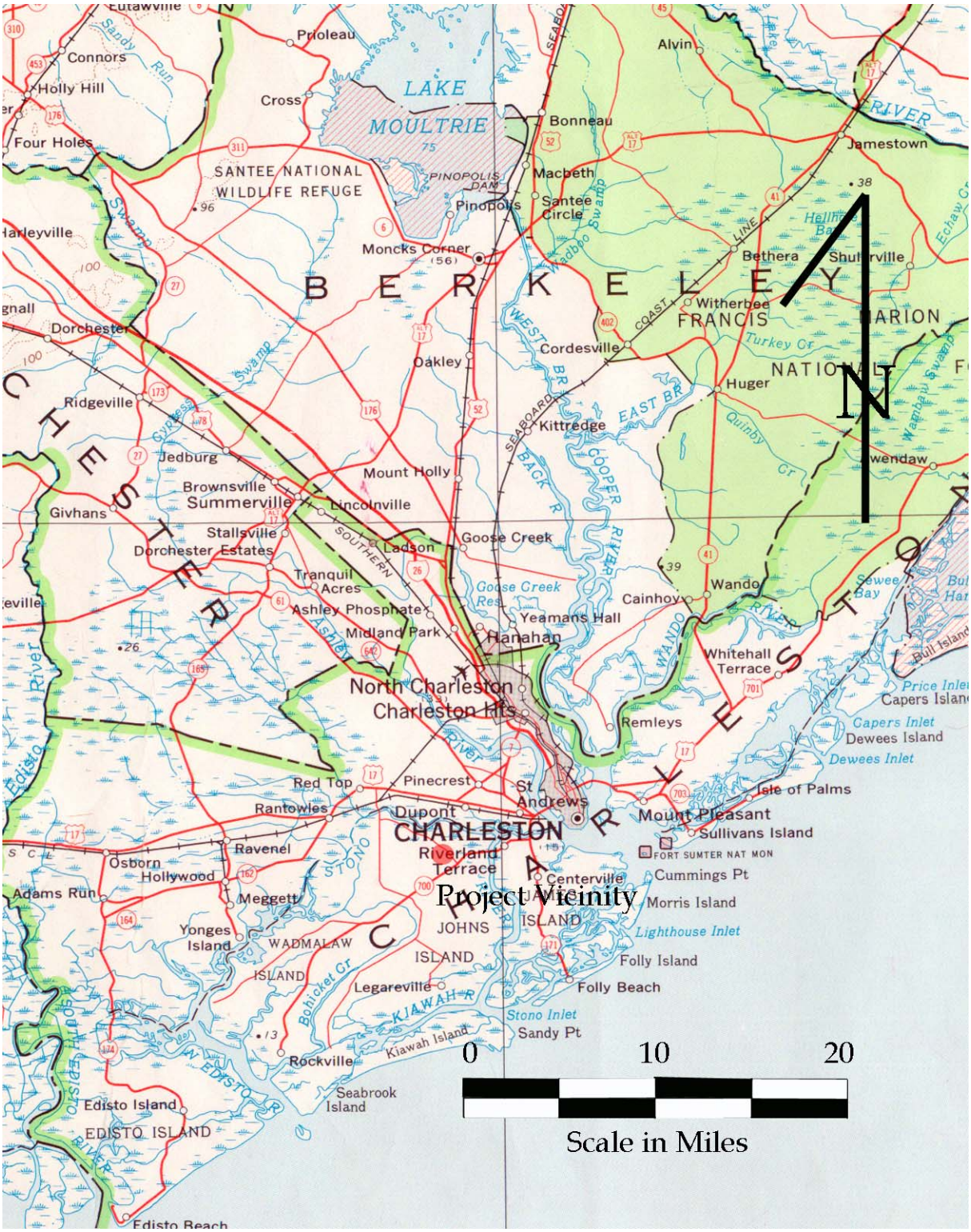

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Charleston County (basemap is USGS 1:500,000).

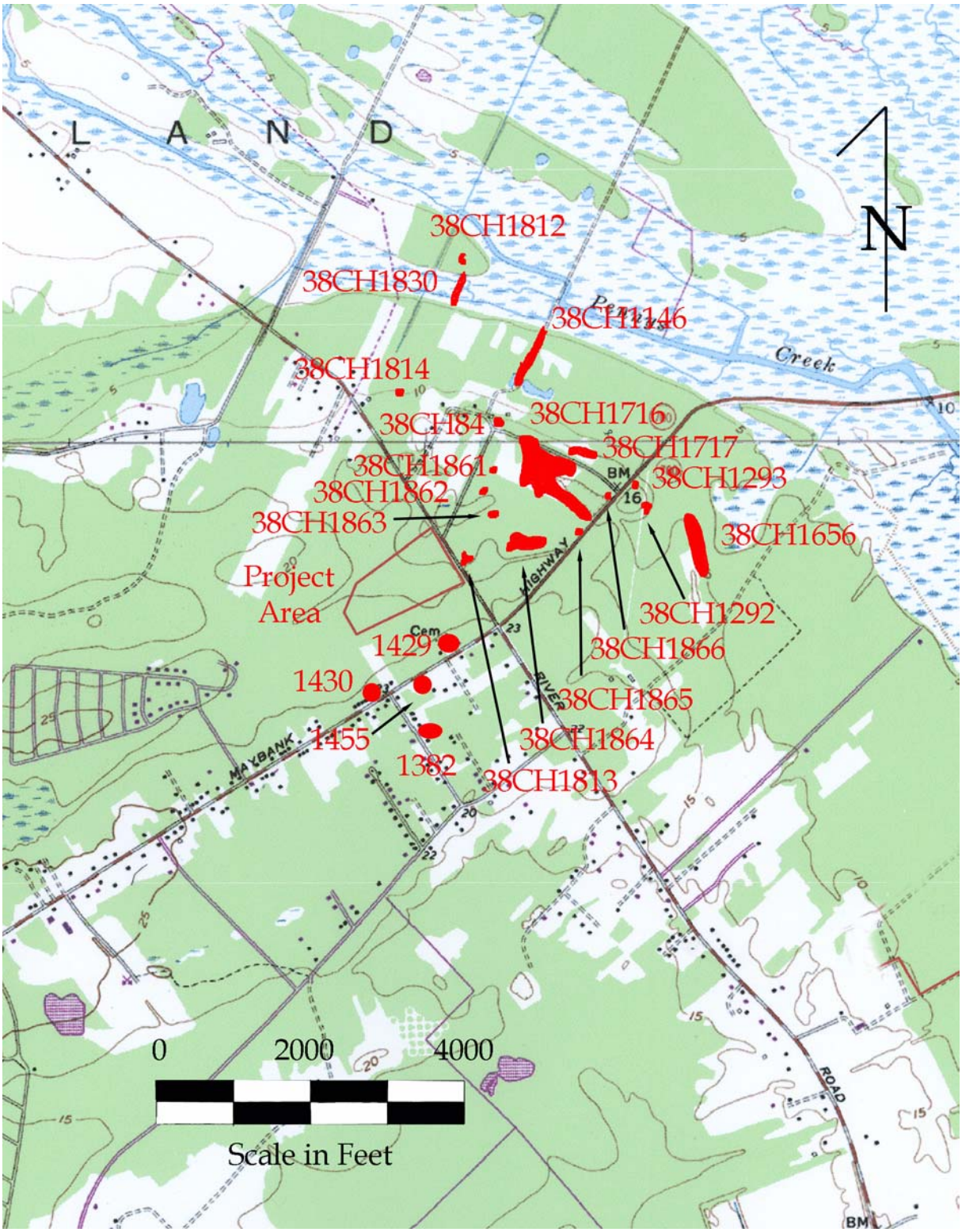

Figure 2. Project tract and previously identified sites (basemap is USGS Legareville and Johns Island 7.5').

Table 1.
Previously Identified Sites in the APE

Site Number	Description	Recommendation
38CH84	Fenwick Hall	on NRHP
38CH1146	18th Century Fenwick Hall Causeway	potentially eligible
38CH1292	Prehistoric with Historic Component	potentially eligible
38CH1293	Brick foundation and c.1908 barn	not eligible
38CH1656	Prehistoric, brick kiln, and 18th-20th Century scatter	potentially eligible
38CH1716	19th Century scatter	not eligible
38CH1717	Prehistoric scatter	not eligible
38CH1812	Prehistoric ceramic	not eligible
38CH1813	Prehistoric ceramic and lithic scatter	not eligible
38CH1814	Prehistoric ceramic	not eligible
38CH1830	18th Century Dike	potentially eligible
38CH1861	19th Century scatter	not eligible
38CH1862	Middle Woodland scatter	not eligible
38CH1863	Prehistoric scatter	not eligible
38CH1864	Prehistoric ceramic and lithic scatter	not eligible
38CH1865	Historic scatter	not eligible
38CH1866	Prehistoric and Historic scatter	not eligible

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiography

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, and sea islands (Mathews et al. 1980:133). Elevations in the County range from sea level to about 70 feet above mean sea level (AMSL).

In the project area, elevations range from about 20 to 30 feet AMSL. In general, the topography slopes toward the wetlands located in the eastern portion of the project tract.

The mainland topography consists of similar subtle ridge and bay undulations, characteristic of beach ridge plains. 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. Nearby portions of the Stono were historically used for the cultivation of rice by such plantations as Fenwick Hall. The three drainages 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.

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. Extensions include Pennys and Simmons creeks, which flow into the Stono River.

Geology and Soils

Coastal Plain geological formations are unconsolidated sedimentary deposits of very recent age (Pleistocene and Holocene) lying unconformably on ancient crystalline rocks (Cooke 1936; Miller 1971:74). The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar, geomorphic units, or terraces, parallel to the coast. The sites are located in an area identified by Cooke (1936) as part of the Pamlico terrace, which includes the land between the recent shore and an abandoned shore line about 25 feet AMSL. Cooke (1936:7) notes that evidence of ancient beaches and swales can still be seen in the Pamlico formation and this likely contributed to the ridge and trough topography present in some areas.

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

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

Five soil types are found in the survey area including one moderately well-drained soil, Seabrook loamy fine sand. The remaining soils range from poorly to very poorly drained and include Dawhoo and Rutledge loamy fine sands, Kiawah loamy fine sand, St. John's fine sand, and Stono fine sandy loam.

Seabrook soils are only found in the northern corner of the property and have an Ap horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 0.8 foot over a dark brown (10YR4/3) or dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) loamy fine sand to a depth of 1.7 feet. The modern house located on the property is situated on Seabrook soils.

The Dawhoo and Rutlege Series has an Ap horizon of black (10YR2/1) loamy fine sand to just under 1.0 foot over a very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to a depth of 1.5 feet. Kiawah soils have an Ap horizon of very dark grayish brown (10YR3/2) loamy fine sand to 0.7 foot in depth over a dark grayish brown (10YR4/2) loamy fine sand to 1.2 feet in depth. St. John's soils have an Ap horizon of black (10YR2/1) fine sand to 0.5 foot in depth over a dark gray (10YR4/1) fine sand to just under 1.0 foot.

The very poorly drained Stono soils, which are the most common soils within the tract, have an Ap horizon of black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to 0.8 foot in depth over a black (10YR2/1) fine sandy loam to 1.4 feet in depth.

Climate

John Lawson described South Carolina in 1700 as having, "a sweet Air, moderate Climate, and fertile Soil" (Lefler 1967:86). Of course, Lawson tended to romanticize Carolina. In December 1740, Robert Pringle remarked that Charleston was having "hard frosts & Snow" characterized as "a great Detriment to the Negroes" (Edgar 1972:282), while in May 1744 Pringle states, "the weather having already Come is 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's latitude of 32°37'N places it on the edge of the balmy subtopical 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 Charleston in July is 81°F, although temperatures are frequently in the 90s during much of July (Kjerfve 1975:C-4). Mills noted:

Figure 3. View of mixed pines and hardwoods in the project area.

Figure 4. View of a ditch running through the project area.

> 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).

The area normally experiences a high relative humidity, adding greatly to the discomfort. Kjerfve (1975:C-5) found an annual mean value of 73.5% RH, with the highest levels occurring during the summer. 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 this portion of Charleston is about 49 inches, fairly evenly spaced over the year. While adequate for most crops, there may be periods of both excessive rain and drought. The Charleston area has recorded up to 20 inches of rain in a single month and the rainfall over a three month period has exceeded 30 inches no less than nine times in the past 37 years. Likewise, periods of drought can occur and cause considerable damage to crops and livestock. 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 is 295 days, one of the longest in South Carolina. This mild climate, adequate rainfall, and long growing season, as Hilliard (1984:13) notes, is largely responsible for the presence of many southern crops, such as cotton and sugar cane.

Floristics

The survey area exhibits two major ecosystems: the maritime forest ecosystem, which consists of the upland forest areas and the palustrine ecosystem, which consists of essentially fresh water, non-tidal wetlands (Sandifer et al. 1980:7-9).

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

Of these, the Oak-Pine forests are most common, constituting large areas of Charleston's original forest community. In some areas palmetto becomes an important sub-dominant. Typically these forests are dominated by the laurel oak with pine (primarily loblolly with minor amounts of longleaf pine) as the major canopy co-dominant.

Hickory is present, although uncommon. Other trees found are the sweet gum and magnolia, with sassafras, red bay, American holly, and wax myrtle and palmetto found in the understory.

Figure 5. View of the hardwood stands in the wetlands.

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).

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

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

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

Today, virtually all of the site area's higher ground evidences some form or another of disturbance. Most of the trees on the tract are young pines and hardwoods (Figure 3) and several ditches (Figure 4) have been dug in the project area, which has likely affected the flow of water on the property.

The palustrine ecosystem, which includes all wetland ecosystems, such as the swamps, bays, savannas, pocisins, and creeks where the salinities measure less than 0.5 ppt, is found in the eastern portion of the project area. These palustrine ecosystems tend to be diverse, although not well studied (Sandifer et al. 1980:295). Many of these freshwater areas are likely associated with the various troughs scattered across the area. A

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

At the time of the survey, the wetlands were dry, but consisted of hardwood stands (Figure 5).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC BACKGROUND

Previous Research

There are a number of previously published archaeological studies available for the Charleston area to provide background (see Derting et al. 1991 for references to research in the Charleston area).

Fenwick Hall, located within 0.5 mile of the current project area has received a significant amount of attention since it was placed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1972 (see Brockington and Bailey 2001). Other surveys have been performed in the vicinity of Fenwick (see Brockington et al. 2001a and b and Wheaton et al. 1997).

Prehistoric Synopsis

Several previously published archaeological studies are available for the Charleston area that provide additional background, including those previously mentioned. A considerable amount of archaeology has been conducted in the Charleston area and these works should be consulted for broad overviews.

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

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to about 1000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with relatively little modification to the South Carolina coast. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched and broad stemmed projectile points, 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).

To some the Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast. To others, the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. falls into the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of the terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber-tempered) and Thom's Creek (sand or non-tempered) series pottery.

The subsistence economy during this early period on the coast of South Carolina was based primarily on deer hunting, fishing, and shellfish collection, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, and reptiles. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from shell ring sites such as Lighthouse Point on James Island to the west, also in Charleston County on James Island, indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable.

Although no shell ring sites are known from Johns Island, Edmund Ruffin, who was a

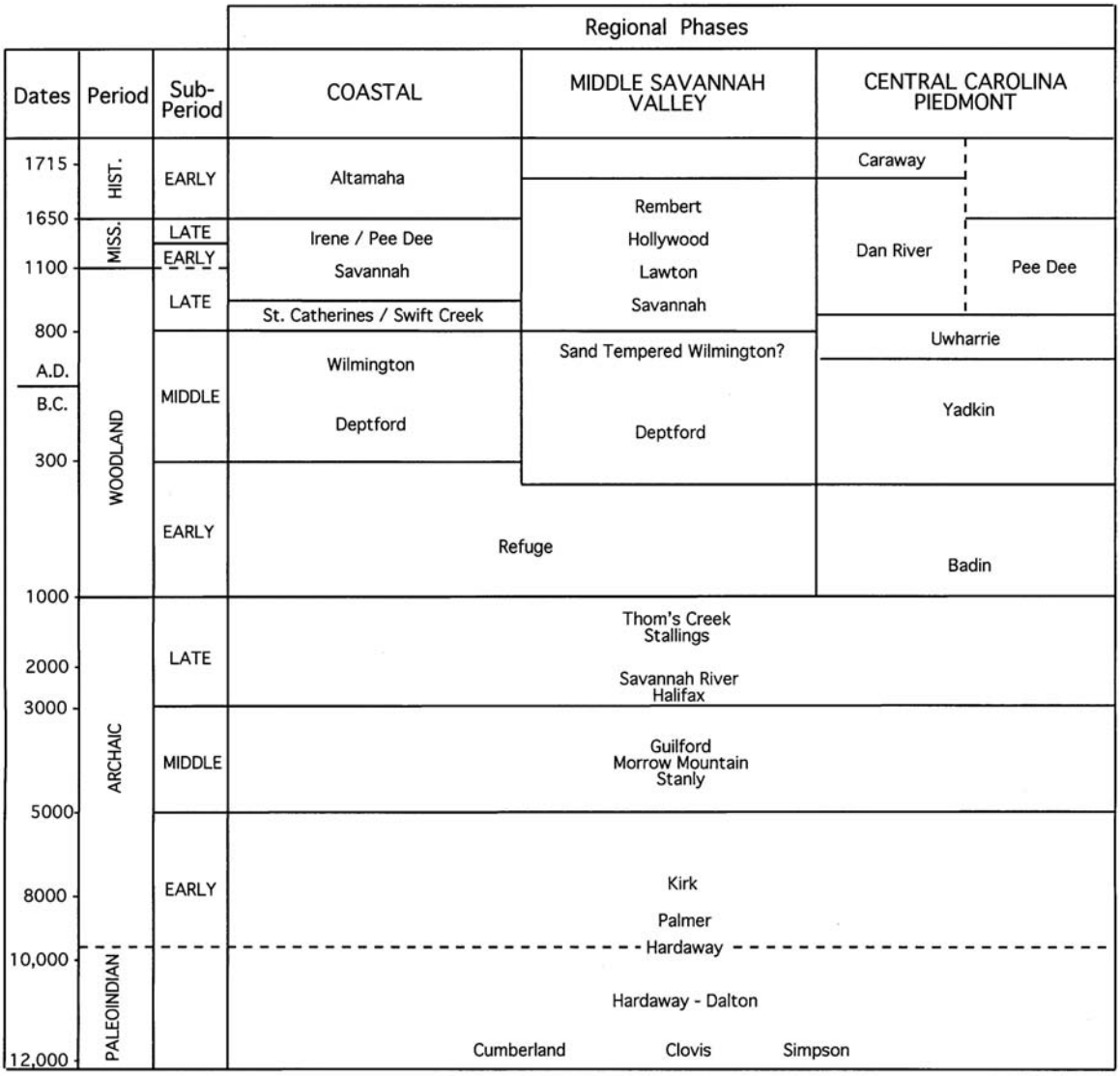

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

careful and exacting observer, noted in 1843 the location of the Lighthouse Point shell ring on James Island and then commented, "there are two others, which have been described to me, one on John's Island, & the other on a small island in the marsh attached to Edisto" (Mathew 1992:113). The marsh ring, of course, must be the Fig Island shell ring. Unfortunately, the John's Island ring has never been identified.

Toward the end of the Thom's Creek phase there is evidence of sea level change, and a number of small, non-shell midden sites are found along the coast. Apparently the rising sea level inundated the tide marshes on which the Thom's Creek people relied.

The succeeding Refuge phase, which dates from about 1100 to 500 B.C., suggests fragmentation caused by the environmental changes (Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). Sites are generally small and some coastal sites

evidence no shellfish collection at all (Trinkley 1982). Peterson (1971:153) characterizes Refuge as a degeneration of the preceding Thom's Creek series and a bridge to the succeeding Deptford culture.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. Also present are quantities of cord marked, simple stamped, and occasional fabric impressed pottery. During this period there is a blending of the Deptford ceramic tradition of the lower Savannah with the Deep Creek tradition found further north along the South Carolina coast and extending into North Carolina (Trinkley 1983).

The Middle Woodland period (ca. 300 B.C. to A.D. 1000) is characterized by the use of sand burial mounds and ossuaries along the Georgia, South Carolina, and North Carolina coasts (Brooks et al. 1982; Thomas and Larsen 1979; Wilson 1982). Middle Woodland coastal plain sites continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the fall line, sites are characterized by sparse shell and few artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland period (ca. A.D. 1000 to 1650 in some areas of the coast) may be characterized as a continuum of the previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblage.

The Middle and Late Woodland occupations in South Carolina are characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short-term occupations. On the southern coast they are associated with the Wilmington and St. Catherines phases, which date from about A.D. 500 to at least A.D. 1150, although there is evidence that the St. Catherines pottery continued to be produced much later in time (Trinkley 1981). On the northern coast there are very similar ceramics called Hanover and Santee.

The South Appalachian Mississippian period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest coastal phases are named Savannah and Irene (A.D. 1200 to 1550). Sometime after the arrival of Europeans on the Georgia coast in A.D. 1519, the Irene phase is replaced by the Altamaha phase. Altamaha pottery tends to be heavily grit tempered, the complicated stamped motifs tend to be rectilinear and poorly applied, and check stamping occurs as a minority ware. Further north, in the Charleston area, the Pee Dee or Irene ware is replaced by pottery with bolder designs, thought to be representative of the protohistoric and historic periods (South 1971).

Although there has been very little archaeological exploration of historic period Native American groups in the Charleston area, South has compiled a detailed overview of the ethnohistoric sources (South 1972).

Historic Background

Just as there are a large number of sources recounting the prehistory of the project area, the history of Charleston County has been extensively reviewed, summarized, and critiqued. There should hardly be any need to do more than point the interested reader in one or two directions for additional information and details. Simple and readily available summaries include *A Short History of Charleston* (Rosen 1982) and *Charleston! Charleston!* (Fraser 1989). An excellent overview has been prepared by Fick and her colleagues as part of Charleston County's historical and architectural survey (Fick 1992).

The English established the first permanent settlement in what is today South Carolina in 1670 on the west bank of the Ashley River. Like other European powers, the English were lured to the New World for reasons other than the acquisition of land and promotion of

agriculture. The Lord Proprietors, who owned the colony until 1719-1720, intended to discover a staple crop whose marketing would provide great wealth through its distribution in the mercantile system.

By 1680 the settlers of Albemarle Point had moved their village across the bay to the tip of the peninsula formed by the Ashley and Cooper rivers. This new settlement at Oyster Point would become modern-day Charleston. The move provided not only a more healthful climate and an area of better defense, but:

> [t]he cituation of this Town is so convenient for public Commerce that it rather seems to be the design of some skillful Artist than the accidental position of nature (Mathews 1954:153).

Figure 7. Portion of the 1780 *A Sketch of the Environs of Charleston in South Carolina* showing the project area, including several nearby British encampments.

Early settlers came from the English West Indies, other mainland colonies, England, and the European continent. It has been argued that those from the English West Indies were the most critical to the future of the colony, as they brought with them a strong agrarian concept, involving both staple crops and, especially, slave labor (Sirmans 1966).

Early agriculture experiments which involved olives, grapes, silkworms, and oranges were less than successful. Ironically, it was often the climate which precluded successful results. While the Indian trade was profitable to many of the Carolina colonists, it did not provide the proprietors with the wealth they were expecting from the new colony. Ranching offered quick, and relatively easy, cash, but again the proprietors resisted such efforts, realizing that the profits they would reap were far smaller than possible from the mercantile system. Consequently, the cultivation of cotton, rice, tobacco, and flax were stressed as these were staple crops whose marketing the proprietors could easily monopolize.

Although introduced at least by the 1690s, rice did not become a significant staple crop until the early eighteenth century. At that time it not only provided the proprietors with an economic base the mercantile system required, but it was also to form the basis of South Carolina's plantation system (Carpenter 1973). Over production soon followed, with a severe decline in prices during the 1740s. This economic down swing encouraged at least some planters to diversify and indigo was introduced (Huneycutt 1949:33). Indigo complemented rice production since they were grown in mutually exclusive areas. Both, however, were labor intensive and encouraged the large scale introduction of slaves.

South Carolina's economic development during the pre-Revolutionary War period involved a complex web of interactions between slaves, planters, and merchants. By 1710 slaves outnumbered free people in South Carolina. By the 1730s slaves were beginning to be concentrated on a few, large slave-holding

plantations. At the close of the eighteenth century some South Carolina plantations had a ratio of slaves to whites that was 27:1 (Morgan 1977). While over half of eastern South Carolina's white population held slaves, few held very large numbers. The Charleston area had a slave population greater than 50% of the total population by 1790. This imbalance between the races, particularly on remote plantations, may have led to greater "freedom" and mobility (Friedlander in Wheaton et al. 1983:34). By the antebellum period this trend was less extreme.

The 1780 *A Sketch of the Environs of Charleston in South Carolina* map fails to show any settlements in the project area, however, Fenwick is noted to the east (Figure 7).

The area was the scene of relatively little economic development during the late colonial period. Zierden and Calhoun note that:

> Charleston was the economic, institutional and social center of the surrounding region. The necessity of transacting business in Charleston drew planters eager to transform their crops into cash or goods . . . it [was] virtually imperative for a planter interested in society to reside in Charleston at least occasionally (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:36).

They argue that Charleston provided an opportunity for conspicuous consumption, a mechanism which allowed the display of wealth accumulated from the plantation system (with this mechanism continuing through the antebellum period). Scardaville (in Brockington et al. 1985:45) notes that the plantation system which brought prosperity through the export of staple crops also "made the colony . . . highly vulnerable to outside market and political forces."

The most obvious example of this is the economic hardship brought on by the American Revolution. Not only was the Charleston area the scene of many military actions, but Charleston itself was occupied by the British for over 22 years between 1780 and 1782. The loss of royal bounties

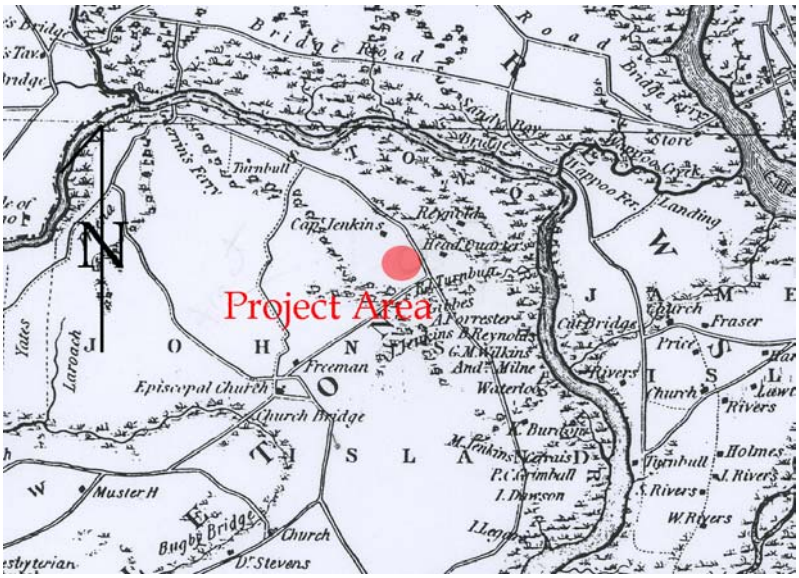

Figure 8. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area.

on rice, indigo, and naval stores caused considerable economic chaos with the eventual "restructuring of the state's agricultural and commercial base" (Brockington et al. 1985:34).

One means of "restructuring" was the emergence of cotton as the principal cash crop. Although "upland" cotton was available as early as 1733, its ascendancy was ensured by the industrial revolution, the invention of the cotton gin in 1794, and the availability of slave labor. While "Sea Island" cotton was already being efficiently cleaned, the spread of cotton was primarily in the South Carolina interior. Consequently, Charleston benefitted primarily through its role as a commercial center.

Cotton provided about 20 years of economic success for South Carolina. During this period South Carolina monopolized cotton

production with a number of planters growing wealthy (Mason 1976). The price of cotton fell in 1819 and remained low through the 1820s, primarily because of competition from planters in Alabama and Mississippi. Friedlander, in Wheaton et al. (1983:28-29) notes that cotton production in the inland coastal parishes fell by 25% in the years from 1821 to 1839, although national production increased by 123%. Production improved dramatically in the 1840s in spite of depressed prices and in the 1850s the price of cotton rose.

The 1820 Mills' *Atlas* shows the project area on John's Island (Figure 8). No settlements are shown on the project tract, however a settlement is located to the east labeled "Head Quarters." This is the current day Fenwick Hall, which was used by commanding officers of both the Revolutionary and Civil War (National Register of Historic Places nomination form 1971).

The Charleston area did not participate directly in the agricultural activity of the state. Scardaville (in Brockington et al. 1985:35) notes that "the Charleston area, as a result of a large urban market and a far-reaching trade and commercial network, had carved out its own niche in the state's economic system." Zierden and Calhoun remark that:

> [c]ountry merchants, planters, and strangers "on a visit of pleasure" flocked to Charleston. Planters continued to establish residences in Charleston throughout the antebellum era and "great" planters began to spend increasing amount of time in Charleston (Zierden and Calhoun 1984:44).

In spite of this appearance of grandeur, Charleston's dependence on cotton and ties to an international market created an economy vulnerable to fluctuation over which the merchants and planters had no control.

While the wealthiest farms were those on the sea islands producing cotton (such as Edisto Island where the value of the average plantation was over $44,000), plantations in nearby Christ Church (as well as other inland, non-cotton producing areas) had an average value of around $7,000 (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:39).

The Charleston area response to the reduction in rice was a shift to ranching and livestock production as a substitute. Between 1850 and 1860, the value of livestock increased by 120%, corn increased by 44%, wool production increased by 126%, and the value of animals slaughtered increased from $0 to over $5,000 (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:41).

While the fortifications and numerous battles fought around John's, James, and Folly Islands during the Civil War are well known, the other defenses of Charleston are perhaps less understood. One author has suggested that, "it is doubtful if any city in the Confederacy had more or stronger defenses than those around Charleston" (Burton 1970:132). In Christ Church Parish, about five miles north of Mount Pleasant, the Confederate forces built a line running from the headwaters of the Wando River to the Atlantic Ocean marshes.

It wasn't until 1865, at the very end of the war, that this line was "tested." A Union assault on Bull's Bay was begun on February 13, although weather, poor planning, and shallow water prevented a landing until February 17, when the troops were put ashore at Graham's Creek near Buck Hall Plantation, several miles northeast of the line. It was that same day that Confederate forces retreated from Charleston and the assault on Bull's Bay accomplished little other than preventing the Confederate troops from marching north to Georgetown (Burton 1970:316).

After the Civil War, Charleston and the surrounding countryside lay in waste. Plantation houses were destroyed, the city was in near ruins, the agricultural base of slavery was destroyed, and the economic system was in chaos. Rebuilding

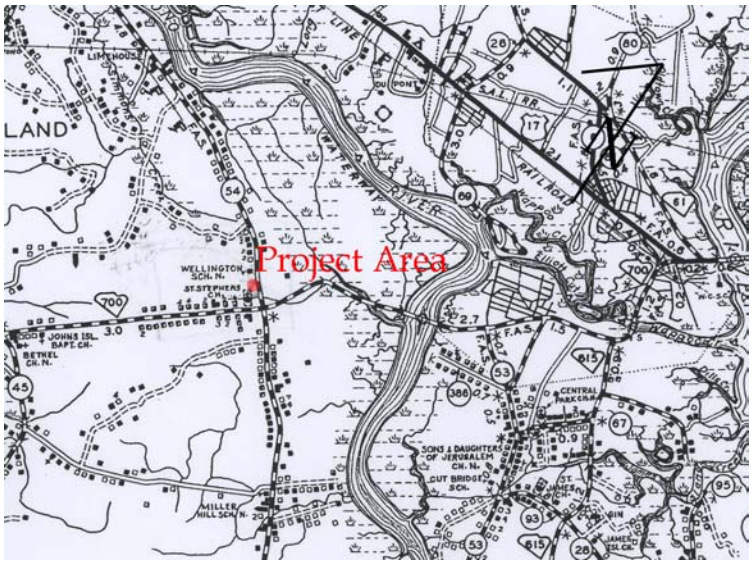

Figure 9. Portion of the *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* showing the project area.

after the war involved two primary tasks: forging a new relationship between white land owners and black freedmen, and creating a new economic order through credit merchants.

In terms of relative importance, cotton and livestock were the two most important agricultural activities in Charleston County, followed by truck farming and grain production. During the early postbellum period there is also evidence of some land consolidation – four tracts in excess of 1,000 acres in 1870 had increased to 151 tracts by 1880. Probably caused by high property taxes, foreclosures, and low selling prices this trend continued only for a decade (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:57). During the late postbellum, tenancy increased dramatically throughout South Carolina, except for several coastal areas where Scardaville suggests black farmers were able to purchase small tracts. Where tenancy did exist, it was largely cash rental, not sharecropping, and Scardaville argues that this formed the vital link allowing black ownership (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:62).

Beginning shortly after the Civil War, truck farming became one of the primary agricultural activities of area farmers. The combination of soil fertility, climate, and proximity gave truck farming an edge in the effort to supply Charleston with produce. As a result, many blacks were employed as wage laborers. Produce increased from about one-quarter of the county's agricultural production in 1890 to over three-quarters by 1930 (Scardaville in Brockington et al. 1985:74). Much of this prosperity, however, disappeared during the Great Depression, when trucking in the area declined by 75%.

The 1942 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Charleston County* shows the project area, however, no structures are found in the vicinity (Figure 9).

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects that were placed at 100-foot intervals along the gravel road at the north edge of the tract. Shovel testing would be performed to the south to the edge of the property.

All soil 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 a depth of 0.8 to 2.0 feet or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

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

Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

A total of 95 shovel tests were excavated along 13 transect lines.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the tract failed to identify any remains. This is likely due to the poorly drained soils and distance from a permanent water source.

Figure 10. View of the gravel road where transects were set up (tract on the left side of the road).

Figure 11. Survey tract showing transects.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

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

Site Evaluation and Findings

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

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

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

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

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;
- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;
- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

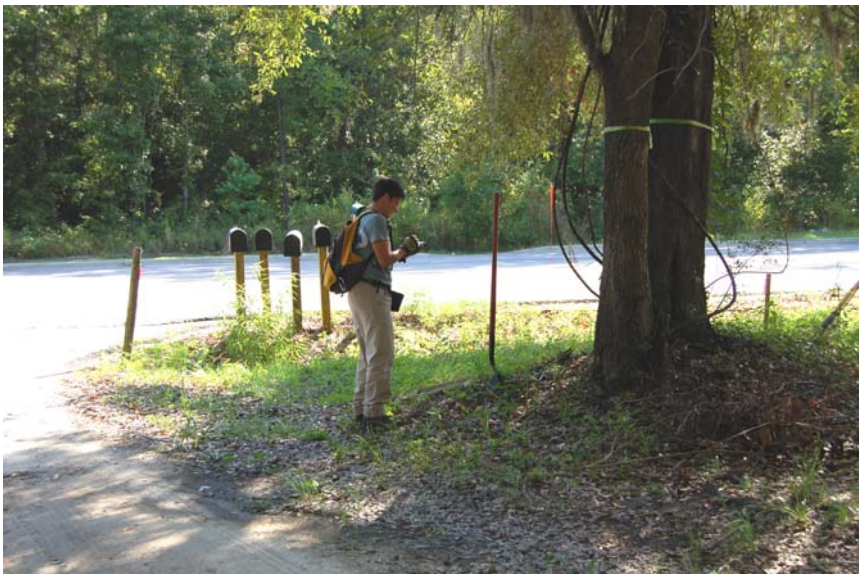

Figure 12. Shovel testing with Fenwick Hall property in the background.

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

While five resources were noted by Fick et al. (1989), four of these, the St. Stephens AME Church Cemetery (1429), two houses (1430 and 1455), and the c. 1917 Johnny Cox House (1382), have been determined not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. These resources cannot be seen from the current project area. In addition, a new neighborhood is situated between the current project area and these resources, so they will not be affected.

Fenwick Hall, however, is located about 0.3 mile northeast of the project area. This c. 1730 house was listed on the National Register of Historic Places in 1972 as an excellent example of Georgian architecture. The house is privately owned with a gate preventing access to the property. However, a dense forest separates the current project area from Fenwick Hall, so there is no visual intrusion (Figure 12). In addition, as previously mentioned, there is a new residential development immediately south of the current project area that has already affected the integrity of Fenwick Hall. The current project area will likely create an increase in traffic once developed, but the rapid construction on Maybank Highway (S-700) to the south has already created congestion in the area.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of an approximately 21 acre tract of land for a residential neighborhood on Johns Island in Charleston County. This work, conducted for Ms. Pam Byrd of Coastal Ventures examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found in the proposed project area and is intended to assist this company in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no sites were identified. This is likely the result of the numerous poorly drained soils and distance from a permanent water source.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed no additional structures beyond those identified in the 1989 survey (Fick et al. 1989) that retain their integrity for the National Register of Historic Places. Previously identified sites were revisited, but are still recommended not eligible for the National Register. The National Register Fenwick Hall cannot be seen from the proposed undertaking. In addition, new development in the area has already caused an increase in traffic and noise. The current project will cause only a slight increase in traffic beyond what is already occurring in the area.

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

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