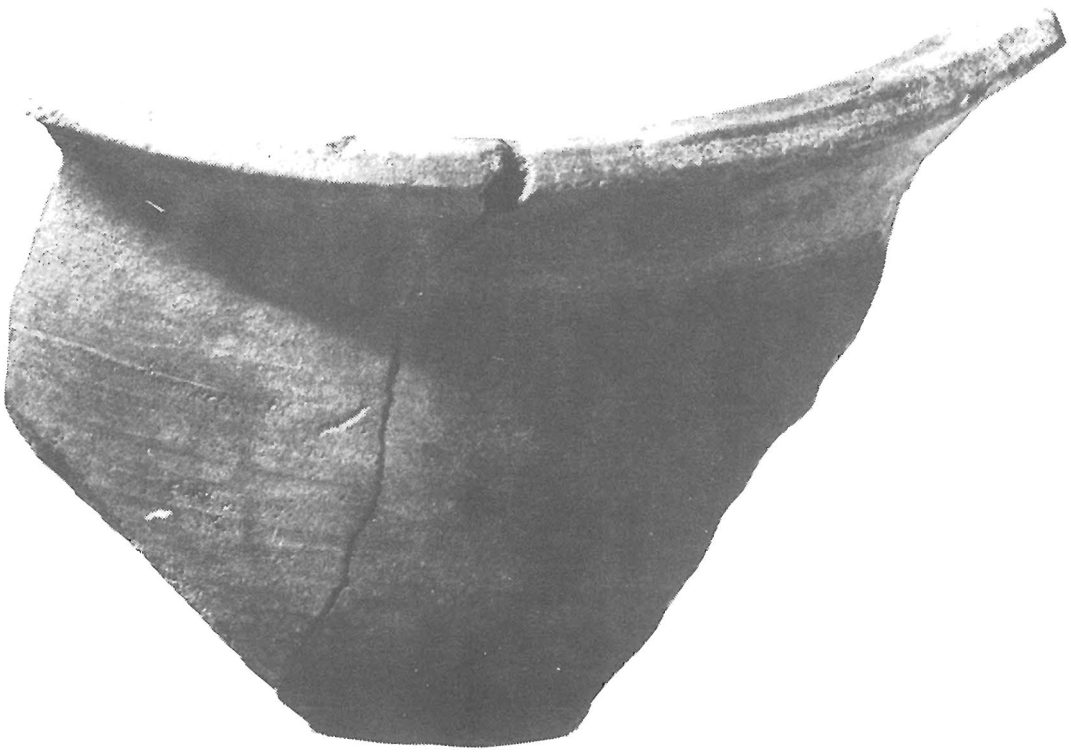
ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS AT 38GE377: EXAMINATION OF A DEEP CREEK PHASE SITE AND A PORTION OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY MIDWAY PLANTATION



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ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS AT 38GE377: EXAMINATIONS OF A DEEP CREEK PHASE SITE AND A PORTION OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY MIDWAY PLANTATION

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The gods are just, and of our pleasant vices
Make instruments to plague us.

-- Shakespeare, *King Lear*

ABSTRACT

This study examines the archaeological research conducted by Chicora Foundation on a small Deep Creek Phase site which also contained a sparse eighteenth century component associated with nearby Midway Plantation.

The Deep Creek Phase site yielded moderate amounts pottery and a small quantity of lithic remains. No subsurface features were located during these excavations.

Perhaps the most interesting aspect of 38GE377 was the sparse mid-eighteenth century component. Two structural posts were encountered, although despite the excavation of 525 square feet in its vicinity, no additional posts were found. The artifact assemblage appears to be domestic and probably represents an isolated slave occupation.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I owe a deep dept of gratitude to field crew for this project which consisted of Ms. Katherine Kelly, Ms. Liz Pinckney, Ms. Darwin Ramsey-Styer, Mr. Neils Taylor, and Mr. Steve Wenzell. Their diligence and professionalism made this project a success. I appreciate their perseverance and good cheer throughout all the bad weather.

INTRODUCTION

Background

This study was conducted by Ms. Natalie Adams of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Michael Murphy, Director of Sales for Heritage Plantation Limited, which is developing the area containing 38GE377. The property is situated about 12 miles northeast of Georgetown in Georgetown County. The tract is bounded to the north by private property, to the south and east by the 10th fairway of the Heritage Golf Course, and to the west by marsh of the Waccamaw River (Figure 1).

Archaeological site 38GE377 was identified by Dr. Eric Poplin in 1988. Poplin (1988:57) described the site as an undisturbed scatter of prehistoric and historic remains and recommended it as eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places. This initial study revealed two site components thought to be spatially separated. In the northern portion of the site was a scatter of historic materials dating from the early nineteenth century, while in the southern portion of the site were Woodland Period remains, evidenced by relatively dense, large sherds. Of the 46 shovel tests excavated, 35 (or 76.1%) contained cultural remains. Artifacts included 104 prehistoric sherds and 10 historic artifacts. Four test units were placed across the site yielding large quantities of prehistoric artifacts and sparse amounts of historic remains.

Chicora Foundation was requested to submit a proposal for data recovery in March 1992 based on the Memorandum of Agreement and data recovery plan previously approved by the State Historic Preservation Office. This plan stipulated that in the southern portion of the site a block excavation of approximately 200 square feet would be undertaken to examine the site for features such as hearths or structures. In the northern site area the data recovery plan stipulated that an intensive close-interval shovel test survey would be followed by up to 300 feet of block excavation, if the tests revealed intact cultural features. No additional historical research was called for in this plan. Since this data recovery plan had already been approved by the SC SHPO, Chicora followed the general outline and our proposal was accepted by Heritage Plantation on November 10, 1992.

A management summary (Adams 1993) of archaeological excavations at 38GE377 was submitted on January 27, 1993. No comment from the South Carolina Historic Preservation Office has yet been received.

Archaeological investigations were begun at 38GE377 by a crew of four on January 11 and continued for eight days, until January 20, 1993. A total of 222 person hours were devoted to work at the site, while an additional four person hours were spent off site processing specimens during rain periods. As a result of this work, 875 square feet of site area were opened and 870 cubic feet of soil were moved in primary excavations, all screened through ¼-inch mesh.

Artifact analysis and cataloging was conducted at Chicora Foundation's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina in February of 1993.

Goals

Previous survey and testing at 38GE377 found evidence for a dense prehistoric scatter with a light scatter of historic remains. Based on the testing, it was thought that the site contained intact subsurface features. Consequently, the data recovery excavations at 38GE377 was geared toward addressing relatively simple, but fundamental, explanatory questions:

- who lived at 38GE377,
- when was the site occupied, and
- what activities were performed at the site.

As the research was conducted and the analysis undertaken, the historic component revealed unanticipated information. Although the artifacts were sparse the site consisted of a small, isolated mid-eighteenth century component of a previously unexplored plantation activity. This illustrates the importance of examining all of the intricacies of the plantation. These field discoveries expanded the range of research at the sites and opened areas of new questions. The research at 38GE377 provides new data for future archaeological study.

Recently, several researchers (e.g. Adams and Trinkley 1993; and Brooker and Trinkley 1991) have emphasized the importance of recognizing the complexity of plantation landscapes. It is hoped that more of these small isolated historic sites will receive future attention since many questions surrounding land use and plantation layout can not be approached using traditional methods and perceptions (Adams and Trinkley 1993:6). As a result, a number of questions may remain unanswered unless archaeologists broaden their views of the past.

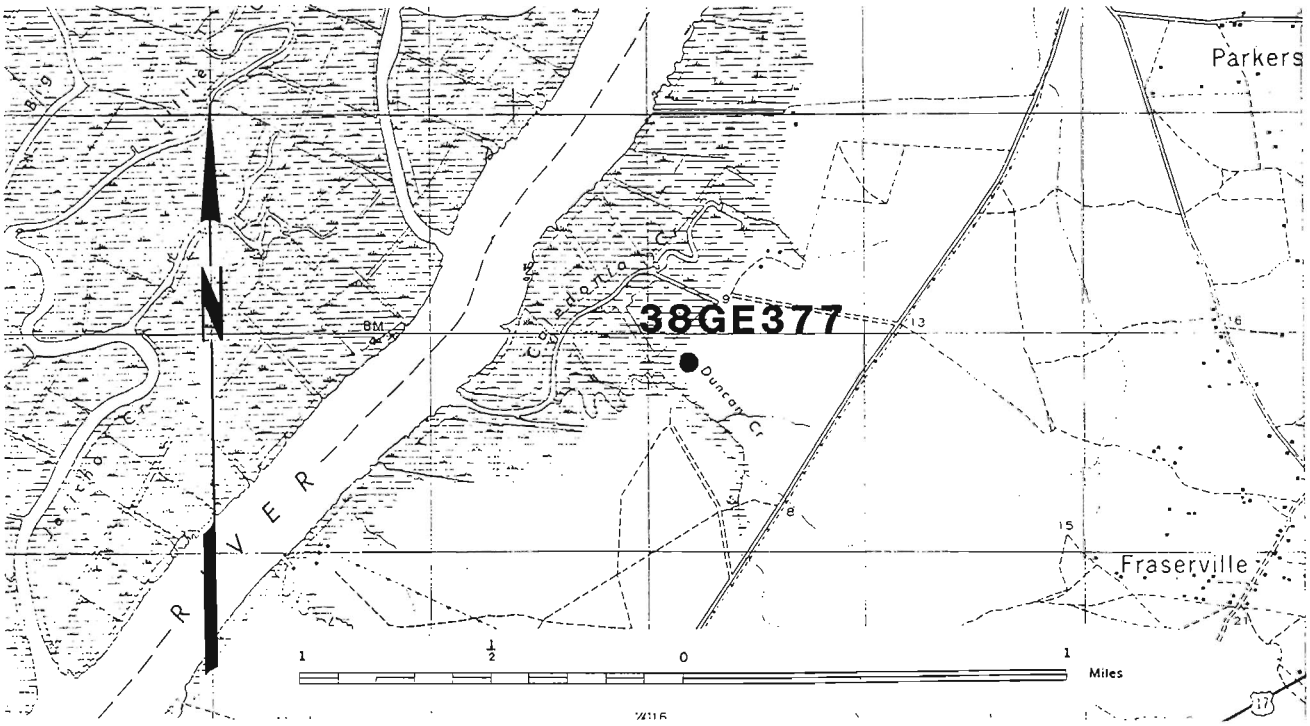

Figure 1. Location of 38GE377 on the Waverly Mill USGS quadrangle map.

Curation

The field notes, photographic materials, and artifacts resulting from Chicora Foundation's investigations have been curated at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. The artifacts from the site have been catalogued using that institutions cataloguing system. The artifacts have been cleaned as necessary. Further information on conservation practices may be found in the Artifact Analysis section of this report. All original and duplicate copies were provided to the curatorial facility on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper and the photographic materials were processed to archival permanence.

NATURAL SETTING

Physiographic Setting

Georgetown County is situated in the lower Coastal Plain of South Carolina, bounded to the east by about 37 miles of irregular Atlantic Ocean coastline, to the south by the Santee River, to the west by an artificial boundary with Williamsburg County, and to the north by the Great Pee Dee River and an artificial boundary with Horry County. Elevations in the county range from sea level to about 75 feet mean sea level (MSL) and the topography consists of subtle undulations characteristic of the beach ridge plains (Mathews et al. 1980). The coastal area is composed of a series of marsh and barrier islands, including South, Cedar, Pawleys, and North islands. All four represent Holocene beach ridge plain islands.

The Waccamaw Neck region consists of a finger of land separated from the mainland by the Waccamaw River and its associated marshes (Figure 2). This area, originally part of the Hobcaw Barony (Smith 1913), consists of relatively level, sandy land and is about 2 to 3 miles in width and about 14 miles in length. As Smith notes:

> the [Hobcaw] barony became, with the rest of Waccamaw neck comprising All Saints Parish, a part of that rich, populous and productive rice planting region in Georgetown County (Smith 1913:66).

In 1832 the County was recognized as consisting of three distinct areas: "light sandy lands," "pine barren lands of various qualities," and the "rich rice swamp lands" (Lockwood 1832:32). These "rich lands" tend to hug the coast and extend inland along the major drainages -- the area of major rice production in the nineteenth century (see Hilliard 1975).

Georgetown County is drained by five significant river systems: the Waccamaw, Black, Sampit, Pee Dee, and Santee. Of these, only the Sampit is a coastal river, dominated by tidal action and salt water. The others have a significant freshwater discharge, with all but the Santee flowing into Winyah Bay.

Winyah Bay is less than a mile wide at its mouth, but gradually broadens to a width of about 4½ miles at its midpoint. It narrows to a width of about a mile where it is formed by the Waccamaw and Pee Dee rivers. George Hunter, in 1730, described the Bay, noting that his soundings:

> at Low Water neap Tides found 10 foot water. At high water spring tides there rise 16-½ feet. . . . one foot less water or there abouts than Charles Town (George Hunter 1730, quoted in Bridwell 1982:6).

Only a few years later Georgetown was described as:

> a very pleasant place, being situated on a fine bluff on Sandpit [Sampit] Creek, and about ten miles from the bar; the said Creek heads on about ten miles above the town, but any ship that can come over the bar, may come up to the town. The bar, indeed, they say, is not extraordinary good, but there has been several ships of a hundred and fifty tons there and upwards (quoted in Bridwell 1982:6-8).

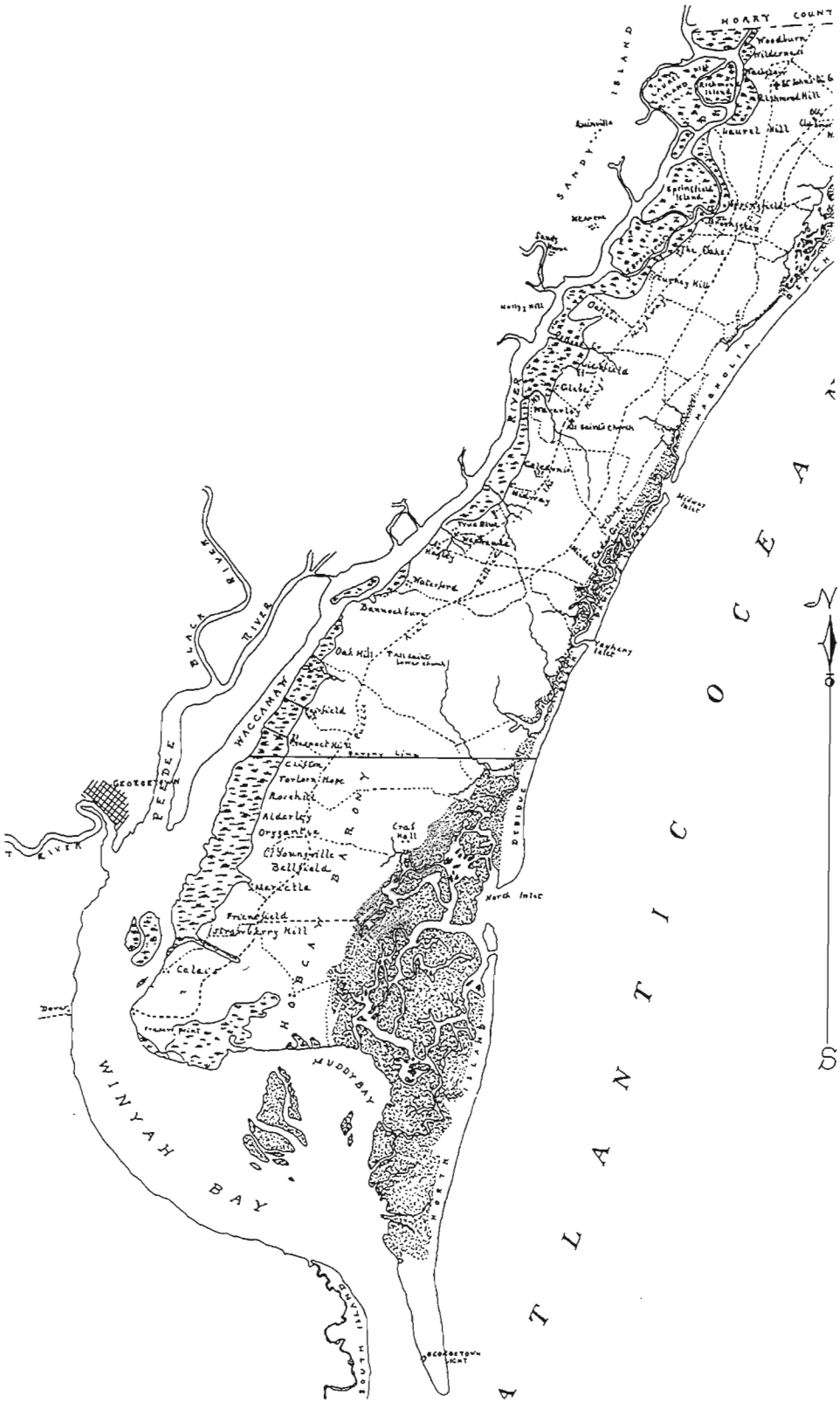

Figure 2. The Waccamaw Neck region of Georgetown County (Smith 1913).

Climate

The climate of the Georgetown County area is influenced primarily by its southern latitude, proximity to the ocean, and low elevations, which result in a subtropical influence. The summers are long, hot, and humid, while the South Carolina mountains tend to serve as a barrier to cold air masses from the north and west, resulting in mild, dank winters (Hilliard 1984:13; Mathews et al. 1980:46).

The generally mild climate, as Hilliard (1984:13) notes, is largely responsible for the presence of many southern crops, such as cotton. Under normal conditions even corn, which requires 20 inches of precipitation during the growing season, thrives in the area (Wann 1977:183).

This environment, in spite of its potential agricultural productivity, was often seen as hostile, unhealthy, and even deadly to both blacks and whites alike. Joyner (1984:35-37) provides a brief review of nineteenth century observers, all of whom argue that the Low Country's "marsh miasma" was responsible for considerable sickness and death. Visitors frequently mentioned the stagnate air, noxious marsh gas, and abundant mosquitoes. Postell (1970:140-150) indicates that on one South Carolina rice plantation the 1859 figures show that there were 15 days lost from work per slave, compared to a southern mean of 12 days per slave. The Kollock Plantation, on Ossabaw Island, Georgia has a morbidity rate of 19.3 per 100 slaves and a Florida plantation averaged 21.3 days lost per slave in 1841.

Postell (1970:74-75) also notes that malaria and the various autumnal fevers were so chronic that there were only rarely mentioned in plantation records, although frequent remedies for "chills and fevers" found in planters' manuals testify to malaria's presence. Robert Pringle wrote in September 1739:

> We have been Afflicted in this Town for these Two Months past with a great Sickness & Mortality by a Malignant Fever [apparently Yellow Fever], which has Carried off a great many People, but as the Season comes in now Pretty Cool, hope will be more healthful & that it will Please God to put a Stop to it (Edgar 1972:135).

In addition, the same climate that promoted the growth of rice, also made its preservation problematic. Pringle wrote in July 1742:

> Rice at this time is never so Good in Quality as in the Cold Season by Reason it Growes Flowery & the Wevil & Worm is apt to gett into it. The Best time to Ship off Rice here, & when it is most plenty & best in Quality, is from the Month of November till the month of May, after which month it is Generally scarce, high in price, & not Good (Edgar 1972:391).

Many other provisions, such as butter and even rum, also failed to withstand the hot Carolina climate according to Pringle (Edgar 1972:685, 694). Some items were even more troublesome, as Pringle noted in an April letter:

> Your Cocoa & Blubber still Remains on hand unsold, & as our hott Season now begins to Come in, the Blubber won't keep, so must be Oblidg'd to expose it to Publik Venue. Pray never send any more of it (Edgar 1972:676).

Hilliard points out that "any description of climate in the South, however brief, would be incomplete without reference to a meteorological event frequently identified with the region -- the tropical hurricane" (Hilliard 1984:18). Hurricanes occur in the late summer and early fall, the period critical to antebellum cane, cotton, and rice growers. In the nineteenth century Ramsay observed:

> in such a case between the dread of pestilence in the city, of common fever in the country, and of an unexpected hurricane on the island, the inhabitants . . . are at the close of every warm season in a painful state of anxiety, not knowing what course to pursue, nor what is best to be done (Ramsay, quoted in Calhoun 1983:2).

From 1670 to 1860 there were 10 major hurricanes, occurring at intervals ranging from 2 to 52 years, several of which caused extensive reported crop damages (Mathews et al. 1980:54). Doar comments that:

> the heaviest and most destructive gale that the rice country has ever experienced . . . was in 1822, for it not only destroyed most if not all of the crops but a great many negro lives were lost . . . whole plantations were decimated in a few hours, and only those were saved who could get hold of a tree or floating debris (Doar 1936:22-23).

The September 27, 1822 hurricane is estimated to have killed 300 people, but it followed by only nine years the August 27, 1813 hurricane which was even more severe.

After these, Doar comments that some coastal rice planters began building "storm towers." Located in the rice fields:

> These were of brick, round, with conical roofs and were 20 or 30 feet in diameter and 20 feet high. About ten feet from the ground was an entrance to the floor at this height . . . .Upon the approach of threatening weather all the hands were taken into them until the danger was over (Doar 1936:23).

Geology and Soils

Coastal Plain geologic formations are unconsolidated sedimentary deposits of very recent (Pleistocene and Holocene) age lying unconformably on ancient crystalline rocks (Cooke 1936; Hilliard 1984:6-7; Mathews et al. 1980:5-6). The Pleistocene sediments are organized into topographically distinct, but lithologically similar, geomorphic units, or terraces, parallel to the coast. The study area is situated on the Pamlico terrace which includes deposits that accumulated when the sea level was about 25 feet above its present level.

Thom (1967) has studied the geomorphology of adjacent Horry and Marion counties, identifying five phases of coastal progradation, each represented by a "barrier island or barrier spit behind which have accumulated quiet-water . . . and fluvial sediments" (Thom 1967:50; see also Cooke 1936 who recognized the Waccamaw Neck as a spit or island built above the contemporaneous sea level). Thom suggests that the Waccamaw Neck is an extension of the more northern Myrtle Barrier, with a maximum position of the sea at 22 feet. There is also a narrow fringe of Holocene barrier formation which forms the present shoreline (Thom 1967:54-55). Evidence of these early dune and ridge formations may still be seen in some parts of the study area, especially on Turkey Hill "island."

The significance of the interplay between geology, coastal morphology, and hydrology is perhaps nowhere better exemplified than in the tidewater rice producing areas. As Hilliard (1975) notes, tidewater rice cultivation was "an ingenious adaptation to nature," which occurred only in those few areas where both sufficient tidal range (5 to 7 feet) and strong layering of fresh water on top of the saline water, occur. These conditions were met in the narrow zone between tidal salt flats and the freshwater swamps above the tidal zone (Hilliard 1975:62), such as the Winyah Bay area of Georgetown County. Brown (1975:14-15) relates these conditions to the Arcuate Strand morphology typical of the area south to Bull's Bay (which includes the premier rice producing areas of South Carolina).

Also of tremendous significance to the plantation owners was the availability of fresh water. The principal deep water aquifers are the limestone of Eocene age known as the Santee Formation and the sands of Cretaceous age known as the Pee Dee and Black Creek formations, although these are at depths of 400 to 500 feet and 1600 to 2000 feet respectively, well out of the reach of colonial and antebellum plantation owners.

Lynch et al. (1882) note that colonial wells rarely exceeded 20 feet into the sands which were "everywhere saturated with the water which it received from a rainfall averaging 43.78 inches each year" (Lynch et al. 1882:258). Consequently, wells 12 to 15 feet deep provided "an unfailing supply of water of the very best quality" (Lynch et al. 1882:259). Water quality gradually declines as the population increased and antebellum wells became deeper, although they rarely exceeded 60 feet in downtown Charleston. One antebellum brick-lined well on Daniels Island, about 5.5 miles northeast of Charleston, was only 10.7 feet in depth (Zierden et al. 1986:4-44). Brief investigations at the Campfield Plantation slave settlement on the Black River about 8 miles above Georgetown, revealed a brick-lined well approximately 20 feet in depth (Zierden and Calhoun 1983:6). It is therefore clear that during the historic period both deep and shallow wells were in common use, although the more shallow wells probably tended to be less healthy and more saline.

Site 38GE377 is characterized by moderately well drained Chipley fine sand (Stuckey 1982:Map 33). Typically, the surface layer is four inches of dark grayish brown fine sand. From four to 24 inches the soil is yellowish brown.

Floristics

While the immediate vicinity of 38GE377 may be characterized as an upland Atlantic Coast Flatwoods ecosystem, the project borders on a riverine ecosystem (the Waccamaw River) and several palustrine areas (the old rice fields and cypress ponds). Additionally, an estuarine ecosystem is found within a mile to the south. A somewhat different upland environment, called the maritime ecosystem, was previously found on the barrier islands in the vicinity. Consequently, 38GE377 is situated in an area of extensive ecological diversity.

The vascular flora of the upland ecosystem in the 38GE377 area is characterized by a mixed hardwood community. This community exhibits considerable diversity, but Kuchler (1964) suggests that the potential natural vegetation in the area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest containing medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees. The dominant trees are hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak. Other components would include dogwood, persimmon, sweetgum, and water tupelo. Such upland mixed hardwood forests have been selectively eliminated through logging and agriculture. The mixed hardwood forests provide excellent browse and cover for deer and even higher densities may be found in the edge zone between the upland zone and palustrine zone (Moore 1978:9). Other mammals frequently found in this zone are squirrels, opossums, raccoons, and skunks. Less common species include the black bear, fox, and bobcat (Sandifer et al. 1980:473-478). The only terrestrial turtle found in any frequency in this environment is the Eastern box turtle, although freshwater turtles may occasionally be observed (Sandifer et al. 1980:457). The turkey is especially characteristic of mixed hardwood forests where mature oaks are common (Bevill 1978:42-43).

Because 38GE377 is situated on the Waccamaw River, the riverine ecosystem is a significant factor in the site's natural setting. The riverine ecosystem is based on waters with less than 0.5% ocean-derived salts and may be characterized as freshwater. The water velocity of the Waccamaw fluctuates under tidal influence, the river has a low gradient, a mud bed, and a well developed floodplain. The mud riverbed is not conducive to the survival of shellfish, although some freshwater mussels such as *Elliptio* spp. may be found in the sandier areas. Approximately 24 fish species are common in the riverine system

and six species of anadromous fish are found. The more important common species include catfish, largemouth bass, black crappie, white bass, and yellow perch, Also present are spotted sucker, carp, shiner, and longnose gar. The anadromous species include primarily shad, herring, striped bass, and sturgeon (Sandifer et al. 1980:411). Reptile species, including the river cooters, sliders, snapping turtles, and Florida cooters, are fairly common although most are found along the edges of the slower flowing streams in the palustrine ecosystem. Alligators are not uncommon today and may have been more common prior to extensive human pressure (Sandifer et al. 1980:419). Avifauna are relatively uncommon in many riverine ecosystems because the tidal range and weak flow. The highest number of birds coincide the with spring and fall migrations (Sandifer et al. 1980:420). The presence of a nearby palustrine ecosystem, however, probably attracts birds to the site area.

The palustrine ecosystem in the vicinity of 38GE377 includes several areas of tidal forested wetlands. These areas are dominated by oaks, sweetgums, cypress, and water tupelo with an abundant understory of swamp privet and wax myrtle (Sandifer et al. 1980:313). Adjacent tidal impoundments are the result of historic rice cultivation which areas of tidal emergent wetlands. These river marsh areas are dominated by brackish and freshwater plants such as giant cutgrass, wild rice, cat-tails, and saw grass. This ecosystem attracts a variety of mammals also found in the upland zone. As previously suggested, this environmental zone is the most ideally suited habitat for birds (Sandifer et al. 1980:375). Possibly significant birds during the antebellum period would include species such as the work stork, egret, ibis, and heron, and the ducks, primarily the wood duck. Turtles are abundant.

Two distinct areas of the estuarine ecosystem are found near 38GE377 -- the intertidal flats characterized primarily by the ubiquitous intertidal oyster beds and the emergent wetlands characterized by vascular flora such as *Spartina* and *Juncus*. The estuarine area is highly productive and provides an environment for a number of fish in tidal creeks. These fish may be divided into two groups. Fish such as the flounder, drum, catfish, and gar represent large predators which are found at the mouths of intertidal creeks. These fish feed on the second group, such as the mumichog, spot, Atlantic menhaden, and silver perch, which commonly travel in schools and migrate in and out of the intertidal creeks with the tide (Cain 1973:76-77). While few turtles are found in the estuarine area, birds are fairly common, particularly in the area of the emergent wetlands.

This ecological background has particular relevance to the foodways of Waccamaw Neck slaves. Smith, discussing rice plantations along the Georgia coast, mentions that:

> the task labor used in growing rice allowed some free time, and the practice by owners along the rice coast of encouraging slaves to have gardens, and even to permit them to hunt and fish, contributed substantially to their diet (Smith 1985:116).

Joyner (1984:99-101) mentions that seafood was popular on Waccamaw Neck plantations, as was wild game. These accounts, which also include reference to the use of firearms by slaves, are based on relatively few historical accounts and are worthy of considerable archaeological exploration. If they are correct, it would be expected that the bounty of the Waccamaw Neck would be reflected in the faunal assemblage obtained from slave settlements. Regardless, the close proximity of freshwater, saltwater, and upland habitats in the Waccamaw Neck region provided a number of opportunities for wild food resources.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Previous Research

Although considerable prehistoric research has been conducted along the central and southern coast of South Carolina (see Anderson and Logan 1981; Trinkley 1980a; Trinkley 1990a and 1990b) very little research has focussed on the coast north of the Santee River. The earliest published work from the area is Carl Miller's (1950) brief study of 884 sherds from nine sites in the vicinity of Myrtle Beach, Horry County. All of these sites were situated on small sandy ridges overlooking Long Bay and evidenced only light scatters of shell and pottery. A brief re-examination of the collections from one of Miller's sites (H01) in 1979 resulted in the identification of probable Deep Creek and Hanover wares.

Waldemar H. Ritter, from the Charleston Museum, was collecting from sites in the Georgetown area as early as 1933. Sites were found at Pawleys Island and on the Baruch property at Waccamaw Neck, but the descriptions are insufficient to allow the sites to be identified today.

Stanley South (1960a), reporting on a survey of southeastern coastal North Carolina and the northeast coast of South Carolina, offered type descriptions for the Thom's Creek, Cape Fear, Hanover, and Oak Island series. South's sites were found adjacent to the estuary, in similar environmental contexts as reported by Miller (1950). These findings were largely supported by his survey of Alder's and Russell's islands in the White Oak River in Onslow County, North Carolina (1960b).

South (1962) also examined a probable Middle Woodland sand burial mound in Brunswick County, North Carolina (see also Wilson 1982). The mound, formed by the covering of secondary deposits of cremated remains, contained few artifacts but is part of a widespread burial mound tradition found along the coasts of North and South Carolina, and Georgia (see Brooks et al. 1989; Larsen and Thomas 1982; Rathbun 1985).

Between 1963 and 1965 additional, largely unreported, work was being conducted in Georgetown and Horry counties by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (Dr. William Edwards) and students from the University of South Carolina-Coastal Carolina campus. Information on this work has been gathered together by Erika Fogg-Amed (1980). As a result of this work, Fogg-Amed (1980) developed a sequence from the Paleo-Indian though the late Pee Dee.

Following South's 1960 survey and typological assessment of coastal pottery, work by Crawford (1966) and later by Loftfield (1976) continued to emphasize the North Carolina coast. While these studies tended to develop more or less local typologies, work in the late 1970s by David Phelps began to synthesize the North Carolina coastal typologies (Phelps 1978, 1980, 1981, 1982, 1984). One of the most important contributions of this work was the recognition that South's "Cape Fear" series actually represented at least two Early and Middle Woodland series lumped together. The application of much of this North Carlina sequence to the South Carolina coast is discussed by Trinkley (1983a).

Recent work at Minim Island (Espenshade and Brockington 1989) explored an Early Woodland site evidenced by Thom's Creek, Refuge, Deptford, and Deep Creek pottery. Subsistence studies indicated seasonal use of the site with an emphasis on fishing and oyster gathering.

Most sites, based on these previous studies, are found on excessively to well drained soils, although a few are consistently found in areas which are poorly drained (which suggests that factors other than drainage may occasionally have determined aboriginal settlement locations). Work in the 38GE377 area also suggests that sites will most commonly be found on major sand ridge elevations overlooking the wetland habitats.

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

Historical archaeological research in Georgetown County consists primarily of all levels of work at plantations along Waccamaw Neck. The testing and data recovery investigations include work at Richmond Hill Plantation (Michie 1987, 1988, and 1990; Michie and Mills 1988), The Oaks and Laurel Hill Plantations (Drucker 1980), Campfield Plantation (Zierden and Calhoun 1983), Willbrook, Oatland, and Turkey Hill Plantations (Trinkley 1987; Trinkley 1993b), and Midway Plantation (Smith 1986). Information from these works have been synthesized by Trinkley (1993b) and should be consulted for further information.

Prehistoric Archaeology

Paleo-Indian and Archaic Periods

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

Sea level during much of this period is expected to have been as much as 65 feet lower than present, so many sites may be inundated (Flint 1971). Unfortunately, little is known about Paleo-Indian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally archaeologists agree that the Paleo-Indian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

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

> Archaic period sites, when contrasted with the subsequent Woodland period, are typically small, relatively few in number and contain

low densities of archaeological material. The data may indicate that the inter-riverine zone was utilized by Archaic populations characterized by small group size, high mobility, and wide ranging exploitative patterns (Brooks and Scurry 1978:44).

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

Early Woodland

The earliest phase of the Woodland period (Figure 3) is called Stallings, after the type site excavated by the Cosgroves in 1929 (Claflin 1931). These "Stallings Island people" produced a rich cultural assemblage of bone and antler work, polished stone items, grooved and perforated "net sinkers" or steatite disks, stone tools (including projectile points, knives, scrapers, and cruciform drills), and fiber tempered pottery (see also Williams 1968). It was over a decade before the typological significance of the Stallings ware was recognized and a formal type description was offered (Fairbanks 1942; Griffin 1943). The definitive feature of this pottery is its large quantity of fiber, now identified as Spanish Moss (Simpkins and Scoville 1981), included in the paste prior to firing.

The elaborate Savannah River drainage sites such as Stallings Island, Fennel Hill, Rabbit Mount, and Bilbo, are all characterized by large quantities of either fresh water mussels or tidal oysters, large quantities of artifacts, and abundant features. These middens, however, represent only one aspect of the Stallings settlement system. Another portion of that system is represented by Stallings sites which evidence little shell. While many of these are sparse scatters, such as Clear Mount (Stoltman 1974) and Pinckney Island (Trinkley 1981c), some evidence intensive occupation with features and a rich cultural assemblage, such as the Love (38AL10; Trinkley 1974) and Fish Haul (38BU805; Trinkley 1986) sites.

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.

Thom's Creek pottery, first typed by Griffin (1943), consists of sandy paste pottery decorated with the motifs common to the Stallings series, including punctations (reed and shell), finger pinching, simple stamping, incising, and very late in the phase, finger smoothed (Trinkley 1980a). Investigations at the Lighthouse Point and Stratton Place shell rings, stratigraphic studies at Spanish Mount and Fig Island, radiocarbon dates from Lighthouse Point and Venning Creek, and the study of surface collections from a number of sites, have suggested a temporal ordering of the Thom's Creek series. Reed punctated pottery appears to be the oldest, followed by the shell punctated and finger pinched motifs. Late in the Thom's Creek phase, perhaps by 1000 B.C., there is the addition of Thom's Creek Finger Smoothed (Trinkley 1983a:44). Vessel forms include deep, straight sided jars and shallow conoidal bowls. Lip treatments are simple, and coiling fractures are common. Firing of the Thom's Creek vessels is certainly better than that evidenced for Stallings, but there continues to be abundant incompletely oxidized specimens.

Excavations at Coastal Zone Thom's Creek sites includes the work by

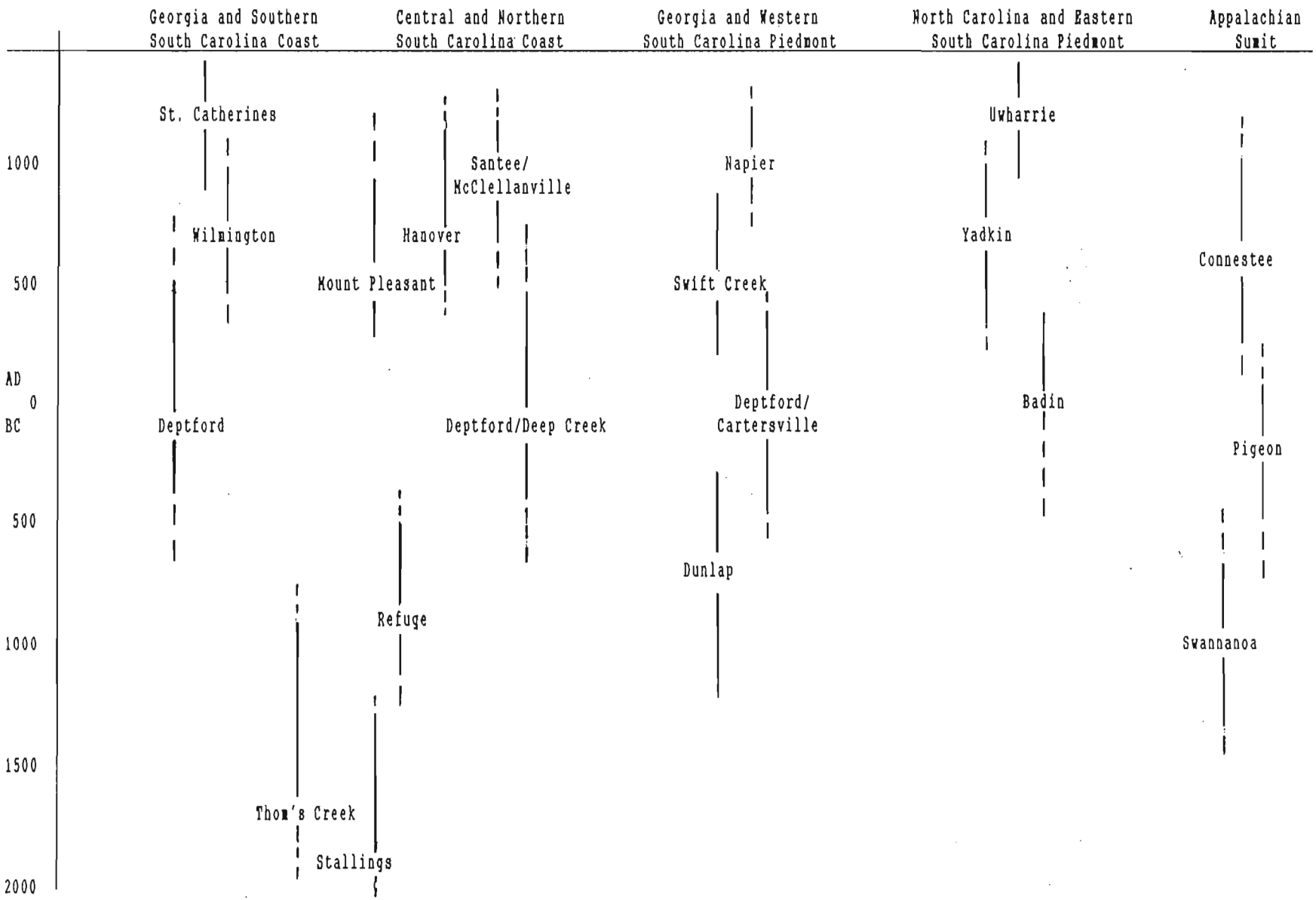

Figure 3. Woodland Period phases in the South Carolina locality.

Espenshade and Brockington (1989) at the Minim Island site (38GE46). This site, which yielded a radiocarbon date of 1450 B.C., evidenced a focus on the spring/summer procurement of estuarine fishes and terrestrial game. While oysters were gathered, they did not appear to be the predominant dietary contributor. The artifacts included evidence of lithic tool maintenance, in addition to bone and shell tool production. The presence of features and large quantities of pottery indicated a seasonally permanent encampment (Espenshade and Brockington 1989:233).

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

Following Stallings and Thom's Creek are the Refuge and Deptford phases, both strongly associated with the Georgia sequence and the Savannah drainage (DePratter 1979; Lepionka et al. 1983; Williams 1968). The Refuge Phase, dated from 1070±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 1968:208). Anderson (1975:184) further notes an apparent concentration of Refuge sites in the Coastal Plain, particularly along the Santee River.

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

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. Hanson (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 "splintering" is observed on the South Carolina coast.

The Deptford culture takes its name from the type site located east of Savannah, Georgia, which was excavated in the mid-1930s (Caldwell 1943:12-16). Deptford phase sites are best recognized by the presence of fine to course sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. This pottery is typically in the form of a cylindrical vessel with a conoidal base. The flat bottomed bowl

with tetrapodal supports found at Deptford sites along the Florida Gulf coast (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980:79) is very rare in South Carolina. Other Deptford phase pottery styles include cord marking, simple stamping, a complicated stamping which resembles early Swift Creek, and a geometric stamping which consists of a series of carved triangles or diamonds with interior dots (see Anderson et al. 1982:277-293; DePratter 1979).

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

Perhaps of even greater interest is the co-occurrence of the larger triangular points (such as Badin and Yadkin) with smaller triangular forms (such as Caraway) traditionally attributed to the Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian periods. This situation has been reported at Coastal Plain sites (Blanton et al. 1986:107), Savannah River sites (Sassaman et al. 1989:157), and Coastal Zone sites (Trinkley 1990a). Blanton et al. (1986) suggest that these point types were used at the same time, but perhaps for different tasks.

The traditional view of an estuarine Deptford adaptation with minor interior occupations must be re-evaluated based on the Savannah River drainage work of Brooks and Hanson (1987) and Sassaman et al. (1989:293-295) who suggest larger residential base camps and foraging zones along the Savannah River, coupled with smaller, household residences and foraging zones in the uplands along small tributaries.

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

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle-stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

Middle Woodland

Although the Deptford phase is discussed as part of the Early Woodland, many authors place the phase intermediate between the Early and Middle Woodland (see, for example, Anderson et al. 1982:28, 250). Such an approach is not unreasonable, because Deptford exhibits considerable temporal range and cultural adaptations which are more characteristically Middle Woodland (see also Anderson

1985:53). The Deptford phase, however, is still part of the early carved paddle stamped tradition which is replaced by the posited northern intrusion of wrapped paddle stamping during the Middle Woodland. Clearly the Deep Creek pottery, at the same time period as Deptford, is part of this "Northern Tradition," yet the Deep Creek, on temporal grounds, is considered Early Woodland by Phelps (1983:17, 29). This is meant simply to indicate that the transition from Early to Middle Woodland is not as clear as one might wish.

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

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 (1960a) previous Cape Fear series. The pottery is characterized by a sandy paste either with or without quantities of rounded pebbles. Surface treatments include fabric impressed, cord marked, and net impressed. Vessels are usually conoidal, although simple, hemispherical, and globular bowls are also present. The Mount Pleasant series is found from North Carolina southward to the Savannah River (being evidenced by the "Untyped Series" in Trinkley 1981c). North Carolina dates for the series range from A.D. 265±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 1981b) and Santee (Anderson et al. 1982:302-308) series are found primarily on the north central coast of South Carolina and are characterized by a fine to medium sandy paste ceramic with surface treatment of primarily v-shaped simple stamping. While the two pottery types are quite similar, it appears that the Santee series may have later features, such as excurvate rims and interior rim stamping, not so-far observed in the McClellanville series. The Santee series is placed at A.D. 800 to 1300 by Anderson et al. (1982:303), while the McClellanville ware may be slightly earlier, perhaps A.D. 500 to 800. Anderson et al. (1982:302-304; see also Anderson 1985) provide a detailed discussion of the Santee Series and its possible relationships with the McClellanville Series. Anderson, based on the Santee area data from Mattassee Lake, indicates that there is evidence for the replacement of fabric impressed pottery by simple stamping about A.D. 800 (David G. Anderson, personal communication 1990). This may suggest that McClellanville and Santee wares are closely related, both typologically and culturally. Also probably related is the little known Camden Series (Stuart 1975) found in the inner Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

These Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the

Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990b).

In terms of settlement patterns, several researchers have offered some conclusions based on localized data. Michie (1980:80), for example, correlates rising sea levels with the extension of Middle Woodland shell middens further up the Port Royal estuary. Scurry and Brooks (1980:75-78) find the Middle Woodland site patterning in the Wando River affected not only by the sea level fluctuations, but also by soil types (see also Trinkley 1980b:445-446). They suggest that the strong soil correlation is the result of upland sites having functioned as extraction areas, principally for exploitation of acorns, hickory nuts, and deer. Shell midden sites, they suggest, also represent seasonal camps and therefore exhibit small size, low artifact density, and infrequent re-occupation. Ward's (1978) work in Marlboro County suggests that interior site patterning changed little from the Early to Middle Woodland. Sites continue to be found on the low, sandy ridges overlooking hardwood swamp floodplains, which suggests that while pottery styles changed, site locations, and presumably subsistence, did not (see also Ferguson 1976). Drucker and Anthony's (1978) work in Florence County, South Carolina reveals virtually continuous short-term occupation along the terraces associated with the floodplain of Lynch's Lake. DePratter's work at the Dunlap site, however, suggests that a few, relatively stable villages were present in the Middle Woodland.

Late Woodland and South Appalachian Mississippian

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

Along the central and northern South Carolina coast, Anderson et al. (1982:303-304) suggest a continuation of the Santee series into the Late Woodland. The Hanover and Mount Pleasant series may also be found as late of A.D. 1000. Along the southeastern North Carolina coast, South (1960a) 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 et al. (1982:312-319) offers an alternative perspective incorporating Pee Dee and Ashley wares.

Protohistoric

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

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

Excavation at the Wachesaw Landing site (see Trinkley et al. 1983) have yielded "post-classic" Pee Dee pottery characteristic of the South Appalachian Mississippian, dating about A.D. 1650. Also found at the site, and probably produced by the historic Siouan Waccamaw Indians (ca. A.D. 1700), was a crude, heavy, gritty paste complicated stamped pottery called the Wachesaw series. Finally, a small quantity of non-tempered, fine paste, carefully smoothed sherds termed Catawba or the Kimbel series were also found. This pottery has a hard, compact paste and is similar to the pottery produced by a variety of Hill Tribe Siouan groups (see Wilson 1983).

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.

Historic Synopsis

The Waccamaw Region

The first white settlers were drawn to the Waccamaw Neck area around Winyah Bay by the lure of lucrative Indian trade. The English, Scots, and French acquired land through proprietary and royal land grants, beginning as early as 1705. However, the majority of lands were granted in the 1730s (Rogers 1970:12, 20, 26). Access to water was an important factor in land development. The earliest policy was to grant narrow river frontage in order to give more settlers river access. Among the first grantees was Percival Pawley, who, through a series of land grants, obtained 24,000 acres on the Pee Dee, Sampit, and Waccamaw rivers in 1711 (Rogers: 1970:16-21).

Indigo was one of the area's first major crops, but had a relatively short life of less than 50 years. Production, which began in the 1740s and reached its peak from 1754-1760, was artificially stimulated by an English bounty and King George's War (1739-1749) which cut off England's supplies in the French and Spanish West Indies. The crop grew particularly well along the Pee Dee, Black, and lower Waccamaw rivers. The processing of indigo required settling through a series of vats which drew flies and mosquitoes rendering it a fairly offensive labor (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:75). One 1755 account mentions:

> indigo has a very disagreeable smell, while making and curing; and the foeces, when taken out of the steeper, if not immediately buried in the ground (for which it is excellent manure, breeds incredible swarms of flies (Carman 1939:281-290).

Indigo required a fairly major initial investment, estimated at slightly over £2,024 (Gray 1933:I:541). A major benefit, however, was that its production could be integrated with rice on the same plantation. James Glen remarked:

> I cannot leave this Subject without observing how conveniently and profitably, as to the Charge of Labor, both Indigo and Rice may be managed by the same Persons; for the labor attending Indigo being over in the Summer Months those who were employed in its may afterwards manufacture Rice in the ensuing Part of the Year, when it becomes most laborious; and after doing all this, they may have some time to spare for sawing Lumber and making Hogshead and other Staves to supply the Sugar Colonies (Glen 1761:10).

Unfortunately, indigo was "one of those rank weeds like tobacco, which not only exhaust the substance of the earth, but require the very best and richest lands" (Carman 1939:281-290).

In 1753 the Winyah Indigo Society was officially organized and named Thomas Lynch, Sr. their first president. This group established a free school, a library, and functioned as a business and social club for members. By the end of the eighteenth century, planters along the Waccamaw, as elsewhere, had abandoned indigo due to a market surplus and a devastation of caterpillars (Winberry 1979:92, 98; Lawson 1972:3-4; see also Huneycutt 1949).

The early economy also depended on navel stores, and to a lesser extend, on salt processing. In 1733 exports from the port of Georgetown included 7,361 barrels of pitch, 1,092 barrels of tar, and 1,926 barrels of turpentine (Bridwell 1982:12; Rogers 1970:46-47). In the mid-1700s shipbuilding was an important Georgetown industry. Bridwell notes that there is evidence of shipbuilding as early 1738 and that by the late 1740s an active industry flourished in the Winyah Bay area (Bridwell 1982:14). By the mid-1750s this industry began to decline as other enterprises developed and the supply of shipwrights declined (Bridwell 1982:16).

Another crop was to have a more enduring and extensive effect on the economic and cultural life of the Waccamaw. Tidal rice culture began here in the 1730s and became the lifeblood of the Waccamaw until the slave system upon which it depended was ended by the Civil War.

George C. Rogers, in his study, *The History of Georgetown County*, attributes the rise of rice production in the area to four factors: rice cultivation had already been successfully developed in the province, a stable slave labor supply existed, land titles were stable and allowed for the accumulation of large tracts of property, and there were men who were ready to exploit this potential.

Georgetown District was the nation's major rice-growing area. In 1826 Robert Mills observed that in Georgetown:

> everything is fed on rice, horses and cattle eat the straw and hogs, fowls, etc. are sustained by the refuse, and man subsists upon the marrow of the grain . . . . The most valuable lands in the district are those called the tide lands. . . . The yield of these lands is immense . . . they average three barrels or 2000 pounds to the acre (Mills 1826:558).

The early history of rice is discussed by Clowse (1971:125-132) and Doar

(1936). Although the records of rice exportation are vague, they do indicate that production increased dramatically after 1705 (see Clowse 1971:167-168 for additional discussion). In the late Colonial period rice profitability also increased. Perkins observes that:

> yields were from 2 to 4 barrels per acre, and most plantations had 2 or 3 acres under cultivation for each field hand. Based on an average price of £2.3 ($150) per barrel from 1768 to 1772, slaves generated revenues annually of from £9.2 up to £27.6 ($600-$1,800), with around £15 ($975) probably the average figure (Perkins 1980:58).

Although most of the rice production figures are developed from shipping out of Charleston, Bridwell mentions that 322 barrels of rice were shipped out of Georgetown itself in 1733 (Bridwell 1982:12). In 1731, the closest year for comparison, 48,238 barrels of rice were shipped from Charleston (Clowse 1971:Table III). The low figure for the Georgetown port is probably the result of rice being shipped from Georgetown to Charleston by small coasting vessels, with the information not included in the official shipping totals.

In 1840 Georgetown District produced 45 percent of the national rice crop. Between 1850 and 1860, production peaked. In 1850, 46,765,040 pounds of rice were produced in Georgetown County. By 1860, South Carolina produced nearly 64 percent of the total United States rice crop and one-half of the state's crop was grown in Georgetown District. The average yield on Georgetown plantations in 1860 was 1,568 lbs. per acre. In that year, Midway Plantation produced 1,551.7 lbs. of rice which was average in All Saints Parish. Midway's 135 slaves were harvesting 3,333 lbs. of rice each which is close to the 3,765 lb. average for Waccamaw Neck (see Joyner 1984). Prices ranged from 2.0 to 4.3 cents per pound in the 1850s (Easterby 1945:36; Kovacik 1979:49).

Profits on rice plantations during the nineteenth century were variable. Governor Robert Francis Withers Allston reported in 1854 that "the profits of a rice plantation of good size and locality are about 8 percent per annum, independent of the privileges and perquisites of the plantation residence" (Easterby 1945:37). Peter Coclanis (1989:134-141) argues that while the annual net rate of return on rice cultivation was around 25 percent in the 1760s, it fell to an astounding -28 percent by 1859. Regardless, the plantation system was run almost entirely on credit, paying off each past year's indebtedness with the sale of the new crop. Although the Georgetown rice economy was in a healthy, expanding condition in the antebellum years, the planter's capital was constantly being invested in land and slaves (Sellers 1934:55-56). R.F.W. Allston was one of the district's leading slave owners with nine plantation totalling over 6,000 acres. However, in 1859, he replied to the Blue Ridge Railroad Commission that he was unable to invest in the railroad:

> I have no funds to invest. All that I am worth lies in South Carolina and is invested in land and negroes; the annual income from which is pledged before it is realized (Easterby 1941:162).

Large plantations were the rule. The demand for the limited prime coastal lands forced up land values and pushed out marginal planters. By the early 1800s a hierarchy had developed based upon distance from the sea (Hetrick 1979:12). By 1850, 99 large planters (planters who harvested more than 100,000 pounds each) produced 98 percent of the District's total rice crop (Rogers 1970:253; Lawson 1972:8).

Because of this reliance on slave labor, Georgetown District had the highest percentage of slaves in South Carolina. From 1810 to 1850, slaves made up 88 percent of the District's total population and accounted for 85 percent of the population in 1860 (Rogers 1970:328, 343).

The planters of Waccamaw Neck were a small aristocratic group, closely knit by ties of blood as well as common interest. They were rich, even by standards of most of South Carolina's planters, and lived in a luxurious style. In 1839 planters along the Waccamaw, the Pee Dee, the Black, the Sampit, and Winyah Bay formed the Planters Club on the Pee Dee. In 1845 the men formed another organization, the Hot and Hot Fish Club, for "convivial and social intercourse" (Rogers 1970:228, 196).

The Civil War devastated Georgetown's economy. One popular journal stated, "no other part of the United States knows so well as the Rice Coast what defeat in war can mean, for nowhere else in this country has a full-blown and highly developed civilization perished so completely" (Saas 1941:108). Perhaps no area of the state suffered more economic and social damage than All Saints Parish.

Minimal documentation is available concerning the activities of the Waccamaw plantation freedmen following the war. There were some cases of looting and pillaging of the plantation homes, the "buckra houses." At first, some freedmen stayed on the confiscated plantations and worked under supervision of the Freedmen's Bureau. After restoration of the plantations, they signed work agreements with their former masters or other plantation owners whereby they were paid a set fee at the end of the planting season. Others turned from the rice fields to the burgeoning Georgetown timber industry for work. The majority of former slaves, it appears, remained on Waccamaw Neck. Here they could find ready food in the river and sea, and were among old friends and family. Too, the geographic isolation of the Neck may have reduced the travel incentive. Travel to Charleston, difficult and somewhat dangerous, required a boat and/or several ferry crossings (Lawson 1972:23; Genevieve Chandler Peterkin, personal communication, 1987; R.F.W. Allston Family Papers, South Caroliniana Library; see also the Freedmen's Bureau Reports for Georgetown County, South Carolina Department of Archives and History).

The blockade and occupation of Georgetown in 1862 threatened the plantation system. Union troops seized rice as contraband and set fire to rice fields as they went up the Waccamaw. Some planters continued trying to grow crops, but an estimated 75 percent of the county's plantation families moved to the interior of the state. The war was followed by successive crop failures in 1865, 1866, and 1867. Between 1860 and 1870, South Carolina's rice production fell nearly 73 percent. In Georgetown County, the 1879 crop was approximately 10 percent of the 1860 crop (Kovacik 1979:55). Financing next year's crop became a critical concern for planters who had traditionally depended on their factors for this service.

During this period, a number of things happened to land ownership: bankruptcies were common, the Freedmen's Bureau confiscated some lands and resettled former slaves on them, and other lands were sold at auction for nonpayment of loans or taxes. Companies such as Lachicotte and Sons and the Guendalos Company tried to profitably combine planting and rice milling to reduce operational costs. Efforts such as these managed to keep the rice industry alive until the turn of the century.

By the late 1800s Northern investors were buying up the old Waccamaw rice plantations. Having little, if any, interest in rice cultivation, many of these buyers used the plantations as game preserves for sport hunting. The loss of a stable and experienced work force, the competition from western rice lands, and finally the hurricanes of 1893, 1894, 1898, 1906, 1910, and 1911 that wrecked the dike system, ended the long history of rice production on the Georgetown rivers (Devereaux 1976:254-255; Lawson 1972:22-23, 409; Smith 1913:80). Elizabeth Allston Pringle of Chicora Wood wrote in 1906:

> I fear the storm drops a dramatic, I may say tragic, curtain on my career as a rice planter. The rice plantation, which for years gave me the exhilaration of making a good income myself, is a thing of the past now -- the banks and trunks have been washed away, and

there is no money to replace them (Rogers 1970:488-489).

Today most of the approximately forty plantations that dotted the Waccamaw have or are being developed into residential areas for permanent or seasonal residents and into commercial districts to service these developments.

Midway Plantation

The area containing 38GE377 was settled by the Pawley and Waites families in the 1730s through headright grants. This land was originally granted to Percival Pawley in 1711. William Waites, Jr. was also granted land in this area.

An 1829 plat (Figure 4) was located showing properties belonging to the late Dr. Robert Nesbit (Caledonia Plantation) and Mr. Thomas How. The plat shows the Midway main house complex, outbuildings, mill, and slave row, and the Caledonia slave row, but no structures are shown in the project area. Whatever buildings were located there, by 1829 no longer existed. While it could be argued that the structure was not significant enough to be drawn, archaeological information indicates a strong mid-eighteenth century component. How and when Nesbit and How acquired these properties is unknown, but the southern portion of the property shown on the plat (containing Midway plantation) was acquired by Thomas Pinckney Alston in the 1830s by an unknown means.

Alston sold the plantation to Judge Benjamin Fanueil Dunkin sometime later. Dunkin's legal career made him an absentee owner at Midway. The 1850 Agricultural Census indicates that Midway produced 560,000 pounds of rice. By 1860 the productivity of the rice crops decreased to 450,000. In that year Dunkin owned 135 slaves.

In 1845 a clubhouse was built at Midway Plantation for the Hot and Hot Fish Club. This club contained a race course, a billiard table, and a ten-pin alley. The principal reason for the club was to enjoy "good food, good wine, and good talk" (Rogers 1970:270). J. Motte Alston summarized their meetings succinctly:

> On Fridays ... [we] met at [a] club at Midway, where we had a Club-house, large dining room, billiard and ten pin alley. . . . Here was, in the long ago, the training course of some of the finest racers in Carolina. . . . We presided by turns, and each member brought his own dish or dishes, wines, etc. . . . Each member brought his servant; and when all the good things had been discussed, interwoven with some politics and lots of rice talk, and the table cleared of all save the bottles of old wine, the thrice told anecdotes . . . would enliven the scene till night began to throw her kind mantle over the happy members of the Hot and Hot Fish Club [Childs 1953:60].

A detailed description of the Midway main house complex was provided by Almira Coffin during her visit in 1851. This description corresponds well with and undated plat of the property (Figure 5). According to Coffin (Easterby 1944:130), the wharf was located on the river adjacent to the marsh. A passage led through the rice fields to the main house located on high ground. The main house was a square two-story structure with piazzas to the north and south. The avenue of oaks was ¼ mile long running from the house, east to the River Road. Mazes with hedges of cassens, wild orange, and box extended from the house and its attendant structures (e.g., library, smoke house, servants' quarters, dairy, well) towards the rice mill, vegetable fields, and a Negro village. These gardens were considered to represent one of the best examples of Romantic Colonial garden landscapes on the South Carolina coast (Lockwood 1931:230-231).

Dunkin purchased a home in Cheraw during the Civil War and remained there after the war ended. In 1865 he swore an oath of allegiance and applied for an

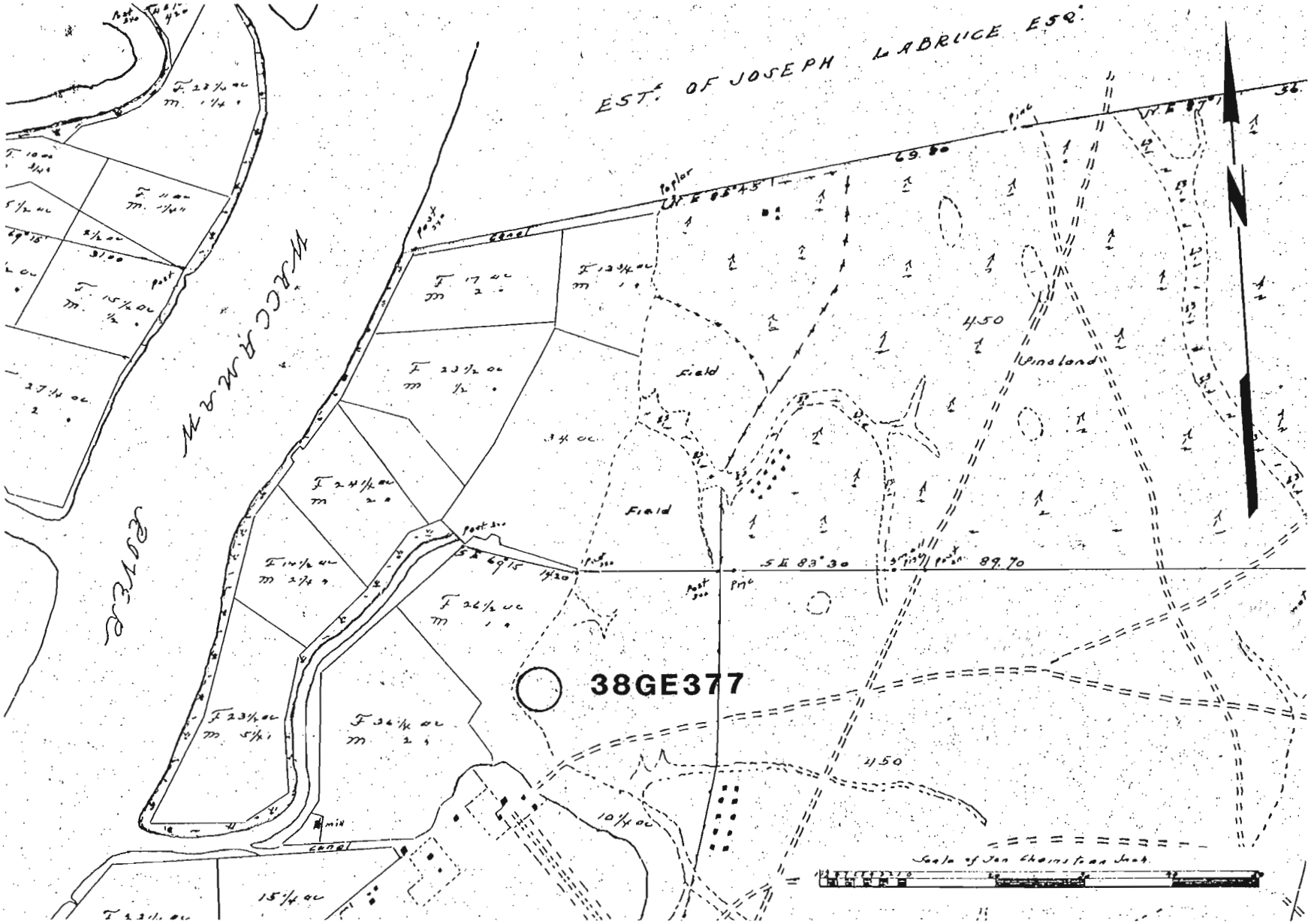

Figure 4. 1829 plat of property owned by the late Dr. Robert Nesbit and Thomas How.

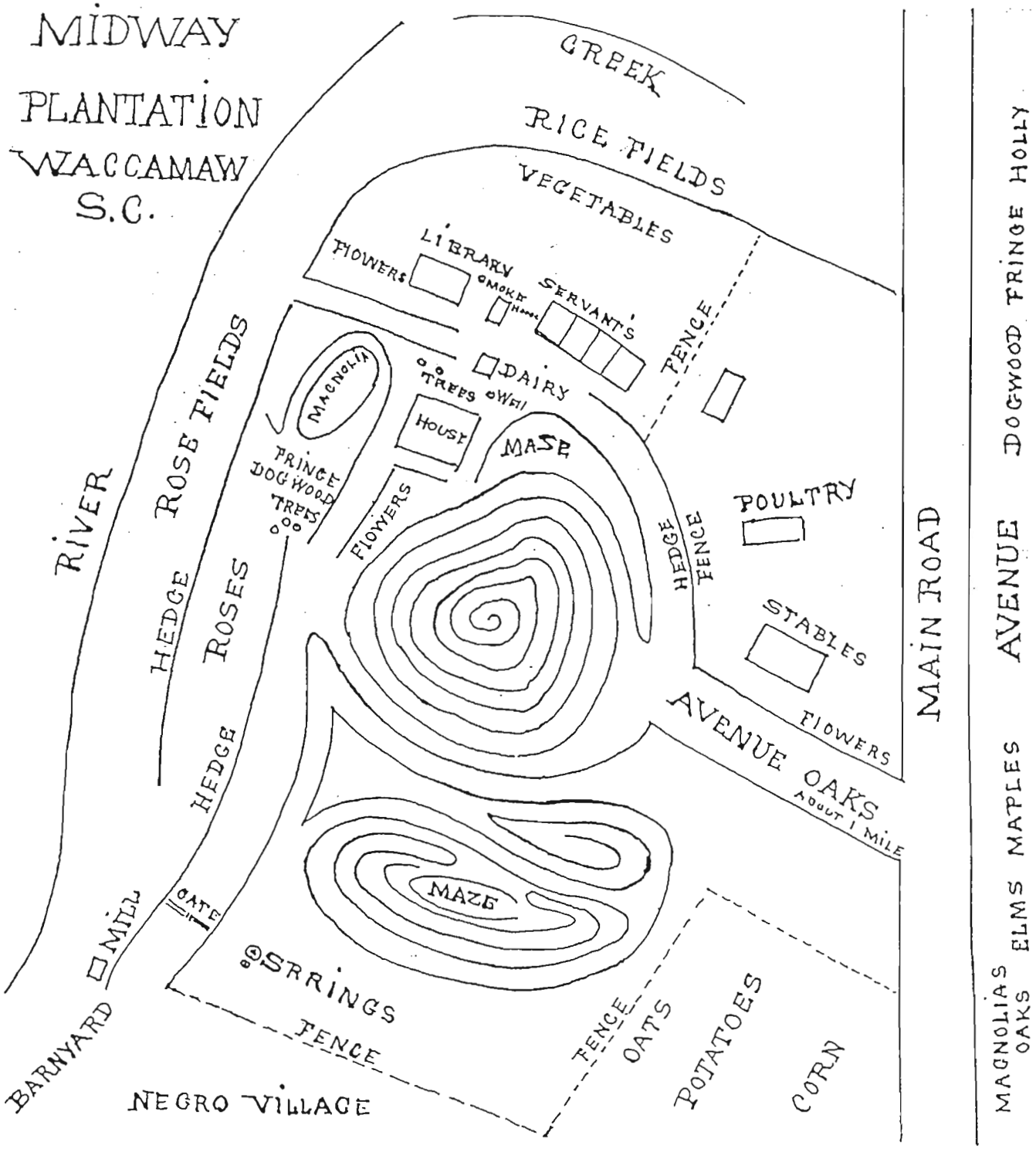

Figure 5. Map of Midway Plantation (undated and unscaled) from Alice Lockwood's *Gardens of Colony and State*.

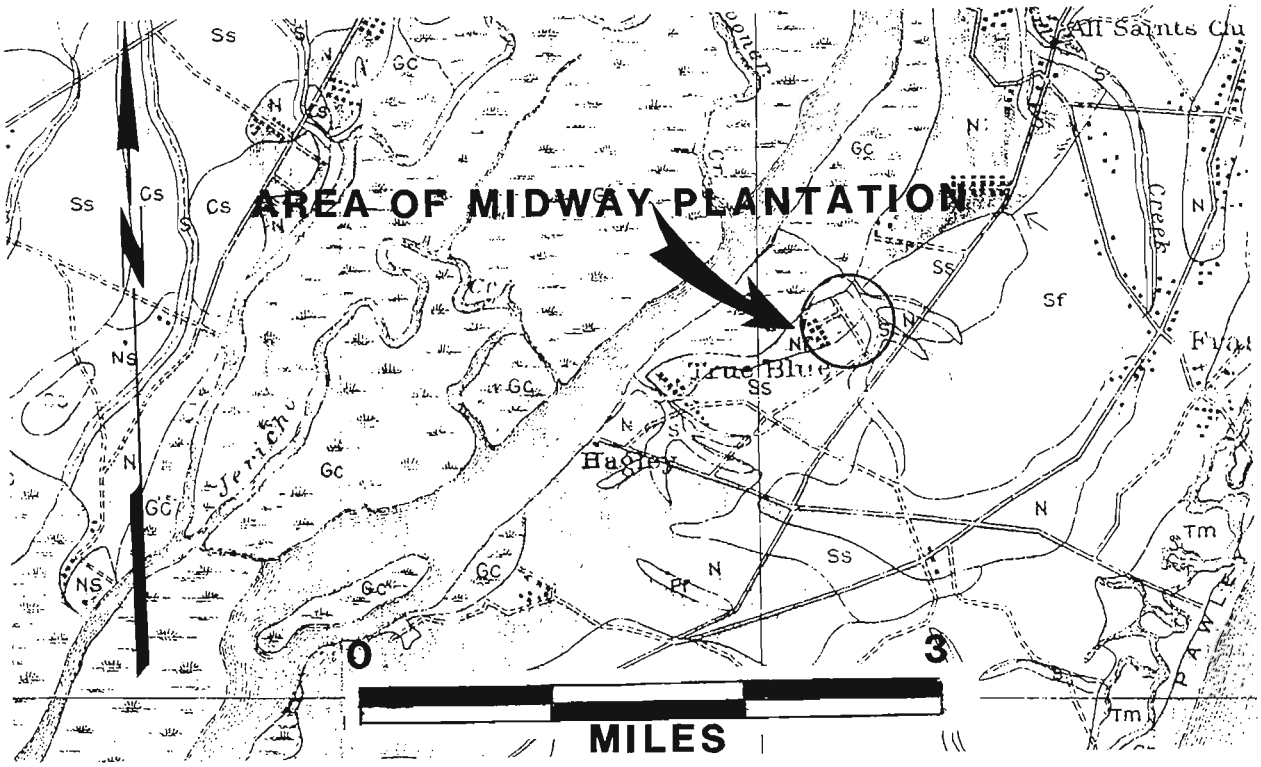

Figure 6. 1911 Georgetown County Soil Map.

individual pardon from the President. He also signed a contract with the freedmen at Midway in which he would provide subsistence until the first crops came in, and the freedmen would receive half of those crops (Rogers 1970:424).

The twentieth century history of Midway Plantation is sketchy, but a 1911 soil map shows a series of nine structures in the vicinity of Midway (Figure 6). These structures are arranged along two sides of a street (four and five) and probably represent a former slave row.

EXCAVATIONS

Research Strategy and Methods

As previously discussed, 38GE377 had been examined by Poplin in 1988. This initial work consisted of intensive shovel testing (46 shovel tests) and four 1 meter by 1 meter test units.

Based on this survey and testing, the South Carolina Historic Preservation Office made the decision that the southern portion of the site (which contained the densest prehistoric remains) should be examined through the excavation of 200 square feet of the site. In addition, the northern portion of the site would be intensively shovel tested at 20 foot intervals to determine if historic features were present. Based on the results of the shovel testing, it would be determined if additional excavations would be needed. If so, the site would be investigated with a 300 square foot excavation.

Archaeological investigations were begun at 38GE377 by a crew of four on January 11 and continued for eight days, until January 20, 1993. A total of 222 person hours were devoted to work at the site, while an additional four person hours were spent off site processing specimens during rain periods. As a result of this work, 875 square feet of site area were opened and 870 cubic feet of soil were moved in primary excavations, all screened through ¼-inch mesh.

Shovel Tests

A series of 78 shovel tests were excavated across the northern portion of the site at 20 foot intervals. It was in this area that Poplin (1988) had located a light historic scatter. The boundaries for this survey, established using Poplin's (1988) testing data, included an area 200 feet north-south and 160 feet east-west, located north of a drainage that bisects the site. All soil was screened using ¼-inch mesh and all cultural materials were collected except for brick, mortar, and shell, which were quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Field distribution maps of prehistoric and historic remains were then drawn to guide any further work in this portion of the site.

Only four historic artifacts, scattered evenly across the site, were located during this intensive shovel test survey. Prehistoric remains, surprisingly, were relatively dense, concentrating in four different areas (Figure 4). However, the purpose of these shovel tests was to locate historic concentrations and features to determine whether block excavations were needed to locate structures. Based on the shovel tests, no further work appeared necessary.

Excavations

The grid, established at N12°W, was tied into the southeast corner of a standing structure located just north of the site as well as a benchmark located along the northern edge of the 10th fairway of the Heritage Golf Course. Vertical control was maintained through the use of an assumed elevation datum (nail in the base of a tree) located in the southern site portion. This point was given an arbitrary elevation of 20 feet. The bench mark located in the 10th fairway was a railroad spike in the base of a tree with an assumed elevation of 24.16 feet based on the site's initial elevation datum.

A modified Chicago 10-foot grid was used, with each unit designated by its southeast corner, from a 100R100 point at the southwest edge of the site area. Thus, square 150R150 would be located with its southeast corner 50 feet north and

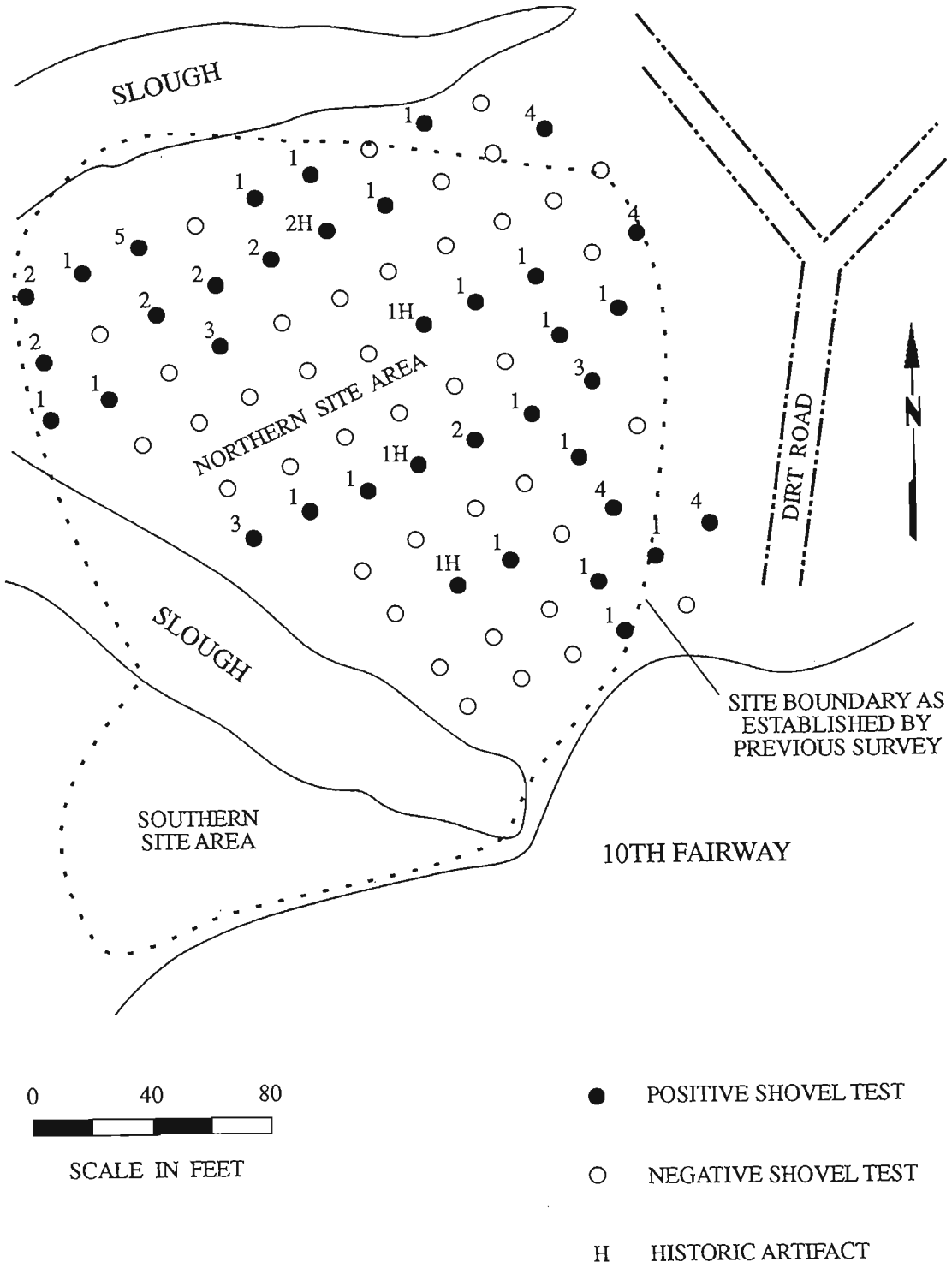

Figure 7. Artifact distribution from shovel testing northern site area based on Poplin's (1988) site map.

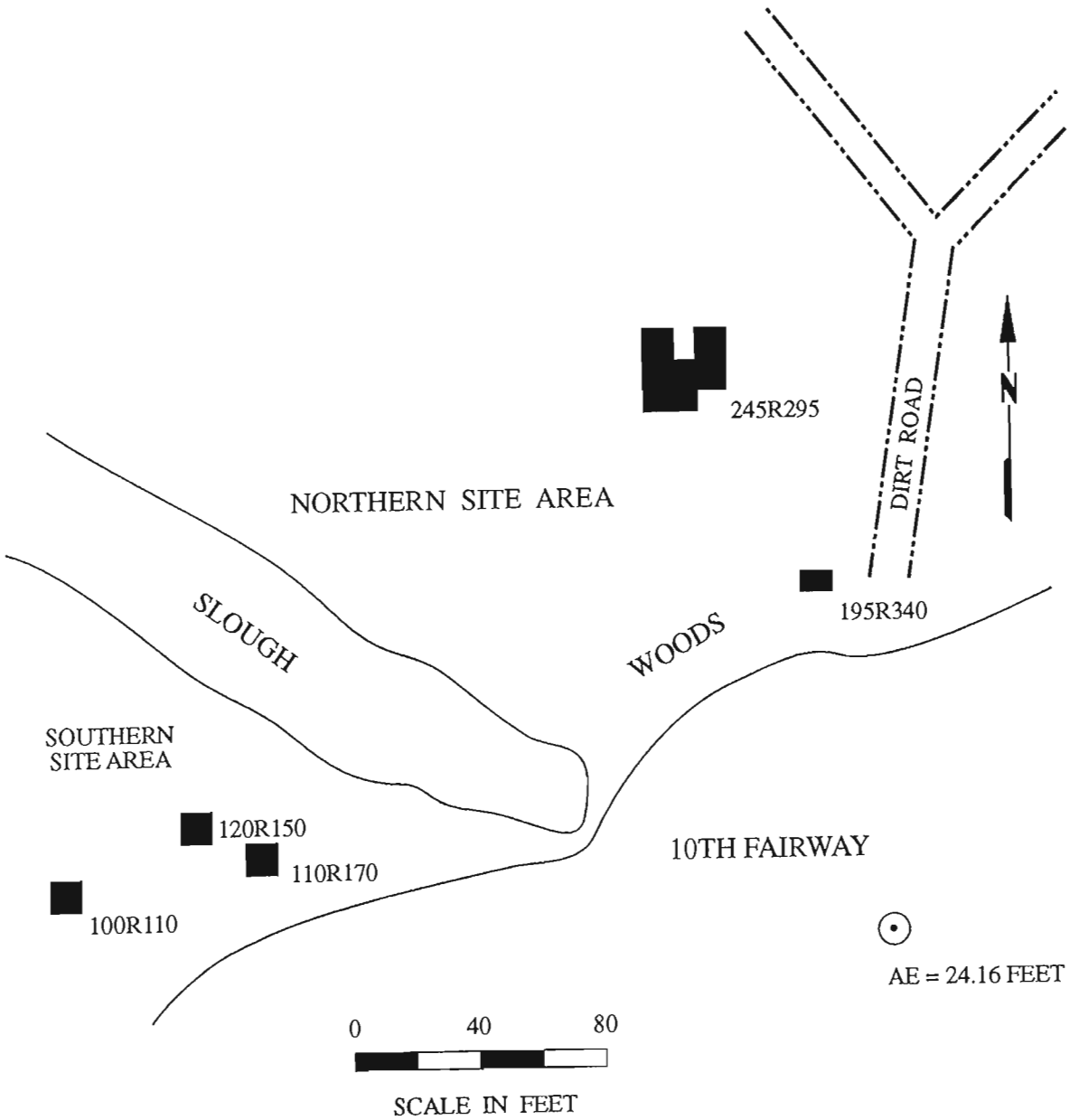

Figure 8. Location of excavations at 38GE377.

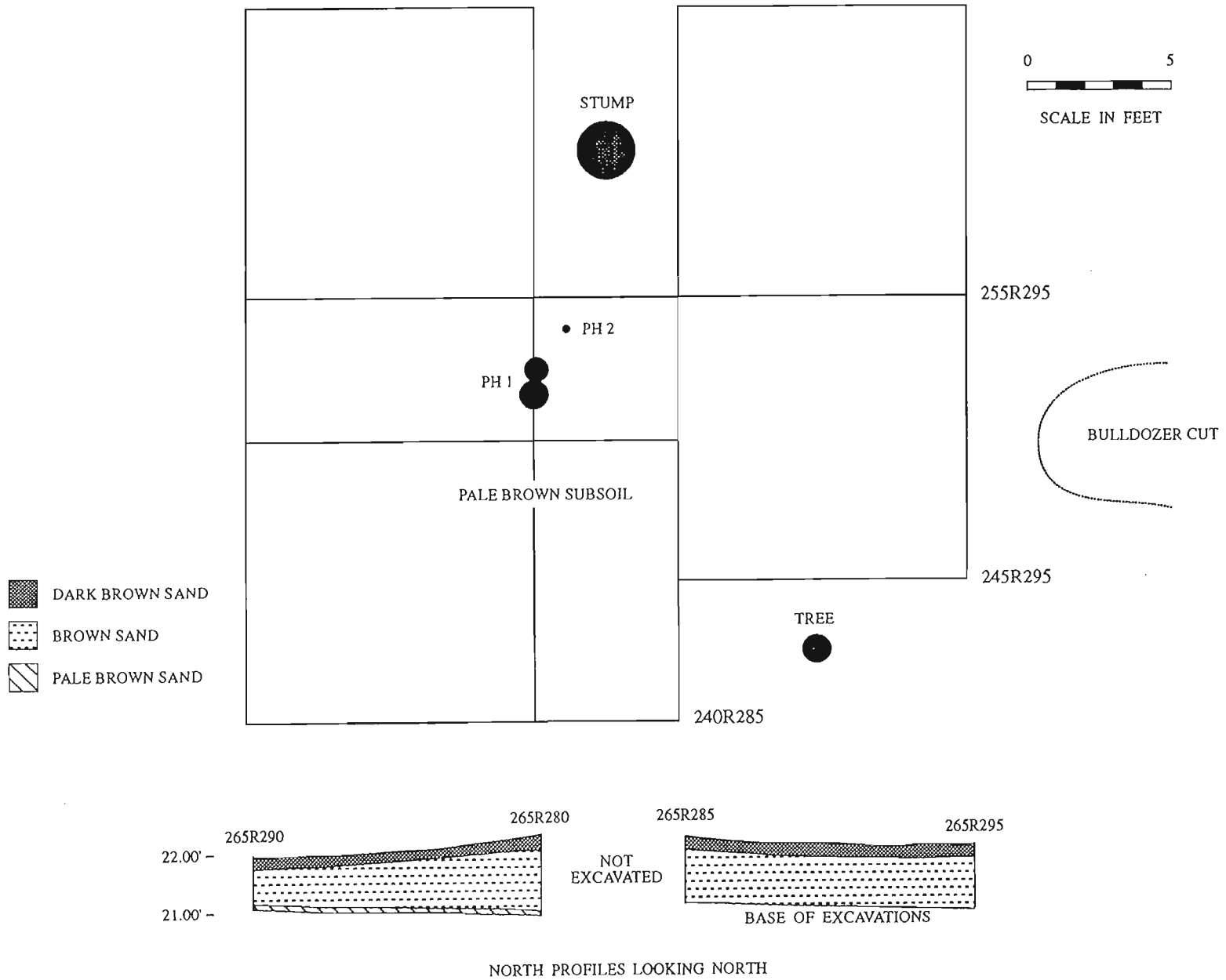

Figure 9. Plan of excavation units in north central portion of the site.

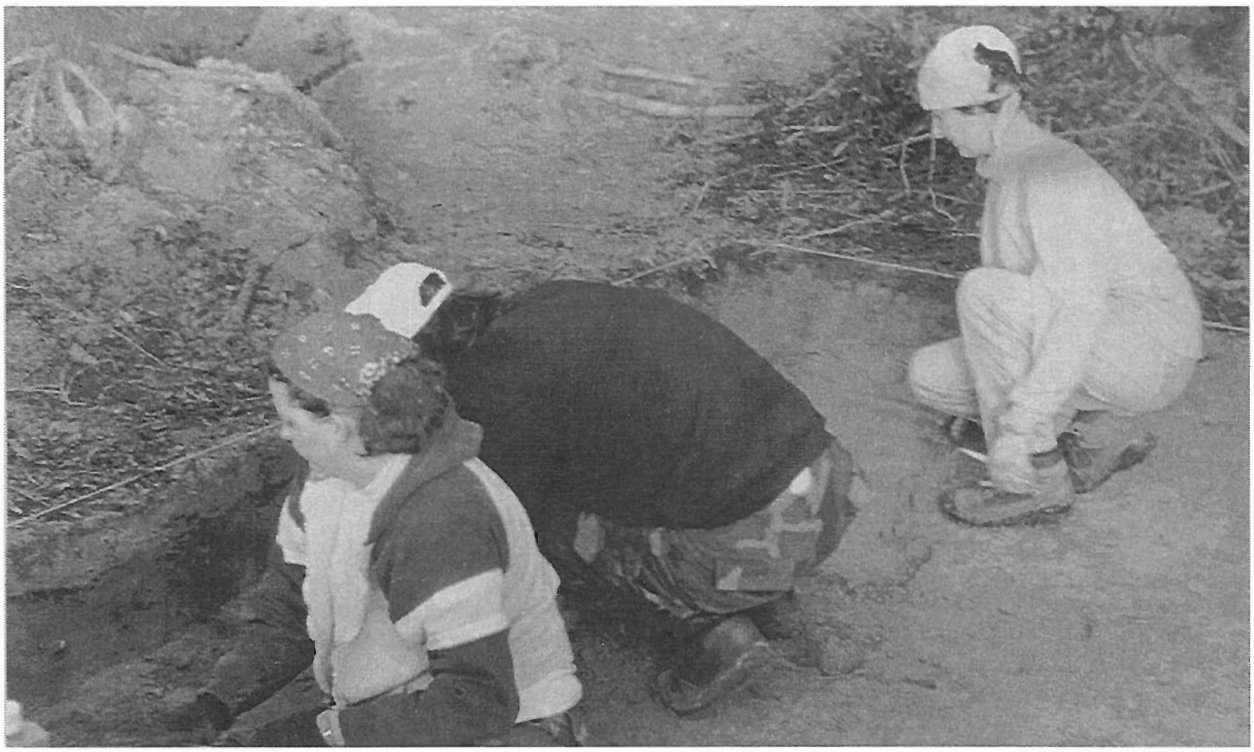

Figure 10. Troweling the base of unit 110R170, view to the northwest.

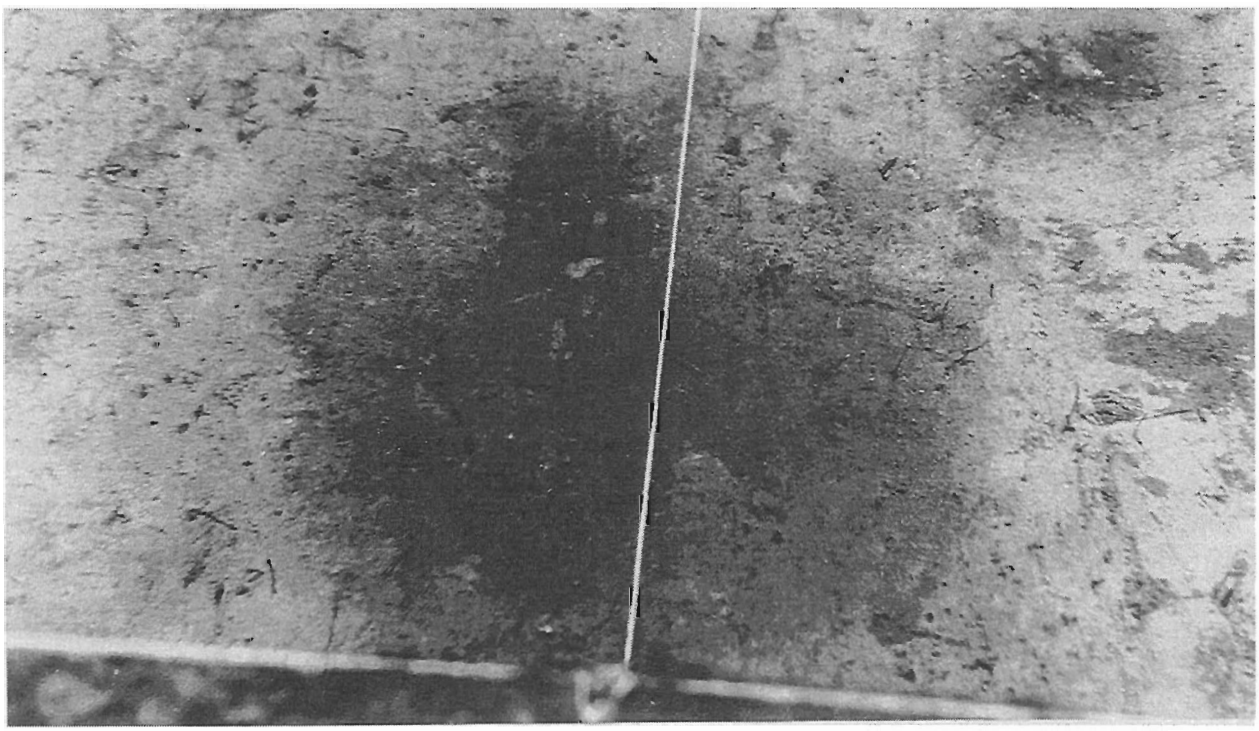

Figure 11. 250R280 and 250R285 showing Post Holes 1 and 2, north view.

50 feet right (or east) of the 100R100 point. Soil was screened through ¼ inch mesh using mechanical sifters or roller screens. Excavations were troweled at the base of the unit, photographed in black and white, and plotted. Post holes were bisected when possible, with soil samples collected. Bisected post holes were photographed, plotted, and profiled during their removal.

Field notes were prepared on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper and photographic material was processed to archival standards. All original field notes, with archival copies, will be curated at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. All specimens will also be evaluated for conservation needs and will be treated prior to curation.

Three 10 foot units (100R110, 110R170, and 120R150) were opened in the southern portion of the site where dense prehistoric remains were anticipated, based on the original survey (Figures 7 and 8). This area revealed a yellowish brown (10YR5/6) A horizon, about 0.6 to 1.1 feet in depth, overlying brownish yellow (10YR6/6) subsoil. Excavated as Zone 1, the A horizon contained a moderate amount of prehistoric remains and a very sparse quantity of historic artifacts including brick. Although no plowscars were noted in the subsoil, the artifacts were generally very small suggesting that some shallow plowing has taken place. Although 120R150 yielded the densest prehistoric remains found in this site area, no features were located in any of the excavations. The prehistoric artifacts were primarily pottery from the Deep Creek Series with minor amounts of Mount Pleasant, Thom's Creek, and Savannah wares.

Based on the field distribution map produced for the northern portion of the site (originally thought to be dominated by historic material), two areas were investigated for prehistoric remains. One five by ten foot unit was located in a high density area along the eastern boundary of the site at 195R340. Despite the shovel test findings, prehistoric artifacts were less dense than expected. Zone 1 at 195R340 extended to a depth of 1.2 feet and consisted of brown (10YR4/3) soil overlying brownish yellow (10YR6/6) subsoil. A heavily mottled area containing roots was found at the base of the unit, but no cultural features were located.

A series of seven units (four 10 by 10 foot, two 5 by 10 foot, and one 5 by 5 foot) was located in another area of high density prehistoric remains found in the north central portion of the site (see Figure 9). The first unit excavated, 250R280, revealed a portion of a historic foundation post that had been later replaced. Unit 250R285 uncovered the remaining portion of the post (post hole 1) as well as a smaller post (post hole 2) about one foot to the northeast (Figures 9 and 11). Upon excavation, both posts contained exclusively historic remains. Post hole 1 measured 1.4 by 1.8 feet and was squarish in shape. It had replaced an older post which was found slightly offset to the north. Post hole 1 extended to a depth of 1.1 feet below the base of Zone 1 and had a flat bottom. Post hole 2 was located approximately one foot northeast of post hole 1. It measured 0.6 by 0.6 feet and extended to a depth of 0.9 feet below the base of zone 1. This post was round in shape and its base was pointed.

Based on these findings of intact, subsurface architectural features, the S.C. SHPO archaeologist, Dr. Charlie Hall, and the project coordinator, Mr. Todd Ball, were consulted about extending the work for three additional days. Both groups concurred with the additional work. As a result, an additional 400 square feet (240R280, 245R295, 255R280, and 255R295) were excavated. One small stain was excavated in 255R280 which appears to have been a burned tree.

The entire 525 foot block area produced predominately prehistoric remains consistent with those found in the southern site area. The historic remains, however, included nails, pipe stems, bottle glass, delft, white salt glazed stoneware, porcelain, slipware, and Colono ware. The A horizon varied in depth from 0.9 to 1.2 feet and consisted of yellowish brown (10YR5/4) soil overlying brownish yellow (10YR6/6) or very pale brown (10YR7/4) subsoil.

ARTIFACT ANALYSIS

Introduction

The shovel tests and excavations at 38GE377 have produced 2,562 artifacts, with 2,325 (or 90.7%) associated with the prehistoric occupation of the site and 237 (or 9.3%) associated with the historic occupation of the site.

While the excavations at the site are somewhat diffuse (300 square feet in the south portion and 575 square feet in the north portion), these remains will be discussed together because of the temporal and functional uniformity of the two components across the site.

Laboratory and Analysis Methods

The cleaning of artifacts was begun on Pawley's Island during the field work and completed in Columbia. Cataloging of the specimens was conducted at the Chicora laboratories in Columbia in March 1993. All artifacts were wet cleaned, at which time they were evaluated for conservation needs.

As previously discussed, the materials have been accepted for curation by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology and have been cataloged using that institution's accessioning practices. Specimens were packed in plastic bags and boxed. Field notes were prepared on pH neutral, alkaline buffered paper and photographic materials were processed to archival standards. All original field notes, with archival copies, are also curated with this facility. At the present time all artifacts are stable and no conservation treatments have been undertaken.

The prehistoric ceramics have been analyzed using common coastal Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina typologies (DePratter 1979; Phelps 1983; Trinkley 1983a). Projectile points have been analyzed using typologies provided by Coe (1964) and South (1960a). The temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of the historic remains follow Noel Hume (1970), Miller (1980, 1991), Price (1979), and South (1977). Historic artifacts are classified using South's (1977) artifact groups (e.g. kitchen, architecture, etc.). One modification of South's original classificatory scheme has been incorporated into this analysis. Following the lead of Garrow (1982:57-66), Colonowares will be discussed with (and tabulated in) the Kitchen Artifact Group.

Prehistoric Remains

Pottery consisted of the majority of artifacts recovered at 38GE377. A total of 2,310 sherds were collected from the excavations. Of these 332 (14.4%) are over 1-inch in diameter and have been examined in this study. Essentially four series have been identified from the work at this site: Thom's Creek, Deep Creek, Mount Pleasant, and Savannah, although the Thom's Creek and Savannah wares are very minor components. They account for 13 (or 3.9%) and 3 (or 0.9%) respectively. All Thom's Creek sherds were undecorated. The Savannah pottery consisted of two undecorated sherds and one check stamped sherd. In addition, nine (or 2.7%) sherds were unidentifiable.

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston a somewhat different cultural manifestation than the Deptford wares is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This assemblage, termed Deep Creek, was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983) with a type description for South Carolina wares based on materials recovered from the nearby Willbrook Plantation (Trinkley 1987). The Deep Creek

assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. It strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally (Trinkley 1990a:16). Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery described by South (1960a).

Deep Creek wares (n=273) account for 82.2% of the identifiable collection at 38GE377. They include undecorated (n=101), cord marked (n=64), fabric impressed (n=40), check stamped (n=47), and unidentifiable (n=21) sherds.

The Mount Pleasant series has been developed by Phelps from work along the northeastern North Carolina coast (Phelps 1983, 1984). This pottery is a refinement of South's (1960a) 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.

Mount Pleasant pottery (n=34) account for 10.2% of the collection. They include undecorated (n=19), cord marked (n=14), and fabric impressed (n=1) wares.

Only one other clay artifact was recovered at 38GE377. It consisted of a Savannah Plain hone. The honing surface is approximately nine millimeters wide, four millimeters deep, and 43 millimeters long. This item was used for sharpening hard, rounded objects such as bone awls or needles.

Twenty-five lithic specimens were recovered from the excavations at 38GE377. These include one chunk of Coastal Plain chert, one felsic tuff tertiary flake, three orthoquarzite tertiary flakes, one orthoquarzite chunk, four quartz tertiary flakes, eight porphyritic rhyolite tertiary flakes, two porphyritic rhyolite chunks, one porphyritic rhyolite triangular point (probably Caraway), two banded rhyolite tertiary flakes, and two banded rhyolite projectile points (probably Clarksville and Roanoke) (see Coe 1964; South 1960a). None of these projectile points were complete and their widths and lengths are estimated in Table 1. Roanoke projectile points are generally associated with the Late Woodland Period and have been found associated with material which dated A.D. 916 (Coe 1964:108). Both Caraway and Clarksville points have been found in Late Woodland/Protohistoric contexts (Coe 1964). These points generally post date the major occupation of 38GE377. It is possible that these points are associated with the small Mt. Pleasant and Savannah components found at the site.

Table 1.
Projectile points from 38GE377

Type	Material	Estimated Width	Length	Thickness
Clarksville	banded rhyolite	15.3mm	18.1mm	1.6mm
Roanoke	banded rhyolite	21.0mm	30.0mm	8.0mm
Caraway	porphyritic rhyolite	15.3mm	35.5mm	5.8mm

This meager lithic assemblage is typical of the Middle to Late Woodland sites examined along the coast. The presence of only 25 lithic specimens from the site consisting of tertiary flakes and small lithic chunks) supports the finishing of quarry blades or preforms, rather than tool resharpening or initial reduction activities.

It appears that rhyolite was the preferred lithic material since banded and porphoritic rhyolite consisted of 60% (n=15) of the collection. All lithics were scattered uniformly across the site (see Table 4).

Historic Remains

Previous Investigations

Before discussing the historic remains recovered in the current investigations, the artifacts recovered by Poplin (1988) will be listed and discussed. The artifacts included three delftwares, one annular whiteware, one yellow ware, five dark green bottle glass, two light green bottle glass, 34 unidentified nails, 15 unidentified metal, one pipe stem, and four pipe bowls. Possible colonoware sherds were not counted with the historic remains. Poplin (1988:59) did however state that one burnished sherd had been found which may be Colonoware. As a result, no artifact pattern could be obtained since a clear understanding of the contribution of Colonoware to the assemblage could not be obtained. The mean ceramic date for the ceramic assemblage is 1811.5. Although three delfts were counted in the catalog, only two were used in the mean ceramic dating of the site (Poplin 1988:139). The addition of the one delft moves the date back to 1799.2. Another discrepancy noted was the mention of two delft sherds found in shovel tests in addition to "several delftware fragments" found in TU2 (Poplin 1988:59). This suggests that more than three delft sherds were recovered from 38GE377. Later on page 62, Poplin states that only one delft sherd was recovered from TUs 2,3, and 4. Based on these discrepancies and the sparsity of datable sherds, the 1811 mean ceramic date is probably not accurate.

According to Poplin (1988:57) the historic remains were scattered across the site. Although, it was impossible to determine which provenience number corresponded to individual shovel tests, artifact counts could be obtained for the test units. Based on their inventory, TU1 contained 10 historic artifacts, TU2 contained 30 historic artifacts, TU3 contained one historic artifact, and TU4 contained one historic artifact. TU2, which contained the largest amount of historic artifacts, is located in the west central portion of the site in an area near the eastern boundary of the site, south of 195R340 in the current investigations. Interestingly, comparatively few artifacts were recovered from this unit.

Current Investigations

The historic assemblage from 38GE377 consists of 237 artifacts. The diversity is low and the artifact pattern at the site marginally falls into the Carolina Slave Pattern (Wheaton et al. 1983). Ceramics dominate the collection with a small collection of architectural, clothing, arms and tobacco related artifacts.

These remains consist of 29 European ceramics including five underglazed blue porcelains, one westerwald, five white salt glazed stonewares, eight yellow combed slipware, four blue decorated delft, two undecorated delft, one brown tortoise ware, two yellow lead glazed redware, and one burnt gray salt glazed stoneware. In addition to these ceramics, 62 Colonowares and 49 Catawba wares were recovered. The characteristics used to differentiate the two wares have been provided by Wheaton et al. (1983:229). Colonowares are generally 7 millimeters or more in thickness. The paste contains water-washed sands varying in size and the surface ranges from crudely smoothed to polished. Catawba wares are thin, averaging 5 millimeters in thickness. The paste contains fine non-plastics and is usually highly polished. The Colonoware/Catawba category make up 78.9% of the ceramic collection. Bottle glass consists of 32 fragments of black glass, one fragment of burnt black glass, and one piece of aqua glass.

Architectural items consisted of one piece of window glass, two black glazed redware roofing tile fragments, one 9d cut nail, one cut nail fragment, two 8d wrought nails, 21 wrought nail fragments, and 10 unidentifiable nail fragments.

Other artifacts consisted of one gray gun flint fragment, nine 5/64 inch

Table 2.
Mean Ceramic Date for 38GE377

Ceramic	Mean Date (xi)	fi	fi x xi
Underglazed blue porcelain	1730	5	8650
Westerwald	1738	1	1738
White salt glazed stoneware	1758	5	8690
Lead glazed slipware	1733	8	13864
Decorated Delft	1750	4	7000
Plain Delft	1720	2	3440
Total		25	43383

MCD = 43382 ÷ 25 = 1735.3

bore pipestems, four 6/64 inch bore pipestems, 10 pipe bowls, and one iron buckle. The pipe bowls and stems are all undecorated/unmarked white kaolin clay. The iron buckle measures 1" x 1" and is square in shape. Based on its size, it may have served as a harness buckle.

Four ceramics were undatable. The tortoise ware example was too small for a positive identification, although it may be Wheildon ware (MCD=1755). Two yellow lead glazed redware were not included in the mean ceramic date because redwares have a very long span of manufacture. This makes redwares poor temporal indicators (Lasansky 1979). One gray salt glazed stoneware was not further classified since it was burnt. The mean ceramic date (e.g., South 1977) for the collection (Table 2) is 1735 with the most common datable ceramic being yellow combed slipware. This early date is surprising when compared to Poplin's (1988:62) mean ceramic date of 1811.5. While the reason for the difference isn't readily clear, it may be due to our concentrated efforts in one area of the northern portion of the site. However, it seems that some of these later ceramics would have been recovered during shovel testing. Regardless, this difference in mean dates can not be explained.

Colonoware ceramics dominate the ceramic assemblage by far, accounting for 78.9% (n=109) of the collection. Brick and mortar were very sparse across the site and consisted of negligible weights in each excavation unit. Very little shell was found during the excavations and consisted of clam, mussel, and oyster scattered uniformly across the site. One notched clam shell (see Figure 12) was recovered. Although it is unknown whether it is associated with the prehistoric or historic occupation, the acidity of the soils are not likely to preserve shell for very long. Therefore, this example may relate to the historic occupation of the site.

Table 3.
Artifact Patterns from 38GE377, 38GE337,
and the Carolina Slave Pattern.

Artifact Group	38GE377	38GE337	Carolina Slave Pattern
Kitchen Group	73.2%	77.7%	70.9 - 84.2%
Architecture Group	16.2%	19.4%	11.8 - 24.8%
Furniture Group	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Arms Group	0.4%	0.0%	0.3 - 0.3%
Tobacco Group	9.8%	2.8%	2.4 - 5.4%
Clothing Group	0.4%	0.0%	0.3 - 0.8%
Personal Group	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
Activities Group	0.0%	0.0%	0.2 - 0.9%

As stated earlier, the site exhibits an artifact pattern which marginally falls within the Carolina Slave Pattern (Wheaton et al. 1983). Table 3 compares 38GE377 to the Carolina Slave Pattern and 38GE337 (Trinkley 1987), a site with a similar archaeological profile from neighboring Willbrook Plantation. Site 38GE337 yielded a mean ceramic date of 1759.9, dating to the mid eighteenth century, as does 38GE377. While 38GE337 was only shovel tested, its relative isolation and location along the marsh edge (like 38GE377) seems to suggest that both site functioned similarly.

The identification of historic period post holes at 38GE377 with supports in excess of 10 feet, suggests that this area once contained a barn or other large utility building. Alternatively, the configuration of our units may not have allowed the discovery of closer structural posts (indicating a domestic dwelling). The building which existed in that area was probably no longer standing by the time that the 1829 plat was made. While the surveyor may have failed to draw the structure in, the types of ceramics recovered from excavations clearly indicates an eighteenth century date for 38GE377.

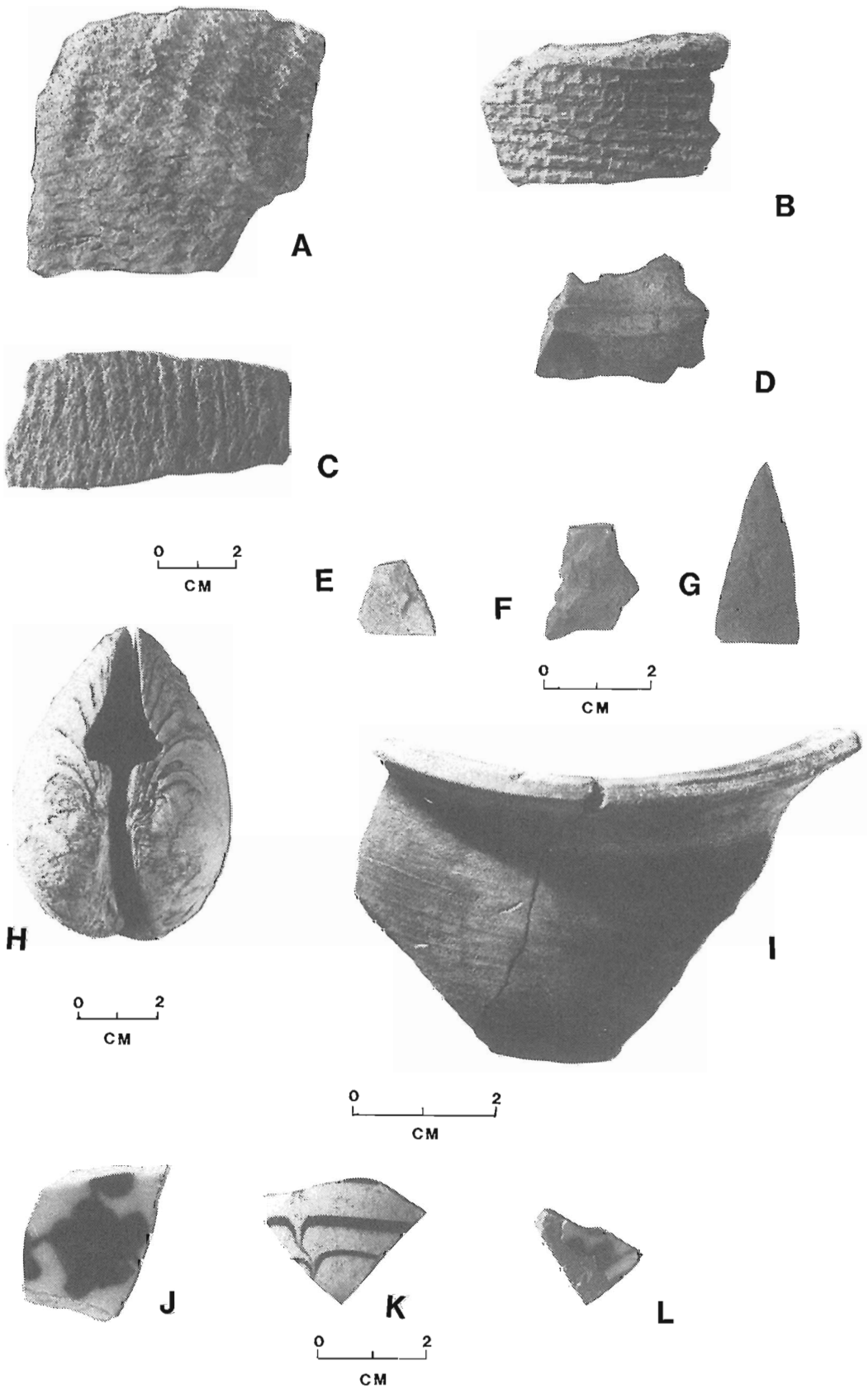

Figure 12. Artifacts from 38GE377. A) Deep Creek Fabric Impressed; B) Deep Creek Check Stamped; C) Deep Creek Cord Marked; D) Savannah Hone; E) Clarksville CSPP; F) Roanoke CSPP; G) Caraway CSPP; H) Notched Clam Shell; I) Colonoware; J) Underglazed porcelain; K) Yellow Combed Slipware; L) Blue Decorated Delft.

Table 4.
Recovered Prehistoric Materials

	TC	Deep Creek					Mt. Pleasant				Savannah						
	PL	CM	FI	CS	PL	UID	CM	FI	CS	PL	CS	PL	UID	SMALL	HO	LITHICS*	PPs
Shovel tests		2	3	4	1								3	41		3	
100R110, z. 1		9		9	6	3					1	1		74	1		
110R170, z. 1	1	7		1	13	11						1		112		3	
120R150, z. 1		17	3	13	11	5								233		3	2
195R340, z. 1	3	6		2		1								83		3	1
240R280, z. 1		11	9	1	11		1			4			3	278		2	
240R285, z. 1	9	2	9	2	6	1							1	153			
245R295, z. 1		7	8	4	14					2				380		1	
250R280, z. 1			5	2	6		2							191		2	
250R285, z. 1			2		6		1							62			
255R280, z. 1		3		9	15		8	1		2			2	185		3	
255R295, z. 1			1		11		2			11				186		1	
Post hole 1					1												
Post hole 2																	
TOTALS	13	64	40	47	101	21	14	1		19	1	2	9	1978	1	21	3

CM=Cord Marked, FI=Fabric Impressed, CS=Check Stamped, PL=Plain, UID=Unidentifiable, SMALL=Small Sherds, HO=hone, PPs=projectile points. * Lithics include tertiary flakes and raw material chunks; see discussion on page 32 for more information.

Table 5.
Recovered Historic Materials

	Ceramics																				
	Porc.	West.	WSGSW	LGSW	DD	UD	LGRW	GSGSW	TORT.	CO.	CT.	BG	WG	TILES	CUT	WRT	UID	GF	PS	PB	BK
Shovel Tests												2					1		1		
100R110, z. 1				1					1			1									
110R170, z. 1	1											2					2	1		1	
120R150, z. 1	2											1			1	4	1		2	1	
195R340, z. 1		1		1	1					3		1				2			1		
240R280, z. 1				1	1					11	3	1					2		1		
240R285, z. 1										5	1	2	1								
245R295, z. 1			1	2	1	1	2			16	9	6		2	1	2	4		2	4	
250R280, z. 1	1		2	1						16	2	4				4			2	2	
250R285, z. 1	1		1								25	1				2			1		
255R280, z. 1				1	1					1		7				7			2	2	1
255R295, z. 1			1	1		1		1		7	3	4									
Post hole 1										1	6	2				2			1		
Post hole 2										2											
TOTALS	5	1	5	8	4	2	2	1	1	62	49	34	1	2	2	23	10	1	13	10	1

Porc.=Porcelain, West.=Westerwald, WSGSW=White salt glazed stoneware, LGSW=Lead glazed slipware, DD=Decorated Delft, UD=Undec. Delft, LGRW=Lead glazed redware, GSGSW=Gray salt glazed stoneware, TORT.=Tortoise shell, CO.=Colonoware, CT=Catawba, BG=Bottle glass, WG=Window glass, CUT=Cut nails, WRT=wrought nails, UID=unident. nails, GF=Gunflint, PS=Pipestems, PB=Pipe bowls, BK=Buckles.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Excavations at 38GE377 yielded a moderate amount of Deep Creek Series pottery. While Poplin (1988) believed that the densest portion of the prehistoric component was located in the southern portion of the site, the current investigations revealed that artifacts were somewhat uniformly scattered across the site. In addition to pottery, a small amount of lithics and one Savannah sherd hone was recovered. No subsurface features associated with the prehistoric remains were encountered. Based on the lack of artifact diversity and the lack of features, this site probably functioned as a camp area that was often revisited. Its location near Duncan Creek probably made it an attractive spot.

Although a relatively small collection of lithics were recovered from these excavations, a wide variety of raw materials are present: coastal plain chert, orthoquartzite, quartz, felsic tuff, porphyritic rhyolite, and banded rhyolite. The absence of suitable raw materials in the Waccamaw Neck area makes all of these raw materials exotic and/or extralocal. The chert is most likely from the Allendale area, the orthoquartzite from the Santee River drainage, and the tuff and rhyolites from either piedmont or upper coastal plain drainages, such as the Pee Dee.

Novick has previously argued for an embedded lithic procurement strategy, with the native groups collecting raw materials as part of a normal round, perhaps related to subsistence (Novick 1982:144-146). She emphasizes that:

> Quarry sites, therefore, may be locations regularly and comfortably intersected in a pattern of (scheduled) group mobility, rather than sources (laboriously) resorted to through necessity (Novick 1982:144).

Significantly, all of the suspected raw material source locations are typically accessible through water travel, making access more convenient and further supporting this interpretation. Obviously, it is difficult using this small assemblage to dramatically expand on the previous research. It seems plausible, however, that the Early to Middle Woodland hunter and gather populations examined at 38GE377 participated in rounds which naturally incorporated a tremendous variety of raw materials -- all of which occur in areas of considerable ecological diversity. The presence of chert, a raw material that is furthest removed from the Waccamaw Neck, may represent a trading, rather than embedded, activity.

It was noted that a large portion of the recovered ceramics were very small. In fact, 85.1% of the prehistoric sherds were less than one inch in size. Although no plowscars were encountered, the site was probably plowed sometime in the eighteenth or nineteenth century by mule plowing which is not as deep as modern plowing. Plowing, along with site revisitation, explains the dispersion of artifacts.

Very little shell was found although the site is located immediately adjacent to the marsh edge. Regrettably, no features were identified which might tie the collection of shellfish to the prehistoric occupation of the site. Since the acidic and highly permeable soils in the site area do not preserve shell for very long, it is reasonable to believe that the majority of shell present is related to the historic, rather than the prehistoric, use of the site. Since little shell exists to neutralize the soil acidity, any faunal material which might have been deposited was not preserved.

While shellfish collection at nearby tidal creeks cannot be ruled out,

there is also no convincing evidence that shellfish played a significant part in the subsistence strategy. Collection of either floral materials, mammals, or even fish may have been of equal, or greater, importance. Unfortunately these resources, too, cannot be documented at this site. The presence of the lithic assemblage, however, offers indirect evidence that 38GE377 represented *one part* of the late Early Woodland to early Middle Woodland subsistence round.

The presence of a thin scatter of pottery over a wide area, with no clear evidence for concentrations, tends to support the presence of multiple occupations probably by relatively small bands. It is likely that the same plowing which reduced the size of the pottery present, and further dispersed it over the site area, also destroyed any vestiges of architectural features. A lean-to, or chickee structure (both post and beam constructions) could have been built using relatively small timbers, shallowly set in the sandy soils of the Waccamaw Neck. It is reasonable to expect that dwellings at a site such as 38GE377 were not viewed by their makers as articles of permanent craftsmanship. The apparent absence of features, however, may be more related the site function (temporary camp), then to the forces of modern plowing.

Historic remains in the northern portion of 38GE377 were sparse indicating that the site was either only briefly used or was used for activities which produced low densities of refuse. Interestingly, the historic ceramics produced a mean ceramic date of 1735 which is very different from Poplin's (1988) date of 1811. This difference can not be readily explained, but may be due to the concentration of efforts in the north central portion of the site.

Two historic posts were encountered during these investigations. One consisted of a large square post hole that had been later replaced. The second post hole was much smaller, and based on its size, probably did not function as a support post. Despite the excavation of 525 square feet in the vicinity of these posts, no additional posts were found.

Based on the artifact assemblage from the structure alone, it probably functioned as an isolated slave house. Unfortunately, insufficient architectural information was obtained to further support this statement. The fact that only 16.2% of the remains were architectural suggests that the structure was insubstantial.

An 1829 plat of Midway Plantation (Figure 4) shows no structures in the vicinity of 38GE377. While it may be that the surveyor did not think that the structure was significant enough to include, it is more likely that it did not exist at this time. Given the mean date of 1735, the structure was probably either abandoned or dismantled by the late eighteenth century.

A similar site (38GE337) was located at nearby Willbrook Plantation. Although the Colonoware count was low, the site was isolated, contained a low density of remains, and had a similar artifact pattern. It may be useful to quote from the original survey:

> While the assemblage is spartan, it suggests a domestic site with some kind of permanent architecture. The low density, however, suggests a single, small occupation and the site's proximity to the canal may be related to its function. The Mean Ceramic Date is 1759.9 . . . . This site dates from the early period of Allston ownership when the three tracts [Willbrook, Oatland, and Turkey Hill] where united under one owner. The absence of a greater quantity of Colono ware tends to suggest something other than a slave dwelling, although the data are insufficient to offer any explanations for the site's existence or function.
>
> The shovel tests, not surprisingly, failed to identify any subsurface features, although they also failed to find evidence of

disturbance (Trinkley 1987:127).

Materials recovered from the site included 15 ceramics (porcelain, white saltglazed stoneware, lead glazed slipware, delft, and creamware), three Colonoware sherds, 10 fragments of glass containers, two nails, five fragments of window glass, and one tobacco pipe stem -- an assemblage similar to 38GE377.

While no function could be assigned to the Willbrook site, its similarity to 38GE377 indicates that it, too, was probably an isolated slave house. Unfortunately, the ephemeral nature of such sites often causes them to be overlooked. Care should be taken that these sites do not go unnoticed and unexplored. As Brooker and Trinkley (1991) have noted, much of our reconstruction of past lifeways will be simplistic if we fail to explore the entire plantation context. Often these isolated dwellings were located at vital locations, such as near the rice fields where the occupant could ward off the rice birds or other harmful creatures. Individuals occupying these areas were probably trusted slaves who did not need to be under the "watchful eye" of the overseer. It is important that these areas be compared to contemporaneous slave rows where material goods can be compared to better understand slave hierarchy and diversity.

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