

Cultural Resources Survey
Beasley Tract
Richland County, South Carolina
S&ME Project No. 22610625A

PREPARED FOR

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PREPARED BY:

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

March 2023



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Management Summary

On behalf of Thomas & Hutton, S&ME, Inc. (S&ME) has completed a cultural resources survey of the proposed approximately 288-acre project area associated with the Beasley Tract in Richland County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located west of Interstate 77, approximately 1.72 miles southwest of Blythewood, South Carolina.

The purpose of the survey was to assess the project area's potential for containing significant cultural resources and to make recommendations regarding additional work that may be required pursuant to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, and other pertinent federal, state, or local laws. This work was done in anticipation of federal permitting and was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 22610625A, dated January 31, 2023, and email scope of work dated March 15, 2023.

A reconnaissance survey was completed on March 6, 2023. This work included the excavation of 75 shovel tests (59 shovel tests and 16 radials) in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites, as well as an architectural survey. As a result of the reconnaissance, two archaeological sites (38RD1529 and 38RD1530) were identified and recorded and one previously recorded above ground resource (State Historic Preservation Office [SHPO] Number 7624) was revisited during the investigation (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). In addition to the resources identified, approximately 90.2-acres of the 288-acre project area were considered high probability for containing significant archaeological resources and recommended for Phase I investigation.

A Phase I archaeological survey was conducted from March 20–24, 2023, on the 90.2 acres recommended for the Phase I survey. As a result of the intensive survey, archaeological site 38RD1530 was revisited and the boundaries were expanded (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). No additional archaeological sites were identified during the intensive survey.

The two archaeological sites and the previously recorded above ground resource are recommended not eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). Based on the results of the cultural resources survey it is S&ME's opinion that no additional cultural resource investigations should be necessary for the project area as currently proposed.

Table 1.1. Cultural resources identified/revisited during the survey.

Resource	Description	NRHP Eligibility	Recommendation
38RD1529	Prehistoric lithic scatter	Not Eligible	No Further Work
38RD1530	Late Archaic lithic scatter;19th/20th century house site	Not Eligible	No Further Work
7624	Locklier Road	Not Eligible	No Further Work

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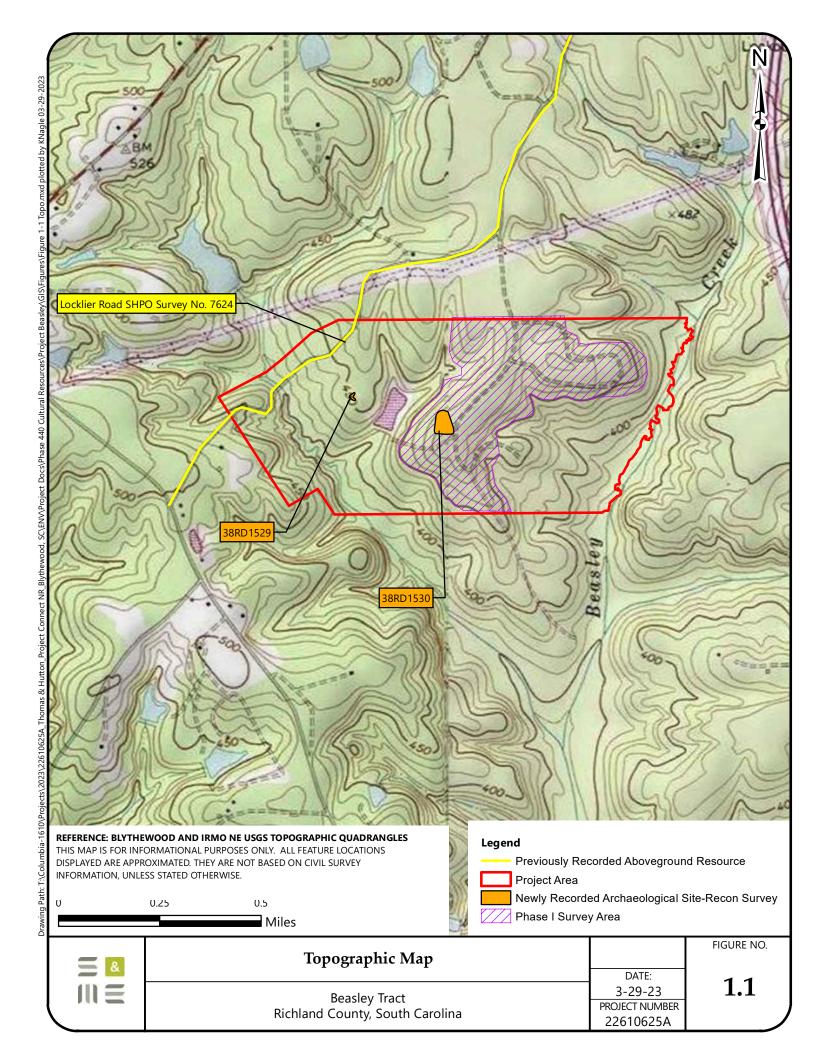
1.0 Introduction

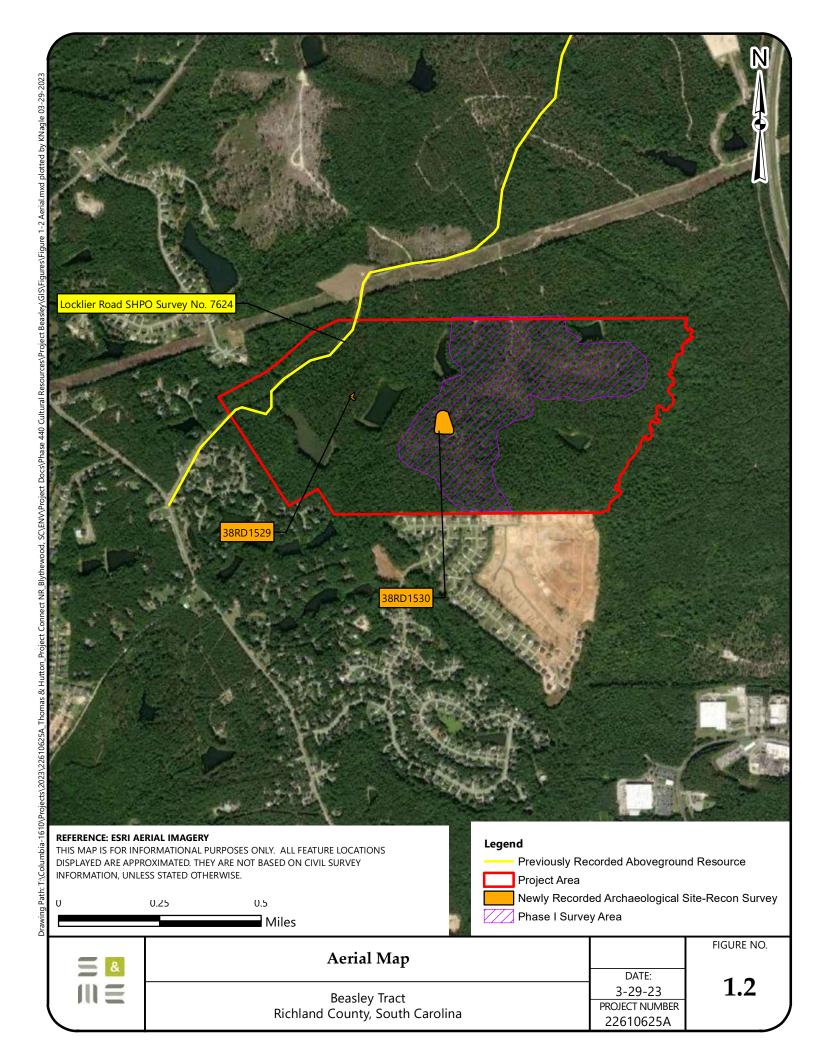
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The purpose of the survey was to assess the project area's potential for containing significant cultural resources and to make recommendations regarding additional work that may be required pursuant to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, and other pertinent federal, state, or local laws. This work was done in anticipation of federal funding or federal permitting and was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 22610625A, dated January 31, 2023, and email scope of work dated March 15, 2023.

S&ME carried out background research and field investigation tasks intermittently from March 3 through March 24, 2023. The fieldwork was conducted by Principal Archaeologist Kimberly Nagle, M.S., RPA. Field Director Paul Connell, B.A. and Crew Chief Clayton Moss, B.A. and consisted of excavating shovel tests and photo documenting the project area. Graphics, GIS maps, and photographs were prepared by Ms. Nagle, Mr. Connell, and Principal Architectural Historian/Historian Heather Carpini, M.A. Architectural evaluations and historic research for the project was conducted by Ms. Carpini. Senior review of the report was conducted by Ms. Nagle.

This report has been prepared in compliance with the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended; the Archaeological and Historic Preservation Act of 1979; procedures for the Protection of Historic Properties (36 CFR Part 800); and 36 CFR Parts 60 through 79, as appropriate. Field investigations and the technical report meet the qualifications specified in the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (Federal Register [FR] 48:44716–44742), and the South Carolina Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Investigations (COSCAPA et al. 2013). Supervisory personnel meet the Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards set forth in 36 CFR Part 61.





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2.0 Environmental Setting

2.1 Location

The project area is located to the west of Interstate 77, approximately 1.72 miles southwest of town of Blythewood. Richland County covers approximately 772 square miles, is bounded by Fairfield County to the north, Kershaw County to the northeast, Sumter County to the east, Calhoun County to the south, and Lexington County to the west (Figures 1.1 and 1.2).

2.2 Geology and Topography

The project area is located in the Piedmont physiographic province of South Carolina, which consists of a 100-mile wide belt between the Blue Ridge and the Sandhills (Kovacik and Winberry 1989). Topography in the project area ranges from 380 ft above mean sea level, (AMSL) along Beasley Creek along the eastern boundary of the project area, to 490 ft AMSL along the northern boundary of the project area (Figure 1.1).

2.3 Hydrology

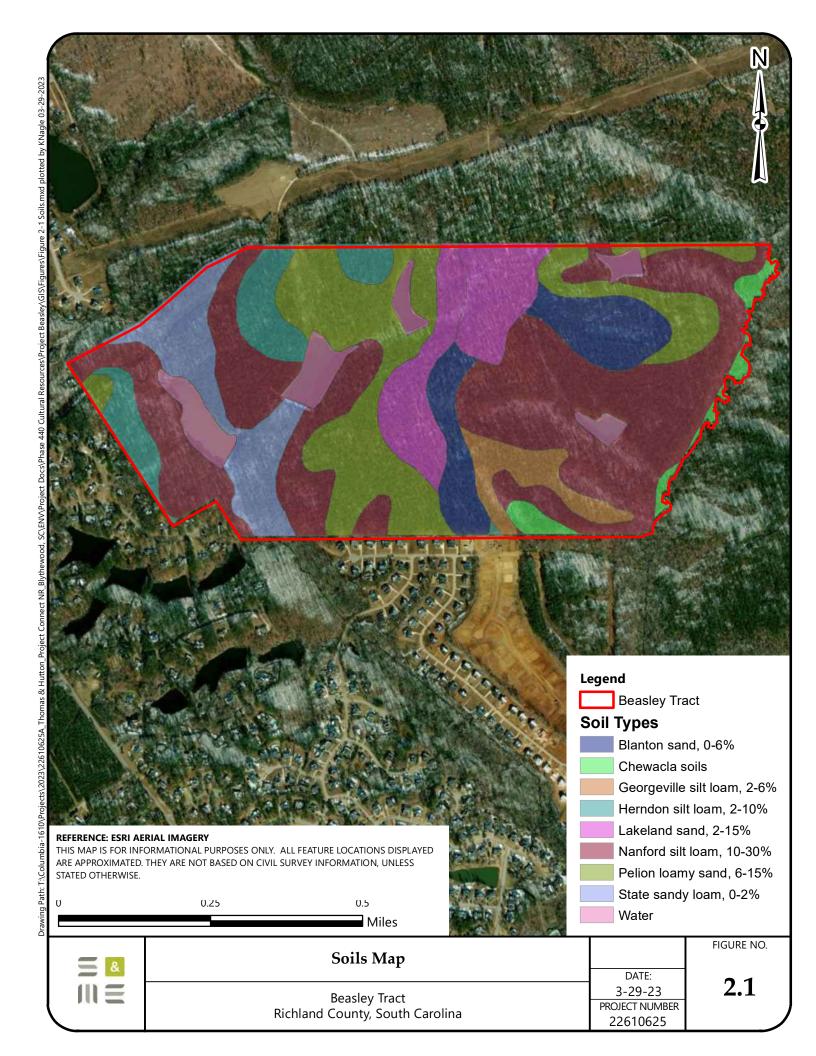
The project area is located within the Broad River drainage basin. The drainage basin covers approximately 3,800 square miles (South Carolina Department of Natural Resources [SCDNR] 2013). Beasley Creek is located along the eastern boundary of the project area and one of its unnamed tributaries is located within the project area. Beasley Creek flows south into Cane Creek approximately 5.7 miles south of the project area; Cane Creek flows southwest into the Broad River approximately 10.5 miles southwest of the project area.

2.4 Soils

The project area is located in the Nason-Georgeville soil association, which consist of well drained soils that have a loamy surface layer and a clayey subsoil (USDA 1977). There are eight specific soil types located within the project area (Figure 2.1); their descriptions can be found in Table 2.1 (United States Department of Agriculture [USDA] Web Soil Survey, Accessed March 3, 2023).

Table 2.1. Specific soil types found within the project area.

Soil Name	Туре	Drainage	Location	Slope	% in Project Area
Blanton	Sand	Moderately well drained	Marine terraces	0–6%	8.0%
Chewacla soils		Somewhat poorly drained	Flood plains	0–2%	2.1%
Georgeville	Silt loam	Well drained	Interfluves	2–6%	3.5%
Herndon	Silt loam	Well drained	Interfluves	2-10%	6.3%
Lakeland	Sand	Excessively drained	Marine terraces	2-15%	9.7%
Nanford	Silt loam	Well drained	Hillslopes	10-30%	38.0%
Pelion	Loam sand	Moderately well drained	Marine terraces	6-15%	19.2%
State	Sandy loam	Well drained	Stream terraces	0-2%	8.2%
Water					5.0%



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2.5 Climate and Vegetation

The climate of Richland County is characterized as humid and subtropical. The average daily temperatures range from 56°F in winter to 93°F in summer. Precipitation is relatively evenly distributed throughout the year, averaging 47 inches annually. Rainfall is adequate for most crops during the peak-growing season of April through October. The average growing season is 229 days which is adequate for most crops (USDA 2006).

Vegetation in the project area consists of planted pine and areas of hardwoods (Figures 2.2–2.3); disturbances in the project area include buried utilities, dirt roads and push piles (Figures 2.4–2.6). Five ponds and an unnamed tributary of Beasley Creek are located within the project area (Figures 2.7 and 2.8). Areas within the project area contain slope greater than 15 percent (Figure 2.9).



Figure 2.2. Area of planted pine in the project area, facing southwest.

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Figure 2.3. Area of mixed hardwoods in the project area, facing north.



Figure 2.4. View of a buried utility within the project area, facing north.

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Figure 2.5. Typical dirt road within the project area, facing west.



Figure 2.6. Push pile within the project area, facing north.

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Figure 2.7. One of the ponds within the project area, facing southeast.



Figure 2.8. Unnamed tributary of Beasley Creek in the project area, facing north.

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Figure 2.9. An area within the project area containing slope greater than 15 percent, facing west.

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3.0 Cultural Context

The cultural context of the region is reviewed below for two purposes: first, to outline previous research in the region and the nature of historic and prehistoric resources that might be expected in the project area, and second, to provide a comparative framework in which to place resources identified within the project area and APE in order to better understand their potential significance and NRHP eligibility. The cultural context of the project area, for the purposes of the cultural resources intensive survey, includes the prehistoric record and the historic past, which are discussed in this section of the report.

3.1 Prehistoric Context

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

Some researchers have suggested that initial colonization of the New World began well before Clovis, with some dates going back more than 35,000 years (Dillehay and Collins 1988; Goodyear 2005). Evidence for pre-Clovis occupations are posited for the Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, the Cactus Hill and Saltville sites in Virginia, and the Topper site in South Carolina, although this evidence is not widely accepted and has not been validated (Adovasio and Pedler 1997; Dillehay and Collins 1988; Goodyear 2005). There are a number of sites providing better evidence for a presence in the New World dating between 15,000 and 13,500 years ago. Although far from numerous, these sites are scattered across North and South America, including Alaska, Florida, Missouri, Oregon, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin, and southern Chile. Despite this, the earliest definitive evidence for occupation in the Southeastern United States is at the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 13,000 years ago (Anderson and O'Steen 1992; Bense 1994).

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

Unfortunately, most information about Paleoindian lifeways in the Southeast comes from surface finds of projectile points rather than from controlled excavations. However, one site, 38LX531, located along the Saluda River near Columbia, has shed light on Paleoindian lifeways in the area. The Tree House site is a multi-component, stratified site containing occupations ranging from the Early Paleoindian to Mississippian periods (Nagle and Green 2010). Evidence from the site, which yielded an *in-situ* Clovis point, indicated short-term use by relatively mobile populations. The tools found at the Tree House site could have been used for hunting and butchering, and it is likely that the site was used as a hunting camp during the Early and Late Paleoindian subperiods. Lithic raw materials associated with the Paleoindian component tended to be higher quality stone such as Black Mingo chert, Coastal Plain chert, and crystal quartz, although lesser quality local materials such as quartz were used as well (Nagle and Green 2010:264).

The limited information we have for the Paleoindian Period suggests the earliest Native Americans had a mixed subsistence strategy based on the hunting (or scavenging) of the megafauna and smaller game combined with the foraging of wild plant foods. Groups are thought to have consisted of small, highly transient bands made up of several nuclear and/or extended families. Paleoindian artifacts have been found in both riverine and interriverine contexts (Charles and Michie 1992:193). Paleoindian projectile points appear to be concentrated along major rivers near the Fall Line and in the Coastal Plain, although it is almost certain that many additional sites

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along the coast have been inundated by the rise of sea level that has occurred since that time (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Sassaman 1996).

Paleoindian tools are typically well-made and manufactured from high-quality, cryptocrystalline rock such as Coastal Plain and Ridge and Valley chert, as well as Piedmont metavolcanics such as rhyolite (Goodyear 1979). Paleoindians traveled long distances to acquire these desirable raw materials, and it is likely that particularly favored quarries were included in seasonal rounds, allowing them to replenish their stock of raw material on an annual basis.

The most readily recognizable artifact from the early Paleoindian Period is the Clovis point, which is a fluted, lanceolate-shaped spear point. Clovis points, first identified from a site in New Mexico, have been found across the nation, although they tend to be clustered in the eastern United States (Anderson and Sassaman 1996:222). Paleoindian artifact assemblages typically consist of diagnostic lanceolate projectile points, scrapers, gravers, unifacial and bifacial knives, and burins. Projectile point types include fluted and unfluted forms, such as Clovis, Cumberland, Suwanee, Quad, and Dalton (Anderson et al. 1992; Justice 1987:17–43).

In South Carolina, the Clovis sub-period is generally thought to date from 11,500 to 11,000 B.P. (Sassaman et al. 1990:8). Recent radiocarbon data indicate that a more accurate time frame for the Clovis period in North America may be 11,050 to 10,800 B.P. (Waters and Stafford 2007); however, this has yet to gain widespread acceptance. Suwanee points, which are slightly smaller than Clovis points, are dated from 11,000 to 10,500 B.P. This is followed by Dalton points, which are found through the Archaic Period (ca. 10,000–3000 B.P.).

3.1.2 Archaic Period (ca. 10,000–3000 B.P.)

Major environmental changes at the terminal end of the Pleistocene led to changes in human settlement patterns, subsistence strategies, and technology. As the climate warmed and the megafauna became extinct, population size increased and there was a simultaneous decrease in territory size and settlement range. Much of the Southeast during the early part of this period consisted of a mixed oak-hickory forest. Later, during the Hypsithermal interval between 8000 and 4000 B.P., southern pine communities became more prevalent in the interriverine uplands, and extensive riverine swamps were formed (Anderson et al. 1996a; Delcourt and Delcourt 1985).

The Archaic Period typically has been divided into three subperiods: Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.), Middle Archaic (8000–5000 B.P.), and Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.). Each of these subperiods appears to have been lengthy, and the inhabitants of each were successful in adapting contemporary technology to prevailing climatic and environmental conditions of the time. Settlement patterns are presumed to reflect a fairly high degree of mobility, making use of seasonally available resources in the changing environment across different areas of the Southeast. The people relied on large animals and wild plant resources for food. Group size gradually increased during this period, culminating in a fairly complex and populous society in the Late Archaic.

Early Archaic (10,000–8000 B.P.)

During the Early Archaic, there is a continuation of the semi-nomadic hunting and gathering lifestyle seen during the Paleoindian Period; however, there is a focus on modern game species rather than on the megafauna, which had become extinct by that time. During this time there also appears to have been a gradual, but steady increase in population and a shift in settlement patterns. In the Carolinas and Georgia, various models of Early Archaic social organization and settlement have been proposed (Anderson et al. 1992; Anderson and Hanson 1988). In

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general, these models hypothesize that Early Archaic societies were organized into small, band-sized communities of 25 to 50 people whose main territory surrounded a portion of a major river (Anderson and Hanson 1988:268 Figure 2). During the early spring, groups would forage in the lower Coastal Plain and then move inland to temporary camps in the Piedmont and mountains during the summer and early fall. In the late fall and winter, these bands would aggregate into larger, logistically provisioned base camps in the upper Coastal Plain, near the Fall Line. It is believed that group movements would have been circumscribed within major river drainages, and that movement across drainages into other band territories was limited. At a higher level of organization, bands were believed to be organized into larger "macrobands" of 500 to 1,500 people that periodically gathered at strategic locations near the Fall Line for communal food harvesting, rituals, and the exchange of mates and information.

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

Diagnostic markers of the Early Archaic include a variety of side and corner notched projectile point types such as Hardaway, Kirk, Palmer, Taylor, and Big Sandy, and bifurcated point types such as Lecroy, McCorkle, and St. Albans. Other than projectile points, tools of the Early Archaic subperiod include end scrapers, side scrapers, gravers, microliths, and adzes (Sassaman et al. 2002), and likely perishable items such as traps, snares, nets, and basketry. Direct evidence of Early Archaic basketry and woven fiber bags was found at the Icehouse Bottom site in Tennessee (Chapman and Adovasio 1977).

Middle Archaic (8,000–5000 B.P.)

The Middle Archaic subperiod coincides with the start of the Altithermal (a.k.a. Hypsithermal), a significant warming trend where pine forests replaced the oak-hickory dominated forests of the preceding periods. By approximately 6000 B.P., extensive riverine and coastal swamps were formed by rising water tables as the sea level approached modern elevations (Whitehead 1972). It was during this subperiod that river and estuary systems took their modern configurations. The relationship between climatic, environmental, and cultural changes during this subperiod, however, is still poorly understood (Sassaman and Anderson 1995:5–14). It is assumed that population density increased during the Middle Archaic, but small hunting and gathering bands probably still formed the primary social and economic units. Larger and more intensively occupied sites tend to occur near rivers and numerous small, upland lithic scatters dot the interriverine landscape. Subsistence was presumably based on a variety of resources such as white-tail deer, nuts, fish, and migratory birds; however, shellfish do not seem to have been an important resource at this time.

During the Middle Archaic, groundstone tools such as axes, atlatl weights, and grinding stones became more common, while flaked stone tools became less diverse and tended to be made of locally available raw materials (Blanton and Sassaman 1989). Middle Archaic tools tend to be expediently manufactured and have a more rudimentary appearance than those found during the preceding Paleoindian and Early Archaic. The most common point type of this subperiod is the ubiquitous Morrow Mountain, but others such as Stanly, Guilford, and Halifax also occur, as well as transitional Middle Archaic-Late Archaic forms such as Brier Creek and Allendale/MALA (an acronym for Middle Archaic Late Archaic) (Blanton and Sassaman 1989; Coe 1964). The major difference in the

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artifact assemblage of the Stanly Phase seems to be the addition of stone atlatl weights. The Morrow Mountain and Guilford phases also appear during the Middle Archaic, but Coe (1964) considers these phases to be without local precedent and views them as western intrusions.

Late Archaic (5000–3000 B.P.)

The Late Archaic is marked by a number of key developments. There was an increased focus on riverine locations and resources (e.g., shellfish), small-scale horticulture was adopted, and ceramic and soapstone vessel technology was introduced. These changes allowed humans to occupy strategic locations for longer periods of time. In the spring and summer, Late Archaic people gathered large amounts of shellfish. It is not known why this productive resource was not exploited earlier, but one explanation is that the environmental conditions conducive to the formation of shellfish beds were not in place until the Late Archaic. Other resources that would have been exploited in the spring and summer months include fish, white-tailed deer, small mammals, birds and turtles (House and Ballenger 1976; Stoltman 1974). During the late fall and winter, populations likely subsisted on white-tailed deer, turkey, and nuts such as hickory and acorn. It is also possible that plants such as cucurbita (squash and gourds), sunflower, sumpweed, and chenopod, were being cultivated on a small-scale basis.

The earliest pottery in the New World comes from the Savannah River Valley and coastal regions of South Carolina and Georgia. This pottery, known as Stallings Island and Thom's Creek, dates to around 4500 B.P. and consists of fiber-tempered and fine sand-tempered pottery containing a wide variety of surface treatments including plain, punctuated, and incised designs (Sassaman et al. 1990).

3.1.3 Woodland Period (ca. 3000–1000 B.P.)

Like the preceding Archaic Period, the Woodland is traditionally divided into three subperiods—Early Woodland (3000–2300 B.P.), Middle Woodland (2300–1500 B.P.), and Late Woodland (1500–1000 B.P.)— based on technological and social advances and population increase. Among the changes that occur during this period are a widespread adoption of ceramic technology, an increased reliance on native plant horticulture, and a more sedentary lifestyle. There is also an increase in sociopolitical and religious interactions as evidenced by an increased use of burial mounds, increased ceremonialism, and expanded trade networks (Anderson and Mainfort 2002). In addition, ceramics became more refined and regionally differentiated, especially with regard to temper.

Early Woodland (3000–2300 B.P.)

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

The limited data available on Early Woodland settlement patterns in the sandhills indicates a shift away from riverine settings, with small, semiautonomous groups living in the uplands at sites containing relatively few artifacts and little artifact diversity (Sassaman et al. 1990:13). In the Piedmont, there are few Early Woodland sites and a low population density is inferred (Ward and Davis 1999:83). Subsistence data indicate a continuation of

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Late Archaic diet, including white-tailed deer, bear, small mammals, reptiles and freshwater fish (Hanson and DePratter 1985; Marrinan 1975). One major difference, however, is that shellfish apparently are not an important part of the diet.

Middle Woodland (2300–1500 B.P.)

Middle Woodland pottery in coastal areas of South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida is represented by the Deptford pottery series, which dates from about 2800–1500 B.P. This coarse sand/grit-tempered pottery represents a continuation of the Early Woodland Refuge series and is often found in association with Refuge pottery. Surface treatments include plain, check stamped, linear check stamped, cordmarked, and simple stamped applications (DePratter 1979; Waring and Holder 1968). On the northern South Carolina coast and in coastal North Carolina, a similar series, Deep Creek, has been identified. Like Deptford, this is a coarse sand tempered pottery that contains cordmarked and simple stamped surface treatments. Unlike Deptford, however, fabric and net impressed surface treatments are prevalent and check stamping is absent (Phelps 1983; Trinkley 1990).

In the upper Coastal Plain and Piedmont, Early/Middle Woodland pottery consists of the Yadkin series, which is characterized by its crushed quartz temper and cordmarked, fabric impressed, check stamped, linear check stamped, and simple stamped surface treatments (Blanton et al. 1986, Coe 1964, Ward and Davis 1999). Yadkin Large Triangular points are the most common diagnostic projectile points of the Middle Woodland (Coe 1964), although Trinkley (1989:78) mentions a very small stemmed point he calls Deptford Stemmed. Other artifacts found in Middle Woodland assemblages include clay platform pipes, ground and polished stone ornaments, engraved shell and bone, bone tools, bifacial knives, and sharks tooth pendants (Sassaman et al 1990:96, Waring and Holder 1968).

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

In contrast to Milanich's model, evidence from the G.S. Lewis West site (38AK228) in Aiken County (Sassaman et al 1990:96–98) suggests a year round settlement occupied by a small resident population. Over 500 features, including pits, posts, human burials, and dog burials, were found at the site. White-tailed deer was the primary food source, with alligator, turtle, fish, turkey, freshwater mussels, hickory and acorns also being consumed (Sassaman et al. 1990:96). On the other end of the settlement spectrum, site 38LX5, located approximately 1.5 miles northwest of the project area, contained few features and little artifact diversity, suggesting a repeatedly occupied, seasonal hunting/butchering camp (Anderson 1979:123). Based on the evidence at G.S. Lewis and surrounding sites at the Savannah River Site, Sassaman et al. (1990:98) suggest a pattern where small villages were occupied on a year-round basis, with smaller outlying sites (e.g., 38LX5) representing seasonally occupied logistical camps.

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Late Woodland (1500–1000 B.P.)

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

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

Toward the latter end of the Late Woodland and incipient Mississippian periods, ceramic assemblages in coastal South Carolina show more localized developments. St. Catherines pottery is a fine grog-tempered ware found along the lower coast, with surface treatments that include cordmarked, net-impressed, plain, and burnished plain (Anderson et al. 1996; DePratter 1979). Along the upper coast and interior Coastal Plain, Santee Simple Stamped is a transitional Late Woodland/Early Mississippian type, with dates from Mattassee Lake ranging from 610–1140 B.P. (Anderson et al. 1982:354).

3.1.4 *Mississippian Period (ca. 1000–350 B.P.)*

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

Mound centers have been found along most major river systems in the Southeast, and South Carolina is no exception. Major Mississippian mounds in the area include the Mulberry site along the Wateree River in central South Carolina; Santee/Fort Watson on the Santee River; the Irene site near Savannah; Hollywood, Lawton, and Mason's Plantation in the central Savannah River Valley; and Town Creek along the Pee Dee River in North Carolina (Anderson 1994).

Diagnostic artifacts of the Mississippian Period include small triangular projectile points and sand-tempered Lamar, Savannah, and Etowah pottery types (Anderson and Joseph 1988; Elliot 1995). These types are primarily identified by their complicated stamped designs, although simple stamped, check stamped, cordmarked, and other surface treatments also occur. Various ceremonial items made from stone, bone, shell, copper, and mica were used as symbolic markers of chiefly power and status.

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3.2 Historic Context

The project area is located in the northern portion of Richland County, in a historically rural area near the border of Fairfield County. The original counties of South Carolina, established when it was still a colony, mainly encompassed the coastal area where most settlers lived. As more people moved into the upper reaches of the state, commonly referred to as the backcountry, long and difficult travel prohibited them from easily utilizing the government functions centralized in Charleston. To combat this issue, in 1769 the General Assembly divided the state into seven judicial districts and the project area became part of the Camden District. When South Carolina became a state after the American Revolution, the legislature agreed to further decentralize government services and, in 1785, divided each district into counties. Camden District contained seven of the new counties, including Richland. As South Carolina grew, local governments became more important and new counties were created and the original boundaries of Richland County changed slightly with the creation of Kershaw County, in 1791 (Stauffer 1998:7–9, 12; Edgar 1998:215, 248, 265).

3.2.1 Seventeenth and Eighteenth Century

The first Europeans to have come through the Upper Coastal Plain of South Carolina were the expeditions led by Spanish explorers Hernando de Soto in 1540 and Juan Pardo in 1567 and 1568, although they may have been preceded in 1526 by Lucas Vasquez de Allyon (DePratter 1979; Hudson 1990). Both de Soto and Pardo encountered the powerful Chiefdom of Cofitachequi, located on the Wateree River near Camden. In 1568, a small fort was built and garrisoned at Cofitachequi by a contingent of Pardo's men. Cofitachequi was again visited in the summer of 1670 by Henry Woodward and reportedly had over 1000 bowmen at that time (DePratter 1979:133). By 1701, however, when John Lawson visited the region formerly controlled by Cofitachequi, the area was occupied by only a small group of Indians known as the Congaree.

By the early eighteenth century, both the Congaree and the Wateree, almost certainly a derivation of the town name Guatari encountered by Pardo in North Carolina, had established settlements in central South Carolina. Lawson found the Congaree to be friendly and hospitable to his men and was intrigued by a game that the women were playing and by the large cranes that they kept as pets. Additionally, he noted that the tribe was small, its numbers having been greatly diminished by smallpox outbreaks that had devastated the town. In his description, Lawson indicated that the Congaree village was made up of only about 12 houses and some plantations scattered in the area (Milling 1940:213; Mooney 1970:80).

By the time of Lawson's visit in 1701, the Congaree had likely been settled in the area for at least a few years. Evidence of the Congaree exists as early as 1692, when some Congaree Indians joined with members of the Waxhaw and Esaw tribes to visit the Ashley River plantation of Andrew Percival; Percival, who had been an Indian trader, was probably already familiar with these groups (Merrell 1989:55–56). A year later, the Congaree captured and enslaved some Cherokee, who protested to the colonial government over these actions (Milling 1940:269).

The Wateree had migrated into the area sometime after 1670, when John Lederer of Pennsylvania found them living further north along the Yadkin River in North Carolina. Lawson placed them on the Wateree River, near Pine Tree Creek and present day Camden, and later maps support this location. Lawson's description of the tribe was less flattering than his portrayal of the Congaree, indicating that, although they had larger numbers than their southern neighbors and were friendly to the English, the Wateree were lazy and thieves (Hodge 1910:910; Milling 1940:209).

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By 1708, contact with tribes north of Charleston was still limited, as indicated by a September letter from the colonial government to England stating, "There are several other nations of Indians that inhabit to the northward—our trade with them is not much" (Taukchiray 1984:48). In 1712, however, Colonel John Barnwell went to these tribes to recruit warriors for the Tuscarora War in North Carolina. He found the Congaree living in one village and claimed that there were only 125 total members of both the Congaree and Santee tribes. Barnwell was successful in his recruiting; one of his three companies, the Esaw Company, included 13 warriors from the Congaree and Santee tribes, as well as 28 men from the Wateree (Taukchiray 1984:52–53; Taukchiray 1985:1).

At the onset of the Yamasee War, the colonial government made some overtures towards the northern tribes. They sent Captain Baker to compel the Congaree and their neighbors to join the English, but during his journey he was ambushed and killed along with 26 of his men (Taukchiray 1984:82). Shortly afterwards, both the Congaree and the Wateree joined other native tribes in fighting against the English. As occurred with many other tribes, participation in the war greatly reduced the power and population of the Congaree and the Wateree. In fact, their numbers were so greatly reduced that Governor Robert Johnson, in a letter to England, reported the Congaree as one of the tribes that had been "utterly extirpated" (Milling 1940:223). By 1743, both the Congaree and Wateree had migrated northwards to live amongst the Catawba, although at that time they were living in separate settlements and attempting to retain their own language and customs (Crane 1928:172; Mooney 1970:80; Swanton 1979:101; Taukchiray 1985:6).

Although little is known about the Congaree and Wateree, even less is known about the Saluda Indians and few references of this group exist. One reference is the 1730 George Hunter map of the Cherokee which has a label, "Saluda town where a nation settled 35 years ago, and removed 18 years to Conestoga, in Pennsylvania" (Milling 1940:89). Given this reference, it is possible that the Saluda were affiliated with the Savano (Savanna) Indians, both being of Shawnee origin. If this is true, it was likely the Saluda that participated in raids against the Cherokee in 1693 along with the Catawba and Congaree. A subsequent reference occurs in 1755, when Governor James Glen, after visiting Fort Prince George, led an army of 500 soldiers to meet with the Cherokee and sign an important treaty at Saluda Old Town. The site of Saluda Old Town is believed to be located on the south bank of the Saluda River near Terrapin Creek in Saluda County, although this location has been disputed in recent years (John Frierson, personal communication 2000).

3.2.2 First European Settlers

The lands that lie in northern Richland County did not see permanent European settlement until the mid- to late eighteenth century. The area that would become Richland County essentially lies between the Congaree and Wateree Rivers, narrowing to the southeast at the point where the two rivers converge. Indian traders, following these rivers likely came through the area in the late 1600s and early 1700s, but permanent habitation of this backcountry area lagged behind settlement in coastal regions. In the 1730s and 1740s, when European settlers did begin to migrate to the area, they originally claimed lands along the two major rivers, especially the Congaree. The establishment of inland townships in the 1730s attracted more residents to the area, although neither of the closest townships, Saxe-Gothe and Fredericksburg, was situated on the lands that would become part of Richland County. Saxe-Gothe, which later developed into Lexington, was on the west bank of the Congaree River, and Fredericksburg, which later became Pine Tree Hill and then Camden, was located northeast of the Wateree River (Moore 1993:9-12). Despite a growing interest in the backcountry by settlers, only 39 people acquired land between the Wateree and Congaree rivers from 1740 to 1746 and the majority of these were in the lower portions of Richland County (Moore 1993:10–11).

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Things began to change around the mid-eighteenth century. In the 1740s, Thomas Nightingale built a cow pen and settled on land that would eventually belong to Fairfield County, about six miles from present day Winnsboro. Around 1753, John Taylor moved his family from Virginia to South Carolina, settling in future Richland County. The Taylor family, beginning with John's son Thomas Taylor, who fought for the Patriots in the American Revolution, would become prominent members of South Carolina society (Moore 1993:58). Other settlers from Virginia, as well as those of English, German, and Scots Irish decent arriving from Europe, began migrating into the Midlands area. These settlers included members of the Crell, Brown, Haig, Geiger, Spencer, Woodward, and Howell families. By 1760, there were nearly 1,000 people living along the Congaree River, but the most coveted lands along the rivers were becoming scarce and new settlers were beginning to look further inland along the creeks for home sites (Moore 1993:14–16). These early settlers were mostly subsistence farmers, growing a variety of food crops for local consumption and often raising cattle for sale to the coastal markets. They also attempted to grow cash crops, such as tobacco, indigo, and cotton; however, the dreams of producing a sizeable cash crop were not to be realized until the waning years of the eighteenth century (Moore 1993:60–64).

In 1765, approximately 12,000 people were living near the fall line, with another 10,000 residents residing further inland in the Piedmont (Moore 1993:19). Lack of order was the primary concern for residents of these inland areas during the mid to late 1700s. Backcountry life in the 1760s was marred by a massive wave of robberies and murders that swept through the Midlands. With no local government officials to dispense justice, crimes against settlers in the region went virtually unchecked for two years. Anyone thought to possess money or goods of value was considered a target, with even settlements like Saxe-Gotha and Camden suffering raids and looting. With no help coming from the government in Charleston, residents of the Midlands joined together to protect their property. These "Regulators" often used vigilante methods to defend their communities and punish the perpetrators of the crimes. Eventually their persistent cries for local law enforcement and justice were answered in 1769, with the creation of districts (Moore 1993 25–27).

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

In late 1780, British General Charles Cornwallis set up temporary headquarters at Winnsboro and backcountry residents continued to feel the crush of the war. In May 1781, the Patriots recaptured Fort Granby near present day Cayce and American forces began a campaign to wrest backcountry outposts from Loyalist control. The war would soon leave the area, but, as the Revolution was ending and British forces withdrew, citizens in the Midlands still had to fear lawlessness similar to that which occurred in the 1760s. The responsiveness of the state government and the establishment of new counties from the 1769 judicial districts helped to return order. Peace, coupled with the success of tobacco as the area's main crop in the 1780s and 1790s, lured settlers to the Upcountry. This move helped spread the concepts of plantation society and slavery into the region from the coast (Gordon 2003:93–99, 153; Moore 1993:30-31, 33–35).

In 1786, as a concession to backcountry residents who protested the control of state government by the Charleston elite, the legislature passed a bill to move the state capital to a centralized location. In 1787, John Gabriel Guignard surveyed and laid out the new capital in a two mile square area formerly owned by Colonel

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Thomas Taylor. When the new state constitution was written in 1790, it reaffirmed Columbia as the capital, although many government services continued to be provided in Charleston (Edgar 1998:248, 255; Edgar and Woolley 1986:17; Tomlinson Engineering Company 1931). The establishment of Columbia as the capital city proved important to the residents of the Midlands. As the nineteenth century neared, the presence of the legislature and the availability of government services made the region more attractive to settlers and the population of the region began to grow.

By 1790, Camden District had 38,265 residents and comprised 15.4 percent of the total population of the state. Richland County was the second smallest of Camden's seven counties with only 3,930 residents. During this period, slaves only comprised 23.2 percent of the district's population, a significantly lower percentage than the 43 percent in South Carolina as a whole. Richland County was not far below to the statewide average, with 36.6 percent of its residents being enslaved (United States Census Bureau [USCB] 1907).

Eli Whitney's cotton gin proved a boon for the South Carolina Midlands area because it significantly cut down on the effort needed to separate the seeds from the fibers of short-staple cotton. Although area farmers grew cotton throughout the eighteenth century, Richland County harvested its first large crop of short-staple cotton for export in 1799. Cotton production spread throughout the inland areas. With the price of cotton booming from the 1790s to nearly 1820, the surge in production helped make the fortunes of many Richland District residents, including Wade Hampton and his family (Edgar 1998:271). It also served to bolster the growth of the region's cities, most importantly Columbia, which served as the major business and population center for the area. Although Charleston was the primary point of export for cotton, Columbia and other smaller towns served as important regional markets and businessmen involved in the cotton trade moved to the city and surrounding areas (Edgar 1998:273).

In the first half of the nineteenth century, agriculture was the most important economic pursuit in the Midlands. Although farmers in the region raised livestock and produced a large variety of staple crops such as wheat, oats, potatoes, and corn, these products were primarily for home or local consumption, and farmers allocated only a small percentage of land to these items. Cotton held the promise of large profits and therefore it was the most widely grown crop in the area. In 1840, Richland County harvested 1,281,989 pounds of cotton, a yield that ranked it fifteenth among the 29 counties in the state. By 1850, Richland had more than tripled its cotton production, harvesting 11,365 bales of cotton weighing 4,546,000 pounds, moving it to 11th among cotton producing counties. Moreover, Richland had room to grow, as farmers used only 27.5 percent of its 325,121 acres for cotton production. Fairfield County was even more successful in producing cotton, and in 1840, 8,159,450 pounds were produced in the county ranking it second only behind Abbeville. Ten years later, Fairfield's cotton production had decreased, harvesting only 7,258,800 pounds (18,122 bales) of cotton, ranking it fifth statewide. Farming, however, was still the primary pursuit of most Fairfield residents and the county's farms were valued at \$3,131,629, the ninth highest in the state. Columbia was the primary market for these crops, and from there they were generally shipped to Charleston by boat (Moore 1993:88; USCB 1841, 1853).

Fueled by the prospect of successful cotton crops, the antebellum years saw significant growth in the Midlands, with population increasing at a significantly higher rate than the total statewide average. From 1790 to 1820, Richland County more than tripled its total population to 12,321. By 1840, Richland County had a population of over 16,000, but by 1860, however, growth had stagnated and the county gained less than 2,000 residents in the preceding twenty years (USCB 1821, 1832, 1841, 1853, 1864b, 1907).

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As the population of the area grew, demographics also underwent change. Slave labor proved to be an important resource for South Carolina, as cheap labor was necessary for producing a profitable cotton crop. Since 1790, Richland County had reflected statewide trends in terms of slave population, with the percentage of enslaved people in the county being close to that in South Carolina as a whole. This trend continued through 1860, when Richland's population consisted of 59.8 percent slaves and South Carolina's average was 57.2 percent (USCB 1821, 1832, 1841, 1853, 1864b, 1907).

Not long before the Civil War began, an important development occurred that would significantly change the Midlands—the construction of the railroad. Prior to the war, Columbia was considered an important railroad hub. Entrepreneurs proposed the first railroad links to Columbia in the 1830s; although these original plans were never completed, by 1842, Columbia had been linked to Charleston and the first passenger train between the two cities arrived. By the 1850s, railroad companies had made two more connections from Columbia, one to Greenville and one to Charlotte. The Charlotte tracks passed through the rural northern region of Richland County; along this route, rural railroad depots were constructed, including one that would become the town of Blythewood. The railroads brought economic advantages to Columbia and the surrounding areas as they transported goods from larger cities. Railroads also helped spur population growth, as some of the men who built the tracks eventually settled in the area. The main purpose of the railroad, however, was the transportation of cotton from rural farms to urban markets, increasing profits for both the farmers and the cotton brokers in the city (Herring 1984:21; Moore 1993:137–138).

3.2.3 *Civil War and Reconstruction*

In 1860, census figures show that Richland County had begun a trend that would continue throughout the rest of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Bolstered by the growth of Columbia, Richland County was adding residents at a significant rate. Although it maintained the diverse agricultural pursuits of the first half of the century, producing food crops and livestock, but cotton was still the dominant cash crop, Richland had the third lowest value of farmland in the state, at \$2,099,715. Richland, although still producing moderate agricultural yields, was focused less on farming and had begun to invest more in manufacturing enterprises (USCB 1864a, 1864b).

Columbia served a central role in the secession of South Carolina, in December 1860, and it would continue its position of importance throughout the Civil War. During most of the war, the Midlands were affected only indirectly, as actual fighting did not come to the region until the early part of 1865. Early in 1861, while excitement for the war was high and Southerners were rallying to the Confederate cause, companies of men traveled from Richland to help defend Charleston. Regiments from the Midlands region, including Richland County, gathered and drilled at the fairgrounds north of Columbia, before heading out to campaigns in other states. Women in the counties organized relief and aid organizations, raising money and performing whatever services they could to help the war effort and the soldiers. The rural farmers of the area aided the war effort by supplying food to supplement the shortages in the city and elsewhere. However, this was not always a voluntary effort, especially after 1863, when the state required farmers to limit planting of cotton and to donate one-tenth of crop yields to the government (Moore 1993:183–191). As Columbia continued to aid the war effort with manufacturing ventures, it grew in importance; by 1863, Confederate government offices had been established in the city. These developments, and an influx of refugees from surrounding areas, increased the population of Columbia and the county as a whole.

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As the tide of the Civil War changed and the Confederate army went on the defensive to protect its major cities, Columbia's population swelled with refugees retreating ahead of the advancing Union army of General William T. Sherman. In early 1865, as Sherman's army worked its way through Georgia, residents of the Midlands were uncertain as to his ultimate path, leading to fear and confusion as to whether or not he would turn towards Columbia and destroy their homes and farms. Ultimately, the Union army did march north through Columbia, leaving behind a state of ruin as they looted and burned houses along the way. After leaving Columbia, Sherman continued his march northward through rural Richland County, with his army continuing to raid homes and farms looking for food and supplies (Moore 1993:202).

After the Civil War, the rural areas of Richland County generally returned to the path they had been following before the war. For instance, county farms continued to produce many of the same crops but, due in part to changes brought about by the Civil War, the agricultural yields were declining. By 1870, nearly all of the crops harvested in Richland were at numbers that were nearly half their yield in 1860. Larger farms were broken up into smaller parcels utilized for sharecropping and tenant farming; this resulted in a significant increase in the total number of farms in the county, from 203 to 1,138, with most of the farms ranging in size between 20 and 50 acres. By 1880, the number of farms in Richland County had nearly doubled to 2,246, again with the majority averaging less than 50 acres. Also, cotton was again becoming the primary crop grown in the county, with 10,958 bales produced (Moore 1993:210; USCB 1872b, 1883a).

The railroad played an important role in the postbellum growth of Columbia and the surrounding areas. It was imperative that the railroad companies repair the damage that the Union armies had done and, by 1866, repairs had begun and the first train arrived from Charleston. Despite this, connections to cities north of Columbia were still not possible because of gaps in the tracks; however, by April 1866, the line to Charlotte had been restored. In addition to fixing the lines that had been severed during the war, Columbia's importance as a railroad hub grew as new routes were constructed to Augusta. By 1870, Columbia served as a midpoint for important rail lines connecting Augusta to both Charlotte and Wilmington. Along these lines, new rail depots emerged throughout the Midlands. Eventually, residential settlements began to grow around these depots and post offices were established to serve the more rural communities (Moore 1993:210–214).

Reconstruction did little to change the rural way of life in northern Richland County. In the first few years after the end of the Civil War, dealing with hardships was a way of life, as drought ruined many of the crops. Many whites were struggling to survive, and freedmen were still waiting for the United States government to give them land. In 1867, Congress instituted a radical program of reconstruction and blacks began to acquire positions of power in the city of Columbia. Most blacks, however, continued to work as farmers in the rural areas where they had lived before the war. Between 1860 and 1870, the population of Richland County began slowly growing, with over two-thirds of the population being newly freed blacks looking to support themselves and their families. By the 1880s, Richland's population growth was steady, increasing over 8,000 residents within the decade (Moore 1993:223; USCB 1872a, 1883b, 1895).

The 1880s and 1890s were a time of growth and change in the Midlands. Some of the small communities that had emerged around railroad depots were developing and becoming towns. Richland was still predominantly a rural county, but Columbia was a growing city. Manufacturing and industry were springing up in the Midlands and the erection of several cotton mills towards the end of the nineteenth century would lure many residents into manufacturing jobs. At the same time, agricultural yields were beginning to recover from their postwar lag and were surpassing antebellum highs. However, other aspects of the Midlands were slow in recovering and there

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were many complaints about the poor condition of the roads. Overall though, the turn of the twentieth century was looking promising for the area (Moore 1993:229–232).

3.2.4 Twentieth Century

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Richland County was embarking on a period of tremendous growth, fueled by the development of Columbia. By 1900, Richland's population had swelled to 45,589; ten years later, the trend continued with Richland adding nearly 10,000 residents. While much of Richland County's growth was in Columbia, the northern reaches of the county retained their rural character. Manufacturing was becoming an important part of Richland's economy and the mills that had come to the area in the 1890s allowed cotton to be processed locally. The 1891 completion of the Columbia Canal greatly aided the development of mills run on hydropower and, by 1910, there were seven mills in the Columbia area employing over 3,600 workers (Moore 1993:303; USCB 1901, 1920). The City of Columbia was growing and expanding its boundaries during this period as well, annexing its suburbs and making them part of the city. Richland County was following a similar course, and in 1912 it annexed a portion of Lexington County. In 1913, Richland acquired the southern portion of Fairfield County, including the town of Blythewood (Moore 1993:276).

After World War I, as soldiers from the Midlands returned home, rural life was becoming increasingly difficult. The policies of the Federal government favored business and industry, not agriculture (Moore 1993:329). Many of the small farmers in the rural regions of the Midlands could not afford to buy the products that Columbia was producing. In the years that followed, as the Great Depression hit the country, little changed for many rural residents, since poverty had been part of their live for years. However, some of the poorest sharecroppers and tenant farmers lost their land, forcing them to migrate to cities to look for work. New Deal agencies provided some relief to Midland's residents and, by 1940, there was \$1.3 million allocated to the region (Moore 1993:341).

Beginning in 1940, life in the Midlands was affected by numerous conflicts both at home and abroad. World War II, Korea, and Vietnam all drew soldiers from the region and the old Camp Jackson, established in 1917, was resurrected into the new, permanent Fort Jackson. On the home front, racial tensions were deepening as blacks fought the formal system of segregation that had been legal in the state for nearly 50 years. More recently, rural life in many Midland's areas has changed dramatically. Agriculture, once the major staple of the region's economy, has decreased in importance and many new residents began moving into areas formerly used for farming. New highways and roads leading out from Columbia have aided this flight from the city, and the result has been a shift in demographics and character of these once rural areas.

3.3 Background Research

On March 3, 2023, a background literature review and records search was conducted at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology (SCIAA) in Columbia. The area examined was a 0.25-mile radius around the project area (Figure 3.1). The records examined at SCIAA include a review of ArchSite, a GIS-based program containing information about archaeological and historic resources in South Carolina. If cultural resources were noted within the 0.25-mile search radius, then additional reports and site forms contained at SCIAA and the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (SCDAH) were consulted.

A review of ArchSite indicated there are no previously recorded archaeological sites, one previously surveyed road, and two previously conducted cultural resource surveys within a 0.25-mile radius of the project area (Figure 3.1). The previously recorded road, Locklier Road, (SHPO Survey Number 7624) was identified in 2018 in association

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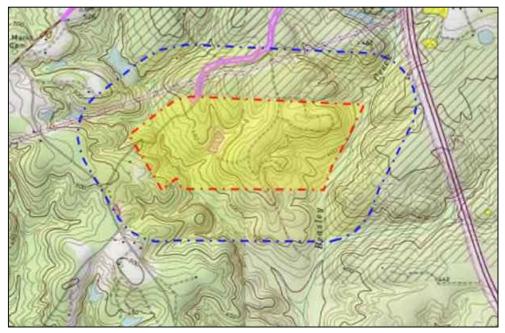


Figure 3.1. ArchSite map showing 0.25-mile search radius.

with the survey for the Blythewood Industrial Site-Northern Portion (Connell and Carpini 2018). The road was determined to be not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP, but is within the current survey area. The two previously completed surveys were both associated with Blythewood Industrial Site and are located directly north and east of the current project area, but do not cover a portion of the current project area.

As part of the background research, Henry Mouzon's (1775) map of North and South Carolina, Mills Atlas map (1825), a USDA soil survey map from 1916, South Carolina Department of Transportation (SCDOT) maps from 1939, 1963, and 1973, and a United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic maps from 1904, 1935, 1949, and 1953 were examined. Mouzon's map indicates that the project area was located within Camden Precinct with Crane Creek in the vicinity of the project area and the closest landowners are to the south located along the Broad River and are labeled as Kurkland (Figure 3.2). Mill's Atlas of Richland District shows the project area was located east of a road labeled "Road to Winnsbourgh" and along Little Crane Creek (Figure 3.3). The 1904 *Columbia* USGS topographic map shows the western portion of the project area with a dirt road in the project area, but no structures are in the project area (Figure 3.4). The 1916 USDA soil survey map shows the community of Blythewood had been established to the northeast of the project area with the area surrounding the project area being developed with roads and structures (Figure 3.5).

The 1935 *Killian* USGS topographic map shows the eastern portion of the project area with a road traversing the project area with two structures depicted in the project area (Figure 3.6). The 1939 SCDOT map shows the continued development around the project area but nothing is present in the project area (Figure 3.7). The 1949 *Irmo NE* USGS topographic map shows the western portion of the project area with a road in the northwestern portion of project area, but no structures are in the project area (Figure 3.8). The 1953 *Blythewood* USGS topographic map shows the eastern portion of the project area with a dirt road and a structure at the end of the road within the project area (Figure 3.9). The 1963 and 1973 SCDOT maps show a road in the northwest portion of the project area, but no structures are located in the project area (Figures 3.10 and 3.11).

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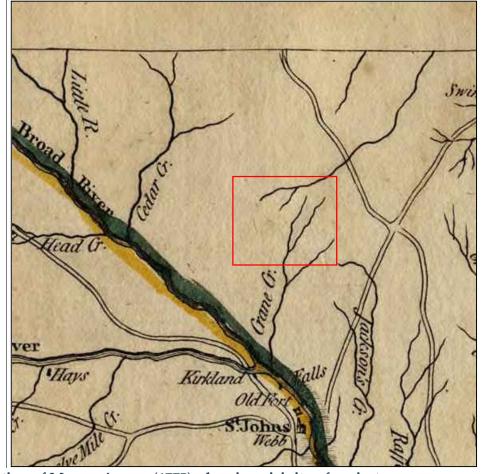


Figure 3.2. Portion of Mouzon's map (1775), showing vicinity of project area.

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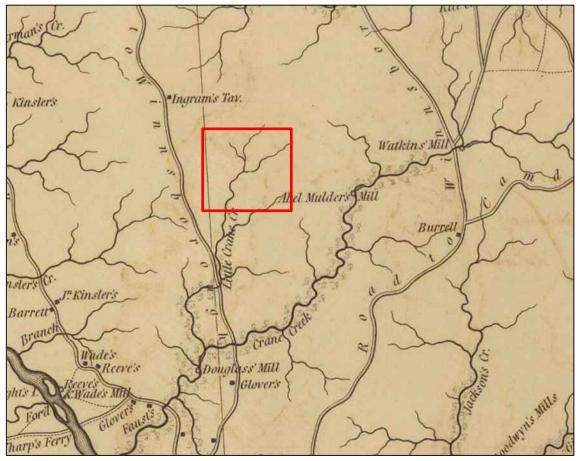


Figure 3.3. Portion of Mills' Atlas map of Richland District (1825), showing vicinity of project area.

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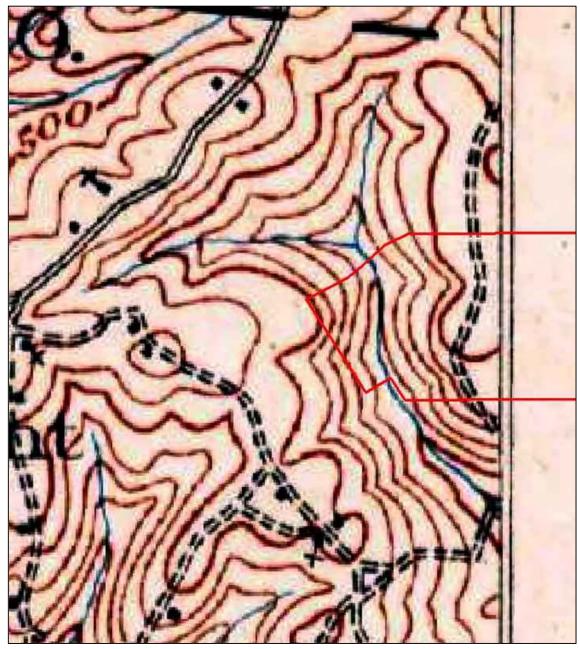


Figure 3.4. Portion of USGS Columbia 15-minute quadrangle (1904), showing the western half of the project area.

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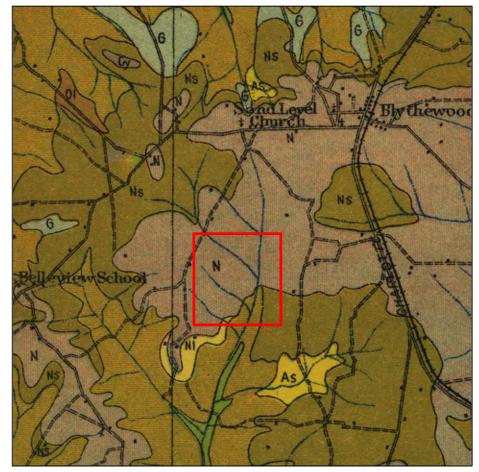


Figure 3.5. Portion of 1916 USDA soil survey map of Richland County, indicating vicinity of the project area.

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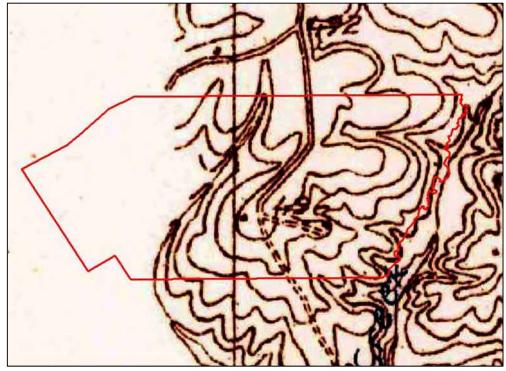


Figure 3.6. Portion of USGS Killian 7.5-minute quadrangle (1935), showing the eastern half of the project area.

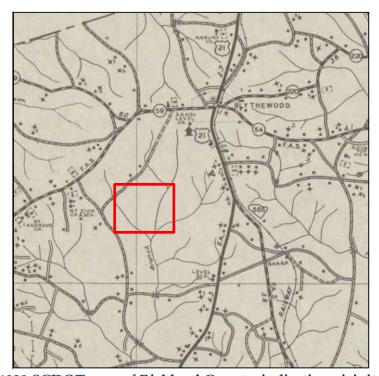


Figure 3.7. Portion of 1939 SCDOT map of Richland County, indicating vicinity of the project area.

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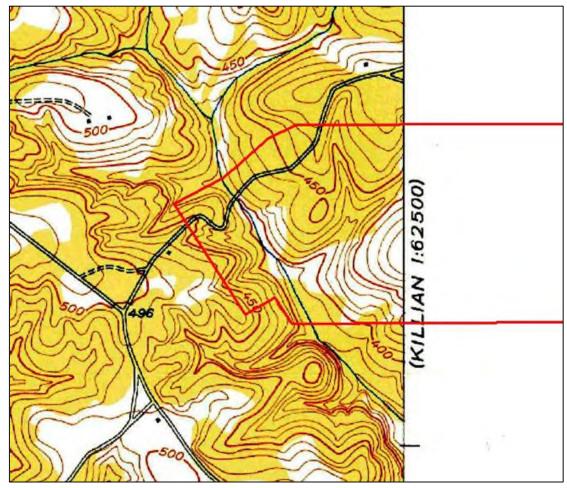


Figure 3.8. Portion of USGS Irmo NE 7.5-minute quadrangle (1949), showing the western half of the project area.

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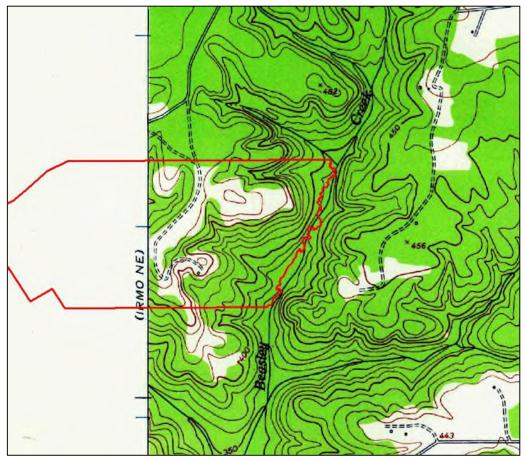


Figure 3.9. Portion of USGS Blythewood 7.5-minute quadrangle (1953), showing the eastern half of the project area.

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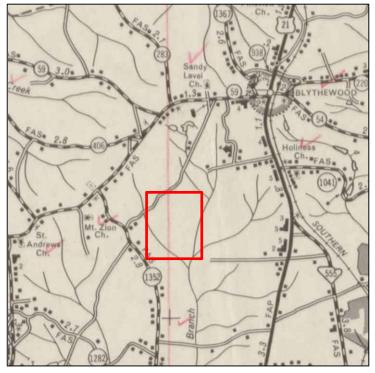


Figure 3.10. Portion of 1963 SCDOT map of Richland County, showing vicinity of the project area.

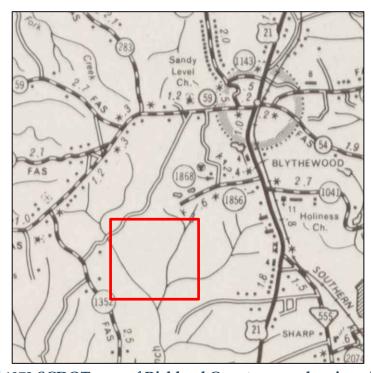


Figure 3.11. Portion of 1973 SCDOT map of Richland County map, showing vicinity of the project area.

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4.0 Methods

4.1 Archaeological Field Methods

A reconnaissance survey of the 288-acre project area was conducted March 6, 2023, and an intensive Phase I archaeological survey of 90.2-acres was conducted March 20 through March 24, 2023. The archaeological reconnaissance survey was conducted primarily with shovel tests in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites based on landform type, soil drainage, distance to water, and the results of the background research. Pedestrian survey was undertaken along dirt roads and other areas with good ground surface exposure. Shovel tests in the Phase I survey areas were placed at 30-m intervals along transects placed 30-m apart.

Shovel tests were at least 30 cm by 30 cm and excavated to sterile subsoil or 80 cm below surface (cmbs), whichever was encountered first. Soil from the shovel tests was screened though ¼-inch wire mesh and soil colors were determined through comparison with Munsell Soil Color Charts. If sites were identified, they would be located using a GPS unit and plotted on USGS 7.5 minute topographic maps. Artifacts recovered during the survey were organized and bagged by site and relative provenience within each site.

Site boundaries were determined by excavating shovel tests at 15-m intervals from positive shovel tests or surface finds at the perimeter of each site. Sites were recorded in the field using field journals and standard S&ME site forms and documented using digital imagery and detailed site maps. State site forms were filled out and submitted to SCIAA once fieldwork was complete. For purposes of the project, an archaeological site is defined as an area yielding three or more historic or prehistoric artifacts and/or an area with visible or historically recorded cultural features (e.g., shell middens, rockshelters, chimney falls, brick walls, piers, earthworks, etc.). An isolated find is defined as yielding less than three historic or prehistoric artifacts.

4.2 Architectural Survey

In addition to the archaeological survey, an architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect aboveground National Register listed or eligible properties. Existing aboveground resources within or directly adjacent to the project area were examined for National Register eligibility using the Criteria established by the U.S. Department of the Interior and the National Park Service. Previously unrecorded resources 50 years or older were digitally photographed and marked on the applicable USGS topographic quadrangle maps. State resource forms were filled out and submitted to SCDAH once fieldwork was complete.

4.3 Laboratory Methods

Artifacts recovered during the survey were cleaned, identified, and analyzed using the techniques summarized below. Following analysis, artifacts were bagged according to site, provenience, and specimen number. Acid-free plastic bags and artifact tags were used for curation purposes.

Lithic artifacts were initially identified as either debitage or tools. Debitage was sorted by raw material type and size graded using the mass analysis method advocated by Ahler (1989). When present, formal tools were classified by type, and metric attributes (e.g., length, width, and thickness) were recorded for each unbroken tool. Projectile point typology generally followed those contained in Coe (1964) and Justice (1987).

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Historic artifacts were separated by material type and then further sorted into functional groups. For example, glass was sorted into window, container, or other glass. Maker's marks and/or decorations were noted to ascertain chronological attributes using established references for historic materials, including Noel Hume (1970), South (1977), and Miller (1991).

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

4.4 National Register Eligibility Assessment

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

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

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

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5.0 Results

A cultural resources survey was conducted intermittently from March 6 through March 24, 2023. A reconnaissance level survey was completed on the approximately 288-acre project area and as a result of the reconnaissance survey, two archaeological sites (38RD1529 and 38RD1530) were identified and recorded and one previously recorded above ground resource (SHPO Survey Number 7624) was revisited. In addition to the resources, approximately 90.2 acres were considered high probability for containing significant archaeological sites and recommended for a Phase I investigation. The Phase I survey was conducted on roughly 90.2-acres of the project area and as a result of the investigation, site 38RD1530 was re-located and the boundaries of the site were expanded. No additional archaeological sites were recorded.

Vegetation in the project area includes areas of planted pine and mixed hardwoods (Figures 5.1 and 5.2); disturbances in the project area include buried utilities, dirt roads, push piles and push piles (Figures 5.3–5.6). An unnamed tributary of Beasley Creek flows through the project area (Figure 5.7). Portions of the project area contained slope greater than 15 percent (Figure 5.8).

The historic maps examined depict structures within the project area beginning around 1935 and continuing through the present day (Figures 3.6 and 3.9). An attempt was made to re-locate these structures. During the reconnaissance and Phase I surveys it appears that site 38RD1530 corresponds to one of the structures, which is discussed in greater detail below. There was no evidence remaining of the other structures depicted within the project area.

In total, two archaeological sites (38RD1529 and 38RD1530) were identified and one previously recorded above ground resource (SHPO Survey Number 7624) was revisited during the cultural resources survey of the Beasley Tract. Each of the resources is discussed below in the archaeological and architectural survey results sections.

5.1 Archaeological Reconnaissance Survey Results

An archaeological reconnaissance survey was conducted on March 6, 2023, for the approximately 288-acre project area. A total of 75 shovel tests (59 shovel tests and 16 radials) were excavated within the project area along 10 transects (Figure 5.9; Table 5.1). Three soil profiles were encountered: the first transitioned from plow zone directly to subsoil, with no intact soil horizon; the second was plow zone followed by an intact soil horizon with subsoil not encountered; the third was plow zone terminating at the water table. The typical soil profile where subsoil was encountered beneath the plow zone consisted of 10 cm of brown (10YR 4/3) sandy loam, terminating with approximately 10+ cm (10–20+ cmbs) of strong brown (7.5YR 5/6) sandy clay subsoil (Figure 5.10); the typical soil profile where an intact soil horizon was present beneath plow zone and subsoil was not encountered consisted of 10 cm of brown (10YR 4/3) sandy loam, followed by 70+ cm (10–80+ cmbs) of yellow (10YR 7/6) sand (Figure 5.11); the typical soil profile where the water table was encountered consisted of 25+ cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) sandy loam, followed by the water table (Figure 5.12). As a result of the investigations, two new archaeological sites (38RD1529 and 38RD1530) were identified and will be discussed following the Phase I investigation results.

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Figure 5.1. Area of planted pine in the project area, facing south.



Figure 5.2. Area of mixed hardwoods in the project area, facing northeast.

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Figure 5.3. Buried utility in the project area, facing northwest.



Figure 5.4. Typical road within the project area, facing north.

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Figure 5.5. Push pile within the project area, facing northeast.



Figure 5.6. View of one of the ponds within the project area, facing east.

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Figure 5.7. Unnamed tributary of Beasley Creek within project area, facing southeast.



Figure 5.8. An area of slope greater than 15 percent in the project area, facing west.

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Table 5.1. Summary of transects within the project area.

Transect No.	No. of Shovel Tests	Landform	Findings
1	3	Hilltop	No Sites
2	2	Banks of Tributary	No Sites
3	8	Hilltop/Hillslope	No Sites
4	4	Hillslope	No Sites
5	15 (8 regular and 7 radials)	Hillslope	38RD1529
6	5	Hillslope	No Sites
7	6	Hilltop	No Sites
8	19 (10 regular and 9 radials)	Hilltop/Hillslope	38RD1530
9	4	Hilltop	No Sites
10	9	Hilltop	No Sites

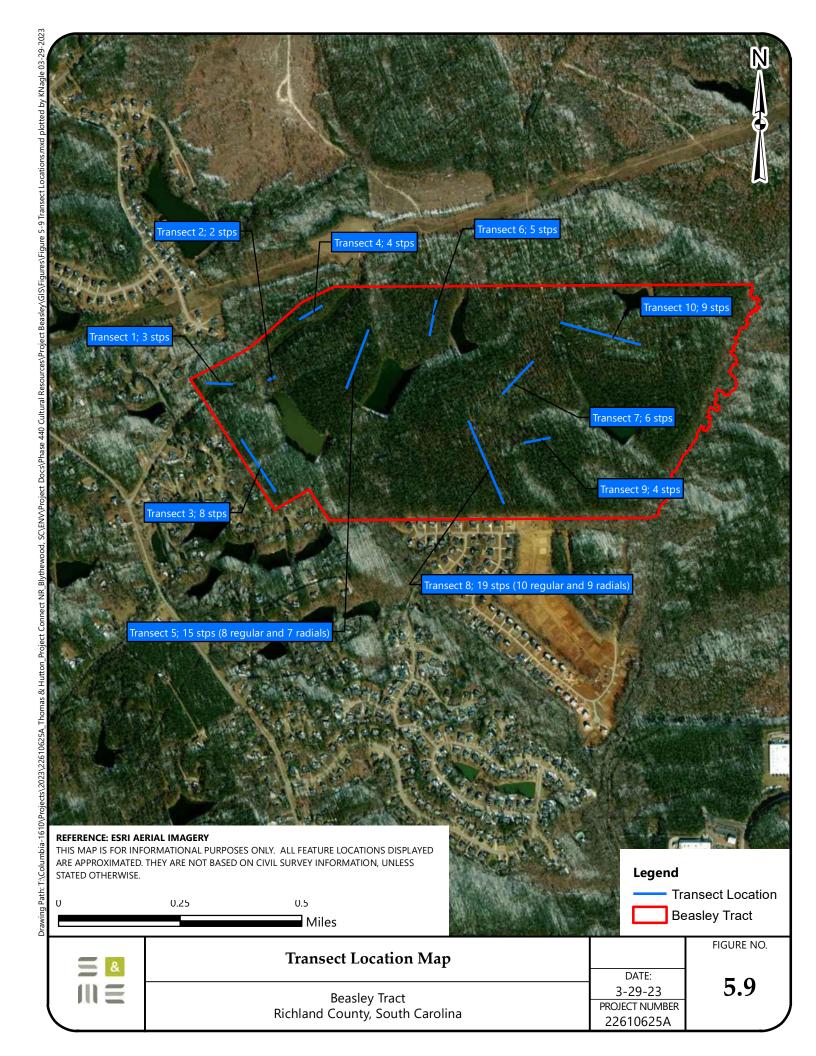






Figure 5.10. Typical soil profile in areas where the plow zone transitions to subsoil.



Figure 5.11. Typical soil profile in areas where an intact soil borazon was present below plow zone and subsoil was not encountered.

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Figure 5.12. Typical soil profile in areas where the plow zone transitions into water was encountered.

5.2 Archaeological Phase I Investigation Results

A Phase I intensive survey was conducted on March 20 through March 24, 2023, on approximately 90.2 acres located in the western portion of the Beasley Tract (Figures 1.1 and 1.2); the vegetation within the Phase I area consisted of pine trees and dirt roads were the only disturbance within the Phase I survey area (Figures 5.13 and 5.14). One typical soil profile was encountered during the Phase I survey that consisted of 10 cm of brown (10YR 4/3) sandy loam followed by 70+ cm (10–80+ cmbs) of yellow (10YR 7/6) sand; subsoil was not encountered (Figure 5.15). A total of 453 shovel tests were excavated during the Phase I investigations (Figure 5.16).

As a result of the survey, archaeological site (38RD1529) was identified during the reconnaissance survey and archaeological site (38RD1530) was re-located and the boundaries of the site were expanded during the Phase I survey. The two archaeological sites are discussed in greater detail below.

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Figure 5.13. Area of pine trees in the Phase I survey area, facing northeast.



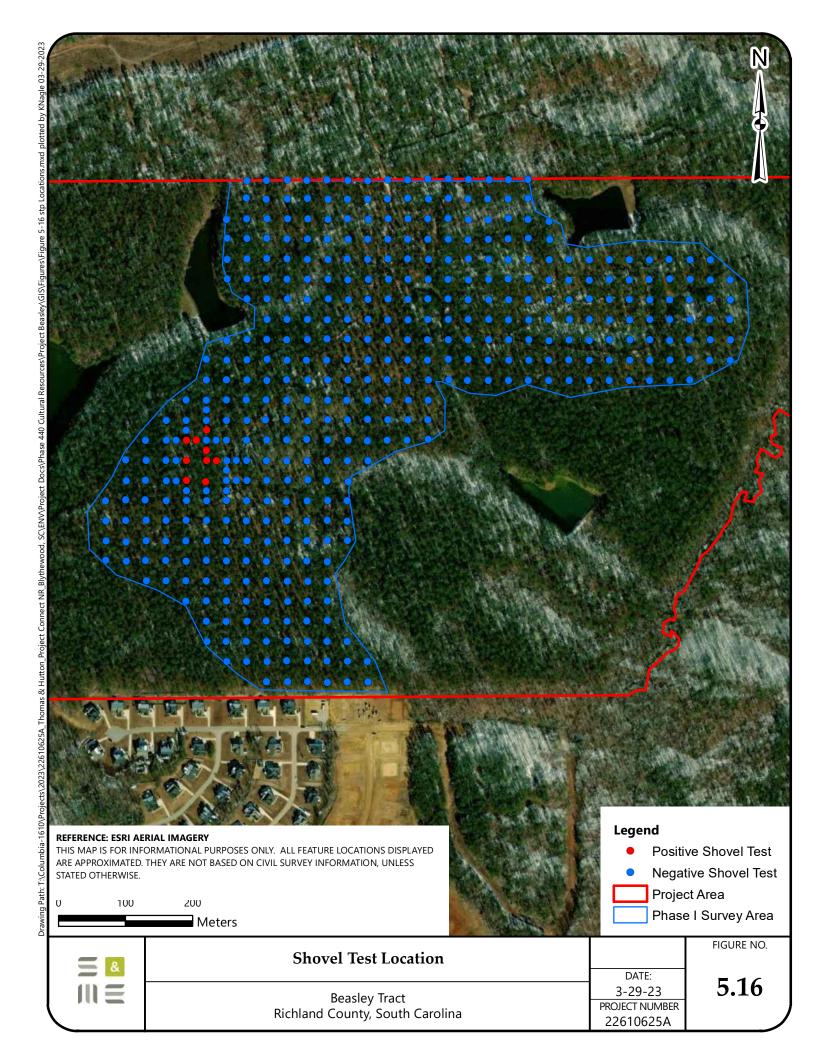
Figure 5.14. Dirt road within the Phase I area, facing north.

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Figure 5.15. Typical soil profile in the Phase I survey area.



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5.2.1 Site 38RD1529

Site Number: 38RD1529
Site Type: Lithic scatter
Components: Unidentified
Quad Name: Irmo NE

UTM Coordinates: E499627, N3783224 (17N, NAD 83)

Site Dimensions: 20 m NE/SW x 20 m NW/SE

Artifact Depth: 10–60 cmbs

NRHP Recommendation: Not Eligible

Elevation: 450 ft AMSL **Landform:** Hilltop

Distance to Water: 1171 m to Beasley Creek

Soil Type: Pelion loamy sand

Vegetation: Pines

No. of STPs/Positive STPs: 11/3

Site 38RD1529 is a prehistoric lithic scatter located on a hilltop overlooking a pond (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site was identified during the reconnaissance survey. The site is situated in an area of pine trees, measures approximately 20 m northeast/southwest by 20 m northwest/southeast, and is bounded by two negative shovel tests in each of the cardinal directions (Figures 5.17 and 5.18).

A total of 11 shovel tests were excavated at the site; a typical soil profile consisted of 10 cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) sandy loam over 50 cm (10–60 cmbs) of yellowish brown (10YR 5/8) sand, terminating with 10+ cm (60–70+ cmbs) of strong brown (7.5YR 5/8) sand clay subsoil (Figure 5.19). A total of 11 prehistoric artifacts were recovered from the site from between 10 and 60 cmbs in three shovel tests. The artifacts consisted of eleven pieces of debitage (nine quartz, one quartzite, and one coastal plain chert) (Appendix A). None of the artifacts are temporally diagnostic.

Site 38RD1529 is a prehistoric lithic scatter located on a hilltop overlooking a pond. Although the artifacts were found within an intact soil layer, the site has a paucity of artifact types and lacks temporally diagnostic artifacts. Based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that the site is not associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history (Criterion A), is not associated with the lives of significant persons in the past (Criterion B), does not embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or methods of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C), and is unlikely to yield significant information on the prehistory of the area (Criterion D). As such, Site 38RD1529 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.2.2 Site 38RD1530

Site Number: 38RD1530 NRHP Recommendation: Not Eligible

Site Type: Lithic scatter; House site

Components: Late Archaic; 19th/20th century

Elevation: 480 ft AMSL

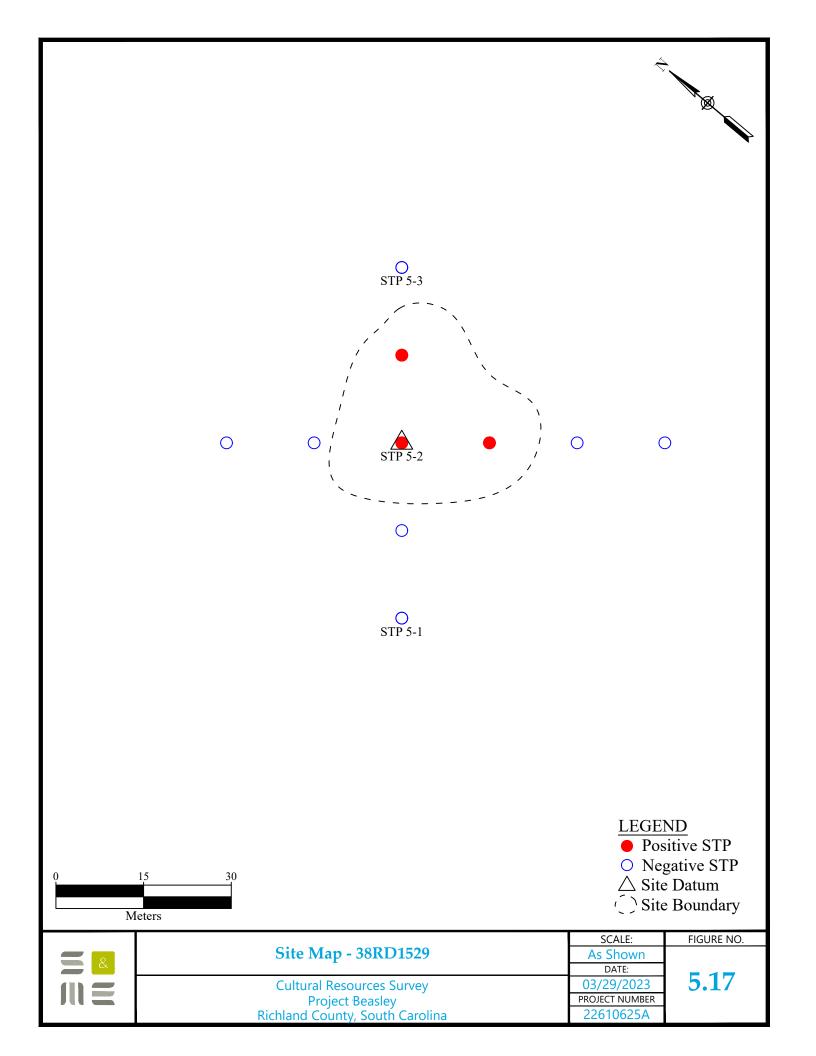
Landform: Hilltop

Quad Name: Blythewood and Irmo NE **Distance to Water:** 715 m to Beasley Creek

UTM Coordinates: E500026, N3783085 (17N, NAD 83) **Soil Type**: Lakeland Sand **Site Dimensions**: 75 m N/S x 60 m E/W **Vegetation:** Pine

Artifact Depth: Surface; 0–80 cmbs No. of STPs/Positive STPs: 36/9

Site 38RD1530 is a Late Archaic lithic scatter and nineteenth/twentieth century house site located on a hilltop (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The site was initially identified during the reconnaissance survey and was re-located during the Phase I investigation. The site is situated in an area of pine trees, measures approximately 75 m north/south by 60 m east/west, and is bounded by two negative shovel tests in each cardinal direction (Figures 5.20 and 5.21).



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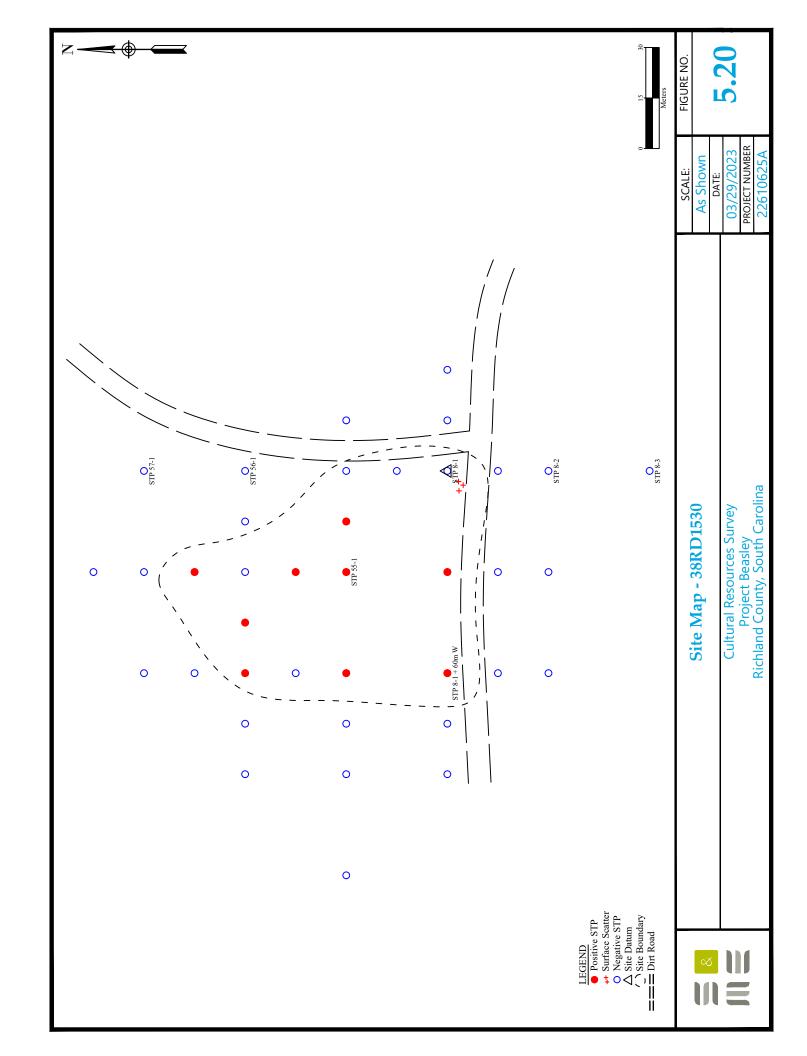




Figure 5.18. Overview of site 38RD1529, facing north.



Figure 5.19. Typical shovel test profile at site 38RD1529.



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Figure 5.21. Overview of site 38RD1530, facing west.

During the reconnaissance and Phase I investigations, a total of 36 shovel tests were excavated at the site; a typical soil profile consisted of 20 cm of grayish brown (10YR 5/2) sand over 60+cm (10–80+cmbs) of yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) sand; subsoil was not encountered (Figure 5.22). A total of 45 artifacts (two prehistoric and 43 historic) were recovered from the site; six from the surface and 39 from between 0 and 80 cmbs in nine shovel tests. The prehistoric artifacts consisted of one quartz Savannah River projectile point fragment and one piece of quartzite debitage (Appendix A). The historic artifacts consisted of three pieces of whiteware (two plain and one flow blue), two pieces of stoneware (one with a gray glaze and the other a clear glaze exterior and brown glaze interior), seven pieces of glass (two light green, two clear, one amethyst/solarized, one cobalt blue, and one olive green), 16 nails (12 cut and four wire), one piece of unidentified metal, 11 pieces of machine made brick, one piece of metal wire, and one metal button with a flower design (Appendix A). The Savannah River projectile point dates to the Late Archaic subperiod (5000–3000 B.P.). The flow blue whiteware dates from 1835 to 1910; the plain whiteware dates from 1815 to present; the cut nails date from 1790 to present; the wire nails date from 1850 to present; the amethyst/solarized glass dates to 1880 to 1915; the metal wire dates to 1831 to present. A structure is depicted on the 1935 topographic map in the vicinity of the site, but is no longer shown on subsequent maps (Figure 3.6). No foundation or other architectural features were found within the site boundaries.

Site 38RD1530 is a Late Archaic lithic scatter and nineteenth/twentieth century house site and located on a hilltop in an area of pines. The prehistoric artifacts were recovered from the surface and from the intact horizon; the historic artifacts were recovered from the plowzone and the surface. The single diagnostic prehistoric artifact was recovered from the surface of the site. There was a lack of prehistoric features at the site and no architectural features remaining. Based on the information presented, it is S&ME's opinion that the site is not associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history (Criterion A), is not associated with the lives of significant persons in the past (Criterion B), does not embody the distinctive characteristics of a

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Figure 5.22. Typical shovel test profile at site 38RD1530.

type, period, or methods of construction; represent the work of a master; possess high artistic values; or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction (Criterion C), and is unlikely to yield significant information on the prehistory or history of the area (Criterion D). As such, site 38RD1530 is recommended ineligible for inclusion in the NRHP.

5.3 Architectural Survey Results

An architectural survey was conducted to determine whether the proposed project would affect aboveground historic properties. Accessible public roads within and adjacent to the project area were driven and existing resources greater than 50 years old were photographed. The location of one previously above ground resource (SHPO Survey Number 7624) was revisited and no new aboveground resources were recorded (Figures 1.1 and 1.2).

5.3.1 Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624)

Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624) runs roughly northeast-southwest through the northeastern portion of the project area (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The roadbed runs southwestward from Blythewood Road, beginning across the road from Sandy Level Baptist Church, north of the project area, and intersects Fulmer Road southwest of the project area (Figure 1.1 and 1.2). Throughout the project area, Locklier Road is a dirt roadbed with trees and ground vegetation on either side (Figures 5.23–5.26). A roadway is depicted along the approximate route of Locklier Road beginning on the 1935 USGS topographic quadrangle and it remains on topographic maps throughout the twentieth century (Figures 3.6–3.9). Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624) is a historic roadbed that dates from the early twentieth century through the present; it is one of a large number of unpaved former farm roads in the rural portions of Richland County and it does not possess particular significance or historic association; additionally, it has been slightly rerouted since the early twentieth century and does not retain integrity. Therefore, Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624) is recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP.

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Figure 5.23. Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624), in northern portion of the project area, facing northeast.



Figure 5.24. Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624), in northern portion of the project area, facing west.

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Figure 5.25. Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624) north of the current project area, facing west.



Figure 5.26. Locklier Road (SHPO Survey Number 7624) north of the current project area, facing northeast.

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6.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

On behalf of Thomas & Hutton, S&ME has completed a cultural resources survey of the proposed approximately 288-acre project area associated with the Beasley Tract in Richland County, South Carolina (Figures 1.1 and 1.2). The project area is located west of Interstate 77, approximately 1.72 miles southwest of Blythewood, South Carolina.

The purpose of the survey was to assess the project area's potential for containing significant cultural resources and to make recommendations regarding additional work that may be required pursuant to Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended, and other pertinent federal, state, or local laws. This work was done in anticipation of federal permitting and was carried out in general accordance with S&ME Proposal Number 22610625A, dated January 31, 2023, and email scope of work dated March 15, 2023.

A reconnaissance survey was completed on March 6, 2023. This work included the excavation of 75 shovel tests (59 shovel tests and 16 radials) in areas of high and low probability for containing archaeological sites, as well as an architectural survey. As a result of the reconnaissance, two archaeological sites (38RD1529 and 38RD1530) were identified and recorded and one previously recorded above ground resource (SHPO Survey Number 7624) was revisited during the investigation (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). In addition to the resources identified, approximately 90.2-acres of the 288-acre project area were considered high probability for containing significant archaeological resources and recommended for Phase I investigation.

A Phase I archaeological survey was conducted from March 20–24, 2023, on the 90.2 acres recommended for the Phase I survey. As a result of the intensive survey, archaeological site 38RD1530 was revisited and the boundaries were expanded (Figures 1.1 and 1.2; Table 1.1). No additional archaeological sites were identified during the intensive survey.

The two archaeological sites and the previously recorded above ground resource are recommended not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP. Based on the results of the cultural resources survey it is S&ME's opinion that no additional cultural resource investigations should be necessary for the project area as currently proposed.

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8.0 Appendix A – Artifact Catalog

	Notes								Tip has been broken off and it is two pieces that fit together; Late Archaic	1815-Present	Gray glaze	1835-1910			Clear glaze exterior, Brown glaze interior	1790-Present							1880-1915	1790-Present	1815-Present				1 loop, Flower design		1790-Present	1850-Present	1831-Present, Insulated
ithic Size	Grade	1	2	က	2	3	2	2						1																			
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	Category	Debitage	Debitage	Debitage	Debitage	Debitage	Debitage	Debitage	Chipped Stone	Ref. Earthenware	Stoneware	Ref. Earthenware	Machine Molded	Debitage	Stoneware	Hardware	Masonry	Machine Molded	Masonry	Masonry	Machine Molded	Machine Molded	Machine Molded	Hardware	Ref. Earthenware	Masonry	Machine Molded	Masonry	Personal Item	Other	Hardware	Hardware	Other
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Weight	(a)	12.3 Lithic	4.0 Lithic	0.2 Lithic	10.7 Lithic	1.4 Lithic	1.5 Lithic	4.0 Lithic	33.5 Lithic	10.2 H.	11.3 H.	1.0 H.	18.4 Glass	23.7 Lithic	226.7 H.	3.6 Metal	7.6 Other	0.5 Glass	9.9 Other	9.1 Other	0.6 Glass	1.0 Glass	0.4 Glass	6.3 Metal	2.4 H.	5.8 Other	0.5 Glass	78.7 Other	1.2 Other	0.2 Metal	52.2 Metal	10.7 Metal	0.5 Metal
_	Count	1	1	-	2	4	1	1	-	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	11	4	-
Depth	(cmps)	20-50	20-20	10-45	20-60	20-60	20-60	20-60	Surface	Surface	Surface	Surface	0-15	20-80	Surface	0-30	0-30	0-15	0-15	0-30	0-15	Surface	0-15	0-15	20-80	20-80	0-50	0-50	0-50	0-50	0-50	0-50	0-50
	Cat. # Provenience	1.01 STP 5-2	1.02 STP 5-2	2.01 STP 5-2+15m @ 50	3.01 STP 5-2+15m @ 140	3.02 STP 5-2+15m @ 140	3.03 STP 5-2+15m @ 140	3.04 STP 5-2+15m @ 140	1.01 STP 8-1	1.02 STP 8-1	1.03 STP 8-1	1.04 STP 8-1	2.01 STP 8-1+30m W	3.01 STP 8-1+60m W	4.01 STP 8-1+15m N	5.01 STP 55-1	5.02 STP 55-1	6.01 STP 55-1+15m N	6.02 STP 55-1+15m N	7.01 STP 55-1+45m N	8.01 STP 55-1+15m E	9.01 STP 55-2	10.01 STP 55-2	10.02 STP 55-2	11.01 STP 56-3	11.02 STP 56-3	12.01 STP 56-3+15m E	12.02 STP 56-3+15m E	12.03 STP 56-3+15m E	12.04 STP 56-3+15m E	12.05 STP 56-3+15m E	12.06 STP 56-3+15m E	12.07 STP 56-3+15m E
		38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1529	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530	38RD1530

Appendix A - Beasley Tract Artifact Catalog

Richland County, South Carolina S&ME Project No. 22610625A



9.0 Appendix B – Draft Structure Card

Statewide Survey of Historic Properties

State Historic Preservation Office South Carolina Department of Archives and History 8301 Parklane Road Columbia, SC 29223-4905 (803) 896-6100 Site No. Status

Revisit

Quadrangle Name:

Tax Map No.

SURVEY FORM

<u>Identification</u>				
Historic Name:				
Common Name:				
Address/Location:				
City:		Vicinity of	County:	
Ownership:	Category:		Other:	
Historical Use:				
Current Use:				
SHPO National Register Determination of Eligibility:				
Property Description				Other:
Construction Date:	Construction	ղ:		
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Other:	Foundation	ո:		
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Other:	Roof Materia	ıl:		
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Description/Significant Features:				

Statewide Survey of Historic Proper	ties Site No.	Page 2
Alterations (include date(s), if known):		
Architect(s)/Builder(s):		
<u>Historical Information</u>		
Historical Information:		
Source(s) of Information:		
<u>Digital Photo ID(s)</u>		
File Name:	View:	Other:
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Recorded by:	Organization:	Date Recorded:







