CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE COBBLESTONE PARK 69kV TRANSMISSION PROJECT, RICHLAND COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

Chicora Research Contribution 597

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MANAGEMENT SUMMARY

This report provides the results of a cultural resources investigation of an approximately 0.75 mile of corridor proposed for the use of a transmission line extending from two existing power lines running southwest-northwest about a mile south of Blythewood Road to a proposed new substation on the west side of community Road about 1,600 feet south of Blythewood Road in Richland County. Also included is the associated is 1.9 acre distribution site at the north end of the project. The study was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work is intended to assist this client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The corridor is to be used by Central Electric Power Cooperative for the construction of the 69kV transmission line. The proposed route will require the clearing of the corridor, followed by construction of the proposed transmission line. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites that may be in the project corridor. For this study, an area of potential effects (APE) 50 feet around the proposed transmission line was assumed. This is based on the existence of two large power line corridors to the south of the project, a smaller existing corridor along Blythewood Road, and the presence of other development in the immediate area.

Richland County has received a comprehensive architectural survey, coupled with a variety of additional investigations. No architectural sites have been identified within or adjacent to the APE. ArchSite failed to identify any previously identified archaeological sites within the corridor or the APE. The SHPO reports two previous surveys in the project area, although these were not revealed by ArchSite when it was examined for this project. We understand that no sites were identified by either project.

The archaeological study of the transmission line incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the centerline of the 70-foot wide proposed corridor. The corridor was only minimally cut and staked at the time of this investigation. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 40 shovel tests were anticipated in the corridor. Because of extensive wetland areas with standing water, as well as severe slopes and gullies, only 35 were actually excavated in the survey corridor. No archaeological sites were identified as a result of these investigations.

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

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Introduction

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative to comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

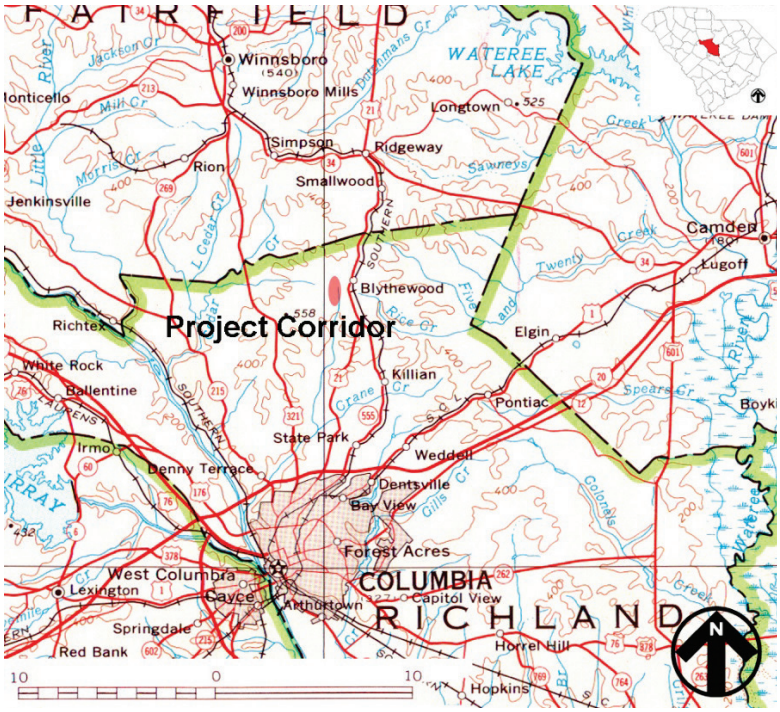

Figure 1. Survey corridor on the 1:500,000 State of South Carolina map.

The project site consists of a 0.75-mile corridor to be used for a transmission line in north central Richland County, south of Blythewood Road and west of Community Road and I-77 and with its associated 1.9 acre distribution site (Figure 1).

The line extends north from the existing South Carolina Public Service Authority and Central Electric power lines and their associated east-west easement through dense woods to a proposed new substation, for a distance of approximately 4,000 feet. This corridor parallels Community Road to the west (Figure 2).

The corridor also follows Beasley Creek as it meanders south, with elevations dropping from about 490 feet at the southern origin to about 435 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) at its northern terminus at the substation. Much of the corridor is low, being situated in the drainage of the intermittent creek.

A portion of the corridor at the southern end evidences remnant plow ridges from its previous cultivation. The bulk of the corridor, however, was too low for cultivation, but nevertheless reveals second growth.

The proposed corridor, as previously mentioned, is intended to be used as a transmission line. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing and construction, including erection of poles, will damage the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area. Construction and maintenance of the transmission line may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. The project will not directly affect any standing historic structures (since none are located on or within 100 feet of the survey corridor), but the completed facility may detract from the visual

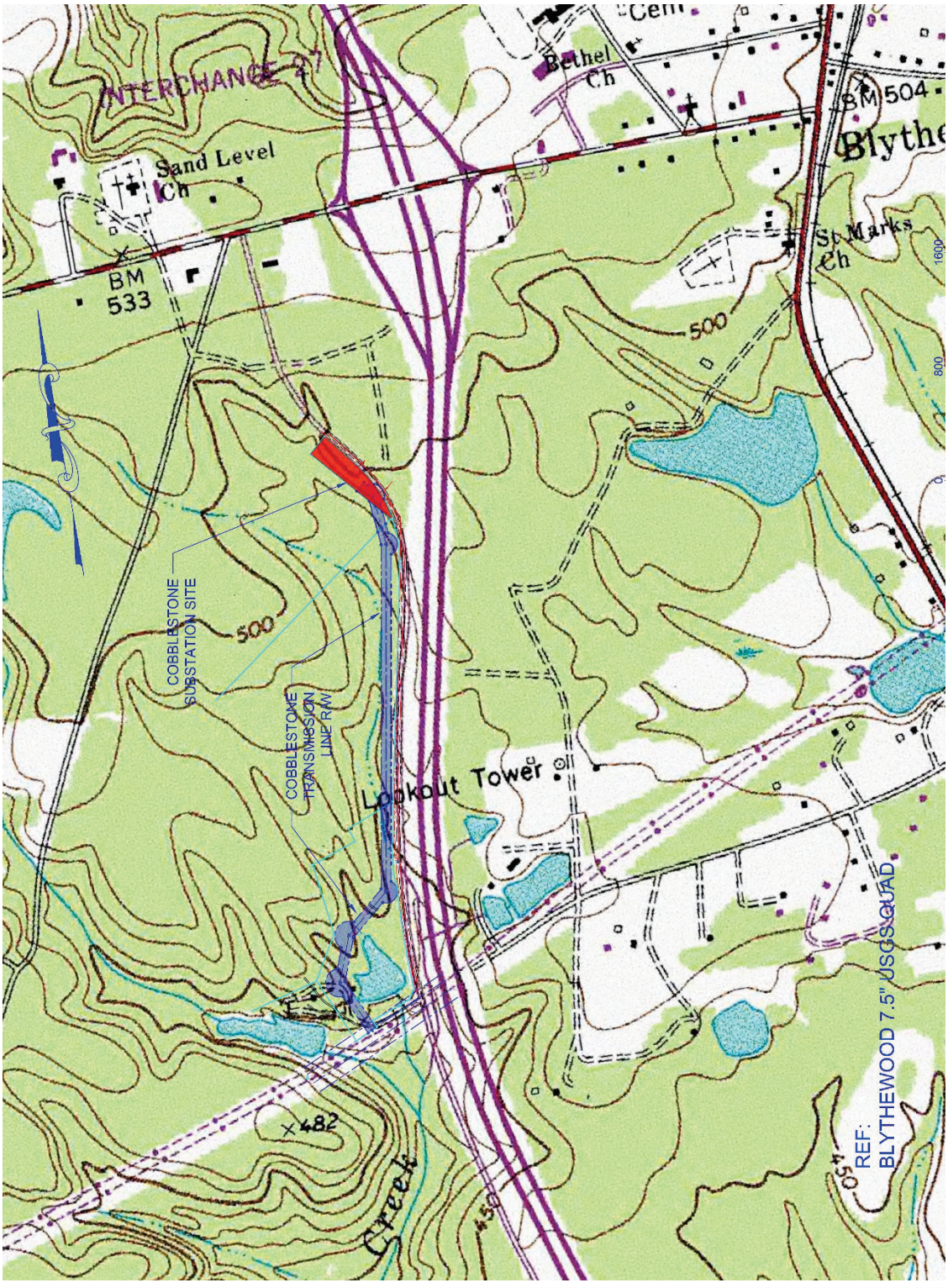

Figure 2. Portion of the USGS topographic map Blythewood, showing the proposed corridor and distribution site (in red).

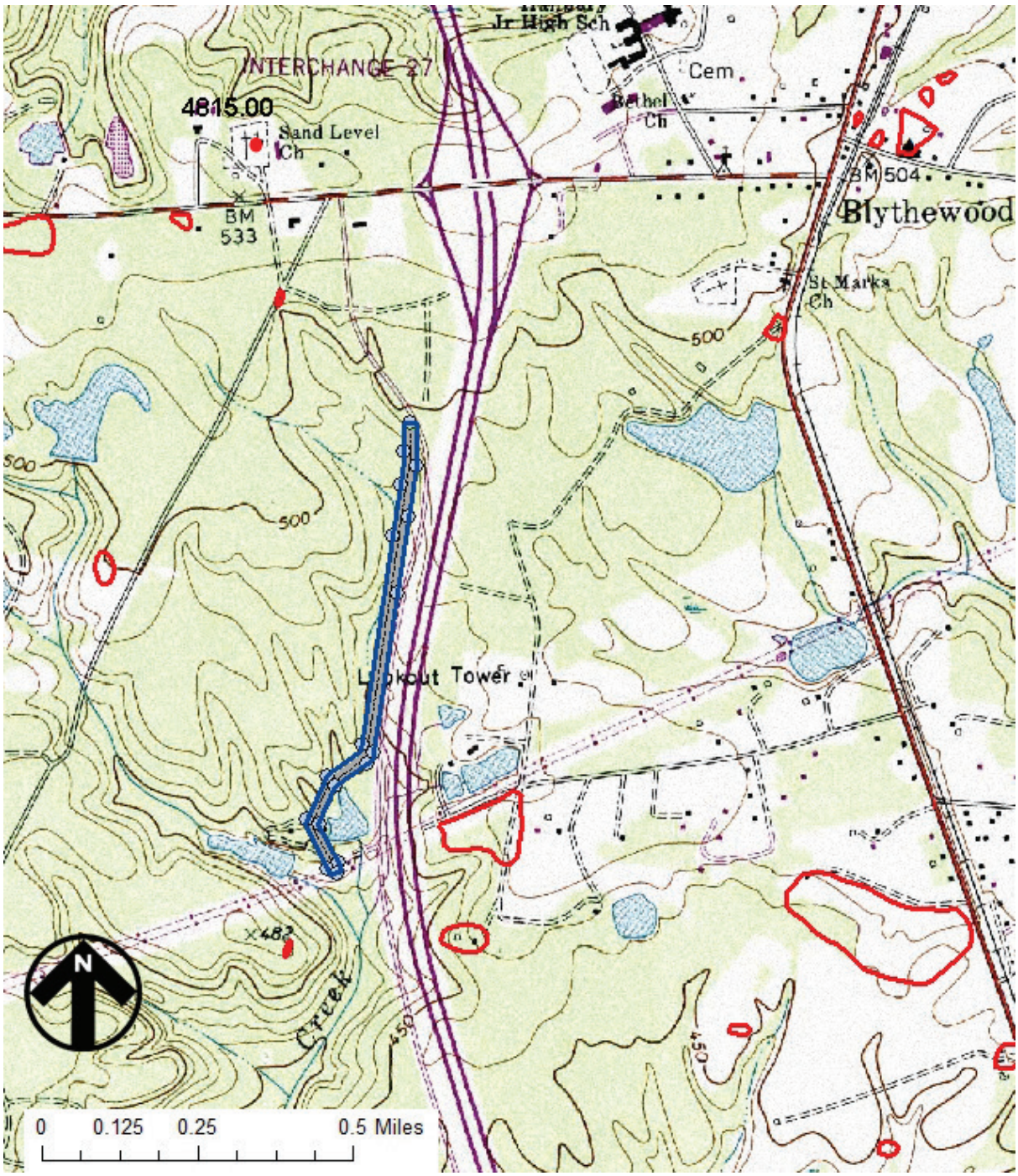

Figure 3. ArchSite map of the project corridor with a 50-foot APE.

integrity of historic properties, creating what some consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) 50 feet around the proposed corridor. This distance was selected since the proposed corridor will use only single poles or H-frame wood poles, the corridor is primarily 75 feet in width, tree cover in some areas is heavy, there are numerous transmission lines already present, and the area has been modified by cultivation.

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

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to conduct the cultural resource study in late May 2019, with the field investigations conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley on June 17, 2019. The architectural survey and evaluations were conducted by Dr. Trinkley at this same time.

These investigations incorporated a review of ArchSite and the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology using an Area of Potential Effects (APE) of 50 feet. No previously identified archaeological sites were identified in the corridor, or in the 50-foot APE (Figure 3). This APE was chosen because of the proximity of I-77 and Community Road to the west, an existing power line easement along Community Road, and two much larger lines at the southern end of the corridor.

We have been informed by the SHPO that two previous surveys exist in this area, including the *Cultural Resources Identification Survey, Blythewood Industrial Site* (2015) and the *Cultural Resources Intensive Survey Blythewood Industrial Site – Northern Portion, Richland County, South Carolina* (2018).

Figure 3 represents what ArchSite was capable of producing during our visit to SCIAA in anticipation of the project. Whether a result of result of software or hardware issues, we were unable to obtain data from ArchSite and even with the assistance of SCIAA staff, it required 45 minutes to obtain the data revealed by Figure 3.

Consequently, we were unaware of any previous surveys in the area prior to the SHPO comments. As requested, we are including the information they provided in this survey.

A comprehensive architectural survey of upper Richland County was conducted in 2002 (Martin et al. 2002). No architectural sites were identified within or even adjacent to the proposed corridor. In fact, the closest is 4815, the Sand Level Church, about 0.5 mile north of the corridor.

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

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina on June 18 and 19, 2019. The only photographic materials associated with this project are digital and will be retained by Chicora Foundation.

Environmental Background

Physiography and Geology

Richland County, situated in the approximate center of South Carolina, is bounded to the southwest by the Congaree River, to the southeast by the Wateree River, to the northeast by Kershaw County, to the north by Fairfield County, as well as sections of both Cedar Creek and the Broad River, and to the northwest by Lexington County.

The county is located within two distinct physiographic provinces: the Piedmont Plateau and the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The northern half of the coastal plain is known as the Sand Hills. About a third of Richland County is found within the Piedmont, separated from the coastal plain by an irregular line, known as the Fall Line, which extends north from the vicinity of Columbia and runs west of US 21 to Blythewood. From Blythewood, the Fall Line continues southeast, entering Kershaw County at the confluence of Twentyfive Mile Creek and Rice Creek.

The project area is technically situated in the Carolina Sand Hills, an area of discontinuous hilly topography characterized by rounded hills with gentle slopes, moderate relief, and sandy soils. Although technically part of the Coastal Plain geology, the Sand Hills are distinct geographically. Much of the sand was blown into dunes during the Miocene, although weathered clays and very old river deposits are also present. In many cases, these sandy deposits lie directly on the crystalline rocks of the Piedmont (Kovacik and Winberry 1987; Murphy 1995).

The study area, therefore, is in close contact with a range of physiographic regions. To the west are the dissected plains consisting of the hills and valleys cut by creeks and rivers as they flow toward the coastal plain. Possibly part of the peneplain, the Piedmont is characterized by the dendritic stream patterns. It is also characterized by a range of metavolcanic, quartz, and quartzite materials used by Native Americans for stone tools. To the south is the Coastal Plain, where the topography changes dramatically, the hilly upper Coastal Plain giving way to the broad expanses of relatively flat, level ground associated with the lower Coastal Plain. These areas provide sources for Coastal Plain cherts, also used extensively for tool manufacture.

In the project area, the elevations range from about 435 to 495 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). Slopes are low, averaging about 1%, although several areas exhibit slopes of up to 8%, consistently northward into the lowlands of Beasley Creek.

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont, just northwest of the project, are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In Richland County, many of the Piedmont soils, such as the Nason-Georgeville unit, are weathered from argillites rich in silica and alumina. Other soils are formed in saprolite that weathered from crystalline rocks and "Carolina slates". Soils from the river floodplains formed in sediment that washed from the uplands of the Piedmont province.

Soils

The survey area is characterized by only three soils: Blanton sands, Herndon silt loams, and Johnston loam (Figure 4).

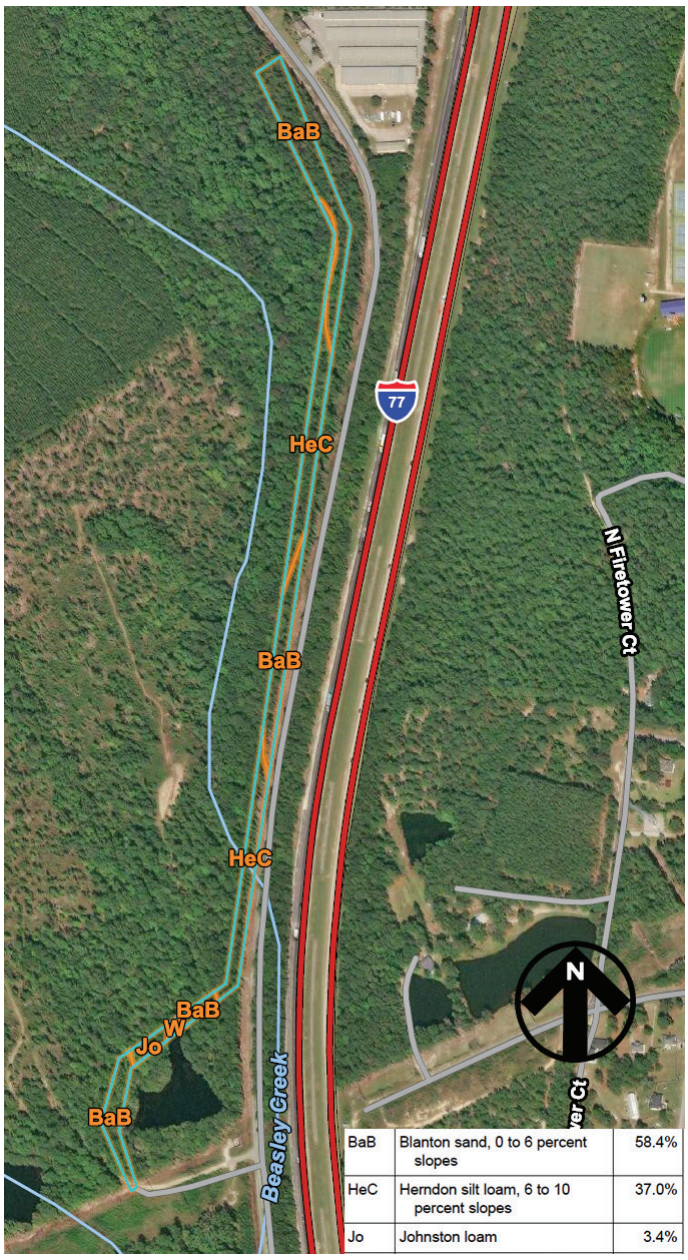

Figure 4. Soils along the project corridor.

The Blanton sands are very deep, somewhat excessively drained and are found on stream terraces. They are formed in sandy and loamy marine or eolian deposits. A typical profile consists of about 0.7-foot of gray (10YR6/1) sand overlying an E1 horizon that is often over 3-feet in depth of very pale brown (10YR7/3) fine sand. During this survey, we noted that in some areas there was clay mixed with this loam.

Over a third of the corridor consists of Herndon silt loams, often on slopes to the creek bottom. These are deep, well-drained soils formed in material weathered from fine-grained metavolcanic rock of the Carolina Slate Belt. Consequently, these soils are typical of areas of Piedmont intrusion. They exhibit an A horizon only 0.2 foot in depth of very dark grayish brown (2.5Y3/2) silt loam, over an E horizon to a depth of about 0.8 foot. This consists of a pale olive (5Y6/4) silt loam.

The Johnston soils in the corridor account for only a small area and are very poorly drained. Found in floodplain and swamp areas, these soils have an A horizon that can range up to 2.8 feet of black (10YR2/1) mucky loam over a Cg1 horizon of dark gray (10YR4/1) loamy fine sand. Because of the extensive rain, these soils were exceptionally wet at the time of the survey and were not screened.

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry (1934) found that this portion of Richland County exhibited moderate sheet erosion. Although Richland County was not included in Stanley Trimble's erosion study of the Southern Piedmont, Fairfield County, within only a few miles of the project area, was reported to have lost over a foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use

Figure 5. Corridor environs. Upper photo shows the corridor, with Community Road in the background. Lower photo shows the corridor from Community Road to illustrate the low topography.

with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III – the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina, including the Sand Hills. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderate many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses which cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont.

Consequently, the climate of Richland County is temperate (Lawrence 1978). The winters are relatively mild and the summers hot and humid. The average temperature for the winter is 48°F while the average summer temperature is 80°F. Rainfall in the amount of about 27 inches is adequate.

The average growing season is about 232 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this by as much as 30 days (Lawrence 1978:73). Consequently, most cotton planting, for example, did not take place until early May, avoiding the possibility that a late frost would damage the young seedlings.

Floristics

Piedmont forests, just north of the survey area, generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). Regardless, the potential natural vegetation of the project area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composed of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak. In actuality, the Piedmont is composed of a patchwork of open fields, pine woodlots, hardwood stands, mixed stands, and second growth fields. Shelford (1963) includes the Carolina Piedmont in the Oak-Hickory zone of the Southern Temperate Deciduous Forest Biome.

John Berry rightly comments, “a walk through the most xeric stages of the fall line Sandhills would probably be very boring.” Such areas are dominated by turkey oaks, scrubby post oaks, and broad expanses of open sandy soil. While most of the pines have been logged out, there are other econiches. On the more mesic soils, pines and mixed hardwoods can be common, dominated by loblolly pines, cedars, southern red oaks, and even pignut and mockernut hickories. In these mesic woods, the understory includes dogwoods, sassafras, black gum, and persimmon (Berry 1980:103, 114-115).

Today little of the study tract exhibits anything resembling these original forests. Cultivation and logging have taken most of the original forests. The study area is generally covered in a mixed pine and scrub hardwood forest with dense underbrush (Figure 3). The wetland area, surrounding Hawkins Branch (Figure 4), is covered in a variety of hardwoods. The corridor, since it follows Hawkins Branch, consisted of a mostly sparse hardwood forest, however the area was covered in steep slopes (Figure 5).

Prehistoric and Historic Synthesis

Prehistoric Overview

Overviews for South Carolina's prehistory, while of differing lengths and complexity, are available in virtually every compliance report prepared. There are, in addition, some "classic" sources well worth attention, such as Joffre Coe's Formative Cultures (Coe 1964), as well as some new general overviews (such as Sassaman et al. 1990 and Goodyear and Hanson 1989). Also extremely helpful, perhaps even essential, are a handful of recent local synthetic statements, such as that offered by Sassaman and Anderson (1994) for the Middle and Late Archaic and by Anderson et al. (1992) for the Paleoindian and Early Archaic. Only a few of the many sources are included in this study, but they should be adequate to give the reader a "feel" for the area and help establish a context for the various sites identified in the study areas. For those desiring a more general synthesis, perhaps the most readable and well balanced is that offered by Judith Bense (1994), Archaeology of the Southeastern United States: Paleoindian to World War I. Figure 6 offers a generalized view of South Carolina's cultural periods.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian Period, most commonly dated from about 12,000 to 10,000 B.P., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notch projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). Oliver (1981, 1985) has proposed to extend the Paleoindian dating in the North Carolina Piedmont to perhaps as early as 14,000 B.P., incorporating the Hardaway Side-Notched and Palmer Corner-Notched types, usually accepted as Early Archaic, as representatives of the terminal phase. This view, verbally suggested by Coe for a number of years, has considerable technological appeal.[1] Oliver suggests continuity from the Hardaway Blade through the Hardaway-Dalton to the Hardaway Side-Notched, eventually to the Palmer Side-Notched (Oliver 1985:199-200). While convincingly argued, this approach is not universally accepted.

The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented toward the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna" (Michie 1977:124). Survey data for Paleoindian tools, most notably fluted points, is somewhat dated, but has been summarized by Charles and Michie (1992). They reveal a widespread distribution across the state (see also Anderson 1992b: Figure 5.1) with at least several concentrations relating to intensity of collector activity. What is clear is that points are found fairly far removed from the origin of the raw material. Charles and Michie suggest that this may "imply a geographically extensive settlement system" (Charles and Michie 1992:247).

[1] While never discussed by Coe at length, he did observe that many of the Hardaway points, especially from the lowest contexts, had facial fluting or thinning which, "in cases where the side-notches or basal portions were missing, . . . could be mistaken for fluted points of the Paleo-Indian period" (Coe 1964:64). While not an especially strong statement, it does reveal the formation of the concept. Further insight is offered by Ward's (1983:63) all too brief comments on the more recent investigations at the Hardaway site (see also Daniel 1992).

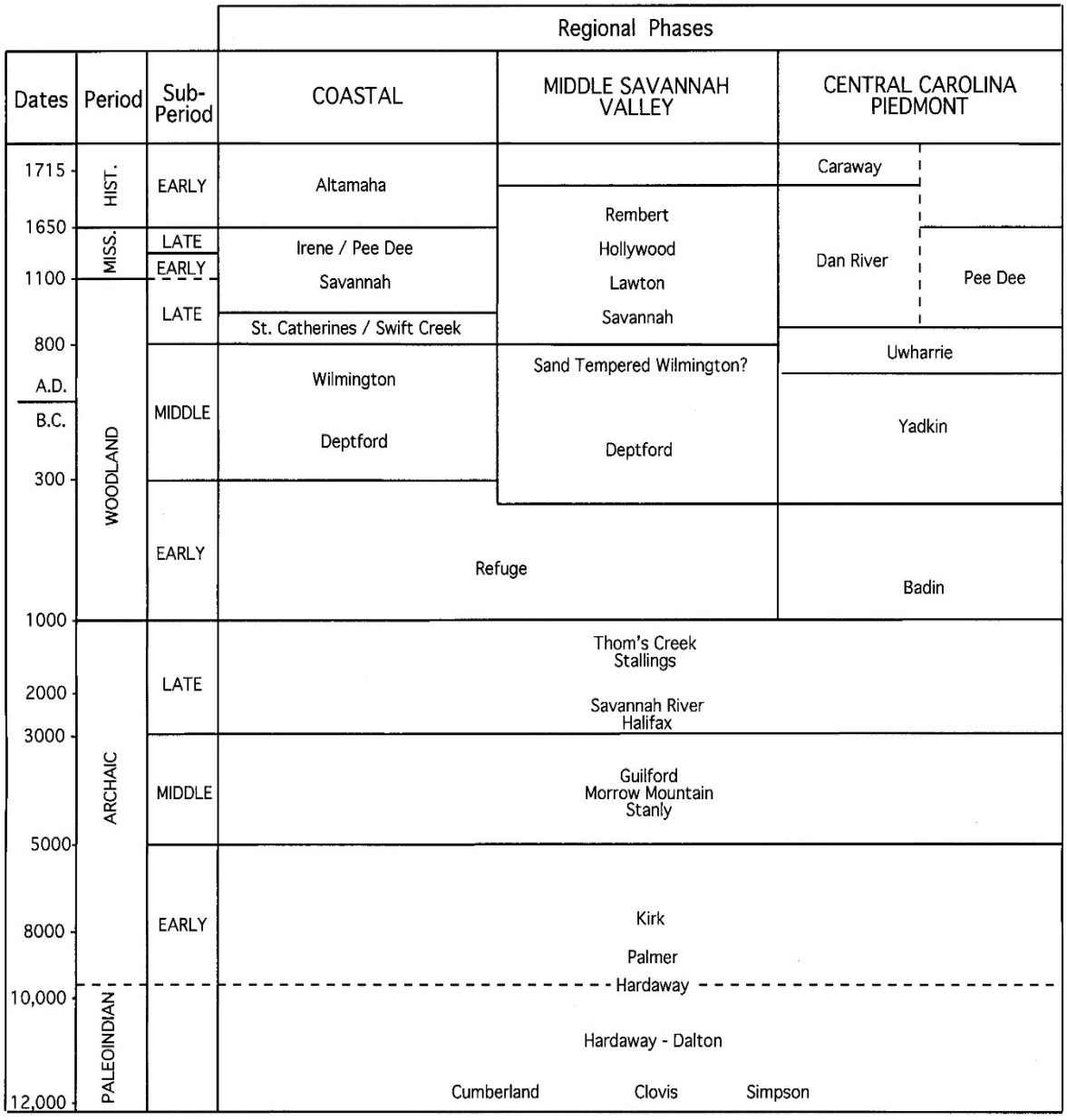

Figure 6. Generalized cultural sequences for South Carolina.

Although data are sparse, one of the more attractive theories that explains the widespread distribution of Paleoindian sites is the model tracking the replacement of a high technology forager (or HTF) adaptation by a "progressively more generalized band/microband foraging adaptation" accompanied by increasingly distinct regional traditions (perhaps reflecting movement either along or perhaps even between river drainages) (Anderson 1992b:46).

Distinctive projectile points include

lanceolates such as Clovis, Dalton, perhaps the Hardaway, and Big Sandy (Coe 1964; Phelps 1983; Oliver 1985). A temporal sequence of Paleoindian projectile points was proposed by Williams (1965:24-51), but according to Phelps (1983:18) there is little stratigraphic or chronometric evidence for it. While this is certainly true, a number of authors, such as Anderson (1992a) and Oliver (1985) have assembled impressive data sets. We are inclined to believe that while often not conclusively proven by stratigraphic excavations (and such proof may be an unreasonable expectation), there is a large body of circumstantial evidence. The weight of this evidence tends to provide considerable support.

Unfortunately, relatively little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization (see, however, Anderson 1992b for an excellent overview and synthesis of what is known). Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Archaic Period

The Archaic Period, which dates from 10,000 to 3,000 B.P.[2], does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian Period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited animal. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner-notched and broad-stemmed projectile points, are common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

Many researchers have reported data suggestive of a noticeable population increase from the Paleoindian into the Early Archaic. This has tentatively been associated with a greater emphasis on foraging. Diagnostic Early Archaic artifacts include the Kirk Corner Notched point. As previously discussed, Palmer points may be included with either the Paleoindian or the Archaic period, depending on theoretical perspective. As the climate became hotter and drier than the previous Paleoindian period, resulting in vegetational changes, it also affected settlement patterning as evidenced by a long-term Kirk phase midden deposit at the Hardaway site (Coe 1964:60). This is believed to have been the result of a change in subsistence strategies.

Settlements during the Early Archaic suggest the presence of a few very large, and apparently intensively occupied, sites that can best be considered base camps. Hardaway might be one such site. In addition, there were numerous small sites which produce only a few artifacts – these are

[2] The terminal point for the Archaic is no clearer than that for the Paleoindian and many researchers suggest a terminal date of 4,000 B.P. rather than 3,000 B.P. There is also the question of whether pottery, such as the fiber-tempered Stallings ware, will be included as Archaic, or will be included with the Woodland. Oliver, for example, argues that the inclusion of ceramics with Late Archaic attributes "complicates and confuses classification and interpretation needlessly" (Oliver 1981:20). He comments that according to the original definition of the Archaic, it "represents a preceramic horizon" and that "the presence of ceramics provides a convenient marker for separation of the Archaic and Woodland periods" (Oliver 1981:21). Others would counter that such an approach ignores cultural continuity and forces an artificial, and perhaps unrealistic, separation. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:38-44), for example, include Stallings and Thom's Creek wares in their discussion of "Late Archaic Pottery." While this issue has been of considerable importance along the Carolina and Georgia coasts, it has never affected the Piedmont, which seems to have embraced pottery far later, well into the conventional Woodland period. The importance of the issue in the nearby Sand Hills, unfortunately, is not well known.

the "network of tracks" mentioned by Ward (1983:65). The base camps produce a wide range of artifact types and raw materials that has suggested too many researchers long-term, perhaps seasonal or multi-seasonal, occupation. In contrast, the smaller sites are thought of as special purpose or foraging sites (see Ward 1983:67).

Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.) diagnostic artifacts include Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Stanly, and Halifax projectile points. Much of our best information on the Middle Archaic comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian Mountains, such as the work by Jeff Chapman and his students in the Little Tennessee River Valley (for a general overview see Chapman 1977, 1985a, 1985b). There is good evidence that Middle Archaic lithic technologies changed dramatically. End scrapers, at times associated with Paleoindian traditions, are discontinued, raw materials tend to reflect the greater use of locally available materials, and mortars are initially introduced. Associated with these technological changes there seem to also be some significant cultural modifications. Prepared burials begin to occur more commonly and storage pits are identified. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and the Carolinas, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

Among the most common of all Middle Archaic artifacts is the Morrow Mountain Stemmed projectile point that was originally divided into two varieties by Coe (1964:37,43) based primarily on the size of the blade and the stem. Morrow Mountain I points had relatively small triangular blades with short, pointed stems. Morrow Mountain II points had longer, narrower blades with long, tapered stems. Coe suggested a temporal sequence from Morrow Mountain I to Morrow Mountain II. While this has been rejected by some archaeologists, who suggest that the differences are entirely related to the life-stage of the point, the debate is far from settled and Coe has considerable support for his scenario.

The Morrow Mountain point is also important in our discussions since it represents a departure from the Carolina Stemmed Tradition. Coe has suggested that the groups responsible for the Middle Archaic Morrow Mountain (and the later Guilford points) were intrusive ("without any background" in Coe's words) into the North Carolina Piedmont, from the west, and were contemporaneous with the groups producing Stanly points (Coe 1964:122-123; see also Phelps 1983:23). Phelps, building on Coe, refers to the Morrow Mountain and Guilford as the "Western Intrusive horizon." Sassaman (1995) has recently proposed a scenario for the Morrow Mountain groups that would support this west-to-east time-transgressive process. Abbott and his colleagues, perhaps unaware of Sassaman's data, dismiss the concept, commenting that the shear distribution and number of these points "makes this position wholly untenable" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

The controversy surrounding Morrow Mountain also includes its posited date range. Coe (1964:123) did not expect the Morrow Mountain to predate 6500 B.P., yet more recent research in Tennessee reveals a date range of about 7500 to 6500 B.P. Sassaman and Anderson (1994:24) observe that the South Carolina dates have never matched the antiquity of their more western counterparts and suggest continuation to perhaps as late as 5500 B.P. In fact, they suggest that even later dates are possible since it can often be difficult to separate Morrow Mountain and Guilford points.

A recently defined point is the MALA. The term is an acronym standing for Middle Archaic and Late Archaic, the strata in which these points were first encountered at the Pen Point site (38BR383) in Barnwell County, South Carolina (Sassaman 1985). These stemmed and notched lanceolate points were originally found in a context suggesting a single-episode event with variation not based on temporal variation. The original discussion was explicitly worded to avoid application of a typology, although as Sassaman and Anderson (1994:27) note, the "type" has

spread into more common usage. There are possible connections with both the Halifax points of North Carolina and the Benton points of the middle Tennessee River valley, while the "heartland" for the MALA appears confined to the lower middle Coastal Plain of South Carolina.

The available information has resulted in a variety of competing settlement models. Some argue for increased sedentism and a reduction of mobility (see Goodyear et al. 1979:111). Ward argues that the most appropriate model is one that includes relatively stable and sedentary hunters and gatherers "primarily adapted to the varied and rich resource base offered by the major alluvial valleys" (Ward 1983:69). While he recognizes the presence of "inter-riverine" sites, he discounts explanations that focus on seasonal rounds, suggesting, "alternative explanations . . . [including] a wide range of adaptive responses." Most importantly, he notes that:

> the seasonal transhumance model and the sedentary model are opposite ends of a continuum, and in all likelihood variations on these two themes probably existed in different regions at different times throughout the Archaic period (Ward 1983:69).

Others suggest increased mobility during the Archaic (see Cable 1982). Sassaman (1983) has suggested that the Morrow Mountain phase people had a great deal of residential mobility, based on the variety of environmental zones they are found in and the lack of site diversity. The high level of mobility, coupled with the rapid replacement of these points, may help explain the seemingly large numbers of sites with Middle Archaic assemblages. Curiously, the later Guilford phase sites are not as widely distributed, perhaps suggesting that only certain microenvironments were used (cf. Ward [1983:68-69] who would likely reject the notion that substantially different environmental zones are, in fact, represented).

Recently Abbott et al. argue for a combination of these models, noting that the almost certain increase in population levels probably resulted in a contraction of local territories. With small territories, there would have been significantly greater pressure to exploit successfully the limited resources by more frequent movement of camps. They discount the idea that these territories could have been exploited from a single base camp without horticultural technology. Abbott and his colleagues conclude, "increased residential mobility under such conditions may in fact represent a common stage in the development of sedentism" (Abbott et al. 1995:9).

From excavations at a Sand Hills site in Chesterfield County, South Carolina, Gunn and his colleague (Gunn and Wilson 1993), offer an alternative model for Middle Archaic settlement. He accepts that the uplands were desiccated from global warming, but rather than limiting occupation, this environmental change made the area more attractive for residential base camps. Gunn and Wilson suggest that the open, or fringe, habitat of the upland margins would have been attractive to a wide variety of plant and animal species.

The Late Archaic, usually dated from 6,000 to 3,000 or 4,000 B.P., is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued to exploit intensively the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups with, the bulk of our data for this period coming from the Uwharrie region in North Carolina.

One of the more debated issues of the Late Archaic is the typology of the Savannah River Stemmed and its various diminutive forms. Oliver, refining Coe's (1964) original Savannah River Stemmed type and a small variant from Gaston (South 1959:153-157), developed a complete sequence of stemmed points that decrease uniformly in size through time (Oliver 1981, 1985). Specifically, he sees the progression from Savannah River Stemmed to Small Savannah River Stemmed to Gypsy Stemmed to Swannanoa from about 5000

B.P. to about 1,500 B.P. He also notes that the latter two forms are associated with Woodland pottery.

This reconstruction is still debated with a number of archaeologists expressing concern with what they see as typological overlap and ambiguity. They point to a dearth of radiocarbon dates and good excavation contexts at the same time they express concern with the application of this typology outside the North Carolina Piedmont (see, for a synopsis, Sassaman and Anderson 1990:158-162, 1994:35).

In addition to the presence of Savannah River points, the Late Archaic also witnessed the introduction of steatite vessels (see Coe 1964:112-113; Sassaman 1993), polished and pecked stone artifacts, and grinding stones. Some also include the introduction of fiber-tempered pottery about 4000 B.P. in the Late Archaic (for a discussion see Sassaman and Anderson 1994:38-44). This innovation is of special importance along the Georgia and South Carolina coasts, but seems to have had only minimal impact in the uplands of South or North Carolina.

There is evidence that during the Late Archaic the climate began to approximate modern climatic conditions. Rainfall increased resulting in a more lush vegetation pattern. The pollen record indicates an increase in pine that reduced the oak-hickory nut masts that previously were so widespread. This change probably affected settlement patterning since nut masts were now more isolated and concentrated. From research in the Savannah River valley near Aiken, South Carolina, Sassaman has found considerable diversity in Late Archaic site types with sites occurring in virtually every upland environmental zone. He suggests that this more complex settlement pattern evolved from an increasingly complex socio-economic system. While it is unlikely that this model can be simply transferred to the Sand Hills of South Carolina without an extensive review of site data and micro-environmental data, it does demonstrate one approach to understanding the transition from Archaic to Woodland.

Woodland Period

As previously discussed, there are those who see the Woodland beginning with the introduction of pottery. Under this scenario, the Early Woodland may begin as early as 4,500 B.P. and continued to about 2,300 B.P. Diagnostics would include the small variety of the Late Archaic Savannah River Stemmed point (Oliver 1985) and pottery of the Stallings and Thoms Creek series. These sand tempered Thoms Creek wares are decorated using punctations, jab-and-drag, and incised designs (Trinkley 1976). Also potentially included are Refuge wares, also characterized by sandy paste, but often having only a plain or dentate-stamped surface (Waring 1968). Others would have the Woodland beginning about 3,000 B.P. and perhaps as late as 2,500 B.P. with the introduction of pottery that is cord-marked or fabric-impressed and suggestive of influences from northern cultures.

There remains, in South Carolina, considerable ambiguity regarding the pottery series found in the Sandhills and their association with coastal plain and piedmont types. The earliest pottery found at many sites may be called either Deptford or Yadkin, depending on the research or their inclination at any given moment.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 3050 to 1350 B.P., is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland sites such as 38AK228-W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Inner Coastal Plain/Sand Hills, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis-West site (38AK228-

W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96-98; see also Sassaman 1993 for similar data recovered from 38AK157).

Further to the north and west, in the Piedmont, the Early Woodland is marked by a pottery type defined by Coe (1964:27-29) as Badin. This pottery is identified as having very fine sand in the paste with an occasional pebble. Coe identified cord-marked, fabric-marked, net-impressed, and plain surface finishes. Beyond this pottery, little is known about the makers of the Badin wares and relatively few of these sherds are reported from South Carolina sites.

Somewhat more information is available for the Middle Woodland, typically given the range of about 2,300 B.P. to 1,200 B.P. In the Piedmont and even into the Sand Hills, the dominant Middle Woodland ceramic type is typically identified as the Yadkin series. Characterized by a crushed quartz temper the pottery includes surface treatments of cord-marked, fabric-marked, and a very few linear check-stamped sherds (Coe 1964:30-32). It is regrettable that several of the seemingly "best" Yadkin sites, such as the Trestle site (31An19) explored by Peter Cooper (Ward 1983:72-73), have never been published.

Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium-sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least 1650 B.P. coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin in South Carolina has been best explored by research at 38SU83 in Sumter County (Blanton et al. 1986) and at 38FL249 in Florence County (Trinkley et al. 1993)

In some respects the Late Woodland (1,200 B.P. to 400 B.P.) may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500-700 years. From the vantage point of the Middle Savannah Valley Sassaman and his colleagues note that, "the Late Woodland is difficult to delineate typologically from its antecedent or from the subsequent Mississippian period" (Sassaman et al. 1990:14). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

Historic Overview

While the coastal region has received much of the historical research, the interior of the state is equally interesting. Although Carolina was settled by the English as a small cog in the mercantile system, the early economy was based more on Indian trade, ranching, subsistence agriculture, and the harvesting of forest products – all forms of rudimentary plunder – than on the production of raw materials so essential to the wealth and power of England. By 1700, only 20 years after the founding of Charles Towne, the trading post at the Congarees (Congaree Creek near Columbia), was well established (see Michie n.d.). This post was on the path from Charleston to Keowee, the capital of the Cherokee Nation, while other paths lead from the Congarees to the Creek and Catawba nations. It was this pattern of Indian-White relations that lead to the death of six out of every seven Native Americans along the South Carolina coast.

The Yemassee War (1715-1716) resulted in many of the Native American groups in South Carolina being either destroyed, enslaved, or driven out of the region. After the defeat of the Indian threat, the General Assembly opened Indian lands to settlement and in 1718, Fort Congaree was established at the Congarees to protect settlers in the region. Fort Congaree was abandoned and later replaced by Fort Granby, further to the north. The area, however, was far from safe, apparently being near the undivided Cherokee and Catawba hunting ground.

When South and North Carolina were

divided in the early 1700s, there were no interior settlements. In 1730, George II ordered that eleven townships be established in the backcountry to promote settlement. Within each township, a town would be drawn up fronting the river and each settler would receive a town lot and 50 acres of plantation lands for each family member. Two of these townships, Amelia and Saxe Gotha, are south and west of Columbia and a third, Fredericksburg, was located to the east, in the Camden area. By the late 1730s, settlers were moving into the area between the Wateree and Congaree rivers. These first settlers included not only South Carolinians from the coastal region, but also individuals from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. Nevertheless, DeBrahm's Map of South Carolina and a Part of Georgia from 1757 shows northern Richland County as uncharted – and likely very sparsely settled. Even as late as 1773, James Cook shows little activity in this region on his Map of the Province of South Carolina.

Settlement in the region was largely spurred by the Indian attacks on Scotch-Irish settlements in Pennsylvania and Virginia during the French and Indian Was. A wave of immigration flooded the Wateree region with the defeat of Braddock in Virginia in 1755 (Oliphant 1964:125).

The American Revolution had little impact on the project area. Although Camden, to the west, fell to the British in 1780, a skirmish at Fort Granby, to the south, in 1781 was won by the Americans who took possession of the fort. Additional skirmishes were also fought at Friday's Ferry and Juniper Spring in nearby Lexington County (Lipscomb 1991). It seems that most of the region's farmers were supportive of the patriot forces. By 1782, the British had been forced out of the upcountry.

Richland District is one of seven districts or counties that were taken from the Camden District (originally formed in 1768). Created in 1785, Richland was the result of increased interior population and demand for local government. Because of Columbia's central location, it became the state capital in 1786, although it was not until the promotion of the cotton gin in the 1790s that cotton became the economic backbone of the region. Mills (1972 [1826]: 697) remarked, "everything is neglected for the culture of cotton," likely because of the rich lands around the new capital yielded upwards of 500 pounds of cotton per acre. Mills' 1825 Atlas shows the gradual increase in plantations spreading out around Columbia, although the project area continues to be shown as unsettled (Figure 7).

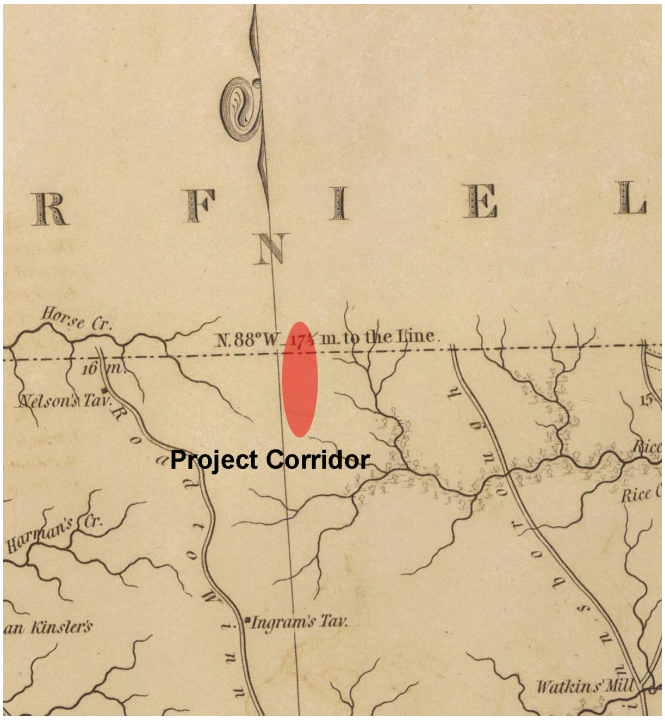

Figure 7. Mills' *Atlas* for Richland District, showing the area of the proposed power line corridor.

The dependence on cotton resulted in the failure to diversify crops and establish any meaningful industry (see Adams and Trinkley 1992 for a discussion of the Columbia Canal and Trinkley 1993 for a discussion of the Palmetto Foundry). The importance of cotton also resulted in the number of African American slaves increasing from 1,451 in 1790 (when there were

2,479 white residents) to 3,168 in 1800 (at which time there were only 2,929 whites in the county). This disparity of population continued until 1920.

Just as the area saw little activity during the American Revolution, the Civil War made little impact in the northern Richland County area. In fact, it is likely that the greatest action was seen at the end of the war in 1865, when General William T. Sherman marched toward Columbia rather than Charleston as was expected. Sherman crossed the Saluda River, north of Columbia, and moved into the land between the Saluda and Broad Rivers. Part of his force (the 20th Corps) moved on into Fairfield County, while another group turned east and entered Columbia, crossing the Broad River near the present crossing of Broad River Road and I-126. The 17th Corps, upon leaving Columbia, followed the route of what is today SC 555 north to Winnsboro, while another wing moved northward further to the east. There are no specific comments concerning the project area, although it is clear that considerable activity took place in the vicinity. One-account remarks,

> On the 20th the command moved without opposition to Dako [Ridgeway] Station, seventeen miles north of the city [Columbia]. Details were engaged in destroying the railroad up to this point, and on the following morning one brigade from each division was detached to move along and thoroughly destroy the railroad (OR98, pp. 379-380).

Another account explains that the general vicinity was "high and rolling, with occasional outcroppings of the granite formation, a more fertile region and better cultivated than any passed over in South Carolina" (OR98, p. 188). Yet another account remarked, "the country on our route today was a rich one, and forage and supplies were plentiful. The soil was a good, rich loam, with subsoil of yellow or red clay" (OR 98, p. 687).

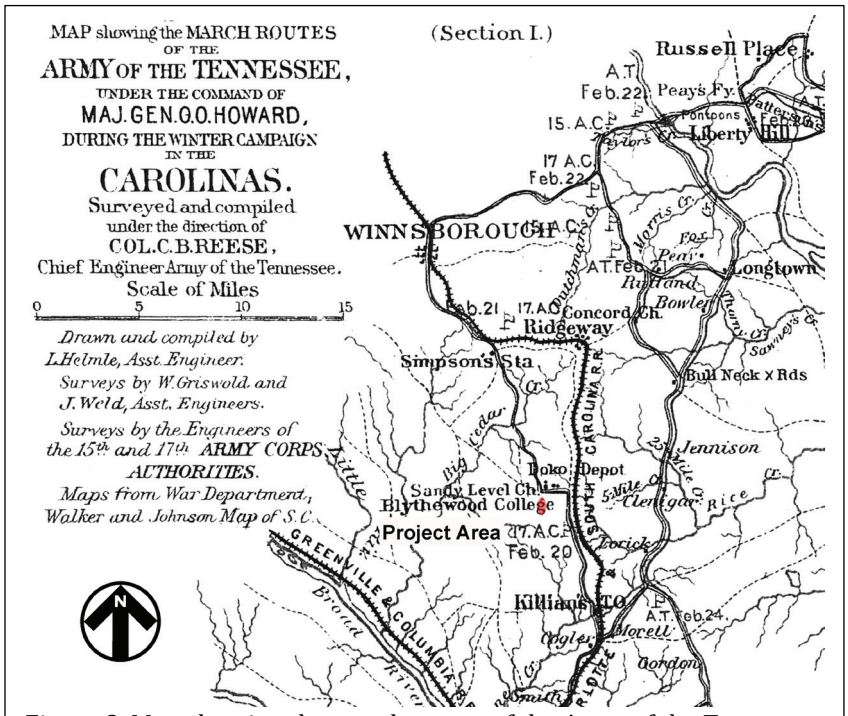

Figure 8. Map showing the march routes of the Army of the Tennessee through the project area.

By this time, Killian, to the southeast, was mapped as a post office, although Neuffer reports that Killian was "named for a family who lived . . . in . . . a great mansion across the railroad" (Neuffer 1981:9). Moore (1993:186) also suggests that Killian's was a training or parade ground for Confederate troops. Nevertheless, there is no mention of the plantation or any special commissary stores in this area. Blythewood existed only as a rural college east of Sand Level Church. Nothing is shown near the project corridor.

The immediate postbellum period was

difficult for many in South Carolina – black and white alike. The loss of property and life, the near total destruction of transportation networks and industrial facilities, combined with the collapse of traditional financing and slave labor, created a situation of exceptional misery. The Union failed to follow through on provisions to ensure the safety, education, and self-sufficiency of its new black citizens and the South sought measures to re-establish the old order. Contracts, and eventually the Black Codes, created something approaching a new form of slavery.

By 1880 there were 21 grist mills, four foundries, 12 lumber mills, and 17 turpentine mills in Richland County capitalized at just under half a million dollars. These industrial activities were largely small operations – only one of the gristmills, for example, was a merchant mill. The rest were scattered around the county and ground corn into meal for immediate neighborhood wants, operating one or two days a week. Agricultural activities were little more focused. The county boasted only one sower, 50 reapers, and three sulky plows, although there were over 2,200 guano distributors and nearly 750 harrows. The vast majority of agricultural activities were still conducted by hand, with over 85% of the labor supplied by blacks. There were 1,540 white owned farms operated by blacks, and the wage system and sharecropping were both equally used. Like elsewhere in South Carolina the white owners reported their laborers to be inefficient. In fact, it was suggested that "the large tracts of land now owned by a few proprietors should be sold to working white men in small areas, instead of being rented to colored tenants, who injure it by bad cultivation" (The News and Courier 1880:n.p.). It was figured that each pound of cotton cost about 84¢ to produce (or about $40 per bale), with 72% of that cost occurring during the raising of the cotton.

An 1897 Map of Richland County, South Carolina (Figure 9) shows the Sand Level Church to the north, but no other activities in the immediate project area.

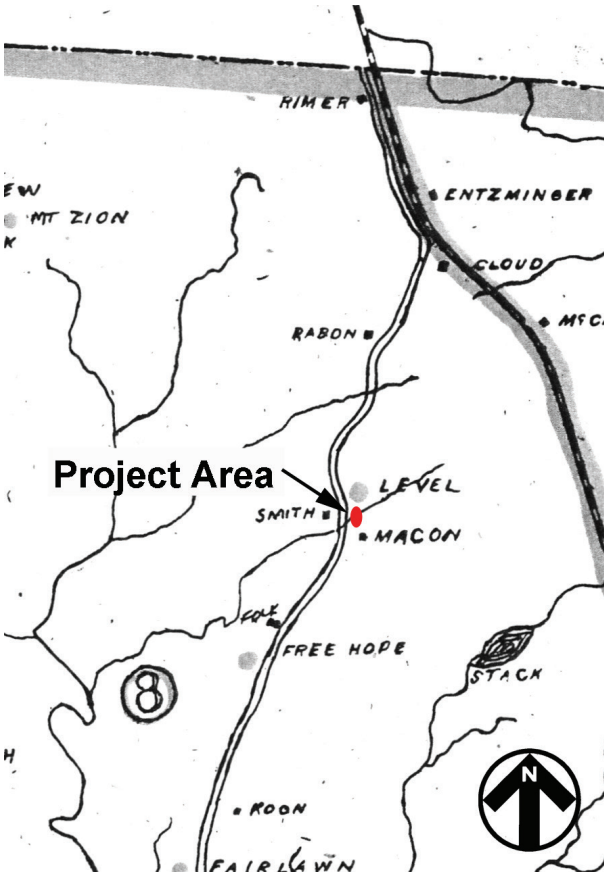

Figure 9. Portion of *Map of Richland County*, by M.L. Brasswell, 1897.

By 1907, corn was planted on almost as many acres as cotton (30,399 acres compared to 35,182 acres of cotton). Industry was more common, including brick works, lumber mills, quarries, and most importantly, cotton mills. In fact, the Olympia Mill was the largest cotton mill under one roof in the world with 10 acres of floor space, 100,000 spindles and 2,250 looms (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:560).

By 1929, Blythewood was well established as a railroad stop and a county precinct but the *New Map of Richland County* by J.C. Covington failed to reveal any occupations in the immediate vicinity.

The earliest detailed map for the vicinity is

the Killian 1:48,000 scale USGS topographic map from 1935. It shows Locklier Road to the west and Blythewood Road to the north, but nothing in the project area.

The Great Depression of the 1930s was perhaps less disruptive in the Columbia area than many other places. Loften (1977) suggests that the diversified industrial base of Columbia, combined with its strong professional orientation helped buffer it from the depression's effects. More to the point, outside the city agriculture was already so depressed that there were no abrupt changes in the farming community – many farm laborers were already out of work or were marginally surviving. The number of farms in Richland County was declining during the first quarter of the twentieth century (from 2,927 in 1900 to 2,748 in 1910). Although a change in the method of calculating farm units increased the number to 3,889 in 1920, the number again steadily declined to 2,787 in 1930 and 2,428 in 1940. Just as the number of farms declined, so too did the acres in farms, from a high of 238,193 in 1900 to 191,430 in 1930. Most telling, however, was the decline in farm values. In 1920, the average farm value for Richland County was $5,575 or about $54.11/acre. Within 10 years, about half of this average value was lost – in 1930, the average value was calculated at $2,852. While the average value held steady between 1930 and 1940, the value per acre continued to slip – from nearly $42 in 1930 to only about $33 in 1940.

This change gradually continued over the next forty years so that in 1980 there were only 382 farms listed for Richland County, with an associated decline in farm size. Replacing agriculture in Richland County was an increased dependence on industrial and governmental activities. While the county was largely urban even as early as 1920, when 51.3% of the population lived in urban areas, this increased to 61.6% in 1940.

By 1953, the area is shown largely as it exists today (absent both I-77 and Community Road). Most of the corridor is shown as wooded, suggesting that whatever cultivation had occurred earlier was by the 1950s abandoned in favor of pines.

Figure 10. Portion of the Blythewood 1953 1:24,000 topographic map showing the project area.

Previous Archaeological Investigations

Although Derting and his colleagues note a number of archaeological studies have been conducted in Richland County (Derting et al. 1991), no previously recorded archaeological sites are present in the immediate study area. Likewise, the previous architectural survey (Marin et al. 2002) failed to identify any National Register eligible structures or sites in the corridor area.

Methods

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along the centerline of the corridor, which was staked in a rudimentary fashion at the time of the survey. Since the corridor is only 75 feet in width, a single transect was deemed satisfactory.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially along the corridor (corresponding to the station number). Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. For small or very recent sites, these tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. For larger sites or sites where we felt there was a potential for National Register eligibility, shovel tests would incorporate the entire site within the project corridor. Again, shovel tests would be placed at 25 to 50 foot intervals. We are precluded from examining areas outside the corridor by the easements obtain by Central Carolina Power Cooperative.

The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigator.

The proposed substation is only slightly wider than the proposed corridor, so similar shovel tests were placed there as well.

These proposed techniques along the transect were implemented with no modifications. A total of 40 shovel tests were anticipated in the corridor. An additional 6 shovel tests were anticipated in the substation site. Due to the topographical variability of the landscape and wetlands areas located throughout the corridor, 35 shovel tests were excavated in the corridor and 6 were excavated in the substation. The remaining tests were in wetlands.

The GPS positions were taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study area.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 50-foot area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian 2001:5) and which were visible from public

roads.

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

Site Evaluation

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

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

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

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

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

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

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

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one

site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites, the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained, essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply either to the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials – the physical items used on and in the property – are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts that might be collected would be conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. Any such materials will be catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites will be filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes from the project have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete. Photographic materials are either digital and are not archival – they are being retained by Chicora Foundation.

Should materials be recovered requiring analysis that work will follow professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of prehistoric materials are defined by such authors as Coe (1964), Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986). Historic materials, generally late nineteenth or early twentieth century, are generally classified using such authors as Jones and Sullivan (1980) for glass and Adams (1980), Bartovics (1978), and Price (1979) for ceramics.

Results and Conclusions

Results

No archaeological sites were identified in the transmission corridor or the proposed substation as a result of the survey testing.

Likewise, no structures are present in the corridor or within the defined APE. The area is entirely agricultural fields, planted pines, secondary hardwoods, gullied, or low swampy areas.

Conclusions

This study involved the examination of approximately .75 mile of corridor proposed for the use of a transmission line extending from two existing transmission lines running east-west in north central Richland County to the proposed Cobblestone Park 69kV substation on the west side of Community Road, west of I-77. Included was a linear substation site consisting of approximately 1.9 acres. This report, conducted for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative, provides the results of the investigation and is intended to assist the company comply with their historic preservation responsibilities.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects, as well as previously recorded archaeological sites in the study area. None is identified in the survey corridor or in the 50-foot APE around the corridor.

The current field studies (consisting of shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along the 75-foot wide corridor and in the substation lot) identified no archaeological sites. Nor are there any standing historic structures within the corridor or within 100-feet.

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

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