Archeological research within the Congaree River Valley may be regarded as a patchwork of several small investigations, published articles, and unpublished research. Wauchope (1939) described several Clovis points from South Carolina, two of which were found in the upper portion of the Congaree valley. Following Wauchope's brief research, Dr. Chapman J. Milling, a Columbia physician, published a book regarding historic and protohistoric accounts of South Carolina Indians, portions of which pertain to the Congaree (Milling 1940). Based on some ceramic sherds obtained from the Thom's Creek site (38LX2), Griffin (1943) set forth the type description for Thom's Creek pottery.

In 1969, Robert L. Stephenson began recording sites within the valley, and in 1969, James Michie began excavating at the Thom's Creek site. This research provided certain stratigraphic information which confirmed basic cultural sequences set forth by Coe (1964) in North Carolina. In 1970, Michie began investigations at the Taylor site (38LXI) which lasted for nearly two years (1970). These excavations clearly demonstrated that early Archaic material culture can exist in an undisturbed context, and if large enough areas are opened, intra-site patterns of human behavior can be determined. In 1972, Michie spent several months excavating portions of the Buycke's Bluff site (38LX17), providing additional information concerning cultural sequences and geologic variability and its effect on the archeological record. These initial investigations in the late 1960's and the early 1970's served to indicate the relative importance of sites within the valley: sites can yield stratigraphy, and sites can yield relatively undisturbed patterns of human behavior.

In 1974, David G. Anderson, James L. Michie, and Michael B. Trinkley began excavations at the Manning site (38LX50) as a project associated with the Archeological Society of South Carolina, Inc. At that time, exploratory investigations were also being conducted for the purpose of discovering Old Fort Congaree. This research was conducted originally by James Michie, and later published by Anderson (1975). Following their work, Michael Trinkley also devoted considerable effort to locate the fort (Trinkley n.d.). During the efforts to locate the 18th century fort, Anderson, Michie, and Trinkley, conducted a field reconnaissance for the Southeastern Beltway (1974). The results of the survey prompted two additional surveys, one by Anderson (1974) and the other by Goodyear (1975). The Beltway surveys included intensive, controlled surface collecting and a small test pit on 38LX96, providing further information in the form of artifact patterning within sites of the Congaree River Valley near Columbia.
After completion of the Beltway surveys, several members of the Institute of Archeology and Anthropology became involved in the field reconnaissance and intensive survey of the proposed 12th Street Extension. Wogaman, House, and Goodyear (1976) did the reconnaissance, while Perlman, Cable, Cantley, and Michie (n.d.) intensively tested the Godley and the Manning sites. The intensive testing revealed that Manning has undisturbed architectural features, as well as undisturbed artifact bearing soils below the plow zone. The Godley site also produced similar information, but it additionally yielded two specific areas suggestive of living floors. These floors are represented by a hard, compact soil containing numerous specks of charcoal and fragments of cultural material. These features are oval in outline, approximately fifteen feet by ten feet.

In 1976, Marion Smith, also with the Institute of Archeology and Anthropology, surveyed a proposed route for a South Carolina Electric and Gas Company transmission line in the vicinity of Congaree Creek. In his proposal, Smith (1977) argued for mitigation of the adverse effects on one endangered site.

The Archeological Society of South Carolina in 1977 reopened the Manning site once again, and excavations are currently underway with new research objectives and altered field objectives which will yield data on past cultural systems. The site continued to produce cultural material to a depth of approximately 22 inches, and several large historic 18th century features have been found. The archeological materials, as it was discovered in 1974, exist undisturbed below an old plow zone.

Not only has the Congaree valley provided archeological resources for curious individuals, societies, and the Institute of Archeology and Anthropology, but it has served as a field school for the Department of Anthropology on two occasions. In 1970, Donald Sutherland, Professor of Anthropology, conducted excavations at the Thom’s Creek site with several students (Trinkley 1975), and in 1976, Leland G. Ferguson excavated at the Manning site with a crew of students. Prior to Ferguson’s investigation, the site was subjected to random sampling with the aid of William Ayres, also with the Department, and John House, associated with the Institute of Archeology and Anthropology. The sampling method provided the researchers with inter-site patterns which determined later excavation strategies. The efforts during the summer of 1976 substantiated the results of the 1974 Society excavations: the site has depth, and significant patterns exist through time and space.

The southwestern side of the valley has received most of the archeological attention, but in August of 1975, Michael Trinkley and James Michie excavated a large test pit on the northwestern side of the river at the Rainey Jones site (38RD10). The test indicated the presence of several cultural periods, and it demonstrated once again that certain sites have the potential of yielding material culture in an undisturbed context. Lying below the plow zone evidence of Middle and Early Archaic occupations was found.

Although research within the Congaree River valley has provided a patchwork, it has served to enlighten the archeological community. The Paleo-Indian stage is well represented at four known localities (Michie
1977). The transitional period from Paleo-Indian to Early Archaic is also represented by the occurrence of Dalton points at several sites near Columbia. Palmer points, and other representatives of the Early Archaic abound within the valley. The Middle and Late Archaic periods are expressed at almost every site, as seen also with the Woodland and Mississippian traditions. The archeological reports cited within the above paragraphs have referenced all of the cultural manifestations.

This history of past and present research has demonstrated that deep sites exist, and chronological knowledge may be obtained. Research has additionally provided intra-site patterns of human behavior whenever large areas are opened; for instance, compact living floors are present at the Godley site and potentially significant information may be obtained regarding the spatial patterning of artifact distributions within the plow zone of shallow sites. Finally, research has provided the archeologist with more cultural data concerning the various periods that have existed for the past twelve thousand years in South Carolina (Table 11).

Paleo-Indian Period

During some period of time prior to the tenth millennium B.C., nomadic hunters entered what is now the southeastern United States with an economy oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna and, in all probability, fauna that are presently surviving. In South Carolina these early people heavily utilized the resources of the Coastal Plain, the Fall-Line, and the lower fringes of the Piedmont. Settlement patterns suggest these people were living along major rivers and certain large creeks, and that they were avoiding physiographic regions of high relief and rugged terrain (Michie 1977). This study by Michie has recorded several Clovis fluted points from the Congaree River valley, especially within the upper portion near Columbia and the area of Congaree Creek.

Although South Carolina has failed to provide positive evidence of subsistence patterns substantiating mega-fauna exploitation, a coastal site near Myrtle Beach has recently yielded the remains of a juvenile mastodon and the tenuous association with stone tools (Michie 1976; Wright 1976). The site, located near the present day coastline, is buried under eight feet of Holocene sediments. Near the bottom of these sediments and within a matrix of peat, the animal bones were discovered. Geologic interpretations suggest that the young mastodon died in the shallow waters of an ancient pond. A similar area, located in central Florida, has also yielded the remains of proboscidea, two juvenile mammoths, directly associated with a Suwannee projectile point and chert debitage (Hoffman n.d.).

The exploitation of proboscidea is recorded in the Southwest at several localities, and the general pattern suggests that the animals were dispatched in moist, wet environments such as ponds and creek valleys. Not only were proboscidea hunted, but other mammalian species such as extinct camel, horse, tapir, slouth, and bison were also extracted from the late Pleistocene environment.
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Earliest Human Occupation in Congaree Valley?
The Paleo-Indian period occurred during the final phases of the Pleistocene (10000-8500 B.C.), when much of the state was cooler and supported a forest changing from open communities of spruce and jack pine to one of northern hardwoods (Watts 1970, 1971; Whitehead 1965, 1973). With the climatic/environmental change during the waning of the Pleistocene, the mega-fauna population diminished. As a result, the behavioral patterns and lithic industries of the Paleo-Indian began to change with the environment, and as the Holocene emerged, a new cultural tradition also emerged.

**Archaic Period**

With the beginning of the Holocene, the Pleistocene glaciers had retreated into Canada and environmental conditions were significantly different. The semi-boreal forests had disappeared, and the northern hardwood forest had risen, consisting of beech, hemlock, alder, birch, and similar other species (Table 11). These hardwoods lasted for a few millennia, but they too were replaced. By at least five thousand years ago the forests of South Carolina became dominated by oak, hickory, and pine, and this association has remained basically intact to the present. During these environmental changes of the Archaic period, subsistence and technology changed to meet the environmental variability.

The Archaic period is represented by at least three cultural/technological stages: the Early, Middle, and Late. The Early Archaic is basically a technological expression of the earlier Paleo-Indian period. Characterized by Dalton, Palmer, and the Kirk series of projectile points (Coe 1964), and specialized tool assemblages of end-scrapers, burins, *pieces esquillées* and blades, the Early Archaic lasted from 8500-6000 B.C., with subsistence directed towards the specialized hunting of white-tailed deer, as indicated by the high incidence of deer bones in the lower levels of Stanfield-Worley (DeJarnette et al. 1962). By the end of the Early Archaic, technologies were changing, and new projectile point types and tools began to emerge.

The Stanly and Morrow Mountain points, along with Guilford (Coe 1964), serve as temporal indicators for the Middle Archaic, which lasted from approximately 6000-3000 B.C. During this time people were utilizing more forest resources, while maintaining primary dependence on white-tailed deer. Instead of remaining primarily in the river valleys, as did the Early Archaic and Paleo-Indian groups, people began to exploit resources of the inter-riverine forests, in addition to the riverine. By at least 3000 B.C. technologies had changed, and those changes reflected in cultural material are known as the Late Archaic.

There is evidence that people were becoming more sedentary by 2000 B.C., reflected in several large shell middens of the coast and certain inland areas. Several large middens in the Savannah River valley, such as Stallings Island (Claflin 1931), Groton Plantation (Stoltman 1974), and Bilbo (Williams 1968), demonstrate a Late Archaic dependence on shellfish in certain areas, while the coasts of South Carolina and
Georgia display shell rings and heaps of oyster shell (Michie 1973; Williams 1968; and Hemmings 1972). Technologies had changed to include the manufacture of Savannah River Archaic point types (Coe 1964), the utilization of steatite, and the alteration of bone and antler for tool production. The calcium content within shell heaps has preserved the bone and antler, while acidic soils of earlier non-shell sites quickly erode and deteriorate the organic cultural material. Quite possibly the technology of processing bone and antler for tools extends far back into the Archaic and Paleo-Indian periods, but such evidence has not been found in the soils of acidic archeological sites. Another cultural innovation of the Late Archaic period was the development of fiber-tempered pottery, which seems to occur with high frequency in the shell middens.

Even though subsistence appears to have been directed towards shellfish collecting in some areas, people in those areas and in non-shell midden sites continued to exploit the deer and resources available in the forest and stream. The traditions of the Archaic began to collapse at about 1500 B.C. as the cultivation of specific plant foods brought about another cultural tradition.

**Woodland Period**

The Woodland period, which lasted from approximately 1500 B.C. to about A.D. 800, probably had its roots in the traditions of the Archaic. With the development of new technologies, such as ceramic production, small triangular projectile points such as Badin and Yadkin (Coe 1964) that may have been associated when the bow and arrow appeared. Hunting and gathering continued as a subsistence base, but during this time the people probably implemented the cultivation of plants (Willey 1966).

With movement through time, ceramics developed various forms of size, shape, temper, and decorative motifs, while triangular points became smaller and more delicate in appearance. Pottery types are recognized by specific tempering and applied decorative motifs, such as sand and sherd tempering, as well as non-tempered varieties. Motifs appear as punctated, carved paddle stamped, net impressed, cord and fabric impressed, and plain may also exist (South 1976). Burial mounds begin to appear during the Woodland, and the presence of architectural features suggest an increasing trend towards sedentism. The Woodland sites are often larger than the Archaic sites, and many small sites are additionally noted, suggesting a diversity of cultural activities within differing environments.
Mississippian Period

The Mississippian Period, also known as the South Appalachian Mississippian as a regional complex, began approximately A.D. 800 and terminated with the European migration to the New World during the 17th and 18th centuries (Willey 1966). Prior to its collapse, the period is characterized by large truncated temple mounds and smaller burial mounds with subsistence based on cultivation of specific foods, especially corn. Although corn was a subsistence base, other flora and fauna of the forests and rivers were exploited. Settlement was oriented on the floodplains of large river valleys, and political systems were becoming more sophisticated.

Ceramic vessels became larger and decorations were applied with carved paddles of complicated designs. Large urns were frequently made for the storage of grain, and they were sometimes used for the interment of human remains. Although the majority was complicated stamped, these ceramic vessels also had decorative motifs of corncob impressed, textile impressed, incised, simple stamped, and burnished. Additionally, several varieties were plain in regard to design. Tempering was accomplished by shell, sand, and fiber, while some were non-tempered (South 1976).

Population seems to have increased during this period with an increase in sedentism. The villages were much larger and the increased productions of food supplies and forest exploitations provided sufficient biomass for a growing populous.

The Mississippian period, with its roots in the Woodland, and cultural affinities with traditions in the Mississippi valley, collapsed soon after it was introduced to the white Europeans who steadily emigrated from the Old World and pushed deeper into the Carolina frontier. The effects of diseases, wars, and the enterprising economy of the whites brought unbearable pressure on the indigenous Americans, and within decades the Mississippian period and its cultural systems were virtually destroyed.

Prehistoric Settlement Pattern Within the Congaree River Valley

Prehistoric settlement patterning in South Carolina is diverse, complex, and virtually unstudied. Although Goodyear (in press), House and Wogaman (1978), House and Ballenger (1976), Hanson, Most, and Anderson (1978), Taylor and Smith (1978), and Michie (1977), for example, have dealt with specific environmental provinces and time periods, settlement is, nevertheless, not well understood. Within the parameters of current knowledge, the settlement pattern within the Congaree River valley is vague and relatively unstudied.

The sites that have received attention are the large base camp oriented occupations with large lithic assemblages, and the sand ridges within the swamp which yield quantities of Mississippian cultural materials.
Although many other sites exist along the peripheral edges of the valley, those sites have received little or no attention except from relic collectors and brief mentions in the site files of the Institute of Archeology and Anthropology at the University of South Carolina.

Base camps are sites that yield a high volume and diversity of lithic materials relative to other kinds of sites. The Taylor site (38LX1), for example, has yielded hundreds of bifacial and unifacial tools representing the Paleo, Archaic, and Woodland periods. The earlier periods are well represented by Clovis, Suwannee, Dalton, Taylor, and Palmer points and related unifacial assemblages which include burins, end scrapers, pieces esquillees, gravers, and blades (Michie 1977). The Archaic is fully represented by a complete sequence of points, and small triangular points of the Woodland period occur with a high degree of diversity of form and shape throughout the 35 acre site. Ground stone implements, such as celts and grooved axes, are well represented along with hammerstones, grinding stones, abraders, atlatl weights, bola weights, nutting stones, and grinding stones. The Taylor site, then, appears to have attracted a great many people over a considerable length of time, and based on the lithic by-products of human behavior, activities seem to have been diversified.

Also occurring within the Congaree valley are much smaller sites that represent light scatters of lithic materials. Such sites occur over most of the peripheral zones, and while lithic inventories may indicate successive occupations through time and space, the inventories are limited generally to flakes of bifacial retouch and bifaces in various stages of resharpening while others are shattered. This does not necessarily indicate that all sites of this nature yield the same inventory, but in terms of site function, the by-product of human behavior would suggest a form of limited activity. A case in point would involve the Edenwood site (38LX135; Michie 1979) which was subjected to intensive testing for a period of about two weeks. The reconnaissance of earlier surveys (Smith 1977; Wogaman, House, and Goodyear 1976) and the excavation produced a limited lithic inventory consisting of shattered quartz cobbles, flakes of bifacial reduction, and several complete and broken projectile points. Although two end-scrapers and a shattered hammerstone were also recovered, the site, nevertheless, does not suggest diversified activities. Sites such as these occur frequently, and in fact, smaller lithic sites are known to occur at many localities within the Congaree valley. The function of these sites is not certain, and unfortunately, the majority of them have never received any interpretive attention. Their role in the broader cultural system probably involves many forms of activity associated with resource extraction (Michie 1979), but presently a great deal of research is required in order to set forth behavioral models.

Lithic sites within the Congaree valley exist on the north peripheral edges in Richland County, and on the southern peripheral edges in Lexington and Calhoun Counties. The large base camp oriented sites are located almost exclusively on the south side of the river and are situated, or
very closely situated, at the intersection of creeks and the river swamp and on the last portion of elevated ground before it descends into the bottomland environment. These major sites are: Taylor site (38LX1), Manning site (38LX50), Thom’s Creek site (38LX2), Savany Hunt site (38CL13), Sandy Run site (38CL9), Big Beaver site (38CL30), and the Buycke’s Bluff site (38CL17), all of which are located on the southern edge of the Congaree valley. One single site of this kind exists on the northern edge: Rainy Jones site (38RD10).

During the Mississippian period, occupation seems to occur sporadically in the valley with limited representation, and it too is not well known. The only appreciable occupation exists slightly below Columbia in Lexington County, and south of Congaree Creek. The site, 38LX68, is represented by a large number of pottery sherds and triangular-shaped projectile points, but its function within the broad cultural system is unstudied and unrecognized. Within the bottomlands of the Congaree swamp two large sand ridges, Mullers Barn Ridge and Green Hill Mound, were partially destroyed in the process of obtaining road fill for the adjoining swamp thereby exposing intrusive Mississippian burial urns. Unfortunately, however, the material was collected by relic hunters, and other than the knowledge of such events, little is known about the Mississippian period. Mullers Barn Ridge (38CL18) and Green Hill Mound (38RD4) may represent mortuary centers, or perhaps the sites are more complex in function.

The cursory information regarding settlement indicates that the overwhelming majority of large lithic sites, considered in terms of base camps, occur on the southern edge of the Congaree valley (Fig. 12) at locations involving the intersection of creeks and their entry into the bottomlands. Smaller sites occupy these peripheral zones and in all probability they represent extensions of the base camps in the form of extraction camps. Bottomland sand ridges have demonstrated the occurrence of Mississippian utilization through intrusive burials. Any consideration of future research designs would have to consider the present and somewhat limited knowledge of settlement in the valley.

Historic Period in South Carolina

Prior to the English settlement at Charles Town in 1670, Spaniards and Frenchmen initially explored and attempted colonization of inland and coastal areas. These sporadic and unsuccessful attempts at becoming rich and gaining a foothold on Carolina soil lasted for more than a century.

As early as 1520, the Spanish were sailing past the Carolina coast in search of potential lands suitable for settlement. The first effort to colonize the area was made by Lucas Vasquez de Allyon in 1526. The small colony located itself somewhere in the vicinity of latitude 33 degrees, and in an area contiguous with an estuary. Although the exact location is not known, the settlement was soon aborted because of summer fevers and a severe winter. De Allyon died of malaria, the black slaves
Figure 12: Location of Base Camps and Swamp Sand Ridges in the Congaree River Valley.
revolted, and the colony was thrust into mutiny. The battered colony, nearly starved, returned to Hispaniola (Savage 1956: 32-35; Wright 1976: 30).

The interior of Carolina was later traversed in 1540 by Hernandes de Soto, driven by illusions of wealth. Crossing the Savannah River near Silver Bluff and moving eastward, he arrived at one of the major tributaries of the Santee River Basin, if not the Santee River itself, where he encountered a Mississippian village. De Soto then turned north towards the Blue Ridge Mountains. His route, although questionable, may have involved the Congaree and the Broad Rivers as he eventually entered the region of Tennessee (Savage 1956: 36).

By 1565, the Spanish had established considerable influence and control in Florida, and they steadily pushed up the coast in attempts to establish additional colonies. As a result Pedro Menendez de Aviles built an outpost, Fort San Felipe, on Parris Island at Port Royal Sound in 1566, and later sent Juan Pardo to explore the hinterlands of Carolina to seek alliances with the indigenous Americans (Rogers 1973: 4). His route took a northern direction allowing him to reach the Blue Ridge Mountains; a route that paralleled the earlier directions of de Soto. The following year Juan Pardo returned to the interior, following the same route and camped near "one of two large rivers," which Savage (1956: 38) interprets as the Congaree River. Further interpretations by Savage suggest that Pardo moved up the Broad River and returned down the Wateree River, eventually back to Fort San Felipe.

About a decade later San Felipe was destroyed by embittered Indians, but the undaunted Spaniards soon erected a new fortification in the vicinity of the earlier fort. The outpost, however, was soon abandoned because of increased conflicts and contentions with the French, who were competing for Spanish claimed soil. Too few in number to defend the outlying and uncertain territories, the Spanish withdrew to Florida (Wright 1976: 36). Although the Spanish continued to claim territories from Florida through portions of South Carolina, and while several missions persisted up the coast until as recent as 1686, the Spanish were losing their stronghold (Rogers 1973: 5).

Concurrent with 16th century ambitions for settlement, the French also made attempts at colonization in the coastal areas. Jean Ribaut and a group of Huguenots attempted a small settlement at Port Royal Sound in 1562, but after several months of poor management, the colony disbanded. There is also evidence to suggest that a French fortification was constructed near the mouth of the Edisto River in the 1570's, but it too fell into abandonment (Wright 1976: 35).

The early attempts by the Spanish and French at colonization were all fruitless. While the Spanish traversed the interior of the state and passed near the Congaree River, they never succeeded in establishing any long term settlement. Characterized by poor management, a failure to cultivate the land, ineptness at hunting and food gathering, cruelty to the indigenous tribes, and poor support from the mother countries, the settlements were aborted, serving as a lesson for the later attempts by the English (Wright 1976: 38).
Nearly a century after the unsuccessful attempts at colonization, a small English colony under a charter granted to the Lords and Proprietors established a settlement at Albemarle Point near the present city of Charleston. The initial years of settlement paralleled earlier attempts of Spanish and French, especially in terms of subsistence. These settlers were inexperienced in methods of agriculture, and subsequently depended upon the indigenous Americans for major supplies of food. Subsistence farming, however, was later incorporated into a growing economy which was steadily expanding to include deerskins, furs, and timber (Wright 1976: 46). During the early years, tens of thousands of deerskins were shipped to England, in addition to pitch, tar, resin, and turpentine, materials necessary for construction and maintenance of English ships.

The utility of the growing colony was quickly realized by the mother country, and trade among the Indians, the colonists, and England soon flourished and reached large proportions. In the latter part of the 17th century, rice production became an important crop, and by 1700, Carolina was shipping 300 tons a year to England (Wright 1976: 73). Because rice production required considerable acreage of specific soils and certain environmental conditions, people began radiating out from Charles Town to acquire large bottomlands. The inland swamps near the coast were ideal for rice production for the lands provided fertile soils and an abundance of water, while the areas required a minimum of labor in land clearing. Although some rice cultivation occurred in the interior along major rivers, such as the Santee, the coastal areas were preferred. This important money crop lasted for nearly two centuries, but the increasing occurrence of floods and coastal hurricanes wreaked havoc on the crop. Subsequently, growers were brought to the edge of ruin (Wright 1976: 73-74).

As a competing crop, indigo in the mid-1700's was being shipped to England in large quantities. Developed during the beginning of the 1740's, it had reached a level of enormous production by 1750. Unlike its competitor, rice, the indigo plants could be adapted to many varying environments which included the upland areas. Free from floods, the crop continued in popularity. With an overproduction of rice during England's wars with Spain and France, and a reluctance to export the product, indigo gained a firm hold on the Carolina economy. The production of this product for clothing dye remained steadfast until the invention of the cotton gin in 1791 (Wright 1976: 79-80).

From their inception at the beginning of the 18th century, plantations represented a minority of the population. Although some planters may have received large acreage through arbitrary means of Royal grants, "it is said that generally only families with influence, who could get grants from the Royal governor of the province came into possession of these (valuable rice)lands, some of the grants containing several thousand acres" (Cook 1926: 80). The great landowners of the mid-18th century had become prosperous, especially in terms of rice, indigo, and forest products, and this prosperity coincided with slave labor. The small farmers, without large tracts of land, political influence, or slave holdings, failed to compete with their wealthy contemporaries. As a result, the small farmers moved inland (Wright 1976: 80).
Concomitant with back country migration, the planters of the lower coastal plain, fearful of Indian attacks and slave rebellions, stimulated the immigration of additional settlers to occupy buffer zones on the inland fringes of the plantations. In order to finance and entice immigration to the back country, a tax was levied against the purchase of imported slaves. Several inland areas were laid out into nine townships, scattered between the lower coastal plain and the fall-line, and representing some six square miles each. These townships attracted people from Germany, England, Scotland, and Switzerland, but many people from the east coast of North America saw an opportunity to acquire free land. Immigrants began moving into the areas of the interior, and by 1750 many townships were occupied. Subsistence and economies were oriented towards cattle and hog raising in the swamplands, and cultivation of specific crops in the upland area, such as corn, wheat, and indigo. Clothing was manufactured from wool and flax, and grist mills erected on streams produced flour and meal. The river systems were utilized for transporting hogs and cattle to market in Charleston, and in the absence of such transportation, Indian paths were converted into roads. Although separated from Charleston in terms of political and social unity, the back country began to open and settlement increased. But while this area opened, the Piedmont was closed. The lands to the north still belonged to powerful Indian nations such as the Cherokee and Creeks, people who resisted southern intrusions (Wright 1976: 84-88).

Although several decades were required to resolve the Indian problem, the Piedmont began to open up in the late 1760's. With constant negotiations, land purchases, wars, treaties, piedmont fortifications, and the near termination of the indigenous Americans, the up-country began receiving settlers.

Thus, in the mid-1700's, South Carolina grew in population, but the people in many ways were separated. The coastal areas represented a political and social unity bound with courts, plantations, and merchants, all of which had little contact with people in the back country. Those who lived in the upper Coastal Plain and Piedmont seldom had any representation in the form of courts and justice for criminal actions. In the absence of such a system, the back country people initiated a system of Regulars who represented a corporate group of vigilantes. Although the Regulars were sometimes successful in preventing cattle and hog thefts, and in bringing the criminal to justice, the Regulars themselves were sometimes arrested and taken to Charleston under charges of similar crimes. Charleston's neglect of the back country was a devastating mistake, especially when the interior was asked to defend the social and economic system of the coast at the outbreak of the War of Independence. Subsequently, specific areas of the state remained divided into Whigs and Tories, many of whom died unyielding to another's cause.

South Carolina, in retrospect, was initially sought after by the Spanish and French, and while these people tried colonization, their ineptness, lack of forethought, and greed proved detrimental. Even with the establishment of Charles Town and the concept of mercantilism, the Lords and Proprietors were looking for high return on their investments. The colonists depended heavily on the local indigenous Americans for
subsistence, and during that crucial time little assistance was provided by the mother country. Through trade systems with the interior for deer skins, and the later cultivation of large money crops such as rice and indigo, the coastal areas rose to wealth. The independent people of the back country, who cared little for the coastal powers, cleared forests, raised crops and stock, built ferries and roads, and developed the interior. The area of Congaree Swamp and its adjacent areas characterize the back country of the 1700's.

The Historic Period Within the Congaree River Valley

The first Europeans to pass through the Santee River tributaries were the Spanish in 1540, and again in 1566 and 1567. While there is a high probability that de Soto and Juan Pardo traveled north up the Santee River, their routes up either the Congaree or the Broad are questionable. Savage (1956: 38) suggests a route leading past the Congaree and Broad Rivers, while Baker (1975: 25) suggests the east side of the Wateree and Catawba Rivers. Baker's thesis considers the correlation between early descriptions of land forms, river valleys, and indigenous groups, comparing these data with extant topographies, river systems, and portions of the archeological record, all of which tend to support the east bank of the Wateree. But Baker does admit: "Frustrating ambiguities do exist among these accounts in regard to both terrain and peoples along this general route." (Baker 1975: 25). In all probability the Spanish traversed the east side of the Wateree and continued north past the present city of Camden and on up the Catawba River to the base of the Blue Ridge Mountains.

Nearly 150 years after the Spanish had left the area, Dr. Henry Woodward and Maurice Mathews followed the same route in the 1670's, and John Lawson in 1701, traversed the same passage which led him to the foothills of the mountains (Baker 1975: 25). These early explorers and travelers, however, were not especially interested in settlement, but rather they were motivated by rapacity, curiosity, and a need to record the terrain and its resources. These explorers also utilized the Santee-Wateree-Catawba route, and there exists little evidence to demonstrate an involvement with the Congaree River Valley. Although European deerskin traders had pushed deep into the interior prior to 1700, as evidenced by Lawson (1709), these traders were located in the Wateree drainage and there is no documentation to suggest contact in the Congaree Valley during the early years.

The Spanish, Woodward and Mathews, and Lawson followed a principal route that led through numerous Indian villages, all located on the east bank of the Wateree drainage. The path led from the village of Cofitachique on the Santee, north through the Congarees, who were then located on the Wateree, to the highland province of Xuala located at the base of the Blue Ridge. During these early times the area of the Congaree and Broad Rivers appears to have been sparsely occupied, if not vacant (Baker 1975: 24), which may account for the absence of traders and explorers.
After Lawson's travels, the Congarees, under considerable pressure from neighboring tribes, emigrated from the Wateree valley and relocated on the west bank of the Congaree near Congaree Creek sometime between 1701 and 1708 (Baker 1975: 62). Apparently taking advantage of an unfortunate situation of European immigration, the Congarees chose a strategic location in the center of the Cherokee trade route which led from Charles Town up the west bank of the Santee and Congaree, and up the Saluda to the Cherokee nation. The location of the Congarees would later provide a catalyst for European settlement in the Congaree valley.

In 1716, with increased Cherokee trade, an agreement was made between the English and Cherokee to establish a fort and trading factory at the location of the "Congarees" (Green 1932: 15-16). The fort was actually constructed two years later in 1718, on the west bank of the Congaree River and on the northwest bank of Congaree Creek. An earthen and stockade enclosure for the protection of trade goods, the fort lasted for four years. With increased Indian trade moving deeper into the interior, and with the English withdrawal from trade systems, the fort was abandoned in 1722 (Green 1932: 18).

With the creation of buffer zones in the form of townships, a small settlement named Saxe-Gotha was founded on the west bank of the Congaree River in the 1730's near Old Fort Congaree. This location, a few miles southeast of the present city of Columbia, encompassed six square miles, much of which lay contiguous with the Congaree River. The area is characterized by natural levees and river deposited sands, a bottomland environment subjected to inundation by large floods. This specific location was probably chosen because of its connection with the Cherokee trading path which provided access to Charles Town, and because it was the furthest point on the river to which one could travel before encountering the shoals and rapids of the Fall Line.

The immigrants were a mixture of Germans, Scots, English, and Welsh who arrived from Charles Town and who emigrated from areas of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia in search of better lands and a relief from the threat of Indian attacks. However, in the 1740's violent conflicts arose between the settlers who continued to push into the Piedmont interior and the Indians who felt that settlers and traders were invading Indian territory and cheating the Indian. As a result of closing Old Fort Congaree, and with the possibility of restoring additional trade, while providing protection for the settlers, a second garrison was erected slightly northwest of the original in 1748. The new fort often provided refuge for local settlers, and in 1751, several settlers from the Piedmont took refuge from raiding Cherokees and other northern Indians who had killed several people. The Cherokee had also entered the area of Saxe-Gotha and were killing cattle. In a response to these activities, a company of Rangers was enlisted from the settlers to contend with the problem (Green 1932: 16-17). With the establishment of several Piedmont fortifications, and more than a decade of fighting and treaties, the Indian problem throughout much of the Piedmont was terminated (Wright 1976: 84-93).
With the establishment of the New Fort Congaree in 1748, Friday's Ferry was constructed across the Congaree which enabled settlers to cross the river and populate the area of Richland County. The ferry became public in 1754, and a small number of people began to settle on the east bank. On the west bank the town of Saxe-Gotha slowly adopted the name of Granby, and with the growing population on the east bank, the name East Granby emerged. From this settlement in Richland County people began to move south and occupied the upland areas adjacent to the large floodplain of the Congaree.

Although there were a few people in the county in 1735, settlement on a larger scale did not develop until after 1740. The areas around Gill and Mill Creek, located west of the Congaree Swamp monument, were the first to have received increased settlement, while areas further southeast in the vicinity of the Wateree and Congaree were beginning to witness a few successful settlements. Within the ensuing years there was a steady flow of people into the lower portions of the county and by 1757, "there was a considerable population in the fork of the two rivers" (Green 1932: 32).

On the eve of the War of Independence, the settlers had divided themselves into groups with opposing political ideologies. Because Charles Town had failed to acknowledge specific problems of the interior, especially after taxes had been levied without any representation in the form of courts, judges, and justice for the criminal, many people remained apathetic to the cause for independence. Other people, however, sympathized with the merchants and planters of the coast, and tossed in their ballots for independence. The Whigs appeared to represent the larger body of ideology, while smaller numbers of Tories remained steadfast to the crown. Although there was a strong support of the Revolution, in terms of people and specific food products, there was little fighting in Richland County or within the counties on the western bank of the Congaree. Involvement came specifically in the form of food production on the farms and plantations which supplied corn, beef, pork, mutton, flour, potatoes, hay, and fodder, while private and public ferries transported troops to various destinations.

Other than brief skirmishes, only two small battles were waged in the Congaree Valley. In 1780, the British erected a fortification in the town of Granby, probably to control the flow of traffic across the ferry and into areas of the Piedmont. This fort was "besieged and relieved and taken and retaken during the Revolution" (Green 1932: 20). In 1781, the fort was attacked via the ferry and was captured from the British after two days of fighting. According to Green, however, the American command was lost and retaken several times.

About 30 miles southeast of the Granby garrison, the British had taken possession of the home of Rebecca Motte and had transformed it into a fortified garrison with a deep trench and an elevated parapet. The house was located in a strategic position overlooking the confluence of three roads that led to Camden on the Wateree River, northwest to Columbia, and south to Charleston. Additionally, the Camden road used McCord's Ferry to cross the Congaree. The post, therefore, checked any traffic moving to strategic locations. General Francis Marion, who
operated guerrilla forces in the coastal plain provinces and who had previously crushed the British fortification at Scott's Lake on the Santee River, besieged the post at Fort Motte. The siege resulted in a partial destruction of the house with fire, a short exchange of musket-fire, and a relatively quick surrender of the British (Savage 1956: 235-236).

In terms of major, decisive battles the area of Richland County was insignificant during the Revolution. Small encounters between Whigs, Tories, partisans and British seem to reflect the majority of fighting, and the Congaree Swamp monument had little or no involvement.

Subsistence and Economy

With the establishment of Fort Congaree in 1718, subsistence within the valley revolved around a system of trade that exploited the Indian trade and deerskins. In the small garrison the Cherokees, Congarees, and other indigenous groups exchanged skins for guns, munitions, blankets, and other goods (Green 1932: 15; Ivers 1970: 3). The small outpost probably exploited game and utilized domestic animals, in addition to food supplies transported from Charles Town.

The settlers who began arriving in the 1730's brought with them domestic animals which included cattle, horses, sheep, and hogs. Geese, whose down provided bedding, were also on the list (Green 1932: 138). Apparently many of the settlers arrived with only a small supply of essential goods which may have included a horse and cow, a minimum of cooking utensils, few clothes, bedding, an axe, and occasionally a flintlock rifle. With the axe the settler cleared the land and constructed a crude lean-to. Beds and other forms of furniture were constructed by hand, and original cabin floors were probably dirt covered with pine straw or other vegetal matter. Log cabins with stick-and-mud chimneys later replaced the primitive lean-to, but privation frequently characterized the settler (Wright 1976: 94-95).

Other immigrants arrived with a larger inventory of goods and livestock. "A surprising number had whipsaws with which they made clapboards and floorboards for their houses. Very soon simple dwellings of two rooms--with an ell for a kitchen, fireplaces at each end, a loft, and a porch across the front--replaced log cabins on the more prosperous farms" (Wright 1976: 95).

Cultivated foods such as corn, wheat, sweet potatoes, and peas began to appear on the emerging frontier, and in 1748, the first grist mill in Richland County was constructed on Mill Creek. In the following years several mills began to appear along the edge of the Congaree Valley, especially on the larger tributaries that could provide enough water to fill a mill pond and generate power for the mill. In addition to producing flour and meal, "some of the mills had sets of gang saws, by means of which boards and other forms of timber were cut. Where boards were planed, the work had to be done by hand" (Green 1932: 138).
In the mid-1700's, indigo was introduced into the area, but "it doesn't appear that Richland County exported much indigo, most of it being grown in the coastal region" (Cely n.d.: 91). The crop was cultivated in the sandy upland areas and within the fertile soils of the swampy lowlands. The crop yield was certainly greater in the bottomlands of the Congaree, but cultivation required tremendous amounts of expense and human labor in the form of earthen dams and dike systems to protect crops from annual floods. As Cely (n.d.) points out: "most planters were reluctant to reclaim the swamps because it involved investing a considerable number of expensive slaves working in a disease-ridden environment to construct the elaborate system of dikes required to protect the crop from periodic floods."

As a portion of the economic system, Green (1932) states: "Indigo very soon formed a considerable source of revenue. When William Howell died in 1757, his estate contained the item of a balance of 739 pounds, 1 shilling and 9 pence due for "indigo." Here and there in the papers relating to the settlement of estates are references to indigo seed or the crop. Aurther Howell, directs that his indigo crop be sold and the proceeds be used to pay his debts. The Weston family cultivated indigo extensively. Before the Revolution a large acreage, especially in the Congaree swamp, was devoted to its production, and for some years after the struggle it continued to be raised, although with diminished returns, as the bounty offered by England was no longer paid. In 1791 William Goodwyn's property, which was managed for him by his cousin, Jesse Goodwyn, produced twelve hogsheads of indigo valued at 75 pounds per hogshead. As late as 1815 the estate of Gale Hampton, which was managed by Conrad Murph....reported a small amount of indigo" (Green 1932: 139).

Rice was also cultivated on a small scale in the county, but being a crop that required considerable investment, acreage, extensive land clearing in bottomlands, slave labor, and dike systems, the coastal areas with appropriate environments were preferred (Cely n.d.: 92). Although references regarding the production of rice are practically nonexistent, Mr. Jack Braddy of St. Matthews, South Carolina, has stated that rice was grown within the Congaree Swamp Monument area. This information, according to Braddy, was given him by his grandfather many years ago. If rice was produced in the Monument area, there is no written record, and no evidence other than that provided by Braddy.

Following the War of Independence, indigo and rice production throughout South Carolina suffered because of the colonial severance with the British economy. Cotton, which adapted easily to the soils that yielded indigo, soon rose as a supplement to restore the economy. With the invention of Whitney's cotton gin in 1791, cotton experienced an unparalleled production.
The cotton plant was probably present in Richland County prior to Whitney's gin, but its production was oriented towards the production of personal clothing. Increased production is witnessed with the installment of a water powered gin on Mill Creek in 1795, and in 1799, Wade Hampton, a wealthy and energetic planter, probably yielded the county's first large crop which totaled 600 bags from a 600 acre field (Green 1932: 139).

Roads, Ferries, and Bridges

The original routes leading to various places in South Carolina were trading paths established long before the arrival of the Europeans. One such path led northward from Charles Town and passed slightly west of the Santee River, continuing up the west side of the Congaree, past the Saluda River to the Cherokees. With the development and extension of the Indian trade, these footpaths became horse trails, and with the appearance of the settler, the paths were widened to accept carts and wagons. With further expansions of settlement, roads branched off of the main trails, leading to houses, meeting halls, plantations, and to ferry crossings (Green 1932: 110).

One of the first roads in the Congaree valley was the old Cherokee trading path which later brought settlers to Saxe-Gotha from Charles Town. With settlement expansion and a need to ford the river, two ferries were constructed in the 1740's. Friday's Ferry, located at Saxe-Gotha and just below the Fall Line rapids, was constructed in 1748. In 1754, the ferry was made public. About the same period of time Joyner's Ferry was constructed in 1746, at the southeast corner of the county near the confluence of the Wateree and Congaree. The road leading to the ferry branched north from the old Cherokee trail, crossed the Congaree, and continued north to Camden. With the construction of these two ferries, one at each end of the river system, a road on the east side of the Congaree was developed, connecting the points of crossing.

Between these two ferries and roads lay the Congaree River Valley, and within decades, additional ferries were constructed. Many of these ferries were private and, subsequently, their locations were not specifically recorded in township or district records. Such examples by Green (1932) are mentioned as: Henry Weaver's Ferry; David Webb's Ferry, located in Saxe-Gotha (ca. 1770); William Howell's Ferry, located below Mill Creek; William Thompson's Ferry (ca. 1778); Patrick's Old Ferry, located near the present city of Columbia; Horseman's Ferry (ca. 1788); Thomas Howell's Ferry, located in the lower part of the county (ca. 1806); Issac Huger's Ferry, located in the lower part of the county which became public in 1787; and Daniel Zeigler's Ferry (ca. 1840) (Green 1932: 113-117 and Cely n.d.: 93). The last two ferries, Huger's and Zeigler's, were located within the boundaries of the proposed National Park Monument. Huger's was located at the eastern boundary, while Zeigler's was located in the central portion (Cely n.d.: 93). The exact location of both ferries is presently unknown.
By 1825, according to Green (1932: 119), most of the ferries between Columbia and McCord's Ferry had disappeared, or at least they did not appear on Mill's Atlas of 1825.

Shortly after the War of Independence an attempt was made at bridging the Congaree at Granby to provide safer passage. The private venture was washed away during the flood of 1791, but a more successful attempt was made in 1792. The bridge lasted for several years, but it too was destroyed by a flood in 1796. There was, apparently, another attempt in 1790, but it too collapsed with flood waters. Green (1932: 121) quotes from the Charleston City Gazette, April 5, 1790, "the bridge at Granby was entirely swept away...by flood waters..." Apparently there were three attempts in constructing a bridge at the location of Granby, and all were unsuccessful. However, in 1827, the Columbia Bridge Company erected the first permanent bridge across the Congaree (Green 1932: 119-121).

At the other end of the Congaree, McCord's Ferry remained in use for more than 150 years, and in 1923 it was replaced with a bridge. Unfortunately, the flood of 1928 destroyed the structure, but by 1930, it was replaced (Green 1932: 115). Currently, the only bridges spanning the Congaree occur at the locations of the earliest ferries: Friday and Joyner.