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Hampton II: Further Archeological Investigations at a Santee River Rice Plantation

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Hampton II: Further Archeological Investigations at a Santee River Rice Plantation

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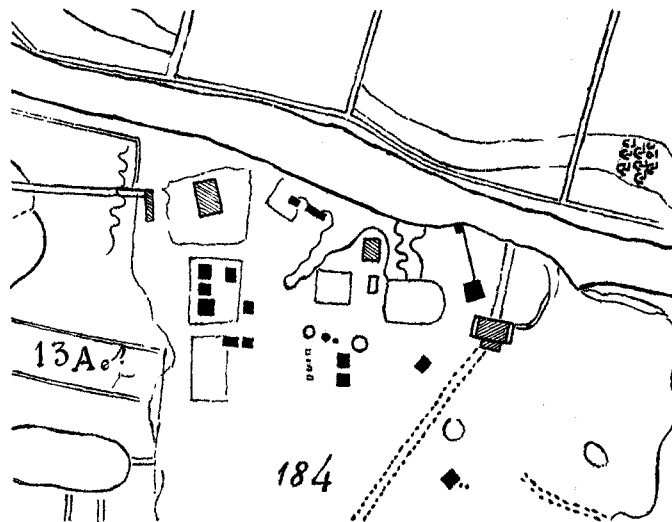
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*HAMPTON II: FURTHER ARCHEOLOGICAL
INVESTIGATIONS AT A SANTEE
RIVER RICE PLANTATION*

by

*Kenneth E. Lewis and Helen Haskell
Research Manuscript Series No. 161*



This project was sponsored by the South Carolina Coastal Council.

Prepared by the
INSTITUTE OF ARCHEOLOGY AND ANTHROPOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA
June, 1980

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	v
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	viii
INTRODUCTION	1
PHYSIOGRAPHIC SETTING	3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	6
THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HAMPTON PLANTATION	9
Introduction	9
The Background of British Colonization	9
Hampton Plantation in the Colonial and Antebellum periods	11
The Post-Bellum Period: Decline and Transition.	17
PREVIOUS ARCHEOLOGICAL RESEARCH AT HAMPTON PLANTATION	23
Introduction	23
A Model of Plantation Settlement	23
Results of the Investigations	29
ARCHEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS AT HAMPTON PLANTATION	36
Introduction	36
Sampling the Main House Area	36
Introduction	36
Methodological Framework	37
The Condition of the Site	39
Dating the Occupations of the Main House Settlement	40
Form and Function within the Main House Area	43
Introduction	43
Examining the Archeological Record	45
Summary	54
Excavation of the Pit Feature	56
Introduction	56
Methodology	56
Stratigraphy	59
Dating the Components of Feature 1	62

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONTINUED)

	<i>Page</i>
<i>Excavation of the Pit Feature (Continued)</i>	
<i>Function</i>	63
<i>Primary Function</i>	63
<i>Secondary Function</i>	67
<i>Ethnic Affiliation and Status</i>	72
<i>Summary</i>	78
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	80
APPENDIX A: DERIVATION OF MEAN CERAMIC DATE	86
APPENDIX B: ARTIFACT CATALOG	89
APPENDIX C: PREHISTORIC ARTIFACTS FROM HAMPTON PLANTATION	95
APPENDIX D: ANALYSIS OF FAUNAL REMAINS FROM FEATURE 1	97
APPENDIX E: DESCRIPTION OF COLONO WARE FROM FEATURE 1 AND ASSOCIATED FEATURES	100
APPENDIX F: ARCHIBALD RUTLEDGE'S HAMPTON PLANTATION	107
REFERENCES	115

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LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
FIGURE 1: Locator map of Hampton Plantation State Park, Charleston County, South Carolina	1
FIGURE 2: Map of soil types in the vicinity of Hampton plantation	4
FIGURE 3: The DeBrahm map of 1757 showing the location of the Horry property (No. 34) south of the island at the confluence of Wambaw Creek and the South Santee River	12
FIGURE 4: Vertical aerial view of Hampton plantation in 1950	12
FIGURE 5: A portion of the Diamond plat of 1809 showing the early nineteenth century settlement pattern at Hampton plantation	15
FIGURE 6: Comparison of cotton, rice, and corn production in Georgetown District/County, South Carolina, 1840-1900	18
FIGURE 7: Conjectural map of Hampton plantation in the 1890s based on the writings of Archibald Rutledge and Richardson (1912)	19
FIGURE 8: The main house at Hampton in the early 1900s	21
FIGURE 9: The main house at Hampton in the 1940s	21
FIGURE 10: Plan of spring 1979 archeological excavations at Hampton Plantation State Park	24
FIGURE 11: Mt. Vernon in Fairfax County, Virginia, exhibiting a typical plantation settlement pattern	28
FIGURE 12: SYMAP showing the distribution of ceramics at Hampton plantation	30
FIGURE 13: SYMAP showing the occurrence of cut and wrought nails at Hampton plantation with the distribution of brick rubble superimposed	32
FIGURE 14: Map of structure-based activity areas at Hampton plantation	33
FIGURE 15: Plan of fall 1979 archeological excavations at the main house area at Hampton Plantation State Park	38

LIST OF FIGURES (CONTINUED)

	Page
FIGURE 16: Comparison of temporal ranges of ceramic types recovered at Hampton plantation	42
FIGURE 17: Distributions of structural materials as revealed by SYMAP displays	47
FIGURE 18: Map of structure-based activity areas in the main house area at Hampton plantation	48
FIGURE 19: SYMAP showing the occurrence of ceramics in the main house area at Hampton plantation	51
FIGURE 20: Plan of fall 1979 archeological excavations at Feature 1	57
FIGURE 21: Feature 1 during excavation looking west	58
FIGURE 22: Feature 1 after excavation looking east	58
FIGURE 23: Stratigraphy of Feature 1 as revealed in a profile of the north-south balk	60
FIGURE 24: Stratigraphic cross-section of the eastern portion of the ditch associated with Feature 1 as revealed in the east profile of the excavations	61
FIGURE 25: Surface decoration of Colono ware from Feature 1	101
FIGURE 26: Colono ware vessel forms from Feature 1	103
FIGURE 27: Colono ware vessel forms from Feature 1	104
FIGURE 28: Colono ware rim forms and lip treatment	105

LIST OF TABLES

	<i>Page</i>
TABLE 1: <i>Temporal ranges of selected non-ceramic artifacts from the main house area at Hampton</i>	44
TABLE 2: <i>Comparison of faunal debris and total non-ceramic artifacts in Areas 1, 2 and 3</i>	49
TABLE 3: <i>Comparison of European processing and Colono ceramics versus European serving ceramics</i>	49
TABLE 4: <i>Frequency of occurrence of porcelain by area</i>	54
TABLE 5: <i>Activity categories and associated artifact classes</i>	68
TABLE 6: <i>Comparison of activity categories from Feature 1 by count and percentage</i>	69
TABLE 7: <i>Comparison of kitchen and architecture artifact groups from Feature 1 with South's Carolina and Frontier Artifact Patterns</i>	71
TABLE 8: <i>Comparison of porcelain frequencies from the main house area, Area 6 and Feature 1</i>	75
TABLE 9: <i>Comparison of porcelain vessel forms from the main house area and Feature 1, by count and percentage</i>	76
TABLE 10: <i>Vessel forms of non-porcelain European serving ware from Feature 1, by count and percentage</i>	77

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ARP	Archibald Rutledge Papers
CCRECD	Charleston County, Records of the Equity Court, Decrees
CCROPJI	Charleston County, Records of the Ordinary/ Probate Judge, Inventories
CCROPJW	Charleston County, Records of the Ordinary/ Probate Judge, Wills
CCRRMC	Charleston County, Records of the Register of Mesne Conveyance
HABS	Historic American Buildings Survey
HPF	Hampton Plantation Folder
MCASC/SJSP/CD	Manuscript Census, Agriculture, South Carolina, St. James Santee Parish, Charleston District
MCPSC/SJSP/CD	Manuscript Census, Population, South Carolina, St. James Santee Parish, Charleston District
MCPSSSC/SJSP/CD	Manuscript Census, Population, Slave Schedules, South Carolina, St. James Santee Parish, Charleston District
PFP	Pinckney Family Papers
PRSC	Public Records of South Carolina
RFP	Rutledge Family Papers
SCPRT	South Carolina, Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism
SCRRPC	South Carolina, Records of the Register of the Province, Conveyances
SCRSSLGCS	South Carolina, Records of the Secretary of State, Land Grants, Colonial Series
SCRSSMR	South Carolina, Records of the Secretary of State, Miscellaneous Records
SCRSSW	South Carolina, Records of the Secretary of State, Wills

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUED)

USDAASCS	United States Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service
USDIGS	United States Department of the Interior, Geological Survey

The present investigations are twofold in nature. First, they have enlarged the area examined in the earlier work to include the main house area at Hampton, a portion of the site not previously explored. Data obtained here will be useful in measuring intra-site variability within this area and between it and other parts of the plantation settlement. Secondly, a large pit partially examined in the previous work was to be completely excavated in order to determine its form and extent, and, if possible, its function. Additionally, it is hoped that the contents of this pit will yield data useful in specialized artifact studies of plantation artifacts, particularly ceramics.

The results of the archeology should provide new information capable of expanding our knowledge of Hampton plantation as a whole as well as increasing our understanding of activities occurring within a particular portion of it. This project will attempt to examine problems of plantation settlement addressed in the previous study of the site (Lewis 1979). These problems reflect an interest in studying Hampton as a representative of a class of settlement characteristic of the coastal region in which it existed. By considering an individual settlement in terms of its larger historical and cultural milieu as well as in a comparative context, it should be possible to not only clarify that settlement's role but also explain it in terms of the system of which the settlement was a part.

PHYSIOGRAPHIC SETTING

Hampton Plantation State Park is situated at the northern tip of Charleston County on the southern bank of the South Santee River at its confluence with Wambaw Creek. It lies about 15 miles southwest of Georgetown and 40 miles northeast of Charleston, South Carolina. Charleston County is situated along the lower Atlantic Coastal Plain physiographic province, dominated by primary topography and made up of Cretaceous to Recent age sediments eroded from the Piedmont (Colquhoun 1969: 4-5). The sediments are water-layered and unconsolidated sands and clays underlain by marl (Miller 1971: 74). The lower coastal plain is crossed by a series of six terraces running, generally, parallel to the coast and separated by scarps. These terraces were formed by cycles of continual submergence and emergence that disrupted the processes of erosion and deposition (Colquhoun 1969: 6). Distance above mean sea level (mean high tide) is the principal criterion used to identify the terraces, although there is substantial altitude variation within each one. Hampton Plantation State Park lies on the Pamlico Terrace, which ranges from 6 to 25 feet in elevation (Miller 1971: 74).

Soils in the park are of the Bayboro-Wagram-Orangeburg-Quitman association which consists generally of poorly-drained loamy sands underlain by loamy or clayey subsoils (Miller 1971: 4). The soils are derived from eroded sediments (Latimer, et al. 1918: 17). The major soil types present in the vicinity of the site (Fig. 2) are Lakeland sand, Norfolk fine sandy loam, Faceville fine sandy loam, and Chastain soils in the low areas adjacent to Wambaw Creek (Miller 1971: Sheet 1).

The biota of Hampton Plantation State Park is rich and varied because the area overlaps several forest types and wildlife habitats. The swamp and bottomland forest associated with the Santee swamp is dominated by bald cypress and water tupelo and salt tolerant grasses, while in the pine forest south of the river, loblolly pine is the most abundant species (U.S. Army, Corps of Engineers 1972: 8). An eighteenth century map of the area just east of Hampton (Purcell 1785) reveals that a mixed oak-pine forest zone was present along the edge of Wambaw Creek, separating the bottomland forest from the upland pine forest.

The Santee River and Wambaw Creek constitute a riverine wetland habitat that supports a great reservoir of wildlife. Songbirds are abundant as are owls and hawks, coot, jacksnipe, woodcock, and wild turkey. Small mammals include marsh rabbit, squirrel, opossum, raccoons, fox, and aquatic species such as muskrat, mink, and otter. Larger mammals such as deer, bobcat, and some black bear are also present.

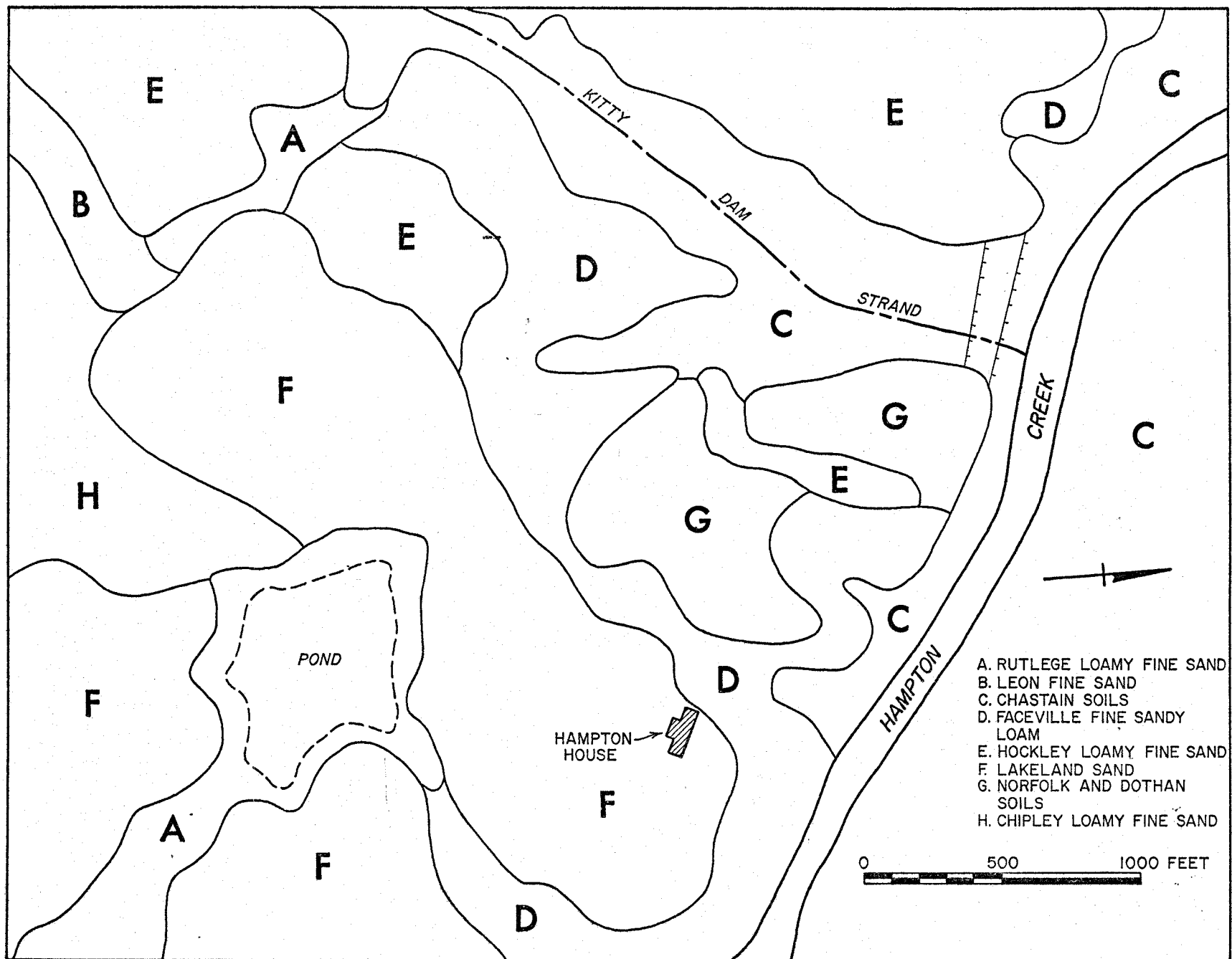


FIGURE 2: Map of soil types in the vicinity of Hampton Plantation
(Source: Miller 1971).

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The American alligator is common in the rivers, which also support a variety of fish species. The coastal wetlands of the Santee delta support a variety of migratory waterfowl, including ducks, coots, the Canada goose, blue and snow geese, and whistling swans. Shore birds include the southern bald eagle and osprey (U.S. Army, Corps of Engineers 1972: 10).

During the time when rice was the dominant commercial crop on the lower Santee River, large areas of wetlands were used in its cultivation. Such areas created an artificial habitat that attracted many species of birds. These included the blue heron, night heron, snowy egret, wood ibis, Wilson snipe, marsh hen, and king rail, as well as migratory birds such as ducks and the bobolink. The latter was also called the rice bird because of the damage large flocks of them could inflict on an unguarded rice field (Rutledge 1918: 4; 1941: 81,85).

In addition to the natural flora of the park area, an extensive ornamental garden was planted north and east of the Hampton plantation house by Archibald Rutledge in the 1930s and 1940s. The gardens are dominated by camellias, but also include azaleas, pink dogwoods, butterfly bushes, gardenias, iris, amaryllis, wisteria, roses, spider lilies, Daphne, and tea olive, as well as dogwood, holly, magnolia, and other native flora (Rutledge 1941: 70, 73).

The climate of Charleston County is mild and temperate with warm humid summers and mild winters. Rainfall is distributed throughout the year, averaging 50 inches. Drought, however, is not unusual. Temperature highs average in the upper 80s F in the summer and in the low 60s in the winter. The growing season near the coast, as measured by the mean frost-free period, is 294 days (Kronberg 1971: 72).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study will look at the historical development of the Hampton plantation settlement on the South Carolina lowcountry primarily through the examination of its archeological remains. Archeology may be defined broadly as that branch of anthropology that deals with the material remains left behind by man. It seeks to expand knowledge of human behavior into situations where the latter is not directly observable. Thus, its chief goal is to understand the relationship between past behavior and the material remains left behind. Archeology has a unique ability to study behavior in that its subject matter can extend far into the past, allowing the study of both long and short-term processes of cultural change.

The archeologist's ability to relate past behavior to material remains is based on the following set of basic assumptions, which are implicit in this report.

Culture may be viewed as those learned patterns of human behavior by which man adapts to his physical and social environment. Rather than a sum of traits, culture is a series of interacting components which are continually acting and reacting to one another, resulting in constant variation and change.

This interaction implies the existence of a system within which certain cultural mechanisms operate to regulate change or to maintain behavior within certain limits or boundaries. In order to deal with a phenomenon as complex as human culture it is necessary to adopt an approach that stresses the interrelationship of all variables in the system rather than between isolated characteristics of man and his environment (see Geertz 1963: 9-10; Buckley 1967: 41).

Just as human behavior may be seen as part of an interrelated system, separate activities not involving all parts of the system or all members of the society may be defined as subsystems. The number of subsystems increases with the level of complexity of the cultural system and, concomitantly, with the degree of specialization within it (Binford 1965: 205).

Because behavior is not random, it is possible to observe patterns in human activities. A recognizable structure may be seen to appear in the systemic organization of technology, economics, religion, social organization, and other specialized activities. Changes in these patterns may be traced through time and variation in systemic structure viewed as a historical phenomenon.

Of crucial importance is the final assumption that the archeological record will exhibit particular patterns reflecting those in the cultural system which produced them (Longacre 1971: 131) and will reflect temporal changes occurring in those patterns and the system. In order to understand more clearly the relationship between a living behavioral system and the material record it leaves behind, recent studies have investigated those processes governing the transfer of artifacts from the former state to the latter (Schiffer 1976).

Because the archeological record represents the byproduct of past activities, our ability to interpret this record is dependent upon an understanding of those processes by which it was formed as well as those that may have affected it prior to and during its recovery. Archeologists assume that human activities are patterned; that is, the same arrangements of tools, time, and work are repeated because of underlying cultural rules about the way things should be done. Since activities often include tools and/or the modification of materials through the performance of work, it is also assumed that they are sometime reflected in the archeological record. The recognition of artifact patterns, then, is the key to reconstructing human activities. Furthermore, different patterns are assumed to reflect different activities. The pattern of a particular human activity, however, is not so easy to identify. People seldom just drop things where they were used, contrary to the wishes and hopes of all archeologists. Some things are, in fact, "trampled" underfoot, but others are tossed outside or carried to a dump; some things are treasured and seldom, if at all, find their way into the archeological record but others have little value and are thrown away readily, overrepresenting their importance; "small" things tend to be trampled into the ground close to where they were originally used, but "large" things are kicked aside or carried away from their original place of use; and so forth. All of these disturbances make it difficult to recognize a pattern that could be used to identify and reconstruct ancient or not so ancient human activities and problems of differential preservation and natural disturbances make it even more difficult. Consequently, mistakes of identification are easily made; garbage can lie. (See Schiffer 1976 for a useful but technical discussion of the problems encountered when relating the archeological record to human behavior.) Verification, then, is no less a problem to archeologists than to historians working with the documentary record.

Schiffer (1976: 14-16) has defined two kinds of processes that affect the "transformation" of human activities into the archeological record: cultural and natural. Both have played a role in the formation of the archeological record at Hampton plantation. Discard, loss, and abandonment are the three cultural processes most likely to be involved. Briefly, discard is the deposition of waste material. It may accumulate at its location of use as primary refuse or be deposited elsewhere as secondary refuse (Schiffer 1976: 30-31). Secondary deposition may vary in terms of distance from the location of use depending upon the size and nature of the material deposited (South 1977: 179). Loss involves the inadvertent deposition of items and may vary with the object's size, portability, and function (Schiffer 1976: 32-33). Finally, the process of abandonment is the accumulation of artifacts

that remain in a given area following its abandonment. Abandoned material may include the de facto refuse of production or habitation that is left behind because it is inefficient or impossible to remove it to a new site (Schiffer 1976: 33-34). An important type of abandonment refuse is architectural in nature, consisting not only of standing remains but also material that has accumulated as the result of construction, repair, or demolition of structures (Green 1961: 53). Abandonment may also modify other cultural formation processes such as discard, resulting in the development of refuse disposal patterns different from those associated with an activity area still in use (Schiffer 1976: 33; South 1977: 61).

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HAMPTON PLANTATION

Introduction

The archeological investigations at Hampton explored portions of a plantation that has occupied a tract on the south side of Wambaw Creek at the latter's intersection with the South Santee River for over two centuries. As a plantation, Hampton has been closely tied to the economic development of the Santee delta region as a whole. Its role has been shown to be reflected in the archeological record left behind by its past occupants (Lewis 1979). Elements of form and function at Hampton indicate the operation of adaptive processes characteristic of plantations as a type in general, processes that are discussed in a comparative model of plantation settlement (Lewis and Hardesty 1979). In the following section documentary evidence relating to Hampton plantation will be presented. It should provide basic historical data useful in understanding the conclusions of the previous archeological work there as well as interpreting the new information generated by the current investigations.

The Background of British Colonization

Plantation settlement in the South Carolina lowcountry developed in response to the colony's role in the European "world economy" of the eighteenth century. Wallerstein (1974:7) has suggested this term to characterize the system in which the European nations of the post-medieval period participated because of the particular nature of its organization. In this system individual nation-states were tied together by a web of mutual interdependence. The self-contained development of this world economy resembles an empire, but its capitalistic economic mode, based on the fact that the economic factors operated within an area larger than any political entity could completely control, prevented domination by a single nation. This situation gave capitalist entrepreneurs a structurally-based freedom of maneuver and allowed a continual expansion of the world economy (Wallerstein 1974: 348). The role of commercial forces in the initiation of British colonization in Scotland, Ireland, and America is well-known. The flexibility of privately-organized, economically-oriented ventures proved the key to the successful establishment of many early sustained British colonial settlements (MacLeod 1928; Cheyney 1961; Rowse 1957).

Of particular significance to a discussion of British colonial North America is the nature of the relationship between an expanding world system and those areas outside its boundaries. Because of the system's economic orientation this relationship is largely one of exchange. This exchange is of two types: (a) that involving trade with external areas dominated by other world systems and (b) that with areas on the system's own periphery. The latter consists of:

... that geographical area ... wherein production is primarily of low-ranking goods (that is, goods whose labor is less-well rewarded) but which is an integral part of the overall system of the division of labor, because the commodities involved are essential for daily use (Wallerstein 1974: 302).

Exchange between the periphery and the "core" states at the center of the system tends to have a "vertical specialization" involving the movement of raw materials from the former to the latter and the movement of manufactured goods and services in the opposite direction (Gould 1972: 235-236). Such was the case in much of colonial North America, especially in the agricultural South (Sellers 1934: 302).

In the early years of the eighteenth century, settlement in the British colony of South Carolina was primarily confined to the coast and soon evolved into a plantation economy centered around the port of Charleston. This port provided a direct link to the metropolitan area of Great Britain as well as to other British colonial ports in the New World. Its location at the mouth of the Cooper River greatly facilitated the emergence of a plantation economy on the lower Coastal Plain and it served as a collecting point for colonial export commodities and a redistribution center for imported commercial goods and plantation slaves (Sellers 1934: 5). In addition to supplying its own inland settlements, Charleston developed as a re-export center for the West Indies (Earle and Hoffman 1976: 17). Not only was Charleston the focus of the coastal plantation economy but it also served as the terminus of the British Indian trade in the Southeast (Crane 1929: 108). Initial coastal settlement in South Carolina was confined to the area between the Santee and Edisto Rivers and centered on Charleston. Early land allotments were made along the rivers and tidal inlets, for these watercourses offered the easiest means of trade and communications with the entrepot as well as some protection against potential Indian attack (Petty 1943: 20).

Settlement of the lower Santee began in the late seventeenth century and was carried out largely by French Protestant immigrants who were granted lands in the area. In 1700 Lawson (1714: 12) estimated that there were 50 French families on the Santee, and Herman Moll's map of Carolina compiled within the next decade shows 36 settlement sites along both sides of this river (Moll 1715). By 1720 Governor Moore of South Carolina reported that the parish of St. James Santee, which incorporated the area of the French settlements in 1706, contained 42 taxed heads of households and 584 slaves (PRSC/9: 66). By mid-century, Petty (1943: 45) estimated the parish population to have totaled about 345 Europeans and 1900 slaves.

The rapid growth in the slave population reflects the development of a plantation economy on the lower Santee. Here, as elsewhere in the South Carolina lowcountry, agricultural activity centered around rice, which had become the principal cash crop of the colony by the second decade of the eighteenth century (Gray 1932: 56). Coastal settlement had spread north of the Santee by the 1730s and the regional rice economy there focused on the port of Georgetown at the mouth of the Sampit River (Rogers 1970: 29). This settlement, however, remained a subsidiary center to the main colonial entrepot of Charleston (Easterby 1945: 10).

Hampton Plantation in the Colonial and Antebellum Periods

It was in the context of an expanding rice economy on the lower Santee that the earliest settlement of the Hampton area took place. Of the early land grants in the region, those acquired by Daniel Horry appear to lie closest to the Hampton site. Horry was a planter of Huguenot descent who owned over 2,000 acres along the Santee and Pee Dee Rivers. Prominent in the social and political life of St. James Santee Parish, he served in the Royal Assembly for the province and, as a member of the local planter elite, maintained a residence in Georgetown (Edgar and Bailey 1977: 328). A tract conveyed to him on January 26, 1731 included 35 acres of an island situated at the confluence of Wambaw Creek and the Santee River (SCRSSLGCS/1: 218). These lands would have comprised the western portion of the present Hampton Island which lies directly across Wambaw Creek from the site. A deed filed the year before had conveyed to Horry a 550 acre tract bounding north and east on Wambaw Creek (Elias Horry to Daniel Horry/SCRRPC/Sept. 30, 1730/I: 251-253). As Wambaw Creek runs in a northeasterly direction and only turns southeastward as it encounters Hampton Island, a piece of land bounded on the north and east sides by this stream would very likely have been located here. If so, this tract could well have included at least a portion of the future Hampton plantation. Daniel Horry also owned several other tracts on the south side of Wambaw Creek, including a 200 acre tract acquired in 1730 (Daniel Huger to Daniel Horry/Sept. 10, 1730/SCRRPC/I: 357-358) and 1,000 acres in rice and corn which he offered for sale six years later (South Carolina Gazette/Jan. 24, 1736).

In addition, several other tracts bordering Wambaw Creek were owned by Daniel's father Elias (Joseph Spencer and Augustus Lawrence and Richard Mortgage/Feb. 25, 1724/SCRRPC/D: 109-111; Bartholomew Gaillard/Deed/Feb. 4, 1715/SCRSSLGCS/77/408/#153), including one adjacent to Daniel's 550 acre property. Elias Horry's properties were disposed of at his death in 1736 to those of his children who bid highest for them (Elias Horry/SCRSSW/II: 299), and his son Daniel may well have purchased some of his Wambaw Creek lands at this time.

No mention is made of Hampton plantation by name during Daniel Horry's lifetime; however, the land it was to occupy remained in his possession. William DeBrahm's map of 1757 (Fig. 3) shows Daniel Horry's plantation situated south of Hampton Island, suggesting that by this time he had established his residence there.

INTRODUCTION

In November and December 1979 archeological investigations were conducted by the authors at Hampton Plantation State Park (38CH241), the site of a colonial and antebellum plantation on the South Santee River in Charleston County, South Carolina (Fig.1). The work was sponsored by the South Carolina Coastal Council and its results were intended to provide additional information relating to the form and nature of the past plantation settlement there.

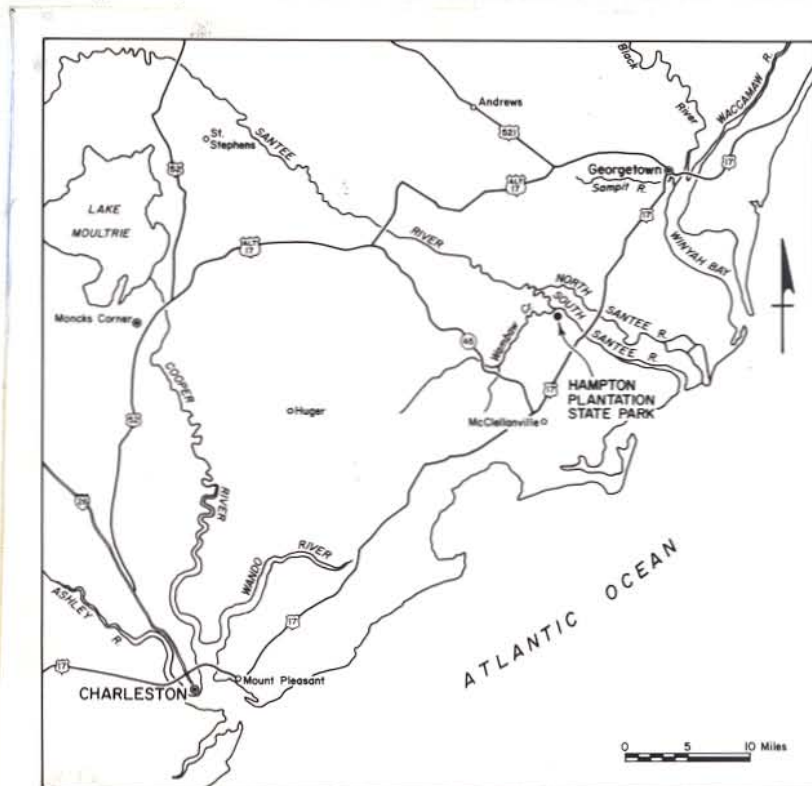


FIGURE 1: Locator map of Hampton Plantation State Park, Charleston County, South Carolina.

This project is designed to serve as an extension of earlier investigations at Hampton plantation conducted in the spring of 1979. Previous work has explored a substantial portion of the area once occupied by the plantation settlement, revealing archeological evidence of its form, layout, temporal range, and function. Patterning in the material record at Hampton also reflected the settlement's role in the larger economy of eighteenth and nineteenth century South Carolina.

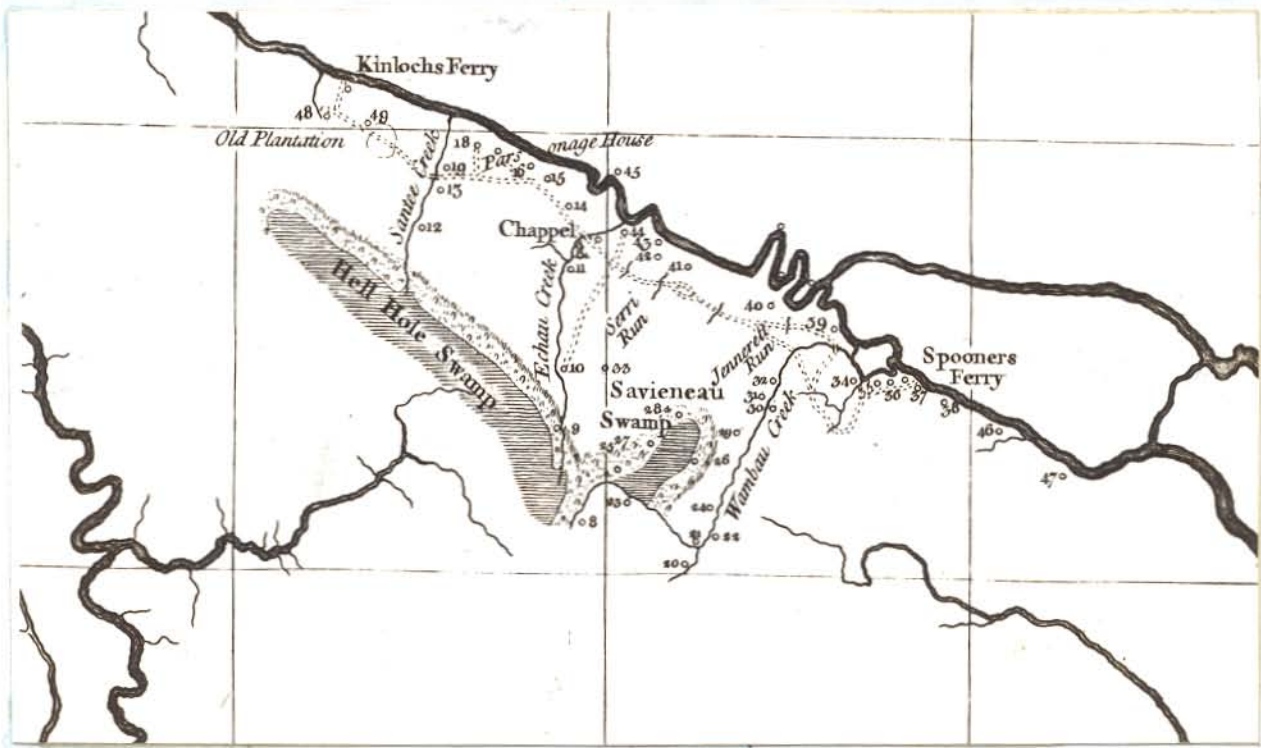


FIGURE 3: The DeBrahm map of 1757 showing the location of the Horry property (No. 34) south of the island at the confluence of Wambaw Creek and the South Santee River.



FIGURE 4: Vertical aerial view of Hampton plantation in 1950
(Source: USDAASCS 1950).

Rice was the major crop cultivated on Horry's Wambaw Creek plantations (Henry Laurens to John Nutt/Aug. 27, 1756/Hammer and Rogers 1970: 303), and here, as elsewhere prior to the American Revolution, it would have been grown entirely in inland swamps or on fields adjacent to freshwater streams (Hilliard 1975: 58). Extensive impounded rice fields which may date from this early period (Fig. 4) may be seen in aerial photographs of the Hampton area (USDAASCA 1950). In addition, Horry cultivated indigo commercially (Henry Laurens to James Bourdieu Jan. 24, 1757/Hammer and Rogers 1970: 432), presumably encouraged by the government bounty on this commodity. Naval stores were also produced on Horry's plantations, as is witnessed by his sale of 300 barrels of turpentine through his factor in Charleston (Henry Laurens to Elias and John Coming Ball/Aug. 5, 1763/Hammer and Rogers 1972: 520). In 1763 Daniel Horry died and in his will transferred his real estate to his only son Daniel II.

Daniel Horry II, like his father, was a prominent planter on the lower Santee River. Politically active, he occupied numerous public offices and served five terms in the Royal Assembly representing his native parish of St. James Santee as well as neighboring St. George Winyah. Four years prior to his father's death he married the daughter of Noah Serré, a wealthy Huguenot planter, and thus obtained some of the latter's extensive holdings south of the Santee (Edgar and Bailey 1977: 329-330; Rogers 1970: 294). His second marriage, in 1768, to Harriott Pinckney established a tie with this prominent Charleston planter family. Harriott's widowed mother Eliza Lucas Pinckney, who is credited with introducing commercial indigo cultivation in South Carolina in the 1740s, became permanently attached to her daughter's household. It is in Harriott's early correspondence that the name Hampton first appears in 1769 (Harriott Horry to Mrs. Trapier/1769/PFP).

By the late 1760s, then, Hampton had come into being as an operating plantation. Although its date of origin is uncertain, Rutledge family tradition has placed the construction date of the main house there at 1750 and named Daniel Horry II as its builder (Lise Rutledge/HPF). While the architecture of this structure does not preclude a building date in the mid-eighteenth century, this type of evidence cannot firmly establish a specific time of construction (Foley 1979: 5).*

The American Revolution does not seem to have seriously affected Hampton as an economic unit and it appears to have survived the war intact. Daniel Horry II was active as a rebel political and military figure during this time. He served actively in South Carolina until the British capture of Charleston in 1780, after which he defected to the Loyalist cause (Edgar and Bailey 1977: 329). Hampton's relative isolation from Charleston favored its use as a periodic refuge for

*An analysis of architectural evidence gathered during the repair and stabilization of Hampton house has revealed that this structure was originally a smaller structure that was enlarged by the addition of a second story on the north side and a wing at each end. At a later time the large south portico was added to the house (Foley 1979: 8).

the families of prominent rebels in the province (Eliza Lucas Pinckney to Charles C. Pinckney/May 17, 1779, PFP). Horry's abandonment of the American cause resulted in an attempt to confiscate his property following independence; however, the influence of his brothers-in-law, Charles C. and Thomas Pinckney, prevented Hampton from passing out of Horry possession (Rogers 1970: 160).

Daniel Horry II died in the summer of 1785. At that time he possessed four working plantations, including Hampton, Wambaw immediately west of it, Laurel Hill, and Jacks Bluff, and 307 slaves. His inventory (CCROPJI/Jan. 17, 1786/B:38) also reveals other information relating to Hampton. First, it indicates that the main house had already been expanded to its present size. Secondly, the continued commercial cultivation of rice is reflected by Horry's ownership of barges, small boats, and flats used in harvesting the crop and a schooner for its transportation to Charleston. Such a craft had been registered to Horry as early as 1767 (Rogers 1970: 104). Thirdly, in addition to the cultivation of crops, a substantial number of livestock, including cattle, sheep, and hogs, were kept, as well as oxen and horses for cultivation and transportation. In his will Daniel Horry II gave the use of Hampton to his wife Harriott, although its actual ownership passed to his son Daniel (CCROPJW/Nov. 21, 1785/A: 572).

After 1785 Hampton was managed by his widow during her son's minority. Daniel III, who changed his name to Charles Lucas Pinckney Horry, had taken up residence in Europe and maintained only a nominal interest in his South Carolina holdings. In 1800 he gave his mother power of attorney to conduct all business related to his plantations (SCRSSMR/Sept. 15, 1800/GGGG: 449).

In 1790 Harriott Horry's household consisted of 11 free persons and 340 slaves (MCPSC/SJSP/CD/1790). These totals are likely to reflect several family plantations in addition to Hampton. Rice continued to be the main cash crop on the Horry plantations (Eliza Lucas Pinckney to Charles Cotesworth Pinckney/1786/PFP). A plat drawn by John Diamond in 1809 (Fig. 5) reveals the layout of Hampton and the family's adjoining Wambaw plantation for the first time in detail. It shows several impounded inland swamp rice fields adjacent to the plantation settlements as well as a total of approximately 362 acres in tidal rice fields on Hampton Island directly across Wambaw Creek (Diamond 1809). Jonathan Mason, a visiting Massachusetts politician, observed in 1804 that at Hampton, "The rice fields to the side and to the rear form an extensive flat as far as the eye can reach" (Mason 1885: 24). The presence of tidal rice fields reflects the adoption throughout the coastal region of this more efficient means of rice cultivation in the late eighteenth century. The simultaneous use of inland swamp fields permitted the exploitation of environmental zones suited to both forms of cultivation and was typical of plantations undergoing transition from one to the other (Hilliard 1978: 98).

The 1809 plat also provides a plan of the structures then existing at Hampton. The main house is present at the end of a long avenue leading to a main road. A smaller building, presumably a kitchen or other closely related outbuilding, lies diagonally behind it. To the west of

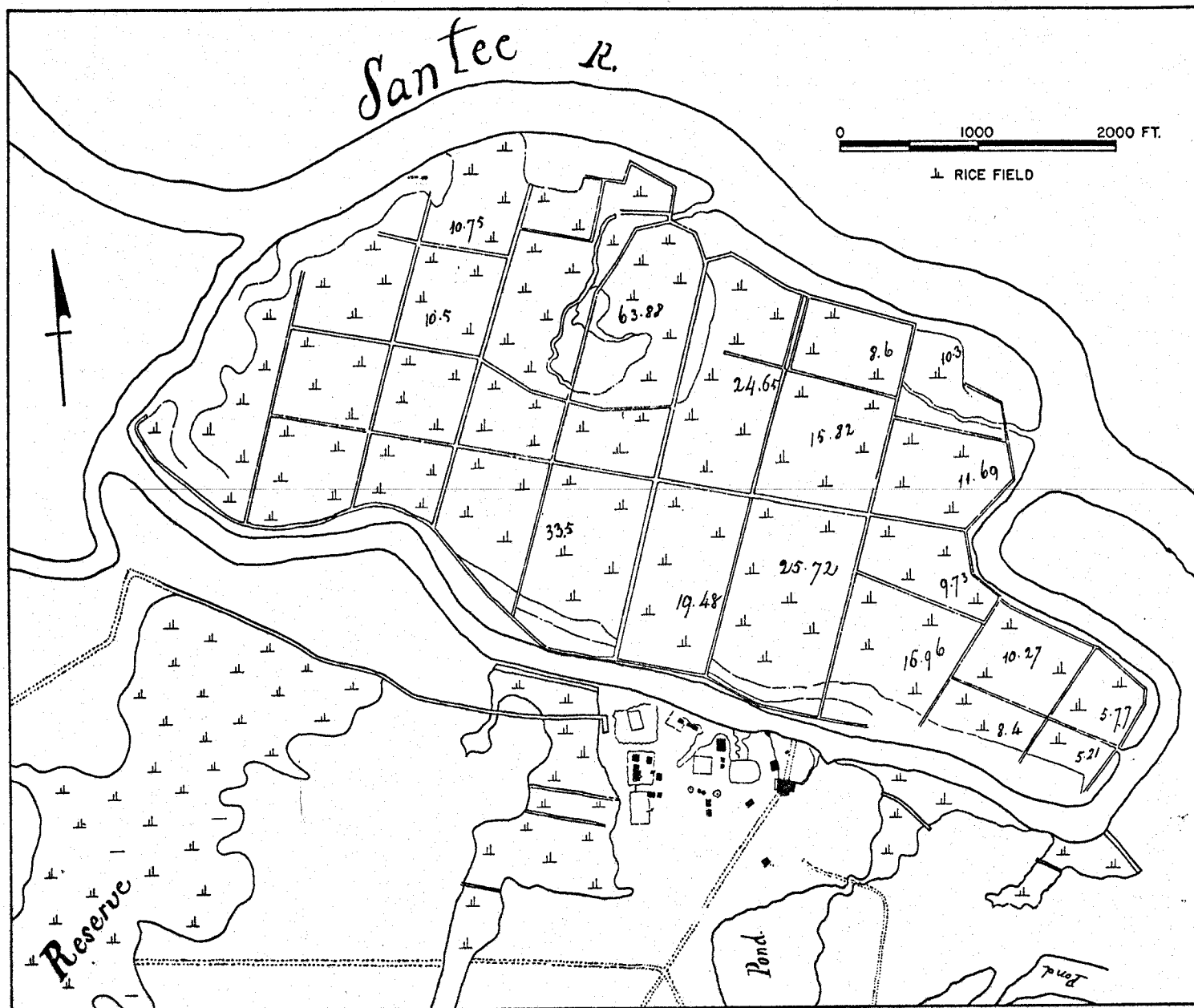


FIGURE 5: Facsimile of a portion of the Diamond plat of Hampton and other adjacent Horry plantations in 1809.

these are a number of structures regularly arranged and varying in size. All lie between the large rice field and the small impoundment directly west of the main house. The structures are unidentified but are likely to represent those associated with activities related to the operation of the plantation: the processing and storage of agricultural commodities, small-scale industrial production, accommodation of livestock, and the housing of plantation workers (see Lewis 1977a: 56-58). The presence of industrial activities at the Horry plantations was noted by Jonathan Mason (1885: 24). He observed that blacksmiths, wheelwrights, carpenters, masons, and shoemakers were regularly employed there. Mason also mentioned rice mills, but it is unclear if one existed at Hampton. The shape of the main house on the 1809 plat also indicates that by this time the columned portico had been added. Rutledge family tradition states that it was built in 1791 prior to George Washington's visit during his southern tour that year (Lise Rutledge/HPF).

During the remainder of her life Harriott Horry managed Hampton and the other family plantations. Unfortunately, census reports for the first several decades of the nineteenth century provide little information regarding production and economic development during this period. A letter to Harriott from her brother Charles Cotesworth Pinckney (Mar. 13, 1822/PFP), however, reveals that on Hampton and Wambaw plantations together the labor force consisted of 140 slaves and that an attempt to increase production at Harrietta plantation by expanding fields there was contemplated. By 1828, Harriott Horry had moved to Charleston and had left the management of her estates to her grandson Frederick Rutledge II, whose interest in planting appears to have been less than enthusiastic (Frederick Rutledge to Edward C. Rutledge/Sept. 2, 1833/PFP). Harriott had assumed ownership of the plantation properties in 1828 upon the death of her son. When she died two years later they passed to her daughter Harriott Pinckney Rutledge, widow of Frederick Rutledge I (CCROPJW/Dec. 23, 1830/G: 463).

Harriott Rutledge had managed her husband's estates following his death in 1821 (Rogers 1970: 295); however, her apparently declining economic position resulted in the loss of one plantation through foreclosure five years later (William H. Gibbes vs. Harriott T. Rutledge/CCRECD/May 26, 1826/31). With the help of her sons Frederick and Edward, she administered these and the Horry plantations she inherited for the next three decades, residing primarily at Hampton. Rice remained the major cash crop there (Lewis and Robertson to Robert F. W. Alston/Oct. 20, 1838/Easterby 1945: 409), and in 1850, 250,000 lbs. of it were produced (MCASC/SJSP/CD 1850). The number of slaves at Hampton and Wambaw was 106, (MCPSC/SJSP/CD 1850), one third fewer than in 1822. Ten years later, the number was just about the same at 107 (MCPSSSC/SJSP/CD 1850). This period was apparently a time of failing economic fortunes for the Rutledges. Substantial debts had accumulated (Robertson, Blackstock, and Co. to Robert F.W. Alston/Jan. 28, 1859/Easterby 1945: 414), and in her will, Harriott stipulated that Harrietta plantation on the South Santee and Tranquility and Mottfield plantations on the North Santee be sold to cover them (CCROPJW/Nov. 15, 1858/328).

Harriott Rutledge left her only remaining plantation to her son Edward, and upon his death to his younger brother Frederick. Edward died two years later in 1860 and Frederick, apparently uninterested in planting, sold Hampton to his son Henry Middleton Rutledge for "love and affection" the following year (CCRRMC/Dec. 20, 1880/E-18: 362). This deed reveals that in 1861 Hampton consisted of 1,200 acres more or less. The plantation does not appear in the 1860 agricultural census, yet the 130 slaves in Frederick Rutledge's possession that year may have been engaged in rice production there (MCPSSSC/SJSP/CD 1860).

The Post-Bellum Period: Decline and Transition

The effect of the American Civil War on the economy of the lower Santee was profound, although this region was spared the destruction that occurred in other parts of the South Carolina lowcountry. The Federal blockade of the coast closed the sea route to Charleston, and the absence of adequate overland routes for rice shipment curtailed the movement of the region's main cash crop to market (Easterby 1945: 39). The sharp decline in rice production resulting from the war is clearly visible in Figure 6.*

Hampton plantation survived the war undamaged (Rutledge 1941: 54), though rice production had apparently ceased during the war years. Henry M. Rutledge served in the Confederate Army for the war's duration (Rutledge 1937a: 6) and the plantation was cared for by slaves who grew primarily subsistence crops (Rutledge 1918: 101).

Following the war commercial rice cultivation was again undertaken in the lower Santee region; however, production never reached pre-war levels (Fig. 6). Rice growing continued until the close of the nineteenth century, after which its demise was rapid and final. The decline of rice production in South Carolina was the result of several factors: the loss of slave labor necessary for intensive cultivation, the absence of capital to permit recovery from natural disasters, and, most importantly, the inability of an agricultural system based on hand labor to compete with more efficient mechanized rice production in Louisiana and Texas (Doar 1936: 42).

At war's end Hampton was the sole remaining Rutledge plantation. It contained about 1,100 acres (MCASC/SJSP/CD 1870) and supported 20 Negro tenant families (Rutledge 1937a: 130). Rice production had again

*Although situated in Charleston District, Hampton and other plantations on the Santee lay along the river that marked the boundary between it and neighboring Georgetown District. Socially and economically the Santee was a part of the latter, and changes occurring in Georgetown District as a whole are generally reflected in the Santee region (Easterby 1945: 7).

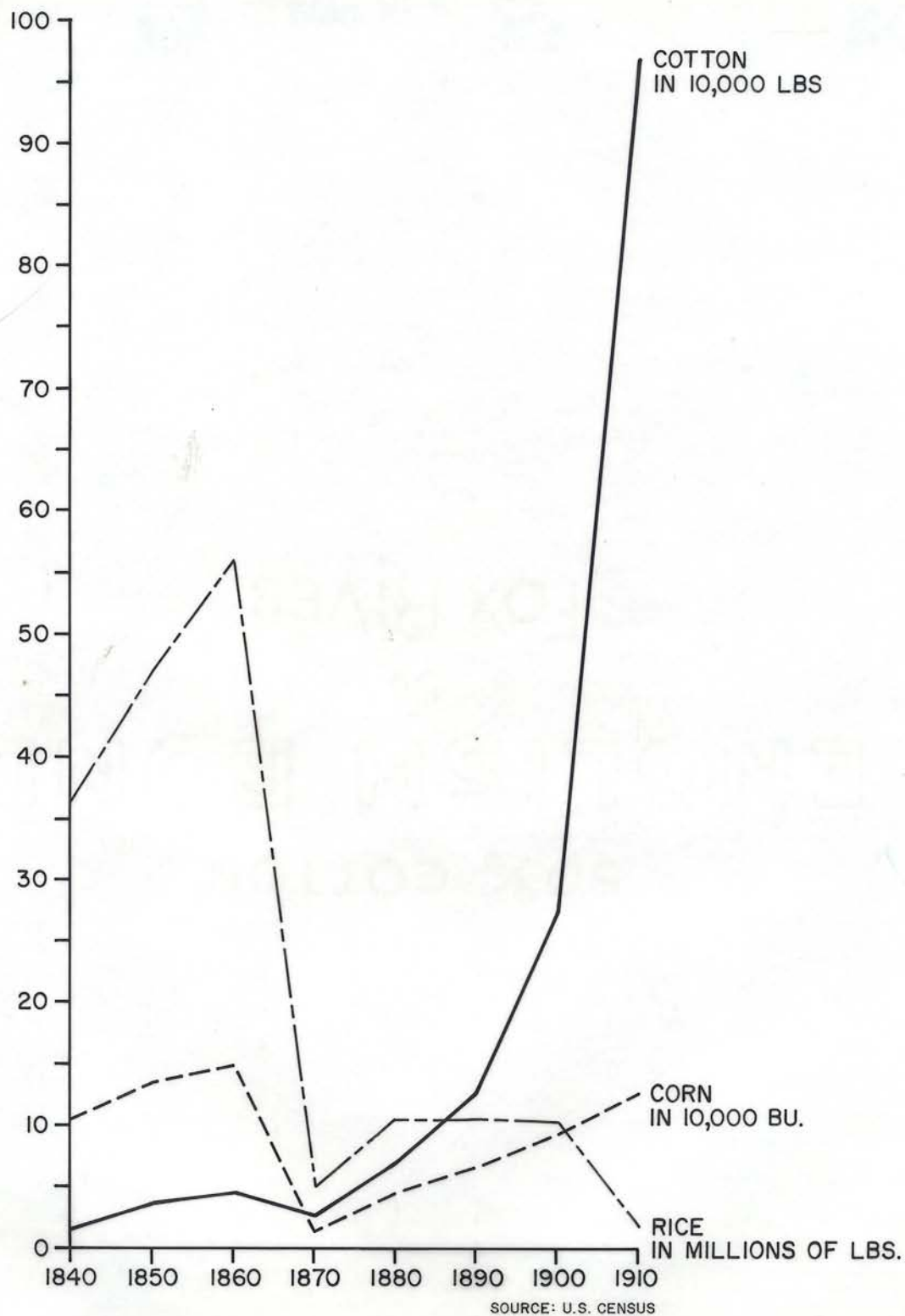


FIGURE 6: Comparison of cotton, rice, and corn production in Georgetown District/County, South Carolina, 1840-1900.

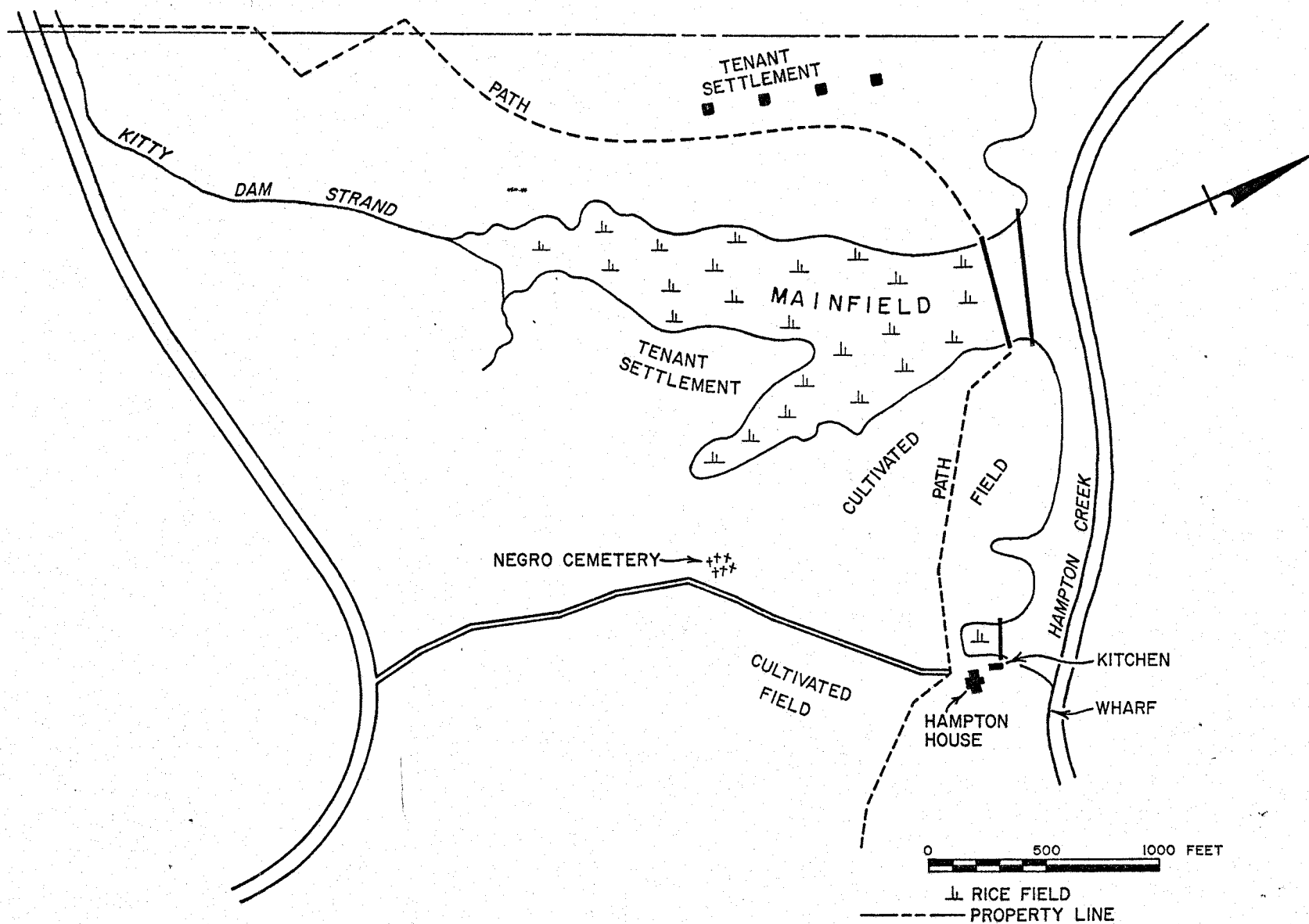


FIGURE 7: Conjectural map of Hampton Plantation in the 1800's, based on the writings of Archibald Rutledge and Richardson (1912).

been undertaken, but the 127,000 lbs. total for 1870 was less than half of the pre-war level. A decade later it had increased to only 168,000 lbs. (MCASC/SJSP/CD 1850, 1870, 1880). Apparently a decline in production set in at Hampton during the 1890s, for by this time the tidal rice fields on Hampton Island had been abandoned and cultivation was confined to the reclaimed swamp fields (Rutledge 1918: 6, 43). Undoubtedly this situation was accentuated by a disastrous hurricane in 1893 which destroyed crops and severely damaged the elaborate tidal field systems within which they were cultivated (Doar 1936: 22). Rice was no longer grown at Hampton in 1915 (Rutledge 1937a: 34), and its abandonment reflects the crop's decline in the region as a whole during the first decade of the twentieth century. Attempts were also made to increase the production of other crops at Hampton for cash and subsistence. Cotton, the growth of which skyrocketed in Georgetown District (Fig. 6), first appeared at Hampton in 1870 (MCASC/SJSP/CD 1870) and was grown at least through the next two decades (Rutledge 1918: 48). Corn, oats, and sweet potatoes, as well as small amounts of rice, were grown for subsistence (MCASC/SJSP/CD 1870, 1880; Rutledge 1960: 93), and turpentine and other forest products were harvested to provide additional income (Rutledge 1918: 72).

The clearest picture of the layout of Hampton plantation in the post-Civil War period may be gleaned from the descriptive writings of Archibald Rutledge who spent his early life there (Fig. 7). In the last decade of the nineteenth century the settlement at Hampton consisted of the main house (Fig. 8) and several outbuildings, including a kitchen diagonally behind it and a smokehouse (Rutledge 1960: 98). In the vicinity of the house was a wharf on Wambaw Creek where rice was loaded on boats (Rutledge 1956: 15). The tenants at Hampton lived to the west of the main house complex on the far side of Mainfield, the principal rice field then in use (Rutledge 1918: 6). Their dwellings were arranged in a row and collectively were called the "street." Most were older frame structures, former slave quarters, and each was set on an acre plot (Rutledge 1918: 90). Several newer houses, however, had been added during the post-war period (Rutledge 1937a: 106). Between Mainfield and the main house complex was a large field where at different times corn, cotton, and tobacco were planted (Rutledge 1918: 48; 1960: 93). Clay paths crossed this field, connecting the tenant settlement with the main house (Rutledge 1918: 192). At the southern end of Mainfield the impoundment split into two tongues separated by a low ridge called Sam Hill. A portion of this peninsula was also occupied by tenant houses and at its southern end was situated the Negro cemetery (Rutledge 1918: 13, 168). Between the eastern arm of Mainfield and the main house was the stableyard where the plantation horses, cattle and hogs were kept and where stray cattle and hogs were confined in the winter (Rutledge 1918: 73, 171). Beyond the stableyard was another cotton field (Rutledge 1918: 188). A "brick mill", presumably for rice, is mentioned as having been destroyed before 1900 (Archibald Rutledge to Margaret H. Rutledge/Sept. 1900/ARP). The mill's location is unknown; however, it is likely to have been situated near Wambaw Creek.

By the second decade of the twentieth century Hampton had ceased to function as a commercial plantation. Henry Middleton Rutledge died



FIGURE 8: The main house at Hampton in the early 1900s (Photo courtesy Irvine Rutledge).



FIGURE 9: The main house at Hampton in the 1940s (Photo courtesy Will Alston).

and cheaply producing staples on a large scale for a substantial non-domestic market (Wagley and Harris 1955: 435). The competition of agricultural staples for suitable land, labor supplies and markets favors the location of plantations so as to minimize cost while maximizing access to markets. These conditions would be found in frontier regions on the periphery of a world economic system where native resources could be cheaply exploited to obtain raw commodities that could then be shipped directly from a colonial entrepot to markets in the parent state (Thompson 1959: 29-30; Smith 1973: 2).

A frontier is a region separating the settled and uninhabited portions of a territory that lies under the effective control of a state. It serves as a transition zone in which a newly-occupied area is integrated socially, politically, and economically into the larger state system (Kristof 1959: 273; Weigert, et al. 1957: 115). A frontier is also an area within which the attenuation of ties between the pioneer society and the state from which it originated results in a temporary breakdown of complex institutions. A frontier region is characterized by a settlement pattern more dispersed than that of the homeland and by an upward shifting of functions normally performed by a hierarchy of communities into key settlements called "frontier towns" (Casagrande, et al. 1964: 313-314). The conditions of the frontier change when increasing population density, accompanied by an increase in the level of economic, social, and political integration, bring about the evolution of the region into an integral part of the parent state (see Lewis 1975, 1977b: 153-155).

In those areas where plantation farming has remained the most efficient means of commercial exploitation, the presence of a plantation economy often results in the persistence of these frontier characteristics well past the time when the frontier itself has closed. Georgetown District was one such area. Census returns show its population to have remained nearly stable throughout the plantation period (U.S. Census, Population, 1790-1890). In contrast, the population of South Carolina as a whole increased by 463% during the same period (Petty 1943: 226-229).

A plantation may be seen as "a capitalistic type of agricultural organization in which a number of unfree laborers are employed under unified direction and control in the production of a staple crop" (Mintz 1959: 43). The organization of a plantation is marked by (1) a relatively large population and territorial size, (2) an emphasis upon the production of specialized cash crops, (3) a use of labor beyond the owner-family, and (4) a dependence upon the authority principle as the basis for collective action (Pan American Union 1959: 190). To these may be added (5) a centralized control of cultivating power, (6) a relatively large input of cultivating power per unit of area, and (7) the necessity of producing subsistence crops to at least in part support the plantation population (Prumty 1955: 460). These characteristics reflect the manner in which agricultural activities are organized to facilitate production. The plantation not only provides a setting for these activities, but also an arrangement to facilitate carrying them out. This arrangement is reflected in the form of the plantation settlement.

The most common plantation occupance form* in the colonial and ante-bellum southern United States has been described by Prunty (1955: 465-466) as a compact settlement with the owner or manager's house customarily situated near a cluster of service buildings and slave quarters. The latter were grouped compactly in rows along short roads or in a rectangle of buildings. The following plantation described for sale in the Southern Recorder (Milledgeville, Georgia) on February 12, 1834, provides an example of this occupance form.

the main dwelling contained nine rooms, a back piazza twelve feet wide, and a portico and balcony in front; in addition to this there were two frame buildings adjacent the kitchen and wash-house, and the weaving house, used also as quarters for the house servants; a brick dairy, a smokehouse, and the home of the overseer were located nearby; there were "new framed houses with brick chimnies sufficient for the accomodation of 30 hands," stables, blacksmith and carpenter shops, and a two-story barn ... (Flanders 1967: 95).

Although the plantation itself might be large, the settlement itself was compact. The actual layout of buildings varied but seems generally to have followed the same pattern. Waterman and Barrows (1969: xiv) have noted that eighteenth century plantations in the southeast centered around a main house and its dependencies. Throughout the eighteenth century these structures exhibited a basic Georgian symmetry in their arrangement, with the house and its forecourt flanked by the dependencies which were sometimes attached by passages to the main house (Kimball 1922: 79). In the last quarter of the century the dependencies shifted from a position on either side of the forecourt to one in line with the orientation of the house. Dependencies apparently did not possess definite functions in every plantation and served variously as offices, kitchens, overseers' quarters, libraries, and servants' quarters, as well as housing for other support activities related to the main house (Waterman 1945: 61, 259, 341).**

Farm and service buildings, consisting of shelters for work stock and plantation tools, were situated in a cluster apart from but adjacent to the

*The term "occupance form" here refers to settlement types as defined by their spatial patterning and function. It implies a dependent relationship of form to function through which change in occupance form may be seen as the result of a modification in the role played by the settlement. For this reason it is possible for a settlement to be characterized by more than one occupance form during its existence.

**The pattern of plantation settlement outlined here is derived from the layout of structures on the following plantations: Tyron's plantation, Brunswick Town, North Carolina (Sauthier 1769); the Price house, Spartanburg County, South Carolina (South 1970); the Hermitage, Savannah, Georgia; Mt. Vernon and Gunston Hall, Fairfax County, Virginia; Bremono, Fluvanna County, Virginia; Lower Brandon, Prince George County, Virginia (Architects' Emergency Committee 1933: 23, 70-71, 95, 107); Amphyll and Stratford, Westmoreland County, Virginia; Carters Grove, James City County, Virginia; Westover,

main house complex. They were generally placed in a linear or geometric arrangement (Waterman and Barrows 1969; Phillips 1929: 332). The proximity of these structures to the main house complex, which also placed them in close proximity to pasture, cropland, and labor quarters, insured that cultivating power was centrally located within the area to which it was applied and among the human elements whose effective employment depended on it (Prunty 1955: 466).

The slave quarters were generally situated near the agricultural buildings to one side of the main house. They were commonly arranged in rows facing a cleared square at one end of which the main house and its dependencies stood. Quarters varied in size and method of construction from one room huts to larger buildings of log, frame, or brick (Rawick 1972: 70-71, 77). Often its relative proximity to the main house reflected the status of the structure's occupants on the plantation (Anthony 1976: 13).

In general, the entire plantation complex was not situated directly on a main road linking settlements, but rather would have been placed along a branch road leading into the plantation lands (Phillips 1929: 335). The complex was usually adjacent to the earliest cultivated land. The exhaustive effect of continuous cropping of cotton required a continual clearing of new land for planting (Dodd 1921: 25), resulting in a constant expansion of cultivated lands accompanied by a general movement away from the site of the original plantation settlement (Olmstead 1957: 53).

Mt. Vernon, in Fairfax County, Virginia, a plantation that had assumed its final form by the 1770s (Architects' Emergency Committee 1933: 70-73),* clearly illustrates the layout of the plantation settlement pattern. The geometric layout of the structures at Mt. Vernon is clearly visible (Fig. 11) with the main house and dependencies situated at the center of a U-shaped plan. Service buildings lie in a row stretching to either side of the forecourt. Quarters form a block oriented at a right angle to the service buildings. The U-shape of the layout is further emphasized by the positions of entrance roads, paths, walls, and ornamental and vegetable garden plots.

In addition to the single nucleus form of plantation, multi-nucleated plantations also existed to a much lesser degree. These usually consisted of separate settlements for the main house complex, including servants' quarters and stables, slave settlements, and processing settlements where the crop was also stored (Olmstead 1953: 186). The advantages of such a

Charles City County, Virginia; Mount Airy and Menokin, Richmond County, Virginia; Bladenfield, Essex County, Virginia; (Waterman and Barrows 1969: 179-183); Rosewell, Gloucester County, Virginia (Noel Hume 1962a: 161-162); Waterman and Barrows 1969: 181; and Uncle Sam, St. James Parish, Louisiana (Newton 1972: 81).

*Although it may appear irregular to choose as an example a plantation that has achieved such notoriety as has the estate of George Washington, the amount of architectural information generated as the result of this intense interest has made it possible to construct an accurate picture of the plantation's form and structure.

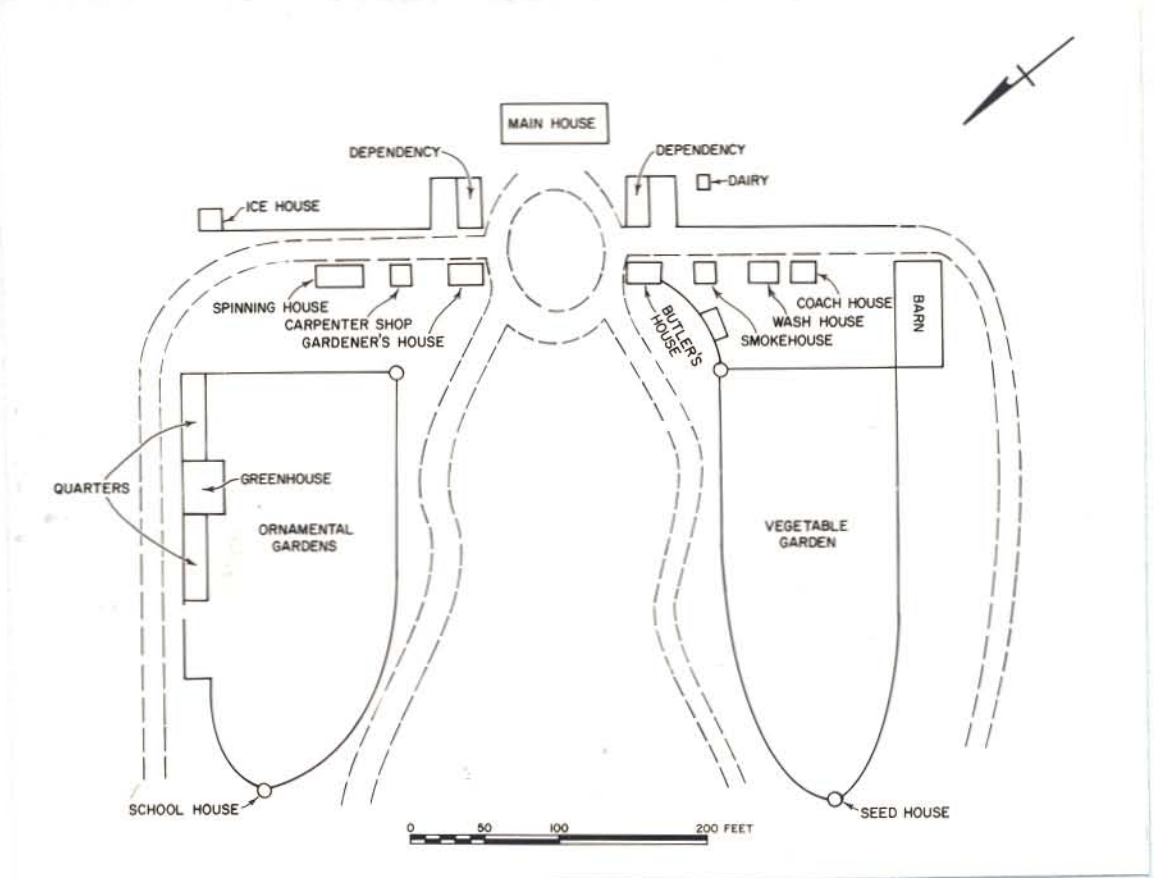


FIGURE 11: Mt. Vernon in Fairfax County, Virginia, exhibiting a typical plantation settlement pattern (Source: Architect's Emergency Committee 1933: 70-71).

pattern are likely to derive from the operation's scale as well as the spatial dispersion of its components. If a rice plantation were large and its arable land, particularly inland swamp fields, widely scattered, then a dispersal of workers to locations in the vicinity of these fields would be useful. The main house complex would probably not have been placed in such areas because of their unhealthy location, and processing and storage areas are likely to have been situated at convenient shipping points along a navigable watercourse. Separate workers' settlements were present on lowcountry rice plantations in South Carolina as were centrally located processing points, although the latter were often situated near the main house complex. For example, Limerick plantation on the East Cooper River (Purcell 1786) and Middleton Place on the Ashley River (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 56) both had separate workers' settlements adjacent to impounded rice fields, yet only the former had a rice mill removed from the main house settlement complex. These workers' settlements, however, appear to have been abandoned when tidal fields were substituted for inland swamp fields.

As a result of the Civil War and its accompanying social and economic disruption, the antebellum slave plantation was transformed into a "fragmented" plantation farmed by free tenants whose residences were dispersed across the arable land (Prunty 1955: 469). This settlement pattern is entirely different from those of the antebellum period and represents an adaptation to conditions of economic impoverishment and an uncertain labor supply. Because of the labor-intensive nature of rice growing, tenant farming and its accompanying settlement pattern did not become commonplace on the rice plantations, although many former

slaves continued to work for their previous owners as wage laborers. The drain of skilled labor that accompanied emancipation, however, was a factor that contributed to the decline of this crop and to the demise of the plantations that produced it (Ravenel 1936: 44).

It was assumed that the site of a colonial and antebellum plantation such as Hampton would reveal settlement and activity patterning similar to that of the single nucleus plantation described above. The distribution of structures on the 1809 map suggested this. Similarly, Archibald Rutledge's description of Hampton in the late nineteenth century seemed to reveal an evolution toward a fragmented tenant plantation, a change that had become complete by the 1920s. It was felt that the patterns described in the model and suggested by the documents would be discernible in the archeological record at Hampton. Archeological evidence would permit the identification of past activities and their relative positions within the settlement that once existed, determining the extent to which Hampton fitted the model as well as the reasons why.

Results of the Investigations

Archeological investigations at Hampton provided a chronological framework within which to examine the plantation settlement. They revealed that the most intensive occupation of the site occurred in the second half of the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth. A 1793 median historic date for this occupation was derived from the ceramic artifacts. This time span agreed with that estimated from historical documents. In addition, the archeological record produced evidence of the reduced post-bellum and modern occupations at Hampton.

The form and extent of settlement at Hampton were ascertained through an analysis of archeological data. The employment of a Synagraphic Computer Mapping Program (SYMAP) made possible the interpolation of the distributions of key artifact variables across the entire site based on information recovered from the sample units (Dougenik and Sheehan 1976). SYMAPs of artifacts deposited as a consequence of various plantation activities revealed clusters adjacent to the main house and in the field to the west of it (Fig. 12).

Changes in overall settlement form through time were revealed in the distribution of temporally significant artifacts, primarily ceramics and glass. A marked reduction in the size of the settlement in the west part of the survey area appears to have occurred in the late antebellum period. The post-bellum abandonment of all but the main house area, described in documentary sources, was also reflected in the archeological record as was the recent reoccupation of portions of the site.

The cultural affiliation of Hampton's inhabitants was also observable archeologically. The British origin of its owners and their participation in that part of the European world economy dominated by Great Britain was indicated by the presence and variety of English-made and re-exported ceramics and the absence of those produced by competing European colonial states.

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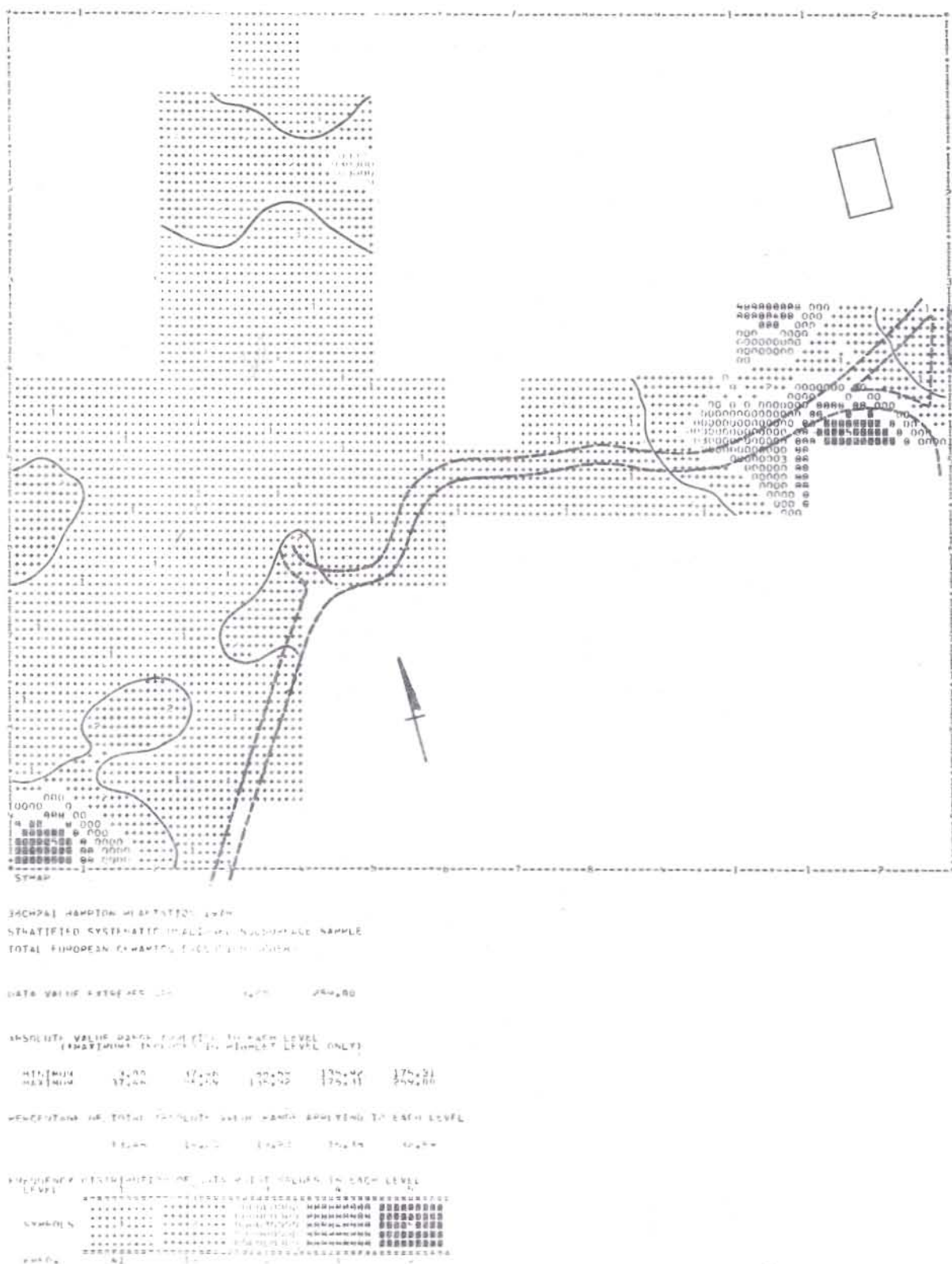


FIGURE 12: SYMAP showing the distribution of colonial ceramics.

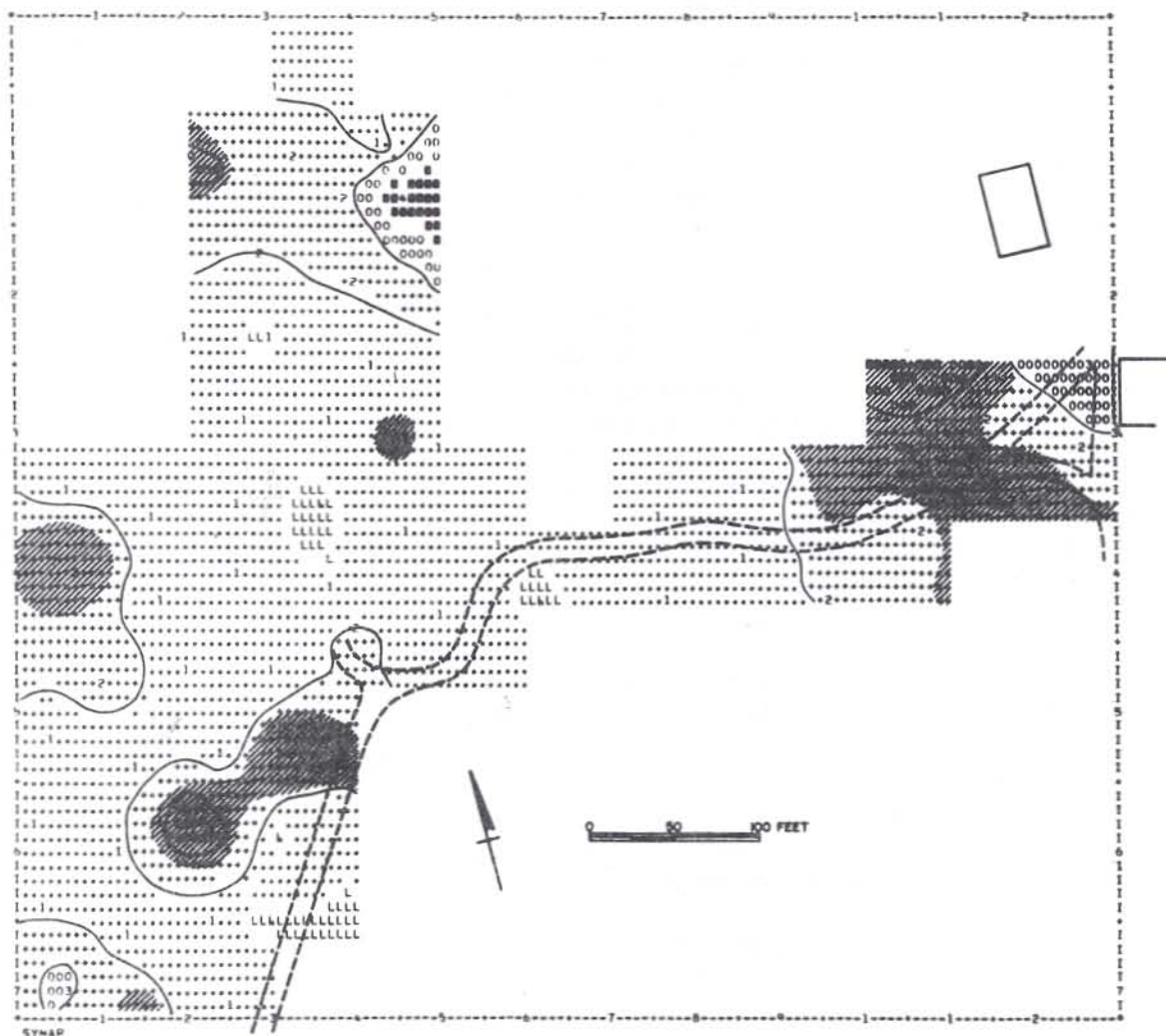
Hampton's large slave population, on the other hand, was expected to have generated a sizable quantity of Colono ceramics, a primarily eighteenth century ware believed to have been produced by black potters following West African and native American ceramic traditions (Ferguson 1980; Lees and Kimery-Lees 1979: 12). Colono pottery accounted for nearly 30% of the ceramics from this site, an amount comparable to that found on the sites of other contemporary plantations in the South Carolina lowcountry (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 32; Drucker and Anthony 1979: 99-118; Carrillo 1980: 71; Lees and Kimery-Lees 1979: 9).

With regard to settlement function three hypotheses derived from the plantation model were examined. If the settlement at Hampton corresponded to the pattern for lowcountry plantations in general, it was expected to exhibit not only the geometric structural arrangement common to such settlements, but also to contain identifiable activity areas devoted to domestic activity as well as animal husbandry and manufacturing, maintenance, and storage. In addition, the status differences between various social groups would probably be reflected in the archeological remains deposited in their living and activity areas.

Plantation layout was observed archeologically by constructing a SYMAP of artifacts associated with structures. The distribution of these artifacts revealed a cluster adjacent to the main house area and five clusters in the field directly west of it. The locations of the concentrations closely approximated those of structures shown on the 1809 Diamond map (Figs. 5 and 13). Their geometric arrangement and alignment with the main house revealed a layout typical of plantation settlements in this region and supported the hypothesis dealing with the settlement form.

In order to identify activity occurrence at Hampton, comparisons between several different groups of functionally-significant and artifact classes were made by activity area. These areas were defined by dividing up the site according to the intensity of structural artifact occurrence. Based on this variable, six structure-based activity areas were constructed (Fig. 14).

An attempt was made to discern differences in the frequency of occurrence by area of artifact classes associated with domestic, animal husbandry, and agriculture, processing, and storage activities. Artifacts normally involved in these activities were compared by area. Unfortunately, when examined, each area yielded 99% or more of its artifacts in the domestic activity category. This condition is apparently not uncommon on plantation sites because of the differing manner by which the output of these types of activity accumulates (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 54). Unlike activities occurring in a domestic context, those associated with animal husbandry and agriculture, processing, and storage are generally not characterized by a substantial amount of discard. Except in the case of certain small-scale manufacturing or maintenance activities, such as pottery-making and smithing, little refuse is produced that is not organic or otherwise incapable of being preserved under most conditions in the archeological record. Also, artifacts involved in such activities would usually have been removed, recycled, or otherwise retained whenever possible because of their value and continued usefulness. Only when lost or broken beyond repair would they have entered the archeological record. The process of loss is further conditioned by the object's size, age or degree of wear, and portability (Schiffer 1976: 32-33). Thus, smaller, worn, and frequently



38CH241 HAMPTON PLANTATION 1979

STRATIFIED SYSTEMATIC UNALIGNED SURFACE SAMPLE

TOTAL NAILS EXCLUDING WIRE

DATA VALUE EXTREMES ARE: 0.0 204.00

ABSOLUTE VALUE RANGE APPLYING TO EACH LEVEL
(*MAXIMUM* INCLUDED IN HIGHEST LEVEL ONLY)

	MINIMUM	BELOW	1.00	23.50	43.70	143.85
MAXIMUM	1.00	23.50	43.70	143.85	204.00	

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ABSOLUTE VALUE RANGE APPLYING TO EACH LEVEL

	11.11	24.63	29.63	29.63

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DATA POINT VALUES IN EACH LEVEL

LEVEL	1	2	3	4
SYMBOLS	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	00000000	00000000
FREQ.	4	33	17	4

FIGURE 13: SYMAP showing the occurrence of cut and wrought nails with the distribution of brick rubble superimposed.

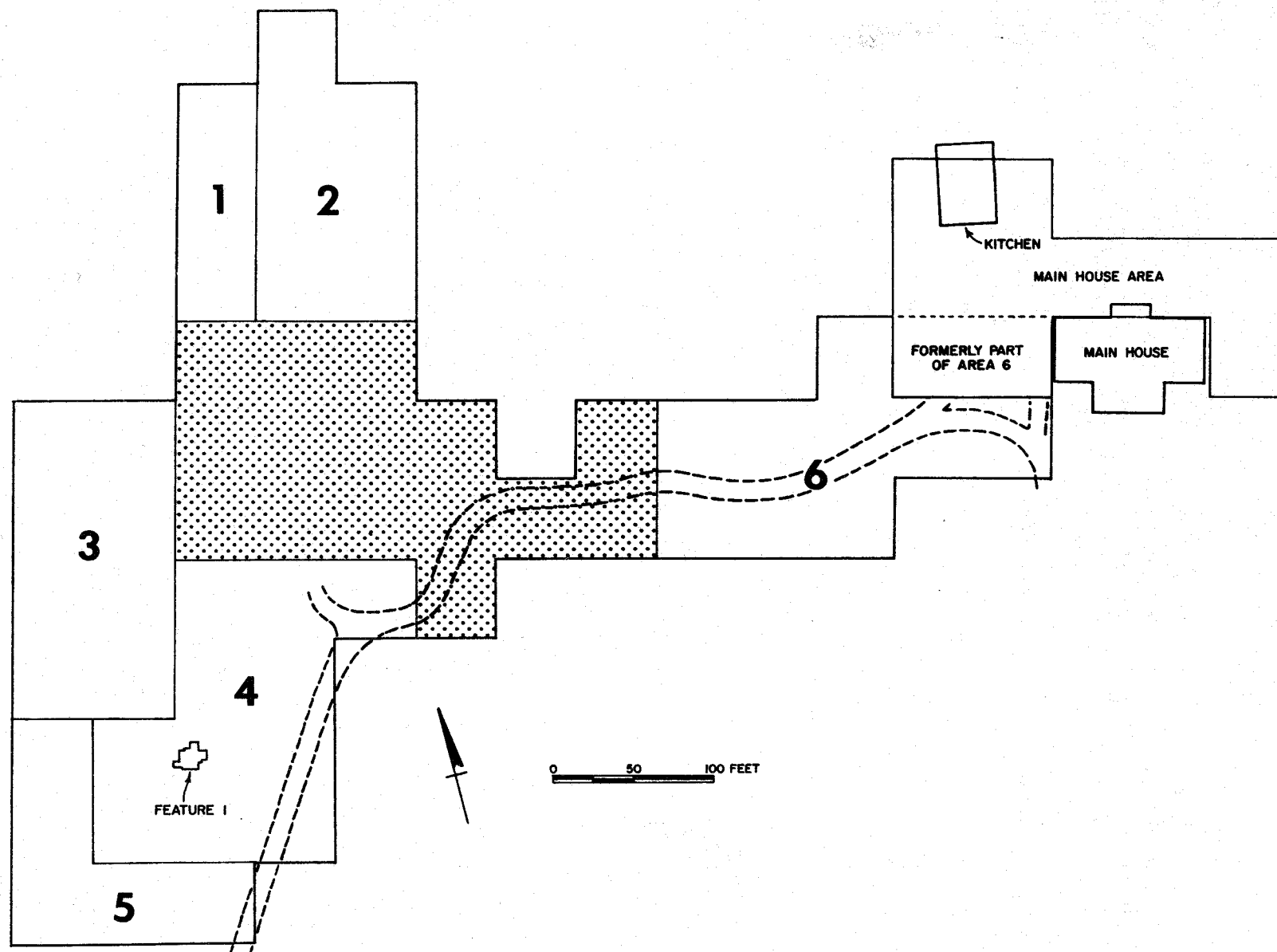


FIGURE 14: Map of structure-based activity areas at Hampton plantation.

moved artifacts have a higher probability of loss than do objects that are larger, newer, and more stationary.

Because of the absence of quantitatively measurable evidence of specialized activity occurrence, the archeological contents of the activity areas were examined through the use of categories designed to distinguish only between domestic and non-domestic occupations. This distinction is based on the degree to which artifacts related solely to domestic activities comprise the total archeological output of each area. Three activity categories were examined: subsistence activities that are likely to occur in the context of a living area; subsistence-technological activities that may occur in areas supporting both a domestic and non-domestic occupation; and technological activities that would have taken place only in a non-domestic context.

An examination of the Hampton data revealed that the percentage frequencies of occurrence of subsistence and subsistence-technological artifacts by area fell into three clusters. Areas 4 and 5 exhibited the highest frequencies of subsistence artifact occurrence; Areas 1, 3 and 6 formed a middle group; Area 2 exhibited the lowest occurrence of this activity category. Technological artifacts appeared only in minute quantities (less than 0.5% of the total artifacts) and occurred in all areas except Area 1. Based on a comparison with the occurrence of these artifact categories in structure-based activity areas at Camden, a contemporary frontier settlement in South Carolina (Lewis 1976), all but one of the Hampton areas fell within the range found in activity areas identified as sites of mixed domestic-specialized activity.

On the basis of this comparison, it would appear that all the activity areas at Hampton were sites of domestic occupations but were also used to carry out other activities. Areas 4 and 5 appear to have had the largest relative domestic component and Area 2 the least. The presence of combined specialized activity and domestic structures was not uncommon on plantations; although most slaves lived in single family houses (Fogel and Engerman 1974: 115), house servants and those associated with household industries and crafts were often housed in or adjacent to structures devoted to those activities (Anthony 1976: 13-14). If the cluster of structures west of the main house at Hampton represents a settlement where such activities were carried out, it would not be unusual to find an archeological assemblage reflecting a mixed domestic/specialized activity occupation.

In an attempt to further delineate the domestic occupation of Hampton plantation, the relative occurrence of individual artifact types likely to have been associated with domestic subsistence activities was observed. Markedly higher frequencies of faunal material and Colono ceramics, the latter of which appear to have been closely associated with the preparation of food by slaves for their own consumption as well as for the residents of the main house (Ferguson 1980), suggested that Areas 4, 5 and 6 were loci of largely domestic activity. Specialized activities, on the other hand, appear to have been carried out in Areas 1, 2 and 3. The pattern of Areas 4, 5 and 6 seems to reflect the domestic occupation of the main house and indicates that those structures at the southern end of the occupied area served a similar function, presumably as quarters. The buildings to the north of them apparently housed other plantation activities of an as yet undetermined nature.

Finally, the relative status of the occupants of different parts of the plantation was explored through an analysis of the architectural remains and certain artifacts associated with high status persons. The standing main house structure was found to represent an upper class plantation house typical of the eighteenth century and constitutes the only evidence of such architecture on the site. Individual high status artifacts were rare in the material recovered at Hampton. All that were found, however, came from Area 6 in the vicinity of the main house.

Another artifact likely to be linked to status within a colonial plantation context is Oriental porcelain, a re-exported ware which became increasingly common in European society during the eighteenth century. Its association with the tea ceremony, an imported English custom (Roth 1961: 70) and its relatively higher cost as a culinary item, would have tended to restrict the use of porcelain to the European element of a plantation's population. The relative occurrence of porcelain to other ceramics by area at Hampton clearly indicated that Area 6, lying adjacent to the main house, was the locus of high status activity.

In summary, the initial archeological investigations at Hampton plantation accomplished the immediate goals of the project. They defined the size and extent of the site, established the cultural affiliation of its occupants and the period during which they inhabited the site, and revealed aspects of the site's form and content that identify its former occupation as that of a plantation settlement. Because the present work at Hampton is intended to serve as an extension of the earlier project, data produced by and conclusions derived from the initial excavations will feature prominently in the analyses presented in the following sections of this report.

ARCHEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS AT HAMPTON PLANTATION

Introduction

The investigations conducted at Hampton plantation in the fall of 1979 were designed to expand the work of the previous spring. They were intended both to explore the nature of the site as a whole by extending the boundaries of the area examined, and to investigate in detail a relatively restricted segment of the plantation settlement. The archeological investigations examined a portion of the site not explored in the first project in an attempt to obtain material data useful in ascertaining the form of this part of the plantation settlement, as well as its functional relationship to the whole. In addition, a complex feature partially excavated in the previous project was completely examined. The undisturbed nature of this feature permitted the excavation of a substantial sealed context at a site characterized by mixed archeological deposits.

Because each aspect of the investigations was directed at a separate problem, and consequently involved different types of excavations, the discussion of the archeological work will be presented in two parts. The first will deal with the extended sample excavations in the vicinity of the main house, while the second will be concerned with the investigation of a pit feature situated in an area in the southwest portion of the site identified as a domestic activity area.

Sampling the Main House Area

Introduction

The initial sample excavations conducted at Hampton plantation extended up to but did not include the area surrounding the main house (Fig. 14). This structure was the residence of the plantation owners and their families and, as such, an area of centralized activity within the plantation settlement. Because of the role it played, the main house area is likely to be distinguishable archeologically. Its role should be discernible in terms of both the nature of the material data and their patterns of spatial distribution.

Before attempting to analyze settlement form and function on the basis of the archeological remains, it is necessary to discuss the condition of the main house area itself and to place its contents within the chronological framework of Hampton plantation. The results of this analysis should determine if the archeological data from the main house area are compatible with those from the rest of the site and are capable of inclusion in an integrated study of the plantation settlement as a whole.

Methodological Framework

The archeological investigations in the vicinity of the main house at Hampton were designed to examine a portion of this area and to discover behaviorally meaningful material patterning within it. As in the previous work at Hampton, these excavations constitute a discovery phase of archeology, intended to recognize only broad patterning in the material record. Consequently, questions asked of the gathered data must be general in nature, and not address specific aspects of the past settlement. Because the present work is an extension of the initial sampling of the site, it has employed the stratified systematic unaligned sampling technique used in the earlier investigations. The area explored lay to the west, north, and east sides of the standing main house structure and included the area of the present kitchen building northwest of the house (Fig. 14). In all, an area measuring 250 feet east to west and 150 feet north to south at its greatest extent was investigated. It encompassed 20,000 square feet and was explored through the excavation of eight 5x5 foot squares, each placed within a larger 50x50 foot unit (Fig. 15).

In order to maintain horizontal control for the excavations, a grid system of 50x50 foot squares was superimposed over the main house area. This grid was an extension of that used in the earlier project. All points were measured north and east along two axes from a single datum point located south and west of the site. This point was designated North 0, East 0. Excavated units were identified by the coordinates in the southwest corner of each pit. To take advantage of the axis upon which the standing house is laid out, the entire site grid has been offset 14.5 degrees east of north. Vertical control was maintained with a transit, measuring all elevations relative to an arbitrary datum established in an earlier survey of the site (SCPRT 1979).

The contents of the excavated units were screened utilizing a mechanical sifter with $\frac{1}{4}$ inch hardware cloth mesh. All units were dug by natural stratigraphy. Subsurface archeological features discovered in the excavations were to be explored intensively only when it appeared certain that they would be contained entirely within the sample unit or when excavation would not damage the integrity of the larger feature. All features not excavated were to be exposed, recorded, and sealed in order to protect them until complete excavation, if desired, could be accomplished during a later phase of work at Hampton plantation.

For purposes of defining the spatial limits of the main house area and comparing its contents with those of other structure-based activity areas at Hampton, two sample units excavated during the spring 1979 investigations have been included in the present computations because of their proximity to the west end of the main house. These two units were previously part of Area 6 (Fig. 14). Artifact figures appearing in this report have had the totals from these units subtracted from those of Area 6 and added to the totals from the main house area. Artifact figures from all other structure-based activity areas are the same as in the earlier report.

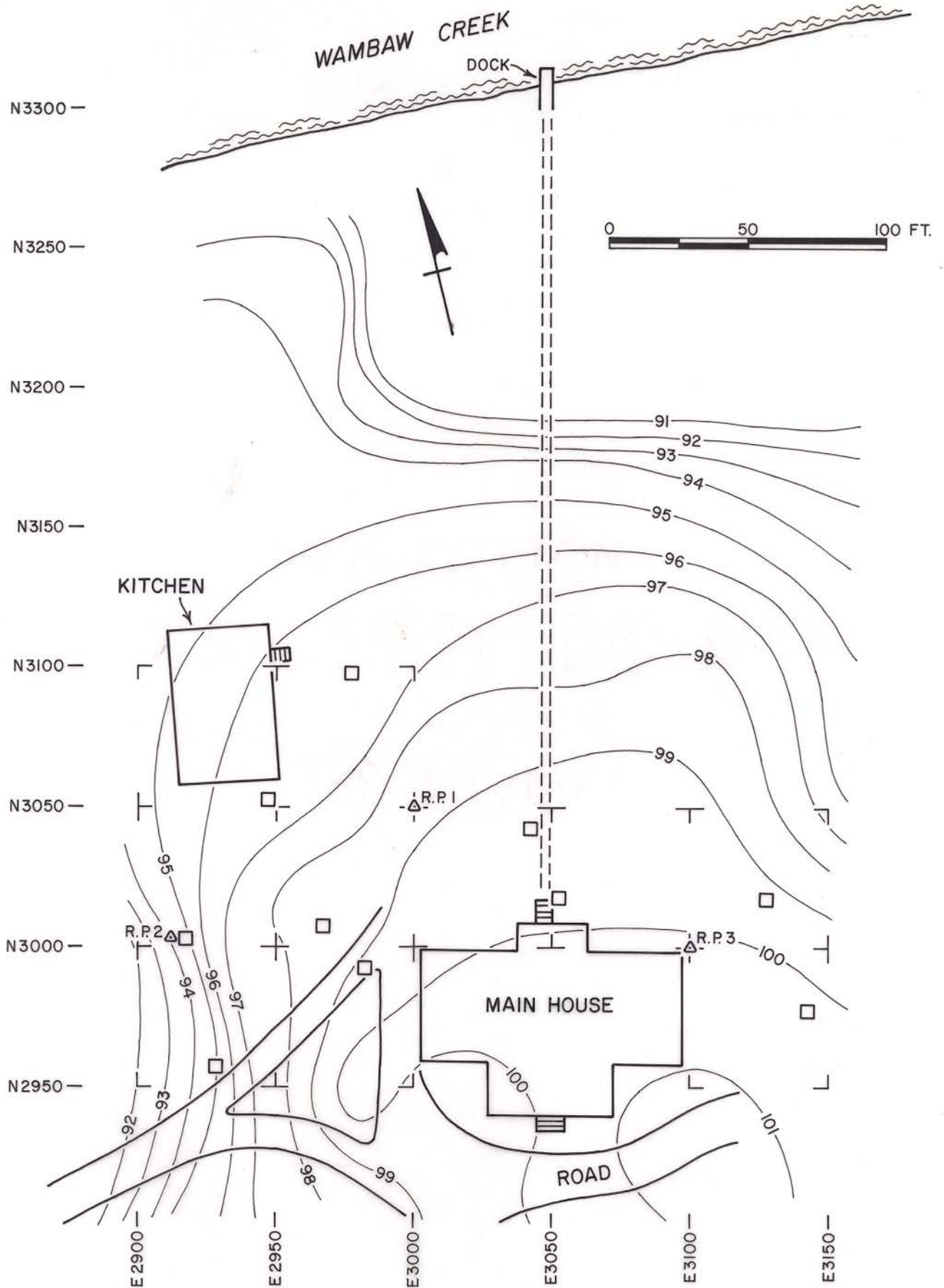


FIGURE 15: Plan of fall 1979 archeological excavations at the main house area at Hampton Plantation State Park.

The Condition of the Site

The main house area at Hampton contains the only intact early structure found on the site, the large Georgian mansion constructed perhaps as early as the mid-eighteenth century. While this building allows one to identify the general area of the main house occupation, it provides few clues as to where other structures or associated activities may have been situated. Their discovery and interpretation is dependent upon an analysis of the archeological data alone. This information, in turn, is affected by the condition of the site.

The site's condition is largely reflected by its physical structure. The key to interpreting this structure is stratigraphy, which not only reveals the nature of the site in the past but provides a record of changes that have taken place up to the present. The stratigraphic record at Hampton reflects both human activities and the natural process of pedogenesis.

Two soil series dominate the main house area at Hampton. In the area lying directly west of the house, Faceville series soils are found (Fig. 2). Faceville fine sandy loam is a deep, well-drained acid soil that is mainly clayey in the subsoil (Miller 1971: 15). Test pit N3005, E2965 provides a typical profile of this soil:

- Layer 1: 0-0.3 feet; dark grey-brown fine sandy loam.
- Layer 2: 0.3-0.8 feet; yellowish-brown fine sandy loam containing some grey sand mottling.
- Layer 3: 0.8 feet - ; yellowish-red clay loam.

To the rear of the main house Lakeland series soils predominate. A typical profile of this soil is revealed in Test pit N3095, E2975:

- Layer 1: 0-0.3 feet; dark greyish-brown sand.
- Layer 2: 0.3-1.3 feet; dark yellow-brown sand.
- Layer 3: 1.3-4.0 feet; brownish-yellow sand.

The original condition of the site has been modified by erosion in the immediate area of the present kitchen structure. Much of the eroded material is likely to have been deposited downslope adjacent to the rice pond lying west of the main house. An abrupt increase in the thickness of the dark grey topsoil in the western portion of test pit N3000, E2915 appears to represent the accumulation of soil to fill in a sharply dipping surface.

On the whole, however, the area investigated at Hampton plantation does not seem to have been substantially modified by the historic occupation there. For this reason it is anticipated that the distributions of cultural materials have not been substantially altered and that analyses of these artifacts will accurately reveal meaningful patterning in the settlement that produced them.

Dating the Occupation of the Main House Settlement

Previous archeological investigations at Hampton confirmed the dates of the plantation's occupation ascertained from documentary sources. They revealed the presence of a historic settlement from the mid-eighteenth century until the present, with the heaviest occupation falling within the Colonial and Antebellum periods. Material evidence suggests a post-bellum abandonment followed by a more recent reoccupation of portions of the site in the twentieth century. The earlier excavations, however, only partially explored the area adjacent to the main house and, consequently, did not obtain an adequate sample of datable material from this component of the plantation settlement.

The main house may have been constructed as early as the 1740s (Carrillo, personal communication) and enlarged before 1791 with the addition of two wings and a portico (Foley 1979: 5). It apparently served as the owner's residence until 1860 and was reoccupied after the Civil War. The house was again abandoned briefly from 1923 to 1937 and then served more or less continuously as a residence until its acquisition as part of Hampton Plantation State Park in 1971.

The frame kitchen building northwest of the main house appears to be of recent construction. The presence of wire nails throughout the structure indicates a terminus post quem of 1890 (Fontana and Greenleaf 1962: 73). A massive central chimney block containing numerous hearths and an oven identified the food preparation function of this structure and it appears to have been used as such in the late nineteenth century (Rutledge 1918). Its use, however, seems to have reverted to that of a tenant residence during the 1920s and 1930s (Rutledge 1941: 56).

The 1809 Diamond map of Hampton plantation (Fig. 5) shows a structure near the main house in roughly the same location as the kitchen. Its proximity to the house suggests it was a dependency structure. Because the main house, in the pattern of large Southern dwellings of the second half of the eighteenth century (Kimball 1922: 71), lacked an internal kitchen and had no other nearby buildings, it may be inferred that the dependency structure served that purpose at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The central chimney block could date from this period, and if so, the remains of this early kitchen may lie beneath the present building.

Because Hampton's economic role as a rice producer declined abruptly with the Civil War, and apparently had been diminishing prior to this time, a reduction in the level of intensity of activity associated with the plantation settlement should also have occurred. A sharp drop in activity during the Postbellum period was evidenced in the earlier investigations by a near absence of archeological deposits containing artifacts of this period across the site. Although the main house area was occupied during this time, it is likely that a decline in level of activity associated with the plantation's evolution into a family farm would also have occurred here and would be discernible in a reduced archeological by-product generated by its occupants. The material evidence from the main house area is expected, then, to reflect a continuous

occupation stretching from the mid-eighteenth century to the present; however, the greater intensity of colonial and antebellum activity is likely to have resulted in an accumulation of a greater amount of archeological material during this early period.

Several classes of artifacts are extremely useful in establishing occupation spans of historic sites. Ceramics, because of their peculiar qualities of variation, are particularly well suited to reflecting temporal change. This is especially true of eighteenth century British ceramics for not only did the industrialization of ceramic manufacture result in the production of numerous morphologically distinct types but the rapid innovation that accompanied industrialization generated types with relatively limited and well documented temporal ranges. The presence of a class of artifacts possessing these characteristics permits the calculation of a reasonably accurate chronological range as well as a median date for an archeological occupation (South 1972: 72). Other types of artifacts with more general chronological ranges may also be employed to establish the time of a site's occupation. While these will yield less precise dates than those based on ceramics, the period of occupation indicated should encompass the ceramic dates.

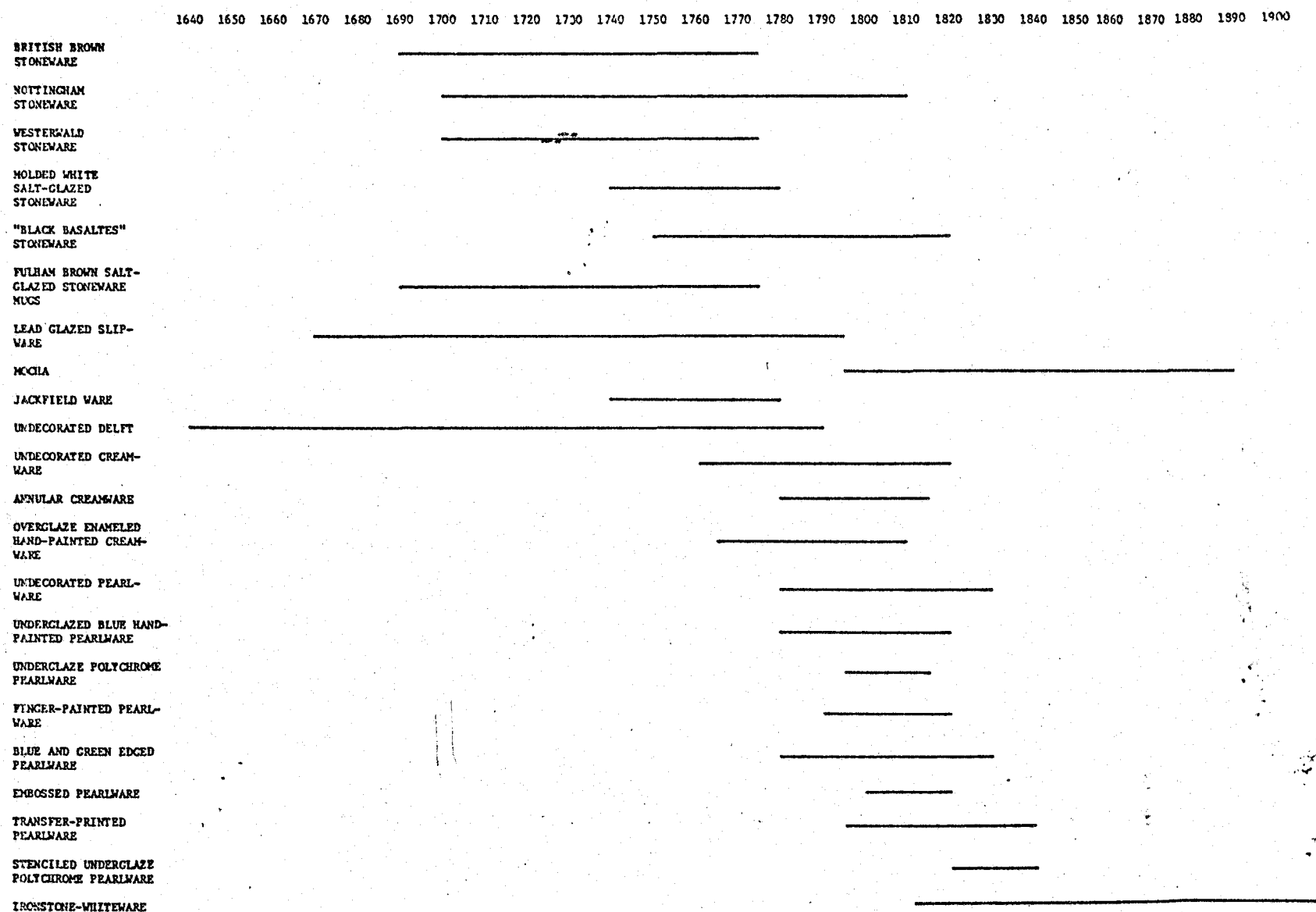
An estimate of the minimum range of occupation for the settlement may be ascertained by comparing the ranges of the European ceramic types recovered in the archeological investigations. The terminus post quem, or date after which the earliest objects found their way into the ground, and the terminus ante quem, or the date before the archeological materials were deposited, must be determined on the basis of a mixed deposit containing material deposited from the beginning to the end of the occupation. In order to establish a minimum chronological range for a mixed occupation the terminus post quem may be estimated by the closing date of the use range of the earliest ceramic type and the terminus ante quem by the beginning date of the use range of the type introduced latest. A comparison of the date ranges of the ceramic types at Hampton (Fig. 16) reveals that the site was occupied at least as early as 1775 and that its termination date was no earlier than 1820. The occurrence of late nineteenth and twentieth century ceramics of uncertain temporal range, however, reveals that the historic occupation of the main house area at Hampton extended well beyond this date.

The median date for the occupation may be obtained using the South formula, which derives a mean ceramic date based on the frequencies of occurrence of datable ceramic types recovered from an archeological context. Because the technique is quantitative, it is influenced by the relative intensity of output into the archeological record that takes place during the site's occupation. Consequently, it is likely to reveal the median date of the period having the heaviest output. At Hampton this period is likely to have been that during which the highest level of economic activity took place. Based on a total of 182 datable sherds, the mean ceramic date for the main house area is calculated to be 1795 (Appendix A).

On the basis of this date a range for the occupation may be estimated by comparing the mean date with a known terminus post quem or terminus ante quem and adding the difference to or subtracting it from the

FIGURE 16

COMPARISON OF TEMPORAL RANGES OF CERAMIC TYPES RECOVERED AT THE MAIN HOUSE AREA



mean date to arrive at beginning and closing dates. At Hampton neither of these dates are known precisely; however, if 1750, the traditional date of construction of the main house at Hampton, is taken as the terminus post quem for the plantation occupation, a terminus ante quem in the late Antebellum period may be arrived at. This period does not seem to fall outside the range of the plantation's period of greatest activity, for by the fourth decade of the nineteenth century Hampton was under the apparently less than adequate management of Edward and Frederick Rutledge and had already begun to decline.

The mean ceramic date obtained at the main house area closely approximates the mean date of 1793 calculated for that part of the site previously excavated. The similarity of these dates and the ranges derived from them demonstrates the contemporaneity of the principal occupations of the main house and the remainder of the site.

The chronological span of the site's occupation may also be shown by a non-quantitative examination of other artifacts whose date ranges are known. They are listed in Table 1. These artifacts reveal that deposition took place more or less continuously from the eighteenth century to the present. The occurrence of artifacts characteristic of the second half of the nineteenth century, particularly bottle glass (Appendix B), contrasts with other areas of the settlement where such material is nearly absent. Documentary evidence indicates an occupation of the main house area throughout the Postbellum period, during which time other previously settled portions of the plantation were abandoned in response to the changing economy. This evolving settlement pattern is clearly reflected in the archeological record at Hampton.

The archeological data indicate the main house area at Hampton underwent its heaviest occupation during the Colonial and Antebellum periods and was used less intensively from then until the present. This occupational sequence corresponds to that inferred from documentary records which reveal that the main house was used as a residence almost continuously from the mid-eighteenth century until the present. Although the main house area was constantly occupied, its role changed as a result of Hampton's decline as a plantation in the late Antebellum period. No longer a center of plantation activities, the main house area's population dwindled as did the size of the archeological record it produced.

Form and Function within the Main House Area

Introduction

Archeological evidence has demonstrated that the main house area at Hampton plantation contains the nearly undisturbed remains of a historic settlement contemporaneous with that described by documentary sources. For the most part this settlement represents the occupation of the main house site during the Colonial and Antebellum periods, during which time Hampton was involved in large-scale commercial rice production. Previous archeological work has shown that the Hampton settlement as a whole was

TABLE 1

TEMPORAL RANGES OF SELECTED NON-CERAMIC ARTIFACTS FROM
THE MAIN HOUSE AREA AT HAMPTON

<u>Artifact</u>	<u>Approximate Date Range</u>	<u>Source</u>
Wrought nails	-1800	Mercer (1923: 1)
Cut nails	1800-1890	Fontana and Greenleaf (1962: 54)
Wire nails	1890-	Fontana and Greenleaf (1962: 55)
Brass upholstery tacks	1700s	Noel Hume (1970: 228)
Pointed wood screws	1846-	Mercer (1923: 24)
Modern window glass	1845-	Walker (1971: 78)
Laid-on bottle lips	-1850	Lorrain (1968: 40)
Embossed bottle glass	1860s	Jones (1971: 10)
Crown bottle closure	1892-	Lief (1965: 17)
Machine-made bottle glass	1903-	Lorrain (1968: 43)
Polished pressed glass	1850-	Lorrain (1968: 39)
.22 long rifle rimfire cartridge cases	1887-	Barnes (1965: 274)
.25-20 W.C.F. cartridge case	1893-	Barnes (1965: 20)
16 gauge shotshell base	1864-	Barnes (1965: 284)
Open top can fragments	1902-	Fontana and Greenleaf (1962: 73)
Pull tops	1962-	Beer Can Collectors of America (1979: 22)
Manganese glass	1870s-1914	Jones (1971: 11)

similar to other plantation settlements with regard to form and function. It is expected that the main house settlement, unexcavated in the earlier investigations, also conformed to such a general pattern and that an examination of its archeological record will permit us to observe at least some of the characteristics common to the plantation occupance form.

The plantation's specialized role as a center of large-scale commercial agricultural production is reflected in its settlement pattern. Characteristics of settlement discussed in the plantation model refer largely to the occurrence and organization of activities and the layout of the areas in which they occurred. In this section the degree to which the main house settlement conforms to the model will be explored through several archeological hypotheses. The degree to which the data fit the model should help determine the latter's applicability to plantations of the lower Santee region and refine its content in light of new informa-

tion gathered at Hampton. The plantation model also provides a framework within which to interpret the nature of past settlement in the main house area. Results of this information should serve to expand previous research at Hampton as well as provide information useful in the interpretive development of the site.

Four general archeological hypotheses have been derived from the plantation model. If the main house settlement at Hampton corresponds to the pattern for lowcountry plantations in general, then the following propositions should be supported by data from the archeological record.

1. The form of the main house settlement at Hampton should conform to the symmetrical arrangement of main house and dependency structures outlined in the model. This group should consist of three buildings of similar construction. Because the 1809 plan shows only two structures situated in the main house area, this pattern cannot be distinguished solely on the basis of documentary information. Combined with material evidence in the form of standing structures and archeological remains, however, it should provide an accurate picture of the settlement pattern at the main house site.

2. The size of the sample area is likely to limit the investigations to an examination of the main house and its adjacent dependencies. Because dependencies were used to house a variety of activities directly related to the support of the main house, it is likely that the archeological record will indicate the occurrence of such specialized domestic activities at the sites of the dependency structures.

3. The areas directly to the front and to the rear of a plantation's main house were usually left free of settlement as space for lawns or gardens. An absence of structural remains or activity concentrations should characterize these areas at Hampton.

4. A high status occupation at the main house area should be revealed by an examination of the archeological record. In terms of status-linked variables, the contents of this area should contrast markedly with those of other structure-based activity areas defined in the earlier excavations.

Although it is not possible to explore all aspects of the main house settlement in the present study, a number of basic questions regarding the historic occupation of this site may be considered. The investigation of the main house site will examine its overall function as a component of the larger settlement and constitute the first step toward revealing the nature and distribution of activities there.

Examining the Archeological Record

In order to explore the questions posed above, it is necessary to test archeological implications predicting the form the material evidence is likely to assume if each hypothesis put forth is valid. Implications for recognizing functional aspects of plantation settlements are concerned with the occurrence and spatial arrangement of activities. The archeological record may contain three types of evidence that reflect

different aspects of activity occurrence and distribution: standing structures, structural remains, and portable objects. Each of these will be considered in the identification of intra-site activity in the main house area at Hampton plantation.

1. The first hypothesis relates to the layout of structures at the site. Briefly, it predicts that the main house settlement will consist of the principal residence building and two smaller dependencies approximately equidistant from the main house. All three should be of the same type of construction so as to form a single architectural unit.

At Hampton, the 1809 map shows the main house and another structure lying just northwest of it. If these structures, represented by the standing main house and another structure at the site of the present kitchen, are all that remains of an original three-building group, then it is probable that archeological evidence of a third structure of frame construction will be discovered just northeast of the main house.

The distribution of structural materials holds the key to identifying the locations of destroyed buildings at Hampton. Three types of structural artifacts, brick and brick rubble, cut and wrought nails, and window glass, are likely to have been deposited at building sites. Even when demolition or actual removal of the structure has occurred, the distribution of these items should provide evidence of its existence (see Lewis 1976: 96; Carrillo et al. 1975: 57).

The distribution of architecturally-related artifacts, with standing structure locations superimposed, is shown in Figure 17. The SYMAP reveals the presence of a concentration of all these artifacts northeast of the main house, implying the presence of a third structure there.

Concentrations of window glass and nails also occur adjacent to the main house, and nails and brick rubble are found in close proximity to the present kitchen building. These artifacts are likely to represent building and repair debris associated with the former and the remains of an earlier structure on the site of the present kitchen. If the modern building was constructed around the existing chimney pile of an earlier structure, then the kitchen presumably covers a portion of the site of the original structure as well as the archeological remains produced when the building was demolished.

The composition of the two archeological structures corresponds to that of the main house. The combination of brick and nail debris suggests that these structures were frame, making them architecturally compatible with the larger building. Their locations also fit those predicted for dependencies in the main house complex. Together these three structures exhibit the layout common to lowcountry plantations in general and reveal Hampton's conformity to this pattern.

Areas defined here on the basis of architectural material may be assumed to represent loci of structure-based activity areas. These areas are shown in Figure 18. In the following discussion of intra-site activity patterning they will constitute the units upon which a comparison of archeological materials is based.

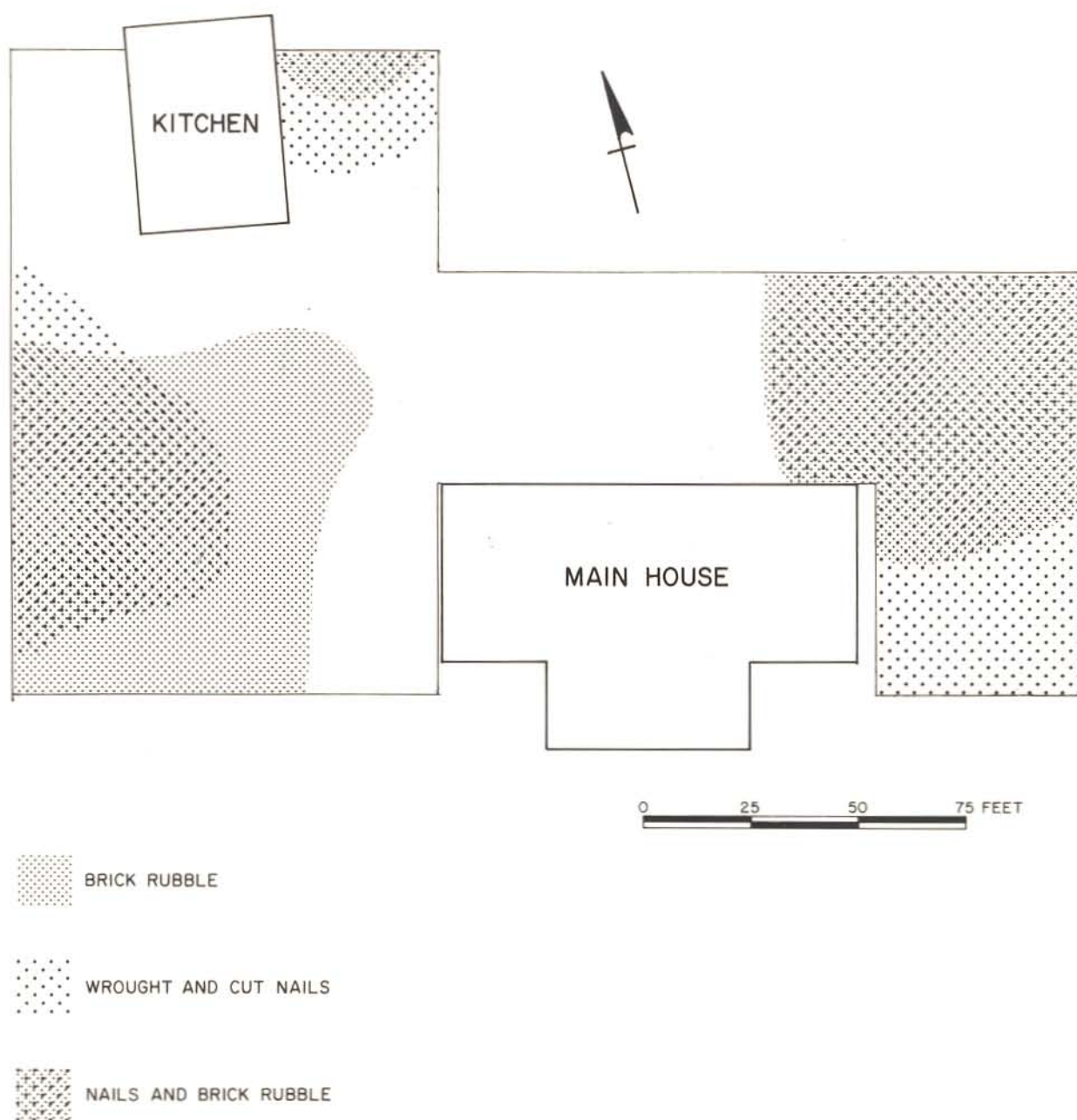


FIGURE 17: Distributions of structural materials as revealed by SYMAP displays.

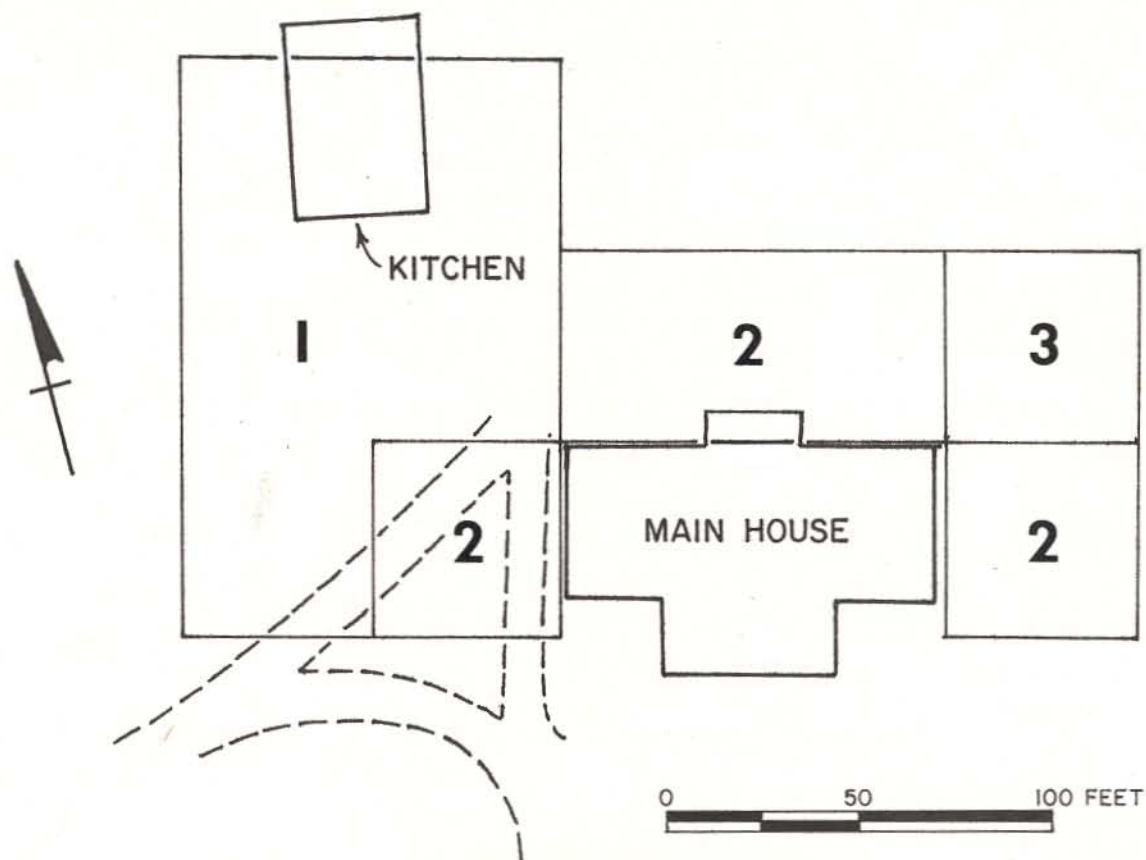


FIGURE 18: Map of structure-based activity areas in the main house area at Hampton plantation.

2. The second hypothesis states that evidence of specialized domestic activities will be associated with the dependency structures of the main house complex. These activities may be identified by observing variation in the occurrence of functionally significant artifact classes among the activity areas defined above. On the basis of this comparison, it should be possible to distinguish patterning in the archeological record that is related to the types of activities postulated to have taken place.

The most common specialized domestic activity likely to have produced a recognizable archeological byproduct is that associated with a kitchen where foods were processed, prepared, and to some extent, stored. Relatively larger quantities of kitchen materials are expected to have been generated by such activity. These artifacts include faunal debris accumulated as a result of food preparation, European ceramics associated with food processing and storage, and Colono pottery, a locally manufactured ware used for food preparation in both high and low status contexts

on eighteenth century plantations of the South Carolina lowcountry (Baker 1972: 14; Ferguson 1980), perhaps as a supplement to or a substitute for European vessels. The occurrence of these materials in the archeological record is presented in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF FAUNAL DEBRIS AND TOTAL NON-CERAMIC ARTIFACTS
IN AREAS 1, 2, AND 3

<u>Area</u>	<u>Frequency of Faunal Debris</u>	<u>Total Non- Ceramic Artifacts</u>	<u>Percentage of Faunal Debris</u>
1	36	654	6%
2	15	560	3%
3	49	360	14%

TABLE 3

COMPARISON OF EUROPEAN PROCESSING AND COLONO CERAMICS
VS. EUROPEAN SERVING CERAMICS

<u>Area</u>	<u>Number European Processing and Colono Ceramics</u>	<u>Number European Serving Ceramics</u>	<u>Totals</u>	<u>Percent European Processing and Colono Ceramics</u>	<u>Percent European Serving Ceramics</u>
1	65	120	185	35%	65%
2	19	45	64	30%	70%
3	26	46	72	36%	64%

Table 2 reveals a markedly higher frequency of faunal remains in Area 3 than in Areas 1 and 2. This implies a higher intensity of food refuse disposal, an activity likely to have been associated with food preparation in a kitchen area. This conclusion regarding the function of Area 3, the assumed site of the northeastern dependency, is further supported by the relative frequency of occurrence of Colono ware and European serving ceramics in the three areas (Table 3). Area 2 shows a slightly lower frequency of these artifacts relative to the presence of European serving wares, suggesting that the serving and consumption of food was a more typical activity here than was its preparation and storage. Area 1, the traditional site of the kitchen, also exhibits a high occurrence of Colono and processing ceramics, however, suggesting that it too may have been the focus of food preparation activity.

The archeological data appear to indicate that the main house had two food preparation areas associated with it. Because it is unlikely that they served this function simultaneously, both areas must be examined to determine if they were occupied at the same time. Mean ceramic dates reveal that the median occupation date for Area 1 is 1786, while

that for the east dependency is 1742, a considerable separation. On the basis of this evidence it is possible to conclude that the two buildings served a similar function but that each served in this capacity at a different time. Because the use spans of the ceramics found in both areas overlap, it is probable that the occupations of the two areas overlap and represent structures that were at least for a time contemporaneous. The absence of the northeastern dependency on the 1809 Diamond plan, however, indicates that the building in Area 3 had been destroyed at least as early as the first decade of the nineteenth century.

3. If Hampton's layout corresponds to the generalized pattern for lowcountry plantations, settlement in the main house complex would have been located to the sides of the main house and the areas to the front and rear left open as lawns or ornamental gardens. Not only would these areas have been clear of structures, but most activities generating a substantial material output would have been carried out elsewhere. Those activities conducted to the front and rear of a plantation house are likely to have been transitory in nature and, apart from the inevitable discard associated with the construction and repair of the house, the archeological record they produce is usually formed more as a result of loss than from the deliberate disposal of artifacts.

At Hampton plantation the layout of structures in the main house area has already been shown to conform to the predicted pattern (Fig. 17). The distribution of activities, however, must be established through the observation of other variables. Perhaps one of the most ubiquitous non-structural artifacts on eighteenth century British colonial sites is ceramics. This item, produced and broken in large quantities, was in most cases incapable of being recycled and, consequently, entered the archeological record in abundance. It occurs at sites of domestic as well as most specialized activities and its distribution is capable of reflecting the limits and intensity of activities in an area such as a main house complex.

A SYMAP of the distribution of ceramics in the main house area at Hampton (Fig. 19) reveals that the heaviest concentrations of material occurred to the sides of the main house structure and in the vicinity of the two dependencies. The area to the rear of the house exhibits a dearth of historic artifacts. Indeed, one sample pit directly behind the house (N3040, E3015) contained no historic ceramics at all. In short, the activity patterning in the main house area, as reflected by the distribution of ceramic artifacts, conforms to that expected for plantation settlements.

4. Finally, it has been postulated that archeological evidence from the main house area will identify the site as a high status area within the plantation settlement. In the previous investigations this question was examined utilizing several forms of evidence: the architecture of the main house; Oriental porcelain, a ceramic found in abundance on many British Colonial period sites; and other high status artifacts normally present in small quantities. Because the main house area itself was not excavated at that time, the artifacts used to represent this area included only those from Area 6 (Fig. 14), which lay near the main house and con-

tained fill deposits presumably originating there. In this discussion only those sample units lying immediately adjacent to the main house area will be considered in the comparison with other structure-based activity areas.

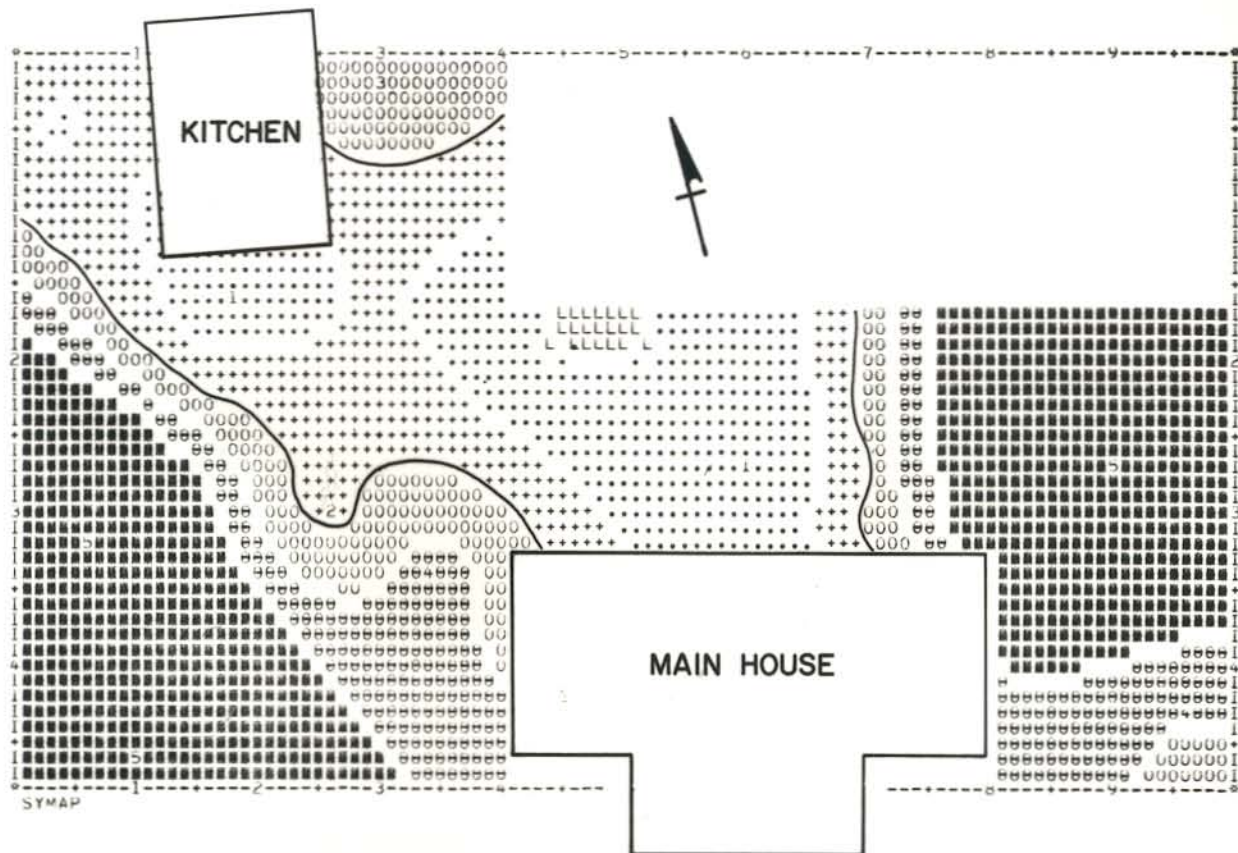
As mentioned in the earlier study, the main house structure is the only example of Colonial period architecture at Hampton. The structure exhibits several attributes that reflect the high status of its builders and occupants. First of all, its size, 93x36 feet, is comparable to or larger than other plantation houses of this period.* Its interior plan, though modified by the expansion of the structure (see Foley 1979: 6-8), still reflects an original layout composed of two sets of rooms separated by a central hallway. This plan is characteristic of the "lowland plantation," a house type associated with high status residences in the colonial and antebellum American South (Newton 1971: 12). Interior details, such as wallcoverings and carved woodwork (Foley 1979: 11-12), further testify to the high socio-economic status of the occupants of Hampton house.

It is assumed that certain artifacts indicative of high status may be found in association with living and other activity areas used by high status persons. The distribution of such items, however, is complicated by the fact that such artifacts are usually in themselves highly valued objects and subject to a high rate of retention. For this reason, the occurrence of high status artifacts in the archeological record is not as often the result of discard and abandonment as is the presence of less valuable artifacts. Rather, their appearance is nearly always a consequence of loss.

A total of 51 high status artifacts were recovered in the excavations at the main house area, in addition to the 10 obtained in the earlier excavations. These consist of 37 fragments of leadglass drinking glasses and three other wine glass fragments, one of which bears an etched design. One abalone shell button and ten purple hand-painted delft tile fragments** were also present. The presence of these artifacts, in contrast to their absence elsewhere on the site, further reflects the high status of the

*The first floor at Hampton contains 3,168 square feet. This area compares favorably with that of other South Carolina Georgian plantation houses of the eighteenth century such as Limerick, with 1,728 sq. ft. (HABS 1940: Sheet 2); Middleton Place, with 2,100 sq. ft. (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 47); and Drayton Hall, with 3,640 sq. ft.; as well as other houses such as Mt. Vernon, with 2,520 sq. ft. and Westover, with 2,603 sq. ft. in Virginia (Architects' Emergency Committee 1933: 25, 70, 60).

**The purple delft fireplace tiles are here included as high status artifacts because of their apparent association with the living areas of persons of high socio-economic status in the colonial American South and their general absence in those of others. For example, of the nearly two dozen structures excavated at Brunswick Town, North Carolina, only the ruins of the governor's house and that of another prominent person yielded these artifacts (South, personal communication). Similar tiles were also found in the main house at Drayton Hall in South Carolina (L. Lewis 1978: 181).



38CH241 HAMPTON PLANTATION 1980

STRATIFIED SYSTEMATIC UNALIGNED SUBSURFACE SAMPLE
CERAMICS

0 25 50 75 FEET

DATA VALUE EXTREMES ARE 0.0 79.00

ABSOLUTE VALUE RANGE APPLYING TO EACH LEVEL
(*MAXIMUM* INCLUDED IN HIGHEST LEVEL ONLY)

MINIMUM	BELOW	1.00	10.75	20.50	30.25	40.00
MAXIMUM	1.00	10.75	20.50	30.25	40.00	79.00

PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ABSOLUTE VALUE RANGE APPLYING TO EACH LEVEL

12.50	12.50	12.50	12.50	50.00
-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DATA POINT VALUES IN EACH LEVEL

LEVEL	1	2	3	4	5
SYMBOLS	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
	LLLLLLLLL	+++++++	00000000	00000000
FREQ.	1	2	1	1	3
	1LL&LLI	1..1..1	1+2++1	1003001	100&001
	1	1..1..1	1	1	1

FIGURE 19: SYMAP showing the occurrence of ceramics in the main house area at Hampton plantation.

main house area's occupants within the plantation settlement.

Another artifact that is likely to be linked to status within the colonial plantation context is Oriental procelain, an imported ware that gained increasingly in popularity during the eighteenth century. Its use was particularly associated with the tea ceremony, an English social custom in which people of both sexes gathered to exchange information, engage in conversation, and court while consuming the beverage (Roth 1961: 70). In addition to the small porcelains associated with the tea ceremony, larger procelain serving dishes were used in the households of wealthy high status individuals in colonial America (Stone 1970: 83). The tea ceremony and its use of procelain had become commonplace in British colonial North America in the second half of the century, making the archaeological occurrence of procelain teaware unreliable as a status marker in most colonial settlements; however, the continued restricted use of larger porcelain vessels during this period makes their presence in the archaeological record useful in distinguishing high status occupations.

In a plantation settlement, however, only a small portion of the population, its owners and managerial staff, were English and the occurrence of the tea ceremony is likely to have been restricted to the areas they occupied. The remainder of the plantation population was not ethnically British and is not believed to have participated extensively in this ceremony in slave living areas. Consequently, the use of procelain by these two groups may be expected to have been dramatically different. In addition, with the exception of Colono ware, most ceramics used on the plantation were obtained and distributed by the owner or manager. This centralized acquisition of ceramics is likely to have further systemized the kinds of ceramics used and served particularly to restrict the flow of procelain to those individuals of higher status. Plantation slaves, however, particularly household servants whose work regularly placed them in close proximity to the behavior of such high status persons, may be expected to have become acculturated to the use of procelain and have begun to acquire it in small quantities in the late eighteenth century and Antebellum periods (Otto 1977: 106).

Archeologically it is predicted that procelain will occur in deposits associated with living areas of both manager and worker on the plantation. Differences in the use patterns of this ware, however, make it very likely that a great deal of disparity will exist in the occurrence of porcelain between these two areas. For this reason the main house area complex should exhibit a markedly higher frequency of porcelain than other areas at Hampton.

In the previous investigations a comparison of the frequency of porcelain to other European ceramics by activity area was made. It revealed a much higher percentage frequency of porcelain in Area 6, which lay adjacent to the main house area. Table 4 shows these frequencies with the addition of the main house area. It should be noted that the totals in Area 6 vary slightly from the original computation because of the transfer of two sample units to the main house area.

TABLE 4

FREQUENCIES OF OCCURRENCE OF PORCELAIN BY AREA

<u>Area</u>	<u>Number of Specimens of Porcelain</u>	<u>Total European Ceramics</u>	<u>Percentage of Porcelain</u>
1	2	141	1%
2	6	332	2%
3	9	224	4%
4	22	323	7%
5	16	401	4%
6	97	792	12%
Main House Area	<u>49</u>	<u>249</u>	20%
Totals	201	2462	8%

The above figures show the predicted higher frequency of porcelain occurrence in the main house area. A percentage frequency of 20% clearly separates the main house area from the rest of the site. This frequency is the same as that obtained for the main house area at Middleton Place, a contemporary rice plantation on the Ashley River (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 48), suggesting a pattern in the occurrence of this artifact on low-country plantation sites.

The contrast in porcelain frequency between the main house area and the rest of the Hampton site mirrors the deposition pattern of high status artifacts and the presence of upper class architectural forms. Thus, the archeological evidence recovered in the recent sample excavations of the main house area supports the hypothesis regarding the status of its past occupants.

Summary

Archeological evidence from the main house area at Hampton has revealed that the settlement that once existed there exhibited characteristics clearly distinguishing it as a component of a plantation. These conclusions are based on data obtained from sample excavations designed to provide general information regarding the nature and distribution of past activities. The results of this sample provide a base from which to expand further research directed at the investigation and interpretation of this site and its contents.

The form of the main house settlement was found to correspond to that predicted in the plantation model. It consisted of the standing mansion structure and two dependencies, one identified on the basis of documentary, architectural, and archeological evidence, and the other by archeological materials alone. All three structures are or appear to have been of frame construction. Together they would have formed the central unit of the main house complex.

A comparison of archeological evidence from the three structure-based activity areas in the main house area has revealed that the two dependencies appear to exhibit a specialized domestic function associated with food storage and preparation. The northwestern dependency contains a massive central hearth and archeological evidence identifying it as a kitchen. The northeastern dependency also appears, on the basis of archeological material, to have served a similar function. Dates derived from archeological materials from each area, however, indicate that the eastern structure is older than the other dependency. This suggests that both buildings may have accommodated the same activity sequentially even though the use spans of the structures probably overlapped.

Variation in the occurrence of historic artifacts across the site indicates that the area directly to the rear of the main house was not an area of regular deposition. As predicted in the model of plantation settlement, the most intensive activity took place to the sides of the house in the vicinity of the dependencies. The virtual absence of materials between these two areas strongly implies that this area was left undisturbed as a lawn or other open area.

The high status of the occupants of the main house area is clearly discernible archeologically and architecturally. This area is the site of the standing main house structure, which reflects a style and other attributes common to upper-class plantation dwellings of the eighteenth century. When compared to the site as a whole, the distribution of individual high status artifacts and the percentage occurrence of porcelain are markedly higher, identifying this portion of the site as a high status living and activity area.

The results of the main house area sample excavations represent an extension of the discovery phase of archeological work carried out at Hampton plantation. These investigations have attempted to explore settlement function through an analysis of general intra-site patterning in the archeological record. As a consequence, they have demonstrated that Hampton, as a colonial and antebellum rice plantation shared a number of broad similarities with other settlements of this type. The importance of the discovery phase excavations is threefold: not only do they support the settlement model constructed to investigate lowcountry plantations and the ability of the archeological sampling methodology to produce behaviorally meaningful data, but they also form the groundwork upon which future intensive studies of intra-site functional variability may be based and from expanded investigation of the plantation settlement may be conducted. The delineation of such variability will, in turn, permit a better understanding of the patterned structure of plantation settlements as a class and of the sociocultural processes that affected them.

Excavation of the Pit Feature

Introduction

The southeast quadrant of a pit feature (Feature 1) was encountered and fully excavated in the initial stratified systematic unaligned 1% sample of the Hampton site in May 1979 (Fig. 14). Complete excavation of the remainder of the feature in November 1979 showed it to be an almost circular pit 11.0 feet in diameter, intruded upon in the southeast quadrant by a c.1.0 foot square posthole or small pit (Feature 13) and in the northeast and northwest quadrants by a 2.0 to 2.5 foot wide east-west ditch. A fourth feature (Feature 2) consisted of two square postholes just north of the northwest quadrant (Fig. 20).

This section will deal with the dating, form and function of Feature 1, the purpose for which it might have been dug, the uses to which it was put after it was dug, activities that could have been associated with it, and the status and ethnic affiliation of the people whose artifacts were deposited there.

Methodology

The pit was excavated in quadrants corresponding to the site grid system.* For stratigraphic purposes, a 0.5 foot wide north-south balk was left along the west side of grid line E2460, approximately bisecting the feature (Fig. 21). After its profile was recorded, this balk was removed and its artifacts bagged with those from the appropriate layers of the northwest and southwest quadrants (Fig. 22).

Within each quadrant, soil was removed in natural layers: these consisted of topsoil (plow zone) and three strata within the feature. In the southeast quadrant, excavated as part of the May 1979 stratified systematic unaligned sample, the plow zone and all three layers of the feature were screened for artifacts using a mechanical sifter with $\frac{1}{4}$ inch wire mesh, but in the November 1979 excavation of the remaining three quadrants, the shallow plow zone was discarded in order to eliminate material not directly associated with the pit fill. Topsoil was removed completely from six 5 foot squares and from parts of four others in order to expose all of Feature 1 and the immediate surrounding area (Fig. 20).

Layer 1 of the feature was screened in all four quadrants. Layers 2 and 3 of all but the southeast quadrant were troweled and the soil examined for artifacts before it was discarded; several large fragile bone

*Southwest coordinates of the four 5 foot squares encompassing the bulk of Feature 1 were; N2710, E2455; N2710, E2460; N2715, E2455; and N2715, E2460. Edges of the pit intruded slightly into six other units to the east, west and north; these sections were excavated as part of whichever quadrant they adjoined.

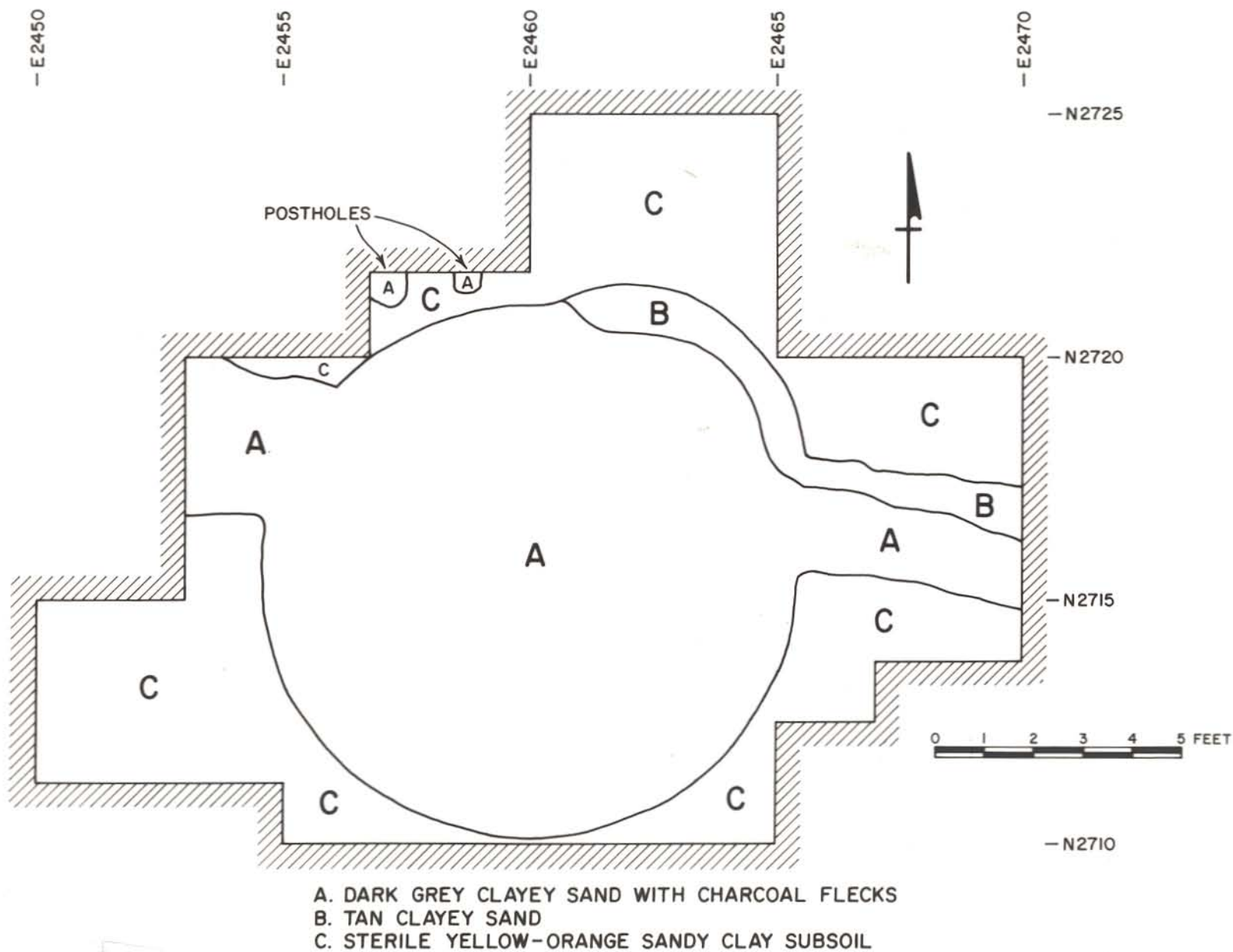


FIGURE 20: Plan of fall 1979 archeological excavations at Feature 1.



FIGURE 21: Feature 1 during excavation looking west.



FIGURE 22: Feature 1 after excavation look east.

fragments in Layer 3 were strengthened with Rhoplex, an acrylic emulsion, to prevent fragmentation during removal. Since its fill could not be immediately differentiated from that of Layers 1 and 2 in the pit, the intrusive ditch in the two northern quadrants was not removed separately, but a 4.5 foot section of the ditch east of Feature 1 was excavated by trowel, and its artifacts bagged separately, in order to determine if its artifact content differed from that of the pit. Features 2 and 13 were also excavated individually, and their soil troweled rather than screened for artifacts.

Stratigraphy

Feature 1 was cut into the yellow-orange clay subsoil and overlain by a plow zone of grey-brown sand mottled with yellow-orange clay inclusions. It measured 11.0 feet across at the subsoil surface and reached a depth of about 2.0 feet below the plow zone surface. An irregular bulge in the feature's northeastern edge extended about 1.3 feet below the plow zone surface, but elsewhere the walls tapered evenly on all sides to a circular flat bottom 5.0 feet in diameter. The plow zone over the pit ranged in depth from 0.3 to 0.5 feet; where it had not been displaced by man-made features, the subsoil lay directly beneath the plow zone (Fig. 23).

Feature 1's heaviest artifact concentrations were in the top layer, a lens of dark-grey charcoal-mottled clayey sand whose base depth ranged from 1.3 feet below ground surface near the center of the pit to as little as 0.4 feet below ground surface at the edges. In most places (Fig. 23), Layer 1 did not extend all the way to the sides of the pit, but terminated from a few inches to two feet short of the feature walls. Artifacts were mostly small and fragmentary and, despite the heavy charcoal deposits in the fill, showed little evidence of burning.

Layer 1 was underlain and circumscribed by a bowl-shaped layer of tan clayey sand that was traversed by many thin, apparently water-borne, substrata containing occasional flecks of charcoal (Fig. 23). The upper levels of Layer 2 were nearly sterile, while artifacts at the bottom of the stratum were relatively few and large, and concentrated toward the center of the pit. At its deepest point in the center of the feature, Layer 2 reached a depth of 1.6 feet below ground surface, but its outer edges rose with the contours of the pit walls to end, in most places, just beneath the plow zone.

Layer 3 consisted of a grey-tan clayey sand containing particles of orange clay and showing comparatively little evidence of water deposition (Fig. 23). Like Layer 2, Layer 3 tapered upward at the edges, measuring 0.6 feet below ground surface at its shallowest point and bottoming out onto clay subsoil at a fairly regular depth of 2.0 feet over the entire pit floor. Artifact fragments were large but sparse, with the heaviest concentrations just above the floor of the feature; some artifacts were found embedded in a 0.2-0.3 foot lens of yellow-orange sandy clay otherwise indistinguishable from the underlying subsoil. Because of the similarity of artifact content in Layers 2 and 3, and the apparent break in dumping indicated by the nearly sterile waterborne deposits

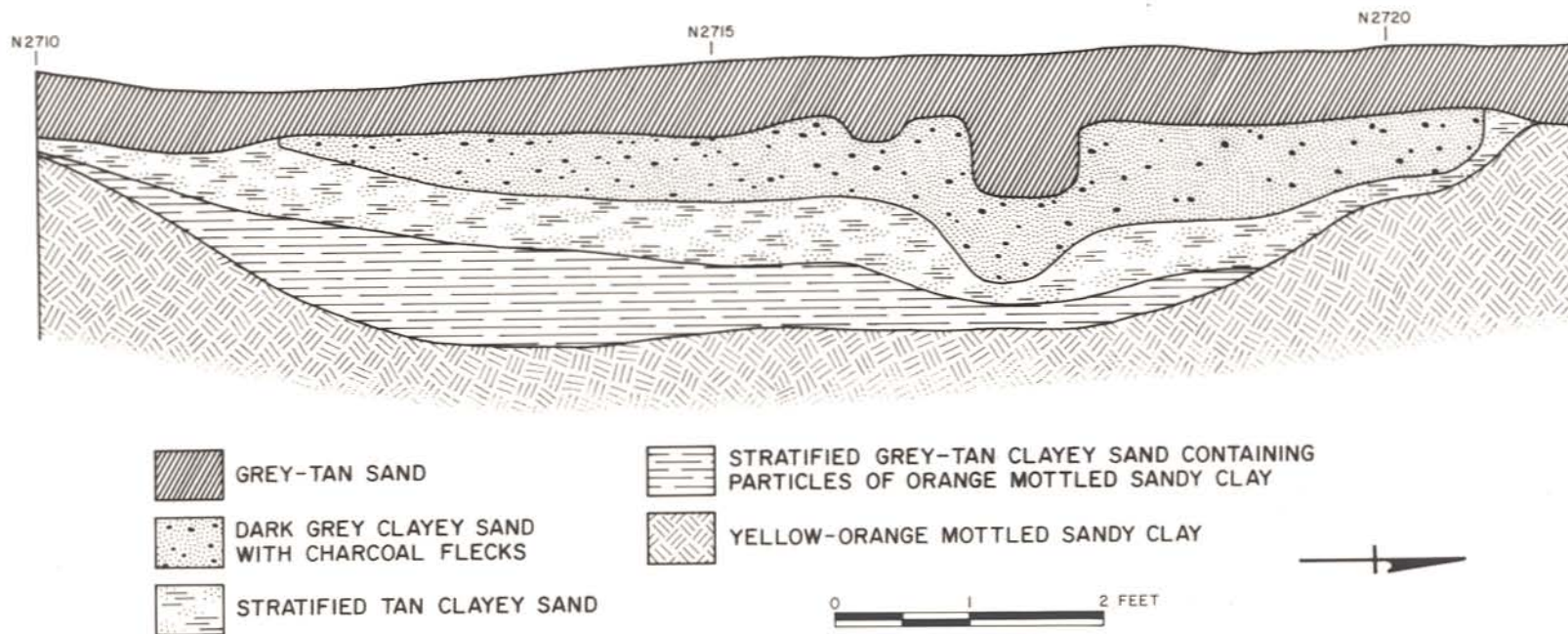


FIGURE 23: Stratigraphy of Feature 1 as revealed in a profile of the north-south balk.

in the upper part of Layer 2, Layers 2 and 3 have been assumed to represent a single depositional episode and will hereafter be discussed as a single unit.

The intrusive east-west ditch cut through Layer 1 and most of Layer 2 in the two northern quadrants, and intersected the northeastern and northwestern edges of Layer 3 (Fig. 20). A profile of the separately-excavated eastern section of this ditch (Fig. 24) showed it to be an irregularly-shaped feature 2.1 feet wide at the subsoil surface and extending 1.5 feet below ground surface at its deepest point. The ditch contained two layers, both with low artifact density: a 0.4 foot thick upper layer of dark grey clayey sand that showed some indication of water deposition, and a 0.6 foot thick underlying layer of grey-tan clayey sand containing chunks of yellow-orange mottled clay. Feature 13, which intruded into Layer 1 and part of Layer 2 in the southeast quadrant, was filled with a light grey-tan clayey sand, while the two postholes of Feature 2 contained a yellow-orange sandy clay distinguishable from the subsoil only by texture.

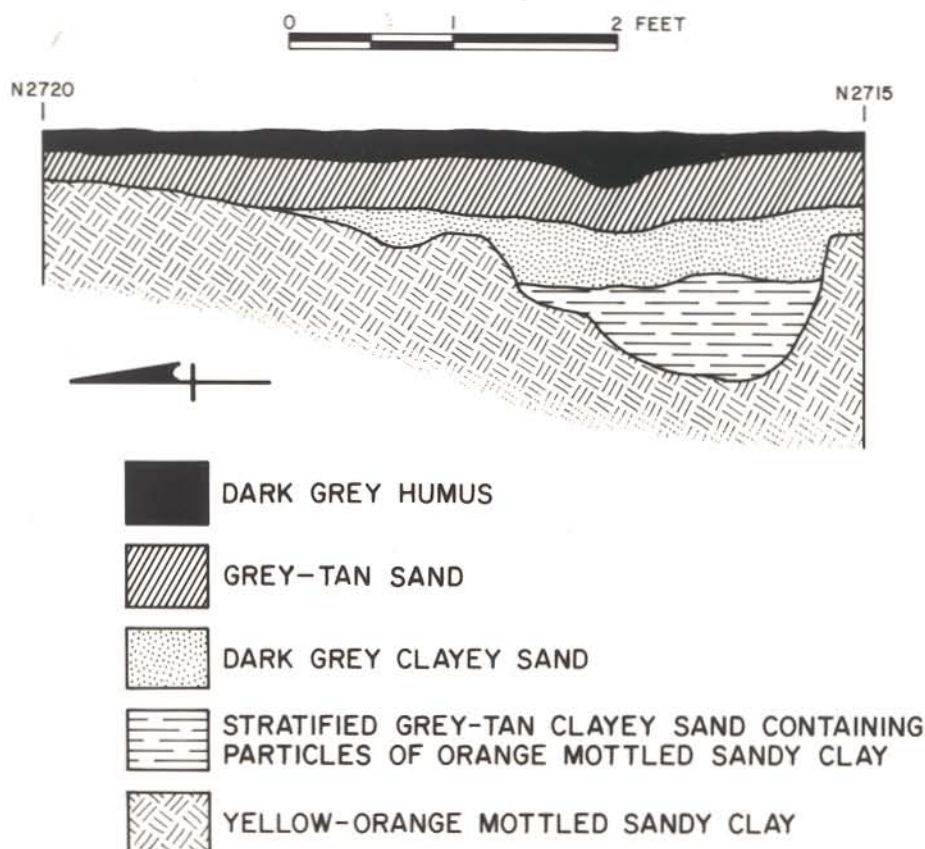


FIGURE 24: Stratigraphic cross-section of the eastern portion of the ditch associated with Feature 1 as revealed in the east profile of the excavations.

Dating the Components of Feature 1

Archeological materials from Feature 1 were examined to determine the date at which the pit might have been dug, the range of time over which deposition could have taken place, and the sequence of activities associated with the filling of the pit. The primary dating tools were European ceramics, whose frequent stylistic changes allow close dating, and whose fragility assures their continual entry into the archeological record. Less closely datable non-ceramic artifacts from Feature 1 were also examined to verify dates and time ranges indicated by the ceramics.

Eighteenth and nineteenth century ceramics can be used to calculate a mean ceramic date, or median date of use, of pottery from an archeological feature or area (South 1972: 72). Mean ceramic dates were computed for each layer of Feature 1 (Appendix A), as were termini post quem (the earliest dates at which deposition could have occurred) and termini ante quem (dates before which deposition was probably complete). Termini post quem have here been considered to correspond to the earliest known use of the latest ceramic type in each layer, while termini ante quem have been inferred from the absence of common artifacts with beginning dates later than those of artifacts found in the pit.

It should be noted that mean ceramic dates reflect the time during which artifacts were probably used, while termini post quem and ante quem indicate the period during which they could have been deposited in the spot where they were eventually found by archeologists. Use and deposition do not necessarily coincide: deposition -- or redeposition -- sometimes takes place long after the artifacts were first used and discarded. Thus Layer 1 of the pit feature has a mean ceramic date of 1755 (Appendix A), but its terminus post quem, based on the presence of several sherds of pearlware, is around 1780 (South 1974: 163, 334). Its terminus ante quem, based on the absence of any but hand-wrought nails, may be as late as 1800, the approximate date (Mercer 1923: 1) when cut nails replaced wrought.

This generally eighteenth century time range is supported by the fact that glass from Layer 1 consists almost entirely of eighteenth century green wine bottle glass. The late termini post and ante quem, however, indicate that at least some deposition took place 25 to 45 years after many of the artifacts were used, which, in turn, implies that the material in Layer 1 was the result of a gradual accumulation over a number of years rather than a single deposition of contemporary artifacts. If one assumes the 1755 mean date to be the midpoint of the occupation depositing the artifacts, and the 1780 terminus post quem to be the earliest date at which the site could have been abandoned, then a 50 year range of 1730 to 1780 can be estimated for this accumulation. Since the 1730 beginning date is within the period of the earliest known European habitation of Hampton, it is possible that some of the material in Layer 1 dates from the initial occupation of the plantation.

Layers 2 and 3 contained no pearlware, giving them a terminus ante quem of c. 1780 (South 1974: 163, 334). Their latest ceramic type is creamware, which provides a terminus post quem of about 1765 (Noël Hume 1970: 126); a single creamware pitcher handle found on the northwest

pit floor establishes the same terminus post quem for the earliest fill in the feature. As in Layer 1, identifiable nails are exclusively hand-wrought, and glass consists of green wine bottle fragments and other eighteenth century types.

The mean ceramic date for Layers 2 and 3 is 1778 (Appendix A). The close correlation between this date and the 1765-1780 range of deposition suggests that artifacts were deposited in Layers 2 and 3 during the same period as they were used, and that the actual period of deposition was a short one. The fact that the 1778 mean date is 23 years later than that of the overlying Layer 1 indicates that Layer 1's artifacts were probably originally discarded elsewhere and later redeposited in the pit on top of material from a subsequent occupation (South 1977: 198). The large amount of structural debris in Layer 1, and the length of time represented by its artifacts, suggest that the material may have come from the area of a structure that was either demolished or underwent extensive repair at some point after Layers 2 and 3 had already been filled. Layer 1's 1730-1780 time span would thus reflect the occupation period of the structure from which the artifacts were originally discarded, rather than the date of their deposition into the pit.

Based on the absence of any artifacts post-dating creamware, the deposition period of the intrusive east-west ditch appears to have been roughly contemporary with that of the pit. Artifacts from Feature 13, which intruded into the upper layers of the southeastern quadrant, are contemporary with those from Layer 1, while the two postholes of Feature 2, which produced only one unidentifiable nail between them, could not be dated.

Function

In this section we shall examine two possible functions of Feature 1: its primary function, or the reason for which it was originally dug, and its secondary function, the use to which it was put once it had fulfilled its original purpose. Possible primary functions fall into two broad categories: extraction of clay for such purposes as brick-making, pottery-making, or daubing chimneys and walls; and the deliberate creation of a hole in the ground to serve any of several specialized purposes that will be discussed below. The pit's general secondary function was as a deposition area, but we shall attempt, through examination of artifact classes and patterns, to determine what activities may have been associated with the two stratigraphic units within it.

Primary Function

Since there is no firm archeological or documentary information on the original excavation of the pit, definition of Feature 1's primary function can best be approached by comparing its attributes with those of other eighteenth century pits whose function is documented. Possible uses of Feature 1 will be presented as a series of hypotheses, each with potentially verifiable test implications.

1. The first hypothesis contends that Feature 1 was dug to extract

clay for the manufacture of Colono ware pottery, bricks, or daubing, all three of which were produced and used in rural eighteenth century South Carolina. Colono ware, found in abundance on most lowcountry plantations, is a low-fired earthenware apparently hand-modeled from local clays by both Indians and African slaves (Ferguson 1980: 15-20). No archeological evidence of Colono manufacture has yet been unearthed, but ethnographic accounts of Catawba Indian potters, who still make a variant of Colono ware, indicate that this type of pottery production was a small-scale domestic activity that would leave few traces in the archeological record (Holmes 1903: 54; Harrington 1908: 403; Fewkes 1944: 75). Drucker and Anthony (1979: 99 ff.) have reported several possible extraction pits for daub from a late eighteenth century plantation cabin site in Berkeley County, South Carolina, and a number of sources report that it was common practice for colonial builders to manufacture their own brick at or near construction sites, using whatever clay was available (Heite 1968: 43; McKee 1973: 41; Noël Hume 1962a: 165). Hollings (1975: 17) adds that brick was made on most lowcountry plantations.

Since the first test implication of manufacture of these items is presence of the finished product in the archeological record, daubing (of which no traces were found at Hampton) can be eliminated from the list of probabilities. Colono ware and brick, however, were found in quantity in Feature 1 and throughout the site, and several nearby rubble concentrations (Fig. 13) indicate that brick was employed in the construction of buildings close to Feature 1. The second test implication, the presence of associated manufacturing equipment or debris, gains possible support from the depiction on the 1809 Diamond plat (Fig. 5) of a round feature labeled "oven," conceivably a permanent brick kiln,* just west of the archeological sample area. Large unmortared brickbats in the lower levels of the pit may have been either rejects from construction (Stanley South, personal communication) or wastage from brick manufacture. One Colono ware kiln-waster was found (Appendix E), but its light buff color could not have been produced from the red clays of the Feature 1 area (Shepard 1956: 17), showing that, while Colono was almost certainly manufactured nearby, the clay that was used in the process was at least sometimes acquired from other areas.

Another, although problematical, variable is the size of extraction pits. Since scanty ethnographic comment suggests that modern Indian clay "mines" can range from potholes to long-term quarries (Harrington 1908: 402; Stern 1951: 2), size does not appear to be a testable attribute of pottery-clay extraction pits. Brick-clay pits seem usually to have been larger than Feature 1, but their size also varied depending on the number of bricks needed. One brickyard pit at Jamestown covered

*Temporary brick "clamps," used to fire bricks for a single construction job, were usually rectangular in plan (although see Wight 1972: 35), but permanent kilns could be either rectangular or round (McKee 1973: 43). The possibility that the "oven" was used as a pottery kiln cannot be excluded entirely, but there is no archeological or ethnographic evidence of kiln-firing of Colono ware (cf. Harrington 1908: 404 and Fewkes 1944: 90).

nearly 1/3 acre (Harrington 1950: 25), while a pit interpreted as the clay source for an eighteenth century renovation project in Rosewell, Virginia, measured only 34x18x5 feet (Noël Hume 1962a: 164-166). Although it is possible Feature 1 supplied clay for a construction project for which additional brick was available elsewhere, the feature's 11 foot diameter does not approach the size of either of these pits, and, according to specifications cited by Neve (1703: 49) and Gallon (Duhamel, Fourcroy et Gallon 1763: 22), the approximately 35 cubic feet of clay it could have contained ($V = \pi r h^2 - 1/3 \pi h^3$) would have made only 450 to 640 bricks, far too few (Neve 1703: 176) for even a small chimney or a foundation for a 10x10 foot structure.

Thus, although associated artifacts and the possibility of a nearby kiln suggest that both Colono ware and bricks were manufactured in the area, there is little evidence demonstrating that Feature 1 furnished the clay for these operations. A further argument against this function is the circular shape and smooth floor of the feature (Fig. 22). Although symmetry, like size, does not necessarily exclude the possibility that Feature 1 was used for clay extraction, clay extraction pits of all sorts are usually irregular in shape (Drucker and Anthony 1979: 99; Noël Hume 1962a: 165; Harrington 1908: 402), and it seems likely that this particular pit was dug to serve a technological purpose for which form was more important than content.

2. The second hypothesis proposes that Feature 1 served as an ice-house. Icehouses, however, were usually deep in order to cool food effectively. Noël Hume (1969: 144) describes a typical eighteenth century ice-house pit as between 8 and 15 feet deep, straight-sided, and brick-lined. Since Feature 1 meets none of these criteria, it was probably not dug for this purpose.

3. This hypothesis states that Feature 1 was used as a kiln or reducing pit in a manufacturing operation such as pottery or tar production. Kilns and fire-pits for different purposes varied widely in size and shape (e.g., Cross 1973: 22; Combes 1974: 4-10; Noël Hume 1969: 168; Noël Hume 1974: 58), but one result of any use involving fire is scorching or residues on the pit's lower walls. Since Feature 1 shows no sign of having been burned, it could not have been used for this purpose.

4. A fourth hypothesis proposes that Feature 1 was a lime-pit or tanning vat used in the preparation of leather. While these pits could either be square or round, they were usually much smaller than Feature 1, and they could probably also be expected to contain residues of the tannin or lime in which the hides were soaked (Diderot 1763: IX, Pl. 1-6; Pyne 1825: pl. 99; Noël Hume 1974: 58). Absence of such residual materials indicates that Feature 1 was not used for stripping or tanning leather.

5. Another hypothesis proposes that Feature 1 was excavated as a refuse pit. If so, it would have been intended to receive material on hand or immediately anticipated, and artifactual material should be dense in the lower levels of the pit (Noël Hume 1969: 141). Sparsity of artifacts in the lower levels of Feature 1 indicates that it was not originally dug to serve as a refuse pit.

6. This hypothesis states that Feature 1 was dug as a pit for preparing potter's clay. Although European potters often carefully soaked and sifted pottery clay to remove impurities (Duhamel, Fourcroy et Gallon 1763: 3-4; Noël Hume 1969: 172), there is no evidence that European pottery was produced in the Hampton area, and ethnographic records indicate that this method of clay preparation was not used by Colono potters (Stern 1951: 3; Fewkes 1944: 73; Harrington 1908: 403). It is therefore unlikely that Feature 1 served as a potter's soak pit.

7. A seventh hypothesis is that Feature 1 served as a winter storage pit for vegetables. Straw-lined circular pits, still used in some parts of the Carolinas, were a common means of preserving potatoes and turnips in the rural South until very recent times (Hilliard 1972: 275). Depth of these pits is usually one to two feet below the frost line (Wigginton 1972: 176), and while some modern storage pits are covered with a conical wooden structure that limits surface diameter to about six feet (Alma Harmon, personal communication), there is apparently no restriction, other than ease of access, on the surface size of uncovered pits. Sloan (1967: 64) illustrates a stone-lined nineteenth century New England storage pit with almost the same dimensions as Feature 1. Since the organic lining typical of Southern storage pits would probably leave few archeological traces, vegetable storage can be considered a possible function of Feature 1.

8. The final hypothesis is that Feature 1 was used in the preparation of clay for brick manufacture. The possibility that brick-making was conducted nearby has been discussed above, and a necessary part of this process was mixing the excavated clay with water to obtain a proper consistency for molding. Although this was sometimes accomplished by trampling and spading small mounds of clay on the ground surface (Duhamel, Fourcroy, et Gallon 1763: 25-27), a more common method was to shovel the raw clay into pits where workers doused it with water, and men or cattle trod it into a workable paste (Duhamel, Fourcroy, et Gallon 1763: 6-7; Bertrand 1776: 97-98; McKee 1973: 43). By the end of the eighteenth century, these labor-intensive techniques had begun to lose ground to horse-powered "pugmills," vats in which the clay was mixed by metal blades affixed to a rotating central shaft (Bertrand 1776: 98). Soak pits, however, were also thought necessary for removing mineral impurities, and small or temporary brick-making operations continued to rely on them until well into the nineteenth century (Willich 1821: I, 314).

Although Willich (1821: I, 314) recommended soaking clay in a pit for five days, most British accounts of brick manufacture make little mention of the clay preparation process. Two late eighteenth century encyclopedias published by the Paris Académie Royale des Sciences, however, contain descriptions of European soak pits. In the 1771-1783 Descriptions des Arts et Metiers, Bertrand (1776: 97-98) described a wood-lined octagonal pit, 17 inches deep and 14 3/4 feet in diameter, in which clay was to be trampled by oxen. His colleague Duhamel, in a slightly earlier encyclopedia of the same name (Duhamel, Fourcroy, et Gallon 1763: 6-7), advised using a brick-lined 8x5x4 foot rectangular pit. Despite the discrepancy in size and shape, the two pits were apparently intended to process similar amounts clay, since Duhamel suggested working only a nine or ten inch layer -- about 30 cubic feet -- at one time in the larger pit.

Bertrand also emphasized the importance of roofing the pit to protect both workers and clay from the sun. While Willich's 1821 account gave no indication of the form a British pit should take, it might be noted that the extended soaking period he suggested also implies the presence of some sort of shelter from the elements.

From this scanty information one can tentatively extrapolate the following general attributes of soak pits: 1) symmetrical shape to allow easy ingress and egress of workers and materials; 2) ability to hold an extended shallow layer of clay, in the two French examples apparently comprising about 30 to 35 cubic feet in volume; 3) brick or wood-lined walls and floor; and 4) a roof or covering. While this evidence cannot with any certainty identify it as a soak pit, Feature 1 does meet most of these qualifications. Its circular shape, given the apparent variation in soak pit form, seems appropriate for that function, and the 1.5 foot depth and 35 cubic foot volume of clay that could have been worked in it are similar to those described by Bertrand and Duhamel. Although Feature 1 shows no sign of having been lined, such precautions may not have been necessary in an area with a shallow compact clay subsoil, and a thin layer of deposited clay found in the bottom of the pit could have resulted from preparing clay without benefit of a lining. The area surrounding Feature 1 has not yet been extensively excavated, but two postholes just north of the feature (Fig. 20) may mark the location of a partial framework for a roof.

Thus, use as a soak pit for brick-clay is another possible function of Feature 1. While the feature's shallowness and circular shape are also typical of winter storage pits, artifactual and documentary evidence suggest that the pit may have been associated with brick manufacture. If it was part of either a temporary or a permanent brickyard, Feature 1's symmetrical form and small size indicate that it is more likely to have served in a technological capacity such as clay preparation than as an extraction pit for raw clay.

Secondary Function

Once the pit had ceased to serve its original function, it could have been deliberately refilled by dumping, left to fill naturally by the effects of erosion, or both. The number and size of artifacts show that some refuse was intentionally thrown into Feature 1, but the water-deposited substrata and comparatively low artifact densities of Layers 2 and 3 indicate that no concerted effort was made to refill the pit for some time after it was first abandoned. Since, unless they were deliberately attempting to fill an unwanted hole (cf. Noël Hume 1962a: 161), colonial Americans usually deposited their trash as close as possible to the area in which it originated (South 1977: 47), the artifacts from Feature 1 can be expected to reflect the activities in process nearby at the time it was filled.

In the May 1979 test excavations at Hampton, the sample area was divided into six "structure-based" activity areas (Lewis 1979: 57) on the basis of architectural remains such as nails and brick rubble. These areas were classified by comparing the relative percentages of artifacts falling into each of three categories of plantation activity. The first category consists of subsistence-activity artifacts, or artifacts assoc-

iated with food procurement and domestic activity. The second category, technological artifacts, includes any remains from specialized activities like manufacturing, storage, or agriculture, and the third category, subsistence-technological artifacts, is made up of personal and architectural items (such as buttons, tobacco pipes, and nails) that can be found in either a domestic or a specialized activity setting.

These three categories can also be used to infer the types of activity associated with Feature 1. Table 5 lists the artifact classes included under each activity category. Table 6 illustrates the numbers and percentages of Feature 1's artifacts that fall into each category and shows that both Layer 1 and the combined Layers 2 and 3 contain primarily domestic refuse.

TABLE 5

SUBSISTENCE ACTIVITY CATEGORIES AND
ASSOCIATED ARTIFACT CLASSES

Activity Category	Artifact Class
Subsistence	Food storage containers Food processing tools Cooking and eating utensils Floral and faunal remains Fishing and hunting equipment
Subsistence- Technological	Architectural artifacts Personal artifacts
Technological	Tools Processing equipment Storage container

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF SUBSISTENCE, SUBSISTENCE-TECHNOLOGICAL,
AND TECHNOLOGICAL ARTIFACT CATEGORIES FROM
FEATURE 1 (BY COUNT AND PERCENTAGE)

	Subsistence	Subsistence- technological	Technological	Total
Layer 1	650 (52.7%)	568 (46.1%)	15 (1.2%)	1233 (100%)
Layer 2-3	668 (85.3%)	101 (12.9%)	14 (1.8%)	783 (100%)
Feature 1				
Total	1318 (65.4%)	669 (33.2%)	29 (1.4%)	2016 (100%)

It will be noted that both Layer 1 and Layer 2-3 have very low percentages of technological artifacts. This is probably because waste from rural eighteenth century commercial and industrial activities -- aside from a specific few manufacturing operations like pottery-making or smithing -- was largely organic and has not survived in the archeological record, while tools, merchandise, and equipment were carefully preserved and recycled as long as they were usable. One can thus expect only a few small, easily lost, or broken artifacts to remain in an area where technological activities were carried; but, conversely, the presence of a very few associated artifacts may be enough to identify an area as the scene of technological operations (Lewis 1979: 54). Although Feature 1's technological component is below 2% in both layers, it is higher than technological percentages from the main house area or from any of the May 1979 activity areas (Lewis 1979: 58). This suggests that the pit was located in or near an area with a considerable amount of specialized non-domestic activity. Technological artifacts from Feature 1 consist primarily of barrel hoop fragments, melted lead, and farm equipment parts, identifying such activities as storage, processing and agriculture.

Because of the bias inherent in the tiny samples of technological artifacts, the May 1979 structure-based activity areas were ranked for domestic activity by comparing only their subsistence and subsistence-technological artifact percentages. A high subsistence:subsistence-technological ratio indicates that an area's main function was domestic, while a lower subsistence component indicates that other activities which did not leave archeological evidence probably took place there as well. These ratios may vary, however, within different parts of an activity area, because artifacts from localized or specialized sub-activities can accumulate in different ways. A major factor influencing the nature of material accumulation is the extent to which it results from intentional relocation of artifacts for disposal ("secondary refuse") rather than discard or loss at the site of an activity ("primary refuse") (Schiffer 1976: 31-32). A specialized refuse area, which by definition implies the deliberate removal of artifacts from one place to another, should contain very little primary refuse. Since subsistence-technological artifacts are usually discarded in the form of primary refuse, a domestic trash pit such as Feature 1 can be expected to have a relatively

lower incidence of these artifacts -- and a higher incidence of subsistence artifacts -- than would an area immediately around or beneath the structure in which they were used.

Such deliberate dumping behavior is reflected in the low subsistence-technological component of Layer 2-3, which seems to have been primarily a repository for secondary domestic refuse made up of bones and large glass and ceramic fragments. Layer 1, however, has a subsistence:sub-sistence-technological artifact ratio of 53:46, showing that it contains, in addition to secondary domestic refuse, a number of artifacts that would ordinarily have been discarded only in the area where they were used or broken. This co-occurrence of a large number of subsistence-technological artifacts and a large number of subsistence artifacts indicates that the material in Layer 1 was originally discarded in the vicinity of a domestic structure and later redeposited as secondary refuse into the pit. Such a possibility is supported by the fragmented condition of the glass and ceramic artifacts, which resemble artifacts found in areas once subject to a great deal of traffic, and by the layer's early mean ceramic date (Appendix A), which suggests that its material had been accumulating elsewhere for some time before the pit was filled.

If Feature 1's refuse is from a domestic house site, it should conform, depending on which part of the site it came from, to either the Frontier Artifact Pattern (South 1977: 145) or the Carolina Artifact Pattern (South 1977: 119). An artifact assemblage from inside a demolished domestic structure will, according to South (1978: 43), fall into the Frontier Artifact, or Architectural, Pattern, with 29.7-74.3% architectural artifacts and 10.2-45.0% kitchen or domestic artifacts, while material from outside the same structure should exhibit the 12.9-35.1% architectural component and the 47.5-78.0% kitchen artifact component typical of the Carolina Artifact Pattern (South 1977: 119, 145). In more general terms, this means simply that the ruin of a demolished house will contain the non-perishable architectural elements used to build it, and the yard will contain the domestic refuse accumulated during its occupation.

Table 7 shows the domestic and architectural artifact percentages of Feature 1 in comparison with these two models. The very high kitchen artifact percentage and the very low architectural artifact percentage of Layer 2-3 fall outside predicted ranges for either pattern, reinforcing that its artifact assemblage was formed by the deliberate disposal of secondary refuse. Layer 1, however, has a 53% kitchen artifact component, which conforms to the Carolina Artifact Pattern, and a 38% architectural component, which falls within the range of the Frontier Artifact Pattern. These figures suggest that Layer 1 is a mixed deposit containing material from immediately outside a domestic structure as well as the actual structural remains of a demolished building. The large number of nails (Appendix B) and the large amounts of charcoal and ash in the fill indicate that the structure was a wooden building that was destroyed by fire.

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF DOMESTIC AND ARCHITECTURAL ARTIFACT PERCENTAGES FROM
FEATURE 1 WITH THE KITCHEN AND ARCHITECTURE ARTIFACT GROUPS OF SOUTH'S
(1977) CAROLINA ARTIFACT PATTERN AND FRONTIER ARTIFACT PATTERN

	Layer 1	Layer 2-3	Carolina Pattern (predicted range)	Frontier Pattern (predicted range)
Kitchen artifacts	52.7%	85.3%	47.5-78.0%	10.2-45.0%
Architectural artifacts	37.7%	9.2%	12.9-35.1%	29.7-74.3%

The high subsistence artifact category in Layers 2 and 3 is made up primarily of bone (Appendix D), the only specialized non-architectural artifact occurring in significantly large quantities in any part of the pit. Bone constitutes 51% of total artifacts from Layers 2 and 3, and includes a disproportionate number of turtle plastrons and bovine head and jaw fragments, raising the possibility that the pit may have served as a refuse area for a nearby slaughtering or butchering site. Eighteenth century eating habits make this unlikely, however, since cows' and calves' heads were eaten by rich and poor alike (Booth 1971: 74; Noël Hume 1978: 14), and turtles, when not cooked in the shell (Booth 1971: 121-122), were often stewed with the plastron or carapace in the pot (Booth 1971: 121-122; Bullock 1979: 85). Mammal long bones and a fish vertebra confirm that the faunal refuse in Layers 2 and 3 is more likely to have resulted from cooking or consumption than from any preliminary butchering that might have been done outside the house.

South (1977: 179) has suggested using the bone frequency in a refuse deposit as an "odorimetric scale" to distinguish between "adjacent secondary middens" composed of trash deposited in the immediate area of a domestic structure, and "peripheral secondary middens" containing smelly organic refuse that was probably discarded some distance from the house (South 1977: 47). His examination of ratios of bones to other artifacts at 15 sites produced a "bone ratio" (total number of bones divided by total other artifacts) of between 0.56 and 2.04 for peripheral middens, and from 0.002 to 0.17 for adjacent middens. Layers 2 and 3 of Feature 1 fall within the peripheral midden range with a bone ratio of 1.04, while Layer 1, whose 9% bone is roughly comparable to the 7% found in the sample of the main house area, is well within the adjacent midden category with a ratio of only 0.10. Although some 18 bone fragments from an individual cow may have been deposited separately, the low bone ratio lends further support to our conclusion that Layer 1 is composed primarily of material that accumulated in and around a living area.

According to both the 1809 Diamond plat (Fig. 5) and the SYMAP of

architectural remains recovered in the May 1979 stratified systematic unaligned sample (Fig. 13), Feature 1 was located in the midst of a scattered group of buildings. A comparison of artifact categories (Lewis 1979: 58) showed that the two nearest structurally-related activity areas, to the southwest and northeast, had substantial domestic components,* while a third, to the northwest, had a slightly lower subsistence artifact percentage (63%) and therefore probably a higher occurrence of non-domestic activities as well. These structures all had occupation ranges spanning Feature 1's late eighteenth century deposition period and extending into the nineteenth century. No evidence was found of an abandoned living area with the early occupation dates indicated by Layer 1, but since a general clean-up such as we have hypothesized would probably be for the purpose of reoccupying the site, this earlier structure may well have been located in one of the three activity areas isolated by the May 1979 sample. Although none of these areas is so distant as to preclude the use of Feature 1 as a peripheral secondary midden, artifact density in all three layers of the feature was heaviest in the northeastern quadrant, and it seems likely that both the architectural debris of Layer 1 and the kitchen refuse of Layer 2-3 were discarded from the more conveniently located northeastern occupation area, which was within easy walking distance but still far enough away that any odors produced from Layers 2 and 3 need not have been discomfiting.

Ethnic Affiliation and Status

Like that of other lowcountry plantations, Hampton's population in the late eighteenth century consisted of around a hundred African slaves overseen by a handful of British plantation owners and hired managers (MCPSC/SJSP/CD/1790; Wood 1974: 159). Although landowners and their families obviously occupied the summit of the plantation system's socioeconomic pyramid, little is known about the relative economic status of slaves and lower-class hired whites. Limited archeological evidence (Otto 1977: 91-116; Fairbanks 1974: 62-93) suggests that slaves may often have lived more comfortably than written accounts imply, and it is possible that, despite cultural differences which should be evident in the archeological record, the living standards of white overseers were not much above those of their African charges. In the absence of in situ

*These are Activity Areas 4 and 5, with subsistence artifact frequencies of 69% and 73% respectively. Although nail frequencies and brick rubble weights indicated that the structure in Area 4 was located about 75 feet northeast of Feature 1, refuse from the structure was scattered throughout the Feature 1 area, and the original calculations for Area 4 included artifacts from the pit's southeast quadrant. A recalculation excluding all material recovered from the N2710, E2460 sample square raised the domestic component in Area 4 to 73%. All these percentages fall within the range established at Camden (Lewis 1976: 122) for residences which also served a business function.

architectural remains, such ethnic and socio-economic distinctions are best discerned from ceramics, whose form, relative value, and locus of manufacture provide clues not only to the users' status, financial capabilities, and commercial ties, but also to ethnic idiosyncracies in their daily domestic routines. The geographical origin and formal attributes of the ceramics from Feature 1 can thus be expected to reflect either the British or African cultural affiliation of the household that discarded them, while individual ware types within the assemblage should indicate that household's economic standing in the plantation community.

Ceramics on colonial lowcountry plantations were acquired from two main sources. Slaves hand-manufactured a soft earthenware similar to many Historic period Indian wares (Ferguson 1980: 14-20), while the British planters sent to England for a variety of highly-fired and glazed ceramics that included English serving and utility wares, Oriental porcelain, and German Westerwald stoneware (Noël Hume 1970: 141, 257). These two ceramic classes were used in varying amounts by all plantation residents. The homemade Colono ware, which usually constitutes 25% or more of all ceramics from a plantation site,* was chiefly the ware of the slave population, but it has also been found in large quantities around upper income British homes in both Charleston and outlying plantation areas (L. Lewis 1978: 60; Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 49; Elaine Herold, personal communication). Although personal use by black domestic servants no doubt accounts for much of this accumulation, the association of large amounts of Colono ware from British domestic areas with proveniences having early mean ceramic dates (Scurry and Haskell 1979: 116) suggests that whites may have also used it, probably as a coarse utility ware, in the isolated frontier conditions of early eighteenth century South Carolina (Ferguson 1980: 22). Studies at the Kingsmill site near Williamsburg (Outlaw, Bogley, and Outlaw 1979) indicate that Colono was an important utility ware in poor white households in the similar economic climate of seventeenth century Virginia.

The wide distribution of colonial European ceramics on plantation sites (Lewis 1979: 41) shows that slaves had some access to Old World ceramics as well as Colono ware, but most of these wares were probably confined to white households. Within the white population, ceramic distribution was further differentiated by the user's economic standing, which determined both the number of vessels he owned and his access to the more expensive wares such as Oriental porcelain. Porcelain was first imported in the eighteenth century for the originally upper class British ritual of afternoon tea (Roth 1961: 65-66), and, despite the spread of both tea-drinking and porcelain use to all classes of Englishmen in the latter part of the century, it remained very much a status-linked item

*Examples are Green Grove plantation with 27% Colono (Carrillo 1980: 71), Middleton Place with 55% (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 32), and Limerick plantation with 39% (Lees and Kimery-Lees 1980).

of which only the well-to-do could afford* large amounts (Stone 1970: 80-82). Stone (1970: 83-84) has further noted, from Boston area inventories filed in the 1770s, that middle class use of porcelain seems in New England to have been confined to urban centers (with its occurrence in rural inventories limited to a handful of "gentlemen" and "esquires"), and that urban porcelain usage in the late eighteenth century was stratified by function as well as quantity, with upper class families owning a preponderance of dinner plates and other serving dishes while poorer households usually contained only teaware.

The applicability of porcelain quantity as an indicator of wealth has been confirmed on South Carolina plantations by the recovery of copious amounts of the ware from around plantation owners' houses (Lewis and Hardesty 1979: 32; Carrillo 1980: 54). If Stone's findings on class differences in porcelain use also hold true for South Carolina, then these assemblages, if examined, should prove to consist primarily of heavy serving ware, while refuse from middle and lower income British households can be expected to contain either no porcelain at all or small amounts made up mainly of teaware. A middle class household dump should, of course, also have fewer European ceramics overall than that of an upper income household, but either might contain a fairly high percentage of Colono utility ware in the decades before the "creamware revolution" of the 1760s and 1770s made inexpensive mass-produced British earthenwares widely available (Noël Hume 1970: 125). Colono ware began to fall into complete disuse in the early nineteenth century (Scurry and Haskell 1979: 121), but on slave sites dating before that period, it can be expected to comprise the bulk of the ceramic assemblage, along with a small number of European ceramics probably either distributed by or acquired personally from plantation whites.

An examination of Feature 1's ceramics in light of these models of ceramic use reveals elements of both high and low status occupation. Four hundred thirty sherds of Colono ware were recovered, comprising 74% of the total ceramic assemblage. This is the highest Colono percentage found anywhere on the Hampton grounds, and far above the 30% average from the May and November 1% samples. Colono frequencies are much the same in both layers of the pit (75% of all ceramics from Layer 1, and 71% in Layer 2-3), but while vessel forms from Layer 1 consist mainly of jars and mid-sized bowls, Layer 2-3 also contained fragments of a small Colono teapot and finely-made bowls that resemble porcelain teaware in both form and delicacy of construction (Appendix E).

The remaining 26% of the feature's ceramics consist of glazed ceramics commonly used by eighteenth century Englishmen; 84% (127 sherds) of these Old World ceramics are British in origin, while 3% (4 sherds) are German Westerwald stoneware, and 13% (19 sherds) are Oriental porcelain.

*Late eighteenth century inventories show that, while a dozen creamware or salt-glazed plates could be had for four shillings, blue-and-white porcelain plates were valued at a shilling apiece, and enameled or gilt-edged porcelain plates at two to three shillings apiece (Stone 1970: 80).

These percentages fall within the ranges (up to 6% Westerwald stoneware, and between 10 and 28% Oriental porcelain) typical of British and re-exported foreign ceramics on British Colonial sites (Lewis 1976: 79); and they show that the household associated with Feature 1 had access, if in somewhat limited quantities, to the full range of British colonial ceramics. The 13% porcelain in the European ceramic assemblage (which breaks down to 10% in Layer 1 and 20% in Layer 2-3) is, moreover, similar to the 12-20% porcelain frequencies of Area 6 and the main house area (Table 8), and could, were it not for the extremely large quantities of Colono ware, be considered sufficient to indicate a British and possibly upper income occupation area. The fact that 79% of this porcelain consists of non-teaware forms (Table 9), and the presence of gold-decorated or enameled porcelain in both layers (Appendix B), also suggest a high status occupancy.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF PORCELAIN FREQUENCIES FROM THE
MAIN HOUSE AREA, AREA 6, AND FEATURE 1

	Porcelain	Other European ceramics	Colono ware	Total	Porcelain as % of European ceramics	Porcelain as % of total ceramics
Feature 1:						
Layer 1	12	103	345	460	10%	2.6%
Layer 2-3	7	28	85	120	20%	5.8%
Total	19	131	430	580	13%	3.3%
Main house area	49	200	72	321	20%	15%
Area 6	97	695	440	1232	12%	8%

Three hypotheses can be advanced for the co-occurrence of such apparently contradictory quantities of Colono ware and high status ceramics. One is that Feature 1 contains debris from an upper class British occupation established during Hampton's initial settlement, when whites may have had to rely on Colono utility ware while still using porcelain tableware. But, although this might account for the 10% porcelain in Layer 1, which may contain material deposited as early as 1730, it does not explain the far higher porcelain frequency of Layer 2-3, whose 1778 mean ceramic date falls within a period when Colono usage among all but the poorest whites had probably declined.

The argument of the second hypothesis, that the material in Feature 1 was discarded from the kitchen of a middle or lower income British plantation employee, is weakened by the predominance of porcelain heavyware over teaware in the pit, and by the occurrence of expensive porcelain types. Although the theory that porcelain dinnerware signifies an upper class rather than middle class British occupation has yet to be tested in

South Carolina, 82% of all porcelain found in the main house area at Hampton consists of plates or dishes rather than teaware, and the frequency of non-teaware porcelain vessel forms recovered from Feature 1 closely parallels this figure (Table 9). The relative infrequency of mid-priced European ceramics in comparison to Colono ware also suggests that material in the pit was not from a middle class British household. The one item that might suggest an impoverished Englishman struggling to retain his ethnic identity is the Colono ware teapot, but the recovery of similar Colono teapot forms from a documented slave quarters on Yaughan plantation in Berkeley County, South Carolina (Linda Morgan, personal communication), indicates that European teaware forms were also sometimes reproduced by slaves for their own use.

TABLE 9

COMPARISON OF PORCELAIN VESSEL FORMS FROM THE MAIN HOUSE
AREA AND FEATURE 1 (BY COUNT AND PERCENTAGE)

	Teaware	Heavyware	Decorative forms	Total
Main house area	9 (18%)	40 (82%)		49 (100%)
Feature 1:				
Layer 1	2 (17%)	10 (83%)		12 (100%)
Layer 2-3	2 (29%)	4 (57%)	1 (14%)	7 (100%)
Total	4 (21%)	14 (74%)	1 (5%)	19 (100%)

This lends support to our third hypothesis, which proposes that Feature 1 represents a mid-to-late eighteenth century slave occupation, but that slaves were able to acquire a greater variety of European ceramics than has previously been supposed. Even though porcelain makes up 13% of the feature's European ceramic assemblage, European ceramics are far outnumbered by Colono ware, and porcelain constitutes only 3.3% of the total ceramics if Colono ware is included in the count. This is in contrast to Area 6 and the main house area, which retain comparatively high porcelain frequencies of 8% and 15% when Colono is added into the calculations (Table 8). Porcelain occurrence in Feature 1 is, however, nearly identical -- both as percent of European ceramics and percent of total ceramics -- to porcelain frequencies from a presumed slave occupation at Green Grove plantation in Charleston County (Carrillo 1980: 57). Preliminary analysis of ceramics from the Yaughan plantation slave quarters also suggests a high porcelain occurrence as well as slave manufacture of Colono teaware (Linda Morgan, personal communication). In light of these similarities to other slave sites, it seems likely that the high status items in Feature 1 were deposited not by whites but by slaves, perhaps by black domestic servants who had access -- whether through personal gifts, pilferage, or retrieval of discards -- to the high status wares used in the main house.

Colono ware vessel forms also support the hypothesis of a slave rather than a British occupation. Since domestic refuse areas can be

expected (Otto 1977: 98) to contain more serving than utility wares (storage, food preparation, or cooking vessels), the 74% Colono ware from Feature 1 seems far too large an amount to have served in the utilitarian capacity that we have posited for Colono ware in British households. A calculation of vessel type frequency from rims and appendages reveals that, although the pit contained no Colono ware plates or drinking vessels, Colono bowls outnumber definite utility ware forms (globular pots and heavy vessels that probably served as storage ware) by roughly three to one (Appendix E). While many of these bowls may have also functioned as food preparation vessels, their exclusion from the utility ware count reduces the pit's non-serving-ware component (which includes the one possible European processing form, a milk pan rim) to the more likely figure of about 20%, and indicates that bowls were primarily used as food serving vessels. Since slaves usually ate from bowls (Otto 1977: 98; Booth 1971: 33) while whites more often used plates (Otto 1977: 98), such a large number of Colono bowls is more likely to have originated from an African than a European household. This conclusion is supported by the finding that 66% of the European ceramics from Feature 1 consisted of cup, mug, and small pitcher fragments (Table 10), indicating that European ceramics were primarily used, not in the diversified serving ware capacity typical of British households, but to serve a specialized ancillary function for which Colono ware, perhaps because of its permeability (Shepard 1956: 126), was not considered suited.

TABLE 10

VESSEL FORMS OF NON-PORCELAIN EUROPEAN SERVING WARE
FROM FEATURE 1 (BY COUNT AND PERCENTAGE)

	Plates	Bowls	Mugs	Pitchers	Other or Unidentified	Total
Layer 1	15 (15%)	17 (16%)	68 (66%)	---	3 (3%)	103
Layer 2-3	7 (25%)	3 (11%)	4 (14%)	14 (50%)	---	28
Total	22 (17%)	20 (15%)	72 (55%)	14 (11%)	3 (2%)	131

Dietary specialization that might accompany such differentiation of vessel form is not discernible from the faunal remains found in Feature 1. Otto (1977: 98) used the occurrence of sawn rather than cleaved bone on early nineteenth century sites to distinguish between high status butchering of meat for roasting and low status preparation of stew meat, but since butchering saws were not introduced until the end of the eighteenth century (Deetz 1977: 124), no such distinctions can be made on the bone from Feature 1. Inferences of status from the types of animal protein consumed in the discarding household are also precluded by the apparent availability of the species found in the pit to all segments of the colonial population.

Cow, pig, deer, catfish, and terrapin remains were recovered from

both layers of Feature 1, with cow and turtle the most common types (Appendix D). The apparent prevalence of beef over pork would in most parts of the South suggest a European rather than a slave diet, but lowcountry South Carolina was one of the few areas where beef was included in slaves' regular rations (Hilliard 1972: 130). Similarly, although strictures on the use of firearms by slaves (Wood 1978: 127) might imply that deer were available only to whites, these regulations were not always enforced (Fairbanks 1974: 87; Hilliard 1972: 76), and both slaves and masters apparently supplemented their regular fare with venison and other game meat (Hilliard 1972: 74-77; Noël Hume 1978: 20). Catfish were eaten by all classes of southern society (Hilliard 1972: 85), and turtle, although considered a delicacy by upper class whites (Noël Hume 1978: 35; Hilliard 1972: 54), seems to have also served as a readily available source of protein for slaves and poor whites (Fairbanks 1974: 87; Miller 1979: 160).

It has been postulated (Miller 1979: 160) that white plantation owners often kept the choicer sections of slaughtered animals for themselves, and apportioned out the poorer cuts among their slaves. While this may be an indication that the large number of cranial and forelimb fragments in Feature 1 (Appendix D) were deposited from a slave household, heads and feet were not necessarily considered low status foodstuffs in the eighteenth century (Noël Hume 1978: 14-16; Booth 1971: 74), and such inequitable food distribution policies could not in any case be routinely followed on large plantations where slaves greatly outnumbered whites (Hilliard 1972: 57-58). The single status indicator in Feature 1's faunal remains seems to be the bones of an aged cow, which presumably would not have been destined for the table of an upper class white with the selection of the herd (Noël Hume 1978: 19). But, although planters sometimes butchered old or infirm stock for their slaves (Noël Hume 1978: 19), such animals were probably also eaten by low income whites, and the presence in the pit of bones from immature and prime animals shows that, in either case, tenderer meat was also available.

Thus, although much of it is equivocal, faunal evidence from Feature 1 gives some indication that material in the pit was deposited from a low status household. That this household was not British is suggested by the relative infrequency of middle class tablewares and the apparent specialized use of European ceramics. The predominance of slave-manufactured Colono ware, and the similarity of the artifact assemblage to those of slave sites elsewhere, indicate that Feature 1's material probably came from a slave occupation, while the presence of a limited number of high status artifacts suggests that some household members may have worked in the main plantation house where they had access to such wares.

Summary

Feature 1 contained three strata representing two depositional units, one of which appears to have been deposited between 1765 and 1780, and the other sometime after 1780. The 1778 mean ceramic date

of the two lower layers coincides with their date of deposition, but the 1755 mean date of the upper layer suggests that its material was accumulated elsewhere over a 50 year period before being deposited into the pit. The original function of Feature 1 is not certain, but its circular shape indicates it was not dug solely for clay extraction, and the absence of charring or residues in the bottom levels precludes its having been used in several other manufacturing operations. One possible use, since both domestic and agricultural activities took place nearby, may have been as a vegetable storage pit; another, since there are indications of possible brick-making or construction using brick in the area, may have been as a pit for processing clay to manufacture bricks.

Although a slightly higher frequency of technological artifacts than was found in the November 1979 stratified unaligned sample indicates that agricultural, processing, and storage activities were all conducted nearby, the feature's secondary function appears to have been mainly as a refuse pit associated with a domestic structure. Artifacts from the bottom two layers consist almost entirely of secondary kitchen refuse, but large amounts of structural debris and other primary refuse suggest that the redeposited material in the top layer may have come from the area of a dismantled structure with an occupation period spanning that of the lower levels of the pit. Bone frequency in this layer is typical of that found in the immediate area of a domestic structure, but the large quantities of bone recovered from Layers 2 and 3 suggest a peripheral secondary midden some distance from the structure with which it was associated. The stratified unaligned archeological sample of the Hampton grounds had earlier indicated that a domestic structure that may have been the source of this refuse was situated some 50 to 100 feet northeast of Feature 1.

The large amounts of locally made Colono ware recovered from Feature 1 suggest that it was associated with a slave rather than a British household. Although this would appear to be contradicted by the presence of Colono teaware forms and relatively high frequencies of Oriental porcelain, similar artifacts have been found at other eighteenth century slave occupation sites. Vessel forms of the European ceramics present in the pit also support the probability that the material was deposited from a slave household, and it is suggested that the high status artifacts were acquired by domestic servants working in the main plantation house.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The recent archeological investigations at Hampton plantation were intended to expand the results of the initial excavations there by extending the sample area to include the main house complex and by intensively exploring a pit feature partially excavated in the previous sampling of the site. Investigations in the main house area were conducted in order to obtain comparative archeological materials from this integral component of the plantation settlement. Data from this area would not only provide information useful in discerning behaviorally meaningful intra-site variation in the archeological record of the site as a whole but also in revealing the form and content of the main house complex itself. The intensive excavations at the pit feature, on the other hand, were aimed at investigating the nature of a feature whose sealed archeological deposits might provide useful information relating to both general and particular aspects of the past plantation settlement.

Sample excavations at the main house area have confirmed the eighteenth to twentieth century occupation span of the site and have revealed the settlement's form and the layout of its structures and activities. The high status of the main house inhabitants is also reflected in a comparison of the material record from their living area and other structure-based activity areas defined at Hampton plantation.

Archeological evidence also supports the temporal variation in the intensiveness of the plantation's occupation inferred from documentary data. The greatest amount of activity appears to have taken place at Hampton during the Colonial and Antebellum periods, followed by a decline in the second half of the nineteenth century. The occupation sequence of the main house area seems to indicate an initial settlement consisting of the main house and two symmetrically-placed dependencies, followed by the early abandonment of the eastern dependency to produce the two-structure complex that has characterized the site since at least the early nineteenth century. Archeological information from the presumed site of the abandoned dependency indicating an occupation in the 1740s, combined with data obtained from recent excavations at the foundations of the main house (Carrillo, personal communication), further support the traditional mid-eighteenth century construction date of Hampton.

The analysis of the archeological remains gathered in the sample excavations at Hampton plantation is based on the assumption that the data produced through the use of this methodology are an accurate representation of the total material record deposited at the site. Utilization of the same methodology on other historic sites may be expected to result in comparable evidence. If the sites explored are those of functionally similar settlements, then it is likely that similar patterns will be revealed in the archeological record.

Middleton Place on the Ashley River was a contemporary tidewater rice plantation, a substantial portion of which was archeologically sampled in 1978 (see Lewis and Hardesty 1979) in order to answer many

of the same questions posed in the investigations at Hampton. In both cases an attempt was made to discover intra-site functional patterning within the main house area as well as across the site as a whole. Although the sample at Middleton Place included a smaller portion of the main house area than the sample at Hampton, both yielded similar patterning in the distribution of faunal remains and European processing and Colono ceramics vs. serving wares. Likewise, high status ceramics were in both cases found to occur in highest relative quantities in the main house area in sharp contrast to the rest of the site.

The similarities observed at these two sites reflect not only the common function of both settlements and a consequent patterning of activities within them, but also the validity of our assumption regarding the adequacy of the methodology. The archeological methodology has involved the use of a technique of stratified systematic unaligned sampling which appears to offer several advantages in the explorations of extensive archeological sites. First, it permits the examination of a large area at minimum expense and destruction to the site. Secondly, it allows the location and tentative identification of structures, features, and activities at the site. Thirdly, it provides a progressively more intensive means of exploration, yielding an increase in detail relative to the size of the sample. Fourthly, it offers the advantage of sampling all parts of a site, eliminating bias in favor of particular site elements and against others. This bias is inherently dangerous in the interpretation of sites occupied by complex societies, for the variety of spatially separated activities contained in such settlements may not be adequately sampled if certain areas of the site are systematically ignored. Finally, the use of stratified systematic unaligned sampling in the discovery phase of archeology yields results that may be used in the planning of future archeological research as well as in current and future site interpretive development.

Archeological excavations at Feature 1 revealed a circular, sloping pit filled with two layers of secondary refuse overlain by a deposit of mixed secondary and primary discard, presumably including the burned remains of a structure. Ceramic evidence suggests that the pit was excavated and filled in the third quarter of the eighteenth century. Although its original function is uncertain, the pit's circular shape is reminiscent of that used in the preparation of brick clay. The feature's proximity to the location of an "oven" shown on the 1809 map further suggests that the pit may have once been situated in an industrial area on the plantation.

Materials associated with the pit's secondary use as a discard area have provided information relating not only to its later use, but have also yielded data supporting the accuracy of the comparative artifact class frequencies observed in the initial sampling of this area. These data also illustrate the extent to which the detection of variation in minor artifact groups increases with the size of the samples gathered.

In both the previous sample excavations and those recently conducted at Feature 1, the relative frequency of occurrence of porcelain, assumed to be indicative of high status within a British colonial plantation context,

is greater than in all other areas of the site except that containing the main house complex. The overwhelming predominance of slave-made Colono ware, however, and the apparent use of a majority of European ceramics as drinking vessels, suggest that this feature represents an African slave site rather than a British occupation. If this interpretation is correct -- and it seems to be supported by comparable findings on other South Carolina slave occupation sites -- then it indicates that slaves were not only able to obtain high status European wares, but that they used other imported ceramics in much more limited and specialized roles than did European colonists of the same time period. While inconclusive, this evidence points to the necessity of considering patterns of acquisition and use of European ceramics by blacks in future investigations of eighteenth century plantation sites.

The analysis of the archeological evidence from Hampton has been carried out within the framework of a model of plantation settlement. This model, synthesized from comparative documentary and archeological data, is intended as a means by which to tie the content and layout of a plantation settlement, as well as its patterned archeological remains, to the functional position it occupied in the world economy. Hampton, like Middleton Place, represents the lowcountry South Carolina rice plantation, a specialized agricultural settlement organized around the production of a cash crop, the effective cultivation of which was confined to a particular environmental zone along the Atlantic coast. Despite its specialized role and the unique requirements of rice growing, the rice plantation's form seem to have had much in common with that of other plantations devoted to different cash crops during the Colonial period.

Because the model is addressed chiefly to plantations originating in the Colonial period, before the introduction of complex agricultural mechanization, it is uncertain if its archeological characteristics of form and content will apply to later antebellum and post-bellum plantation settlements that developed around a new technology (see DuBose 1970; Anthony 1976: 17). Marked changes in settlement pattern are evident in the plans of later cotton, sugar, and rice plantations in the southeastern United States (e.g. Stubbs 1975: Plate 2; Newton 1971), reflecting a response to new demands brought about by a changing technological base. Additionally, the social and economic effects of emancipation and the disruption of Southern agricultural production during the Civil War gave rise to dispersed plantation settlement (Prunty 1955: 469). Clearly these developments, reflecting the evolution of the plantation as an adaptive form of commercial agricultural settlement, are beyond the scope of the model as employed here. The investigation of these later settlements must consider the social and economic milieu in which they existed, and employ models constructed to describe and explain the plantation's role within it.

The sample excavations at Hampton represent an enlargement of the area explored in the initial archeological investigations. In doing so they have permitted us to obtain archeological information from a portion of the site heretofore unexplored. The investigation of the pit feature, on the other hand, examined intensively a small segment of the site which had already been sampled. Both investigations followed recommendations

set forth in the report on the original investigations. The present work, however, has far from exhausted either avenue of research. For this reason it is recommended that the following courses be pursued in future archeological investigations at Hampton.

1. First, it is recommended that the exploratory excavations conducted in the two Hampton projects be extended to include other parts of the site in order to define the spatial limits of the plantation settlement. These investigations should employ the stratified systematic unaligned sampling technique to obtain at least a 1% sample of the contents of these areas. Only a portion of the settled area shown on the 1809 map has been examined and an expanded survey would aid in establishing the form, layout, and content of the rest of the settlement. Because only part of the area formerly occupied by the plantation settlement is presently on cleared land, the extent to which archeological work directed at the remainder of the site can be carried out is limited. Any investigations in wooded or overgrown areas should be preceded by appropriate land clearing.

The expanded exploration of Hampton plantation may be conducted in one or several steps. This work should minimally include the area encompassed by the early nineteenth century settlement, but can be expanded to include post-Civil War settlements on the west side of Mainfield as well as potential areas to the south of the presently sampled area.

The survey should also be expanded to include areas to the north and east of the main house. Documents indicate that at least some structures lay between the house and nearby Wambaw Creek, and archeological evidence from the present work as well as scattered surface finds have revealed that the historic settlement may have extended eastward from this area. Because the extent and nature of this settlement, which may have constituted part of the earliest plantation, are unknown, the investigation of this area is crucial to an understanding of Hampton's early growth and development.

2. An alternative to expanding the sample area is to intensify the excavations in order to ascertain the limits of structures and other cultural features and provide a larger and more complete sample of artifacts by which to examine more precisely the nature of activities carried out in the past. It is recommended that each activity area studied have at least 10% of its total area archeologically examined.

The order in which the individual areas are investigated need not be fixed at present. Rather, priority should be based on needs of park interpretation, the interests of the investigator, and the potential impact of park development on the archeological remains. It is recommended that any areas of the site to be disturbed by construction or land modification be intensively examined if previous work has indicated that archeological remains are likely to be present there. All those parts of the site identified as structure-based activity areas in the discovery stage of excavations should be avoided unless further archeological work is conducted to mitigate destructive effects on them. Needless to say, the nature and extent of the mitigation work will vary

with the type of construction to be carried out.

Because of the paucity of archeological research on slave settlements, or indeed on plantation activity areas in general, the investigation of areas suspected of containing evidence of these phenomena would provide much useful information on this neglected area of plantation life.

The results of this phase of archeological work should permit specific activities to be identified and the locations and forms of structures and other cultural features to be determined. This evidence can be used to further delimit areas where additional excavation would be useful, and to provide supplementary information regarding settlement form and function, data helpful to site interpretation as well as in the design of anthropological problems relating to plantation settlements.

3. The phase of archeological investigations that should follow intensive sampling involves the complete excavation of selected features located in previous stages of research.

The nature of these excavations must be governed by the type of feature to be examined, its size, its state of preservation, and its relative significance to the site as a sociocultural unit. Archeological investigations in this phase would be aimed at exposing large areas and their results would provide the most tangible evidence for interpretive site development. Features uncovered at this time may require extensive stabilization and/or partial reconstruction for interpretive purposes. It is anticipated that at least a full field season's work will be involved in the intensive investigation of each area.

The archeological data gathered during this phase will aid in determining the precise form, nature, and spatial extent of the activities that took place within the individual areas. These data should provide information on a much finer scale than before and will result in the most accurate picture of the residue of past activities in the plantation settlement.

The selection of areas to be excavated during this phase of research may be based on criteria similar to those governing the selection of areas for the second phase work. Certainly it is desirable to consider those areas of the site representing different activity complexes as in previous phases of archeological work. Differential preservation of the remains may also affect the selection of areas for intensive investigation. Of utmost importance in determining the location of future work and the design under which it is conducted are the research questions under consideration. Although it is impossible to predict precisely the form that these questions will take during this later phase of work, it is anticipated that three general goals will govern this phase of archeology at Hampton. These are: 1) the testing of hypotheses derived from the conclusions of the earlier phases of investigation; 2) the development of new hypotheses regarding the nature of intrasite variation in the distribution of functionally significant archeological materials, and 3) the statement of conclusions concerning the settlement's role as a

plantation in general as well as its function as a component of the economic system of the South Carolina lowcountry.

In summary, it is recommended that archeological investigations at Hampton be conducted in several phases. These are designed to increase the size of the presently explored area to include the remainder of the plantation settlement. They are also intended to provide an increasingly more detailed picture of the site by concentrating on progressively more intensive examinations of those areas most likely to yield information useful in the study of the early Hampton settlement and in its interpretation as a historical exhibit. The employment of a multi-phase plan is advantageous in that it allows choices to be made throughout the course of the work; choices as to which areas are to be investigated, when the investigations are carried out, and to what extent the archeology must proceed in order to produce the desired results. It is hoped that the use of this type of research design will permit the collection of a maximum amount of information while minimizing the expenditure of time and funds necessary to gather it.

The present investigations of portions of the early settlement at Hampton plantation have revealed that it had much in common with plantation settlements in general and with those in South Carolina in particular. As a representative of this type of settlement, its investigation and interpretation takes on a significance greater than that of the individual site alone. The problems considered in future research and the developmental plans implemented as a result of such research should, therefore, provide information pertaining not only to Hampton but to the rice economy of South Carolina as well.

APPENDIX A

DERIVATION OF MEAN CERAMIC DATE

The mean ceramic date formula was developed as a technique by which to determine a mean date of manufacture for British ceramics found in an archeological context. It is based on the assumption that a ceramic type's popularity will form a unimodal curve through time reaching a peak between the time of its introduction and that of its discontinuance. The median date is represented by the peak in popularity. Utilizing Ivor Noël Hume's A Guide to Artifacts of Colonial America (1970) as a source for the median dates for the use span of each ceramic type, the mean date (Y) for a group of ceramics present at a particular site is calculated by the following formula:

$$Y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i f_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n f_i}$$

where: x_i = the median date of use

f_i = the frequency of each ceramic type

n = the number of ceramic types in the sample

The calculation of a mean ceramic date for the Main House area at Hampton plantation is accomplished as follows:

Ceramic Type	Type Median Date (x_i)	Number of Specimens (f_i)	Product ($x_i \cdot f_i$)
Lead-glazed slipware	1733	17	29461
Ironstone-whiteware	1860	52	96720
Jackfield ware	1760	5	8800
Undecorated delftware	1720	17	29240
Annular creamware	1798	4	7192
Creamware	1791	34	60894
Overglaze enameled hand-painted creamware	1788	1	1788
Annular pearlware	1805	3	5415
Transfer-printed pearlware	1818	3	5454
Underglaze blue hand- painted pearlware	1800	4	7200
Embossed pearlware	1810	1	1810
Blue and green edged pearlware	1805	2	3610
Undecorated pearlware	1805	16	28880
Nottingham ware	1755	2	3510
British brown stoneware	1733	3	5199
Fulham salt-glazed mugs	1733	1	1733
Westerwald stamped	1738	10	17380
White salt-glazed stoneware	1763	6	10578
Black "Basaltes" stoneware	1785	1	1785
TOTAL		182	326649

$$Y = \frac{326649}{182} = 1794.77 = 1795$$

Derivation of Mean Ceramic Dates for Feature 1

Layer 1:

$$Y = \frac{x_i \cdot f_i}{f_i} = \frac{175460}{100} = 1754.6 = 1755$$

Layers 2 and 3:

$$Y = \frac{44446}{25} = 1777.84 = 1778$$

Total Feature 1:

$$Y = \frac{175460 + 44446}{100 + 25} = \frac{219906}{125} = 1759.25 = 1759$$

Feature 1 east trench:

$$Y = \frac{5257}{3} = 1752.33 = 1752$$

38CH241
Hampton Plantation
Non-ceramic artifacts

1 n Plantation ramic artifacts	Unidentified Machinery Parts	Barrel hoop fragments	Iron kettle fragments	Modern metal artifacts	Shotgun shells	Glazed brick	Unidentified metal	Bone	Prehistoric Thinning Flakes	Chert bifaces	Asphalt roofing	Unidentified slate object	Crushed gravel	Slate quarry debris	Paving stone fragments	Slate roofing	Asbestos Roofing	Terracotta drainpipe fragments	Igneous rock chunks	TOTAL NON- CERAMIC ARTIFACTS	Shell (grams)	Brick (grams)	Cement (grams)
N3050 E2945 Layer 1					1		3	3												16	1	113	89
N3050 E2945 Layer 2				4			7													12		217	
N3050 E2945 Layer 3							6													12		1	
N3050 E2945 Layer 4							5													8			
N3095 E2975 Layer 1				1			4	1	1									6		32		568	
N3095 E2975 Layer 2				2	1		19		1				1			1		54		139	6	616	
N3095 E2975 Layer 3							24	8	2	1					1	3				92	5	3086	
N3095 E2975 Layer 4									4											4			
N3000 E2915 Layer 1	1			1	1		11	15	1		1				12	1	9			197	45	2140	
N3000 E2915 Layer 2			1		2		18	3			11		2		7	4	11			173	26	3385	
N3005 E2965 Layer 1							14													54	4	7685	
N3005 E2965 Layer 2							1	3												18	248	2954	
N3040 E3015 Layer 1							10		1											13		12	
N3015 E3050 Layer 1	1				1		5	14								3	3			63	3	1720	1044
N3015 E3050 Layer 2							1	2							1	1				11	1	436	37
N3015 E3125 Layer 1						1	1	16	3		10	1				15				203	11	3463	
N3015 E3125 Layer 2						6	4	33	2	1	1				1	3				180	137	4896	
N3015 E3125 Feature 3																1				2		37	
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																				1		61	
N2965 E3140 Layer 1					2	2	22		1							3	1			170	1	1005	
N2965 E3140 Layer 2																				2		21	
TOTALS	2		1	8	8	9	155	98	16	2	23	1	3		22	35	24	60		1402	488	32416	1170
N2720 E2460 Topsoil																				1		48	
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B																				1		16	
N2715 E2465 Topsoil	1					1														15		596	
N2715 E2460 Topsoil																				5		1212	
N2715 E2455 Topsoil																				5		844	
N2715 E2450 Topsoil																				3		911	
N2710 E2460 Topsoil							24	3												96	12	1435	
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																						37	
Feature 1 Layer 1	2	2				5	47	113	2							1			6	828	187	7260	
Feature 1 Layer 2	3	6					9	76						1						182	1	7399	
Feature 1 Layer 3	3		1			1	52	353	1										1	545	14	7691	
Feature 1 East trench							4	1												30		61	
Feature 13																				5		35	
TOTALS	9	8	1			7	136	546	3					1		1			7	1716	214	27545	
GRAND TOTAL	11	8	2	8	8	16	291	644	19	2	23	1	3	1	22	36	24	60	7	3118	702	59961	1170

38CH241
Hampton Plantation
Non-ceramic artifacts

	Kaolin pipe fragments	Colono pipe fragments	Buttons	Beads	Buckshot	Lead bullets	Sprue	Rosehead lathing nails	Other wrought nails	Cut nails	Wire nails	Unidentified nails	Spikes	Upholstery Tacks	Screws	Horseshoe nails	Brass rivets	Tacks	Buckles	Wire staples	Nuts and washers
N3050 E2945 Layer 1	1													1				1			
N3050 E2945 Layer 2																					
N3050 E2945 Layer 3					1							3									
N3050 E2945 Layer 4												3									
N3095 E2975 Layer 1	1								4	4		3									
N3095 E2975 Layer 2			1						2	2	1	21			1					1	1
N3095 E2975 Layer 3	3							4	2	11		24				1	1				
N3095 E2975 Layer 4																					
N3000 E2915 Layer 1	5	1						6	9	36	11	19	1			1				1	
N3000 E2915 Layer 2	3				3			4	9	32	4	7		1				2			
N3005 E2965 Layer 1	1							7	3	8		7									
N3005 E2965 Layer 2	2								5			5									
N3040 E3015 Layer 1					1					1											
N3015 E3050 Layer 1			1		3			3	1	2	9				1						3
N3015 E3050 Layer 2	1								1	1	2										
N3015 E3125 Layer 1	3			1	2	1	2	29	23	8											
N3015 E3125 Layer 2	2			1				30	22		1	5									
N3015 E3125 Feature 3											1										
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																	1				
N2965 E3140 Layer 1	6						1		14	12		47									
N2965 E3140 Layer 2												1									
TOTALS	28	1	2	2	10	1	3	83	95	117	29	145	1	2	2	2	2	3		2	4
N2720 E2460 Topsoil	1																				
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B												1									
N2715 E2465 Topsoil	1		1									3									
N2715 E2460 Topsoil												1									
N2715 E2455 Topsoil										1											
N2715 E2450 Topsoil									1												
N2710 E2460 Topsoil	9							2	4			32									
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																					
Feature 1, Layer 1	99	2	2				7	50	199			211	1						1		
Feature 1, Layer 2	18							2	16			18	2								
Feature 1, Layer 3	11								14			19	1								
Feature 1, East trench	3											16									
Feature 13	1											4									
TOTALS	143	2	3				7	54	234	1		305	4						1		
GRAND TOTAL	171	3	5	2	10	1	10	137	329	118	29	450	5	2	2	2	2	3	1	2	4

38CH241
Hampton Plantation
Non-ceramic artifacts

	Green bottle glass	Light green bottle glass	Light blue- green bottle glass	Clear bottle glass	Embossed clear bottle glass	Brown bottle glass	Manganese glass	Cobalt glass	Pattern- molded glass	Cut glass	Etched glass	Pressed glass	Lead glass	Wine glass fragments	Modern glass	Window glass	Modern window glass	Coal	Pewter fragments	Leather shoe sole	Plastic
N3050 E2945 Layer 1				1											2						3
N3050 E2945 Layer 2															1						
N3050 E2945 Layer 3	1															1					
N3050 E2945 Layer 4																					
N3095 E2975 Layer 1				1	1										1	1				2	1
N3095 E3975 Layer 2	3			2			1							1	18	4	1				
N3095 E3975 Layer 3	3														1	3					
N3095 E3975 Layer 4																					
N3000 E2915 Layer 1	25	1		1			1					3	4			10	8		1		
N3000 N2915 Layer 2	20		1						1				2	1		16	8				
N3005 E2965 Layer 1	6															7	1				
N3005 E2965 Layer 2	2																				
N3040 E3015 Layer 1																					
N3015 E3050 Layer 1	1					1							1	1		7	1	1			
N3015 E3050 Layer 2																1					
N3015 E3125 Layer 1	29		3	1					5		1		16	3		34					
N3015 E3125 Layer 2	24		3	1									15	1		19					
N3015 E3125 Feature 3																					
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																					
N2965 E3140 Layer 1	38			1											2	16	2				
N2965 E3140 Layer 2																1					
TOTALS	152	1	7	8	1	1	2		6		1	3	38	7	25	120	21	1	1	2	4
N2720 E2460 Topsoil																					
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B																					
N2715 E2465 Topsoil	6							1									1				
N2715 E2460 Topsoil	3		1																		
N2715 E2455 Topsoil	4																				
N2715 E2450 Topsoil	2																				
N2710 E2460 Topsoil	18		1	1						1						1					
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																					
Feature 1 Layer 1*	66			4				2					3			4					
Feature 1 Layer 2*	29		1																		
Feature 1 Layer 3*	84		1	3																	
Feature 1 East trench	6																				
Feature 13																					
TOTALS	218		4	8				3		1			3			5	1				
GRAND TOTAL	370	1	11	16	1	1	2	3	6	1	1	3	41	7	25	125	22	1	1	2	4

*Totals for Feature 1 include artifacts from the southeast quadrant (N2710 E2460) excavated in May, 1979.

	Deptford bold check-stamped	Deptford simple stamped	Deptford linear check stamped	Cape Fear fabric- impressed	Thom's Creek punctate	Reed punctate	Bold parallel line incised	Curvilinear complicated stamped	Rectilinear complicated stamped										TOTAL CERAMIC ARTIFACTS			
N3050 E2945 Layer 1																			1			
N3050 E2945 Layer 2																			1			
N3050 E2945 Layer 3																			5			
N3050 E2945 Layer 4																			3			
N3095 E2975 Layer 1																			5			
N3095 E2975 Layer 2																			17			
N3095 E2975 Layer 3	4	3	1	1				3											45			
N3095 E2975 Layer 4		2			1														6			
N3000 E2915 Layer 1																			44			
N3000 E2915 Layer 2	1							1											60			
N3005 E2965 Layer 1	2	2																	30			
N3005 E2965 Layer 2																			4			
N3040 E3015 Layer 1		5				1	10												34			
N3015 E3050 Layer 1																			11			
N3015 E3050 Layer 2	1	1					1												24			
N3015 E3125 Layer 1		1							1										66			
N3015 E3125 Layer 2								5											77			
N3015 E3125 Feature 3																			--			
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																			5			
N2965 E3140 Layer 1					1														42			
N2965 E3140 Layer 2					2		2												12			
TOTALS	8	14	1	1	4	1	13	9	1										492			
N2720 E2460 Topsoil																			6			
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B																			--			
N2715 E2465 Topsoil																			11			
N2715 E2460 Topsoil																			2			
N2715 E2455 Topsoil																			3			
N2715 E2450 Topsoil																			1			
N2710 E2460 Topsoil																			44			
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																			--			
Feature 1 Layer 1					1														469			
Feature 1 Layer 2																			90			
Feature 1 Layer 3																			32			
Feature 1 East Trench																			17			
Feature 13																			4			
TOTALS					1														679			
GRAND TOTAL	8	14	1	1	5	1	13	9	1										1171			

68%

6870

	Blue and green- edged pearlware	Finger-painted pearlware	Carolina creamware	Westerwald	"Scratch blue" white salt- glazed stoneware	White salt- glazed stone- ware	"Black Basaltes"	Nottingham lustered	Overglaze ena- meled Chinese export porcelain.	Underglz. blue Chinese porcelain	Plain White Porcelain	British brown stoneware	Fulham brown salt-glazed mugs	Unglazed earthenware	Engine-turned unglazed red stoneware	Flower pot fragments	Modern	Unidentified stoneware	Undetermined Colono or prehistoric	Colono ware	Prehistoric undecorated
N3050 E2945 Layer 1																					
N3050 E2945 Layer 2																		1			
N3050 E2945 Layer 3														1					2		
N3050 E2945 Layer 4																			3		
N3095 E2975 Layer 1											1						1				1
N3095 E2975 Layer 2											2					1			3		
N3095 E2975 Layer 3						2				3	3								1	1	14
N3095 E2975 Layer 4																					3
N3000 E2915 Layer 1	2		1	1						5	1			1					8	8	3
N3000 E2915 Layer 2						2				14			1							11	11
N3005 E2965 Layer 1										2	2					1		2		2	6
N3005 E2965 Layer 2										1	2									1	
N3040 E3015 Layer 1																					18
N3015 E3050 Layer 1										1											9
N3015 E3050 Layer 2																					19
N3015 E3125 Layer 1						1		1		9	2			3					2	11	19
N3015 E3125 Layer 2				3				1	2	6	2	1							4	5	31
N3015 E3125 Feature 3																					
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																					5
N2965 E3140 Layer 1				2			1					1						2		7	9
N2965 E3140 Layer 2																					8
TOTALS	2		1	6		5	1	2	2	41	15	2	1	5		2	1	5	23	46	156
N2720 E2460 Topsoil										1										5	
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B																					
N2715 E2465 Topsoil				1		1		2												4	
N2715 E2460 Topsoil												1									
N2715 E2455 Topsoil										1										1	
N2715 E2450 Topsoil												1									
N2710 E2460 Topsoil			2							2		3			1					24	
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																					
Feature 1 Layer 1		1		4	2	4		4	1	11		2	10							345	7
Feature 1 Layer 2						1		2	2	2										62	2
Feature 1 Layer 3									1	1	1									22	
Feature 1 East trench			2							1										13	
Feature 13										1										2	
TOTALS		1	4	5	2	6		8	4	20	1	7	10		1					478	9
GRAND TOTAL	2	1	5	11	2	11	1	10	6	61	16	9	11	5	1	2	1	5	23	524	165

APPENDIX B
Ceramic totals
38CH241

	Embossed pearlware	Undecorated pearlware	Leadglazed slipware	Undecorated ironstone- white ware	Transfer-prntd. ironstone- white ware	"Annular" white ware	Handpainted white ware	Leadglazed earthenware	"Jackfield" ware	Decorated delftware	Undecorated delftware	Blue hand- painted delft tiles	Lavender hand- painted delft tiles	Overglaze transfer-prntd delft tiles	Yellow ware	"Annular" creamware	Creamware	Green feather- edged creamware	Overglazed ena- meled hand- painted creamw	Yellow tinsfr. printed pearlware	Finger-painted creamware	"Annular" pearlware	Underglaze bl hand-painted pearlware
N3050 E2945 Layer 1		1																					
N3050 E2945 Layer 2																							
N3050 E2945 Layer 3				1																1			
N3050 E2945 Layer 4																							
N3095 E2975 Layer 1			2																				
N3095 E2975 Layer 2		1	2	1	1										2	1	3						
N3095 E2975 Layer 3		4	1	1	1																		1
N3095 E2975 Layer 4																							
N3000 E2915 Layer 1	1	2	1	2	1												3	2	1				
N3000 E2915 Layer 2		2	3	3	1	1	1									1	6					1	
N3005 E2965 Layer 1				6	1			1			1					1				1			
N3005 E2965 Layer 2																							
N3040 E3015 Layer 1																							
N3015 E3050 Layer 1								1															
N3015 E3050 Layer 2		2																					
N3015 E3125 Layer 1			3						3		3	2	1				4						
N3015 E3125 Layer 2								1			9		3				4						
N3015 E3125 Feature 3																							
N3015 E3125 Layer 3																							
N2965 E3140 Layer 1				9				1			4						5						
N2965 E3140 Layer 2																							
TOTALS	1	12	12	23	6	1	1	4			17	2	4		2	3	25	2	1	2		1	1
N2720 E2460 Topsoil																							
N2720 E2455 Feature 2B																							
N2715 E2465 Topsoil									1								2						
N2715 E2460 Topsoil																	1						
N2715 E2455 Topsoil						1																	
N2715 E2450 Topsoil																							
N2710 E2460 Topsoil		2	4							1							3					2	
N2710 E2455 Topsoil																							
Feature 1* Layer 1		1	37					2	3	8				2		2	17	1			1	3	
Feature 1* Layer 2			1					1	1	2							14						
Feature 1* Layer 3			1					2									3				1		
Feature 1 East trench																	1						
Feature 13									1														
TOTALS		3	43			1		5	6	11				2		2	41	1			2	5	
GRAND TOTAL	1	15	55	23	6	2	1	9	10	11	17	2	4	2	2	5	66	3	1	2	2	6	1

* Totals for Feature 1 include artifacts from the Southeast quadrant (N2710, E2460) excavated in May, 1979.

APPENDIX C

PREHISTORIC ARTIFACTS FROM HAMPTON PLANTATION

A total of 217 ceramic and 21 lithic artifacts were recovered during the fall 1979 investigations at Hampton plantation. Two hundred eight of the former and 18 of the latter came from the main house area where extensive exploratory excavations were undertaken (see Appendix B). Because the investigation of the pit was confined to a historic feature, it is unlikely that it would result in a representative sample of prehistoric artifacts from any part of the site. The presence of such materials in the pit would be a result of redeposition activities which may or may not have been selective in the inclusion of previously deposited artifacts. Consequently, prehistoric materials from the pit will not be considered in an examination of settlement form or occupational density.

The prehistoric ceramics obtained in the recent excavations at Hampton consist of relatively small specimens. Their paste is tempered with fine sand with occasional larger inclusions. Because of the small size of the sherds it is impossible to discern vessel form beyond a generally globular shape. Rims are present on only two undecorated specimens. One is straight with a folded lip and the other rim is folded.

Undecorated sherds, totalling 165 artifacts, comprise the greater part of the collection. The remaining 52 specimens may be separated according to surface finish. Five forms of surface decoration are present. The most commonly applied form is simple stamping utilizing a sinew-wrapped paddle. The 14 specimens falling into this category may be classified as Deptford simple stamped (Caldwell and Waring 1939a: 4). Thirteen specimens exhibiting the surface treatment Irene incised (Caldwell and Waring 1939b: 3) comprise the next most common decorated ceramic form present. Designs appear to consist of sets of bold parallel lines, often sloppily rendered, that intersect at shallow angles. The next most prevalent type of surface finishing is complicated stamping. The 10 specimens exhibit both the curvilinear and rectilinear design elements of the Chicora wares (South 1976: 28-29). Most specimens appear to be Savannah complicated stamped (Caldwell and Waring 1939a: 11), although some may represent Pee Dee complicated stamped (Caldwell and McCann 1941: 45) vessels. Check stamped ceramics are present and the nine specimens from Hampton may be separated into eight of Deptford bold check stamped (Caldwell and Waring 1939a: 1) and one of Deptford linear check stamped (Caldwell and Waring 1939a: 8). Thom's Creek punctated (Phelps 1968: 20-21) is also present at Hampton. All four specimens exhibit an orderly linear arrangement of punctations on the vessel surface. One eroded specimen of Cape Fear fabric impressed (South 1976: 18-19) was recovered as was a single sherd of reed impressed pottery. The surface treatment of the latter consists of two parallel rows of punctations, a design element characteristic of Chicora wares.

The ceramics found in the recent excavations include the same ware

groups represented by artifacts recovered in the previous investigations at Hampton. The presence of Thom's Creek, Deptford, Cape Fear, and Chicora wares suggests an occupation from as early as 2000 B.C. to perhaps as late as the early Historic period (South 1976: 28-29).

A total of 21 lithic artifacts were recovered in the excavations at Hampton, all but three of which came from the main house area (see Appendix B). Two of the specimens are bifaces and the remainder are flakes.

The bifaces consist of one complete example and a fragment. Both are composed of chert. The fragment is the basal ear of a "Dalton-like" (DeJarnette, Kurjack, and Cambron 1962: 51-52) point and the complete specimen is a small, triangular "Clarksville-like" or "Caraway-like" (Coe 1964: 49) point. These artifacts are associated respectively with the Early Archaic or possibly its transition from Paleo-Indian, and with a period ranging from late Woodland to early historic times.

All of the flakes are thinning flakes. Seven are composed of rhyolite and one of meta-volcanic rock. Neither of these materials occurs on the Coastal Plain and presumably these artifacts or their parent materials were brought in from the Piedmont. The remainder of the flakes are composed of materials available on the Coastal Plain. They consist of seven orthoquartzite flakes, one Allendale chert flake, one grey chert flake, and two other chert flakes, one of which has been heat-treated. Thinning flakes are usually products of final stage reduction or resharpening of lithic tool edges, activities generally associated with maintenance and the initial stages of manufacturing. The presence of these artifacts, then, would suggest a short-term utilization of the site.

The concentration of prehistoric material in the main house area appears to be a continuation of an area of high artifact occurrence lying in the eastern portion of the area previously investigated. These excavations indicated that those parts of the site occupied by prehistoric peoples were situated along its northern periphery on the terrace above Hampton Creek (Scurry 1979: 85). The relatively high average number of prehistoric artifacts per excavated unit (28.3) in the main house area, however, distinguishes it from the rest of the site with regard to the density of material accumulation and suggests that the high ground upon which the principal structure of the historic occupation stands was also the most intensively utilized area in pre-contact times.

The nature of prehistoric utilization of the site is uncertain. An absence of discernible subsurface features and a modest quantity and diversity of artifacts imply that long-term continuous occupations did not take place here. Rather, it is more likely to have been the site of transient small-scale extraction activities associated with exploiting the rich subsistence base of the riverine environment from early Archaic to late pre-contact times.

APPENDIX D

ANALYSIS OF FAUNAL REMAINS FROM FEATURE 1

by

Jeannette Runquist

HAMPTON PLANTATION

Level 1

Species represented	Minimum Number of Individuals
Catfish - <u>Ictalurus</u> sp.	1
Turtle - <u>Chrysemys</u> sp.	1
Deer - <u>Odocoileus virginianus</u>	1
Cow - <u>Bos taurus</u>	1
Pig - <u>Sus scrofa</u>	1
Total fragments	85
Catfish	1 (1.2%)
Turtle	5 (5.8%)
Deer	5 (5.8%)
Cow	18 (21.2%)
Pig	2 (2.4%)
Unidentified mammal	54 (63.5%)

Species

Catfish 1 burnt vertebra

Turtle 5 plastron fragments

Deer 5 appendicular fragments

(On basis of epiphyseal closure of distal radius, the individual was greater than 3 years of age at time of death.)

Cow 18 fragments including:

4 (22.2%) cranial fragments (isolated teeth)

2 (11.2%) axial fragments (rib and vertebra)

12 (66.7%) appendicular fragments including:

1 front limb fragment

1 pelvic fragment

10 shaft fragments

(Individual was elderly. Teeth were heavily worn and all long bones exhibited full epiphyseal closure.)

Pig 2 fragments including:

1 isolated tooth

1 front limb fragment

(Individual was immature. The tooth showed little wear and the proximal ulna lacked the epiphysis.)

Note: No butchering marks were observed. The long bone shafts had been smashed as if to obtain bone marrow.

HAMPTON PLANTATION
Level 2

Species present	Minimum Number of Individuals
Turtle - <u>Chrysemys</u> sp.	2
Deer - <u>Odocoileus virginianus</u>	1
Cow - <u>Bos taurus</u>	1
Total fragments	53
Turtle 41 (58.5%)	
Deer 3 (5.7%)	
Cow 4 (7.5%)	
Unidentified mammal 15 (28.3%)	

Species

Turtle 31 plastron fragments
 Deer 3 long bone shaft fragments
 Cow 4 fragments including
 1 cranial fragment (isolated tooth)
 1 axial fragment (thoracic vertebra)
 2 appendicular fragments including:
 1 phalanx
 1 shaft fragment
 (Tooth was not heavily worn and the phalanx
 was fully ossified.)

Level 3

Species present	Minimum Number of Individuals
Catfish - <u>Ictalurus</u> sp.	1
Turtle - <u>Chrysemys</u> sp.	2
Cow - <u>Bos taurus</u>	1
Pig - <u>Sus scrofa</u>	1
Total fragments	363
Catfish 1 (0.3%)	
Turtle 66 (18.2%)	
Cow 20 (5.5%)	
Pig 2 (0.6%)	
Unidentified mammal 274 (75.5%)	

HAMPTON PLANTATION
Level 3 (continued)

Species

Catfish 1 vertebra
Turtle 65 plastron fragments and 1 carapace fragment
Cow 20 fragments including:
 15 cranial fragments including:
 1 almost complete right mandible
 1 fragmentary left mandible
 3 isolated teeth
 10 skull fragments from temporal portion of skull
 5 post-cranial fragments including:
 3 front limb fragments
 2 hind limb fragments
(Individual was immature. The teeth were not heavily worn
and one post-cranial fragment lacked the diaphysis.)

APPENDIX E

DESCRIPTION OF COLONO WARE FROM FEATURE 1 AND ASSOCIATED FEATURES

Sample: 437 ceramic fragments, including 81 rims, 1 base, 4 handles, and 2 pipe bowl fragments.

Method of manufacture: Only eight sherds show evidence of coil fracture, suggesting that vessels were primarily hand-modeled. Since four of the eight coil breaks occur on rim sherds, it is possible that a combination of coiling and modeling was sometimes used (cf. Stern 1956: 11).

Paste: Compact micaceous clay with quartz temper ranging from silt or very fine sand to very coarse sand and granules. A number of coarsely tempered sherds also contain occasional lumps of fired reddish clay, and fragments from one shallow bowl have small amounts of fiber included with the sand temper. Temper size on the majority of specimens falls into the middle ranges of Wentworth's grain size scale (Shepard 1956: 118), with 38% of the collection coarse sand tempered (grain size $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 mm.), 29% medium sand tempered ($\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ mm.), and 23% fine sand tempered ($\frac{1}{8}$ - $\frac{1}{4}$ mm.). Nine sherds (2%) are heavily tempered with very coarse sand, while 8% of the vessel fragments and both the pipe bowl fragments exhibit a compact, almost temperless paste.

Surface finish: The surface finish on 74 sherds, or 17% of the collection, has been eroded beyond recognition. Most of the remaining 361 sherds have smoothed and compacted surfaces, with more than half (193) exhibiting some degree of luster or polish on both interior and exterior. Tool smoothing marks, in the form of a series of shallow parallel depressions (Fig. 25B), are present on 65 fragments. One hundred thirty-one sherds were smoothed but non-lustrous surfaces were classified as "unpolished," but since some of these fragments were later found to form part of otherwise polished vessels, it seems likely that many, if not most, have simply lost their luster through weathering. Rim sherds from two bowls are polished on the interior only, while sherds from vessels with restricted orifices are often polished on the exterior only. Six very coarsely tempered sherds are roughly hand-smoothed with no evidence of compaction or polishing.

Surface decoration: Over 97% of the Colono recovered from Feature 1 is undecorated. Sherds from two vessels, however, are decorated with fine reed-punctate designs, while a strap handle from a third vessel displays random shallow indentations from a small blunt object (Fig. 25E). A small globular jar has a stick-punctated "necklace" at the juncture of neck and shoulder (Fig. 25A). The reed-punctate vessel forms consist of a shallow bowl with a double row of punctations 0.5 inch below the exterior rim (Fig. 25B); and a fragmentary unidentified vessel whose entire surface appears to have been covered with an interlocking series of looped punctations (Fig. 25C). Another unidentified body sherd is etched with a light cross-hatching (Fig. 25D) that may not have been intended as

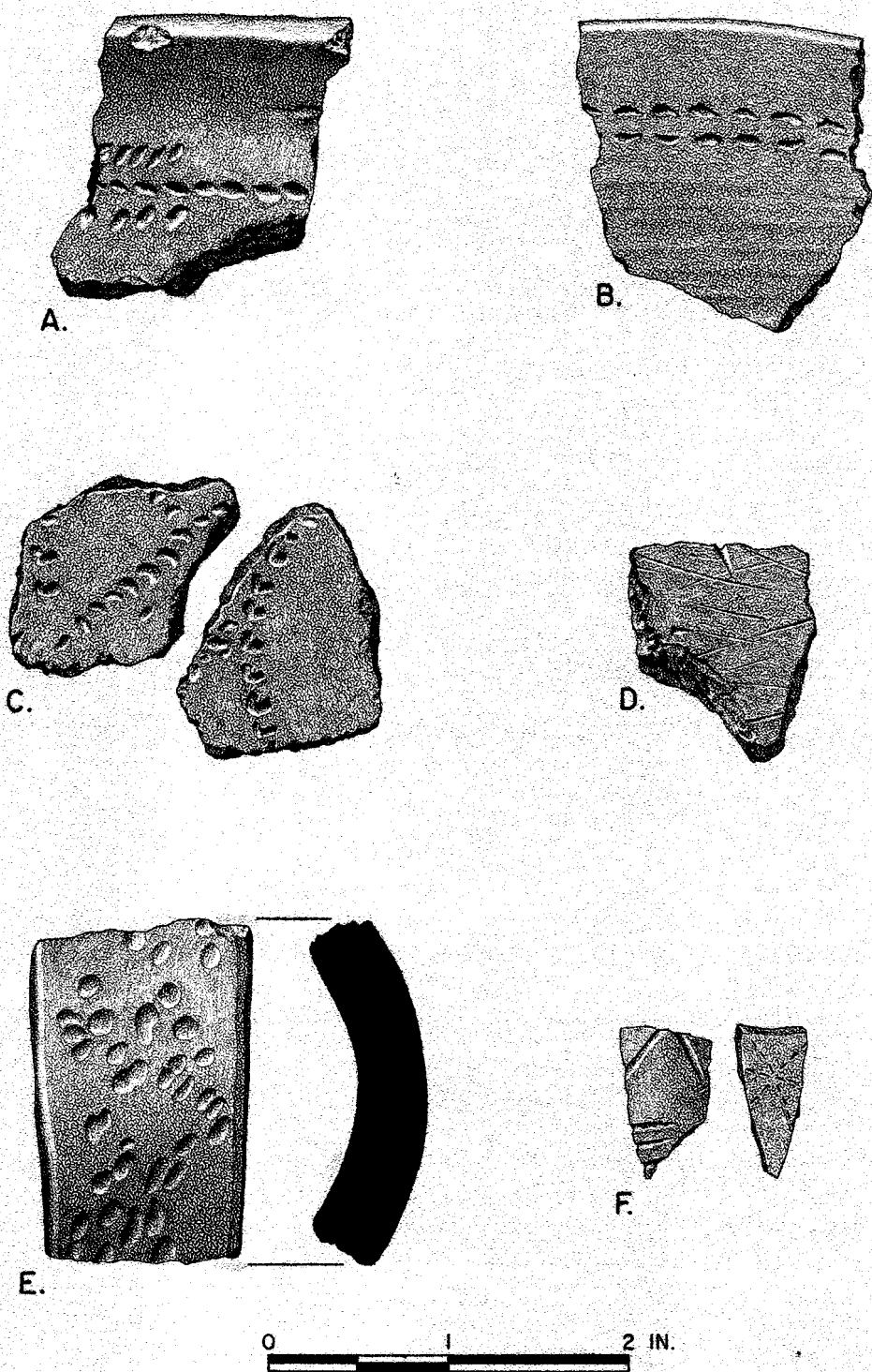


FIGURE 25: Surface decoration of Colono ware from Feature 1. A. Stick-punctated globular jar neck. B. Reed-punctated small bowl rim. Note tool smoothing marks on vessel surface. C. Reed-punctated body sherds from unidentified vessel. D. Body sherd with possible cross-hatched decoration. E. Punctated strap handle. F. Incised pipe bowl fragments.

decoration. Both pipe bowl fragments (Fig. 25E) are decorated with incised linear patterns.

Color: Although a few are pink or buff, most specimens fall within the orange-brown-grey-black range. The paste of very light or very dark sherds is generally the same color as the surface, but brown, orange, or grey sherds may have slightly darker cores. Fire-clouding is common.

Thickness: Ranges from 0.2 cm on very small bowls to 1.4 cm on several large sherds. The majority of sherds are between 0.5 and 0.8 cm thick.

Vessel form: The two most common forms are a shallow bowl 6 to 11 inches in diameter (Fig. 26A), and a small globular jar with constricted neck and everted rim (Fig. 27). These Colono forms are found throughout coastal South Carolina, and Ferguson (personal communication) has suggested that they may represent a distinction between serving and cooking wares. Most of the bowls from Feature 1 are fairly heavy vessels with orifices about 9 inches across, but several of the smallest bowls are very thin and finely made, with much the same proportions and wall thickness as porcelain teaware bowls. A reconstructed globular jar is charred over much of the exterior, and the two stick-punctated jar neck fragments (Fig. 25A) have heavy carbon build-up on the interior.

The lower levels of the pit yielded a small reconstructible teapot (Fig. 27), complete with plugged loop handle, spout, and interior strainer. Although the body of the vessel is carefully burnished and shaped, the teapot's appendages are clumsily attached and its base thickness is about half that of the vessel walls. Shepard (1956: 91) says that such abrupt changes in thickness can cause breakage during firing, and a large spall just above the base indicates that the teapot was indeed a kiln-waster. The teapot is made from an unusual light buff clay that appears to be from outside the Hampton area and may have been intended to resemble creamware or white stoneware.

Rim form: Fifty-six of the 81 recovered rim sherds were identified as bowl rims. Although 8 of these were classified as slightly everted, 46 -- or 82% -- are curved "small bowl rims" (Fig. 28 E-F), and 2 straight rims appear to be from large shallow bowls with widely flaring walls (Fig. 28G). The most common lip treatment on bowl rims is flattening (58%), but 16 lips (29%) are rounded, and 6 are beveled. Two slightly everted rims are decorated with regularly spaced finger-impressions (Fig. 28H), and one of the flared rims is thickened below the lip, with fine reed punctations along the top of the lip (Fig. 28G). The punctations are identical in size, shape, and angle to those on the body sherds depicted in Figure 25C.

The 22 identified jar rims were all classified as greatly everted (Fig. 28A). Lips are missing from many of these rims, but rounded and flattened lip treatment appears to occur in about equal proportions. The teapot rim is very slightly everted, with an evenly rounded and slightly tapered lip that was probably intended to support a lid.

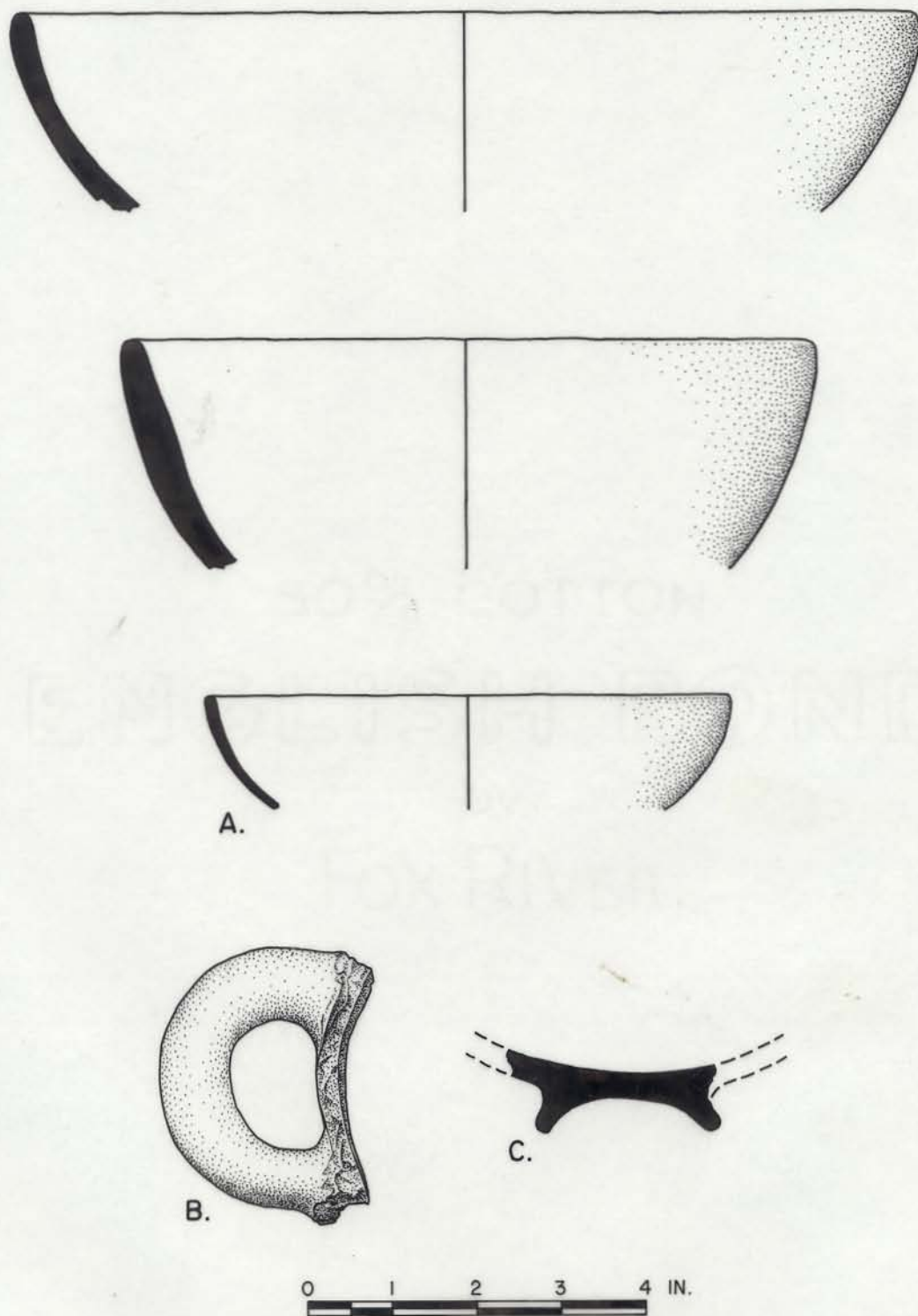


FIGURE 26: Colono ware vessel forms from Feature 1. A. Colono bowls of different sizes. B. Plugged loop handle. C. Footring from small bowl.

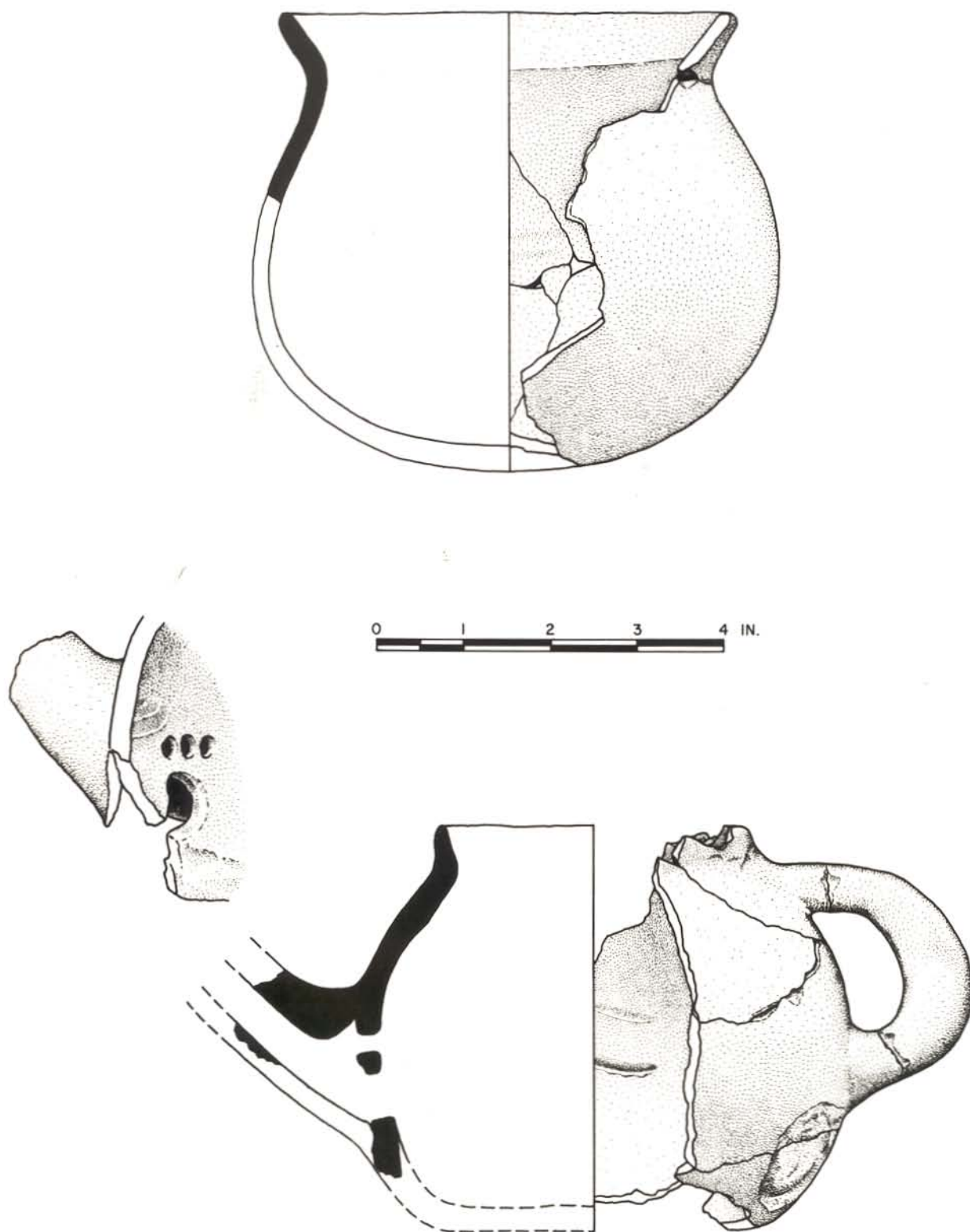


FIGURE 27: Colono ware vessel forms from Feature 1. Top center: globular cooking jar. Bottom center: Colono ware teapot with spalling on lower vessel wall. Inset: Detail of teapot strainer and spout.

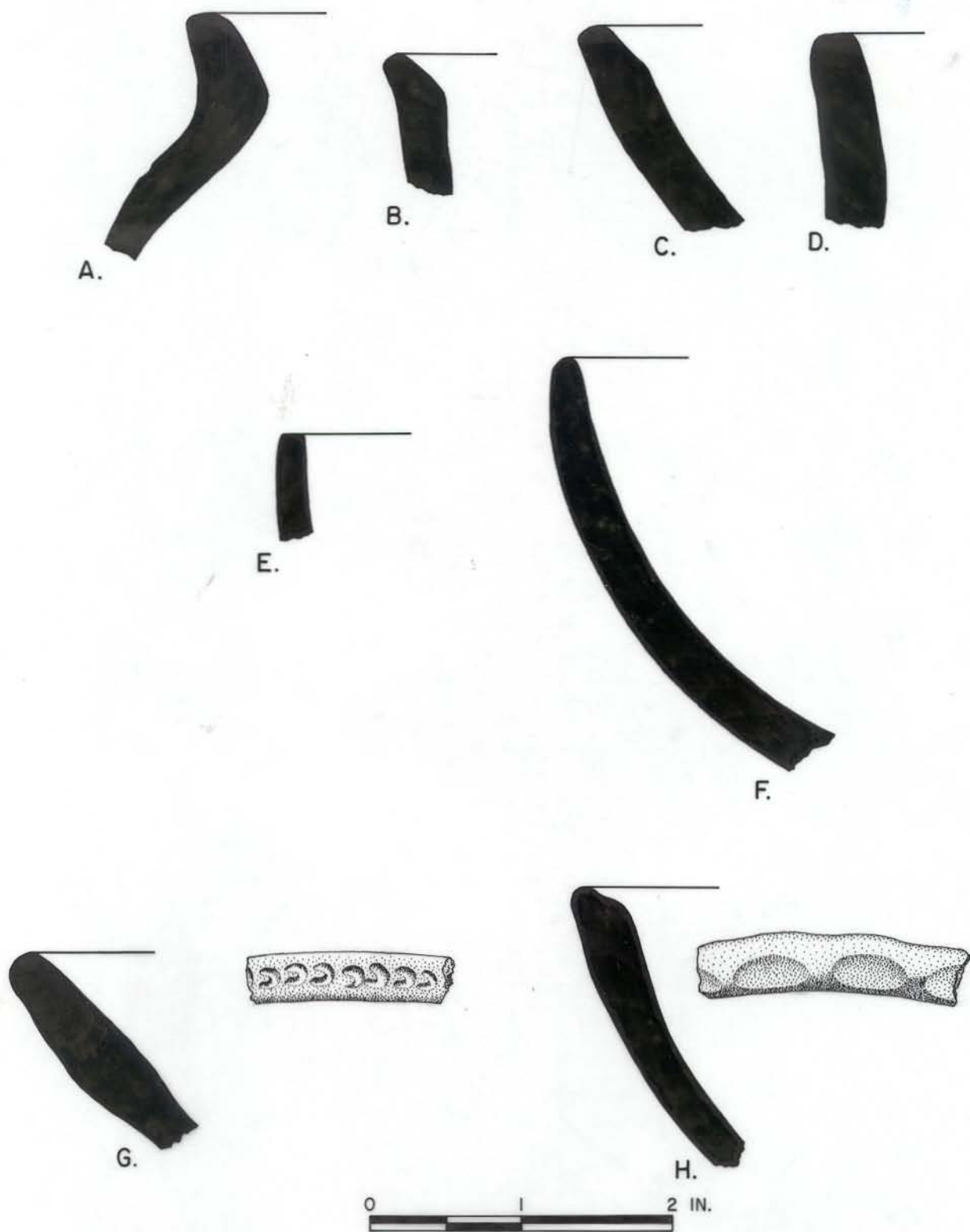


FIGURE 28: Colono ware rim forms and lip treatment. A. Greatly everted jar rim. B.-D. Slightly everted bowl rims. E. Small bowl rim with flattened lip. F. Small bowl rim with rounded lip. G. Thickened rim from flared bowl, with reed-punctate lip decoration. H. Finger-impressed small bowl rim.

Base form: This is largely unknown. The one reconstructible globular jar has a rounded base, while the teapot is flat-bottomed. One footring base from a small bowl (Fig. 26C) was found in the topsoil above Feature 1, but the absence of any other identifiable base forms may indicate that most vessels had rounded bases.

Appendages: Two very coarsely tempered plugged loop handles (Fig. 26B) and a large strap handle (Fig. 25E) appear to be from vessels much larger than most of the Colono forms in the pit, and may be the remains of pitchers or storage pots. The teapot has a poorly shaped and applied plugged loop handle.

APPENDIX F

ARCHIBALD RUTLEDGE'S HAMPTON PLANTATION

by

Carolyn Baker Lewis

Roughly 30 years ago, geographers realized that it was as important to study human conceptions of their environment as it was to treat the real world. When they initiated serious investigations of this problem, the field of environmental perception was born (English 1968). Geographers first concerned themselves with group views of and responses to the environment, and their earliest focus was on reaction to natural hazards. The first work in environmental perception leaned heavily on measurable data and thus restricted itself to situations that could yield such information. This is not surprising since the emergence of environmental perception coincided with the rise of the computer revolution in the 1950s. More recently, geographers are venturing into less concrete aspects of environmental perception. They search highly subjective data derived from the humanities for clues to attitudes and perceptions of specific landscapes. Now geographers give attention to individual views of relatively small areas, and they critically study landscape depiction in art and literature. The unique experience of a place is no longer passed over as contributing little useful insight into the problems of environmental perception. This secondary branch of environmental perception, denoted as landscape studies by one author, is complementary to the first (Brookfield 1969; Wood 1970). It is capable of providing extremely specific information about time and place, but it cannot be relied upon to do so consistently. Much depends on the recorder's ability to convey his visual impression of a landscape, on the intricacy of his portrayal, and his accuracy. Because of the great potential for variable quality, the literary studies branch or humanistically oriented environmental perception is, theoretically, even more in flux than is the branch inclined toward quantifying techniques. In fact, there is so little common theoretical ground in the body of literature dealing with literary or visual landscape expression that the subject frequently dictates the problem and the method of analysis to the scholar. Given the range of available material suitable for investigation, this situation shows little chance of changing at the present.

The purpose of this paper is relatively simple: first, to identify and note the characteristics of particular places Archibald Rutledge mentioned in his numerous discussions of Hampton plantation, and second, to record other general landscape features that cannot be pinpointed from his work. It is a task not undertaken before. Rutledge's descriptions represent the only account of the plantation's appearance in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and they are detailed and strongly evocative. Thus analyzing them is a useful project, despite the

necessarily uncomplicated methodology.

Hampton plantation is distinguished in two ways. First, it is an old site with history that extends as far back as the eighteenth century. Second, it was the home of Archibald Rutledge, first poet laureate of South Carolina and a prolific author whose works are filled with references to Hampton. For many, Rutledge's numerous short stories, poems, and books are their guide to the place and lend Hampton its special significance. It is one of those rare spots on the globe that have been given a literary life by the devoted efforts of a native son. There are many former rice plantations in the South Carolina lowcountry as old as Hampton but very few which have obtained its status as a distinct persona.

Archibald Rutledge was a fervent believer in the dictum that a writer should restrict himself to the personally familiar. He was intimately acquainted with Hampton plantation, his boyhood home and the ancestral estate of the Rutledges who had figured prominently in the early political history of the state. Though he was born in the family's summer residence in McClellanville on October 23, 1883, he spent his youth on the plantation with only short intervals in the Carolina mountains or on the coast. His chores required a detailed knowledge of the plantation's topography and geography, and his natural interest in the flora and fauna of the place led to an early appreciation of its ecology. Given the responsibilities of monitoring the stock that ranged the woodlands and of riding for the mail, he early learned his way about the property and the adjoining plantations. His father taught him to hunt, and this activity contributed further to his familiarity with the plantation's landscape features. It also made him aware of the hunter's mental map of the area with its wealth of place names. By the time he left Hampton for school in Charleston at age thirteen, he had developed more than a sense of place. He had acquired a strong love of place which intensified in the subsequent years of absence (Who's Who in America 1938-39; Who's Who in South Carolina 1934-35: 414).

After his Charleston schooling, Rutledge was immediately sent north for a college education. He received his B.A. and M.A. at Union College, N.Y. and was first employed as a journalist for a few months. He was requested to come to Mercersburg Academy in Pennsylvania for two weeks to instruct an ailing professor's classes. He replaced the professor and remained there for thirty years, eventually becoming head of the English department. He married the daughter of a colleague, had his family, and saw Hampton once a year for a week during the Christmas holidays. After his parents' deaths, he secured the title to Hampton plantation from his brother and sisters. In 1937 he retired there permanently and occupied himself by writing, landscape gardening, restoring the ancestral mansion, receiving visitors, hunting, and lecturing. He died September 15, 1973, in McClellanville, in the same house in which he was born (Bain, et al. 1979: 391-392; Rutledge 1941: 13-14).

Rutledge's literary output was prodigious. He produced several books of poetry, frequently with a strong religious emphasis, a novellette, a biography of his parents, various book-length descriptions of the Santee region, and numerous collections of his shorter pieces. The

latter, primarily short stories and articles, represent his best efforts and are far superior to his poetry. They also constitute the bulk of his work. They ranged in topic from hunting stories to nature studies to opinions on racial matters, but all were written to augment first his teaching salary and later, his pension. The timing of Rutledge's retirement coincided with the Great Depression, and he, like many others, felt the economic pinch. He was never wealthy. He faced the task of supporting both his family and restoring the family home by two tactics: living off the plantation, and writing. Rutledge successfully marketed his stories and articles to popular magazines specializing in hunting and similar traditional male outdoor activities. His subject matter was drawn from personal experience, and the boundary line between his fiction and non-fiction was very thin. Furthermore, he made repeated use of nearly every yarn he related. Some tales crop up frequently with slight change from one rendering to the next; most were retold at least twice; very few appeared just once. Such reiteration apparently did not disturb Rutledge. It seems not to have concerned his publishers either, if indeed they were aware of it. Judging by the fact that Rutledge sold his writing to a small group of publishing firms and that these necessarily saw large segments of his work, it would seem that Rutledge's repetition of material did not deter them from accepting his manuscripts. It suited both publishers and author that he keep them supplied with short stories and articles of the proper genre. They were potboilers in the strict sense of the word. Quantity was far more crucial than quality or unfailing originality. It was much easier for Rutledge to rework an old story from time to time than to attempt to produce an entirely new piece. By necessity Rutledge was primarily a commercial author.

Neither Rutledge's commercialism or his inability to write pure fiction or nonfiction affects his veracity as a source of site information. People and events may show variation from one version to the next, but landscape elements are faithfully detailed. Rutledge felt no compunction to tamper with his basic portrayal of the Santee countryside. Consequently, the settings are consistent, and only the length of description and choice of features are at issue.

One should be aware of another characteristic of Rutledge's work to fully appreciate the place of the environment in his articles and short stories. As is often the case with writers possessing a strong sense of place, the setting is another persona in the story. Rutledge saw the Santee delta area as a monument to and a reminder of a morally superior way of life. Filled with the glories of a past regime by his father, a Confederate colonel, Rutledge regarded the land's historical-mythical aura as nearly tangible. Not content to merely allude to this personal vision of the landscape, he was compelled to make it a central theme and the basis of a personal campaign to impress this image of the South on the entire nation.

The following material drawn from Rutledge's prose works is intentionally confined to sites within the boundaries of the Hampton plantation inherited by Rutledge's father. Thus only a segment of the Santee Delta region that Rutledge regarded as a distinct unit of the Carolina

lowcountry will be discussed here. Though it will not detail Rutledge's whole lowcountry cosmos, it will deal with its center.

Discrete Landscape Elements

Basic description.

Behind my home runs the Santee River. In front are wide, disheveled plantation fields, and beyond them, dense thickets of holly, myrtle, young pine, and other fragrant evergreens, in whose shelter the deer love to bed down for the day. Beyond the thickets are wide pine-lands, open, sunny and seemingly boundless. Here and there through them run along straight water courses. These "branches," as they are called, are densely grown to sweet bay and gall-berry, generally covered by a smother of smilax, jasmine, and wild-brier vines (Rutledge 1937b: 435).

There used to be about a hundred acres of cleared upland, where various crops, including indigo, were grown. Hampton was always essentially a rice-growing place. There is one three-hundred acre field, one of ninety and several smaller ones. All these are now waste marshland...Some twelve hundred acres are timberland, growing yellow pine; and several hundred are in swamp, growing black cypress, gum, tupelo and water oak (Rutledge 1941: 54).

The House.

The great house stood in a semi-circle of live oaks....Behind the house flowed the wide yellow Santee through the mighty rice-field delta; before, the fields of cotton, corn and tobacco stretched away to the pine-woods....(Rutledge 1924: 102-103).

Behind the mansion are the ruins of what were once quarters for the slaves, and stables, barns, and granaries (Rutledge 1937a: 35).

Hampton Island.

...Hampton Island. That was a desolate tract of delta land attached to the plantation. At one time it had been used for rice-planting, but had been abandoned for many years. It lies between the broad Santee and a deep, winding waterway known as Wambaw Creek (Rutledge 1918: 43).

Negro Street.

...we made our way across an old abandoned bank near the river, and so through the corn field toward a row of negro cabins standing clearly against the dark background of the pine forest. These cabins, by the way, were not such as

are now seen by tourists through the South, they were old slave houses, roomy and well-built. The lumber was heart yellow pine and swamp cypress, with a cypress shingle facing over the weather-boards, and with generous brick chimneys. And each was set in its acre of ground (Rutledge 1918: 90).

....their houses in "the street," a mile away....(Rutledge 1918: 192).

Witch Pond and Spencer's Pond.

Witch Pond is one of those sudden and spectral bodies of water that are found in the pinewood districts of South Carolina; lonely, forbidding, black-watered, and heavily grown with silent straight tupelos and weeping cypresses. This pond is about half a mile from the old plantation gateway, on the left of the road as one goes out. At this point, immediately on the right of the road, is Spencer's Pond. Originally these two had been one, but a causeway having been laid and heaped with sand, the road leading into the plantation was like an isthmus between two ponds. In time, trees and shrubs took root on the sides of the road, and through the screen of these, the passerby could see the dark waters on either side glimmering (Rutledge 1935: 23).

Pasture Woods.

This causeway (described in preceding quotation) was at the entrance to what we called the Pasture Woods, which were virgin, dense of growth and fragrant. Beyond, the great pine forest began to come into view -- airy, full of sunshine, silence, and aromatic breezes (Rutledge 1935: 23).

Beyond our fields, and to the eastward down the margins of the river, we have an ancient shrubbery, some eighty acres in extent. Here giant pines and massive live oaks tower over the dense greenery of the copses; and here both wild turkeys and deer delight to roam. When they decide to bed for the day in this "Pasture," as we call this wilderness of sweet greenery,....(Rutledge 1937b: 253).

Mainfield.

...a rich tract redeemed from the river marshes and transformed into a rice-growing area by means of clearing and draining (Rutledge 1918: 6).

The field, about ninety acres in extent, withdraws from its river frontage far into the mainland woods. The great bank shutting it off from the river is about 150 yards long. For the past thirty years there has been a big break about

forty feet wide in the middle of this bank; and through this break the yellow tides dredged, now flowing the field and now emptying it.

Coming through the pinelands on the south there is a little wood stream of clear water that enters that end of the field (Rutledge 1941:86).

Sam Hill, Negro Burying Ground, and Stables.

Sam Hill Strand, a narrow arm that extended into the pine woods (Rutledge 1918: 13).

... a peninsula of pines that jutted into the Mainfield River from the negro burying ground (Rutledge 1918: 168).

... Sam Hill, for under the great yellow pines that stood there the ground was smooth and open---crest of the gentle ridge that had been dignified by the name of "hill" (Rutledge 1918: 173).

Our course took us by the stables...then along a high ditch bank, overgrown with wild-plum bushes. This bank would lead us to the burying-ground (Rutledge 1918: 171).

General Landscape Elements

Old House Sites.

In these pinelands there formerly were many homesteads, now not only deserted but so completely disappeared that their sites are marked by nothing but a few live oaks that seem memorial (Rutledge 1941: 153).

Tar Kilns.

Behind me was one of those ancient tar-kilns, used more than a century ago, but now resembling a low Indian mound. They are common in the Southern pinelands; I have long been convinced that deer recognize these landmarks and steer their courses by them. I hardly know a tar-kiln that is not a good deer stand (Rutledge 1946: 102).

Lumbering Operations.

Thirty years ago there was a heavy lumber operation in my woods. All the debris has now disappeared except the solid hearts of the huge old yellow pines that were cut (Rutledge 1947: 24).

Plantation Corners.

Not far from the peanut-field there is a plantation corner.

Now, most plantation corners are graveyards; that is, cemeteries of the old days where negro slaves were buried...Such a place is the wildest wilderness (Rutledge 1921: 117).

Moonshine Stills.

During the time of the noble experiment of prohibition, I suppose there were no region of all North American more favorable to the illicit distiller than the Santee delta. During my periodic visits in those days, I used to be able to stand on the back porch of my plantation house and hear the intriguingly unlawful sounds of stills being built in those marshy wastelands bordering the river. To make a good still, a man must have a firm foundation (not moral); wherefore these elusive gentry used to visit by night the once stately homes and from their ruins steal the fine old English bricks for their modern illegal purposes. Today, if I want massive and historic bricks, all I have to do is paddle in my boat the the sites of these abandoned stills (Rutledge 1941:20).

An inventory of particular places and specified but unlocated landscape features as appears above is essential to the analysis of an author's perception of the landscape he utilizes in his work. It serves to catalog sites discussed and conversely it highlights any omissions. After studying such an inventory, it is possible to make some general points about a writer's powers of observation, ability as a reporter, and extent and nature of personal attachment to a locality. Rutledge had a keen eye for detail. Thus his descriptions are usually fully stated. Very little in the landscape escaped his attention, and all he was familiar with was eligible for comment. A glance at the preceding inventory reveals the wide range of distinct landscape elements and associated activities that caught Rutledge's notice and interest. Rutledge found the Santee delta region endlessly fascinating because of the great variety of topography and biological activity it encompassed. Thirty years of exile in the Northeast only intensified his devotion to Hampton plantation. These years of absence from home in the prime of Rutledge's life certainly exercised a strong influence over his portrayal of Hampton. Most of his literary output occurred during that time, a fact that makes it clear that Rutledge capitalized on his nostalgia for subject matter. On one occasion he succinctly summarized his feelings for Hampton.

After my boyhood years crowded with adventure and happiness, I began to have -- sensing that the end of my old life was near -- a feeling of adoration for Hampton House. Every time I came in the gate, my heart beat faster to see, across the wide pasture lands, happy in the light of morning or of noonday or of the setting sun, or gleaming in the orchid-glow of moon and stars, the white pillars, the glimmering windows, the great chimneys spouting smoke. The old home began to seem like a human heart, -- generous,

understanding, unchanged by the years, wistful and thoughtful. I began to feel that it is a terrible thing to love a place -- if one must leave it. Nor did the weeping beauty of Hampton's woodland setting make the thought of parting any easier.

I was to leave my family circle and go away to school, then to college. I was to leave Gabriel and Prince and Martha. The fields and woods I loved I was to desert. Was it well? The dogs and the horses and the cattle -- these that had been my care -- I was to leave these too. The sweet bays, the wood-violets; the pines and the cypresses and the hollies -- these I was going to abandon. But my loyalty to all these was attested by the consciousness that they would always be kept beautiful in my heart (Rutledge 1935: 251-252).

Though a minor author unknown outside of the South, Rutledge and his literary efforts have value to students of environmental perception. His writings are rich in landscape depiction. In the majority of his short stories and articles, the setting is a principal persona. Often it seems that the setting was the story element dearest to the author. Consequently, his work is capable of yielding an unusually complete picture of a specific locality through a short period of time. As David Meinig noted:

...a fair sampling of the creative literature on communities and localities would certainly suggest that the skillful novelist often seems to come closest of all in capturing the full flavor of the environment. His sensitivity to a scene, to the seasons, to the special qualities of life in a particular locality are often vividly evocative (Meinig 1971: 4).

Though it is highly doubtful that Meinig ever heard of Archibald Rutledge, this statement could have been written with him in mind.

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