An aerial photograph of the Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Project. A long, dark dam spans across a wide river, creating a large reservoir. The water is a deep blue-green color, with some green algae or aquatic plants visible in the shallower areas. The surrounding landscape is lush with green trees and vegetation. In the foreground, a grassy hillside features several tall, silver metal transmission towers for power lines. The sky is not visible, as the image is focused on the ground and water.

Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Project

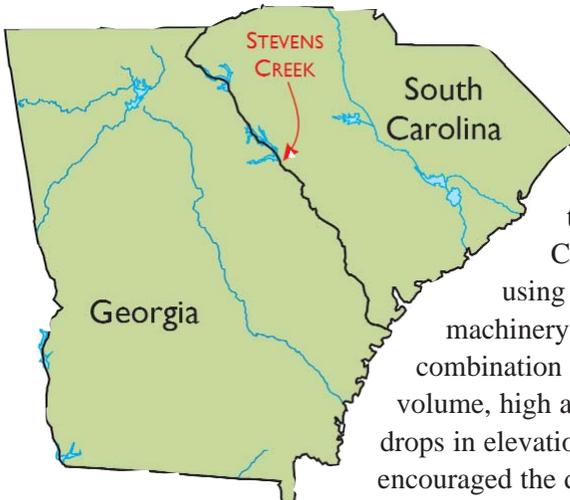
Significant Historic and Archaeological Resources

INTRODUCTION: HYDROELECTRIC POWER AND STEVENS CREEK

The Stevens Creek Hydroelectric plant is situated in an area that has long been an important source of waterpower. Over the last 12,000 years the Savannah River and Stevens Creek have served as major transportation routes. Native Americans and European colonists used these large watercourses to move from one place to another, since they provided the easiest access inland from the Atlantic Ocean. Native Americans set their campsites on uplands (or terraces) overlooking rivers and streams, or on floodplains. The waterways supplied many basic needs, including water for drinking, washing, and cooking. They also served as a magnet for many of the animals that Native Americans relied on for food.



The Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Facility.



By the middle of the eighteenth century, the primary energy demands on the river had evolved from subsistence to manufacturing. During the Colonial period, the practice of using falling water to operate machinery was widespread. The combination of large rivers with high water volume, high annual rainfall totals, and sharp drops in elevation over short distances encouraged the development of this natural energy resource. Early industrial activity consisted

of small, isolated mills (such as gristmills or sawmills) run by individual families.

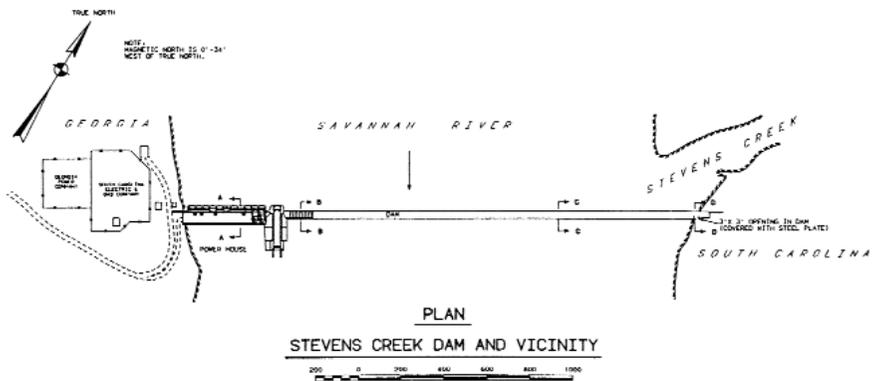
The large-scale use of water to power industrial activities began in the 1820s. During this era, independent companies used waterpower in a complex system of dams (to store or impound the water), canals (to direct the impounded water), and water wheels (to provide the energy to run the machines). The water wheels could only handle impoundments with a water height of 15 to 17 feet—these were characterized as having a low head. The subsequent invention of devices such as impulse wheels and turbines made it possible to use higher heads and resulted in an increase in the amount of power generated. These developments set the groundwork for the hydroelectric industry.

Waterpower was first harnessed to generate electricity in the late 1800s. Hydroelectricity aided industrial development by supplying electric current to textile factories, railroads, wood pulp and paper processing factories, and mining operations. By the beginning of the twentieth century, hydroelectric facilities were generating power to run trolleys and illuminate street lights, and to supply electricity for stores and houses. From the 1930s through World War II, hydroelectric plants provided most of the electricity generated in the Southeast. By 1940 over one-third of all electrical power generated in the United States came from hydroelectric facilities.

The Stevens Creek project is one of six reservoirs on the main stem of the Savannah River. Three United States Army Corps of Engineers dams are located upstream of Stevens Creek: Hartwell, Richard B. Russell, and J. Strom Thurmond. Thurmond is the closest dam upstream of Stevens Creek, located roughly 13 miles to the north. Downstream of Stevens Creek are the Augusta Canal Diversion Dam (located about one mile downstream), and the New Savannah Bluff Lock and Dam downstream of the City of Augusta. Although originally constructed solely to generate electricity, the Stevens Creek facility now functions as a re-regulating plant to mitigate the downstream effects of the wide-ranging discharges from the J. Strom Thurmond Dam. Normal daily fluctuations in the water level of the Stevens Creek Reservoir are between three and five feet. As part of its role to control the effects of the Thurmond Dam, Stevens Creek can still produce hydroelectricity. The Stevens Creek facility, as completed in 1925 with the addition of three more turbine-generator units, continues to provide a yearly average of 94 gigawatt-hours of electricity.

STEVENS CREEK AND CULTURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The Stevens Creek dam creates an impoundment, which includes a 12-mile stretch along the Savannah River, and an 8-mile stretch of Stevens Creek. This impoundment consists of approximately 2,400 acres, with the dam and generating plant located approximately eight miles north of Augusta, Georgia.



This territory is part of a region known as the Middle Savannah River Valley, and is situated on the Fall Line, or in the Fall Zone, area of South Carolina and Georgia. The Fall Zone runs across both states, dividing the Piedmont and Coastal Plain physiographic provinces, and is the first location inland from the Atlantic Ocean where sets of rock rapids occur in river channels.

In 1995, the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) issued a new license to South Carolina Electric & Gas (SCE&G) for continued operation of the Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Project. As part of the relicensing process, FERC required SCE&G to identify and evaluate all historic properties within the Stevens Creek project area for eligibility for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places.

While several laws relating to archaeological remains and architectural properties existed before 1960, it was the 1966 National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) that greatly expanded the federal role in historic preservation. The law provided for a variety of governmental preservation functions, including the establishment of the National Register of Historic Places. The NHPA

created the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (Council) and State Historic Preservation Officers (SHPOs). The act also set up a process requiring federal agencies to consider what effects their actions would have on historic properties. A historic property is "any prehistoric or historic district, site, building, structure, or object included in, or eligible for inclusion in, the National Register [of Historic Places]" (36 CFR 800.16(1)).

The NHPA requires federal agencies to balance historic preservation with other public interests. Section 106 of the act is the driving force for most of the federal historic preservation program. It initiated a systematic review process for dealing with historic properties within a federal agency's limit of authority. Most federal agency actions, including those such as issuing operating licenses, are subject to this review process.

In 1991, a professional historian studied the buildings and structures in the Stevens Creek project area, which were found to consist solely of the



Archaeologists at work.

hydroelectric generating plant. From 1991 to 1995, professional archaeologists conducted investigations in both the upland and floodplain portions of the Stevens Creek project area. The archaeologists used a phased approach, with the first phase of investigation designed to define areas disturbed by the plant operation and to locate archaeological sites. The second phase of investigation was a more intensive study to evaluate whether any of the identified archaeological sites were eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

When an archaeological site is identified, it is given a site number, for example, 38ED48. The first number (38) represents the numerical designation for the state of South Carolina (the numerical designation for the state of Georgia is 9), the two letters (ED) stand for Edgefield County, and the last number (48) indicates that this is the forty-eighth archaeological site recorded in Edgefield County. Sometimes archaeological sites are given a name, such as the Stallings Island Site or the Ed Marshall Site, often referring to nearby watercourses or other prominent identifying features, or to the name of the property owner.

STEVENS CREEK PREHISTORIC SITES

The archaeological investigations at Stevens Creek recorded information from 52 prehistoric sites in floodplain and upland areas of the Savannah River watershed. This portion of the river is an ecologically diverse territory, which would have made it attractive to prehistoric people. The rocks and shoals found in the area would have created a natural ford for crossing the river.

Archaeologists divide Georgia and South Carolina's cultural history into five periods: Paleoindian, Archaic, Woodland, Mississippian, and Early Historic (which includes the Contact period). The Archaic and Woodland periods are further divided into Early, Middle, and Late subperiods. These divisions suggest the changes that took place in prehistoric Native American technology (such as that associated with tool manufacture and types of tools used) and changes in social organization or how groups of people organized themselves during a particular time (for example, evolving from small bands of roaming or nomadic hunters to a relatively sedentary way of life in large permanent villages). These changes can be related to the changing natural environment of the southeastern United States since the end of the last glaciation, which has been dated to approximately 14,000 years ago.

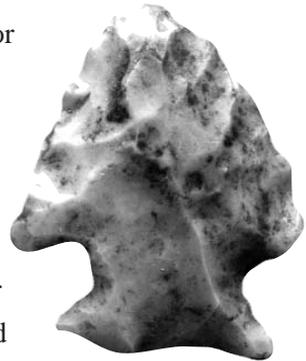
Archaeologists use a timeline to order information about prehistoric people. When new information is revealed, refinements are made to the classification scheme. The discussion below outlines the prehistoric periods and the distinguishing traits of each period, as well as the number of sites identified from each period found during the Stevens Creek investigations. Sometimes an individual site will have more than one component (an occupation during a discrete, specific time period).

Paleoindian Period (10,000 to 8000 BC)

Paleoindians represent the first known human populations to occupy the region. These populations were organized into small nomadic or seminomadic bands which subsisted on generalized hunting and the collection of wild foods. Large animals (such as bison, camelids, and mastodon) would have formed part of their diet, although smaller animals such as deer, elk, and moose were probably also hunted. Tools of the period provide evidence of the importance of hunting among Paleoindians, and include projectile points (arrowheads or spearpoints), knives, scrapers, and graters. The characteristic artifact of this period is the fluted projectile point. Two sites were identified as having a Paleoindian component.

Early Archaic Period (8000 to 7000 BC)

As the southeastern climate became warmer, Archaic peoples developed a diversified diet focusing on seasonal hunting, fishing, and collecting of wild plant foods. As a result there was population growth and a gradual development of trade and exchange networks and more complex societies. Native Americans still lived in nomadic or seminomadic bands; the number and types of sites suggest an increase in population. Tools made during this period came from several different kinds of stone, and in more elaborate forms. An identifying characteristic of the Early Archaic is the hunting of smaller animals. Diagnostic artifact types of the period include several styles of notched projectile points and a type of side-notched tool called an Edgefield scraper. Three sites showed evidence of an Early Archaic component.



Early Archaic projectile point recovered from Site 9CB132.

Middle Archaic Period (7000 to 3000 BC)

Native populations continued to increase during the Middle Archaic period. They began to make stemmed projectile points, and most of their stone tools were made of quartz. Fewer types of lithic raw material were used to make tools, and locally available quartz was the most commonly chosen variety. Middle Archaic populations expanded their settlement ranges, but within specific regions, and exploited more diverse natural resources. It is during this period that differences in artifacts are first noticed between sites located in

Piedmont and Coastal Plain physiographic areas. These differences reflect the fact that separate groups lived in each region and/or that access to specific types of resources was controlled. Twelve sites have a Middle Archaic component.

Late Archaic Period (3000 to 1000 BC)

The Late Archaic period is distinguished by increasing population, group size, complexity of social organization, and sedentism, and shows the first evidence of tribal organization, claims to particular territory by groups, long-distance trade networks, and ceremonial human burial practices. Late Archaic people lived in large residential sites and in smaller dispersed campsites, depending on the season of the year. The first evidence of structures appears at sites, and aquatic resources made up a significant proportion of the diet. Native Americans were using grasses, chenopodium, sumpweed, squash, gourds, and sunflowers by 2500 BC, which suggests the beginning of horticulture. However, domestic crops did not compose a major part of the diet for another 2,000 years. Diagnostic artifacts of this period include broad-bladed stemmed bifaces (tools with stone chipped away on both sides), fiber-tempered pottery, and soapstone slabs. Grooved groundstone axes and grinding basins are also common. Geographic differences continue, and are most evident in the area of cooking technology. People living in the Piedmont and Fall Zone favored soapstone for cooking, while those on the Coastal Plain preferred fiber-tempered pottery. The investigations identified 13 sites with a Late Archaic component.

Woodland Period (1000 BC to AD 1000)

Beginning in the Woodland period, populations continued a mixed hunting and gathering subsistence strategy. Late in the period, semipermanent to permanent villages were established in riverine settings. The use of ceramic pottery became widespread for storage and cooking. Archaeologists use different ceramic varieties to divide the Woodland period into three subperiods: Early Woodland (1000 BC to AD 1), Middle Woodland (AD 1 to AD 500), and Late Woodland (AD 500 to 1000).



Deptford Check Stamped ceramic sherds recovered from Site 9CB132.

Additional traits distinguish the Early Woodland from the Late Archaic: ceramic pottery replaced soapstone vessels; small-stemmed and large triangular projectile points (indicating the introduction of bow and arrow technology), soapstone pipes, bar gorgets, mortars, and manos occur; and shellfish, while still forming part of the diet, was not used in as great quantity as during the Late Archaic. The major change in social organization was the appearance of small village sites. Five sites were identified with an Early Woodland component, while four contain a Middle Woodland component and five a Late Woodland component.

Mississippian Period (AD 1000 to 1540)

The Mississippian period represents the high point for Native American population and society. Classic Mississippian period sites show evidence of



large villages situated on floodplains, as well as earthen mound centers where chiefdom leaders lived, evidence of social classes, and an economy based on agriculture. Their distinctive ceramics are embellished with elaborate decorative motifs and rim treatments. Five sites were identified with a Mississippian component.

Complicated Stamped ceramic sherds from Site 9CB132.

Early Historic Period (AD 1540 to 1730)

This period extends chronologically from the Mississippian, through initial contact between Native Americans and Europeans, up to the Colonial period. The Middle Savannah River Valley appears to have been abandoned by tribes for most of the 1600s; however, from 1670 to 1700 five tribes (Westoes, Shawnees, Yamassees, Apalachicolas, and Apalachees) migrated into the region. Trade between the Westoes and the English continued until the early 1680s, when mutual suspicion led to the Westo War. By 1683, the Westoes had been defeated, and they moved westward to the Ocmulgee River in Georgia. This was not the only instance of war between Native Americans and the English. Abuses by English traders led to the outbreak of the Yamassee War (1715-1727). As a result of this conflict, all four tribes left the area. Two other

tribes—the Chickasaws and the Yuchis—moved into the unsettled territory, but over the next 50 years natural disasters, disease, and warfare with neighboring tribes reduced them in number. No tribe remained in the area after the American Revolution. The most dramatic change to the Native American material culture occurred during this period, when European trade goods, such as metal tools, glass beads, muskets, and gunpowder, were introduced. The Native Americans preferred these new items to those produced by their own technology, and became dependent on European firearms and ammunition for hunting and warfare. One site was identified with an Early Historic component.

THE SITES

Ten of the 52 prehistoric archaeological sites in the Stevens Creek project area on which archaeologists conducted intensive excavations were determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Most of these sites are located on private land (6 sites) and/or federal or state property (also 6 sites). None of the locations on private property can be visited without permission from the landowner. A brief summary of the information gained from each of these sites follows.

Site 9CB1

Various archaeological excavations have been conducted at Site 9CB1 over the last 130 years, longer than any other site within the Stevens Creek project area. Late Archaic through Early Historic components were identified at the site. The site contains a large freshwater shell mound with a high density of artifacts. Lithic and bone items were uncovered as deep as 8 feet below the ground surface. Charles C. Jones, Jr. wrote the first site excavation report in 1873. In 1931, the Peabody Museum published the results of the most extensive fieldwork at the site, which was conducted intermittently from 1908 to 1925. Many storage pits, hearths, and human burials were documented in this work. Since 1930, periodic scientific excavations have been conducted at the site. The most significant component is the Late Archaic, represented by the many features described in the Peabody Museum's report which illustrate a long-term use of the site.

Site 9CB1 has long been recognized as the location which served as the center of Late Archaic society in the Middle Savannah River Valley, and some of the

earliest pottery in North America has been identified at this site. The site was designated a National Historic Landmark in 1961. The site is on private property owned by the Archaeological Conservancy, and access is restricted.

Site 9CB132

Prehistoric components evident at Site 9CB132, which was identified during the Stevens Creek investigations, are continuous from the Early Archaic through the Mississippian. More than 1,600 prehistoric artifacts were found, including lithic debitage (the waste material left over from manufacturing or resharpening stone tools) and pottery sherds. Projectile points and point fragments, lithic tools, ground steatite bowl fragments, a perforated ground steatite slab (possible netsinker), and a hafted hammerstone were also recovered during the investigation.

Archaeologists studied the distribution of artifacts across the site to identify areas of activity that could relate to specific occupations. While the discovery of Early Archaic and Woodland period projectile points, Late Archaic to Mississippian pottery, and Late Archaic steatite implements (bowls, perforated slabs) suggests the presence of various components, assessments regarding site function during these periods were not possible. Although plowing has caused some destruction of the prehistoric deposits, the range of activities exhibited at the site, the presence of a possible prehistoric midden deposit, and the quantity of floral and faunal materials suggest that Site 9CB132 could yield additional information regarding patterns of land use and subsistence, pottery production



Hafted hammerstone from Site 9CB132.

and use, and lithic procurement and processing strategies. Similarly, this site has the potential to contribute to the study of regional predictive models because it contains intact deposits and dates over a long time span. The site is on private property and is not accessible to the general public.

Site 9CB197

This revisited, short-term (temporary) resource procurement encampment was identified as part of the Stevens Creek archaeological fieldwork. Site 9CB197 was occupied briefly during the Middle Archaic and Late Archaic periods. In addition, a single nondiagnostic pottery sherd found at the site suggests that some Woodland-era people used the campsite as well. Most of the artifacts were found in soils that plowing had disturbed, but many artifacts were recovered from undisturbed portions of the site, including an area with a high density of material. This is important to archaeologists because a concentrated scatter of lithic material within intact soil deposits is rare in the region. Future researchers could use the data collected to conduct more in-depth analyses on site functions and/or tool production activities. The types of artifacts, including lithic tools and steatite fragments, uncovered at this site are identical to those found at Site 9CB132. The site is on private property and is not accessible to the general public.

Site 38ED5

This location was first described as a shell midden site in the Peabody Museum's 1931 report on Site 9CB1. The site was relocated during the 1991 archaeological fieldwork. In 1995, the Savannah River Archaeological Research Program (SRARP) directed a large-scale excavation at Site 38ED5 that revealed over 30 features and a clay floor from a structure. Before the SRARP project, no clay floor from a Late Archaic structure had been documented in the United States since 1950! To aid in dating the site, radiocarbon samples were collected from five separate features, and the results showed that two different groups had inhabited the site in the Late Archaic period. Artifacts found include pottery, soapstone slabs, fire-cracked rock, stemmed projectile points, and animal bones. The site is on private property and is not accessible to the general public.

Site 38ED9

Artifacts from the entire span of prehistory have been retrieved from Site 38ED9. This shell midden was also first recorded in 1931 as part of the Peabody Museum's work in the area. The site is located in the Sumter National Forest. United States Forest Service (USFS) archaeologists began work at the site in 1983 because of reports of looting. Despite the looting disturbance, many lithic artifacts were observed. Also, animal bones and features at the site were well preserved. The USFS funded the SRARP to carry out further excavations

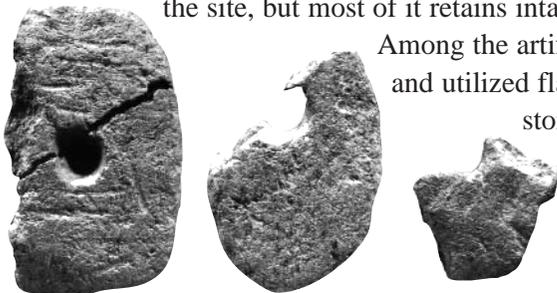
in 1992. More than two dozen features (refuse-filled pits, postholes, rock clusters, and a hearth) were found. Most of the identified features (including two human burials) date to the Late Archaic period; however, a rare Middle Archaic human burial was also discovered. The collective archaeological evidence suggests that the Late Archaic component at the site may predate Site 9CB1.

Site 38ED48

Located mostly in the Sumter National Forest and partly on private property, Site 38ED48 represents a resource acquisition encampment, and was initially recorded in 1980 by the USFS. During the Stevens Creek investigations, archaeologists found several types of raw material represented in the debitage collected. The lithic varieties included quartz, rhyolite, chert, and jasper. More than 100 pottery sherds were also unearthed. Despite having been plowed, Site 38ED48 is a significant location because many of its artifacts (including a Mississippian projectile point) came from undisturbed soil. The recovery of a late Paleoindian projectile point from the plowzone raises the possibility of an intact Paleoindian component at the site. Undisturbed deposits from this early period of North American prehistory are rare, so the possibility of such a deposit enhances this site's importance.

Site 38ED118

The USFS identified this transient resource acquisition campsite in 1984 on land that is part of the Sumter National Forest. Archaeological fieldwork associated with the Stevens Creek project revealed that Site 38ED118 had short-term occupations during the Early Archaic, Late Archaic, and Early Mississippian periods. Plowing, looting, and erosion have disturbed portions of the site, but most of it retains intact archaeological deposits.



Among the artifacts recovered were retouched and utilized flakes, which are called expedient stone tools. These tools are made when a flake is struck from a stone core or biface and is used for an immediate purpose, such as cutting and scraping tasks. Once the task is completed, the tool is thrown away. Another

Late Archaic Perforated Soapstone Slabs.

important discovery was a refuse pit that contained several artifacts, including animal bones and a ground steatite fragment that was possibly used as a cooking stone. The presence of a steatite fragment suggests that the pit dates from the Late Archaic period.

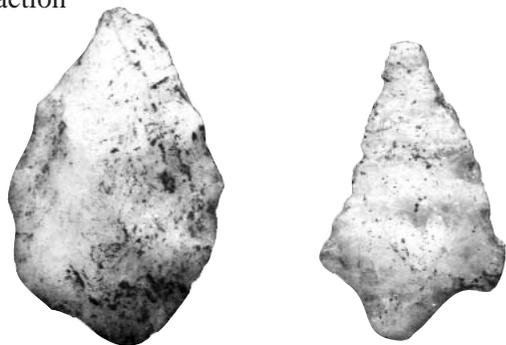
Site 38ED119/283

Sometimes when recording a site, the archaeologist describes the location vaguely. A second archaeologist conducts some fieldwork in the same vicinity, records another site, and places it on a map. Subsequent research by a third archaeologist revisits the results from previous excavations and discovers that these two sites are in reality the same site! In this case, the individual site numbers are combined and are separated by a backslash, such as Site 38ED119/283. This is one reason professional archaeologists are trained to keep detailed notes.

Site 38ED119/283 is a Middle Archaic short-term resource acquisition encampment, which appears to have been reinhabited at some later period. The majority of the prehistoric artifacts came from undisturbed soil. While the density and variety of artifacts found are not high, this site can provide information about the function of small limited-activity sites and how such locations were associated with other more intensively used sites. Archaeologists have researched only a few locations similar to Site 38ED119/283. The site is located in the Sumter National Forest.

Site 38ED441

Located in an upland setting, partly on private property and in the Sumter National Forest, this resource extraction campsite was recorded during the Stevens Creek archaeological investigations. Site 38ED441 is important to archaeologists because it contains a high-quantity lithic scatter in undisturbed soils that offers the potential to conduct in-depth analyses on site functions and/or tool production activities. Another factor



Quartz Morrow Mountain Projectile Points.

contributing to the significance of the site is the presence of a buried living surface that dates to the Middle Archaic period. The recovery of fire-cracked rocks implies that the site was occupied for some length of time. Several types of prehistoric tools were unearthed, including cores, bifaces, projectile points, retouched flakes, a utilized flake, and a hammerstone.

Site 38MC811

Identified during the Stevens Creek archaeological investigations, Site 38MC811 is interpreted as a Middle Archaic, lithic resource procurement campsite. Although the distribution and overall density of artifacts across the site are low, the central section of the site contained a high artifact concentration. This area would have been the focal point of activity. The main function of the site revolved around the initial stage of stone tool manufacturing, although evidence of some secondary flaking and tool maintenance (resharpening) is also present. The site is important because it represents a particular time period, and may provide details about a type of activity and/or environmental setting that was specific to Middle Archaic groups. The site is on land owned by the South Carolina Department of Natural Resources.

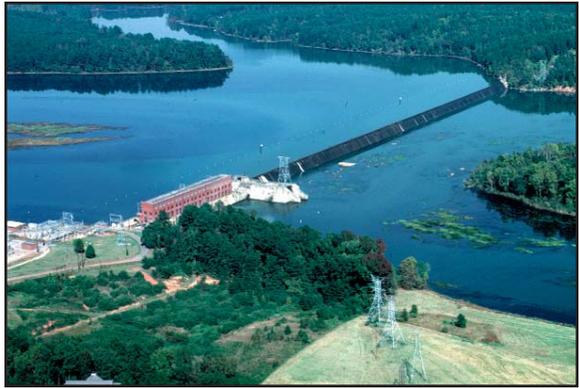
HISTORIC PERIOD CULTURAL RESOURCES AT STEVENS CREEK

Very few historic resources dating from the Colonial period to the present were identified at Stevens Creek. The main reasons for this are the continual rural setting (with an economy based on agriculture) and the narrow width of the Stevens Creek project area. Farmsteads would have been situated on level hilltops set back from the waterways, but outside the study area. In addition, no battles or skirmishes took place near Stevens Creek during either the American Revolution or the Civil War.

Only five historic archaeological sites or sites containing a historic component were found. In addition, the single architectural property identified was the Stevens Creek hydroelectric generating plant itself. Of these, only the Stevens Creek plant was determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places and will be further discussed. The plant provides information about the industrial activity along this area of the Savannah River. The plant is on SCE&G property and is not open to the general public.

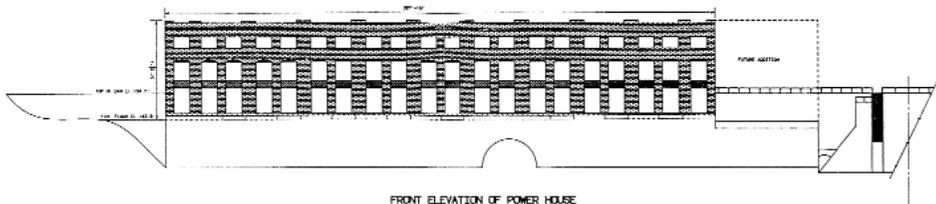
Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Plant

The industrial expansion of the city of Augusta encouraged the hydroelectric development of the Savannah River. The Georgia-Carolina Power Company built the Stevens Creek hydroelectric facility between 1912 and 1914, and it was the first facility of its kind built on the Savannah River. When the project was completed, local newspapers hailed it as the most advanced engineering feat of its kind in the Southeast. All the major mechanical components of the original five units (including the generators), the dam, and the powerhouse that are in operation today date to the original construction of the plant.



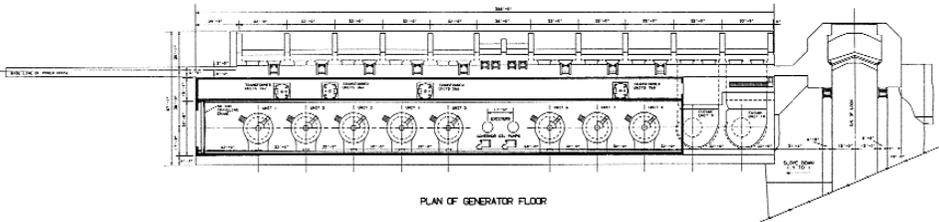
Aerial View of the Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Facility.

The plant consists of a dam, which impounds water in a pool or reservoir behind it, and a powerhouse, where electricity is generated. The Stevens Creek dam has a 2,000-foot spillway. At one end of the spillway is a lock, 90 feet wide and 165 feet long, that was actively used until the 1950s to allow passage of barges and boats. The three-level powerhouse has a concrete substructure, or foundation, containing the plant's water wheels.



Each wheel is connected to a generator mounted on the floor of the steel-framed, brick-covered superstructure. The mechanical power produced by the water wheels turns the generators to produce electricity. The powerhouse measures roughly 328 feet long, 52 feet wide, and 57 feet high; the foundation

is larger than the structure, to house two additional future turbines. A set of transformers steps up the low voltage produced by the generators to a higher voltage suitable for long-distance transmission.



LOOTING AND VANDALISM OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

While Augusta has undergone a construction boom over the last 20 years, the rural setting remains in most of the Stevens Creek area. The preservation of the rural setting in this area has enabled one type of activity to go largely undetected—the destruction of archaeological sites. This destruction is caused by people who dig up artifacts to sell them and by others who dig them up for their collections (looting). Vandalism is the senseless or purposeful destruction of archaeological remains, whether or not artifacts are collected. Vandals are sometimes unaware that such action causes a valuable loss of information about the region's past, and the professional archaeological community has stepped up its effort to educate the public about our priceless heritage.



Looted archaeological site. Note the screen used to sift through the soil that was left by looters.

Looting or vandalism of archaeological sites is illegal on public property. Near the Stevens Creek Hydroelectric Project, several sites are located on federal (USFS) or state (South Carolina Department of Natural Resources) land. Section 6 of the Archaeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 (Public Law 96-95) states that

a person convicted of looting or vandalizing an archaeological site can be fined up to \$10,000 and/or imprisoned for up to a year for a first offense, with a second offense carrying maximum penalties of a \$100,000 fine and/or five years in jail. In addition, collecting artifacts on privately held property (whether on the ground surface or by digging) is considered trespassing.

Archaeological sites are nonrenewable resources—once the material is dug up, the site is destroyed and lost forever. Professional archaeologists record their observations, down to the smallest of details, because of the destructive nature of archaeological excavation. While we can continue to generate hydroelectric power from the constantly flowing Savannah River, we can never recreate the archaeological context of a Late Archaic projectile point or Middle Woodland vessel once it has been destroyed by looting or vandalism.



The most important information is not what an artifact is, but where an artifact is found. The artifact's location, and what it is found in association with, helps the archaeologist learn about the activities at a site and when it was occupied. This information, when combined

with the study of the artifacts themselves (the shape, style, and decoration of projectile points and pottery), provides valuable clues that the archaeologist uses to determine when a site (or a portion of a site) was inhabited.

Sometimes Native Americans visited sites more than once, and they may have used a site for different purposes. Such detailed information can be acquired only if the archaeologist can study the artifacts and their context from a site that looting and vandalism have not disturbed.



If the site has not been disturbed, the archaeologist can learn a great deal from the recovery of identifiable artifacts from different soil depths or from different activity areas across the site. The artifacts recovered from varying soil depths can illustrate changes through time in how people lived and worked.

To assure that their research is as thorough as possible, archaeologists take detailed notes about where the artifacts came from, both horizontally and vertically. Taking photographs and preparing measured drawings and maps during fieldwork are standard practice used by archaeologists worldwide. Not only does all this record-keeping follow sound scientific practice, but it is the only way for the archaeologist to recreate the site through maps and drawings.

The unique nature of archaeological sites in their individual settings is one reason it is important to have a trained professional directing any excavation. The professional archaeologist has a grasp of the various ingredients that constitute an archaeological site, much as a chemist understands the chemical ingredients for particular formulas—any misunderstanding of the ingredients could lead to a very explosive and damaging situation!

Unfortunately, construction, farming, looting, and vandalism have disturbed some of the archaeological sites within the Stevens Creek project area and its vicinity. The Stallings Island Site (9CB1) has been particularly hard hit partly because it has been known to looters for well over 100 years. The Ed Marshall Site (38ED5) and the Mims Point Site (38ED9) have also suffered from large-scale looting. Before the looting, these sites represented valuable archaeological resources because they contained undisturbed, artifact-bearing deposits from the Late Archaic period. These sites had the potential to provide key pieces of information about community structure, the functions and activities carried out at individual sites, and what food sources the people used. While these sites retain some information for the archaeologist to study, the damage from looting has made the job more difficult. Unfortunately, Sites 9CB14, 9CB25, and 38ED118 have also been looted.

Our archaeological heritage is collective—it belongs to all of us. Our knowledge and understanding of the past is increased and our future is enriched through the scientific study of this heritage. We encourage you to explore the volunteer opportunities in your region, and experience the challenges

archaeology has to offer. To learn more about the various topics presented here, please review the information provided below.

LEARN MORE ABOUT—

Legislation Protecting Cultural Resources

King, Thomas F.

1998 *Cultural Resource Laws and Practice: An Introductory Guide*. Altamira Press, Walnut Creek, California.

Carnett, Carol

1995 *A Survey of State Statutes Protecting Archeological Resources*. Archeological Assistance Study Number 3. National Trust for Historic Preservation, Washington, D.C.

Hunt, Sherry, Elwood W. Jones, and Martin E. McAllister

1992 *Archeological Resource Protection*. The Preservation Press, National Trust for Historic Preservation, Washington, D.C.

Savannah River Archaeology

For further reading about the scientific contributions of various archaeological sites along the Savannah River, please consult the following list of publications.

Anderson, David G.

1994 *The Savannah River Chiefdoms*. The University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

Anderson, David G., and Kenneth E. Sassaman (editors)

1996 *The Paleoindian and Early Archaic Southeast*. The University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

Claflin, William H., Jr.

1931 *The Stallings Island Mound, Columbia County, Georgia*. Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology Papers, vol. 14, no. 1. Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Jones, Charles C., Jr.

1873 *Antiquities of the Southern Indians, Particularly of the Georgia Tribes*. D. Appleton and Company, New York.

Kane, Sharon, and Richard Keeton

- 1993 *Beneath These Waters: Archeological and Historical Studies of 11,500 Years Along the Savannah River*. Funded by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Savannah District. Administered by the Interagency Archeological Services Division, National Park Service, Atlanta, Georgia.

Sassaman, Kenneth E.

- 1993 *Early Pottery in the Southeast: Tradition and Innovation in Cooking Technology*. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

To learn more about how the destruction of archaeological sites has compromised our knowledge of the past, please consult the following sources:

Anderson, David G., and Virginia Horak (editors)

- 1993 *Site Destruction in Georgia and the Carolinas*. Readings in Archeological Resource Protection Series Number 2. Interagency Archeological Services Division, National Park Service, Atlanta, Georgia.

Ehrenhard, John E. (editor)

- 1990 *Coping with Site Looting: Southeastern Perspectives*. Readings in Archeological Resource Protection Series Number 1. Interagency Archeological Services Division, National Park Service, Atlanta, Georgia.

Messenger, Phyllis Mauch (editor)

- 1989 *The Ethics of Collecting Cultural Property: Whose Culture? Whose Property?* University of New Mexico Press, Albuquerque.

Smith, K.C., and John E. Ehrenhard (editors)

- 1991 *Protecting the Past*. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida.

To learn more about how to become educated on protecting archaeological sites and how to educate children about archaeology, please consult the following sources:

Hawkins, Nancy, Stanley South, Tommy Charles, and Margaret Walden

- 1989 *Can You Dig It? A Classroom Guide to South Carolina Archaeology*. South Carolina Department of Education and the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, Columbia.

Smith, K.C., and Francis P. McManamon (editors)

- 1991 *Archeology and Education: The Classroom and Beyond*. Archeological Assistance Study Number 2. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

The Society for Georgia Archaeology

1992 Used Archaeology: Practical Classroom Ideas for Teachers, by Teachers. *Early Georgia* 20:1.

Internet Web Sites

For further information about archaeology in general for the states of Georgia and South Carolina, please consult the following web sites on the Internet. This list is only the beginning of many pages devoted to archaeology, and is intended to provide a guide for people to continue their on-line searches for more specific topics.

Society for Georgia Archaeology

<<http://www.westga.edu/~gaarc/>>

Among this web site's many features is a list of archaeology sites open to the public. The list has a short summary about each site and where to call or write to obtain more information.

Council of South Carolina Professional Archaeologists

<<http://www.midnet.sc.edu/coscapa/cosapa.htm>>

This web page outlines activities of the organization, efforts to synthesize prehistoric and historical archaeology of South Carolina, recent workshops sponsored by the organization, and how to get a public brochure about archaeology and historic preservation.

South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology

<<http://www.cla.sc.edu/sciaa/sciaa.html>>

The home page offers a variety of information about the organization itself, readings in archaeology, a list of archaeological contractors who work in the state, and links to other archaeology sites.

Archaeological Society of South Carolina, Inc.

<<http://anthro.org/asscinc.htm>>

Information on the society's activities, publications, and how interested citizens can become members are found at this web site.

National Park Service Southeast Archeological Center

<<http://www.cr.nps.gov/seac/seac.htm>>

This extremely detailed web site has information on recent Park Service fieldwork, site stabilization and protection projects, collections management, data management, and several varieties of publications.

The Society for American Archaeology

<<http://www.saa.org>>

One feature of this web page is a section devoted to public education and educational resources. Also present at this site is general information about archaeology.

The Society for Historical Archaeology

<<http://www.sha.org>>

A special section designed for children is listed in this web site. Also present is information on how to get copies of a brochure, *Mapping Out a Career in Historical Archaeology*, which is designed for middle school students.

GLOSSARY

activity area: a place or location, within an archaeological site, that preserves the remains of a particular task or tasks, such as stone tool making.

archaeology: the scientific study of past cultures through their physical remains.

archaeological site: a location where evidence of past human activity is found.

artifact: anything made or modified by humans.

bar gorget: a perforated bar-shaped ornament attached to a cord and worn around the neck or attached to clothing.

biface: a stone tool that has been worked on two sides.

component: a specific time period represented at an archaeological site.

culture: the behavioral expression of human groups as they adapt to the environment around them, exhibited through their technology, how they organize their society (social system), and how they view their world (ideology).

debitage: waste material from making or manufacturing stone tools.

diagnostic artifact: an artifact that characterizes a particular time period or prehistoric group.

feature: an immovable artifact, such as a storage pit that has been dug into the ground.

fire-cracked rock: rock altered by fire, such as those that might be used for a hearth.

floodplain: the part of a river valley that has been repeatedly covered with soil deposited by floods.

graver: a small woodworking tool that has a sharp point or edge.

lithic raw material: stone material used for making tools.

mano: a stone used to grind corn and other grains.

mortar: a hollowed stone basin used in crushing or processing foodstuffs.

National Historic Landmark: a cultural resource evaluated and found to have significance at the national level and designated as such by the Secretary of the Interior.

National Register-eligible resource: a resource determined eligible for the National Register by the Secretary of the Interior, or a resource that has not yet been determined eligible, but meets the criteria for eligibility.

prehistory: the time period before written history; for the Americas this is generally accepted to be before AD 1492.

projectile point: a stone tool which can be fastened to the end of a shaft and used for hunting.

resource procurement encampment: an archaeological site briefly occupied to acquire resources of an area before moving onto another location.

riverine: associated with the banks of rivers.

scraper: a stone tool used to scrape the fat from animal hides, to smooth wood, or for any other similar purpose, and worked on one side.

sedentism: the trend toward more settled, permanent occupations by prehistoric populations.

steatite: an easily worked stone material that is a kind of talc (also called soapstone), which was used for pots and other items.

subsistence: concerns what prehistoric groups ate on a regular basis, which can be used to determine the time of year a site was occupied as well as the technological level of a prehistoric group.

technology: the application of science to ease the workload of humans.

terrace: landforms situated above rivers.

type site: refers to an archaeological site at which a type of stone tool or pottery is first identified.



