Phase I Archaeological Resources Survey of the Forsyth Garage Tract

Chatham County, Georgia

October 2025

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CULTURAL RESOURCES CONSULTING

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Management Summary

On August 22 and 25, 2025, Brockington and Associates, Inc. (Brockington) conducted a Phase I archaeological resources survey of the Forsyth Garage Tract in Savannah, Chatham County, Georgia. The proposed project consists of constructing a below-ground parking structure which would include the demolition of some of the existing buildings and parking areas and the construction of a new parking deck with additional paved driving and parking areas and paved sidewalks. The investigation consisted of an archaeological survey of the 1.5-acre project tract and detailed archival research regarding the project tract history. The goals of our investigation included identification of all archaeological resources located within the project tract and providing definitive National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) evaluations for each resource. This investigation was carried out for Forysth Commons Holdings, LLC by personnel qualified under the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines* (36 CFR Part 61) and in accordance with the City of Savannah Archaeology Resource Protection Ordinance (Sec. 8-13001-8-13009) and standards set forth by the *Georgia Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Surveys* (Georgia Council of Professional Archaeologists [GCPA] 2019).

The project tract is located within the boundaries of the City of Savannah Victorian Historic District. Our background research conducted on Georgia's Natural, Archaeological, and Historic Resources Geographic Information System (GNAHRGIS) and examination of previous reports revealed no previously recorded archaeological sites or previous investigations within the project's Area of Potential Effects (APE). However, seven previously recorded archaeological sites and three previous cultural resources investigations are located within a 0.5-kilometer (km) (0.3-mile) radius of the project tract. All seven of these nearby previously recorded archaeological sites are located outside of the project APE. Therefore, no previously recorded archaeological resources will be impacted by the proposed project.

Our archival research determined that the tract contained several buildings that were constructed in the mid-to-late nineteenth century and subsequentially demolished as the project area was redeveloped throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. These buildings were associated with one- and two-story wood frame residential homes and brick apartment buildings with wood framed extensions and outbuildings. Archival records suggest that none of the structures had basements, suggesting that limited to no below-ground construction existed within the project tract during this time period.

Brockington's archaeological field survey included systematic visual examination and judgmentally placed shovel test excavations within the project tract in non-paved areas. No artifacts or archaeological resources were identified during our field survey.

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1.0 Introduction

On August 22 and 25, 2025, Brockington and Associates, Inc. (Brockington) conducted an intensive Phase I archaeological resources survey of the Forsyth Garage Tract in Savannah, Chatham County, Georgia. This investigation was carried out for Forysth Commons Holdings, LLC by personnel qualified under the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines* (36 CFR Part 61) and in accordance with the City of Savannah Archaeology Resource Protection Ordinance and standards set forth by the *Georgia Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Surveys* (Georgia Council of Professional Archaeologists [GCPA] 2019). This survey complies with local, state, and federal laws, regulations, and ordinances concerning the management of historic properties (i.e., archaeological sites, buildings, structures, objects, or districts listed on or eligible for the National Register of Historic Places [NRHP]) affected by development activities. These laws, regulations, and ordinances include:

- Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (16 USC 470), as amended;
- 36 CFR 800: Protection of Historic Properties; and
- City of Savannah Archaeology Resource Protection Ordinance (Section 8-13001-8-13009).

The 1.5-acre project tract is in Savannah to the west of Forsyth Park immediately west of Whitaker Street, north of West Park Avenue, east of Barnard Street, and south of West Waldburg Street. The entire project tract has previously been impacted by development throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Figures 1.1 and 1.2 show the location of the project tract.

The proposed project consists of the construction of a below-ground parking structure. This proposed parking structure would include the demolition of some of the existing buildings and parking areas and the construction of a new parking deck with additional paved driving and parking areas and paved sidewalks. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) for the proposed project is the entire 1.5-acre project tract.

Our project goals included the identification of all archaeological resources located within the project tract boundaries and providing a definitive NRHP evaluation for each resource. Since much of the project tract is developed and paved, we also conducted additional archival research on the project tract. This investigation consisted of background archival research to trace the project tract ownership and use over time, to locate previously identified cultural resources, and to assess the potential for new sites, as well as the completion of associated fieldwork and report production. Chapter 2 describes the methods of investigation. The environmental and cultural background of the project area is discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 presents the results of the archaeological resources survey.

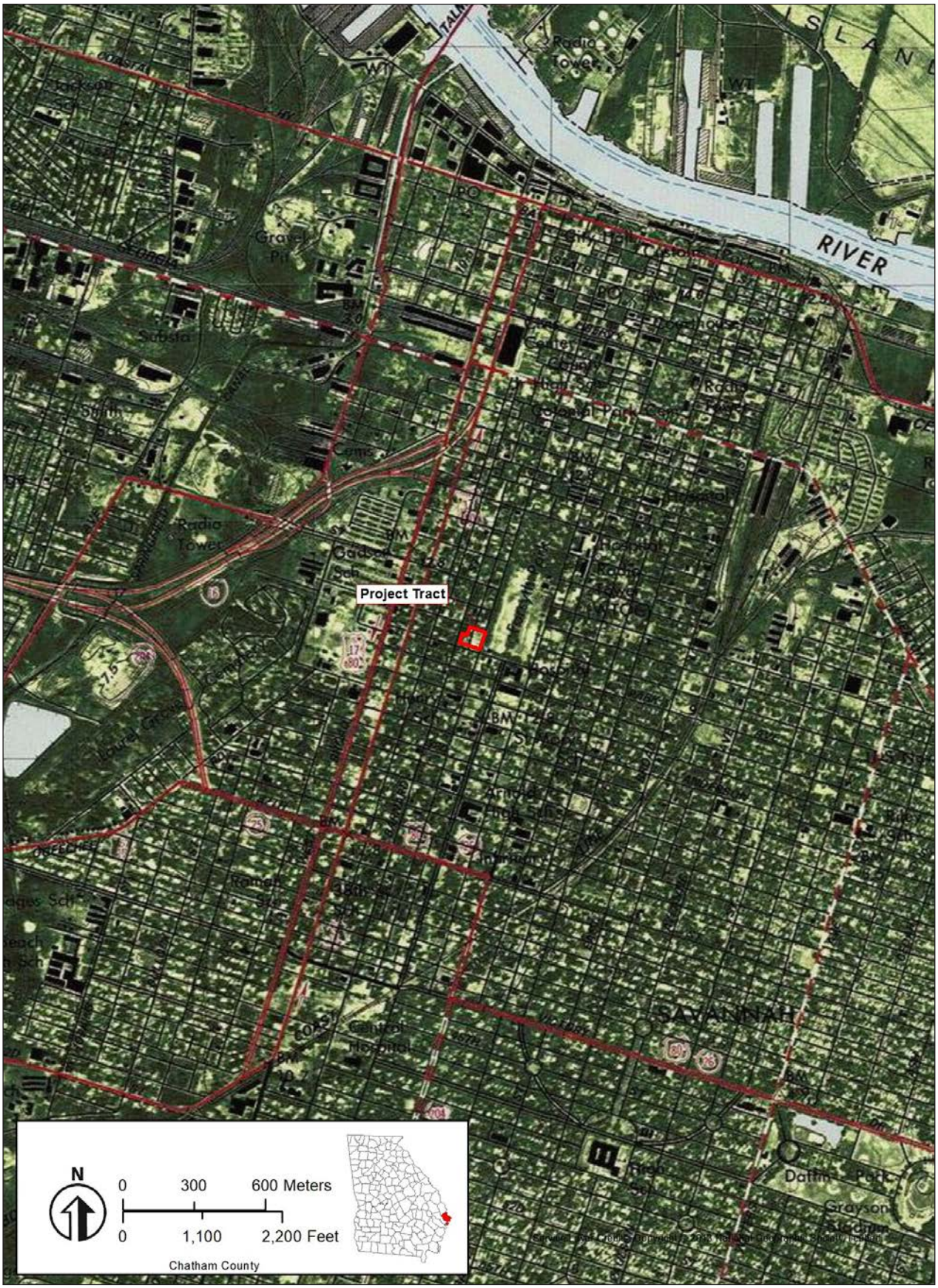

Figure 1.1 Project tract location (1978 *Savannah, GA* 7.5-minute United States Geological Survey [USGS] topographic quadrangle).

Figure 1.2 Aerial view of the project tract.

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2.0 Methods of Investigation

The primary goal of this cultural resources survey is to document all archaeological resources within the project's APE, provide adequate information for a definitive evaluation of their NRHP eligibility, and assess the potential for intact archaeological resources below the paved areas of the project tract. To fulfill these goals, archival research and archaeological fieldwork were completed for the project tract.

2.1 Background Research Methods

Background research focused on documenting previously recorded cultural resources and their locations and developing prehistoric and historic contexts. Background research was initiated with a search of GNAHRGIS database maintained by the Georgia Archaeological Site File (GASF) and the Georgia Department of Natural Resources (DNR) Historic Preservation Division (HPD). We examined previously recorded archaeological and historic resources within 0.5 kilometer (km) (0.3 mile) of the archaeological APE. Digital data obtained from GNAHRGIS were georeferenced to the Universal Transverse Mercator (UTM) system. Maps were produced using ArcMap 10.7 GIS software (Environmental Systems Research Institute, Inc. [ESRI] 2016) to plot the project location on appropriate USGS topographic quadrangles relative to any previously recorded sites.

Archival research focused on numerous primary and secondary resources to provide information regarding past use of the project tract. Sources included historic plats, maps, aerial photographs, tax records, local histories, technical reports, probate records, newspaper articles, and other similar data found locally or online. In addition, the project historians conducted a title history of the project tract, which involved deeds both at the Chatham County Courthouse as well as unrecorded deeds and records in the Chamlee-Sipple Collection at the Georgia Historical Society (GHS).

2.2 Archaeological Field Methods

Archaeological fieldwork for this investigation consisted of systematic survey conducted in accordance with *Georgia Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Surveys* (GCPA 2019). Brockington carried out fieldwork for the Phase I archaeological resources survey on October 27 and 28, 2024. The archaeological field survey included systematic pedestrian and subsurface survey to determine the presence (or absence) of archaeological sites and other cultural resources in the project area.

2.2.1 Shovel Test Excavations

The property was inspected through pedestrian walkover and transects spaced at 30-meter (m) intervals along the entire project tract. Since the entire tract is developed and paved, shovel tests were judgmentally placed and excavated at the discretion of the Principal Investigator in nonpaved areas. Shovel tests measured 30 centimeters (cm) (12 inches) in diameter and were excavated into sterile subsoil. Soil was screened through 0.64-cm (0.25-inch) wire mesh. Detailed notes were recorded on the condition of soils, stratigraphy, Munsell color, and number of artifacts. All shovel tests were backfilled on completion. All exposed ground surfaces within the project tract were visually inspected for artifacts and features. Project maps, field notes, and photographs are presently stored at Brockington's Savannah facilities.

Archaeologists and cultural resource managers utilize a variety of definitions for sites and isolated finds. For this project, a site was defined using the *Georgia Standards and Guidelines for Archaeological Surveys* (GCPA 2019). A site is an area containing three or more artifacts of a possible single occupation in a 30-m (100-foot) or less diameter of surface exposure; or where at least two artifacts from the same broad cultural period were recovered from the subsurface of an excavated shovel test; or where at least two shovel tests within 30 m (100 feet) were positive (contained one or more artifacts); or where surface or subsurface cultural features are present. A relatively small number of obviously redeposited artifacts, even if greater than three in number, would typically not be defined as a site without compelling

Figure 2.1 Approximate location of shovel tests excavated within the project tract.

research or other reasons. Similarly, artifacts of recent age (less than 50 years) would typically not be defined as a site without compelling research or management reasons.

Isolated finds are those locations with two or fewer artifacts that do not contain features or ruins. As noted above, an isolated find may be represented by more than two artifacts if the location has no utility of meaning for a research or other purpose. Isolated finds are not eligible for the NRHP; however, recordings of these finds include location and environmental data like that recorded for archaeological sites.

2.3 Curation

Project maps, field notes, and photographs have been prepared for storage at a federally approved repository for curation, based on standards outlined in 36 CFR Part 79 (*Curation of Federally-Owned and Administered Archaeological Collections; Final Rule*). Following completion of the final report of investigations, these materials will be transferred to the City of Savannah Municipal Archives for curation.

2.4 Evaluation of National Register of Historic Places Eligibility

Cultural resources (i.e., districts, buildings, structures, sites, and objects) are evaluated based on the criteria for eligibility to the NRHP as specified in Department of Interior Regulations 36 CFR Part 60: *National Register of Historic Places*. According to 36 CFR Part 60.4 (Criteria for Evaluation), sites can be defined as significant (i.e., eligible for the NRHP) if they "possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association", and if they:

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

Technical information and guidelines for evaluating NRHP eligibility are provided by the National Park Service in several published bulletins (e.g., Savage and Pope 1998; Sherfy and Luce 1998; Townsend et al. 1993). The process for evaluating cultural resources for eligibility for the NRHP includes categorizing the resource as a district, a site, a building, a structure, or an object; determining the appropriate context (prehistoric or historic) for the resource; determining whether the resource is significant under the NRHP Criteria for Evaluation; and determining whether the resource retains integrity (Savage and Pope 1998:3).

After a cultural resource has been assigned to a category (district, site, building, structure, or object), the historic context represented by the resource must be identified. According to the National Park Service, "the significance of a historic [resource] can be judged and explained only when it is evaluated within its historic context" (Savage and Pope 1998:7). Evaluating a resource within its historical context involves several steps. These include identifying the themes, geographical limits, and chronological period that the resource represents; determining how these themes are significant in the history of the area, state, or nation; determining whether the particular resource type is important in illustrating these themes through historic associations, architectural or engineering values, or information potential; and determining the features that the resource must have in order to reflect these themes (Savage and Pope 1998:7-8).

Once the above steps are completed and the association with a historically significant context is demonstrated, one must consider the aspects of integrity applicable to a resource. Integrity is defined in seven aspects of a resource; one or more may be applicable depending on the nature of the resource under evaluation. These aspects are location, design, setting, materials, workmanship,

feeling, and association (36 CFR 60.4; Savage and Pope 1998). If a resource does not possess integrity with respect to these aspects, it cannot adequately reflect or represent its associated historically significant context; therefore, it cannot be eligible for the NRHP. To be considered eligible under Criteria A and B, a resource must retain its essential physical characteristics that were present during the event(s) with which it is associated. Under Criterion C, a resource must retain enough of its physical characteristics to reflect the style, type, etc., or work of the artisan that it represents. Under Criterion D, a resource must be able to generate data that can address specific research questions that are important in reconstructing or interpreting the past.

3.0 Natural and Cultural Overview

Human adaptation in what we now know as Georgia has transformed through time, as the natural and cultural settings have changed. While the physical environment provides humans with the materials necessary for maintaining life, the combination of physical and cultural events and processes presents limitations and/or opportunities for exploitation and adaptation to any given region (Wharton 1989). This chapter presents a brief overview of the natural and cultural setting in the project area.

3.1 Natural Setting

Chatham County is located within the Southern Coastal Plain Geophysical Province in the southeastern portion of Georgia. Hodler and Schretter (1986:16-17) indicate this area was formed as part of the Barrier Island Sequence, a process whereby:

> The advance and retreat of former sea levels have left six shoreline deposit complexes parallel to the present coastline in a step-like progression of decreasing elevations. Slight to moderate dissection of these former levels has allowed marshes to exist in poorly drained low areas.

These Pleistocene deposits formed at sea level fluctuated during periods of continental glaciation. They are considered to represent specific geologic terraces, based roughly on ranges of elevation above mean sea level (amsl) (i.e., Holocene deposits). In ascending order (from coastline inland), these complexes are: Silver Bluff (1.5 to 4.6 m amsl), Princess Anne (4.6 to 7.6 m amsl), Pamlico (7.6 to 13.7 m amsl), Talbot (13.7 to 22.9 m amsl), Penholoway (22.9 to 30.5 m amsl), and Wicomico (30.5 to 48.8 m amsl). Topographically, these former shorelines are represented by parallel sequences of ridges (former barrier islands), pine flatwoods (former sea marshes), and stream swamps (old tidal waterways) (Hodler and Schretter 1986:27). The project tract is located within the Pamlico shoreline complex. This terrace formed more than 100,000 years ago, making it available to the full range of human occupation in the region (DePratter 1979a).

The Coastal Marine Flatlands represent the youngest geologic deposits of Georgia's Coastal Plain. These interbedded sands overlay sandy clay dating to the Miocene and Pliocene epochs (Herrick 1965). Formation of these deposits was primarily sedimentary, with erosion of crystalline rocks from the Piedmont province as the predominant source. Herrick (1965) suggests that pre-existing Coastal Plain sediments (Miocene, Pliocene, and early Pleistocene) may have contributed to these deposits through erosion and redeposition.

3.1.1 Topography

Chatham County ranges in elevation from 0 to 17 m (approximately 0 to 56 feet) amsl. The topography consists principally of low marshes and river terraces between the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers. Terrain slope is steep only along the riverbanks and creek drainages. The region is drained by a series of small creeks feeding the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers. Much of Chatham County is urbanized as part of the City of Savannah, and it incorporates several barrier islands (Tybee and Skidaway being the largest) (Wilkes et al. 1974).

3.1.2 Climate

Chatham County averages approximately 127 cm (50 inches) of precipitation annually. The average summer temperature lies near 32°C (90°F), while the winter temperatures average near 16°C (60°F). Winter low temperatures occasionally fall to near 3°C (37°F), but infrequently below freezing. Fewer than 30 days per year result in temperatures of less than 0°C (32°F). The long growing season and lack of frost contributed to the development of a long history of intensive agriculture. During Euro-American occupation, the mild climate created the ability to harvest rice crops twice per year (Wilkes et al. 1974).

Summer and late fall humidity is high, usually fluctuating between 70 and 80 percent in the afternoon. Winter and early spring humidity is overall much lower. Frequency of rainfall is consistent throughout the year but increases slightly during the spring and summer months with regular strong thundershowers. During the

late summer, hurricanes become fairly common. Although coastal Georgia has, historically, been less frequently assailed by these storms than South Carolina and Florida, they have contributed to the success or failure of entire seasons of the rice crop (details about the devastating hurricane of 1854 are presented in Sullivan 1998:164-166). In sharp contrast, heavy rains in the absence of an incursion of saltwater into the rice fields can be extremely beneficial for rice production (Wilkes et al. 1974).

3.1.3 Soils

Soils are derived through the weathering, decomposition, and redeposition of Piedmont geological deposits. Hurst et al. (1981) indicate an overall distribution of alluvial unconsolidated sands, clays, and minor marls throughout the Coastal Plain. Hodler and Schretter (1986:36-37) describe "Atlantic Coast Flatwood" (same as Wharton's [1989] Coastal Marine Flatlands) soils as, "poorly drained... mostly sandy loam to sandy topsoils underlain by marine sands, loams, or clays. Soils generally have a high water table and are used mainly for timber production and pastures."

Soils in Chatham County consist predominantly of sand or sandy loams overlying loamy or clayey subsoil. The parent materials consist entirely of Quaternary sediments. The soils belong to the Kershaw, Chipley, Pelham, Ellabelle, Ocilla, Fuquay, Stilson, Albany, Ogeechee, Pooler, and Cape Fear Associations. All are poorly to somewhat poorly drained, excluding the excessively well-drained sands of the former and current barrier islands. All the associations are widespread throughout the Southern Coastal Plain (Wilkes et al. 1974).

According to the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) soil survey for Chatham County, one detailed soil type is found within the project tract (Figure 3.1) (USDA 2024). Urban land, which is a disturbed soil type, covers the entire 1.5-acre project tract. Past settlement and agricultural use tend to favor anhydric (dry) soils over hydric (wet) soils. Most archaeological sites tend to be situated on drier, anhydric soils that are not in disturbed contexts. Therefore, the entire project tract does not have a soil type that is not favorable for containing an archaeological site due to its potential past disturbances.

3.1.4 Modern Fauna and Vegetation

Modern fauna of the Coastal Marine Flatlands is summarized by Wharton (1989) and include diverse species of mammals, birds, fish, reptiles, and amphibians. It is expected that a much wider variety of the extant fauna were available for exploitation during Pre-Contact and early Historic period habitation of this area. In addition to the more common species (e.g., white-tail deer, Virginia opossum, pine voles, field mice, short-tailed shrews, gray and fox squirrels, raccoon), less common mammals include the cotton mouse, cottontail rabbit, and nine-banded armadillo (Laerm et al. 1981). Birds of possible food value include dove, quail, turkey, and a variety of ducks, wading, and shore birds. Fishes found in nearby creeks and rivers include bluegill, black crappie, largemouth bass, catfish, yellow sucker, gar, eel, and minnows. A wide variety of snakes, including the kingsnake, rat snake, corn snake, southern hognose, coachwhip, pine snake, copperhead, and the pygmy and diamondback rattlesnakes, are in evidence. Amphibians are the striped and central newt and several varieties of frogs.

3.1.5 Paleoenvironment

During the last 10,000 years, a modern, somewhat xeric, forest probably covered much of the southeastern United States (Kuchler 1964; Sheehan et al. 1985; Wharton 1989). As the climate continued to warm, increased moisture augmented the northward advance of the oak-hickory forest (Sheehan et al. 1985). In a study by Sheehan et al. (1985) for the Richard B. Russell Multiple Use Area (Savannah River), palynological evidence suggests that spruce, pine, fir, and hemlock rapidly decreased in importance between 9,000 and 4,000 years before present (BP). By the mid-Holocene, the oak-hickory forest was gradually being replaced by pine-dominated woodland (Wharton 1989:12).

From 4,000 years BP to the present, slight cooling temperatures and limited increases in precipitation may have been responsible for subtle changes in lowland vegetation. The oak-hickory forests appear to have decreased in area and density and were slowly invaded or replaced by several conifer varieties. Early European explorers reported large pure stands of longleaf pine (*Pinus palustris*) in

Figure 3.1 Distribution of USDA soils within the project tract.

the Coastal Plain. These stands have recently been replaced by slash pines (*Pinus elliottii*), particularly in low-lying areas where planted slash pine is said to dominate nearly 90 percent of the Pleistocene pine flatwoods (Wharton 1989:195).

3.2 Cultural Setting

3.2.1 Overview of the Pre-Contact Era

The pre-contact occupation of the southeastern United States is best described in terms of changes in fundamental social systemics. During much of the past, pre-contact cultures maintained a lifestyle focused on the acquisition of locally available wild resources (hunting and gathering). The extant food and other basic resource procurement technology of the earliest eras favored small, mobile social groups that practiced migratory, or nomadic lifestyles. During times of economic stress, reliance on secondary resources, along with increased mobilization and trade with neighboring groups, supplemented the diet.

The cultural periods most associated with an intensive hunter-gatherer lifestyle are the Paleoindian (9500 to 8500 BC) and the Archaic (8500 to 1000 BC). These periods are further subdivided into categories based on resource procurement strategies, their inter-group relations, and the projectile point typologies developed through the years. The following discussions summarize findings of previous archaeological research in the region. The discussions focus on the Georgia Coastal Plain, and emphasize technological change, settlement patterns, and site choice throughout the Pre-Contact era.

Paleoindian Period (9500 to 8500 BC)

Definite human occupation of the southeastern United States began during the Paleoindian period. The beginning of the period occurred during the late Pleistocene, which featured low sea levels and extended shorelines (Anderson et al. 1990). The glacial conditions of the late Pleistocene epoch characterize the early portions of the Paleoindian period, but the more temperate conditions of the early Holocene prevail by the end of the period. Based on data from several sites in western North America, Paleoindians are seen primarily as nomadic hunters. The association of Paleoindian artifacts with the remains of extinct fauna led early researchers to believe Paleoindian subsistence focused on Ice Age megafauna; however, this view has changed. Although megafauna were certainly exploited, wild plant foods and smaller game were probably a significant part of the Paleoindian subsistence strategy.

Native Americans responded to this environment by living in central camps or villages and periodically visiting temporary camps to gather resources (Anderson et al. 1990). This adaptation, referred to as a "collector" or "logistical" strategy, warranted tool assemblages tailored for extended resource procurement (Anderson et al. 1990). Over most of North America, the remnants of the Paleoindian period include a distinctive tool assemblage. Isolated finds of fluted lanceolate projectile points and associated hearths or ephemeral features characterize the Paleoindian period in the Southeast. The fluted lanceolate projectile points average 7.6 cm in length and exhibit parallel or slightly convex sides, concave bases, and a distinctive narrow, vertical flake (a flute) removed from each face of the blade. Other, somewhat less distinctive features of Paleoindian lithic assemblages include bifacially flaked knives, endscrapers, burins, and gravers (Griffin 1967; Kelly 1938; O'Steen et al. 1986).

Perhaps the greatest source of information regarding the Paleoindian period in the Southeast, specifically Georgia, has come from the distribution and variety of projectile points dating to this time. The wide range of projectile point forms allows the Paleoindian period to be divided into three subperiods: Early, Middle, and Late or Transitional. The Early Paleoindian subperiod features large fluted Clovis-like projectile points (Anderson et al. 1990). Smaller variant forms of this basic design can be placed in either the Early or Middle Paleoindian subperiod. The Middle Paleoindian subperiod is characterized by unfluted lanceolate and fluted or unfluted broad blade forms. These include the Cumberland, Suwannee, and Simpson projectile point types (Anderson et al. 1990). The Late Paleoindian subperiod features Dalton, Quad, and Beaver Lake point types, which are smaller than

previous forms. They feature ears, concave bases, and basal thinning. Evidence of tool sharpening, often to the point of exhaustion, is present in the serrated edges of Dalton projectile points (Anderson et al. 1990). Such evidence is not found during the earlier Paleoindian subperiods, suggesting this activity is linked to the climatic changes that occurred at the end of the Paleoindian period.

The distribution of Paleoindian projectile points in the Southeast suggests Native Americans occupied smaller areas during this period (Anderson et al. 1990). Portions of the Georgia Coastal Plain show no evidence of settlement until the end of the Paleoindian period and the beginning of the Archaic period. Large numbers of Dalton projectile points located in the lower Southeast and in southern Georgia support this argument (Anderson et al. 1990). There are several theories for the lack of Early and Middle Paleoindian sites along the Georgia coast: avoidance or minimal use, lack of quality lithic materials, and unfavorable environmental conditions (Anderson et al. 1990).

Very little substantial data concerning Paleoindian lifeways are known from the region. What is postulated tends to be adopted from the interpretations of more substantial remains and remnants from the Plains and western North America, assuming nomadic Pleistocene hunter-gatherers maintained a similar pattern of behavior regardless of region. Populations were sparse across most of Georgia. There are, however, some areas with concentrations of Late Paleoindian sites indicating a denser population or repeated seasonal re-use of local habitats. This may be especially true for the Oconee River region (Williams 1994:54, 2000:22-23). Other examples include the Theriault Site, a quarry in the Coastal Plain (Brockington 1971), and the Taylor Hill Site, a stratified deposit near Augusta (Elliott and Doyon 1981). The Taylor Hill site produced a high number of various stratified stone tools and points, leading archaeologists to interpret the location as a Paleoindian and Archaic residential or logistical camp (Anderson et al. 1990).

During the transition from sparse Paleoindian colonization to higher Archaic population densities, developments in technology mirrored the rise in populations. Smaller corner or side-notched projectile points gradually replaced large, heavy lanceolate types (Anderson et al. 1990; Bullen 1975; Coe 1964; Whatley 1984, 2001). This reflected not only a change in technological innovation but a shift in focus to smaller prey species (as opposed to now-extinct Pleistocene megafauna). It was during the later stages of the Archaic period that fiber-tempered ceramics (e.g., Stallings) developed, indicating a push toward a more sedentary settlement strategy (Fairbanks 1942; Sassaman 1993; Williams and Thompson 1999:120-121).

Access to some necessary resource determined the selection of site localities during periods of intensive hunting and gathering. These resources were mostly prey species, wild plants, and lithics. Natural barriers to movement prevented colonization in some instances. Groups were aggregated according to complex territorial arrangements that evolved early on and probably shrank considerably as populations increased or seasonal rounds developed based on smaller prey species (Anderson and Joseph 1988; Anderson and Sassaman 1996).

One settlement strategy, initially posited by Anderson and Hanson (1988), suggests a seasonal round wherein migration occurred across the Piedmont and Coastal Plain Provinces. The pattern may have involved winter/spring use of the Coastal Plain, and fall/summer use of the Piedmont. The agglomeration of sites near the fall line indicates a propensity for fording rivers where they are most shallow (north of the fall line) while maintaining such a seasonal round.

Early Archaic Period (8500 to 6000 BC)

The Early Archaic is generally perceived as an adaptive response to the changing post-Pleistocene (Holocene) environment. This period is characterized by a gradual shift in subsistence strategies, with an increasing reliance on hunting small game and the procurement of wild plant foods (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). Relevant research by Chapman and Shea (1981) indicates that the exploitation of a broad range of local resources was achieved much earlier than previously thought. Chapman and Shea (1981) suggest that trends in settlement and subsistence practices throughout the Archaic can best be interpreted as the result of adaptive responses to a variety of cultural and environmental

conditions. These factors influenced change within several distinct regional settings. While the general density of populations is thought to have increased during the Early Archaic period, there is evidence for the persistence of certain cultural traditions initiated during Paleoindian times. Specifically, the tendency toward the development of subregional technological traditions and the attachment of groups to particular places in the landscape are practices shared by Paleoindian and Early Archaic groups (Anderson 1990; Bridgman Sweeney 2013; Sassaman 2010).

The Early Archaic period is distinguished from the preceding Late Paleoindian period based on the technological change from large, fluted projectile points to simpler, smaller, and more diverse point types. Archaeological remains diagnostic of this period include ovate, stemmed, and beveled quartz bifaces; corner- and side-notched projectile points; hafted endscrapers; and flaked stone adzes. Chert remained a popular lithic raw material, and diagnostic projectile points of this period include Hardaway, Dalton, Palmer, and Kirk (Coe 1964). In Georgia, the Big Sandy, Palmer-Kirk, Kirk Corner Notched, and Kirk Stemmed are among some of the new projectile point forms being made during this period. Wear patterns observed on these tools suggest that Native Americans used them to kill, butcher, and skin animals as well as shape wood (Stanyard n.d.).

Very little is known about the Early Archaic period in the Georgia Coastal Plain. O'Steen's (1983) research in the Oconee River drainage in the Piedmont leads to general inferences concerning Early Archaic settlement and social organization that may be applicable to the project region. She suggests a multilocational settlement system for the Early Archaic, focused on seasonal exploitation of faunal and floral resources and proximity to lithic raw materials. Primary site types consist of seasonally utilized residential base camps, often located at tributary confluences, on high terraces, and at river shoal areas. Smaller, scattered, resource extraction loci often were situated in a variety of ecological zones.

A regional analysis of Early Archaic social group dynamics revealed evidence for interactions among macroband territories throughout the Coastal Plain (Bridgman Sweeney 2013). Social boundaries apparently were relatively permeable, such that large-scale social networks promoted the development of distinct subregional technological traditions (i.e., point "types" known as Taylor, Bolen, and Big Sandy) within the Early Side-Notched Horizon. Early Archaic groups in the Savannah and Ogeechee River drainages evidently interacted most frequently with their contemporaries to the northeast, in the Santee-Cooper River drainages. According to this study, Early Archaic groups regularly practiced cross-drainage movement well beyond their basic economic needs, aggregating with neighboring groups at places such as the Ocmulgee River social boundary area in central Georgia (Bridgman Sweeney 2013).

Middle Archaic Period (6000 to 4000 BC)

The climatic changes that occurred during the Middle Archaic period influenced settlement, subsistence strategy, and technology (Dragoo 1975:11). Between 6000 and 4000 BC, the post-glacial Altithermal brought a period of warmer and drier conditions. The temperate climate and abundant food resources provided optimal environmental zones suitable for exploitation by Middle Archaic populations (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). The Middle Archaic period shows an increase in more permanent settlement, particularly in the large river valleys. This is perhaps most indicative of the establishment of intra-regional territories by discrete tribal, ethnic, or familial units. During this period, one begins to see the characteristics of seasonality and continual seasonal rounds within restricted territories. This is expanded in the Late Archaic period.

Three projectile point/knife types dominate the Middle Archaic period. These point types include Stanly (triangular blade point with narrow, straight-sided, vertical stem), Morrow Mountain (isosceles triangle blade with contracting stem), and Guilford (lanceolate point with the widest point near the center) (Coe 1964:35-43). While quartz was widely used throughout the rest of Georgia, usage of chert continued on the coast due to its local availability (Stanyard n.d.). Other artifact types characteristic of this period are ground and polished stone tools (e.g., atlatl hooks, nutting stones, grinding stones and pestles, net sinkers) and a variety of bone

tools, flaking tools, and scrapers (Ford and Willey 1941:333; Griffin 1967:178; Stoltman 1978:715; White 1988:53).

It is important to note that few Middle Archaic projectile points have been found in sites on the Georgia coast. The reason for their absence comes from the environmental conditions during this time. Dry intervals characterized the mid-Holocene, which may have limited the availability of water along the coast (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). Native Americans, therefore, were less likely to utilize these areas during the Middle Archaic period (Elliott and Sassaman 1995).

Habitation sites during this period were located primarily on well-defined floodplains, while temporary activity areas were often situated on upland ridges (Ford and Willey 1941; Griffin 1967). These sites are described as lithic scatters/hunting camps and are composed of light to dense deposits of quartz and chert thinning flakes and tools. While the few recorded sites indicate little change in habitation location during the Early and Middle Archaic periods in southeastern Georgia, White (1988) suggests Native American groups utilized a broadening range of resources.

Late Archaic Period (4000 to 1000 BC)

The Late Archaic period is a time of considerable population growth, regional adaptation, and an inter-regional exchange of raw materials (Griffin 1967:178-179). A greater reliance on riverine resources and the varied hunting of large and small game may have pushed Late Archaic populations toward long-term settlement within specific environmental zones (Dragoo 1975:12-13; Elliott and Sassaman 1995; Griffin 1967:180).

The introduction of pottery is the primary development of the Late Archaic distinguishing it from the preceding periods. The Late Archaic is often further divided into pre-ceramic and ceramic phases. In the coastal region of Georgia, fiber-tempered pottery is identified with the St. Simons phase occupation (2200 to 1100 BC). St. Simons can be further divided into subphases (St. Simons I and St. Simons II), which equate to Stallings subphases II and III, respectively, for the interior and coastal regions of South Carolina. St. Simons I ceramics feature fiber tempers and plain surface decorations. St. Simons II ceramics feature surface decorations including incisions, punctations, and grooves (Stanyard n.d.). St. Simons pottery occurs as large flat-bottomed shallow bowls, with jars being a rare occurrence (Sassaman 1993:19). Construction technique is by pinched slabs, though coiling may have been added by the end of the period (Sassaman 1993:66-67). The Stallings ceramic sequence is similar to the St. Simons sequence and is also divided into two subphases: Stallings II and Stallings III (Stanyard n.d.). Stallings II ceramics feature fiber tempers and plain surface decorations. Stallings III ceramics feature surface decorations including punctations, incisions, and grooves. Both Stallings ceramic subphases include simple bowls as the most common vessel form (Stanyard n.d.).

Late Archaic diagnostic lithic artifacts include Savannah River stemmed projectile points (a triangular blade with square shoulders and a vertical stem with straight or concave base; Coe 1964:44), grooved axes, net sinkers, steatite vessels, bone and antler tools, and a variety of shell ornaments (Coe 1964:113; Griffin 1967:180). A smaller variant of the Savannah River point, the Otarre (Keel 1976), is associated with the later portion of the Late Archaic period (Garrow 1984). Other projectile point types associated with this period include the Elora, Kiokee Creek, and Ledbetter, all of which exhibit the same general designs: triangular blades, straight or slightly contracting stems, and straight bases (Stanyard n.d.).

The subsistence systems remained static between periods, but it appears that settlement becomes increasingly sedentary. The development of fiber-tempered pottery may have been in response to the decrease in nomadic lifestyle, or the prolonged occupation of preferred sites. The majority of Late Archaic sites on the Georgia coast are comprised of shell middens or shell rings, with few having non-shell contexts (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). The shell middens and shell rings are often located adjacent to major river or stream channels in the seaward areas of estuaries. It is theorized that shell midden sites represent strategically located base camps that provided access to marine and terrestrial resources (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). In observing these coastal sites, it is clear shellfish were

an important resource to Native Americans living in the region. The level of their significance, however, remains somewhat unclear. Some archaeologists believe shellfish were a central part of the economy, while others believe shellfish merely supplemented an already diverse marine diet enjoyed by Native American groups (Elliott and Sassaman 1995).

Determining the nature of the relationship between shell middens and shell rings resulted in several different ideas. Jim Michie postulates each shell midden site is associated with one or more shell rings that served as ceremonial centers or were the locations for other social activities (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). Michael Trinkley, on the other hand, believes shell rings, like shell middens, represent intensive occupation locations, and served the same purpose as a base camp (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). Chester DePratter argues that the shell middens and rings represent separate, permanent settlements occupied by a small number of families (Elliott and Sassaman 1995).

It is accepted that shell rings were created through the accumulation and merging of individual household middens over time (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). The shell rings and middens along the Georgia coast contain a variety of animal remains including fish, turtles, deer, raccoons, turkeys, rabbits, squirrels, and opossums. The most common plants found in shell middens and shell rings are hickory nutshells and acorns (Elliott and Sassaman 1995).

At the end of the Late Archaic period, shell midden locations shifted further inland. At the same time, they became smaller and more dispersed (Elliott and Sassaman 1995). This change is linked not only with a rise in sea level and estuary expansion, but also with a sociopolitical collapse that occurred throughout the region during the Late Archaic period (Elliott and Sassaman 1995).

It is inaccurate to determine that changes in faunal procurement strategies or territorial boundaries between and within the Paleoindian and Archaic periods resulted from a single factor (such as climate change). Rather, a complex web of individual yet interdependent factors influenced the path taken in the evolutionary development of hunter-gatherers in the Southeast. The empirical study of Savannah River chiefdoms by Anderson (1994) is a detailed example of the ways in which very complex political and economic forces interact to manifest themselves in different ways. These later period manifestations clearly have their roots in earlier hunter-gatherer societies.

Settlement density in the Georgia Coastal Plain increased during the Late Archaic, while settlement location continues to be somewhat variable. Fish (1976:24) found patterns similar to those of the Middle Archaic period. Garrow (1984) recorded 17 Late Archaic sites: six in the Coastal Marine Flatlands and 11 in the adjacent Vidalia Uplands. Five of six Ceramic Late Archaic sites recorded on the Fort Howard Paper Company Tract in Effingham County were located within the Dasher Creek drainage, while the sixth site was found on the Mill Creek bluff (Smith and Elliott 1985a:138). Survey of the 1,000-hectare Savannah Quarters Tract resulted in the identification of no definite Late Archaic sites (Bailey et al. 1997). Survey of the 2,040-hectare Godley Tract resulted in the identification of one Ceramic Late Archaic site (9CH872) (Bailey and Poplin 1997; Hicks 1997; McMakin and Bailey 1997). Surveyors of the 520-hectare Morgan Tract identified no definite Late Archaic sites (Fletcher et al. 2003).

Early Woodland Period (1000 to 300 BC)

The transition from the Late Archaic to the Early Woodland period was marked by a gradual increase in population and sedentism, and by the acquisition of several distinctive material and cultural traits. Early Woodland is correlated with increasing intra- and extra-regional trade (exemplified by more exotic items), developing social hierarchies, technological innovations in ceramics, and a presumed increase in political superstructures. Dwellings became more permanent, situated in denser concentrations, and extended as part of more continuous settlements. The trend increased throughout the Middle and Late Woodland with the addition of mound building and greater emphasis on sedentary agriculture. Technological advances in pottery manufacture became widespread during this period, resulting in increased efficiency and productivity of food processing and storage. Horticultural activities during the Early Woodland period focused on domestication of different plants,

such as chenopodium, sunflower, and amaranth (Dragoo 1975:17; Griffin 1967:180; Steinen 1995; Stoltman 1978:715).

A distinct break between Archaic and Woodland lithic artifact types is not always evident. Early Woodland artifact assemblages often contain stemmed (e.g., Swannanoa, Little Bear Creek) and triangular (Yadkin) projectile points (Coe 1964; Justice 1987). Early Woodland artifacts include ground stone manos and mortars, nutting stones, polished slate or copper spearheads, tubular stone pipes, and trade goods, such as red ocher, mica, and shell (Ford and Willey 1941:337; Griffin 1967:183; Stoltman 1978:718).

In addition to lithic artifacts, increasing amounts of pottery appear on Early Woodland sites. Wares are characteristically thick and low fired. Predominant vessel forms have flaring sidewalls, wide mouths, and flat to rounded bases (Griffin 1967:180; Stoltman 1978:717). In the coastal areas of Georgia, the Early Woodland period is represented by Refuge (sand-tempered ceramics exhibiting punctate, incised, dentate-stamped, and simple-stamped designs) and Deptford (coil-built vessels with simple, linear, and check stamping) ceramics. Refuge ceramics are usually tempered with grit, although some may be tempered with grog (Stanyard n.d.). Smith et al. (1981:86) observe stylistic affinities between many Refuge motifs and those of the Late Archaic St. Simons and Stallings ceramics, suggesting a developmental connection. Deptford ceramics appear to represent a long period of settlement stability, beginning at approximately 500 BC and often coinciding with St. Simons wares (Smith et al. 1981:86).

Early Woodland settlement in the Coastal Plain focused on utilization of floodplain areas and stream-based resources. Smith and Elliott (1985a:138) indicate increases in overall site size and suggest a preference for site locations along Dasher Creek and the bluff overlooking Mill Creek throughout the Woodland period. Fish's (1976:24) results concur with these locational preferences, based on mapped Early and Middle Woodland sites. Garrow (1984:49) recorded nine Early Woodland sites along a transmission corridor, predominantly in the Vidalia Uplands section. Numerous Early to Middle Woodland sites were recorded on the upland areas adjacent to small drainages on the Delta Plantation Tract in Jasper County, South Carolina (Poplin et al. 1990), northeast of the project area. Survey of the 1,000-hectare Savannah Quarters Tract resulted in the identification of no definite Early Woodland sites (Bailey et al. 1997). Investigators of the 2,040-hectare Godley Tract identified two Early Woodland sites (9CH872 and 9CH873) (Bailey and Poplin 1997; Hicks 1997; McMakin and Bailey 1997). Surveyors of the 520-hectare Morgan Tract identified no definite Early Woodland sites (Fletcher et al. 2003).

Middle Woodland Period (300 BC to AD 600)

The Middle Woodland period represents a time of population growth and increased cultural complexity. Increased site size and density, the appearance of large earthen mounds containing elaborately furnished graves, the emergence of agriculture, the development of ceremonialism, and a complex inter-regional trade network characterize the Middle Woodland period (Dragoo 1975:18-19; Griffin 1967:183; Steinen 1995; Stoltman 1978:717). Native Americans living on the Georgia coast and Coastal Plain during this period usually lived in large permanent villages. Nearby locations along the marsh edges and in interior lands were used for specific activities such as resource gathering and extraction (Stanyard n.d.). The similarities in settlement patterns, subsistence activities, and ceramic decorations suggest that coastal and inland sites regularly communicated and exchanged ideas and resources (Stanyard n.d.).

The artifact assemblages of the Middle Woodland period remain virtually unchanged from the Early Woodland. In the Coastal Plain, medium to large stemmed projectile points are still present (i.e., Baker's Creek and Stemmed Copena), as are larger triangular arrow points such as Copena and Yadkin (Cambron and Hulse 1975; Justice 1987). Stone artifacts include stemmed knives, ground stone celts, and rough slate or shale hoes (Caldwell 1958:46; Ford and Willey 1941:337).

Specialized tools, utilized during this period in trade or as grave goods, included copper implements, deer bone awls, beaver and bear teeth, and exotic lithic material (Griffin 1967:183-186; Stoltman 1978:717-718). While Hopewell-

influenced artifacts, such as copper panpipes, earspools, cut mica, and platform pipes, have been found in Middle Woodland components in northwest Georgia (Jefferies 1976), Smith and Elliott (1985a:11) cast doubt on the influence of this trade network on cultures of the Georgia Coastal Plain.

Middle Woodland period ceramics in the Coastal Plain exhibit a continuation and refinement of previous forms and motifs. Deptford ceramics feature a variety of decorations including plain, linear check stamped, check stamped, simple stamped, cord marked, and bone incised (Stanyard n.d.). Deptford Simple Stamped and Check Stamped vessels are the material culture markers for this period. However, Garrow (1984:50) notes the presence of cord-marked sherds (designated Deptford Cord Marked by DePratter [1979]) at a number of Middle Woodland sites. Deptford ceramics have a fine to medium sand temper and are primarily fashioned into cylindrical jar shapes (Stanyard n.d.). Smith et al. (1981:88) and Fish (1976) suggest the introduction of Wilmington wares (grog tempered and cord marked) near the end of this period.

Surveys in the Georgia Coastal Plain suggest overall population increases and variability in site selection for Middle Woodland settlement. As noted above, Fish (1976) and Smith and Elliott (1985a) agree preferences were shown for settlement in areas with easy access to floodplain and stream resources. Garrow (1984:51) documented 16 sites with Middle Woodland components; three were found in the Coastal Marine Flatlands and 13 were recorded in the Vidalia Uplands. As noted above, Poplin et al. (1990) recorded Early to Middle Woodland sites on the Delta Plantation Tract, on the opposite bank of the Savannah River in South Carolina. Investigators of the 1,000-hectare Savannah Quarters Tract identified no definite Middle Woodland sites (Bailey et al. 1997). Investigators of the 2,040-hectare Godley Tract identified two Middle Woodland sites (9CH872 and 9CH873) (Bailey and Poplin 1997; Hicks 1997; McMakin and Bailey 1997). Surveyors of the 520-hectare Morgan Tract identified one Middle Woodland site (9CH1027) (Fletcher et al. 2003).

Late Woodland Period (AD 600 to 900)

The Late Woodland period within the Georgia Coastal Plain has not been documented as extensively as preceding cultural periods. Described as a transitional phase, the Late Woodland represents a continuation and an expansion of previous lifeways (e.g., agriculture, village occupation, ceremonialism; Dragoo 1975:19-20; Steinen 1995; White 1988:87). Despite the relative rarity of habitation sites directly attributable to the Late Woodland period (Caldwell 1958; Garrow 1975; Wauchope 1966), several sites (e.g., Kolomoki, Early County, Georgia) provide data on material culture, architecture, community planning, and subsistence (Sears 1956).

Due to similarities between Late Woodland and Mississippian cultures, several authors (e.g., Fish 1976; Hanson et al. 1981) group these two periods (as they occur in the Coastal Plain) together. At the end of the Woodland period, the scattered populations living along the coast began to be colonized and acculturated by the chiefdom societies living further north and west in the Etowah and Oconee River valleys (Stanyard n.d.). The subsequent social and economic changes mark the beginning of the Mississippian period in the Georgia coastal zone.

The Late Woodland artifact assemblage, although poorly represented, is well documented. Medium stemmed projectile points, similar to those associated with the Swift Creek site near Macon, Georgia (Wood et al. 1986), are typical, and small, straight-sided triangular points make their initial appearance (Justice 1987:224-225). Ground stone tools are more common than chipped tools, supporting the continued importance of plant food processing. Shell and bone were used to make a variety of tools including awls, picks, chisels, adzes, abraders, toggles, and ornaments (Stanyard n.d.).

The ceramic type most often associated with the Late Woodland period in the Coastal Plain is Wilmington Cord Marked. This grog (ground sherd) tempered ware developed late in the Middle Woodland but became dominant during the Late Woodland. Other typical Wilmington styles include fabric impression and simple stamping.

Sites with definitive Late Woodland components are not expected to be as common in the Coastal Plain relative to materials from other periods. Garrow (1984:51) recorded four such sites (two in

the Coastal Marine Flatlands and two in the Vidalia Uplands) during a transmission line survey in Burke, Screven, Effingham, Chatham, Bryan, Long, Liberty, McIntosh, and Glynn counties. Smith and Elliott (1985a) recorded two sites with Wilmington ceramics. Smith and Elliott (1985b), in their survey near Skidaway Island, identified eight sites, four of which contained Late Woodland components. Bailey et al. (1997) identified no Late Woodland sites during their survey of the 1,000-hectare Savannah Quarters Tract. Survey of the 2,040-hectare Godley Tract resulted in the identification of one Late Woodland site (9CH872) (Bailey and Poplin 1997; Hicks 1997; McMakin and Bailey 1997). Surveyors of the 520-hectare Morgan Tract identified no definite Late Woodland sites (Fletcher et al. 2003).

Mississippian Period (AD 900 to 1700)

The Mississippian period is a time of permanent settlements, increased religious and social complexity, and greater dependency on agricultural practices. An elaborate and complex iconography became widespread throughout the Midwest and Southeast during this time (Dragoo 1975:20-21; Griffin 1967:189-190; Smith 1978; Stoltman 1978:727). Throughout the Southeast, the most dramatic characteristics of this period were the construction of large, fortified villages and flat-topped earthen mounds utilized in political and religious functions. The structures publicly enhanced the social status of political leaders. A vast number of sources focus on the development and collapse of regional polities (e.g., Anderson 1994; Barker and Pauketat 1992; Blitz 1993; Braley 1996; Byrd 1991; DePratter 1991; Hudson et al. 1985; Marshall 1987; Muller 1997; Rogers and Smith 1995; Schnell and Wright 1993; Smith 1990; Thomas 1993), primarily from a processual perspective, but with a heavy emphasis on social stratification and regional spatial organization. The conclusion of the Mississippian period encompasses the tremendous changes that occurred within Native American culture after European contact.

Mississippian settlements were located primarily along major streams or rivers on large alluvial floodplains that provided easily accessible fertile soils suitable for agricultural activities. Griffin (1967:189) suggests, "it was the gradual shift to a substantial dependence on agriculture that tied the societies to specific localities, emphasized territoriality and ownership of land."

The study of most importance to the area is done by Anderson (1994), reflecting the nearby Savannah River Valley. He focuses on the "cycling" of political power in the region, postulating that changes in the organizational development of particular chiefdoms resulted from a number of primary motivating factors, including regional physiographic structures, climate, resource structure, agricultural/subsistence production, storage technology, tribute mobilization, prestige goods exchange, alliance networking, information flow, territorial boundary maintenance, population change, population movement, ritual institutions, authority structures, factional competition, and the nature of succession. Anderson (1994) addresses the development of chiefdoms in the region from the perspective of materialism and economic motivation, suffused with a strong socioreligious ideal and perpetuated by the exchange of exotic prestige goods.

Artifact assemblages during this period became more complex. Pottery is more diversified than that of previous cultural periods; there are clear functional differences in form and quality. Cooking bowls and storage containers are the most common form, but polished and decorated vessels also are prevalent. Trade goods include Coastal Plain shell, used in the manufacture of beads, drinking vessels, and elaborately decorated gorgets, as well as flint, copper, wood, and salt (Griffin 1967:189-191; Stoltman 1978:725-728). Fish (1976:19) lists a variety of small triangular (Caraway, Clements, Uwharrie) and pentagonal (Pee Dee) projectile points found on Mississippian sites in the Coastal Plain.

Mississippian ceramics common in southeastern Georgia are unique in their retention and refinement of several previously utilized decorative motifs and in their reintroduction of earlier designs. General agreement has been reached on a Mississippian ceramic sequence for the Georgia coast (Braley 1990; DePratter and Howard 1980; Smith et al. 1981). Depending on the source, the St. Catherine's phase (AD 1000 to 1150) is considered either transitional (Smith et al. 1981:89; Williams and Shapiro 1990), contemporaneous with the Savannah phase (Crook

1984), or the earliest Mississippian manifestation on the Georgia coast (White 1988:108). Differentiated by clay (or fine grog) temper, St. Catherine's vessels generally are cord marked or net impressed; however, plain and burnished plain types have been defined (Stanyard n.d.).

Currently, the Savannah phase (AD 1150 to 1300) is accepted as the initial period of Mississippian occupation in the Georgia Coastal Plain and usually is divided into two sub-phases. According to DePratter and Howard (1980:24), Savannah I (AD 1150 to 1200) includes fine cord-marked, plain, and burnished plain surface treatments. While DePratter and Howard (1980) consider check stamping a marker for Savannah II (their sequence consists of three phases), Braley (1990:71) includes check stamping (on large jars) within Savannah I and suggests plain carinated bowls were also produced. Savannah II (AD 1200 to 1300) is defined by the continuation of certain decorative motifs and the addition of complicated stamping (figure eights, figure nines, and bull's eyes; Caldwell and Waring 1939), particularly on large jars (Braley 1990:71).

The Irene phase (AD 1300 to 1450) follows Savannah II and was defined at the type site (9CH1) near Savannah during excavations in the late 1930s (Caldwell and McCann 1941). This period is thought to represent the initial manifestation of the Lamar Culture on the Georgia coast and is called "Climax Mississippian" by Garrow (1984:52). The Irene phase represents the first clear archaeological manifestation of historically known tribal units (i.e., the Guale). As an outgrowth of the traditional settlement pattern, many of the Irene sites located in coastal Georgia correspond to Spanish and French accounts of Guale Indian villages. Irene I (AD 1300 to 1350) ceramics are coarse sand/grit-tempered exhibiting plain, burnished plain, and complicated stamped (variations on the filfot cross) surface treatments (DePratter and Howard 1980:24, 31). Braley (1990:71) lists large plain jars and reed punctate or noded rims as defining ceramic attributes. During Irene II (AD 1350 to 1450), incising is added as a surface treatment (bold on carinated bowls, scroll motifs on small jars), and appliqued or segmented rim strips are seen on large jars.

Based on several recent analyses, Braley (1990:99-100) follows Larson (1958) in suggesting the use of the designation "Pine Harbor phase" (AD 1450 to 1575) to represent the last Mississippian/Lamar culture manifestation on the upper Georgia coast prior to European contact. Smith et al. (1981:91) describe Pine Harbor as "the temporal equivalent of Irene on the lower Georgia coast [except for] the presence of an additional ceramic type, McIntosh Incised." Other ceramic attributes of this phase are (Braley 1990:72):

> large jars with reed-punctated applique rim strips ... small jars with intricate incised motifs ... bold incising ... punctation ... carinated bowls with multiple-line incising.

In differentiating between early and late Mississippian periods, Garrow (1984:52) recorded six Mississippian sites (equally divided between the Vidalia Upland and the Coastal Marine Flatlands) and one Climax Mississippian site (in the Coastal Marine Flatlands). Studies by Fish (1976) and Smith and Elliott (1985a) were inconclusive regarding the presence of Mississippian sites in the Ebenezer Creek watershed and on the Fort Howard tract, respectively. Investigators of the 1,000-hectare Savannah Quarters Tract identified no definite Mississippian sites (Bailey et al. 1997). Survey of the 2,040-hectare Godley Tract resulted in the identification of one Mississippian site (9CH872) (Bailey and Poplin 1997; Hicks 1997; McMakin and Bailey 1997). Surveyors of the 520-hectare Morgan Tract identified no definite Mississippian sites (Fletcher et al. 2003).

3.2.2 Overview of the Protohistoric Era

This period encompasses the time after initial contact with Europeans, but before the loss of Native American political control over the region (AD 1540 to 1733). The beginning of this period is signaled by the DeSoto entrada; the period ends with the signing of the Treaty of Yamacraw Bluff (Savannah).

By the middle of the seventeenth century, historically known Native American groups such as the Cherokee, Coosa, Creek, Ocute, Calusa, and Apalachee inhabited Georgia. Unlike earlier Mississippian peoples, these groups did not

normally construct mounds, and it appears that there was a trend away from increasing social stratification (the formation of true social classes). There were well-established trade routes that linked individual regions with each other and areas outside the Southeast, but the regional political dominance of specific population centers had changed.

Spanish explorers arrived in Georgia during the second half of the sixteenth century, setting up forts (e.g., Castillo de San Marcos and Santa Elena) and Jesuit missions (e.g., San Diego de Satuache, San Phelipe, and Santa Catalina) along the coast (Worth 1995). The explorers traded items such as glass beads, clothing, metal tools, firearms, and rum extensively with the Native American groups they encountered, and regularly investigated interior lands. Among the first groups the Spanish encountered were the Guale. The Guale inhabited lagoon and marsh sections of the coast and lived in dispersed settlements along major rivers (Thomas 1993).

Larson (1958) posited the Irene/Pine Harbor phase as representative of the culture of the Guale Indians at the time of initial contact with Spanish explorers and missionaries (approximately AD 1540 to 1600). As contact and settlement intensified, this group became more dependent upon Spanish trade goods, such as metal tools, firearms, and alcohol, and began associating more closely with the expanding Spanish mission system. Increasing assimilation of European lifeways and decimation by European disease led to profound changes in aboriginal lifeways and material culture (Smith 1987). It is likely that disease introduced by the Spanish, and later the English, was responsible for the elimination of a very large percentage of the population (Wood 1989) and perhaps the role of regional polities as it transformed the elaborate political structure of the region. Ongoing warfare between Native American ethnic groups served to further weaken Native American populations already reduced by the effects of warfare with Europeans in the area. The introduction of new European material goods such as firearms and iron provided new tools of war to the Native American groups of the area. By the early seventeenth century, much of the population of coastal Georgia was transferred to mission sites located on barrier islands.

The Mississippian/Lamar culture recognized for the Georgia coastal area is the Altamaha/Sutherland Bluff phase (AD 1575 to 1700; Braley 1990). Larson (1958) also associates this phase with the Guale during "the period of intensive contact after the establishment of the mission system and prior to its destruction by British raiders from the Carolinas" (Smith et al. 1981:91). Large bell-shaped jars and plates were produced, and red filming was applied, probably in imitation of European forms and decoration (i.e., Altamaha/San Marcos Pottery). Loop and strap handles were introduced for the first time to the coastal area. Vessel decorations are primarily simple, line block, check stamped, plain, or incised with bold or narrow lines. A minority are decorated with rectilinear complicated stamping (Braley 1990:72; DePratter and Howard 1980:31).

A number of Native American groups may have occupied the coastal region during the early protohistoric era. According to Lanning (1971:9-10), the Timucuans (from the southern Georgia coast) replaced the Guale on the northern coast during the seventeenth century. Swanton (1922) indicates the Lower Creek and the Yuchi settled along the Lower Savannah River during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Across the Savannah River in South Carolina, the Yamasee, Coosaw, Cusabo, Westo, and Savannah Indian groups held territory not yet claimed by the English or Spanish (Smith and Elliott 1985a:12). Most of what is now Georgia was inhabited during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries by members of what became known as the Creek Confederacy (Swanton 1922).

During the early 1700s, major European and Native American powers in the Southeast continually shifted alliances, conspiring and warring against each other to further their short- and long-term economic positions (Braley 1996; Thomas 1993). In an apparent bid to take advantage of the power struggle between the British and the Spanish, the Creek sided with the Yamasee against the British at Charleston in the Yamasee War (1715 to 1717). Although the war went well for the Native Americans initially, British reinforcements, along with superior weapons, allowed the South Carolinians to counterattack successfully, forcing the Yamasee and their allies to retreat to Florida

and the West (Fretwell 1980:118). Consequently, the Yuchi moved into the area and took over the lucrative deer skin trade for a time.

Other Native American groups achieved standing in the project region during the early eighteenth century. Soon after James Oglethorpe and his shipload of pioneer settlers landed at Yamacraw Bluff in February 1733, they were met by Chief Tomochichi of the Yamacraw Indians (Spalding 1977:19). This chief was instrumental in laying the groundwork for a treaty with the Lower Creek (the Treaty of Yamacraw Bluff signed in May 1733), ceding the portion of Georgia containing the project area to the British settlers, despite continued trading visits and the presence of several smaller Native American groups to the north as late as 1750 (e.g., the Yuchi remained in villages along Ebenezer and Brier Creeks until 1763). This agreement ended Native American political control over the project region.

3.2.3 Overview of the Historic Era

Colonial Georgia (1733 to 1783)

Georgia became a Trustee colony in 1733 under the direction of James Oglethorpe, one of several London philanthropists interested in settling a portion of the American colonies with the poor and disadvantaged of Britain. The Trustees chose the location of this settlement to accomplish a number of goals. A settlement in this area (i.e., between Charleston and St. Augustine) would serve as a buffer between British and Spanish interests. Additionally, the Trustees hoped to produce a variety of semi-tropical exports, including silk, wine, and spices, to bolster the sagging economy. Finally, supporters of the colony urged development of strong trading ties with the natives in hopes of taking over this enterprise from the Spanish and French (Coleman 1982:2-4).

Oglethorpe and the Trustees encouraged groups from across Europe and of other faiths (the charter excluded only Roman Catholics) to settle in the colony of Georgia. A group of Jewish families was allowed to settle in Savannah soon after its initial founding (Spalding 1977:22). German Protestants settled at Bethany, and Quakers established a community at Wrightsborough, south of Augusta (Stokes 1982:124-125). Particularly noteworthy among those taking advantage of these offers was a group of German Lutherans who fled Salzburg to escape religious persecution. In 1736, after abandoning their original inland grant called Ebenezer, the Salzburgers settled the town of New Ebenezer, located north of Savannah on the Savannah River (Elliott 1988). According to Smith and Elliott (1985a:145), by 1740 these settlers had moved south along the Savannah River and Mill Creek and were farming the upland areas above the bluff.

While transportation throughout the area focused on the Savannah River and its tributaries, early attempts were made to link settlements over land. In 1735, Oglethorpe ordered the construction of a road linking Savannah and Augusta, previously completed to Ebenezer. Despite providing a more direct route between these cities (140 miles [225.3 km] by land as opposed to 210 miles [337.96 km] on the meandering Savannah River), use of the river continued its dominance until after 1800 (Cooper 1960:30).

The Georgia colony developed and grew slowly. Although several grants were issued for lands near the Savannah River, few grantees attempted to settle the holdings. The Yamasee War had only just ended across the river in Beaufort District, and the area was still vulnerable to Native American and Spanish attack (Rowland 1987). Furthermore, initial limitations placed on land ownership, labor, production, and trade by the Trustees further retarded growth (Boorstin 1958:88-95). The 50-acre tracts originally granted to each family, and the prohibition against selling land or passing it on to any but the first male offspring, made continued survival on the inland pine barrens difficult, if not impossible. Life in the new colony of Georgia was extremely difficult; the unfamiliar and inhospitable climate resulted in disease, failed crops, and early death for many (Elliott 1990).

By 1750, the Trustees had repealed many of these restrictions and allowed industrious colonists to accumulate larger tracts of land. This paved the way for the establishment of plantations and the expansion of agricultural production. While slavery initially was prohibited, expansion of landholdings and the need for additional labor convinved the Trustees to allow the enslavement of people in

the colony after 1750. Failure to develop the silk industry led to diversification of crop production, introduction of rice agriculture, and the growth of timber exports. In 1752, due to financial difficulties and pressure from the King, the Trustees relinquished their charter, and Georgia became a royal colony (Coleman 1982:11).

Establishment of a royal colony necessitated changes in political organization. The Georgia colony had been divided into two administrative districts or counties in 1741; the southern district had its governing center at Frederica, while the northern district was administered from Savannah (Spalding 1977:27). In 1758, Savannah County, the area encompassing the lower basin of the Savannah River, was divided into four parishes: St. Paul, St. George, St. Matthew, and Christ Church. Christ Church Parish was designated as the area between the Savannah and Ogeechee rivers, including the project tract (Hemperley 1974:vii). With the onset of the Revolutionary War, Georgia became a state, and Chatham County was established, including Little and Ogeechee Necks. Bryan County, which took Ogeechee Neck but not Little Neck, was created from parts of Chatham, Liberty, and Effingham counties in 1793 (Gregory et al. 1953:14).

By the 1770s, Georgia was a major agricultural colony. Although the silk industry failed, rice became an exportable cash crop for the coastal regions and cotton was growing in importance on inland uplands. Indigo was grown south of the project region along the Ogeechee River and on some of the Sea Islands. Georgians began growing their own corn, potatoes, and peas instead of importing their food crops from South Carolina. Other exported products included lumber (in the form of shingles, boards, and barrel staves) and naval stores (Coleman 1982, 1991).

Between 1778 and 1781, the British occupied many of the towns along the lower Savannah River. Savannah was occupied immediately upon the initiation of hostilities and was used by the British as a base of operations in the southern colonies through 1782. Two expeditions to capture Charleston were initiated from Savannah in 1778 and 1780. British troops moved into Ebenezer at the request of resident Tories and destroyed several mill dams, allowing British ships access upriver (Campbell 1981:71). After Lord Cornwallis surrendered his army at Yorktown in 1781, the British occupation of Georgia ended with the evacuation of Savannah in July 1782. The Treaty of Paris in 1783 signaled the end of hostilities and of British colonial rule.

Frontier Statehood (1783 to 1830)

As previously stated, unlike commonly accepted visions of the colonial agrarian society, rice planters were not small-scale farmers who slowly amassed land; they were an elite planter aristocracy, most of whom inherited their wealth and landholdings from previous generations. The planters developed a system of local absenteeism, preferring to live in Savannah or Charleston, yet visiting frequently to direct overseers and drivers. Absenteeism by planters created a different culture than that of inland cotton, emphasized by the task system of labor as opposed to the gang system. The enslaved living on coastal rice plantations generally received better treatment, clothing, and housing than the enslaved living inland, who were worked in gangs. The enslaved working the coastal rice plantations often received some education, though it was illegal at the time (Smith 1985).

Rice plantations had a great impact on the cultural development of coastal Georgia, mainly the large numbers of enslaved African Americans who provided the massive amounts of labor necessary to produce the crop. Rice planting required systematic irrigation; a large labor force for cultivation, harvesting, processing, and marketing; and a location where freshwater rivers had tidal influence (Smith 1985). Rice plantations fell into disrepair during the Revolution, mostly because the enslaved were freed by the British or escaped, but the plantations were re-established afterwards.

The early history of the state of Georgia generally is marked by population increases and westward expansion. At the time George Washington became president, Georgia had an estimated population of 82,000, primarily concentrated along the coast and northward along the Savannah River (The Slave Rebellion Website 2010). Over the next 40 years, the state's population increased by over 500 percent to 516,823 as more settlers moved in and the resident Native Americans were forced out (The Slave Rebellion Website 2010). An increase in population was demonstrated in the region during this period;

however, the increase was not nearly as dramatic as it was over the entire state.

In a comparison of population statistics from 1790 to 1830 for the five coastal counties (Bryan, Chatham, Glynn, Liberty, and McIntosh) and three inland counties (Burke, Effingham, and Screven), white population decreased while black population (i.e., enslaved Africans and African Americans) increased; throughout this period, whites were in the minority. For two of the three inland counties, whites remained the majority, but populations remained relatively stable (Garrow 1984). Garrow (1984) attributes these differences to variability in agricultural economy. Coastal plantation residents who focused on Sea Island cotton and rice found it necessary to maintain large, enslaved, labor pools, while inland farms with short staple cotton as a primary crop tended to be smaller, family-run operations with small, enslaved, labor pools.

Population statistics and period maps for the late eighteenth through the early nineteenth centuries reflected shifts in agricultural methods that had a profound effect on settlement patterns across Georgia. Agricultural production prior to 1780 focused on coastal areas, where rice, Sea Island cotton, and indigo were the major cash crops, and the plantation system became firmly established. Rice production was developed as a profitable enterprise by the Salzburgers, who utilized the swampy floodplains along the lower Savannah River. Expansion of existing coastal plantations, development of upland cotton varieties, and the invention of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century all made movement into inland areas practical and necessary. Upland cotton farms initially were relatively small, needing little if any enslaved labor. Over time, these holdings increased in size, with a parallel increase in slavery (Cooper 1960; DePratter and Howard 1980:44). Sixty percent of the upland plantations produced the more profitable, short staple cotton by 1820; in 1825, Georgia led the world in cotton production, with 150,000 bales annually (Coleman 1982:39).

The Antebellum Period (1830 to 1861)

Observations by White (1849) indicate a continuation of agricultural trends from the previous period and suggest the beginnings of industrial development in southeast Georgia. Lower coastal counties continued to produce rice and Sea Island cotton but began to substitute sugar cane for indigo as a cash crop. Subsistence crops included corn, potatoes, apricots, and figs. Inland production of short staple cotton continued; rice and sugar cane were grown along the Savannah River; and subsistence crops included corn, peas, potatoes, various fruits, and grain (e.g., rye and oats) (White 1849).

The Savannah and Ogeechee Canal, the first transportation canal constructed in Georgia from 1826 to 1830, provided a transportation route between the Savannah and Ogeechee rivers. This 16.5-mile (26.6-km) long waterway allowed for the transportation of lumber, cotton, and rice from the interior of Georgia to the port of Savannah and the movement of manufactured goods from Savannah to the interior (Hendricks 1997). In 1830, local plantation owners Isaac Young and Thomas Gibbons deepened and straightened a one-mile segment of Pipemakers Creek to create the 18-foot-wide Pipemakers Canal. This canal was initially created for drainage control for nearby rice fields (Harris 2009).

Textile, rice, saw, and grist mills were concentrated around Savannah; by 1850, Chatham County had two iron foundries (McAlpin's Foundry and another that would eventually become Kehoe Iron Works [Trustee's Garden 2008]) and a brickyard located at Hermitage Plantation (Georgia Historical Society 2012). Construction of the Central of Georgia Railroad, linking the expanding cotton belt with Georgia's major seaport, began at Savannah in 1836. The railroad was completed to Macon in 1843, after many delays (Boney 1977:158).

In 1854, a hurricane coupled with a yellow fever epidemic devastated the area. The hurricane of 1854 struck the Georgia coast on September 7-8, coming ashore near Ossabaw Island. Overnight, the barometer fell to 28.737 millibars, and sustained winds in excess of 90 miles per hour were recorded (*Savannah Daily Morning News* 1854; Sullivan 1998:164). Tidal flooding and levee collapse caused a near total loss of the unharvested rice crop. The portion of the crop already harvested was severely affected by heavy winds and equipment damage. Similarly damaging storms occurred in 1804 and again in 1824, each with major impacts on the rice

crop (*Savannah Daily Morning News* 1854; Sullivan 1998:164-166). The yellow fever epidemic of 1854 began in August and extended through October. In all, 560 people died in the outbreak (Farley 1969:72-75; Sullivan 1998:164).

The Civil War (1861 to 1865)

As in most areas of the South, the Civil War and its aftermath brought many hardships to Chatham County. Early in the war, when military action took place in states to the north and west of Georgia, the negative economic effects could already be seen in the area. Farmers became soldiers and crops were left in the fields unharvested. The disruption of markets left cash in short supply.

Many prominent Savannah residents led the fight, seizing Union property before Georgia seceded. Colonel Alexander R. Lawton seized Fort Pulaski in the early days of the conflict, only to have it taken back by Union forces in 1862. Confederate Colonel Olmsted, in command of Fort Pulaski, was forced to surrender to Union Major General David Hunter. After the Union captured Atlanta in September 1864, General William T. Sherman began his famous March to the Sea. The Union forces took or destroyed all commercial and production facilities in their path. After liberating the abandoned state capitol at Milledgeville, Sherman's army moved toward Savannah.

The Confederates hurriedly dug trenches and abatis around the city for defense. The Union Army, upon encountering the rebel lines, set up their own batteries and trenches. Savannah was liberated by Union forces on December 21, 1864, as Confederates had started their retreat into South Carolina across the Savannah River a few days earlier. The war ended nearly six months later. The defeat of Confederate forces led to occupation by Union troops and the beginning of Reconstruction. In the areas where large plantations had dominated, emancipation meant an exodus of African Americans from the region, diminishing the available labor force.

Postbellum Georgia (1870 to 1930)

During Reconstruction, the destroyed railroads were rebuilt and refurbished, and exportation of agricultural products again became an important part of the local economy. Specifically, cotton regained its position as the major cash crop and remained as such until the 1920s, when the boll weevil reached the area. Industrial growth centered on textiles followed at a slower rate and was focused around Savannah.

Other industries that exhibited growth and were often seen in more rural areas included various grain milling operations, tanneries, distilleries, brick manufacture, and fertilizer manufacture. The continuation of cotton monoculture generally worked to the exclusion of developments in food production or industry, resulting in increased severity of the economic depressions that occurred in late 1870s, the middle 1890s, and the 1930s.

Analysis of farm size and occupancy data conducted by Garrow (1984:71-75) illustrates changes occurring in the local agricultural economy during the late nineteenth through the early twentieth centuries. These data suggest that Chatham County differed somewhat from the norm. Compared to eight other counties (Bryan, Burke, Effingham, Glynn, Liberty, Long, McIntosh, and Screven), Chatham County had higher frequencies of smaller farms (less than 100 acres), with over 40 percent of its farms containing 3 to 10 acres. In general, farms in Chatham County appeared to have been under tenant occupancy more often than in any other county studied (Garrow 1984).

The production of naval stores was a major industry in the area throughout the first half of the twentieth century. Postbellum Southerners used the turpentine industry as a quick way to recoup capital lost during the Civil War. By the last quarter of the nineteenth century, factors in Savannah and the Gulf ports controlled the turpentine trade. Savannah controlled the world price for naval stores from 1880 to 1950. Ceramic pots, replacing boxes cut into trees, were introduced to the turpentine trade around 1908, and several other technical improvements lessened some of the exhaustive effects of the practice. These improvements notwithstanding, an estimated 130,000 acres of pine forest were consumed between 1810 and 1930 (Wilson and Ferris 1989:40, 752-753, 1428-1429).

Following a severe yellow fever epidemic in 1876, the Chatham County Drainage Commission was established by an Act of the Georgia State Legislature (Chatham County 1877:2). In the 1880s,

the Drainage Commission in Chatham County built three major canals in an effort to reduce the risk of future yellow fever outbreaks. These canals include the Cuyler (later named Casey), the Placentia, and the Springfield Canals. The Springfield Canal was built to drain Musgrove Creek and intersects with the Savannah-Ogeechee Canal (DePratter and Doyon 1984).

Mid-Twentieth Century Recovery (1930 to present)
The decade of the 1930s represented a time of hardship brought about by the worldwide economic depression. Jobs and cash were scarce, and many small farmers lost their property. Finally, the increased demand for food and manufactured products brought about by World War II ended the Depression and led to a further diversification of agricultural crops. New industry also brought changes in the business and industrial community as a whole.

During World War II, Chatham County was home to two airfields and a quartermaster depot later operated by the Army Ordnance Corps for ammunition storage. Hunter Field, located south of the project tract, first operated as a local airfield in 1929 and was later used by the U.S. Army during World War II. After the war, the Georgia Ports Authority (GPA) was established by the 1945 States Ports Act #422. The Port of Savannah, established in Garden City, became the largest flagship port for the GPA. This port, also referred to as the Garden City Terminal, was acquired by GPA in 1948 through the purchase of the former U.S. Quartermaster Depot.

Into the mid-twentieth century, agriculture remained an important part of the economy of Chatham County. Paved roads enabled farmers to get their products to market easier, and electricity became available in all rural areas. Some acreage remained in cotton after the boll weevil was on the way to eradication. Many farmers, however, turned to vegetable production or raising beef and dairy cattle. By the 1950s, the number of farm laborers dramatically decreased as agriculture became increasingly mechanized. In 1974, about 65 percent of Chatham County and adjoining Effingham County were woodland, held in large tracts by wood and paper companies such as International Paper and Kerr-McGee (Wilkes et al. 1974:1). The warm climate and high water table allow for rapid tree growth, making the area ideally suited for the production of timber and its products (Wilkes et al. 1974:1). According to the 2020 U.S. Census, Chatham County is home to approximately 295,000 residents.

3.3 History of the Project Tract

A specific goal for this project included determining the specific history of the project tract. The project tract consists of the southeastern lots of Lloyd Ward in Savannah, Georgia, specifically the original Ward lots 9 through 14 and 24. The project tract is bisected by Howard Street and bordered by Barnard Street to the northwest, West Waldburg Street to the northeast, Whitaker Street to the southeast, and West Park Avenue to the southwest. While Lloyd Ward Lot 23 lies within the street boundaries described above, it is not within the project tract boundaries (See Figures 3.2 and 3.3).

The project tract lies wholly within the boundaries of the NRHP-listed Savannah Victorian Historic District (SVHD). Background research identified three previously recorded architectural resources (Resource 256204, Resource 256205, and Resource 256206) within the project tract. Additionally, three previously recorded architectural resources (Resource 8928, Resource 8929, and Resource 8980) were identified within Lloyd Ward Lot 23, adjacent to the project tract. All six previously recorded resources were listed in GNAHRGIS as eligible for the NRHP and contributing elements to the SVHD. It is Brockington's understanding that the three previously recorded resources within the project tract (Resource 256204, Resource 256205, and Resource 256206) have been scheduled for demolition prior to construction activities associated with the proposed project. The locations of the previously recorded architectural resources are depicted on Figure 3.2 below.

The SVHD contains residential neighborhoods located south of the original city settlement. Per City of Savannah engineering maps, this region was incorporated into the city limits in 1854 (City of Savannah 1906). In 1861, a portion of the city south of Forsyth Park was given to a military parade ground. After the American Civil War, the parade ground was

no longer required, and the ordinance establishing it was repealed. The former parade ground was added to Forsyth Park, and the areas to the west and east of this Park Extension were opened as a new residential district. These new and existing neighborhoods were connected to the city street railways in Savannah, allowing citizens working in the original city center to live farther from their residences and creating Savannah's earliest suburb. Wards and lots within the new district were laid out between 1868 and 1872. The SVHD contains a high concentration of post-Civil War domestic architecture from the 1870s through the 1890s, with Carpenter "Box" houses, Queen Anne houses, and brick townhouses being the predominant architectural styles scattered throughout the district. While the district was originally dominated by post-Civil War domestic construction, commercial development has increasingly infiltrated the district boundaries, a process which continues into the modern era (NRHP 1974).

Per Georgia DNR HPD records, Resource 8928 is a two-story house in the Neoclassical Revival style. The house is located at 117 West Waldburg Street on the original Lot 23 of Lloyd Ward and adjacent to the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3) and was constructed in 1808. Resource 8928 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

Resource 8929 is a two-story house in the Italianate style and is located at 121-123 West Waldburg Street on Lot 23 of Lloyd Ward and adjacent to the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3). According to DNR HPD records, the house was constructed in 1880 as a single-family residence, but the building has since been divided into multiple units. Resource 8929 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

Resource 8980 is a two-story house in the Neoclassical Revival style, originally constructed in 1808. It is located at 1006-1008 Barnard Street on Lot 23 of Lloyd Ward and adjacent to the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3). According to DNR HPD records, the house was originally a single-family residence but has been split into multiple units. Resource 8980 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

Resource 256204 is a two-story brick building of no particular style located at 124 West Park Avenue, on Lot 24 of Lloyd Ward, and within the boundaries of the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3). According to DNR HPD records, the building was originally a single-family residence constructed in 1885, was later converted to multi-family housing and was most recently in use as a funeral home. However, the residences on Lot 24 as identified in aerial photographs and Sanbourn Map Company (Sanborn) maps prior to 1971 do not match the footprint of the funeral home building. The residential buildings remain on the lot through a 1968 aerial photograph, and the funeral home building replaced the prior buildings in a 1971 aerial photograph. Therefore, it is likely that the original residential buildings were demolished c. 1968-1971 and the funeral home building was constructed within the same period. Resource 256204 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

Resource 256205 is a one-story brick commercial office building of the Modern Movement style located at 1001 Whitaker Street, on Lots 9 and 10 of Lloyd Ward, and within the boundaries of the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3). Per DNR HPD records, the building was constructed in 1961. Resource 256205 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

Resource 256206 is a one-story brick commercial building located at 1015 Whitaker Street, on Lot 12 of Lloyd Ward, and within the boundaries of the project tract (see Figures 3.2 and 3.3). DNR HPD records list the construction date of the building as 1957. Resource 256206 was last surveyed in 2017 and has been determined eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C (*architecture*) by the DNR HPD. DNR HPD records also note the resource is considered a contributing element of the SVHD.

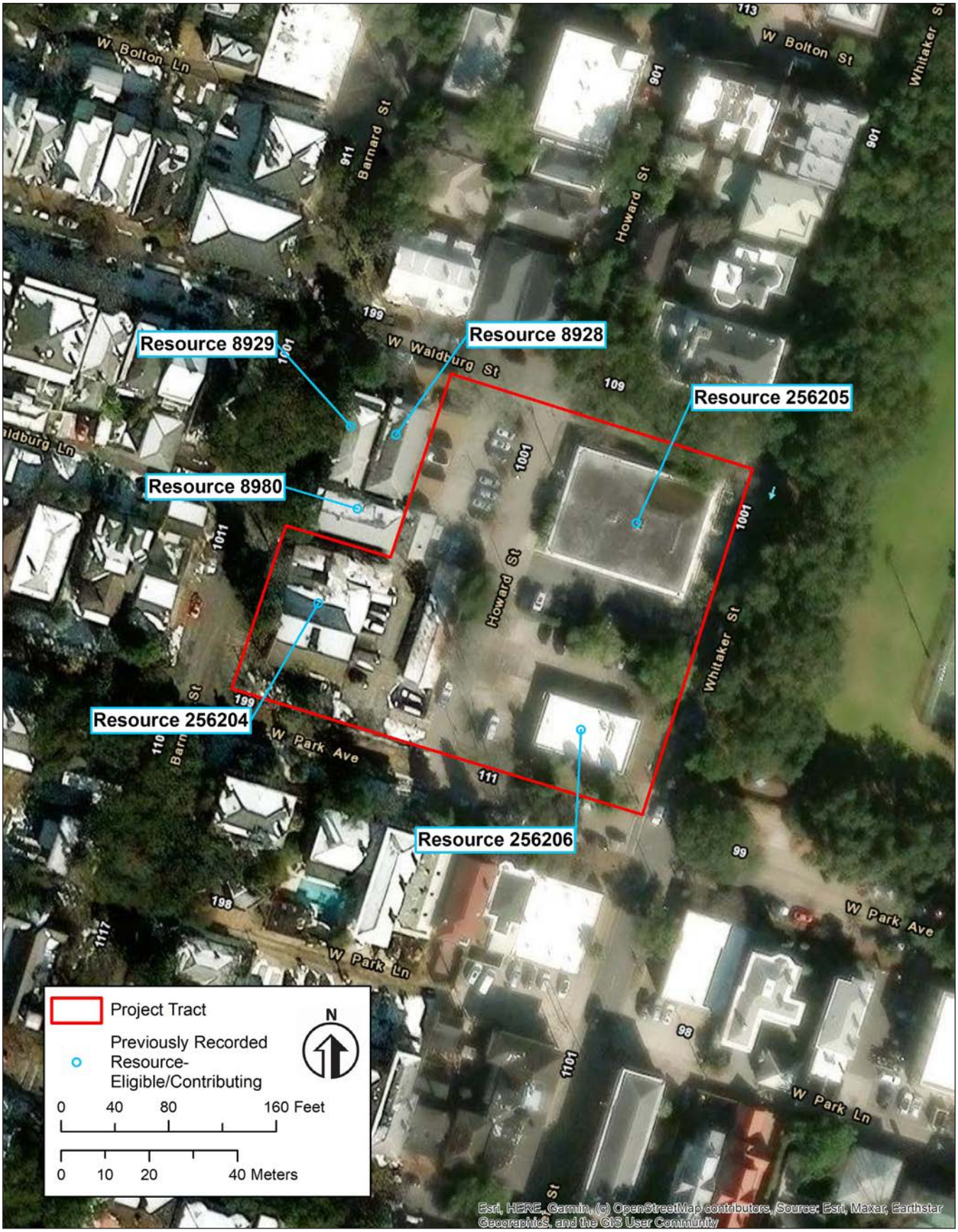

Figure 3.2 Project tract and previously recorded architectural resources.

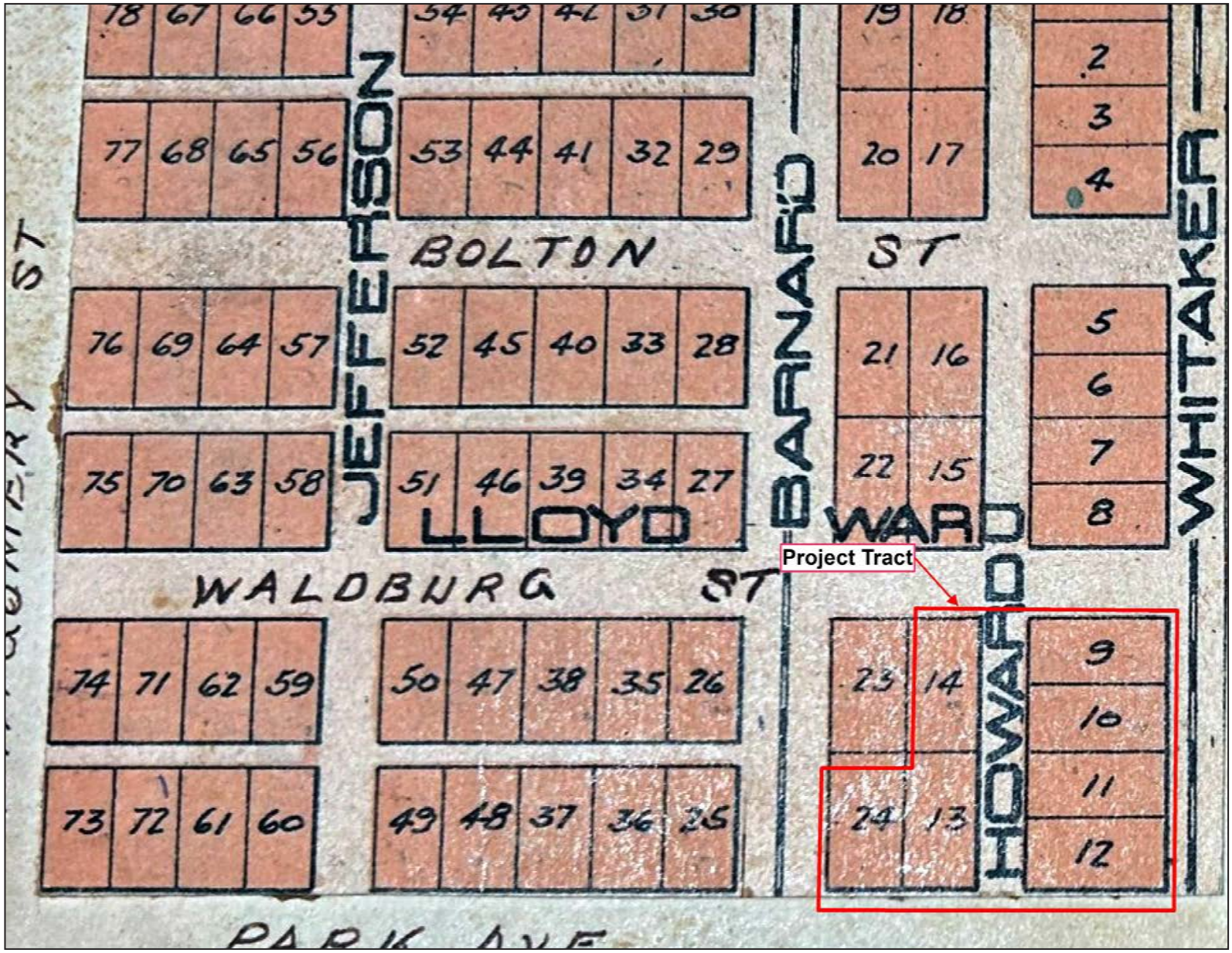

Figure 3.3 Ward map of Lloyd Ward (Source: City of Savannah 1910).

An 1888 Sanborn map indicates that a portion of the project tract to the east of Howard Street was occupied by vacant, undeveloped lots. Lots 13, 14, 23, and 24 to the west of Howard Street were occupied by one- and two-story wooden frame domestic houses and outbuildings. Resource 8929 can be identified in this map as the northwestern-most building in Lot 23. None of the buildings in the project area were marked as having basements in the 1888 Sanborn map (Figure 3.4). By the time of a 1916 Sanborn Map, the houses in Lloyd Ward Lots 14 and 23 had been demolished, with the exception of Resource 8929, and replaced with denser two-story residential houses and outbuildings. The lots east of Howard Street were partially occupied by two- and three-story split-level brick apartment buildings with wood framed extensions and outbuildings. Neither the previous nor new construction had basements, suggesting that limited to no below-ground construction existed within the project tract during this time period (Figure 3.5). The United States Works Progress Administration (WPA) 1939 Cadastral Survey map of Lloyd Ward indicates that the sidewalks along the street boundaries of the project tract and along Howard Street were originally composed of brick paving, with grassed medians facing Barnard Street, West Waldburg Street, and West Park Avenue (Figure 3.6).

A 1955 Sanborn map shows little change in the built environment of the project tract, save for some demolition and construction of wood-framed outbuildings west of Howard Street and the consolidation of several garages into a single brick garage east of Howard Street (Figure 3.7). A 1968 aerial photograph indicates that between 1955 and 1968, the brick apartment buildings east of Howard Street had been demolished, and Resources 256205 and 256206 had been constructed in their current locations. As noted above, between 1968 and 1971 aerial photographs, the wooden frame buildings in Lot 24 had been demolished, and Resource 256204 had been constructed, overlapping portions of the previous houses' locations.

A 1973 Sanborn map confirms the demolition and construction activity identified in the 1968 and 1971 aerial photographs. Resource 256204 is depicted in Lot 24, designated as a one- and two-story multi-element building with wooden frame construction, brick and masonry veneer, and no basement. Resource 256205 is depicted in Lots 9 and 10, designated as a one-story fire-proof construction building of brick and glass with no basement, constructed in 1961. Resource 256206 is depicted in Lot 12, noted as a one-story masonry building with concrete floor and metal joists and no basement. The 1973 Sanborn map also indicates that the wood frame residential buildings in Lot 13 had been demolished and replaced by an asphalt parking lot and a one-story concrete and brick parking garage (Figure 3.8).

A 1974 aerial photograph shows that a residential house on the eastern side of Lot 12 had been demolished since the 1973 Sanborn Map had been surveyed, leaving that half of Lot 12 an empty lot. The 1974 aerial photograph also indicates that large portions of Lots 9-12 and Lot 14 were occupied by asphalt parking lots. Between 1981 and 1994 aerial photographs, the remaining residential buildings in Lot 12 had been demolished, with a small outbuilding having been constructed in the southwestern corner of the lot. Per aerial photography, the project tract has remained relatively unchanged since 1994. It is Brockington's understanding that as of September 2025, several buildings within the project tract, including Resources 256204, 256205, and 256206, as well as the outbuilding in Lot 12 and the parking garage in Lot 13, are scheduled for demolition prior to the commencement of construction activities associated with the proposed project.

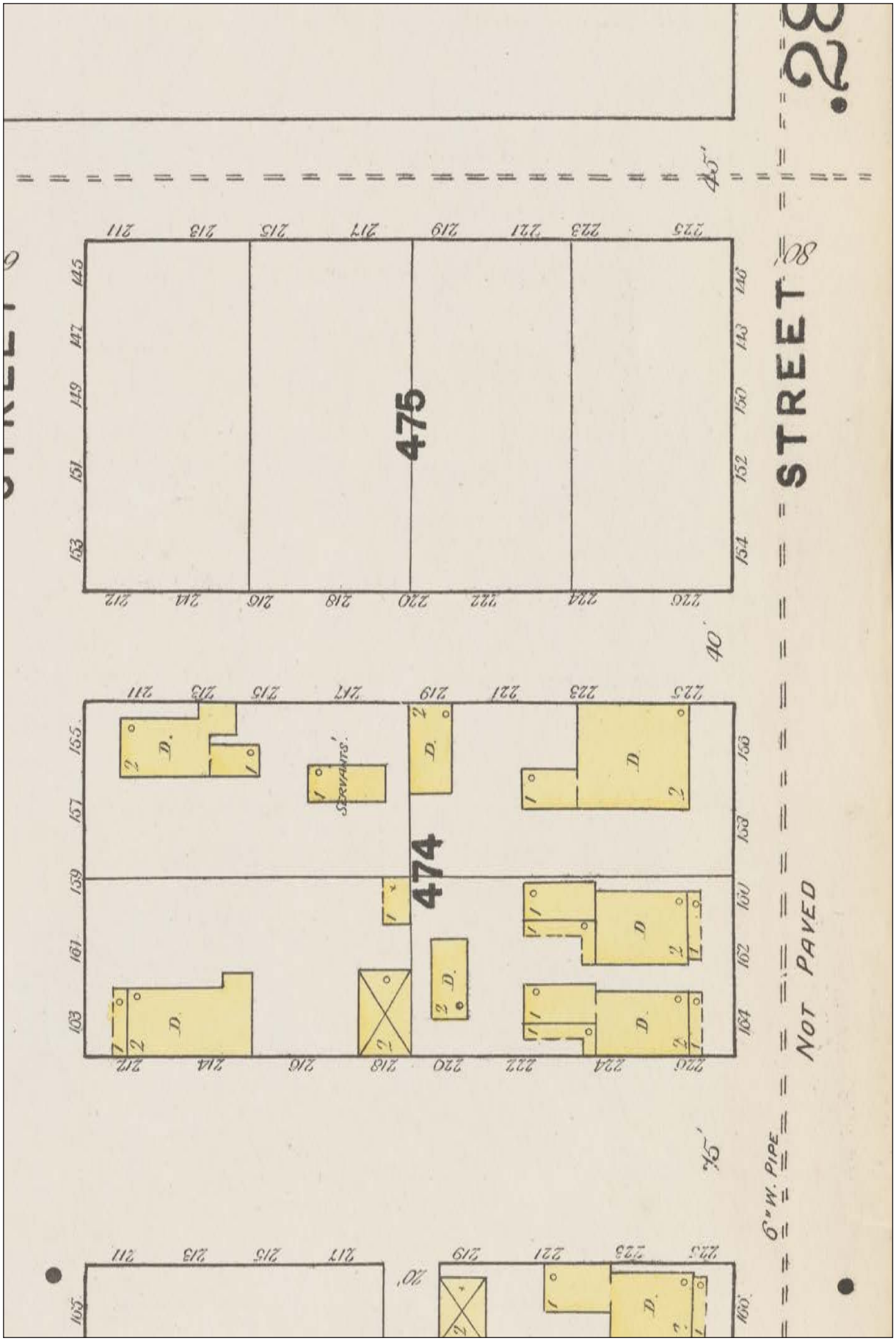

Figure 3.4 1888 Sanborn Map Company map.

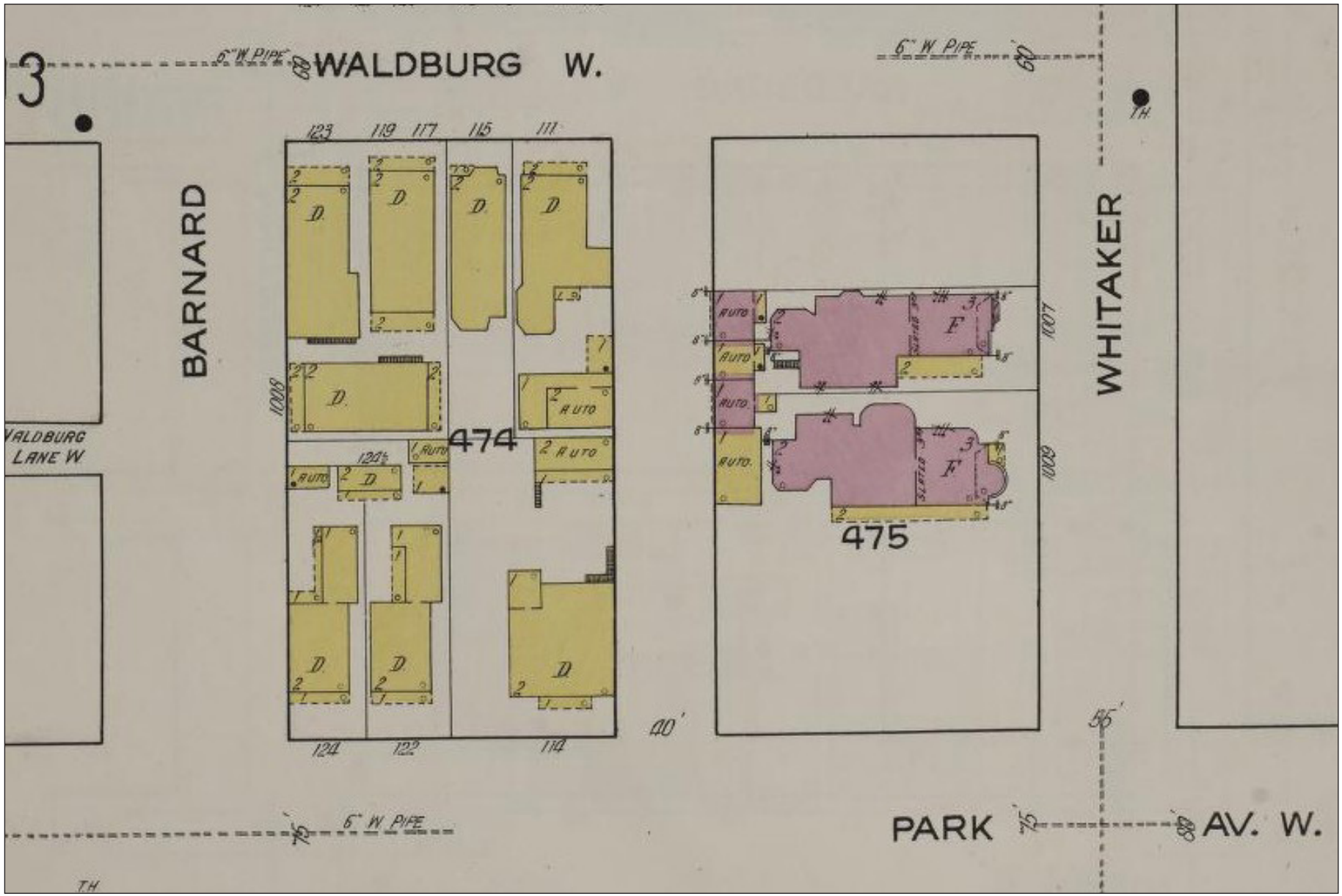

Figure 3.5 1916 Sanborn Map Company map.

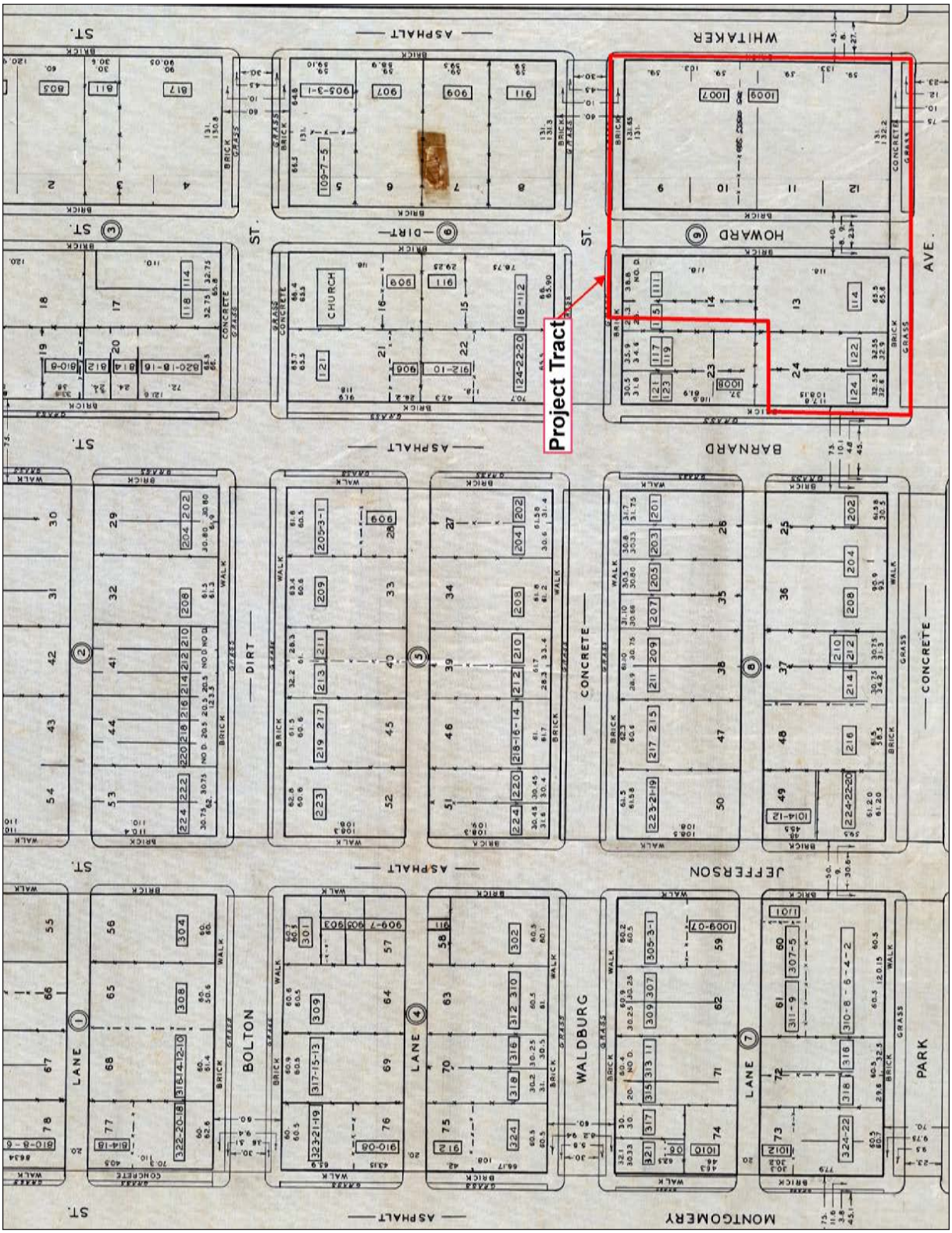

Figure 3.6 Cadastral Survey map of Lloyd Ward (Source: WPA 1939).

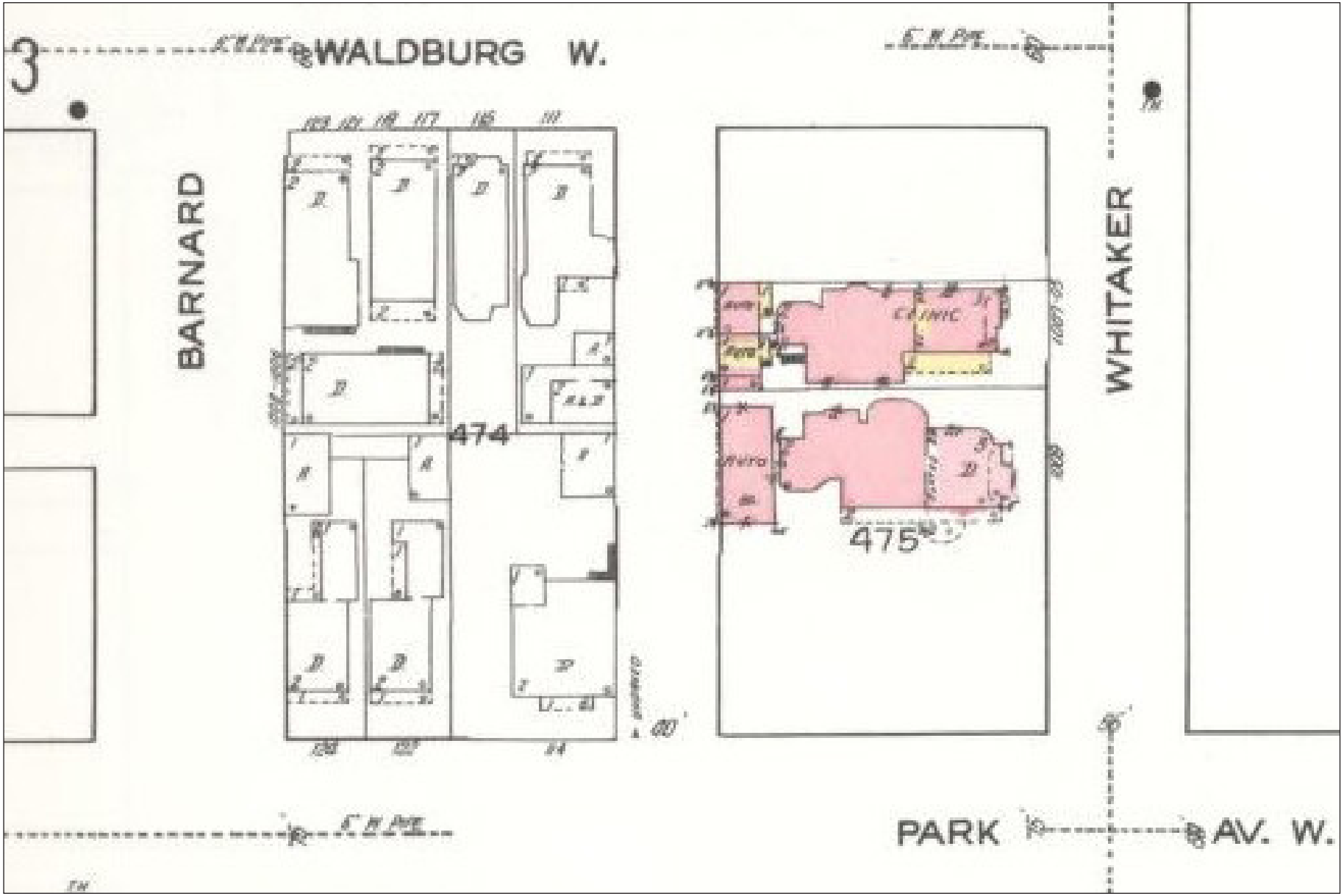

Figure 3.7 1955 Sanborn Map Company map.

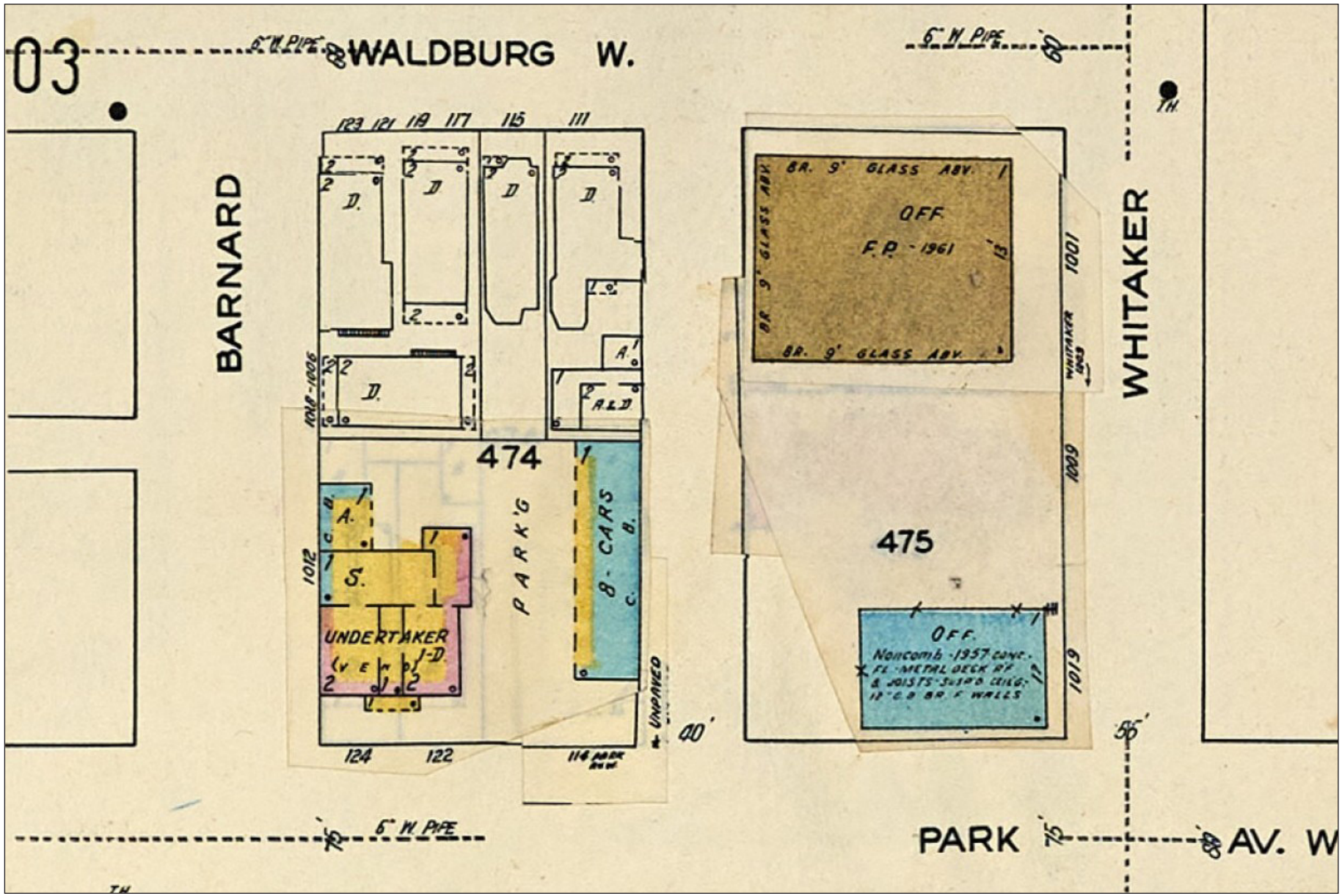

Figure 3.8 1973 Sanborn Map Company map.

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4.0 Results of the Archaeological Survey

4.1 Background Research Results

The project tract is located within the SVHD. Background research conducted on GNAHRGIS did not identify any previously recorded archaeological sites within the archaeological APE. However, seven previously recorded archaeological sites and three previous cultural resources investigations are located within a 0.5-km (0.3-mile) radius of the project tract. Figure 4.1 shows the locations of these previously recorded archaeological sites and previous investigations.

4.1.1 Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites

Table 4.1 lists and briefly describes the seven previously recorded archaeological resources located within the vicinity of the project tract. None of these seven previously recorded archaeological sites are located within an area of direct or indirect effect, and they will not be impacted by the proposed project. None of the previously recorded sites contain pre-contact components, as all the nearby previously recorded sites are historic. Of these historic sites, six are historic artifact scatters and one is an urban related site associated with the City of Savannah. One of the historic artifact scatters, which dates to the eighteenth to twentieth century, is located within Forsyth Park immediately to the east of the project tract. The remaining five historic artifact scatters date to an unknown historic period. The urban related site is part of a historic sidewalk.

With regards to NRHP eligibility status, one previously recorded site (9CH694) is listed on the NRHP. One nearby previously recorded site (9CH1405) is eligible for the NRHP. The remaining five previously recorded archaeological sites are not eligible for the NRHP.

4.1.2 Previously Recorded Cultural Resources Investigations

According to GNAHRGIS, no previous investigations are located within a portion of the project tract (see Figure 4.2). Three previous investigations are located within 0.5 km of the project tract. Table 4.2 presents brief summaries of the previous investigations; refer to Figure 4.2 for their locations. None of these three previous investigations identified any archaeological sites or historic resources within the project tract or its vicinity.

Figure 4.1 Location of previously recorded archaeological sites and investigations within the vicinity of the project tract (1978 *Savannah, GA*-SC 7.5-minute USGS topographic quadrangle).

Table 4.1 List of previously recorded archaeological sites within the vicinity of the project tract.

Site Number	Site Type	NRHP Recommendation	Situation
9CH694	Eighteenth - Twentieth Century Urban Street and Sidewalk	Listed	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1405	Eighteenth to Twentieth Century Artifact Scatter	Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1409	Unknown Historic Artifact Scatter	Not Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1419	Unknown Historic Artifact Scatter	Not Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1420	Unknown Historic Artifact Scatter	Not Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1422	Unknown Historic Artifact Scatter	Not Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract
9CH1423	Unknown Historic Artifact Scatter	Not Eligible	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract

Table 4.2 List of previous cultural resources surveys within the vicinity of the project corridor.

GNAHRGIS ID	Type of Investigation	Situation	Sites within Present Tract	Citation
2535	Archaeological Survey	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract	None	Braley 2003
5139	GDOT Special Provisions	Within 0.5 km of Project Tract	None	Studstill 1995
5610	Historic Assessment	Within the Project Tract	None	McCabe 1979

4.2 Environmental Profile of the Tract

The project tract is in the Barrier Island Sequence section of the Coastal Plain Province (Hodler and Schretter 1986:16-17, 27). The project tract is in an urban environment and is heavily disturbed from past development to construct the several buildings within the neighborhood block. Almost all of the project tract contains a building or is paved in asphalt or concrete. Many buried utility lines are located within the project tract along the perimeter between the sidewalk and the paved roadways. One small area of manicured lawn that is unlikely to contain buried utilities is located within the project tract. Figures 4.2 to 4.11 show typical views of the project tract.

4.3 Archaeological Survey Results

Since the entire project tract is heavily disturbed, the archaeological field survey included a general walk-over of the entire tract and the excavation of judgmentally placed shovel tests in non-paved areas of the project tract. Shovel tests were also not excavated in areas with buried utilities. Soils within the shovel tests exhibited evidence for soil fill and disturbances as a dark grayish-brown loamy sand extended from 0 to 35 cm, underlain by a yellowish-brown sand to 50 cm. A pale brown sandy subsoil was encountered below 50 cm. Modern debris, including plastics, cellophane, aluminum foil, asbestos, gravel, brick fragments, modern glass debris, and other modern rubbish was identified within the first soil layer of fill. None of the excavated shovel tests were positive for artifacts, and our field investigation did not identify any new archaeological resources within the project tract.

Archival research presented in Section 3.3 discussed how the project tract had undergone extensive development, demolition, and redevelopment between the establishment of Lloyd Ward in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Between these periods, numerous buildings constructed of wood, brick, and concrete block associated with residential homes, stores, and businesses were constructed and later demolished for redevelopment of the lots within the project tract. However, archival research does not suggest that any of these former structures contained basements that may have been filled in during construction and redevelopment episodes that occurred within the project tract in the late nineteenth and twentieth century. It is unlikely that significant, intact portions of these previous structures exist within the project tract.

4.4 Summary and Recommendations

On August 22 and 25, 2025, Brockington conducted an intensive Phase I archaeological resources survey of the Forsyth Garage Tract in Savannah, Chatham County, Georgia. The City of Savannah is proposing to construct a below-ground parking structure which would include the demolition of some of the existing buildings and parking areas and the construction of a new parking deck with additional paved driving and parking areas and paved sidewalks. The goal of this investigation was to identify all archaeological resources located within the project tract boundaries and to provide a definitive NRHP evaluation for each resource. This investigation follows current GCPA (2019) standards and guidelines for archaeological surveys by personnel qualified under 36 CFR 61 for the City of Savannah.

The project tract is located within the boundaries of the City of SVHD. Our background research conducted on GNAHRGIS and examination of previous reports revealed no previously recorded archaeological sites or previous investigations within the project's APE. However, seven previously recorded archaeological sites and three previous cultural resources investigations are located within a 0.5-km (0.3-mile) radius of the project tract. All seven of these nearby previously recorded archaeological sites are located outside of the project APE. Therefore, no previously recorded archaeological resources will be impacted by the proposed project.

Brockington's archaeological field survey included systematic visual examination and judgmentally placed shovel test excavations within the project tract in non-paved areas. No artifacts or archaeological resources were identified during our field survey.

Figure 4.2 Typical view of project tract from the southeast corner, facing north.


Figure 4.3 Typical view of project tract from the east side, facing northeast.

Figure 4.4 Typical view of project tract from the northeast corner, facing west.

Figure 4.5 Typical view of project tract from the northeast corner, facing northwest.

Figure 4.6 Typical view of project tract from the northern side, facing southwest.

Figure 4.7 View of only possible undisturbed area in the project tract in the northwestern portion of the tract, facing north.

Figure 4.8 View from the central portion of the project tract, facing northeast.

Figure 4.9 View from the central portion of the project tract, facing northeast.

Figure 4.10 Typical view of project tract from the south side, facing northeast.

Figure 4.11 View of lawn with buried utilities, facing northwest.

Figure 4.12 Typical view of project tract from the southwest corner, facing east.

Figure 4.13 Typical view of project tract from the northwest corner, facing southwest.

Figure 4.14 Typical view of project tract from the northwest corner, facing southeast.

Figure 4.15 View from the central portion of the project tract, facing west.

Figure 4.16 View from the central portion of the project tract, facing east.

Figure 4.17 View from the central portion of the project tract, facing south.

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