

Exhibit GG. Blue Andrus Property Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment Report



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A PHASE I CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY FOR THE GRAND COTEAU DEVELOPMENT IN GRAND COTEAU, ST. LANDRY PARISH, LOUISIANA

FINAL REPORT

PREPARED BY
TERRAXPLORATIONS, INC.

PREPARED FOR
ONE ACADIANA



A PHASE I CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY FOR THE
GRAND COTEAU DEVELOPMENT
IN GRAND COTEAU
ST. LANDRY PARISH, LOUISIANA

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'K. Johnson', followed by a long horizontal line.

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ABSTRACT

On March 20-22, 2018, TerraXplorations, Inc. (TerraX) of Mobile, Alabama performed a cultural resources survey of 46.25 acres (18.72 hectares) for the proposed Grand Coteau development in Grand Coteau, Louisiana. This is a due diligence project with no lead federal agency. The Phase I survey was performed by Kelsey Johnson and Lucinda Freeman under the direction of Kelsey Johnson, Principal Investigator. The investigation identified two isolated finds, which are recommended ineligible for the National Register. No historic structures will be affected by the proposed project. Accordingly, no further archaeological studies are recommended for the proposed project.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

TerraXplorations, Inc. (TerraX) of Mobile, Alabama was contracted by One Acadiana to conduct a cultural resources survey for the proposed Grand Coteau site in Grand Coteau, St. Landry Parish, Louisiana. The Phase I survey was conducted on March 20 through 22, 2018 by Kelsey Johnson and Lucinda Freeman with Kelsey Johnson serving as Principal Investigator. The purpose of this study was to determine if any prehistoric or historic properties exist within the limits of the project area, and if so, to document and assess each based on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) criteria. This is a due diligence project with no lead federal agency.

The total project area, encompassing approximately 46.25 acres (18.72 hectares) lies northeast of Interstate 49 within a pasture in Grand Coteau, Louisiana (Figure 1.1). The terrain is flat, with a large gully in the northeastern portion of the project area. The subject property is found within irregular Section 65, Township 7S, Range 4E as seen on the 1998 Sunset USGS 7.5' series topographic quadrangle (Figure 1.2). Photographs depicting the present state of the land within the project area are provided (Figures 1.3-1.6).

This report of Phase I investigations is presented as follows. Chapter 2 contains information regarding the past and present environmental conditions in the project area. Chapter 3 details the cultural background of the area. Chapter 4 describes the background research for this project. Chapter 5 presents the methodology and results of fieldwork. Chapter 6 concludes the report and summarizes our findings and recommendations. Appendix A contains the curation agreement. Appendix B contains the artifact inventory.



Figure 1.1. Aerial of project area.

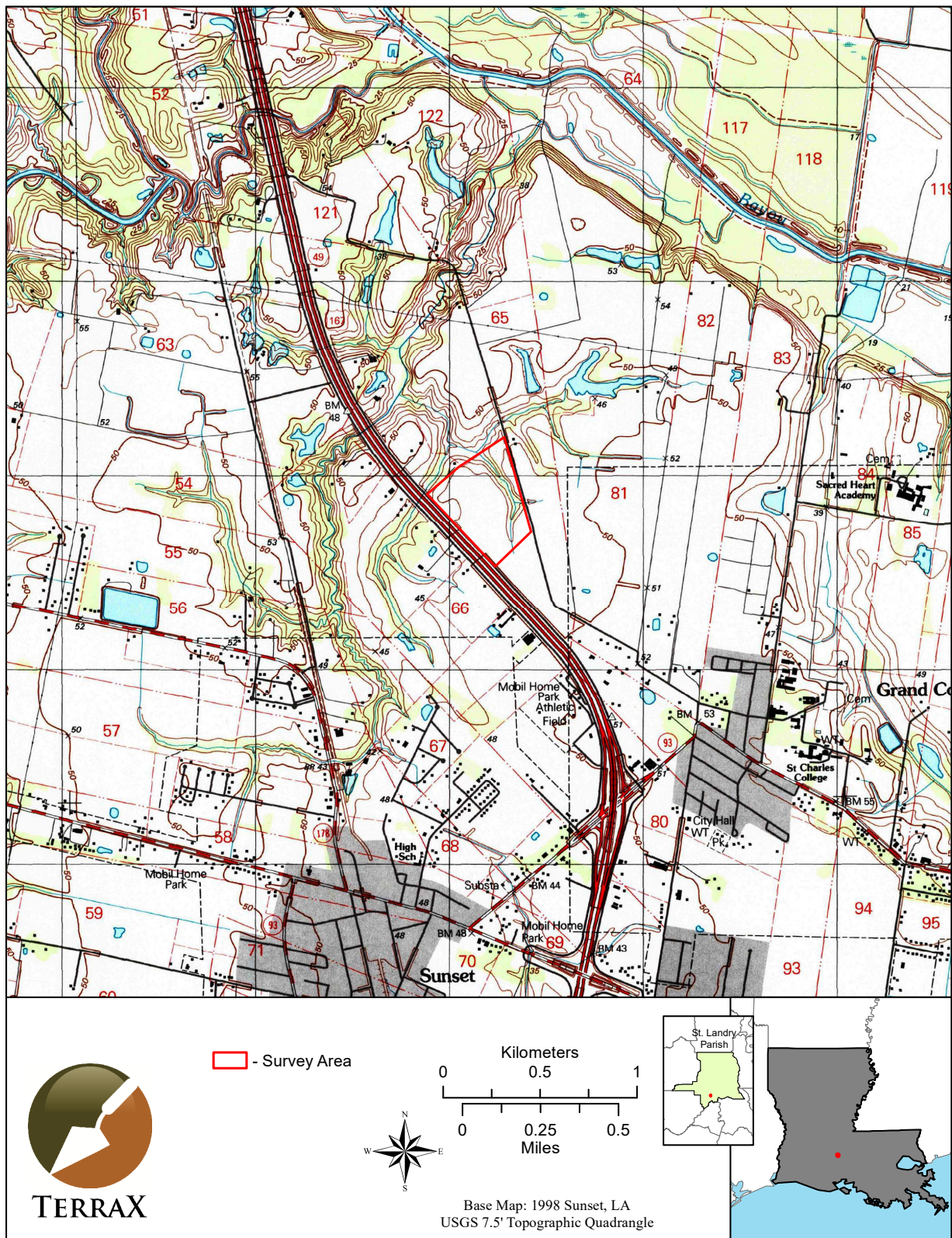


Figure 1.2. Map of project area (based on 1998 Sunset, LA USGS 7.5' series topographic quadrangle).



Figure 1.3. *View from Isolated Find 2, facing southwest.*



Figure 1.4. *View of the gully, facing north.*



Figure 1.5. View from Isolated Find 1, facing northeast.



Figure 1.6. View from the center of the project area, facing south.

CHAPTER 2

PROJECT AREA ENVIRONMENT

PHYSIOGRAPHY

The project area is located west of Bayou Teche and east of Bayou Plaquemine Brule in south-central Louisiana. The modern topography of St. Landry Parish is mostly flat, with the physiography of the parish being defined as either terrace uplands or alluvial plains (Figure 2.1). The majority of the parish east of Bayou Teche, or roughly two-thirds of the parish, is considered part of the alluvial plain created by the Mississippi and Atchafalaya rivers depositing sediment for over thousands of years. The forested portions of alluvial plains most often consist of hardwood forests. The majority of the remaining one-third of the parish west of Bayou Teche, including the project area, is considered terrace upland, which is defined as slightly higher in elevation than the alluvial plain, with forests often containing both pine and hardwoods. Elevations within the parish range from roughly 8 feet above sea level to 75 feet above sea level (Murphy et al. 1986).

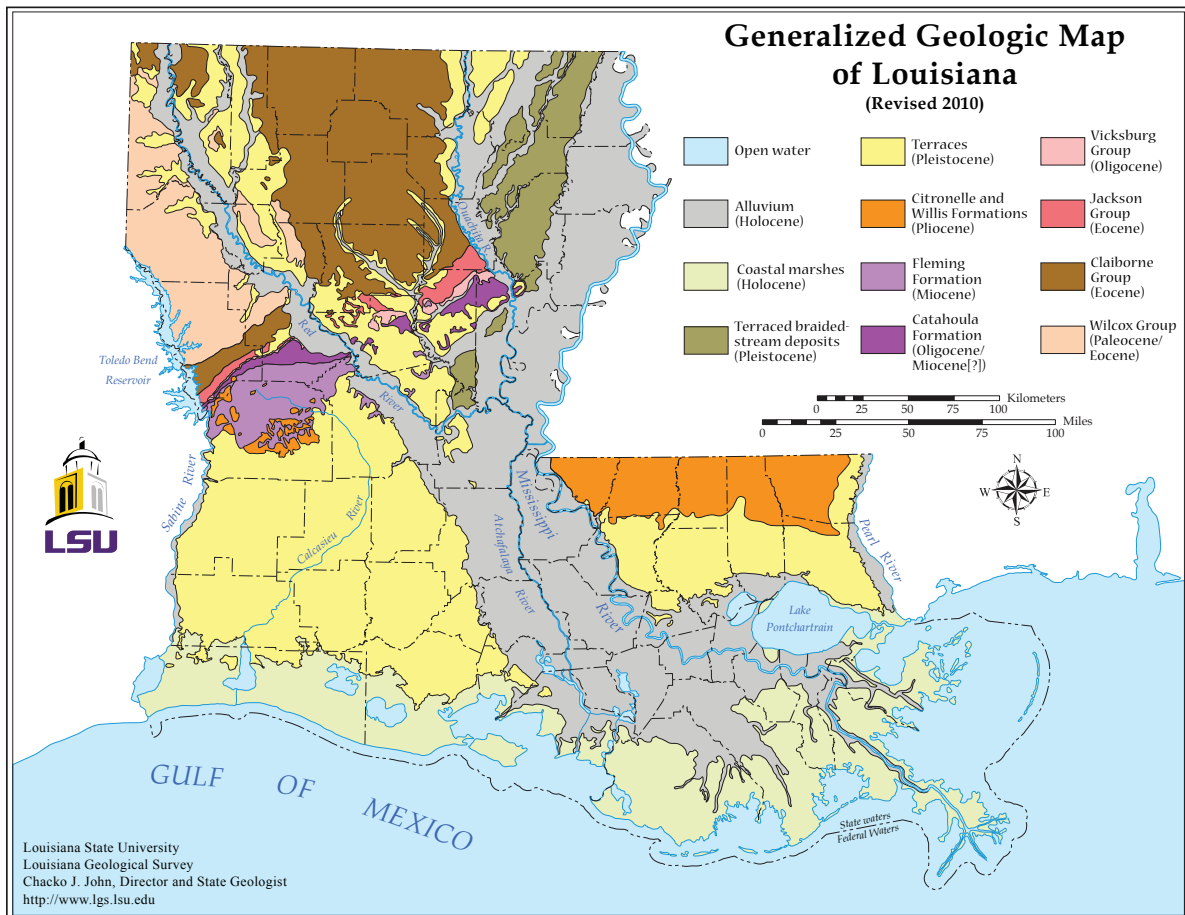


Figure 2.1. Physiographic map (Louisiana Geological Survey 2010).

SOILS

The soils of St. Landry Parish are composed of a variety of soils typically associated with the terrace uplands and alluvial plains in Louisiana. The project area is covered in Calhoun Silt Loam, Coteau Silt Loam, and Memphis Silt Loam; all of which are soil types associated with terraces. Calhoun Silt Loam covers roughly 39.4 percent of the project area. Calhoun Silt Loam is often characterized as layers of silt loam over a layer of silty clay loam which rests on top of further layers of silt loam. Calhoun Silt loam is poorly drained and is often used for farmland. Coteau Silt Loam with a 0 to 1 percent slope covers 19.3 percent of the project area and Coteau Silt Loam with a 1 to 3 percent slope covers 2.8 percent of the project area. Both are defined as having a layer or more of silt loam over a layer of silty clay loam above yet more silt loam. These soils are somewhat poorly drained and are also often used for farmland. Memphis Silt Loam with 0 to 1 percent slope covers 31.3 percent of the project area and Memphis Silt Loam with a 5 to 8 percent slope and Memphis Silt Loam with an 8 to 20 percent slope cover 6.9 and 0.4 percent of the project area respectively. These soils typically have a layer or more of silt loam over a layer or multiple layers of silty clay loam above silt loam. The soils are well-drained and can be used for farmland depending on the slope, as highly sloped areas are often not suitable for farming (Murphy et al. 1986).

FLORA

The vegetation throughout St. Landry Parish is mostly one major type, bottomland hardwood. Bottomland hardwood forests would naturally make up most of the parish, as they are often associated with alluvial plains and terraces but have been extensively cleared as the land is modified for agricultural and industrial use. Bottomland hardwoods are defined as having seasonal wet and dry periods and often the forests are composed predominantly of various oak trees, with ashes and elms making up a smaller amount of the trees. The understory is normally composed of dogwoods and hawthornes. Upland hardwood forests, similar to what our project area may have been had it not been cleared for use as a pasture, are defined as generally drier than the Bottomland hardwoods. Upland hardwoods forest often contain a mix of hardwoods, including beech and magnolia, and some evergreens, with generally sparse understories that may contain some shrubs and vines, like huckleberry, but little ground cover (Lester et al. 2005). The soils and vegetation in the project area and surrounding region make the land extremely suitable for agriculture, as can be seen in the prevalence of modern agricultural fields in the surrounding area.

FAUNA

St. Landry Parish contains the necessary conditions to serve as a habitat for a variety of mammals and birds. Large open agricultural fields and pastures provide a perfect habitat for mourning doves, quail, and cottontail and swamp rabbits. The forested areas serve as a habitat for whitetailed deer, gray squirrels, raccoons, wild turkey, and various reptiles. The numerous bodies of water within the parish provide homes for various waterfowl, including mallards and teals, as well as wading birds like ibis, egrets, and herons. These bodies of water also serve as habitats for various species of fish, including largemouth bass, freshwater drum, channel catfish, and flathead catfish. The moist environment is also hospitable to crawfish, which are important in the diets of many animal species, as well as humans (Murphy et al. 1986).

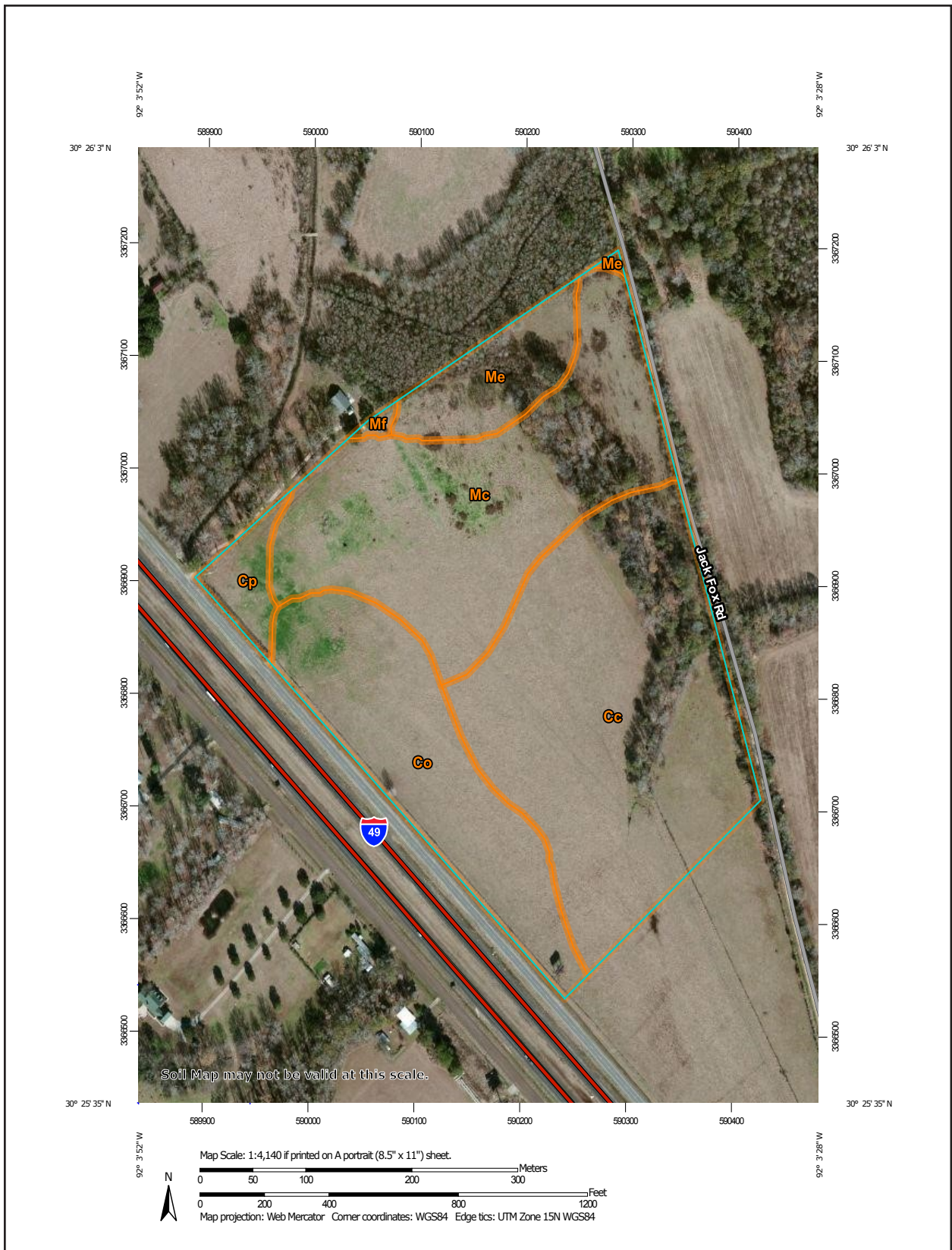


Figure 2.2. Soil Map (Web Soil Survey 2018).

CLIMATE

St. Landry Parish has a subtropical climate, characterized by humid maritime air moving northwards and cold, dry, continental air moving south. Summers are warm, averaging around 81 degrees Fahrenheit, but temperatures rarely exceed 100 degrees Fahrenheit, with record highs near 102 degrees Fahrenheit. Winters are mild, averaging around 53 degrees Fahrenheit, with temperatures dropping below freezing for only short periods. The parish receives an average of 53-56 inches of rain per year, with thunderstorms often occurring every month or more frequently. Droughts are rare but do occasionally happen, although they do not normally last longer than a period of several months at most. Humidity averages at about 60 percent annually. St. Landry Parish receives little to no snowfall (Murphy et al. 1986).

CHAPTER 3 CULTURAL HISTORY

PALEOINDIAN (10,000 TO 6,000 B.C.)

The earliest substantial human occupation in the Western Hemisphere is defined as the Paleoindian period. In Louisiana, and generally in the Southeast, this period has provisionally been grouped into three broad temporal categories defined as Early, Middle, and Late or transitional subperiods (Anderson et al. 1990; O'Steen et al. 1986:9).

It was thought that the population of the Paleoindian period was highly adaptive, mobile hunter-gatherers, whose ancestors had migrated from Siberia into North America between 12,000 to 10,000 B.P. The migration is believed to have occurred during the Pleistocene Epoch, when glaciers were expanding and retreating from fluctuations in the climate from cold to warm episodes (Anderson 1996). The population movements were presumably made possible when the colder periods of the Pleistocene Epoch captured large quantities of the earth's water in glaciers. This lowered sea levels and exposed large portions of the continent; allowing human populations to follow the Pleistocene mammals across the Americas. However, new discoveries are changing this long-held belief. More recent evidence of a pre-Clovis culture has emerged, based on excavations at Meadowcroft Rockshelter in Pennsylvania, the Topper Site in South Carolina, and Cactus Hill in Virginia, that places modern humans in the New World some 2,000 years earlier than previously believed. Pre-Clovis tools include small bladelets, indicating an exploitation of a broader environment. While the controversy continues, it is widely recognized that Clovis points were in the southeastern U.S. around 12,000 B.P.

Paleoindian occupations are usually represented by the presence of a specialized type of projectile point. These points are large and feature channels or flutes that are created by the removal of a long, vertical flake from the center of one or both faces of the point (Walthall 1980). Clovis, Folsom, Quad, Dalton, Plainview, and Scottsbluff are point types indicative of this period and region (Gagliano and Gregory 1965). The size of the points reflects the hunting strategy of these early inhabitants, which focused on hunting large Pleistocene mammals. Bones of large Pleistocene vertebrates (mastodon, mammoth, ground sloth, etc), which are contemporaries of the Paleoindians, are found in alluvial and backswamp deposits (Gagliano and Gregory 1965). Paleoindian sites are rare, especially with the changing geography of much of southern Louisiana. The rising sea levels have left coastal sites underwater, and the flooding and meandering of the Mississippi River has buried other sites under layers of silt. Caddo Parish, in the northwestern part of the state, contains both Early and Late Paleoindian material (Neuman and Hawkins 1993). According to the Paleoindian Database of the Americas (PIDBA), less than 10 fluted projectile points have been found in Vermilion Parish. Two Late Paleoindian sites were documented in East Baton Rouge Parish (Anderson et al. 2010).

MESOINDIAN (6,000 TO 2,000 B.C.)

The three sub-periods of the Archaic period proper are believed to roughly encapsulate the transition from highly mobile, camp-based collector lifeways to more sedentary and opportunistic foraging lifeways.

During the Early Archaic period it is reasonable to assume there was a trend towards a more sedentary lifeway. Anderson (1996) discussed evidence that indicated a trend which emphasized foraging adaptations in the Georgia Coastal Plain region during this time. Willey, Phillips, (Willey and Phillips 1958) and Caldwell (1958) viewed the Archaic stage as a dramatic shift from previous Paleoindian lifeways. However, this

might have been true in northern regions where the drastic climatic shift precipitated large-scale population movements and material culture change, but in the non-glacial regions of the Southeast this change would have been much more gradual which would lead to imperceptible cultural adaptation (Walthall 1980).

When considering the cultural material typically present from this time period, the most evident change can be found in the change in morphology of the biface in contrast to the previous period. Rather than the long, fluted blades from the Paleoindian period, the Early Archaic bifaces have well-documented pan-regional sequences that includes the Side-Notched Tradition, the Corner-Notched Tradition, and the Bifurcate Tradition. The spears used by the Mesoindians were different than those of the earlier period; they were shorter, had a greater variety of stone points crafted from locally available stone, and were more simply crafted (Neuman and Hawkins 1993). Bone, antler, and shell tools and ornaments were also added to the tool assemblage during this period.

Fiber-tempered pottery in much of the Southeastern United States is generally considered using the rubric of Stallings Island, Orange, Wheeler, and Norwood Series, and it is thought to mark the transition between the Late Archaic and Early Woodland periods (i.e., Terminal Archaic). Also in the later portion of the Archaic period, people began horticulture to supplement their diets. Archaeological evidence indicates that people grew small portions of squash, sunflowers, and other seed-bearing plants in simple gardens (Sassaman and Anderson 2004:105).

NEOINDIAN (2,000 B.C. TO A.D. 1600)

Southeastern archaeologists generally distinguish the beginning of the Neoindian period (ca. 2250 to 1950 B.P.) by the introduction and regular use of stamped pottery and increased ceremonialism in ritual events and mortuary practices. During the Neoindian period, the introduction and intensification of horticulture, construction of earthworks, and elaboration of artistic expression and burial ritual are all thought to be related to a reorganization of social structure. The advent of horticulture would have meant that, at least for part of the year, groups would have had to remain sedentary in order to plant, tend, and harvest crops. Shell and earthen mounds were now regularly built throughout this area of Louisiana.

Although many technologies used during the Neoindian period were actually developed during the earlier Archaic periods, it was during the Neoindian stage that changes in social organization and economy from small dispersed bands of hunter-gatherers to large, semi-permanent settlement began to take place. A much heavier reliance on horticulture followed and these changes were evidenced in the archaeological record. This period includes the Poverty Point, Tchefuncte, Marksville, Troyville-Coles Creek, and Plaquemine-Mississippian Cultures.

The Poverty Point Culture (2,000 to 700 B.C.) is named after the well documented Poverty Point Site (16WC5) in Louisiana. During this culture, Indians lived in small, dispersed groups, while others built and maintained regional centers. These centers served as ceremonial, political and trade areas. Gibson (1974) suggested this was the first time that a chiefdom was established. Trade across large areas is evidenced by copper from the Great Lakes; quartz crystals, novaculite, hematite, and magnetite from Missouri and Arkansas; gray chert from Ohio; and steatite from Alabama (Hunter et al. 1991). Tools unique to this culture include oval-shaped stone plummets that were presumably used as net weights or clay cooking balls. Neuman and Hawkins (1993) point out that this culture also includes planned villages, clay figurines, stone beads, pendants, and microtools.

The Tchefuncte Culture (500 B.C. to A.D. 200) followed the Poverty Point Culture and are set apart from earlier cultures by being the first Louisiana Indians to manufacture large amounts of pottery. In coastal Louisiana the shell middens are located in two primary areas, the Pontchartrain Basin around Grand Lake, and along the midden reaches of the Vermilion River (Hunter et al. 1991). The pottery was used to store and stew foods in a much more efficient manner. Unlike the previous Poverty Point Culture, the Tchefuncte Indians did not rely on imported trade materials to make tools and ornaments, instead they used local materials (Neuman and Hawkins 1993).

The Marksville Culture (A.D. 1 to 400) is generally recognized as a part of the Pan-Southeastern Middle Woodland tradition (Jeter et al. 1989:138). Trade, once again, increased from an area market to an inter-regional system linked to Adena-Hopewell influences from the Upper and Middle Mississippi Valley (Weinstein and Rivet 1978). These influences were most notable in the ceramics designs and even mortuary practices. Springer (1973:167) suggests late Marksville may exhibit a shift from the characteristic kin ties to a settlement with differing social classes.

The Troyville-Coles Creek period (A.D. 400 to 1100) is best known for the distinct spatial patterns present on the sites. These typically consist of a small series of small platform mounds positioned around a central plaza (Neuman 1984). This period also saw numerous examples of complicated stamping of ceramics in Louisiana and the bow and arrow was introduced. The introduction of the bow and arrow might have played a role in the collapse of the Troyville-Cole Creek culture. The increase in available food led to an increase in population; the population reached carrying capacity and the communities could no longer provide necessary support. The final change that precipitated this period and could have been a factor in the cultural collapse was a change in weather patterns. Weather from around A.D. 500 to 800 was cooler and drier. This changed the availability of food at a time when Indian societies were already stressed to provide for the growing populations. These stresses led to an increase in warfare that continued into the following period (Stoltman 1978:725).

The Plaquemine culture (A.D. 1200 to 1700) takes its name from the Medora Site (16WBR1), which is found in the town of Plaquemine, Louisiana. This period was witness to the zenith of the organization and complexity of eastern Woodland culture. An almost simultaneous similar florescence occurred over many parts of the Southeast, resulting in the development of large, hierarchical societies centered at impressive mound complexes such as Cahokia in present day Illinois, Spiro in Oklahoma, Moundville in Alabama, and Etowah in northwest Georgia. The Plaquemine culture differs further from their earlier Troyville-Coles Creek ancestors in the brushing and engraving techniques observed in their pottery (Smith et al. 1983).

The Caddo culture (A.D. 800 to 1540) began to emerge in northwest Louisiana while the Plaquemine culture thrived across the remainder of the state. These periods represent the last major periods of unadulterated Indian cultural development in the Southeast. The term Caddo refers to a group of closely related Indian groups who occupied northwestern Louisiana, northeastern Texas, southwestern Arkansas, and southeastern Oklahoma (Smith et al. 1983). Burial practices, deities, and differing ceramic techniques distinguish the Early Caddo period from the Coles Creek period. The Middle Caddoan period saw a decline in mound building with large population centers replaced by small upland settlements along streams. Single burials with few offerings were chosen over shaft burials (Webb and Gregory 1986). Late Caddo shows an increase in floodplain settlements with a return to mound building. The historic Caddo period saw the rise of several tribes with unique dialect and customs. In Louisiana, the five Caddo speaking tribes included the Ouachita, Natchitoches, Adaes, Doustioni, and Yatasi. These Caddo tribes remained in Louisiana until 1835, leaving for Oklahoma soon after they sold nearly one million acres of land to the United States (Cliff and Peter 1994).

EUROPEAN EXPLORATION (A.D. 1542 TO 1699)

By the time Europeans made contact with the inhabitants of North America, the people living in this area had developed a complex society with a trade network that brought in exotic items from across the continent (Buxton and Crutchfield 1985). The trading paths that connected villages would later be used by European explorers and settlers to enter the area. During the age of European Exploration, the Attakapa Indians resided in the area that would later be known as St. Landry Parish. One band in particular, the Opelousas gained control of the area and eventually served as the namesake for Opelousas, Louisiana (Hartley 2003).

It is thought the first Europeans the native Americans living in the area could have met were Hernando De Soto and his men, although it is likely the native Americans in the modern St. Landry Parish did not have contact with Europeans until years later (Hartley 2003). De Soto had sailed with Pizarro for Peru and returned to Spain a fabulously rich man. Politically well connected, he was granted the right by Charles V of Spain to conquer Florida, which at that time included the project area. De Soto landed near Tampa Bay in 1537 with 1,000 men and spent the next four years wandering the interior of the southeast U.S. determined to duplicate his earlier success (Alchian 2008). The De Soto Expedition crossed into modern Louisiana in 1543. The Spanish left a path of destruction across the lands they traveled, torturing and murdering indiscriminately as they sought anything of value they could take from the local inhabitants.

Spanish incursions into the interior introduced diseases that had evolved among the populations in Europe and Asia. The people living in the “New World” had no natural defenses for these pathogens and consequently, they died in staggering numbers. Only in the last generation of scholarship has the scope of this human catastrophe been recognized. Most scholars currently accept that it was possible that 90 to 95 percent of the pre-contact population died as a result of this pandemic (Ethridge 2003). It would be difficult to overestimate the negative effects such a disaster would have on any human society. Evidence of the disruption Southeastern cultures experienced can be found in the archaeological record. Platform mound building ceased shortly after 1540 and Indian trade networks, ancient at the time of contact, also seem to have been disrupted. Exotic high status items like native copper disappear from the archaeological record and seem to be slowly replaced by exotic items of European manufacture (Hahn 2004). As the Indian population struggled to recover from this catastrophe, the European presence along the coast grew.

When Europeans returned to the interior they would often comment on the number of unoccupied villages they encountered, completely intact but missing their population. Europeans typically returned to this “abandoned” interior due to trade with the local populations, often at the expense of these very same populations. European trade goods proved addictive. The experience of having a steady supply of cloth, iron tools, and muskets quickly transformed these items from novel and luxurious into commonly used items that were heavily integrated into everyday life. In turn, the local groups had the dilemma of coming up with something the Europeans wanted in trade. At one point, there was a large market for enslaved Indians and later for deer skins and furs. This trade led to entanglement in the affairs of the colonial powers, usually with negative effects.

After De Soto, the next European to enter the Louisiana region was a Frenchman named Robert Cavalier de La Salle. In 1682, his company sailed down the Mississippi River to the Gulf of Mexico and encountered native Bayougoula people in modern day Iberville Parish (Bryant et al. 1982:31-32). La Salle attempted to return to the Louisiana area two years later but could not relocate the Mississippi River and eventually became stranded on the Texas Coast. It is believed the first contact the Attakapa had with Europeans were French explorers or trappers in the 1690s (Hartley 2003). In 1699, Pierre Le Moyne d'Iberville arrived with the second French expedition of the area. Rather than working south along the Mississippi River, Iberville

chose to follow the coast to the Mississippi River and then work north. Iberville travelled up the river to modern day Point Coupee Parish. After this successful expedition Louisiana was opened to settlement (Bryant et al. 1982:33-36).

COLONIZATION (A.D. 1700 TO 1803)

In 1718, John Law, a French proprietor, was given a trade monopoly by French King Louis XV. Law formed his company to settle and develop portions of Louisiana and vigorously sold stock throughout Europe. Most of Law's initial settlements were based along the Mississippi River with trading posts positioned throughout the region. These posts were largely inhabited by European trappers and local Native Americans. The French government also created posts and territories in other parts of Louisiana, including le Poste de Opelousas in 1720 (City of Opelousas 2018). Opelousas served as a commercial hub within the region, with Jean Joseph LeKintrek and Joseph Blanpain serving as mediators in trade between the French and the Opelousas band of Indians. LeKintrek and Blanpain brought their African slaves with them, introducing the area to its first African inhabitants (Hartley 2003). Despite Law and the French governments's efforts, the majority of Louisiana was not truly colonized until France ceded the territory to the Spanish in 1763 (Weinstein et al. 1979). In 1765, soon after acquiring Louisiana, the Spanish established a military and trade post of their own at le Poste de Opelousas. The Spanish post served as a government and economic center in the southern Louisiana territory (Hartley 2003). Around the same time there was an influx of Acadians, who had been expelled from Nova Scotia by the British in 1755, to the Louisiana territory. The Acadian migration in 1765 consisted of 200 refugees in the New Orleans area (Weinstein et al. 1979). From New Orleans, they spread into the eastern parts of the prairies and the immediate west. In the territory of Opelousas, the Spanish government began issuing land grants to French, Spanish, German, and Acadian settlers in the early 1780s, although Acadian and Spanish migration there had started in the previous decades (City of Opelousas 2018, Hartley 2003).

Early settlers grew cotton, rice, indigo, corn, and sugar cane on Spanish land grants that fronted a navigable waterway and extended back 40 arpents. Early plantations were situated along navigable bayous as there were no roads or bridges in the area. It was possible to travel by horseback along the bayous on towpaths, or cordelle roads as the French referred to them. These towpaths were made by workers pulling sailboats with ropes when the wind was insufficient (Lytle et al. 1959). During the early period of colonial settlement, indigo was the primary crop, although cotton was also heavily cultivated. The indigo crop failure in 1794 hurt many planters, and left an economic opening that was soon filled by sugarcane. Jesuits introduced sugarcane to the region in the 1750s and the first sugarhouse was built by Joseph Dubreuil in 1758. Jean Etienne de Boré had a plantation in New Orleans (currently the site of Audubon Park) and was determined to try sugarcane against the advice of his wife and friends. Many people thought the climate was too cold in Louisiana for the cane to fully ripen. By 1795, he had his first crop ground and made 100 hogshead of sugar (Goodspeed Publishing Company 1892). Soon after, many planters followed suit.

European settlement continued throughout the latter part of the 1700s in southern Louisiana. In 1800, France regained possession of the Louisiana Territory, but they did not retain it for long. On May 2, 1803 the United States signed the Louisiana Purchase treaty with France (Wall 2008:94-95).

ANTEBELLUM PERIOD (1803 TO 1860)

Following the signing of the Louisiana Purchase, an influx of Anglo-American settlers swept into Louisiana, adding to the already diverse population of Poste Opelousas. Opelousas County was created at the time of the Louisiana Purchase. St. Landry Parish was officially founded in 1805, and consisted of

what had previously been known as Opelousas County. St. Landry Parish was named after the Church of St. Landry, a bishop who served in Paris around A.D. 650. Opelousas continued to serve as the government center, being named the parish seat. St. Landry Parish originally consisted of the land to the west of the Atchafalaya River, east of the Sabine River, south of Rapides and Vernon parishes, and north of St. Martin and Lafayette parishes. This land was later divided into seven parishes, including St. Landry Parish, which is why St. Landry Parish is often referred to as the Imperial Parish of Louisiana (Hartley 2003).

While the Anglo-American settlers of Louisiana, now including St. Landry Parish, were technically part of Spain, they made no secret of their desire to be part of the United States. However, the 1803 Louisiana Purchase did not make them citizens of the United States. In 1812, the state of Louisiana was admitted to the Union. Following the state's admittance into the union, New Orleans continued to serve as the unofficial capitol of Louisiana. However, in 1829 the capitol was officially moved to Donaldsonville, where it remained for two years before the state government finally moved it to Baton Rouge.

In the early 1800s two schools were founded south of Opelousas in a town called St. Charles, after the names of the schools. This town would later be renamed Grand Coteau, after its location on top of a ridge or "coteau." The town never grew to be a large one, but would later be near the site of a notable Civil War battle (grandcoteau.org 2018).

After the discovery of how to granulate sugar by Jean Etienne de Boré at his plantation, southern areas along the Mississippi River quickly became very profitable sugar cane farming enterprises (Bryant et al. 1982:52). Cotton was still king until the War of 1812, when the British blockade kept out sugar from foreign markets. Many planters switched to the economic boon of sugar (Carmon 2007). As a result of these successful plantations, Louisiana's population growth exploded in the first part of the nineteenth century.

WAR AND AFTERMATH (1860 TO 1890)

Louisiana's settlement and economy were put on hold during the Civil War as Union and Confederate forces contested Louisiana, and in particular, the head of the Mississippi River. New Orleans fell to Union forces in 1862, followed by Baton Rouge. As a result, Confederate Louisiana moved their state capitol to Opelousas (cityofopelousas.org 2018). Defensive fortifications were constructed at Port Hudson in an attempt to block Union troops from continuing upriver from Baton Rouge to Vicksburg. In May of 1863, Major General Nathaniel P. Banks led 30,000 Union soldiers against Port Hudson, defended by 7,500 Confederates under General Franklin Gardner. This was the first time that commissioned African American troops were used, with devastating results. Due to faulty information, the African Americans were sent into a position where they were hemmed in by swamps on either side and were easy targets for Confederate forces on a high bluff above them. The battle lasted for 48 days, until Vicksburg surrendered on July 4, 1863 and the Union called off the Port Hudson fighting. Although the Union won, they suffered some 4,300 casualties to the Confederate's 700 (Eberwine et al. 2009). Shortly after, in October of 1863, the Confederate government of Louisiana was forced to move their capitol again, this time to Shreveport, as Union forces threatened Opelousas. On October 21, 1863 the Union and Confederate troops engaged in a battle just south of Opelousas. Union troops severely outnumbered Confederate troops and forced them north towards Washington, Louisiana. Union troops occupied Opelousas for approximately two weeks (Ardoin 2015). Union troops mostly retreated back towards Lafayette after their success at Opelousas, leaving a few troops behind to protect the city. Confederate forces in the south moved north towards Opelousas and engaged the remaining Union troops in battle on November 3, 1863 near modern day Sunset, Louisiana, in a battle sometimes referred to as the Battle of Bourbeau or the Battle of Grand Coteau. Confederate troops regained control of Opelousas and forced Union troops to retreat (Barr and Roberts 1965). Despite the proximity

of these battles, the schools of Grand Coteau remained relatively untouched. This is supposedly due to the Union General Nathaniel Banks's connections to the religious orders in charge of the schools (grandcoteau.org 2018).

Louisiana saw an economic reorganization after the end of hostilities. This "reconstruction" process left the great majority of its people despondent and poor. Wealthy land owners returned home to find their houses and outbuildings burned and their cropland in the hands of tenant farmers and newly freed slaves. Many sugar mills were destroyed or vandalized; mule teams had been stolen and seed cane needed to be replenished. The capital with which to accomplish this was scarce among Louisiana planters. Difficult at first, the sugar market did continue as a driving economic force in regions of Louisiana. Disputes between land owners and the labor force became prevalent post-Civil War. The large sugar plantations embraced wage labor over shared tenancy. Since the pay offered was meager, it was not satisfactory to many workers. Workers also resisted living in the old antebellum slave quarters, but most planters felt they could not afford to build new houses. The planters were even more dismayed when wages began to rise due to the lack of a reliable labor source (Lee et al. 2010).

In 1866, there were over six million acres of federal land that had been surveyed but not purchased. The Southern Homestead Act was meant to offer this land at nominal fees to poor people. The very next year, the Act was repealed and the land was available to any buyer. With prices as low as 45 cents an acre, wealthy buyers could, and did, purchase over 100,000 acres each. Over a million acres were bought up by Northerners. Reconstruction saw rampant vigilante violence, with perhaps one of the worst occurring in Opelousas in 1868. On September 28, 1868, racial tensions in Opelousas came to a head and culminated in the murder of 27 black men by white Democrats on September 29. The violence continued in St. Landry Parish for roughly two weeks and resulted in the deaths of three white Republicans, numerous African Americans, and two Democrats (DeLatte 1976). Racial and political tensions would remain high in Louisiana. In 1877, Louisiana rejoined the Union, being one of the last southern states to do so. In the 1880s, thousands of acres were unplanted due to lack of labor and capital. While agriculture would remain significant to economy in Louisiana, its decline led to the emergence of an new major industry within the economy.

At this time, approximately 85 percent of the state was forested. Longleaf pine existed in virgin stands of trees up to 200 years old. The open areas beneath the trees were free of underbrush and this environment was very conducive to easy lumbering. Cypress trees were predominant in the swamps and in the early twentieth century, Louisiana led the nation in cypress production. Pine forests were more plentiful, but there were plenty of mills for both tree species (Fricker 2015).

Slowly the lumber industry became more and more important for its economic potential for Louisiana residents (Bryant et al. 1982:63). Innovations in the 1880s and 1890s, such as the skidder, pullboats (barges), and railroad dummy lines, facilitated the removal of logs from the woods and swamps. The expansion of the railroads went hand-in-hand with the timber harvest, not only providing access to the trees, but also carrying lumber to markets. Towns sprang up around the sawmills, built and owned by the lumber companies. Once an area had been stripped of its trees, the single purpose towns were either dismantled by the lumber company or left to become ghost towns. Even small towns that existed prior to a sawmill came to resemble company towns. Usually the timber company was the largest employer and made possible civic improvements; bankrolling fire departments, ice plants, brass bands, and baseball teams (Fricker 2015). In some cases, the longleaf pine areas were replanted with slash and loblolly pines or planted with grass for use as pasture. Much of the land was left to grow over with hardwoods and the old longleaf forests became a thing of the past.

MODERN HISTORIC (TWENTIETH AND TWENTY-FIRST CENTURIES)

African Americans continued to flee the agricultural south in favor of industrial jobs in the northern cities. In addition to the migration, influenza and military service in World War I contributed to the labor shortage. Agricultural pay was still woefully inadequate, going from about 80 cents per day in the early 1920s to only about 95 cents per day in the early 1930s (Lee et al. 2010). The Sugar Act of 1937 terminated child labor and payment in plantation store credits instead of cash, as well as raised the daily wage to \$1.17. In 1939, the U.S. Department of Agriculture set the pay at \$1.50 for a nine-hour day. This increased to \$2.70 in 1944 as labor was once again lost to the war effort. Depressed sugar prices kept labor costs low, only increasing to \$2.90 per day for field labor and \$3.65 for tractor drivers. In the harvest season, tractor drivers were paid \$4.50 per day. In contrast, Florida sugar cane workers received \$4.05 per day and sugar beet workers were paid \$5.40. Union workers in Hawaii received over \$6 per day (Lee et al. 2010).

There was talk of using German prisoners of war (POWs) to work in the cane fields in 1943, but the U.S. military had requirements stating the POWs housing had to have running water, electricity, and proper heat. Although the plantation housing was inadequate for German prisoners, the sugar cane industry had no problem placing American workers there. The industry lobbied for change and eventually the military modified their requirements, putting German soldiers in the cane fields (Lee et al. 2010).

Known as the “father of forestry in the South,” Henry E. Hardtner, a Louisiana native, was an early conservationist. As early as 1905, Hardtner noticed the bleak landscapes created after areas were clear-cut. He instituted the practice of cutting only trees with a certain minimum diameter, leaving small trees. In 1908, he was appointed chairman of the state’s first Commission for the Conservation of Natural Resources (Fricker 2015).

Settlement along the railroad continued to grow into the twentieth century and towns and villages began to emerge as a result. Modern roads and highways continued this trend, fostering new settlement in areas previously inaccessible. The petroleum industry probably had the most dynamic impact on the landscape and economy in Louisiana. The need for gasoline and lubricating oil intensified the search for more resources in the state and the discovery at Spindle Top salt dome near Beaumont and at Jennings in Jefferson Davis Parish firmly placed Louisiana as a centerpiece in the petroleum industry. The largest oil reserves in Louisiana are south of Baton Rouge. These discoveries led to the construction of massive pipelines across the prairies to Baton Rouge and Beaumont, Texas (Kniffen and Hilliard 1988:166-170). Even today, Louisiana’s primary economies are agriculture and petroleum.

In the mid-twentieth century, sugar cane planting strategies led to three harvests from one planting, although later harvests were not as productive as the first one. Several factors can lead to a poor harvest, including soil compaction by heavy machinery, poor drainage, cold temperatures, plant diseases, and loss of nutrients. Although sugar cane needs plenty of water, too much on poorly drained fields can result in root rot and other diseases. Drainage ditches and canals are necessary for good crop yields. Planting is generally done in August, September, and October, with only one-quarter of the cane germinating. The large plantations may have had as many as 30 structures for the workers and a company store, since the plantations were often far removed from town. In the 1950s, about 41 percent of the farm operators were owners, 20 percent were part-owners, four percent were managers, and 35 percent were tenants. Less than a quarter of the tenants paid cash rent; the rest were share-cash or share-crop tenants (Lytle et al. 1959).

In spite of the move towards urbanization and industrialism throughout the US in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, agriculture remained one of the key industries for the economy in Louisiana. This is particularly true in St. Landry Parish, where most of the soils are extremely conducive to raising key Louisiana crops like corn, sweet potatoes, rice, and cotton. Stock-raising also became an important industry in St. Landry Parish at the end of the nineteenth century, with many livestock owners shipping their stock down to New Orleans via the readily available transportation routes, including railroads, roads, and waterways (Benoit 2010).

CHAPTER 4 PREVIOUS RESEARCH

LITERATURE AND DOCUMENT SEARCH

Background research was conducted prior to the survey to identify previously recorded historic and prehistoric properties within a one-mile radius of the proposed project area located in St. Landry Parish, Louisiana. This search included an online query of the Louisiana Division of Archaeology (LDOA) Cultural Resources Viewer (LDOA 2018) performed on March 19, 2018. A one-mile (1.6 kilometers [km]) radius search was conducted around the project area for previously recorded archaeological sites, previous cultural resources surveys, and previously recorded historic structures. An examination of the Historic Standing Structure Survey Files at the State Library in Baton Rouge, Louisiana was performed on March 19, 2018 to ascertain whether any historic resources have been recorded within or near the study area that are not depicted on the LDOA Cultural Resources Viewer (LDOA 2018). Lastly, a query into the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) (National Park Service 2018) was conducted. The project area is found within irregular Section 65, Township 7S, Range 4E as seen on the 1998 Sunset USGS 7.5' series topographic quadrangle.

A search of the LDOA Cultural Resources Viewer (LDOA 2018) listed no recorded sites within a mile of the proposed project area. Background research revealed five previously conducted cultural resources survey within a mile of the study area. One NRHP listed historic district is located within a mile of the project area (Figure 4.1).

LDOA #22-0138. *Cultural Resource Survey of the Sewerage System, Town of Sunset, St. Landry Parish, Louisiana*. This 1977 survey found no significant cultural resources (Gibson 1977).

LDOA #22-0260. *Cultural Resource Survey of North-South Expressway Route LA3171, Lafayette and St. Landry Parishes, Louisiana*. This survey recorded three sites, with only one in St. Landry Parish. Prehistoric site 16SL67 was recommended ineligible for the NRHP, as were the Lafayette Parish sites (Rivet 1975).

LDOA #22-0551. *Cultural Resource Survey of the Proposed Sewerage System, Town of Grand Coteau, St. Landry Parish, South Louisiana*. This 1979 survey found no significant cultural resources (Gibson 1979).

LDOA #22-1690. *Archaeological Survey of the Mid-Teche Ridge, South Louisiana: From Bayou Gerimond to Bayou Portage Guidry*. This project involved almost 10 sq km and was responsible for recording 35 new archaeological sites and revisiting 10 previously recorded sites. Of these 45 sites, seven (mostly mound sites) were recommended as eligible for the NRHP, with another 27 listed as potentially eligible (Gibson 1990). None of the sites are within one mile of the proposed project area.

LDOA #22-2329. *Phase IA Cultural Resource Investigation for a Proposed Fiber-Optic Line through the Southern Portions of Louisiana*. Panamerican Consultants, Inc. conducted this survey and revisited four previously recorded sites. All had been previously adversely impacted and were ineligible for the NRHP (Jackson et al. 2000).

The Grand Coteau Historic District (#80004320) was listed in the NRHP in 1980. The specific dates of significance are 1830-1930. Areas of significance include Architecture, Education, Landscape Architecture, and Religion. Approximately 100 structures are mentioned in the nomination form, but it is unknown how many of these are contributing.

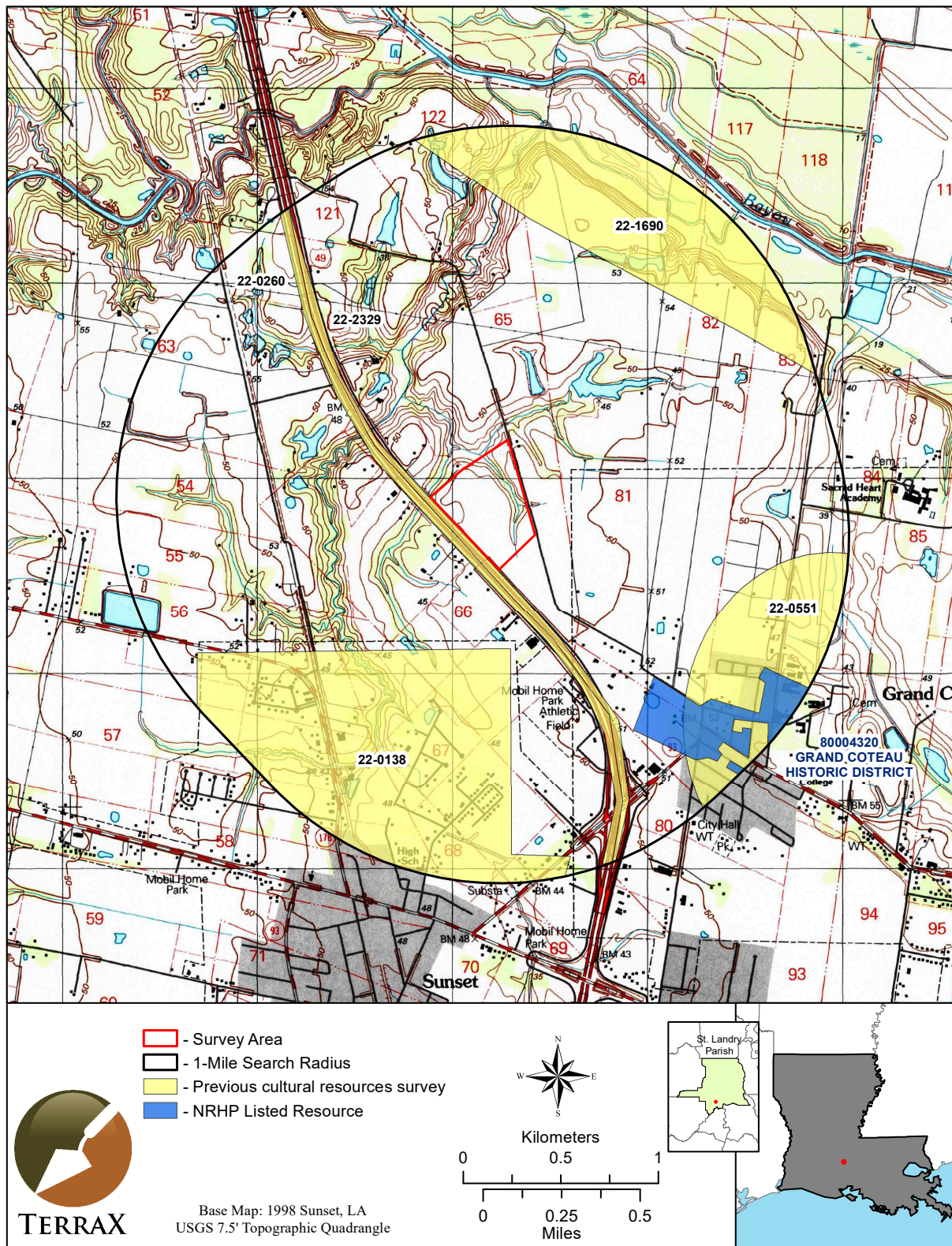


Figure 4.1. Map showing the survey area, the one-mile search radius, NRHP resources and prior cultural resources surveys (based on the 1998 Sunset USGS 7.5' series topographic quadrangle).

The Grand Coteau development will not affect any previously recorded historical resources. Due to the distance, vegetation and prior development, the Grand Coteau Historic District will not be affected by the Grand Coteau development (Figure 4.2).

Lastly, the 1954 Carencro, LA 1:62500 map was inspected for structures within the project boundaries. No structures are shown within the project area.



Figure 4.2. *View toward project area from the northwestern edge of the Grand Coteau Historic District, facing northwest.*

CHAPTER 5 FIELD METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

FIELD METHODS

The field survey conducted implemented standard archaeological survey techniques. Full land coverage requirements were achieved through visual inspections of the entire survey area and subsurface testing. While conducting visual inspections, any exposed surfaces were carefully examined for cultural material.

Subsurface testing was performed along 30-m interval transects comprised of shovel tests spaced 30 m apart. When cultural material is found, a series of shovel tests are placed in cardinal directions at 10-m intervals around the positive shovel tests. Testing continues until two consecutive negative shovel tests are excavated in each direction. Standard shovel tests consist of 30 centimeter (cm) diameter cylindrical holes excavated to the top of the sterile subsoil layer or until water was encountered. Soils from each test were screened through 1/4-inch (0.64 cm) hardware cloth for the purpose of recovering any cultural material that may exist at that location. If cultural material is encountered, the material is sorted by provenience and placed into bags labeled with the pertinent excavation information before being transported to TerraX's laboratory.

LABRATORY METHODS AND COLLECTION CURATION

All cultural materials recovered during field projects are delivered to TerraX's laboratory in Tuscaloosa, Alabama for processing. Here, materials are sorted by provenience, cleaned, and analyzed. Along with the cultural material, all project records, photographs, and maps produced while conducting the investigation are transported for curation at the at the Troy University Archaeological Research Center in Troy, Alabama. A copy of the curation agreement can be found in Appendix A.

RESULTS OF FIELD INVESTIGATION

This Phase I investigation included the attempt of 225 shovel tests along 18 transects. The transects all ran roughly southwest to northeast. Of the 225 attempted shovel tests, 201 were negative, 22 shovel tests were not dug due to land slope or water, and two were positive. A map has been produced showing placement of shovel tests within the study area (Figure 5.1). Shovel test profiles generally revealed 0-20 cm of gray brown silty clay loam over a heavily oxidized lighter gray brown silty clay (Figure 5.2).

The project area is northeast of Interstate 49 outside of Grand Coteau, St. Landry Parish, Louisiana, and is bordered to the north by a residential plot of land, to the east by Jack Fox Road and more rural residential properties, and to the west by Interstate 49 and rural residential properties. To the south, the project area is bordered by an industrial property.

The study area lies within a mostly level pasture, divided into multiple sections by wire fences. There is generally little noticeable elevation change with the exception of the gully and creek running roughly north- south along the eastern portion of the project area. The gully drops roughly 20 feet down, and the area surrounding the gully is covered in new growth hardwoods, extensive vines, and dense shrubs. The majority of the project area consists of an area of overgrown grass or clover, with one small portion near Isolated Find 2 consisting of a stand of purposely planted trees. Surface visibility is poor.

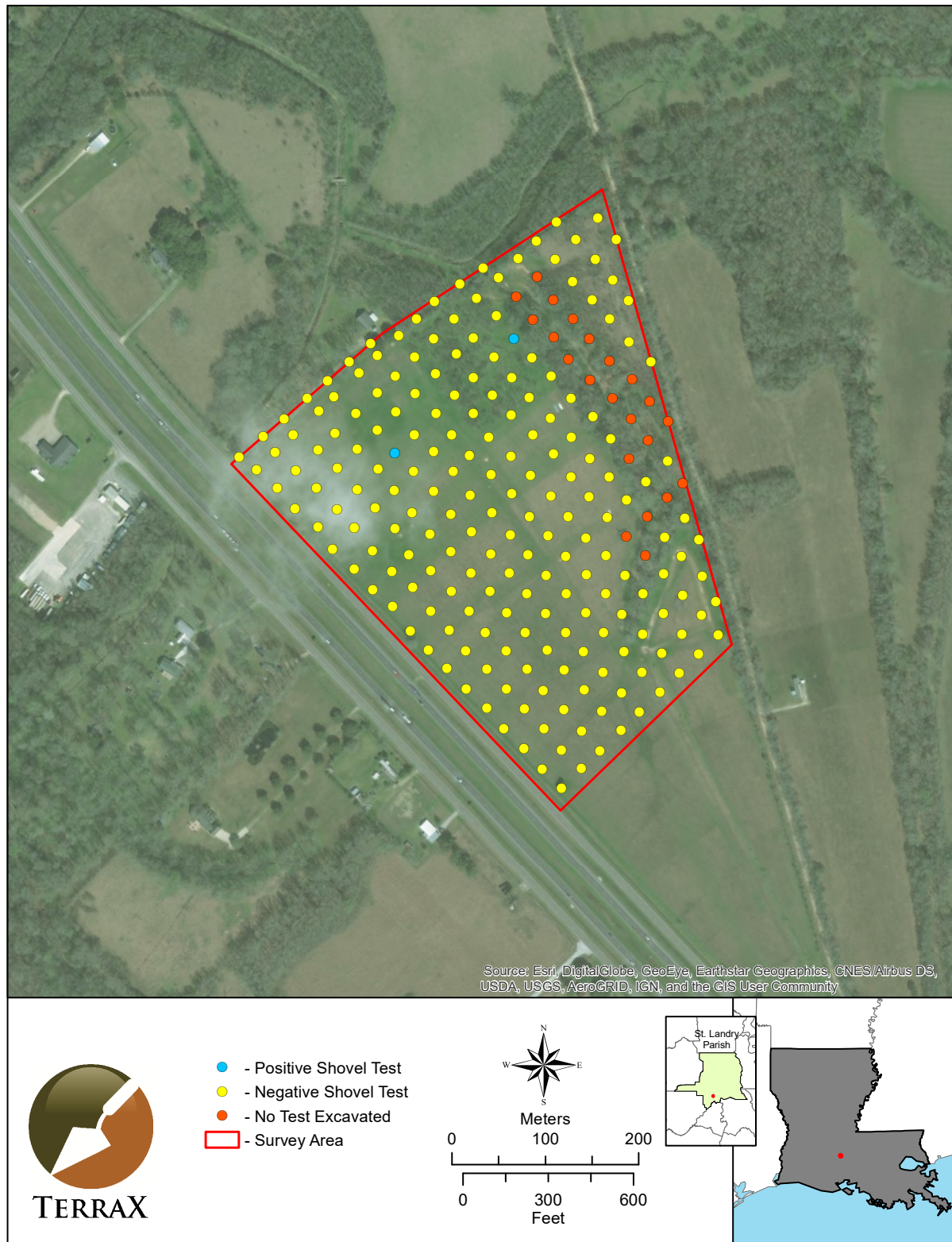


Figure 5.1. Aerial depicting shovel test locations within the project area.



Figure 5.2. *View of a typical shovel test profile.*

ISOLATED FIND 1 The isolated find at Transect 14 Shovel Test 5 measures roughly 10-x-10 m and consists of a single piece of an ironstone ceramic vessel with a tiny portion of the rim (Appendix B). The artifact was recovered from the middle of a pasture near the center of the project area (Figure 5.3). The artifact was found between 0 and 11 centimeters below surface. Additional shovel tests were placed at 10-m intervals between the positive shovel test and the four neighboring negative shovel tests on the grid and failed to yield any artifacts (Figure 5.4). Due to the sparse recovery, this locus is unlikely to have any research value and is recommended as not eligible for the NRHP. No further work is required for this locus.

ISOLATED FIND 2 The isolated find at Transect 14 Shovel Test 11, which measures 10-x-10 m, consists of a single fragment of an amber bottle base with no diagnostic stippling or pressings (Appendix B). The artifact was recovered at the edge of a stand of purposely planted trees near the gully running north-south along the eastern portion of the project area. The artifact was found beneath the surface between 10 and 25 centimeters below surface. Additional shovel tests were placed at 10-m intervals between the positive shovel test and the four neighboring negative shovel tests on the grid and failed to yield any artifacts (Figure 5.5). Due to the sparse recovery, this locus is unlikely to have any research value and is recommended as not eligible for the NRHP. No further work is required for this locus.



Figure 5.3. Map depicting location of Isolated Find 1 and Isolated Find 2.

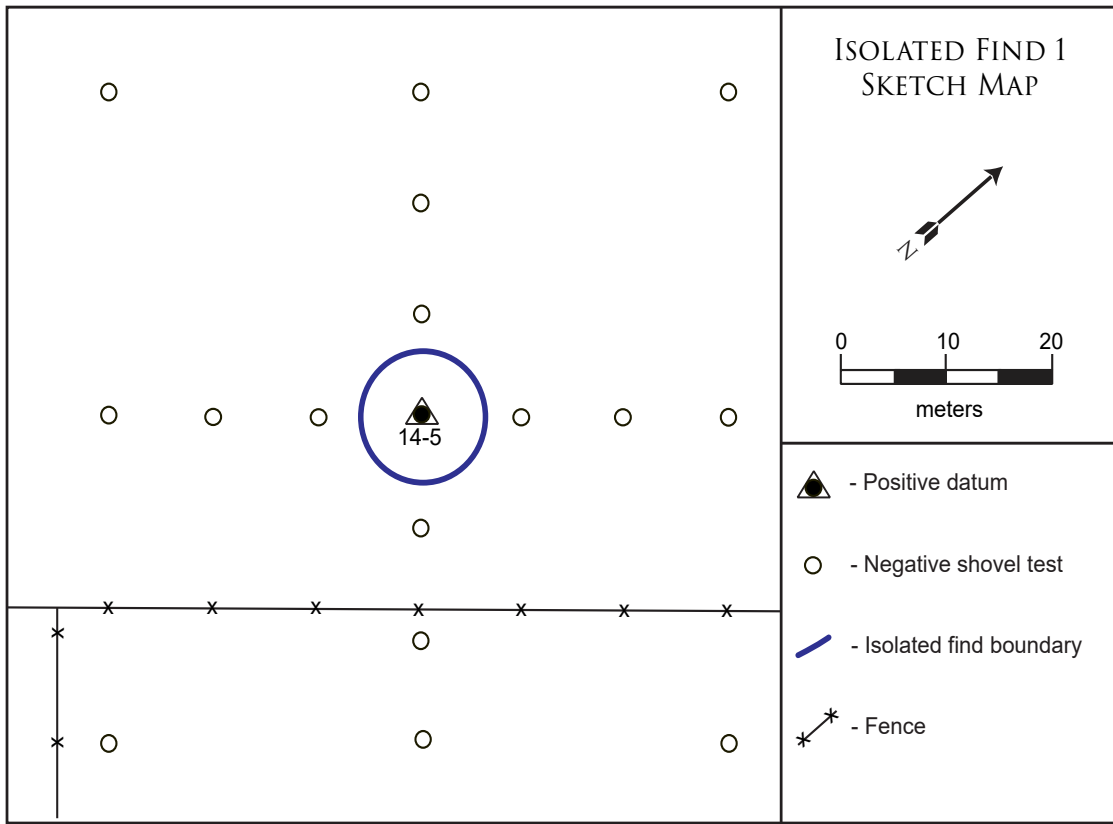


Figure 5.4. Sketch map of Isolated Find 1.

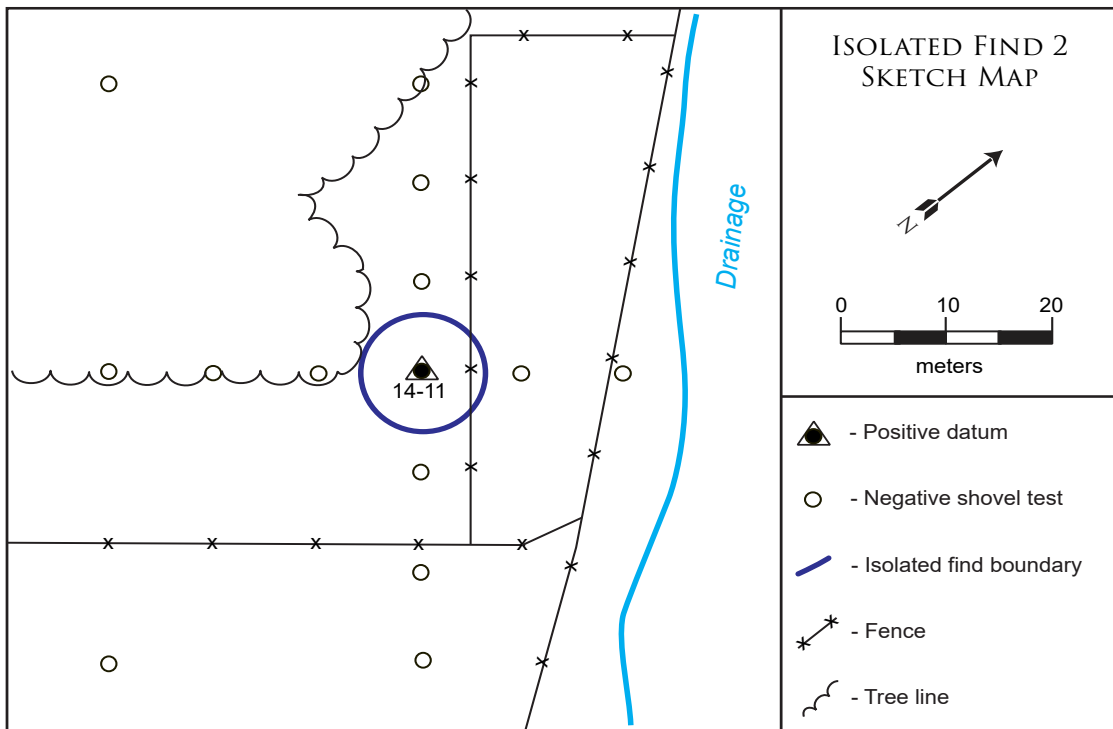


Figure 5.5. Sketch map of Isolated Find 2.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

TerraX, under contract with One Acadiana conducted a cultural resources survey for the proposed Grand Coteau development in Grand Coteau, Louisiana in compliance with federal and state regulations. The Phase I survey was conducted on March 20 through 22, 2018 by Kelsey Johnson and Lucinda Freeman with Kelsey Johnson serving as Principal Investigator. The investigation identified two isolated finds. One isolated find was a rim sherd of an ironstone ceramic vessel and the other isolated find was a fragment of a thick amber bottle base. The artifacts most likely date to the mid-nineteenth to early twentieth centuries. TerraXplorations recommends Isolated Find 1 and Isolated Find 2 as ineligible for the National Register of Historic Places due to the unknown original context of the artifacts, absence of features, and the paucity of material. Accordingly, no further archaeological studies are recommended for the proposed project.

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APPENDIX A
CURATION AGREEMENT

TROY UNIVERSITY



**Archaeological
Research Center**

Date: September 30, 2017

Paul Jackson

TerraXplorations
3130 East University Blvd
Tuscaloosa AL 34504.

Dear Paul,

As per your request, this letter is to confirm our standing agreement with you to provide curation services to Terra Explorations on an as-needed basis. As you know, we are recognized by a variety of Federal agencies as a repository meeting the standards in 36 CFR Part 79 and have formal agreements to provide curation under these guidelines to multiple federal agencies such as the Army National Guard and Natural Resources Conservation Service.

Please be advised that once a year we must be notified of all reports in which we were named as the repository. Project collections must be submitted within one calendar year of completion. Small projects may be complied for periodic submission. The AHC survey policy specifies which materials must be curated (Administrative Code of Alabama, Chapter 460-X-9). Renewal of this agreement is contingent upon compliance.

We appreciate this opportunity to be of assistance and look forward to working with you in the future.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'J Mann', followed by a horizontal line.

Jason Mann
Director
Archeological Research Center
Troy University

APPENDIX B
ARTIFACT LIST

ARTIFACT INVENTORY LIST

| SITE | LOCATION | TYPE | COUNT | ASCENSION |
|------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|----------|------------|
| <i>Isolated Find 1</i> | | Ceramic | 1 | Bag 1 |
| | Shovel test 14-5 | Ironstone rim | | 2018.05701 |
| | 0-11 cmbs | | | |
| | <i>Location Total:</i> | | <i>1</i> | |
| <i>Isolated Find 2</i> | | Glass | 1 | Bag 2 |
| | Shovel test 14-11 | Amber bottle base | | 2018.05702 |
| | 10-25 cmbs | | | |
| | <i>Location Total:</i> | | <i>1</i> | |
| PROJECT TOTAL: | | | 2 | |