STYLE AND COMMERCE:

The Charleston Ceramics Trade in the 1760s.

by

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In September 1765, an advertisement in the *South Carolina Gazette* announced the establishment of a potworks near Charleston:

> We are informed, that a gentlemen, lately from England, who has lately set up a pottery about 9 miles from this, has met with so good Clay for his purpose, that he scarce doubts of his ware’s exceeding that of Delft: He proposes to make every kind of earthenware that is usually imported from England, and as it will be sold cheaper, he cannot fail to meet with encouragement.¹

The gentleman was John Bartlam, a resident of Stoke-on-Trent Parish in Staffordshire, England, who had been in the potting business for roughly twelve years before immigrating to Charleston.² The full impact of Bartlam’s potworks on the colonial ceramics trade is still unknown, as Bartlam’s kiln has not been found. But archaeological excavations at Cainhoy, South Carolina (38BK1349), the site of his pottery from 1763 to 1769, have revealed many ceramic artifacts including some that archaeologist Stanley South identified as possible Bartlam products.³ In his analysis of the 1992 excavations at Cainhoy, Dr. South discussed over 80 distinct pottery types on the site, consisting of imported European ceramics, Native American pottery, colonoware, and the proposed Bartlam wares.

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¹ *South Carolina Gazette*, Charleston, 28 Sept., 1765, 3-3.


Several of the Bartlam pieces so closely mirror the imported wares that a distinction can scarcely be made. Subsequent excavations on the same location (38BK1349A) provided clearer evidence of Bartlam’s success as a potter, but the number of wares attributable to the potter was still unclear. In 1993, excavations revealed nearly 17,000 ceramic sherds, providing a broader representation of the contemporary ceramic market in the greater Charleston area during the mid-eighteenth century. Although the preliminary analysis was completed in 1994, subsequent research is still needed to separate the wares being made locally by Bartlam from those which were being imported from England and continental Europe. A complete analysis of Charleston ceramics would provide a much-needed baseline with which we could compare Bartlam’s locally-made wares.

The documentary and archaeological evidence summarized in this report presents a picture of Charleston’s consumption patterns and of the quality of wares arriving in the colonies annually during the 1760s. The intent of this thesis is to analyze the Charleston ceramics market, paying special attention to documentary and archaeological evidence which may help to delineate the Charleston profile as distinguishable from other colonial centers. My conclusions will serve as the basis for a reanalysis of archaeological samplings at Cainhoy, and may provide a comparative database for historical and archaeological research on historic ceramics in other Charleston sites.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ................................................................. ii
Preface ................................................................................................ iv
List of Figures ............................................................................. vii

Chapter

1. Introduction ........................................................................ 1
2. Ceramics in Charleston: 1760-1770 ..................................... 22
3. Form and Function .......................................................... 71
4. Historical and Archaeological Sources ............................. 91
5. Conclusions ......................................................................... 108

Bibliography ............................................................................. 113

Appendices

A. Excerpts from Probate Inventories ................................. 124
B. Advertising the Trade ..................................................... 138
LIST OF FIGURES
(with credits)

1.1 Map of the proposed canal system between Liverpool and Hull ................................................. 9
1.2 Map of England showing location of major ports and pottery centers ............................................. 12
1.3 Charleston Rice Exports (1758-1766) ......................................................................................... 17
2.1 Three major categories of ceramics (The Charleston Museum) ...................................................... 23
2.2 Combed and dotted slipware cup (Dr. Stanley South, SCIAA) ..................................................... 25
2.3 Lead-glazed slip decorated earthenwares. (The Charleston Museum) .............................................. 30
2.4 Moravian pottery at Old Salem. [Single Brothers House, Old Salem, NC] (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ........................................................................................................................................ 32
2.5 Lead-glazed red-bodies earthenware pan. (The Charleston Museum) ............................................. 33
2.6 Example of colonoware vessel. (The Charleston Museum) ............................................................ 34
2.7 Tin-glazed “delph” pottery from Bristol England. (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ........................................ 41
2.8 Refined Jackfield-type earthenwares. (Stanley South, SCIAA) ...................................................... 41
2.9 Whieldon-type earthenware teapot (Stanley South, SCIAA) .......................................................... 42
2.10 Whieldon-Wedgwood type pineapple ware teapot (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ..................................... 42
2.11 Tortoiseshell “face” (Stanley South, SCIAA) .................................................................................... 47
2.12 Fragments of Rhenish stoneware (Stanley South, SCIAA) ............................................................. 51
2.13 Brown salt-glazed stoneware mug (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ........................................................... 51
2.14 Chinese red stoneware teapot in the Yixing tradition (Lisa Hudgins) ............................................. 53
2.15 Stoneware vessels from Charleston (The Charleston Museum) ................................................... 54
2.16 Armorial motif on Chinese porcelain (The Charleston Museum) .................................................. 60
2.17 Punch bowl of blue and white porcelain (The Charleston Museum) .............................................. 62
2.18 Blue and white Chinese porcelain (The Charleston Museum) ...................................................... 62
2.19 Pencilled Chinese porcelain (The Charleston Museum) ............................................................... 64
2.20 Overglaze enameled porcelain plate (The Charleston Museum) .................................................... 65
2.21 Tobacco leaf dinner service (The Charleston Museum) ............................................................... 66
2.22 English porcelain teapot (The Charleston Museum) .................................................................... 68
3.1 Formal dining room c1765 [Emerson-Wilcox House, York, Maine] (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ............. 72
3.2 Slip decorated dish with pie-shell rim (The Charleston Museum) .................................................. 77
3.3 Soup tureen of enameled Chinese porcelain (The Charleston Museum) ......................................... 79
3.4 Chinese porcelain teawares (The Charleston Museum) .................................................................. 83
3.5 Engine-turned creamware mug (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) .................................................................. 86
3.6 Hand-painted creamware punchpot (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) .......................................................... 86
3.7 Earthenware pipkin (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) .................................................................................... 87
3.8 Milk or cream pan of lead-glazed redware (The Charleston Museum) .......................................... 88
5.1 Imported ceramics (Lisa Hudgins, SCIAA) ..................................................................................... 109
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

“You will expect, Madam, I should say something of the part of the world I am now fixt in. 'Tis South Carolina, a large and plentiful province. Charles Town, its metropolis is a gentile, agreeable place, and its inhabitants are a polite set of people.”

Eliza Lucas, June 30th, 1742

In the heart of the South Carolina low country stood Charleston - the economic epicenter of the southern colonies during the 1760s. Established a century earlier, Charleston was the core of southern commerce, hosting ships from Europe, the West Indies and the northern colonies as they brought their cargoes to be dispersed to colonial agents (or “factors”) or sent onward to other trade centers. By the 1760s, Charleston was one of the most affluent cities in the American colonies, capturing seven times the per capita wealth of Boston, and eight times the income of New York. Many residents could well afford the broad range of goods imported for resale in the Charleston shops. Colonial merchants like Henry Laurens and John Guerard held economic ties that allowed wholesale purchase of finished products, minimizing the cost to the consumer and facilitating their own commercial ventures. As a result, a wide range of material

1 Elise Pinckney, The Letterbook of Eliza Lucas Pinckney (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1997), 44.
goods, including ceramic wares, was distributed in eighteenth-century Charleston, as evidenced by the documentary and archaeological evidence.

In the decades prior to the American Revolution, imported ceramics, especially British pottery, enjoyed a brisk market in the American colonies. Ceramics manufacturing in Europe was undergoing tremendous change as production methods shifted from cottage industry to "manufactory." The development of refined earthenwares introduced a sophistication to locally-made British pottery which promoted its acceptance by the upper classes. British tablewares and tea sets became more complex as part of the social ritual and fine dining which became the hallmark of those in "respectable" society. England’s potters began producing a new line of refined earthenwares and stonewares. They created botanically shaped teapots with brilliant glazes in green and yellow. Cream-colored tablewares arrived by the crate. Sophisticated tea sets could be purchased in white stoneware or refined earthenwares glazed in black and gold. British potteries also began to manufacture a soft porcelain to emulate the Asian ceramics which were flooding the European market. Vessel forms went from the heavy, communal dishes to more individual and formal forms. Customers eagerly watched as new glazes and styles emerged, and as colonial purchasing power increased, consumer demand helped to influence what was sold at auction, what was displayed in shops, and what sat untouched in darkened warehouses and on colonial wharves.

Overall, Charleston society wanted for nothing that money could purchase; ceramics of every price could be obtained in the capitol city. Purchases of porcelain and refined wares were not limited to the merchant and planter class. Archaeological and
documentary evidence suggests that middle- and lower-class consumers had access to fine table and teawares, perhaps as individual pieces or parts of sets. The purchase of sale items or seconds may also have allowed the buyers of all classes to enjoy the beauty of these new refined wares. Potters and merchants in England understood the value of this second echelon market, and catered to it as well as they could. They diversified their production to meet a complex economic market, and consumers responded favorably.

The Art of Marketing

The 1760s were remarkably volatile for the ceramics industry. New techniques and glazes were being introduced at a mind-numbing rate, and the potters were stressed to keep up with the demand. In addition to the old stand-by of “delf” and yellow slip-glazed wares, potters were producing white salt-glazed stonewares, mottled earthenwares, brilliant molded wares in yellow and green, and enameled wares. Potters began to specialize in one or two types, thus reducing their production costs. As specialization developed, patterns of trade and regional taste appear to have become more important in the determination of buying trends throughout the colonies.

Not every ware appealed to every consumer, perhaps accounting for some regional variations in the distribution of ceramics styles throughout the colonies. Those potters adept in marketing knew this and focused their sales accordingly. In one example, Josiah Wedgwood wrote to his future partner Thomas Bentley that should his green and gold colored wares not sell on the English market, they should be targeted for the "hot climates" (West Indies), which he considered an indiscriminating market. This

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deliberate distribution to specific colonial markets may have also contributed to the uneven distribution of wares in the colonies.

Wedgwood's bright colors of green and gold were visible on wares made in the shapes of cauliflower, melons, and pineapples. Archaeologically these wares crop up frequently in the Chesapeake Bay and coastal Carolina areas, but do not appear to be as plentiful in the northern colonies, although shipping documents from the Wedgwood factory indicate that trade with Boston was occurring, and sets of molded tea wares have been found archaeologically in other northern sites, including Fort Michilimackinac, in Michigan. The fact that many of these wares were sent to the West Indies for disposal in the mid-1760s may explain the number of occurrences in the South, as the southern colonies maintained a stronger relation with the West Indies through familial and business ties, as discussed in the section on maritime trade.

The idea of marketing goods to a specific region may not have been new, but it was certainly advanced by Josiah Wedgwood and his colleagues. His savvy about supply and demand probably reflected contemporary economic thought, but he was quick to take advantage of the shifts. When it became evident that a London address would enhance sales, Wedgwood opened sales rooms there. Wedgwood and/or his business associates are listed in the London city directories for 1763 and 1766. In letters to Bentley, Wedgwood comments that there were people who would be willing to buy "cheap wares" even though creamware was ultimately more elegant. He also outlines his intention to

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raise the price of Queensware to emphasize its importance - at least until it became popular, then lower the price so that the middle class could afford it. It should be noted that like other commodities, the ceramics industry only supported overpricing for a short period. Wedgwood is noted as having said that the “great people” had had vases in their palaces long enough for the middle class to see and want them. He foresaw that the “middling” class, superior in numbers to the great, would be the next logical market for his wares - and lowered the prices to meet their economic capabilities. This understanding of people and their consumer behavior led Wedgwood and others to successful ventures in the ceramics business. It was more than just throwing clay and burning pots; the pottery business was a microcosm of the social and economic complexity which was developing in England and the colonies in the latter half of the eighteenth century.

Maritime Trade

The residents of Charleston were part of a broader commercial network which impacted the style, quantity and cost of British goods imported into the South Carolina low country. If sales of rice and indigo were slow, that could delay the arrival of the latest ceramics styles from Europe, just as the return of a family member from England could infuse the port town with the hottest items. Strong social and political ties with England also helped to create an environment which was as much British as it was American, allowing - and sometimes requiring - the upper class to "keep up" with the

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latest fashions as part of their status.\textsuperscript{9} Visitors reported that Charleston was more elegant than the major cities in other colonies. The upper class dined graciously, and their houses were fashionably decorated. The ceramics used in Charleston were essentially the same as other cities, though distribution may have tended slightly toward the higher end of the economic spectrum.

Ceramics imported into Charleston were heavily influenced by the fluctuations in other imported and exported goods. While earthenwares and porcelains might have captured a handsome price on the retail market, they were not necessarily a primary import to Charleston in the eighteenth century. The weight of ceramics was high when compared to the risk and cost of shipping, considering the level of breakage which might occur on any given voyage. In addition to the loss of income from spoiled cargoes, owners had to pay high rates of insurance, further raising the cost. For example, in 1764, merchant Henry Laurens lost 10 casks of earthenware and another ten casks of "Yellow ware" (possibly yellow lead glazed slip-decorated wares) due to breakage during shipping; these were then sold for £4 to £5 (approximately $32-40 in 1996 dollars)\textsuperscript{10} - far below market value for the wares.\textsuperscript{11}

Shipments of ceramics were infrequently listed in ship's manifests or customs records, and even then the details were minimal. One cargo might include "18 crates of

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earthenware," or "21 baskets of earthenware." In a sampling taken from January 1763 to December 1764, only 8 of the 120 entries in inbound shipping logs contained any reference to ceramics and of these, only two revealed any significant detail, those being 8 dozen milk pans from the *Fair Lady* and 6 chamber pots shipped on the *Betsey*. Yet, despite meager evidence for ceramics in import records, information about the ceramics market might be inferred from the details of trade from other commodities traveling between Charleston, Europe, and the West Indies.

Shipping lists for major imports and exports (potentially those items for which duties would be collected) exist for the port of Charleston for much of the eighteenth century. Details of weight, unit and price can be found in naval lists and customs records. In a landmark study of Charleston port statistics completed in 1984, Converse Clowse analyzed 50 years of these import and export records to the southern port, attempting to synthesize them into a comprehensible and useful set of data. Viewed as a whole, the numbers may seem inconclusive; but when broken down by commodity, we see a market driven by the tension between the need to sell Charleston’s products and the desire to maintain a steady supply of British goods to the colonies. This supply and demand tug-of-war influenced Charleston style by affecting the choice of ports, the choice of ships and the rhythm of shipping between the colonies, England, and the West Indies.

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England’s Commercial Core

The capital city of London captured a large part of the Charleston export trade in the 1760s, accepting an average of 20-30% of rice shipments to England.\(^{15}\) This was due in part to the increasing commercial and banking network developing in London during the latter half of the eighteenth century.\(^{16}\) As an influential political and financial force in the years prior to the American Revolution, London attracted those colonists who were interested in maintaining close ties to the English economy, including merchants, plantation owners, lawyers, statesmen, etc., all of whom stood to benefit from London’s growth. Charleston’s links with London were even more direct, as children of Charleston families were sent to English schools to obtain their education.\(^{17}\) The letters of Eliza Lucas Pinckney and Henry Laurens describe the effect that this had on the family relationships and often on the social or financial status of the family.\(^{18}\) The children kept their families and friends up to date with news and market information, and when they returned to Charleston, they brought the news of the \textit{au courant} back to the Low Country, making Charleston as "British" as many of her northern neighbors.

The economic development in the colonies did not escape the scrutiny of England’s potters. As the colonial market improved, so too did the export trade in ceramics. Potters sought better and faster ways to meet the increasing demand from England, her allies, and the colonies. They lobbied for better roads and encouraged a

\(^{15}\) Clowse, \textit{Commerce}, 59, 70.


\(^{17}\) Elise Pinckney, \textit{Letterbook of Eliza Lucas Pinckney} (Columbia: University of South Carolina Press, 1997), 74.

new system of canals and highways, bringing English ceramics to the doorsteps of England's elite, while simultaneously improving the transportation of goods to the West Indies and American colonies (Figure 1.1). The potters sought out the best market for their goods, moving to larger cities, with many eventually moving their trade to London. There fashionable pottery showrooms sprang up as meeting places for the city’s upper class, ensuring a steady market for the enterprising potter/merchant.

Figure 1.1. Map of the proposed canal system between Liverpool and Hull c. 1771
(Courtesy of the Bodleian Library, Oxford University)

Other cities challenged London's status as the commercial center of England. Bristol engaged in heavy trade with the colonies, earning the reputation as one of the primary centers of trade with South Carolina before the Revolution. Ships from the western English port came either directly to Charleston, or traveled through the southern Spanish ports of Teneriffe or Cadiz, through West African trade centers, or through the fishing ports of the northeast colonies. Bristol engaged in heavy trade with the colonies, earning the reputation as one of the primary centers of trade with South Carolina before the Revolution. Ships from the western English port came either directly to Charleston, or traveled through the southern Spanish ports of Teneriffe or Cadiz, through West African trade centers, or through the fishing ports of the northeast colonies. Bristol imported a wide variety of finished goods from Bristol, including textiles, copperwares, ironwares and glass. Bristol was also strategically located to capture a majority of the pottery exports prior to 1770. Merchants from Bristol furnished a broad range of ceramics to a large market, including delf, creamwares, and porcelain; personal letters reveal that Josiah Wedgwood struck up a business relationship with merchant Thomas Bentley of Bristol in 1764, leading to one of the most profitable pottery export businesses of the time. Charlestonians also maintained a profitable trade link with Bristol. John Guerard's correspondent Thomas Rock cornered the Bristol trade for Charleston when he took over the company of Bristol shipping merchant William Jefferies in 1758; Henry Laurens' letters also indicate that he kept his hand in the Bristol market well into the 1770s. Despite the economic positioning between London and Bristol, ships from Charleston found their way to other British and continental ports as well. The small town of Cowes, located on the Isle of


Wight near Portsmouth, was the relay point for the market in northern Europe. "To Cowes and a Market" was a familiar phrase as nearly 60,000 barrels of rice and more than 5000 pounds of indigo were funneled through the English port from Charleston between 1760 and 1767.  

Charleston business relationships helped to determine the distribution of goods through European ports. The town of Poole was a frequent destination of ships sponsored by John Guerard, partially encouraged by his partnership with the English merchant William Joliffe in 1748. As a channel for goods to northern Europe, the port at Poole was strategic in redirecting much of the Carolina crop in the 1750s and 1760s.  

The western port town of Liverpool engaged in specialized trade with Charleston during this period. From 1762 to 1763, Liverpool was home port to more than 60% of the ships transporting slaves to Charleston. In conjunction with their involvement in the slave trade, Liverpool ships and merchants conducted a small portion of the trade in rum and sugar from the West Indies to Charleston, and were also responsible for a token shipment of bread and flour in the late 1750s. Ceramic wares from "Liverpule" were also listed in shipments and inventories throughout the 1760s, indicating that ships were also arriving from Liverpool with ceramics aboard.  

Liverpool was one of four major export terminals for ceramics in the 1760s (Figure 1.2). Along with Bristol, London, and Hull, it served as a conduit for the pottery market to Europe and the colonies.

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24 Clowse, Commerce, 59, 70.
England and the Potteries in the 1760s

Figure 1.2 Map of England showing location of major ports and pottery centers.
The ware in these Potteries is exported in vast quantities from London, Bristol, Liverpool, Hull and other seaports to our several colonies in America and the West Indies, as well as to every port in Europe. Great quantities of flint stones are used in making some of the ware which are brought by sea from different parts of the coast of Liverpool and Hull; and the clay for making the white ware is brought by water up the rivers Mersey and Weaver to Winsford in Cheshire; those from Hull up the Trent to Willington; and from Winsford and Willington the whole are brought by land carriage to Burslem. The ware when made is conveyed to Liverpool and Hull in the same manner as the materials are brought from these places.

The role of Liverpool as a primary ceramics port is also noted in Wedgwood's business records after 1766, when his showroom sales in London were supplemented by shipments to the colonies by way of his agent in Liverpool.

Dramatic fluctuations in commodities during the 1760s were the result of shifts in trade policy as Britain and the colonies began to vie with one another for greater control of the export market. The volatility of the political and economic relations between England and her colonies provided the impetus for colonial merchants to find alternatives for their good, both imports and exports. Although Charleston merchants were generally content to receive goods from England, there was a gradual increase in intra-colonial trade throughout the mid-eighteenth century. Bread, flour, corn, rum, molasses, and other agricultural commodities were shipped from Boston, Philadelphia and New York in great quantities.

With the increase in imports from the north, locally-produced ceramic wares from New England (primarily coarse earthenwares) began to infiltrate the ceramics market in

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28 Reilly, Dictionary of Wedgwood, 42-43.
29 Clowse, Commerce, 44-45.
Charleston during the latter half of the 1700s. Slip-decorated wares similar to pottery exported from Philadelphia exist in Charleston Museum archaeological collections, and archaeological samplings from the Judicial Center site reveal black-glazed earthenwares which are similar to those earthenwares found in the Boston (Charlestown) area in the 1760s.

**Charleston and the West Indies**

While the relations between Charleston and England accounted for the majority of the export trade from Charleston, the islands of the West Indies also enjoyed a favorable trade with the southern port. Following trade patterns cast from a West Indian mold in the seventeenth century, Charleston merchants never forgot their social and economic roots and maintained strong ties with their island neighbors to the southeast.

From its early settlement, Charleston was tied inextricably with the West Indies, having been born of the plantation culture in the Caribbean. These relationships were formed during the 1600s, when experienced planters from the Indies were recruited to establish Low Country plantations. They continued in the early part of the eighteenth century, when island plantation families sent sons and daughters to the Low Country to establish themselves as planters and merchants in the growing Carolina market. Names like Middleton, Whaley, Perry and Lucas were found in both Charleston and the West Indies.

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Indies, 33 emphasizing the strength of the economic and social ties between the two colonial centers. British traders with connections to the West Indies also settled in Charleston, establishing ties to the families of Nathaniel Russell, Benjamin Smith, and the Savages. The new Carolinians are said to have exhibited cultural patterns more like the Caribbean colonies than their northern counterparts. 34

These familial relations translated into business for the colonies, as goods were shipped between Charleston and the West Indies, and business partnerships established while in the Caribbean were extended to the new Carolina trade. An excellent example can be seen in the relationship established by Charleston ship owners and merchants Thomas and William Savage, who co-owned the brigantine “Savage” with William Dickenson and John Young from Bermuda. 35 Their 1764 cargo included earthenware, shoes, mirrors, and haberdashery - finished goods from Britain being exported to Charleston via Bermuda. These ties to the West Indies stayed viable throughout the 1760s and helped to predict at least a portion of Charleston’s economy.

**Charleston’s Main Crops**

The Soil in general [is] very fertile, and there is very few European or American fruits or grain but what grow here… The Turkeys [are] extremely fine, especially the wild, and indeed all their poultry is exceeding good; and peaches, Nectrons and melons of all sorts extremly fine and in profusion, and their Oranges exceed any I ever tasted in the West Indies or from Spain or Portugal….The staple commodity here is

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33 Sellars, *Charleston* (1934), 4-5.


35 Public Records Office. Shipping registers, Brigantine Savage, November 14, 1764. *Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Ships registers, County of Charleston, 1734-1780.* On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia.
rice and the only thing they export to Europe. Beef, pork and lumber they send to the West Indies.  

The scope and direction of Charleston's burgeoning agricultural market influenced the trade patterns between the Low Country and England. The development of a rice economy in Charleston established a strong relationship with the West Indies, and may have channeled a higher percentage of goods to the South Carolina Low Country, including ceramic wares, which were intended for the island trade. Charleston planters were aware of the influence of their crops on the market, and went to great trouble to find agricultural ventures which would allow them to become a part of the fluid British trade.  

When early settlers to the Low Country were experimenting with crops for export, they realized that they would have to select those staples which could not be grown in England to avoid competing with their benefactors. Crops like grapes, olives, indigo and oranges were tried, but only a few withstood the sub-tropical growing season of the South. Of the items attempted in Charleston, rice became the money crop for many South Carolina planters after 1705. The Low Country was an excellent environment for rice production, with its seemingly unlimited supplies of water, excellent transportation, and an easily obtainable source of manpower. Rice was a staple crop which could be shipped with few problems, and it did not compete with the British export trade. By the second half of the eighteenth-century rice commanded the greatest share of the export market, delivering nearly 60,000 barrels a year to Great Britain and the West Indies (Figure 1.3). It is worth noting, however, that not all barrels of Carolina rice went to the

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36 Pinckney, Letterbook, 40.
37 Edgar, South Carolina History, 132-133.
38 Sellers, Charleston Business (1934), 43.
commercial center of London. While London and Bristol were the largest importers of rice until 1760, other British towns pulled their share of Charleston exports as well. Smaller ports which drew their share of the exports included Gosport, Portsmouth and Poole in southern England, Glasgow to the north, and Liverpool to the west. In 1763 it was the southern port of Cowes which dominated the market with almost 28,000 barrels of rice. \[39\]

**Figure 1.3. Charleston Rice Exports (1758 - 1766)**

In 1762, the market leader was not in Britain, but the West Indies. Between 1760 and 1762, West Indian rice imports from Charleston went from 9,500 barrels to 23,000 barrels. As a comparison, corn exports to the Indies from Charleston increased from 9,000 in 1761 to 41,500 in 1762. \[40\] It is possible that growing island populations required larger quantities of staple crops. Carolina rice was supplied to plantations in the West

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40 Clowse, *Commerce*, 91.
Indies, along with other items such as barrel staves, tar, and pitch. Items such as salt, corn, and bread were imported to Charleston from other ports and then reshipped to the islands. This increase in the West Indian trade continued throughout the 1760s.

Another important export from Charleston during the pre-Revolutionary era was indigo. Grown on Low Country plantations, this plant produced a blue dye which could be extracted then shipped to ports throughout Europe for use in manufacturing cloth and other goods. By the 1740s, Carolina indigo exports were considered as good as if not better than the French variety. Clowse lists only 1700 pounds of indigo shipped in the 1760s but contemporary Charleston daybooks and letters place South Carolina exports at over one million pounds (wt) in a good year.

The production of indigo was labor intensive, though not so cumbersome as rice. The indigo season was short; the crop could be dovetailed with others, so it was possible for plantations to have two growing seasons within a year, and thus two sources of revenue. Unfortunately, like many other crops, indigo extracted nutrients from the soil, leaving it unfit for replanting after a few seasons. Planters had to shift fields repeatedly, leaving the fallow field to nature.

The exportation of indigo was not always a dependable source of income because of competition with European and Asian crops. In the Caribbean, Montserrat was one of the top exporters. As English production of cloth increased through advancing technology, the market for dyes, especially indigo, grew. Yet, while indigo increased in

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41 Clowse, Commerce, 70.
42 Pinckney, Letterbook, xix.
43 Pinckney, Letterbook, xviii-xix.
popularity through the mid-eighteenth century, its success was relatively short-lived. The trade finally dropped off by the 1790s and was no longer viable after the mid-1800s.

In addition to rice and Indigo, Charleston merchants exported deerskins, tar and pitch, turpentine, lumber, staves and shingles, some of which were shipped in from Georgia and North Carolina. Ships carried leather, tobacco, and raw silk to England, as well as pork and beef, and hemp. Before the introduction of indigo, deerskins ranked second in exports. In the 1750s, over 50,000 pounds (wt) of deerskins were shipped out of Charleston. Even in the 1770s, deerskins still accounted for 10 percent of the export market from Charleston. This trade in skins was much dependent upon relations with the Native American residents, which fluctuated during the 1760s as inter-tribal alliances threatened trade relations.

The Impact of Trade on the Ceramics Market

While there appears to be little evidence of a direct link between styles of imported ceramic wares and specific commodities shipped out of Charleston, it is clear that fluctuations in the import and export trade did impact Charleston's market in other ways. The most obvious influence is the positive effect of trade on the available credit or cash available for the purchase of imported goods. Charleston's economic system produced a class of consumer who could well afford the imported Chinese porcelain, creamware, or salt-glazed stoneware that found its way into Charleston's harbors. This

44 Francis Bradlee, Colonial Trade and Commerce (Salem, MA.: The Essex Institute, 1927), 13.
45 McCusker, The Economy of British America, 183-4.
disposable income created purchasing patterns which might not have existed in areas of more repressed economies.

The dependence of Charleston upon the English market required that the importation of ceramic wares be based on those which were accessible to the English consumer. While the best ceramics may not have been shipped to the colonies first, they did eventually arrive, and were eagerly purchased by the colonial consumers. When trade patterns shifted between London, Bristol, and Liverpool, the ceramics market flexed as well, as evidenced by probate listings of Liverpool china and the archaeological remains of delftware from London and Bristol.

Relations with the West Indies may also have influenced the types of ceramics found in Charleston. Letters from Wedgwood indicate that certain types of wares, the green and gold glazed earthenwares, were shipped to the Indies when their popularity had waned in England and on the Continent. These wares are found in the probate inventories and archaeological excavations of the southern mercantile centers, including Charleston, Savannah and Williamsburg, while they do not appear to be as prevalent in New England colonies.

While a direct correlation between imported ceramic types and Charleston’s exports may not be achievable because of the paucity of detailed shipping records, it is evident from the other historical and archaeological data that business and familial

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47 Finer and Savage, *Selected Letters*, 58.

connections, along with the dynamics of the Charleston and British export markets, produced a complex market of ceramics which allowed Charlestonians to furnish their tables with all manner of ceramics. The following chapter reveals the breadth of this ceramic market, including the forms and types of ceramics which found their way into the colonies in the 1760s.

CERAMICS IN CHARLESTON: 1760-1770

The number and types of ceramic wares available to Charlestonians changed dramatically in the 1760s. The development of more refined earthenwares and the simultaneous shift to mass-production of ceramics allowed a diversity previously unknown in the pottery industry. Archaeological and documentary evidence indicates that during the 1760s, wares from every ceramic category found their way into Charleston harbor (Figure 2.1). Earthenware, porcelains and stoneware were used in Low Country households, each serving a unique social or utilitarian function. In Charleston’s economically driven social hierarchy, ceramics would eventually become synonymous with class.

The emerging Charleston elite sat on a unstable throne in the years prior to the Revolution. Having obtained their wealth through shipping or plantations, upper-class Charlestonians may have felt threatened by a middle class anxious to improve their position. In an effort to establish a stricter social hierarchy, Charleston’s elite adhered to a complex set of rules of “respectability.” These included extravagant rules of dining etiquette, perfection of the tea ceremony, etc. Good manners and appropriate behavior were crucial aspects of daily life in Charleston.

Archaeological and documentary evidence is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.


21
Chapter 2

CERAMICS IN CHARLESTON: 1760-1770

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49 Archaeological and documentary evidence is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 4.

became so important that recipe books began to include discourses on table settings, and
guides to good behavior were written for the aspiring young gentleman or gentlewoman.51
Some historians have proposed that this increasing formality, and the developing social
structure, were part of a broader attempt to maintain a hold on their world through
increasing discipline and order.52 This formalization of the dining experience led to a
need for more complex tables and teawares.

and Local History, 1982), 439-462.

51 See George Washington, Rules of Civility and Decent Behaviour in Company And Conversation
(Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1926).

52 Paul Shackel, "Town Plans and Everyday Material Culture: An Archaeology of Social
Relations in Colonial Maryland's Capital Cities," in Historical Archaeology of the Chesapeake, ed. Paul
Shackel and B.J. Little (Washington D.C., Smithsonian, 1994).
In the 1760s, Low Country formal dinners included several courses, often with more than one type of meat present, plus local fruits, grains and vegetables. This type of elaborate presentation needed to be framed with a suitable dinnerware, and Charleston merchants worked hard to keep the most elegant tables filled with Chinese porcelain tablewares, white salt-glazed stonewares, and eventually, fine English-made creamwares. By the 1760s, upper class households used the coarser earthenwares only in the kitchen or on the tables of their servants. Charlestonians of lower economic status still utilized the less costly wares ("delf" or tin-glazed wares, coarse earthenwares, and some stonewares) but archaeological evidence suggests that they were able to obtain some of the finer wares for "special occasions," perhaps for guests or afternoon tea.\textsuperscript{53}

Whether chosen for their utility or for an associated status, each type of pottery served a distinct role in the Low Country culture. Within each of these groups a series of stylistic and technological characteristics enables us to define specific ceramic types. The decorative style and technical aspects of the various types are discussed herein, providing some insight into Charleston's ceramic style of the 1760s.\textsuperscript{54}

**Earthenwares**

The largest category of ceramics identified in both documentary research and archaeological investigations is earthenwares. Charleston inventories and shipping documents are replete with references to "one lott earthenware," but few details are provided. Letter books from merchants are equally unrevealing about the Charleston

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\textsuperscript{53} Martha A. Zierdan, Elizabeth Reitz, Michael Trinkley and Elizabeth Paysinger. *Archaeological Excavations at McCrady’s Longroom* (Charleston, South Carolina: The Charleston Museum, 1982).

\textsuperscript{54} The classification of ceramic artifacts used in this chapter is derived from taxonomies of eighteenth century ceramics found in the following volumes: J. Jefferson Miller, *Eighteenth-century Ceramics from Fort Michilimackinac*; David Barker, *William Greatbatch, A Staffordshire Potter* (London:
market for specific wares. For example, in letters written between 1760 and 1767, Henry Laurens makes references to crates and hogsheads of earthenware, but tells us little about the color or style of the wares. Only in five references during this period did he shed light on the ceramics market. "Yellow ware" was mentioned four times, usually in reference to the inability to sell the goods. This was in all likelihood the English combed and dotted slipware, which sported red slip decorations and a golden yellow lead glaze (Figure 2.2), or an early form of Staffordshire creamware. Another of Laurens' letters references "Liverpoole" china, confirming that trade with Liverpool was occurring, but little historical or archaeological evidence which pinpoints the factories which were exporting china to the colonies at this time. 55

Historically, earthenwares were made in a variety of styles and forms. The term "earthenware" was first documented as being used in the fourteenth century referring to the "wares made from earth" (ollas terrea). 56 The wares themselves date back to Roman times, when they were called "samian" wares. 57 These earthenwares are traditionally porous ceramics made with a low-fired clay body and glazed with a clear or opaque glaze. By the eighteenth century, British earthenwares included coarse red earthenwares as well as refined tin-ash glazed and clear


55 Hamer, Laurens Papers, 96, 237.
lead-glazed earthenwares. While the history of earthenwares is extensive, our discussion will be limited to those types available for purchase in mid-to-late eighteenth-century Charleston as seen in probate and archaeological evidence.

Coarse earthenwares

One of the oldest forms of ceramics found in the Low Country is the group of coarse earthenwares. First brought to the Carolina coast by Spanish and French settlers in the sixteenth century, coarse earthenwares originally had a utilitarian function—storage, transportation, and food preparation. By the eighteenth century, they appeared in the form of mixing bowls and milk pans in colonial kitchens. Earthenware “jarrs” held oil and lard. Clay flowerpots held spices or posies. Some vessel forms were unglazed; others were defined by intricate sgraffito carving or by detailed slip decoration. When lead glaze was used, it ran from a clear glaze, which turned dark yellow in firing, to the green of the copper glaze or the deep black/brown of the glaze infused with magnesium. While these were not expensive wares in the mid-eighteenth century, their presence in households of all economic levels reveals their practicality and disposability within the society. On many seventeenth- or eighteenth-century archaeological sites, a preponderance of coarse, red-bodied earthenwares presents itself in the archaeological

57 Reilly, Wedgwood Dictionary, 360.
59 Stanley South and Chester DePratter, Discovery at Santa Elena: Block Excavation 1993 Research Manuscript Series 222 (Columbia: University of South Carolina, 1996), 37-43.
60 Ceramic flower pots, cream pans, and storage containers found in Charleston archaeological contexts are curated in the archaeological collections of the Charleston Museum.

26
record, while finer earthenwares and chinawares are less common. 61 This could be true for several reasons. Perhaps redwares were used more frequently and subsequently were broken more often. Redwares may have been more prevalent in the eighteenth-century home than porcelain and stoneware, so the archaeological numbers may be reflecting volume rather than usage patterns. Another possibility rests in the disposition of ceramic types in the household. When a coarse red milk pan broke, it was usually thrown out the kitchen door or into a privy, but when a Chinese porcelain dish broke, it was mended for later use, or placed in a strategic position in the china cupboard for visual effect. Probate lists mention "old" or "broken" china in the details (as seen in Appendix A), while a similar listing for earthenwares does not appear. The personal inventory of Lillias Moubray, taken in May 1765, includes repaired items in porcelain and stoneware, but not redwares:

1 coffee mill 1 sugar box 2 tea canisters 5 stone plates &
1 cracked ditto 2 small dishes 1 broken do 1 mustard pott
1 small delf bowell 1 milk pott 1 Black tea potts
1 do sugar dish no cover 4 china cups do cracked
& 2 broke saucers 1 glass salt 62 (sic)

Advertisements for china menders throughout the late eighteenth century further testify to the recycling behavior exhibited on behalf of refined wares: 63


63 Examples of ceramic artifacts that have been mended are described in detail in Rich Goring, "European Ceramics in 17th and 18th Century New York." The Bulletin and Journal of Archaeology for New York State 80-81 (1980-81), 12. See also Brad Rauschenberg, "Ceramic Menders and Decorators in Charleston, South Carolina, Before 1820," Journal of the Museum of Early Southern Decorative Arts, XVII (November 1991), 115-116
MARIA WARWELL

Intending shortly to depart this province, desires all persons to whom she is indebted, to bring in their accounts in order to be paid; and requests the favour of those indebted to her to make immediate payment: And while she waits for passage, will be much obliged to those who will employ her, in mending in the neatest and most durable manner, all sorts of useful and ornamental china, viz. beckers, tureens, jars, vases, bust's; statues, either in china, glass, plaster, bronze, or marble; should a piece be wanting, she will substitute a composition in its room, and copy the pattern as nigh as possible—N.B. She lives near Mrs. Wright's place on the Hard, Trott's Point.  

James Rutherford, a regular-bred gold and silversmith, just arrived from Edinburgh, makes and mends all kinds of plate, and other work in his business, after the best and newest fashions. He likewise works in jewelry and clasps broken china in the neatest manner, which is a work never done here before.

The relative cost and availability of coarse red earthenwares determined their "disposability" level and thus their life span within the Charleston household.

Coarse red earthenwares were initially shipped into the colonies from England, but eventually began being produced by American potters. There appeared to be intra-colonial trade in redwares, as evidenced by the reference to eight-dozen milk pans being imported to Charleston from Boston in 1764, and several shipments of earthenware.

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65 South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, SC., Feb 22, 1752. Reference on file at the Museum of Early Southern Decorative Arts, Winston-Salem, NC.

from Philadelphia. Colonial potters became a primary source for utilitarian earthenwares as potworks sprang up in the clay-rich regions of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. Northern potteries thrived in the mid-eighteenth century, while there were few southern potters identified (Table 2.1).

**Table 2.1 Southern Potters (1730 – 1800)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andrew Duche</td>
<td>1730s</td>
<td>Savannah, GA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bowen, Samuel</td>
<td>1745-1760</td>
<td>Savannah GA</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gossman, Henry</td>
<td>1745-1760</td>
<td>Savannah GA</td>
<td>earthenware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grenier, Andrew</td>
<td>1745</td>
<td>Purrysburg</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hershinger, John</td>
<td>1745</td>
<td>Saxegotha</td>
<td>redware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landrum, John</td>
<td>1754</td>
<td>Chatham Co., NC</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adams, John</td>
<td>1755</td>
<td>Salisbury, NC</td>
<td>lead glazed earthenware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aust, Gottfried</td>
<td>1755-1771</td>
<td>Bethabara/Salem, N.C.</td>
<td>utilitarian redwares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landrum, Samuel</td>
<td>1755-1816</td>
<td>Chatham Co., NC</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craven, Thomas</td>
<td>1760-1817</td>
<td>Randolph Co. NC</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morr, Michael</td>
<td>1761-1771</td>
<td>Salisbury NC</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartlam, John</td>
<td>1763-1781</td>
<td>Cainhoy, Charleston SC</td>
<td>earthenware, porcelain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Godlieb, John</td>
<td>1764-1769</td>
<td>Craven Co. SC</td>
<td>lead glazed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berroth, Henry</td>
<td>1775-1825</td>
<td>Rowan Co.,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessley, William</td>
<td>1770</td>
<td>Charleston</td>
<td>china painting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carl Steen's research into intra-colonial trade reveals that Philadelphia potters were sending earthenwares to the southern colonies during the 1760s and early 1770s, including lead-glazed earthenwares and slip-decorated wares which have subsequently turned up in Charleston archaeological investigations (see Figure 2.3). Steen's suggestion that wares were imported from Philadelphia has been substantiated by

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shipping records from the period, which list earthenwares being imported in ships coming from Philadelphia.  

The generic utilitarian pottery of the 1760s had a buff to red clay body, which was very porous, with glazes ranging from clear yellow to green to dark brown. It could be plain, incised, or decorated with a thin clay mixture called “slip.” Based upon archaeological evidence, these wares were found in a variety of forms, including pans, plates, flower pots, bowls and baking dishes.

Earthenwares found on eighteenth-century Charleston sites include North Devon

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71 Public Records Office.  Shipping registers, 1762-1764.  Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Ships registers, Charleston County 1734-1780.  On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, Columbia.

72 Examples of these wares are found in the collections at the Charleston Museum.  See also Elaine Herold and Darcy F. Morey, Historical Archaeological Report on the Meeting Street Office Building Site, Charleston S.C. (Charleston: Charleston Museum, 1981), 49-50.
gravel-tempered wares, Buckley wares, red or green lead-glazed wares, slip-decorated ceramics. Buckley Ware, named for the North Wales pottery district in which it was produced, entered the colonies by way of ships from Liverpool. This unique ware had a striated purple-red and white clay body, fired a little higher than the average earthenware, then glazed with a shiny to matte black glaze. Buckley earthenwares appear regularly in Charleston, primarily in the form of cream pans, storage jars and pitchers. The gravel-tempered wares, imported from North Devonshire, began being imported in the late seventeenth century and were popular until the 1790s. These included plain and sgraffito-decorated wares in the shape of milk pans, bowls, etc. The bulk of the earthenwares in Charleston were the undecorated red-bodied earthenwares, which could be found unglazed, or glazed with a lead-based coating.

Potteries began to develop in the Southern colonies by the end of the first quarter of the century. While evidence of earlier English pottery sites has not been found, it is possible that a small cottage industry existed where local potters were making wares from the rich coastal clays in the Carolinas and Georgia. Another possibility is that instead of creating new potteries, colonists were using wares made by Native-American or African-American potters to supplement the import market in this early period; these locally-made redwares occur in both plantation and urban archaeological contexts in the low country.

The first of the documented potters was Andrew Duche, who established a

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73 Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 133.
74 Exhibit text, Potteries Museum and Art Gallery, Hanley (Staffordshire), England.
75 Archaeological evidence of a sixteenth-century pottery kiln has been found by Stanley South and Chester DePratter at the Spanish colonial site of Santa Elena, near present-day Beaufort, South Carolina. Such evidence points to the viability of pottery manufacture in the colonies.
potworks in Savannah as early as the 1730s; other potteries were established in Savannah, Georgia and in Purrysburg and Saxegotha, South Carolina by 1745.\footnote{Howard Smith, \textit{Index of Southern Potters}, 71-90.}

Beginning in 1755, Moravian potters in Bethabara provided coarse red earthenwares for the central Carolina market (Figure 2.4),\footnote{Stanley South, \textit{Discovery in Wachovia} (New York: Kluwer/Academic Press, 1999), 188-191; John Ramsay, \textit{American Potters and their Pottery} (New York: Tudor Publishing, 1947); John Bivins, \textit{The Moravian Potters in North Carolina} (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1972).} as did the earthenware potters of Chatham County, North Carolina. Large pottery centers existed in Peabody and Danvers, Massachusetts, just north of Boston, where, by the end of the 1760s, nearly 70 potteries made a variety of plain and lead-glazed earthenwares.\footnote{Watkins, \textit{New England Potters}, 62-73.} Several potters from the Piscataqua River region north of Boston were producing black-glazed earthenwares with a "rich, almost black glaze which covered the redware body." Evidence of wares of this nature has been recently found at the Judicial Center site in Charleston.\footnote{Personal communication, Susan Travis, New South Associates, May 1999.} Earthenwares created by these colonial potters may have trickled into Charleston in the 1760s, but unless they were uniquely marked or specifically referenced in documentary evidence, it would be difficult to determine which

Figure 2.4. Moravian pottery at Old Salem
of the potters made them (Figure 2.5).

In addition to the locally made or imported red earthenwares, another type of coarse utilitarian ceramics can be found in the Charleston market in the 1760s. Identified by Ivor Noël Hume as “Colono-Indian ware,” these wares could be found in Charleston kitchens and in slave quarters throughout the Low Country.

Figure 2.5 Lead-glazed red-bodied earthenwares were the utilitarian ceramics for many Low Country homes

(Photo courtesy of Charleston Museum)
Colonoware

The introduction of slavery to the Low Country brought a new component to the already-complex cultural mix in the ceramics market. Ceramics traditions from the Low Country Native Americans and the slaves from the Caribbean and West Africa were blended into a new type of pottery, which archaeologist Leland Ferguson called simply "Colono Ware."\(^{80}\) The use of this colono ware, described as a locally made African-American or Native American ware, changed the distribution of ceramics on Charleston sites, particularly the coarser earthenwares (Figure 2.6). These wares mimicked the forms of Native American, African and European pottery traditions, and were found in Low Country kitchens and slave quarters, replacing the domestic or imported coarse

\(^{80}\) Leland Ferguson, *Uncommon Ground* (Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution Press, 1992), 18
earthenwares normally used there. While the cultural significance and use of colono ware is still being debated, its effect on the distribution of ceramics across the southern colonies cannot be ignored.

Tin-glazed wares

The term "delf" or "delph" ware was used to describe tin-ash glazed ceramics, which began to be imported to the colonies during the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. The name originally referred to the tin-glazed wares from Holland, but spread to include other western European countries. Other countries were producing these wares as early as the ninth century; they were known as majolica in Spain, maiolica in Italy, or faience in France. European tin-glazed ceramics have been found in French and Spanish colonial sites in South Carolina dating to the sixteenth century. In the English colonies, however, the Navigation Acts of 1651 and 1660, as well as the non-importation proclamation of 1672 deterred imports from Holland, France, and Spain to English colonies until the ban was lifted in 1775, just prior to the Revolution. Customs officials were ordered to seize and destroy wares imported from other European countries,


83 Stanley South, Archaeology at Santa Elena: Doorway to the Past. (Columbia: South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, (1992)); Chester DePratter and Stanley South, Discovery at Santa Elena: Boundary Survey, Research Manuscript Series 221 (Columbia: South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, 1995).
reducing the number of wares available for sale to colonial customers. Historical documentation and archaeological records indicate, however, that some Dutch residents of Charleston were successfully importing delft from northern Europe, and evidence of Rouen faience and other European tin glazed pottery exists in colonial contexts for the 1760s.

As a result of the aggressive non-importation policy established by the British government, the majority of tin glazed wares found in Charleston prior to the Revolution are from English potteries. Tin-ash pottery may have come to Charleston from a variety of pottery centers. The English cities of London, Lambeth, Bristol, and Liverpool were major exporters of the ware in the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries.

These wares varied slightly in color and shape. Many of the “delf” potters were attempting to emulate the increasingly popular Chinese porcelain. They created a white-glazed ware with chinoiserie designs and floral motifs. Each pottery center had a unique set of identifying traits. London wares prior to 1680/1690 were often glazed pure white, some with a pinkish tone to the glaze. Lambeth earthenwares had a glaze which was thick and lumpy with a greenish blue tint, which tended to "craze," or crack. The glaze on Bristol delft was often a light lavender color. The Bristol potters also had trouble developing a red overglaze color (emulating the red overglaze-enameled porcelains)

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85 Noël Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 141.
87 Archaeological collections from Cainhoy, the Charleston Museum and the Charleston Judicial Center site contain a number of European pottery types. The question remain whether these wares were being brought into Charleston for sale, or whether they were brought as part of the personal goods of immigrants.
which would effectively blend with the tin glaze, causing the red to "stand out" both visually and physically.\textsuperscript{89}

While individual factories may have produced unique designs or color schemes, these "delf" wares generally had the same characteristics. Tin ash produced an opaque glaze which hid the buff- to pink-colored body, making the ceramics appear white or gray.\textsuperscript{90} The surface could then be decorated with blue and white designs which mimicked Chinese porcelain (Figure 2.7), or bright polychrome overglazes with popular motifs and sayings. While some potteries continued to produce these wares until 1790, the market was significantly reduced by the 1760's, with purchases made primarily in the form of tablewares and punch bowls.

**Refined redwares**

The earliest lead-glazed refined earthenwares were red-bodied earthenwares coated with a lead glaze. Around 1740, English potters began to produce wares made with a finely turned red clay body, approximately 0.5cm in thickness, covered with a lead glaze which ranged from clear yellow to opaque black.\textsuperscript{91} The clear-glazed refined red earthenwares have been referred to as Astbury-type wares, named after the celebrated Staffordshire potter, John Astbury. Traditionally the term was used for those decorated with white sprigs made of kaolin clay.\textsuperscript{92} Refined wares with the black glaze were called

\textsuperscript{88} Noel Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 109-110.

\textsuperscript{89} Noel Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 110.

\textsuperscript{90} The thick glaze never bonded completely with the porous clay body of the "delf" wares, causing excessive crazing or flaking off. The archaeological remains of these wares are often denuded, or have minimal glaze coverage, and may appear to be unglazed bisque sherds.

\textsuperscript{91} Noel Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 123.

\textsuperscript{92} Noël Hume, *Pottery and Porcelain*, 35.
"Jackfield" wares, so named for the pottery of origin. The Jackfield-type wares were being produced by potters in Shropshire, as well as those in Staffordshire, including Josiah Wedgwood and Thomas Whieldon. The true Jackfield wares had a thick, lustrous black glaze, some with low-relief decoration (Figure 2.8); they could also be found trimmed with gold. While other potters managed to accomplish the blackness of the Jackfield glaze in their wares, they could not reproduce the luster or viscosity of the original glaze. The true Jackfield body was a deep red bisque, though a wide range of clay bodies can be found in Jackfield clones. The black-glazed earthenware was the first of the earthen teawares to engage the colonial market in the 1740s, and was still a viable commodity in the 1790s.

**Fine lead-glazed cream-colored earthenwares**

Production of fine cream-colored lead-glazed ceramics began in Europe in the early eighteenth century. Around 1725, Thomas Astbury found that by mixing ball clay from West County with the lighter burning local clays from Fenton Calvert, and adding calcined flint, he could produce a hard, white stoneware which could be salt-glazed. Using the same clay body at a lower temperature, he produced a white bodied earthenware. Enoch Booth later refined this clay body by mixing the finely washed local clay with clays from Dorset and Devonshire. Soon, potters began to create

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93 Noël Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 123.
97 Hughes, *Earthenware*, 104.
colorful earthenwares, often using the same forms seen in salt-glazed pottery.98

These early wares were glazed with a natural sulfite of lead known as "smithum" or "galena" to local potters. The glaze was yellow or brownish glaze as a result of the iron content in the clay or glaze. The glaze was later refined by using calcined lead, which produced a colorless high-gloss glaze that penetrated the clay body better.99 The use of lead glaze was enhanced dramatically by the creation of liquid glaze, which was patented by Thomas Frye in 1749.100 Ann Warburton of Hot Lane made further improvements to the glaze in 1751.101 Potters added splashes of colored underglazes made from copper, manganese, cobalt and lead to provide a "mottled" or "tortoiseshell" look to the surface, referred to as "clouded" wares in some documents (Figure 2.9). It is interesting to note that a series of earthenwares and porcelain wares from China had similar glaze combinations of gold and green tortoiseshell glazes streaking their bowls and urns.102 There may be a stylistic connection between these lesser-known wares from the seventh century Tang Dynasty and the tortoiseshell wares produced by the eighteenth century English potters.

The early cream-colored earthenwares were very successful, and for a period, the tortoiseshell glaze was very popular. But potter Josiah Wedgwood, understanding the volatility of the market, began looking for improved glazes to use on molded and cream-

99 Wedgwood and Ormsbee, Staffordshire Potter, 37.
100 Hughes, Earthenware, 105.
101 David Buten and Jane Clancey, 18th Century Wedgwood (New York: Main Street Press), 18.
colored wares. His 1759 experiment book details a new green glaze which was much advanced over the previous recipes. It had the brilliance of emeralds and perfect clarity. Wedgwood also developed a golden yellow glaze to be used on the newly developed botanical forms, such as melon and pineapple wares, which were being created by William Greatbatch and other modelers in Staffordshire in the 1750s (Figure 2.10). These green and gold wares lasted until well into the 1770s, when the better-known "creamware" or "Queensware," made popular by Josiah Wedgwood, began to be mass-produced and stole the hearts of English and colonial consumers.

Figure 2.7. The glazed "delf" pottery from Bristol, England.

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Figure 2.7. Tin glazed “delf” pottery from Bristol, England.

Figure 2.8. Refined “Jackfield”-type earthenwares.
Figure 2.9. Whieldon-type earthenware teapot produced in Staffordshire c 1765.

Figure 2.10. Whieldon-Wedgwood type pineapple ware teapot made in Staffordshire, England (1760-1765).
Mass production

In the 1760s pottery production shifted from a popular cottage industry to a profitable manufacturing venture. Whereas earlier potworks consisted primarily of small clusters of buildings and a single kiln, in the 1760s production was increased and factories expanded to accommodate more potters and their helpers. Josiah Wedgwood was one of the innovators of this new manufactory system. In 1759, he left his position at Thomas Whieldon's factory to open his own pottery, "Ivy House," owned by two of his cousins. He worked quickly to create a new system of production that was more streamlined, moving towards uniformity and speed of production. Whereas the earlier Wedgwood wares bore hand tool marks and had a sense of uniqueness about them, the later wares became more sterile and "interchangeable."  

The new wares developed by Wedgwood were accepted readily, despite complaints about the lack of individuality; the market in Charleston became one of the primary importers of these new wares. Just five years after the development of Wedgwood's green glaze, the 1764 inventory of merchant William Wilson of Charleston lists green plates, pickle dishes, and molded wares ("coleflower" (sic) and pineapple) which were created concurrent with the development of the new glaze and the new factory system. Similar wares were still in use in 1766, when Andrew Verdier's inventory lists "4 Green Fish dishes, 1 Green Salad Bowl and Dish, 2 Small Green Fish

105 Hughes, Ceramics, 106.
107 Public Records Office. Probate inventory, William Wilson, November 15, 1764, Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Inventories of Estates, Charleston County (WPA transcripts) 1692-1779. On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.
Dishes and 1 Doz. Do plates," totaling £ 5.05.0 (Approximately $40.00 in twentieth century equivalents).\textsuperscript{108}

Despite the popularity of these new ceramics, Wedgwood was not satisfied with the quality of the cream-colored wares. In 1763, he improved the cream-colored glaze by making it almost colorless, and enhanced the earlier creamware body by reducing the size of the temper and by adding whiter clays.\textsuperscript{109} He immediately set out to make his the most highly sought-after ware on the market. The new cream-colored ware was dubbed "Queensware" after Wedgwood completed a successful campaign to get a set of the wares sponsored by the Queen. Wedgwood and his contemporaries aggressively marketed it to all economic levels throughout the remainder of the eighteenth century.\textsuperscript{110}

The Production Process

The earliest creamware pieces were turned on a wheel, as evidenced by a heavier clay density and by trail marks on the surface. Some designs, such as the pineapple or cauliflower wares, had molded exteriors and turned interiors, suggesting that the molds could have been placed upon the wheel and the clay pressed into the mold and turned inside.\textsuperscript{111} The introduction of molding technology early in the 1700's allowed more intricate designs. Vessels could be made by pressing the clay into separate sectional molds, allowing the clay to dry leather hard, then placing the pieces together using

\textsuperscript{108} Public Records Office. Probate Inventory, Andrew Verdier, 1766. Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Inventories of Estates, Charleston County (WPA transcripts) 1692-1779. On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

\textsuperscript{109} Buten and Clancey, Wedgwood, 18.

\textsuperscript{110} Buten and Clancey, Wedgwood, 18-19.

\textsuperscript{111} Examples of press-molded ceramics excavated at the William Greatbatch pottery site can be found in the archaeological collection, The Potteries Museum and Art Gallery, Hanley, U.K. The thin rings
liquefied clay (or slip). Potters of the early eighteenth century also could use molds to create delicate clay decorations which were added to the thrown bodies.112

By the 1750s, a portion of earthenware ceramics produced in England was being "slip cast," a process by which liquefied clay was poured into plaster molds. Ralph Daniel of Cobridge, who had been working in France, introduced the plaster of Paris molds to English potters in 1745.113 This new plaster compound made of selenite or "gypsum,"114 absorbed water from the slip, allowing the clay body to dry enough to separate easily from the mold. Simeon Shaw also reports that English potters may have been using a modified method of casting, where they would pour liquified clay into the mold, pour off the excess, let the layer dry to leather consistency, then pour another layer, thus building the thickness gradually without having to struggle with issues of consistency in the clay slip.115

The slip-casting process produced ceramics which were lighter, cheaper to produce, and easier to make. The obvious difference in clay density between turned and cast wares makes it relatively easy to distinguish one from another. Economically the lighter wares could prove advantageous because of their reduced shipping weight, thus reducing the excise duties on each shipment. That advantage would be offset by their fragility, perhaps costing more in damages. Later slip cast wares incorporate the produced by turning the mold on the wheel can still be seen on the interior surface of the wares.


113 Wedgwood and Ormsbee, Staffordshire Pottery, 32.


discovery of "deflocculants," silica compounds which increased homogeneity and viscosity of the slip without additional fluids; this produced a drier clay body, thus allowing more frequent use of the plaster molds.  

Slip casting was still an experimental technique in the 1760s, but apparently the lack of deflocculants did not preclude use of slip-cast technique in eighteenth century potteries; however, the number of wares produced was relatively small.

**Creamwares**

By the 1760's, potters were mass-producing refined earthenwares, particularly those made popular by potters from Staffordshire and Liverpool in the earlier part of the decade. The cream-bodied earthenwares included pale yellow lead-glazed "cream-colored" wares, as well as those accented with copper and manganese underglazes.

Potters were producing fine table and teawares which could be low-fired in the kiln at a lower cost, then painted, enameled, and colored with a variety of metallic oxides - thus increasing its versatility in color and form. From Charleston to Portsmouth, as these new ceramics entered the market, they found a place on the shelves of colonial retailers. Charlestonians bought "molded" and "clouded" wares, and delighted in plain creamware bowls, turned mugs, and dishes with molded rim designs.

A number of pottery centers began to produce the fine cream-colored earthenwares. Each potter or group of potters seemed to have a unique style, creating the perception of regional identities in ceramics styles. Examples of this can be seen in the ceramics produced by Liverpool potters, which could be easily distinguished from the

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117 Description of the range of cream-colored wares can be found in Donald Towner, *Creamware*, (London: Faber and Faber, 1978).
wares of other regional potteries because of their unique baluster-shape and their bright overglaze enameled colors. During the same period, potters at Leeds produced elegant wares with sprig decorations and intricate rouletting; bead and reel, pearl, and dentil trims were produced on forms reminiscent of the silver trade.\footnote{Donald Towner, \textit{Leeds Pottery} (London: Cory, Adams and Mackay, 1963), 26-32.}

After 1763, there seems to be more detail provided in probate records, and perhaps more variety in the type and form of ceramics found. For the first time these records contain references to "fish" dishes, "faces" (molded, decorative wall figures) (see Figure 2.11), chocolate cups, pickle leaves, etc. This corresponds with what is sometimes referred to as a "shift" from the useful to the ornamental.\footnote{George C. Rogers, "Changes in Taste in the Eighteenth Century: A Shift from the Useful to the Ornamental." \textit{Journal of the Museum of Southern Decorative Arts} (May 1982): 1-20.} Even Wedgwood refers to some of his new ceramic wares utilizing these terms. Generally, before the 1770s, Josiah Wedgwood described his wares as useful - tablewares, teawares, etc. He began production of ornamental ceramics (such as urns, vases, "faces," etc.) after 1764,\footnote{Reilly, \textit{Wedgwood}, 440.} but did not vigorously pursue the ornamental trade until the next decade.

Examples of ornamental wares appear as early as 1763 in advertisements: The \textit{Friendship} brought "china and china images," while Captain Seager from Bristol...
imported "stone faces and horns for flowers" in the *Joseph*.\textsuperscript{121} The probate records of William Wilson included "faces" as part of his shop inventory.\textsuperscript{122} While these are early examples of the shift to ornamental wares, it is easy to see that the colonial market was ready to absorb whatever stylistic trends were being embraced by Europe. Wedgwood celebrated with the advent of this new trend by introducing a line of ornamental black basalt wares.\textsuperscript{123} Though porcelain potworks had long been providing decorative wares to the market, the wholesale acceptance of these forms by the stoneware and earthenware potters had not been accomplished. It was finally the economic advantage of producing the ornamental wares that convinced the business-like potters to manufacture wares which were strictly decorative.

Some potters, like Wedgwood took advantage of the shift to the ornamental and appealed to consumers with a new line of ceramic wares, emulating classical and Egyptian images. The "Grand Tour" of Europe was becoming *de rigueur* for the well-heeled, and a classical education formed the core of a young person's studies. Recent discoveries in Greece, Italy, and Egypt were fanning the intellectual flames throughout Europe, and the "Classical Ideal," as embraced by Adams and others in their ideology, were popular motifs in literature and art in the latter part of the eighteenth century.

Wedgwood was familiar with this trend and embraced it heartily - to his financial gain. He knew that consumers would pay more for the ornamental wares, particularly if they

\textsuperscript{121} South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, 27 August 1763 (2-1) and 29 August 1763 (3-2).

\textsuperscript{122} Public Records Office. Probate inventory, William Wilson, November 15, 1764, Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Inventories of Estates, Charleston County (WPA transcripts) 1692-1779. On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

\textsuperscript{123} Mankowitz, *Wedgwood*, 125-130.
represented other icons of their social standing. By the end of the 1760s, ornamental wares were being made and sold throughout England and the colonies.  

The standards for marketing, production and the use of these wares were based upon centuries of experience. Their history is also tied to the next type of ceramics, the high-fired stonewares. The following section describes the versatility and availability of this important group of utilitarian and refined wares.

**Stonewares**

Stoneware was the “workhorse” of the ceramic world. Even though coarse red earthenwares existed in practically every household, the “stone” pot was more durable and ultimately more useful for a wider range of jobs. Crock and churns, bottles, mugs and platters were turned from stoneware clays, producing heavy, durable containers. Stonewares imported from England and Germany in the 1600s provide the first datable ceramics in the colonies.  

Examples of stonewares have been found in both documentary and archaeological investigations. Of the varieties found in Charleston in the 1760s, six major categories emerge: gray Rhenish stonewares, English brown salt-glazed, Nottingham wares, white salt-glazed types, red stonewares, and American-made gray-colored stonewares. These types vary in quantity depending upon the location and date of the occupation of the site, but appear to occur consistently in sites of similar date and economic status.

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124 References to Wedgwood’s marketing of ornamental wares can be found in Mankowitz, *Wedgwood*, George Rogers, “Shift in Taste,” and Finer and Savage, *Selected Letters of Josiah Wedgwood*.

Gray stonewares

Gray-bodied cobalt or manganese-decorated stoneware from the Westerwald region of the Rhineland, Germany, appears in sites throughout the eighteenth century. These wares were imported to England between 1590 and 1772, and can be found in the forms of mugs, reeded-neck jugs, and chamber pots. Rhenish gray stonewares have highly detailed stamped floral devices and geometric designs (Figure 2.12). Rhenish stonewares often have medallions indicating production for the English market: visages of George I (1714-1727) and George II (1727-1760) graced the sides of the Westerwald vessels during their respective reigns. However, fragments of gray stoneware similarly decorated have been found at the Potteries in Fulham and Staffordshire, indicating that there may have been some manufacture of this gray stoneware outside of Germany.

Westerwald stonewares appear archaeologically with a similar ware, the "American Gray" stoneware, which can often be distinguished by their casual decorative motif. These wares were decorated with designs, such as birds or abstract logos, drawn freehand in cobalt on the surface. American Gray stonewares, produced in the northeast and Chesapeake regions, have a gray body similar to the Rhenish stonewares and are often difficult to distinguish without the decoration, and are frequently listed as "gray-bodied" stonewares or unidentified stonewares in artifact lists from archaeological sites.

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126 Richard F. Carrillo, Green Grove Plantation: Archaeological and Historical Research at the Kinlock Site (38CH109), Charleston County (Columbia: South Carolina Department of Highways and Public Transportation, 1980), 85-91; Herold, Exchange Building, 95.


Figure 2.12. Fragments of Rhenish stoneware found in Charleston archaeological sites.

Figure 2.13. Brown salt-glazed stoneware mug which has been dipped in white pipe clay, then fired at high temperatures.

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Brown stonewares

The versatility of the brown stoneware, as well as its extended production and use, results in its occurrence throughout Charleston. Several types of brown stoneware can be found in Charleston sites (Figure 2.13). Stoneware attributed to Nottingham, England had a lustrous “chocolate” brown salt-glazed surface with incised details, and was found in both probate records and archaeological evidence. Also found was the pale brown “crouch” stoneware from Burslem, produced from 1700 to 1775. This buff-colored stoneware had a greenish glaze and a dense paste, made vitreous by ferric oxide which intruded into the clay. Shapes were well constructed and finished on a lathe, only occasionally having additional parts such as legs or handles attached.

A stoneware developed by Ralph Shaw shows up in Charleston during this period. Shaw stonewares were chocolate brown with a white slip interior, salt-glazed overall. Though chronologically quite early for the scope of this survey (they were manufactured between 1733 and 1750), these wares are occasionally found in archaeological deposits dating from the 1760s. Another early English stoneware type appears in archaeological contexts in Charleston; brown stonewares were imported from Fulham, where John Dwight and others were creating brown salt-glazed stonewares that emulated the Bellarmine jugs being imported from Germany in the late seventeenth century.

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130 Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 114.
131 South, Method and Theory, 210
132 Solon, English Potter, 73.
133 Solon, English Potter, 77.
134 Jewitt, Ceramic Art, 89.
Red stonewares

A group of high-fired red bodied wares were imported to Charleston during the latter half of the eighteenth century. (Archaeologically, they have often been found in the same refuse pits with both refined and utilitarian wares.) These red stonewares, which began being made by the Elers pottery in 1693, and which were marketed as rossantoico by Wedgwood in the 1760s, were often found in forms and decorations which were clearly copied from Chinese stoneware vessels. The authentic Chinese red stonewares could be found made from blood-red, solid color clays, but could also be seen in the purple and white mottled clays of the Jiangsu or Yixing teawares of the mid-seventeenth century (Figure 2.14). Examples of imported English red stonewares, as well as the Chinese wares, can be found in Charleston contexts (Figure 2.15).

Figure 2.14. Chinese red stoneware teapot in the Yixing tradition.

135 Personal communication, March 1999, Susan Travis, New South Associates, Stone Mountain, Georgia.

136 Reilly, Wedgwood, 361.

137 He Li, Chinese Ceramics, 312.

138 Archaeological collections at the South Carolina Institute for Archaeology and Anthropology, Columbia, and the Charleston Museum, Charleston, South Carolina.
Figure 2.15. Stoneware vessels from Charleston.
(Photo courtesy of the Charleston Museum).
White salt-glazed stoneware

By the 1720s, stoneware potters were beginning to experiment with white clay bodies; they perfected a refined white stoneware which had a thin high-fired body and salt-glazed "orange peel" finish (See figures 2.1 and 2.15). In addition to utilitarian wares, the new white salt-glazed wares began appearing in fine table wares and tea sets. Nineteen different types of wares could be found in white salt-glazed stonewares, including sprig-molded, engine turned, and agate-type wares. These new stonewares were considered the "perfect pottery," they were sturdy and elegant and could be used with silver, pewter, or other pottery vessels. They emulated the characteristics of the popular Chinese porcelain being imported in great quantities to England and were considerably cheaper. There were few problems with the thin stoneware body, though it was "apt to break with any change of temperature or sudden heat" according to a cook at the London Tavern:

Housewives were warned by the cook at the London Tavern to beware of pottery glazed with lead as "it was corroded with anything with vinegar and acid in it...on evaporating the liquor a quantity of salts of lead will be found at the bottom, the acids having dissolved the glazing." He also warned against using fruit juices on delf plates. Chinese porcelain, he said, was the safest material, but too costly. Next came salt-glazed stoneware "which was not injured by acids, salts, or alkalies" but was apt to crack with any change of temperature or sudden heat.

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139 The first dated example of white salt-glazed stoneware dates to the 1720s. Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 114.
140 Solon, English Potter, 79.
By 1750 there were at least 60 factories producing the salt-glazed wares in Staffordshire. Other pottery production sites include Jackfield, Leeds, Swansea, and Liverpool. Refined salt-glazed stonewares were produced in white salt-glaze, Littler’s blue, and “scratch blue” finishes. Scratch blue was white salt-glazed that was etched, then the lines filled with cobalt blue. William Littler’s name was associated with stonewares coated with a slip of cobalt blue then salt-glazed, known as “Littler’s Blue.”

Some factories also became known for specific forms. The basket pattern white salt-glazed stoneware attributed to potter John Baddeley of Hanley and the hexagonal cups, saucers, and teapots often associated with the Wedgwood potteries were just two examples of factory-specific forms. It should be noted that specific attributions to a specific pottery are not always possible. In many cases, several factories were making the same form, even purchasing molds, taken from the same “block” or master mold, so it would be difficult to make a strong case for sole-source production of a design.

143 Solon, English Potter, 83.
144 Solon, English Potter, 83.
145 Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 118.
146 Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 119.
147 Wedgwood and Ormsbee, Staffordshire Pottery, 36.
Porcelains

The epitome of ceramic ware of the 1700s appears to have been porcelain, especially Asian export wares. Upon the exuberant display of Chinese porcelain in the royal porcelain cabinet at Oranienburg and Charlottenburg, and at Hampton Court by Queen Mary, Chinese porcelain became the item to be purchased, duplicated, emulated, and marketed throughout England and the Continent. Its popularity in Europe guaranteed its favor with Charlestonians, whose buying style emulated the London market. Although Chinese porcelain was a steady part of the import market to Europe after the 15th century, the variety of wares available really began to expand in the 1700s. Likewise, the subsequent availability of European porcelains from France and Germany, and the eventual entry of England into the porcelain trade, expanded the market.

Chinese porcelain

Porcelain wares from China and Japan were imported into Charleston by way of England and the West Indies. Although the United States did enter the China Trade after 1784, exported goods were popular in the early colonies. The sixteenth-century sites of St. Augustine (Florida) and Santa Elena (near Beaufort, South Carolina) yield blue and white Chinese porcelain in the archaeological evidence, as do seventeenth century occupations at Jamestown, Virginia and St. Mary’s City, Maryland. From its earliest

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150 Noël Hume, Colonial Artifacts, 140.
importation into the West, Chinese porcelain became a symbol of status and wealth for Europeans and colonists alike.

The story of the porcelain trade extends beyond style or finance: it includes the political, economic, and social dynamics between the East and the West during a period of conquest and expansion. Because of its beauty and translucence in a world of thick redwares and dull stonewares, Chinese porcelain established a new standard of excellence in ceramics for potters throughout Western Asia and Europe; yet it was also the prototype for economic development of ceramics industries around the world. 152

Before the introduction of trade, porcelain was produced primarily for the local market. The Chinese sought out the finer pure white porcelains for their own use, while simple designs of blue and white were produced for export, originally to the Middle East and later to the West. 153 The entry of profit-minded English and Dutch East India Companies into the trade equation changed the availability of goods. Prior to 1730, most of the exported pieces were traditional Chinese wares. 154 After 1730, company representatives and other traders began to ask for blue and white pieces to be created in European forms and motifs. Oriental forms were not as popular with the European trade, and English forms began being developed by Chinese potters. Traders negotiated with hong merchants to reproduce styles and forms. 155 The flat plate, handled cup, etc, were

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155 The "hong" was the Chinese trade center through which the buyers or supercargoes negotiated. Each country had their own hong in the central commercial district at Canton, and could likely have their own agent through which trade had to be conducted. For further discussion of hong trade, see Carl Crossman, *Decorative Arts of the China Trade* (Woodbridge, Suffolk [England]: Antique Collectors’ Club,
unfamiliar to the potters, so wooden vessels were sent along as examples or models to facilitate negotiations. Likewise, specific instructions for pictorial elements were forwarded with the trader, so that Chinese artists could replicate English country scenes, heraldry, etc. on the sides of the porcelain. A new range of English-influenced wares was entering the market, designed in Europe and constructed in the traditional Chinese factories.

Trends in imported china wares fluctuated. As English politics and styles ebbed and flowed, so, too, did the wares imported from China reflect the avant garde. Examples of political and social motifs on China wares exist in many museum collections. One trend, the inclusion of family crests on porcelain tablewares, became popular after 1705 (Figure 2.16). In the early eighteenth century, Chinese porcelain with family crests was not en vogue; only three sets of this "armorial" china are known to exist which predate 1705. Between 1705 and 1800, over 5000 English and colonial families came to possess these specially ordered sets. Even the style of the armorial pieces changed over time; for example, pieces before 1750 contained floral motifs, while those after 1750 sported tasseled scrolls. With each change, Chinese potters had to incorporate western style and culture into the increasingly complex market.

Gradually, European motifs infiltrated the Chinese export market. English landscapes and garden scenes were familiar sights on exported porcelain. Examples of Loyalist or Jacobite motifs still exist, a testament to the use of Chinese potters as

156 LeCorbeiller, China Trade Porcelain, 4.
157 Howard, Choice of the Private Trader, 15.
merchants for English propaganda. While the new focus on European trade goods was to serve the Dutch and English East India Companies well for a period, the specialization was to eventually prove ruinous, because as forms became more Anglicized, they became more costly to make and less marketable in China. Each new style underwent a period of experimentation, which cost the potters time and resources as they sought to perfect the technical aspects of production. In the end, when the market slowed in the nineteenth

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Howard, *Choice of the Private Trader*, 11.
century, the potters were left with large inventories of unsellable wares.

Of the Chinese porcelain exported to Charleston in the eighteenth century, the most popular was the blue and white porcelain, which could be found in dining rooms and parlors throughout Europe and the colonies (Figures 2.17 and 2.18). The production of white porcelain with its brilliant blue underglaze decoration as seen in the late eighteenth century was an evolutionary process. Historically, motifs on blue and white wares ranged from dull gray in color to a pure, brilliant cobalt blue. While the use of cobalt was evident as early as the fifteenth century, during the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644), Chinese potters developed the formula for a vibrant blue which was to become the rage in Europe and Asia. The secret was in the quality of the cobalt underglaze, which was originally imported from Persia. The best cobalt ores contained a touch of arsenic, which added just the right chemical balance to produce a stable and brilliant color. Ming porcelains were known for their bright coloring and clear white body. In the beginning, the porcelain body was decorated with the Persian cobalt; when that source began to run scarce, the potters discovered a way to purify the Chinese cobalt, thus providing a local source for the raw materials. Chinese cobalt was more volatile, and contained manganese which dulled the color and had to be filtered out in glaze preparation. The resulting purification process was expensive and time consuming. In some cases, imported reserves of Persian cobalt were mixed with Chinese cobalt to stretch it out. This resulted in a wide range of hues for the blue and white porcelain over the span of a few centuries.

The traditional blue and white porcelain imported for European buyers began to be supplemented in the seventeenth century by a broadening array of colors and
Figure 2.17. Punch bowl of blue and white Chinese porcelain
(Photo courtesy of the Charleston Museum)

Figure 2.18. Blue and white Chinese porcelain found in Charleston archaeological contexts
(Photo courtesy of the Charleston Museum)

159 Julia B. Curtis, *Chinese Porcelains of the Seventeenth Century* (New York: China Institute
techniques. The addition of underglaze colors of green and red provided new styles, including the organic *famille verte* style, named for its use of green under and overglazes, and the red and blue "Chinese Imari" type, which emulated Japanese porcelains.

"Penciled" china, often called *encre de chine* or *grisaille* was introduced through the assistance of Jesuit missionaries in China, who were instrumental in the development of a non-volatile ink overglaze. The result was a fine liquid which was used to draw delicate designs on the porcelain, which was then enameled with the traditional palette of Chinese colors (Figure 2.19). While experiments on penciled porcelain were being conducted in 1722, the first documented evidence of its success dates to 1730, when it was first noted by Hsien Min, then governor of the Chinese province of Kianhsi.

Overglaze enameling, also introduced by Jesuits in the seventeenth century, became popular as the Chinese potters were exposed to the enameling found on imported watches and other trade goods. Enamellists from Europe were sent to China to instruct potters on the new low-fire enameling technique. Chinese overglaze patterns were initially used in cooperation with the underglaze patterns, forming a complex design with a new dimensionality. Initially, the majority of the enameling was done in the pottery

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centers such as Ching-te-chen. Later, to speed production, and to enable traders to get specialty pieces in a more timely fashion, Chinese enamellers were sent to work at the trade port of Canton.\footnote{LeCorbeiller, China Trade Porcelain, 7.} This led to a separation of the underglaze-overglaze process, and occasionally resulted in an inconsistent design on the porcelain.

Overglaze enameling was originally completed in red iron-oxides, but quickly accepted more colors (Figure 2.20). The enamellers included pink, red, green, yellow and blue colors to create complex botanical patterns and garden scenes. The style developed over time and later became known as famille rose because of the strong use of pink enamels.\footnote{John G. Phillips, China-Trade Porcelain (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1956), 60.} The use of enamel continued throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, though the delicacy of the eighteenth-century wares was never equaled.

\footnote{Suzanne Valenstein, A Handbook of Chinese Ceramics (New York: Metropolitan Museum of Art, 1989), 246}
In the historical and archaeological records from eighteenth century Charleston, Chinese porcelain reveals the widest variety of forms and styles listed of any of the ceramic types. Thirty-six forms are specifically listed as being available in Chinese blue and white porcelain. Other specific types of Chinese porcelain are listed in Charleston inventories, including enameled and burnt china, red and white, and brown and red chinas. Enameled china, which ranges from a simple blue and white pattern with red overglaze, can be seen in the Chinese Imari dinner service or the “tobacco leaf” service found at the Charleston Museum (Figure 2.21). References to "burnt" china may refer

![Figure 2.20. Overglaze enameled porcelain plate from Charleston archaeological collections. (Photo courtesy of Charleston Museum)](image)

The variety of forms listed for Chinese porcelain does not necessarily infer the lack of these forms for other ceramic types. Because of an economic and social bias identified in probate records, it seems likely that examiners were predisposed toward the high-cost items, magnifying the importance of Chinese porcelain in inventories, and relegating earthenwares and stonewares into a non-descript "lott."

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either to enameling or to the process of firing gold leaf onto the glazed piece. Josiah Wedgwood refers to "burning" gold onto his wares in letters to his brother John, strengthening the case for the secondary usage of the term.

"Brown" china is a reference to blue and white porcelain with a caramel-colored glaze on the reverse or exterior surface, which was originally imported from China by the Dutch, becoming associated with Dutch-owned colony of Batavia (in Indonesia) in the seventeenth century. The interiors of these wares were decorated in the traditional floral or landscape designs, while the exterior was glazed with a color that resembles light chocolate or a dead leaf.

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168 Finer and Savage, *Selected Letters*, 34.

Chinese porcelain dominated the market for high-status tablewares throughout the eighteenth century. As the demand for porcelain increased, European potters sought to reproduce these popular wares in their own factories, including potteries in France, Germany and eventually Britain. Although French and German potters were successful in discovering the secret of porcelain fairly early, the English created their own unique answer to the problem of competition with porcelain from the East.

**English Porcelain**

While other European powers had acquired porcelain factories by the 1740s, English potters attempted to duplicate the translucence and delicacy of the Chinese and continental porcelains by using ground glass and steatite in the vitrification process instead of kaolin clay. This produced a body and finish known as "soft porcelain," which was close to the true porcelain, but not the same. The early search for china clay in England had resulted in the use of magnesium silicate (steatite) instead of aluminum silicate (china stone) in the clay body. The steatite was a softer stone, and resulted in the production of the so-called “soft paste porcelains” in the last quarter of the eighteenth century. Soft-paste porcelain wares were produced in factories in Chelsea, Worcester, and Longton Hall, England.

As early as 1747, soft paste porcelain was being made in Chelsea. It resembled milk glass of beautifully white tone with a brilliant glaze. The body often showed pinholes or flecks when held to light due to imperfections in fabric. The soft

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porcelain ceramic forms were usually taken from silver vessels, not the traditional oriental or European porcelain forms, although some forms may be some based upon some French designs (Figure 2.22).

The experimentation with porcelain was primarily with the soft-paste variety until 1768, when apothecary William Cookworthy developed what ceramics historian Melanie Delhom refers to as the "true" Bristol porcelain. Familiar with the materials needed for porcelain, namely kaolin and aluminum silicate (china stone), Cookworthy found these elements in Cornwall and produced and patented the first English hard porcelain. Cookworthy ran the porcelain factory at Plymouth until 1773, when he transferred everything to Bristol. At that time, merchant and potter Richard Champion became manager of the factory. Champion purchased the porcelain patent from Cookworthy in 1775. Champion, who was also a ship owner, may have been shipping English porcelain to merchants in

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174 Hudson, *China Clay*, 16.


Charleston as early as 1767 by way of ship’s captain Nicholas Pocock and the *Lloyd*, one of Champion’s ships. The purchase of a porcelain factory would have enhanced his trade considerably.

Cookworthy’s sole-use patent for china stone and china clay from Cornwall expired in 1775 and Champion fought Josiah Wedgwood, John Turner, and a cadre of other Staffordshire potters for its renewal. Champion eventually won rights to the clay, but he decided to sell the patent in 1781 to Staffordshire potters who began to produce porcelain at the potworks in New Hall. Champion left England and moved to Camden, South Carolina in 1784.\(^{178}\)

Despite the popularity of European porcelain, the fragility and cost of these wares was often prohibitive for colonial buyers, especially when compared to the more durable – and plentiful - Chinese porcelains. English porcelain found in the colonies consisted of hand-painted teawares from Bow, Worcester, Liverpool and Coughley, produced sometime between 1755 and 1775.\(^{179}\) Few remnants of these soft paste porcelains exist in archaeological contexts, but they are not difficult to distinguish from the harder porcelains. Soft paste wares are easily marred by running a file across the surface, and the body tends to be gritty when broken. The hard porcelains do not scar as easily and are more glassy or vitreous.

Ceramics imported into Charleston in the 1760s cover a wide range of attributes ranging from the very coarse unglazed locally-made earthenwares to the high-fired, highly decorated porcelains imported from China. The specific cost of ceramics may


\(^{179}\) Noël Hume, *Colonial Artifacts*, 137.
help to define purchasing power or economic status within the Charleston community, but it was ultimately the function of Charleston ceramics which reflected the social status of the individual. Owning the porcelain tea set was not as important as knowing how to use it socially – or more specifically, having the opportunity to use it socially. The variety of forms found in the Charleston home, discussed in the following chapter, reveal the complexity with which Charlestonians viewed their social rituals.
Chapter 3

FORM AND FUNCTION

The use of ceramic vessel forms to identify cultural patterns is hardly a novel approach. Art historians, historians and archaeologists have attempted to define historical use patterns through vessel forms and construction techniques. The following discussion on form and function follows the work previously completed by archaeologists and ceramics historians. While utilization patterns of some forms changed over time, the focus here is on mid-to late-eighteenth century forms and usage found in Charleston inventories.

The dressed table

While what Charlestonians considered "essential" in the 1760s could vary from table to table, the forms were fairly stable according to their usage patterns. The table of a middle class family might be set rather simply. Each place would have wooden trencher (a shallow wooden bowl) and a spoon, usually made of pewter. Drinking vessels would be glass, tin, or horn. A central serving vessel made of wood, pewter, or red earthenware would hold portions for the entire table.

By contrast, the formal dining table of the upper economic class of society was a
mélange of vessel forms. The primary table service, usually of porcelain, white stoneware, or a refined earthenware, consisted of a soup/serving tureen with matching dinner and soup plates, saucers, pickle dishes, etc. The dessert service was a separate set of serving plates with matching dessert plates or bowls for trifles, custards, or fruits. Glassware included wine and water glasses, decanters, and decorative centerpieces. The elegant nature of this dining experience was further defined by the strict rules of etiquette which were embraced by the colonial elite. Good manners and appropriate behavior became so important that recipe books began to include discourses on table settings, and guides to good behavior were written for the aspiring young gentleman or gentlewoman. The dining experience perpetuated the desire for finer and more complex tablewares.

Dining In

The usage patterns of ceramics in eighteenth-century Charleston may be better understood by beginning with a brief look at the patterns of dining in the Low Country. While recipes do not often call for the type of dish used for cooking or service, the complexity of eating habits may reveal the types and sizes of dishes which might be

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needed for a typical meal.

Studies of foodways and eating habits in eighteenth century Charleston indicate that the diet could have included fresh vegetables, meat, fish, chicken, and grain products (corn or grits, rice, breads, cereals, etc.). Vegetables were served fresh, boiled, baked, or preserved as pickles or sauces. Fish could be found fresh, dried, or salted. Meats, including pork, veal and beef, were often preserved, except during the seasonal slaughtering. In his informal review of late eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century eating, Joe Gray Taylor defines the breakfast in his outline of “fine” southern cuisine by its inclusion of fried pork, eggs, and grits.

Archaeological evidence, as well as cooking guides for the period indicate that most of the animal was utilized, with little opportunity for waste products. Hanna Glasse's *Art of Cookery* detailed recipes for such delicacies as "Calf's Head Surprise," "Pigeon Trans-mogrified," "Roasted Ox-Cheek," and "Beef Tongue Fricasay." Preservation of food was important, and numerous recipes were listed for pickling, drying, and salting. (One of Mrs. Glasse’s recipes, designed for sea captains, provided instructions for making a catsup which would last for 20 years.) Root vegetables, peas and beans, squash and pumpkins were stored for use in wintertime. Luxury items were also used in some quantity, including coffee, Bohia Tea and chocolate. Shipping registers from Charleston harbor reveal a wide variety of imported goods. Table 3.1 provides a sampling of the foods being imported over a four year period.

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183 Hanna Glasse, *The Art of Cookery Made Plain & Easy ; which far exceeds any thing of the kind ever yet published...By a Lady* (Boston, 1843), 49, 62, 93. (First published in 1751.)
Table 3.1. Foodstuffs Imported into Charleston Ports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>barrels of beef</td>
<td>firkins of butter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puncheons of lime</td>
<td>brandy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salmon</td>
<td>claret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheese</td>
<td>pimento</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>onions</td>
<td>hams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mackerel</td>
<td>gannions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cacao</td>
<td>pork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oranges</td>
<td>tierces of coffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bushels potatoes</td>
<td>muscovado sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>barrels of coffee</td>
<td>chestnuts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>rum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian corn</td>
<td>vinegar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>turtles</td>
<td>casks of &quot;reasons&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pineapples</td>
<td>almonds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bananas</td>
<td>olives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cranberries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data taken from "List of ships and vessels that have entered inwards in Lady day," 1760-1764. British Public Record Office (CO5), Shipping registers. On file at SC Department of Archives and History

The archaeological remains from Charleston help to confirm diet patterns, revealing deposits of corncobs and seeds, and the bones of turtle, cow, chicken and sheep. Remnants of coarse earthenware milk pans and crockery found in excavations point to dairying activities. Likewise, the presence of tea accoutrements confirms the use of tea or coffee in the household. It seems likely that Charlestonians attended to the necessary social requirements, whether of a planter or merchant class household, or of a middle class household, providing guests with afternoon refreshment as the occasion warranted.
Ceramic Forms Used in the Household

Tablewares

The Charleston table could range from the informal to the sublime. At its apex, the formal table could employ dozens of dishes presented in a number of culinary deposits, each more lavish than the last. What follows is a list of general vessel forms which are considered "tablewares" — those dishes used in the presentation and consumption of food. They are distinguished from wares used solely for tea, or those whose use is of a utilitarian nature.

Bowls. Utilized in almost every aspect of cooking and serving, bowls range from an ornately decorated porcelain punch bowl form (see Figure 2.17) to crude mixing bowls (Figure 2.9) and the flatter serving bowls, sometimes also called dishes. They ranged in size from pint to gallon bowls. While the form itself is not particularly diagnostic, the location of a bowl in a particular part of the household may reveal certain aspects of use or disposal within the Charleston household. In both archaeological contexts and probate inventories, consistent patterns of usage suggest a culturally accepted standard, particularly within the upper and middle class households, where separation of space was more prevalent. Ceramic bowls were found in the parlor and may have been punch or fruit bowls. The finer serving bowls might have been kept in the beaufat (corner or "buffet") cupboards of the dining room (see Figure 3.1), along with other food service vessels. The earthenware bowls found in kitchens were more likely the red earthenware food preparation items such as mixing bowls, etc. While porcelain or fine earthenware bowls would be filled in the kitchen, they were often stored elsewhere.
because of the high traffic and multi-purpose nature of the kitchen space. Bowl forms were relatively consistent in the 1760s. They were wider than they were tall with a footed bottom and slightly curved sides. The rims ranged from flat to deeply curved, with some coarse redware bowls containing a wide lip (see Figure 2.5) or a "pie crust" edge which reinforced the rim (Figure 3.2).

Butter boats, butter dish, butter plates, butter tub and stand. Butter was shipped and stored in earthenware or stoneware pots, which were then reused for other purposes, or refilled by local dairying activities. The butter pot was a straight-sided jar "of almost square elevation" with handles. In one Act of English Parliament, it was mandated that butter pots weigh no more than 6 pounds, and hold 14 pounds of butter. Because of the wear and tear on butter pots, a separate dish was used to serve the butter to the table. Butter dishes were often covered and may have had a stand or plate underneath. Some forms may have included a system for using water to keep the butter cool. In Charleston, probate records indicate butter stands in Chinese porcelain, stoneware, cauliflower and pineapple wares, tortoiseshell wares, and green-glazed wares.

Dessert pieces. These serving dishes were marketed and sold in sets as follows: one large bowl, six or twelve smaller bowls, a fruit dish, a cream jug, a sugar bowl, and a sauceboat. These were often shaped dishes with matching decoration designed to be used with the formal dining service. While the Charleston inventories of the 1760s only

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186 Fournier, *Dictionary*, 74.
list the dessert pieces in enameled porcelain, pattern books from the period show them available in creamware and white salt-glaze stoneware.

**Dishes**. This category of tableware has undergone a great deal of scrutiny which will not be replicated here. These serving vessels can be either shallow or deep, with a variety of rim forms. According to archaeologist Sophie Drakich, the dish is a variant

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form similar to a bowl, but shallower and without a lip. Inventories have listings for octagon dishes, oval dishes, salad and/or soup dishes, fish dishes, leaf dishes, etc. If you could fill it, eat from it, or serve in it, it fell into this category. While the standard size for dishes was 10 inches in diameter, contemporary definitions list a range from 10.75 to 28 inches. Some of the more decorative forms (leaf or pickle dishes) might have even run smaller. Because of the variable uses of the dish, these forms show up in archaeological and documentary contexts in every major ceramic type.

Mustard pot. A variety of spices were imported to the colonies, including pepper, cinnamon, pimentos, mustard, etc. While most were utilized in cooking, a few became part of the table setting, specifically salt, pepper and mustard. The mustard pot was a handled, cylindrical and lidded jar used separately, or as part of a castor set, including salt, pepper and mustard, which could be found in ceramic or silver forms.

Plate, shallow plates, flat plate. The plate was a vessel for eating, measuring 7.5 to 9.5 inches in diameter. Inventories typically refer to plates as small or large (rather than a specific size), and frequently list them in groups or as part of a larger set of dinnerware. The large dinner service might have contained 12 to 24 plates each of varying sizes. Examples of plates found in Charleston can be seen in Figures 2.1, 2.20 and 2.21.

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188 Drakich, “Louisbourg,” 86.
190 Fournier, Dictionary, 166.
Salt cellars, or salts were shallow, footed bowls, approximately 3 inches in diameter for the table service of salt. Some forms of the salt had low foot rims, others had pedestals. The salt became part of the standard table service during the 1700s, and was part of castor set (see also mustard pot).

The soup tureen was a service vessel designed to hold multiple servings of a dish, usually soup. The tureen had two handles and a lid, which kept food hot (Figure 3.3).

It was part of a setting of table china, which also included salad and flat plates, serving dishes, etc.

Table china. For the appraiser, a collection of tablewares of the same pattern was easily described as

"1 set enamelled Table China, viz:
1 tureen, 12 soup plates, 12 flat plates, 6 flat dishes."

Both Asian and European potters were known to sell ceramics in sets which were decorated with the same design, usually in groups of twelve, which was the number of settings considered appropriate for a dinner party. While the design might not be identical on each plate, an effort was made to coordinate color and pattern for an overall effect. Therefore, a set of tablewares might have an ivy border and a series of bird motifs or landscapes which were similar but not identical. One well-known European example of this decorative device is seen in the tableware service which Josiah

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192 Public Records Office. Inventory of Andrew Johnson. Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Inventories of Estates (WPA transcripts), Charleston County. 1692-1779. On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.
Wedgwood designed for Catherine II of Russia, in which the rim of the dinner service had a frog crest design, while the center displayed a series of famous European landscapes. Similarly, the garden motif in many enameled Chinese porcelain sets includes various scenes from a garden, each framed with a rim or marley design with identical patterns. The result is a cohesive table setting with individualistic touches.

**Beverage consumption**

The social consumption of wine and ale were joined in the seventeenth century by tea and coffee drinking. By the third quarter of the eighteenth century, the network of taverns was appended by a series of new coffeehouses and teahouses as annual tea consumption in Britain went from 3.8 million pounds in 1767 to 7.1 million pounds in 1770. Staffordshire pottery historian John Thomas suggests that if tea had not become popular in Europe in the eighteenth century, that ceramics would never have developed at the exponential rate that occurred in the eighteenth century. “Tea from pewter was too hot, tea from wood was not pleasant, and horn “tot” was not suitable.” The clay body in porcelain and stoneware acted as an insulator against the scalding hot tea, and was readily accepted as the vessel of choice for the new beverages. As the popularity and ritual significance of tea drinking combined with the increasing importation of Chinese porcelains, European potters were spurred to meet the challenging and lucrative market which was unfolding before them.

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194 Thomas, *Potteries*, 104.
The Tea Table and its Wares

The popularity of tea and coffee extended to the colonies by the late 1760s. In most colonial households, tea sets were displayed on tea tables or tea boards, rather than in the beaufat or china cupboard. Tea tables were occasionally listed in probate records of the period. Traditionally, tea tables are thought to be rectangular tables with four-square legs, but could also be seen in a tripod table of mahogany with a circular top; other styles include the tilt-top table, or the single-drawer drop-leaf pembroke table - any small side table which could be easily adjusted for serving company. Closely related was the tea board, a small wooden, metal or ceramic tray, usually with raised edges, which could hold the teapot, cup and saucer, creamer and sugar box.

The introduction of tea to the colonies in the seventeenth century brought a new facet to the societal hierarchy in the colonies. Initially, the universal acceptance and use of tea was limited, as it was too expensive for many households; tea drinking may have been embraced by the upper classes as an elitist phenomenon. The ceremonial aspect of tea was imported from Asia and grafted into "respectable" society. As tea drinking moved from public venues to the home, elaborate tea service "rituals" began to define the level of respectability attained by a young lady or gentleman. By the 1730s, however, middle class aspirations and economic fluctuations allowed tea drinking to become de riguer in many social circles, and tea wares became a standard in many Carolina homes.

As the use of tea became more Anglicized, the concept of the tea set changed in the eighteenth century as focus shifted from the traditional Chinese to a more Western

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197 Smith, "Tea and Sugar," 275.
assemblage. Initially, oriental style teacups were acceptable for tea. These cups did not have handles, and were usually 2 to 2.5 inches high. The saucers were deep (Figure 3.4), and teapots were squat and round. Sugar and milk were not added to the teacup by the Chinese, so the associated creamer or milk pot and sugar bowl were later additions, as use of tea with sugar expanded in Western circles. As tea drinking became a Western habit, forms introduced by early East Indies traders evolved to meet Western standards of consumption. By the 1760s, the set might consist of a teapot, which was low and round, and/or a coffee pot, which was tall and slender (ht:10-12 inches) (See Figure 2.22); 6 to 12 cups with or without handles, 6 to 12 saucers, a slop bowl, a lidded sugar dish, a lidded milk pot, and caddy. The tea service was often manufactured and purchased as a single set, with the lidded milk pot assuming a similar form to the coffee or tea pot, only smaller (approximately 5 inches in height).

The cup changed in size and form depending upon its intended use. Tea cups as defined above, were smaller than the handled coffee cups. Chocolate cups were similar in style, but could have two handles, and usually matched the chocolate pot.

The milk pot was part of the tea set, used in combination with sugar container and teapot. In form it was a small pitcher with or without a lid. It could be designed to match the form and style of coffee or tea pot and approximately 4.5 to 5.5 inches high, or a small pitcher of similar height.

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199 Tea sets are listed in Charleston inventories and advertisements throughout the 1760s; see Appendix A. See also Rodris Roth, "Tea Drinking in Eighteenth Century America: Its Etiquette and Equipage," in *Material Culture in America*, ed. Thomas J. Schlereth, 439-462 (Nashville, Tenn.: American Association for State and Local History, c1982).
The saucer, or small plate, was roughly 5 inches in diameter; it was also a dish used with tea or coffee cup. The saucer ranged in form from flat plate with slight upward curve at rim to a shallow bowl with .5 to .75 inch deep curve at outer rim. It could match the tea or coffee cup and/or teapot, but may have also been designed for use in conjunction with table service, as with the pickle saucer. Charleston inventories reveal saucers in Chinese porcelain and white salt-glazed stoneware, but archaeological samples also exist in delft and fine lead-glazed earthenwares.

Slop bowls. Bowls used in conjunction with tea service. In formal tea drinking, the tea leaves and any unfinished was poured into the slop bowl before preparing a new cup, thus guaranteeing the hottest cup with the freshest taste. As tea was considered a "delicacy," perfection in its preparation was paramount. As suggested by Roth, its conspicuous consumption was also an indication of status, so adherence to a strict ritual

of preparation and service enhanced the perception of importance.

References to breakfast china and afternoon china are found in probate inventories from Charleston, and probably are used to distinguish the special use sets from the regular tea wares. Breakfast china, also referred to as a petit dejeuner service (from the French term for breakfast) or cabaret were usually smaller sets of tea wares, designed to be carried to the bedroom or breakfast room. The set included a matching pot, cup and saucers, milk pot and sugar bowl, and a tray. No specific definition of afternoon china has been located, but the term may be a counterpoint to the breakfast service, indicating the service utilized for the regular tea table.

Wine, punch and beer

The use of beer, wine, and other alcoholic drinks was part of the standard dinner fare for many Charlestonians, but these were also social drinks. This diversity in use allowed for a wide variety of fabrics which could be used in the creation of these vessels.

Mug (pint to quart size). Wine, punch and ale were popular drinks of the late 1700s. Used in both tavern and home settings, the vessel of choice was the mug, which ranged from 1 gill (.25 pint) to 2 or more quarts, was usually cylindrical in shape, with a sturdy handle (Figure 3.5). Mugs could be used by individuals or communally. In inventories and archaeological excavations, mugs appear in stoneware, earthenware and porcelain of all sorts.

Punch bowl - fluted, large, small. Because of the similarity to bowls used for other purposes, these vessels are distinguished by their location within the house and the materials from which they were constructed. Punch was traditionally served in social

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201 Reilly, Wedgwood.
settings, so these bowls were often found in porcelain, refined earthenwares and stonewares, although the occurrence of delft punch bowls is considerable prior to the last quarter of the eighteenth century. Punch vessels ranged from 1/2 pint to several gallons, depending upon whether they were for individual or community use. In household inventories, when items were enumerated by location, punch bowls were often found in the parlor or "best room," where entertaining would occur. Items associated with the punch service included ladles, small and large bowls, and in one case, a mahogany punch cover.

**Punch pot.** One final form which appears in beverage service towards the latter part of the eighteenth century is the punch pot. This form is similar to the teapot, but appears slightly more rounded in the body. The pot shown has a straighter spout than the traditional teapot forms (Figure 3.6).

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203 Nylander, *Our Own Snug Fireside*, 251-254.
Figure 3.5. Engine-turned creamware mug

Figure 3.6 Hand-painted creamware punch pot.
Miscellaneous Vessel Forms

Cooking vessels

*Petty/patty pan.* The petty pan was used in making of small cakes. It was a flat shallow pan with a turned rim. These were usually made of coarse earthenwares, which could withstand greater heat changes that the stonewares.

*Pipkin.* This three-legged cooking pot was placed on or near the fire for cooking or warming food. Pipkins can be found in coarse lead glazed earthenwares throughout the North American colonies, and have been unearthed in Charleston archaeological sites (Figure 3.7).

The *stew pot* was utilized for cooking tougher cuts of meat - similar to the crock pot of the 1990s. It was made of coarse earthenware or stoneware, and was typically rounded with a turned rim. The lid fit inside the rim and had a small loop or knob handle.
Dairying equipment

*Milk or cream pans.* These flat, round pans were used for separating the cream and milkfat from the milk. Usually found near kitchens or dairying sheds, these coarse earthenwares were mainstays in the production of butter and cheese. Dairying rooms or sheds also contained a variety of storage or transportation containers: pitchers, bowls, jars, etc.

![Figure 3.8. Milk or cream pan of lead-glazed redware.](Photo courtesy of Charleston Museum)

Ornamental wares

Despite the emphasis on the useful wares prior to the 1770s, there are occurrences of ornamental wares in some households, particularly as wall or chimney ornaments. Many of the porcelain factories were producing elaborate figures which were strictly decorative, while forms such as vases and flower pots were bridging the useful-ornamental gap. Of the forms listed in Charleston inventories, decorative *faces* (large or small wall ornaments with floral designs and stylized human faces) and *flower horns*
(Figure 3.10) appear as indications of this early trend toward decoration in the eighteenth century household.

**Hygiene/personal health**

*Barbers basons.* The barber's "bason" was used for shaving, blood letting, etc. and was once considered essential to the barber/surgeon's trade. This shallow dish with a flat rim had a curved area cut away from the outer edge which would fit against the chin for shaving or against the arm for bleeding. Found in refined earthenwares and tin-glazed wares.

*Chamber pot.* The ubiquitous chamber pot has been found in every sort of ceramics medium, most of which are represented in the probate inventory lists. This vessel is a handled, bulbous form with a sturdy flat or flared rim, usually 7-10 inches in diameter. Examples of the chamber pot have been excavated at the Judicial center site, Exchange Building, etc.

*Hand basin/hand wash basin.* The hand wash basin was a part of the personal ceramics found in colonial households or taverns. These shallow, round bowls were used to wash face and hands in private quarters such as bedrooms. They would be filled with water from a pitcher or bucket which was obtained at a well or pump. Probate inventories list hand wash basins in blue and white china, delf, and stoneware.

**Making sense of the data**

The range of vessel forms revealed in probate inventories points to the social and economic complexity of Charleston's population in the 1760s. While vessel forms were many, wares were typically lumped into the same categories discussed in previous

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205 Fournier, *Dictionary*, 30
chapters: stonewares, earthenwares, porcelain. The interplay between the ceramic form and its fabric reveals much about the perceptions of elegance and utility in the Charleston household.

The study of ceramic form and function also provides a diagnostic tool for archaeological and historical analysis of Charleston’s society in the eighteenth century. When combined with an understanding of ceramic technology, and paired with trade patterns in the south, this study can help us to understand the factors which influenced Charlestonians in their buying and selling of ceramics wares. The broader picture of imports and exports must be considered in any evaluation of material culture patterns in the American colonies.
Chapter 4

HISTORICAL AND ARCHAEOLOGICAL SOURCES

Although there are few contemporary journals or diaries which provide information about the individual tastes of Charleston residents during the 1760s, legal and commercial documents from the period enable us to view the accoutrements which furnished the Charleston household. Probate records, ship registers and newspaper advertisements from Charleston in the period 1758 to 1767 were analyzed for types of ceramics listed, usage patterns, location within the households, etc. These records, housed primarily at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History, were used to extract information about the stylistic choices of Charleston’s residents in the 1760s.

Each historical medium provided a different view of the marketing and utilization of ceramics in Charleston. Advertisements from Charleston newspapers were most helpful in identifying those merchants who dealt in the ceramics trade (Appendix B), while Charleston County will and probate records were a better source for an individual’s economic status and provided a more intimate view of how ceramics were perceived in the eighteenth-century home (Appendix A). The shipping registers provided interesting views of the types of wares which were imported from a particular port, though these records contained little detail of the types of ceramics. Together, these documents shaped a better view of the dynamics of ceramics trade throughout the 1760s.
Probate Records and Charleston Ceramics

At the outset of this project it was anticipated that Charleston probate records would reveal a regional identity – a unique pattern of ceramic types or their use which would vary from other colonial centers. Instead, information extracted from Charleston probate records only served to display the regional preferences for *probate administration* or for *appraiser bias*. In the records reviewed for this project, inventory descriptions were vague, and the sampling was not representative of the populous as a whole. Similar studies of probate records by Garry Wheeler Stone, Mary Beaudry, and other researchers discovered that probate records were only partially representative of a town or region.  

Only a percentage of colonial estates were administered by the probate court, possibly those estates which were very complex, or were contested in some way. We might project that the probate record is random enough to represent a cross-section of the population, but it appears that the inventories do not provide a definitive profile of the Charleston citizenship. For example, in the period between 1758 and 1767, roughly 790 records appear in Charleston probate inventories housed at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History; as a comparison, in 1760 alone, there were 730 deaths in Charleston from a smallpox epidemic. For that reason, statistical analysis of the Charleston probate records would serve little purpose in advancing our understanding of usage patterns. However, analysis of probate records by individual estate, without attempts to generalize the information to the greater population, may serve

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to provide a glimpse at Charleston style.

Household inventories completed by an extra-familial appraiser were the most frequent format of probate record encountered in the ten-year period surveyed. These lists contained intricate details about household and farming objects, but generally revealed very little about the ceramic styles available to consumers. For the ten-year period of records reviewed, few probate inventories provided detailed information about household ceramics. Of the 790 records included in the study, approximately one third did not list any ceramics, while another third provided the nonspecific “one lott (or “one parcel”) earthenware” as the descriptor. Based upon the accompanying cost provided in the inventory, it would appear that most ceramics did not have a high market value, and perhaps therefore did not warrant assessment by executors.

Where ceramics were enumerated in probate records, as in the case of merchants or the households of wealthier citizens, the resulting lists are extraordinary. Appendix A is a list of inventories from estates probated between 1758 and 1767, highlighting the ceramic assemblages within each list. The types of ceramics detailed in these inventories appear to be the more expensive wares, such as porcelain or white salt-glazed stonewares, rather than the lower cost coarse earthenwares. A comparison of ware types with their associated forms (Table 4.1) reveals that appraisers did include details in a few cases: blue and white china ware (36 forms), undifferentiated or white salt-glazed Stoneware (29 forms), and green lead glazed earthenwares (12 vessel forms) were the most frequently noted. Green lead-glazed earthenware was not typical of the types of wares detailed in

207 Edgar, South Carolina, 158
208 Bound copies of the WPA transcripts of probate inventories were provided by the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (SCDAH), Columbia.
### Table 4.1.
CERAMIC FORMS FOUND IN PROBATE INVENTORIES

<table>
<thead>
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<th>FORM</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Blue &amp; White china</th>
<th>Red &amp; White china</th>
<th>Enamelled china</th>
<th>Burnt China</th>
<th>Enamelled burnt china</th>
<th>Brown and red china</th>
<th>English china</th>
<th>Almoin China</th>
<th>Breakfast China</th>
<th>Bow china</th>
<th>Porcelain china</th>
<th>Stoneware</th>
<th>White stoneware</th>
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Table 4.1: Ceramic Forms Found in Probate Inventories
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<th>earthenware</th>
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</table>
inventories, so its occurrence is noteworthy. While there are many possible explanations for this appraiser bias, it seems most likely that these were the wares which would have had some economic value to the family or business associates of the deceased, and were, therefore, assessed.

Although guidelines were occasionally published which would aid the would-be appraiser in his or her task, many Charleston estates were catalogued by a locally appointed team of merchants, lawyers, planters, etc., who might be better equipped to detail the farm implements than the ceramics in the household. A myriad of terms could appear for any ceramic type listed in probate records and commercial documents. "China ware" could mean china, stoneware, earthenwares, European china, etc. Red stoneware was referred to as "red china" in many inventories. The "Prusian" mug found in Andrew Johnson’s probate inventory could refer to Meissen porcelain from Germany, to the King of Prussia tin-glazed wares from Bristol described by W.B. Honey, or to the commemorative "King of Prussia" pattern of white salt-glazed stonewares, popular after 1756 and found in archaeology at Charleston’s Exchange building. It could also indicate the King of Prussia image printed on porcelain found in Staffordshire, or the

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211 Public Records Office. Probate inventory of Andrew Johnson, April 1764. Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Inventories of Estates (WPA transcripts) 1692-1779. Charleston County. On file at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.
213 Herold, Exchange Building, 89.
white salt-glazed stoneware mug in the collection of Lady Charlotte Schreiber, sporting
d four verses denoting the contribution of Frederick the Great to the Seven Years War.

The descriptions of ceramic types, including porcelains, are an amalgamation of
terms from art historical, archaeological, and documentary sources. Table 4.2 lists some
of the other terminology found in Charleston inventories. In this confusion of terms, it is
no wonder that appraisers occasionally put "one lott earthenware" and left it at that.

**Table 4.2.**
**Terminology Found in Charleston Probate Inventories 1758-1767.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term used in probate</th>
<th>Possible ceramic types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yellowware</td>
<td>creamware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>combed and dotted slip ware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>North Devon sgraffito wear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>slip glazed coarse redware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Earthenware</strong></td>
<td>creamware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>delf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>coarse earthenwares</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elers wares</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jackfield</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Buckley</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>molded wares</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>crockery</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Whieldon wares</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stone</td>
<td>white salt glazed</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scratch blue</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Nottingham</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bellarmine</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>British brown stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>butterpots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fulham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese stoneware</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Westerwald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>American grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>china</td>
<td>Queensware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elers stoneware (red china)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese blue and white</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>creamware</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English/European porcelain</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>enameled or burnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>penciled Chinese porcelain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Many of the Charleston inventories represent the upper middle to high end of the economic continuum, and subsequently the higher end of the ceramics market as well. Some Charleston town estates were listed at over £47,000216 (roughly $4 million in 1996 money). Probate inventories that included shops or plantations could be higher. At the opposite end of the spectrum are the hundreds of households who had inventories with no earthenware listed, or who relied heavily upon the coarser earthenwares, wood and tin for their daily table and kitchenwares.

While probate evidence, shipping data,217 and contemporary accounts indicate that many middle to lower class families were using pewter, wood, or coarse earthenwares rather than the more costly porcelains and fine earthenware, the archaeological record is relatively silent with regard to these alternative materials. It should be noted, however, that the apparent lack of archaeological evidence for pewter and wood does not preclude their use in eighteenth-century households, as Ann Smart Martin notes in her comparison of probate and archaeological records at Williamsburg.218

The lower cost and versatility of coarse earthenwares predict their use in a broader range of households than the finer ceramic wares, as evidenced in probate studies completed in eighteenth-century households throughout the colonies. In a comprehensive study of eighteenth-century probate documents from Massachusetts and Connecticut,


217 Inbound shipping logs from Charleston reveal wooden wares being shipped from Rhode Island and New York to Charleston. Public Records Office. Shipping logs, quarter ending 10 October 1760. Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Ships registers, County of Charleston, 1734-1780. On file at SC Department of Archives and History.

218 Ann Smart Martin, "The Role of Pewter as Missing Artifact: Consumer Attitudes Toward Tablewares in Late 18th Century Virginia," in George Miller et al., Approaches to Material Culture
Gloria Main determined that approximately 70% of the probated New England families surveyed were able to purchase coarse earthenwares, while only 14% could afford the fine earthenwares. Initial evaluation of Charleston probate lists presented an economic portrait similar to Main’s probate data. Approximately 70% of the probate inventories reviewed included ceramics, primarily the ubiquitous “earthenware,” with less than half of those containing details about the type of ceramics. If one assumed that a lack of fine earthenwares in probate could be associated with the implied use of coarser earthenwares, then consumer behavior in the Low Country would mimic that of the New England area, except that the percentage of probated individuals who could afford the finer earthenwares appeared to be higher as a whole for the Charleston population. The association of finer wares with larger estates (those that totaled more than £2000 [$16,000]) was consistent throughout the inventory data.

The Archaeological Record

While probate data reveals some information about personal choice in household ceramics, archaeological data from Charleston provides a more complete picture of the ceramics trade in the mid-eighteenth-century. We know from comparative studies that archaeology has been completed on relatively few contemporary eighteenth-century Charleston sites, reducing the database from which to draw any information. Archaeologists continue to examine an economic cross-section of eighteenth-century Charleston, but much remains to be studied. The data which is available can provide

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Research for Historical Archaeologists, Society for Historical Archaeology, c1991.

some answers to the questions of class and society in Charleston; but further research is needed to determine economic status and/or activity within a given site or neighborhood.  

A number of sites have been utilized in this report to compare the details from the documentary evidence with archaeological finds. Most of these sites have ceramics assemblages which extend before and after the 10 year focus of the study. However, by identifying those ceramic types which were found in proveniences which dated to the pre-Revolutionary period, the data is still quite useful in providing information about the types and usage of ceramics in the subject period (Table 4.3). The sites used in this study were selected for the accessibility of the ceramics data, and are by no means considered a representative sample of Charleston sites, nor are they meant to define the limits of imported wares in the 1760 Charleston ceramics market. Information on these sites has been published except as noted. Site reports are on file at the State Archaeological Site Files Office at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology in Columbia, South Carolina.

## Table 4.3
Ceramics from Charleston Archaeological Investigations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ware Type</th>
<th>Meeting Street</th>
<th>Exchange Buildings</th>
<th>Judicial Center</th>
<th>Canton Village</th>
<th>Wappoo Plantation</th>
<th>Unity Alley</th>
<th>Lodge Alley</th>
<th>Drayton Hall</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undecorated porcelain</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Blue &amp; White china</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>Enamelled china</td>
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<td>Prussian china*</td>
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<td>1700-1775</td>
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<tr>
<td>British brown stoneware</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>Bellarmine Deteriorated</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scratch blue</td>
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<td>Grey stoneware</td>
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<td>Ralph Shaw</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>1675-1775</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lead glazed earthenware</td>
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<td>1680-1720</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slipware</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whielden wares</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>1759-1775</td>
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<tr>
<td>Molded wares</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>1759-1775</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>1759-1775</td>
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<td>Colonoware</td>
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<td>Indian</td>
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<td></td>
<td>x</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unglazed redware</td>
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<td>x</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* List of ware types is taken from published archaeological reports and is by no means complete.
Charleston Archaeology

_The Exchange Building_ (Broad and East Bay Streets, Charleston). This was a building utilized for commercial and meeting purposes in the last quarter of the eighteenth-century. It was built between 1767-1771, and was included because of the date range of ceramics which were found in archaeological excavations, revealing some information about the site prior to the construction of the Exchange.  

_Lodge Alley/38 State Street._ This site contains archaeological remains of a mid-eighteenth-century house on State Street and an adjoining alley. State street was located in the commercial district of Charleston near the wharf, and was home to merchants, craftsmen, and the like. The alley was also home to those for whom the wharf provided an occupation, as well as some members of lower economic status, including teachers, seamstresses, etc.

_Charleston Meat Market_ (Broad and Meeting Streets, Charleston). This market and exchange was established in the trade district in the early eighteenth century. The archaeological remains from the market are split into three chronological sections, two of

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222 Martha A Zierden, Jeanne A. Calhoun and Elizabeth Paysinger. _Archaeological Excavations at Lodge Alley, Charleston, South Carolina_ (Charleston: The Charleston Museum, 1983).

103
which are included herein. The Early Market period ran from 1730 to 1760, followed by
the Later Market, which included the period from 1760 to 1796. 223

Unity Alley (off East Bay Street, Charleston). The area immediately surrounding
this site on East Bay Street was part of the commercial core of the Charleston during the
middle of the eighteenth-century. 224 Part of a land grant in 1698, this land was kept for
speculative use until 1723, when it was developed into tenement structures. It remained
occupied by a series of tenants throughout the next 40 years. The site includes three
distinct periods, but only ceramics from the Colonial period have been included here.

The John Bartlam pottery site (Cainhoy, South Carolina). This archaeological
site, located nine miles north of Charleston, was the possible site of potter John Bartlam’s
workshop or pottery during the period from 1763 to 1769. 225 Before Bartlam’s arrival,
Cainhoy was known for its brickworks, and was advertised as an ideal location for setting
up a kiln due to the excellent clay and availability of wood for fires. 226 Excavations from
this site completed by Dr. Stanley South in 1992 and 1993 revealed over 100 individual
types of ceramics, many of which are not seen in England or continental Europe. 227 The
range of wares, as well as the possible impact on the Charleston ceramics record, make it
a logical addition to this report.

223 Jeanne Calhoun, Elizabeth Reitz, Michael Trinkley and Martha Zierden. Meat in Due Season:

224 Martha Zierden, et al., Archaeological Excavations at McCrady’s Longroom (Charleston: The


227 A complete discussion of South’s findings is in Stanley South, The search for John Bartlam at
Cain Hoy: America’s first creamware potter.
**Judicial Center site** (Broad Street, Charleston). The excavation of the Judicial Center site, sponsored by Charleston County, is an excellent example of the type of urban archaeology which continues to occur in Charleston today. Research indicates that in addition to public buildings this site included residential plots as well, resulting in a unique blend of artifacts from the site. Though analysis of the ceramics from this site has not been competed, an initial survey reveals an assemblage which includes ceramics seen in other mid-eighteenth-century Charleston sites.

**Wappoo Plantation** (Stono River, Charleston County). The site of the Lucas family plantation in the second half of the eighteenth century. Indigo was developed here by daughter Eliza, and eventually became Charleston’s second largest export crop in the eighteenth century. The plantation was rented after Eliza’s marriage to Charles Pinckney, although the Lucas family retained rights to the indigo crop and its proceeds.

**Drayton Hall.** (West of Charleston, on the Ashley River). Built 1738-1742 by John Drayton, at its peak this plantation incorporated 600 acres, including indigo and rice fields, formal gardens, and a greenhouse.

**Style versus Status**

Ceramics from archaeological excavations can tell us a great deal about the occupants of a site. Archaeologists use ceramics to date sites based upon the known manufacture dates of certain wares. Likewise, ceramics are excellent indicators of status. Researchers have compared the cost of ceramic types (based upon day books and probate

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228 Analysis of ceramic artifacts from the Judicial Center site is being completed by New South Associates. Excavations at the Judicial Center are part of ongoing archaeological research on the Judicial Center construction being sponsored by Charleston County and conducted by New South Associates, Stone Mountain, Georgia.

229 Pinckney, *Letterbook*, x,xi.
records) with assemblages from sites of a known socio-economic status, and have
developed several theories about their correlation. Higher cost wares, such as porcelain
or white salt-glazed stonewares appear on sites of higher socio-economic status, but less
frequently on middle to low class sites. At Drayton Hall, Chinese porcelain exists
almost to the exclusion of white salt-glazed stoneware in the archaeological context – a
phenomenon which is unusual for sites of this period.

Within the 1760s, certain ware types occur more frequently in early sites than in
later. In sites occupied before 1760, white salt-glazed stonewares and combed and dotted
yellow slip-decorated wares appear to be the most widely used tea and tablewares.230
Earlier sites (Lodge Alley and Unity Alley231) also tend to have higher incidence of
utilitarian slip decorated wares, coarse earthenwares and delft than the later occupations.
By the late 1760s, sites contain less delftware and slipware types, and higher numbers of
cream-colored earthenwares, which dominate the market until the 1780s. Chinese
porcelain is a continuous presence in the ceramic record throughout the colonial period,
though forms and designs do change over the course of time.

Some ceramic types are unique to an individual site. The ceramics assemblage at
Cainhoy has a higher percentage of brightly colored cream-colored wares (tortoiseshell,
pineapple, melon, and cauliflower) than any other site. Further research reveals that these
wares could have been produced at Cainhoy, and that the percentages of these wares, as
well as the total sherd counts (>61% or 4288 sherds), surpass any other Charleston site.

230 Zierden, Lodge Alley.
231 Zierden, McGrady’s Longroom and Lodge Alley.
The Cainhoy site collection is being prepared for further analysis, and will be published in a separate manuscript.232

The information provided by the archaeological reports included herein confirmed that Charleston was importing a broad range of ceramics in the mid-eighteenth-century, and was utilizing them in ways which reflect socio-economic trends throughout England and the colonies. Wealthier homes were using more refined earthenwares and porcelain, while lower class sites appear to be less able to purchase the fine ceramics in large quantities. The existence of coarse earthenwares on the majority of Charleston sites points to its usefulness and its versatility in the home.

If we compare the archaeological data with the information provided by the probate record, we see patterns of consumption and usage which emerge. We can use this synthesis of art historical, archaeological and historical information to improve our understanding of those which would not have been available only in the colonial probate records. The daily use of ceramics becomes a type of social identifier with which Charlestonians can establish their place in the socio-economic hierarchy. It is this fusion of archaeology and history which will reveal the broader scope of eighteenth-century material culture.

232 Analysis of the Cainhoy site collection continues as the record of Charleston imports becomes clearer. Dr. Stanley South reached preliminary conclusions about the wares being produced by John Bartlam in his volume on Cainhoy, but continues to refine his study, and will present an updates volume in the near future.
Chapter 5

CONCLUSIONS

A center for style, a crossroads of commerce: this was Charleston’s role in the 1760s. These aspects of Charleston’s character were critical in determining the types of ceramics that would be found in the merchant district, on kitchen tables, or in the beaufats of dining rooms and parlors. Upon reviewing the research herein, one can recognize several factors which influenced the distribution of ceramics in Charleston during the 1760s.

An introduction of mass production techniques in the European pottery industry led to an increase in the complexity of the Charleston ceramics market. By 1760, potteries were no longer considered a cottage industry. Josiah Wedgwood and his peers were streamlining production, and had begun lobbying for better transportation for their wares between Staffordshire and the major ports. As a result, lag time between introduction of a ware in England and its documented sale in the colonies reduced significantly, and the availability of goods improved.

The predominance of plantations in Charleston’s economy also affected the ceramics market, not only influencing the type and number of wares imported, but also the way in which they were used. Merchants worked hard to develop a diverse ceramic

trade to meet the demands of an ever-powerful planter class. As rice and indigo exports found their way to Europe, porcelain, stoneware, and refined earthenwares were shipped into Charleston harbor for resale. The plantation culture may have participated in the realignment of ceramic usage patterns by introducing a higher percentage of colono wares into the formula. Native American and/or slave potters constructed pots from local clays which resembled traditional wares from both cultures. This locally-made pottery reduced the need for imported coarse redwares, possibly shifting the trade balance toward more expensive ceramics. At the same time, the discovery of European ceramic wares in the archaeological remains of Low Country slave cabins introduces the possibility that slaves were utilizing European wares in ways that reflected African or Native American foodways rather than European ones.

A final contributor to Charleston’s ceramic style may have been the relationship between the planters of the Low Country and their counterparts in the West Indies. A high percentage of green and gold wares (tortoiseshell-glazed, molded pineapple, or molded cauliflower wares) appear in Charleston archaeological collections, particularly at the Cainhoy site. Historical records indicate that Wedgwood was shipping these wares to the “hot climates” (the West Indies) after their popularity had decreased in England.

Figure 5.1. Imported ceramics

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234 Percentages are calculated from available data on the Bartlam collection (38BU1349 and 1349A), housed at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, Columbia, SC.
With the strong trade connections to the island colonies, the green and gold ceramics may have been shipped into Charleston, thus increasing the possibility of finding these wares in southern homes. Archaeologically these wares do appear more frequently in the south than at northern sites. At the Cainhoy archaeological site, however, the percentage of these type wares is significantly higher than other Charleston excavations, indicating a phenomenon unique to the site. The hypothesis that potter John Bartlam was creating these green and gold wares at Cainhoy may be strengthened with this data, and should be further researched to validate the statistical significance of these findings.

A final comment should be made about the research methodology used in this thesis. The original research design predicted that shipping records would contain information which would allow a definitive link between trade and ceramics style. Unfortunately, the complexity of Charleston’s market, and the lack of detailed ceramic information in those records prevented such a causal link from being developed. However, the available shipping lists did provide an excellent source of information on the quantity and type of goods being shipped through Charleston, from which inferences can be made about other aspects of Charleston’s foodways. Additionally, the shipping lists include information on the owners of ships and their home ports, which has allowed us to discover where ceramics were being loaded onto the ships, thus adding another facet to our appreciation of the economics of the pottery industry in England and the colonies.

Other historical documents were equally important in the understanding of Charleston’s ceramic market. Inventories collected through the probate system included details about the use of ceramics within the household, including the forms being used,
their location within the household, and their relative cost. Similarly, newspaper advertisements were helpful in the search for trade venues, seasonal shipping patterns, and the diversity of finished goods being imported to Charleston.

Finally, archaeological site information gave us insight into personal style, although in many cases, the information on forms was often incomplete unless whole vessels or dinner sets were excavated at one time. The typical privy or well collection included lots of small pieces of many different types of wares, with the occasional whole mug or chipped chamber pot to divert the archaeologist. Although a complete image of Charleston’s ceramic personality is difficult to recreate with just one of these historical sources, multi-disciplinary study reveals a dynamic socio-economic system which heavily influenced ceramic choices in the 1760s.

Further research needs to be done on other periods of Charleston’s history in order to understand the growth and diversity of material culture in the South. Likewise, a comparative study of Charleston’s ceramic with those of other colonial centers may define trade patterns which are invisible within the distribution from a single settlement. A similar look at Carolina frontier settlements will reveal the personal choices which were being made on a daily basis, and may provide further insight into the social and economic influences which directed colonial life.

Finally, the archaeological collections from Cainhoy, as well as the composite collections throughout Charleston, may offer new information about the role of local potters in Charleston’s ceramics trade: the use of colonoware in urban settings; the influence of a local potter such as John Bartlam on the local economy; the existence of
other potters who created ceramics locally, but whose names have faded between the lines of history.

The importance of ceramic data lies in the role that it has played—and continues to play—in our daily lives. As we help our grandmother place her favorite dishes back in the china cupboard, or as we watch a child learn how to make a bowl from clay, we are helping to create tomorrow’s traditions. As we express our personal taste for one pattern over another, and as we special order those pieces which broke at the last dinner party, we mirror the types of choices that were being made in the South Carolina Low Country over two hundred years ago. Thus, we are exhibiting our own ceramic style for future historians to consider.


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Honey, William Bowyer. *European Ceramic Art From the End of the Middle Ages to About 1815.* London: Faber and Faber Ltd., 1952.


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Public Records Office. Secretary of State, Recorded Instruments, Ships registers, County of Charleston, 1734-1780. On file at the SC Department of Archives and History, Columbia, S.C.


———. *Archaeology at Santa Elena: Doorway to the Past*. Columbia: South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, [1992].


### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mathew, John 3/10/60</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 doz of stone plates &amp; 12 dishes</td>
<td>9.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Lott of China Bowls Cups &amp; Saucers</td>
<td>7.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 set of silver castors compleat</td>
<td>120.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 coffe pott silver</td>
<td>90.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 do tankard £90 2 do muggs 60</td>
<td>110.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 silver sauce boat £30 1 pap boat £5 1 punch ladle 7</td>
<td>42.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 do table spoons, &amp; 1 soup spoon</td>
<td>80.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 waiter silver</td>
<td>15.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 silver Tea spoons 1 pr tongs 2 strainers</td>
<td>20.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 stone juggs £6-10&quot; 10 doz of bottles £5</td>
<td>11.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 stone jars £3 1 small case £1 1 Caedar Table £3</td>
<td>17.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pewter turin &amp; six water plates</td>
<td>1.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 pewter dishes 3 1/2 dozen do plates</td>
<td>22.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steel, Dr. Jas 4/19/60</td>
<td>6.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 enamled China plates 5 stone do</td>
<td>6.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 earthen do 3 earthen Bowls 15/ 5 China bowls 45/</td>
<td>3.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 burnt china cups &amp; sawsers 45/ 1 Doz: Blue and white do £2.10</td>
<td>4.15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 coffey cups &amp; sawsers 2 milk pots 25/</td>
<td>1.5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 tea pots &amp; coffey do 55/ 1 spoon boat 2 pickle do 7/6</td>
<td>3.2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[32 pewter plates 6 dishes 17 knives &amp; forks]</td>
<td>16.5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
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</thead>
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<td>Willett, Samuel</td>
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<td>6 burnt china cups and saucers</td>
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<td>1637.17.0</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 do do do 1 large china bowl</td>
<td>3.5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 delph bowls</td>
<td>1.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 china milk pots 4 delph tea pots</td>
<td>10/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a small quantity of earthenware of diff sorts</td>
<td>1.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pimento, Moses</td>
<td>7/4/64</td>
<td>A parcel yello ware plates and dishes &amp;c</td>
<td>10.0.0</td>
<td>2380.19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2-3 pt and 1 doz quart blue bowles @3/6 ea</td>
<td>2.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 stone butter boats 5/6 stone sugar pots</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13 quart do 16 pint do &amp; 1 jugg</td>
<td>4.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-1/2 pr stone salts 8/9</td>
<td>8/9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 mustard potts 1/3</td>
<td>1/3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 blue stone chamber potts 30/</td>
<td>30/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 white do 30/</td>
<td>30/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>18 stone tea potts 25/</td>
<td>25/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 stone milk potts 5/</td>
<td>5/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12 blue and white dishes 90/</td>
<td>90/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 stone dishes 20/</td>
<td>20/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 white wash hand basons 15/</td>
<td>15/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 doz stone soop plates 30/</td>
<td>30/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1-1/2 doz blue do 12/6</td>
<td>12/6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 doz blue flat plates 30/</td>
<td>30/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SHOP GOODS</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8-1/2doz stone cups and saucers, 5 flower horns, 5 small bottles</td>
<td>2.16.10-1/2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 doz stone tea potts</td>
<td>5.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 doz milk potts 50/</td>
<td>50/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 sugar dishes 30/</td>
<td>30/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 butter boats 10/</td>
<td>10/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 bowls 60/</td>
<td>60/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 hand basins 10/</td>
<td>10/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59 plates 50/</td>
<td>50/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 earthen pans, 1 dutch oven, 13 cruets and 3 doz stone mugs</td>
<td>3.2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39 stone jugs 19&quot;10</td>
<td>19&quot;10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 chamber potts</td>
<td>8.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 stone jarrs</td>
<td>4.17.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOUSE AND KITCHEN</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70 china cups and saucers</td>
<td>8.12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 burnt &amp; 2 English china bowls</td>
<td>9.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 burnt China Plates and Dishes</td>
<td>4.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Parcel of Glass Stone &amp; Earthenware with some China in C. Cupboard</td>
<td>5.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[18 pewter plates, 6 dishes, 1 cover 8.0.0]</td>
<td>8.0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Appendix A
Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
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<tr>
<td>sundry china ware</td>
<td>35.12.1</td>
<td>32789.9.675</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sundry stoneware</td>
<td>5.2.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pint measures and 2 tea potts</td>
<td>1.2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 doz chamber potts &amp; 12 water jugs</td>
<td>1.16.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 oil kettles 3/ 12 fish plates 10/</td>
<td>13/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 coffee mills, 8 tea kettles</td>
<td>6.9.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 coffee potts 29/ 6 sauce pans 17-1/3</td>
<td>2.6.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 chaffing dishes 13/2</td>
<td>13/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 compleat setts of tea china</td>
<td>10.4.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 painted tea cannisters</td>
<td>17/6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sundry stone ware</td>
<td>11.16.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 coffee pots</td>
<td>29/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[14 windsor chairs 7/6 = 5.5.0]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 earthen butter potts</td>
<td>1.17.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[12 doz wooden bowls and platters 15.0.0]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 closet of china and glass ware</td>
<td>8.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Do of stoneware</td>
<td>5.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 beaufet of chinaware</td>
<td>70.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cup board of china and glass ware</td>
<td>20.0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 coffee pot and 2 chased waiters [silver]</td>
<td>116.5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flower potts (?? cost)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/4 of ship Little Carpenter, 1/3 of ship Kendall</td>
<td></td>
<td>+2408.6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of debts owed to estate</td>
<td>23994.15.95</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix A
Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767

Guerard, John

5/30/64

Compleat set of China viz 10 flat blue & White Dishes, 2 soup Do, 1 Pr sallad ditto, 2 doz Flat Plates & 2 doz Soup ditto

1 dozn Red and White shallow plates
14 Old Plates 3 Soup ditto & 4 old dishes
1 Pr Octagon plates
2 Red and White small dishes
1 Compleat set of red and white table china
6 small blue and white Tea Cups & Saucers, 9 large ditto & 1 Blue & White Milk pot
6 Blue and White small butter dishes
9 Blue & White Coffee cups
1 Mug
2 Large blue & white Punch Bowls with 4 smaller ditto
1 Large Red & White ditto & 1 Blue & White fluted ditto
6 Blue & White slop bowls & 2 Red & White ditto Bow China

Stone Ware
3 dozn shallow plated, 1 doz Small Ditto & 9 soup ditto
2 Oval Dishes 1 Soup ditto & 2 fruit Do
6-1/2 Pint bowls, 1 Dozn Delph Ware wash hand basons & 7 Pint Bowls
2 Baking pans
2 three gallon juggs, 2 large blue & white ditto & 1 small ditto

2 half pint pipkins & 1 stewing pan
6 Tea Potts

large estate
(merchant)

30.0.0
6.0.0
9.0.0
1.10.0
1.5.0
20.0.0
4.0.0
1.10.0
1.5.0
20.0.0
4.0.0
12/6
8.10.0
3.0.0
3.5.0

4.5.0
2.15.0
2.3.9
2.5.0
10/
1.0.0
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34 Delf bowls &amp; 33 Delf plates</td>
<td>11115/64</td>
<td>5.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Black and Enam'd Tea Potts</td>
<td>34 Delfbowls &amp; 33 Delfplates</td>
<td>1.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 doz Quart Stone Muggs No 1, 2 doz &amp; 7 ditto No 2</td>
<td>21 Black and Enam'd Tea Potts</td>
<td>7.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 doz &amp; 9 pint ditto No 4</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 doz white Stone Cups and Saucers</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-1/2 doz milk potts &amp; 1/2 doz mustard potts</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Flower horns &amp; 11 Sugar dishes</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Butter boats &amp; 5 pr Salts</td>
<td></td>
<td>10/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Large Tureen</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz Stone plates &amp; 8 Stone fruit dishes</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz pint Stone muggs &amp; 3 Chamber pots, 5 Wash hand basons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Green fruit dishes &amp; Stands 2 ditto tea potts &amp; 2 Milk potts 1 Butter tub &amp; stand &amp; 1 Sugar dish 5 fruit dishes</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 doz Stone cups &amp; Saucers 2 Doz Blue &amp; White ditto 1-1/4 doz Stone Coffee Cups 2 painted glass flower pots, 16 Common wine Glasses</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz small green plates, 1 Doz larger, 2 large Oval Dishes 4 smaller ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td>[no price]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 smaller ditto 6 Large pickle leaves</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Smaller ditto 4 Small pickle leaves</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Doz large Tortoiseshell plates, 1/2 doz smaller ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Doz Blue Dutch plates, 1 doz Breakfast ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Coleflower tub &amp; stand, 1 pineapple ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 coleflower Sugar dish and milk pott, 1 Tea pott &amp; milk pott</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Tortoiseshell Tea pott 2 sugar boxes 3 milk potts &amp; 3 slop bowles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

Wilson, William (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 enameled Tea potts 3 sugar dishes &amp; 2 milk potts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Doz Black Gilt [teapots]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Pr large faces &amp; 2 pr smaller ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Barbers basons 3 bottles and stands</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 large oval dishes 3 smaller ditto 4 round ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz Stone plates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Large Black Gilt Tea Pots 6 small do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 white stone butter boats</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Tortoiseshell ditto 3 ditto Tea potts 3 ditto Ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 do Barl pint mugs &amp; 1 smaller ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Black half pint ditto 1 Blk Bbl Quart mugg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz Notingham Quart mugs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 doz white Quart ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz Dutch pint ditto</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz Notingham pt do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1/2 doz white Stone pint Do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz 3 pt Bowles 1/2 Doz Gain Do, 1 Doz quit do</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 doz patty pans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[no price]
Appendix A
Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767

Johnston, Andrew  ca April 1764

One set enameled china viz One Tureen, Twelve Soop & twelve flat Plates and six d Dishes  25.0.0
Sixteen China, Desert Pieces  8.0.0
Half a dozen large Breakfast Cups, half dozen Small Cups and half a dozen Coffee Cups and Saucers  7.0.0
One pair blue China Muggs  5.0.0
Two large Enameled burnt China bowls and one smaller ditto  7.0.0
Two Prusian China Mugs  2.0.0
Three Small blue and white bowls and Sugar dish  1.10.0
Two large Salad Dishes one broke  3.0.0
One Fish Dish one pair smaller  8.0.0
One China Soop Dish & one Dozen Plates  3.0.0
Eight China petty pans, Eight old soop plates  1.10.0
one pair China Salts & one pair CHina butter boats  1.0.0
Two China butter plates, & three Tea Potts  1.0.0
Two dozen white stone plates & three dishes & one stone mustard pott  1.10.0
[Twelve goof sticks and balls]  3.0.0
Six Pewter Water plates & 2 dishes  10.0.0
Two dozen plates and six dishes  7.0.0
One pewter tankard half Gallon Pott & Tin Funnell  1.10.0
[Books....Peregrine Pickle 4 Volls]  2.0.0
One Oyl cloth  4.0.0
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value 1</th>
<th>Value 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3/26/64</td>
<td>lott of earthenware</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3767.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 box and a parcell of crockery ware phials and earthen</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 dishes &amp; 7 plates</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 lot juggs &amp; jarrs</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A set china ware</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>some brown china</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 punch bowls 12/6</td>
<td>12/6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 tea pots 1 milk pot 7/6</td>
<td>7/6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/17/64</td>
<td>[1 cypress beaufet ]</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>{large estate}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1/2 doz Burnt China plates</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1/2 doz blue &amp; white &amp; 2 dishes</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bowles tea cups and saucers</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>stone mug earthen porringer earthen cake dishes &amp; pewter tankard</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp; 1 stone mug</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[1 flowered jepand sugar box</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 white mug</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 coffee pott</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 milk pan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[large estate]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

{large estate}
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lloyd, Mary</td>
<td>3/5/64</td>
<td>5 old china bowls</td>
<td>2.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 coffee, 1 tea cup and saucers</td>
<td>1.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 China &amp; delph plates, 2 black tea pots, 1 butter pot &amp; 1 sugar pot</td>
<td>1.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19 China plates, 1 coffee pot stand</td>
<td>6.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 stone dishes, 2 fuit plates &amp; 2 stone flower pots 30/ 1 stew pan 6/</td>
<td>4.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eddings, William</td>
<td>ca Nov 1766</td>
<td>A Lot Delph Ware  1 Do Enameled China Plates</td>
<td>10.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Large China Bowl, 1/2 do fluted enameled China cups and Saucers</td>
<td>8.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1/2 Doz Afternoon cups &amp; saucers, 1/2 doz do</td>
<td>4.15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Do China sups &amp; Saucers, 1/2 do 1/2 pint bowls</td>
<td>6.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 Glass &amp; 3 China Bowls, 11 China Coffee Cups</td>
<td>7.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Pr Glass Candlesticks, 1/2 Do China soop plates and 4 shallow Do</td>
<td>3.15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1/2 Do China breakfast China cups sawcers and Sugar dish</td>
<td>3.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A lot black stone ware 40/ 10 China cups and Saucers (bro. and red) 40/</td>
<td>4.5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 China mugs 30/  a Lot China &amp; Glass bowls  40/</td>
<td>3.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Large Delf Bowl 15/</td>
<td>15/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A Lot Green Stone Ware</td>
<td>45/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A Lot White Stone Ware</td>
<td>80/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22 white Stone plates 25/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cordes, Henrietta Catherine</th>
<th>1/10/65</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 doz enam'ld China plates</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 pr China dishes 17 China plates 17 do cups &amp; saucers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Old china cups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 cruits 2 salts Mustard Pot</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 pr decanters 6 China &amp;c bowls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 silver cauldle cups wt 72 oz</td>
<td></td>
<td>198.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 coffee pot 2 pepper boxes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>173.5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 Tea Pott 2 salvers 1 milk pott</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 doz plates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15 old do</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 coffee pot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 tea potts 12/6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 butter cups &amp; 2 sugar pots @ 2/6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 chamber pots 65/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

13178.10.4
Appendix A
Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767

Verdier, Andrew  c 1766

2 Large white Stone Dishes  3.0.0
3 White Stone Fish Dishes  1.10.0
2 white wash hand basons  10/
4 Green Fish Dishes, different sizes  2.0.0
1 White stone pitcher  7/6
A Small parcel Yellow ware  1.0.0
11 White plates & 1 dish  1.0.0
1 blue and white china bowl (Crack’d)  1.10.0
1 - 3 pint enameled ditto  2.0.0
2 small Enameled China Bowls  15/
1 set Blue and White Chine Cups & Saucers  1.15.0
8 old cups and saucers  10/
1 Green Salad Bowl and Dish  1.10.0
2 small Green Fish Dishes & 1 Doz do Plates  1.15.0
4 Blue and White Plates & 2 Dishes  10/
1 Colavour'd Coffee Potts  7/6
2 English China butter boats  5/
### Appendix A

**Excerpts from Probate Inventories 1759 to 1767**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Items and Descriptions</th>
<th>Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pepper, Gilbert</td>
<td>12/19/66</td>
<td>1 bauffet and china, 27 stone plates, 2 flower pots, 2 dishes and 12 plates, 6 milk pans and 3 yellow do, 12 stone jugs</td>
<td>8859.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fenden, Martha</td>
<td>2/16/67</td>
<td>8 English milk pans 10/, a lot delph ware 12/6, Lott yellow pans 20/, Lott China cups and saucers, milk pott, sugar dish, etc.</td>
<td>1913.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutarque, John (CAPT)</td>
<td>1/15/67</td>
<td>3 china bowls 30/, tea cups and saucers 12/6, 6 milk pans and wash bason 20/, 15 china plates 50/, 30 stone plates 2 dishes and a tureen, tea pot, water pots, wash bason, pickle leaves, milk pot, tin pan and bowl 1.10.0</td>
<td>8854.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathews, John</td>
<td>2/19/67</td>
<td>1 doz enameld china plates, 1 blue and white china soop dish and tea plates, 1 pair burnt china dishes, 6 pencild china dishes, lot of china and glass, 5 stone dishes and 8 plates</td>
<td>3404.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

ADVERTISING THE TRADE

JUST IMPORTED in the Lamb, Capt. Price, from Bristol,
yellow ware in crates
SAMUEL CARNE
The South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, 3 to 7 May, 1754.

CROFT & DART
Have just imported, in the Joseph, Capt. Seager, from Bristol and will sell cheap
shallow and soup white stone mosaic plates and dishes - fruit baskets - green mellons and leaves
- neat stone faces and horns for flowers - blue and white water juggs...
South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, 29 Aug 1763, 3-2.

Imported in the Friendship Captain Ball, from London and to be sold by
Hetherington and Hynock at their store upon the Bay-
"china and china images"
South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, 27 Aug 1763, 2-1.

FIFTY Crates of YELLOW WARE to be sold cheap,
by the subscriber, at his store in Elliot Street
Dec. 1st, 1764  John Vaux
South Carolina Gazette, Charleston, 10 Dec 1764, Suppl. 2-3.

SAMUEL WISE
Has just imported in the Baltick Merchant, Capt. Clarkson,
delph, white stone, and blue and white stone chamberpots, white stone plates, dishes, bowls, and
tureens, pine apple, collyflower and tortoise shell tea pots, coffee pots,
milk pots, sugar dishes, flower horns, and pickle leaves, flower pots, milk pans,
crates of earthenware, stone jugs.....

Imported in the Brigantine Polly, Thomas Dean, Master, from SALEM,
and to be sold on Col. Beale’s Wharf, GOOD old Barbados Rum and Sugar, New England Rum,
Molasses, Iron Pots of sundry sorts, Wood Axes, half Bushels, Chairs,
Water Buckets, Sugar Boxes, Desks and Tables, Onions in Bunches, Potatoes,
Cyder, Salt Fish, Earthen and Tin Ware,
Just imported in the ship LIBERTY, ROBERT LIVINGSTON, Master, from LIVERPOOL [sic]
ABOUT Three Thousand Bushels of fine Stove dried Salt--Coals--Empty Bottles--Bottles Beer--A few Crates of Yellow Ware, black ware, and Porto-Bello Ware, Cheshire and double Gloucester Cheese--Potatoes, &c.
The above goods will be sold remarkably low by the Quantity or Package, by NOWELL & LORD

JAMES McCALL
Has just imported in the ship LLOYD, Capt. POCOCK, from BRISTOL:
A VERY VALUABLE and COMPLEAT CARGO OF GOODS:
...[textiles, foods, hardware, and]...large red hearth tiles, red unglazed China tea and coffee pots; brown bowls, compleat sets of pencil work;...

TO BE SOLD...a CONSIGNMENT,
A LARGE QUANTITY of blue and white CHINA DISHES AND PLATES, ENAMELED PLATES, blue and white ENAMELED, and burnt in Setts TEACHINA, blue and white and ENAMELED Pint and Half Pint BOWLS, with sundry other CHINA WARE
Oats and Russell

WILLIAM GLEN, AND SON
Have imported...from London...AMONGST WHICH ARE
An assortment of GLASS WARE, CRATES OF STONE AND CLOUDY WARE, STONE JUGS....