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Strawberry Ferry (38K1723) and Childsbury Towne (38K1750): A Socio-Economic Enterprise on the Western Branch of the Cooper River, St. John's Parish, Berkeley County, South Carolina

William B. Barr

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Description

Frontier expansion in British colonial South Carolina was predicated upon the exploitation of diverse indigenous economic resources and staple crop production. The successful exportation of these inland commodities to world markets depended upon . access to a reliable bulk transportation system of interior rivers and roads. Commercial centers, in the form of centrally located settlements, were established for the transshipment of these products and the importation of finished goods. Socially, these settlements provided many needs for an area's population. Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne - - constructed, established, and supported by elite residents along the western branch of the Cooper River - - were designed to take advantage of socioeconomic opportunities vested in the control of two major arteries of trade and commerce along the Carolina frontier.

Keywords

Strawberry Ferry, Childsbury Towne, Berkeley County, Cooper River, South Carolina, Archeology

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STRAWBERRY FERRY (38BK1723) AND CHILDSBURY TOWNE (38BK1750): A SOCIO-ECONOMIC ENTERPRISE ON THE WESTERN BRANCH OF THE COOPER RIVER, ST. JOHN'S PARISH, BERKELEY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

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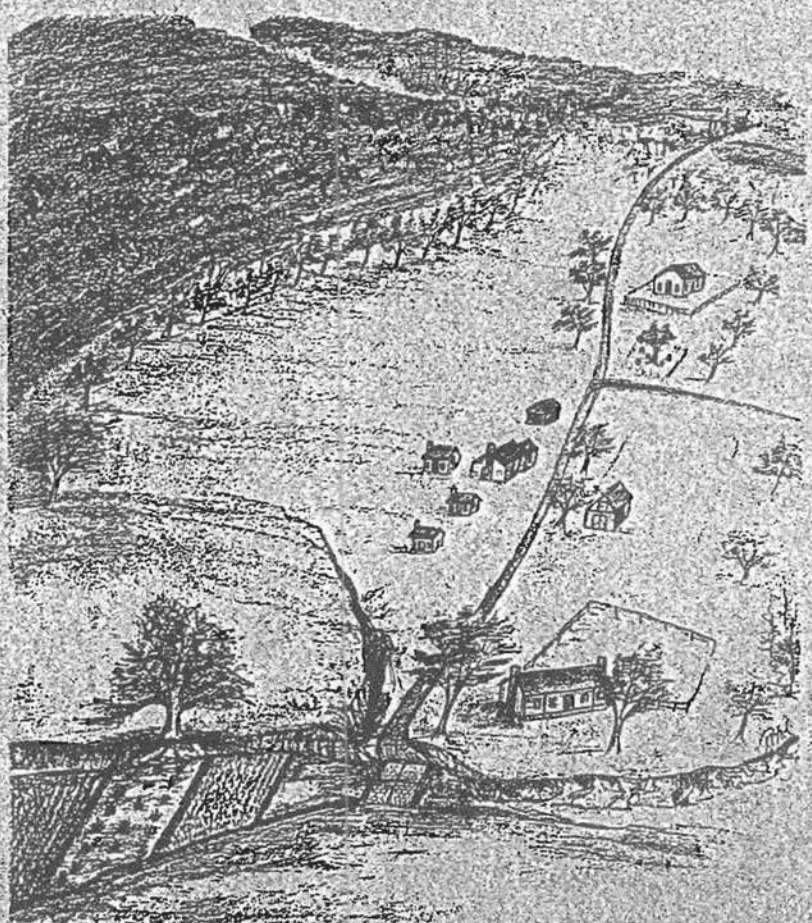
BY
WILLIAM B. BARR



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1996

ABSTRACT: Frontier expansion in British colonial South Carolina was predicated upon the exploitation of diverse indigenous economic resources and staple crop production. The successful exportation of these inland commodities to world markets depended upon access to a reliable bulk transportation system of interior rivers and roads. Commercial centers, in the form of centrally located settlements, were established for the transshipment of these products and the importation of finished goods. Socially, these settlements provided many needs for an area's population. Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne - - constructed, established, and supported by elite residents along the western branch of the Cooper River - - were designed to take advantage of socio-economic opportunities vested in the control of two major arteries of trade and commerce along the Carolina frontier.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

> All towns start out small, but this obvious fact is ignored in studies of urbanization that start by studying the communities successful enough to survive. Understanding success also requires an understanding of failure, and to accomplish that one must approach the subject developmentally by examining what was attempted, not just what succeeded (Hudson 1985:ix).

South Carolina contains many locations within the lower coastal plain where settlements, established during the colonial period, failed to succeed through the 18th or into the 19th century (Smith 1913:198-203). The substantial role played by Charles Town and the growth of huge rice plantations often hindered the acknowledgment and study of significant urban development during this period (Coclanis 1989; Terry 1981; Weir 1983). Although many excellent archaeological studies have been conducted within this geographical zone, most have concentrated on the extensive development of plantations and other dispersed settlements (Drucker 1979; Fairbanks 1984; Ferguson and Babson n.d.; Isley et al., 1985; Lees 1981; Paynter 1982).

The lack of attention given to colonial settlement in the lower coastal plain is based on a number of factors. Most studies of frontier settlement in South Carolina consider only the economic importance of these towns to local and regional populations. Established towns in the lower coastal plain were considered insignificant through the use

of this limited criteria. A number of these low country settlements were very near to present-day Charleston. Some have been overtaken by suburban sprawl, and very few of the buildings constructed within these settlements, if any, are still standing. Generally, these settlements were quite small and their perceived importance has been equated to their size as opposed to their function within the local communities they served.

This thesis concentrates on the small settlement of Childsbury Towne and its associated ferry in St. John's parish, Berkeley county, South Carolina. Its intent is to assist in answering a number of questions related to settlement in the lower coastal plain. Foremost among these is, why were these towns established if a slave based plantation economy eliminated the need for settlements? What form did they take? What was the extent of construction? What was their function within the local areas they served, and is size a viable marker of their significance to the local community?

The construction of Strawberry Ferry in 1705 and the settlement of Childsbury Towne, two years later, was designed to reap economic or financial gain from an advantageous location along the expanding Carolina frontier. The settlement was supported by the white, elite residents that lived along the western branch of the Cooper River (Terry 1981:246). To ensure Childsbury's success, they collectively submitted petitions to the general assembly for a communal fair and market and the construction of the ferry and public buildings. Individually, they purchased lots within the town limits and contributed funds for public education. This enabled those who invested an opportunity to take advantage of the socio-economic possibilities inherent in the town's geographical position. The ferry and the town represent power, control, and dominance by the white, elite over local populations, indigenous natural resources, and routes of trade.

I have concluded that the functional aspects of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne are the most significant markers for their existence. The function of a settlement is defined by the communal and social events held there. The location of a settlement is

affected by its place within local agricultural production areas and its relationship to local and regional trade and communication routes (Ernst and Merrens 1973). The geographical location of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne, 30 miles by road and 60 miles up river from Charles Town, placed them on the leading edge of early colonial frontier expansion. Small settlements within the low country should be defined by their functional ability to serve the general needs of the community at large.

Within the general area of Childsbury Towne there were a number of individual farms, and plantations (Ferguson and Babson n.d.). Connections to dispersed settlements were a factor in Childsbury's development. Much like Charles Town, Childsbury Towne was a place for the shipment of commodities processed and packed on local plantations. This spatial pattern of dispersed settlements within the local area is reflected by the dendritic form of the local trade and communications network (Lewis 1984). Although part of Childsbury Towne's function within the community was the export of locally produced commodities, it was also a place where finished goods were imported into the community from regional or worldwide centers of production. Certain non-agricultural specialized activities took place within the town.

Archaeological investigations were used to determine the actual extent of the town's development and the structure and significance of its associated ferry crossing. There are, within the defined limits of Childsbury Towne, extant public buildings that are considered "key structures" within the community. Key structures are buildings that embodied social and economic importance to the local area (Ernst and Merrens 1973). Only two key structures from this early community still exist; Strawberry Chapel and the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry. Structures no longer standing, such as Strawberry Tavern, also held social and economic importance to the local community.

The archaeological record helps define the nature of Childsbury's population and the "communal concepts of place" (Rodman 1992), held by its supporters and residents. Various ethnic groups lived there and each held different views, from one another, of the

landscape in which they lived. Childsbury's Native American, African American, and white residents viewed the settlement from individual perspectives that defined their particular notion of community and their function within the community.

These inter-related socio-economic factors and their importance to the local community are considered crucial to understanding why settlements such as Childsbury Towne were established within the Carolina low country. Dynamic changes within the economic base of production and related transportation infrastructure are also significant to the rise and fall of low country settlements. Much of this study is concerned with the dynamic nature of local and regional transportation infrastructures and the primary role ferry crossings played in frontier settlement. My inclusion of Strawberry Ferry as a key structure within Childsbury Towne emphasizes the importance of ferrys to social and economic changes within the local and regional area.

It is recognized that settlements grow, falter, and decline due to the competitive nature of colonization. Their rise and decline is affected by changes in local transportation infrastructure and the dynamic nature of economic conditions within regional or world markets (Coclanis 1989:146-147; Lewis 1984:113). These outside forces affect the socio-economic function of the local community. Childsbury's growth and decline corresponds with South Carolina's changing economic conditions during the colonial period. In many ways Childsbury represents a unique example of the evolving nature of low country frontier development.

Chapter two presents a theoretical base for this thesis and defines the concept of settlement as it applies to this work. The study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne has allowed insight to questions concerning the social and economic function inherent within the settlements development. Their function is represented by the cultural, social, and physical use of place (Rodman 1992). These use patterns may be defined by the archaeological study of local community buildings or key structures (Ernst and Merrens 1973). The extent and type of structures within the town limits and the

artifacts associated with them, help determine the socio-economic status of the town's residents and patrons. Their status, tied to local and regional trade systems, defines the role Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne played in low country frontier settlement (Ernst and Merrens 1973). Known production sites within the local area and their relationship to transportation routes help fine tune the social and economic importance of the ferry and town. Changes to and the lack of improvements within that infrastructure would lead to the establishment of competitive transportation routes and communities that would adversely affect the ferry and town's position (Terry 1981).

A history of low country South Carolina (1680-1783) is presented in chapter three. This chapter includes social, economic, and transportation factors that were instrumental in the development of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne. Archaeological data pertaining to St. John's parish is used to support their significance.

Chapter four introduces the methodology used for the recovery of archaeological data pertaining to this study. Data acquisition required detailed information from both the terrestrial and underwater portions of the site. Although the site contains multiple environments, the remains of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne were investigated as one single unified archaeological site.

The history of Strawberry Ferry and archaeological data related to its significance to studies of frontier settlement is addressed in chapter five. The functional role of the ferry and the northeastern landing is related to social and economic needs within the community of Childsbury Towne. Terrestrial and underwater archaeology determined the physical form of the landings. The recovery of this data has assisted in the development of a preliminary construction typology for low country ferry landings (Barr 1995).

Chapter six addresses the specific form and function of Childsbury Towne. Archaeological and historical data is used to determine the extent of general construction

within the settlement. The socio-economic position of its residents along with spatial factors related to class relationships are examined.

Chapter seven is a synthesis of all the data presented in the thesis. This data is drawn from a combination of historical documentation and archaeological investigations. Conclusions related to that synthesis are the basis for this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Introduction

The significance of Strawberry Ferry and the associated settlement of Childsbury Towne to the socio-economic landscape of colonial South Carolina may be best understood through a combined use of archaeological data and historical information. A populations particular use of space in time and their mental concepts of place is better defined through the use of a multi-disciplinary approach. Commonly referred to as historical archaeology, this approach affords a greater understanding of the evolutionary cultural process found in low country frontier settlement.

Historical archaeology, defined by the work of Ivor Noel-Hume (1969, 1970), James Deetz (1967, 1977, 1988), Mark P. Leone (1988), Ken Lewis (1984, 1985), Stanley South (1977), and many others (South 1995), has developed a methodology in which the historical and archaeological record is used to support one another to acquire a holistic understanding of cultural processes. The combination of these disciplines has led, not to a de-constructionist view of colonial history, but to a re-assessment of the historical record as it is used in combination and support of anthropological and archaeological data (Cornell 1993; Dymond 1974). Applied to the study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne, historical archaeology helps determine the affect of social, economic, and transportation systems on why and where settlements are established.

South Carolina's colonial period dates from initial settlement, in 1670, to the end of the American Revolutionary War, in 1783. Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne, located on the western branch of the Cooper River, were features of colonial South

Carolina. Temporally and spatially Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne occupied a time and place that co-incided with the expansion of South Carolina's emerging frontier during the initial settlement of British colonial America.

Settlement Theories

The study of settlement within British colonial America has been addressed by numerous scholars (Ernst and Merrens 1973; Kovacik and Winberry 1989; Lewis 1984, 1985; Rodman 1992; Rubertone 1989). A number of models and hypotheses delineating the process of colonial settlement have been devised that utilize anthropological, historical, and geographical data. Many of these studies have concentrated on the settlement of South Carolina's back country (Coclanis 1989; Ernst and Merrens 1973; Kovacik and Winberry 1989; Lewis 1984, 1985; Terry 1981; Weir 1983). Generally based on market oriented economic systems, they occasionally include data related to the role of transportation networks within those systems (Coclanis 1989; Ernst and Merrens 1973; Lewis 1984). Very few settlement studies, other than those related to the development of plantations, have been conducted within South Carolina's lower coastal plain. The establishment of a slave-based plantation agricultural system, introduced by elite English immigrants from the island of Barbados during initial colonization, is suggested to have been the cause for a lack of concentrated settlements within the low country (Coclanis 1989:146-147).

Peter Coclanis, in *The Shadow of a Dream: Economic Life and Death in the South Carolina Low Country 1670-1920*, makes the argument for a lack of low country settlement based on economic factors. He states that the "the economic imperatives of staple production with slave labor for national and international markets" hindered the development of low country interior towns (Coclanis 1989:147). The establishment of a plantation based agronomic system inhibited the "elaboration and integration of local markets" (Coclanis 1989:147). It is Coclanis' belief that economically "lowcountry

interior market towns were not necessary" (Coclanis 1989:146). He suggests that "as in other parts of the Plantation South, the institution of slavery worked in a circuitous manner to obviate the need for them" (Coclanis 1989:146).

Coclanis uses size and economics to determine a settlements significance prior to the turn of the 18th and 19th century yet, his use of size as a marker for what constitutes a settlement may have biased his conclusions. The low country did have a few locations, referred to by local planters as towns, where small settlements grew up (Barr 1995; Moore 1994; Smith 1913). The most prominent of these towns, within a thirty mile radius of Charles Town, were Ashley Ferry Town, Dorchester, Childsbury Towne, and Monck's Corner. All but Monck's Corner was established between 1670 and 1710. All survived the colonial period as viable entities in one form or another. Thus, the question arises that if the introduction of a slave based plantation economy eliminated the need for settlements, why were these towns established?

In *"Camden's Turrets Pierce the Skies!" The Urban Process in the Southern Colonies during the Eighteenth Century* (1973) Joseph Ernst and H. Roy Merrens study the process of urban development within the back country of mid-18th century South Carolina. They suggest that this development was tied to the economic landscape of a particular place and time (Ernst and Merrens 1973:557). As settlements they should be defined "in relation to the structure and function" of the economic landscape in which they emerged (Ernst and Merrens 1973:565). A major aspect of this economic function is the export of locally produced commodities in exchange for finished goods imported into the community from regional or worldwide centers of production. They suggest that petitioners from these towns considered their "settlement in the context of the commercial development of the colony as a whole and were identifying the role they could play in larger trade patterns and linkages" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:561).

They feel that small towns are significant to South Carolina's development because of their functional aspects as opposed to their size, structure, or form (Ernst and

Merrens 1973:557). This is because "urban form and urban function often diverged" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:555, 559-560). A review of available historical literature, such as personal journals by traveling Englishmen and presiding elders from regional religious congregations, would lead to the assumption that little or no urban development existed within the Carolina hinterlands during the colonial period (Coclanis 1989:146; Ernst and Merrens 1973:554; Jones 1990:248, 250; Merrens 1978:110-121). Although there were many economically viable settlements along the early frontiers of South Carolina these accounts very rarely mention towns passed through because of a bias that only cities resembling those of Europe, similar to London, Paris, or Madrid, would constitute urban development (Ernst and Merrens 1973:556). To European visitors the aspect of size "remained the primary concern" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:554).

To further explain settlement Ernst and Merrens (1973) developed a hypothesis that denotes certain non-residential buildings within the community as "key structures." Key structures are "buildings that symbolize the role played by the settlement in serving an area much more extensive than the town itself" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:560). Examples of these structures would be churches, inns, schools, taverns, and mills. I suggest that ferry crossings should also fall into this category. In Childsbury Towne there are two extant key structures; Strawberry Chapel and the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry. Two other key structures, which historically existed within the town limits of Childsbury, were Strawberry Tavern and the "free school." The function of each of these key structures denotes community, both socially and economically. Because neither the tavern or other key structures, such as the "free school," are standing today, they must be located through archaeological investigation.

The development of frontier communities is also addressed by Ken Lewis in *The American Frontier: An Archaeological Study of Settlement Pattern and Process* (1984). This study "draws heavily on economic geography to construct a model of frontier adaptation" (Lewis 1984:xix). The central location of Charles Town within the colony

required South Carolina to expand, demographically, to the northeast and southwest of Charles Town during the early history of the colony (Coclanis 1989:48-49; Merrens 1978:110-121).

Two models of frontier settlement, developed by Lewis (1984, 1985), are of concern to the study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne. One is the cosmopolitan model; the second is the insular model. The cosmopolitan model (Lewis 1984:250), exhibits "specialized activities tied to the national economy of the homeland" (Lewis 1984:250). These activities include "fur trapping, mining, . . . establishing a military presence, and certain types of exploitative plantation agriculture" (Lewis 1984:250). Examples of this type of settlement are seen in the mining activities of Spain in Peru, the exploitation of the fur trade by Russia in Alaska, France and England in Canada, as well as staple crop production of sugar by England in Barbados and other Caribbean plantations. Each of these activities supplied European nations with a product they did not have the capability to produce at home. They each reflect exploitation of indigenous people and resources coupled with direct shipment of those products to the homeland.

The insular model is more representative of overall colonial settlement in South Carolina. Aspects of this model are staple agricultural production, in the form of small farms and plantations, and a reduction in the reliance of colonial settlements on core centers for their survival (Lewis 1985:251-274). South Carolina, unlike the middle colonies of tidewater Maryland and Virginia that flourished through direct trade with the homeland, developed a regional core center the port of Charles Town (Ernst and Merrens 1973:550; Lewis 1984:278; Porter 1975:329-349). Charles Town's importance to the exportation of colonial goods derived from frontier settlement is the subject of many studies (Clowse 1971; Ernst and Merrens 1973; Lewis 1984; McCusker and Menard 1976; Terry 1981; Weir 1983). The insular model considers Charles Town a center for

the shipment of commodities from the interior regions of the Carolina colony to regional, home, or world markets.

Of primary interest to my study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne are the three types of settlements defined by Lewis within his insular model. They are referred to as "frontier towns," "nucleated settlements," and "dispersed settlements." Unlike Ernst and Merrens (1973) Lewis considers size to be significant to the function of these settlements (Lewis 1984:182).

Frontier towns are the largest of the three and "serve as centers of specialized economic, political, and social activity" (Lewis 1984:187). Lewis (1984) used archaeological data, related to the presence or absence of certain artifact types, to determine this type of settlement. These data contain information about the extent of specialized production, employment opportunities, and marketing influence. Elements of community function, related to political and social interaction, *may* be "added to the role of the frontier town" (Lewis 1984:181). Colonial Charles Town, George Town, Beaufort, and Camden, South Carolina are considered examples of a frontier town (Lewis 1984:180-200).

According to Lewis (1984), nucleated settlements are "functionally less complex and their range of influence is more restricted" than frontier towns (Lewis 1984:201). He believes that the size and form of these settlements also reflect their function (Lewis 1984:202-206). Even though there are certain non-agricultural specialized activities within nucleated settlements, the range and variety of these will not be as extensive as they are in the larger frontier town. Nucleated settlements serve as "integrating institutions in areas of dispersed agricultural production" (Lewis 1984:201). Such settlements within South Carolina were Cheraw, Ninety-Six, Long Bluff, and Pickneyville (Lewis 1984:201-210).

Dispersed settlements are the smallest form within the insular model. They "consist of individual farms and plantations where settlers live and where the production

of agricultural commodities are carried out" (Lewis 1984:210). Archaeologically, they are identified by their spatial patterning and functionally related artifacts and features. The data recovered from these sites must be capable of "revealing critical aspects of settlement content and layout" because of a paucity of information pertaining to associated outbuildings and modifications within the landscape (Lewis 1984:215-216). The Kershaw and Price homes in Camden (Lewis 1984:216-223, 226-243) and Middleton Place and Limerick Plantation along the Cooper River are representative of dispersed settlements.

The models, presented by Ernst and Merrens (1973) and Lewis (1984), utilize various aspects of the economic landscape to explain why settlement occurred. Independently, both models contain compelling arguments for this process. Unfortunately, the primary use of economics as a base for these studies has led to a mis-interpretation of low country settlement and its significance. Although economics are an important issue in settlement, equal weight should be given to the study of inter-related social and transportation factors. The reasons for low country settlement are varied and multi-faceted. Why these towns developed cannot simply be explained by one factor such as economics.

My investigations of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne have resulted in a re-assessment of what constitutes a settlement within low country South Carolina. Although specific notions found in the settlement models of Ernst and Merrens (1973) and Lewis (1984) are incorporated into this new definition, I have included social and transportation factors. No matter what the purpose, social integration takes place where-ever people reside or gather. This integration may or may not be the direct result of local economic factors but, is facilitated by an established transportation network of roads, rivers, or both.

The exclusion of size (Lewis 1984), allows the incorporation of important social factors. I have exclude size because communal interaction needs few, if any, structures

for a location to be socially significant. Some socially significant places may not contain any structures at all. Examples of locations where socially important meetings took place with a minimal amount of structures may be found in the use of grange halls and fur rendezvous as social and economic meeting places. Both were common during the settlement of the mid-19th century American west. I suggest the motivation behind the establishment of low country communities was probably a response to either personal or communal social and economic needs.

The inclusion of theories concerning key structures helps define, archaeologically, the significance of a settlement to the local community (Ernst and Merrens 1973). The use of inter-related social, economic, and transportation factors incorporate a more holistic view of what determines a communally significant settlement. Key structures help define, archaeologically, the significance of a settlement to the local community (Ernst and Merrens 1973).

Ernst and Merrens (1973) present data related to the importance of transportation networks. Lewis (1984) presents a detailed study at these networks during colonial expansion. In both models their existence is explained as part of an over-riding economic system. The inclusion of ferry crossings as a key structure significantly increases the social and economic importance of these transportation networks to overall settlement patterns.

The general incorporation of these two models (Ernst and Merrens 1973; Lewis 1984) with data recovered during this study have helped define low country settlement. In this thesis, a settlement is defined as a centrally located area where communally important key structures are found. Individuals may reside there but, it is primarily a location where people gather for social events and/or the purpose of conducting business. Some form of an established transportation network will be evident for the movement of people and products to and from this location. Through the use of this definition a larger

picture of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne's significance to the local community emerges.

Also of importance to the study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne are environmental and mental aspects contained in the concept of landscape. Landscape theories offer variations concerned with social, economic, and transportation landscape relationships, not offered by Ernst and Merrens (1973) and Lewis (1984), which help define a settlements existence.

Landscape Theories

Landscape theory, created by geographer Carl Sauer in 1925, explains temporal and cultural change in conjunction with the natural environment (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:1). This formulation presents the concept that as time passes cultures interact with the natural landscape, changing the environment to satisfy cultural and social needs. These changes eventually become a cultural landscape. Sauer saw the environment as pristine and sub-ordinate within this scheme (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:2)

Since Sauer's initial proposal, landscape theory has been modified by archaeologists, historians, and geographers who see landscape as having a greater contextual meaning where land use patterns and overall settlement are concerned. Notions concerning landscape theory and its significance to the study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne may be found in a number of books and articles (Coclanis 1989; Deetz 1977, 1988; Easton 1989; Easton and Moore 1992; Hasslof 1963; Leone 1988; Merrens 1978; Rodman 1992; Rubertone 1989; South and Hartley 1980; Taylor 1993; Weir 1983).

Landscape is not static within a local or regional context and may represent changing ideological notions of particular societies and domination by the ruling class (Leone 1988; Little 1988; Taylor 1993). These views are represented, archaeologically, by the cultural assemblage found on site and through the existence of social markers in

the form of structures, ceramics, or grave stones (Deetz 1977; Hodder 1982; Little 1988; McGuire 1988; Taylor 1993). Many of the physical manifestations, which reflect ideological notions, are classified as belonging to a concept known as the Georgian worldview (Deetz 1977; Leone 1988). The theoretical concepts of the Georgian worldview and Georgian order seek to find "patterns of thought" through archaeological study of the cultural landscape (Leone and Potter 1988:212).

The concept of Georgian worldview and its mental template allow delineation of the underlying structure associated with material remains found in the archaeological record (Deetz 1988:219-233; Leone and Potter 1988:214). Changes within the landscape are suggested to have been decisions made by the colonists of British North America. These changes were physical representations of themselves to each other and to their peers within their respective homelands (Leone 1988).

Mark Leone, in *The Georgian Order as the Order of Merchant Capitalism in Annapolis, Maryland* (1988), studies the rise of merchant capitalism in Annapolis, Maryland. He views the control of landscape as a way of legitimizing personal and economic power. This was done by the elite through the ideological notions of naturalizing and marking.

The confirmation of power through manipulation of landscape by the elite is found in the work of Neils Taylor (1993), *The Landscape of Alienation in Nineteenth Century Salem, North Carolina* (1993). Through control of the social and economic landscape the white Moravian elite of colonial Salem established dominance over their African-American slaves. This domination was confirmed by the construction of an African-Moravian church, Saint Philips, in a location outside of colonial Salem's town limits (Taylor 1993).

A person's concept of place may be explained from their own personal view of landscape. Studies, conducted by Margaret Rodman in *Empowering Place: Multilocality and Multivocality* (1992), allow consideration not only the role of the elite in defining

place but, that of other groups of people that make up the demographic landscape. According to Rodman, a culture's definition of place is "culturally relative, historically specific, [and contain] local and multiple constructions" (Rodman 1992:641). The adoption of that landscape is directly related to a culture's ability to physically control their place within that particular environment (Rodman 1992:642; Rubertone 1989:50; South and Hartley 1980:1-35; Weir 1983:35).

Each culture, as well as different people within each culture, has a particularistic view of the local landscape. Within Childsbury that view came from a number of various ethnic groups. Although the European, elite, white settlers controlled the formation of an economic base and related transportation systems in St. John's, the landscape would also represent, socially, Childsbury's Native American, African American, and lower white residents. Each held individually specific notions of what the community represented to them.

Often overlooked, landscape also includes water and the interface between land and water (Easton 1989; Easton and Moore 1992; Hasslof 1963). The landscape of my study of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne includes underwater and terrestrial areas. Olaf Hasslof (1963) suggested the combined study of these two areas during ethnographic and archaeological investigations of shipbuilding techniques used in contemporary European shipyards. These studies included data from "boats and slips, harbours, shipyards, [and] tools" (Hasslof 1963:130). Hasslof suggests the greatest value in the use of same site terrestrial and underwater data is that aspects of shipbuilding could "be studied in their natural settings and functions" (Hasslof 1963:130).

Archaeological investigations along the shoreline of Galiano Island in British Columbia, Canada by Norman A. Easton (1989, 1992) and Charles D. Moore (1992) confirm the importance of using same site terrestrial and underwater archaeological data. Same site data were used in these studies to determine a time-frame for pre-historic coastal migration routes from Asia into North America. The temporal occupation by pre-

historic peoples along the coast of western British Columbia contains a gap between 3,000 BP and 7,000 BP. Archaeological evidence from these studies was used to close that temporal gap.

The establishment of small settlements along the Carolina frontier is well documented in local histories and through archaeological investigations (Ernst and Merrens 1973; Lewis 1984, Smith 1914). Social, economic, and transportation factors played a significant role in the location of these towns. Socially, they provided a place for communal communication and interaction. Personal safety, from hostile elements along the frontier, was enhanced by having a centralized location where people could gather in large numbers. Areas with established, dispersed settlements and high production values played a pivotal role as to where these towns were located. Quite often their establishment was initiated by elite elements of society for economic reasons (Amer et al., 1995; Barr 1995; Wesler 1985:384; Weir 1983:154). The high ground along rivers and other central locations within developing transportation networks were important considerations, too (Amer et al, 1995; Barr 1995; South and Hartley 1980). As centers of social and economic importance within the local area, they defined the mental concepts of place, temporally and spatially, of local populations (Rodman 1992). The significance of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Town is primarily based upon the local communities notion of place and related to its unique geographical position along the expanding Carolina frontier.

The importance of these two entities to the local community is reflected in each of the above examples. They represent how archaeological, historical, and geographical data can be used to assist one another in the interpretation of frontier settlement within the context of landscape. Historically, it is established that Strawberry Ferry was located in an area controlled by the elite. This position, within economic production areas and related transportation infrastructure, is significant to the development of Childsbury

Towne. This position also allows the definition of Strawberry Ferry as a key structure as defined by Ernst and Merrens (1973).

The associated settlement of Childsbury Towne encompasses many aspects of the insular model of frontier development (Lewis 1984; Greene 1987; Terry 1981), as well as the notions related to key structures as defined by Ernst and Merrens (1973). Settlements grow, falter, and decline due to the subsumed competitive nature of colonization. Quite often this decline is based upon a dynamic transportation infrastructure and changes within the local economic base related to changing conditions within regional or world markets (Coclanis 1989:146-147; Lewis 1984:113).

The physical position of these two entities along the Carolina frontier placed them in a position to take advantage of newly emerging economic opportunities such as the deer skin trade, naval stores production, and the exportation of cattle (McCusker and Menard 1985; Terry 1981). Individual and social concepts of place are a factor in the construction of Strawberry Ferry, the establishment of Childsbury Towne, and their significance to the local community. The landed and economic status of the initial subscribers to Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne may have induced and enhanced these activities. Through their social status local residents may have been privy to information that might have brought them personal financial gain. Their ability to survive dynamic changes within regional and world economic systems may have produced detrimental affects upon that development

By viewing the theories related to landscape and settlement as a dialogue or dialectic with one another, a holistic explanation of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne within local social, economic, and transportation systems are attained. The application of such an inclusive approach enhances understanding of the development of transportation systems and the socio-economic impetus behind the establishment of ferry crossings and associated settlements along the colonial frontier. They also reflect how archaeological and historical data can complement one another in the development of

conclusions concerning the interpretation of colonial frontier settlement. The significance of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne is defined through the application of these theories, their hypotheses, and subsequent models.

CHAPTER THREE

Low Country Carolina (1670-1783)

Society

European settlement of South Carolina's lower coastal plain took place very early in the colony's history. In 1675 South Carolina consisted of "a fairly compact settlement of 500 to 600 people living along the Ashley River a few miles from the ocean" (Clowse 1971:67). By 1706 ten political and religious divisions, called parishes, were laid out (Terry 1981:16). In St. John's parish, the greatest influx of settlement occurred between 1670 and 1700 (Terry 1981:69).

Three different groups settled St. John's parish. Two areas in upper St. John's, Wanpee and Wantoot, were settled by Anabaptist and French Protestants. Lower St. John's was settled by people from England, Ireland, and the British West Indies, primarily Barbados. This area of dispersed farms and plantations grew up along the banks of the Cooper River (Terry 1981:48-52, 54-56, 57-58).

The settlers in lower St. John's were not socially or economically equal to those who settled the upper portions of the parish (Coclanis 1989:21, 61; Greene 1987:198; Molen 1971; Nash 1984:235-242; Sirmans 1966:19:19-34; Terry 1981; Weir 1983:49, 51). They were individuals who had secured their social status and economic position prior to their arrival in South Carolina. They saw advantage in leaving their homes in England and Barbados in a bid, not to secure their fortune, but to improve upon it (Coclanis 1989:62; Greene 1987:198; Molen 1971:288; Sirmans 1966:27; Terry 1981:246; Weir 1983:51). They were the elite.

Most of the land granted in lower St. John's parish lay along the banks of the Cooper River. This land was considered "some of the best available in the parish" (Terry 1981:60). Over 59% of the residents along the Cooper River owned 1,000 acres or more. This was approximately 38% more land per individual than the other two areas of settlement in upper St. John's (Terry 1981:61). Of twenty-seven identified landowners in the Cooper River area (1680-1704) only six were from Barbados yet, they controlled 72% of the lands granted (Terry 1981:58-59).

Inter-marriage among the families in lower St. John's was quite common (Moore and Simmons 1960). Similar to elite families in England, who consolidated their wealth and purpose through marriage, these families continued the practice in South Carolina. As "a group of families at the top of the social structure in St. John's [they formed] their own local kinship system [which] became part of a larger, almost colony wide network" (Terry 1981:13; Weir 1983:123, 235). As wealthy planters and businessmen they became an integral part of Charles Town's business, social, and political community. Many owned stock in Charles Town merchant firms and invested in local shipbuilding (Rogers et al. 1974:598-599). All held some form of political office that ranged from Lieutenant Governor of the colony to local magistrate (McCord 1841; Terry 1981).

The Europeans who settled lower St. John's were "universally recognized as the leading men" within the local community (Salley 1973[1910-1915]:631). Although socially and economically dominant and considered ruthless by some (Salley 1973[1910-1915]:631; Waterhouse 1988:203), they were "not intrinsically the most important part of local society" (Weir 1983:229). This is because a number of ethnically diverse groups settled low country South Carolina. Other than white Europeans, the parish included Native Americans and imported Africans.

Local and regional Native American tribes affected settlement policy through their ability to support wars against European incursion. St. John's parish contained tribal members of the Santee, Etiwan, and eventually members of the Cape Fears. Low

country groups were considered a formidable force to deal with prior to the conclusion of the Yamasee War in 1716 (Coclanis 1989:47). Regional tribes included Cherokees, Creeks, and Catawbas to the north, Yamasee to the south and Westoes to the west (Coclanis 1989:46; Sirmans 1966:23). Regionally, they were used by the European powers as pawns to either support or fight against English interests. The conclusion of the Cherokee War in 1761 finally subdued the back country tribes (Weir 1983:275).

Between 1672 and 1682 over 1,000 Indians are estimated as living in low country South Carolina. These numbers steadily declined to less than 250 souls by 1750 (Coclanis 1989:47). Much of their decline throughout the colony and in St. John's parish resulted from the pivotal role they played in the European economic exploitation of the colony's natural resources.

In St. John's parish, the Etiwan's were the only group to establish permanent settlements (Terry 1981:32). The proximity of English plantations to their settlements along the head-waters of the Cooper River gave impetus to the Indian trade (Terry 1981:34). By 1700 the majority of the Etiwan's "began to be destroyed through enslavement and sickness" (Terry 1981:36). By the 1720s there were only twelve Etiwan families who survived by "straying about from place to place" (Milling 1940:60).

A major factor in the decline of Native American populations was the Indian slave trade. Primarily women and children were locally enslaved, while the men were sold and shipped to other colonies and plantations in the Caribbean. Almost one-third of the slaves in South Carolina in 1710 were Native American (Ferguson 1992:60). Many came from as far away as Florida and North Carolina (Ferguson 1992:60).

The enslavement of local indigenous populations was considered unethical and religiously wrong by a number of people who settled the Carolina colony (Terry 1981:33-37). Yet, African slaves were considered in a whole different light. The Barbadian plantation system was built upon the enslavement and ownership of black Africans. Europeans and Africans reflected a world view that was, culturally, closer to the world of

the Caribbean (Fischer 1989:817). Just as the agricultural system was imported to South Carolina, the use of African slaves as labor for those newly emerging plantations was also imported.

Large numbers of black Africans came to the low country to work the cattle barons, tar kilns, and upland rice fields of their European owners. They constructed roads, bridges and ferry landings, and housing. They developed the fields from which the low country's agricultural wealth came. Most were imported from various countries along the west coast of Africa, Gambia and Angola, where they practiced rice cultivation. Their in-depth knowledge of this crop was instrumental in its cultivation in the colony (Ferguson 1992:61).

Within the low country, demographically large populations of African slaves were a fact of life quite early in the colony's settlement (Wood 1974:25-26). In 1705 there were "180 African slaves living in the parish [of St. John's] along with 315 Europeans" (Terry 1981:145). By 1710 African slaves totaled over half the local population (Coclanis 1989:64). The number of African slaves would steadily increase throughout the majority of the colonial period. Their numbers rapidly overtook the white population. In 1715, African slaves made up approximately 41% of the population (Terry 1981:145). By 1762 they would exceed 80% of the local population.

Although Indians, Africans, and Europeans were socially exempt from mixing due to social taboos or fear of black and red alliances against European domination, they did. Most Indian slaves were female, whereas most African slaves were male (Terry 1981:145-146; Weir 1983:30). Marriage and sexual relationships between whites and Indians and whites and Africans were not uncommon (Sirmans 1966:266; Terry 1981:130). They were probably not uncommon between female Indian slaves and their African male counterparts. This social relationship is reflected in the folklore and foodways from African America's cultural legacy (Ferguson 1992:90, 92; Weir 1983:31). Each of these diverse ethnic groups would collide in low country colonial South Carolina.

Each would add to or adopt certain aspects of the other's culture, effecting a creolization, which was adapted into a formidable cultural force of its own (Ferguson 1992:xli-xlv, 20; Terry 1981:143).

Yet, it was the elite that continued to dominate all facets of low country South Carolina culture and society during the colonial period. They controlled the land, the labor, and the law. They provided the capital for the construction of large plantations and the purchase of ships to export what was produced. Native American and African slaves provided the labor from which these planters acquired the ability to continue their dominance over those on the lower rungs of the socio-economic ladder.

Economy

The early and rapid diversification of South Carolina's economic landscape is the principal reason for Childsbury Towne's initial economic success during the colonial period (Coclanis 1989:54, 61-62; Terry 1981:83; Weir 1983:153). This economic diversification led to economic independence in St. John's by 1680 (Terry 1981:83). "The economic system which emerged in St. John's before 1720 defies simple description. During this period economic activities were more varied than at any other time in the parish's history" (Terry 1981:87).

The deer skin trade, livestock raising, and naval stores production was significant to economic expansion during this time. Staple crop production, in the form of rice in the late 17th and 18th century and indigo during the mid-colonial period, led to unprecedented financial gains for the people of South Carolina. The settlers along the western branch of the Cooper River, through the construction of Strawberry Ferry and the settlement of Childsbury Towne, were in a unique position along Carolina's frontier to take advantage of the trade in these products and their export to regional and world markets.

The deer skin trade was of initial importance to this early economic success (Terry 1981:83). Over 18% of the lower South's export earnings during the colonial period are attributed to this product (McCusker and Menard 1976:173-174). Great quantities of these skins were exported from Charles Town during the colonial period. More than 53,000 skins were sent annually to England per year between 1699 and 1715 (Weir 1983:143). This trade continued to be lucrative even into the late colonial period with hunts going as far west as the Ninety-Six District in the Piedmont (Meriwether 1974:169).

Many individuals along the western branch of the Cooper River were involved in this traffic. Most notable was son-in-law of early governor Nathaniel Johnson, Thomas Broughton, along with James Colleton, George Chicken, and James Child (Crane 1964:56, 147; Salley 1973 [1910-1915]:631; Weir 1983:116). Approximately 14% of twenty-seven St. John's property owners were involved in the Indian trade during the late 17th and early 18th century (Crane 1964:147; Salley 1973[1910-1915]:631; Terry 1981:277).

Unfortunately, the trade in deer skins was closely tied to the trade in Indian slaves (Terry 1981:83; Weir 1983:30, 142-143). Robert Weir states that "South Carolinians were *the* slave traders of North America" (Weir 1983:26, author's italics). Substantial numbers of local and regional Indians were used as domestic slaves and for export to other colonies. In 1708, Native Americans constituted approximately 33% of South Carolina's 4,300 slaves. Women and children comprised 64% of that population (Weir 1983:27, 30). So great were the number of Indian slaves exported from South Carolina that by 1715 their shipment to a number of New England colonies was banned (Weir 1983:26).

The trade in slaves was an enterprise inextricably tied to the profits of the early colonial governors (Weir 1983:83). They personally retained "all presents made by the Indians to the province" (Crane 1964:147). Governor Nathaniel Johnson refused a lump

sum payment in 1706 of £200 a year "in lieu of these presents, an amount equal to his salary" (Crane 1964:147). These presents often included profits from auctions held in Charles Town's slave market.

In 1706 James Child, founder of Childsbury Towne, was accused by the assembly of inciting the Carolina Indians to attack each others villages for the explicit purpose of acquiring slaves for trade with English settlers along the coast. In that year, Child personally offered up, on the block in Charles Town, 30 captives for sale. "The assembly set the captives free, but the governor paid no heed to their petitions to prosecute Child" (Crane 1964:147).

The issue of regulating the trade in Indian slaves was of major concern to the proprietors of South Carolina. "By 1680 the conduct of [this trade] overshadowed other proprietary complaints" (Sirmans 1966:33). In 1707 Governor Johnson's son-in-law was prosecuted for participating in the Indian trade. Johnson was so incensed with these charges that he "retaliated by charging [Thomas] Nairne (the first colonial Indian trade commissioner) with treason" (Weir 1983:83). Yet, by 1725, problems related to the Indian slave trade were essentially resolved. George Chicken, an associate of Nairne, owner of 10 Indian slaves at his death, and future nephew-in-law to James Child, was appointed colonial commissioner for Indian affairs (Sirmans 1966:136-137). With this appointment, "South Carolina had found an answer to an old and vexing problem" (Sirmans 1966:137). Eventually, "the declining supply [of Indian slaves], problems with the captives, and proprietary opposition [effectively] limited the size of this trade" (Weir 1983:143). As well, the trade in deer skins declined to a point in which it played a "secondary role in the economy" (Weir 1983:143).

The raising of cattle was important to the success of South Carolina's diverse economic landscape. The initial, attempted, settlement in 1666 was instructed to take on cattle from Virginia for shipment to Carolina shortly after the establishment of Port Royal

(Craven 1970:336). The coastal uplands and pine barrens were considered perfect for the "development of a livestock industry" (Weir 1983:142).

As early as 1682 cattle became established as a major Carolina export. Contemporary sources state that by that year some planters had herds containing at least 800 head (Craven 1970:357). Probate inventories show that there were many lower and middle class planters within St. John's parish that owned cattle (Terry 1981:253). Over 90% of the planters in St. John's possessed cattle between 1720 and 1729. These totals never dropped below 70% throughout the entire colonial period (Terry 1981:87). The majority of cattle raised in St. John's during the late colonial period were probably used for either personal or local consumption. This product comprised less than 01% of the traffic across Strawberry Ferry in 1777 (Wates and Lee 1964).

Naval stores "were important commodities on early plantations in St. Johns," too (Terry 1981:80). "The abundance of pine forests in the colony insured its future as a leading producer of naval stores" (Perry 1968:512; Terry 1981:81; Weir 1983:89, 143). Property descriptions, from a twenty-five year period, 1735-1760, have determined that approximately one-quarter of St. John's parish contained pine barrens (Terry 1981:29). George Terry (1981), suggests that the naval stores industry never achieved the status of rice within the economic landscape of South Carolina (Terry 1981:81). Yet, despite its "secondary role to rice," naval stores production was an important economic activity for Childsbury and the local community (Barr 1994:81-82; Terry 1981:81; Weir 1983:145).

Archaeological and historical evidence shows the naval stores industry to be substantial. Much of its influence on the economy is tied to bounties, established between 1705 and 1774 by England's parliament, designed to promote its production (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:101; Hart 1986:6). These bounties assisted in the large production values of naval stores shipped from the port of Charleston. The impact of the bounties was visible by 1712 when over "6,617 barrels of tar and pitch were exported from Charles Town" (Terry 1981:81). These totals increased from 40,000 barrels in 1720

to over 81,000 barrels by 1725 (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:101; Hart 1986:7). A five year lapse in the bounties, caused by overproduction in South Carolina and England's access to Baltic production between 1724 and 1729, led to a collapse in the industry (Kovacik and Winberry 1989:71; Weir 1983:144). By 1727, production had dropped to less than 35,000 barrels (Hart 1986:7). Reinstatement of these bounties between 1729 and 1774 revived the industry but, never to the levels achieved during the early 1700s (Clowse 1981; Perry 1968:511; Weir 1983:145). As seen from the above export figures, tar and pitch production was a very lucrative business in South Carolina. At least 36% of identified settlers in lower St. John's parish were involved in this trade (Crane 1964:147; Terry 1981:80, 82, 253, 260).

A number of archaeological studies were conducted on the physical remains of tar kilns found in North and South Carolina (Harmon and Snedeker 1993; Hart 1986; Smith and Gresham 1989). Unfortunately, with all the archaeological and historical data available, there are problems related to dating the physical remains of tar kilns. Conclusions reached by a number of archaeologists have provided information concerning the extent of naval stores production north of Childsbury Towne.

Linda Hart's (1986), study of tar kiln sites at Limerick Plantation, approximately seven miles northeast of Childsbury, bemoans the "lack of temporal information" (Hart 1986:14). Although Michael Harmon and Rodney Snedeker (1993) agree that the "temporal placement of tar kilns is a major concern" (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:119, 121), they have established a typology for colonial tar kilns (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:100-122; Smith and Gresham 1989:108).

The physical remains of tar kilns represent three types; early, middle, and late (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:121). Ethnographic data records that round kilns with single drains and pits were used prior to the late 18th century. Late 18th and early 19th century kilns were round with multiple drains and collection pits. Twentieth century kilns were rectangular or keyhole in shape (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:121). Harmon

and Snedeker (1993) suggest those found in South Carolina tend to predate the Civil War period because of a reduction in tar and pitch production during the late 18th century (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:119).

They also suggest that an additional technique for dating kilns is "through [the] reconstruction of historic context and determining the relationship to archaeological sites" (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:119). It is believed that access routes to these tar kiln locations may be important determinants to age. They discovered that in North Carolina "kilns are usually located near roadways and waterways" (Harmon and Snedeker 1993:119). The provenience of probable tar and pitch production areas north of Childsbury Towne and Strawberry Ferry were most likely affected by the location of colonial roads and navigable streams. Thus, kiln and tar pit typology, combined with data concerning transportation routes, are primary factors for determining the economic importance of this industry to Childsbury.

Since 1990, a number of archaeological surveys have been conducted for the National Forest Service in Francis Marion and Sumpter National Forest. Three, conducted by New South Associates (1992, 1993) and Brockington and Associates, Inc. (1990), covered approximately 8,397 acres (Fig. 1). These covered a majority of Berkeley county from 3 miles north of the "Tee" on the Cooper River to the Santee River, a distance of 24 miles. Thirteen tar kilns were recorded during these surveys (Allen and Espenshade 1990; Williams et al., 1992, 1993).

All of these kilns and their associated pits, with minor variation within one or two, fit the colonial period typology (Harmon and Snedeker 1993; Fig. 2). When combined with the location of colonial roads within the parish, as defined by George Terry (1981), they confirm the locational model developed by Harmon and Snedeker (1993). The integration of tar kiln and pit location data with the transportation infrastructure in St. John's parish offers strong empirical support for the economic significance of the naval

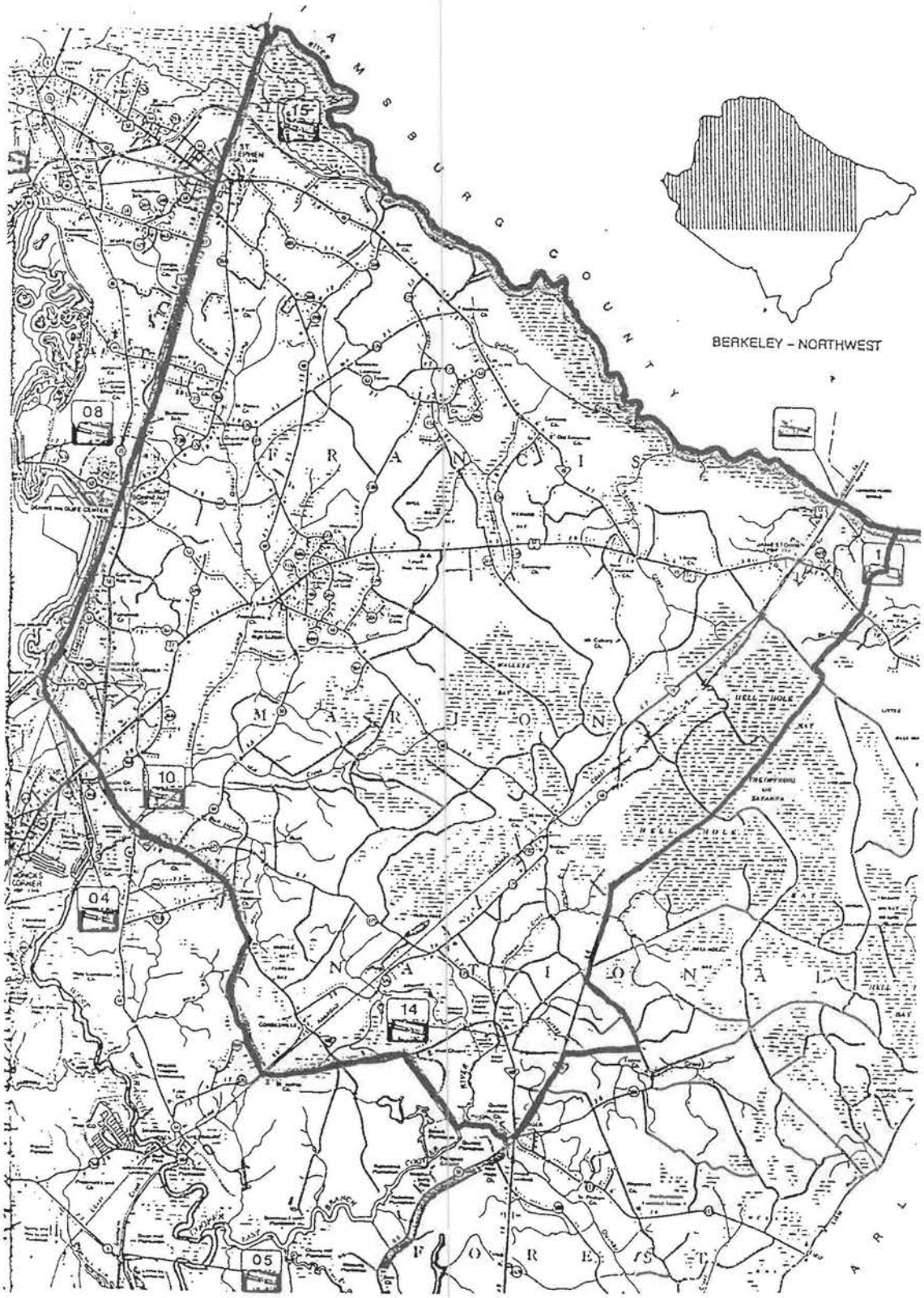

FIGURE 1. Map of Berkeley County containing survey conducted by New South Associates and Brockington and Associates.

38 BK 1233

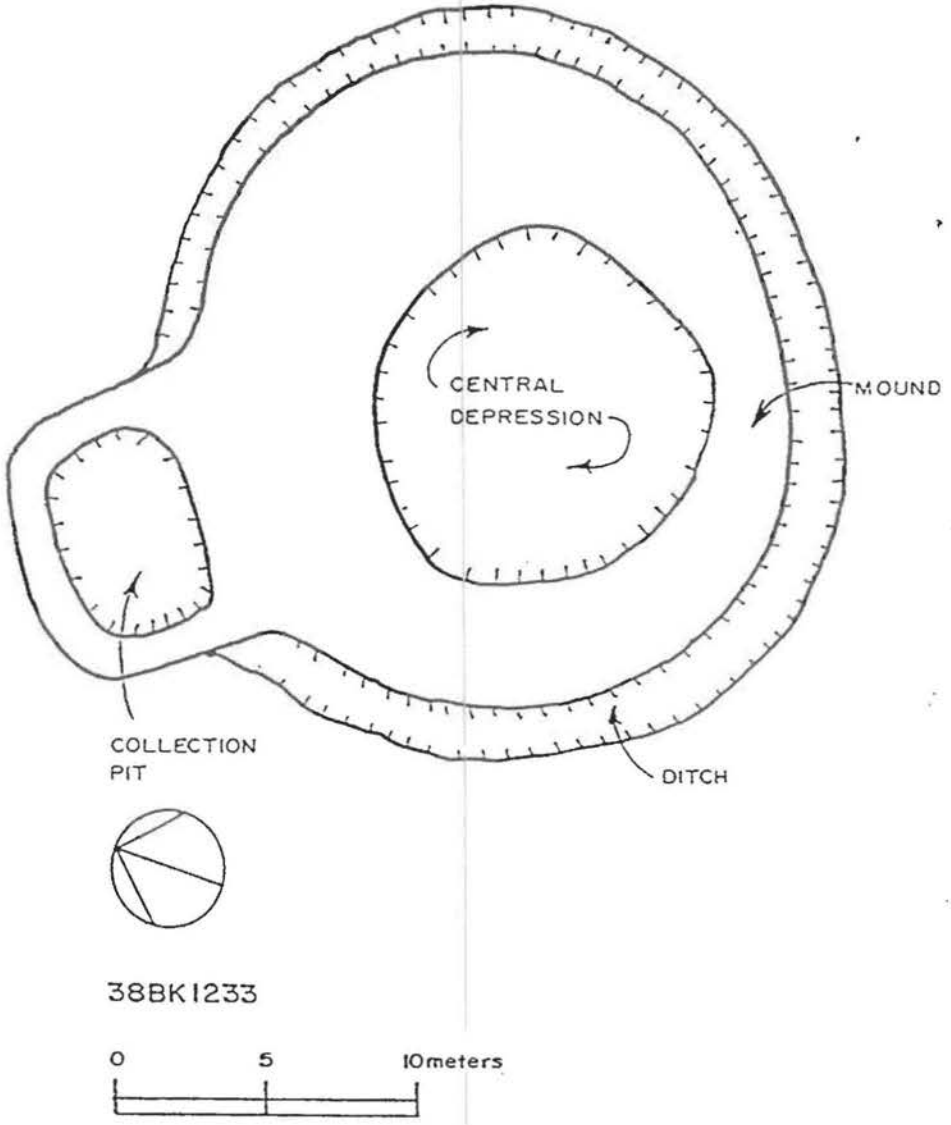

FIGURE 2. Colonial period tar pit. (New South Associates.)

stores industry to the construction of Strawberry Ferry and the development of Childsbury Towne (Fig. 3).

In the middle colonies, i.e., Maryland and Virginia, the lack of inland transportation networks and westward expansion are tied to staple crop production (McCusker and Menard 1976:180-181). The profit from its growth and shipment depended on an economical mode of transportation from the producer to an overseas market. Rivers were that transportation system and by their existence eliminated the need for a core center to export their crops. The combination of a staple export crop and a low cost transportation system retarded Maryland's frontier settlement (Porter 1975:329).

Staple crop production was of major importance to South Carolina's economy during the colonial period. The definition of staple crop production is limiting as it normally applies to one product, such as sugar that once dominated the local economy of Barbados in the 17th century (Greene 1987:192-210; Molen 1971:287-300; Weir 1983:49). In colonial British America, staple export agriculture generally refers to tobacco, rice, indigo, and cotton. The main staple crop produced in South Carolina during the early colonial period was rice. Local environmental conditions, which included inland swamps and an extensive tidewater riverine system north of Charleston fed by the Cooper and Santee Rivers, were extremely conducive to this type of agriculture. Advertisements, for lands for sale within St. John's parish between 1735 and 1760, indicate that 61% was either cypress or swamp land (Terry 1981:29).

The production of rice is significant to the local economic landscape of the Carolina low country and its social, economic, and transportation history. The assumption that the majority of rice cultivated during the colonial period was grown next to rivers or within their adapted mash lands is erroneous. For the first one hundred years rice was primarily grown in the upland swamps of the low country using reservoir irrigation (Ferguson and Babson n.d.; Haywood 1937:8; Rowland 1987:122; Terry 1981:25-26).

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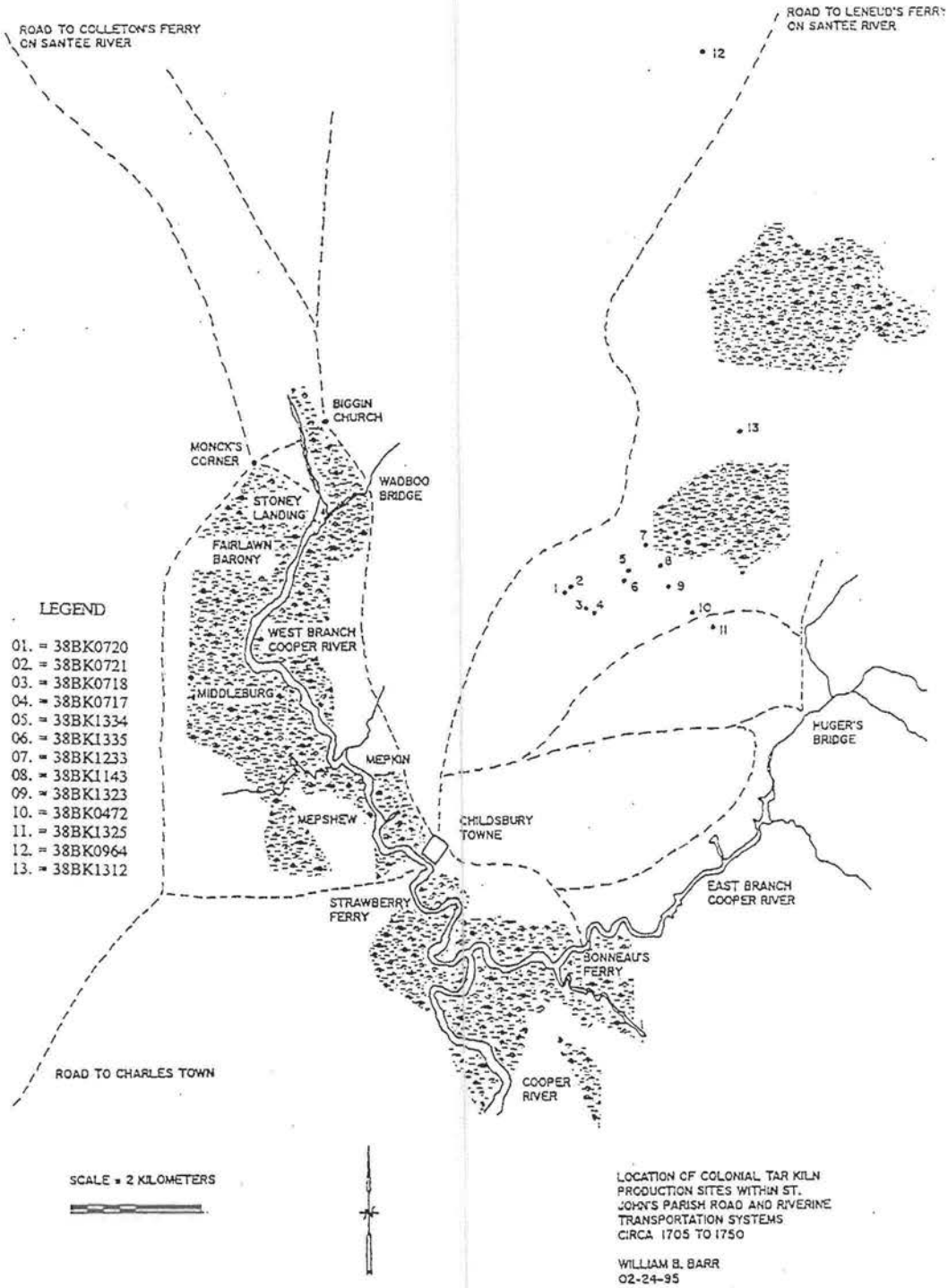

FIGURE 3. Colonial roads and tar pit locations north of Childsbury Towne.

Weir (1983) suggests that inter-tidal rice agriculture began in 1738 (Weir 1983:150). Others suggest later but, historically, by the late-18th century inter-tidal rice production had induced major landscape adaptations along both branches of the Cooper River (Ferguson and Babson n.d.:4; Kovacik and Winberry 1989:73; Rowland 1987:122). By 1759, Robert Raper, Charles Town businessman and representative of the Colleton family interests along the western branch of the Cooper River, had adopted this type of agriculture (McCann 1981:113).

The introduction of inter-tidal rice agriculture effected major changes in the local environmental landscape. Earthen dams, called rice dikes, constructed to assist in rice production, would eventually line both sides of the rivers edge. Quite often they served a dual purpose having had roads constructed along the top of them (Rowland 1987:126). Wooden and brick rice gates and rice trunks, devices designed to control the flooding and draining of the rice fields, were installed in the dikes. Many plantations excavated canals for the transportation of raw rice to plantation docks or known landings, similar to the public landing at Childsbury Towne (Amer et al., 1992:25). Little archaeological data exists to establish a temporal period for these canals.

The early importance of rice to the economic landscape of South Carolina may be found, not only in extensive landscape adaptations, but through colonial production figures. The growth and export of rice rose from an initial "69 pounds per capita in 1670," to a high during the colonial period in 1740 of over 900 pounds (McCusker and Menard 1976:180-181). A substantial increase occurred between 1712 and 1716. In that four year period rice production increased 99% (Terry 1981:75). There was an additional expansion of 174% between 1715 and 1720 (Terry 1981:75). Along with intensive inter-tidal production rice accounted for "10 percent of the value of all commodities shipped from British North America" in 1770 (McCusker and Menard 1976:180-181). Over 33% of twenty-seven property owners in lower St. John's parish are identified as being

involved in rice production during the colonial period (Terry 1981:78, 80, 253, 257, 260, 264, 265, 277, 278, 279).

South Carolina had an advantage over other staple producing colonies in that it had two staple crops within the low country during the colonial era. The first being rice, the second indigo (Terry 1981:225; Weir 1983:146). The production of indigo began late in comparison to rice but quickly became important to South Carolina's economic landscape (McCusker and Menard 1976:187; Terry 1981:259; Weir 1983:146).

According to Henry Laurens, owner of Mepkin plantation, indigo production began in the mid 1740s during King George's War (Hamer et al., 1968:309). England's war retarded the importation of the dye from French producers. An economic depression in South Carolina at the same time gave impetus to the development of this second staple crop (Terry 1981:255; Weir 1983:146). England's Parliament passed bounties in 1745 designed to advance the production of indigo. Thus, colonial South Carolina became England's new source of supply for this product. By the mid 1750s "exports of [indigo] peaked at nearly 900,000" pounds (McCusker and Menard 1976:187). Indigo production in St. John's parish was practiced by 29% of twenty-seven lower St. John's planters during the colonial period (Terry 1981:182, 265, 267, 276, 277, 278).

In the mid 1740s indigo production began in earnest in South Carolina. Many of the soon to be abandoned upland rice fields were perfect for growing the indigo plant. Fresh water, required for steeping the plant in brick or wooden vats, was easily obtained. Once the curing process was complete, the raw product was dried and pressed into small cakes. The dye cakes were then packed in barrels which facilitated their transportation overland to the river for shipment down stream. Although few of these vats exist today within the Carolina low country, one brick indigo vat has been located south of Strawberry Ferry (Dr. Eric Poplin 1995, pers. comm.).

The economic landscape of South Carolina did not exist within a vacuum. Ties to a world market placed the economy of South Carolina and St. John's parish within a

dynamic world economic system. As such, the economy was affected, positively and adversely, by changes within that system. Bull markets, war among European powers, world wide and local recession and depression, as well as overproduction within the colony, are factors that affected the local economy and settlers in and around the community of Childsbury Towne. Each of these aspects must be considered within the study of economic factors and their role in the development and demise of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury.

The diversification of South Carolina's economic landscape assisted in the rapid accumulation of wealth for the colony's residents, particularly those in St. John's parish (Weir 1983:153). From the colony's inception "the early growth of population was greatly influenced by these economic developments" (Terry 1981:88). The vast majority of this economic production came directly to Charles Town for export. Buyers, sellers, importers, exporters, merchants, and shipbuilders reaped enormous profits. The commercial nature of St. John's diversified economy established "many links with areas outside the parish . . . which connected the parish with the rest of the colony; England, and the world" (Terry 1981:15). There was unprecedented economic growth within the colony (Weir 1983:141). South Carolina was considered the wealthiest society in British colonial America (Fischer 1989:817; Weir 1983:214). This wealth was "highly concentrated in a few hands" within the low country, and by 1740 already averaged £450 per person (Fischer 1989:817). Just 34 years later, in 1774, the estimated per capita income within Charles Town proper had grown to £2,337. This amount was "more than four times that of the people living in the tobacco areas of the Chesapeake and nearly six times greater than that of the people living in the towns of New York and Philadelphia" (Greene 1987:207-208). A number of those residents owned large estates along the western branch of the Cooper River. The rise in personal wealth is closely linked to the diversified economic landscape of St. John's and was dependent upon a transportation infrastructure of both navigable rivers and roads to ensure its profitable success.

Transportation Factors

Archaeological and historical investigations, which focus on frontiers and colonial expansion, often concentrate on lands within the Piedmont or western regions of the East coast of North America. This is because of the importance given to waterborne transportation in colonial settlement (Ernst and Merrens 1973:550; Kovacik and Winberry 1989:26; Lewis 1984; Perry 1968:329; Terry 1981:07). Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne's location, thirty miles overland from the coast, is not generally considered to be the frontier. Yet, at one time Charles Town was a peripheral settlement on the leading edge of English expansion. Childsbury Towne was tied to Charles Town by a series of roads and rivers.

The lowland environment of coastal Carolina's colonial landscape was conducive to waterborne transportation. "The presence of an extensive river system in the area ... had an enormous effect upon the manner in which St. John's was initially settled" (Terry 1981:07). With the establishment of small farms and plantations throughout the colony the need arose for the exportation of finished products to England and Europe. Initially, the most expedient way to transport these products was by the extensive river system available within the lowland coastal areas of the colony.

The development of plantations affected the form and scope of the internal overland transportation network. This network is reflective of systematic development within the colony, as well as notions of linkage and continuity within the social and economic landscape (South 1988:31-43; Trigger 1989:351-355). With the establishment of dispersed settlements throughout the colony, a need arose for a means to process raw materials into a commercial form for export to markets in England and Europe. This required transporting the raw product, i.e., rice, tobacco, cotton, indigo, naval stores, and deer hides, from the field to the mill, drying shed, or processing center by waterways or roads. If shipped by waterways, then dock structures and landings had to be constructed to facilitate the loading or unloading of products before and after the milling or curing

process was completed. If not conveyed by waterway, then a system of roads had to be established (Barr 1993).

The relevance of time between these two modes of travel is best visualized by using Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne as an example. They were both approximately 30 miles by road from Charles Town (Fig. 4). According to A Gentlemen's Travels 1733-34 (Merrens 1978), it would take approximately four to six hours to travel, by horseback, between Strawberry Ferry and Charles Town (Merrens 1978:110-121). This time span is based on the journals account that these men "crossed the [Strawberry] ferry at ten ... [and] reached Mr. Katirg's [tavern] in Goose Creek (a distance of 11 miles) by noon" (Merrens 1978:112, 118). Extrapolation of this data to the approximately nineteen miles remaining between Goose Creek and Charles Town would indicate a four to six hour trip.

The distance between Strawberry Ferry and Charleston via the Cooper River is approximately sixty miles (Fig. 4). Unfortunately little documentary evidence refers to the length of time it took vessels to travel up or down river. In an effort to determine this time frame archaeological tests were conducted in October of 1993 and November of 1994 using a reproduction of a fifty-four foot long oared Petersburg cotton boat, the *Fort Augusta* (Barr 1994:81; Newell 1994:85-89; Fig. 5).

Initial tests, conducted in 1993, were on the lower section of the Savannah River. It took approximately 8.5 hours for the vessel to travel thirty miles between Ebeneezer Landing, Georgia and Fort Jackson, a 19th century military fortification, south of Savannah, Georgia. This test determined that the average speed of the *Fort Augusta* was 3.5 mph (Barr 1994:81). This test is partially biased, for on the last twenty miles of this section the vessel was towed by a motor driven craft.

The tests in 1994 were considerably more extensive. Conducted over a three day period on the upper section of the river, they covered approximately seventy-one miles. On November 3, the *Fort Augusta* traveled from just below the dam at the confluence of

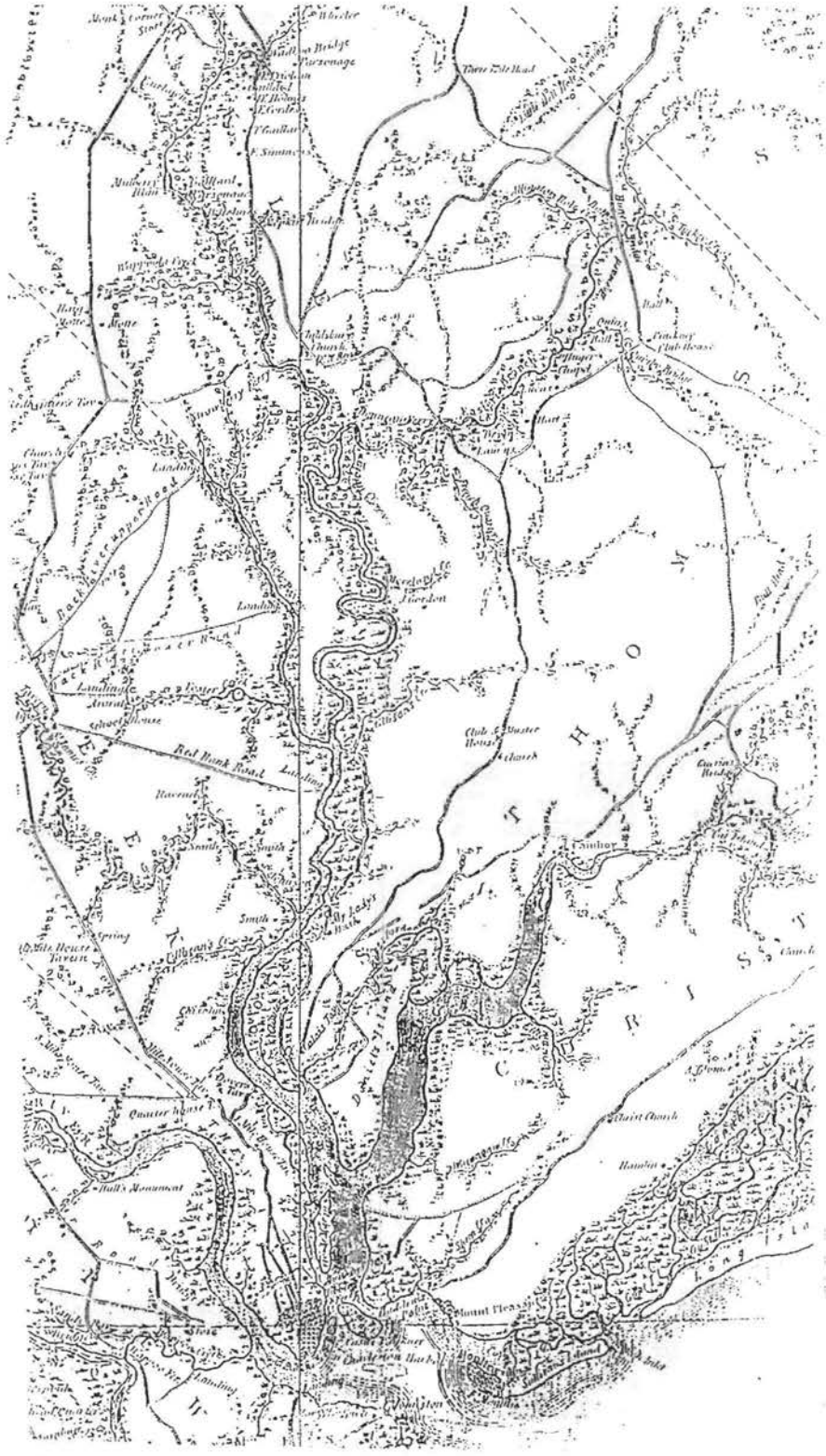

FIGURE 4. Map showing location of Childsbury Towne in relation to Charles Town.

(Mills Atlas, 1964[1825].)

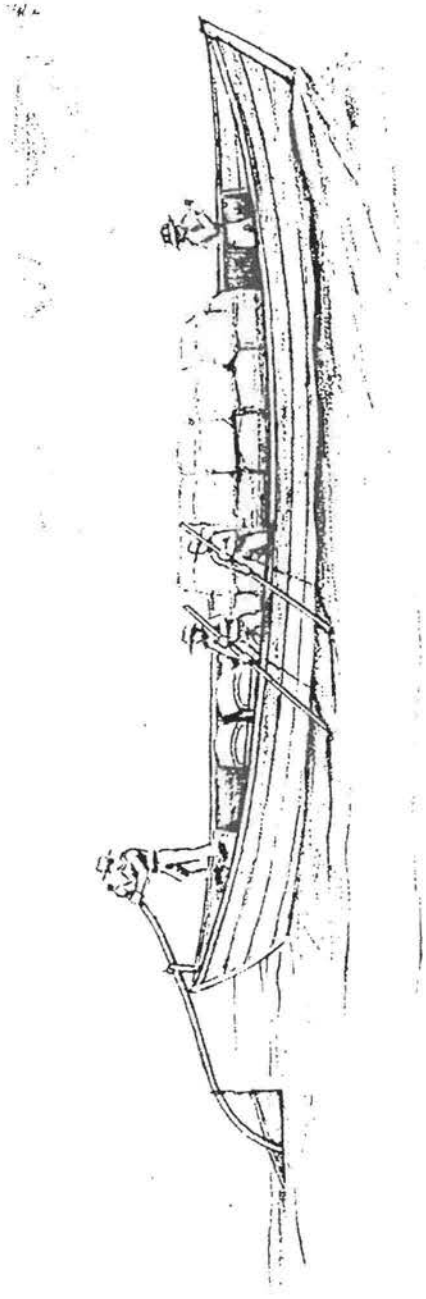

FIGURE 5. Petersburg cotton boat. (Artist Rendering.)

the Savannah River and the Augusta Canal to Hancock Landing, Georgia. The vessel covered thirty-five miles in eleven hours and averaged 3.18 mph. On November 4, the *Fort Augusta* traveled from Hancock Landing to Stoney Bluff Landing. The vessel covered approximately nineteen miles in 5.25 hours and averaged 3.61 mph. On the evening of November 4, the vessel anchored in the Savannah down river of Stoney Landing. November 5, the vessel traveled from the anchorage to Burton's Ferry, established in 1765, where the Savannah River intersects South Carolina state Highway #301. It took approximately five hours to travel the seventeen mile portion of this section of the river. The *Fort Augusta* averaged 3.40 mph.

From a series of tests conducted in 1993 and 1994, I concluded that the *Fort Augusta* averaged 3.42 mph. The rate of speed was not affected by environmental conditions, i.e., incoming or outgoing tides, on either the lower or upper sections of the river. When used in comparison to the up river data, the data from the lower section, though biased by the tow, had little affect upon the true and accurate speed of the *Fort Augusta*. The towing capability of the vessel was hampered by a fishtail effect inherent in its flat bottom design primarily because it contained no keel. The principal difference in vessel speed on various days is determined to be affected, not by winds or tides, but by daily factors related to the performance of the crew and their experience in working the vessel.

Sailing vessels may have averaged approximately the same speed along inland rivers because of geographical, meteorological, and environmental conditions. Quite often they had to be warped upriver, i.e., pulled by crew members along the banks using ropes, or towed by several rowed craft. Limited tacking room, i.e., the ability to turn the vessel to take advantage of a favorable wind, would affect the down river speed (Christopher F. Amer 1993, pers. comm.). Thus neither a sailed nor oared vessel may have had an advantage over the other along navigable streams in the lower coastal plain.

Winds and tides, crew experience, and crew performance may work to the disadvantage of both types of vessels.

The environmental landscape 30 miles upriver on the Savannah River is similar to that which extends approximately 60 miles upriver on the Cooper River; open marsh and savanna (Fig. 6). The prevailing winds of both river basins tend to blow cross channel as well as directly either up or down river. The direction is generally dependent upon the season. The topography and environment of the Cooper River allows for a more constant and steadier wind to blow in one direction or the other. As seen from the data presented, this makes little difference in the estimates for vessel speed. At an average rate of 3.42 mph it would take approximately seventeen or more hours to travel in either direction along the Cooper River from Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne to Charles Town.

The difference between riverine and overland transportation within St. John's parish is reflected through probate inventories from that parish dating from 1720 to 1790. As late as 1720 only 04% of the residents living in St. John's parish owned water craft of any type. This percentage never exceeded 17% during the entire colonial period. Terry (1981) suggests that these inventories reflect vessels of a larger burthen as opposed to vessels referred to as canoes or dugouts. Most of these larger vessels would range from 30 to 180 tons burthen, but averaged approximately 50 tons (Coker 1987:47-48; Goldenberg 1976:131-255). Ships of this burthen would correspond to ownership of these vessels by the elite.

Local entrepreneurs, who could afford to invest in large vessels to ply the river, offered space for the shipment of goods down river to Charles Town. The Colleton family, who owned Wadboo Barony, offered such a packet service. Johnathon Drake employed three schooners in the 1750s. One, advertised in the November 14, 1754, edition of the South Carolina Gazette, had the capacity to carry 120 barrels of rice (Terry 1981:203). Drake's vessel would average 21 to 36 tons burthen.

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FIGURE 6. Western branch of Cooper River. (USGS 1950.)

The same inventories indicate that during the colonial period no less than 90% of St. John's parish residents owned horses, 33% owned saddles and bridles, and 48% owned carts and wagons (Terry 1981:201). These inventories indicate that "by the 1720s travel by horseback had become the most common means of transportation in the parish" (Terry 1981:200). Terry (1981) suggests that the primary reason for the ownership of horses was economic. Horses cost less than £10 while vessels capable of carrying large amounts of cargo could cost as much as £1,400 (Rogers et al., 1974:639-642). By the 1720s the price of horses had dropped to as little as £4 to £5 (Terry 1981:200). Maintenance may have been a factor for the large amounts of horses owned within the parish.

Although river transportation never replaced overland transportation as the principal means of shipping goods to Charles Town, roads played an important role in the socio-economic development and settlement of the low country (Coclanis 1989:147) and St. John's parish. It is suggested by some archaeologists and historians that roads and their associated structures, such as ferry crossings, bridges, taverns and inns, have been generally overlooked within this developmental period (Barr 1993; Merrens 1978:138). I suggest that of these structures ferry crossings are of primary significance to socio-economic patterns found in settlement. As stated by Terry (1981),

> The planters living in the areas not adjacent to the [Cooper River] who lacked the funds to build or purchase a vessel became more dependent on the roads for transporting their goods to the Charleston market. As a result of this growing dependence on overland travel, the ferries in St. Johns were rapidly becoming a 'vital link in transportation' in the parish (Terry 1981:190)

The inherent purpose of ferry crossings is the establishment of a link for overland transportation routes across natural or constructed boundaries. In St. John's, ferries were established prior to the creation of the parish boundaries in 1706 (Terry 1981:16, 189). Strawberry Ferry was constructed across the western branch of the Cooper River in 1705 as part of an ambitious extension of the overland transportation network of the lower coastal plain (McCord 1841:6-8). At the time of the crossings construction, the Carolina colony was but thirty years old. Two other crossings were established within the parish by 1736. Bonneau's Ferry was constructed over the eastern branch of the Cooper River in 1712. Colleton's Ferry was established across the Santee River, northwest of Strawberry, in 1736 (Terry 1981:189).

Each of these crossings reflect a rapidly growing overland transportation network within the parish, and by 1737 the inland transportation infrastructure of St. John's was essentially complete (Terry 1981:187). These roads were considered to be "among the best in the colonies" (Weir 1983:158). Even though these roads were "used predominantly for travel by light carriage and horseback" (Weir 1983:158), their significance to known production areas and the socio-economic landscape of St. John's must not be overlooked. Not only did the crossings within this road network assist in the transportation of locally produced materials and agricultural products to market, they were also tied to the protection of settlements. The rapid movement of troops for the protection of the colony is related to the expressed desire by James Child for the construction of a fortification along the banks of the Cooper River at Childsbury Towne (Smith 1914:107-112). The granting of a Chapel of Ease at Childsbury Towne, Strawberry Chapel, reflects a social need for the establishment of a convenient overland transportation for the parish's residents. Over 82% of the residents in St. John's were 12 to 30 miles distance from the parish church at Biggin and the Chapel of Ease at Childsbury Towne (Terry 1981:241). These crossings also reflect an entrepreneurial

belief that a profit could be made through control of major intersections where these roads and rivers crossed (Barr 1994:82; Terry 1981:190).

The establishment and construction of an overland transportation infrastructure was as vital to frontier development as the rivers were during initial settlement (Lewis 1984:157-159). Prior to these road systems, and their accompanying ferry crossings and bridges, rivers may have hindered social and economic development. Military requirements, economic access to markets, inter-colony and intra-colony communication, social interaction, and religious activity were all facilitated by the establishment of these inter-connecting links within the community. The development of a transportation network in St. John's parish was instrumental to the social and economic landscape of power and control that developed within this area of South Carolina.

Although ferry crossings are referred to in archaeological studies and historical literature, few of these sources describe their long term socio-economic relationship within the settlement process (Beard 1993; Cropper 1977; McCann 1981; McCord 1841; Mills 1964[1825]; Neuffer 1958, 1963, 1967, 1968; Newell n.d.; Nylund 1989; Walker and Abernathie 1787). Some archaeological investigations of ferry crossings have been conducted in response to vandalism, bridge construction, and related small craft research (Newell n.d.; Watts and Hall 1986). Others have been cursory reconnaissance surveys to note their existence upon the banks of South Carolina's rivers and bays (Beard 1993:62-63). A few of these studies have suggested the need for research related to the major components that make up these sites (Beard 1993; Newell, n.d.).

Ferry crossings contain a number of components: (1) Terrestrial features, i. e., taverns, inns, barns, stables, landing equipment, associated infrastructure and possible urban development, (2) submerged features, i.e., ferry craft and artifacts associated with the operation of the ferry craft, and (3) the landing itself, considered to be a separate yet connecting link between the terrestrial and submerged areas, and its associated artifacts. Each of these parts are integral to the study of ferry crossings. They reflect the socio-

economic function of transportation systems within settlement patterns in South Carolina. Theoretical concerns developed using landscape and settlement theories provide a useful model for their investigation.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in the recovery of archaeological data from Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne was consistent with problems associated with an archaeological site that contains multiple environments. The integration of this data allows a holistic understanding of overall site context and associated socio-economic aspects related to the inter-connected and multiple communal use of the town and ferry crossing. The make up of the people that lived there, as well as temporal and spatial factors related to Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne's place in regional settlement patterns is also determined from this methodology.

A map of Childsbury Towne, drawn by founder James Child in 1707 (Fig. 7, 8), and a land survey conducted by John Diamond in 1811 (Fig. 9), was extensively studied to determine lot size and the overall spatial relationship between the two existing key structures, Strawberry Ferry and Strawberry Chapel. The proposed size of Childsbury Towne was determined by a comparison of the Child map and a historic land indenture that described individual lot size (Smith 1914; South Carolina Historical Society, Elias Ball Muniments, 33-83-2-5; Appendix I, Fig. 7). Information from this indenture was synthesized and extrapolated to form an accurate drawing of the settlements physical layout.

Grid.

The establishment of the site grid was based on a number of factors relevant to the project. Site size, a lack of archaeological and historical documentation concerning the

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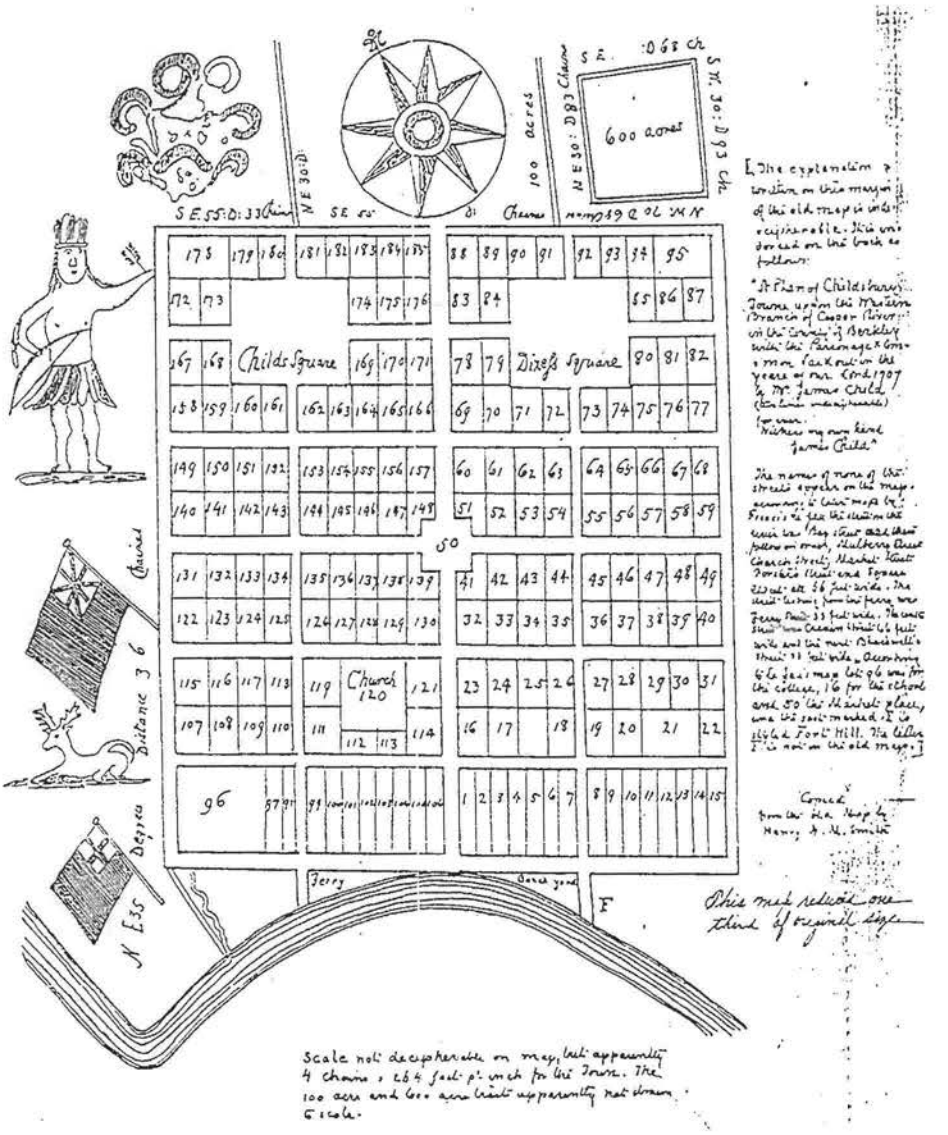

FIGURE 7. Plat map of Childsbury Towne. (By James Child, 1707.)

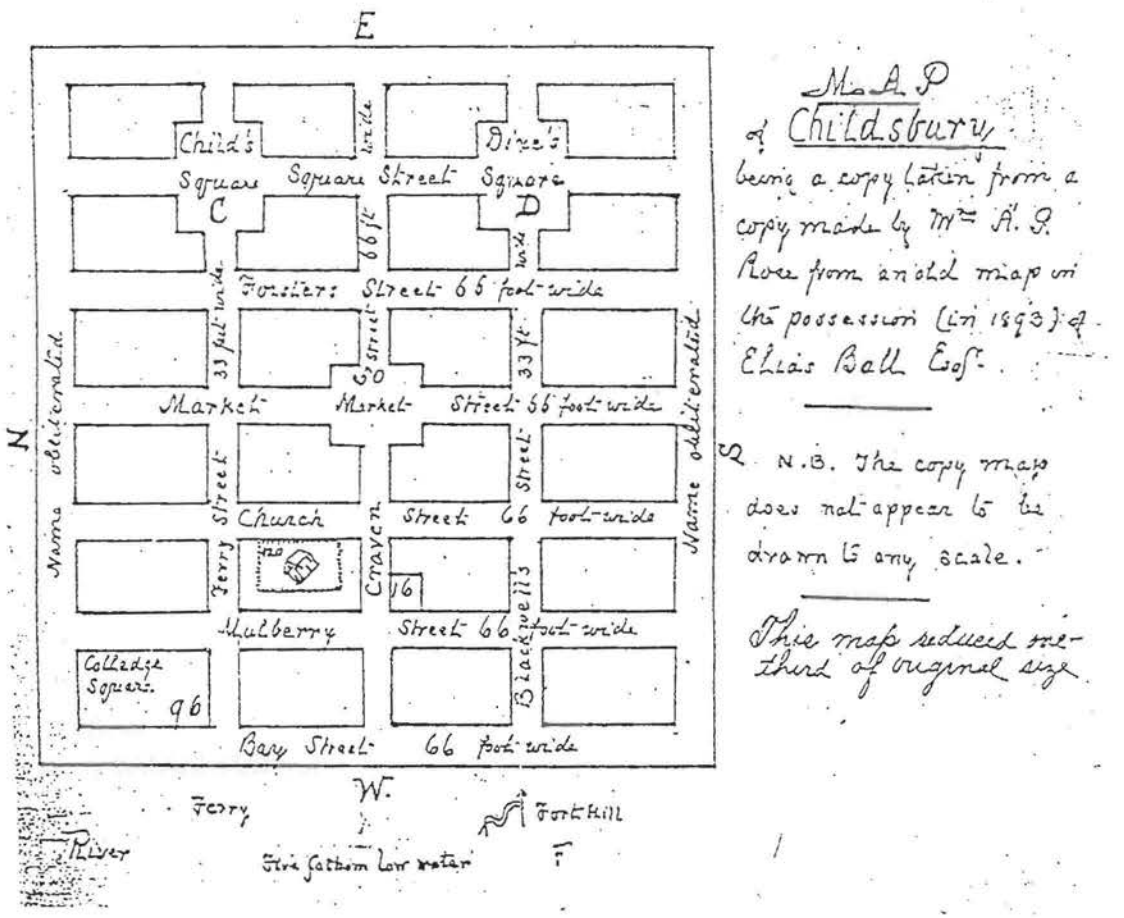

FIGURE 8. Addendum to plat map of Childsbury Towne. (By James Child, 1707.)

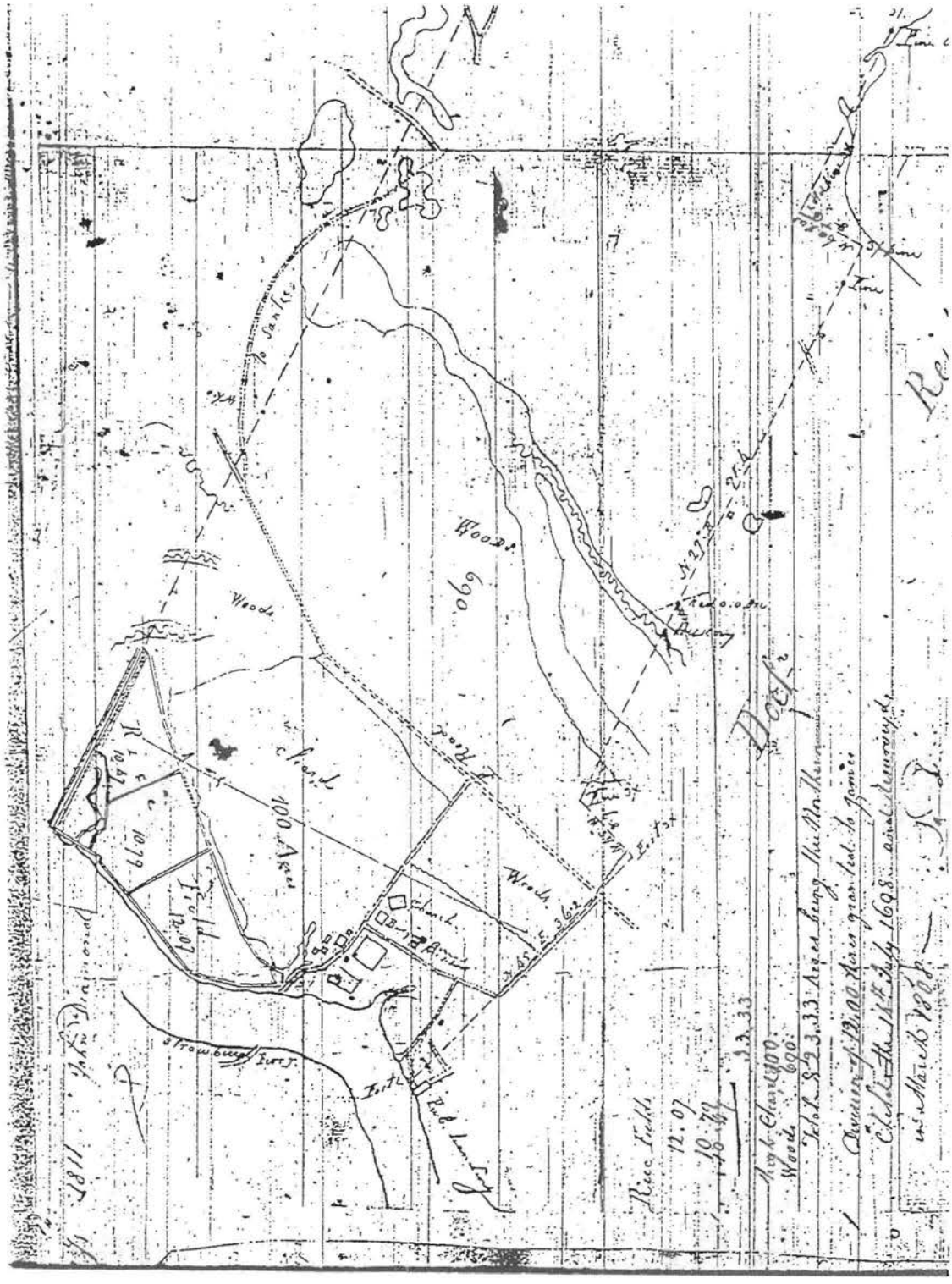

FIGURE 9. Plat map of Strawberry Plantation. (By John Diamond, 1811.)

extent of structures constructed within the southwestern quadrant of the town, site accessibility, personal time constraints, and potentially adverse impacts from current development, were all considerations. No formal archaeological investigations have ever taken place within Childsbury Towne.

On the original plat, Childsbury Towne consisted of 24 blocks that covered approximately 100 acres (Fig. 7). Laid out in rectangular blocks, similar to planned towns found in England, the eastern 12 blocks were an overlay image of the western 12 blocks. Each half of the town contains six blocks, running north-south, 100m x 140m and six blocks, running east-west 100m x 175m. Divided into four quarters, each quadrant contains six blocks, three running north-south and two running east-west (Fig. 10).

The ownership of certain lots within the northeastern and southeastern quadrants is historically documented through wills and indentures (Moore and Simmons 1960:65-66, 203; Rogers et al., 1974:592, 597-598; Smith 1914; South Carolina Historical Society, Elias Ball Muniments, 33-83-2-5). Presently the northeastern quadrant of the Child plat map is heavily forested in low swampy ground. The southeastern quadrant is open pasture. The river bluff section of this quadrant contains a fish camp with a number of modern structures.

From a review of historical documents pertaining to Childsbury Towne, none have been found showing that private or commercial structures ever existed in the northwestern quadrant of the town. The northwestern quadrant is heavily wooded with dense undergrowth and divided by South Carolina state Highway #402, locally known as "Comingtee Road." The southwestern quadrant is covered in grass with sporadic windrows of felled trees resulting from cleanup operations in October of 1989 after hurricane Hugo (Plate 1).

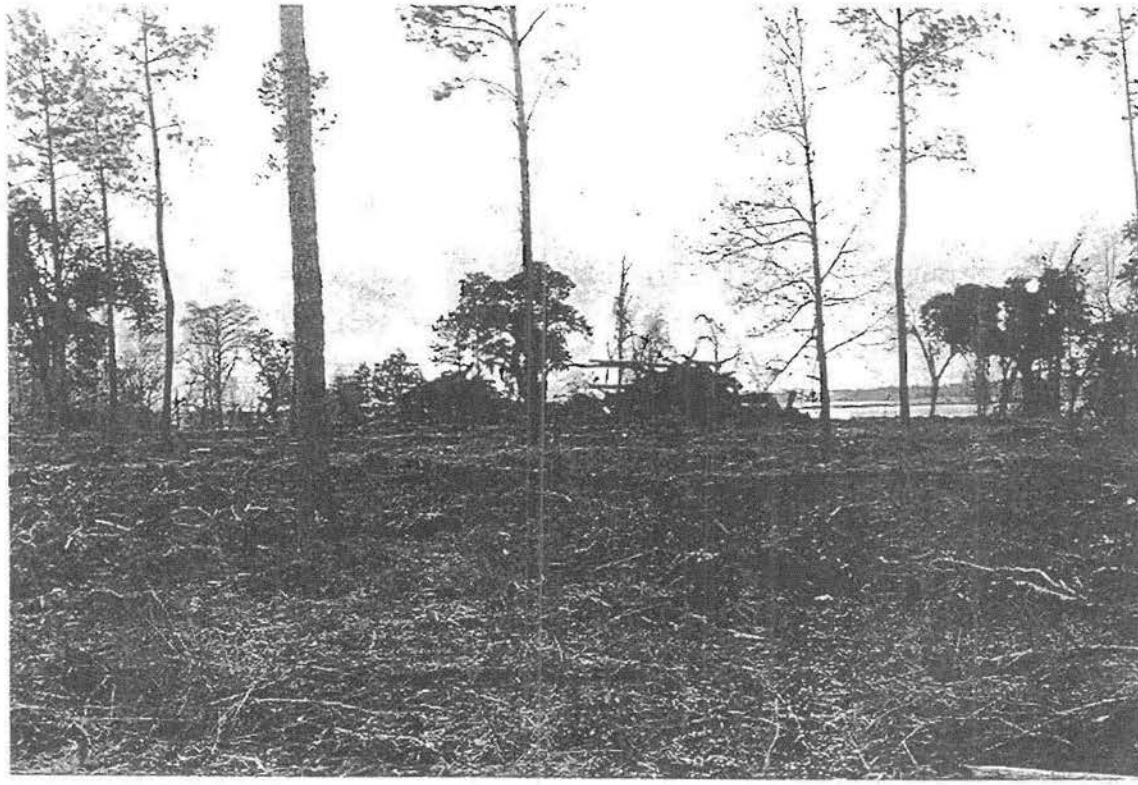

PLATE 1. Landscape of present-day Childsbury Towne

The southwestern quadrant was chosen for the focus of these investigations for a number of reasons. The southwestern quadrant covers approximately 25 acres (Fig. 10). This size was compatible with the limited time-frame allotted for the survey. The lack of historical documentation related to the southwestern quadrant of the town increased its archaeological potential for additional information concerning studies of colonial low country settlement. It contains the only extant key structures within the original town of Childsbury; Strawberry Chapel and the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry. The remains of the tavern and inn, historically known to have been associated with the ferry crossing, would possibly be present.

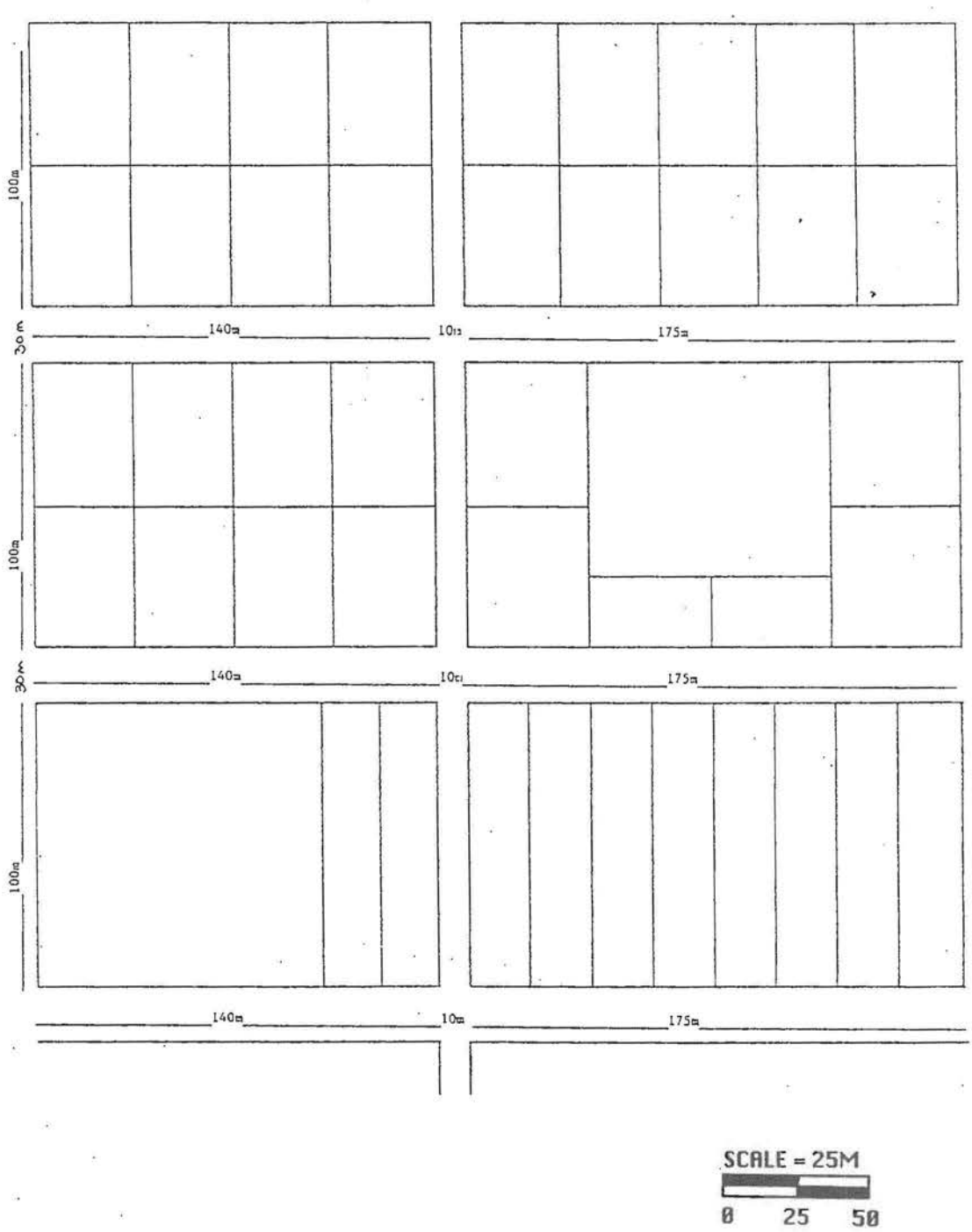

FIGURE 10. Map of southwestern quadrant, Childsbury Towne.

The southwestern quadrant was sub-divided into four alphabetically designated sections (Fig. 11). Heavy flora and a slightly rolling topography required the establishment of the main base line along a cleared power line right-of-way south of Strawberry Chapel. The bluff edge was used as a marker for the extent of collection because of a lack of knowledge concerning geographical changes, due to erosion, slumpage, or fill along the bluff. The distance from the Chapel to the ferry landing was unknown.

The main datum was designated "A." All subsequent points were derived alphabetically and in the sequential order of their placement. All additional points were placed at 90 degree angles from the main base line and followed the previous alphabetical designation related to the time of placement. The main datum line ran northwest to southwest and a second line was established, at a 60m interval, northeast of and parallel to the main base line . This expanded the grid to encompass the two block sections between Mulberry Street and Church Street and the two block section between Church Street and Market Street (Fig. 8, 11). No parallel lines were established southwest of the main datum line between Mulberry Street and Bay Street because of unknown factors related to topographical irregularities along the bluff that fronted the river, the width of Bay Street, reported to be 30m wide, and the actual distance between Bay Street and the ferry landing.

Survey

The terrestrial portion of the project-area was subjected to an intensive visual survey. This survey defined those areas in the southwestern quadrant considered to have the highest and lowest probability of artifact concentrations. The establishment of the main datum line, parallel lines, and their subsequent 90 degree turns allowed the layout of a 10m x 10m grid over the southwestern quadrant (Fig. 12). This grid included both the

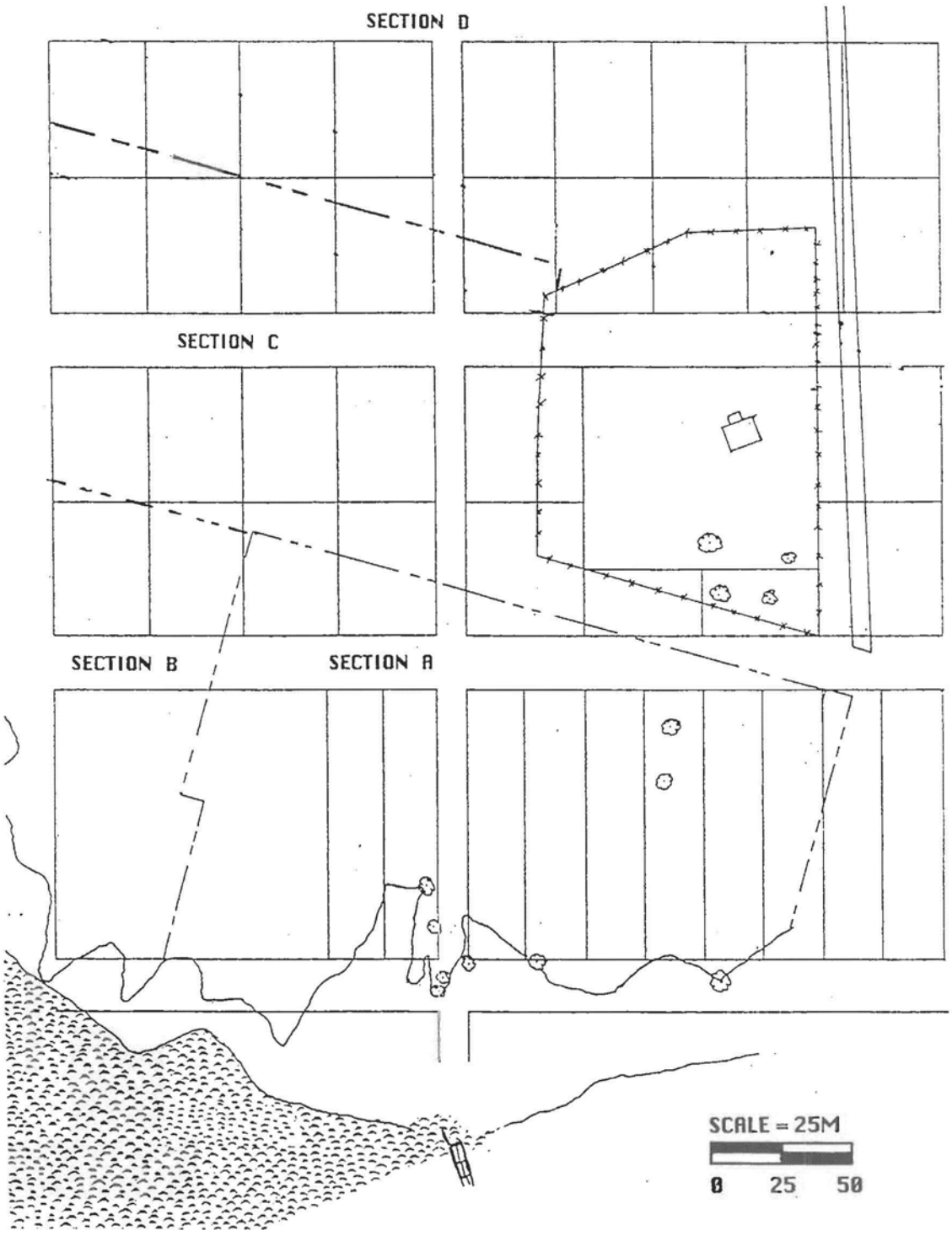

FIGURE 11. Sectional map for survey of southwestern quadrant, Childsbury Towne.

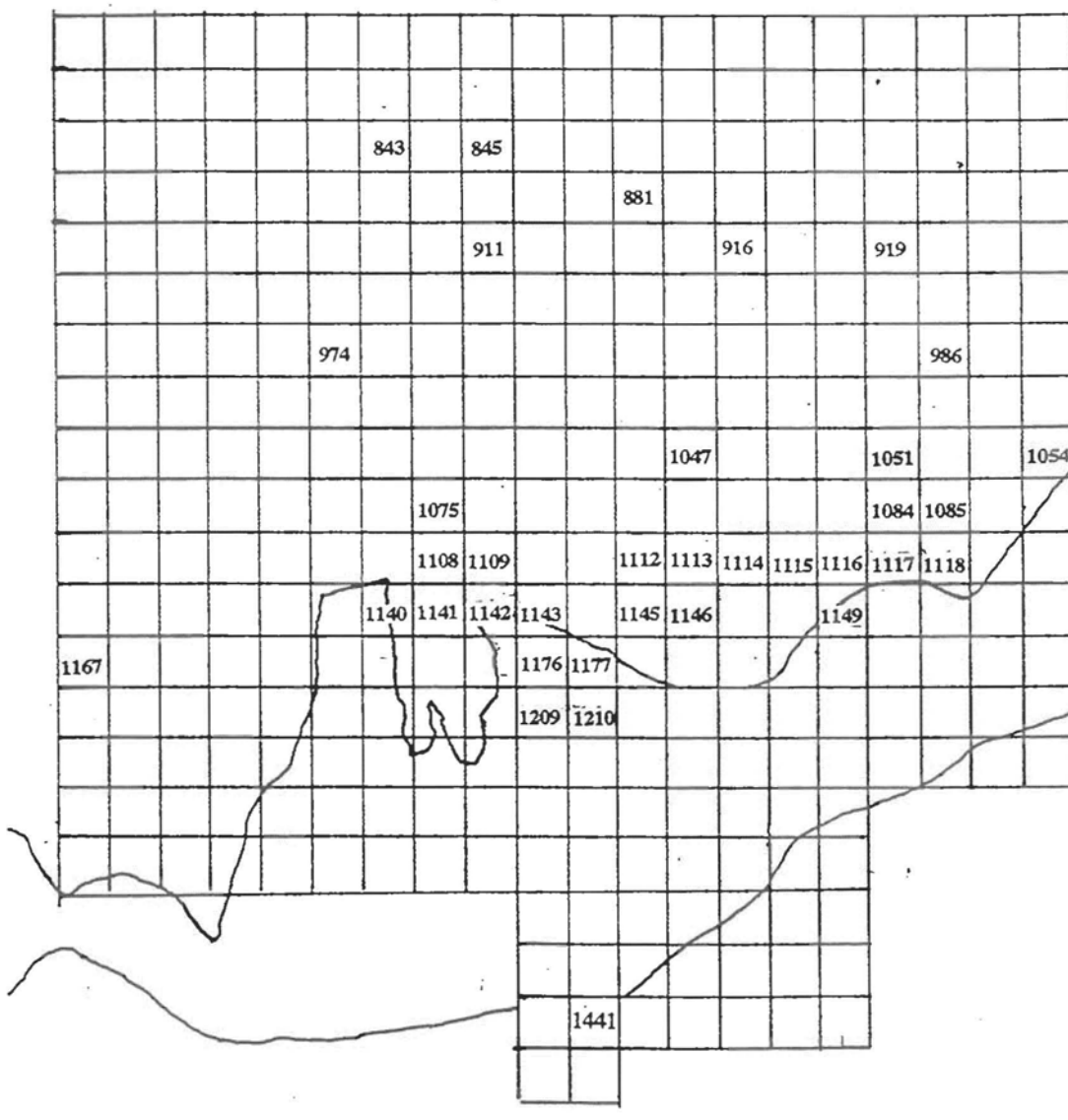

FIGURE 12. Grid squares for survey in southwestern quadrant of Childsbury Towne.

terrestrial and submerged areas of the site. Sequential numerical designations were assigned, west to east, to each of the grid squares.

An intensive, site inclusive, 20cm x 20cm shovel test in the northwest corner of each 10m x 10m grid square was selected as the strategy for the location and recovery of sub-surface artifacts. Due to late 20th century landscaping, begun by the present owner with a bulldozer and track hoe shortly after the survey was initiated, the original methodology was revised (Plate 2).

PLATE 2. Back hoe operations at present-day Childsbury Towne.

Time restraints, related to the newly emerging topographical aspects of the site, coupled with the size of the site, 25 acres, suggested the use of a simple random sample of shovel tests as the most expedient manner in which to recover data from the site.

A simple random sample requires a designated number of overall units within the sampling frame. This determines the actual number of random units to be assigned and tested (Bernard 1988:84-85). The smaller the overall number of units within the sampling frame the easier it is to determine the random sample (Bernard 1988:83-85). The numbers were assigned in a random order as defined by the tables in H. Russell Bernard's *Research Methods in Cultural Anthropology* (Bernard 1988:460-462). A 25% simple random sample was taken from the highest probability areas, as delineated from the visual survey, in an effort to locate possible structural remains. A 05% sample was taken from those areas containing the least amount of probability.

Unit Provenience

Artifacts recovered from each of the 10m x 10m squares were designated as coming from either surface recovery finds (SF) or shovel tests (ST). Artifacts from surface finds constituted the majority recovered but, came from the smallest overall area of the site (Fig. 12). They are designated as SF#1, SF#2, SF#3, etc., depending upon the grid square in which they were recovered (Appendix II). Shovel tests, which constituted the smallest number of artifacts recovered, came from the largest area of the site (Fig. 13). These finds are designated as ST#1, ST#2, ST#3, etc. (Appendix III).

Surface Finds

Observations determined that surface find locations were impacted by bulldozer and track hoe operations during the late 20th century. Physical evidence, such as the impressions of the machines tracks, fresh breaks in the ceramic and glass assemblage, and

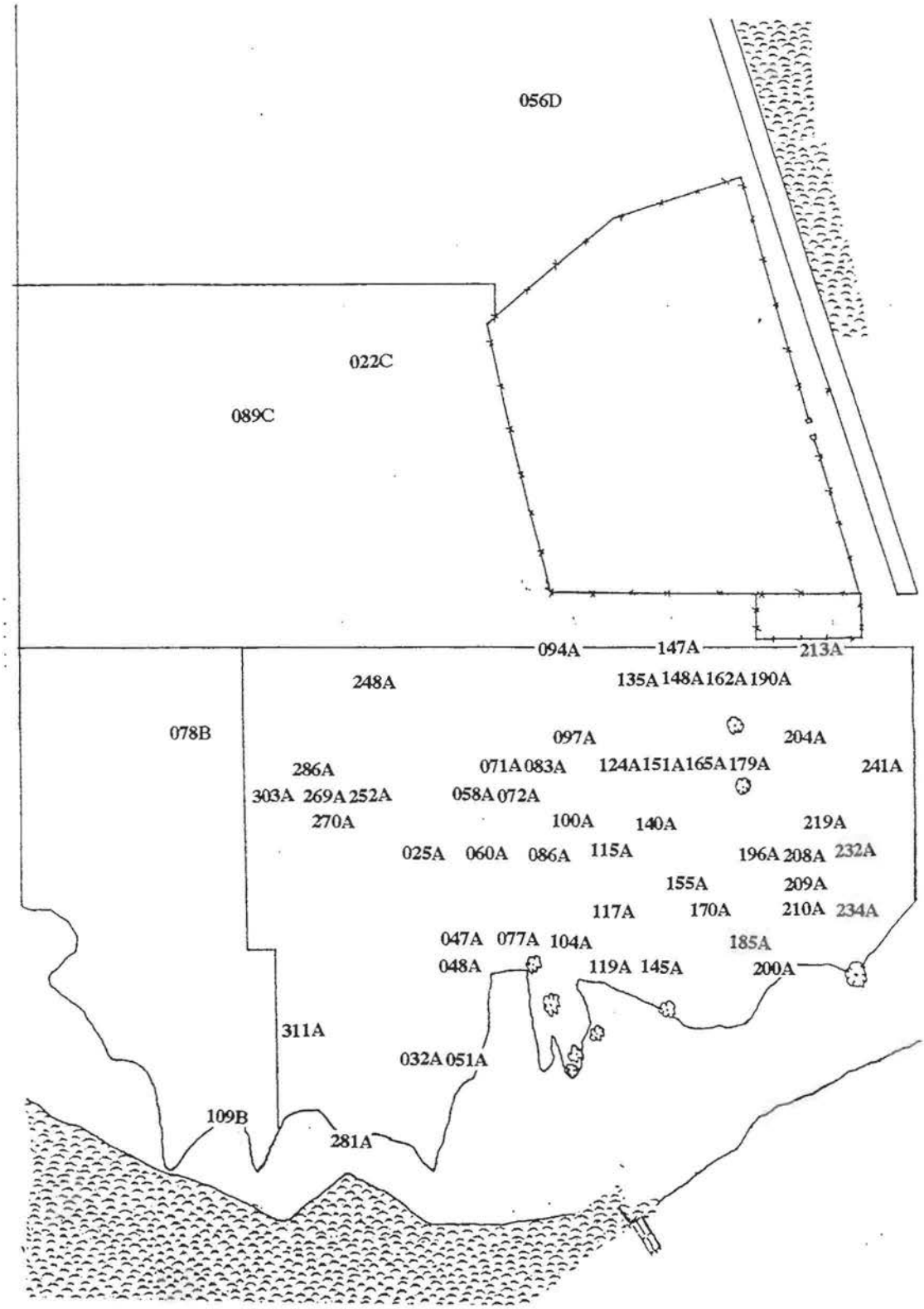

FIGURE 13. Positive shovel tests in southwestern quadrant, Childsbury Towne.

the centralized location of most of these artifacts along the bluff edge, confirms this problem. Many artifacts within 10m to 30m of the bluff edge were exposed from these operations. Statistics were run to determine the extent of artifacts along the bluff and their relationship to the site as well as other features. These determined that 05% of the shovel tests were located within 10m to 30m of the bluff, whereas 66% of surface finds fell within this area. This would suggest that a majority of the surface finds along the bluff edge were pushed there. According to Diamond's (1811) survey, they may be related to the proximity of buildings found along the bluff edge. The majority of data from surface finds was used sparingly in the analysis of the overall site, in general, and in particularly, with features found there.

Surface artifacts were collected within each grid square when present. Each grid square contained at least one artifact. Surface features, when ascertained, were sequentially numbered upon discovery and their location and size plotted on the overall site map (Fig. 14). Features were designated as such if they contained extensive amounts of artifacts in association with substantial brick scatters.

Shovel Tests

All shovel tests were taken from the northwestern corner of each 10m x 10m grid square. All soils, including sod were screened and artifacts collected except within modern features, such as gravel roads. All shovel tests were made using a standard "D" handle shovel and were approximately 20cm x 20cm square. Shovel tests ranged from 20cm to 55cm in depth. Variations in depth depended upon the presence of sterile yellow sand or red clay. All materials were screened through 1/4-inch hardware cloth.

Recording

A separate record was maintained for the surface collections and artifacts from the shovel tests (Appendix II, III). Surface collections and artifacts recovered from shovel

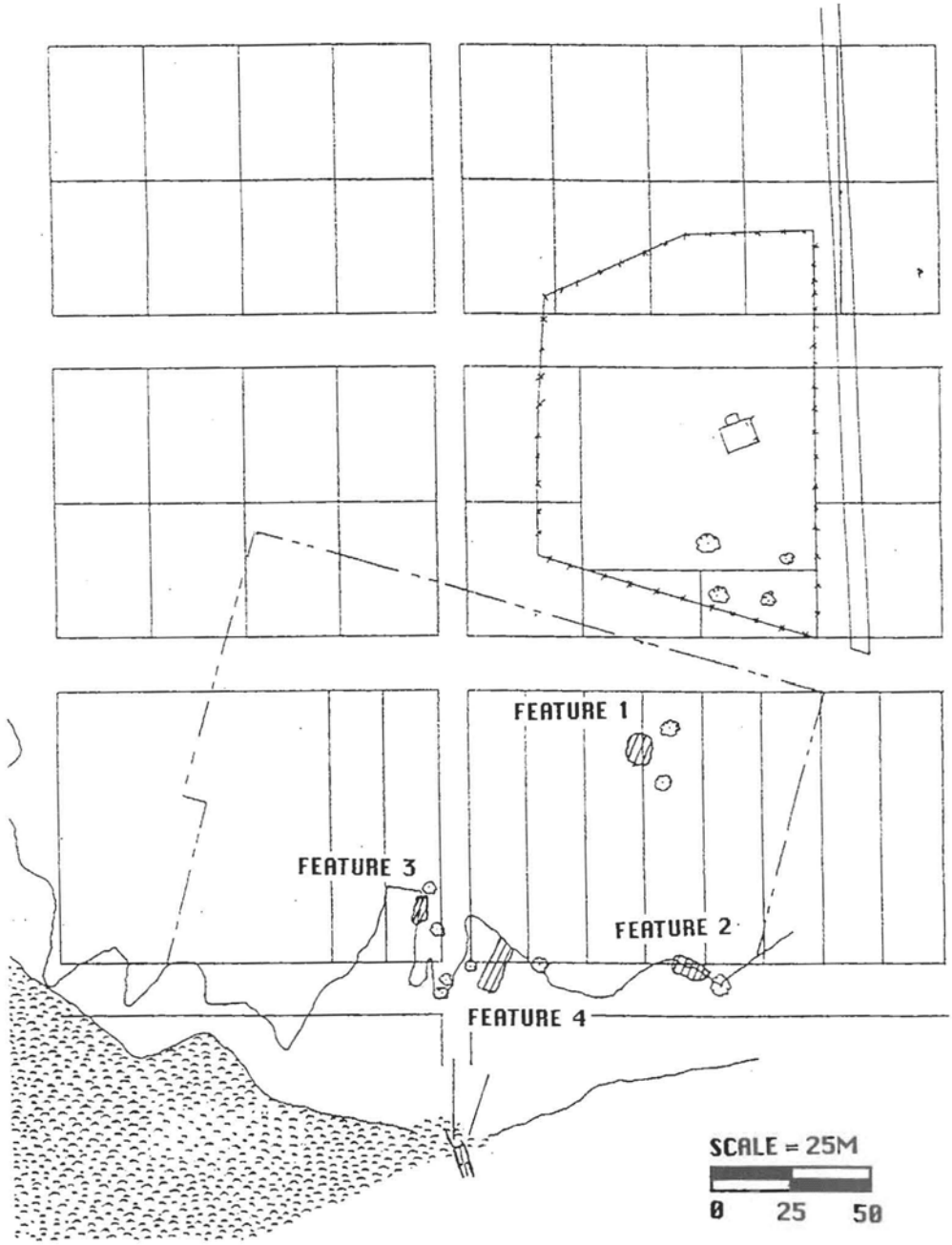

FIGURE 14. Distribution of brick features. (From surface finds.)

tests were bagged and labeled with the designated number assigned to the grid square or test pit hole in which they were found. Each was recorded in a field book at the time of collection. These data included surface square or test pit number, overall depth, and soil conditions. Artifacts from the two collections were used as comparative data in the final analysis.

Surface finds and shovel test locations were transferred from the field book to a master site map prepared in the field. Locations of extant key structures, i. e., Strawberry Chapel, the landings for Strawberry Ferry, and other features were also recorded in the field on the master site map. Comparisons of the spatial arrangement between the map and the physical locations of structures and features were confirmed, daily, on site. Detailed drawings, such as test pit stratigraphy and details of the landing's construction, were completed in the lab from data recorded in the field.

Analysis

Artifacts were washed (metallic materials were brushed) and re-bagged in the lab in preparation for cataloging and labeling. Cataloging was done according to standards set by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology curation department. Intensive analysis was conducted on all artifacts recovered. Ceramics were identified through use of artifact collections located at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology and the University of South Carolina Department of Anthropology. Dating of the ceramic collection was through the use of tables established by Ivor Noel-Hume (1969) and revisions to that table made by Leland Ferguson (1977) and Stanley South (1993). The plain and decorated unglazed earthenware was analyzed with the assistance of Chester DePratter and Leland Ferguson and other studies (Anderson 1975; DePratter et al., 1973; Ferguson 1992). Upon completion of analysis and this thesis, all artifacts will be retained by the Berkeley County Museum in Monck's Corner, South Carolina per request of the present property owner, Mr. John Cumbie.

Underwater Methodology

The same methodology for conducting studies on the terrestrial portion of the site was used on the submerged areas. This involved the same grid system and the same proveniencing for surface finds. Shovel testing was slightly modified being that the landings are only 2.5m wide. A general review of the work conducted on the underwater portions follows.

A non-intrusive physical survey of the northeastern and southwestern landings was conducted for this thesis. The southwestern landing is considerably deteriorated. Erosion from fluvial action and boat wakes has destroyed a majority of the landing, eroding much of its structure. Studies of the inner construction were conducted using Self Contained Underwater Breathing Apparatus (SCUBA).

During investigations portions of the northeastern and southwestern landings were mapped and drawn in situ. On the northeastern landing, provenience was controlled through the establishment of a temporary 2m grid over both the terrestrial and submerged areas of the site. This temporary grid was incorporated into the overall site grid. Construction details of the northeastern landing were mapped and photographed. The photos were arraigned into a montage form and used as a reference guide and base for comparison with the field drawings. Both of these data sets were of importance to, and useful for, an accurate portrayal of the landing in plan form.

The concurrent use of field drawings, photographic montages, and field notes was essential for the incorporation of various aspects from all three sets of information. This allowed corrections and adjustments to be made, thus enhancing interpretation of the site. Data from the archaeological survey of the northeastern landing was used to map the full extent of the landing.

Four test pits were excavated at random locations along the length of the northeastern landing to delineate the overall extent of the structure. The pits were designed to gather information concerning the landings construction and to acquire

artifactual data. All test pits were negative except for bricks used in the structures construction. All diagnostic artifacts recovered from surface finds were retained for evaluation and conservation.

Underwater surveys were also conducted in grid squares on either side of the northeastern and southwestern landings. No artifacts were found or recovered during these surveys. Features discovered in these surveys were recorded and transferred to the master site map.

Summary

Primarily because of the extensive ravages of salvage divers in the late 1970s and 1980s, no artifacts were found or recovered from the underwater portion of the study area. The lack of artifacts within the underwater section suggested that collections retained by the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, be consulted. These artifacts were recovered from investigations conducted by the Underwater Archaeology Division in the 1970s and 1980s. These collections contain colonial period European ceramics and various types of pre-historic artifacts and Colono Wares. The artifacts studied were recovered within a three mile area up and down river of Strawberry Ferry. I felt that comparisons of these underwater collections, to those obtained through terrestrial investigations of Childsbury Towne, would enhance conclusions concerning the socio-economic status of Childsbury's residents.

Few artifacts remain in these collections. This may be because of the propensity of underwater salvors to either not report their finds or, when they are reported, the lack of accurate proveniencing associated with them. Problems related to their recovery and recording has eliminated there use in this thesis except to say that at one time there were a great number of artifacts associated within the riverine environment of the Cooper River near Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne (Harris 1993:6-9).

Both the terrestrial and underwater areas of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne have been ravaged by salvors and local collectors over the years. Most, if not all of these artifacts, are in personal collections that range from South Carolina to the state of Washington (Kevin Rooney, 1994 pers. comm.). This problem is on going and even affected the course of this investigation. To discourage this practice and their impacts, a base camp was maintained on site during archaeological investigations.

Recommendations

Childsbury Towne is one of the very few locations where a low country colonial settlement may be found in good condition. Many, like Ashley Ferry Town, have been incorporated into modern suburbs (Barr 1995). Others have been used for agricultural purposes. In this way, Childsbury Towne is unique. Although the site has been impacted by late 20th century landscaping, there is no archaeological evidence of the southwestern quadrant of the town ever suffering either of the two above fates.

Much like Childsbury Towne, Strawberry Ferry is also unique. Very few colonial low country ferry landings that do exist are in good condition. Prior to this work there has been no intensive investigation of their physical structure. The southwestern landing of this crossing is in much the same condition as most ferry landings within the low country, but the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry is in excellent condition. Because of this, it is in the best interest of the state, through the cooperation of the land owner, to preserve this landing. To do this, techniques to stabilize and preserve the site, similar to those used in the protection and preservation of a historic working class vessel found in the banks of the Ashley River (Amer et. al., 1993), have been suggested to the present land owner. This process involves the use of a geo-web placed over the entire site. The site would then be covered with numerous layers of sandbags to hold the geo-web in place. Natural soil from the area should be placed over and around the sandbags and local spartina grass planted to assure the continued integrity of the landing. This will

aid in the protection of the landing from future adverse impacts from environmental and possible human factors.

CHAPTER FIVE

STRAWBERRY FERRY

(38BK1723)

Historical Background

In response to a request from the inhabitants of St. John's parish Strawberry Ferry was established by Statue #246 through the provincial legislature in 1705 (McCord 1841:6-8). Its vestment was considered by the assembly because of "the want of convenient ferries and roads upon all occasions, hath as much prevented the uniting of her Majesties forces in the defense of this colony" (McCord 1841:6). Construction was approved by "his Excellency John Lord Granville . . . and the rest of the true and absolute Lords Proprietors of this province, by and with the advice and consent of the rest of the members of the General Assembly" (McCord 1841:6). This crossing was the second registered ferry within the colony.

The construction of Strawberry Ferry is tied to the development of a local elite social network, consolidated through inter-marriage, economic expectations based on financial speculation, and the expansion of colonial transportation infrastructures based on social and economic needs. Each of these factors was considered by the residents of the western branch of the Cooper River when they undertook the responsibility of underwriting its construction. As such, the ferry is representative of communal co-operation and the consolidation of social and economic power within a local frontier settlement context.

At the time of the crossing's construction the Carolina colony was only 25 years old. St. John's parish, Berkeley county, had been established a short seven years prior to

its construction. Charles Town, still hiding from the interior behind its medieval moat and wall, was slowly developing into an established Atlantic port town (Coclanis 1989:4). As such it became a starting point for further exploration and settlement (Lewis 1984).

Bound by economic weakness and fears of the unknown (Coclanis 1989:5), initial colonization was slow to move beyond its Charles Town fetters. Tentatively, dispersed settlements were established on the islands protecting Charles Town's harbor. Grants for land along the Ashley, Wando, and Cooper Rivers were parceled out as favors to those first settlers and other elite backers of the Carolina venture (Salley 1973[1910-1915]:150, 203, 233, 236). Men of vision and wealth saw opportunity for social and economic advancement in these wilderness lands.

In the late 18th century the frontier began to expand north towards the inland reaches of the Congaree, Santee, and Pee Dee Rivers (Amer et al., 1995; Lewis 1984; Weir 1983). Initiated by economic concerns, centralized areas containing dispersed settlements began to appear along Indian trade routes and rivers north of Charles Town. Eventually, nucleated settlements and frontier towns were established to serve the social and economic needs of these dispersed settlements that dotted the regional landscape.

Strawberry Ferry's location on the expanding frontier is representative of the role ferry crossings played within settlement. The northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry is referred to, historically, as Strawberry Landing. This designation is probably confused with the public landing, located in the southeastern quadrant of Childsbury Towne, which functioned as a loading place for supplies and goods shipped in and out of the area by waterborne transportation (Diamond 1811; Rogers et al., 1974:669; See page 52, Fig. 9).

Although the road to Charles Town, through Goose Creek, was constructed at the same time as the ferry in 1705, there is little early cartographic evidence of its existence (McCord 1841:7). The Edward Crisp map of 1711 (Fig. 15) does not show the ferry crossing or the road and causeway leading to it (Cumming 1962). The William DeBrahm

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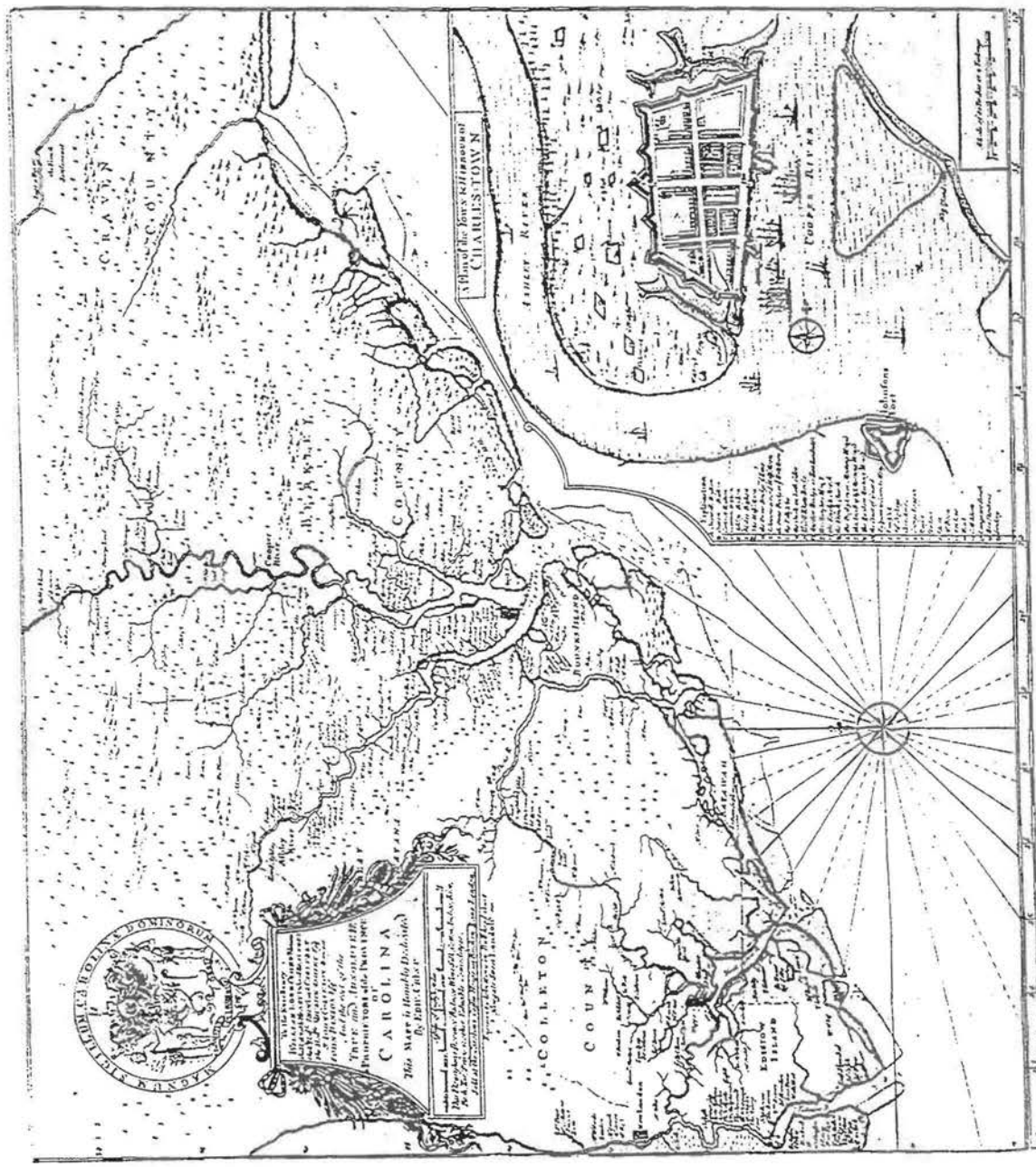

FIGURE. 15. "A Compleat Description of the Province of Carolina."

(By Edward Crisp, 1711.)

map (Fig. 16), dated October 20, 1756, does show a road through Goose Creek however, this road extends only a short distance north between Goose Creek and the Cooper River. Kinloch's Ferry is present, at its known location crossing the Santee River, with a partial road drawn south of the ferry heading toward the "Tee" of the Cooper River. Documentation from 1733 confirms the physical existence of the road between Charles Town, Goose Creek, Strawberry Ferry, and Kinloch's Ferry (Merrens 1978:110-121).

The map by John A. Collet (1770; Fig. 17) does not extend as far south as the Cooper River area, ending just below the Santee River (Cumming 1962). By this time Kinloch's Ferry had been renamed Nelson's Ferry. This probably indicates a change in ownership (Barr 1993). On this map there are no roads south of the Santee River, but the road north to Charlottsburgh is noted as the "Road to Charles Town" (Cumming 1962). The Henry Mouzon map of 1776 (Fig. 18) updated the 1773 map of James Cook (Cumming 1962:102). The Mouzon (1776) and Cook (1773) maps are the first to show an established road leading from Charles Town to Strawberry Ferry on the Cooper River. Strawberry Ferry, Strawberry Chapel, and Childsbury Towne are all shown on this map. North of Strawberry Plantation the road circumvents the Hell Hole Swamp and continues toward Kingstree, crossing the Santee River at Lenud's Ferry, the same as Kinloch's and Nelson's. Mouzon's (1776) map, shows the Georgetown Road as being a viable coastal land link north by this time.

Detailed information of the road leading to Strawberry Ferry from Goose Creek is presented in *A Specimen of an Intended Traveling Map of the Roads of South Carolina* published by Walker and Abernathie in 1787 (Fig. 19). This map shows Strawberry Ferry and the causeway that was constructed over the freshwater marsh between the high ground north of Goose Creek and the southwestern landing of Strawberry Ferry. Walker and Abernathie (1787) are the first cartographers to provide detailed evidence that the road and causeway actually existed.

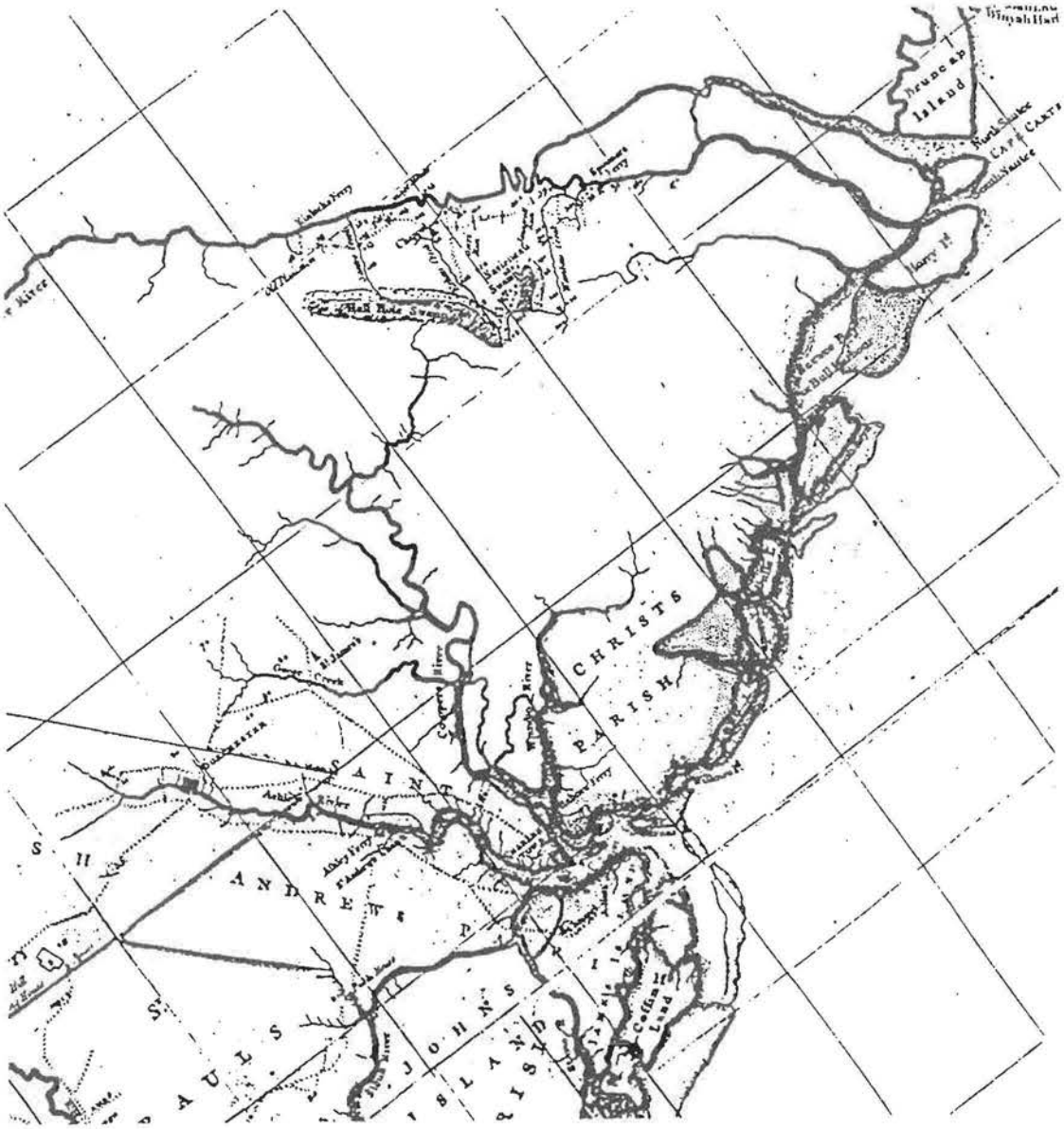

FIGURE 16. "Map of the Colonies." (By William DeBrahm, 1756.)

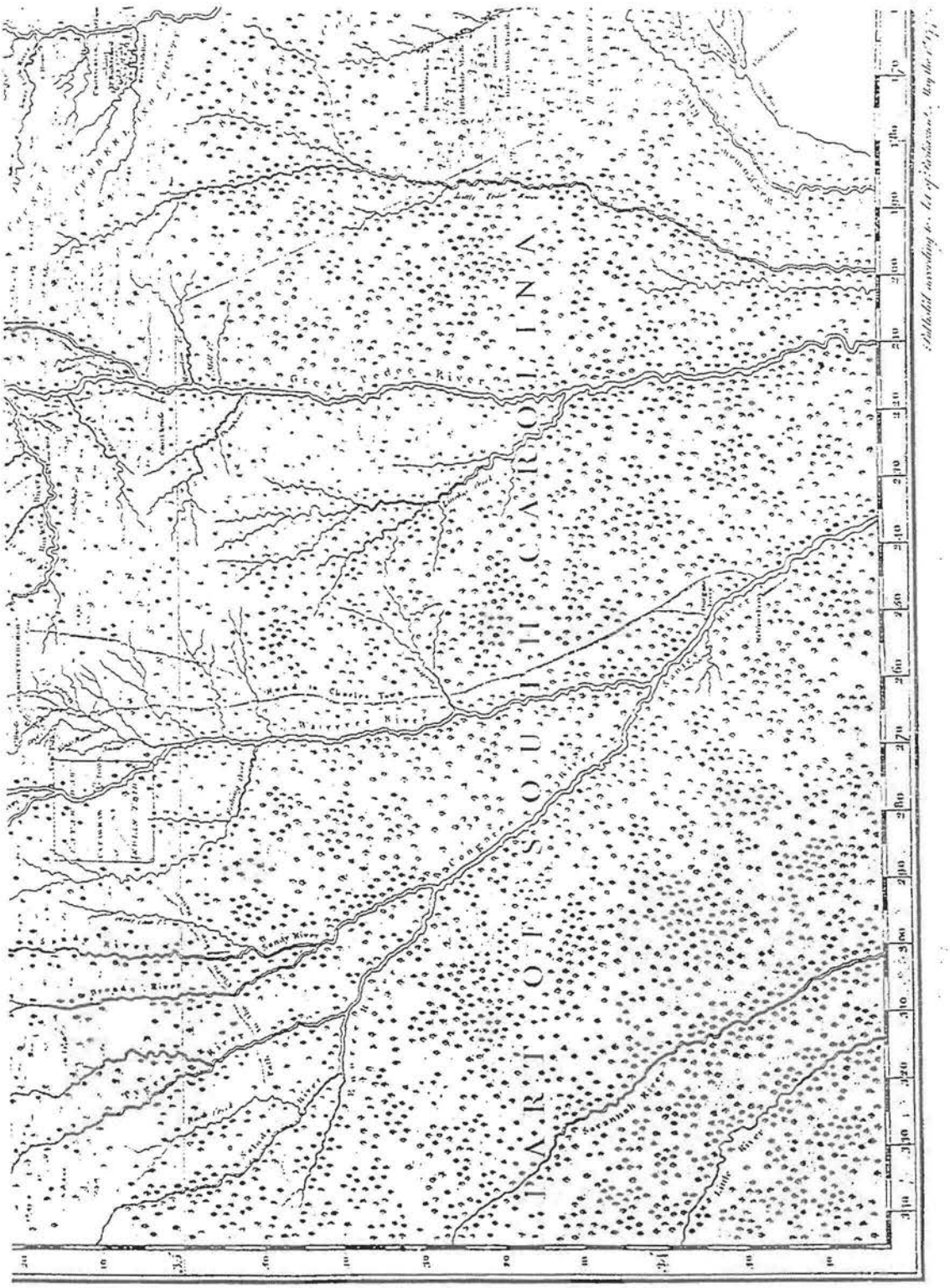

FIGURE 17. "A Compleat Map of North Carolina." (By John Collet, 1770.)

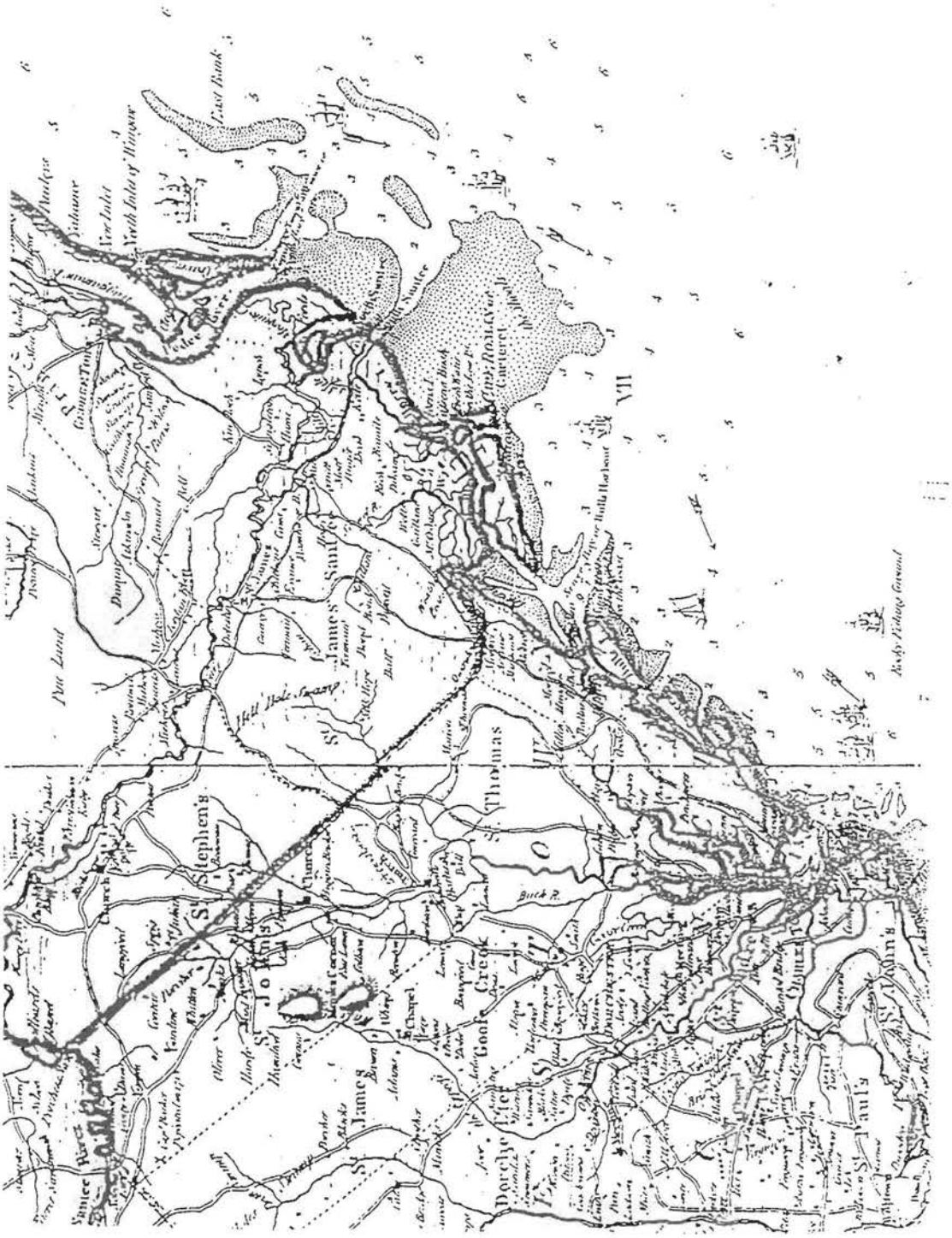

FIGURE 18. "An Accurate Map of North and South Carolina."

(By Henry Mouzon, 1776.)

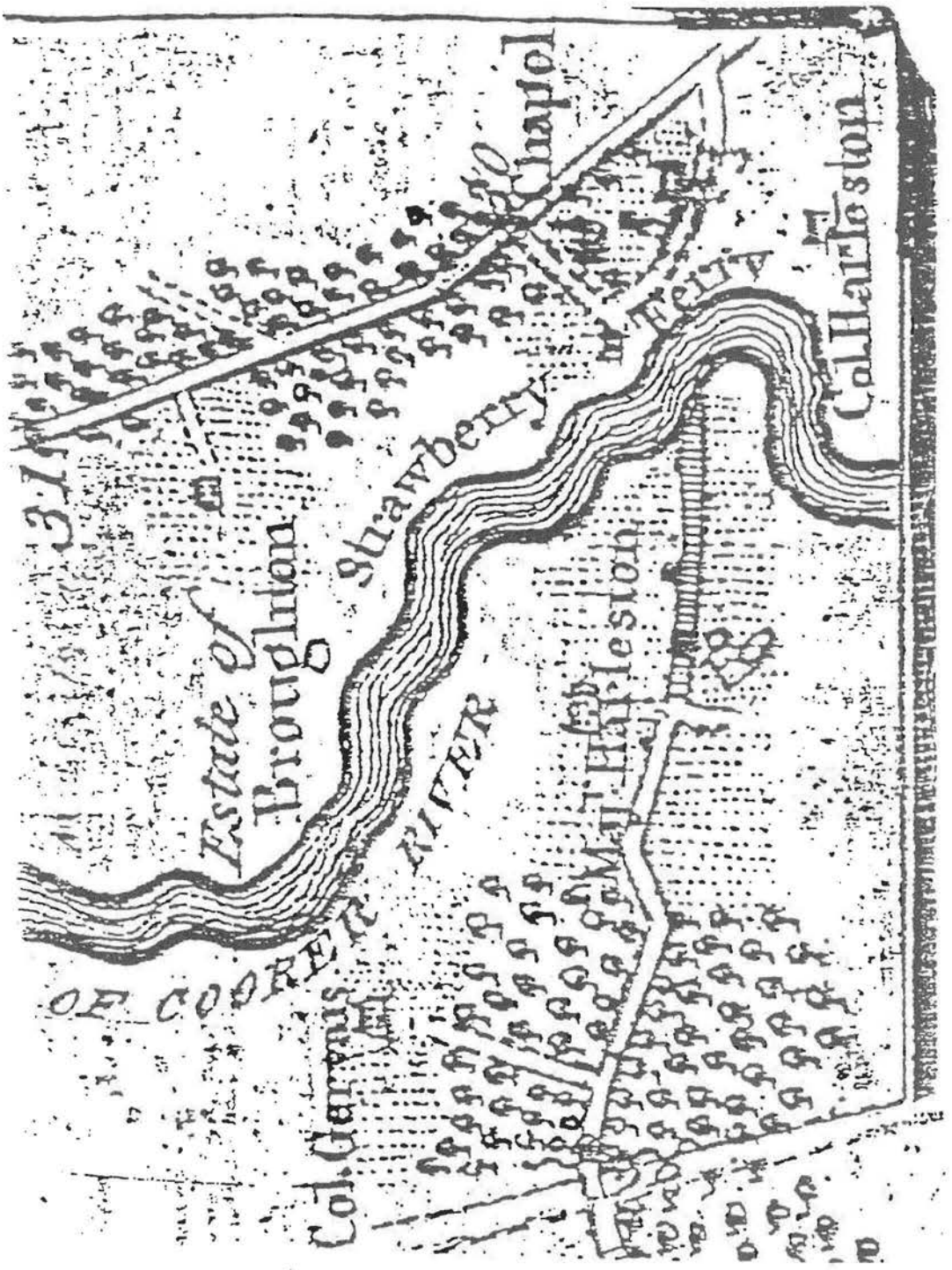

FIGURE 19. "A Specimen of an Intended Traveling Map of the Roads of South Carolina." (By Walker and Abernathie, 1787.)

Historical evidence supports my conclusions that the causeway existed much earlier than any of the historic period maps referred to indicate (Merrens 1978:110-121). The causeway was probably constructed under the direction of the commissioners when Strawberry Ferry was established in 1705. Statute #391, passed in 1719 by the assembly, refers to an existing 1/2 mile long causeway by stating that "the said causeway leading to the ferry at the Strawberry or Childsbury ... [is to] be made twelve feet wide and well and sufficiently repaired" (McCord 1841:43-45). The causeway leading to the ferry was again of concern in 1745 when, through passage of Statute #728, the assembly authorized the "commissioners of the high-roads . . . to make a new causeway" (McCord 1841:137).

The type of causeway that was constructed across the marsh through Bluff Plantation to the southwestern landing is unknown. Many causeways, associated with ferry crossings, were long wooden trestles. Quite often their remains, in the form of trees growing from the upright support posts, may be seen along the rivers of the Carolina low country. An example of this is found at Bonneau's Ferry (38BK1267). The absence of these causeway markers south of Strawberry Ferry raises questions concerning the type of causeway used in conjunction with the ferry. Walker and Abernathie's (1787) map seems to indicate a trestle like structure was used at Strawberry Ferry (Fig. 19). An 1811 map of Bluff Plantation, drawn by John Diamond, indicates that the causeway constructed for Strawberry Ferry ran along the top of an inter-tidal rice field dike along the Cooper River south towards Goose Creek (Fig. 20). It was a common practice in the low country for dikes to be used as roadbeds (Rowland 1987:126).

In 1745 the assembly passed an order for the construction of a new causeway for Strawberry Ferry. This order may represent an early date for the practice of inter-tidal rice agriculture along the Cooper River. Inter-tidal rice agriculture was already a common practice at the time of Walker and Abernathie's (1787) map. Although a trestle may have been used during the early 18th century, any vestiges of its existence would have been destroyed during field preparation for inter-tidal rice agriculture.

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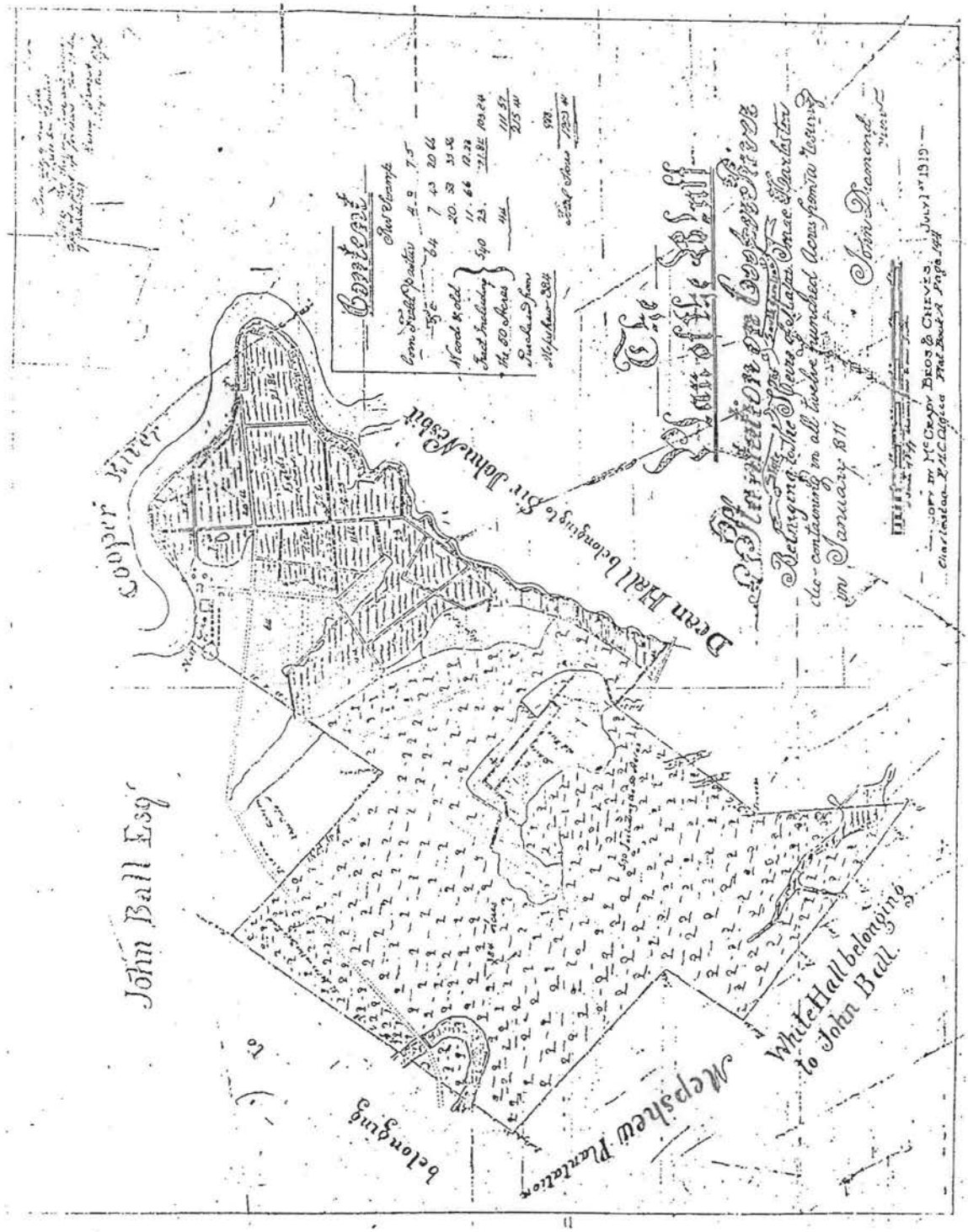

FIGURE 20. Plat map of Bluff Plantation. (By John Diamond, 1811.)

Although the crossing at Strawberry Ferry does not appear on maps until that drawn by Walker and Abernathie (1787), historical accounts allow a temporal setting for the initial establishment for the crossing (McCord 1841:6-8, Merrens 1978:110-121). A published "gentlemen's travel account" from 1733 (Merrens 1978) confirms the existence of Strawberry Ferry within the local and regional transportation infrastructure. According to this man's journal, his initial foray into South Carolina's wilderness was to Kingstown, a newly established township approximately 50 miles north of Georgetown, located at the head of Winyah Bay (Merrens 1978:115). After spending the night at Goose'Creek, he and his companions crossed "Childsbury-Ferry, alias the Strawberry or Cooper River" ferry (Merrens 1978:112). From Childsbury the road continued north, through plantation lands owned by the Ball family, and crossed the Santee River at Kinloch's Ferry. From there, travelers could either go east toward the port of Georgetown or north toward Charlottsburgh and the great wagon road to Pennsylvania.

Even without the concomitant rise of Childsbury Towne, a number of socio-economic observations may be drawn from the construction of Strawberry Ferry. Communal co-operation, communication, and socio-economic interaction, such as religious activity, marriage, fairs, and markets were dependent upon the ease of public access (McCord 1841:6; Terry 1981:190). Public defense, against the incursion of hostile forces or dreaded slave insurrections, required a localized meeting place for residents who were members of the local militia. Rapid access to Charles Town for reinforcements or retreat required a viable method to cross the only major waterway within the area (McCord 1841:6). Passage across the Cooper River was free of charge on Sundays for those attending church services and during military emergencies.

The construction of the ferry at Strawberry Plantation resulted in the establishment of an inn or tavern to serve patrons of the crossing. The construction of interior roads led to the establishment of inns located along highways and at ferry crossings. Inns provided travelers with food, lodging, stores, and a place to socially

interact or conduct business. Although taverns and inns are well documented through historical literature from the colonial period, extant structures at ferry crossings have been difficult to locate (Neuffer 1967:33). Most were allowed to decay, due to a lack of social and economic activity. Archaeological documentation of tavern sites at ferry crossings confirms historical information concerning their presence (Rockman and Rothschild 1984).

The Records of South Carolina Journals of the House of Representatives 1792-1794 contain a proposal recommending that: "keepers of ferries and toll bridges be required to keep inns" (Stevens 1988:492). During the colonial period inns and taverns were established at ferry crossings by individual owner/operators and commercial stagecoach companies. Walker and Abernathie's (1787) travel book highlights the associated inn or tavern at Strawberry Ferry. Eventually the tavern and inn at Strawberry Ferry was incorporated into Childsbury Towne (See Chapter 6).

During the colonial period taverns and inns served a variety of socio-economic functions. They became local meeting places for political events, horse races, militia musters, and offices for merchants and farmers conducting local business (Longrigg 1972:110; Terry 1981:225). The social function of taverns and their associated inns is related by David Doar who states,

> There was welcome warmth, good talk, food, and a place to sleep, though sometimes three or four to a bed. There was room for any number on the floor, rolled up in blankets by the huge log fire. Always there were the tall tales and never ending bragging, yarns, [and] tales of the road they had come, deep with dust in the summertime and mud in the winter (McIver 1967:33).

In the "gentlemen's" account of his travels from 1733, he wrote that their party, upon returning from Kingstown, arrived at Strawberry at six in the evening "where [they] slept that night" before resuming their journey to Charles Town the next day (Merrens 1978:118). Also, C.F. Neuffer writes that "an unusual practice during these days (early 19th century) was for the post office to put off mail [for the local residents]. This was done as a public service by all of the taverns" (Neuffer 1968:49). The practice of dropping off mail at Strawberry Ferry for the local residents continued into the mid 1800s (South Carolina Historical Society, Ball Family Papers, 11-515-34).

Strawberry Ferry and its associated tavern and inn became known as a place for social gatherings and as a convenient place to conduct local business. A review of the *Strawberry Ferry Ledger of Lancelot Smith 1777-1779* (1964) exemplifies the role the ferry and tavern played within the local community (Wates and Lee 1964). This ledger book lists the debts of those individuals requiring personal items such as food, drink, sugar, saddles, handkerchiefs, and or ferriage across the Cooper River (Wates and Lee 1964).

My investigations into the Lance Smith ledger book concentrate on the five month period between February and June of 1777. A total of 401 listings were entered in the credit ledger during this time period (Appendix V). Of these listings 61% are for ferriage of slaves, 60% for ferriage of horses, 21% charged to the debtor for personal crossings, 20% for liquor and sundries, 13% for carriages, and 01% for livestock that included sheep and cattle. The names of the people associated with these entries indicate a brisk trade by local residents and merchants from Charles Town (Hamer et al., 1970:257, 201, 381; Irving 1932[1842]:46, 104; Rogers et al., 1974:599, 628-629; Terry 1981:225; Appendix IV). There is no data regarding those who paid cash for services rendered, so the ledger must be considered biased towards those local and Charles Town residents who were in an economic position to charge.

Strawberry Ferry and the tavern were primarily concerned with local traffic and business dealings associated with Charles Town on a daily basis. Where that business was conducted and why allows insight to class structure and socio-economic status within the local community. The fact that this business was conducted in Childsbury Towne confirms the socio-economic importance of the settlement to the local community.

The percentages related to liquor, charges for personal crossings, and carriage traffic may represent either business dealings or social interaction within the community. Although only 20% of the charges in Lancelot Smith's ledger were for liquor, a review of these purchases allows insight to how the local community viewed Childsbury. From my examination of the Smith ledger and other historical documents a more refined picture of the social and economic structure in Childsbury Towne emerges. These findings detail a definite social structure to the business dealings in and around Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne (Rogers et. al., 1974:597-598).

George Terry, in *"Champaign Country": A Social History of an Eighteenth Century Lowcountry Parish in South Carolina, St. Johns Berkeley County* (1981), details the evolutionary development of taverns within St. John's parish and pays exceptional attention to the one operated by Lancelot Smith (Terry 1981:215-226). He suggests that the majority of the "inhabitants purchasing liquor at the tavern were all from, and almost all lived in St. John's for only a few years" (Terry 1981:226). He also states that persons from the lower and middle class tended to drink at the tavern.

Data from Henry Laurens and Lance Smith's ledger supports Terry's (1981) conclusions. This suggests that the elite tended to conduct business in private homes as opposed to public taverns. Indeed, only three "persons of any wealth [are] mentioned as having been billed for liquor" at the tavern (Terry 1981:226).

So, if the elite were consuming alcohol somewhere other than the tavern and were obviously conducting business in private homes what do the purchases for alcohol at Strawberry Tavern represent. Terry, (1981) implies that they were a group of local

drunks worth very little to the community of elite planters that lived along the western branch of the Cooper River. Indeed, he states that by "judging from the amount of refreshments Lancelot Smith's customers drank, it would have been a small miracle for them to have even gotten out of bed the next day" (Terry 1981:225).

The seemingly excessive amounts of grog and rum consumed by Smith's customers may be biased by late 20th century attitudes concerning the personal consumption of alcohol. Sample entries from account books kept for a hotel and tavern operated in Harpers Ferry, Virginia from 1822-1823 and 1839-1840 implies that the amount of alcohol consumed at Strawberry Ferry's tavern was minimal in comparison (Halchin 1994). As well, studies conducted in South Africa on colonial period shipwrecks have shown that the alcoholic content of some beverages was substantially less during the 18th century than that found today (Harris 1995).

Confirmation of a lower to middle class socio-economic communal structure may be visible through a study of John Prestly's bill. Approximately 64% of his time at the tavern associated with Strawberry Ferry was during a time of possible business opportunity. This implies that the socio-economic significance of Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne to the local community extended beyond the 1750 date accorded its demise to "no more than a ferry stop with a tavern and the church" (Terry 1981:13). This data also shows that Prestly's activity at the tavern co-incided with a number of local market days and annual fairs held in Childsbury Towne.

Terry (1981) states that Prestly (Pressly) was "a small planter and overseer at Wadboo Barony" (Terry 1981:225). Although Terry (1981) does not reference this statement, it is historically known that John Colleton died in 1762 and had left Wadboo to his widow, Margaret, who lived in England (Salley 1900:332). Salley (1900) suggests that Margaret Colleton never came to South Carolina, thus she would have required an overseer to operate the barony for her. I assume that Robert Raper's Charles Town firm, Raper and Company, continued to represent the Colleton interest in South Carolina at this

time (McCann 1981:112). Support for Prestly's position as overseer of the Colleton properties may be found in the ledger of Lancelot Smith. Prestly had his passage charged to Robert Raper on a number of occasions (Wates and Lee 1964).

Accepting that Prestly was the overseer at Wadboo Barony, his charges may indicate lower to middle class business dealings conducted at the tavern of Lancelot Smith. Prestly was at the tavern quite often. In the five month period between February and July of 1777 he visited the tavern a total of 33 times and charged items a total of 38 times. On five occasions he made two charges on the same day. His primary purchases were generally grog, which was probably consumed at the tavern. His secondary purchases were for rum by the quart or gallon, which he possibly carried back to his home at Wadboo. All of his purchases were for either grog or rum except one purchase of 50 pounds of sugar on May 3. Sugar would be considered a household staple, thus it is important to note that there were no purchases by Prestly for other staples such as coffee, salt, or flour.

As overseer of Wadboo Barony, I assume he lived there. Wadboo was twenty-two miles from Childsbury Towne and the tavern at Strawberry Ferry. Using the figures for the time of overland travel as accounted in Merrens (1978), it would have taken Prestly approximately four hours to make the trip one way. Wadboo was only four and one-half miles from Monck's Corner. In 1777 there were a number of taverns and stores located there (Terry 1981:214-220, 228). It would have taken Prestly only one hour, round trip, to go to these establishments in Monck's Corner. I suspect that the majority of locally purchased staple goods and equipment, required for the operation of Wadboo, were bought there.

A comparison of Prestly's visits to Strawberry Ferry's tavern and socio-economic aspects related to Childsbury Towne may offer an explanation for his presence there. Statute #478, passed in 1723, established a weekly market and bi-annual fair in

Childsbury Towne. Markets were to be held "upon every Tuesday and Saturday in the week" (Cooper 1838:204). The fairs were to,

> commence the third Tuesday in May, in every year, and to end upon the Friday then next following, being in all four days inclusive, and no longer, and the second fair to begin and commence the last Tuesday in October, in every year, and to end upon the Friday then next following (Cooper 1838:204)

Advertisements for the fair and other public events held in Childsbury Towne were published in the South Carolina Gazette as late as 1768 (Cohen 1953:88). I suspect that after 45 years of holding these annual and weekly events that their date and times were well known throughout the low country of South Carolina. I suggest that they continued to be held during the entire colonial period.

The times that these markets and fairs were held would have been excellent venues from which the local residents along the Cooper River could conduct business and interact socially. As such, the crossings within the ledger should correspond with market days and the four day period of the fair. Factors considered of importance in this comparison are the total number of ferry crossings to credit entries, the number of crossings listing multiple horses and livestock, the days of the week these crossings were made, and monthly percentages related to these factors.

Of 400 entries found in the Smith Ledger, 318 listings, or 80%, are for ferriage. Of those 318 crossings, 39% constituted multiple numbers of horses with 01% being cattle or sheep. Market days in Childsbury Towne were held on Tuesdays and Saturdays of each week. Ferriage on those days alone constituted 42% of all the traffic listed in the

ledger. Multiple numbers of horses totaled 29% and cattle and sheep made up the remainder.

Of 400 crossings 17% were made in February, 19% in March, 23% in April, 25% in May, and 16% in June. Of the 123 crossings that ferried multiple numbers of horses 15% were in the month of February, 24% in March, 27% in April, 24% in May, and 09% in June. Although these monthly percentages do not indicate a difference in crossings related to the fair, the rise seen in March, April, and May may reflect patterns related to the seasonal aspects of rice and indigo production (Terry 1981:229-231; Fig. 21).

Of 38 purchases made at Strawberry Tavern by Prestly in the five month period between February and July of 1777, 24% of those visits fell on Tuesday or Saturday. Approximately 25% of his charges were made on Sunday when passage on the ferry was free to those attending church. As overseer and representative of the 12,000 acre Colleton Barony at Wadboo, being at the ferry on Sundays would offer him a chance to converse or conduct business with a number of planters, farmers, and other overseers while they waited for the ferry to carry them back across the river. Half of his Monday charges, 06%, were on days his passage was paid for by Robert Raper and may have been related to Colleton business. Approximately 09% of his time spent at the tavern in May was during fair week, again, another important time to conduct business and socially interact with others in the community.

Although it is acknowledged that Prestly did enjoy a drink or two, the use of comparative data related to his account in the Smith credit ledger and the social calendar of Childsbury Towne enhances the picture presented by Terry (1981). The ability to interact within the social and business sphere of frontier societies was severely restricted because of time restraints related to plantation management and distance between dispersed settlements. Much work was required to keep large plantations profitable and therefore limited opportunities for this interaction to public events within the community.

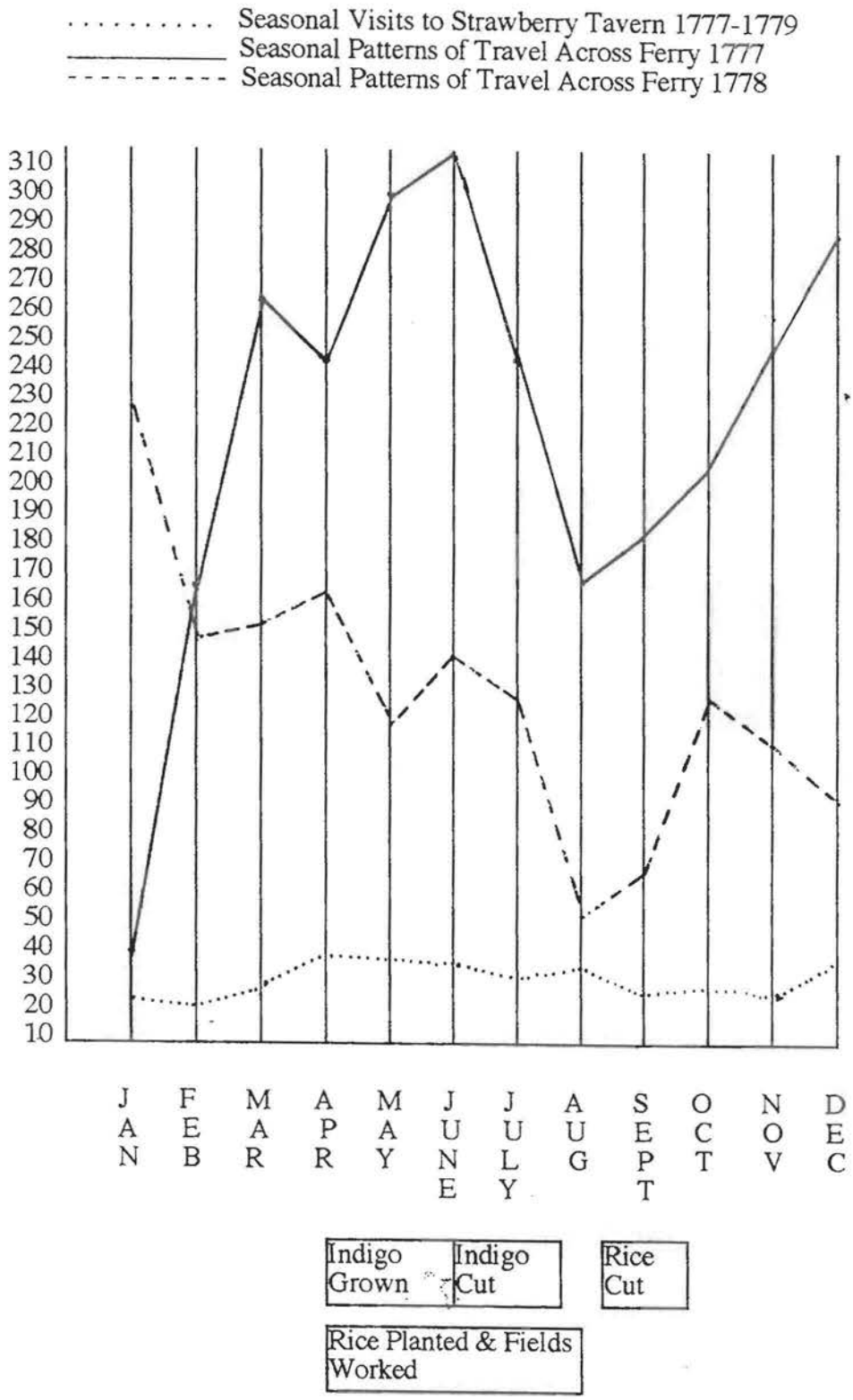

FIGURE 21. Seasonal activity at Strawberry Tavern 1777-1779.

(Per George Terry, 1981).

If all Prestly had wanted to do was drink, the tavern's in Monck's Corner would have been much more convenient.

From the arguments presented above apparently there was a social order for conducting business within the local community of small dispersed settlements along the Cooper River. This business was conducted at Childsbury Towne and is seen as representative of the importance of ferry crossings and their associated taverns to the local socio-economic landscape. This socio-economic structure is defined through studies of those persons who held positions of responsibility and importance to the ongoing success of the local community. Conclusions are that the elite did tend to conduct their business at private residences and the lower to middle classes tended to conduct their business at well known, communally significant gathering places. As a settlement Childsbury Towne was important to all classes within the local community.

Another aspect of the socio-economic position Strawberry Ferry held in the local landscape of lower St. John's is the relevant power vested in the appointment of commissioners who designed, constructed, and maintained the inter-related interior infrastructure. When ferry crossings were established by the South Carolina assembly local residents were appointed as commissioners to oversee their construction. Responsibilities inherent with their appointment was "for the making, mending, and keeping clear, the said common roads or highways within the parish" (McCord 1841:7). Along with these commissions came the power to levy taxes on local residents and appropriate personnel, usually in the form of slaves, for the construction of ferry crossings, bridges, and roads (McCord 1841:6-7). Male slaves "from the ages of sixteen to sixty" were required to work on these projects (McCord 1841:6).

Generally those appointed as commissioners were from the highest social class, thus persons of influence within the local community. Five commissioners -- John Ashley; Peter Jacob Geurard, Esquire; James Child; Elias Ball; and Thomas Hubbard --

were appointed to oversee the construction of Strawberry Ferry in 1705. Their responsibility, inherent within their appointment as commissioners, was to "direct and appoint the keeping of a ferry for the transportation of man or horse . . . to and from the said Strawberry Plantation, or to such other place as the commissioners shall think fit" (McCord 1841:7). They were also responsible for the construction of a road along the north side of the Cooper River from Peter Colleton's Barony at Wadboo to Elias Ball's plantation at Comingtee. Roads were also to be constructed on either side of the eastern branch from Strawberry Ferry to the plantation of Mr. Peter Jedeau (McCord 1841:6). Statute #246 also commissioned the construction of the road from the southwestern landing to Goose Creek which connected Strawberry Ferry to the main highway to Charles Town (McCord 1841:7).

As an economic enterprise the viability of the crossing at Strawberry Plantation was supported by a number of factors. Vested in the ownership of this ferry was the right to charge for ferriage across the river with rates established by law. According to the *Statutes at Large of South Carolina* (1841) James Child, as owner and operator of the ferry at Strawberry, was authorized to charge "for the transportation of each passenger, take and demand . . . [a fee] not exceeding one royal, and no more; for the passage of one passenger and horse . . . [a fee] not exceeding two royals" (McCord 1841:7). According to the Oxford Royal Dictionary a royal was worth ten shillings (Wates and Lee 1964).

By 1748 only one commissioner of the original five, Elias Ball, was still living (Terry 1981:192). Three were required, by the assembly, to oversee the rates of passage and to insure its proper operation (McCord 1841:7). Thus, it was not uncommon, in 1748, for disputes to arise, on a daily basis, concerning the rate of passage (Terry 1981:192). These disputes prompted the assembly to re-certify the right of operation in that year. Lydia Child Chicken Ball, wife of Elias, was vested in the ownership and operation of Strawberry Ferry at that time. The rate of passage, also established with this act, was considerably less that first granted her grandfather, James Child. She was only

allowed to charge two pence for cattle, three pence per foot passenger and per horse, and one shilling per chaise or wagon (McCord 1841:148). Penalties were enacted for undue delays in passage across the river (McCord 1841:149).

Although the legislation of rates for passage tended to relieve these disputes, concerns related to the cost of passage at Strawberry Ferry continued. Of 400 crossings only 24, (06%), were charged to the account of Henry Laurens (Wates and Lee 1964). All of these charges were for ferriage of slaves or business associates. None were charged for Laurens' personal passage. Laurens preferred to travel by horseback and possibly took the long way to Mepkin through Monck's Corner (Rogers et al., 1974:597). The lack of charges for his passage may also reflect a personal attitude concerning ferries expressed by Laurens in a letter to William Bampfield in 1768. Laurens advises Bampfield to travel an extra 17 miles on his journey from Georgetown to Charleston via Mepkin Plantation

> because the entertainment is surer and better and you avoid the excessive Charge of Ferriage. The abuse of Horses, sometimes Loss of them, besides the Risque of being an hour or two upon the water in an open Boat exposed to bleak Winds [are of concern] (Rogers et al., 1978:181-182)

Robert Raper is charged for passage only eight times out of the 400 entries listed in the Strawberry Ferry ledger book. Ferriage for Prestly's passage totaled almost half of Raper's charges (43%). The remaining charges were 14% for the ferriage of slaves, 29% for ferriage of a riding chair, or carriage, and 14% for ferriage of himself and a carriage. An explanation for Raper's lack of travel across Strawberry Ferry is found in a letter to John Colleton dated the 6th of December 1759. Per his letter, Raper,

> ordered 5 Ordinary Negresses to be settled at Mepshew to plant Corn and partly to keep a Boat to Carry over the River the Manager or Attorneys which is necessary to save ferage at Strawbury which costs near £10 Sterling a year (McCann 1981:113).

The ability to charge a fee for the crossing was only one aspect exemplifying the crossing's economic potential. The construction of Strawberry Ferry also served a larger economic function that corresponds to South Carolina's changing economic conditions during the colonial period. Because of short term variations in economic interests, Strawberry Ferry represents a unique view of the evolving nature of frontier development. This variation can be tied to the diverse economic resources found within the back country north of the Cooper River "Tee."

The trade in deer skins and Indian slaves, cattle, naval stores, and the introduction of rice as a staple crop were likely factors in the ferry's construction. As such, its position on the frontier of Charles Town suggests that its initial construction was designed to profit from the export of these goods and related traffic. As indicated earlier, there was already a brisk trade with the Indians for deer skins and slaves.

Along with the importance of rice came associated social and business connections with Charles Town. Between 1736 and 1775 there was a slow continual growth in the wealth of South Carolina's elite. As the local planters along the western branch of the Cooper River became more prosperous they began to invest in land throughout the colony and in barges and ships to transport their product to market (Hamer et al., 1972:1972:209; Rogers et al., 1974:638-642; Terry 1981:203). Rice production, added to naval stores and the deer skin trade, increased the economic importance, thus significance of Strawberry Ferry to the local economic landscape.

Evidence that Strawberry Ferry continued its functional role as a known place of commerce during the late 18th century is reflected in the letters of Henry Laurens and through advertisements published in the Charles Town Gazette (Hamer et al., 1972:41; Rogers et al., 1974:599; Cohen 1953). In an advertisement placed by Henry Laurens in the Charles Town Gazette on July 19, 1760 he advertised,

> TO BE SOLD very cheap, on Tuesday the 22nd of this Instant July, at STRAWBERRY-FERRY, A Choice Cargo of about TWO HUNDRED very Likely and Healthy NEGROES, of the same Country as are usually brought from the river Gambia . . .(Hamer et al., 1972:41).

Archaeological Investigations

The upkeep of the landings for the ferry crossing was of extreme importance to the settlement of Childsbury Towne. Money for these projects was supplied from funds held by the treasury or from parochial taxes levied on the local residents (McCord 1841:6-7; Terry 1981:180, 185). As late as 1801 Elias Ball, owner of Strawberry Ferry, complained that the road commissioners refused to "repair the slips at Strawberry Ferry" (Terry 1981:194). In his complaint he also stated that "the slips on each side must be expensive to make and keep in repair from the necessary length of them and the infirm foundation on which they must be built" (Terry 1981:194). Archaeological data has confirmed Elias Ball's statement.

As important as ferry crossings were to early settlement and colonial socio-economic support infrastructures there is a lack of fine detail concerning their construction. There are no descriptions or diagrams from the colonial period delineating the engineering techniques used in their construction. Unfortunately, there are also very few extant ferry crossings left within low country South Carolina available for

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38CH1506

archaeological study. Those that do exist are generally in very poor condition. Recent archaeological investigations within the South Carolina low country (Barr 1994, 1995) has shown them to be much more complex than first imagined (Beard 1993:63).

David Beard, in *Causeways and Landings: An Archaeological Study of Riverine Adaptation in the South Carolina Lowcountry* (1993), suggests that ferry landings were constructed using a crib-like structure, similar to those found in early colonial docks (Beard 1993:67). The dock structures found at Fort Dorchester, on the Ashley River, and Mepkin Abbey, on the west branch of the Cooper River, would represent that type of construction (Fig. 22). Unlike the construction found at Strawberry Ferry, these structures consisted of a framework of round longs approximately 20cm x 20cm. After completion of the crib structure they were probably floated into place, filled with rubble, and sunk in the desired location (Coker 1987:39).

The crossing at Strawberry Ferry exhibits in-place construction. This construction technique would affect the manner in which they were built. The method used to restrict the flow of water around the construction site is unknown. It may have been during an opportune time of extreme drought or perhaps through the use of sand bags; a technique used to excavate inter-tidal areas during archaeological investigations today. However, this method of in-place construction is a factor that should be considered in their typology. This is primarily because of the patterned brick floors (Fig. 23) and slope associated with these landings (Barr 1994:83: Fig. 24).

Comparative data is drawn from three extant low country ferries: Strawberry Ferry (38BK1723), established in 1705 on the western branch of the Cooper River, Ashley Ferry (38CH1506), established in 1711, on the Ashley River, and Bonneau's Ferry (38BK1267), established in 1712 on the eastern branch of the Cooper River (McCord 1841:6-8, 23; Terry 1981:189). Two of these early colonial ferries, Strawberry and Ashley Ferry, operated into the 19th century. Bonneau's Ferry was circumvented in

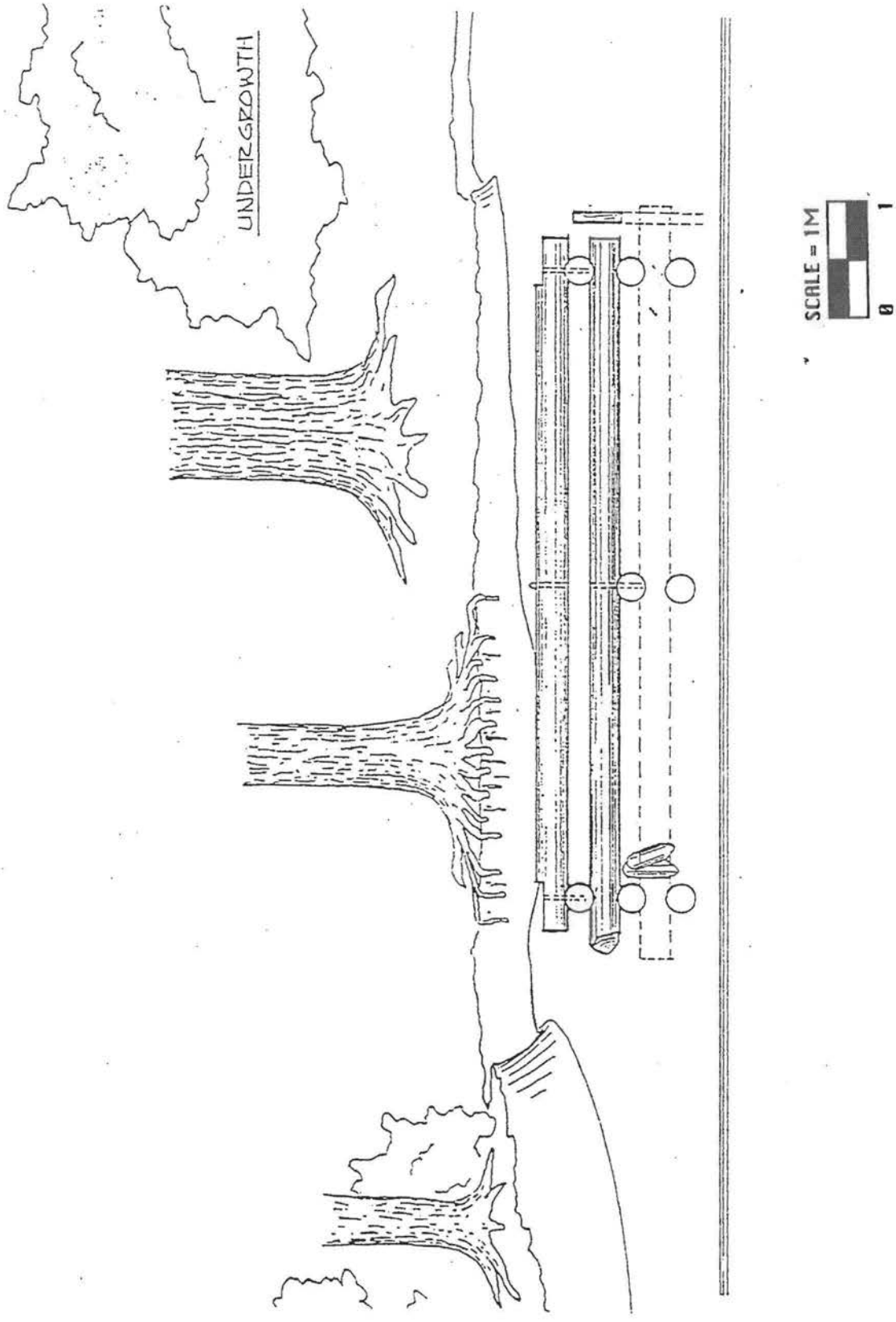

FIGURE 22. "Baker's Wharf," Old Dorchester. (By William R. Judd.)

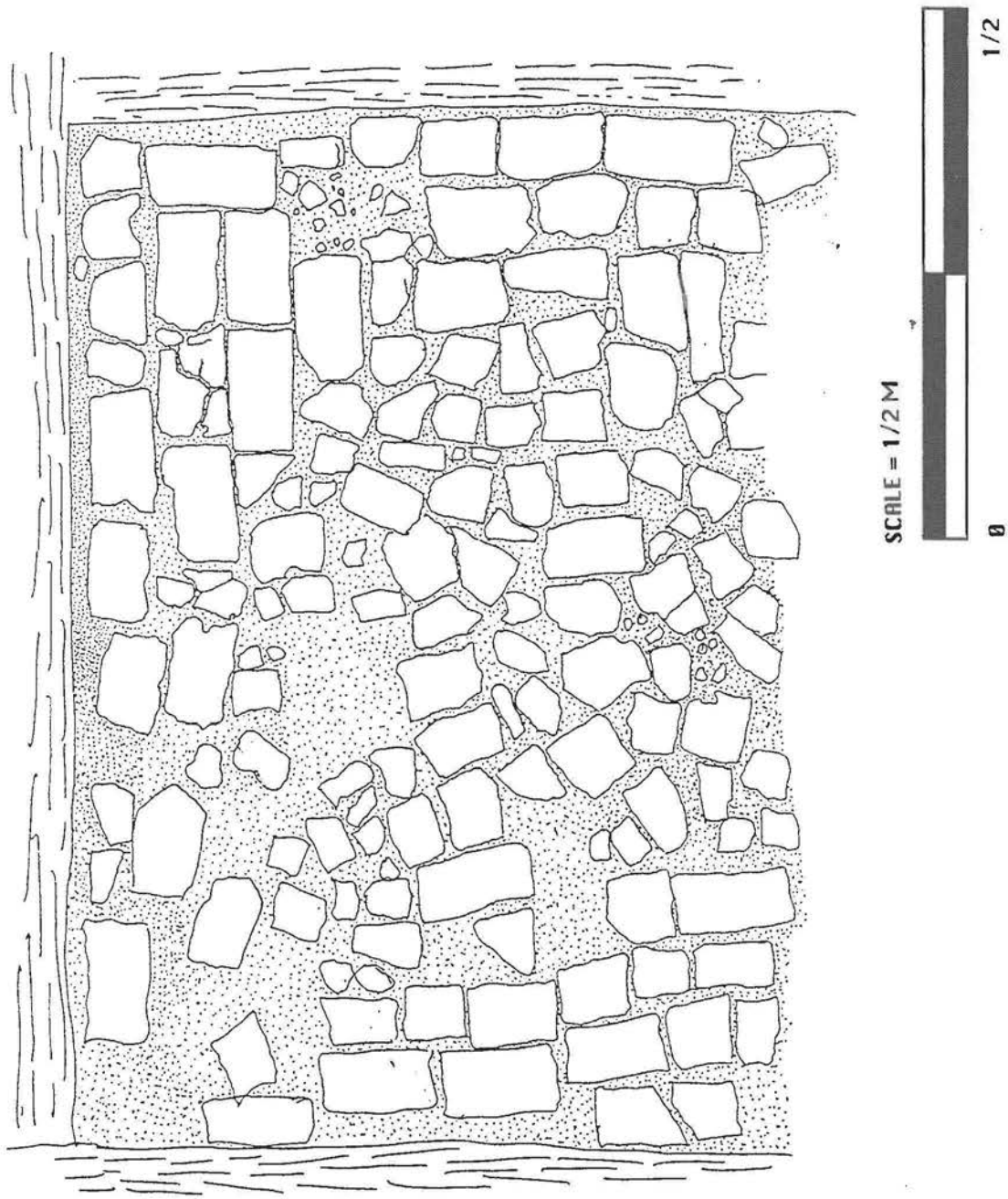

FIGURE 23. Brick floor pattern, northwestern landing, Strawberry Ferry.

(By William B. Barr and Martha Houston.)

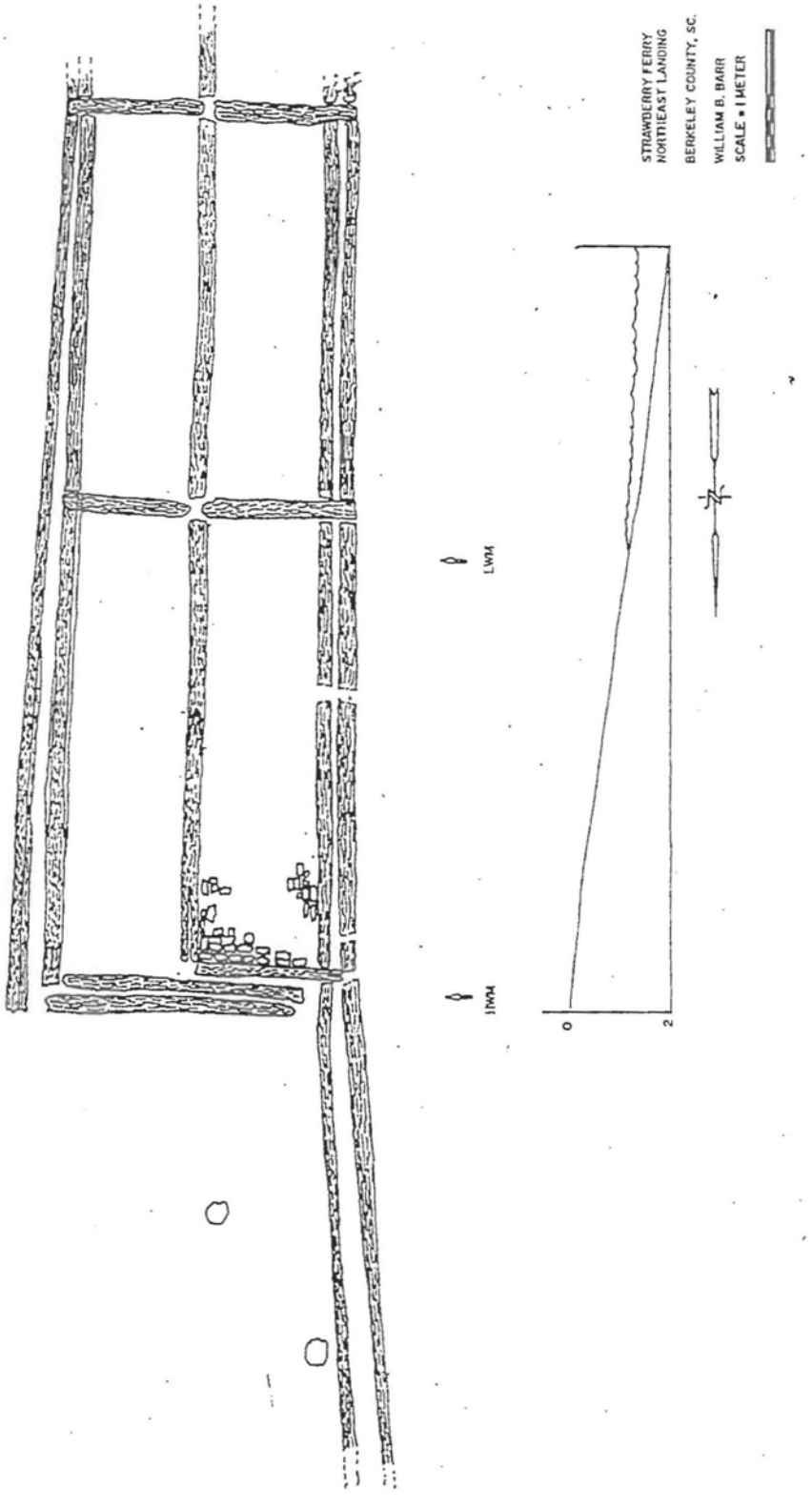

FIGURE 24. Slope and plan view of northwestern landing, Strawberry Ferry.

1737 by Huger's bridge over the eastern branch of the Cooper River (Deas 1978[1909]:134-135; Terry 1981:196). These ferry crossings are found to be quite large.

The northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry is in pristine condition, because of its location on the inside curve of the river. Fluvial action, over time, has covered the terrestrial and underwater portion of the landing promoting a heavy growth of trees and sawgrass along the bank (Plate 3). This has protected it from both natural and human damage (Barr 1994:82). The southwestern landing at Strawberry Ferry has not been so fortunate. Erosion from fluvial action and boat wakes has destroyed a majority of the landing and exposed much of the interior structure (Plate 4). The condition of the southwestern landing allowed study of the interior construction and negated the need for a full scale excavation of the northeastern landing.

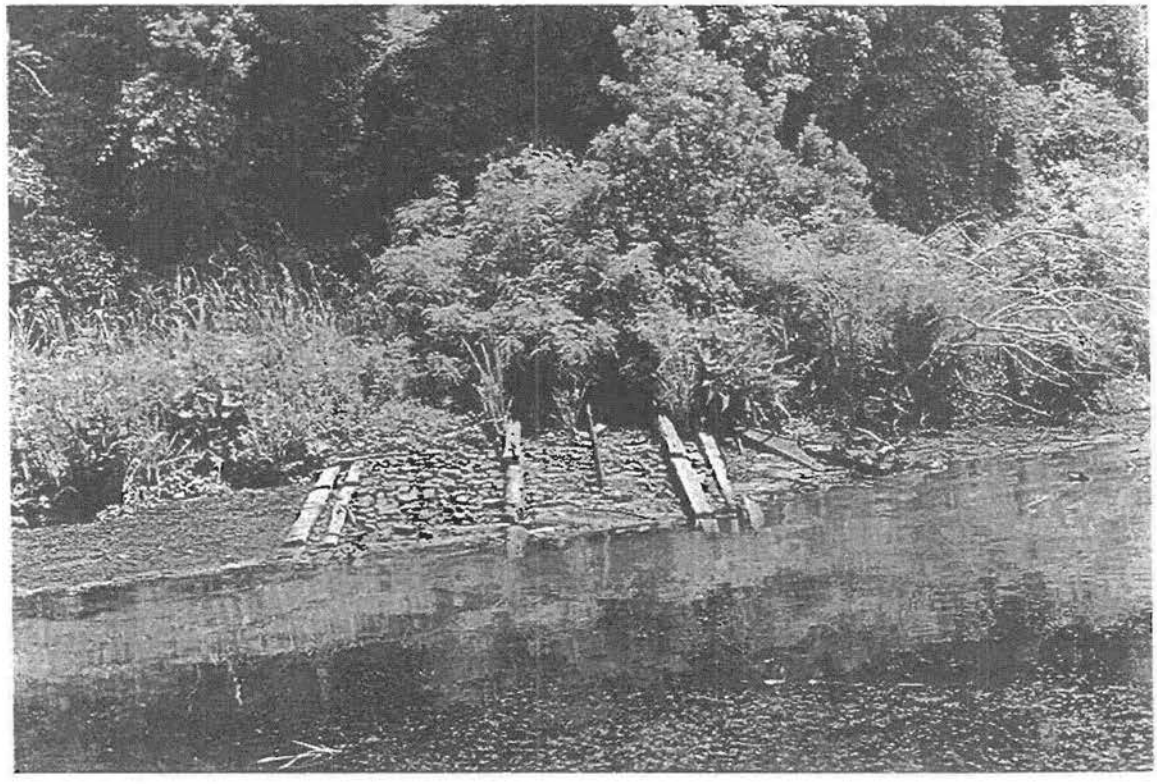

PLATE 3. Northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry.

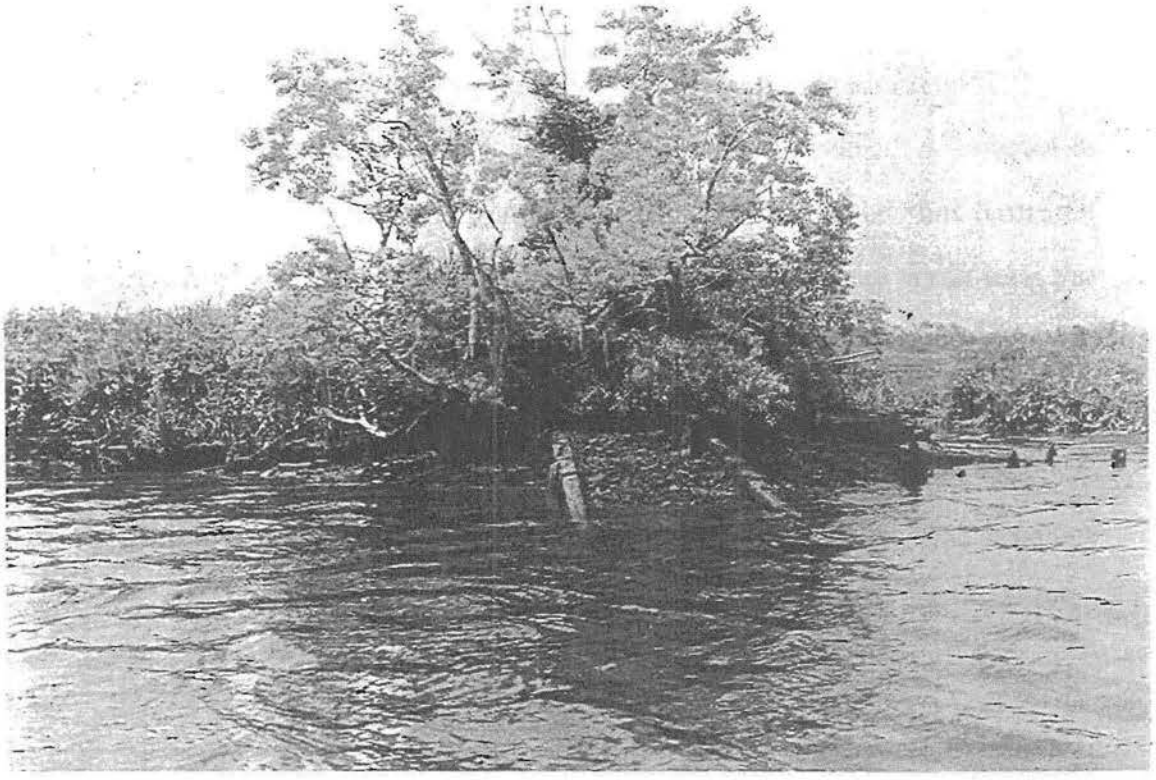

PLATE 4. Southwestern landing of Strawberry Ferry.

Investigations conducted on the northeastern and southwestern landings of Strawberry Ferry were designed to delineate the parameters of the northeastern landing and to determine the mechanics of construction related to these structures. These landings utilize timber and brick in their construction. The northeastern landing extends over 10m from the high water mark toward the terrestrial side of the site and over 15m toward the river side. The terrestrial side is located under approximately 30cm of overburden and the river side is located under approximately 15cm of overburden and 1.3m of water at low tide (Fig. 24).

The landing is approximately 2.5m wide and has a slope of 7 degrees. The slope of this landing applies very well to the construction of ferry craft as delineated by Mark

Newell (Newell n.d.). The Potatoe Ferry craft, on the Black River, has a bow and stern slope of 7 degrees (Fig. 25). Two ferry craft found at Brown's Ferry, also on the Black River, have slopes of 9 degrees (Fig. 26). Unfortunately, no extant ferry craft has been found in association with the landings at Strawberry Ferry. Construction techniques for ferry craft were probably brought over with the original colonists from England. This would imply that the technology found in the construction of the landings was probably incorporated at the same time.

The main structural members of Strawberry Ferry extend three timbers deep with each timber approximately 20cm square. Cross members are located approximately every 6.5m (Fig. 24). A patterned brick floor rests between the timbers with puncheon stakes and planed timbers supporting the side walls of the brick. The brick floor of the landing is at least 3 courses or layers deep. Data suggests that originally there were probably five courses with two courses, along with one layer of timbers, missing due to either environmental factors or from human interaction. The survey determined that the brick floor extends over the entire site with brick found in test excavations both 3m and 6m from the high tide line. The patterned brick floor was found to extend over 13m below the high tide line.

Neither of the two landings associated with Ashley Ferry are in very good condition. The northwestern landing is in the best condition. This is probably due to its location on the inside bend of the river. It is afforded some protection by the present-day Savannah to Charleston rail road bridge approximately 60m up river from the site. Even with this protection the landing is heavily eroded with very little left of its original structure except for the round base logs possibly used for support of the landing (Plate 5). The southeastern landing of Ashley Ferry was destroyed during phosphate mining operations conducted by the Drayton family in the late 19th century.

Both the northeastern and southwestern landings of Bonneau's Ferry are in poor condition. The northeastern landing has practically disappeared between the high and

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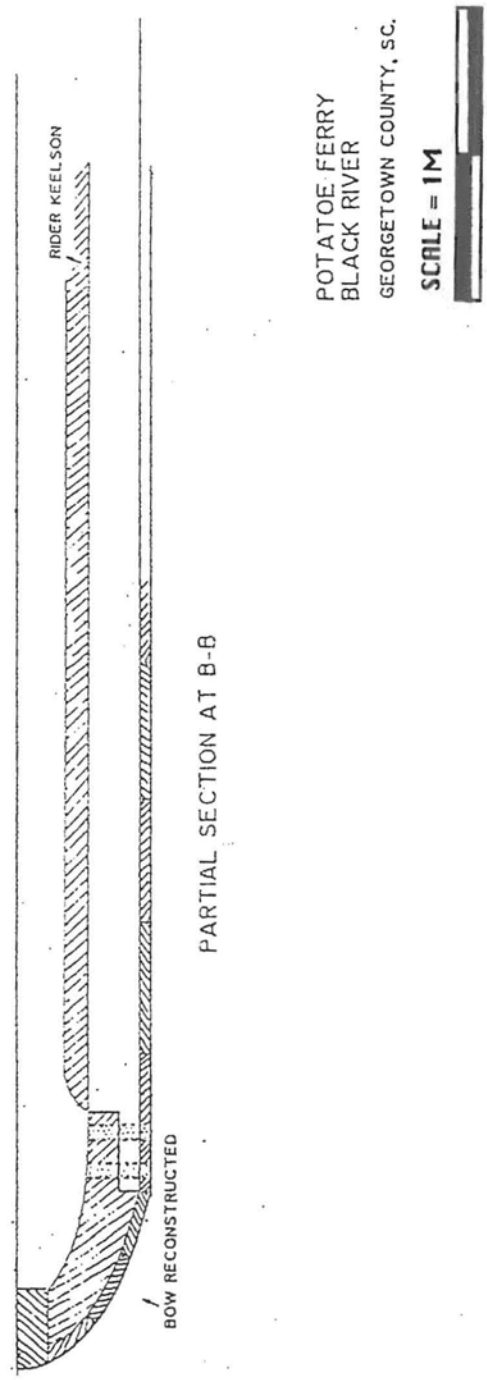

FIGURE 25. Potatoe Ferry craft. (By Mark Newell and Lynn Harris.)

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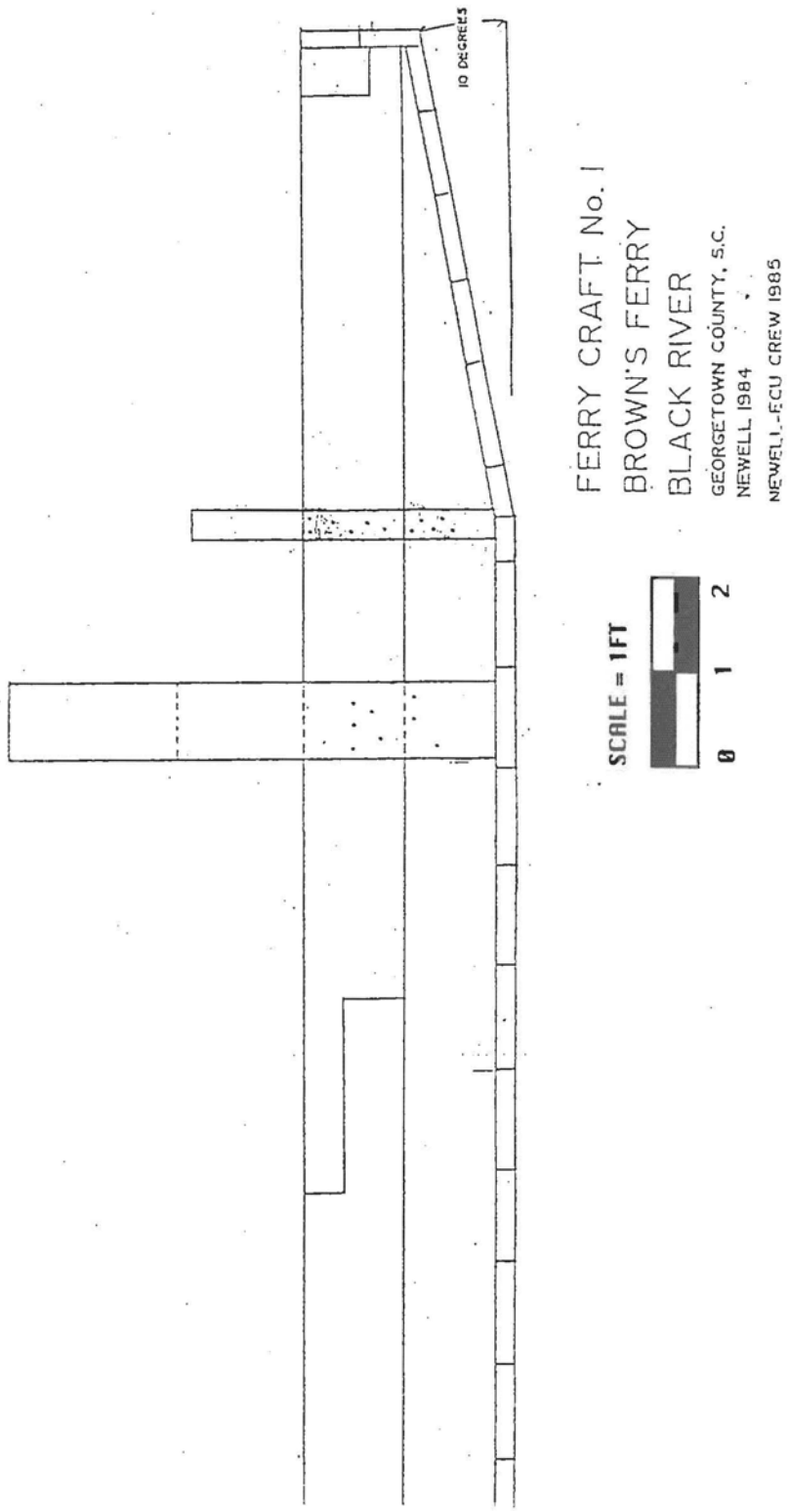

FIGURE 26. Brown's Ferry craft. (By Mark Newell and ECU Volunteer Students.)

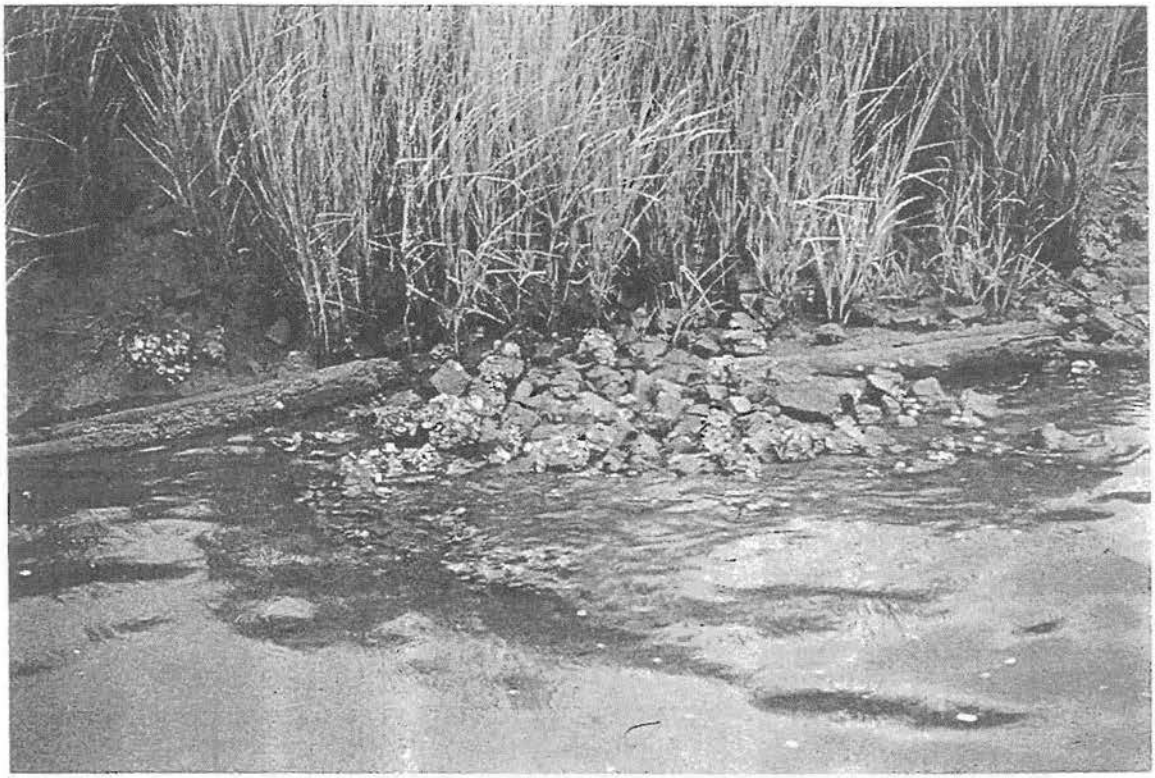

PLATE 5. Northwestern landing of Ashley Ferry.

low water mark. Site surveys indicate that there is a possibility that much of the underwater and terrestrial portion of the landing remains intact (Plate 6). The heavily eroded southwestern landing has most of its upper structure gone. Even the disarticulated timbers from that structure, seen in 1991, have now disappeared leaving only the round base support logs and a few 5cm x 20cm planks. These planks confirm the use of board and puncheon technology in its construction. Much like the northeastern side, site surveys indicate the possibility that much of the terrestrial and underwater portion of the site may remain intact.

PLATE 6. Northeastern landing of Bonneau's Ferry.

Each of these ferry landings exhibits similarities which aid in the development of a construction typology (Fig. 27). Round 10cm logs are common to all three of the ferry crossings studied. They are found at Ashley Ferry (Plate 5), Bonneau's Ferry (Plate 6), and the southeastern side of Strawberry Ferry. There is no evidence of round logs at the northwestern landing of Strawberry Ferry because of its excellent condition. From other data presented I feel that round logs are used for the base structure of the landing; much like a corduroy road. A layer of 5cm x 20cm boards, laid on top of the round logs, would give additional support to the final structure. These too are common to all of the landings except the northwestern landing at Strawberry Ferry. A 20cm x 20cm timber frame,

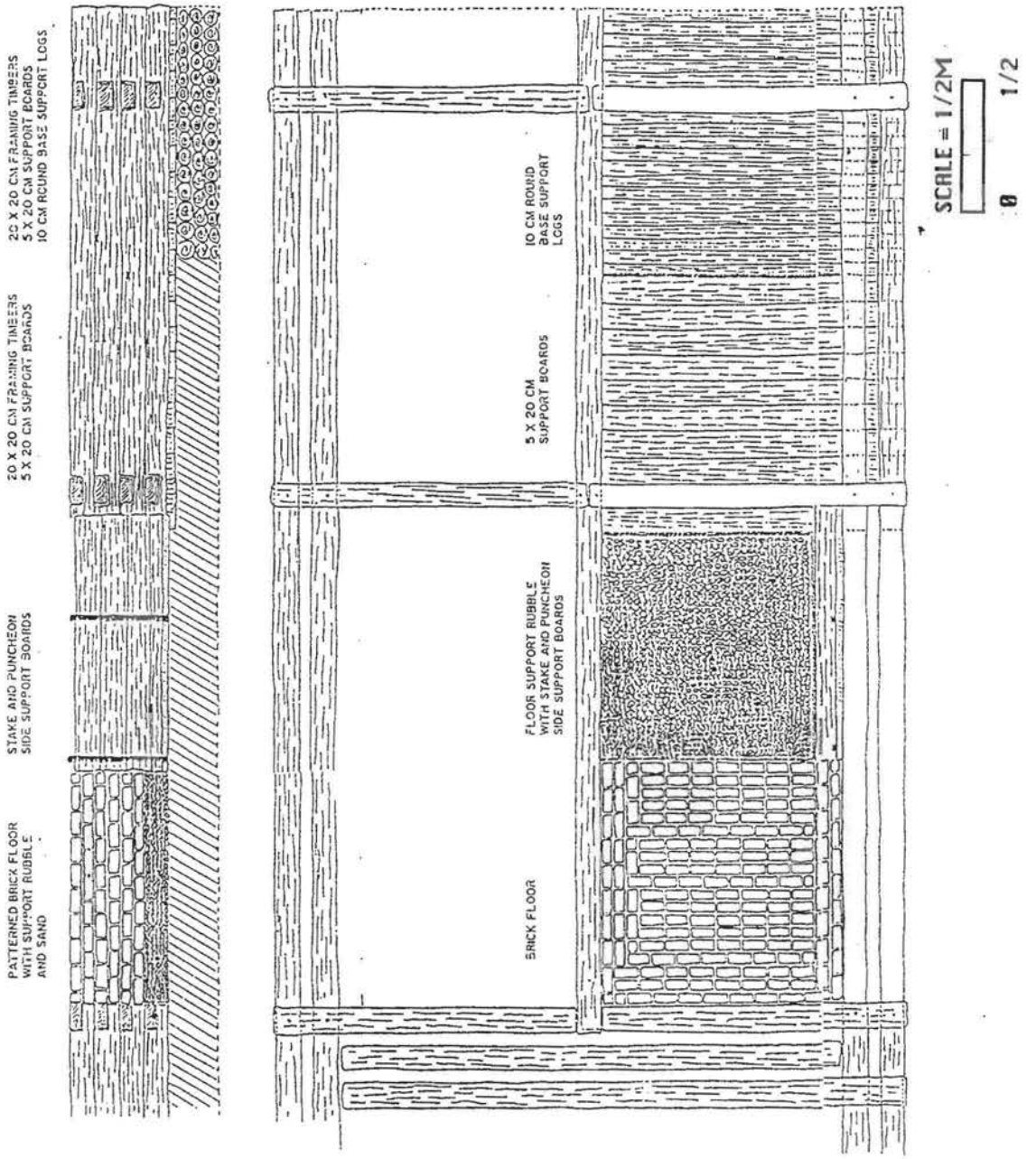

FIGURE 27. Reconstruction of northeastern landing, Strawberry Ferry.

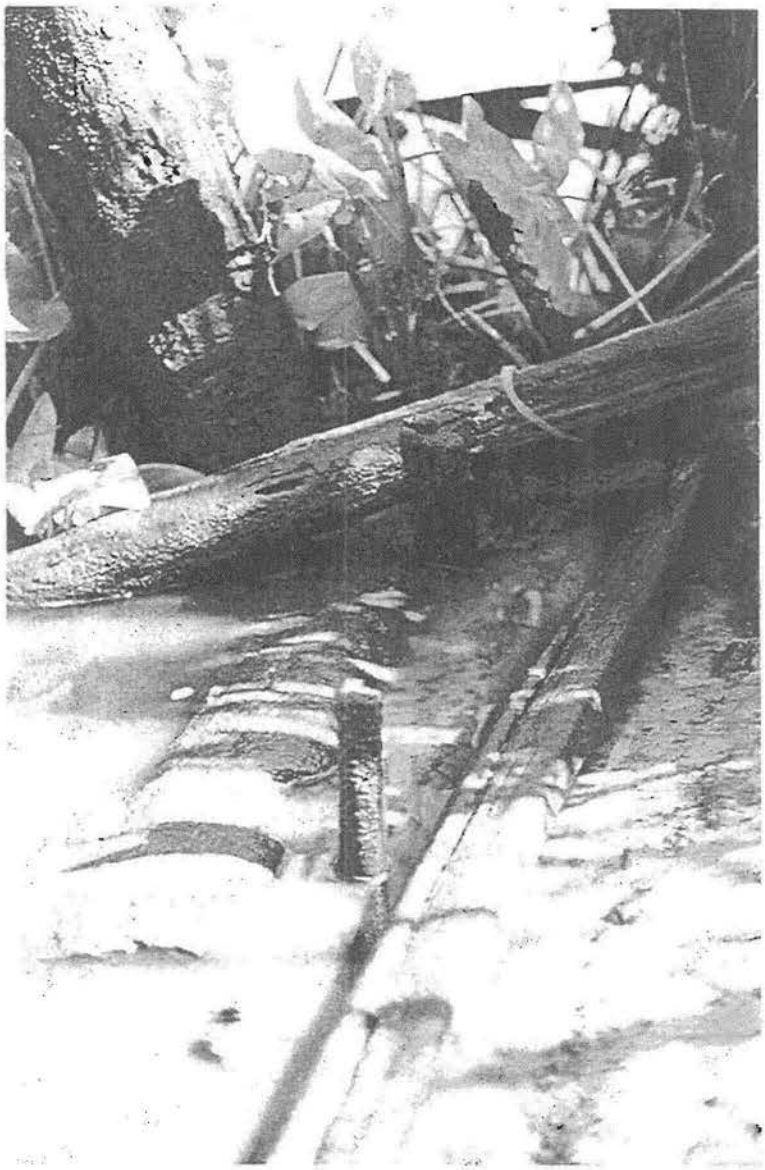

Plate 7. Southwestern landing of Bonneau's Ferry.

constructed in true "Lincoln Log" fashion with each beam resting upon the other, was then constructed on the support planks (Plate 3, 4). These beams, with cut-outs for cross members, are found at both landings of Strawberry Ferry and in 1991 at the southeastern

landing of Bonneau's Ferry. Board and puncheon technology was then used for the support of a patterned brick floor used for its final covering Plate 7, 8; Fig. 23, 27).

Large amounts of brick are found in association with all of these landings. The brick for Strawberry Ferry's landings may have been locally produced. Child's town site map notes that a brick yard was present near the river in the southeastern quadrant of Childsbury Towne (See page 50, Fig. 7). Although no investigations were conducted in

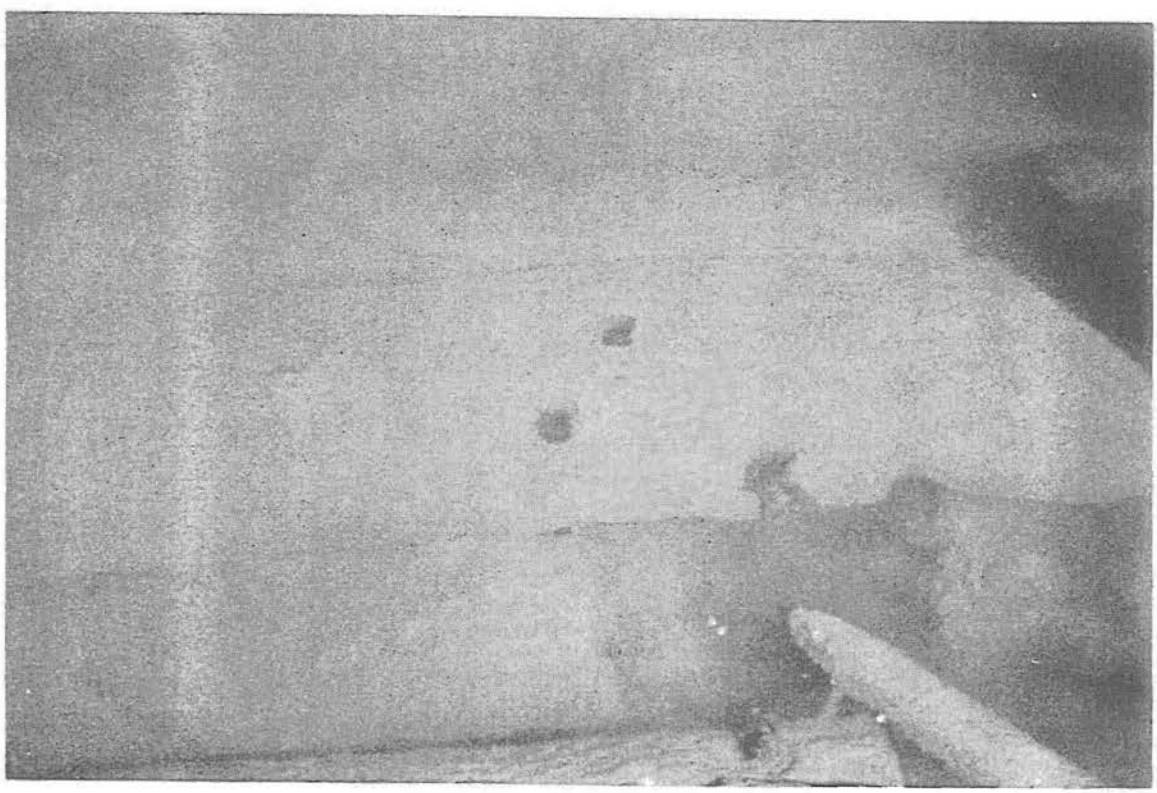

Plate 8. Southwestern Landing of Bonneau's Ferry.

the southeastern quadrant, large deposits of red clay, which may have been used for brick manufacturing, are prevalent within the southeastern corner of the southwestern quadrant. I suspect these deposits continue along the bluff and into the southeastern quadrant of the town.

Ball's complaint of the landing's "infirm foundation on which they must be built" is related to geo-morphological aspects of the Cooper River's riverine environment (Terry 1981:194). The base of the Cooper River is composed of marl, an extremely dense, light sand-colored clay. Pluff mud, a thick, gooey mixture of loam and sand, is heavily deposited over the marl. Anything of substantial weight immediately sinks into this soil. A timber and brick structure, such as the landings at Strawberry Ferry, would constantly require repairs over time because of these conditions.

The repairs to the landings and the inter-related overland transportation network leading to the crossing at Strawberry Ferry required a concerted effort by persons of various economic and social status. It was to the elite's advantage that any work required for the maintenance and improvement of these systems not be delayed any longer than agricultural restraints would allow. These efforts were rewarded through an increase in realized profits related to ready access through timely shipments of export goods to Charles Town and overseas markets.

Legislation, passed in 1721, standardized the then existing transportation network within South Carolina (McCord 1840:49-57). This act superseded all previous legislation concerning roads, bridges, and ferries and voided all previous statutes. It also appointed commissioners for each parish to oversee "all and every the highroads, private paths, causeys, bridges, creeks, passages, and water courses, laid out and to be laid out ... " (McCord 1840:49-57). In St. John's parish, Berkeley county the commissioners appointed were Thomas Broughton, Johnathon Drake, Elias Ball, and Isaac Child (McCord 1840:49-57). Even though the statutes of 1721 voided the permit for Strawberry Ferry, it can be seen from the "gentlemen's written account" that the ferry was still in operation 12 years later.

Although the majority of persons who used the tavern were not from the elite elements of the community, analysis of the surface artifact collection from unit SF#1441 presents a different picture as far as Strawberry Ferry is concerned (Appendix VI). The

artifact assemblage from this unit contains ceramics that include creamware, blue transfer-printed pearlware, ironstone, Chinese-export porcelain, annular transfer-printed pearlware and whiteware. This collection also includes the base of a stemmed wine glass. The overall date range for this material is from 1760 to 1860. Stanley South's "mean ceramic dating formula," for dating English ceramics, was applied to this material (South 1977). This formula provides a mean date of 1791± 4 years for the northeastern landing. The attributes associated with these artifacts would imply a landing used primarily by the elite whose use continued past the end of the colonial era.

Conclusions

The elite, through their social and economic status, continued to define the colonial period relationships among the diverse demographic elements within lower St. John's parish. Each class was fully aware of its place and worked within limits imposed by the existing social order. By doing so they adapted to and worked within those social and economic restrictions.

In 1825 the area around Strawberry Ferry was again mapped by the well-known cartographer Robert Mills (1964[1825]; See page 40, Fig. 4). His map, similar to that of Mouzon's (1776), shows Strawberry Ferry continuing to be a viable link in the road and river systems within the low country of South Carolina. It also shows Strawberry Ferry as being the third and northernmost river crossing on the Cooper River at that time. The construction of the ferry crossing at Strawberry Plantation allowed the residents of the western branch of the Cooper River to retain control throughout the colonial period of a major intersection along one of the earliest roads and rivers within low country South Carolina north of Charleston. The northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry continued its function as a major crossing within the low country transportation infrastructure. Its location as a known meeting place for political rallies in the late 1870s testifies to its continued social importance within the local community (Deas 1978[1909]). But, never

again would it achieve the prominence it held within Childsbury during the early colonial expansion of the Carolina frontier.

CHAPTER SIX

CHILDSBURY TOWNE

(38BK1750)

Historical Background

In 1707 James Child laid out and sold lots for the establishment of Childsbury Towne. Child's skill as a surveyor served him in this endeavor (Moore and Simmons 1960). Childsbury Towne was the name given it by James Child, but it was commonly referred to as Strawberry (Rogers, et al., 1980:223). The town's association with the ferry crossing serves to highlight its growing social, economic, and transportation function along South Carolina's frontier (Barr 1995; Wesler 1985).

Childsbury Towne possibly played a role similar to that of Camden, established during the late 18th century, in the Carolina back country. Camden's main purpose was to serve as a . . . "multi-functional center" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:565).

> As an internal urban center, its development [would] reflect the increasing population density and commercialization of the interior, its trading role was intimately related to and increasing emphasis of [rice and indigo] growing and the development of overland transportation ties that gave back country access to coastal markets (Ernst and Merrens 1973:565).

Much like Childsbury, Camden's "economic viability was assured by its flourishing regional base, and the town served as an integral component in the economic structure of the region in which it was located" (Ernst and Merrens 1973:565).

Although not as large or extensive in regional influence as Camden, Childsbury may have played a similar role locally. There is little known of Childsbury Towne. A few historical references, Child's original plat, an 1811 map of Strawberry Plantation by John Diamond, the town chapel (Plate 9), and the two brick landings for the ferry crossing are a few of the remnants that serve as mute testimony to it's existence (Deas 1978 [1909]; Merrens 1978; Moore and Simmons 1960:65-66; Smith 1913:198; 1914:107-112). Except for Strawberry Chapel and the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry, the relative size and number of key structures constructed within the town is undetermined (Smith 1914:107-112).

Plate 9. Strawberry Chapel

Childsbury Towne, according to James Child's will dated 1718 and his original plat map, covered approximately 100 acres and consisted of 185 numbered lots which included large town squares and a market area (See page 50, Fig. 7; See page 51, Fig. 8). Certain lots were designated for the construction of community buildings. Those specified were a chapel, free school, and college. There was a common pasture laid out for the benefit of the community. Letters, wills, deeds and other historical documents suggest that approximately one or two domestic residences were constructed in the southeastern quadrant of Childsbury Towne (Rogers et al., 1974:598-599; Appendix I).

There were a total of 182 lots for sale to the public, and over 50% of the lots surveyed by James Child within the town limits of Childsbury Towne can be traced to a specific owner (Appendix VII). The majority of lots owned were located in the northeastern and southeastern quadrant of the town. James Child's will, dated October 29, 1718, stipulates that "Hanna Dix [would receive] town lots No. 50-95" (Moore and Simmons 1960:65-66; Smith 1914:111). The will of James' son Isaac, dated November 5, 1734, stipulates that his oldest son William would receive town lots No. 1, 2, 17, and 24. Each of William's four, grown daughters were to receive individual lots in town, also. (Moore and Simmons 1960:203). Numerous other lots were sold to individuals who lived along the Cooper River and in Berkeley Parish. Over time the town is reported to have acquired some full-time residents (Deas 1972[1909]; Irving 1932[1842]:143; Moore 1964:248; Moore and Simmons 1960:66, 203; Rogers et al., 1974:599; Smith 1913:199; Terry 1981:110, 111, 128, 306; Appendix VIII). Archaeological data from the southwestern quadrant does not support this information.

Childsbury Towne was established and supported by the elite white land owners of the Cooper River as a gathering place for local residents and to take advantage of a growing export market in agricultural products. Trustees and subscribers were appointed for the town and for assistance in the construction of public buildings (Smith 1914:109-110). A majority of the eighteen subscribers were elite residents of the western branch of

the Cooper River. Among them were Francis Williams, Daniel Huger, Thomas Broughton, James Child, Nathaniel Broughton, The Rev. Thomas Hassell, Anthony Bonneau, John Harleston, Elias Ball, Andrew Broughton, and Francis Lejau. Of these 11, nine were related by marriage. A hefty fee of £100 was required to become a subscriber. Although unknown, I assume that as trustees and subscribers each owned lots in the town.

Although the elite was instrumental in the establishment and continued success of Childsbury Towne, historical documents show that some residents were not of the same social standing as its founders. Artisans, tradesmen, and professionals trained in law and medicine are historically documented as residents (Smith 1914:107-112; Terry 1981:110-111, 209). I suspect that there were a significant number of Native American and African slaves (See Chapter 2).

The Indian trade, revolving principally around deer skins and Indian slaves, was significant to the rise of Childsbury Towne. As seen in chapter two, Child and other elite members of the Cooper River community were heavily involved in the Indian trade. The Indian trade led to tensions between the Indians and colonists (Weir 1983:84-85). Abuses in this trade led to the Yamasee war in 1715 (Weir 1983:98). Concerns related to Indian affairs led Child to will "Lands by [the] Tan house and River Bay to build a citadel for [the] security of [the] town" (Moore and Simmons 1960:66). The proposed location for the fort is shown on the plat map of Childsbury Towne on the bluff overlooking the Cooper River (See page 51, Fig. 8). This fort would be used for defense of the town's inhabitants during either Indian attacks or slave insurrections; both of which were of major concern to those living upon the frontier.

The naval stores trade was also of major importance to Childsbury Towne in the early colonial period. As seen in chapter two, a number of possible colonial era tar kilns have been discovered north of Childsbury Towne (Allen and Epenshade 1990; Williams et al, 1992, 1993). Child leased some of his lands for the production of naval stores to

John Benoist in 1714 and John Lawes in 1715 (Terry 1981:82). As well, George Boyles plantation north of Mepkin Plantation "produced at least 131 barrels of pitch to send to England" (Terry 1981:79-80). In March 1717, Boyles estate earned £338 sterling for pitch produced in that year (Terry 1981:80).

During the 1730s the naval stores industry and the deer skin trade began to decline whereas the production of rice began to substantially increase. The cypress swamps and marsh lands north of Childsbury Towne are known to be areas utilized for growing rice (Ferguson and Babson n.d.). Much like the production of naval stores, the results of rice production were probably moved by overland transportation to Childsbury Towne's public landing for shipment to Charles Town.

Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne became significant entities within the transportation infrastructure of St. John's parish during the early to mid-colonial period. Planters, overseers, farmers, travelers, merchants from Charles Town, and parish residents with religious and social obligations were drawn to Childsbury for various reasons. The general layout of the parish roads in St. John's in the early 18th century would have funneled much of the overland traffic from the deer skin trade, naval stores production, and rice production toward the public landing at Childsbury Towne for shipment to Charles Town (See page 34, Fig. 3). The influx of back country farmers would have accented the need for storage facilities and assisted the growth of the Childsbury's local cottage industries. In 1718, James Child willed £5 to Maj. Andrew Foster, a Charles Town merchant, for the building of storehouses on land fronting Bay Street (Moore and Simmons 1960:66).

Childsbury Towne also provided a number of services for local residents along the Cooper River. A saw pit or saw house is suggested to have been in operation at Childsbury Towne in the early 1700s (Terry 1981:82). Prior to 1750, the town was occupied at various times by three carpenters, two tailors, two butchers, a tanner, and a shoemaker (Terry 1981:209). A tanning house is known to have been located in

Childsbury Towne during the 1720s (Moore and Simmons 1960:66). "The town also had the services of a doctor, and during the 1740s even had an attorney-at-law living in the neighborhood" (Terry 1981:209).

In an effort to improve and secure the early economic success experienced through the construction of the ferry at Childsbury Towne the men who lived along the banks of the western branch of the Cooper River successfully petitioned the assembly for permission to build a draw bridge across the Cooper River (McCord 1841:43-46). On February 20, 1718-19, the assembly passed Statute #391 for the construction of this bridge.

There is no evidence that the bridge was ever built. There are a number of factors to be considered as to why it was not. The Cooper River, in 1719 and today, is approximately 5 fathoms deep and over 200 feet wide. This is a considerable depth and span for colonial bridge construction. Freshets, that is exceedingly quick rises of water rapidly flowing down river, were quite common to most South Carolina rivers prior to the advent of dams. In colonial times these freshets often would destroy bridges. In 1801, Elias Ball stated that the tides in the Cooper River, at times, could exceed six or seven feet (Terry 1981:195). Henry Laurens, in 1772, bemoaned the fact that these freshets occasionally killed residents of Childsbury (Rogers et al., 1980:223).

The socio-economic significance of Childsbury Towne to the local community is reflected in petitions to the assembly for the construction of a chapel and school as set forth in James Child's will. As confirmation of that significance, Strawberry Chapel was constructed in 1725 and the "free school" was constructed in 1733. Among those appointed as trustees of the "free school" were Lieutenant Governor Thomas Broughton, Col. George Chicken, Richard Beerresford, Esq., Percevall Pawley, Andrew Foster, merchant, Capt. John Harleston, and Lt. Anthony Bonneau (Moore and Simmons 1960:66; Cooper 1838:204-206, 252-253, 364-365). A college was proposed but, there is no archaeological evidence of its ever being constructed.

A bi-yearly fair was established in Childsbury Towne by law in 1723 because of a request from the local residents (Cooper 1838:204-206). Statute #478 also authorized weekly market days because the citizens of Childsbury Towne and Berkeley Parish were "very much incommoded, as [to] want of certain market days in each week" (Cooper 1838:204-206). Childsbury Towne seemed to be growing from the conceptual dream of James Child into a small settlement which supplied the local area with a number of its social, commercial, and economic needs. Along with this success came socio-economic ties to Charles Town and a vast worldwide market system.

A number of plantations along the western branch had extensive rice fields that bordered the river. Maps of Bluff Plantation, owned by Isaac Harleston in the late 1700s, and Strawberry Plantation show large rice fields along the rivers edge (See page 52, Fig. 9; See page 78, Fig. 20). Much as the production of naval stores assisted in the socio-economic development of Strawberry Ferry in the early 18th century rice would enhance Childsbury Towne's position.

Along with the growth of rice as a staple crop came associated social and business connections with Charleston. Between 1736 and 1775 there was a slow, continual growth in the wealth of South Carolina's elite. As the local planters along the western branch of the Cooper River became more prosperous, they began to invest in land throughout the colony and in barges and ships to transport their product to market (Rogers et al., 1974:429, 639-642; Rogers et al., 1976:33). Rice production increased the economic importance of the public landing at Childsbury Towne.

Childsbury Towne grew and prospered from this trade in South Carolina's diverse economic resources. Very early the town began to exhibit non-residential key structures within its limits. These are represented by the ferry landing, tavern, church, and "free school" that were constructed there by 1733 (Barr 1994, 1995; Cooper 1838:204-206; Ernst and Merrens 1973:559-560).

As seen in chapter five, taverns and inns had social and economic functions within frontier societies. Many towns and colonial governments required that they be opened for the convenience and needs of travelers (Rockman and Rothschild 1984:112-114). Taverns were usually the first or second key structure within a frontier community next to the construction of the local chapel. Taverns and inns were established at ferry crossings by individual operators and this is assumed to be the case within Childsbury Towne (Neuffer 1963:8-11, 1967:5-35).

I assume that the first key structure located within Childsbury Towne was the tavern and inn associated with Strawberry Ferry. The rapidly expanding network of interior roads within the colony led to the establishment of inns located along highways and at ferry crossings. Inns provided travelers with food, lodging, stores, and a place to conduct business. According to Terry (1981) "there was always at least one tavern situated at the ferry" (Terry 1981:220).

Horse racing became extremely important, socially and economically, to South Carolinians early in the colonial period. Generally these races were "organized by inn-keepers and ferry operators, with taverns and ferry landings as markers for the race courses. Saddles and tankards were the prizes" (Longrigg 1972:110). Instead of a circular track, as found in the 20th century, races during the 18th century were generally run over a distance (Longrigg 1972:110). This was especially true in "South Carolina [where] racing was of a different, more ramshackle character in its early years" than that found in England or the northern colonies (Longrigg 1972:110). The first "Jockey Club" was organized in Charles Town in 1734 and the first English racing horse was imported into South Carolina as early as 1735 by Governor Nathaniel Johnson (Longrigg 1972:110).

There were many advertisements for races held at Childsbury Towne during the colonial period. These were social affairs, usually held in conjunction with the fairs held there. The socio-economic importance of fairs and market days within the local

community of Childsbury Towne is addressed in chapter five. The race track at Childsbury was supposedly located near the tavern at Strawberry Ferry near "the fair grounds, which accommodated the country fairs held there annually" (Terry 1981:209). Prizes offered at Childsbury Towne were saddles, worth up to £20, bridles, whips, boots, jockey caps, and even oxen (Cohen 1953:76, 77).

A number of advertisements within the South Carolina Gazette document these races. The first to appear was in April of 1737 when "a Ball and Race" were held there (Cohen 1953:76). Races were advertised to be held during the fairs in October of 1742 and May of 1750. Races were also held in February of 1766 (Cohen 1953:77, 82; Irving 1932:81-82). On January 25, 1768, a horse race was advertised to take place on "Tuesday the 19th instant," which was a market day for Childsbury Towne (Cohen 1953:88). Thus, fairs and market days held at Childsbury were important to the local community for a number of social and economic reasons.

According to John B. Irving, "the Strawberry Jockey Club used to hold its annual meetings" in Childsbury Towne where there was a well-established mile long track (Irving 1932[1842]:81). This club was "dissolved in 1822" (Irving 1932[1842]:81). Irving (1932[1842]) states that the course was plowed up and converted into a corn field, but there is no archaeological evidence of plowing in the southwestern quadrant of Childsbury Towne where this track is suggested to have been located

Childsbury Towne may have been a center where commodities, processed and packed on local plantations, required nothing more than warehouse facilities for the shipment of these goods to Charles Town. It was possibly no more than a location that functioned as a shipping point for local freight (Weir 1983:171). Yet, there are other factors which explain Childsbury Towne's role within the local community.

Childsbury Towne's importance extended beyond the local social and economic landscape. There are regional and worldwide aspects related to the town's location. The town was constructed on a bluff at a point on the Cooper River that was considered the

farthest point that ocean going vessels were capable of sailing up the western branch (Terry 1981:209). As a deep, freshwater river port Childsbury was often the site where military vessels and merchant ships would anchor during the summer months (Sellers 1934:5). This fresh water was of value to ships escaping the ravages of shipworms (Teredo novalis), a salt water parasite that burrowed into the hulls of wooden ships (Terry 1981:20). In 1744 there were at least eight vessels, to be loaded with agricultural supplies, moored in the river bay (Terry 1981:21). The crews from these vessels would most likely avail themselves of the services provided by local taverns and merchants in Childsbury Towne, much as they did in Charles Town (Weir 1983:170-171). It is suspected that in the summer months that "Childsbury was probably a very busy area" (Terry 1981:20). Ships of lighter burthen frequently sailed up river to Mepkin Plantation and Stoney Landing (Rogers et al., 1974:33, 669; Terry 1981:203-205).

Archaeological investigations have uncovered the remains of a number of ships that range from 50 to 70 tons burthen in the western branch of the Cooper River. These include the Biggin Creek Vessel (38BK887), the Mepkin Abbey Wreck (38BK58), and Strawberry Wreck (38BK869) (Amer 1989; Wilbanks 1981). All of these vessels are similar in design and of shallow draft. Each of these would have been capable of carrying 28 to 40 barrels of rice.

Childsbury's significance to the local community as a deep water river port is best appreciated when placed in context with the dispersed settlements that bordered the river. It was not unusual for individual plantations along major waterways to have their own landings and docks (Wesler 1985:390). This would compete with and possibly eliminate the need for a centralized shipping point. Any planters and farmers, away from the river, could ship their goods from the most convenient point along the river, and it would be logical for them to do so.

There were landings and dock structures constructed all along the banks of the Cooper River at various plantations. There was a deep water landing or dock at

Comingtee Plantation, down river from Childsbury Towne (Deas 1978[1909]). Mepkin Plantation, up river of Childsbury, had a landing as early as 1717 (Terry 1981:80). Archaeological investigations have discovered the remains of a colonial period dock structure there as well. Historical accounts speak of a dock at Wadboo Barony at least by 1763. I suspect that it existed prior to that date (Hamer 1972:520).

Although there were facilities at Mepkin Plantation and other plantations along the Cooper River for the export of agricultural commodities, Childsbury Towne retained its significance as a shipping and receiving point within the local economic landscape (Chesnutt et al., 1994:332, 335, 551; Terry 1981:80). Per the will of George Boyle in 1717, he left to Percival Pawley "all the Saw'd and Unsawed Cypress and Cedar Timber yt Ly at mepkin landing and Likewise the feather edge boards yt Ly at ye Yard in [Childsbury] Town" (Terry 1981:80).

In 1761 Robert Raper, in selling Mepkin Plantation, made no mention of the landing or dock at Mepkin but, extolled the virtues of the public landing at Childsbury Towne when he advertised in the January 17 edition of the Charles Town Gazette,

> TO BE SOLD AN extraordinary good tract of land in St. John's Parish, about 20 or 30 miles from Charles-town, commonly called MEPKIN, containing 3000 acres old measure, situated on the north side of Cooper-river, near to Strawberry whereon is a very high and pleasant bluff close to the river, and also a good landing place: Any vessel that comes here may go to said landing and load (Hamer et al., 1972:55).

As late as August 5, 1763, Laurens "engaged to load the 180 ton ship *Albermarle* at Strawberry (Childsbury Towne) on Account of a friend in London with Lumber for his

Estate at St. Kitts" (Hamer et al., 1972:520). In November of 1777 the overseer at Mepkin Plantation, Mr. Roddrick, picked up two flax hackles that were left at Childsbury Towne for use on the plantation (Chesnutt et al., 1990:87). The public landing at Childsbury Towne continued into the late 18th century to be significant to the local economic landscape.

An example of Childsbury Towne's continuing importance as a place for members of the community to conduct business is seen in Henry Laurens' letter of July 4, 1763, to John Coming Ball concerning flyers advertising sales. He wrote,

> I sent Peter some time ago a parcel of negro advertisements for my neighbors Messrs. Brailsford and Chapman & they complain that those papers were not put up at any place not even Strawberry which troubles me a good deal (Hamer et al., 1972:481).

In 1765 Henry Laurens was involved in a land dispute with Peter Broughton concerning a "Swamp Near Strawberry" (Rogers et al., 1974:592-593, 598-599). Laurens set up a meeting on the twenty-third of April to discuss negotiations with Broughton. On the same day Laurens wrote to Benjamin Simons, Jr. to inform him that "Mr. Broughton has agreed to meet me at the House of Mr. Boyd at Strawberry on Tuesday the 23rd" (Rogers et al., 1974:598-599).

It has been determined that, during the colonial period Childsbury Towne, the public landing, the ferry crossing, tavern, chapel of ease, and "free school" were significant to the local and regional socio-economic landscape. Yet, it is obvious that something occurred that led to the demise of Childsbury Towne as a significant socio-economic entity. There probably was not just one thing that led to this demise but a combination of social, economic, and related transportation factors. The first indication

of this decline seems to be an advertisement published by the owner of Middleburg Plantation, Benjamin Simons, Jr., in the South Carolina Gazette and County Journal on February 11, 1766. This notified the community that,

> To be Let. The Plantation and Ferry in St. John's Parish commonly called and known by the name of the Strawberry, whereon is a good Dwelling-house and other Out-houses, a Garden and about 80 or 100 Acres of cleared land, fit for corn and Indigo; a Horse Boat, and two Negro Men to attend the Ferry: There is also on said Place, a Mile Course, and a large convenient Stable with proper Stalls for Horses any person inclinable to rent the same (which will be vacant by the fifth of March) may apply in St. Thomas Parish (Irving 1932[1842])

Outside forces, beyond the power and control of the elite residents along the Cooper River, began to adversely affect Childsbury Towne's position along the Carolina frontier. Initially, the economic success of the low country "was based upon its specialization in the production of plantation staples with bound labor" (Coclanis 1989:130). From the 1720s on "the economy became increasingly dominated by rice production" (Terry 1981:244). Agronomic specialization for national and international markets, upon which South Carolina's economic success was based, "was rendered dependent upon the vagaries of this wider economy" and these outside factors (Coclanis 1989:144).

The advent of King George's War (1739-1748) in Europe was a major economic blow to the low country of South Carolina (Weir 1983:117) and the town of Childsbury. Although the wars in Europe brought about the rise of indigo production, it caused a

major drop in the price of rice (Terry 1981:244): "Between 1741 and 1746 the average price of rice in Charles Town fell by 70 percent" (Weir 1983:146). The fall in rice prices would have had a detrimental effect on South Carolina in general and Childsbury Towne in particular. Along with the drop in production values of rice, the war also caused a hiatus in shipping. Colonial exports stagnated and even declined in the 1740s and 1750s, causing the worst depression in the colony's history (Coclanis 1989:72; Terry 1981:244). This was a period of "economic depression and hardship for most inhabitants in the colony" (Terry 1981:110).

Within St. John's parish the elite, whose livelihood was based on the export of agricultural products, suffered greatly during this depression. To survive the depression and its detrimental effects, most planters altered their operations to become more self-sufficient (Terry 1981:244). These alterations were a logical response to the economic pressures placed on them by the fall in prices and export capabilities, and were designed to mitigate their reliance upon services and products from outside the plantation (Coclanis 1989:57; Terry 1981:244).

In an effort to divest themselves of their dependence on outside forces beyond their control, these planters "invested additional funds in diversifying the economic activities of their plantations" (Terry 1981:256). The expertise of African American slaves had long been used to build boats and operate them upon the rivers of South Carolina (Amer et al., 1995; Newell n.d.). In an effort, by the elite, to retain as much profit as possible, thus survive, plantation slaves were encouraged in other skills that allowed them to carry out the duties of carpenters, blacksmiths, coopers, bricklayers, and tanners (Terry 1981:256). This allowed each plantation, in effect, to "become a self supporting village" (Terry 1981:244) much like that seen in Europe during the middle ages. "Small farmers and tradesmen were no longer needed to serve the plantation and local service centers disappeared" (Terry 1981:244).

"The alteration in the functions of plantations had a great impact upon the local economic structure" (Terry 1981:256). The self sufficient economic autonomy achieved by planters whose slaves became proficient in these trades had a disparate effect upon the local economy (Terry 1981:259). The training of plantation slaves in skills normally performed by local tradesmen caused a number of "free white craftsmen" to leave the parish (Terry 1981:256). This affected many of the local artisans within St. John's parish, especially those "who lived in Childsbury [Towne]" (Terry 1981:110-111).

Thus, the greatest problem for Childsbury Towne's future development seems to have been that which enabled it to grow initially; the power and wealth of the elite. Childsbury Towne, as stated by Irving in *A Day on the Cooper River* (1932[1842]), "shared [the] fate [of other communities] at the hands of the growing plantations" (Irving 1932[1842]:30) Terry seems to support Irving's (1932[1842]) assessment of the situation, as does Coclanis (1989:51). Terry (1981) suggests that,

> One explanation for the movement from the parish of persons in the lower and middle levels of the economic order during the 1740s, was that these persons lacked either the foresight or resources to accumulate large tracts of land during the parish's initial period of settlement (Terry 1981:114).

The economic landscape of South Carolina's low country was increasingly dominated by large-scale plantation agriculture. These efforts by the elite to re-invent their society also caused a decline in white immigration to the low country (Coclanis 1989:67). "Except for a small number of wealthy families which established strong economic and kinship ties within St. John's few families became permanent residents of the parish" (Terry 1981:115).

Inherent within the notion of frontiers is movement. By the late 18th century the frontier had expanded throughout the interior of South Carolina and beyond into the unclaimed lands of Georgia, Alabama, Florida, and other western regions of the colonies (Coclanis 1989:67). "Between 1725 and 1750, large numbers of settlers in the low country parishes surrounding Charleston moved to other areas of South Carolina and to other colonies" (Terry 1981:105, 109). Over 400,000 acres "or 17% of [the] land in South Carolina was returned" to the colonial governors during this time (Weir 1983:146).

In demographic studies related to St. John's parish between 1705 and 1728 there was steady growth in the white population. This declined between 1728 and 1741 by 03%. Although the population in 1743 increased to its previous 1728 level and exceeded that total by 06% by 1746, there was a drop of 40% between 1746 and 1756. It would not be until 1790 that the white population within St. John's parish would exceed its highest total from 1743 (Terry 1981:116).

As evidence of the withdrawal of the elite from interacting socially within the local community the individual concentration of land holdings "increased a bit during the second half of the 18th century" (Coclanis 1989:69-70). Due to this consolidation of property the large estates owned by the elite along the Cooper River remained largely intact. Land consolidation was at its highest between 1763 and 1793. Owners of large tracts of land between those years decreased 11%, from 49% owning over 1000 acres to 38% (Coclanis 1989:69-70). Consolidation meant survival and survival was the hard lesson learned during the decade of the 1740s (Terry 1981:259).

Export capabilities and the price of rice improved shortly after the end of King George's War. Yet, long after the war was over, the economic depression of the 1740s affected the development of Childsbury Towne (Terry 1981:259). As seen, this was manifested in the outward migration of a large segment of St. John's white population. At the same time, the westward movement of the frontier established new transportation routes to access these areas. The evolutionary nature of frontier settlement, the failure of

the local community to construct a bridge across the Cooper River at Strawberry Ferry which, in turn, affected local transportation infrastructures, the growth of Monck's Corner, and the consolidation of landed wealth among the elite dispersed land owners, all had a detrimental effect upon Childsbury Towne.

Archaeological Investigations

The archaeological record confirms the social and economic relationships seen historically within Childsbury Towne. Used in concert, the historical description (See page 122), the Diamond map, Child's plan (Fig. 28), and the archaeological record show Childsbury Towne to be a significant part of the community along the western branch of the Cooper River. Archaeological investigation has helped define the status of the residents, class differences, the partial extent of settlement within the southwestern quadrant, the presence of identifiable non-residential key structures, and the function of those structures. Each of these factors is related to Childsbury's socio-economic function and position in the local community.

The southwestern quadrant contained lots 96 through 139 of Child's original plan, and included those areas designated for the college, church, the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry, as well as the presumed location of Strawberry tavern (See page 50, Fig. 7; Fig. 29). Positive evidence of colonial period habitation was found in 45% of the southwestern quadrant test excavations. The majority was found in section "A" along the bluff (See page 57, Fig. 11). No artifacts or features were recorded from lots 107, 109, 113-114, 116-117, 119-124, 126-135, and 137-139. Lots 114, 121, 133, and 139 were not tested because they were in low-lying marsh land. Lots 105 and 106 were not tested because they had been impacted by grading for an access road related to a late 20th century dock constructed there by the American Oil Company.

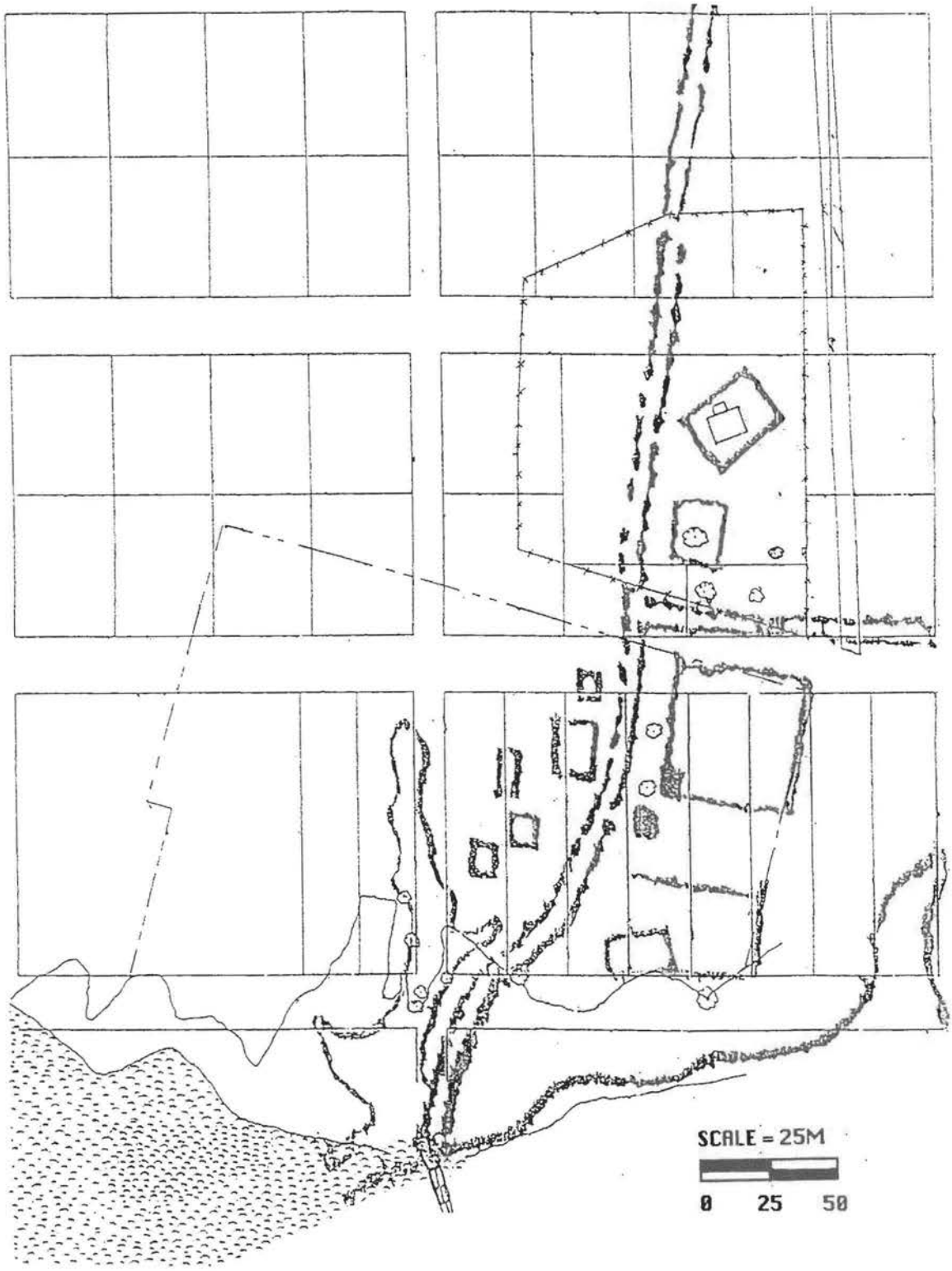

FIGURE 28. Overlay of southwestern quadrant, Child's Plat, and Diamond survey.

(James Child 1707, John Diamond 1811.)

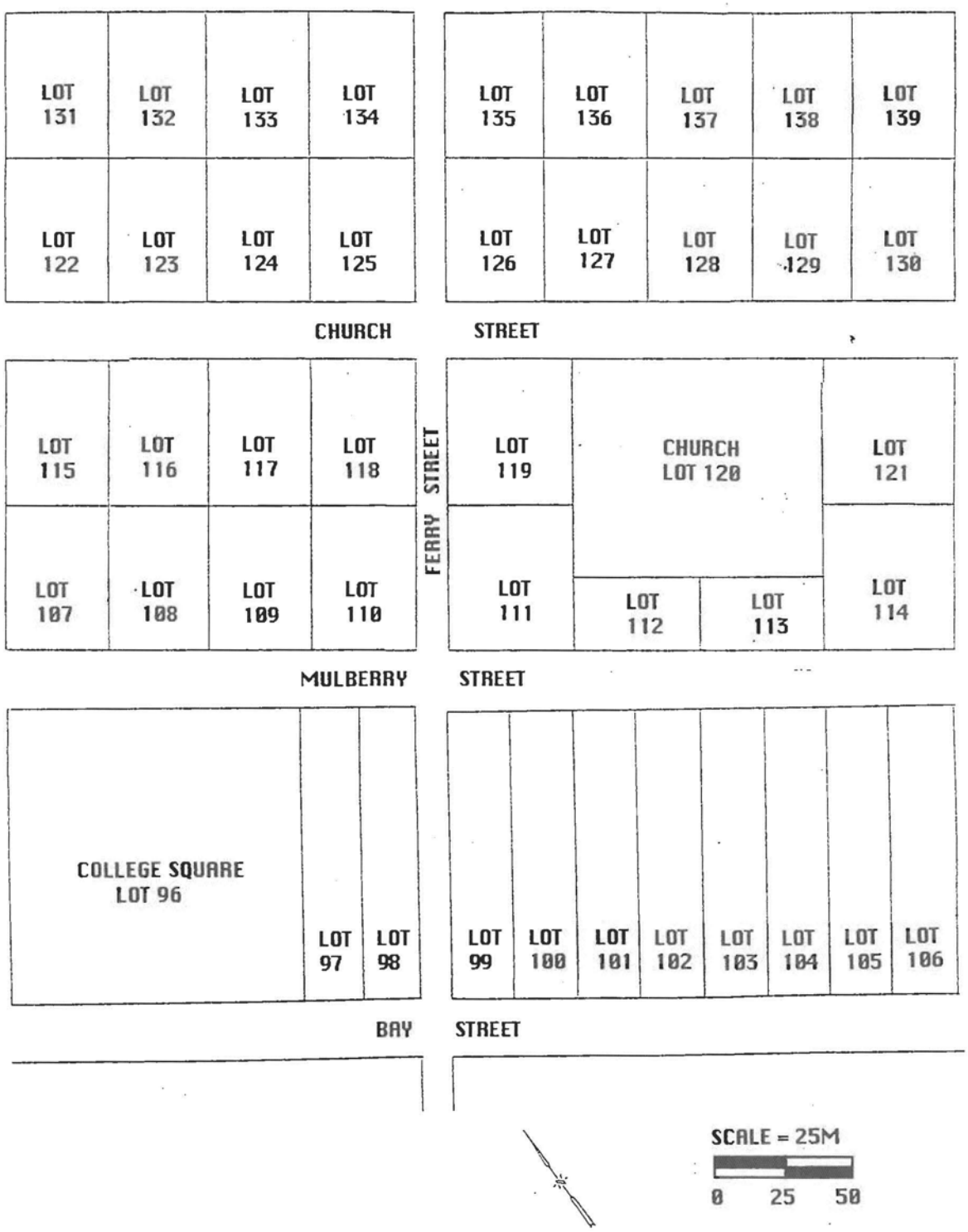

FIGURE 29. Lot numbers and street names in southwestern quadrant, Childsbury Towne.

Lot 120 was not tested because it contains Strawberry Chapel and its associated grave yard. Expansion of the chapel grounds incorporated the southern portions of lots 127-129, the eastern portions of lot 111 and 119, the northeastern portion of lot 112, and the majority of lot 113. Lot 96, within section "B," was reserved by Child for the construction of a college. There is no record of the college having been built, nor is there any archaeological data suggesting a building. All other lots contained positive test pits from which artifacts, ranging from the prehistoric to the modern eras, were recovered. Sections of lots 98 through 103 contained four surface features in the form of brick scatter in association with colonial artifacts.

Section "A," in which a 25% random sample was collected, yielded the majority of plain or decorated unglazed, handbuilt earthen wares. Section "B," "C," and "D" yielded substantially fewer (See page 57, Fig. 11). This category represents 27% of all artifacts studied and includes both pre-historic pottery and Colono Ware.

The majority of plain unglazed earthenware and decorated unglazed earthenware from Childsbury is identified as Colono Ware. These wares were recovered within the context of colonial Childsbury. This context implies colonial influence in their manufacture (Ferguson 1992:20). As such they represent contact between indigenous North Americans, African-Americans, and Europeans. They are characterized as an example of the "process of colonial creolization" seen in colonial Carolina's archeological record (Ferguson 1992:22).

The majority of the decorated unglazed earthenware in shovel tests came from the lower levels of the excavation, i.e., just before or at the yellow sand. Stanley South and Chester DePratter have determined, in excavations of a Spanish wall-base at Santa Elena, that the yellow sand level contained pre-contact unglazed earthenware (Stanley South and Chester DePratter 1995, pers. comm.). Much like Childsbury, similar materials and associated depositional characteristics have been found in other low country sites (Chester DePratter and Eric Poplin 1995 pers. comm.).

Many of the handbuilt earthenwares contain certain attributes that allow us to define whether they are of pre-historic manufacture or contact period ceramics. In a test of an existing regional research design for the coastal plain of South Carolina, David Anderson (1975) studied over 20,000 artifacts from 315 pre-historic to contact period sites (Anderson 1975). In this study he used the attributes of surface finish and temper as markers for testing the typological order of these ceramics (Anderson 1975:14). Within Childsbury, except for three well-defined Stallings pot sherds (Anderson 1975:13), the majority of plain and decorated unglazed earthenware is probably contemporaneous with the early colonial period for a number of reasons.

The bluff overlooking the river does not show widespread occupation by pre-historic peoples. Section "A," contained 100% of the decorated unglazed earthenware found in shovel tests. The surface furnish on these artifacts, such as folded rims and carelessly applied shallow decorative motifs of simple and linear stamped design with wide lands, reflect a later period of manufacture (DePratter, et. al., 1973:54-55; Anderson 1975). Approximately 94% of the decorated unglazed earthenware is found in association with identified Colono Wares with plain surface treatment (Fig. 30, 31).

Of interest to this study is the northwestern corner of section "A" (See page 61, Fig. 13). Although not classified as a feature, this assemblage, located 60m from all other artifact concentrations, contains an array of artifacts. The northern end of lot 96 contains four different artifact types, three of which may represent a contact period structure (Fig. 30, 32, 33, 34). All artifacts were recovered from shovel tests. These are plain unglazed earthenware, 79% identified as Colono Ware, pearlware, a wrought nail, and assorted brick fragments (Appendix II, III). No structure is shown in this location on the Diamond (1811) survey, and I suspect that this area may be the location of one of the earlier structures within Childsbury. It contains an assemblage of colonial artifacts that corresponds with the contact and post-contact period.

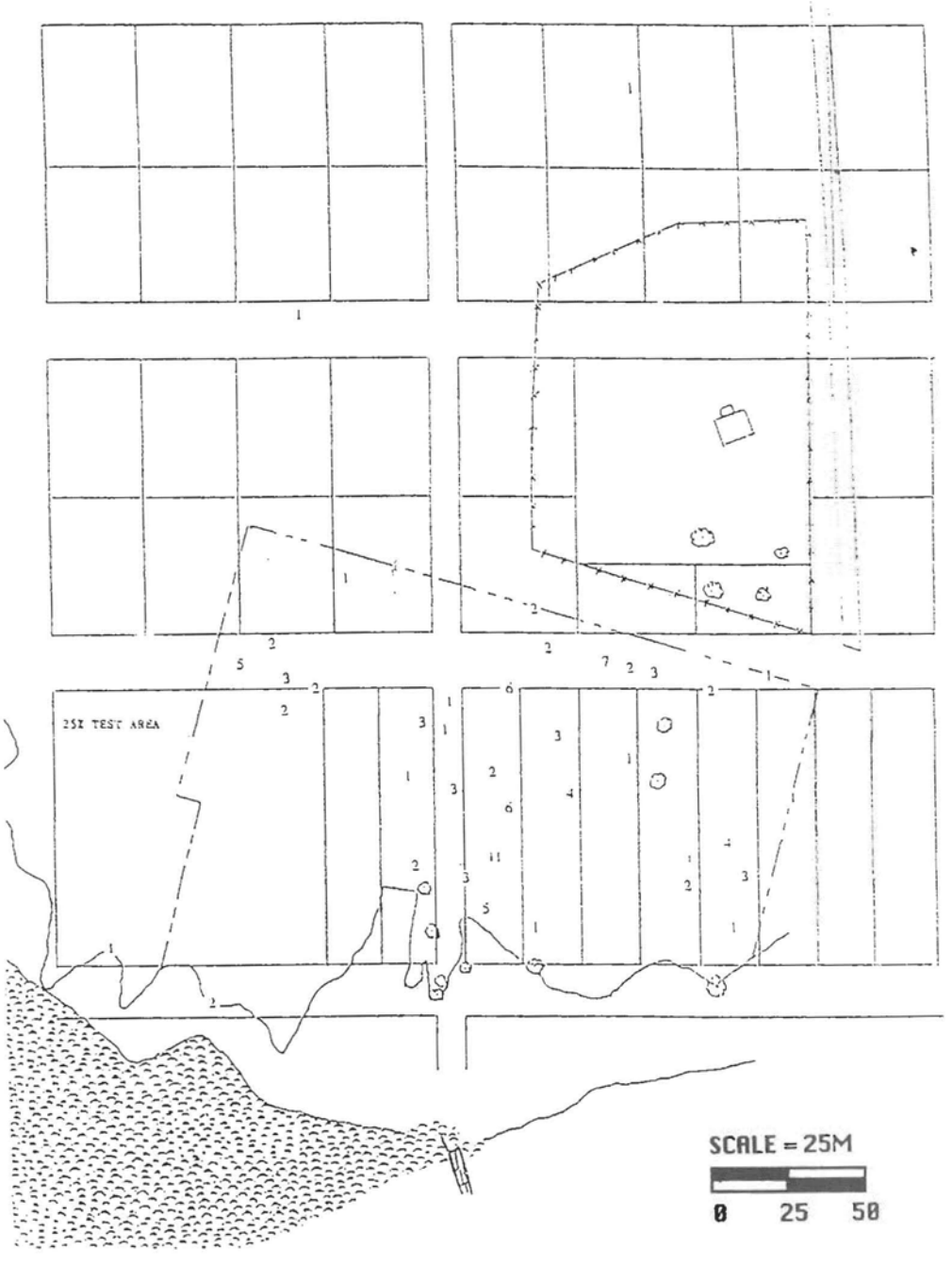

FIGURE 30. Distribution of plain unglazed hand-built earthenware.

(From shovel tests.)

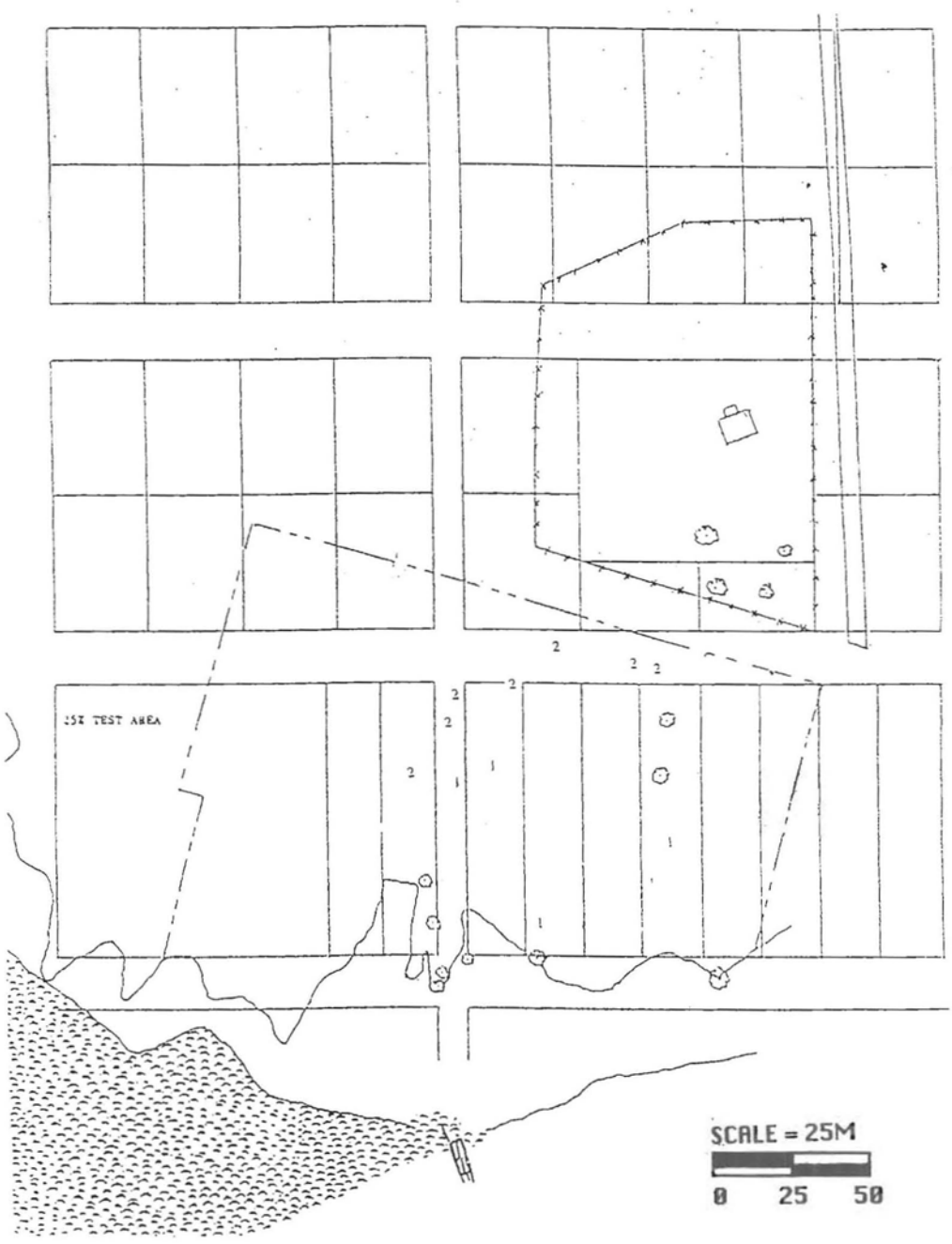

FIGURE 31. Distribution of decorated unglazed hand-built earthenware.

(From shovel test.)

38 BK 1750

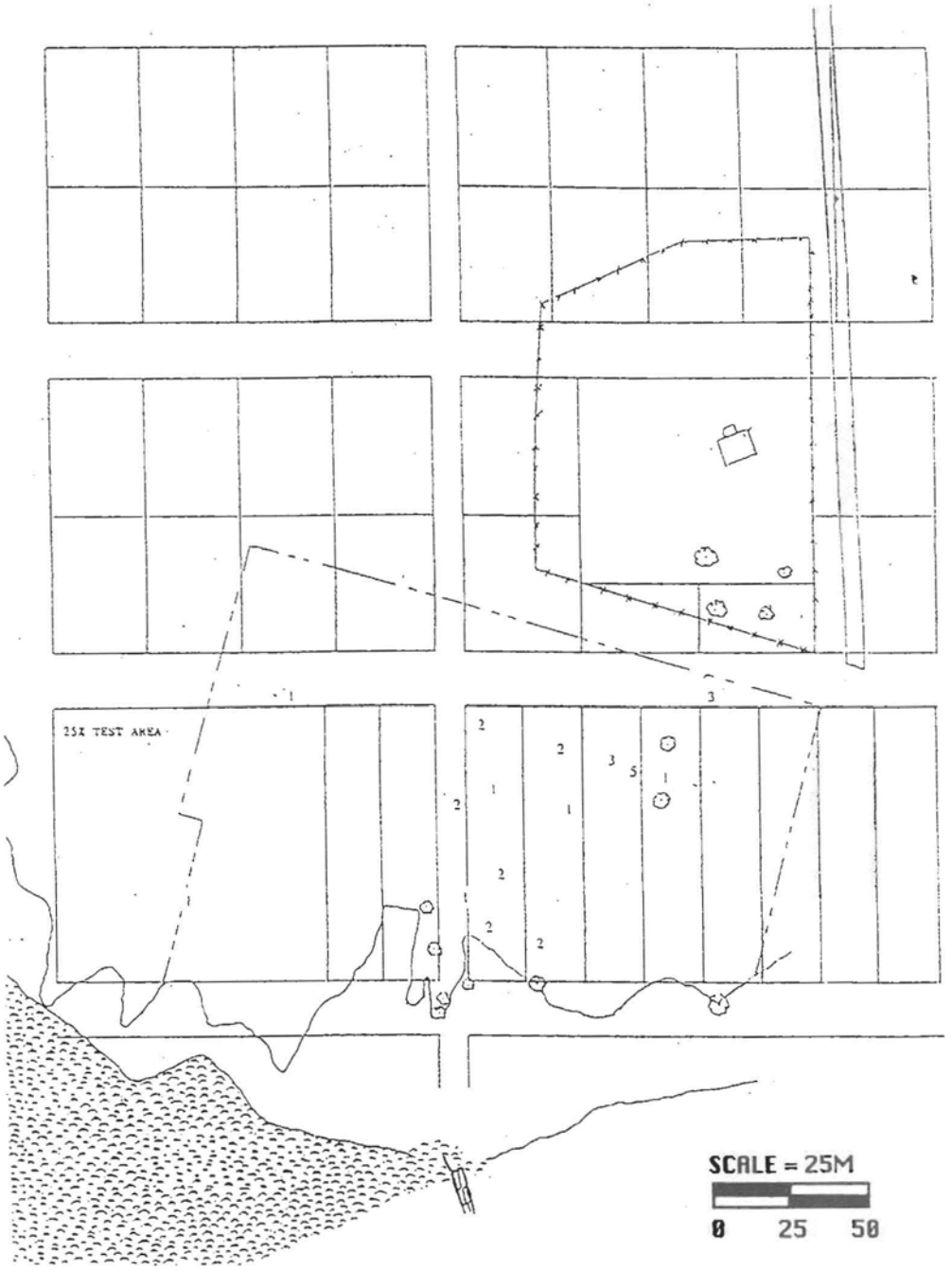

FIGURE 32. Distribution of 19th century European glazed ceramics.

(From shovel tests.)

38GK1750

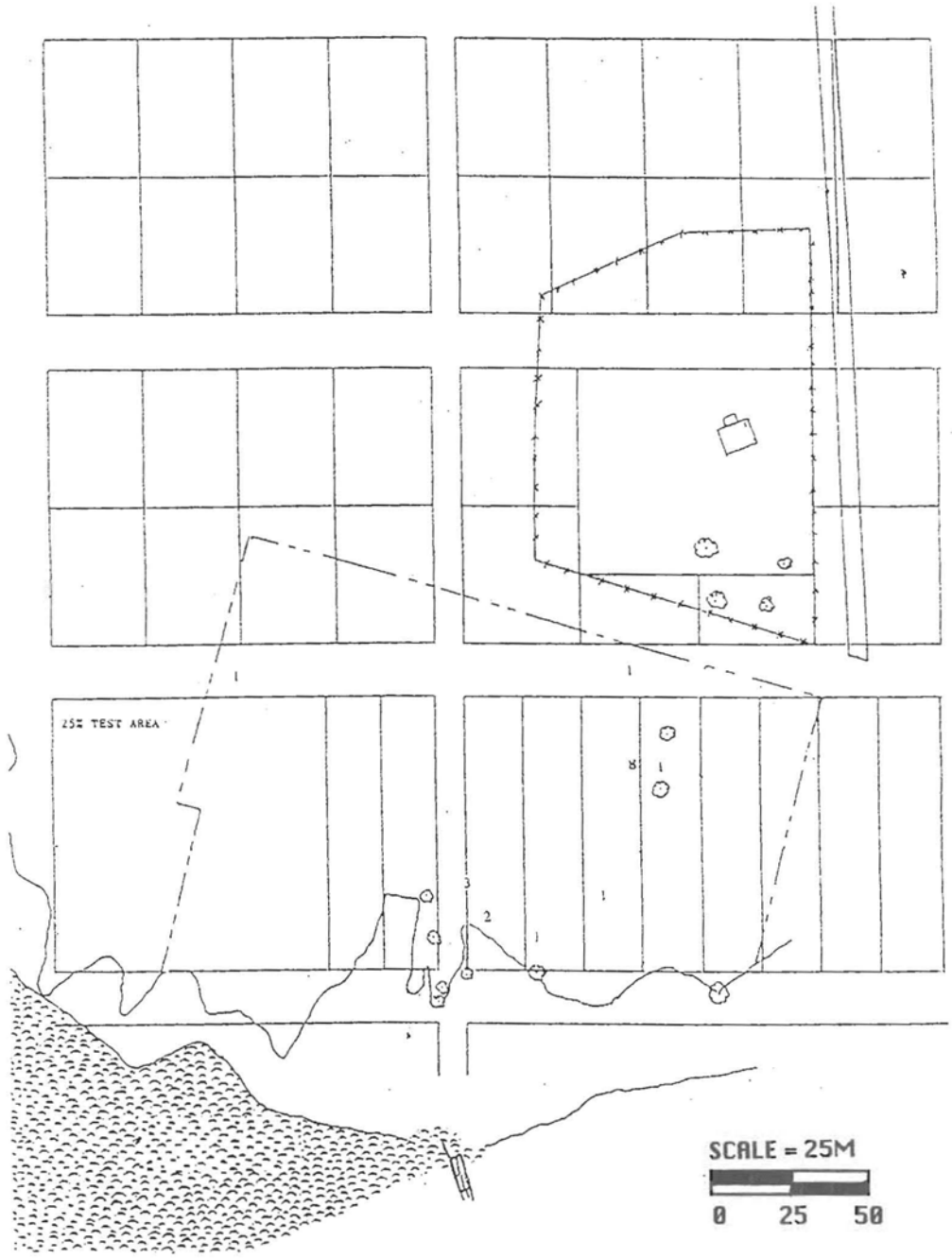

FIGURE 33. Distribution of wrought nails. (From shovel tests.)

FIGURE 34. Distribution of brick. (From shovel tests.)

Unlike the prehistoric data, the combined Diamond (1811) survey and Child's plan, gives a visual picture of Childsbury (Fig. 28). Diamond's (1811) survey confirms that reality did not quite follow Child's original plan. Archaeologically this settlement shows very little of his plan. Yet, archaeological investigations at Childsbury do confirm that social and class differences did exist within the settlement.

European glazed ceramics are used by archaeologists to determine status and for defining overall class relationships within British American colonial societies. Historically, probate inventories are used to arrive at similar conclusions. Research of probate inventories, which reflect the assets owned by an individual upon their death, from St. John's parish (1720-1779), by Terry (1981), has provided a base for comparison to the ceramic assemblage recovered archaeologically at Childsbury. The use of these two sets of data has assisted in identifying class differences that existed within the town.

Delftware and creamware are considered representative of 18th century ceramics for this study. Pearlware, being transitional from the 18th to the 19th century, is defined as 19th century ceramics. Delftware and creamware are listed in the probate inventories studied by Terry (1981). The manufacture of pearlware post dated Terry's (1981) study and was not included in them. My studies have determined that the individual assemblages of delftware and creamware from surface finds and shovel tests are substantially higher than that listed in the probate inventories researched by Terry (1981). Although the percentages of pearlware from probate inventories are unknown, I suspect they would also exceed their totals as listed in probate inventories from St. John's which post date 1779.

No delftware is listed in the probate inventories in St. John's prior to 1740 (Terry 1981:290). When it did appear it never exceeded its 1740-1749 level of 07% and hit an all time low of 03% between 1750 and 1759 (Terry 1981:289-291). Of thirty-five 18th century European ceramics recovered from shovel tests, four were delftware. This represents 11% of all 18th century ceramics found in shovel tests (Appendix III; Fig. 35).

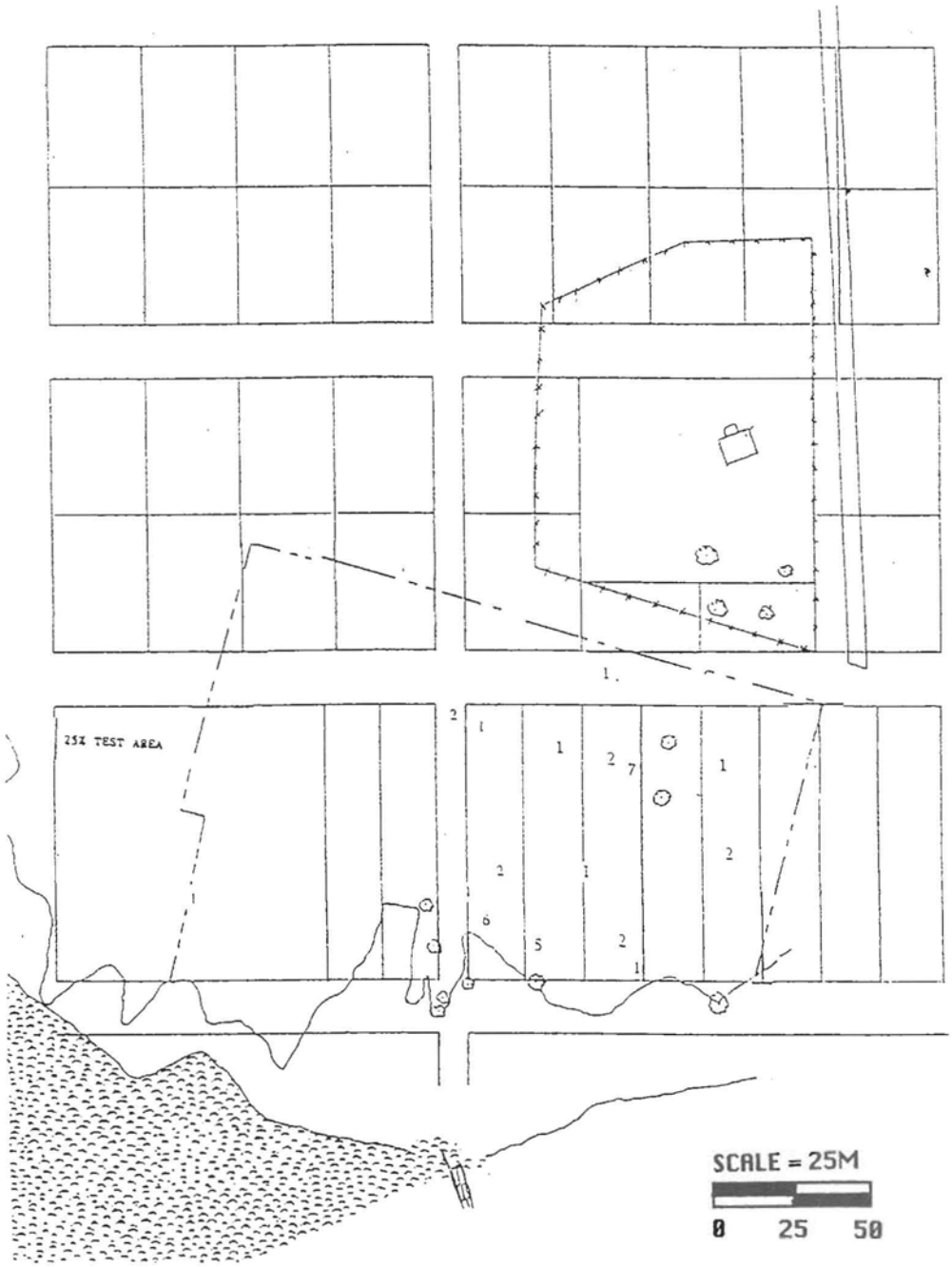

FIGURE 35. Distribution of 18th century European ceramics. (From shovel tests.)

Creamware, according to the probate inventories, first appeared in St. John's parish in the 1760s. This is the same decade of its initial manufacture in England (Noel-Hume 1970). At that time it was found in 11% of St. John's inventories (Terry 1981:290-291). Approximately 66% of all 18th century European ceramics found in shovel tests were creamware (Appendix III; Fig. 35).

Pearlware first appeared in British colonial America in the 1780s and ranges to an end date of 1820 (Noel-Hume 1970:130-131). As such it represents a transition between the 18th and 19th century. Although Terry's (1981) study does not present any data concerning the volume of pearlware from St. John's probate inventories over half (53%) of the forty-four 19th century European ceramics recovered from Childsbury consisted of pearlware. Of this total 29% was recovered in shovel tests (Appendix III; Fig. 32).

European ceramics recovered from surface finds parallels the high percentages recovered from shovel tests within Childsbury. Delftware and creamware consisted of 19% and 65% of all 18th century European ceramics found on the surface (Appendix III; Fig. 36). Pearlware consisted of 71% of all 19th century ceramics recovered from surface finds (Appendix II; Fig. 37). Although Pearlware may encompasses a number of status levels, comparative percentages from Delftware and Creamware show that the residents of Childsbury owned a substantial amount of high status ceramics during the 18th and early 19th century. This data confirms that individuals of high status either lived in or frequented the town of Childsbury.

The distribution of high status artifacts, when combined with the distribution of handmade unglazed plain and decorated unglazed earthenware, assists in defining social divisions in the settlement of Childsbury. Used in conjunction with the placement of town roads, as shown on the Diamond (1811) map (See page 127, Fig. 28), socio-economic class divisions emerge. Childsbury had distinct class divisions, as well as racial divisions within the settlement. Although planned by Child, there is no extension of Mulberry Street west of Ferry Road on Diamond's (1811) map. According to

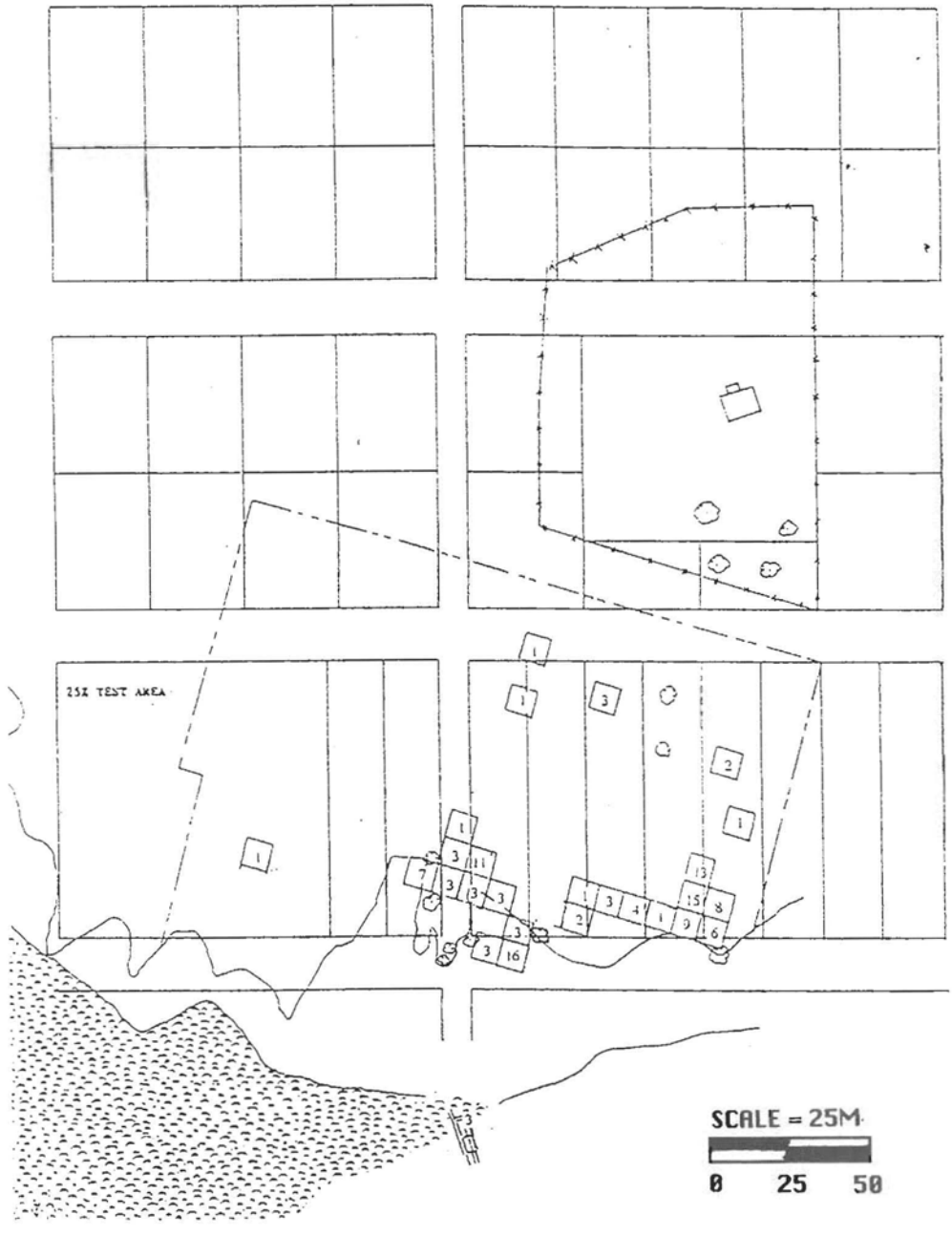

FIGURE 36. Distribution of 18th Century European ceramics. (From surface finds.)

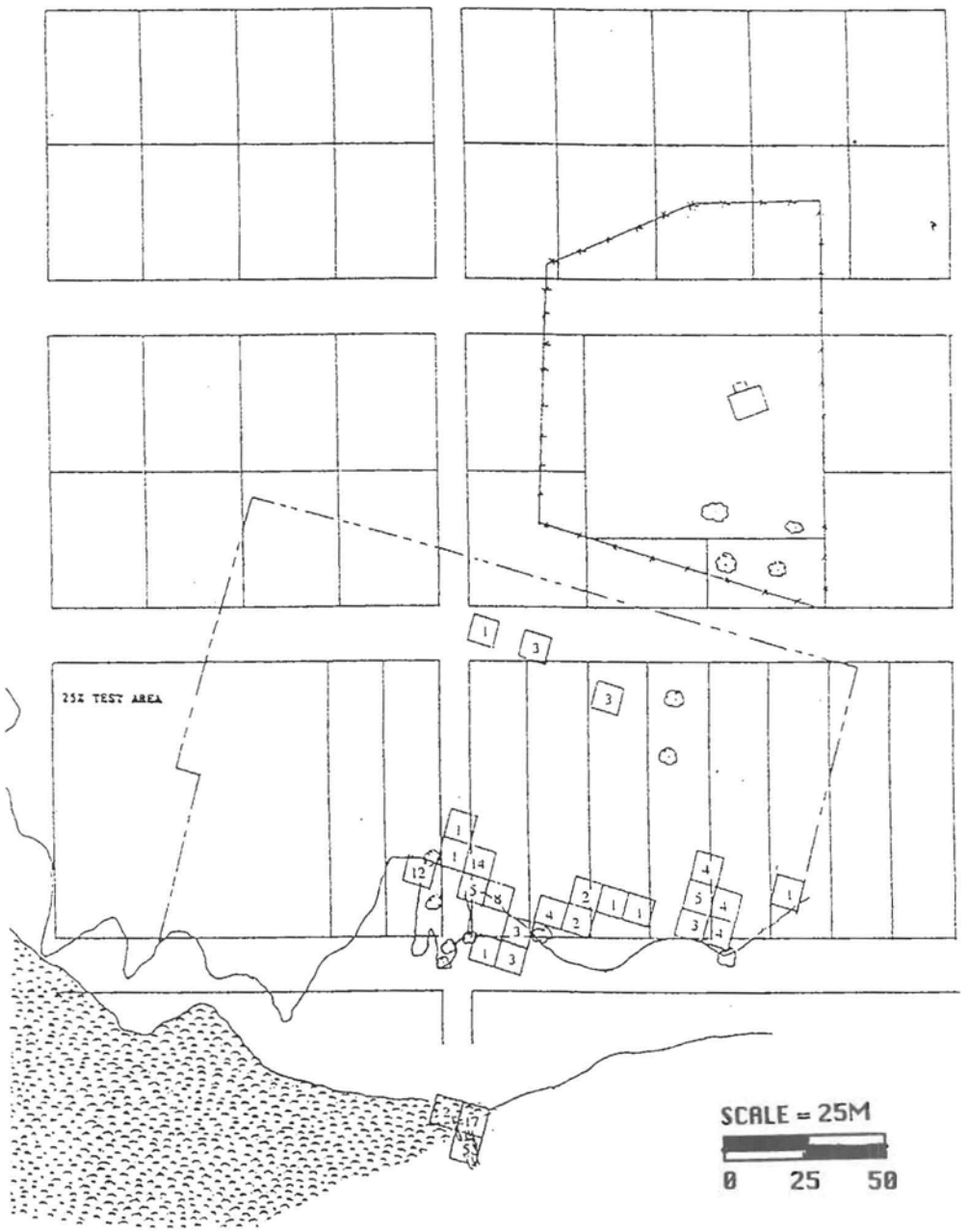

FIGURE 37. Distribution of 19th century European ceramics. (From surface finds.)

Diamond's (1811) survey, the majority of buildings in the settlement were west of the north-south road. Using this road as a dividing line for the comparison of archaeological data, it is evident that the west side of Ferry road was occupied, by different people.

Approximately 81% of all decorated unglazed earthenware from shovel tests came from the western side (Appendix II; Fig. 31). Plain unglazed earthenware was found in 77% of all shovel tests and surface finds (Appendix III; Fig. 30, 38). Although 50% of all 18th and 19th century European glazed ceramics were found on either side of the road, individual divisions per ceramic type confirm a class division. One hundred percent of all delftwares from shovel tests were found east of the road (Appendix III; Fig. 35). Fifty-seven percent of all creamware and pearlware recovered came from shovel tests east of Ferry Street (Appendix III; Fig. 32; 35).

Even with the assistance of probate inventories from personal estates it is difficult to ascertain, historically, whether there were residential or commercial structures in the southwestern quadrant of Childsbury. There may have been a number of residential structures in the southwestern quadrant of the town, and probate inventories may be biased as to what made up class divisions during the colonial period. Approximately 75% of the probate inventories from St. John's parish contained some type of ceramics (Terry 1981:291).

Jill Halchin, in *Archaeological Views of the Upper Wager Block, A Domestic and Commercial Neighborhood in Harpers Ferry* (1994), studied artifact patterning in an area of combined residential and commercial use. According to Halchin's (1994) study a distinct patterned emerged between the ceramic assemblage from the tavern owner's personal residence and the hotel and tavern located next door. These studies indicate that the hotel and tavern operations on the Wager Block used high status wares as a service for their customers. Similar to Rodman (1992) this may reflect the operator's notion of what represented the status of his clientele (Halchin 1994). At Childsbury, in the

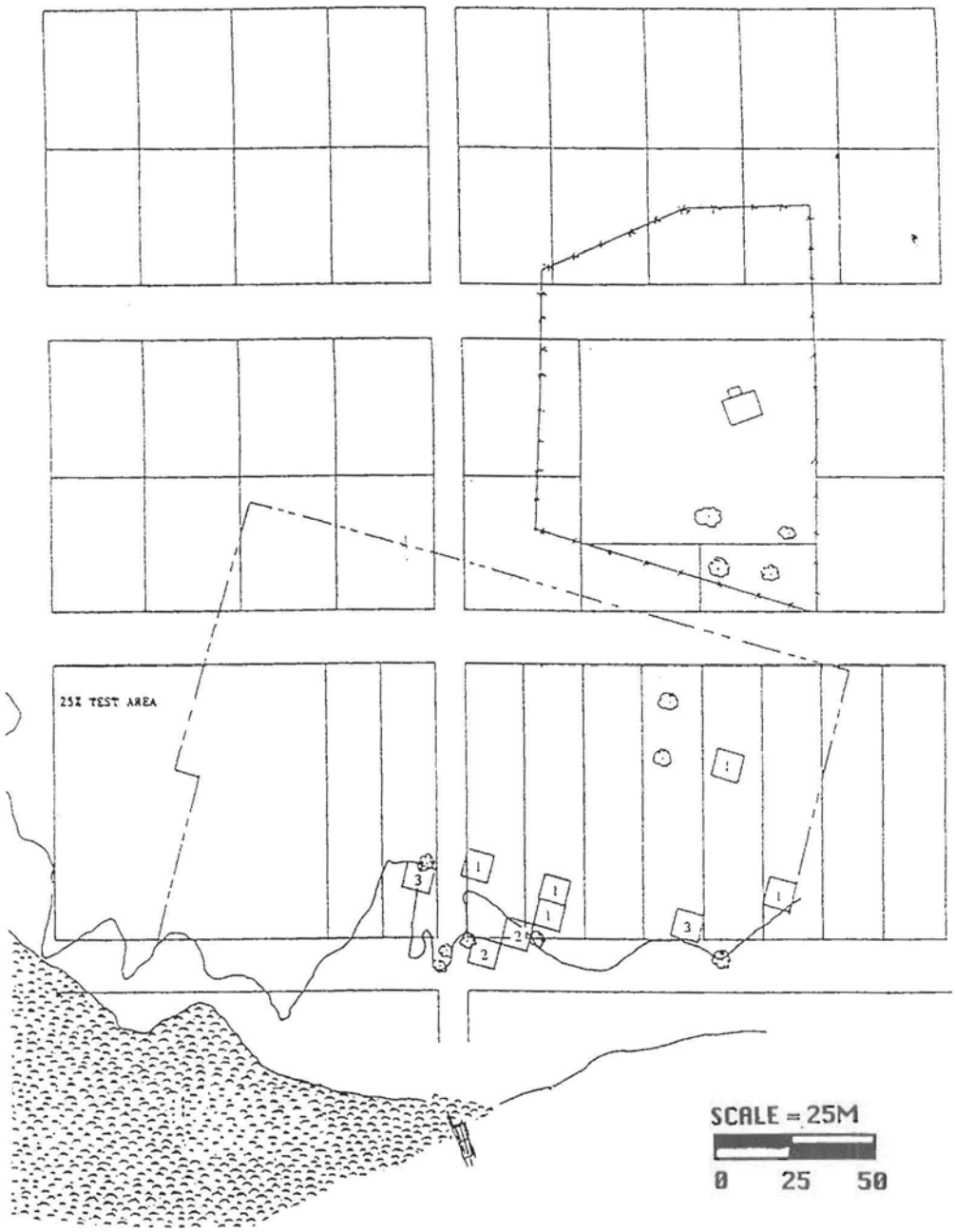

FIGURE 38. Distribution of plain unglazed hand-built earthenware.

(From surface finds.)

northwestern area of section "A," there are large concentrations of high status artifacts. The large percentage of high status ceramics may come from a key structure, Strawberry Tavern, known to have been operated in Childsbury. These artifacts may reflect the values of the owner or operator.

The tavern is most likely located in the area of Feature 1 (See page 63, Fig. 14). This feature covers the north side of lots 101 and 102, and corresponds to the large structure shown on the Diamond (1811) survey south-southwest of Ferry and Mulberry Streets approximately 5m west of Ferry Road (See page 127, Fig. 28). This may represent Strawberry Tavern, drawn with a small outbuilding to its north and a stable and holding pen across the street. The tavern would be considered the second key structure within the settlement of Childsbury because of the early date for the ferry crossing and the fact that taverns have an early association in their construction (see Chapter 5). The tavern is known to have been in operation throughout the 18th and early 19th century. Although it is difficult to ascertain from the Diamond (1811) survey just what the structure represents in this area, the archaeological record contains artifacts that span the 18th and early 19th century period.

Four classes of datable artifacts were found in Feature 1. These are earthenware, ceramics, and building materials in the form of mortar and nails (Appendix III). Plain unglazed earthenware made up 01% of the artifact assemblage and 06% of the decorated unglazed earthenware found in shovel tests (See page 131, Fig. 30; See page 132, Fig. 31). Nineteenth century European ceramics from shovel tests represented 33% of the artifact assemblage (Fig. 32) and 18th century ceramics made up 26% (Fig. 35). Approximately 50% of the wrought nails (Fig. 33) and 60% of the tabby mortar (Fig. 39) found in shovel tests came from this location. Cement based mortar made up 4% of the assemblage (Fig. 40), but 20% of the cut nails from shovel tests came from here (Fig. 41). A minimal number of surface finds were recorded from this area. Theyincluded five 18th century and three 19th century European glazed ceramic pieces (Appendix III).

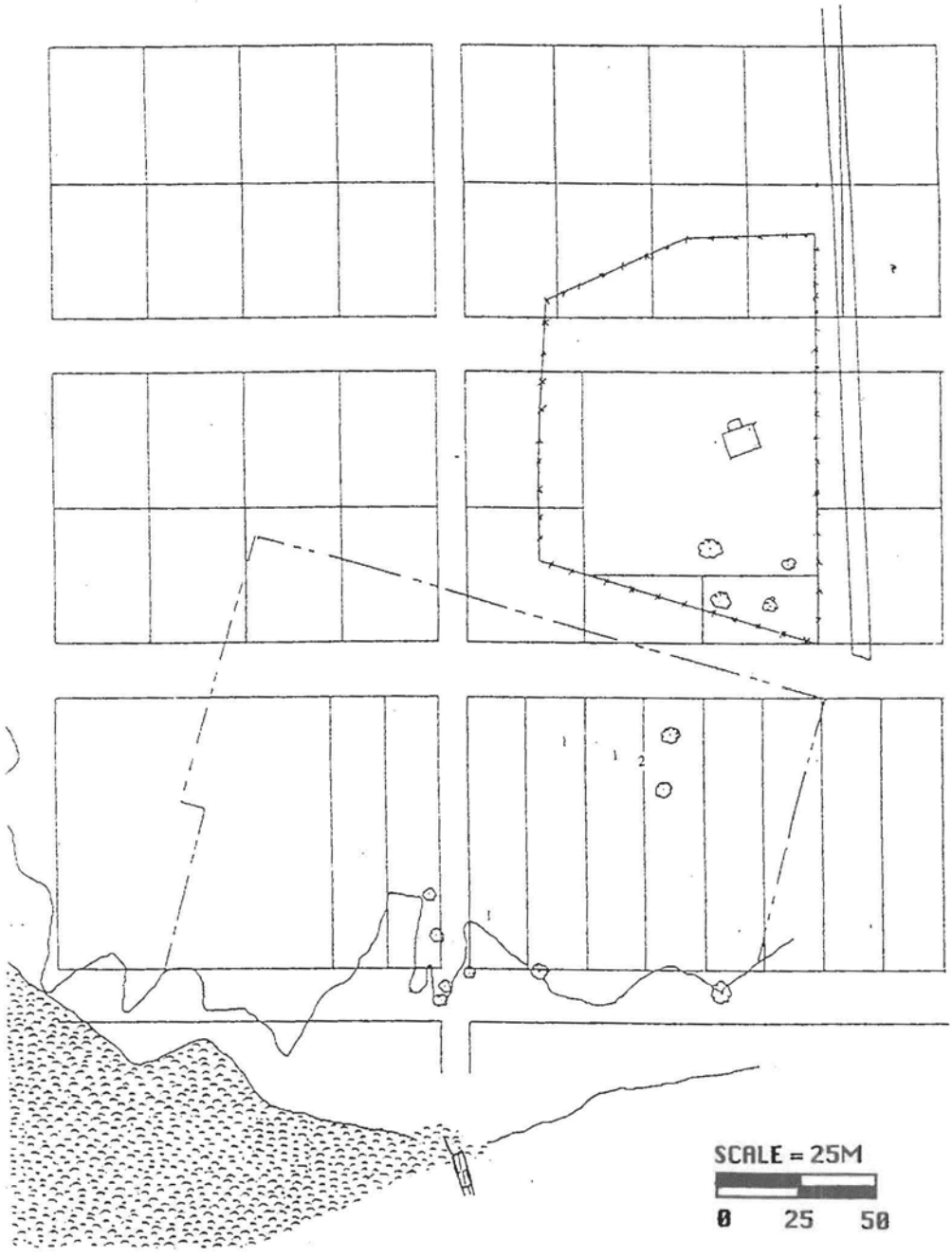

FIGURE 39. Distribution of tabby based mortar. (From shovel tests.)

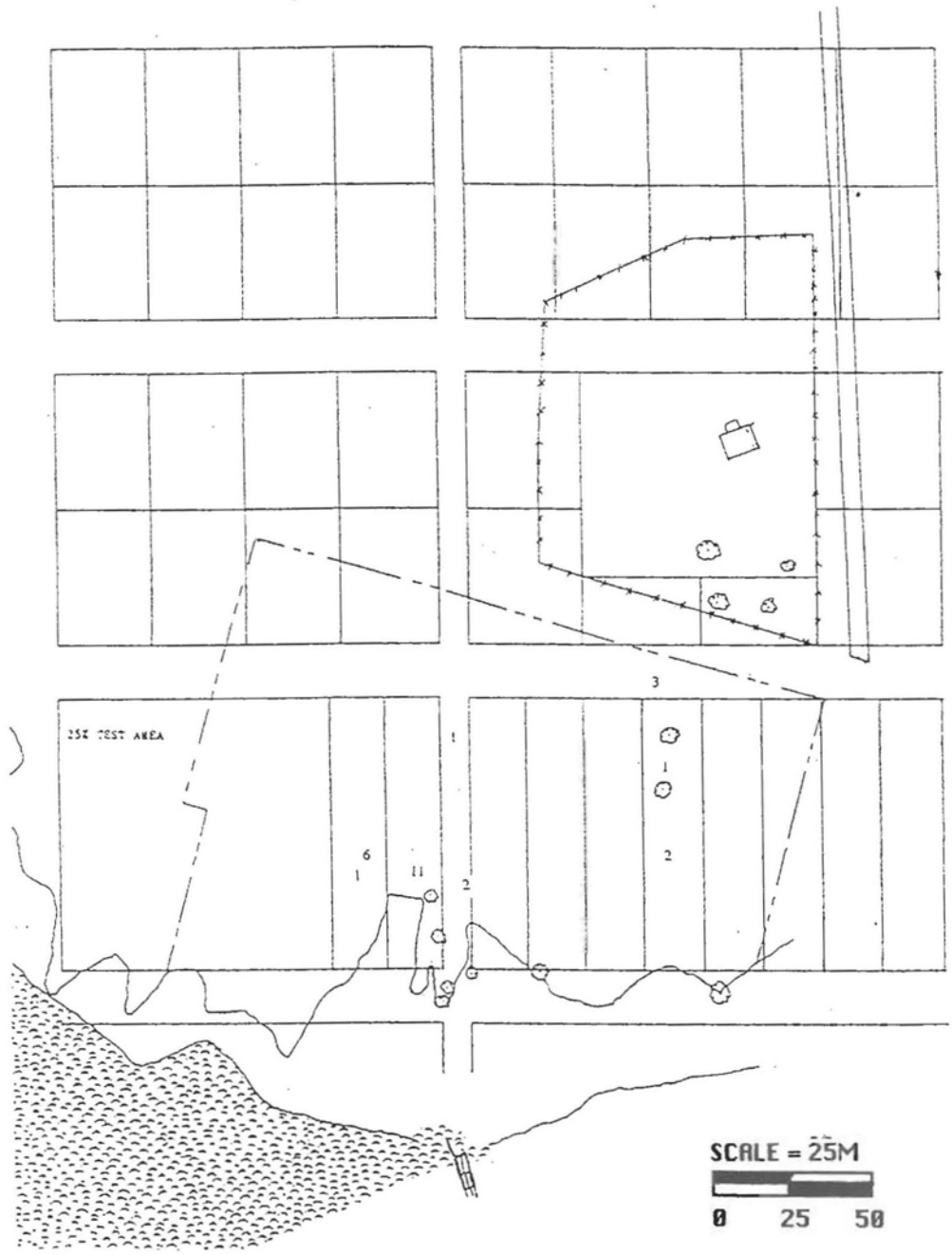

FIGURE 40. Distribution of cement based mortar. (From shovel tests.)

38SK1750

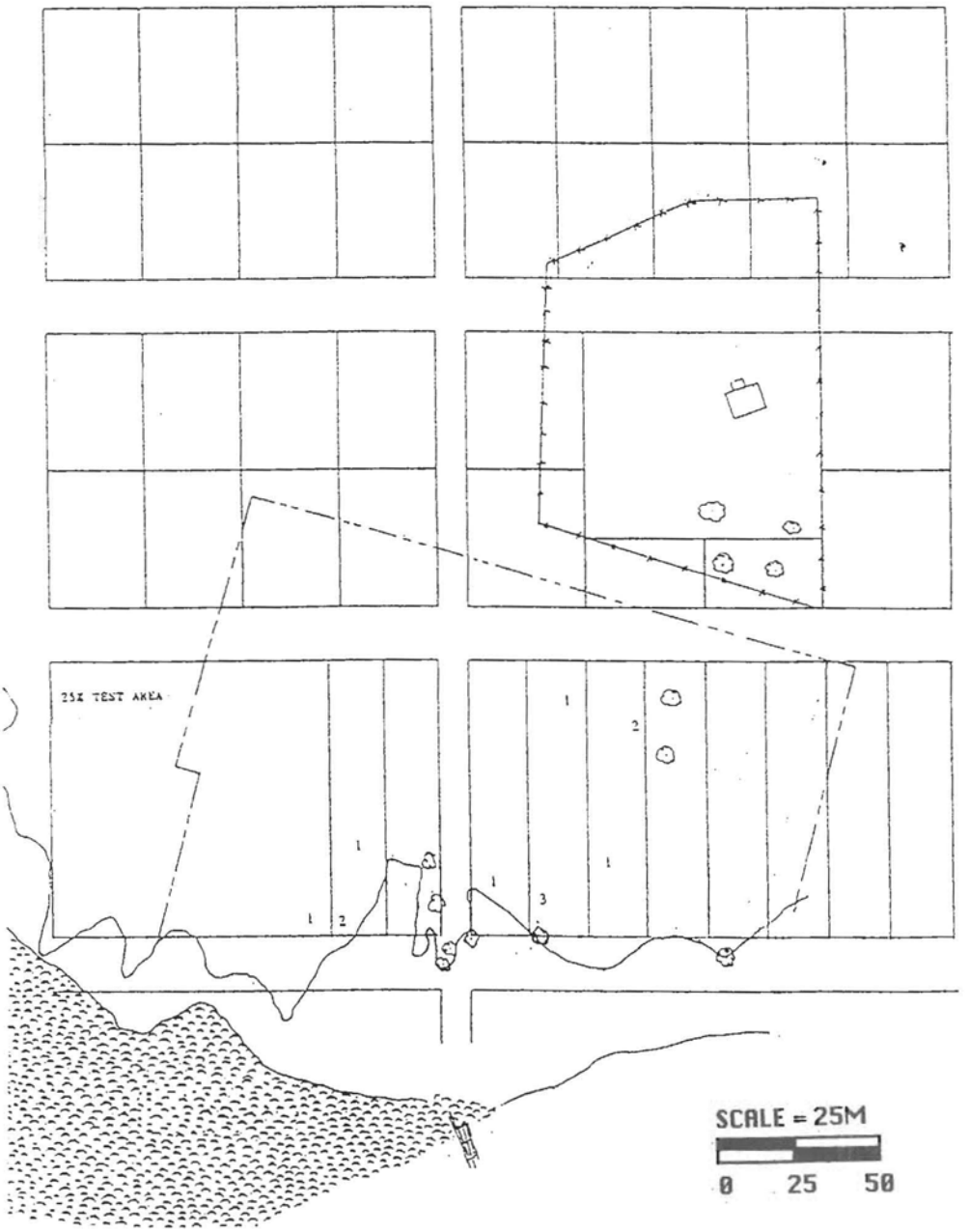

FIGURE 41. Distribution of cut nails. (From shovel tests.)

This data is representative of an evolving 18th-19th century structure. Numerous categories of artifacts span these two periods of time. The plain unglazed earthen ware, ceramics, tabby mortar and wrought nails are all from the 18th century. The high percentage of 19th century ceramics, along with the cement mortar and cut nails, indicate continual use of the site. The evidence points Feature 1 as the site of Strawberry Tavern.

Feature 2 (See page 63, Fig. 14) is a brick and artifact scatter south of the stable and east of Ferry Road in the southern end of lot 101, 102, and 103. According to Diamond (1811), this structure also had an attached holding pen of some sort (Fig. 28). Observations of recent bulldozing led me to suspect that the large amount of artifacts along the bluff edge in this location was pushed by the bulldozer from approximately 10 to 30 meters north of the bluff. The majority of the scatter is just over the edge of the bluff. According to the Diamond (1811) survey, this building would be positioned in that location on the edge of the present-day bluff. The archaeological record possibly reflects an assembledge from a structure that dates from the mid 18th to early 19th century.

Evidence points to this possibly being a residential structure within the southwestern quadrant of Childsbury Towne. The advertisement for the rental of Strawberry Plantation, mentions a "good dwelling house" (Irving 1832[1942]), and I suggest, this feature may represent that residential building. According to the Diamond (1811) survey, this structure is approximately 50m east of Ferry Road and hugs the southern boundary of lots 101 and 102 along the present-day bluff. Its position along the bluff and Bay Street may reflect the mental connection between location and colonial attitudes toward status. This would be similar to attitudes expressed by owners of bay front houses in Charles Town.

Although the shovel test assemblage from Feature 2 covers the 18th and 19th century, they are not as inclusive or substantial as those recovered from the suspected tavern's location (Feature 1). Artifact types from shovel tests in this location include plain unglazed earthenware (11%), 18th century European ceramics (09%), and 18th

century pipe stems (29%) (See page 131, Fig. 30, Fig. 35, 42, 43). Building materials comprised 06% of the wrought nails, and 07% of the cement based mortar (Appendix III; See page 134, Fig. 33; Fig. 40). In a comparison of shovel tests, the materials from Feature 2 contained 10% fewer plain unglazed earthenware, 17% less 18th century ceramics, and 44% fewer wrought nails than Feature 1. Shovel tests from Feature 2 lack any evidence of decorated unglazed earthenware, tabby mortar, cut nails, or 19th century European ceramics.

Feature 3 (See page 63, Fig. 14) is located on the edge of the bluff at the southern end of lot 102 and contains depositional problems similar to those found in Feature 2 (Fig. 36, 37). Field observations determined that this area was also affected by late 20th century development. This feature is also eroding from the western edge of, what I suspect is, a 20th century bulldozer track that runs from the bluff to level with the marsh and ferry landing (Plate 10).

PLATE 10. Bulldozer track. (Feature 3.)

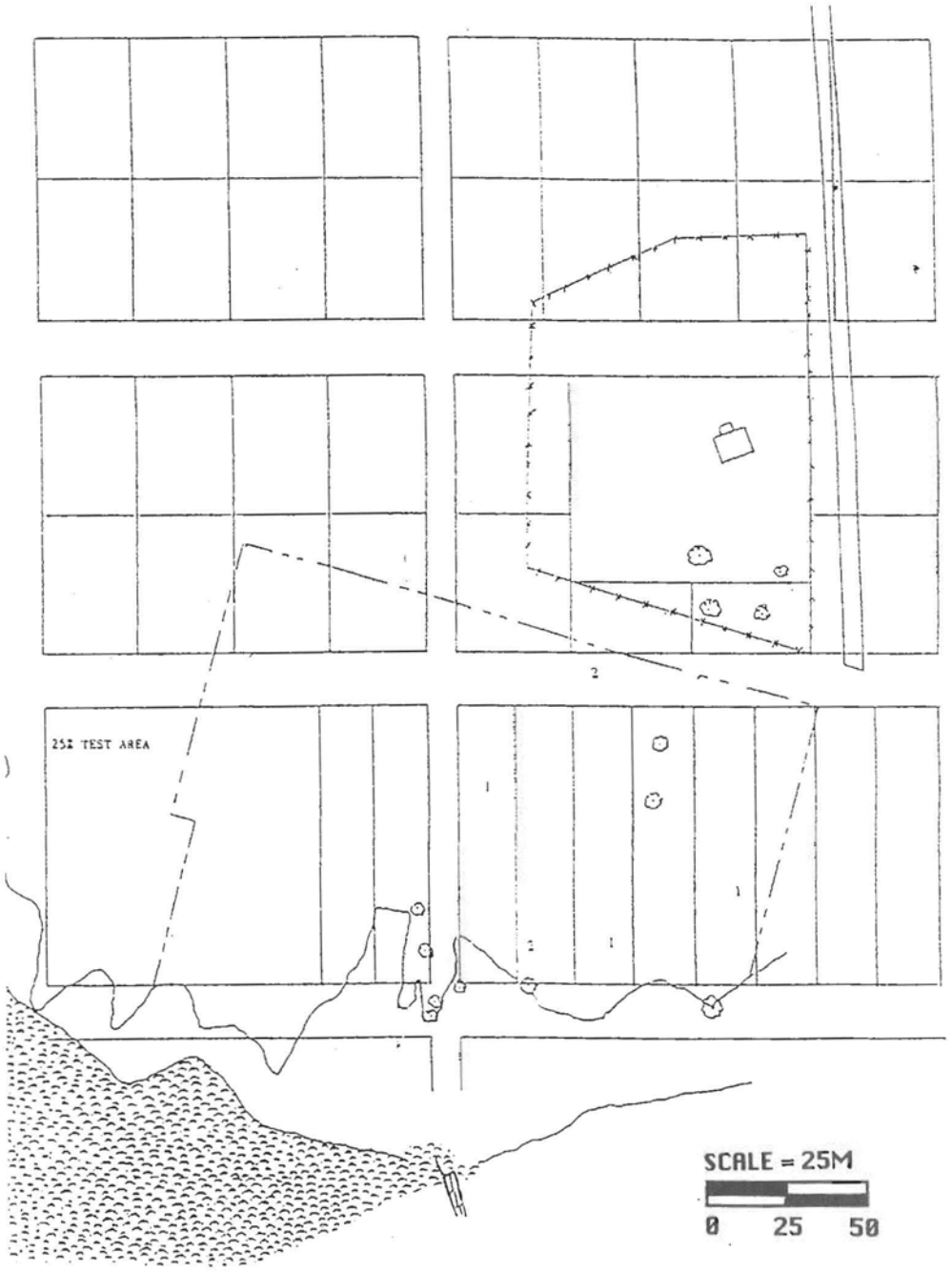

FIGURE 42. Distribution of 18th-century pipe stems. (From shovel tests.)

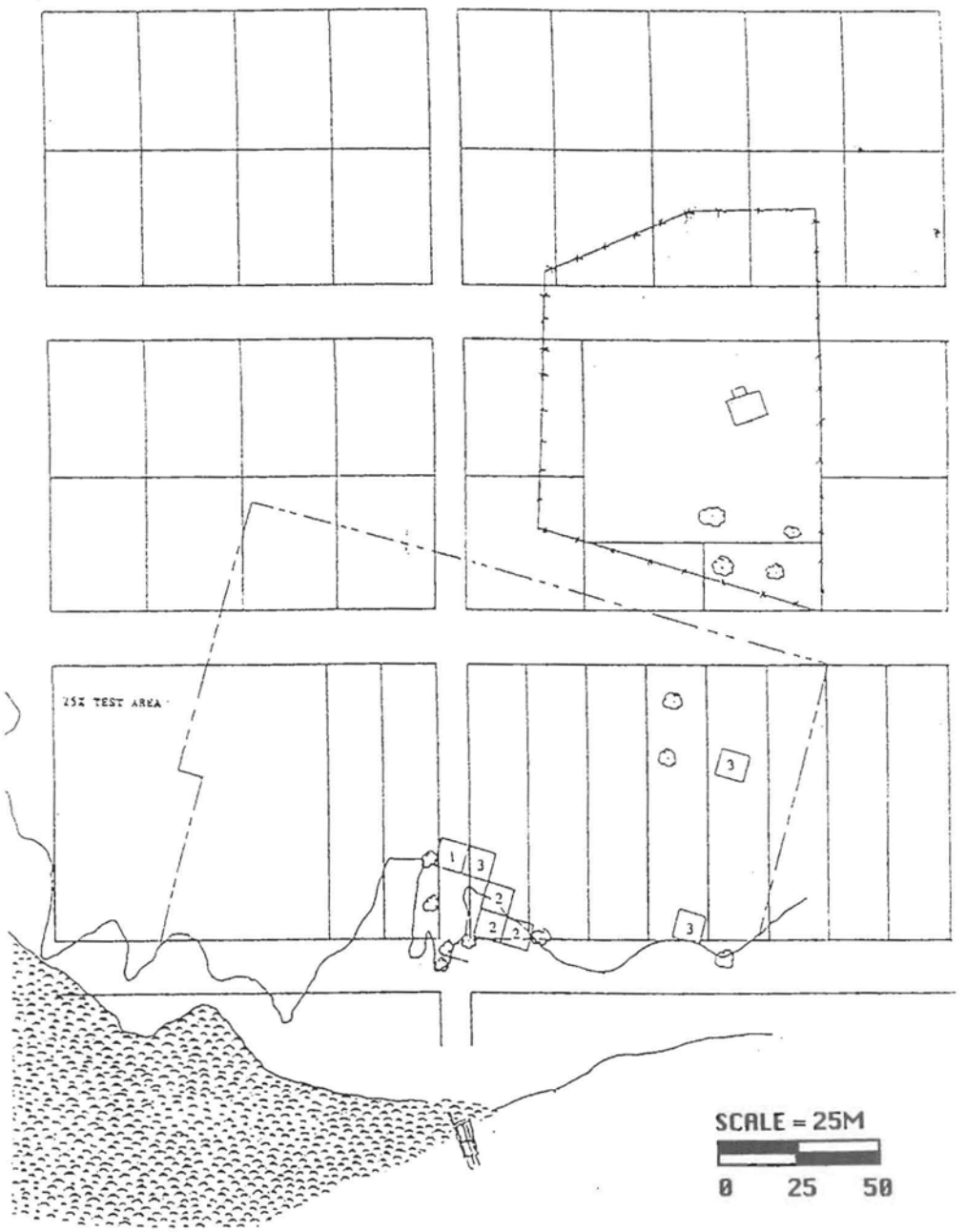

FIGURE 43. Distribution of 18th century pipe stems. (From surface finds.)

According to Diamond's (1811) survey a slough or wash out ran up proposed Ferry Street during the early 19th century (See page 127, Fig. 28). Only three buildings are associated with this slough. Of undetermined size, they were scattered 30m towards the northeast. Feature 3 is deposited in the lower southwestern corner of this slough. No shovel tests were located in this area because of the numerical sequence found in the random sample. Surface finds suggest the possibility that the area containing the three structures was used to fill part of the slough sometime after the colonial period. The scatter found in Feature 3 may be associated with some of these buildings.

All types of ceramics and building materials previously discussed were found on the surface of Feature 3 except for decorated unglazed earthenware. The overall distribution of surface finds runs northeast, away from Feature 3, toward the building scatter (Fig. 36, 37). The bulk of the artifacts span the 18th and early 19th century. Although they correspond with the temporal period found in Feature 1 and Feature 2, there are differences in their overall distribution (Appendix II, III).

The percentages of plain unglazed earthenware (20%), wrought nails (28%), 18th century European ceramics (26%), and tabby mortar (20%), point to an early to middle 18th century structure or structures (Appendix II, III; See page 131, Fig. 30; See page 134, Fig. 33; Fig. 35; Fig. 39). The inclusion of 19th century European ceramics (18%), cut nails (08%), and cement based mortar (48%) establishes continued use into the 19th century. The concentration of structures on the western side of Ferry Street in conjunction with a high percentage of Colono Ware and 19th century pearlware supports my earlier conclusions that this area was occupied, by different people (See page 131, Fig. 30, See page 133, Fig. 32). The artifact assemblage and spatial layout of these structures suggest that this area probably housed African-American slaves.

Feature 4 (See page 63, Fig. 14) is an extensive raised brick scatter running down the bluff slope from the base of lot 99 (Fig. 36, 37). No shovel tests were conducted in this feature and very few artifacts were recovered from surface finds because of tree falls

and heavy vegetation (Plate 11). This feature is approximately 15m wide, 15m long, and raised 30cm above the natural slope. This corresponds to a 12m wide, 26m long, and 15cm high area that extends toward Feature 4 from the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry (See page 63; Fig. 14). Feature 4 also corresponds with the Diamond (1811) survey location for Ferry Road and helps confirm that the map overlay is accurate as to road placement (See page 127, Fig. 28).

PLATE 11. Location of colonial road from Strawberry Ferry into Childsbury Towne

Conclusions

Archaeological evidence concerning Childsbury confirms Diamond's (1811) survey of a multi-structure community centrally located near the settlement's chapel. Ferry Road ran north from the northeastern landing of Strawberry Ferry, up the river bluff, and west of Strawberry Chapel. During the early colonial period, this was the main

road north toward the Santee. Mulberry Street ran east toward Childsbury's public landing between Strawberry Chapel and the graveyard and the stable and pasture for Strawberry Tavern.

Other structures, possibly residential in nature, occupied the southwestern quadrant, too. Archaeological data, related to the historically indicated location of these structures, establishes their existence and that internal class relationships, based on socio-economic status and race, were factors in their location. Archaeologically and historically, Childsbury represents a multi-faceted communally based settlement.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS

> To be Let. The Plantation and Ferry in St. John's Parish commonly called and known by the name of the Strawberry, whereon is a good Dwelling-house and other Out-houses, a Garden and about 80 or 100 Acres of cleared land, fit for corn and Indigo; a Horse Boat, and two Negro Men to attend the Ferry: There is also on said Place, a Mile Course, and a large convenient Stable with proper Stalls for Horses any person inclinable to rent the same (which will be vacant by the fifth of March) may apply in St. Thomas Parish (Irving 1932[1842])

With the westward movement of the Carolina colony small settlements emerged along the leading edge of the frontier. Although many were initially established for economic reasons, they acquired social importance to the local communities they served. Ties to the local and regional transportation infrastructure were important factors in where and why these settlements were located.

From its inception in 1705, Strawberry Ferry and Childsbury Towne, established two years later, were designed to reap an economic advantage from their position along the expanding Carolina frontier. The ability to profit from the trade in deer skins, naval stores, the production of rice and indigo, and commercial economic ventures tied to Charles Town are examples of their functional adaptation to colonial South Carolina's

dynamic economic landscape. Archaeological and historical data shows the importance of ferry crossings to small settlements and their local transportation networks.

Historically, the vestment of Strawberry Ferry is known to have taken place very early in the 18th century. Archaeologically, the presence of 19th-century European ceramics shows its continued use past the colonial period. Together, this data has confirmed the importance of ferry crossings to the social and economic landscape of colonial South Carolina. Archaeological investigation of other low country ferry crossings has allowed the development of a construction typology for the landings associated with these crossings.

Archaeological and historical evidence, from previous studies, has established that Childsbury Towne was located within known production areas. With access to a deep water river port, Childsbury Towne was the apex for commerce along the Cooper River and had ties to regional and worldwide markets. It attracted wealthy individuals that invested in the town's growth. Their influence and status assisted in the establishment of fairs and markets. They conducted business within the settlement's commercial establishments and in private homes.

Archaeological evidence, from surface finds and shovel tests, determined that a number of structures were present at Childsbury Towne. The presence of pre-contact and contact period hand-built earthenwares, European ceramics, and structural materials provide a very early date for one of these structures. Other structures were also found, archaeologically, to be present within the southwestern quadrant of the town. The presence of 18th and 19th-century ceramics, primarily delftware, creamware, and pearlware, in association with brick features and other construction materials has defined the location of Strawberry Tavern and a number of colonial period residential structures.

The recovery of European ceramics and Colono Ware also established that class and status relationships were present in the spatial layout of the town. Spatial divisions,

as evidenced by the artifact assemblage, reflect a social and economic landscape occupied by a diverse group of people.

Childsbury Towne was not a city. It could not be classified as urban development or qualify under Lewis' definition as a frontier town. In size, Childsbury was not large. Yet, Childsbury Towne, with its ferry, tavern, chapel, and residential structures were significant parts in a pattern of communal settlement found in low country South Carolina. Childsbury Towne had the potential to grow but, did not. Why did it fail to prosper? Social and economic factors should have ensured the continued success and survival of Childsbury.

Eventually, outside forces, beyond the power and control of the men along the Cooper River, began to adversely affect Childsbury Town's position along the Carolina frontier. Inherent within the notion of frontiers is movement. As the frontier moved, new transportation routes accessed these areas. Archaeological evidence, reflected by the presence of the northeastern and southwestern landings of Strawberry Ferry, show that the failure of the local community around Childsbury to construct a bridge across the Cooper River affected its future. The growth of Monck's Corner, on what became the main road to the Congarees, grew increasingly important to the residents along the Cooper River by the late 18th century. By then, too, the frontier had expanded throughout the interior of South Carolina and beyond into the unclaimed lands of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and other western regions of the colonies. Although of importance to the immediate community, Childsbury Towne was no longer on the edge of the frontier. It was but another of many small towns established between the frontier and Charles Town.

Although the settlement of Childsbury ceased to function as a communal settlement economically supported by small farms and plantations along the Cooper River, the southwestern quadrant obviously remained of social importance to the local community for several years throughout the colonial period. The town slowly lost its

place as a viable part of the local economic landscape but, remained socially an important asset to the surrounding community. By taking on different roles as time passed Childsbury evolved more than just died. It continues to do so through its present owner, John Cumbie. Although today there is nothing left of this early Carolina settlement, other than the landings for the ferry crossing and Strawberry Chapel, the new owner of old Childsbury Towne prepares to tap the socio-economic potential of this small piece of land along the western branch of the Cooper River.

APPENDIX I

Land Indenture of John Skiner

South Carolina

This Indenture made this nineteenth day of July Anno Domini 1728 between John Skiner of the owner part and Isaac Childs of the other part, wittneseth that the said John Skiner for and In Consideration of the sum of forty six pound Currant money of this province to him In hand paid by the said Isaac Child att and before the sealing and Delivering of these presents and Receipt whereof he the said John Skiner Doath acknowledg and therefor Doath aquitt the said Isaac Child his Hwirs and Exeeutors and Every of them by these presents hath granted bargined sold and Confirmed and by these presents for himselfe his heirs and asigns Doath fully and Absolutely grant bargin sell*Enfeoft and Confirm unto the said Isaac Child his Heirs and asign for ever all and Each of them Two Lotts In Childberry Town, one fronting the Mulberry Street known by the number seventeen 17, as apears In the Town platt with the house and brick Chimneys and all the apurtancis thereunto belonging In Length Containing 165 foot and In wedth Containing one hundred and fifteen foott, The other Lott Situate and bounded Northwesterly upon Church Street Southwesterly upon the Lott number 17 Containing 165 foott, and numbered with the 24. To have and Hold the Said 2 Lotts to the Said Issac Child to him and his heirs for Ever, togaqther with all the previlidg of Landing of goods att any or all the River Landings with Ingres & regres att all Times, and Lastly that the said John Skiner for himselfe his Heirs and Executors Doth Covenant and grant to and with the Said Isaac Child his Heirs and asigns that they will warrant unto the Said Isaac Child and his Heirs the aforesaid Two Lotts and house with all its

priilidges and apurtanancis thereunto belonging against all men for Ever. In Wittnes Whereof have Sett Hand and Seal the Day and year above said.

above Said his

Signed Sealed & Delivered John Skiner

In presence of mark

Robt Dix

John mark Rankins

*Obsolete word meaning invested with, etc.

Source:

South Carolina Historical Society, Elias Ball Muniments, 33-83-2-5.

APPENDIX II

Surface Finds from Southwestern Quadrant of Childsbury Towne

ARTIFACT NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	NO.
SF# 843		
38BK1750-1-1	Pearlware	1
SF#845		
38BK1750-2-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-2-2	Pearlware, Blue Transfer-Print	2
38BK1750-2-3	Creamware	1
SF# 881		
38BK1750-3-1	Pearlware, annular	1
38BK1750-3-2	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-3-3	Creamware	2
38BK1750-3-4	Stoneware, white salt glaze	1
38BK1750-3-5	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-3-6	Glass, green bottle base	1
38BK1750-3-7	Glass, lt. green, bottle	3
38BK1750-3-8	Glass, dark green, bottle	5
38BK1750-3-9	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-3-10	Brick	3
38BK1750-3-11	Mortar, concrete	2

SF# 911

38BK1750-4-1	Yellow-ware	1
38BK1750-4-2	Glass, blue, bottle	1
38BK1750-4-3	Metal, unknown	1

SF# 916

38BK1750-5-1	Glass, clear, bottle neck	1

SF# 919

38BK1750-6-1	Creamware	1
38BK1750-6-2	Delftware	1
38BK1750-6-3	Metal, unknown	1
38BK1750-6-4	Coal	1
38BK1750-6-5	Pipe stems 5/64	3
38BK1750-6-6	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-6-7	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-6-8	Brick	1

SF# 974

38BK1750-7-1	Glass, dark. green,, bottle	1

SF# 986

38BK1750-8-1	Stoneware, brown salt glaze	1

SF# 1047

38BK1750-9-1	Slate	1

SF# 1051

38BK1750-10-1	Westerwald	1
38BK1750-10-2	Stoneware, white salt glaze	6
38BK1750-10-3	Creamware	4
38BK1750-10-4	Pearlware, blue transfer print	1
38BK1750-10-5	Pearlware, blue shell edged	1
38BK1750-10-6	Porcelain, Chinese export	1
38BK1750-10-7	Whiteware, polychrome	1
38BK1750-10-8	Delftware	1
38BK1750-10-9	Stoneware, white salt glaze	1

SF# 1054

38BK1750-11-1	Pearlware, green. edged	1
38BK1750-11-2	Glass, bottle rim	1
38BK1750-11-3	Earthenware, plain	1

SF# 1075

38BK1750-12-1	Earthenware, lead glazed	1
38BK1750-12-2	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-12-3	Mortar, concrete	2

SF# 1084

38BK1750-13-1	Creamware, hand paint over glaze	1
38BK1750-13-2	Creamware	5
38BK1750-13-3	Delftware	6
38BK1750-13-4	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-13-5	Pearlware, blue transfer print	2

38BK1750-13-6	Porcelain, Chinese export	1
38BK1750-13-7	Porcelain, English	2
38BK1750-13-8	Westerwald	1
38BK1750-13-9	Pearlware, blue shell edged	1

SF# 1085

38BK1750-14-1	Westerwald	1
38BK1750-14-2	Creamware	2
38BK1750-14-3	Delftware	3
38BK1750-14-4	Pearlware	2
38BK1750-14-5	Pearlware, hand painted	1
38BK1750-14-6	Porcelain, Chinese export	1
38BK1750-14-7	Stoneware, white salt-glazed	1
38BK1750-14-8	Stoneware, white salt-glazed, scratch blue	1

SF# 1108

38BK1750-15-1	Creamware	2
38BK1750-15-2	Stoneware, salt-glaze	1
38BK1750-15-3	Whiteware, polychrome	1
38BK1750-15-4	Pipe stem, 5/64	1
38BK1750-15-5	Brick	1
38BK1750-15-6	Glass, clear, bottle neck	1
38BK1750-15-7	Glass, milk	1

SF# 1109

38BK1750-16-1	Porcelain, English	1
38BK1750-16-2	Porcelain, transfer print	1

38BK1750-16-3	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-16-4	Delftware	1
38BK1750-16-5	Creamware	8
38BK1750-16-6	Pearlware	6
38BK1750-16-7	Creamware, "annular wares"	1
38BK1750-16-8	Pearlware, "annular wares"	1
38BK1750-16-9	Pearlware, hand painted	1
38BK1750-16-10	Slipware, yellow	1
38BK1750-16-11	Pearlware, blue transfer-print	2
38BK1750-16-12	Pearlware, blue shell edge	1
38BK1750-16-13	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-16-14	Glass, dark. green., bottle	1
38BK1750-16-15	Glass, lt. green., bottle	1
38BK1750-16-16	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-16-17	Pipe stem 4/64	1
38BK1750-16-18	Pipe stem 5/64	2
38BK1750-16-19	Brick	1
38BK1750-16-20	Mortar	1
38BK1750-16-21	Coal	1

SF# 1112

38BK1750-17-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-17-2	Glass, dark. green., bottle	2

SF# 1113

38BK1750-18-1	Stoneware, salt-glazed	1
38BK1750-18-2	Pearlware	2

SF# 1114

38BK1750-19-1	Stoneware, modern	1
34BK1750-19-2	Delftware	1
38BK1750-19-3	Stoneware, white salt-glazed	2
38BK1750-19-4	Pearlware, blue decorated.	1

SF# 1115

38BK1750-20-1	Creamware, "annular wares"	1
38BK1750-20-2	Creamware	2
38BK1750-20-3	Delftware	2

SF# 1116

38BK1750-21-1	Stoneware, white salt glaze	1
38BK1750-21-2	Glass, blue goblet base	1

SF# 1117

38BK1750-22-1	Earthenware, black. glazed, red.	3
38BK1750-22-2	Pearlware, hand painted	2
38BK1750-22-3	Delftware	3
38BK1750-22-4	Creamware	3
38BK1750-22-5	Pearlware, blue shell edged	1
38BK1750-22-6	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-22-7	Glass, dark. green., bottle	3
38BK1750-22-8	Glass, green., modern	1
38BK1750-22-9	Glass, clear	1
38BK1750-22-10	Glass, light. green., bottle	3
38BK1750-22-11	Glass, dark. green., bottle neck	1

38BK1750-22-12	Glass, clear, bottle neck	1
38BK1750-22-13	Glass, dark. green., bottle base	1
38BK1750-22-14	Glass, dark. green., bottle base	1
38BK1750-22-15	Glass, lt. green., bottle base	1
38BK1750-22-16	Pipe stem 4/64	1
38BK1750-22-17	Pipe stem 5/64	1
38BK1750-22-18	Pipe stem and bowl wall 6/64	1
38BK1750-22-19	Pipe bowl wall	2
38BK1750-22-20	Slate	1
38BK1750-22-21	Nail	1
38BK1750-22-22	Bone, cut	1

SF# 1118

38BK1750-23-1	Creamware	2
38BK1750-23-2	Delftware	1
38BK1750-23-3	Porcelain, Chinese export	1
38BK1750-23-4	Stoneware	1
38BK1750-23-5	Stoneware, white salt-glazed	1
38BK1750-23-6	Westerwald	1
38BK1750-23-7	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-23-8	Pearlware, blue transfer print	1
38BK1750-23-9	Whiteware, blue shell edged	1
38BK1750-23-10	Glass, green. bottle	1

SF# 1140

38BK1750-24-1	Creamware	5
38BK1750-24-2	Pearlware	2

38BK1750-24-3	Pearlware, blue shell edge	3
38BK1750-24-4	Pearlware, blue transfer-print	1
38BK1750-24-5	Porcelain	1
38BK1750-24-6	Stoneware, salt-glazed	2
38BK1750-24-7	Whiteware	4
38BK1750-24-8	Pearlware, "annular wares"	1
38BK1750-24-9	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-24-10	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-24-11	Glass, dark. green. bottle neck	1
38BK1750-24-12	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-24-13	Glass, dark. green. bottle	1
38BK1750-24-14	Pipe bowl wall	1

SF# 1141

38BK1750-25-1	Creamware	3

SF# 1142

38BK1750-26-1	Creamware	2
38BK1750-26-2	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-26-3	Pearlware, blue transfer-printed	1
38BK1750-26-4	Whiteware	3
38BK1750-26-5	Earthenware, interior. lead-glazed	1
38BK1750-26-6	Glass, green. bottle	1
38BK1750-26-7	Metal, unknown	1
38BK1750-26-8	Mortar, concrete	2
38BK1750-26-9	Brick	1

SF# 1143

38BK1750-27-1	Creamware	3
38BK1750-27-2	Pearlware, blue shell-edged	3
38BK1750-27-3	Pearlware	2
38BK1750-27-4	Whiteware	2
38BK1750-27-5	Annularware	1
38BK1750-27-6	Ceramic, unknown	1
38BK1750-27-7	Pipe stem 5/64	2
38BK1750-27-8	Mortar, concrete	4
38BK1750-27-9	Brick	2

SF# 1145

38BK1750-28-1	Pearlware, blue shell-edged	1
38BK1750-28-2	Porcelain	1
38BK1750-28-3	Porcelain, Chinese export	2
38BK1750-28-4	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-28-5	Earthenware, decorated	1

SF# 1146

38BK1750-29-1	Creamware	2
38BK1750-29-2	Pearlware, blue shell-edged	1
38BK1750-29-3	Pearlware, "annular wares"	1
38BK1750-29-4	Pipe bowl wall	1

SF# 1149

38BK1750-30-1	Glass, bottle top	1

SF# 1167

38BK1750-31-1	Creamware	1

SF# 1176

38BK1750-32-1	Glass, green. bottle	3
38BK1750-32-2	Bone, scapula	1

SF# 1177

38BK1750-33-1	Creamware	3
38BK1750-33-2	Pearlware	2
38BK1750-33-3	Pearlware, blue transfer-print	1
38BK1750-33-4	Pipe stem 5/64	2
38BK1750-33-5	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-33-6	Glass, green. bottle	3

SF#1209

38BK1750-34-1	Creamware	3
38BK1750-34-2	Ceramic, unknown	3
38BK1750-34-3	Pearlware, green. edged	1
38BK1750-34-4	Pipe stem 5/64	2
38BK1750-34-5	Pipe bowl wall	1
38BK1750-34-6	Glass, green bottle	1
38BK1750-34-7	Earthenware, plain	2

SF# 1210

38BK1750-35-1	Creamware	5
38BK1750-35-2	Pearlware	2

38BK1750-35-3	Earthenware, red body	6
38BK1750-35-4	Pearlware, blue shell-edged	1
38BK1750-35-5	Stoneware, salt-glazed	1
38BK1750-35-6	Delftware	4
38BK1750-35-7	Glass, blue	1
38BK1750-35-8	Glass, clear, modern	1

APPENDIX III

Shovel Test Finds from Southwestern Quadrant of Childsbury Towne

Component "A"

ARTIFACT NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	NUMBER.
ST# 025A		
38BK1750-1-1	Glass, bottle, green	1
ST# 032A		
38BK1750-2-1	Glass, bottle, clear	2
38BK1750-2-2	Nail, wire	1
38BK1750-2-3	Nail, cut	1
ST# 047A		
38BK1750-3-1	Glass, bottle, blue	1
38BK1750-3-2	Mortar, cement	6
ST# 048A		
38BK1750-4-1	Nail, cut	1
38BK1750-4-2	Mortar, cement	1
38BK1750-4-3	Brick	2

ST# 051A

38BK1750-5-1	Glass, clear	1
38BK1750-5-2	Tacks,	2
38BK1750-5-3	Metal, unknown	1

ST# 058A

38BK1750-6-1	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-6-2	Earthenware, plain	3

ST# 060A

38BK1750-7-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-7-2	Earthenware, decorated	2
38BK1750-7-3	Brick	4

ST# 071A

38BK1750-8-1	Creamware	2
38BK1750-8-2	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-8-3	Earthenware, stamped	1
38BK1750-8-4	Earthenware, cord-marked	1
38BK1750-8-5	Brick	1

ST# 072A

38BK1750-9-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-9-2	Earthenware, incised	1
38BK1750-9-3	Earthenware, stamped	1
38BK1750-9-4	Brick	1
38BK1750-9-5	Mortar, concrete	1

ST# 077A

38BK1750-10-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1759-10-2	Nail,	1
38BK1750-10-3	Brick	1
38BK1750-10-4	Mortar, concrete	11

ST# 083A

38BK1750-11-1	Porcelain	1
38BK1750-11-2	Creamware	1
38BK1750-11-3	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-11-4	Brick	4

ST# 086A

38BK1750-12-1	Pearlware, hand painted	2
38BK1750-12-2	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-12-3	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-12-4	Brick	4
38BK1750-12-5	Bone, worked	1

ST# 094A

38BK1750-13-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-13-2	Brick	1

ST# 097A

38BK1750-14-1	Earthenware, plain	6
38BK1750-14-2	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-14-3	Earthenware, game piece	1

38BK1750-14-4	Brick	2

ST# 100A

38BK1750-15-1	Pearlware, blue transfer print	1
38BK1750-15-2	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-15-3	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-15-4	Brick	1
38BK1750-15-5	Pipe stem, 4/64	1

ST# 104A

38BK1750-16-1	Slipware, lead-glazed	1
38BK1750-16-2	Porcelain	1
38BK1750-16-3	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-16-4	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-16-5	Glass, bottle, blue	1
38BK1750-16-6	Nail, wrought	3
38BK1750-16-7	Metal, unknown	3
38BK1750-16-8	Brick	6
38BK1750-16-9	Mortar, cement	2

ST# 115A

38BK1750-18-1	Earthenware, plain	6
38BK1759-18-2	Brick	1

ST# 117A

38BK1750-19-1	Pearlware, blue transfer-print	1
38BK1750-19-2	Pearlware	1

38BK1750-19-3	Creamware	1
38BK1750-19-4	Creamware, molded	1
38BK1750-19-5	Earthenware, plain	11
38BK1750-19-6	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-19-7	Brick	13
38BK1750-19-8	Nails, unknown	2
38BK1750-19-9	Pipe bowl wall	1
38BK1750-19-10	Bone, cranium	1

ST# 119A

38BK1750-20-1	Creamware, 17cm rim	3
38BK1750-20-2	Westerwald	1
38BK1750-20-3	Porcelain	1
38BK1750-20-4	Delftware, blue decorated	1
38BK1750-20-5	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-20-6	Earthenware, plain	5
38BK1750-20-7	Nail, roofing tack	1
38BK1750-20-8	Tack, wrought	1
38BK1750-20-9	Nail, wrought	1
38BK1750-20-10	Metal, unknown	4
38BK1750-20-11	Glass, bottle, blue	1
38BK1750-20-12	Brick	5
38BK1750-20-13	Mortar, tabby	1
38BK1750-20-14	Pipe bowl wall	2
38BK1750-20-15	Stoneware, salt-glazed	1
38BK1750-20-16	Glass, bottle, green	1

ST# 124A

38BK1750-21-1	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-21-2	Pearlware, shell edged	1
38BK1750-21-3	Creamware	1
38BK1750-21-4	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-21-5	Glass, clear, flat	1
38BK1750-21-6	Glass, clear, curved	1
38BK1750-21-7	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-21-8	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-21-9	Nail,	1
38BK1750-21-10	Brick	10
38BK1750-21-11	Mortar, tabby	1

ST# 135A

38BK1750-22-1	Creamware	1
38BK1750-22-2	Earthenware, plain	7
38BK1750-22-3	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-22-4	Metal, unknown	2
38BK1750-22-5	Brick	6
38BK1750-22-6	Pipe stem, 4/64	2

ST# 140A

38BK1750-23-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-23-2	Earthenware, plain	4
38BK1750-23-3	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-23-4	Brick	9

ST# 145A

38BK1750-24-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-24-2	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-24-3	Delftware	1
38BK1750-24-4	Creamware, blue transfer-print	1
38BK1750-24-5	Westerwald, chamber pot	3
38BK1750-24-6	Glass, clear, modern	4
38BK1750-24-7	Glass, light. green.	1
38BK1750-24-8	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-24-9	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-24-10	Nail, cut, wrought	1
38BK1750-24-11	Nail, cut, bent	1
38BK1750-24-12	Tack, bent	2
38BK1750-24-13	Metal, unknown	2
38BK1750-24-14	Brick	11
38BK1750-24-15	Slate	2
38BK1750-24-16	Pipe stem, 5/64	1
38BK1750-24-17	Pipe stem, 4/64	1

ST# 147A

38BK1750-25-1	Creamware	1
38BK1750-25-2	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-25-3	Brick	1

ST# 148A

38BK1750-26-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-26-3	Earthenware, incised	1

38BK1750-26-4	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-26-5	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-26-6	Glass, clear, curved	1
38BK1750-26-7	Nail, tack, wrought	1
38BK1750-26-8	Brick	7

ST# 151A

38BK1750-27-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-27-2	Pearlware, shell-edged	2
38BK1750-27-3	Creamware	1
38BK1750-27-4	Creamware, base	1
38BK1750-27-5	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-27-6	Glass, clear, curved	1
38BK1750-27-7	Glass, clear, flat	1
38BK1750-27-8	Brick	3
38BK1750-27-9	Mortar, tabby	1

ST# 155A

38BK1750-28-1	Creamware	1
38BK1750-28-2	Glass, blue/green, flat	2
38BK1750-28-3	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-28-4	Brick	1

ST# 162A

38BK1750-29-1	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-29-2	Earthenware, decorated	2
38BK1750-29-3	Glass, bottle, green	1

38BK1750-29-4	Brick	4
38BK1750-29-5	Mortar, concrete	3

ST# 165A

38BK1750-30-1	Pearlware, blue transfer print	1
38BK1750-30-2	Pearlware	4
38BK1750-30-3	Creamware	6
38BK1750-30-4	Creamware, hand painted	1
38BK1750-30-5	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-30-6	Glass, bottle, green	2
38BK1750-30-7	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-30-8	Glass, clear, modern	2
38BK1750-30-9	Glass, clear, flat	2
38BK1750-30-10	Glass, clear, curved	2
38BK1750-30-11	Nail, headless, wrought	2
38BK1750-30-12	Nail, l head, wrought	3
38BK1750-30-13	Nail, cut	2
38BK1750-30-14	Nail, rosehead, wrought	3
38BK1750-30-15	Metal, unknown	1
38BK1750-30-16	Mortar, tabby	2
38BK1750-30-17	Brick	2

ST# 170A

38BK1750-31-1	Nail, wrought	1
38BK1750-31-2	Nail, bent	1

ST# 179A

38BK1750-32-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-32-2	Glass, clear, modern	5
38BK1750-32-3	Nail, wrought	1
38BK1750-32-4	Brick	6
38BK1750-32-5	Mortar, cement	1
38BK1750-32-6	Coal	3

ST# 185A

38BK1750-33-1	Creamware	1
38BK1750-33-2	Slipware, combed & dotted	1
38BK1750-33-3	Glass, clear, modern	2
38BK1750-33-4	Brick	1

ST# 190A

38BK1750-34-1	Pearlware	1
38BK1750-34-2	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-34-3	Whiteware	1
38BK1750-34-4	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-34-5	Glass, bottle neck	2
38BK1750-34-7	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-34-8	Brick	6

ST# 196A

38BK1750-35-1	Earthenware, decorated	1
38BK1750-35-2	Mortar, concrete	2

ST# 200A

38BK1750-36-1	Slipware, lead- glazed	1
38BK1750-36-2	Glass, clear, flat	1
38BK1750-36-3	Glass, clear, modern	1
38BK1750-36-4	Brick	3

ST# 204A

38BK1750-37-1	Cream-ware	1
38BK1750-37-2	Pipe bowl wall	1

ST# 208A

38BK1750-38-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-38-2	Glass, bottle neck	1
38BK1750-38-3	Brick	3

ST# 209A

38BK1750-39-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-39-2	Brick	4

ST# 210A

38BK1750-40-1	Glass, clear, modern	3

ST# 213A

38BK1750-41-1	Earthenware, plain	1

ST# 219A

38BK1750-42-1	Delftware	2

38BK1750-42-2	Earthenware, plain	4
38BK1750-42-3	Brick	12
38BK1750-42-4	Coal	1

ST# 232A

38BK1750-43-1	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-43-2	Glass, clear, flat	1
38BK1750-43-3	Pipe stem, 1/16	1
38BK1750-43-4	Brick	5

ST# 234A

38BK1750-44-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-44-2	Glass, unknown	1
38BK1750-44-3	Nail, unknown	1
38BK1750-44-4	Brick	4

ST# 241A

38BK1750-45-1	Earthenware, plain	1
38BK1750-45-2	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-45-3	Brick	5

ST# 248A

38BK1750-47-1	Earthenware, plain	1

ST# 252A

38BK1750-48-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-48-2	Brick	1

ST# 269A

38BK1750-49-1	Pearlware, shell edged	1
38BK1750-49-2	Earthenware, plain	3
38BK1750-49-3	Brick	2

ST# 270A

38BK1750-50-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-50-2	Glass, bottle, green	1

ST# 281A

38BK1750-51-1	Earthenware, plain	2

ST# 286A

38BK1750-52-1	Earthenware, plain	2
38BK1750-52-2	Brick	1

ST# 303A

38BK1750-53-1	Earthenware, plain	5
38BK1750-53-2	Nail, wrought	1
38BK1750-53-3	Pipe bowl wall	1

ST# 311A

38BK1750-54-1	Pearlware, blue transfer-print	1
38BK1750-54-2	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-54-3	Brick	1

Component "B"

ST# 078B

38BK1750-1-1	Brick	1

ST# 109B

38BK1750-2-1	Earthenware, plain	1

Component "C"

ST# 022C

38BK1750-1-1	Glass, bottle, green	1
38BK1750-1-2	Brick	9

ST# 089C

38BK1750-2-1	Earthenware, plain	1

Component "D"

ST# 056D

38BK1750-1-1	Earthenware, plain	1

APPENDIX IV

Names and Occupations of Strawberry Tavern Patrons.

(As listed in the ledgerbook of Lancelot Smith.)

Name	Occupation	Source
Bolton, Richard	Physician at Childsbury	1
Caw, Rachel	Planter	2
Coachman, James	Planter & Laurens Associate	1
Cordes, James	Planter	2
Cordes, Samual	Planter	3
Deas, John	Charles Town Merchant & Ship Owner	2
Gough, Richard	Planter	2
Harleston, Issac	Planter	4
Harleston, John	Planter	4
Laurens, Henry	Planter & Charles Town Merchant	5
Prestly, John	Overseer Wadboo Barony	6
Simons, Keating	Planter	7
Simons, Maurice	Charleston Merchant	1
Smith, Benjamin	Planter	7
Raper, Robert	Planter, Charles Town Merchant, Ship Owner, & Colleton Solicitor	8

Source:

1. Hamer et al., 1970:57, 201, 381
2. Rogers et al., 1974:599, 621, 625, 628, 629
3. Holcomb, 1994:146
4. Moore 1974:31, 146, 305-306
5. Hamer et al. 1968
6. Terry 1981:225
7. Irving 1932[1842]:46, 104
8. McCann 1980:111-112

APPENDIX V

Entries from Strawberry Tavern Ledger Book

(February 1777 to June 1777)

DATE	CHARGES TO	FOR
February 1777		
02	John Deas	Ferriage boy and horse
13	Samuel Cordes	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 negroes
13	Elias Ball	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
13	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
14	John Harleston	Ferriage, a carriage, 2 boys and horses
14	Elias Ball	Ferriage self, chair, boy, and 2 horses
14	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
14	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
14	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self going and coming
15	Edward Tanner	Ferriage a boy going and coming
15	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
15	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
15	Henry Laurens	Ferriage a chair, 3 boys, and horses
15	James Cordes	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
15	Thomas Corbet	Ferriage negro on horseback
16	Keating Simons	Ferriage a chair, boy, and 2 horses
16	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage a boy and horse coming and going

16	John Prestly	Grogg
16	John Prestly	8 quarts grogg and pint of rum
16	Benjamin Johnston	Grogg
16	Benjamin Johnston	4 Quarts rum, 1 case bottles ? containing 3 pints at ___ per quart
17	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horse coming
17	Keating Simons	Ferriage self and horse
17	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
17	Mr. Jamison	Ferriage negro on foot
17	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
17	Richard Gough	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
17	William Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
18	Richard Gough	Ferriage 1 boy and horse returned
18	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horse going
18	Keating Simons	Ferriage a chair, boy, and led horse
19	Elias Ball	Ferriage chair, boy, horses, Boomer boy and horse.
19	John Harleston	Ferriage self, chair, boy, and horse
19	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self, brother, and 2 horses
19	John Prestly	1 quart rum and 2 of _____
19	Benjamin Johnston	2 case bottles _____ containing 3 quarts
19	William Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
19	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
20	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self and horse
21	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 2 boys and horses
21	John Deas	Ferriage for Mr. Purdie
21	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage self, chair, boy, and 3 horses

22	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage self, boy, and horses going and coming
22	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, 2 horses, a tumbler grogg
22	Elias Ball	A boy coming and going
22	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, chair, boy, and horses coming and going
22	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
23	Richard Gough	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
23	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
23	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horse coming and going
23	Henry Laurens	Ferriage a boy and horse going and coming
23	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
25	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage for nephew and horse
26	Benj. A. Singleton	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
26	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage for nephew and horse returning
26	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, a boy, and horses
26	Richard Gough	Ferriage self, a boy, and horses
26	John Deas	Ferriage 2 negros _____
27	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage a negro and horse
27	Keating Simons	Ferriage a chair going _____
28	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage a boy and horse
28	Capt. Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage negros and horse

March 1777

01	John Harleston	Ferriage 2 negros afoot
01	John Prestly	Grogg
01	Benjamin Johnston	Drams

01	Rachel Caw	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going and coming
02	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self, horse coming and going
02	John Prestly	Grogg
02	Benjamin Johnston	Grogg
03	Capt. Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
03	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
03	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 negro going and coming w/horse
03	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 negro afoot
04	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse coming and going
06	Keating Simons	Ferriage self and horse
06	John Prestly	Grogg
06	John Deas	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
06	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse going and coming
07	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage chair, horse, and boy
08	Maurice Simons	Ferriage 1 negro and 2 horses
08	Capt. Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage a chair, boy and girl on horseback
09	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse going and returning afoot
09	John Harleston	Ferriage a carriage, 3 negros, and horses
09	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 negro afoot
09	John Prestly	Grogg
09	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
10	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
10	Benjamin Elliott	Ferriage 2 negros and 20 horses
11	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horse coming and going

12	Edward Tanner	Ferriage ____ self and horses
12	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self returning
13	John Harleston	Ferriage 2 negros and 3 horses
13	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
13	Mrs. Rachel Caw	Ferriage chair, boy and horse going and coming
14	Rachel Caw	Ferriage chair, boy and led horse
14	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
15	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
15	James Coachman	Ferriage 2 negros and 3 horses
16	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 negro and horse returning
16	Mrs. Rachel Caw	Ferriage chair, boy, and horses
16	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horses coming and going
16	Richard Bolton	Grogg
16	John Prestly	Grogg
16	Benjamin Johnston	Grogg
17	Mr. Jamison	Ferriage 1 negro on foot
17	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
18	Richard Bolton	Cash lent 30 shillings
18	John Harleston	Ferriage self going and coming
18	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
18	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage chair, 2 boys, and horses
18	Benjamin Johnston	2 glasses rum and 2/6 in change
18	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
20	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
20	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses

20	Keating Simons	Ferriage 1 negro, horses going and coming
21	Keating Simons	Ferriage 1 negro coming ___w/horses
21	John Prestly	Grogg
21	Richard Gough	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
22	John Prestly	3 pints rum
22	Richard Bolton	Grogg
22	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horses coming
22	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
22	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 2 boys 6 head of cattle
24	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
25	Richard Gough	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
25	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
26	Richard Gough	Ferriage 1 boy and led horse
26	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
26	William Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
27	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
27	James Coachman	Ferriage 2 negros and 3 horses stabled
28	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
28	John Harleston	Ferriage chair, boy, and horse
28	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
28	Capt. Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage chair, boy, and horse
29	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
29	Richard Bolton	Ferriage yours ___ negro
29	John Harleston	Ferriage cousin, boy, and 2 horses
29	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
29	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self going and coming

29	John Prestly	3 gallons rum
29	John Prestly	Grogg
29	Richard Bolton	Grogg
30	Richard Bolton	Grogg
30	Robert Hume	Ferriage _____ 3 horses
31	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse return
31	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 2 boys and 4 head of cattle

April 1777

03	John Harleston	Ferriage 4 wheel carriage, 7 horses W/riders
03	John Prestly	Grogg
03	John Deas	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
05	John Deas	Ferriage 1 negro and 4 horses
05	John Harleston	Ferriage to groom
05	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage your brother going and coming
06	John Deas	Ferriage 1 negro and 1 horse
06	Benjamin Johnston	Liquor
06	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 negro and horse coming and going
07	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage chair, boy, and horses
07	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
08	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
08	John Deas	Ferriage 2 ____ boy and horses
08	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
08	Richard Bolton	Liquor
08	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horses
09	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse

10	John Prestly	1 quart rum and grogg
10	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going and returning with led horse
11	Richard Bolton	Ferriage self going and coming
11	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
12	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
12	Richard Bolton	Liquor
12	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
12	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage chair, self, boy and 3 horses
12	Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage 1 negro and 2 head cattle
13	Richard Bolton	2 tumblers grogg
13	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro afoot and return w/2 horses
14	Robert Raper	Ferriage chair, boy, and horses coming and going
15	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 negro going w/3 horses and return
15	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage self, boy and _____
15	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
15	Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage chair, 2 boys and 3 horses
16	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage self coming and going
16	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
16	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
17	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
17	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 2 boys and horses
17	John Prestly	3 pints rum
17	John Cumming Ball	To ____ self, boy, and _____
17	Richard Bolton	Liquor
18	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going

19	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 boy returning
19	John Harleston	Ferriage self and boy
19	John Cumming Ball	To ___ negro, 3 horses
19	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and 2 horses
20	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy w/2 horses
20	John Prestly	3 quarts rum
20	John Prestly	Grogg
20	Richard Bolton	Ferriage
21	John Prestly	Grogg
21	Richard Bolton	Ferriage
21	James Cordes	Ferriage 1 negro and horse going and coming
21	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self afoot
22	Richard Bolton	Liquor
22	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 negro, wagon, and horses
22	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
22	John Harleston	Ferriage chair, boy, and horses
22	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage to your brother
22	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage chair, 2 boys and 5 horses
23	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
25	John Prestly	Grogg and 1 quart rum
25	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy w/2 horses and return W/?
25	Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage 3 negros afoot
26	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
26	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
26	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
27	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse

27	Mrs. Ann Harleston	Ferriage 2 horses
28	John Prestly	Grogg
28	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self afoot
28	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage to 1 boy and 2 horses
28	Benjamin Johnston	Grogg
29	John Harleston	Ferriage your groom and boy
29	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 2 chairs, 4 riders, 2 led horses
29	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
30	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and horses

May 1777

01	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 2 negros and 1 horse
01	John Prestly	3 pints rum
01	Francis Huger	1 gallon rum per order of Col. Harleston
01	Benj. Singleton	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
02	John Harleston	Ferriage phaeton, chair, _____
02	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 2 negros and 8 horses
03	Edward Tanner	Ferriage crossing 3 times, once afoot and twice on horseback
03	Robert Guash	Ferriage 1 negro belonging to Mr. Hume w/fowl
03	John Prestly	Liquor
03	John Prestly	50# sugar
03	Richard Bolton	Liquor
04	John Prestly	Grogg
04	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage chair, 5 riders on horseback, and 2 led horses

04	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
05	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
05	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
05	John Harleston	Ferriage phaeton, chair, _____
06	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 2 chairs, 2 boys, and 5 led horses
06	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage your ___ boy and horses
06	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
06	John Harleston	Ferriage cart and negro
06	John Prestly	Grogg
07	Richard Bolton	Liquor
07	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
07	John Harleston	Ferriage cart, 2 negros, and 6 horses
07	Elias Ball	Ferriage cart and horses going and ____
07	Keating Simons	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
07	John Prestly	1/2 gallon rum
08	John Dunn	1 quart rum, dinner, and grogg
08	John Prestly	Grogg
09	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and 4 horses
09	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 2 chairs and riders, 2 led horses
09	Maurice Simmons	1 tumbler brandy grogg
10	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
10	Elias Ball	Ferriage negros afoot
10	Richard Bolton	1 tumbler brandy
11	Richard Bolton	Grogg
11	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
11	John Dunn	Grogg
11	Robert Hume	Ferriage ____ boy

11	Robert Hume	Ferriage 3 negros afoot
12	John Deas	Ferriage 2 negros afoot
12	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 2 boys and 3 horses
14	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
15	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
15	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
15	Henry Laurens	Ferriage to your _____
15	Richard Bolton	Ferriage self and chair
15	Francis Huger	Ferriage your overseer, boy, and horses
16	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
16	Keating Simons	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
18	Henry Laurens	Ferriage to your returning
18	John Dunn	2 tumblers grogg and ferriage
18	Richard Bolton	1 tumbler brandy
18	Richard Bolton	1 tumbler brandy
18	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
18	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
18	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses going
18	Francis Huger	Ferriage your overseer, boy, and horses
19	John Deas	Ferriage 1 boy and horses
20	John Deas	Ferriage 2 negros afoot
20	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
20	John Harleston	Ferriage your groom
20	Elias Ball	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
20	Robert Raper	Ferriage chair and horse
20	Richard Bolton	2 tumblers brandy
20	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage ___ sheep, 2 negros, 1 horse

20	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
21	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horses
21	Henry Laurens	Ferriage John Laurens company and boy
21	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
21	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 1 negro girl afoot
21	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage self, boy, and horses
22	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage 2 chairs and riders on horseback and led horses
22	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, horse, boy, and 2 horses
22	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
22	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro and 4 horses
23	Richard Bolton	To ___ loft at _____
23	John Harleston	Ferriage phaeton, chair _____
23	Elias Ball	Ferriage self, boy, and horse return
23	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage to a white groom
23	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
23	John Prestly	Grogg
23	John Prestly	1 quart rum
24	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
26	Robert Raper	Ferriage for Mr. Prestly
26	Elias Ball	Ferriage chair, boy, and horse
26	Keating Simons	Ferriage chair, horses and riders
26	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self crossing afoot
26	John Prestly	4 tumblers grogg
26	John Deas	Ferriage going
27	Robert Raper	Ferriage for Mr. Prestly and horse
27	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses

27	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage to a white groom
27	Richard Bolton	Ferriage self
28	John Dunn	1 quart rum
28	James Cordes	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
28	John Prestly	2 tumblers grogg
29	John Harleston	Ferriage chair and led horse
29	Richard Bolton	Ferriage self
30	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
30	Maurice Simmons	Ferriage chair, boy, and 3 horses
30	Robert Huger	Ferriage 2 riders and 4 horses
31	Richard Bolton	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
31	Richard Bolton	2 tumblers grogg
31	John Prestly	1 tumbler grogg
31	John Harleston	Ferriage chair, boy, and 2 horses
31	Elias Ball	Ferriage chair, boy, and horse
31	Capt. Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horses

June 1777

01	John Dunn	3 tumblers grogg, 2 pints rum
01	Keating Simons	Ferriage chair, horse and riders
01	John Prestly	3 tumblers grogg
01	Robert Bolton	Ferriage 1 boy _____
01	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
02	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
02	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and brother
03	Keating Simons	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses going
04	Robert Raper	Ferriage 3 negros and 1 horse

04	Robert Raper	Ferriage self, chair, and boy going over 3 times
04	Henry Smith	Ferriage card, 2 negros, and 2 horses
05	Keating Simons	Ferriage chair, riders, and horses
06	Keating Simons	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
06	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage a boy and horse
06	Richard Bolton	Grogg
06	Robert Hume	Ferriage ___ boy and horse
07	Richard Bolton	Grogg and 2 tumbler _____
07	John Prestly	Grogg
07	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage a boy and horse going
07	John Dunn	1 tumbler grogg and 6 pints rum
07	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage self, boy, and horse
07	Benj. Johnston	Grogg
07	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage self and horse going
08	John Prestly	Grogg
08	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self and horse coming and going
08	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going and coming
08	Keating Simons	Ferriage chair, boy, and 3 horses
08	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
09	John Deas	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
09	John Dunn	3 tumblers grogg and 3 pints rum
09	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy afoot coming and going
09	Henry Laurens	Ferriage coach, 2 chairs and horses
10	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy and horse coming and returning
10	Keating Simons	Ferriage 2 chairs, riders on horseback

10	Richard Bolton	Grogg
10	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse
11	Isaac Harleston	Ferriage 1 negro afoot
11	Henry Laurens	Ferriage 1 boy going and coming
11	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
12	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self, ___ 1 horse
14	Keating Simons	Ferriage phaeton, boy and horse going and coming
14	Henry Laurens	Ferriage Mr. Izzard, boy, and horse
14	Nathaniel Lavineau	Ferriage self, boy, and 2 horses
14	John Prestly	Grogg
15	John Dunn	2 tumblers grogg and 1 pint rum
16	John Prestly	Grogg
16	Robert Raper	Ferriage Mr. Pressly going and coming
16	Edward Tanner	Ferriage self afoot
17	Keating Simons	Ferriage phaeton, a boy and horse
17	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 boy and 2 horses
18	Elias Ball	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going and coming
19	Robert Hume	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going
22	John Harleston	Ferriage phaeton, chair
23	Keating Simons	Ferriage boy and horse coming and going
23	Capt. Benj. A. Smith	Ferriage 1 boy going and coming
24	John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going
25	Keating Simons	Ferriage boy and horse coming and going
25	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going and coming
25	Robert Guash(?)	Ferriage 1 boy and 3 horses
25	John Harleston	Ferriage ____ w/3 horses

26	Elias Ball	Ferriage self, boy, and 3 horses
26	John Cumming Ball	Ferriage self and boy
26	John Prestly	1 quart of rum and 3 of ___
26	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse going
27	Col. John Harleston	Ferriage 1 boy and horse returning
28	Keating Simons	Ferriage boy on foot coming and going
29	John Deas	Ferriage 1 negro and horse
30	John Prestly	Grogg

APPENDIX VI

Surface Finds from Northeastern Landing of Strawberry Ferry

ARTIFACT NUMBER	DESCRIPTION	NO
SF#1441		
38BK1723-1-1	Pearlware, "Annularware"	1
38BK1723-1-2	Pearlware, Blue Transfer-printed	9
38BK1723-1-3	Pearlware, Green Shell-edged	3
38BK1723-1-4	Creamware	8
38BK1723-1-5	Creamware	1
38BK1723-1-6	Ironstone	1
38BK1723-1-7	Ironstone	1
38BK1723-1-8	Porcelain, Chinese Export	2
38BK 1723-1-9	Porcelain, Chinese Export-Overglaze	3
38BK1723-1-10	Porcelain, Bisque	1
38BK1723-1-11	Porcelain, (19th Century)	1
38BK1723-1-12	Whiteware, Green-Edged	1
38BK1723-1-13	Whiteware, Transfer-Printed	2
38BK1723-1-14	Whiteware, "Annularware"	1
38BK 1723-1-15	Base, Stemmed Wine Glass	1

APPENDIX VI I

Property owners in Childsbury Towne, South Carolina

(1707-1800)

Name	Lot No.	Source
Boyd, Mr.	?	1
Chicken, George	?	2
Child, Hanna	37	3
Child, Lydia	38	3
Child, Mary	39	3
Child, William	1, 2, 17, 24	3
Dix, Hanna	50-95	4
Foster, Andrew	?	4
Harleston, John	?	5
Harleston, Sarah	36	3
Lejau, Mary	6	7
Lloyd, John	?	8
Read, Sarah	?	5
Sarrasin, Stephen	8-10, 21-21, 28-29	8
Skiner, John	17, 24	6

Source:

1. Rogers et al., 1974:598-599

2. Will of George Chicken (1745), Moore 1964:56
3. Will of Isaac Child (1734), Moore and Simmons 1960:203.
4. Will of James Child (1718), Moore and Simmons 1960:65-66.
5. Will of John Harleston (1794), Moore 1974:305-306)
6. South Carolina Historical Society, Elias Ball Muniments, 33-83-2-5.
7. Will of Francis Lejau (1755), Moore and Simmons 1964:248.
8. Cross 1985:150

APPENDIX VIII

Public Buildings and Commercial Areas in Childsbury Towne

Name	Lot Number	Source
Church	120	1
College	96	1
Free School	16	1
Market Place	50	1

Source:

1. Map of Childsbury Towne (1707), Smith 1914:107-112

APPENDIX IX

Names and Occupation of Childsbury Residents

(1740-1770)

Name	Occupation	Date	Source
Boyd, Mr.	?	ca. 1760s	1
Howe, Mr.	School Teacher	ca. 1740s	2
Lejau, Francis	Magistrate	ca. 1742-50	3
Loyd, John	?	ca. 1733	4
McCrannel, James	Laborer	ca. 1740s	3
Sarrasin, Stephen	Merchant	ca. Early 1700s	4
Shrewsbury, Steven	Carpenter	ca. 1747	3
Thompson, Richard	Carpenter	ca. 1740s	3
Unknown	Tailor	ca. 1730s	3

Source:

1. Rogers et al., 1974:598-599
2. Irving 1932[1842]:143
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