

PEMAQUID

LOST AND FOUND

By Helen Camp



An illustrated presentation of artifacts and their identification recovered from the ancient colony at Pemaquid, Maine.

ANCIENT PEMAQUID RESTORATION

1967-68

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1967

Ancient Pemaquid Restoration Booklet Series

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PEMAQUID LOST AND FOUND

CONTENTS

	Page
Introduction	1
Aerial Views	2
Brief History	3
The Maine Indians	4
Indian Artifacts	4
Indian Trade Goods	6
White Clay Pipes	8
Fishing Gear	12
Redware Pottery	14
Bellarmino Jug	16
German Saltglaze Stoneware	18
Tin Enameled Wares	20
Other Pottery Types	22
Glassware	24
Tableware	26
Iron Cooking Kettles	28
Household Items (For the Woman's Use)	30
Door Hardware	32
Iron Tools	34
Fire Arms & Ammunition	36
Horse & Oxen Artifacts	38
Coins, Bale Seals, Wax Seals, and Cuff Links	39
Miscellaneous Items	40
Bibliography	42
Index	43

The dictionary defines archaeology as the scientific study of historic or prehistoric peoples and their cultures by analysis of their artifacts, monuments, and other remains, especially those that have been excavated. This definition may not sound too exciting, but when the actual work is being done and the artifacts are carefully excavated with a record of their position and depth, a picture begins to unfold. Through research one can tell the age of a site, and in most instances how it was destroyed, or if it was rebuilt.

Imagine if you can the excitement when a pottery sherd first shows itself under careful digging with trowel and whisk broom, later to be fitted with other similar sherds like a jigsaw puzzle until all of the pieces form a good part of a pot, or even a whole pot.

The story of these artifacts spells out the social, economic, agricultural and military life of the people who used them. For example, from the dating of the white clay pipe stems found at Pemaquid we have a good example of an artifact supporting the known dates and population of the colony. And from the cannon balls, flints, and musket balls we know, as does history tell us, that Pemaquid was a place of struggle with the Indians and French.

This does not mean that all the artifacts recovered should be crammed into history and be made to prove what has already been written. They should be allowed to speak for themselves, and when all the pieces of history and all of the artifacts are put together, then there will emerge a more definite and exact picture of the colony at Pemaquid.

The preparation of this work would not have been possible without the assistance and cooperation of many who are authorities in their particular field. For this I owe a debt of gratitude to the following who have freely given of their time and knowledge: Junius B. Bird, Curator of South American Archaeology, The American Museum of Natural History; Richard G. Emerick, Assoc. Prof. of Anthropology, University of Maine at Orono; J. Paul Hudson, U.S. National Parks Service Curator at Jamestown, Virginia; Ivor Noël Hume, Director Dept. of Archaeology, Colonial Williamsburg; Roland Robbins, Archaeologist; H. L. Shapiro, Chairman Dept. of Anthropology, The American Museum of Natural History; Iain Walker, Dept. of Indian Affairs and Northern Development, Canadian Historical Sites Division; and C. Malcolm Watkins, Curator of Cultural History, United States National Museum, Smithsonian Institution.

I would be remiss if I did not thank Mrs. George Dudley, Sr. of Wyomissing, Penna. and Rev. James E. Herrick of Bailey Island, Maine for their many hours of historical research.

And last, but not least, I am grateful for the vision and cooperation of Gordon VanBuskirk who recognized from the beginning the historical importance of the Pemaquid dig to the people of Maine and to the nation.

INTRODUCTION

Pemaquid, Maine is located at the tip of a peninsula about twelve miles due south of Damariscotta, and about sixty miles northeast of Portland.

The area in the vicinity of the Fort William Henry Memorial has for some time been known as the site of an early English settlement, going back to the first part of the 17th century. In the 16th century, Spanish, Portuguese, French and English fishing vessels plied their trade in the surrounding waters. Their headquarters were located along the mainland, as well as at Monhegan Island, some ten miles off shore from Pemaquid.

Professor John Johnston investigated the area in 1873; John Henry Cartland did a more thorough piece of work at the turn of the century, and was responsible for having the Fort William Henry Memorial erected in 1908; and Professor Warren K. Moorehead, best known for his contribution to the so-called Red Paint Indian Complex, was brought in by the Pemaquid Historical Society in 1923 to determine if there were any vestiges of an early Viking settlement, supposedly around the year 1,000. His report concluded that there were no such evidences.

In the fall of 1964 I was walking across a newly tilled field at Pemaquid, hoping to find some Indian artifacts that might have been brought to the surface by the plow or the frost. I noticed a sizeable depression in the field. I was familiar with the previous archaeological work that had been done there, and I wondered if this might be an indication of an old cellar hole. I talked this over with Mr. Gordon VanBuskirk who had recently acquired the property, and to my delight I found that he was as interested in the possibilities of an archaeological excavation as I was. After the thaw in the spring of 1965, we started our work. Since that time we have uncovered nine cellar holes or stone foundations, and some 25,000 artifacts.

The purpose of the dig is to bring to light the history of this early English colony, and through archaeology and research to determine the living habits, military life, and economic and social structures of the lives of these Maine pioneers.

The digging accounts for only about 10% of our effort. The other 90% is devoted to cleaning, classifying, piecing sherds of pottery together, and cataloging the artifacts. Along with this of course is research into the old records and accounts of the area.

In the following pages you will find a very brief historical background of Ancient Pemaquid, together with illustrations and descriptions of the more interesting artifacts that have been unearthed.



Aerial Photograph of the Pemaquid Peninsula



Aerial Photograph of the Pemaquid Dig

BRIEF HISTORY

In order to place the importance of the dig in proper perspective, we shall go back in time for a brief summary of the history of Pemaquid.

In 1605, two years before the settlement of the first permanent colony at Jamestown, Virginia, and fifteen years before the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, an Englishman, George Waymouth, with 29 men, landed at Pemaquid. He had intended to go ashore at Cape Cod, but fearful that the sand and shoals would provide too poor an anchorage, he continued north and east. After spending some time among the islands in Muscongus Bay, he explored the mainland for a week. While there he captured five Indians and took them back to England. They apparently lived with the better English families, and were well treated, since several of them upon their return to America acted as guides for Captain John Smith and other early explorers among the many islands, rivers, bays, and inlets along the Maine coast.

In August 1607, several months after the landing at Jamestown, Virginia, George Popham paid a visit to Pemaquid before going on to settle an English colony at what is now known as Popham Beach, just down the finger from Bath. This ill-fated colony lasted but a little over a year. George Popham died. Raleigh Gilbert who was left in charge lost a brother in England and had to return to settle the estate. The colony found itself without responsible leadership, and in October of 1608 decided to return to England. Since Pemaquid is such a short distance by water from Popham Beach, there has been some conjecture that some of the colony may have elected to remain in America and settle at Pemaquid.

The first documented record we have of a stable settlement at Pemaquid is a copy of a deed dated 1625, when the Indian Chief Samoset sold the Pemaquid Peninsula to John Brown for fifty beaver skins. It is of interest to note here that in the next year, 1626, Peter Minuet bought Manhattan from the Indians for trinkets worth \$24.

In the early days Pemaquid did represent an important strategic position. It was the last outpost between the English and the French, both of whom claimed the territory between the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers. In addition, it afforded a convenient land bridge between Pemaquid and Muscongus Bay that was far safer than making the journey by water around the treacherous Pemaquid Point.

The history of Pemaquid is closely tied in with the rise and fall of the four forts that have been built there. Briefly, the first fort, Fort Pemaquid, was erected in 1630, and was burned by the Indians in 1676. The fort was replaced by Fort Charles in 1677, which in turn was destroyed during the Indian massacre of 1689. Then in 1692 Fort William Henry, the first stone fort in New England, was built. This lasted only four years. In 1696 it was captured by the French fleet under d'Iberville, supported on land by a band of several hundred Indians under Castine. For the next thirty years the entire peninsula was deserted due to fear of the Indians.

Then David Dunbar was commissioned to build the fourth and last fort, Fort Frederick, in 1729. This fort lasted for 46 years, until it was torn down by the citizens of the Town of Bristol in 1775 to keep it out of the hands of the British during the War of the Revolution.

The Fort William Henry Memorial, which stands on the site at present, is in honor of the third fort, built in 1692.

THE MAINE INDIANS

The Maine Indians were divided into two tribes; the Abnakis to the west of the St. George River; and the Etechemines to the east. These tribes were both of Algonquin stock. They were friendly with each other, and spoke a dialect understandable to both tribes. The Wawenocks who lived in the region of Pemaquid were a sub-tribe of the Abnakis. Loosely translated we are told their name means "brave man." These Indians depended not only on game and fish for their food, but also to a large extent on corn. This they grew in summer, using fish for fertilizer, and it served as their most staple food in the winter.

As far as we can determine, the Indian houses were conical in form. They were made by bending small trees or branches together toward the top covering them with bark or woven mats. A hole was left in the top for the exit of smoke from their fires.

A series of Indian wars in the early 1600's had greatly reduced the Indian population in New England, and the Great Plague of 1617 decimated their already depleted ranks.

In all the records, the Indian Chief Samoset, who sold Pemaquid to John Brown for fifty skins, and supplied the Pilgrims with enough food to keep them from starving, stands out as a man of most noble character. It is said that he considered John Brown as a brother, and it is reported that when the town was burned in 1676, Brown's house was the only one left standing.

When the French came down from the east, they turned the Indians against the English by persuading them not to trust these interlopers. As cited above, Castine with the help of several hundred Indians participated in the capture of Fort William Henry, supporting d'Iberville's ships which were attacking by sea.

While Indian artifacts abound on nearby shores, they were very sparse in the site area since the fields have been plowed for some 125 years.

INDIAN ARTIFACTS (Fig. 1)

1. Projectile points.
2. Bone awl – sharpened at both ends. Probably used for making perforations in leather garments.
3. Projectile points.
4. Portions of spears.
5. Thumbnail end scrapers. These are made from a thick chip with only one side worked. They were used for scraping leather or hides.
6. Small knives. Used for cutting pelts.
7. Pottery sherds. Corded type.
8. Plummet. These were generally used for net sinkers. However, this one represents a classic plummet, probably for ceremonial use.
9. Portion of pestle. Used to grind corn in a stone mortar.

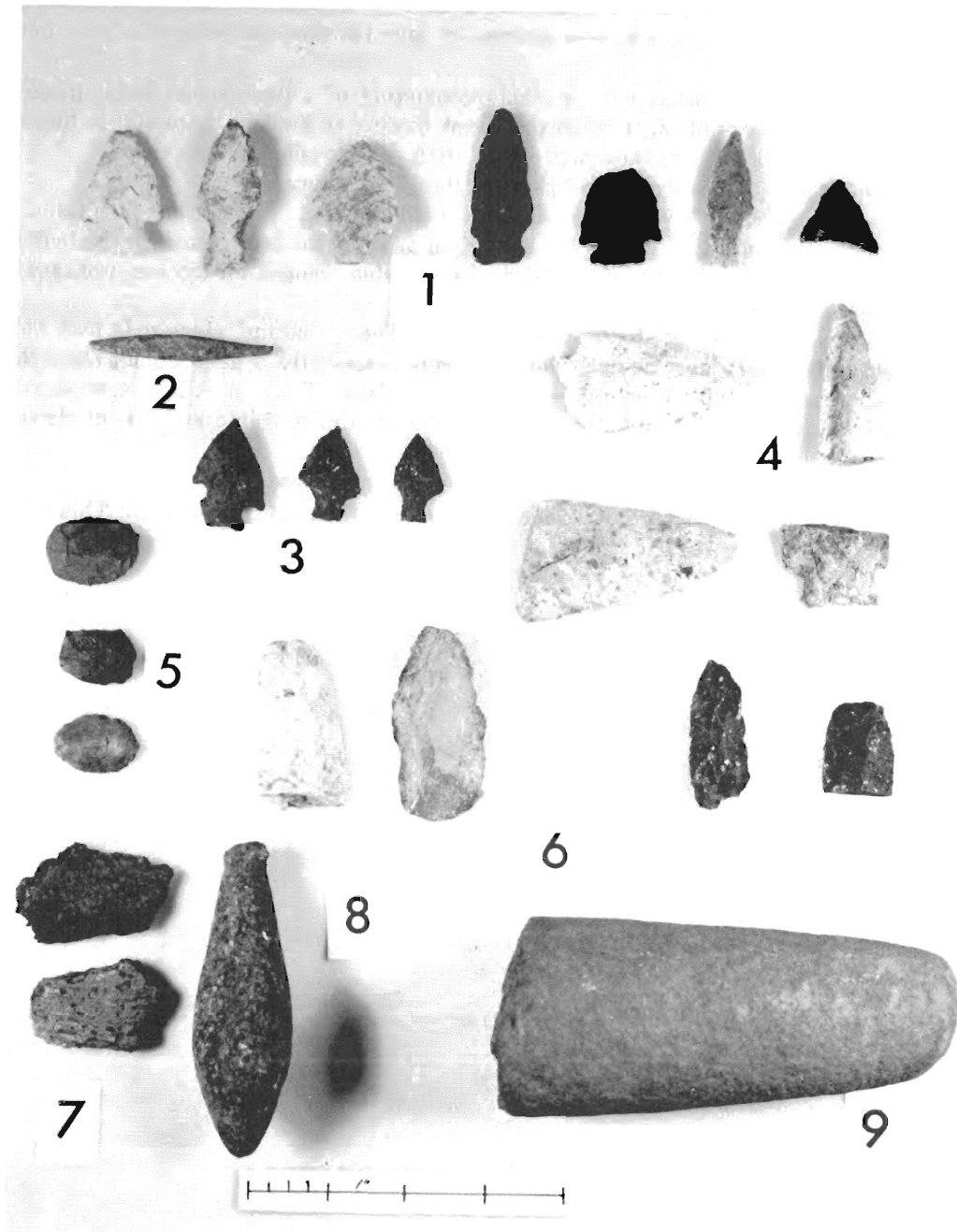


Figure 1

INDIAN TRADE GOODS (Fig. 2)

The Indians were not so much interested in trading for coins as they were in bartering for some of the articles used by the colonies. The colonists in turn were anxious to have the furs and pelts which the Indians got from trapping.

1. Jews harps. These are simple musical instruments consisting of a lyre-shaped metal frame with a metal tongue in the center which was plucked while the metal frame was held in the teeth. In these two illustrations, the one at the top is brass, and the lower one is steel. The tongues are missing.
2. Scissors. These are iron scissors, made in England in the 17th century.
3. Trade beads. These were made in a variety of shapes and colors. Most of them came from Italy. In the middle of the 18th century the Hudson Bay Company set a standard of value for beads used for the Indian trade which differed according to the size and color of the bead. These values ranged all the way from six beads for one skin to one bead for two skins.
4. This star or chevron bead was the aristocrat of trade beads. The cylindrical glass rods from which they were formed have been built up of three main concentric layers, externally a deep cobalt blue, then an opaque brick red, and in the center a tube of pale green transparent glass. These main layers are divided by thinner ones of opaque white glass, and the dividing surfaces have been worked into a series of chevrons or zigzag so as to present a star-like pattern on a cross section.
5. White clay pipe. The Indians regarded this as a most coveted trade item.
6. German trade axe. The Indians found these much easier to use than their stone axes. This one was made in the 17th century.

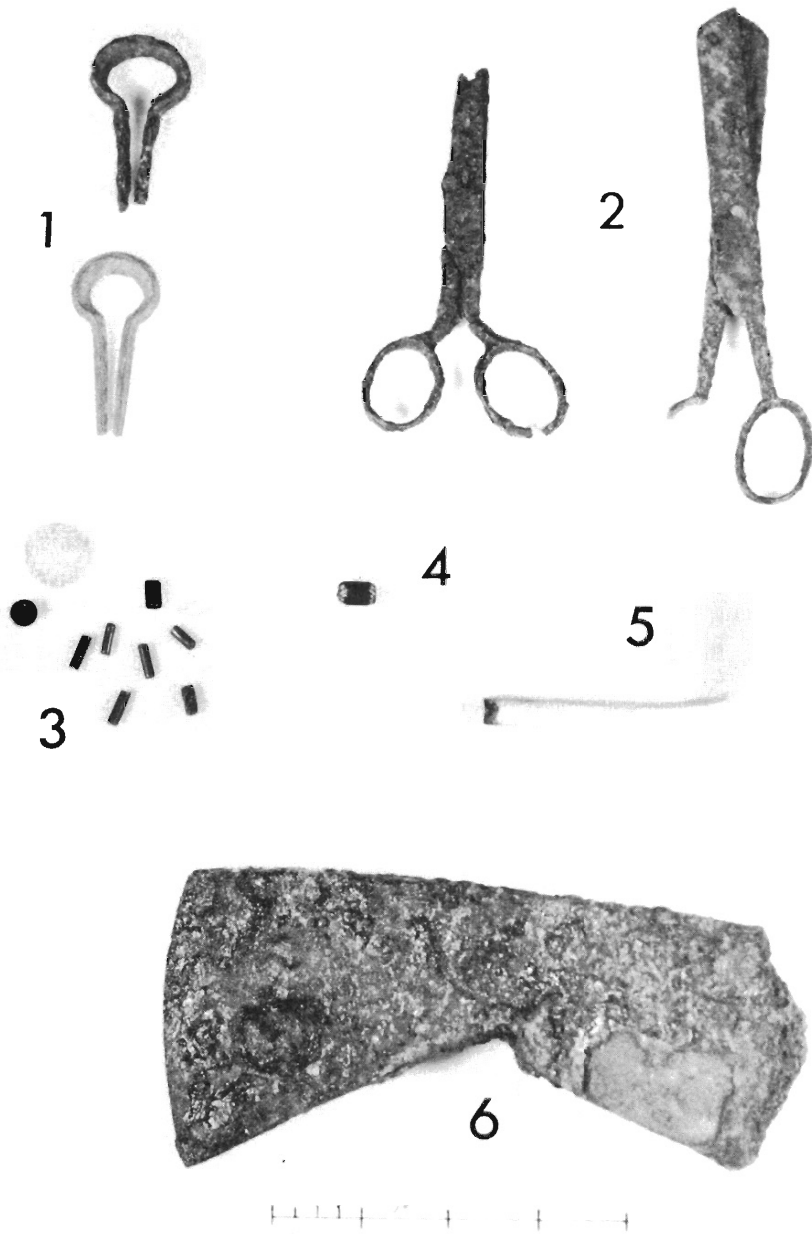


Figure 2

WHITE CLAY PIPES

Long before the Europeans set foot on America, the Indians were making pipes from steatite or soapstone. Later they made the bowl from red clay, with a piece of reed for a stem. This was followed by pipes with both bowl and stem made from red clay. These were introduced in Europe at the end of the 16th century. The first English copies of these pipes were made by hand of white clay, but by the beginning of the 17th century they were being made in molds.

White clay pipe stem fragments constitute a very useful tool for dating purposes. J. C. Harrington has developed a dating formula for these fragile and short-lived objects which has proved to be reasonably accurate. It is based on the size of the hole in the stem.

The bowls of the early white clay pipes were very small, and the stems were short—possibly 4 or 5 inches long. The hole in the stem was made by the use of metal wires or rods. As time progressed, the bowls were made larger and the stems longer. With these longer stems, it was found that the piercing tool often came out at the side of the stem, so smaller and smaller tools were used. The stem hole measurements and corresponding dates shown in Figure 3 represent a simplified reduction of the Harrington dating formula.

During the summer of 1965, 3729 white clay pipe stem fragments were recovered at the Pemaquid dig from six foundation sites and from the field. A dating study of these artifacts ties in with the known history of the area. (See Figure 3.)

6.7% of those found represent the period 1620–1650, when the settlement was just getting started. During the next 30 year period, 1650–1680, the population increased considerably. The number of pipe stem fragments found for these years was 2½ times as great as for the previous period, or 17% of the total. The next 30 year period, from 1680 to 1710, was marked by two important events. In 1689 the Indians destroyed Fort Charles and burned the village. In 1696, the French attacked Fort William Henry by sea, under d'Iberville, and the Indians under Castine besieged the fort by land. The fort was captured, and the fear of Indian raids caused the white inhabitants to flee from the area, so that for the next 30 years Pemaquid was practically deserted. The pipe stem fragments for this period take a nose dive, dropping to a mere 4.8% of the total.

After Fort Frederick was built in 1729, the people regained confidence and returned in great numbers. The pipe stem fragments for the period 1710–1750 is 49.9% of the total. During the last half of the 18th century, from 1750 to 1800, the population spread out to other areas, leaving the dig site with all its foundations and ruins. For this period the pipe stem fragments drop to 21.6% of the total.

Figures 4 and 5 show some of the variations of pipe bowls and pipe stems.

PEMAQUID RESTORATION – 1965

A Dating Study of 3,729 Clay Pipe Stem Fragments

Hole Size (Inches)	Date
8/64	1620/1650
7/64	1650/1680
6/64	1680/1710
5/64	1710/1750
4/64	1750/1800

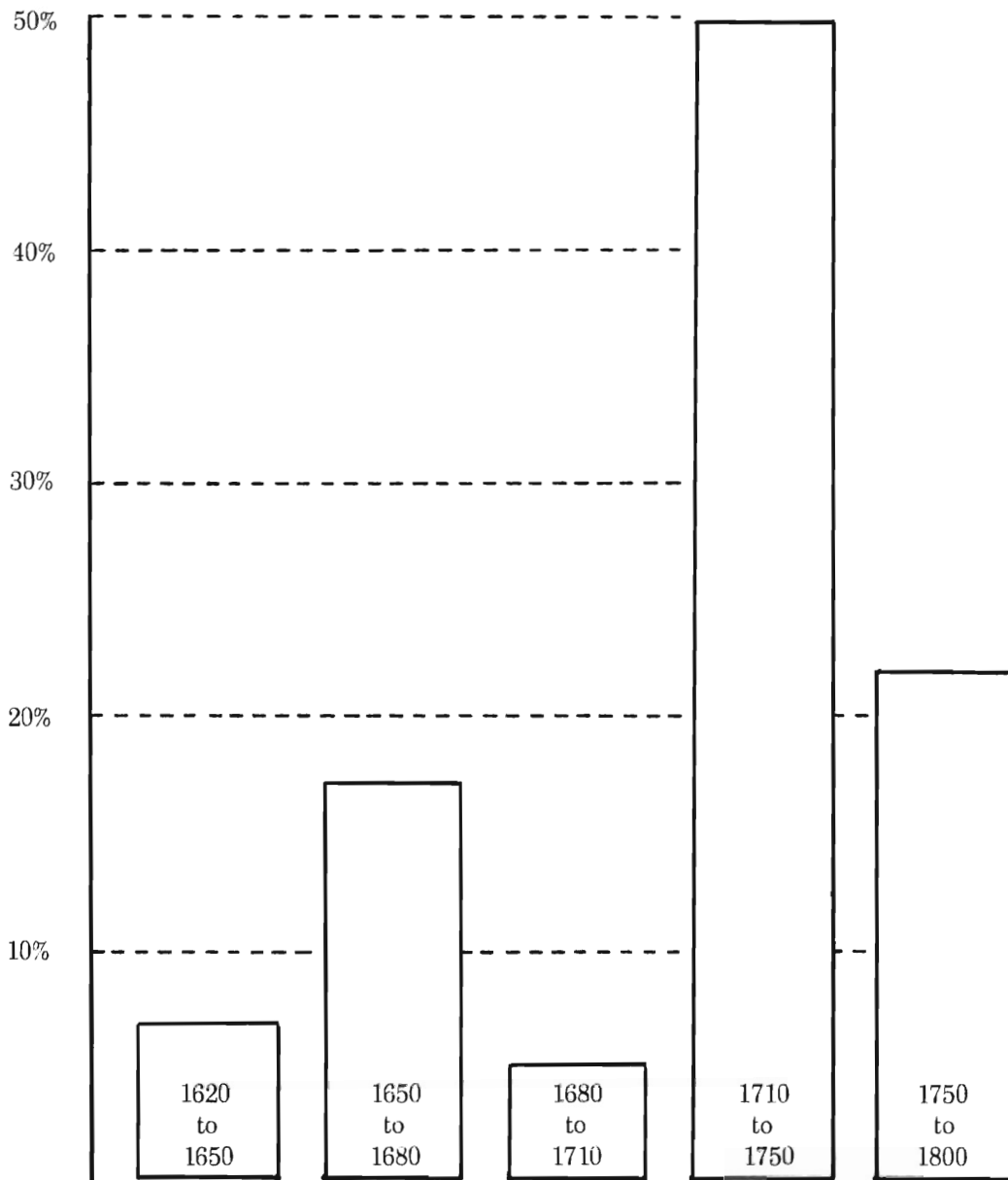


Figure 3

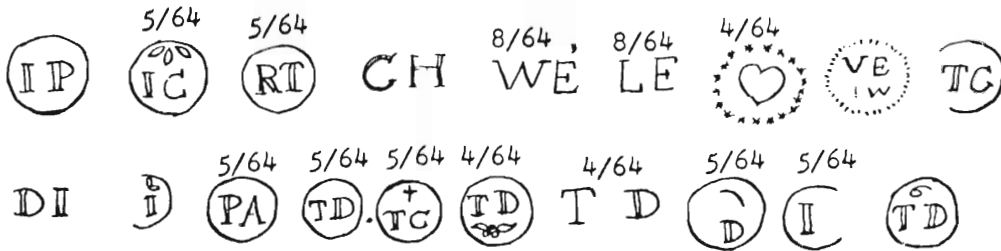


Figure 4

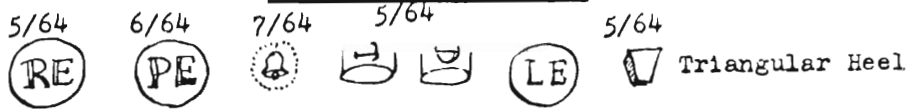


MAKER'S MARKS

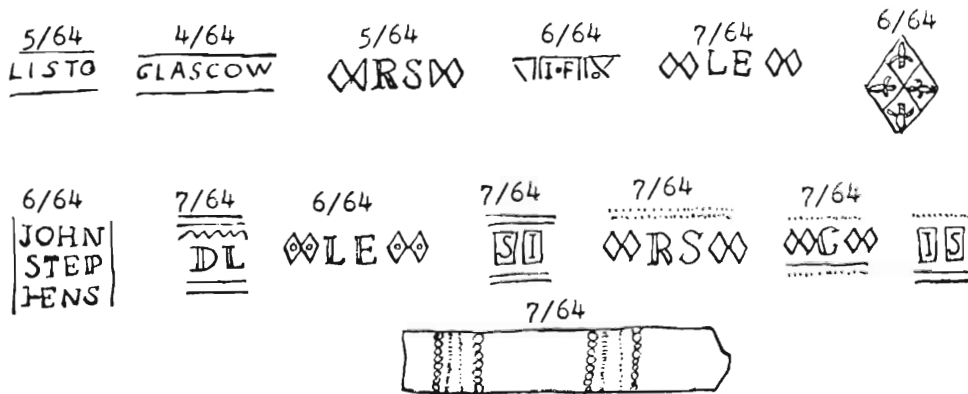
MAKER'S MARKS ON BOWLS



MAKER'S MARKS ON HEEL



MAKER'S MARKS ON STEM



CLAY PIPE BOWL SHAPES & MARKINGS

Figure 5

FISHING GEAR (Fig. 6)

The waters near Pemaquid had been known from the early 16th century as good fishing grounds. When the colony was first established the sea assured an ample supply of food. Large quantities of fish were dried on shore and either stored for winter use or shipped to England.

1. Fishhook—probably early 18th century. The line was attached to the flattened end of the shank. The shank, except of the curve toward the point and barb, is straight.
2. The same as Item 1, only smaller.
3. 18th century fishhook. Notice the eye at the end of the curved shank to which the line is tied. Also, the barb projects quite a distance from the point, providing a surer means of hooking the fish.
4. Fish spear. Used for larger fish. Probably 17th century.
5. Hook or gaff for hauling in a large fish.
6. Sinkers made of folded over lead and pierced with holes to attach to the line.
7. Compasses or dividers used for navigation when in strange waters or when far out to sea.

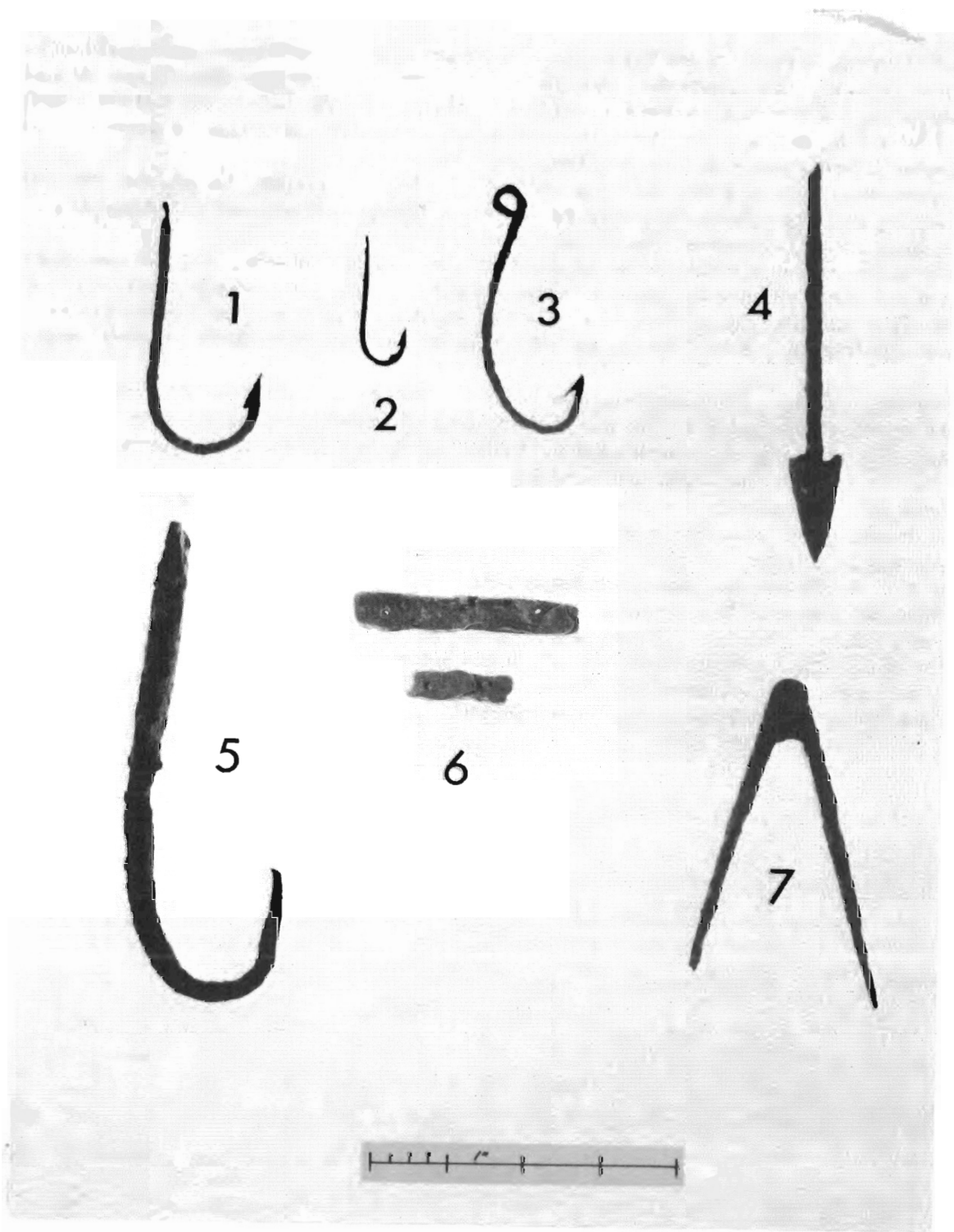


Figure 6

REDWARE POTTERY (Fig. 7)

The art of making Redware Pottery was practiced at an early time in both Europe and England, and some of the colonists brought to this country their skill which had been handed down from father to son. No doubt much of the redware found at Pemaquid was brought over from England, as this was the common everyday pottery which was much needed in settling a new home. In the first half of the 17th century potters seemed to congregate around Boston, although there were some near Jamestown, Virginia.

The articles were made for purely utilitarian purposes. The forms were simple but graceful, and were rather thick in body as this type of ware was readily broken. Among the objects made were milk pans, stew pots, pudding pans, large storage jars, plates, platters, and mugs.

Redware pottery was lead glazed, either on the inside alone, or on both sides, and thus was impervious to liquids. Manganese was added to the glaze and, according to the amount used, produced a color anywhere from a deep brown to a light tan. When a clear lead glaze was applied, the burning of the impurities in the clay produced hues of soft green, yellowish brown, and soft shades of red. The overall effect was very pleasing to the eye.

The manufacture of these wares lasted until the end of the 18th century when it was found that the lead in the glaze was poisoning those using it. Any acid in the food would gradually eat into the glaze and combine with the contents. The poisoning was slow but lethal, "enfeebling the constitution and producing paleness, gripes and palsies", or as another has expressed it, causing "rheumatism of the stomach."

1. A storage jar. This came from a 17th century site which was burned by the Indians in 1676. The pot was subject to such intense heat that the glaze has melted.
2. This storage jar is larger than Item 1. Only the top portion has been recovered so far. This was also in the fire of 1676, and the body has been misshapen by heat.
3. A pudding pan, glazed on the inside only.
4. This milk pan was glazed only on the inside. Both this and Item 3 could have been either 17th or 18th century, as the shapes remained similar throughout this period.
5. A pitcher glazed on inside and outside. This was manufactured in the colonies in the 17th century.
6. This is a 17th century lead glazed mug, origin uncertain.



Figure 7

BELLARMINE JUG (Fig. 8)

Bellarmino is the name given to German brown stoneware jugs made in the Rhineland between 1550 and 1699. These jugs were used as storage containers for wine, oil, vinegar, and other liquids. They were made in various sizes, holding all the way from as little as a pint to as much as five gallons. Bellarmine's popularity waned after the introduction of the less expensive glass wine bottle about 1650.

The bearded face which is always found on the neck was thought at one time to be a caricature of the disliked Cardinal Roberto Bellarmino of the 16th century. However, since an example has been found dated when the cardinal was but a youth, it is apparent that this name was applied at a later time. Nevertheless, the name Bellarmine has stuck.

The body of these jugs was a very hard, durable, and acid resistant stoneware made impervious to water by firing at a very high temperature. A slip containing iron oxide was applied prior to firing, and this produced a mottled brown color. The glaze was obtained by tossing salt into the kiln when it had attained a great heat. This yielded a salt glaze which became part of the body itself, and could not flake.

Medallions were made separately and applied to the body of the jug before firing. The jug illustrated in Fig. 8 has three medallions, each bearing the decoration of an Egyptian standing beside the sacred bird, an ibis. The early Bellarmine often bore the date of manufacture. On this one, we have the date 1610.

This jug if whole would measure approximately 10" in diameter and 15" in height, and held about one gallon. One of the unusual features is the twisted handle, illustrated below.

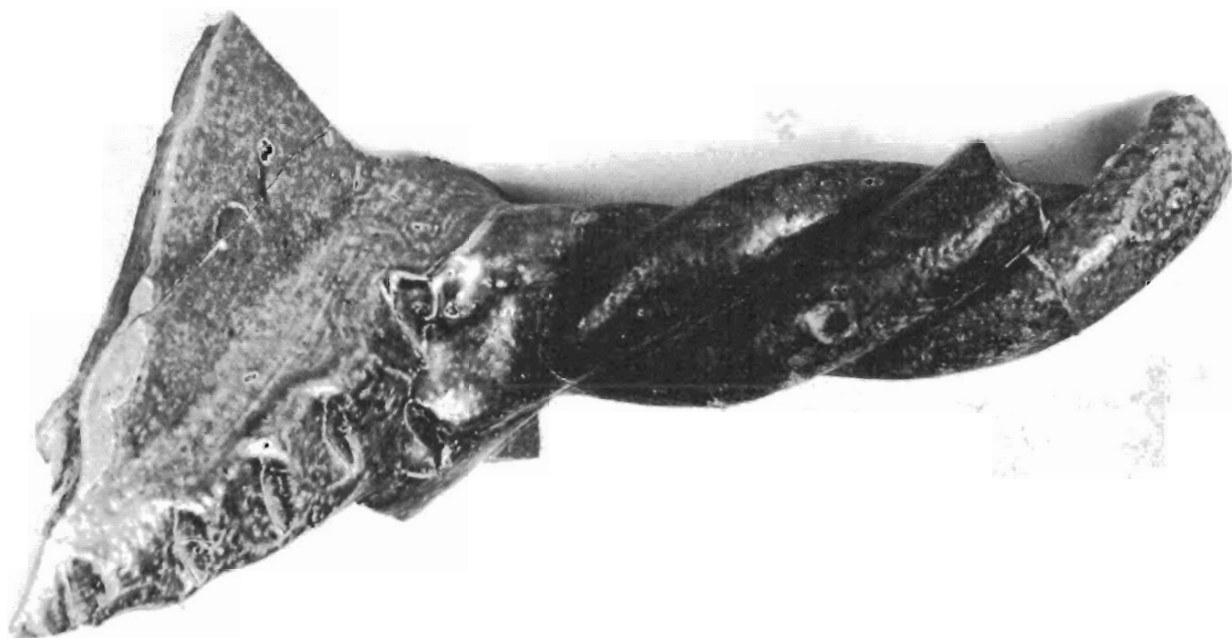




Figure 8

GERMAN SALTGLAZE STONEWARE (Fig. 9)

German saltglaze stoneware was made in the same manner as the Bellarmine ware, and was also manufactured in the Rhineland beginning in the early 1600's. The body of the ware was made from grey clay; cobalt was used to produce deep blues; and the use of manganese gave a brownish purple decoration. The individualism of the maker stood out strongly in these pieces. There is no duplication in design among the many German saltglaze stoneware items that have been found at Pemaquid.

The items illustrated here were made in the Westerwald area during the late 17th and early 18th centuries. These have been in the ground for well over 200 years; yet the colors are just as brilliant, and the body just as hard, as the day they were made.

1. This checkerboard pattern in blue on a grey background was part of a mug. The opposite side, not depicted here, bears the cipher "GR," which is an abbreviation for Georgius Rex, and could have stood for either George I or George II who were on the throne between 1714 and 1760.
2. A flower pattern in blue on grey. This is a sherd from a chamber pot.
3. This part of a mug shows a flowing design in blue on grey.
4. Here we have a stylized flower design. The flowers are in blue; the background is almost entirely in deep purple with a small amount of grey showing through. About 1700.
5. On this mug the design under the blue band is done in manganese on cobalt, and depicts a hunting scene of a boar, deer, birds, and other animals. The hearts are alternately blue and purple; the lettering is blue.
6. This portion of the top of a mug shows a large, deeply impressed diamond design done in blue and purple.
7. Here we have a mug with an incised pattern, which is also in blue and purple.
8. A mug with a stylized design of grapes in blue on grey. The letter "K" is impressed in the top of the handle. A small hole in the top of the handle provided the seating for the lug of a pewter top.
9. This mug shows a star design in blue on grey. Here again we have the cipher "GR" for Georgius Rex.
10. This is a portion of the top of a jug made in the 1700's. The design is in blue and purple.



Figure 9

TIN ENAMELED WARES (Fig. 10)

Tin enameled wares were first made in Italy in the 13th century. From there the manufacture spread to Spain, Portugal, France, Holland and England. The body was fairly soft, and the glaze being brittle easily flaked off.

Delft appeared in about 1600, and has remained the most important ceramic industry in northern Europe. The body of Delft is a fine buff clay. After the first firing, it is dipped in a white tin enamel to form the ground for the painted decoration. This is then dipped in a clear lead glaze containing tin oxide for the final firing.

1. By the end of the 17th century Delft was being made in England at Lambeth, Bristol, and Liverpool. Much of this English ware had subtle polychrome decoration of soft blue, green, and brick red, in contrast to the more common blue and white.
2. This sherd of Portuguese tin enamel has a blue decoration on a white background, and would date between 1630 and 1660.
3. Unidentified European earthenware. On the white background is a fine line design in deep blue.
4. A corner of a Delft tile made in Holland during the second quarter of the 18th century. The blue design is probably of a scriptural nature.
5. Rim of a maiolica Lisbonware plate, made in Portugal during the first half of the 17th century. This ware can readily be recognized by the thin purple outline of the leaves, flowers, etc. on a white background.
6. This maiolica plate was probably made in Spain in the first half of the 17th century. The simple graceful design is in soft blue on a white background.
7. A Delft jar in blue and white, made in Holland about 1760.

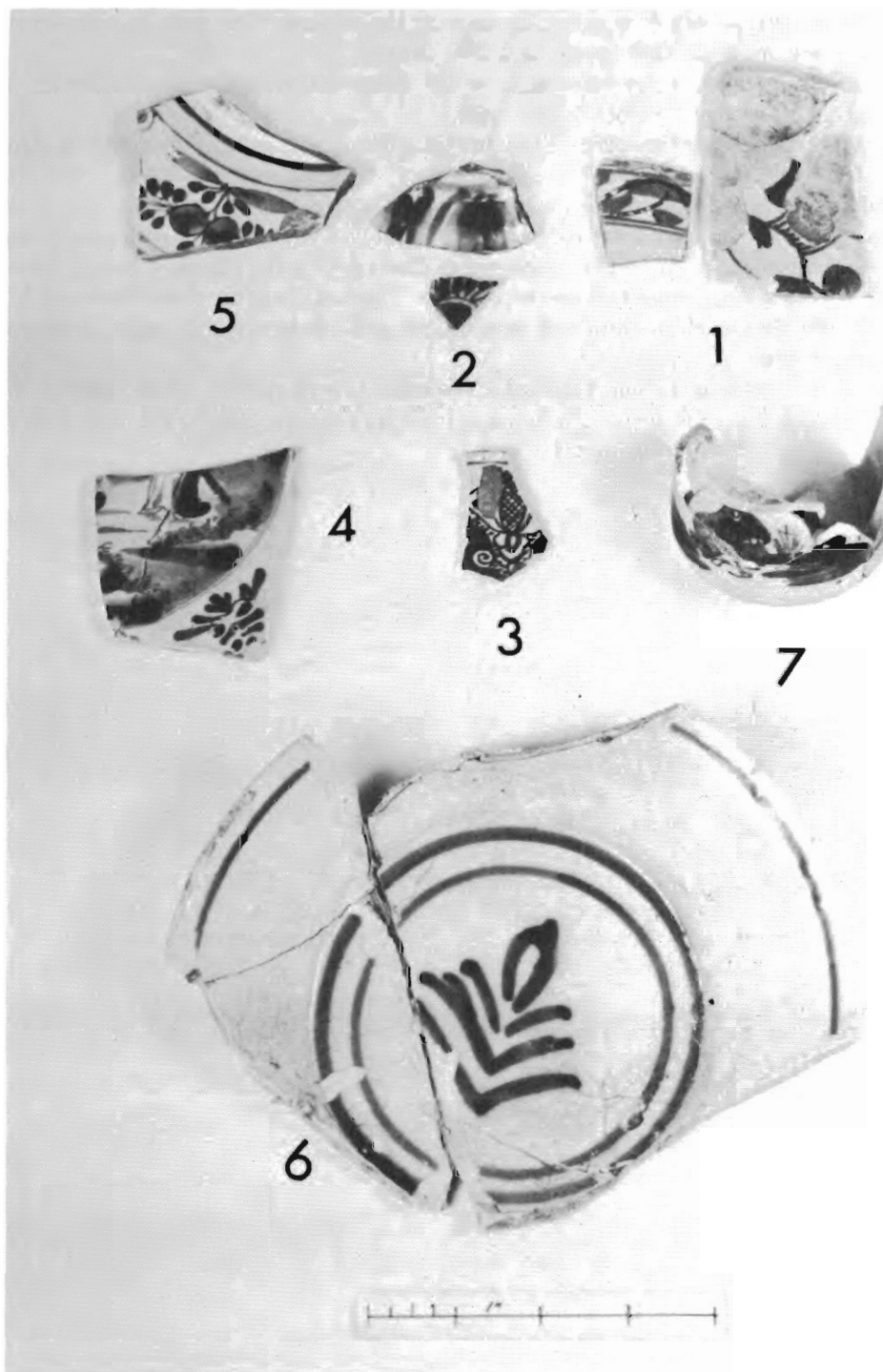


Figure 10

OTHER POTTERY TYPES (Fig. 11)

1. Buckley ware. The glaze, almost black in color, is only on the outside. The body is red with striations of light yellow. This ware was made in Wales in the mid 18th century.
2. English saltglaze. This is an undecorated ware made in the same manner as German saltglaze. However, it is more fragile, and a lighter, creamier color. 1720–1760.
3. Staffordshire type decorated buff earthenware. The background is soft yellow, and the designs are deep brown. Early to mid 18th century.
4. Portion of a jug of German saltglazed stoneware with an incised pattern. 17th century.
5. English scratch blue ware. The body is grey; the design is scratched in and filled with cobalt blue.
6. This sherd is part of a chamber pot of either European or English origin. The dark brown glaze is both inside and outside with a yellow slip decoration on the outside. The body is a deep brownish red.
7. North Devon ware from the Barnstaple or Bideford area of England. It is a heavy gravel tempered ware with a brownish glaze. 17th century.
8. Slip lined red earthenware from North Devon, England. The color is soft yellow. 1660–1690.
9. Rim of a Spanish oil or wine jar. These jars were made in Spain from the 16th to the 18th centuries. Their shape is based on the ancient classic Arab forms.

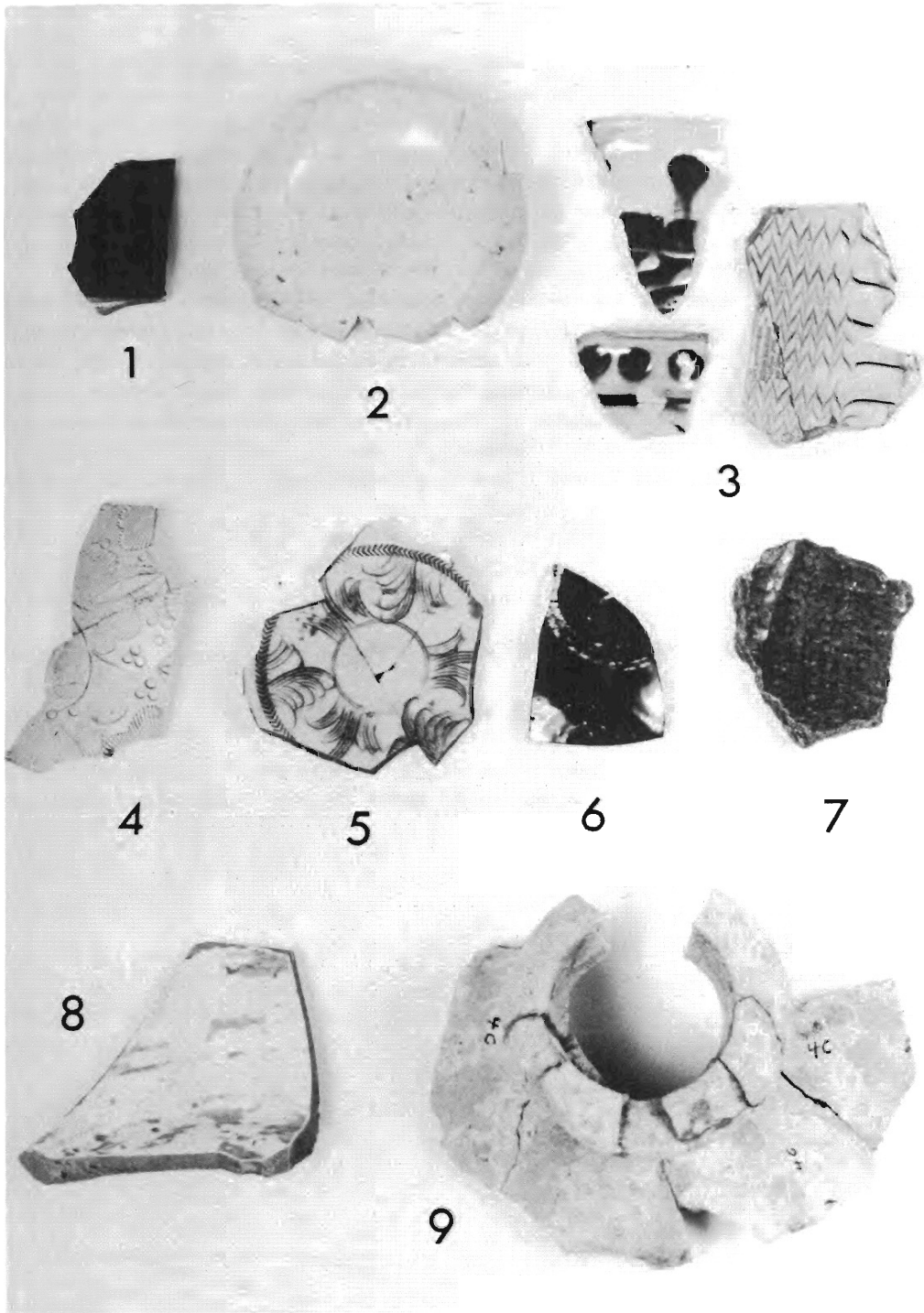


Figure 11

GLASSWARE (Fig. 12)

Glass has been made for at least 35 centuries. Potash lead glass--called flint or crystal--was first used in England for tableware.

Drinking or wine glasses were made in England in some quantity beginning in the last half of the 16th century. In 1615 an edict was issued forbidding the use of wood for fuel in glass furnaces, so from that time on the glassmakers were located near territories where coal was mined. In the early 17th century the importation of Venetian glass was banned, and this resulted in a greater quantity being manufactured in England.

The knops, or rounded protuberances were used not only for beauty, but also so that the glass could not slip through the fingers of the user. In the early 18th century, the foot of glasses was often folded over to give it extra resilience and to make it less susceptible to chipping. However, in the middle of this century the excise tax was based on weight; thus in time the folded foot was discarded to lessen the weight.

In the middle of the 17th century glass wine bottles appeared. The earliest bottles had long necks, with a collar or string rim about one half inch from the top. A copper wire was fastened around this and over the cork to keep it from coming out. The body of the early bottle was rather squat and round. The bottom was slightly pushed up to allow it to stand firmly. As time progressed the neck became shorter and the string rim was moved further up, while the body became more elongated and the pushed-up bottom was more pronounced.

1. A cylindrical knop of a heavy stem with a teardrop.
2. A trumpet stem of about 1720. The bowl of this wine glass followed the lines of the stem and flared out to a trumpet shape. Notice the tear drop at the top.
3. A wine glass with a short stem, and a flattened knop at the base. 1725--1750.
4. The classic inverted baluster with the large tear drop. Circa 1745.
5. A trumpet stem with the same shape as Item 2, except that it is not so bulky, showing the progress of the glassmaker. Circa 1750.
6. A prunt, which is a decorative piece applied to the glass. This one was probably the lower terminal of a handle.
7. Folded over foot of a wine glass and a sweetmeat glass of the 18th century.
8. Top of etched wine glass--about 1760.
9. Leaded panes or "quarrels" of window glass which could have been used during the lifetime of the Pemaquid colony. However, these were probably not used at Pemaquid until the middle of the 17th century.
10. Neck of wine bottle--circa 1660.
11. Neck of wine bottle, 1675--1685.
12. Neck of wine bottle--late 17th century.
13. Neck of wine bottle, about 1735.
14. Bottom of wine bottle, circa 1680.
15. Bottom of small medicinal bottle, early 18th century.
16. Bottom of wine bottle, circa 1770.

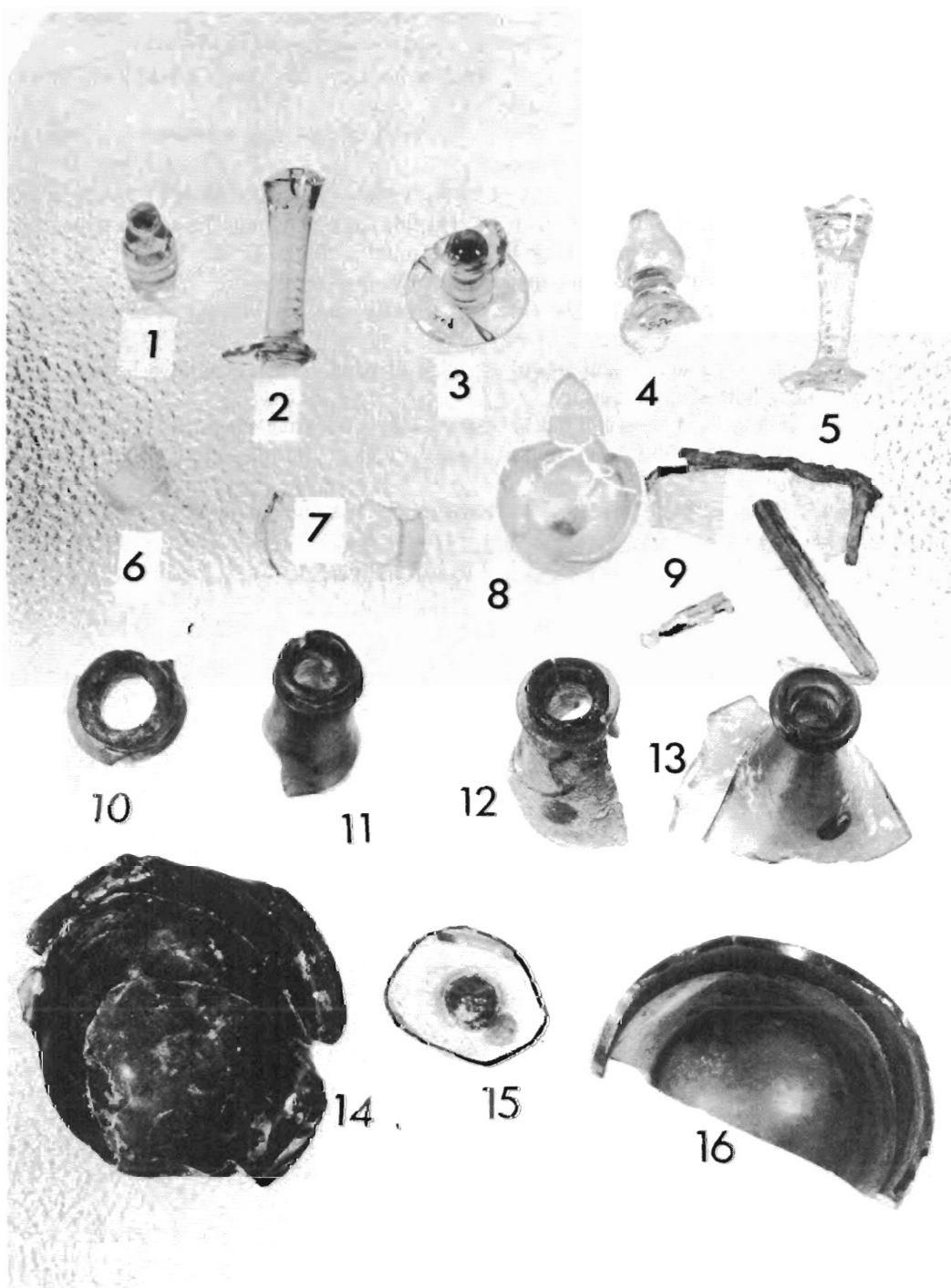


Figure 12

TABLEWARE (Fig. 13)

Some of the early colonists no doubt had wooden spoons and bowls for everyday use. However, they did have metal spoons. The earliest spoons we have found at Pemaquid were made of a latten metal, which is a brass base alloy. The handles of these spoons are straight with no curvature toward the bowl.

1. The end of this brass spoon has a draped figure for decoration. The bowl would also have been slightly oval, and the length about 6". Early 17th century.
2. End of a handle of a brass spoon with a seal head. The bowl of this spoon would have been slightly oval, and its overall length about 6". Early 17th century.
3. Trifid or split end spoon handle. This is made of latten metal. The bowl would have been more oval than either Item 1 or 2, and the length was about 7-3/4". On this type of spoon there is a triangular piece overlapping the bowl where it joins the stem to give it more strength. 1675-1710.
4. Same description as for Item 3 above, except that it bears the initials I.P.
5. Pewter spoon with oval bowl and rattail. The stem is perfectly straight with no bend toward the bowl. Last half of 18th century.
6. Small pewter bowl of long oval shape and rattail on back of bowl. This may have been a child's spoon, or a fragile teaspoon. Last half of 18th century.
7. Bowl of pewter spoon 2-1/2" x 1-5/8". This is oval in shape, and has the rattail reinforcement on the back.
8. Portion of iron tines of a fork. The tang at the opposite end of the fork had a bone or ivory handle. Late 17th or early 18th century.
9. Iron tines of a fork. This probably had a bone handle, and was about 6-1/2" long. Age uncertain, but probably late 17th/early 18th century.
10. Portion of knife blade with tang which was attached to a bone handle. Early 18th century.
11. Knife blade. 18th century.
12. 2 tined fork, with pistol grip bone handle. 1730 1770.

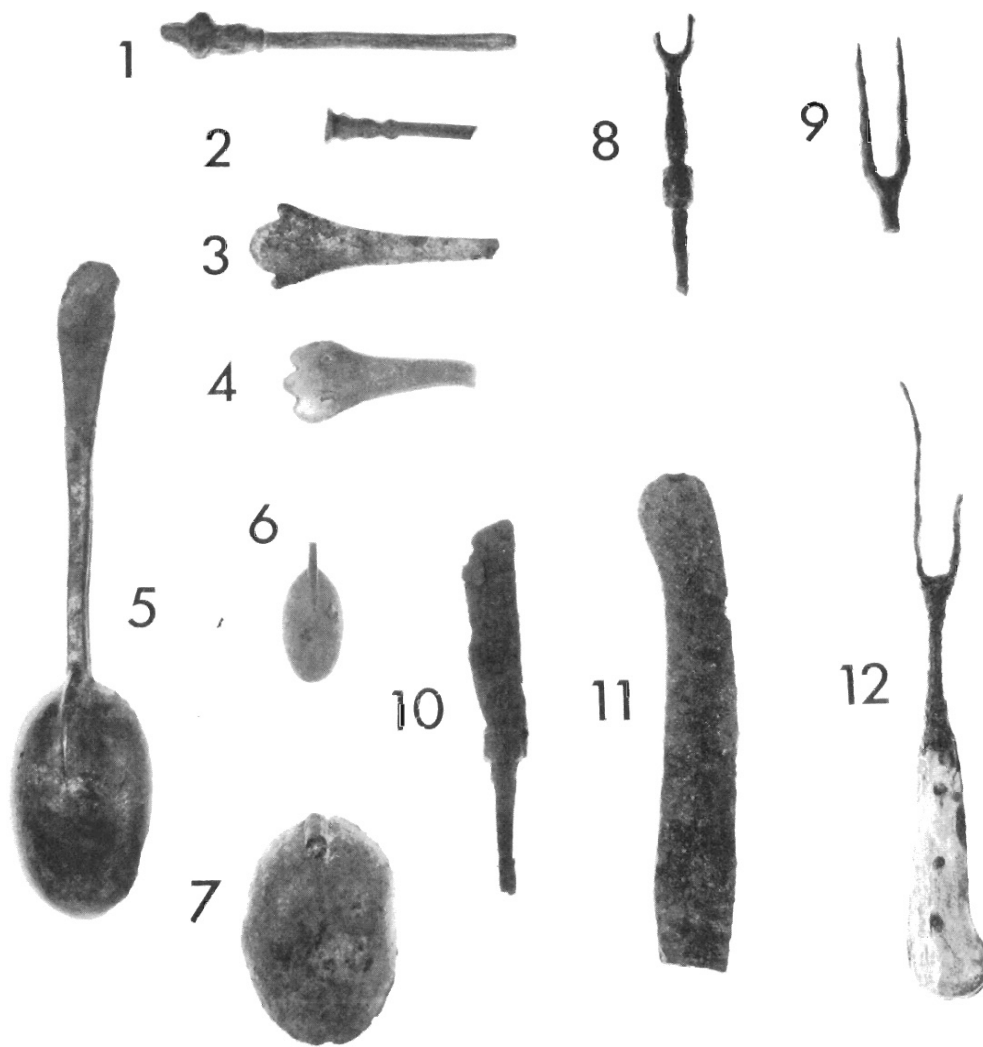


Figure 13

IRON COOKING KETTLES (Fig. 14)

Cooking in the 17th and 18th centuries was done in large and deep fireplaces. The iron pots were hung from kettle hooks attached to an arm fastened in the fireplace.

1. Kettle hook. This was permanently fastened in the fireplace. and served either to hold the pot hanger, or the pot itself.
2. Portion of iron cooking pot. 18th century.
3. Portion of iron cooking pot with handle. Late 17th century.
4. Two round iron kettle legs attached to a portion of the body of the pot. Late 17th century.
5. Pot hanger. This was used to suspend the kettle from the kettle hook.
6. Two five-sided legs of cooking pots or kettles. These pots with the five-sided legs were made at the first iron works in New England at Saugus, Massachusetts. Mid 17th century.

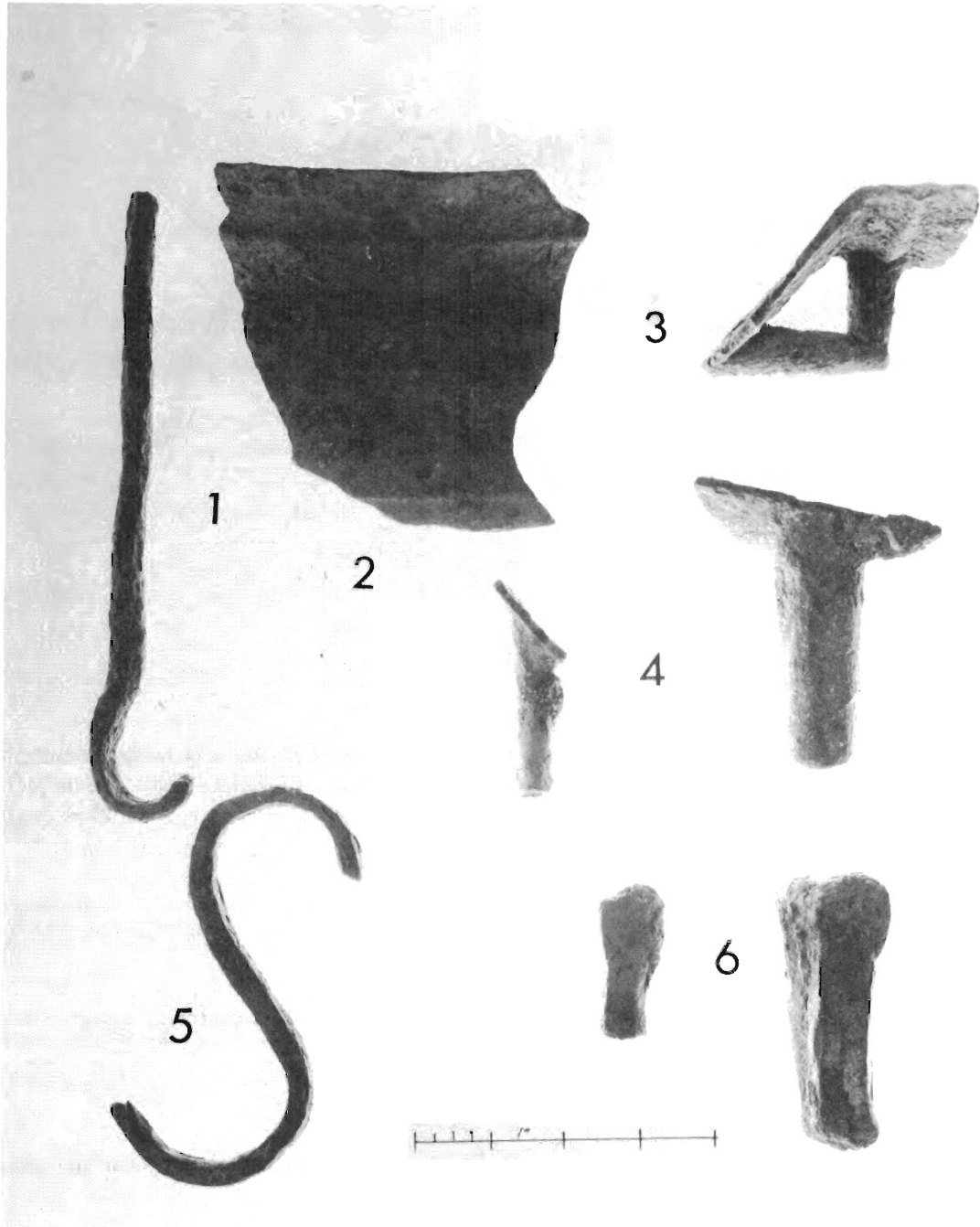
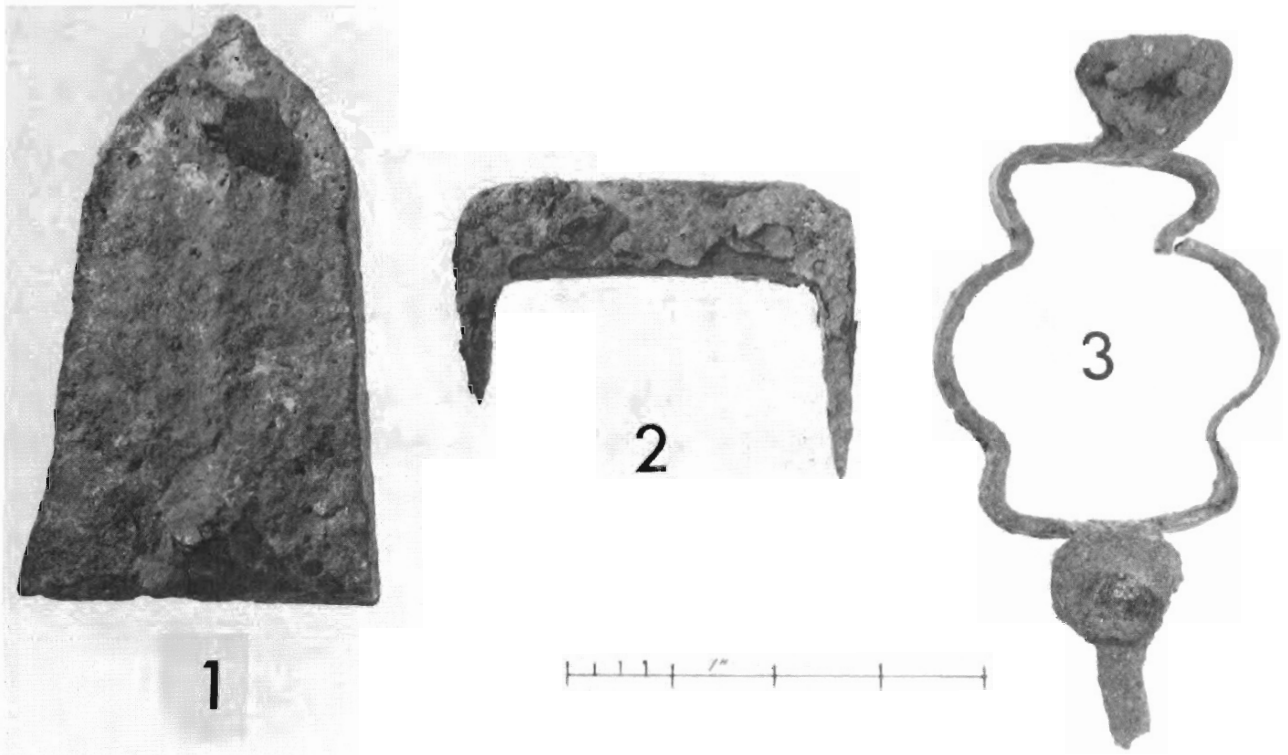


Figure 14

HOUSEHOLD ITEMS (For the woman's use) (Fig. 15)



1. A rather primitive sad iron. The handle is missing.
2. A foot scraper, such as is seen today. It was used to scrape the mud off the boot before entering the house.
3. Mud walker. A piece of wood was attached to this object by means of the three rivet-like projections. The contraption was then tied to the shoe with ribbons or straps, and served to keep the shoe out of the mud. 17th century.
4. Pewter buttons.
5. Plain brass buttons.
6. Brass buttons decorated with stylized flowers.
7. Bone button.
8. Silver plated shoe buckle with tongue and tines. 18th century.
9. Silver plated brass shoe buckle, ornamented with leaves and flowers. 17th century.
10. Portion of brass buckle. 17th century.
11. Small portion of a bone comb.
12. Brass thimble—18th century.
13. Brass thimbles—17th century.
14. Silver thimble with a decoration of two entwined hearts bearing the initials SH. On the outside of the hearts there are two cupids. 17th century.
15. Part of the bone frame of a fan. The covering was probably silk.
16. Decorative handle portion of brass scissors—probably French.
17. Drawer pull for a chest of drawers or a desk. Late 17th century.
18. Whizzers. The colonial children threaded a string through the two small holes near the center. This doubled string, extending on both sides of the whizzer, was then whirled to wind it up. Then by alternately stretching and releasing the string, the whizzer was made to rotate quite fast, producing a whizzing noise. These are made of lead. Today's children use a large button in the same way.

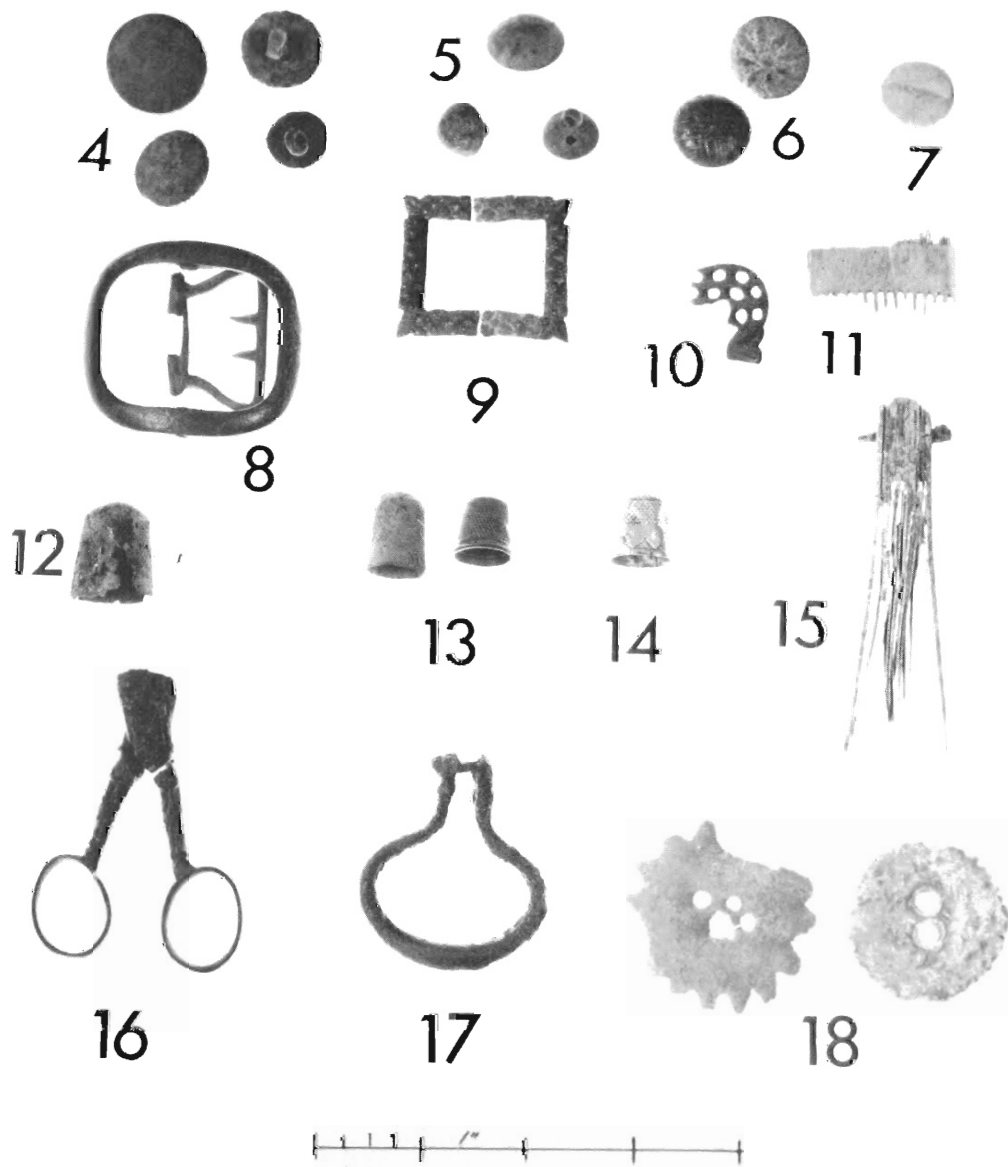


Figure 15

DOOR HARDWARE (Fig. 16)

Much of the door hardware found in the old foundations has been copied and these replicas are in use today. The strap and butterfly hinges are especially graceful.

1. Strap hinge with pintle. The wider end of the hinge curves over and rests on the pintle. The shank end of the pintle was fastened directly to the door frame. 18th century.
2. Strap hinge of the 17th century. This one still holds the nails which fastened it to the door; hence we know that the door was a fairly heavy one—about 1-1/2" thick.
3. This strap hinge was probably used on a cupboard. The holes are completely rusted in.
4. Half of a butterfly hinge from a cupboard. 18th century.
5. A folded over butterfly hinge. Portions of three nails still remain in the holes. This hinge came from a 17th century site.
6. A large door lock which could have been on the door from which the strap hinge under Item 2 came. Both of these were found in the same grid. 17th century.
7. Keys which came from the same site as the strap hinge and lock above. These were most likely used on outside doors.
8. Small key for a chest or cupboard. 18th century.
9. Bar and catch of a door latch.

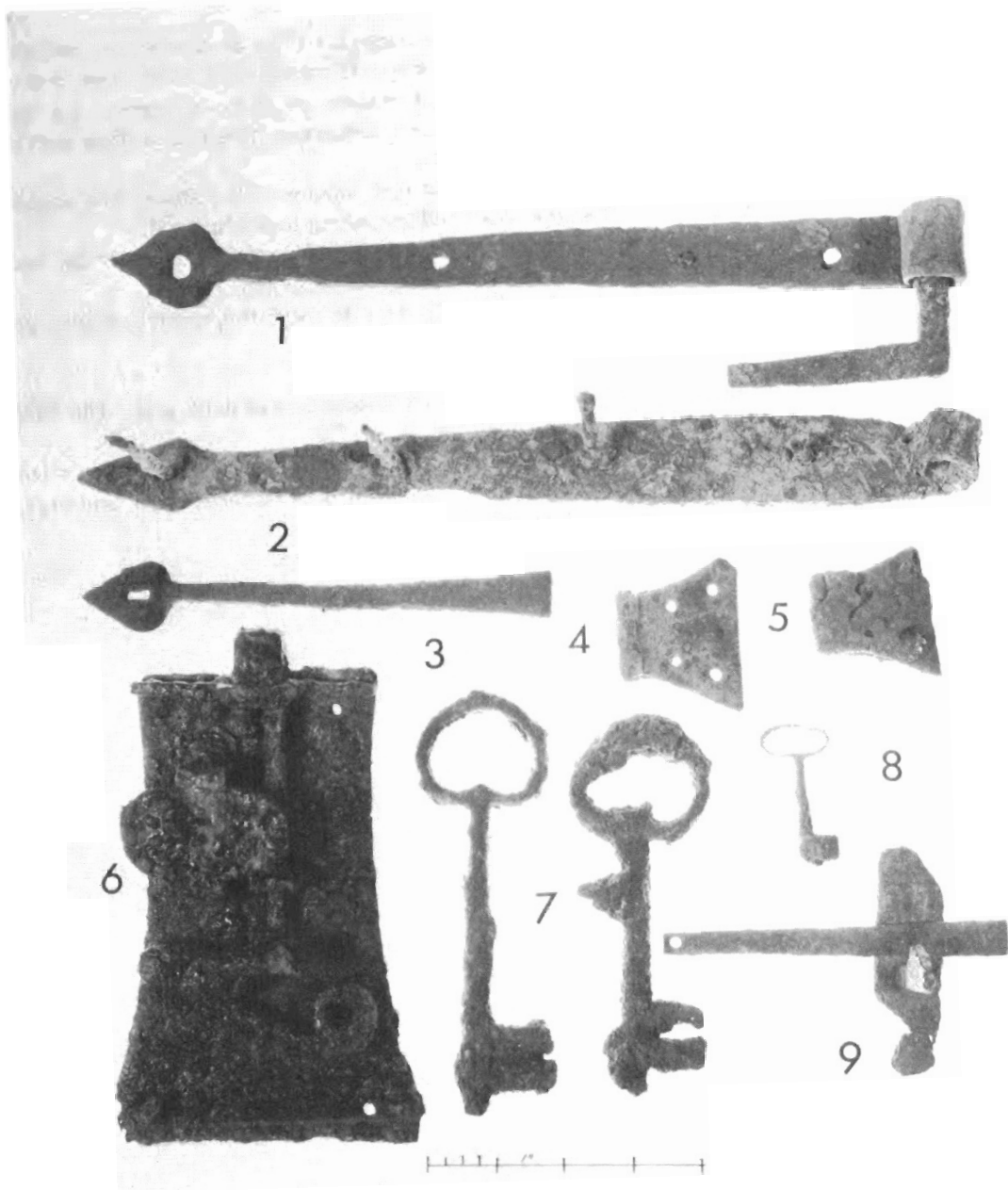
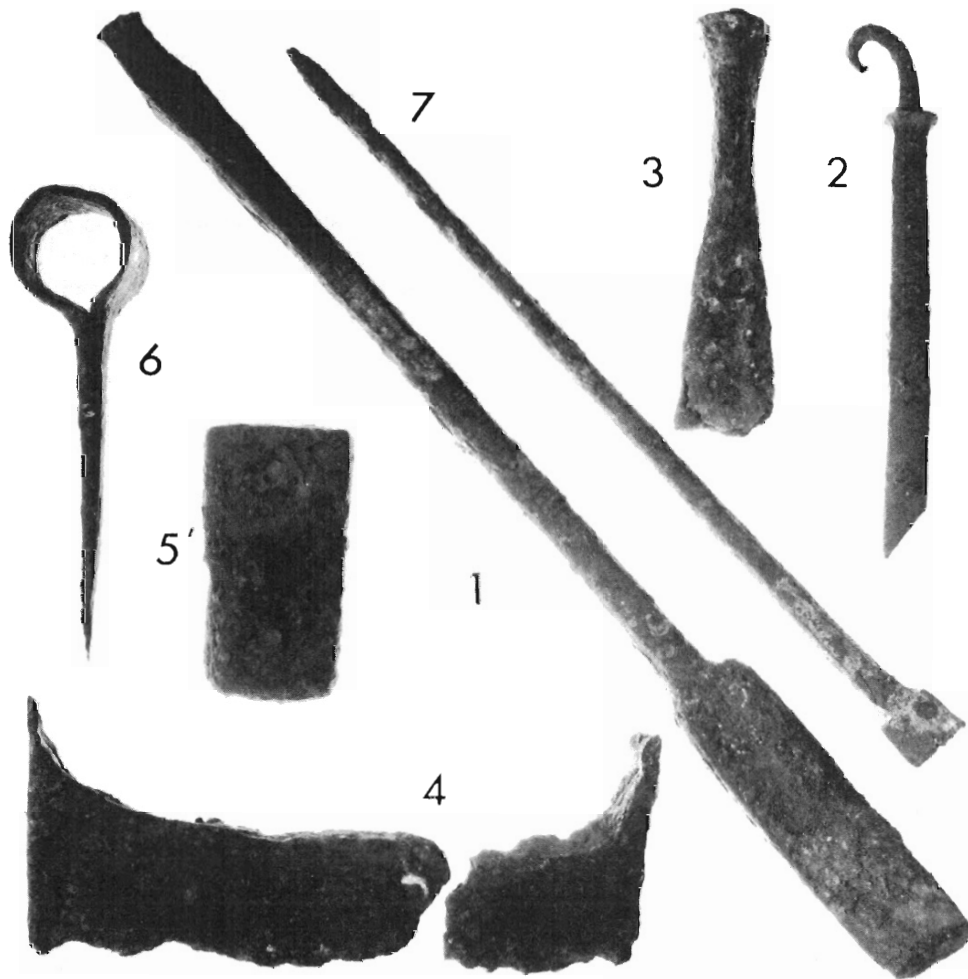


Figure 16

IRON TOOLS (Fig. 17)

Undoubtedly many tools were brought from the homeland by the first settlers, as these were an immediate necessity for tilling the soil, for home building, and for wood working. However, one of the first crafts established in the colonies was that of the smithy, and Pemaquid was not without its share of forges. The iron used by this craftsman may well have come from the first iron works in the colonies in Virginia, or from the first one in New England at Saugus, Massachusetts.

1. A nose auger. A wooden handle was attached to the tang end at right angles to the stem. The opposite end was the cutting edge, or "down cutting" bit. This tool was used for boring holes in wood.
2. A forming chisel for the finer woodwork. The tang end was originally straight and fit into a wooden handle.
3. A calking iron used in boat building for filling in the seams between the planking.
4. This is the working edge of a 17th century shovel. The metal covered the end of a wooden blade, giving it a sharp and durable edge.
5. A small iron wedge. Exact use not known.
6. This type of tang was used on a scythe. The pointed end fit into a wooden nib or hand grip. The short tubular part was then slipped over the long curved snath or handle of the scythe.
7. A branding iron. On the bottom of the large end, but not shown in the illustration, are the initials DA. Many bones of large animals have been found at Pemaquid, such as those of deer, moose, oxen, and pigs. When these were slaughtered the hides were probably branded and exported.



14

Figure 17

FIRE ARMS AND AMMUNITION (Fig. 18)

The Pemaquid colony was settled in the early 1600's and with the exception of a few interruptions continued for almost two centuries. In all, four forts were built at various times. Fort Pemaquid was burned by the Indians in 1676; Fort Charles was demolished during the Indian massacre of 1689; Fort William Henry was destroyed by the French and Indians in 1696; and Fort Frederick was razed in 1775 by the local inhabitants.

The following military artifacts which have been recovered attest to this story of the destruction and rebuilding of these forts.

1. Portion of left-over lead from a mold for very small shot.
2. Flints used in the flintlock. These came from either France or England. The better ones were translucent and smooth. A good flint could be used about sixty times, and they were generally issued to the troops in the ratio of one flint to each twenty rounds of ammunition.
3. Lead musket balls and shot of different sizes.
4. Lead musket ball showing teeth marks. When a man was wounded in battle and it became necessary to amputate an arm or a leg, he would be given a lead musket ball to clamp his teeth into to ease the pain.
5. Flint lock. This mechanism was probably invented by a gun maker to King Louis XIII of France in the very early 17th century. It replaced the match lock and the wheel lock, and became the gun most used in Europe and America for a period of two hundred years. The gunflint was wrapped in a sheet of lead or leather, and was held in a vice on the end of a pivoted arm or cock. The steel was opposite the cock, and like the cock was directly above the pan. When the trigger was pulled a mainspring swung the cock sharply forward and the flint struck the steel a glancing blow. A shower of sparks was produced which fell into the pan below. It is from this phenomenon that we get the expression "a flash in the pan" for anything of extremely short duration.
6. Hammer for a flintlock.
7. One end of an iron bar shot found with a cache of 108 cannon balls. A chain connected this end with another like portion. When this was fired from a cannon at sailing vessels, the twirling chain with the weights at each end would destroy the rigging.
8. A nine pound cannon ball.
9. A three pound cannon ball.
10. A one pound cannon ball.

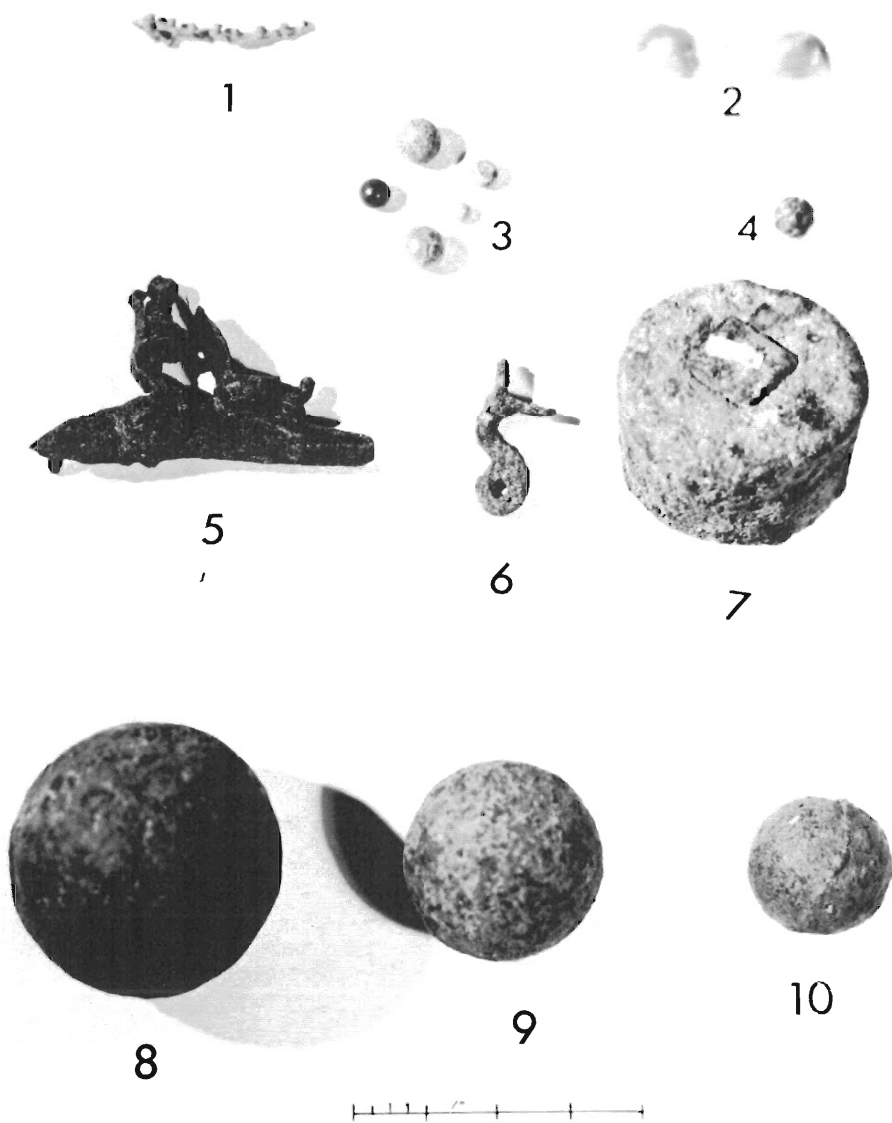
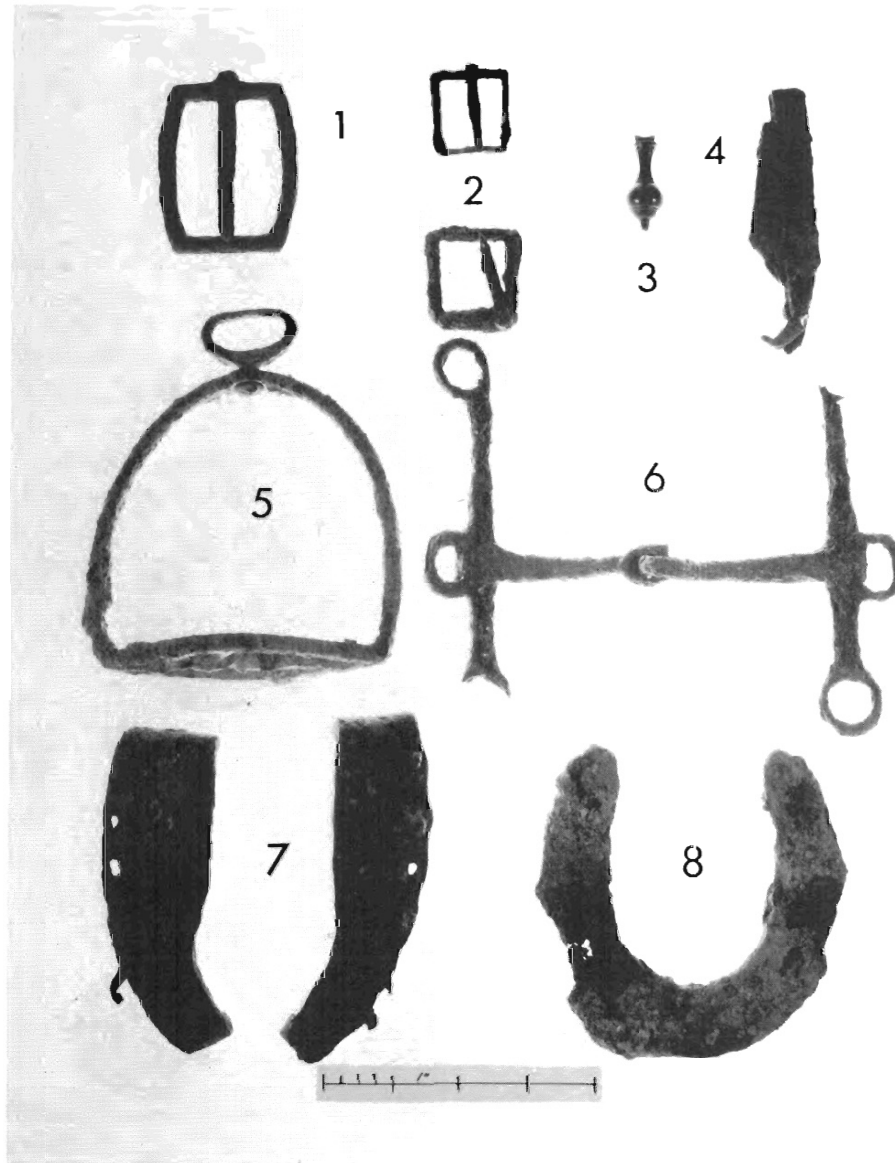


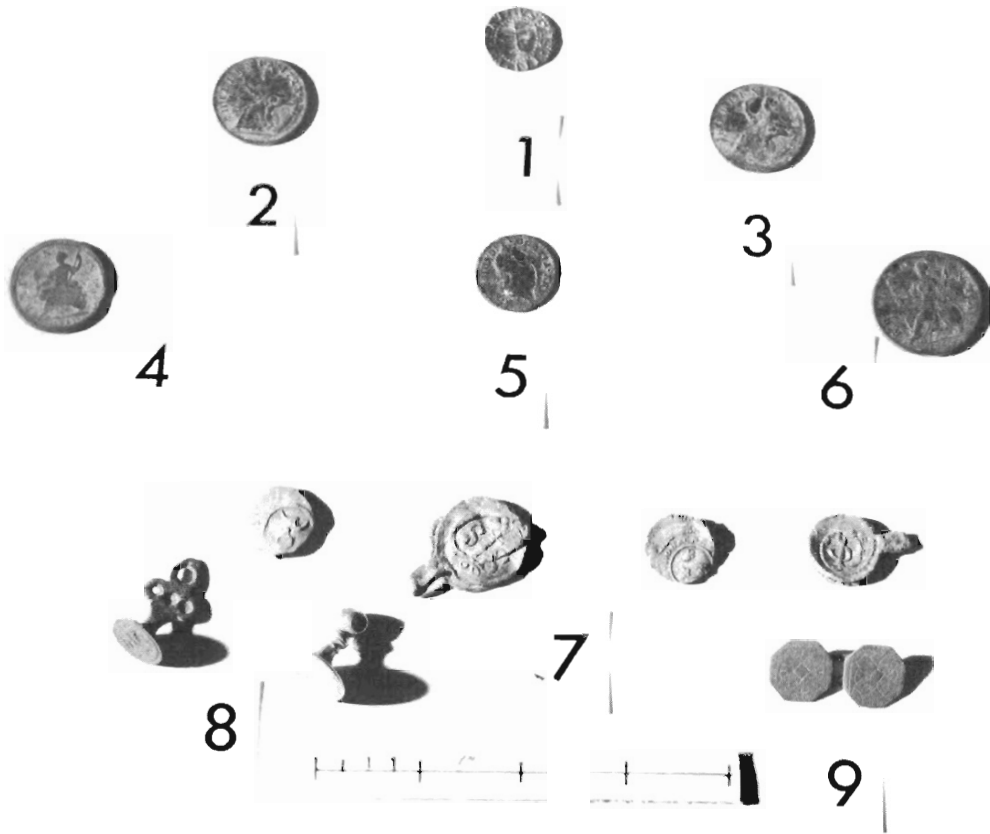
Figure 18

HORSE AND OXEN ARTIFACTS (Fig. 19)



1. Harness buckle. Late 17th century.
2. Harness buckle.
3. Harness ornament. 18th century.
4. An instrument for paring hooves and prying out small stones from horse or oxen shoes. It opened up like a jack knife.
5. Stirrup. This has a swivel at the top where it was attached to a leather strap. Probably late 17th century.
6. Horse bit. 17th or 18th century.
7. Ox shoes. Oxen have cloven hooves; thus the shoe had to be in two parts. These shoes are about 1/4" thick and still carry the nails that attached them to the hoof.
8. Horse shoe. The horse shoes found so far at Pemaquid have been quite small, indicating a rather slight horse.

COINS, BALE SEALS, WAX SEALS & CUFF LINKS (Fig. 20)



1. A Massachusetts Silver Pine Tree Sixpence dated 1652. Around the perimeter we read MASATHUSETS, and in the center we find a pine tree. If we could see the other side, we should read around the edge NEW ENGLAND ANO, and in the center would be the date 1652 with the Roman numeral VI.
When Charles II came into power in 1660, he forbade Massachusetts to issue any more coins. But these clever New Englanders found out that if they dated their coins prior to Charles' accession to the throne, they could not easily be proved to be unauthorized. So they issued these coins for thirty years, from 1652 to 1682; but they all bear the date 1652.
2. Hibernian Halfpenny. William Wood obtained a patent from the Crown to issue coins for Ireland. These coins bear the dates 1722, 1723, and 1724. They were never popular in Ireland, and most of them were sent to the colonies. On these we see the head of George I. Around the perimeter we read GEORGIUS DEI GRATIA REX (King George by the grace of God).
3. The reverse of the Hibernian Halfpenny has around the outside HIBERNIA (meaning Ireland) and the date—in this instance 1723. In the center is a female figure with a harp at the right side of the coin.
4. Halfpenny of George I. Around the perimeter we read BRITANNIA.
5. 1723 Hibernia farthing.
6. 1753 English halfpenny of George II.
7. Lead bale seals. These bear manufacturer's imprints, and were often used for sealing bales of woolen cloth to attest that the contents were of a specified quantity and quality.
8. Metal seals used to imprint wax used for sealing official documents. The one on the left with the initials GM is brass. On the right we find a silver seal with the initials DH. These are 17th century.
9. Brass sleeve or cuff link. Circa 1750.

MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS (Fig. 21)

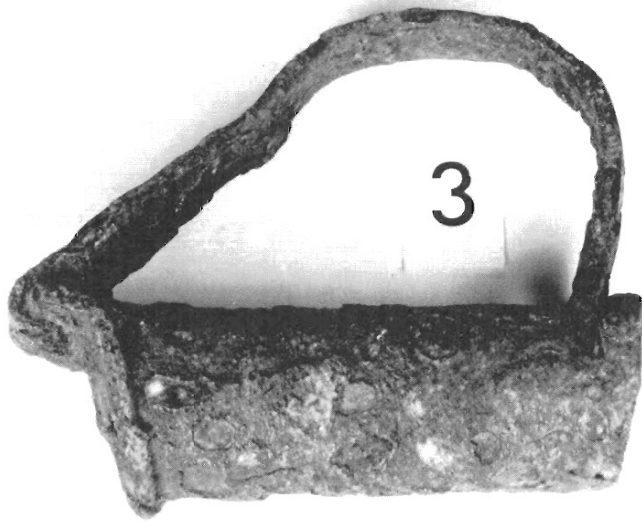
1. These men's wig curlers were made from the same type of clay as the white tobacco pipes. Wigs have been worn since the time of early Egypt by both men and women. The periwig came into England in the 16th century. These wigs simulated real hair. It is reported that Queen Elizabeth had eighty of these ornaments of fake hair. Under Charles II of England, the wearing of the peruke became general. During Queen Anne's time, the wig attained its maximum development, covering the back and shoulders and flowing over the chest. As the peruke became more common, the shape and form altered. Different types of wigs were worn according to a man's class and profession. The fashion of wearing wigs began to wane early in the reign of George III, or about 1760. The men's wig curlers found at Pemaquid most likely date from the first half of the 18th century.
2. An effigy made from the tusk of an African elephant, probably from the Congo. This was most likely brought over by a captain of a slave boat as a memento of one of his voyages.
3. Ankle iron. The rounded part of this contraption is hinged. It was opened up, clamped around the prisoner's ankle, closed again, and attached to a chain. The ankle iron in the illustration has been bent; originally it was rounded and was opened by a key at one side. Late 17th century.



1



2



3



Figure 21

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INDEX

- Abnakis, 4
 aerial views, 2
 Algonquin, 4
 amputate, 36
 animal bones, 34
 ankle iron, 40
 Anne, Queen, 40
 auger, nose, 34
 awl, bone, 4
 axe, German trade, 6
 bale, seal, 39
 baluster, inverted, 24
 Barnstaple, 22
 bar shot, 36
 Bellarmine jug, 16
 Bideford, 22
 bit, horse, 38
 bone awl, 4
 bones, animal, 34
 bottle, glass wine, 16, 24
 bottle, medicinal, 24
 branding iron, 34
 Bristol, England, 20
 Bristol, Town of, 3
 Brown, John, 3, 4
 buckle, harness, 38
 buckle, shoe, 30
 Buckley ware, 22
 buttons, pewter, brass, bone, 30
 calking iron, 34
 cannon balls, 36
 Cape Cod, 3
 Cardinal Roberto Bellarmino, 16
 Cartland, John Henry, 1
 Castine, 3, 4, 8
 chamber pot, 18, 22
 Charles II, 39, 40
 chevron bread, 6
 chisel, 34
 cobalt, 18, 22
 cock, gun, 36
 comb, 30
 compasses, 12
 Congo, 40
 cuff links, 39
 Delft, 20
 d'Iberville, 3, 4, 8
 dividers, 12
 door hardware, 32
 door latch, 32
 door lock, 32
 drawer pull, 30
 Dunbar, David, 3
 effigy, 40
 Elizabeth I, 40
 England, 20, 24
 English, 3, 4
 Etechemines, 4
 fan, 30
 farthing, Hibernian, 39
 fish hook, 12
 fishing, 12
 fish spear, 12
 flintlock, 36
 flints, 36
 foot, folded over, 24
 foot scraper, 30
 fork, 26
 Fort Charles, 3, 8, 36
 Fort Frederick, 3, 8, 36
 Fort Pemaquid, 3, 36
 Fort William Henry, 1, 3, 4, 8, 36
 France, 20, 36
 French, 3, 4
 gaff, 12
 George I, 18, 39
 George II, 18, 39
 George III, 40
 Georgius Rex, 18
 German brown stoneware, 16
 German saltglaze stoneware, 18
 glass, 24
 glass, wine, 24
 glass, wine bottle, 16, 24
 glass, Venetian, 24
 glazes,
 manganese, 14, 18
 lead, 14, 20
 great plague, 4
 halfpenny, 39
 hammer, flintlock, 36
 hanger, pot, 28
 hardware, door, 32
 harness buckle, 38
 harness ornament, 38
 Harrington, J. C., 8
 Hibernian farthing, 39
 Hibernian halfpenny, 39
 hinge, strap and butterfly, 32
 History of Ancient Pemaquid, 3
 Holland, 20
 hook, kettle, 28
 horse bit, 38
 horse shoe, 38
 Indians, 3, 4, 6, 8
 Indian houses, 4
 Indian, land purchase from, 3
 Indian, Red Paint Complex, 1
 Indian trade goods, 6
 Indian wars, 4
 Ireland, 39
 iron, branding, 34
 iron, calking, 34
 iron kettle legs, 28
 iron oxide, 16
 iron pots, 28
 iron, sad, 30
 Italy, 20
 ivory, 26
 Jamestown, Va., 3
 Jews harps, 6
 Johnston, Prof. John, 1
 Kennebec River, 3
 kettle, 28
 kettle hook, 28
 kettle legs, 28
 key, 32
 knife, 26
 knives, Indian, 4
 knops, 24
 Lambeth, 20
 latch, door, 32
 latten metal, 26
 lead mold, 36
 leaded panes, 24
 legs, iron kettle, 28
 Lisbon ware, 20
 Liverpool, 20
 lock, door, 32
 Louis XIII, 36
 maker's marks, 11
 Manhattan Island, 3
 Massachusetts, 39
 match lock, 36

INDEX (Continued)

- medallion, 16
 medicinal bottle, 24
 metal seals, 39
 military artifacts, 36
 milk pan, 14
 Minuet, Peter, 3
 Monhegan Island, 1
 Moorehead, Prof. Warren K., 1
 mud walker, 30
 mugs, 14, 18, 22
 Muscongus Bay, 3
 musket balls, 36
 North Devon, England, 22
 oil jar, Spanish, 22
 ornament, harness, 38
 ox shoe, 38
 paring hooves, 38
 Pemaquid, 1
 Pemaquid Historical Society, 1
 Pemaquid Point, 3
 periwig, 40
 peruke, 40
 pestle, 4
 pewter spoon, 26
 Pilgrims, 3
 Pine Tree Sixpence, 39
 pintle, 32
 pipes, clay, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11
 pistol grip handle, 26
 plates, 14, 22
 platters, 14
 plummet, 4
 Plymouth, 3
 point, projectile, 4
 point, spear, 4
 poison, lead, 14
 Popham Beach, 3
 Popham, George, 3
 Portugal, 20
 pot hanger, 28
 pots, iron, 28
 pottery, Indian, 4
 pottery, redware, 14
 prunt, 24
 pudding pan, 14
 rattail, 26
 redware pottery, 14
 Revolution, War of the, 3
 Rhenish ware, 22
 Rhineland, 16, 18, 22
 St. Croix River, 3
 salt glaze, 16, 18, 22
 Samoset, 3, 4
 Saugus, 28, 34
 scissors, 6, 30
 scrapers, thumbnail, 4
 scratch blue ware, 22
 seal head, 26
 shoe buckle, 30
 shovel, 34
 sinker, 12
 sixpence, Pine Tree, 39
 sleeve links, 39
 Smith, Capt. John, 3
 smithy, 34
 Spain, 20, 22
 Spanish oil jar, 22
 spear, fish, 12
 spear points, 4
 spoon, 26
 spoon, pewter, 26
 Staffordshire slip, 22
 star bead, 6
 stem, trumpet, 24
 stew pots, 14
 stirrup, 38
 stoneware, German brown, 16
 storage jar, 14
 string rim, 24
 tableware, 26
 tang, 26, 34
 teardrop, 24
 thimble, 30
 tin enamel ware, 20
 tin oxide, 20
 tools, 34
 trade beads, 6
 trifid handle, 26
 trumpet stem, 24
 VanBuskirk, Gordon, 1
 Venetian glass, 24
 Virginia, 34
 Wales, 22
 Weymouth, George, 3
 wedge, 34
 wheel lock, 36
 white clay pipes, 8, 9, 10, 11¹
 whizzer, 30
 wig curlers, 40
 wine bottle, 16, 24
 wine glass, 24
 Wood, William, 39