THE NEW SWEDEN COLONY
Map of the New Sweden colony in the Delaware Valley drawn by Per Lindestrom, ca. 1655
Courtesy of the Riksarkivet, Stockholm
THE NEW SWEDEN COLONY

February 6-May 15, 1988

NEW JERSEY STATE MUSEUM TRENTON, NEW JERSEY 1988
NEW JERSEY DEPARTMENT OF STATE
Partially funded by the New Sweden Commemorative Commission of New Jersey, the government of Sweden, the Swedish National Committee for New Sweden '88, the New Jersey Committee for the Humanities and the Pennsylvania Humanities Council with cosponsorship from the Pennsylvania State Museum and the New Jersey Historical Commission.

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Cover: Detail of New Sweden colonists trading with the Indians from Thomas Campanius Holm Description of New Sweden, 1702, published in Stockholm.
FOREWORD

Leah P. Sloshberg
Director

The New Jersey State Museum is pleased to participate in the commemorative celebration of the 350th anniversary of the founding of the New Sweden Colony in the Delaware Valley. The presentation of this exhibition documents and visualizes this brief but very influential part of our regional and state history; brief, in that the actual life of the colony was only seventeen years, but influential in its many cultural contributions such as place names, music and religious traditions, architectural influences, and foodways that are still strong and vibrant.

In the development of the exhibition, the Museum staff has had the pleasure of working with the New Jersey Swedish community, with a national academic community having special interest in Swedish American cultural history, and with cultural, academic, and governmental organizations in Sweden. We appreciate the assistance and guidance of these legions. We are especially grateful to our funders: The New Sweden Commemorative Commission of New Jersey, the government of Sweden, the Swedish National Committee for New Sweden '88, the New Jersey Committee for the Humanities and the Pennsylvania Humanities Council. Without their financial support and the loans from the many institutions who have entrusted us with their treasures, this exhibition would not have been possible. Our appreciation and gratitude to all of you.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Lorraine E. Williams  
Curator of Archaeology/Ethnology

The record of the New Sweden Colony presented in this exhibition is the outcome of three years of cooperation among scholars on both sides of the Atlantic Ocean. We have benefited from the generous sharing of expertise by the staff of our cosponsors and lending museums. Barry Kent and Stephen Warfel of the State Museum of Pennsylvania shared their detailed knowledge of the Susquehannock Indians. Richard Waldron of the New Jersey Historical Commission researched the history of the colony both in Sweden and in the Delaware Valley and helped locate documents and objects.

The exhibition would not have been possible without the unstinting cooperation of Swedish museums. The support of director Sune Zachrisson and curators Elizabeth Hidemark, Ingrid Bergman and Jonas Berg at the Nordiska Museet in Stockholm enabled us to present a comprehensive visual record of the New Sweden Colony which would otherwise have been impossible. Elizabeth Hidemark provided untiring support and contributed throughout the exhibition’s development.

Special appreciation is owed to Bo Karlson of the Jonkoping Lans Museum for his research on Johan Printz and the loan of associated objects and graphic material.

We are extremely grateful to Arne Losman, director of Skoklosters Slott, Balsta, and Ulla Wagner, director, and Staffan Brunius, Curator of the Americas, at the Etnografiska Museet, Stockholm, for their generosity in loaning us Middle Atlantic Indian objects from their collections. These fragile objects, fashioned from organic materials, provide us with a rare opportunity to see 17th-century artifacts that have not survived in North America.

We would like to express our appreciation for the assistance of Jon Lindroth of the Riksarkivet, Pontus Grate of the Nationalmuseum and Bjore Westlund of the Kungliga Biblioteket in Stockholm.

On this side of the Atlantic we are grateful for the assistance of Paul Needham and David Wright of the J. Pierpont Morgan Library; Caterina Cherny and Zoriana Siokalo of the American Swedish Historical Museum; Roger Allen of the Philadelphia Maritime Museum; Donald Winer of the State Museum of Pennsylvania; Stephen Ferguson of Firestone Library, Princeton University; and Ruth Simmons of Special Collections and Archives, Rutgers University Libraries. William Sturtevant, Richard Hulan, Peter Wacker, Charles Gehring, and Marshall Becker shared
the results of their many years of work on Indians and Europeans of the middle Atlantic area. Thorsten Karlsson, president of the Scandinavian American Heritage Society of New Jersey and the New Sweden Company, Inc., John Jacobson, assistant to the Secretary of State, and Beth Linnerson-Daly, program director of the New Sweden Commemorative Commission of New Jersey, helped throughout our work.

Such a complex project would have been impossible without the continuing support of Secretary of State Jane Burgio, Assistant Secretary of State Alvin Felzenberg, and State Museum Director Leah Sloshberg. Magnus Faxen, Consul General of Sweden has also provided unwavering support. Lars Georgson of the Swedish Consulate in New York, and Gunnel Myhrberg of the Swedish Information Service Office in New York have assisted in countless ways. First Ulf Lundin and then Beate Sydhoff as Cultural Counselor for the Embassy of Sweden supported the project in Sweden and here in the States. In Sweden, Anders Clasom and Birgitta Lonnell of the Swedish Institute have provided vital coordination between two continents.

The staff of the New Jersey State Museum responded admirably to the challenges of an international exhibition. The Archaeology Bureau staff, Karen Flinn, Gina Giambrone, Fran Mollett, and Marcia Sternberg coped wonderfully with the extra work entailed with international shipments, catalogue entries from two continents for text and label copy in the exhibition and catalogue, and development of educational programming for school classes. Karen Cummins, Suzanne Crilley and Susan Finkel developed adult educational programming to enhance visitors’ enjoyment of the exhibition. The staff of the Exhibits Bureau worked creatively and tirelessly to install the exhibition according to the creative design prepared by John Crank Associates.

Finally, it is appropriate that the New Sweden Colony exhibition be a joint Swedish and American contribution to the celebration of the 350th anniversary of the beginning of New Sweden in the Delaware Valley. The Swedish National Committee for New Sweden '88 and the New Sweden Commemorative Commission of New Jersey have provided funding to make the exhibition a reality. Grants from the New Jersey Committee for the Humanities and the Pennsylvania Humanities Council have supported research for the exhibition.
INTRODUCTION

The 17th century was an age of discovery and expansion—in the arts, science, industry, and global exploration. European countries tried to spread their commercial and political influence throughout the world. Inspired by the riches that Spain and Portugal gained through their overseas colonies, Sweden, England and the Netherlands competed for control of the middle Atlantic seaboard of North America throughout the first half of the century.

While we generally think of the English and the Dutch as 17th-century colonial powers, we do not associate Sweden with early European colonialism. Yet from 1620 to 1720, Sweden was a European Great Power. Her continental possessions made of the Baltic Sea a Swedish lake. Finland was then a part of Sweden. At various times, so were portions of modern Poland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Germany, and the Soviet Union. By mid-century, the Swedes controlled trade in the Baltic and were one of the major military and political combatants in Germany during the Thirty Years’ War (1618-1648).

But Sweden lacked the money and manpower to maintain her military and economic position in Europe, especially since she was at war throughout most of the 17th century. By the 1630s the English and the Dutch were beginning to realize profits from their colonial and commerical ventures, and such examples probably led the Swedes to found New Sweden.

In 1637, Swedish, Dutch and German stockholders formed the New Sweden Company to trade for furs and tobacco in North America. Under the command of Peter Minuit, the company’s first expedition sailed from Sweden late in 1637 in two ships, Kalmar Nyckel and Fogel Grip. Minuit had been the governor of the Dutch colony, New Netherland, centered on Manhattan Island, from 1626 to 1631. The ships reached Delaware Bay in March 1638, and the settlers began to build a fort at the site of modern Wilmington, Delaware. They named it Fort Christia, after Sweden’s twelve-year-old queen. It was the first permanent European settlement in the Delaware Valley.

In time, the colony consisted of farms and small settlements scattered along both banks of the Delaware River into modern Delaware, New Jersey and Pennslyvania. In the next seventeen years, eleven Swedish expeditions followed the first one, each bringing supplies and small numbers of Swedish and Finnish settlers.
New Sweden rose to its greatest heights during the governorship of Johan Printz (1643-1653). He extended settlement northward from Fort Christina along both sides of the Delaware River and improved the colony's military and commercial prospects by building Fort Elfsborg, near modern Salem on the New Jersey side of the river, to seal the Delaware against English and Dutch ships. Yet Printz managed to strengthen his colony while living peacefully with his neighbors.

The Dutch had made the first trading contacts in the Delaware Valley and the Swedish settlement was a commercial and possibly a military threat to New Netherland. Perhaps the Dutch tolerated the Swedes because New Netherland's relations with its Indian neighbors often degenerated into open warfare. Another reason may have been that the generally cordial relations among England, the Netherlands and Sweden in Europe extended to their colonies in the New World.

In 1654 Printz was succeeded by a somewhat less judicious governor, Johan Rising. New Netherland was then governed by the energetic Peter Stuyvesant. Soon after arriving in the New World, Rising attempted to dislodge the Dutch from the valley by seizing Fort Casimir (New Castle, Delaware), below Fort Christina on the western shore of the river. Stuyvesant responded by attacking New Sweden late in the summer of 1655. The virtually bloodless Dutch conquest ended Swedish sovereignty—though not the Swedish and Finnish presence—in the Delaware Valley.

While Swedes and Finns continued to settle in New Jersey, Delaware and Pennsylvania, they did not begin to arrive in the United States in large numbers until after 1840.

Swedish immigration was highest between 1867 and 1914 due to poor local economic conditions in Sweden and the availability of cheap land in the American west. At the peak of immigration in the 1880s, an average of 37,000 Swedes came to the United States each year. Most of the new settlers bypassed New Sweden and headed west to Minnesota, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Texas, California, and Washington, which remain the states with the largest numbers of Swedish-Americans today.
LENDERS TO THE EXHIBITION

American Swedish Historical Foundation-Museum
Mr. Bo Erhner
Ethnografiska Museet
Rare Book Collections,  
Firestone Library, Princeton University
Higgins Armory Museum
Jonkoping Lans Museum
Memory of Linnea Zackariasson
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Nordiska Museet
Philadelphia Maritime Museum
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Riksarkivet
Special Collections and  
Archives, Rutgers University Libraries
Skoklosters Slott
State Museum of Pennsylvania
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1607-20</td>
<td>The English begin to settle Virginia and New England.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609-24</td>
<td>The Dutch begin to explore and settle New Netherland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1618-48</td>
<td>The Thirty Years' War. At various times both Sweden and the Netherlands are combatants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1621</td>
<td>The Dutch West India Company is founded, in large part to colonize and exploit New Netherland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1620s-30s</td>
<td>The English and the Dutch explore the Delaware River and its bay. While each claims the region, neither plants a permanent settlement, though the Dutch attempt to.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1624</td>
<td>William Usselinx visits Sweden and discusses the idea of a colonial venture with Swedish officials, including King Gustavus Adolphus (Gustav II Adolf). Usselinx receives a charter for a general Swedish trading company &quot;for Asia, Africa, America, and Magellenica.&quot; The king purchases shares in the company and lends his name to a campaign to raise money for it among the Swedish nobility. But the Swedish trading company languishes throughout the 1620s for lack of capital and because the king and his chief minister, Axel Oxenstierna, are distracted by European matters, especially the Thirty Years' War, which Sweden enters in 1630.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1624</td>
<td>The Dutch settle a handful of people on Burlington Island in the Delaware. By 1630 the settlers have moved back to New Amsterdam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1626</td>
<td>The Dutch establish a trading post, Fort Nassau, at the site of present Gloucester, New Jersey, but they garrison it only intermittently.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1631</td>
<td>The Dutch found Swanendael on the western shore of Delaware Bay. It is destroyed by Indians in the same year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1632</td>
<td>Gustavus Adolphus is killed during the battle of Leutzen. He is succeeded as Swedish monarch by his six-year-old daughter Christina. Sweden is governed by a regency during the queen's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
minority, with Oxenstierna the effective head of state. He is instrumental in reviving the idea of a colonial venture.

1635

Samuel Blommaert, like Usselinx an original stockholder of the Dutch West India Company and a Swanendael investor, proposes a colonial scheme to the Swedes. It is Blommaert's plan—essentially—which is adopted two years later.

1635-36

Blommaert selects Peter Minuit to lead a settlement to the Delaware Valley, once a colony is chartered. Minuit had been the governor of New Netherland in the late 1620s and the early 1630s and is familiar with the Delaware Valley.

1637

In August, the Swedish government charters the New Sweden Company. Many of the stockholders are Dutch or German, but they also include such Swedish grandees as Oxenstierna and members of his family. Early in November, Kalmar Nyckel and Fogel Grip sail from Gothenburg (Goteborg). On the voyage to the Netherlands both ships sustain severe damage. In December they arrive at Texel in the Netherlands to be repaired and outfitted for the voyage to America. On December 31, Kalmar Nyckel and Fogel Grip sail for America.

1638

The Swedes and Finns arrive in the Delaware Valley sometime in March. They found Fort Christina, the colony's main settlement, and the first permanent European settlement in the Delaware valley. Minuit purchases land from the Susquehannock Indians and perhaps from the Lenape as well. On the return voyage, Minuit is lost at sea.

1640

Peter Hollander Ridder arrives in New Sweden in April and assumes the governorship.

1640-41

The Swedes extend the limits of New Sweden from the Schuylkill River to the falls at present Trenton. Ridder buys land from the Indians that extends from Raccoon Creek east to Cape May. English from New Haven Colony settle near Salem Creek (Varkens or Varkins Kill) on territory claimed by the Swedes.

1641

In February, the Swedish government buys out the foreign
shareholders in the New Sweden Company.

1642-60  The English Civil War and the Commonwealth. Relations between England and Sweden are cordial throughout the period.

1643  Johan Printz arrives in New Sweden and assumes the governorship. He builds Fort Elfsborg on the New Jersey side of the Delaware to seal the river to the Dutch and the English. The fort was probably near Salem Creek; its exact location still eludes searchers.

1643-53  The decade of Printz's governorship is the colony's most prosperous time. Farming settlements are planted up and down both sides of the river in modern Delaware, Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and in Maryland, and Printz builds his headquarters, Printzhof, at Tinicum Island, near present Philadelphia. He absorbs the English at Salem Creek into the Swedish colony. While New Sweden is never self-sufficient, and is constantly harrassed by the Dutch, Printz maintains it by his energy and the force of his flamboyant personality.

1644  Christina reaches her majority and assumes personal rule of Sweden.

1648  The Peace of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years' War. The Swedes abandon Fort Elfsborg.

1651  The Dutch build Fort Casimir at the site of modern New Castle, Delaware.

1653  When his repeated requests for recall are ignored, Printz returns to Sweden, leaving the colony without a governor.

1654  Johan Rising arrives in New Sweden to assume the governorship. On May 21, Rising captures Fort Casimir from the Dutch and renames it Fort Trinity. Christina abdicates and is succeeded by her cousin, Karl X Gustav. Karl Gustav is immediately preoccupied with war with Denmark. Axel Oxenstierna dies in November.

1655  The Dutch retaliate for the Swedish attack on Fort Casimir. On September 1, Governor Peter Stuyvesant recaptures Fort Trinity and seizes Fort Christina, ending Swedish sovereignty in the Delaware Valley.
The Dutch govern the Delaware Valley until they in turn are conquered by the English in 1664—as bloodlessly as they had conquered the Swedes. The Dutch briefly regain New Netherland in 1674, but are again—and finally—ejected by the English. The Swedes and the Finns remain on the Delaware.

Swedes and Finns in the Delaware Valley petition Sweden's King Karl XI to send them Lutheran priests, hymnals, prayer books, and catechisms, to help them to preserve their Lutheran faith and their language.

In June, the first three priests of the new Swedish mission to America—Anders Rudman, Erik Bjork, and Jonas Auren—arrive in the Delaware Valley. Thereafter the mission is continuously resupplied with pastors throughout the 18th century, including Andreas Hesselius, Israel Acrelius, and Nils Collin. The mission helps to maintain a “cultural” New Sweden long after the political end of the colony.

With the death of Nils Collin, pastor of Old Swedes (Gloria Dei) Church in Philadelphia, the Swedish Lutheran mission to the Delaware Valley ends, as does cultural New Sweden.
THE NEW SWEDEN COLONY
Catalogue of Exhibition
SWEDEN IN THE 17TH CENTURY
CLIMATE FOR COLONIALISM

Colonialism was in the air throughout northern Europe during the 17th century. It was an age of discovery and expansion—in the arts, science and industry. Europeans tried to spread their commercial and political dominion throughout the world. Inspired by the riches Spain and Portugal had won from their colonies in the New World, Sweden, England and the Netherlands competed throughout the first half of the century for control of the middle Atlantic seaboard of North America.

While we are used to thinking of the English and the Dutch as 17th-century colonial powers, we do not as readily associate Sweden with early European colonialism. The Sweden of 1620 to 1720 was, however, a European Great Power. Her continental possessions made the Baltic Sea a Swedish lake. At various times Sweden controlled Finland, portions of modern Poland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, the Soviet Union and even northern portions of Germany. In the middle years of the century the Swedes controlled trade in the Baltic Sea and were one of the major military and political combatants in Germany during the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648), after entering the war in 1630. As early as 1624 Gustavus Adolphus encouraged the efforts of Willem Usselinx, a Dutch West India Company director, to found a Swedish overseas trading company—the South Company. The South Company soon failed because the Swedes lacked investment capital. But Axel Oxenstierna remained keenly interested in a colonial venture to raise money for Sweden. In 1637, the Chancellor supported a proposal by Samuel Blommaert, another Dutch West India Company director, for a Swedish colony in North America.

In 1637 the New Sweden Company, with heavy Dutch financial support, sent its first two ships to the middle Atlantic seaboard. Peter Minuit commanded the expedition. He had been the Director-General of the Dutch colony of New Netherland from 1626 to 1631. Sweden was about to join Spain, France, England and the Netherlands in the general European effort to extract riches from the New World. The Swedes set sail for Delaware Bay in search of furs and tobacco.
GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS BUILDS AN EMPIRE ON THE BALTIC

Gustavus Adolphus (1594-1632) was recognized throughout Europe as a military genius in his own time. From the beginning of his reign in 1611 until his death at the Battle of Leutzen in 1632, Sweden was mostly at war. He continued the House of Vasa's acquisition of territory around the Baltic Sea and, in 1630, he entered the Thirty Years' War as the Protestant champion against the Catholic forces of the Holy Roman Empire. Gustavus Adolphus reorganized the government of Sweden, including the army and navy. His success on the battlefields of Europe spread his military innovations and brought Sweden recognition as a Great Power. Even the Battle of Leutzen, at which he was killed, was a Swedish victory.

1. Gustavus Adolphus engraving
   *w.42cm., h.55cm.*
   Willem Jacobsz Delft after
   Michiel Jansz van Miervelt
   (1580-1638)
   Sweden
   Lent by the Nationalmuseum,
   Stockholm

2. Sword
   *wood, metal
   h. 87cm.*
   17th century
   Northern Sweden
   57.535
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

STOCKHOLM IN THE 17TH CENTURY AS DRAWN BY ERIK DAHLBERG

Courtesy of the Nationalmuseum, Stockholm
Well into the 17th century Sweden was heavily dependent upon imported arms and armor, particularly from Holland. Very similar breastplates are shown worn by infantrymen in Adam van Breen's *De Nassausche Wapen-Handelinge* (1618), and Dutch pieces which were captured by English troops in 1627 are preserved in the Royal Armouries, H. M. Tower of London. Although the use of metal body armor in Europe had entered into a period of steady decline by the time of Sweden's participation in the Thirty Years' War, it remained popular with colonists in America. Steel breastplates such as this provided an excellent defense from the arrows of the Native Americans.

4. **Cabasset Helmet**
   Steel, iron, brass, leather
   h.22.3 cm., w.24.9 cm., d.32.3 cm.
   1600-1650
   Germany or Austria
   Acc. 442

Light, open-faced helmets were produced in the thousands for European armies during the late 16th through mid 17th centuries. Such practical headgear was widely adopted by infantry of the period. The flat brim and unrestricted field of vision afforded by the cabasset made it popular with musketeers who required a defense that did not interfere with aiming.
Gustavus Adolphus' death in 1632 left his only child, the six-year-old Queen Christina, on the Swedish throne. The King had left instructions that she was to be raised to rule, making Christina's education like that of a 17th-century prince. She grew up strong-willed and well educated, with a knowledge of Latin and Greek, philosophy and science. During her minority, until 1644, the country was ruled by a regency headed by Axel Oxenstierna, Sweden's Chancellor. Oxenstierna, a great statesman, had been responsible for much of Sweden's internal government under the late King, who was often out of the country at war.

Queen and Chancellor struggled for power, each with a different vision of Sweden's greatness. Oxenstierna shared the King's view of Sweden as a political and military and growing economic power. For Christina, Sweden's greatness lay in imported high culture, an opulent court and nobles whose lifestyles rivaled their French counterparts. By the time she abdicated in 1654, her lavish spending had helped to put Sweden deeply in debt.
10. Axel Oxenstierna
   engraving
   w.42cm., h.55cm.
   Willem Jacobsz Delft after
   Michiel Jansz van Miervelt
   (1580-1638)
   Sweden
   Lent by the Nationalmuseum,
   Stockholm
New lifestyles for royalty and aristocracy

...the liberal arts, expelled from the countries where they formerly flourished...would find refuge in the North.

Professor Menius of Dorpat, 1632

Sweden's wars of expansion and her participation in the Thirty Years' War brought the Swedish aristocracy new wealth from the conquered territories and exposure to the more lavish lifestyles of the nobles of continental Europe. Queen Christina's interest in increasing the grandeur of her court at Tre Kronor palace and her royal city of Stockholm encouraged the nobles' development of a more ostentatious mode of living in the city.

Swedish nobles began to build lavish townhouses in Stockholm. On their country estates they built chateaux in the French manner. Both town and country houses were richly furnished, often with goods imported from the Netherlands and the German states. Extravagant displays of wealth became the norm for court and nobles, although Sweden remained for the first half of the 17th century a country with little commerce or industry, wealthy in land but not in money.

11. Wall Sconce
   chased brass
   w.36cm., h.46cm.
   17th century (?) Sweden
   52.534
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

12. Gilded Leather "Wallpaper"
   gilt paint on leather
   w.112cm., h.45cm.
   late 17th century Sweden
   101.850
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

13. Fireback
   cast iron
   w.66.5cm., h.99cm.
   inscribed "anno 1632 Gustawus Adolphus D.B. Svecia"
   Sweden
   46.600
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

14. Candle Stick
   brass
   h.24cm., d.15.5
   17th century Sweden
   19.401
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

15. Knife and Fork Picturing Gustavus Adolphus II
   steel, silver, enamel
   l.19.2cm., w.18cm.
   ca. 1650 Sweden
   265.996 a,b
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

16. Folding Knife Used at Banquets
   steel, brass
   l. 9cm.
   17th century
   44.485 a-b
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm
17. Drinking Bowl  
   painted wood, gilded  
   d. 22cm.  
   17th-century style  
   Sweden  
   48.601  
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet,  
   Stockholm  
   Inscribed “Empty no man praises me  
   but full I am taken...”

18. Tankard  
   curly-grained birchwood  
   w.25.5cm., h.32cm.  
   17th-century style  
   Fellingsbro parish, Vastmanland  
   78.271  
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet,  
   Stockholm

   Wallhanging  
   paint on canvas  
   1.292cm., h.120cm.  
   part of a suite dated 1645  
   Alfta parish, Halsningland, Sweden  
   199.675  
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet,  
   Stockholm

20. Bedcover  
   blue silk taffeta, embroidered with  
   black silk  
   l.187.5cm., w.155cm.  
   Dated 1630  
   Sweden  
   192.040  
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet,  
   Stockholm  
   Embroidered Weapons Of  
   Horn-Oxenstierna, Count Gustaf  
   Horn of Bjorneborg (1592-1657)  
   married 1628 to the Baroness  
   Christina Oxenstierna (1612-1681)
THE DELAWARE RIVER VALLEY IN
THE 17TH CENTURY
SETTING FOR A COLONIAL VENTURE

The Delaware River Valley was opened to European exploration and trade with the Indians by Henry Hudson's voyage of 1609. In the succeeding decades, the river was visited by Dutch and English ships bearing glass beads and metal tools to trade with the Indians for beaver and otter pelts. The fur trade led the Dutch at New Amsterdam, now New York City, to establish a small post, Fort Nassau, on the Delaware River a little south of what is today Camden. The Dutch used the post only intermittently, and they established no permanent settlements in the Delaware Valley. But they claimed the river as a part of New Netherland and called it the South River.

The English and Dutch traders who visited the river bought furs not only from the local Indians (whom the English called the Delaware and the Swedes called the Renappi), but also from the Indians of the Susquehanna River Valley of present Pennsylvania. These Indians, called the Minquas by the Dutch and the Swedes, and the Susquehannock by the English, came to the Delaware River to trade. They competed, often violently, with the Delaware Indians for access to the prized metal tools and guns offered by the Europeans.
THE INDIANS OF THE
DELWARE RIVER VALLEY

During the summer they have no
certain dwellings, but move about
here and there around the country.
However, in the fall each and every
sachem has a house built for
himself, which he and his subjects
can live in during the winter...
Per Linestrom, 1654-1656

The Indians we today call the Delaware were in the early 1600s a
number of small groups living along the streams which flow into the
Delaware River. They called themselves by a variety of names which
are recorded on early European maps: Sanhican, Armewamen,
Naraticon, Mantas and Sewapois. The Dutch and the Swedes called
them the Indians of “the River,” and the Swedes eventually called
them the Renappi. Each group was politically independent, but all
spoke dialects of the Algonkian language and practiced a seasonal
round of food-getting activities with a stone-age technology. They
located their unfortified villages of scattered longhouses along the
streams where the soils could be farmed with wooden digging sticks
and hoes tipped with bone, stone or shell blades. They hunted the
white-tailed deer for food throughout the year. Wild plant foods,
shellfish and seasonally migratory fish and waterfowl were also sources
of food.

21. Celt
   black slate
   1.6cm., w.5cm., d.2cm.
   Green Swamp Site
   Cumberland County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM 36

22. Celt
   stone
   1.8cm., w.4.5cm., d.2.5cm.
   Burlington County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM 704

23. Nutting Stone
   sandstone
   1.16cm., w.10cm., h.5cm.
   Abbott Farm Site
   Mercer County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM Acc. 788
   Gift of Princeton University
   Museum of Natural History

24. Hand Grinding Stone
   sandstone
   1.11cm., w.8cm., h.4cm.
   Abbott Farm Site
   Mercer County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM Acc. 788
   Gift of Princeton University
   Museum of Natural History

25. Grinding Slab
   sandstone
   1.29.5cm., w.26cm., h.9cm.
   Abbott Farm Site
   Mercer County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM Acc. 788
   Gift of Princeton University
   Museum of Natural History
26. Scraper
   chert
   1.4cm., w.3cm., h.1.5cm.
   Abbott Farm Site
   Mercer County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM Acc. 788
   Gift of Princeton University
   Museum of Natural History

27. Knife
   chert
   1.10.2cm., w.4.5cm., d.3cm.
   Abbott Farm Site
   Mercer County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM Acc. 788
   Gift of Princeton University
   Museum of Natural History

28. Net Sinkers (6)
    sandstone
    average 7.5cm., w.5cm., d.2cm.
    Abbott Farm Site
    Mercer County, New Jersey
    Delaware Indians
    NJSM Acc. 788
    Gift of Princeton University
    Museum of Natural History

29. Projectile Points (3)
    chert, sandstone
    Green Swamp Site
    Cumberland County, New Jersey
    Delaware Indians
    NJSM 31, 32, 34

30. Pestle
    sandstone
    1.33cm., d.6cm.
    Camden County, New Jersey
    Delaware Indians
    NJSM 656

31. Awl
    bone
    1.8.5cm.
    Green Swamp Site
    Cumberland County, New Jersey
    Delaware Indians
    NJSM 42

32. Fish Hook
    bone
    1. 5.5cm.
    Gloucester County, New Jersey
    Delaware Indians
    NJSM 313 b.18
33. Effigy Face  
ceramic  
w.4cm., h.4.5cm.  
Mercer County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 1825

34. Carved Pendant in Shape of an Animal  
stone  
l. 4.3cm.  
Gloucester County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 344

35. Pendant  
shale  
l.3.5cm., w.2.5cm.  
Gloucester County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 666

36. Pot Rim Fragment  
clay  
l.5.5cm., h.5cm.  
Indian Head Site  
Salem County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 26946

37. Small Vessel  
clay  
h.16.5cm.  
Johnson Site  
Cumberland County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 27736 a

38. Pipe  
ceramic  
l.9cm.  
Pemberton  
Burlington County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 66.652

39. Pipe  
ceramic  
l.8cm.  
Millville  
Cumberland County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 66.563

40. Pipe  
ceramic  
l.16.5cm.  
Murray Farm Site  
Burlington County, New Jersey  
Delaware Indians  
NJSM 1307

41. Ax  
sandstone  
l.20cm., w.10.5cm., d.4.5cm.  
early 1600s  
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania  
Susquehannock Indians  
B. 161  
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
The Minquas, who are yet faithful to us and call themselves our protectors...
Johan Rising, 1655

The Indians who have come to be known as the Susquehannock were Iroquoian-speaking groups who lived in the lower Susquehanna River Valley of Pennsylvania. They were called the Minquas by the Dutch and English traders who visited the Delaware River in the early 1600s, a name by which the Swedes also knew them. While their lifestyle was similar technologically to that of the Delaware Indians, the Susquehannock were organized into larger political units of thousands of people who lived in fortified villages.

During the 1620s and 1630s the Susquehannock traveled down the Schuylkill and Christina Rivers to reach the Dutch and English ships trading in the Delaware River Valley. They raided the Delaware Indians to drive the latter away from the river banks and gain control of all Native American trade with the Europeans in the Delaware Valley. The Susquehannock were largely successful in this because their large war parties could retreat, if necessary, to the safety of their fortified villages.

42. Arrowpoints
   stone
   1645-1665
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   Susquehannock Indians
   LA 3/472 a
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

43. Awl
   bone
   l. 5cm.
   1575-1600
   Schultz Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   Susquehannock Indians
   LA 7-1/401
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

44. Harpoon Tip
    antler
    l.21cm., w.2.5cm., d.75cm.
    1575-1600
    Schultz Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians

45. Fish Hook
    bone
    l.3cm.
    1575-1600
    Schultz Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    LA 7-1/592
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

46. End Scraper
    quartz
    l. 5.5cm., w. 3.5cm., h. 2cm.
    1575-1600
    Funk/Schultz Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    LA 9/116
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
47. Pestle
sandstone
l.130cm., d.5.5cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
Uncat.
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
Used for pounding corn into meal

48. Bell Pestle
granitic stone
l.11.2cm., d.8.1cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 566
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

49. Ladle
bone
l.15cm., d.18.5cm.
1575-1600
Funk/Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 9/128
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

50. Spoon with Animal Effigy Handle
wood
l.11.1cm., h.6.2cm.
1645-1665
Strickler Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 3/521
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

51. Double-Mouthed Washington Boro Incised Pot
clay
h.7.9cm., w.12.5cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 9
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

52. Toy Pot With Schultz Incised Decoration
clay
h.6.3cm., d.6.8cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 75
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
53. Toy Pot with Incised Decoration
   clay
   h.3.5cm., d.3.5cm.
   17th century
   Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
   Susquehannock Indians
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

54. Washington Boro Incised Pot
   clay
   h.19.8cm., d.16cm.
   early 1600s
   Washington Boro Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   Susquehannock Indians
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

55. Grinding Slab
    siltstone
    l.28cm., w.26cm., h.5cm.
    17th century
    Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

56. Milling Stone
    sandstone
    d. 9cm.
    1645-1665
    Strickler Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

57. Parched Corn
    17th century
    Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

58. Charred Corn Cobs
    1575-1600
    Funk/Schultz Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    LA 9
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

59. Pumpkin Seeds
    1645-1665
    Strickler Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    LA 3/31
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

60. Pipe
    painted clay
    l.17.5cm., d.2.5cm.
    1645-1665
    Strickler Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    LA 3/472 b
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

61. Tulip Bowl Pipe
    clay
    l.15cm., d.2.5cm.
    1645-1665
    Strickler Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    LA 3/540
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

62. Bird Effigy Pipe
    clay
    l.12.5cm., d.3.2cm.
    early 1600s
    Frey-Haverstick Site
    Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
    Susquehannock Indians
    LA 6/96
    Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
63. Spotted Bird Effigy Pipe
clay
1. l. 18cm., d. 3cm.
1645-1665
Strickler site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 3/451 b
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

64. Masquette
schist
w. 1.7cm., h. 2cm.
17th century
Byrd Leibhart Site
York County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
YO 170/65
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

65. Masquette
steatite
l. 3cm., w. 2.5cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley,
Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
2/591
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

66. Turtle Figure
steatite
l. 4cm., w. 2.5cm., h. 1.2cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley,
Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 232
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

67. Turtle Figure
bone
l. 3cm., w. 2cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley,
Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 234

68. Human Figure
steatite
l. 9.5cm., w. 4cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley,
Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 236
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

69. Beads (10)
elk teeth
1575-1600
Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 7-2/314
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

70. Beads (3)
deer phalanges
1575-1600
Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 7-1/896/686/561
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

71. Beads (20)
bird bone
1575-1600
Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
LA 7
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

72. Gorget
shell
l. 7cm., w. 7.5cm.
1575-1600
Funk/Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 9/116
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
Dutch map of the Atlantic coast showing what is now New Jersey in the early 1600s
Courtesy of the Kungliga Biblioteket, Stockholm

73. Disk Beads
shell
middle 1600s
Strickler Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/7
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

74. Rattle
turtle shell
l. 12cm., w. 10cm., h. 6.5cm.
1575—1600
Funk/Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 9/151
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
INDIANS AND EUROPEANS COMPETE FOR TRADE

...three Indians of the Armewamen... came before the yacht. They told us that they were fugitives—that the Minquas had killed some of their people...

David DeVries, 1633

The Native Americans of the Atlantic seaboard were not mainly interested in the glass beads and trinkets the European traders brought, although they used the beads and trinkets for decorating clothing and as ornaments. Much more important to the Indians were the guns and metal tools the traders were willing to exchange for beaver and otter skins. The Indians could not produce metal tools themselves, having a stone technology. The iron knives, hoes, hatchets and guns made the Indians’ hunting and farming much more productive.

As European ships appeared in the rivers of eastern North America, Indian groups moved toward them, eager to trade. The Delaware River Valley was no exception to this pattern. As Dutch and English ships came to trade in the river in the 1620s and 1630s conflict between the Susquehannock and Delaware Indians increased as each sought to control access to the European tools and guns.

75. Pistol Barrel
iron
l.25.5cm., d.2.5cm.
early 1600s
Frey-Haverstick Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 6/94
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

76. Pistol Flintlock
iron
l.12.8cm., w.2.5cm., h.6.8cm.
early 1600s
Frey-Haverstick Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 6/94
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

77. Gunflint
chert
l.3.5cm., h.3cm., w.5cm.
17th century
Monmouth County, New Jersey
NJSM 2102

78. Hoe Blade
iron
l. 18cm., w. 15.5cm., h. 6cm.
middle 1600s
Strickler Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/518
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

79. Small Belt Axe
iron
l. 13cm., w. 2.5cm.
mid 1600s
Strickler Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/571
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Site Name</th>
<th>County</th>
<th>State Museum of Pennsylvania</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Small Hammer Head</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>1. 9cm., w. 2.4cm., h. 2.3cm.</td>
<td>middle 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 3/315</td>
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<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
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<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Celt Head</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>1. 8.5cm., w. 1.2cm.</td>
<td>1575-1600</td>
<td>Schultz Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 7/358</td>
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<td>82.</td>
<td>Harpoon Tip</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>1. 21cm., w. 3cm.</td>
<td>middle 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 3/611</td>
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<td>83.</td>
<td>Awl</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>1. 7cm.</td>
<td>middle 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
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<td>84.</td>
<td>Delft Pendant</td>
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<td>Frey-Haverstick Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 6/110</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>made from a delft dish</td>
<td></td>
<td>d. 3.5cm.</td>
<td></td>
<td>early 1600s</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
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<td>85.</td>
<td>Spoon</td>
<td>latten</td>
<td>1. 5.1cm., w. 17.5cm.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Frey-Haverstick Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 6/97</td>
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<td>86.</td>
<td>Bagpiper Knife Handle</td>
<td>cast bronze</td>
<td>1.7cm., w. 2cm., d. 1.6cm.</td>
<td>early 1600s</td>
<td>Frey-Haverstick Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 6/116</td>
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<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
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<td>87.</td>
<td>Mouth Harp</td>
<td>brass</td>
<td>1. 5.5cm., w. 3.3cm.</td>
<td>middle 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lancaster County, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>LA 3/319</td>
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<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
88. Snuff Box
   brass
   l.6.6cm., w.5cm., h.3.7cm.
   1634 (marked)
   Holland
   Byrd Leibhart Site
   York County, Pennsylvania
   YO 170/114
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

89. Tobacco Box with Tamper and Lid
   brass
   h.5cm., d.6.5cm.
   17th century
   Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
   LA 6/99
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

90. Trade Pipe
   brass
   l. 12cm., w. 10cm., h. 6.5cm.
   early 1600s
   Frey-Haverstick Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 6/115 a
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

91. Tobacco Pipe
   tan clay
   l.13cm., d.1.5cm.
   early 1600s
   Frey-Haverstick Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 6/116
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

92. Tobacco Pipe
   white clay
   l.11.1cm., d.8cm.
   mid 1600s
   Byrd Leibhart Site
   York County, Pennsylvania
   YO 170/114
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

93. Tobacco Pipe
   white clay
   l.16.5cm., d.1.9cm.
   17th century
   Martins Creek, Pennsylvania
   NJSM 2492

94. Case Bottle
   glass
   h.19.5cm., d.8cm.
   17th century
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 3/22
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

95. Bottle Fragment With Seal Mark “BM”
   glass
   d.4.5cm.
   mid 1600s
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 3/519
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

96. Green Goblet Stem with Spiral Design
   glass
   l.8cm., d.2cm.
   mid 1600s
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 3/517
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

97. Green Goblet Base
   glass
   mid 1600s
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 3/517
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
98. String of Black Seed Beads
   glass
   average 1.5cm.
   early 1600s
   Washington Boro Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   B 299
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

99. String of Pale Green and White Seed Beads
   glass
   average 1.3cm.
   early 1600s
   Washington Boro Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   B 290
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

100. String of Blue and Black Seed Beads
   glass
   average 1.4cm.
   early 1600s
   Washington Boro Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   B 302
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

101. String of Washington Boro Blue Beads
   glass
   average 1.9cm.
   mid 1600s
   Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
   uncataloged
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

102. String of Black and White Beads
   glass
   average 0.5cm.
   17th century
   Monmouth County, New Jersey
   NJSM 80417

103. String of Black, Red and White Beads
   glass
   average 0.5cm.
   17th century
   Monmouth County, New Jersey
   NJSM 80428
BRASS AS A RAW MATERIAL
FOR NATIVE AMERICAN CREATIVITY

A popular trade item was the brass kettle, sturdier than the Indians’ clay cooking pot. However, the kettles were not of high quality and quickly developed cracks making them useless for their original purpose. The remnants provided the Native Americans with a workable raw material. Indian groups of eastern North America had a thousands-year-old tradition of cold hammering native copper. This technology worked well with the brass kettle remnants, which were soft enough to be cut, hammered and rolled into new objects.

Pendants, beads and tinklers were popular ornaments produced in this manner. Brass was also shaped into awls, formerly made of bone.

104. Washington Boro Incised Effigy Pot
clay
w. 10.5cm., h. 10cm., d. 9.5cm.
17th century
Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania
Susquehannock Indians
B. 66
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

105. Large Kettle
brass
h. 13.5cm., d. 23.5cm.
mid 1600s
Strickler Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/27
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

106. Small Kettle
brass
h. 6.5cm., d. 7.5cm.
1575-1600
Funk/Schultz Site
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 9/184
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

107. Necklaces with Pendants (2)
copper
1.45cm.
17th century
Camden County, New Jersey

108. Triangular Arrowpoints (3)
brass
mid 1600s
Strickler Site
Susquehannock Indians
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/472 b
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

109. Hafted Brass Arrowpoint
brass, wood
1.5cm., w. 1.5cm.
1645-1665
Strickler Site
Susquehannock Indians
Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
LA 3/437
Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

It is rare to have part of the wooden arrow shaft preserved

110. Tinkler
brass
h. 5cm., w. 1.9cm., d. .7cm.
17th century
New Jersey
Delaware Indians
NJSM 66.727
SETTING FOR
A COLONIAL VENTURE

They set sail from
Gothenburg...laden with people,
provisions, ammunition, and
merchandise suitable for traffic
and gifts to the Indians.
Israel Acrelius, 1759

By 1638 when the two Swedish ships Kalmar Nyckel and Fogel Grip approached the Delaware River to begin the New Sweden Colony, they were not coming to a wilderness. The Dutch had been exploring the navigable portion of the river up to the Falls at Trenton for twenty years. The Indians had become used to the trade goods the Dutch and English brought to exchange for furs. The competition among the Susquehannock and the Delaware Indians for the traders' goods had led to conflict severe enough to force the Delaware Indians to abandon the western side of the river. They retreated up along the streams on the eastern bank to seek refuge from Susquehannock attacks. The Swedish colonists came to the Delaware River led by Dutchmen who knew the languages of the Indians and that the empty west bank of the river was available for colonial occupation.

111. Swedish Settlement At Fort Christina
oil on canvas
George Robert Bonfield (1802-98)
w.99.2cm.,h.71cm. (framed)
Acc. 1413
Lent by the Philadelphia Maritime
Museum
THE NEW SWEDEN COLONY
1638-1655

Swedish, Dutch and German stockholders formed the New Sweden Company to trade for furs with the Indians and to grow tobacco in North America. The Delaware River Valley was chosen as the site for the New Sweden Colony because Peter Minuit and the Dutch stockholders knew the area was well suited for both trade and tobacco growing. Minuit also knew that the Dutch and English colonies of the Atlantic seaboard were not strong enough to enforce their prior claims to the Delaware.

The Swedes landed at what is today Wilmington, Delaware, in March 1638, and began the first permanent European settlement in the Delaware Valley. Wars in Europe and economic problems at home kept Sweden from supporting the colony adequately. In the succeeding 17 years only 11 expeditions sailed from Sweden to the colony, which by 1655 consisted of scattered farms and small settlements of Swedes and Finns along both banks of the Delaware River. The colonists survived the lack of support from their homeland by pursuing a vigorous trade with the Dutch and English colonies from New England to Virginia. Conflict with the Dutch in New Amsterdam increased during the late 1640s and early 1650s. New Sweden came to an end as a Swedish colony when Governor Johan Rising surrendered to the Dutch in 1655.
The first abode of the newly arrived emigrants was at a place called by the Indians Hopakahacking. There, in the year 1638, Peter Minuit built a fortress, which he named Fort Christina...

Israel Acrelius, 1759

The first landing of the New Sweden colonists in March 1638 was at what is today Wilmington, Delaware. There, Peter Minuit claimed the valley for Sweden and began to build Fort Christina, named for Sweden's 12-year-old Queen. Minuit bought land on the west bank of the Delaware from the Susquehannock and Delaware Indians and traded with them for furs. In the spring, he sailed for Europe but was lost at sea in a Caribbean storm. His ship returned safely, though, bringing Sweden word of the colony's start.

The Dutch protested the Swedish settlement, but they were too often at war with the Indians of northern New Jersey and southern New York and Connecticut to be able to evict the newcomers. Friction between the Dutch and the Swedes would continue for the next 17 years.
Fort Christina as drawn by Per Lindestrom ca. 1655
Courtesy of the Riksarkivet, Stockholm
THE FIRST COLONISTS
FARMERS, SOLDIERS AND TRADERS

...accompanied by the firing of cannon...the country was called New Sweden.

Four men from the Key of Kalmar, 1639

The main purpose of the colony was to produce income for the investors. This is shown clearly by the composition of the first settlement. Soldiers accompanied the colonists to defend them from the Dutch and the English, who protested that they had already claimed the Delaware Valley, and the Indians. Farmers were to produce tobacco for shipment home to Sweden and to grow food for the colony. Traders were to exchange metal hoes, knives, axes and other products for furs.

Like most other colonies, New Sweden failed to produce a profit for its investors. But the colonists rarely received supplies of trade goods from Sweden. They were unable to compete successfully with the Dutch and the English for the Indian fur trade. Sweden was not overpopulated and there was no pressure for the Swedes and Finns to emigrate. The government sometimes forced those guilty of minor crimes to go to the colony. Finns living in central Sweden were sometimes sent to the colony for clearing forests which the Swedes protected for their iron and copper industries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Artifact</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>112. Flintlock Firearm</td>
<td>iron, wood</td>
<td>138cm., w. 13cm., d. 7cm.</td>
<td>17th century</td>
<td>Falkenberg, Halland, Sweden</td>
<td>Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>113. Finnish Plow</td>
<td>wood, iron</td>
<td>134cm., h. 101cm.</td>
<td>17th century</td>
<td>Ljusnonsberg parish, Vastmanland Sweden</td>
<td>Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114. Large Hoe</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>19cm., w. 15.5cm., d.6cm.</td>
<td>mid 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>115. Large Ax Head</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>18cm., w.10.5cm., d.3.5cm.</td>
<td>early 1600s</td>
<td>Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>B. 721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>116. Knife</td>
<td>bone, iron</td>
<td>10.3cm.</td>
<td>mid 1600s</td>
<td>Strickler Site</td>
<td>Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117. Crooked Knife</td>
<td>iron</td>
<td>1.5cm., d.15cm.</td>
<td>17th century</td>
<td>Susquehanna Valley, Pennsylvania</td>
<td>Morgan Hebbard Collection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48
Johan Printz (1592-1663) arrived in New Sweden as governor in 1643. An ex-soldier, Printz sought to strengthen the colony during his ten years of rule. He moved its headquarters from Fort Christina to Tinicum Island, which is today a part of Philadelphia. The house he built there—Printzhof—remained in his family until the 1680s.

Printz tried to centralize the colony’s government. This frequently made him unpopular with his own colonists, but it earned him the respect of the surrounding Dutch and English. He forced the small group of English from New Haven, who had settled near present Salem, New Jersey, in 1641 or 1642, to swear allegiance to Sweden. He built Fort New Elfsborg near Salem to control access by the Dutch and the English to the Delaware. Throughout his service as governor Printz wrote to the government officials in Sweden asking for soldiers, artisans, settlers and trade goods. His requests went unanswered.

In 1653, despairing of help for the colony from Sweden, Printz traveled to New Amsterdam and set sail for Europe on a Dutch ship.

Printzhof is the name of the house built by Johan Printz at what is now Philadelphia as the governor’s residence for the New Sweden Colony.

118. Portraits of Governor Printz’ Daughters (2)
   oil on canvas
   w.75.7cm., h.105.5cm.
   17th century
   anonymous artist
   64.76.1, 64.76.2
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania

121. Two-Handled Bowl
   glazed, decorated red earthenware
   h.11cm., d.31cm.
   17th century
   Found in excavation of old city of Jonkoping
   Lent by the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping

122. Two-Handled Bowl
   glazed red earthenware
   h.7.4cm., d.15.8cm.
   mid 1600s
   Strickler Site
   Lancaster County, Pennsylvania
   LA 3/588
   Lent by the State Museum of Pennsylvania
Johan Printz, governor of New Sweden from 1643 through 1653 as painted by an anonymous artist

Courtesy of the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping

123. Cup
- glazed red earthenware
- h.5cm., d.5cm.
- 17th century
- Found in excavation of old city of Jonkoping
- Lent by the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping

124. Stove Plate
- glazed clay
- w.17cm., h.25cm.
- 17th century
- Found in excavation of old city of Jonkoping
- Lent by the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping
- Decorated with religious figures

125. Tap
- bronze
- 1.15cm.
- ca. 1600

126. Pipe
- white clay
- 1.20cm.
- 17th century
- Possibly made in Holland
- Found in excavation of old city of Jonkoping
- Lent by the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping

127. Account Book of the New Sweden Company
- ink, paper
- w.23.5cm., h.38.5cm., d.2cm.
- 1655
- Stockholm
- Lent by the Riksarkivet, Stockholm
WAMPUM
MEDIUM FOR EXCHANGE

...if sewant is not always on hand here, together with the other cargoes for the savages, it is difficult to trade with the savages;

Johan Printz, 1644

Wampum (called sewant by the Dutch and the Swedes) was a variety of small shell beads. It was a valuable medium of exchange between Europeans and Indians as early as the 1620s. It was also exchanged among the Indians and, until the 1640s, served as a form of “money” among the European colonists who had difficulty securing European coins.

The manufacture of wampum was time-consuming and difficult. White beads were made from the central column of a whelk shell that had been trimmed, ground smooth on gritty stones, drilled lengthwise, and finally sliced into a number of separate beads. The Indians of coastal New York and southern New England frequently made wampum with small iron drills they received from Europeans. “Black” or purple wampum was made from sections of the purple lining of a hard-shell clam. The shells were ground to a smooth cylindrical shape on gritty stones, then drilled lengthwise.

A number of white beads could be made from a single whelk column, but only a few “black” beads could be made from the small area of purple on a clam shell. Consequently, purple wampum was worth at least twice as much as white wampum.

Peter Minuit was directed on the first voyage to try to secure wampum before landing in the Delaware Valley. But Minuit took the Caribbean route rather than that by way of New England, where wampum could have been secured easily.

128. Tomahawk
   wood, iron, shell, leather, hair
   l. 49.5cm., w. 30cm., d. 2.5cm.
   17th century
   Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
   Livrustkammaren 3932
   Lent by the Etnografiska Museet, Stockholm

129. Ball-Headed Club
   wood, shell
   l.64cm., h.18cm., d.12cm.
   early 1600s
   Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
   Livrustkammaren 1010
   Lent by the Etnografiska Museet, Stockholm
PEACE WITH THE INDIANS

...no Christian nation is in better credit with the savages than we now are.

Johan Rising, 1654

New Sweden differs from all other European colonies on the Atlantic coast of North America in one important respect—in all of its 17-year history it was never at war with the Indians. Although leaders of the colony such as Johan Printz and Johan Rising had a poor opinion of the Delaware Indians once the fur trade in the valley had been exhausted, the Swedish and Finnish settlers seem to have gotten along well with both the Delaware and the Susquehannock Indians. One reason for this is probably that the Swedes and Finns never numbered more than a few hundred settlers and therefore did not threaten to overwhelm the Indian populations.

The settlers made small clearings in the woods, burning the forest to clear trees and add fertilizer to the soil, much as the Indians themselves did. This left the settlers and the Indians free to hunt in the woods between farms. The settlers were used to hunting with the crossbow and to fishing with nets, spears and traps in the rivers. These patterns resembled the ways the Indians made their living.

130. Wolfhead Headdress
wolf’s skull with teeth intact, hide, shell, sinew, with fur dyed red
1.84cm., w.14cm., h.9.5cm.
17th century
Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
6912
Lent by Skoklosters slott, Balsta

131. Ball-Headed Club
wood, brass
1.40cm., d.9.5cm.
17th century
Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
6906
Lent by Skoklosters slott, Balsta

132. Linked Fur-Covered Cords
hide, fur, sinew, twined fiber and blue trade cloth
1.75cm., w.30.5cm., d.1.3cm.
17th century
Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
6910
Lent by Skoklosters slott, Balsta

133. Burden Strap
twined fiber
1.560cm., w.4.7cm.
17th century
Delaware or Susquehannock Indians
6908
Lent by Skoklosters slott, Balsta
The burden strap was worn by Indian women around their foreheads to support heavy loads on their backs.
...the Dutch...brought the guns of all their batteries to bear upon us, and on the 14th instant, formally summoned Fort Christina, with harsh menaces, by a drummer and a messenger, to capitulate within twenty-four hours.

Johan Rising, 1655

The Dutch-Swedish rivalry for control of the Delaware Valley was intense. The Swedish settlement was a commercial and potentially a military threat to New Netherland. Perhaps the Dutch tolerated the Swedes on their flank because New Netherland's relations with the neighboring Indians were poor at best, and often degenerated into open warfare. Another reason may have been that the generally cordial relations in Europe among England, the Netherlands and Sweden extended to a measure of mutual tolerance among their colonies in the New World.

But in 1654 Printz was succeeded as governor by the somewhat less judicious Johan Rising, when New Netherland was governed by the energetic Peter Stuyvesant. Soon after he arrived in the New World, Rising attempted to dislodge the Dutch from the valley by seizing Fort Casimir (present New Castle, Delaware), below Fort Christina on the western shore of the river. Stuyvesant responded by attacking New Sweden late in the summer of 1655. The virtually bloodless Dutch conquest ended Swedish sovereignty—though not the Swedish and Finnish presence—in the Delaware Valley.
Fort Christina surrounded by Dutch guns in 1655 as drawn by Per Lindestrom
Courtesy of the Riksarkivet, Stockholm
Hunting and fishing in 17th-century Scandinavia as drawn by Erik Dahlberg
Courtesy of the Nationalmuseum, Stockholm
SELF-SUFFICIENT SWEDES AND FINNS

While the New Sweden colony was a political and economic failure, the settlers made a successful adaptation to life in the Delaware Valley.

The Swedish and Finnish colonists probably made the transition from the Old World to the new more successfully than any other group of European settlers. This resulted from similarities of natural environment between northeastern North America and Sweden-Finland, and similarities in the lifestyles of the colonists and the Indians which minimized conflict between the two peoples.

New Sweden fell, but the Scandinavian presence on the Delaware River remained. Swedish and Finnish contributions to the culture of colonial North America remained important throughout the 18th century and are significant in the modern United States (enhanced by later, heavier Swedish and Finnish immigration from the 1840s to the 1920s).

These influences include foodways, local place names, music, church organization, log architecture, domestic weaving, Appalachian dulcimers, several boat types, and a number of cast iron objects. New Sweden also influenced culture at higher levels through the paintings of Gustav Hesselius, published and unpublished poetry and hymns, and histories and descriptions of North America by Swedish and Finnish visitors such as Pehr Kalm, Per Linestrom, Israel Acrelius, and Nils Collin.
...a plain, strong, industrious people.

William Penn, 1683

THE FIRST AMERICAN PIONEERS

The Swedes and the Finns who came to the Delaware as colonists were probably better prepared to deal with the New World’s climates and landforms than any other European settlers. Sweden was similar physically in many ways to North America. The techniques developed in Sweden over past centuries to extract a living from such an environment served them as well in the Delaware River Valley. The lifestyle they brought with them was also similar to that of the Indians.

Like the Native Americans, the Swedes and the Finns were used to supporting themselves through a combination of farming, hunting and fishing. They lived in self-sufficient households, where men built their own log houses and outbuildings, made their farming and hunting tools and much of the household equipment, such as furniture and bowls. The women spun, wove and sewed the clothing for their families and their household “linens.”

136. Chest
wood, iron
l. 134.5cm., w. 56cm., h. 52cm.
1621
Sweden
161.840
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

137. Plow
wood, iron
l. 123cm., h. 89cm.
17th-century style
Sweden
79.319
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

138. Door From a Peasant Storehouse
pinewood, iron
w. 129cm., h. 188cm.
17th century (?)
Mora parish, Dalarna, Sweden
85.585a-c
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

139. Forge Hammer
iron, wood
l. 36cm., w. 14.5cm.
17th-century style
Sweden
144.552
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

140. Forge Tongs
forged iron
l. 61.5cm., w. 20cm.
17th-century style
farmer’s forge, Drangsered parish, Halland, Sweden
91.394e
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

141. Brickmaker’s Mold
pinewood
l. 36.2cm., w. 22cm.
17th-century style
Ranea parish, Norrbottan, Sweden
171.670
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm
142. Cloth Used by Beaters in Communal Hunts (6)
    paint on canvas, rope
    average l. 50cm., w. 50cm.
    17th century (?)
    Sweden
    T 281a-f
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

143. Hunting Spear
    iron, wood, brass
    17th-century style
    Sweden
    303.118
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

144. Crossbow
    wood, iron,
    l.98cm., w.66cm.
    17th-century style
    Sweden
    29.691
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

145. Fishing Spear
    wood, iron
    l.297cm., w.11.5cm.
    17th-century style
    Lycksele lappmark, Lappland
    114.189
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

146. Fish Trap
    wood, birchbark
    l.105cm., d.35cm.
    17th-century style
    Sweden
    149.559
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

147. Netsinker
    stone, birchbark
    17th-century style
    Sweden
    227.753
    Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm
148. Butter Churn
wood
h. 100cm.
marked IES 1640
Borgsjö parish, Jamtland, Sweden
45.599
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

149. Plate
wood
d. 19cm.
Probably 18th century
Jonkoping County, Sweden
Lent by the Jonkoping Lans Museum, Jonkoping

150. Spoon
horn
l. 11.5cm., w. 8cm.
17th-century style
Sweden
160.274
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

151. Spoon
wood
l. 14.5cm., w. 7.5cm.
17th-century style
Vackelsang parish, Smaland, Sweden
63.090a
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

152. Dragonfly
wood
l. 4.8cm., d. 6.5cm.
17th-century style
Sarna parish, Dalarna, Sweden
26.805a
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

153. Needle Box
elk horn
l. 10cm.
dated 1641
Transtrond parish, Dalarna, Sweden
30.677
Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm
...I have caused a church to be built in New Gothenburg, decorating it according to our Swedish fashion, so far as our resources and means would allow.

Johan Printz, 1647

Long after the end of the New Sweden colony in 1655, the Swedish and Finnish settlers in the Delaware Valley tried to maintain cultural ties with Sweden. In 1693, feeling lost, perhaps, in the Englishness of their surroundings, they petitioned King Karl XI to send them priests, catechisms and hymnals to help them keep alive their Lutheran faith and their Swedish language. Thereafter ministers from Sweden helped to maintain the settlers’ ties with the old country until the American Revolution.

The role of the Swedish Lutheran Church in maintaining this tie was both formal and very important. Beginning early in the 18th century, Jasper Swedberg, the Bishop of Skara in western Sweden, was given charge of the mission to the New World. He and his successors sent over such Lutheran priests as Andreas Hesselius, Erik Bjork, Israel Acrelius and Nils Collin.

Their parsonages were a network of cultural continuity for visitors from home. For example, when in the late 1740s and early 1750s, the Finnish naturalist Pehr Kalm traveled through the Delaware Valley, he stayed at Lutheran parsonages such as the one at Swedesboro, New Jersey.

The reports and letters home of Lutheran divines such as Erik Bjork contain early descriptions of the region, the lives of the Swedes and the Finns in the river, and the culture of the English colonies in which they lived. Later published accounts by Israel Acrelius and Nils Collin echo Bjork’s observations.

The Lutheran missionaries to New Sweden not only succored their coreligionists, they also tried to bring the Christian message to the Indians. In 1696 the Swedish government printed Thomas Campanius’s translation of Martin Luther’s catechism into the Delaware Indian language, and the first ministers of the Swedish Mission in America brought copies with them to the Delaware Valley.
154. Johannes Campanius' Translation of Martin Luther's Catechism Into the Delaware Indian Language
ink, paper, leather
w.10.5cm., h.6.5cm., d.1cm.
1696
Stockholm
Lent by Special Collections and Archives, Rutgers University Libraries

155. Thomas Campanius Holm's Description of the Province of New Sweden
ink, paper, leather
1702
Stockholm
Lent by Special Collections and Archives, Rutgers University Libraries

156. Priest's Altar Service Robe
Red velvet with embroidered gilt and silver thread
w.88cm., h.121cm.
1761

157. Israel Acrelius' Account of the Swedish Churches in New Sweden
ink, paper
1759
Stockholm
Lent by Rare Book Collections, Firestone Library, Princeton University

158. Pehr Kalm's Travels in North America
ink, paper
w.22cm., h.28cm., d.5.5cm.
Dutch edition of 1772
Utrecht, Holland
Lent by Special Collections and Archives, Rutgers University Libraries
CULTURAL INFLUENCES

Several old men in this country told me that the Swedes on their arrival here made such fences as are usual in Sweden, but they were forced to leave off in a few years time, because they could not get posts enough.

Pehr Kalm, 1749

The influences of New Sweden go deep into American material culture.

The colonists are usually credited with bringing to North America such common Americanisms as log architecture, post-and-rail fences and the sauna. But there are numerous other ways in which they may have influenced the manner in which Americans have lived over the past three and a half centuries.

Some folklife scholars theorize that the Swedes and the Finns may have learned from the Indians to make canoes. But the colonists were used to traveling the waterways of Sweden-Finland in church boats, and they may have been familiar with the technology of the dugout from building these boats. The church boats may, in fact, have been the ancestors of the famous Durham boats in which the Continental army crossed the Delaware to attack the Hessian at Trenton on Christmas night, 1776.

Other Swedish crafts may have influenced colonial American technologies. Swedish iron working may have influenced early Pennsylvania iron working techniques, and the weaving styles of Swedish and Finnish women seem to have contributed to the middle Atlantic tradition of woven coverlets.

There is even a tradition that the Swedish and Finnish style of living in a forested environment, a style that conserved at least as much as it used, was the basis of the forestry industry of southern New Jersey.

The settlers may also have influenced Indian crafts and technologies, other than through the obvious mechanism of trading metal implements for furs. For example, by the early years of the 19th century the Delaware Indians were producing beautiful splint baskets to sell to European-Americans, and they seem to have taught the technique to other Indians of the eastern seaboard. But this technology is originally Swedish and Finnish, and the Delaware may have learned it from the settlers. And east-coast Indian storehouses, from New England to the middle Atlantic, resemble nothing so much as the traditional Finnish style of storehouse.
159. Knapsack
   birchbark
   17th-century style
   Sweden
   88.781
   Lent by the Nordiska Museet, Stockholm

160. Basket
   wood
   1.46cm., h.33.5cm.
   19th or early 20th century
   Northeastern United States
   Possibly Mohegan Indians
   NJSM 3261
   The practice of making woven splint baskets spread from the Delaware Indians to other Native Americans in the eastern United States.

161. Basket
   dye, wood
   1.32cm., w.24cm., h.14cm.
   19th or early 20th century
   Burlington County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM 66.343
   It has been suggested that the Delaware Indians may have learned to make woven splint baskets from the Swedish and Finnish settlers in the Delaware Valley.

162. Basket
   paint, dye, wood
   1.32cm., w.26cm., h.14.5cm.
   19th or early 20th century
   Burlington County, New Jersey
   Delaware Indians
   NJSM 66.336
   It has been suggested that the Delaware Indians may have learned to make woven splint baskets from the Swedish and Finnish settlers in the Delaware Valley.

163. Dugout Canoe
   white cedar
   1.335.3cm.
   17th century
   Cape May County, New Jersey
   NJSM
   Hollowed out by burning and scraping, dugout canoes were used by the Indians of the Delaware Valley and according to Pehr Kalm by Swedish settlers in the 1750s.
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