

## BACKGROUND RESEARCH

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### Regional Historical Context

Much of the historical background context of Baltimore Hundred is derived from the *National Register of Historic Places Eligibility Evaluation: Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware* (1990). This information, along with the following text about the historic themes, contexts, and temporal periods, follows the *Delaware Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan* (1989) and the *Historic Context Master Reference and Summary* (1989). Unless otherwise cited, information contained herein is derived from the aforementioned sources, and applies as specifically as possible to the vicinity of Route 26 which passes through the communities of Clarksville, Millville, and Ocean View, Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware.

Per the direction of DelDOT and the Delaware State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO), property types were derived for each time period (where applicable) along the Route 26 corridor from Clarksville east to the Assawoman Canal in Ocean View. Since a “property type is a grouping of individual properties based on shared physical or associative characteristics” which are linked by the “ideas incorporated in the theoretical historic context with actual historic properties that illustrate those ideas,” physical characteristics and usage (along with the Regional Historical Context) helped inform the definition of property types for this report (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 233).

### Baltimore Hundred

Baltimore Hundred is located along the southeastern coast of Sussex County, Delaware. A part of both the Lower Peninsula/Cypress Swamp (Eastern) Zone and the Coastal Zone as identified in the *Delaware Comprehensive Historic Plan*, Baltimore Hundred’s history is tied to the natural features of the landscape. Bounded to the north by the Indian River Bay, to the south by the state of Maryland, to the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and to the west by Dagsboro Hundred, Baltimore Hundred’s boundary was much contested through the eighteenth century. Both the colonies of Delaware and Maryland claimed the area of Baltimore Hundred; it was not until 1775 that Worcester County, Maryland released its claims to the land and ceded the territory to Delaware (Scharf, p. 1339).

The Coastal Zone of Delaware ranks as one of the highest preservation priorities for the state of Delaware. Not only does this area contain some of the earliest settlements in the state, but it is also threatened by commercial and residential development resulting from tourism. The Lower Peninsula/Cypress Swamp (Eastern) Zone ranks as the fourth priority for above-ground resource preservation as identified in the *Delaware Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan*.

### Contact Period (A.D. 1650 – A.D. 1750)

The Contact Period marks the initial arrival of European groups, predominately Dutch, Swedish, and English, to the Middle Atlantic region. Overall, data from the

archaeological record of this time period is limited, and often, ethnographic accounts by these first European explorers and settlers have been considered important supplementary sources of information.

In Delaware, few sites with clear Contact Period components have been identified. Two of Delaware's more studied Contact Period sites, 7NC-E-42 (Custer and Watson 1986; Custer 1989) and the Dragon Run Site (7NC-G-104; Kellogg et. al 1994), are located in New Castle County. By comparison, the European-manufactured artifact assemblages from both sites are considerably more meager than those recovered from contemporaneous Contact Period sites in neighboring Pennsylvania and Maryland (Custer 1989; Custer and Watson 1986; Kellogg et al. 1994). Additionally, the Native American assemblages strongly indicate a relatively undisturbed continuation of Woodland II Period lifestyles at 7NC-E-42 and the Dragon Run Site (7NC-G-104). The lack of participation between these Native American groups and Europeans has been attributed to a stronghold of southern Pennsylvania Susquehannock groups on the Delaware (Custer 1989; Custer and Silber 1994; Custer 1994).

Although several Contact Period-era European-made pipes and Native American artifacts recovered at the Townsend Site (7S-G-2) in southern Delaware have been attributed to a Contact Period occupation (Omwake and Stewart 1963), the association of the Native American and European artifact assemblages continues to be somewhat unclear (Custer 1984). Similar discoveries of European and Native American artifacts have also been noted at several Woodland II Slaughter Creek Complex sites; however, like the artifacts from the Townsend Site (7S-G-2), the exact contextual relationship between these artifacts also remains uncertain (Custer 1984).

Documentary materials provide some insight on interactions between Native American and European groups during the Contact Period in the Baltimore Hundred area. Historical accounts refer to a Native American settlement known as "Sironesack" (aka. Chenonnessex, Checonesseck, Sikonesses or Sickpnesys, and Sickonesyns) near Lewes (Weslager 1942a, 1942b, 1943; Kellogg, Catts and Wood 1999). Interestingly, written records of a 1629-1630 land transaction by the Dutch includes the names Quesquakous and Ensanques and both individuals are recorded as being inhabitants of Sickonesyns (Weslager 1949; Kellogg, Catts, and Wood 1999). It has also been suggested that the c. 1632 burning of portions of the early Dutch settlement of Lewes was a result of a misunderstanding between local inhabitants and the Dutch (Weslager 1968; Custer 1989).

Later land records suggest that during the last quarter of the seventeenth century, Assateague groups were living in the White Neck area (Catts, Custer, and Hawley 1992). As European groups continued to expand settlement in the area, many Assateagues moved westward. By the 1720s, Assateagues were living in the Millsboro area (Mayre 1939, 1940; Catts, Custer, and Hawley 1992).

Although Native American groups continued to live in the area, aside from some occasional exceptions, Woodland II Period Native American lifeways had been dramatically altered by the middle part of the eighteenth century.

## Exploration and Frontier Settlement: 1630-1730 +/-

In 1631, the Dutch first established a settlement north of Baltimore Hundred near the port of Lewes, Delaware. Dutch sea captain David Pietersen De Vries started this whaling community and named it Zwaanendael, meaning “Valley of the Swans” (Alotta, p. 287). Zwaanendael lasted until 1632, when De Vries left and Native Americans allegedly decimated the remaining Europeans in the colony (<http://www.co.sussex.de.us/historical/index.html>). Other small, scattered outposts of English, Scotch-Irish, and Dutch settlers were set up near coastal bays and river inlets during the seventeenth century. Lord Baltimore’s agents proclaimed in 1659 that all that territory south of the 40<sup>th</sup> degree, including Maryland, was land governed by the English crown. However, in 1682 when William Penn arrived in the Delaware Valley, he proclaimed ownership of the land known as Delaware, southward to Fenwick Island. Penn went so far as to grant a 10,000-acre tract of land to the Duke of York, near what is now Fenwick Island. Land disputes consequently arose between the Lord Baltimore and William Penn families that would not be formally settled until 1775 (NSDAR, p. 7).

In 1704, the three “lower” counties of Pennsylvania (New Castle, Kent, and Sussex Counties) separated to form the colony that would later become the state of Delaware. The newly formed colony of Delaware wanted greater independence from European control and accordingly established its own government, albeit under English rule. Although territorial disputes made land ownership tenuous, there were several major landowners in Baltimore Hundred during the period of Exploration and Frontier Settlement. In 1688, Charles Calvert, Absolute Lord and Proprietary of the Provinces of Maryland and Avalon, Lord Baron of Baltimore, granted Matthew Scarborough a tract of 500 acres known as “Middlesex,” near present-day Ocean View (*Ocean View: Our Hometown*, 1997). Scarborough’s original tract was later augmented by an additional 66 acres in 1713 (Scharf, p. 1340). Upon Scarborough’s death, the tract of land passed to the David Hazzard family; it was then sold to Adam Hall, who finally passed the tract to Selby Evans (*Ocean View: Our Hometown*, 1997; NSDAR, p. 7).

Other early landowners in the Baltimore Hundred area included Avery Morgan, who purchased 360 acres to the south of the Indian River in 1738, and Jacob Gray, who was granted the rights to a 208-acre tract of land known as “Jacob’s Struggle” (Scharf, p. 1340). Thomas Dasey and Thomas Aydelotte also owned several contiguous tracts of land in present-day South Bethany Beach (NSDAR, p. 7). William Digges was granted a 500-acre tract by the state of Maryland in 1687 in what is now Clarksville. In 1746, this same tract was parceled to Hinnan Wharton, who granted the 100-acre plot to his son David Wharton in 1748 (*National Register of Historic Places Nomination*, Spring Banke, 1975). Even though no single greater proprietor dominated patterns of land ownership, the “top ten percent held two-fifths of the assessed acreage” in Baltimore Hundred (Herman, p. 77).

Despite sandy, nutrient-poor soils in the Coastal Zone region, many early inhabitants engaged in corn farming (NSDAR, p. 7). Since early settlements tended to cluster around water, these people were also likely engaged in some type of water-related activities such

as trade or ship-building. More research needs to be conducted to determine the impact and extent of these early colonial efforts upon the architecture, settlement patterns, religious, and community organization of Baltimore Hundred. There are no anticipated property types from the Period of Exploration and Frontier Settlement (1630-1730 +/-) along the Route 26 APE due to the fact that many buildings were impermanent in nature, have suffered through damaging weather events, and modern development has encroached along the shoreline.

The archaeological record may one day be able to provide insight into the everyday lifeways of the Exploration and Frontier Period of Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County. Interestingly, a small handful of archaeological sites with occupations dating to this time period have been discovered in Sussex County (De Cunzo and Catts, 1990). Most of these sites (e.g., 7S-E-94, 7S-G-23, 7S-G-82, 7S-G-107, 7S-D-11, 7S-D-16, 7S-K-70; De Cunzo and Catts, 1990) are believed to be the remains of agricultural complexes. Currently, studies of these sites have been limited.

#### **Intensified and Durable Occupation: 1730-1770 +/-**

The fresh water Cypress Swamp and the Atlantic Ocean continued to play an important role in the settlement of Baltimore Hundred during the period of Intensified and Durable Occupation. The Atlantic Ocean connected Baltimore Hundred to distant urban markets, while the marshlands of the Assawoman Bay and the Cypress Swamp provided wood for shelter, transportation, and trade. Baltimore Hundred contained many different types of timber such as oak, cypress, poplar, and pine, which were all used to manufacture shingles, planks, barrel staves, tanbark, and ship stores for export. This forest-oriented economy only indirectly helped to improve transportation systems, but also resulted in shipbuilding works, sawmills, housing construction, and land reclamation. More research needs to be undertaken at this point to investigate the degree to which shipbuilding and salt works factored into the work and settlement patterns of Baltimore Hundred during this period.

The earliest structures in Baltimore Hundred were built close to water for transportation purposes. Since Maryland and Delaware both claimed Baltimore Hundred, the few remaining examples of early architecture physically manifest signs of this struggle. Most buildings and structures constructed during this time period were impermanent in nature and have since deteriorated (Clark, Item 8, page 1, *National Register Nomination for Spring Banke*). Spring Banke (S-454), a c.1770 house located in the vicinity of Clarksville, Delaware along Route 26, is an early extant example of this type of transitional architecture and construction. Like other houses constructed during this era, Spring Banke is modest in size and construction, and outwardly reflects many colonists' reluctance to build a dwelling of substantial size and cost. Raiding parties from both Maryland and Delaware visited the Baltimore Hundred area frequently, claiming ownership of the land and making individual claims of land ownership uncertain. The "standard house" of southeastern Delaware was thus a "one-room structure" (Clark, Item 8, page 1). When land titles were secure (patents were known to be a part of Delaware after 1775), many settlers embarked on building campaigns, adding wings, ells,

dependencies or additional stories to their one-room dwelling, such as that of Spring Banke (See Allen Clark's *National Register of Historic Places Inventory Nomination Form for Spring Banke*, 1976 for further information).

After the inland region commenced development, coastal transportation routes gained prominence. Dependence upon the sea for trade and the land for lumber caused the social system of Baltimore Hundred to develop similarly to that of southern plantation systems. Major landowners who held choice tracts of land occupied the highest rung of the social and economic ladder, while lesser landowners, foresters and shippers were in the middle, and tenants, day laborers, and slaves had the least status (Herman, p. 66). Around 1730, General Dagsworthy's family patented a large parcel of land in Baltimore and Dagsboro Hundreds in the Indian River/Cypress Swamp vicinity. General John Dagsworthy added a considerable amount of acreage to his father's original claims (known as "Dagsworthy's Conquest") and employed many day laborers to timber his lands (McKean, p. 126; Alotta, p. 281).

More research is needed to ascertain the agricultural patterns, material culture, education, and changing demographics of this region during this era, and how the Cypress Swamp and other natural features influenced settlement patterns.

Due to the fact that the few structures and building constructed during this era were impermanent in nature, and other factors such as development, road re-alignments, hurricanes, neglect and infill led to their destruction, it is not anticipated that any property types will be found extant from the era of Intensified and Durable Occupation in the Route 26 Area of Potential Effect (APE).

#### **Early Industrialization: 1770-1830 +/-**

Lingering border questions between Maryland and Delaware concerning the ownership of Baltimore Hundred were finally resolved in 1775. Under terms of an agreement, the ownership of some lands changed, and Baltimore Hundred was formally organized as a part of Delaware in 1775. Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon were employed to survey the boundary between Delaware and Maryland (Collins & Eby, p. 203). After this dispute was remedied, settlement in the area increased along the Cypress Swamp. Inhabitants began to construct larger and more permanent housing, knowing that their land claims were now secure. Many wood-frame, single-family residences constructed during the era of Early Industrialization were two-story, three-bay structures with a gable roof, central entry and featured symmetrical, double-hung sash windows (the addition seen to the west façade of Spring Banke, S-454 is an example of this type of construction). Lewes remained the Sussex County seat until January 29, 1791, when Rhodes Shankland, George Mitchell and others formally moved the county seat to the site of Old John Pettijohn's Field. This area was later renamed Georgetown after George Mitchell, and remains the seat of government for Sussex County (<http://www.co.sussex.de.us/historical/index.html>).

Since the majority of land in Baltimore Hundred was low and swampy, projects began to drain the area immediately following European settlement. Starting in 1779, Sussex County legislatures initiated several "Ditch Acts" to drain swampy areas (DeCunzo & Garcia, p. 22). Robert Burton undertook early reclamation efforts to drain lowlands, and other individual farmers likewise dug ditches to ensure their fields remained dry during the growing season (Scharf, p. 1342). By the dawn of the nineteenth century, much of the land used for crops (such as Indian corn) was exhausted. Farms of this period averaged less than 200 acres, and contained few, if any, outbuildings. As farmers cleared new land, they typically constructed small "log or frame dwellings of one and one-half stories and enclosing an average of less than 450 square feet of living space" (DeCunzo & Garcia, p. 22). Small apple and peach orchards, along with cows, sheep, hogs, and oxen helped supplement rural family income (DeCunzo & Garcia, p. 22). Many local residents living closer to coastal environs relied on the wealth of shellfish and oysters to augment low crop yields from depleted fields (Collins & Eby, p. 205). Settlers during this period relied heavily on timbering efforts, and a self-sufficient economy gave way to greater reliance on crafting industries and coastal trade networks.

The great Cypress Swamp, a "full seven miles from East to West and ten or twelve from North to South," contained 50,000 acres of land according to one informal estimate in 1797 (McKean, p. 126). This swamp area was prone to conflagrations in the dry summer months. One blaze, in particular in June 1782, burned countless acres of the Cypress Swamp and was so intense that flames could be seen up to seventy miles away (McKean, p. 129). Despite these dangers, the swamp was a source of wild game and lucrative timber stores. Much of the swamp itself was interspersed with open agricultural fields as well (Herman, p. 92). Ultimately, however, the swamp and surrounding lands were a limited resource; timbering efforts "removed the greatest cash resource" while farming "sapped the soil of its nutrients and productivity" (Herman, p. 104).

According to probate records, a typical Cypress Swamp plantation in Baltimore Hundred from c.1780-1820 "consisted of a house (usually 20 feet by 18 feet), garden, fenced fields, and no farm buildings of any sort" (Herman, p. 105). The scarcity of agricultural outbuildings is in part explained by the fact that forest trading networks, migrant tenant workers, and the "hierarchical interaction of local society" discouraged outbuilding construction (Herman, p. 105). Generally speaking, large absentee landowners hired out workers to timber their lands in the Cypress Swamp. These day laborers in turn produced rot-resistant cypress shingles in bundles that they left for pick-up at the edge of the swamp. Since much of this work was laborious, dangerous, and paid little, the turnover rate of workers was likely high. Knowing this, absentee landowners had little incentive to provide better housing for their workers, and workers had little to gain in constructing their own permanent dwellings.

Among these early forest plantations, the most common outbuildings were corncribs or small barns (Herman, pp. 105-106). Corncribs were also commonly called "stacks" in rural Sussex County, attesting to the mobility of these structures (Herman, p. 192). Typically, extant corncribs of this era are of log construction "raised on wood or masonry blocks, and covered with shallowly pitched gable roofs" (Herman, p. 107). Farmers are

thought to have shared these corn storage facilities, but little written evidence or material documentation remains (Quinn, p. 85). Barns constructed during this time were usually 15 or 16 feet by 20 feet, “one story high, built of wood, covered with a gable roof over a floored loft, and often enlarged with lean-tos” (Herman, p. 107). Very few of these resources remain intact today, and none are found within the project area along Route 26 from Clarksville to Ocean View. Existing corn houses, corncribs, or small barns constructed during this period (Early Industrialization: 1770-1830 +/-) would be potentially eligible resources for the *National Register of Historic Places* under both Criterion A: broad patterns of historical significance of Cypress Swamp farming, and Criterion C: architectural significance of the corn house/crib and small barn type, or might be potentially eligible as a component of an agricultural complex (See Judith Quinn & Bernard Herman’s *National Register of Historic Places: Eligible Sites in Little Creek and Broad Creek Hundreds, Sussex County, Delaware* nomination for other eligible corn house types within southern Delaware and Bernard Herman’s *The Stolen House*, Chapter Three, “Unfit for Tillage”).

Those early settlers living close to the shore used salt deposits along the coast and the Salt Pond to produce salt for export to Philadelphia and New York in the years prior to the War of 1812 (Scharf, p. 1339). An early salt “factory” operated along the old natural inlet to the Indian River Bay, near Cotton Patch Hills, north of Bethany Beach (Collins & Eby, p. 206). Another salt factory was situated in Fenwick Island, and operated until *circa* 1875 (Clark, p. 29). During the war of 1812, the salt produced at these two locales was transported via ox cart to Philadelphia and sold for \$3.00 a bushel (NSDAR, p. 7). These two early “factories” seem to have manufactured “the Baltimore Hundred supply of salt”; however, these crude works never produced enough salt for export on a large scale after the War of 1812 (Clark, p. 29).

Shipbuilding also existed in Baltimore Hundred near the southern banks of the Indian River (Scharf, p. 1339). Inhabitants established stores, blacksmith shops, tailors, and sail making operations. Although slave ownership among residents declined (due in part to the Anti-Slave Trade Act of 1807, effective January 1, 1808, outlawing the importation of new slaves into the United States), the proportion of African-Americans who were slaves versus those who were free was substantially higher in Baltimore Hundred than in the rest of the county and state ([http://www.lexisnexis.com/academic/guides/african\\_american/slavetrade.htm](http://www.lexisnexis.com/academic/guides/african_american/slavetrade.htm)). In 1810, there were 2,401 slaves living in Sussex County, and 4,177 total slaves in the state (Collins & Eby, p. 205). Topics such as retailing operations, patterns of slave work, and leisure, as well as communal organization, all need to be investigated for Baltimore Hundred during this period.

Prior to the Second Great Awakening during the early nineteenth century, most inhabitants of Baltimore Hundred were Anglicans. As a result of uncertain state boundaries, many citizens traveled to Maryland and remained members of Maryland parishes until the turn of the nineteenth century. Methodism challenged the primacy of the Anglican Church in Sussex County, however. By 1775, one estimate calculated that of the “3,148 Methodists and 19 preachers in America – 40% of them were found on the

Delmarva Peninsula” (Quinn, p. 119). Local camp revival meetings bolstered Methodist membership. These gatherings, led by itinerant Methodist preachers, contributed to the Methodist church membership enrollment rising 120% between 1800 (8,705) and 1805 (18,985) (Quinn, p. 120). What little formal education Baltimore Hundred inhabitants received usually came through these churches and preachers (Collins & Eby, p. 204). More intensive research needs to be conducted into the presence of camp meeting sites and the effect of Methodism in the vicinity of Baltimore Hundred as has been done with Little Creek and Broad Creek Hundreds (See Judith Quinn and Bernard L. Herman’s *National Register of Historic Places: Eligible Sites in Little Creek and Broad Creek Hundreds, Sussex County, Delaware*).

### **Industrialization and Early Urbanization: 1830-1880 +/-**

Settlement during the early-mid nineteenth century mimicked earlier colonial patterns. People preferred to live in non-nucleated patterns away from previously established communities (*See Map 1*). The arrival of the railroad through Sussex County in the 1850s and 1860s, however, forever altered these settlement patterns. The Delaware Railroad, which pushed south to Delmar in 1859, helped connect Sussex County to northern urban communities (Williams, pp. 1-2). Small towns or crossroads proliferated (such as Roxana and Frankford) in response to these rail lines. While these new railroad lines were an improvement over the shallow, shoal-filled bays and atrocious dirt roads in Baltimore Hundred, the rail lines did not bring immediate local prosperity (Carter, p. 8). Instead, these railroads helped to slowly transform the nature of commerce and transportation throughout the Baltimore Hundred area over time (Carter, p. 8).

One of the emergent property types along the Route 26 corridor that typically dates to the period of Industrialization and Early Urbanization is the Agricultural Complex.<sup>1</sup> An Agricultural Complex is composed of a farmstead with one or more dwellings on the property, along with yards, gardens, fences, ditches, wells, and other standing “domestic and agricultural outbuildings” (De Cunzo & Garcia, pp. 234-5). Most Agricultural Complexes from this time period featured vernacular I-house dwelling in which the farm owners is presumed to have lived (*See the discussion which follows concerning I-houses*). Other dwellings such as tenant houses or farm manager houses may have been located on the property which date to this time period, but most are anticipated to have been razed, moved, or deteriorated (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 235). Domestic and agricultural

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<sup>1</sup> The following discussion of the Agricultural Complex property type is derived from Lu Ann De Cunzo and Ann Marie Garcia’s October 1992 *Historic Context: The Archaeology of Agriculture and Rural Life, New Castle and Kent Counties, Delaware, 1830-1940*; this same definition of an Agricultural Complex was used again by De Cunzo & Garcia in their August 1993 report “*Neither a Desert Nor A Paradise*,” *Historic Context For The Archaeology Of Agriculture And Rural Life, Sussex County, Delaware, 1770-1940*. While the original context focused on the northern two-thirds of Delaware, the “social and cultural aspects of farm life” as developed in the report can be refined with modification to Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware area (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. i). In addition, John Bedell’s *Historic Context: The Archaeology of Farm and Rural Dwelling Sites in New Castle and Kent Counties, Delaware 1730-1770 and 1770-1830* (2002) also helped inform, to a lesser degree, the definition of an Agricultural Complex within this report. Meetings with MTA, DeIDOT, and the Delaware SHPO in December 2002 and May 2003 encouraged a focus on the evaluation of agricultural resources functionally, rather than stylistically.



outbuildings such as corn stacks (houses), small barns, sheds, granaries, hay poles, and root houses are also expected features of intact nineteenth century Agricultural Complexes; however, due to their often impermanent nature, weather events, and changes in agricultural technology, few are expected to have survived into the twenty-first century. According to De Cunzo and Garcia, “utilitarian and nonutilitarian spaces and features directly associated with these buildings—landscaped lawns, yards, and gardens; kitchen gardens; work yards; animal pens; wells and other water sources; drives, lanes, and paths; trash and other waste disposal area and features” are all key features spatially to the farmstead plan of Agricultural Complexes (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 235). Agricultural fields, wood lots, marshes, ditches, streams, and orchards are all important natural features of Agricultural Complexes as well, which contribute to the overall setting and feeling of a property (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 235). Agricultural Complexes derive their primary definition and meaning from the function and activities that took place or continue to take place on them; the style and integrity of the dwellings and supporting domestic and agricultural outbuildings play a lesser role in assessing the eligibility of an Agricultural Complex.<sup>2</sup> “Comparative information” is also important to consider when evaluating all property and usage types within this Historic Context for the Route 26 Project (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 47). If an Agricultural Complex (or any other property type) is a “rare surviving example of its type” that may “justify accepting a greater degree of alteration or fewer features” (provided that “enough of the property survives for it to be a significant resource”), then that resource may be considered eligible because it may be one of a few examples that is able to “convey its historic character or information” along the Route 26 corridor in Baltimore Hundred (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 47).

Physical characteristics are, therefore, only a part of the entire Agricultural Complex. “Associative characteristics,” such as documentary research, tax assessment records, probate and Orphans’ Court records, deeds, wills, maps and atlases, oral histories, and published and unpublished primary history sources, are also needed to substantiate the significance of Agricultural Complexes (De Cunzo and Garcia, p. 236). These sources are vital to document the agricultural production of significant Agricultural Complexes under Criterion A: “association with one or more events important in the defined historic context” (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 12). If an Agricultural Complex meets all the above criteria, and is able to effectively and completely convey association “with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history,” then it may be eligible for listing in the *National Register of Historic Places* as an Agricultural Complex under Criterion A (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 12).<sup>3</sup> In cases where the integrity of the entire Agricultural Complex has been

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<sup>2</sup> As noted earlier, this idea to evaluate the National Register eligibility of Agricultural Complexes is derived from email from Gwenyth Davis to Mike Hahn dated March 27, 2003 (as forwarded to Jennifer Horner on March 31, 2003) “Re: SR 26 Planning Study – CRS comments.”

<sup>3</sup> As De Cunzo and Garcia noted, Agricultural Complexes typically evolved over time, and changed with the needs of the occupants and agricultural technology. Therefore, Agricultural Complexes will continue to be a defining property type for the period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization: 1880-1940 +/- that follows.

compromised due to demolition, infill, development, individual components of the Complex – such as the main farm house – Agricultural Complexes may be eligible for individual listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criterion C if the building or structure represents “the work of a master,” “possesses high artistic value,” “embodies distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction” or which represents “a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction” (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 17).

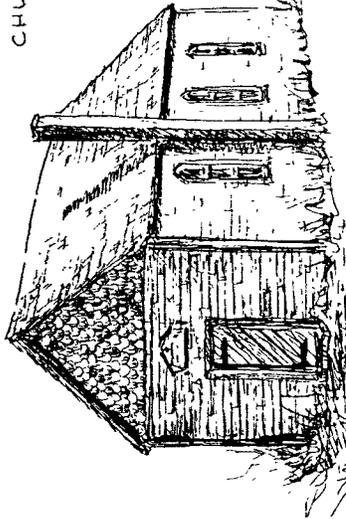
The arrival of the railroad during the period of Industrialization and Early Urbanization helped continue what came to be known as the I-house form in Baltimore Hundred.<sup>4</sup> I-houses are usually found on Agricultural Complexes; are two and one-half stories in height; one or two rooms deep; three, four, or five bays in width; and feature a side-gable roofline. While the I-house existed in pre-railroad America, especially in regions of the Tidewater South where traditional British folk forms persisted, rail lines helped provide cheap, plentiful lumber to areas once limited by water transportation routes, which helped continue the popularity of the familiar, side-gable house form (McAlester, p. 96). Railroads also helped disseminate changing stylistic trends and urban news to the rural inhabitants of Baltimore Hundred. Affluent local farmers could now add stylistic details to make their simple, side-gabled dwellings appear fashionable, as they were no longer restricted exclusively to local building materials and customs (McAlester, pp. 96, 89). Existing I-houses were altered during the post-railroad era to include front and side porches, chimneys, and rearward ell extensions, and vernacular Gothic Revival and Italianate details as their owners saw fit (McAlester, p. 96). Some earlier side-gable houses featured Greek Revival style elements, such as a lower-pitched gable roofline, with wide cornice lines with boxed returns and six-pane glazed windows, while other later dwellings exhibited hints of Italianate influences with slightly overhanging eaves supported by decorative brackets, and single, tall, narrow, arched windows (McAlester, p. 178, 210; *See Plate 1*; S-9746 is an example of a side-gable house with Greek Revival influences). In rural areas along the present-day Route 26 corridor, architectural styles such as vernacular Greek Revival, Italianate and Gothic Revival continued long past their popularity in urban centers. Local residents opted to selectively adapt elements from popular styles in their own vernacular housing forms long after they were out of vogue in cities. Defining characteristics of two and one-half story, single and double pile, side-gabled houses (I-house) built after the railroad arrived in Sussex County include dwellings that are two and one-half stories in height, three to five bays in width, and one or two rooms deep, typically with a center stair or passage (Bucher, p. 244).

Potentially eligible I-house resources may exhibit original two-over-two or six-over-six wood frame windows, wood shake or clapboard exterior siding (likely produced locally

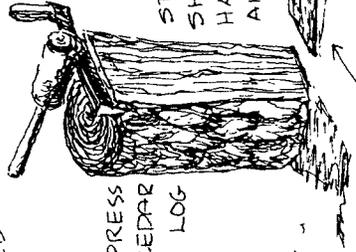
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<sup>4</sup> Note: the term “I-house” will be used interchangeably with the two and one-half story, three, four or five bay, side-gable building form in the discussion which follows. Virginia & Lee McAlester’s *A Field Guide to American Houses* (2000) section on “Folk Houses – National” (pages 88-101) helped provide a description of I-houses in the which will be used to assess National Register eligibility along the Route 26 APE.

CHRIST SANCTIFIED CHURCH

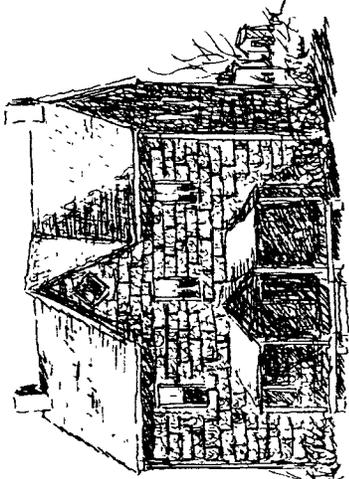


CYPRESS OR CEDAR LOG

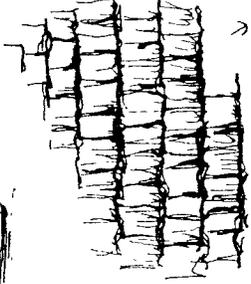
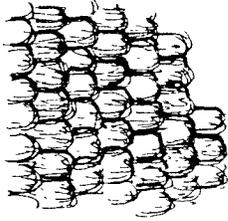


SPPLITTING SHINGLES WITH HAND MAUL OR FROW AND FROE OR FROW

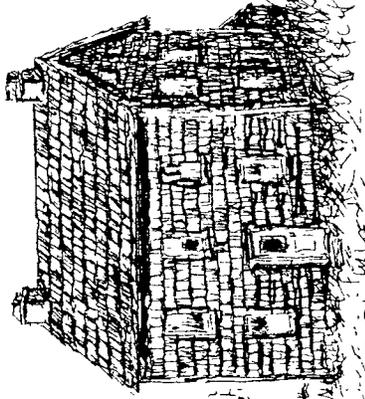
HOME OF SEA CAPTAIN NATHANIEL EVANS BUILT IN 1840



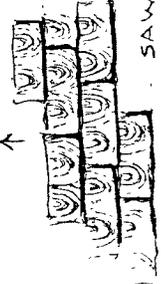
SHINGLES OR "SHAKES" WERE FINISHED BY USING A DRAW KNIFE.



OCEAN VIEW HOME AND OUT BUILDINGS



SAWED SHINGLES IMPORTED FROM ENGLAND



FARM HOUSE

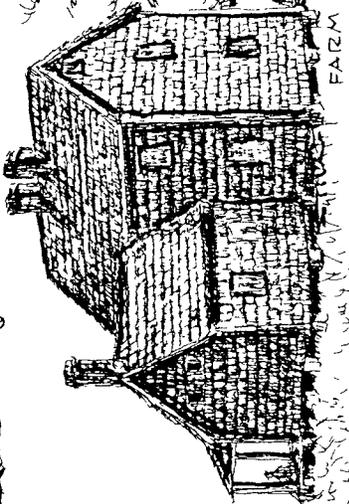


Illustration of Architectural Styles in Baltimore Hundred  
Nancy Sawin and Janice Carper  
Delaware Sketch Book: An Historic Experience  
Holly Press, 1976

in Baltimore Hundred from cypress from the nearby Cypress Swamp), brick interior or exterior corbelled chimneys, and side-gable frame roofs.<sup>5</sup> Eligible I-houses may or may not have exterior side or front porches or rear or side ell additions, depending upon their original form and function and evolving usage over time. Screened-in porches are acceptable on I-houses; however, infilled porches that date after the Period of Significance may potentially render a resource ineligible. Vinyl or aluminum exterior siding is acceptable, provided that the original exterior materials remain beneath. Replacement windows are acceptable too if the building retains its original fenestration. A two and one-half story, three to five bay, single or double pile side-gable house should also ideally exhibit integrity of location, setting, design, feeling, association, materials and workmanship in order to be considered individually eligible for the *National Register of Historic Places*. Unsympathetic additions that obscure the original side-gable I-house form, exterior alterations, changes in historical acreage, and visual intrusions caused by new development could potentially render an I-house of this time period an ineligible resource. Physical features of an I-house “must be visible enough to convey [their] significance” – even if “a property is physically intact, its integrity is questionable if its significant features are concealed under modern construction” (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 46). Two and one-half story side-gable dwellings along the Route 26 vicinity from Clarksville to Ocean View are frequently a component of a larger Agricultural Complex, and as such, should also retain significance as an intact part of a farmstead. In this instance, side-gabled, two and one-half story houses may be considered a significant component of an Agricultural Complex, reflective of local trends in Baltimore Hundred agriculture, such as corn farming (Sheppard et al., pp. iv-vi). Side-gable I-house buildings that retain integrity and are a part of a significant agricultural complex meeting the above criteria would be eligible for nomination to the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion A: broad patterns of history/railroad development/Baltimore Hundred agriculture, and/or Criterion C: architectural types/vernacular side-gable, two and one-half story (I-house) form.

I-houses are also seen along the Route 26 corridor with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing, such as a cross-gable.<sup>6</sup> The Gothic Revival style was popular especially in rural areas, as it was an architectural form that was “compatible with the natural landscape,” with stylistic details (such as multiple gables and full-width porches) that were particularly well-suited for large lots and pre-existing dwellings, such as I-houses (Herman, p. 139). Steeply pitched roofs, frequently pierced with cross gables and decorated with vergeboard, along with pointed-arch windows and full-width one-story porches all characterize vernacular Gothic Revival structures (McAlester, p. 197). Frequently, these modified I-house dwellings are symmetrical in feeling with an open-rake, open-eave roofline, feature two-over-two double-hung sash windows, bay windows,

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<sup>5</sup> I-houses are also found with other forms of architectural detailing, such as Italianate or Gothic Revival elements. See the discussion of I-houses with vernacular Gothic Revival exterior detailing.

<sup>6</sup> The I-house with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing is distinguished within this report because of the great number of resources seen along the Route 26 corridor that can be categorized as this architectural property type. All resources which exhibit the basic I-house form (even with different exterior stylistic characteristics) will be evaluated using the same basic I-house criteria on pages 10-11).

or false shaping details surrounding rectangular windows (McAlester, p. 199). The Gothic Revival style was popular in rural areas from c.1840, when Andrew Jackson Downing first published his *Cottage Residences* (1842) pattern book, until c.1885, when the resurgence for the style faded after English critic John Ruskin's designs waned in popularity (McAlester, p. 200). It is likely, however, given the popularity of the Gothic Revival style in rural areas that it lingered on well into the twentieth century in the Baltimore Hundred vicinity. An example of an I-house with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing within the Route 26 Project corridor is the M. C. Webb House in Clarksville (S-2484).

Eligible individual, cross-gabled, I-houses with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing should exhibit integrity of setting, design, location, feeling, association, materials and workmanship, and be free of additions which date after the Period of Significance for the dwelling. Often, extant side-gable houses (I-houses) from the early nineteenth century were altered with the placement of a cross-gable or pointed arch windows to appear Gothic Revival in style. Since the essential feel of vernacular I-house dwellings with Gothic Revival detailing depended upon the emotion and mood they were supposed to evoke from the onlooker, eligible I-houses with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing should retain some sense of their rural feeling and landscaping, as well as original exterior wood shingles or vertical board-and-batten siding (even if obscured by modern replacement vinyl or aluminum siding). Like potentially eligible I-houses, eligible I-house dwellings with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing should retain their original wood-frame full-width front façade porches (these porches may be enclosed with screens, but infill is unacceptable), pointed arch windows (or two-over-two, double-hung wood sash windows; if these original windows are not present, then the original fenestration should remain), dormers, and other wood decorations (if they were present originally during the dwelling's Period of Significance). While Bernard Herman notes that the Gothic Revival style was "utilized at varying degrees of intensity, often appearing as greatly simplified embellishments, such as the centrally placed cross gable...applied to traditional house forms," eligible I-house resources with vernacular Gothic Revival detailing should still nonetheless retain cross-gable(s), and be three to five bays in width and two and one-half stories in height, with corbelled interior or exterior chimneys (Herman, p. 150). Resources meeting the above criteria would be potentially eligible for consideration individually to the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion C: architectural significance/vernacular I-house Gothic Revival form; or may be considered an integral component in a significant Agricultural Complex under Criterion A: agricultural trends/practices for Baltimore Hundred.

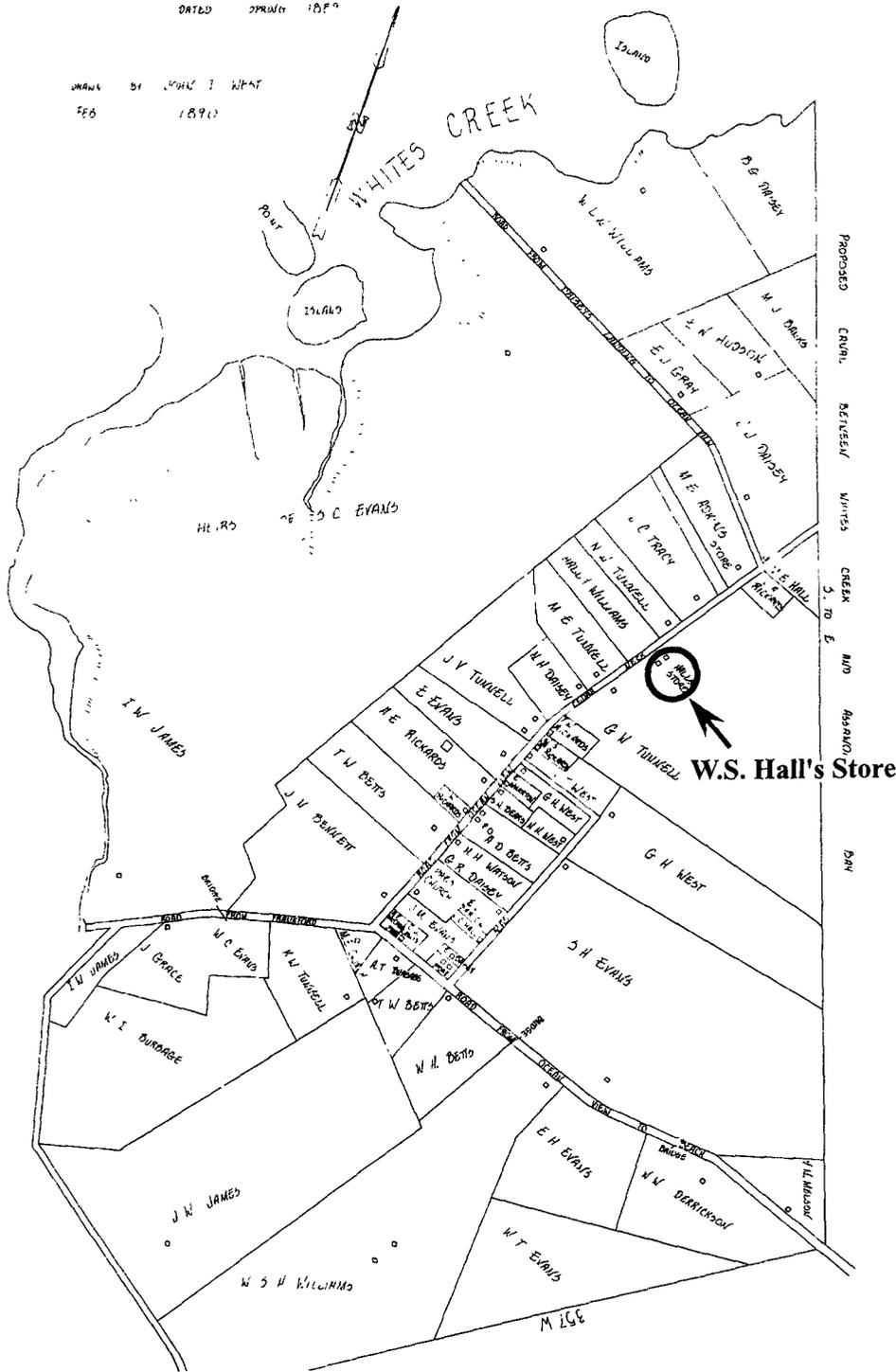
Along a portion of the former Middlesex tract near White Creek, W. S. Hall opened a store on his farm (*Ocean View: Our Hometown*, 1997; **See Map 2**). United States Postal Service records indicate the area became known as Hall's Store by 1833, and included portions of what is now known as Cedar Neck (NSDAR, p. 25; U.S. Postal Service, *Record of Appointment of Postmasters*, Volume 9, c.1832-1843, Sussex County, DE). A post-office was established there in 1822, and shortly thereafter a small community of farmers, watermen and seamen took root (*Ocean View: Our Hometown*, 1997). Hall's Store was officially re-named Ocean View just a few years after the Civil War (1870) in

THE TOWN OF OCEAN VIEW

COPIED AUGUST 11 1970  
BY KATHARINE TUNNEL THOMPSON  
COPYED SEPT 14 1983  
BY [unclear]

SHOWN IN RED INK  
DATED APRIL 1890

DRAWN BY JOHN T. WEST  
FEB 1890



N

Not to Scale

Map of the Town of Oceanview

February 1890

Drawn by John T. West

Delaware Public Archives,

Hall of Records

recognition of its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean (Alotta, p. 293). Around 1881, mail was received in Ocean View about three times per week via stagecoach from Georgetown, driven by a local, Mr. William Betts (Pepper, p. 30). On April 13, 1889, sea captain George W. West became the first elected town council president of the newly incorporated village. Captain W. Tunnel later replaced George West as town council president (*Ocean View: Our Hometown*, 1997).

Around this same time, the community of Clarksville was also established. In 1850, Peleg W. Helm opened a store in present-day Clarksville (what is presumed to be this “store” is shown on the 1868 Pomeroy & Beers *Atlas of the State of Delaware*, **See Map 3**), and a few years later a post office was organized (However, the U.S. Postal Service *Record of Appointment of Postmasters* does not list a salaried postmaster in Clarksville until Charles S. Richards petitioned for a post office in 1893). Clarksville reputedly is named in honor of Gideon Clark, an early pioneer living in the vicinity during the nineteenth century. By the turn of the twentieth century, Clarksville was a small community of 225 to 250 residents, most of whom were likely engaged in some form of agriculture (U.S. Postal Service, *Post Office Department Report of Site Locations*, 1893).

Ditching and dredging efforts continued in earnest throughout Baltimore Hundred in the nineteenth century. The Beaver Dam Ditch Company was formally incorporated on February 23, 1865 (Scharf, p. 1342). Land reclamation occurred in the vicinity of the Cypress Swamp, and the introduction of lime and manure as fertilizers benefited agriculture. The conclusion of the Civil War heralded the expansion of peach orchards in southern Delaware, and strawberries were grown in large quantities in northern Baltimore Hundred by the 1870s (Collins & Eby, p. 207). Limited by reliance on animal power, a scarcity of navigable inland water routes, and little available capital, farming efforts languished in comparison to enterprises in New Castle County, Delaware.

The canning industry started in the Delmarva region around 1840 (Doerrfeld, p. 1). Initially, the canning of fruits such as peaches dominated the fledgling industry. By the 1870s and 1880s, the advent of new technology such as large pressure cookers (retorts), coupled with the mechanized harvest of crops, led to a boom of diversification in the canning industry (Doerrfeld, p. 11). While canning enterprises temporarily benefited the economy, “cannery operations exploited regional labor sources, established a monopolistic control over agricultural producers, and closed plants as soon as profits declined” (Doerrfeld, p. 1). While canneries were significant because they provided jobs for “many out-of-work farm laborers and their families,” they did little to stimulate “community development” (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 27). Canneries significantly altered the structure of Delaware’s agricultural economy, controlling almost a tenth of the state’s productive farmland and the lives of thousands of workers (Doerrfeld, p. 1). In 1890 alone, almost 6,000 acres of land in Sussex County was devoted strictly to cultivating tomatoes (Hancock, p. 100). While a tomato cannery operated in Ocean View near the Assawoman Canal (near the junction of West Avenue and Atlantic Avenue/Route 26) during the late nineteenth century, it burned down some time in the early- to mid-twentieth century, and was never rebuilt (NSDAR, p. 25). More intensive research needs to be undertaken to determine the degree to which canneries impacted the lives and



structures owned by Baltimore Hundred residents, and why, as De Cunzo and Garcia state, canneries did not “stimulate community development” (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 27). Milling operations were important to Baltimore Hundred inhabitants. Throughout the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, gristmills in Baltimore and Dagsboro Hundreds “were essential to (an economic) system that emphasized corn production” (Bodo & Geurrant, Section 8, page 6). Early gristmills were designed to grind corn meal for local residents. During the Civil War, local farmers benefited from high grain prices (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 30). By the mid-to-late nineteenth century, these small local mills went out of business due to competition from large steam-powered mills in burgeoning railroad hubs such as Frankford, and the large-scale mid-western production of grain (Bodo & Geurrant, Section 8, page 6). Around 1850, there were two water-powered gristmills in Baltimore Hundred – but by 1880, competition had forced both of these mills to close (Bodo & Geurrant, Section 8, page 6).

In southeastern Sussex County, forests were composed primarily of soft pine tree varieties (Kalkstein, p. 125). Pine trees flourished in the sandy coastal regions, displacing other hardwood species in the lower canopy (Kalkstein, p. 125). Fast-growing pine trees like *Pinus taeda* supplied hundreds of thousands of yards of merchantable lumber annually for Baltimore Hundred mills (Kalkstein, p. 126). Bald cypress trees were also found in the great Cypress Swamp, as were red maples, which provided necessary hardwood for regional consumption (Kalkstein, pp. 120-121). Sawmill operations also grew around Baltimore Hundred, reflecting the growth of the timbering industry. Steam-powered saw mills in Selbyville, Frankford, and along the Assawoman Creek were established in response to the Hundred’s timber output. The extension of the Delaware Railroad in 1868 and the Junction and Breakwater Railroad line in 1869 (these two lines later combined into the Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia Railroad in 1883) encouraged mills and lumber production. While steam power forced water-powered mills to close in Baltimore Hundred after c.1870, by 1880, there were five operational steam-powered lumber mills in Baltimore and Dagsboro Hundreds (Bodo & Geurrant, Section 8, page 6).

Since shipyards required direct access to a deep riverbank, milled timber, and a labor source, Baltimore Hundred was uniquely positioned for shipbuilding activities. Ships had been built along the banks of the Nanticoke River since the first days of European settlement, and had gradually increased in size, power and complexity over time (Marvil, p. 16). Delaware State Directories listed two shipyards at Millsboro and one near Hall’s Store (present-day Ocean View), known as “Pennewell’s Landing” in the nineteenth century (Collins & Eby, p. 206). The Civil War helped to stimulate construction at shipyards around Baltimore Hundred (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 30). Over fifty sawmills operated in the vicinity of the Indian River Bay to meet the lumber needs of these shipyards (Collins & Eby, p. 206). After the Civil War, however, local shipbuilding efforts slowed due to the development of steamboat technology (Collins & Eby, p. 206).

Since sea trade was such an integral component of the southern Delaware economy, navigation aids were improved during this era. The Fenwick Island Lighthouse was

constructed in 1857, and numerous ice piers were also built to make navigating the Delaware Bay less treacherous in the winter and spring months.

More research needs to be conducted to determine the effect of the shipbuilding and timbering industries upon the architecture of Baltimore Hundred residences and related agricultural outbuildings.

### **Urbanization and Early Suburbanization: 1880-1940 +/-**

Even throughout the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, inhabitants in Baltimore Hundred clung to historic settlement patterns and gravitated toward rural, agricultural pursuits. Many locals kept one foot “firmly planted in the eighteenth century” as conservative attitudes and agricultural practices persisted in southeastern Delaware well into the twentieth century (Williams, p. 95). The one limited exception to this pattern occurred as communities grew around transportation routes, forming small, linear roadside towns. The advent and affordability of the automobile, coupled with an improved highway system, prompted the development of truck farming. Paved roadways facilitated the timely transport of perishable fruits such as strawberries to urban markets, along with poultry. Ultimately, the development of the commercial broiler industry proved to be “one of the most significant events in the evolution of Delaware commercial agriculture” that helped replace waning maritime interests (Herman & Lanier, p. 238-239).

Delaware was centrally located in what was known as the “Middle Atlantic Trucking Region” during the 1920s (Doerrfeld, p. 11). In excess of 900 miles long, this region extended from the coast of Maine southward to the Low Country of South Carolina (Doerrfeld, p. 11). Averaging only 50 miles in width, this truck farming corridor owed its existence to three factors: the string of large cities and towns situated on the east coast which served as ready markets, soils ideally suited for the cultivation of fruits and vegetables, and the “mild, semi-marine climate, having long frost-free seasons” due to the regulating effects of the Atlantic Ocean (Doerrfeld, p. 11). In 1924, the du Pont Highway (or U.S. Route 13 and U.S. Route 113) was constructed; this roadway functioned as a vital north-south transportation artery for the state and further enhanced Delaware’s truck farming economy (Williams, p. 112; Federal Writers’ Project, p. 81). As Coleman du Pont’s desire for a “road of the future” matured into fruition, and the State Highway Department was established by a 1917 session of the Legislature, the state of Delaware was positioned for commercial growth (Federal Writers’ Project, pp. 80-81). By c.1920, improved roadways meant that strawberries could be picked “in the early morning, loaded into crates and packed for market by midday and be in Philadelphia and New York by evening, there to be sent to retail stores in time for the next morning’s contingent of shoppers” (Collins & Eby, p. 207). Crops such as strawberries, apples, sweet potatoes, corn and tomatoes were grown in southeastern Delaware, but peaches, which had been a boon to many Sussex County farmers in the 1860s, were decimated by disease in the early 1890s (Doerrfeld, p. 11). During the 1890s, the canning industry likewise shifted focus away from peaches to the canning of tomatoes, corn, and peas (Doerrfeld, p. 11). The invention of the sanitary can and associated processing equipment

rendered the hand-made can of the nineteenth century obsolete (Doerrfeld, p. 11). By the 1940s, the advent of frozen foods supplanted the popularity of canned goods, and many canneries heeded the capitalist imperative and closed by the end of World War II when profits evaporated (Doerrfeld, p. 1).

Railroad lines passing through the region to the west, coupled with the expansion of paved highways in the twentieth century also promoted growth of the egg and poultry industries (Collins & Eby, p. 207).<sup>7</sup> While many local farmers had previously been engaged in egg production, it suddenly became profitable to raise and dress broiler chickens for delivery to New York City and Philadelphia. Broiler chicken production rose to unprecedented levels during this time period, and was a savior for the local and state economy during the Great Depression of the 1930s.

While Cecile Long Steele, a housewife from Ocean View, is credited for having “created” the broiler chicken industry in Baltimore Hundred in 1923, the industry had started on a much smaller scale several years earlier. By c.1917, “virtually every farm wife had her flock of laying hens” to augment family income (Collins & Eby, p. 207). Despite the fact that Baltimore Hundred’s chicken flock was hard hit in the mid-1920s by “range paralysis,” commercial egg and broiler farms continued to grow (Williams, p. 9). Word of Cecile Long Steele’s success in raising chickens “exclusively for sale as broilers” spread quickly throughout Baltimore Hundred and the Delmarva Peninsula (Herman & Chase, extracted from Gabrielle Lanier & Bernard Herman’s *A Field Guide to Delaware Architecture*, pp. 237-241). By 1928, Delaware’s annual poultry production grew from “two million broilers [in 1928] to sixty million in 1944” (Williams, p. 121). The broiler chicken industry that the Steeles had created prompted many downstate farmers to expand their field acreage of corn and also start cultivating drought-resistant soybeans for chicken feed (Williams, p. 122). Physically, the landscape of southern Delaware changed as well from the poultry industry. Long, one-story chicken houses began to hug the flat landscape, and tall vertical storage towers were built by agribusinessmen “to process corn and soybean into mash for chickens” (Williams, p. 122). The move to broilers also meant a decrease in truck farming in many areas, and the decreased profitability of canning operations in the region (Williams, p. 122). Not only had a fungus disease ravaged many important income-producing truck crops such as strawberries and tomatoes c.1920, but a drop in the salinity levels of the Indian River Bay decimated the bay’s shellfish population (Krajewski, p. 3). The burgeoning commercial broiler industry was therefore an ideal solution for Baltimore Hundred farmers looking for new, stable, renewable forms of income.

The rapidly increasing demand for chickens meant that many relatively poor farmers could get rich virtually overnight (Williams, p. 122). The broiler chicken industry flourished in Baltimore Hundred for a variety of reasons, chief among which were the

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<sup>7</sup> Before 1917, Sussex County in total had less than 35 miles of paved roadway. By 1924, Coleman du Pont’s “revolutionary concrete highway” – Route 113 – ran the entire length of the state of Delaware and “provided new economic opportunities,” especially for farmers (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 31). See Lu Ann De Cunzo & Ann Marie Garcia’s *Neither A Desert Nor A Paradise:” Historic Context For The Archaeology of Agriculture And Rural Life, Sussex County, Delaware, 1770-1940* (August 1993).

temperate climate, cheap building, labor and overhead costs (especially for heating fuel), readily available credit for financing, close proximity to markets, and a porous soil which provided for good drainage and aided in disease control (Tomhave, p. 131). Although the average farm size declined in Sussex County (from an average of 123 acres in 1880 to an average of 78 acres in 1930) along with the percentage of land used for farming activities, many farmers were able to take advantage of agricultural and technological changes and increase their own revenues (Callahan, n.pag.; Herman & Lanier, p. 7). Tenant farming increased during this period as well, with “over 50% of Delaware’s farmers being tenants or sharecroppers” around 1900 (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 31). High levels of farm tenancy continued throughout the region well into the twentieth century (De Cunzo & Garcia, p. 31). With this monetary windfall, many larger Baltimore Hundred farmers constructed new family farmhouses and agricultural outbuildings, altered their existing homes, or moved older housing stock to their properties for tenant residences.

Agricultural outbuildings responded to the changes that were occurring in Baltimore Hundred farming practices. Delaware farmers realized that the small, wooden chicken houses present on their farmsteads from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were not practical for the large scale production of eggs and meat demanded by urban markets (*Delaware Aglands Exhibit*, p. 15). Initially, broiler houses were small, square, one-story wood frame buildings that would feature a shed roof and house about 500 chickens (Herman, p. 218). Originally brooder houses, these early broiler houses were set apart from one another so as to prevent the spread of diseases (Tomhave, p. 133). Warmed by the heat of a coal cook stove, fed from wooden troughs, and watered by hand, broiler chickens got along well in their uncomplicated environment (Herman, p. 218). Some chicken colony houses were small (6x8, 8x8, or 8x12), one-story wood weatherboard structures with a shed roof that were essentially built like sleds, capable of being moved closer to the farmhouse during the winter, and to fresh pastures in the summer (Sawin, p. 52).

However, as the poultry industry grew in size and complexity, so did chicken housing. Agricultural journals from the early twentieth century urged poultry farmers to build new structures situated near other outbuildings that shielded the hatchlings from extreme temperatures and possessed good air circulation (Herman, p. 219). During the first three decades of the twentieth century, chicken houses “continued a design tradition of being lightly framed buildings with shed or shallow asymmetrical gable-roofs” (Herman, p. 219). In 1928, the first long broiler house made its appearance and soon gained popularity (Tomhave, p. 133). By the 1930s and early 1940s, these structures were “long, low, ground-hugging buildings with small, two-story structures in the center that included second-story ‘chicken house apartments’” for hired tenants (Herman, p. 219). Typically 20 or 24 feet wide and variable in length (usually 400 to 500 feet), these second-story apartments afforded chicken farmers a cost-effective and accessible place for their tenants to live (Herman, p. 219; Tomhave, p. 133). Conglomerates like Allen Family Foods and Townsends purchased larger chicken complexes such as these prior to WWII (Herman, p. 220). Few of these chicken houses exist today due to changes in poultry practices, the increasing use of automated watering and feeding devices, hurricanes, and the popularity of wider (40 to 60 feet) broiler houses (Herman, p. 212).

After World War II, many chicken house workers who once lived in these second story apartments found better jobs elsewhere, with improved housing conditions (Krajewski, p. 17). Technological changes in poultry production made numerous jobs obsolete, as many processes were automated, requiring less human attention. Hurricane Hazel hit the Delmarva Peninsula in 1954, and further revolutionized chicken house design. Since many of these early chicken houses were “not thought to be permanent structures and were usually built of lesser quality materials,” Hurricane Hazel’s devastating winds and rain destroyed scores of older chicken houses (Krajewski, p. 10). Many farmers in the rebuilding process decided to modernize their poultry operations, and utilize new chicken house plans sent by local extension agents of the federal government and the University of Delaware’s Agricultural Experiment Station to increase their farming efficiency (Krajewski, p. 21). Farmers, who were before unwilling or financially unable to modernize their operations, thus constructed new, modern, efficient, stable and sanitary poultry facilities (such as the clear span broiler house) during the post-Hurricane Hazel era (Krajewski, p. 22).

New (1880 – 1940 +/-, Urbanization and Early Suburbanization) and existing (1830 – 1880 +/-, Industrialization and Early Urbanization) Agricultural Complexes along the Route 26 APE from Ocean View to Clarksville were deeply influenced by the poultry industry in the first and second quarters of the twentieth century. As discussed earlier, many farm wives had been raising small flocks of chickens since the mid-to-late nineteenth century to supply their families with eggs and meat. After the explosion of the broiler industry, led by the Steeles in Ocean View in the 1920s, farmhouses, along with agricultural and domestic outbuildings, began to change. Grain/corn farming continued on many farmsteads; however, corn was now typically being grown for chicken feed rather than for human consumption or export. As such, corn cribs (or “stacks”) from the nineteenth century were moved around farms, and were used to store grain. An example of an early twentieth century corn house moved to an agricultural complex is seen on the Pearl G. Robinson Property (S-9121). Small equipment sheds, granaries, small barns, and chicken houses are all individual anticipated Agricultural Property Types within these Baltimore Hundred Agricultural Complexes, as are modified I-houses with Colonial and Gothic Revival exterior stylistic elements that helped form the hub of many farmsteads along Route 26.

Existing Agricultural Complexes from the period of Industrialization and Early Urbanization 1830-1880 +/- were modified as a result of the exploding broiler industry during the time of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization (1880 – 1940 +/-) along the Route 26 corridor. Pre- and post-railroad I-houses typically underwent modifications in the twentieth century; some older housing was torn-down to make way for newer housing forms such as bungalows after the turn of the twentieth century (*See discussion of the bungalow type which follows*). A wide variety of extant agricultural outbuildings helps contribute to the overall significance of an Agricultural Complex, illustrates changing farming practices over time, and serves as a tangible reminder of the many different agricultural pursuits in which Baltimore Hundred farmers were engaged. The presence of newer agricultural outbuildings does not necessarily hurt the overall integrity of an

Agricultural Complex, provided that other structures are found intact on the property that date to the Period of Significance of the overall Complex. Adapting the criteria first used in August 1998 by the Center for Historic Architecture and Design (CHAD) at the University of Delaware for their evaluation of farm complexes for the Delaware Agricultural Lands Preservation Foundation (DALPF), as well as using the Agricultural Complex property type first developed in De Cunzo and Garcia's *Historic Context: The Archaeology of Agriculture and Rural Life, New Castle and Kent Counties, Delaware 1830-1940*, Agricultural Complexes found along the Route 26 project area potentially eligible for the *National Register of Historic Places* should retain both integrity and significance as a farmstead.<sup>8</sup> Broadly, farm houses should retain integrity of materials, design, feeling and workmanship, and should exhibit their original building form, in spite of modern additions or alterations (Sheppard, et al., p. v). Intact Agricultural Complexes achieve significance under Criterion A for their ability to convey information or exhibit trends concerning Delaware's agricultural development. For the purposes of this evaluation, Agricultural Complexes along the Route 26 APE from Ocean View to Clarksville merit consideration under Criterion A: broiler industry/agriculture and/or Criterion C: architectural significance if the original fenestration and massing of a farmhouse remains, the positioning of agricultural structures in relation to the farmhouse is intact, open space around the farm is seen, or is currently being used for cultivation, and if the complex is able to sufficiently convey a sense and feeling of the "full landscape" of the broiler industry or another significant agricultural pursuit as discussed in this context (such as corn or strawberry farming) (Siders, et al., p. 11, 21, 30-31). In order to be recommended eligible under Criterion A, an Agricultural Complex needs to exhibit a relationship between agricultural structures and buildings that adds something new or significant to the Historic Context of agricultural development to Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, the State of Delaware, or to national agricultural trends within its Period of Significance as a farmstead. If a particular property lacks overall significance and integrity as a farmstead, individual property types may be eligible for inclusion separately in the *National Register of Historic Places* (See the following discussion of individual agricultural property types).<sup>9</sup>

Potentially eligible chicken houses for the *National Register of Historic Places* constructed between 1880-1953 should ideally exhibit one of the forms discussed above, including: the early colony house (6x8, 8x8, or 8x12, often movable on sleds); the continuous house (20x80 or 25x200-25x1000, later examples with or without second story apartments); chicken houses with second story apartments (20x400-500); and pre-WWII multi-story chicken houses. Eligible chicken houses should retain integrity of setting, design, feeling, association, materials and workmanship – since these chicken houses were routinely moved, bought and sold, a chicken house need not necessarily possess integrity of original location. In fact, one local historian noted in 1978 that

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<sup>8</sup> Please reference the earlier discussion of Agricultural Complexes during the period of Industrialization and early Urbanization: 1830 – 1880 +/- on pages 18-20 for additional information.

<sup>9</sup> The following agricultural property types are defined primarily on the basis of their architectural form, rather than usage. This discussion was included for instances where a particular Agricultural Complex may not be eligible, but individual structures may be individually exceptional, and therefore should be considered for listing in the National Register under Criterion C.

“frequently individuals buy old garages or barns, rig up some wheels, and set forth across flat Sussex County to give these buildings new life in another location” (Tanzer, p. 44). The relatively light wood framing of many of these chicken houses, coupled with the flat landscape of southeastern Delaware and the availability of movers meant that chicken houses and other small agricultural buildings were routinely relocated from one farm to another (Tanzer, p. 44).<sup>10</sup> A potentially eligible chicken house agricultural property type needs to be free of later additions and exterior alterations, of frame construction with a dirt floor, and ideally still used in some form of its intended agricultural capacity. Since surviving pre-1954 chicken houses are becoming rare along coastal areas in southeast Delaware due to changing technological needs for specific building types, weather events (such as Hurricane Hazel), tourism, and suburban development, preservation of these chicken houses is vital (Krajewski, pp. 9, 11). Extant chicken houses meeting the above criteria would be potentially eligible resources to the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion A: broad historical patterns of agriculture/poultry production, and Criterion C: architectural significance as frame chicken house types. Chicken houses are also frequently significant components of Agricultural Complexes, and as such, may be considered potentially eligible individually, or as an integral structure of a potentially eligible Agricultural Complex. The Campbell Farm (S-9771) features an example of an early colony chicken house, as well as a modern continuous-span chicken house.

Another anticipated agricultural property type found within Agricultural Complexes along the Route 26 corridor in Baltimore Hundred is the small barn, typically associated with light residential agricultural usage during the period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization (1880 – 1940 +/-). These structures are usually one to one and one-half stories in height, roughly twenty by twenty feet and feature a steeply pitched, front-gable roof. Frequently, these structures have exposed rafter overhangs (with or without extended rooflines), are of frame construction, and have wood shingle, clapboard, or vertical wood weatherboard exteriors. Some of these small barns feature side façade wood and glazed pedestrian entries, while others only possess a front sliding wood weatherboard vehicular door. Specific types of small barns found along Baltimore Hundred, Route 26 corridor include gable-front barns, crib barns, and mixed-use barns. Gable-front barns are characterized by a gable-end front, and a wide, central work area with overhead lofts flanked by elongated storage spaces (Herman, p. 189). Gable-front barns were often used for grain storage and feature earthen-floored interiors (Herman, pp. 189-190). An example of a gable-front barn within the Route 26 Project corridor is the gable-front barn found on the Mattie Powell House property (S-2425). Crib barns, by contrast, are the most common extant late nineteenth century farm buildings (Herman, p. 203). One story in height, and usually with a front-gable roof, the crib barn is divided into three basic units (Herman, p. 203). Vehicular runways, corn or grain cribs, and loft grain bins are the defining characteristics of crib barns, which were built on a much smaller scale in southern Delaware than elsewhere in the Delmarva peninsula (Herman, p. 204). Lastly, mixed-use barns were popular for farmers “tilling less profitable lands or

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<sup>10</sup> While chicken houses were moved, bought and sold frequently from farm to farm, if a chicken house has been moved, Criteria Consideration B: Moved Properties must apply to the resource. Please reference the *National Register Bulletin: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (1997) pp. 29-31 for more information.

maintaining less specialized farming operations” (Herman, p. 209). These single-story, gable-front structures typically convey the careful definition of space common in late Victorian farmsteads (Herman, p. 211). Mixed-use barns provided storage for farm implements, wagons, plows, as well as draft animals, feed, and grain storage (Herman, p. 211). Today, many of these small barn structures have been converted into vehicular garages and storage spaces.

Small barns which are potentially eligible for the *National Register of Historic Places* as agricultural property types should retain integrity of setting, design, feeling, association, materials and workmanship, but need not always convey the original integrity of location, as small barns were sometimes moved from one farm to another. Potentially eligible small barn resources should be free of unsympathetic twentieth and twenty-first century additions, constructed between c.1880-1940, and exhibit the gable-front barn, crib-barn, or mixed-use barn forms discussed above. Since agricultural outbuildings speak volumes about former agricultural practices and building preferences, small barns meeting the above criteria would be potentially eligible (either alone or as a part of a larger Agricultural Complex) for the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion A: broad historical patterns of southern Delaware agriculture, and potentially Criterion C: architecture significance for the crib, mixed-use, or gable-front barns.

Residential architectural property types associated with the period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization (1880-1940 +/-) include Colonial Revival and bungalow houses. These building forms, along with agricultural outbuildings, are usually elements of Agricultural Complexes. Since the farm economy of Baltimore Hundred was transformed from one of corn/subsistence farming to poultry and truck farming in the twentieth century, housing styles likewise evolved to respond to the changing nature and affluence of farmers.

Over time in southeastern Baltimore Hundred, houses grew in size relative to the “increase in prosperity that Baltimore Hundred enjoyed”(Mulchahey et al., p. 77). The same prosperity from the cultivation of poultry, egg and strawberries also prompted many farmers to alter their existing side-gable farmhouses. Some added porches, decorative exterior details, or replaced windows. Others purchased new household items made possible by the introduction of electricity through the region after WWI. More research needs to be done to investigate the types of items these consumers were purchasing, and where these items were being purchased during this period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization.

Dwelling property types found frequently occurring within Agricultural Complexes (or individually) along the Route 26 corridor include Colonial Revival-style, single-family residences.<sup>11</sup> With accentuated front façade entries with pediments supported by pilasters or simple wood columns, sometimes surrounded by fanlights or sidelights, these dwellings have a decidedly balanced feel. Typically three, five, or seven bays in width,

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<sup>11</sup> This discussion which follows concerning the Colonial Revival property type is derived from a definition from Virginia & Lee McAlester’s *A Field Guide to American Houses* (2000) chapter on “Eclectic Houses – Colonial Revival 1880-1955” pp. 321-341.

and two bays in depth, Colonial Revival houses with wood frame, double-hung sash windows with single and paired multi-pane glazing are the best representative examples of their type (McAlester, p. 321). Most of the Colonial Revival dwellings seen along the Route 26/Atlantic Avenue APE include side-gable roof varieties, reflecting an Adam influence, while others are hipped-roof, foursquare examples both with and without full-width first story, front façade porches (McAlester, pp. 321-323). Hipped roof, foursquare examples of Colonial Revival style residences with full-width front porches were popular forms from c.1895 through 1920, while side-gable types with simple accent details reigned from c.1905 until 1940 (McAlester, p. 325). Most of these vernacular forms of Colonial Revival style houses had either wood shingle siding (produced locally from Cypress Swamp mills), wood clapboard siding, or if the interpretation was executed in a high-style form, masonry. The Ralph H. & Geraldine B. West House (S-9115) is an example of a Colonial Revival House within the Route 26 Project corridor with a clinker-brick exterior that was constructed c.1939.

Early examples of Colonial Revival architecture had exaggerated elements of Georgian and Adam styles; by 1915, the *White Pine Series of Architectural Monographs* had encouraged builders to take a more sympathetic, restrained approach (McAlester, p. 326). Later examples of the Colonial Revival style were influenced by the Great Depression of the 1930s, and World War II – these events prompted a further simplification of side-gable building styles with simple architectural details, suggesting their “colonial precedents rather than closely mirroring them” (McAlester, p. 326). It should also be noted that many I-House property types sustained Colonial Revival exterior additions during the period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization to make them appear more fashionable (such as the Edmund J. and Sadie E. Evans House, S-2483). Frequently, nineteenth century I-houses had small decorative porches added to their front entries, supported by slender columns, or sidelights added; often, older I-houses sustained changes in fenestration, or had decorative shutters added.

Potentially eligible examples of Colonial Revival architecture to the *National Register of Historic Places* should have integrity of location, setting, design, feeling, association, materials and workmanship, without significant unsympathetic twentieth or twenty-first century additions that obscure their original form and function. Porches may be screened in, but infilled porches or bays are usually unacceptable for eligibility. Earlier examples of Colonial Revival architecture should have a hipped roof, preferably with an intact, full-width front wood porch and foursquare massing; later examples of this type should show more restrained features and a side-gable roof. It is anticipated that most Colonial Revival dwellings are either one and one-half stories, or two and one-half stories in height; eligible examples of the Colonial Revival building type should retain their original fenestration and positioning of doors if they do not have their original windows or doors. Properties that individually exhibit the above characteristics would be potentially eligible for consideration for the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion C: architectural significance/vernacular Colonial Revival style; or if part of an Agricultural Complex eligible for consideration under Criterion A: Baltimore Hundred agricultural trends/practices.

Another anticipated building type along the Route 26 corridor is the bungalow. According to the thematic *National Register of Historic Places Nomination Form* completed in July 1990 by Susan Mulchahey et al., all of those representative bungalow houses located in Baltimore Hundred and in Sussex County, Delaware, which were built between 1880 and 1940, and which exhibit the physical attributes of form, construction, interior finishes and siting (*See below details*), as well as those dwellings free from significant alteration, are potentially eligible resources for listing in the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion C: architectural significance of rural bungalow forms (Mulchahey, p. 22). For the purposes of the Route 26 Project, this thematic nomination will not apply, given the fact that interior views are necessary to assess eligibility of bungalows under the Mulchahey National Register Nomination. Therefore, using Alan Gowan's text *The Comfortable House: North American Suburban Architecture 1890-1930*, a new bungalow property type will be developed and followed for the Route 26 APE to assess potential eligibility.<sup>12</sup>

As a building type, the bungalow was a relative unknown on the American landscape prior to 1900. By c.1910, however, cities, suburbs and countrysides were dotted with the new "quintessentially American creation[s]" – the bungalow (Gowans, p. 74). While some assert that the bungalow was first "invented" by the firm of Charles and Henry Greene c.1903, it is likely that no one group or architect can claim "paternity" of the bungalow (Gowans, p. 74). Debate also centers on how the bungalow is defined as a housing form. Frequently, the term "bungalow" is used as a synonym for "'home' and symbol of 'naturalism' or 'Americanism'" (Gowans, p. 75). Since bungalows were thought of as being particularly "American" in style, they can be found with "Colonial, Classical, Shingle, [and] Spanish" influences, as well as regional vernacular variations (Gowans, p. 75).<sup>13</sup> Prototype bungalows tend to have a "roof sweeping over a verandah or porch" (Gowans, p. 77). The bungalow form also tends to be one or one and one-half stories in height; if a bungalow does have a second floor, it is usually characterized by a shed or gable-roof dormer (Gowans, p. 77). Thanks to improved transportation networks by the twentieth century, bungalows were often procured via mail-order catalogs, and constructed of "Precut lumber, nails, doors and other components shipped to the site" (Poppeliers et al., p. 77). It is anticipated that the majority of bungalows along the Route 26 corridor would have been originally sheathed in wood shingles, given the fact that cypress and other wood shingles were produced locally in the Cypress Swamp. "Rafters, ridge beams and purlins" typically extend beyond the wall and roof junction in

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<sup>12</sup> Based on meetings and consultation between the Delaware SHPO, DelDOT and MTA in December 2002 and May 2003, the bungalow context which follows was developed primarily by using Alan Gowan's definition of a "bungalow" dwelling found in his text, *The Comfortable House: North American Suburban Architecture 1890-1930* (Cambridge, MA: MIT Press, 1986). Other sources, such as Poppeliers, et al. *What Style Is It? A Guide to American Architecture* (Washington, D.C.: The Preservation Press, 1983), and Virginia & Lee McAlester's *A Field Guide to American Houses* (New York: Alfred Knopf, 2000) were also consulted, albeit to a lesser degree than Gowan. Details will be given first about Susan Mulchahey's bungalow context before moving on and developing a new bungalow context for the Route 26 Project.

<sup>13</sup> Despite the fact that many post-Victorian writers identified the bungalow as being an "American" form, bungalows are actually thought to have their origin in British Bengal, derived from the name *bangala*, meaning "typical native dwelling" (Gowans, p. 76). Bungalows appear to have been transplanted from the "British Raj to Britain, Canada, and the United States almost simultaneously, around 1880" (Gowans, p. 76).

bungalows, and windows are anticipated to be “sash or casement with many lights or single panes of glass,” which can be found singularly, paired or grouped (Blumenson, p. 71).

Searching for the latest in building styles for their own dwellings, many Baltimore Hundred chicken farmers also began to design and construct new suburban dwellings for their rural environment during the early twentieth century.<sup>14</sup> Since urban plans and designs were accessible through mail order catalogues, farmers could select the latest styles available from pre-fabricated homes from companies such as Sears, Roebuck & Company and have them delivered by railroad lines (Callahan, n.p.). The bungalow style house in particular was a thrifty and easy-to-build design that appealed to people in both rural and urban communities (Mulchahey, p. 2). These bungalows integrated “high-style suburban architecture with traditional rural forms” (Mulchahey, p. 2). While urban examples of bungalows had built-in furniture such as cupboards, buffets, bookcases and window seats, as well as fireplaces, rural bungalow examples found in Baltimore Hundred often lacked these interior features according to Susan Mulchahey (Mulchahey, p. 17). While some rural bungalows were sited so as to appear “part of a suburb,” perched on small lots near the side of a road with sidewalks “leading to the front doors and hedges marking out the yards,” they were usually a part of a larger Agricultural Complex (Mulchahey, pp. 17-18). Inside, many of these rural bungalows had a modified floor plan. Rather than featuring separate, distinct kitchen, dining, entertaining, sleeping or library areas, rural bungalows in Baltimore Hundred possessed a traditional hall-and-parlor floor plan. While the rural bungalow frequently featured a cypress shingle exterior, a low-pitched roof terminating in deep, overhung eaves supported by simple brackets on a full-width front porch, “the owners stopped short of fully transforming the interior space” (Mulchahey, p. 19; S-9757, Howard Hickman Property, is an example of a bungalow dwelling in the Route 26 APE). In essence, these bungalows, like other buildings, “outwardly adopt [ed] a suburban form” while the residents inside clung to their localized, familiar floor plans (Mulchahey, p. 19).

Potentially eligible bungalow property types within the Route 26 APE will be evaluated on the basis of the seven aspects of integrity and exterior features only. Potentially eligible bungalows are anticipated to have broad, gently pitched gables and to be one to one and one-half stories in height (usually without a full basement), with single, paired, and grouped windows.<sup>15</sup> While many of the original bungalows were probably clad in local materials (such as cypress shingles) along Route 26, replacement siding over original covering may be acceptable, given the fact if that the building maintains its original design, materials, workmanship and bungalow massing. Open or enclosed front and rear porches are integral components of a bungalow, and as such, a potentially eligible bungalow should possess its original porches. These porches may be enclosed;

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<sup>14</sup> This discussion of bungalows in Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware is derived from Susan A. Mulchahey et al. *National Register of Historic Places Eligibility Evaluation: Baltimore Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware* (Newark, DE: Center for Historic Architecture and Engineering, July 1990).

<sup>15</sup> The seven aspects of integrity include location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association. See pages 44-45 of the National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*.

however, infilled porches are usually not acceptable because they detract from the original bungalow form and design. Wide roof overhangs with exposed details such as rafter tails and knee-bracing may be seen in high-style bungalows; vernacular variations may also be seen (such as shallow roof overhangs). Nationally, bungalows declined in popularity after the mid-1920s - but local builders and craftspeople likely continued the form in the Route 26 area until WWII. While “consciously correct” Craftsman-style bungalows flourished in urban areas (such as Wilmington), distinctive and vernacular versions (potentially based on mail-order catalogue plans) survive in greater numbers along the Route 26 APE (Gowans, p. 73). Whether a “higher-style” mail-order bungalow or a more vernacular version, potentially eligible bungalows should retain integrity of their original form. Replacement windows may be seen; however, the original fenestration should remain the same for potentially eligible bungalows. By the same token, potentially eligible bungalows should retain the original placement of doors, if not the original doors themselves. The essential bungalow form should be intact on potentially eligible bungalows; for “even if a property is physically intact, its integrity is questionable if its significant features are concealed under modern construction” (National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, p. 47). Changes in use do not automatically disqualify a bungalow from eligibility; however, a potentially eligible bungalow must still retain integrity and distinctive exterior stylistic elements that distinguish the bungalow form from other dwelling types in order to be eligible under Criterion C: embodying distinctive characteristics of the bungalow architectural form.

During the period of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization, church construction also occurred along the area surrounding Route 26 from Clarksville to Ocean View. In addition to being a preferred style of house construction, the vernacular Gothic Revival form was also a preferred style of church architecture from c.1750 through 1900.<sup>16</sup> Gothic Revival churches constructed in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries typically feature a rectangular or cross-shaped floor plan, steeple towers, steeply pitched gable roofs, lancet or pointed arch windows, emphasized with tracery or stained glass, and rosette or trefoil windows (Quinn, p. 121). Typically, Gothic Revival churches have open rafters, deep roof overhangs, paired arch entry doors, and decorative fish scale, scallop or diamond pattern shingles along the exterior or in the gable peak (Quinn, p. 121). The Gothic Revival form, as seen used in religious structures, resulted from the nineteenth century desire for the picturesque and romantic medieval Gothic Cathedral style. Gothic Revival churches frequently executed “Gothic principles and forms with more academic correctness” than their residential peers (Blumenson, p. 31).

Potentially eligible vernacular Gothic Revival churches for the *National Register of Historic Places* along the Route 26 APE should not only retain integrity of location, setting, design, feeling, association, materials and workmanship, but they should be free of extraneous twentieth and twenty-first century additions and exterior alterations which

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<sup>16</sup> For basic depictions and a glossary of stylistic components of Gothic Revival churches, see (<http://www.cmhpf.org/kids/Guidebook/GothicArchitecture.html>). For a more intensive treatment of Gothic Revival architecture and Andrew Jackson Downing, refer to David Schulyer’s *Apostle of Taste, Andrew Jackson Downing 1815-1852* (Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1996).

detract from their original form (L-plan or T-plan are common examples). Potentially eligible churches should retain their original lines and form, even if executed in a rural, vernacular style where Gothic Revival stylistic elements were used selectively, and should possess significance at the local, state, or national level. In addition, potentially eligible vernacular Gothic Revival churches should have their original fenestration, door placement, and belfry (if the resource had one) dating to the Period of Significance. Vinyl or aluminum replacement siding may be used; however, original exterior siding should remain beneath. According to the National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, a religious property is eligible if it derives its primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance. Therefore, unless an event occurred at a church that reflects broad patterns of historical significance, a vernacular Gothic Revival Church would be potentially eligible for consideration in the *National Register of Historic Places* as a Criteria Consideration A: Religious Properties under Criterion C: architecture significance/vernacular Gothic Revival-style church.<sup>17</sup> St. George's United Methodist Church (S-9160) is an example of a vernacular Gothic Revival style church located at the western end of the Route 26 APE in Clarksville.

By the turn of the twentieth century, the natural landscape of western Baltimore Hundred was much altered with the removal of most of the timber from the Cypress Swamp. Other areas that once contained tracts of wood were likewise cleared. In 1930, a conflagration burned uncontrollably in the Cypress Swamp for over eight months; another fire ravaged the swamp again in 1931 (Murray, n.p.; Beaven & Oosting, p. 368). These fires, worst in an area known as the "Burned Swamp," along with a large-scale ditching project commenced in 1936, effectively put an end to all cypress shingle-making activities in the Cypress Swamp (Murray, n.p.; Federal Writers' Project, p. 510). Holly production for seasonal urban markets did occur c.1900 in areas such as Millsboro and Milton, but wreath production was limited in scope to an annual affair. After steam and diesel-powered ship engines gained popularity, and local timber reserves evaporated from the Cypress Swamp, ship building in coastal areas in Baltimore Hundred all but disappeared. Decimated after the Great Depression, some local shipbuilders continued their work by building the specialized small craft vessels like the flat-bottomed scow boat, popularized in Selbyville.

The United States government began involvement in constructing canals and other public waterways in 1828 (Fisher, p. 10). During the late nineteenth century, the federal government supported public improvement projects, including canal construction, throughout the nation. During the early twentieth century, the Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway (ICW) was established as a series of canals, inland waterways, and coastal areas that formed a transportation corridor from Maine to Florida. By 1940, the ICW was firmly established through the incorporation of existing waterways. The Assawoman

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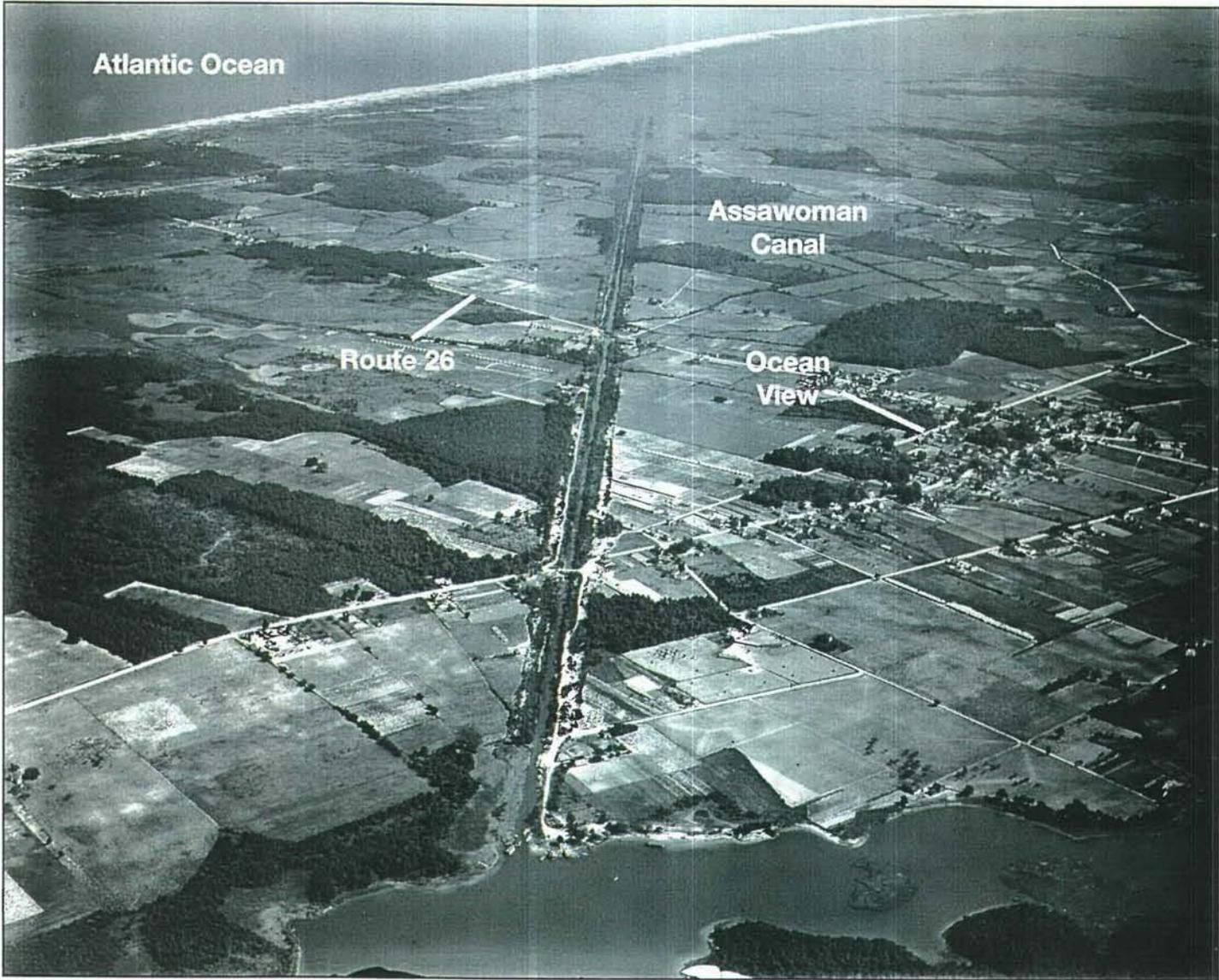
<sup>17</sup> According to the National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, Criteria Consideration A: Religious Properties applied if a particular resource was "constructed by a religious institution," "presently owned by a religious institution or is used for religious purposes," "if the resource was owned by a religious institution during its Period of Significance" or "if religion is selected as an Area of Significance" (p. 26).

Canal, although intended as a free public waterway, never became integrated with the ICW and has since languished (*See Plates 2 & 3*).

The Assawoman Canal was created through legislation passed on February 8, 1887, and between 1888 and 1892 the land to build the canal was acquired (Vol. 1, p. 98, Enrolled Delaware Bills). Originally, the "General Government" appropriated \$18,000 for the construction of the canal (Vol. 1, p. 98, Enrolled Delaware Bills). The Assawoman Canal (S-9695) was surveyed and planned by the United States Army Corps of Engineers. The purpose of the canal was to form an inland waterway between Indian River Bay and Little Assawoman Bay. The canal was named for the Algonquian appellation "Assawomet," meaning "midway fishing stream," and was also known as the "U.S. Government Canal" (Federal Writers' Project, p. 511; Robinson, p. 1; *See Plate 3*). The canal was intended to be 72 feet in width and six feet in depth and was dug with Italian immigrant labor (Scharf, p. 1342; <http://www.destateparks.com/holts/assawoman.htm>). The canal was supposed to serve as a trade route for southeastern Delaware; however, a commercial market did not develop along the canal as predicted, and the canal fell into disrepair (Federal Writers' Project, p. 511). By the 1930s, "half-sunken boats [lay] rotting along the banks" of the Assawoman Canal, and infill from farmland had reduced the depth of the Canal to less than two feet in many places (Federal Writers; Project, p. 511).

Increasing leisure time and personal affluence, together with the expansion of paved roads and availability of the automobile, meant that summer beach resorts such as Fenwick Island and Bethany Beach grew during the twentieth century. Members of the Disciples of Christ Church from the Washington, D.C. and Scranton, Pennsylvania, area founded Bethany Beach c.1901 (<http://www.townofbethanybeach.com/history.html>). Rehoboth Beach, located north of Baltimore Hundred, was the hub of Sussex County shore development. Founded in 1872 by Methodists, who reclaimed the "sandy, scrub pine wasteland" into a camp meeting site, Rehoboth Beach even boasted a railroad line by 1878 (Williams, p. 122). While revival camp meetings ended at each of these beaches by WWI, rail lines, together with the du Pont Highway, meant that a steady stream of summer vacationers frequented the shore (Williams, p. 122). During the warmer months, mosquitoes were a major nuisance in these low, swampy environs. By the 1930s, however, the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) drained most of these marshes and helped bring the insect problem under control (Williams, pp. 122-123). Today one of Baltimore Hundred's largest tourist attractions is its shore destinations. Beach related industries and shore development continued to thrive once the lowlands were drained in the 1930s. After WWII, shore development spread southward from Rehoboth into Dewey, Bethany, South Bethany Beach and Fenwick Island (Williams, p. 123). Destructive coastal storms and hurricanes threaten these areas, and one particular storm in March 1962 caused seven deaths and over twenty-two million dollars in property damage (Fleming, p. 65). Beach erosion continues to be problematic along most of Delaware's southeastern shoreline.

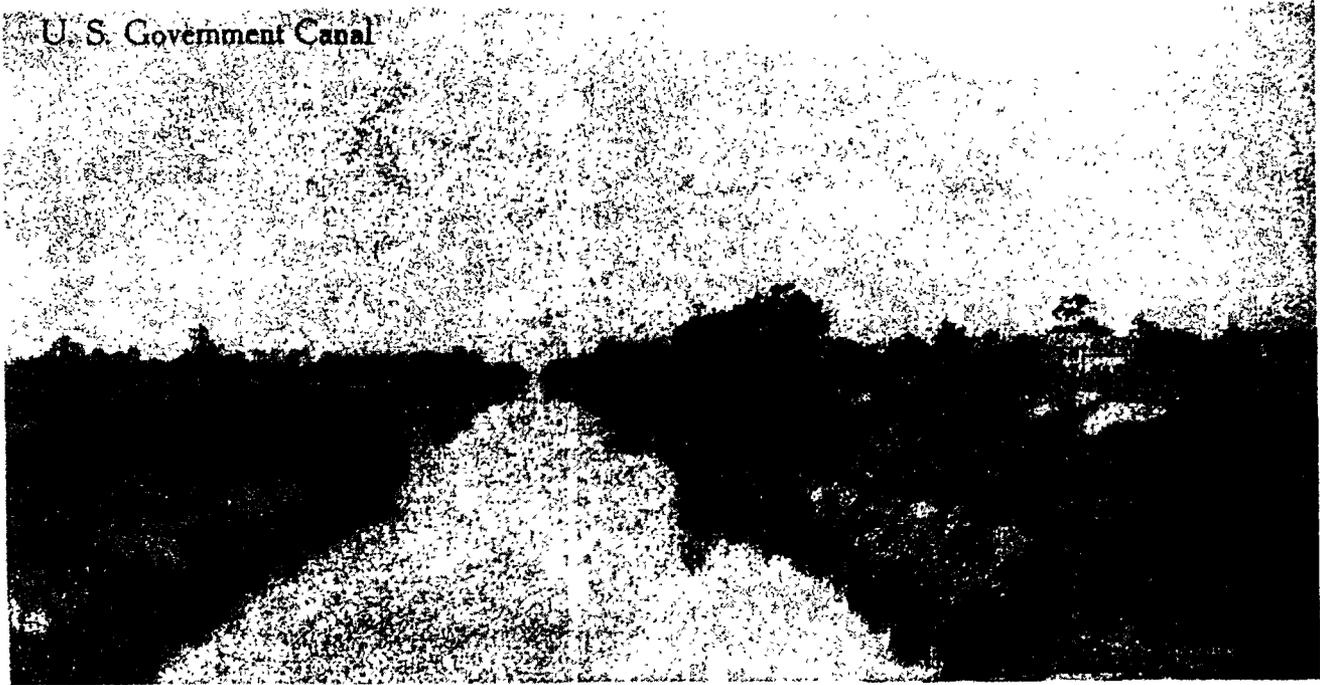
By the early twentieth century, the inadequacies of the Delaware school system were manifest for both African-American and white school children. While the Public School Law of 1875 had enacted mandatory taxation practices, established county and state



Assawoman Canal, August 3, 1930  
*Dallin Aerial Survey Collection*



Not to Scale



The U.S. GOVERNMENT CANAL,  
now known as the Assawoman Canal,  
was where travelers originally disembarked  
for the beach. It would take travelers an  
additional hour to reach the beach from this point.

**Bethany Beach, Delaware**  
**Centennial Calender, 1901-2001**  
*Bethany Beach Centennial Committee*

school boards, and “provided for the fairer distribution of school funds for the ‘colored’ population” the school system of Baltimore Hundred languished (Jicha, p. 94). A 1921 school law passed by the State Board of Education mandated that school districts must maintain “separate schools for Negroes over the entire state” (Federal Writers’ Project, p. 118). Pierre S. du Pont took it upon himself to commence a school building program throughout the First State for African-American children, then later for white school children (Jicha, p. 94). Making a contribution of over \$2,500,000 for the construction of new schools, du Pont appointed Dr. Joseph H. Odell to administer the funds through the Delaware School Auxiliary Association (DSAA) (Jicha, p. 95). These new school buildings, “sited on two-acre landscaped lots with walks, drives and playground equipment,” were kept simple with a “restrained Colonial Revival” style, and were designed to ensure “maximum efficiency as an educational facility and community center” (Jicha, p. 95). While the DSAA sought matching funds from local communities for the funding of the construction of new school buildings, many districts were unwilling or financially unable to contribute the necessary money for building campaigns (Taggart, p. 144). The Lord Baltimore Elementary School (S-9133.001 & S-9133.002), situated in Ocean View, is a c.1931 Colonial Revival example of this type of consolidated du Pont school for white children. Since Ocean View and Millville had limited economic resources that would allow for school bonding, the DSAA assumed the full cost of \$60,000 for the twelve-room school structure (Taggart, p. 144). In a bid to cut costs, the DSAA ordered prefabricated school rooms from the West Virginia mill of Minter Homes Corporation, and hired its own workmen, bringing in external labor only when needed (Taggart, p. 144). Completed in less than six months in 1931, the Lord Baltimore School accommodated white school children from first grade through high school (Taggart, pp.144-145). Of all of the educational reforms in the state of Delaware in the twentieth century, none achieved greater import than Pierre du Pont’s construction of new school structures “for every white pupil in the state” (Taggart, p. 141).

This period reflected the growing population concentrations in Baltimore Hundred. The villages of Selbyville and Ocean View each boasted a population separately of over 600 and 300 residents respectively in 1930. Ocean View received electricity in 1928, while the surrounding “necks” were electrified later (Connors, n.p.). Route 26 (or Atlantic Avenue) was re-paved with a hard surface in 1933, thereby helping farmers get their chickens to market in a timely fashion and encouraging growth of service industries, such as service stations and restaurants (*Ocean View City Council Meeting Minutes, 1889-1977*, April 24, 1933, microfilm, Delaware State Archives; De Cunzo & Gracia, p. 31). The population percentage of African-Americans, however, declined in Baltimore Hundred as many migrated north to urban centers for factory employment.

Millville, situated about four miles west of Bethany Beach along Route 26/Atlantic Avenue, also witnessed growth during the era of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization. Around 1886, a group of residents, including Elisha C. Dukes, felt as though a post office was needed for the community of over 200 people (NSDAR, p. 23; U.S. Postal Service, *Post Office Department Reports of Site Locations*, 1886). While the names Dukestown or Dukesville were suggested for the hamlet, others wanted an appellation more descriptive of the place. Since the leading industry in the low and

marshy area was the lumber mill of Captain Peter Townsend, and sorghum, molasses and gristmills proliferated nearby, the name Millville was chosen (NSDAR, p. 23). Elisha Dukes, proprietor of the local general county store, served as the first postmaster (NSDAR, p. 23). A small schoolhouse “stood off the main road to the northwest” in Millville before a newer one-room structure took its place; today, the Methodist Church occupies the lot where this schoolhouse once stood (NSDAR, p. 23). Millville continued to expand on a limited scale during the early twentieth century, for the Millville Hardware Store commenced operations in 1930, and the Millville Fire Company organized and constructed a hall in 1939 (Connors, n.p.).

More intensive research is needed into the role of government and religion, as well as occupational organizations during the time of Urbanization and Early Suburbanization 1880 – 1940 +/-.

### **Suburbanization and Early Ex-Urbanization: 1940-1960 +/-**

Following the Post-World War II Era, construction of relatively small, modest one or one and one-half story houses occurred along the Route 26 corridor. These houses, which will collectively be typed as Minimal Traditional for the purposes of this context, were usually constructed between c.1940 through the 1970s.<sup>18</sup> Since Minimal Traditional houses are a relatively recent property type (which drew upon a variety of architectural styles) little has been written about them in comparison to other property types discussed in this context. Due to the number of houses along the Route 26 APE that were constructed during this time, the Minimal Traditional property type will be developed in the discussion which follows.

Unlike many Colonial Revival houses that preceded them, Minimal Traditional houses made little attempt to carefully copy Neoclassical or Colonial prototypes (McAlester, p. 475). Instead, Minimal Traditional houses borrowed “prominent historical details (for example, Tudor half-timbering, Georgian doorways, and Queen Anne spindlework porches) and freely adapt[ed] them to contemporary forms and materials” (McAlester, p. 475). This Post-War wave of housing of “historically based styles” has essentially remained the “dominant theme in American house design” into the late twentieth century (McAlester, p. 475).

Minimal Traditional houses frequently feature Tudor-inspired details and are one story or one and one-half story in height. Minimal Traditional houses usually feature a “dominant front gable and massive chimneys, but the steep Tudor roof pitch is lowered and the façade is simplified by omitting most of the traditional detailing” (McAlester, p. 477). “Eaves and rakes are close, rather than overhanging,” and have a shallow or intermediate pitched roofline with few details (McAlester, p. 478). In some examples of Minimal

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<sup>18</sup> The term “Minimal Traditional” and its definition architecturally is taken from Virginia & Lee McAlester’s text *A Field Guide to American Houses* (2000). See the chapter on “American Houses Since 1940,” pages 476-485 for illustrations of this property type. For the purposes of this report, only those Minimal Traditional Houses fifty (50) years of age or older were evaluated under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.

Traditional housing, large brick exterior chimneys are seen; most examples contain at least one front-facing projecting gable (McAlester, p. 478). Window styles varied; large single-pane or multi-pane picture windows are common, as are corner windows, and single and paired double-sash windows. Shutters are commonly applied to the exterior, and the front entry is emphasized in the design (Maxwell & Massey, p. 56). Roofs are usually clad in asphalt shingles; the exterior can feature a variety of finishes, including brick, brick veneer, wood shingles or clapboard, stone or stone veneer (McAlester, p. 478). Garages are sometimes integrated into house design; however, it is anticipated that the majority of Minimal Traditional houses along the Route 26 APE will feature single or double detached vehicular garages.

In order to be considered a potentially eligible Minimal Traditional house for the *National Register of Historic Places*, a resource must be of exceptional integrity and significance, and be able to convey something new or significant to our understanding of tract housing, or perhaps the construction techniques of Minimal Traditional houses. If a particular house or group of houses is associated with a local or regional historically significant event, then the resource may be eligible for listing under Criterion A. If the Minimal Traditional house is associated with a particular individual or family of note, then the resource may be eligible for listing under Criterion B. A Minimal Traditional dwelling may be eligible under Criterion C if it represents the work of a master or architect; is a defining example locally or statewide of Minimal Traditional form; represents a new or revolutionary building technique, local variation, or material; or exhibits high artistic values. It must have a high degree of integrity, original building materials, landscaping features, all of which date to the Period of Significance, and other supporting materials such as architectural, or subdivision plans, and be able to contribute something new to our understanding of Post-WWII buildings. A Minimal Traditional house may be eligible under Criterion D if it has the potential to yield, or has yielded, "information important in prehistory or history."<sup>19</sup> Additionally, a Minimal Traditional house constructed in the past fifty (50) years maybe be eligible under Criteria Consideration G if it has achieved significance within the last half century.<sup>20</sup>

Another contemporary anticipated property type along the Route 26 corridor is the residential house-turned-retail business type. While this is a relatively recent phenomenon, occurring within the past twenty-five years with the rise of seasonal tourist activity along Route 26/Atlantic Avenue, it is nonetheless a common type found along Route 26.<sup>21</sup> Open for business from Memorial Day through Labor Day each year, these structures typically house antique dealers, collectibles, craft dealers, or art galleries. An example of this type of property within the Route 26 Project area is the Millville Town Peddler (S-9754), owned by Clifton and Margaret Justice. According to the National

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<sup>19</sup> See the National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, pp. 12-24.

<sup>20</sup> See the National Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, pp. 41-43.

<sup>21</sup> A video provided by DeIDOT of the Route 26 corridor (of Clarksville, Millville and Ocean View) in 1974 showed that very few houses had been converted into seasonal businesses. However, when footage of the same area of Route 26 was viewed from 2000, many of the same former dwellings had been converted into retail spaces, such as antique shops.

Register Bulletin: *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation*, properties that have achieved significance in the past fifty years are eligible under Criterion Consideration G if they make a “direct case that the grounds – historical context – for evaluating a property’s exceptional importance exist and that the property being nominated is, within that context, exceptional” (Sherfy & Luce, p. 11). A resource eligible for listing in *the National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion G must be judged “unusually important in the recent development of American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, or culture” (Sherfy & Luce, p. 15). To that end, an eligible property that exhibits the residential house turned retail business property type (Criterion A) that has been converted into a business within the past fifty years must show the above criteria, along with the seven aspects of integrity, and must be able to contribute something significant and new to our understanding of the development of such historic themes as retailing/wholesaling, settlement patterns and demographics changes, or major families, individuals or events in order to be considered a potentially eligible resource under Criterion Consideration G.<sup>22</sup>

Another anticipated commercial property type along the Route 26/Atlantic Avenue corridor is the filling/gas station, and other “Auto Support Facilities” as defined in the 1992 *Historic Context for Evaluation of Commercial Roadside Architecture*.<sup>23</sup> As per Kevin Puleo’s Summer 2001 Masters’ Thesis *More Than Just a Pair of Red Pumps: Preserving Historic Gas Stations*, filling stations may potentially be eligible for listing in the *National Register of Historic Places* under Criterion A for historic themes relating to manufacturing, retailing, automobile transportation or the development of commercial landscapes.<sup>24</sup> Filling stations may likewise be eligible for listing in the *National Register of Historic Places* according to Puleo under Criterion C for their potential connection to “the evolution of gas stations and if it is the last of its type remaining in a local area” (Puleo, p. 101). In order to be considered an eligible gas/filling station, a commercial property must exhibit integrity of location, design, feeling, association, workmanship, materials, and setting. For a gas station to possess integrity of location, it “must not have been moved from its original location,” and should be located near a well-traveled roadside or intersection in the words of Puleo (Puleo, pp. 104-105). A gas station’s position relative to the road was “an integral part of the landscape’s ability to operate as an advertisement” (Puleo, p. 105). Therefore, a filling station’s sight lines, property boundaries, curb cuts, traffic circulation patterns, and accessibility from the roadway are key determining factors, all influencing integrity of setting. For integrity of design to exist, a filling station must retain its original massing and fenestration, and be used in some commercial capacity (Puleo, pp. 109-111). Pump islands may be removed to improve the functional design of a gas station, and signs and lights need not be present

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<sup>22</sup> This property/usage type of the residential house turned retail operation will need to be developed more in depth in the future when these resources meet the fifty (50) year age criteria. This type is discussed briefly in the context because of the preponderance of this type of resource.

<sup>23</sup> For more detailed information, see Elizabeth Rosin & Martha Bowers’ *Historic Context for Evaluation of Commercial Roadside Architecture*, originally published in Delaware Department of Transportation Archaeology Series No. 99, Cultural Resource Survey of U.S. Route 113, Milford-Georgetown, Sussex County, Delaware (1992).

<sup>24</sup> This thesis is not a Delaware S.H.P.O. reviewed or approved historic context; however, the background that Kevin Puleo offers in his thesis is helpful in providing background information for filling stations.

for a station to retain its integrity of design, so “long as the remaining landscape components are able to convey the landscape’s functional purposes during its period of significance” (Puleo, p. 110). Potentially eligible filling stations must further exude integrity of feeling. Filling stations constructed during the 1920s and 1930s that were built to resemble houses should blend in with their residential surroundings, while those gas stations constructed from the mid-1930s to the early 1960s should “clash with their surroundings and attract a passing motorist’s attention” (Puleo, p. 111). If possible, glazed windows, “regional architectural elements or materials,” and integrity of driveway materials should be present on a potentially eligible gas station (Puleo, p. 113). In short, eligible gas stations must represent “their association with the use of the automobile” during the twentieth century according to Puleo’s thesis (Puleo, p. 118). The Dietrick Property (S-9117) in Millville is a c.1939 gas station, constructed of clinker brick, which is located within the Route 26 APE.

According to the Delaware SHPO reviewed and approved *Historic Context for Evaluation of Commercial Roadside Architecture*, roadside properties (such as auto support facilities) should all be assessed in the “National Register Criteria for Evaluation and the Criteria Considerations” (Rosin et al., p. 24). In order for a roadside property to be eligible under Criterion A, it should be “associated with patterns of settlement and development that occurred in response to the automobile” (Rosin, et al., p. 24). This may include “the development of secondary commercial districts along newly constructed state highways, and eating and lodging facilities for tourists in areas not commonly associated with colonial or railroad travel” (Rosin, et al., p. 24). Roadside properties may be eligible under Criterion B if the resource is associated “with a particular individual or family who was significantly involved with the development of roadside architecture” (Rosin, et al., p. 24). A roadside property may be eligible under Criterion C if it embodies the “architecture of the automobile era” (Rosin, et al., p. 24). Since the Route 26 APE is located in a rural area of Baltimore Hundred, it is anticipated that “examples of roadside architecture may be found as isolated examples or in small groups” (Rosin, et al., p. 24). “Early, traditional designs for service stations, tourist camps and motels, as well as later, streamlined designs, or buildings that exhibit identifiable traits of specific companies that developed or flourished during the automobile era” made of modern materials may be eligible under Criterion C (Rosin, et al., pp. 24-25). This criteria for evaluation holds especially true in light of the research performed by Puleo on filling stations (*See page 29*). Roadside resources may be eligible under Criterion D if the “standing buildings and archaeological sites have the potential to yield information about construction technology that could not be gleaned from documentary sources” (Rosin, et al., p. 25). Lastly, it should be noted that roadside properties which have achieved significance in the past fifty (50) years may be eligible under Criteria Consideration G. “Because roadside architecture is a twentieth-century phenomenon, there may be eligible properties that are not yet fifty years of age” under Criteria Consideration G according to Rosin (Rosin, et al., p. 25). In addition to these five criteria, a roadside resource must also retain “historic integrity” of location, setting, design, materials, feeling, workmanship and association in order to be recommended potentially eligible (Rosin, et al., p. 25).

While the *Historic Context for Evaluation of Commercial Roadside Architecture* was developed for a cultural resource survey of the Route 113 corridor from Milford to Georgetown in Sussex County, Delaware in 1992, and delineated four property types (Auto-Support Facilities, Eating Establishments, Lodging and Other), more research is needed to explore the nuances between the themes of Retailing and Wholesaling from 1940-1960 for the Route 26 project area, especially the Coastal Zone region (Rosin et al., p. 23).