3 Cultural and Historical Context

HDR conducted background research for this investigation at the Delaware State Historic Preservation Office, the Delaware Public Archives, the Milford Museum, and online through the Delaware Division of Historical and Cultural Affairs Cultural and Historical Resource Information System (CHRIS). Historic maps were used to locate the existence of any historic properties in the project area. The goals of the background research were to address the cultural context of archeological resources in the project area and the land-use history of the project area as it relates to the presence and nature of potential archeological resources. In this section, the prehistoric and historic contexts for the region and the project area are discussed. This is followed by summary of known archaeological and historic architecture sites within a 1-mile radius of the Phase II evaluation area, and previous cultural resource investigations conducted in the area of the site.

3.1 Prehistoric Context

The prehistory of Delaware is divided into five major periods: Paleoindian (13,000–6500 BC), Archaic (6500–3000 BC), Woodland I (3000 BC–AD 1000), Woodland II (AD 1000–1650), and Contact (AD 1650–1750). Each period is characterized by changes in material culture, settlement patterns, and subsistence strategies. The following sections characterize each of the five main periods of prehistoric occupation in Delaware.

3.1.1 Paleoindian Period (13,000–6500 BC)

Although some parts of North America offer evidence of human occupation prior to 12,000 BC, no conclusive evidence exists for human occupation in the Middle Atlantic region before that time. However, archaeological sites such as Cactus Hill (44SX202) in Virginia which has an early radiocarbon date of 15,000 years BP (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997) and Meadowcroft Rockshelter (36WH297) in southwestern Pennsylvania which has produced dates suggesting occupation by 14,000–14,500 years BP (Adovasio et al. 1978; Adovasio and Stuckenrath 1990) may indicate there was at least limited occupation in the Middle Atlantic region prior to the Paleoindian period.

The Paleoindian period exhibits a pattern of cultural adaptation to environmental conditions that marked the shift from the Late Pleistocene to the Early Holocene. During this time, the average annual temperature was three to eight degrees Fahrenheit colder than at present, and the vegetation consisted of spruce, pine, fir, and alder (Brush 1986:149; LeeDecker and Holt 1991:72). Paleoindian settlements in Delaware consisted of small seasonally occupied camps from which forays were made to obtain resources for subsistence and stone tool manufacture (Custer 1984; Dent 1995; Gardner 1977). The small size of individual Paleoindian dwellings suggests the basic unit of kinship, production, processing and consumption was a nuclear family (Custer 2013:144).

During the Late Glacial environmental episode (ca. 15,000–8080 BC), water volume increased dramatically in rivers and streams and water temperatures were lowered. The effects of the glacial melt were limiting the ability of people to effectively exploit previously utilized estuarine resources, reducing open land areas that were slowly replaced with forest, and favoring animal species adapted to forest edge settings (Custer 1984: 47). The Late Glacial episode was followed by the Pre-Boreal/ Boreal episode (ca. 8080–6540 BC) which marked an environmental transition between the end of the Pleistocene and the beginning of the Holocene. This transition is linked to a continuing rise in

sea level that ultimately destroyed evidence of Paleoindian sites on the Delmarva Coastal Plain. The majority of the identified Paleoindian period sites in Delaware (numbering less than 10) are on upland flats situated near interfluves (Dent 1995).

Subsistence strategies during this period most likely consisted of a combination of hunting game such as moose, elk and deer, and perhaps to a lesser extent, fishing and foraging, which were more limited activities in Delaware than elsewhere in the Middle Atlantic region (Kavanaugh 1982; McNett 1985; Dent 1995). The environmental conditions of this period limited the availability of fish in the Delmarva Peninsula due to the low temperature and high velocity of rivers and other water bodies. Shellfish resources were available in what are now submerged areas east of the present coastline as early as the Late Glacial episode. The limited number of known sites makes it challenging to assess the degree to which these resources were utilized during this period (Thieler et al. 2000).

Custer (1984:51) has emphasized the use of cryptocrystalline lithic material acquired from primary quarries in northern Delaware that was supplemented by secondary cobble sources found along southern sections of the Chesapeake Bay. Early Paleoindian sites are characterized by the presence of large, fluted, lanceolate-shaped projectile points, such as the Clovis and Dalton/Hardaway types, the majority of which were made on high-quality cryptocrystalline material. There have been 50+ isolated finds of fluted projectile points in Delaware (Stanzeski and Hoffman 2006). After ca. 10,000 BC, fluted points went out of favor and were replaced with varieties such as the Palmer and Kirk notched points. Studies of lithic procurement systems in the Middle Atlantic and in nearby regions have shown that Paleoindian groups probably traveled long distances to obtain the raw materials needed for tool production (Gardner 1977; Custer 1984; Lantz 1985; Gramly 1988, 1999).

3.1.2 Archaic Period (6500–3000 BC)

The transition from the Paleoindian period to the Archaic period was associated with a major climatic change that occurred at the end of the last Ice Age. During the Archaic period, rising sea levels submerged the lower Susquehanna River and began forming the Chesapeake Bay, creating large estuarine marshes that offered an increased quantity and variety of food resources (Kraft 1976). As temperatures increased during this period, hemlock, birch, and oak began to replace spruce (Brush 1986:149; Custer 1990:10; LeeDecker and Holt 1991:72). Evidence from late Paleoindian period sites suggest that the transition from the Paleoindian lifeway was not a sharp break, but rather a gradual transition (Custer 1990).

The Archaic period coincides with the onset of the Atlantic Climatic episode (ca. 6540–3110 BC), which was a warm, humid period associated with a rise in sea level that led to the development of inland swamps (Barse and Beauregard 1994:9). It was also marked by an increase in summer drought, grassland expansion into the Eastern Woodlands, and the appearance of new plant species (Carbone 1976:106; Hantman 1990:138). The formerly cooler, wetter climate shifted to an ecologically more productive, warmer, and drier climate similar to what exists today. Vegetation in the region shifted from mostly coniferous forests to mixed deciduous and coniferous forests. Many of the larger mammals became extinct during this period and more specialized hunting techniques were developed, including the use of atlatls weighted with bannerstones.

Known Archaic sites are much more numerous, larger, and richer in artifacts than the earlier Paleoindian sites. They represent a series of adaptations that were increasingly sedentary and focused on large rivers and major tributaries. Other, often smaller, sites located away from the main streams may represent seasonally reoccupied camps or other specialized activity areas. Both

Gardner (1974) and Custer (1984) have hypothesized that already in the early Archaic period people were banding together in spring and summer macro-base camps located primarily in valley floodplains, and splitting into micro-base camps in upland regions during the fall and winter months.

During the course of the Archaic Period people began using more locally available raw materials for stone tool production. Cryptocrystalline parent rock was slowly replaced by alternate sources such as quartz, quartzite, rhyolite, chert, and jasper. The appearance of mortars and pestles at this time also suggests plant foods played a larger role in subsistence strategies than previously, possibly indicating a shift towards a diet that included a variety of species of animals and plants.

3.1.3 Woodland I Period (3000 BC–AD 1000)

Environmental changes starting at around 3000 BC resulted in warmer/drier and cooler/wetter cycles in the region (*cf.* Eiswert et al. 2011:13–14; Mancl et al. 2013:6). A decreased rate of sea-level rise made stream valleys and coastal areas in the region more attractive for settlement. Newly developed estuarine and riverine environments were stable and intensive enough to support large base camps at saltwater/freshwater interfaces and along the major drainages (Custer 1984:77, 2013:134). Common to coastal sites are large shell middens, evidence that oysters became a major food source at this time. Other available estuarine resources included anadromous fish, ribbed mussels, and various clam species. Several of the fishing methods employed to take advantage of these resources, such as the use of fish weirs, fish nets, barbed fish spears, net floats, and net sinkers, were still used when Europeans arrived (Ward et al. 2013:15).

New cooking technologies were used during the Woodland I period, possibly as a response to the quantity and diversity of available resources and a more sedentary lifestyle (Custer 1984; Sassaman 1999; Ward et al. 2013). Steatite (soapstone) vessels were produced during the early part of the period. Around 1000 BC steatite vessels were replaced with ceramic vessels when pottery technologies were introduced. Marcey Creek Ware and Bushnell Ware, early ceramic forms, were made using steatite temper. Throughout the period, ceramics became increasingly refined and decorated.

Substantial prehistoric dwellings were constructed at riverine base camps during this period. The form of these circular structures, many with semi-subterranean living surfaces and interior fireplaces, changed little during the ca. 4000 year period. Large macroband camps were occupied year-round and small procurement camps have been found along streams and next to bay features (Custer 1989, 2013; Ward et al. 2013). On the Coastal Plain, subsistence strategies continued to focus on shellfish and fish resources, while in the Piedmont the focus was on harvesting nuts and hunting deer and turkey, and annual fish runs were exploited in the river valleys (Ward et al. 2013:15).

During the Woodland I period locally available lithic sources were increasingly exploited and a wide variety of raw materials were utilized. Additionally, long-distance exchange networks are implied by the distribution of nonlocal source material and may reflect increased interaction between groups who had direct access to the resource or access to groups with direct access to the material (Lenert et al. 2014:13).

The development of incipient stratified societies occurs during the Woodland I period and status hierarchies are identifiable by the presence of exotic raw materials in grave good contexts and caches (Custer 1989, 2013). Several sites belonging to the Delmarva Adena Complex have produced goods that suggest social stratification including copper beads, tubular pipes, and caches of blades produced on Flint Ridge chalcedony from Ohio. The Delmarva Adena was present primarily in central Delaware. In New Castle County and in parts of Pennsylvania and Maryland the

Black Rock Complex (formerly known as Wolfe Neck), with its characteristic stemmed points and Susquehanna Series ceramics, was thriving. Both complexes were replaced ca. AD 0 by the Carey Complex which conspicuously lacked the mortuary/ exchange centers common to the Delmarva Adena Complex (Custer 1989; Ward et al. 2013:18). Shell-tempered Mockley Ware and Rossville-like and Fox Creek points are characteristic diagnostics of the Carey Complex.

3.1.4 Woodland II Period (AD 1000–1650)

The Woodland II (Late Woodland) environment was essentially modern in character and marine and estuarine resources continued to be exploited. “The basic changes noted in Delaware [at this time] include the breakdown of trade and exchange networks, alterations of settlement patterns, the development of sedentary lifestyles [in the southern section of Delaware], and the appearance of agricultural food production to varying degrees in different areas” (Custer 1984:146). Although horticulture becomes important throughout the Middle Atlantic region during the Woodland II period, a little evidence of it is found in Delaware. Subsistence strategies remained relatively unchanged from the previous period with the exception of very limited horticultural activity and the addition of cultigens to the diet in some areas, particularly in northern Delaware. Shellfish, especially oysters and clams, remained an important resource in the Woodland II diet with a wide variety of species have been recovered from sites across the state.

The Minguannan Complex is the main cultural complex found in the northern section of Delaware during the Woodland II period. In addition to occupying northern Delaware (the lower Delaware Valley) this group occupied northwestern Maryland and parts of Chester County, Pennsylvania. Minguannan settlements, primarily represented by macro-band base camps, were situated in locations previously occupied in the Woodland I period. These were often in the most productive areas, such as brackish marshes and floodplains. Unlike the preceding culture, the Minguannan Complex is characterized by a less sedentary and more nomadic lifestyle, with identified sites lacking pit features, house patterns, burials, and sheet middens (Stewart et al. 1986; Custer 1987; Custer 1989; Stewart 1993:173). This differs significantly from the contemporaneous Shanks Ferry Complex identified in the northern Delaware Valley.

Analysis of ceramic decorative motifs suggests the Minguannan shared design elements, and hence had a more evolved exchange network of ideas, with other Algonquian-speaking groups to the south than with their neighbors to the north (Custer 1987). Minguannan ceramics are characterized by incised geometric designs and are usually sand and/or grit tempered with smooth surfaces (Stewart et al. 1986:59). This design pattern shares more characteristic attributes with Townsend ceramics of the Slaughter Creek Complex of southern Delaware and the Moyaone ceramics found throughout the Western Shore Coastal Plain of Maryland than with Shenks Ferry ceramics. Stewart (1993) postulated that the Minguannan acted as middlemen between the Shanks Ferry group to the north and the groups to the south. However, settlement patterns and artifact types suggest that the Minguannan did not actively engage in an exchange of ideas with the Shenks Ferry people in the northern Delaware Valley (for further discussion see Griffith and Custer 1985; Potter 1993; Dent 1995).

The Slaughter Creek Complex is the dominant culture in the southern two-thirds of Delaware during the Woodland II period. Slaughter Creek Complex sites are often extensive with several subsurface features, many containing shellfish remains (Gerhardt and Mancl 2011:31). Large base camps (permanent or semi-permanent) with storage features and refuse pits, Townsend ceramics, and triangular-shaped points are the defining characteristics of this complex (Custer and Griffith 1986:29). An intensified use of storage for food surplus, a significant change in behavior from the

Woodland I Period, indicates (1) now intensified food procurement strategies were in marginal areas and/or (2) local populations were become too dense to effectively move groups to more productive ecological zones (Custer 1989:329–330). Unlike their northern neighbors, the Slaughter Creek people were more sedentary. However, evidence from both Minguannan and Slaughter Creek sites does not indicate these were stratified or ranked societies (Custer 1989; Stewart 1993, 2014).

At this time, the majority of stone tools were made from locally available cobbles. There is a notable lack of lithic artifacts made on exotic, nonlocal material in Woodland II (Late Woodland) assemblages throughout the region suggesting that the broad-based exchange networks of earlier periods were disrupted or severely diminished (Lowery 2009; Stewart 2014). By the beginning of the Woodland II period small triangular points were already made, primarily on local chert and jasper. These small points, which likely functioned as tips for arrows, become the dominant tool type in the lithic assemblage during this period. Other additions to the Woodland II tool kit included stone celts and hoes, and bone and antler tools. Other artifacts that appear in the Woodland II assemblages are angular elbow pipes, and in rare instances, native copper beads and pendants.

3.1.5 Contact Period (AD 1650–1750)

Already by the later part of the Woodland II period local Native American groups and arriving Europeans were interacting and trading. The burgeoning fur trade was predominantly controlled by the Susquehannock group whose main villages were in Pennsylvania, but who maintained control over the fur trade in the Piedmont area of Maryland and Delaware. During the Contact period encounters between European and indigenous groups increased and there was a gradual decline in traditional lifeways. The period is characterized by access to trade goods, the displacement of native groups, the establishment of the reservation system, and warfare and conflict (Lowery 2009:38).

Contact period Native American sites appear very similar to the sites of the Woodland II period in the region with the persistence of triangular points, Townsend-style ceramic artifacts, and other Woodland II artifacts in the site assemblages. If not for the presence of European goods, limited finds as they are, Contact period sites could be confused with earlier period sites (Stewart 2014). In Delaware, the Contact period is not well-represented with two possible sites having been identified to date. In the south, the Townsend Site (7S-G-2) contained both European and Native American artifacts but the specific temporal association between the two groups of artifacts remains unclear (Custer 1984:177). In the northern part of the state, Site 7NC-E-42 has revealed some stratigraphic evidence of a possible association between European and indigenous artifacts (Custer 1984; Custer and Watson 1985). Although no unambiguous Contact period sites have yet been identified, historical accounts from the seventeenth century indicate that Unami-speaking Lenape were living in Delaware until ca. 1729 AD when they moved north (Eiswert et al. 2011:17, *cf.* Weslager 1972).

3.2 Historic Period Context

The historic period in Delaware has been sectioned into seven temporal periods that form the basis for historic resource investigations within the state. These temporal periods include:

- Exploration and Frontier Settlement (1630–1730)
- Intensified and Durable Occupation (1730–1770)
- Early Industrialization (1770–1830)
- Industrialization and Early Urbanization (1830–1880)

- Urbanization and Early Suburbanization (1880–1940)
- The Modern Period (1960–present)

Lenert et. al. (2014) presented a concise overview of the local history in their Phase I report for the SR 1 Northeast Front Street Intersection improvements. They pulled from HRI's (2010) historic overview of the local region from their Phase I archaeology report for the SR 1/SR 30-Cedar Creek Road intersection improvement project, and the US 113 Cultural Resources Document prepared by John Milner and Associates (JMA) (2004). The following local historical summary provides information about the Kent County and the Milford area drawing from Marble's report and supplements the summary with information provided by additional research.

European settlement in Kent County occurred in the later part of the seventeenth century, primarily by the Swedish, Dutch, and the English. The Phase II evaluation area is on land formerly called St. Jones County. In 1683 St. Jones was divided into Kent and Sussex Counties, which are bisected by the Mispillion River. Milford straddles the two counties but the current project area is on the Kent County side of the river. In the late 1600s several large land tracts were granted, including "Cedar Neck" (1676), "Slaughter Neck" (1677), "Saw Mill Range" (1680), of which Milford proper was part, "Longfield" (1681), and "Improvement" (1685). At that time, this portion of Kent County (then St. Jones County) was part of Mispillion Hundred (Figure 3-1). It was not until 1830 that Milford Hundred was carved from the east side of Mispillion Hundred.

Scharf (1888) noted that by the late seventeenth century a public works program was in place, which included the construction of roads, bridges, and ferries. Eighteenth century post roads were in the Milford area. The "King's Road" that passed through Milford, just a village then, was already present in the 1680s (Lenert et. al. 2014:16; see Kenton 2001, and JMA 2004). By 1787 the town of Milford was laid out at the confluence of the Mispillion River, Clark's Branch, and Bowman's Branch (Emory 1989:5) and in 1807 Milford received a Town Charter and was incorporated. The Mispillion River supported mills, shipping, and shipbuilding industries and allowed for local development. In 1787 the first mill was built in the area and the land around it was divided into town lots for Milford (Scharf 1888; see HRI 2010, and Lenert et. al. 2014).

Throughout its settlement, occupation, and urbanization, Kent County has had a varied economic history. Shipbuilding, especially in the Milford area, was a prime industry in Kent County from the late eighteenth / early nineteenth century. Local oak forests provided the raw material for shipbuilding. The heyday for the Milford shipbuilding and shipping industry was between 1850 and 1890 (six shipyards are listed on the 1868 Beers atlas) but in the Milford area New Wharf Landing was already in existence by the mid-eighteenth century (Hitchens 1976; Kenton 2001).

Agriculture has been a principal industry in the county since its earliest settlement. Tobacco was an important crop until just prior to the Civil War. Tobacco fields were replaced by peach orchards throughout the county starting in the first quarter of the nineteenth century and by the 1830s Delaware was known as a peach-growing state (Dunn et al. 1920:8). Starting in the nineteenth century several canning factories were found scattered across the county. Milford was a central location in the canning industry and the local landings supporting a thriving shipping industry. By the end of the Civil War, and with the benefit of excellent rail and water connections, Milford had become a bustling town (Lenert et. al. 2014:17; see Hancock 1976, and JMA 2004). With the exception of twentieth century road improvements and some residential and commercial developments, the modern Milford area remains mainly agricultural in character.

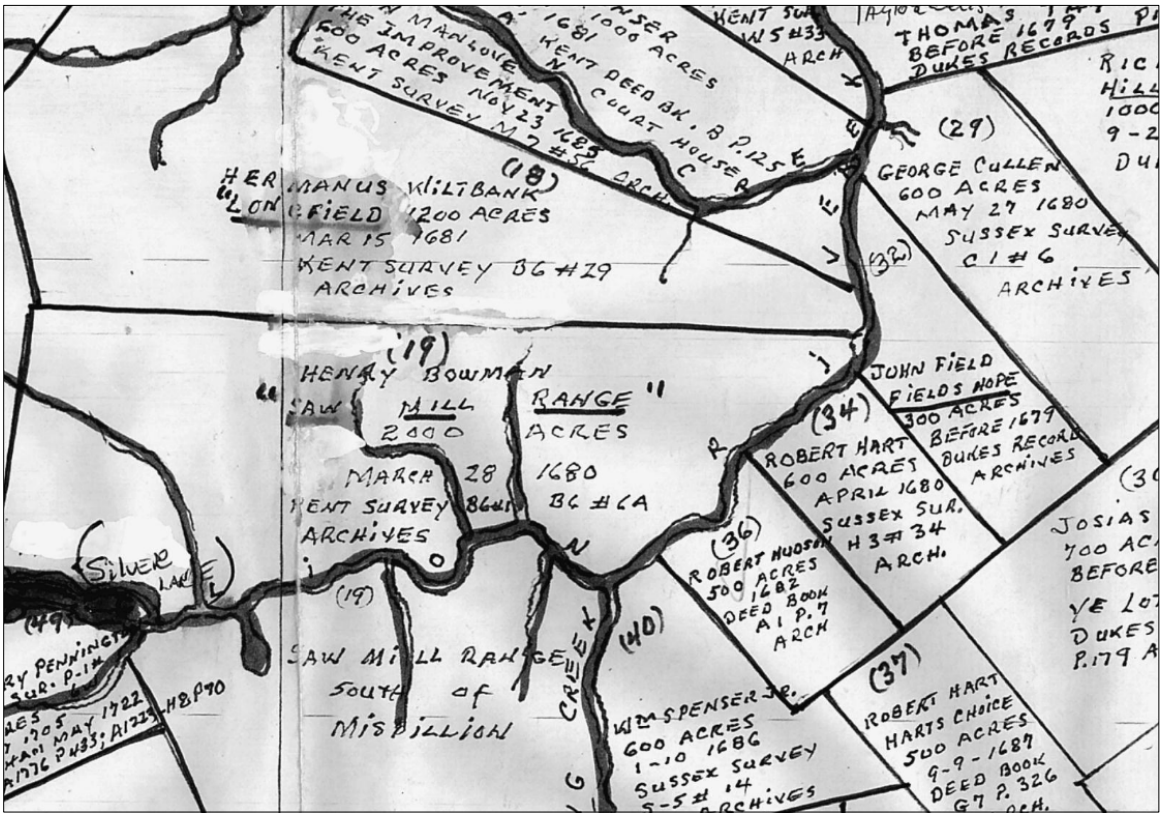
Figure 3-1. F. Lucas 1838 map of Delaware (detail showing Milford and the approximate location of site 7K-F-205).

3.2.1 History of the Phase II evaluation area

The Potter Estate Tenant Farmstead (7K-F-205) is on land that was once part of the 1681 land grant of Helmanus Wiltbank (1,200 acres in total) known as “Longfield” (Figure 3-2). Wiltbank sold the Longfield tract to John Brinkloe in April 1685. In that same month, Brinkloe conveyed this tract to William Clark. In 1686 merchants from “The Barbadoes Company” (sic) purchased several thousand acres including the Longfield tract (Scharf 1888:1183). After holding onto the land for years, the Barbadoes Company sold the majority of its holdings to the Pennsylvania Land Company in about 1720.

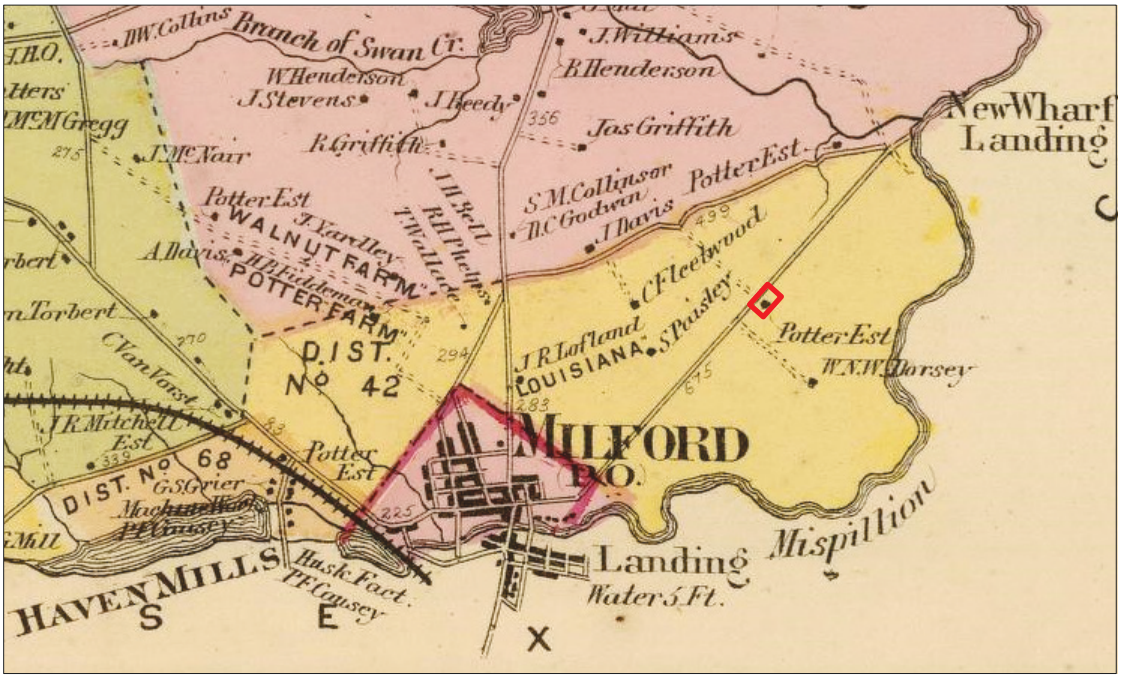
The Pennsylvania Land Company leased their properties for over four decades, but starting in 1762 they began liquidating their real estate, selling small parcels at public auction (Scharf 1888:1182; Hitchens and Hurley 1985:230). In 1762 Levin Adams purchased Lot Number 18 (the New Wharf lot), containing 81 acres of the tracts Longfield and Improvement. Lot Number 17, which was situated “between Miller’s Branch and the New Wharf lot,” was sold the same year to Zadock Cropper (also found as “Zadoc” and “Crapper” and “Cooper”). Contained within this 130-acre parcel is the current project area. Although it is not precisely clear from the available records when the transactions occurred, it appears that either prior to or following Cropper’s death in ca. 1775 some or all of his landholdings were sold.

Figure 3-2. Milford area land grants map, source: Hitchens & Hurley 1985:193.



In 1788 Thomas Winsmore purchased 166.75 acres of land, part of which was in Longfield, from Levin Willey, Jr. whose father purchased the land from a Pennell (Hitchens and Hurley 1985:232). Winsmore purchased additional property in Longfield ca. 1795 from Elias Shockley (Deed Book G:135) which contained the current project area. Winsmore gave his name to the ditch found just southeast of the Phase II evaluation area, which was known as “Winsmore Farm” until the twentieth century. A note on the naming: New Wharf Farm, as the current property is called, was originally Winsmore Farm; the historic New Wharf Farm was actually to the north of the project area, and was adjacent to the New Wharf Landing, a wharf built on the Mispillion in the early to mid-eighteenth century where a small hamlet also was once located (Figure 3-3).

Figure 3-3. 1868 Beers map of Milford (Hundred), Kent County, DE (detail) showing the project area and New Wharf Landing.



Col. Benjamin Potter purchased the property from Elizabeth Winsmore following the death of her husband in 1828 (Deed Book B3:70). Col. Benjamin Potter was the namesake and grand nephew of Benjamin Potter who had been in the Milford area since at least the third quarter of the eighteenth century (Scharf 1888:1196). Col. Potter was a tanner who came to the Milford area by way of Accomack County, Virginia in the early nineteenth century. He was best described:

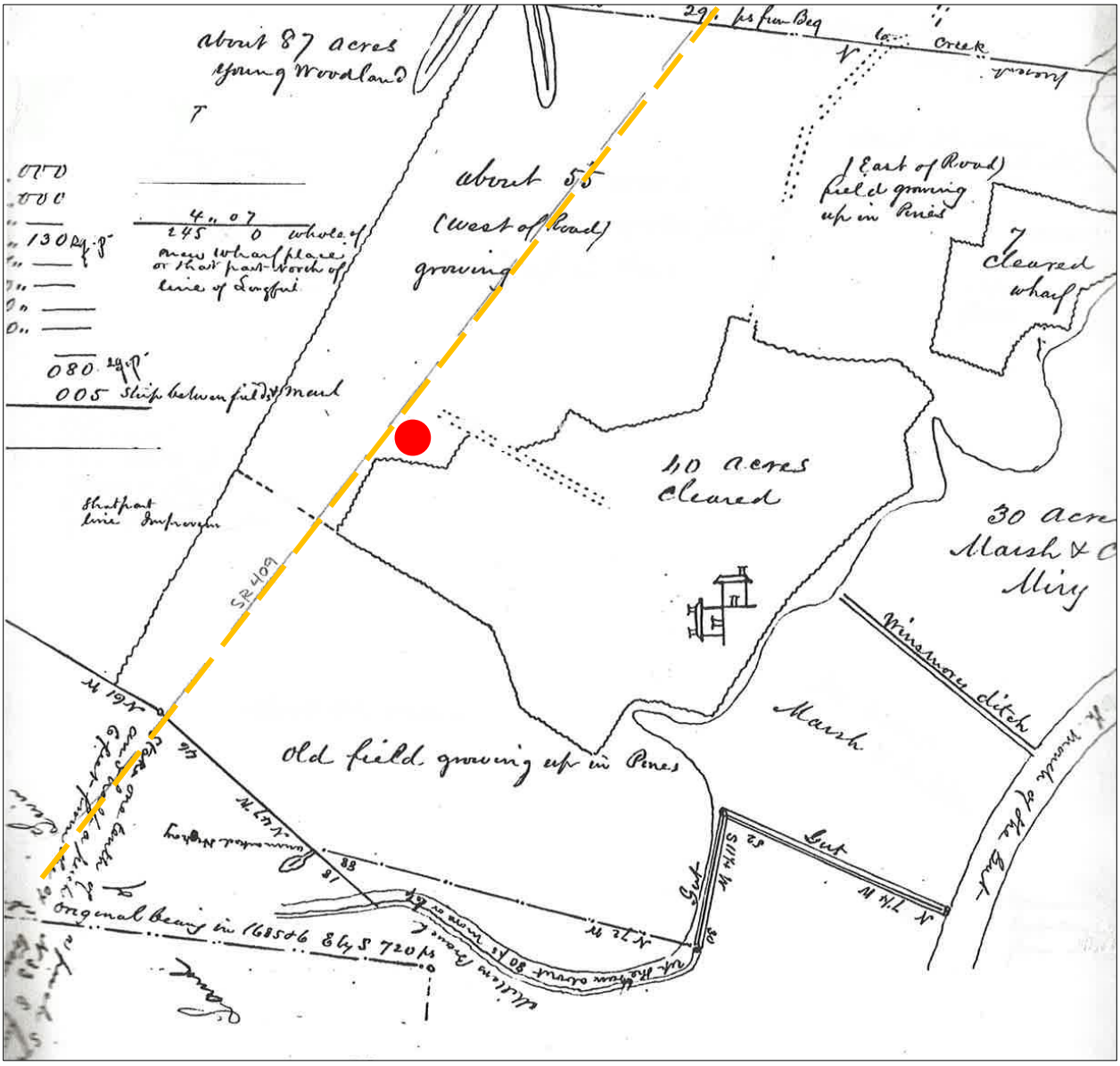
> Col. Benjamin Potter, who came here from Drummondtown…was a tanner by trade; his vats occupying considerable space on each side of Front street (near the run). He established another yard on a branch of the Tub-Mill pond, known now as "Tanyard branch." His store stood on the south side of the street, where with his son Edmund, he conducted the tanyards, dealing in land, freighting and mercantile affairs in general, and accumulated an ample fortune; notwithstanding his brusque, uncongenial manner. Col. Potter's wealth consisted chiefly of land, the disposition of which in his will, clearly illustrates the eccentric mind of the man. After some valuable bequests to relatives, he left a large acreage of land "to the poor of Kent county, outside of the walls of the Poor House. This is popularly known as the Potter Estate (Hynson 1899).

Deed records suggest that Col. Potter allowed the widow Winsmore to remain on the property until her death after which time he leased Winsmore Farm to a man referred to as Griffith. Griffith remained on the property until Potter's death.

In 1843 Potter died leaving a large portion of his landholdings (several individual farm properties) to the County of Kent and city of Milford for the use of the poor. The will was contested by his heirs and it was not until 1848 that a trust was formally established. In 1850 the Orphans Court conducted a survey of Potter's land including the project area (Figure 3-4). This became known as the Potter Estate Charity Trust, or "Potter Estate." The farm was recorded as Winsmore Farm in the Potter Estate records. No trustee was appointed to the Potter Estate for three years following his death

during which time the properties, both the land and buildings, were falling into disrepair. There were tenants on various farms throughout this time but they were not well managed.

Figure 3-4. 1850 Orphans Court Plot W, p 26, showing the approximate location of the project area and SR 409/New Wharf Road.

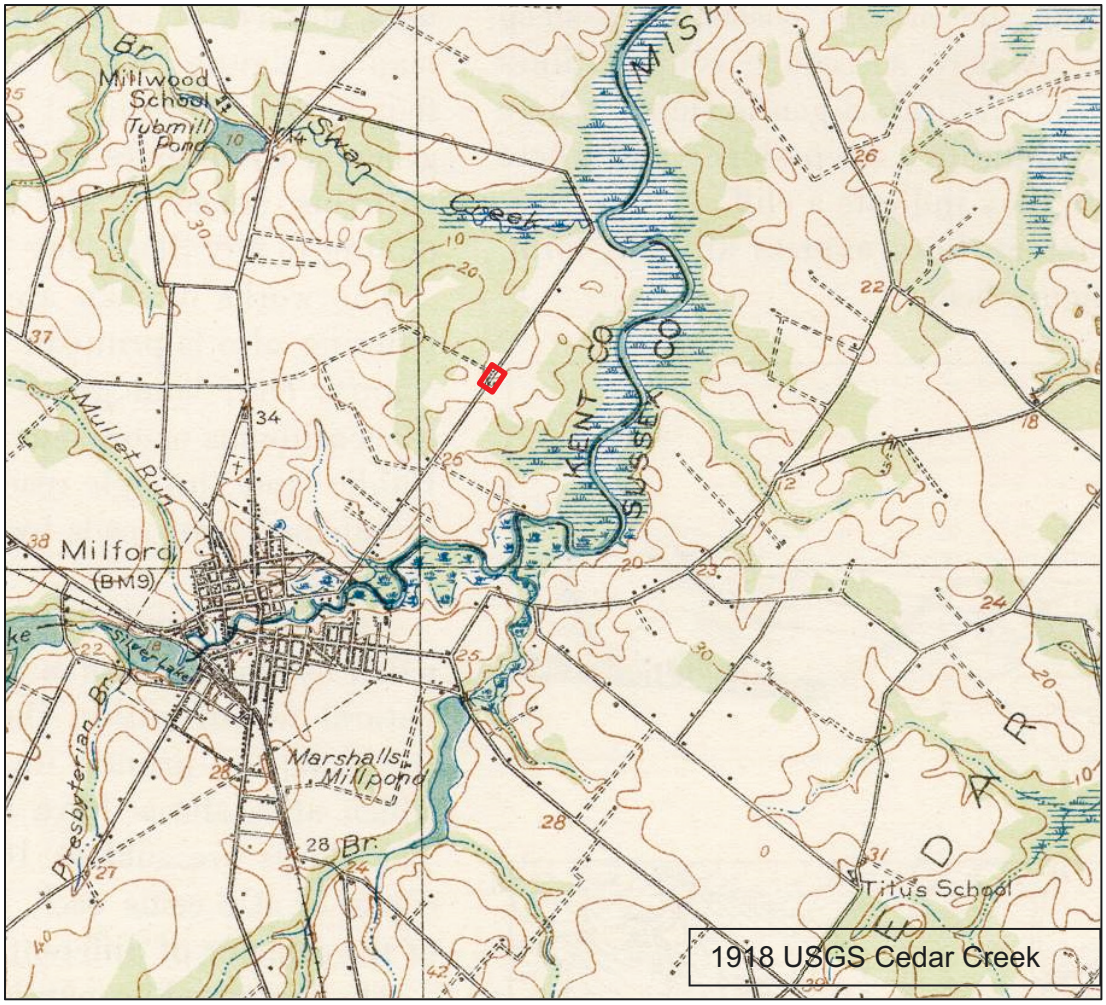


Charles Fleming was made executor of the Potter Estate in 1847 and remained in that position until 1863, at which time he was taken to court for mismanagement of the farms.

It was noted in State of Delaware vs. Fleming (Bates 1883) that only 16 or 17 acres of the farm were tillable; this is considerably fewer than what was reported when Potter purchased the land. According to several witnesses, Potter left Winsmore Farm “in an utterly desolate condition, almost without building, and growing up in pine wood…and soon after [Potter’s death] this farm became tenantless and the old house on it was, at one time, used for small pox patients…” This was the condition of the property when Charles Fleming, executor, rented it to John Redden in 1848 (Bates 1883:519–520). Fleming had rented the Winsmore Farm to John Redden (who had a farm and

house at the New Wharf) for an “inadequate rent” according to the Chancery records. John Redden tilled the Winsmore Farm from 1848 until 1863 after which time it remained vacant until January 1866. Redden also had a woodleave to cut wood on the property for sale at the local market. The Andersons took over the property in 1866 under an improvement-lease. In the Andersons lease it was stipulated that they “cut off, clear, and bring into cultivation” portions of the woodland; any wood not suitable for building or fencing could be sold and the proceeds used to make improvements to the farm including a new two-story dwelling house with brick wall, a stable and outbuildings, “the old to be used as far as suitable” (Bates 1883:522). It is likely these new structures are the ones shown on the 1868 Beers map and the later 1918 USGS map (Figure 3-5). This is the first map of the area to show structures within the current project area although the 1850 Orphan’s Court plot does show a dwelling and summer kitchen just southeast of the current project area, closer to the Mispillion.

Figure 3-5. 1918 USGS Cedar Creek Quadrangle map (detail).



The current alignment of SR 409/New Wharf Road was developed in 1860—it was later extended by Dorsey, a local businessman, ca. 1878. The original/historic New Wharf Road was farther north, closer to Swan Creek (called “New Wharf Rd” on the old maps); it was the primary east-west road into Milford until the 1850s. Today it is known as 10th Street.

A deed dated to 1959 shows that a portion of the Potter Estate Charity Trust, including land adjacent to the evaluation area, was sold to the State Highway Department for the new County Road 409/ New Wharf Road (Deed Book L21:453).

In the early 1960s the Potter Estate Charity began splitting up and selling off the Potter lands to the public. The land encompassing the project area was sold in 1962 to Harvey Marvel and his wife Violet C., and Edwin L. Fisher and his wife Frances M. (Deed Book B23:573). The deed reads "All that certain farm in Milford Hundred, Kent County and State of Delaware, with the improvements thereon being a house and barn, known as the Winsmore Farm and of record at Plot W in the plots of the Potter Charity Estate."

At some point following the purchase those structures were razed. Marvel and Fisher held onto the property until about 1982 when the partnership of Bill Dickerson & George Chaney purchased it, trading as either *Diamond State Trucking Brokers* or *Blue Hen Lines.* George Chaney died in 1990 and left his 50 percent interest to his wife, Dorothy Lynch Chaney. After her death she left the property to her two sons, Randy and Dewey Lynch. Bill Dickerson died about 1990 and left his 50 percent interest to his daughter, Billie Lynn Dickerson Thompson and her son, Billy Thompson. The Chancery Court divided the property into two separate parcels in 2012. Today the Lynch brothers own 96 acres along Route 1 inclusive of the project area, and Billie Lynn Dickerson owns 96 acres along the Mispillion River and further east.

3.3 Known Sites and Previous Investigations

A total of five archaeological sites have been recorded within 1 mile of the Phase II evaluation area. Of those, two are prehistoric and three are historic (Table 3-1). Additionally, 1 historic bridge and 17 historic structures have been recorded within 1 mile of the project area. One previous investigation has been reported within 1 mile of the project area (Table 3-2).

Table 3-1. Previously recorded archaeological and historic architectural sites within 1 mile radius of the Phase II evaluation area.

Delaware SHPO Designation	Site Number	Description	Period	National Register Status
K-360		Wilkerson & Son Brickworks	1917–1957 (Built 1912)	Listed 1978 (demolished)
K-788	7K-F-037	Bowen Farm Site	Historic	
K-348		Mispillion River Lift Bridge	1929–1930	
K-2031	7K-F-168	Nutter Smokehouse	Historic	demolished
K-4895		Dwelling	ca. 1880–1940	
K-4896		Agricultural Complex	ca. 1880–1940	
K-4898		Agricultural Complex	ca. 1880–1940	
K-4949		Dwelling Complex		
K-7336	7K-F-204		Historic	
K-7461		Dwelling	1940	
K-7477		Dwelling	1940	
K-7478		Dwelling	1925	
K-7479		Dwelling	1925	
K-7480		Dwelling	1950	
K-7481		Dwelling	1945	

Table 3-1. Previously recorded archaeological and historic architectural sites within 1 mile radius of the Phase II evaluation area.

Delaware SHPO Designation	Site Number	Description	Period	National Register Status
K-7482		Dwelling	1950	
K-7483		Dwelling	1940	
K-7701		Dwelling Complex	1930	
K-7702		Dwelling Complex	ca. 1880	
S-455	7S-A-001	Mispillion	Woodland II	
S-456	7S-A-002	Cedar Neck School	Woodland I	
S-3728		Dwelling	Historic	
S-4035		State Bridge No. 927	Historic	

Source: Delaware CRS forms and CHRS website, accessed October 2014 and March 2015

Table 3-2. Previous Cultural Resource Investigation within 1 mile of the Phase II evaluation area.

Title	Investigator	Report Date	Report Type
Phase I Archaeological Investigation: SR 1, Northeast Front Street Grade Separated Intersection, Milford Hundred.	A.D. Marble & Company	January 2014	Phase I survey
Phase I Archaeological Investigations of Selected Portions of the Proposed Expansion of the City of Milford Sanitary Sewer District in Sussex County, Delaware.	MAAR Associates, Inc.	January 2001	Phase I survey
Phase I Archaeological Survey in Selected Portions of the Eastern Shore Natural Gas Pipeline, Harrington and Milford Townships, Kent County, Delaware.	John Milner Associates, Inc.	2000	Phase I survey
Phase I Cultural Resource Survey of Bethuel Watson's Estate – the "Hill Land", Cedar Creek Hundred, Sussex County, Delaware.	Parson's Engineering Science, Inc.	June 1998	Phase I survey

Source: Delaware CRS forms and CHRS website, accessed October 2014 and March 2015

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