

**APPENDIX B:
PREVIOUS DOCUMENTATION**

BEGIN

CATH. RECTORY

Use black ink and completely fill each box. Entries above the ruled line will appear on fiche labels.

CRS N-1217.



STATE OF DELAWARE

DIVISION OF
HISTORICAL & CULTURAL AFFAIRS

HALL OF RECORDS • DOVER • 19901

FICHE TITLE FRAME

Date ordered:

Camera:

Date filmed:

Operator's Signature:

The images on this microfiche are unaltered photocopies of the material contained in the survey files, Bureau of Archaeology and Historic Preservation.

Inventory

N-1217

NEGATIVE #11-8

SUBJECT:
Holy Rosary Catholic Church Rectory
5130 Philadelphia Pike
Claymont, Delaware

DATE January, 1964

PHOTOGRAPHER:
Mrs. Richmond D. Williams
109 Nevada Avenue
Shipley Heights
Wilmington 3, Delaware

REFERENCES:

MARKS:



August 16, 1974
same location
H.W. & S.M.

File: SURVEY



STATE OF DELAWARE
DIVISION OF HISTORICAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS
HALL OF RECORDS • DOVER • 19001
(302) 678 5114

October 25, 1977

LAWRENCE C. HENRY
DIRECTOR

Reverend Charles L. Brown, III
Holy Rosary Church
3200 Philadelphia Pike
Claymont, DE 19703

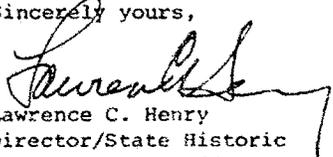
Dear Reverend Brown:

Enclosed are the forms for our Cultural Resource Survey. The completion of these forms provides the first step towards consideration for the National Register.

In recent years, we have chosen to take a geographical approach towards our National Register meetings. A certain area of the state will be chosen and then carefully examined in regard to all of its cultural resources. The most significant sites will be chosen for consideration. The enclosed forms will be included in our cultural resource survey file and will enable us to give adequate consideration to your property at the time we are making nominations from the area.

Please submit the survey forms, along with some photographs of your property, to Joan M. Norton at the above address. We thank you for your interest in our program.

Sincerely yours,


Lawrence C. Henry
Director/State Historic
Preservation Officer

Enclosures



STATE OF DELAWARE
DEPARTMENT OF STATE
DIVISION OF HISTORICAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS
HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICE
15 THE GREEN
DOVER • DE • 19901-3611

TELEPHONE: (302) 739 - 5685

FAX: (302) 739 - 5660

October 15, 2002

Brian D. Eckert
Director of Asset Management
Interfaith Housing, DE
2 South Augustine Street, Suite B
Wilmington, DE 19804

RE: Overlook Colony Potential National Register Historic District

Dear Mr. Eckert:

This letter is to describe the potentially eligible historic district preliminarily defined in the Overlook Colony section of Claymont, New Castle County, Delaware. The eligibility was determined at the consensus level in early 2002, requiring further study and documentation for official listing on the National Register of Historic Places.

The Overlook Colony, from preliminary evaluation and research, appears to be both historically and architecturally important. Although never completely developed as planned, the Overlook Colony section of Claymont is historically important as part of the community planning work of nationally recognized planner John Nolan. This history is reflected in the earliest surviving construction within the community. Also, the Overlook Colony section is also important for what the subsequent development can reveal about the economics and demographic changes within the northern Brandywine Hundred community. The 1918 plan for Overlook Colony survives in the remnants of the street pattern and the English Cottage-influenced architecture designed by H. Errol Coffin during the early period. The remaining architecture within the area is representative of early 20th century architectural style in the region, state and nation.

Preliminary boundaries for a potential historic district within the Overlook Colony section of Claymont were determined at the site visit in January 2002 and are subject to change based on the evaluation survey and ultimate nomination of the area. The preliminary boundary includes buildings on both sides of the following streets: Second Avenue between Court and East Brandywine avenues; the both sides of Court Avenue between Second and Fourth avenues; Commonwealth Avenue between Court Avenue and Philadelphia Pike; Third Avenue between Court and Brandywine avenues; Fourth

October 15, 2002
Mr. Brian Eckert
Page 2

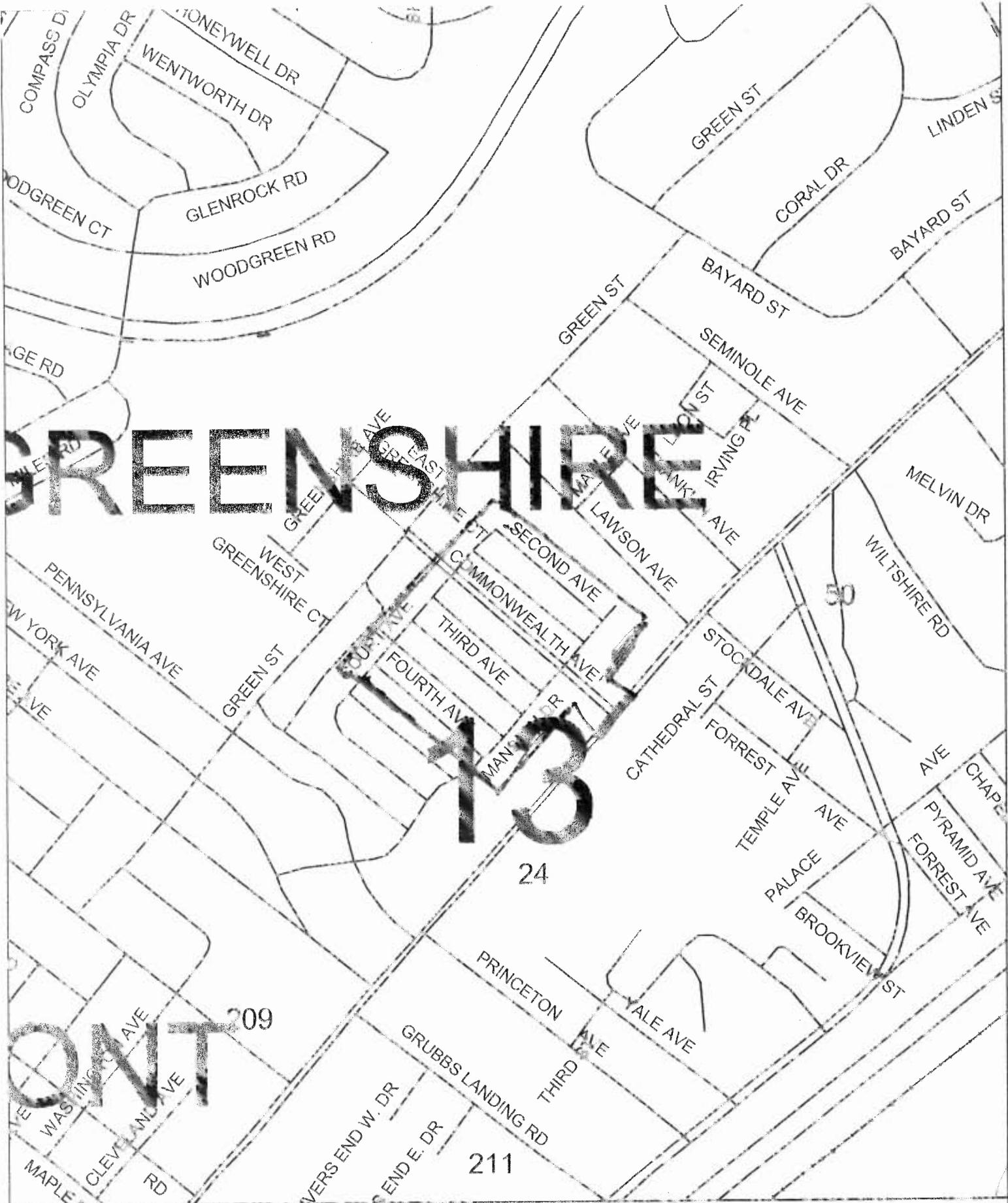
Avenue between Court and Brandywine avenues; and, Brandywine Avenue between
Second and Fourth avenues.

I will be happy to share the research gathered to augment the information
submitted and look forward to working with you on this project.

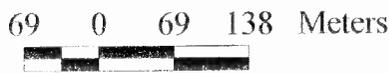
Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "R. K. Bodo". The signature is written in a cursive, slightly slanted style.

Robin K. Bodo
National Register Program Coordinator



Overlook Colony Potential Historic District
 Claymont, New Castle County, Delaware



1:6926



To: Robin

From: Joan N. Larrivee@SHPO@DOHCA

Cc:

Subject: Constituent Contact

Attachment:

Date: 1/9/2002 9:41 AM

Please call: Jim Haley of The Ingerman Group (856-662-1730 Ext. 42). He is calling about the Overlook Colony. He wants to know if we have determined whether it is National Register eligible. I have spoken to you before about their interest. They sent down the pamphlet on it which we received several months ago. Let me know what you tell them. (This is the same developer who is doing the Central YMCA.)

Joan N. Larrivee

Deputy State Historic Preservation Officer

15 The Green

Dover, DE 19901

(P) 302.739.5685

(F) 302.739.5660

jlarrivee@state.de.us

Overlook Colony
New Castle Co.

THE HOUSING BOOK

Containing Photographic Reproductions, with Floor Plans
of Workingmen's Homes. One and Two Family
Houses of Frame, Brick, Stucco and Concrete
Construction; also Four, Six and Nine Family
Apartments. Showing Single Houses,
Groups and Developments that have
been built in various parts of the
United States

Compiled by

WILLIAM PHILLIPS COMSTOCK

Editor of

Architecture and Building

From the Designs of Many Prominent Architects

150 Illustrations and Plans

NEW YORK

THE WILLIAM T. COMSTOCK CO.

23 WARREN STREET

1919
Copyright, 1919

By

The William T. Comstock Co.

When Building a Home

READ

Bungalows, Camps and Mountain
Houses,

By William Phillips Comstock

The Swiss Chalet Book,

By William S. B. Dana

Rumford Fireplaces and How They Are
Made,

By G. Curtis Gillespie

Two Family and Twin Houses,

By William T. Comstock

Garages and Motor Boat Houses,

By William Phillips Comstock

The Hollow Tile House,

By Frederick Squires

Wall Papers and Wall Coverings,

By Arthur Seymour Jennings

American Renaissance, a Book on the
History of Domestic Colonial Archi-
tecture in America,

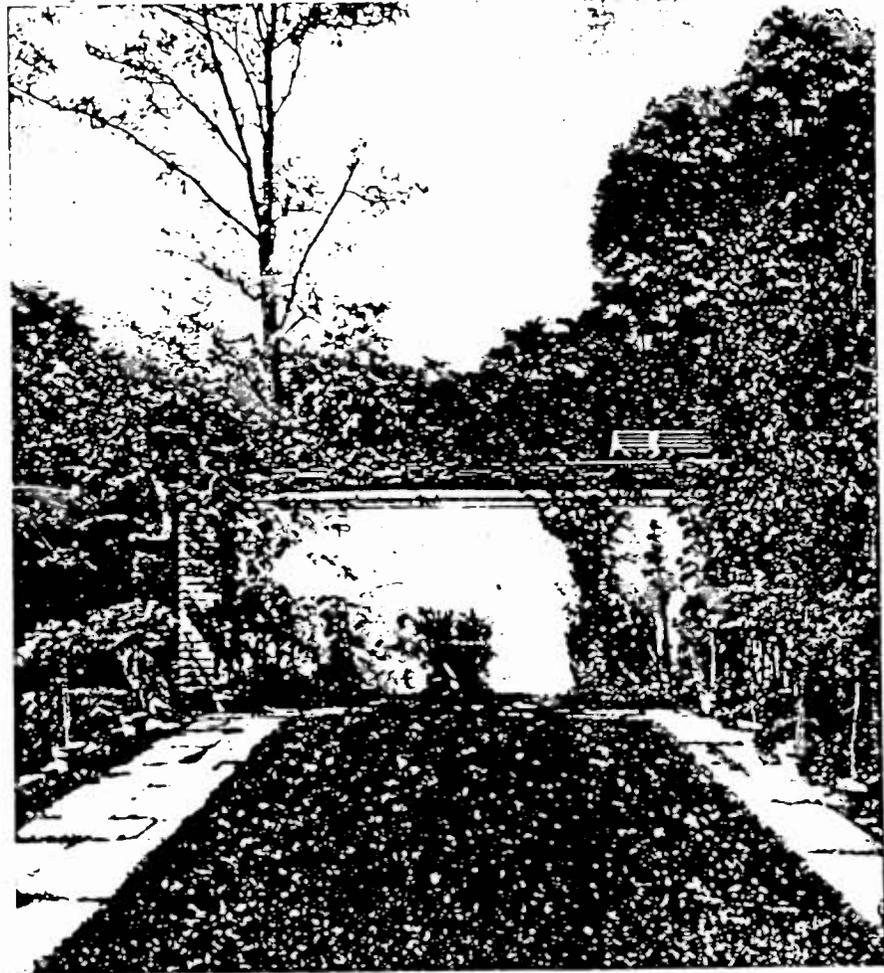
By Joy Wheeler Dow

THE WILLIAM T. COMSTOCK CO.

PUBLISHERS

23 WARREN STREET

NEW YORK CITY



Our Garden

There are spots of wondrous beauty
In every clime and land,
Some were fashioned by Old Nature,
Some were made by Man's crude hand,
Some lie in the wildest settings,
Some adorn a mansion fair,
Some are massive in their beauty,
Some are slight and light as air.

But the spot of rarest beauty,
Quite the fairest gem of all,
Is that spot of verdant Nature
Just within our garden wall.
With our own toil have we built it,
It has known our loving care,
And naught can match the joy we feel
When calmly seated there.

PREFACE

IN this present day when peace is hovering over the world, with all the questions of reconstructions and readjustments to be settled, among the all important problems facing the country is the one of industrial housing. The scarcity of suitable homes for working men is the starting point. What is true of one industrial center is true of the next, and so on through the whole chain of mill and factory towns, steel and mining centers throughout the country. A sporadic movement for better homes for working men started some years ago. Port Sunlight, England, may be hailed as a pioneer and recently here and there in the United States employers of large numbers of men, reading the signs of the times, animated in part by a philanthropic spirit, and influenced by the economic side of the situation, have instituted small colonies for housing their help, near their industrial plants.

“And then came the war”—a cry that for years to come will mark the ending and beginning of many things in our lives, customs and habits. The U. S. Government in order to facilitate war work came to the aid of private enterprise and the housing movement went forward with marvelous rapidity.

We present in this book examples of the earlier order, initiated by the heads of large plants or corporations, and of developments carried out under Government direction, which altogether will give a clear comprehension of the large scope embraced, and also give suggestions to those who may wish designs for small building projects or even single houses. No attempt has been made to give an estimate of cost in any of these operations; the present instability in prices of material, the difference in value of such in different localities, and the ever changing labor situation, making any fair or stable valuation impossible. It is a question that each community must solve for itself governed by local conditions.

William Phillips Comstock.

August, 1919.

List of Contributors

→ Clarence Wilson Brazer.....1133 Broadway, New York City.
H. Errol Coffin.....1123 Broadway, New York City
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Albert F. Edwards.....30 Church Street, New York City
Hiss & Weeks.....425 Fifth Avenue, New York City
Electus D. Litchfield.....477 Fifth Avenue, New York City
Rossel Edward Mitchell.....Norfolk, Va.
Geo. B. Post & Sons.....101 Park Avenue, New York City
Carroll H. Pratt.....681 Fifth Avenue, New York City
C. E. Schermerhorn.....430 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
John F. Suppes.....Akron, O.

(ANNOTATED BY VALERIE (ESNA
E-1-EC)

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Overlook Colony, Claymont, Del.

H. Errol Coffin
Architect

THE inception and growth of this housing project is one of the examples where the shortage of houses for industrial workers, caused by the sudden expansion of manufacturing activities in war times, was met by the General Chemical Co., who announced their belief that the better a man is housed the better work he can do. This development, designed to house about five thousand persons, will be spread over a ground area of 240 acres, in which is included a park and an attractive lake. Mr. H. Errol Coffin, architect, of New York City, was called upon to design the entire village of 201 houses, and the building of these was carried out by The Stewart Willey Co., Inc. of New York.

The houses are of the attached type, ranging in groups or rows from four to thirty-nine houses each. They were so planned because the people in this locality are accustomed to living in the row type house, and the lower cost of construction in houses so designed was also a factor that counted, being cheaper to build, maintain and heat than the separate house. The houses are built of concrete, hollow tile, brick and steel frame, with slate roofs of varying shades, this substantial construction being used to eliminate fire hazard and also to minimize future cost of maintenance. Taking advantage of material close at hand one group of houses was made of cinder concrete. There being a large quantity of crushed coal cinders, ordinarily considered a waste product, at the plant of the chemical company it was immediately utilized after various tests had demonstrated its suitability for the work in hand. With steel reinforcing rods imbedded in the concrete as the work progressed, these cinder concrete walls were stronger and more substantial than the usual walls of brick or of tile construction. The exterior finish of stucco applied to another group makes a very satisfactory appearance, mellowing with time and forming a delightful background for vines and shrubbery. The general exterior appearance of the houses is that of a story and a half, but actually every house is two full stories in height. This effect has been accomplished by an ingenious arrangement of the staircases and the low slanting roofs, following the line of the stairs. Most of the houses are individually heated, but ten of one group are heated from a central plant located in the boarding house. Each family has a complete house,

THE HOUSING BOOK

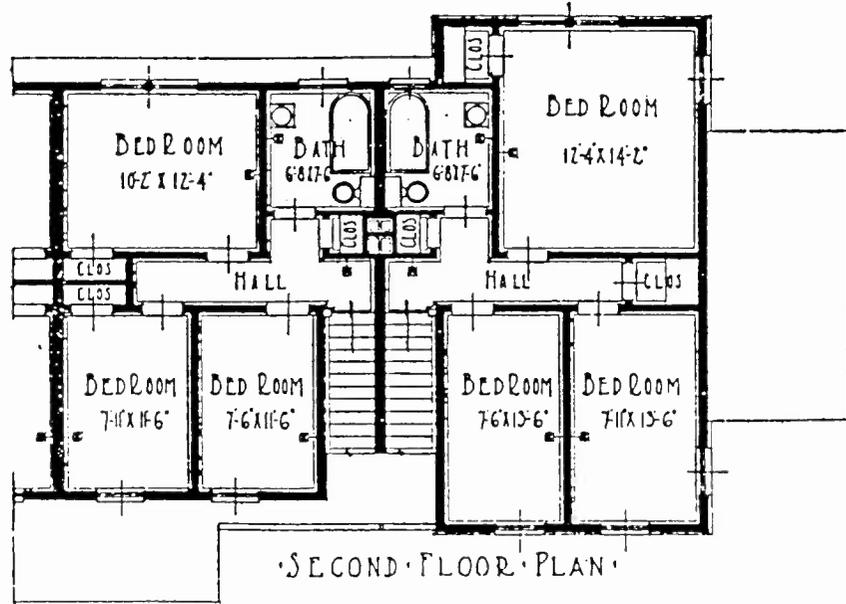
N-12,276

with porch, front and rear yards. In addition to the dwellings there is a boarding house and a community building containing stores, school, moving picture auditorium and superintendent's apartments. Individual houses are further planned to be constructed along the winding highways of the company's property. Plate 88 shows an elevation of one-half of a long row of houses built of cinder concrete, the three gables forming a central figure and the other gables spaced so as to break the roof lines of the row. The plans of the two floors show compactness and utility.

Plate 89 shows a group of ten houses built of stucco. The elevation illustrates the varying arrangement of gables and the picture of completed houses displays the different treatment in paneling of the gable ends. These houses also show a little larger dimension of the rooms and have a bathroom.

The seventeen-house group in stucco is shown on Plate 40, a little more pretentious in style and with more rooms, closets and conveniences. Here is the same breaking of the roof line into gables, the stucco covering the second story in a continuous plain surface. The floor plans indicate good-sized rooms, convenient kitchens, numerous closets and a bathroom.

We are indebted to the publishers of *Industrial Houses of Concrete and Stucco* for the cuts of the three elevation plans shown in the illustrations.



TYPICAL INTERMEDIATE & CORNER HOUSES

SECOND FLOOR PLAN OF HOUSES SHOWN IN PAGE 69.

ORTH - EAST SIDE OF SECOND AVE.

SOUTHEAST SIDE OF W. BRANDLINE WE. N-12,163 TO S-12,172

OUTWEST SIDE OF SECOND AVE. -12,294- N-12,310

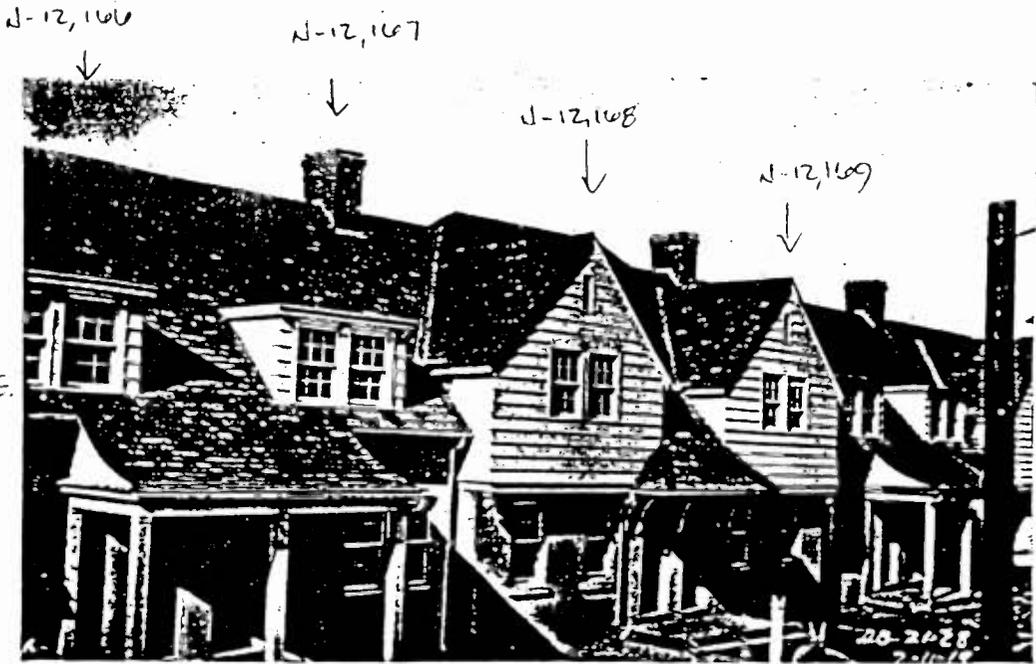
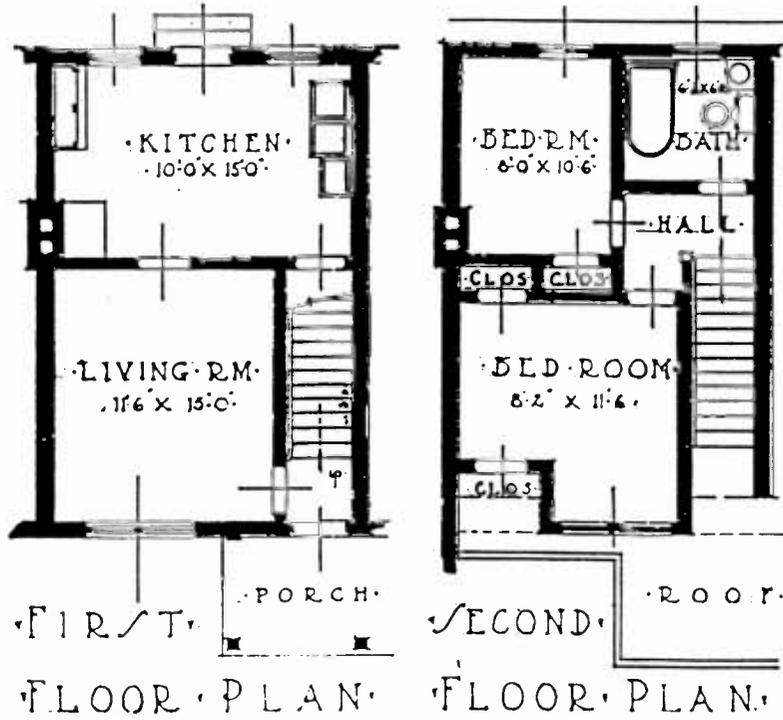


Plate 39.

H. Errol Coffin, Architect.

A GROUP OF TEN HOUSES, CLAYMONT, DEL.

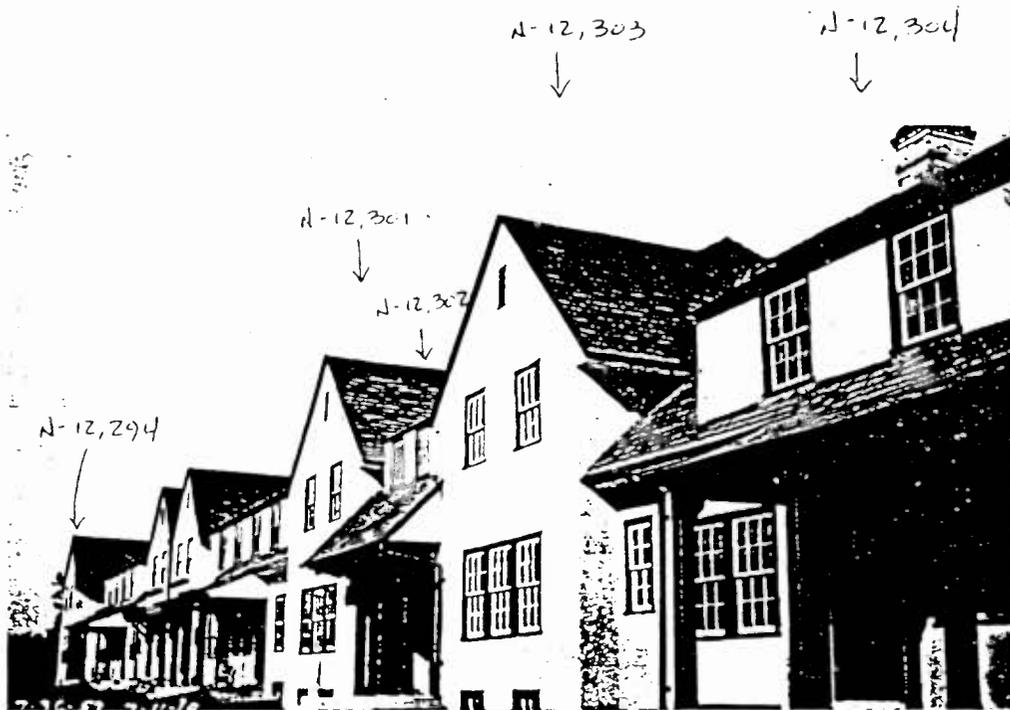


THIS ELEVATION
 SHOWS THE
 E. SIDE OF
 BRANDYWINE
 AVE. IN
 CLAYMONT.



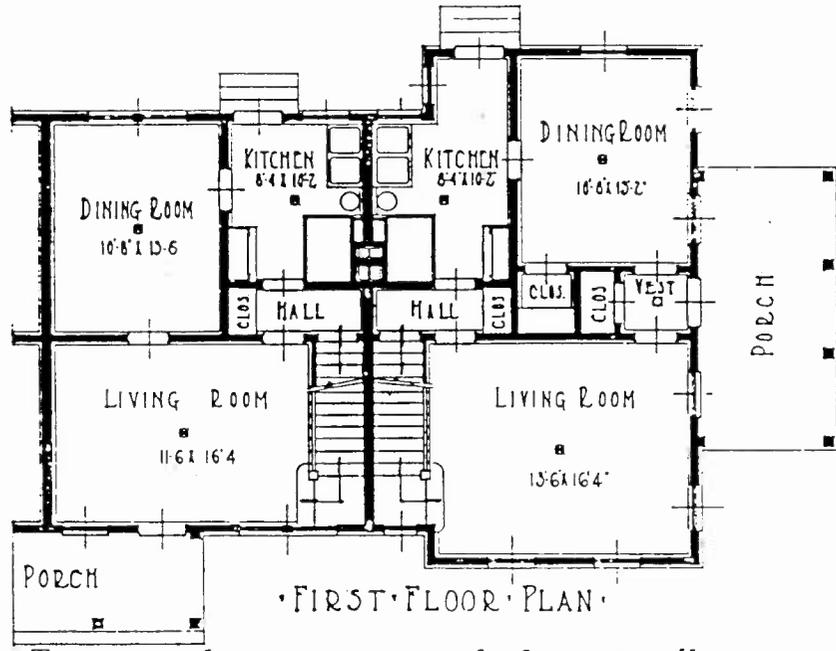
68

N-12,172 N-12,171 N-12,170 N-12,169 N-12,168 N-12,167 N-12,166 N-12,165 N-12,164 N-12,163

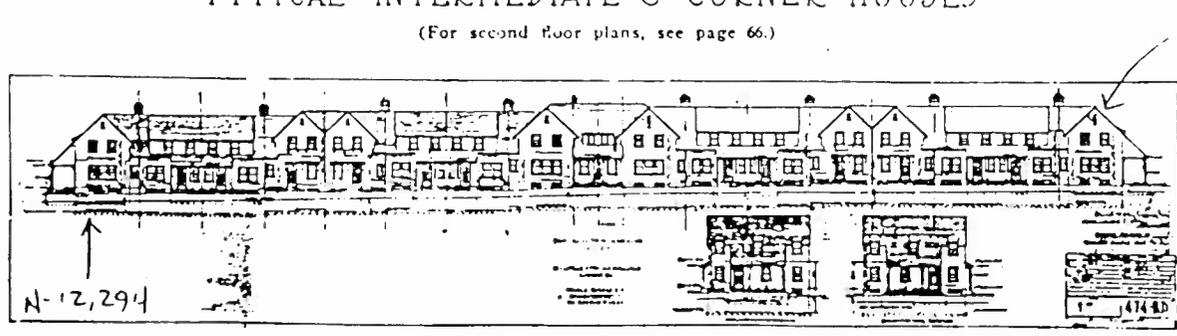


SECOND AVE
(SOUTH-
WEST SIDE)

Plate 40. A GROUP OF SEVENTEEN HOUSES, CLAYMONT, DEL. H. Errol Coffin, Architect.



• TYPICAL INTERMEDIATE & CORNER HOUSES •
(For second floor plans, see page 66.)



N-12,310
SECOND AVE
(SOUTH-
WEST SIDE)

ELEVATION PLAN OF ABOVE HOUSES.



ANOTHER VIEW
OF HOUSES SHOWN
ON PAGE 69

N-12,301 N-12,302 N-12,303



Plate 41.

ANOTHER VIEW OF HOUSES SHOWN ON PAGE 68.

H. Errol Coffin, Architect.

70

N-12,170 N-12,171

N-12,172

Some Aspects of Industrial Housing

I. INTRODUCTORY AND EXAMPLES OF INDUSTRIAL TOWN PLANNING FROM THE WORK OF JOHN NOLEN

By CHARLES C. MAY

THE broad subject of housing, as a problem, includes the provision of adequate living facilities in all cases where laws of supply and demand have failed to meet modern requirements. The terms used are necessarily inexact, for standards of living do not lend themselves to precision in statement. Yet the idea includes, in a general way, both of the principal divisions of the subject: first, the improvement of existing conditions where housing is bad because of congestion — overcrowding the acre, as in parts of most cities, and overcrowding the room, as in a few spots, at least, in nearly every town; and, second, the provision of new housing facilities to meet new or increased demands. The former has been and probably will always be a matter of legislation and inspection; the latter is a constructive task which is inspiring in its combination of responsibility with opportunity.

Roughly speaking, the recognition of the housing problem, in its first sense, dates in our own country from about the middle of the nineteenth century. At that time not a single city in the United States possessed a building code to regulate the construction either of single family dwellings or of tenements. The legislative lead was taken by New York in the enactment of its tenement house law of 1867. As was natural, the bent thus imparted to efforts toward housing reform has proven dominant through forty or fifty years. As city after city has awakened to the existence of its own housing problem, attention has been focused very largely upon tenement conditions; legislation has been aimed at remedying and restricting the tenement slum. Only to a far lesser degree has study been given to the social and economic conditions which have produced the tenement and the slum; and only within a comparatively short period have laws been passed which aim specifically to prevent the growth of new slums like the old ones. Today, too, the emphasis is placed far less exclusively upon the tenement as the seat of housing evils, for we know now that conditions which encourage epidemics and tuberculosis, that constitute fire hazard, that foster immorality and breed defectives, are by no means confined to the tenement. Overcrowding the room is an evil far more widespread than overcrowding the acre, yet equally ominous.

In these articles we are to be more particularly interested in the housing problem in its second sense — that of providing new housing to meet new demands, and, more particularly still, demands produced by industrial expansion rather than those

ordinarily met by the usual real-estate development.

Beginnings in this sort of housing problem far antedate those in the first class already mentioned. The U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, in recent investigations, found evidences of the "company house" back into the eighteenth century. Lowell, 1798, and Wilmington, 1831, are among the earliest examples. They were the forerunners of a large group where villages sprang up, oftentimes around a single industry upon which they depended not only for their growth and prosperity, but for their very existence. One thinks at once of such towns as Hopedale and Whitinsville, Mass., and, in their early days, of Pullman and Gary, near Chicago, as examples of this inseparable relation between industry and town.

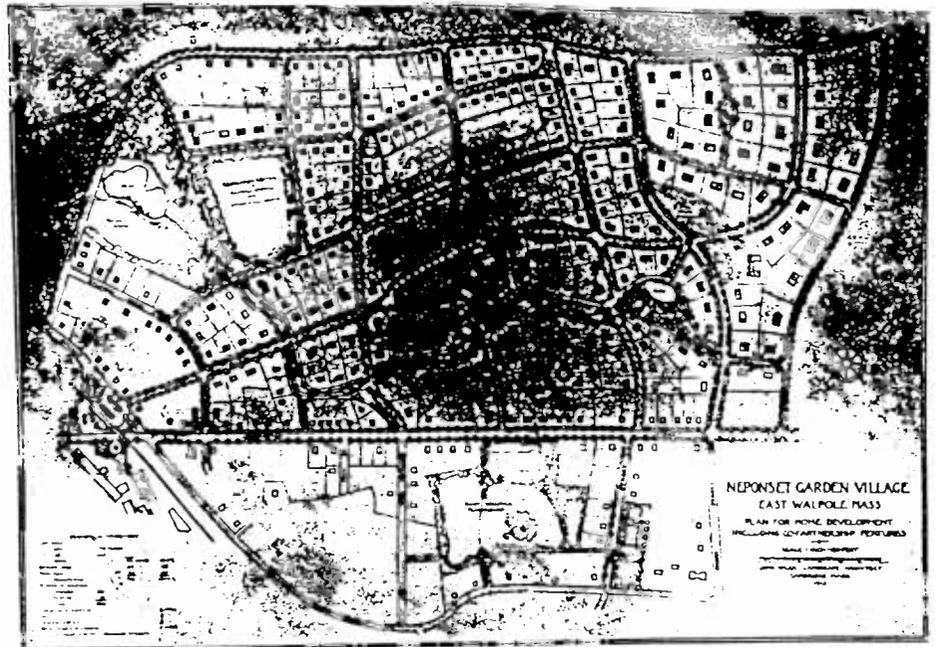
Because this relation has been so close, the subject of industrial housing is intimately bound up with the several great movements that have marked industrial progress during the last half century or so, with all the changes they have wrought. First came the movement toward consolidation, in which big business replaced small businesses. The mountain stream that formerly furnished power to a series of small, independent paper mills now runs idle and unhindered; the mills have been "absorbed," the operatives scattered, or rather concentrated, many of them seeking a livelihood in the great mill of the city — the mill which has swallowed up their former means of employment. Everywhere and in every line of business the same process has taken place in the wave of centralization. Small towns have become booming cities; an entire new group of industrial and commercial centers, each one a good sized metropolis, has arisen from the smaller towns that were wont to think they had perhaps reached their limit of expansion.

We are all familiar with this vast change which within a few decades has diminished our rural population and multiplied our urban many times. Congestion of factories has ever been productive of congestion in the tenement district not far away. Thus the vast expansion of industry with its concentration of population, its increasing employment of low waged employees, its gravitation toward traffic, supply and power centers, has proven a very potent factor in the exaggeration of the housing problem in both its aspects.

But there has ensued a secondary reaction in large-scale industrial growth. City conditions have not proven permanently advantageous to the largest industrial plants. The case is not unlike that of an-

other American phenomenon, the skyscraper. So long as it was an individual exception—a Singer Building] or a Woolworth tower—its promoters reaped large rewards and enjoyed singular advantages of light, air, and exposure beyond their neighbors of the more ordinary type. But when gradually the movement spread over whole districts, and when the multi-storied structure was expressed not as a tower, covering only a small proportion of the lot, but as a gigantic box over all the area the law would allow, then it became evident that such development was inadvisable, uneconomic, and disastrous. So in the urbanization of industries, those first on the spot reaped probably all the anticipated benefits, and did so about in proportion as they were located nearest the very center of things. Presently, however, came need for expansion, and the cramping restriction of the city street system made itself felt; new land must be acquired, and the greatly enhanced cost of real estate became a serious deterrent; at the same time carrying charges on the original plant had jumped to points only partly justified by the newly exalted value in the site itself.

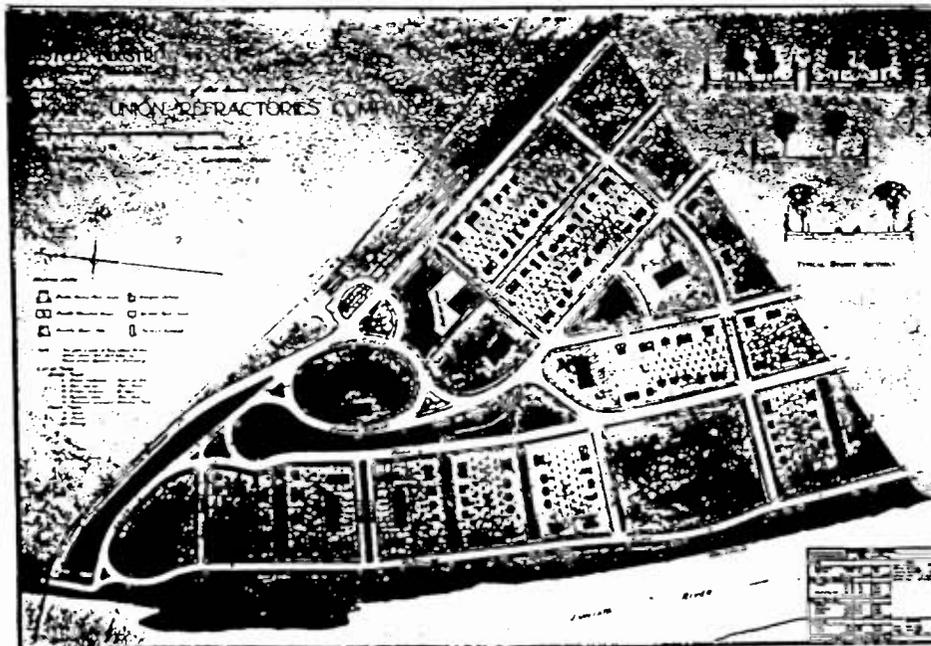
Hence arose that industrial countermarch of which



Plan of Neponset Garden Village, East Walpole, Mass.
John Nolen, Landscape Architect

Mr. Graham R. Taylor treats in his book, "Satellite-Cities." One after another manufacturers of all classes have found it to their advantage to remove bodily from their central, urban situations into districts less congested, less expensive, and more flexible. Begun with individual instances as much as twenty years ago, the movement of industry toward the outskirts of the city is to-day a general one of national importance.

That this vast, industrial flux and reflux has a bearing upon the subject of housing, is obvious; yet the immediate reaction has not been such as might have been predicted. Decentralization of industries has given little or no relief from congestion in the tenements of the greater cities, nor from the need for a larger supply of inexpensive houses in the smaller ones. What it has produced in certain cases is a new population of wage-earners who must add a transportation cost to their expense budget, since in most cases the new factory facilities have been accompanied by no corresponding facilities for houses. We find, therefore, instances of the condition pointed out by Mr. Taylor—large industrial areas in the suburbs, and ad-



Plan of Kistler Industrial Village, Mifflin County, Pa.

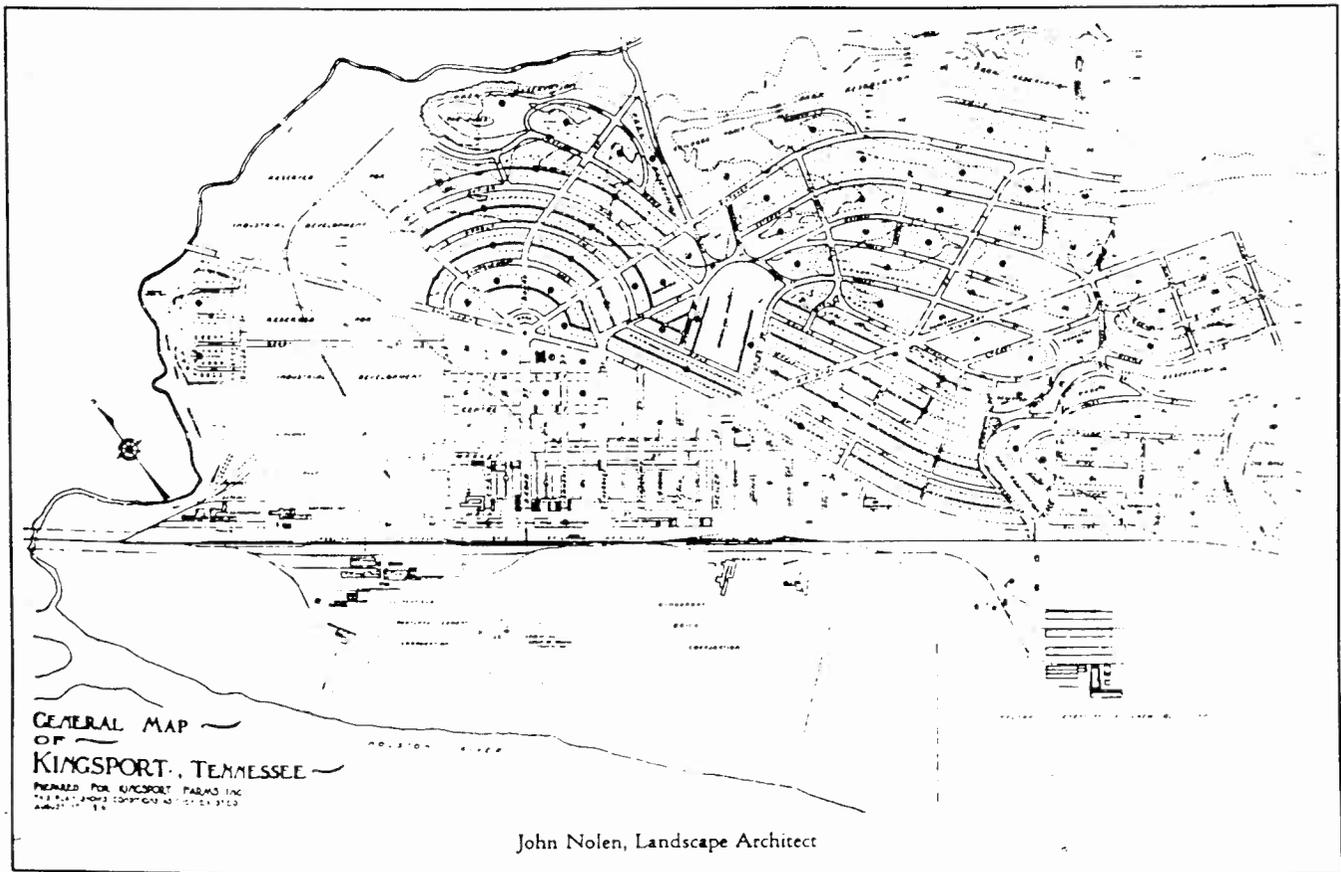
well planned, cheap houses for the factory population, but houses for middle-class commuters whose work is in the city. The factory employees, on the other hand, continue to live in the tenement at the heart of the city's congestion. Night and morning the two classes exchange places — country for city and *vice versa*.

Such conditions bring out very clearly one of the difficult questions in the subject of industrial housing, — that of making some one really responsible for housing the worker. The employer has not recognized the responsibility as his, because he has heretofore been more or less successful in his reliance upon a local or adjacent labor market to keep his payroll filled; the speculative builder has avoided it, because he has found richer returns in catering to the middle-class commuter; the governing body (federal, state, or municipal) has not accepted it, because America has, up to the present, feared such extension of the governmental function. The case has simply been allowed to go by default; as usual, everybody's business has proven nobody's business.

Of late years, however, an increasing number of employers of labor, some among the comparatively small, many among the very largest, have taken this burden upon themselves. They have verified the conclusions reached by those best qualified to speak: first, that the influence of environment upon the individual worker is a vital element in his efficiency.

and in the aggregate becomes a factor of considerable weight in the balance between success and failure; second, that certainly for higher grades of workmen, and under certain conditions of employment, for the lower paid employee as well, individual ownership of houses is desirable, not only for its very considerable saving to employers through steadying men in their jobs, but also for its healthy influence toward thrift, self-respect, and reliability upon the men themselves; third, that the failure of private initiative to provide industrial housing adequate in either quantity or quality must be accepted as a definite conclusion, and that big business would do well therefore to include in its initial program of capital outlay a charge for housing its man-power, on much the same basis as that for housing its plant and equipment; fourth, that since the manufacturer's primary job is turning out goods, not putting up and getting rid of houses, the employer must not look for profits on his housing program comparable to those of the speculative builder. His own returns must be and can be anticipated in other directions — directly, through stabilizing his forces and eliminating the exorbitant waste of "hiring and firing"; and indirectly over a long period, through increased efficiency, health, and morale of the workers.

Prompted by such considerations, numerous employers of labor have taken the most radical step. They have removed beyond the city congestion, be-



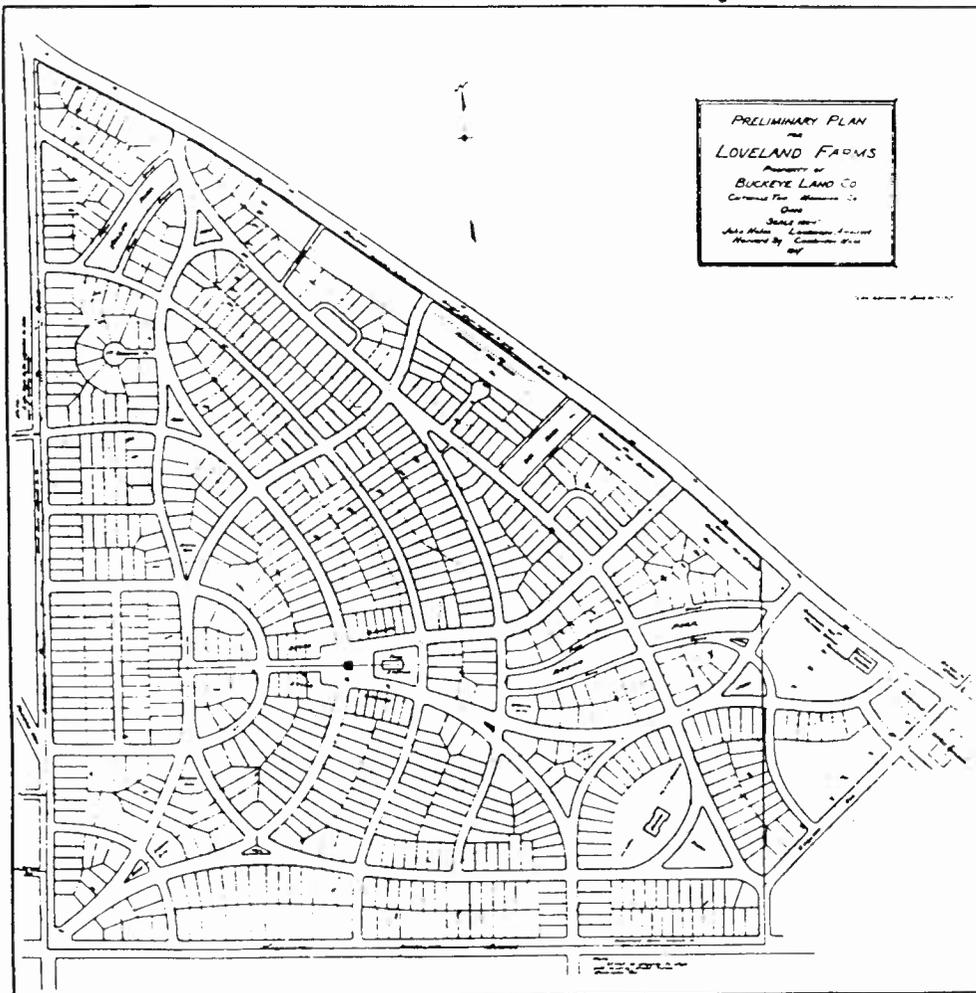
yond the semi-civilization of the outskirts, to points where with plenty of room for expansion, unhampered by external circumstances, they might work out a salvation under conditions of their own making. The responsibility they have assumed in so doing is no light one. In uprooting and transplanting a unit of population, be it large or small, the operator shoulders the moral obligation to provide not merely the physical requirements of bodily shelter and a means of obtaining food, but also some at least of the manifold social activities of a self-contained community.

One might maintain that this problem is not different from that which has for many years confronted the mining companies in starting a new operation. The nature of the business usually locates the plant apart from conditions of settled town life — oftentimes in most inaccessible and uncompromising surroundings. Whatever settlement is to exist, must of necessity be provided and maintained by the company itself. On the other hand, coal and iron mines are not inexhaustible, nor are their plants readily transformed into other lines of industry. With few exceptions, therefore, the companies have in the

past regarded these settlements as temporary, their housing investments as short termed, and any but the cheapest construction unwarranted. These conditions have constituted the mining towns as special cases, and have tended to lower their housing standards, so that while their problem has, in fact, been similar to this newer one, the distinction comes in the spirit in which the problem has been attacked. It might not be unjust to suggest that whereas in the older types of mining camp the policy too often appeared to provide as little and as cheap housing as the company could "get away with," the newer idea says distinctly that the employer is justified in providing all that can be paid for without involving an economic fallacy.

In times less abnormal than the present, it might have been conceivable that the growth of this newer conception of the relation of housing to industry could work out a solution in the natural course of events. The process would have developed through generations of growth, setback, and modification. Actually, war conditions have placed the whole problem in a totally different light. What was formerly regarded by many employers as welfare work,

to be entered upon or not, as a matter of debatable policy, has suddenly loomed up as the stiffest requirement in their emergency program. The facts are becoming too well known to require more than the briefest mention. We know, for instance, that within the next few months the New Jersey meadows along Newark Bay will become the seat of a tremendous ship-building industry — where its 15,000 workers are to live, nobody knows. We know, too, that Bridgeport is building another munition plant, toward which the federal government has contributed two and one-half million dollars. Several thousand workmen will be required to man that plant, yet not a single home has Bridgeport to offer them. We have heard the appeal from Newburgh, N. Y., whose prospective short-



Plan of Loveland Farms, Coitsville Township, Ohio. John Nolen, Landscape Architect

age amounts to 2,000. Not to multiply instances, but to sum them up, we are told that government contracts now pending will require the transfer, within a very few months, of no less than 136,000 workers, five-sixths of whom must be placed in the already congested regions of New England and the other Eastern states. The accommodations for receiving this army being practically nil, it is obvious that the situation rapidly approaches the intolerable. The task is too big for the employer; it is too big for the municipality or the state. The emergency is national in scale. Happily, there are signs that federal authorities are becoming alive to the situation. Let us hope that traditional reluctance will not prevent action upon a scale as broad as the need.

In subdividing the matter of industrial housing, we have distinguished, somewhat arbitrarily, two main types. They are, to be sure, traversed by cross currents, and merge into each other at many points; but if not regarded too rigidly the distinction is useful. Roughly, then, we may speak, first, of the industrial village proper, where an employer seeks to house his own working force, and in doing so provides an industrial housing development which is (or approaches) an independent community; second, of the town or city where a housing corporation or similar agency seeks to provide housing facilities for workers in order to meet an acknowledged shortage, but irrespective of any particular industry or concern.

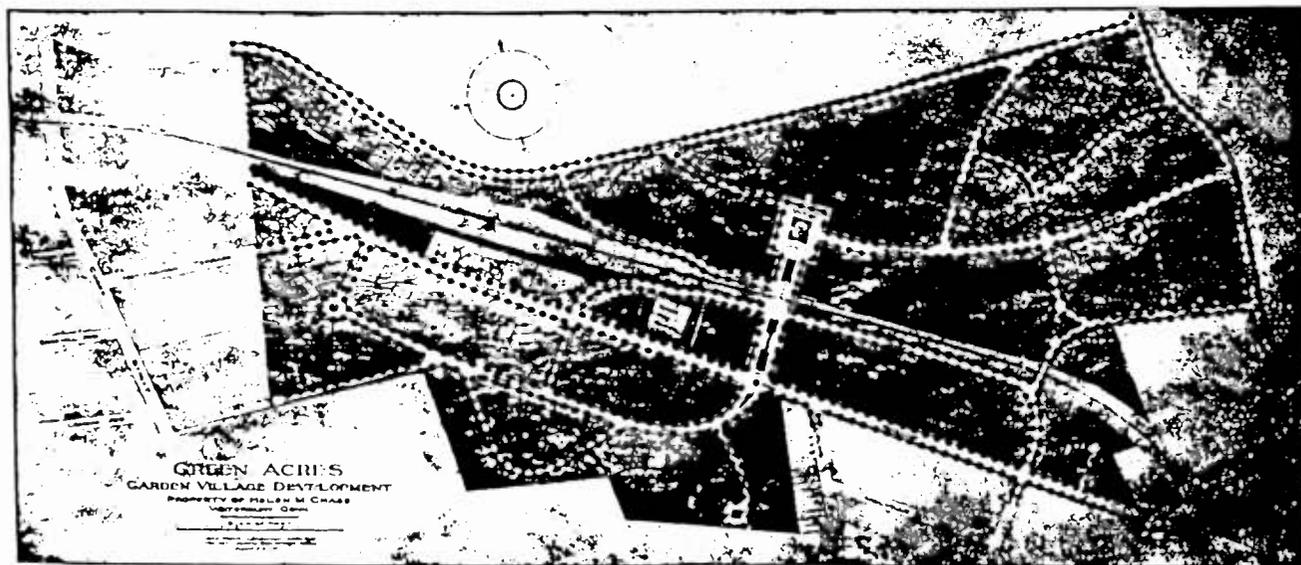
War-time housing might fall into either of these classes; that is, should government aid be confined to an advance of money to further housing developments already planned but held up for lack of funds, its action would doubtless be impartial as between housing corporation and individual employer. Or, in the event of our own country following England's

example by taking up the building program itself, government activity would in all probability include both the independent munition town, comparable to Well Hall in England, and the industrial suburb or section of an already existing community.

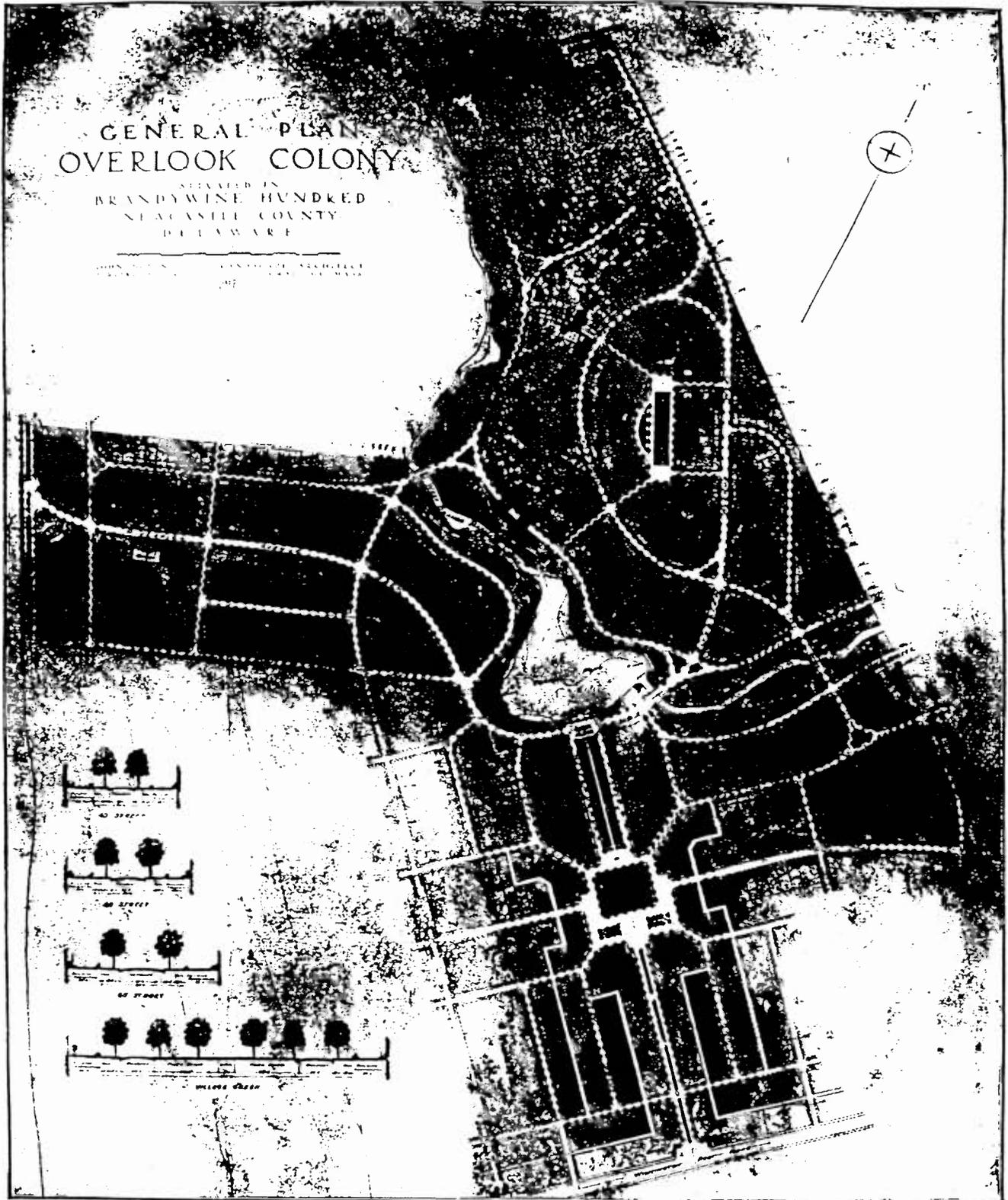
Among those who have been identified from the first with problems of industrial town planning, none has thought more deeply nor practised more widely than Mr. John Nolen of Cambridge. The general plans which we are privileged to reproduce herewith give hints of an exceptional range of activity; they are at the same time suggestive of the individuality which attaches to each industrial problem, and which must dictate its solution.

Of these plans, all except one come within the class that we have called the industrial village proper; that is, a housing development created primarily to care for the employees of a single concern. The exception is found in the plans of Kingsport, Tenn., where a corporation has set out to meet the housing needs of an entire town — a town whose phenomenal growth has far outstripped the possibilities of home building under private initiative.

Looking at these plans even casually, certain characteristics are immediately noticeable. Some have to a very great degree the qualities of independent, self-contained units; others reflect, even on paper, something of the fragmentary, incomplete aspect which was very marked in the original conditions of the problem, and which the most skilful treatment by the town planner cannot wholly obviate. This desirable unity and completeness in a community plan may be inherent with the property itself, or it may to some extent be attained; that



Plan of Green Acres, Waterbury, Conn. John Nolen, Landscape Architect



GENERAL PLAN OF OVERLOOK COLONY, BRANDYWINE HUNDRED,
NEWCASTLE COUNTY, DELAWARE

JOHN NOLEN, LANDSCAPE ARCHITECT

*A*n exceptionally interesting and successful development in spite of severe handicaps in irregularity of boundaries and contour of property. The three isolated arms of land have been brought into a unified and coherent scheme by carefully located arteries of travel, and the development of the

central depression into a parked space to be enjoyed by all members of the community. This plot also illustrates the difficulties encountered by the town planner when the limiting boundaries of the property are not sufficiently definite to insure independence of developments occurring on adjoining sites.

is, for the first, the tract may be fortunately bounded by natural features, such as a river, a forest, a park, or an important thoroughfare. Any one of such features will give definition to the property, and will go far toward enabling the town planner and the architect to produce within these bounds the atmosphere that should pervade the well planned community. Note, for example, Kistler Industrial Village, with two sides of its triangle, bounded, the one by a river, the other by the railroad; similarly in the Loveland Farms tract, note how the broad thoroughfares on two sides, and the factories on the third, perform the same function. Lacking such topographical aids, the sense of unity must be produced artificially if at all. To do this requires a wise co-operation between owner and town planner, and it is here that the owner often fails to realize the best possibilities of his project by not calling for expert advice until too late. The town planner ought to be developing his studies at the same time that the owner is carrying on negotiations for the land he needs for the new development. Only so will the relative importance of various plots become evident; only so can be avoided the state of affairs that too frequently occurs—an essential street connection blocked because the land is adversely owned and held at a prohibitive figure. Co-operating with the planner, the owner may usually acquire his land quietly, without publicity, until the essentials for his program are in hand. They will act without publicity, not in order to take advantage of previous owners, but simply to avoid being themselves taken advantage of by others. Such a procedure, adopted in the case of the Neponset Garden Village at Walpole, Mass., worked out with generally satisfactory results. The most important plots were acquired at equitable figures, and those not so important were worked into the plan as they stood.

When the planner enters the problem late, unfavorable property lines must usually be regarded as fixed—one of the given conditions, at the best, to be transformed into an opportunity; at the worst, to be accepted and ameliorated so far as may be. Looked at from this point of view, the plan of Green Acres, at Waterbury, Conn., is not equally fortunate with that, for instance, of Loveland Farms. In several portions it shows cases where lotting is not ideal, where economy of street development is not to be wholly attained, and where the executed work must fall short of its possibilities, were the artificial boundaries of the property less exacting.

Among the desirable natural boundaries of a development we listed a river. That term should be understood in its literal sense—not as meaning any piece of water, large or small. The point is, it must, in fact, *bound*, that is, it must be of sufficient size to form a real limitation. A river or a lake will do this acceptably, whereas a small stream marking

the property line is usually a serious detriment. The planner may find such a stream of great natural possibilities for a boundary park; yet controlling only one bank he is powerless to realize the ideal, if the opposite side happens, as it usually does, to be left in an unsightly, unsanitary, or run-down condition. Or supposing the lay of the land suggests a community swimming pool for summer, a skating pond for winter—however ideal the location, however slight might be the expense involved, nothing can be undertaken which will flood any square foot of the opposite bank. In somewhat the same way a boundary street has its disadvantages. To be sure, the planner is not here prohibited from developing as he likes on his own side, but he cannot hope to gain his effect of unity in the face of an uncontrolled development across the street.

One would say at once that the obvious solution for such difficulties is in co-operation with adjoining property owners. So it is, provided they will consent to co-operate. In case the land in question is owned by one individual or one company, it can often be managed, for self-interest will point out the advantages of co-operation. It is when the land is held by various interests, under varying conditions, that the real (and the usual) difficulty arises. In such cases it is hardly to be expected that those not primarily interested will attain a concert of action, especially such as will commit them to a line of action or, perhaps, restriction for a term of years.

By far the best place for an artificial boundary, from the town planner's standpoint, is along the rear lot lines; that is, in any block the property owners will all face a street wholly within their own community, and will turn their backs upon the property adversely owned. We do not, in this, advocate adopting such a method as a rule of general application. To do so would be to violate a town-planning fundamental—the articulation of the new street layout with the main, through arteries of traffic and transportation; the provision of a natural circulatory system, not only within the community itself, but with relation to other communities on every side. Some of the most troublesome conditions in the older, middle-sized cities are those that have arisen when villages that were formerly far apart have gradually grown toward each other to the meeting point, only to discover that their thoroughfares were totally unrelated, and could not be hooked up without large outlay for replanning.

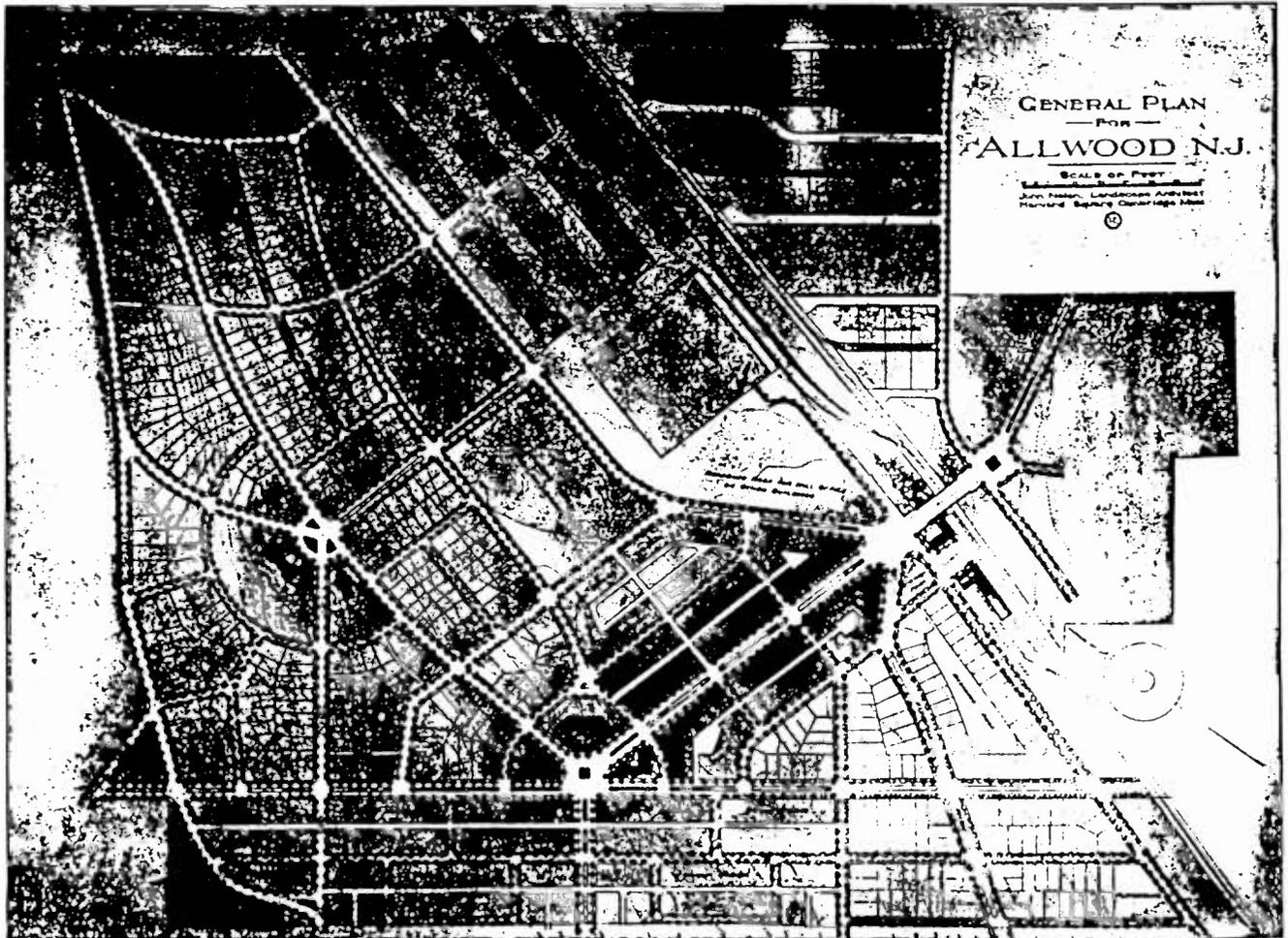
The general plan of Overlook Colony contains illustrations of several of the points we have mentioned. As it stands, this is a very successful and beautiful piece of work, and it is so in spite of several conditions that were exacting—not to say exasperating. First of all, the outline of the property is anything but conducive to unity, its jogs and angles are haphazard and unrelated; second, the boundaries are

nearly all artificial and indecisive. Beginning at the extreme northern corner, all down the eastern side, around to the parked thoroughfare on the west, no portion of this tract can be made invulnerable to harm from adjoining land; the northern boundary of the western tract is, as we have seen, good—the lots front on a street of their own and are comparatively independent of what happens to the rear of them. Similarly, the railroad at the extreme northern boundary is an effectual line of demarcation; between these areas, note that the property line runs with the center of the stream. Here the whole fate of that wooded valley may be said to depend not so much upon the art of the landscaping on the side of the Colony as upon the character of the opposite bank. Third, and most important of all as affecting the property itself, the topography would have been the despair of the old-style real-estate operator. Now that the solution is before us, we see that it is the only one. That depression of twenty feet or more in the middle of the development, with the creek running through it at the bottom, was a "jumping-off place" as one walked north from the Wilmington Post Road; but, build a small dam at the eastern outlet to the natural basin and we have at once the axial feature around which the whole

plan is designed; put a bandstand across the pond from the head of the village green, leave the grass slopes of the valley natural and open to the public and we have at once the elements which not only make for a wholesome community life, but make such a life difficult to avoid. It would be hard to find a better example of a case where a seeming serious handicap had been made a valuable asset.

The general plan of Allwood is particularly interesting because it presents one of the best American examples of clean-cut, industrial town planning. Here all active work on the site was preceded by study of the best work of other countries; experts were early retained to cover the several departments, and, what is more unusual, the factory locations and layout were considered as an integral part of the general plan. In other words, this plan of Allwood displays all the features of comprehensive planning, of zoning, of generous reservations for public and semi-public uses, of gradation of street widths and lot sizes to respective uses—all those features which have been best exemplified in the Garden Village of Letchworth in England. Not only Allwood, but every one of these plans of Mr. Nolen's will bear the closest scrutiny and will repay minute study.

(To be continued.)



Plan of Allwood, N. J., John Nolen, Landscape Architect

AUTHOR: Radu, Cristina Valentina.

TITLE: Industrial housing communities in Northern Delaware begun during the First World War : the search for a model environment / by Cristina Valentina Radu.

PUBLISHED: 1998.

SUBJECTS: Company towns--Delaware--History--20th century.
Industrial housing--Delaware--History--20th century.

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This was the first time that the federal government had become involved in providing public housing. Between the summer of 1918 and the fall of 1919, fifty-five projects were completed under the guidance of the two federal agencies in charge, the U.S. Housing Corporation and the U.S. Emergency Fleet Corporation. The program provided 15,500 family units and lodging for 14,200 single people in dormitories, hotels, and boarding houses.³¹ Along the Delaware River, south of Philadelphia and north of Chester, the U.S. Housing Corporation had six projects, while the U.S. Emergency Fleet Corporation had seven projects.³²

Wilmington Context

Demographic trends in the Wilmington area paralleled national patterns. As a result of rapid industrialization, the population more than doubled between 1880 and 1910, growing from 42,000 to 87,400, and by 1920 numbered over 110,000. House construction was mainly the realm of small builders and speculators; large developments were not possible due to the lack of financial institutions willing to cooperate with builders. An article in the local newspaper Sunday Star stated, “under present conditions our builders confine themselves to small operations, usually putting

³¹ Topalov, Christian. “Scientific Urban Planning and the Ordering of Daily Life: The First 'War Housing' Experiment in the United States, 1917-1919,” in Journal of Urban History, Vol. 17, No.1, (November 1990), p. 15.

³² War Emergency Construction, p. 299.

up one to five houses.”³³ The city started facing an acute housing shortage when the developers could not keep pace with the dramatic population growth.³⁴

In the beginning of the century, increasingly, new construction took place on the city’s outskirts, as a result of changes in transportation patterns and in the location of industries. Between 1900 and 1910 the population growth rate of the suburbs exceeded that of the city for the first time.³⁵ With the beginning of the war, the housing conditions grew worse as local industries employed more workers to meet war-related production demands. Although 20 percent of Wilmington’s suburbs were advertised as being developed for the working class families,³⁶ they were on the small scale, and only for those who could afford to buy a house.

In Wilmington, the tradition of workers’ housing dated to 1831.³⁷ In 1917, nine city-based companies, trying to meet the increased demand in production generated by the war and to reduce turnover, offered various benefit programs to attract their employees.³⁸ However, only some of them assumed the role of providing

³³ Sunday Star, Wilmington, Delaware, July 16, 1916, p. 4.

³⁴ Chase, Susan Mulchahey. The Process of Suburbanization and the Use of Restrictive Deed Covenants as Private Zoning, Wilmington, Delaware, 1900-1941, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware, p. 108.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 105.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 353.

³⁷ Magnusson, “Employers’ Housing in the United States,” p. 35.

³⁸ Atlas Powder Co., Bancroft, Joseph and Sons, Du Pont de Nemours Powder Co., Electric Hose & Rubber Co., Hercules Powder Co., Hilles & Jones Co., Lobdell Car Wheel Co., Pusey & Jones Co., and Charles Warner Co. are itemized on the “Partial list of employers who are reported to have established some forms of welfare work.”

housing for their workers and even fewer were inclined to offer more than simple housing.³⁹ The DuPont Company started providing houses for its employees in 1914, when munitions orders brought plant expansion and a massive influx of workers. Built across the Delaware River from Wilmington, by 1917, Carney's Point Village provided 981 houses for workers, including Wilmingtonians, and offered an example of solving the housing problem "in a splendidly successful manner." It was "so attractive [...] that the village has been visited by numbers of magazine writers and social service workers who are interested in the development of the community idea."⁴⁰ In the 1917 report on the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of houses by employers, Magnusson cites several other companies involved in providing houses for workers: Atlas Powder Company, Bancroft (Joseph) and Sons, General Chemical Company, and Hercules Powder Company.⁴¹

During World War I, several industries established themselves along the Delaware River in northern Delaware and the southeastern Pennsylvania area and between 1917 and 1919, a number of industrial communities were founded. Moving

In Monthly Review of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Vol. IV, No. 2, (February 1917), p. 316.

³⁹ Du Pont and Bancroft Company were some of the earlier examples of companies providing housing for their mill workers. At a significant scale was the construction of the Edgemoor Village. Built in 1871 by the Edge Moore Iron Company in the immediate vicinity of its plant, the village contained three rows of houses with a total of 48 units, a school and a church.

⁴⁰ "Housing Problem Solved by Private Enterprise," in the Sunday Morning Star Supplement, (January 7, 1917), p. 7.

⁴¹ Magnusson, Leifur. "Housing by Employers in the U.S.," in Bulletin of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 263, 1917, p. 274.

their steel plant from Coatesville, Pennsylvania, to Claymont, the Worth Brothers constructed two separate housing developments for their white and black employees, Worthland (now Knollwood) and Hickmans Row. The Viscose Company built in 1916 the Viscose Village in Marcus Hook, Pennsylvania and Aniline Company gave its name to a housing development built on Ridge Road, on a tract of land located in both Pennsylvania and in Delaware. General Chemical Company moved its plant from Philadelphia to Marcus Hook and invested in the erection of Overlook Colony, in Claymont area (Figure 1.1.). As not all manufacturers were interested or had the capacity to offer their workers a complete “community,” the morphology of these developments differed.

In 1918, John Nolen, one of the most influential urban planners of the time, was called upon to advise the Wilmington community on how to solve its shortage of an estimated 1,000 houses. He found that the housing crisis was primarily due to the low standards established by the building ordinances of the city and the “meager allowance of land and open space in connection with workingmen’s homes.”⁴² To alleviate the housing crisis, he recommended a partnership between the local community and the federal government and advocated a comprehensive approach to the problem, including consideration of transportation and recreation.⁴³ Nolen identified ten possible tracts for future housing projects for war workers.⁴⁴ Although

⁴² Nolen, John. War Time Housing and Community Development: Report to the Chamber of Commerce, (Wilmington, Delaware: Chamber of Commerce, 1918), p. 5.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 17. Nolen identified five major tracts: Union Park, Brennan, Riverview Heights, Lea & Willard Saulsbury, and Preston Lea Estate. Anticipating possible problems in the acquisition of these tracts, Nolen recommended different five tracts:

Cleland Heights, just outside the Wilmington City limits, was one of these potential tracts, private developers did not succeed in attracting partners for starting the project.

In 1917, the federal government initiated several projects to house war workers from the Wilmington area, but only one was actually undertaken. Port Penn and New Castle were projects of the U.S. Housing Corporation, but as a result of the short life of the program, were not actually built.⁴⁵ The New Castle project was designed to house 900 workers. The Port Penn project—designed to accommodate 6,000 workers of a loading plant for heavy bombs and their families—would have been the largest such project ever built.⁴⁶ Union Park Gardens, carried out under the program of the Emergency Fleet Corporation for workers of the shipping industry, was the only project receiving government support.

The largest development, 1,000 houses for ship and car builders, was intended to be erected in south Wilmington at Eden Park Gardens. Promoted by a private company⁴⁷ on a 135-acre tract, this housing development was thought to

Cleland Heights, Mendenhall (east of Claymont), Tatum Estate, Du Pont tract, (southeast of Gordon Heights), and Baldt Steel Works tract, in New Castle.

⁴⁵ New Castle project: 14.72 acres; housing for 20 families and 810 single workers. Port Penn designed by town-planner H. B. Hellaway was conceived as a complete town, with all the community facilities and utilities. Three variations of plans were proposed on different sites, each having different characteristics. However, all provided for detached houses for 600 families and dormitories for 3,000 persons, stores, a hotel, a community building, a school, a hospital and recreational spaces. In War Emergency Construction, pp. 308 - 313, 392.

⁴⁶ Hancock, John L. John Nolen and the American City Planning Movement: A History of Culture change and Community Response, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, 1964, p. 282.

⁴⁷ The New York-Delaware Realty and Construction Company had been also employed to construct Overlook Colony at Claymont, Delaware.

combine all the essentials for the ideal “home,” but it “was brought to a halt with little accomplishment when the armistice was announced a year later.”⁴⁸

In the first decades of the twentieth century, the landscape of industrialized areas gained new elements, as industrial housing developments were being built. Designed as a response to complex economic and social circumstances, and reflecting new strategies of management, company towns were the physical embodiments of an increased effort of the manufacturers to improve the relationship with their employees. A number of employers in the fast growing industrial area of northern Delaware wanting to increase the efficiency of their business adopted the rhetoric of physical determinism, believing that a model physical environment would induce desirable values among the workers. By hiring professional town planners and architects, they intended not only to invest in “model” housing developments that were offering better conditions than all existing private housing ventures, but also to reaffirm their belief in the powerful role that science could play for their business.

⁴⁸ Hoffecker, Carol E. Corporate Capital: Wilmington in the Twentieth Century. (Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1983), p. 68.

Chapter 2

NEW COMPANY TOWN PLANNING

The new company towns were not merely a result of manufacturers' willingness to deal in an efficient manner with increasingly restless and dissatisfied workers. These towns were reflections of the new ideas permeating the industrial environment and mirrored a fervent quest for a model community at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century. While the industrial discourse addressed strictly the idea of efficiency, the rhetoric for residential communities referred also to the ideas of morality, virtue and quality of life.

In the second part of the nineteenth century, as the conditions of life in American cities declined—with a rapid and disproportionate concentration of manufacturing—a wide array of intellectuals, social reformers, business leaders, and officials embraced the idea of “planning” as the only way to achieve a better social environment. Many progressive reformers focused their attention on the design of the physical landscape, and tried to meet the civic quest for a better life and for increasing the standards of living by envisioning new residential environments. They argued that physical environment influences the quality of life and people's behavior and recommended the creation of an environment compatible with health and social stability. Analyzing housing policies and city planning, Peter Marcuse concluded that “three intellectual concerns contributed to the initial shaping of the city planning

movement in the United States: one aesthetic or architectural, one concerned with housing, and one promoting civic reform and scientific management.”¹

Many of the progressive militants saw “evil” in not only the housing conditions but also in the absence of nature from the cities. Influenced by Romantic ideas prevalent in the nineteenth century, they argued that civic reform would be possible if a closer relationship with the natural environment could be reestablished. One of the first ways envisioned to achieve an urban equilibrium was to create urban parks that would bring nature into the city, and “provide contrast to the existing city, a refuge from its noise, its oppressive darkness, from the crowdedness and the inhuman surfaces of the streets.”²

Some of the reformers were more radical, advocating an environment intended to provide an alternative to city life. The new vision of urban landscapes was rooted in the model of urban form envisioned around the mid-nineteenth century by Catherine Beecher, Andrew Jackson Downing, and later Frederick Law Olmsted. They argued that the ideal home was to be located in a semi-rural environment. Concerned not only with naturalistic aesthetic, but also with political and social aspects, they created a new, more openly built, picturesque urban environment, that, in the beginning, became the prototype of the elite residential areas. Llewellyn Park,

¹ Marcuse, Peter. “Housing Policy and City Planning: the Puzzling Split in the United States, 1893-1931” in Gordon E. Cherry, ed., Shaping the Urban World, (New York: St. Martin’s Press, 1980), p. 27.

² Heckscher, August quoted in Chase, Susan Mulchahey et al., Suburbanization in the Vicinity of Wilmington, Delaware, 1880–1950 +/-: A Historic Context, (Newark, Delaware: Center for Historic Architecture and Engineering, University of Delaware, 1992), p. 16.

New Jersey, built in 1857 and Riverside, near Chicago, built in 1869 were among the first embodiments of the new vision.

While earlier in the century, only very affluent people could afford to live in such places, toward the end of the nineteenth century such suburbs were becoming affordable for some middle class people. Although industries increasingly decentralized, workers continued to live in crowded, unhealthy cities. As Charles May, an architect specialized in community planning and industrial housing, pointed out, “night and morning the two classes exchange[d] places—country for city and vice versa.”³ Some industrialists, especially those running successful businesses, hired planners to design housing developments, thus providing low-income people with the opportunity to live in a model environment, in a suburban setting for the first time.

However, these new housing developments for workers built in the beginning of the twentieth century differed from the common suburbs built for the middle-class or elite. Aware that the workers had no means to commute to the city for everyday necessities, the planners advocated for almost self-sufficient developments that would meet all the needs of workers and their families. The design of the new towns was influenced by ideas of comprehensive planning emerging in the second half of the nineteenth century. At the time, a new practice of thinking through the major physical aspects of the city—circulation system, land uses, community facilities, utilities, and visual amenities—as part of one comprehensive plan arose. According to Jon Peterson, a scholar researching nineteenth century urban planning ideas, “townsite

³ May, “Some Aspects of Industrial Planning,” p. 9.

consciousness”⁴ together with sanitary reform played a major role in reshaping the planning ideas for the urban environment.

The 1893 Chicago World’s Fair had a direct influence on the design of industrial communities, as industrial leaders, “impressed by the idea of large-scale planning as a technique for better ordering the communities”⁵ and seeking similar results, began to hire professionals to apply the new ideas to their employee housing developments. The City Beautiful Movement promoted civic improvements and, as William H. Wilson, one of the most thorough researchers of the Movement pointed out, envisioned an improved urban environment centered on the doctrines of comprehensive planning, utility, and functionalism.⁶ Although the aesthetic principles were very different compared with the naturalistic, picturesque criteria adopted by Olmsted, City Beautiful proponents continued to advocate similar ideas of reordering the urban landscape as a way to cope with and solve social problems.

The designers of the new company towns adopted Ebenezer Howard’s Garden City ideas more than designers of other planned communities of the time. Conceived as a way to restore man to the land and to solve the problems of a troubled and inequitable society, the garden city—a small, self-sufficient, self-governing working-class community—was more than a new physical form. It brought a new,

⁴ Peterson, Jon quoted in Sies, Mary Corbin and Silver, Christopher, eds., Planning the Twentieth-century American City, (Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1996), p. 15.

⁵ Reps, John W. The Making of Urban America: A History of City Planning in the United States, (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1965), p. 427.

⁶ Wilson, William H. quoted in Sies and Silver, p. 19.

radical social vision, neither capitalistic nor socialistic.⁷ Howard offered a model for industrial decentralization and a residential settlement that was able to take advantage of the much-praised open space without sacrificing the advantages of dense urban landscapes. The concentric diagram of the proposed city was a symbol of comprehensive planning, showing a place “planned as a whole and not let to grow in a chaotic manner.”⁸ Elements of the Garden City were common place ideas among British reformers before Howard’s proposal, but it was his complete model that encouraged socially-oriented architects to advocate large-scale planning, believing that this could represent an opportunity for the design of a coherent environment, rather than a fragmented one.

In England, the new communities such as Letchworth, Hampstead Garden Suburb, and Welwyn Garden City attempted to demonstrate the validity of the Garden City principles. Although the model received much acclaim, “there were only few garden spots in the dreary desert of American industrial towns.”⁹ Roy Lubove, in his study on housing and planning in the Progressive Era, concluded that, “Americans tended to emphasize the more limited ‘garden suburb’ as better suited to immediate, widespread application.”¹⁰ The “garden suburb” was the model mainly adopted by designers planning the new company towns.

⁷ Howard, Ebenezer. Garden Cities of To-morrow, (London: Faber and Faber, 1960).

⁸ Ebenezer Howard quoted in Garvin, Alexander, The American City: What Works, What Doesn't, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1996), p. 319.

⁹ Lubove, Roy. The Urban Community: Housing and Planning in the Progressive Era. Westport, (Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1967), p. 13.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

According to Hancock, the Progressive Era had a remarkable impact on city planning. Between 1907 and 1917 over one hundred towns undertook comprehensive planning, and the idea of “efficient planning” seemed increasingly appealing, and a significant portion of these towns was designed as industrial communities.¹¹

The planning professionals saw the new company towns as a unique opportunity to apply modern theories of urban design and many of them actively enrolled in the search for a model environment. The problem of industrial housing gained increasing importance in the first two decades of this century, and generated many debates. Between 1907 and 1920, the American Institute of Planners and the American Architects Association entered the debate, and in 1916 the National Housing Association held a conference on the subject.¹² The federal government as well as private institutions commissioned reports on housing developments for working people. During the first two decades, the topic received coverage in an impressive number of professional journals, such as the Architectural Review, the Architectural Record, and the American City, as well in labor publications. Exhibitions were organized to show not only the squalid living conditions of the working people in cities, but also to promote a new ideal of living. Many of the planners involved in the design of new company towns were already well-known for the suburban developments or the new towns they had previously designed. Some of them were offered the opportunity to experiment with large-scale community planning for the

¹¹ Hancock, p. 233.

¹² “Fifth Annual Conference of the National Housing Association,” in the Monthly Review of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Vol. III, No. 5, (November 1916), p. 60.

first time. Everywhere in the United States, designers such as Frederick Law Olmsted, George Miller, Irving Gills, Warren Manning, Grosvenor Atterbury, Bertram Goodhue, John Nolen, Earle S. Draper, and Perry R. MacNeile made their contribution to the story of industrial housing.

Between 1909 and 1913 three company towns—Fairfield, Alabama; Torrance, California; and Goodyear Heights, Ohio—established the social and aesthetic criteria for a new generation of company towns, and offered, for the first time, the merger of housing reform and city planning.¹³ The construction of model housing developments for working-class people was made possible by new methods of economy, scientific management, the magnitude of the operations, and by the standardization of materials. Although using these methods brought the cost of housing down considerably, this type of “ideal” environment was developed only by well-established and successful businesses, and later the federal government, who could afford these major investments.

Company Town Planning Characteristics

Professional planners claimed that the new company towns should manifest not only some of the features of the middle-class suburbs, but offer a coherent and complete environment with other “ingredients” deemed necessary for the well being of the workers’ families and the life of the community.

The design of these communities reflected urban planning ideas, common at the time, about the necessity of both urban and rural environment: the city for occasional inspiration and diversion, and the open countryside for the “essentials of

¹³ M. Crawford, p. 83.

daily life.” As Nolen, one of the most active professional involved in designing company towns, pointed out, settlement in suburban places could take advantage of local utilities and facilities, and of

convenient and inexpensive means of transportation that will give the workman and his family an opportunity to mingle in the life of the city and to draw upon, occasionally at least, the best music, art, and drama, common only to big cities.¹⁴

In the outskirts, planners claimed, a workman would have the advantages of being near his work, while placing the home close to the open, rural country, “a situation particularly advantageous for the health, education and recreation of his wife and children.”¹⁵

Urban planners considered that the physical environment had a major impact on people's lives and argued that the plan of any industrial village should have interest, good organization and design, and should “fit the topography and give due consideration to natural features.”¹⁶ By locating the development on higher ground, overlooking interesting natural landscapes, planners intended to enhance the residents' experience and their perception of natural environment.

Comprehensive “scientific” planning was seen as a major characteristic of designing the new environments. Nolen argued that the problem of industrial housing went beyond solving the problem of houses. “The problems of industrial housing are related to the still wider and more technical problems of city planning, city building

¹⁴ Nolen, John. “Factory and Home,” in Taylor, p. 319.

¹⁵ Ibid., p. 318.

¹⁶ Nolen, John. “The Essential Principles of Industrial Village Development,” in the Architectural Forum, Vol. XXVIII, No. 4, (April 1918), p. 97.

and the proper maintenance and administration of cities.”¹⁷ The planner believed that the most important features of city planning were not the public buildings, not the railroad approaches, nor the parks and playgrounds, but “the location of streets, the establishment of block lines, the subdivision of property into lots, the regulations of buildings, and the housing of the people.”¹⁸

Although the grid remained popular during the early years of the twentieth century, a curvilinear pattern was increasingly adopted in industrial housing communities. Writing the report for the government survey of company towns built before 1916, Magnusson recommended that the design of new company towns could be improved by judicious use of a few curving streets that would minimize the monotony and create interest through an increasing number of vistas.¹⁹ In addition, as Olmsted once had argued, a curvilinear pattern “would be inconvenient to be followed for any purpose of business beyond the mere supplying of the wants of the neighborhood itself,”²⁰ thus discouraging any intrusion and supporting the privacy and individuality of the residents. In some cases, as the idea of a more differentiated street system became common, planners found it desirable to combine the picturesque design with formal, axial dispositions as a way to individualize the development and to emphasize, and so to differentiate, a more public area. The layout of residential areas also displayed social differentiation. Generally, due to higher costs, curvilinear

¹⁷ Ibid., p. 97.

¹⁸ John Nolen quoted in Marcuse, p. 31.

¹⁹ Magnusson, Leifur. “Housing by Employers in the U.S.,” in Homes for Workmen, p. 48.

²⁰ Frederick L. Olmsted quoted in Reys, p. 344.

patterns were used in areas with detached single family houses for high-income workers, while linear streets appeared in areas with attached-type houses inhabited by lower-income workers. The density in residential areas varied according to the category of houses. Nolen believed that

twelve houses to the net acre has proved to be about the right number of cottage development. [...] For houses built in rows or short groups, the density should not usually exceed a maximum of twenty houses to the net acre.²¹

In most cases, planners adopted the idea of limited access to the development, which was thought to encourage the life of a community, accentuate the idea of processional landscape and enrich the experience of residents. As Nolen argued, “the environment of the home includes the homes of other human beings, the methods of passing to and from them, and to and from the working places of their occupants.”²² Particular attention was given not only in laying out the streets, but also in placing the buildings, aiming to provide a more interesting landscape. Generally, every perspective was controlled, and buildings were set and designed to confer maximum interest to the street. All the streets were designed to be bordered by trees, and had different prospects, amplifying the hierarchy of the environment. According to Nolen, “every decision with regard to the street is important, - its location, its width, its subdivision, its grade, its planting, its lighting, etc.”²³

Employers’ concern for their workers was not limited to housing. Aware of the fact that a worker spent sixteen hours outside the plant, some of them were

²¹ Ibid., p. 100.

²² Knowles, p. 2.

²³ Nolen, “The Essential Principles of Industrial Village Development,” p. 98.

willing to invest large amounts in order to control the leisure time of their employees and their families. Their concern extended beyond merely the offer of quality houses into the realm of supporting a community. Although different in size and not necessarily entirely self-sufficient, new company towns were designed as complete communities, with public grounds, a school, stores, and other facilities to be used by the entire community. According to Nolen,

[a]n important test of success in the laying out of an industrial village is the percentage of property used for various purposes—lots, semi-public properties, public properties, and streets.²⁴

In order to maintain the quality of the environment, planners advocated the adoption of land use restrictions and regulations

as to stables and garages, fences and walls, setbacks of buildings from the street and from the lot line, the minimum cost of the buildings, easements and right of way for public utilities, and in some cases even the approval of house plans and specifications.²⁵

However, neither the provision of restrictions and regulations nor a careful design were deemed to be sufficient for the success of an industrial community. It was thought that a well-planned development for the workingman had to be properly maintained and the problems of keeping up a property, in close relationship with the problems of ownership, were resolved differently in various communities.

²⁴ Nolen, John. "The Industrial Village," in Homes for Workmen, p. 7.

²⁵ Nolen, John. The Industrial Village, National Housing Association Publications, No. 50, (September 1918), p. 16.

Industrial Communities in Northern Delaware

In New Castle County, Delaware, the process of suburbanization became important beginning with the first decade of the twentieth century, when the suburban population grew at a faster rate than the urban population.²⁶ Susan Mulchahey Chase, in her study “The process of suburbanization and the use of restrictive deed covenants as private zoning, Wilmington, Delaware, 1900-1941,” found that the suburbs developed before 1920, made possible mainly by streetcars, were mainly residential, laid out on a gridiron pattern. According to her study, the majority of these suburbs were built in two stages by different actors, often amateurs: land developers acquired, divided and traded the lots, and small-scale constructors improved the land.

The industrial housing developments in the same area had different physical characteristics. Developed on large scale by industrial employers for their workingmen or by the federal government, these housing communities were designed by professionals, set in a suburban landscape and followed patterns generally valid throughout the United States. A good location, elevation, improvements, restrictions, a district business section, land for school and other public spaces were deemed desirable in developments sponsored by manufacturers or the government, or funded

²⁶ Chase, p.105. The urban growth reached 14 percent, while the suburban rate was 18 percent.

by private investors.²⁷ The layout of these planned communities displayed differentiation and a concern for avoiding monotony, and expressed the planners' desire to create complete environments, not merely fragments.

Worthland

Situated in Northern Delaware, just south of the Pennsylvania border on the west side of the Philadelphia Pike, Worthland Village was erected in 1919 by the Worth Steel Company in the immediate vicinity of its plant (Figure 2.1.). The Worth Steel Company had been founded in 1917 by members of the Worth family and they subsequently started the construction of the plant at Claymont, on the Delaware River. The Worth family had settled in Claymont in 1915 after selling its business—considered one of the largest iron plates plants in the East—at Coatesville, Pennsylvania.²⁸ Moving into a highly industrialized area, the employer considered the provision of houses for its workers vital. At a time when the shortage of workers and high rates of turnover were affecting businesses, the Worth Steel Company hoped to attract a number of the employees from the Coatesville plant, especially skilled workers.

²⁷ An ad published in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware, on September 30, 1917 stated: “Eden Park Gardens: 1. Has location. 2. Has elevation. 3. Has improvements. 4. Has restrictions. 5. Has distinct business sections. 6. Has one entire block reserved for public school. 7. Has men back of it with vast experience in the best suburban developments in the country. 8. Has the call. 9. Has the endorsement of the Mayor and leading citizens. 10. Has the first lot of homes already started.”

²⁸ Kreutzberg, E. C. “Worth Steel Co. Completes New Flanging Department” in Iron Trade Review, Cleveland, (October 27, 1927), p. 11.

The site, thirty-five acres of land located on the top of a hill overlooking the Delaware River, was bordered on two sides by trees and open land, and a creek, on the west side by Philadelphia Pike and on the north by the company plant. The layout allowed for residential differentiation and for possible extension in time of the development (Figure 2.2.). The unique street access, from Philadelphia Pike, supported the community idea and provided for a more controlled and ordered environment.

Although mainly laid out in a rectilinear pattern, with only a curvilinear street in the north side of the development, the streets offered a variety of experiences. The unknown designer succeeded in avoiding monotony by using a variety of types of houses on different sizes of lots, variable setbacks, and allowing for open spaces. None of the images offered by the different streets were identical. With the exception of Avenue D, bordered by long row houses, none of the vistas the residents experienced from the interior were alike. The setback of all houses allowed for small front yards, a fact that generated further individualization. Visitors could have seen that the streets were

paved and well lighted, with trees to protect the residents from the hot summer sun. The tenants take much pride in their front and back yards and during the summer months beautiful lawns and lovely flowering plants abound throughout the settlement.²⁹

The village—a fairly large-scale enterprise, offering 158 houses for all categories of workers, according to their income—was provided with all the amenities of a modern suburb: water, sewer, electricity and gas. Concerned not only with

²⁹ “Worthland, a Modern Village,” in the Claymont Clipper, Worth Steel “E” Edition, Claymont, Delaware, (January 18, 1944), p. 1.

housing its workers but also with providing them with minimum amenities, the company erected a small school and a store for the immediate necessities of residents. In addition, open space was provided for recreation, and a part of the land had been divided in small lots and set aside for agricultural use.

Located in the immediate vicinity of the plant, the street pattern as well as the social distribution reflected older ideas of company towns, while the constant concern for individualization of space and for avoiding the monotony was a manifestation of the new ideas permeating the industrial environment.

Overlook Colony

Located on the Claymont area of the Philadelphia Pike, Overlook Colony was planned as an attractive community for the General Chemical Company employees (Figure 2.3.). Starting in business in 1899, by 1910 the company had plants erected in many places, from the East to the West Coast. When constructed, the Marcus Hook, Pennsylvania plant was considered a model, designed to supplant the old Philadelphia plant. It began production in February 1913 and by 1919, the plant “ha[d] grown to several times its initial capacity.”³⁰ The company was well aware that workmen that valued their families would not stay in places that did not provide for their health, education and comfort. It assumed that well-designed towns made “a great difference in a Company's effectiveness, whether it [wa]s to be able to attract the best workers or be forced to accept the worst.”³¹ In deciding where to build such a

³⁰ The General Chemical Company. The General Chemical Company after Twenty Years, 1899-1919, (New York: Sackett & Wilhelms Corporation, 1919), p. 35.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p.75.

model community, the company argued that, “a majority of the employees favored a location somewhat remote from work. The idea of getting entirely away from the scene of the day's labor appealed to them.”³² In order to provide for a small community the company bought 213 acres about one mile distance from the works, and one-half mile back, overlooking the Delaware River where it intended to

found a new community, with modern facilities, with ample recreational spaces and one affording an opportunity for the residents to exercise their imagination, their initiative in the development of their educational facilities, their amusements and their local government.³³

The company provided a jitney service for the daily commute to work. In addition, the location on Philadelphia Pike offered the advantage of streetcars connecting to Wilmington, and access to the railroad. At the time the site was in a relatively undeveloped area, only Claymont Terrace and Claymont Center were already started. However, suburbanization was rapidly changing the agricultural character of the surrounding landscape.³⁴

John Nolen, an active advocate of industrial communities, when hired to design this development, was already a well-known landscape architect and town-planner. Between 1913 and 1917 he had been involved in the design of the new industrial towns of Neponset Garden Village (Massachusetts), Kingsport (Tennessee), Kinstler Industrial Village (Pennsylvania), Allwood (New Jersey), Green Acres

³² Ibid.

³³ Ibid., p.76.

³⁴ Claymont Heights and Claymont Addition (1918) were developed after the Overlook Colony.

(Connecticut), Loveland Farms (Ohio).³⁵ At Overlook Colony, he succeeded in overcoming the difficulties resulting from the topography of the site and created an attractive and unique environment. A depression of more than twenty feet in the middle of the development was proposed to be transformed into a pond by erecting a small dam on the creek running through the development. As May, an analyst of industrial housing developments noted in an article published in 1919,

the three isolated arms of land ha[d] been brought into an unified and coherent scheme by carefully located arteries of travel, and the development of the central depression into a parked space to be enjoyed by all the members of the community.³⁶

Nolen adopted a differentiated street pattern, using the grid streets and some back alleys for the area closest to the Philadelphia Pike were planned to be occupied by lower-income workers. The curvilinear street pattern was used in the area intended for housing higher income residents who probably could afford other means of transportation.

The planner embraced both a formal and an informal design and envisioned a hierarchy of the street system. All streets were designed to be bordered by trees, and have different widths according to their importance. The single access into the development was allowed through the widest street—eighty feet—bordered by public spaces (stores) and having a strip of green in the middle. Other streets were sixty, fifty or even forty feet wide.

Nolen designed a complete community, with public grounds, a school, a church, stores, and other facilities to be used by the entire community. The plan

³⁵ Hancock, p. 233.

³⁶ May, "Some Aspects of Industrial Planning," p. 13.

allocated 57 percent of the land for residential lots, 24 percent for streets, and 19 percent for parks and other areas. The sensitive distribution and design of open space emphasized the ideal community. Although every part of the development had its own unique characteristics, the park area, located in the center of the development, unified the three isolated arms of the land. Paying meticulous attention to all details of the plan, Nolen chose different setbacks on each street, controlled the location of the buildings, specifically those placed at the corners of intersections, and designed the streets so that all perspectives would enhance the experience of residents. In Overlook Colony, the formal part of the composition was centered on the community building. The public area in the area adjacent to the entrance into the development was connected through the green to the park area, encouraging the participation of residents from the entire community of Claymont in recreation activities.

Union Park Gardens

At Union Park Gardens, the Liberty Land Company succeeded in attracting the federal government to develop a housing project for Wilmington shipworkers in 1918. Similar projects were undertaken under the Emergency Fleet Corporation Program at “the scenes of greatest need, the homes of giant war industries,”³⁷ and aimed

³⁷ “Out in the Gardens to Live,” in the Delmarvia Star, Wilmington, Delaware, (July 15, 1934), p. 3.

to produce a community providing the opportunity for those things which are often denied to the worker and which we will all agree are really essential for the development of a true American citizenship.³⁸

The fifty-acre tract—situated “relatively high, at an elevation considerably above the main business district of Wilmington”³⁹ on the outskirts of the city, and only partially within the municipality—took advantage of the proximity to the trolley lines that connected with the center of the city and offered transportation to the working places. The designers—the town planner John Nolen and the architects and engineers, Ballinger and Perrot of Philadelphia and New York—conceived a plan that gave consideration to the local urban context and included “all the essentials of a thoroughly organized garden suburb.”⁴⁰ (Figure 2.4.) The land adjoined a parkland on the south side and a cemetery on the west, providing a buffer from further developments. To secure the land values the developers took the additional precaution of purchasing land on the east side of the development, preventing possible low quality construction.

The development was designed both as an enclave and as an extension of the city.⁴¹ The plan revolved around the central green space, intended as a continuation of the Wilmington parkway system. A flowing brook running through

³⁸ Litchfield E. quoted in Lang, Michael H. “The Design of Yorkship Village Product of the Progressive Planning, Architecture, and Housing Reform Movements” in Sies and Silver, p. 142.

³⁹ Groben, William E. “Union Park Gardens. A Model Garden Suburb for Shipworkers at Wilmington, Delaware,” in the Architectural Record, Vol. XLV, No. 1, (January 1919), p. 45.

⁴⁰ Ibid., p. 46.

⁴¹ M. Crawford, p. 171.

the tract enhanced its picturesque image. The curvilinear street pattern had not only functional utility, allowing an efficient use of the topographical features of the lot, but was also considered important in making the place aesthetically unique. The development contained 506 houses, built at an average of 16 per acre, but the relative high density was compensated for through a careful design. To foster the garden-like environment, the streets were planted with many hardy trees.

The street pattern allowed the division of the tract into blocks of varying sizes and shapes, but “without either complicating the simplicity of the plan or unduly increasing the practical difficulties in the surveying of streets and building the lots.”⁴² One of the characteristics of the plan was the absence of the service drive behind the group buildings, reducing the cost of the project, increasing the depth of each lot, and eliminating the burden of maintaining and policing such alleys.

Although relying on the city’s facilities, the development was designed as a “thoroughly organized town,” providing, in addition to houses, a community building, deemed as essential to “foster the social life of the community and to cultivate the spirit of fellowship and neighborliness,” stores, a school and a playground.⁴³ One section of land, impracticable for building, was left for raising small crops. Of the total, 54 percent were allocated for residential lots, 31 percent for streets, 15 percent for parks and other areas.

The planners of Union Park Gardens applied their skills and experience to design what they believed was a model environment offering many opportunities to its residents. By answering all the needs of war workers, “well-being and contentment,”

⁴² Groben, “Union Park Gardens, a Model Garden Suburb,” p. 46.

⁴³ Ibid., p. 60.

they believed they could eliminate, or at least reduce, the labor turnover, considered “the most serious problem at the time.”⁴⁴ The entire design aimed to demonstrate the benefit of a good planning for both developers and workingmen.

Cleland Heights

Located south of Wilmington, just outside the city limits and within a walking distance to the shipyards, Cleland Heights was not a company town. Although the 1918 plan intended to provide houses for the war workers, this subdivision started as a private enterprise. However, the rhetoric of developers was similar to the discourse of the manufacturers involved in new company town construction, and was different from the regular suburbs in Wilmington vicinity. Promoted as a possible answer to the Wilmington housing shortage, Cleland Heights was developed on the land that Nolen recommended as being one of the best choices for a model suburb aimed at the war workers.⁴⁵ Following Nolen’s advice, the Liberty Housing Company, a private enterprise, bought the land and hoped to attract the federal government investment in this development. The 1918 layout, designed by the Wilmington architect John D. Thompson, displayed formal features and unique characteristics (Figure 2.5.). The plan provided for the construction of stores on each side of a central avenue, within an easy access from any residence. The plan also allowed for a warehouse “on a railroad siding to receive shipments in car-load lots, so that the occupants of the Cleland Heights can secure their foodstuffs, clothing or other

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ Nolen, War-Time Housing, p. 17.

merchandise at first cost.”⁴⁶ A total of five hundred houses were designed on the forty-seven acre tract of land. In addition, provisions were made for stores, a theater, and land was set aside “for the erection of churches, school, a kindergarten, a fire-engine house, individual garages, and a circle for the erection of a proposed monument.”⁴⁷

The design of Cleland Heights, similar to the other model industrial housing developments, aimed toward higher standards and more efficient handling of land development and distribution. Organized and developed on a business basis, this community was to confirm that the success of such model communities was possible without “aid of philanthropy, charity, or paternalism.”⁴⁸ Developed on a larger scale than any other private subdivision, communities such as Cleland Heights were embodiments of the “scientific planning” methods, proposed new functional and aesthetic criteria, and offered promoters the opportunity to efficiently improve their workers’ conditions of life. By applying the science and art of town planning, these housing developments intended to demonstrate the advantages of subordination to a general esthetic scheme.

⁴⁶ “Homes to Go Up for War Workers Soon,” in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware, (July 7, 1918), p. 10.

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ Atterbury, Grosvenor. “Model Towns in America,” in Scribner’s Magazine 52, (July 1912), quoted in Reps, John, ed., Urban Planning, 1714-1918: An International Anthology of Articles, Conference Papers, and Reports, available at <http://www.library.cornell.edu/Reps/DOCS/atterbur.htm>

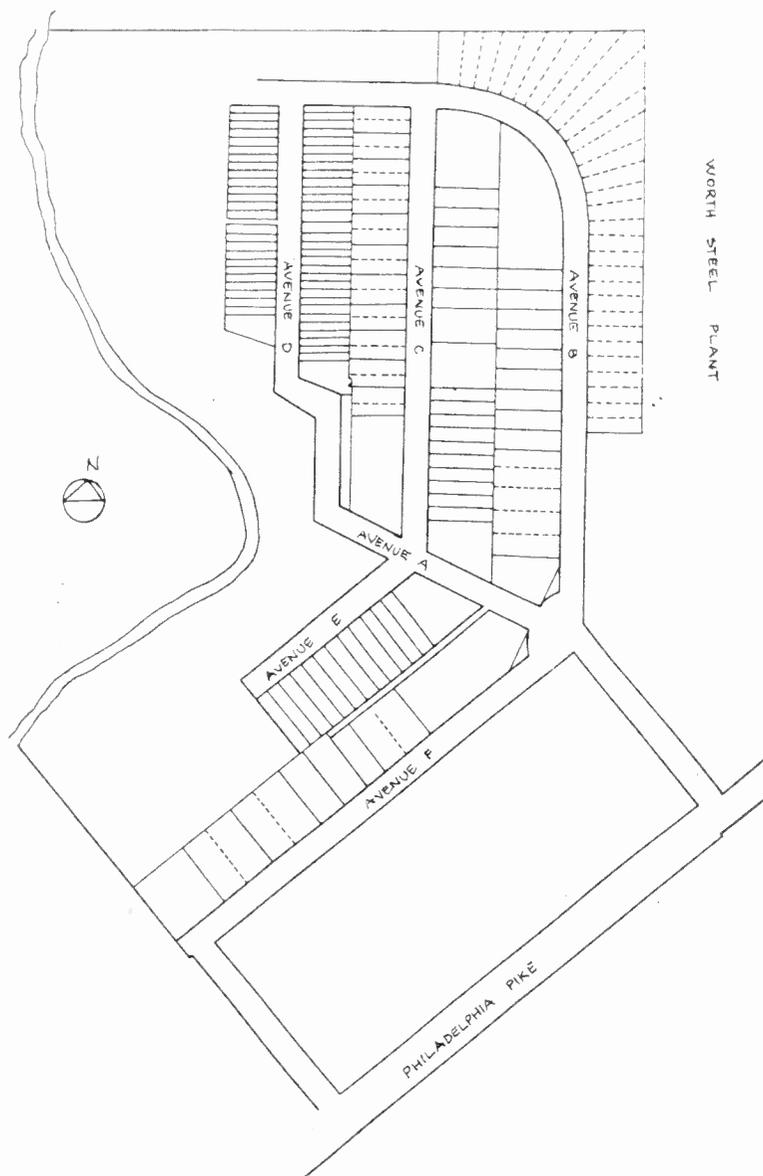


Figure 2.2. Worthland - 1917 Layout.

Drawn by author after the Sanborn Map, 1936.



Figure 2.3. Overlook Colony - 1918 Layout, landscape architect John Nolen.
Reproduced from Nolen, John. The industrial Village, New York: National Housing Association, No. 50, 1918, p. 8.

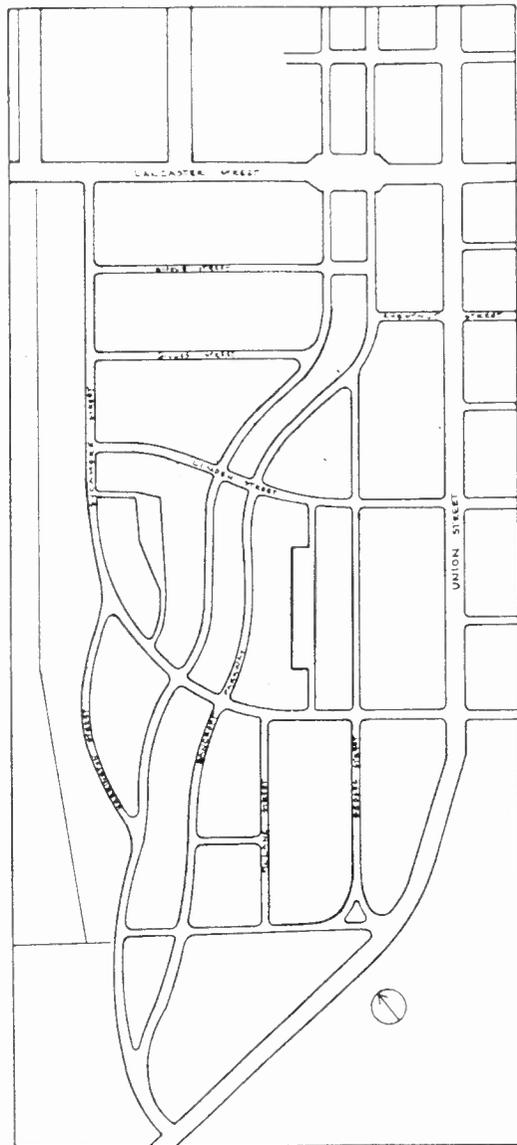


Figure 2.4. Union Park Gardens - 1919 Layout, town planner John Nolen.

Drawn by author after a plan published in Groben, William. "Union Park Gardens. A Modern Suburb for Shipworkers, at Wilmington, Delaware." In the Architectural Record, Vol. XLV, No. 1, January 1919, p. 56.

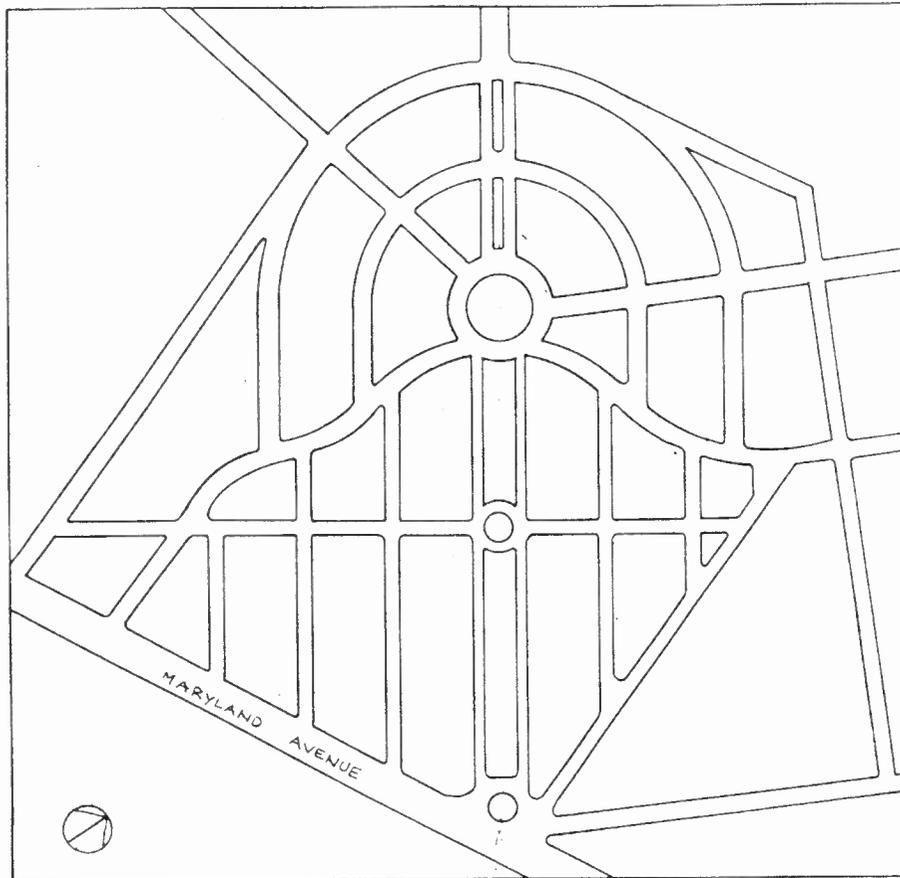


Figure 2.5. Cleland Heights - 1918 Layout, architect John D. Thompson.

Drawn by author after a photo published in "Homes to Go Up for War Workers Soon." In the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware, July 7, 1918, p. 10.

While in privately developed suburbs of the time the large variety of houses was more a result of construction spanning over a long period of time, in industrial settlements, built at once, variety was intentional.

Architecture of industrial housing communities in northern Delaware

Regardless of location or the nature of the industry, architects involved in the industrial housing movement claimed that “originality, simplicity, economy, permanency, adaptability, rapidity of construction and architectural possibilities”²⁴ were the solution to the workingman’s housing problem. All three developments analyzed in northern Delaware followed the general trend and applied these principles. As throughout the United States, the designers of the houses in these communities proposed a large variety of types of houses matching not only workers needs, but also their financial possibilities.

Worthland (now Knollwood)

In the industrial village developed by the Worth Steel Company, the 158 houses were designed to satisfy the demands and possibilities of all types of workers (Figure 3.1.). The architects chose to provide single family accommodation in detached, semi-detached and row houses. All the houses set back from the street on lots ranging from eighteen to fifty-five feet wide and ninety-six to 140 feet deep. Land for detached houses, was reserved in the vicinity of the company’s office building, and on Avenue B and C where semi-detached houses were designed too. The farthest

²⁴ Groben, William E. Modern Industrial Housing, (Philadelphia: Ballinger and Perrot, 1918), p. 3.

structures, compared to the location of the plant or the access into the development, were the row houses on Avenue D.

The detached houses displayed a variety of types of plans and different architecture. All twenty-six detached houses, accounting for 16.5 percent of all original dwellings, were of frame construction on a stone foundation and had clapboard siding. On Avenue B, of the fourteen units, four were one-story, three-bay, frame bungalows (Figure 3.2.). Four other detached houses located on the same street were two-story, hip-roofed buildings with a hip-roofed front porch. Two structures were one-and-a-half-story, gable-roofed dwellings, displaying gable-roofed front porch, while two units were two-story, gable-roofed, with a shed-roofed front porch (Figure 3.3. and 3.4.) and two houses were one-and-a-half-story with a gambrel roof parallel to the street (Figure 3.5.) On Avenue C, the six two-story houses had either gambrel or gable roof, and were similar with those on Avenue B (Figure 3.6.). All these detached houses were built in groups of two mirrored structures. Six large two-and-a-half-story, hip-roofed houses were constructed on Avenue F.

Of the thirty-seven houses of the semi-detached-types, fifteen were built on Avenue B, closest to the steel plant, sixteen on Avenue C, and six on Avenue E, across from a playground. The six semi-detached houses located on the Avenue E constructed of stucco on stone foundations, had two-and-a-half stories height, were three bays wide and had a large shed-roofed porch along the entire front elevation.

Five two-and-a-half-story, stucco, three-bay, gable-roofed dwellings, constructed on its east side of Avenue C and separated by an open space from the detached houses, had shed-roofed porches along the entire front elevation, two, centrally located dormers, and an interior chimney on each gabled end (Figure 3.7.).

Seven identical structures were built on the west side of Avenue C, four at the same end and three other end of the street. On the middle section of the west part of the street, between these massive stucco dwellings, four two-and-a-half-story, two-bay, clapboard siding on frame, gable-roofed semi-detached houses were built (Figure 3.8.). The units did not share chimneys, which were located on the gable ends, but they shared a partial, shed-roofed front porch that sheltered the entrances in the two units.

The only semi-detached houses of brick construction were those built along the north-east side of the curvilinear Avenue B (Figure 3.9.). Flushed with the sidewalk, these small one-and-a-half-story, gambrel-roofed houses had shed-roofed porches centrally placed on the front elevation. Three chimneys, one on the partition wall and two interior ones on each end of the structure, as well as two dormers pierced the original slated roof.

On both sides of Avenue D, fifty-eight row houses were built in four groups of twelve, fourteen, and eighteen units (Figures 3.10. and 3.11.). The two-story, brick, three-bay houses had the roof sloped toward the back of the building. Front shed-roofed porches occupied almost the entire elevation and contributed to a richer texture of the buildings. In order to diminish the monotony of the long rows, the architects mirrored the plans of the houses and chose to alternate the two different designs of the contour of the attic.

Although all the buildings had basements, only the detached and some of the semi-detached structures were raised about four feet from the street level. Throughout the development, the entrance door always occupied an extreme bay, adjoining the neighbor's door. Standardized six-over-six-pane double-hung sash

windows were used to light both the first and the second floor. While most commonly the designers used single windows, double and triple windows were adopted to allow light to the living rooms. Many of the houses had dormers casting light into the second story rooms, or allowing for the ventilation of the attic. Although all but four detached houses had simple front porches, only the semi-detached houses on Avenue E displayed more elaborated details (Figure 3.12.). Most of the dwellings had simple back porches over the back entrance, smoothing the transition from the exterior, to the interior spaces. (Figures 3.13. and 3.14.)

The most typical floor plan contained a kitchen, a living room, and a dining room on the first floor and three bedrooms and a single bathroom located on the second floor. The plan of the row of houses had also a dining room differentiated from the kitchen and the living room, suggesting that the employer was ready to offer high standards for the probably less skilled workers. The two-and-a-half-story houses had larger square areas, especially due to the additional room in the attic.

The houses in Worthland village displayed similar styles as small houses in the Wilmington suburbs, reflecting not only the economics but also the taste of the time. However, Worthland, similar with other industrial housing developments, had the advantage of offering quality housing and diversity within a large community mainly developed in one stage.

Overlook Colony

Nolen's plan for Overlook Colony suggested a differentiation in the location of various types of houses. Semi-detached and detached houses were planned

along the winding roads of the company's property,²⁵ obviously for higher-income workers. Although the size of the lots in the eastern part of the development was similar to that of lots in other parts of the development, the presence of back alleys may indicate the original intention of Nolen to allow for the construction of row houses. Errol Coffin, the New York architect hired by General Chemical Company to design the houses, proposed houses of the group-type, arguing that

the people in this locality are accustomed to living in the row type house, and the lower cost of construction in houses so designed was also a factor that counted, being cheaper to build, maintain and heat than the separate house.²⁶

Along the Second, Third and Fourth Street he proposed long symmetrical groups of seventeen and thirty-nine houses, while smaller groups of eight or ten houses were designed on the perpendicular streets (Figure 3.15.). L-shaped groups of six houses and small groups of four marked the intersections of the streets. Of the 196 houses, seventy-five were of concrete construction, finished with stucco, fifty-two were fabricated of light pressed steel covered with stucco, the rest were of brick, hollow tile, and frame construction.²⁷

Wanting to eliminate anything that could lead to monotony, the architects decided not to adopt any particular style. As they argued, “such a development if carried out in a particular type would lack the spontaneity which affords an element of

²⁵ Comstock, William Phillips. The Housing Book, (New York: The William T. Comstock Co., 1919), p. 65.

²⁶ Ibid., p. 65.

²⁷ “Overlook Colony: A Housing Development at Claymont, Delaware,” in the Architectural Forum, Vol. XXXVI, No. 5, (May 1922), p. 199.

such interest in small towns which have developed naturally.”²⁸ They envisioned a large variety of small cottages, all provided with modern utilities, for the “hardworking” employees of the General Chemical Company.

Set back nineteen feet from the street, the structures of the long seventeen- or thirty-nine-row, were two-story height, three bays wide, and were built of stucco. The second story was solved taking advantage of the roof slope. The entrance in these cottages was flush with the sidewalk. In the thirty-nine groups the houses were arranged in succession of two, mirrored units sharing the chimney, with the exception of the central three dwellings (Figure 3.16.). The composition of the long row was marked by front-gable structures, with the second story cantilevered and allowing for porches. The other houses had porches running just partially on the front elevation.

In the seventeen-unit row, the larger stucco houses displayed very similar, but somewhat more careful design. The front-gable houses had full two stories height (Figure 3.17.). Some of them did not have porches, while other had only overhangs. These types of houses alternated with gable-roofed units, with the second story solved in the roof, while the extension of the roof generated a front porch. As throughout the development, the end dwellings displayed a special treatment (Figure 3.18.).

The houses in the groups of eight or ten had similar configuration, combining the gable roof units with the front-gable structures (Figure 3.19.). All houses were of stucco construction, with the second floor of the front-gable cottages differently finished: while the houses of the ten groups displayed vertical, silver-stained siding, the units of the eight group had horizontal siding.

²⁸ Ibid., p. 200.

The dwellings in the groups of four (Figure 3.20.) and six (Figures 3.21. and 3.22.), two- or three-bay wide, were of frame or brick construction, used the same composition of front-gable roof and gable roof structures, but, with the exemption of the corner unit in the group of six, had a full second story.

Throughout the entire development, the architect chose similar six-over-six-pane double hung sash windows—mostly single, but also in groups of two or even three for the houses in the group of ten—for the rooms on the first level. On the second level six-over-six-light double sash windows as well as pair windows, were preferred for the narrower structures. All the doors, mainly placed in an extreme bay, were topped by transoms. The design of roofs, the material—slate of various colors, green, purple or black used separately or together—and the use of dormers had a major role not only in providing for an enriched texture, but also in unifying the image of the development. The concern for diversity applied differently on the design of the houses. The front elevation was to represent the identity of the workers, and not the back façade, which generally was not seen from any public space and received less attention (Figure 3.23.).

Although all of group-type, the houses were differentiated by their plans. The closed type plan was selected for all houses except for the long rows of thirty-nine that had an open type plan with the main access directly into the living room. The plan of these long row houses (Figure 3.24.) provided for kitchen, living room, and three bedrooms, while the group of ten houses (Figure 3.25.) had kitchen, living room, two bedrooms and a full bathroom. The types of plan used for the groups of seventeen houses, as well as for the small groups of six and four units featured not only kitchen and living room, and three bedrooms, but in addition a dining room (Figure 3.26.).

The end houses of all the groups had an improved design, taking advantage of the lateral possibility of lighting. All types of plans shared a common chimney on the partition wall, a characteristic emphasizing the idea of economy and more often used in the design of houses intended to be rented.

The size of rooms and other features of houses hint to the hierarchy of the social environment. The five-room plan displayed “compactness and utility,”²⁹ while other types of plan used show larger dimensions, “a little more precious style, with more rooms, closets and conveniences.”³⁰ All of the houses had a porch, although the function seems different according to the type of house: for the long row of houses the porches seems to allow for socializing, while the residents of the small groups of houses and those occupying the end houses and having the porch on the lateral facade enjoyed relative privacy.

Besides the individual residential dwelling, the designers provided for a boarding house, and a community building, flanking the access into the development. The two-story building, intended to house unmarried workers and located at the entrance in the development, was designed to resemble the dwelling (Figure 3.27.). The community building contained an auditorium, stores, an office, and an apartment for the superintendent (Figure 3.28.). Both of these buildings were designed in a similar style with the workingmen’s houses.

Although using a limited number of plan types, the designers tried to avoid monotony by applying different materials, different designs of facades, and various combinations of the plan types. According to the designers, the variety and

²⁹ Comstock, p. 65.

³⁰ Ibid.

interest of the dwellings were also due “to the moderate but pleasing use of color in the building materials.”³¹ Most of the stucco houses were finished with a mixture of white cement and yellow sand, while the horizontal siding of the frame houses was painted white with a small amount of yellow added “to counteract the cold blue-white of mostly newly painted woodwork.”³² In addition, trim on the stucco or brick houses was of varied colors, light brown, cream and light green predominantly.

Union Park Gardens

Not only did John Nolen, the town planner of this wartime development, have experience in designing industrial communities, but so did the architects and engineers of Ballinger and Perrot, the Philadelphia firm in charge with the design of the houses. In 1916, influenced by English industrial developments,³³ they designed Viscose Village at Marcus Hook, Pennsylvania, and were active in the movement promoting such developments.³⁴ William Groben, one of the architects of the firm, participated in debates on defining the appropriate type of houses for workers, organized by the National Housing Association.³⁵

³¹ “Overlook Colony: A Housing Development,” p. 200.

³² Ibid.

³³ Wood, E. E. The Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earners: America’s Next Problem. (New York: MacMillan Co. 1919), p. 123. According to Wood, Perrot made a trip abroad to study industrial garden villages.

³⁴ In 1918 William Groben published Modern Industrial Housing.

³⁵ W. Groben quoted in Knowles, p. 299.

At Union Park Garden, these architects were required to use the land and the government's finances efficiently. Under the circumstances, they found it necessary to eliminate the single-family, detached-type house and to propose a mix of group-type houses (Figure 3.29.). Of the 506 houses, only three were of the detached type (Figure 3.30.), 104 houses were of the semi-detached type (Figure 3.31.), 129 were organized in groups of three to five houses (Figure 3.32.), and the rest were clustered in groups of six to thirteen houses (Figures 3.33.). Three apartment building, containing forty apartments, were also designed (Figure 3.34.). All houses were provided with modern plumbing, gas, electricity, and hot air-furnace heat. A particular use of a certain type—semi-detached or group type—depended on the location within the development, semi-detached houses being preferred for the northwestern part of the property, taking advantage of a better natural environment.³⁶

The architects proposed a unitary style, using a similar source as did the designers of Overlook Colony, English-cottage architecture. Willing to emphasize the permanent character of the development, they had used only brick and hollow tile for the walls, stone masonry for the basement and slate for the roof. Concerned to allow for functional spaces as well as private spaces, they designed all the houses with common living areas on the first floor and the more private spaces on the second floor. The basement was to be used for laundry activities, while the attic was to provide thermo-insulation for the second-story sleeping area.

According to the architects, twenty types of houses were designed. The variations were not only a result of different composition of the plan, but also of

³⁶ Franklin, M. S. "Union Park Gardens, Wilmington, Delaware, A Government Housing Project for Ship-Workers," in the Architectural Review, Vol. VII, No. 3, (September 1918), p. 58.

different architectural treatment of elevations. The number of rooms varied from four to six rooms, accordingly to the size of workman's family and his economic status. The open-type plan was preferred, with the main access directly into the living room. The stairs, whether located on the opposite side of the entrance or in the immediate vicinity of the access door, were designed to bring an element of interest to the living room area.

The four-room type, used for only ten units, had two bedrooms and was the only type that did not have a differentiated dining room, but a large kitchen (Figure 3.35.). However, the most common plan used for the row houses had six rooms, with a individualized dining room. Two types of six-room plans were designed for the houses located at the end of the small groups or long rows, taking advantage of the three-side light. Additional variation was generated by using the same type of plan, but different foot frontages. Detached and semidetached lots had thirty-five to fifty feet in frontage, while for the group houses had sixteen to twenty feet frontage.

Two types of plan were proposed for the semi-detached houses, each with its own variation of elevation (Figures 3.36. and 3.37.). The single detached houses had the same plan, but additional windows on what was, in the semi-detached houses, the partition wall. In addition to the individual units, for small families the architects proposed apartment buildings, with three, four, five, and six rooms (Figure 3.38.). Located on the northeast side of the development, these larger buildings—one containing stores on its first floor—were designed to mark and be a part of the center of the entire community.

What characterized the designers' approach was their concern with all details and their emphasis on aesthetic as well as functional and economic aspects.

Complying with the federal government's standards, architects chose the "Airlight" design, a type of plan that allowed maximum light and ventilation and an ample size of rooms. The rectangular shape of the rooms was considered important to "facilitate[d] the use of standard-sized rugs, and simple furniture arrangement."³⁷ In accord with the general trend to avoid any details that would require maintenance, the designers argued that the use of white as a color for interiors had been "purposely avoided because it requires constant cleaning and frequent repainting."³⁸ All of the houses had front porches, which "never extend[ed] the full width of the house in order not to exclude direct sunlight from the living room."³⁹

As it was considered that the street layout itself did not provide "sufficient variety of outlook," other methods were envisioned. "Pleasing and diversified" architectural effects were obtained by varying house setbacks (between twenty and thirty feet), by using broken roof lines, and by introducing gable ends and dormers at certain irregular intervals and at especially important points like streets intersections (Figures 3.39. and 3.40.).⁴⁰ However, the design and location of the houses "arranged in a great variety of different combinations,"⁴¹ did not hinder the harmony of the ensemble.

Harmony, simplicity, and uniformity have been maintained throughout the entire scheme by adhering to one style of architecture, by limiting

³⁷ Groben, "Union Park Gardens, a Model Garden Suburb," p. 58.

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Franklin, p. 58

⁴¹ "Union Park Gardens," in Homes for Workmen, p. 52.

the number of types of exterior treatment, and by securing effects in mass, proportion and lines, rather than by the introduction of useless and expensive architectural embellishments.⁴²

Similar functional and aesthetic concepts were also applied onto the design of public buildings. Stores were designed to serve not only Union Park Gardens' residents, but also the inhabitants from the surrounding area. The Community building, a landmark of the housing development, contained an auditorium for 600 people on the first floor, and a sewing room, a reading room, a writing room, and a playroom for children on the second floor. The basement had a billiard room, a smoking room and a gymnasium.⁴³ The designers believed that public buildings not only would contribute to the social life of the community, but also would bring visual interest.

Conclusion

The design of these industrial developments, similar to the general trend for such communities, sought to demonstrate that the quality of life for workingmen would be considerably improved when their physical environment applied "scientific method in the maintenance of health, efficiency, and amenity."⁴⁴ Both the dwellings and the public buildings were carefully designed to meet functional and aesthetic principles. Workers' residences in Worthland, Overlook, and Union Park Gardens incorporated modern ideas of housing, were provided with all modern utilities, and generally complied with the newly recognized standards for different categories of workers. Through their proposals, the architects were to promote middle-class values

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Franklin, p. 57.

⁴⁴ Groben, "Union Park Gardens, a Model Garden Suburb," p. 64.

Chapter 4

LATER DEVELOPMENT

Building a new company town demanded a large amount of money over a short period of time. Toward the end of the war, many employers argued that not only was the completion of these housing projects beyond their means (especially because of the substantial increase in building costs during World War I), but also that the provision of houses for workingmen was no longer needed. At the end of the war, losing the incentives to provide housing for their workers, employers began abandoning their construction of new company towns. Therefore, many of the projects started during the war remained incomplete. The degree to which these industrial housing developments were completed as planned depended on their complexity and scale; larger and more complex projects having less chance to be constructed in one stage. Planners often anticipated these difficulties and tried to support the idea of gradual development. They hoped that the initial design would guide the later development, securing the quality of the environment and property values. However, only in a few cases did the employers choose to follow the initial investment—mostly construction of residences—and provide for additional amenities.

Initial Implementation of the Original Design

Industrial housing developments in northern Delaware followed the national trend. Neither the employers, nor the federal government succeeded in meeting the large cost required for the completion of these “scientifically planned”

communities. The existing physical landscape of Union Park Gardens, Overlook Colony, and Worthland confirms that the more ambitious the project, the less was accomplished.

As with more than 66 percent of the industrial villages designed by John Nolen,¹ Overlook Colony was only partially built. By 1919, the General Chemical Company had invested \$ 2,000,000, but as the company stated, “war costs changed our plans and constrained us to the block of row type houses.”² One hundred ninety-six row houses, a boarding house, and a community center had been built in just nine months, according to the contractors “under the most trying conditions the trade ever saw.”³ A complete system of sewers, water supply, gas, electricity and telephones had been provided.

In Union Park Gardens, at the end of the war when the federal government cut off funds, the industrial housing development was largely completed. All of the streets had been laid out, and the individual houses were ready and provided with all utilities. However, only one apartment building, six units of the original store group on Union Street, and none of the public buildings had been built.

In Worthland, the employer had invested in the construction of dwellings provided with all utilities for the steelworkers and built a small schoolhouse and a store. Playground and sport fields were also offered to the residents.

¹ M. Crawford, p. 154.

² The General Chemical Company, p. 76.

³ Comstock, p. 127. (Note: There is a contradiction between the architect’s statement of designing 201 houses and builders’ statement of building 207 houses.)

The construction of Cleland Heights, not even started at the end of the war, was begun in the 1920, but with a different plan (Figure 4.1.). By this time, the developer, the Liberty Housing Corporation, showed less concern for the idea of comprehensively designed community, and argued for the desirability of a strictly residential one. The development was advertised for its natural qualities, and included deed restrictions that prevented anything “more or less objectionable in a home community.” Instead of investing in public spaces, these developers chose to take advantage of the surrounding area. Emphasizing the convenience of location, the ad published in the local newspaper stated that the new development was “accessible to good churches, schools and other points of interest and its boundaries [we]re Wilmington’s favorite playgrounds.”⁴

A New Discourse

From the beginning, home ownership was seen as an important aspect of the future development of company towns. Employers’ opinions on the desirability of private ownership differed: some believed that selling the company built houses to employees would engender thrift and loyalty to the firm, while others argued that selling the dwellings weakened the company’s control over the development. During the 1920s, as the labor conditions changed and housing became increasingly abundant and diversified in part as a result of the higher mobility brought by the affordability of the automobile, many manufacturers owning company towns no longer believed that a worker needed to be housed by the employer. Their discourse was modified in an effort to adapt to unionist ideas arguing that

⁴ “Own Your Own Home on Cleland Heights,” in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (June 13, 1920), p. 19.

every American should do his best to discourage the charity idea, especially dispensation by employers. An individual who is down and out may properly look to his fellowmen for assistance on a democratic basis, not count on alms from a labor exploiter.⁵

Trying to escape accusations of controlling workers' lives, employers preferred to offer wages that would allow workers independence and began selling off their housing properties.

Overlook Colony

By 1924, the General Chemical Company had adopted the idea that a worker was "earning the wages that enable[d] him to go out and live as he want[ed] to. [...] He belong[ed] to the world not only because of what somebody ha[d] done for him, but because of what he ha[d] done for himself."⁶ On March 1, 1924, with the intent to sell the Overlook Colony, the company organized a public action at the community center in the development. The General Chemical Company continued to offer rental housing for a small number of its employees in Aniline Village, a smaller development in the northern part of Claymont. This village, built around the same time as Overlook Colony for workers of the Aniline Industry Company, subsequently became the property of General Chemical, provided housing for workers of some other industries from the area.⁷

⁵ "Workers winning over 'welfare capitalism,'" in Labor Review, Wilmington, Delaware, May 26, 1923, p. 1.

⁶ "Job Confidence" in The General Chemical Bulletin, Vol. X, No.11, (September 1924), p. 398.

⁷ The entire development, containing row of houses similar to those erected in Union Park Garden, was sold only later, in 1945. New Castle County Recorder of Deeds, Deed B, Vol. 45, p. 380.

As a local newspaper article pointed out, the sale of the houses generated much attention and “nearly 300 persons packed the community house at the colony.”⁸ The tenants themselves showed a very keen interest in the possibility of purchasing the houses. They formed a syndicate trying to buy the entire colony. The bidding started at \$250,000 but in less than one hour went up to \$455,000—almost one quarter of the initial investment⁹—and they could not afford this amount. The last bid was made by Hugh B. Eastburn, representing a syndicate formed by Young and Company, real estate brokers from Bristol, Pennsylvania. Eastburn bought the 196 houses, plus the community building, the boarding house, and the thirty acres of land. The entire property was immediately put on the market. Although he offered, for twelve days, preferential terms for the tenants—a \$25 deposit, two payments, each representing 10 percent of the values, over a six months period of time, and the remaining balance deducted as rent—only 20 percent of them purchased the houses they were occupying.¹⁰ The other houses sold for prices ranging between \$ 2,200 and \$ 4,000.¹¹ The tenants were notified to vacate the building or to sign a new lease, with the rent increasing by 40 percent.¹²

⁸ “Overlook Colony at Claymont sold over block for \$455,000,” in the Delmarvia Star, Wilmington, Delaware (March 2, 1924), p. 1.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

¹⁰ “\$300,000 Spent To Date For Overlook Homes,” in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (March 30, 1924), p. 9.

¹¹ These figures do not refer to the long rows of houses, which continued to be rented.

¹² “\$300,000 Spent To Date For Overlook Homes,” p. 9.

In September 1924, the twenty acres of previously undeveloped land was sold to C. Banta, an important developer in the Wilmington area.¹³ The Price map shows lots of 25 by 100 feet, dimensions that, according to Nolen, were appropriate for semi-detached buildings (Figure 4.2.). All the deeds contained covenant restrictions for further development, a common practice around that time in Wilmington area, regulating not only the physical landscape but the social environment as well.¹⁴ The restrictions intended to preserve the residential character of the area, imposed a minimum cost of further constructions, and had provisions to prevent any changes in the physical aspects of the dwellings. Persons of the Caucasian race were the only one to be allowed to reside in Overlook Colony.

Union Park Gardens

When, in 1922, the federal government decided to dispose of the houses built for the war workers in Union Park Gardens, provisions were made to protect the rights of the occupants to buy the houses. For thirty days they had the possibility to purchase from the buyer at an increase of 25 percent over the auction price.¹⁵ However, when the Liberty Land Company organized a public sale, only sixty-one of the workers succeeded in buying the houses they were then occupying.¹⁶ The price

¹³ C. Banta was the developer of Tuxedo Park and Villa Monterey.

¹⁴ Chase, p. 264.

¹⁵ Comey and Wehrly, p. 68.

¹⁶ In fact sixty-one of the new owners were living in the property that they acquired but it is possible that the number is slightly bigger, as it appears that a number of people previously living in Union Park Gardens did not acquired the house they were occupying but another one.

for houses ranged from \$2,200 to \$4,000, and a few realtors bought the majority.¹⁷ Fred Schneider, of New Brunswick, New Jersey acquired the largest number of properties (70 houses). M. J. Hill, of Bristol, Pennsylvania, bought 57 houses, while Hugh Eastburn, who subsequently would acquire the entire Overlook Colony, purchased 35 houses in Union Park.

Although all properties sold immediately, the \$5,000,000, investment was only partially recovered.¹⁸ The vacant parcels, initially allocated for public buildings, were divided and sold to private developers. Most of the vacant lots were sold to E.L. Mettler (23) and E.S. Mapp (9). Daniel Cauffiel, a real estate manager in Wilmington, bought three vacant lots, beside the 34 houses he already owned in Union Park.

All the transactions of vacant lots contained land use restrictions, as well as restrictions regarding the quality of houses and their setting.¹⁹ No buildings were allowed within 20 feet, or garages within 50 feet of the building line. Frame or galvanized iron building, or any buildings without roofs of slate or metal were forbidden. The zoning-like restrictions excluded, at least for a 20 years period, the construction of stores or any business that would had generated noise or other types of pollution.

¹⁷ New Castle County Recorder of Deeds, Deed M, vol. 31, p. 1.

¹⁸ The Government invested \$2,500,000 in 1918 and the 1922 sale brought a total of \$1,575,007 according to Comey and Wehrly's report.

¹⁹ New Castle County Recorder of Deeds, Deed K, vol. 30, p. 154.

Worthland

At Worthland, the Worth Steel Company had preferred not to sell its houses to the workers, but to retain the control of the development, and invest further in new constructions. Three new large two-and-a-half-story, single family houses were built on the Avenue F, near the office building. By 1919, the company maintained a restaurant and an emergency hospital.²⁰ The small school building on the central part of the development was torn down probably as a result of the construction of the new school in Overlook Colony in 1924.

Still concerned with the way workers spent their time outside the plant and aware that the “what-to-do question c[ould] be important when cities [we]re several miles away,”²¹ the company financed the construction of an English-style clubhouse (Figure 4.3.). Built in 1927, the club housed the Worth Steel Athletic Association which had previously occupied the basement of the office building. It included a fireplace lounge, a canteen, a library, four bowling alleys, a basketball court, two billiard tables, a game room, and an auditorium with a seating capacity for 400 people.²² Around 600 people, roughly half of the company’s employees, used these facilities, as well as adjoining baseball fields and tennis courts in their leisure time. Although the Worth Steel Company built the clubhouse, it was the association that supported the costs for its operation and did not restrict its use to the Worth Steel

²⁰ McGill, Harry H. Delaware: Its products, resources and opportunities together with a complete directory of the various state and Wilmington departments properly classified, (Wilmington, Delaware: National Publishing Company, 1925), p. 102.

²¹ “Steelmen Provide Their Own Solution to Problem of Leisure-Time Activities,” in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware, (January 26, 1941), p. 3.

²² Ibid. Kreutzberg’s article mentions a poolroom.

Company employees. The association preferred to open its doors for the use of other communities. Thursday night, for example, belonged to employees of the General Chemical Company).

The company continued to control the administration of the Worthland village during the period. A similar strategy was adopted in the case of the African-American steelworkers, for whom the company built a church with room allocated for community activities, and a school near Hickmans Row²³

Physical development in the private-ownership period

The later development in the industrial housing communities was mainly a result of their perceived attractiveness. Not only their location and the original design, but also the economic changes in the area and changes of the residents' values generated the modifications of the physical landscape of these communities

Worthland

In 1951, the Colorado Fuel and Iron Corporation,²⁴ and later in 1962 the Phoenix Steel Corporation, acquired the Worth Steel Company and, together in the deal, the Worthland village. As the connotation to the Worth Steel Company was no longer desirable, the village was renamed Knollwood. In 1963, the Phoenix Steel considered the industrial village "unproductive" real estate and sold it to real estate investors.²⁵ The intention to rehabilitate the houses failed, and the village became an

²³ "New Church, Community Center Will Be Dedicated Tomorrow," in the Journal of Every Evening, Wilmington, Delaware (October 1, 1941), p. 1.

²⁴ The Journal of Every Evening, Wilmington, Delaware (February 2, 1951), p. 1.

²⁵ "Worthland Sold to Investors," in the Journal of Every Evening, Wilmington, Delaware (November 21, 1963), p. 1.

increasingly dilapidated area. The construction of the highway I-95 brought additional loss: the clubhouse was demolished, together with two semi-detached units on E Avenue, and all the residences on F Avenue.

In the 1970s, Knollwood, an isolated residential pocket at the edge of a heavily industrialized area, came to the attention of County officials who learned that urban blight could affect suburban subdivisions too. Federally funded rehabilitation provided for new wiring, plumbing and replacement of the coal-stove heating system with hot-air heat.²⁶ Gradually, as new residents moved in and buildings were restored, the village regained its vitality. Today, most of the original buildings retain their initial character. However, some of the one-and-a-half-story dwellings have been lately transformed into two-story houses, while all types of houses throughout the development have received back additions. In many cases, porches of all types of residences have been enclosed. The span of time brought additional changes onto the physical landscape of the village—few structures, a bungalow on Avenue A and a single family house on Avenue C, and many of the trees, once bordering the streets, have disappeared.

Overlook Colony

Overlook Colony and Union Park Gardens followed different patterns of development than Worthland. The private investors acquiring the properties in the 1920s showed a keen interest to improve the land values by building new dwellings. At Overlook Colony, Banta subdivided the unimproved land and sold it to individuals or small developers. When advertising the lots, Banta pointed out that the subdivision

²⁶ “Jourlin and Aids Learn Urban Blight Extends to County,” in the News Journal, Wilmington, Delaware (April 16, 1977), p. 5.

had the advantage of “good transportation, country life, worthwhile neighbors, community spirit and permanent restrictions.”²⁷ Bungalows (Figure 4.4.) and detached one-and-a-half- and two-story houses (Figures 4.5. and 4.6.) were gradually built on lots of 38.5 by 100 feet minimum. The average size of the lots in the area undeveloped in 1924 was over 6,125 square feet, compared to the 2,000 square feet in the area with houses designed by Coffin (Figure 4.7.). The new image along the main avenue, as well as along some other streets, the large variety of the architecture of the new houses, due to their construction over an extended period of time, now resembles any suburban development of the time.

In 1924, the Claymont School—designed by the same firm of architects, Coffin and Coffin—was built on Green Street, a lot donated by the General Chemical Company (Figure 4.8.). Between 1920s and 1960s, the company sold the entire remaining undeveloped tract. Clearfield (Figure 4.9.) and Greenshire subdivisions were developed in the immediate vicinity of the Colony, on its south and west sides, while Ashbourne Hills and Radnor Green partially occupied land included in Nolen’s original design.

Between the time of construction and the 1990s, the original houses in Overlook did not suffer dramatic changes. Enclosed porches, new siding or finishing, new roofing occurred more likely to the small groups of houses. The long rows, for longer time just rented properties, suffered even fewer changes, but faced more depreciation. The rehabilitation of the long row of houses on Second Avenue at the end of the 1980s—made possible with funds provided the state, the New Castle

²⁷ Advertising in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (August 3, 1924), p. 28.

County, and corporate donations—brought the buildings very close to the original stage.²⁸ The boarding house had been transformed into several residential units, while the former community building—once known as the Redman Hall, and lodging all types of community activities, school classes, or Sunday religious services—houses six apartments on the second floor, beside stores on its first floor. In Overlook Colony, similar to Worthland, the perspective along the streets suffered some changes since many of the original trees had died and they were not replaced. Fences—for a while restricted—appeared on most of the yards, because of the division of the property. On the back of the properties, especially on the back alley between Third and Fourth Street, the construction of garages contributed to the change of the original landscape.

Union Park Gardens

In Union Park Garden, all of the original houses preserve most of their initial design characteristics, less the fact that many now have enclosed porches, new sidings or roofing. The only areas that have suffered major changes were those where public buildings or apartments were initially planned. On these lots, private investors, trying to take advantage location within the municipality limits and to maximize their profit, built—in different stages—semi-detached and row houses.

On the lot initially allocated for the school and its playground, in 1923 and 1924, twenty-two row units were constructed (Figure 4.10.).²⁹ The two-story, three-bay, brick houses set on lots around fourteen feet wide. Concerned to provide for

²⁸ O'Neil, John. "Interfaith works for the rejuvenation of Claymont" in The News Journal, Wilmington, Delaware, (May 21, 1988), sect. C.

²⁹ Ad in the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (May 25, 1924), p. 30.

some diversity, the designers proposed an alternation of the type of bay window used on the second floor. Different details of the contour of the attic, as well as shed-roofed front porches were intended to add more texture and further individualize the dwellings.

In 1928, four semi-detached, two-story, brick houses were built on the same tract initially reserved for the school on lots of 30 feet wide minimum. The composition of the front elevation, the presence of the terrace-roofed porch, and the treatment of the second story partially solved in a gable somewhat match the design of the original houses designed by Ballinger and Perrot (Figure 4.11.). However, as Comey and Wehrly reported in 1936, all these new structures were “much to the detriment of adjacent property and the appearance of the street generally.”³⁰

On the lot located on the north side of the main plot, facing the Bancroft Parkway, where the commercial and the garage buildings were initially designed, semi-detached two-story, three-bay, brick houses had been constructed in the 1920s (Figure 4.12.). Although the identical rectangular plan of the houses did not allow for too much variation, a slightly different appearance was offered by the use of different types of roofs.

The most dissimilar structures, compared with the original ones, are the two rows of seven row houses facing the main green space, on the east side of Bancroft Parkway (Figure 4.13.). Built at the end of the 1940s on the lot originally designated for the community building, these identical two-story, two-bay, brick, terrace-roofed houses do not display any concern for enhancing the quality of the previously constructed environment.

³⁰ Comey and Wehrly, p. 68.

The lack of public buildings had been partially compensated by the existence in the near vicinity of the development of such places. Between the two wars pressure had been brought to allow business on the tract initially allotted for the community building, zoned residential under the Wilmington zoning ordinance, but the residents resisted, contemplating the possibility of building a community library and a meeting area on the lot. However, the only non-residential structure erected in Union Park Gardens was a small, one-story, brick side-gable cottage on McLane Street. Built around 1940 to house the women's club active in the community since 1920, this house became a simple residence in the 1960s.

Throughout the development, the initial streetscape has been mainly preserved. Not only can old sycamore trees be seen throughout the development, but additional trees have been planted (Figure 4.14.). Constructed in 1919 at the edge of the city, the community became part of the metropolitan area as the construction of residential subdivisions expanded beyond the city limits. However, the immediate surrounding area did not significantly change. The Cathedral Cemetery and the municipal park on the northwest and south side acted as a buffer from other residential areas.

Social changes

The different patterns followed by later development of the physical landscape of Worthland, Overlook Colony, and Union Park Gardens reflected not only the original design, but also the various changes in their social and economic context, as well as of the development of the surrounding areas.

Worthland

When built, Worthland—the “closed” community reserved for the Worth Steel Company employees—was seen as extremely attractive. As an ad published in July 1917 in a local newspaper stated, the demand for employment at the steel plant was enormous, as the “immense iron mills” had “to gather together 25,000 men” over a short period of time.³¹ The design various types of houses of the village supported the idea of a social hierarchical and ordered environment, segregated according to the residents’ incomes.

The 1922 New Castle County Assessment Capitation Tax listed the highest value for the detached houses on Avenue F possible intended for foremen or higher skilled workers (the six houses here were assessed for \$21,500), while the frame semi-detached houses on Avenue C were assessed with the lowest value (\$1,035 each unit). The one-and-a-half-story houses on Avenue B, as well as the brick row houses on Avenue D were assessed with \$1,750. The later assessment probably does not reflect the social status of the inhabitants, but more likely, the fact that the company chose to built these structures of more durable materials, in an attempt to avoid further costs for maintenance.

According to the 1920 U.S. Population Census, the entire population of the Worthland village was white³² and the majority of residents were born in the United States. Although the general trend was to promote single family occupancy of individual units, in many cases small families—the size of a worker family varies

³¹ “City Convenience and Rural Surroundings,” ad for Claymont Heights, the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (July 15, 1917).

³² During all the years Hickmans Row remained the entirely the black population community.

form two to eleven persons, with an average of the 4.0 persons—preferred to take lodgers as a way to supplement their incomes. Over 30 percent of the families lodged one to five steelworkers, and the average number of persons occupying a unit was 4.6.

Between 1917 and the beginning of the 1950s only few changes occurred in Worthland mainly because the Worth company, still a thriving business chose to upkeep its housing property. When Worthland village was sold to private investors in 1963, in an effort to cope with major changes in the steel industry, only 78 families, all white lived there, a dramatic decrease from about 125 families in 1944.³³ Toward the end of the 1970s the area was again densely-populated, but not much better perceived. At the time, the living conditions in Knollwood were considered among the worst in the New Castle County, characterized as very similar to city slums. The social characteristics of the Knollwood community—many of them immigrants or welfare recipients—were determined not only by the quality of the houses or the layout of the development, but also by its perception as an isolated and insecure area, in the vicinity of an heavy industrial area. In 1987, the average value of the semi-detached houses on Balfour Avenue was \$21,000, while detached houses on the same street were in average assessed to \$38,000.

The initial social environment of both Overlook Colony and Union Park Gardens had similar characteristics with that observed in Worthland. The distribution of residents—the majority of them skilled, white, and born in the United States—within the development supported the idea of an inhomogeneous, but hierarchical social environment.

³³ “Worthland, A Modern Village.” In Claymont Clipper, Worth Steel “E” Edition, Claymont, Delaware, (January 18, 1944).

Overlook Colony

In Overlook, smaller families inhabited larger and built better houses. The heads of the households were employed by the chemical company as a chemist, ship or labor foreman, operator, or car inspector. According to the 1920 U. S. Population Census, an average of three persons lived in these dwellings, compared with an average of five in the entire development. Around 20 percent of the residents took boarders, a lower percentage than in Worthland. This fact might be a result of the more generous housing offer in the area surrounding Overlook Colony.

Overlook's original design, was referred to as “an excellent example of modern planning from the standpoints of both practical use and good appearance.”³⁴ It was considered one of the best projects undertaken in Nolen's office. Not necessarily the house designs—praised as being “economical of maintenance and operation, and entailing a minimum of effort on the part of the housewife”³⁵—or the quality of the environment generated its perception as an “ideal” place, but more the location and all facilities. According to George Lodge, the president of the Overlook Colony Community League, its location alone—in Claymont, a fast growing area considered “the gateway to the whole state of Delaware—could have made this large community “the largest city in the state.”³⁶ Although most of the advertisements for private developments undertaken in Claymont area mentioned the importance of working places in the vicinity—beside the Worth Brothers mills, “the mammoth oil industries, the Benzol Products Co, the General Chemical Co., the Congoleum Works,

³⁴ “Overlook Colony: A Housing Development,” p. 198.

³⁵ The General Chemical Co., p. 76.

³⁶ “Claymont Considers Many Improvements,” in the Every Evening Journal, Wilmington, Delaware (November 15, 1919), p. 5.

and the Great Viscose Silk Mills”³⁷—as well as the convenience of the rural environment, some of them praised the advantage of being in the vicinity of this large “model” town and all the facilities that was offering. A 1918 map of Claymont Addition shows a birds-eye perspective of Overlook to allure potential buyers (Figure 4.15.).

Even later in the 1920s, when only a small percent of the development was completed, articles and advertisements published in local newspapers still refer to this “model village,” ideal place with “worthwhile neighbors.”³⁸ However, the community offered no more than other suburban developments. At the time, Claymont was a mixed area with some middle-class neighborhoods, vacation resort-type developments, wealthy residences, some other working-class communities, and farms.

The social landscape within the area with houses designed by Coffin started changing in the 1920s, when immigrants moved in.³⁹ Beginning in the 1930s, landlords—some of them owning up to sixty properties—could not afford to keep up their estates’ housing conditions. As a result increasingly lower-income residents occupied them.⁴⁰ However, the proximity of these structures did not hinder the intent

³⁷ “City Convenience and Rural Surroundings,” ad for Claymont Heights, the Sunday Morning Star, Wilmington, Delaware (July 15, 1917).

³⁸ Advertisements for suburban places seem to have used in excess—for the sake of good market—superlatives.

³⁹ For them the Americanization Committee of the Women's club of Claymont organized different activities and even supported economically the foreigners. The Delaware Club Woman Papers, (September 21, 1924), p. 24.

⁴⁰ The Overlook Public Association was organized in 1924 to provide public utilities and promote general welfare in the Colony. In the early 1930s, it experienced severe

of middle-class people to move to Overlook Colony, but in detached dwellings along the Commonwealth Avenue and Green Street.

In the 1990s, the environment of Overlook was very segregated socially. Although the original design still differentiated the social characteristics of the inhabitants, low-income people occupying the least desirable houses in the long rows of houses, additional segregation occurred. A survey undertaken in the spring of 1997 showed that 90 percent of the population living in the long row of houses on Second Street were African-Americans, while the rest of the development had a white majority. With the exception of this row of houses the majority of other houses were owner-occupied, a fact that supports the idea that overall the development continued to be relatively attractive.

At this time, the entire Claymont area had broadened its working-class character and with the closing or reducing of its industrial capacity had lost some of its attractiveness. The immediate surroundings of Overlook Colony seem to consolidate as a modest-income area by the erection of adjacent row houses developments: Clearfield and Greenshire. By 1987, the average value of the row houses in Overlook was \$17,500, with a small difference between grade C and grade B houses; the single houses erected later were assessed at \$37,000. The value of these detached houses is similar to the value of other similar houses in adjacent developments such as Claymont Terrace, located on the north side of Overlook.

financial trouble; both quality of services and housing depreciated. The Overlook Colony Public Association Papers, manuscript, Delaware Historical Society, Wilmington Delaware.

Union Park Gardens

Since it was designed, Union Park Gardens received huge recognition of its ideal design, both in housing or planning publications. It was considered one of the successes of the entire housing program undertaken by the federal government for the war workers. Not only professionals valued the good design, but also did its residents and other Wilmingtonians. Because of the perception as a model and attractive environment, the initial social characteristics of this community began to change immediately that the development was sold to private investors. By the beginning of the 1930s, Union Park Gardens had less than 30 percent of the skilled working class residents, 60 percent were clerical employees and 10 percent were professionals. In 1936, the Urbanism Committee found Union Park Gardens as one of the most successful of the suburban developments visited. The high percentage of “white collars” living there was explained by the “the adequate size of the houses, the attractiveness and stability of the development, and its close proximity to the business center of Wilmington rather than to the industrial district.”⁴¹ Of the total population, 90 percent were white native born; 65 percent of the houses were owned by the occupant.⁴² The 1950 U.S. Population census showed that the majority of the original houses were owner occupied. No vacancy was reported throughout the development. For the rented properties, the monthly average rent was above the monthly average rent in Wilmington City.

Until present, the Union Park Gardens succeeded to remain a homogeneous white, born in the United States, middle-class community, with most of

⁴¹ Comey and Wehrly, p. 69.

⁴² Ibid., p. 111.

the houses owner-occupied. In 1987, the average value for semi-detached houses was \$39,800, close to the value of houses in groups of three to six, assessed with \$41,300, while houses forming the large groups were valued at \$37,400.⁴³ Long row houses, including those added later and that do not have similar characteristics, at least aesthetic, are valued almost double that similar plan type houses in Overlook.

The fact that Union Park Gardens was perceived by its residents and potential buyers as an attractive community was not only due to its exceptional design, but also to a broader social and housing context in the Wilmington area. Located at the edge of the city, Union Park offered to its residents a different environment—more a community—than the densely built area on its northeastern side (recently increasingly deteriorated and residence of ethnic minorities, to some extent reflecting Wilmington's increasingly majority non-white social landscape) and than the suburban environment (mostly middle-class).

Conclusion

Began under the pressure of housing the industrious workers during World War I, the three communities studied were all intended as “ideal” environments for workers and their families. The quality of the original design, the degree to which they were completed, as well as the changes that the physical and social landscape of these new industrial communities were a result of changes in a broader context (Figure 4.16.).

Taking advantage of its original design, especially of the layout and of its location, and of the fact that a large percent of it was completed, Union Park Gardens

⁴³ From Microfiche, New Castle County Tax Assessment List, 1987.

became a very attractive place for a certain category of population, mostly middle-class, which soon replaced the initial workers. The desirability to live within the community generated land speculations, and new construction. The relative small scale of new construction—very dissimilar than the original design—did not have great impact either on its physical landscape or on the homogeneous social environment.

The span of years did not have a major influence on Worthland's physical landscape either. The isolated location, not its design contributed to the major changes of its social structure—a more racial and ethnical integrated, but totally segregated in terms of social status.

In Overlook Colony, the original design—only in a small percentage completed—had less impact on the desirability of the place and on further development than the type of ownership and the location in a suburban environment. In the beginning, the quality of the original structures was above the quality of town houses and similar with many other houses built in suburbs. Designed as rental properties, these row houses depreciated and the social structure began to change when the landlords did not assume the administrative responsibilities the original designers had envisioned.

In the case of the three communities analyzed, it appears that both physical and social landscape changed more as a result of factors related to the economics of the area and changes in the ideology. Original spatial design had more impact on the later changes only when of exceptional quality, even in that case correlated to other factors, as the location within a broader landscape.

Chapter 5

CONCLUSION

In the first decades of twentieth century, the willingness of some companies to invest in large scale housing developments for their employees and the government program for housing war workers gave architects and town-planners the opportunity to apply the emerging doctrine of “scientific planning” to workers’ housing. Although it was estimated that the scale of these ventures was unimpressive—an “exhaustive survey” conducted in 1936 found that only two millions people lived in company towns, out of the 130 millions of Americans¹—they significantly raised the standard of living for workingmen. The large scale of enterprises, new managerial methods, and standardized materials and design made possible lower costs for better quality. “New” company towns not only offered better conditions than in any private workers’ housing developments,² but also represented a first attempt to lower the gap between middle-class suburban housing and workers environments.

The new environments, created in the tradition of picturesque design and strongly advocating architectural deterministic ideas, provided excellent opportunities for experiment and examples of the new possibilities offered by the merging of city planning and housing ideas. The arrangement of the new environment intended a

¹ Comey and Wehrly, p.110; M. Crawford, p. 204.

² Nelson, p. 91.

specific ordering of everyday life around three poles, the factory, the family and the social life of the neighborhood.³

The results did not entirely match either the intentions or the expectations of the planners or patrons. Most of the company towns were not completed as planned. According to Reps, “American industry, for all its success in production, signally failed in its attempt to manufacture noteworthy communities.”⁴

Evaluating the industrial housing developments in Northern Delaware

The three developments studied in the Wilmington area reflected the larger trend of abandoning old company towns ideas and provided for attractive environments and qualitative housing, in an effort to cope with massive growth in industry along the Delaware River. Designed around the same time—1917-1919—the plans of these communities were drawn up to meet economic, sanitary and aesthetic criteria. While Worthland (now Knollwood)—the industrial village developed for the Worth Steel Company’s workers in the immediate vicinity of its plant—was in fact making the transition from the old type of company towns to a new type of environment, Overlook Colony and Union Park Gardens were complete embodiments of the new ideas. Located in a suburban environment not only to take advantage of the rural surroundings, but also to be in a closer vicinity of the newly suburbanized employment opportunities, these housing developments set a more efficient pattern for real-estate activities. At a time when in the Wilmington area small-scale developments took place in two stages, these developments took advantage not only of

³ Topalov, p. 29.

⁴ Reps, p. 438.

a unique developer—the employer or in Union Park Gardens’ case a private company with government funds—but also of the professional competence of a team of town planners and architects. As in many other cases throughout the United States, these comprehensively planned communities were never completed as planned. The very careful original design was far and away from economic and social realities.

In Union Park Gardens, the application of “scientific planning” doctrine was due to the government willingness to set an example of a good environment for further private developments. Union Park Gardens’ design was not necessarily better than some other federal government projects undertaken at the same time. However, due to a more general context this development remained over the years an attractive environment for people who preferred the city to its suburbs.

At Overlook Colony, the failure accomplish more than a very small percent of the exemplary design was due to the unrealistic evaluations and understanding of a broader economic and social context. The 213 acres of Overlook Colony, four times the area of Union Park, could have provided houses for thousands of families. We can speculate that either the General Chemical Company did not forecast its own development and the difficulties generated by the war, or, persuaded by the town planner John Nolen about the validity of a such endeavor, had the intentions to attract other companies in its enterprise.⁵

The fact that when sold only a small percentage of workers acquired the houses they occupied showed mainly their financial inability. The raise in rents might have determined their migration to places with lower rents and standards. The social

⁵ Around the World War I the booming industries in Claymont area aroused people's enthusiasm and made the journalists write about the opportunities to become the “Pittsburgh of Delaware.”

changes in these communities seems to suggest that when the development had high standards of housing offered more than merely housing workers were rapidly replaced by higher status population.

Although the discussion about the success of these communities has to encompass all the actors involved in the experiment, by looking at the physical and social changes in these communities we can conclude that in Wilmington area the attempt to apply “scientific planning” ideas to workers' housing was a failure. Social changes during the time rise questions about the market possibilities to offer good housing and an attractive environment for low-income people.

By analyzing a more general context in which these communities were built, this study intends to propose a new understanding of these fragments of the landscape, to show that they are a part of an important movement of ideas in the beginning of the twentieth century. According to Crawford, professionals involved in designing “new” company towns were, before the Regional Planning Association of America, “the real pioneers of community planning.”⁶ Union Park Gardens and Overlook Colony were two of the best of the forty projects designed throughout the United States following the most modern housing ideas, while Worthland was one of the few such industrial housing developments nationwide preceding the emergence of the community planning on the new principles and making the transition to the new stage.

In a regional context, these housing developments mirror the industrial boom of the area. Manufacturers in northern Delaware set examples of an improved

⁶ M. Crawford, p. 208.

relationship with their employees, thus advertising themselves as leaders in their industry and promoters of the most modern ideas of business.

Further Research

In order to completely understanding these housing developments and their significance of in the Wilmington area landscape we need not only additional information about their social dynamic but also additional analysis of a broader context. Did these developments influence further housing strategies or subdivision planning in this area or they are rather illustrating Reps opinion that “even the best company towns appear[ed] to have exerted little influence on subsequent town planning activities.”⁷

Once aware of their significance, an initial set of questions would have to address individually future policies for these developments. In Overlook Colony and especially in Worthland, policies have to be envisioned to solve some of the problems in these low-income environments, in order to avoid further decay. How can these communities become more attractive? While in Union Park Gardens the residents, mostly owners, are interested and can afford to keep up not only their properties but also the open spaces of their community, in Worthland the context is very different. Here, the local government has to assume more responsibilities not only in the administration of the public spaces, but more important in fostering the economy and the spirit of community.

Further questions relate to future housing policies. To what extent affordable houses can be located in desirable environments? What strategies should

⁷ Reps, p. 438.

be adopted at local level? To what extent the mix of middle-income and lower-income housing—as intended in industrial company towns—could account for a solution?

Not the last, the evolution of these “scientifically planned” communities raises questions about the lessons to be learned from these experiments. The new approach in community planning—the fashionable neo-traditional design—seems to follow to some extent the same ideas applied for the design of industrial housing. Stressing the importance of the impact of physical landscape on the life of the community, the neo-traditionalists ignore some of the lessons of these developments from the beginning of the century. The broader context is not to be neglected. Even if a friendlier physical environment encourages community life and apparent diversity, the market-driven interest might prove more powerful, and could deter even the best designs and many of the best intentions.

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Target

Division of Historical and Cultural Affairs, Department of State
Record Group 1325: SHPO-001A

CULTURAL RESOURCE SURVEY
LOCUS IDENTIFICATION FORM



DELAWARE BUREAU OF
ARCHAEOLOGY AND HISTORIC
PRESERVATION
HALL OF RECORDS
DOVER, DELAWARE 19901
(302) 678-5314

FORM CRS-3

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

CRS # N-9455
Quad Marcus Hook
SPO map # 12-13-37
Hundred BRANDWINE
DOCUMENT 20-06/78/04/7

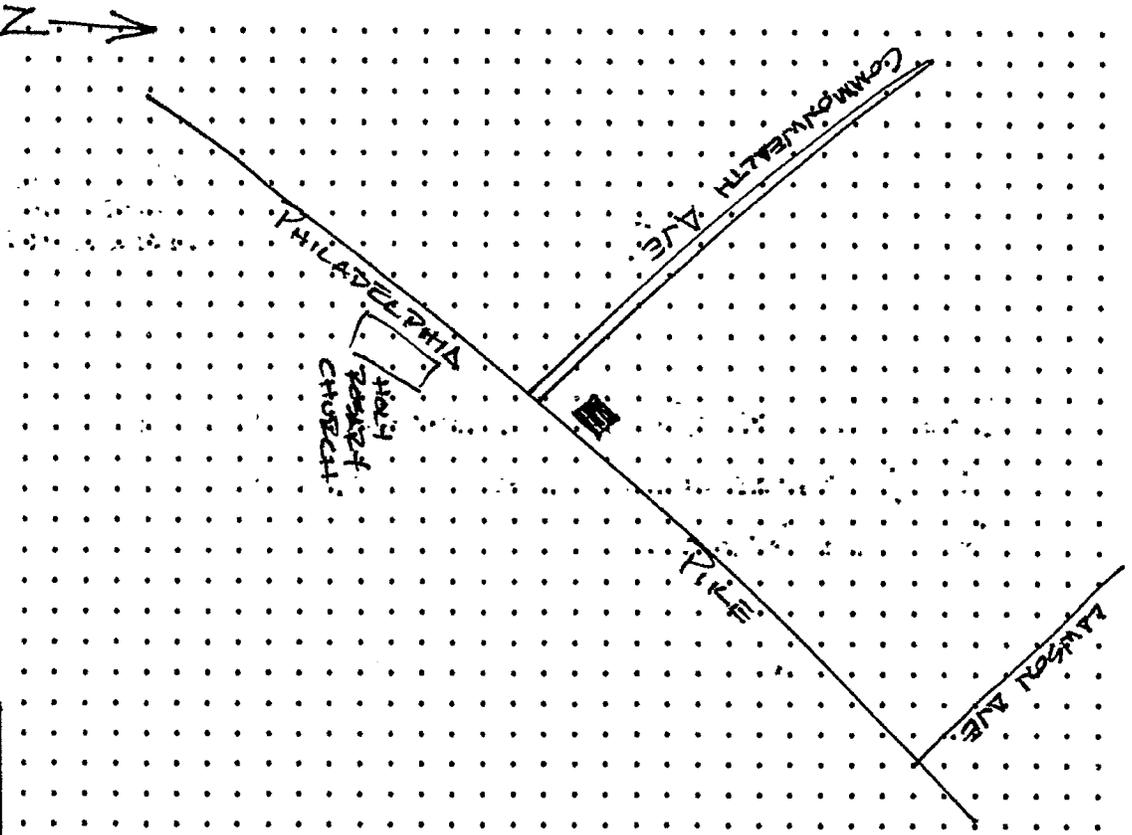
1. NAME OF LOCUS: "JOE + TONY'S SERVICE STATION" (GAS STATION)
2. STREET LOCATION: 3209 PHILADELPHIA PIKE, CLAYMONT
3. OWNER'S NAME: JOHN Di COSTANZA TEL. # _____
ADDRESS: _____
4. TYPE OF LOCUS: a) structure b) district _____ c) archaeological site _____
d) other _____
5. SURROUNDINGS OF LOCUS: (check more than one if necessary)
a) fallow field _____ b) cultivated field _____ c) woodland _____
d) scattered buildings _____ e) densely built up f) other _____
6. THREATS TO LOCUS: (check more than one if necessary)
a) none known b) zoning _____ c) roads _____ d) developers _____
e) deterioration _____ f) other _____
7. REPRESENTATION ON OTHER SURVEYS:
TITLE: _____ # _____
TITLE: _____ # _____
TITLE: _____ # _____
8. YOUR NAME: V. Cesna TEL. # _____
YOUR ADDRESS: _____
ORGANIZATION (if any) N.C. Co. DEPT. OF PLANNING DATE: 8-2-83

CG-084.00-475

USE BLACK INK ONLY

8. SKETCH MAP

Please indicate position of locus in relation to geographical landmarks such as streams and roads.



INDICATE NORTH ON SKETCH

USE BLACK INK ONLY

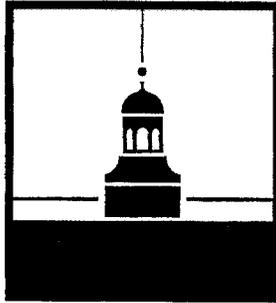
9. COMMENTS:

Consider the following:

- a) relationship to setting
- b) associated traditions or stories
- c) noteworthy features
- d) comparison with others in area

CULTURAL RESOURCE SURVEY
STRUCTURAL DATA FORM

DELAWARE BUREAU OF
ARCHAEOLOGY AND HISTORIC
PRESERVATION
HALL OF RECORDS
DOVER, DELAWARE 19901
(302) 736 - 5685



Form CRS-1
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CRS # N-9455
Quad Marcus Hook
SPO map # 12-13-37
Hundred BRANDYWINE
DOCUMENT 20-06/78/08/14

1. ADDRESS OF STRUCTURE : 3209 PHILADELPHIA PIKE

2. DESCRIBE THE STRUCTURE AS COMPLETELY AS POSSIBLE:

a) Overall shape
stories 2
bays 5 ACROSS FACADE
wings 1 STBR, CINDERBLOCK RADIATOR SHOP
ADDED 1982

b) Structural system
CONCRETE BLOCK

c) Foundation
materials
basement NO

d) Exterior walls
materials STUCCO
color(s) OFF-WHITE WITH RED TRIM

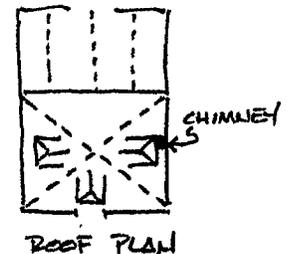
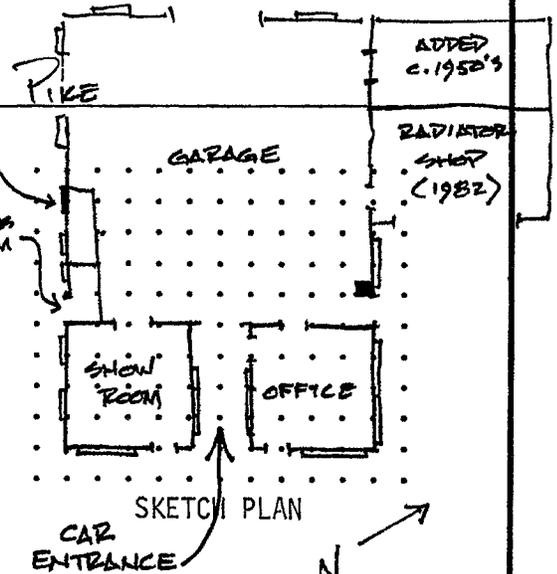
e) Roof
shape; materials PYRAMIDAL ON FRONT SECTION
cornice COVE (STUCCOED)
dormers 3 HIPPED DORMERS W/ PAIRED 6/1 SASH
chimney location(s) INTERIOR, NORTH WALL

f) Windows
spacing
type PAIRED 6/1 SASH + MULTI-LIGHT STOREFRONT
trim MOLDED SURROUNDS (WOOD) CONCRETE LUG SILLS
shutters NONE

g) Door
spacing
type MODERN PLATE GLASS W/ ALUMINUM FRAME (FACADE)
trim TRANSOM

~~h) Porches
location(s)
materials
supports
trim~~

i) Interior details (if accessible)
CONCRETE BLOCKS ARE EXPOSED



- DOOR TO LADIES ROOM IS
WOODEN 5-PANEL



USE BLACK INK ONLY

3. CONDITION: good deteriorated _____
remarks: _____

4. INTEGRITY: a) original site b) moved _____
c) if moved, when and from where _____
d) list major alterations and dates (if known) BLDG WAS
ORIGINALLY PAINTED WHITE W/ WHITE TRIM

5. DATE OF INITIAL CONSTRUCTION: CA. 1928

6. ARCHITECT/BUILDER: _____
JOSEPH VASSOLOTTI - 2ND OWNER, BOUGHT 1949
JAMES McNULTY - FIRST OWNER

7. RELATED OUTBUILDINGS:
a) barn _____ b) carriage house _____ c) garage _____ d) privy _____
e) shed _____ f) greenhouse _____ g) shop _____ h) gardens _____
i) icehouse _____ j) springhouse _____ k) other _____
describe: _____

8. BRIEFLY DISCUSS THE ORIGINAL AND SUBSEQUENT USES OF THE STRUCTURE. NOTE ANY ASSOCIATIONS WITH HISTORIC EVENTS OR PERSONS:
OPENED AS A GULF STATION W/ CHEVROLET SHOWROOM —
2 APTS. UPSTAIRS, OWNER LIVED IN ONE + RENTED THE
OTHER — NO LONGER USED FOR APARTMENTS — THE
SHOWROOM IS NOW USED FOR STORAGE; ITS LARGE REAR
DOOR HAS BEEN NARROWED; THERE WAS ONLY ENOUGH
ROOM TO DISPLAY ONE CAR. (INTERVIEW, J. VASSOLOTTI)

9. Primary References: (include location of reference).

10. Surveyor: V. CENA Date of Form: 8-2-83

Inventory

Cultural Resource Survey Number:
N09544.

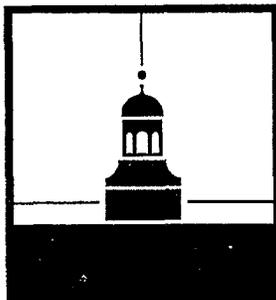
Property Name:

Dwelling

Target

**Division of Historical and Cultural Affairs, Department of State
Record Group 1325: SHPO-001A**

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LOCUS IDENTIFICATION FORM



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FORM CRS-3

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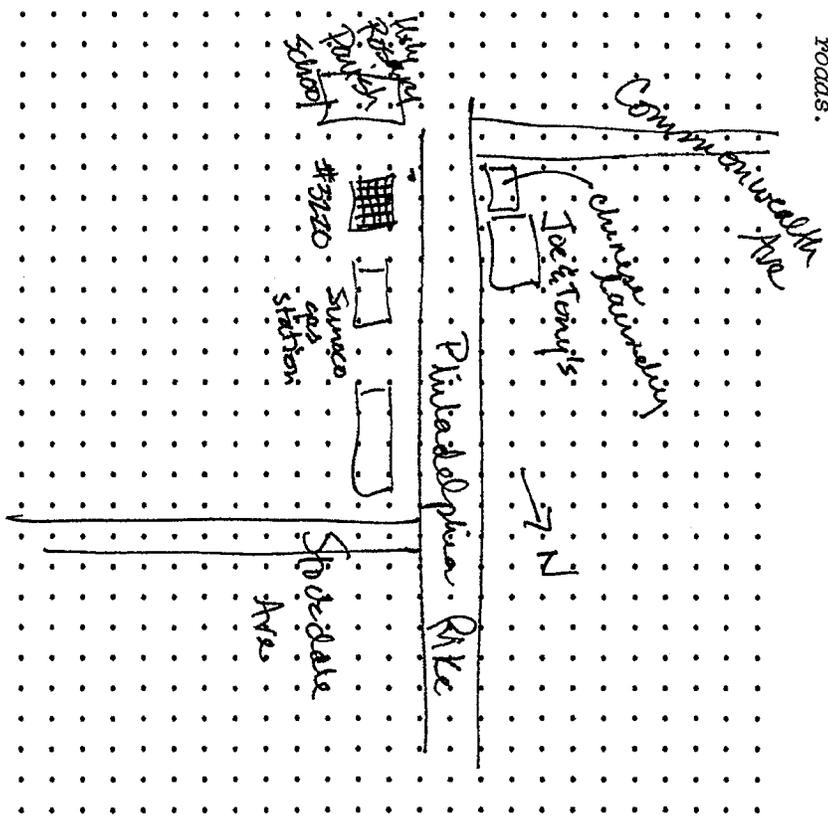
CRS # N-9544
Quad Marcus Hook
SPO map # 12-13-37
Hundred Brandywine
DOCUMENT 20-06/18/04/7

1. NAME OF LOCUS: Dwelling
2. STREET LOCATION: ~~3200~~ 3220 Philadelphia Pike
3. OWNER'S NAME: Sumoco gas station TEL. # _____
ADDRESS: ~~3200~~ 3220 Philadelphia Pike
4. TYPE OF LOCUS: a) structure b) district _____ c) archaeological site _____
d) other _____
5. SURROUNDINGS OF LOCUS: (check more than one if necessary)
a) fallow field _____ b) cultivated field _____ c) woodland _____
d) scattered buildings _____ e) densely built up f) other _____
6. THREATS TO LOCUS: (check more than one if necessary)
a) none known b) zoning _____ c) roads _____ d) developers _____
e) deterioration _____ f) other _____
7. REPRESENTATION ON OTHER SURVEYS:
TITLE: _____ # _____
TITLE: _____ # _____
TITLE: _____ # _____
8. YOUR NAME: Rebecca Sheppard TEL. # _____
YOUR ADDRESS: _____
ORGANIZATION (if any) Nec Dept of Planning DATE: 8/26/83

USE BLACK INK ONLY

8. SKETCH MAP

Please indicate position of locus in relation to geographical landmarks such as streams and roads.



INDICATE NORTH ON SKETCH

USE BLACK INK ONLY

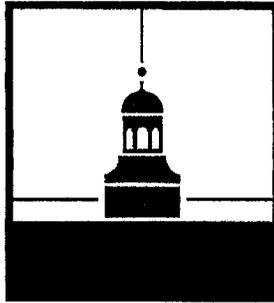
9. COMMENTS:

Consider the following:

- a) relationship to setting
- b) associated traditions or stories
- c) noteworthy features
- d) comparison with others in area

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STRUCTURAL DATA FORM

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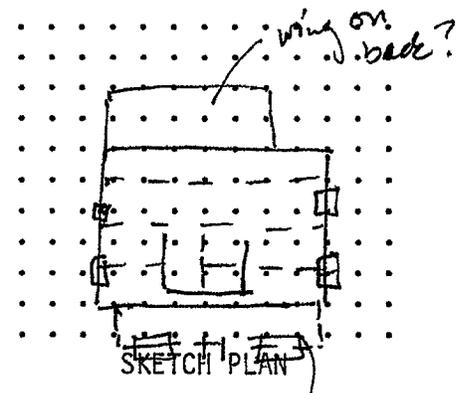
Form CRS-1
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CRS # N-9544
Quad Marcus Hook
SPO map # 12-13-37
Hundred Brandywine
DOCUMENT 20-06/78/08/14

1. ADDRESS OF STRUCTURE : ³²²⁰ ~~3220~~ Philadelphia Pike

2. DESCRIBE THE STRUCTURE AS COMPLETELY AS POSSIBLE:

- a) Overall shape
stories 2 1/2
bays 3
wings
- b) Structural system bric
- c) Foundation materials stone
basement yes
- d) Exterior walls materials bric - common bond
color(s) red
- e) Roof shape; materials gambrel - asphalt shingle
cornice molded box
dormers 1 on front - gable pediment
chimney location(s)
- f) Windows porch
spacing symmetrical
type VI sash - 4 in frame
trim fan light above
shutters
- g) Door spacing central (porch)
type single pane
trim 2 pane sidelight w/ panel below - fan light above
- h) Porches location(s) one on front
materials stone foundation
supports flat roof - molded cornice
trim enclosed w/ frame and glass - fan lights over doors and windows on front
- i) Interior details (if accessible)



USE BLACK INK ONLY

3. CONDITION: good deteriorated

remarks: _____

4. INTEGRITY: a) original site b) moved

c) if moved, when and from where _____

d) list major alterations and dates (if known) _____

5. DATE OF INITIAL CONSTRUCTION: c. 1920-30

6. ARCHITECT/BUILDER: _____

7. RELATED OUTBUILDINGS:

a) barn b) carriage house c) garage d) privy

e) shed f) greenhouse g) shop h) gardens

i) icehouse j) springhouse k) other

describe: _____

8. BRIEFLY DISCUSS THE ORIGINAL AND SUBSEQUENT USES OF THE STRUCTURE. NOTE ANY ASSOCIATIONS WITH HISTORIC EVENTS OR PERSONS:

Dwelling

9. Primary References: (include location of reference).

10. Surveyor: Rebecca Sheppard Date of Form: 8/26/03