

2.0 ENVIRONMENTAL AND CULTURAL CONTEXT

2.1 ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

The project area lies in the Coastal Plain physiographic province, a relatively flat expanse of Pleistocene/Holocene-age terraces dissected by small rivers (Jordan 1964). The province is underlain by a sand sheet of Quaternary-aged (1.65 million years to present) sediments overlying earlier marine deposits of greater thickness. The Quaternary-aged Columbia formation was deposited by the ancestral Delaware River probably as discharge from continental glaciations some time in the past (Jordan 1964). The surface of the Columbia formation was modified by at least one sea-level stand approximately 6 m (20 ft.) above the present level circa 125,000 years ago (Toscano and York 1992:321, 325). Streams were incised into the surficial deposits during earlier and subsequent times of lowered sea level. Extensive marshes have developed behind barrier beaches oriented toward Delaware Bay and the Atlantic Ocean as sea level has risen to its present position following the most recent continental glaciation (Kraft et al. 1976; Fletcher et al. 1990; Knebel et al. 1988).

Elevations in the project area range between 25 and 30 ft. (7.5–9 m) above sea level (asl) on a broad plain, with the lower contours generally defining the heads of surrounding waterways. The project area is centrally located between Goslee, Arnall and Pot Hook creeks, Hetty Fisher and Wolfe glades, and Ebenezer, Muchy and Dorman branches, each of which feed directly or indirectly into either the Great Marsh northwest of Lewes, or into Rehoboth Bay to the south.

Soils of the project area are mapped as Sassafras Series, a deep, well-drained soil formed in loamy and sandy sediments on uplands. Sassafras sandy loam (Sa) occurs along the roads and in the central part of the plowed field, while the remainder of the field is mapped as Sassafras loam (Sf). A typical soil profile has Ap-A2-B1-Bt2-C horizonation, i.e., a plowed and unplowed “topsoil” over an illuvial horizon with an argillic subhorizon, and parent material. Native vegetation includes mixed hardwoods and loblolly pine. In the project area, the Sassafras soils are the best for farming and are conducive to residential and other development (Ireland and Matthews 1974:29, Sheet 29, 7).

2.2 PREHISTORIC CONTEXT

The following brief, general discussion provides an outline of the prehistoric cultural record of the lower Delmarva Peninsula as it is currently understood (e.g., Custer 1984a, 1986a, 1987, 1989; Custer et al. 1983; Thomas et al. 1975). The prehistoric archeological record of the Delmarva Peninsula can be divided into five major periods:

- Paleoindian period (ca. 14,000–8500 years BP);
- Archaic period (8500–5000 years BP);
- Woodland I period (5000–1000 years BP);
- Woodland II period (1000–400 years BP), and;
- Contact period (ca. AD 1600–present).

2.2.1 *Paleoindian Period*

Based on archeological data, Native Americans first inhabited Delaware sometime after 14,000 years BP (Custer 1989:81–86). It is thought that small family groups of Paleoindians lived a wandering existence, hunting animals that roamed a mosaic of subarctic-temperate woodland and grassland environments. Game animals may have included musk ox, caribou, moose, and the extinct

mastodon; however, modern game animals, such as white-tailed deer, were also present in the region (Custer 1989:95–98). Extinct megafauna (mastodon, mammoth) and large northern mammals (e.g., moose, caribou) roamed the continental shelves at the time (Emory 1966; Emory and Edwards 1966; Edwards and Merrill 1977).

The Paleoindian stone tool kit was designed chiefly for hunting and processing animals. Wild plant foods supplemented the diet. Distinctive “fluted” points, characteristic of the early Paleoindian period, show a preference for high-quality stone (Custer 1984b). Use of coastal resources during the Paleoindian period is not known primarily because sea-level rise has drowned the contemporaneous shore (Fletcher 1988; Kellogg 1988; Solecki 1961). Knowledge of the Paleoindian period is, therefore, limited and skewed to the interior of the North American continent. On the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay, several Paleoindian sites have been identified. The sites suggest a preference for interior drainage-divide locations near fresh water sources and wetlands (Lowery and Phillips 1994). A single-component Paleoindian site has yet to be discovered in Delaware.

2.2.2 Archaic Period

The beginning of the Archaic Period in Delaware is marked by major changes in human adaptations (Custer 1989:122). By 9000 years BP, northern species of plants and animals had migrated out of the Mid-Atlantic region. Temperate plant and animal species were more common, and climatic patterns had become more like those of the present. Few Archaic sites have been excavated in Delaware, however, so what is known must be extrapolated from other areas (Custer 1989:127–129).

Subsistence activities became more generalized during the Archaic Period, and people depended increasingly on edible wild plants, as well as animal food sources. Archaic tool kits were less specialized than the earlier Paleoindian tool kits and included plant-processing tools, such as grinding stones, mortars, and pestles. A seasonal, mobile lifestyle exploiting a wide range of resources and settings was probably common. Custer (1986b) found that Archaic-period sites occur in a wider variety of settings than Paleoindian-period sites. Archaic sites appear to have been occupied for longer periods of time, perhaps on a seasonal basis by flexible kinship-based groups (Custer 1989:129). Exchange of stone for tools tied people together across large areas of the eastern United States, enabling more elaborate exchange networks later in time (Custer 1989:140).

Relatively recent excavations at two sites have added to our knowledge of Archaic occupations of peninsular Delaware. The Blueberry Hill site (7K-C-107), in Kent County near Dover, was occupied during the late Paleoindian and early in the Archaic period (Heite and Blume 1995). Evidence of site occupation was sealed and separated by sediments moved by winds during a period of drier climate. The site was situated on a low knoll overlooking a stream confluence and was infrequently occupied for short periods of time, probably as a hunting and gathering camp. The Two Guys site (7S-F-68) was probably first visited intermittently during Paleoindian times, but was not visited frequently until the early Archaic period. Evidence for mid-Archaic occupation of the site is sparse, but it was revisited more frequently during the later Archaic period (LeeDecker et al. 1996). The site is situated on a sandy ridge in an area of extensive, upland wetlands.

2.2.3 Woodland I Period

The Woodland Period in Delaware has been subdivided into the Woodland I (or Early Woodland) and the Woodland II (or Late Woodland) (Custer 1984a:28; 1989:33–38). The Woodland I Period, ca. 5000 to 1000 years BP, is the first period that is well represented on the Delmarva Peninsula. The period is characterized by a certain degree of sedentism, increased population densities, and a greater

degree of contact and exchange between native groups. Woodland I Period occupations in Delaware focused on the mid-drainage zone, which in eastern Sussex County is now closer to the coast due to the sea-level transgression (Custer and Mellin 1987:66).

Several distinct cultural complexes can be distinguished within the Woodland I Period based on artifact styles, site locations, and inferred behaviors (Custer 1987:33–43; 1989:141–297; 1994:18–45). In addition, stone, and later, ceramic containers were included in the repertoire of technologies in use. The Clyde Farm complex exhibits some continuity in stone artifacts with the late Archaic but includes soapstone (steatite) bowls, Marcey Creek–type ceramics, and experimental pottery wares. Heavy woodworking tools, such as axes, adzes, celts, and gouges, were also more common. Between 2500 and 2000 years BP there were two contemporaneous cultural complexes in Delaware: Wolfe Neck and Delmarva Adena (Custer 1987:249). The Wolfe Neck complex is characterized by grit-tempered, cord- and net-marked pottery. The Delmarva Adena, a local manifestation of the “Adena Interaction Sphere,” is slightly younger than the Wolfe Neck Complex and is distinguished by mortuary ceremonialism, artifacts made of materials from outside the region (e.g., Ohio), and more-complex social systems (Custer et al. 1990; Thomas 1987; Thomas and Warren 1970). The mechanisms by which the Adena Interaction Sphere spread its influence across the majority of the eastern United States is not clearly understood, but its impact on the Middle Atlantic is well represented at several burial sites (Custer 1989:258–275; Thomas 1970, 1976, 1987). Delmarva Adena peoples produced pottery that included crushed ceramic sherds or burned clay in the temper, though the timing of this association has been questioned (Hoffman 1997).

The Carey complex is identified by Mockley shell-tempered ceramics and stemmed Rossville-like stone points, among others (Custer 1987:276–289). The earliest date for shell-tempered pottery on the Delmarva Peninsula is approximately 1700 years BP (Custer 1989:276). Mortuary ceremonialism is not pronounced during the Carey complex (Custer 1989:277). Homogeneity in the Carey complex on the Delmarva Peninsula apparently broke down by ca. 1400 years BP, and regionally distinct cultures developed, especially in northern Delaware. In southern Delaware, the Carey complex continued and developed into the Woodland II Slaughter Creek complex (Custer 1989:289).

Although the subsistence/settlement systems for the Woodland I Period are thought to be generally similar to those postulated for the Archaic Period, there appears to be a greater degree of complexity due to changes in social organization. An additional factor is the development of modern coastal environments and greater diversity in environments. Numerous Woodland-period sites have been investigated in the region, as discussed below.

The Wolfe Neck site (7S-D-10), also known as the Moore Shell Midden site (Weslager 1939), is a stratified, multicomponent Woodland I site that provided data on which the prehistoric ceramic typology for the region was refined (Griffith and Artusy 1977). The lower levels of the site are representative of the Wolfe Neck complex. Coulbourn clay-tempered ceramics were found in overlying deposits, while shell-tempered Mockley ceramics were found in the uppermost strata of the shell midden (Griffith and Artusy 1977). Coulbourn ceramics have been associated with the Delmarva Adena complex (Custer 1989:173), but new radiocarbon dates from another archeological site on Wolfe Neck (7S-D-61A) may require reevaluation of this association (Hoffman 1997:III-4–III-7). Mockley ceramics are considered a technological precursor of the Woodland II Townsend ceramic series (Custer 1989:173–174).

The Wilgus site (7S-K-21), on Cedar Neck, is a “micro-band base camp” occupied by Delmarva Adena and Carey people. The Adena occupation is represented by an Adena-type bifacial stone tool and debitage of Ohio Flint Ridge chalcedony, a gorget, and Coulbourn ceramics. Artifacts were

recovered from the plowzone in the living area of the site on a low knoll. Just off the knoll on the slope was a series of Delmarva Adena middens, each approximately 8 m in diameter, in some cases buried by slopewash and unplowed. Some of the middens contained oystershell and clamshell, while others were identified as a dark rich soil with artifacts. Food remains represented in the middens included freshwater fish, deer, snake, turtles, and birds. Seasonality indicators suggest fall, winter, and early spring occupation of the site. Numerous *Amaranth* and *Chenopodium* seeds were recovered by flotation (Artusy 1976, 1978; Custer 1989:256–257). A new ceramic type identified at, and named for, the Wilgus site is tempered with both shell and clay. Wilgus ware fills a gap in the ceramic sequence between clay-tempered Coulbourn wares and later shell-tempered Mockley wares, suggesting continuity in regional occupation. Occupation of the Wilgus site by the Carey complex is indicated by Mockley ceramics (Custer 1989:278).

2.2.4 Woodland II Period

The Woodland II Period, ca. 1000 years BP to AD 1600, is characterized by increasing sedentism (Custer and Mellin 1987) and a breakdown of the exchange systems that existed in Woodland I times. The reasons are not well understood, but it has been suggested that population pressures may have played some role (Custer 1989:300). Although sedentism is often associated with the introduction of agriculture, which provides a steady and reliable subsistence base, there is only meager evidence suggesting that agriculture provided a significant portion of the diet for people living in southern Delaware. However, previous investigations in the Sussex County coastal region have discovered the remains of probable cultivated plants (e.g., corn, amaranth seeds), and recent excavations at the Two Guys site in Sussex County recovered evidence of a cultivated variety of sumpweed (LeeDecker et al. 1996:136–138). In addition, and perhaps of more importance, marine resources were a primary source of food during the Woodland II Period. The Woodland II Period is relatively well known in southern Delaware because of extensive early work by the Sussex Society for Archeology and History (SSAH).

2.2.5 Contact Period

The archeology of the Contact Period, ca. AD 1600 to present, is very poorly understood because no clear-cut Contact-period sites have been identified and thoroughly investigated in Delaware (Custer 1989:340; Grumet 1990:193, 202, 204). Intermittent contact between Native Americans and Spanish and other explorers is poorly documented, but oral traditions imply contacts prior to attempts at colonization (Grumet 1990:192–193). Seventeenth-century and later historical documents contain many references to interactions between Native Americans and Europeans (e.g., Davidson 1982; de Valinger 1950; Mayre 1936a, 1936b, 1937, 1938, 1939, 1940).

The earliest European settlements on the eastern shore of Delaware were those of the Dutch, whose presence in Delaware Bay was well established by the middle of the seventeenth century (Grumet 1990:199–201). Fort Swanendael and a Dutch West Indies Company outpost near Lewes were established in 1631. The first settlement was wiped out and the buildings burned after a misunderstanding between the Dutch and the local inhabitants (Weslager 1969). A number of seventeenth-century European settlements were situated on, or very near, late Woodland II Slaughter Creek-complex sites in the Lewes/Rehoboth area. Early historic cultural material was also found in close association with Native American material, or in separate features, on several sites excavated by the SSAH (e.g., Bonine 1956:31). It is likely that European settlers moved onto the clearings associated with Native American sites. Weslager (1942) quotes Lindstrom in associating the name “Sironesack” (variously spelled, see below) with a large village at Lewes occupied by “natives rich in corn fields.” The place is also referred to as “Chenonnessex,” “Checonesseck,” “Sikonesses,” or

“Sickpnesyns” (Weslager 1942, 1943a). Land was “purchased” from the Indians by the Dutch in 1629. The names of Quesquakous and Ensanques, inhabitants of “Sickonesyns,” appear on a recording of the deed made in Manhattan the following year (Weslager 1949).

Native American society was shattered by European colonization. People were forced off their traditional lands and populations were decimated by disease (e.g., Grumet 1993:2). Migrations and political alliances between neighboring groups led to cultural amalgamations that make it difficult to reconstruct precontact cultural systems. Nonetheless, some Native Americans were able to maintain their identities and communities. In 1711, the Maryland assembly set aside 1000 acres for an Indian reservation in what is now southern Delaware; however, most of the land was apparently sold off in the 1740s (Mayre 1940; Porter 1979:327–329; Catts and Chadwick 2007:2). Many Native Americans left the area at the time to join other groups to the north (Porter 1979:329–330, 1987:46–48). Those who remained in their homeland withdrew into the hinterlands and were able to survive in relative isolation (Porter 1979:331–334). The archeological record for this period is unknown in Delaware; however, the Burr/Haines site in Burlington County, New Jersey (Zebooker and Thomas 1993), may provide a model for the type of archeological site that may be representative of a protohistoric Native American occupation.

Racial tensions and segregationist law led to a classification of many Native Americans as “Negro” or “mulatto” (Porter 1987; Weslager 1943b). The matter was tested in court in 1855 when Levin Sockum, a storekeeper in Sussex County, sold shot to another “Moor.” Lydia Clark, an 87-year-old woman who was purportedly the last fluent speaker of the Nanticoke language (Babcock 1899:280), testified that the “Moors” were descendants of an Irish woman and her African slave. Thus, Levin Sockum was considered a “mulatto” and convicted of a crime (Porter 1979:340–341, 1987; Weslager 1943b). Racial tensions continued to affect Native American populations in Delaware. In 1875, the Delaware legislature passed a tax measure to support segregated schools (Porter 1979:39–342, 1987; Weslager 1943b). The Nanticoke were considered nonwhite and so were subject to the new law. The Nanticoke protested and resisted the tax resulting in a new law, passed in 1881, recognizing the “Incorporated Body,” which allowed the Nanticoke to establish their own schools. The 1881 law did not specify the cultural identity of the Incorporated Body, so the Nanticoke appealed to the Delaware Assembly for explicit recognition of their Native American heritage in 1903. Nonetheless, the assimilation of the Nanticoke into western society continued and the Incorporated Body languished somewhat (Porter 1987:72–72).

Near the turn of the century, the relatively new discipline of anthropology recognized the existence of remnant Native American populations in the eastern United States (e.g., Babcock 1899). Frank Speck, an anthropologist at the University of Pennsylvania, began a long association with the Nanticoke in 1911 (Porter 1987; Weslager 1943b). With Speck’s help the Nanticoke sought stronger legal status, and a charter incorporating the Nanticoke Indian Association was acquired. The Nanticoke continue the struggle to maintain their cultural identity (Clark 1987; Porter 1979, 1987:79–84). Other communities of Native American descent are also seeking recognition in Delaware. For example, many individuals of the “Moor” community in Kent County trace their ancestry to Native Americans (Babcock 1899; Heite and Blume 1999; Weslager 1943b). Despite the difficulties in recognizing Native American archeological sites after European colonization (Custer 1989:340–341; Porter 1979:333), there has been a continuous Native American presence in Delaware from prehistoric into historic and modern times.

2.3 REGIONAL HISTORICAL CONTEXT

Delaware's recent past, comprising approximately three centuries, has been compartmentalized into five temporal study units, as defined by the *Delaware Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan* (Ames et al. 1987), and these units form the basis for an appropriate chronological framework for the investigation of the state's historic resources:

- Exploration and Frontier Settlement (1630–1730)
- Intensified and Durable Occupation (1730–1770)
- Transformation from Colony to State (1770–1830)
- Industrialization and Capitalization (1830–1880)
- Urbanization and Suburbanization (1880–1940)

In an effort to coordinate the study of aboveground and archeological cultural resources, these temporal study units were adopted unaltered in the *Management Plan for Delaware's Historical Archaeological Resources* (De Cunzo and Catts 1990:119).

The following regional historical summary is presented to provide a brief background on important local and regional historical events that shaped and affected the inhabitants of Sussex County. The historical periodization is obtained from the State Historical Plan (Ames et al. 1987; De Cunzo and Catts 1990; Herman and Siders 1986), and descriptions of regional historical events are based on the works of Munroe (1978, 1984), Hoffecker (1977), Hancock (1976), and Scharf (1888).

2.3.1 1630 To 1730: Exploration and Frontier Settlement

The first permanent settlement in the vicinity of Lewes was made in 1630 and was known as Swanendael (“valley of swans”). About a decade earlier the Dutch West India Company had established a trading post on the west side of Delaware Bay (then called Godins Bay after Samuel Godyn, a company supporter) (Weslager 1969). The new colony of Swanendael was located near the Dutch West India trading station at Whorekil. It was sponsored by the patroons of the Dutch West India Company, under the direction of Samuel Godyn and Samuel Bloomaert. Swanendael was created for the purpose of whaling and raising grain and tobacco. This venture was privately financed, but it ended following a misunderstanding between the Indians and the settlers, resulting in the deaths of the settlers. After the destruction of the settlement, the Dutch abandoned any attempts to settle the lower Delaware valley and focused instead on their holdings in New Amsterdam (modern New York City) (Zebooker et al. 1996).

Farther north a group of Swedes in the employ of the New Sweden Company built Fort Christina in 1638 in what is now part of the City of Wilmington. Fort Christina thus became the first permanent European settlement in Delaware. The Swedish government supported the venture, and Fort Christina, located at the confluence of the Brandywine and Christina creeks, became the nucleus of a scattered settlement of Swedish and Finnish farmers and traders known as New Sweden (Weslager 1987).

The Dutch claimed the identical land—from the Schuylkill River south—by right of prior discovery, and in 1651 the West India Company retaliated by building Fort Casimir at the present site of New Castle, in an attempt to block Swedish efforts to control commerce on the Delaware River. The Swedes responded by capturing this fort in 1654 and renaming it Fort Trinity. Rivalry between the Swedes and the Dutch continued, and the Dutch returned to the

Delaware Valley in 1655 with a large military force and recaptured Fort Trinity and also seized Fort Christina. As a result, New Sweden ceased to exist as a political entity due to a lack of support from the homeland. Nonetheless, Swedish and Finnish families continued to observe their own customs and religion.

In 1657, as a result of peaceful negotiations, the City of Amsterdam acquired Fort Casimir from the West India Company and founded the town in the environs of the fort called New Amstel. This was a unique situation in American colonial history—a European city became responsible for the governance of an American colony. The Dutch erected a small fort at Lewes, called the Whorekil (also spelled Hoerenkil, Horekill, Horekill, and Hoorekill), near the mouth of the Delaware Bay in 1659 for the purpose of blocking English incursions, particularly settlers from the Chesapeake Bay and Virginia, since Lord Baltimore considered the lands on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake Bay and extending to the western shore of the Delaware as part of his proprietorship. At the Whorekil (Lewes) several Dutch families built homes, including Dutch Mennonites under the leadership of Cornelius Plockhoy, who established a semisocialistic community there in July 1663. They too were under the supervision of local officials appointed by the burgomasters of Amsterdam.

English hegemony of the Delaware River and Bay area began in 1664, when Sir Robert Carr attacked the Dutch settlement at New Amstel on behalf of James Stuart, Duke of York, brother of Charles the II. This was an important move on the part of England to secure her economic position in the New World. The settlement at the Whorekil was also seized and pillaged by the English.

A transfer of political authority from the Dutch to the English then followed, and the Dutch settlers who swore allegiance to the English were allowed to retain their lands and personal properties with all the rights of Englishmen. Former Dutch magistrates continued in office under the Duke of York's authority, and the Swedes, Finns, and Dutch alike peacefully accepted the rule of the Duke of York through his appointed governors. In 1670 the first local court was established at the Whorekil by Governor Lovelace. By 1671 the population of the Whorekil consisted of 47 individuals, both Dutch and English (Gehring 1977:100). It was reported at that time that the Marylanders were unlawfully settling within the boundaries of the Duke of York's lands, specifically about 20 miles from the Whorekil in the vicinity of Assawoman Inlet. Indeed, in 1670 Lord Baltimore had created a new county, called Durham, which encompassed all of the lands currently occupied by much of the State of Delaware (Papenfuse and Coale 1982:11). Between 1670 and 1682, when William Penn became the proprietor of the lands from the Whorekil to New Castle, Baltimore issued at least 45 warrants for lands on the west side of the Delaware Bay, along "Duke Creek" (probably Duck Creek), Slaughter Creek, Prime Hook, Indian River, and Whorekil Creek (Skirven 1930). In 1673, during the third Anglo-Dutch war, the Dutch recaptured New Netherlands, including New Amstel and the Whorekil. The Dutch retained possession of the region only briefly, returning the lands to the English in 1674 in exchange for the captured Dutch colony of Surinam. The short war had an effect on the settlers at the head of Delaware Bay, however, because in December 1673, the Maryland government sent an expeditionary force of 40 men to the Whorekil, which was burned and pillaged for a second time in less than a decade (deValinger 1950). Following the peace treaty, the English again regained control of the region.

In 1682, the granting of proprietary rights to William Penn and his representatives by the Duke of York essentially gave political and economic control of the Delaware region to Philadelphia, the new seat of government in Penn's colony of Pennsylvania (Munroe 1978). Two years earlier, in

1680, Governor Edmund Andros had established the County of Deale, which included the settlements at the Whorekil northward to Cedar Creek. The settlement of the Whorekil region, particularly around the town of Whorekil, and the area 10 miles south at Indian River and Assawoman Inlet, was encouraged by Governor Andros. Between 1676 and 1678, 47 land patents were issued by the Duke of York's government for lands in the area, all fronting on the coast or on navigable streams and rivers (Hancock 1976:17).

With Penn's arrival in 1682, the name of Deale County was again changed, this time to Sussex County, and the name of the town of Whorekil was changed to Lewes, the county seat of the English county of Sussex. In 1682 the first surveyors of highways and bridges were appointed for the county. Sussex County at this time was heavily forested and swampy, and settlement in the county for much of this period was confined to an area within about 10 to 12 miles of the coastline, extending inland along a line running roughly from modern Milford-Milton-Harbeson-Millsboro-Dagsboro. Gristmills were established on Broadkiln Creek (Milton) by 1695 and on Bundick's Branch soon thereafter; an earlier gristmill had existed in Lewes by 1676. Lewes was the only town of any size in the county, and it became a political, maritime, and commercial center for the region.

Yards for shipbuilding were present in Lewes by the early 1680s (Hancock 1976:21). The population of Sussex County has been estimated to have been less than 1000 persons by 1700, and the majority of these inhabitants were farmers, raising crops of tobacco (the primary medium of exchange), corn, wheat, and rye. Hogs and cattle were also raised. The exporting of cattle, by driving them overland from Lewes to New Castle, appears from the records to have been a significant source of income for the settlers of Sussex (Munroe 1978:198).

Political relations between the Three Lower Counties and Pennsylvania deteriorated, and by 1704 representatives from Sussex County began to meet with legislators from New Castle and Kent Counties in a separate assembly at the town of New Castle, but the governor continued to be appointed by Pennsylvania. Economic and social ties, however, continued to link the Lower Counties with Philadelphia throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (Munroe 1954).

2.3.2 1730 To 1770: Intensified and Durable Occupation

Settlement in Sussex County by the start of this period had penetrated the interior portions of the region, reaching the area of the mid-peninsular divide (just to the west of present-day Georgetown). Patents for land west of the headwaters of the Broadkiln and Indian rivers, and along Gravelly Branch and its tributaries, were being issued from the Pennsylvania government by the second decade of the eighteenth century (Scharf 1888:1237, 1293). According to one contemporary observer settlers in the eastern portion of Sussex County:

...live scattering generally at 1/2 a mile or miles distance from each other, except in Lewes where 58 families are settled together. The business or Employment of the Country Planters, is almost the same with that of an English Farmer, they commonly raise Wheat, Rye, Indian Corn, and Tobacco, and have Store of Horses, Cows, and Hogs. The produce they raise is commonly sent to Philadelphia ... The people here have generally the Reputation of being more Industrious than they of some of the Neighboring counties (Hancock 1962:139).

For most of the eighteenth century, the land remained heavily wooded and overland passage was difficult. The limited extent and development of the road network in the county is shown on

Benjamin Eastburn's map of the Lower Counties in 1737 (Munroe and Dann 1985). Major roads included the King's Highway, officially established by an Act of the General Assembly in 1752, which ran northward from Lewes to Cedar Creek and St. Matthews Anglican Church (built in 1707), and from there to Dover and up country to Wilmington (Laws of the State of Delaware 1797:320, 390–394). From Lewes the main road ran south through St. Georges Chapel to Warwick and the ferry crossing on the Indian River, and from Lewes southeast down the Atlantic Coast toward the Inlet. At St. Georges Chapel (built in 1719), a side road extended down Angola Neck, a site of early settlement in the county (Munroe and Dann 1985). In the western part of the county, claimed at this time by Maryland, a major overland route ran from Choptank Bridge across Gravelly Branch in the vicinity of Coverdale Crossroads. The roads were described at the beginning of this period as "very commodious for travelling, the land being level and generally sandy, so that the people usually come to Church Winter and Summer some 7 or 8 miles, and others 12 or 14 miles...." (Hancock 1962:140).

The population of Sussex County grew slowly throughout this period. In 1728, the Reverend William Beckett reported that there were a total of 1750 inhabitants in the county, consisting of 1075 Anglicans, 600 Presbyterians, and 75 Quakers. Beckett also noted that there were 241 slaves and free blacks in the county. The presence of so many Presbyterians, Beckett said, was due to the great influx of at that time of Scotch-Irish settlers "of the most bigotted sort" (Hancock 1962:138). By the 1740s, it was estimated that the population of Sussex County was between 1800 and 2000 (Pennsylvania Archives 1891), and Hancock (1976:26) estimates that by 1775 there were nearly 14,000 inhabitants. The tremendous growth of the population between 1740 and 1775 may be attributable to the strong migration of settlers from the eastern shore of Maryland to Delaware lands, as well as to overseas immigration from Great Britain (Munroe 1978:150).

Throughout the period, farming was the major occupation of the settlers in Sussex. The farms and plantations in Sussex have been generally characterized as subsistence farms, operated by poorer farmers and farm laborers, particularly when compared to the farms located in New Castle County (Main 1973:26–32). Tobacco declined from its position as the prominent cash crop in Kent and Sussex counties and was replaced somewhat by corn and wheat. The lumber industry, particularly the harvesting of vast stands of cedar and pine from the Indian River area, began to grow in importance during this period, and the shellfish industry was established in the bays of Sussex. Shipbuilding remained a significant industry, especially at Lewes, on the Broadkilm, and along Indian River.

An important industry that flourished in the county during this time period was the iron industry. Several iron furnaces and plantations were established along the Nanticoke, Gravelly Branch, and Deep Creek beginning in the 1760s (Tunnell 1954; Heite 1974). These furnaces used bog iron, dug from the surrounding swamps and wetlands, for their sources of ore. The Deep Creek Furnace was established in 1763, as was Nanticoke Forge, located at Middleford. Pine Grove Furnace was located at the present site of Concord, and the Unity Forge (blast furnace), owned by Joseph and Samuel Shankland, was located at the head of the Nanticoke River in Northwest Fork Hundred. Most of these furnaces were out of production by the beginning of the American Revolution.

Lewes was the major town in the region, though there was some dissension in the 1760s among the inhabitants of the southern and western portions of the county to have the county seat moved to the Crossroads on the Broadkilm (present-day Milton). Several small hamlets began to spring up during this time period, mostly located at stream and river crossing points.

While Lewes continued to function as a center of shipbuilding, vessels began to be built in the Indian River region during this period. Several sloops of 10 and 20 tons and at least one schooner of 10 tons were registered in Philadelphia between 1742 and 1746, and at least one of these was built at Warwick Ferry. Owners were generally from Philadelphia, but the masters of the vessels were local (Anonymous 1900).

2.3.3 1770 To 1830: Transformation From Colony To State

By the start of this period, the century-long boundary dispute between Maryland and Pennsylvania had been decided, and the area west of the Nanticoke officially became part of Sussex County. The addition of such a substantial tract of land spurred the creation of five new hundreds in Sussex: Baltimore, Little Creek, Dagsborough, Nanticoke, and Broad Creek. These hundreds in “New Sussex” were joined with the five hundreds of “Old Sussex”: Lewes and Rehoboth, Indian River, Northwest Fork, Broadkill, and Cedar Creek (Hancock 1976:25). Sussex County thus became the largest of the Three Lower Counties, with a surface area of 938 square miles, nearly the size of both New Castle and Kent counties combined. By 1800 the population of the county was 19,358 inhabitants, with nearly 40 percent of the total located in the hundreds of Northwest Fork, Nanticoke, and Broadkill. Northwest Fork, Baltimore, and Dagsborough hundreds held the largest number of enslaved African Americans, with between 18 and 19 percent enslaved persons in their respective populations. Baltimore Hundred contained the fewest number of inhabitants in the county in 1800, with a total of 1395 persons, or approximately 27 persons per square mile. By 1830 the hundred’s population had grown slowly, reaching 2176.

At the start of this period, the American Revolution dominated the social and political scene in the county. Much of the effects of the war were limited to the coastal areas around Lewes, the Mispillion, Broadkill, and Indian rivers, where British blockades and shore raids disrupted trade and commerce. Inland, however, strong loyalist sentiments among the population prevailed, and in 1780 about 400 Tories took part in the Black Camp Rebellion. The headquarters of the rebellion was located in a swamp about six miles north of Georgetown and was quelled with the use of Kent County militia (Hancock 1976:43). Many of the participants in the rebellion were inhabitants of the poorer regions of the county, and complained about a lack of paper currency, and of destitution for their families. Economic grievances of this sort would continue after the Revolution, and throughout the period.

In 1791, the Sussex County legislature voted to move the county seat from Lewes to the new town of Georgetown, located near the center of the county. As a result of this move, improvements in the transportation network, particularly in the interior parts of the county, were undertaken. Near the project area, the overland transportation network focused on gristmills, sawmills, and milldams. One early millseat in the region was erected in 1785 across the head of Assawoman Creek (Conrad 1908:727). Mills and stores, such as at Selbyville, Frankford (Long’s Store), Omar (Baltimore Mills), Roxanna, Hall’s Store (Ocean View), and Tunnels Store (Johnson’s Corner) provided nodal points for the surrounding population, and other services, such as taverns, shops, and stores, were erected in their vicinities. The milldams often provided the easiest means of crossing low, swampy ground and of crossing the millponds, thus becoming ready-made causeways across streams and creeks in the area. The settlement pattern in the area also focused on water transportation, and the Indian River Bay and Assawoman Bay and their tributaries provided access to markets in Maryland, the eastern shore of Virginia, and up the Delaware Bay and River.

Corn agriculture predominated throughout this period in Sussex County, and in the southern part of the county livestock raising contributed substantially to the economy (Macintyre 1986; Michel 1985; Garrison 1988). Homesteads in Sussex were generally characterized by a frame or log 1½-story house averaging under 450 square feet of living space, a small orchard of apple and peach trees, and usually about four outbuildings, including a corn barn, smokehouse or meat house, and kitchen. Livestock on the farm might include a herd of hogs, cows, sheep, oxen, and an occasional horse. On most plantations, only 50 percent of the total acreage of the farm was under cultivation (Hancock 1987:24–25). “Out plantations” or “out fields” might be located close by the farm, and were locations of tenant houses or well-used fields. A form of extensive subsistence farming coupled with home manufacturing dominated the economy of Sussex County during this period. Tench Coxe (1814:76), in his report on the manufactures of the United States for the year 1810, indicated that over 70 percent of the looms in the state of Delaware were located in Sussex County. Over 62 percent of the total value of flaxen goods, and over 75 percent of the wool produced in Delaware came from homes in Sussex County. Coxe also reported that the five iron forges in the state were located exclusively in Sussex and produced 215 tons of iron annually. Twenty distilleries in the county produced nearly half of the annual value of all of those establishments in the state. Other categories of manufacturing, such as gristmills, fulling mills, cotton and woolen factories, and snuff mills, were located predominantly in the industrial counties of Kent and New Castle. Although the demise of the iron furnaces of western Sussex County occurred at the start of this period, they were replaced by bloomery forges, which were smaller and more economical to maintain. The forge at Collins Mill Pond and the Unity Forge near Bridgeville are examples of these types of forges (Heite 1974).

2.3.4 1830 to 1880: Industrialization and Capitalization

The most significant event to occur within the county during this period was the arrival of the railroad. Prior to this time, the preferred method of long-distance travel out of the county had been by steamboat, since overland travel was generally hampered by poor roads. Constructed in the western portion of the county, the Delaware Railroad reached the town of Seaford in 1856 and exited the state at Delmar by 1859 (Hancock 1976:63). The Delaware, Maryland and Virginia Railroad ran from Harrington to Milford, and from Milford south to Georgetown in 1869 (LeeDecker et al. 1989:32). A third line, the Junction and Breakwater Railroad, was constructed between 1859 and 1868, when it reached Lewes; a spur line eventually connected to Rehoboth in 1878 (Hancock 1976:89). The Queen Anne’s Railroad, which ran between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays, was famous in the late 1890s for its excursions to Lewes but was abandoned in 1924 (Eckman 1955:407).

The arrival of the railroad in the county stimulated changes in agriculture and industry and the growth of new towns. The growing of perishable market crops, particularly fruits such as peaches, blackberries, and strawberries, became possible after rail lines were in place. By the end of this period, Sussex County was the leading peach-producing area of Delaware, and most of this crop was shipped by rail or water to urban locations. The transportation of the fruit crops was made possible in turn by the establishment of canneries, like the Fruit Preserving Company and the Georgetown Packing Company, both constructed near the railroad depot in Georgetown by the mid-1870s (Scharf 1888:1241). Other towns, such as Milton and Bridgeville, also constructed packing companies at this time (Hancock 1976:88).

The arrival of the railroad allowed the tourism industry to grow in the county during this time period. Beaches and coastal areas had always held a special allure to the region’s inhabitants,

and with the improved transportation methods these areas became more accessible to the urban populations of Philadelphia and Baltimore, who no longer had to rely solely on the steamboat to travel to Lewes. The Rehoboth Beach Camp Meeting was organized by the Methodists in 1873, and the Hotel Henlopen, with 75 rooms, was constructed in 1879 (Hancock 1976:90).

At the outbreak of the Civil War, Sussex County was the largest slaveholding area in Delaware, containing over half of the state's enslaved population. The vast majority of these enslaved laborers were the property of small farmers and worked as domestic servants or field laborers. Free blacks in the county generally owned little land, and like their enslaved counterparts, worked as day laborers and hired farm hands, though some were skilled artisans. As in the rest of Delaware, blacks were denied the opportunity of education, were not permitted to own firearms, and had their freedom severely circumscribed by laws (Hancock 1976:65). The end of the Civil War and the emancipation of the slaves in Sussex, though providing freedom, did little to improve their social or economic status. Several small, black communities sprang up at the end of this period, notably the villages of Belltown (started in the 1840s) and Jimtown in Lewes and Rehoboth Hundred (Eckman 1955:494).

As in the previous historical periods described above, corn agriculture continued to dominate in Sussex County. The corn that was raised was used to feed livestock, and the small livestock herds of Sussex County were the chief source of agricultural income for the area's farmers. Home manufactures also continued to be a major source of income in Sussex. Long after New Castle or Kent County farmers ceased any home manufactures, between 50 and 85 percent of the Sussex County farmers reported it as a source of income in the 1849 Census Schedule. The majority of Sussex inhabitants have been characterized as self reliant, and often in addition to farming used smithing, carpentry, fishing, milling, tanning, hunting, and trapping as supplements to their incomes (Michel 1985:10-12; Garrison 1988).

Industrialization in the county lagged behind that seen in New Castle and Kent counties. By 1860 there were a total of 141 manufacturers of all kinds located in the county, including 37 gristmills, 56 lumber mills, 15 blacksmith shops, and 6 shipyards in Sussex, with smaller numbers of boot and shoe manufacturers, leather works, agricultural implement shops, fisheries, and wagon and carriage shops (U.S. Census of Manufactures 1865:54). The majority of these industries were oriented toward intracounty services, though shipbuilding touched all areas of the Delaware and Chesapeake bays, with ships constructed at Seaford and Laurel as well as at Milton and Lewes, and the lumber industry was nationally known. By the end of this period shipbuilding in villages such as Milton had reached its peak (Eckman 1955:416), and the number of flourmills and gristmills, though still important in the county, had declined to 26 (Passmore et al. 1978:24).

2.3.5 1880 to 1980: Urbanization and Suburbanization

Trends in agriculture begun in the preceding periods continued in Lewes and Rehoboth Hundred, and Sussex County remains today the most important agricultural section of the state. At the start of this period, corn was still dominant as a cash crop, the county producing over 1,676,000 bushels in 1900. In turn-of-the-century Lewes and Rehoboth Hundred, a defining characteristic of the region was the large number of highly productive, small farms operated in many cases by people with economic and cultural connections to both the land and the sea (Conrad 1908:728). One author suggested that many of the inhabitants of the hundred were former mariners who had retired to farming life, "where their later days are spent in ease and

quiet,” foreshadowing the present-day trend of retirees taking up residence along the Delaware seashore (Conrad 1908:728).

Today corn and soybeans, both used for feed in the broiler industry, are primary products of the county, and Sussex is characterized by a “broiler-corn-soybean complex.” Several large-scale agribusinesses, such as the Newtons and Cannons of Bridgeville and the Townsends of eastern Sussex, dominate the agricultural economy of the county (Munroe 1984:233; Hancock 1976:100–101). The trends in truck farming and market gardening, started in the 1870s, saw their zenith by 1890, when Sussex became the peach-producing center of the state. By 1900 over seven million quarts of strawberries were grown in the county, making Sussex the leading producer in the nation (Hancock 1976:89). By the early 1960s, however, the orchard crops had been supplanted by other more-lucrative agricultural products.

The holly wreath industry flourished in Sussex from the 1880s until the 1960s, and many farmers supplemented their incomes during the months of November and December in the holly business. It was an especially significant industry during the Depression, and in 1936 over two million wreaths were shipped from the towns of Bridgeville, Milton, Millsboro, and Selbyville. The industry declined quickly after the Second World War (Eckman 1955:385; Hancock 1976:102).

At the start of the twentieth century, the lumber industry was a significant source of income for Sussex County. In 1909 a record amount of timber, over 55 million cubic feet, was shipped from the county. Most of this was virgin Sussex pine that had grown following the initial cuttings caused by the arrival of the railroad several generations earlier. Along with lumbering, charcoal production was an important related industry of the county; some charcoal was still being produced in the Redden area as late as the 1950s (Passmore et al. 1978:13-14).

The county also experimented with new agricultural methods, most notably in the chicken industry (broilers, or chickens weighing under three pounds). In 1923, Cecile A. [Long] Steele, the wife of farmer David Wilmer Steele, raised chickens for profit in Ocean View. These were sold to urban markets for broiling, frying, and roasting. She was extremely successful, and the poultry industry grew rapidly; the number of broilers raised in Delaware grew from 7 million in 1934 to 54 million in 1942, or over one-quarter of the entire commercial broiler production in the country (Munroe 1984:214–215). By 1944, 60 million broilers were being raised annually, mostly in the southeastern portion of the county in the vicinity of Millville, Millsboro, Ocean View, and Selbyville. Irwin E. Steele, the son of David and Cecile, inherited the family poultry business after the untimely death of his parents in 1940. Seven years later, Irwin Steele was producing 250,000 fryers on seven farms in the Millville area and was described as “one of the most extensive poultry producers in Delaware” (Reed 1947:318–319).

By 1969, Sussex farmers were deriving an income of over 80 million dollars per year from this source and its associated agricultural jobs of soybean and feed production (Hancock 1976:99–101). “Thanks to broilers, Sussex became one of the richest agricultural counties the eastern United States” (Munroe 1984:216).

In 1939, less than 40 percent of the land in Sussex County was farmed. The acreage of land in farms had declined by nearly one-quarter since 1880, and the number of farms in the county had decreased by 15.3 percent between 1910 and 1940. Both of these trends were largely the result of changing economic conditions and the difficulties in farming marginal lands (Bausman 1941:4, 7). At that time, one of the major problems confronting Sussex farmers was drainage,

which today has been largely solved through the construction of a vast network of drainage ditches and channelized streams. The reclamation of over 35,000 acres of land from swamp and brush to tillable acreage during the middle decades of the twentieth century was concurrent with the growth of corn and soybeans as cash crops in the county (Hancock 1976:100).

Grain farming in the late 1930s was spread fairly evenly across the county, with slightly heavy concentrations of farms in Northwest Fork Hundred and in the southeastern portion of the county. Cannery crops, such as lima beans, tomatoes, and string beans, were grown mostly in Broadkill, Cedar Creek, and Lewes and Rehoboth hundreds, while truck crops and fruit crops were mostly produced in the fertile western hundreds. Timber lands, brushlands, and open untillable lands were the dominant landform in 1941 and covered large portions of the central part of Sussex (Bausman 1941:16–21). Significantly, the farmers of Sussex were characterized in 1941 as being more closely tied to the land than the farmers of New Castle or Kent counties. There were few foreign-born inhabitants in Sussex, and the vast majority were native Delawareans; “in fact, most of the farmers of Sussex County were born and reared in Sussex County” (Bausman 1941:61).

Internal transportation and interregional routes continued to develop and connect Sussex more fully with the Mid-Atlantic region. By 1910, the Maryland, Delaware, and Virginia Railroad extended from Lewes to Love Point, a ferry landing on the Chesapeake Bay, providing easier access for the people of the western shore of Maryland to the Delaware beaches. Prior to 1917, Sussex had less than 35 miles of macadam roads in the county, but in that year the first 20 miles of Coleman DuPont’s revolutionary concrete highway was completed, connecting Selbyville with Georgetown. By 1924, the DuPont highway (present-day Route 113) ran the length of the state (Rae 1975; McVarish et al 2005; Francis and Hahn 2009). By the early 1960s, several state-maintained highways (Route 13, Route 1) made travel both into and out of the county easier. The improvements in regional transportation in turn stimulated continued tourism growth along the beaches, as witnessed by the establishment of Dewey Beach in 1898 and Bethany a few miles south in 1901 (Hancock 1976:90). Currently, tourism remains a powerful economic force in the county, dominating the eastern portions of Sussex for much of any given year.

Industry in Sussex is represented by the presence of a major DuPont nylon plant in Seaford (built in 1939) and other facilities such as Nanticoke Homes of Greenwood and Vlastic Foods at Millsboro (Munroe 1984:189; Hancock 1976:103). By the mid-1970s, there were over 100 firms in Sussex, employing over 12,000 people, and seven of these, including five food-processing plants, one chemical company, and an instrument manufacturer, employ over 250 persons each (Hancock 1976:103).

The population of Sussex at the start of this period was over 36,000, making it larger than Kent County but smaller than the City of Wilmington and New Castle County. Throughout this period, the population of the county has grown steadily, spurred by the growth of the broiler industry, the reclamation of land, and the arrival of light industry to the area. As of 1980, over 98,000 people made their homes in the county (Munroe 1984:269), and this total swells tremendously during the summer season. In spite of this growth, Sussex is still overwhelmingly rural and agricultural, though intensive suburban and resort development in the last decade are dramatically altering the landscape of the eastern part of the county.

2.3.6 Project-Specific History

Cedar Grove Road, along which the majority of the project area rests, was well established by 1857, at which time it was referred to as the road from Abba Wolfe's to Burton's Mill (Sussex County Deed Book 211:291-292). Wolfe sold two-thirds of an acre (110 square perches) to the trustees of the "New Ebenezer" Methodist Episcopal Church (Sussex County Deed Book 211:291-292). A frame church measuring 36 by 40 feet and with a gallery was constructed and dedicated on January 4, 1858 (Scharf 1888:1221). The church underwent renovations in 1886, 1901 and 1920. Regular services ended in 1934; however, the associated cemetery continued to be used until 1954 (Zebley 1947:280-281; Lewes and Rehoboth Hundred Cemetery Database). A plaque on the site of the church states that it was demolished in 1955. A recent survey conducted by the Lewes Historical Society resulted in the recordation of 116 headstones (Lewes Historical Society 2011).

Three houses and the church were illustrated within or in the immediate vicinity of the project area on the Beers *Atlas* of map of Lewes and Rehoboth Hundred (1868) (Figure 3). To the northeast of the church, along present-day Plantation Road, stood a house owned by J. W. Blizzard. A house was depicted at this location from 1868 through 1991, except in 1913 (Beers 1868; *Farm Journal* 1913; USGS 1918; DHCA 1937; DHCA 1954; DHCA 1961; USGS 1991). The absence of the house on the 1913 *Farm Journal* map is certainly an error of omission. As shown in a 1979 photograph, the structure appears to have been a mid-nineteenth century vernacular gothic farmhouse (CRS S-995; Figure 4). A 1937 aerial of the project area shows a farm landscape at this intersection (Figure 5). Documentation in 1979 that associated the house with David G. Drain mentioned a garage and shed. A neighbor, passing the location while JMA conducted fieldwork, mentioned that two chicken houses stood east of the house at the time the complex was demolished.

Two houses, owned respectively by P. Wiltbank and T. Hart, stood on the west side of Cedar Grove Road in 1868 (Figure 3). The house recorded as CRS S-966 (Figure 6) that Skelly and Loy, Inc. documented as the Hart Farm in their 2008 Western Parkway architectural survey, does not appear in the same location as that identified as T. Hart on the 1868 Beers *Atlas* (Kuncio et al. 2008:491). According to the Beers *Atlas* (1868), the Thomas Hart house stood further northwest and the Wiltbank House stood just south of what was depicted in 1883 as an apple orchard (Figure 7), and which now holds a Cape Cod-style house (CRS S-11547) that was moved to this location in 1995 (Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335; Kuncio et al. 2008:484). Later maps and aerial photographs depict one house at the location of CRS S-966 (*Farm Journal* 1913; USGS 1918; DHCA 1937; DHCA 1954; DHCA 1961; USGS 1991).

Further ambiguity results from ownership of the parcel holding CRS S-966. An 1883 Orphans Court plat of Thomas Hart's estate shows property boundaries and gives some idea of the improvements made in the project vicinity. On the plat and in the accompanying text, there is a clear distinction between Thomas Hart's land and the land owned by Sarah Hart in her own right, i.e. on land she inherited from her first husband William Dickerson (Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335). Since the document is only concerned with Thomas Hart's properties it does not show or describe improvements, in the form of structures, on Sarah Hart's adjoining land. Of the five parcels discussed, Dower A and Residue B No.1 and 2 are in or adjacent to the project area (Figure 7). Structures are depicted on three of the five parcels, however, rather curiously, only the structures on one of the parcels (Lot C No.4 outside of the project area) is described. This 1883 Orphans Court plat does not show the Thomas Hart house which was presumably just north of the orchard on land owned by Sarah J. Hart in her own right (Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335).



Figure 4. House documented as CRS S-995, the David G. Drain House c.1979, view west (photograph on file at the Delaware SHPO).



Figure 6. House documented as CRS S-966, the Hart Farm, view northwest (from Kuncio et al. 2008).

Sarah Hart inherited this parcel from her first husband as stated in his 1857 will, and lived there until at least 1883 (U.S. Census 1860; U. S. Census 1870; Sussex County Will Book M:26-27; Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335). Stylistically, CRS S-966 appears to be of mid-nineteenth century construction, suggesting that either the location of the house was incorrectly depicted on the Beers *Atlas* (1868) or that it was moved at a later date to its present location.

The map prepared as part of the Orphans Court settlement of the estate of Thomas Hart depicts two additional houses in the project area (Figure 7). The two houses, depicted as being one-and-a-half stories with gabled ends, are shown on the southwest corner of the Plantation Road intersection opposite Postal Lane. The parcel on which these houses are depicted is described as “part of the mansion tract” allotted to Sarah Hart as her 1/3 widow’s dower (Dower A in Figure 7). This tract included an apple orchard along the public road, presently Cedar Grove Road, and was held by Sarah (Hart) Joseph and Thomas Hart’s heirs until 1898 (Sussex County Deed Book 127). The remainder of Thomas Hart’s land was sold at auction in 1883 and the proceeds divided among seven heirs (Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335, 328-332). The two houses depicted on the Orphan’s Court plat were likely constructed between 1868 and 1883 and were no longer extant by 1917 as they do not appear on later maps of the area (Sussex County Orphans Court 36:335; USGS 1918).