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Via Electronic Filing

Melanie Bachman, Executive Director/Staff Attorney Connecticut Siting Council 10 Franklin Square New Britain, CT 06051

Re: Petition No. 1463 - Greenskies Clean Energy LLC Petition for a Declaratory Ruling for a Solar Project to Be Located in East Windsor, Connecticut

Dear Ms. Bachman:

I am writing to you on behalf of my client, Greenskies Clean Energy, LLC, in connection with the above-referenced Petition.

Attached you will find a copy of the Phase IB Cultural Resources Reconnaissance Survey of the Proposed Mulnite Farms Solar Project in East Windsor, Connecticut. This letter serves an official submittal of this survey, to be included as part of Petition 1463.

If you have any questions concerning this submittal, please contact me at your convenience. Thank you in advance for your assistance in this matter.

Sincerely,

Lee D. Hoffman

Enclosure

PHASE IB CULTURAL RESOURCES RECONNAISSANCE SURVEY OF THE PROPOSED MULNITE FARMS SOLAR PROJECT IN EAST WINDSOR, CONNECTICUT

PREPARED FOR:





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ABSTRACT

This report presents the results of a Phase IB cultural reconnaissance survey a proposed solar facility in East Windsor, Connecticut. Heritage Consultants, LLC completed the survey in September of 2021. A total of three development areas designated as Areas 1, 2, and 3 were located on 18.9 acres within a larger 102.8 acre parcel. Areas 1 and 2 will be accessed from Miller Road in the southern portion of the facility and Area 3 will be accessed from Barber Hill Road in the northern portion of the facility. A total of 314 planned shovel tests were excavated across the development areas. Despite the field effort, no cultural materials or evidence of cultural features were identified during the Phase IB reconnaissance survey. It was determined that no impacts to significant cultural resources are anticipated by construction of the proposed solar facility and no additional archaeological examination of the development areas is recommended prior to construction.

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CHAPTER I

This report presents the results of a Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey for the proposed Mulnite Farms Solar Facility (the Facility) at 28 Miller Road in East Windsor, Connecticut (Figures 1 and 2). Vanasse Hangen Brustlin, Inc. (VHB) requested that Heritage Consultants, LLC (Heritage) complete the current reconnaissance survey as part of the planning process for the Facility, which will occupy approximately 18.9 acres of agricultural land. The Facility will be built within three separate areas situated in the northern and southern portions of a larger 102.8-acre parcel of land. The three areas are located along Wapping Road on the north, Rockville Road and Barber Hill Road on the east, and Miller Road on the west. Heritage completed this reconnaissance survey in September of 2021. All work associated with this investigation was performed in accordance with the *Environmental Review Primer for Connecticut's Archaeological Resources* (Poirier 1987) promulgated by the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (CT-SHPO).

Project Description and Methods Overview

The proposed project plans consist of a 13,942-module solar facility with rows of solar panels spaced 5 meters (16.5 ft) apart across three areas encompassing a total of 18.9 acres of land. The proposed Facility also will contain two stormwater basins. A proposed 14.6 foot (4.5 meter) gravel access road originating from Miller Road will extend along the northern boundary of the southern portion of the project area and the three areas will be surrounded by a chain link fence (Figure 2). At the time of survey, the project area consisted of agricultural fields with low slopes that ranged in elevation from 62 m (203.4 ft) NGVD to 75 m (246.1 ft) NGVD.

The current Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey consisted of the completion of the following tasks: 1) a contextual overview of the project region's prehistory, history, and natural setting (e.g., soils, ecology, hydrology, etc.); 2) a literature search to identify and discuss previously completed cultural resources surveys and previously recorded cultural resources in the region encompassing the study area; 3) a review of readily available historical maps and aerial imagery depicting the study area in order to identify potential historical resources and/or areas of past disturbance; and 4) subsurface testing of the Facility area.

Project Results and Management Recommendations Overview

During the current Phase IB cultural resources survey, a total of 314 of 314 (100 percent) planned shovel tests were excavated throughout the three development areas. In each of the three areas, shovel tests were excavated at 15 m (49.2 ft) intervals along parallel survey transects spaced 15 m (49.2 ft) apart. Despite the field effort, no cultural materials or evidence of cultural features were identified during the Phase IB reconnaissance survey. It was determined that no impacts to significant cultural resources are anticipated by construction of the proposed Facility and therefore, no additional archaeological examination of the project parcel is recommended prior to construction.

Project Personnel

Key personnel for this project included David R. George, M.A., R.P.A (Principal Investigator); Antonio Medina, B.A. (Operations Supervisor); Renee Petruzelli, M.A., R.P.A. (Project Archaeologist), Matthew Deno, M.A., (Field Supervisor), Elizabeth Correia, M.A., (Laboratory Specialist); Dr. Kristen Keegan, (Historian), and Tevin Jourdain, B.A. (GIS Specialist).

CHAPTER II NATURAL SETTING

Introduction

This chapter provides a brief overview of the natural setting of the region containing the Facility in East Windsor. Previous archaeological research has documented that a few specific environmental factors can be associated with both prehistoric and historical period site selection. These include general ecological conditions, as well as types of fresh water sources and soils present. The remainder of this section provides a brief overview of the ecology, hydrological resources, and soils present within the project area, access roads, and the larger region in general.

Ecoregions of Connecticut

Throughout the Pleistocene and Holocene Periods, Connecticut has undergone numerous environmental changes. Variations in climate, geology, and physiography have led to the "regionalization" of Connecticut's modern environment. It is clear, for example, that the northwestern portion of the state has very different natural characteristics than the coastline. Recognizing this fact, Dowhan and Craig (1976), as part of their study of the distribution of rare and endangered species in Connecticut, subdivided the state into various ecoregions. Dowhan and Craig (1976:27) defined an ecoregion as:

"an area characterized by a distinctive pattern of landscapes and regional climate as expressed by the vegetation composition and pattern, and the presence or absence of certain indicator species and species groups. Each ecoregion has a similar interrelationship between landforms, local climate, soil profiles, and plant and animal communities. Furthermore, the pattern of development of plant communities (chronosequences and toposequences) and of soil profile is similar in similar physiographic sites. Ecoregions are thus natural divisions of land, climate, and biota."

Dowhan and Craig defined nine major ecoregions for the State of Connecticut. They are based on regional diversity in plant and animal indicator species (Dowhan and Craig 1976). Only one of the ecoregions is germane to the current investigation: North-Central Lowlands ecoregion. A brief summary of this ecoregion is presented below. It is followed by a discussion of the hydrology and soils found in and adjacent to the project area.

North-Central Lowlands Ecoregion

The North-Central Lowlands ecoregion consists of a broad valley located between 40.2 and 80.5 km (25 and 50 mi) to the north of Long Island Sound (Dowhan and Craig 1976). It is characterized by extensive floodplains, backwater swamps, and lowland areas situated near large rivers and tributaries. Physiography in this region is composed of a series of north-trending ridge systems, the easternmost of which is referred to as the Bolton Range (Bell 1985:45). These ridge systems comprise portions of the terraces that overlook the larger rivers such as the Connecticut and Farmington Rivers. The bedrock of the region is composed of Triassic sandstone, interspersed with very durable basalt or "traprock" (Bell 1985). Soils found in the upland portion of this ecoregion are developed on red, sandy to clayey glacial till, while those soils situated nearest to the rivers are situated on widespread deposits of stratified sand, gravel, silt, and alluvium resulting from the impoundment of glacial Lake Hitchcock.

Hydrology in the Vicinity of the Facility area

The Facility is situated within a region that contains to several sources of freshwater, including the Connecticut River, Dry Brook, Ketch Brook, and Windsorville Pond, as well as several unnamed streams,

ponds, and wetlands. These freshwater sources may have served as resource extraction areas for Native American and historical populations. Previously completed archaeological investigations in Connecticut have demonstrated that streams, rivers, and wetlands were focal points for prehistoric occupations because they provided access to transportation routes, sources of freshwater, and abundant faunal and floral resources.

Soils Comprising the Facility Area

Soil formation is the direct result of the interaction of many variables, including climate, vegetation, parent material, time, and organisms present (Gerrard 1981). Once archaeological deposits are buried within the soil, they are subject to various diagenic and taphonomic processes. Different classes of artifacts may be preferentially protected, or unaffected by these processes, whereas others may deteriorate rapidly. Cyclical wetting and drying, freezing, and thawing, and compression can accelerate chemically and mechanically the decay processes for animal bones, shells, lithics, ceramics, and plant remains. Lithic and ceramic artifacts are largely unaffected by soil pH, whereas animal bones and shells decay more quickly in acidic soils. In contrast, acidic soils enhance the preservation of charred plant remains.

A review of the soils within the Facility area is presented below. The area is characterized by two soil types: Narragansett and Wapping soils. A review of these soils shows that both are classified and well drained loamy soils. Both soil types found in the project area are typically correlated with prehistoric and historical use and occupation. Descriptive profiles for each soil type are presented below; they were gathered from the National Resources Conservation Service.

Narragansett Soils (66B)

The Narragansett series consists of very deep, well drained loamy soils formed in a mantle of medium-textured deposits overlying till. They are nearly level to moderately steep soils on till plains, low ridges and hills. Slope ranges from 0 to 25 percent. A typical profile associated with Narragansett soils is as follows: **Ap**--0 to 6 inches; dark brown (10YR 3/3) silt loam; weak medium granular structure; very friable; common medium roots; very strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; **Bw1**--6 to 15 inches; dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/6) silt loam; weak medium subangular blocky structure; very friable; common medium roots; very strongly acid; gradual wavy boundary; **Bw2**--15 to 24 inches; yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) silt loam; weak medium subangular blocky structure; very friable; common medium roots; strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; **Bw3**--24 to 28 inches; yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) gravelly silt loam; weak medium subangular blocky structure; very friable; few fine roots; 15 percent gravel; strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; and **2C**--28 to 60 inches; light olive brown (2.5Y 5/4) very gravelly loamy coarse sand; single grain; loose; 45 percent gravel and cobbles; strongly acid.

Wapping Soils (53A)

The Wapping series consists of very deep, moderately well drained loamy soils formed in silty mantled friable or firm till on uplands. They are nearly level to gently sloping soils on till plains, low ridges and hills, typically on lower slopes and in slight depressions. Slope ranges from 0 to 8 percent. A typical profile associated with Wapping soils is as follows: Oi--0 to 3 inches; slightly decomposed plant material. A1--3 to 5 inches; very dark brown (7.5YR 2/2) silt loam; weak fine granular structure; friable; many fine roots; very strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; A2--5 to 8 inches; very dark grayish brown (10YR 3/2) silt loam; weak fine granular structure; friable; many fine roots; very strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; Bw1--8 to 13 inches; dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) silt loam; weak medium subangular blocky structure; friable; common fine and medium roots; very strongly acid; gradual wavy boundary; Bw2--13 to 22 inches; yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) silt loam; weak medium subangular blocky structure; friable;

common fine roots; 5 percent gravel; very strongly acid; gradual wavy boundary; **Bw3**--22 to 33 inches; brown (10YR 4/3) silt loam; massive; friable; few fine roots; 5 percent gravel; common medium faint yellowish brown (10YR 5/4) masses of iron accumulation and common medium faint grayish brown (10YR 5/2) iron depletions; very strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; **2C1**--33 to 40 inches; brown (10YR 5/3) sandy loam; massive; friable; 10 percent gravel; common fine distinct reddish brown (5YR 5/3) masses of iron accumulation and common medium faint grayish brown (10YR 5/2) iron depletions; strongly acid; clear wavy boundary; and **2C2**--40 to 63 inches; dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) very gravelly loamy sand; massive; friable; 35 percent gravel and 5 percent cobbles; strongly acid.

CHAPTER III PREHISTORIC SETTING

Introduction

Prior to the late 1970s and early 1980s, few systematic archaeological surveys of large portions of the state of Connecticut had been undertaken. Rather, the prehistory of the region was studied at the site level. Sites chosen for excavation were highly visible and located in the coastal zone, e.g., shell middens, and Connecticut River Valley. As a result, a skewed interpretation of the prehistory of Connecticut was developed. It was suggested that the upland portions of the state, i.e., the northeastern and northwestern hills ecoregions, were little used and rarely occupied by prehistoric Native Americans, while the coastal zone, i.e., the eastern and western coastal and the southeastern and southwestern hills ecoregions, were the focus of settlements and exploitation in the prehistoric era. This interpretation remained unchallenged until the 1970s and 1980s when several town-wide and regional archaeological studies were completed. These investigations led to the creation of several archaeological phases that subsequently were applied to understand the prehistory of Connecticut. The remainder of this chapter provides an overview of the prehistoric setting of the region encompassing the project area.

Paleo-Indian Period (12,000 to 10,000 Before Present [B.P.])

The earliest inhabitants of the area encompassing the State of Connecticut, who have been referred to as Paleo-Indians, arrived in the area by ca., 12,000 B.P. (Gramly and Funk 1990; Snow 1980). Due to the presence of large Pleistocene mammals at that time and the ubiquity of large fluted projectile points in archaeological deposits of this age, Paleo-Indians often have been described as big-game hunters (Ritchie and Funk 1973; Snow 1980); however, as discussed below, it is more likely that they hunted a broad spectrum of animals.

While there have been numerous surface finds of Paleo-Indian projectile points throughout the State of Connecticut, only two sites, the Templeton Site (6-LF-21) in Washington, Connecticut and the Hidden Creek Site (72-163) in Ledyard, Connecticut, have been studied in detail and dated using the radiocarbon method (Jones 1997; Moeller 1980). The Templeton Site (6-LF-21) is located in Washington, Connecticut and was occupied between 10,490 and 9,890 years ago (Moeller 1980). In addition to a single large and two small fluted points, the Templeton Site produced a stone tool assemblage consisting of gravers, drills, core fragments, scrapers, and channel flakes, which indicates that the full range of stone tool production and maintenance took place at the site (Moeller 1980). Moreover, the use of both local and non-local raw materials was documented in the recovered tool assemblage, suggesting that not only did the site's occupants spend some time in the area, but they also had access to distant stone sources, the use of which likely occurred during movement from region to region.

The only other Paleo-Indian site studied in detail in Connecticut is the Hidden Creek Site (72-163) (Jones 1997). The Hidden Creek Site is situated on the southeastern margin of the Great Cedar Swamp on the Mashantucket Pequot Reservation in Ledyard, Connecticut. While excavation of the Hidden Creek Site produced evidence of Terminal Archaic and Woodland Period components (see below) in the upper soil horizons, the lower levels of the site yielded artifacts dating from the Paleo-Indian era. Recovered Paleo-Indian artifacts included broken bifaces, side-scrapers, a fluted preform, gravers, and end-scrapers. Based on the types and number of tools present, Jones (1997:77) has hypothesized that the Hidden

Creek Site represented a short-term occupation, and that separate stone tool reduction and rejuvenation areas were present.

While archaeological evidence for Paleo-Indian occupation is scarce in Connecticut, it, combined with data from the West Athens Road and King's Road Site in the Hudson drainage and the Davis and Potts Sites in northern New York, supports the hypothesis that there was human occupation of the area not long after ca. 12,000 B.P. (Snow 1980). Further, site types currently known suggest that the Paleo-Indian settlement pattern was characterized by a high degree of mobility, with groups moving from region to region in search of seasonally abundant food resources, as well as for the procurement of high-quality raw materials from which to fashion stone tools.

Archaic Period (10,000 to 2,700 B.P.)

The Archaic Period, which succeeded the Paleo-Indian Period, began by ca., 10,000 B.P. (Ritchie and Funk 1973; Snow 1980), and it has been divided into three subperiods: Early Archaic (10,000 to 8,000 B.P.), Middle Archaic (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.), and Late Archaic (6,000 to 3,400 B.P.). These periods were devised to describe all non-farming, non-ceramic producing populations in the area. Regional archeologists recently have recognized a final "transitional" Archaic Period, the Terminal Archaic Period (3,400-2,700 B.P.), which was meant to describe those groups that existed just prior to the onset of the Woodland Period and the widespread adoption of ceramics into the toolkit (Snow 1980; McBride 1984; Pfeiffer 1984, 1990; Witthoft 1949, 1953).

Early Archaic Period (10,000 to 8,000 B.P.)

To date, few Early Archaic sites have been identified in southern New England. As a result, researchers such as Fitting (1968) and Ritchie (1969), have suggested a lack of these sites likely is tied to cultural discontinuity between the Early Archaic and preceding Paleo-Indian Period, as well as a population decrease from earlier times. However, with continued identification of Early Archaic sites in the region, and the recognition of the problems of preservation, it is difficult to maintain the discontinuity hypothesis (Curran and Dincauze 1977; Snow 1980).

Like their Paleo-Indian predecessors, Early Archaic sites tend to be small and produce few artifacts, most of which are not temporally diagnostic. While Early Archaic sites in other portions the United States are represented by projectile points of the Kirk series (Ritchie and Funk 1973) and by Kanawha types (Coe 1964), sites of this age in southern New England are identified recognized on the basis of a series of ill-defined bifurcate-based projectile points. These projectile points are identified by the presence of their characteristic bifurcated base, and they generally are made from high quality raw materials. Moreover, finds of these projectile points have rarely been in stratified contexts. Rather, they occur commonly either as surface expressions or intermixed with artifacts representative of later periods. Early Archaic occupations, such as the Dill Farm Site and Sites 6LF64 and 6LF70 in Litchfield County, an area represented by camps that were relocated periodically to take advantage of seasonally available resources (McBride 1984; Pfeiffer 1986). In this sense, a foraging type of settlement pattern was employed during the Early Archaic Period.

Middle Archaic Period (8,000 to 6,000 B.P.)

By the onset of the Middle Archaic Period, essentially modern deciduous forests had developed in the region (Davis 1969). It is at this time that increased numbers and types of sites are noted in Connecticut (McBride 1984). The most well-known Middle Archaic site in New England is the Neville Site, which is located in Manchester, New Hampshire and studied by Dincauze (1976). Careful analysis of the Neville Site indicated that the Middle Archaic occupation dated from between ca., 7,700 and 6,000 years ago. In

fact, Dincauze (1976) obtained several radiocarbon dates from the Middle Archaic component of the Neville Site. The dates, associated with the then-newly named Neville type projectile point, ranged from 7,740+280 and 7,015+160 B.P. (Dincauze 1976).

In addition to Neville points, Dincauze (1976) described two other projectile points styles that are attributed to the Middle Archaic Period: Stark and Merrimac projectile points. While no absolute dates were recovered from deposits that yielded Stark points, the Merrimac type dated from 5,910±180 B.P. Dincauze argued that both the Neville and later Merrimac and Stark occupations were established to take advantage of the excellent fishing that the falls situated adjacent to the site area would have afforded Native American groups. Thus, based on the available archaeological evidence, the Middle Archaic Period is characterized by continued increases in diversification of tool types and resources exploited, as well as by sophisticated changes in the settlement pattern to include different site types, including both base camps and task-specific sites (McBride 1984:96)

Late Archaic Period (6,000 to 3,700 B.P.)

The Late Archaic Period in southern New England is divided into two major cultural traditions that appear to have coexisted. They include the Laurentian and Narrow-Stemmed Traditions (Funk 1976; McBride 1984; Ritchie 1969a and b). Artifacts assigned to the Laurentian Tradition include ground stone axes, adzes, gouges, ulus (semi-lunar knives), pestles, atlatl weights, and scrapers. The diagnostic projectile point forms of this time period in southern New England include the Brewerton Eared-Notched, Brewerton Eared and Brewerton Side-Notched varieties (McBride 1984; Ritchie 1969a; Thompson 1969). In general, the stone tool assemblage of the Laurentian Tradition is characterized by flint, felsite, rhyolite and quartzite, while quartz was largely avoided for stone tool production.

In terms of settlement and subsistence patterns, archaeological evidence in southern New England suggests that Laurentian Tradition populations consisted of groups of mobile hunter-gatherers. While a few large Laurentian Tradition occupations have been studied, sites of this age generally encompass less than 500 m² (5,383 ft²). These base camps reflect frequent movements by small groups of people in search of seasonally abundant resources. The overall settlement pattern of the Laurentian Tradition was dispersed in nature, with base camps located in a wide range of microenvironments, including riverine as well as upland zones (McBride 1978, 1984:252). Finally, subsistence strategies of Laurentian Tradition focused on hunting and gathering of wild plants and animals from multiple ecozones.

The second Late Archaic tradition, known as the Narrow-Stemmed Tradition, is unlike the Laurentian Tradition, and it likely represents a different cultural adaptation. The Narrow-Stemmed tradition is recognized by the presence of quartz and quartzite narrow stemmed projectile points, triangular quartz Squibnocket projectile points, and a bipolar lithic reduction strategy (McBride 1984). Other tools found in Narrow-Stemmed Tradition artifact assemblages include choppers, adzes, pestles, antler and bone projectile points, harpoons, awls, and notched atlatl weights. Many of these tools, notably the projectile points and pestles, indicate a subsistence pattern dominated by hunting and fishing, as well the collection of a wide range of plant foods (McBride 1984; Snow 1980:228).

Terminal Archaic Period (3,700 to 2,700 B.P.)

The Terminal Archaic, which lasted from ca., 3,700 to 2,700 BP, is perhaps the most interesting, yet confusing of the Archaic Periods in southern New England prehistory. Originally termed the "Transitional Archaic" by Witthoft (1953) and recognized by the introduction of technological innovations, e.g., broadspear projectile points and soapstone bowls, the Terminal Archaic has long posed problems for regional archeologists. While the Narrow-Stemmed Tradition persisted through the Terminal Archaic

and into the Early Woodland Period, the Terminal Archaic is coeval with what appears to be a different technological adaptation, the Susquehanna Tradition (McBride 1984; Ritchie 1969b). The Susquehanna Tradition is recognized in southern New England by the presence of a new stone tool industry that was based on the use of high-quality raw materials for stone tool production and a settlement pattern different from the "coeval" Narrow-Stemmed Tradition.

The Susquehanna Tradition is based on the classification of several Broadspear projectile point types and associated artifacts. There are several local sequences within the tradition, and they are based on projectile point type chronology. Temporally diagnostic projectile points of these sequences include the Snook Kill, Susquehanna Broadspear, Mansion Inn, and Orient Fishtail types (Lavin 1984; McBride 1984; Pfeiffer 1984). The initial portion of the Terminal Archaic Period (ca., 3,700-3,200 BP) is characterized by the presence of Snook Kill and Susquehanna Broadspear projectile points, while the latter Terminal Archaic (3,200-2,700 BP) is distinguished by the use Orient Fishtail projectile points (McBride 1984:119; Ritchie 1971).

In addition, it was during the late Terminal Archaic that interior cord marked, grit tempered, thick walled ceramics with conoidal (pointed) bases made their initial appearance in the Native American toolkit. These are the first ceramics in the region, and they are named Vinette I (Ritchie 1969a; Snow 1980:242); this type of ceramic vessel appears with much more frequency during the ensuing Early Woodland Period. In addition, the adoption and widespread use of soapstone bowls, as well as the implementation subterranean storage, suggests that Terminal Archaic groups were characterized by reduced mobility and longer-term use of established occupation sites (Snow 1980:250).

Finally, while settlement patterns appeared to have changed, Terminal Archaic subsistence patterns were analogous to earlier patterns. The subsistence pattern still was diffuse in nature, and it was scheduled carefully. Typical food remains recovered from sites of this period consist of fragments of white-tailed deer, beaver, turtle, fish and various small mammals. Botanical remains recovered from the site area consisted of *Chenopodium* sp., hickory, butternut and walnut (Pagoulatos 1988:81). Such diversity in food remains suggests at least minimal use of a wide range of microenvironments for subsistence purposes.

Woodland Period (2,700 to 350 B.P.)

Traditionally, the advent of the Woodland Period in southern New England has been associated with the introduction of pottery; however, as mentioned above, early dates associated with pottery now suggest the presence of Vinette I ceramics appeared toward the end of the preceding Terminal Archaic Period (Ritchie 1969a; McBride 1984). Like the Archaic Period, the Woodland Period has been divided into three subperiods: Early, Middle, and Late Woodland. The various subperiods are discussed below.

Early Woodland Period (ca., 2,700 to 2,000 B.P.)

The Early Woodland Period of the northeastern United States dates from ca., 2,700 to 2,000 B.P., and it has thought to have been characterized by the advent of farming, the initial use of ceramic vessels, and increasingly complex burial ceremonialism (Griffin 1967; Ritchie 1969a and 1969b; Snow 1980). In the Northeast, the earliest ceramics of the Early Woodland Period are thick walled, cord marked on both the interior and exterior, and possess grit temper.

Careful archaeological investigations of Early Woodland sites in southern New England have resulted in the recovery of narrow stemmed projectile points in association with ceramic sherds and subsistence remains, including specimens of White-tailed deer, soft and hard-shell clams, and oyster shells (Lavin and Salwen: 1983; McBride 1984:296-297; Pope 1952). McBride (1984) has argued that the combination of the subsistence remains and the recognition of multiple superimposed cultural features at various sites indicates that Early Woodland Period settlement patterns were characterized by multiple re-use of the same sites on a seasonal basis by small co-residential groups.

Middle Woodland Period (2,000 to 1,200 B.P.)

The Middle Woodland Period is marked by an increase in the number of ceramic types and forms utilized (Lizee 1994a), as well as an increase in the amount of exotic lithic raw material used in stone tool manufacture (McBride 1984). The latter suggests that regional exchange networks were established, and that they were used to supply local populations with necessary raw materials (McBride 1984; Snow 1980). The Middle Woodland Period is represented archaeologically by narrow stemmed and Jack's Reef projectile points; increased amounts of exotic raw materials in recovered lithic assemblages, including chert, argillite, jasper, and hornfels; and conoidal ceramic vessels decorated with dentate stamping. Ceramic types that are indicative of the Middle Woodland Period includes Linear Dentate, Rocker Dentate, Windsor Cord Marked, Windsor Brushed, Windsor Plain, and Hollister Stamped (Lizee 1994a:200).

In terms of settlement patterns, the Middle Woodland Period is characterized by the occupation of village sites by large co-residential groups that utilized native plant and animal species for food and raw materials in tool making (George 1997). These sites were the principal place of occupation, and they were positioned close to major river valleys, tidal marshes, estuaries, and the coastline, all of which would have supplied an abundance of plant and animal resources (McBride 1984:309). In addition to villages, numerous temporary and task-specific sites were utilized in the surrounding upland areas, as well as in closer ecozones such as wetlands, estuaries, and floodplains. The use of temporary and task-specific sites to support large village populations indicates that the Middle Woodland Period was characterized by a resource acquisition strategy that can best be termed as logistical collection (McBride 1984:310).

Late Woodland Period (ca., 1,200 to 350 B.P.)

The Late Woodland Period in southern New England dates from ca., 1,200 to 350 B.P., and it is characterized by the earliest evidence for the use of corn in the lower Connecticut River Valley (Bendremer 1993; Bendremer and Dewar 1993; Bendremer et al. 1991; George 1997; McBride 1984); an increase in the frequency of exchange of non-local lithics (Feder 1984; George and Tryon 1996; McBride 1984; Lavin 1984); increased variability in ceramic form, function, surface treatment, and decoration (Lavin 1980, 1986, 1987; Lizee 1994a, 1994b); and a continuation of a trend towards larger, more permanent settlements in riverine, estuarine, and coastal ecozones (Dincauze 1974; McBride 1984; Snow 1980).

Stone tool assemblages associated with Late Woodland occupations, especially village-sized sites, are functionally variable and they reflect plant and animal resource processing and consumption on a large scale. Finished stone tools recovered from Late Woodland sites include Levanna and Madison projectile points; drills; side-, end-, and thumbnail scrapers; mortars and pestles; nutting stones; netsinkers; and celts, adzes, axes, and digging tools. These tools were used in activities ranging from hide preparation to plant processing to the manufacture of canoes, bowls, and utensils, as well as other settlement and subsistence-related items (McBride 1984; Snow 1980). Finally, ceramic assemblages recovered from Late Woodland sites are as variable as the lithic assemblages. Ceramic types identified include Windsor Fabric Impressed, Windsor Brushed, Windsor Cord Marked, Windsor Plain, Clearview Stamped, Sebonac Stamped, Selden Island, Hollister Plain, Hollister Stamped, and Shantok Cove Incised (Lavin 1980, 1988a,

1988b; Lizee 1994a; Pope 1953; Rouse 1947; Salwen and Ottesen 1972; Smith 1947). These types are more diverse stylistically than their predecessors, with incision, shell stamping, punctation, single point, linear dentate, rocker dentate stamping, and stamp and drag impressions common (Lizee 1994a:216).

Summary of Connecticut Prehistory

The prehistory of Connecticut spans from ca., 12,000 to 350 B.P., and it is characterized by numerous changes in tool types, subsistence patterns, and land use strategies. Much of the prehistoric era is characterized by local Native American groups who practiced a subsistence pattern based on a mixed economy of hunting and gathering wild plant and animal resources. It is not until the Late Woodland Period that incontrovertible evidence for the use of domesticated species is available. Further, settlement patterns throughout the prehistoric era shifted from seasonal occupations of small coresidential groups to large aggregations of people in riverine, estuarine, and coastal ecozones. In terms of the region containing the proposed project area, a variety of prehistoric site types may be expected. These range from seasonal camps utilized by Archaic populations to temporary and task-specific sites of the Woodland era.

CHAPTER IV HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter I, the Facility area consists of three pieces of land totaling approximately 18.9 acres located in the southeastern part of the town of East Windsor, which is located in Hartford County, Connecticut. The three parcels are located along Wapping Road on the north, Rockville Road and Barber Hill Road on the east, and Miller Road on the west. Hartford County was the site of one of the two earliest loci of colonial settlement in Connecticut, with three of its towns dating to the 1630s. It extends southward from the Massachusetts border and flanks the Connecticut River. The earliest colonial development of the region depended on the agricultural and transportation advantages of the river and its valley; areas further from the Connecticut River valley were colonized later and usually grew more slowly through the early nineteenth century. Thereafter, the main source of differentiation in Hartford County towns' development was, first, whether they had significant levels of industrialization, and, later, whether they had significant levels of suburbanization. East Windsor, being a riverside town, sustained a healthy agricultural population through the early twentieth century. Because it did not industrialize to any significant degree, however, this town's greatest period of population growth was during the suburbanization era of the later twentieth century. The following discussion outlines the history of the town in more detail and discusses the presence or absence of historical resources in the vicinity of the Facility.

Native American History of East Windsor

At the time of first contact with Europeans, the Native Americans living on the east side of the Connecticut River in the East Hartford and southern East Windsor areas were known to the colonists as the Podunks. According to historical texts, the primary Podunk village site during the contact period appears to have been situated along the Podunk River, where it crosses from the present town of South Windsor into East Hartford. According to early land records from the area, the Podunk tribe retained some reserved meadowland that was fenced off in 1650 for their use. In addition to this area, they also made extensive use of the Hockanum River valley in the area of what is now the center of East Hartford. It was in this area that they maintained a fortification upon what was called Fort Hill (Goodwin 1879). According to Matthias Spiess, who made his interpretations of Podunk settlement types and patterns based on reports of artifact finds and burials, the Podunk community's two permanent villages were distinct from the numerous seasonal villages and camp sites that also existed. Spiess indicated that the two villages were in East Hartford and South Windsor, with the larger being "in South Windsor, just north of the bridge where Main Street crosses the Podunk River. This," he continued, "was the Podunk headquarters, where Grand Sachem Arraramet lived here from the year 1637 until his death, on a sandy knoll on land now [in 1937] owned by James Murray" (Spiess 1937:2). Other Podunk villages known to Spiess were located in Manchester and in East Hartford, as well as along the east bank of the Connecticut River up to Massachusetts, including one at the Scantic River in East Windsor. Burying grounds were associated with these villages and occurred in other places as well (Spiess 1937).

The lands on the east side of the Connecticut River eventually were claimed by the Native American leader Aramamet, who also claimed parts of the Hartford and Windsor lands on the west side. He resided at Podunk at his death in 1672, at which time (under the colonial legal regime that made tribal land his personal property) he willed the remaining lands to his daughter Sougonosk. She was married to Joshua, a son of the Mohegan sachem Uncas, who also had made use of colonial laws to transfer tribal lands. Henry R. Stiles asserted that Podunks and Scantics comprised the majority of the Mohegan force

that joined in the attack on the Pequots in 1636. However, this was based on a suspect interpretation of the Native American relationships and politics of the time and may not be correct. Stiles also reported that in 1774, East Windsor was home to only six Native Americans, and in 1806 only one family, whose tribal origin was unknown (Stiles 1892). In the historical record, the Podunk community is best known for becoming embroiled in a bitter dispute with Sequassen, the sachem of the Mattatuck community, who lived in the vicinity of what is now Middletown. This dispute erupted in 1656-1657, and it was centered around the murder of a Mattatuck person by a member of the Podunk community. In order to settle the disagreement, Sequassen petitioned both Uncas, the most prominent Native American in Connecticut at the time, and the governor of the Connecticut Colony in an attempt to mediate the dispute. He met with little success. According to reports by local colonists, the Podunks and the Mohegans seem to have been approximately equal in manpower at that time, so a threat of a direct assault by the Mohegans carried little weight. Instead, Uncas secured the surrender of the Podunk murderer by convincing the Podunks that the Mohegans had entered into an alliance with the much more dangerous Mohawks to destroy the Podunk tribe (Barber 1837).

While this dispute was apparently resolved, the Podunk Indians continued to meet with discord from their European neighbors and problems with Uncas. Nonetheless, in 1657, a commission appointed by the colony ordered Uncas to allow the Podunks to return to their homes unmolested, since they apparently had fled the area (Goodwin 1879). As a result of a Podunk request in 1659, the Connecticut legislature specifically ordered that the colonists of the region were not to "molest" the Podunks in the peaceable enjoyment of their lands (Public Records of the Colony of Connecticut 1:344). This represented an attempt by the government to prevent colonists from encroaching on Native American lands and causing further conflicts. Still, disagreements continued and the Podunks appeared before the Colony magistrates several times throughout the 1660s, at which time they were described as being restless. It is likely not a coincidence that at approximately that time, the colony took on the task of mediating a boundary settlement between the Podunks and the Mohegans. In addition, a complex dispute among a man named Thomas Burnham, the Podunks, and the colony government over a sale or lease of land from the sachem Tantinomo to Burnham continued to simmer during this period (Goodwin 1879). Because of the possibility of violent reaction to colonial policy, the colonial authorities felt it necessary to try to settle these problems.

In sheer numbers, the Podunks were a substantial group up to the time of King Philip's War in 1675-1676. Although De Forest claimed the group supplied only 60 warriors to the war campaign against the colonists, other historical sources contemporary to the war claim that 200 to 300 Podunk warriors were fielded. Extrapolating from the number of warriors recorded at the time, Spiess suggested that the overall Podunk population may have been as high as 1,500 during the latter decades of the seventeenth century (Spiess 1937). After the colonial victory over King Philip and his allies, the Podunk community largely dispersed. This dispersal is most likely related to fleeing colonial vengeance, which in many instances resulted in capture and sale into slavery. According to Goodwin, a "ragged remnant" of the Podunk Tribe remained in 1677, when a dispute about their surviving lands came before the General Assembly (1879:34). The last mention of a Podunk Native American in the colonial records was in 1722 (Goodwin 1879). From an ethnohistorical perspective, however, it should be noted that these assertions of their immediate disappearance rest in large part on patriarchal assumptions; that is, because most of the men did not return from the war, pre-twentieth century observers believed the group effectively ceased to exist at that time, no matter how many women and children remained in the area. Possibly following that line of reasoning, DeForest reported that "[a] remnant of the Podunk nation, living on the Hockanum River, remained in East Hartford as late as 1745, but in 1760 had entirely disappeared" (1852:363).

During the eighteenth century, most surviving Native Americans in central and eastern Connecticut, denied access to adequate lands and suffering from severe discrimination, moved westward and joined with other communities. Not all of them left the area, however. Goodwin reported in the late nineteenth century that "within the memory of some of our older citizens" there were some Native Americans living in the Burnside section of East Hartford, with a "chief" named Tobias or Toby, and in 1793 a doctor was compensated for medical treatment for an Indian woman there (1879:37). Thus, there may have been a few Native Americans still in the area at the time of the Revolutionary War and even in the early nineteenth century. This is not unusual in the history of Connecticut, as many towns preserve reports of a small number of Native Americans still living within their borders even into the late nineteenth century, often reported as 'local character' anecdotes in antiquarian histories.

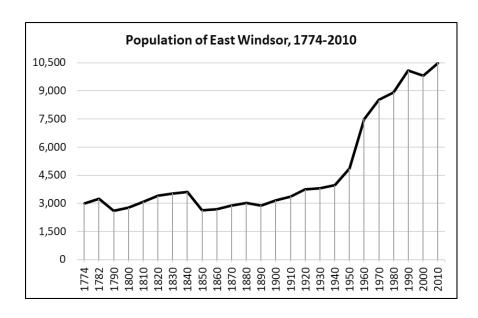
Colonial Era History of Windsor and East Windsor (to 1790)

Windsor, the parent town of East Windsor, was one of the three colonial British towns planted on the Connecticut River in the 1630s. The initial settlement locus of each of these towns was on the west bank of the river, though each eventually claimed a wide area of land on both sides. Colonists began moving permanently to Windsor's portion of the east side of the Connecticut River in 1680, after King Philip's War had reduced fears of attacks from Native Americans. The colonial population grew rapidly after that point, such that the town of East Windsor split from Windsor in 1768 (Crofut 1937). According to a census taken in 1762, the whole town of Windsor had a population of 4,019 residents in that year; in 1774, the relatively new town of East Windsor had 2,999 residents, and then 3,237 residents in 1782 (see the population chart below; Keegan 2012). East Windsor (still including South Windsor) sent as many as 400 men to fight in the Revolutionary War. In addition, East Windsor contained a great deal of excellent agricultural land, the produce from which must have fed many soldiers during the war (Destler 1973; Tarbox 1886). Connecticut's most important role in the war may have been the provisioning of its militia and the Continental Army, which earned it the sobriquet "the Provisions State." By the time of the Revolution, Connecticut's diverse agricultural efforts were often producing substantial surpluses and had been doing so for some time, despite some historians' assertions that colonial Connecticut was inhabited by subsistence farmers who struggled to feed their families (Destler 1973).

The initial colonization of East Windsor took place mainly in the southern part of the town, which later became the separate town of South Windsor. Long prior to the separation in 1752, however, the northern part of East Windsor established its own Congregational church society, an entity that had the power to tax its residents for the support of the church. It was known as the North or Fourth Society until after the division of the town (Crofut 1937). This step required a number of residents sufficient to adequately fund the minister and the church building. The first church was built in the village of Scantic, near the river of the same name in the south-central part of the society (Tarbox 1886). Agriculture was the main occupation of the town's colonial residents.

Early National and Industrialization Period History of East Windsor (1790-1930)

East Windsor's population declined slightly between 1782 and 1790, due to the loss of territory and population to the new town of Ellington. In the first federal census, the town had 2,600 residents. The population increased steadily through 1840, when there were 3,600 residents in town. The separation of South Windsor in 1845 caused an abrupt decline to 2,633 residents in East Windsor as of 1850. In the same year, however, the new town of South Windsor had only 1,638 residents, suggesting a significant change from the colonial era. In fact, by 1930 (eight decades later) South Windsor's population had risen to only 2,535 residents, while East Windsor reached a slightly more substantial 3,815 residents (see the population chart above; Keegan 2012). In 1819, when the two towns were still one, a gazetteer praised East Windsor's soil, meadows, and large crops of corn, while noting that the



eastern and northern areas were better put to growing substantial quantities of rye. The volume also mentioned tobacco-growing, the river fisheries, and six gin distilleries. Notably, Warehouse Point – in the northeastern corner of the present East Windsor – was the location of several of the distilleries. The village there had an Episcopal church, four distilleries, a post office, and 40 houses. Less specifically located were the cigar factory, engraver, earthenware pottery, two fulling mills, and two carding machines. Three Congregational churches existed at the time, there were two academies for secondary education, two public libraries and some private ones (Pease and Niles 1819).

In the late 1830s, Warehouse Point was still mentioned as a substantial village, and as being at the head of navigation of the Connecticut River. Economically, however, the village had been switching from gin production to tobacco manufacturing and shipping. The number of churches in town had increased to seven, with three each of Congregational and Methodist, one Episcopalian, and one Baptist. In 1834, a Theological Institute had been established in the southern part of the town (Barber 1837). The 1850 federal industrial census recorded 13 industrial firms in East Windsor; they employed 273 men and 129 women. The largest firm was a woolen mill at the village of Broad Brook, which employed 170 men and women, followed by another woolen mill with 155 employees, and a third with only 21 employees. The remaining firms had 12 or fewer employees: a distiller, a button factory, a quarry, a tinware maker, a brickmaker, a wheelwright, three cigar makers and a harness maker. South Windsor, in contrast, had only five firms that employed a total of 16 people (United States Census 1850c). The basis for the divergence between the two towns was East Windsor's advantage in industrial activity, although the advantage did not lead to anything like urban status for the town.

The 1855 map of Hartford County recorded three industrial or commercial villages (Warehouse Point, Broadbrook, and Windsorville) and the original colonial villages of Scantic. A quarry, woolen mills, and a button factory were among the businesses noted on the map (Woodford 1855). The 1869 map of the town showed much the same situation across the town, although near Broad Brook it labeled one subsection with the name Pearlville, after the pearl button factory there (Baker & Tilden 1869). As the census population statistics indicate, these industrial villages remained small, though they were important to gradually increasing the town's population. Interestingly, and perhaps significantly in terms of its economic history, the town of East Windsor was entirely bypassed by the turnpike system that developed between about 1790 and 1850, under which private companies undertook to build and/or improve roads in order to speed the movement of people and goods. Often, though not always, the

presence of such roads did foster the development of commerce and industry. Most of them were unable to compete with railroad transport and went out of business when such competition appeared (Wood 1919). Railroad service apparently came relatively late to East Windsor. The Connecticut Central Railroad, a 20-mile track going from East Hartford to South Windsor and up to Springfield, Massachusetts, existed as of 1876, when it was leased by the Connecticut Valley Railroad; in 1880, it was leased by the New York & New England Railroad (Turner and Jacobus 1989). In an 1884 map, this railroad can be seen passing to the west of the project area. The map also shows a branch line of the Rockville Railroad entering the northeast corner of the town at Melrose Junction; built in 1876, this line made a direct connection between the flourishing industrial village of Rockville to the former Connecticut Valley line (Figure 5, Albert A. Hyde & Company 1884; Turner and Jacobus 1989).

By the 1880s, the focus of East Windsor's agricultural businesses had changed from their original rye, corn, and hay to tobacco. The gin distilleries had closed, for which one historian credited the temperance movement. The surviving industrial firms were a woolen textile factory in Broad Brook, another in Windsorville, and a silk factory at Warehouse Point (Tarbox 1886). Although the town's population grew steadily between 1890 and 1930, the population of 3,815 residents in 1930 represented an increase of less than a thousand people over four decades and was only a few hundred more than the figure for 1840 (Keegan 2012). Such modest growth could have resulted from industrial activity, an increased farming population, streetcar-based commuting, or a combination of these.

Modern Period History of the Town of East Windsor (1930 to Present)

Slow growth continued for the first decade after 1930, and then suburbanization began, raising the population of East Windsor to 10,081 residents as of 1990. The population declined over the next decade, then regained more than it had lost as of 2010, reporting 10,482 residents in that year (see the population chart above; Keegan 2012). A 1930 summary of information about Connecticut's towns stated that East Windsor's main industries were agricultural and woolen textiles, and that it still had rail service as well as bus service (Connecticut 1932). Unlike many other towns in this region, only the northwestern corner of East Windsor has been directly affected by the construction of limited-access highways, as Interstate 91 crosses the river to the south of Warehouse Point and proceeds northward into Enfield. The highway onramp/offramp there has encouraged commercial development along the nearby secondary road of Route 5, and undoubtedly some of the residential development throughout the town. By 2018, an economic profile of the town did not list agricultural employment as a separate category of the town's 7,138 jobs in 460 firms, although Mulnite Farms Inc. was listed as one of the town's five largest employers as of 2014. The other large employers were a car auction firm, a metal finishing factory, a Wal-Mart, and a residential care center - consistent with the largest groupings among the employment data (CERC 2018). According to East Windsor's 2016 planning document, the town still had 3,082.87 acres (1,247.6 ha) of active farmland, and more than the same amount that qualified for an agricultural tax abatement. Farmland was among the community assets (also including cultural and historical assets) that the planners intended to protect, along with environmental quality and open space generally. Consistent with these goals, the town's proposed residential and commercial strategies focused on encouraging commercial development and higher-density residential development to focus on limited areas in town. Windsorville, just to the north of the project area, was one of the areas targeted for village development, although a small and rurally-focused one (East Windsor 2016). These plans suggest that the vicinity of the Facility, the history of which is discussed below, saw restrained and constrained development in the future.

History of the Facility Area

In the 1855 county map, Windsorville, to the north of the Facility, contained the Hollister & Phillips Cashmere Factory, a sawmill, a store, a Methodist church, and a school. It appears from this map that no buildings were located within the Facility area. Several, however, were quite close to it; they were labeled J. Ellsworth, Marvin Fuller, Delilah Lewis, Widow Matson, Samuel C. Booth, Israel E. Allen, and Mrs. Gould. Another name, Ebenezer Allen, was not clearly associated with any particular building (Figure 3; Woodford 1855). The 1869 town map identified the owner of the Windsorville woolen mill as P. C. Allen, with no other notable changes. Around but probably not within the Facility area were buildings labeled William H. Ellsworth, J. Brainard, Mrs. Matson, Z. Matson, I. E. Allen, C. Rider, and N. C. Strong (Figure 4; Baker & Tilden 1869). By 1884, most of the names had changed again: the woolen mill owner to Basch & Sons, and the buildings around the project area to O'Neil, an unnamed hotel, Brainard, Bedurtha, Matson, Barnard, Treat, Clark, Zohn, Lawson, Strong, and Peck (Figure 5; Albert A. Hyde & Company 1884). Although, as we will see, this project area was, in all likelihood, consistently used for agriculture throughout this period, the identity of the families in the area changed quite often. Nevertheless, examining the characteristics of these families will help to illuminate and clarify the history of the Facility area.

According to the 1850 federal census, the Fuller, Matson, Booth, and Allen families were all middling farmers, although there were some families in the area whose farms reached five figures in value. They practiced mixed agriculture, meaning that they grew a variety of grain and vegetable products and also produced some animal products. Marvin Fuller lived with his wife Amanda and their three children; they were in their 40s, had three children, and their farm was valued at \$1,500. The agricultural census form reported that he owned only 17 acres (6.9 ha) of land, on which the family grew rye, corn, oats, tobacco, and potatoes, and produced butter from two milk cows. The only Matson family in East Windsor was headed by Hannah Matson (likely Widow Matson), whose farm was valued at \$3,500 and worked by her twin sons. She also had four daughters and one other son at home. Samuel E. Booth and his wife Eunice were in their fifties, living with two teenage children, and their farm was valued at \$3,000. It consisted of 50 acres (20 ha), on which the family grew grain crops and potatoes, and produced butter from their one milk cow. Israel Allen and his wife Palina were both 56; they had one teenage son, and their 45-acre (18 ha) farm was valued at \$2,000, and they also grew grain crops, potatoes, and produced some butter; they also kept a dozen sheep and produced wool from them. Ebenezer Allen and his wife Sarah were in their seventies, with one daughter still at home and an Irish boy in the household; their 65-acre (26 ha) farm (plus 20 acres (8 ha) of unimproved land) was valued at \$4,000 and produced grains, potatoes, butter, and cheese. These families near the Facility area, and most of the people around them, were from Connecticut, or perhaps neighboring states, mainly leavened by a few Irish people. A surprising exception was a couple from Switzerland; the husband worked in the textile mill. It was the proximity to Windsorville that brought textile workers, a merchant, and others to live near the project area (United States Census 1850a, 1850b). The farming details suggest that the area's farming history could be more varied than the later documentation suggests.

The 1860 census included a mix of people from the 1855 map and the 1869 map. In this case, however, not all of the identified people were farmers. Hannah Matson was still the head of her family, with three of her children and a possible son-in-law and daughter in her household. The return did not record a property value or occupation for any of them. Zedekiah Matson, one of her sons, had a farm valued at \$1,000, as well as a wife and three children. Marvin and Amanda Fuller were still present, giving no value for their farm. One daughter was still at home, as was a son who worked as a clerk, and a man who boarded with them was a joiner. John Brainard was an Irish peddler who nonetheless owned \$700 in real estate and \$200 in personal estate; he and his Irish wife Mary had three Connecticut-born

children. Henry Treat was a joiner; he and his wife Clarissa had two small children, no property value, and probably his mother-in-law and brother-in-law, an engineer, living with them. Israel E. Allen gave his occupation as joiner and owned \$3,000 in real estate and \$100 in personal estate. He and Paulina still had four unmarried adult children living with them, as well as a woman who may have been a boarder. Nathaniel C. Strong was a farmer; he and his wife were in their thirties and had three small children. The value of their farm was not given. Again, there was little variation in birthplace, and the exceptions were mostly Irish (United States Census 1860). The number of joiners among the people near the Facility area, however, suggests that farming had become a secondary occupation for many people in this area. The instances of adult children still living with their parents suggests that they were having difficulty in establishing independent households.

The 1870 census recorded the Zedekiah and Emily Matson farm family with five children between the ages of four and 15; they owned \$2,000 in real estate and \$350 in personal estate. The Irish immigrants, John and Mary Brainard, had grown their property to \$6,000 in real estate and \$1,080 in personal estate, and had three children (aged 17 to 21) at home. John gave his occupation as farmer and (apparently) yeast peddler; the older daughter worked as a dressmaker. Hannah Matson was living alone at the age of 69, still owning \$4,000 in real estate and \$300 in personal estate. Nathaniel C. and Rosanna E. Strong, in their forties, had six children between the ages of two and 18. Nathaniel gave his occupation as harness maker and farmer, and owned \$4,000 in real estate and \$800 in personal estate; two of the sons (including an 11-year-old) worked on the farm. The Rider family consisted of Charles and Mary J. and their two small children. Their farm was worth \$1,500 and their personal estate \$500. The neighborhood was still dominated by Connecticut-born farmers (United States Census 1870). Nonetheless, the dual occupations of some families living closest to the Facility area continued to suggest that small farmers needed supplemental sources of income.

In the 1880 census, John and Mary Brainard were still present and working as farmers on a 25-acre (10 ha) farm, producing butter, eggs, grains, potatoes, tobacco, and apples. One adult daughter worked as a dressmaker, and the other had married and her husband worked on the farm. The Matson family was represented by Frederick W. and Harriet C., who were in their twenties and farmed 22 acres (8.9 ha), with the same variety of products as the Brainards. Nathaniel C. and Rosanna Strong also still farmed, with 36 acres (14.6 ha) divided between tilled and other improved land; their products were the same as the other farm families, except with few potatoes and no apples. Three teenaged children still lived with them, the son helping out on the farm. The Zohn family noted on the 1884 map was Mathias and Margaret C. Zohn, who hailed from two different German states and farmed 29 acres (11.7 ha) to produce the same variety of items as the Strong family. They had three children, with the son helping on the farm. The Lawson family, also shown on the 1884 map, were all from Scotland. Robert and Agnes, and their 16-year-old son, farmed 12 acres (0.8 ha) and left only tobacco and apples off the list of results of their work (United States Census 1880a, 1880b). The origins of the Zohn and Lawson families were, in 1880, fairly typical of a neighborhood that was no longer dominated by Connecticut-born adults: Irish, Scottish, English, and German immigrants and their children worked in the woolen mill and on farms.

The current owner of the Facility parcels is Mulnite Farms LLC. Searching for this term yielded a 1997 obituary of Emil Mulnite. The article reported that he took over the family farm in the early 1920s, when he was just 15 years old. As of the late 1990s, the farm cultivated 150 acres of tobacco and also operated a 400-acre plant nursery. Farming was also far from his only business. In approximately 1970, he and three partners undertook the creation of the East Windsor Industrial park, which they turned over the to the town. He also was involved in regional and state farming and tobacco growing organizations, bank advisory boards, and president of the Connecticut Tobacco Museum (Smith 1997).

This information made it possible to research the family in the federal census records. In 1900, Alex and Annie "Mollinot" were in their twenties and living in Torrington, Connecticut with their two small daughters (Emma and Annie). The head of the family worked as an assistant station engineer. In 1910 the family, under the name "Molonite," was in East Windsor and had added 2-year-old Emil to their numbers. Alexander was a farmer with a general farm, and the elder daughter worked in a woolen mill. The 1920 federal census return gave the family's name in its final form, Mulnite, and a third daughter (Freda, age 3) had been added. They lived on Barber Hill Road, where like all his neighbors, Alexander ran a tobacco farm. In the 1930 census, the Mulnite family consisted of Alexander, Anna, Emil, Freida, and an 11-year-old granddaughter whose name was illegible. The family business, in which both Alexander and Emil (aged 22) both worked, was tobacco farming. The 1940 census reported Alexander and Anna (aged 72 and 63) living in their own home and not working. Emil Mulnite had married Alice and had two small children (Emil Jr. and Elsie), and also had his sister Ann Dumschot living with them, a few doors up Windsorville Road from his parents. Alexander's occupation was farmer, while his sister was a seamstress at a dress shop. Among these five returns, the birthplace of Alexander and Annie varied from Poland to Russia to Russia crossed out and replaced with Lithuania to Germany, and their native language changed from Russian to German to Lithuanian and back to German (United States Census 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940). In 2000, Emil Mulnite Sr.'s son Leonard told a newspaper reporter that he and his son intended to carry on the farming tradition at Mulnite Farms (Dunne 2000).

In sum, Alexander and Annie Mulnite were immigrants from war-torn northeastern Europe, who reported arriving in the United States in 1889 and 1895, respectively. They both would have been 17 when they came, but according to the 1900 turn they were both illiterate, though they could speak English. This, along with political conditions in the region, may explain why they were not sure what country they came from, or what their native language was called. The 1930 return said they were still not literate, and the 1940 return reported that neither had ever attended school; as of 1940, Emil Sr. reporting having stopped school in the eighth grade. The neighborhoods where they lived, in Torrington and East Windsor, were full of immigrants and the children of immigrants, hailing from Poland, France, England, Ireland, Russia, Germany, Lithuania, Austria, Galicia (the one in Poland), and Scotland (United States Census 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, 1940). The addition of immigrants from northeastern Europe is typical of the early twentieth century; the only group missing from this list is southern Europeans, usually represented by Italians, which is probably mere coincidence. This particular immigrant family established a presence in East Windsor that, as of the early twenty-first century, had lasted for three generations.

A 1931 map that showed roads, place names, and a limited number of other physical and cultural features – including the names of some, but not all, property owners – omitted the Mulnite family. The property owner nearest the Facility area, W. Reeves, was near the north end of it, close to Windsorville (Figure 6; Dolph and Stewart 1931). William Reeves told the 1930 census that he lived on a farm and that he worked as a factory manager at a fertilizer plant. He was 50 and his New Jersey-born wife, Marguerite, was 37; her 11-year-old son lived with them, and a German house carpenter boarded with them (United States Census 1930). The 1934 aerial photograph shows that most, but not all, of the fields within the project area were being used to grow shade tobacco. Several areas were apparently fallow or growing something else. Although there were a number of barns or tobacco sheds in the area, none were within the Facility parcels. The image confirms that several of the farmsteads marked on the historic maps were near, but not within, the Facility parcels (Figure 7; Fairchild 1934). This building or buildings, and several others nearby, may have been associated with the buildings on the opposite of the road, where the historic maps indicate that the farmstead of Israel E. Allen (in the 1855 and 1869 maps) and the Zohn family (in the 1884 map) was located.

Tobacco production in Connecticut goes back to the colonial era. Although it was not the overwhelmingly important activity that it was in more southern colonies, it was an important cash crop in the Connecticut River valley by 1700 (McDonald 1936:5). In one of the earliest records of tobacco sales, a 1704 document "showed that tobacco was one of the principal articles of trade between Wethersfield and the West Indies" (McDonald 1936:5). The legislature passed a law in 1740 forbidding the use of any tobacco except that grown in the colony (Brown 1886). Whether this was a protectionist or moralistic law is unclear. The late eighteenth century saw a decline in production caused by the various wars and competition from Virginia, but after the Revolutionary War it recovered and in 1801 the valley produced 20,000 pounds, the largest crop up to that date (McDonald 1936:14).

In 1810, cigar making began at East Windsor and Suffield, and by 1830 a new way of curing tobacco for cigar wrappers called "sweating" was discovered by an East Windsor company. After that, all or most of the industry shifted to producing for cigars, and high profit margins encouraged farmers to try their hand at growing it from the Housatonic valley to New Haven and as far north as Vermont and Maine (McDonald 1936:14). As of 1879, Hartford County had 5,112 acres (2,069 ha) planted in tobacco, which produced over nine million pounds; the county produced 65 percent of the state's tobacco (Brown 1886). By the late nineteenth century, competition and overproduction had brought about a gradual decrease of acreage, until only the "best lands in the immediate vicinity of the Connecticut river continued to be used," presumably because those lands produced the highest yield (McDonald 1936:14). The total produced continued to rise through at least 1880, however, with the volume rising from 8 million pounds statewide in 1870 to 14 million pounds in 1880 (Brown 1886). It is possible that the project area was used for tobacco-growing during the nineteenth century, but at present no documentary evidence to that effect has been discovered.

An improvement in tobacco production, which occurred in 1896, was the development of a method for growing "shade tobacco," and consisted simply of building light cloth tents on poles over the plants. This caused the tobacco leaves to take on a more attractive color, and the technique rapidly spread throughout the market. It resulted in significant increases in the grower's profit base (McDonald 1936). Windsor grew the first shade-grown tobacco in 1900. Ten years earlier, the Connecticut Tobacco Experiment Station had been established in the Poquonock district of Windsor. A second Tobacco Experiment Station was established in 1921, and the work of these initially private operations "made Windsor the center of the industry, with more acres under cultivation than any other town in the valley" (Cunningham 1995:107). While in 1907 only 70 acres (28 ha) throughout New England were planted under shade, by 1919 there were 3,900 acres (1,578 ha) so planted in Connecticut alone. The Connecticut crop was valued at \$4,830,000.00. Between 1923 and 1936, the value of the tobacco crop was over 33 percent of the total value of Connecticut agricultural products (McDonald 1936). It is in this period that we have documentary evidence of tobacco cultivation, with associated buildings, on the Facility area from the 1934 aerial photograph.

In 1950, nearly 20,000 acres (8,093.7 ha) of tobacco were cultivated in Connecticut; however, during the 40 years between 1950 and 1990 the acreage declined to less than 2,000 acres (809 ha). Nonetheless, because the market price of tobacco had increased dramatically, "the annual crop from this reduced acreage is actually worth twice as much as it was in 1950" (Cunningham 1995:106). The sequence of aerial photographs through 2018 shows that the project area was part of this continuing phenomenon. Tobacco drying sheds (sometimes known as "tobacco barns") are still a common sight on the landscape in Windsor and other parts of the Connecticut River valley. These facilities are designed to allow maximum air circulation during the drying of the tobacco, and they are visible in aerial photographs both within and in the vicinity of the Facility area.

Tobacco shade tents were and are constructed by erecting parallel rows of posts, with wires stapled to and strung between them to hold the tent cloth. The posts were set 33 feet (10 m) apart in each direction; by the 1950s they were standardized at twelve feet (3.7 m) long and four to five inches (10 to 12 cm) in diameter, dug three to three and a half feet (0.9 to 1 m) into the ground. An additional impact to the landscape was the arrangement of the end posts. At the edge of the field, the wires were anchored to posts known as "dead men," which were three-foot (0.9-m) lengths of post that had the end of the wire attached to them and then were buried three feet (0.9 m) underground, the point being to keep the wires as taut as possible. Once they were set the posts were not removed, unless they rotted; early posts were of chestnut, and probably lasted only a few years, but chemically preserved red cedar and other species later became standard (Anderson 1953). Tobacco plants were not planted by growing the seeds in the fields. Rather, they were started in raised, heated seed beds and then transplanted into the fields. Because of the posts, the machinery used had to be specially adapted to the process; swivel plows that could be flipped from side to side were used, as well as machinery for smoothing and fertilizing the soil. Even planting was somewhat automated; many farmers used a "Bemis Transplanter" drawn by a tractor or by a team. The machine would mark the correct planting distance, and two men sitting on the back would dig the hole with an attached implement, put in the seedlings, and water them from the barrel of water mounted on the machine (Luddy/Taylor n.d.).

Tobacco sheds are special-purpose buildings designed to encourage rapid air curing (as opposed to smoking) of the picked tobacco leaves while sheltering them from sun and rain. Initially, Connecticut tobacco farmers adapted traditional barns to the purpose, but during the mid-nineteenth century began to experiment with new types of buildings focused on good ventilation and ways of hanging the plants. The structure that evolved included sides made of vertical wooden boards, some of which were hinged to open the structure to the air. Within, the two or three aisles held ranks of poles from which tobacco plants were suspended. Temperature and humidity were controlled by opening and closing the side vents and with charcoal fires (until the invention of propane heaters and the like). Tobacco workers spent much of their days and nights around the barns, moving the tobacco leaves in and out, tending the fires, and moving the ventilation boards. Other structures associated with the tobacco-production process were stripping rooms (for taking the leaves off the plant), sorting sheds, and the like (O'Gorman 2002).

In addition to these physical features, tobacco production left cultural impacts as well. A 1943 federal report on Connecticut's tobacco industry indicated that 900 of the 1,045 migrant workers in the state (about 17 percent of the overall the labor force) were African-Americans "and mostly high-school and college students recruited through southern colleges," while one-third were children from Connecticut and Massachusetts. Living and working conditions, especially for the African-American workers, are considered poor (Hall and Harvey 1995:585). By the 1970s, a quarter of the migrant workers were from Puerto Rico, and while many, if not most, of both groups moved on, some also stayed and altered the ethnic makeup of the Connecticut River Valley (Cunningham 1995). Documentation of the more recent working population at the Facility area, however, has not been located.

The 1941 aerial photograph captured differences in which how the project areas' fields were planted, and still showed a majority of the areas covered with shade tenting for tobacco (Figure 8; USGS 1941). In the 1951 aerial photograph, the area containing the proposed Facility once again reflected the farm manager's decisions about where to plant (Figure 9; USGS 1951). Although the 2019 aerial photograph appears to have captured the project areas and their vicinity before any planting had taken place, the visible parallel lines within the fields, and the presence of farm machinery, points to continuing use of the Facility area for agriculture (Figure 10; CT ECO 2019). As of this point in the early twenty-first

century, East Windsor's increasing population had not fully displaced the older land uses of this southeastern corner of the town.

Conclusions

The documentary record indicates that it is unlikely that any significant historical resources are present within the Facility parcels. Although these areas do have a long, known history of farming, evidence of such activity (such as fences, stone walls, or the many post holes introduced by shade tobacco farming) would not be considered historically significant.

CHAPTER V PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of previous archaeological research completed within the vicinity of the proposed Facility in East Windsor, Connecticut. This discussion provides the comparative data necessary for assessing the results of the current Phase IB Survey and it ensures that the potential impacts to all previously recorded cultural resources located within and adjacent to the Facility are taken into consideration. Specifically, this chapter reviews previously identified archaeological sites, National/State Register of Historic Places properties/districts, and inventoried historical standing structures situated in the project region (Figures 11 and 12). The discussions presented below are based on information currently on file at the CT-SHPO in Hartford, Connecticut. In addition, the electronic site files maintained by Heritage were examined during the course of this investigation. Both the quantity and quality of the information contained in the original cultural resources survey reports and State of Connecticut archaeological site forms are reflected below.

Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites, National/State Register of Historic Places Properties/Districts in the Vicinity of the Facility

A review of files maintained by the CT-SHPO and Heritage revealed that there are no previously identified archaeological sites located within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the proposed Facility (Figure 11). Although no archaeological sites have been previously identified in the region, the natural and prehistoric settings discussed in Chapter II and III suggest Native Americans may have once inhabited the area, and that prehistoric archaeological sites may yet be discovered within the Facility area. In addition, the larger project region has been in use as agricultural land since East Windsor's settlement and there may be archaeological evidence of occupation in the Facility area that may predate the establishment of the current farming operation.

This review also revealed that there are no previously identified State or National Register of Historic Places properties situated within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the project area. However, the literature search did result in the identification of 19 previously inventoried historic standing structures in the 1.6 km (1 mi) search radius for the project (Figure 12). They are presented in tabular form and briefly summarized below.

Table 1.	Previously Inventoried Historic Standing Structures within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the Fac	cility Area
Table 1.	Freviously inventoned mistoric standing structures within 1.0 km (1 min or the rat	LIIILV AI E

Resource Number	Name	Address	Туре	Year Built	Style	NR Eligibility
1	C. Barber House	68 Barber Hill Road	Residence	1835	Greek Revival	Not Assessed
55	District 12 School	12 Griffin Road	School	1850	Greek Revival	Not Assessed
56	=	29 Griffin Road	Residence	1890	Queen Anne	Not Assessed
57	F. Underwood House	76 Griffin Road	Residence	1820	Italianate	Not Assessed
169	E.P. Green House	139 Rockville Road	Residence	1840	Greek Revival	Not Assessed
170	R.A. Crane House	149 Rockville Road	Residence	18 th Century	Colonial	Not Assessed
37-266	Windsorville Methodist Church	171 Windsorville Road	Church	1877	Greek Revival/Italianate	Not Assessed
37-267	=	174 Windsorville Road	Residence	1860	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-268	=	176 Windsorville Road	Residence	1850	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-269	C. Leavitt House	189 Windsorville Road	Residence	1820	Vernacular	Not Assessed

Table 1. Previously Inventoried Historic Standing Structures within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the Facility Area

Resource Number	Name	Address	Туре	Year Built	Style	NR Eligibility
37-162	=	3 Rockville Road	Residence	1900	Colonial Revival	Not Assessed
37-163	William H. Ellsworth House	4 Rockville Road	Residence	1810	Federal	Not Assessed
37-164	-	7 Rockville Road	Residence	1850	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-165	J. Brainard House	37 Rockville Road	Residence	Late 18 th century	Colonial	Not Assessed
37-166	Matson House	43 Rockville Road	Residence	1820	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-167	H. H. Treat House	76 Rockville Road	Residence	1820	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-168	=	82 Rockville Road	Residence	1936	Colonial Revival	Not Assessed
37-252	S. Shepard House	6 Thrall Rd.	Residence	1850	Vernacular	Not Assessed
37-126	A.P. Barber House	4 Middle Road	Residence	1850	Greek Revival	Not Assessed

Summary and Interpretations

The previously inventoried historical buildings situated within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the project area date from between the eighteenth century and 1936. Of these, four represent the Greek Revival Style buildings, one is a Queen Anne style building, one is Italianate, two are Colonial Style buildings, two are designed in the Colonial Revival Style, one is a Federal Style structure, one has elements of both Greek Revival and Italianate styles, and seven are common vernacular buildings. Of the inventoried structures, 17 are residences, one is a school (District No. 12 School), and one is a church (Windsorville Methodist Church). None of the 19 inventoried historic buildings is located within the Facility area, and none of them are listed on the National or State Registers of Historic Places. Finally, it is not anticipated that the Facility will have an adverse effect on any of these buildings.

CHAPTER VI METHODS

Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and field methodology used to complete the current Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey of the Facility in East Windsor, Connecticut. It also includes a discussion of the laboratory methods and the procedures used to process and analyze the recovered cultural material. Finally, the location and point-of-contact for the final facility at which all cultural material, drawings, maps, photographs, and field notes generated during survey will be curated is provided below.

Research Design

The current Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey was designed to identify all prehistoric and historical cultural resources located within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the Facility. Fieldwork for the project was comprehensive in nature; planning considered the results of each previously completed archaeological survey within the project general area, the distribution of previously recorded archaeological sites located near the proposed Facility area, and a geological assessment of the study area. The methods used to complete this investigation were designed to provide complete and thorough coverage of all portions of the study area. This undertaking entailed pedestrian survey, systematic subsurface testing, detailed mapping, and photo-documentation throughout the limits of the Facility area.

Field Methodology

Following the completion of all background research, the Facility area was subjected to a Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey utilizing pedestrian survey, photo-documentation, mapping, and systematic shovel testing. The field strategy was designed such that the entire Facility area was examined visually and photographed. The pedestrian survey portion of this investigation included visual reconnaissance of all areas scheduled for impacts by the proposed development project. The Facility area was separated into three areas designated Areas 1, 2, and 3, and encompassed approximately 18.9 acres within a larger 102.8 acre parcel of land.

During survey, each shovel test measured 50 x 50 centimeters (19.7 x 19.7 in) in size and each was excavated until the glacially derived C-Horizon was encountered or until large buried objects (e.g., boulders) prevented further excavation. Shovel tests were placed at 15 meters (49.2 feet) intervals along survey transects spaced 15 meters (49.2 feet) apart. Each shovel test was excavated in 10 centimeters (3.9 inches) arbitrary levels within natural strata, and the fill from each level was screened separately. All shovel test fill was screened through 0.635 centimeters (0.25 inches) hardware cloth and examined visually for cultural material. Soil characteristics were recorded in the field using Munsell Soil Color Charts and standard soils nomenclature. Finally, each shovel test was backfilled immediately upon completion of the archaeological recordation process.

Curation

Following the completion and acceptance of the Final Report of Investigations, all cultural material, drawings, maps, photographs, and field notes will be curated with:

Dr. Sarah Sportman
Office of Connecticut State Archaeology

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CHAPTER VII RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION & MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of a Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey of the proposed Facility in East Windsor, Connecticut (Figures 1 and 2). The Phase IB investigation was completed by Heritage on behalf of VHB in September of 2021. All fieldwork was performed in accordance with the *Environmental Review Primer for Connecticut's Archaeological Resources* (Poirier 1987) promulgated by the CT-SHPO. The Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey results are presented below.

Results of the Investigation and Management Recommendations

As discussed in Chapter I, the development area associated with the proposed facility measures approximately 18.9 acres that were separated into three separate areas designated Area 1, 2, and 3 (Photos 1 through 6). The three areas are situated in the northern and southern portions of a larger 102.8-acre parcel of land and they adjoin Wapping Road on the north, Rockville Road and Barber Hill Road on the east, and Miller Road on the west. At the time of survey, the Facility area consisted of agricultural fields with low slopes that ranged in elevation from 62 m (203.4 ft) NGVD to 75 m (246.1 ft) NGVD.

The current Phase IB survey effort consisted of pedestrian survey, subsurface testing, and mapping of the development areas. The subsurface testing regime associated with the Phase IB cultural resources reconnaissance survey resulted in the excavation of 314 of 314 (100 percent) planned shovel tests measuring 50 x 50 centimeters (19.7 x 19.7 inches) in size. They were excavated at 15 meter (49.2 foot) intervals along survey transects spaced 15 meters (49.2 feet) apart. A total 80 of 80 (100 percent) shovel tests along 10 survey transects were excavated within Area 1, 171 of 171 (100 percent) shovel tests located along nine survey transects were excavated within Area 2, and 63 of 63 (100 percent) shovel tests situated along seven survey transects were excavated in Area 3 (Figures 13 and 14).

A typical shovel test excavated with the proposed Facility area extend to a depth of 65 centimeters below surface (26 inches below surface) and exhibited three soil horizons in profile. The uppermost deposits, the plow zone (Ap-Horizon) extend from 0 to 40 centimeters below surface (0 to 16 inches below surface) and was described as a layer of dark brown (10YR 3/3) silty fine sand. It was underlain by the B-Horizon, which was characterized as a deposit of yellowish brown (10YR 5/6) fine sand that reached from 40 to 54 centimeters below surface (16 to 21.6 inches below surface). Finally, the glacially derives C-Horizon was encountered at 54 centimeters below surface (21.6 inches below surface); it extended to an excavated depth of 65 centimeters below surface (26 inches below surface) and was classified as a layer of red (2.5YR 5/6) coarse sand.

Despite the field effort, no cultural materials, cultural features, or soil anomalies were identified in the development areas associated with the proposed Facility during the Phase IB reconnaissance survey. It was determined that no impacts to significant cultural resources are anticipated by construction of the proposed Mulnite Farms Solar Facility. No additional examination of the Facility area is recommended prior to construction.

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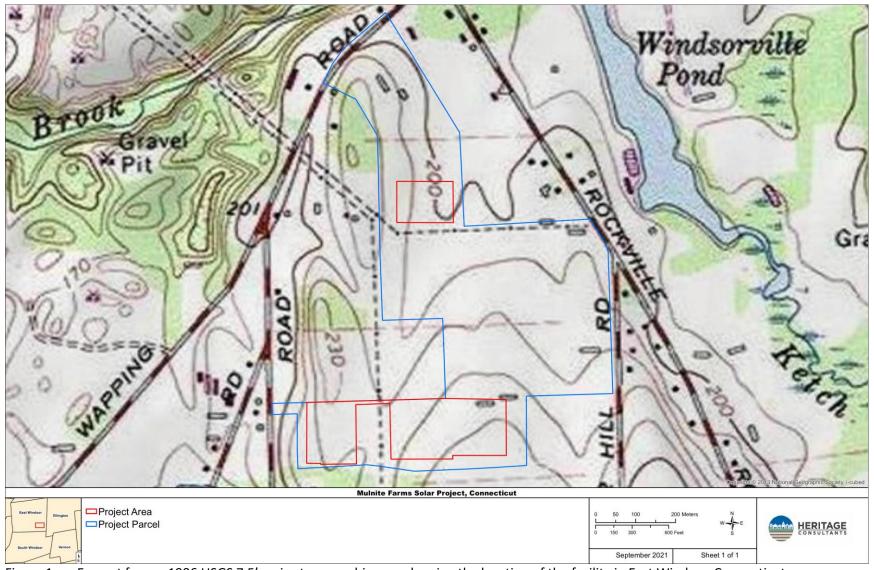


Figure 1. Excerpt from a 1996 USGS 7.5' series topographic map showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.



Figure 2. Proposed project plans for the solar facility located in East Windsor, Connecticut.

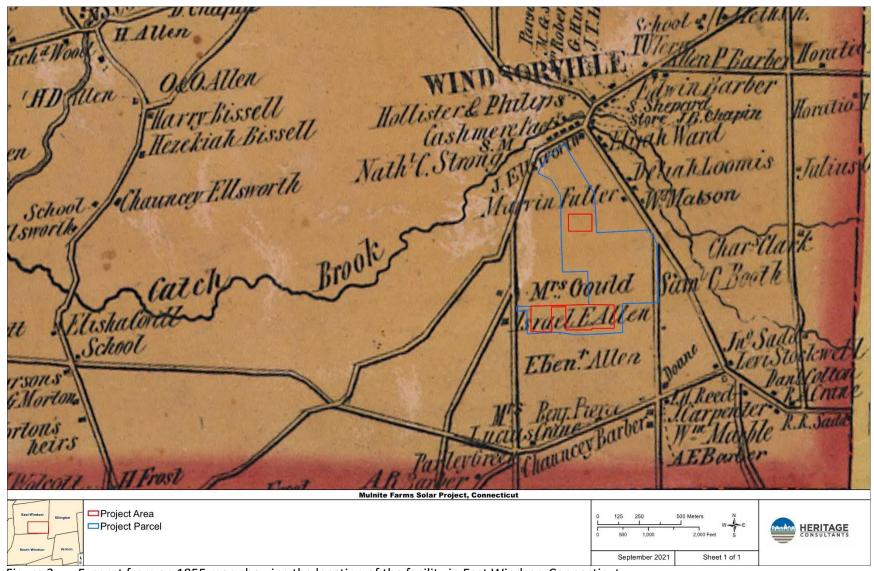


Figure 3. Excerpt from an 1855 map showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

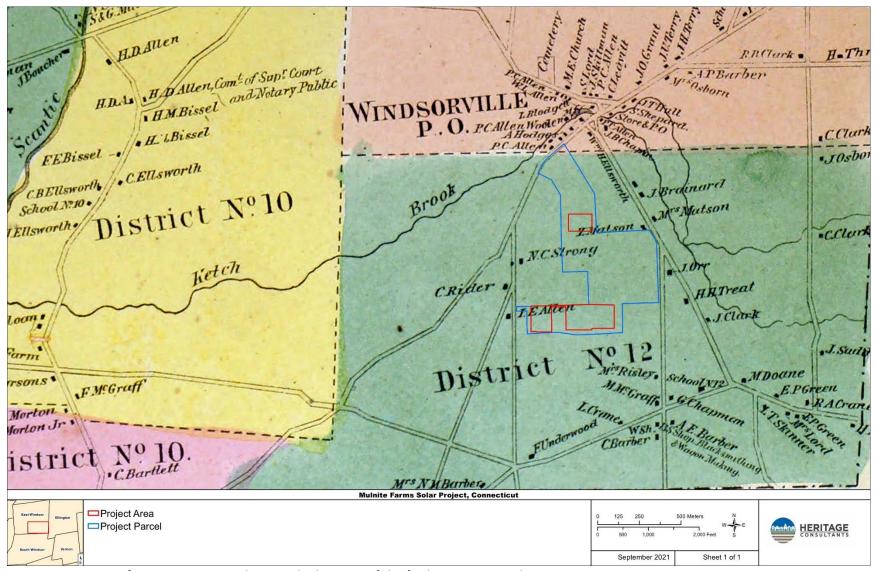


Figure 4. Excerpt from an 1869 map showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

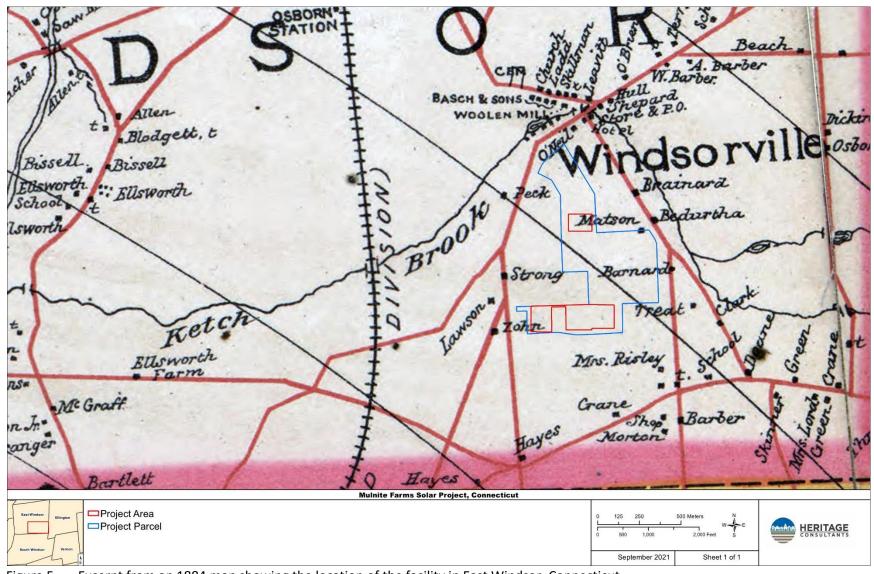


Figure 5. Excerpt from an 1884 map showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

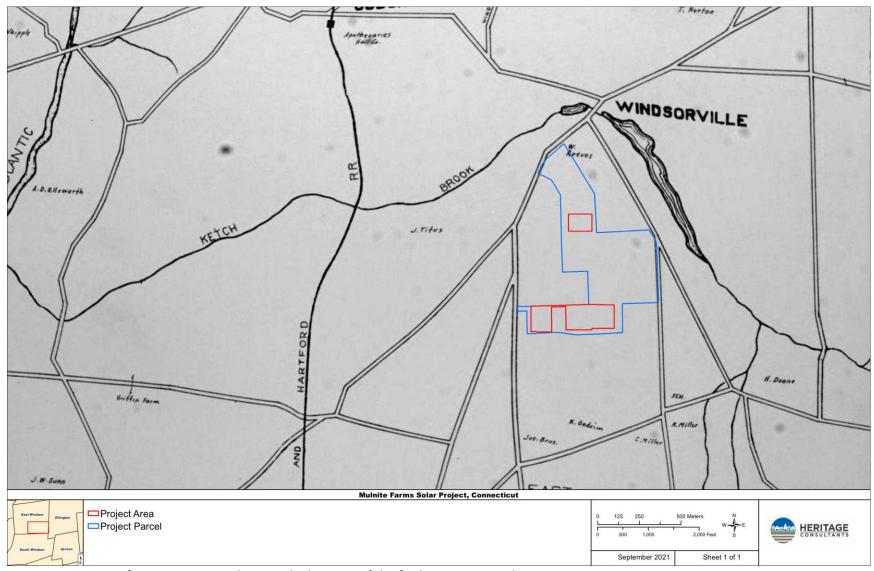


Figure 6. Excerpt from a 1931 map showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.



Figure 7. Excerpt from a 1934 aerial image showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.



Figure 8. Excerpt from a 1941 aerial image showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

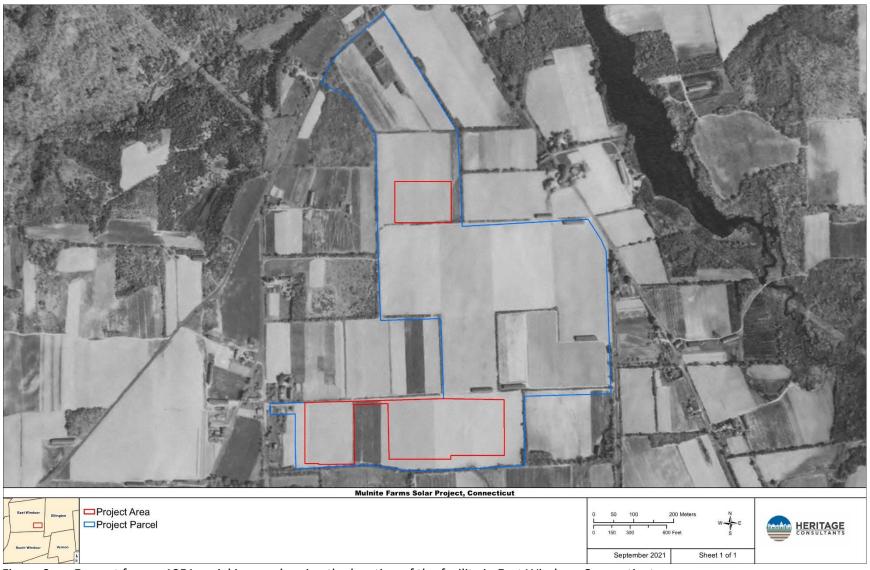


Figure 9. Excerpt from a 1951 aerial image showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

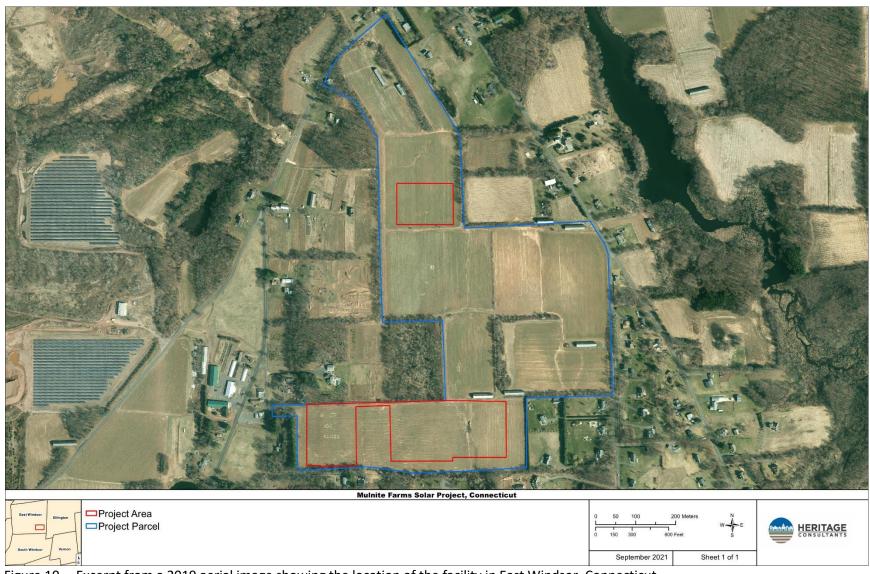


Figure 10. Excerpt from a 2019 aerial image showing the location of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

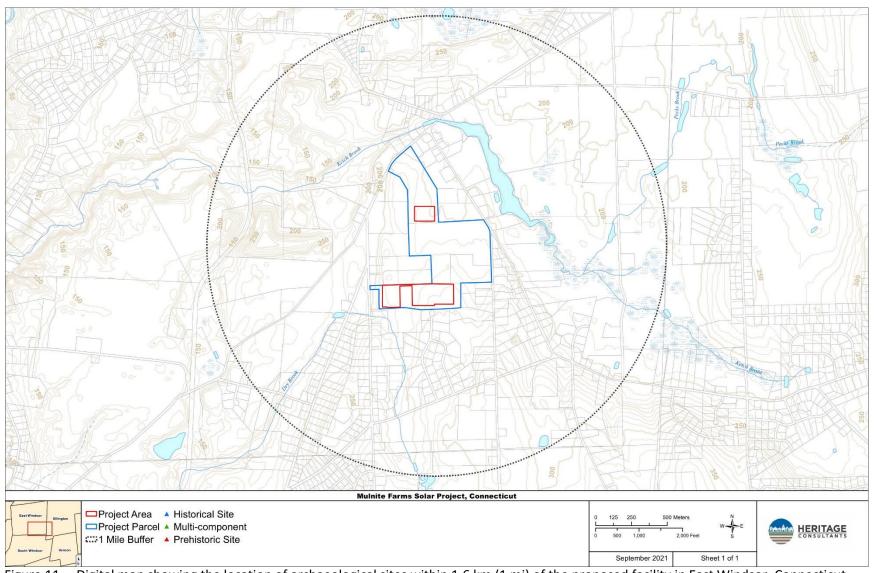


Figure 11. Digital map showing the location of archaeological sites within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the proposed facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

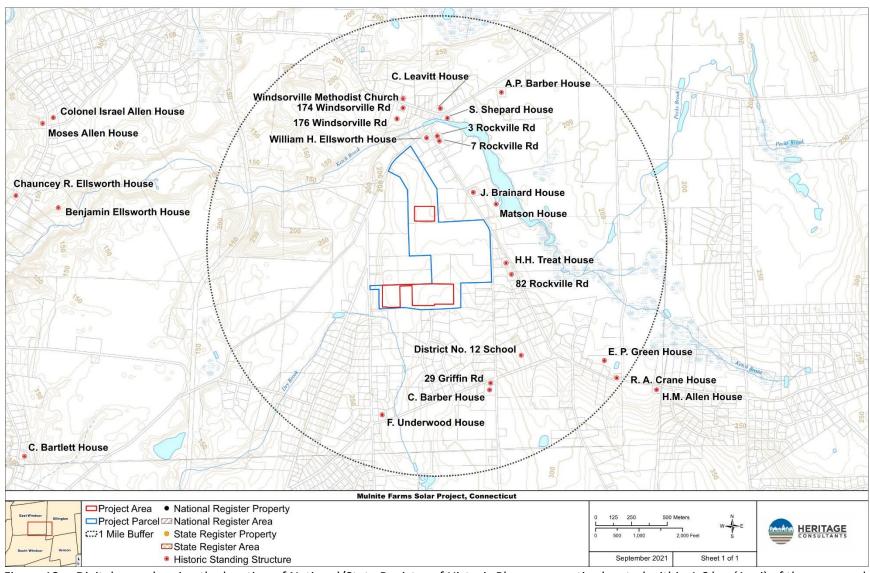


Figure 12. Digital map showing the location of National/State Register of Historic Places properties located within 1.6 km (1 mi) of the proposed facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

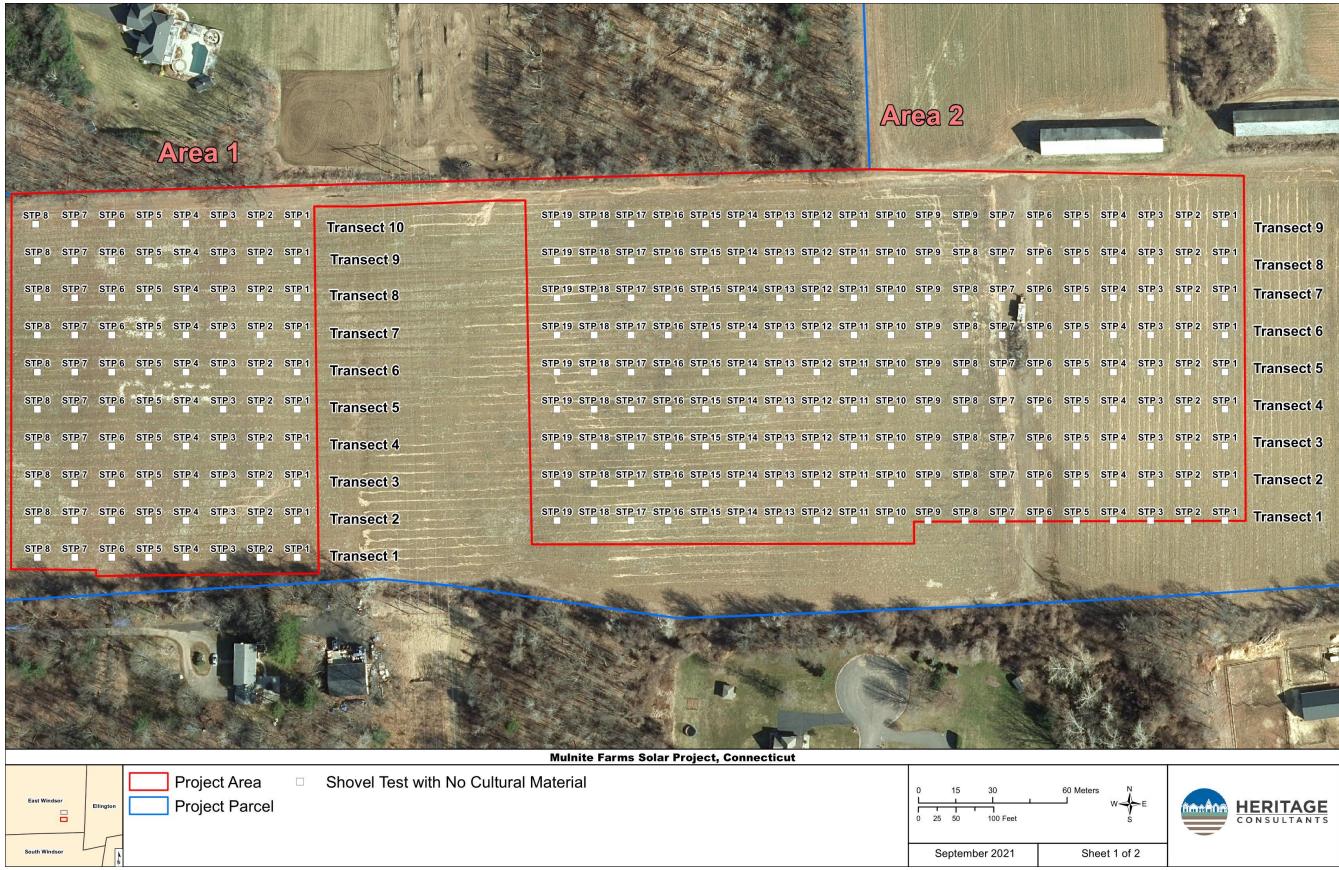


Figure 13; Sheet 1. Plan view map showing the location of excavated shovel tests and transects in Areas 1 and 2 of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.

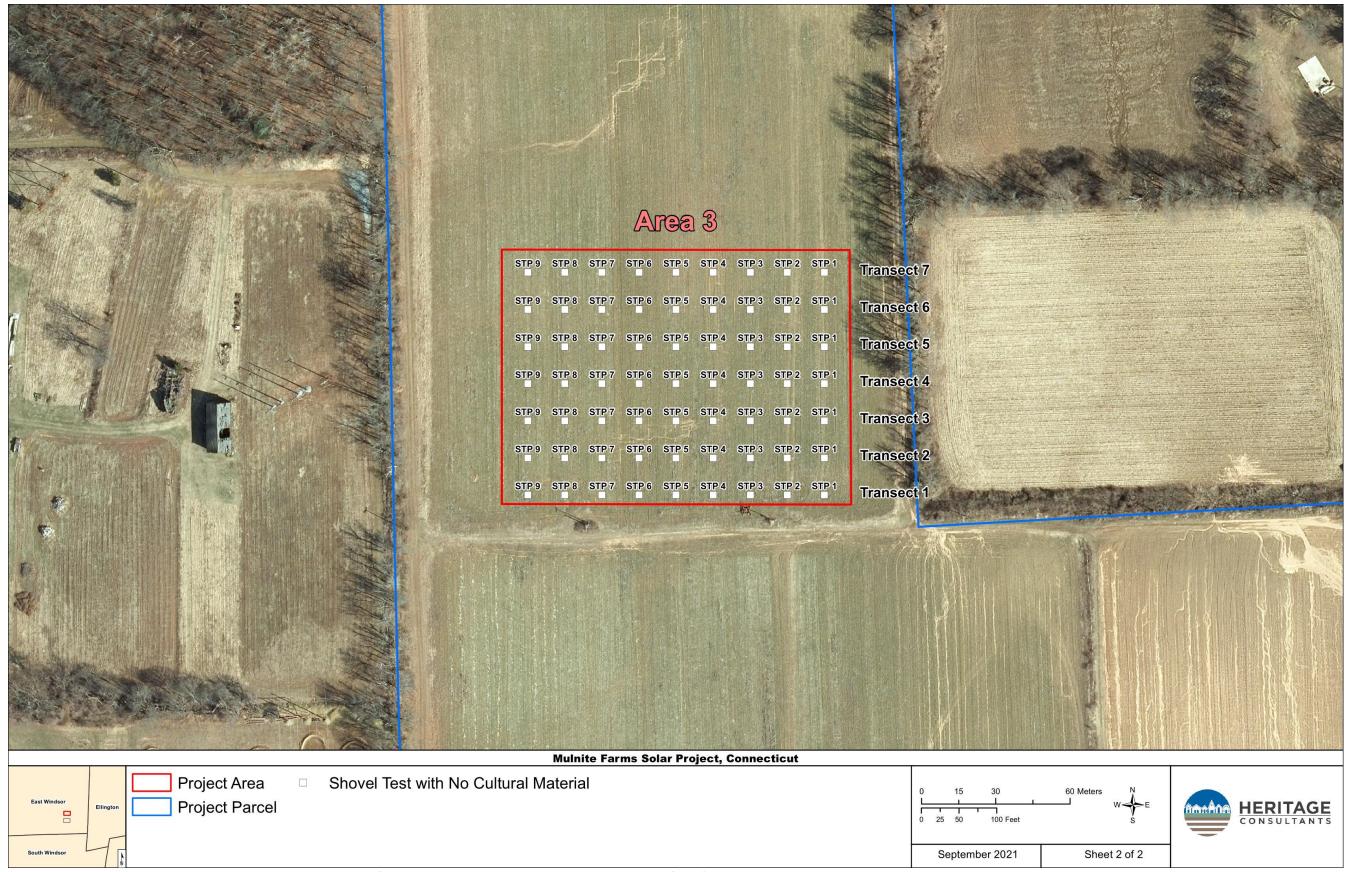


Figure 13; Sheet 2. Plan view map showing the location of excavated shovel tests and transects in Area 3 of the facility in East Windsor, Connecticut.



Photo 1. Overview photo of Area 1. Photo taken facing east.



Photo 2. Overview photo of Area 1. Photo taken facing west.



Photo 3. Overview photo of Area 2. Photo taken facing east.



Photo 4. Overview photo of Area 2. Photo taken facing west.



Photo 5. Overview photo of Area 3. Photo taken facing east.



Photo 6. Overview photo of Area 3. Photo taken facing west.