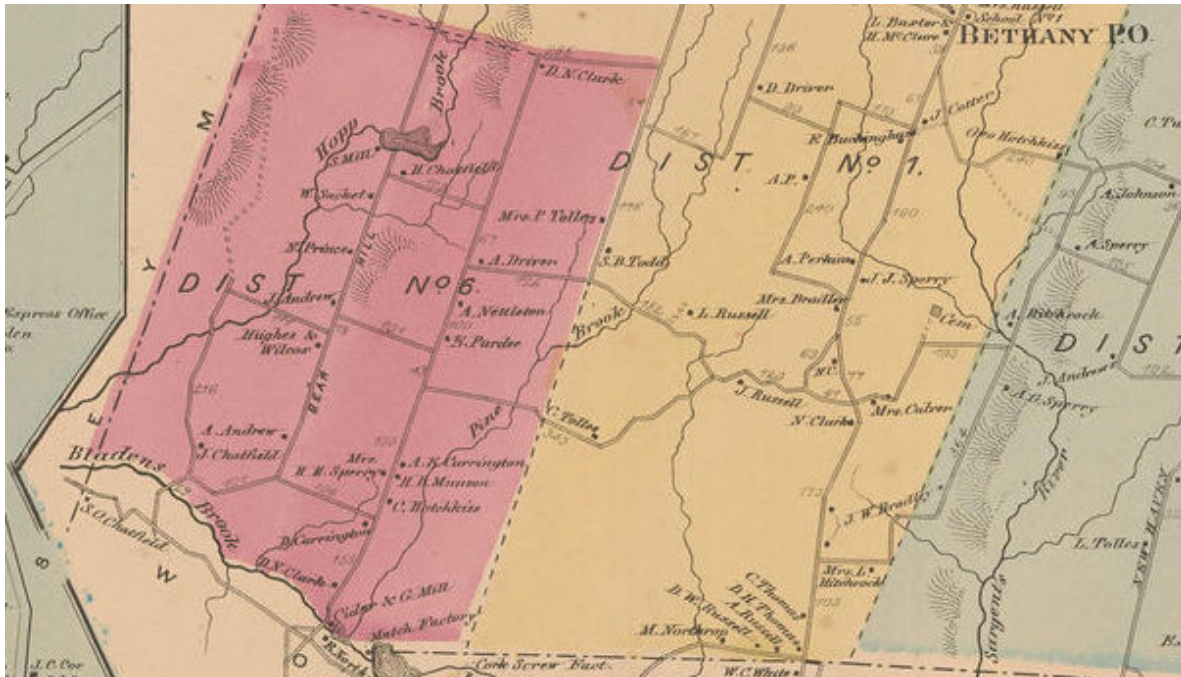


Exhibit M

Cultural Resources Review

Phase Ia Archaeological Assessment Survey
Proposed Solar Photovoltaic Array
Town of Bethany, Connecticut

March, 2023



ACS

◆ Archaeological Consulting Services ◆

**Phase Ia Archaeological Assessment Survey
Proposed Solar Photovoltaic Array
Town of Bethany, Connecticut**

by

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and
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March, 2023

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Abstract

This report contains the results of a Phase Ia archaeological assessment survey conducted by ACS (Archaeological Consulting Services) during the month of March, 2023. The project calls for an evaluation of potential cultural resources to be affected by the construction of a solar farm on a property that measures about 22 acres in Bethany, Connecticut. The project property consists of two lots, including a two-acre house lot at 428 Bethmour Road in Bethany on the east side of the road, and an additional undeveloped 20-acre lot to the east. The project is being coordinated by Solli Engineering, a civil engineering firm based in Monroe, Connecticut. Solli supplied site plans which show the proposed development and existing conditions. The project is subject to review by the Connecticut Siting Council and the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO).

The project area lies in southwest Bethany, on the east side of Bethmour Road. Background research indicates a low sensitivity for potential prehistoric cultural resources, with a statistical prehistoric landscape sensitivity model developed and utilized by ACS indicating a high score of only 6.5 out of a potential 100.0, and therefore within the low sensitivity range (0-20). The low score can be attributed to rocky soil contexts and considerable distance to the nearest major water source, which is Pine Brook that flows through the eastern end of the project property but relatively far from the project area that is concentrated in the far western end of the property. The property bears a higher sensitivity for historic cultural resources, given its location on Bethmour Road that was occupied since at least the early 19th century.

Land records and historic maps indicate the presence of the Tolles house and farmstead to the north of the project area by the 1850s, which may be the same as the Greek Revival Street B. Todd house appearing on maps at a slightly different location by the 1860s. Neither house exists today, although there is an existing house on the property built in 1949. That house and its associated outbuildings are not architecturally distinctive, and therefore not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), nor are the various stone wall alignments on the property which have been sufficiently documented on historic and recent survey maps. Because of the possibility that previous historic occupations could have been located elsewhere on Bethmour Road, including within the project property, ACS recommends a Phase Ib archaeological reconnaissance survey, limited to an area within 300 feet of Bethmour Road and within the project impact area, prior to any construction activities and subject to review by the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO).

Project Summary

Project Name: Proposed Solar Photovoltaic Array, Bethany, Connecticut.

Project Purpose: To investigate possible cultural resources which may be impacted by the construction of a solar farm in Bethany, Connecticut, in compliance with requirements of the Connecticut Siting Council and the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office.

Project Funding: The Nevar Company, Cheshire, Connecticut.

Project Location: 428 Bethmour Road, Bethany, Connecticut.

Project Size: ~22 acres.

Investigation Type: Phase Ia archaeological assessment survey.

Investigation Methods: Background research, pedestrian surface survey.

Dates of Investigation: March, 2023.

Performed by: ACS (Archaeological Consulting Services), 118 Whitfield Street, Guilford, Connecticut 06437, (203) 458-0550 (telephone), (203) 672-2442 (fax), acsinfo@yahoo.com.

Principal Investigators: Gregory F. Walwer, Ph.D. and Dorothy N. Walwer, M.A.

Submitted to:

Solli Engineering (Robert Pryor, Director of Site / Civil Engineering), 501 Main Street, Suite 2A, Monroe, CT 06468, (203) 880-5455.

Connecticut Office of State Archaeology (Dr. Sarah Sportman, State Archaeologist), University of Connecticut, 354 Mansfield Road, Storrs, Connecticut 06269-1176, (860) 486-5248.

Reviewing Agency:

Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (Catherine Labadia, Staff Archaeologist), 450 Columbus Boulevard, Hartford, Connecticut 06103, (860) 500-2329.

Recommendations: Phase Ib archaeological reconnaissance survey of areas to be impacted within 300 feet of Bethmour Road. The existing 1949 house is not eligible for the National Register of Historic Places, nor are stone wall alignments which have been sufficiently recorded on survey maps.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Project Description

This report provides the results of a Phase Ia archaeological assessment survey conducted by ACS for the planned development of a solar voltaic array, or solar farm, in Bethany, New Haven County, Connecticut. The owner of the property is The Nevar Company of Cheshire, Connecticut. The project consists of two lots, including a house lot at 428 Bethmour Road (Tax Map 113, Lot 1A) measuring 2.05 acres, and the adjacent lot to the rear of the house (Tax Map 113, Lot 1) that measures 19.65 acres. The project area is in southwest Bethany, on the east side of the road, and consists of a long parcel running west to east. The house lot contains a small, 620 square-foot home built in 1949.

ACS was contacted by Solli Engineering, a civil engineering firm based in Monroe, Connecticut to conduct the archaeological assessment survey for the project. Solli supplied ACS with a survey map, indicating that the survey was likely required for review by the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) and Connecticut Siting Council. The survey map shows existing conditions, including topography and wetlands, as well as the location of the existing house and detached garage. The bulk of the proposed development would be in the western third of the overall property, with the demolition of the existing structures where an access drive is proposed.

ACS conducted the assessment survey in conformance with the *Environmental Review Primer for Connecticut Archaeological Resources* issued by SHPO. The assessment survey evaluated the potential need, if any, for a Phase Ib archaeological reconnaissance survey. The archaeological assessment survey consisted of a thorough background research effort and pedestrian surface survey to evaluate the potential sensitivity of the project area for any prehistoric and/or historic cultural resources, with SHPO to serve as review agency for the final report.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND

Environmental Setting

The project area is located in the Town of Bethany, New Haven County, Connecticut. The project setting is in the Southwest Hills (IV-A) ecoregion of Connecticut. The project area lies in the southwest part of Bethany, a couple of miles to the east of Route 8. The area contains a mix of residential neighborhoods and small agricultural plots. The house at 428 Bethmour Road and associated outbuildings occupy the northwest corner of the project area on the east side of the road (Figure 1).

Underlying bedrock is a unit of Ordovician Granitic Gneiss (Og), an Ordovician formation on the order of 440 to 500 million years old (Rodgers 1985). Jurassic basalt intrusives appear within the formation that is steeply inclined, on the order of 65 to 80 degrees to the northwest. The property is set on a large glacial moraine, with one test bore to the north revealing 130 feet of till above bedrock (Stone et al. 1992). The project area is within the Bladens River drainage basin (#6919) that empties west into the Naugatuck River (McElroy 1991). A tributary of Bladens River named Pine Brook flows south through the very eastern end of the parcel and into Bladens River about one mile to the south of the project area (Figure 2). There is also a lesser wetlands body lying towards the center of the property, entirely to the east of the proposed development. The house at the western end of the property is set on a low hill peak at about 630 feet above mean sea level, with a generally southeast dipping surface to 600 feet above mean sea level at the eastern end of the development, and about 550 feet above mean sea level at the far eastern end of the property. The area surrounding the structures at the western end is mostly clear of vegetation other than a grass lawn and some thick scrub growth, while the rest of the property is wooded.

The project area contains three principal soil types (Figure 3) within an area designated as the Paxton-Woodbridge-Ridgebury soil association (Reynolds 1979; USDA NRCS websoil survey 2023). A unit of Woodbridge fine sandy loam (WxA / 45A) surrounds the house and outbuildings at the low hill peak. The moderately well drained soil typically has a profile with a topsoil of dark brown fine sandy loam to seven inches deep, followed by a fine sandy loam subsoil of dark yellowish brown over olive brown to 25 inches below the surface, and a substratum of olive, very firm gravelly fine sandy loam to five feet deep or more. Well drained Paxton fine sandy loam (PbB / 84B) is on the surrounding gentle hill slope, having a typical topsoil of dark brown fine sandy loam to eight inches deep, followed by a subsoil of dark yellowish brown and olive brown fine sandy loam to 25 inches deep, and a substratum of olive, very firm gravelly fine sandy loam to five feet deep or more. The Woodbridge and Paxton soils are very similar, with possibly better drainage characteristics for the Paxton soil. The rockier version of Woodbridge fine sandy loam (WzC / 47C) occurs downslope in steeper contexts, and with a similar profile to that of the less rocky version, but with a much thinner two-inch topsoil, and thicker subsoil to the same 25-inch depth. The less rocky soils would have been suitable for historic agricultural pursuits. Wetlands on the property are associated with poorly drained Ridgebury, Leicester, and Whitman fine sandy loam (RN).

Figure 1: Map of the Project Area

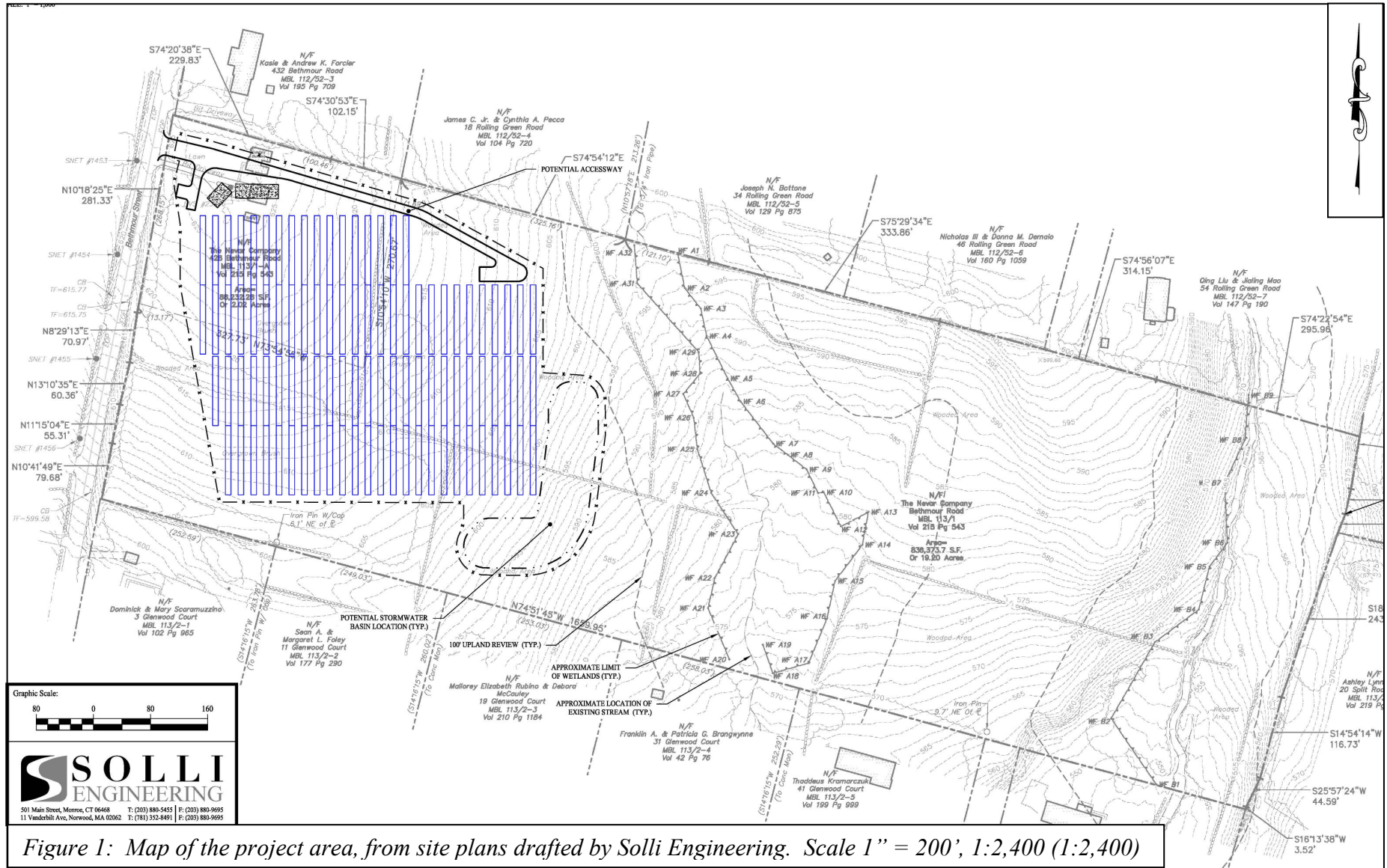


Figure 1: Map of the project area, from site plans drafted by Solli Engineering. Scale 1" = 200', 1:2,400 (1:2,400)

Figure 2: USGS 7.5' Topographic Map, Naugatuck Quadrangle

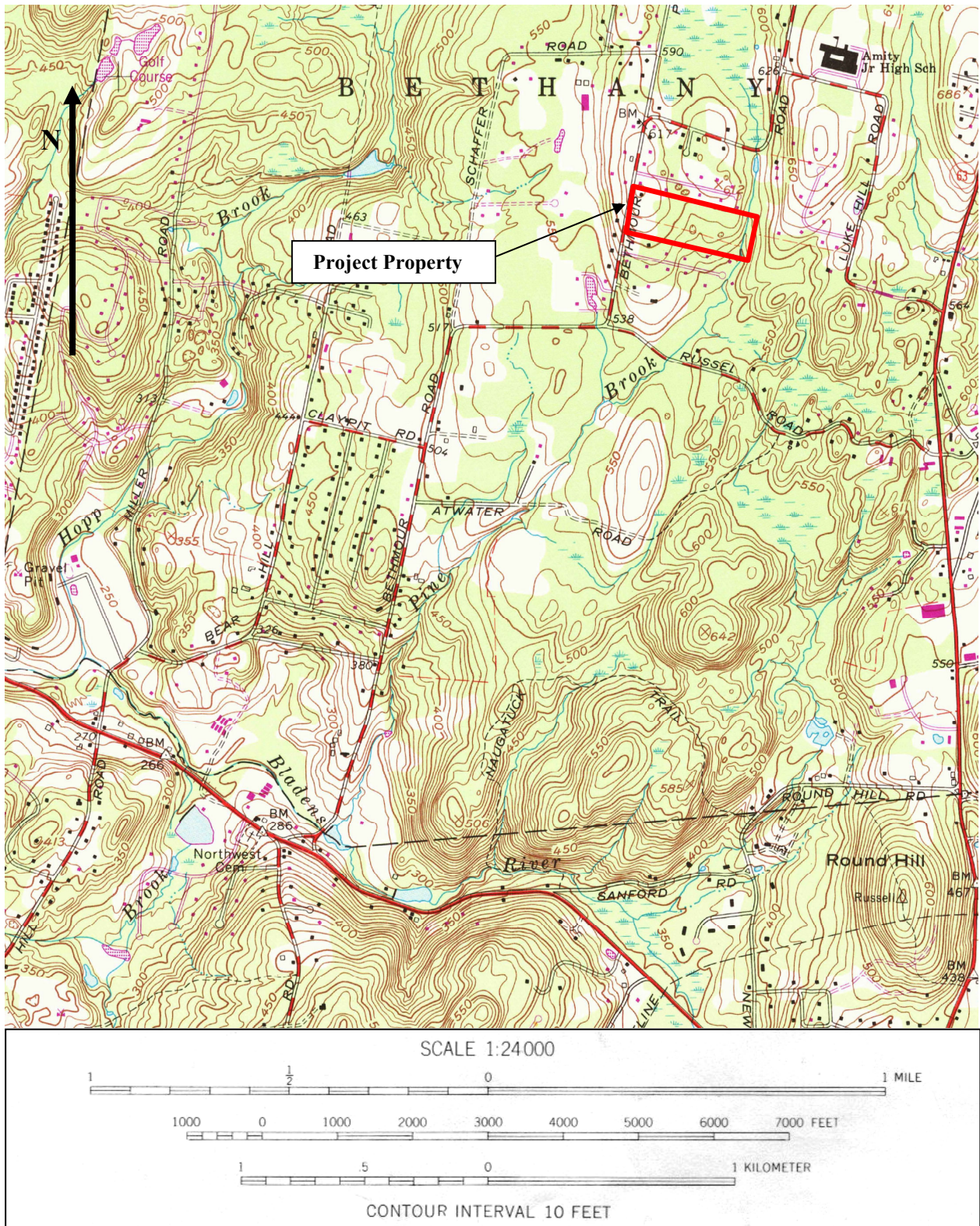


Figure 2: From USGS 1984.

Figure 3: USDA Websoil Survey Map



Figure 3: From USDA NRCS websoil survey.

Cultural Setting

Regional Prehistory

The prehistory of the project region and New England in general can be broadly divided into periods reflecting changes in environment, Native American subsistence and settlement patterns, and the material culture which is preserved in the archaeological record. Although it remains controversial today, the conservative estimates for the first occupations of North America are about 18,000 to 15,000 years ago, just after the maximum extent of the last glaciation and the broadest extent of the Bering land bridge (Kehoe 1981:7; Parker 1987:4; Jennings 1989:52). Southern Connecticut itself remained glaciated until about 15,200 B.P. (Snow 1980:103; Gordon 1983:71; Parker 1987:5; McWeeney 1994:181, 1999:6).

Paleo-Indian

The Paleo-Indian period is documented in Connecticut after 12,000 years ago and extends to roughly 9,500 B.P. (Swigart 1974; Snow 1980:101; Lavin 1984:7; Moeller 1984, 1999). This was a period of climatic amelioration from full glacial conditions, and a rise in sea levels which fell short of inundating the continental shelf. It was during this time that tundra vegetation was replaced by patches of boreal forests dominated by spruce trees (Snow 1980:114; Parker 1987:5-6), and eventually white pine and several pioneering deciduous genera (McWeeney 1994:182, 1999:7). Early in the period, the environment was conducive to the existence of large herbivores and a low population density of humans who procured these animals as a major subsistence resource, although warming temperatures and denser forests contributed to the extinction of certain species. The projected human social and settlement patterns are those of small bands of semi-nomadic or restricted wandering people who hunted mammoth, mastodon, bison, elk, caribou, musk ox, and several smaller mammals (Ritchie 1969:10-11; Snow 1980:117-120). Episodes of sparse vegetation during this period encouraged the use of high lookout points over hollows and larger valleys by people in pursuit of large game. The southern part of New England had an earlier recovery from glacial conditions when compared to areas to the north, however, with a higher density of vegetation that might have precluded Paleo-Indians of Connecticut from focussing heavily on the larger mammals (McWeeney 1994:182).

The cultural material associated with this period includes large to medium-sized, fluted projectile points (cf. Clovis), in addition to knives, drills, pieces esquillees and graters, scrapers, perforators, awls, abraders, spokeshaves, retouched pieces, utilized flakes, and hammerstones (Wilbur 1978:5; Snow 1980:122-127; Moeller 1980). Although numerous finds from this period have been found in Connecticut, only a few, small *in situ* sites exist throughout the state. Finds tend to be located near very large streams in the lower Connecticut River Valley, and in rockshelters of other regions (McBride 1981). A survey performed by the Connecticut Office of State Archaeology and the Archaeological Society of Connecticut resulted in the documentation of 53 Paleo-Indian "find spots" in Connecticut (Bellantoni and Jordan 1995).

Early Archaic

The Early Archaic period lasted from approximately 9,500 B.P. to 7,500 B.P. (Snow 1980:159; Lavin 1984:9; Moeller 1984). Sea levels and temperatures continued to rise during this period as denser stands of forests dominated by pine and various deciduous species replaced the vegetation of the former period (Davis 1969:418-419; Snow 1980:114; Parker 1987:9; McWeeney 1994:184-185, 1999:8-9). This environmental change was rapid and caused a major shift in the animals it supported, including deer, moose, other small to medium-sized mammals, migratory birds, fish, and shellfish. The material culture changed along with the environmental conditions to include the atlatl and smaller stemmed and bifurcated projectile points (Stanly, cf. Kanawha and Lecroy) for procuring smaller, faster game in more closed settings (Wilbur 1978:6-7). The expanded tool set included choppers and anvil stones. Settlement patterns were probably becoming more territorialized towards a central-based wandering character (Snow 1980:171; see also Forrest 1999). The Early Archaic period is poorly represented in Connecticut and the lower coastal river valleys, probably resulting from a combined effect of low population densities in response to rapidly changing environmental conditions, as well as site location and preservation factors (Snow 1980:168; McBride 1981; McBride and Dewar 1981:45; Lavin 1984:9; McWeeney 1986; see also Forrest 1999).

Middle Archaic

The Middle Archaic period extended from approximately 7,500 B.P. to 6,000 B.P. (Snow 1980:173; Lavin 1984:9; McBride 1984; Jones 1999). It was by the end of this period of increased warming that sea levels and coastal configurations had stabilized and approached their present conditions (Kehoe 1981:211; Gordon 1983:82; Parker 1987:9). The period is marked by the establishment of forests with increasing proportions of deciduous hardwoods in relation to the pine predecessors in Connecticut (Davis 1969; Snow 1980:114; McWeeney 1999:10). The material culture included square or contracting-stemmed points (Neville, Stark, and Merrimac), semi-lunar groundstone knives, ground and winged banner stones for atlatls, plummets for nets, gouges, denticulates, perforators, percussed celts and adzes and grooved axes for woodworking (Snow 1980:183-184), as well as tools used in previous periods. This more extensive range of material culture indicates a broader subsistence base than in previous periods, including greater fish and shellfish procurement (Wilbur 1978:8; Snow 1980:178-182) which was associated with the stabilization of sea levels towards the end of the period. The increased breadth of subsistence resources had the effect of increasing scheduling efforts and may have caused settlement patterns to take on more of a central-based or seasonally circulating pattern with bands joining and dispersing on a seasonal basis (Snow 1980:183). Sites found in the lower Connecticut River Valley region suggest that a wider range of environments and associated site types were exploited, including both large and special task sites in upland areas (McBride 1981, 1984:56). This regional pattern may confirm the suggested settlement pattern of central-based, seasonally circulating or restricted circulating groups of people supported by logistical procurement sites throughout the state. Middle Archaic sites are fairly rare in Connecticut, again a combined product of rising sea levels and poor site preservation (see Forrest 1999).

Late Archaic

The Late Archaic period ranged from approximately 6,000 B.P. to 3,700 B.P. (Snow 1980:187; Lavin 1984:11; McBride 1984; Pfeiffer 1984; Cassedy 1999). This period is marked by a warm-dry maximum evident from pollen cores in the region (Davis 1969:414; Ogden 1977). Hardwood, oak-dominated forests very similar in character to ones established today covered most of Connecticut by the Late Archaic (Parker 1987:10). The Late Archaic in Connecticut has been divided into two traditions: the Laurentian and the Narrow Point (Lavin 1984:11), with the former perhaps being distributed more in the interior. The Laurentian tradition is defined by wider-bladed, notched and eared triangular points, and ground slate points and ulus, while the Narrow Point tradition includes smaller, thicker, and narrower points. The tool kit and general material culture became even more expanded during this period, with the advent of ground stone manos, nut mortars, pestles, and bowls, as well as stone pipes, bone tools, corner-notched (Vosburg, Brewerton, and Vestal), side-notched (Otter Creek, Brewerton, Normanskill), smaller narrow-stemmed (Dustin, Lamoka, Squibnocket, and Wading River), and triangular points (Squibnocket, Brewerton, and Beekman), grooved and perforated weights, fish weirs and harpoons, and decorative gorgets (Wilbur 1978:15-24; Snow 1980:228-231). The groundstone material has been inferred as being associated with an increased vegetable diet that consisted of berries, nuts, and seeds (Snow 1980:231; Lavin 1984:13), including acorn, butternut, chestnut, walnut, hickory, bayberry, blackberry, goose foot, cranberry, partridge berry, service berry, strawberry, and swamp current (Cruson 1991:29). Deer continued to be the predominant meat source, although animal remains recovered from archaeological sites in the region include black bear, raccoon, woodchuck, rabbit, otter, gray squirrel, red fox, gray fox, wolf, wild turkey, grouse, pigeon, migratory fowl, and anadromous and freshwater fish and shellfish (Cruson 1991:28-29). Various sea mammals and fish were procured along the coast.

The increasing breadth of the subsistence base and material culture was in turn associated with a central-based settlement pattern in which a restricted range of seasonally scheduled and used areas were exploited in a more semi-sedentary fashion than previously (Lavin 1984:13; Dincauze 1990:25). Sites in the lower Connecticut River Valley suggest that the larger rivers served more as long-term bases within a central-based circulating system than in the Middle Archaic (McBride 1981; McBride and Dewar 1981:48). The interior uplands of Connecticut may have supported a relatively independent set of seasonally circulating groups which used larger wetlands as long-term bases (Wadleigh 1981). Mortuary practices of the time suggest some sedentism for certain groups of people who were buried in specialized secondary cremation cemeteries and who may have had some control over restricted resources (e.g. riparian transportation routes) (Walwer 1996). Although the cremation sites largely include utilitarian funerary objects, some contain non-local materials which suggest trade association with cultures to the west of Connecticut (Walwer 1996).

Terminal Archaic

The Terminal Archaic period extended from approximately 3,700 B.P. to 2,700 B.P., as defined by the Susquehanna and Small-Stemmed traditions (Swigart 1974; Snow 1980:235; Lavin 1984:14; Pfeiffer 1984; Pagoulatos 1988; Cruson 1991; Cassedy 1999). Steatite, or soapstone, was a frequently used material by this time, and could be fashioned into bowls and other objects. The mass, permanency, and labor intensiveness of creating these heavy items have

led to the inference of more sedentary base camps, especially on large rivers where the development of a canoe technology had become fully established and increased the effective catchment area within which groups of people were gathering resources on a continuous basis. The material culture of the period was very similar to the Late Archaic, with a proliferation of stemmed projectile point types including Snook Kill, Bare Island and Poplar Island stemmed points, Orient Fishtail points, Sylvan and Vestal side-notched points, and Susquehanna corner-notched points. The resource base continued to consist of deer and small mammals, nuts, shellfish, turtles, and birds (Snow 1980:249). The first signs of ceramics (Vnette I pottery) tempered with steatite fragments appeared during this period (Lavin 1984:15; Lavin and Kra 1994:37; see also Cassedy 1999:131), and archaeological evidence of trade with other regions becomes more substantial for this time (Pfeiffer 1984:84).

The distribution of sites and site types in the lower Connecticut River Valley during this period suggests that there was a change in settlement to one with fewer, yet larger sites in riverine settings, and associated satellite task-specific sites in the uplands (McBride 1981; McBride and Dewar 1981:49). The implications are less foraging-strategy residential movement and more task-oriented collection activities within a radiating settlement pattern, but probably one in which some degree of seasonal circulation of settlement took place. Pagoulatos (1988) has shown that while sites associated with the Small-Stemmed tradition tend to suggest a more mobile settlement pattern in the interior uplands, sites of the Susquehanna tradition indicate a semi-sedentary collector strategy in major riverine and estuarine environments. At least certain groups exhibited semi-sedentism and some control over restricted resources, as indicated by the elaborate burials of the Terminal Archaic (Walwer 1996). Mortuary practices from the period include secondary cremation interments in formalized cemetery areas, with individual pits containing fragmented utilitarian material from communal cremation areas, as well as highly stylized funerary objects from non-local material (Walwer 1996). The lack of other, less formalized burial types evident in the archaeological record may be a matter of poor preservation, in which case it has been proposed that the cremation cemeteries are representative of a hierarchical society in which a portion of the people (of the Susquehanna "tradition") were able to generate a surplus economy that supported a semi-sedentary settlement pattern. This surplus may have been generated by the procurement and control over the transportation of steatite from various areas in Connecticut and surrounding territory.

Early Woodland

The Early Woodland period in Connecticut extended from about 2,700 B.P. to 2,000 B.P. (Lavin 1984:17; Juli and McBride 1984; Cruson 1991; Juli 1999). A cooling trend during the Early Woodland (Davis 1969:414; Parker 1987:10; McWeeney 1999:11) is thought to have reduced population sizes and regional ethnic distinction as the hickory nut portion of the resource base was significantly decreased, although the apparent decline in populations may possibly be related to other factors such as the inability to confidently distinguish Early Woodland sites from those of other periods (Filios 1989; Concannon 1993). Climatic deterioration and depopulation are in turn thought to have inhibited the progression towards, and association with, more complex social structures and networks that were developing further to the west and south (Kehoe 1981:215). A proliferation of tobacco pipes may indicate the beginnings of agricultural

efforts in the northeast. The Early Woodland of this region, however, exhibits no direct traces of subsistence crop remains, indicating continuity with previous periods in terms of subsistence practices (Lavin 1984:18).

Materially, the period is marked by a substantial development of a ceramic technology, with the Early Windsor tradition of pottery being dominant in the Early Woodland of Connecticut (Rouse 1980:68; Lavin 1984:17, 1987). Both Early Windsor cord-marked and Linear Dentate ceramic forms were being produced at this time. Diagnostic projectile points can be developmentally traced to indigenous points of previous periods, consisting of many stemmed forms in addition to Meadowood and Fulton side-notched points, Steubenville points, and Adena-Rossville types, but now may have been used in conjunction with the bow and arrow (Lavin 1984:18). Adena-like boatstones are also found in this period. Although rare contact with the Adena culture is evident throughout assemblages of the period, the Early Woodland in southern New England remained a very gradual transitional period (Snow 1980:279,287; Lavin 1984:19).

A heightened use of ceramics has been erroneously promoted as an automatic indication of increased sedentism in many areas. Instead, central-based camps with restricted seasonal encampments appear to be the dominant settlement pattern (Snow 1980:287). Minimal archaeological evidence from the lower Connecticut River Valley appears to suggest a similar settlement pattern to the Terminal Archaic in which large riverine sites served as central bases with upland seasonal dispersal or specific task sites (McBride 1981; McBride and Dewar 1981:49), but with a lesser degree of sedentism. Interior uplands populations also decreased during the Woodland era, perhaps related to the intensification of agricultural resources along major riverine and coastal areas (Wadleigh 1981:83). The trend towards greater mobility may in part be attributed to the decline in the use of steatite that no longer gave certain groups control over critical and restricted resources, as indicated by the declining ceremonialism of burial sites at the time which were more often located in habitation sites and exhibited combinations of secondary cremation features and primary inhumations (Walwer 1996). This transition in the socio-economics of the region was brought about by the decrease in importance of steatite as ceramics obscured its value for producing durable containers. Partially preserved primary inhumations appear for the first time in the region based on preservation considerations.

Middle Woodland

The Middle Woodland period lasted from about 2,000 B.P. to 1,000 B.P. (Lavin 1984:19; Juli and McBride 1984; Cruson 1991; Juli 1999). The climate was returning to the conditions basically witnessed today (Davis 1969:420; McWeeney 1999:11). It is a period which exhibited considerable continuity with previous periods in terms of both subsistence and material culture. Cylindrical pestles and groundstone hoes are tools diagnostic of the period and reflect developing agricultural efforts, including the cultivation of squash, corn, and beans on a seasonally tended basis (Snow 1980:279). Direct evidence for agriculture in the form of preserved vegetal remains, however, does not generally appear until the early Late Woodland (Lavin 1984:21) when corn is thought to have been introduced into the Connecticut River Valley from the upper Susquehanna and Delaware River Valleys (Bendremer and Dewar 1993:386). Projectile point forms from the period include Snyders corner-notched, LongBay and Port Maitland side-notched, Rossville

stemmed, and Greene lanceolate types. A proliferation of ceramic styles was witnessed during the Middle Woodland (Rouse 1980; Lavin 1984:19-20, 1987; Lavin and Kra 1984:37), including Rocker Dentate, Windsor Brushed, Sebonac Stamped, Hollister Stamped, Selden Island, and Windsor Plain types that were all also produced in the Late Woodland, with the exception of the Rocker Dentate. Ceramic forms from the Early Woodland were still being produced as well. Minor traces of the Hopewell cultures to the west are also present in the archaeological record of this period. Site types and distributions in the lower Connecticut River Valley imply that a moderate increase of sedentism with aspects of a radiating settlement pattern took place on large rivers, supported by differentiated upland task sites (McBride 1981; McBride and Dewar 1981:49). This trend may have been supported by the expansion of tidal marshes up larger rivers (McBride 1992:14).

Late Woodland

The Late Woodland period extended from approximately 1,000 B.P. to 1600 A.D., the time of widespread European contact in the broader region (Snow 1980:307; Kehoe 1981:231; Lavin 1984:21; Feder 1984, 1999). A warmer climate and increased employment of large scale agriculture for subsistence in New England were associated with increased population densities, more sedentary settlements, and more permanent living structures and facilities in larger villages. Settlements in Connecticut, however, tended to remain smaller with only small scale agricultural efforts, and as part of a seasonal round in which smaller post-harvest hunting and task-specific settlements were established in fall, and protected settlements occupied in winter (Guillette 1979:CI5-6; McBride and Bellantoni 1982; Lavin 1984:23; Starna 1990:36-37). Instead of maintaining permanent villages near agricultural plots, aboriginal populations engaged in the slashing and burning new plots and let old plots lie fallow periodically (Salwen 1983:89). In this area, domestic resources included corn, beans, squash, Jerusalem artichoke, and tobacco (Guillette 1979:CI5; Starna 1990:35). Agriculture was largely maintained by women, with the exception of tobacco (Salwen 1983:89; Starna 1990:36). Deer, small mammals, fish and shellfish, migratory birds, nuts and berries, and other wild foods continued to contribute significantly to the diet (Waters 1965:10-11; Russell 1980). Many of the foods produced were dried and/or smoked and stored in baskets and subterranean holes or trenches.

The increasing diversity of wild estuary resources may have served to increase sedentism in the coastal ecoregions of Connecticut (Lavin 1988:110; Bragdon 1996:67), while agriculture and sedentism may have been even more prominent along the larger river bottoms (Bragdon 1996:71). Late Woodland settlement patterns of groups in the uplands interior ecozones of Connecticut may have included the highest degree of mobility, while many sites from the central lowlands represent task-specific sites associated with larger settlements along the Connecticut River (McBride 1992:16). House structures consisted of wigwams or dome-shaped wooden pole frameworks lashed and covered with hides or woven mats, and clothing was made from animal hides (Guillette 1979:CI7-8; Starna 1990:37-38). Pottery for the period is defined as the Late Windsor tradition in Connecticut (Rouse 1980:68; Lavin 1984:22, 1987). Most of the ceramic forms of the Middle Woodland were still being produced, in addition to the newer Niantic Stamped and Hackney Pond forms. Ceramics of the East River tradition also appear in the area during the Late Woodland, having originated and been concentrated in the New York area (Rouse 1980; Wiegand 1987; Lavin 1987). The period exhibits some continuity in terms of

projectile point forms, although the Jack's Reef, Madison triangular, and Levanna points are considered diagnostic for the period. As likely with earlier periods, the material culture included various textile products such as baskets and mats, and wooden utensils such as bowls, cups, and spoons (Willoughby 1935; Russell 1980:56).

Unlike groups of the Mississippi valley, the overall cultural pattern for the entire Connecticut Woodland era exhibits considerable continuity. Interregional contact increased during this period, however, with non-local lithic materials increasing from as low as 10% to as high as 90% from the early Middle Woodland to the Late Woodland (McBride and Bellantoni 1982:54; Feder 1984:105), although most trade appears to have been done between neighboring groups rather than initiated through long-distance forays (Salwen 1983:94). The lack of enormous agricultural surpluses for the time is indicated by the low density of small storage features in habitation sites, as well as the ubiquitous primary inhumation of people without a select portion of graves exhibiting special treatment that would require high energy expenditure (Walwer 1996). As confirmed by early ethnohistoric accounts, this suggests a largely egalitarian and relatively mobile society for the Late Woodland despite the fact that this period marks the highest development of food production (i.e. agriculture) during the course of prehistory in the region. Corn was undoubtedly important, however, as a disproportionate amount of the simple, flexed burials were oriented towards the southwest which was the aboriginally acknowledged direction for the origins of corn and the Spirit Land.

Local Sites and Surveys

According to site files of the Connecticut Office of State Archaeology (CT OSA 2023) and Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (CT SHPO 2023), there are ten previously recorded prehistoric archaeological sites within one mile of the project area (Figure 4). At about one mile to the southeast, the Uniroyal Nursery site (8-001) was surface collected by an amateur archaeologist, and produced a lanceolate quartz projectile point and debitage. More quartz tools and debitage were recorded at Bernard Berge's Site (8-025) nearby. The Claypit Field site (8-004) is about one-half mile to the southeast of the project area, where another surface collection procured a dentate stamped pipe stem, thus Woodland era to Contact period, and a similar find occurred about one mile to the southwest at the Carrington Site (8-019). The Krupien Site (8-027) is located about one mile to the west of the project area, where a narrow stemmed quartz projectile point was recovered. The Hinman Firehouse site (8-031) reportedly yielded hundreds of projectile points from a site just over one-half mile to the west. A Late Archaic Brewerton side-notched projectile point was recovered from the Paprosky's Vegetable Garden site (8-028) at about one mile east of the project area. Other sites (8-018; 020; 023) of the area do not have substantive information other than site location.

Summary

A low to moderate density of archaeological sites has been recorded in the region immediately surrounding the project area. Together with information from other surveys and previously recorded sites of the area, regional subsistence-settlement models described above are represented, with a variety of sites including smaller upland camp sites given the small stream environments in the area. The distribution of previously recorded sites is dispersed among the various tributaries of Bladens River, with most sites found by amateur archaeological surface collections, and possibly imprecise recording and mapping in some cases.

Figure 4: Prehistoric Sites of the Region

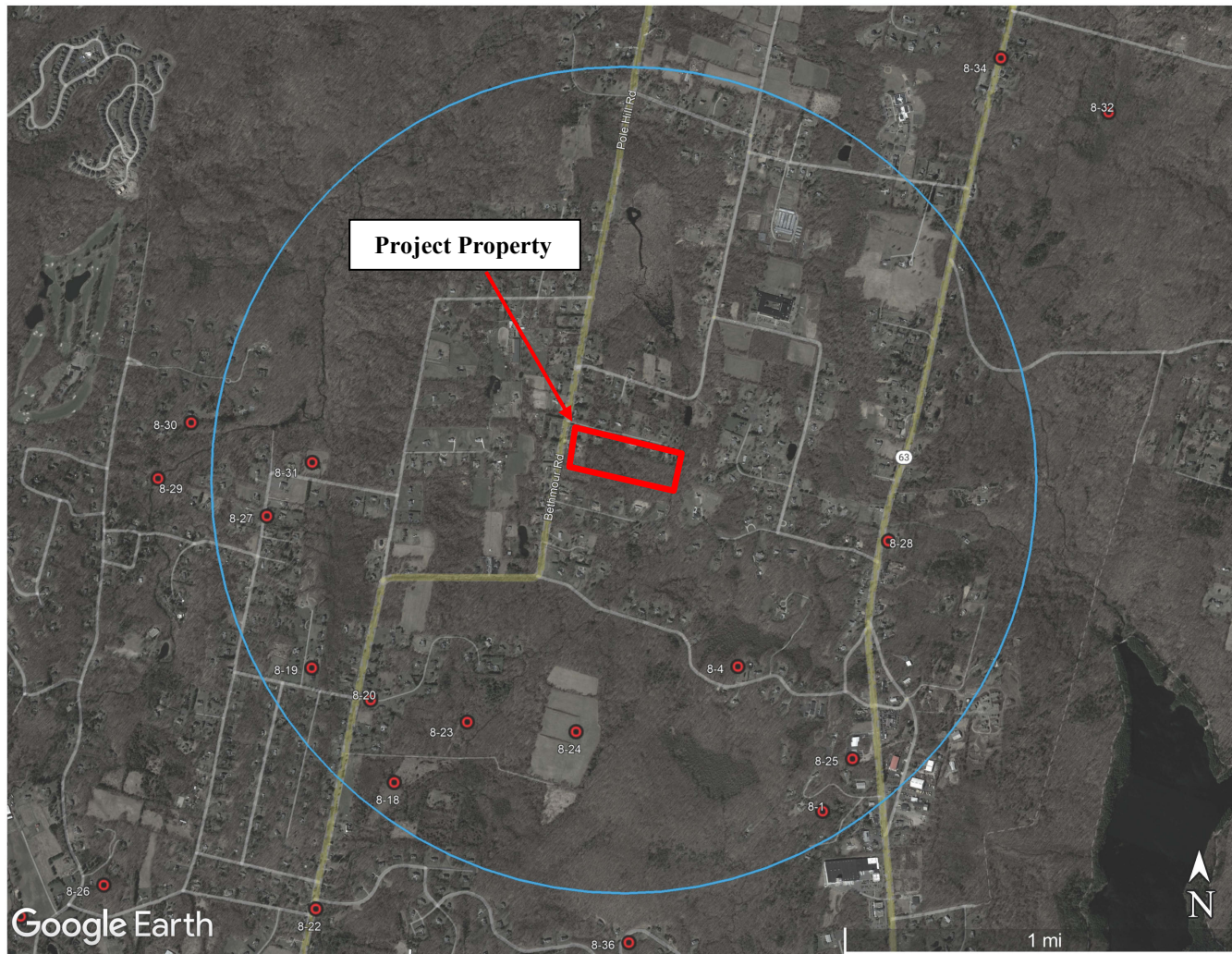


Figure 4: From CT SHPO 2023. Red dots are previously identified archaeological site locations, all prehistoric within the one-mile radius of 428 Bethmour Road.

Local History

Contact Period

The Contact period is designated here as the time ranging from the first substantial contact between Europeans and Native American inhabitants of the area, to the time the area was thoroughly occupied by Euroamerican settlers, from roughly 1600 to 1700. The first contact between aboriginal populations of the broader region and European explorers occurred in 1524 when Verrazano reached the coast of New England (Terry 1917:16). Others followed in the first decade of the 1600s (Salwen 1983). In 1614, Dutch explorers reached the Connecticut River (DeForest 1852:70; DeLaet 1909 [1625-1640]:43), and in 1625 they were met by the Quinnipiac in New Haven Harbor (Brusic 1986:9) when they established fur trading relationships with the native inhabitants in the region until the early 1630s (Guillette 1979:WP2-4). Substantial English settlements in the area started in 1635-1636. DeForest (1852:48) estimated about 6,000 to 7,000 Native Americans in Connecticut at this time, while Winthrop had estimated somewhere between 12,000 and 15,000 and most others (Trumbull 1818:40; Gookin 1970[1674]; Cook 1976; Snow 1980:35; Bragdon 1996:25) estimate between 16,000 and 20,000.

The composition of the tribes at the time of contact is fairly well known, although boundaries fluctuated significantly, as did the political alliances by which the tribes could be defined (Thomas 1985:138). Three major divisions of Algonkian speaking groups can be delineated, and their territories conform well to ecozone distributions (see Dowhan and Craig 1976:26 and Speck 1928:Plate 20), including the Mohegan-Pequot range in the Southeast Hills and Eastern Coastal ecoregions, the Nipmucks in the Northeast Hills and Northern Uplands ecoregions, and tribes of the Wappinger-Mattabesec Confederacy in the North Central Uplands and most of western Connecticut. The validity of the Wappinger-Mattabesec Confederacy as a cultural entity has been challenged (Salwen 1983:108-109), with many smaller and somewhat independent tribes occupying much of the western half of the state.

The Paugussetts and Naugatucks occupied the territory surrounding the project area at the time of initial contact, with the Paugussetts on the western side of the Housatonic and lower Naugatuck Rivers, and the Naugatucks to the north near the town of the same name, although records of various early land transactions suggest that the Paugussetts and Naugatucks were very integrated and closely affiliated, along with the nearby Pequannocks, Pootatucks, and Wepawaugs who have all been loosely termed Paugussetts (DeForest 1852:49-50; Guillette 1979:GH-1-2). The Paugussett confederacy of these five tribes occupied an area loosely defined by the West River of West Haven to the east, Sasco Brook in Fairfield to the west, the confluence of the Shepaug and Housatonic Rivers to the north, and further north along the Naugatuck River drainage (Spiess 1933:31; Guillette 1979:GH-2). According to Speck (1928), the Paugussetts were linguistically part of the larger Wappinger-Mattabesec Confederacy of tribes that extended west of the Connecticut River and onto Long Island.

Ethnohistoric sources yield clues to aboriginal Final Woodland and early Contact settlement patterns (McBride and Bellantoni 1982; Starna 1990:36-37). Spring settlements were located to take advantage of anadromous fish runs in larger drainages and along the coast. Late spring attention focussed on tending corn fields. Semi-sedentary settlements near these fields were supported by special task hunting and gathering sites. Dispersal in the late fall and winter brought smaller groups into protected, upland or interior valleys where hunting and gathering continued, for a longer duration in the Contact period than earlier and by a smaller subsistence

unit (family). Fortified villages were likely a response to very early Contact period intertribal political strife resulting from increased economic pressures of sedentism and territoriality (Salwen 1983:94; McBride 1990:101; but see Thomas 1985:136). One such fortified village of the Paugussetts is said to have been located on the Housatonic less than a mile north of its confluence with the Naugatuck River (DeForest 1852:51). Large villages were found to be associated with a central-based circulating settlement pattern with family units dispersing from and returning to the major settlement on a seasonal basis in the lower Connecticut River Valley and surrounding region in the early Contact period (McBride 1981). Eventually, however, many Native American populations had been dispersed and afflicted by disease, warfare, and intertribal conflict to the point that small, scattered reservations served as the last community sites for various aboriginal populations in the area. Small Native American settlements of the late 17th century may have been located at Hospital Bluff on the west side of the Naugatuck, and near East Mountain on Mad River to the east (Anderson 1896(1)).

The early Contact period economic base for Native Americans in Connecticut continued to consist of hunting deer and small mammals, gathering berries, nuts and roots, and procuring shellfish and fish on larger drainages and along the coast (Waters 1965:7; Salwen 1970:5). This basic subsistence strategy was supported by varying intensities of horticulture, including the production of corn as the staple, as well as squash, beans, Jerusalem artichoke, and tobacco (Guillette 1979:CI5; Starna 1990:35). The importance of corn is evident in the description of ritual activities, including the Green Corn Festival and similar ceremonies that extended with various groups into the present day (Speck 1909:194-195; Speck 1928:255; Tantaquidgeon 1972:81; Fawcett 1995:54-57). Elderly women held extensive knowledge of wild plants which provided a host of medicines and treatments (Tantaquidgeon 1972; Russell 1980:35-37). Wigwams continued to serve as the principal form of housing, in some cases well into the 18th century (Sturtevant 1975).

The material culture included a mix of aboriginal forms as well as some European goods such as metal kettles and other metal implements (knives, projectile points), cloth, glass beads, and kaolin pipes (Salwen 1966, 1983:94-96). Wampum served as an important trade item for the Native Americans with European traders, but more significantly had served as symbolic signs of allegiance or reciprocity and sacred markers or tokens of honor in the form of belts (Guillette 1979:CI8; Ceci 1990:58-59; Salisbury 1990:87; Fawcett 1995:59). With European metal drill bits, tribes along the coast were now mass producing wampum for trade with the Dutch and English who in turn used the shell beads to trade with other tribes further inland (Salwen 1983:96; Ceci 1990:58). Late Contact period Euroamerican goods included various metal tools, glass bottles, ceramic vessels, kaolin clay tobacco pipes, and nails (McBride and Grumet 1992). Unlike the Late Woodland, Contact aboriginal lithic products were once again mostly manufactured from local sources (McBride and Bellantoni 1982:54). Dugout canoes may have continued to provide a major form of transportation in larger drainages (Salwen 1983:91). While colonization brought new material goods to Native Americans in the area in exchange for land and services, the indigenous inhabitants became increasingly subject to legislative and economic restrictions by the colonists (Salisbury 1990:83).

Sachems and councils of leading males formed the basic political unit for groups of villages (Gookin 1970; Simmons 1986:12-13), along with clan mothers whose authoritative roles became diminished as a result of a strong European male-leadership bias (Fawcett 1995).

Tributes paid to sachems were generally used as reserves for the tribe at large. Although sachems were generally assigned by hereditary lineage, this was not always the case (Bragdon 1996:140-141). Authority was usually enforced by persuasion of a council. Shamans were "magico-religious" specialists of the tribes who also had a considerable role in leadership and decision-making (Speck 1909:195-196; Simmons 1986:43; Starna 1990:42-43). Rules of obligation and reciprocity operated on all levels of tribal-wide decision-making (Bragdon 1996:131-134), serving to diffuse centralized authority. Other special status roles included warriors and persons who had visions, thus social status was largely based on achievement and recognition. While the assignment of lineality (i.e. matrilineal vs. patrilineal) for the area tribes is still largely debated (Bragdon 1996:157), the well established practice of bride-ricing supports the contention of patrilineal social organization (Speck 1909:193; Salwen 1983:97). Post-marital residence appears to have been ambilocal.

On a larger scale, more powerful tribes demanded tributes from smaller ones, often resulting in loose alliances between the latter. This process resulted in a dynamic political situation that prompted intertribal conflict, especially after contact with Euroamericans (Guillette 1979; Bragdon 1996). The European settlers would eventually use this embedded rivalry system to their advantage. In the period between 1616 and 1619, and more severely around 1633, disease epidemics would initiate a trend of drastic reductions in the native population that aided in Euroamerican settlements of the area (Snow and Lanphear 1988; Snow and Starna 1989; Starna 1990:45-46). Diseases introduced into the Americas included chicken pox, cholera, diphtheria, malaria, measles, oncocercosis, poliomyelitis, scarlet fever, smallpox, tapeworms, trachoma, trichinosis, typhoid fever, whooping cough, and yellow fever (Newman 1976:671).

In 1637, the Paugussetts provided refuge for Pequots who were fleeing after their defeat in the Pequot "War", although this resulted in the defeat of the hosts by the colonists (Guillette 1979:GH-2). The Paugussetts may have been centered along the Naugatuck in western Ansonia at this time (Larson 1976:1). First land transactions between the Paugussetts and English settlers occurred in Milford about 1639 (Guillette 1979:GH-3-4).

Trade between the English colonists and the Paugussetts was apparently peaceful in the early part of the Contact period, but after the war between Hudson River tribes and the Dutch in the early 1640s, colonists in Connecticut became concerned about the possibility of "uprisings" and proceeded to enact laws which would restrict Native American activity (Guillette 1979:GH-4). Friction increased as the Paugussetts began to become familiar with the consequences of their previous land transactions as well as agreements to pay tribute to Connecticut for protection against the Mohawks. English settlers let livestock feed freely in Native American corn fields, and an effort by Wepawaugs to burn underbrush for ecological purposes in Milford resulted in a larger fire that was interpreted by colonists to be a Native American attack (DeForest 1852:222). Other tensions of the 1640s included personal skirmishes and issues over European weapon and liquor procurement by Native Americans in the area. As colonist populations grew and the perceived Native American threat diminished, land purchases proliferated in the 1650s. Early settlers of the Naugatuck Valley region were granted rights to mine graphite in the area by 1657. By 1665, almost all property in the southern portions of Paugussett territory had been sold by Ansantawae and the other sachems without full realization of the consequences (DeForest 1852:270; Orcutt 1972 [1882]:14-15).

The aboriginal populations of the area found it increasingly difficult to continue their original adaptations, and were allotted areas on Golden Hill (Pequannocks) in Bridgeport in 1659, and Turkey Hill (Wepawaugs) in Derby on the Housatonic in 1671 to serve as reservations (DeForest 1852:264; Orcutt 1972 [1882]:13; Guillette 1979:GH1) where many subsequently tried to subsist by manufacturing baskets and engaging in other small industries. Land disputes continued after this time, and in 1680 these conflicts led to the establishment of the Corum Hill Reservation in Huntington, the agreement for which included the rights of the Paugussetts to procure fish and game in the Derby area (DeForest 1852:270; Guillette 1979:GH-8). Native American populations declined throughout the Contact period, and many in southwestern Connecticut emigrated to the north and west after King Philip's War of 1675.

As early as 1639, Euroamerican settlers from New Haven started to occupy the greater Milford area, the town then including the western part of Bethany. Bethany territory itself was not occupied by Euroamerican settlers until Alexander Bryan of Milford purchased land from Nehantond, a Naugatuck tribal member, in 1664. As with their southern counterparts, these late sales resulted in the effective removal of northern Paugussetts to areas not yet occupied by English settlers to the north and west. By 1710, approximately 500 Paugussetts remained in the greater Housatonic valley region (Cook 1976:68).

18th Century

In 1731, the Paugussett Nation was dismantled (DeForest 1852:354; Guillette 1979) as removals continued. Waterbury had a short-lived Quinnipiac reservation on the southeast part of East Mountain at this time (Anderson 1896(1):357). The Turkey Hill reservation population was supposedly reduced to four persons by 1774, and the Golden Hill reservation population reduced to seven by 1765 (DeForest 1852:354-355). The end of the 18th century witnessed the continued decline of reservation populations due to land sales, Euroamerican encroachments on the land, as well as migrations to other parts of the state and New York during the "Brothertown" movement (Guillette 1979:GH-8,9). These combined factors essentially led to the end of aboriginal adaptations by the end of the 18th century when most Native Americans of the region were forced to become somewhat integrated into Euroamerican communities. By 1850, very few Paugussetts were in the area, most having moved to join the Scaghticokes or Iroquois further to the north (Spiess 1933:31).

A substantial land purchase in 1700 by Milford settlers was known as the "Two-Bit Purchase," signifying the small amount of compensation for what was not likely fully comprehended as exclusive, indefinite land-use rights. Other land sales followed in the early 18th century. Amity Road (Route 63) was a well established route through Bethany by the first quarter of the 18th century, connecting Waterbury and New Haven. Amity Parish was incorporated by the General Assembly in 1738, consisting of most of Bethany and Woodbridge territory (Whitlock 1982:10; Sharpe 1989:41), and the Congregational Church was built at the Woodbridge town green a few years later. The first schoolhouse of Amity was constructed at the intersection of Old Amity Road and Meyers Road about one-half mile east of the project area in 1750 (Sharpe 1989:104). In 1762, Bethany and Woodbridge were divided, with Bethany Parish receiving its name from a biblical reference (Lines 1905:2; Whitlock 1982:143-144; Sharpe 1989:2,9). The first Congregational Church in Bethany was built at intersection of Amity Road and Dayton Road, also about one-half mile east / northeast of the project area, and completed by

1773. Bethany supplied men and provisions to the militia effort of New Haven following an attack by the British in the summer of 1779, although Tories of the area were still active. The town of Woodbridge was formally incorporated in 1784, and at that time included Bethany territory (Whitlock 1982:148). Litchfield Turnpike (Route 69) was built and improved by the Straits Turnpike Company in 1797 (Sharpe 1989:111). Bethany Union Library was founded in 1798, and the Episcopal Church was organized in 1799.

19th Century

The project property was probably part of the Daniel Tolles family land holdings of the early 19th century, and it was likely farmed at that time. A mid-19th century map (Whiteford 1852) shows N. (Nehemiah) Tolles as the owner of a homestead to the north of the project property on Bethmour Road, with no other homes on the east side of the road at that time (Figure 5a). Early 19th century industry in Bethany was focused on wool production (Sharpe 1989:45). The town of Bethany was not separated from Woodbridge and incorporated as its own town until 1832 (Lines 1905:6; Whitlock 1982:142,149; Sharpe 1989:2). In an unfortunate event to follow, the first selectmen removed a last indigenous Native American family to Derby, who were then mostly wiped out by smallpox. New schools and churches were built (Sharpe 1989), and the town reached a population of 1,170 by 1840, followed by an overall decline in population until the early 20th century due to the migration of farmers and others westward (Whitlock 1982:149). A railroad line from Cheshire to Plainville was built in 1848 to within two miles of Bethany to the east.

By the mid to late 19th century, the Johnson family owned the project property and other lands on the east side of Bethmour Road. Nearby the project property, the Street B. Todd family owned a 22-acre parcel with a dwelling acquired from his father-in-law Spencer Hotchkiss according to land records (Land Records Volume 5, page 208 - 1857), with the Johnsons owning land on all sides except for the highway to the west. The house was a Greek Revival structure (Bunton 1972), likely built in the 1830s to 1850s, thus possibly the same as Tolles house but mapped to the south of the project property, likely in error (Figure 5b). Unlike the Todd parcel, there was no mention of any particular structures on parcels owned by the Johnson family that surrounded the 22-acre parcel.

The late 19th century of Bethany was marked by the development of utilities. In 1888, the West River was dammed to form Lake Watrous that was managed by the New Haven Water Company, followed by the creation of other lakes over the next decade (Sharpe 1989:44). The telephone was introduced to Bethany by 1898.

20th Century+

At the start of the 20th century, the town population was reduced to 517, about one-half its peak from the prior century (Lines 1905:7). A chestnut blight in 1910 depleted an important lumber supply in town. A town hall was built in 1914, and the Bethany Grange was organized the following year. Amity Road was paved in 1918. 1920 witnessed the low point in Bethany population at just 411 people, followed by steady population increases. In 1934, the school system began to consolidate, with the Bethany Community School on Peck Road replacing four one-room schoolhouses. In 1936, Clark Memorial Library was established.

Figure 5a: Historic Sites of the Area (1852 Map)

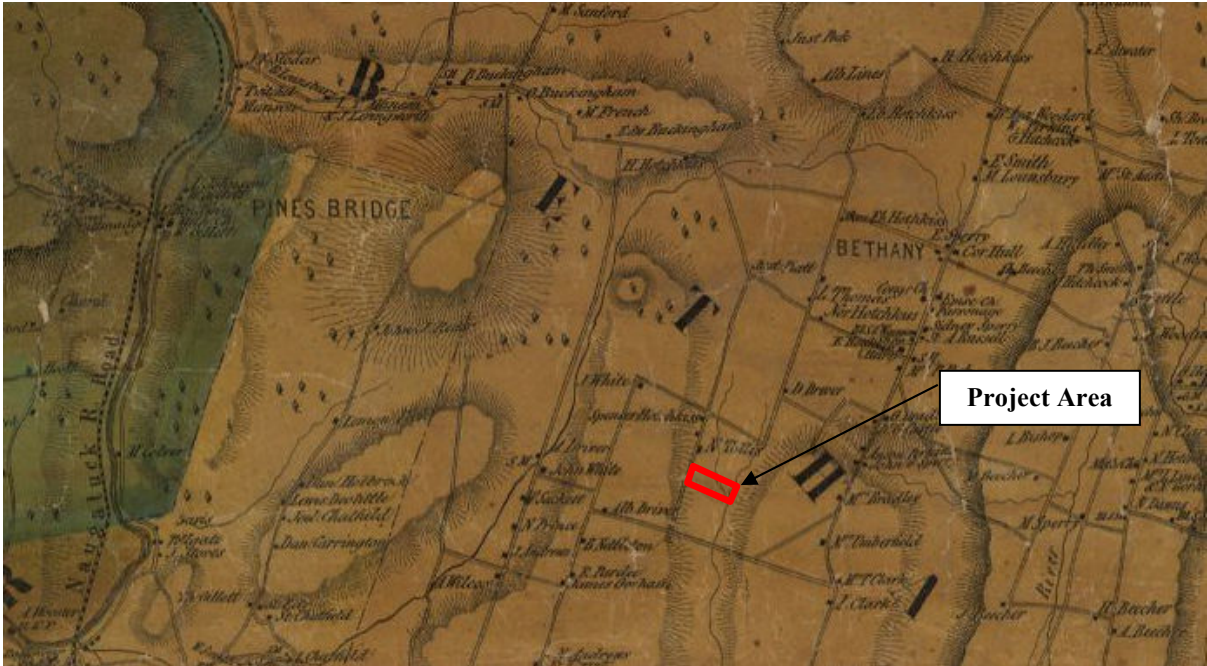


Figure 5a: From Whiteford 1852.

Figure 5b: Historic Sites of the Area (1868 Map)

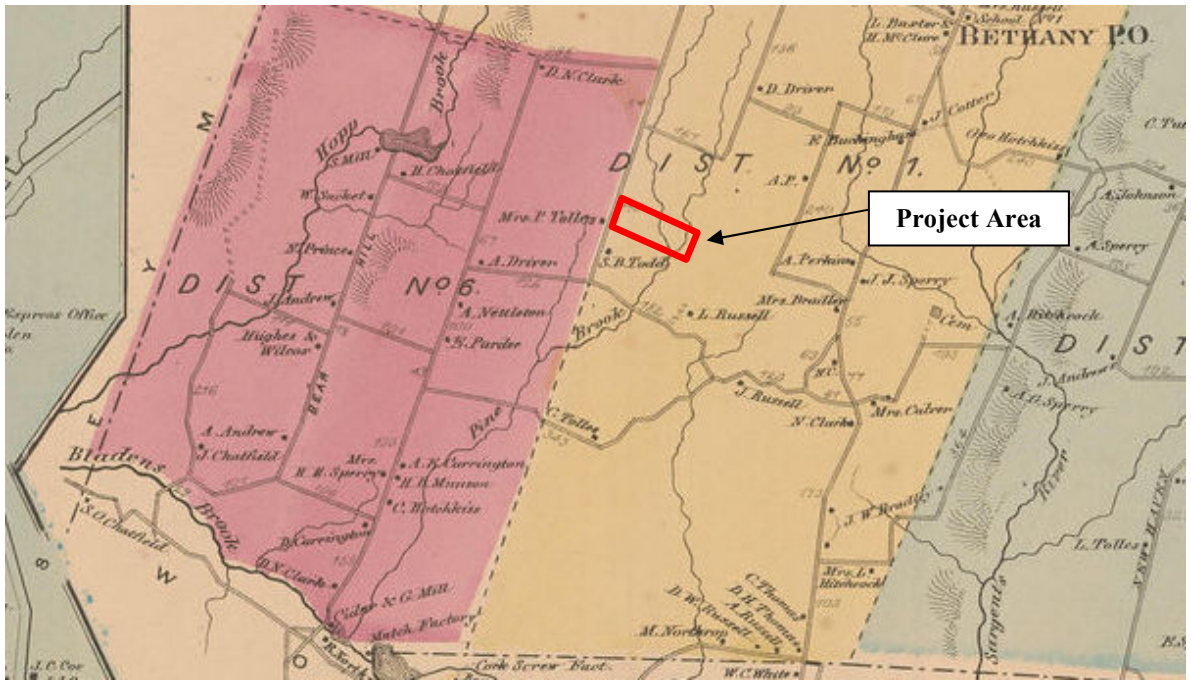


Figure 5b: From Beers 1868.

In 1915, Dwight L. Johnson sold 37 acres of land inclusive of the project property to Morris Liebman and others (LR Volume 12, page 248). Fifteen years later, rights were conveyed to the Drazen Lumber Company, and by 1936 Lena Krupien had ownership of the property. A survey map from 1935 shows the Drazen Lumber Company land before acquisition by Krupien, with an existing house directly to the north of the project property that is listed as Parcel “V,” and the same map showing the delineation of stone wall alignments that still exist today. The house to the north likely relates to the Street B. Todd house (Town Historian William Brinton, pers. comm. 2023), and it is likely that the depiction of that house on the Beers 1868 map to the south of the project property was in error (see Figures 5c and 5d).

The housing boom that followed World War II reached Bethany. The small house that occupies the project property was built in 1949 according to the town assessor’s office. By 1950, the population of the town was 1,318, triple that of the low point three decades earlier. By 1960, the population nearly doubled again, to 2,384, and by 1970 it nearly tripled to 3,857. The Rolling Green Acres subdivision of the 1960s directly to the north of the project property and on other land nearby included the Street B. Todd homestead site, with the project property listed in land records and on survey maps as Parcel “V,” including the 2.51 house lot of the project property and the 19+ acres to the rear. A survey map from 1980 shows the existing house and detached garage on 2.05 acres, surrounded by other land owned by Krupien and some Rolling Green Acres subdivision land directly to the north, where the Street B. Todd house was razed in 1964 (Bunton 1972).

Local Sites and Surveys

The only property in Bethany recorded with the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) consists of the Wheeler - Beecher House on Amity Road over one mile northeast of the project area (Clouette 1976). The house was built in 1807 by David Hoadley (builder of the United Church in New Haven) for first owner Darius Beecher, who subsequently moved west and reportedly lost his family fortune (Sharpe 1989:101). The Street B. Todd house, a Greek Revival House owned by father-in-law Spencer Hotchkiss, was located to the south of the project property on Bethmour Road, and was razed in 1964 as the only historic house in the area at that time (Bunton 1972). There have only been two professional archaeological surveys in Bethany, one related to an electric transmission line through Bethany (Raber 2013), the other related to the Bethany Farms subdivision located in the southern part of town (CAS 1994). There are no historic archaeological sites previously recorded within one mile of the project area.

Summary

Originally a part of the larger town of Woodbridge, Bethany was not incorporated until 1832, and remained very agricultural until the middle of the 20th century. The project property was owned by the Johnson family by the middle of the 19th century, although it appears to have remained as open land until the 1930s when the Drazen Lumber Company had control of the property for a brief time. The 1949 existing house was set on a two-acre lot carved off a larger parcel, with the land owned by the Krupien family for much of the 20th century.

Figure 5c: Historic Sites of the Area (1934 Map)



Figure 5c: From Fairchild 1934.

Figure 5d: Historic Sites of the Area (1947 Map)

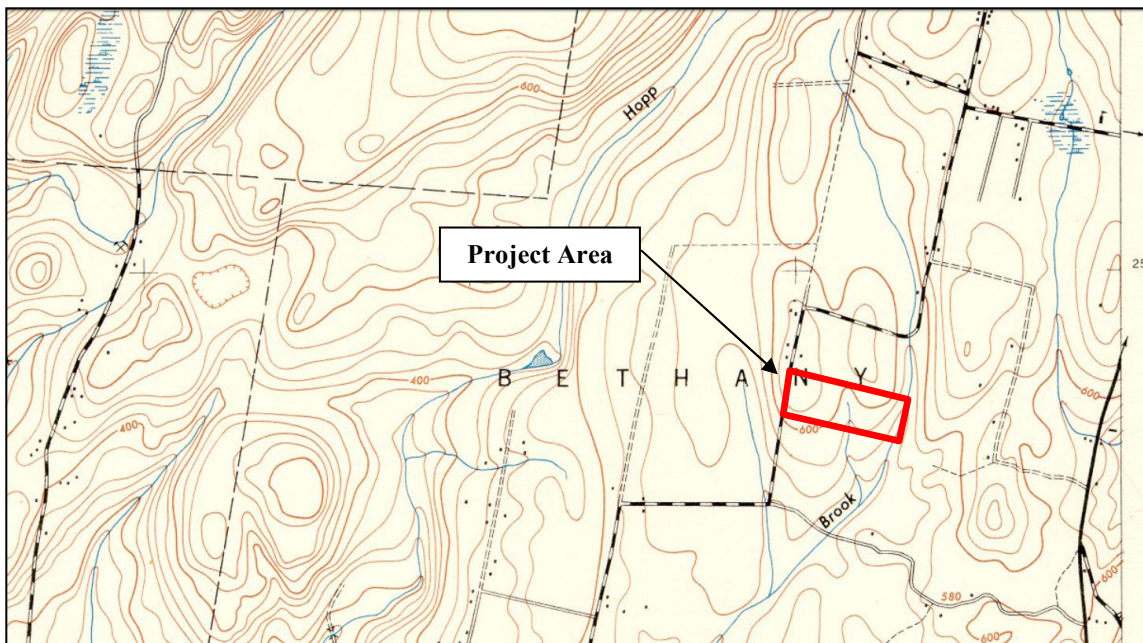


Figure 5d: From USGS 1947.

CHAPTER 3: CONCLUSION

Prehistoric Sensitivity

Background research and the pedestrian surface survey indicate a low sensitivity for potential prehistoric cultural resources in the project area. A statistical prehistoric landscape sensitivity model developed and employed by ACS utilizes eight environmental variables to rank sections of project properties relative to a scale of 100.0 (www.acsarcheology.com/sensitivity-model.html). In this case, the project area scores no higher than 6.5 out of a possible 100.0, and therefore solidly within the low (0-20) sensitivity range. Factors contributing to this low sensitivity score include great distance to the nearest major water source for the project area, rocky hill slope context, and fine particle fraction for dominant soils. Pine Brook does flow through the very eastern end of the project property, although this section of the property is on the order of 1,000 feet to the east of the project area of development, and only a minor body of wetlands lies in close proximity to the eastern end of the project area where there are moderate slopes and very rocky soil contexts. A review of previously recorded prehistoric sites in the region reveals none in close proximity to the project area, with sites concentrated close to substantial water sources, particularly on glacial meltwater landforms and alluvial terraces. No further archaeological conservation efforts are required for the proposed project development with respect to potential prehistoric cultural resources.

Historic Sensitivity

Historically, the project area has a moderate sensitivity for historic cultural resources. The project setting was probably on the outskirts of Naugatuck settlement range during the Contact period, a tumultuous time when indigenous populations were experiencing significant impact from non-indigenous disease, land occupation by Euroamerican settlement, and removal to other regions. Euroamerican settlement was minimal during the latter part of the 17th century, and was relatively sparse by agriculturalists until the early 20th century. Amity Road (Route 63) and then Litchfield Turnpike (Route 69) were early traveled routes through Bethany, which was not incorporated as a town until 1832. By the 1850s, the project property and surrounding lands were owned by the Tolles family, with the Nehemiah Tolles homestead located to the north on Bethmour Road. By the 1860s, the Greek Revival house owned by Spencer Hotchkiss had been conveyed to his son-in-law, Street B. Todd, mapped in error by then to the south of the project property, with that homestead sold many times during the 20th century and finally razed in 1964. The surrounding land, including the project property, was owned by the Johnson family for much of the 19th century, likely acquired from the Tolles family. Land records and historic maps reveal that the existing house on the project property was built in 1949 on land owned by Lena Krupien and acquired from the Drazen Lumber Company and otherwise apparently vacant from the mid-19th century through the present, although it is possible that the Tolles family or predecessors could have constructed earlier homesteads along Bethmour Road in the vicinity of the project property.

The existing house on the project property that was constructed in 1949 is one story and measures only 620 square feet (Figure 6). It bears a concrete foundation, asphalt shingle pitched roof, and vinyl siding. A small detached garage just south of the house dates to 1952 (see Figure 6), and an associated shed dates to approximately 1980. The house and barn are in excess of 50 years old, but they do not bear distinctive architectural qualities that could render them eligible for the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). Both are within an open field with tall grass and thick scrub growth reflecting lack of recent occupation (Figure 7). The ground surface surrounding the house and throughout the surrounding fields appear to be relatively undisturbed, and are separated from the wooded section of the project property to the east by a historic stone wall alignment (Figure 8). Constructed of locally available granitic gneiss, the various stone wall alignments of the property are depicted on current and historic survey maps (Figure 9), and are likely on the order of 200 years old, although they are not well formed. Their principal historic value is in their mapping, which could be useful information regarding historic agricultural lot sizes, particularly where there were different uses of the land within historic farms.

ACS recommends that any part of the development project within 300 feet of Bethmour Road be subject to a Phase Ib archaeological reconnaissance survey in advance of any construction impacts (Figure 10). The historic route of Bethmour Road is known to have contained homes dating back to the early 19th century and possibly earlier, and there could be traces of homesteads preceding those that appear on available historic maps or in land records confidently associated with prior land owners. Any such remains could reveal important information regarding Euroamerican population expansion into the frontier parts of early colonial settlements. Any further archaeological study of the project property should be subject to review by the Connecticut State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO).

Figure 6: House and Garage



Figure 6: East view of the house and garage at 428 Bethmour Road.

Figure 7: Field



Figure 7: Southeast view of the open field containing the house, with scrub growth.

Figure 8: Stone Wall – Field Edge



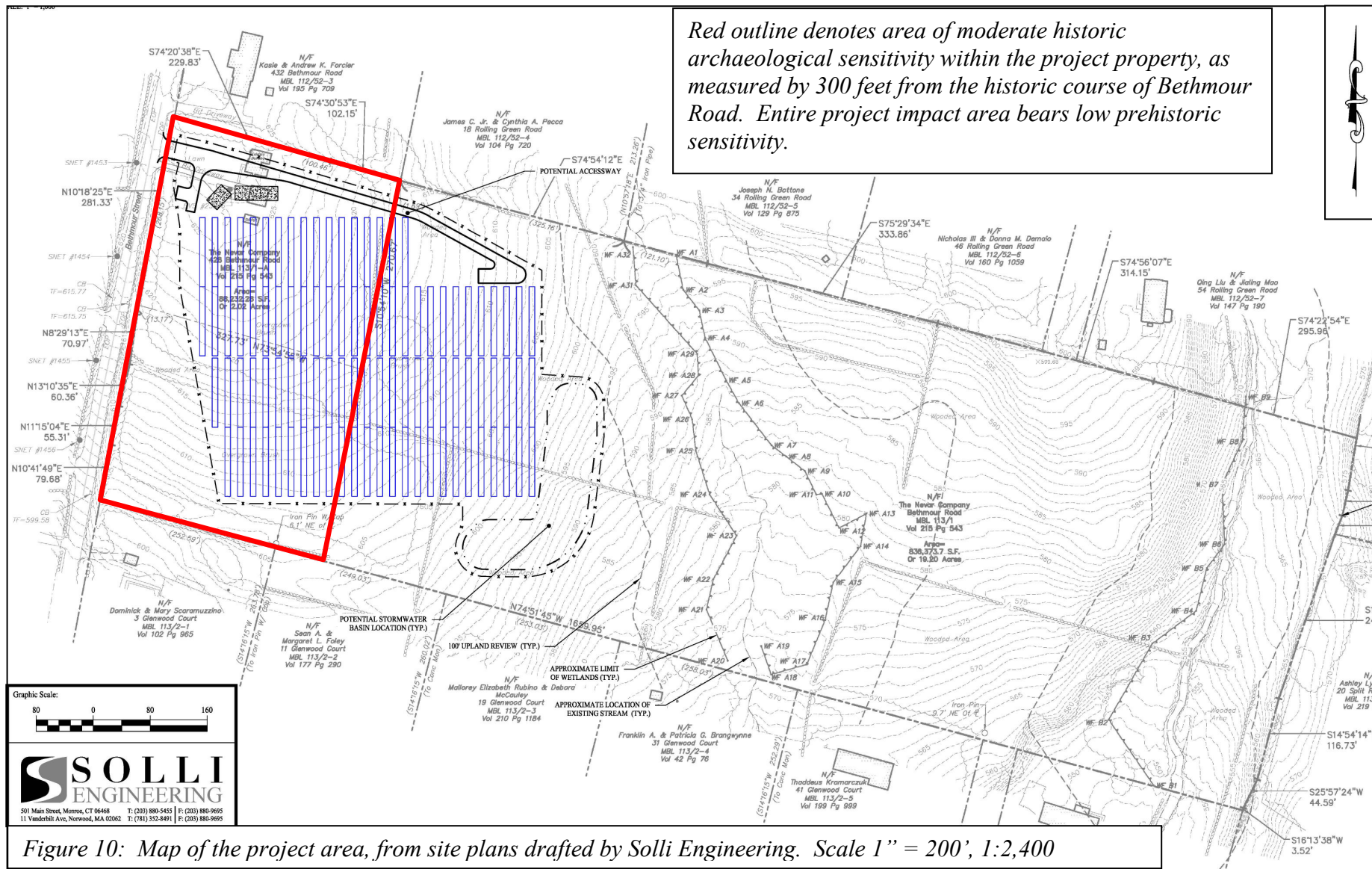
Figure 8: Southwest view of weakly developed stone wall alignment separating the open field in background from the wooded section of the property. A piece of oxidized farm equipment rests on the wall, scale bar five feet.

Figure 9: Stone Wall – Wooded Section



Figure 9: Southwest view of stone wall alignment in the wooded section of the project area.

Figure 10: Cultural Resource Sensitivity Map



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