HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR EVALUATION OF COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE

Historic View of Fitzgerald's Auto Salvage, Along U.S. Route 113 Near Lincoln

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INTRODUCTION

These historic context statements for commercial roadside architecture in Delaware's five geographic zones were developed in association with cultural resource investigations undertaken by the Cultural Resource Group of Louis Berger & Associates, Inc., for the Delaware Department of Transportation's proposed dualization of U.S. Route 113 between Milford and Georgetown in Sussex County. The context statements were developed in accordance with the standards of the 1989 Delaware Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan. According to the plan, the following elements are identified relative to the context: the appropriate historical time period, the specific geographic area (of the five defined by the comprehensive plan) to which the context applies, the historic themes which explain a property's significance, the representative property types, the predicted distribution of properties within the geographic zone, the standards for evaluating properties, the bibliography of sources consulted, the issues and goals for future research, the guidelines for updating the context, and a summary of recent preservation activity.

The Route 113 Milford-Georgetown project area lies within the Lower Peninsula/Cypress Swamp Zone, which occupies roughly the southern third of the state. At the request of the Bureau of Archaeology and Historic Preservation (BAHP), context statements were also developed for the Piedmont Zone (the northernmost portion of the state, except the City of Wilmington), Upper Peninsula Zone (the southern half of New Castle County and most of Kent County), the Coastal Zone (including the entire length of the Delaware coastline south of the Wilmington city limits), and the Urban Zone (including the City of Wilmington and the corridor to the north of the city and east of I-95).

Within this appendix the context for the Lower Peninsula/Cypress Swamp appears first. It is followed, in order, by the contexts for the Piedmont Zone, the Upper Peninsula Zone, the Coastal Zone, and the Urban Zone.

CONCEPT: Auto-influenced Commercial Roadside Architecture of Delaware's Lower Peninsula/Cypress Swamp

TIME PERIOD: 1880-1940

The advent of the automobile age was acknowledged in Delaware by passage of the first laws governing motor vehicle use in 1903. By the end of World War I, state and county programs were actively working to upgrade and modernize the region's road network. While road improvements occurred more slowly in this region than in other areas around the state, the completion of the du Pont Highway in 1924 significantly improved market access for the predominantly rural population.

GEOGRAPHIC AREA

The Lower Peninsula/Cyprus Swamp Zone occupies the southern third of the state. It is divided into thirds by the north-south roads US 13 and US 113. US 13 bypasses the centers of Harrington, Greenwood, Bridgeville, Seaford, and Laurel, while US 113, paralleling State Route 213, serves the communities of Ellendale, Georgetown, Millsboro, Dagsboro, and Selbyville. US 9 is a primary east-west thoroughfare, linking Laurel and Georgetown with Lewes and the rest of the coastal resorts. The majority of roads in the region follow irregular paths in a general north-south or east-west orientation. Larger commercial centers are identifiable by the roads radiating into the surrounding area from the town centers.

HISTORIC THEMES

1. INCREASED MOBILITY

The invention of the automobile opened a new frontier to the American public by providing economical freedom of travel not possible when journeying by train. The traveler was emancipated from the rigorous schedule set by the railroads as well as from the high priced hotel-restaurant monopolies that "served" train travelers (Belasco 1979:3). There was also latitude to see parts of the country that were not directly accessible via rail. Driving all day and camping along the roadside at night the traveler could set his own schedule and itinerary.

The American fascination with things new and modern embraced the invention of the motor car almost instantaneously. By 1906 popular magazines were referring to the automobile as a necessity (Flink 1970:50). The application of assembly line technology in the 1910s permitted the production of large numbers of well manufactured, inexpensive vehicles, making autos more readily accessible to the middle and working classes. Livery stables began to rent automobiles in addition to horses, and many wagon makers became car manufacturers (Flink 1970:52-53). The automobile phenomenon reached such proportions that some families mortgaged their homes in order to purchase a car, and in rural areas, many families owned a car before they installed indoor plumbing.

When asked why, one farm wife responded, "why you can't go to town in a bathtub!" (Vieyra 1979:3).

The car, or truck, enhanced the economic opportunities available to rural residents by making market centers more accessible. While unmaintained and unimproved rural roads inflated the cost of hauling crops to market, improved road conditions, coupled with the faster speed of cars and trucks, increased farmers' financial yield by shortening the length of the journey to market and reducing the amount of produce lost to spoilage. The increased profitability of farming was reflected in a corresponding rise in land values as well (Flink 1970:204).

Often, the first automobile seen by rural residents was driven by the local doctor. In rural communities house calls by doctors, especially in cases of emergency, were more common than trips to the doctor's office in town or the area hospital. The faster mode of travel reduced the physical strain on the country doctors themselves and enabled them to provide their patients with better service. The stress on doctors was further reduced as more rural residents owned cars and the number of visits into town to see doctors in their offices or at area hospitals increased. The car also enabled families to travel into town on Saturday nights to shop and to socialize, providing relief from the farm routine and reducing a family's distance from the neighbors (Wik 1980:39-41).

Truck transportation of goods received a major boost during World War I when bottlenecks in the railroad networks encouraged manufacturers to ship their products via truck. However, the solid tires used by trucks caused considerable damage to the new "modern" highways. The development of harder road surfaces and pneumatic tires for trucks in the early 1920s ensured the superiority of the trucking industry as the most efficient and economically viable option for transporting goods to market. Trucks usurped the role of trains as intra- and interstate road systems improved and the railroad network, mired in its own troubles, sank into decline. In 1927 (the first year such records were kept) there were 6,061 commercial trucks registered in Delaware; by 1940, 15,000 trucks registered in Delaware were traveling the roads (Mack 1947:547). The Delaware produce industry was a major beneficiary of increased truck transportation as vehicle ownership made larger and more distant markets accessible to farmers.

Truck-related road improvements also spurred the development of passenger buses. Buses provided stiff competition to the railroads as a passenger carrier. Interstate bus service began around 1924 and within a decade connected Delaware to the main bus routes across the country (Eckman 1938:81). Like car travel, bus travel allowed voyagers to reach areas of the country not accessible by rail, but without the expense of owning a vehicle.

The development of national highways and interstate bus routes through Delaware in the mid-1920s bolstered the existing tourist trade. The highways linked the beaches at Rehoboth, Lewes, Bethany and Fenwick Island to metropolitan centers, such as Baltimore, Philadelphia and Washington, as well as to local urban communities, such as Wilmington (Munroe 1984:204). The Delaware shore was now accessible to a large segment of the mid-Atlantic population for short, day or weekend jaunts and to an even larger group for longer vacations.

A number of social benefits accompanied the new ease of travel and the improvements to the roads. Bus service permitted consolidation of the public school system (Mack 1947:547). Prior to the invention of the automobile it was very rare for rural students to attend a public school more than walking distance from home, and many one and two room schoolhouses dotted the countryside. By contrast, regional schools, replacing several smaller schools, were centrally located along improved roads to facilitate bus service for students from a greater area than was previously possible. Drawing from a larger regional resource base, consolidated schools were able to offer students, as well as the rural community, intellectual and social opportunities not previously available, such as graded classrooms, instruction in a greater variety of subjects, and library and laboratory facilities. Farm children with access to an automobile were able to do their chores in the morning before driving to school to attend class. As a result, more students in rural areas were encouraged to attend and to graduate from high school (Wik 1980:46).

As the quality and quantity of modern roads improved, there was a gradual shift in residential and commercial growth patterns. The value of land with direct access to the highway rose in proportion to the Americans' dependence on the automobile (Munroe 1984:204). Greater distances could be covered in less time, and workers could live a greater distance from their places of employment. The result was the development of middle and working class suburbs outside of existing town nuclei (Interrante 1980:93). Especially following World War II, new communities were developed to house the families of returning G.I.'s, who were able to travel by car to their workplaces in town and to live in new, modern, residential communities. The construction of the Interstate Highway system in the 1950s further altered the face of the landscape as businesses moved out of congested urban centers to parcels with easy access to the highway.

A 1926 Directory enumerated the positive impacts of paved roads on Delaware. Included were the construction of new houses along the new state highways and the refurbishment of old buildings, increased truck farming, increased tourism ("attracted first by the good roads"), and the cost savings of operating a vehicle on concrete roads versus dirt roads (McGill [1926]:9,11). Within fifty years after the introduction of the automobile to the state, and to the nation, the Delaware State Highway Department declared that, "business, social life, the church, the public schools, the delivery of the mails, the distribution of food and the movement of produce from farm to market" were all dependent on "modern [motor] transportation, moving over modern highways" (State Highway Department 1940:35).

2. DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE ROAD SYSTEM

When automobiles were first introduced in Delaware and the rest of America, the poor condition of the road system prohibited their widespread use. Rapid improvements in automobile construction and technology soon produced a vehicle that was superior to the road on which it drove (Flink 1970:202, 211). After the turn of the century automobile owners and motor vehicle dealers began calling for the construction of improved roads. Delegates to the National Good Roads Convention, held in St. Louis in 1903, advocated state and federal aid for road and highway construction and maintenance (P.A.C. Spero & Co. 1991:180). Later that year, the General Assembly of Delaware passed "An Act Regulating the Use of Automobiles on Public Highways of this State," allotting

$30,000 a year in matching funds for the construction of permanent roads throughout the state. By the following year, eight miles of macadam road had been constructed in New Castle County, one mile was built in Sussex County and no roads had been improved in Kent County. The law was repealed in 1905, and road improvement continued very slowly until World War I (Mack 1947:538).

After the repeal of state funding in 1905, New Castle County initiated its own program of road improvements as modern roads became a necessity for serving the transportation needs of the industrial and commercial center of the state, focused around Wilmington. Between 1905 and 1908 the county constructed nearly 73 miles of improved roads. By 1916, 220 miles of modern roads were to be found in New Castle County. By comparison only 35 miles of road had been surfaced in Sussex County and only 19 miles had been improved in Kent County by 1917 (P.A.C. Spero 1991:180-181).

Only a few individuals owned automobiles in Delaware prior to 1903. In 1907, the first year registration records were kept, there were 313 cars in the state (Mack 1947:538). As Jacob L. Bauer and H.W. Griffin, New Jersey State Highway Engineers, succinctly stated, "On railroads heavy vehicles are driven by picked men with years of experience. . . . On highways heavy vehicles are driven by all kinds of people of varying experience on a path of the driver's choosing which may at any moment become obstructed by another vehicle" (quoted in Mack 1932:3). The increasing number of inexperienced drivers after 1903 led to Delaware's first driving regulations, the state's first official acknowledgment of the Automobile Age.

The Act of 1903 required that all automobiles be equipped with a horn, a bell, or other similar warning device. Two years later, Delaware law required the licensing of drivers and the registration of vehicles. The speed limit was set at one mile in three minutes, and lights and brakes were required for driving on public highways (Mack 1947:538). There were 1,000 motor vehicles registered in Delaware in 1911, a sufficient number for the Delaware Automobile Association (formed in 1904) to offer to the Legislature a State Highway Bill calling for "an improved stone highway from the northerly to the southerly boundary line of the State" (*The Delaware Motorist* November 1929:1).

Three years prior to this, Coleman du Pont had offered to build for the State a four lane divided highway which would run from Wilmington to Selbyville (Rae 1975:171). In the March 16, 1912 issue of *Scientific American,* Coleman du Pont outlined his plans for the du Pont Boulevard. As originally proposed, the 110 mile road was to be constructed with a macadam or concrete base, surfaced with waterbound macadam or asphalt and trap rock. The width of the road would vary depending on the volume of local traffic; however, the universal acquisition of a 200-foot right-of-way was desired, so that the road could be expanded as future use required. The center portion of the right-of-way would be allocated for automobile traffic. Flanking the auto lanes, working out from the center, were trolley tracks, lanes for "heavy freight traffic," carriage paths, and pedestrian sidewalks. Utility cables and pipes would be buried beneath the carriage paths, and any remaining land within the right-of-way would be leased to farmers for agricultural experimentation (du Pont favored the use of steam powered machinery over animal power) (du Pont 1912:244-245). du Pont also advocated that his road bypass the centers of towns but be connected to the main street via spur roads.

Initially the public feared that the bypasses would cause businesses downtown to suffer. By the time the State Highway Department was created in 1917, the idea of the bypass had become well accepted, and the first department report (1917-1920) admitted, "in many instances it is better to have the trunk roads laid out near the towns rather than through the towns" (State Highway Department, quoted in P.A.C. Spero & Co. 1991:182). Typically a secondary business district, more accessible to automobile travelers, formed outside of Main Street along the new road (Liebs 1985:26).

In March 1911, the Legislature approved the creation of the Coleman du Pont Boulevard Corporation to oversee the acquisition of the right-of-way and construction of the road. Construction began the following October near Georgetown. As ten mile sections of the road were completed they were conveyed to the State, completely free of charge (Rae 1975:172-174). Difficulties acquiring rights-of-way and litigation opposing construction tied up the project for several years, limiting progress until 1917 (Mack 1947:541; Rae 1975:174).

From 1,000 automobiles registered in Delaware in 1911, the number grew to 3,050 in 1914 and skyrocketed to 10,702 in 1917 (Mack 1947:544). The surge in car ownership was a nationwide phenomenon, and it spurred national interest in upgrading the country's road system. The United States Congress passed the Federal Aid Highway Act in 1916, providing for federal matching funds (up to 50 percent or $10,000 per mile) to the states for the construction of post roads. However, funds were available only to those states having a highway department staffed by qualified engineers capable of directing the road construction efforts (Mack 1947:544).

In response to the federal act, the Delaware State Highway Department was created in 1917. The department received the authority to build and maintain a "'permanent' modern highway system extending into all corners of the state." An important element of the act was a provision allowing the highway department to issue bonds in order to raise the matching dollars. This enabled the department to begin construction of the improved roads without delay (Mack 1947:544). By the end of 1917, analysis of traffic volumes, road patterns and conditions, as well as projected demands for increased truck shipping, resulted in a plan for the development of a state road system with three primary highways running north-south (State Highway Department 1920:15). These three roads correspond to modern Routes 1, 13, and 113.

The first years of the State Highway Department's existence fell during World War I, limiting the availability of labor, materials, and equipment. The important role of roads in the battles of Verdun and Paris illustrated "the necessity for constructing essential highways," and the first contracts were for the construction of 39 miles of roads in the northern part of the state "deemed useful for military purposes, and for the transportation of food and supplies to and from the State" (Mack 1947:546; State Highway Department 1920:11). Six years after the creation of the highway department, 89.6 miles of modern roads had been built in Delaware (Mack 1947:546). By 1926, the Chief Engineer of the State Highway Department, W.W. Mack, boasted that "every town and hamlet in the state was connected to the state highway system with a hard surfaced road, and few farms were far removed from an improved highway" (Mack 1947:547).

The du Pont Boulevard Corporation turned over construction of the du Pont Boulevard shortly after the creation of the State Highway Department. Coleman du Pont continued to pay construction costs, not to exceed $44,000 per mile plus the cost of acquiring all rights-of-way (Mack 1947:546). Of the originally estimated 103 miles of road, 96.7 were in place when the road was completed in 1924 at a cost of $3,917,004 to du Pont (Mack 1947:546; Rae 1975:171). It was described in the Federal Writer's Project guide to the state as, "two double north and south roads, with a tree-planted parkway between [them] . . . The du Pont Road, with the diverging trunk line south of Dover, has become the backbone of an extensive system of paved highways connecting with the main Nation-wide systems and interconnecting all the towns and rural districts of the State" (Eckman 1938:17). While the finished road was not as grandiose as du Pont had envisioned, the completed du Pont Highway was the longest multiple-lane dual highway in the world and was widely used as a prototype for the design and construction of multiple lane highways nationwide (Mack 1947:548).

Realizing that the user received benefits in proportion to his use of the road, the Delaware General Assembly, in 1923, passed the state's first motor vehicle fuel tax to support the continued development of the state highway system. The tax was levied at one cent per gallon the first year. It was raised to two cents per gallon in 1924 and to three cents per gallon in 1927 (Mack 1947:547).

As early as 1925, the Joint Board on Interstate Highways began to designate a network of interstate roads, two of which passed through Delaware. The first, National Route No. 13 (the du Pont Highway), ran from Philadelphia through Wilmington to North Carolina. The second, transcontinental National Route No. 40, began at State Road Station, on Route 13, and passed through Baltimore, St. Louis, Denver, and Salt Lake City before reaching San Francisco (State Highway Department 1925:17).

Between 1926 and 1935 Delaware entered a second phase of road development. Many primary roads were expanded, often to divided highways, in order to handle an increasing volume of traffic and higher speeds of travel (Mack 1947:548). Initially, when the existing highways became inadequate, a third, passing lane was added between the two travel lanes to be shared by traffic moving in both directions. As easily can be predicted, this led to a huge increase in the number of traffic accidents as cars traveling in opposite directions, passing cars in their own lanes, hurtled toward each other.

Chief Engineer Mack wrote in 1932, "broad highways are conducive to high speed but high speed is consistent with safety on such highways provided traffic at all times keeps to its own side of the road" (Mack 1932:3). He continued, "a white line down the center of a road is about as effective in keeping some drivers out of the left-hand lane as is a 'No trespass' sign in keeping cows out of a corn field" (Ibid.). By contrast the Delaware State Dual Highway (the expansion of du Pont Boulevard) provided a textbook example of optimal highway design. Between State Road and St. Georges, "a 20-foot concrete pavement was built parallel to and 50 feet east of the original du Pont Highway" (State Highway Department 1929:19). Dual lanes of traffic were divided by "an artistically laid out landscape" permitting traffic to move at high speeds, while eliminating the chance for collision between cars moving in opposite directions (Mack 1932:3). The added safety of the divided highway design was touted as increasing the pleasure of driving by reducing the glare of headlights and the threat of collisions with oncoming cars (State Highway Department 1930:41).

At the same time, the State Highway Department commenced development of a secondary road system (Mack 1947:548). Experiments, begun in 1925 to find a suitable material for paving secondary roads at a moderate cost, used crushed slag mixed with local soil (State Highway Department 1925:19). In 1935, at the recommendation of the Governor, the General Assembly directed the State Highway Department to assume control of all highways maintained by the counties. The existing state highway system totaled 1,239 miles of primary roads, including 46 miles of dual highway. To offset the maintenance cost of an additional 2,600 miles of roads, the state gasoline tax was increased by one penny, to four cents per gallon (Mack 1947:548-9). By 1940, 44 percent of the 3,930 miles of roads in the state system were paved and received a rating of "dustless or better." The remaining roads were surfaced with slag, gravel, or dirt (P.A.C. Spero & Co. 1991:189).

State highway departments often constructed a variety of roadside structures, including parks, picnic areas, turnouts, overlooks, and information booths, at intervals along the new, modern highways. A turnout was the most basic roadside feature. This was simply a safe spot on the shoulder of the road, usually within the right-of-way for an automobile to pull over. There were no special requirements for locating or siting a turnout, and no special equipment was needed. When found at a point with a commanding view, such as a river valley or mountain range, a turnout was deemed a scenic overlook. A scenic overlook was slightly larger than a turnout and was protected with a retaining wall, typically using a rustic treatment, such as large boulders or logs (Gubbels 1938:57).

A common variation of the turnout was the picnic area. Picnic areas were located outside of the right-of-way, on land purchased by the highway department or given to the highway department as a gift by a local individual or chamber of commerce. Located at regular intervals, perhaps five to ten miles apart, a picnic area encompassed one-half acre to one acre of land and was accessed from the road via a turnout. These areas were often wooded or shaded by scattered trees. They were equipped with "tables of rustic design, and benches of similar construction" as well as "an outdoor fireplace . . .for the campfire." Picnic areas were considered optimal spots for tourists to stop for lunch or to take a rest from driving, as well as for truck drivers to catch a few hours of sleep (Gubbels 1938:56-57).

3. COMMERCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The expansion and improvement of the road system fueled the popularity of the automobile. Over 10,000 motor vehicles were registered in the State of Delaware in 1917 (Mack 1947:544). State Highway Department policy advocated the construction of new, modern roads outside of existing downtown districts. Enterprising citizens realized the potential of the vast market opening up in the auto service industry and began to establish businesses along the new thoroughfares. As a result, secondary commercial districts grew up along the roadsides to service the specific needs of the auto traveler. As *Fortune* magazine wrote in 1934, "Along the great American Road, the Great American Roadside sprang up prodigally as morning mushrooms, and completed a circle which will whirl for pleasure and for profit as long as the American blood and the American car are so happily married" (*Fortune* 1934, quoted in Liebs 1985:21-22). The new establishments commonly included gas and

service stations to fuel and maintain the vehicles, restaurants and tourist courts to fuel the passengers, and various stands and shops to offer diversions.

A. Auto Support Facilities

Service Stations and Auto Parts Stores

At the turn of the century, early automobile owners purchased gasoline by the bucketful from the local livery or dry-goods store, usually located on the outskirts of town (Vieyra 1979:3). Not only was the process cumbersome and messy, but spillage and evaporation of the fuel could lead to volatile situations. The first fuel pump, developed in 1905 by Sylvanus F. Bowser, was a storage tank fitted with a hand pump and housed in a waterproof cabinet that could remain outside, locked at night (Vieyra 1979:4). Encouraged by the simplicity of the pump system, business owners began selling gasoline in town at general stores, hardware stores, and independent establishments. These same establishments also began stocking spare parts for car owners who wished to perform routine maintenance tasks on their vehicles.

As the national road system expanded in the 1920s, so did pleasure travel, and so, accordingly, did the presence of gas stations, as well as businesses specializing in auto repairs or stocking solely auto parts. While auto parts stores were generally relegated to newly developed commercial districts, service stations sprang up at regular intervals along highways, as well. Individual pump islands, found in association with roadside stands, tourist camps, and diners, were equally prolific. In an effort to attract customers, oil companies developed standardized station designs and identifiable company colors and logos so that travelers away from home would feel comfortable purchasing their usual brand name gasoline from a familiar looking station. Oil companies invaded the market of the auto repair shops and parts stores when they expanded their services to include oil and lubricants as well as tires, batteries, and accessories. The addition of pits and lifts to the assemblage at the gas station encouraged customers to view the station as an alternative to the repair shop, making the full-service station a commonplace entity by the end of the 1920s (Vieyra 1979:8-9).

Extras, such as free road maps and restrooms, were used to attract customers as well (Vieyra 1979:9). Many oil companies published regional tour guides, in an effort to promote tourism, as well as consumption of their product. The Hearn Oil Company published such a guide to the Delmarva Peninsula in 1926. The book included information on driving, fish and game laws of each state in the area, maps delineating several auto tours, distance charts between cities, and histories and descriptions of the towns through which the motorist would pass, including illustrative photos of downtown sights and the local Hearn filling station.

Auto Showrooms

The first car dealers were often businessmen already engaged in the trade of horsedrawn vehicles. Automobiles were first sold and serviced at livery stables, blacksmith shops and carriage shops. As car sales boomed, the more adventurous dealers dropped their other lines of merchandise and focused their business on the horseless carriages. In the first decade of the twentieth century, dealerships were most often found along Main Street (Liebs 1985:75-76).

As the volume of automobile sales, as well as the number of auto makers, increased, dealerships moved out of crowded downtown areas to the commercial districts developing along new highways and modernized roads. In larger population centers, clusters of competing car dealerships along the new highways often formed an "automobile row" (Liebs 1985:81-83). Land outside of the central business district was available in greater quantities and at a lower price, and dealers were able to construct larger sales rooms and service centers with ample display windows to exhibit their products.

Starting in 1930, car sales dropped sharply in reflection of the nationwide economic depression. In an effort to attract consumers, dealers placed new emphasis on service and reliability of their products. Less attention was focused on glamorous showrooms, and more attention was paid to service departments. New car production ceased completely during World War II, and dealerships directed their attention to providing maintenance and spare parts for vehicles already on the road (Liebs 1985:86-87).

The market for second-hand vehicles arrived soon after the first automobile. Many Main Street dealerships provided showrooms for used cars in the upper stories of their buildings (Liebs 1985:77). When new vehicle production ceased during World War II, second-hand vehicles replaced new models as the focus of the showroom floor. Owning an automobile was already perceived as a necessity to much of the nation, and the reduced purchase price of a second-hand vehicle made car ownership a reality for a larger section of the population (Anderson 1989:47).

When automobile production resumed at the end of the war, there was a tremendous surge in the number of new vehicles purchased. The cars on the road were beginning to age, and when the restrictions on new vehicle construction were lifted, dealers were overwhelmed trying to meet the public's pent-up demand for new vehicles. The growth in the number of car dealers mirrored the demands of the consumer public (Liebs 1985:87-8).

When a car was no longer serviceable it reached its final resting place in the salvage yard. Cars brought to the salvage yard often had parts that were still valuable although the vehicle itself was no longer serviceable. The bodies of the cars were scavenged for parts that might still be usable by repair shops and do-it-yourself repairmen.

Bus Stations

The improvement of roads across the country facilitated bus service as a commercial alternative to train travel. Like automobiles, buses were able to journey over roads to places not serviced by trains, providing public transportation at faster speeds and with greater comfort than the stage coaches that had preceded them.

In the early years of bus travel, ticket offices and pick-up points were often found at a local drug store, restaurant or hotel. Bus service expanded rapidly, reaching a rate of 10 to 15 percent growth per year between 1935 and 1940. Soon the different bus companies constructed distinct terminals. In larger cities revenue from tickets could virtually support the facility. However, in smaller cities, where ticket revenue was less significant, a variety of concession stands supplied the station with

additional revenue. These included, but were not limited to, restaurant or cafeteria, travel bureau, newsstand, barber shop, shoe shine stand, beauty shop, drug store, and retail shops. Eating facilities, whether cafeteria or full service restaurant, were in all stations, as were waiting rooms and rest rooms (Pack 1941:83-84).

B. Eating Establishments

Tea Rooms

When car owners began taking Sunday afternoon drives, food stands and restaurants sprang up along the roadsides to serve hungry and thirsty motorists. The cleanliness and quality of food served at the stands was often questionable, leading to nicknames such as "Ptomaine Joe's Place" or the generic, "hot-dog kennel" (Liebs 1985:204-206). As auto-touring became increasingly popular late in the 1910s, tea rooms were established to provide a clean and elegant family dining atmosphere. Typically located in a building of historic significance, the tea room attracted the attention of city dwellers in search of quaint country villages and rural scenery. Women, usually college educated, owned and operated the tea rooms and catered to the desires of female travelers, providing a safe, family-oriented atmosphere in contrast to the unsavory alternatives. The owners fostered the respectability of their establishments by creating a homey, nostalgic atmosphere and offering a menu of afternoon tea, cold drinks, and ice cream (Liebs 1985:197).

Diners

Although diners became a roadside staple, the roots of the diner are more firmly placed in an urban context. The earliest diners, established at the turn of the century, were located in cities near factory gates, serving quick, hot, home-cooked meals to factory workers (Anderson 1989:64). The same principle of fast, efficient food was applied to the roadsides eateries. Diners, set up along roadsides, provided the same service to motorists that they offered to urban workers. The name and form of the diner was derived from the railroad dining car, and like its mobile predecessor, the pre-fabricated diner was portable and could be erected on any suitable lot (Langdon 1986:45). Along the road they provided truck drivers, businessmen and other travelers with the hearty home-cooked fare that was first served to urban factory workers.

Family Restaurants

Because the cozy, country charm that defined the character of the tea room was often perceived as too dainty for the men in the traveling party, and the diner was often viewed as unsuitable for the entire family, a more well-rounded establishment combining a wholesome environment with a broader menu and less overtly feminine atmosphere developed in the form of the family restaurant. The preeminent restaurant of this class was the Howard Johnson chain, started in 1929. Howard Johnson started as the owner of a small pharmacy and soda fountain in 1925. Johnson expanded the fountain menu to include hot dogs, hamburgers and other easily prepared items in addition to his famous, superior quality ice cream. Believing that the automobile would change the American landscape, Johnson established a chain of restaurants focused on his fast-food menu aspiring to provide American travelers with "good food at sensible prices" (Howard Johnson Franchise

Systems, Inc. [1990]:2). During the Depression Johnson began franchising the Howard Johnson name in exchange for a fee and an agreement to purchase supplies and food from him. By 1935 over twenty-five Howard Johnson roadside stands had been established in the northeast, and by 1940 the chain included over 100 restaurants along the Atlantic Coast (Howard Johnson Franchise Systems, Inc. [1990]:2). The Colonial buildings with bright orange roofs and blue-green trim were easily recognized by motorists in speeding cars, and the Howard Johnson name was equated in their minds with the universal menu, reasonable cost and efficient service. Local versions of the family restaurant were ubiquitous along America's highways. Following Howard Johnson's formula, all offered a standard menu of easy to prepare foods peppered with local specialties.

Fast-Food Chains

Johnson's aim of providing a good, quick, inexpensive meal at an establishment with wide recognition was perfected by the fast-food chains. By offering a limited menu, the fast-food chains were able to offer fast, efficient service at a low price. Due to the rapid overturn of customers they served a greater quantity of food than traditional sit-down restaurants. Like Howard Johnson, the fast-food chains developed often fanciful, company imagery that instantly identified their establishments to travelers. The first fast-food chains, predating Howard Johnson, were White Castle and White Tower, started in 1921 and 1926 respectively. They were designed to be clean ("white") and predictably consistent, each member of the chain serving the same menu, using the same formulas and ingredients, from buildings with the same appearance (Anderson 1989:23). The staple of fast-food chain menus was the hamburger, the perfect carry-out food—hot, easy to package, and not requiring utensils to eat. The castle imagery of both chains provided a distinctive image from existing establishments and adapted to the modern materials of Art Deco and streamline styling. As products of the automobile age, the fast-food outlets located roadside were surrounded by parking lots, providing ample space for motoring customers entering and exiting the premises, and the carry-out trade enabled the construction of restaurants with a smaller seating capacity than would have been feasible otherwise (Langdon 1986:37).

In 1948, McDonalds improved on the model created by White Castle and White Tower by developing a self-service restaurant with a pared-down menu and minimal service. The incorporation of assembly line techniques and standardization of products allowed the output of over one million hamburgers and shakes and 160 tons of french fries a year. Drawing on the success of White Castle and White Tower's architectural imagery, the now internationally famous golden arches became the McDonalds signature in 1955. The following year the first outlet of the Burger King chain, soon to be McDonalds' primary competitor, was opened (Liebs 1985:213).

Drive-In Restaurants

In the 1930s the ultimate, auto-associated restaurant type, the drive-in, was gaining widespread popularity. The optimal drive-in was a circular or octagonal building set in a large parking lot. Outside of California, rectangular drive-ins were common with canopies sheltering the walkway between parallel rows of parking spaces. Patrons would drive up and without getting out of their vehicles would be served by "car-hops" (Langdon 1986:63-64). Pylons, embellished with neon, rose from the roofs of the buildings to attract the attention of motorists. The drive-ins were enormously

popular during the post-war years of the 1940s. However, during the 1950s, competition from fast-food chains, such as McDonalds, Kentucky Fried Chicken, and Dairy Queen, usurped the role of the drive-in on the American roadside (Langdon 1986:71-72).

C. Lodging

Tourist Camps

At first, auto vacations took the form of camping, or "gypsying" as it was popularly known. The auto traveler claimed independence from the constrictive routes and itineraries of the railroad, instead setting off for out-of-the-way places, stopping at night to camp alongside the road (Belasco 1979:3). Auto-camping evoked the spirit of the pioneers' "self-reliance and warm family fellowship" (Belasco 1979:41). "The people who arrive at 5 welcome those who arrive at 6. Friendship at first sight being the American rule, outside the cities, they are all thoroughly acquainted by 7" (Robbins 1934:8). The automobile was not touted as a costly extravagance, as some opponents claimed, but as a "democratic, efficient and indeed frugal alternative" to the travel options otherwise available (Belasco 1979:42). The *Motor Camping Book*, by Elon Jessup, explained the rationale for camping over staying in a hotel. "What matters if night finds one in the center of an expansive desert many miles from the nearest hotel? In five minutes you set up a hotel of canvas that is much more satisfying than any builded of brick and stone. [In the morning] no more hanging around. . .waiting for a cafeteria to open, or the sleepy garage owner to appear and release the family Lizzie. They arise with the lark, or a few jumps ahead of him, hustle the breakfast without regard to fletcherizing, dismantle camp and are on their way once more" (quoted in Belasco 1979:44).

Around 1920, municipalities began establishing free campgrounds along main roads in the centers of towns. The municipalities believed that attracting travelers to stay over night would bolster the local economy as visitors ate in local restaurants and shopped in local stores. Many travelers welcomed the added convenience and modern facilities provided by the campgrounds, and the campgrounds sought new features that would improve their reputation on the autocampers' grapevine (Belasco 1979:4). Fifty to sixty carloads of campers stopping daily at an average small-town camp could expect to find a 10- to 15-acre campground providing clean water, maintained privies, electric lights, wood or gas stoves in a central kitchen, cold showers, a laundry room with washboards and tubs, and a caretaker (Belasco 1979:72). The free camp industry faltered as the maintenance of campgrounds strained municipal budgets and as less reputable travelers kept away the vacationers who would spend money in town. As a result, a fee system was established as a means to keep out the "riff-raff," such as migrants and itinerants, and to maintain the quality of the campground (Belasco 1979:4).

Once paying a fee for camping privileges became an accepted practice, private campgrounds sprang up behind gas stations, in farmers' fields, and anywhere an enterprising landowner along the highway saw fit. Private campgrounds tended to be smaller, quieter and more selective about who was allowed to stay. They offered the same services that the free camps had provided as well as the congenial atmosphere that had initially attracted people to the adventures of gypsying. Soon the

private camps were preferred by the mainstream of middle class travelers, and free, town-subsidized campgrounds were a thing of the past (Belasco 1979:126).

Tourist Cabins and Cabin Courts

Around 1920, some campground owners began to build cabins for travelers desirous of more comfortable and private accommodations. Like campgrounds, tourist cabins could be found in various places along the roadside, a few in one farmer's backyard, a few more next door to the diner and service station, and perhaps a dozen at the top of a scenic ridge and a hundred or more at a state or national park.

The idea caught on among travelers as the novelty of hauling camping equipment and supplies wore off. The cabin operators provided beds and linens (although customers could provide their own linens for a savings in cost), stoves and indoor plumbing (Belasco 1979:4). Facilities were expanded and further upgraded during the Depression when former hotel patrons turned to the lower-cost cabin camps for their lodging. The one-stop facility, containing cabins, gas station, and restaurant, became a very profitable marketing boon. The office, manager's quarters, and restaurant typically were located in a single building at the center of the parcel, occasionally with an island of gas pumps in front, just off the highway with the cabins arranged in a horseshoe around them. A sign at the roadside invited travelers to stay.

In 1922, only 1,000 cabin courts were recognized by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce. Four years later the number had doubled, and twelve years later, in 1934, 32,000 camps, serving 30 million clients and producing a revenue of $500 million, were accounted for (*Architectural Forum*, May 1937:464). It was estimated that the construction of over 400,000 individual "'shacks' for autoists" on the outskirts of towns and at "locations with special scenic advantages" constituted the most active division of the building industry during the early years of the Depression, between 1929 and 1933 (*Architectural Record* December 1933:457).

The ideal was to create a camp that offered the comforts of a modern hotel with the carefree camaraderie of the tourist camps. Typically run by a husband-and-wife team, the cabin courts displayed a woman's touch in decor, with curtains in the windows, doilies on the dresser, and flower boxes out front. All of these features were meant to offset the reputation of cabin courts as the scene of the illicit rendezvous and to set traveling women at ease, thereby bringing in the family trade (Belasco 1979:139). The cabins also became popular with business travelers when companies reduced expense accounts during the Depression (Belasco 1979:140).

By the mid-1930s, cabins, lined up in a row, were often connected to adjacent units by covered car shelters. Both the appearance and marketing of the cabins were moving toward the modern motel image. The first national convention of the Tourist Cottage Owners Association met in Jackson, Tennessee, in the fall of 1937, and among the topics discussed was a newly established chain of tourist cabins called Tourist-Traveltowns, Inc. By the summer of 1938 the proto-motel chain hoped to be established at seven locations in seven states (*Architectural Forum* 1937). The aim of the cabin court chain was to provide travelers with quality accommodations for a reasonable price at courts approximately a day's drive apart. The company intended to establish a reputation for quality

and cost-efficiency, so that travelers in an unfamiliar part of the country coming across a Traveltown cottage court could anticipate the amenities available and would select familiar accommodations over the unknown. However, the concept of the chain motel would not be fully realized for another twenty years.

By 1940, private bathroom facilities had become an expected amenity in cabins, while kitchen facilities were less desired. By this time, middle-class Americans were accustomed to indoor plumbing, and women, no longer wary of restaurant food, looked forward to not cooking while on vacation. In response, renovations before World War II saw the conversion of former kitchenettes into bathrooms to accommodate the changing desires of the auto-travelers (Belasco 1979:166).

Motels

The motel evolved when lodging providers began to erect a single U-shaped structure instead of individual cabins. This method permitted construction of more units at a lower cost and in less time. The motels offered the same accommodations and amenities as the cabin courts, often including an on-premises restaurant and/or filling station. The greatest boom in the motel industry occurred following World War II. In 1939 there were approximately 13,000 motor courts nationwide. By 1948 that number had doubled, and the number of motels reached 41,000 by 1952. This was due in large part to the end of the Depression and the resurgence of the auto industry (Belasco 1979:170).

In 1940, architect Harwell Hamilton Harris cited the highway hotel as "an ideal subject for standardization. . .in a cross-country chain" (quoted in *Architectural Forum*, October 1940:248). As Tourist-Traveltowns recognized in the thirties, after World War II standardized motel designs would appear like friendly faces to travelers far from home. When the family saw the Colonial-esque buildings and bold, colorful logos that became signatures for the lodging chains, such as Holiday Inn, Howard Johnson and Ramada Inn, they could anticipate the quality and service they would encounter inside. The chains combined hotel service with the perks of tourist camps. Free parking, easy check-in, and an informal family atmosphere were all elements that attracted the family vacationer to the motel.

The organization of roadside accommodations began in the late 1930s as an outgrowth of travel recommendation services provided by local and regional groups, including the Automobile Association of America. As a service to its members AAA published guide books rating lodging facilities across the country. Travelers were able to choose an establishment rated against a standardized set of criteria. Referral chains also developed as groups of motor courts joined together under a common name or logo, setting common standards for quality, and publishing guides to their locations. Best Western is a well-known referral chain that started in 1946 with 50 members. It expanded rapidly in the 1950s and included over 2,700 affiliates internationally by 1980 (Liebs 1985:185).

Franchising presented an alternative to the association of independent affiliates in referral chains. In franchised chains, a local owner paid a fee to the parent company for the right to operate a franchise. In exchange for maintaining standards of quality comfort and service, the national office

supplied a logo and architectural plans, as well as market analysis, management advice, financing, and prolific advertising (Belasco 1979:170). Motels evolved into brand-name products—the name provided the assurance of quality and the contents of the package could be easily anticipated. By projecting the same wholesome, American image nationwide, the companies erased the lingering image of the illicit motel rendezvous.

Now ubiquitous, Holiday Inn was the first modern motel chain. The idea came to founder Kemmons Wilson after a summer vacation with his family. Dissatisfied by the dearth of suitable accommodations, Wilson developed a motel plan aimed at the middle-class family which included a swimming pool, in-room phones, and a "kids-stay-free" policy. In 1958 the concept was franchised to home builders, who were able to erect such a facility with a minimum of cost and effort. The next year Wilson, along with architect Bill Bond and engineer Bob Reeves, revolutionized motel design. Wilson's original plan was similar to existing motel plans, featuring a one-story free-standing frame structure, housing the office and a restaurant, surrounded by a single-story building containing the rooms. The focus of the new design was the now ubiquitous, two-story U-shaped structure of concrete construction, with standard-sized, 12' x 18' rooms accessible via an exterior corridor. The economical design was easy to mass produce and was quickly adopted as a prototype for motel design (Roessler, personal communication 1991).

Wilson's Holiday Inns were joined the following year by Howard Johnson, who began to sell motel franchises along with his restaurants. Already many local investors had been reaping large profits from motels constructed next to Howard Johnson restaurants (Liebs 1985:185). By becoming involved in the motel business, Johnson recouped some of the lodging profits for the chain and gained control over the quality of accommodations provided by the motels.

The concept of the motel chain was gaining momentum as construction of the Interstate Highway System was beginning in the late 1950s (Roessler, personal communication 1991). Franchise operators, often with financial backing from national chains, purchased land near interstate interchanges and built motels within view of passing motorists. The familiar logo and company colors visible from the highway were comforting beacons to weary travelers who knew what they would expect to find if they stopped there for the night (Belasco 1979:172). At the same time that it gave life to the national motel chains, the Interstate signaled the decline of the small, independent motels, unable to afford land within view of the interstate and without the widespread advertising and national reputation of the chains. The nature of the interstate system produced a driver who wished easy-on/easy-off access to services. The motels that had thrived on the traffic of the state and national highways were all of a sudden located "too far" from the road.

D. Other

Roadside Stands

Roadside stands were among the earliest and most prevalent features of the automobile era, as local farmers set up small stands along the side of the road to sell goods to passing motorists. By their very nature, roadside stands were simple frame sheds erected along the side of the road, perhaps

with a few off-street parking spaces. Some stands were more elaborate structures resting on concrete foundations and having door and window openings.

The merchandise available at the stands varied. Many were limited to excess produce that a farmer, or gardener, could not consume and did not wish to sell at market. Other stands sold cold drinks, as well as ice cream or sandwiches. Some sold post cards and souvenirs. Some small stands evolved as additional merchandise was stocked. A farm stand that originally sold produce might begin to carry cold drinks and later, perhaps sandwiches. Soon a spot for motorists to sit while they ate was added as well as a gas pump in response to repeated requests for gasoline. Camp spots or cabins might be rented in the area behind the stand, perhaps in a side yard or the edge of a field. The roadside stand ranged from a very simple establishment, a means of earning extra money by selling excess produce, to a more complex, multi-service facility.

Miniature Golf Courses

Following World War I there was a great resurgence of interest in the game of golf. By the mid-1920s, practice courses using a patented surface material made from crushed cotton seed hulls were constructed on small lots along Main Streets as well as on urban rooftops. The addition of hazards and fanciful settings to the courses was initially intended to attract children to the courses. However, adults enjoyed the fun and challenges, and miniature golf became a new form of amusement (Liebs 1985:137-142).

The popularity of miniature golf continued unabated until 1930. Even after the stock market crash of 1929 the game did not cease to be popular. However, as the depression worsened the success of the game waned, and by 1931 miniature golf had gone into hibernation (Liebs 1985:143-144).

The renewed emphasis on family travel following World War II encouraged a revival of the game. Unlike pre-war courses, the majority of miniature golf courses constructed in the 1940s were found on commercial strips along tourist routes and near resort areas. The fanciful settings, often constructed in conjunction with other tourist facilities, were used to lure customers to motels, restaurants, and service stations (Liebs 1985:145). The courses developed themes based on regional motifs and popular imagery. While plans for pre-designed courses were available, many course owners took pride in creating their own greens and hazards (Liebs 1985:146-7). Miniature golf continues to be a popular amusement activity.

Drive-In Movie Theaters

In spite of the economic depression that plagued the United States in the early 1930s, the American movie industry prospered. In 1933, a New Jersey man coupled the popularity of the movies with that of the automobile and created the Drive-in theater. Richard Hollingshead obtained a patent for his scheme, which included an open field, an oversized screen and a projection building (Anderson 1989:97). Perfecting the sound system was a challenge. Initially speakers were placed up front near the screen or in smaller units in the field between the cars. Ultimately, speakers, with individual volume controls, were placed in each car. The idea spread slowly. Theater owners added restrooms and snack bars for the customers' comfort and paved the vehicle parking areas and sprayed the

perimeter with insect repellents to ensure a pleasant atmosphere (Liebs 1985:157). During the post-World War II baby boom years the drive-in reached its peak as provider of an economical means of family entertainment (Anderson 1989:99).

The growing popularity of television in the late 1950s led to the decline of the drive-in theater. It became easier to stay at home and watch a favorite show or movie on television without buying a ticket, and slowly the drive-in theater, like the drive-in restaurant, became a thing of the past.

4. CHANGING DESIGN AESTHETIC

Initially, new commercial buildings designed to attract auto travelers were housed in structures that conveyed an image of familiar surroundings. These buildings resembled houses, libraries, and banks in colonial, craftsman, and occasionally mission and adobe styles (the latter two were more typical in western and southwestern regions). In contrast to the technology of the automobile, still so new, the architecture of automobile-related businesses was homey and traditional.

A distinct difference between the businesses on Main Street and those on the highway was the change in design to accommodate the automobile. The move of commerce away from Main Street resulted from the desire to ease automobile access to services (Liebs 1985:10). Parking was generally cumbersome, if not scarce, for the automobile on Main Street, while the service stations, motels, and restaurants located on the new roads and highways offered ample and accessible off-road parking facilities. The size of commercial lots grew to accommodate at minimum a drive court alongside gas pumps or for letting off and picking up passengers at the front doors of restaurants and motels. In addition to, or instead of, the drive court, many commercial buildings offered their customers ample parking alongside or behind the building. The speed with which the automobile was integrated into architectural designs is testimony to the pervasiveness of the car in American culture.

Toward the mid-1930s, the new design aesthetic of modern, or International, style architecture also began to be associated with auto services. The Streamline Moderne style attempted to replicate in buildings the aerodynamic, streamlined designs popular at the time for automobiles. As a symbol of the technology of the modern industrial era and the automobile age in the 1930s and 1940s, streamlined architecture was chosen with increasing frequency to express the constantly expanding role of the automobile in American life. The basic form of this style was the box, often with an enameled or metallic facade, a flat roof, and glass block windows. Rounded corners, curving entries and access ramps, and neon tubing were added to the building to further evoke the essence of movement. The streamline style was applied to diners and fast-food restaurants, car dealerships, auto parts stores, garages and gas stations, as well as motels, movie theaters, schools, and shopping centers (Craig 1990:15-17). The construction of modern roads encouraged the use of the automobile, and, in response, the construction of equally modern facilities to service the automobiles using the road.

The transformation from neat, homey structures to modern, functional buildings represented the acceptance of automobiles and their undisguised service facilities into American culture as well as the espousal of the Modern ethic "form follows function" for buildings rooted in that era.

A. Auto Support Facilities

Service Stations and Auto Parts Stores

The earliest buildings designed specifically for fueling automobiles consisted of one or more fuel pumps at the curbside in front of the local hardware or general store. These curbside filling stations caused havoc and congestion as traffic became backed up while refueling vehicles blocked the roads. As *Architectural Record* wrote in 1933, "It is obviously desirable that the pumps should not be erected on the roadside but on an island on premises off the road, so that vehicles may pass in each direction, and, standing to receive attention, will not interfere with other traffic on the road" (*Architectural Record* 1933:436). The St. Louis-based Automobile Gasoline Company was the first petroleum company to enter the direct gasoline service market, erecting a small brick building with a paved yard and four gas pumps on an ordinary city lot (Vieyra 1979:7). This model became the prototype for the modern gas station.

By the 1910s, prefabricated metal and glass stations became the standard in auto-support design. They were portable and could be erected and in operation within a few days (Vieyra 1979:7). Many early stations, called Split Islands, were independently owned and sold multiple brands of gasoline from a single island.

At the same time, oil companies began to sell franchises for stations selling a single brand of gasoline. The companies sought to attract loyal customers and to develop a corporate image through station design incorporating easily recognizable company logos and colors. Standardized service station design first took on a domestic flair. "Tasteful" stations, resembling homes, banks and libraries, were designed in colonial, craftsman, and, occasionally, more exotic mission styles to blend into the local environment. A porte-cochere attached to the front sheltered the pumps and the attendant pumping gas (Anderson 1989:2).

Pure Oil was the first oil company to adopt the cottage motif as the model company design. The stations resembled rustic cottages with steeply pitched roofs. A bay window in the facade displayed products for sale next to an arched doorway with a stoop and a small window with a flower box (Vieyra 1979:44). To reinforce brand recognition, the roof tiles and trim were painted "Pure Oil Blue." Sun Oil produced a similar design that was built during the 1920s and 1930s. This model also used the company colors, blue and gold, to help customers identify the brand of gasoline served by the station.

By 1930, the standard in gas station design was shifting to embrace the principle of modern architecture. Prefabricated steel buildings with large glass windows were touted as the ideal design in a 1930 issue of *Architectural Record*. The author wrote, "Although a great number of existing stations are built as chain stations and are standard in design. . .[they] have mostly been limited to imitations of stone and wood structures. . . . Standardized manufactured units should be as

'impersonal' in form as the mechanical equipment. All 'architectural styling' should be avoided" (*Architectural Record* June 1930:571). The design of the building was to suggest to the customer efficiency and cleanliness. The incorporation of "the repeated use of elementary forms," rounded corners, "a maximum of glass area" in the walls, a "definite color scheme" so as to be easily recognizable from the road would create visual unity (*Architectural Record* June 1930:570, 578). Harold Holiday Costain celebrated the evolving designs as "rationalized service buildings planned to both function as efficiently as possible and to dramatize the station facilities and service process rather than conceal them" (quoted in *Architectural Record* 1941).

In 1937, Walter Dorwin Teague presented plans for a series of standardized service stations that he had created for Texaco. Five versions of the basic station were designed to suit a variety of situations and needs depending on the location of the site (corner lot, narrow city lot, highway site) and the services to be offered (large corner office with multiple bay lubritorium, single or double bay lubritorium, office only). The objectives of the design were to establish company trademark and color identification, to create efficient work and service spaces, and to provide adequate offices and rest rooms. While the design was most often constructed using a wall covering of white enameled porcelain, the building could be adapted to stucco, wood, brick or concrete block wall treatments as well. Most importantly, the station was designed to convey to the customer a feeling of swift, efficient, and reliable service (*Architectural Record* September 1937:69).

Variations on Teague's design were widely adopted by oil companies in addition to Texaco. As the box became synonymous with service station design, different companies produced variations on the basic form. Shell's "Dresser Style" service station, in the late-1930s, was sheathed with porcelain tiles and had a curved aluminum canopy, highlighting the corner office (Shell Oil Company Archives). Standard Oil's 1940 station combined Teague's porcelain sheathed box with the curved metal awning of Shell's Dresser station, this time encircling the box. Above the awning was the company name spelled out in red letters (BP America, Inc. [1940]:[n.p.]). The version produced by the Mobil Oil Company featured a raised roofline above the curved corner office in an imitation of the oil drum, a symbol equated with the company name. Painted on the front of the drum directly above the office windows was the company's logo, the flying red Pegasus (Mobil Oil Corporation [n.d.]:[n.p.]).

After World War II the Modern box was abstracted in the Modernistic spirit of the space age with flared rooflines and vertical pylons to display company logos. The latter trait was reminiscent of the pylons used by Shell on its stations in the early 1930s. However, now the projections were rectangular or wedge-shaped, often highlighted by columns of glass blocks built into the angular extensions. Texaco, Gulf and Shell, among others, developed station designs featuring slabs and square towers above the roofline to display the company logo.

Auto Showrooms

The first auto dealerships were housed in existing Main Street businesses such as livery stables and carriage shops (Liebs 1985:75). Only after it became apparent to merchants that the popularity of the automobile was not a fleeting fad did dealers begin to erect buildings specifically for the sale of motor vehicles. The earliest buildings constructed as car dealerships resembled the surrounding

blocks in the heart of the commercial district. They were one or two story masonry structures, usually with larger than average display windows to maximize visibility of their oversized products. The show room was located in the front of the building, while the repair shop was located out of sight in the rear. In multi-story buildings equipped with mechanical lifts the upper floors provided storage for inventory and spare parts as well as space for used car sales (Liebs 1985:76). An architecturally impressive building was believed to be a means of attracting customers. Like corporate office buildings, banks, and railroad stations, auto showrooms were designed to be symbols of the products contained inside (Liebs 1985:79). The exteriors were often adorned with bas relief carvings and ornamental trim, while the showrooms resembled the lobbies of elegant hotels.

By the 1920s dealerships began moving out of the central business district to the commercial strips developing along the modern highways where larger lots of land were available at a lower cost than in town (Liebs 1985:84). The design of new the facilities followed the same principles adopted for the Main Street structures, maximizing the number of automobiles a dealer was able to display. The new dealerships were one or two stories in height, generally of reinforced concrete, brick or other masonry construction. The ground level featured large display windows of sufficient size for passing motorists to see the new cars inside. Service bays were located either to the side or behind the showroom. Stylized terra cotta, brick and concrete ornament were used to identify a dealership and to distinguish it from its competitors. Just as oil companies developed unique, identifiable logos and buildings, so did auto makers.

As auto sales slumped during the Depression, auto dealerships adopted the sleek modern imagery, popularized in service station design, in hopes of attracting customers. The new structures were one-story, flat-roofed buildings of masonry construction, streamlined through the use of curved corners, enameled porcelain, and glass block and structural glass walls. In many instances, existing showrooms were modernized by the addition of a streamlined facade (Liebs 1985:86-87).

The end of World War II and the reactivation of automobile assembly lines resulted in a new phase of dealership design. "Automobile row" moved further out of town into larger one-story buildings on sprawling lots. The new car showroom, the contents visible through a large display window facing the road, was the focus of the development. However, the largest portion of the building was the service wing located to the side of the showroom. The vehicle stock, along with used cars, were displayed in an open-air lot next to the showroom. Dealers used canopies and lights to link the car lots to the main building. Signs and company logos unified the image of the property and created brand-name recognition (Liebs 1985:89).

Bus Stations

The earliest ticket offices for bus companies were found on Main Street, in drug stores, restaurants and hotels. Restaurants and hotels, especially, benefited from additional clientele when passengers were dropped off or picked up at their locations. When separate bus terminals were constructed, they were typically built in the downtown commercial district, although often located off of Main Street. The location outside of the busiest part of town relieved traffic congestion for customers meeting a bus as well as for the bus drivers themselves (Pack 1941:83).

Overall, the appearance of a bus station was a critical element in attracting patrons, especially the non-travelers who were simply visiting the concessions. Most facilities were one or two story masonry structures. The exteriors were finished with stone, concrete, terra cotta, and with the popularity of modern designs, glass block, structural glass, and enameled porcelain. An important element of station design was the inclusion of a drive court to facilitate the dropping off and picking up of travelers (Pack 1941:84). Competition between bus lines also necessitated a conformity to an "institutional style" prescribed by the parent company. Greyhound Bus Lines terminals embraced streamlined modernism by 1940. The terminals featured curved facades with striated metal awnings over the main entrance and large vertical pylons bearing the company name and logo, flanked by columns of glass blocks. A curved waiting room at the rear of the building provided passenger access to the radial, sawtooth bus platforms (Pack 1941:85-87). The typical Trailways station of the same period was much more angular, but it featured large glass windows at the entrance and stylized lettering on the facade (Pack 1941:88).

B. Lodging

The first lodging facilities designed specifically for the auto traveler were tourist cabins. These small one or two room structures were miniature homes for vacationers. Often constructed with Colonial or Craftsman style features, tourist cottages utilized very traditional motifs (Robins 1934:19). The motel was born in the late 1930s when the multiple units of the cabin court began to be constructed under a single roof. In contrast to hotels, tourist courts and motels provided ample parking for their guests free of charge. The parking lot was an important element of the property's design, and occasionally car ports or garages were provided for each unit.

Unlike the architecture of service stations, lodging facilities were never overwhelmingly Modern in design. Some motels adopted streamlined forms with curved walls and glass block windows, while others developed fanciful themes, such as the Swiss village or windmills, but the overwhelming majority of cabins and motels featured traditional imagery. Independent and corporate owners aspired to create the image of the safe and comfortable haven of a home away from home. Throughout the early twentieth century, emphasis was placed on the "homey" touch–curtains, doilies, flower boxes– in design and decoration (Belasco 1979:139). The excitement of the modern automobile era was expressed in logos and signs which were often boldly colored and lighted with bright neon.

C. Eating Establishments

The architecture of eating establishments embraced both modern and traditional idioms. Sit-down, family-oriented tea rooms and family restaurants tended to display traditional imagery. The tea room was often established in a historic building or one that was made to appear historic. The charm and comfort of features such as columns and gardens appealed to women patrons and the family trade. Similarly, the family restaurants, such as the Howard Johnson chain, catering to families of travelers, were housed in Colonial-esque buildings that were designed to invoke the warmth and comfort of home.

By contrast, diners and fast-food restaurants, whose business was directed toward people on the go, tended to adopt more daring architecture. Diners were streamlined forms of stainless steel and aluminum, while the early fast-food outlets adapted the Modern box and fanciful modernistic forms, both in bold, eye-catching colors. The mass-produced steel bodies of diners drew on their relationship to train cars by incorporating sleek streamlined details of stainless steel, aluminum, marble, tile, and mahogany (Anderson 1989:70). The diners were small and portable, and could be erected as easily with a few parking spaces next to the highway as in a small urban lot downtown (Liebs 1985:219).

PROPERTY TYPES

This context encompasses resources constructed to serve the auto-traveling public. These resources are associated with the themes of Retailing and Wholesaling - Restaurants; Land Transportation - Roads - Service Stations, Diners, Motels and Cabins, Rest Stops; and the Modern Architecture Movement listed in Appendix B of the Delaware State Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan. Qualifying resources have been divided into four general categories: auto-support facilities, food, lodging, and other.

1. Auto-Support Facilities

The category of auto-support facilities includes corporate service stations, as well as facilities with independently operated pump islands, auto-parts stores, auto showrooms, bus stations, and salvage yards.

2. Eating Establishments

The category of eating establishments includes tea rooms, diners, family restaurants, fast-food outlets, and drive-ins.

3. Lodging

The category of lodging includes campgrounds, individual tourist cabins and cabin courts, and independent and nationally franchised motels.

4. Other

The remaining property types in this context include roadside stands, miniature golf courses, and drive-in movie theaters.

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY TYPES

Examples of roadside architecture will be found throughout the region along improved primary and secondary roads. The number of examples and the types of buildings will vary between major and

minor roads and in relation to the rural or urban character of the area. From its inception, the Delaware State Highway Department encouraged the construction of modern roads outside of town centers, and commerce developed along these roads specifically in response to the needs of the auto traveler. Therefore, the evaluation of a property must be based on the size of the town in 1903, at the start of the automobile era in Delaware, taking into account ensuing patterns of development specifically in response to the introduction of the automobile. In urban areas and larger towns examples of roadside architecture will be concentrated in secondary commercial districts that developed after 1903 along new and improved state roads. In smaller towns and rural areas similar examples of roadside architecture will be found along state roads constructed or improved since 1903.

EVALUATION CRITERIA

The evaluation of properties under the context of Roadside Architecture, will be based on the National Register Criteria for Evaluation and the Criteria Considerations. In general, properties qualifying under this context should reflect the impact of the automobile on community growth and development after 1903, the first year of this context. In urban areas and larger towns, properties should reflect the shift of commercial development from Main Street to outlying zones more readily accessible by car and to larger property lots offering sufficient space for customer parking. In rural areas, examples of roadside architecture may be found as isolated examples or in small groupings (such as a complex including cabin court, family restaurant, and pump island). Whether found singly or in multiple forms, the properties should illustrate commercial activity that occurred in direct response to automobile use and travel. The most significant change effected by the automobile was the incorporation of the automobile into site plans. Qualifying properties should feature site layouts that facilitate service to customers arriving by car, such as drive courts or parking lots.

Under *Criterion A* (properties associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of history), eligible properties should be associated with patterns of settlement and development that occurred in response to the automobile. This includes the development of secondary commercial districts along newly constructed state highways, and eating and lodging facilities for tourists in areas not commonly associated with colonial or railroad era travel.

Under *Criterion B* (properties associated with the lives of persons significant in our past), eligible properties should be associated with a particular individual or family who was significantly involved with the development of roadside architecture. This might include an architect who designed numerous, unique service stations, restaurants, or motels, or an influential owner of a series of such facilities.

Under *Criterion C* (properties that embody a type, period or method of construction), eligible properties should embody the architecture of the automobile era. This includes early, traditional designs for service stations, tourist cabins and motels, as well as later, streamlined designs, or buildings that exhibit identifiable traits of specific companies that developed or flourished during the automobile era. Properties that exhibit the use of modern construction techniques and materials,

such as enameled porcelain, stainless steel, aluminum, and glass blocks, would also qualify under this Criterion.

Under *Criterion D* (properties that have yielded or may be likely to yield information), eligible properties will include those standing buildings and archaeological sites that have the potential to yield information about construction technology that otherwise could not be gleaned from documentary sources. However, building plans and data on construction technology are commonly available for twentieth-century buildings, and fewer properties will qualify under this Criterion than the others.

A variety of auto-related properties may not be eligible under this context, although they may be eligible for Register listing under other contexts, such as twentieth-century commercial architecture, twentieth-century transportation, or twentieth-century recreation.

The majority of properties erected after World War II are not eligible for the National Register at this time because they have not yet achieved fifty years of age. However, some of these may be eligible under Criteria Consideration G (properties achieving significance within the past fifty years). Because roadside architecture is a twentieth-century phenomenon there may be eligible properties that are not yet fifty years of age. After the 1930s, Modern, streamlined architecture was widely embraced for auto-related buildings in place of more traditional, colonial forms. Property types, such as drive-in restaurants and movie theaters, flourished between the late 1930s and the 1960s, but have been largely abandoned in recent years. By the year 2000, when the majority of properties eligible under this context achieve fifty years of age, few of the best examples of certain property types may remain extant. It is important that outstanding examples of endangered properties be recognized before they are lost.

Determination of Integrity

Critical to the evaluation process is the confirmation that a property retains its historic integrity. The National Register aspects of integrity provide an organized framework within which integrity can be analyzed.

The association with the automobile as seen in a property's *location* and *setting* are intrinsically important to roadside architecture. The property should be located with direct access to an improved road in a setting that incorporates the automobile as evidenced by a drive court and/or on-premises parking. Since later twentieth-century development often encroached on early examples of roadside architecture, a setting originally rural or exurban in character may now be the center of an urban or suburban commercial strip. While this does reflect a change in the property's setting, it does not have a negative impact on the integrity of the property and perhaps even enhances it. Similarly, road alignments often were, and continue to be, altered over time. A property that was once sited on a principal thoroughfare may now be located a distance from the main flow of traffic or may have been moved to accommodate the road expansion. Moving an auto-related building in response to road improvements would not damage the building's integrity of location. While it is no longer located on its original site, it is still situated in a roadside setting and continues to serve an automobile-related function. However, if individual components of a property have been moved or

removed, the integrity of the property may be compromised. For instance, individual tourist cabins, dismantled from their original site and no longer associated with a series of similar structures, are disconnected from their original context and have lost their integrity of location.

The original *design* of a property should be visible in the plan and form of the building(s), and the property's original *materials* should be intact. This includes framing, exterior wall sheathing and the rhythm and size of openings, as well as the details and quality of *workmanship* that went into the original construction. Similarly, building interiors should retain original elements, including fixtures, tilework, and woodwork, and the original plan should be unaltered. The removal of original details and the application of new materials weaken the property's integrity of materials and workmanship. If the original elements remain intact below the new materials, the damage to the property's integrity is less severe. Likewise, structural additions and removals weaken a property's integrity of design. Only if alterations were made prior to 1940 can they be considered historic. Alterations to interior plans are acceptable if the changes are reversible and if the original lay out of the building can still be understood. The property's original function (restaurant, service station, auto show room, motel) should be identifiable, as should the company if the property belonged to an architecturally standardized chain (such as a Texaco or Gulf gas station or a Howard Johnson restaurant).

The historic *feeling* of a property is extremely subjective to characterize and more accurately reflects an amalgamation of the aforementioned characteristics in varying degrees. While a still functioning, 1940 service station may retain its setting and plan, it may have been significantly remodeled and expanded so that its original appearance (including design, materials and workmanship) is no longer discernible. On the other hand, the exterior sheathing of a court of tourist cabins may have been replaced, either to update the property's appearance or to transform the individual units into a "single building" of connected motel units. While the exterior materials and design have been altered, the individual units remain intact below the new sheathing and the property could still be considered eligible.

A property's *association* with an important person or event would typically be derived from the overall building or site plan as well as any architectural details that are particularly unique to that individual or occurrence. An example might include the unique design or signage of a restaurant outlet owned by an important individual or designed by a prominent architect if the building exhibits those features that are associated specifically with the individual.

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RESEARCH ISSUES

Because the development of the automobile is a twentieth-century phenomenon and the development of buildings and property types in response to the automobile is a recent and on-going activity, the full extent of roadside architecture in this region is not yet understood. More intensive research should be undertaken to satisfy the following gaps in the current information base:

1) the proliferation and patterns of distribution of roadside architecture within the region

2) the effects of automobiles and improved transportation corridors on the following:

   a) patterns of settlement and land use, including the establishment of included property types on private land, the effect on land values, the influx or outflux of population
   b) local, regional, and statewide economic development, including where it occurred and how much occurred

GOALS

1. Because no categorical survey has been completed to date and the existing inventory cannot readily be searched to identify properties relating to a particular theme, a comprehensive survey should be undertaken to determine the nature and extent of existing roadside architecture in the

region. In addition to identifying individual properties, the survey should identify patterns of clustering and distribution of related property types across the state, within and between the five regions. Analysis of the survey data should include, for example, roadside development patterns in rural versus urban areas and the types of settings where single-function (a gas station, a restaurant) versus multi-function properties (a gas station-restaurant-produce stand) were constructed.

2. Because the context of roadside architecture will encompass an increasing number of buildings in future years, a data base should be developed to include all resources constructed since 1940 so that officials can be aware of properties becoming eligible in future years. The best examples should be monitored annually or biannually and should be added to the survey and National Register as they become eligible.

3. The threats to roadside architecture, including, but not limited to, changing technology (modernization of gas stations and motels) and road improvements (widening of roadways and realignment of intersections) should be monitored, and the effects of adverse activities should be mitigated.

4. Preservation of roadside architecture should be encouraged through education. Public understanding of the commercial architectural revolution that accompanied the development of the automobile is limited. Because so much of the development occurred within current memory, buildings are often not considered historic and little care is taken when making alterations to the property. Educating property owners and the public to the significance of roadside commercial architecture will foster understanding of valuable resources that otherwise might be lost.

> *a. Community education* should occur through the circulation of publications and reports relating to roadside architecture as well as through public meetings, lectures and exhibits.
>
> *b. Property owners* should be educated to the benefits available to them through National Register listing and through programs such as Investment Tax Credits. BAHP should also provide owners with technical assistance on maintaining and restoring historic roadside properties and should assist owners in developing marketing strategies that will allow them to capitalize financially on their classic properties.

REVIEW AND UPDATE

The resource base of properties eligible for the National Register under the context of roadside architecture will be rapidly expanding through the next decade and into the future. From the data base, properties that will be eligible for listing should be monitored annually or biannually to ensure that qualified properties representative of the context are awarded sufficient recognition and protection.

RECENT PRESERVATION ACTIVITY

The 1988 survey of Route 113, completed by Louis Berger & Associates, Inc. (report in progress), identified the following properties that may qualify for the National Register under the context of roadside architecture:

1. Fitzgerald's Auto Salvage, Road 207 at Route 113 (1-30-6-88).

2. H.T. Fitzgerald Property (former commercial building), Route 113 at Road 207 (2-3-5-9).

3. Teddy's Bar, Route 113 (2-30-26-35) - This property has been determined eligible for the National Register by the BAHP.

4. CCC Picnic Facility, Route 113, Ellendale State Forest (2-30-31-48).

5. Sub Shop/Dairy, northwest corner of Route 113 and Road 565, Redden Crossroads (1-35-5-38.2).

6. Ronald Smith Farm Stand, Route 113 (2-30-19-74).

CONCEPT: Auto-influenced Commercial Roadside Architecture of Delaware's Piedmont

TIME PERIOD: 1880-1940

The advent of the automobile age was acknowledged in Delaware by passage of the first laws governing motor vehicle use in 1903. By the end of World War I, state and county programs were actively working to upgrade and modernize the region's road network. Improved transportation networks increased communication and market accessibility and fostered the continued industrial development of Wilmington as the state's industrial and commercial center. The amount of farmland diminished as industrial and commercial activities replaced agriculture.

GEOGRAPHIC AREA

The Piedmont Zone is the northernmost portion of the state, including the northern half of New Castle County, less the city of Wilmington. Its southern boundary is delineated, roughly, by I-95 from the Pennsylvania border to Christiana and Route 281 from Christiana to the Maryland line. Transportation arteries in the Piedmont region reflect a radial dispersement of roads from Wilmington, the economic and governmental center of the state. Among these are I-95, US 202, and State Route 261 to the north, State Routes 48 and 52 to the northwest, and I-95, State Routes 2 and 4 to the west.

HISTORIC THEMES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

EVALUATION CRITERIA

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RESEARCH ISSUES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

GOALS

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

REVIEW AND UPDATE

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RECENT PRESERVATION ACTIVITY

To date, no properties specifically relating to this context have been identified in the Piedmont Zone.

CONCEPT: Auto-influenced Commercial Roadside Architecture of Delaware's Upper Peninsula

TIME PERIOD: 1880-1940

The advent of the automobile age was acknowledged in Delaware by passage of the first laws governing motor vehicle use in 1903. By the end of World War I, state and county programs were actively working to upgrade and modernize the region's road network. The completion of the du Pont Highway in 1924 encouraged the suburbanization of previously rural towns and improved farmers' access to markets.

GEOGRAPHIC AREA

The Upper Peninsula Zone includes the southern half of New Castle County and most of Kent County. US 13, the du Pont Highway, is the dominant transportation corridor, traveling south through the eastern third of the region in the vicinity of Odessa and Smyrna. At Dover the road forks with US 13 following a southerly route past Camden, Wyoming and Felton, while US 113 diverges to the east near Frederica and Milford. Just north of Milford, the road splits again as State Route 1 branches off toward the coastal resorts to the southeast. In the northwestern part of the region, State 896/US 301, traveling north-south, connects Newark, to the north in the Piedmont Zone, with US 13 north of Smyrna, and US 301N accommodates travel from US 13 at State Road to the Maryland border. The bulk of roads in the region follow random paths in general north-south and east-west directions. Larger commercial centers are identifiable by the roads radiating into the surrounding area from the town centers.

HISTORIC THEMES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

EVALUATION CRITERIA

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RESEARCH ISSUES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

GOALS

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

REVIEW AND UPDATE

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RECENT PRESERVATION ACTIVITY

The 1987 survey of the US Route 13 Relief Route, completed by Killinger Kise Franks Straw (DelDot Historic Architectural Series No. 55), identified the following properties that come under the context of roadside architecture:

1. McDonough's Corner Fruit Stand and Service Station, east side of du Pont Highway, south of intersection of McDonough Road, McDonough's Corner, St. Georges Hundred (National Register Eligible)

2. Clarkie's Garage, 552 S. du Pont Highway, Smyrna

The 1986 cultural resource study of the proposed Route 13 corridor, edited by Jay F. Custer and Kevin Cunningham (DelDot Archaeology Series No. 40), identified the following properties that come under the context of roadside architecture:

1. Service Station (K3155), du Pont Highway, Little Creek

2. Service Station (N5877), du Pont Highway, Appoquinimink

CONCEPT: Auto-influenced Commercial Roadside Architecture of Delaware's Coastal Zone

TIME PERIOD: 1880-1940

The advent of the automobile age was acknowledged in Delaware by passage of the first laws governing motor vehicle use in 1903. By the end of World War I, state and county programs were actively working to upgrade and modernize the region's road network. The construction and modernization of roads, such as the du Pont Highway, US 9 and Route 1, increased the accessibility of the region and fostered the development of the resort communities and the tourist trade.

GEOGRAPHIC AREA

The Coastal Zone includes the entire length of the Delaware coastline south of the city limits of Wilmington. No single road traverses the narrow length of the Coastal Region. State Route 9 weaves through the northern section from Wilmington south through New Castle and Delaware City as far south as Dover. South and east of Milford, State Route 1 cuts east to Rehoboth following the narrow outer coast to the southern border of the state. In the southern portions of the region, State Route 26 is the primary road linking Ocean View to the interior of the state.

HISTORIC THEMES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

EVALUATION CRITERIA

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RESEARCH ISSUES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

GOALS

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

REVIEW AND UPDATE

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RECENT PRESERVATION ACTIVITY

The 1990 cultural resource survey of Delaware Route 1, between Five Points and Rehoboth, completed by John Milner Associates (DelDot Archaeological and Historical Series No. 79), identified the following properties that may come under the context of roadside architecture:

1. Frances-Anne Motel Complex, Rehoboth Avenue, Rehoboth (contributing element of the West Rehoboth Multiple Property Area)

2. Phil-Moore Cottages, 630 Rehoboth Avenue, Rehoboth

3. Colonial Oaks Motel Property, Route 1

4. Commercial Building, Charles H. McKinney Property, Route 1

5. Fruitstand and Garage, Charles E. Marsh Property, 606 Rehoboth Avenue

It should be noted that because of the proximity of these properties to the shore resort areas, they may represent property types eligible under other contexts as well (see above for discussion of property types and distribution of property types).

CONCEPT: Auto-influenced Commercial Roadside Architecture of Delaware's Urban Zone

TIME PERIOD: 1880-1940

The advent of the automobile age was acknowledged in Delaware by passage of the first laws governing motor vehicle use in 1903. By the end of World War I, state and county programs were actively working to upgrade and modernize the road network serving the region. Improved transportation corridors increased accessibility to Wilmington and reaffirmed the city as the industrial and commercial focus of the state.

GEOGRAPHIC AREA

The Urban Zone includes the urban center of Wilmington and the corridor north of Wilmington and east of I-95 to the Pennsylvania border. In addition to the grid of Wilmington's city streets, the primary roads run from Pennsylvania, through the city towards New Castle. These include I-95 and I-495, as well as US 13 and 113 and State Routes 13 and 4.

HISTORIC THEMES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

DISTRIBUTION OF PROPERTY TYPES

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

EVALUATION CRITERIA

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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GOALS

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

REVIEW AND UPDATE

[SEE COMMERCIAL ROADSIDE ARCHITECTURE HISTORIC CONTEXT FOR THE LOWER PENINSULA/CYPRESS SWAMP ZONE]

RECENT PRESERVATION ACTIVITY

To date, no properties specifically relating to this context have been identified in the Urban Zone.