
PHASE IA ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF THE FRANKLIN'S CROSSING DEVELOPMENT SITE IN SPOTSYLVANIA COUNTY, VIRGINIA

by

Mike Klein

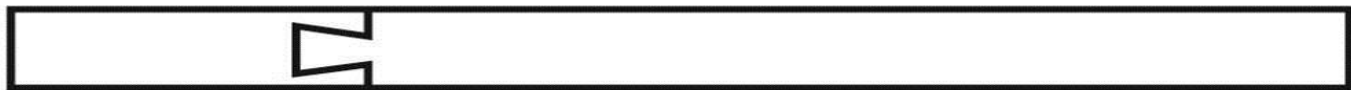
Prepared for

B-Farms Development, LLC

Prepared by

DOVETAIL
CULTURAL RESOURCE GROUP

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ABSTRACT

On behalf of B-Farms Development, LLC, Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted a Phase IA archaeological survey of an approximately 10-acre (4.5-ha) area within the undeveloped eastern portion of parcel 25-A-14 in Spotsylvania County, Virginia. The project area is located south of Fredericksburg, Virginia, near Sylvania Heights. The project area extends northeast from near the end of Evan Street to the bank of the Rappahannock River, though currently development is only proposed atop the ridge in the western portion of the project area. The immediate vicinity of the project area was also examined for above ground resources over 50 years in age. The survey was conducted as part of the permit application process for Spotsylvania County due to the proximity of the project area to Franklin's Crossing, a Civil War era Rappahannock River crossing. The Phase IA work included background review and pedestrian survey to search for surface features associated with the battle and to evaluate the potential of the parcel to contain intact soils and National Register of Historic Places (NRHP)-eligible archaeological sites. The background review focused on historical and cartographic sources with a focus on evidence of the location of Franklin's Crossing and the Union assault on Confederate forces entrenched atop the ridges overlooking the Rappahannock River. No subsurface investigation was completed during this phase of work. Rather, the study was designed to assess the potential presence of intact archaeological that would require mapping and further study.

Historians familiar with the engagement at Franklin's Crossing, as well as historic maps, locate Franklin's Crossing upstream from the project area. Moreover, comparison of the historic photograph discussed by Harrison (2018) of the view toward the June 1863 Union embarkation point at Franklin's Crossing with a modern photograph across the Rappahannock River from the project area presents a striking contrast, in particular the absence of a high bluff beyond the floodplain at present.

Disturbance within the project area includes the extensive removal of soil during gravel mining; at the western end of the project area, near the approximate extent of gravel mining illustrated on a 1978 topographic map, the ridge top landform rises abruptly approximately 10 feet (3.0 m) to a residential neighborhood. The higher ground to the west likely approximates the former surface of the upland prior to gravel mining, suggesting that few if any traces of the historic ground surface remain intact on the ridge top. In addition to gravel mining, evident disturbance in the project area includes numerous push piles, exposed clay and gravels, deposits of refuse, road cuts, trails, and an electrical station. In sum, evident disturbance atop the ridge, where the proposed construction is planned, indicates that earthworks and artifacts associated with June 1863 engagement at Franklin's Crossing and any other archaeological resources are extremely unlikely to exist in the project area, even in light of the hypothesis that the project area is the location of the Confederate rifle pits overrun by the Union Sixth Corps in June 1863. Therefore, no additional archaeological work is recommended.

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INTRODUCTION

On behalf of B-Farms Development, LLC., Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted a Phase IA archaeological survey of the approximately 10-acre (4.5-ha) Franklin's Crossing Development site located on the undeveloped eastern portion of parcel 25-A-14 in Spotsylvania County, Virginia. The project area is located south of Fredericksburg, Virginia, near Sylvania Heights (Figure 1 and Figure 2, pp. 2–3). The project area extends northeast from near the end of Evan Street to the bank of the Rappahannock River. The survey was conducted for Spotsylvania County due to the proximity of the project area to Franklins Crossing, a Civil War era Rappahannock River crossing.

The Phase IA work included background review and pedestrian survey to search for surface features associated with the battle and to evaluate the potential of the parcel to contain intact soils within the project area and National Register of Historic Places (NRHP)-eligible archaeological resources. The study was designed to assess the potential presence of above or below ground archaeological resources over 50 years in age, in particular Civil War-era archaeological resources.

The Phase IA study was conducted on January 17, 2018. The fieldwork was conducted by Mike Klein. Michael Carmody served as the Principal Investigator. Dr. Klein and Mr. Carmody and meet or exceed the standards established for archaeologist by the Secretary of the Interior (SOI).

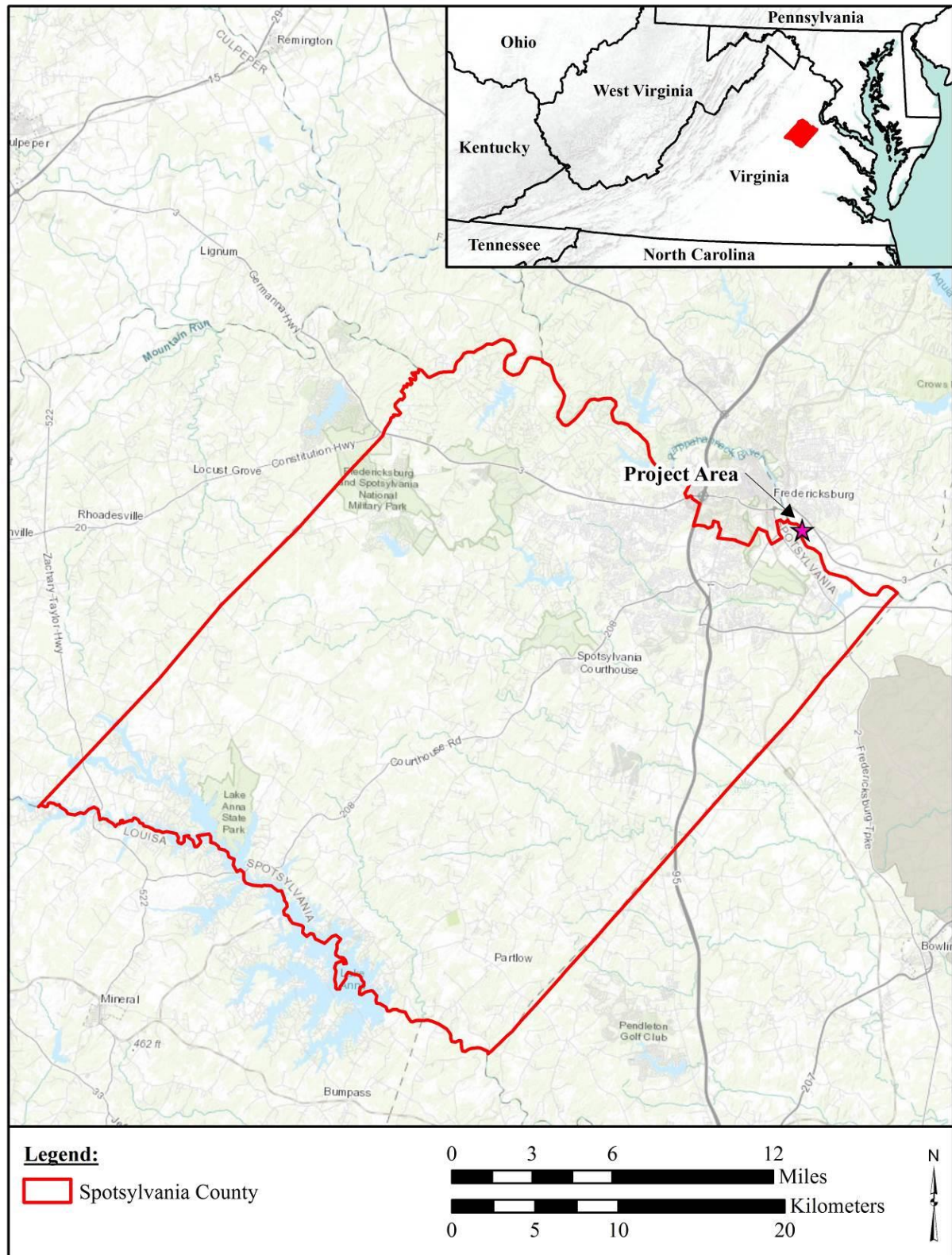


Figure 1: Location of Spotsylvania County and the Project Area (Esri 2017a).

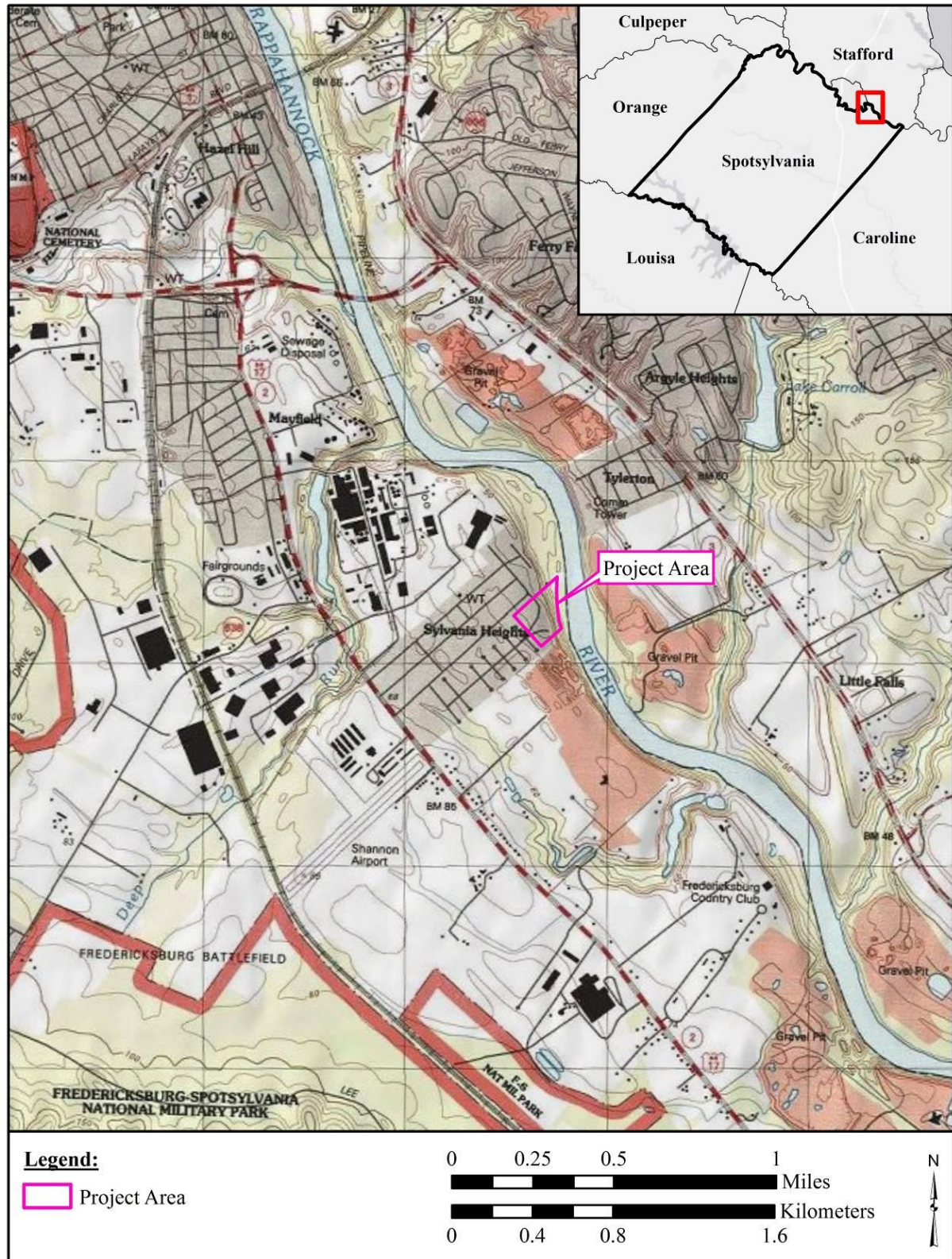


Figure 2: Location of the Project Area on the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Spotsylvania County, Virginia, 7.5-Minute Digital Raster Graphic Mosaic (Esri 2017b).

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PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The approximately 10-acre (4.5-ha) project area is located in eastern Spotsylvania County, Virginia, on and near Sylvania Heights, southeast of Fredericksburg, Virginia. The project area extends northeast from dwellings at the northeast end of Evan Drive, and is bounded on the northwest by houses along Church Street, on the southeast by the end of River Meadows Way, and on the northeast by the Rappahannock River.

The area includes a disturbed ridge top, dissected and eroded ridge slopes, and a relatively narrow floodplain along the Rappahannock River. Disturbance includes the extensive removal of soil during gravel mining, the construction of an electrical station, push piles, grading and clearing for a road and trails, extensive erosion, dissection of the slopes, and logging, evident in the presence of light secondary growth mixed pine and deciduous woodlands (Photo 1; Figure 1, p. 2; Photo 2 to Photo 10, pp. 7–11).



Photo 1: View Northwest Showing the Approximate Height of the Original Surface that Predated Gravel Mining in the Project Area.



Figure 3: Location of the Project Area (Esri 2015).



Photo 2: View Northeast Showing the Power Station in the Eastern Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 3: View Southeast Showing Push Piles in the East-Central Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 4: View South Along Road Cut in the Eastern Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 5: View South Along a Trail in the Western Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 6: View East Showing the Eroded Surface of a Trail Along the Edge of the Ridge Top.



Photo 7: View Northwest Showing the Rutted Surface of the Slope in the Western Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 8: View West Showing Refuse in the Western Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 9: View Southeast Showing Refuse in the Eastern Project Area.



Photo 10: View South Showing Light Secondary Growth Pines in the Central Portion of the Project Area.

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ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

The project area is located in Spotsylvania County, Virginia, immediately downstream from Fredericksburg, Virginia. The project area lies just east of the Fall Zone, which separates the Piedmont from the Coastal Plain physiographic provinces. Housing developments surround the wooded, extensively disturbed project area.

Hydrology

Ephemeral streams in the project area drop down the ridge slopes to the floodplain of the Rappahannock River. The Rappahannock River flows east to join the Chesapeake Bay near Deltaville, Virginia.

Geology and Topography

Located in the inner Coastal Plain physiographic province, the Shirley Formation, the Potomac Formation, and deposits dating to the Lower Tertiary Period underlie the project area. The upland Shirley Formation consists of interbedded gravels, sand, silt, clay, and minor amounts of peat. Pebbly, poorly sorted quartzo-feldspathic sand interbedded with minor amounts of organic-rich clay and silt form the Potomac Formation. In addition, somewhat shelly glauconitic quartz sand and clayey sand and minor amounts of sandy limestone and limey sands deposited during the Lower Tertiary occur in the area (Rader and Evans 1993).

Uplands disturbed by gravel mining and earthmoving occur at 60 feet (18.3 m) above mean sea level (amsl). Highly dissected, eroded slopes separate the uplands from the floodplain of the Rappahannock River.

Soils

Fertile, well-drained soils attracted both humans and game over millennia. Moreover, the wild grasses, fruits, and seeds consumed by people both before and after the adoption of agriculture flourished in such settings. As a consequence, numerous archaeologists have cited the correlation between the distribution of level to gently sloping, well-drained, fertile soils and archaeological sites (e.g., Lukezic 1990; Potter 1993; Turner 1976; Ward 1965). Soil scientists classify soils according to natural and artificial fertility and the threat posed by erosion and flooding, among other attributes. Soil classes 1 and 2 represent the most fertile soils, those best suited for not only agriculture but for a wide range of uses. Of course, soil productivity must be considered in relation to the productivity of the surrounding soils as well.

The soil survey data indicate the potential presence of intact archaeological resources in the project area is extremely low to nonexistent. Gravelly Udorthents, soils disturbed by the removal of the upper soil material, by grading, or by infilling, blanket the ridge top; in this

case, disturbance results primarily from soil removal during gravel mining, though grading is also evident. The Dystrochrepts-Udults complex, which occurs on the steep slopes, designates Class 7e residuum weathered from granite and gneiss. Class 7e soils are extensively eroded, evident in the rutted, dissected topography of the ridge slopes. Somewhat poorly drained Class 5w alluvium occurs on the floodplain. Only very ephemeral use of such settings occurred in the past (Table 1).

Table 1: Soils in the Project Area (Soil Survey Staff 2017).

Soil Name	Class	Slope	Characteristics
Cartecay sandy loam	5w	0–2%	Somewhat poorly drained soils derived from alluvium
Dystrochrepts-Udults complex, steep	7e	>15%	Very susceptible to erosion
Udorthents, gravelly	NA	NA	Disturbed by soil removal, grading, or filling

HISTORIC CONTEXT

Virginia's Native American prehistory typically is divided into three main periods, Paleoindian, Archaic, and Woodland, based on changes in material culture and settlement systems. Recently, the possibility of a human presence in the region that pre-dates the Paleoindian period has moved from remote to probable; for this reason, a Pre-Clovis discussion precedes the traditional tripartite division of Virginia's Native American history. The seventeenth-through-twentieth-century historical overview follows the Virginia Department of Historic Resources guidelines (DHR 2017). The cultural context, as defined by the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and the DHR (2011), provides the historic social and environmental information required for evaluation of any archaeological resources present within the project area.

Prehistoric Context

Pre-Clovis Period (?–13,000 B.P.)

The 1927 discovery, at Folsom, New Mexico, of a fluted point in the ribs of an extinct species of bison proved that ancient North Americans had immigrated during the Pleistocene. It did not, however, establish the precise timing of the arrival of humans in the Americas, nor did it adequately resolve questions about the lifestyle of those societies (Meltzer 1988:2–3). Both the stratigraphic record and the radiocarbon assays from several sites suggest the possibility of human occupation of Virginia before the fluted-point makers appeared on the scene (Boyd 2003; McAvoy and McAvoy 1997). Buried strata at the Cactus Hill Site, in Sussex County, Virginia, have returned radiocarbon dates of 15,000 years ago from strata situated below levels containing fluted points (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997:165).

McAvoy's team encountered artifacts and charcoal separated from the Paleoindian Period level by 3.0 to 4.0 inches (7.6 to 10.2 cm) of sterile sands. Subsequent fieldwork confirmed the presence of artifact-bearing strata located between 3.0 and 8.0 inches (7.6 and 20.3 cm) below the fluted-point levels. The artifacts recovered from the pre-fluted-point levels present a striking contrast with the tool kit typically used by Paleoindians. Rather than relying on extensively finished chert knives, scraping tools, and spear points, the Pre-Clovis peoples used a different but highly refined stone technology. Prismatic blade-like flakes of quartzite, chipped from specially prepared cobbles and lightly worked along one side to produce a sharp edge, constitute the majority of the stone cutting and scraping tools. Sandstone grinding and abrading tools, possibly indicating production of wood and bone tools or ornaments, also occurred in significant numbers in the deepest artifact-bearing strata (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997).

Because these tools do not possess unique characteristics which immediately identify them as dating to the Pleistocene, archaeologists must recognize the possibility that Pre-Clovis Period sites have been overlooked for years. At present, only a handful of potential Pre-Clovis Period sites have been identified in North America (Boyd 2003; Goodyear 2005).

Paleoindian Period (13,000–10,000 B.P.)

The archaeological data from Virginia compiled by Dr. Ben McCary records numerous discoveries of fluted points, but no unambiguous association between extinct large game and fluted points (Boyd 1989:139). A similar situation occurs throughout the eastern United States. For this reason, many archaeologists now hold that eastern Paleoindians were generalized foragers (e.g., Gingerich 2011; Grayson and Meltzer 2003; but see Fiedel and Haynes 2004).

Most large Paleoindian sites in the southeastern United States are quarry or quarry-related (Meltzer 1988:21), though multiple band aggregation sites also occur (McAvoy 1992:145). Recognizable sites most often result from long-term habitation or repeated use of the same location. It follows that the presence of primarily quarry or quarry-related sites indicates that stone outcrops were regularly revisited.

Though the full range of available lithic resources was used to manufacture fluted points (e.g., Hranicky 2009; Phelps 1983), a number of studies have noted a focus on cryptocrystalline materials (e.g., chert, jasper, chalcedony) (Gardner 1974, 1989; Goodyear 1979). The recovery of these cryptocrystalline materials at locations far removed from quarries indicates exchange and/or extensive group movement. In addition, the very limited differences among sites and within sites suggest that most people had access to all available resources, while the small size of most Paleoindian sites indicates group size was limited to extended families.

In sum, the evidence suggests wide-ranging mobility, low-level inter- and intra-group exchange of utilitarian items, and limited, if any, status differences between and within groups characterized the 13,000–10,000 B.P. social order. Ethnographers have grouped such societies under the rubric of the “foraging mode of production.” Such societies, notably the San of the Kalahari, are fiercely egalitarian, resisting attempts to garner individual power through a combination of ridicule, sharing, and a fission-fusion pattern of settlement. If all else fails, egalitarian hunter-gatherers vote with their feet, moving away from the offending individuals (Lee 1979). The combination of high mobility, the absence of domesticated crops, and an egalitarian ideology precludes construction of elaborate housing, extensive storage facilities, and accumulation of non-portable goods.

The majority of Paleoindian remains in Virginia are represented by isolated projectile point finds and what appear to be small temporary camps and extractive sites. To the west of the project area, archaeologists recently excavated the Brook Run Site. A hearth feature from the site revealed a radio carbon date of 11,670 B.P. suggesting a Paleoindian occupation. Additional dates at the site provide evidence for a later Early Archaic occupation as well. This site sits on a jasper seam that would have provided good quality lithic material for tool production (Voigt 2004).

Archaic Period (10,000–3200 B.P.)

The Archaic began with the northward retreat of periglacial environments and the appearance of archaeological assemblages lacking fluted points (Barber 2003). In the Chesapeake Bay

region, a shift from moist, cool conditions to a warmer, drier climate accompanied the glacial retreat. In response to changing climatic conditions, in particular the receding ice-sheets, Chesapeake Bay sea levels rose continuously between 15,000 B.P. and the present. Simultaneously, local subsidence of the earth's crust also may have contributed to the formation of the Chesapeake Bay. After 3000 B.P., sea level rise slowed to approximately 0.05 inches (0.12 cm) per year, and the Chesapeake Bay approached its present contours (Brush 1986:149; Dent 1995:69–95).

In eastern Virginia, a more temperate climate characterized by greater seasonal variation in temperatures emerged as the Chesapeake estuary formed (Dent 1995:147). Vegetation changed from the patchy forest that lacked modern analogs to a mixed conifer-deciduous forest. An essentially modern vegetational assemblage is inferred based on pollen data from contexts as early as 6000–5000 B.P. (Brush 1986:151; Webb 1988:405), though relative abundances of taxa fluctuated thereafter. During the Holocene, as paleoclimatologists term the post-Pleistocene epoch, humans responded to emerging differences in the availability of resources over the course of the year via increasing seasonal mobility. (Barber 2003; Tolley 2003)

In addition, in contrast with the broad similarity among Paleo-Indian point forms, distinct style zones developed during the Early and Middle Archaic (10,000–5500 B.P.). The Atlantic Coast/Southeastern stylistic sequence was not characteristic of the Midwest (Ford 1974:392). In addition, increased use of locally available lithics occurred between 10,000 and 5500 B.P. (Custer 1990:36; Sassaman et al. 1988:85–88). The reduction of the size of style zones and the focus on local lithic materials implies contracting social networks and incipient territories, possibly a reaction to population growth (Anderson and Hanson 1988:271).

Despite changes in patterns of mobility and point form numerous archaeologists argue on environmental (Custer 1990:2–8) and subsistence (Smith 1986) grounds for continuity in social dynamics between 13,000 and 5500 B.P. The Archaic also marks the beginning of ground stone technology, with the occurrence of ground atlatl weights and celts. New tool categories that developed during various parts of the Archaic include chipped and ground stone celts, ground stone net sinkers, pestles, pecked stones, mullers, axes, and, during the more recent end of the Late Archaic, vessels carved from soapstone quarried in the Piedmont (Geier 1990; McLearen 1991).

The Late Archaic period is often seen as the culmination of trends that began during the Early and Middle Archaic (Blanton 2003; Dent 1995:178). Dent (1995:178) suggests that the Late Archaic is “a time that contains both the ends of one way of life and the beginnings of a significant redirection.” The artifact assemblage is dominated by bifacial tools; however, expedient flake scrapers, drills, perforators and utilized flakes are also characteristic of these assemblages. Groundstone tools, including adzes, celts, and axes are seen during this period, with the grooved axe making its first appearance during the Late Archaic (Dent 1995:181–182). Diagnostic projectile points of the narrow blade tradition, often viewed as marking the early portion of the Late Archaic period, include the Bare Island, Lamoka, and Holmes (Dent 1995; Mouer 1991).

The period of time from approximately 4500 B.P. to 3200 B.P. is referred to as the Transitional period by some (Mouer 1991); while others argue that due to the lack of pottery it is more accurately classified as an extension of the Late Archaic (Dent 1995:180). Transitional Period sites tend to be larger than those of the Archaic periods, likely reflecting an increase in population; however, there is still no evidence for year-round occupation (Blanton 2003). Dent (1995) argues that the larger sites may be misinterpreted as reflecting longer-term occupation and may simply be sites that were revisited for short period on many occasions. Material culture associated with the Transitional period includes steatite vessels, as well as the groundstone tools discussed above. Broad-blade points associated with the later portion of the Late Archaic or Transitional period include the Savannah River, Susquehanna, and Perkiomen; Dry Brook, and Orient Fishtail projectile points are also characteristic of the era (Blanton 2003; Dent 1995; Mouer 1991).

Woodland Period (3200–400 B.P.)

Woodland peoples continued to depend on various combinations of hunting, gathering, and fishing for over a millennium. The onset of the Woodland period traditionally correlates with the appearance of ceramics (Willey and Phillips 1958:118). Early theorists linked ceramics with agriculture, though few continue to support this position (cf. reviews in Egloff 1991; Hodges 1991). Rather, the evolution of subsistence and technological systems (e.g., Gardner 1982) and various aspects of pan-Eastern interaction (e.g., Egloff 1991; Klein 1997) currently are believed to underlie the evolution of ceramic containers.

The steatite-tempered Marcey Creek type and variants containing other mineral inclusions appear to date between 3200 and 2800 B.P. (Egloff 1991:244–5). However, though friable sand-and-grit-tempered Accokeek Creek and Elk Island ceramics appear stratigraphically subsequent to Marcey Creek, associated C-14 dates range from 3000 through 2500 B.P. Klein and Stevens (1996) cite regional data to support the proposition that, while the thickness, amount of temper, and size of temper in quartz/sand-tempered, cord-marked ceramics shifted over time, similar pots continued in use into Middle Woodland times (Klein 2003).

Radiocarbon dates recommend placement of the Calvert and Fishtail points in the Early Woodland (Inashima 2008). Ovoid to lozenge-shaped points, classified as Teardrop Points, have been dated to 2900–2000 B.P. in the Northeast (Mounier and Martin 1994). However, similar points have been recovered from Middle Archaic through Middle Woodland I contexts in North Carolina and Virginia (Kirchen 2001:53–69). The Potts Corner-Notched point type, the Vernon point type, and the Claggett point type have been dated only through stratigraphic context and/or association with early ceramics (Inashima 2008; Stephenson 1963). Similarly, a variety of small stemmed and side-notched forms of assumed association with the Early Woodland period lack definitive temporal assignment (Dent 1995:227–228).

Small bifaces and expedient tools such as drills, perforators, and scrapers as well as utilized flakes are a common part of the Early Woodland tool kit. Other lithic artifacts reported on Early Woodland sites in the Chesapeake include bipolar flakes possibly used as knives or scrapers, hammerstones, net sinkers, mortars, and pestles (McLearen 1991). Also noted on

sites in the region are tools of bone, and projectile points manufactured from antler, bone, turkey spurs, and shark's teeth (Waselkov 1982).

Net-impressed ceramics appear after roughly 2500 B.P., marking the beginning of the Middle Woodland I period (Blanton 1992:72–3; Egloff and Potter 1982:99). However, cord-marked ceramics and stemmed points continued in use for some time after 1500 B.P. (McLearen 1992:44–5). The appearance of assemblages containing significant amounts of durable ceramics after 2500 B.P. indicates a shift in the organization of production occurred during the Middle Woodland (Brown 1986; 1989). In addition to the advantages of ceramic vessels as cooking pots, ceramic production contrasts with the manufacture of baskets and wooden in its embrace of economies of scale. Rather than a start-and-stop process that fits well into odd bits of time, ceramic production required greater scheduling and continued attention over an extended period of time. Shifts in the scheduling of at least women's work, therefore, accompanied the transition from Early to Middle Woodland times.

Yet, broad-spectrum hunting-fishing-gathering continued to characterize the region as a whole throughout the Middle Woodland; nevertheless, human manipulation of landscapes and other actions led to the appearance of indigenous domesticates in the mid-continent, and similar encouragement of the growth of favored plants likely occurred in the Middle Atlantic region (Smith 2007, 2011). Shellfish, anadromous and resident fishes, deer, waterfowl, and turkey ranked high among the important fauna in the Middle Woodland diet. Various nuts, amaranth, and chenopod seeds also appear to be important resources during this period. After 2300 B.P., large shell middens containing dense concentrations of artifacts become increasingly common, indicating repeated use of at least one type of site. Middens and the presence of houses at a number of sites indicate longer stays, though populations remained far from sedentary (Gallivan 2003, 2016). People continued to reside for much of the year in relatively small settlements, and interior storage features rarely occur on Middle Woodland sites (Gallivan 2003:75–98). In short, small groups continued to live within relatively small settlements for much of the year during the Middle Woodland. Periodic aggregations brought together groups for feasting, gift exchange, and the opportunity for marriage ties with residents of other communities (Gallivan 2016:94).

Enormous changes transformed the social landscape of eastern North America in the centuries after 900 B.P. Archaeological research in the Middle Atlantic indicates that population growth, increased sedentism, a focus of settlement on the major rivers, heightened frequency of regional exchange, more varied mortuary activities, the introduction of maize agriculture, and increasingly focal exploitation of marine resources characterized the centuries between 900 and 350 B.P. (Curry 2015; Gallivan 2003, 2006; Gold 2004; Hodges 2004; Klein 2017; Mahoney 2009; Shephard 2015). Triangular projectile points, ubiquitous by 900 B.P., may decrease in size between 900 and 300 B.P., coincidental perhaps with heightened reliance on the bow and arrow. Albemarle and other fabric-impressed sherds appear around 1300 B.P. in central Virginia (Evans 1955). After roughly 500 B.P., Gaston and Roanoke Simple Stamped sherds and thin, plain and cord-marked sherds classified as the Potomac Creek type appear in the James River Valley (Gallivan 2003:138–143). Elaborately decorated and unelaborated ceramic smoking pipes also appear during the Late Woodland period (e.g., Magoon 1999; Stephenson 1963). Bone was used for utilitarian and other items, including pins, fishhooks, and flutes.

Chiefdom-level societies, based on hereditary inequality, developed in coastal Virginia during this time (Gallivan 2003, 2016; Potter 1993). Oft-cited explanations for status differences in the Middle Atlantic, regardless of the precise interpretation involved, emphasize the entwined effects of climatic change, a growing population, and the incorporation of maize in the Amerindian diet after 1100 B.P. Gallivan (2003: 125, 156–160) points to the interplay of various factors subsumed under cycling models to explain the emergence of inequality in the James River Valley. Roughly 300 years after the 1000 B.P. introduction of maize horticulture, James River households first congregated in clusters of six or more structures, indicating that maize alone did not cause the emergence of villages. Rather, regional social processes, including exchange of ornamental shell and feasting, led to the emergence of status differences. Storage pit features shifted from external locations to house interiors, signaling increased household control of surplus production. Concurrently, a small percentage of unusually large structures, either homes of leaders or the setting for community-wide institutions like council houses, appeared throughout the Chesapeake region. Simultaneously, large roasting pit features occurred in villages, an indication of communal feasting. Beyond and within villages, communal burials occurred (Curry 1999:68, 2015; Hantman and Klein 1992).

Exchange, of shell and copper in particular, expanded after 400 B.P., while historical documents indicate that more complex chiefdoms of five–seven villages existed during the terminal Late Woodland (Gallivan 2003; Shephard 2015). By the seventeenth century, the charismatic leader Powhatan controlled the James and York Rivers; the Chickahominy, residing on the river of the same name, were ruled by elders rather than chiefs (Rountree 1989; Rountree et al. 2007; Turner 2003).

The larger base camps, hamlets, and villages typically occupied the floodplains adjacent to rivers or major tributaries. Floodplain stability increases after 1700 B.P. along the major streams, increasing the potential for locating intact sites dating to the Late Woodland eras (Klein 2003). Small seasonal camps and satellite camps supporting nearby villages and hamlets occur along smaller streams in the interior and in the interstices between villages and hamlets (Hodges 2004). One such seasonal camp, Site 44SP0227, was inundated by the creation of the Hunting Run Reservoir near Chancellorsville. Excavation of the remains of a small hut, a hearth, associated features, and numerous Potomac Creek plain and cord-marked sherds identified the site as a single-family camp, perhaps occupied during the spring, when resources stored over the winter had been exhausted and crops were newly sown (Klein et al. 1998).

Contact Period

The Contact and early historic Period refer to the time period during which the native groups had their first contact with Europeans and European goods. Native adaptations to the changing social and political environment of the Piedmont are poorly understood. The Piedmont was occupied by several Siouan-speaking groups during the late prehistoric and Contact Periods (Mouer 1983). The material culture of the period is characterized by sand- and grit-tempered pottery similar and likely derived from Late Woodland styles (Potter 1993). The introduction of European goods is a distinguishing characteristic of this period.

Depopulation related to European born disease and changed trade dynamics are the two primary factors often cited in cultural changes during this period.

Historic Context

Contact Period and the Seventeenth Century

While some sources suggest that Europeans had explored the area around Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County as early as 1570 (Alvey 1978:1), it was John Smith who left the first written record of his visit (Mansfield 1977:11). In his *Generall Historie of Virginia*, originally published in 1624, Smith described his 1608 explorations along both the Rappahannock and Potomac rivers looking for trading opportunities and other resources (Smith 1966). In July 1608, Smith and his colleagues followed the Rappahannock River to the falls, the location of present-day Fredericksburg, where his company was forced to turn back by dangerous travel conditions (Mansfield 1977:2; Quinn 1908:13).

From 1608 to the 1650s, however, European settlement in the area was rare. It was not until 1655 that the first land patent in the area was given to Margaret Brent for 1,000 acres just west of present-day Fredericksburg (Felder 1982; 3; Mansfield 1977:75). In 1666, Lawrence Smith and Robert Taliaferro patented 6,300 acres in eastern Spotsylvania County along the Rappahannock River (Goolrick 1935). The Virginia House of Burgesses commissioned Smith to build a fort on this property in 1676 to encourage settlement in the area (Felder 1982:5). The fort was to be developed as a community for 250 people, garrisoned by soldiers and furnished with ample munitions to ward off any encroachers (Goolrick 1922:10; Mansfield 1977:2). Though Smith's fort was originally conceived as a sort of 'gateway' to the west, only a few temporary structures were built in the area, and no settlers moved there (Alvey 1978:2). The fort was disbanded by the House in 1682 (Mansfield 1977:2).

The largest and most successful precursor of future settlement in the general region occurred in 1714. Alexander Spotswood arrived in Virginia in 1710 to become the Lieutenant Governor. Spotswood quickly realized that the success of the colony lay in westward expansion, and he established two frontier forts in 1714 to achieve this goal. One fort was Christianna, located in what is today Brunswick County, southwest of Richmond. The second fort was located on a peninsula of the Rapidan River west of what is today Fredericksburg. The pentagonal fort was built and inhabited by a group of Germans from the Nassau-Siegen region. In honor of these 12 families of Germans and Queen Anne of England, the fort was named Germanna (Wayland 1989:10). Realizing the potential for the area to act as a frontier community, Spotswood brought over two additional groups of German indentured servants in 1717 and 1719, and the population of the Germanna area grew to over 200 people (Schurict 1977:66–69).

Prior to the founding of Fort Germanna, the only transportation routes in this area were the waterways and few forest paths created by Native Americans (VDOT 2002:2). The first European-based roadway in the area was a bridle path, ordered by the Virginia council in April 1714 (Mansfield 1977; Pawlett 1977; VDOT 2002). The Germanna path was developed by the Fort Germanna settlers and led from the falls near the Leaseland to the fort

(Mansfield 1977:38). A few years later, a rolling road was built through this area (Mansfield 1977; Pawlett 1977; VDOT 2002). The new road, appropriately called Mines Road, connected Germanna to Spotswood's Tubal Iron Works and his newest enterprise, a wharf on Massaponax Run, located between the iron mines and the Leaseland (Fredericksburg) (Quinn 1908:22).

With the help of the German workers, and later African slaves, Spotswood's iron business became the largest and most successful ironwork in Spotsylvania County, and indeed the Atlantic region in the first decades of the eighteenth century. The Spotsylvania Iron Works, as he called it, was located 13 miles east of Germanna on Pipe Dam Creek. Contemporaries named Spotswood the Tubal Cain of Virginia, thus his iron works became known as Tubal. The iron works included both the iron mines and the foundry (Goolrick 1935:7). The cast furnace was located at Massaponax, as well as storehouses, a tavern, and other businesses associated with the wharf. Although it is not known exactly when Spotswood's furnace went into operation, advertisement of byproducts made at the furnace began by 1723 (Spotswood 1945:11).

In 1720, Spotswood pushed the House to create Spotsylvania County with Germanna as the county seat (Felder 1982:13). Spotsylvania County was formed from what was Essex County. Essex County once contained the majority of northern Virginia, from Lancaster County on the east to the Blue Ridge Mountains on the west (Joyner 1999:13). The Virginia government allocated £500 to build a courthouse, church, prison, pillory, and stocks, and others who lived there built homes and other commercial buildings. The first session of court was held in the summer of 1722, and one of the first orders of business was to grant a license to John Finlason for a tavern. Finlason ran the tavern out of his home from 1722 until 1728 and hosted most of the incoming court officials during sessions at Germanna (Miller 1984). This is believed to be the first business in Spotsylvania County not owned or established by Alexander Spotswood.

Brock Road (current Route 613), known as Germanna Road, was already in place by 1722. This provided access to Spotsylvania County facilities at Germanna. Brock Road was known as Germanna Road into the nineteenth century (Felder 1992:3). By 1730, construction of Chiswell's Mine Road, connecting Chiswell's Furnace with Germanna, was underway. This road, which utilizes portions of modern day Blockhouse Road (Route 648) and Court House Road (Route 208) was proposed by an outside entrepreneur and was understandably resisted by county residents. However, by 1732 it was completed (Felder 1992:3-9).

In 1730, Spotswood was made Postmaster General of North America and the West Indies at a salary of £300 a year. The Virginia postal system was operated out of another Spotswood-founded Spotsylvania community, aptly named New Post, located at the intersection of what are today Routes 2 and 17 south of Fredericksburg. By 1732, county residents had grown tired of traveling to Germanna for monthly court meetings. The county seat of Spotsylvania officially moved to Fredericksburg on October 1, 1732 for the convenience of all inhabitants and county officials.

The Eighteenth Century

Only two years after the county court moved to Fredericksburg, the entire Germanna area was divided from Spotsylvania to create Orange County. Massaponax, New Post, and Tubal remained in Spotsylvania. Over the next several decades, the county continued to be owned in large parcels by a handful of wealthy planters. Tobacco was the main cash crop. Like many Virginia counties, Spotsylvania was forced to diversify during the second half of the eighteenth century when the soils had become depleted by tobacco crops. "Tobacco was formerly planted to the exclusion of almost everything else; but within the last 30 years it has gradually given place to wheat and corn" (Martin 1835:280). Large plantations were divided into small farmsteads, and wheat and other grains became the agricultural staple. Accompanying this agricultural change, numerous new roads and industries were established at this time to accommodate the new crop needs. This included mills, warehouses, and bakeries at wharf locations and taverns and ferry/ford crossings at the major waterways.

By the time of the American Revolution, the county had solidly adopted the system of slave labor. Like many colonists, white residents wholeheartedly supported the Continental Congress and the move towards American Independence, but most white's believed this did not refer to slaves. By the time of the first American census in 1790, enslaved African Americans outnumbered whites (5,171 white, 6,081 slave, and 348 free black) (Coleman and Trice 1934).

The end of the eighteenth century and a changing geographical population distribution of the county brought about new discontent about the county seat. Since 1732, Spotsylvania's county seat was located in Fredericksburg, along the Rappahannock River. In 1780, the county seat moved to a more central location near the Po River due to complaints from western inhabitants of Spotsylvania. A location just north to the Po River along Blockhouse Road (current Route 648) was chosen. Despite protests by citizens of Fredericksburg, the county seat stayed in this new location for over 50 years (Mansfield 1977:93). The Spotsylvania Courthouse moved to its current location in 1838.

The Antebellum Years

After the economic boom of the post-Revolutionary years, Spotsylvania fell into a slight economic decline after 1820 due to a decrease in American flour demand. New transportation methods such as the Erie Canal and later the expanding railroad system opened up new areas to attain food products. By switching to crop rotation and contour plowing; however, Spotsylvania farmers were able to retain a modicum of their previous production. The modern-day alignment of Blockhouse Road (Route 648) and Brock Road (Route 613) seem to have been in place by 1820.

One industry that emerged in the mid-nineteenth century was gold mining. The first gold in Virginia was discovered at Spotsylvania's Whitehall Mine in 1806 (Sweet 1980). The industry steadily increased and boomed between the 1830s and 1840. When large quantities of gold were discovered at Sutter's Mill in California in the 1840s, a large percentage of the local miners moved to the West Coast. Without the labor to support the lodes, the mining industry collapsed in the 1850s (Sweet 1980).

Like most of this region, the county was in a precarious position on the eve of the Civil War. Enslaved Africans made up over half of the population in 1860—8,360 of the 16,076 inhabitants (Coleman and Trice 1934). In preparation for the war, it is reputed that the court records were wrapped in paper and buried in a wood box behind the courthouse. Most of the counties sent their records to Richmond for safe keeping, but those records were destroyed during the burning of the Confederate capital. As a result, almost all of Spotsylvania's records were saved from destruction (Mansfield 1977:99–100).

The Civil War

Five major Civil War battles occurred in Spotsylvania County and, more specifically in the Fredericksburg. Major battles included the First and Second Battles of Fredericksburg, the Battle of Salem Church, the Battle of Chancellorsville, and the Battle of Spotsylvania Courthouse. This discussion focuses the clash of forces in and around Fredericksburg, the December 1862 and May 1863 First and Second Fredericksburg Battles, and the June 1863 action at Franklin's Crossing.

First Battle of Fredericksburg

Fredericksburg was a disappointing and fruitless campaign that resulted in a major defeat for the new Union commander, Ambrose E. Burnside. The success of the campaign relied on the element of surprise, in hopes to avoid a confrontation with General Robert E. Lee at Fredericksburg. Burnside proposed a plan to expediently march into Falmouth by way of the Rappahannock River and then cross into Fredericksburg. Once there, travel to the Pamunkey River, where a new base of supply awaited, via the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad would be relatively trouble-free (Marvel 1993:3).

The Rappahannock bridges had been burned at Fredericksburg, however, thus requiring the use of pontoon bridges. Unfortunately, the army's pontoons remained on the Upper Potomac where they had been last used. In spite of this, Union generals assured Burnside that the pontoons would be waiting for him and that they would take approximately three days to arrive. Disappointingly, their arrival was not punctual. The majority of the pontoons finally arrived November 27, 1862—about ten days after Burnside had expected them. By this time, Lee had long suspected an attack on Fredericksburg. Burnside and his soldiers could no longer expect a lightly defended town and thereby a straightforward takeover. The Federals first crossed the Rappahannock December 11. The majority would follow the next day (Marvel 1993:3–4).

On December 12, after laying artillery fire on Fredericksburg, Union soldiers poured over five pontoon bridges built that day, while Lee strengthened his battle line atop the ridge overlooking the Rappahannock River. On December 13, Burnside simultaneously attacked the seven mile Confederate line below Fredericksburg, where General Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson occupied the Confederate right; and at Marye's Heights behind the town where General James Longstreet's corps held the position. Burnside ordered too small an attack and, despite a Union division's success at breaking Jackson's line, the Federal effort failed. Confederate troops held an advantageous position on the heights and had infantry

emplaced literally behind a stone wall. During the night on December 15, Burnside returned his troops back across the river ending the campaign (Willis and Felder 1993:52). Burnside made another attempt in January 1863. This quickly dissolved into the abortive “Mud March.” This, along with other failures led to the replacement of General Burnside (CWSAC 2009). Interestingly, his replacement was the original choice for successor to General George B. McClellan, Major General Joseph Hooker (Marvel 1993:3).

The Second Battle of Fredericksburg

As General Hooker replaced Burnside as the commander of the Union forces, he decided that a second frontal assault on Lee’s forces, entrenched in Fredericksburg, was unwise. Hooker decided that he would move his troops twenty-five miles upstream to cross the Rappahannock at Kelly’s Ford, utilizing both Germanna and Ely’s Ford to cross the Rapidan, and move back east behind Lee’s troops to attack Lee on two fronts. He left General John Sedgwick in command of a limited number of troops on the north side of the Rappahannock in Fredericksburg to distract Lee (Stackpole 1958:92–102).

Lee had considered various Union approaches to crossing the Rappahannock and engaging his troops, but had seen the primary range of crossing as extending from Banks Ford to Port Royal. In this sense, Hooker’s plan had effectively surprised Lee. Unfortunately for Hooker, Lee, characteristically calm and accurate, assessed the field reports he received and was able to surmise Hooker’s plans and develop an unanticipated and aggressive response (Stackpole 1958:128–135).

Taking a wide birth to the west, Union forces encountered extensive Confederate defenses at U.S. Ford but Confederate forces retired from the river leaving Hooker in control of U.S. Ford without any losses on May 1, 1863. Lee received word of Hooker’s maneuver and decided to split his inferior forces and move the majority of his troops to the west, leaving only one-sixth of his force in Fredericksburg (Happel 1980:27). As Lee arrived at Chancellorsville on May 2, he decided to again split his forces and flank Hooker, who at this point was entrenched at a house called Chancellorsville, located above U.S. Ford. The reconnaissance for the flanking force, led by Jackson, discovered the weakness of that flank, resting on no natural obstacle or strong point. Jackson successfully attacked the Union right in the late afternoon, but in the confusion and darkness of the night Jackson was fatally wounded by his own troops (Happel 1980:27–28; Salmon 2001:193–181; Stackpole 1958:230–255).

As Jackson had smashed through the Union right, Hooker urgently ordered Sedgwick to drive through the Confederate defenses at Fredericksburg to bolster his forces at Chancellorsville. Hooker’s messages, however, confused Sedgwick, who was uncertain his single corps could tip the scales to Hooker, whose forces greatly outnumbered those of Lee and Jackson. Sedgwick did so on May 3, moving through Fredericksburg in the Second Battle of Fredericksburg with resistance from General Jubal Early’s forces. Sedgwick expected a repeat of the previous year’s disaster, when he faced a strong Confederate force entrenched in impregnable defensive positions atop Marye’s Heights and Prospect Hill. In contrast, Early was undermanned, so Union forces accomplished the task, previously deemed impossible, of capturing Fredericksburg. Sedgwick missed an opportunity to attack while a

token force defended the heights. Receiving word of the attack, Early's force returned to Fredericksburg. On Sunday, May 3rd, at 7 AM, Sedgwick's men moved through the town toward Marye's Heights, but encountered unexpected obstacles. Confronted with this news, Sedgwick decided a frontal assault provided the best hope of dislodging Confederate forces (Happel 1980:28; Salmon 2001:184; Stackpole 1958:306–317).

Union troops doubled timed toward the heights with fixed bayonets toward the Southern soldiers and artillery behind a stone wall at the base and atop Mayre's Heights. Fire erupted as the Federal soldiers neared the wall, driving the attackers toward cover. When the Federals realized the single row of solders defended the wall, the information sailed up the chain of command, and the attack renewed. Led by the 7th Massachusetts, the soldiers charged the wall. Fierce hand-to-hand combat at the wall collapses the Confederate line, and the defenders fled up the hill toward the heights. Faced with the breach of the center of his defenses, Early had his forces fell back south along Telegraph Road and established strong defensive positions (Salmon 2001: 186–188).

Sedgwick moved west towards Chancellorsville along Plank Road, modern day Route 3, encountering little more than skirmishes until arriving in the vicinity of Salem Church. Since Hooker again had failed to engage the Confederate forces, General Lafayette McLaws' and later General Robert Anderson's divisions were dispatched from Chancellorsville to the east when Lee received word of Sedgwick's movements. With McLaws' forces occupying a ridge line, the Union forces attacked and eventually drove them back. By the afternoon of May 4, however, Anderson's forces had positioned themselves to the south of Sedgwick and he was hemmed in on three sides (Happel 1980:29–35). Sedgwick received a dispatch from Hooker the afternoon of May 4 telling him that he was too far abreast to direct and that he should keep the safety of his troops in mind. Sedgwick decided to hold his position and wait for the Confederate attack (Stackpole 1958:339).

Lee, having decided that Hooker was not going to move to reinforce Sedgwick, planned to drive Sedgwick north across the river. As Anderson's troops got into position late in the day on May 4 the attack began with Early and Anderson forcing the Union troops north across Plank Road. Unfortunately, the Confederates took heavy casualties in this attack due to strong artillery support for the Federals (Stackpole 1958:342). Lee, in uncharacteristic fashion, ordered his first night attack of the war to drive Sedgwick across the river. This decision was driven by Lee's concern that Sedgwick would be able to dig in overnight and they would have to fight the day's battle all over again the next day. Sedgwick decided to cross the river and had a second bridge placed at Scott's Ford and by 2 to 3 a.m. on May 5 all of his troops had crossed the river and the Battle of Salem Church was completed (Salmon 2001:188–192; Stackpole 1958:342–344).

With both Jackson and General A.P. Hill wounded, General J.E.B. Stuart was called from his cavalry division to command the Second Corps. Stuart had found himself with time on his hands and had led his cavalry to Ely's Ford, where, reportedly, Federal wagon trains had parked. Stuart and his force of approximately 1,000 men arrived at Ely's Ford to find Union General William Averell's Federal Cavalry on the north shore. Stuart had decided to exploit this situation through a preemptive diversionary attack. Just as the first volley of this attack commenced, however, Stuart was called to command the Second Corps. Stuart and his troops

withdrew to Chancellorsville, sending word to General Fitzhugh Lee to secure and hold Ely's Ford Road (Salmon 2001: 181; Stackpole 1958:269).

At midnight the night of May 4–5, Hooker called his only council of war to determine whether to withdraw across the Rappahannock at Banks Ford. With three of the five officers in attendance, and the senior officers at that, voting to stay and go on the offensive, Hooker made the decision to cross the river. The crossing was completed in adverse weather conditions on the early morning hours of May 6 and the Battle of Chancellorsville came to a close.

Franklin's Crossing

In June 1863, Federal forces laid pontoon-boat bridges across the Rappahannock River at Franklin's Crossing. The crossing, the third at that point in two years, was subsequently seen as the first scene in the Gettysburg Campaign. Harrison (2018), in an attempt to avoid hindsight and understand Hooker's motives at the time, christens the engagement Third Fredericksburg.

On June 3rd as Lee's army withdrew from Fredericksburg, the news filtered up the chain to Hooker. Hooker ordered John Sedgwick's Sixth Corp to cross the river and verify the reports. As Harrison (2018) notes:

Hooker ordered the June operation at Franklin's Crossing not knowing the future but attempting to predict and influence it. More important, he maintained the bridgehead for more than a week as part of two successive plans to move the Army of the Potomac southwest or south to fight in east-central Virginia, not north or northwestward to fight above the Potomac.

Lincoln nixed the idea when first proposed on June 5, directing Hooker to attack the portions of Lee's Army moving north and protect Harper's Ferry and Washington, rather than attacking entrenched positions south of the Rappahannock River (U.S. War Department Official Records [Official Records] 1889:30–31).

Hooker, concerned about a possible breach of the Union river defenses, ordered General John Sedgwick's Sixth Corps to make ready for an assault. The engagement unfolded with a June 5th order to support engineers and soldiers constructing pontoon bridges for an assault. Under fire, the engineers and the Fifth Vermont and the 26th New Jersey lowered the pontoons into the water and the troops pushed off the north bank across from the mouth of Deep Run, where the Yankees had crossed during Second Fredericksburg (Harrison 2018; USWars.com 2018).

Northern cannons buffeted Confederate atop the opposite uplands, but did not find the range for a lower rifle pit below the ridge crest, whose defenders unleashed a fusillade of rifle fire that slowed the crossing. Nevertheless, the Northern artillery barrage provided cover for the crossing, ceasing only when the attackers were well up the slope of the bluff. Northern troops overran the rifle pits, despite losing 50 to 60 men (Harrison 2018). Union forces captured between 35 and 93 Confederates (Harrison 2018; Horn 2018).

Despite the Federal beachhead, elements of A.P. Hill's Third Corps occupied additional entrenched positions opposite Franklin's Crossing, and additional troops also manned an entrenched line that extended northwest and southwest of the Federals' bridgehead. Hooker's telegram to Lincoln at nightfall on the 5th noted that the Confederates had responded quickly to the assault-crossing by assembling "in great numbers from all quarters" at their principal positions along and behind a railroad line south of the river. Sedgwick sent a large reconnaissance force on June 6th, which passed on word that a considerable force occupied the line, an impression largely due to Confederate subterfuge.

Picketing and sharpshooters locked the Sixth Corps within a rough box that stretched from:

the Rappahannock below the pontoon bridges (two 400-foot spans having been completed on the 6th); extended west to the Richmond Stage Road/Bowling Green Road and past the ruins of the Arthur Bernard House, "Mannsfield," followed the general corridor of the road north to a point not far from the Ferneyhough House, "Sligo;" and then followed Deep Run east to the river near the Alfred Bernard House, "The Bend," above the pontoons (Harrison 2018).

The force encountered during and after the crossing convinced Sedgwick that Lee's troops had not left the defenses near Fredericksburg. Lt. Gen. Ambrose P. Hill's Corps, however, was the only corps remaining in the area, with orders to follow if the Federals did not cross in force. Hill marched the next day. Hooker, still unconvinced, ordered reconnaissance by his cavalry, resulting in the June 9th battle of Brandy Station (USwars.com 2018).

On June 10, Hooker again attempted to convince Washington of the value of an action south of the Rappahannock while a division of the Sixth Corps garrisoned a bridgehead. This time, a massive assault on the remaining defenders in Fredericksburg would drive the Confederates from the city and allow a rapid advance on Richmond. Again, Halleck and Lincoln disapproved; Lincoln reiterated: "Lee's army, not Richmond, is your sure objective point." (Official Records 1889:35).

Not until June 13th did Hooker order the Franklin's Crossing bridgehead abandoned. After the Northern troops reached the Stafford side of the Rappahannock early in the morning of the 14th, and disassembled the bridges. Pickets left on the south bank were captured (Harrison 2018).

The entire episode and Hooker's repeated attempts to convince Lincoln and Halleck of the need for a campaign behind the Confederate army, Harrison (2018) emphasizes, occurred with full knowledge of his superiors' opposition to a similar proposal a month earlier after Chancellorsville, and included no plan to supply the movement against on Richmond. He concludes: "jaundiced view of Third Fredericksburg and Hooker's associated planning might therefore interpret those as means, at least in part, to restore his reputation for aggressiveness after Chancellorsville" (Harrison 2018).

Reconstruction and Into the Twentieth Century

Because of the immense impact of the Civil War, Spotsylvania County had a prolonged and difficult Reconstruction period. Homes, land, and livestock were decimated during the war, and the county's work force left the area after Emancipation. Half of the county land that was under cultivation in 1860 was still unimproved in 1880 (Siegel et al. 1995), and the county wheat production went from 132,000 bushels before the war to 48,000 in 1890 (Coleman and Trice 1934).

In an attempt to lessen the burden, other industries and work locales were introduced. The mining of pyrite began in the early 1900s and was a moderate success throughout the 1910s (Lonsdale 1927), and the automobile allowed for area residents to live in Spotsylvania while driving to work in nearby Fredericksburg. By the Great Depression, the county's population numbered tens of thousands, many of whom were employed by large factories located in the eastern portion of the county, south of Fredericksburg. This included the Sylvania Company and the G&H Clothing Plant. Although times were tough, many of these factories were able to keep their doors open during the tumultuous 1930s (Heinemann 1981:95).

Growth of the county was relatively slow throughout the mid-twentieth century. The creation of Interstate 95 brought travelers and new residents an easier travel route across the eastern edge of the county. In the late-twentieth century, the Virginia Railway Express made Spotsylvania County a convenient place of residence for Washington D.C. commuters. Although a few small crossroads communities retain some of their turn-of-the-century characteristics, many areas along primary transportation corridors have been completely altered.

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SURVEY METHODOLOGY

The background research searched for evidence of previously recorded archaeological resources and examined documents that potentially provided evidence of resources located within the project area. The goals of the Phase IA survey were to identify any previously recorded historic properties within the project area and locate areas in the project area with the potential to contain archaeological resources over 50 years in age. The survey methodology employed to meet these goals was chosen with regard to the project's scope and local field conditions. Based on the topographic and environmental setting of the project area, as well as the antiquity of the surrounding road system and length of historic occupation, it was judged to have a moderate-to-low potential for archaeological sites over 50 years in age.

Background Review and Map Review

Dovetail conducted a background literature and records review of the project area at the DHR, including an investigation of records on previous cultural resource investigations and previously recorded archaeological sites and architectural properties within a 1-mile (1.6-km) radius of the project area. In addition, Dovetail consulted various online repositories, resulting in the acquisition of additional historic maps on the property. The purpose of this work was to obtain information to complete a context of the property and surrounding area.

To complete the historic map review, Dovetail examined historic maps and other resources that potentially provided information about the location of historic resources within the project area. Because a plethora of archival documents are now available online, extensive travel was not required to complete the research. Online resources included the Library of Congress in Washington D.C., maps prepared by the American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP), and resources available at the DHR.

Pedestrian Survey

The field survey consisted of a Dovetail staff conducting a pedestrian survey to inspect the entire project area, paying particular attention to high probability areas and other areas of interest identified during background research. Notes and photographs documented the landforms and field conditions. Once this was accomplished, Dovetail used the data collected during the survey to identify locations that had the potential for subsurface deposits and above-ground resources. No subsurface excavations occurred during this work, but exposed surfaces and surface anomalies were examined.

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BACKGROUND RESEARCH

The potential for archaeological resources within the larger project parcel was assessed by searching the DHR site file maps and records, as well as examining the Civil War Sites Advisory Commission (CWSAC) maps for the area. This data helps to place the field and research findings within their appropriate context.

Civil War Sites Advisory Commission Map Review

The CWSAC situates the project area within the core area of the 1862 Fredericksburg I (VA028, 111-5295) Battlefield, but outside both the existing and potential NRHP boundaries of the battlefield. The 1863 Fredericksburg II (VA034, 111-5296) Battlefield study area includes the project area; however, CWSAC considers the project area outside of the Battlefield core, as well as the existing and potential NRHP boundaries.

Previous Cultural Resource Surveys

The previous Phase I-level surveys examined areas within a 1-mile (1.6-km) radius of the current project area, including architectural and archaeological studies of the Slaughter Pen farm property immediately southwest of the current project area (Ferland et al. 2008). The survey comprised a selective, reconnaissance-level cultural landscape inventory of the Civil War Preservation Trust's Slaughter Pen Farm property as well as shovel test pit (STP) and metal-detector survey of proposed activity areas in preparation for reenactment events. Archaeological resources on the property included site 44SP0086, the remains of a Union camp and staging area occupied during First Fredericksburg (Ferland et al. 2008).

Early archaeological studies in the project vicinity focused on the effects of proposed construction associated with transportation projects. In the mid-1970s, Clark (1976) examined several alternatives for the Route 3 East-West Connector, the present-day Route 3 Bypass. Clark's survey, though limited to visual inspection of exposed ground surfaces and several test pits excavated adjacent to water sources, identified four prehistoric sites near the main stem and a tributary of the Rappahannock River based on surface collection and interviews with collectors (Clark 1976).

Three years later, Walker (1979) examined the location of a proposed bridge across Hazel Run and another that spans the Rappahannock River 1.1 miles (1.8 km) south of the William Street/Route 3 Bridge. Pedestrian survey of areas potentially affected by the proposed construction involved the examination of surfaces and exposed bank cuts. Pipeline and electric cables had disturbed much of the area, though several flakes were collected within the boundaries of site 44ST0004, initially identified by Clark (1976).

Previously Recorded Archaeological Sites

Thirteen previously identified archaeological sites exist within 1 mile (1.6 km) of the project area, including seven with prehistoric components and 11 with historic components (Table 2). Temporally diagnostic artifacts indicate the prehistoric occupation of the area ranged from at least the Early Archaic through the Middle Woodland. Historic resources span the entire post-Contact time range, from seventeenth- through the twentieth-centuries. None of the sites have been evaluated for listing in the NRHP by the DHR staff.

Table 2: Previously Identified Archaeological Sites within a 1-Mile (1.6-km) Radius of the Project Area.

DHR ID	Site Types	Time Periods	NRHP Evaluation
44SP0019	Dwelling, single	19th Century-20th Century	Not Evaluated
44SP0020	Outbuilding	19th Century	Not Evaluated
44SP0065/ 088-0078	Cemetery, Dwelling, single	18th Century: 2nd half	Not Evaluated
44SP0086	Lithic workshop, Military camp	Early Archaic, Middle Woodland, 19th Century: 3rd quarter	Not Evaluated
44SP0126/ 088-0063	Dwelling, single, Fort	17th Century, 19th Century	Not Evaluated
44SP0127	Dwelling, single	19th Century: 3rd quarter	Not Evaluated
44SP0128	Bridge	19th Century: 3rd quarter	Not Evaluated
44SP0180	Camp	Prehistoric, Historic	Not Evaluated
44SP0486	Dwelling, single, Other	Prehistoric, 19th Century: 4th quarter	Not Evaluated
44SP0487	Dwelling, single, Other	Archaic, 19th Century: 1st half	Not Evaluated
44SP0488	Trash scatter	Early-Middle Woodland ,19th Century: 1st half	Not Evaluated
44ST0004	Camp, temporary	Prehistoric	Not Evaluated
44ST0005	Unknown	Prehistoric	Not Evaluated
44ST0006	Unknown	Prehistoric	Not Evaluated
44ST0014	Camp	Prehistoric	Not Evaluated
44ST0015	Camp	Middle Archaic	Not Evaluated
44ST0016	Camp	Unknown	Not Evaluated

Previously Recorded Architectural Resources

Nine previously recorded architectural resources occur within 1 mile (1.6 km) of the project area. Ferry Farm (089-0016/44ST0084), the boyhood home of George Washington, has a sizeable archaeological component and is listed as a National Historic Landmark (NHL),

in the NRHP, and in the Virginia Landmark Register (VLR). The DHR considers an additional three resources, all dating to the nineteenth century, eligible or potentially eligible for listing in the NRHP; the resources, all of which are relevant to understanding the June 1863 action around Franklin's Crossing, include the Second Fredericksburg Battlefield (111-5296/VA34), Mansfield (088-0063), which was held by Union forces during brief June 1863 Union occupation south of the Rappahannock River, and the Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad (500-0001), which provided protection for the second line of Confederate defenders during the Battle of Franklin's Crossing. A farm (089-0280) on King's Highway has been determined not eligible. The remaining architectural resources, including the First Fredericksburg Battlefield (111-5295/VA28) and the Civil War Trust's Slaughter Pen Farm (088-0254), have not been evaluated by the DHR (Table 3).

Table 3: Previously Recorded Architectural Properties
Within 1 Mile (1.6 km) of Project Area.

DHR ID	Property Names	Date	NRHP Evaluation
088-0063	Fredericksburg Country Club (Current), Mansfield Hall, Smithfield Hall	1819	DHR Staff: Eligible
088-0254	Pierson Farm (Current), Slaughter Pen Farm, Wayside Farm	1898	Not Evaluated
089-0016/ 44ST0084	Ferry Farm (Historic/Current), George Washington's Boyhood Home Site	1890	NHL Listing, NRHP Listing, VLR Listing
089-0279	House, Route 3	1920	Not Evaluated
089-0280	Farm, 554 Kings Highway	1930	DHR Staff: Not Eligible
089-0283	Little Falls Farm (Current), Duff Green House	1850	Not Evaluated
111-5295 /VA28	Battle of Fredericksburg I	1862	Not Evaluated
111-5296 /VA34	Battle of Fredericksburg II	1863	DHR Staff: Potentially Eligible
500-0001	Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad Historic District	1837	DHR Staff: Potentially Eligible

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RESULTS OF THE PHASE IA STUDY

As part of the Phase IA, Dovetail conducted a historic map review to identify any historic buildings or Civil War-era features within the project area. Although Civil War maps illustrate Civil War features and activity in the project vicinity, twentieth-century topographic maps imply that extensive disturbance likely destroyed cultural features and archaeological remains in the project area (Salmon 2001:164–165, 188). Consequently, the probability that intact archaeological sites, including Civil War-era historic sites, exist in the project area is low.

CWSAC

The CWSAC situates the project area within the core area of the 1862 First Fredericksburg (111-5295/VA28) Battlefield, and Union troops swept through Franklin's Crossing and the surrounding uplands during the 1863 Second Fredericksburg campaign (111-5296/VA34). Extensive disturbance by development and gravel mining has likely destroyed any intact archaeological resources within the project area and the adjacent landforms; of course, Slaughter Pen Farm (088-0254) may be an exception (but see Ferland et al. 2008 for a caveat).

Historic Maps and Photographs

Historic map review by Ferland et al. (2008) revealed no buildings depicted in the project vicinity on historic maps pre-dating the Civil War. In addition, historic maps depict Franklin's Crossing and pontoons near the mouth of Deep Run, upstream from the project area; Reynold's 1862 crossing point appears downstream, from the project area (Figure 4 to Figure 7, pp. 38–39). Civil War historian John Hennessy locates Franklin's Crossing upstream from the project area, near the mouth of Deep Run (see Harrison 2018). Moreover, a June 1863 photograph of the north bank of the Rappahannock River at Franklin's Crossing depicts a high bluff behind the floodplain of the river (Harrison 2018). At present, no similar landform appears across from the project area. Gravel mines perhaps removed several feet of earth from the bluff (Figure 8, p. 40). Yet, despite similar disturbance of the project area and vicinity, the ridge still rises well above the floodplain (Photo 11, p. 41).

Pedestrian Survey

The pedestrian survey comprised close inspection and photographic documentation of the upland ridge where the proposed construction will occur, with examination of accessible portions of the slopes and floodplain, where no landscape modification is planned. The steep terrain prevented close examination of the entire ridge slope, though large portions of it were visible from the floodplain and, in particular, from the edge of the ridge top. The portions of the floodplain accessible by trails were examined.



Figure 4: Detail from a *Map of a portion of the Rappahannock River and vicinity, Virginia* (Hotchkiss 1866) Depicting the Project Vicinity in December 1862. Not to scale.



Figure 5: Detail From the *Map of the Rappahannock River from [sic] Port Royal to Richards Ferry* (Vernam et al. 1863) Showing the Project Vicinity. Not to scale.

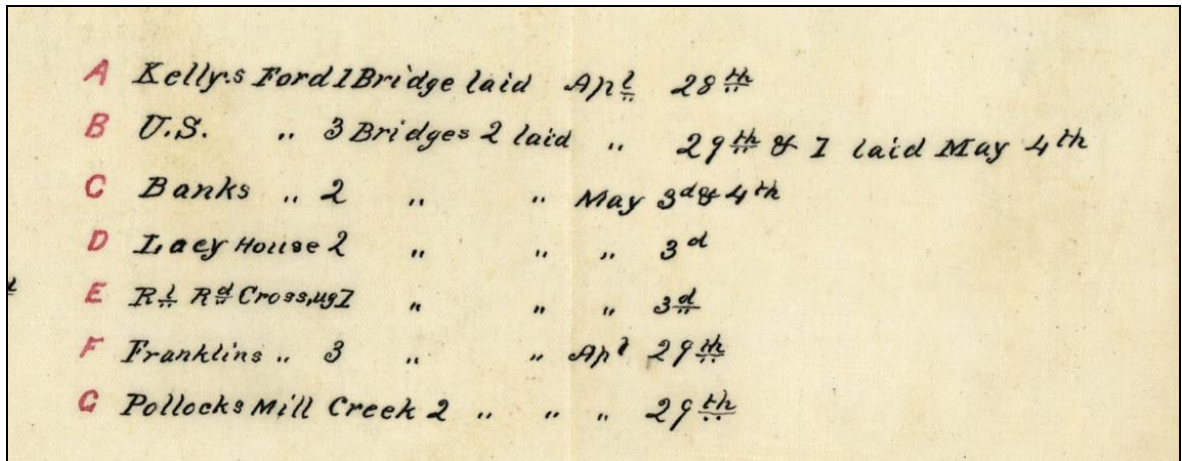


Figure 6: Detail From the Legend in *Map of the Rappahannock River from [sic] Port Royal to Richards Ferry* (Venham et al. 1863).

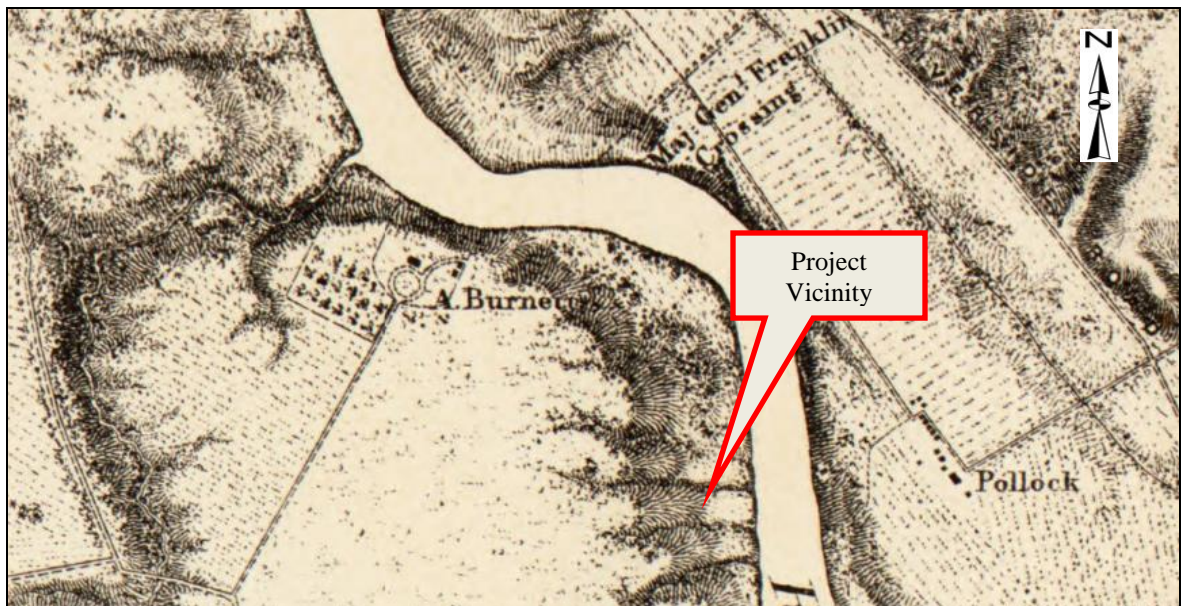


Figure 7: Detail From *Military maps of the United States: Fredericksburg* (U.S Army, Corps of Engineers 1883) Showing the Project Vicinity Not to scale.

Pedestrian survey confirmed the extensive disturbance of the ridge top inferred from the cartographic evidence. The current landscape in the project area is a result of the gravel mining depicted on the 1978 topographic map (see Figure 8, p. 40). The dissected, rutted slopes below the edge of the ridge probably resulted at least in part from extensive erosion as a result of the denuded landscape. In contrast, it appears that the relatively narrow floodplain remains largely intact, though colluvial and alluvial deposition likely buried any archaeological resources present. Regardless, the proposed development will not impact the floodplain or ridge slope (Photo 12 and Photo 13, pp. 41–42).



Figure 8: Detail From the 1978 USGS 7.5-Minute Topographic Map of Fredericksburg, Virginia, Showing Gravel Mines in and Surrounding the Project Area (USGS 1978).



Photo 11: View Northeast Across the Rappahannock River From the Floodplain in the Project Area.



Photo 12: View Southeast Showing Dissected Landforms on the Upper Ridge Slope.



Photo 13: View West Across the Floodplain on the Bank of the Rappahannock River.

Atop the ridge at the western end of the project area, near the approximate extent of gravel mining illustrated in Figure 8, the landform rises abruptly approximately 10 feet (3.0 m). The higher ground to the west likely approximates the former surface of the upland portion of the project area prior to the removal of sands and gravels from the area (Photo 14, p. 43).

In addition, push piles occur throughout the project area, likely the result of both mining and modern landscaping (Photo 15, p. 43). A low, narrow, linear push pile, roughly one foot (0.3 m) high, occurred roughly 50 feet (15.2 m) from the edge of the ridge at the western end of the project area (Photo 16, p. 44). The linear push pile may result from attempts to control erosion; it is highly unlikely to be the remains of a Civil War rifle pit. Not only is the earthen feature very small and narrow, no trench occurs in front of the feature, an essential aspect of earthworks that halt the momentum of attackers at a critical point (Chuber 1996:33, 58; Mahan 1852:1–35). Waud's drawing of the shelling of the Second Florida Regiment following Franklin's Crossing on June 5, 1863 depicts such a trench in front of the parapet of the rifle trench (Figure 9, p. 44). Moreover, the location would prevent soldiers lying behind it from seeing the floodplain and slopes and would provide little time for defenders to react to attackers cresting the ridge. In addition, push piles and exposed bedrock occur between the linear push pile, evidence that earthmoving activity would have destroyed any earthwork situated at the location of the linear feature.

The construction of a utility box and associated access road undoubtedly destroyed and reconfigured the landscape, and trail cuts removed all ground cover, exposing gravel deposits and subsoil. Finally, refuse occurs throughout the ridge top portion of the project area.



Photo 14: View West Showing a Fence and Trees on the Intact Land Surface West of the Project Area.



Photo 15: View East Showing Push Piles in the Eastern Portion of the Project Area.



Photo 16:: View Southeast Showing the Low, Narrow, Linear Push Pile. The arrow and the line of three trees mark the push pile.



Figure 9: Alfred W. Waud's (1863) *Effects of shells upon the enemies rifle pits at the crossing over the Rappahannock--June 5th*.

The project area is located within the boundaries of the Battle of Fredericksburg II (111-5296). The ABPP has conducted a review of this battlefield and the current project area is located outside of the core area of the battlefield and outside of both the existing NRHP boundaries of the battlefield and outside of the area that the ABPP defines as the potential NRHP boundaries of this battlefield (Figure 10, p. 46).

Summary

Historians familiar with the engagement at Franklin's Crossing, historic maps locate Franklin's Crossing upstream from the project area. Moreover, comparison of the historic photograph showing the view toward the Union embarkation point at Franklin's Crossing with a modern photograph across the Rappahannock River from the project area presents a striking contrast, in particular the absence of a high bluff beyond the floodplain at present. Gravel mining likely removed a significant amount of soil across the river from the project area, but removal of approximately 10 feet (3.0 m) of soil by mining in the project area has left a high ridge overlooking the floodplain. In addition to gravel mining, evident disturbance in the project area includes numerous push piles, exposed clay and gravels, deposits of refuse, road cuts, trails, and an electrical station. In sum, evident disturbance atop the ridge, where the proposed construction is planned, and on sloping portions of the project area indicates that earthworks and artifacts associated with the June 1863 engagement at Franklin's Crossing is unlikely to exist in the project area, even if the hypothesis that the project area is the location of the Confederate rifle pits overrun by the Union Sixth Corps in June 1863 is correct. Therefore, no additional archaeological work is required.

The Phase IA survey did not identify any resources meeting the age criteria for listing on the NRHP within the project footprint. While the project is located within the boundaries of the Fredericksburg II battlefield, it is not located within the core area, the current NRHP boundaries of this resource or the potential NRHP boundaries as recommended by the ABPP. As such, no additional documentation of this resource is recommended in association with this resource.

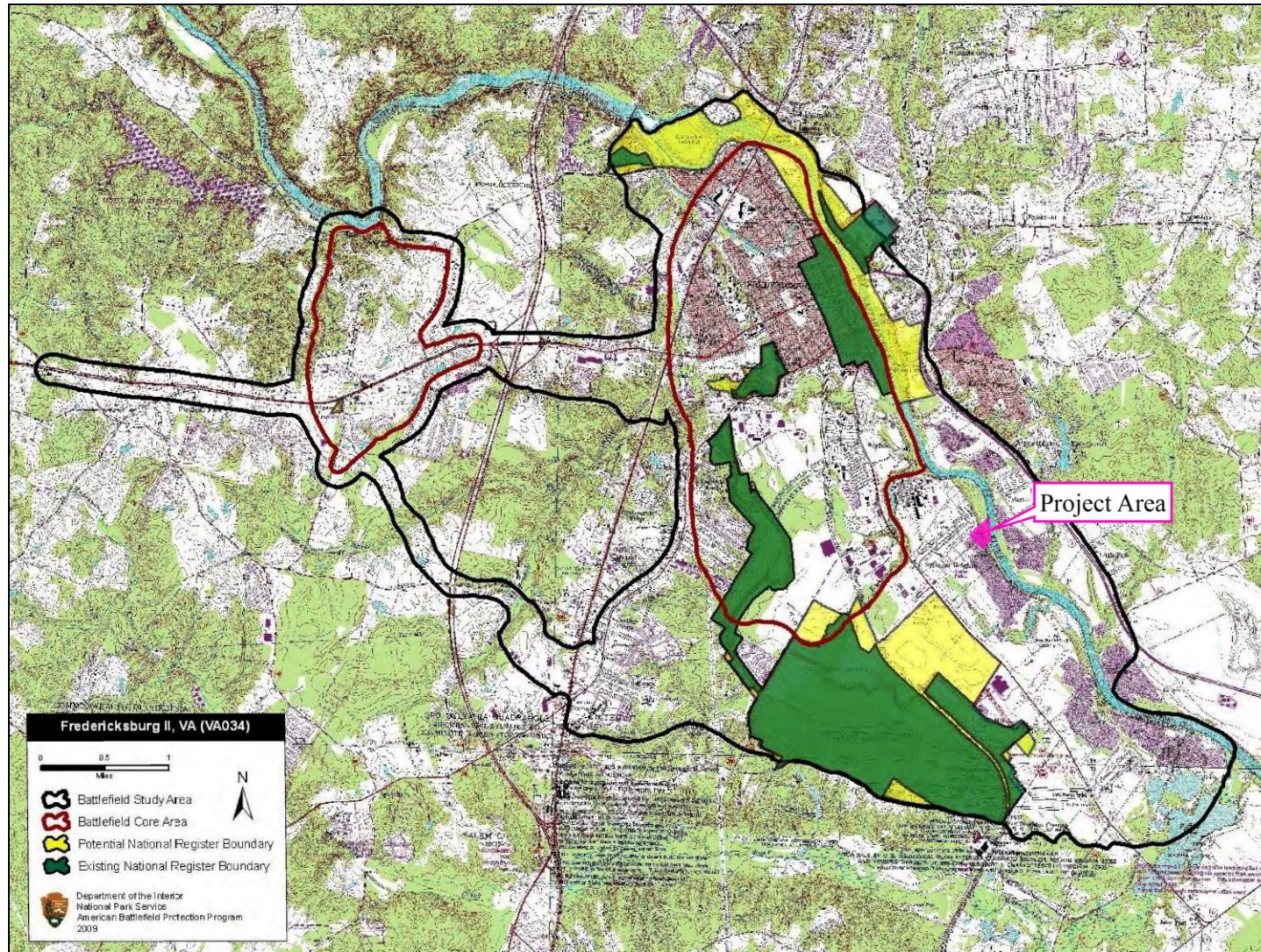


Figure 10: ABPP Boundaries of the Battle of Fredericksburg II (111-5296) with the Project Area Location (ABPP 2009).

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On behalf of B-Farms Development, LLC, Dovetail carried out a Phase IA archaeological of an approximately 10-acre (4.5-ha) area within the undeveloped eastern portion of parcel 25-A-14 in Spotsylvania County, Virginia. The project area is located south of Fredericksburg, Virginia, near Sylvania Heights. The project area extends northeast from near the end of Evan Street to the bank of the Rappahannock River. The proposed development will occur only atop the ridge in the western portion of the project area.

The Phase IA work included background review and pedestrian survey to search for surface features associated with the battle and to evaluate the potential of the parcel to contain intact soils and NRHP-eligible archaeological sites and historic resources. The background review focused on historical and cartographic evidence of the location of Franklin's Crossing and the Union assault on Confederate forces entrenched atop the ridges overlooking the Rappahannock River. No subsurface archaeological investigation was completed during this phase of work. Rather, the study was designed to assess the potential presence of intact archaeological resources that would require mapping and subsurface archaeological study.

Like historians familiar with the engagement at Franklin's Crossing, historic maps locate Franklin's Crossing upstream from the project area. Moreover, comparison of historic photographs showing the view toward the Union embarkation point at Franklin's Crossing with a modern photograph across the Rappahannock River from the project area presents a striking contrast, in particular the absence of a high bluff beyond the floodplain opposite the project area at present.

Disturbance includes the extensive removal of soil during gravel mining; at the western end of the project area, near the approximate extent of gravel mining illustrated on a 1978 topographic map, the upland landform rises abruptly approximately 10 feet (3.0 m) to a residential neighborhood. The higher ground to the west likely approximates the former surface of the upland prior to gravel mining, suggesting that few traces of the historic ground surface remain intact. In addition to gravel mining, evident disturbance in the project area includes numerous push piles, exposed clay and gravels on the surface, deposits of refuse, road cuts, trails, and an electrical station. In sum, evident disturbance atop the ridge, where the proposed construction is planned, indicates that earthworks and artifacts associated with the June 1863 engagement at Franklin's Crossing and any other archaeological resources are extremely unlikely to exist in the project area, even if the hypothesis that the project area is the location of the Confederate rifle pits overrun by the Union Sixth Corps in June 1863 is correct. Therefore, no additional archaeological work is recommended. While the project is located within the boundaries of the Fredericksburg II battlefield, it is not located within the core area, the current NRHP boundaries of this resource or the potential NRHP boundaries as recommended by the ABPP. As such, no additional documentation of this resource is recommended in association with this resource.

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