



Report on the Excavation of the Washington Farm:

The 2006 and 2007 Field Seasons

by

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Department of Archaeology

George Washington Foundation

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Chapter 1. Introduction

In 2005, a Ferry Farm archaeological field crew began removing the backfill of an exploratory test excavation that had been undertaken in 1998 and had identified a stone-lined cellar. Crew members continued working throughout the 2005 field season eventually uncovering the limits of the previous excavation and the cellar. It quickly became clear that more of this building had survived than was originally uncovered in 1998. In the 2006 field season, the archaeology team returned to this area, this time with intent to remove the topsoil and plowed layers that sealed the rest of the structure. Once the plowed soils were gone, excavators spent the rest of the 2006 season and all of the 2007 season exploring the physical remnants of the structure and its immediate surroundings.

The excavation was located just north and west of the “surveyor’s shed” and the twentieth-century icehouse ruins. Only one major structure was encountered in this area, which was ultimately identified as the Washington House. Also discovered during the excavation was a significant midden situated on the east side of the Washington house. In addition to the Washington house, the remains of a Civil War fortification trench, a possible root cellar, a Maurice Clark period (ca. 1700-1710) quarry pit, and twentieth-century disturbances were identified by the excavation team.

This report describes the archaeological remains uncovered in 2006 and 2007. The excavation was

directed by Dave Muraca. Phil Levy of the University of South Florida acted as research fellow and field school director. Paul Nasca served as field director. Anita Dodd and Melanie Marquis oversaw the lab work and Kate Ruedrich and Laura Galke produced the distribution maps.

Physical Description

Ferry Farm is located in Stafford County, Virginia, which lies geographically in the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The Ferry Farm archaeological site is situated on a broad terrace that overlooks the Rappahannock River and its floodplain. The river is tidal and is still navigable at Ferry Farm. The terrace has eroded several feet over the years, depositing soil and artifacts at its base.

Fresh water is found in a spring located in a ravine just north of the site. By the time the spring water reaches the flood plain, bacteria associated with iron deposits give the water a strong odor.

Ferry Farm was the setting for five farms, each incarnation boasting its own dwellings and support buildings. Two farms were established in the eighteenth century, two in the nineteenth century and one in the early twentieth century. The site was plowed for a short period during the nineteenth century. The owner of the last farm complex, J. B. Colbert, constructed an exceptionally large number of outbuildings, many situated on the archaeological site. These modern remains have had a

decidedly adverse impact on earlier archaeological remains.

Today the site is characterized by grass and low growth vegetation. A few trees, including magnolia, pine, holly, and mulberry are present. The only surviving historical structure is a late nineteenth-century agricultural building, commonly and erroneously referred to as “the Surveyor’s Shed.” Situated just north of this building are the ruins of an early twentieth-century ice house built by J. B. Colbert.

Chapter Summaries

The structure of this report is as follows:

- Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion of the previous archaeology.
- Chapter 3 recounts the history of the property including prehistory and colonial periods.
- Chapters 4, 5, and 6 describe the excavation strategy, summarize the results of the recent excavation, and offer some interpretations. These interpretations are preliminary in nature; future excavations will add to and enhance the current understanding of this oft-used parcel.

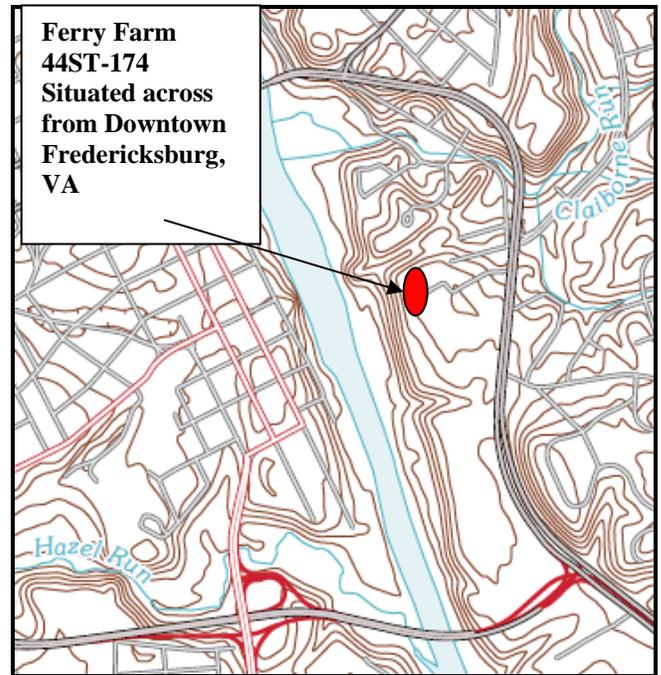


Figure 1. Location of Washington Farm in Relationship to Eighteenth-Century Fredericksburg. USGS Quad map of Fredericksburg.

Chapter 2. Previous Archaeology at the Washington Homelot

Starting in 1989, professional archaeologists have conducted a number of exploratory excavations in hopes of uncovering evidence of the Washington Farm. Other excavations at Ferry Farm were aimed at determining the archaeological sensitivity of small areas being considered for construction projects and these projects will not be summarized in this report.

The archaeological site is over 5 acres in size and highly complex. It features several components of occupation, with later ones disturbing earlier ones. In order to sort these occupations out, archaeologists initially used remote sensing and later employed shovel testing. The remote sensors examined 1.6 acres in the heart of the archaeology site in search of anomalies indicative of ground disturbance. The results of this survey were ground-truthed between 1990 and 1992. When these results proved disappointing the George Washington Foundation's Department of Archaeology expanded its shovel testing program to include areas outside the original remote sensing survey. This eventually covered most of the site with shovel test holes spaced at 10 ft. intervals. In areas where the shovel tests indicated some archaeological promise, larger test units were excavated.

Archaeology sponsored by Stafford County

Stafford County initiated the first archaeological examination of Ferry

Farm. This was done prior to their 1989 acquisition of the 34-acre tract containing the historic Washington plantation seat. This marked the beginning of a commitment to insure that all significant cultural resources would be protected during the future development of Ferry Farm.

As part of this effort, geophysicist Bruce Bevan conducted a remote sensing survey of a 1.6-acre rectangular area centered near the then-extant farmhouse located in the area of the Washington plantation seat. The objective of the survey was to identify buried features associated with the Washington occupation of the site, including the house cellar, wells, privies, slave quarters and graves including that of George's infant sister, Mildred. Civil War related features were also sought. Ground-penetrating radar employed a 10-ft. wide interval between passes over the project area. Locations of anomalies were further investigated with a soil conductivity meter and a magnetometer. The large number of underground concrete outbuilding foundations distorted the results of the survey, rendering them inconclusive (Bevan 1990:1-9).

Beginning in the winter of 1990-1991, and again in early 1992, Espey, Huston & Associates, Inc., conducted an architectural and archaeological assessment of the area thought to contain the site of George Washington's boyhood home. This project was initiated as part of Stafford County's



Figure 2. Infrared Aerial Photograph of Ferry Farm.

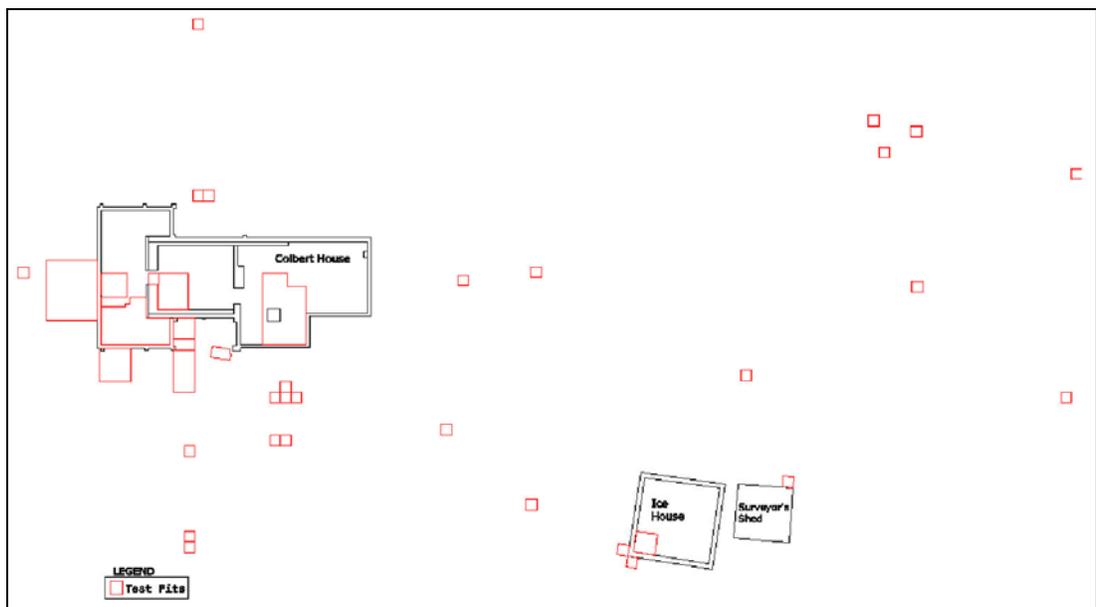


Figure 3. Espey Huston Test Pit Location in Relationship to the Ice House, Surveyor's Shed, and Colbert House.

broader plan to interpret Ferry Farm to the general public.

The team from Espey, Huston & Associates, Inc., conducted a detailed architectural examination of the standing structures at Ferry Farm in hopes of determining their construction dates and architectural significance. Included in this survey were the extant farmhouse, the late nineteenth-century agricultural building now known as “the surveyor’s shed,” and the remnants of an icehouse. The farmhouse was conclusively dated to the second decade of the twentieth century (Outlaw 1993:8). The surveyor’s shed, notes Outlaw (1993:8) contains re-used structural timbers from the nineteenth century. Outlaw observed that the icehouse lacked any defining attributes, making a construction date difficult to establish (1993:8). Current research places the construction of the surveyor’s shed and icehouse as 1870s and early twentieth century, respectively (Dodds 2003: personal communication). Espey, Huston & Associates, Inc. concluded that “the value of Ferry Farm is in its rich archaeological potential, not its standing structures” (Outlaw 1993:8).

The objective of Espey, Huston’s archaeological assessment was to “explore the potential for archaeology to add to our understanding of the Washington Family occupation” at Ferry Farm (Outlaw 1993:69). To achieve this goal, the field crew excavated a total of 40 test units of varying size throughout the project area. Specific targets included the surveyor’s shed, the ice house, and a large anomalous area identified by the 1990 geophysical survey. A pedestrian survey and limited shovel testing were employed to investigate peripheral areas. Testing in the northwest, exterior corner of the

icehouse revealed the location of another stone-lined cellar. Excavation only exposed a small portion of the deposit and did not penetrate it. A date of post-1790 was assigned to the feature based on the presence of cut nails and a pearlware fragment that was visible *in situ* at the surface of the feature (Outlaw 1993:71).

In July 1993, forensic anthropologists from the Smithsonian Institution initiated the excavation of a small, human burial, which had been located by Espey, Huston and Associates, Inc. Ferry Farm’s administrator speculated that the burial might be the remains of Mildred Washington, who died at Ferry Farm in October of 1740 at the age of 18 months, the youngest of the six children of Augustine and Mary Ball Washington. Excavators exposed a shallow grave 1.5 feet below the surface of the ground. Oriented on an east/west axis, the skeletal remains exhibited an advanced state of decomposition with many of the small bones completely dissolved. Excavators recovered ten small, iron coffin nails surrounding the burial, and five fragments of shroud pins. Osteological analysis determined the remains were too young to be those of Mildred Washington. Instead, the examination concluded the skeleton was probably that of a stillborn infant. The sex and ethnicity of the neonate could not be determined (Owsley and Sandness 1993:1-6).

Archaeology 1996 – 2001: The Schuster years

In 1996, the George Washington Foundation acquired the Stafford County portion of Ferry Farm along with 44



Figure 4. Colbert House After Fire.



Figure 5. Colonial Period Cellar Found Under Floor of Colbert Basement.

acres to the south. The foundation quickly initiated seasonal excavations as part of their commitment to research and public education. Investigations during 1997 and 1998 further explored areas around the surveyor's shed, icehouse, and the Washington home lot. Led by Paul Schuster, archaeological volunteers excavated shovel tests at 10 ft. intervals. In areas of high artifact concentrations or where features were detected in the shovel tests, larger test units of various sizes were excavated. The excavation uncovered two important features: an eighteenth-century stone foundation and a filled ravine.

North and west of the icehouse lay the remains of a large structure that had originally been identified by Espey, Huston & Associates, Inc. Archaeological volunteers led by Schuster excavated several contiguous test units, fully exposing a 10 x 25 foot stone foundation containing a dark, interior fill of rubble and artifacts. Schuster stopped excavation at the bottom of the plowzone, with the exception of one unit which penetrated the cellar fill. Preliminary interpretation identified the building as one of the storehouses referred to in Augustine Washington's probate inventory (Schuster 1998:12).

Schuster's shovel testing located another deep, well-stratified feature north and west of the burned cellar that had been identified in 1991 by Espey, Huston & Associates. Excavators placed a single test unit in the area of the feature and excavated to a depth of 4.5 feet below ground surface. The excavation partially exposed a deep deposit of fill contained within a depression having nearly vertical sides. Based on the recovery of only a small

amount of domestic debris and the presence of sandstone, mortar and handmade brick, the feature was tentatively interpreted as a natural ravine filled with construction debris dating to the mid-eighteenth century (Schuster 1998:9-10).

Archaeology 2001 – 2007: The Muraca years

In 2001, a change in leadership occurred in the Archaeology Department at Ferry Farm as David Muraca was hired as the Director of Archaeology. Using data from the testing projects conducted by Schuster and the earlier work by Espey, Huston & Associates, Inc., the new team examined the evidence spatially, enabling them to predict the locations of various activity areas, and to classify them by time period. Artifact catalogs from both projects provided the raw data for Surfer and ArcView 3.1 programs that display complex data using easy-to-understand graphic depictions. The resulting plots identified concentrations of date-sensitive artifacts in association with artifacts that are generally considered to be domestic in nature.

Archaeologists have known for some time that the larger the bore hole of the stems of a tobacco pipe, the earlier the manufacture date of the pipe. The two red squares (Figure 6) show the earliest pipestems clustered around the feature originally identified by Schuster as a filled-in ravine. The concentration of early colonial domestic artifacts led to the selection of this area for the first large-scale excavation.

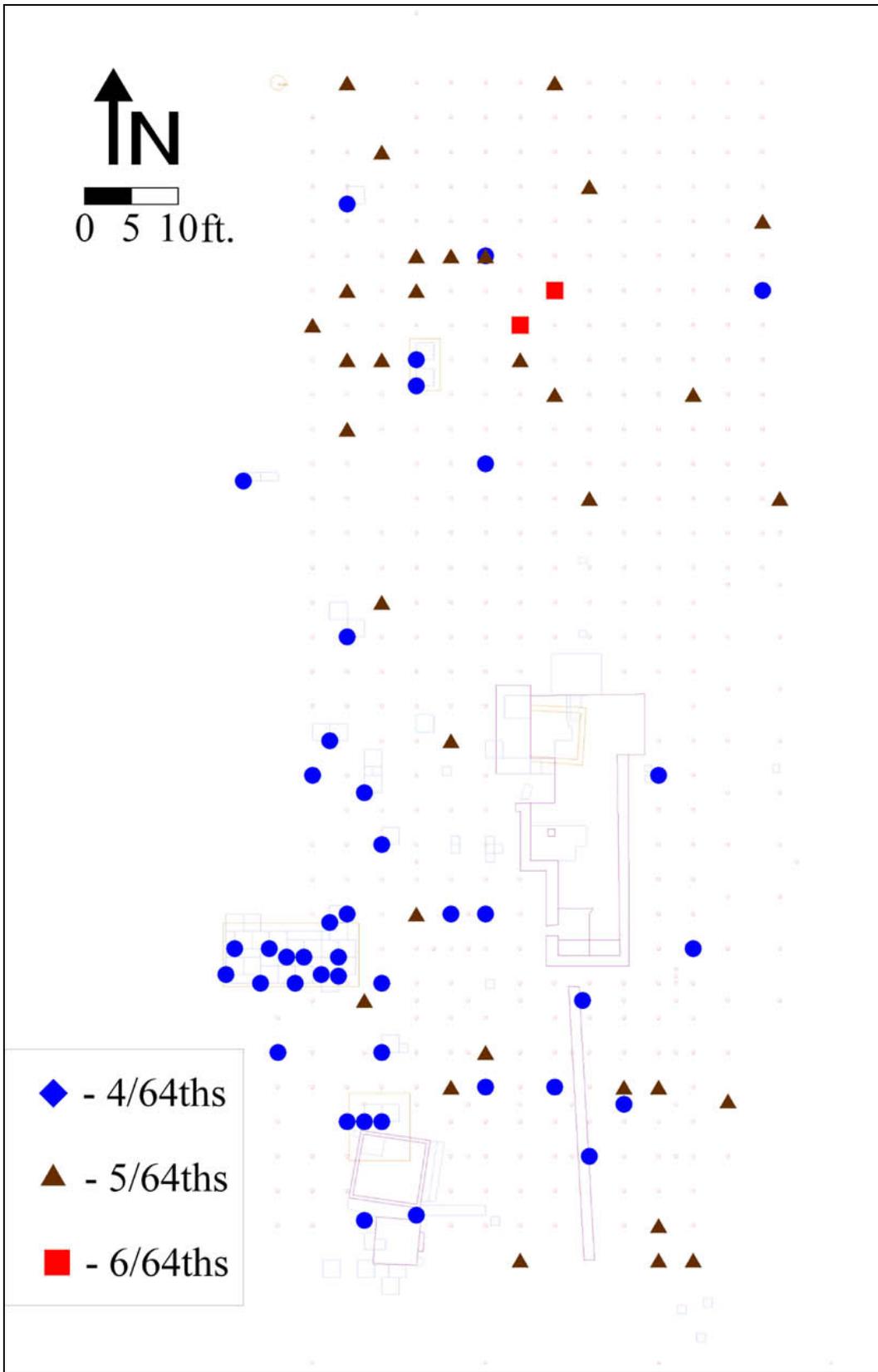


Figure 6. Using Preliminary Data to Locate Activity Areas – Pipestem Data.

Using large block excavations a team of volunteers, field school students, interns, and staff uncovered and excavated the remnants of a 300-year-old tobacco plantation owned by a succession of small planters. The remains of a slave quarter dating to the Washington period and a Civil War-related fortification were also exposed and excavated (Muraca, Nasca, and Levy 2006).

In 2004 and 2005, Ferry Farm archaeologists turned their attention to a cellar discovered during earlier archaeology (Outlaw 1993). This large block excavation uncovered the archaeological footprint of a nineteenth-century farmhouse and its free standing kitchen. The farmhouse featured a stone-lined cellar accessed by a bulkhead entranceway (Muraca, Nasca, and Levy 2007).

Chapter 3. Prehistoric and Historical Overviews

Prehistory

Native American culture, prior to European contact, can be divided into three main periods: the Paleo-Indian period, the Archaic period, and the Woodland period.

The Paleo-Indian stage of cultural development lasted from 10,000-8,000 BC. The Archaic stage is defined as 8,000-1,200 BC, and is divided into three separate stages of cultural development; Early Archaic (8,000-6,000 BC), Middle Archaic (6,000-2,500 BC), and Late Archaic (2,500-1,200 BC). The Woodland period (1,200 BC-1,521 AD) is also divided into three cultural stages; Early Woodland (1,200-500 BC), Middle Woodland (500 BC-900 AD), and Late Woodland (900-1,521 AD). Each stage of Native American prehistory is marked by notable socio-cultural and material changes.

The Paleo-Indian Period (10,000-8,000 BC)

Debate has long raged within the academic community over the initial colonization and method of human settlement of North America. Current research places the earliest definitive habitation of the United States at around 10,000- 8,000 BC. The most likely point of entry for these first inhabitants of the North American continent is from Asia via the Bering Land Bridge (Turner 1989; Brown et al. 1986).

Paleo-Indians arrived in Virginia around 10,000 BC. During this time, the Pleistocene era, the last of the ice ages, was coming to an end. The climate shifted dramatically, with warmer temperatures and decreased precipitation. These environmental shifts exposed large sections of the continental shelf upon which the Tidewater region of Virginia is situated. Vast portions of the Tidewater were previously, and are once again, submerged. The forest environment adjusted to the changing climate, becoming dominated by oak and pine. Smaller game animals, including deer, turkey, and turtle, replaced larger game animals, such as mammoth and mastodon (Metz et al. 1998). This climate change greatly influenced the lifeways of the Paleo-Indian people, turning them away from big game hunting toward gathering plant food and hunting of small game (Blanton and Kandle 1997).

Paleo-Indians manipulated their settlement patterns and tool kits to fit their changing environment. They lived in band-level societies operating across a large, relatively fixed area (Blanton et al. 2000). They used small base camps and outlying hunting camps, both on a temporary basis. Generally, these sites were chosen based on the availability of both stone for tool making (essentially jasper and chert) and animals for hunting. Few Paleo-Indian sites have been discovered in Virginia, the notable exceptions being the Brook Run Quarry

Site in Orange County, the Thunderbird and Flint Run Paleo-Indian Complex sites in northwestern Virginia, the Williamson site in Dinwiddie County and Cactus Hill in Sussex County (Turner 1992).

The most common artifacts of the Paleo-Indian tool kit uncovered by archaeologists are projectile points and the discarded flakes resulting from their manufacture. The earliest and most common Paleo-Indian projectile point type recovered in Virginia is the Clovis point. The point is characterized by a relatively thin lancet shape, a diagnostic fluted center, and a concave base that occasionally exhibits evidence of basal thinning.

The Archaic Period (8,000-1,200 BC)

The Archaic period is marked by a slow shift from the late ice age environment of the Pleistocene to the more modern environment of the Holocene. Native American populations increased during this period, leaving behind a richer and more complex archaeological record than their forebears.

Early Archaic (8,000-6,000 BC)

As with the Paleo-Indian period, there is academic debate surrounding the Early Archaic period. Many scholars argue that because it has much in common with the Paleo-Indian period, the Early Archaic should be subsumed into the Paleo-Indian era (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Brown et al. 1986). Indeed, the climate and environment remained much the same as the Paleo-Indian period, with similar boreal forests populated with the same game animals and food resources with the exception of

megafauna which was extinct by this time (Custer 1990).

The Early Archaic period also had much in common culturally with the Paleo-Indian period. Inhabitants of Virginia continued to organize in band-level societies. Settlement patterns remained much the same, with base and hunting camps extending over a large, but well-defined area. For the purpose of this report, however, a more traditional approach will be taken in which the years from 8,000-6,000 BC are included in the Archaic period.

Middle Archaic (6,000-2,500 BC)

The Middle Archaic period was characterized by changing environmental conditions. Warmer, moister temperatures and greater seasonal variation led to changes in Native American settlement patterns. Native Americans continued to live in band-level societies, occupying temporary camps, to search for food. However, the habitats in which they settled became more varied (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Custer 1990). For the first time, Native Americans began moving into the upland interiors of Virginia. There are two possible explanations for this move. The first is related to shrinking group territories due to increased population (Blanton and Kandle 1997). The second is related to the spread of deciduous trees into new areas due to climatic changes. This increase in deciduous trees led to an increase in the number of productive environmental habitats that could be utilized by the Native peoples. It is quite likely that these two causes worked in tandem to attract Native peoples into the upland areas (Custer 1990).

Tool kits also changed during the Middle Archaic period. During this

period there was a move away from the use of hard to find quality jasper and chert toward the use of local stone for tool making. Stanley, Morrow Mountain, Guilford, and Halifax points are representative of this time period, and are bifurcate tools. The manufacture of these stone points was of much lower quality than the tools which characterize the Paleo-Indian and Early Archaic periods (Custer 1990). The Middle Archaic period also saw an increase in the use of more informal tools geared toward the high mobility of a band-level society (Blanton and Kandle 1997).

Like the Early Archaic period, the Middle Archaic period left little evidence to guide us toward an understanding of its culture. Enough is known, however, to classify this period as the “beginning of a continuum of cultural adaptation which concludes with the establishment of a network of highly adapted, localized hunter-gatherer communities during the Late Archaic” (Geier 1990:84).

Late Archaic (2,500-1,200 BC)

As previously mentioned, hunter-gatherer communities characterized the Native Americans of the Late Archaic period (Geier 1990:84). Unlike their predecessors, they had the advantage of living in a fully developed Holocene environment with stabilized estuaries and sea levels. This led to a scheduled, seasonal procurement of food, or what is known as a “collector’s strategy” (Blanton and Kandle 1997).

Inhabitants of the Late Archaic period established semi-permanent base camps at stream heads on upper terraces, and on the gently sloping south sides of lower terraces (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Mouer 1991). These camps were not permanent settlements, though some

were used repeatedly during many seasons. Inhabitants also continued to frequent outlying camps to hunt animals and gather plant foods. During this time, Native Americans became highly adapted to the deciduous forest environment of the Holocene, settling in areas where the soils were best-suited to the growth of large stands of nut-bearing hardwoods. Nuts were a key element of the Late Archaic diet, along with turkey and deer. For this reason, most recorded sites in Virginia are clustered around the base of the Blue Ridge Mountains (Mouer 1991).

The archetypal site from the period is the Halifax Complex located in the Virginia/North Carolina Piedmont, named for the diagnostic Halifax points found there. The Halifax point, along with the Lamoka, Lackawaxen, Brewerton, and others, is highly representative of the period (Mouer 1991). Other tools appearing in the tool kit included ground stone axes, carved stone bowls, and stone drills.

Mouer (1991) argued that a large part of the Late Archaic period should actually be classified as the Transitional period (roughly 2,500-1,200 BC), a term first coined by Witthoft in 1953. The argument for this classification is that during the Transitional period, inhabitants of the Late Archaic period settled along, and relied heavily upon, rivers. The Transitional period is also marked by the appearance of soapstone bowls, and “broad spear” points (Mouer 1991). Although the transitional period is classified within the Late Archaic, it is important to note that this riverine adaptation and change in tool technology occurred around 2,500 BC. Large shell middens appeared during this time, supporting the evidence that Native Americans relied on riverine resources.

The Woodland Period (1,200 BC- AD 1,521)

The Woodland Period is the best understood of the three major periods of Virginia prehistory. Significant technological and cultural advances occurred at this time. During the Woodland period, population greatly increased, ceramic vessels were first produced, certain plants were domesticated, and inhabitants moved from band to tribal, and some to chiefdom levels of social organization. Like the Archaic period, the Woodland is divided into three sub-periods.

Early Woodland (1,200-500 BC)

The Early Woodland saw the expansion and intensification of the Native American's subsistence base (Hodges 1991). Several significant changes occurred during the Early Woodland period. In some ways, however, this period continued to share subsistence patterns characteristic of the Late Archaic, especially with the reliance on riverine resources, particularly fish and oysters.

In this period, Native Americans moved toward more sedentary living, although they continued to use temporary hunting camps in outlying areas (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Hodges 1991; Mouer 1991). Some groups began to use more circumscribed territories. Mouer (1991) argued that some social communities had buffer zones, not settled by any particular population, but used by a variety of groups, separating one "territory" from another. It is also likely that during this time more extensive trade networks were developed over larger areas, with active exchange

occurring between communities within these newly developed buffer zones (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Mouer 1991).

Essential to the characterization of the Early Woodland was the introduction of ceramic bowls. This technology provided a solid material departure from the Late Archaic period. The nomenclature and technical distinctions between different ware types is quite complex and beyond the scope of this summary, but coil-built, cord-marked, sand- and/or soapstone-tempered ceramics are common finds on Early Woodland archaeological sites (Mouer 1991).

The predominant local ceramic for this period is known as Accokeek Ware. It is sand tempered and sometimes quartz tempered with cord-marked surfaces. This ceramic was produced between c.1,100 and 500 BC (Klein and Egloff, VDHR webpage).

Middle Woodland (500 BC- AD 900)

During the Middle Woodland period, the Native American populations of Virginia began organizing into tribal-level rather than band-level societies. This was by far the most significant transition that occurred during this period. Many of the cultural traits we recognize as "Native American" came into existence during this middle phase of the Woodland period.

During this time, relatively extensive trade networks in ceramics and stone (for tool production) developed across Virginia. The Piedmont region of Virginia is part of a pan-Mid-Atlantic culture, characterized by similar ceramic patterns commonly found on sites from Maryland to the James River. This continuity argues for a degree of cultural homogeneity, perhaps caused by the use

of ceramic distribution to foster inter-group cooperation (Blanton and Kandle 1997; McLearen 1992; Stewart 1992). This indicates a much more highly developed trade and communication network than was seen in the Archaic or Early Woodland periods.

Subsistence patterns remained much the same as in the Early Woodland with continued heavy reliance on local plants, small game, fish, and oysters from local rivers. For the first time, inhabitants of the Middle Woodland began to selectively nurture, or possibly even domesticate, local plants (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Stewart 1992). The domestication of plants, although rudimentary, was essential to development of the more intensive agriculture in the Late Woodland period.

Settlement patterns varied only slightly from those of the Early Woodland. People continued to live in semi-sedentary base camps with satellite collector sites (Blanton and Kandle 1997). The larger base camps were located in settings where a variety of plant and animal resources were readily available, often near a salt/fresh water interface. The smaller satellite camps were then placed along streams and used for collecting during various times of the year. Populations of each group, or "tribe," were supervised by an achieved-status "Big Man" who managed their communal subsistence projects (Stewart 1992).

Late Woodland (AD 900-1,521)

The Late Woodland is the best understood of all Virginia's pre-contact periods. During this time Native Americans moved toward sedentary village life, and established first, a tribal level of social organization, then later in the period, a chiefdom.

According to Turner (1992), the Late Woodland is best characterized as a period of rapid change. The period saw "an increase in the importance of agriculture and local lifeways accompanied by increased population, larger sedentary villages, and increasingly complex means of social integration" (Turner 1992). Throughout much of the period, native populations lived in tribal organizations, with groups of 1,000 or fewer, residing most of the year in sedentary villages. It was not until near the end of the period that chiefdom-level societies began to emerge (Blanton and Kandle 1997).

Economically, the inhabitants of the Late Woodland established a sophisticated collector system based on hunter-gatherer technology, augmented by agriculture, and a highly-refined understanding of local resources and their availability. Native Americans planted beans, pumpkins, squash, and maize, using a form of agriculture known as "swidden," in which fields were cleared from the forest and used on a rotating basis (Blanton and Kandle 1997; Turner 1992). With the rise of chiefdoms came a more complex society and increased population. Cultivated plants and animal resources were not only important for their nutritional value, but items such as deerskins and mussel shells became important as statements of wealth. By the end of the Woodland period, smoked oysters were being used as trade and tribute (Barfield and Barber 1992).

Quartz-tempered wares dominated the Late Woodland period. There was greater ceramic variability throughout Virginia's Coastal Plain, although quartz-tempered Potomac Creek ware was common throughout the region.

Historical Overview

Documents reveal a number of landowners for the land that now forms Ferry Farm. The 120 acres that now make up the museum's holdings are just a tiny part of a 2000-acre land patent claimed in 1666 by land speculator Colonel John Catlett. This acreage was just one of several large parcels he acquired in frontier Virginia before his death in 1670 at the hands of Indians (Nugent 1992). On September 6, 1668, Catlett sold his holdings to fellow land speculators, William and Leonard Claiborne. Later that year, the Rev. John Waugh, Clerk of Stafford, bought the entire tract. By 1688, Waugh had a tenant situated somewhere on the parcel, but not on the Ferry Farm acreage (Jones 1999). In 1692, Waugh divided the 2000-acre tract into five, distinct parcels, with Dr. Edward Maddox purchasing 150-acres that contained Ferry Farm's acreage. Maddox's last will and testament indicates he did not live on this tract, but was instead situated on a 400-to-500-acre tract on Passapatanzy Creek (G.H.S. King 1961:180). The absence of diagnostic, seventeenth-century artifacts (including locally-manufactured tobacco pipes, and the turned lead used to hold casement glass windows in place) at Ferry Farm supports the interpretation that no tenants were living here during this early period. In 1694, Dr. Maddox died and his Rappahannock holdings were subdivided into three parcels. John Hamilton received the one hundred and fifty acres that contains today's Ferry Farm acreage (G.H.S. King 1961:179).

Records show that in 1681, an indentured servant named John Hamilton arrived in Virginia (Nugent 1977). It is possible that this indentured servant is

the same individual who inherited the Ferry Farm tract in 1694. It is also possible that John Hamilton built the dwelling excavated in 2002/3. Hamilton did not make much of an impact on the historical record. With no titles, offices, or land grants, and possessing less than 400 acres, Hamilton was a small planter. It is unclear when Hamilton died, but he left no heirs and the property reverted to the proprietor (various members of the Culpeper and Fairfax families) who had controlled this region before Catlett received the original land patent.

By 1710, Maurice Clark had purchased the Ferry Farm land from the proprietor, only to die six months later. Clark also made little impact on the historical record although his will has survived. At the time of his death, Clark owned two tracts of land (150 and 75 acres) and was living at Ferry Farm (Richmond County Will Book 5:40).

While Clark had little impact on the historical record, his effect upon the archaeological record was pronounced. Clark's will provides the first details about the earliest years of the plantation at Ferry Farm. It contains the first reference to a house on the property. It lists no wife, children, or slaves, but does identify an indentured servant living on the property with Clark. In addition to land, Clark owned livestock and at least two horses. Clark claimed no title or office, and he too was a small planter (Richmond County Will Book 5:40).

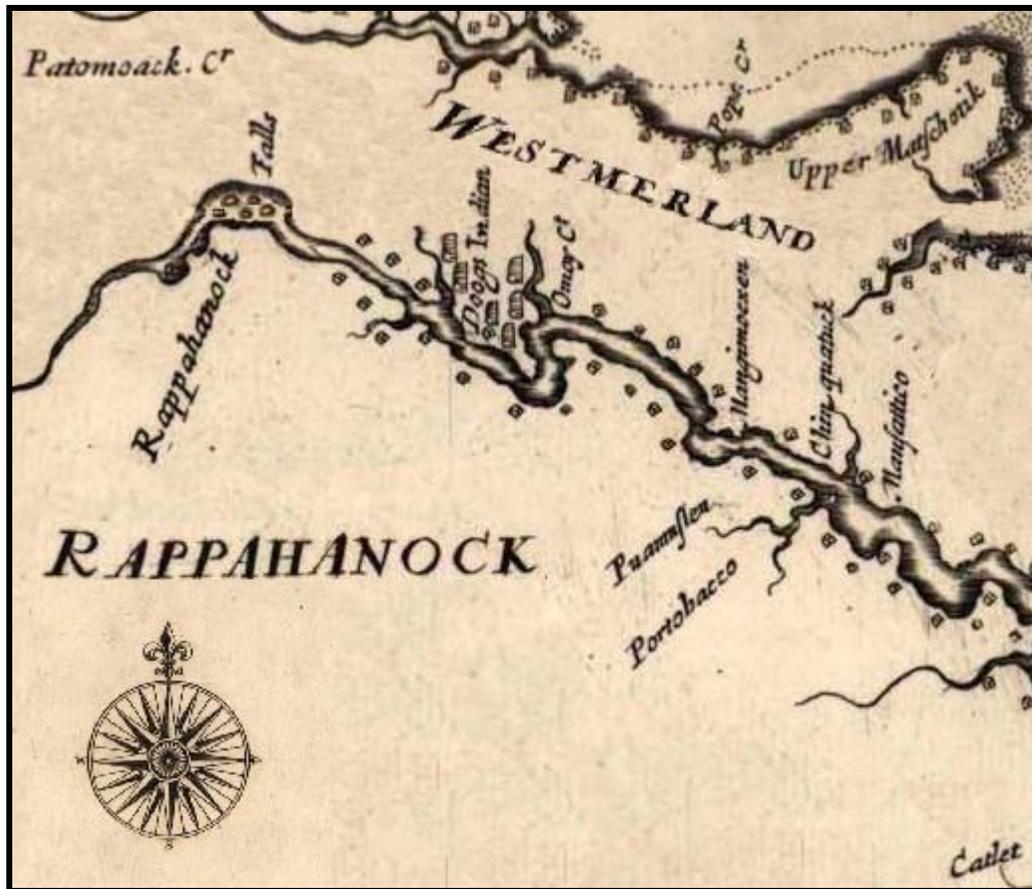


Figure 7. Detail of 1673 Hermann Map Detailing Settlements Near What Would Become Fredericksburg.

Clark's will split his Rappahannock holdings in two, with the Ferry Farm acreage going to Peter Waterson. There is little known about this man. Two Peter Watersons were claimed as headrights in colonial Virginia. The first Peter Waterson arrived around 1668 in the eastern portion of the colony. The second and more likely candidate for owner of Ferry Farm is the Peter Waterson who landed in the nearby Northern Neck in 1703 (Nugent 1977). He was most likely indentured upon his arrival, but his contract would have been completed by 1710, as most indenture contracts were for 4 or 5 years. Once again, with no references to titles, offices, or land grants, Waterson was a small planter (Jones 1993).

From this point, the chain of title is broken until William Strother purchased the property from Thomas Harwood and John Hartshorn in 1727 and 1732 respectively. Only two documents survive that mention Harwood and Hartshorn, and these are the deeds that transfer this land to William Strother. Neither man was an officeholder nor did they hold title, but both were married. It is hard to classify these planters given the lack of information about them, but they were most likely small or middling planters (Jones 1993).

William Strother recombined most of the 550-acre tract when he purchased 165 acres from Alice Cale in 1729 and 150 acres from Harwood and Hartshorn. Strother was a lawyer and a

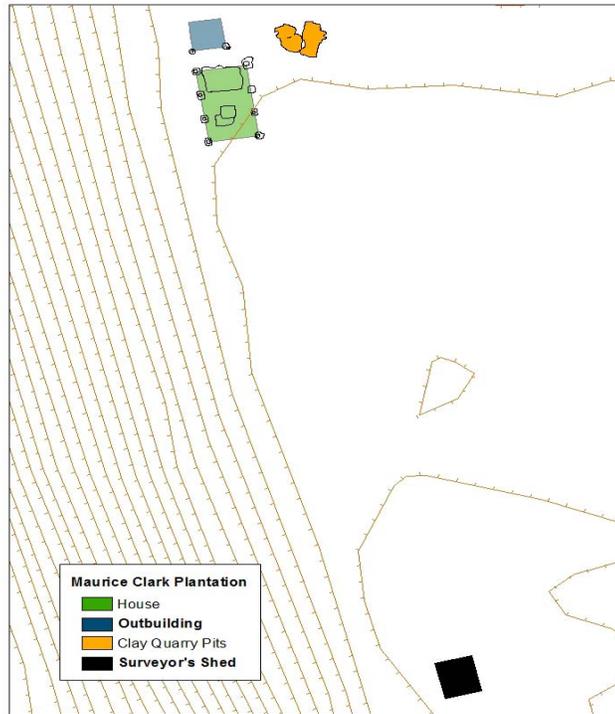


Figure 8. Maurice Clark-era Farmstead.



Figure 9. Aerial View of Clark House Excavation.

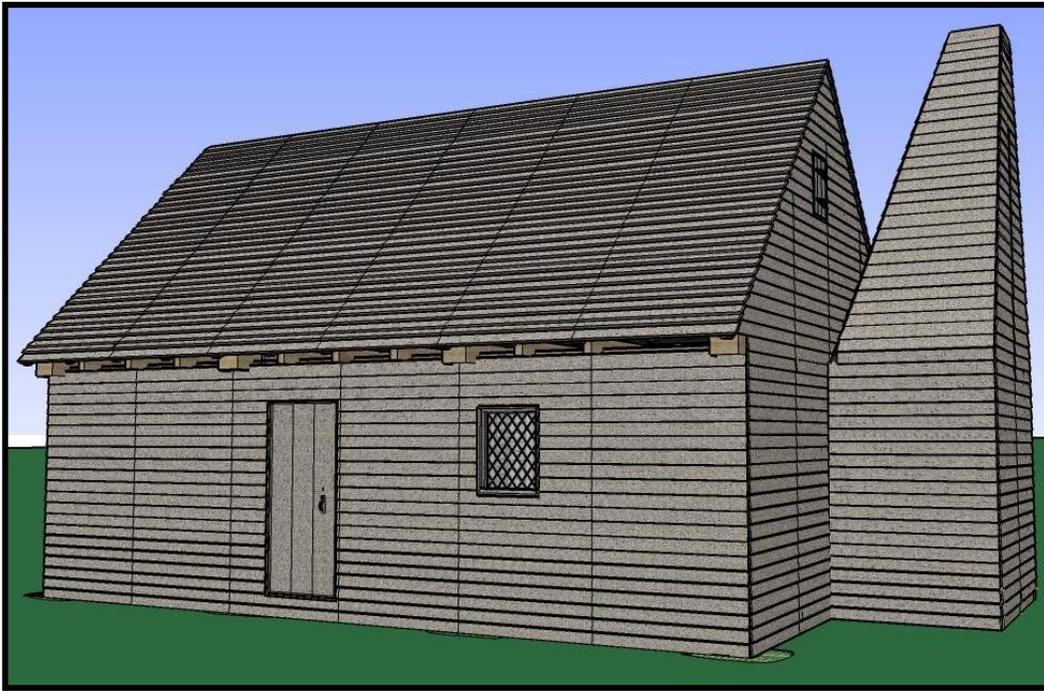


Figure 10. Model of Clark-era House.

To be Sold, for Cash, on the 25th of October next, by way of Auction, to the highest Bidder, several Tracts of Land, belonging to the Estate of William Strother, late of King George County, Gent. decas'd, pursuant to his Will, viz.

One Tract, containing 100 Acres, lying about 2 Miles below the Falls of Rappahannock, close on the River Side, with a very handsome Dwelling house, 3 Store houses, several other convenient Out-houses, and a Ferry belonging to it, being the Place where Mr. Strother liv'd; is a beautiful Situation, and very commodious for Trade.

One other Tract, of 160 Acres of very good Land, adjoining thereto, the Plantation, Houses, Fences, &c. in good Order.

One other Tract, of 375 Acres, lying in Prince William County, not seated.

Also another Tract, of 1240 Acres of extraordinary good Land, with 120 Plantations thereon, lying on Great Marsh Run, about 20 Miles above the Falls, in Prince William County; which is to be Sold in three Lots, equally laid off.

Also about Twenty choice Slaves, a good Stock of Cattle, Horses, and Hogs.

Any Person that has a Mind to view the Premises, may apply to Mr. Anthony Strother, near the Falls of Rappahannock.

The Sale to be at the Manor Plantation, where Mr. Strother liv'd. Any reasonable Time will be allowed for Payment of the Money, on Interest, with Security.

Figure 11. Ad Offering to Sell the Strother Farm.

Burgess for the newly-formed King George County. He soon built a house and several outbuildings on the property, only to die in 1733 (Paula Felder 1990). The advertisement placed by the Strother estate described the plantation as “a very handsome dwelling house, 3 Store houses, several other convenient Outhouses and a ferry belonging to it,” (Virginia Gazette 1738). Strother’s probate inventory details the interior divisions of the house as a hall, parlor, passage, hall chamber, hall back room, and upper floor (King George County Order Book (2))

The Washington Occupancy

Details about the Washington’s years at Ferry Farm originate from personal letters, newspaper ads, and interactions with the legal system. Additional information comes from David Humphreys’ “Life of General Washington” with George Washington’s “Remarks” (Zagarri 1991). Mason Weems (Cunliffe 1962) also commented about George’s early life, but his anecdotes are not used in this summary. George’s father, Augustine Washington, was living at his Pope’s Creek plantation when his first wife Jane Butler died in 1729. Their marriage produced two sons who survived childhood – Lawrence and Austin. In 1731, Augustine married Mary Ball and would eventually have six children with her. He moved to Ferry Farm in the fall of 1738 with Mary, and their four young children. George Washington was just six years old (King George County Deed Book 2:220-224; King George County Deed Book 2:272).

Augustine Washington held local office, owned several plantations, and was the managing partner of the Accokeek Creek Iron Furnace located

about six miles from Ferry Farm. While prominent on the county level, Augustine never reached the highest level of distinction in Virginia society.

Once established at Ferry Farm, the Washingtons experienced a series of setbacks. In 1740, 18-month old daughter Mildred died. On Christmas Eve of that same year, the Washington dwelling caught fire. The family was forced to move into the plantation’s kitchen for a period until the house could be repaired (Douglass Letter to Washington–Papers of George Washington; Yates 1741; Zagarri 1991:59). Augustine’s family’s life began returning to normal by early in 1742 when he was named a trustee of the town of Fredericksburg (Warren 1999).

Augustine Washington died in 1743 and through his will distributed his lands to his sons. George became the owner of Ferry Farm and a master of slaves at age 11. While George’s half brothers took their inheritance, his mother managed the minor children’s inheritances until they came of age. At the time of Augustine’s death there were 20 slaves living and working at Ferry Farm (King George County Order Book (2)).

There names and values are listed here:

Jack	£30
Bob	£35
Ned	£22
Dick	£30
Ned	£30
Toney	£30
Steven	£2.10
Jo	£0.0.1
London	£20
George	£20
Jcummy	£5
Jack	£5

Lucy	£20
Sue	£35
Judy	£20
Nan	£32
Betty	£15
Jenny	£12.10
Phillis	£12.10
Hannah	£8

The Ramifications of Mary Ball's Decision Not to Remarry

Mary Ball Washington was 34 when she was widowed, and eighteenth-century protocol would have expected her to quickly remarry, making the best possible match. Eighteenth-century widows were encouraged to marry someone at or above their own social station. As a woman in control of substantial lands, she would have been considered a good prospect for marriage. Mary's decision not to remarry carried risks as well as rewards. The dispersal of land to Lawrence and Austin degraded the family's income dramatically. While Augustine was alive his sons were educated at the prestigious Appleby School in England, the same school their father had attended. George's schooling was limited to an itinerant tutor and possibly a school run by the Rev. James Marye (Warren 1999). As an adult, George Washington frequently lamented his lack of formal education.

A letter in 1749, six years after his father's death, hints at the extent of the economic hardship the family faced. In it, George complains to his brother Lawrence "...my horse is in very poor order to undertake such a journey [to Williamsburg], and is in no likelihood of mending for want of Corn sufficient to support him..." (Washington 1749).

In addition to the economic burden caused by Mary's decision remain unmarried, without a father, George lacked a patron to guide him in the intricacies of eighteenth-century gentry life. Eventually George's half-brother Lawrence assumed this role and introduced young George to the Fairfax family, one of Virginia's most elite families.

One of the benefits of not remarrying is that Mary retained more influence in the outcome of her children. Virginia law provided that if remarried she lost much of her legal standing with regard to decisions about the farm, rearing her children, and even her own conduct. This is not to say that Virginia custom did not allow for negotiations between husbands and wives, but legally her new husband would wield virtually unmitigated power over every aspect of his spouse's life. An example of the widowed Mary's retained influence comes in the form of an attempt by his half-brother Lawrence and two family friends to have George join the Royal Navy. In 1740, Lawrence had gained glory and some local fame by serving as a Captain in the militia under the command of General Wentworth in an expedition against the Spanish in the West Indies. Using his connections, he proposed to secure a berth in the Royal Navy for the then 14-year-old George. Mary originally deflected this proposal, and when pressed finally said no. If Mary had remarried, her new husband

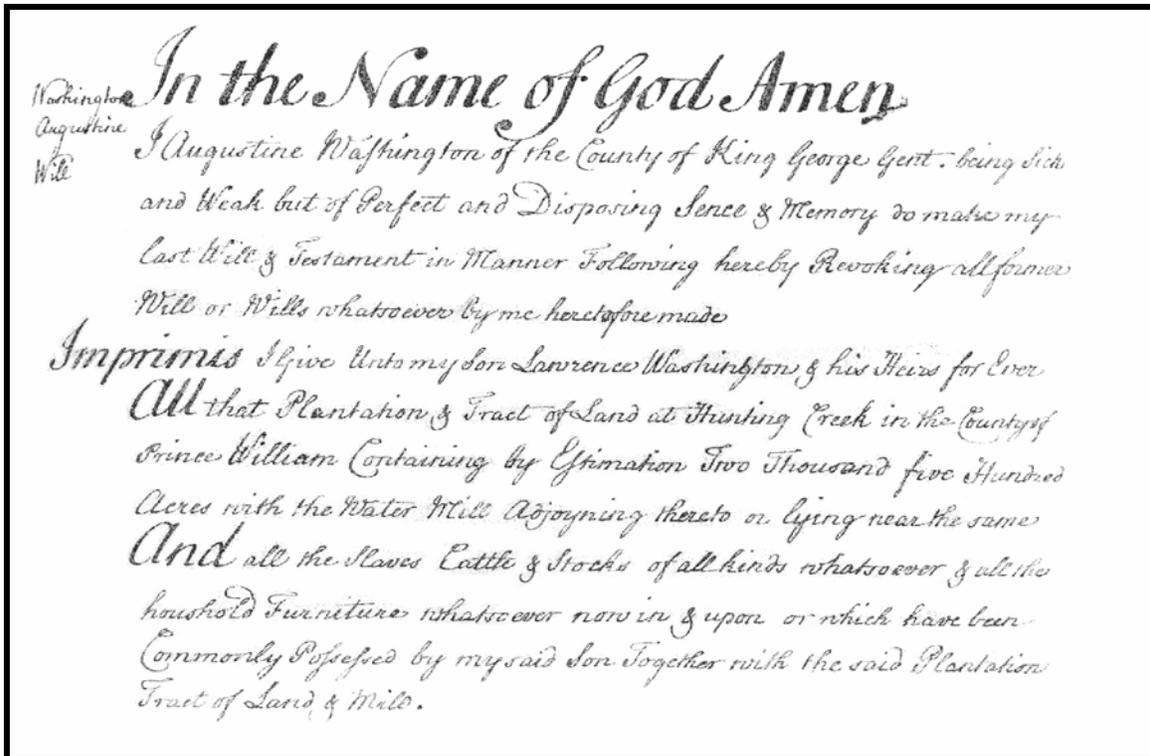


Figure 12. Augustine Washington's Will.

would have had the final say in this matter. Staying close to home allowed George to pursue surveying as a career.

George Washington Grows Up

George Washington began surveying at about age 15. His father's probate inventory included a set of surveyor's instruments. In 1748, at age 16, he accompanied Lord Fairfax's surveying party on his first expedition into the wilds of western Virginia. This useful connection with the powerful Fairfax family, who owned vast lands on the Virginia frontier, came though his half-brother, Lawrence, who married Anne Fairfax.

At age 17, George Washington was appointed to his first public office as surveyor of nearby Culpeper County. Surveying, like his skills in mathematics and keeping accounts, helped him

manage his properties profitably throughout his life.

As George grew older he divided his time between Fredericksburg and surveying trips. He was in town in May, 1750, when, while bathing in the river, his clothes were stolen by two indentured servants – Ann Carrol and Mary McDaniel. Both were convicted with one receiving 15 lashes at the whipping post (Abbot 1983:48).

George Washington was not the only Ferry Farm occupant to interact with the legal system. In 1750, one of Mary Washington's slaves was accused of murdering another. At the trial, the man pleaded not guilty, but after testimony by witnesses the court pronounced him guilty and he was hanged. The court assessed the convicted slave at a value of 35 pounds and petitioned the General Assembly to make restitution (King George County Order Book, Book 2:670).

On November 4, 1752, George was initiated into Fredericksburg's Lodge of Freemasons. He appeared at meetings three times between November, 1752 and September, 1753. On March 2, 1753 he passed Fellow Craft and at the August 1753 meeting, it is noted that "George Washington raised [sic] Master Mason." He was also present at the next meeting of the Lodge on September 1, 1753. On January 4, 1755 George Washington attended his last recorded meeting at this Lodge (Fredericksburg Masonic Lodge Recordbook, 1752- 1771, Library of Virginia Microfilm).

One of George's last acts at Ferry Farm was to request from Lt. Governor Dinwiddie an appointment to his first military post, the new post of adjutant of the Northern Neck. Dinwiddie awarded George a military command shortly after the death of Lawrence Washington (Washington to Dinwiddie 1752).

In July, 1752, George inherited the rights to Mt. Vernon. Two years later, he leased Mount Vernon from Lawrence's widow. In 1761, he inherited Mount Vernon at the death of his brother's widow.

After the Washingtons

Throughout this time, Mary Washington successfully managed the property. In 1772, following Mary Washington's move into Fredericksburg, Ferry Farm was leased to James Hunter and William Fitzhugh. In 1777, the Washington property was sold to Dr. Hugh Mercer for 2000 pounds Virginia currency. After making improvements to the existing structures, Mercer intended to establish a new town on the plantation acreage, but the Revolutionary War interrupted his plans. Appointed as a

Brigadier General, Mercer died from wounds received at the Battle of Princeton. Never occupied by the Mercer family, Ferry Farm instead became a leased property. In 1826, Mercer's son John Tennant Mercer tried to sell the property describing it as the former home of George Washington. He offered the tract at a low price due to the deteriorated state of the property (Jones 2001).

In 1829, the property was sold to Chatham resident Judge John Coalter who was a Judge of the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia, and one of the most prominent men of his day. Coalter never lived at Ferry Farm but entertained a number of dignitaries at Chatham including Washington Irving, an early biographer of Washington. Joseph Mann and John Teasdale purchased Ferry Farm from Coalter's estate in 1838. In 1843, Teasdale conveyed the property to Lewis G. Sutton and by 1846 the farm has come into the hands of John R. Bryan (Jones 2001).

The Washington house may have remained standing until the early 1830s. The artist John Gadsby Chapman visited the property in 1830 and sketched a standing structure "described as a plain wooden structure of moderate size, and painted a dark red color" (Chatelain 1935). This sketch has since been lost. By 1833, the house was a ruin as depicted in the Chapman painting "*Fredericksburg from the Old Mansion of the Washington Family.*" Washington Irving's 1855 biography of Washington laments that there was nothing visible to indicate where the Washington house once stood except fragments of brick and pottery. Tax records suggest that the Washington dwelling ceased to exist

Figure 13. Winter Bray’s Tax Assessment for Ferry Farm.

sometime after the first quarter of the nineteenth century.

In December of 1846, Winter Bray paid \$4,000 to John R. Bryan (lawyer?) for the 542 ¼ acre property called Ferry Farm. Winter Bray was born on October 19, 1788 in Essex, Virginia. In 1843, at the advanced age of 55 he married the 16-year-old Mary Frances Dickey of Fredericksburg. In 1844, Winter Bray, Sr. purchased the Hazel Hill estate in Spotsylvania County. This plantation would serve as his plantation seat for the next eight years as he was frequently identified as Winter Bray of Hazel Hill (Copley nd).

Their marriage produced two children, Winter, Jr. (1846) and Charles Robert (1848). Winter Bray, Sr. died in January 15, 1852, and his widow soon married John Tribble. Bray’s will left Ferry Farm to his minor children. Neither he nor his sons ever lived at

Ferry Farm, instead the farm was operated by an overseer (Copley nd).

Between 1840 and 1849 county records show no taxable buildings on the property. However, in 1851, tax is assessed for a building valued at \$283.62

This amount is likely the actual cost incurred in the construction of the primary dwelling, identified archaeologically in 2005 (Muraca, Nasca, and Levy 2007). By 1861, the taxable value of buildings on the property had risen to \$400. Just one year after this assessment, the Civil War would arrive on the doorstep of Ferry Farm (Copley nd).

Personal property taxes for the farm steadily increased during the period.

- 1847 – 3 slaves, 0 horses
- 1848 – 8 slaves, 4 horses
- 1849 – 8 slaves, 6 horses
- 1850 – 9 slaves, 6 horses
- 1851 – 10 slaves, 3 horses

- 1852 (the year Winter Bray died) – 15 slaves, 5 horses, 24 cattle, sheep or hogs

In 1853, John Tribble became the executor of Winter Bray's estate. His records show repairs to the buildings on the property, purchase of a cow and calf, and sale of wheat (Copley nd).

Winter Bray built the house and kitchen as a home for an overseer. His subsequent death, in 1852, resulted in the transfer of Ferry Farm to his underage sons. The boys' mother remarried and her new husband, John Tribble, assumed control of the operation until the boys came of age (Copley nd). Tribble had a resident overseer attending to the property during the first Union occupation in April of 1862.

The Civil War comes to Ferry Farm

On two separate campaigns in 1862, Union forces occupied the north bank of the Rappahannock River, including Ferry Farm, in an attempt to take control of the Confederate City of Fredericksburg. The military objective of each campaign was the same; however, the circumstances under which the two were executed differed greatly. The first occupation employed the Union Army's military strategy of a 'peaceful' occupation while the second was one of 'hard war,' resulting in a major impact on the social and physical landscape of the area.

In late April 1862, the Army of the Rappahannock, under the command of Major General Irvin McDowell, advanced south from Warrenton, Virginia. His military objective was to take control of Fredericksburg. This

offensive move was intended to help protect Washington DC, located 50 miles to the north, while the main body of the Union Army was engaged in a push toward Richmond, on the James and York River peninsula. McDowell's forward cavalry encountered, and quickly defeated, the Confederate forces defending Fredericksburg at Falmouth, a small river town, one mile northwest of the city on the opposite side of the Rappahannock River. The Confederates, in their retreat south across the river, burned the two foot-traffic bridges spanning the Rappahannock, as well as a vital railroad bridge. Soon after the Confederate defeat, the Mayor of Fredericksburg surrendered the city to the Union Army.

The occupying Union troops quickly established their encampments on the north side of the Rappahannock, including the land at Ferry Farm, and set about the task of erecting two floating bridges across the river and constructing a new railroad bridge.

The Union soldiers encamped at Ferry Farm were the muscle that enforced the Federal occupation of Fredericksburg. Their officers ordered them to respect people and property, and the men - for the most part - followed their command. Still, local residents, like the overseer living at the Bray Farmstead found cause to complain bitterly to Federal authorities about barnyards raided for livestock, hay stolen for bedding, and fences dismantled for firewood.

Federal regiments hailing from New York, Wisconsin, and Massachusetts passed the spring and summer at Ferry Farm performing drills,



Figure 14. Alfred Waud's Depiction of Ferry Farm During the Battle of Fredericksburg.



Figure 15. Aerial View of Bray Cellar.

pulling guard duty, and rebuilding the structures their fellow troops sometimes damaged. When off duty, the men had time to improve their camp, wash their clothes, write letters home, play games, and even go into town to shop and see the sights. On May 15 of that year, Isaac Cooper, a soldier in the 7th Wisconsin, described Ferry Farm's occupants as an old secessionist and his black "wife" and their children. A second account of the overseer and his family comes from another soldier of the 7th Wisconsin Infantry, whose name today is unknown. The overseer and his family appear to have occupied the house Winter Bray had built.

The Federals Return

In August, newly-appointed Union General John Pope recalled the Fredericksburg occupiers to defend Washington. Departing Union soldiers destroyed their pontoon bridges, the railroad bridge they had just finished rebuilding, and other new structures they feared would benefit the Confederates. Apart from the superficial harm caused by their three-month encampment, they left behind a landscape largely intact with the Bray Farmstead still standing.

Four months later, Union General Ambrose Burnside brought the largest number of Federal troops ever amassed to the north bank of the Rappahannock in November. His plan was to cross the river and march victoriously on to Richmond. But he delayed his army's crossing waiting for pontoon boats. This gave General Robert E. Lee time to fully entrench his Army of Northern Virginia on the opposite side of the river. Burnside's delay set the stage for a fierce battle, which devastated Fredericksburg and ended in

a staggering Union defeat. Badly mauled, the Federals withdrew, pulled up their pontoon bridges, and hunkered down for the winter, turning Ferry Farm into part of their defensive front line.

The massive Union Army that arrived for battle in November was far different from the modest occupying force that had spent the summer here. Battle-hardened and irritated by a string of defeats, these soldiers cared little for local concerns about property. Burnside's men did not hesitate to take whatever they wanted, including trees, fences, livestock, and homes. Anything useful was commandeered, stripped clean, or torn down over the ensuing months to sustain the winter camp - including the Bray farm buildings.

William F. Draper, of the 36th Massachusetts Infantry, recalls his experience at Ferry Farm in late-November, 1862. *"Our picket duty here was especially interesting from the associations connected with the spot where that duty was performed. The part of the line that it usually fell to my lot to hold was on the old Washington Farm, where General Washington passed most of his earlier years, and where he cut the cherry tree with his little hatchet but could not tell a lie. The old homestead served as my headquarters several times, but it finally was entirely torn down for fuel and to assist in making comfortable the headquarters of the nearest regiments."*

Second Fredericksburg

Military action was renewed in the spring of 1863, culminating at the battle of Chancellorsville. During this engagement, Ferry Farm was again the location of a pontoon bridge, and the Federal guns overlooking it roared back

to life. At Chancellorsville, the Union Army would yet again sustain a crippling defeat; however, Fredericksburg would ultimately come under Federal control. In May 1864, the last of the military pontoon bridges to span the Rappahannock at Ferry Farm was in place, and would remain in this location following the Battle of Spotsylvania Courthouse.

After the War

In 1870, Winter Bray's executors sold 18 acres to Joseph Sanford. One year later the rest of the farm was sold to St. George R. Fitzhugh. In 1876, Jane Carson purchased the property and deeded it to her husband John. Attempts to restore peace and prosperity started with Ferry Farm's first post-war occupants, the Carson family. They filled in trenches, cleaned up debris, and built a new farmstead that stood into the twentieth century.

By 1900 James B. Colbert owned the property. He moved the Carson house and built a new farmhouse on the cellar of the old Carson house. In 1928, the newly-formed George Washington Foundation purchased 160 acres of the land from Colbert. It was the intention of the Foundation to turn the farm into an historic shrine. Unfortunately, the owners were unable to maintain their mortgage, and the heirs of James B. Colbert bought out the Foundation's equity. In 1946, the George Washington Boyhood Home Restoration Organization purchased 50 acres of the original Washington home lot, but this second attempt at preserving the property failed due to lack of financial support. Eventually, Samuel and Irma Warren purchased 101 acres. They maintained ownership until 1990, when

they deeded the 46 acres that contained the archaeological remains of the Washington plantation to Stafford County.

In 1990, the farm was partitioned and the southern acreage was rezoned commercial, threatening the integrity of the Washington site. In 1993, the George Washington Boyhood Home Foundation was formed to transform Ferry Farm into an historical attraction. In 1996, the Kenmore Association stepped in to preserve the property by purchasing approximately 44 acres from the Warrens, in addition to acquiring the tract maintained by Stafford County.

Chapter 4. Research Objectives and Excavation Strategies

The primary goal of the 2006-2008 field seasons was to investigate, document, and excavate the remains of a large structure identified in 2005 and fully uncovered in 2006. From the outset, the archaeological team suspected that this was the Washington house, but alternative interpretations were still viable. Erosion and the recycling of foundation stones for use in a variety of subsequent structures caused most of the surviving sections to be very fragmentary. Despite this handicap, GWF archaeologists always felt that there were enough architectural elements left to determine the history and characteristics of this building. Surviving pieces include the remains of two chimney bases, sections of intact foundation wall, two stone-lined cellars, and two sub-floor pits. While these features were important to understanding the use and look of the structure, it is the artifacts found within these remains that provide the bulk of the answers to the list of questions that surround this structure.

Before ownership could be assigned, the team needed to determine when various architectural elements of this structure were in use. Evidence suggests the structure stood for over 100 years, with some elements dating to the original construction phase, and others being added later. Archaeologists also needed to determine when some of the elements were abandoned. Three different types of data are available to help make these determinations – stratigraphic relationships, the *Terminus*

Post Quem (TPQ) based on the latest artifact found within the elements, and crossmending. Researchers can use the stratigraphic data and TPQ immediately, but must wait for the artifacts to be mended before they are available for inclusion in the analysis.

The structure was located on the edge of a terrace overlooking the Rappahannock River's floodplain, with the western portion actually extending onto the slope of the terrace. The archaeological team originally suspected that erosion was responsible for this odd configuration. As the summer wore on; however, it became clear that the original builders had intentionally placed this structure partially on the slope. While some erosion had occurred on the slope, it had not occurred to the extent previously suspected.

In addition to erosion and recycling, certain occupants of the site had also inadvertently damaged the remains of this building. Farmers plowed the area during the middle of the nineteenth century. Three subsequent farmhouses and their related outbuildings were established in this area as well. Construction activities related to these farmsteads adversely impacted the archaeological remains. Farmers repeatedly used the ruins of the house as a source of worked stone, eventually removing a large percentage of the footprint. Also, Federal troops disturbed the site during the Civil War. After the war, many foundation stones were deposited in the Civil War trench that bisected the building. Given all

these disturbances, it is remarkable that the building survived at all.

Research Questions

Archaeological interpretations usually start by addressing some very basic questions that over time give way to more nuanced questions. Initial research questions include: When was the structure built? Which pieces are original to the structure? Which pieces were added and when were they added? When were some of the pieces abandoned or replaced? A second set of questions deal with the notion of function. How was the structure used? Is it a domestic, agricultural, or support building? If domestic, who lived there – master, overseer, servant, or tenant? Did the occupants change over time? Does the social standing of new occupants differ from the original owners as the land and buildings become rundown?

Most of the artifacts recovered at Ferry Farm are situated in the plowzone. By understanding the distribution of these finds in association with the physical remnants of structures, fences, and work areas, and in conjunction with the local context provided mostly by the historical record, researchers are able to tease out meaning from this data set.

Once the basic questions are answered, more sophisticated research questions can be addressed, including:

1. *Develop a better understanding of the spatial organization of eighteenth-century plantations.* The spatial organization of plantations from this period is poorly understood in part because few of these sites have undergone large-scale excavation. Of particular interest are the changing relationships among the planters, indentured servants, and slaves.

Archaeology is well positioned to help delineate the spatial aspects of the systems put into place to insure that these groups could co-exist even though they pursued vastly different goals in life.

2. *Develop an understanding of how George Washington came to exhibit certain unique attributes that served him well in his adult life.* Washington developed some of these characteristics as a boy at Ferry Farm. For example, George developed a fascination with the western portion of Virginia early in life and this interest stayed with him throughout his adult life. By exploring the material circumstances of his situation and that of his family, we may be able to trace the origins of these character traits, traits which form the basis of the American cultural psyche relative to modern understandings of George Washington.

3. *Develop an understanding of the economic and social circumstances of the Washingtons before and after Augustine's death.* While the death of a patriarch is a shattering experience for most families, Augustine's family suffered more than most. At his death Augustine Washington, following the practices of the day, provided a parcel of land to each of his sons, leaving the home farm and ten slaves to George, to be inherited when he turned 21. George's mother managed the farm until he came of age. Lost revenues from the two farms given to Augustine's oldest sons greatly reduced the income of those family members that remained at the home farm. Eighteenth-century custom called for Mary to quickly remarry after her husband's death, making the best match possible. A good match would

involve marrying a social equal or better with considerable financial resources. Mary rejected this social norm, instead choosing to manage her three minor sons' plantations as if they were her own. This decision apparently triggered an economic free-fall for the family. Examination of Augustine's probate inventory reveals that the Washington family enjoyed goods associated with gentry life. Augustine's death, and Mary's subsequent decision not to remarry, caused deterioration in both the family's financial resources and material life.

Lack of resources prevented George from going to England for a formal, classical education. Money was so tight that George did not even attend a colonial college, instead becoming a surveyor. Most likely, these social and economic hardships could have easily been avoided if not for Mary's distaste for marriage.

Did Mary Ball's lifestyle aid her ability to act independently? Did her family and she live without extravagance, foregoing the lavish lifestyle favored by their peers? In a letter to Lawrence, George cancelled a planned visit for fear that his poorly-fed horse was not up to the task. Archaeology will shed light on the material aspects of their lives during this difficult period.

4. *Develop a better understanding of the spatial use of the landscape over the thousands of years of occupation at the Ferry Farm site.* The site was in use before and after the Washington Family occupation. Several thousand years earlier, Native Americans used this area repeatedly as a temporary campsite. Excavations have unearthed numerous projectile points, tools, and flakes. In

the nineteenth century, Ferry Farm operated as a plantation, and was impacted heavily by the Battle of Fredericksburg.

The recovery of the land and its continued agricultural use during the post-bellum period is an important, yet poorly understood and underappreciated aspect of Virginia history. Archaeological investigations will contribute significantly to an analysis of this era. A successful and expansive farming occupation was established here in the twentieth century. The Colbert Family appreciated the history of their property. In addition, popular movements to preserve the site began here in the twentieth century, well after such efforts were underway at Mount Vernon, but in conjunction with the Wakefield National Memorial Association efforts at the birthplace of George Washington.

Excavation Strategy

The 2005 (designated FF-08), 2006 (FF-10), and 2007 excavations (FF-12) employed a grid oriented 10 degrees west of true north. All locations in this text are in reference to grid north. With the help of the National Park Service, Ferry Farm staff established two permanent datum points south and west of the site that were tied into the USGS coordinate system using GPS. Using temporary grid coordinates at first, staff archaeologists later converted the temporary grid coordinates into USGS coordinates.

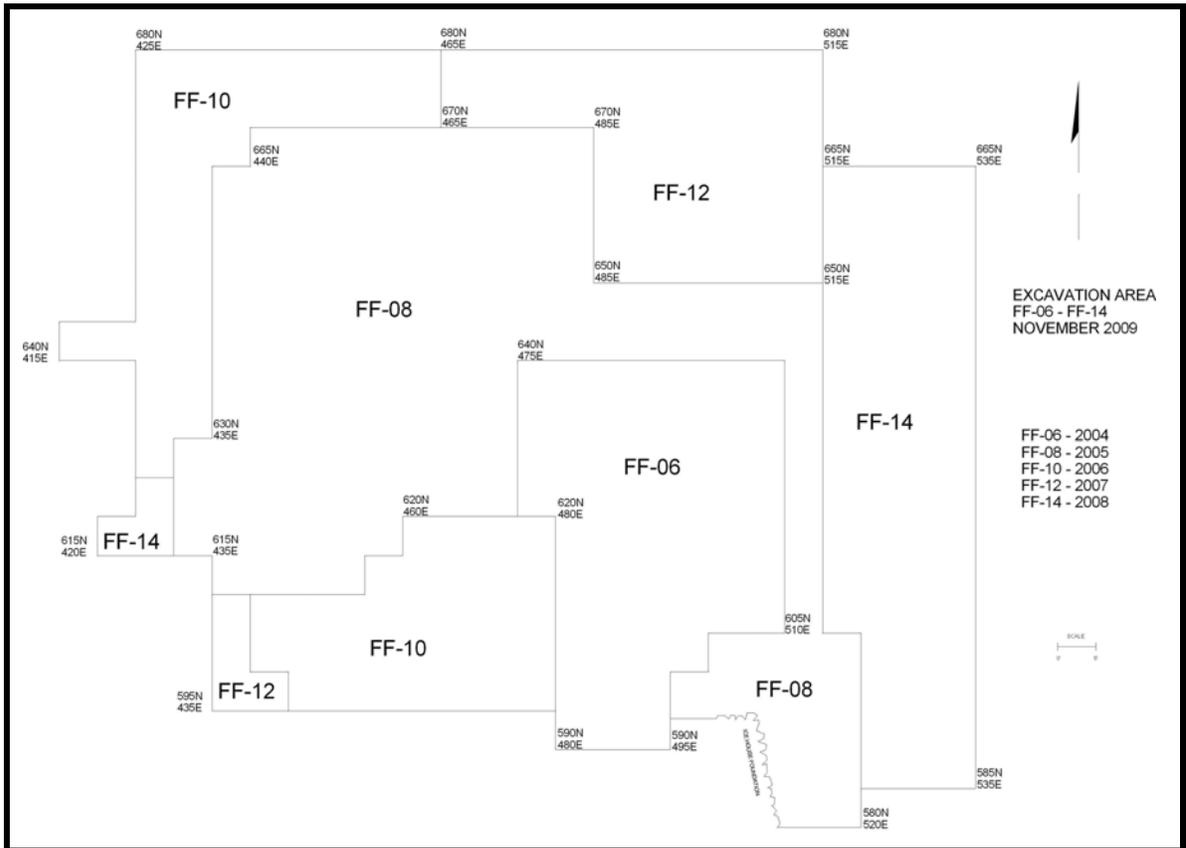


Figure 16. Excavation Boundaries 2004 through 2008.

The research design calls for the use of open-area excavation technique using adjacent 5-ft. square excavation units. This technique requires archaeologists to uncover a site layer by layer resulting in a detailed "snapshot" of a particular point in time. The combined number of 5-ft. by 5-ft. squares opened in 2005, 2006, and 2007 was 186, meaning 4,650 square feet of site was excavated. Because the site was plowed, only three layers of stratigraphy survived above subsoil for this area. Topsoil and the plowzone are found throughout the site. A third layer that formed over time was encountered in some areas of the site. This sheet refuse layer sealed subsoil. Using shovels, excavators removed these layers in standard excavation units.

On the hillside (west side), a layer formed by erosion replaced the plowzone. This layer contained a mix of artifacts including those from the twentieth century.

When features were encountered, they were excavated using trowels. The fill was sectioned and profile drawings were executed. Architectural features related to the house, such as sections of stone foundations, were left in place unexcavated. One quarter of the fill of the root cellars and one quarter of the east stone lined cellar was left unexcavated.

All soils were screened and all cultural material was collected. Plowzone and features containing light concentrations of artifacts were passed through a ¼ inch mesh. Significant

features were water screened through window mesh. Artifacts recovered during water screening were cataloged in the same manner as the rest of the artifacts. Soil chemistry samples were collected from plowzone.

Layers and features were assigned unique numbers for identification purposes. Information about the physical attributes of these layers and features was recorded using the standard context form developed by the GWF Archaeology Department. Items recorded include Munsell color, soil texture, samples taken, documentation, and a general description. Features were further recorded using plan and profile drawings, photographs, and elevations. All measurements were taken in feet and tenths of feet.

Recovered artifacts were washed, sorted, identified, labeled, and cataloged. They are permanently stored in the Ferry Farm archaeology lab. Small finds in need of stabilization were conserved by Paul Nasca. Additional information about small finds was recorded in the department's object catalog database first by Anita Dodd and later by Laura Galke and Melanie Marquis.

Chapter 5. Results

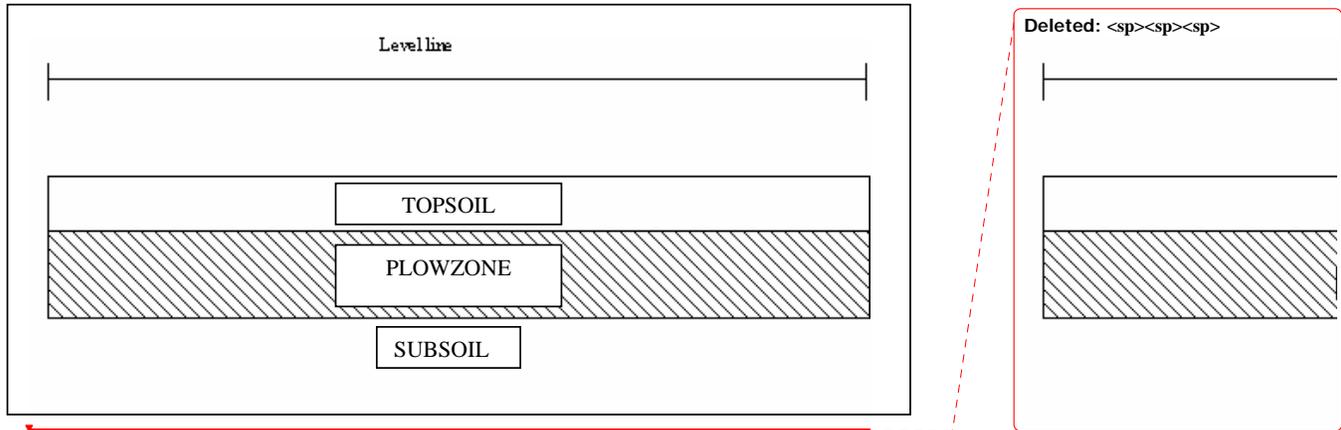


Figure 17. Typical Soil Profile.

Topsoil

This thin (0.2 to 0.3 ft.) layer was a grey brown (10YR 5/2) sandy silt that occasionally contained gravel. Removed with flat shovels, this soil was dry screened thru ¼-inch mesh. The layer contained small amounts of brick bits, shell, and mortar inclusions. Almost all of the artifacts from this layer were 20th century

Plowzone

In all, 186 5 ft.-by 5 ft. squares of plowzone were excavated using flat shovels. This layer's thickness ranged from 0.25 ft. to 0.6 ft. The soil was a uniform dark yellowish brown (10 YR 4/4) sandy silt. Small pieces of sandstone were found throughout the plowzone as were some brick bits, plaster fragments, shell-based mortar, oyster shell, and small cobbles. The

plowzone contained a large number of historic and prehistoric artifacts. The plowed layer sealed subsoil. The plowzone on the westernmost portion of the excavation area was somewhat eroded.

Because over 130 years have passed since this area was plowed, the interface between the plowzone and subsoil is indistinct making identification of features difficult. In order to remedy this, excavators removed the very uppermost portion of the subsoil layer with shovels. This material was screened and the artifacts were assigned the appropriate plowzone context.

Sheet Refuse

In some areas of the site a cultural layer survived between the plowzone and subsoil. This layer was truncated by the plowzone, but a thin

layer of sheet refuse remained as dark yellowish-brown sandy silt with heavy mottling. Artifacts in this layer came from both the historic period and prehistoric. A number of small irregular features cut this layer indicating that the sheet refuse was in place for some time before being truncated by plowing. Artifacts were concentrated in the top portion of the layer, with fewer finds in the lower portion. The sheet refuse sealed subsoil. The *TPQ* for this layer was 1820, but the vast majority of the artifacts found in this layer dated from the eighteenth century.

Prehistoric Findings

Diagnostic artifacts were recovered from several prehistoric time periods. In all, 46 projectile points, seven assorted tools, and one ground axe were found. Excavators unearthed 180 sherds of pottery, all of which were Early Woodlands Accokeek Creek except for one sherd of Marcey Creek. The majority of projectile points are from the Late Archaic Period (2,500-1,200 BC) and the Early Woodland Period (1,200-500 BC).

The Early Archaic (8,000-6,000 BC) points consisted of two Big Sandy, one Kirk-stemmed, one Kirk-corner notched and a slightly later Kirk-stemmed.

The Middle Archaic (6,000-2,500 BC) projectile points included two Brewerton side-notched, and a Halifax side-notched.

The Late Archaic Period (2,500-1,200 BC) is very well represented with regard to projectile points. Points found include:

- 2 Bare Island
- 1 Culpeper

- 3 Holmes
- 1 Motley
- 1 Lamoka Stemmed
- 1 Poplar Island

The Early Woodland period is also well represented at Ferry Farm with numerous points and a small concentration of Accokeek pottery. Over 85% of the Accokeek was undecorated, with 12% being cord-marked. The most interesting pottery was found in an area outside the portion of the site considered in this report. Excavators uncovered a pit containing two bowls – one placed inside the other. These bowls were buried whole and subsequently broken in place. Early Woodland projectile points include:

- 10 Orient Fishtail
- 4 Calvert
- 1 Adena
- 1 Vernon
- 3 Piscataway

The Middle (500 BC – AD 900) and Late Woodland (AD 900 – 1421) occupations in this portion of the site are minimal. No pottery was recovered, but five projectile points (three triangular, one Potts, and one Rossville) dating from the Middle Woodland were found. A single Madison point is the only cultural markers of the Late Woodland.

In order to better understand prehistoric materials, their spatial distributions were compared to other excavation areas.

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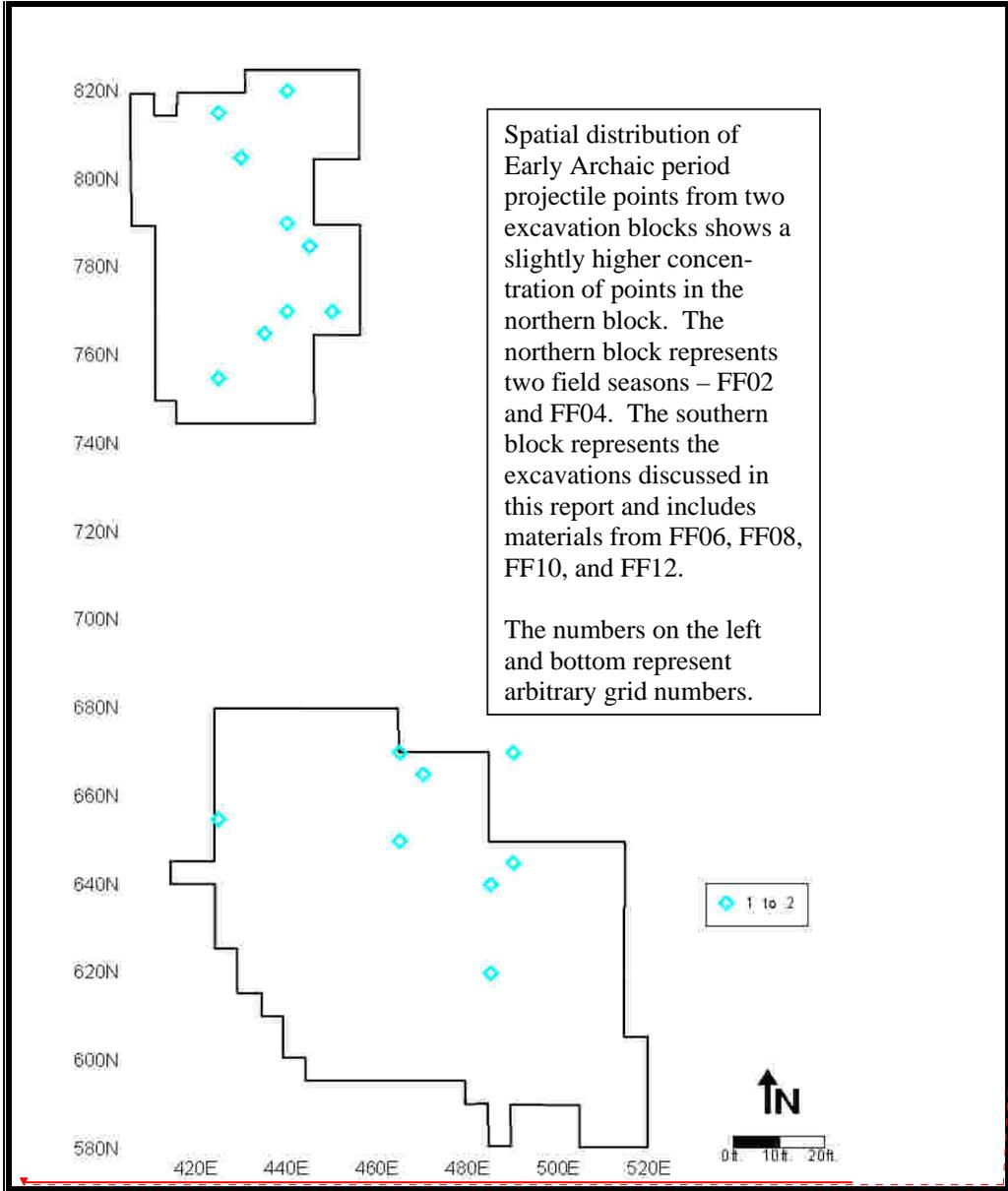


Figure 18. Distribution of Early Archaic Period Projectile Points.

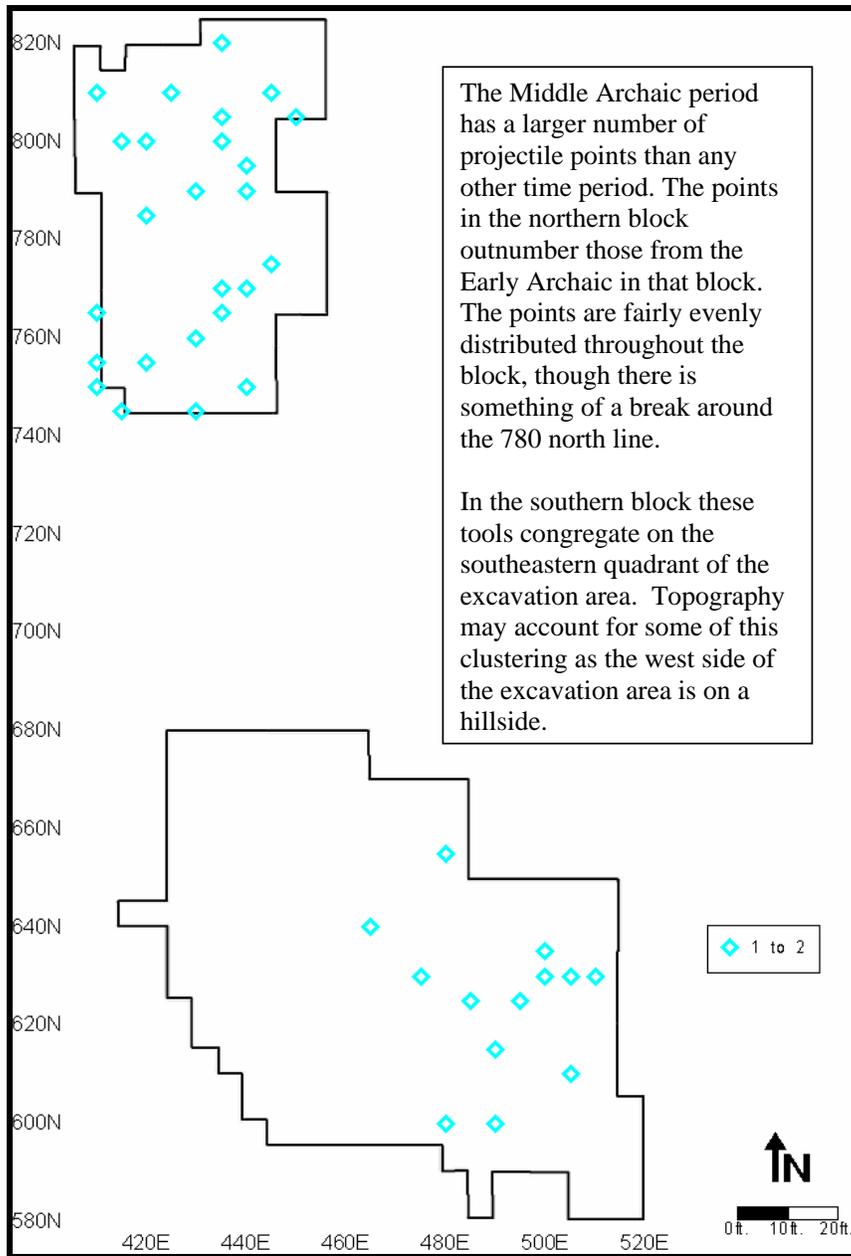


Figure 19. Distribution of Middle Archaic Projectile Points.

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By the late Archaic period, projectile points cluster in the southern excavation block. This is a reversal from the middle Archaic period. The southern block points continue to cluster on the eastern half, which again may be due to erosion of the west half. This period has about the same number of points as the early Woodland period, with a quantity only second to the Middle Archaic.

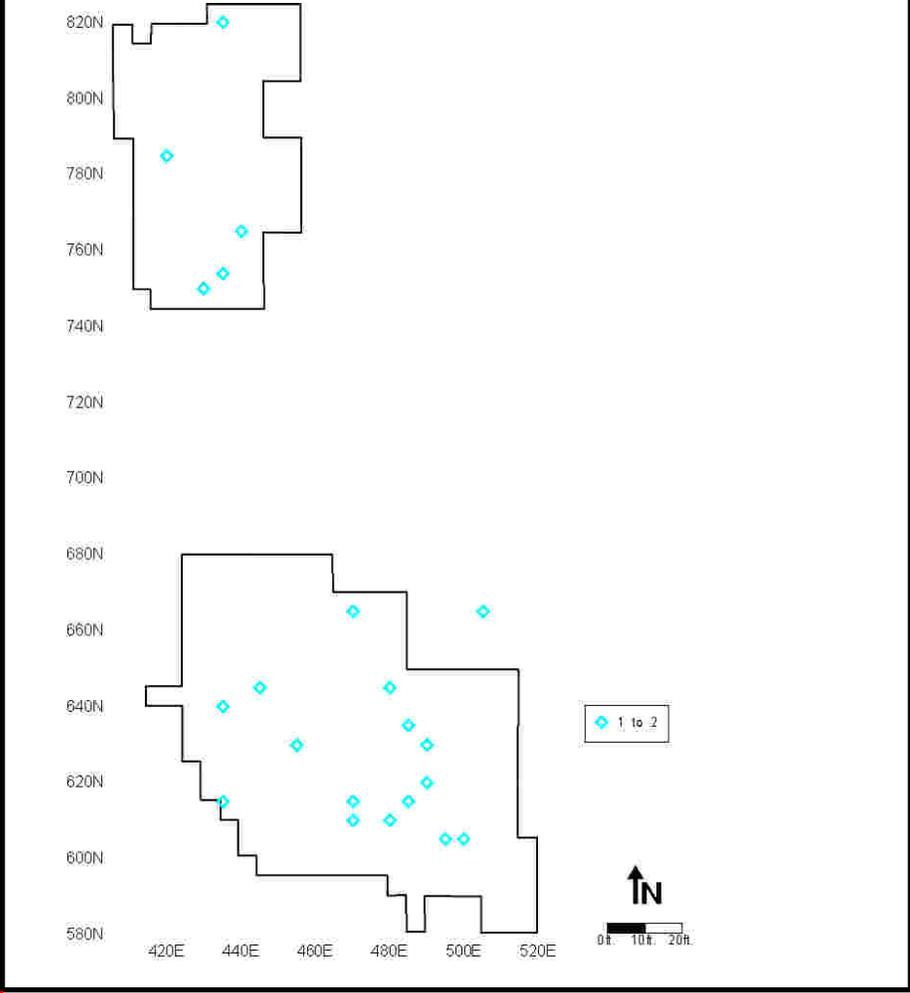


Figure 20. Distribution of Late Archaic Period Projectile Points.

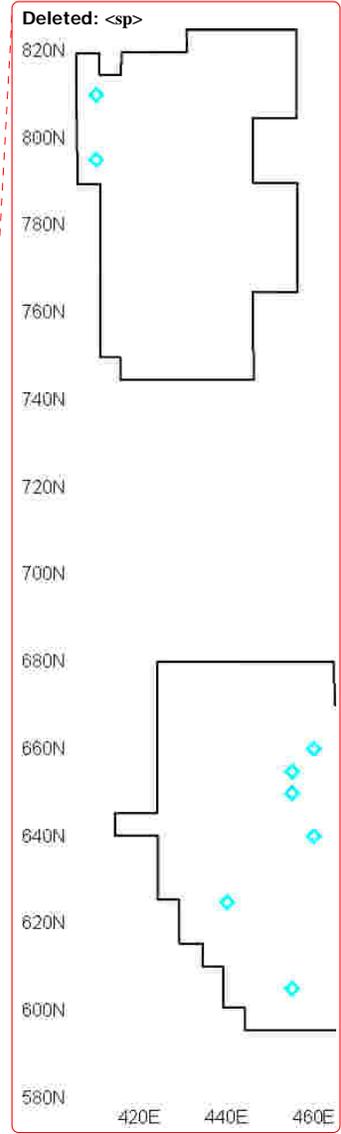
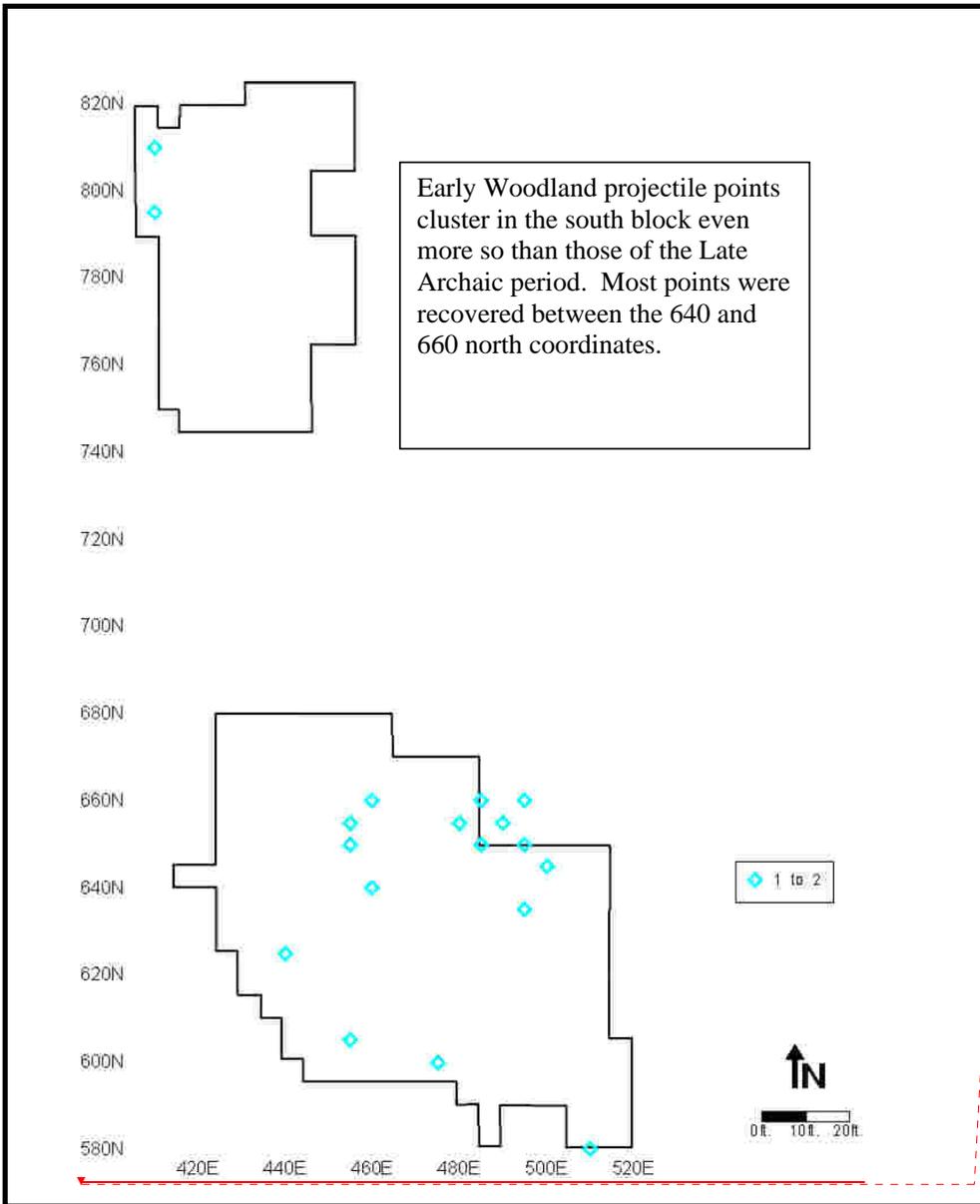


Figure 21. Distribution of Early Woodland Period Projectile Points.

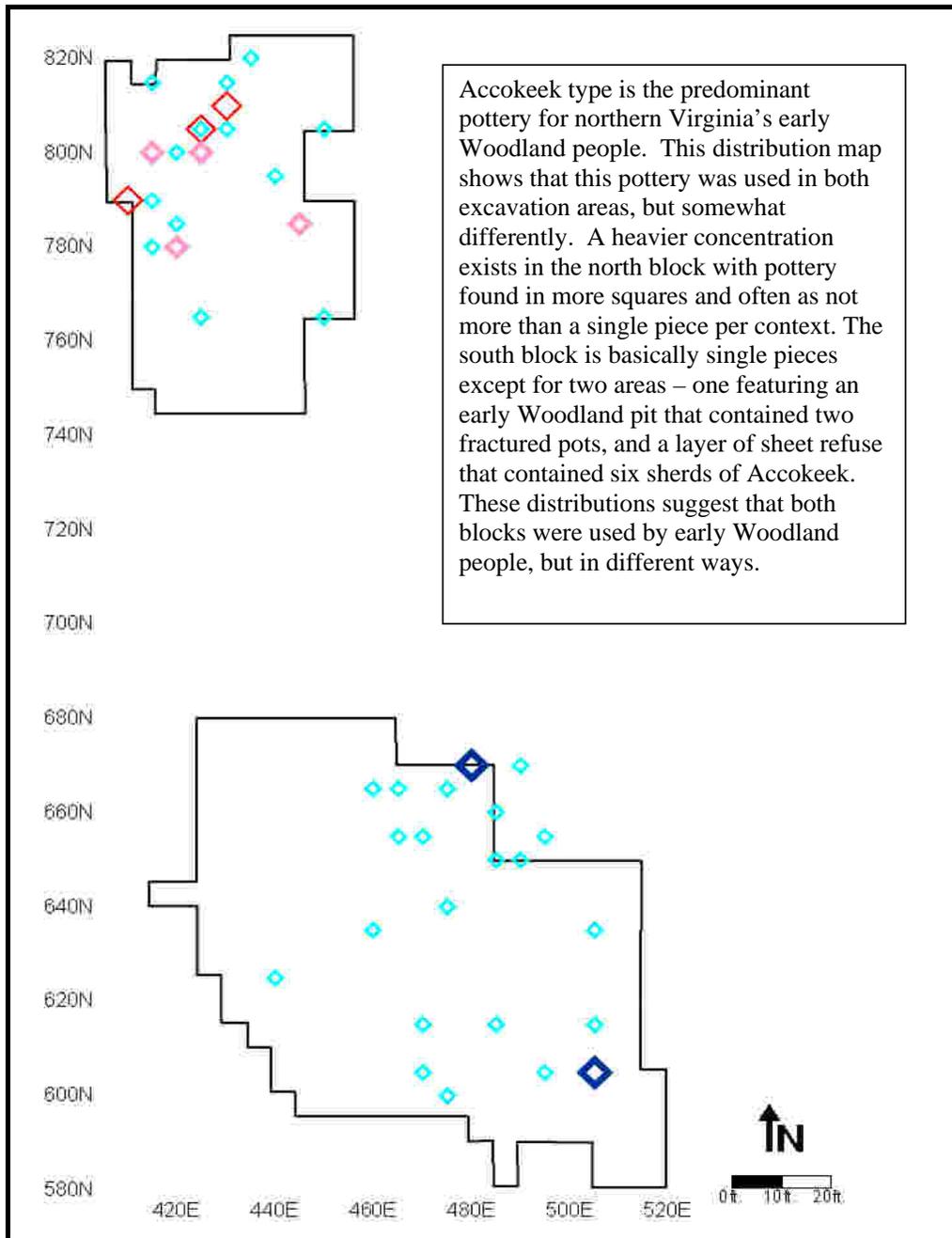


Figure 22. Distribution of Early Woodland Accokeek Pottery Type.

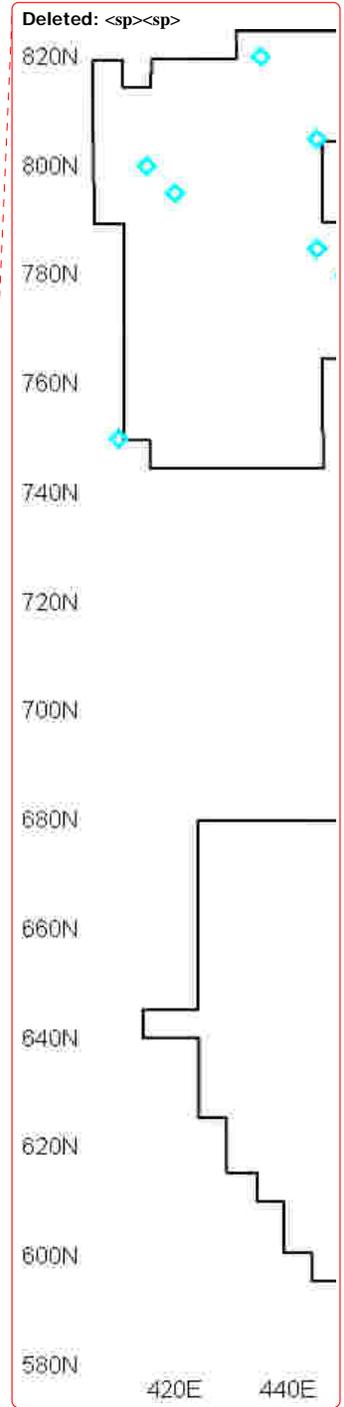
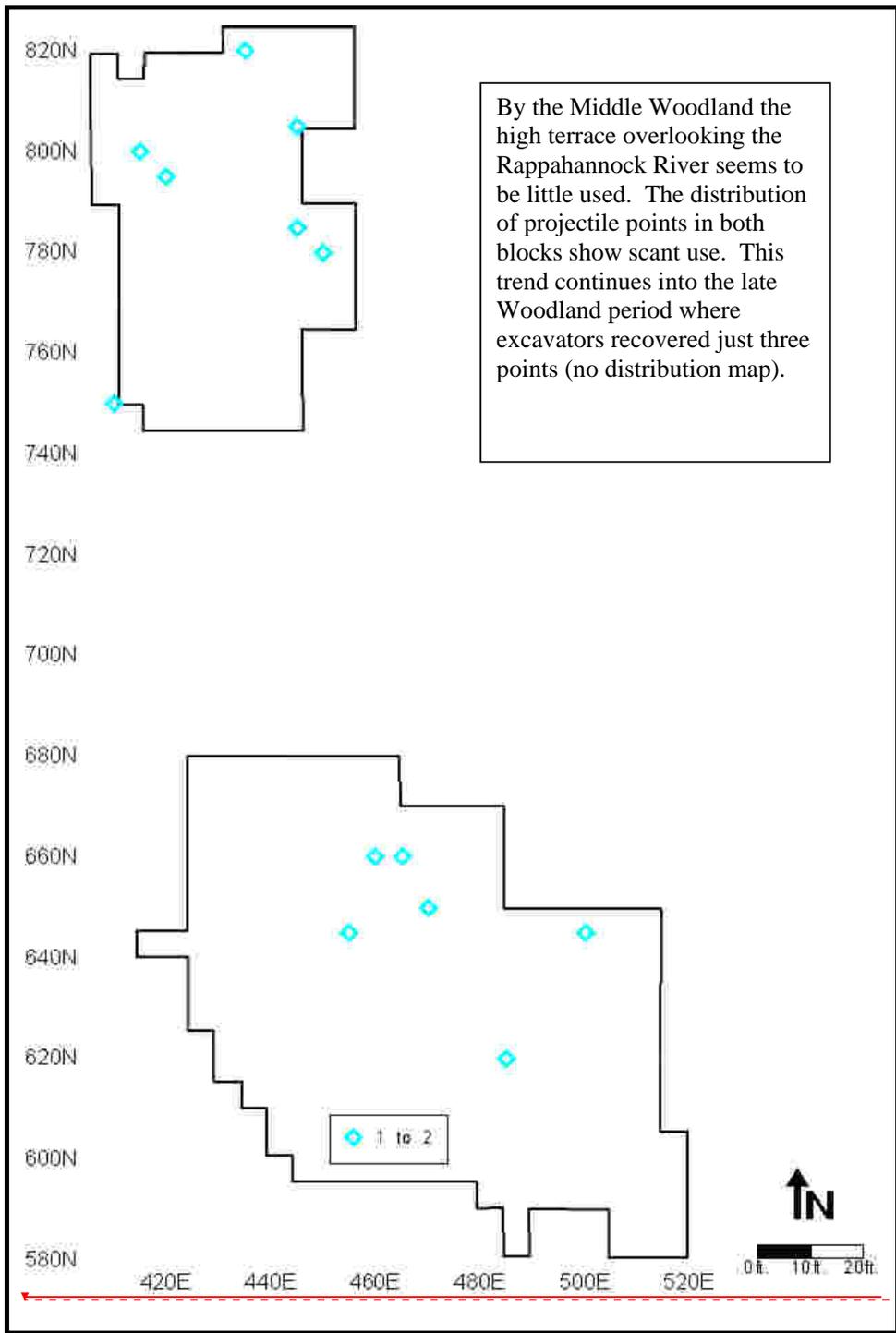


Figure 23. Distribution of Middle Woodland Projectile Points.

Historic Findings

Washington House - Original Appearance

This center passage hall and parlor house featured five rooms on the first floor, and up to three rooms in the loft. The house was a rectangle that measured approximately 52 ft. (N-S) by 27 ft. (E-W) with a roughly square (12.5 by 13 ft.) later addition extending out on the riverside (west) face. The center wall that separated the west and east rooms was off-center measuring 16 feet from where the west wall would have stood and 11 feet from the east wall. The larger rooms being on the river side indicates that the house faced the river. Artifact distributions support this interpretation as well, with sheet refuse characterizing the east or back yard. The smaller rooms in the back were part of a one story shed addition.

Like many colonial structures, this building featured a clapboard-covered wooden superstructure situated on a stone foundation. Direct evidence of two fireplaces has survived, and indirect evidence of a third exists. The two main fireplaces were situated on the gable ends, with a smaller third fireplace providing heat to the north back room. The roof was covered by wooden shingles. Two root cellars were found – one in the southeast room, and one in the northwest room. Artifact analysis suggests that one replaced the other with the root cellar in the southeast being built first and then abandoned, with its replacement being installed in front of the north chimney. The chimneys' lower courses were executed in stone and then their builder switched to brick for the rest of the chimney.

Building Element Descriptions

The best-preserved components of the structure are two adjacent cellars situated in the center of the building. The east cellar appears to date to the original construction phase of the building and was well constructed. The north half of this cellar was excavated in 2006, the southwest quadrant in 2007. The research questions behind removing this quadrant were mostly architectural, i.e., to better understand the doorway and the threshold leading into the west cellar. The southeast quadrant of the cellar was not excavated, in order to preserve these deposits for future generations of archaeologists.

The west cellar was added onto the east cellar. Its construction date has not been determined, though it likely occurred during the Washington Family occupancy. The entire west cellar was excavated in order to understand how this foundation came down and to uncover and investigate the construction-related features sealed by it.

Almost all of the foundation walls were executed in locally-quarried Aquia sandstone. The east cellar walls and the north chimney foundation are held together with a shell-tempered mortar. The west cellar's foundation stones were held together using a stiff dark yellow clay. All other surviving sections of the house foundation were dry-laid. With the exception of the east cellar, the house foundation walls were almost entirely removed after the building was a ruin for reuse in other buildings constructed in the nineteenth century.

A robber's trench marks the former location of the east half of the structure's foundation. The



Above: Figure 24 Overall of Washington House- Looking West.
Left: Figure 25. Close-up of North Chimney Base.

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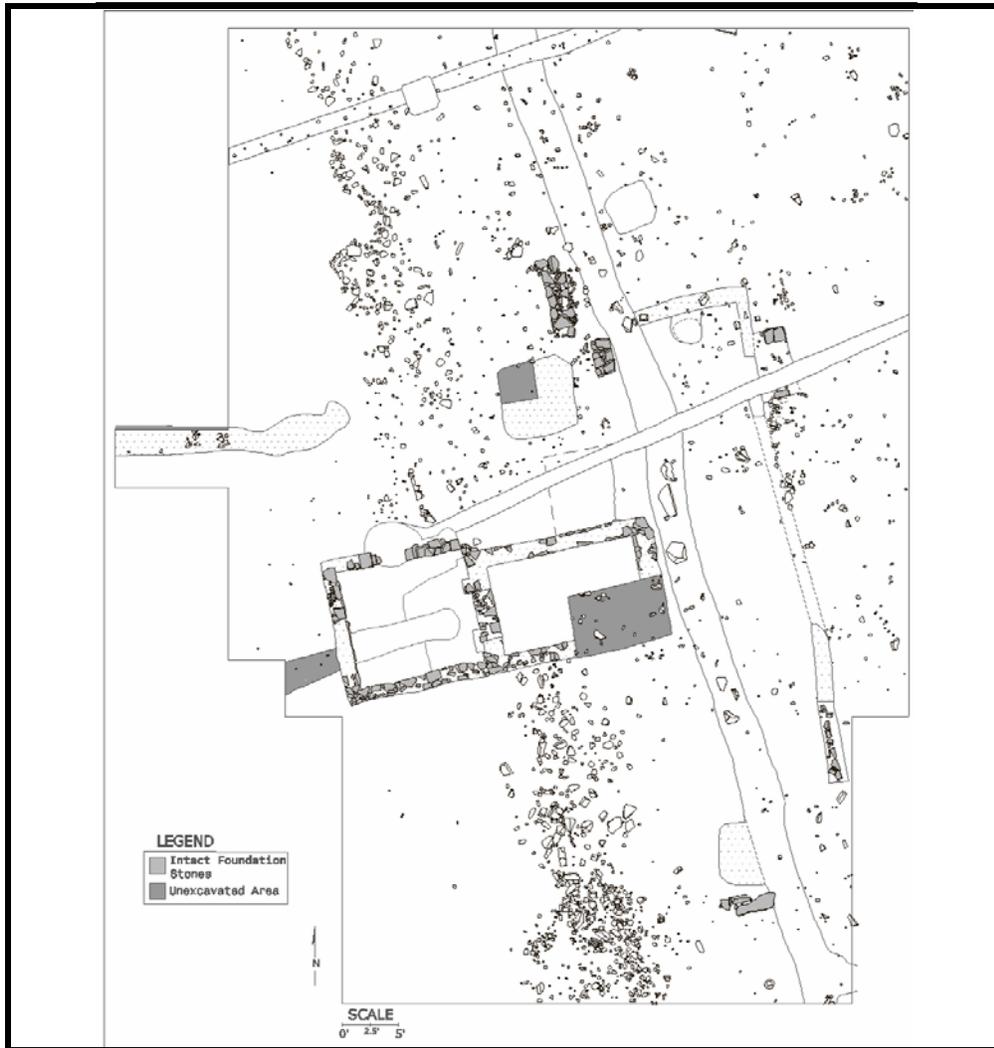


Figure 26. Plan View of House Excavation.

trench measured 1.6 to 1.75 ft. in width and intruded subsoil 0.13 to 0.23 ft. deep. See below for a more detailed description. On the west half of the structure, the robber's trench was lost to erosion.

North Chimney Base

Six feet of this stone foundation exists intact. One of the most robust

foundation walls to survive, this two-rock-deep foundation measures 2.0 ft. across. Only a single course of stones has survived with mortar applied to the tops of the stones indicating this section of foundation is more substantial than its non-mortared counterparts. Almost all of this foundation was recycled (robbed) for use in subsequent occupations' structures.



Figure 27. One of the Sections of the Center Foundation Wall.



Figure 28. Section of West House Foundation Wall.

Section of Center Wall

Two sections of this foundation have survived. One is located just south and a little east of the north chimney base. The surviving portion of this foundation measures 3.0 ft. long and 1.75 ft. wide. Only a single course of the section near the chimney has survived. This section was dry-laid with

stones about the same size as those that make up the chimney base.

The other section is the east wall of the east stone-lined cellar. Eleven ft. of this foundation has survived. This wall measured between 1.75 and 2.0 ft. thick. The section that served as the east wall of the east stone-lined cellar was held together with a shell-tempered mortar.



Figure 29. Overall of Section of South Foundation Wall.

West House Foundation Wall

Located where the most erosion has taken place, this 11.0 ft. section of foundation survives only as part of the west wall of the east stone-lined cellar. The foundation was made up of Aquia blocks and smaller rubble and measured 1.5 ft. wide. The blocks were used as facing for the cellar with smaller rubble situated in the back to provide extra stability.

South House Foundation Wall

This foundation is different from any other surviving section. The 5.0 ft.-long foundation is situated east of the center wall. It contains one very large non-Aquia stone and several smaller pieces of Aquia. Only a single course survives of this heavily robbed foundation. This section of foundation measures 1.75 ft. across. No mortar was



Figure 30. Overall of Section of East Wall Foundation.



Figure 31. Remains of the East Chimney Base.

present on any of these stones suggesting that it was dry laid.

East House Foundation Wall

This 7.0 ft. section of foundation also differs from its counterparts in that all its stone consists solely of small pieces of Aquia. It measures from 0.5 ft. to 1.0 ft. in width. It is situated in a builder's trench, and is less robust in character than the other walls. This section used an oyster-shell-tempered mortar and was also heavily robbed.

East Fireplace

Three Aquia stones make up what appears to be a small fireplace that would have provided direct heat to the northeast room. The *TPQ* for the foundation-stone-robbing portion of the house is 1775. The fireplace measured 6.0 ft. by 3.0 ft.

East Stone-lined Cellar

Excavation of 75% of the east stone-lined cellar was completed during the summer of 2007. It was built using locally quarried Aquia sandstone that still exhibits the tool marks produced when the stonemason originally shaped the blocks. The blocks were held together using shell-tempered mortar, a predominately eighteenth-century building material. Larger blocks were used for the facing while small irregular chips, held together with large quantities of mortar, were employed for the backing. These smaller rocks extended up to the limits of the construction hole indicating that no builder's trench existed. The cellar interior dimensions are 8.0 ft. by 13.0 ft. with walls measuring over six feet tall on the more intact east side. The cellar featured a sandy subsoil floor sealed by several thin layers created by individuals walking and working in the cellar. Above these working surfaces was a rich organic fill that featured large numbers of both

Aquia sandstone and field stones. This layer probably formed after the roof had collapsed on the structure providing (among other things) a convenient dumping place for fieldstones unearthed during plowing. On top of this layer is a large concentration of building materials tossed into the cellar during the recycling and final destruction of the structure.

A 4.0 ft.-wide doorway is situated in the center of the cellar's west wall. The doorway featured a stone sill with sockets where a wooden door frame was incorporated into the stone foundation.

This entranceway was originally protected by a bulkhead (this type of architectural element features stairs covered by a wooden hatch and is usually situated on the backside of buildings) and featured a drain to carry away excess rainwater that accumulated in this area. There is no evidence of shelving or an internal stairway that would have led to the structure's ground floor.

Artifacts found in the cellar include among other things whitewashed plaster, painted plaster (red), animal bones, ceramics, glass, architectural hardware, and straight pins. Large quantities of sandstone and mortar were found in the fill layers.

All of the soil from this cellar was water screened. Numerous samples were taken from each deposit. Oyster shells, plaster, mortar, and bricks were each weighed and heavily sampled. All stone, including Aquia sandstone and water-worn cobbles was photographed and measurements were taken for a sample. Any Aquia with special characteristics (such as chisel marks) were brought into the lab. Soil samples were collected for chemical analysis.



Figure 32. Overall of East Stone-lined Cellar.

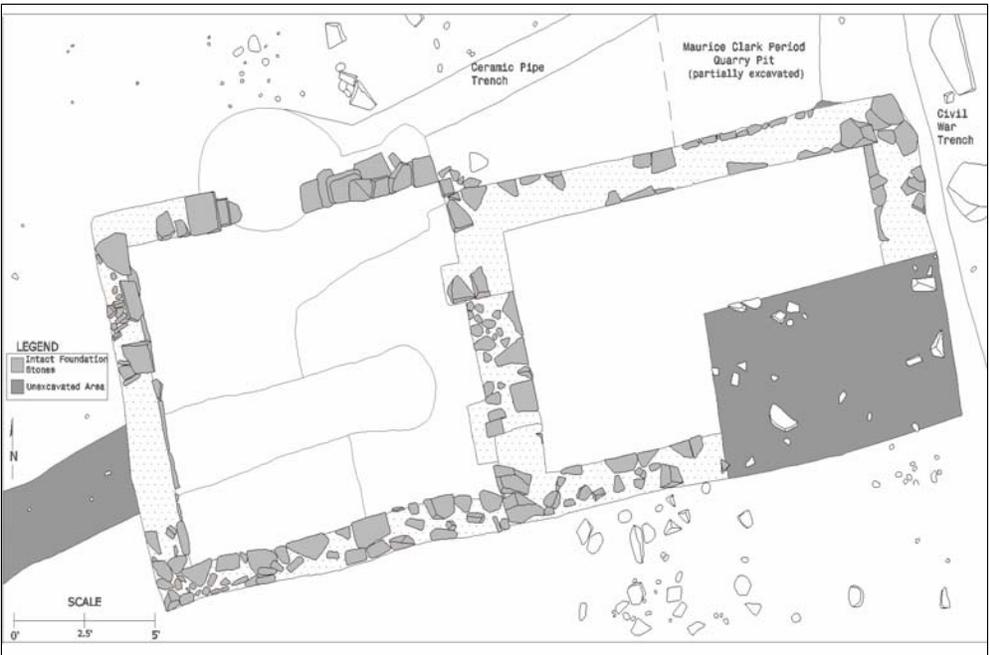


Figure 33. Overall showing the Relationship between the East and West Stone-lined Cellars

Excavators identified construction related features along with 12 layers that can be combined into six major fill events. They are, from earliest to latest:

1. Occupation Layers – these very thin layers (less than 0.2 ft. thick) were created while the cellar was in use. This buildup over time contained small quantities of plaster, mortar, oyster shell, stone, and brick bits. Gray silts gave way to compacted sand as these layers began to co-mingle with the sand subsoil. A linear area of compacted sand suggests a pathway was created by workers using the cellar. Contexts include FF10-313, FF10-320, FF10-315, FF10-312, FF12-259, FF12-286, FF12-277, and FF12-278. The existence of creamware indicates that the last of these layers was formed after 1762. These layers are Washington-related.
2. The west wall collapses causing the east cellar to be abandoned.
3. After the west wall of this cellar fell, both cellars began to be purposely filled. These layers contained less construction material and more water worn stones than the two lower layers. The soil in these layers was a gray silty clay and some material in this layer showed signs of fire. These fill layers contained numerous artifacts that were from the Washington period of occupancy mixed in with post-Washington finds. TPQ is post-1780s. These layers spill through the doorway separating the cellars. Contexts include FF10-292, FF12-180, FF10-306, FF10-

290, FF12-231, FF12-217 and FF10-291.

4. This clean organic layer with large stones formed while the structure was a ruin. It was deposited over time sometime after 1800. Contexts include FF10-273 and FF12-137. This layer was found in both cellars, spilling through the doorway with the thickest portion of the layer in the west cellar.

5. Cellar wall stones recycled – these layers formed as workers removed large intact stones, tossing unusable architectural material such as stones, plaster, and mortar into the cellar hole. One specialty stone that was tossed into the cellar was the hearthstone from one of the fireplaces. The fill also contained pockets of clay and decaying mortar. This layer (Context FF10-254, FF10-259, FF12-61) was formed after 1800 and contained a large number of architectural artifacts. Once this layer was removed, the top of the surviving foundation walls was exposed.

6. Workers return to fill in the remaining depression by pushing unusable remnants of structure into cellar. This layer (FF10-172, FF12-22) contained large quantities of construction materials including one very large stone. These fill layers ranged in thickness from 1 ft. to 2 ft. The soil consisted of a silty clay with pockets of sand, containing decaying yellow mortar, and cut sandstone. It contained numerous inclusions such as burned and unburned oyster shell, brick, mortar, plaster, and water-worn cobbles. This layer was deposited between 1830 and 1860.

West Stone-lined Cellar

The west cellar was added to the house sometime after the original construction phase. It abuts the east cellar and was placed on the sloping

terrace leading down to the Rappahannock River's floodplain. The cellars co-existed for an undetermined length of time. This cellar is wider than its eastern counterpart with an interior measurement of 10.5 ft. north/south by 11.25 ft. east/west, and an exterior measurement of 13 ft. by 14 ft. Because of the terrain, only the bottom 1.0 ft. of cellar survived on the west end. A first floor room was built over this cellar.

This cellar is different from the eastern one in a number of ways. Added after the eastern stone-lined cellar was complete and in use, this cellar incorporates the west wall of the east cellar into its construction. The cellar is wider than its eastern counterpart by about 1.5 ft. It is not as well-built as the eastern cellar and uses a mixture of rough river cobbles and cut Aquia sandstone. The stones are held together using a stiff clay instead of mortar. The small stones set in mortar used to back the east cellar are missing from the west one. Where the cellars abut they are not mortared together indicating they were not tied into each other. Evidence of a doorway exists in the west (riverside) wall in the form of a door sill. Repairs to a section of this foundation were evident in its north wall. The construction trench associated with the repair contained pearlware, indicating this work took place after 1775, by post-Washington occupants. A twentieth-century pipe terminated with a circular sump in the north half of the cellar.

Similarities with the east cellar include a sand subsoil floor with no evidence of interior stairs or shelving. Excavation failed to provide evidence of a date for the construction of this cellar. Stratigraphic evidence shows that it post-dates the construction of the east cellar. No builder's trench was evident.



Above Figure 34. Drawing of West Stone-lined Cellar.

Left – Figure 35. Photograph of Same Cellar.

Its destruction date is a little clearer. Even after significant repairs, the north experienced a wall collapse ending the use of both cellars. The cellars were then sporadically filled in over the next 50 years.

As with the east cellar, all of the fill layers from the west cellar were water screened and a number of samples were taken from each deposit. Oyster, plaster, mortar, and brick were each weighed and heavily sampled. In addition, all stone, including Aquia sandstone and water-worn cobbles were photographed and measurements were taken and samples collected. Any Aquia sandstone with special characteristics such as significant chisel marks or burning was brought into the lab.

Excavators identified five major fill episodes, most of which were seen in the east cellar. They are from earliest to latest:

1. Occupation Layers – these thin layers (FF12-272, FF12-344) were created while the cellar was in use. The existence of molded white salt-glazed stoneware indicates that the last of these layers was formed after 1740. One of these layers is made up of a compacted sand pathway formed by workers using the cellar. These layers are Washington-related.
2. West cellar wall collapse (FF12-283, FF12-426). The south wall of the cellar failed and fell into the interior of the cellar. This collapse took place after 1775 but before the 1790s.
3. After the south wall of the west cellar fell, both cellars were abandoned and were gradually filled.

The earliest of these fill layers (FF12- 232, FF12-52, FF12-84, FF12-411) contained numerous Washington-related artifacts mixed with post-Washington finds. The TPQ for these layers is post 1790s. This gray silt layer spills through the doorway separating the cellars. The layer ranged in thickness from 0.5 ft. to 1.0 ft.

4. Cellar walls were later recycled. A layer was formed as workers removed large intact stones, tossing unusable material into the cellar hole. This layer was accidentally excavated as part of episode 5. Created between 1800 and 1830, this layer contained a large number of artifacts which are building- related.
5. Workers return to complete the filling of the cellar depression. This layer (FF12-34, FF12-400) contained lots of inclusions including burned and unburned oyster shell, brick, mortar, plaster, Aquia sandstone, and water-worn cobbles. The layer varies in thickness from 0.6 ft. to just over 1.4 ft. The soil was a silty clay with pockets of sand and decaying yellow mortar. This layer was formed between 1830 and 1860.

Bulkhead Construction Trench

Under the west cellar lay the ephemeral remains of what was once the bulkhead entrance leading into the east cellar (FF12-343, 382, 386, 477, 475,479). Most of this feature was destroyed during the construction of the western cellar. The only surviving elements were the builder's trench for the stairs and two intact stones that were once the first course of the bulkhead foundation walls. The steps leading

down to the cellar were 4.0 ft. long with 1.5 ft. deep treads. The bulkhead dates to the original construction phase of the structure, around 1727. This re-deposited subsoil contained very few

artifacts. Those that were recovered included tin-glazed earthenware, redware, colonoware, nails, and some animal bones. The small assemblage of non-



Figure 37. Remains of Unexcavated Construction Trench for Bulkhead Entrance under West Stone-lined Cellar.



Figure 38. Close-up of Excavated Construction Trench for Bulkhead Entrance.



Figure 39. Plan of Construction Trench for Bulkhead Entrance that survives under West Stone-lined Cellar.

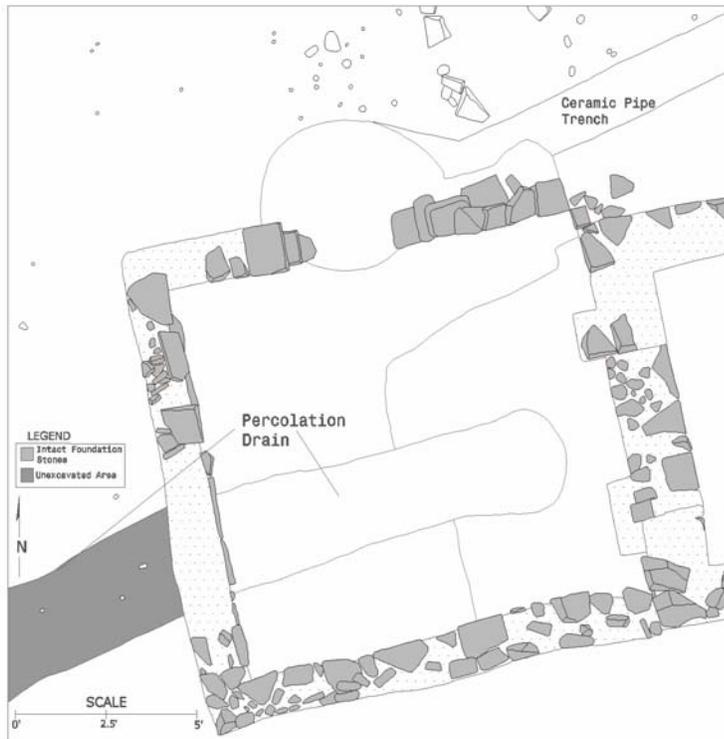


Figure 40. Drainage Trench Associated with Bulkhead Entrance.

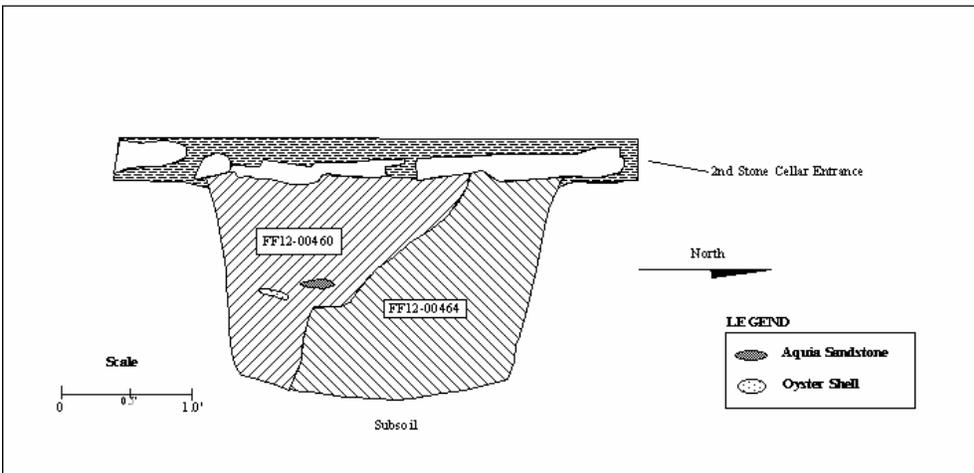


Figure 41. Profile of Drainage Trench.

diagnostic artifacts made it impossible to determine a TPQ date, but all of the artifact types are consistent with a 1700-1725 construction date.

Drain

Also predating the west cellar was a percolation drain associated with the landing of the bulkhead entrance (FF12-460 and 464). The bulkhead was a natural collection area for rainwater and in order to keep the east cellar dry, the structure's builders excavated, then later filled, a large trench that ran down the hill. The archaeological remains of this trench measured at least 16 ft. long and 2.5 ft. wide. The trench featured vertical walls and a flat bottom. The feature deepened slightly towards the west. The excavated portion contained a number of early ceramics with a TPQ of 1720. Large quantities of animal bone and wine bottle glass were also found.

Root Cellars

Two root cellars were excavated, one situated just north of the southern house wall foundation, the other in front of the hearth located in the northern portion of the main house. The root cellars do not appear to have co-existed, but rather the early, southern cellar was replaced by the construction of the northern root cellar.

Early Root Cellar

This root cellar, located east of the center wall abutting the south foundation of the structure, appeared to be associated with the original construction of the structure around 1727. It measured 5.0 ft. by 6.5 ft. and was 2.0 ft. deep. It was abandoned and filled during the first half of the eighteenth century after the house fire experienced by the Washington Family. The placement of this feature indicates that a fireplace was once situated on the south end of the structure. The cellar was later cut by a Civil War era trench.

The cellar was filled with ash containing fragments of unburned plaster (several of which mended to create a large sheet) in the top layers and smaller pieces of burned plaster and wood in the lower layers. In the subsoil floor of the root cellar are burned cobbles that are part of the subsoil matrix indicating that active fire took place within the pit while it was in use. The fill of this cellar is the by-product of a house fire and the subsequent cleanup. Documentary evidence in the form of two letters, one to Augustine Washington and one to George Washington, confirm that the house burned in 1740. Artifacts from the fill episodes indicate they were deposited during the first half of the eighteenth century.

Context No.	Description of Fill	TPQ	Important artifacts
FF12-388/408	Top layer- dark brown silty sand with bricks, mortar, plaster and Aquia sandstones	1720*	Plaster, large fragments of window glass, brick, nails
FF12-402	Lens containing large quantities of eggshell	NDA	Straight pins, eggshell, fish scales
FF12-403/413	Layer 2 – thin deposit of dark gray/brown sandy silt	1720*	Plaster, Aquia sandstone, window glass, nails, straight pins
FF12-414	Lens of dark brown ashy silt with charred wood situated in FF413	1720	Egg shell, plaster, straight pins, window glass, Aquia sandstone
FF12-419	Burn layer –white ash	NDA	Plaster, Aquia, bone, window glass
FF12-484	Dark gray ash layer	NDA	Plaster, window glass, egg shell, fish scales
FF12-485/284	Bottom ash layer	NDA*	Carnelian bead

* contaminated by small piece of unburned refined earthenware

Table 1. Major Layers of the Original Root Cellar

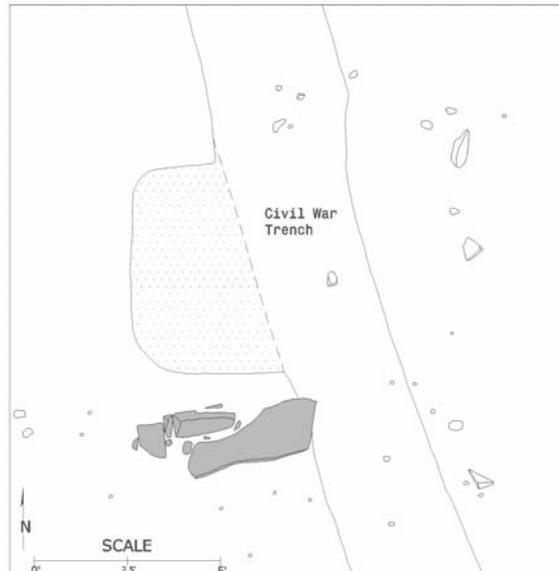


Figure 42. Plan View of Original Root Cellar.

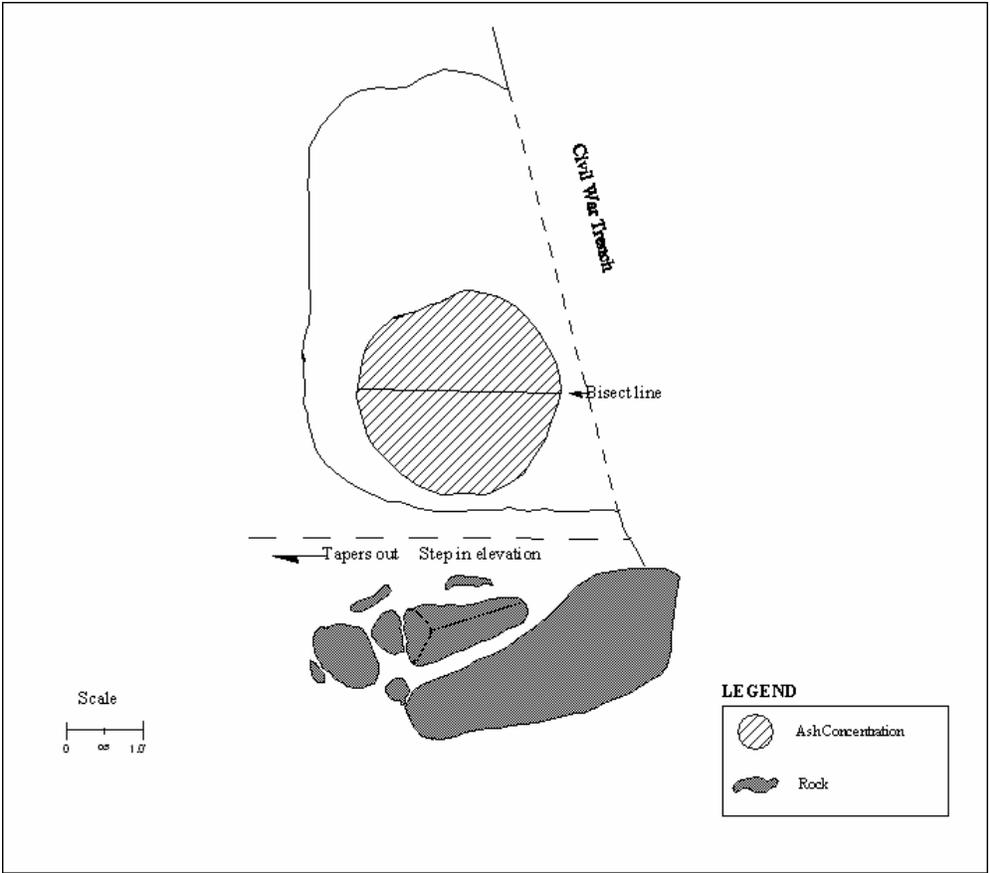


Figure 43. Plan View of Ash Concentration Situated at Bottom of Cellar.

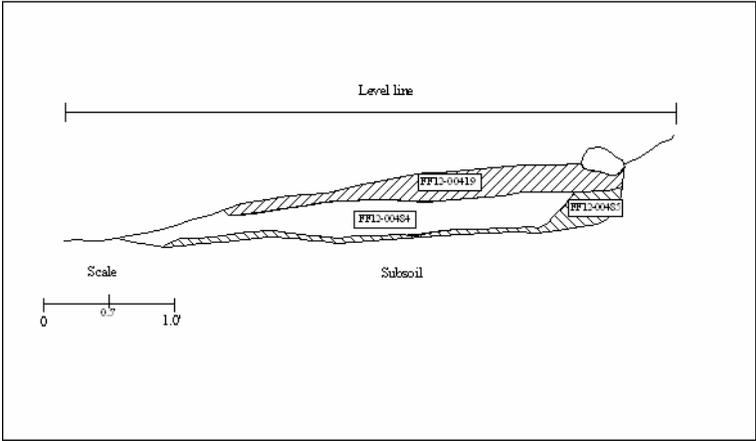


Figure 44. Profile View of Ash Concentration.



Figure 45. Original Root Cellar with Ash Concentration *in situ*.



Figure 46. Overall of Excavated Portion of Replacement Root Cellar.

Replacement Root Cellar

The large replacement root cellar located in front of the northern hearth measured 6.5 ft. square. It contained several fill layers all of which contained fireplace ash and small artifacts

normally associated with a fireplace. This feature extended into subsoil about 2 ft. and was filled fairly rapidly with the last fill episode dating to around 1770. The bottom layer formed while the cellar was in use.

Context no.	Description of fill	TPQ	Important Artifacts
FF10-211/223/256/298	Dark brown sandy silt fill with numerous inclusions	1762	Agate figurine sherd, sleeve links, animal bones, pipestems, beads, wig curlers, coins, straight pins, bottle and table glass, ceramics nails and plaster
FF10-219/279/281/310	Dark yellow- brown sand with some inclusions	1762	Ceramics, table and bottle glass, straight pins, plaster, wig curlers, beads, and animal bones
FF10-235/282/287/314	Dark yellow-brown sandy silt with decaying mortar	1720*	Early colonial ceramics, colonoware, animal bones, bottle and table glass.
FF10-252/288/319	Lens of dark soil sealing subsoil – created while feature was in use	NDA	Few artifacts, pins, beads, bones and fish scales

* A single piece of pearlware present – thought to be from rodent disturbance

Table 2. Major Layers of Replacement Root Cellar

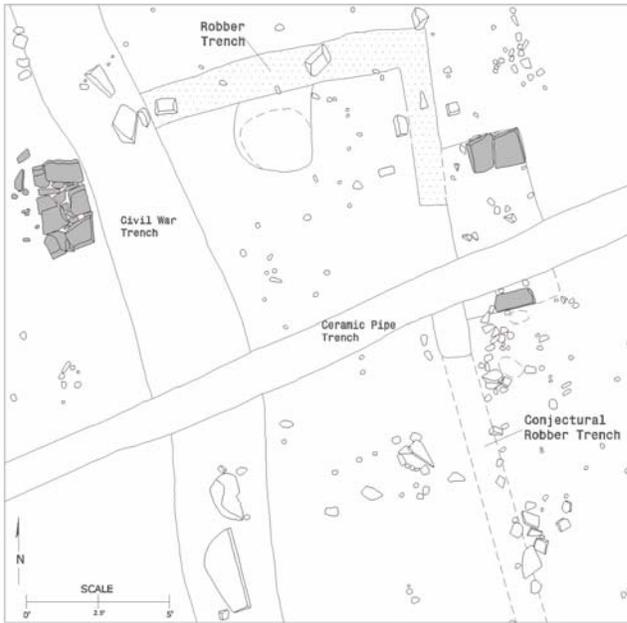
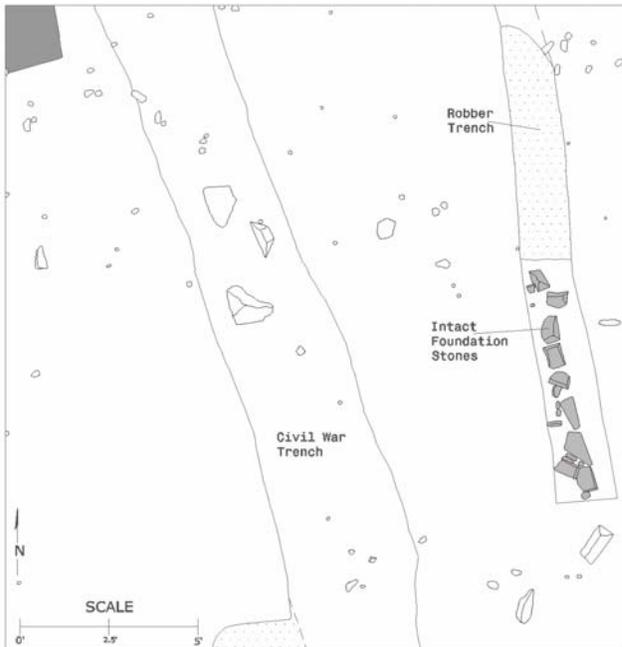


Figure 47. LEFT - Robber's Trench for North Portion of East Foundation Wall.

Figure 48. BELOW - Robber's Trench for South Portion of East Foundation Wall.



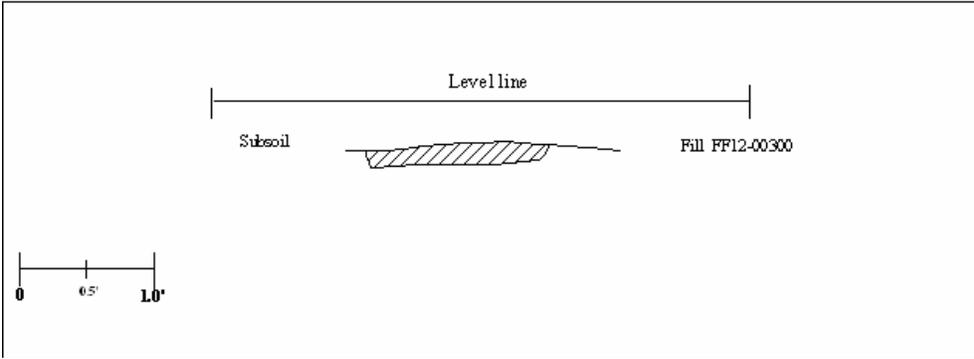


Figure 49. Profile of Robber's Trench.

Robber's Trench for the House's Foundation Walls

Between the sections of intact stone on the east and north sides of the house was the remains of a robber's trench. While the surviving portion of this feature was only 0.1 ft. in depth, its width was 1.5 ft. The trench featured slightly sloping sides with a flat bottom. Several sections of this feature excavated with the latest artifact in any of the sections being transfer-printed pearlware, which has a TPQ of 1783. The robber's trench was cut by a later feature that had a TPQ of 1842 suggesting the robbing of this foundation took place after 1783 but before 1842.

Root Cellar- Outbuilding

Situated just outside the north end of the house was a roughly square-shaped pit that measured 4.2 ft. by 3.8 ft. It featured straight sides and a flat bottom that intruded subsoil to a depth of 0.4 ft. The feature contained a single fill layer (FF12-325) made up of dark brown sandy silt with brick fragments

and oyster shells. The pit contains large quantities of Aquia sandstone, mortar, and plaster fragments. The mortar was used to hold together stone and the plaster covered both stones and wood lathing. The Aquia was limited to small pieces similar to those that backed the blocks that were used to face the stone foundations of the cellars. The TPQ for the pit is c.1830 and contains the same ceramic types in association with features from the post Washington period. The large quantity and type of finds suggests that this was domestic space.

The straight walls and the absence of silt lenses in the bottom of this pit suggest it was covered. That the only surviving structural element is a root cellar suggests this may have been affiliated with a slave quarter. Its late filling suggests perhaps it was a structure that was constructed early in the nineteenth century and stood at least until 1830.



Figure 50. Plan View of Possible Root Cellar.

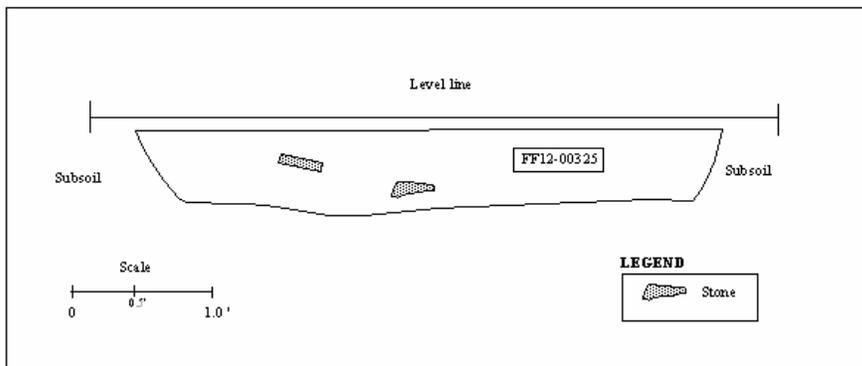


Figure 51. Profile View of Possible Root Cellar.

Interpretation

The immediate research goal for the summer of 2007 was very straightforward – ascertain the function, construction date, and destruction date of this structure. The size, architectural artifacts leave little doubt that this is a plantation house. Its construction and destruction dates are also fairly easy to determine. Evidence from artifacts suggests the house was built after 1720. This deduction comes from the surviving portions of the bulkhead entrance and the drainage trench. The most likely candidate for this construction was William Strother who purchased the property in the late 1720s.

The distribution patterns of early eighteenth-century ceramics, particularly Astbury and white salt-glazed stoneware suggest that the house he built was L-shaped, with three front rooms (hall, passage, and parlor) facing the river and a single room shed addition in the back or southeast corner (back room). Astbury, a ceramic used to make teawares, was first introduced around 1725. White-salt glazed stoneware, introduced around 1720, was commonly used in the manufacture of plates and mugs. Both of these ceramics are relatively absent from the area containing the northeast room, identified in Augustine Washington's probate inventory as the "back room" and plentiful in the southeast room or "hall back room".

The unusual placement of the chimney for the new room (hall back room) supports this interpretation. If the building was originally executed as a rectangle this chimney should have been placed on the gable end. Strother's 1738 probate inventory contains an incomplete list of rooms but does mention a hall, a hall back room, and a passage. The mention of the hall back room in the Strother inventory indicates that the shed addition was in place by the time of his death.

One new ceramic tableware (Wieldon ware) and a technological innovation for an existing plate (molded rims for white salt-glaze plates) were introduced in 1740 after the Washington's took possession of the farm. Both Wieldon wares and molded white salt glaze ceramics cluster slightly differently than earlier ceramics. The biggest concentrations shift to the east, suggesting the two rooms on the east side of the house (back hall and the back room) were present by the 1740s. Documentary evidence in the form of Augustine Washington's probate inventory support the notion that the structure was rectangle-shaped by 1743.

The examination of two ceramics that date to the second half of the eighteenth century show a different distribution pattern. Creamware and pearlware are the most common ceramics of the third quarter of the eighteenth century. Used predominately

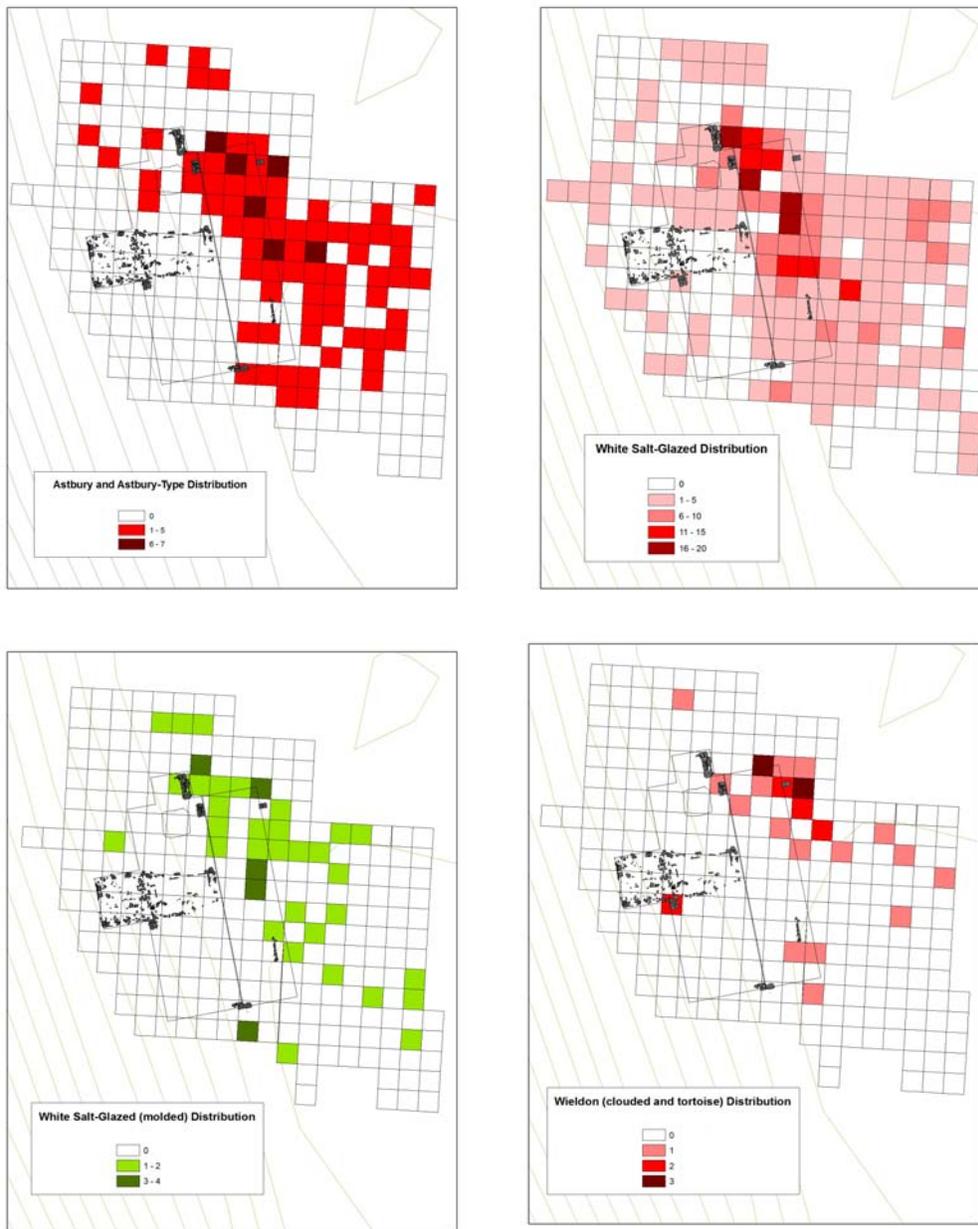


Figure 52. Distribution Maps of Early Eighteenth-Century Ceramics.

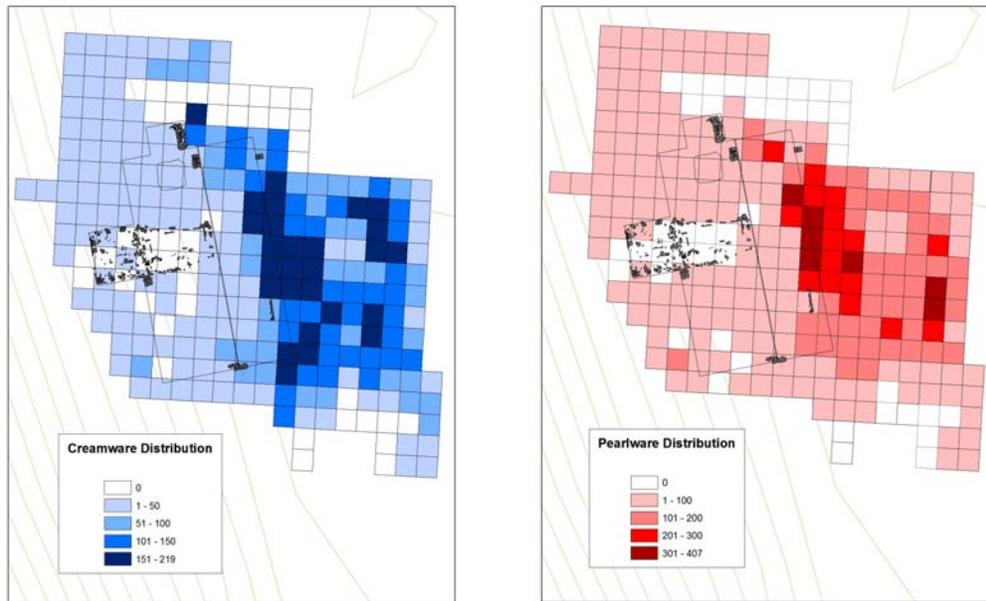


Figure 53. Distribution of Late Eighteenth-Century Ceramics.

as tablewares, these ceramics cluster outside the back rooms in the center of the structure. This distribution indicates a new doorway was established in the center of the back of the house as part of the expansion of the house.

Strother's death in 1733 forced the eventual transfer of the property. Augustine Washington moved his family to Ferry Farm in 1738. The 1740 fire appears to have been the catalyst for renovation. Evidence of the fire is limited to the early southern root cellar indicating that while the blaze caused some damage, it did not destroy the house. The fragments of unburned plaster in the root cellar demonstrate repair not demolition.

The early root cellar was abandoned shortly after the fire. While it is difficult to ascertain the

replacement, northern cellar's construction date, the need for a functioning root cellar means it was probably installed during the renovations after the fire. No evidence of house fire was found within the replacement root cellar. It was filled around the time Mary Washington left the property.

The demise of the house appears to occur in stages. The room containing the west cellar collapsed causing the abandonment of both stone-lined cellars. The same fill sequence appears in both cellars indicating they were abandoned at the same time. A newspaper ad mentions a dilapidated dwelling on the property in 1829. While the ad does not specifically mention that this is the Washington house, it is a distinct possibility. By 1833, John Gadsby

Chapman paints the Washington house as a stone ruin.

Other Features

Eighteenth/Nineteenth Century Midden

Excavators identified a large midden on the east side of the house. This artifact concentration was largely contained within the plowzone. While some of these artifacts were generated by the nineteenth-century household, the vast majority are associated with the Washington house.

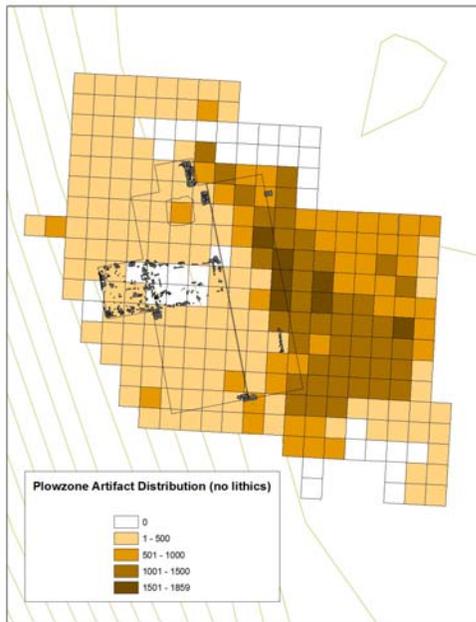


Figure 54. Distribution of all Artifacts (except lithics) Found in Plowed Soils.

Erosion Gully –FF10-294

An irregularly shaped trench situated near the northwest corner of the house. It is oriented east/west in relation to the house. This linear feature measured over 21 ft. long, 2.2 to 2.9-ft. wide, and 0.5 to 0.8 ft. deep. It was filled with dark

brown sandy silt and contained large numbers of eighteenth- and nineteenth-century artifacts. Also present were Aquia sandstone chips, whitewashed plaster, and water-worn pebbles. Both sand-tempered mortar and ceramics suggest a nineteenth century filling episode. The west end of this gully ran out of the excavation area towards the river. This irregular trench is probably an erosion gully that was created by water sheeting off the roof of the house.

Civil War Trench

By the time Union soldiers arrived at Ferry Farm in spring of 1862, there was probably little evidence that a house once stood on the edge of the terrace overlooking the Rappahannock River. Upon their return in November of 1862, Union soldiers destroyed structures associated with the Bray farmstead prior to the Battle of Fredericksburg, December 11-13, 1862 or shortly thereafter. The Union Army dug a defensive ditch along the ridge overlooking the river. This trench cut directly through the remains of the Washington house.

In 2007, 10 five-foot sections of trench were excavated. The sections selected were situated within the footprint of the Washington house. The trench ran roughly parallel to the edge of the terrace and the river. At the bottom of the plowzone, where the Civil War trench feature first appeared it measured roughly 3.5 ft. in width. The trench narrowed as it gets deeper and ends with a roughly 1.0 ft. wide channel at the bottom. The trench intruded subsoil to a depth of 2.2 ft.

Excavators identified between three and seven layers filling the trench. The fill layers were made up of mostly dark yellow brown sandy silts. Aquia

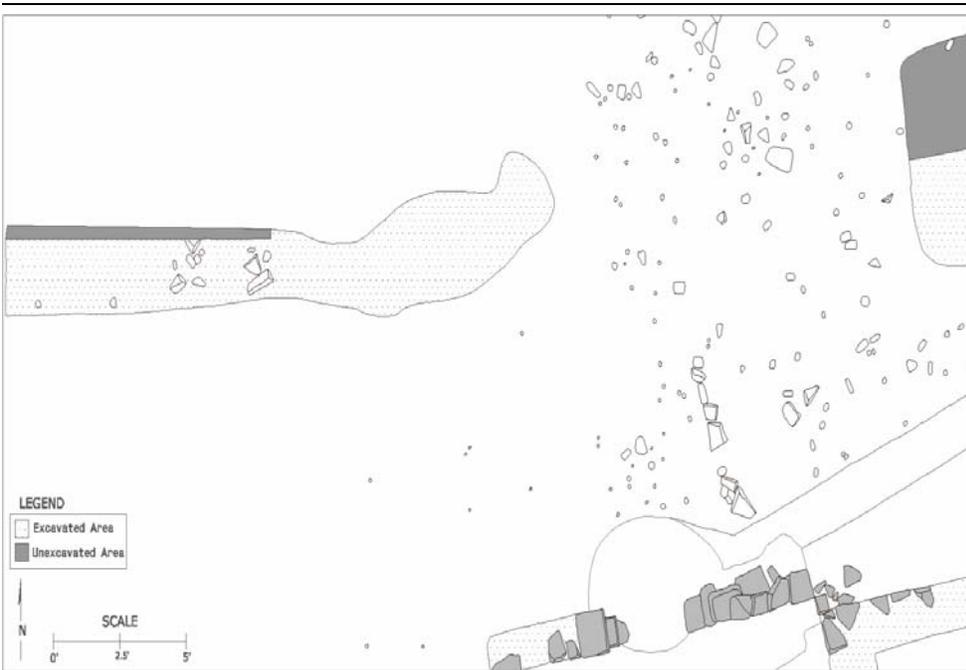


Figure 55. Plan view of Erosion Gully situated Northwest of the House.



Figure 56. Profile Section of Civil War Trench.



Figure 57. Plan View of Civil War Trench in Relationship with the Washington House.

sandstone, mortar, plaster, and brick fragments were common in all sections of the trench. Excavators recovered artifacts that post-dated the Civil War.

At the southernmost end of the excavation, a smaller trench connected the fortification trench with the Bray cellar. This 2.0 ft. wide trench contained the same yellow brown sandy silt fill as the main fortification trench. The connecting trench featured slightly sloping sides and a flat bottom. Both trenches appear to have been open at the same time and filled simultaneously. This trench allowed soldiers to move from the protection of the ruins of the Bray house cellar to the defensive ditch without exposing themselves to Confederate gunfire from Fredericksburg.

Maurice Clark Period Quarry Pit

Situated inside the north end of the house was a large circular pit that was cut by the east stone-lined cellar on the south end and by the replacement root cellar on the north end. The fill of the pit is very similar to subsoil making determining its exact dimensions difficult, but it measured 10 ft. by 15 ft. Field personnel divided the pit roughly into quarters and excavated the northeast quadrant. The section excavated measured 6.8 ft. square. This pit featured gradual sloping sides and a relatively flat bottom that pitched toward the river.

Excavators identified three distinct fill episodes in the pit. The top layer (FF12-472) was a strong brown

clay sand with mottling of yellowish brown clay silty sand. The sand is compacted and contains a great deal of gravel. Small chips of Aquia sandstone were also evident in the fill. The layer measured 0.3-ft. deep and no temporally diagnostic artifacts were recovered.

Under the top layer was a strong brown coarse sand (FF12-476) with only occasional water worn pebbles. The layer ranged in thickness from 0.2 ft. to 1.1 ft., with the south end of the feature containing the thickest portion of this fill. Again, excavators recovered only a small quantity of small chips of Aquia sandstone and a small collection of artifacts including fragments of a coarse earthenware. No temporally diagnostic artifacts were recovered.

The next layer was a dark yellow brown silty sand with occasional cobbles and few Aquia sandstone chips. The layer ranged in thickness from 0.25 ft to 0.45 ft. No datable artifacts were found in this layer.

This pit appears to be a quarry pit associated with the Maurice Clark occupation of Ferry Farm. Clark would have dug for clay for his wattle and daub chimney. The filled pit was cut by two elements of the Washington house demonstrating that the pit was dug and filled before the house was constructed in the late 1720s. The lack of artifacts in any of the fills other than small chips of Aquia sandstone indicates that the pit was constructed early in the historic occupation of the site but not near any activity areas associated with the first English inhabitants of the site.

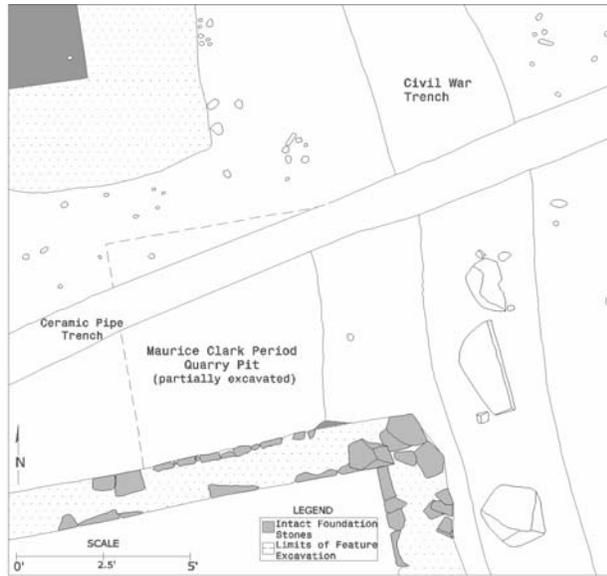


Figure 58. Plan View of Section of Quarry Pit that Predates the Washington House.

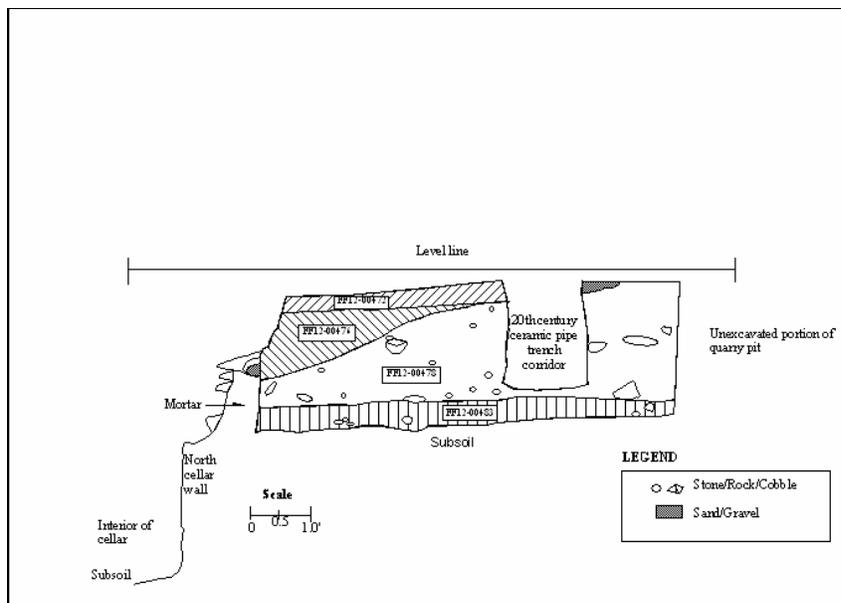


Figure 59. West Wall of Clark Period Quarry Pit in Relationship to the Washington Cellar.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

The main purpose of the excavation in this area was to explore and understand the remnants of the structure first identified in 2005. As part of this exploration, the archaeology team sought to assign dates to its construction, any subsequent building repairs or renovations, and its destruction. Lastly, the excavation sought to recover artifacts from within and around the structure that belonged to its occupants. These artifacts help conclusively identify this structure as belonging to the Washington Family.

The surviving elements of the house include sections of stone foundation, two unlined root cellars, three stone chimney bases, and two stone-lined cellars. Evidence that the stone foundation was recycled includes a trench situated where the foundations had once existed and large amounts of debris tossed into the stone-lined cellars. Indirect evidence of what the house looked like was found in both stone-lined cellars and in the backfill of the Civil War fortification trench. Direct evidence of two chimneys was identified along with indirect evidence of a third. The bottom course of foundation wall was dry laid except for the two chimneys which featured shell-based mortar.

The initial incarnation of the structure appears to have been an L-shaped dwelling and includes the hall, passage, parlor, and back room on the first floor. The next major construction phase witnesses the addition of the hall back room. Artifact distributions and

the odd placement of the hall back room's chimney suggests it was added after the rest of the house was in use. The construction of this addition appears to have taken place before William Strother's will was executed as it listed the hall back room. Phase III was caused by the fire of Christmas Eve, 1740. Evidence indicates the fire was limited to the south gable end of the house. The root cellar in the back room was abandoned and filled at the time of the fire and presumably the construction of the new root cellar in front of the north fireplace takes place during this time period. This phase is clearly associated with the Washington occupancy. Phase IV witnesses the destruction of the bulkhead entrance on the west side or front of the house and the installation of a first floor room with a full cellar on the riverside of the house. This addition is hard to date, but a repair of a cellar foundation wall dates to post 1775 suggesting the original construction may also date to the Washington Family occupancy. The final phase is created by the abandonment of both stone-lined cellars after the phase IV addition experiences a foundation wall collapse. This abandonment clearly post-dates 1775, given the introduction of the piece of pearlware found in the foundation wall repair. Other artifacts found in the abandonment fill layers suggest it took place sometime between 1775 and the 1790s. The house is a ruin by 1833.

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