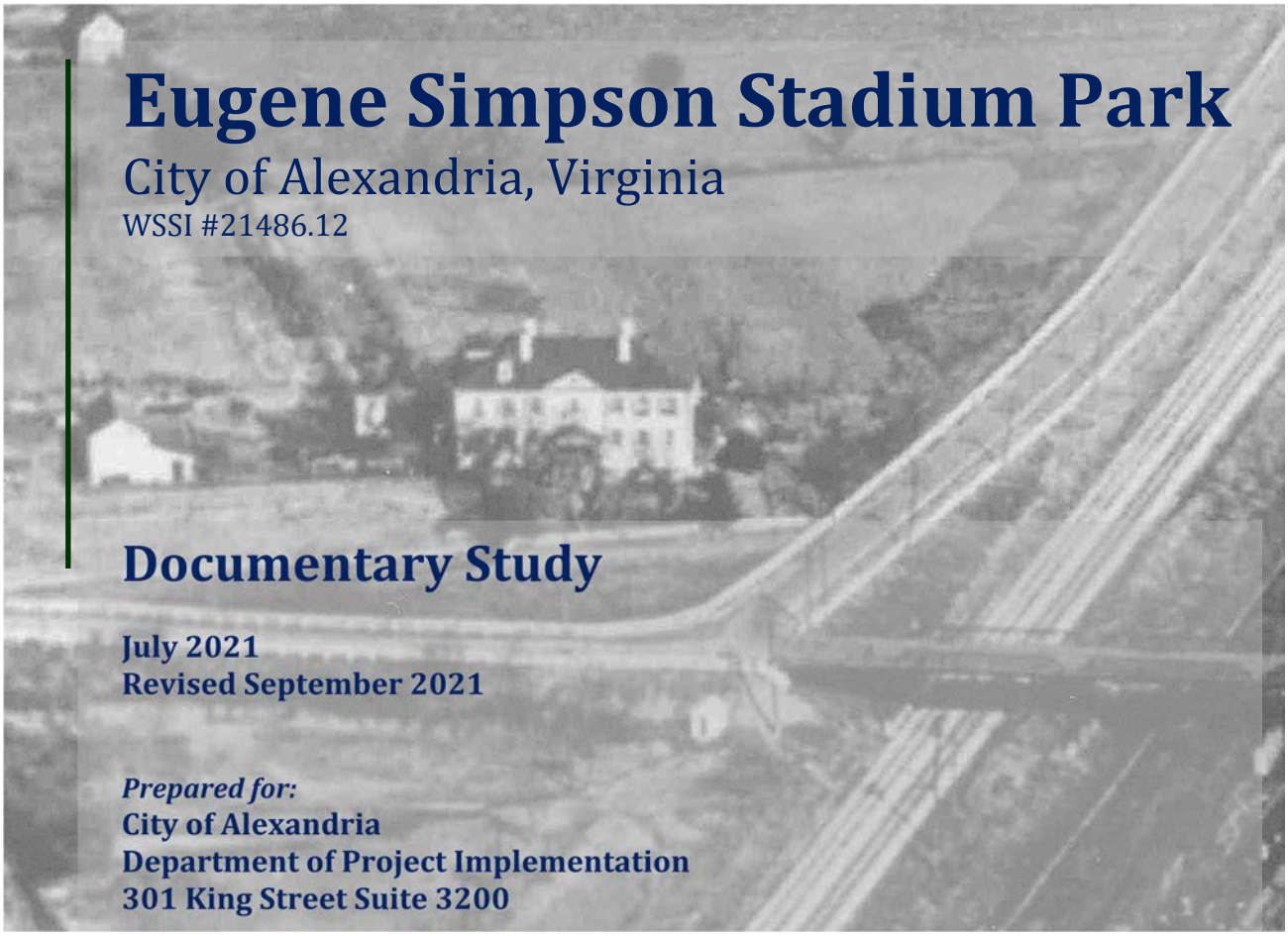

Eugene Simpson Stadium Park

City of Alexandria, Virginia

WSSI #21486.12

Documentary Study

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Prepared for:
City of Alexandria
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301 King Street Suite 3200

Prepared by:
Kathleen Jockel Schneider, M.A.A./M.H.P.
John P. Mullen, M.A., RPA, and David Carroll, M.A., RPA

Thunderbird Archeology
A Division of Wetland Studies and Solutions, Inc.®
a DAVEY company

5300 Wellington Branch Drive, Suite 100
Gainesville, Virginia 20155
Tel: 703-679-5600 Email: contactus@wetlandstudies.com
www.wetlandstudies.com

ABSTRACT

For nearly seventy years, the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park has been home to Alexandria Little League games, beginning with the Opening Night of the "Little Simpson" ballfield in June 1953. Athletes from Alexandria City High School, the Congressional softball league, and even the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League (in 1951) have used the diamonds for practice games, but the park evolved to also include soccer fields, a dog park, basketball and tennis courts, a playground and even a formal garden. The need for renovations and upgrades to the park, as expressed by the community in the 2014 Citywide Parks Improvement Plan, prompted the City of Alexandria to require a Documentary Study and Archaeological Assessment prior to any ground disturbance.

From the late 17th century up through the end of the 19th century, the land surrounding the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park primarily remained agricultural with only a few scattered residential lots. Transportation improvements, beginning with the construction of the Alexandria Turnpike in 1809 and culminating with the completion in 1906 of Potomac Yard, one of the largest rail classification yards in the nation, transformed the landscape of this area and spurred residential development and population growth. In 1894, two planned residential subdivisions, Del Ray and St. Elmo, were established west of the Alexandria turnpike, inaugurating the area's transition to a suburban landscape. At that time, the land containing Simpson Park was located south of Del Ray, at the intersection of the Alexandria Turnpike (U.S. Route 1) with Monroe Avenue (Poor House Lane) and contained St. Asaph's Junction Railroad Station in the northeast and the Poor House in the south. The City of Alexandria acquired the land in the 1940s and as the Simpson Park grew, the railroad station and the main Poor House building were eventually demolished.

The entire property has a moderate to high probability for containing historic archeological resources, however the potential for locating these resources has been lessened by the continued use and improvements to the property in the latter half of the 20th century. Archeological signatures may include evidence of agricultural plowing and possibly artifact field scatter from the earlier agricultural use of the property or casual discard from the side of the historic turnpike. The foundations of the Alms House and possibly of the two outbuildings may have survived demolition; the remains would be located in the current dog park section of the study area. Evidence of the realignment of the Washington and Alexandria Turnpike (historically River Road/ Jefferson Davis Highway, now Richmond Highway U.S. Route 1) and Washington Avenue (historically Poor House Lane, now Monroe Avenue), which shifted west to accommodate Potomac Yard, should be present. Finally, several rowhouses were constructed in the later 1950s between Duncan Avenue and Route 1; evidence of these dwellings may still be present, but not likely significant.

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INTRODUCTION

Thunderbird Archeology, a division of Wetland Studies and Solutions Inc. (WSSI) of Gainesville, Virginia conducted a Documentary Study and Archeological Assessment on the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park (Simpson Park), which is located northwest of the intersection of U.S. Route 1 and East Monroe Avenue, within the City of Alexandria, Virginia (Figure 1). This ±15-acre park in the Del Ray neighborhood is bounded by East Duncan and East Bellefonte avenues, U.S. Route 1, and East Monroe Avenue, and is home to ballfields, soccer fields, a basketball court, playground, dog park, walking trails, and open green space (Figure 2).

The City of Alexandria has proposed upgrades and renovations to Simpson Park, and pursuant to the City of Alexandria Archaeological Protection Code, required this study. The goal of the documentary research, to the extent possible, is to provide the land-use history of the property, develop a historic context for the interpretation of the project site, and highlight the historical and archeological significance of the property. In addition to the narrative, the City required the development of maps showing the location of previous construction and disturbance impacts within the park, the location of potential archeological resources, and a Public Summary of the research efforts.

Kathleen Jockel Schneider, M.A.A., M.H.P. co-authored the report with Principal Investigator, John P. Mullen, M.A., RPA. Ms. Schneider also conducted the archival research, with the assistance of Rebekah Yousaf, MSHP. David Washington and Elizabeth Anne Baldwin prepared the figures. Archival research was conducted at the Alexandria Circuit Courthouse, Arlington Courthouse, the Local History/Special Collections room at the Barrett Branch of the Alexandria Library and from various online resources.

HISTORIC CONTEXT

Settlement to Society (1607-1750)

The Potomac River was the main transportation artery in colonial northern Virginia, both for Native Americans and for early European explorers, traders, and colonists. The river played a key role in the development of the study area in the 17th and early-18th centuries. The waterway was the focal point for trade – especially the fur trade – between Europeans and Native Americans in the first half of the 17th century. In the second half of the 17th century, European colonists began to take the land along this portion of the Potomac to establish tobacco plantations. Tobacco was Virginia's staple crop throughout the colonial era, and the soil along the Potomac River and its tributaries was well-suited for growing the crop. Proximity to the river made it easier to transport tobacco to overseas markets or to inspection warehouses. The establishment of tobacco plantations along the Potomac River also led to the arrival of enslaved Africans and African Americans.

European colonization of the Chesapeake Bay region began in the first decade of the 1600s. In 1606, King James I of England granted to Sir Thomas Gates and others of The Virginia

Figure 1: Vicinity Map

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Figure 2: March 2021 Natural Color Imagery

Company of London the right to establish two colonies or plantations in the Chesapeake Bay region of North America in order to search "…for all manner of mines of gold, silver, and copper"(Hening 1823b:57-75) King James outlined the boundaries of The Virginia Company's colonies:

> that part of America called Virginia, from the point of land, called Cape or Point Comfort, all along the sea coast, to the northward two hundred miles, and from the said point of Cape Comfort, all along the sea coast to the southward two hundred miles, and all that space and circuit of land, lying from the sea coast of the precinct aforesaid, up into the land, throughout from sea to sea, west and northwest; and also all the islands, lying within one hundred miles, along the coast of both seas [1609 re-affirmation of original charter] (Hening 1823b:88).

In the spring of 1607, three English ships – the Susan Constant, the Godspeed, and the Discovery, under the command of Captains Christopher Newport, Bartholomew Gosnole, and John Smith – anchored at Cape Henry in the lower Chesapeake Bay. After a hostile reception from native inhabitants, exploring parties were sent out to sail north of Cape Henry. Following explorations in the lower Chesapeake, the colonists selected an island 60 miles up the James River for settlement (Kelso 1995:6-7) and began building a palisaded fort later called Jamestown.

In 1608, Captain Smith surveyed and mapped the Potomac River, locating the various native villages on both sides of the waterway. Captain Smith's Map of Virginia provides the first recorded names of the numerous native villages along both sides of the Potomac. The extensive village network along the river was described as the "trading place of the natives" (Gutheim 1986:22, 23, 28). After 1620, Indian trade with the lower Coastal Plain English became increasingly intense. Either in response to the increased trade, or to earlier intra-Native American hostilities, formerly disparate aboriginal groups formed confederations.

A number of early English entrepreneurs traded for provisions and furs along the Potomac River in the early 1600s. In 1625, Henry Fleet, among the better known of the early Potomac River traders, plied the Potomac River as far north as the Falls, as well as with English colonies in New England, settlements in the West Indies, and across the Atlantic to London (Gutheim 1986: 28, 29Trade in furs became an important economic activity. European goods such as iron axes, kettles, guns, bottles, beads, trinkets, clothing, and blankets were viewed favorably by the Native populations. The Native Americans wanted the trade goods supplied by the Europeans and the Europeans wanted furs. Much of this trade was likely limited to the forts and other trading posts located at the Fall Lines on major streams.

By 1621, the number of fur trappers had increased to the point that their fur trade activities required regulation. In 1631, the Virginia colonial government prohibited all trade with

Indians (Hening 1823b:173). In the 1640s, the Virginia colonial government reversed its position and permitted limited trade with the Native Americans; however, the government strictly regulated trade and directed it through several forts at the Fall Line on the Pamunkey River, James River and Chickahominy River and only designated Indian messengers bearing badges or wearing special striped shirts were allowed to enter colonial territory (Hening 1823b:293; Moretti-Langholtz 2005). The fur trade in northern Virginia was plagued by various economic and political difficulties, and it is often noted that superior furs were available from the north and from the North Carolina frontier (Moretti-Langholtz 2005; Potter 1993:188-192).

As a result of trade with Europeans in the early 17th century, the balance of power among Native American groups in the area shifted. Early accounts note that the Susquehannock, an Iroquoian speaking group, moved down the main stem of the Susquehanna from present-day Binghamton, New York, to the mouth of that river at Havre de Grace, Maryland, in order to control the fur trade. Locally, in the Baltimore-Washington region, the Susquehannocks became the most powerful group, at least in the north.

To the south in the Tidewater vicinity, the Powhatan Confederacy increased from the inherited group of approximately five villages to upwards of 50. Captain John Smith informs us in his writings that Powhatan had inherited a group of five "tribes" or villages from his father and by the time of Smith's visit, Powhatan's position as ruler or "king" already existed. In the decades following European settlement, the Confederacy dominated the area and formed a coercive kingdom that was much more powerful than the loose alliances of chiefdoms of Piscataways, Dogues and others in Northern Virginia. The Dogues (Tauxenents) were not considered part of "Powhatan's ethnic fringe" and were likely more influenced by the Conoy chiefdom (Potter 1993:19).

Although the European fur trade and settlement in the lower Chesapeake changed the political and cultural landscape for Native Americans along the Potomac River, English encroachment farther along the shores of the Potomac was ultimately more influential. Two important elements in the disruption of the pre-Contact cultural landscape were the introduction of diseases and the mindset of the English regarding settlement, colonization, and land ownership. The introduction of European diseases that were alien to the indigenous populations led to mass mortality which, in turn, disrupted the Indians' social, religious and political systems. The extent of this disruption was noted by Hodges, who explains that circa 1607, the Algonquian population within the Coastal Plain consisted of a minimum of 13,000-22,000 persons. In the early 17th century, John Smith counted approximately 27 groups including the Pamunkey, Chickahominy and Wococomoc with 300, 200-250 and 130 able fighting men, respectively; a century later, Beverley counted only 12 groups with 40, 16, and three able fighting men, respectively (Hodges 1993:28-29). English concepts of land ownership were alien to the Native Americans and led ultimately to the confiscation of property and the confinement of the native inhabitants to reservations.

In contrast to the Tidewater region in which the Powhatan Confederacy and the colonists engaged in active conflict, the interaction between the colonists and the Native American groups within the Potomac region are generally thought to be more peaceful (Hodges 1993:14). Nevertheless, one result of European settlement in the Potomac region was the death or emigration of the native inhabitants. By 1675, the Piscataway had left the region, only to return and once again leave circa 1700. The Piscataway and other Native American groups effectively disappeared from the historic record by 1700, although some groups did remain in the area and have evolved into a rather large local population (Cissna 1986). Many Piscataway descendants still live on the Maryland side of the Potomac River.

The first Virginia Assembly, convened by Sir (Governor) George Yeardley at James City in June of 1619, increased the number of corporations or boroughs in the colony from seven to eleven. In 1623, the first laws were enacted by the Virginia Assembly establishing the Church of England in the colony. These regulated the colonial settlements in relationship to Church rule, established land rights, provided some directions on tobacco and corn planting, and included other miscellaneous items such as the provision "…That every dwelling house shall be pallizaded in for defence against the Indians" (Hening 1823a:119-129).

The study area vicinity was incorporated into the English political system in 1617 as part of the Chicacoan (or Kikotan) parish or district. One of four parishes established in the Virginia colony that year, Chicacoan encompassed the land between the Rappahannock and Potomac rivers and later became known as the Northern Neck; the other three parishes – James City, Charles City, and Henrico – were located south of the Rappahannock. In 1645, Northumberland County, located on the north side of the Rappahannock River, was established "…for the reduceing of the inhabitants of Chickcouan [district] and other parts of the neck of land between Rappahanock River and Potomack River", thus enabling European settlement north of the Rappahannock River and Northern Virginia (Hening 1823b:352-353). As the population increased, boundaries shifted, and new counties and cities were formed, named, and renamed. As such the study area was located in the following localities: Northumberland County (1645-1650), Westmoreland County (1650-1660), Stafford County (1660-1730), Prince William County (1730-1742), Fairfax County (1742-1801), Alexandria County of the District of Columbia (1801-1847), Alexandria County, Virginia (1847-1920), Arlington County (1920-1930), and the City of Alexandria (1930-Present).

The original Northumberland County overlapped with a large proprietary land grant issued by Prince Charles, who later became King Charles II. In January 1648/9, Prince Charles II's father, King Charles I, was beheaded during the mid-17th-century Civil Wars in England. Prince Charles II was exiled to France, where seven loyal supporters, including two Culpeper brothers, crowned him King of England. In September 1649, King Charles granted the Northern Neck, or all that land lying between the Rappahannock and Potomac Rivers in the Virginia colony, to these loyal followers as a reward for their support; the grant was to expire in 1690. King Charles II was subsequently restored to the English throne in 1660, making the grant a legal reality.

In 1677, Thomas, Second Lord Culpeper, one of the seven Northern Neck proprietors, became successor to Governor Berkley in Virginia. By 1681, he had purchased the Northern Neck interests of the other six proprietors. The Northern Neck grant was due to expire in 1690, but in 1688, it was reaffirmed to Lord Culpeper in perpetuity. Lord Culpeper died in 1689. The following year, four-fifths of the Northern Neck interest passed to his daughter, Katherine Culpeper, who married Thomas, the fifth Lord Fairfax. The Northern Neck became vested and was affirmed to Thomas, Lord Fairfax, in 1692 (Kilmer and Sweig 1975:5-9). In 1702, Lord Fairfax appointed an agent, Robert Carter of Lancaster County, Virginia, to rent the Northern Neck lands for nominal quit rents, usually two shillings sterling per acre (Hening 1820:514-523; Kilmer and Sweig 1975:1-2, 7, 9). The extent and boundaries of the Northern Neck were not established until two separate surveys were conducted beginning in 1736. A final agreement was reached between 1745 and 1747 (Kilmer and Sweig 1975:13-14).

Prior to 1692, most lands in the Virginia Colony were granted by the Governor of the colony and were issued as Virginia Land Grants. In 1618, a provision of 100 acres of land had been made for “Ancient Planters”, or those adventurers and planters who had established themselves as permanent settlers prior to 1618. Thereafter, the governor of the colony issued grants under the headright system by which people who paid their own way to the Virginia Colony could claim 50 acres of land for a tenure of 20 years. Fifty additional acres of land per “head” could also be obtained by paying the cost of passage for transporting settlers into the colony. After patenting and surveying a tract of land, a patentee was required to settle the land within three years and to pay an annual rent of one shilling for every 50 acres of land patented (Nugent 1983:xxiv).

In 1611, John Rolfe began experimenting with the planting of "sweet scented" tobacco at his Bermuda Hundred plantation, located at the confluence of the James and Appomattox Rivers. Rolfe's experiments with tobacco altered the economic future of the Virginia colony by establishing tobacco as the primary crop of the colony (Lutz 1954:27; O'Dell 1983:1). Landed Virginia estates, bound to the tobacco economy, became independent, self-sufficient plantations, and few substantial towns were established in colonial Virginia. Moving upriver from the Coastal Plains, European colonists began to acquire the land along the Potomac to establish tobacco plantations. The first permanent European settlement in the vicinity of present-day Alexandria occurred in 1696, and by 1715, much of the future city and its environs was under cultivation. The soil was well-suited for growing the crop, and the river made it easy to export to overseas markets.

During this period, tobacco was used as a stable medium of exchange, as there was a constant shortage of cash in the colonies. Promissory notes, used as money, were issued for the quantity and quality of tobacco received (Bradshaw 1955:80-81). In 1669, for example, John Alexander (I) purchased Howson’s patent not with currency but with six hogsheads of tobacco. To “prevent frauds in his Majesties Customs” in the staple tobacco trade, in 1730 the Virginia Assembly established public warehouses for the inspecting and grading of tobacco to centralize and regulate the trade. Ultimately, in 1739 a tobacco

warehouse was established on land at West's Point on the Potomac at what would soon after become the northern end of the city of Alexandria.

The growth of the labor-intensive tobacco horticulture necessitated large numbers of field workers and a reliable source for such labor. Indentured servants from England made up much of the early work force in Virginia's tobacco fields, as economic distress in England fueled emigration during this period. When economic conditions in England improved, new sources of labor were sought. Indentured servants from Ireland and Scotland and convicted criminals were increasingly relied upon, as well as an increasing number of enslaved Africans. At first, transported Africans served under similar terms as European indentures, but by the end of the 17th century, slavery as a race-based hereditary status had become entrenched in the economic and cultural fabric of the colony (Virginia Department of Historic Resources 2003:45).

Throughout the 18th century, three-quarters of the Africans whose point of origin were known and who were brought to the upper Chesapeake region and to the Lower James originated from the upper part of the West African coast. With improving tobacco prices, plantation size increased, and the local population increased rapidly as newly arrived enslaved people were dispersed along small, scattered quarters. Virginia planters on the Potomac evaded the higher duties that Virginia assessed on enslaved people by purchasing them in Maryland (Walsh 2001:145-149).

Colony to Nation (1751-1789)

The town of Alexandria began as a tobacco trading post on land belonging to John Alexander and Hugh West on the upper side of Great Hunting Creek. Located on what is now Oronoco Street and known as Hugh West's Hunting Creek Warehouse, this area included a tobacco inspection station as well as tobacco warehouses (Smith and Miller 1989:14). The warehouses were built by three Scottish *factors*, middlemen between the farmers and the merchants, for the purpose of holding tobacco prior to shipment to England. As central points in the tobacco trade, they were where the ships docked and deals were struck (Harrison 1987:405). Because of the presence of the tobacco warehouses and inspection station, in the 1730s and 1740s, the area was already a focal point for commerce, making it a good location for a town. The act establishing the town at "Hunting Creek Warehouse" on 60 acres of land owned by Phillip Alexander, Jr., John Alexander and Hugh West was passed on May 11, 1749 to the benefit trade, navigation, and the "frontier inhabitants."

The 60 acres of land were directed to be laid out by the surveyor to the first branch above the warehouses and extend down the meanders of the Potomac to Middle Point (Jones Point). The proceeds of the lot sales were to be paid to Philip Alexander, John Alexander and Hugh West. The streets were laid in a grid pattern which was subdivided into blocks with four half-acre lots to a block (Cressey et al. 1982:150). Purchasers of each lot were required to erect one house of brick, stone, or wood, "well framed," with a brick or stone

chimney, in the dimensions of 20 feet square, “or proportionably thereto” if the purchaser had two contiguous lots (Winfree 1971:443-446).

In 1754, the Fairfax County courthouse was moved to Alexandria from its location near the current town of Vienna. In the 1750s, Alexandria contained the courthouse, a jail, six taverns or ordinaries, a kiln, and small houses as well as the more substantial ones of wealthier landowners (Crowl 2002:43). The town grew quickly, and in 1762, it was reported to the Virginia Assembly that the bounds of the town of Alexandria established at the Hunting Creek Warehouse had:

> already built upon except such of them as are situated in a low wet marsh which will not admit of such improvements, and that diverse traders and others are desirous of settling there if a sufficient quantity of the lands of Baldwin Dade, Sibel West, John Alexander the elder and John Alexander the younger, which lie contiguous to the said town, were laid off into lots & streets, and added to, and made a part thereof.... (Hening 1820:604-607).

The plan for enlarging the town of Alexandria was passed by an act of the Virginia Assembly approved at the November session of 1762.

By 1770, the town of Alexandria was the largest on the Potomac River and was becoming an important center for maritime trade with Europe and the Caribbean. In 1774, John Alexander laid out and sold 18 new lots and gave the town land for Wilkes and St. Asaph Streets. The Alexander family further allowed for the extension of the town between 1785 and 1786 when they sold the adjoining tracts (Crowl 2002:124). The new streets within the expanded area were named for Revolutionary War heroes including Greene, Lafayette, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, Washington and Wythe. By 1775, there were “20 major mercantile firms in Alexandria, 12 of which were involved in the transshipment of wheat” (Smith and Miller 1989). Although Alexandria flour was not considered as fine as that from Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore, flour milling served as a chief industry during the early 1780s and again in the 1790s (Smith and Miller 1989). The international market for flour transformed local milling into a larger and more profitable enterprise. During the Colonial period, the water powered grist or custom mills had primarily served a landowner and a “small circle of neighbors,” while later "merchant mills" ground a greater quantity of flour to be marketed "by the sackful or shipload" (Netherton et al. 1992:1).

In 1779, the town of Alexandria was incorporated, which allowed it to have its own local government, as opposed to being governed by Fairfax County. A second extension of the boundaries was approved on May 6, 1782, authorizing the mayor, recorder, aldermen and common council to lay a wharfage tax and to extend Water and Union Streets, providing that the proprietors of the ground on which Union Street was extended would have the “… liberty of making use of any earth which it may be necessary to remove in regulating the said street” (Hening 1823b:44-45).

Many local planters, in the second half of the eighteenth century, began growing wheat and corn rather than tobacco. Tobacco depleted the soil, and profits from the grains eventually exceeded those for tobacco. Alexandria merchants shipped corn and wheat as grain and in the form of flour to Europe and to the West Indies and sold imported manufactured goods and foodstuffs. By the early nineteenth century, Alexandria exported eight times as much produce as Georgetown (Netherton et al. 1992:184).

The late 18th- and early 19th-century history of the area represents a period of transition from an agricultural area dominated by large plantations to a region characterized by smaller farms that supported the growing town of Alexandria. Much of this land appears to have been acquired by absentee landowners, some of whom were wealthy Quaker merchants living in Philadelphia or who had migrated from Philadelphia to Alexandria. This subdivision reflects their location on the periphery of late 18th-century Alexandria and within a major transportation corridor leading north from the town. As a result of the increased number of good roads leading into Alexandria and its expansion as a commercial center, these lands were good investment properties (Crowl 2002:123). During this period, the growth of Alexandria created a market for small parcels of land where farmers could grow foodstuffs for sale in town, and where wealthy townspeople could keep gardens, orchards, and small farms.

Until the end of the 18th century, almost all African Americans living within the boundaries of Alexandria were enslaved. By 1790, 525 enslaved African Americans lived within Alexandria; these comprised more than one-fifth of the population of the city (Bertsch 2006:1). Most resided within the homes of their owners during this period (Cressey et al. 1982:149).

Early National Period (1790-1829)

Following the ratification of the United States Constitution, the location for the mandated ten-mile-square District of Columbia to house the federal government was settled on the Potomac River due to a 1790 compromise between Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson. George Washington, as President, chose to include Alexandria within the District by beginning the survey at Jones Point just to the south of the town. Washington's specific reasons for including Alexandria are uncertain, but two likely reasons for the placement are evident: inclusion of the town in the district would likely advance the economic fortunes of himself and his friends and allies who lived and did business in and around Alexandria and would also reduce Virginia's potential influence over the city of Washington by removing an established trading center and seaport across the river from the state's control (Grymes 2018). By 1792 the 100-square-mile District was surveyed, and boundary stones were placed at one-mile intervals along the line of demarcation between district and state land (Figure 3).

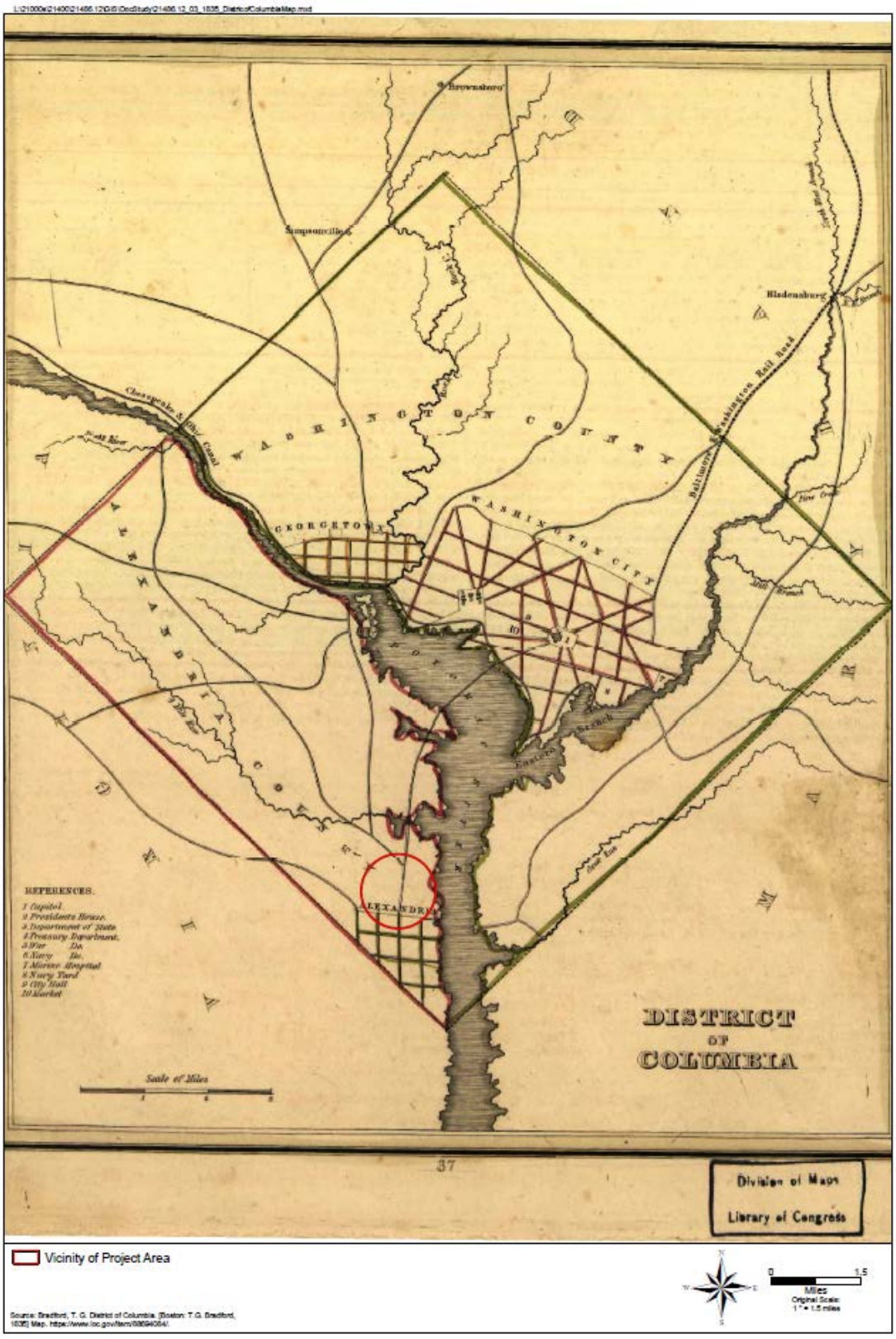

Figure 3: 1835 District of Columbia Map Showing Alexandria County

(Source: Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, D.C. http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.gmd/g3850.ct000503)

Virginia did not fully cede its territory to the District of Columbia until February 27, 1801, when the Organic Act finalized the full federal control of land within the District. The Organic Act left intact the municipal government of the town of Alexandria, and established Alexandria County to encompass the former rural Virginia land northwest of the town. Alexandria County was an agricultural landscape at this period, containing no towns or notable settlements, although the large plantations of the 18th century were beginning to be subdivided into smaller farms. The Fairfax County Courthouse remained in Alexandria until 1799 when a new site for the courthouse was selected on Virginia soil at its current location, now within the City of Fairfax (Smith and Miller 1989:51).

The 1801 act stated that the laws of the state of Virginia would continue to be enforced in Alexandria County of the District of Columbia and the laws of the state of Maryland would apply to Washington County while establishing a District of Columbia Circuit Court (Bedini 1971; United States 1856). As citizens of the District of Columbia, Alexandria County residents lost representation in Congress and the right to vote for President of the United States, a right which was not extended to District residents until 1964.

Furthermore, while residents of the town of Alexandria (and of Georgetown and Washington across the river) were able to vote in town elections to influence local governance, rural Alexandria County (and Washington County) residents were entirely disenfranchised, as county land in the District was administered by officials appointed by the President. A stipulation of the Residence Act required that all Federal government buildings were required to be built on the Maryland side of the Potomac, blunting possible economic or political boons location within the District of Columbia may have bestowed upon the town and county of Alexandria. Congress, directly responsible for public works and infrastructure in the District, often failed to address the local needs of Alexandria County. However, the discontent with life within the District of Columbia appears to have been felt most keenly within the town of Alexandria; the majority of the residents of rural Alexandria County opposed several retrocession movements that arose in the following years (Brownell 2016).

As the economy transitioned from one based on tobacco to other products, the population in Alexandria and the county increased as people moved in from outlying western areas to work as merchants, hotel proprietors, and cooks in local restaurants. Between 1790 and 1798, Alexandria's population grew by about 2,000 individuals or 41%. At this time, due in part to turmoil and disruption in Europe associated with the French Revolution and the beginning of the Napoleonic Wars, Alexandria prospered as a major port for the exportation of American wheat. In 1791, the total value of the town's exports was $381,000, and four years later it had grown to $948,000. By 1795, Alexandria had closed its tobacco warehouses. From 1800 to 1820, it was fourth behind Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York in wheat exports (MacKay 1995:55).

A significant part of the post-tobacco population boom in Alexandria was attributable to both free and enslaved African Americans. Beginning in the 1790s, free and emancipated blacks began migrating to the city due to its location between the North and the South, and

black residents experienced limited freedoms when Alexandria was ceded to Washington, D.C. (Cressey et al. 1982:46). With the shift from a tobacco economy to a wheat economy, some enslaved laborers were no longer needed on plantations and were manumitted. Those who were not manumitted were "hired out" by plantations to business owners and manufacturers in the rapidly growing port town (Bloomburg 1988:57-62). Migrants to the town sought employment on the docks or in its factories. Others were employed skilled industries, ranging from trunk maker to house joiner, ship carpenter, potter, baker, and soap maker. Others opened businesses of their own as tavern keepers, bakers, draymen, or laundresses.

As the African American population grew, various race-based regulations were imposed. In 1793, the city required mandatory registration of free African Americans, and in November 1799, a curfew was imposed. An ordinance was passed in 1809 that allowed "free persons of color" to settle within the corporate limits of the city until August 9, 1809, after which time any such person had to obtain a voucher from one white person to attest to his or her good character (Bloomburg 1988:57).

In 1807, Congress voted to ban the importation of enslaved people into the United States, effective January 1, 1808, and yet the domestic slave trade prospered. The ban discouraged manumissions by raising the value of enslaved people and the illicit importation of the enslaved persisted until the beginning of the Civil War. Many slave owners in northern Virginia seized the opportunity to sell enslaved people into the southern slave market. Franklin & Armfield, one of the largest slave trading firms in America, opened an office in Alexandria in 1828. Yet, the free African American population of Alexandria continued to increase.

Circa 1800, the town of Alexandria erected a poor house and work house at the northwest corner of present-day Monroe Avenue and Route 1, outside of the town limits in Alexandria County. Prior to the American Revolution (1775-1781), responsibility for caring for Virginia's poor rested with Anglican parishes. However, after the British were defeated, the Anglican Church was disestablished, and the responsibility shifted to the local governments (U.S. Department of the Interior 1937; Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002). Built soon after 1800, the Alexandria Poor House (or Alms House) provided shelter, clothing, and food to some of the town's impoverished residents; in addition, slave owners sometimes sent elderly or disabled slaves there. The Alexandria Poor House also served as a work house and farm; the local courts sentenced people to the work house for various petty crimes (U.S. Department of the Interior 1937; Roach 2002; Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000).

A program of improvements to transportation took place across the U.S. in the early years of the 19th century as industries developed and westward expansion accelerated. Turnpikes, regulated and well-maintained toll roads that linked towns and/or important points such as mountain gaps and bridges, formed much of these improvements, and several were established from Alexandria as a port town. Those improvements that did occur were most frequently funded by investors through the selling of stock in turnpike companies.

The establishment of turnpikes in Alexandria grew out of the town's competition with other nearby ports for the lucrative trade with grain-producing agricultural regions to the west. In the first half of the eighteenth century, most of the grain trade went through Philadelphia and later Baltimore. Colonists west of the Blue Ridge Mountains tended to transport their grain and flour north on the "Great Wagon Road" through Maryland to Pennsylvania before heading east to Philadelphia. Farmers in Fauquier, Culpeper, and Loudoun Counties in Virginia could transport their crops up the Carolina Road (present day Route 15), across the Potomac River to Maryland, and on to Philadelphia. In order to entice the western grain trade from Philadelphia and Baltimore, the Alexandria's merchants needed reliable transportation routes. By the late 18th and early 19th centuries, the physical barriers to securing the western grain trade – the Blue Ridge Mountains and the falls of the Potomac River – were being addressed by the creation of toll roads and turnpikes leading into Alexandria. Alexandria merchants benefited from turnpikes that bridged Snickers' Gap and Ashby's Gap through the Blue Ridge Mountains. Livestock, grain, flour, and liquor such as whisky made from grains were transported to Alexandria for shipment to other states, Europe, and the West Indies.

By the 1790s, some local residents were establishing private companies to build turnpikes rather than relying on local governments to improve and maintain major roads. As part of the District of Columbia, improvements in transportation around Alexandria lagged somewhat behind other cities such as Baltimore and Richmond which had the active support of their state legislatures in maintaining their competitiveness as economic hubs. Two of the most significant turnpikes leading into Alexandria were the Little River Turnpike and the Leesburg Turnpike.

By 1806, the 20-foot-wide Little River Turnpike had been completed running west from Alexandria for 34 miles, passing through the county seat of Fairfax County (present-day Fairfax City) on its way to Aldie in Loudoun County, Virginia (Crowl 2002:81). The turnpike was an extension of Duke Street in Alexandria and generally followed the route of present-day Little River Turnpike (Crowl 2002:102).

In 1813, Congress authorized the building of the Alexandria and Leesburg Turnpike, which would, as its name suggests, connect Alexandria with Leesburg, the county seat of Loudoun County and a prosperous market town (Macoll et al. 1977:51). After long delays, construction on the turnpike finally began in Leesburg in 1818, by which time Georgetown had succeeded in diverting the Leesburg Turnpike to connect with Georgetown rather than Alexandria. As a result, Alexandria merchants chartered the Middle Turnpike to connect Alexandria to Georgetown's Leesburg Turnpike, thereby competing with Georgetown for the agricultural products from northwestern Virginia (Crowl 2002:118). The Middle Turnpike ran from King Street in Alexandria northwest to Dranesville, where it connected with the Leesburg Turnpike (Crowl 2002:119). Combined, the Middle Turnpike and the Leesburg Turnpike provided a direct route from Alexandria to Leesburg.

The toll prices established for travelers on the Middle Turnpike illustrate the types of livestock and vehicles that utilized the road. The tolls were listed as: "… each head of

sheep, five cents, each head of hogs, five cents, every horse or mule and driver, three cents, and every stage or wagon and two horses, ten cents" (Netherton et al. 1992:195).

1808 saw the construction of the Long Bridge over the Potomac (now the site of the 14th Street Bridge) which provided convenient access between the City of Washington and Alexandria County. Also in 1808, the Washington and Alexandria Turnpike Company was incorporated to link Alexandria via the Long Bridge to Washington (Thunderbird Archeology and History Matters 2008:97-98).

The Washington and Alexandria Turnpike began on Washington Street in Alexandria then headed north, initially following the route of the Georgetown Road. It then continued across Four Mile Run along much the same path as present-day Route 1 to the foot of the Long Bridge. Tolls were collected on the south side of a new bridge over Four Mile Run (T. M. Miller 1992; Netherton et al. 1992; Rose 1976; Terrie 1980). According to the enabling legislation, the road was to be between thirty and one hundred feet wide.

As Alexandria expanded during the first half of the 19th century, the route of the turnpike into the town shifted to the west. Until at least 1845, the turnpike angled to the northwest from Washington Street, following the route of present-day Powhatan Street until it intersected with present-day Route 1. By 1862, the portion of the turnpike that angled to the northwest had fallen into disuse in favor of a new route that continued straight from Patrick Street to the turnpike. The old turnpike route continued to be used as a road until 1906 but, by 1878, it also carried railroad tracks for the Alexandria & Washington Railroad. Figure 4 shows the turnpike in 1894 with the railroad along the left side of the image.

To face p. 54.

Washington and Alexandria Turnpike, March, 1894. Main thoroughfare between the two cities. Chas. Schaff, Artist.

Figure 4: Circa 1894 Photograph of Washington and Alexandria Turnpike Alexandria County, Virginia (Photo Source: Stone 1894)

Despite the improvements in transportation and its growing population, beginning around 1799 and lasting until the mid-19th century Alexandria suffered a prolonged economic decline. Contributing agricultural factors were depletion of soils and the division of plantations into smaller, supporting tracts of farmlands among planters' sons. Newly available lands in the west claimed by the United States after its victory over the British in the Revolutionary War, the Ordinance of 1787 establishing the Northwest Territory, and the circa 1800 Virginia Military Bounty, establishing lands set aside for settlement by Virginians and Kentuckians, all factored into the change in settlement patterns. All of these spurred a migration of third and fourth generations of Fairfax County (and Alexandria) residents during the post-Revolutionary War period. Other influences included international conflicts following the Revolutionary War and the effects of French privateer ships on Alexandria shipping, along with embargoes, and the War of 1812 (Cox et al. 1999; Smith and Miller 1989:56). Despite the depressed economy, commerce remained steady on the waterfront while small farms persisted in the western lots of the town.

A single event during the War of 1812 struck a major blow to the both the town's economy and its reputation in the fledgling United States. On the 29th of August 1814, a squadron of six British warships under command of Commodore James Alexander Gordon appeared off Alexandria's waterfront. Having witnessed the burning of Washington, D.C. by British ground forces the previous week and being entirely without defenses, the mayor and council of Alexandria surrendered the city without a shot being fired. The British confiscated the 22 vessels in port and much of the flour, tobacco, and other supplies and merchandise on the waterfront. The reported gentlemanly behavior of Commodore Gordon's men during the incident notwithstanding, the loss of merchandise and shipping as well as the damage to pride and reputation was a blow from which Alexandria never fully recovered. Alexandria lagged farther behind Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York in the new century as its importance as a seaport waned. (Thunderbird Archeology 2021: 27-28).

Antebellum Period (1830-1860)

The transportation expansions begun in the first decades of the 19th century accelerated and evolved rapidly in the antebellum period, and several major construction programs provided heretofore unprecedented access between Alexandria and the American hinterland, helping to revive the town's fortunes.

In 1828, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal Company acquired the operations of the Potowmack Canal as part of its efforts to build a canal on the Maryland shore of the Potomac. The plans for the C&O Canal called for it to stretch 341 miles to the Ohio River, but after the canal was completed to Cumberland, Maryland in 1850, the C&O Canal Company decided not to extend it further. According to the original plans, the canal would begin on the Potomac north of Georgetown. Each town within the District of Columbia (Alexandria, Georgetown, and Washington) would then be responsible for building a canal from the C&O to its own port. However, the City of Washington used its influence – and the fact that it invested four times as much in the canal than either Georgetown or

Alexandria – to extend the C&O Canal to Washington via Georgetown. As a result, the C&O Canal steered considerable trade in northern Virginia and western Maryland to Georgetown merchants (Rose 1976 74; 78). Alexandria, meanwhile, was left with the sole responsibility for building a canal between itself and the C&O Canal (Hahn and Kemp 1992; M. T. Miller 1992a, 1992b; Morgan 1965, 1966).

Construction of the Alexandria Canal, which connected the city to the C & O Canal at Georgetown, began on July 4th, 1831, under the direction of Captain William Turnbull of the U.S. Army Topographical Engineers, assisted by Lieutenant Maskell C. Ewing; the progress of the canal's construction was followed closely in the *Alexandria Gazette* (Hahn and Kemp 1992: 21, 25). The canal traversed the Potomac via a stone and timber aqueduct (Figure 5) and ran level for approximately seven miles to terminate at a wide basin lying north of Montgomery Street from Washington Street to Pitt Street. The canal cost $137,500 per mile, a price far greater than the $60,000 per mile cost of building the C&O Canal. As a result, the Alexandria Common Council was forced to seek additional funds in the form of real estate taxes and further stock subscriptions (Cressey et al. 1984:3). This shortage in capital led to cutbacks in building materials. For example, in order to cut costs, the aqueduct across the Potomac, which ran 30 feet above tidewater, was built using a wooden trunk on eight piers rather than the originally specified seven-arch stone structure (Pioneer Society of American 1973:1).

The canal opened to commercial traffic on December 2, 1843 (Hahn and Kemp 1992:25), placing the north of Alexandria at the terminal point of a canal system extending westward to within 50 miles of Cumberland, Maryland. A series of locks completed in 1845 connected the canal basin to the Potomac River, enabling timber, coal, and agricultural products from the interior direct access to Alexandria's wharves and shipping (Figure 6). The completion of the canal opened Alexandria to all the markets accessible from the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal which ran westward 185 miles to Cumberland, Maryland by 1850.

The canal was an early success, and its arrival directly influenced the commercial development of the northern edge of Alexandria, as prior to the 1840s much of the land in that vicinity was vacant or occupied by agricultural fields. The canal brought the raw materials and products of the lands drained by the Potomac River to the city, and industrial development sprang up near the canal after its completion to take advantage of the new transportation network. However, the canal soon lost ground to competition from the railroads, eventually declaring bankruptcy and closing in 1886 after an expensive rupture in the Potomac Aqueduct Bridge (Historic Alexandria 2007).

In the late 1840s, several major railroad construction projects were being planned for Alexandria, which would further help reignite the city's stalled growth. The first, originally incorporated as the Alexandria and Harpers Ferry Railroad, was designed to link Alexandria with the West via Harpers Ferry, (West) Virginia; it was chartered in 1847 and reorganized as the Alexandria, Loudoun, and Hampshire in 1853. By the beginning of the

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Source: Ewing, Maskell C, and T Sinclair. *Plan of the town of Alexandria, D.C. with the environs: exhibiting the outlet of the Alexandria Canal, the shipping channel, wharves, Hunting Cr.* [Philadelphia: Lith. of T. Sinclair, 1845] Map. https://www.loc.gov/item/89692516/.

Figure 5: 1845 Ewing Map of Alexandria, VA

Figure 6: 1979 Excavations of Alexandria Canal Lock

Civil War, this line was only constructed as far as Leesburg. The same railroad was reorganized three more times: in 1870 as the Washington and Ohio Railroad; in 1884 as the Washington, Ohio, and Western Railroad; and in 1911 as the Washington and Old Dominion Railway. It was finally abandoned in 1968 (Bianculli 2001:24).

The second major railroad project was planned to connect Alexandria with Gordonsville in the south by way of the old Piedmont Stage Route through Orange and Culpeper Counties, Virginia. The Orange and Alexandria Railroad was incorporated by an Act of the Virginia Assembly on March 27, 1848. An Act to confirm the Town of Alexandria's grant of a right-of-way to the Orange and Alexandria (O&A) Railroad Company through the Town of Alexandria "and the privilege of steam" was passed by the Virginia General Assembly on March 22, 1850 (Virginia 1850:74-75), and construction of the O&A began in Alexandria in early 1850. The line was completed as far as Manassas Junction in Prince William County by October of 1851 (Geddes 1967:28-30). The president of the O&A in 1850 and a prominent Alexandria businessman, George H. Smoot, was involved in the formation of the Alexandria Gas Light Company, incorporated on March 22, 1850. The Gas Light Company was authorized to open the streets, lanes, alleys and public squares in the City of Alexandria for the purpose of distributing gas by gas mains, or gas pipes (Virginia 1850:148-149). Tracks associated with the O&A surrounded the study area.

The third railroad project was to open a line to the Shenandoah Valley through Manassas Gap. The Manassas Gap Railroad Company was incorporated by an Act of the Virginia Assembly on March 9, 1850 (Virginia 1850:73-74). The Manassas Gap Railroad line was constructed from the Manassas Junction on the Orange and Alexandria line to Strasburg by 1854. Initially, the Manassas Gap Railroad leased the Orange and Alexandria railroad track rights into Alexandria, but in 1855 it began constructing its own line, which was never completed (Geddes 1967:28-30).

The fourth project, the Alexandria and Washington Railroad Company (A&W) was chartered in 1854 to extend a rail line from Alexandria to Washington. The railroad was authorized to construct its tracks from a roundhouse and car shed located at the block bounded by Saint Asaph, Pitt and Princess Streets, thence north on Saint Asaph to the Alexandria and Washington Turnpike, thence north to the south end of the old Long Bridge, now the 14th Street bridge (Baer 2005).

Since the cession of Alexandria County and the town of Alexandria to the District of Columbia in 1801, certain interests had been working to return the ceded lands to Virginia. In particular, the merchants and businessmen of Alexandria felt stifled by Congress' frequent unresponsiveness to matters on the Virginia side of the Potomac. Additionally, some feared that as abolitionist movements gained in power that slavery could be abolished in the District. Alexandria had become a major hub for slave trading as the Atlantic slaveowners sold their excess human chattel to feed the high demand for slaves in the Deep South. The arguments in favor of retrocession do not appear to have convinced the populace of rural Alexandria county; although many of them relied on slave labor, the prospect of abolition in the District does not appear to have particularly threatening (Grymes 2018; Brownell 2016).

After years of debate, Congress allowed a referendum on retrocession back to Virginia in 1846. Town residents voted 734-116 in favor of retrocession, while County residents voted 29-106 in favor of remaining in the District of Columbia. The population advantage of the town carried the vote, and Alexandria County rejoined Virginia against the majority of its residents' will (Grymes 2018; Brownell 2016).

African Americans could not vote for or against retrocession, but the majority were in favor of staying within the District. Across the nation, restrictions on free African Americans, who were already second-class citizens, tightened further after Nat Turner, an enslaved minister, led an 1831 rebellion in Southampton County, Virginia, where over 60 white people were killed. Under District of Columbia law, curfews were reinforced, and free Blacks in Alexandria were required to carry identity papers in public and ordered to obtain special permission for meetings in their own houses. In 1836, the District systematically denied business licenses to Blacks (Arnebeck 1987). However, Alexandria's free African American residents were subject to the even more strict racial laws of the Commonwealth of Virginia following retrocession. One such law forbade all people of color from receiving an education or preaching and required one white person for every black person in a congregation or gathering (Wallace 2003:37). After Alexandria became a Virginian city

once more, the free Black population of the city declined as individuals sought less hostile places to live to the north.

In the 1850s following retrocession and the multiple rail links to the backcountry, the town of Alexandria experienced an industrial and commercial boom, and its population swelled from 8,734 in 1850 to 12,652 in 1860. Statistics from the 1850 census reveal there were 6,390 whites, 1,301 free blacks, and 1,061 enslaved people. In 1858, with the approval of a new charter, Alexandria officially became a city (Cox et al. 1999).

In contrast, the transportation projects of the early and mid-19th century brought significant – and often unwelcome – changes for those who owned land in the burgeoning transportation corridor north of Alexandria. Following the completion of the Alexandria Canal in 1843, local residents predicted that land values in the vicinity of the canal would increase considerably. An advertisement in the Alexandria Gazette touted a parcel along the waterway:

> LOOK AT THIS - What a splendid opportunity to make an immense and princely fortune. The subscriber, proprietor of the land and water rights for two or three thousand feet on the left and adjoining the Alexandria Canal Property at its terminus in the river Potomac respectfully informs the public that he will lease the same for twenty years or more to a responsible individual or company, who will make the necessary improvement or fixtures for the trade to the place. [Alexandria Gazette 1849: 3]

While some in Alexandria County may have profited from the presence of a turnpike, canal, or railroad running through their property, this was not always the case. The companies that sponsored these projects bought or seized farmland from local landowners, reducing the amount of tillable land and sometimes dividing farms. As a result, property values often fell after a canal or railroad was constructed. Moreover, living next to a railroad or a canal was not necessarily a pleasant experience. Canals were prone to flooding, and trains were loud and noxious. The Alexandria Canal company paid thousands in damages and settlements to landowners for lost value and profits for farmland following completion of the canal, and at least one family was forced to move from their home when both the Alexandria & Winchester and Alexandria, Loudoun & Hampshire rail beds passed adjacent to their dwelling (Thunderbird Archeology and History Matters 2008: 12).

Civil War (1861-1865)

On May 23, 1861, Virginia formally seceded from the Union by a vote of 97,000 to 32,000 (Bowman 1985:51, 55). In a public referendum, Alexandrians voted 958 for and only 106 against secession (Smith and Miller 1989:83). The morning after Virginia voted to secede; Federal troops entered Alexandria as Confederate troops exited the city to the west.

> This was done without opposition, capturing in the town a few rebel cavalry [sic]. Some 700 rebel infantry in the town had received notice of the approach of the troops and were ready to take the [railroad] cars. They escaped on the O&A, burning the bridges behind them. Our [Union] troops pursued a short distance, also burning such bridges as they had spared.(Scott 1880:37-41).

Alexandria would remain an occupied city throughout the duration of the War. Private homes and businesses were taken over by the occupying army, and the city was used as a staging point for the various military campaigns in Virginia.

On the same day that Alexandria was occupied by Union forces, the U.S. Army also occupied Arlington, the plantation established by George Washington's adopted grandson George Washington Parke Custis and until recently inhabited by Robert E. Lee and his wife Mary. The plantation was located on tall bluffs overlooking Washington, D.C. from the Virginia side of the river, and cannon emplaced on the bluffs could strike at the heart of the federal district. Having seized the land on a taxation technicality, the federal government used the extensive property for several purposes. Three forts occupied the property as part of the defensive ring protecting Washington. Additionally, as the number of escaped slaves made their way to freedom in Union-held land increased, a large Freedmen's Village was established on the grounds in 1863. Finally, in 1864, Quartermaster General Meigs ordered that the estate be used for the burial of the large number of Union war dead, an order which was intended at least in part to prevent the Lee family from re-occupying the estate after the war's end. The estate was officially established as a national cemetery on June 15, 1864 (Arlington National Cemetery 2021; Poole 2009).

The passage of the Railways and Telegraph Act of January 31, 1862, granted the federal government authority to control all Northern and captured Southern railroads, considered key to victory in the war. The O&ARR office and rail yard was developed into the operation headquarters of the United States Military Railroads (USMRR). The various lines within the city were finally interconnected under the USMRR, and the rail connection with the North was made complete when tracks were laid across Long Bridge to the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.

In May of 1862, Herman Haupt was commissioned by Secretary of War Stanton to act as the director of rail operations for the military. Haupt was extremely efficient in the operations of moving troops and supplies over the rails and improvising new methods of repairing damaged track. Haupt organized the military railroads into the Construction Corps, which he supervised, and placed his assistant John H. Devereux in charge of the Transportation Corps. By the end of August, Haupt:

> ...forwarded scores of cars filled with everything from bread and meat, to ammunition and forage. He also arranged for the transport of surgeons to the field...and for the recovery of the wounded (Barber 1988:34).

Barber also notes that, by the end of the war,

> ...quartermasters received, issued and transferred more than 640,000 pounds of wood, 81,000,000 pounds of corn, 412,000,000 pounds each of oats and hay, and 530,000,000 pounds of coal..... By July 1865, all military railroad property--including machine shops, engine houses and the late president's personal car, which was built and housed in Alexandria--totaled more than two million dollars. This figure equaled half the value of all U.S. Military Railroad property in the state (Barber 1988:103).

The USMRR laid new track that brought the A&W into Alexandria along Henry Street, creating a railroad junction just north of Poorhouse Lane (Griffin 1984). In 1861 and 1862, Federal engineers drained the Aqueduct Bridge and converted it to a bridge moving troops and material across the Potomac into Virginia (Morgan 1966).

Prior to the Civil War, few detailed maps of the eastern United States existed. Federal military authorities recognized the strategic and tactical importance of maps of the United States, and the dearth of detailed and accurate maps available. The Army's Corps of Topographical Engineers and Corps of Engineers, the Treasury Department's Coast Survey, and the Navy's Hydrographic Office, were quickly mobilized to prepare new maps for the war effort. As a result, several detailed maps of the vicinity of Alexandria were made in the 1860s (Figure 7). As shown on the maps, Alexandria County contained several of the forts that formed a defensive ring surrounding Washington, D.C.

No major Civil War battles were fought in the City of Alexandria, although its railroads, waterways and roadways figured in major troop movements into and out of the Washington, D.C., area. A few intermittent Confederate raids were made into the western end of Alexandria, mostly along the Orange and Alexandria Railroad. One skirmish was reported on the Little River Turnpike (Duke Street) in June of 1863.

General Robert E. Lee’s surrender of the Confederate Army on April 9, 1865, was followed by Confederate General Joseph E. Johnston’s surrender to Union General Major-General William T. Sherman on April 26, ending the Confederate resistance east of the Mississippi River. To celebrate the news of General Lee's surrender on the 4th or 5th of April 1865, “there was a simultaneous burst of cannon from all the forts around and in Wa[shington] and they bellowed, and roared...all day long...the next day soldiers were sent round to every house in the towns and all about the towns, and ordered the people to throw open their houses at night and illuminate...Many did it through fear...others refused, and their houses were stoned...their windows broken by the soldiers” (Frobel 1992:216).

By the end of April and early May, the area around Washington filled with soldiers; Colonel Gregg of the 179th New York Regiment reported of the area from Baileys Crossroads to Washington that the “whole country...around as he could see in every direction is one vast encampment." Rose Hill, to the north of Bush Hill, was “...literally covered with Sherman's army” (Frobel 1992:219, 226, 229, 230).

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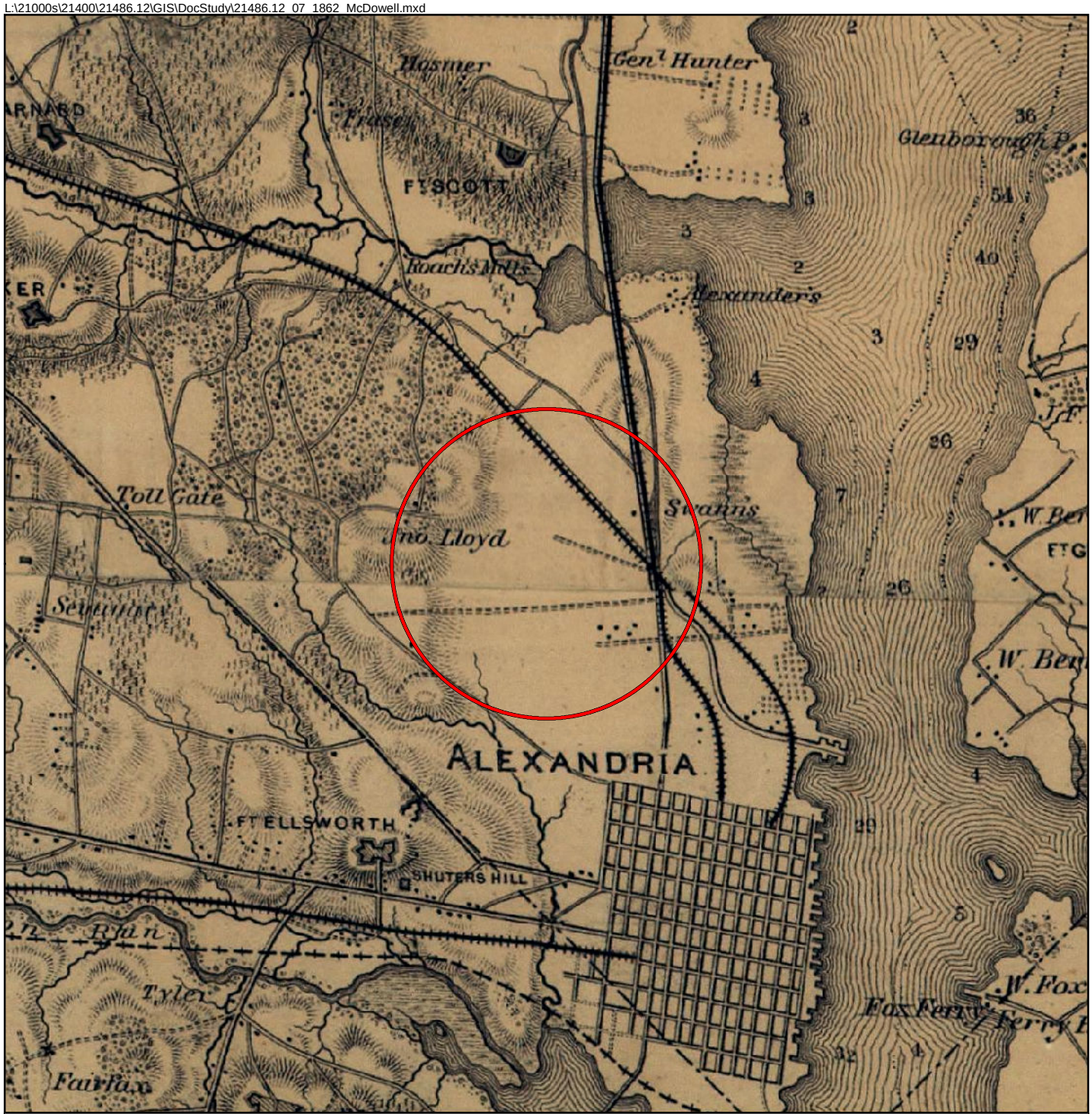

Source: United States Corps Of Topographical Engineers, Irvin McDowell, and J Schedler. *Map of n. eastern Virginia and vicinity of Washington*. [Washington, D.C.?: s.n, 1862] Map. https://www.loc.gov/item/91685687/.

Figure 7: 1862 McDowell Map, Northeast Virginia and Washington DC

In the summer of 1865, the Union Army withdrew from Alexandria, and Confederate sympathizers who had fled south at the start of the war began returning to the town. Upon the recommendation of the chief engineer dated May 6, 1865, the fieldworks constructed for the defense of Washington, with the exception of the redoubt at Fort Worth, were dismantled (Scott et al. 1880-1901:1286, 1293).

The Union army's occupation of Alexandria during the Civil War affected Alexandria's African American population, both freed and enslaved. Although exact numbers are unknown, as many as 20,000 African American refugees may have come to Alexandria during the war. The majority of the African American refugees that migrated to Alexandria probably fled from nearby plantations in northern Virginia, but former enslaved people from other parts of Virginia, Maryland and even remote parts of the Confederacy also made their way to the city. For the refugees, passage through Confederate Virginia, was typically on foot and often very dangerous. Emma Bynum, a former slave who learned to write in a freedmen's school, described her flight from slavery:

> I traveled 65 miles and we had 52 in our number, before, we crost, the rive,…we tought, we wld, be taken eny moment, the babys, cried, and we could whear, the sound of them, on the warter, we lay all night in the woods, and the next day, we traveled on and we, reached, Suffolk that night, and we, lost twenty, one, of the Number (American Antiquarian Society 2006).

Initially, U.S. officials were required to send "fugitive slaves" back to their owners, but by mid-1861 the government began to refer to freedom-seekers as "contraband of war." This status as property provided a legal basis through which Union officers could refuse to return refugees to their Confederate owners. Contrabands became known as "freedmen" during the later years of the war and into Reconstruction. Arriving in Alexandria with few resources, the escaped enslaved people sought work, food, clothing, shelter, medical treatment, and education. Many such refugees found employment with the army as stevedores, carpenters, blacksmiths, painters, wood cutters, teamsters, nurses, and hospital attendants, gravediggers, laundresses, cooks, and personal servants. General Herman Haupt, commander of the U.S. Military Railroad in Alexandria, wrote about freedmen working in the Construction Corps:

> …if there ever should be recognition of their great services, the faithful contrabands will be justly entitled to their share; no other class of men would have exhibited so much patience and endurance under days and nights of continued and sleepless labor (Haupt 1901:319).

On March 13, 1862, Congress passed the Confiscation Act, which prohibited officers or military personnel from using force to return fugitives. In Union-occupied Alexandria County, this meant that the government no longer enforced the laws that required that fugitive slaves be captured and returned to their owners.

At the beginning of the War, African Americans could not lawfully join the military. By 1862, the number of qualified recruits declined and in response, African-American men were allowed to join the ranks. By 1865, over 250 African-American men who had been killed in action were interred in a corner of the Alexandria National Cemetery (Miller 1998:1).

Reconstruction and Growth (1866-1916)

In 1865, all enslaved people were freed under the 13th Amendment to the United States Constitution. The U.S. War Department established the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands (aka the Freedmen's Bureau) to provide "assistance to tens of thousands of former slaves and impoverished whites in the Southern States and the District of Columbia. It issued food and clothing, operated hospitals and temporary camps, helped locate family members, promoted education, helped freedmen legalize marriages, provided employment, supervised labor contracts, provided legal representation, investigated racial confrontations, settled freedmen on abandoned or confiscated lands, and worked with African American soldiers and sailors and their heirs to secure back pay, bounty payments, and pensions" (NARA 2016). In the face of progress towards racial equality through the Bureau's work, the Civil Rights Acts of 1866 and 1875, and the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments to the U.S. Constitution in 1868 and 1870, white leaders in the South passed a variety of laws known as black codes in an attempt to continue to oppress black free people in the early years of Reconstruction (Virginia Historical Society 2004). On the local level, white individuals terrorized blacks, through harassment, public torture, lynching, and arson (Equal Justice Initiative 2016). At the end of the war, the African American population of Alexandria County had increased to more than 8,700, or about half the total population.

In the 1860s and 1870s, the nation's rail networks expanded and carried increasing amounts of freight, but it was a fragmented and uncoordinated system composed of numerous rail lines. By the 1880s and 1890s, this fragmented rail network saw increased standardization and consolidation as the railroad companies merged into larger corporations with greater and more expansive rail networks under their control (Wiebe 1967). During this period, railroads dominated the transportation landscape of the nation; the permanent closing of the Alexandria Canal in 1886 reflects the inability of canals to compete with the railroads.

Between the end of the Civil War in 1865 and the turn of the 20th century, the rail lines that passed through Alexandria County were incorporated into the nation's increasingly consolidated and integrated rail networks (Figure 8). The Alexandria & Washington Railroad was purchased in 1872 by the Pennsylvania Railroad, linking Alexandria and Baltimore. In 1890, the Pennsylvania Railroad merged the A&W with its subsidiary the Alexandria & Fredericksburg Railroad, forming a rail link from southern Prince William County to Washington, D.C. (Griffin 1984). In 1870, the Alexandria, Loudoun & Hampshire Railroad Company re-organized and changed its name to the Washington and Ohio Railroad Company, reflecting a plan to extend the line further west to the Ohio River at Point Pleasant, West Virginia (Harwood 1969:5; Williams 1977:47). The company failed

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Figure 8: 1865 A. Boschke Map of Evirons of Washington, District of Columbia

to achieve its goal and in 1882 the company was sold. The following year, investors from New York City purchased the railroad and renamed it the Washington, Ohio & Western (WO&W) Railroad. Soon after its re-organization as the WO&W, New York financier J.P. Morgan acquired the railroad and in 1894, Washington, Ohio & Western Railroad became part of Morgan's Southern Railway (Harwood 1969:5, 7).

By 1900, practically all of the rail mileage in the United States was either owned or controlled by seven railroad companies. This integration was enabled through a major change in the way railroads were owned and managed, becoming one of the first American industries to exhibit the traits of a modern corporation including a complex managerial structure (Cowan 1997). The emergence and consolidation of railroads from disjointed short lines into longer, more connected trunk lines allowed for a major transformation of the American economy by introducing large-scale distribution networks and encouraging a boom in industrial production. Railroads served as organizational models for other transportation systems as well as for firms involved in the distribution and production of mass marketed goods. By the late 19th century, railroads connected the centers of production and commerce in an increasingly industrialized nation.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, the Washington, D.C. area became a major transfer point between northern and southern rail networks. Fruits, vegetables, and livestock from the southern states traveled along the rails to urban markets in the North, while manufactured goods were shipped south from northern factories. Multiple railroad lines served each region, but at the turn of the 20th century, there was no central location to transfer freight between northern and southern rail lines. As a result, northern lines such as the Pennsylvania Railroad and the B&O delivered southbound freight to multiple sites for classification and transfer to the different railroads that served the South (Carper 1992; Griffin 1984; MacCart 1905).

Consequently, the railroads that operated in the Washington, D.C. area began to see train delays due to congestion and the high volume of traffic. By 1905, the facilities in the region were deemed inadequate to handle the large and constant increase in traffic, especially shipments of perishable freight. Alexandria was identified as the gateway interchange for a considerable portion of freight and passenger traffic and therefore a prime location for a classification yard (MacCart 1905).

In 1901, the Richmond-Washington Company, jointly owned by the six major railroads of the east coast, began construction of Potomac Yard in Alexandria County to serve as the main classification yard for routing north-south rail traffic. The joint ownership by the major railways allowed full use of the classification yard by all players; in most cases, individual rail lines owned and operated their own area within a yard rather than sharing ownership, tracks, facilities, and management (Griffin 1984; Carper 1992). Potomac Yard, sometimes called "The Gateway to the South," went into service in 1906 as a major classification hub for the east coast rail networks. In hopes of securing the tax revenue from the prosperous rail yard, the City of Alexandria made several attempts to annex the area from Alexandria (now Arlington) County, but local residents objected. The city eventually succeeded in annexing Potomac Yard as well as the neighborhoods to its west in 1930 (Escherich 1992).

Following an economic depression in the 1890s, racial tension escalated in the South. Whites saw blacks as a threat to their jobs and newspapers exaggerated or fabricated black crime. In 1896, the Supreme Court upheld racial segregation instituted by individual states' Black Codes in *Plessy vs. Ferguson* by introducing the "separate but equal" doctrine. In Virginia, this "both confirmed the status quo and gave impetus to even more rigid segregation laws" (Virginia Historical Society 2004). In 1902, Virginia amended the state Constitution to require segregation in schools though segregation was already in place. Segregation on streetcars followed, and in 1912, the Virginia General Assembly enacted legislation that allowed cities and towns to segregate neighborhoods and districts through zoning ordinances (Henderson and Hussey 1965:1). Spurred by the long agricultural recession and increasing restrictions and violence, African Americans began leaving the rural south for the urban north in what became known as the Great Migration before the onset of World War I (Schweninger 1989:52). As a northern most city in the South, Alexandria attracted many new black residents during this period.

The presence of rail lines and the Alexandria Turnpike, combined with the area's location between Alexandria and Washington, D.C., helped spur the first significant change to the rural character of portions of Alexandria County, as suburban development began in 1894 with the establishment of Del Ray and St. Elmo, which were conveniently located along three rail lines leading into Washington, D.C. in southern Alexandria County.

A rapid increase in urban area settlement in the 1870s and 1880s gave rise to a popular middle-class sentiment that cities were unhealthy, dirty, noisy and rife with immoral activity. To escape these many ills in the hot humid summers, the middle-class residents of Washington, D.C. sought refuge in the surrounding, more rural suburbs. This escape was made possible by the improved transportation networks, including the railroads, trolleys and roads, as well as by paid vacation time (Smith and Causey 2005). Many rural villages and small towns with rail connections marketed themselves as vacation spots and summer residences to the urban middle class (Smith and Causey 2005:22).

In 1894, two planned residential developments – Del Ray and St. Elmo – were established on the west side of the Alexandria Turnpike in southern Alexandria County; the establishment of these developments laid the groundwork for the suburbanization of the landscape in rural Alexandria County (Figure 9)**.** Del Ray was located between East Bellefonte Avenue and Mount Ida Avenue; St. Elmo lay between the Bluemont Branch of the Southern Railway (the former AL&H Railroad) and Glebe Road (Figure 10)**.** The original grid layouts of St. Elmo and Del Ray included long blocks stretching east-west in order to maximize ease of access to the Washington-Alexandria Turnpike and the Washington & Old Dominion Railroad which paralleled the turnpike (Escherich 1992). The orientation of the subdivision streets also afforded easy access to the Washington, Alexandria and Mount Vernon Electric Railroad that was built along the western border of the subdivisions between 1892 and 1904. It was a planned community located to take advantage of the railroad and trolley lines for commuting to work for the federal government.

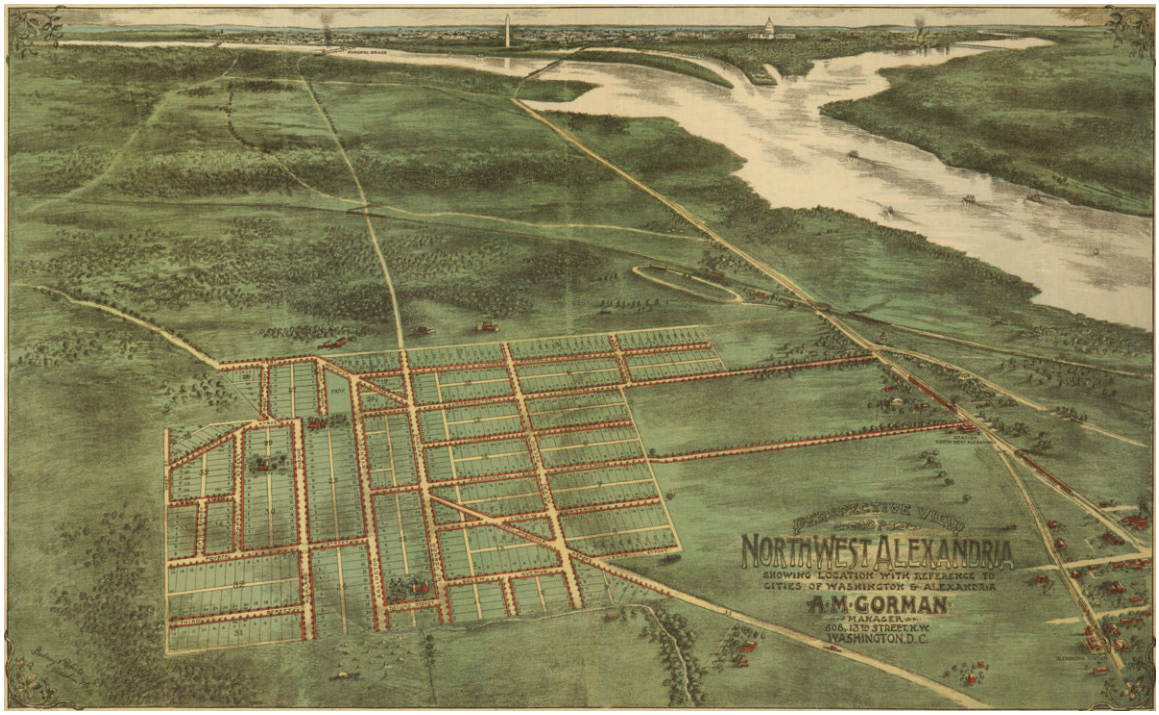

Figure 9: Circa 1890 Bird's Eye View of Northwest Alexandria

Map Source: Perspective view of northwest Alexandria: showing location with reference to cities of Washington & Alexandria." Gedney & Roberts. 1890s. Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, D.C. 20540-4650

The construction of Potomac Yard transformed the land east of the Alexandria Turnpike from farmland into a maze of railroad tracks and railroad-related buildings. The changes brought by the construction of the Yard extended beyond its actual boundaries. The Richmond-Washington Company purchased or seized property to create the yard and to complete related road re-alignments and bridge construction. Furthermore, residential development in Arlington County expanded to supply the needs of both commuters to the cities and for the large number of railyard workers employed at Potomac Yard.

In 1908, Del Ray and St. Elmo joined to incorporate as the Town of Potomac in Alexandria County. Potomac grew rapidly, and new neighborhoods were established in southern Alexandria County to accommodate the growing demand for housing near Potomac Yard and the rail lines that led into Washington, D.C. (Figure 11) As many as a third of the residents walked to their jobs at Potomac Yard, while the remainder commuted to jobs in the nearby urban centers (Escherich 1992).

While many white employees at Potomac Yard lived in the Town of Potomac, no African American railroad workers settled there because the white residents and leadership did not welcome African Americans as residents to the town. A handful of African Americans resided in white households, where they worked as servants, and a couple of African American households appear in the Town of Potomac in the 1910 and 1920 population censuses. African Americans owned some of the lots in the town but few houses. Some

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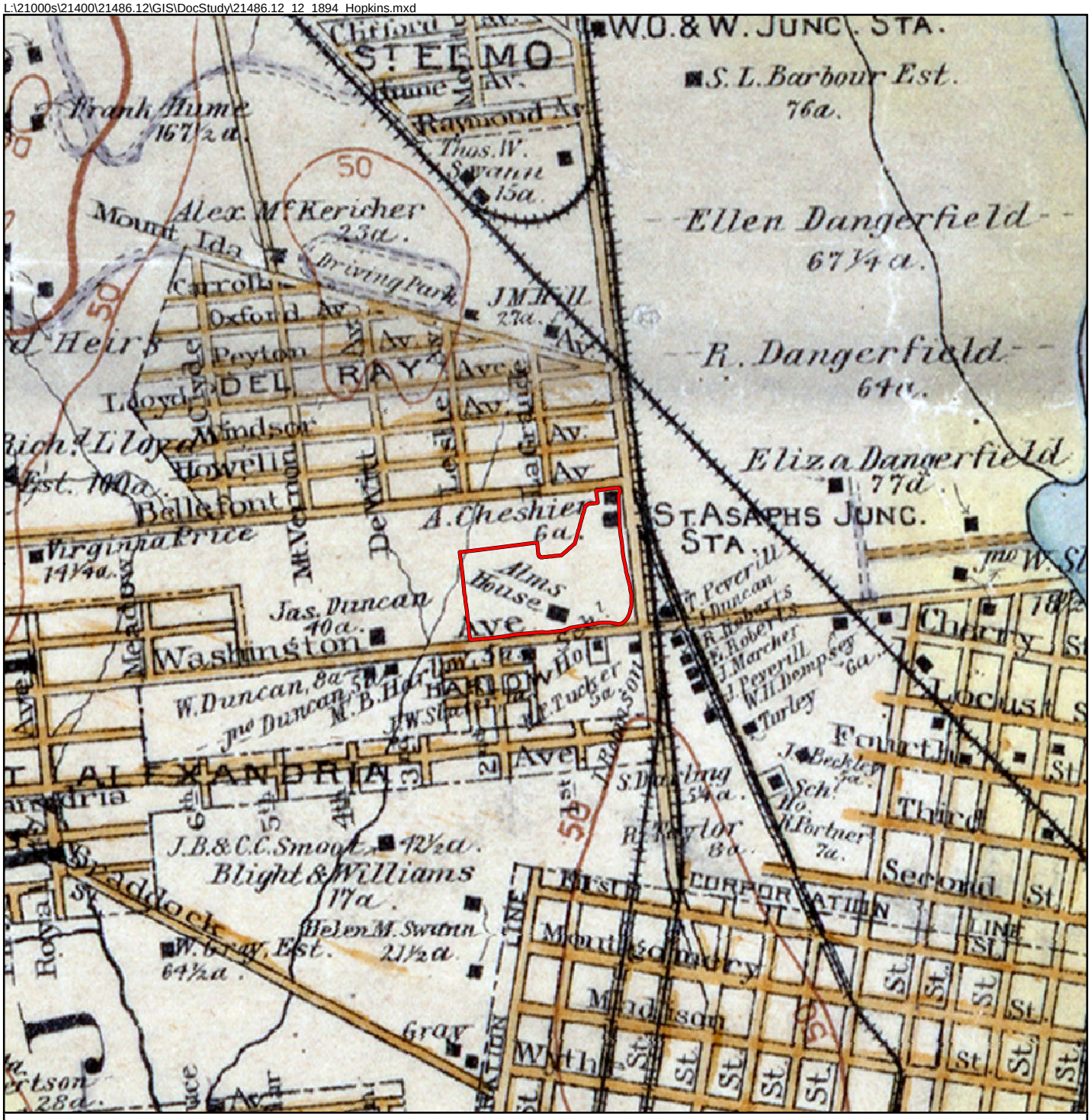

Source: Hopkins, Griffith Morgan, Jr. *The vicinity of Washington, D.C.* [Philadelphia: Griffith M. Hopkins, C.E, 1894] Map. https://www.loc.gov/item/88693364/.

Figure 10: 1894 Hopkins Vicinity of Washington D.C. Map

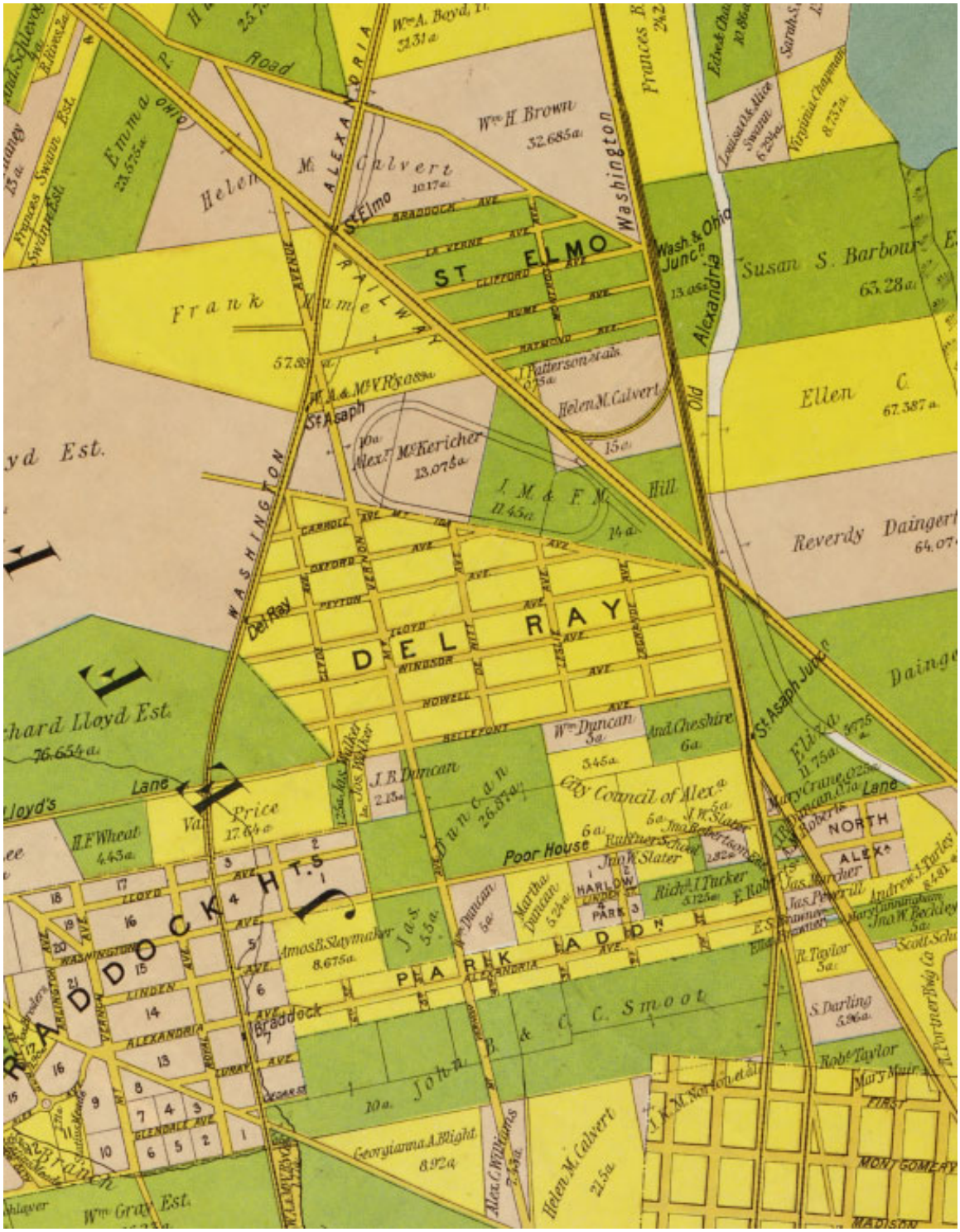

Figure 11: 1900 Map of Alexandria County

Map Source: Howell and Taylor. Map of Alexandria County, Virginia for the Virginia Title Co. Cadastral map showing land ownership and acreage. Also covers part of the city of Alexandria. Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington: http://hdl.loc.gov/loc.gmd/g3883a.ct002287

white property owners in the Town of Potomac used deed restrictions to prevent their property from being owned or occupied by African Americans. An advertisement for the town in a 1924 city directory boasted that it was "the only municipality in the United States that did not have residents of ‘African Descent’" (Escherich 1992).

World War I to World War II (1917-1945)

During the period of the two wars, national demographic trends were reflected in Virginia as the population of cities began to overtake that of rural areas. Farms were producing more but required less labor, due to mechanization and new fertilizers; factories established in the state’s cities attracted workers to become urban and suburban residents. National and state governments increased in both the numbers of employees and offices as well as in the scope of their activities during this time, in response to the crises of the Depression and World War II. Federal projects during the Depression created new highways and parks. World War II brought thousands of newcomers to the suburbs of Washington. D.C.; many continued as residents of Virginia when the war ended (Virginia Department of Historic Resources 2017:Appendix B). The expansion of government jobs and a concurrent increase in residential and commercial development in the Washington, D.C. area led to the full transformation of Alexandria County, renamed as Arlington County in 1920, from its rural-suburban character at the turn of the 20th century into the urban sprawl that would dominate by the end of the 20th century.

In September 1919, residents of Alexandria County petitioned for a change in the county’s name to end frequent confusions between Alexandria City and Alexandria County. As stated in a letter published in the Alexandria Gazette:

> The reasons urged in support of the change are that the County is without individuality; that it is constantly confused with the City of Alexandria in the minds of outsiders; that it is so overshadowed by the said City that most people out of the County thing that Alexandria is the County seat; that letters of importance intended for County Officials are frequently delivered to Officials of the City; and that when anything creditable transpires in the County, the City of Alexandria gets the credit and vice versa. [AG 25 September 1919: 1]

The letter went on to urge County residents to send letters of support or opposition to the name change to state delegate Charles T. Jesse, who would pursue legislation to rename the county if adequate support was expressed (Arlington County 2019) state legislature passed the bill changing the name of Alexandria County to Arlington County on March 16, 1920. By the time Alexandria became Arlington Coun00ty, much of the county had been converted to a suburban landscape. The county was home to 16,040 residents according to the 1920 census, and by that year the occupation of “farmer” was not within the top five occupations enumerated in the county (Schwarz 2020).

Between 1929 and 1932, Mount Vernon Memorial Highway – the first parkway built and maintained by the federal government – was constructed running generally parallel to the Potomac River. The road was envisioned as a link between Mount Vernon, the historic home of George Washington, with Great Falls, Virginia passing through a preserved scenic and historic landscape along the Potomac River. The completed road opened to automobile traffic on January 16, 1932, the bicentennial year of Washington's birth. Incorporating the designs of planners such as noted architect Frederick Law Olmstead, Jr., the parkway was designed and landscaped to maximize the scenic and commemorative qualities of the terrain, the city and the river and is now part of the George Washington Memorial Parkway.

Washington National Airport opened on June 16, 1941. Situated on the former site of Abingdon plantation, the airport was constructed on an 850-acre site known as Gravelly Point along the Potomac River in Arlington County. The new airport replaced the Washington-Hoover airfield, located near the Virginia end of the 14th Street Bridge. Built through the cooperation of numerous state and federal agencies, National became the first federally constructed commercial airport in the country designed for civilian air needs.
In 1941, an emergency plan to construct a 4-million-square-foot office building to accommodate an anticipated 40,000 workers necessary to oversee the looming American involvement in World War II was sited on the former Washington-Hoover Airport land in Arlington County. The building which became known as the Pentagon was designed to be only four stories tall and to minimize use of elevators and steel supports to conserve metal for other wartime uses. The Secretary of War relocated his office to the building in November 1942, and the building was officially completed in January 1943. The planned 40,000 workers that would occupy the building during the war rivaled the 57,000 residents of Arlington County at the time, and illustrates the impact that the Pentagon would have on the locality (Grymes 2021).

The Defense Homes Corporation (DHC), a federal program, was created in 1940 to meet the needs of housing for workers in war industries and government agencies (Baker 1997:52). The influx of new workers to the region created housing demand that was especially severe in Arlington County. Federally funded housing development in the region included the largest DHC project, the Fairlington apartment complex in Arlington County, begun in 1942. Located a short distance from the Pentagon, many Department of Defense workers would reside in the complex (Baker 1997:51). Fairlington was one of three DHC family dwelling projects in the D.C. area and, at its completion in 1944, was the largest apartment complex in the country (Baker 1997:51, 57). Residency requirements for the apartment complex included having a direct involvement in the war effort and being a new resident of the area after July 1941 (Baker 1997:56).

The New Dominion (1945-Present)

The growth of government and related employment during this period in the areas adjoining Washington, D.C., spurred the transformation of formerly rural farmland into housing subdivisions and commercial centers. Rural population continued to decline and by 1955, more Virginians lived in urban centers than in the rural settings. During the latter

part of this period, development has tended to follow transportation corridors, bringing with it not only housing and shopping, but schools, offices, and other facilities, as well as networks of new roads (DHR 2017: Appendix B).

This period of the state's history witnessed the end of one-party rule that had commenced with the end of Reconstruction, and the Civil Rights movement that resulted in the end of legal segregation. In 1963, President John F. Kennedy presented a Civil Rights bill that would ban discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in public arenas, and empowered the United States General Attorney to sue state governments that continued to enforce racial segregation in public schools. President Lyndon B. Johnson signed the Civil Rights Act on July 2, 1964 that also prevented discrimination in federal programs and established a commission on Equal Employment Opportunities (United States National Archives and Administration 2007). In 1965, Johnson signed a Voting Rights Act that made it illegal to deny or hinder the right to vote based on literacy tests, an obstacle created by Southern states to prevent African American voting. The history of Arlington County after World War II can be summarized as an era of population growth and increasing suburbanization. Interconnections with Washington, D.C. and the adjacent Maryland suburbs gained strength during this period as a result of increasing diffusion of federal agencies and employment throughout the region (Melder et al. 1983:441). The number of federal workers did not fall after World War II, as it had after World War I and new jobs were created in the region by private companies that contracted for the government or subsisted on federal spending (Melder 1983:439).

PROPERTY HISTORY

An archival and documentary study was conducted of the ±15-acre Eugene Simpson Stadium Park. The property was historically part of the land that was ceded to the federal government in 1791 to become part of the newly established District of Columbia in 1801. The Alms/Poor House was constructed in the study area around this time but continued to operate under the authority of the Alexandria Corporation Council. In 1846, the federal land south of the Potomac River was returned to Virginia and was renamed Alexandria County. Over the next century, political boundaries shifted and changed names around the study area, yet the Alms House persisted. The City of Alexandria and Alexandria County because separate entities in 1870**,** and the county was eventually renamed Arlington County in 1920 to avoid confusion. Finally, and not to cause further confusion, the land containing the study area was annexed from Arlington County in 1952 by the City of Alexandria. The Chain of Title for the property can be found in Appendix I.

The Stadium Park is composed of several lots, some not entirely within the modern property boundary. For the sake of clarity, we used the divisions found on the 1900 Map of Alexandria (Figure 12). Parcel 1 is the northeastern lot owned by Andrew Cheshire; the two five-acre lots in the southeast portion of the park were owned by the City of Alexandria (Parcel 2 and 3), the western six-acre lot was designated Parcel 4 and the 3.45-acre lot in the northwest corner of the modern park is Parcel 5.

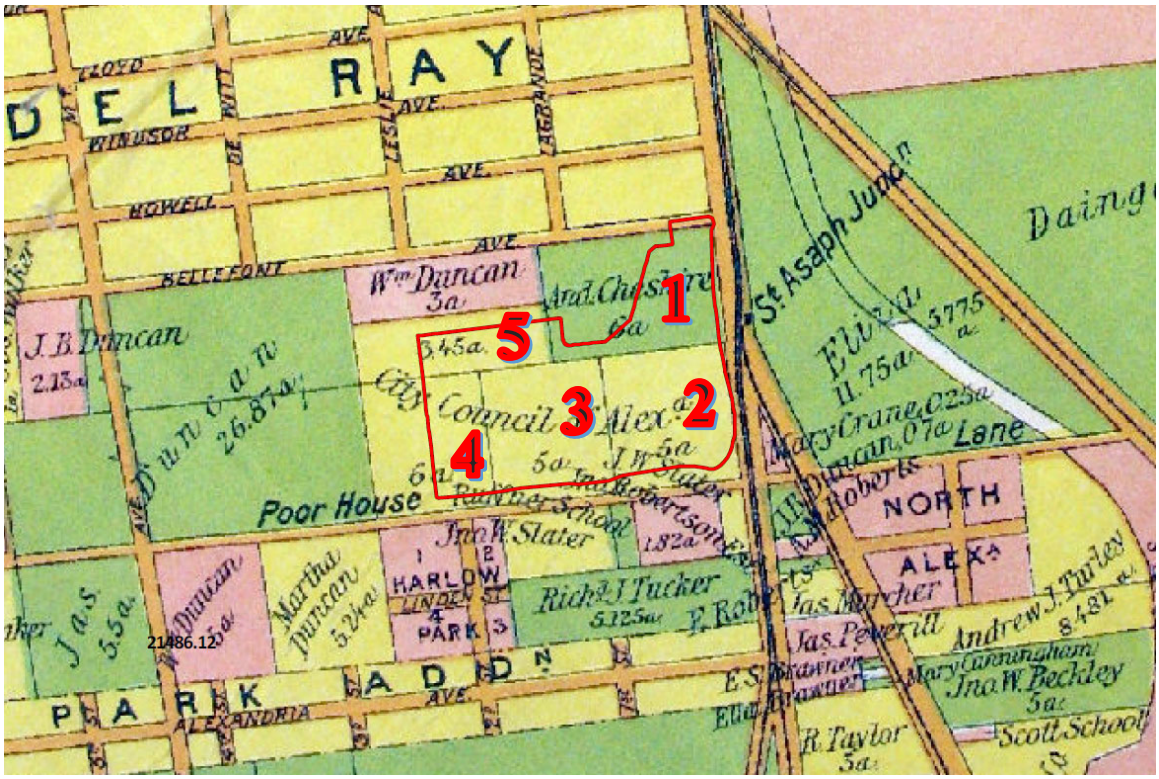

Figure 12: Study Area Parcels on 1900 Map of Alexandria County
(not to scale)

Parcels 1 & 5

All parcels which make up the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park property were originally part of the Howson 6,000-acre patent. The patent was transferred to John Alexander in 1669 (Mitchell 1988: 60). Over the next century, the tract was sold off and subdivided among the Alexander family. The property owned by Robert Alexander, son of John Alexander, was bounded by the Potomac River between Hunting Creek and Masons Island (referenced in Fairfax County Deed Book Q1: 320). As early as 1731, Robert Alexander gave 400 acres to his daughter, Parthenia. Parcel 1 and 5 continued in the Alexander family. In June 1763, an 800-acre tract adjoining the town of Alexandria was deeded to Charles Alexander from John Alexander, son of Robert Alexander (Fairfax County Deed Book E:312).

Beginning in the 1770s, the 400-acre tract that Parthenia Dade inherited from her father was subdivided (Alexander v. Pendleton, 12 U.S. 462 (1814); Alexandria County Deed Book A-T1: 91). In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, much of this land appears to have been acquired by absentee landowners who were generally interested in the lands as investment properties. By 1801, the lands surrounding Parthenia and Townshend Dade's former plantation along the Potomac River had dwindled from 400 acres to only 22.5 acres.

On April 3, 1778, Parthenia Dade and three of her unmarried daughters (Catherine Dade, Behethland Dade and Elizabeth Dade) sold the 400-acre tract that Parthenia had inherited from her father to William Hartshorne (see Fairfax County Deed Book Q:320 and Q:444).

William Hartshorne (1742-1816) was born in Burlington County, N.J., the son of Hugh Hartshorne and Hannah Pattison (Monmouth County Historical Association n.d.). Hartshorne was a Quaker who, circa 1767, was in business for himself in Antigua and, by 1769, in Philadelphia. Between 1773 and 1775, he moved his family to Alexandria (Monmouth County Historical Association n.d.). In early 1775, he partnered with local merchant John Harper and, in the 1780s, established his own general store where he sold a variety of imported manufactured goods and purchased local agricultural products. In the 1790s, Hartshorne constructed a mill at his Strawberry Hill plantation on the outskirts of town and, by 1803, he moved his residence to the plantation (Crothers 2005: 48). He served in Alexandria's government as tax commissioner and surveyor of the streets and as a member of the town council in the 1780s and early 1790s (Crothers 2005: 48). Hartshorne also became active in the Quaker movement opposing slavery (Crothers 2005: 62).

Throughout his life in Alexandria, Hartshorne invested heavily in local real estate, at one time owning 18 town lots and other property in the surrounding countryside. The Dade property was likely a speculative purchase as Hartshorne sold it just over a year after its purchase, on May 22, 1779, to Jacob Harman. The specific deed or deeds conveying the property from Hartshorne to Harman appears to have been lost; however, the transaction is described in subsequent deeds for the property (Fairfax County Deed Book Q:320 and Q:444).

Parcel 1 was sold on November 23, 1811, by Charles and Mary Alexander to Jacob Hoffman (Arlington County Deed Book 2:30 [U:519]). The lot contained 6 acres and was bounded by the Poor House property and a Lane (now Bellefonte Ave). Jacob Hoffman sold the property to his brother, George Hoffman in 1824 for $1200 (Arlington County Deed Book 3:10 [N2:312]). George Hoffman was a resident of Baltimore, Maryland and was likely not occupying the land. A decade later, Henrietta Hoffman, widow of George Hoffman and still a resident of Baltimore, sold the lot to Reed Cross for $600 (Arlington County Deed Book 4:20).

According the 1850 census records, Reed and Sarah Cross lived in the town of Alexandria, where he ran a livery stable. Cross's interest in the property may have been connected to its location across from a horse racing track that lay on the north side of present-day Bellefonte Avenue. Given that he worked with horses at his livery stable in town, Cross may have been involved in racing horses and in the operation of the track as well. Map evidence suggests that by 1861, Cross erected a building on the property near what is now Bellefonte Avenue. The building may have been a tenant house, or perhaps a stable.

The widow and daughter of Reed Cross, Sarah W. Cross and Ann C. Plummer sold the land to Christopher Hyde in 1864 (Arlington County Deed Book 8:434 [W:550]). The 1860 census shows Christopher Hyde, a gardener, living in Alexandria with his wife Margaret and three children Christopher and Margaret Hyde were both born in Germany, but their three children, Christopher, George and Jinny, were all born in Virginia. By 1870, only George and Hannah were still living on the property, which was valued at $200.

Christopher Hyde was again described as a gardener; he likely grew vegetables on the six-acre property for sale in the town of Alexandria or Washington, D.C.

The Hopkins map of 1878 identifies the residence as that of "Geo. Hyde," suggesting that by 1878, Christopher Hyde may have died and bequeathed the property to his son (Figure 13). According to the 1880 population census, George Hyde lived in the Jefferson District of Alexandria County with his mother, Margaret. The census-taker listed George Hyde's occupation as "Market Gardener."

In the 1860s and 1870s, the property was the subject of several court cases that appear to be over title to the land. On May 7, 1881, Francis Shurman, a trustee for the property, sold the approximately six-acre property to Andrew Cheshire (Arlington County Deed Book E4:444). Andrew Cheshire was married to Mary Penn, the daughter of Walter and Mary Penn, on 18 March 1869 (Pippenger 1994a:41). In 1880, Andrew Cheshire's parents, James and Margaret Cheshire, were living with the couple and their five children, Grace (10), Henry (8), Margaret (7), May (5) and Julia (1). Census records indicate that Cheshire lived on North Prince Street and later on King Street; his occupation was recorded as a "Furniture Wagon" in the 1870 and 1880 census and as a "City Wagon" in the 1910 census.

Two buildings appear on the 1894 Hopkins Map, during Cheshire's ownership within the study area (see Figure 10). The buildings are near the corner of the turnpike road and Bellefonte Avenue. Since Cheshire was not living on Parcel 1, it is likely that the buildings on his property were used for commercial purposes, such as the storage of wagons.

An 1894 report in the Alexandria Gazette described the extension of the electric Railroad through the property of the Poor House and Andrew Cheshire. The realignment of the new roadbed encroached on the Poor House property; the City required the railroad company to repair all damages. Andrew Cheshire received $600 for allowing the track to pass through his land (AG 1894). In 1903, Cheshire sold the six-acre lot to Norman Call, who worked as a land agent for the Washington-Southern Railroad Company (Arlington County Deed Book 107:470).

The expansion of the railroad property was completed soon after Cheshire sold his land. The Potomac Yard extended into the eastern portion of the property, taking up most of the modern park boundaries. In the mid-20th century, rowhouses were constructed along E Duncan Ave and on an additional side street wedged between E Duncan Ave and the Potomac Yard Property (Figure 14). The two-story brick rowhouses along E Duncan Ave are still standing today. The rowhouse on the side street were purchased by the City of Alexandria in 1971/1972 and demolished (Alexandria Court Records). The property is now within the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park boundaries.

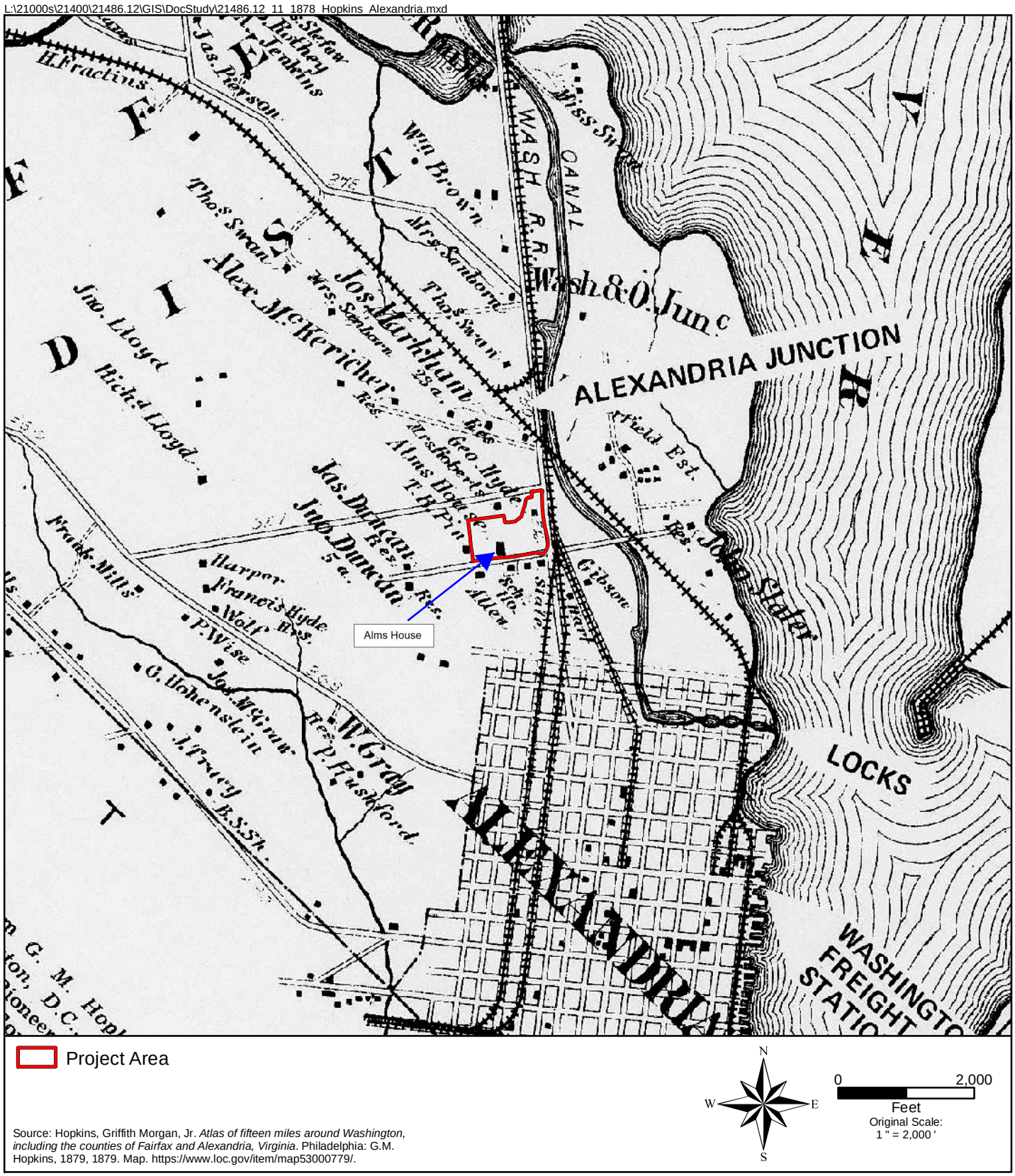

Figure 13: 1878 Hopkins Map, Alexandria, VA

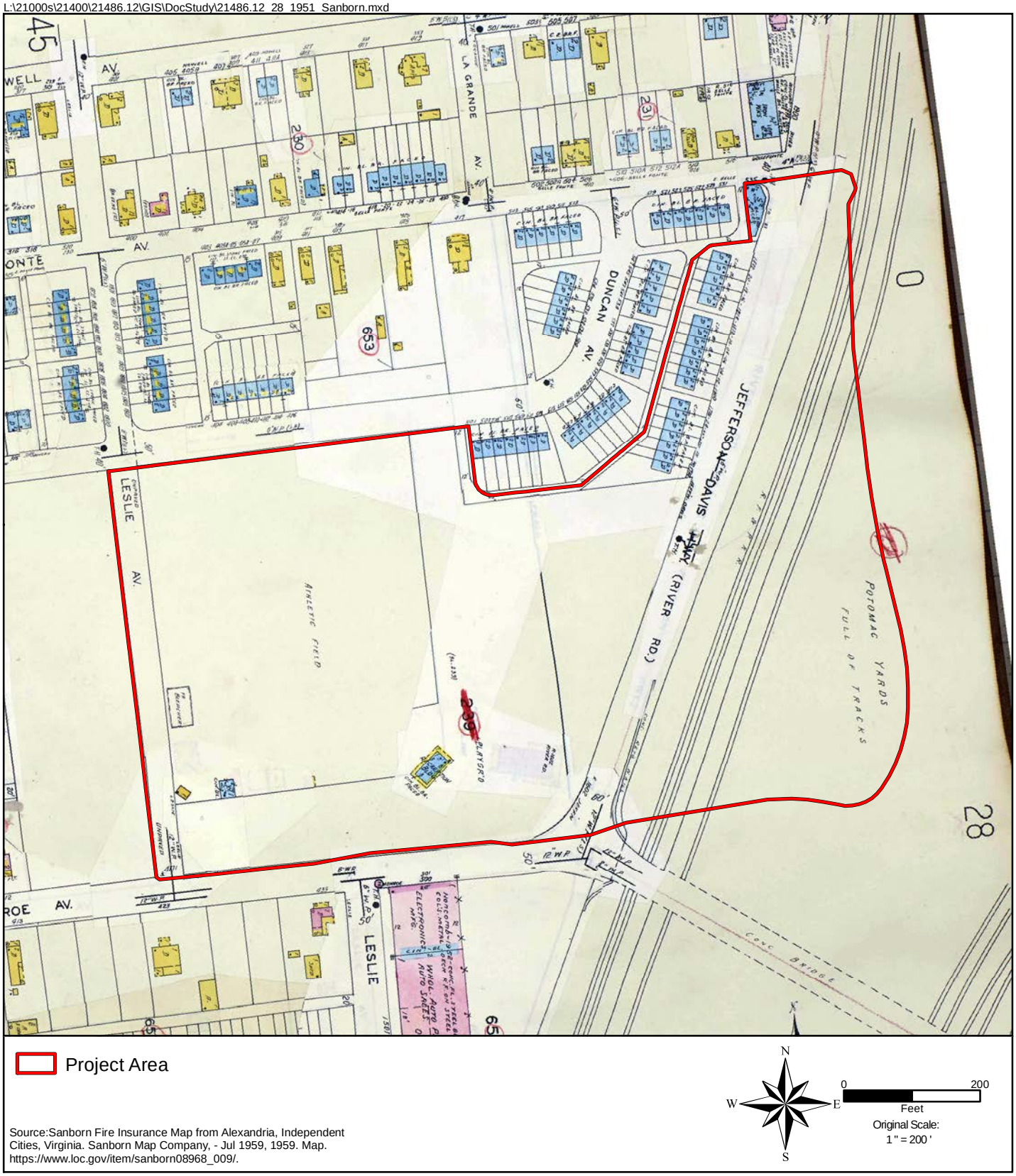

Figure 14: 1959 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map

Like Parcel 1, Parcel 5 was originally part of the land owned by Charles Alexander. Prior to the mid-19th century, the property was part of an approximately 6-acre lot north of the Poor House lot and south of Bellefonte Ave (see Figure 12). The 6-acre lot was purchased by William Yeaton in 1855 from commissioner F.L. Smith of the City of Alexandria (referenced in Arlington County Deed Book 7:228 [R3:444]). The lot was then subdivided by Yeaton into a 3-acre lot fronting Bellefonte Ave, and a 3.45-acre lot to the south of it. The 3-acre lot was sold to James Green and is not within the modern park boundaries (Arlington County Deed Book 7:228 [R3:444]). Parcel 5, the 3.45-acre was combined with Parcel 4 in 1856 when Yeaton sold both lots the Tobias A. and James A. Stoutenburgh (Arlington County Deed Book 6:362 [N3:368]).

Parcels 2, 3, & 4

Many of the 18th century deeds for Parcels 2, 3, and 4 were not located, are missing or have been destroyed for the City owned property; however, the transaction history of the property is recorded in a later deed located in Fairfax County Deed Book Q1:320. The parcel was originally part of Robert Alexander's 6,000-acre tract, bounded by the Potomac River between Hunting Creek and Masons Island. Four hundred acres of that land was given to Parthenia Alexander when she married her first husband, Dade Massey Jr., on January 17, 1731. After the death of her first husband in 1735, Parthenia married Townshend Dade in 1736 and resided on their property by 1739 (Pippenger 1990). The 400-acre property was part of a land dispute which was not resolved until 1814 [*Alexander v. Pendleton* 12 U.S. 462-463 (1814)]. The confusion of land claims is perhaps why Charles Alexander, grandson of Robert Alexander and heir to his father's, John Alexander, land, conveyed the same 400 acres to Parthenia and her new husband on December 3, 1776.

After Townshend Dade's death, the property was left to Parthenia and her four daughters: Catherine, Behethland, Elizabeth, and Margaret. They sold the land to William Hartshorne on May 18 and 19, 1778 for £4950. Hartshorne invested heavily in local real estate, including at one point 18 lots in Alexandria along with Dade Plantation property. Parcels 2, 3, and 4 were on the northern boundary of this property.

At the request of William Hartshorne in 1779, a strip of land stretching from the Potomac River westward across the "main road" and the study area was subdivided into 23 lots (Figure 14), with the majority of the regular lots containing 5 acres and 10 reaches (Hustings Court Book). Located on the northwest corner of the intersection of what late became Route 1 and Monroe Avenue, Lot #10 was associated or owned by William Hartshorne; the names of William Hunter (Lot #12) and Robert McCrae (Lot #14) were noted on the two adjacent parcels to the west. The 1845 Ewing map of the town of Alexandria shows these roughly square lots along both sides of Poorhouse Lane that were laid out in 1779 survey. The Poor House is depicted on the second lot west of the turnpike.

William Hartshorne was a prominent figure in Alexandria. In early 1775, he partnered with local merchant John Harper and, in the 1780s, established his own general store where he sold a variety of imported manufactured goods and purchased local agricultural products.

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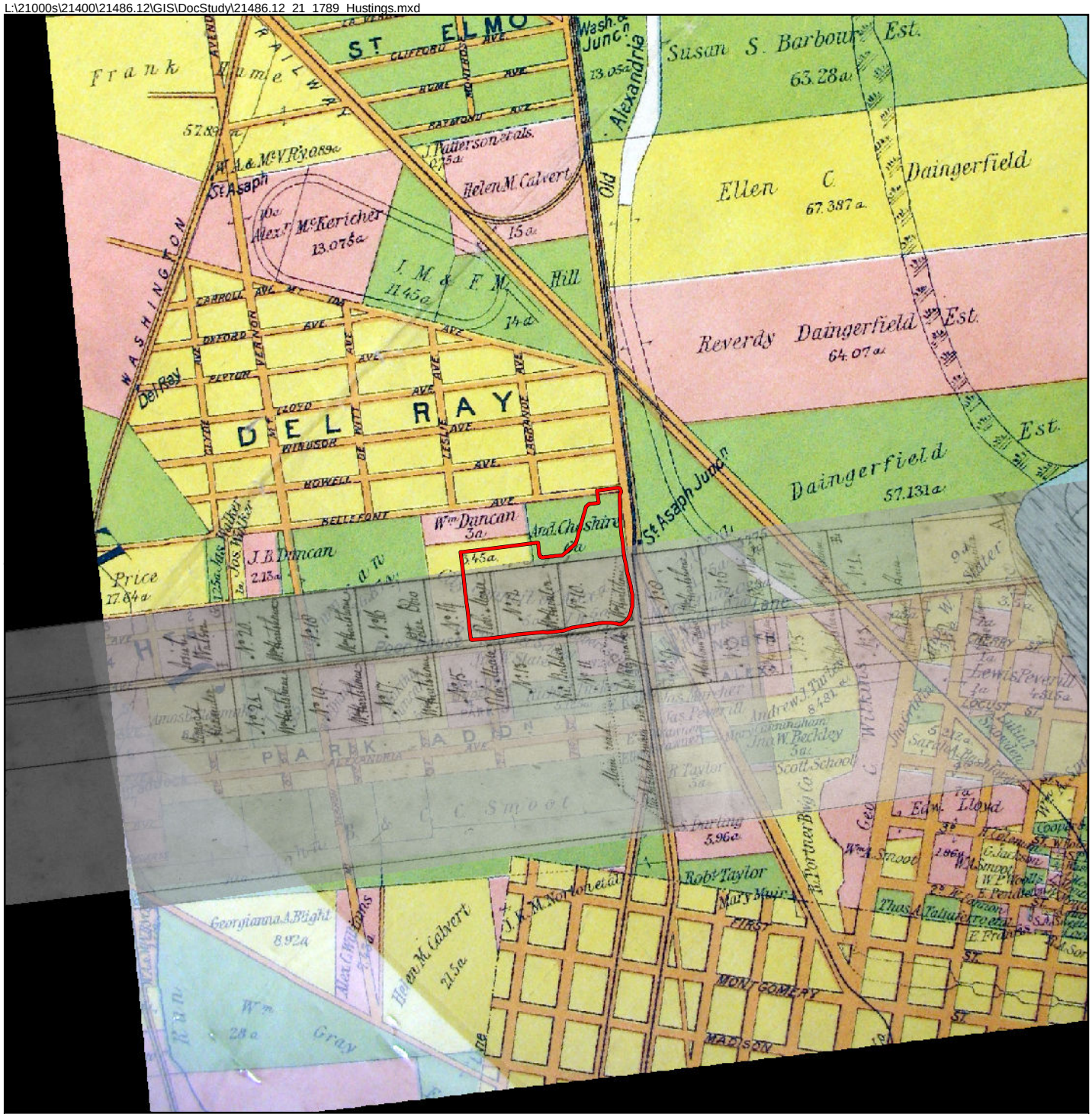

Map Source: Howell and Taylor. Map of Alexandria County, Showing Ownership, 1900. Map of Alexandria County for the Virginia Title Company, 1900 from the Alexandria Library Special Collections, Map Drawer 6, Hustings Book, 7c

Figure 15: 1789 Hustings, City of Alexandria, VA

In the 1790s, Hartshorne constructed a mill at his Strawberry Hill plantation on the outskirts of town and, by 1803, he moved his residence to the plantation (Crothers 2005: 48). He served in Alexandria's government as tax commissioner and surveyor of the streets and as a member of the town council in the 1780s and early 1790s (Crothers 2005: 48). Hartshorne also became active in the Quaker movement opposing slavery (Crothers 2005: 62).

Like many subdivisions of land on the outskirts of town, the parcels along Poorhouse Lane on both sides of the turnpike were probably used to grow food for town residents. The small size of these subdivided lots suggests that even as early as 1807, landowners in the area anticipated that a small community might develop at the intersection of Poorhouse Lane and the turnpike. By 1850, three roads intersected in this area. Just north of Poorhouse Lane, a new road continued straight into the west part of Alexandria, entering the town at Patrick Street, while the old route of the Washington and Alexandria Turnpike, which entered Alexandria at Washington Street, angled off to the southeast (Stephenson 1845: p. 45). Despite its location within this transportation corridor north of Alexandria, this area remained sparsely settled at the time of the Civil War. Maps from the Civil War era show no buildings on the east side of the turnpike in the vicinity of Poorhouse Lane. The Alexandria Poorhouse continued to occupy the northwest corner of the intersection of the turnpike and Poorhouse, and only one dwelling appears to have been constructed at the intersection's southwest corner prior to 1860.

The remnant boundaries of several original lots are visible on the 1900 Map of Alexandria County, which shows the City Corporation of Alexandria owing the three lots totaling 16-acres on the north side of Poor House Lane, and a fourth adjacent lot to the north containing 3.45-acres (see Figure 15). If the lots laid out in the 1845 Ewing map (see Figure 5) correspond accurately with the 1900 Map, then Parcel 2 would correspond to Lot #10, Parcel 3 to Lot #12, and Parcel 4 to Lot #14. It can be assumed that Parcel 2 and Parcel 3 made up the core of the Alms House property prior to expansion of the railroad.

The 1900 map also shows one of the first planned neighborhood developments in this area, known as Park Addition (see Figure 14). George Videtto had purchased this linear lot in 1891 and laid out 25 by 120-foot lots on both sides of Alexandria Avenue (Potomac Historical Association 2021). The development failed to sell lots and after the financial crisis of 1893, defaulted. Eventually houses were constructed on several lots, but the three easternmost lots were incorporated into Potomac Yard.

In 1903, the city sold a 5.052-acre parcel of land (Parcel 2), "being a part of that tract of land commonly known as the Alms House tract" to the Washington Southern Railway Company for $1,250 per acre for a total of $6,315. The accompanying plat shows the current and the proposed new alignment of the Southern Railway tracks (Figure 16). Andrew Cheshire's land is depicted on the northern boundary of the Alms Tract and the Ruffner School and land owned by John Slater and the Estate of John Robertson are along the south side of Poor House Lane. The remaining portion of the Alms House tract was surveyed in 1926 for the City Council and shows the Alms House building adjacent to the

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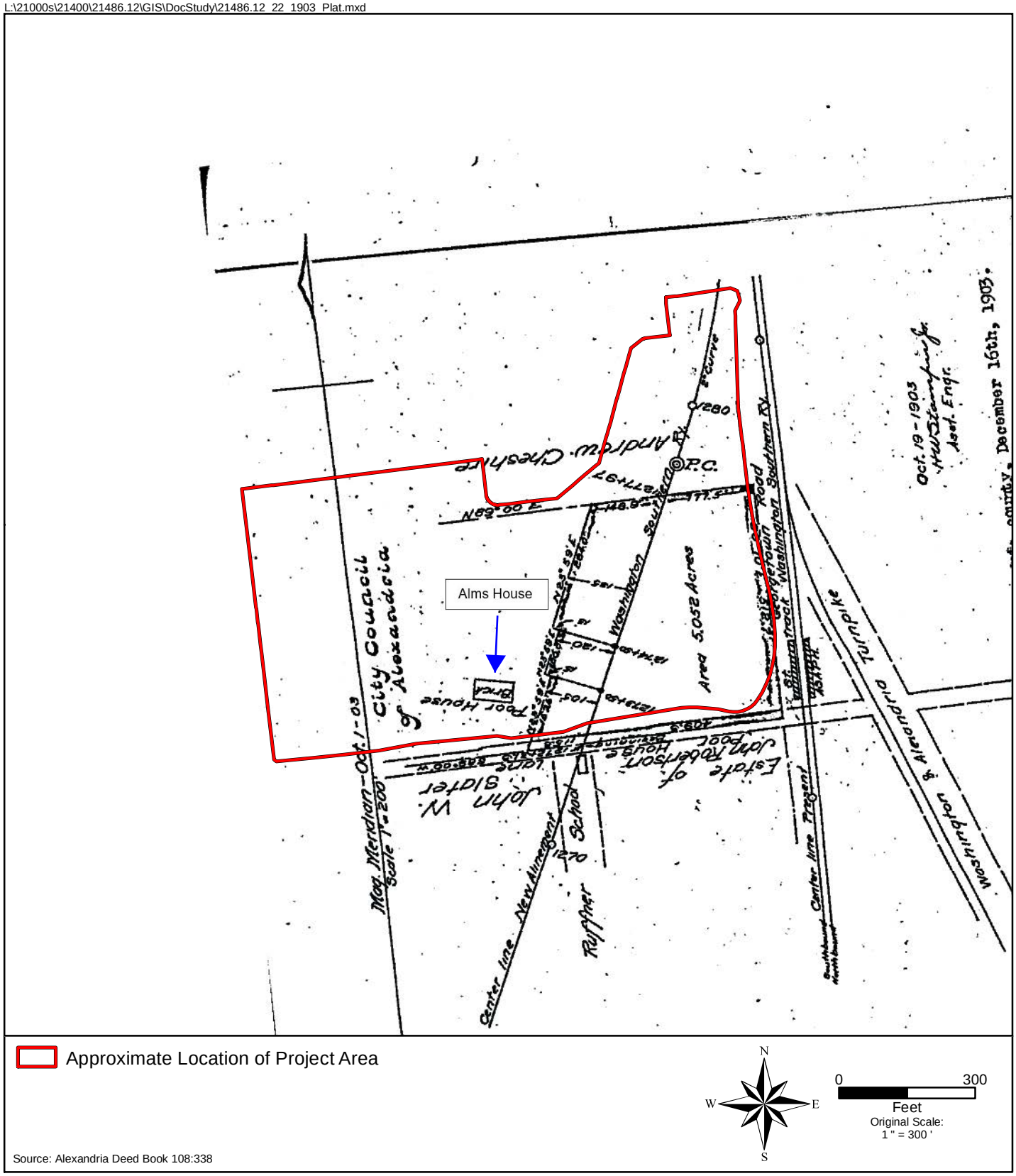

Figure 16: 1903 Washington Southern Railway Company Plat

newly realigned Washington and Alexandria Turnpike and Washington Avenue (Poor House Lane) (Figure 17). The realignment shifted the Washington Avenue (historically Poor House Lane, now Monroe Avenue) and the Georgetown Road/Washington & Alexandria Turnpike. The access Road to the Alexandria & Washington Turnpike was shifted west, closer to the Alms House (see Figure 17). Hattie Duncan's property is shown to the west of the ±14-acre lot, but Cheshire's property had been purchased by the Washington Southern Railway Company, as part of the Potomac Yard Consolidation (Figure 18).

The eastern portion of the study area remained a paved road and rail tracks for most of the 20th century. The 1970s and 1980s saw a decline in business at Potomac Yard, and in 1992 operations ceased. Transportation focus shifted from the transportation of goods to the transportation of people such as commuters using automobiles, buses, and the Metro lines. To accommodate the growing demand, Richmond Hwy was realigned close to its original alignment just east of the study area. The 2006 and 2009 aerials show these alterations (Figures 19 and 20).

Parcel 4 is located within the western portion of the modern park boundary (see Figure 10). When subdivided by Hartshorne, the land containing Parcel 4 (Lot #14) comprised of a six-acre lot fronting Poor House Lane. In the early 19th century, this land was owned by Charles Mankin and then was inherited by his son William Mankin. In 1845, William Mankin sold a nine-acre lot to his son, also named Charles Mankin, for $1800. Charles Mankin in turn put the property in trust for his mother, Dorcus Mankin (Arlington County Deed Book 5:186; 5:199). While the boundaries for the nine-acre lot are not given in the 1845 description, it is possible that the additional three-acres included Parcel 5.

The Mankin family sold the six-acre lot of land fronting Poor House Lane to William C. and Mary F. Yeaton on May 27, 1852 (Arlington DB 6:362 [N3:368]). A lawyer by trade, William Yeaton is best known for designing George tomb at Mount Vernon. According to the 1850 census records, his real estate was worth $4000. In 1870, his real estate property was worth $8000. Among his landholdings include the Lord Fairfax House at 607 Cameron Street, which he constructed in 1816 (Alexandria Times 2012). Yeaton sold the land containing Parcels 4 and 5 to Tobais A. and James A. Stoutenburgh on March 3, 1856 (Arlington County Deed Book T3:103 [6:362]). The two parcels, sold as one nine-acre lot, were sold twice more before falling into City ownership in 1884 (Arlington County Deed Book F4:468).

For a brief time in the mid-20th century the Poor House property was privately owned. In 1928 the City Council approved the sale of the property to Robert C. and Hattie Frame. The property comprised of 13.9874 acres, a conglomeration of Parcel 2, 3, 4, and 5 (Arlington County Deed Book 285:379). When the Frames defaulted on their mortgage in 1935, the property reverted yet again to the city.

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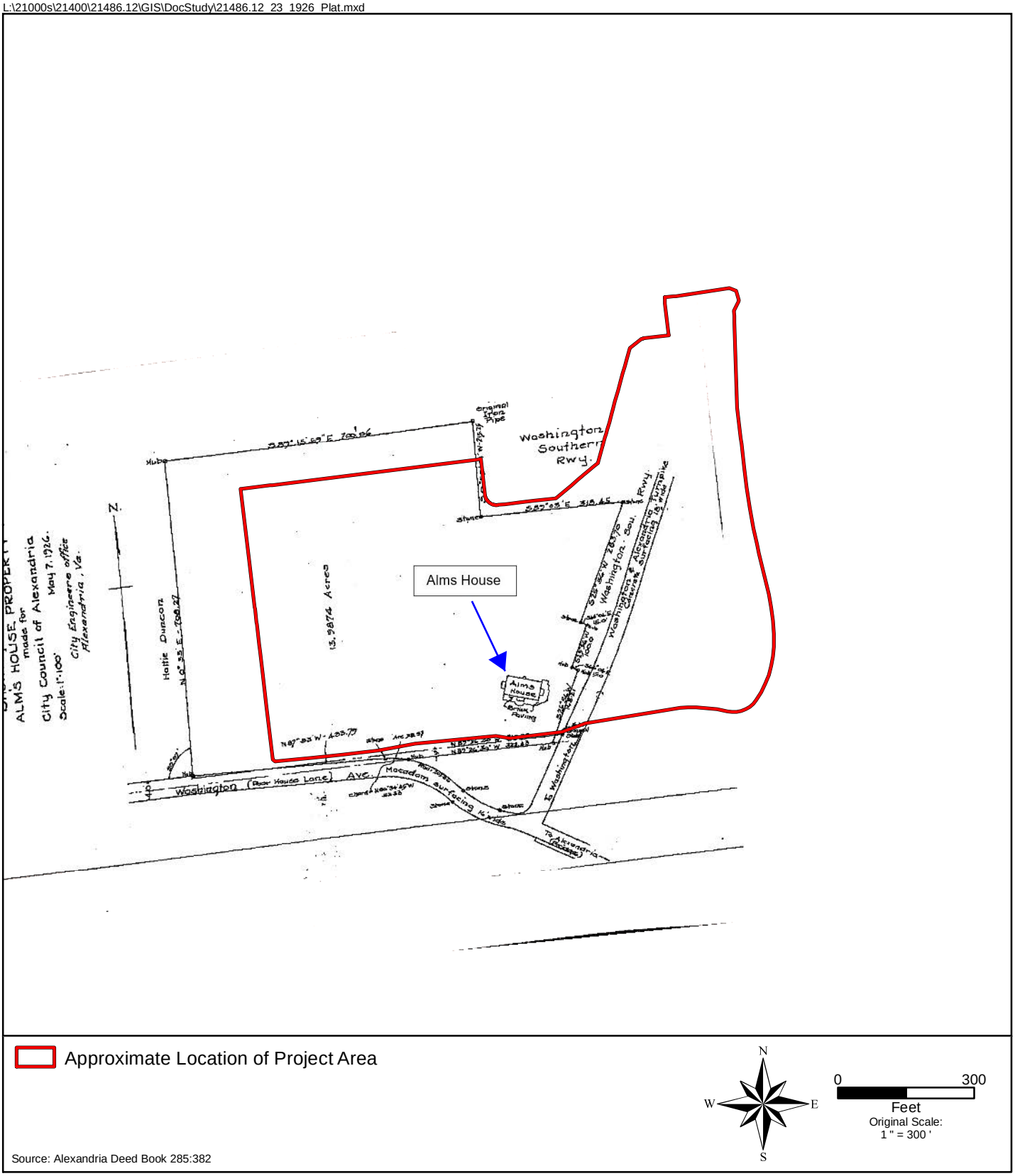

Source: Alexandria Deed Book 285:382

Figure 17: 1926 Plat Showing Survey of Alms House Property

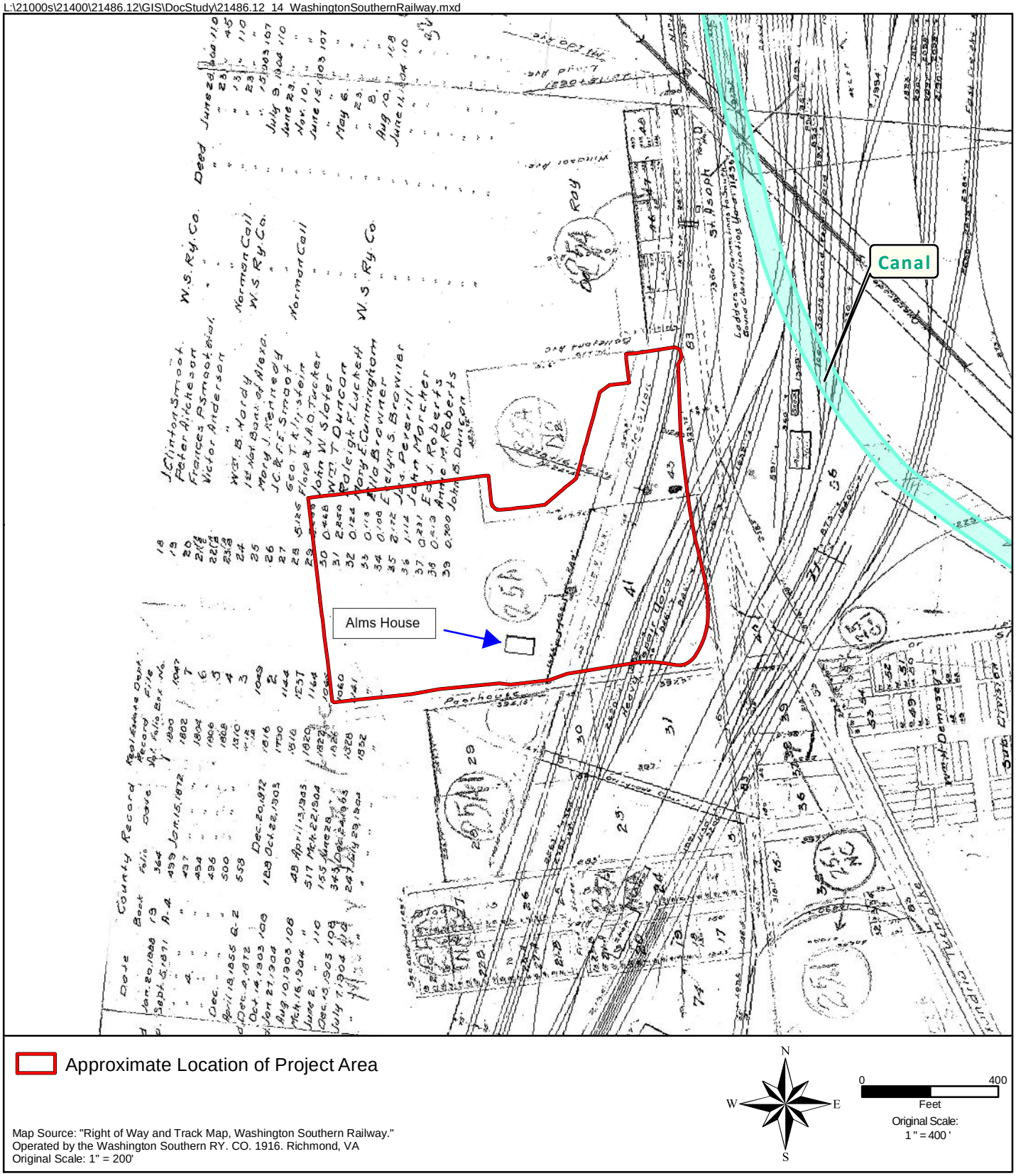

Figure 18: 1916 Right of Way and Track Map
Washington Southern Railway

Figure 19: Spring 2006 Natural Color Imagery

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Figure 20: March 2009 Natural Color Imagery

Alexandria Poor House

One of Alexandria's "forgotten" landmarks was the Alms House, or Poor House, established ca. 1801. This stately two and a half story Georgian style building was located along Poorhouse Lane (now E. Monroe Avenue), outside of the 19th century town boundaries. Its mission was to provide shelter, clothing, and food to the indigent, but also served as a workhouse and farm. The Alms House persisted through several changes in political boundaries, two major wars and outbreaks of disease. The building remained in use until ca.1928 and stood until the 1950s.

Figure 21: Alexandria Almshouse, 1927
Grigg-Lamond Collection, Alexandria Library Special Collections

Primary documents and records associated with the Poor House have survived and are housed at the Alexandria Archives, the Special Collections Branch of the Alexandria Library, the Library of Virginia, the University of Virginia, and other institutions. The documents include the Accounts of the Alms House and Other Facilities of the Poor, 1813-1876 and various council records, court records, and correspondence from the Town of Alexandria, City of Alexandria, and Alexandria County. Federal census records, deeds, newspaper articles, historic maps and photographs also disclose clues on the activities and residents of the Poor House.

These primary documents have been the subject of scholarly research and articles by Ruth M. Ward (1980), James D. Watkinson (2000), Mary Ellen Henry (2006), and Timothy Dennée (2008). Our reexamination of these primary records and secondary source during this archival study has provided limited new information presented below.

> The Poor and Workhouse remained in place on its fourteen acres until the encroachment of the railroad ate away its surrounding fields…The city acquiesced in its demise in 1926 when the surrounding counties joined forces in building a district home in Manassas to serve a dwindling population [Henry 2006: 44].

How did this institution survive for roughly 126 years? In her dissertation research on Virginia Almshouses, Mary Ellen Henry argues that the population size of Alexandria, which did not exceed 10,000 until 1870, and the relatively low number of "inmates" served by the Poor House throughout its existence, contributed to its longevity (Henry 2006:16; 44). The number of inmates served between 1837 and 1844 ranged between 41 and 45, and remained within that range in 1862, 1865 and 1882 (Dennée 2008). Another contributing factor, according to Henry, is that the institution itself appears to have served as Alexandria's "compassionate" response to seeing to the needs of the poor, rather than serving as a form of social control (2006:16; 19).

Prior to the American Revolution, responsibility for caring for Virginia's poor rested with Anglican parishes. However, after the British were defeated, the Anglican Church was disestablished, and the responsibility shifted to the local governments (U.S. Department of the Interior 1937; Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002; Henry 2006). Alexandria appointed Overseers of the Poor for each of the four town wards but continued to care for the poor at previously established church facilities until 1800, when the Corporation Council established the Poor and Work House by legislative act. The Keeper of the Poor was charged to:

> Receive and take charge of all poor persons sent to the poorhouse by order of the Mayor or trustees...; to take charge of and keep employed, all persons committed to the workhouse by direction of the said trustees, or any justice of the peace in the town of Alexandria, and of all slaves sent by their masters or mistresses. [Henry 2006: 26].

The main mission of the Alexandria Poor House (or Alms House) changed little over the 126 years of its operation: to provide shelter, clothing, and food to some of the town's impoverished residents; enslaved individuals (usually the elderly or disabled); and at one time, young unwed mothers *in extremis.* The Poor House also functioned as a Work House and farm, and included a Soup Kitchen, and a short-lived House of Industry, intended to teach pinning, weaving, tailoring, and shoemaking. Local courts also sentenced people, who were unable to pay imposed fines for their various petty crimes, to the workhouse in order to pay the courts back (U.S. Department of the Interior 1937; Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002; Henry 2006; Dennée 2008). During outbreaks of disease in the town, the Poor House expanded on its function as hospital for the indigent and was used as a

“quarantine facility” for smallpox and tuberculosis cases (Henry 2006: 38). Finally, Dennée (2008) argues that the last service given to the poor was the most important: burial.

The Poor House remained under Alexandria’s financial responsibility despite jurisdictional changes between Alexandria, Washington D.C., and Arlington County. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the Poor House was frequently short on funds. In the first half of the 19th century, the responsibility for requesting funds for the institution fell on the Mayor of Alexandria and Trustees of the Poor. The Alexandria City Council records contain letters from Mayor William Roberts (1831) and Mayor B. Hooe (1834) requesting more money or supplies for the Poor House. Similar notes to the City Council can be found in the following years (Alexandria City Council Records). An 1848 letter to the Council from the Trustees recommended a $50 increase in salary to the then Keeper of the Alms House, Walter Harris, for “his faithful performance of his increased duties” (Alexandria City Council Records 1848).

The ledger of Robert Hodgkin, who became keeper of the Alexandria Poor House in 1861, provides valuable information about the operation of the Poor House between 1861 and 1863. In February and March of 1862, the ledger recorded several instances of Union troops coming through the area and seeking food or even lodging at the Poor House (Miller 1992c; Ward 1980). On February 29, 1862, Hodgkin presented Colonel Suiter of the 34th New York with a bill for $18.00, presumable for food or lodging. Hodgkin noted that the bill "ought to have been in Justice $36," but unfortunately for Hodgkin, the colonel paid only $1.00 of his bill (Ward 1980: 65). In early March, Hodgkin provided "supper for 15 offices & privates" of the Henry Ward Beecher Long Island Regiment and provided beds and bedding for them in the parlor. By Hodgkin’s accounting, the regiment owed him $5.70 for the supper and $6.00 for the bedding, but "next morning Yankey hikes without pay[ing]" (Ward 1980: 65).

At the end of March 1862, Hodgkin recorded several payments received from Union soldiers who passed through the Poor House: "of Lutenant of Wisconsin Rege[ment], cash for board and lodging, $2.00, by cash tranzent [sic] solders [sic] $2.00, by cash for 2 piggs stolen, $3.00, by cash from officers & solders [sic] at sundri times, $3.12." This was the last entry in Hodgkin’s ledger about Union soldiers; it seems likely that the keeper of the Poor House grew weary of Union soldiers refusing to pay or stealing from his farm and began denying them entrance (Ward 1980: 65).

Hodgkin’s record of the operations of the Alexandria Poor House during the Civil War provides a glimpse into life at the Poor House and in the study area. Despite the disruptions to the local economy, Hodgkin was still able to purchase a variety of foodstuffs, including fresh meat, salt beef, flour, butter, bread molasses, cornmeal, herring, and pickled codfish. He also purchased "20 bushels rye for coffee" (Ward 1980: 65). These purchases supplemented the vegetables produced on the Poor House farm. In January 1862, the livestock on the farm included "three horses, two cows, one bull, and nineteen hogs" (Ward 1980: 66).

In January 1862, Robert Hodgkin prepared a list of the people, livestock, furnishings, and agricultural implements at the Poor House for submission to the "committee on the poor," which oversaw the institution. At that time, thirty-eight inmates lived at the Poor House, along with eight members of Robert Hodgkins's household. The Poor House ledger for 1861-1862 contains two sections, one for the alms house and one for the work house. According to local historian Ruth Ward, who analyzed the ledgers, "The ledger entries dealing with the work house indicate that most inmates were sent there for thirty days, although some were sentenced to six months." During the period covered by the ledger, at least two inmates of the work house, John Crisman and Kate Thompson, ran away (Ward 1980:66). In January of 1863, one inmate delivered a child at the Poor House. The ledger also mentions three deaths in 1862: James Buckhannon, an unnamed boy who drowned, and a "German who died at poor house" (Ward 1980: 65-66).

These three deaths recorded in the 1862 ledger highlight an important connection between Penny Hill cemetery and the Poor House, as many residents were interred within the city's public burial ground (Dennée 2008; Sipe 2011). A compilation of paper deaths in Alexandria from 1813-1904 reveals that Poor House residents of all ages, race and gender were buried at Penny Hill; this list is not comprehensive, even for the years that contain extant records, but serves to complement other records that tended to overlook poor and African American deaths (Dennée 2008). 128 inmates from the Poor House are listed including "Old Charley" (Nix?), who died at the Almshouse in 1844; Ann Headley in 1865; Nellie Farrell, who was admitted to the Poor House in 1840 and died at the age of 79 in 1888; Charles King, "Colored" in 1889 and two white infants with the last name Beavers, who were admitted in 1894 and died at four weeks and less than a year old (Dennée 2008). By 1900, Penny Hill was described as "neglected and…now in an unsightly condition" but had been used for pauper interments for years (Sipe 2011:85).

A deed from 1869 reflects the continued necessity of the Poor House to the town. The City of Alexandria was indebted and approved the sale of 14 city-owned properties, including the Poor House tract, the gasworks, and firehouses, to Reuben Johnston, S. Ferguson Beach, Lewis McKenzie, and David L. Smoot (Arlington County Deed Book 9:415). A condition of the deed was that the properties highlighted above, were not allowed to be resold or redeveloped. While the private owners could collect revenue on the property, they still had to be maintained for the public good. The Poor House reverted to City ownership prior to the 20th century, when the city sold off part of the property to the Washington Southern Railway Company. The almshouse was in use up until circa 1928. The remaining inmates at this time were transferred to another poor farm in Manassas; records indicate that one of transferred inmates had been at the almshouse for forty years (Ward 1980: 67).

The 1921 Sanborn Map shows two outbuildings associated with the Alms or Poor House: a small two-story brick building and a frame 1 ½ -story barn or with four one-story room additions, possible stables, on the northern and eastern sides (Figure 22). The western third of the Alms House is shown as the Superintendent's quarters, and the remaining building divided into wards. The kitchen is noted in the southwestern corner of the building.

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Source:Sanborn Fire Insurance Map from Alexandria, Independent Cities, Virginia. Sanborn Map Company, Aug, 1921. Map. https://www.loc.gov/item/sanborn08968_007/.

Figure 25: 1921 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map

A circa 1921 aerial image of Potomac Yards shows the three-building complex surrounded by agricultural fields (Figure 23 and see Figure 21). The frontage along Monroe Street appears to be fenced.

The Alms House sat on a large parcel of land which acted as an extension to the activities of the primary building. Documented in the early records of the property were outbuildings relating to domestic and agricultural activities of the Alms house. An 1894 article reporting on the construction of the railroad also noted that the garden of the Poor House would have to be extended in a different direction to make up for the loss caused by the new railroad bed (AG 1894). This report indicated that a garden originally existed on the eastern side of the building.

The presence of the poor house within the study area suggests that it became a region where Alexandrians could locate institutions that required a sizable tract of land (which was scarce within the town) as well as a region that accommodated activities that local residents did not necessarily want situated within the town itself. Likewise, while the poor house served an important function in the community, the associated farm required a sizable tract of land.

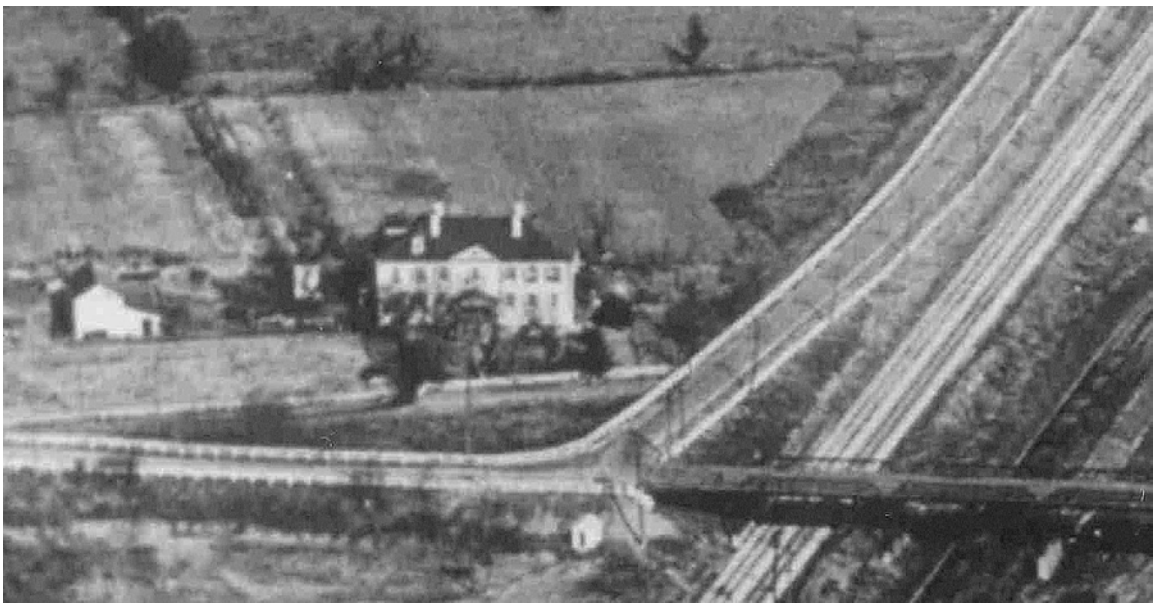

Figure 23: 1921 Photograph of Alms House Property Looking North
(Source: Jim Foley Collection)

In 1937, the main building of the Poor House was recorded under the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) with funding from the Work Progress Administration. The recordation and documentation of buildings that were in danger of demolition was one of the initial goals of HABS. The survey drawings were intended to show both existing conditions and any alterations or additions at that time (Davidson and Perschler 2003); however, it is possible that the building may have changed considerably from the days of its first construction.

The main building of the poor house was a large, two-and-a-half-story, seven-bay, Federal-style brick structure (U.S. Department of the Interior 1937; Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002). The building displayed Flemish bond brickwork and featured a hipped roof with pediment, dormers, and four interior chimneys (Figures 24 and 25). The symmetrical façade was arranged around a two-story, projecting center pavilion. The center pavilion contained an arched entrance that incorporated a fan light and sidelights; a Palladian window occupied the second story of the projecting pavilion.

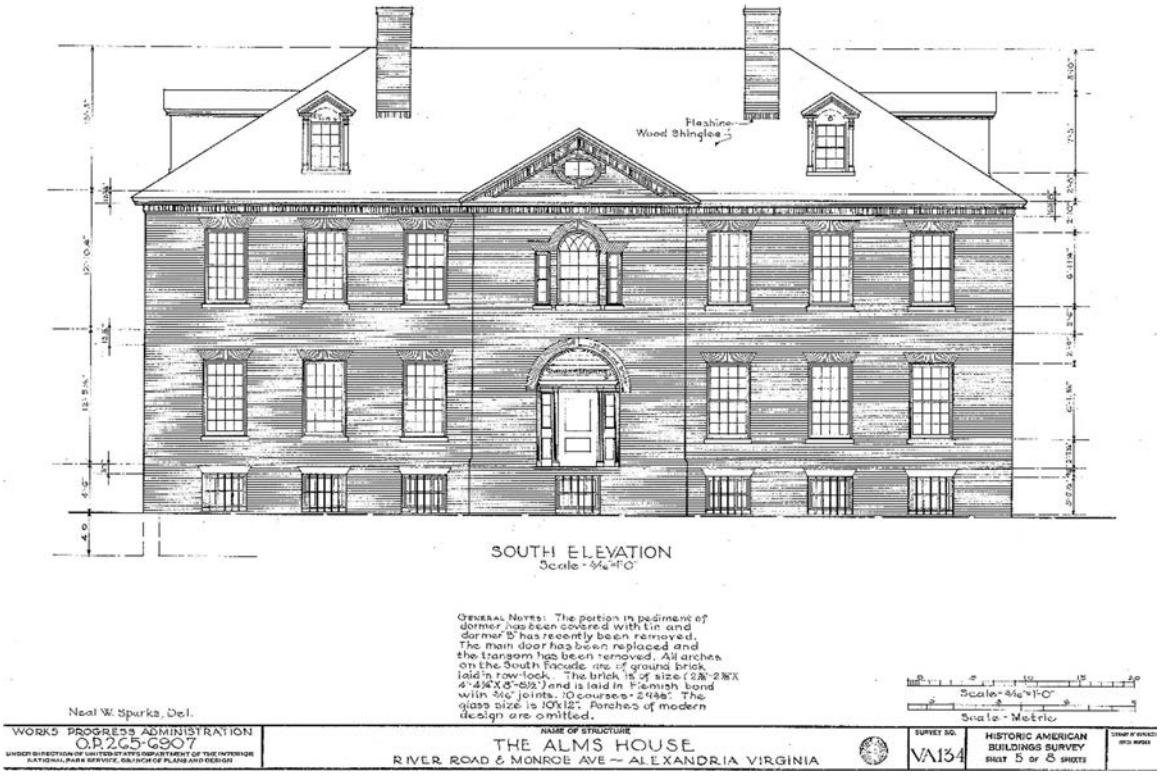

Figure 24: South Elevation of the Alms House, Alexandria, Virginia
Historic American Buildings Survey, Library of Congress, Prints and Photograph Division, Washington, D.C.

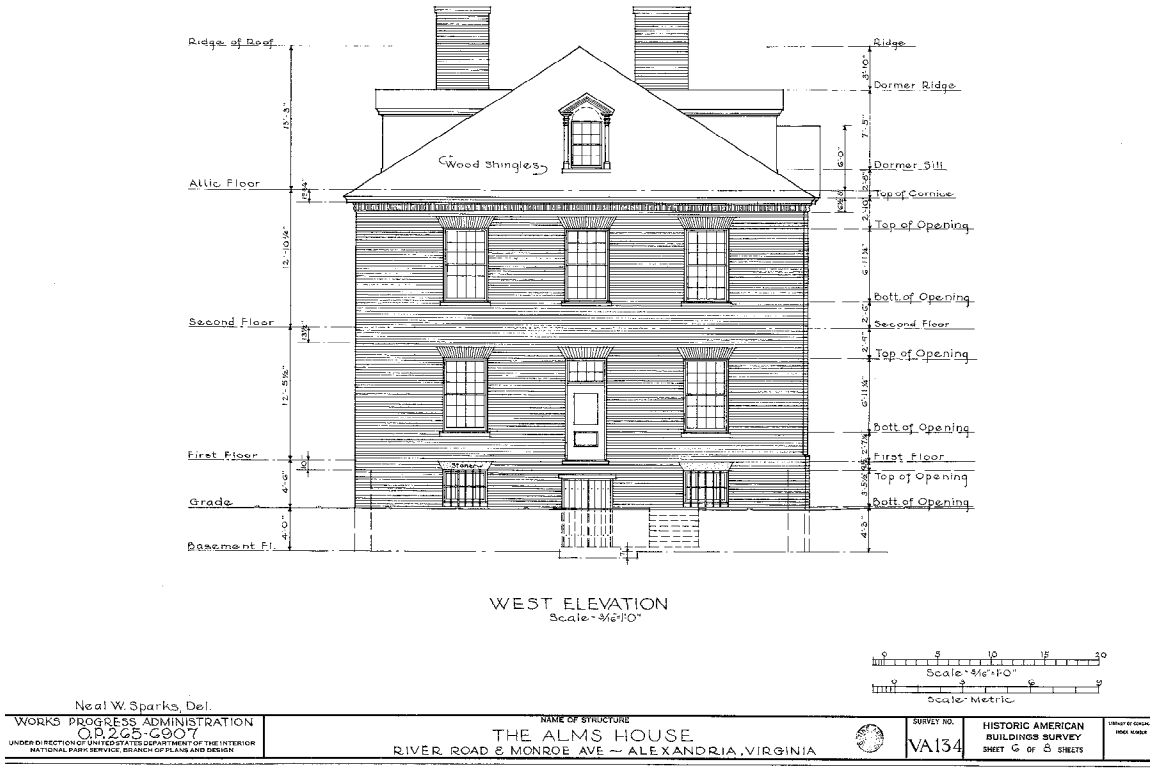

Figure 25: West Elevation of the Alms House, Alexandria, Virginia
Historic American Buildings Survey, Library of Congress, Prints and Photograph Division, Washington, D.C.

Inmates and the keeper of the poor house likely lived in this building; the interior configuration offers a glimpse of the various functions of the poor house. Henry noted that the floor plan does not offer any "specific evidence of segregation by race" although "gender and racial segregation were likely" (Henry 2006: 28).

The interior on three floors displayed a rectangular, longitudinal-hall plan with central entrance to the first floor (Figure 26). Most rooms in the basement had dirt floors, although one had wooden floors and the central hallway was laid in brick. The basement windows had exterior bars (see Figure 25), which Henry suggests was the possible location for mentally ill or dangerous inmates, but it may have been for security purposed or other reasons. Several of the rooms in the basement did not contain fireplaces.

The second floor contained 14 rooms on either side of the central rectangular hall; the four corner rooms were "suites" consisting of two rooms; the innermost ones were not heated with fireplaces (Figure 27). It is possible that these rooms were used by families or to separate genders (Henry 2006: 28). The attic had a large central room with two smaller rooms at the top of the stairs and was not heated (see Figure 27).

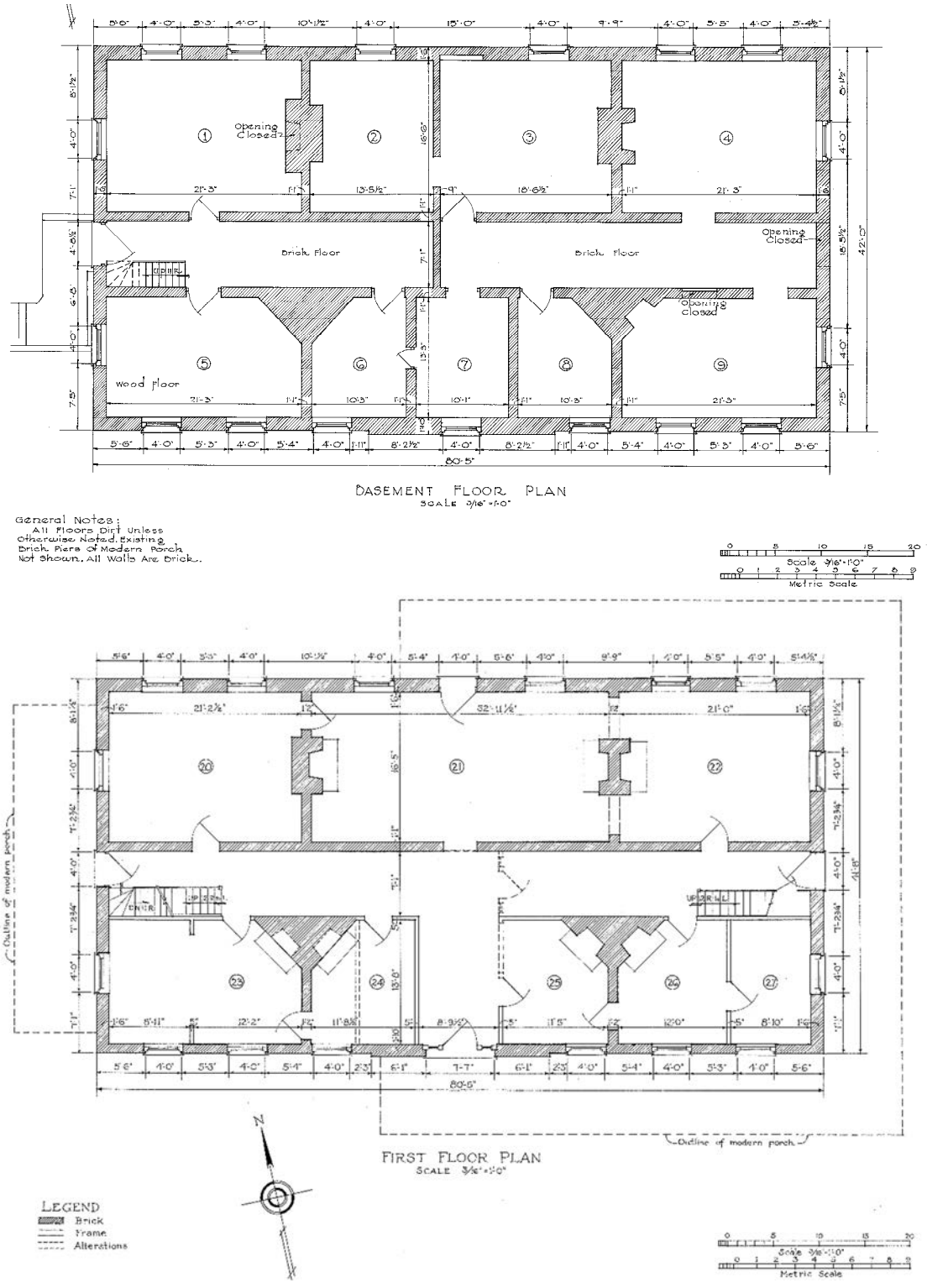

Figure 26: Basement and First Floor Plans of the Alms House, Alexandria, Virginia

Historic American Buildings Survey, Library of Congress, Prints and Photograph Division, Washington, D.C.

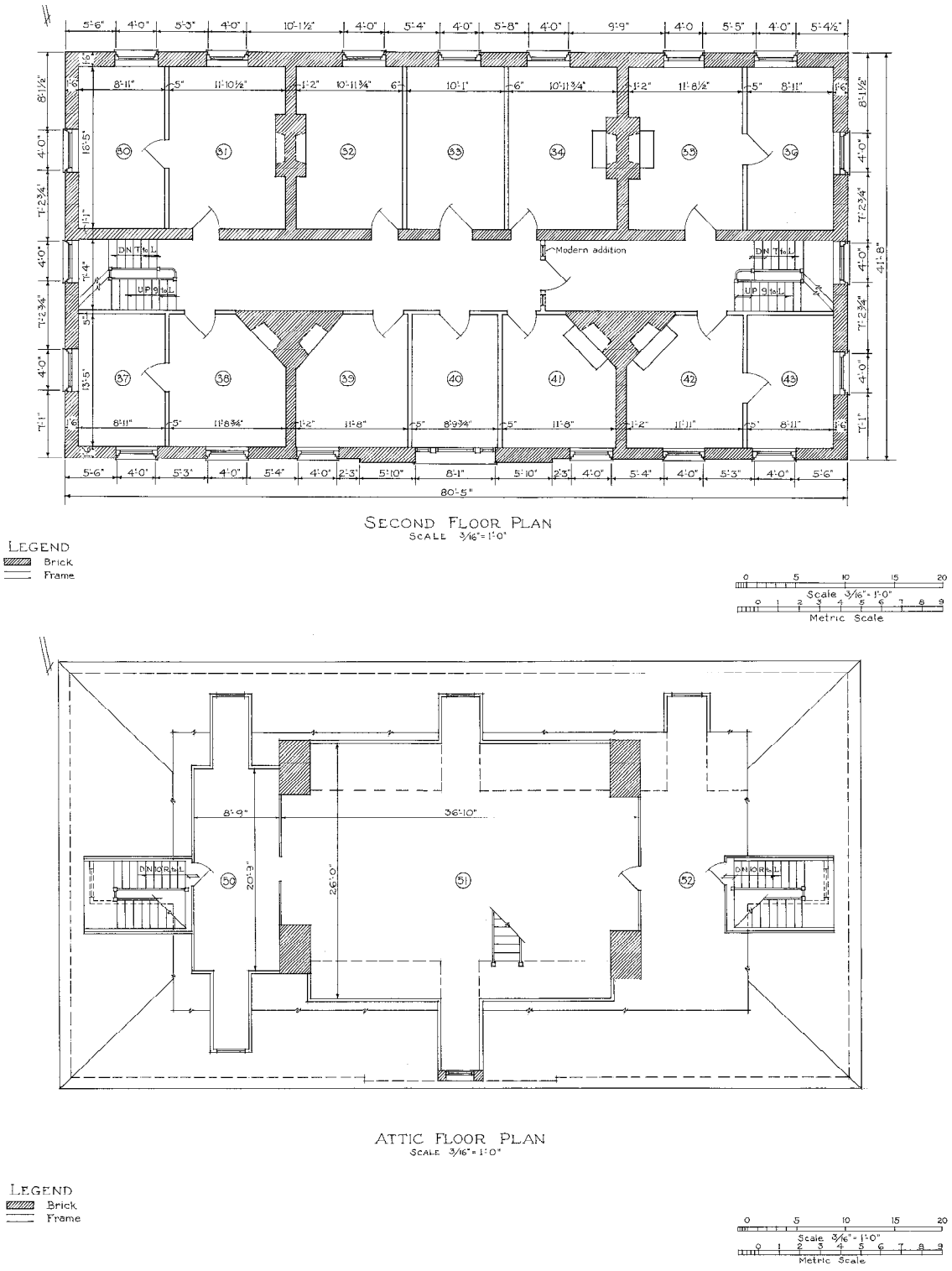

Figure 27: Second Floor and Attic Plans of the Alms House, Alexandria, Virginia

Historic American Buildings Survey, Library of Congress, Prints and Photograph Division, Washington, D.C.

Eugene Simpson Stadium

In 1928, the City Council of Alexandria sold the almshouse and surrounding property of 13.98 acres to Robert C. and Hattie Frame (Arlington County Deed Book 285:379). Frame and his wife reopened the building as a six-room hotel, but by 1935, Frame defaulted on the mortgage and the property reverted to the city. The building persisted a as the city property was transformed into a municipal park.

A 1928 copy of the 1926 plat of the Alms House property as surveyed by the City Engineer's Office shows the intended use of the Alexandria City Council for the rest of the Alms House property (Figure 28). The ±13.98-acre parcel plat is marked with a sketch showing the proposed location of football field, baseball diamond, grandstand, and locker room, while the Alms House (soon to be a hotel in 1928) is tucked in the southeastern corner of the parcel.

The land surrounding the park property was apparently subdivided as Mason and Duncan streets are shown bisecting the property from east to west and Leslie and LaGrande from north to south (see Figure 27). The proposed realignment of Washington Avenue (Poorhouse Lane – and now E. Monroe Street) with the Washington and Alexandria Turnpike (Route 1) is depicted near the Poor House. The Washington Southern Railway owns the property along Route 1 to the north, and Hattie Duncan the land to the west.

By 1941, a baseball stadium stood on the grounds of the former poorhouse, which was demolished by the mid-1950s; a 1957 article on St. Asaph Junction Station noted that the Poor House "disappeared a few years ago" (Shivers 1957; Griffin 1984). The 1941 Sanborn shows a two-story grandstand in the southwestern corner of the athletic field, flanked by frame bleachers and two small wooden sheds nearby (Figure 29). The unpaved portion of Leslie Avenue forms the western border of the property. Interestingly, the City dog pound, consisting of a one-story rectangular frame building and a shed, is in the southeastern corner of the field (see Figure 29); the pound is roughly in the same location as the existing dog park today.

The Alms House is shown in 1941 less than a hundred feet to the east of the dog pound and not far from the intersection of E. Monroe Avenue with River Road. The 2.5-story building is listed as vacant; the frame porch depicted in the HABS drawings is also depicted (see Figure 26: First Floor plan).

A 1949 historic aerial shows a baseball field in the western half of the study area, with a slightly larger bleachers; the dog pound building and the almshouse are also present. (Figure 30). Some records suggest that the almshouse was used as storage by the Recreation Department (Alexandria Almshouse Trail Sign).

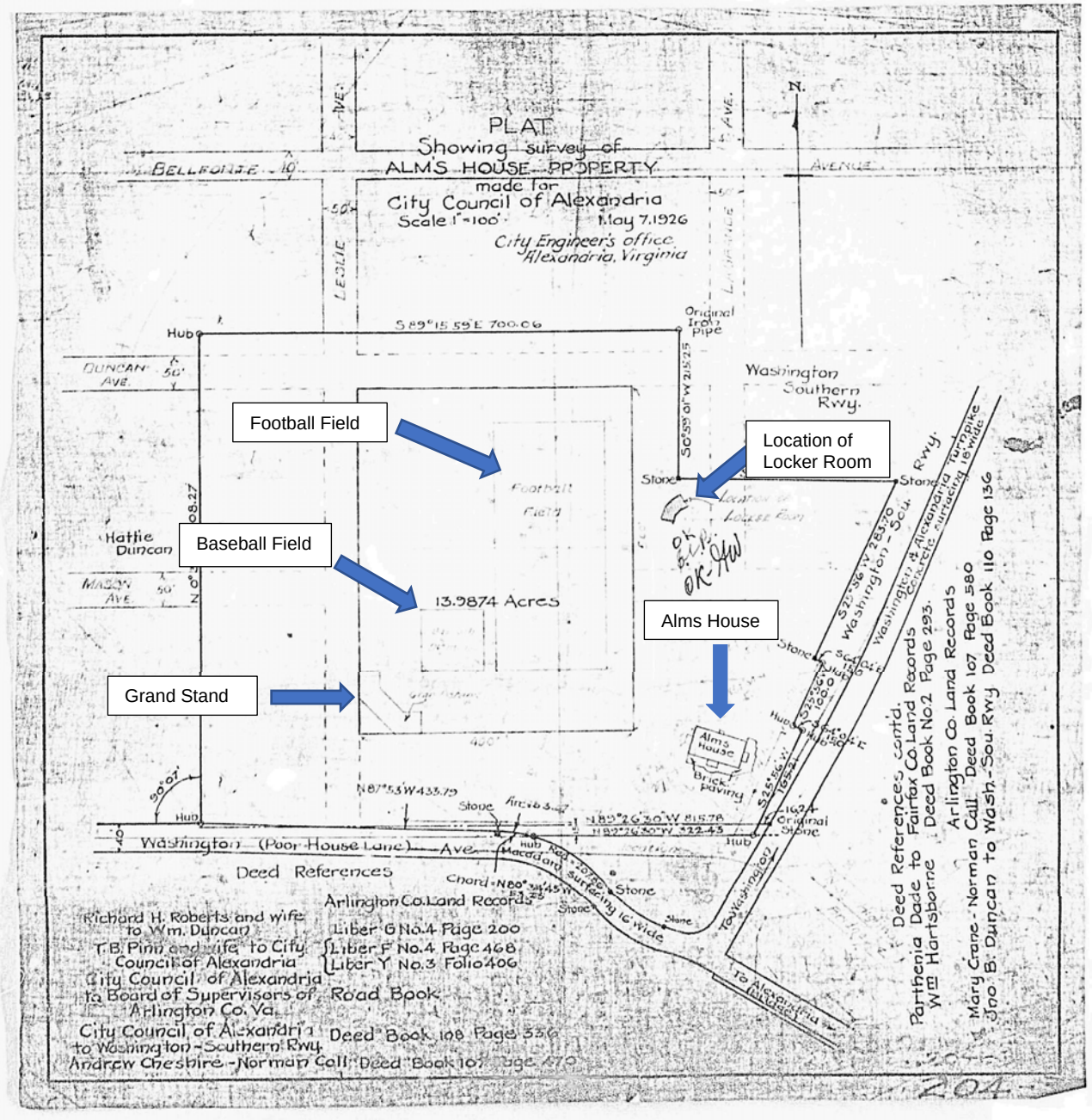

Figure 28: 1928 Plat with Sketch of Ballpark
(not to scale)

Figure 28: 1941 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map

Figure 29: 1949 Black and White Imagery

The recreational use of the park became increasingly popular as the 20th century progressed. A 1951 Universal News clip documented a pre-season game of the All-American Girl Baseball League held in at the baseball stadium (Figure 31). The reel includes images of Dorothy Schroeder, the only woman to play in all 12 season of the league (Czarr 2014).

Figure 31: All-American Girl Baseball League

The All-American Girl Baseball League greets the spring with a pre-season game between the "Daisies" and the "Belles." On Left: Fort Wayne Daisy Patricia Scott pitches against the Racine Belles. On Right: Dorothy Schroeder (Czarr 2014).

In 1953, Eugene Simpson gave money to construct two ballfields, which would later be known as "Big Simpson" and "Little Simpson" (Alexandria Park and Recreation 2014). Little Simpson's opening night in June 1953 was a major event (Figure 32). The state-of-the-art field, complete with a $9,500 lighting system, attracted a reported 4,000 people, including several local dignitaries. The game was also covered by several Washington-area newspapers (Steinberg 2017).

Figure 32: Opening night at Little Simpson (Alexandria Park and Recreation)

In addition to the new fields, the more conspicuous baseball fields, the park also acquired two new buildings in the mid-1950s. According to building permit records one building, constructed ca. 1953 at the northwest corner of "Little Simpson," served as locker rooms. The second building was located south of "Big Simpson" on the site of the current maintenance building. It was constructed ca.1954 as a "Shelter House" for the baseball fields and included restrooms, storage space, and office space (Figure 33). It is likely that the construction of these two buildings that finally rendered the old Alms House building obsolete.

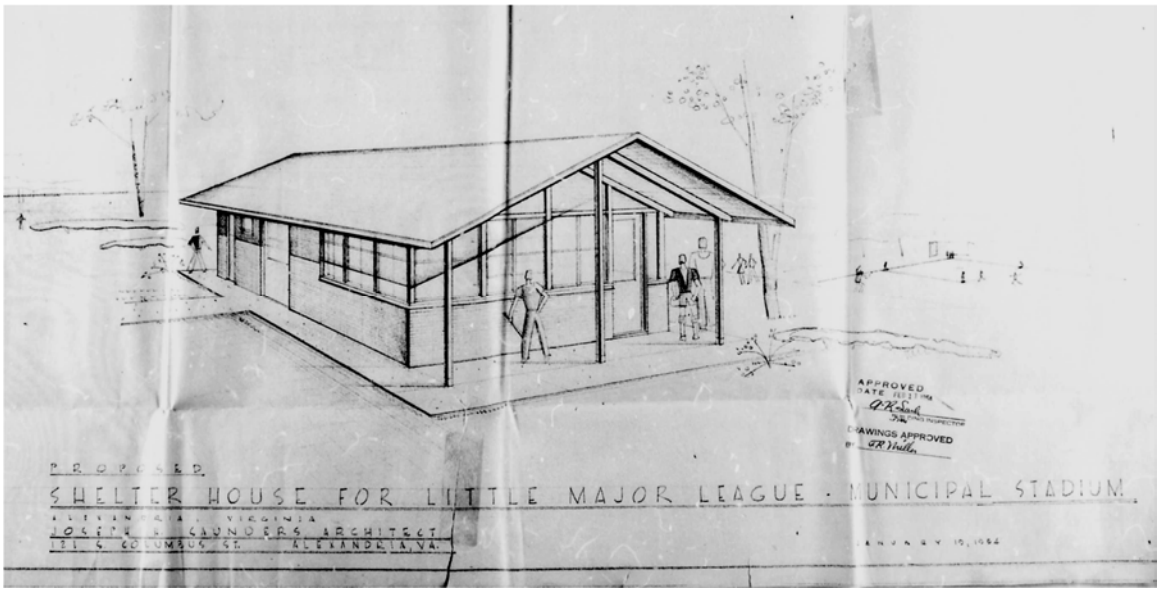

Figure 33: Original façade of the Shelter House, constructed ca. 1954 (City of Alexandria Building Permits)

According to building permits on record, the Shelter House underwent major repairs and renovation in the late 1980s including electrical work and façade alterations. In 2011, the building was demolished and replaced with a new maintenance building (Mullen 2012). The building serves multiple functions for the park including concessions. Both the original shelter house and the new building house the public restrooms for the park. The locker room building was demolished as part of a 2016 renovation of "Little Simpson" field which including the replacement of the locker rooms with a press box and a new fence around the field (Figure 34).

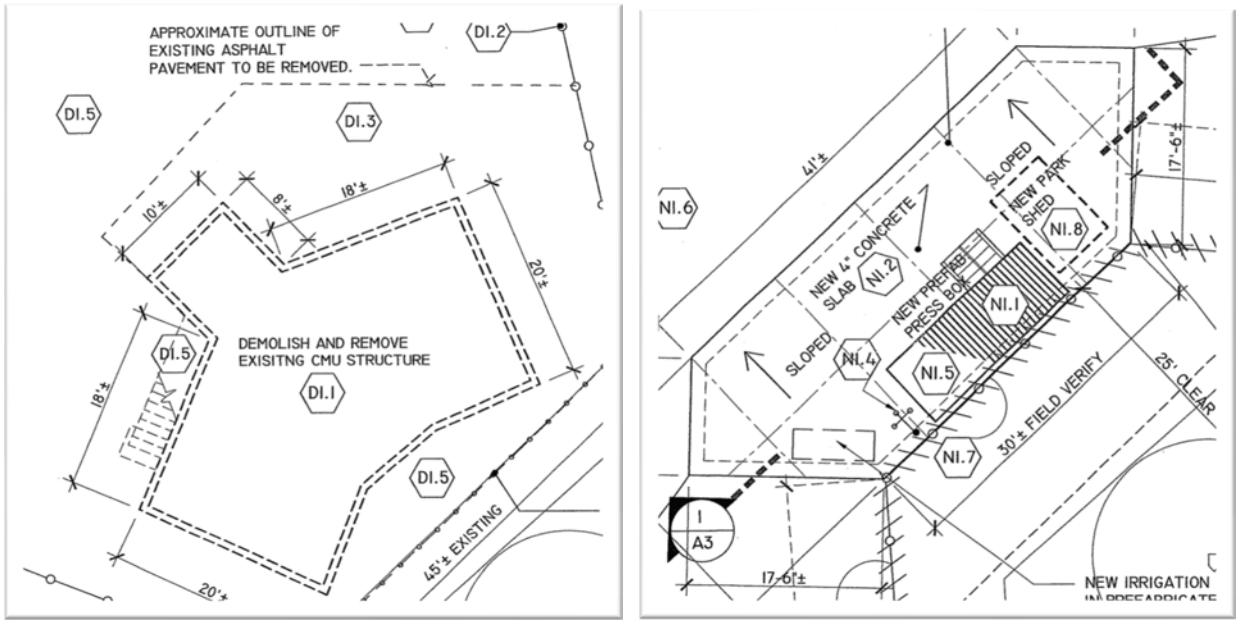

Figure 34: 2016 Renovations of Little Simpson

Along with the renovations of standing structures in the park, the property has continued to develop to fit the growing needs of the local community. At the turn of the 21st century, for example, a basketball court and small dog park were added south of the baseball fields, and Leslie Ave was blocked to create a parking lot and playground. With the realignment of Richmond Hwy (Route 1), the park was able to add two new fields and expand the dog park. In more recent years, additional projects include improved lighting and irrigation on Big Simpson and Little Simpson fields, the construction of a maintenance building on the north side of Little Simpson field, and renovations to the playground in the northeast corner of the park.

On June 14, 2017, as lawmakers practiced for the Congressional Baseball Game at Big Simpson, James Hodgkinson opened fire. House Majority Whip Steve Scalise, U.S. Capitol Police office Crystal Griner, congressional aide Zach Barth and lobbyist Matt Mika were hit. Hodgkinson was eventually fatally shot by police officers. The resulting bullet holes in dugouts, bleachers and fences led to a speedy renovation of Big Simpson, as the Del Ray community was eager to get back to its favorite recreational space (Steinberg 2017).

ARCHEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

One goal of the Documentary Study is the identification of significant themes and the development of research questions that could provide a framework for any necessary archeological work and the development of historic contexts for the interpretation of the site. Specific historic themes have yet to be developed for the portion of the Potomac West Small Area Plan that contains the study area; however, the study area is somewhat unique as an Alexandria institution. Transportation certainly played an important role in the development of this area of Northern Alexandria. The creation of the Alexandria Canal to

the east of the study area, and later the establishment of railroads/Potomac Yard reinforced this area's importance as a transportation corridor, and slowly transformed this early rural agricultural landscape into a more industrial or residential landscape, depending on location.

Yet the Alms House, by nature of its purpose and function, remained relatively untouched by the transportation changes, the increasing industrialization to the east, and residential development to the north, west and south. Relevant themes therefore could include Agriculture and Rural Life, African American Life, and Industry to some extent.

Potential Research Questions

1. The Alms House and its 20th century ancillary buildings stood well into the 20th century.
    - Are subsurface cultural features associated with these structures extant, or have they been obliterated by the construction of the dog park?
    - Will archeological evidence (artifact deposits and cultural features) of the earlier 19th century use of the Alms House property be present? Can it be separated from the later use of the site? And how do they compare?

2. The Alms House also functioned as a workhouse and a farm; a soup kitchen and a "House of Industry" also operated on the site for a short time.
    - Have the agriculturally plowed (disturbed) soils across the site been preserved and where? Can the Ap horizon be distinguishable from yard or other fills?
    - Will the artifact assemblage from archeological investigations reflect the different industries and uses of the Alms House?

3. St. Asaph's Junction Railroad Station is shown within or adjacent to the northeast corner of the study area on the 1894 Hopkins map.
    - Has archeological evidence of this use of the property survived?

4. A series of rowhouses were constructed in the 1950s east of E. Duncan Avenue along the northeastern corner of the park that were demolished in the 1970s when the land was incorporated into the park.
    - Are subsurface cultural features (foundations) or trash deposits associated with these structures extant?

Current Conditions

The study area is currently owned by the City of Alexandria and is used as a municipal park. It contains two baseball fields, two grass fields, two tennis courts, a basketball court, a playground, and a dog park. The extant buildings on the property are related to the maintenance, equipment storage, concessions, and public restrooms for the park. Two parking lots are accessible from E. Monroe Ave. Paved walkways encircle the larger baseball field and provide access to the park from E. Duncan Ave.

Proposed Construction

The City of Alexandria is seeking to modernize and enhance all municipally owned parks. In accordance with the 2014 Citywide Parks Improvement Plan for Simpson Park, the improvements include:

- Connect Pathway to E. Duncan Ave
- Use Bollards to Limit Pathway Driving Access to Maintenance Vehicles
- Plant Perimeter Trees to Create "Green Alley"
- Improve Maintenance Route to Soccer Fields
- Provide New Bleachers with Equipment Storage Underneath
- Provide New Bleachers with Concessions Booths Underneath
- Create Picnic Area Near Concessions
- Expand Parking Lot, improving stormwater management
- Provide a New Hardscape Trail to Route 1
- Provide a Pedestrian Access Ramp from Monroe into the Soccer Fields
- Replace the Press Box at "Big Simpson"

Pedestrian access to the park will be improved, both exterior access from the surrounding neighborhoods and interior access to fields in the park. These improvements vary in their degree of ground disturbance, depending on their location. Additionally, an extension of the storm sewer system and the addition of bioretention area are expected to impact the surface as much as 6 to 8+ feet (Park Plan 2021). Finally, potential future impacts on the park include the replacement of turf on the baseball fields to synthetic turf and the addition of subterranean storage below the walkways.

Previous Archeological Investigations

Thunderbird Archeology conducted archeological monitoring in 2012 during the redevelopment of the Simpson Maintenance Building, located within Eugene Simpson Stadium Park. The study area was located within the south-central area of the park, in between the baseball fields and Monroe Ave. All ground-disturbing activities were monitored with the primary objective to determine the presence of absence of archeological resources associated with the Alms House. No evidence of historical ground surfaces or

archeological features were observed. No further archeological work was recommended (Mullen 2012).

Additionally in 2012, Thunderbird Archeology conducted an archeological investigation on the adjacent property in Landbay L of Potomac Yard (Bryant and Johnson 2012). Six backhoe trenches were mechanically excavated on the south side of Monroe Street, with the purpose of determining the presence/absence of the former buildings depicted on late-19th century maps. Testing revealed only deep modern fill horizons extending at least 10 below the ground surface. Thunderbird concluded that any remnants of the buildings were likely removed during 20th century infrastructure alterations.

Potential for Archeological Resources

Given the study area's proximity to the estuaries on Dangerfield Island and interior drainages, we feel that the study area has a moderate to high probability of containing prehistoric resources. However, due to the historic and modern uses of the study area including agricultural use and the major transportation and infrastructure improvements, the study area has a low potential for significant intact prehistoric resources.

The study area is located within the Rosemont/Braddock Heights Archaeological Resource Area, which is considered significant by the City of Alexandria for the potential to contain significant archeological materials related to early settlement and suburban life. Our documentary research show that the study area was actively used for agricultural production in the 18th and 19th century and is the site of Alexandria Alms House, which stood well into the 20th century. Other 19th century structures are depicted on historic maps to the north of the study area. Because of its location spanning productive agricultural fields and major transportation routes, there is generally a moderate to high probability that the study area will contain historic archeological resources. The potential of finding those resources, however, depends on their location within the study area and the degree of 20th century and more recent disturbance.

Historic maps and photographs show the Alms House fronting Monroe Ave (Poor House Lane). The building survived the expansion of roadways and railways during the late 19th and early 20th century and continued to be in use when the park was established in the 1930s. Therefore, the study area has a high potential for related historic resources in the south-central portion of the park (Parcel 3). The former site of the Alms House is now used as a dog park, parking, and baseball fields. While previous archeological monitoring within the park did not yield archeological evidence of the Alms House, there is still a moderate probability of the area containing historic resources associated with the Alms House.

The 1894 Hopkins map shows two buildings standing in the northeast corner of the study area. Unlike the Alms house, these buildings are located within the boundaries of the 20th century transportation corridor of Potomac Yard. The corridor takes up the eastern portion of the study area. The archeological investigation conducted in Landbay L of the Potomac Yard Redevelopment, located just to the south of the park, was also part of this

transportation corridor. There is a high probability that the modern fills identified to the south in Landbay L extend into eastern portion of the park that used to be part of the Potomac Yard. There is therefore low potential for identifying historic resources in the eastern portion of the park.

In the post-WWII era, a row of buildings was constructed within the northeastern corner of the park (Parcel 1) to the east of E. Duncan Ave. These rowhouses were acquired by the City and demolished in the 1970s when the land was incorporated into the park. There is therefore both a high probability of finding 20th century archeological resources and a high potential for locating the subsurface remains of these dwellings.

The western portion of the park (Parcels 2, 3 and 4) comprised of the baseball fields, parking lots, playground, and dog park, has higher probability of having undisturbed archeological resources. It was not dramatically altered when the park was extended east to include space that was formally part of the Potomac Yard. There is likely some disturbance due to grading for the fields, but there is still potential for some historic resources to be intact.

The entire property has a moderate to high probability for containing historic archeological resources (Figure 35); however, the potential for locating these resources has been lessened by the continued use and improvements to the property in the latter half of the 20th century (Figure 36). An *Archaeological Evaluation* of the study area to the west of the transportation corridor area is recommended, with archeological monitoring of ground disturbance at a minimum. To determine the extent of disturbances across the study area and to confirm the probability and potential for the presence/absence of significant resources, the archeological work should include a disturbance assessment, consisting of "spot testing" - the hand excavation of shovel test pits or auger bores at selected locations across the study area.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For nearly seventy years, the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park has been home to Alexandria Little League games, beginning with the Opening Night of the "Little Simpson" ballfield in June 1953. Athletes from Alexandria City High School, the Congressional softball league, and even the All-American Girls Professional Baseball League (in 1951) have used the diamonds for practice games, but the park evolved to also include soccer fields, a dog park, basketball and tennis courts, a playground and even a formal garden. The need for renovations and upgrades to the park, as expressed by the community in the 2014 Citywide Parks Improvement Plan, prompted the City of Alexandria to require a Documentary Study and Archaeological Assessment prior to any ground disturbance.

From the late 17th century up through the end of the 19th century, the land surrounding the Eugene Simpson Stadium Park primarily remained agricultural with only a few scattered residential lots. Transportation improvements, beginning with the construction of the Alexandria Turnpike in 1809 and culminating with the completion in 1906 of Potomac Yard, one of the largest rail classification yards in the nation, transformed the landscape of this area and spurred residential development and population growth. In 1894, two planned residential subdivisions, Del Ray and St. Elmo, were established west of the Alexandria turnpike, inaugurating the area's transition to a suburban landscape. At that time, the land containing Simpson Park was located south of Del Ray, at the intersection of the Alexandria Turnpike (U.S. Route 1) with Monroe Avenue (Poor House Lane) and contained St. Asaph's Junction Railroad Station in the northeast and the Poor House in the south. The City of Alexandria acquired the land in the 1940s and as the Simpson Park grew, the railroad station and the main Poor House building were eventually demolished.

The entire property has a moderate to high probability for containing historic archeological resources (see Figure 35); however, the potential for locating these resources has been lessened by the continued use and improvements to the property in the latter half of the 20th century (see Figure 36). Archeological signatures may include evidence of agricultural plowing and possibly artifact field scatter from the earlier agricultural use of the property or casual discard from the side of the historic turnpike. The foundations of the Alms House and possibly of the two outbuildings may have survived demolition; the remains would be located in the current dog park section of the study area. Evidence of the realignment of the Washington and Alexandria Turnpike (historically River Road/ Jefferson Davis Highway, now Richmond Highway/U.S. Route 1) and Washington Avenue (historically Poor House Lane, now Monroe Avenue), which shifted west to accommodate Potomac Yard, should be present. Finally, several rowhouses were constructed in the later 1950s between Duncan Avenue and Route 1; evidence of these dwellings may still be present, but not likely significant.

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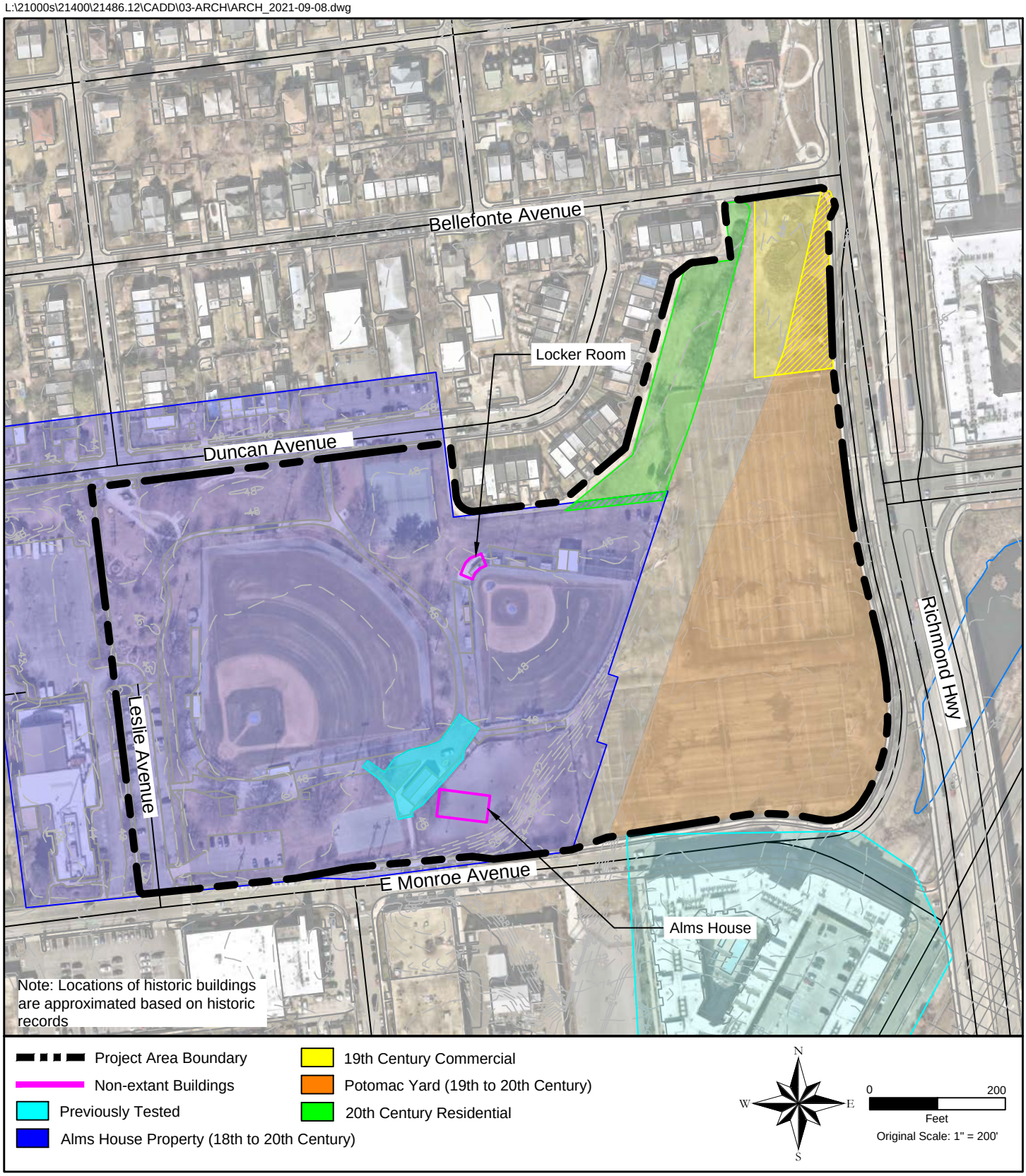

Figure 35: Archeological Probability

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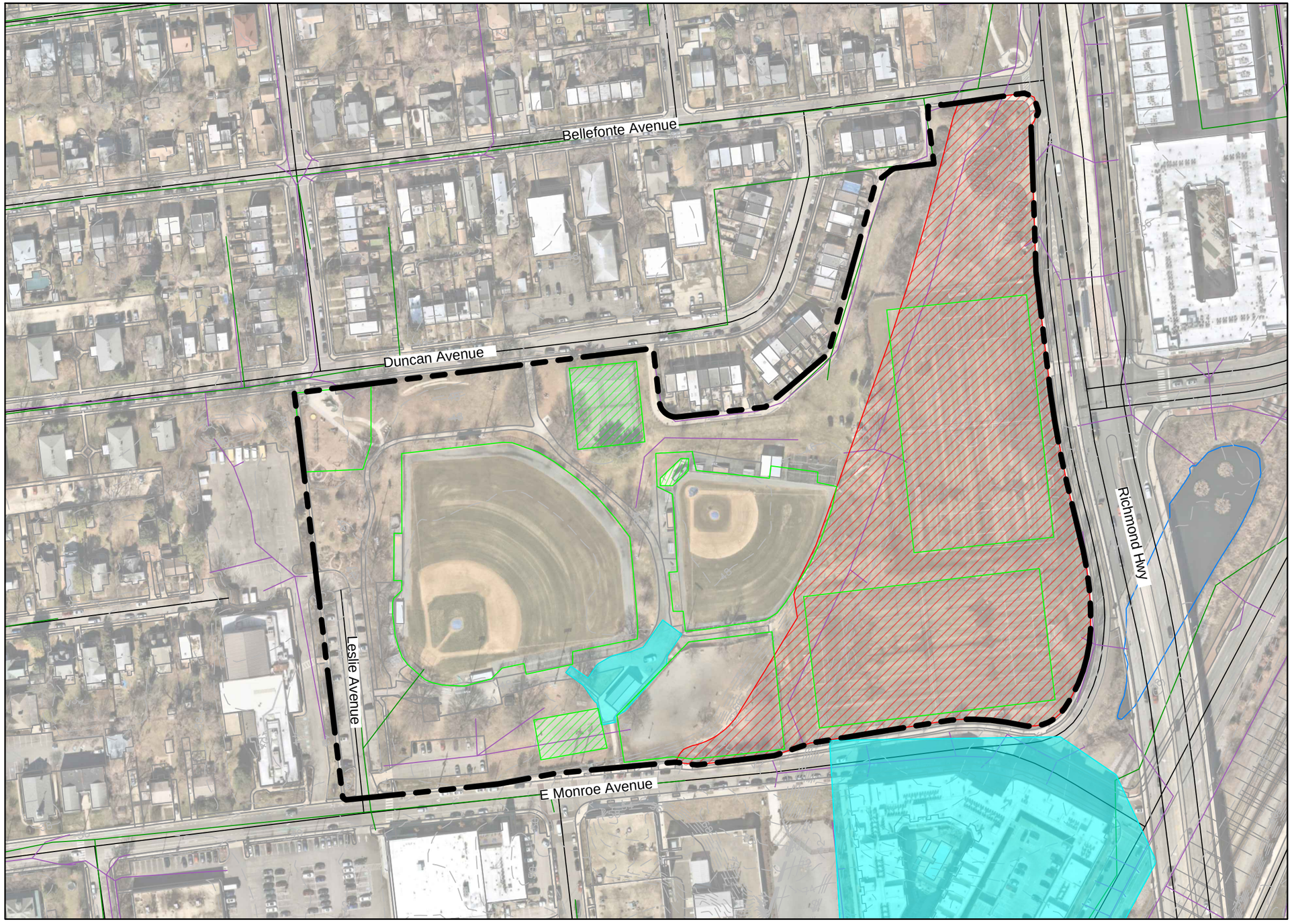

Figure 36:
Archeological Resource Potential and Known Disturbances

N
W E
S

0 150
Feet
Original Scale: 1" = 150'

- Project Area Boundary
- Existing Storm Water
- Existing Paved Surfaces
- Existing Waste Water Line
- Modern Park Improvement
- Modern Park Improvement, Impervious Surface
- Previously Graded During Transportation Improvements
- Previous Tested - Archeological Investigation

KEY

- Project Area Boundary
- Existing Storm Water
- Existing Waste Water
- Areas Disturbed by Transportation Improvements or Previously Tested
  Recommended: no further archeological work required
- Existing Pavement / Impervious Surfaces
- FUTURE Pervious Hardscape/Sidewalks - Cut 2-3 feet
  Recommended: Shovel Testing and Archeological Monitoring
- Proposed Pervious Hardscape/Sidewalks - Cut 3.5-5 feet
  Recommended: Shovel Testing and Archeological Monitoring
- Proposed Bioretention Cut 6-8 feet
  Recommended: Archeological Monitoring
- Existing Pavement - Proposed Pervious Pavement - Cut 6-8 feet
  Recommended: Archeological Monitoring
- Proposed Storm Utilities - Cut 8+ feet
  Recommended: Shovel Testing and Archeological Monitoring
- Historic Building Location (No Longer Extant)
- Recommended: Spot Shovel Testing

NORTH

GRAPHIC SCALE

50 0 25 50 100 200

(IN FEET)
1 inch = 50 ft.

Impervious Surface
Spot Shovel Testing Recommended
Spot Shovel Testing Recommended
Impervious Surface
Existing Playgound
Proposed Pervious Pavement STPs OR MONITORING
Existing Storm Utility Line
Bioretention
Impervious Surface
Bioretention
Existing Gardens
Existing Ballfield
Existing Ballfield
Storm Sewer ARCHEOLOGICAL MONITORING
Proposed Pervious Pavement STPs OR MONITORING
Transportation Improvements (Realignment of Route 1) NO ARCHEOLOGICAL WORK NEEDED
Transportation Improvements (Realignment of Route 1) NO ARCHEOLOGICAL WORK NEEDED
Proposed Pervious Pavement ARCHEOLOGICAL MONITORING
Existing Waste Water Line
Previously Tested NO ARCHEOLOGICAL WORK NEEDED
Existing Dog Park Spot Shovel Testing Recommended
Impervious Surface
Bioretention
Impervious Surface
ALMS HOUSE
Proposed Pervious Pavement STPs OR MONITORING
Proposed Pervious Pavement ARCHEOLOGICAL MONITORING
Storm Sewer ARCHEOLOGICAL MONITORING

Thunderbird Archeology
an DAVEY company
5300 Wellington Branch Drive, Suite 100 • Gainesville, VA 20155
Phone 703 679 5600 • Fax 703 679 5601
wetlands.com

Figure 37: Proposed Improvements & Archeology Recommendations
WSSI #21486.12
Prepared For: City of Alexandria

Eugene Simpson Park
City of Alexandria, Virginia

REVISIONS

No.	Date	Description	Rev. By	App. By

DATE: September 2021

Horizontal Datum: VCS NAD 83
Vertical Datum: NAVD 88
Boundary and Topo Source:
Boundary: WSSI Provided

Design	Draft	Approved
KJS	JPM	---

Sheet #
1 of 1

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APPENDIX I
Chain of Title

Chain of Title for Eugene Simpson Stadium Park, Alexandria, Virginia

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Source and Description
PARCEL 1 – NORTHEAST CORNER			
1971-1972	Private Owner	City of Alexandria	Alexandria
			Parcels located at 1714- 1822 Richmond Highway; purchased for demolition
2/14/1972	Private Owner	Commonwealth of Virginia	Alexandria
			Parcel at 535 Bellefonte Avenue; purchased for demolition
5/2/1903	Andrew Cheshire	Norman Call	Alexandria County (Arlington) DB 107: 470
			Land at the corner of turnpike and Bellfonte Avenue
5/7/1881	Francis Sherman, trustee	Andrew Cheshire	Alexandria County (Arlington) DB E4:444
			Containing 6 acres, North of Poor House property
5/13/1881	Heirs of Ann C. Plummer	Andrew Cheshire	Alexandria County (Arlington) DB: E:437
			Containing 6 acres, north of Poor House property
1/5/1864	Sarah W. Cross, widow of Reed Cross; Burwell T. Plummer and Ann C. Plummer	Christopher Hyde	Alexandria County DB W:550 (Arlington 8:434)
			Containing 6 acres, north of Poor House property, sold for $1000
12/31/1834	Heneritta Hoffman, of Baltimore Maryland; executors of George Hoffman's Will	Reed Cross	Alexandria County V2: 238 (Arlington 4:20)
			Lot containing 6 acres, sold for $600

Chain of Title for Eugene Simpson Stadium Park, Alexandria, Virginia

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Source and Description
4/21/1828	George Hoffman	Henrietta Hoffman	Baltimore City, Maryland
			All real estate
4/13/1824	Jacob Hoffman and his wife, Elizabeth	George Hoffman	Alexandria County DB N2:312 (Arlington DB 3:10)
			Lot containing 6 acres, sold for $1200
11/23/1811	Charles Alexander and his wife Mary	Jacob Hoffman	Alexandria County DB U:519 (Arlington DB 2:30)
			Lot containing 6 acres "together with all houses, building profits commodities and advantages whatsoever to the said piece or parcel…"
6/6/1763	John Alexander (son of Robert Alexander)	Charles Alexander	
PARCEL 2 & 3 Alms House			
8/20/1928	City Council of Alexandria	Robert C. Frame and Hattie Frame	Arlington DB 285: 379
			Poor House property, containing 13.9874 acres
11/12/1903	City Council of Alexandria	Washington Southern Railway Company	Arlington DB 108: 336
			A portion of the Alms House tract, containing 5.052 acres
1/27/1869	City Council of Alexandria	Reuben Johnston, S. Ferguson Beach, Lewis McKenzie, David Smoot	Alexandria County (Arlington) DB: 9:415
			14 properties owned by the City of Alexandria, including the Alms House[1]

[1] Note: deed grants income from Alms House, not the sale of the property

Chain of Title for Eugene Simpson Stadium Park, Alexandria, Virginia

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Source and Description
	Hunter (?)	City of Alexandria	
ca. 1797	William Hartshorne		Hustings Court DB (?)
			Subdivision of 400 acres into 5- acre lots
5/19/1778	Parthenia and her four daughters; Catherine, Behethland, Elizabeth, Margaret	William Hartshorne	Referenced in Fairfax County Deed Q1:320
			$4950 (pounds) sold 400 acres
2/21/1777	Townshend Dade and Parthenia	Catherine, Behethland, Elizabeth, and Margaret Dade	Referenced in Fairfax County Deed Q1:320
			400 acres of land shall pass to the 4 daughters
12/3/1776	Charles Alexander (grandson of Robert Alexander	Parthenia Alexander and her 2nd husband, Townshend Dade	Referenced in Fairfax County Deed Q1:321
			Conveyed the previously granted 400 acre to Parthenia
1/17/1731	Robert Alexander	Parthenia Alexander and her 1st husband, Dade Massey Jr.	Referenced in Fairfax County Deed Q1:322
			400 acres of land binding the Potomac River and extended to the boundary of Robert Alexander
	Robert Alexander		Referenced in Fairfax County Deed Q1:323
			6000 acres binding on the Potomac River from Hunting Creek to bank opposite Masons Island

Chain of Title for Eugene Simpson Stadium Park, Alexandria, Virginia

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Source and Description
PARCELS 4 (& 5) WESTERN SIDE			
6/26/1884	Travis B. Pinn and Susie E Pinn	City Council of Alexandria	Arlington DB F4: 468
			One lot containing 6 acres (Lot 14) and one lot immediately in the rear containing 3 acres
7/27/1882	Ellis Spear and Sace F. Spear	Travis B. Pinn	Arlington DB F4: 116
			County of Alexandria, 9 acres location on the north side of Poor House Lane
5/6/1868	James Entwistle, Jr. (Trustee); James A. Stoutenburgh and Esther Stoutenburgh	Ellis Spear	Arlington DB Y3: 406 (9:321)
			9 acres with buildings and improvements thereon
3/3/1856	William C. Yeaton and his wife, Mary F. Yeaton	Tobias A. and James A. Stoutenburgh	Arlington DB T3:103 (7:455)
			2 lots for $2800; 6 acres and 3 acres 72 poles; 3-acres 72 poles lot bought from F.L. Smith, commissioner: Referenced in R:3 44 (7:228)
7/24/1852	William Mankin and his wife, Dorcus; Reuben Johnston and James Irwin	William C. Yeaton and his wife, Mary F. Yeaton	Arlington DB N3: 368 (6:362)
			For $2500 convey 6 acres; "the said John Mankin, having left for remote and unknown part"

Chain of Title for Eugene Simpson Stadium Park, Alexandria, Virginia

Date	Grantor	Grantee	Source and Description
5/27/1845	Charles Mankin	John T. Mankin, Reuben Johnston, and James Irwin	Arlington DB (5:199)
			Convey in trust for benefit of Dorcus Mankin (mother) during her natural life
5/24/1845	William Mankin and his wife, Dorcus	Charles Mankin	Arlington DB (5:186)
			For $1800, all lands situated on Poor House Lane; 9 acres
	Charles Mankin	William Mankin	
			Division of Charles Mankin's real estate among his children