Ramsey Homes

City of Alexandria, Virginia

WSSI #22682.01

Documentary Study and Archeological Resource Assessment

April 2016 (Revised September 2016)

Prepared for:
Ramsey Homes, LP
401 Wythe St.
Alexandria, VA 22314

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ABSTRACT

Thunderbird Archeology, a division of Wetland Studies and Solutions, Inc., of Gainesville, Virginia prepared a Documentary Study for Ramsey Homes, located on North Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe Streets for Ramsey Homes, LP of Alexandria, Virginia. The Board of Commissioners of the Alexandria and Redevelopment Housing Authority (ARHA) propose to redevelop the study area consistent with the Braddock East Master Plan (BEMP) at a density high enough to sustain a critical mass of mixed-income residents and work force housing in order to maintain the strong social and support networks that are essential in sustainable communities. The provision of additional affordable housing is a key goal of the Alexandria City Council 2010 Strategic Plan, ARHA 2012-2022 Strategic Plan, Braddock Metro Neighborhood plan, and the BEMP. Specifically, the BEMP proposes meeting the goal of additional units in the ARHA sites proposed for redevelopment. The Documentary Study is required under the City of Alexandria Archaeological Protection Code prior to development of the property.

The Ramsey Homes property is situated outside of the original 1749 boundaries of Alexandria and remained undeveloped until the 19th century. George and Teresa Blish, immigrants from Germany, owned the block from at least 1834 until 1849 and operated a market garden on the property that supplied fruits and vegetables for the needs of residents of Alexandria. Henry Daingerfield, one of the wealthiest men in Alexandria, purchased it and erected several houses which were rented primarily to Irish immigrants who worked in various industries and businesses in and near Alexandria. During the Civil War, the Union army commandeered the lot for the headquarters, barracks, and hospital of Battery H of the Independent Pennsylvania Artillery, which served garrison duty in Alexandria from 1863 until 1865. Following the war, Henry Daingerfield's heirs continued to rent out deteriorating houses on the block until the 1890s, by which time the property was likely vacant of habitable buildings.

During the early 20th century, the property changed hands multiple times and remained vacant until World War II. In 1941, the United States Housing Authority (USHA) began to plan for the construction of permanent housing for African-American defense workers in the Uptown neighborhood. Then known as the Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133, the vernacular Modernist Ramsey Homes (or Ramsay as it was sometimes spelled) was completed in 1942. ARHA purchased the homes in 1953 and has maintained them as affordable since then. Between 1964 and 1979, ARHA added walled patios and removed the skylights and constructed hipped roofs, altering the buildings' style to vernacular Prairie. In 1995, Colonial Revival elements were added, and original chain-linked fencing, a paved playground, and plantings were removed.

In 1984, the Parker-Gray Zoning Overlay District, where the Ramsey Homes are located, was established and codified "to protect community health and safety and to promote the education, prosperity and general welfare of the public through the identification, preservation, and enhancement of buildings, structures, settings, features and ways of life which characterize this nineteenth and early twentieth century residential neighborhood" (Zoning Ordinance Article X. Sec. 10-200). Two years later, a Board of Architectural

Review (BAR) was appointed to review applications for alterations to properties in the district. In 2008 and 2010, the "Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District", which covered a larger area, was listed respectively to the Virginia Landmarks Register (VLR) and the National Register of Historic Place (NRHP). In early 2015, ARHA submitted an application to the BAR for a Permit to Demolish. In a memo dated April 22, 2015, city staff recommended demolition; however, the BAR voted to deny the request. ARHA appealed the decision, and on September 12, 2015, City Council overturned the BAR's decision, thereby granting the Permit to Demolish.

The study area has a moderate to high probability of containing late 18th century – 20th century artifact deposits and archeological features that could potentially provide significant information about domestic development in the Parker-Gray Historic District within the City of Alexandria, Virginia. Additionally, one previously recorded archeological site has been mapped within the study area; site 44AX0160 represents a probable Civil War-era military barracks site that was subjected to limited investigations conducted by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991. According to the DHR site record, site 44AX0160 has not been evaluated for eligibility to the NRHP. As such, the study area is known to include cultural deposits associated with the historic Civil War-era military occupation of the city. An Archeological Evaluation is recommended.

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INTRODUCTION

The Ramsey Homes are located on North Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe Streets in the City of Alexandria, Virginia within the bounds of the historically African-American community known as Uptown and the locally zoned "Parker-Gray District" (Figure 1). The Board of Commissioners of ARHA propose to redevelop the study area consistent with the Braddock East Master Plan (BEMP) at a density high enough to sustain a critical mass of mixed-income residents and work force housing in order to maintain the strong social and support networks that are essential in sustainable communities. The provision of additional affordable housing is a key goal of the Alexandria City Council 2010 Strategic Plan, ARHA 2012-2022 Strategic Plan, Braddock Metro Neighborhood plan, and the BEMP. Specifically, the BEMP proposes meeting the goal of additional units in the ARHA sites proposed for redevelopment. In a memo dated April 22, 2015, city staff recommended demolition of the Ramsey Homes.

One previously recorded archeological site is mapped within the study area; site 44AX0160 represents a probable Civil War-era military barracks site that was investigated by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991. According to the DHR site record, the resource has not been evaluated for eligibility to the NRHP. Thunderbird Archeology, at the request of Ramsey Homes, LP of Alexandria, Virginia, prepared a Scope of Work (SOW) for this Documentary Study and Archaeological Assessment.

The project area includes four buildings with 15 units, labeled I, II, III, and IV north to south (Figure 2). The buildings were previously recorded with DHR as seven resources in 2006 in anticipation of nominating the "Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District" (DHR No. 100-0133) to the VLR and NRHP.

Building I.	912 and 914 Wythe Street (DHR No. 100-0133-1328)
	625 and 627 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0754)
Building II.	619, 621, and 623 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0751)
Building III.	609 and 611 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0747)
	613 and 615 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0749)
Building IV.	605 and 607 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0745)
	913 and 915 Pendleton Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0948)

Each resource contributes to the Virginia Landmarks Register (VLR) district listed in 2008 and the NRHP district listed in 2010.

Principal Architectural Historian Anna Maas, MUEP and Associate Archeologist David Carroll, M.A., RPA conducted archival research and prepared the report. Boyd Sipe, M.A., RPA was project manager. Geospatial Analyst Michael Bowser prepared the map exhibits. Research was conducted at the Office of Alexandria Archaeology; the Alexandria Archives and Records Center; the Alexandria Courthouse; the Alexandria Library, Barrett Branch (Special Collections); the Alexandria Redevelopment and Housing Authority Records; the American Institute of Architects Archives; Fort Ward Museum, Alexandria; the Jackie Robinson Foundation; the John D. Rockefeller Jr. Library, Williamsburg; the Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.; the Library of Virginia, Richmond; the National Archives at College Park, Maryland, which houses the Records

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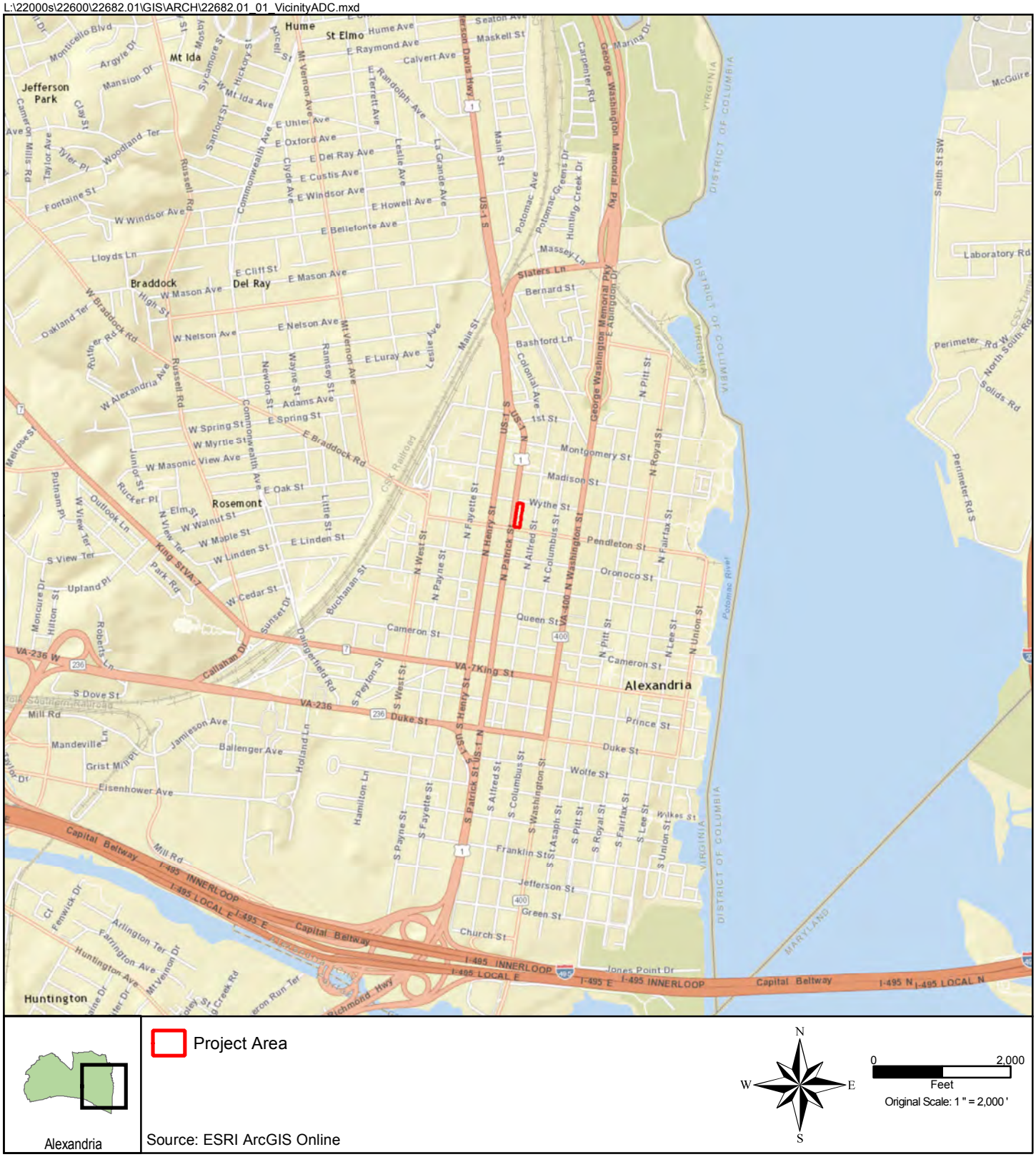

Figure 1
Vicinity Map

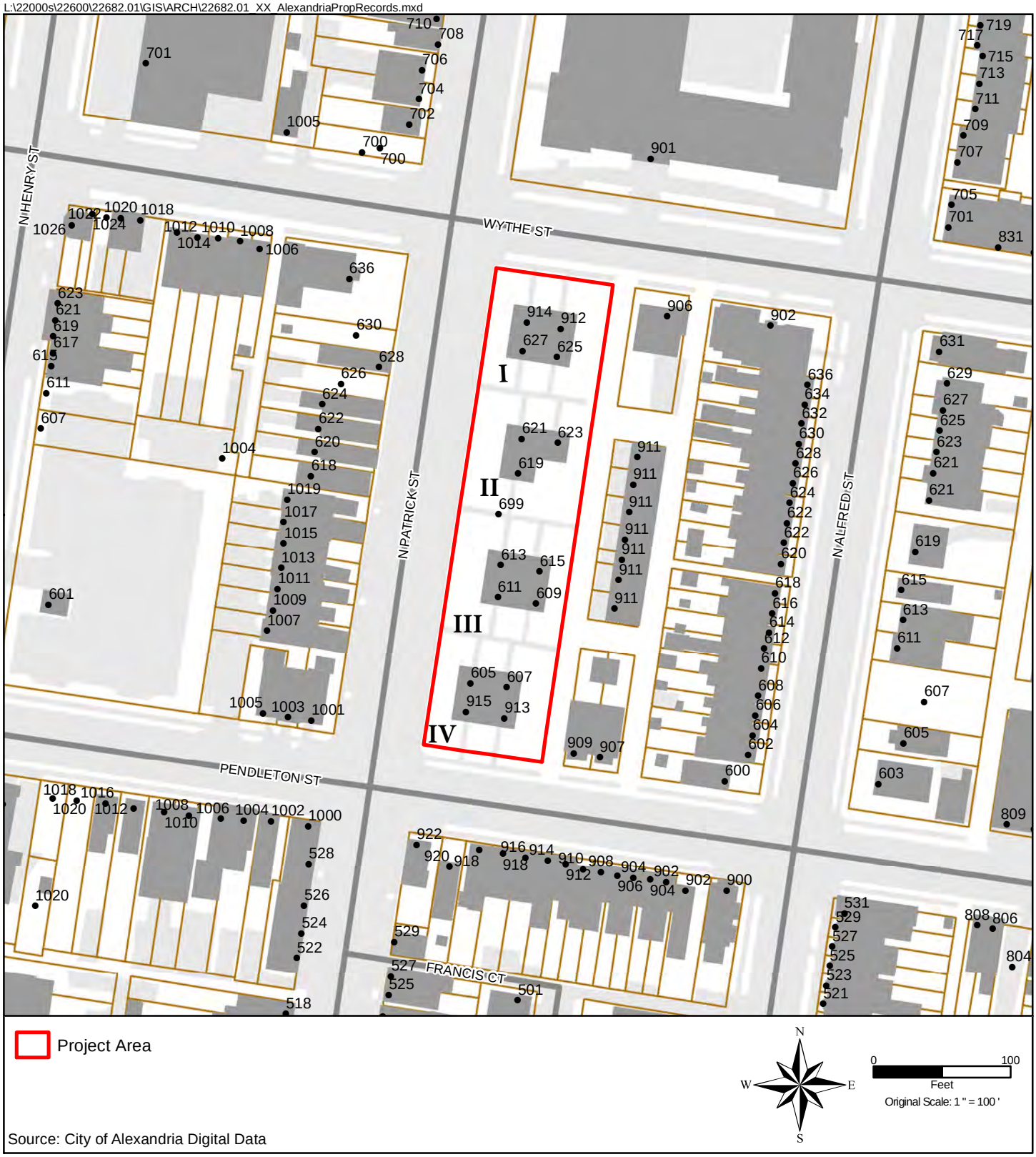

Figure 2
2015 City of Alexandria Parcel Map

of the Federal Works Agency (FWA) and the Public Housing Administration (PHA); the National Archives, Washington, D.C.; the Nimitz Library and Navy Department Library; the Tuskegee University Archives, Department of Records and Research; and the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (DHR). United States Census Records; United States Patent and Trademark Office Records; Historical Newspaper Archives; and the National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials Records were reviewed. Previously collected research data from the Housing and Urban Development (HUD) Library in Washington, D.C. and oral histories from Mr. James Henson and other 20th–century occupants of public housing in the city were consulted. Additionally, specific research questions were discussed with staff at Alexandria Archaeology, the City of Alexandria Fort Ward Park Museum, and the Jackie Robinson Foundation.

HISTORIC CONTEXT

The history of public housing in the United States provides a context in which to analyze the architectural design and styles of the built environment at the Ramsey Homes project site, as well as the situation of the historic and modern residents of the Project. A neglected area in the writing of urban history is the physical environment. It is very likely that the built environment reflects and shapes human behavior (Gardner 1981:64). Most literature on low income housing has concentrated on tenements and urban reform in the late 19th century (Gardner 1981:66). In recent years, interest has shifted to the evolution of public housing policy and design.

Public Housing in Early America

In rural or agrarian socio-economic milieus, such as much of the United States prior to the 20th century, families typically built houses for their own use. Industrialization in the 19th century radically altered the social relations of building, working and living. Increasingly over time, dwellings were built by hired labor and sold at market prices; those who could not afford such housing or were restricted by codes, covenants, and other discriminatory practices, collected in slums.

> In the early stages of our history, settlers built their own homes, good or bad, with their own hands and some help from their neighbors. Much of our farm and rural housing is still in this stage. When we came to town building and industrialization, private business enterprise took over the job. It has had no competition until recently, and the result is a larger acreage of worse looking slums than can be found in any other allegedly civilized country. Private enterprise rise can offer no alibi. That is simply what happened as a result of laissez faire and the free working of supply and demand (Wood 1940:83).

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 (Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002). Public housing, with its current connotations, is a product of the early 20th century, in the 18th century the term "public house" referred to an ordinary, an inn or tavern.

The Alexandria Poor House

Circa 1800, the town of Alexandria erected a poor house at the northwest corner of present-day Monroe Avenue and Route 1. Inmates and the keeper of the poor house likely lived in the main building, which was a large, two-and-a-half-story, seven-bay, Federal-style brick structure (Ward 1980; Watkinson 2000; Roach 2002). The building displayed Flemish bond brickwork and featured a hipped roof with pediment, dormers, and four interior chimneys. 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. The interior displayed a rectangular, longitudinal-hall plan with central entrance.

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 (Miller 1989; Ward 1980). Hodgkin's record of the operations of the Alexandria Poor House documents that, despite the disruptions to the local economy, he 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 Hodgkins 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", indicating that the Alexandria Poor House was divided into these two units. 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).

Philanthropic and Limited Dividend Housing

Until the Depression, most American leaders believed that the private market, with a helping hand from private philanthropy, could meet the nation's housing needs. The antecedent of public housing, philanthropic and limited dividend housing of the late 19th century, though privately built and operated, shared some similarities with later public housing. For instance, philanthropic and limited dividend housing was also faulted for plain appearance (Gardner 1981:67). In the early 20th century, a few unions and settlement house reformers built model housing developments for working class families, mostly in the northeastern United States and without government subsidy.

Public Housing in the Early Twentieth Century

Overview

The Great Depression began on October 29, 1929, when the stock market crashed on what became known as Black Tuesday. By 1932, at least one-quarter of the American workforce was unemployed. President Franklin Roosevelt took office in 1933 and began a series of experimental projects and programs, known as the New Deal, focusing on Relief, Recovery, and Reform. Prior to the 1930s, the Federal Government had no role in housing private citizens; the social welfare of the public, in terms of housing, was left entirely to local governments and private charities (Robinson et al:1999b:5). The Depression focused the nation's attention on "the inequities of the housing market and on the smoldering slum problems … devastated home ownership and the residential construction industry" (Robinson et al:1999b:1:12).

Public housing in the United States was first implemented after many Americans lost their homes and livelihoods as a result of the economic crises. One of Roosevelt's responses was the Federal Housing Act of 1934, which established the basic format for public housing in which the government subsidizes the market value of the housing, and the creation of the Federal Housing Administration (FHA) (Trotter 1958; Gotham 2001:296). Public housing in the New Deal was also an employment program, as under the National Industrial Recovery Act, the formation of the Public Works Administration (PWA), which developed and built the first housing projects in the United States, led to the creation of many jobs in the construction industry (Aiken and Alford 1970).

The socio-political environment during the early years of the Great Depression accommodated reformers who believed that that the federal government should subsidize social housing and build a noncommercial alternative housing sector. Many American housing activists envisioned public housing for the middle-class workforce as well as the poor.

The Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932

The first significant New Deal measure targeted at housing was the Emergency Relief and Construction Act of 1932. This act created the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC), a federal agency authorized to make loans to private corporations providing housing for low-income families. Also in 1932, the Federal Home Loan Bank Board was established to make advances on the security of home mortgages and establish a Home Loan Bank System. The act did little to assist individual homebuyers. The average home loan at that time required very short-term credit, with terms generally ranging from three to five years. Large down payments, second mortgages, and high interest rates were commonplace.

The Housing Act of 1934

As the economic situation worsened, the National Housing Act of 1934 was passed to relieve unemployment and encourage private banks and lending institutions to extend credit for home repairs and construction. Under the Act of 1934, the FHA was created. The responsibilities of the FHA, now a federal agency under the Assistant Secretary for Housing-Federal Housing

Commissioner, are to improve housing standards and conditions; to provide an adequate home financing system through insurance of mortgage loans; and to stabilize the mortgage market. Two mortgage insurance programs were established under Title II of the Act of 1934:Section 203 mortgage insurance for one to four family homes; and Section 207 multifamily project mortgages. The Act of 1934 also authorized the FHA to create the Federal National Mortgage Association, or Fannie Mae, which was chartered in 1937.

Helen Alfred, Executive Director of the National Public Housing Conference, summarized the rationale for the act, its means, and its goals:

> Recognizing the social importance of housing to all the people, and the value of a home construction program as a medium of reemployment in a great key industry, the Federal government has taken a hand. The removal of blighted areas and rehousing of the lower-income groups at rents which they can afford to pay has not been accomplished by speculative builders or limited dividend corporations. This new policy of the Federal government, as expressed in the terms of the National Industrial Recovery Act, presents an opportunity to make rapid progress toward the solution of our housing problem. In conformity with the provisions of the Act, the Government has made large sums of money available for the purpose of clearing slums and erecting low-rent dwellings. These funds will be advanced in the form of loans and outright grants. Private corporations, including limited dividend companies, can merely obtain loans for their projects. Public agencies, in addition to loans, can obtain subsidies amounting to thirty percent of the cost of labor and materials (Alfred 1934:23).

Alfred also summarized the necessity for states and local communities to pass legislation and charter local authorities that would make implementation of law possible:

> The policy of the Government presents an opportunity for a vigorous battle against indecent housing conditions. The Government is doing its part; the next steps must be taken by local communities. As stated above, the outright grants will be given only to public bodies. Only five States now have the power to create housing boards or authorities with full power to acquire unhealthy areas, clear slums, and construct and operate dwellings. These States are California, Michigan, New Jersey, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Enabling legislation is pending in a number of extraordinary sessions of State Legislatures ….civic and welfare groups, members of the clergy, women's organizations and progressive labor leaders are uniting to promote sentiment in their local communities favorable to the creation of municipal housing authorities. Most of the municipal legislation is being patterned after a bill prepared in New York City under the supervision of the National Public Housing Conference. Under the terms of this bill, it is recommended that a municipal housing authority be created and that a board be appointed by the Mayor. This board is to have power to issue its own bonds and to sell them to the Federal government. It will have placed at its disposal an effective procedure for acquiring land by condemnation or purchase, for clearing, replanning and rebuilding unhealthy and

> blighted areas, and finally to manage and operate dwellings when completed. The Government loans will be repaid out of the rents collected (Alfred 1934:23).

Critics of the Housing Act of 1934 have pointed to the act's failure to assist lower income families most in need of housing aid and feel it did little to improve inner city housing; it promoted the single family detached dwelling as the prevailing mode of housing, which perpetuated suburban sprawl and it intensified racial segregation. Critics of the FHA have seen racially discriminatory policies and practices of the agency associated with mortgage insurance and lending, appraisal guidelines, and home building subsidies (Gotham 2001:309).

Many New Dealers, including Eleanor Roosevelt, Harold Ickes, Aubrey Williams and Harry Hopkins acknowledged and worked to mitigate the effects of race on public policy; for instance, it was mandated that African Americans, who comprised about 10% of the total population, and 20% of the poor, would collect at least 10% of welfare assistance payments and various New Deal relief programs such as the Works Progress Administration (WPA) and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) allocated 10% of their budgets to African Americans (Leuchtenburg 1963:244-246). President Franklin D. Roosevelt appointed an unprecedented number of African Americans to second-level positions in his administration; these appointees were collectively called the Black Cabinet. These efforts were largely responsible for the transition of black political organizations from the Republican Party to the Democratic Party by 1936, forging the political alliance between African Americans and the Democratic Party that still exists. Few efforts were; however, extended to ending racial segregation or guaranteeing the civil rights of racial minorities. The CCC was organized in racially segregated units; however, pay and working conditions were equitable (Leuchtenburg 1963:256-257).

Reformers and Housers - Ideals and Designs for Social Housing

Even before the onset of the Great Depression, a cadre of progressive American architects and planners had come to believe that fundamental restructuring of national residential patterns was needed. These design professionals and other reform-minded citizens, including urban and labor activists, envisioned the development of attractive and affordable alternatives to single-family suburbanization, which had become endemic by the 1920s (Mayer 1935:400). Albert Mayer, among other advocates of the rethinking of the American domestic landscape, saw new social housing not only as a solution for the problems of impoverished slum dwellers but a necessary step toward providing better lives for all Americans:

> The slum and the blighted district -- urban and rural - are only the most spectacular manifestations of the bad conditions under which almost all of us live. The people who live in slums can't afford to live in decent places. Those who can afford to don't get anything really satisfactory, unless they shift around with the shifting, sprawling city and suburb. Lack of play spaces and convenient parks, noise, exposure to traffic accidents, encroachment of business, overcrowded roads and streets and subways -- these affect the well-to-do only in less degree than they afflict the poor. The well-to-do shift to new areas, and the poor move into the abandoned unsatisfactory areas. If this sounds an exaggeration to anyone, let him simply visit the derelict areas that were good neighborhoods twenty, fifteen, ten years ago.

> …the housing problem is twofold. First, there is the lack of reasonable planning and stability which makes our entire physical environment unsatisfactory. Then there is the problem for something like two-thirds of our population who haven't the money to pay for physically decent housing--whose income or relief wage or relief dole is not enough to pay the sum of real-estate taxes, current interest and amortization on cost of land and building, and adequate maintenance. On top of these permanent elements there is the impending housing shortage, which will affect both groups. The problem of the two-thirds is bluntly one that involves redistribution of wealth. The physical solution is similar for all:planning and construction of projects on a sufficiently large scale so that they can be free from traffic dangers and extraneous noise, can contain facilities for recreational and community life, and can achieve the economies of large-scale planning and its amenities of proper orientation to air and sunlight. Such projects must be so related to the larger community of which they are a part that they are within convenient reach of daily work, of shopping districts, of larger recreational and park areas (Mayer 1935:400).

Catherine Bauer [Catherine Krause Bauer Wurster], born May 11, 1905 in Elizabeth, New Jersey, was a leading member of a group of early 20th century idealists known as housers, social reformers, mostly women, committed to improving housing for low-income families. On the basis of her belief that social housing could produce good social architecture, and impressions made on her by the wide spread suffering during the Great Depression, she became a great advocate for the poor in the struggle for housing. Bauer was a charismatic figure in the reform movement, and one of its greatest theorists. Her classic *Modern Housing* (1934) made her an authority on social housing and she co-authored the Housing Act of 1937.

Bauer was significantly influenced by American urban critic Lewis Mumford and European and expatriate American artists and architects in Europe including Fernand Léger, Man Ray, Sylvia Beach, and the architects of change group; Ernst May, André Lurçat, and Walter Gropius.

European ideals and designs for social housing that had developed in the 1920s were adopted and implemented in the United States in the 1930s. The goal of the houser movement, beyond the creation of a supply of adequate, low-rent Government-built housing for the urban poor, was the establishment of an ordered environment for the urban poor that would eventually lead to the elimination of urban slums. European urban planning concepts such as Zeilenbau, or a plan that arranged buildings in parallel rows, to take advantage of maximum light and ventilation, were adopted for many projects. Limited traffic flow with planned circulation patterns, pedestrian walkways, courtyard areas and open spaces with park-like settings were also emphasized in the designs (Robinson et al:1999a:18). Most projects were designed to a human scale and were well landscaped. Some included private or semi-private garden spaces.

Ultimately, the uninspired, sterile, and institutional designs that began to characterize American public housing fell far short of the communitarian, European-style projects that the housers envisioned.

The PWA - Public Housing Design and Construction

The United States Public Works Administration (PWA) was created as a federal agency under the National Industrial Recovery Act in June 1933. The agency's mission was to provide employment, stabilize purchasing power, improve public welfare, and contribute to a revival of American industry through management of the construction of public works and housing (Figure 3).

Horatio Hackett, a Chicago architect and engineer with limited experience in housing reform issues, was placed at the head of the PWA's Housing Division; consultants on staff included architects, Alfred Fellheimer and Angelo R. Clas (Robinson et al:1999a:21-23).

Figure 3: PWA Steam Shovel
(Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Several subordinate units were organized within the Housing Division of the PWA; the Branch of Land Acquisition which handled property acquisition and supervised site development; the Branch of Plans and Specifications, staffed by architects, engineers, landscape architects, and cost estimators, who worked closely with local architects and engineers; and the Branches of Construction and Management, which were responsible for the final aspects of project development, including slum removal, construction supervision, and administration of tenant services.

In the first years of its existence, the PWA Housing Division oversaw all phases of site development for public housing projects, excepting the style in which the buildings were built; which was, at least theoretically, left to the local architects (Robinson et al:1999b:19).

As PWA public housing scholars Michael W. Strauss and Talbot Wegg wrote:

> …the style of buildings, whether they should be "modern," colonial, Spanish, or what-not, was on the whole left to the decision of local architects. They had only one watchword, simplicity. As a result there is, to the layman's eye, great variety in the exterior design of projects. New York, Chicago, Camden, Cleveland, and some others are modern; Jacksonville and Miami are of typical design; Charleston recalls the graciousness of its heritage; Boston is in keeping with the New England tradition; Dallas suggests the distinctive architecture of the Southwest (Strauss and Wegg 1938:68).

The autonomy of local architects in design decisions proved problematic; PWA officials determined that most American builders were incapable of designing large-scale public housing projects that met the high standards of the Housing Division. Months before the first federal government funded public housing project, First Homes, opened in Manhattan's lower east side on December 3, 1935, the Plans and Specifications Branch began the preparation of a series of plans for the basic units of public housing complexes, including apartments and row houses of all types and sizes. These plans were published in May 1935 as *Unit Plans:Typical Room Arrangements, Site Plans and Details for Low Rent Housing*, were adopted by most local architects involved with public housing projects, and became the standard for PWA public housing design (Robinson et al:1999b:19). Such publications were updated from year to year. Public housing design in Alexandria, Virginia seems to have been informed by these plans with considerable flexibility in final site plan development.

Over time, the use of standardized plans and model unit designs became more and more evident. Although the original rationale for this approach stemmed from observed deficiencies in the design skills of local architects, the ultimate effect was a net loss of freedom of design and architectural innovation. Further, economy increasingly dominated other considerations of design and construction.

Typical American public housing projects of this period included multi-family, low-rise residential buildings and an ordered site plan that arrayed the buildings around open spaces and recreational areas; buildings generally occupied less than 25 percent of the site (Figure 4 and Figure 5). The most common building forms were several-story walk-up apartments and row houses, often constructed of brick, simply designed and generally well-built (Robinson et al:1999b:21-22). Attached dwellings were popular with designers of public housing complexes, being more economical in both construction and operating costs (Robinson et al:1999b:21-22).

Figure 4: K Street Projects in Washington, D.C.
(Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Figure 5: Cedar-Central Project in Cleveland, Ohio; June 1937
(Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

A community center, typically a one-story building containing management offices, recreation rooms or classrooms, and a hall for community functions such as dances or meetings, was usually integrated into the project. Management offices, maintenance buildings, garages, nursery schools, and buildings originally containing retail or office spaces comprised a non-residential component at some sites (Robinson et al:1999a:18-19, Robinson et al:1999b:21-22). Larger projects often included multiple commercial and community buildings and manifested as almost self-contained communities within the surrounding neighborhoods. These sometimes included heating plants, generally characterized by a tall smokestack (Robinson et al:1999a:18-19).

Spartan utilitarian design characterized the interior spaces of the individual residential units (Figure 6). Most units included one to four bedrooms, a kitchen, living room, and bathroom. Room sizes were minimal and the shapes generally regular. Walls were most often painted concrete block or plaster partitions; floors typically asphalt tile or linoleum over concrete, with the occasional use of wood parquet where costs and availability permitted. Units included modern conveniences; a gas range and electric refrigerator in the kitchens and full bathrooms (Robinson et al:1999a:19-20).

Each project was subject to both strict cost controls and minimum standards of appearance and livability. Various cost and space saving strategies were employed including open cupboards and closets and suite type plans as interior hallways were considered wasted space. Units were almost always situated to take advantage of maximum natural sunlight and ventilation, and arranged to maximize the privacy of residents (Robinson et al:1999a:19-20).

Factors in determining the location of public housing projects within local communities included proximity to employment opportunities, slum clearance, existing transportation and infrastructure development, and availability of suitable land. City blocks were often combined to form superblocks (Robinson et al:1999b:21-22) (Figure 7 and Figure 8).

Designers sought to invest the project's residents with a sense of communal identity, distinct from its surrounding neighborhood, through the deliberate site plans and the design and form of the buildings. Public art was also an important component of early PWA-era projects and some later designs. The earliest PWA projects successfully integrated European design theories and contemporary American housing reform philosophies; the best of these achieved very high standards of design, site planning, and construction (Robinson et al:1999a:19).

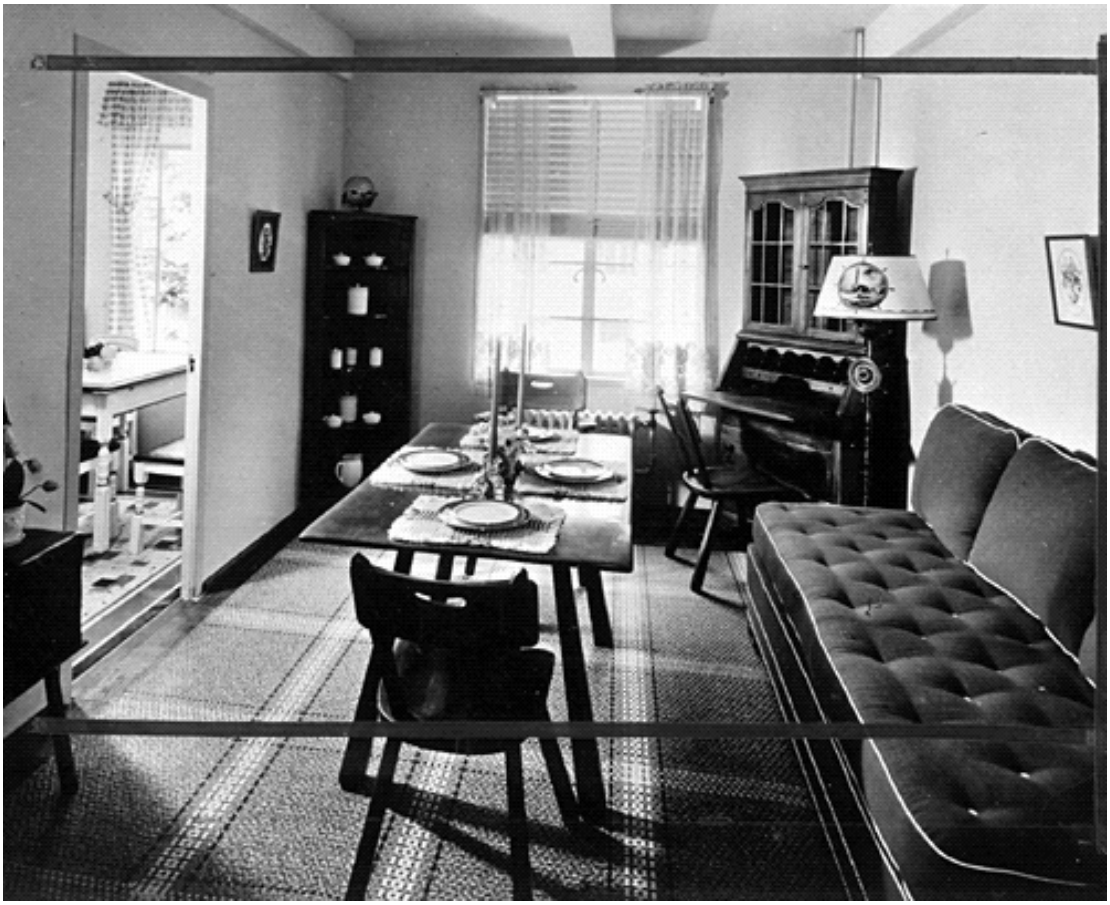

Figure 6: Public Housing Unit Interior, Hillside Homes, Bronx, New York (Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Figure 7: Aerial View, PWA Built Hillside Homes, Bronx, New York (Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Figure 8: Aerial View of Williamsburg Houses in Brooklyn, New York (Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Slum Clearance

Housing reformers during this period were divided over the issue of slum clearance. In the 1930s, most American cities included slum areas, neighborhoods characterized by substandard housing of various types, occupied by the very poor, often ethnic or racial minorities (Figure 9 and Figure 10). Many believed that slums were breeding grounds for crime and a major public health problem (Figure 11 and Figure 12). Traditional reformers believed that slum clearance served to eliminate blighted and overcrowded neighborhoods while the building of new low-income housing on former slum sites allowed the poor to continue to live near their places of employment. Others, including Bauer and many housers, believed that slum clearance was a waste of time and money that primarily benefited the real estate industry. Opponents of slum clearance contended that new housing built on former slum sites, even with public financing, would often be too expensive for the dispossessed tenants. Lewis Mumford, an icon of the houser group, wrote:"if we wish to produce cheap dwellings, it is to raw land that we must turn... The proper strategy is to forget about the slums as a special problem…. When we have built enough good houses in the right places, the slums will empty themselves" (Robinson et al 1999b:29).

Legal issues related to slum clearance proved to be a major obstacle for the PWA Housing Division projects. Early on, the PWA was determined to prove the feasibility of combining slum clearance with the construction of low-rent housing (Figure 13). Numerous PWA acquired sites that had been slum neighborhoods were condemned under the power of eminent domain. As some slum sites had hundreds of owners with whom the PWA had to negotiate, acquisition was sometimes very complicated. As a result of various legal challenges to condemnation proceedings before 1936, the PWA built all subsequent housing on vacant land or in sites for which it could negotiate clear title (Robinson et al 1999b:37).

United States Housing Act of 1937

As previously discussed, the Housing Act of 1934, although responsible for several major public works housing projects, was quite limited in scope. In December 1935, Senator Robert F. Wagner of New York began a campaign to push a broader housing bill through Congress (Robinson et al 1999b:33). In a speech before the NPHC, he defended his stand on public housing against attack from the political right:

> The object of public housing … is not to invade the field of home building for the middle class or the well-to-do ... Nor is it even to exclude private enterprise from participation in a low-cost housing program. It is merely to supplement what private industry will do, by subsidies which will make up the difference between what the poor can afford to pay and what is necessary to assure decent living quarters (Robinson et al 1999b:33).

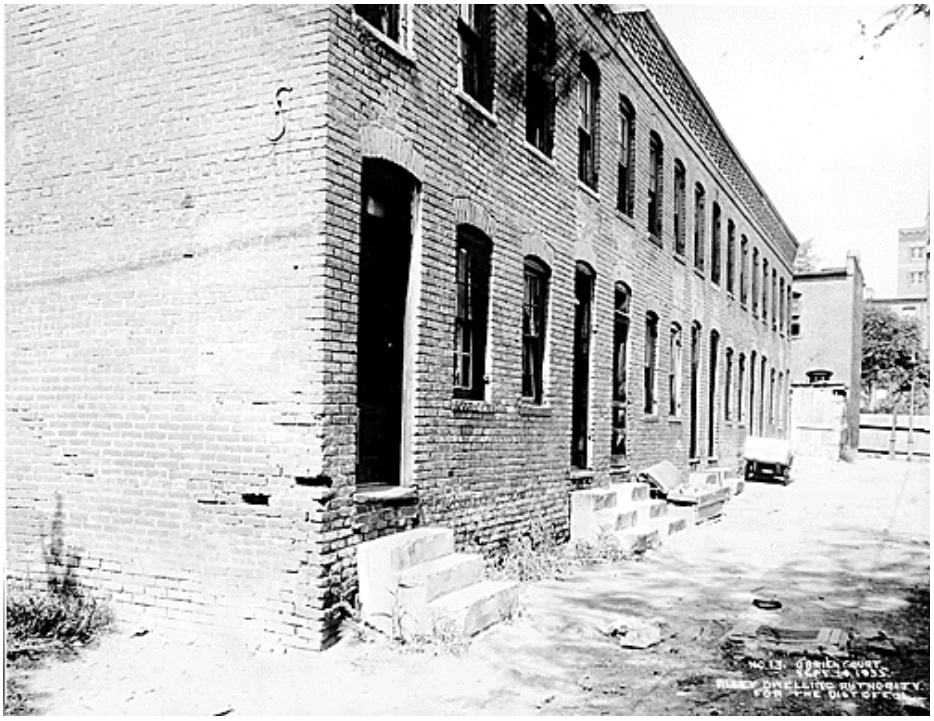

Figure 9: O'Brien Court Slum Dwellings, Washington, D.C., 1934-1936 (Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library)

Figure 10: Canal Street in the Yamacrow Section of Savannah, Georgia, 1936 (Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library)

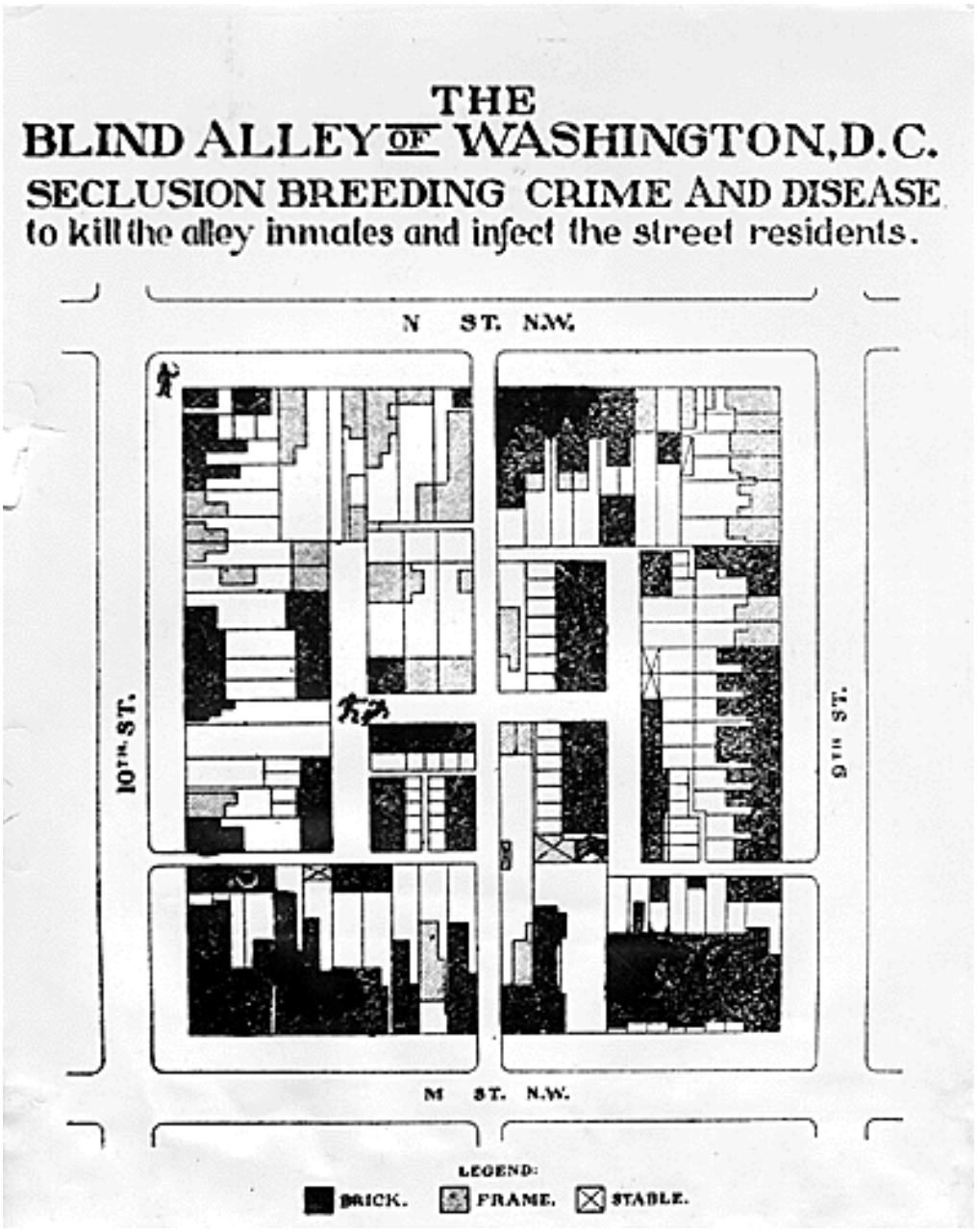

Figure 11: Propaganda for Slum Clearance in Washington D.C. (Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library)

Figure 12: Slums Breed Crime; USHA Poster from the 1930s (Franklin D. Roosevelt Presidential Library)

Figure 13: Slum Clearance in Washington, D.C., 1934-1936
(Franklin D. Roosevelt Library, National Archives)

Lobbyists for the private sector housing industry, amongst other groups, organized opposition to the new bill. One of the strongest and most vocal rebuttals to the philosophy of Wagner and his allies came from the president of the National Association of Real Estate Boards (NAREB), Walter S. Schmidt, of Cincinnati:

> It is contrary to the genius of the American people and the ideals they have established that government become landlord to its citizens … There is sound logic in the continuance of the practice under which those who have initiative and the will to save acquire better living facilities, and yield their former quarters at modest rents to the group below (Robinson et al 1999b:33).

Other business organizations followed suit, with the National Association of Retail Lumber Dealers, the U.S. Building and Loan League, and the U.S. Chamber of Commerce also expressing fierce opposition to public housing legislation (Robinson et al 1999b:33). The public housing activists responded by painting a bleak picture of the state of American housing:

> …AT LEAST A THIRD OF OUR HOUSING IS BAD ENOUGH TO BE A health hazard, but not all in the same way or to the same degree. The coverage of moral hazard is less than that of physical hazard, which is fortunate, as its effects are

> worse. About two fifths of our housing is rural, divided more or less evenly between farm and non-farm. The Farm Housing Survey made in 1934 shows an appalling lack of modern sanitation and conveniences, except in a few favored regions. To call 80 percent of our farmhouses substandard is an understatement (Wood 1940:83).

Wood found data on urban housing conditions in the 1930s, derived from the *Real Property Inventories* housing field surveys conducted from 1934-1936, also disturbing. The structural condition of only 39% of urban homes was considered good, 44.8% needed repairs, and 16.2% was considered poor; 4.4% of urban dwelling units had neither gas nor electric lighting, 14.6% lacked a private indoor toilet, 19.9% had no bathtub or shower, and 17.4% of occupied dwellings were crowded or overcrowded (Wood 1940:83). According to Wood, "to call a third of the nation or a third of those who live in urban communities 'ill-housed' can hardly be an exaggeration (Wood 1940:83)." "One-third of a nation" became a rallying cry for the public housing movement (Robinson et al:1999b:34).

Enacted as law, the 1937 United States Housing Act, with the objective of providing affordable housing to the poorer segments of the population, provided stringent new cost guidelines to public housing projects that led to an increased emphasis on economy and greater standardization in American public housing:

> It is the policy of the United States to promote the general welfare of the Nation by employing its funds and credit, as provided in this Act, to assist the several States and their political subdivisions to remedy the unsafe and unsanitary housing conditions and the acute shortage of decent, safe, and sanitary dwellings for families of lower income and, consistent with the objectives of this Act, to vest in local public housing agencies the maximum amount of responsibility in the administration of their housing programs (United States Housing Act of 1937, Sec. 2; 42 U.S.C. 1437).

The new legislation revived the failing Red Hook housing project in New York City; however, it also tightly controlled the project's budget. The total cost per room was cut to nearly half that of earlier PWA efforts in New York City, and the project density far exceeded that utilized in earlier public projects in the city (Robinson et al:1999b:40-41).

The issue of slum clearance was also revisited in the 1937 act. Senator David I. Walsh, a proponent of slum reform from Massachusetts, added the "equivalent elimination" provision to the bill, which required the local authority to remove substandard slum units from the local housing supply in a "substantially equal number" to the public housing units it built. The local authority could meet this requirement by "demolition, condemnation, and effective closing" of substandard units, or through rehabilitation by "compulsory repair or improvement." This provision was supported by many commercial landlords, who feared that expanded housing supplies would lower the rents that could be charged for their rental properties (Robinson et al:1999b:37).

United States Housing Authority

The United States Housing Authority, or USHA, was created under the 1937 Housing Act. This federal agency was designed to lend money to the states or communities for construction of low-cost public housing. Unlike the centralized organization of the earlier PWA Housing Division, which was responsible for every component of project planning and administration, operations at the newly established USHA were increasingly decentralized.

Roosevelt's Secretary of the Interior Harold L. Ickes successfully lobbied Congress to place the USHA within the Department of the Interior; however, President Roosevelt appointed Nathan Straus, a man strongly disliked by Ickes as the USHA administrator. This appointment resulted in Ickes distancing himself from the public housing program (Robinson et al:1999b:39).

Under the USHA, responsibility for initiating, designing, building and managing housing projects was given to local Public Housing Authorities (PHAs), while the Washington bureaucracy provided program direction, financial support, and consulting advice. In effect, site analysis, land acquisition, tenant distribution, and project design were handled by PHAs under the relatively strict constraints of the Federal program and the USHA furnished technical guidance, design assistance, project review, and issued program standards, management guidelines, design models, architectural standards, and building prototypes (Robinson et al:1999b:45).

Regarding the impact of increased standardization and restrictive budgets under the USHA on architectural style in public housing, it is clear that design creativity suffered during this period, continuing a trend that had actually begun under the PWA. Economy of materials and design trumped experimental and new design alternatives, resulting in what some critics have labeled an "unnecessarily barracks-like and monotonous" look. The social-psychological elements of project planning that had formed the core of the housers' vision were replaced by the goal of meeting minimum human needs of clean air and light within increasingly limited budgets. Although many new modern housing units were built, most were devoid of the artistic or aesthetic styling of earlier projects (Robinson et al:1999b:45).

As with the PWA projects, attempts were made to instill a sense of community in the public housing projects financed by the USHA. PHAs were encouraged to organize a variety of social, educational, and recreational events for the residents of the local complexes, most of which included a neighborhood community center. Choirs, nondenominational children's Bible schools, card clubs, dancing classes, nursery schools and neighborhood newsletters were amongst the activities and programs employed (Robinson et al:1999b:43). The USHA also attempted to increase public support for its programs and the new housing projects using city newspapers and government printed material, ground breaking and dedication ceremonies, tours of model homes, and radio broadcasts (Robinson et al:42).

Criticism of Public Housing in the New Deal

In its earliest phase, the American efforts in public housing were inspired by modern architectural theory, progressive social ideals and the praxis of urban activists; however, it soon foundered due to political squabbling, pressures from private sector builders, racial prejudice, classism, and

uninspired design. Although a high degree of technical excellence was mandated by USHA for public housing design after 1937, the buildings generally showed investment in healthier and safer designs over aesthetic considerations. There was also long standing social bias toward plain public housing (Gardner 1981:67). Bias of this type might be supported by identification with property values as an expression of socio-economic status and a zeal for protection of private property rights (Hooks 2001:139).

Some historians, including Richard Pommer, have blamed the failures of public housing in the United States almost entirely on the architecture and design. Pommer explained that modern architecture was not embraced by the architects of American public housing projects due to the separation of housing designs, which remained traditional, from other building forms. Pommer added, "…the degradation of public housing in [the United States] resulted as much from the contempt of it and its inhabitants expressed by these purely architectural values as from the political-economic compromises necessary to sell it to the real estate owners, the rural politicians and the bureaucrats (Pommer 1978:264)."

Housing and urban planning scholar John F. Bauman noted that the private housing market has long undermined government programs in public housing. This antagonism from the private sector, together with factors associated with racism and classism, such as the resistance of the middle class to living in proximity to the poor or racial minorities, the idea of public housing as transitional and the failed aesthetics of public housing design have resulted in the current state of public housing. Bauman stated, "The nexus of privatism and racism has foreclosed serious attempts by either public or private agencies to make low income housing into more than a poor house…" (Gardner 1981:66).

Public Housing in the 1940s

Overview

As President Franklin D. Roosevelt moved industry toward war production and abandoned his opposition to deficit spending, the PWA became irrelevant and was abolished in June 1941. Although Congressional interest in public housing had begun to diminish in the late 1930s, the onset of World War II would lead to renewed interest, redirection and expansion of Federal housing efforts. As the United States increased industrial capacity in response to the expanding conflict, established manufacturing centers such as Chicago and Detroit, as well as new manufacturing sites, experienced a great influx of population which again drew attention to the inadequate stock of urban housing. Good quality and inexpensive housing for defense workers and their families became a component of the war effort, leading to the revivification of the American public housing program after 1941. The goal of the program was; however dramatically altered from the provision of housing for low-income families to housing for defense workers on the home front (Robinson et al:1999b:46).

Despite the patriotic rationale of the new public housing efforts, private enterprise and its supporters in Congress again formed opposition, arguing that federal involvement in housing should be limited to loans and mortgage guarantees to support private construction and, at most, the public construction of temporary housing. Political battles continued between public housing

advocates and business interests and their allies, which included Congressional conservatives such as Senator Harry F. Byrd of Virginia and Republicans from rural constituencies. Opponents of public housing tried to derail defense housing funds being appropriated to the USHA and feared that public housing would emerge after the war to compete with private enterprise. The success of such attacks on government-built defense housing severely limited the extent of the public housing program during the war (Robinson et al:1999b:46).

The Lanham Act of 1940

In opposition to the USHA, a new housing bill that would severely restrict Federal efforts to build public war housing was sponsored by Republican Congressman Fritz Lanham of Texas. The Lanham Act, enacted as law on October 14, 1940 (54 Stat. 1125) was designed to provide relief for defense work areas found by the President to be suffering from an existing or impending housing shortage. In such cases, the Federal Works Administrator was empowered to acquire "improved or unimproved lands or interests in lands" for construction sites by purchase, donation, exchange, lease or condemnation. The Lanham Act provided $150 million to the Federal Works Agency to provide federally built housing quickly and cheaply in the most congested defense industry centers. It emphasized both speed in construction and economy of materials.

The Lanham Act represented a radical departure from previous federal public housing policy. It waived the low-income requirement for tenancy and made defense housing available to all workers facing the housing shortage. It also ordered local authorities to set fair rents at variable rates to be within the financial reach of all families employed in defense industries. The act exempted local authorities from the "equivalent elimination" clause, no longer requiring the demolition of an equal number of slum housing units for all public housing units built. Interestingly, the new policies conformed to the vision of earlier housers, such as Mumford and Bauer; public housing was becoming available to a more diverse section of American society, not only the most impoverished, and expensive, time consuming, and wasteful slum clearance was no longer mandated (Robinson et al:1999b:47).

Between 1940 and 1944, about 625,000 units of housing were built under the Lanham Act and its amendments with a total appropriation of nearly $1 billion.

War Trailer Projects

During World War II, the great majority of the public housing units, over 580,000, were of temporary construction, such as plywood dormitories and trailers (Robinson et al:1999b:52). Government built trailer camps became a common sight on the home front landscape during World War II:

> Across the length and breadth of America at war can be seen compact colonies of strange little cottages on wheels. These vehicles, each boasting all the comforts of home on a miniature scale, are known as trailers. A group or colony of them is a trailer camp. They are used to house workers in American war industries and other plants which have sprung up like giant mushrooms all over the United States. An

> owner, with his auto, which. pulls his trailer, may journey 500 to l,000 miles to join some trailer camp near the factory where he intends to work …
>
> People do not live in trailers because they like the idea of being gypsies, but generally because there are few houses to rent in the big war industry centers. So as a last resort they buy or rent a trailer, or even make one. Each trailer is built on two or four wheels and towed behind the owner's automobile. There are thousands of these trailers gathered in colonies near the nation's war plants.
>
> There were not quite 200 trailers in the camp. There were four neat rows of them and a few more scattered under the trees in front of a wooded ravine. Two white, roughly macadamized roads let through the trailer village. In about the middle of the camp stood the office and utility buildings. The office building was a bare room with a concrete floor and on the wall was a poster advertising war bonds. At the end of the room was a small office which served as renting bureau and post office. Stretching down one side of the room was a store where one could buy everything with the exception of fresh fruit and vegetables; fish and fowl. There was every kind of delicatessen -- sausages, salami, cheeses and potato salad and great stocks of sardines and canned salmon, canned goods and groceries. There was a small selection of such meats as chopped beef, pork chops and stew meats. There were oranges, bananas, cakes and bread (Vorse n.d.).

As early as 1940, war trailers were being distributed to areas in need of housing for defense workers. In the National Housing Agency publication, *Standards for War Trailer Projects* (NHA 1942b), it was stated that trailers were to be used as expedient and temporary housing for defense workers, were to be transferred to other locations once adequate housing facilities became available, and were to be held to minimum construction standards due to their temporary nature. Additional guidelines suggested site selection in consultation "with local housing authorities, planning agencies, municipal officials, military authorities, industrial experts, and other persons in a position to give information and advice" (NHA 1942b:1). The primary criterion for site selection was proximity and convenient access to the war activity, usually a defense plant of some type.

Sites were to be, when possible, within walking distance to the war activity, "2 miles for men and 1 mile for women" (NHA 1942b:i). "For economy and speed of construction," site layout conformed to existing topography and utilized existing drainageways; water lines and sanitary sewers were installed on-site; storm sewers were not built (NHA 1942b:5, 15). Construction of paved roads accessing the site if not already present and sidewalks within the site were mandated (NHA 1942b:6). Acceptable site density was considered to be "12 to 18 trailers per acre of usable land" (NHA 1942b:i). Example site plans were included in the manual.

Service trailers or buildings ancillary to the residential trailers and their arrangement in the site plan were also specified in the standards. Community Facilities included "Community Toilets," to be located within 200 feet of the residential trailers; "Community Laundries," within 300 feet; and "Collection Stations" for "refuse, garbage, sink waste, water supply, and ashes" within 150 feet. Outdoor lighting was recommended to "supplement street lighting" on walkways between the residential and ancillary structures (NHA 1942b:7). Larger trailer camps, sites with 50 or more

dwellings, were to be provided with on-site management and maintenance services, social or activity centers, outdoor recreation areas, health service facilities, and commercial facilities unless it could be demonstrated that adequate off-site facilities of these types were available to camp residents. Reduction or omission of such facilities required the approval of the Washington office of the Federal Public Housing Authority (NHA 1942b:9).

With the end of the war in 1945, the PHA was required, under the Lanham Act, to dispose of the temporary housing units, over 320,000 extant family dwelling and dormitory units at that time (NHA n.d.). The agency experimented with the reutilization of temporary war housing, in whole or in part, as barracks, utility buildings, and even rural dwellings and actively promoted the sale of such structures in domestic and foreign markets (NHA n.d.). The success of this program and the number of such structures that continued in use after the war is not known.

Following is a series of photographs documenting one or more war trailer camps in the vicinity of Alexandria, Virginia in 1941 (Figure 14 and Figure 15). These photographs were probably taken at Spring Bank Trailer Camp located on U.S. 1, in Fairfax County, south of the City of Alexandria (Netherton et al 1992:622). A segregated Farm Security Administration (FSA) Trailer Camp for African Americans was present in Arlington, Virginia by 1942 (Figure 16). Although few details relevant to this facility have been located at this time, a community building including "a well laundry" supplied with new aluminum Maytag Commander washing machines was located within the camp (Lupton 1996:21).

Figure 14: "Trailer Occupied By War Department Employee and Wife from Pennsylvania. Trailer Camp near Alexandria, Virginia; March 1941" (Farm Security Administration - Office of War Information Photograph Collection; Library of Congress)

Figure 15: "Showers and Toilets for Trailer Camp Occupants; Trailer Camp near Alexandria, Virginia; March 1941" (Farm Security Administration - Office of War Information Photograph Collection; Library of Congress)

Figure 16: "Arlington, Virginia. FSA (Farm Security Administration) Trailer Camp Project for Negroes. Single Type Trailer; April 1942" (Farm Security Administration - Office of War Information Photograph Collection; Library of Congress)

The Housing Act of 1949

After World War II, any effort to extend public housing policy was vigorously contested by special interest groups, sometimes referred to as the real estate lobby, including the National Association of Real Estate Brokers (NAREB), the National Association of Home Builders (NAHB), the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, the U.S. Savings and Loan League, and the National Association of Retail Lumber Dealers.

In 1945, legislation to extend the public housing appropriations of the 1937 Housing Act, which had been suspended before the war, was introduced in Congress. This legislation reached the U.S. House of Representatives as the Taft-Ellender-Wagner (T-E-W) Bill in 1948. Although it was bitterly fought by the real estate lobby and its political allies, after the election of Harry S. Truman as President of the United States in 1948, a popular mandate for passage of the bill was perceived. The T-E-W Bill was signed into law in July of 1949 as the Housing Act of 1949. The Act called for the production of more permanent public housing across the United States. Under Title I of the Act, the Housing and Home Finance Agency (HHFA) was authorized to provide capital grants and loan guarantees to local agencies for use in urban renewal; large scale land acquisition and slum clearance; under Title III, the Public Housing Administration (PHA) was authorized to allocate federal funds to local housing authorities for the construction of 810,000 public housing units over a six year period (Robinson et al:1999b:100).

Although the Housing Act of 1949 was nominally an extension of the United States Housing Act of 1937, it was also a great compromise between advocates of housing reform and the real estate lobby (Robinson et al:1999b:100).

Public Housing After 1949

Overview

In the perceived prosperity of the postwar years, public housing remained an integral part of Federal housing policy but received limited attention and funding. The rapid growth of population in the United States in the latter half of the 20th century and the concentration of this population in urban areas led to new problems in housing and the need for government to address these problems. Under the Housing Act of 1949, beginning in the 1950s, numerous massive public housing projects, typically high-rise complexes were constructed in urban areas across the country (Robinson et al:1999b:57).

In terms of design, public housing projects after 1949 were characterized by a simple, unified appearance. Standardization and economy became the most important elements of design; the "stripped modern" exterior architectural detailing of most public housing resulted in an institutional appearance. These later complexes also had much higher site densities than earlier projects, having both taller buildings with more units, and a greater number of buildings per site. The interiors of later public housing complexes also contrasted with the earlier ones, typically having smaller units with smaller rooms, connected by long hallways. Also, unlike earlier small-scale projects that were designed to blend with their surroundings, public housing in the second half of the 20th century tended to stand out in the urban landscape (Robinson et al:1999b:57).

Many critics of the public housing system in the 1950s considered it tied to humanistic sentiments and not focused on practical methods of assisting the poor. They claimed that the bureaucracy involved in the public housing system was inefficient and significantly decreased the funds that were actually used for housing, that public housing tended to result in more racially segregated communities within cities, and that the demand on collective cooperation and unity necessary in public housing, due to the close quarters in which tenants lived, was often unreasonable. The most significant federal housing legislation to be enacted between 1949 and the 1970s was the Housing Act of 1959, which established a direct loan program for senior citizens in need of housing aid.

Although local housing authorities continue to be supported with federal funding through the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), the federal government no longer pays to build new housing projects. HUD organizes all public housing in the United States. Federal programs begun in the last quarter of the 20th century, the Section 8 Housing Program, and HOPE VI involved government encouragement of and partnership with private sector entities to provide low cost housing and to redevelop distressed public housing projects as mixed-income communities. Since 2001, HUD has increasingly diverted funds from public housing toward home ownership programs. Many such programs including the "Renewing the Dream" tax credit work to encourage private sector housing developers to construct housing for low income residents. HUD has also formally recognized the persistence of inequalities in the conditions of housing for racial minorities and persons with disabilities.

Section 8

In reaction to the problems associated with the aging stock of public housing and increased requirement for low cost housing for those in need, the U.S. Congress passed legislation enacting the Section 8 Housing Program in 1974, which Richard Nixon signed into law. Section 8 encourages the private sector to construct affordable homes and assists poor tenants by giving a monthly subsidy to their landlords. This assistance can be 'project based, "which applies to specific properties", or "tenant based," which provides tenants with a voucher they can use anywhere vouchers are accepted. Since 1983, almost no new project based Section 8 housing has been produced. Effective October 1, 1999, existing tenant based voucher programs were merged into the Housing Choice Voucher Program, which is today the primary means of providing subsidies to low income renters.

HOPE VI

In 1989, a National Commission on Severely Distressed Public Housing was named and charged with proposing a National Action Plan to eradicate severely distressed or obsolete public housing by the year 2000. The Cranston-Gonzalez National Affordable Housing Act (NAHA) of 1990 included the first reference to the acronym HOPE (Homeownership and Opportunity for People Everywhere). NAHA programs included HOPE for Public and Indian Housing (HOPE I), HOPE for Multi-Family Units (HOPE II), and HOPE for Single-Family Homes (HOPE III). The HOPE VI program, also known as the Urban Revitalization Demonstration Program, was authorized by the Departments of Veterans Affairs and Housing and Urban Development and Independent Agencies Appropriations Act of 1993. It was also authorized, with slight modifications (amending

Section 24 of the 1937 Housing Act), by Section 120 of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1992. The program focused on the concept of mixed-income New Urbanist developments, which better blended with existing neighborhoods than previous public housing developments. PHAs on HUD's Troubled Housing Authority list were eligible to apply for HOPE VI funds. In 2009, HOPE VI received a $120 million budget. By the following fiscal year, it received no funds while the new Choice Neighborhoods program received $250 million. According to HUD, while functional, HOPE VI grants were used to demolish 96,200 public housing units and produce 107,800 new or renovated units. 56,800 were to be affordable to the lowest-income households (United States Department of Housing and Urban Development 2016).

Public Housing in Alexandria

Overview

The history of public housing in the City of Alexandria may be traced to the last years of the 1930s, beginning with the establishment of the Alexandria Housing Authority and planned USHA slum clearance efforts in the city. In the early 1940s, several temporary public housing projects for defense workers - war trailer camps - were established in the city. Several permanent public housing projects, including Ramsey Homes, were acquired or constructed by 1945. Segregation of the city's public housing appears to have been a constant component of the system. In 1965, with the integration of two African American families into the previously "whites only" Cameron Valley Homes, efforts to remedy this situation were made (Reft 2013; WP 1965:C1).

The Alexandria Housing Authority

In June of 1939, the Alexandria Housing Authority was formally established as a public agency under the Housing Authority Law, Chapter 1, Title 36 of the Code of Virginia of 1938, as a result of work done by the local Council of Social Agencies and the Woman's Club. Reportedly, the municipal authorities were originally opposed to the creation of the agency; however, the city appropriated $3,000, granted as a loan, to fund the Authority, pending anticipated financial assistance from the USHA. In 1940, the agency had one permanent full-time employee, the executive director, two part-time typists and an architect hired on a contingent basis. Its first mission was clearing slums and creating new affordable housing in the Berg and Parker-Gray neighborhoods where little investment had occurred since before the Depression (Woodbury 1940:140).

During the 1940s and 1950s, the Authority constructed new units and acquired ones built for the war effort. It was renamed the Alexandria Redevelopment and Housing Authority (ARHA) by 1956 as it was granted authority to issue bonds. New developments continued in throughout the coming decades. The City established a Housing Office in 1975, and increasingly received federal Community Development Block Grants (CDBG), which funded infrastructure development and anti-poverty programs in affordable housing areas. Though ARHA received no funding from the City, in 1972, ARHA and the City jointly adopted Resolution 99 with the City agreeing that it must maintain units or engage in one-for-one replacement for any units that are removed from its affordable inventory. This was enacted because public development or redevelopment activity

made the elimination of existing housing desirable. Resolution 830 superseded Resolution 99 in 1982 to incorporate publicly assisted housing occupied by the elderly and disabled persons.

Since inception, the primary mission of the agency has been to provide sanitary and safe dwelling accommodations to persons of low income at affordable rents in the city. ARHA's annual operating cost and capital funding for the upkeep and maintenance of ARHA properties are primarily funded by the U.S Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The City appoints the nine members of the ARHA Board of Commissioners.

Slum Clearance in Alexandria

In a letter to the editor of the *Washington Post* in December 1935, a citizen of Alexandria expressed outrage at the paper's hostility to the emerging federal housing program and its contention that local government could handle the housing crisis:

> In my own hometown I know of no present or past attempts to remove the slum dwellings or even discuss the possibility of removing them. Shacks that were formerly grog shops and houses of worse repute are now renovated with a coat of paint, brass dooor-knockers [sic], green shutters, foot scraper, and a tub and are rented to the stupid petit bourgeois for fabulous sums while the former inhabitants are turned out to shift for themselves and develop bigger and better slums by their shifting…your "local government" is a non-entity and has failed to alleviate conditions… (WP 1935:8).

In October 1939, the USHA earmarked $900,000 for use by the Alexandria Housing Board in a program of slum clearance and the construction of "200 family units that may be individual dwellings, row houses or single apartments." Provisions for slum clearance mandated that for each unit constructed an existing unit would be renovated or razed. The units were expected to rent from between $14 and $18 monthly and were to be made available to families earning less than $75 per month (WP 1939:12).

According to a letter to the editor of the *Washington Post*, slum clearance in Alexandria was underway by the beginning of 1941, the author informed:

> …of a situation which exists in the town of Alexandria…about the close of the year notices went out to various colored families living in Alexandria, in that area near the railroad tracks between Oronoco and Princess Streets, that because of the slum clearance in charge of the Housing Authority, these families must vacate the shacks in which they then lived and move to other homes so that better houses might be erected there.
>
> …However, they did not move…and on January 2, 1941 the wrecking crews came…Today I received word that the houses on Princess Street are having their roofs taken off…all those people living in that row of houses, including a child with a broken neck, will be entirely homeless, without even the shelter usually given to

> animals…Alexandrians are content to allow people to be treated worse than animals.
>
> It seems that the Housing Authority should have…ascertained whether there were enough places for these people to move… (WP 1941a:10).

In a 1944 interview, Virginia Representative Howard Smith noted "the extremely pressing problem of District slums and the dire need here for proper Negro housing." Smith remarked on the recent efforts toward slum clearance and public housing in Alexandria:

> Over in Alexandria we can see in a small way the blessings of slum clearance. There are two blocks down there of fine brick dwellings for Negroes, with backyards and plenty of air and sunlight. They replaced former slums. It is deeply gratifying to see the pride and self-respect which a decent place to live has engendered in the occupants of these homes. They are beautifully kept (WP 1944b:B1).

Proponents of the Taft-Ellender-Wagner housing bill of 1948 noted that Alexandria, with a population of about 75,000, had available only 421 rental housing units for low income families (130 units for white families, 291 units for African-American families), not including those allotted for military personnel (WP 1948:15). Former defense housing, including Ramsey Homes, was acquired by ARHA for use as public housing in the 1950s, and additional public housing was constructed in the 1950s and throughout the latter half of the 20th century to address the housing needs of low-income families.

In addition, there was a general housing crisis for all classes of African American with deed restrictions not allowing black people to buy and forcing them to live in Washington, D.C. “The city’s eighteenth- and nineteenth-century urban core was seen as dilapidated and overcrowded, while its western portions were largely rural and underdeveloped. With the post–World War II suburban construction boom taking place in nearby counties, local leaders were especially concerned that white middle-class families would avoid Alexandria” rather than concerning themselves over the black middle-class (Moon 2016:29).

In 1985, a group called "The 16th Census Tract Crisis Committee" accused city officials of deliberately reducing and eliminating housing opportunities for African Americans in the city, beginning in the 1960s (WP 1985:F1). They filed a complaint with HUD, that the constitutional rights of African Americans were violated by city actions. Backed by the NAACP Legal Defense Fund, The 16th Census Tract Crisis Committee singled out the following city actions as violating the Civil Rights Act of 1968 (WP 1985:F2). Among other things, they complained that the city was:

> Using zoning code, code enforcement or condemnation to demolish homes occupied by African Americans without providing affordable alternatives;
>
> Rejecting planned urban renewal projects and renovating housing units that were generally too expensive for African Americans;

Closing the historically African-American Parker-Gray High School and reselling the property for commercial and upper end housing use rather than low income housing; and

Enacting a 1984 ordinance that designated the Parker-Gray African-American community as a special preservation district.

Residents of the primarily African-American Parker-Gray neighborhood opposed the extension of the Old Town Historic District into the neighborhood as it would increase property values and property taxes and force them from their homes (WP 1984:C1).

Ramsey Homes Defense Housing

During the Second World War, the United States Housing Authority (USHA) constructed Ramsey Homes, then known as Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133, as permanent housing for African-American defense workers. Alexandria architect and architectural historian, Delos H. Smith, FAIA, of Smith, Werner, and Billings Architects, proposed two Modernist designs for the project. The first option consisted of three buildings comprising 19 units, while the second option consisted of three four-unit foursquares and a three-unit L-shaped building constructed of more economical materials complex. The final plan included landscaping and a simple paved play area within the L of the triplex.

Approval for construction of Ramsey Homes was attained in November 1941. It was completed in November 1942. Some units were already occupied prior to the entire project's completion. The original residents of the complex were African American defense workers, but their identities were kept secret as a matter of national security. The 1945 Alexandria City Directory does not list the odd-numbered addresses on the 600 block of N. Patrick Street as a result of this policy. Similarly, photographs and information concerning the Naval Torpedo Station on the waterfront, which employed an integrated work force and where residents of Ramsey Homes may have worked, were similarly withheld from public access until after World War II (WP 2014).

The Alexandria City Directory for 1947 listed the residents of the Ramsey Homes project in that year. Two of the listed residents, Carneal Coffee and Cleveland B. Tivy, appear to have been associated with the defense industry, their occupations listed as "USA" (perhaps the Army) and "Clerk War Dept." respectively. Other residents listed include Will Daniels, barber; George W. Witherspoon, auto mechanic; and Charles E. Smith, janitor. All of the residents were noted to be African American. The appearance of listings for the Ramsey Homes residents in 1947 reflects the end of the policy of secrecy that likely caused their omission from the war-time city directories, and the listed occupations of the residents suggests that the housing was no longer restricted to defense workers.

After World War II, the Federal Public Housing Authority sought to sell the Ramsey Homes; the City of Alexandria contemplated the purchase of the site, and the *Washington Post* reported that the Mayor of Alexandria claimed the wartime housing did not meet city building codes and were therefore "substandard" (WP October 1946:5). The property did not leave federal hands until 1953, when the ownership of Ramsey Homes was transferred to the Alexandria Redevelopment and

Housing Authority (Alexandria Deed Book 356:407), which remains the owner and manager of the property.

Other Housing Projects in the Vicinity of the Ramsey Homes

Several other public housing projects have been constructed in the vicinity of the Ramsey Homes and the Parker-Gray District. The earliest projects were built in the 1940s, as either defense housing or slum clearance public housing. The following brief descriptions of public housing projects are presented in chronological order by construction date.

John Roberts Homes

The first public housing project constructed in the Uptown/Parker-Gray area was the segregated "whites only" John Roberts Homes, built in 1941 in the block bound by Oronoco Street, E. Braddock Road, N. West Street, and the RF&P Railroad line. John Roberts Homes consisted of twenty-one wood-frame buildings each of which contained between four and ten units. The projects were razed in 1982 and replaced by the Colecroft Station residential development. Ninety units were replaced by ground lease to a private developer and the construction of 90 project-based units at the Annie B. Rose House.

Cameron Valley

Originally built around the same time as Ramsey Homes, Cameron Valley became the focus of a replacement-housing program in 1987. ARHA sought to build and acquire and rehabilitate a variety of housing types in scattered locations to replace all 264 homes. Sixty homes were rebuilt onsite, 30 units were New Construction Public Housing, 55 were Rehabilitation projects, 152 units were located in Glebe Park, 38 condominiums were located in Park Place, and 41 units were at scattered housing sites. The project received a CDBG and was required to considered size, scale, materials, and setback of the existing neighborhood, induced traffic, minority economic participation, affirmative action goals, and job training.

George Parker (Hopkins-Tancil Courts)

George Parker Homes public housing, renamed Hopkins-Tancil Courts in the 1980s, are located on two blocks bounded by Fairfax Street, Royal street, Pendleton and Princess Streets. The housing consists of two-story brick buildings constructed for military housing circa 1942 and later turned over to ARHA for use as public housing units for low-income African-American families. When renamed, they were rehabilitated under the Moderate Rehabilitation program and provided with project-based voucher subsidies.

Samuel Madden Homes (Downtown) or the Berg

The Samuel Madden Homes (Downtown), also known as the Berg, was a 100-unit public housing complex, built between ca. 1942 and 1959. It was built adjacent to the George Parker Homes and occupied two contiguous blocks, bounded by Pendleton Street to the north, Princess Street to the south, the George Parker Homes to the east, and North Pitt Street to the west. The earliest units

were two-story brick row townhouses constructed for military housing circa 1945. The project, named for the first African-American pastor of the Alfred Street Baptist Church, was initiated as part of a program of slum clearance, with the "blighted" area extending well beyond the site of the public housing units, and including areas north of Madison Street and west of N. Fairfax Street. After clearance, some of the land became the location of temporary houses built to provide displaced families a place to live while the Samuel Madden Homes were under construction. It was replaced in 2005 by Chatham Square, a mixed-income community of 52 units on-site plus 48 scattered units, for one-to-one permanent replacement.

Samuel Madden Homes (Uptown)

Samuel Madden Homes (Uptown) were built in 1945, in the 900 blocks of Patrick and Henry Streets and the 1000 block of Montgomery Street, and are a non-contiguous element of the Samuel Madden (Downtown) project several blocks to the east of the Parker-Gray District. The Samuel Madden Homes and the later James Bland project were all the work of architect Joseph Saunders, and were very similar in design. The project includes side-gabled brick row town houses, sometimes with six or more repeated in a row, and positioned around landscaped garden areas that are oriented to face the north-south streets. Through oral history interviews with residents who lived in the neighborhood and in the Samuel Madden Homes and James Bland Homes public housing projects in the 1940s and 1950s, it has become apparent that little distinction was made by the residents between the Samuel Madden Homes (Uptown) and the later and adjacent James Bland Homes projects. Typically, both were known as "the projects." Perhaps due to confusion associated with Samuel Madden Homes (Downtown), Samuel Madden (Uptown) is frequently referred to as “James Bland” by area residents.

James Bland and James Bland Addition

The James Bland Homes occupied two entire and three partial city blocks bounded by First, N. Patrick, Madison, N. Alfred, Wythe, and N. Columbus Streets. Constructed in 1954 and 1959, the project was named for James Alan Bland, a 19th-century African American musician and songwriter. Although formally integrated, the complex became almost entirely African American after the completion of the project. between 2008 and 2014, ARHA redeveloped the site with the assistance of the urban home building firm EYA in four phases as the award winning Old Town Commons. The original 194 public housing units were replaced by 134 affordable triplex and multi-family units and 245 market rate townhomes and condominiums. The mixed-income community incorporates a mixture of architectural styles reminiscent of Colonial Revival, Italianate, Folk Victorian, Queen Anne, and modern “industrial inspired”.

ARCHITECTURAL CONTEXT

The Effect of Early 20th Century Experimentation in Structural Systems and Prefabrication on Architecture in the Washington Metro Region

Before the World Wars

Builders on a quest for fireproof material began experimenting with sand, gravel, and lime around 1850. By 1860, the first patent for a reinforced concrete wall was granted, yet it wasn't until after 1900 and a number of patents to improve production and stability, that its use became widespread. Concrete's perhaps most visible early application was for the roadbed of the first National Auto Trail, Lincoln Highway, a coast-to-coast interstate built and operated by a private association with the assistance of local governments in 1913. The Lincoln Highway Association and subsequent auto clubs built "seedling miles" to gain support for the Good Roads Movement and lobby the federal government to support widespread infrastructure improvements (Gaudette and Slaton 2007). At the same time, "Ernest Ransome in Beverly, Massachusetts, Albert Kahn in Detroit, and Richard E. Schmidt in Chicago, promoted concrete for use in 'Factory Style' utilitarian buildings with an exposed concrete frame infilled with expanses of glass" (Gaudette and Slaton 2007:3).

A pioneer in both structural precast concrete and affordable housing, Grosvenor Atterbury began to experiment with techniques in housebuilding in 1902 with the idea that prefabrication could solve the bulk of housing needs. Early precast concrete units proved expensive due to heavy investment in the molds and transportation challenges and were only cost effective on large-scale projects. Around 1907, he designed precast hollow-core panels for walls, floors, and roofs, and between 1910 and 1918, oversaw the construction of several hundred houses for the Russell Sage Foundation in Forest Hills, Long Island, where the units arrived by truck. With quality results, the cost remained high, and though the production and structural engineering were innovative, the architecture was not with stucco, wood, and brick veneers and a vocabulary of Tudor Revival and Colonial Revival styles (Kelly 1951:12-13).

Other attempts at prefabrication included Thomas Edison's cast-in-place reinforced concrete homes in Union Township, New Jersey (1908); "the Merrill System of monolithic concrete walls formed in situ (1908); Simpson Craft, a complete house system of concrete, about 90% precast (1917); Lakeolith, the precast ribbed panel system of Simon Lake, the submarine designer (1918); [and] the Hahn Concrete Lumber System of precast and site-formed concrete (1919)" (Kelly 1951:14). Though none were considered practical enough to translate to mass production, Edison's cast iron molds were used to construct houses in Pennsylvania and Virginia (Hurd 1994).

Architect of the Ramsey Homes, Delos Hamilton Smith entered the professional world at the same time experimentation took off. He grew up in the years after the 1876 Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia, America's celebration of 100 years of independence and its first major World Fair, which sparked the nostalgic and enduring Colonial Revival movement. During his youth, the World's Columbian Exposition or Chicago's World Fair was held 400 years after Christopher Columbus landed in America on an extensive Beaux Art style campus, which promoted Neoclassicism, symmetry, and balance, and like the Philadelphia Exhibition had long lasting effects on the future of architecture and urban planning, particularly in Washington, D.C. Like

many of his contemporaries, Smith trained in the Beaux Art style and became part of the City Beautiful movement as he had an intense interest in history and worked frequently in revival styles.

Born in 1884 in Willcox, Arizona, Smith graduated from high school in Washington, D.C. and received his B.S. in architecture from George Washington University (GWU) in 1906 (Smith 1946). As an undergraduate student from 1904 to 1906, Smith worked as a Junior Architect Draftsman for $840 per year at the Treasury Department in the Office of Supervising Architect (OSA) (United States 1906). The majority of architects working in the D.C. metro region began their careers at the OSA, which functioned from 1852 to 1939 and employed over 100 architects during Smith's tenure to design Beaux Art style federal buildings throughout the U.S., including courthouses, post offices, mints, marine hospitals, and custom houses. A fellow junior architect, J.R. Kennedy would later work for the U.S. Housing Corporation, the first of its kind in the federal government, and become involved with the noted craftsman John. J. Earley and his experimentations in precast concrete. Smith and Kennedy were active in the Washington Architectural Club, which was popular among younger OSA architects until it disbanded during wartime. Upon graduation, Smith took positions with locally prominent firms Hornblower & Marshall (1907-1909), Hill & Kendall (1910-1911), and Jules Henri de Sibour (1911-1912). From 1910 to 1916 he taught part time at GWU and received his M.S. from the institution in 1916. He concurrently established his own practice, where he focused on Gothic and Colonial Revival ecclesiastical and residential commissions, such as the circa 1914 St. John's Episcopal Church in Bethesda, Maryland (Smith 1946).

While the majority of residential and governmental architects like Smith worked with more traditional materials and styles, a minority of practitioners, primarily but not exclusively in the Midwest and West, began to experiment with Modernistic forms and materials, drawing from nature and industry. Locally, the most conspicuous use of concrete occurred in the federally owned Meridian Hill Park in D.C., designed in the Beaux Art style with experimental decorative precast concrete developed by John J. Earley. Around the same time that Smith came to D.C. from Arizona, Earley (1881-1945) moved from New York City during his childhood. He attended St. John's College in Annapolis, Maryland and apprenticed under his father, who was an ecclesiastical artist and stone carver. After his father's death in 1906, he took over the studio in Rosslyn, Virginia and began to experiment heavily with decorative aggregate in concrete to create mosaics. In 1911, research conducted for the National Bureau of Standards led him to develop what became the Earley process, which he employed on traditionally styled park features throughout Meridian Hill Park beginning in 1916.

World War I (1914-1918)

The Federal Government's first major attempt to address housing arose from a desperate need as the U.S. entered the war. In 1917, the Council of National Defense formed a Housing Committee. The following year, the Housing for War Needs Act passed and the U.S. Housing Corporation was organized, employing many architects who had worked at the OSA, including Kennedy. Under its organization, master plans, housing, local transportation, and other facilities were provided for industrial worker communities, and housing projects were designed and constructed for war workers. Projects in the D.C. area included the Washington Belt Line track construction. Master plans included street and site plans, grading and paving, sewer and water supply, street profiles,

property maps, and architectural drawings of house types. After Armistice, construction activities ceased July 1, 1919, and the agency primarily worked toward liquidating assets and disposing of real estate until 1952 (Matchette 1995).

The Army Quartermaster Corps dismissed experimentation in concrete and prefabricated housing before and during World War I, arguing that balloon framing was mastered by most builders and that expedited large-scale construction required a proven system no matter how labor intensive or outdated. After testing pre-cut sectional wood, sectional steel, and wire-mesh concrete at Fort Myer, Virginia, prior to World War I, the Quartermaster General determined that traditional methods of prepping material on site was, as he had theorized, cheaper and more efficient due to the average builder's skill set. The Army had little confidence in private companies meeting demands on short notice and managed to create 240,000,000 square feet of space with minimal prefabrication within 18 months (Garner 1993).

Reflecting on the architecture and funding of public housing over 20 years after World War I's Armistice, Catherine Bauer, Director of Research and Information at USHA, wrote,

> For the most part the private construction industry found it unprofitable to build homes for low-income families and therefore confined itself to the more profitable task of catering to the higher income groups. On the few occasions when private enterprise did build homes for low-income groups, the architect's services were frequently dispensed with or-what is even worse-the architect was asked to turn out plans for jerrybuilt chickencoops [sic].
>
> Public enterprise, on the other hand, never made more than a few scattered efforts in the low-rent housing field. During the World War the Unites States constructed and operated low-income rent homes for munitions workers and shipbuilders. But when the war was over, instead of following the example of England and most European counties by launching a large-scale public housing program, the Federal Government retreated from the housing field and sold its holdings to private interests (Bauer 1939:65-66).

In Alexandria, the steel and ferro concrete Torpedo Factory at 101 North Union Street was planned for torpedo production during the war, but was not completed until after its end (Applar 2008). It is the earliest example of the industrial style popularized by Albert Kahn and influential in later Modernistic commercial design.

From 1916 to 1918, Delos H. Smith served the U.S. Navy as Supervising Engineer at the U.S. Naval Academy in Annapolis (Smith 1946). During his tenure, he oversaw the first of several expansions of the 1906 Beaux Art style Bancroft Hall, the largest dormitory in the world (Kelly 2011:332) (Figure 17). As with the Army, the Navy did not engage in experimental housing.

Figure 17: 1918 Addition to the 1906 Bancroft Hall, Overseen by Delos H. Smith, while Serving as Construction Supervisor at the U.S. Naval Academy (Lowe 1981)

Post World War I

While experimentation in concrete housing flourished in the private sector after the war, the federal government turned its attention to infrastructure after the successful lobbying of the Good Roads Movement. An early adopter of mass produced affordable housing for employees, industries made advances where government left off, often building company towns with their own products. In contrast, the American Steel and Wire Co. in Pennsylvania sought to eliminate steel and built foursquare housing similar in form to the present-day Ramsey Homes around 1920 with concrete walls, floors, roofs, and partitions. "While the flat concrete roof is the logical covering for a concrete house, it was believed that the public would not be entirely satisfied with this type, and as a concession to the taste of the occupant and the necessity of some form of insulation for the ceiling, the concrete cornice and roof slab are poured and a low-pitched false roof of asbestos shingles on a wood frame is placed over it" (Whipple, ed. 1920:80) (Figure 18).

Plate 71. A STREET FRONT OF CONCRETE HOUSES AT DONORA, PA.

(See Page 112 for Typical Plans for Third House from Right) (Floor Plans for Right-End House Are Shown on Page

Figure 18: 1919 Reinforced Poured Concrete Houses and Duplexes in Cement City Historic District, Donora, Pennsylvania, Built by American Steel and Wire Co. for Employees (Comstock 1919)

The 1920 book *Concrete Houses, How They Were Built* (Whipple, ed.) illustrates the wide variety of reinforced and precast concrete systems developed in the first two decades of the century, including Edison's aforementioned precast Ingersol system. It also shows the wide variety of styles employed from the Colonial Revival to Craftsman to flat-roofed Mediterranean Revival. As noted, Americans were resistant to flat-roofed houses outside of the Southwest and West unless some sort of parapet or embellishment was added. Though Modern examples were widely built during this period in Europe, they only appeared sporadically in America.

> Every home builder benefits by the accumulated experience of others, as expressed through his architect and his builder. Equally he is the loser by that experience which holds to traditional methods and materials long after better things are obtainable. This conservatism coupled with a mental laziness that resists the effort required to develop new ideas, is chiefly responsible for the slow development of the fireproof house.
>
> The percentage of houses in which concrete is the principal structural material has been so small that the man who builds a fireproof house is looked upon in most localities as a curiosity and his work as a kind of dementia (Whipple 1920:5).

Grosvenor Atterbury continued his work on housing and concrete from 1919 to 1921 supported by the American Car and Foundry Co. In 1921, Boston industrialist Albert Farwell Bemis began to sponsor research into prefabrication as he owned a number of companies related to the building industry.

> For the next 10 years, a period during which prefabrication was quite removed from the limelight, Bemis Industries, Inc., studied building materials and structural methods in its laboratories and in the field, experimenting with a large number of different types of construction… The lack of continuity in approach may be noted when we consider that the 22 systems which were tried included such elements as solid wood panels, plywood panels, concrete poured in situ, precast gypsum blocks, precast gypsum slabs, gypsum tubes, an excelsior-magnesite material known as "Acoustex," steel, [etc.] (Kelly 1951:20-21).

In Alexandria, builders and architects had begun to use hollow tile, a precast structural terra cotta block in walls, as well as concrete block for foundations after the war (The Hollow Building Tile Association 1922). Local architect J.A. Clark produced 10 designs for 30 houses in the Rucker-Johnston Subdivision of the Rosemont Historic District, to be constructed entirely with hollow tile in 1919 (Maxwell and Massey 1991). Like most examples of precast buildings of this era, the houses had veneers that concealed their advanced technology.

Despite exposure to evolving technology and architectural styles, Delos Smith's interest remained firmly planted in historicism. After his experience at the Naval Academy, he surveyed and documented historic buildings in Annapolis and continued to design a number of houses and churches in historical styles, completing the Dutch Colonial Revival Henry C. Winslow House in Leesburg, Virginia and the Colonial Revival Mrs. S. Lawrence Heap House in Chevy Chase, Maryland in 1922 (Walsh 1922:256) (Figure 19). When he joined the American Institute of Architects (AIA), his office was located in the Neoclassical Union Trust Building designed by the prominent architect, Waddy Butler Wood, in 1906 at 740 15th Street, N.W. in D.C. period (AIA 2015).

The Great Depression (1929-1939)

Despite the Depression, the 1930s provided fertile ground for architects and planner working on projects in private industry and under the New Deal. Presenting a stark contrast to the revival work of Smith and many regional American architects, Henry-Russell Hitchcock and Philip Johnson prepared an exhibit and book entitled *The International Style* (reprinted 1995) for the two-year-old Museum of Modern Art (MoMA) in New York in 1932. With origins in American industrial design and European design schools such as the Bauhaus founded in 1919 in Germany, the International Style emphasized volume over mass, depended on rhythmic organization of asymmetrical arrangements, and outlawed ornamentation, relying on steel and concrete to achieve these three goals (Roth, ed. 1983:630). The deceiving simplicity of the style and its vernacular variations complimented the mood of the Great Depression (1929-1939) and World War II (1939-1945) as well as ongoing experimentation in translating the production lines of the motor industry into the housing industry to create affordable options for all; yet, America continued to resist such architecture in residential building until after World War II.

Figure 19: 1922 Mrs. S. Lawrence Heap House, Chevy Chase, Maryland by Delos H. Smith (Walsh 1922:256)

A year after the MoMA show, the Chicago World's Fair of 1933 exhibited only three prefabricated experimentals houses in its showcase of contemporary homes, showing two of steel and one of precast synthetic stone during a period when up to 50 systems were actively tested. In 1935, *The Architectural Forum* reported on 33 commercially available systems eight of which were structural precast concrete. Three years later, it listed 25 commercially available systems, including five of structural precast concrete, which continued to challenge developers. While steel had been preferred, long-term technical issues and high costs led to its fall in favor by the late 1930s and a temporary shift back to wood framing occurred (Kelly 1951:49-50).

In 1931, Robert L. Davison founded the Housing Research Division of the Pierce Foundation, in Raritan, New Jersey to research "materials and structures that would yield a house of lowest possible cost consistent with adequate physical standards. Among the materials which this group tried were concrete, plywood, composition board, cellular glass, stabilized earth, and a hydro-calcium silicate composition known as 'Microporite' [in an effort] to find a single material which would serve both as structure and as enclosure" (Kelly 1951:30-31). In 1935, the group completed the first of many experimental houses, using a steel frame and precast reinforced Microporite slabs for walls, floors, roof, and partitions. Most notable was the Foundation's work on plumbing and

heating equipment and studies of floor plans and living habits, which contributed to future standards in low-income housing.

During this period, Alexandria was still a relatively small community on the outskirts of the district. Serious experimentation in design, materials, and planning had not occurred in the city, while national publications promoted "Concrete for New Designs" (Raymond 1936) and innovative projects were ongoing in the surrounding counties and D.C. Following his prototype at Meridian Hill Park, John J. Earley achieved the title of Master Craftsman. His decorative concrete projects remained largely sculptural and included the East Potomac Park Field House (1919), the Shrine of the Sacred Heart (1923) for which he won an AIA award, and the Department of Justice ceiling (1933) in D.C. as well as the Baha'i Temple in Wilmette, Illinois, and the Lorado Taft Fountain of Time, in Chicago (Kelly 2011:325). After completing dozens of projects and winning an award from the American Concrete Institute, John Earley's interests expanded beyond the decorative use of precast concrete in large-scale commissions. In 1934, he partnered with engineer, Basil G. Taylor, and architect, J.R. Kennedy (a frequent collaborator), to design and build a group of five experimental houses in Silver Spring, Maryland. In 1935, he incorporated the Earley Process Corporation in D.C. as his first Polychrome House was being completed. Each house consisted of concrete slabs with crushed Oklahoma jasperite in the walls, buff Potomac River gravel in the fluted corners and entrance pillars, and accents of ceramic material in other locations to create a mosaic prefabricated at his sculpture-studio-turned-production plant in Rosslyn (*Architecture* 1933:227; Lavoie 1990:2-4; Hurd 1994). The two-story version of the Polychrome House resembled and possibly influenced Delos Smith's foray into Modernism at the Ramsey Homes in the following decade (Figure 20).

Kennedy and Earley designed the system with the hopes that an average small builder could erect the precast concrete walls using an A-frame and a chain hoist and lock the slabs with cast-in-place columns. Despite promise in Silver Spring, Earley met some of the same challenges as fellow precast concrete builders in production and transportation. He completed five in the Polychrome Historic District and was commissioned to build one more in Capitol Hill; however, he failed to sell the prototype for use in mass produced housing. Essentially, the decorative nature of the Earley Process would have been considered nonessential and value engineered out of projects during World War II (Lavoie 1990). It was perhaps too experimental for local tastes as well. G. Frank Cordner, AIA, who lived in Alexandria around 1940 according to directories, wrote of America's ongoing resistance to architectural and technological advances in 1936,

> Exterior design of residences is slow to respond to new types so one may come upon a very modern plan or layout having its exterior done in the details of one of the conventional or period styles. It is the same with interiors. Entire interiors in the modern style are rare in small houses as yet but one will find single rooms, decoration here and there and other features that indicate the trend. One influence that will speed this up is the more rapid spread of furniture done in the modern manner. Movable equipment is always more quick to respond to new influences than fixed matters like buildings.

Figure 20: 1936 Two-Story Polychrome House, Silver Spring, Maryland by Sculptor and Craftsman John J. Earley and Architect J. R. Kennedy (Terry 1995)

> Surprisingly enough, there are but few really new materials to be found on the new houses. Older materials being used in new ways are much more common (Cordner 1936:59).

Within the American Modernist movement, builders and architects on a local scale gravitated towards the more ornate yet also technologically driven Art Deco style in the 1930s and Art Moderne or Streamline Moderne in the 1940s, while others still clung to historical styles, particularly in Virginia. Rather than allowing form to follow function as was promoted in the International Style, architects working in the Deco and Moderne styles incorporated stone, brick, decorative concrete, and metal veneers with abstract, geometric motifs on often symmetrical, flat-roofed buildings. The same year as the MoMA exhibition, factory pioneer Albert Kahn applied Art Deco rather than the industry-inspired International Style to the Alexandria Branch of the Ford Motor Company, which consisted of a steel structure with yellow glazed brick veneer and three simple concrete additions on wood pilings in the Potomac River. Built one year after the completion of Smith & Edwards's Neoclassical courthouse in Maryland, this dramatically different building served Ford on the Alexandria waterfront until 1942, when the U.S. Navy used it for the war effort (Applar 2008). Other early examples of Art Deco in Alexandria include the Virginia Public Service Company at 117 South Washington Street designed by noted Chicago architect Frank D. Chase in 1930, the 1932 former Coca Cola Bottling Plant at 1500 King Street, the George Washington Middle School designed by the state architect Raymond V. Long in 1934,

and multiple commercial buildings on Mount Vernon Avenue and King Street as well as one at 301 North Patrick Street.

Streamline Moderne trended a little later than Art Deco and was used much more in domestic architecture than its predecessor. Examples include numerous row houses, duplexes, and apartment complexes in Alexandria. Along Mount Vernon Avenue and King Street, commercial buildings incorporated curved corners and corner windows. The grandest local example is National Airport constructed in 1941 (Cox 2012). Many examples of apartment buildings and duplexes built in the city in the 1940s began to exhibit features of the International Style as ornamentation was stripped away. A few rare examples of vernacular International Style homes exist from this era, including a house at 2800 Farm Road designed in 1937 by Samuel Lorrin Powell for himself (Shapiro 2016) and a house 3301 Cameron Mills Road (Cox 2012).

Continuing on the same path, Delos Smith did not engage in the early Modernist movement in the 1920s and 1930s. From 1924 to 1934, he partnered with traditionalist Thomas H. Edwards and worked on a number of large commissions, which were clearly influenced by the work of the OSA and architects of the Naval Academy. In 1931, they completed the Grey Courthouse in Montgomery County, Maryland in the Neoclassical style with a large portico of Ionic columns, using a granite foundation, steal structure, and Indiana limestone veneer (Figure 21).

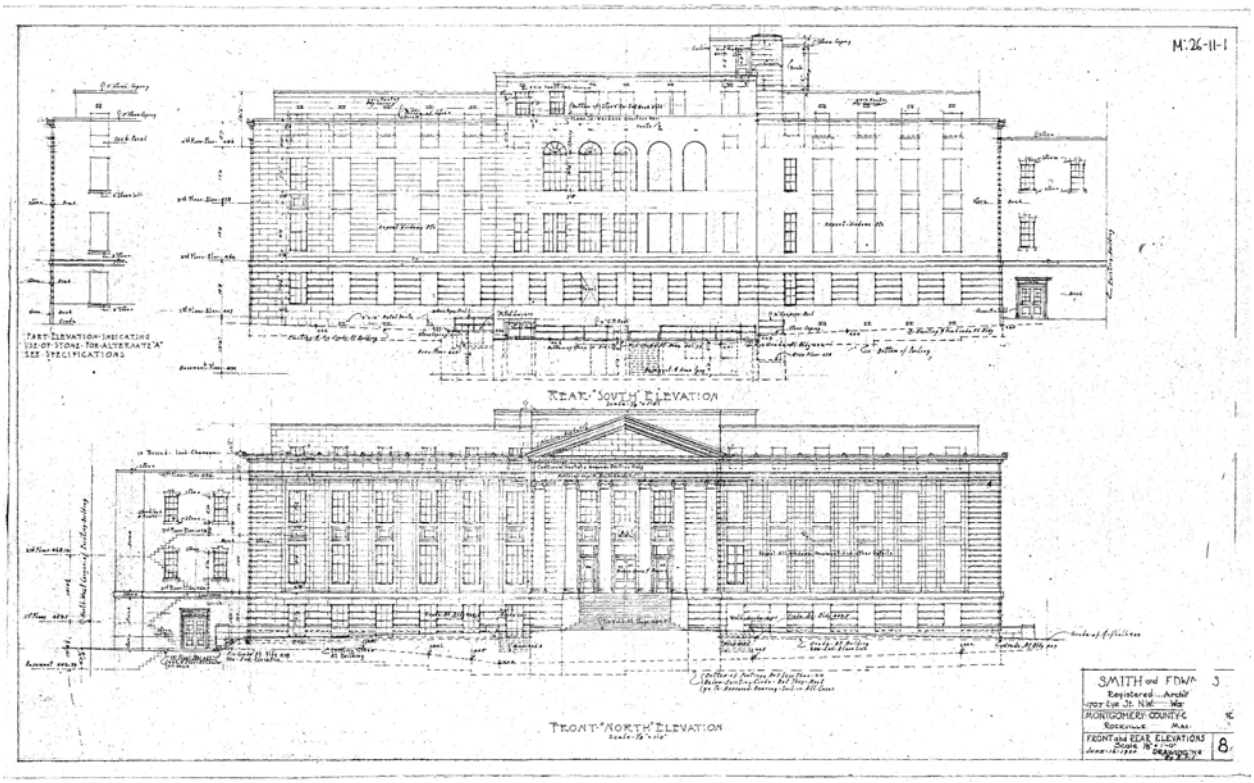

Figure 21: 1931 Grey Courthouse, Montgomery County, Maryland by Delos H. Smith & Edwards (Montgomery County Government 1976).

A natural extension of his survey of historic Annapolis, Smith began to prepare documentation for the Historic American Building Survey (HABS), a National Park Service program developed during the Great Depression in 1933 and authorized in 1934 for out-of-work architects to spend ten weeks documenting "America's antique buildings". The project was expanded and continues today. During this time, Smith documented 250 colonial churches among other properties (Kelly 2011:183, 332).

World War II (1939-1945)

After occupying the Rhineland in 1936, Austria in 1938, and Poland in 1939, the Nazis provoked the U.S. to start emergency planning and military expansion in preparation for its involvement in World War II. The Army Quartermaster General began to prepare plans for the expansion of existing military bases and the construction of new camps. The Vinson Law of 1938 facilitated the most significant expansion of the Navy since World War I, calling for an increase in ships, aircraft, and shore facilities. The Bureau of Yards and Docks Department of Planning and Design prepared drawings of training stations, officers' quarters, barracks, dispensaries, hangars, shops, power plants, warehouses, dry docks, parachute lofts, and magazines during expansion and awarded two major contracts for new bases on the Atlantic and the Pacific while improving the pre-World War I Naval training stations at Newport, Rhode Island; Norfolk, Virginia; Great Lakes, Illinois; and San Diego, California in 1939. Yet, when European conflict escalated in 1940 facilities were still inadequate (Navy Facilities Engineering Command [NFEC] 2007:15; Garner 1993:16).

The Planning and Design Department was comprised of officers from the Civil Engineering Corps, the vast majority of which were civilian planners, engineers, and architects, including Delos Smith, who worked under the direction of Capt. Thomas Trexel, Chief Architect. “This contingent of civilian employees would-account for differences between projects in the two branches of service” (Garner 1993:17). In 1942, the Navy created construction battalions known as the Seabees to build overseas. Enlisted Seabees reported to civilian command officers of the CEC while entering warzones “behind the Marines to build bases, harbors, roads, and airstrips overseas” (Garner 1993:17). In addition to engineering innovative structures like sectional floating dry docks that played a direct role in the invasions of Sicily and Normandy, CEC architects and engineers worked on countless other projects for non-military federal agencies through their private practices. Between 1939 and 1945, the number of CEC officers increased from 150 to more than 10,000 and the stateside naval shore facilities grew to 14 times their 1939 size (Garner 1993:16-18).

In January of 1939, Catherine Bauer, Director of Research and Information at USHA, wrote in *The Architectural Record*,

> Until the creation of the United States Housing Authority, only a little more than a year ago, an almost inseparable barrier stood between American architects and the millions of American people who have always been in great need of well-built and well-designed homes.
>
> So far, 53 architectural contracts have been awarded by the local [housing] authorities, and in a rapidly growing number of other towns architectural contracts are now under immediate consideration… [Low-rent housing project] constitutes a

> challenge to the resourcefulness, the adaptability, and the social viewpoint of the American architect… If he is the average local, architect, he had no experience at low-rent housing whatsoever. The experiences he has had, moreover, might even prove harmful. If he has spent much time catering to the whims of individuals who demand homes in the manner of this-or-that period of such-and-such country, he will naturally have formed certain habits of thought which will have to be completely broken or else temporarily discarded. Ostentation, luxuriousness, and fancy gadgets have no place in homes that are designed, not for the well-to-do families livin separatedly, but for low-income families living in low-rental community. This does not mean that the architect will have to lower his standards; in many cases he will have to observe certain standards of livability which he would never think of living up to in his ordinary practice…
>
> … most important of all, he must plan homes that will for at least 60 years… he has a responsibility not only for delivering a product in good condition but for planning it in such a way that it can be used and kept in good condition at a minimum of expense over a larger period of time… In some cases, architects have made use of new and more economical materials …
>
> Uncritical acceptance of standard designs-whether they be the standards of other countries, the standards ordinarily followed in the local community, or the standard designs drawn up by the USHA-must be avoided. Architects must study local tastes, customs, and habits-and above all, the needs of the families who will live in the projects (Bauer 1939:67).

During the war, the prefabrication industry lost the luxury of the slow experimentation and development of the 1920s and 30s and the ability to meet all local needs. Skeptical after witnessing decades of failed experimentation, the Public Buildings Administration planned a prefabricator's demonstration in 1941 at Indian Head, Maryland, which in itself was somewhat of a failure. By the time the event commenced, thousands of prefabricated houses were already under construction elsewhere and the firms that signed on proved to be inexperienced and ill equipped to join prefabricated parts properly. Minor successes included competitive production prices, ease of disassembling and reuse, and less onsite labor and traffic. In 1941, more than 18,000 housing units were built, making it the first year of serious mass production in housing (Kelly 1951:54-55).

The military remained skeptical of prefabrication as it had been in World War I, however, the risk of not being able to procure conventional construction materials for the scale of this war was too great not to authorize experimental housing. Metal, masonry, and other materials replaced wood in building endeavors on a number of bases and in housing projects within cities (Garner 1993:15) Experimentation with precast concrete as the primary structural component also continued and increased primarily because of the war and the need to conserve steel. Trade magazines almost exclusively covered the war's effect on housing issues and technological advances. In *The Architectural Record*, Dorothy Rosenman (1942:42-44) pointed to the squalor of make-shift houses along highways and trailer camps on the outskirts of cities, noting that not enough attention was given to the construction of housing while cutting edge factories went up overnight. "War Needs…. Housing" illustrated nationwide examples from housing authorities in Freeport and

Houston, Texas; Almeida, California; Wilmington, North Carolina; Seattle, Washington; and Chicopee, Massachusetts. The same issue covered "Housing from the Tenant's Viewpoint", revealing the biggest complaint was related to square footage. "What rooms were designed for and what they are actually used for are frequently quite different things. Thus does the nicest theory fall before the fact" (*The Architectural Record* 1942:71-72). The same year, *The Architectural Record* reported,

> Important among the materials currently being given new scrutiny in the stress of war building conditions is precast concrete. Precast materials, both in architectural and structural uses, have major potentials in relation to wartime objectives-such as using materials to their full capacities, conserving steel and other critical metals, saving time and labor on the job.
>
> For many years mass housing has been a fertile field for experimentation with all manner of materials and ideas, and in recent years precast concrete, latest of concrete developments, has begun to appear in new housing ideas. The two shown on this page [Cameron Valley and Ramsey Homes] are of more than passing interest, as they are experimental projects for federally financed war housing. The current call for demountable units, built in factory production and quickly erected and moved, coupled with present or expected shortages of certain materials, lends fresh interest of this use of concrete.
>
> Built in an experimental housing project of the RSA [Cameron Valley] at Alexandria, Va., these houses of precast concrete are now reaching completion, from plans by Kastner and Hibben, architects. Slabs are used for floors, walls and roofs, with a board type insulation above the roof slabs. Houses of stabilized earth block and of rammed earth are also part of the project (*The Architectural Record* 1942a:55) (Figure 22 and Figure 23).

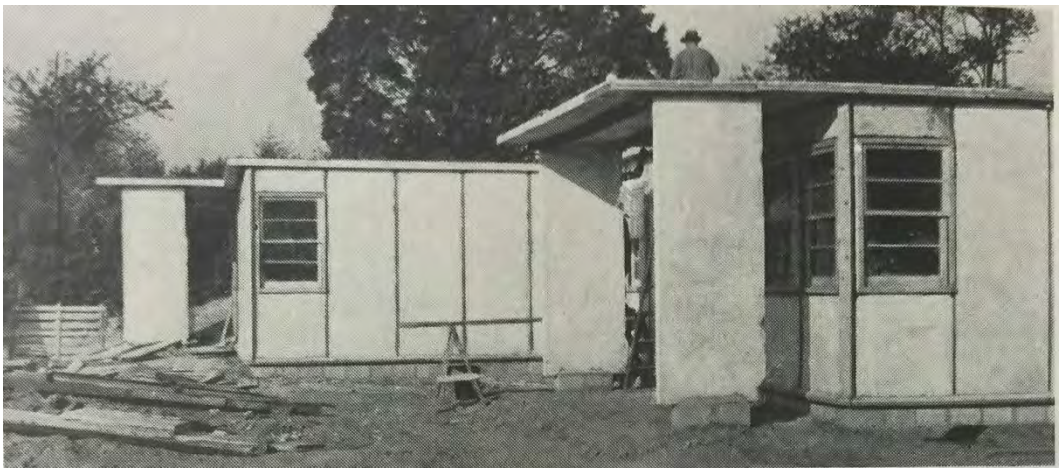

Figure 22: Cameron Valley Homes Under Construction with Experimental Precast Concrete Slabs (*The Architectural Record* 1942a:58).

Figure 23: Perspective View of Alexandria Housing Authority, Cameron Valley Housing, Alexandria, Virginia (Lowe 1988)

Critics credited the passage of the Lanham Act in 1940, which funded the Ramsey Homes, and the centralization of defense housing under the FWA with "some of the most progressive work architecturally" performed by "able practicing architects" (Funk et al., ed. 1942:30). "Structural experiment under the Division was chiefly advanced at the Alexandria, Va., project by Kastner & Hibben [at Cameron Valley] (along with numerous plan variations) and included rammed-earth stabilized cement" (ibid). In several of the units, Thomas Hibben experimented with concrete, asphalt-stabilized adobe brick, bituminous earth block, and cement-stabilized tamped earth. In some examples, he used two methods in one house. In his work at Cameron Valley, he hoped to create a prototype for producing mass-produced rammed earth walls with metal forms and mechanical tamping machines. Like other innovators in concrete and architecture, Thomas Hibben was the son of an artist. He studied architecture and engineering at Princeton University, the University of Pennsylvania, and schools in London and Paris. He began his career in Indiana and in the early 1930s, moved to Washington to serve as chief engineer in an emergency reconstruction program and work on New Deal projects under President Roosevelt. Prior to his work in Alexandria, he wrote two children's books about tools and metallurgy and designed buildings at Butler University and the first phase of the Lincoln Boyhood National Memorial. During World War II, Thomas worked as an industrial and construction engineer in the Bureau of Economic Warfare and served active duty in the African, Italian, and Austrian campaigns. After the War, he

worked in foreign trade and the economic development of emerging nations (Hibben 2003:297-299). Educated at the State University in Hamburg, Germany, Alfred Kastner came to the United States in 1924 at the height of the Bauhaus movement. He first partnered with Oskar Stonorov, and in 1934, they designed the International Style Carl Mackley houses in Philadelphia, "which was the first limited, divided, self-supporting housing project financed by the Public Works Administration" He later worked with the world renowned Modernist Louis I. Kahn on a Roosevelt Project in Hightstown, New Jersey, a very early example of a fully integrated community. Following the war, "he served as Director of the Bureau of Advanced Housing at Princeton University from 1965 to 1971, where he worked to rationalize techniques used in housing construction" (University of Wyoming, American Heritage Center 2012).

In the same article covering Kastner & Hibben's Cameron Valley project, *The Architectural Record* reported,

> Still in the drawing stage is another experimental housing project [Ramsey Homes], also for Alexandria, Va. Done with precast concrete slabs, this one for USHA. The same typical slab unit is used for floors, walls and roof. Floor joists rest directly over the wall studs, transmitting the load directly to the foundation walls. The wall section (left) and the details [below] show how slabs are fitted together and are tied with rods and tie wires. Architects are Smith, Werner & Billings (*The Architectural Record* 1942a:58) (Figure 24).

As he had in World War I, Delos Smith served in the U.S. Naval Reserve in World War II from 1940 to 1945 as one of hundreds of commanders in the CEC. His assignment was design superintendent of the Army and Navy Munitions Board at the Norfolk Navy Yard (John D. Rockefeller, Jr. 2015). In 1940, just over a year before designing Ramsey Homes through his private practice, Delos Smith returned to his birthplace of Willcox, Arizona during extensive travels across the U.S. in his continued work for HABS, for which he sometimes served as photographer and sometimes historian. His reintroduction to historic southwest architecture, much of which consists of structural adobe blocks, stucco, and clean lines not unlike Kastner & Hibben's work, may have played a part in his divergence from the traditional East Coast styles that dominated his entire career in his 1942 USHA project (Figure 25). He may have also been influenced by fellow Naval Reserve professionals working at the CEC, the value engineering that they had to consider during wartime, and the gradual adoption of Modern trends in more local examples.

For USHA, Smith, Werner, and Billings Architects constructed Ramsey Homes, then known as Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133, as permanent housing for African-American defense workers. He and his partners proposed two Modernist designs for the project (Figure 26 and Figure 27). The first option consisted of three buildings comprising 19 units, while the second option consisted of three four-unit foursquares and a three-unit L-shaped building constructed of more economical materials complex. Smith also worked on a number of the Cameron Valley homes with Kastner & Hibbens.

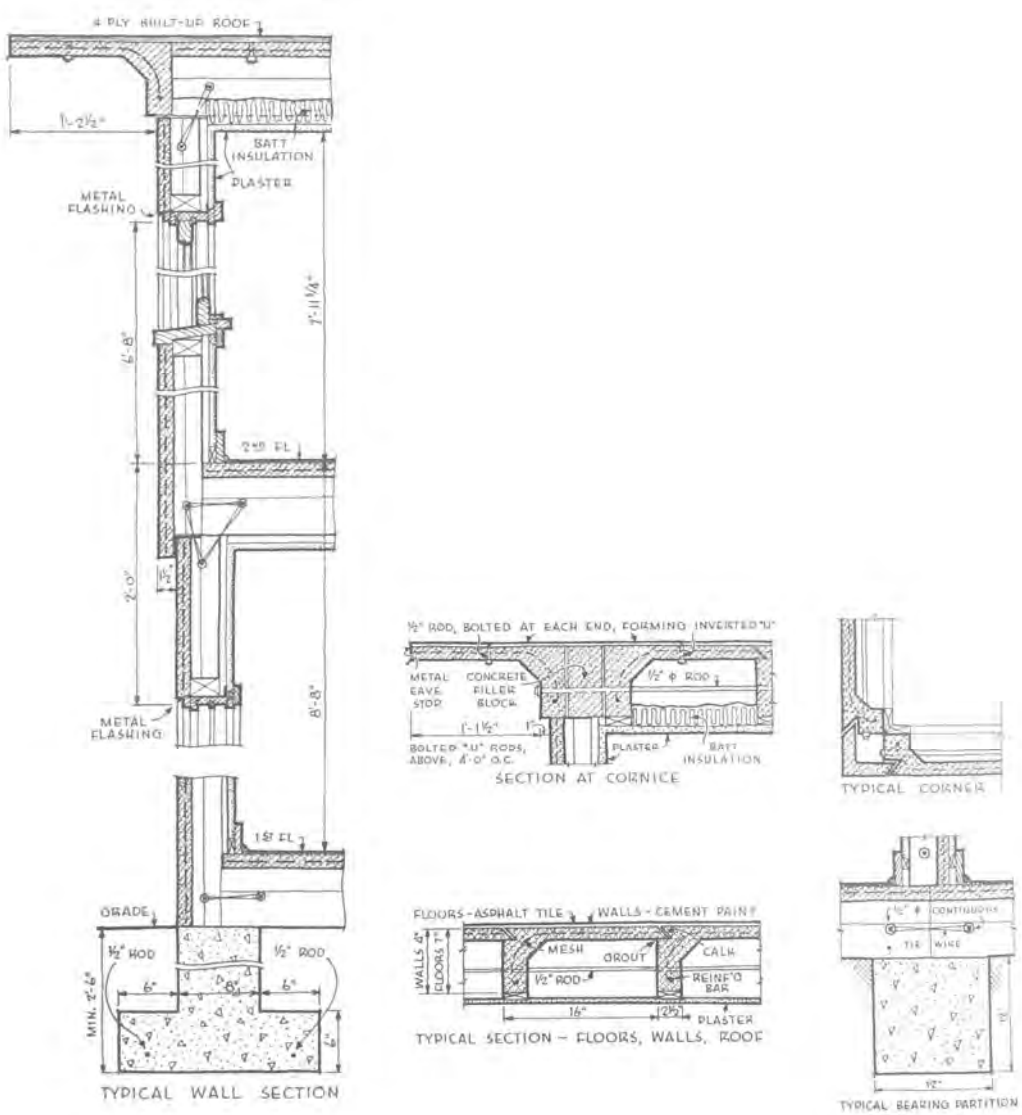

Figure 24: Sections of Precast Concrete Specified for Ramsey Homes (*The Architectural Record* 1942a:58).

At Ramsey Homes, he used "Fab-crete" developed in 1939 by Joseph E. Hines of Kensington, Maryland, assignor to Frabcrete Corporation of Richmond, Virginia. Patent No. 2,270,846 was granted on January 27, 1942 (Hines 1942) (Figure 28). The system was much like other experiments from the decade. The application stated,

> The present invention is directed to improvements in building constructions, and more particularly to buildings that are formed from pre-cast units of cementitious material.
>
> The primary object of the invention is to produce a building employing units so constructed that they may be easily and quickly assembled and held in rigid relationship to provide walls, partitions, floors and roofs.

> Another object of the invention is to provide a building unit which is light in weight, water and fire proof and so fashioned that the units when united can be used to produce a building of any desired size and shape, and at a minimum cost.
>
> Another object of the invention is to` provide units so constructed that when assembled will eliminate the use of interior frame-work as supporting mediums therefor [sic].
>
> Another object of the invention is to provide building units to which may be conveniently secured composition board, laths and the like in order to impart to the interior of the building the desired finished appearance.

In 1942, the project was completed and built in the International Style unlike any of Smith's previous work.

Figure 25: House & Fence, Willcox, Cochise County, Arizona
Photographed by Delos H. Smith (1940)

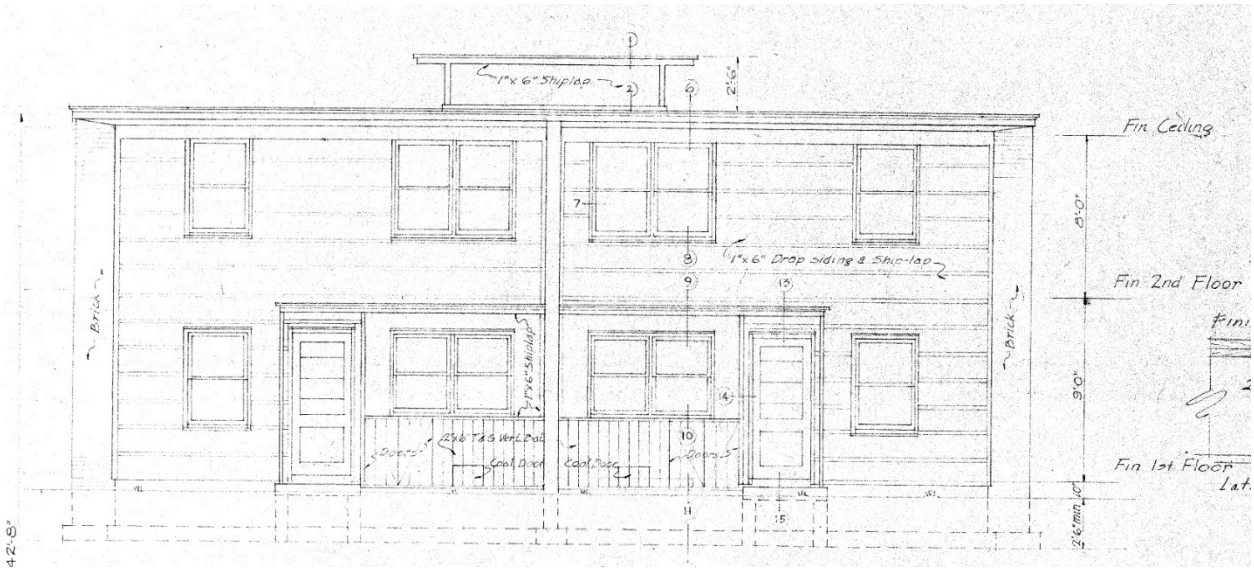

Figure 26: First Draft Elevation July 7, 1941 Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA. 44133 (Smith 1941a)

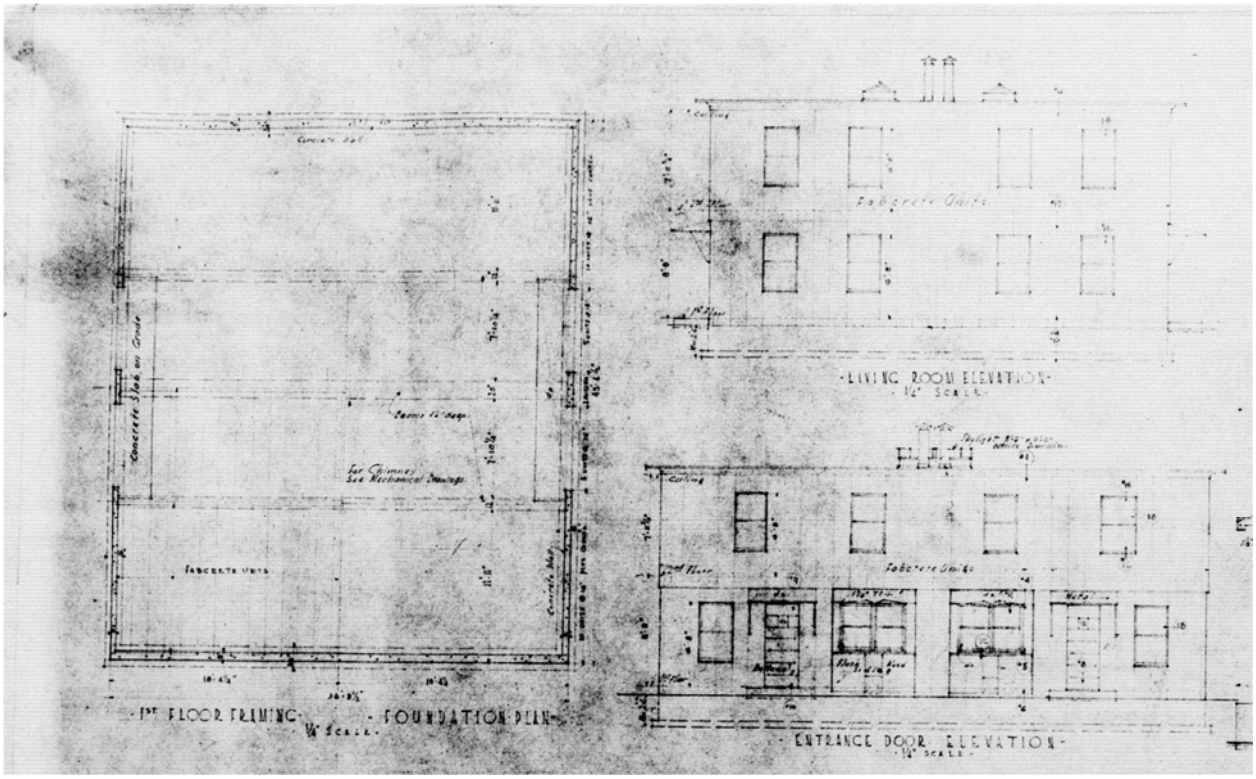

Figure 27: Final Elevation and Plans Selected by USHA October 10, 1941 Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA. 44133 (National Archives at College Park, Maryland)

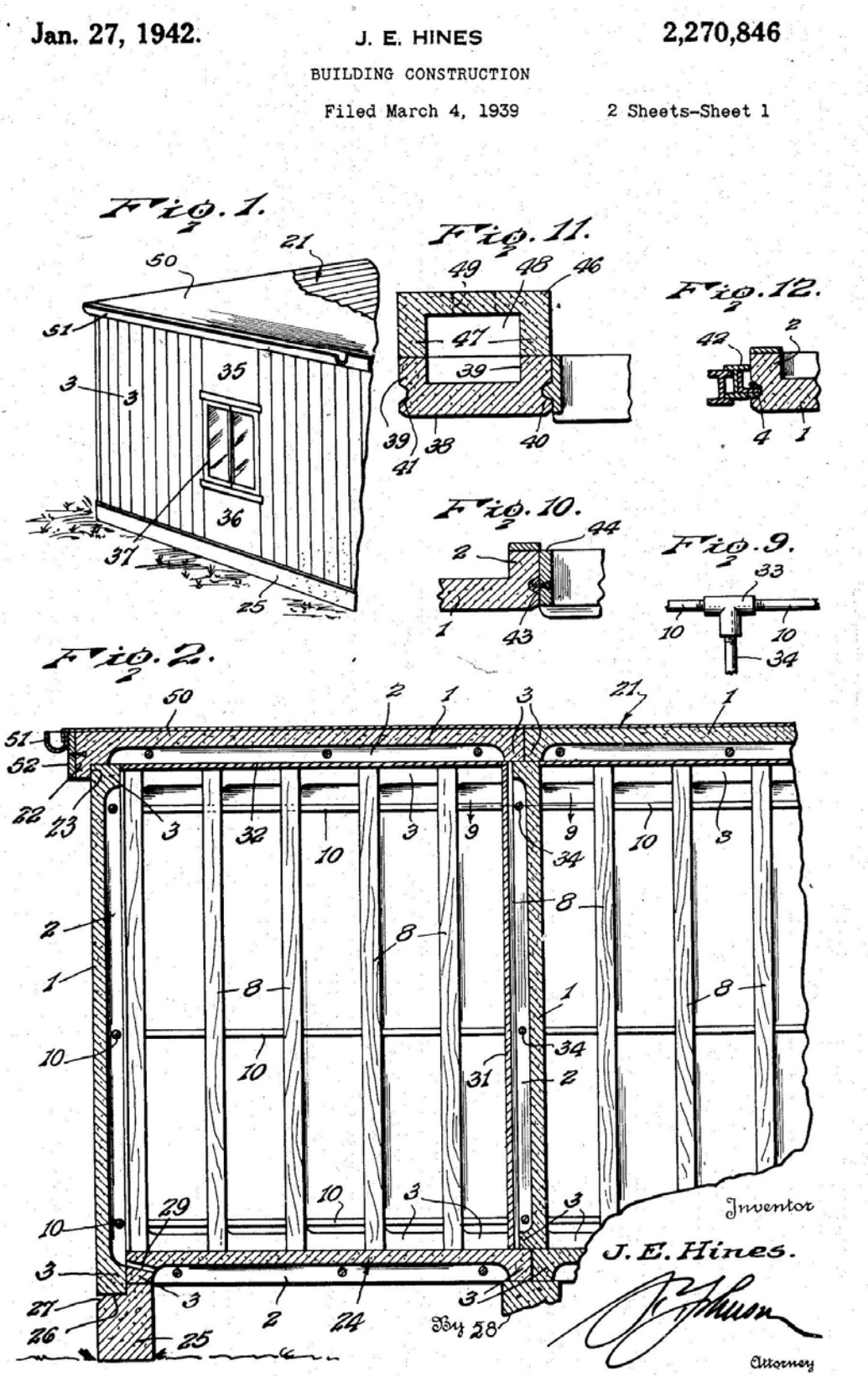

Figure 28: Precast Concrete Structural System of Ramsey Homes (Hines 1942)

Post World War II

After the war, the triangles and curves of Art Deco and Art Moderne finally gave way to rectilinear 90-degree angles, large plate glass windows, patios, and balconies, which helped to blur interiors and exteriors in higher end examples of the International Style, which became the favored vernacular for mid- and high-rise buildings in the 1950s and 1960s, over 30 years after the MoMA exhibition. Representing the most significant and largest cluster of International Style single-family residences, the Hollin Hills Historic District in Fairfax County, Virginia, was designed by Charles M. Goodman and developed between 1949 and 1971. Notably, Goodman did not begin Hollin Hills until eight years after Smith designed Ramsey Homes and Kastner & Hibben designed Cameron Valley. Though the temporary housing and trailer camps of the war left a negative impression on the general public, the widespread and sometimes successful wartime use of prefabrication, experimental material, and minimal ornamentation may have influenced the tastes of local buyers and therefore the willingness of developers to experiment beyond revival styles. Goodman himself was already a renowned architect and planner and unlike Smith had a "strong conviction that the traditional and widely accepted Colonial Revival-style house had no place in the twentieth century" (Trieschmann 2013).

Smith's use of Modernism was apparently brief. After the war, he was instrumental in the growing historic preservation movement, joining the Old and Historic Alexandria Board of Architectural Review (OHAD) in its first year in 1946 and becoming a charter member, board member, and keeper of the records of the Historic Alexandria Foundation (HAF) in 1947. According to the website of the City of Alexandria, the OHAD is the third oldest historic district in the nation and "was originally established to control development along the George Washington Memorial Parkway as it passed through the City as Washington Street and to protect the City's colonial heritage", a concern of Delos Smith's lifelong work. He also served on the Old Town Civic Association Survey Committee (Carignan 1992). A member since 1920, Smith was made a Fellow of the American Institute of Architects in 1952 and a Member Emeritus in 1954 (AIA 2015). Among his last commissions, he served as the consulting architect on the Capitol Building Prayer Room.

PROPERTY HISTORY

1730-1830: The Growth of Alexandria

The origins of Alexandria are traced to the establishment of a public tobacco warehouse at "Bel Haven," created by an Act of the Virginia Assembly in 1730. To "prevent frauds in his Majesties Customs" in the staple tobacco trade, the Virginia Assembly appointed Inspectors for the public tobacco warehouses to be located at waterfront ports in the various counties. Under one inspection, two tobacco warehouses were appointed in Prince William County, one at Quantico on Robert Brent's land, and another at Great Hunting Creek on Broadwater's land (Hening 1820:268). The warehouses were built by Scottish factors (in essence, a middleman between the farmers and the merchants) for the purpose of holding tobacco prior to shipment to England. As central points in the tobacco trade, the warehouses were the location where the ships docked and where deals were struck (Harrison 1987:405).

By an Act of the General Assembly in 1748, a town at the Hunting Creek warehouse on the Potomac River was established on 60 acres of land owned by Philip Alexander, John Alexander, and Hugh West, both to benefit trade and navigation and to be to the advantage of the "frontier inhabitants." The 60 acres of land were directed to be taken above the mouth of Great Hunting Creek and 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 lots of the town were directed to be laid out along streets "not exceeding half an acre of ground in each lot setting apart portions of land for a market place and public landing, to be sold by public sale or auction, the proceeds of which were to be paid to Philip Alexander, John Alexander and Hugh West." 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). A survey of the town of Alexandria shows the streets were laid in a grid pattern which was subdivided into blocks with four half-acre lots to a block.

By 1770, the town of Alexandria was the largest town on the Potomac River and, by the 1770s; it had developed into an important center for maritime trade, particularly in the flour trade with Europe and the Caribbean. By 1775, there were "20 major mercantile firms in Alexandria, 12 of which were involved in the transshipment of wheat" (Smith and Miller 1989:14). The success of the town led to several expansions of the boundaries in the late 18th century.

In 1785-86, the town of Alexandria expanded to include the study area. The new streets within the expanded area were named for Revolutionary War heroes including Greene, Lafayette, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, Washington and Wythe (Crowl 2002:124). The street grid in the expanded area was an extension of the original 1749 town grid, consisting of blocks containing two acres of ground which were frequently purchased by speculators. The sparsely-developed street grid of the late 18th century study area vicinity became the site of homes for wealthy businessmen of Alexandria as well as market gardens which supplied fruits and vegetables for the use of the town.

As the economy transitioned from one based on tobacco to other products, the population in Alexandria increased, as people moved into the town from outlying western areas to work as merchants, hotel proprietors, and cooks in local restaurants. Over the last decade of the 18th

century, the population almost doubled compared to earlier decades, increasing from 2,746 in 1790 to 4,971 by 1800 (MacKay 1995:55). During the 1790s, due in part to turmoil 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 (MacKay 1995:55). From 1800 to 1820, Alexandria was fourth behind Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York in wheat exports. With the shift from the tobacco economy to the wheat economy, occurring around the time Alexandria was ceded to the District of Columbia, enslaved laborers who were no longer needed on the outlying plantations were sold or hired out to businesses in Alexandria; many were manumitted and migrated to the City (Bloomburg 1988:62).

As the population increased in the District and in Alexandria, small enclaves formed where free African Americans established their own communities. One such community, bounded by West, Cameron, North Columbus and Montgomery Streets, was known as Uptown and became the largest of Alexandria's ten historical African-American communities. Although some free African Americans made their homes in Uptown prior to the Civil War, the settlement greatly expanded after the war with the influx of newly freed African Americans (Bloomburg 1988:73).

Ca. 1834-1861: Market Garden

George Blish (occasionally referred to in deeds as George Bloach) is listed in Alexandria tax records as the occupant of the eastern half of the square bounded by Wythe, Alfred, Pendleton, and Patrick Streets by 1834, the year that the western half of the square which includes the study area consisted of two vacant parcels credited to Frances Swann and Samuel Snowden (Gurganus 2013). In 1836, David Appich sold the eastern portion of the block to George Blish, where he was already residing and being taxed (Alexandria Deed Book X2:108). The deed from Appich explains that Blish, as a foreign-born non-citizen prior to 1836, was not able to own property in Alexandria and had an agreement with Appich to hold the property until Blish could legally purchase it. Also in 1836, Frances Swann sold the western half of the block including the study area to Blish, as well as the block immediately to the north (Alexandria Deed Book W2:238; 239). George Blish resided on and maintained ownership of the block until 1849.

The tax records appear to be somewhat at odds with the recorded deeds for the property, as the tax records prior to 1836 list Swann and Snowden as proprietors of separate lots in the western half of the block, and Edgar Snowden, presumably an heir of the Samuel Snowden listed in 1834-35, continues to be taxed for a lot on the block until 1840, when George Blish is at last taxed for the entire square including his dwelling. Snowden's presence on the tax record for the block may reflect a lease from Swann, but there is no mention of the persistence of such an agreement in the deed from Swann to Blish, and Snowden appears as a proprietor and not a tenant of his lot. In any case, according to deed records, George Blish owned the entire block bounded by Wythe, Alfred, Pendleton, and Patrick Streets by 1834 and according to tax records controlled the block by 1840, residing in a dwelling fronting on Alfred Street.

Details from city tax records for the Square that included the project area between the years 1834 and 1848 are shown on Table 1. Personal property tax records for George Blish indicate that he was taxed for one titheable (himself) from 1834-1844; in 1845, he was responsible for two

titheables, and for three in 1846-47, before returning to a single titheable in 1848. Blish was also taxed for two slaves every year between 1834 and 1849 except 1837, when he is taxed for one slave, and 1845, when he is taxed for three. Blish also owned varying numbers of horses and cows during his ownership of the property, as well as carts/drays.

Table 1: Tax Records for Property Owners on the Square, 1834-1848

Tax Year	Individual Taxed	Property Description/Value	Titheables	Slaves	Horses	Cows	Carts/ Drays
1834	George Blish	House and ½ Square $1300	1	2	1	5	1
1834	Francis Swann	½ Square less 80-feet $400					
1834	Samuel Snowden	Est. 80-feet $100					
1835	George Blish	House and ½ Square $1300	1	2	1	5	1
1835	Francis Swann	½ Square less 80-feet $400					
1835	Samuel Snowden	Est. 80-feet $100					
1836	George Blish	House and Lot 4/5 Square $1200	1	2	1	8	1
1836	E. Snowden	Est. 80-feet $100					
1837	George Blish	House and Lot 4/5 Square $1200	1	2	1	7	1
1837	Edgar Snowden	Small Lot Patrick $100					
1838	George Blish	House and Lot $1700	1	2	1	7	1
1838	Edgar Snowden	Lot Patrick $100					
1839	George Blish	House and Lot $1700	1	2	2	4	1
1839	Edgar Snowden	Lot Patrick $100					
1840	George Blish	House and Square $1800	1	2	2	4	2
1841	George Blish	House and Square $1800	1	2	2	4	2
1842	George Blish	House and Square $1800	1	2	2	4	2
1843	George Blish	House and Square $1800	1	2	2	4	2
1844	George Blish	House and Square $1800	1	2	3	4	2
1845	George Blish	House and Square $1800	2	3	3	3	2
1846	George Blish	House and Square $1800	3	2	2	2	2
1847	George Blish	House and Square $1700	2	2	2	2	2
1848	George Blish	House and Square $1500	1	2	2	2	2

According to the 1850 census, which for the first time provided the names of all members of a household as well as specific information regarding occupation and place of birth, George Blish (age 50) and his wife Teresa (age 33) were German-born. Blish's occupation is given as "Farmer &Gardener," as is that of his son William (age 20) who resided in the household, and was Virginia-born. Other members of the household included Mary Blish (age 17), Andrew Blish (age 14), and George Blish (age 2), all of whom were likely born at the Blish residence on Alfred Street.

The tax records of the preceding years indicating that Blish owned horses, cows, and a cart or carts, as well as his ownership of at least two blocks of land at the outskirts of Alexandria, strongly suggest that Blish utilized his property including the study area as a market or truck garden that supplied the fruit and vegetable needs of the City of Alexandria. Although Blish sold the block including the study area in 1849, the 1850 census suggests that he continued in this occupation nearby on a different property. It is notable that every occupation listed on the same census page as Blish was "Farmer" or more commonly "Farmer & Gardener," indicating that the neighborhood in which Blish lived in that year was dominated by similar market garden enterprises. It is likely that Blish sold his property including the study area and moved further from the city center to resume his profession as mid-century transportation enhancements including the Alexandria Canal and railroads increased prosperity and the demand for housing.

George Blish sold the property to Henry Daingerfield in 1849 (Alexandria Deed Book K3:276). Henry Daingerfield was one of the wealthiest men in Alexandria at the mid-point of the 19th century; he was a merchant who owned significant portions of the waterfront as well as numerous other properties in and around the city, and served as president or board member of many companies or organizations including that of the Alexandria Canal and the Orange and Alexandria Railroad (Miller 1989).

Daingerfield did not personally occupy the lots that included the study area, as he resided at the corner of Prince and Columbus Streets in what is now known as the Swann-Daingerfield House. The purchase of the block was likely a real estate investment intended to take advantage of the increased demand for housing in Alexandria.

Details from city tax records for the Square that included the project area between the years 1849 and 1854 are shown on Table 2. Tax records indicate that in 1849, Daingerfield leased the block including the study area to Aaron Knight, and in 1850-51, to John Foster. Thereafter, the property increased drastically in value from $1600 in value in 1851 to $2800 in 1852, in which year numerous tenants are recorded on the property. This increase in population on the property concurrent with the rise in value indicates that additional housing was constructed on the block; by 1854, when tax records indicate the presence of four houses on the block and give a value of $5000 for the property. There is no indication in the tax records of the location of the dwellings within the block.

Daingerfield's purchase of the property appears to have ended the era of dedicated market gardening on the block by 1852. However, the presence of only four dwellings on the block suggests that one or more of the residents may have continued the practice in a reduced capacity, as a significant amount of ground would still have been available for horticulture. The tenant Michael McSherry was taxed for a horse, cows, and a dray/cart beginning in 1853 which suggests McSherry may have continued the cultivation of a portion of the block for the local market.

Table 2: Tax Records for Henry Daingerfield and Tenants on the Square, 1849-1862

Tax Year	Tenant	Property Description/Value	Titheables	Slaves	Horses	Cows	Carts/ Drays
1849	Aaron Knight	House and Square $1500					
1850	John Foster	House and Square $1500	2	2			
1851	John Foster	House and Square $1600	1	2			
1852	Mary Ann Silick	House and Square $2800		2			
	Lawrence McVerry		1	2			
	Peter McVerry		1				
	Michael McSherry		1	2			
	Peter McCann		1				
	James Gole[?]		1				
	John McCann		1				
	Barney McCann		1				
	John Burns		1				
	Richard McSherry		1				
	Patrick Bannon		1	2			
1853	John Dela Hunt	House and Square $3000	1	1			
	Patrick McConaway		1	1			
	Tie McConaway		1				
	John Ashford		1	2			
	Michael McSherry		1	2	1	1	1
	John Burnes		1				
	Barney McCann		1				
	James McFarlane		1				
	Francis McSherry		1				
	Owen Rice		1	1			
	John Quinn		1	1			
	John McCann		1				
1854	John Bl[ish]	4 Houses 1 Square $5000	1	2			
	Michael McSherry		1	2	1	2	1
	John Dellahunt		1	1			
	A. Henry		1				
	John Ashford		1	2			

1861-1865: Battery H of the Pennsylvania Independent Light Artillery

At the onset of the Civil War, the Union army occupied Alexandria due to its proximity to Washington, D.C. and its importance as a sea-land transportation hub, which could be utilized to transport men, equipment, and supplies for the prosecution of the war. During the occupation of the city, much of the regular commerce that had characterized Alexandria before the war faltered as Southern loyalists fled the town and their properties were commandeered for the Union war effort. The United States Office of the Quartermaster General (USQM) took over the waterfront and many homes and buildings in the city were occupied by soldiers either temporarily staged in the town awaiting deployment, or more permanently garrisoned as part of the quartermaster corps or manning the system of forts that defended the city.

Details from city tax records for the Square that included the project area between the years 1861 and 1866 are shown on Table 3. Daingerfield was taxed for the square throughout the war years; however, the valuation of the property decreased significantly between 1861 and 1865. During the Civil War, Alexandria tax records ceased recording details regarding the number of dwellings on the block bounded by Wythe, Alfred, Pendleton, and Patrick Streets, possibly due to the presence of Union military buildings, detailed below.

Table 3: Tax Records for Henry Daingerfield, 1861-1866

Tax Year	Tenant	Property Description/Value
1861	Tenants not listed	4 Houses 1 Square $3000
1862	Tenants not listed	4 Houses 1 Square $2500
1863	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2500
1864	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2500
1865	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000
1866	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000

The city block that included the study area was commandeered by the Union army to host the headquarters, barracks, and hospital facility of Battery H of the Pennsylvania Independent Light Artillery. The unit was formed in 1862 in Pittsburgh with John I. Nevin as captain, and was sent to Hagerstown, Maryland for two months before removing to Camp Barry, an artillery depot and training camp in Washington, DC. The battery spent its entire span manning the defenses of the District, moving from Camp Barry to garrison Alexandria from March 1863 until the end of the war in 1865 (American Civil War Archive 2016).

In a communique dated October 14, 1864, J. H. Taylor, Chief of Staff and Assistant Adjutant-General, Department of Washington, 22nd Army Corps, informed Major-General Augur that he had “authorized General Slough [the military governor of Alexandria, Virginia] to arm with rifles the surplus men of Battery H, Independent Pennsylvania Artillery, and use them as train guards” (United States War Department 1893:366). Train guard duty consisted of protecting military

supply wagon trains from the depredations of guerilla attacks or cavalry raids of the sort frequently employed by Colonel John Mosby in Northern Virginia. Battery H suffered no men injured or killed in combat during the war. Of the seven men the unit lost to disease, Private August Mentre died in Alexandria on August 2, 1863. The other six unfortunate men succumbed in Pittsburgh, Hagerstown, and Camp Barry.

Maps of all property and buildings in Alexandria utilized by the army were made by the USQM. The USQM map of the block bounded by Wythe, Alfred, Pendleton, and Patrick (Figure 29) indicates that the frame buildings depicted were constructed in 1863 for the use of Battery H by the quartermaster corps, and include a two story headquarters building on Patrick Street with single story wings on the north, south, and west and a large veranda on the east elevation, two 20 x 60 foot barracks buildings, a kitchen, a blacksmith, a large stable fronting on Alfred Street, a small hospital building on Pendleton, and a building marked "Sutlers, Private" in the southwestern quadrant of the block. A vegetable garden and landscaping surround the headquarters building and the space between the barracks, and several "sinks," or privies, are located at the edges of the block.

The hospital building centrally located along Pendleton Street is of relatively small size. This hospital was most likely a post hospital that specifically served the men of Battery H who were too injured or ill for duty but not in dire enough straits to be sent to one of the several general hospitals in Alexandria or Washington; this hospital would have been under the direct control of the commanding military officer of the battery and not part of the military hospital organization, which was headed by the Surgeon General (Lawrence et. al. 2015). Given the apparently healthy condition of Battery H during its sojourn in Alexandria, the hospital may have been little-used unless it was pressed into general service during periods of widespread sickness in the Alexandria garrisons or after the wounded from battles in other theatres of the war were transported to the city. The map indicates "hospital tents" to the north of the hospital building, which may illustrate an expandable capacity for the facility.

Hospital tents typically had elevated wooden floors with trenches around the base to drain water from beneath and around the tent (Wally Owen personal communication 2015; Geier and Potter 2000:151). This arrangement allowed for good air circulation, which was considered essential by many surgeons of the time who believed that infection and disease was spread by bad air and noxious odors (Geier and Potter 2000:151). The hospital building shown on the USQM map was likely used as offices or storage and patients were treated and convalesced in the ventilated tents. During the winter, the tents may have been heated by small heating stoves, or possibly by a Crimean oven. A Crimean oven consisted of a firebox in a pit outside of the tent, which was connected to a trench running through the tent or series of tents and was vented through an external chimney at the far end; the radiant heat from the hot air flowing through the trench, roofed with metal or stone slabs, warmed the tents while admitting little smoke. A Crimean oven was documented archaeologically at 206 North Quaker Lane in Alexandria, Virginia (Jirikowic et al. 2004).

A building used by a sutler was also noted on the USQM map. A sutler was a civilian merchant licensed by the U.S. military to supply goods and services to soldiers, filling the role later occupied by canteens and exchanges. Although providing much-needed goods to soldiers, sutlers

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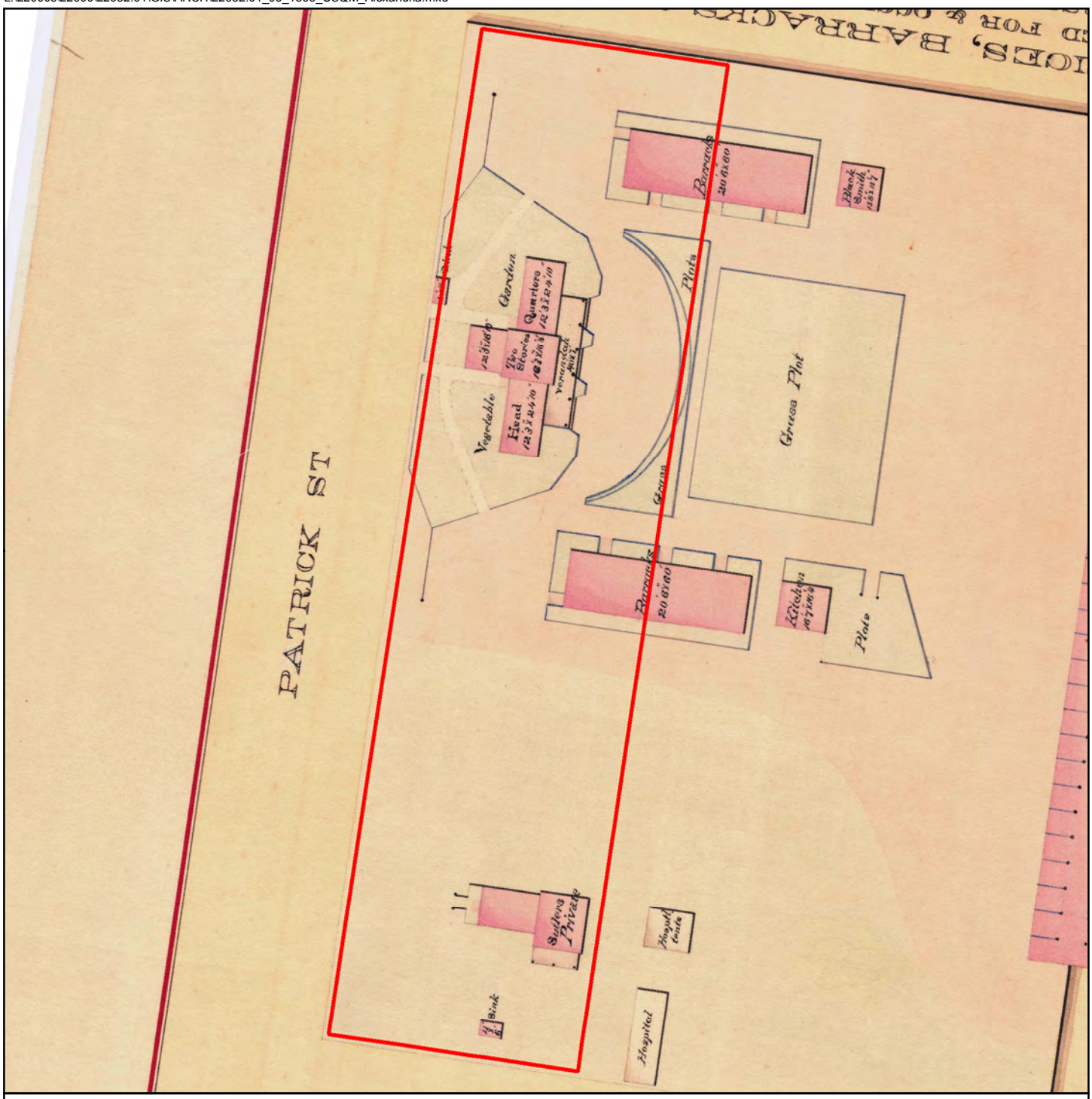

Map Source: U.S. Quartermaster Corps. 1865. "Wharfs Storehouses Etc."
Series: Post and Reservation Maps, compiled 1820 – 1905;
Record Group 92: Records of the Office of the Quartermaster General, 1774 – 1985;
National Archives and Records Administration (NARA).

Figure 29
U.S. Quartermaster Corps Map 1865

had a checkered reputation, were looked upon unfavorably by the U.S. Quartermaster General and other highly-placed individuals responsible for keeping the military supplied, and were the subject of frequent changes in regulations regarding the manner of their selection and licensing, what articles they could sell, and how they were allowed to transport and distribute their goods.

Each regiment or discreet detached unit of the army, such as Battery H of the Pennsylvania Light Artillery, was allowed one licensed sutler to serve the needs of the soldiery. Although by regulations in effect early in the war sutler's licenses were ostensibly to be given out by regimental administrative councils, it appears that many were appointed by higher division officers, by state governors or other officials for political favors, or in some cases licenses were purchased outright (Spear 1970:121-122). A unit's sutler did not enjoy a position in the military chain of command, but was an official civilian contractor attached to the unit which provided them an effective monopoly on the trade of the unit's soldiers, as well as direct access to the paymaster to collect money due on account when pay was distributed (Spear 1970:130; Lord 1969:34-35).

Sutlers sold an astonishing array of goods to soldiers. Although the army issued uniform clothing, basic mess kits, and a ration of food, these items inevitably wore out, got misplaced or stolen, or proved inadequate. Goods officially approved for sale by sutlers included uniforms and other clothing; toiletries; games and other amusements such as playing cards, checker boards, etc.; pens, ink, and stationery; books and newspapers; mending kits; dishes and cookware; knives; blankets; candles; and matches (Lord 1969:39).

Food and condiments, however, as well as tobacco, represented the majority of a typical sutler's sales (Billings 1887:224). The military supplied a daily ration of hard tack and preserved pork or beef, all of which was frequently of sub-standard quality. The fresh and canned fruits and vegetables, pickles, flour, bread, cheese, butter, sardines, mustard, and other foodstuffs sold by sutlers were a welcome and necessary addition to the soldier's diet. Even the infamous sutler's pies, "moist and indigestible below, tough and indestructible above, with untold horrors within" (Billings 1887:227), were often attractive to the soldier whose other choices were to eat the inedible army rations or go hungry (Lord 1969:41).

Most sutlers did not restrict themselves to selling items on the list of government-approved merchandise, and nearly anything that soldiers (and frequently the local civilian population) would buy might be found in a sutler's stock, from pistols to bibles to hoop skirts (Spear 1970:127). Sutlers also frequently engaged in the sale of contraband, particularly alcohol, often with the approval or even the assistance of unit officers (Spear 1970:128-129, 132).

The sutler's shop not only supplied the soldiers material needs, but also frequently became the social center of camp life where soldiers gathered to eat, gossip, or otherwise pass the time (Spear 1970:123). However, despite the central role sutlers played in making a soldier's life bearable, they were frequently maligned by soldiers of all ranks. Sutlers enjoyed a monopoly within their assigned unit, and went to considerable trouble and risk to keep their shops supplied in time of war; even the least greedy of them charged high prices, and for many, their sole concern in their enterprise was to make as much profit as possible. The result was exorbitant prices sometimes reaching five or ten times the going rate for items in demand (Spear 1970:129-130), and the men who were forced to patronize them resented this daylight robbery. Particularly in the camps of

armies in the field, sutlers' tents were frequently subject to pilfering and raids by soldiers pushed beyond endurance by the high prices, and any misfortune that befell a sutler or his stock was generally felt to be well-deserved (Spear 1970:136-138).

The sutler for Battery H may have differed in some measure from the typical sutler recorded in Civil War history due to his location at a stationary post in an urban area which would have denied him his monopoly, making him more subject to market forces than the roving sutlers who followed units in the field. However, his location adjacent to the barracks and headquarters of the unit likely placed him in a favorable and convenient position to sell to the troops and his shop likely served as a gathering place for soldiers of the battery. The identity of the sutler remains unknown, as they were not featured on unit muster lists and the Battery H sutler does not appear on a list of known sutlers compiled by Francis A. Lord (1969).

If the USQM map is an accurate record of the buildings on the property, then it appears likely that George Blish's former dwelling on Alfred Street and several of the multiple dwellings built by Daingerfield were demolished prior to the military construction. It is likely that the dwelling in use by the sutler was a remnant of the pre-war buildings, and possible that the two story core of the headquarters building is a second re-purposed pre-war building. The other two of the four pre-war buildings likely stood in the northeast and southeast quarters of the block and appear to be no longer extant as of 1865.

A second map depicting the locations of buildings within the block was produced in 1864 (Figure 30). Buildings are shown in the approximate locations of the headquarters, sutler, and stable illustrated in the USQM map, but the footprints depicted do not match those on the military map, in particular the lack of wings on the building in the headquarters location, and the appearance of two conjoined buildings along Alfred Street in the location of the stables. This 1864 plan map may simply be inaccurate or lack the necessary resolution of detail; it is also possible that the map depicts the pre-war configuration of buildings on the block. The sparse density of buildings in this quarter of Alexandria is clearly depicted on this map, suggesting that Daingerfield may have been one of relatively few to attempt increased residential development of the area prior to the outbreak of the war.

A lithograph presenting a birds-eye view of 1863 Alexandria depicts the vicinity of the study area near the right margin of the illustration (Figure 31). However, the street grid underwent some distortion in this area during the crafting of the work and the exact location of the study area is not discernible. The general vicinity is shown to be nearly empty of buildings. One apparent dwelling and outbuilding may represent the sutler building or perhaps the hospital building and sink, and a second long building possibly represents the stable depicted on the USQM map, but the headquarters and barracks buildings are conspicuously absent. The lithograph may therefore have been produced prior to those buildings' construction. Alternatively, accuracy at the outskirts of the city may not have been a major concern of the artist, as evidenced by the distorted street grid in the study area's vicinity.

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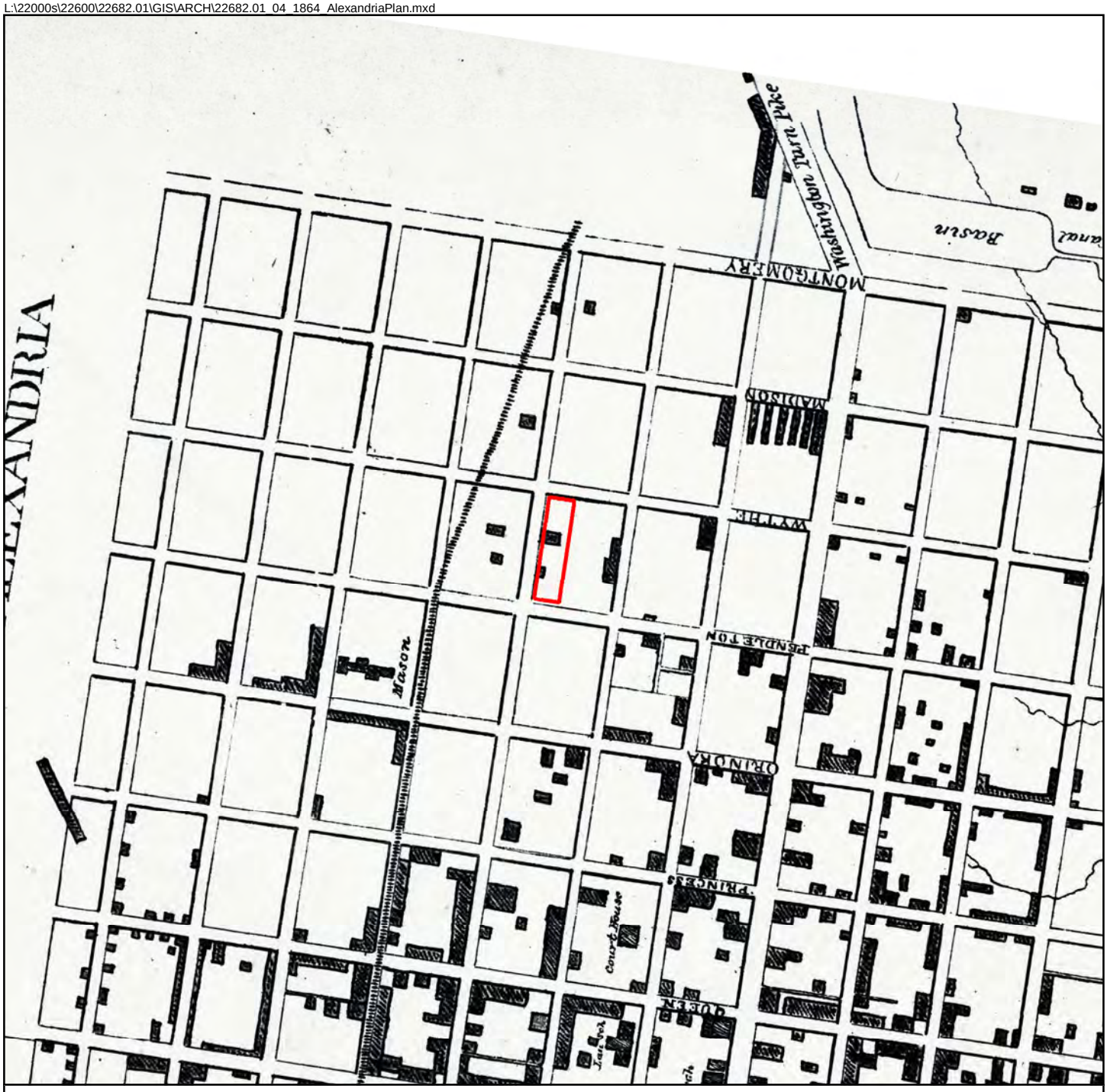

Approximate Location of Project Area

N
W
E
S

0 500
Feet
Original Scale: 1 " = 500 '

Map Source: Image from NOAA's Office of Coast Survey Historical Map & Chart Collection: http://historicalcharts.noaa.gov

Figure 30
1864 Plan of Alexandria, Virginia

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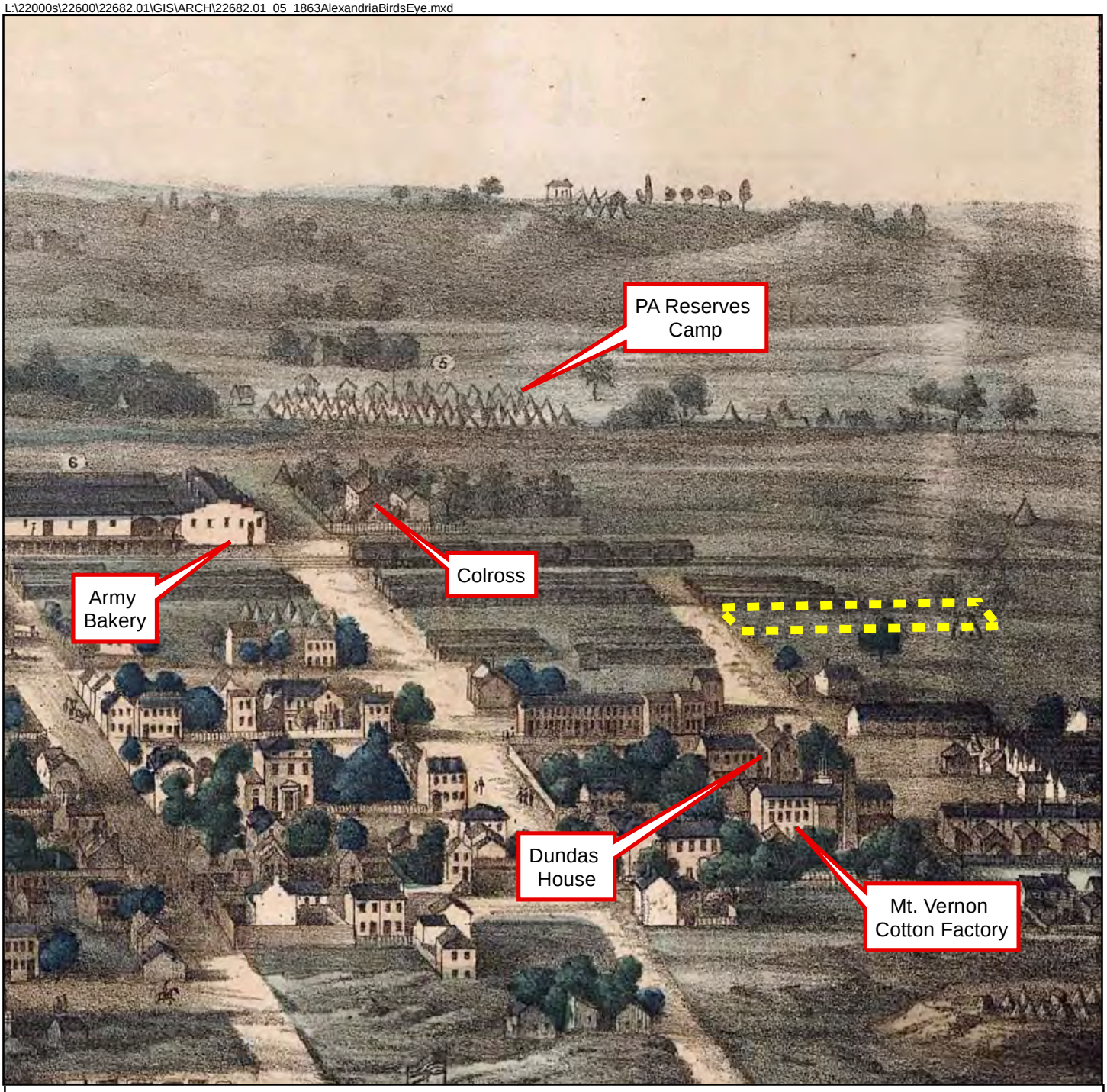

Figure 31
1863 Birds Eye View of Alexandria

A Civil War-era photograph taken from Shuter's Hill to the southwest of the study area shows the same view as that depicted in Figure 19 from nearly the opposite direction (Figure 32). The same landmarks are visible in both views. Once again, the location of the study area is problematic in the photograph, as the Colross mansion is interposed between the viewer and the study area. The presence and appearance of buildings in the study area are not discernible in the photograph. However, the photograph clearly illustrates the largely undeveloped character of this portion of Alexandria in the mid-19th century.

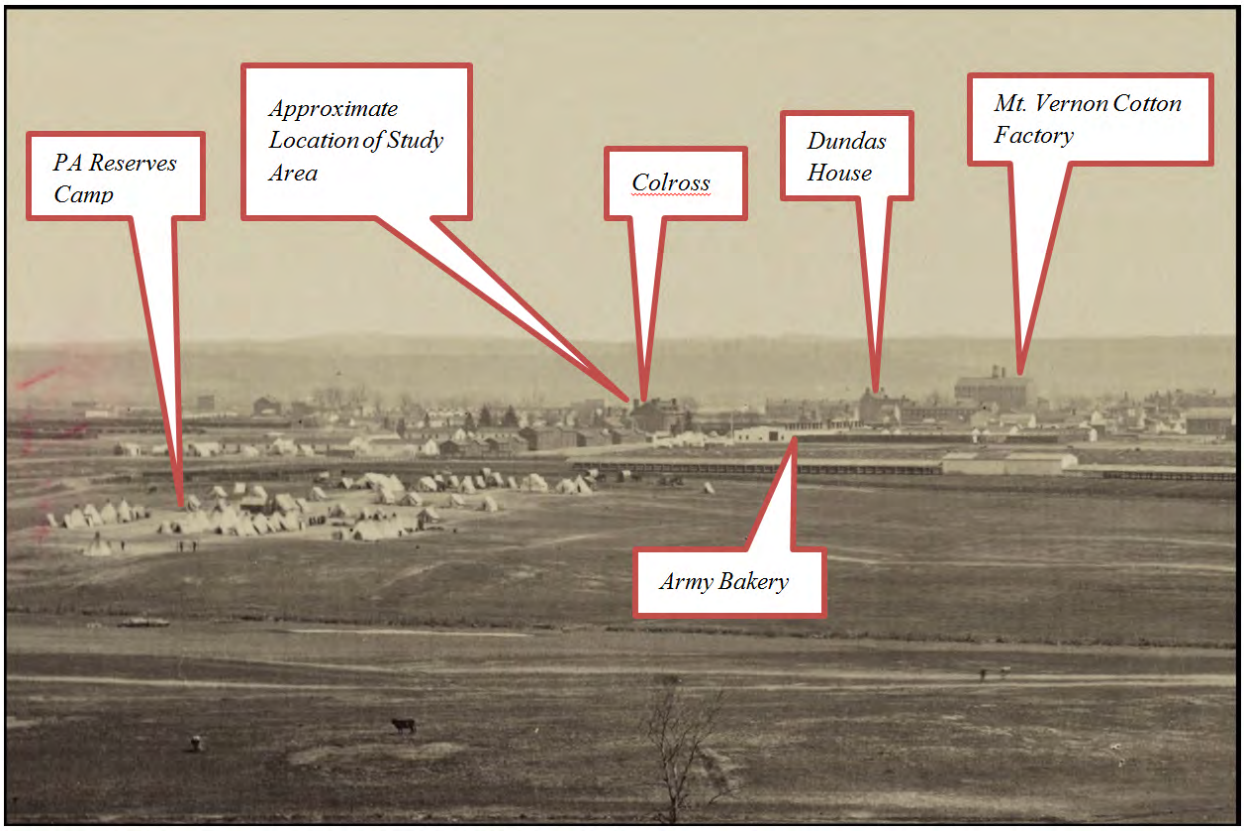

Figure 32: Camp of 44th New York Infantry near Alexandria Between 1861 and 1865, Showing Environs of the Project Area (Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division)

A Phase I archeological investigation conducted by city archeologists in 1991 recorded site 44AX0160 within the project area. Although few details about this investigation are available, the site form and notes on file at Alexandria Archaeology record that the investigation located various areas of the barracks, as well as a possible associated cobble path.

1865-1914: Tenement Housing

After the close of the Civil War, the USQM returned control of the study property to Henry Daingerfield, who died intestate the following year. His properties were divided among his widow and children according to the decree of the chancery court in 1870. The block including the study area was part of the properties received by daughter Ellen C. Daingerfield in the 1870 chancery decree, however the property continued to be associated with Henry Daingerfield's estate in tax records until 1873.

Details from city tax records for the square that included the project area between the years 1867 and 1872, when it was identified as a part of the Henry Daingerfield Estate, are shown on Table 4. Details from selected tax records for the square between the years 1873 and 1890, when owned by Ellen C. Daingerfield are shown on Table 5.

Table 4: Tax Records:Henry Daingerfield Estate 1867-1872

Tax Year	Tenant	Property Description/Value
1867	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000
1868	[Edgar Snowden Sr.– possible tenant]	1 Square $2000
1870	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000
1872	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000

Table 5: Tax Records:Ellen C. Daingerfield 1873-1890 (Selected Years)

Tax Year	Tenant	Property Description/Value
1873	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000
1878	Tenants not listed	1 Square $2000
1880	[Frank Penn, Henry A. Parsons, Edward Houck.– possible tenants]	House and Square $1300
1890	[Samuel Lloyd.– possible tenant]	House and Square $1500

Until after 1870, the development of the Parker Gray neighborhood surrounding the project site was not unified or coherent; the area had yet to develop the cohesive character that is seen in later times (Necciai and Drumond 2007:7-2). Approximately 80-90% of the platted land north of Princess Street contained no permanent buildings until at least a decade after the Civil War, although some individual blocks contained a large residence or a few smaller ones (Necciai and Drumond 2007:7-2). The area was characterized by a "patchwork of different kinds of buildings and structures with open land at the center and smaller residential enclaves at the fringes" (Necciai

and Drumond 2007:7-4). In addition to the dearth of residential development, few institutional buildings were present prior to 1880.

Hopkins' 1877 map (Figure 33) identifies the study area as a part of Henry Daingerfield's estate, and depicts four buildings on the block, two of which stand at least partially within the study area. The buildings shown appear to correspond to the Battery H headquarters and the building associated with a sutler on the USQM map. Interestingly, the headquarters building is shown as lying partly within Wythe Street. If accurate, this location speaks to the largely undeveloped nature of the study area vicinity in the mid-19th century. Henry Daingerfield owned the squares on either side of this section of Wythe Street, which likely was a proposed or paper street in the 1850s when Daingerfield built several dwellings on his property. Daingerfield may have ignored the Wythe Street right-of-way when building on his property, possibly with the formal or informal blessing of the city. It is also possible that Daingerfield respected the official lot boundaries and the military construction of 1863 chose to intrude onto the Wythe Street right-of-way, either through constructing the north wing onto an existing two-story dwelling fronting on Wythe Street, or through the construction of the entirety of the offending headquarters building.

In 1880, tax records indicate that one house stood on the square that includes the study area, but the specific location of the dwelling is unknown. Ellen Daingerfield apparently continued to rent out the dwelling on the square throughout the 1880s. In 1892, Daingerfield sold the square including the study area as well as the square immediately to the north to Noble Lindsey, Samuel Fisher, and George Fisher. Noble Lindsey was vested with an undivided 50% interest in the property, while the Fishers each received 25% (Alexandria Deed Book 27:240). In 1895, the Fishers deeded their interest in the block containing the study area to Lindsey in exchange for Lindsey's share of the block to the north, making Lyndsey the sole owner of the study area (Alexandria Deed Book 33:514; 515).

Several blocks of the Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District in the vicinity of the project site were owned by locally well-known citizens by 1880. The owners of some of the larger tracts included Samuel Miller, Thomas W. Swann, John W. Green, George and John Seaton, William C. Yeaton, William Gray, Mrs. Jacobs and the Smith family. George Seaton was a master builder and one of the wealthiest African Americans in the city. It is thought that some of the owners may have purchased the properties as speculators and the larger lots were subdivided and smaller houses built on the Yeaton, Jacobs and Green properties (Necciai and Drumond 2007:7-3). By the late 1880s, residential development was occurring in the vicinity of the project area. Land developer A.J. Wedderburn erected 17 houses on North Alfred between Pendleton and Wythe (WP 1888:4).

By the early 20th century, a number of the city's largest employers were located on the periphery of the Parker-Gray District. These included Portner's Brewery, which by 1880, covered an entire city block. Three glass factories were built in Alexandria between 1890 and World War I; these operated until about 1918. By 1912, Smoot Lumber relocated to the fringe of Parker-Gray after a disastrous fire at their plant near the waterfront (Necciai and Drumond 2007:8-335).

During this period, housing in the vicinity of the project area appears to have been somewhat integrated as new residents were attracted by employment opportunities, for both blacks and

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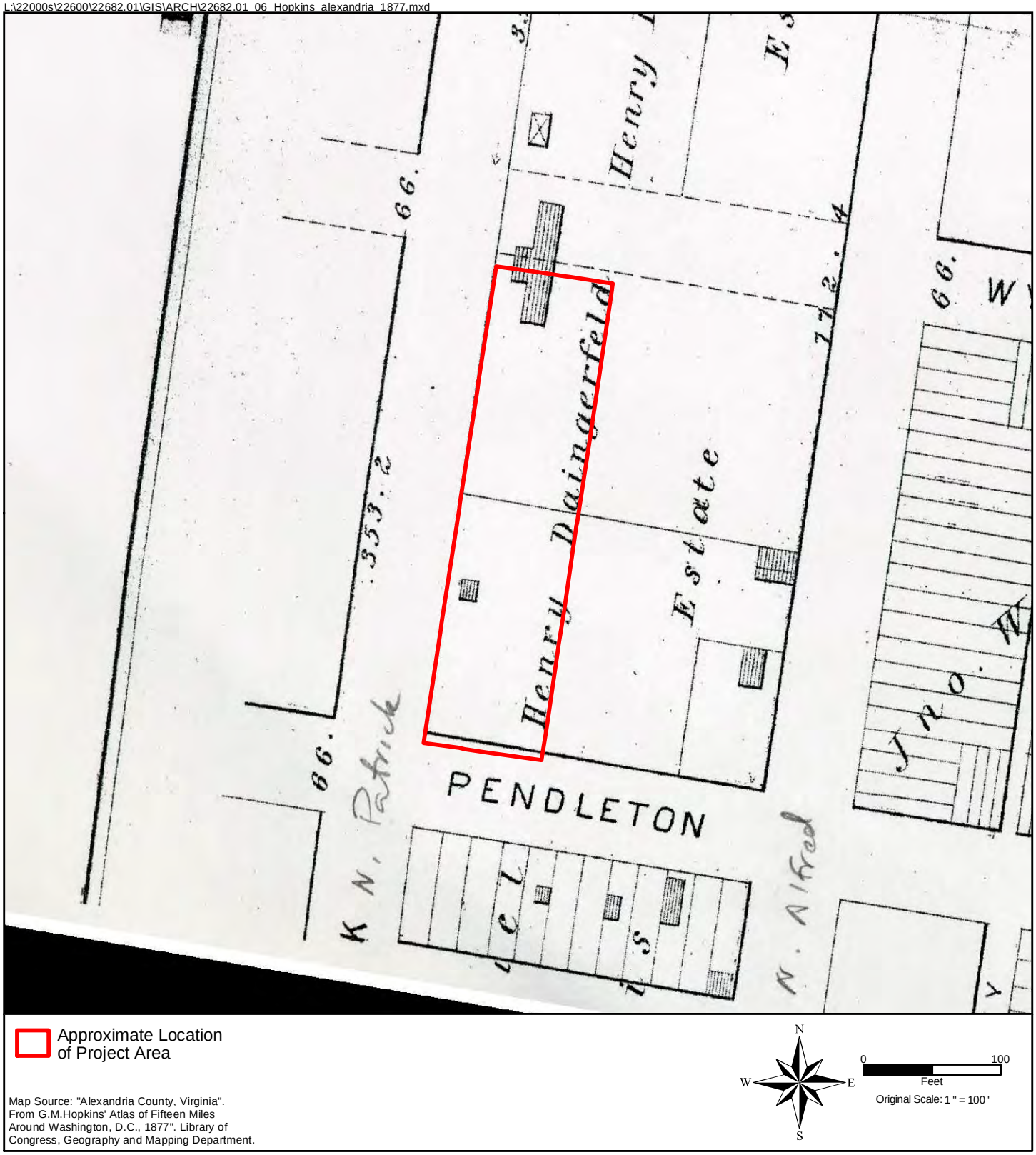

Figure 33
1877 Hopkins Map
Alexandria, Virginia

whites, associated with the railroad and industrial development. Northwest of the project area, the Belle Pre Bottle Company and the Alexandria Glass Company were located on Madison and Montgomery Streets, and warehouses stood along the railroad and North Fayette Street. A number of individual houses were built in the area at this time. Many European immigrants located in the neighborhood, continuing a tradition that had been in place since the mid-19th century when approximately 60% of the residents along North Columbus and Alfred Streets, near their junction with Oronoco and Wythe Streets, were Irish immigrants. By the 1930s, the same area was home to a diverse population of African Americans and both recent and descendant German and Italian immigrants (Necciai and Drumond 2007:8-335).

Ca. 1914-1941: Vacant Rowhouse Lots

Noble Lyndsey maintained ownership of the study area until 1914, when a decree was issued in chancery during the settling of his estate to sell the block for cash. The property was sold to the Real Estate and Investment Corporation of Virginia for $5,500 (Alexandria Deed Book 63:553). The Real Estate and Investment Corporation in turn sold the property to Charles W. King in 1919 for $8,000 (Alexandria Deed Book 69:135). By 1921, the block was vacant (Figure 34). In 1923, Charles King sold the property to his grocery wholesale company, Chas. King & Son (Alexandria Deed Book 76:110). Also in that year, the block was surveyed for subdivision and soon thereafter lots were sold for development (Alexandria Deed Book 76:242). Although the eastern and central portions of the block were developed, the western third of the block comprising the study area was sold to four buyers who left it vacant (Figure 35).

The segregated Parker-Gray Elementary School was built in the project area vicinity in 1920 when Alexandria combined two schools built in 1868 into a new elementary school (Necciai and Drumond 2007:8-344). The new school was overcrowded and the African-American community provided the funds for both furnishings and books. Although built to serve the lower grades, some high school classes were offered at the facility. After the construction of the Parker-Gray Elementary School, the African-American population expanded and coalesced into several more segregated neighborhoods including the Hump and Colored Rosemont (Necciai and Drumond 2007:8-340). Ultimately, these neighborhoods coalesced into Uptown, which became an increasingly African-American focal point from the early 20th century into the 1960s. It was the single largest predominantly African-American residential section of the city during segregation and contained many African-American owned businesses and institutions.

1942-1945: The Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133

By 1941, the United States Housing Authority (USHA), Nathan Strauss Administrator, under the Federal Works Agency (FWA), John M. Carmody Administrator, began to plan for the construction of permanent housing for African-American defense workers in the Uptown neighborhood. Then known as the Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133, Ramsey Homes (or Ramsay as it was sometimes spelled) was developed and maintained in the following sequence:

1941 March 3, the Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133 received Presidential or Administrative Approval.

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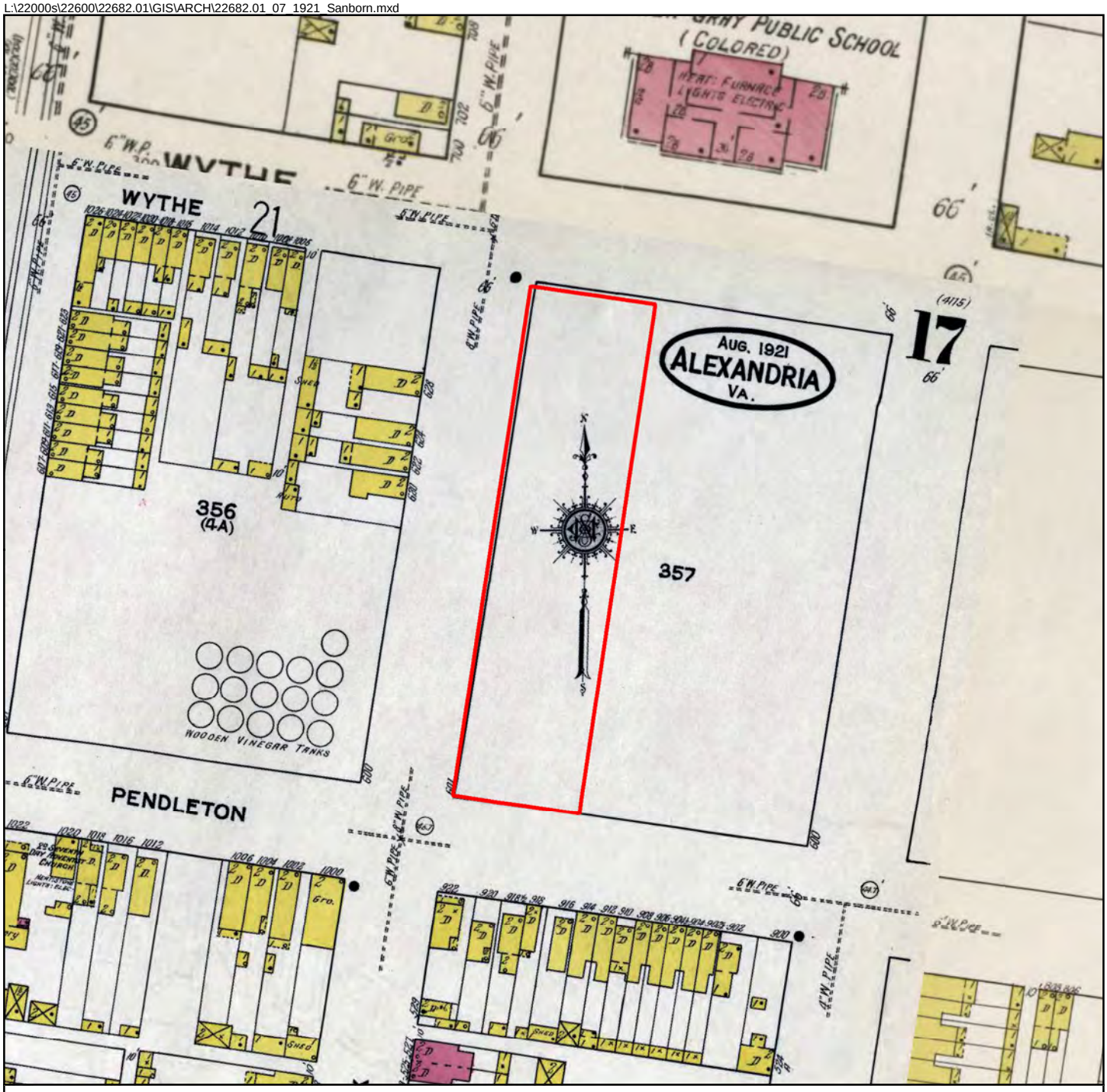
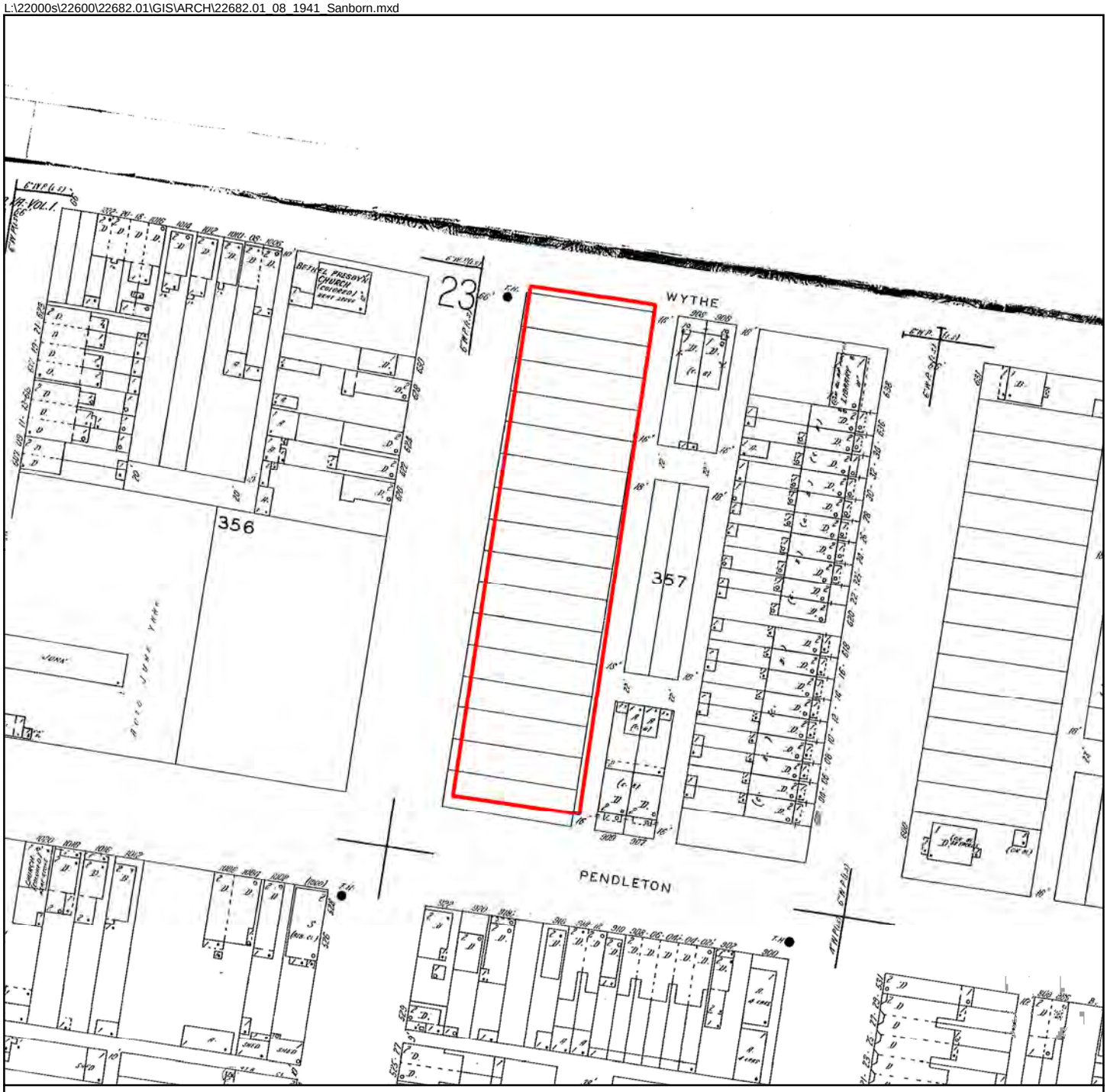


Map Source: "Sanborn Fire Insurance Map from Alexandria, Independent Cities, Virginia." Sanborn Map Company, August 1921. Sheet 17. Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, D.C.

Figure 34
1921 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map of Alexandria



Approximate Location of Study Area

Map Source: "Sanborn Fire Insurance Map from Alexandria, Independent Cities, Virginia." Sanborn Map Company, 1941. Sheet 21. Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, D.C.

Figure 35
1941 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map of Alexandria

1941 April 16, Edward S. Holland, Jr., Certified Land Surveyor, 624 King Street, Alexandria, completed a "Property Line Map" for the Housing Authority of the City of Alexandria (the predecessor of ARHA established by law in 1939). This plan showed 16 lots on the south side of Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe. Labeled 19-34, each measured 22 ft. wide and 87 ft. deep. Parcel 1 included Lot 19, Parcel 20 included Lot 20, Parcel 3 included Lots 21-33, and Parcel 4 included Lot 34.

1941 July 8, the United States Federal Government purchased four vacant parcels from Edward E. Lawler, R. S. Reynolds, Marguerite F. Graham, and Julian M. Dove (Alexandria Deed Book 176:7).

1941 July 15, Smith, Werner, and Billings Architects, 220 King Street, Alexandria, Virginia; Robert K. Thulman, Mechanical Engineer; and Associated Engineers Inc. Site Engineers completed the first set of plans for the Ramsay Homes (Figure 24 and Figure 25). The firm's architects were Delos H. Smith, FAIA, junior partner J. M. Billings, and engineer Sheldon Werner. The original plan submitted was for three buildings. Building A and C were to contain four units, including a living room and kitchen on the first floor and two bedrooms and a bathroom on the second floor. The architects described Building B as flats and included one three-room unit, three four-room units, and three five-room units. Each were to have shiplap siding, brick accents, and large cupolas. The landscape plan called for plantings, alley parking, patios, hexagonal clothes lines, a play area, and a spray basin.

1941 October 10, Smith, Werner, and Billings Architects submitted a second design, which was used by USHA (Figure 26 and Figure 27). The second option prescribed three four-unit Modernist foursquares and a three-unit L-shaped building with more economical materials such as "Fabcrete", a pre-cast unit of cementitious material that did not require interior framework for support and to which composition board, laths, and other material could be attached to achieve desired finishes. Joseph E. Hines of the Fabcrete Corporation, Richmond, Virginia applied for its patent on March 4, 1939, Serial No. 259,885. Utility lines and electrical wiring were outlined. Exterior elevations show coal chutes were once located on the north and south walls and interior plans note the plenums for "coal fired" heating and plumbing. The plan shows the elimination of large cupolas in favor of small skylights over each bathroom as they were located in the core of the buildings and could not have windows. It included parallel parking in the alley, hexagonal clothes lines labeled "yard clothes dryers", and a simple paved play area within the L of the triplex. Sheet 8 contains a "List of Plants", including 4 Trees of Heaven, 3 Honey Locust trees, 18 Black Locust trees, 15 Van Houtte Spirea flowering shrubs, 15 Arrow Wood flowering shrubs, 57 Regals Privet hedge plants, 85 Wash. Thorn hedge plants, 8 Japanese Creeper vines, 30 Evergreen Bittersweet vines, and 8 English Ivy vines. Historic aerials show mature trees between each building and that the landscape design was generally followed (RG 196, Records of the Public Housing Administration, Architectural and Engineering Plans, the National Archives at College Park Maryland).

1941 November 22, the construction contract was awarded (NHA 1942a).

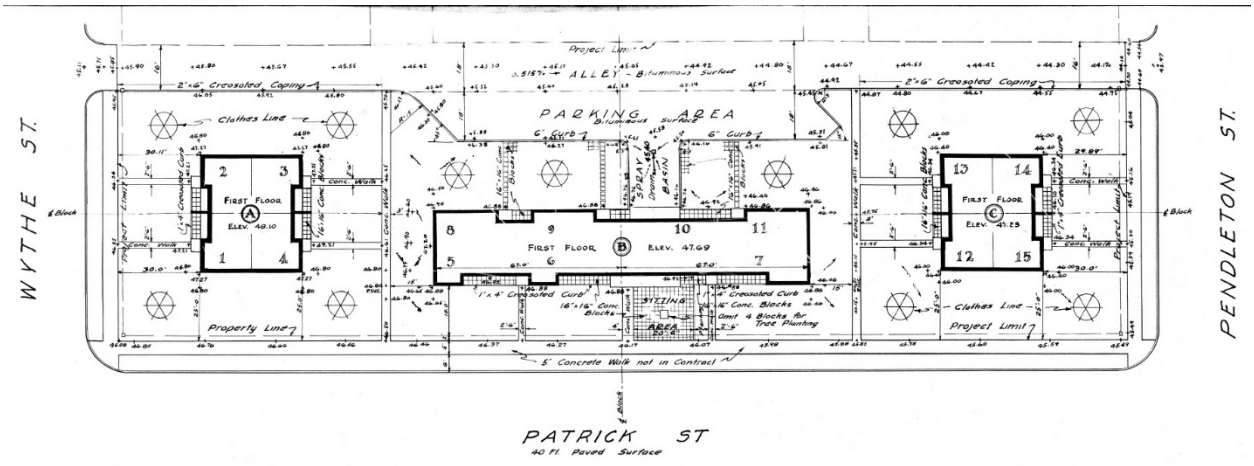


Figure 36: First Draft Site Plan July 7, 1941 Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA. 44133 (Smith 1941a)

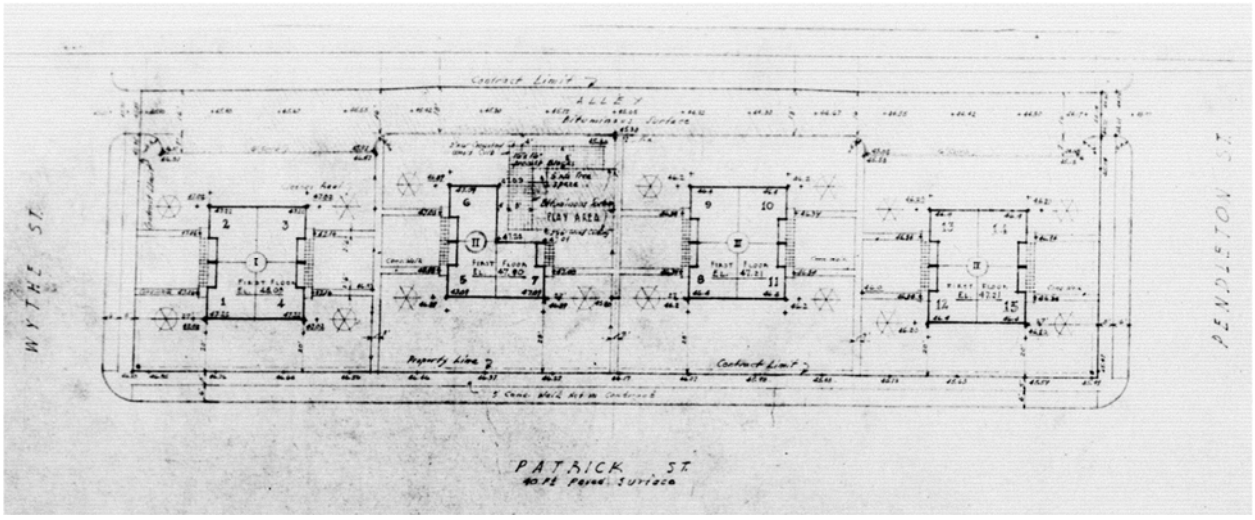


Figure 37: Final Site Plan Selected by USHA October 10, 1941 Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA. 44133 (National Archives at College Park, Maryland)

1942 February 24, the U.S. Housing Authority was moved under the National Housing Authority of FWA and became the Federal Public Housing Authority (PHA). The PHA published a directory, Report SD-102, containing information on all war housing, including "Ramsay Homes", and slum-clearance projects financed in whole or in part by Federal funds during 1942 (NHA 1942a).

1942 July 31, the Project was under construction and 95 percent complete with an estimated cost of $78,590 (NHA 1942a).

1942 September 18, the Project was under construction and 97 percent complete with an estimated cost of $79,940 (NHA 1942a).

1942 October 2, the Project was under construction and 99 percent complete with an estimated cost of $79,940 (NHA 1942a).

1942 October 30, the status of the Project had not changed (NHA 1942a).

1942 November 30, six units were occupied, eight units were available, and one unit was incomplete (NHA 1942a).

1946-Present: Alexandria Redevelopment and Housing Authority

1946 October 6, the *Washington Post* reported, "Three large war housing projects in Alexandria-elected at a cost of $2,712,000-are now up for sale." PHA gave the city the first chance to buy Chinquapin Village, Cameron Valley, and Ramsey Homes, all of which housed 2,000 people. While the PHA designated the buildings permanent, city officials contended that they were temporary, and the Mayor claimed the housing did not meet city building codes and were thus substandard.

1947, the Negro Yearbook contained a table of Permanent Public Housing Projects Making Provision for Negro Tenants as July 31, 1945, which included Ramsey Homes (Guzman et. al.). Alexandria City Directory listed the residents of the Ramsey Homes for the first time, including Carneal Coffee, USA (perhaps the Army); Cleveland B. Tivy, Clerk War Dept.; Will Daniels, barber; George W. Witherspoon, auto mechanic; and Charles E. Smith, janitor. All were noted as African American.

1951 July 26, PHA entered into a contract with the Alexandria Housing Authority for conveyance of low-rent housing "after the termination of the use of the project as defense housing during the Korean emergency" (United States 1956:48).

1953 April 30, the Alexandria Housing Authority became the Alexandria Redevelopment and Housing and purchased the Ramsey Homes from the PHA (Alexandria Deed Book 356:407).

1957-1964, historic black and white aerial imagery from these years show the specified play area next to the triplex, plantings, and buildings with flat roofs and skylights over the bathrooms (Figure 38).

1959, ARHA noted that its 4,942 tenants, occupying 1,247 dwelling units across eight development projects including the Ramsey Homes, "...almost all came from dismal, substandard, or overcrowded quarters," were "generally happy in their surroundings" and had greatly benefitted from public housing (ARHA 1959:2). The Sanborn Fire Insurance Map from this year shows the buildings and notes the use of pre-cast concrete and flat roofs (Figure 39).

1979, aerial imagery shows that ARHA removed the skylights and constructed hipped roofs.

1995 August 15, Sorg and Associates prepared plans for Interior, Exterior, and Site Improvements at VA 4-5, The Ramsey Community (Figure 40 and Figure 41). The plan called for a Colonial Revival makeover, showing vinyl replacement windows with clip-on six-over-six muntins, the addition of inoperable aluminum shutters, and replacement metal paneled doors. The BAR approved the plans for exterior renovations with the stipulation that the doors and shutters be hunter green and that the faux muntins not be used, leaving the windows one-over-one. Stucco and brick were patched and repaired. The kitchens and bathrooms were renovated. Chain-linked fencing was replaced with metal picket fences and the paved play area removed and sodded with grass. The plan notes that English Ivy was to be removed from the property. Any other historic plant material left at that time was removed.

The current location and type of trees and fencing is different from the original (Figure 42). Shrubbery and plants around the buildings are nursery stock and likely added by residents.

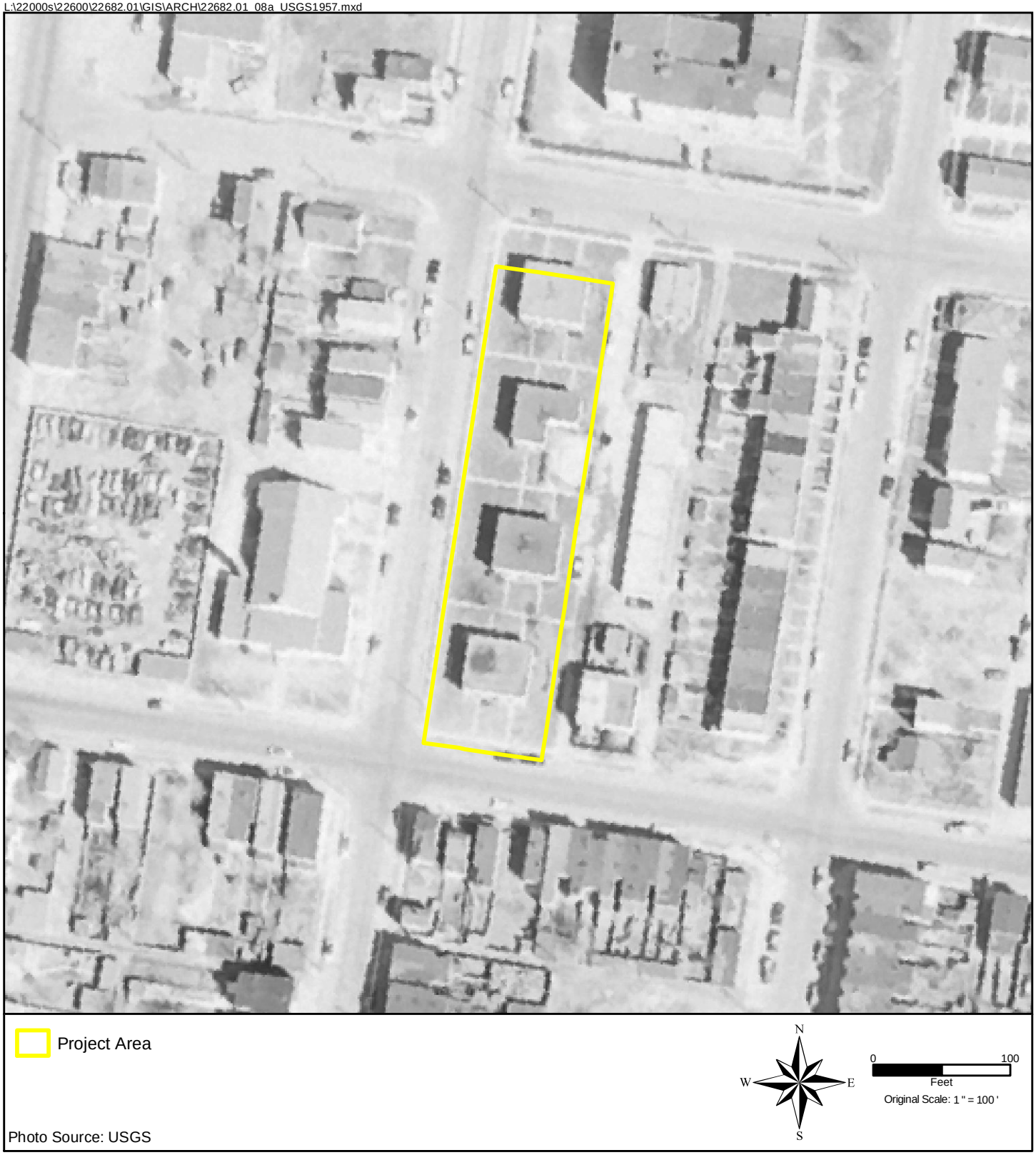


Figure 38
March 1957 Black and White Aerial Imagery of Alexandria

L:\22000s\22600\22682.01\GIS\ARCH\22682.01_09_1959_Sanborn.mxd

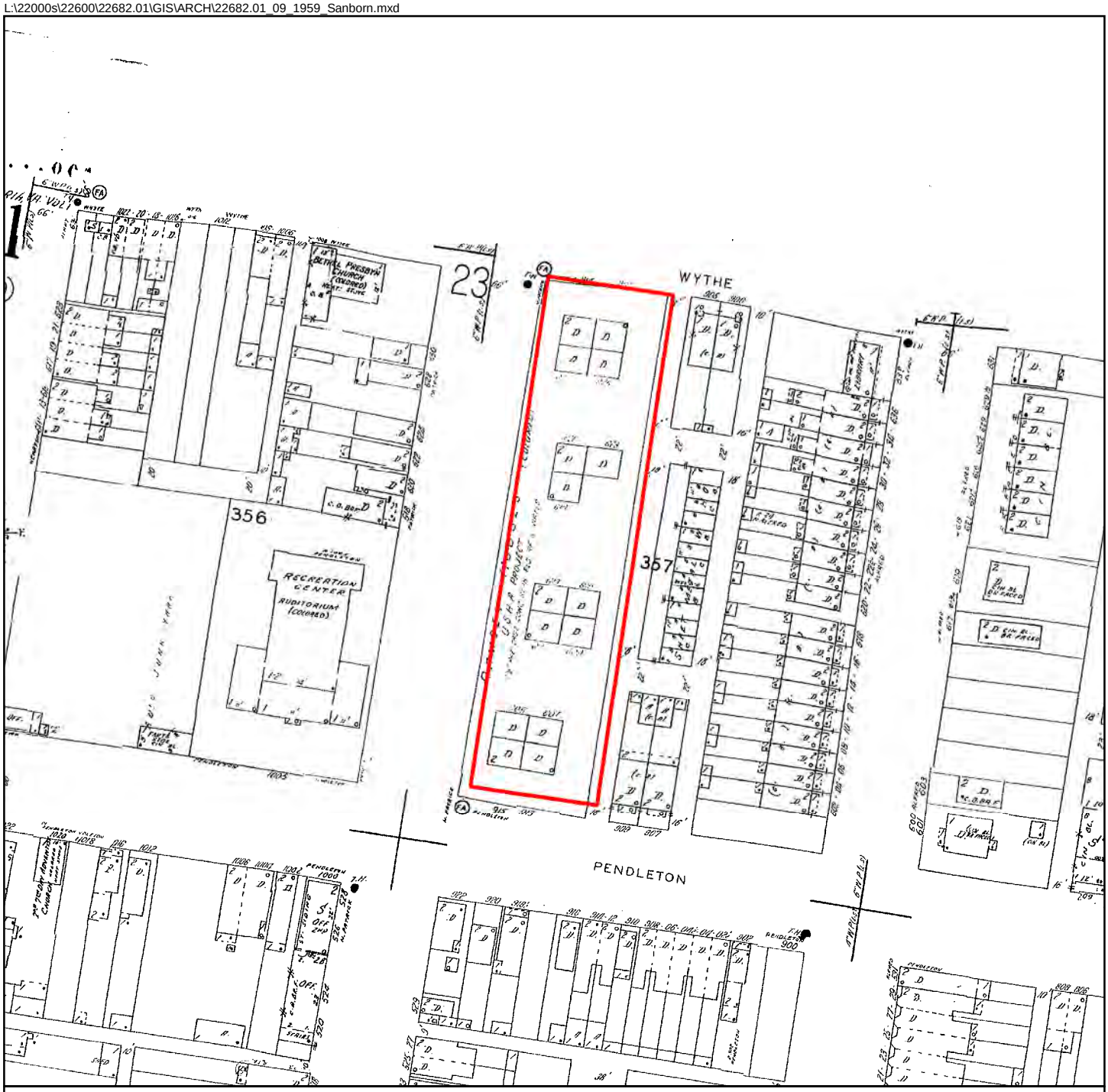


Figure 39
1959 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map of Alexandria

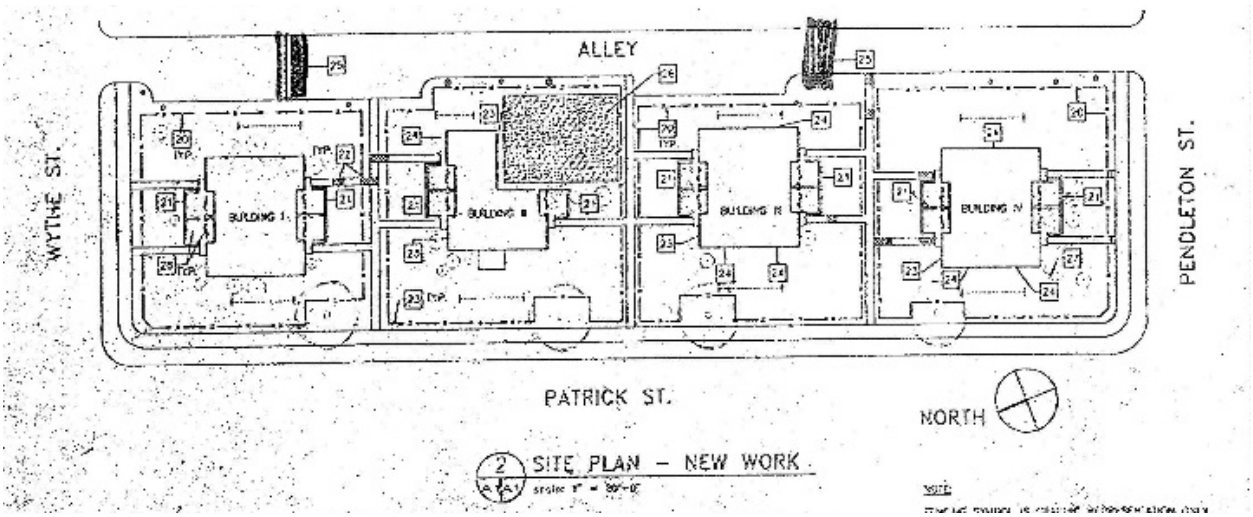


Figure 40: August 15, 1995 Plans for Interior, Exterior, and Site Improvements at VA 4-5, The Ramsey Community (ARHA)

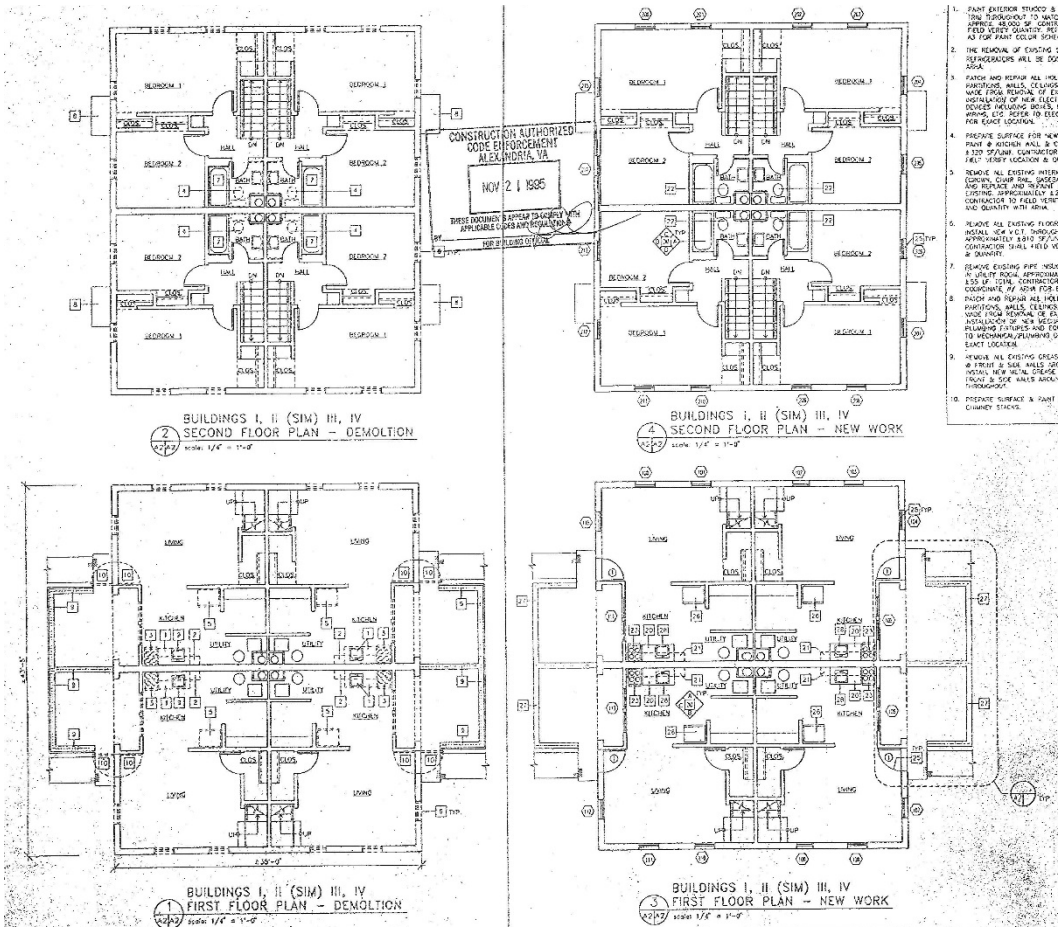


Figure 41: August 15, 1995 Plans for Interior, Exterior, and Site Improvements at VA 4-5, The Ramsey Community (ARHA)

Figure 42
March 2013 Natural Color Aerial Imagery of Alexandria

PREVIOUS CULTURAL RESOURCES INVESTIGATIONS

Previous Archeological Investigations

One previously recorded archeological site has been recorded at DHR within the study area; site 44AX0160 represents a probable Civil War-era military barracks site that was investigated by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991. According to the DHR site record, the resource has not been evaluated for eligibility to the NRHP. Domestic artifacts dating to the 19th century and a cobble path were reported; few additional details regarding the previous investigations at the site were found.

Previous Architectural Investigations

Four buildings with 15 units (see Figure 2) were previously recorded as seven resources at DHR within the study area in 2006 in anticipation of nominating the "Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District" (DHR No. 100-0133) to the VLR and NRHP. Building I contains 912-914 Wythe Street (DHR No. 100-0133-1328) and 625-627 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0754). Building II contains 619, 621, and 623 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0751). Building III contains 609-611 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0747) and 613-615 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0749). Building IV contains 605-607 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0745) and 913-915 Pendleton Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0948). Each resource contributes to the VLR district listed in 2008 and the NRHP district listed in 2010. The buildings are also located within the locally zoned "Parker-Gray District". The Period of Significance for the NRHP district is ca. 1810 to 1959. The Period of Significance for the locally zoned district ends in the "early twentieth century" (roughly 1900 to early 1930s).

The Ramsey Homes are located in the northwestern quadrant of the 1797 street grid and occupy over one-third of a city block on the east side of North Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe Streets. The grass lawns are enclosed by a modern metal picket fence, which steps in around mature oak trees lining the Patrick Street sidewalk. Buildings are set back 10 to 35 feet from the right-of-ways and spaced around 40 feet apart. The block is surrounded by small row houses and town houses, local businesses, converted warehouses, and community buildings most of which have very little setback from the curb. The area is dense with two- and three-story buildings from a variety of periods. The landscape and architecture of Ramsey Homes are out of character and scale with other historic resources in the study area (Figure 33).

Buildings I (Figure 34), III (Figure 35), and IV (Figure 36) are identical two-story quadruplexes (45' x 43'6.5") with low-pitched hipped roofs. Building II is an L-plan two-story triplex (43'6" x 36'5") with a cross-hipped roof (Figure 37). The nearly square shape of three of the buildings and the replacement of flat roofs with hipped ones after 1964 altered their style from vernacular Modernist to vernacular Prairie style. Alterations made in 1995 introduced Colonial Revival elements with metal paneled doors, vinyl windows, and inoperable aluminum shutters (Figure 38 and Figure 39).

Figure 43: Ramsey Homes, View to West from the Alfred Street Alley to North Patrick Street, Showing Difference in Scale between the Housing and Historic Homes

Figure 44: Ramsey Homes, Building I

Figure 45: Ramsey Homes, Building III

Figure 46: Ramsey Homes, Building IV

Figure 47: Ramsey Homes, Building II

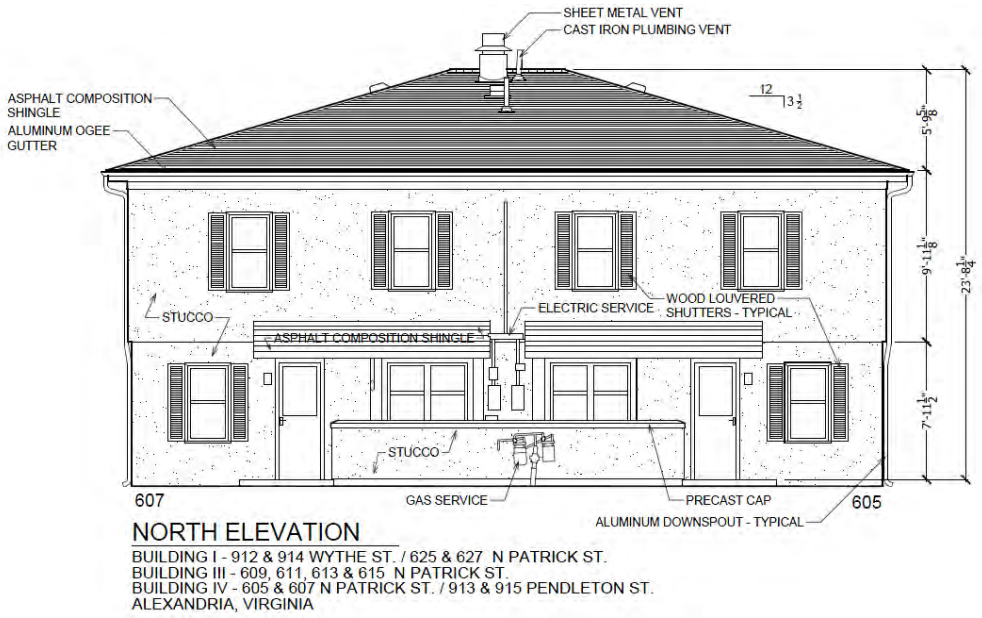


Figure 48: 2015 Historic American Building Survey Measured Drawings Prepared by Encore Sustainable Design for ARHA

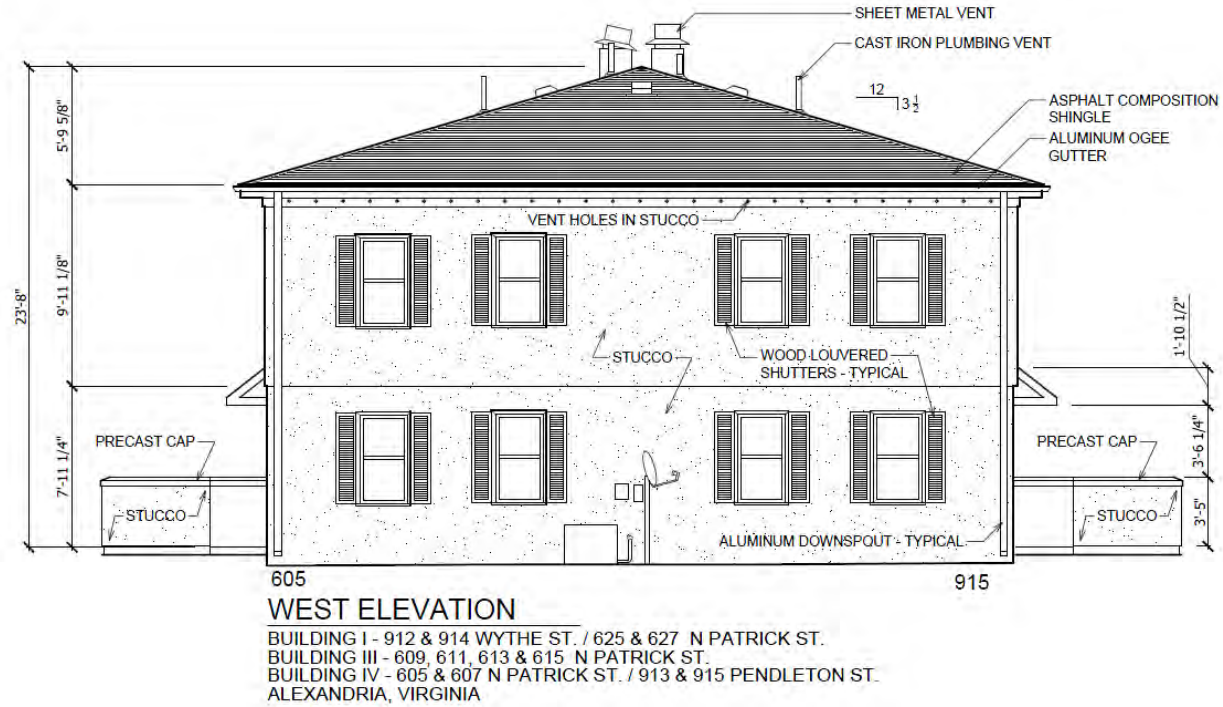


Figure 49: 2015 Historic American Building Survey Measured Drawings Prepared by Encore Sustainable Design for ARHA

Each building consists of a poured concrete foundation and Fabcrete building units used to construct the floors, walls, and roofs. Textured paint or acrylic stucco, noted as “stucco” on Figures 38 and 39, covers the exterior. The roofing is either a continuous membrane or a bituminous asphalt product. The low-pitched hipped roofs are capped by metal flues at each center.

Entrances are inset and paired side-by-side such that each quadruplex has two facing north and two facing south. The triplex has one facing south and two facing north. Paneled metal doors are roughly centered on each unit. Paired one-over-one windows with brick aprons are situated next to the doors towards the interior dividing wall on the north and south elevations. Larger one-over-one windows are situated on the opposite side of the door towards the corner of each building. The elevations facing the east and west contain two one-over-one windows on each floor of each unit, for a total of eight symmetrically positioned windows. They are all vinyl replacement double-hung sashes flanked by decorative aluminum louvered shutters.

The interiors of the buildings are minimalistic with vinyl composition tile or carpet added by the tenants, painted walls and very simple trim. There is a small living room (17’7” x 11’7”) with a closet under the stairs and a kitchen (9’x 9’) with open utility closet on the first floor of each unit. Two small bedrooms (14’5 x 9’5 and 8’ x 10’”) and one full bath are located on the second floor. Fixtures throughout date to the 1990s. There is a gas heating unit and window-unit air conditioners.

In 1984, the “Parker-Gray District”, where the Ramsey Homes are located, was established and codified “to protect community health and safety and to promote the education, prosperity and general welfare of the public through the identification, preservation, and enhancement of buildings, structures, settings, features and ways of life which characterize this nineteenth and early twentieth century residential neighborhood” (Zoning Ordinance Article X. Sec. 10-200). Two years later, a Board of Architectural Review (BAR) was appointed to review applications for alterations to properties in the district.

In 2008 and 2010, the “Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District”, which covered a larger area in Alexandria, was listed respectively to the VLR and the NRHP. The earliest example of public housing in the district, Ramsey Homes are listed as contributing in the areas of social history and architecture as "an example of the housing constructed with public funds, between 1940 and 1945, for defense workers during World War II" (Necciai and Drumond 2007). The Ramsey Homes may be determined individually eligible for listing based on Criteria A of the NRHP due to its association with African-American defense workers, the history of affordable housing, and the history of wartime housing, discussed in the historic context above, despite alterations

It does not appear to be individually eligible under Criterion B because there is no evidence of association with significant people. Efforts to identify significant historic personages that lived at the Ramsey Homes public housing site have not been successful. Although some local sources reported that baseball legend Jackie Robinson once lived in Ramsey Homes, a representative of the Jackie Robinson Foundation confirmed that Robinson was never a resident of the site (Mirielle

Stephen personal communication 2015). Basketball pioneer Earl Lloyd; sometimes referred to as the “Jackie Robinson of Basketball” was a native of Alexandria, Virginia but did not reside at Ramsey Homes (Alexandria Gazette Packet 2015).

Mentioned in a 1942 issue of *Architectural Record*, the homes were designed in the Modernist style by Delos H. Smith, a prominent fellow of the AIA, who specialized in the Colonial Revival, and consist of early experimental precast concrete, "Fab-crete". Due to the forward-thinking design and materials, they may be found individually eligible under Criterion C, despite alterations including the addition of a hipped roof on top of the Modernist flat roofs after 1964 and the 1995 addition of Colonial Revival elements. These features are reversible and do not have an adverse effect on the core structure, setting, style, or landscape.

The property may be found eligible under Criterion D dependent upon future archeological investigations.

Other areas considered in determining eligibility are the evaluation of a property's integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association as related to its area of significance in architecture and period of significance. The buildings have lost integrity of design, setting, feeling, and association due to the alteration of style and landscape, which is integral to listing under Criterion C, but less so to listing under Criterion A, particularly in association with resources related to minority groups.

In early 2015, ARHA submitted an application to the BAR for a Permit to Demolish. In a memo dated April 22, 2015, city staff recommended demolition; however, the BAR voted to deny the request. ARHA appealed the decision, and on September 12, 2015, City Council overturned the BAR's decision, thereby granting the Permit to Demolish.

ARCHEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

Based on the archival research and previous archeological research presented above, the following resources were present or are currently located within the Ramsey Homes parcel; an assessment of their potential archaeological signature is also addressed below.

18th Century Resources

The study area's vicinity was agricultural or waste land prior to its annexation by Alexandria in 1785, and was likely disturbed only by plowing. However, after annexation and a shift to market gardening in the vicinity, dwellings and outbuildings appeared on many squares in the vicinity. Although no buildings are known to have stood in the study area during the 18th century, a dwelling located on the eastern portion of the block may have been constructed during this time. This dwelling was located on a separate parcel from the study area, but it is possible that outbuildings or other structures stood within the study area during the 18th century. These would likely have been fairly ephemeral structures of post-in-ground or pier construction, remnants of which may persist in the subsoil of the study area.

Early to mid-19th Century Resources

Well into the 19th century, the only dwelling recorded in tax records on the square including the study area was located on the eastern side of the block fronting on Alfred Street. Between 1836

and 1849, the entirety of the block was owned by George Blish and utilized for a market garden, Blish resided in the Alfred Street house. Outbuildings and other structures similar to those discussed above are more likely to have been built within the study area during Blish's ownership as the entire block was consolidated under one owner, but there are no records that specifically indicate the presence or absence of buildings in the study area during this time.

Four dwellings were present on the block within a few years of Henry Daingerfield's purchase of the square in 1849; it is likely that two of these buildings stood within the study area, one each on the north and south halves of the block fronting on Patrick Street. At least some of Daingerfield's dwellings appear to have served as boarding houses given the number of individuals listed as resident on the property in tax records. Archeological remnants of these buildings would likely consist of the brick foundations or piers which supported typical dwellings of this period. Other features associated with the habitation of these dwellings, such as remnants of outbuildings including privies, may also be extant.

Civil War and Late 19th Century Resources

The headquarters, barracks, and post hospital of Battery H of the Pennsylvania Independent Light Artillery were constructed on the block in 1863; according to Civil War-era maps, portions of as many as six buildings stood within the study area:the unit headquarters, two barracks, two sinks/privies, and a building housing a sutler. It is unclear if the headquarters and sutler represent new construction by the military or incorporate the buildings constructed by Daingerfield in the 1850s. Buildings constructed by the military were typically post-in-ground frame structures; it seems likely that the barracks buildings within the study area would have been constructed in this manner. Archeological investigation of the property might reveal whether the headquarters and sutler buildings were new military construction or re-purposed existing structures based upon the remains of the building foundations. Other features associated with the Civil War occupation, including privies, refuse pits, and possibly terrain features and modifications such as landscaping around the headquarters and barracks may also be discernible through archeological excavation.

Following the Civil War, the heirs of Henry Daingerfield continued to lease the property to tenants, and the presence of a dwindling number of buildings on the square are recorded in tax records. It is likely that the buildings on the square were those present during the Civil War occupation, and the temporary nature of the military buildings contributed to the steadily decreasing number and value of buildings indicated in late 19th century tax records for the property. It is unclear when the final building came down, but it likely occurred in the 1890s or the first decade of the 20th century.

20th Century Resources

The block was at best sparsely occupied by the turn of the 20th century, and completely devoid of buildings by 1921. The study area remained vacant until the extant Ramsey Homes defense housing project was constructed in 1942. Apart from the buildings themselves, significant archeological features associated with the occupants of the buildings are unlikely, as modern urban refuse disposal practices were in use by the time of the dwellings' construction.

Proposed Construction

This Documentary Study was initiated because the Board of Commissioners of ARHA determined that the property should be redeveloped to provide more units of affordable housing and meet goals within their 2012-2022 Strategic Plan, the Braddock East Master Plan (BEMP), and the City-adopted Housing Master Plan. The proposed units will be three stories high and occupy nearly the entire property with no setbacks. Details regarding potential depths of proposed disturbances are not presently available

Recommendations

The study area has a moderate to high probability of containing late 18th century – 20th century artifact deposits and archeological features that could potentially provide significant information about domestic development in the Parker-Gray Historic District within the City of Alexandria, Virginia. Additionally, one previously recorded archeological site has been mapped within the study area; site 44AX0160 represents a probable Civil War-era military barracks site that was investigated by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991. According to the DHR site record, the resource has not been evaluated for eligibility to the NRHP. As such, the study area is known to include cultural deposits associated with the historic Civil War-era military occupation of the city. A proposed Scope of Work for the archeological work is included as Appendix III, but must be approved by the City of Alexandria Archaeologist.

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APPENDIX I
Scope of Work for Documentary Study

Scope of Work for a Documentary Study
Ramsey Homes
Located at Pendleton, N. Patrick, and Wythe Streets
Alexandria, Virginia

June 2015

Limited historical research indicates that the Henry Daingerfield (1800-1866) owned the study area in the mid-19th century, with his house situated partially in the right-of-way for Wythe Street and partially within the northern portion of the study area. During the Civil War, the Daingerfield house was used as the headquarters for Battery H of the First Independent Pennsylvania Artillery, while the remainder of the block bounded by Patrick, Wythe, Alfred, and Pendleton Streets housed barracks, stables, and a hospital for the unit as well as a sutler's shop or dwelling. Elements of the complex that may lie within the study area include a barracks building, the sutler's building, a portion of the Daingerfield house/unit offices, a "sink" (privy), and possibly a hospital building.

By 1877, the majority of the buildings in the study area were likely no longer extant, with the exception of the Daingerfield house and a small building in the approximate location of the sutler's building during the Civil War. The study area remained part of the Henry Daingerfield estate in that year. By the late 19th century, the study area lay within the boundary of the African American community known as "Uptown," although it is unknown if the study area was inhabited during the last decades of the 19th century and the first 40 years of the 20th century. Sanborn fire insurance maps do not depict the study area until 1921, in which year the entire block bounded by Patrick, Wythe, Alfred, and Pendleton Streets is shown as undeveloped. The study area remained undeveloped until the construction of the Ramsey Homes dwellings in 1942.

The ultimate goals of the research are to understand the history of the project area, to develop a historical context for the interpretation of the site, and to identify, as precisely as possible, the potential locations of archaeological resources that may be preserved. The study shall also consider the effects of previous disturbances and grading on potential sites as well as the impact of the proposed construction activities on the areas of potential. The Study will conclude with specific recommendations, backed by stated evidence and arguments, as to which areas need Archaeological Evaluations and which areas do not. All aspects of this investigation shall comply with the *City of Alexandria Archaeological Standards* dated January 1996, *Guidelines for Conducting Cultural Resource Survey in Virginia,* and the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation.* Project details are as follows:

Documentary Study Report and Recommendations

The consultant shall develop a full cultural and landscape history and shall identify significant themes through the research and articulate them in the report and summary; in addition, the consultant shall work with the developer, architect, and landscape architect to provide information in a way that can be used to integrate these themes and elements of the historic character of this place into the design and open space for the project.

The Documentary Study will consist of maps, plus primary and secondary source information. The archival research shall include, but is not limited to, a search of deeds, plats, title documents, probate and other court records; tax and census records; business directories; published and unpublished manuscripts of first-hand accounts (such as letters, diaries, and county histories); historical maps; newspaper articles; previous archaeological research; pedological, geological and topographic maps; modern maps, previous construction plans and photographs that can indicate locations of previous ground disturbance; and information on file with Alexandria Archaeology and the local history sections of public libraries in northern Virginia.

The archival research shall result in an account of the chain of title, a description of the owners and occupants, and a discussion of the land-use history of the property through time. The work will address issues relating to the changes in use of the land through time. It will identify significant themes and include the development of research questions that could provide a framework for the archaeological work and the development of historic contexts for the interpretation of the site. The work will present the potential for the archaeological work to increase our understanding of Alexandria's past and will highlight the historical and archaeological significance of the property.

In addition to the narrative, the Documentary Study report will include a map or series of overlay maps that will indicate the impact of the proposed construction activities on all known cultural and natural features on the property. The scale of the overlay map(s) will be large (such as 1 inch to 100 feet). The map(s) will depict the locations of features discovered as a result of the background documentary study (including, but not limited to, historic structures, historic topography, and water systems), the locations of any known previous disturbances to the site (including, but not limited to, changes in topography, grading and filling, previous construction activities), and the locations and depths of the proposed construction disturbances (including, but not limited to, structures, roads, grading/filling, landscaping, utilities). From this information, a final overlay map shall be created that indicates the areas with the potential to yield significant archaeological resources that could provide insight into Alexandria's past. The report will present specific recommendations in a Scope of Work that delineates the archaeological testing strategy needed to complete an Archaeological Evaluation. The map shall indicate locations for backhoe scraping or trenching, hand excavation, metal detection, and/or monitoring. **The recommendations will be based upon the specific criteria for evaluating potential archaeological significance as established and specified in the Alexandria Archaeological Protection Code**.

Public Interpretation

The *City of Alexandria Archaeological Standards* require that a public summary be prepared as part of the Documentary Study. The public summary will be approximately 4 to 8 pages long with a few color illustrations. This should be prepared in a style and format that is reproducible for public distribution and use on the City's web site. Examples of these can be seen on the Alexandria Archaeology Museum website. A draft of the summary should be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology for review along with the draft of the Documentary Study report. Upon approval, a master copy (hard copy as well as on CD) will be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology. The summary and graphics should also be e-mailed to Alexandria Archaeology for publication on the web site.

Tasks

The following is a summary of the tasks to be completed:

1. Visit Alexandria Archaeology to gather information, including to-scale historical maps, site reports, and secondary compilations and indexes, and complete research on primary sources.

2. Visit other repositories to complete research from primary and secondary sources.

3. Analyze the compiled data to evaluate the potential for the recovery of significant archaeological resources on the property.

4. Produce a preliminary draft of the Documentary Study report with recommendations, including a Scope of Work for the Archaeological Evaluation if warranted, and submit it to Alexandria Archaeology.

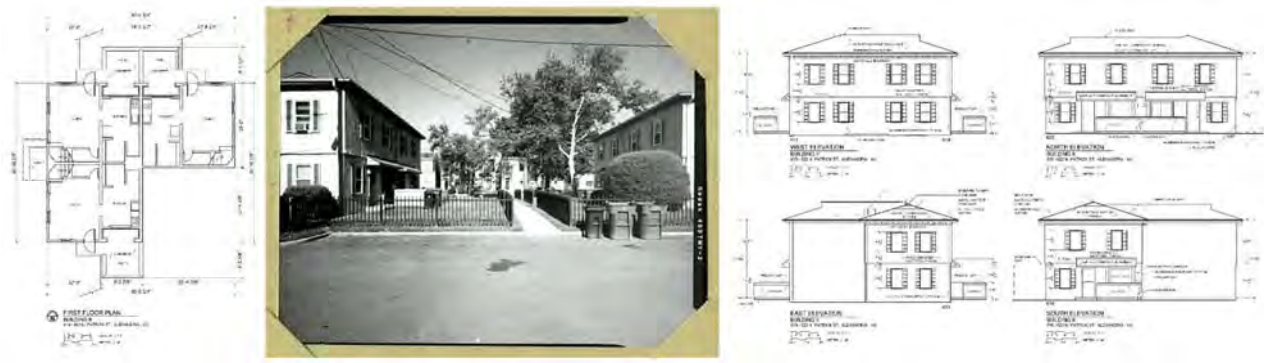
5. Make required revisions and deliver 1 unbound and 3 bound copies of the final Documentary Study report (with title, consultant firm name and date on the spines) to Alexandria Archaeology, along with a CD of the final report and a separate CD of the public summary with graphics.

6. Meet with the City Archaeologist and the developer/architect/landscape architect to provide information that might be useful in integrating the historic character into the design of the development.

Formats for Digital Deliverables:

1. Photographs:	.jpg
2. Line Drawings:	.gif or .jpg as appropriate
3. Final Report/Public Summary:	Word, PageMaker and/or PDF
4. Oral History:	Word
5. Catalogue:	Word, Access or Excel
6. Other Written material:	Word, Access, Excel, PageMaker or PDF as appropriate

APPENDIX II
Public Summary of Documentary Study



Ramsey Homes Site – City of Alexandria, Virginia

Public Summary of a Documentary Study

Prepared by Thunderbird Archeology, a division of Wetland Studies and Solutions, Inc.

Thunderbird Archeology, a division of Wetland Studies and Solutions, Inc., of Gainesville, Virginia prepared a Documentary Study for Ramsey Homes, located on North Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe Streets for Ramsey Homes, LP of Alexandria, Virginia. The Board of Commissioners of the Alexandria and Redevelopment Housing Authority (ARHA) propose to redevelop the site consistent with the Braddock East Master Plan (BEMP) at a density high enough to sustain a critical mass of low-income residents in order to maintain the strong social and support networks that are essential in low-income communities. The Documentary Study was required under the City of Alexandria Archaeological Protection Code prior to development of the property.

The documentary research showed that the only constant of the property's history is change, an evolution with an interesting pattern not readily apparent. Since settlement, the site's land use has constantly evolved from vacant land to farmland (pre-1849) to military housing and hospital use by the Union Army during the Civil War (1861-1865) to affordable tenant housing for European immigrants (1865-1914) to vacant land (1914-1941) to military housing for African American defense workers during World War II and the post-war years (1942-1945) and finally to affordable housing for the public (1946-present).

The Ramsey Homes site is situated outside of the original 1749 boundaries of Alexandria and remained undeveloped until the 19th century. George and Teresa Blish, immigrants from Germany, owned the block from at least 1834 until 1849. City tax records provide some details of Blish's tenure on the land; he owned horses, cows, and a cart or carts. It is probable that Blish operated a market garden or truck farm on the property; census records describe Blish and most of his neighbors as farmers and gardeners. Henry Daingerfield, one of the wealthiest men in Alexandria, purchased the property from Blish and erected several houses which were rented primarily to Irish immigrants who worked in various industries and businesses in and near Alexandria.

U.S. Quartermaster Corps Map 1865

At the onset of the Civil War, the Union army occupied Alexandria due to its proximity to Washington, D.C. and its importance as a sea-land transportation hub, which could be utilized to transport men, equipment, and supplies for the prosecution of the war. During the occupation of the city, much of the regular commerce that had characterized Alexandria before the war faltered as Southern loyalists fled the town and their properties were commandeered for the Union war effort. The United States Office of the Quartermaster General (USQM) took over the waterfront and many homes and buildings in the city were occupied by soldiers either temporarily staged in the town awaiting deployment, or more permanently garrisoned as part of the quartermaster corps or manning the system of forts that defended the city. The Union army commandeered the lot for the headquarters, barracks, and hospital of Battery H of the Independent Pennsylvania Artillery, which served garrison duty in Alexandria from 1863 until 1865.

The 1865 U.S, Quartermaster Corps map of the block bounded by Wythe, Alfred, Pendleton, and Patrick shows a two story headquarters building on Patrick Street with single story wings on the north, south, and west and a large veranda on the east elevation, two 20 x 60 foot barracks buildings, a kitchen, a blacksmith, a large stable fronting on Alfred Street, a small hospital building on Pendleton, hospital tents to the north of the hospital building, and a building marked "Sutlers, Private" in the southwestern quadrant of the block. A vegetable garden and landscaping surround the headquarters building and the space between the barracks, and several "sinks," or privies, are located at the edges of the block.

This hospital was most likely a post hospital that specifically served the men of Battery H. The sutler's building was probably a residence and shop for a civilian merchant licensed by the U.S. military to supply goods and services to soldiers, filling the role later occupied by canteens and exchanges. Although providing much-needed goods to soldiers, sutlers had a checkered reputation, were looked upon unfavorably by the U.S. Quartermaster General and other highly-placed individuals responsible for keeping the military supplied, and were the subject of frequent changes in regulations regarding the manner of their selection and licensing, what articles they could sell, and how they were allowed to transport and distribute their goods.

Each regiment or discreet detached unit of the army, such as Battery H of the Pennsylvania Light Artillery, was allowed one licensed sutler to serve the needs of the soldiery. A unit's sutler did not enjoy a position in the military chain of command, but was an official civilian contractor attached to the unit which provided them an effective monopoly on the trade of the unit's soldiers, as well as direct access to the paymaster to collect money due on account when pay was distributed.

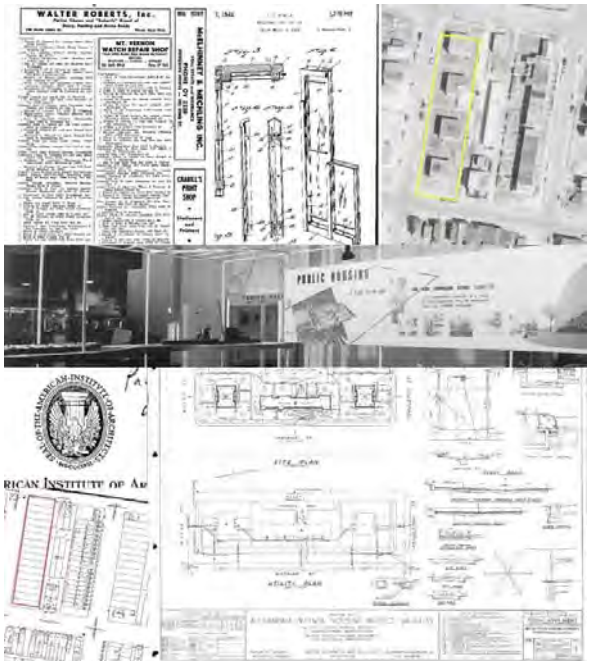
Food, condiments, and tobacco represented the majority of a typical sutler's sales. The military supplied a daily ration of hard tack and preserved pork or beef, all of which was frequently of sub-standard quality. The fresh and canned fruits and vegetables, pickles, flour, bread, cheese, butter, sardines, mustard, and other foodstuffs sold by sutlers were a welcome and necessary addition to the soldier's diet. Other goods officially approved for sale by sutlers included uniforms and other clothing, toiletries, playing cards, checker boards, pens, ink, stationery, books, newspapers, mending kits, dishes, cookware, knives, blankets, candles, and matches.

A preliminary archeological investigation of the Ramsey Homes site, conducted by city archeologists in the 1990s, resulted in the recovery of artifacts and a buried cobble path likely associated with the Civil War-era occupation of the property.

Following the war, Henry Daingerfield's heirs continued to rent out deteriorating houses on the block until the 1890s, by which time the property was likely vacant of habitable buildings.

During the early 20th century, the property changed hands multiple times and remained vacant until World War II. In 1941, the United States Housing Authority (USHA) began to plan for the construction of housing for African-American defense workers in the Uptown neighborhood. Then known as the Lanham Act Alexandria Defense Housing Project VA-44133, the vernacular Modernist Ramsey Homes (or Ramsay as it was sometimes spelled) was completed in 1942.

The original residents of the complex were African American defense workers, but their identities were kept secret as a matter of national security. The 1945 Alexandria City Directory does not list the odd-numbered addresses on the 600 block of N. Patrick Street as a result of this policy. Similarly, photographs and information concerning the Naval Torpedo Station on the waterfront, which employed an integrated work force and where residents of Ramsey Homes may have worked, were similarly withheld from public access until after World War II.ARHA purchased the homes in 1953 and has maintained them as affordable since then.



Based on the documentary research, the Ramsey Homes site was assumed to have a moderate to high probability of containing late 18th century – 20th century artifact deposits and archeological features that could potentially provide significant information about domestic development in the Parker-Gray Historic District and cultural deposits associated with the historic Civil War-era military occupation of the city. An archeological evaluation of the site was recommended.

APPENDIX III
Scope of Work for Archaeological Evaluation

Scope of Work for Archaeological Evaluation
Ramsey Homes Site
City of Alexandria, Virginia

April 2016
Revised June 2016

INTRODUCTION

The Ramsey Homes are located on North Patrick Street between Pendleton and Wythe Streets in the City of Alexandria, Virginia within the bounds of the historically African-American community known as Uptown and the locally zoned "Parker-Gray District" (Figure 1 and 2). The Board of Commissioners of the Alexandria and Redevelopment Housing Authority (ARHA) propose to redevelop the study area consistent with the Braddock East Master Plan (BEMP) at a density high enough to sustain a critical mass of mixed-income residents and work force housing in order to maintain the strong social and support networks that are essential in sustainable communities. The provision of additional affordable housing is a key goal of the Alexandria City Council 2010 Strategic Plan, ARHA 2012-2022 Strategic Plan, Braddock Metro Neighborhood plan, and the BEMP. In memos dated April 22, 2015; September 12, 2015; February 4, 2016; and February 20, 2016; City staff recommended demolition of the Ramsey Homes.

The United States Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) has determined that redevelopment of the Ramsey Homes site will constitute a federal undertaking; therefore, the project requires compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act. HUD has also determined that the City of Alexandria Office of Housing is the responsible entity relevant to Section 106 review. Section 106 of 36 CFR 800.2(c) (4) allows federal agencies and their designees to authorize an applicant or group of applicants to initiate consultation with the SHPO and other consulting parties. In order to accomplish the Project, the City of Alexandria Office of Housing has delegated Section 106 consultation activities to the Virginia Housing Development LLC of Alexandria, Virginia; Virginia Housing Development LLC (whose sole member is ARHA) is in turn allowing the coordination of Section 106 activities to be administered by the consultant, Wetland Studies and Solutions, Inc. (WSSI) of Gainesville, Virginia.

The project area includes four public housing buildings with 15 units. The buildings were constructed as temporary housing for defense workers in 1942 and were previously recorded with the Virginia department of Historic Resources (DHR) as seven resources in 2006 in anticipation of nominating the "Uptown/Parker-Gray Historic District" (DHR No. 100-0133) to the VLR and NRHP.

Building I.	912 and 914 Wythe Street (DHR No. 100-0133-1328)
	625 and 627 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0754)
Building II.	619, 621, and 623 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0751)
Building III.	609 and 611 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0747)
	613 and 615 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0749)
Building IV.	605 and 607 Patrick Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0745)
	913 and 915 Pendleton Street (DHR No. 100-0133-0948)

Each resource contributes to the VLR district listed in 2008 and the NRHP district listed in 2010.

A *Documentary Study* has been completed for the property; the research revealed that the study area has a moderate to high probability of containing late 18th century – 20th century artifact deposits and archeological features that could potentially provide significant information about domestic development in the Parker-Gray Historic District within the City of Alexandria, Virginia. Additionally, one previously recorded archeological site has been mapped within the study area; site 44AX0160 represents a probable Civil War-era military barracks site that was investigated by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991. According to the DHR site record, the resource has not been evaluated for eligibility to the NRHP. As such, the study area is known to include cultural deposits associated with the historic Civil War-era military occupation of the city. Mapping provided by Alexandria Archaeology, showing testing conducted by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991 is included as Attachment A.

This Scope of Work is for an *Archaeological Evaluation* of the Ramsey Homes site and, in order to determine the presence/absence of significant archeological resources, calls for initial shovel test pit investigation, the excavation of test units, and exploratory machine trenching in locations where manual testing is not feasible, if necessary.

The initial archeological investigations described herein were designed to be conducted prior to the demolition of the Ramsey Homes; additional investigations (i.e. archeological monitoring) are proposed for the project's demolition phase. Miss Utility will be informed prior to any excavations.

If a significant site(s) is discovered as a result of the field work, the site(s) will be registered with the Virginia Department of Historic Resources (DHR). All aspects of this investigation will adhere to OSHA regulations and will comply with the *City of Alexandria Archaeological Standards* dated January 1996, 2011 DHR guidelines for archeological survey, and the *Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation.* Additionally, as this project will be subject to review under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, the investigation report will also be submitted to the DHR for review and comment, and subsequently, to all Section 106 consulting parties.

ARCHEOLOGICAL FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

Archeological field personnel will conduct a walkover and complete visual inspection of the ground surface of the project area. All structures, visible disturbances, artifact scatters or other manmade features observed will be accurately mapped.

Shovel Test Pits

Archeological field personnel will excavate shovel test pits (STPs) on a grid at 50-foot intervals in all portions of the property and additional shovel test pits (STPs) on a grid at 25-foot intervals in a cruciform pattern around find locations, as needed in order to define archeological site boundaries or delineate specific artifact concentrations. Areas previously investigated by

Alexandria Archaeology will be retested during the Archaeological Evaluation. It is anticipated that the excavation of approximately 35-40 STPs will be needed.

The location of each STP will be mapped and documented with field notes. STPs will measure at least 15 inches in diameter and will be excavated by natural soil levels and will stop at the limit of manual excavation (i.e. at a depth of about 3-feet below ground surface or when impervious surfaces or impasses are encountered) or where gleyed soils, gravel, water, or well developed B horizons too old for human occupation are reached. Soil horizons will be classified according to standard pedological designations. Soil profiles will be made of at least one profile within each test unit, with soil descriptions noted in standard soil terminology (A, Ap, B, C, etc.). Soil colors will be described using the Munsell Soil Color Chart designations.

Any clearly modern fill horizons and/or modern surface soil may, at the discretion of the project archeologist, be discarded without screening; historic plowed soils, historic surfaces or historic fill soils, loess soils, and paleosols will be screened through 1/4-inch mesh hardware cloth screens.

Recovered artifacts will be bagged and labeled by unit number and by soil horizon. Artifacts will be bagged and labeled by unit number and by soil horizon.

Test Units and Features

Based on the results of testing conducted by Alexandria Archaeology in 1991, it is anticipated that additional work will be needed to evaluate the significance of archeological deposits or features found during the 1991 investigations and/or the shovel test pit program detailed above. It is anticipated that a minimum of six (6) hand excavated test units (3 x 3 feet) will be necessary to test potentially significant archeological features and buried ground surfaces found in test trenches. The test units will be excavated stratigraphically through the intact buried surface and all soil from the test unit will be screened through 1/4-inch mesh hardware cloth screens. Soil profiles will be made of representative units, with soil colors described using the Munsell Soil Color Chart designations. Artifacts will be bagged and labeled by unit number and by soil horizon. The work will be documented with field notes, sketch plans, and photographs. Any features encountered will be mapped and made available for inspection by Alexandria Archaeology. Decisions regarding the significance of features, feature sampling, and the need for additional testing will be made in consultation with Alexandria Archaeology.

Machine-Excavated Trenches

At locations where impervious surfaces or obstructions limit STP excavation to depths above the level where archeological deposits may occur, in consultation with Alexandria Archaeology, investigations may proceed with the mechanical excavation of backhoe trenches under archeological monitoring. The trenches, if needed, will be excavated using a backhoe equipped with a flat-lipped (smooth) bucket. Trenches will be immediately backfilled if significant features or buried surfaces are not identified. Each trench will measure approximately four (4) feet in width; a maximum of 250-linear feet of trench excavations are assumed with a maximum displacement of soil totaling 185 cubic yards. The trench excavations will be accurately mapped and each trench will be documented with representative photographs and soil profile drawings.

Additional STPs at 50-25 foot-foot intervals and/or test units (3 x 3 feet) will be excavated within the trenches, if needed, where the potential for archeological deposits are identified. STP excavation shall be conducted otherwise as noted above.

Resource Management Plan

A Resource Management Plan and Scope of Work for archeological treatment of significant deposits or features will be prepared and presented to Alexandria Archaeology for review and approval. If the work required under an approved Resource Management Plan is not conducted during the Archaeological Evaluation, the Plan will be included in the Archaeological Evaluation report, as noted below.

As this project will be subject to review under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, the investigation report, any approved Resource Management Plan will also be submitted to the DHR for review and comment, and subsequently, to all Section 106 consulting parties. Mitigation of significant archeological resources will only be conducted under a) a Resource Management Plan approved by Alexandria Archaeology; b) a Resource Management Plan approved by the DHR; c) a fully executed Memorandum of Agreement.

ARCHEOLOGICAL MONITORING FOR BUILDING DEMOLITION

If required, based on the results of the Archaeological Evaluation, and/or Alexandria Archaeology requirements, archeological monitoring will be conducted during demolition of buildings and removal of foundations/concrete slabs within the project area. Such work will be documented through maintenance of daily monitoring logs and in a summary memorandum at the completion of monitoring. Any archeological deposits or cultural features found will be assessed for significance in consultation with Alexandria Archaeology. Potentially significant and significant finds will be addressed as detailed above. Results of the monitoring will be included in the Archaeological Evaluation report or in an addendum to said report.

LABORATORY WORK AND CURATION

Archeological artifacts recovered from the project area will be cleaned, stabilized (if necessary), cataloged, labeled and packaged in accordance with the guidelines set forth in the *City of Alexandria Archaeological Standards*. Organic materials that may require conservation may be recovered. Since it is not known if conservation will be necessary, it will be budgeted as an additional service.

Archeological collections recovered as a result of the Alexandria Archaeology Resource Protection Code must be curated at a facility which meets Federal standards for archeological curation and collections management as described by 36CFR Part 79. The Alexandria Archaeology Storage Facility meets these standards, and the property owner is encouraged to donate the artifact collection to the City for curation. The archeological consultant is responsible for arranging for the

donation of the artifacts with the owner and will deliver the artifacts and signed forms to the appropriate storage facility.

At the conclusion of the project, all images, field notes and forms and other field records will be submitted in digital format on a CD. In addition, the artifacts, if they are to be donated to the City, will be delivered to Alexandria Archaeology.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EVALUATION REPORT

The *Archaeological Evaluation Report* will include the following:a public summary; the results of any additional archival and documentary research, a map of the project area; a map with excavation locations and significant features; a summary of the procedures; results of the field investigation and artifact analysis, including a distribution map or other graphics which indicate potentially significant archeological areas; an integration of the field and analysis data with the historical record.

If the investigation results in the discovery of features that require additional archeological work, the *Archaeological Evaluation Report* will include a Resource Management Plan. The *Resource Management Plan* will present a strategy, scope of work (including a map indicating locations of proposed work in relation to completed tests), and budget for further investigations. However, with the approval of Alexandria Archaeology, the results of further investigations may be combined into one report.

After completion of fieldwork, one copy of the full *Archaeological Evaluation Report* will be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology as a draft for review. Once the report is approved by the City Archaeologist, revisions will be made, and two (2) bound copies and one (1) electronic copy will be submitted to the DHR for review. Once the report is approved by the DHR, revisions will be made if necessary, and four (4) copies, one unbound with original graphics, will be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology. The report will also be submitted on a CD. All site maps and drawings will be inked or computer-generated so as to produce sharp and clear images that will result in clear photocopies or microfilms.

PUBLIC INTERPRETATION

The *City of Alexandria Archaeological Standards* require that a public summary be prepared as part of an *Archaeological Evaluation* Report. The public summary will be approximately 4 to 8 pages long with a few color illustrations. This should be prepared in a style and format that is reproducible for public distribution and use on the City's web site. Examples of these can be seen on the Alexandria Archaeology Museum website. A draft of the summary should be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology for review along with the draft of the *Archaeological Evaluation* Report. Upon approval, a master copy (hard copy as well as on CD or computer disk) will be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology. The summary and graphics should also be e-mailed to Alexandria Archaeology for publication on our web site.

In addition, if determined to be warranted by the City Archaeologist, the developer will be required to erect a historical marker on the property. Preparation of the written text and graphics for the

marker may be carried out in close consultation with the City Archaeologist. The text will consist of two paragraphs and be up to 200 words in length. The first paragraph will describe the historical significance of the site and the second paragraph will describe the findings of the archeological investigation. The graphics will consist of four appropriate illustrations; line drawings (*e.g.*, site maps, feature drawings), historic photographs and maps, and/or other illustrations (*e.g.*, site or artifact photos) in black and white or color with captions rendered as high-quality digital copies (jpeg or tiff files). Copyright releases will be obtained and credit provided for each graphic used. The text and graphics will be submitted to Alexandria Archaeology on a CD.

The results described in the *Archaeological Evaluation Report*, as well as information from the Public Summary and Historic Market Text can be used by the developer to guide the "design of open space and the preparation of interpretive signs" within the property. As this project will be subject to review under Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act, additional or alternate public interpretation measures may be necessary under an executed MOA.

TASKS

The following is a summary of the tasks to be completed for City review:

1. Notify Alexandria Archaeology of the fieldwork start date. Conduct the field investigation. Alexandria Archaeology staff will conduct site inspections throughout the course of the fieldwork to facilitate decision making.

2. Process all significant artifacts and complete the analysis.

3. Produce and submit one draft *Archaeological Evaluation Report* to Alexandria Archaeology, including the public summary document and the text and graphics for the historic marker. If further archeological investigations are necessary, the evaluation report can be a letter report to accompany the *Resource Management Plan* with the final report and marker text produced after all fieldwork is completed.

4. Deliver to Alexandria Archaeology four copies and CD of the final report, final versions and CDs of the public summary, historic marker test, plus all field notes, copies of historic documents, digital images, transcriptions, forms and associated records. In addition, arrange for the donation and delivery of the artifacts to an appropriate storage facility. Alexandria Archaeology is the preferred repository and requires a City of Alexandria Deed of Gift form.

Formats for Digital Deliverables:

1. Photographs:	.jpg.
2. Line Drawings:	.gif or .jpg as appropriate.
3. Final Report/Public Summary	Word, PageMaker and/or PDF
4. Oral History	Word
5. Catalogue:	Word, Access or Excel
6. Other Written material:	Word, Access, Excel, PageMaker or PDF as appropriate