

ARCHEOLOGICAL OVERVIEW, ASSESSMENT, IDENTIFICATION, AND EVALUATION STUDY OF WOLF TRAP NATIONAL PARK FOR THE PERFORMING ARTS

Fairfax County, Virginia

Contract No. P16PC00290 / Work Order No. 140P3018F0275

VOLUME I



Prepared for:



National Park Service
National Capital Area
1100 Ohio Drive, SW
Washington, D.C. 20242

Prepared by:



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August 28, 2020

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TECHNICAL REPORT, VOLUME I

Prepared for:

National Park Service
National Capital Area
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Washington, D.C. 20242

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August 28, 2020

ABSTRACT

On behalf of the National Park Service (NPS), National Capital Area, WSP USA Inc. (WSP) has carried out a two-year Archeological Overview, Assessment, Inventory, and Evaluation Study of Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts (WOTR or Wolf Trap) in Fairfax County, Virginia. WOTR's mission is to provide visitor access to the performing arts, related educational programs, and recreational opportunities. WOTR is the first and only national park for the performing arts. The park encompasses approximately 117 acres with approximately 65 acres of natural woodland, streams, and wetlands.

The main goals of the study, as an Overview, Assessment, Inventory, and Evaluation Study, were to document what has already been learned about the park's archeological resources, including review of previous research; to assess the archeological potential of both known sites and unexplored areas; to explore more of the park through Phase I field survey to identify new sites, and to carry out additional testing of selected sites to evaluate their significance and eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The results of the project will assist the NPS in complying with Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act, Executive Order 11593, and the Archeological Resources Protection Act. This project does not constitute a Section 106-level survey of the entire park. WOTR's Cultural Resource Manager or other qualified personnel may decide in the future that the survey is adequate for Section 106 compliance in certain locations for certain projects; however, that determination must be made on a case-by-case basis.

The findings of the study are presented in two volumes. Volume I contains a narrative of the history and archeology of the park, written to be accessible to park interpreters and the public; it does not contain sensitive information, such as the locations of archeological sites. Volume II contains the detailed archeological findings, organized geographically by site and survey area, along with detailed maps and other sensitive data.

Studies of WOTR began in the 1970s, but it has not previously been the subject of a complete and thorough archeological reconnaissance. The NPS previously conducted limited research on the history and precontact era of the area, in the form of a draft NRHP nomination in 1975, a reconnaissance survey conducted in 1979, a previous overview and assessment study in 1997, a park foundation document in 2013, and a historical summary in 2015. Two archeological sites were recorded, and four site locations were noted but were not given official site numbers. The two recorded sites are lithic scatters likely representing small hunting camps.

During this two-year study WSP tested 10.42 acres, re-investigated the two previously identified sites, and identified four new archeological sites. Two of those sites are considered eligible for listing in the NRHP, and four were recommended as not eligible for listing in the NRHP. Of the newly recorded sites, one precontact site has artifacts indicative of site use during the Late Archaic period, and the second site is a quartz quarry that was utilized from the Early Archaic period to the Early Woodland period. Two of the newly recorded sites have a precontact component of unknown period as well as a nineteenth- and twentieth-century component. One of those is the Filene Shouse farmhouse, now the location of the park administrative building. A mid-twentieth-century dump site was also recorded but, given the late date of the artifacts, was not assigned an official site number.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The mission of Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts (WOTR or Wolf Trap) is to provide visitor access to the performing arts, related educational programs, and recreational opportunities. It is the first and only national park for the performing arts. The park encompasses approximately 117 acres in Fairfax County, Virginia (Figure 1), with approximately 65 acres of natural woodland, streams, and wetlands.

As an Overview, Assessment, Inventory, and Evaluation Study, WSP USA Inc. (WSP) conducted this study on behalf of the National Park Service (NPS), National Capital Area (NCA) to document what has already been learned about the park's archeological resources, including review of previous research; to assess the archeological potential of both known sites and unexplored areas; to explore more of the park through Phase I field survey to identify new sites, and to carry out additional testing of selected sites to evaluate their significance and eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The results of the project will assist the NPS in complying with Section 110 of the National Historic Preservation Act, Executive Order 11593, and the Archeological Resources Protection Act. This volume contains a narrative of the history and archeology of the park, written to be accessible to park interpreters and the public; it does not contain sensitive information, such as the locations of archeological sites. Volume II contains the detailed archeological findings, organized geographically by site and survey area, along with detailed maps and other sensitive data.

Most of the park is quite hilly, and past and present land use has focused on areas of relatively flat terrain. Wolftrap Creek (also known as Wolf Trap Creek and Wolf Trap Run) crosses the park along its north and east sides; the creek is a perennial stream that has incised its channel and has meandered along a narrow valley floor. The geology of the park includes natural quartz bedrock exposures in the southeast portion of the park; those quartz outcrops were a focus of activity for ancient Native Americans. One older roadway, Trap Road (Towlston Road; Route 676) crosses the park, and the road crossing of Wolftrap Creek was very important to early farmers in the area.

It is already known that Wolf Trap contains many precontact-era sites and that these sites are commonly evidenced by quartz debitage at and near the ground surface. Hilltops/ridgetops seem to be common settings of these sites. Some precontact-era artifacts have also been documented along the poorly drained lowlands in the park, and the nature of these sites is not known. Prior to the 2019 archeological investigation of this study, previously identified sites in the park had not been sampled across their horizontal extents, and the level of documentation and information on these sites was generally low. A major goal of the study was to revisit known site locations and gain better information on the nature of their occupations, including chronology, function, depositional integrity, information potential (vis-à-vis Eligibility Criterion D for listing in the National Register of Historic Places [NRHP]), and horizontal extents. This study also investigated a sample of hilltop areas that had not been previously studied.

Historic-era sites at WOTR are associated with Wolf Trap Farm, and although much information is available about the history of the farm/plantation and its buildings, a lot is still unknown. A number of dates have been suggested for the initial construction of the main house at Wolf Trap

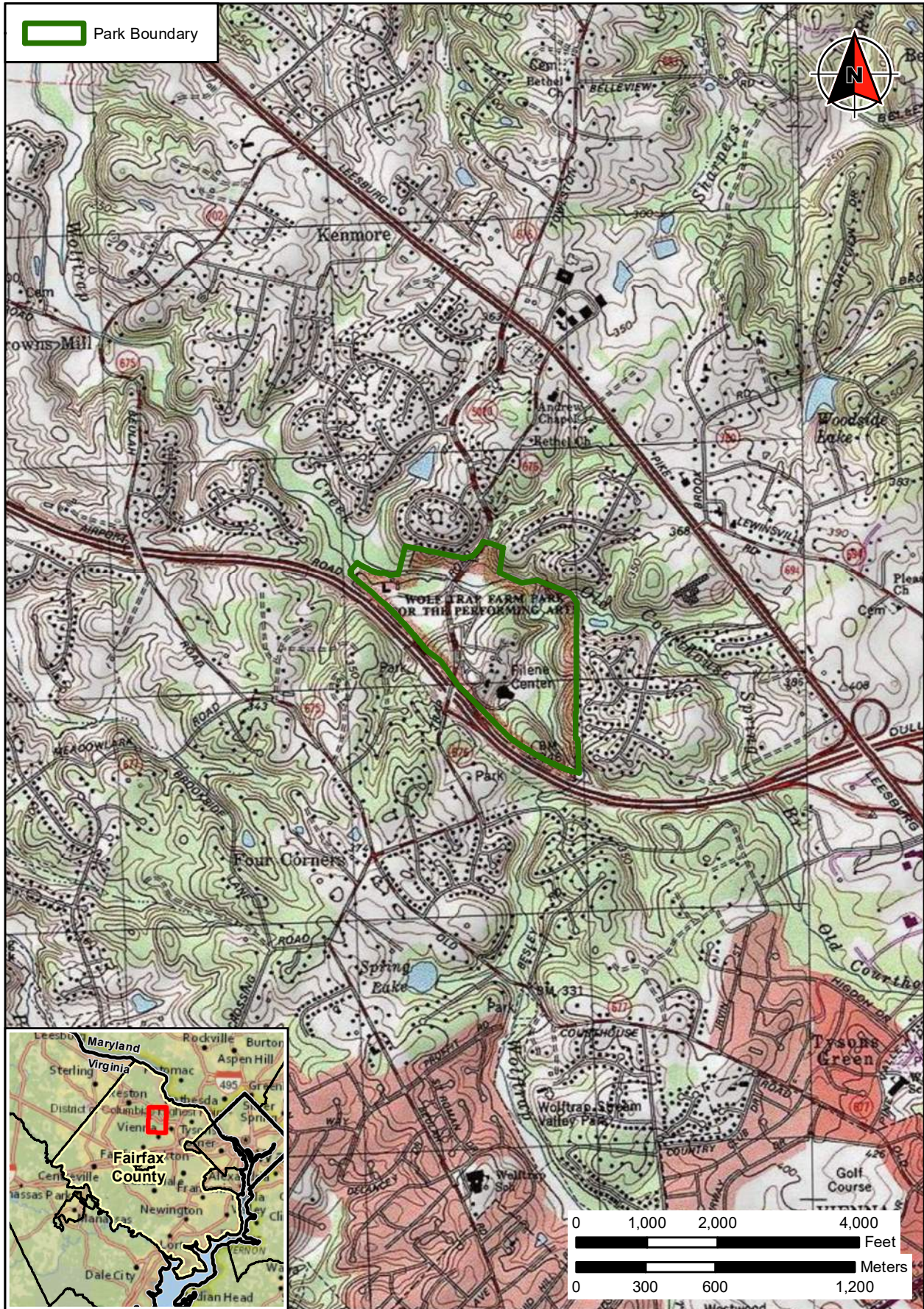


FIGURE 1: Location of Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts (WOTR)
(ESRI USA Topo Maps 2019)

Farm, ranging from the late eighteenth century, to the antebellum nineteenth century, to the postbellum nineteenth century. The precise date of construction of the main house (now the WOTR administrative headquarters) is not precisely known, but the current research suggests that it was built in the early part of the nineteenth century. Archeological survey work done in the yard area around the house demonstrated that some artifacts are present in the yard, but there has been extensive disturbance as a result of utilities installation during the Filene Shouse occupation in the mid-twentieth century and later construction and installation of utilities by the NPS.

II. ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

A. MODERN ENVIRONMENT

WOTR is situated in Virginia’s Piedmont Physiographic Province, in the Outer Piedmont subprovince (Roberts and Bailey 2000). Virginia’s Piedmont is an area of rolling hills and low to moderate relief with scattered higher peaks. Bedrock is not typically exposed at the ground surface. The Outer Piedmont subprovince is the portion of the Piedmont that abuts the Coastal Plain. It is a broad upland with low relief (Roberts and Bailey 2000). Figure 2 shows current conditions and topography at WOTR.

The geology of the area consists principally of metagraywacke and schist of the Mather Gorge Formation (Proterozoic to Cambrian age) (Southworth and Denenny 2005). The metasedimentary rocks are heavily foliated, and veins of intrusive quartz and large blocks of quartz are found along the valley of Wolftrap Creek. The southeast corner of the park has an area where bedrock is tentatively identified as Bear Island Granodiorite (Early Ordovician age) (Southworth and Denenny 2005). Southworth and Denenny (2005:17) interpret the Wolftrap Creek valley as erosional, and state that the valley bottom has a mantle of alluvium. They noted colluvium in the “hollows” of the meadows, as well as extensive disturbance (Figure 3).

Soils in the park are generally thin and rocky on hilltops, deep and well drained on plateaus and sideslopes, and not drained in the stream valley bottom. Table 1 summarizes the soil series present in the park.

TABLE 1: SOIL SERIES AT WOLF TRAP PARK

SOIL SERIES	ACRES IN PARK	PERCENT OF LANDMASS
Codorus and Hatboro soils	15.6	12.8
Codorus silt loam	15.1	12.3
Glenelg silt loam	20.4	16.6
Meadowville loam	1.2	1.0
Rhodhiss-Rock outcrop complex	24.5	20.0
Urban land	27.1	22.1
Wheaton loam	15.5	12.7
Wheaton-Codorus complex	3.1	2.5
Total	122.6	100.0

Source: USDA-NRCS 2018

Codorus soils are alluvium derived from igneous, metamorphic, and sedimentary rock and are typically found on floodplains. Glenelg soils are residuum weathered from mica schist and/or residuum weathered from phyllite. They are typically found on the shoulders and summits of interfluvies (United States Department of Agriculture-Natural Resources Conservation Service [USDA-NRCS] 2018).

Meadowville soils are very deep soils that are well drained or moderately well drained (USDA-NRCS 2018). They form on rolling uplands of the northern Piedmont Plateau within alluvium and

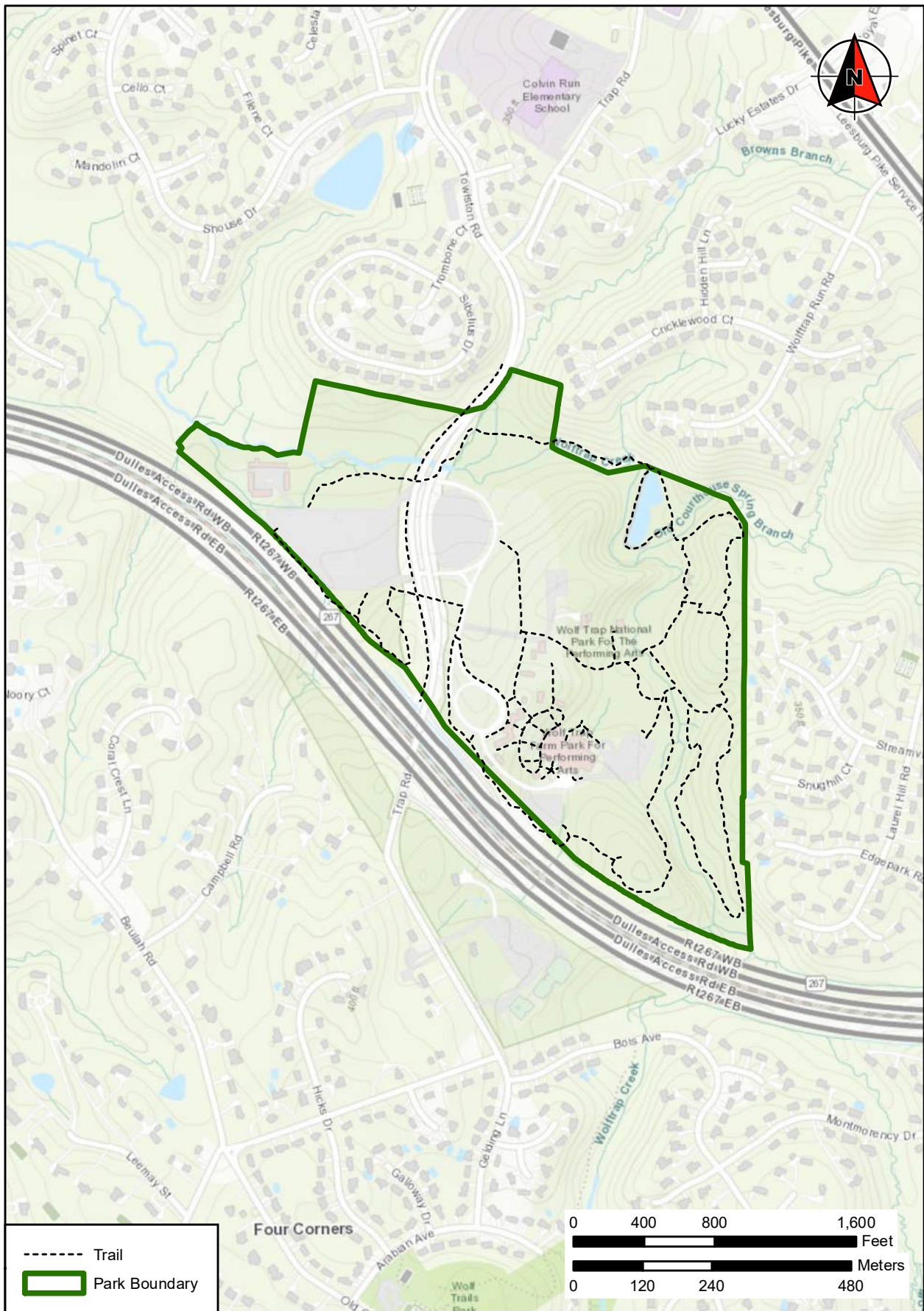


FIGURE 2: Current Conditions and Topography in WOTR (ESRI Open Street Map 2019)

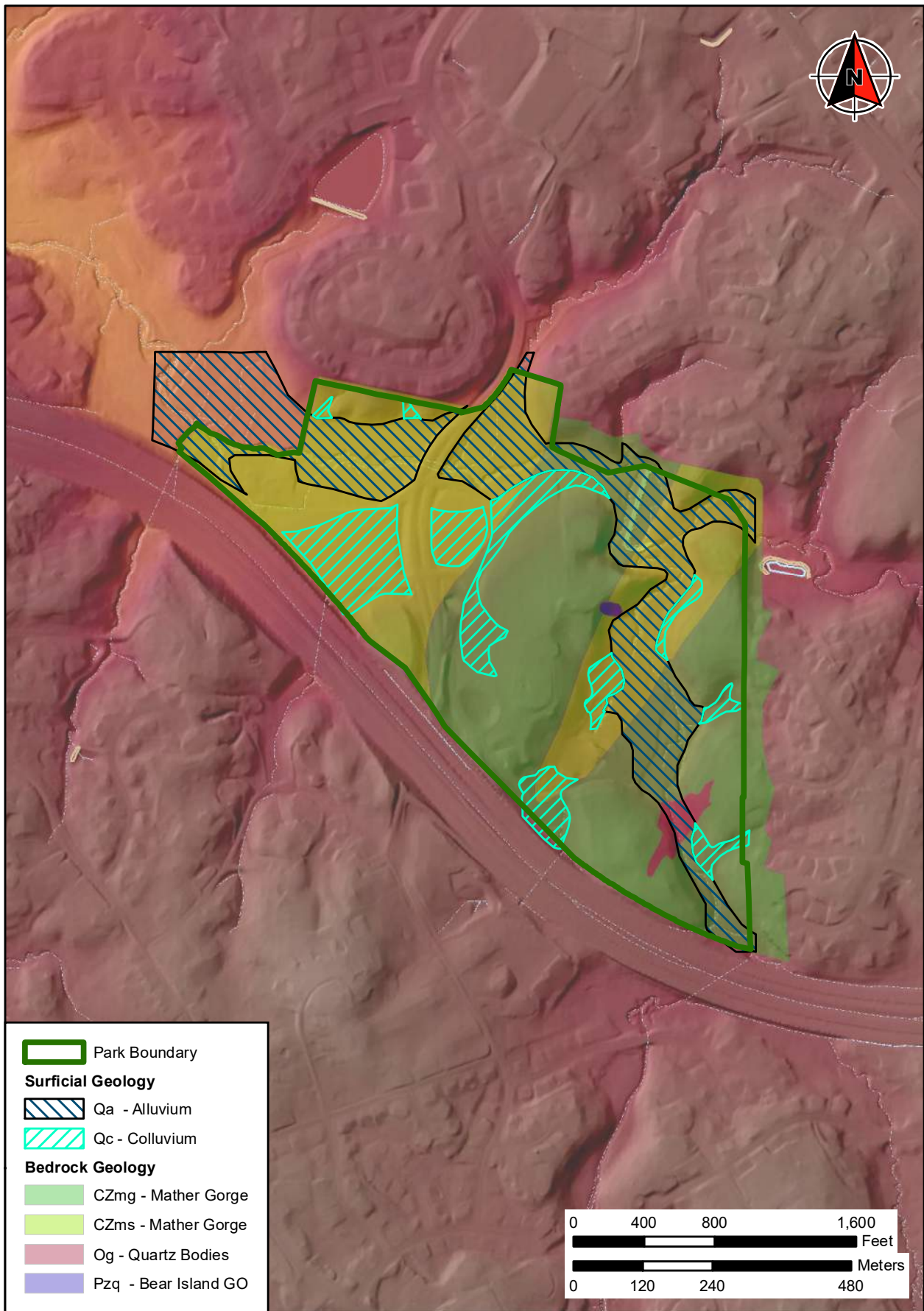


FIGURE 3: Geologic Map of WOTR (Southworth and Denenny 2006)

underlying residuum. A typical Meadowville loam profile includes several Bt horizons (argillic subsoil) extending from 1.2 feet to about 5.0 feet (USDA-NRCS 2018) below ground surface (bgs). Wheaton soils are similar to Meadowville soils, as they are typically found on rolling uplands of the Piedmont Plateau and are commonly deep. Wheaton soils are well drained and are formed in residuum derived from schist and gneiss.

Valley floors in the park include soils mapped as the Wheaton-Codorus complex. Codorus soils are found on floodplains, and form in recently deposited alluvium derived from upland soils. Codorus soils have variable drainage characteristics, and can be somewhat poorly drained. Mapped areas of the Wheaton-Codorus complex are settings where the USDA-NRCS could not differentiate small floodplains from the surrounding sloping uplands.

Rhodhiss soils are well-drained soils formed in residuum from felsic crystalline rock (USDA-NRCS 2018). They are typically deep, with residuum encountered at approximately 1 foot bgs. The Rhodiss-rock outcrop complex includes areas of shallow soils and surface exposures of metagraywacke, schist, and quartz.

The park is bisected by Wolftrap Creek and a segment of Old Courthouse Spring Branch, both of which feed into Difficult Run. The streams are part of the Middle Potomac-Catoctin watershed (United States Environmental Protection Agency [EPA] 2018).

One pond stands within the park, formed at an unknown point in the late twentieth century. The pond is located at the confluence of Wolftrap Creek and Old Courthouse Spring Branch. Historical maps and aerial images indicate that pond was man-made, constructed between 1958 and 1962 (Nationwide Environmental Title Research, LLC [NETR] 2018).

B. PALEOENVIRONMENT

The land through which the Potomac River flows was never covered by ice during the last Ice Age (the Pleistocene), which began about two million years ago. Nevertheless, the river's behavior throughout this era was responsive to the great climate changes that accompanied the interplay of the sun, the earth, and the ocean. Small cyclical shifts in the earth's orbit around the sun, and in the planet's tilt as it revolved on its central axis, caused changes in the seasonal pattern of sunlight reaching the northern and southern hemispheres. Long, cold winters in the north allowed the periodic accumulation of snow in the Arctic, which ultimately formed huge, mile-high ice sheets. As water became locked into these ice masses, a corresponding volume of water was lost from the oceans, so that sea level dropped by almost 400 feet. In this way huge areas of dry land emerged, which today are again submerged under post-glacial ocean waters. These areas include the Continental Shelf off the Eastern Seaboard of the United States and a 1,000-mile-wide land mass (Beringia) that formerly connected Siberia to Alaska.

In the eastern United States, during the final stage of glacial growth about 20,000 years ago, the southern front of the great Laurentide ice sheet lay across Long Island, northern New Jersey, and central Pennsylvania. The ice never reached Maryland or the Potomac; however, this area did feel secondary effects. The ice mass was so heavy that it squeezed down the earth's crust beneath it and thus caused a see-saw effect: as the crust was compressed under the ice, land to the south bounced upward. As the land surface around it rose higher, the Potomac River settled more deeply

into its bed. When the river cut more deeply into its channel, it left its older, broader channel behind as a “terrace.” At the same time the sea level was dropping, the river’s waters ran steeper and faster to reach its mouth. This steeper gradient increased the erosive force of the flowing water. Recent dating of the rocks in Mather Gorge, below Great Falls, has shown that the Potomac River incised the gorge into bedrock beginning about 33,000 years ago, at a time of cooling climate and glaciation, when sea level dropped more than 150 feet. The rapid downcutting phase ended about 13,000 years ago. A short distance downstream from the gorge, the water stopped cutting into the rock around 8,000 years ago. The timing of these processes is closely matched at the falls of the Susquehanna River, so it seems that all the major river systems of the Middle Atlantic region were responding to the same major geological and climatic forces (Bierman et al. 2002).

The last glacial maximum ended and ice sheets began to retreat about 19,000 years ago. Global sea level has risen continuously since then, about 330 feet in all; however, this “eustatic” rise has not been steady. Melting and rapid collapse of different continental ice sheets have caused abrupt increases of sea level, caused by huge inflows of fresh water known as meltwater pulses. One pulse is dated at about 14,500 years ago; another occurred about 11,500 years ago, probably in conjunction with the global warming that marked the end of the Pleistocene and the start of the Holocene or modern period. Some marine geologists recognize two additional major meltwater pulses in the early Holocene: the first at about 9,300 years ago and the second at about 7,800 years ago. At 7,800 years ago, global sea level seems to have risen by as much as 60 feet, perhaps because the great periglacial Lake Agassiz drained into the North Atlantic (Tornqvist and Hijma 2012). The rate of sea level rise slowed around 7,500 years ago. After about 6,000 years ago, with the continental ice sheets almost completely melted, the rate of sea level rise slowed to about 6 inches per century.

The meltwater pulse at 7,800 years ago may have caused a major transformation of the Chesapeake Bay (Bratton et al. 2003). As the local sea level rose, the bay changed rapidly from a freshwater to a brackish body. The suddenly salty water was quickly colonized, for the first time, by oysters. The same sea level rise that flooded the Chesapeake may have drowned the lower Potomac Valley as far as Little Falls. Perhaps this is also the reason that the river stopped cutting into the gorge at Great Falls at about the same time.

A number of broad climate shifts have affected the paleoenvironment. One of these, known as the Bølling-Allerød warm period, lasted from ca. 14,700 to ca. 12,850 cal BP¹ and triggered a very rapid sea level rise (one of the meltwater pulses discussed above) (Deschamps et al. 2012). This was followed by the Younger Dryas (YD) cold period (12,850 to 11,650 cal BP), which was also quite pronounced with dramatic effects on vegetation and soils. Two additional climatic episodes worth reviewing are the Medieval Warm Period and the Little Ice Age. The Medieval Warm Period lasted from approximately AD 600 to 950 and is thought to have been both quite warm and dry (Cronin et al. 2010; Mann et al. 2009). It was followed by the Little Ice Age (ca. AD 1650 to ca. 1800), which was apparently quite pronounced and was both cold and wet (Cronin et al. 2010).

The Holocene climate also had terrestrial effects in the circum-Chesapeake region; the forests of this area have changed greatly over the past 11,500 years. The closest pollen cores to WOTR that span the entire Holocene were taken at a site known as Dan’s Bog in the floodplain of Indian

¹ cal BP = calibrated years before present (present set at AD 1950).

Creek, a tributary of the Anacostia, in Greenbelt, Maryland (Brush 2001; Yuan 1995). Pollen from Dan's Bog shows that after the YD cold reversal, spruce and fir rapidly disappeared. Around 8400 BC the surrounding forests consisted mainly of birch, pine, and alder. After that time birch steadily declined and hemlock increased, indicating warmer conditions. Oak also began a slow increase. Hemlock remained predominant until about 5000 BC. The record changes dramatically around 4000 BC. Oaks surged and became the dominant trees, pine and hemlock nearly disappeared, and alders become more common. Hickory appeared after 3800 BC, and it remained a minor constituent of the forest. The "hemlock decline" has been noted across a wide region of northeastern North America at 3800 BC, and it seems to mark a major change in the climate and the nature of the forests. Around the same time the amount of charcoal washing into the bog increased dramatically. The increase in the number of fires after 4000 BC may have been partly caused by a drier climate, but an increasingly dense human population probably also contributed. The charcoal from recently excavated sites at Marine Corps Base Quantico confirms that this area was dominated by an oak-hickory forest around 3800 BC (Bedell et al. 2014). The pollen from Dan's Bog changed again in Late Woodland times, when there was a major increase in pine. This probably relates to the spread of Native agriculture, since pine trees would have thrived in agricultural fields that had been left fallow.

III. FIRST PEOPLES

Precontact period sites of the Middle Atlantic region have attracted the attention of archeologists and antiquarians since the late nineteenth century. The precontact cultural sequence for the area is fairly well documented, a result of the long-term interest of archeologists; however, deeply stratified sites are not commonplace, and there is more to be learned about precontact cultural chronology as well as regional interactions.

The major divisions of the precontact cultural sequence for the Middle Atlantic region, with their approximate beginning and ending dates, are given in Table 2.

TABLE 2: PRECONTACT CULTURAL SEQUENCE,
MIDDLE ATLANTIC REGION

CULTURAL PERIOD	APPROXIMATE DATES
Paleoindian	19,100-11,400 BP*
Early Archaic	11,400-9000 BP
Middle Archaic	9,000-5800 BP
Late Archaic	5800-4400 BP
Terminal Archaic	4400-3400 BP
Early Woodland	3400-2700 BP
Middle Woodland	2700-1000 BP
Late Woodland	1000-400 BP
Contact	AD 1600-1700

* Carr 2018

A brief summary of precontact chronology follows. More in-depth discussions can be found in syntheses by Wholey and Nash (2018) and Dent (1985).

A. PALEOINDIAN PERIOD (19,100 TO 11,400 BP²)

The Paleoindian period is the period of earliest settlement of the Americas, and was a time when small, highly mobile bands traveled the landscape following a hunting and gathering subsistence pattern. There has been growing, but still unsettled, evidence of hunter-gatherers dating to the period from 19,100 to 13,000 BP (Carr 2018; Fiedel 2018; Stanford and Stenger 2014). This early phase of Paleoindian settlement is referred to as “Pre-Clovis.” The later phase of the period is quite well established and dates to the period between 13,400 and 11,400 BP. Large, fluted lanceolate projectile points (Clovis points), usually made of high-quality cryptocrystalline lithic material, are the most distinctive artifacts of this period, although the Paleoindian toolkit also includes other typical tools such as endscrapers. In the West these points are associated with the hunting of now-extinct megafauna, particularly mammoths. Mastodons and other giant mammals persisted in the Middle Atlantic region when the first people arrived, but the very limited subsistence evidence suggests that Paleoindian populations in this region may have focused more on the hunting of smaller mammals, such as caribou, supplemented by fishing and foraging for vegetal foods

² Years before present. For ease of discussion, present is equivalent to approximately AD 2000 / 2000 CE.

available in the conifer-dominated forest environments that characterized this period (Dent 1995; Gardner 1974, 1989; Gingerich 2013).

Clovis points have been recovered in small numbers from Fairfax County, with 10 fluted points inventoried in a statewide survey (Hranicky 2004; Paleoindian Database of the Americas 2019). The recovered points have been found mostly by private collectors and are not associated with known habitation sites. In nearby Arlington County, the Gulf Branch Site (44AR0005) may have been a Paleoindian campsite (Johnson 2001).

B. EARLY ARCHAIC PERIOD (11,400 TO 9000 BP)

After 11,400 BP, the lifeways of native people underwent minor changes from the Paleoindian period (Custer 1989; Dent 1985). Clovis points disappear from site assemblages at that time and are replaced by a diverse set of corner-notched and side-notched point types. Early Archaic sites frequently occur on large river terraces, similar to Paleoindian sites (Johnson 1986). Although high-quality lithic materials were preferred for points and other tools, Early Archaic groups also began to exploit local stones, such as quartz and quartzite. Diagnostic points of the period include corner-notched Palmer points, which are thought to date to ca. 11,400 to 11,000 BP, as well as corner-notched Charleston, Hardaway, and Kirk³ types, dating slightly later (11,000 to 9000 BP). Hardaway-Dalton points, which are basal-notched/auriculate points, also date to the end of this period.

Preservation of food remains dating to the Early Archaic is very poor; however, we can assume that following the disappearance of megafauna, people were hunting deer and smaller game, as well as fishing and foraging.

Although more commonplace than Paleoindian artifacts, only sparse Early Archaic artifacts have been found in northern Virginia (Johnson 1986, 2001). A Kirk corner-notched point was recovered from WOTR at the Box Turtle Locus (see Appendix B). A recent multiyear study of the George Washington Memorial Parkway in Virginia found no sites dating to this period (Raszick and Bedell 2018).

C. MIDDLE ARCHAIC PERIOD (9000 TO 5800 BP)

Two very warm climatic episodes took place during the initial part of the Middle Archaic: one at about 9300 BP and another at about 7800 BP, as noted in Chapter II.B. Some of the warmest temperatures of the entire Holocene occurred during the latter episode (Tornqvist and Hijma 2012). An oak-pine-hemlock forest came to dominate the region, and deer became the dominant large mammal (Custer 1989; Dent 1985).

The growing population changed its subsistence and settlement patterns. Sites are larger and more numerous, and a more diverse toolkit implies a broader range of food sources than in the Early Archaic, corresponding to the change in climate. Middle Archaic sites began to appear in locations that had been previously ignored, such as upland swamps and interior ridgetops (Gardner 1978);

³ Kirk corner-notched points likely date to the end of the Early Archaic period. DHR (2018) ascribes a date range of 9400 to 8500 BP to the point type. Kirk corner-notched are chronologically earlier than their related points, Kirk serrated and Kirk stemmed.

however, base camps were still located in the floodplains of major rivers and streams. The appearance of new tool types specifically designed for woodworking, seed-grinding, and nut-cracking (such as axes and adzes, mauls, grinding slabs, and nutting stones) and the location of sites in previously unused areas indicate an increasing reliance on gathered plants for food and other necessities.

In the earlier part of this period, the native hunters made bifurcate-based dart points (LeCroy, St. Albans, and Kanawha types) and Kirk stemmed, Kirk serrated, and Stanly points. During the later portion of the period (after 8200 cal BP), point types shifted to diverse types (Morrow Mountain, Brewerton, Guilford, and Otter Creek). Triangular points have also been recovered from Middle Archaic contexts. During the Middle Archaic period toolmakers less frequently trekked to distant outcrops to obtain high-quality lithic stone; most artifacts were made from locally available stone.

Bifurcate points are fairly common in the region, much more so than earlier types. Sites are mostly small, however, with only a few points found at each location. This pattern probably represents short-term camping by small, mobile bands or hunting parties. Bifurcate points are generally made of local stone, quartz in the Coastal Plain but rhyolite or chert in the mountains. More frequent visits to the rhyolite boulder quarries in western Maryland are indicated by the presence of bifurcate points at sites where tools were roughed out.

At WOTR a LeCroy (bifurcate) point was recovered at the Box Turtle Locus (see Appendix B). At Great Falls Park bifurcate points were found at two sites (44FX0002 and 44FX3756), and a broken Kirk serrated point (recognizable by its serrated edges) was found at one site (44FX1981) (Raszick et al. 2018). During a multiyear study of GWMP, Louis Berger archeologists found the base of a quartz LeCroy point at Site 44FX3756 (Raszick and Bedell 2018).

D. LATE ARCHAIC PERIOD (5800 TO 4400 BP)

In the Northeast a population explosion seems to have occurred at 5800 BP, as indicated both by a sharp increase in radiocarbon-dated occupation sites and the great numbers of small stemmed points. This sharp increase in Late Archaic population coincides closely with a marked environmental change. Droughts caused an abrupt die-off of hemlocks (see Chapter II.B). Pines also declined, while oaks thrived and hickories first became significant. Chestnuts multiplied in the mountains. These changes in the region's forests opened new opportunities for human foragers. Historic-era Indians made great use of forest nuts, and their favorite game animals (deer and turkeys) also relied on fallen nuts to sustain them through the winter. This subsistence pattern was probably established during the Late Archaic.

In North Carolina and Virginia, Halifax points, mostly made of quartz, are found nearly everywhere. Points of the same type are called Vernon points in Maryland. These points are typically found on the surface or in shallow, eroded upland sites; very few Halifax/Vernon components have been excavated from buried, stratified sites near radiocarbon-dated hearths. Recent excavations in Virginia have returned radiocarbon dates suggesting that Halifax/Vernon points have a long temporal range, from about 5900 BP to around 2300 BP (through the Terminal Archaic period) (Bedell et al. 2014; Katz et al. 2014).

Halifax points were recovered at WOTR from the Chittenden Site and the Box Turtle Locus (see Appendix B). Halifax/Vernon points have been found at many other parks in the National Capital Area, including Langley Fork Park (Katz et al. 2014). A substantial Halifax occupation was found at Marine Corps Base Quantico along Chopawamsic Creek, with radiocarbon dates falling into the 6000 to 5000 BP period (Bedell et al. 2014).

E. TERMINAL ARCHAIC PERIOD (4400 TO 3400 BP)

Around 4400 BP the cultures of the Chesapeake region changed fairly dramatically (Custer 1989; Dent 1985). Broad-bladed projectile points, or “broadspears,” replaced the narrow-bladed points of the Late Archaic, initiating the Terminal Archaic or Transitional period. It is not certain if the broadspear points were used as projectile points or as specialized knives for fish-processing or some other task (McLearn 1991). Although broadspear points are sometimes found in ritual mortuary contexts, they were apparently utilitarian objects, as shown by occasional breakage and edge attrition (Custer 1991).

The prototypical broad-bladed projectile point form is the Savannah River point, which developed in Georgia around 4800 BP. Thousands of points of this type, mostly made of quartzite, have been found in the Potomac drainage, where they date from about 4200 BP (Dent 1995). Other broadspear forms from the broader region include Holmes, Lehigh/Koens-Crispin, Perkiomen, Snook Kill, and Susquehanna points. Over the following centuries, broadspears were replaced by narrower stemmed and “fishtailed points” such as the Orient Fishtail (ca. 3400 to 2800 BP).

Apart from the broadspears, Terminal Archaic assemblages include two other significant new artifact types: grooved groundstone axes, which replace earlier chipped stone forms; and carved soapstone (steatite) bowls. It was during this period that limited horticulture began in parts of the Eastern Woodlands, including bottle gourds (*Cucurbita pepo*), Chenopod (*Chenopodium berlandieri*), sumpweed (*Iva annua var. macrocarpa*), and sunflower (*Helianthus annuus var. macrocarpus*) (Fritz 1999).

A noteworthy development in the Terminal Archaic period is the use of carved soapstone (steatite) bowls. Soapstone was quarried during this period in the Piedmont of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. W.H. Holmes (1897) recorded a number of soapstone quarries in Washington, D.C., and nearby locales. Vessels were apparently carved at the quarries and transported in finished form, probably by canoe (Dent 1995:182-184). Excavations at the Gulf Branch Site in Arlington County showed that some soapstone vessels were finished away from quarries at nearby camps (Johnson 2001). Soapstone pots were clearly used for cooking, but it is not yet known what foods they were used to process (fish, meat, seeds, tubers, or nuts). The stone bowls, interpreted as precursors and prototypes of baked clay containers, used to be regarded as markers of a “Transitional” cultural stage leading to the pottery-making Early Woodland cultures.

The way people lived also changed. The diffuse, widely dispersed settlements of the Late Archaic (Halifax and similar) were replaced by a smaller number of base camps, almost all of which are adjacent to rivers or other major bodies of water. Sites can be quite large, particularly in the Coastal Plain. In the absence of organic remains, it is unclear if this tendency indicates the importance of fish (and perhaps also seed-bearing plants and tubers) in the diet, or simply reflects the importance of rivers as transportation routes. An innovation associated with broadspears is the construction of

large platform hearths or pavements, full of fire-cracked rocks. Despite an absence of actual fish remains, it is generally assumed that these features were used for some kind of fish processing, such as drying or smoking. The number of small sites in the uplands greatly decreased (Bedell et al. 2014; Mouer 1991).

Numerous Terminal Archaic sites have been found in northern Virginia and Washington, D.C. Significant Terminal Archaic components have been identified at sites such as Gulf Branch (Johnson 2001), Marcey Creek (Manson 1948), Maddox Branch (Fiedel et al. 2008), and Theodore Roosevelt Island (Bedell et al. 2019). Many Savannah River and Holmes points were found by collectors along the terraces of the Anacostia River and are in the collections of the Smithsonian (Katz et al. 2015). Based on the available data, it seems that intensive use of the Fall Zone began in this period, perhaps because the runs of anadromous and catadromous fish were first established at that time.

F. EARLY WOODLAND PERIOD (3400 TO 2700 BP)

The Early Woodland period began around 3400 BP with the adoption of ceramic technology. The earliest vessels, known as Marcey Creek ware, were tempered with bits of soapstone and imitated the form of flat-bottomed soapstone pots (Egloff and Potter 1982). This ceramic type was defined at the Marcey Creek Site, which is along the Potomac River by Little Falls (Manson 1948). Researchers believe that indigenous groups became more sedentary during the Early Woodland, inhabiting sites for longer periods of the year. Larger sites are common on the Potomac's tributaries both above and below the Falls, with smaller resource-extraction sites in a wide variety of environmental settings. The Native diet probably focused on fish, shellfish, and nuts, but deer, turkey, and plant seeds were also important parts of the diet (Mouer 1991).

Diagnostic ceramic wares include Marcey Creek, mentioned above; Selden Island; and Accokeek. Selden Island vessels, although steatite-tempered like Marcey Creek ware, were conoidal (bag-shaped), cordmarked, and constructed by coiling rather than from slabs. Accokeek pottery is a thin-walled, cordmarked ware, with quartz particles and sand added to the clay as temper; vessels were conical or round-bottomed (Egloff and Potter 1982). Large Accokeek sites are common on the Anacostia River and the nearby Potomac (Bedell et al. 2013). Accokeek pottery has been reported from the Donaldson and Gulf Branch sites (Deppe 1972; Fiedel et al. 2008; Johnson 2001) and from Theodore Roosevelt Island (Bedell et al. 2019; McNett and Ayers 1974). Less common are a variety of experimental wares with varying tempers and surface treatment that are thought to date to the beginning of the Early Woodland period (Mouer 1991). Bushnell ware is one of the early experimental wares from the lower Potomac, first identified in King George County, Virginia (Waselkov 1982).

Point types associated with the Early Woodland include Orient, Calvert, Rossville/Piscataway, and teardrop or ovoid points (Dent 1995). Rossville and Piscataway are such similar types that some archeologists do not distinguish them, although some do; the points typed as teardrop or ovoid may in fact be Piscataways, although this designation is usually applied to less well-made specimens. Piscataway and related points are common in Potomac Fall Zone sites, particularly the Donaldson Site and the Fletcher's Boathouse Site (Barse 2002; Deppe 1972).

A Piscataway point was recovered at WOTR from the Box Turtle Locus (see Appendix B). Early Woodland occupations have been found at numerous sites along the Potomac River, including at Theodore Roosevelt Island (Bedell et al. 2019) and sites along the George Washington Memorial Parkway (Sites 44FX0303, 44AR0003, 44AR0004, 44AR0006, 44AR0011, and 44AR0070) (Raszick and Bedell 2018). Relatively minor traces of Early Woodland occupation have been found in Great Falls Park (Raszick et al. 2018).

G. MIDDLE WOODLAND PERIOD (2700 BP TO 1000 BP)

The population may have severely declined during the earlier part of the Middle Woodland period, as sites of this period are comparatively rare. Later, after 2000 BP, populations began to rise. In this period bands became more sedentary and participated in regional exchange networks. There is continuity in site locations between the Early and Middle Woodland periods, implying that earlier subsistence-settlement systems persisted. Middle Woodland groups in the lower Potomac River basin appear to have been mobile, exploiting diverse and dispersed resources but focusing on riverine environments. The Fall Zone and eastern Piedmont may have been utilized seasonally as part of the settlement round of groups based in the Coastal Plain (Johnson 2001; Stewart 1992).

Based primarily on ceramic chronology, two phases of the Middle Woodland period have been recognized. The earlier is characterized by Popes Creek and related ceramics (2700 BP to 1700 BP) and the later by Mockley ware (1700 BP to 1000 BP) (Stewart 1992). Popes Creek is a thick-bodied ware with sand temper that is usually net-impressed. Mockley ware is shell-tempered and has a variety of surface treatments; it is usually thick-bodied and is often very roughly made. Albemarle ware was contemporaneous with Popes Creek but has crushed-rock temper. The Popes Creek ceramic type takes its name from the shell midden site of that name, which was located on the Potomac River bank in the Coastal Plain of Maryland (Egloff and Potter 1982).

Diagnostic Middle Woodland point types include Fox Creek-Selby Bay points, which are often associated with Mockley pottery. Potts, Nomini, and Jack's Reef corner-notched points are found in relatively later Middle Woodland components. Rossville/Piscataway and Calvert points, which appeared during the Early Woodland period, may have carried over to the Middle Woodland and have been found on sites with Popes Creek ware (Waselkov 1982). Numerous Fox Creek-Selby Bay points have recovered from sites along tributary streams of the Potomac River (Fiedel et al. 2008). At the Pig Point Site on Maryland's Western Shore, the most common points in the Middle Woodland levels are rather poorly made side-notched forms that are hard to distinguish from the cruder examples of earlier types (Luckenbach et al. 2010). The lithic materials exploited during the Middle Woodland shifted to higher-quality stone and stone from non-local sources, including rhyolite (Stewart 1989, 1992). High percentages of exotic lithic materials, especially Maryland and Pennsylvania rhyolite, are typically found in Middle Woodland assemblages. This shift in pattern of stone use is seen as evidence of the development of regional trade networks.

Exchange networks and social interaction spheres extended out of the Middle Atlantic region during the Middle Woodland period. In the Ohio Valley the Adena complex (regarded by archeologists in that area as Early Woodland) flourished between ca. 2600 and 2100 BP. The construction of burial mounds, characteristic of this complex, did not spread to the peoples of the Atlantic coast. Nevertheless, sustained cultural contact with the Adena complex is demonstrated by massive caches of typical Adena artifacts (lobate-stemmed points, tubular pipes made of Ohio

fireclay, shale and slate gorgets, etc.) found in burial contexts on the Delmarva Peninsula and on Maryland's Western Shore (Lowery 2012). Radiocarbon dates as late as 1700 BP and distinctive artifact types indicate that the regional "Delmarva Adena" was partially contemporaneous with the Hopewell culture that followed the Adena in the Ohio Valley (Luckenbach 2013).

A related, post-Hopewellian exchange network is evident in mortuary contexts in Virginia, Delaware (the Island Field Site), and the District of Columbia. A cremation burial dated to about 1250 BP was discovered some years ago beside the Whitehurst Freeway in Washington, D.C.; it contained a comb made of moose or elk antler, fossil shark teeth, and a polished stone gorget (Knepper et al. 2006). Similar artifacts were associated with late Middle Woodland burials at the Hand Site (44SN0022) in Southampton County, Virginia, and are thought to relate to a cultural horizon known as the Kipp Island Phase in New York State (Ritchie 1969; Ritchie and Funk 1973) and the Intrusive Mound Complex in Ohio (Seeman 1992).

Minor traces of Middle Woodland occupation have been found along the George Washington Memorial Parkway (Raszick and Bedell 2018) and at Great Falls Park (Raszick et al. 2018). A fairly substantial Middle Woodland occupation has been found on Theodore Roosevelt Island and is currently being analyzed (Bedell et al. 2019). Middle Woodland pottery (both Popes Creek and Mockley) was recovered from several sites along the Potomac River and its tributaries south of Little Falls, including the Fletcher's Boathouse, Gulf Branch, and Maddox Branch sites (Barse 2002; Fiedel et al. 2008; Johnson 2001).

H. LATE WOODLAND PERIOD (1000 TO 393 BP)

At around 1000 BP maize horticulture was adopted by many indigenous groups in the Middle Atlantic region. This became more commonplace after 800 BP. Reliance on maize varied from group to group; indigenous diets continued to include fish, game, and gathered plants. A dramatic increase in the number of sites coincides with the onset of agriculture. Late Woodland sites include small permanent hamlets, and villages of varying sizes, all of which are typically located in floodplains of higher-order streams and adjacent to high-yield agricultural soils. Ranked societies emerged during the Late Woodland period and developed into the complex tribes and chiefdoms encountered by the Europeans in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries (Potter 1993).

Prior to 800 BP or even 700 BP, settlements were not stockaded (fortified), suggesting that there were minimal inter- and intra-group hostilities (Stewart 1993). At around 700-800 BP, throughout the Middle Atlantic region, population density increased, nucleated settlements and stockaded villages were established, and there is evidence of population movement and displacement (Stewart 1993).

Diagnostic artifacts of the Late Woodland period include Levanna and Madison triangular projectile points. These were certainly used as arrow tips; the bow and arrow seem to have replaced the atlatl (spearthrower) around 1200 BP.

Ceramics found most commonly along the Potomac basin include Rappahannock ware (also known as Townsend) (1000 to 400 BP), and Potomac Creek ware (700 to 400 BP). Rappahannock pottery is a shell-tempered, fabric-impressed, sometimes incised ware that was common along the Coastal Plain in the Middle Atlantic region. Sites containing Potomac Creek ware have been

identified in both the Piedmont and Coastal Plain regions of the Potomac basin and along the Rappahannock drainage. Potomac Creek pottery, which is tempered with crushed rock and has a variety of surface treatments, is the most prevalent ware on sites dating from 700 to 400 BP along the Potomac River south of the Fall Zone (Johnson 2001:109). McNett and Ayers (1974) reported Potomac Creek sherds from Site 51NW003 on Theodore Roosevelt Island.

Less common Late Woodland period ceramic types originating on the Coastal Plain include Sullivan Cove (750 to 400 BP), Moyaone (700 to 400 BP), and Yeocomico (500 to 300 BP) (Egloff and Potter 1982). Wares originating in the Piedmont, such as Shepard (1100 to 550 BP) and Culpeper (ca. 600 BP), are also recovered with low frequency on sites in the Fall Zone (Johnson 2001).

Climate change may have influenced Late Woodland cultural changes. The period from around 1200 to 700 BP is called the Medieval Warm Period (or Climatic Optimum, or Anomaly), when it was warm and dry across the northern hemisphere. During this period grapes grew in England and the Vikings found Greenland comfortable. But the climate shifted abruptly to cold and wet around 700 BP, the onset of the Little Ice Age that lasted until ca. 150 BP (AD 1850). Maize crops may have been threatened by cold weather, and deer and other game animals may also have suffered. Scarcity of game and fertile soil may have heightened tensions between Late Woodland groups around 700 BP and led some to migrate in search of better land.

Evidence to date argues that the Fall Zone was less intensely occupied in the Late Woodland period than earlier. Interior areas were perhaps less intensively occupied than riverine areas, but even sites along rivers have spotty evidence of Late Woodland occupation. Only minor traces of Late Woodland occupation were found along the George Washington Memorial Parkway (Raszick and Bedell 2018), with the exception of a modest assemblage at Site 44FX0303. Similar minor traces of Late Woodland occupation were found in Great Falls Park (Raszick et al. 2018), and at Theodore Roosevelt Island (Bedell et al. 2019).

IV. TRADERS AND SETTLERS: SETTLEMENT TO SOCIETY, COLONY TO NATION (1607 TO 1776)

A. EXPLORATION AND SETTLEMENT

Several European explorers, beginning with Giovanni da Verrazzano, probably sighted the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay between the 1520s and 1560s. In 1570 Spanish Jesuits attempted to establish a mission at “Ajacan,” possibly on the York River, but two years later they were murdered by the local Indians. In the 1580s the English settled their first colony in “Virginia” (in what is now North Carolina) at Roanoke Island, which failed. Their colony at Jamestown, established in 1607, proved more successful. In the summer of 1608, Capt. John Smith set out from Jamestown on two voyages to explore the Chesapeake. On the first expedition he sailed up the lower Potomac as far as the Falls (Smith 1624). The Potomac beyond the Falls was first explored by English traders in 1632, and interior portions of today’s Fairfax and Arlington counties were first explored in the late seventeenth century as settlement expanded outward from major streams.

Captain Smith’s map of 1608 (first published in 1612) indicates that there were a number of Native villages on the Virginia side of the Potomac between the mouths of Aquia Creek and the Anacostia River (Figure 4). From south to north, they were Pamacocack, Tauxenent, Namassingakent, Assaomeck, and Namoraughquend. Tauxenent was the only settlement that Smith denoted with the longhouse symbol he reserved for the residence of a “king.” Tauxenent was located on the north bank of the Occoquan River, near its mouth, in the vicinity of modern day Colchester, Virginia. The tribes were members of the Powhatan chiefdom, a political amalgamation of Algonquian-speaking Native people who inhabited the Coastal Plain and Tidewater regions of Virginia (Potter 1993).

Captain Smith’s map depicted the Indian town of Nacotchtanck (a corrupted transcription of the Algonquian name, later anglicized as Anacostia) on the east side of the Anacostia River in what is now Washington, D.C. Beyond Nacotchtanck, Smith observed and later depicted the river bank, including an inlet that is probably the mouth of Rock Creek (see Figure 4). The map also depicts the location of Namoraughquend on the western (Virginia) shore of the Potomac River. Although the actual location of the Namoraughquend is not confirmed, probable locations have been postulated, including the Pentagon/Arlington Cemetery area, in the general vicinity of Theodore Roosevelt Island, and on Alexander’s Island (Cissna 1990:27). In 1632 Englishman Henry Fleet sailed to the Falls of the Potomac and sent a party upriver in search of furs. The party reported no villages within 140 miles upriver of the Falls. The upriver section of the Potomac had been replete with villages in the Late Woodland period, but (as noted above) it had become largely desolate by 1632, possibly because of warfare among Indian groups triggered by the early fur trade (Fiedel et al. 2005).

Interactions between the members of the Powhatan chiefdom and the colonists were complex. Both sides initially worked the relationship for perceived benefits to themselves. The colonists were working to gain foodstuffs, knowledge, wealth, and control of lands, while the Powhatan worked to increase their influence and gain high-status trade goods (Potter 1993). The relationship ebbed and flowed, with periods of conflict, including major Indian uprisings in 1622 and 1644.



FIGURE 4a: Captain Smith's 1612 Map (Smith 1624)

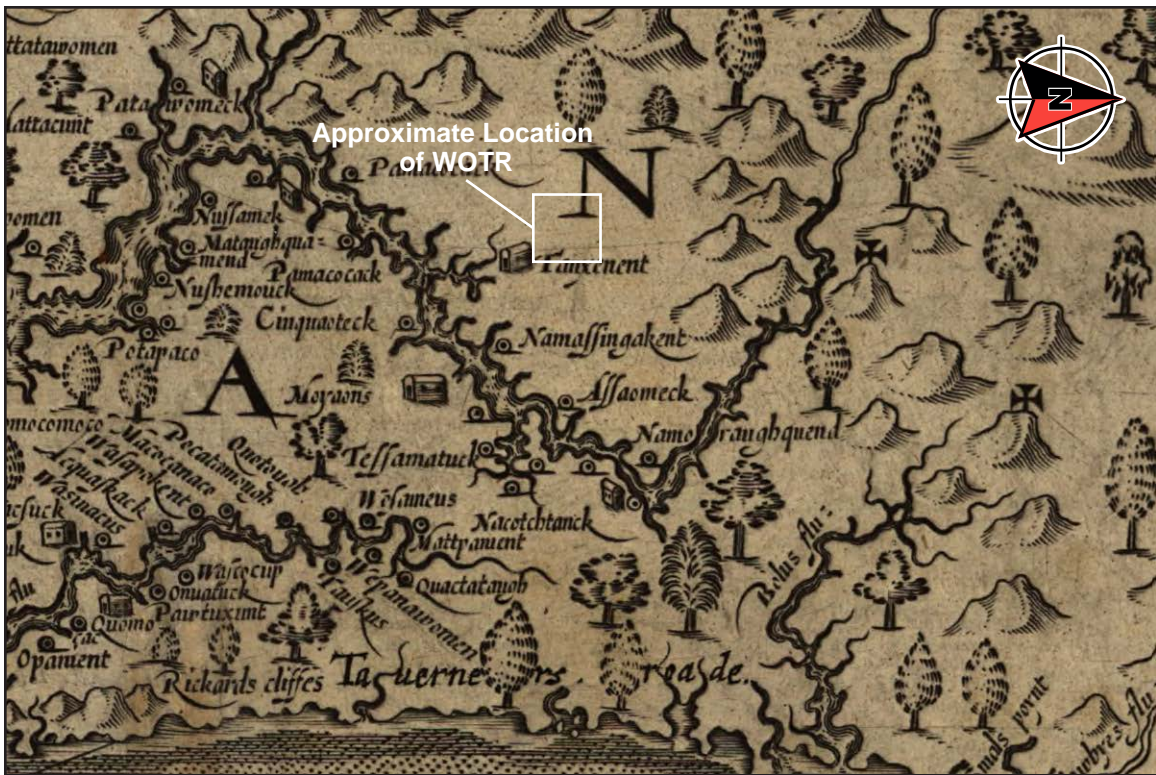


FIGURE 4b: Captain Smith's 1612 Map (detail, not to scale) (Smith 1624)

A peace treaty between the Powhatan chiefdom and the English colonial government was signed in Virginia in 1646. Terms of the treaty required the Powhatan groups to stay outside colonial settlement areas and to pay an annual tribute to the colonial government. This treaty marked a major shift in power from Virginia's Indians to the colonial government and was a watershed moment in Virginia's Indian-Colonial English relations (Potter 1993). By the 1650s the local Indian population had sold off much of their river land to the colonists and found themselves without access to resources. Diaspora communities that formed along the frontiers, particularly along the major waterways, were typically short-lived (Bedell et al. 2011).

In 1649 then-exiled King Charles II granted his loyal supporters land within the Northern Neck Proprietary. The Proprietary consisted of nearly 5.3 million acres located between the Potomac River and the Rappahannock River. After King Charles was restored to the English throne in 1660, the original patentees renewed efforts to claim the land. By 1681 Thomas, Lord Culpeper had acquired all rights to the land, and in 1688 the land was confirmed to him by patent. A year later Thomas died, and his interest passed to his daughter, Catherine, who married Thomas, Fifth Lord Fairfax (Weisiger 2002). Their son Thomas, Sixth Lord Fairfax, inherited the claim upon his father's death in 1710 (Carver 2015). He came to Virginia in 1737 and appointed his cousin William Fairfax as his land agent. Thomas then returned to England to defend his right to the land. The English Privy Council confirmed the entirety of his claim, which consisted of some 5,282,000 acres, by 1745 (Sweig 2017).

In 1648 Northumberland County was established, which encompassed the Northern Neck of Virginia. In 1653 Northumberland County was subdivided and the north section was renamed Westmoreland County. In 1664 part of Westmoreland County, including what would become Fairfax and Arlington, was transferred to Stafford County (Cissna 1990:33). Fairfax County was established in 1742. The county was named in honor of Thomas, sixth Lord Fairfax. At that time Fairfax County included the land extending from the Potomac and Occoquan rivers to the Blue Ridge Mountains and encompassed present-day Arlington County and the City of Alexandria.

The seventeenth- and eighteenth-century settlement pattern along the lower Potomac River reflected the granting of land on the colony's frontiers in large blocks of 1,000 acres or more to wealthy, well-connected "gentlemen farmers." They in turn usually tried to lease their lands to tenants, retaining a single plantation where they resided themselves. Most of the lands along the Potomac had been surveyed and patented by about 1720, but settlements remained few and far between. The low population and the fear of Indian attacks kept most Europeans below the Anacostia until after the Treaty of Albany in 1722. The settlers who came to the frontier were tenants, many of whom were probably freed indentured servants. Once released from service, these men generally did not have the means to set up their own plantations, so they became tenant farmers. The landlords supplied their tenants with seed and tools to start their work. The tenants lived in shacks never intended to be permanent dwellings, and they did not invest much in their farms. Instead of broad vistas of cleared fields, each shack may have only been surrounded by a relatively small patch of intensely cultivated tobacco and corn. Instead of using the long rotation system like landowners, these tenants may simply have farmed around their dwellings until the soil was exhausted and then pulled up stakes and moved on. Well-made houses and well-appointed farms would be found only on the few owner-occupied plantations.

The settlers coming into Fairfax County were a mixed group. They included some who had been born and raised in the Virginia Tidewater. More, however, were recent immigrants, many of them Scots-Irish Presbyterians or English Quakers. A few of these immigrants eventually became landowners, either by their own grants or by purchasing land from the big planters. The landscape that developed therefore included small, owner-occupied farms, tenancies, and a few large plantations with grand houses. The first two classes of farms were each considerably more numerous than the last category (Chittenden et al. 1988; Netherton et al. 1978). The dominant cash crop was tobacco, which was packed into large barrels for shipment from the plantations to English markets (Dongarra and Harris 2006:23).

Tobacco cultivation was profitable in the short term, but it proved difficult to sustain over the long term. Market prices fluctuated dramatically, tobacco depleted the soil of nutrients, and cultivation was labor-intensive. When the supply of indentured servants from Britain dried up in the late 1600s, the planters turned increasingly to African slaves. To maintain profitability, more and more acreage was needed to increase production, and more slaves were needed to work the expanded fields, but the prices for slaves were also climbing. Some tobacco farmers turned to alternative crops, such as hemp, flax, or cotton, and grains such as wheat and corn, and raised cattle and swine (Fields 1985; Kulikoff 1986). Prices for these crops were more stable than tobacco prices (Kulikoff 1986). New mills were built to process the grains (Harrison 1924).

Early transportation in the region focused on navigable waterways, with the Potomac River and its major tributaries serving as arteries for moving people, goods, and information (Netherton et al. 1978). Land routes followed already existing Indian trails, including a major trail that followed the west bank of the Potomac. Some of these trails eventually evolved into “rolling” roads, which merchants used to roll barrels of tobacco from their plantations to warehouses along the Potomac River. One major road during this period was the Vestal Gap Road, also known as the Upper Church Road. This road became the primary route to Leesburg and across the Blue Ridge Mountains to Winchester (National Park Service [NPS] 1994). Several early roads were also established along Wolf Trap Run or crossing Wolf Trap Run (Mitchell 2003).

B. FARMS AND MILLS

Agriculture was the center of economic life in Fairfax County from the time of colonial settlement until the twentieth century (Chittenden et al. 1988; Netherton et al. 1978). Timbering had some significance and there were a few tanneries, but farming always dominated. After 1740 the focus gradually shifted from tobacco to wheat, which was by far the leading cash crop by the time of the Revolution. Besides wheat and tobacco, farmers raised mainly corn, potatoes, apples, and livestock (Chittenden et al. 1988). In the eighteenth century the population of the county grew rapidly, and population growth was accompanied by a steady expansion of roads and the building of mills, churches, and stores. At least a third of the population were enslaved Africans. The years between 1750 and 1775 were a boom time for the county. Ferry crossings were established across the Potomac, including one just north of Theodore Roosevelt Island and another at Alexandria (Netherton and Netherton 1987:30).

Although the Revolution spared Fairfax County, the post-Revolutionary depression hit the area hard. Long-established trading ties to Britain were disrupted, credit was withdrawn, and many planters went bankrupt. The soils had been depleted by intensive farming, and with prices low and economic conditions generally bad, hundreds of Fairfax residents headed west to Kentucky and Tennessee (Chittenden et al. 1988; Netherton et al. 1978). From the other direction a relatively small number of migrants, mostly genteel young landowners from the Tidewater region, began coming into the area. They consolidated large tracts already owned by their families and formerly occupied by many long-term tenant farmers into unified plantations devoted largely to export grain cultivation. Most of these plantations were not very successful at first, but they did become profitable again in the nineteenth century.

V. THE YOUNG NATION: COLONY TO NATION, EARLY NATIONAL PERIOD, ANTEBELLUM PERIOD, CIVIL WAR (1776 TO 1865)

The economy of Fairfax County experienced significant ups and downs in this period. The post-Revolutionary depression gripped the region until about 1840. The population of Fairfax County declined by a third as thousands of people headed west. Some of the big planters sold off their land in small pieces, often to the tenants who had been working it. By 1840 much of the land in Fairfax County was no longer cultivated, and many properties were seized for non-payment of taxes (Netherton et al. 1978). During the following two decades, however, the economy of the county began to recover, partly because of improvements in agricultural practices and transportation methods as well as economic diversification. Some of these improving farmers were young immigrants from New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey who came to Fairfax between 1837 and 1860 in response to the low asking prices for depressed farmsteads. So many came that, for a time, parts of eastern Fairfax and Prince William counties were referred to as the “Jersey Country” (Chittenden et al. 1988; Netherton et al. 1978). Fishing became a major enterprise with the use of large seines along the Potomac River. The construction of the Manassas Gap and the Orange and Alexandria railroads in the 1850s greatly reduced the cost and time required to get goods and raw materials to market and brought an influx of new residents into the county. Small communities began to develop along the railroad lines, and already established communities continued to grow.

During the Civil War (1861-1865), Fairfax County was the locus of considerable troop activity and encampments, and battles were fought at sites such as Bull Run/Manassas, Dranesville, and Chantilly/Ox Hill (Balicki et al. 2002). Farm economies were upended as resources such as livestock, commodities, and timber were stripped from farms by the Union and Confederate armies who occupied the county. Transportation routes were heavily contested by the competing armies, and farm goods had great difficulty making it to market. Some farmers fled the county, while others eked out sustenance (Balicki et al. 2002). Many farms were converted to military camps, artillery positions, or hospitals, and many farm buildings in the county were burned, vandalized, or otherwise damaged by soldiers during the war. Wolf Trap farm, however, persevered through the Civil War and was essentially unscathed. According to historians, the farm was visited frequently by troops from both sides (Svedja 1972), but there are no accounts of bivouacs or other encampments, and no accounts of farm devastation. The Fairfax County Civil War Sites Inventory lists two sites near the park: Freedom Hill Fort and Heads Hill Farm (Site 44FX409; FFX County CWSI #836), and Andrew Chapel and Cemetery (Site 44FX1254; FFX County CWSI #827). The former was a farm that was variously used in the war as a bivouac for troops from both sides of the war, and as Confederate fort and artillery position. The latter is a church that was damaged by Union troops (Balicki et al. 2002).

Figure 5 shows the WOTR area in 1862 (McDowell 1862). No farms or structures are shown on the map within the park area. The absence of mapped structures suggests that development of the tract started after 1862; however, it is also possible that the absence is simply an omission by the map maker (McDowell).

VI. POST-CIVIL WAR AND EARLY TWENTIETH CENTURY: RECONSTRUCTION AND GROWTH, WORLD WAR I TO WORLD WAR II (1865 TO 1945)

Following the Civil War, Fairfax County remained mostly a farming community. Reconstruction in Fairfax County was swift compared with other parts of the state, and by 1870 the economy had substantially recovered from the effects of the war. Dairy, livestock, and poultry farming, flour milling, and the cultivation of fruit, vegetables, and flowers became the economic backbone of the region. Some manufacturing enterprises also developed, often associated with agriculture (e.g., tomato canning factories). There was also an influx of new settlers, mainly from the north. Fairfax County was considered an attractive locale for several reasons, including cheap land prices, proximity to Washington, D.C., and a relatively mild climate. The population grew throughout the later 1800s (Netherton and Netherton 1992). Figure 6 shows the WOTR area in 1878.

The African-American community in Fairfax County also grew in the post-Civil War years. In 1860 blacks constituted about 32 percent of the county's total population, and as the county grew, this percentage remained roughly constant (Chittenden et al. 1988). The growth in population was largely caused by the influx of refugees from the areas farther south, who were also drawn to the county's proximity to Washington, D.C. Several fairly large African-American settlements developed in Fairfax County. They generally grew up around areas with job opportunities, large tracts of land owned by blacks, or as sub-communities of established white settlements. Census data indicate that the majority of black residents continued working as farm laborers, sometimes on the same plantations where they had been slaves (Wolf 1975).

Between 1900 and 1910, the county's population increased to 20,536. During the first part of the twentieth century, the number of farms increased dramatically, with the largest increase occurring in farms of less than 50 acres (Netherton and Netherton 1992). The 1910 census shows that 71.6 percent of the land in the county was farmland, with an average acreage of 82.3 acres per farm (Netherton et al. 1978). There were 2,320 farms in the county at that time. White farmers operated 1,894 of these, and black farmers operated only 317.

VII. WOLF TRAP FARM

A. PRIOR TO 1849

Euro-American settlers began to take up lands in the Piedmont of northern Virginia after about 1720. As early as 1740, Wolf Trap was the established name of a branch of Difficult Run, according to eighteenth-century Virginia land grants (Welsh 1996). J.M. Warren mentions the stream by name in a 1739 survey of William Fairfax's landholdings: "Beginning at a White Oak on a Point near the head of two Small Glades of Wolftrap Branch of Difficult Run" (Carver 2015; Welsh 1996). Figure 7 shows the west extent of the Fairfax patent lands and Wolf Trap Branch. Wolf Trap Branch later became known as Wolftrap Creek. As with other locations in Virginia, the name of this body of water derives from the colonial practice of trapping wolves for a bounty. Colonial legislation passed an act in 1632 that encouraged colonists to hunt wolves and other wild animals, thereby decreasing the threat to livestock. In 1646 the bounty for bringing in a wolf's head was increased from previous years to one hundred pounds of tobacco; at that time tobacco often served as currency in Virginia (Carver 2015:2).

The precise date when Wolf Trap Farm was established is not known, nor is the date of construction of the original one-room log house. As noted above, Thomas, Second Lord Culpeper, owned all but one of the shares of the Potomac-Rappahannock proprietary grant in the late 1600s. His daughter Catherine Culpeper married Thomas, Fifth Lord Fairfax, who owned the remaining share. Their son Thomas, Sixth Lord Fairfax, inherited all the shares at his father's death in 1710. He appointed his cousin William Fairfax "proprietor of the Northern Neck of Virginia" in 1732. In 1739 William Fairfax rented a 5,568-acre tract known as Towlston Grange to John Colville at the cost of one shilling per every 50 acres. Coleville may have been unable to keep up with the rent because less than a year later, Fairfax reacquired the land and conveyed it "by legacy" to his son Bryan.

In 1788 Bryan Fairfax deeded several thousand acres of his various properties to his son Thomas, who in 1833 divided Towlston Grange along a stretch of Wolf Trap Run, deeding sections of it to his sons. His son Henry received about 1,150 acres on what is now the east side of Wolf Trap. Henry's lands were sold after his death in 1847. Five lots, totaling 2,458 acres, were given to Thomas's son Albert, including 816 acres on the west side of what is now Wolf Trap. Albert fell into debt, and by 1833 he had mortgaged most of his land. He died by 1838, and his land was put up for sale. The following year an agreement between John Powell and Robert Darne refers to part of a tract of land acquired by them at the sale of Albert's land. The 816 acres located on the west side of Wolf Trap was maintained as a dower for Albert's wife Caroline. After Albert's death, John Powell purchased the reversionary interest in the dower lot for \$1.70 an acre (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:17-18).

The 816-acre property changed hands several times over the next three years, in relation to being held in trust and for payments of notes. In 1844 John Vallandingham rented a house on the property, and James Thompson also resided somewhere on the acreage, although the exact location is unknown. Either of those two houses may have been constructed as early as the late eighteenth century, and one of them may have even been the oldest section of what is now known as the main

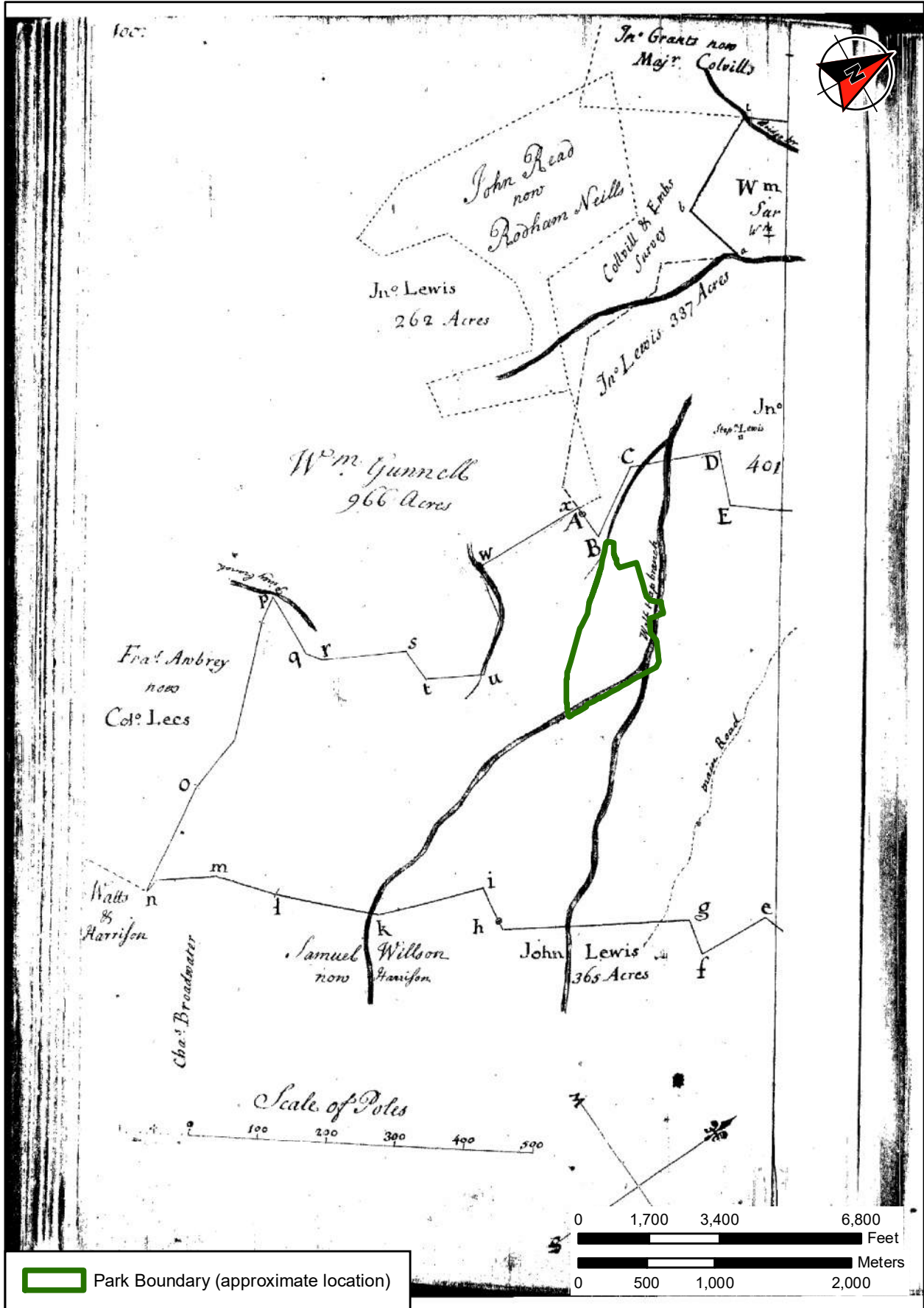


FIGURE 7: William Fairfax Patent in 1739 (Carver 2015:3)

house (currently the park administration building). Vallandingham had a lease with Robert Darne, who owned 400 acres that once belonged to Fairfax along Wolf Trap Run. In 1844 Darne made James Hunter his trustee for this property by deed of indenture. Hunter advertised and put up for sale the 400-acre tract in two separate parcels. Samuel McDaniel purchased just over half of this tract (about 204 acres) from Hunter in January 1849 (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:17-18).

People who have examined the older portions of the Wolf Trap main house have come to different conclusions about when it was built. In the 1970s it was said to have been built in the 1770s, which would make it a rare surviving example of a colonial tenant house. However, this age attribution is far from certain, and others have thought that in the absence of clear documentation for a colonial residence on this spot, the house could have been built any time before or shortly after the Civil War.

B. MCDANIEL (1849 TO 1898) AND DUNCAN (1898 TO 1918) TENURES

As noted above, in 1849 Samuel McDaniel purchased 204 acres of the Darne property along Wolf Trap Run. According to the 1850 census, Samuel McDaniel was a farmer who owned 100 acres of improved land, 101 acres of unimproved land, and had seven slaves (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:18). He owned horses, pigs, cows, and other cattle, but no sheep. He raised hay, wheat, potatoes, corn, and a small amount of rye, but not oats. The farm also produced a large amount of butter (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:20).

In 1860 McDaniel continued to operate a farm on the property, then owning eight slaves (Ancestry.com 1860). His improved acreage had dropped to 70 acres. He had two less head of cattle, three additional horses and pigs, and five more cows. The farm's butter production decreased, and he produced one-fourth the amount of wheat compared with 10 years earlier, half the amount of potatoes, and half the amount of rye. However, he doubled his corn production and had started growing oats, peas, and beans, perhaps to experiment with new crops recommended for their soil-building properties (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:20). At the start of the Civil War McDaniel had only two slaves (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:20).

In 1870 Samuel was still listed as a farmer on the census. The Agricultural Schedule of 1870 listed his improved acreage as 60 acres, which was a decrease from previous years. He had two horses, five head of cattle, and four pigs. His crops also declined from previous years with the farm producing no wheat, 4 bushels of hay, less corn (150 bushels), about a quarter of his 1860 oats yield (63 bushels), and less rye and potatoes than 10 years earlier. His butter production also dropped to 50 pounds (Agricultural Census Schedule 1870 in Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:20, 22).

The 1880 agricultural census recorded 30 improved acres and 75 acres of woodland and forest. McDaniel possessed about the same amount of livestock, fewer swine, and an additional cow. His butter yield increased, his corn production was maintained, his oat production decreased, and potatoes increased. Forest product revenue dropped, but he was able to get a small return from newly added apple and peach trees. His focus may have been poultry at that point, but they may or may not have been a new acquisition, as this category was not previously counted in the agricultural census (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:22).

As most of the 1890 census documents for Virginia were damaged in a fire, not much is known about the farm's production beyond 1880. According to extant records, the entire 204 acres remained the property of Samuel McDaniel until his death (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:22). McDaniel's will was probated in 1891, and commissioners solicited by family and beneficiaries partitioned McDaniel's real estate into five lots (Lots 1-5) (Figure 8). The house and outbuildings situated on Lot 1, an 18-acre lot, passed to his wife Susanna (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:22). Four additional lots, ranging in size from 36 to 52 acres, were created for each of his four children, to be drawn by lottery. His youngest daughter Mary drew Lot 3 at the north end of the property, west of the road. Her husband James Duncan, whom she had married in 1887, purchased the McDaniel siblings' interests in their mother's dower lot (Lot 1) after her death in 1898. James Duncan also purchased the 37-acre portion of Lot 2 located on the east side of Trap Road, which was drawn by Mary's sister Alice Follin. Alice retained the portion of Lot 2 located on the west side of the road. By 1900 James and Mary had acquired about 93 acres of McDaniel's original purchase (Lots 1 and 3 and a portion of Lot 2). James owned the land outright and worked as a farmer (Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:25). The records are not clear on whether the Susanna McDaniel dower included Lot 5. Nor is it clear who drew Lot 4 in the lottery, but Samuel B. (Jr.) would have been about 28 at the time of his father's death. Samuel Jr. was listed on the 1880 census as a farmer on his father's farmstead, so it is likely he acquired Lot 4 (and possibly Lot 5?) and that he continued working the land. Another child, Laura, was listed in the household roster in 1870 but not in 1880, so she may have no longer been living at home but still acquired a portion of her father's estate.

In 1909 Alice Follin sold Margaret Wanes the 12 acres of Lot 2 west of Trap Road that she had retained from her father's estate. Margaret Wanes was the widow of Benjamin Wanes and a neighbor of Mary and James Duncan. The property remained in the Wanes family until the 1950s, but the 1961 Shouse plat shows that property with the name Follin, suggesting that the Follin heirs at some point reacquired the land. In 1910 Mary and James Duncan sold about 4 acres out of the 37-acre section of Lot 2 they had acquired from Alice Follin, possibly to a son-in-law. The 1912 Rural Delivery Routes map (Figure 9) shows two structures, one on each side of the roadway in Lot 2 and south of the creek, that may reflect the Wanes and Duncan occupations. James Duncan died in 1911 and left all his land to his wife Mary.

C. THE TAVENNER AND GAINES FARMS (1918 TO 1930)

In 1918 Mary and her second husband Benjamin Martin, whom she married in 1912, sold the remaining 89 acres of Duncan's farm to Mark Cockrill. About one month later, William R. and Jessie H. Tavenner purchased the 18-acre widow's dower (Lot 1) with the house and the remaining 33 acres of Lot 2 as a unit from Cockrill. No transfer of Lot 3 was recorded at the time, so presumably Cockrill retained that land. In 1920 William Tavenner was a farmer working his own land and had three children. Four years later, the Tavenners sold the land to Walter and Eva Gaines. The 1930 census listed Walter Gaines as a carpenter but he also worked the small farm (Carver 2015:8; Pousson and Hoepfner 1997:25).

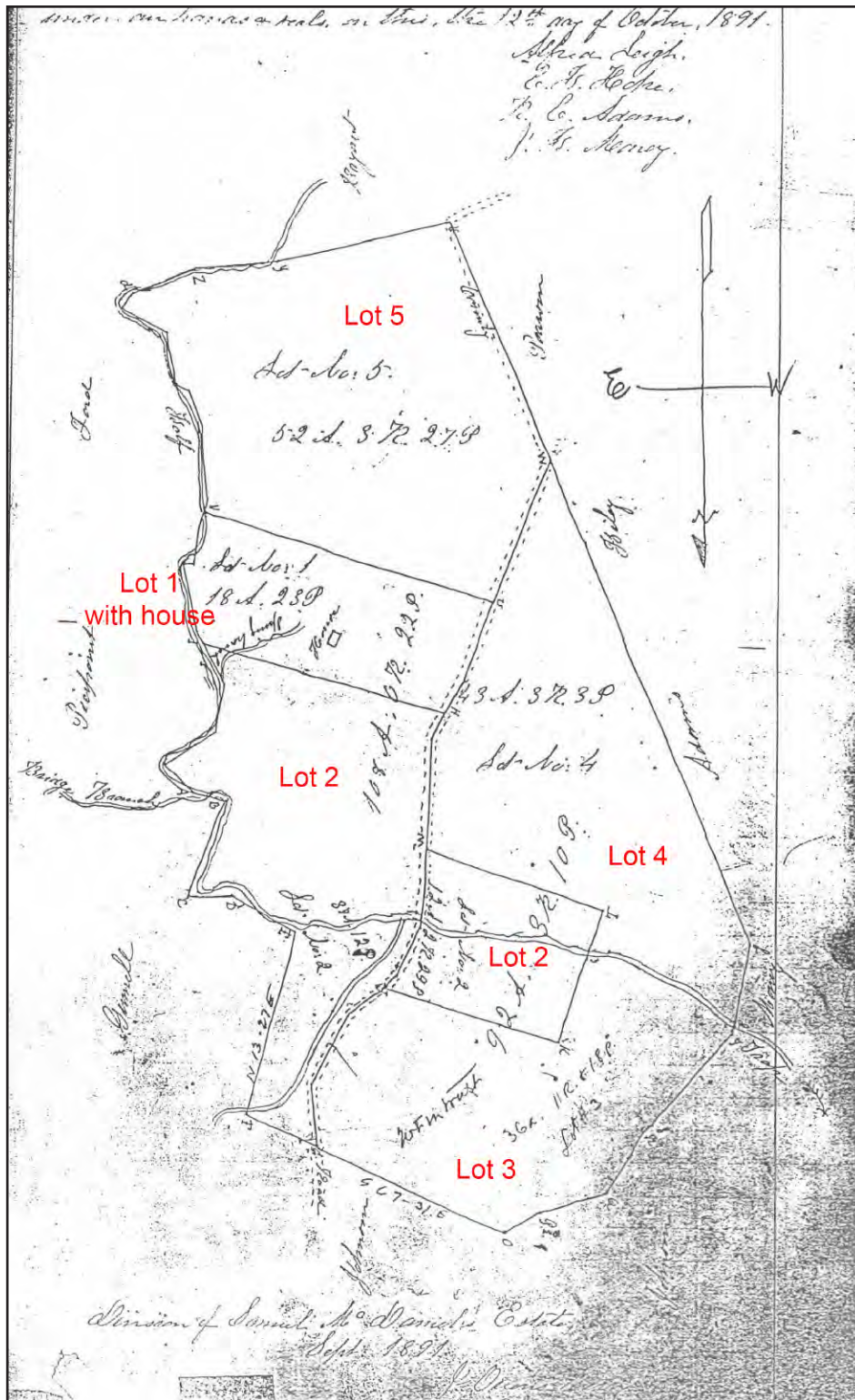


FIGURE 8: Plat of the Division of McDaniel's Farm (WOTR) in 1891
(Pousson and Hoepfner 1978)

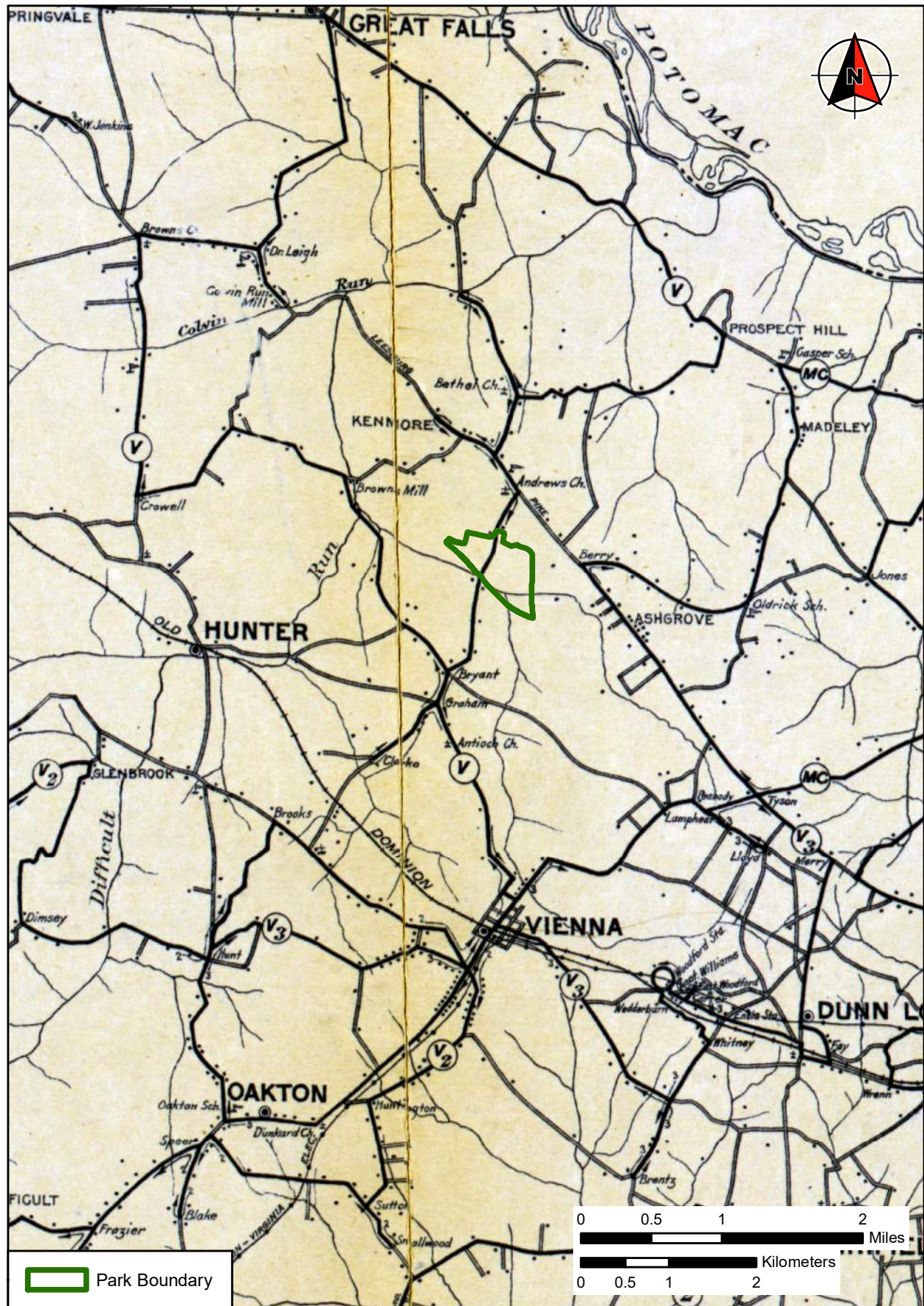


FIGURE 9: 1912 Rural Delivery Routes, Fairfax County (United States. Post Office Department 1912)

D. DODD/SHOUSE TENURE (1930 TO 1966)

In 1930 Mrs. Catherine Filene Dodd (then wife of Alvin E. Dodd) purchased the property including the farmhouse (Lot 1) and the land to the north recorded as part of Lot 2, from Walter and Eva Gaines. A *Washington Post* classified ad referencing the sale of the property noted that there was a large orchard on the land and that the house had seven rooms (Carver 2015:8). Apparently the house was in a state of disrepair, with a large hole in its roof. Mrs. Dodd also purchased another 16 acres from Lewis Barbee. This was likely the portion of the farm, now park, situated on the east side of Wolftrap Creek, which, according to the 1961 Shouse property plat, added about 16 acres to the original McDaniel/Gaines lots (Figure 10). Dodd named her new property Wolf Trap Farm (Anonymous 1975; Carver 2015; Welsh 1996).

Upon Dodd's acquisition of the farm (1930), there were 17 buildings and a main house on the property, including a barn, numerous small chicken houses, a pigsty, and a carriage house (Carver 2015; NPS 1997). Figures 11 and 12 provide an overview of the farmhouse and yard area with outbuildings and the main house, showing what it would have look like when Filene Dodd purchased the property. Several of the outbuildings were eventually removed to accommodate a log guest cabin, a house for the children, and a hay barn near the horse barn (NPS 1997). Mrs. Dodd installed indoor plumbing, electricity, and telephones in the farmhouse, resulting in substantial alterations (Welsh 1996). Electrical and telephone lines were brought in from a mile away on Leesburg Pike, and an electric pump and booster were added to bring water to the house (NPS 1997). Five years after purchasing the property, she had a stone kitchen constructed on the south side of the farmhouse (Welsh 1996). Figure 13 shows the main house as it would have looked after the stone kitchen addition. Early on in her ownership, several porches were added, in addition to a large sitting area constructed on the northeast side of the north addition (Figure 14). A hay barn was constructed in 1945 (rebuilt in 2002). In the late 1940s a smokehouse was constructed, and a log guest cabin was relocated from Fredericksburg, Virginia, in 1948 (Carver 2015; Eckert 2016) (Figure 15). A brick addition was made to the cabin in 1963 (Carver 2015).

Following her marriage to Jouett Shouse in 1932, the farm was used as a country retreat (Anonymous 1975). Mrs. Shouse invested much time in the cultivation and restoration of the property. The Shouses farmed the land, growing corn, oats, wheat, and alfalfa to provide food for their milk cows, Angus steers, hogs, turkeys, chickens, and ducks. They also raised and boarded horses, constructing a stable and hay barn to accommodate them. Mrs. Shouse initially knew little about farming but learned enough to make the farm self-sufficient. It provided the family's basic needs until they ceased farming in the mid-1940s. Mrs. Shouse was also fond of boxer dogs, importing hunting dogs from Germany and Switzerland; in the 1940s she developed a successful breeding kennel at Wolf Trap (NPS 1997; National Women's Hall of Fame 2020; *The New York Times* 1994).

Many political and social gatherings took place at the farm (Anonymous 1975). The couple hosted "Have Fun" carnivals, which consisted of a variety of activities including horse races, dancing, plate smashing, and palm reading (Carver 2015). In August 1944 many notables from the United Kingdom and the United States gathered at the farm ahead of the Dumbarton Oaks Conference on International Organization, which led to the proposal for the creation of the United Nations. A bronze plaque was placed on a large oak tree beside the farmhouse to commemorate the event

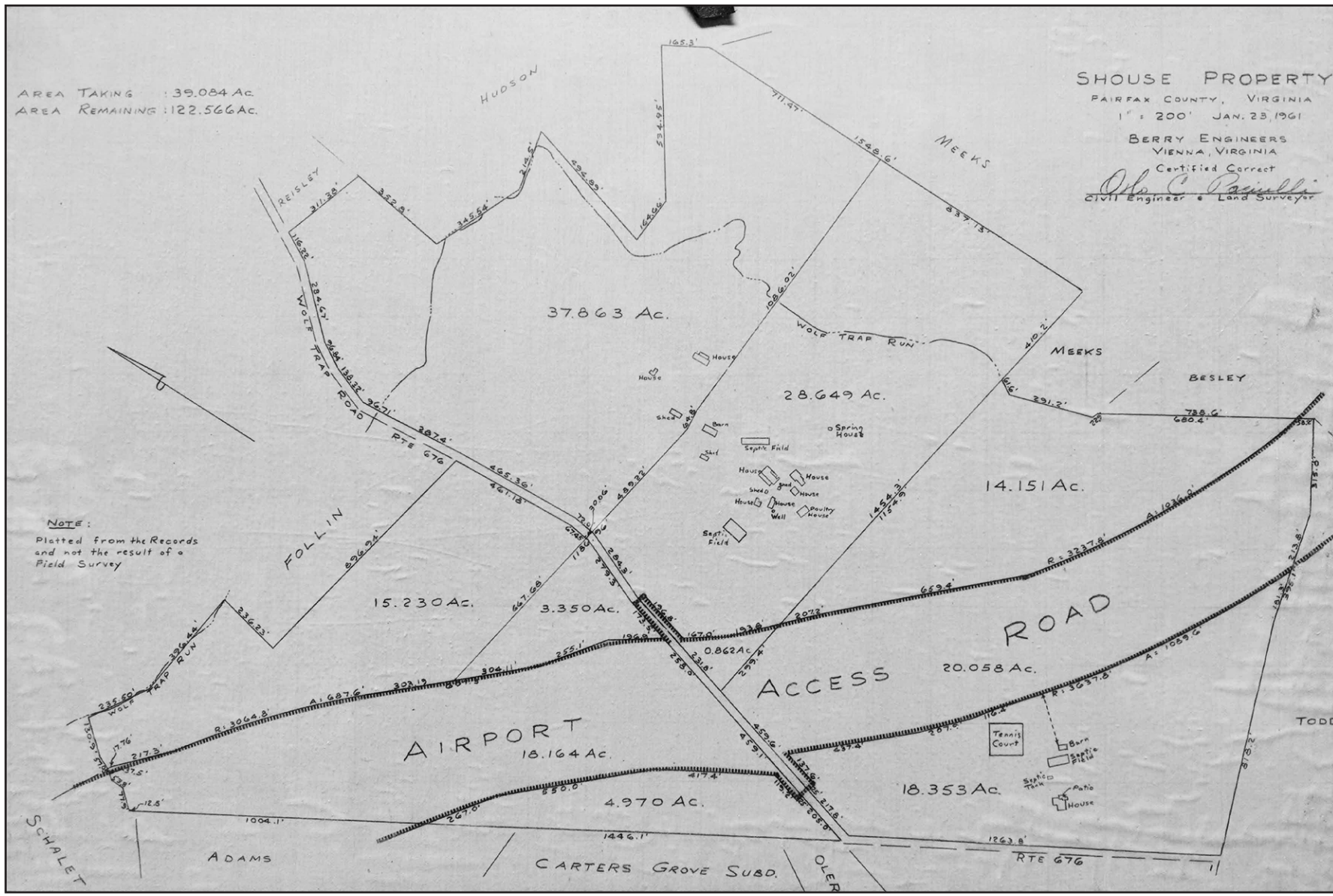


FIGURE 10: 1961 Plat of the Shouse Property (NPS)



FIGURE 11: Overview of the Farm ca. 1930 (Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)



FIGURE 12: View of Farmhouse ca. 1930 (Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)



FIGURE 13: View of the Main House ca. 1935 with the Stone Kitchen Addition (Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)



FIGURE 14: Main House, Showing Additions
(Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)



FIGURE 15: Smokehouse and Cabin Next to the Main House
(Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)

(Anonymous 1975). During World War II the farm fed and served as a refuge for many soldiers (NPS 2018a).

Additional land was subsequently added to the farm property, which grew to 160+ acres by 1956 (Anonymous 1975; NPS 2018a). This would have included the remaining McDaniel lots, Lot 4 and Lot 5. It appears that the Lot 3 acreage was never incorporated into Wolf Trap Farm.

Between 1957 and 1962, a pond was created north of the Filene Center's current location (NETR 2018). In 1961 the American Symphony Orchestra League (ASOL) was gifted a portion (38 acres) of the property, including a 1940s house known as "the children's house," for the site of its national headquarters (Carver 2015; Eckert 2016; WTFP 1981). This one-story brick building constructed by the Shouses likely served as a home for her children and their families when they visited. In 1961 a plat map of the Shouse property was drawn up as part of the land acquisition for the Dulles Airport Access Road (Route 267). The plat indicated that 39.084 acres of the total 161.65-acre property were taken for the toll road (see Figure 10). That left 122.566 acres that would eventually become the park, including the Barns at Wolf Trap on the south side of the toll road.

E. NATIONAL PARK SERVICE (1966 TO PRESENT)

In 1964 Mrs. Shouse offered her property to the federal government through the Department of the Interior and the NPS. The land transfer also included the nearly 38 acres that she had formerly donated to the ASOL. Mrs. Shouse also offered funds to provide funding for the construction of a performing arts amphitheater. The NPS requested authorization of the park and additional funding from Congress. The bill establishing Wolf Trap Park for the Performing Arts was signed by Congress in May 1966, and the park was authorized as a unit of the national park system on October 15, 1966 (NPS 1997).

Significant modifications were made to the property during its conversion from a farm to a national park. Alterations were made to the farmhouse to accommodate the housing of administrative staff. In 1973 an addition was made to the house's southeast corner to accommodate switchboard equipment, and several buildings were demolished to make way for the amphitheater. Many of the outlying buildings around the farmhouse were removed for the construction of the Filene Center and improved access. Figure 16 shows several of the farm buildings that were razed, including the children's cottage (far back), staff residences (three buildings on the right), and an old chicken house (left). The hunters' barn, built to house the Shouses' horses, and the hay barn were also demolished. The hay barn was replaced with a barn in the same style (Carver 2015). Two original buildings were left in place: the smokehouse and a guest cabin. The smokehouse was rebuilt in the 1970s and placed on a concrete foundation. The NPS dismantled, replaced logs, and repaired the chinking (mortar) of the log section of the guest cabin in 1976.

The ground-breaking ceremony for the amphitheater took place in 1968 (NPS 2018a). The structure was designed by MacFadyen and Knowles of New York, the designers of the Saratoga Center for the Performing Arts, a structure Mrs. Shouse admired. Their plan called for the construction of the amphitheater close to the Dulles Access Road (Route 267). The plan allowed a larger portion of the fields to be open to public use but required the construction of a buffer wall between the amphitheater and the highway to block traffic noise (Carver 2015). Despite a costly



Schlesinger Library, Radcliffe Institute, Harvard University
FIGURE 16: Wolf Trap Farm Outbuilding Complex, ca. 1930
(Harvard University, Schlesinger Library)

fire, which destroyed about 60 percent of the structure in March 1971, the amphitheater opened that July for the summer season (Carver 2015; NPS 1997).

A newspaper article described the Wolf Trap experience this way in 1975:

Diplomats from Washington were just as likely to be found sitting on the soft lawn listening to Puccini as fledgling artists in the covered amphitheatre. Regardless of dress and poise, they all gathered to share one vested interest – opera. ... The setting is casual, but there is a silent, unspoken elegance about the Filene Center, the stage where it all happens. Seating 3,500 people in the amphitheatre and 3,000 on the sloping lawn, the stage house is an awesome 10 stories high, with a stage that measures 100 feet wide and 64 feet deep. The building with its angular roof and open sides is constructed of Oregon red cedar that has weathered to a silvery gray. Nestled among the tall trees like a bird in its nest, the modern structure simply belongs where it is, as if Frank Lloyd Wright himself had selected the site. A colorful handwoven stage curtain from Swaziland signals the opening and closing of each performance. The sound system is the clearest and most sensitive yet heard in an outdoor setting. The slightest sound can be amplified without distortion throughout the theatre area. There are no bad seats and no bad sights. Wolf Trap is first class all the way [*Daily Press* 1975].

According to the same article, the amphitheater has been the site of performances by such performers as B.B. King, Beverly Sills, Loretta Lynn, the Emmett Kelly Jr. Circus, Stan Kenton, the Philadelphia Orchestra, the New York Conservatory Ragtime Ensemble, the National Symphony Orchestra, the City Center Joffrey Ballet, the Preservation Hall Jazz Band, the Glenn Miller Orchestra, and the New York City Ballet (*Daily Press* 1975).

Structures constructed in association with the amphitheater include the Composer's Cottage, the Theater-in-the-Woods, and The Barns at Wolf Trap. Fires struck and destroyed many of these buildings. Mrs. Shouse had planned on constructing several cottages at Wolf Trap, but the Composer's Cottage was the only one built (Figure 17). Dedicated in December 1973, it was designed by Kohler-Daniels Associates and constructed by Fairfax County Vocational High School students under the supervision of their instructors and Louis Godla. The cottage burned six years later and was never replaced. The Theater-in-the-Woods, initially a small-scale production stage built northeast of the Filene Center, was constructed mostly of rough slab wood in 1973 by the park's maintenance staff. It consisted of a flat, elevated stage and benches stretching out to the hill in front of it. The theater burned three years later and was quickly rebuilt in a larger form, completed in 1977 (Carver 2015). Mrs. Shouse donated another venue to house smaller performances in 1981 and had two eighteenth-century barns (known as The Barns at Wolf Trap⁴) moved from New York and rebuilt with excellent acoustics and amenities (NPS 2018a). One of the barns, which dates to 1725 and came from Blenheim, New York, was put into use as a 380-seat theater. The other, a 1707 barn from near Cambridge, New York, was intended for use as a hall for rehearsals, small concerts, and meetings. The Barns were intended more for performances by young artists than those at the height of their careers. The addition of these barns transformed Wolf Trap from a summer arts venue into a year-round entertainment center (*Daily Press* 1982a).

⁴ Owned and operated by the Wolf Trap Foundation for the Performing Arts, a non-profit partner of NPS. The tract where the Barns are located is not part of WOTR.

On April 4, 1982, the Filene Center once again fell victim to a fire. Funding for a fire suppression system, which had not been sufficient during the construction of the amphitheater, had recently become available, but it was only 5 percent complete at the time of the fire (Carver 2015). The Wrecking Company of America of Alexandria, Virginia, paid \$1,001 to tear down the burned structure. Pieces were salvaged and sold as souvenirs, the proceeds benefiting the Wolf Trap Foundation (*Daily Press* 1982b).

That May, a modular structure designed by Sprung Instant Structures was transported from the United Arab Emirates to the park and named the “Meadow Center.” It was built in two weeks and could seat 2,000 patrons, with an additional 4,500 patrons seated on the lawn. Several companies donated electronic equipment. As a result the 1982 season opened less than one week late (Carver 2015). The temporary structure housed performances for the 1982 and 1983 seasons (NPS 1997).

Construction of the new amphitheater began on December 14, 1982. It was constructed on the old theater’s foundation, which was not destroyed in the fire (*Daily Press* 1982c). The new center had a larger, redesigned stage house containing a television studio, rehearsal hall, and other facilities. An electric orchestra pit elevator was added, and stage lighting equipment was purchased rather than rented (Carver 2015). An automatic sprinkler system was installed throughout the building (*Daily Press* 1982c) along with 350 additional seats and handicap facilities. Douglas fir was the chosen building material instead of cedar, as it is more durable and can be treated with a fire retardant. The structure was constructed with a steel frame rather than timber beams as a precaution against fire and was given a copper-topped roof (*Daily Press* 1984a, 1984b). Filene Center II was dedicated on June 20, 1984 (Carver 2015). The name was officially changed from Wolf Trap Farm Park to Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts on August 21, 2002 (NPS 2018b).



FIGURE 17: View of the Composer's Cottage (*Wolf Trap Centerlines* 1975)

VIII. CONCLUSION

On behalf of the NPS, National Capital Area, WSP has carried out a two-year Archeological Overview, Assessment, Inventory, and Evaluation Study of Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts in Fairfax County, Virginia. WOTR, the first and only national park for the performing arts, encompasses approximately 117 acres with approximately 65 acres of natural woodland, streams, and wetlands. The main goals of the study were to document what has already been learned about the park's archeological resources, including review of previous research; to assess the archeological potential of both known sites and unexplored areas; to explore more of the park through Phase I field survey to identify new sites, and to carry out additional testing of selected sites to evaluate their significance and eligibility for listing in the NRHP. Volume I contains a narrative of the history and archeology of the park, written to be accessible to park interpreters and the public.

During this study much of the park was explored by archeologists searching for the remains left by people of long ago. Over 10 acres were investigated in detail; four new archeological sites were recorded and two previously identified sites were subjected to additional testing. The oldest datable artifacts found during the survey were Late Archaic points dating to around 5800 to 4400 BP. The remains of this very early period overlap with the historic occupations that followed, with flakes of stone left by prehistoric tool makers found while exploring the hillock where the historic farmstead still stands.

From ancient hunter-gatherers to the park created through the vision of Filene Shouse, Wolf Trap National Park for the Performing Arts preserves a remarkable record of the past. Even where the landscape seems most altered from its natural state, traces of long-ago lives remain. Walking the trail and other footpaths, it is possible to forget that you are so near the city and cast your mind back to the past, when ancient these lands were inhabited by wolves and wildlife, as well as Native Americans, European settlers, nineteenth- and early twentieth-century farmers, and enslaved and free farm laborers.

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