NPS Form 10-900

United States Department of the Interior

National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin, How to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, enter "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and areas of significance, enter only categories and subcategories from the instructions.

Historic name: Frederickshing and Suntsylva	nia County Battlefields Memorial National
Military Park	ma County Dattieriera (vielioriai ivational
Other names/site number: Fredericksburg and	Spotsylvania National Military Park
Name of related multiple property listing:	
The Civil War in Virginia, 1861-1865: History	ic and Archaeological Resources (076-5168)
(Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multip	ble property listing
2. Location	
Street & number: 120 Chatham Lane	
City or town: Fredericksburg	
State: Virginia County: Fredericksburg (City);	
Not For Publication: N/A Vicinity: N	/A
3. State/Federal Agency Certification	
As the designated authority under the National	Historic Preservation Act, as amended,
I hereby certify that this <u>x</u> nomination <u>registering properties and meets the procedural and profession</u>	operties in the National Register of Historic
In my opinion, the property <u>x</u> meets <u>considered significance</u> :	
x national x statewide	X local
Applicable National Register Criteria:	
x A x B x C x D	
	Data
Signature of certifying official/Title:	Date
Signature of certifying official/Title: State or Federal agency/bureau or Triba	
	al Government
State or Federal agency/bureau or Triba	es not meet the National Register criteria. Date 5/0/18
State or Federal agency/bureau or Triba In my opinion, the property x meets does	es not meet the National Register criteria.

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Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA County and State

	4. National Park Service Certification	
I hereby certify that this property is:		
entered in the National Register determined eligible for the National Register		
	determined not eligible for the National Register	
	removed from the National Register	× ×
	other (explain:)	
	Signature of the Keeper	Date of Action
	5. Classification	
	Ownership of Property	
	(Check as many boxes as apply.)	
	Private:	
	Public Local	
	Dublic Costs	
	Public – State	
	Public – Federal X	
Category of Property		
	(Check only one box.)	
	Building(s)	
	District	
	Site	
	Structure	
	Object	

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Number of Resources within Property

(Do not include previously listed resources in the count)

Contributing 26	Noncontributing 17	buildings
20	0	sites
43	10	structures
53	10	objects
142	37	Total

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register 29

6. Function or Use

Historic Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

DEFENSE/battle site

DOMESTIC/single dwelling

DOMESTIC/secondary structure

FUNERARY/cemetery

FUNERARY/graves

INDUSTRY/processing site

RECREATION AND CULTURE/monument/marker

AGRICULTURE/agricultural field

AGRICULTURE/agricultural outbuilding

LANDSCAPE/garden

TRANSPORTATION/road-related (vehicular)

Current Functions

(Enter categories from instructions.)

RECREATION AND CULTURE/outdoor recreation

RECREATION AND CULTURE/monument/marker

FUNERARY/cemetery

FUNERARY/graves

TRANSPORTATION/road-related (vehicular)

AGRICULTURE/agricultural field

LANDSCAPE/park

LANDSCAPE/garden

DOMESTIC/single dwelling

DOMESTIC/secondary structure

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7. Description

Architectural Classification

(Enter categories from instructions.)

COLONIAL/Georgian

EARLY REPUBLIC/Federal

MID-19TH CENTURY/Gothic Revival

LATE VICTORIAN/Second Empire

LATE 19TH AND 20TH CENTURY REVIVALS/Colonial Revival

MODERN MOVEMENT/Park Service Modern

OTHER

Materials: (enter categories from instructions.)

Principal exterior materials of the property: Wood, brick stone, earth, metal, glass

Narrative Description

(Describe the historic and current physical appearance and condition of the property. Describe contributing and noncontributing resources if applicable. Begin with a summary paragraph that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, type, style, method of construction, setting, size, and significant features. Indicate whether the property has historic integrity.)

Summary Paragraphs

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park (NMP) Historic District (or the District) consists of multiple discontiguous parcels of land in and around Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Spotsylvania Court House in Spotsylvania, Stafford, Orange, and Caroline counties, Virginia.

The Fredericksburg area park lands include parcels located to the east, west, and south of downtown Fredericksburg, totaling 1,458.37 acres. Chatham (the park headquarters) is a pre-Revolutionary plantation on a high bluff on the eastern side of the Rappahannock River (Stafford County) overlooking downtown Fredericksburg and the river. The Fredericksburg National Cemetery, a military cemetery established after the war to bury Union soldiers, is located on Willis Hill west of downtown Fredericksburg. Fredericksburg Battlefield encompasses portions of the battlefield associated with the December 1862 and May 1863 Battle of Fredericksburg: a parcel on Marye's Heights, along Lafayette Boulevard immediately east of the National Cemetery; a small parcel on Sophia Street on the west bank of the Rappahannock River, opposite Chatham; and a large parcel south of downtown Fredericksburg that encompasses land on either side of Lee Drive, a park road that runs from Lafayette Boulevard on the north to Mine Road on the south.

The Jackson Shrine site is located 15 miles south of Fredericksburg in the unincorporated town of Guinea in Caroline County. It contains approximately 47 acres of the antebellum plantation Fairfield, including

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the small plantation office where Confederate General Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson died on May 10, 1863.

The Salem Church site, at the intersection of Route 3 and Salem Church Road in Spotsylvania County, consists of three small, discontiguous parcels of land totaling approximately 3.28 acres, associated with the May 1863 Battle of Salem Church. It contains the 1844–1845 Salem Church building and four early twentieth-century commemorative objects.

The Chancellorsville Battlefield area, approximately 10 miles west of Fredericksburg in the unincorporated community of Chancellorsville, encompasses 1,860 acres of the 1863 Battle of Chancellorsville (April 27–May 6) battlefield, including the site of General Jackson's mortal wounding, and a small discontiguous parcel on Orange Turnpike, northwest of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center.

The Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield area is located approximately 10 miles southwest of Fredericksburg in the town of Spotsylvania. It contains 1,328.32 acres and encompasses the core area of the May 1864 Battle of Spotsylvania Court House battlefield.

The Wilderness Battlefield area, the largest of the park areas, is located approximately 17 miles west of Fredericksburg in an unincorporated area that lies in Orange and Spotsylvania counties. It contains 2,855 acres of the battlefield associated with the May 1864 Battle of the Wilderness and portions of the antebellum Ellwood plantation.

The District boundary encompasses 7,326.5 of the 7,552.7 acres currently owned and managed by the National Park Service as Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial NMP. The District contains 171 contributing resources and 37 non-contributing resources. Contributing resources consist of 32 buildings, 52 structures, 34 sites, and 53 objects. Non-contributing resources consist of 17 buildings, 10 structures, and 10 objects that were either constructed after the District's period of significance (1768–1965) or are not associated with any of the District's areas of significance.

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial NMP was established by an act of the United States Congress on February 14, 1927 (44 Stat. 1091), and transferred from the War Department

The National Park Service publication NPS-28: Cultural Resource Management Guideline Appendix Q provides guidance for preparing National Register documentation for historical units of the National Park System. In accordance with the guidance, the Park Service is responsible for evaluating the entire area contained within a park's authorized boundaries. All of a park's historic resources, including those resources that are not specifically related to aspects of history noted in the park's enabling legislation, should be documented in a single National Register form. National Register boundaries for historical units of the national park system may not exceed the boundary authorized by legislation. The National Register boundary may, however, be less than the authorized park boundary to exclude, for example, non-historic buffer zones or areas that have lost historical integrity. The boundary for the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP National Register Historic District does not correspond exactly to the authorized boundary for Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP. See Section 10 of this registration form for the detailed District boundary description and justification.

² The discrepancy between the number of contributing resources identified here and in Section 5: Number of Resources within Property is due to the National Register requirement that previously listed resources be counted separately. Of the 171 contributing resources in the District, 29 were previously listed under National Register documentation prepared for Fredericksburg & Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park and Cemetery (NRIS #66000046) in 1977 and signed by the Keeper on May 23, 1978. In the District Data Sheet that follows Section 7 of this new National Register documentation, previously listed resources are identified by an asterisk (*) that follows their name.

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to the National Park Service in 1933. As a historic area within the National Park System, the NMP was administratively listed in the National Register of Historic Places (National Register) on October 15, 1966. National Register documentation for the park was prepared in 1977 and signed by the Keeper of the National Register on May 23, 1978 (NRIS #66000046). Legislative boundary changes occurred in 1989, 1992, and 1999. The purpose of this registration form is to document and account for all resources acquired through boundary changes or having gained significance since the 1978 documentation and expand the areas of significance to include resources built by the Civilian Conservation Corps as part of the New Deal and those associated with the Mission 66 era of Park Service development that coincided with the national centennial commemoration of the Civil War. This new documentation will supersede all previous documentation once it has been accepted and signed by the Keeper of the National Register.

Narrative Description

Setting

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP is located in northeastern Virginia, approximately 55 miles southwest of Washington, DC, which is easily accessible by commuter rail. The District's multiple discontiguous areas associated with major events in the American Civil War are situated in the City of Fredericksburg on the Rappahannock River and in communities to the west and south of the city. Extensive suburban development in and around Fredericksburg, light industrial sites, and major transportation corridors including U.S. Interstate 95 characterize the historically agricultural landscape, although swaths of open agricultural land remain. The region's proximity to Washington, DC, has accelerated housing development. The park units are in predominantly suburban settings, with the exception of Jackson Shrine and the Wilderness, which are in a more rural setting but surrounded by residential and light industrial development. The Civil War Trust, Civil War Preservation Trust, and other state and private organizations own large portions of historic battlefields surrounding the NMP.

Vehicular circulation around and through the District is via several major roads, including U.S. Interstate 95; U.S. Route 1 (Jefferson Davis Highway); Virginia State Routes 3, 20 (Constitution Highway), and 613 (Brock Road); and Lafayette Boulevard. Many state roads follow the alignment of historic roads extant during the Civil War, including Plank Road and Orange Road. The Fredericksburg Visitor Center is located on Lafayette Boulevard; State Route 3 runs through both the Chancellorsville Battlefield and Wilderness Battlefield park units, past the Chancellorsville Visitor Center.

Resource Descriptions

The description of resources is organized by battlefield unit consisting of Fredericksburg (including Chatham, Fredericksburg National Cemetery, and Fredericksburg Battlefield); Jackson Shrine; Salem Church; Chancellorsville Battlefield; Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield; and Wilderness Battlefield (including Ellwood). Some areas of the District consist only of narrow strips of land encompassing earthworks and historic or park-made roads and roadbeds, while other areas encompass large acreages of undeveloped battlefield lands. Resources that appear in multiple areas throughout the District, such as park tour roads and groups of commemorative or interpretive objects, are described in general first.³ Archeological sites throughout the District are described at the end of Section 7.

³ Portions of the monument descriptions throughout this document are taken from *History Through Eyes of Stone: A Survey of Civil War Monuments Near Fredericksburg, Virginia*, Don Pfanz, U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park, 1983 (Revised 2006).

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Multiple park tour roads wind through the District, with a characteristic curvilinear alignment, designed to bring automobile tourists past earthworks and scenic vistas of battlefields. The early park development roads are 16 to 18 feet (') wide and asphalt paved. Large trees near the roadbed are frequently surrounded by protective tree rings constructed of three or four courses of square granite blocks encircling the base of the tree. One- and two-arch ashlar-span bridges cross streams that flow through the District, and stone-faced culverts and stone-lined ditches provide roadway drainage. Individual roads and their associated features are noted in subsequent sections corresponding to their location within the District. Pedestrian access throughout the District is via sod, dirt and gravel, or rubberized mulch paths laid out by park staff to protect fragile earthworks while still allowing visitor access.

A series of ten stone monuments placed in 1903 by James Power Smith under the auspices of a committee organized by local businessmen Thomas F. Ryan and Samuel B. Woods mark locations in Spotsylvania and Orange counties related to significant Civil War events. The 2' 6 inch (")-tall markers are carved out of blue Fredericksburg granite and inscribed on a single dressed face. Eight of these markers are located within the District and are noted in the corresponding sections below.

In 1927, the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania chapters of the United Daughters of the Confederacy (UDC) dedicated five markers on the 64th anniversary of the Battle of Chancellorsville. The monuments consist of a 4' 6"-wide x 3' 6"-deep x 3' 6"-tall white granite block base with an angled top, on which a cast bronze tablet is mounted. Four of the five markers were placed within the current District boundary; three of the four are extant and discussed in subsequent sections.

Beginning in 1940, the National Park Service installed a series of cast aluminum identification tablets throughout the park to mark earthworks, battlefields, roads, and historic house sites, 80 of which are still extant. The 21 Battlefield ID Tablets (LCS No. 082135, CLI No. 153873, contributing objects), 38 Earthworks ID Tablets (LCS No. 082133, contributing objects), 2 House Site ID Tablets (LCS No. 082134, contributing objects), and 19 Road ID Tablets (LCS No. 082132, CLI No. 153971, contributing objects) are all 1'-x-2' cast aluminum tablets, designed by the War Department and fabricated by the Park Service, painted black with white lettering and slant-mounted on a 2'- to 4'-tall octagonal metal tube filled with concrete. 4

In 1964, the New Jersey Civil War Centennial Commission rededicated the four monuments to New Jersey soldiers within the park, installing small rededication stones near the original memorials. Each

⁴ The National Park Service maintains several service-wide inventories to manage cultural resources. The List of Classified Structures (LCS) is an evaluated inventory of historic and prehistoric structures that have historical, architectural, or engineering significance and are eligible for listing in the National Register individually or as part of a historic district. The Cultural Landscapes Inventory (CLI) is an evaluated inventory of cultural landscapes providing information about the location, historical development, character-defining features, and management of identified cultural landscapes. The Archeological Site Management Information System (ASMIS) is a database used to record information about archeological sites throughout the National Park System. To assist park managers in reconciling these inventories with the National Register documentation, resources mentioned in the text of this registration form are identified using boldface type and underlining. The first mention of a resource in Sections 7 and 8 includes a parenthetical citation with the resource's LCS, CLI, and ASMIS identification numbers, if any; contributing or non-contributing status; and property type. If a resource was not previously recorded in a Park Service inventory, only the status and property type are given. Subsequent mentions of a resource in each section include only the underlined and boldface name. The District Data Sheet that follows Section 7 includes both the Park Service inventory number(s) and Virginia Department of Historic Resources identification number for each resource, as applicable.

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rededication marker consists of a 1' 6"-tall x 1' 8"-wide granite block with a dressed face, upon which is affixed a 12" x 8" bronze plaque bearing the state seal of New Jersey. The plaques read: This Site Rededicated/ May 16, 1964/ Civil War Centennial Commission/ State of New Jersey/ Richard J. Hughes/ Governor.

Chatham

Administratively part of the Fredericksburg unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, Chatham is located on a bluff above the east bank of the Rappahannock River, overlooking downtown Fredericksburg. At its largest, the estate encompassed 1,288 acres (ca. 1806), and today (2015) is about 86.34 acres. The District boundary includes agricultural fields, edged with successional-growth forest, along the north and eastern areas of the site; an orchard north of the domestic core of the estate; and ravines on the north and south side of the domestic core leading from the plateau down to the Rappahannock River. Embankments line the north side of River Road, which runs northwest-southeast between Chatham and the Rappahannock River. Woods and fields, also historically part of the estate, line the river on the south side of River Road. The John Lee Pratt Memorial Park, which abuts the property on the north, and modern residential and commercial developments on the east and south now occupy land that was part of the historic Chatham plantation.

The District boundary encompasses two contributing above-ground sites, both of which date to 1922-1927: the Chatham Designed Landscape (FRSP00091.000, contributing site), and the Chatham Walled Garden (contributing site), designed by landscape architect Ellen Biddle Shipman; architect Oliver Clarke was involved with the design of many of the built elements in the Designed Landscape and also designed numerous buildings at Chatham. The Designed Landscape is defined as the Chatham grounds between Chatham Lane and the embankment below the terraces, and excludes the Walled Garden, a substantial element of the landscape and thus counted separately. The Designed Landscape is bounded on the north by the Chatham Farm Lane and Carriage Drive, on the south by the South Ravine Path, and wraps around the east, west, and north sides of the manor house and Walled Garden. Terraces overlooking the Rappahannock River, likely laid out by the Fitzhughs at the time of Chatham's construction but altered during the Devore tenure, dominate the western portion of the designed landscape. The Walled Garden is on the east side of Chatham Manor, consisting of a large Colonial Revival style garden surrounded by smaller outbuildings and a brick wall. The landscape reflects changes made in the twentieth century, including the addition of a large walled garden designed by landscape architect Ellen Biddle Shipman and smaller ornamental structures, some of which are no longer extant, along the west terraces overlooking the river designed by architect Oliver Clarke in conjunction with Shipman at the behest of Mrs. Devore. Vestiges of the plantation's agricultural past are visible in the fields near the northwest perimeter that are leased to local farmers.

The three primary buildings at Chatham, Chatham Manor and the Kitchen and Laundry, date to the 1768–1806 ownership of William Fitzhugh, a wealthy landowner and later a member of the Virginia House of Delegates and a state senator. The majority of the twentieth-century buildings date to the ownership of Colonel Daniel and Helen Devore (1920–1931). John Lee and Lilian T. Pratt were the estate's last owners (1931–1975); John Lee Pratt bequeathed the property to the National Park Service in his will. The extant buildings at Chatham are arranged in a rough U-shape with the base of the U facing the Rappahannock River. An early twentieth-century caretaker's cottage sits just southeast of the edge of the domestic core, which encompasses the manor house and its immediate dependencies, including the Kitchen and Laundry.

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The Chatham System of Roads (contributing structure) provides vehicular circulation through the site. Chatham Lane (LCS No. 082035, historic associated feature), constructed during the antebellum period to access the plantation, consists of an 18'-wide, one-lane, asphalt and gravel road that runs northwest from Chatham Heights Road for approximately 0.35 mile to the site boundary, where a visitor parking area is located on the east side of the lane.5 The lane continues north from the visitor parking lot as the Chatham Farm Lane (LCS No. 082046, historic associated feature), a 12'-wide dirt and sod lane also laid out in the late eighteenth to early nineteenth century that leads northwest to the agricultural fields on the perimeter of the grounds. The Chatham Farm Road Trace (historic associated feature), a single-lane dirt road trace, runs northeast from the Chatham Farm Lane northwest of the Dairy Barn. The Chatham Carriage Drive (LCS No. 082039, historic associated feature), a sinuous, one-lane, dirt and gravel road constructed some time during the period 1768-1771, winds down the west side of the property, terminating at River Road. The Chatham Carriage Drive Retaining Wall (LCS No. 082042, historic associated feature), added in the 1920s as part of Ellen Biddle Shipman's landscape work, runs the length of the Carriage Drive along the north/west side and is constructed of dry-laid, random-cut stone. At the same time, the Chatham Carriage Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082040, historic associated feature) were added to provide better drainage for the road. They consist of corrugated metal pipes that are embedded in the earth and terminate at stone retaining walls. Some have iron grates that helped to prevent debris from clogging the pipes. Slightly northeast of River Road, the Carriage Drive passes through the Chatham Entrance Gate (LCS No. 082043, contributing structure), designed by Shipman to create a formal entrance to the manor. The gate consists of curved brick walls attached to brick piers upon which iron and wood gates are hung. The east wall has an arched doorway, also filled with a brick and wood gate. Along the north edge of the northern ravine is the mid-nineteenth-century North Embankment Road Trace (historic associated feature), consisting of a narrow, undulating dirt trace extending from the Chatham Farm Lane down to River Road.

The road system also includes several ancillary drives near the buildings. The Chatham Caretaker's Cottage is a two-track dirt and sod driveway that runs northwest from Chatham Lane to the Caretaker's Cottage. The Chatham Service Drive (historic associated feature) is a one-lane asphalt road that extends from its intersection with Chatham Lane south of the parking area along the edge of the domestic core, past the garage and antebellum outbuildings, and terminates at the Chatham Service Drive Gates (contributing structure). The gates consist of a pair of two-panel wood leaves with slightly curved tops. The gate leaves are attached to brick pillars that are topped with stone finials. The Chatham Carriage Drive Spur (LCS No. 082041, historic associated feature) is a broken pavement road that runs along the west terrace past the west elevation of the main house and ends in a teardrop-shaped turnaround near the Service Drive Gates. A spur extends northeast to connect to the Service Drive beyond the gates.

The center of domestic life at Chatham, <u>Chatham Manor (LCS No. 000422</u>, <u>ASMIS No. FRSP00009.001</u>, <u>contributing building)</u> is an imposing two-story, brick, center-hall Georgian house constructed during the period 1768–1771 by William Fitzhugh and altered by architect Oliver Clarke in the 1920s using Colonial Revival elements. The National Park Service opened the building, which now serves as the Park Headquarters, to the public in 1977. The main block of the seven-bay-by-two-bay

⁵ "Historic associated feature" is a term used to enumerate and describe small-scale component features of a landscape, or a system of features, that are not individually countable according to National Register guidelines but that collectively constitute a single countable resource. The term was developed to reconcile the requirements of the National Park Service LCS and CLI with National Register documentation guidelines. All LCS and CLI entries must be included in National Register documentation either as a countable resource (building, district, site, structure, or object) or as a historic associated feature.

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house has a slate-shingled gable roof with brick chimneys at each end. Two hipped-roof, one-story wings with brick center chimneys are attached to the main block by short hyphens. The building has a raised brick foundation. An entrance is centered in the east elevation and approached by a path through the Walled Garden, and a second entrance is centered in the west elevation overlooking the Rappahannock River. In the 1820s, a two-story pedimented porch was installed on the west elevation; this was removed by Oliver Clarke in the early 1920s, but remnants of it are visible on the wall. A one-story porch on the east elevation of the building was also removed by Clarke in the early 1920s. The east entrance was modeled after the garden entrance at Westover, an eighteenth-century plantation in Charles City, Virginia, which served as a model for numerous Colonial Revival renovations. Limestone broken pedimented surrounds trim both doors, and limestone Doric pilasters flank the west entrance. A set of semicircular stairs designed by Oliver Clarke leads from the west door to the Chatham Front Entrance Path, and the east entrance opens onto a flagstone piazza, also designed by Clarke. Fenestration on the entire house consists of six-over-six, double-hung wood sash with flat arch surrounds.

The interior of Chatham Manor retains the configuration and many of the finishes that existed after the Clarke renovations of the 1920s. Brick interior bearing walls divide the central main block into three square rooms on the basement and first-floor levels. An original staircase in the south hyphen leads up to the second floor and down to the basement, while the corresponding staircase in the north hyphen was removed prior to the Clarke renovations. Three smaller rooms on the second floor line a corridor along most of the east wall, with a small room at the north end and access at the south end to the staircase via a narrow mezzanine within the attic of the south hyphen. Partitions divide the rooms in both one-story wings, which originally consisted of an antechamber and an outer room separated by a fireplace wall. Museum exhibits are displayed in the three main first-floor rooms and the north hyphen. The remainder of the building houses park administrative offices.

The ca. 1771 Chatham Kitchen (LCS No. 007872, contributing building) is a one-and-one-half-story, three-bay-by-two-bay brick building located southeast of the manor house; the north entry of the Kitchen opens into the walled garden. It has a slate-clad side-gable roof with recessed end wall chimneys at the east and west ends and three gabled dormers on the south slope. The walls are laid in a Flemish bond, and the foundation is also brick. The entrances centered in the north and south elevations (facing the walled garden and the service yard, respectively) contain wood doors protected by five-panel wood and wire mesh doors. Fenestration consists of nine-over-nine double-hung sash, six-over-six double-hung sash in the dormers, and small four-light windows on either side of each chimney.

The ca. 1771 Chatham Laundry (LCS No. 007874, contributing building) northeast of the manor house is a one-story, three-bay-by-two-bay brick building almost identical to the Kitchen opposite; the south elevation of the Laundry opens into the walled garden. The slate-shingled side-gable roof has interior end wall chimneys at the east and west ends. A one-room ell projects from the west bay of the north (rear) elevation. A run of brick and stone stairs lead from the walled garden to the recessed entrance centered in the south elevation, which contains a six-panel wood door. A basement door is accessible from the east elevation. Fenestration consists of nine-over-nine double-hung wood sash in the main block, six-over-six double-hung wood sash in the rear ell, and small casement lights in the raised basement wall.

The Chatham Farm Office and Garage (LCS No. 007873, contributing building), designed by Oliver Clarke and constructed during the first half of the 1920s as part of work done on the property by Ellen Biddle Shipman and Oliver Clarke, is located southeast of the Kitchen and faces north into the service yard. It is a one-story, three-bay-by-two-bay brick building with a slate-clad side-gable roof. The north and south roof slopes each have two gabled dormers, and external brick chimneys are centered in each

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gable end. The entrance centered in the north wall is protected by a wood and wire mesh screen door. Fenestration consists of nine-over-nine double-hung wood sash, six-over-six double-hung sash in the dormers, and four-light casement windows flanking each chimney. A small one-story brick furnace house with a flat roof is attached to the southeast elevation of the Farm Office. A one-story brick garage, constructed in the 1920s, extends from the east elevation of the Farm Office and curves north into the service yard. Three arched openings line the curved wall. The north-most arch is almost completely infilled with brick, with an opening for a nine-light door. An entrance in the north end of the east elevation contains a four-light, two-panel wood door. A second opening just south of north entrance, nearly in line with the Farm Office chimney, is infilled with brick. A curved brick wall with an arched opening extends from the east end of the Garage. A brick dovecote with a weathervane, both designed by Shipman, projects above the curved wall adjacent to the opening.

The Chatham Carriage House, Stable, and Boathouse (LCS No. 007877, contributing building) east of the Kitchen is a large brick and wood building. Constructed in the 1920s, the building has three connected units: a one-and-one-half-story brick Carriage House at the west end; a one-and-one-half-story brick Stable in the center; and a one-story, L-shaped, wood-frame Boathouse at the east end. A covered brick walkway runs between the Boathouse and Stable. The Stable and Carriage House both have wood-shingled side-gable roofs and brick foundations. Large cross gables project from both slopes of the Carriage House roof. The Boathouse has an asphalt-shingled roof, board-and-batten walls, and a concrete foundation. Four doorways of varying width line the south elevation of the Carriage House, containing one, two, or three six-light wood doors hung with strap hinges. A wood door in the east elevation of the Stable opens onto the walkway between the Stable and the wood-frame building. A series of open archways line the interior (south elevation) of the wood-frame building, while solid metal doors in the north elevation provide access to single-sex restrooms. The Carriage House, Stable, and Boathouse feature primarily six-over-six double-hung sash, with four-light casement windows in the Stable's south elevation. The Boathouse has eight-light casement windows.

The <u>Chatham Well House (LCS No. 082051, contributing building)</u>, designed by Oliver Clarke and built between 1922 and 1927, is set into the slope of the ravine south of the Carriage House. The one-room brick building has a flat roof, a two-panel wood door centered in the south elevation, and no windows.

The Chatham Corn Crib (LCS No. 007878, contributing structure) is a 10'-x-12' wood frame structure located south of the wood-frame addition on the Carriage House and Stable. Constructed in the 1920s for drying and storing corn, the Corn Crib has a pyramidal asphalt-shingled roof with a deep overhang and an empty cupola at the peak that originally housed a bell. The vertical wood slat walls are set on concrete piers, and doors are centered in the east and west elevations.

The Chatham Gas Pump (LCS No. 082050, contributing object) immediately south of the Corn Crib is a ca. 1925–1930 iron and glass gas pump bolted to a small concrete pedestal.

The east-facing Chatham Caretaker's Cottage (LCS No. 080077, contributing building) sits on the east side of Chatham Lane. Constructed after 1931 on the site of an earlier house for the manor's gatekeeper, the one-and-one-half-story, three-bay-by-two-bay, Colonial Revival building is used now as park housing. It has an asphalt-shingled, side-gable roof with a shed-roof dormer centered on the west slope; a mid-twentieth-century, one-story, hip-roofed ell on the north side elevation; white-painted weatherboard walls; and a raised concrete foundation. A brick and concrete entrance porch with an open gabled pediment shelters the center entrance, which is surrounded by side lights and topped with a broken

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pediment. Fenestration predominantly consists of six-over-one double-hung sash with plain board surrounds. Smaller four-light windows are centered in the dormer. The <u>Chatham Caretaker's Cottage</u> <u>Walk (historic associated feature)</u>, a narrow path of concrete pavers, leads from the fence gate to the front steps of the cottage.

The ca. 1926 <u>Chatham Summer House (LCS No. 007875, contributing structure)</u> is a one-story open-sided structure to the east of the Laundry. The three-bay-wide south elevation faces into the walled garden, and the curved north elevation overlooks the north ravine. The hipped and conical roof is clad in standing-seam metal and supported by round wood columns on the north and south and L-shaped walls on the east and west. The floor is covered with terra cotta tile. The Pratts altered the structure ca. 1940, adding an elliptical bay to the north elevation and bronze screens to the north and south elevations.

The Chatham Dairy Barn (LCS No. 080076, contributing building), constructed in the 1890s, is a short distance to the east of the Summer House and faces north onto the Chatham Carriage Drive. The one-and-one-half-story, five-bay-by-three-bay barn has a shallow-pitched gable roof with a center cross gable clad in standing-seam metal. The walls are sheathed in white-painted clapboards. A large double barn door is centered in the north elevation, three wide single doors are symmetrically spaced along the east elevation, single doors are located in the north and south bays of the west elevation, and a single door is centered in the south elevation. Fenestration consists of six-over-six double-hung wood sash in the first story and gable peaks. Replacement windows in the north elevation are smaller than the original openings.

The Chatham Milk House (LCS No. 007879, contributing building) is located on the edge of the north ravine, across from the Dairy Barn. Constructed between 1900 and 1905, it is a one-story, south-facing building with a wood-shingled hip roof and rusticated concrete block walls. A cross gable extends south to create a closed-pediment entry porch supported by two block columns that protects a vertical board double door. The building has four six-over-six double-hung wood sash, two in the north elevation and two in the south. The Chatham Septic Tank (LCS No. 082052, contributing structure), constructed between 1922 and 1927, is located in the north ravine near the Milk House. It consists of a poured concrete tank with an arched downspout projecting into the ravine. The septic tank is no longer in use.

The Chatham North Greenhouse (LCS No. 007881, contributing building) and the Chatham South Greenhouse (LCS No. 007880, contributing building) are situated immediately south of the Dairy Barn on the northeast and southwest sides of the northern end of the Chatham Brick Entrance Path. The North Greenhouse was built in 1935 and consists of a metal frame superstructure set on 3'-tall brick knee walls. The greenhouse is glazed with rectangular panes of glass set in aluminum frames in the roof, which curves down to a ribbon of rectangular panes set in wood frames atop the brick knee walls. A shallow, wood-frame potting shed attached to the west elevation has an asphalt-shingled end-gable roof, whitepainted clapboard walls, a centered five-panel wood door, and six-over-one windows. The South Greenhouse was constructed in the 1920s and has a metal frame superstructure. Its rectangular glass panes are set in metal frames that rest on 3'-tall brick knee walls topped with vertical single-pane glass windows that intersect with the comice line of the glass roof. A wood-frame potting shed attached to the east elevation has an asphalt-shingled end-gable roof, clapboard walls, a centered four-panel wood door, and six- and nine-light wood casement windows. An external brick chimney pierces the roof of the potting shed at its intersection with the greenhouse, and a metal vent pipe rises from the north slope. Extending south from the North and South Greenhouses are remnants of two sets of hot beds, three North Greenhouse Hot Bed Foundations (contributing structure), constructed in 1935, and four South Greenhouse Hot Bed Foundations (contributing structure), constructed in the 1920s, which consist of

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low, rectangular, brick and concrete block structures. The beds were once heated by underground pipes fed from a boiler below the South Greenhouse.

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Chatham Designed Landscape

The west lawn is divided into three sections: the lawn immediately adjacent to the main house, the upper and lower terraces, and the center embankment. The Chatham Front Retaining Wall and Stair (LCS No. 082037, historic associated feature), designed by Shipman and built between 1922 and 1927 as part of a larger landscaping campaign, delineates the terraces. It consists of 950'-long, 2' 6"-tall, 8"-wide brick walls running north-south on either side of a large brick stair leading to the center embankment. An opening in a perpendicular brick wall at the south end of the terraces is decorated with cast-in-place concrete pineapples on the east and west sides of the opening. The Chatham Music Stair (LCS No. 082031, historic associated feature), designed by Oliver Clarke and built in 1926, connects the upper lawn to the terraces. The curved split stair constructed of brick risers with stone steps and edged with an iron rail terminates at a flagstone patio that connects to the Front Entrance Path. The railing at the top of the stairs consists of wrought iron decorative lyres supporting a music staff with the notes of the opening measures of "Home Sweet Home," by John Howard Payne and Henry R. Bishop.

A series of paths, generally paved with brick or flagstone, provide pedestrian circulation through the grounds. The Chatham Brick Entrance Paths (historic associated feature), laid out between 1922 and 1927, consist of two approximately 9'-wide brick paths laid in a basketweave pattern: one path, laid out by the National Park Service, runs west from the visitor parking area to the west edge of the carriage house; near the north end of the Carriage House and Stable, the second path, laid out during the Devore tenure, runs north to end between the two greenhouses; the center portion of the Chatham Walled Garden Paths intersects with the entrance paths northeast of the garden. The 1922–1927 South Ravine Path (LCS No. 082044, historic associated feature) is an earth and sod path that runs along the north edge of the south ravine to River Road; near the southern edge of the terrace, a set of earth and stone stairs, edged with rubble stone, leads north to the terraces. The Chatham Front Entrance Path (LCS No. 082038, historic associated feature), laid out in 1922-1927, is a narrow flagstone path along the west elevation of the manor from the Chatham Carriage Drive Spur on the south to the north gate in the garden wall, with a segment leading from the west entrance of the house down to the lower edge of the terraces. Picket Fences (historic associated feature) delineate spaces or serve as circulation guides near the southeast corner of the site. A fence and gate post behind the Corn Crib, likely added in 1922-1927, separates the service yard from Chatham Lane, and a contemporaneous fence divides the yard in front of the Caretaker's Cottage from Chatham Lane; a non-historic stretch of fence, added by the National Park Service, extends east from the end of the Boathouse toward the visitor parking lot, guiding visitors toward the Walled Garden and entrance to Chatham Manor.

The Chatham Rotunda (LCS No. 007883, contributing structure), designed by Oliver Clarke and built in 1926 as part of Shipman's landscape design, is located on the south edge of the upper terrace. The limestone rotunda has a domed roof with a large finial at the peak supported by eight Ionic columns around the perimeter of a 16' diameter base constructed of three concentric circles. The Pan Statue (historic associated feature) at the center of the rotunda is a limestone carving of Pan, the Greek god of the wild and shepherds, set on a rectangular stone plinth. The Flora Statue (historic associated feature), a statue of the Roman goddess of flowers and the spring, occupies a rectangular stone plinth with dressed edges and lightly rusticated faces on the lawn north of the rotunda. Originally housed in a temple on the lower terrace, the statue was moved sometime prior to the National Park Service acquisition of the site; the temple is no longer extant. An Exedra Bench (historic associated feature), installed between 1922 and 1927, is located at the north end of the upper terrace, near the Chatham Laundry and Chatham Front Entrance Path. The curved stone bench features carved legs with gryphons at each end. A vacant Stone Plinth (historic associated feature), consisting of an upright, rectangular block of stone atop a square

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base with dressed edges and slightly rusticated faces, sits southwest of the Exedra Bench; the Ceres Statue was likely formerly mounted on this plinth. Two <u>Chatham Fire Hydrants (LCS No. 082053, historic associated features)</u> were installed between 1900 and 1905, one located near the Flora Statue and the other near the Exedra Bench. The pre-fabricated 1' 2"-tall and 4" diameter iron hydrants have a T-shaped handle on the top.

Three Chatham Civil War Grave Markers (LCS No. 007885, contributing objects) on the west terrace mark the locations of Union Civil War soldier interments identified in 1879 by the War Department. Sheltered by a grove of bushes just north of the south ravine, a small square stone block with an illegible inscription, the original marker placed at this location, is accompanied by a larger rectangular granite marker engraved "Unknown Soldier, Civil War" placed later by the National Park Service. The other two grave markers are rectangular granite blocks engraved "U.S.A., Unknown, 1862" and placed nearly flush with the ground. One is located near the terrace wall southwest of the Rotunda, and the other in the middle of a copse of trees at the northwest edge of the terrace near the Carriage Road.

Chatham Walled Garden

The landscape east of the manor house consists of small gardens near the walled garden, with agricultural fields beyond the immediate domestic core; a visitor parking area is also part of the east landscape. The area immediately adjacent to the east side of the manor house contains the Chatham Walled Garden (contributing site), designed by Ellen Biddle Shipman between 1922 and 1927 at the behest of Mrs. Devore and restored by the National Park Service in 1984-1986. The Chatham Rear Garden Wall and Gates (LCS No. 082036, historic associated feature) enclosing the garden consist of a 7'-tall, 8"-thick, Flemish-bond brick wall and wrought iron fences between the manor house and the Laundry and in the middle of the east wall. The wall is connected to most of the outbuildings immediately adjacent to the main house, including the Kitchen, Laundry, and Summer House. The entrance gate in the center of the east wall consists of two wrought iron gates attached to large brick piers with iron straps. The south pier has a small plague affixed to it that reads "Chatham." Boxwoods and low shade plants line the exterior of the garden wall, and semi-circles of juniper extend southwest from the Chatham Brick Entrance Paths on either side of the center garden path, on axis with the Walled Garden and the east entrance of the house. A Ceres Statue (historic associated feature) representing the Roman goddess of agriculture stands on a rectangular stone plinth inside a boxwood circle, where a statue of Diana originally stood. Sometime after 1947, when Mrs. Pratt donated the Diana statue to the Virginia Museum of Fine Arts, the Ceres Statue was likely moved to this location from the west lawn.6 The inner face of the northern portion of the wall near the Ceres Statue is adorned with four concrete busts on small brackets affixed to the wall, with a limestone fish lavabo with a concrete shell basin in the center of the wall. Piers in the wall are topped by alternating concrete jardinière finials (two) and fruit basket finials (three). The garden inside the wall consists of a series of small parterre and quincunx beds laid out on either side of a central walk, dogwood allées, and statuary. The Chatham Garden Paths (LCS No. 082045, historic associated feature) are four flagstone paths through the garden: three running east-west from the north, center, and south of the eastern garden wall and one running north-south from the Laundry to the Kitchen, past the piazza at the entrance to the main house. Portions of the garden paths were resurfaced with fitted slate flagstones in the 1990s.

The collection of Walled Garden Small-Scale Features (historic associated features) placed around the garden consists of a cast concrete bench, a concrete birdbath, an iron armillary sphere on a limestone

⁶ The Ceres Statue may have stood on a currently vacant plinth on the west lawn near the Exedra Bench.

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plinth, lead "Four Seasons" statues on limestone plinths, two lead statues on limestone plinths, four lead urns, two limestone cherubs on plinths, three stone urns, and the headstones for two of the Devore family's pets. Several Marble Garden Benches (historic associated feature) composed of a flat marble seat with rounded edges supported by simply carved marble legs are placed around the garden. The poured concrete Bird Pen Foundations (historic associated feature) along the south wall are the remnants of Colonel Devore's aviary, which included Ring Neck and Golden Pheasants and peacocks. The U-shaped Chatham Garden Pergola (LCS No. 082033, historic associated feature), located inside the southern footpath, is constructed of wood lintels supported by brick piers, Ionic stone pillars, and steel posts. A large, circular stone Walled Garden Well Head (historic associated feature) sits on a stone plinth in the center of the open area that is surrounded by the pergola. The Chatham Lily Pond (LCS No. 007876, historic associated feature), built in 1927 on the north side of the garden in front of the Summer House, is a 7'-wide, 16'-long curved concrete basin with a low fountain at the center. The Garden Bench and Arbor (historic associated feature), located to the east of the pond along the northern footpath, consist of a pair of narrow benches facing each other across the path beneath a wood lattice and arch. Five Chatham Garden Rose Trellises (LCS No. 082047, historic associated feature), constructed of flat iron frames with iron mesh topped with ornamental scrollwork, run north to south near the lily pond and arbor.

Fredericksburg National Cemetery⁷

Administratively part of the Fredericksburg unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, Fredericksburg National Cemetery is located on Willis Hill on the north side of Lafayette Boulevard, approximately 1 mile west of downtown Fredericksburg and immediately adjacent to the park's Fredericksburg Battlefield Visitor Center on the Fredericksburg Battlefield. It is one of 14 national cemeteries administered by the National Park Service, rather than the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA). The irregularly shaped parcel encompasses approximately 12 acres. The burial ground is presently closed to new burials but remains open to visitors. The cemetery is bounded by the winding route of Hazel Run at the base of the hill on the west and south, Lafayette Boulevard on the south and east, the Sunken Road on the east, and additional park land at the top of Willis Hill on the north. Dense woods line the west and south edges outside the cemetery wall.

Established in July 1865 and laid out during the period 1866–1869, the Fredericksburg National Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00063.000, contributing site) occupies a natural bluff between the Sunken Road and the intersection of Lafayette Boulevard and Route 3. The southern and eastern slopes fall sharply away from the roughly level plateau 100′ above the surrounding plain. A series of parallel terraces are cut into the eastern slope, each 8′ to 10′ in height with a 14′- to 17′-wide terreplain. The cemetery's 6,791 individual and mass graves contain the remains of approximately 15,429 individuals (the higher number being due to multiple unknown remains in many graves) who were interred during the period when the cemetery was active from 1866 to 1945. The large majority of interments are Union Civil War soldiers who died during the battles at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the Wilderness, Spotsylvania Court House, Mine Run, or North Anna River or from disease at local camps and bivouacs established between those battles. The low headstones identifying the graves are arranged across the plateau and terraces in a grid of parallel rows around a central flagstaff. Circulation throughout the site consists of the main carriage drive that extends from the entrance gate to the crest of the hill and around the perimeter of the cemetery, grass-covered avenues between the rows and along the edges of the terraces, and a dirt

Portions of the resource descriptions in this section come from Where Valor Proudly Sleeps: A History of Fredericksburg National Cemetery, 1866-1933 by Don Pfanz, U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park, 2007.

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maintenance drive and concrete walkways near the lodge at the cemetery entrance. Large deciduous and conifer trees are scattered across the landscape and along the inside of the perimeter wall, some dating to the cemetery's early development. Shrubs are planted near some monuments and along the driveway past the lodge.

The Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gates and Wall (LCS No. 007888, contributing structure) constructed in 1873 or 1874 surround the cemetery. The brick perimeter wall consists of 20'-long by 4'-tall sections, each with two recessed panels, separated by 4' 6"-tall engaged brick piers with cut brick caps and capped by a two-tiered running brick course. Along the south side of the cemetery, the wall is stepped to account for the steep elevation changes from street level to the plateau of the hill; the remainder of the wall follows the gentle contour of the land. The National Park Service completed an extensive rehabilitation of the entire wall in 2006. Three openings in the east wall at the main cemetery entrance contain wrought-iron swinging gates hanging from granite posts with chamfered edges and pyramidal tops. The large central vehicular entrance with paired gates is flanked on each side by pedestrian entrances with single gates. Cast bronze shields inscribed "U.S. National Cemetery" are affixed to the posts supporting the central gates. A 12'-wide opening in the north wall near the crest of the hill (added in 1882–1883) contains a pair of iron swinging gates hung on slender cylindrical iron posts with ball finials.

The <u>Fredericksburg National Cemetery Hitching Post (LCS No. 081997, historic associated feature)</u>, manufactured by David Pettit & Co. and installed in 1907 outside the cemetery wall at the main cemetery entrance, consists of a 3' 7"-tall, black-painted cast iron post topped by a silver-painted horse's head with a small ring at the base.

The 1866–1870 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Roads (LCS No. 081993, contributing structure) serve as the primary circulation routes through the cemetery. The main carriage drive leads west up Willis Hill from the cemetery entrance at the Sunken Road. About halfway up the hill, the road divides into north and south branches that continue up the hill to the plateau, run along the crest of the hill to the perimeter wall, then run along the inside of the wall to encircle the plateau and meet at the west end of the cemetery. The 8'-wide roadbed is paved in concrete from the main entrance gate to the split; the south branch is paved in brick to the plateau. The remainder of the south branch and all of the north branch consist of gravel and sod tracks. Additional turf avenues traversing at right angles to each other divide the cemetery into sections; two steep turf roads also run along the edge of the terraces adjacent to the perimeter wall. Originally constructed with gravel surfaces and brick gutters, the roads were changed to turf and the brick gutters removed in 1878–1882.

A pair of brick Fredericksburg National Cemetery Steps (LCS No. 081995, historic associated feature), constructed in 1875 to replace wood steps in the same locations, provide access between the terraces. One set of steps is located adjacent to the turf road along the south wall, the other is roughly centered between the south wall and the main carriage drive. Both sets consist of nine flights of four to eight steps with each flight measuring approximately 4' wide, 10" deep, and 9" tall.

The approximately 6,791 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Grave Markers (LCS No. 082029, historic associated features) mark the 15,429 interments at Fredericksburg National Cemetery. Most of the markers were installed in 1874 to replace the painted wood headboards initially used to mark the burials. The vast majority (more than 80%) of burials at Fredericksburg are unidentified. The low granite blocks marking these gravesites measure 6" square and 30" long, with only the top 4" above the ground. They are incised on the top face with the grave number and the number of interments if more than one. The granite slab headstones marking the gravesites of identified soldiers are 10" wide by 4" deep and

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extend 1' above the ground and 2' below it. They have a slightly rounded top and are incised on the front with the soldier's name, rank for officers, and home state; the grave number is chiseled into the top of the stone. The cemetery also contains approximately 18 privately funded headstones that identify other nineteenth-century graves of Civil War soldiers, as well as some later government-issued headstones.

The Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge (LCS No. 007889, ASMIS No. FRSP00063.001, contributing building), just inside the cemetery walls on the north side of the main carriage drive, was constructed 1871-1874 as the first permanent residence for the cemetery superintendent near the site of an earlier temporary frame residence. Occupied by the superintendent through 1940, the lodge has been used sporadically as housing for park employees since. The building adheres to the standardized drawings for a Second Empire style, two-story, L-shaped stone lodge designed by Quartermaster General Montgomery C. Meigs for all national cemeteries in 1871. The original one-story flat-roof building was completed in 1871, and the second story was added in 1873-1874. A two-story kitchen ell added in 1905 extends the original front ell to the rear (north) to create a T-plan, and a one-story flat-roof porch attached to the north elevation of the addition was enclosed sometime after 1940. The lodge's mansard roof is clad in octagonal slate shingles and features large dentil molding along the overhanging cornice line and two brick interior chimneys. A wood-floored front porch with a shallow hipped roof clad in standing-seam metal and supported by slender wood posts is located at the inside (southeast) corner of the original ell. The main building, including the rear kitchen ell, is constructed of random-coursed sandstone blocks, some reputedly taken from the nearby stone wall along the Sunken Road. The enclosed rear porch has a flat membrane roof and wood board-and-batten walls. A set of exterior concrete stairs along the north wall of the original main building lead to a coal cellar added in 1929. The lodge's first-story window openings contain six-over-six double-hung wood sash and have dressed stone lintels and sills. The ten gabled second-story dormer windows contain paired two-light wood casements. A plaque placed on the south wall in 1909 bears the text of President Lincoln's Gettysburg Address.

The Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge Driveway (LCS No. 081996, contributing structure), constructed in 1889 along the lowest terrace in the east slope, connects the main carriage drive to the main tenance area behind the lodge. It consists of a pair of dirt carriage tracks that run east—west from the main carriage drive to the north boundary wall, past the National Cemetery Lodge and National Cemetery Garage. The Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge Walks (LCS No. 082012, historic associated feature), constructed ca. 1866–1870, are 4'-wide concrete pathways (originally paved in brick) that lead from the north pedestrian gate at the main entrance west along the main carriage drive, rising in five gradual steps, before turning 90 degrees to the north toward the lodge front porch, then following closely around the east side of the building to the rear porch.

The 1961 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Garage/Equipment Shed (non-contributing building) is a large one-story, rectangular, cinderblock building oriented along a north-south axis about 25' north of the lodge, on the site of an earlier brick toolhouse. The shallow-pitched side-gable roof is clad in asphalt shingles and has a metal-clad chimney at the north end of the west slope. The building has a poured concrete slab foundation with an asphalt apron along the facade (west) elevation. Two eight-panel wood vertical lift doors with rectangular glass panes in the upper six panels are symmetrically positioned at either end of the facade. A single vertical board door is centered in the wall between the two doors, which is covered with vertical board siding.

⁸ Although the garage/equipment shed was constructed during the period of significance, it is evaluated as a non-contributing resource because it does not relate to the cemetery's original design and is an intrusion on the overall landscape.

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The ca. 1905 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Flagpole (contributing object) stands on the west side of the main carriage drive where its south branch crests the hill. The 75'-tall single-masted steel pole is topped with ornamental ball finials and flanked by two pyramidal stacks of cannonballs. Before 1905, the cemetery's flagstaff (initially a 125'-tall pole, replaced at least twice by shorter poles after storms) occupied a large circular mound farther west, at the intersection of two avenues near the center of the plateau. Four 1868 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gun Monuments (historic associated features) are arranged around the former flagstaff location in a square positioned 45 degrees off north. The gun monuments are black-painted Columbiad cannon tubes installed upright with the muzzle pointing down. A bronze shield-shaped plaque affixed to the southeastern monument in 1874 reads: "United States/ National Military Cemetery/ Fredericksburg/ Established July 15th 1865/ Interments 15243/ Known 2473/ Unknown 12770."

The former flagstaff location at the center of the four gun monuments is now occupied by the Humphreys' Division Monument (LCS No. 007865, contributing object). A set of brick-paved carriage tracks leads west from the main carriage drive almost to the east-facing monument. Dedicated in 1908 in honor of General Andrew A. Humphreys' division of the Fifth Corps, the 20'-tall monument consists of a bronze statue of Humphreys sculpted by Herbert Adams set on a square pink granite pedestal with beveled corners and a base composed of concentric pink granite octagons. Three of the pedestal's polished stone faces are inset with bronze letters (some of which the National Park Service has replaced in kind); the west face is unadorned.

Several other monuments and commemorative objects dot the cemetery landscape, mainly near the east edge of the plateau. Six of the at least ten original <u>Bivouac of the Dead Tablets (LCS No. 082030, contributing objects)</u>, installed ca. 1882 along the edge of the plateau on both sides of the main carriage drive, remain extant. The 1'-x-2' cast-iron tablets, painted white with black lettering, all face west so that the reader looks down over the terraces in the east slope. Each tablet bears a verse from Theodore O'Hara's 1850 poem "Bivouac of the Dead," written in honor of the Second Kentucky Regiment at the Battle of Buena Vista in the Mexican War.

The V Corps, Army of the Potomac Monument (LCS No. 007866, contributing object), erected 1900–1901 by the Society of the Army of the Potomac, is located near the entrance to the cemetery on the south side of the main carriage drive. Also called the Butterfield Monument, the 38'-tall granite monument comprises a Doric column set on a 9' tall square base. The column is capped by a polished ball with a flame protruding from the top, a band of carved stone laurel spirals down around the column, and carved stone oak leaves wreath the base and top of the column. Rectangular bronze plaques are affixed to each face of the base.

The 127th Pennsylvania Monument (LCS No. 007868, contributing object), dedicated June 1906 by veterans of the One Hundred Twenty-Seventh Pennsylvania Regiment, is located near the National Cemetery Flagpole. The 15'-tall gray granite marker consists of a 4'-x-2.5' polished rectangular shaft with a carved pyramidal cap, set on a base of five stepped rectangular slabs with rough dressed faces. The east face of the monument features a carved stone palm branch curving over an arched opening that contains a carved stone clover. The first three steps of the base have partially polished east faces inscribed, respectively, "3rd Brigade," "2nd Division," and "2nd Corps." An approximately 3'-x-2' bronze plaque is affixed to the west face of the monument.

Veterans of the Eighty-Third New York Volunteers erected the <u>Moesch Monument (LCS No. 007867</u>, <u>contributing object)</u> at the edge of the plateau in 1890 to mark the gravesite of their commander, Colonel

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Joseph A. Moesch, who died at the Wilderness. The 6'-tall monument consists of a monolithic granite shaft with a pyramidal cap set on a rectangular base. The four sides of the monument are polished. A bronze circle with the insignia of the 9th New York State Guard is affixed to the south face, and one with the New York state seal is affixed to the north face.

The <u>Parker's Battery Marker (LCS No. 081991, contributing object)</u> installed in 1973 near the southwest corner of the site is the only Confederate monument in the cemetery. It consists of a 1'6"-x-2'6" cast bronze tablet affixed to a short 3'-x-2' marble block set into the ground within a cluster of arbor vitae.

Fredericksburg Battlefield10

One of three areas within the Fredericksburg administrative unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, the <u>Fredericksburg Battlefield (contributing site)</u> encompasses two main portions of the battlefield: the northern portion located approximately 1 mile west of downtown Fredericksburg and immediately adjacent to the Fredericksburg National Cemetery and the southern portion running south along Lee Drive from its intersection with Lafayette Boulevard to its terminus north of Benchmark Road. The site also includes a small 0.89-acre parcel between the Rappahannock River and the east side of Sophia Street in downtown Fredericksburg, across from Chatham. Battlefield preservation groups and other private interests own portions of the Fredericksburg battlefield lands that lie outside the District boundary.

Marye's Heights and Willis Hill

The northern portion of the Fredericksburg Battlefield site encompasses just over 50 acres on and at the base of Willis Hill that are associated with the Union attacks on Confederate positions along Marye's Heights during the First and Second Battles of Fredericksburg, including the Sunken Road and the Innis House, which was present at the time of the battle. The small, irregularly shaped parcel is roughly bounded by Hanover Street on the north, Willis Street on the east, Lafayette Boulevard (US Business Route 1) on the south, and Fredericksburg National Cemetery and University of Mary Washington property on the west. It is predominantly surrounded by suburban residential development. In addition to the roadbed and stone wall, the parcel includes the remains of Civil War earthworks, a Civil War-era house, several nineteenth- and twentieth-century commemorative objects, and the park's 1930s visitor center complex. An additional parking area for visitors is located at the southeast corner of the parcel, on the lot at the intersection of Lafayette Boulevard and Willis Street acquired by the National Park Scrvice in 1991. The ground slopes upward from the relatively flat Sunken Road and adjoining maintained grassy spaces to the top of Willis Hill. A curtain of deciduous trees separates the immediate Sunken Road area from the adjoining Willis Street residential neighborhood, and other large trees dot the landscape:

Portions of the resource descriptions in this section are adapted from Cultural Landscapes Inventory – Sunken Road Landscape, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, Olmsted Center for Landscape Preservation, National Park Service, Boston, MA, 2011.

⁹ In accordance with guidance issued by the National Park Service for National Register evaluation and registration of national cemeteries, the period of significance for Fredericksburg National Cemetery extends from its establishment in 1865 through the present (National Park Service 2011:3-4).

¹¹ The University of Mary Washington property adjacent to the site includes a modern athletics complex and the 1830s Brompton estate (NRIS# 79003279, listed July 24, 1979, now the home of the University's President) along the northwest side of the Sunken Road. The Brompton parcel is included within the authorized boundary of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP but excluded from the National Register District boundary.

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The <u>Sunken Road (LCS No. 000429, CLI No. 153916, ASMIS No. FRSP00052.001, contributing structure)</u> forms the spine of this portion of the battlefield site and is used for pedestrian circulation. Originally constructed in the 1810s, the road is 12' wide and runs 480' north to south along the base of Willis Hill between Hanover Street and Lafayette Boulevard. The City of Fredericksburg maintained the road for vehicular traffic until 2004 when the National Park Service took over its management. The Park Service removed the road's asphalt pavement and installed the current clay and crushed stone surfacing. The <u>Sunken Road Wall (LCS No. 082079, CLI No. 153797, contributing structure)</u> consists of the extant restored portions of an 1800–1840 stone wall that run along both sides of the road at the north end of the parcel. Constructed of dry laid stones stacked 2' to 5' wide and 2' tall, the restored wall runs 200' on the east and 400' on the west side of the road and functions as a retaining wall in places. The <u>Sunken Road Reconstructed Wall (LCS No. 082080, CLI No. 154263, contributing structure)</u> is a reconstruction of the historic wall that runs 670' along the east side of the road from a point slightly north of the Innis House to the National Cemetery entrance. The CCC reconstructed the southern portion in 1939 as part of the initial park development campaign, and the National Park Service reconstructed the northern portion in 2004. The stacked, mortared wall is 2' tall by 4' wide.

The Innis House (LCS No. 007871, CLI No. 153761, ASMIS No. FRSP00056.000, contributing building), a small two-story wood-frame house constructed ca. 1859 and acquired by the National Park Service in 1969, is the only extant Civil War-era building within the Fredericksburg Battlefield site. Also known as the Ennis House, it is located near the east side of the Sunken Road, just south of the intersection with Kirkland Street, and is angled slightly southeast from the road. The three-bay-by-two-bay, Victorian Gothic house has a side-gable roof clad in wood shingles with decorative bargeboards at each gable end. A one-story lean-to attached to the south elevation encloses the lower portion of an exterior brick chimney centered on the end wall. White-painted clapboards cover the walls of the main house, while the lean-to has white-painted board-and-batten siding. The entire house is set on a stone foundation. Wood-panel doors are located in the east and west elevations; a two-light transom surmounts the west door. Windows include six-over-six and two-over-four double-hung wood sash with plain board surroundings and shutters. The Innis House shows evidence of being caught in the crossfire between the warring Confederate and Federal armies, with holes from bullets piercing the exterior siding and interior wood paneling.

Two contributing resources are located on the hill to the west of the Sunken Road and north of the National Cemetery. A portion of the Confederate Line (LCS No. 007858, CLI No. 153257, ASMIS No. FRSP00169.000, historic associated feature), consisting of a series of linear earthworks that are part of the Fredericksburg Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure), run along the crest of Marye's Heights, which together with the Sunken Road formed the Confederate defenses in this area. The sod-covered fortifications are approximately 3' tall and 3' to 5' wide. The Willis Family Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00037.000, contributing site), established by 1756, is located at the top of Willis Hill just outside the National Cemetery's north perimeter wall. The Wellford family owns the one-acre site surrounded by an approximately 5' 6"-tall brick wall, but the National Park Service maintains it. An iron gate is centered in the east wall. The burial ground's 35 gravestones vary from simple slate or granite slabs to elaborate Gothic Revival-style markers. Many retain evidence of damage received during the Civil War.

The Fredericksburg Visitor Center complex, laid out by the CCC in 1935–1936, is located on the north side of Lafayette Boulevard, immediately east of the Sunken Road, and consists of the Visitor Center, a CCC-era maintenance building, and a smaller storage building, all accessed by an asphalt-paved entrance

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drive that runs north from Lafayette Boulevard, the primary visitor access to the Sunken Road area. East of the Visitor Center, the entrance drive splits, with one spur terminating north of the building at a large parking lot, and the other looping west and south to reconnect with Lafayette Boulevard in front of the building.

The Fredericksburg Visitor Center (LCS No. 082069, CLI No. 153853, contributing building), constructed in 1935-1936, is a two-story, late Georgian style, brick building at the north side of the entrance loop that faces south toward Lafayette Boulevard. The three-bay-by-two-bay end-gable building has one-story side-gable ells attached to the east and west elevations, all on a raised brick foundation. The roofs are clad in slate shingles and trimmed with dentiled cornices. The pedimented gable peaks are clad in white-painted weatherboards. A brick chimney pierces the west roof slope on the main block. A brick and concrete ramp and a run of six stone steps lead to the main entrance centered in the facade within an arched opening with a fanlight and sidelights. An additional entrance centered on the (north) parking lot side of the building is set within an arched surround with engaged pilasters and a gable pediment. Fenestration consists primarily of nine-over-six, double-hung wood sash surmounted by cast stone lintels. Round oculus windows are centered in each of the main block's gable peaks; the side ell gables have halfround louvers. Windows in the basement level contain six-over-six, double-hung sash surmounted by splayed brick lintels and protected by metal latticed screens. The building initially housed a grand entrance hall and office space in the central two-story portion and a lecture hall and museum space in the two wings. Interior renovations in 1983-1984 included the removal of two walls and an office on the main floor and the reconfiguration of the space to house an enlarged lobby and sales area. More recent renovations to the museum exhibit spaces occurred in 2013–2014.

The Fredericksburg Visitor Center Entrance Loop (LCS No. 082123, CLI No. 153645, contributing structure), laid out in 1935–1936, encircles the Fredericksburg Visitor Center and connects Lafayette Boulevard to a parking area on the north side of the building. The asphalt-paved roadway lined with concrete curbs is 20' wide at the entrance and narrows to 16' wide beyond the entrance. The paved parking lot runs approximately north-south from the entrance loop with parking spaces on both sides. The Fredericksburg Visitor Center Walkways (LCS No. 082070, CLI No. 153621, contributing structure), likely constructed during the National Park Service Mission 66 program, provide pedestrian circulation around the Visitor Center. The brick sidewalks are laid in a herringbone pattern and are 5' wide at the rear of the building, widening to 8' at the front.

Two park-related outbuildings are located behind the Visitor Center along the east side of the parking lot. The **Fredericksburg Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082071, CLI No. 153859, contributing building)**, constructed in 1935–1936 as a maintenance garage and converted to a park bookstore in 1992–1993, is oriented north to south at the south end of the parking area. The one-story brick building has a side-gable roof clad in slate shingles, exterior chimneys centered at both ends, and a 'brick foundation. The five-bay facade (west) elevation features three large arched openings flanked by rectangular wood doors. Arched wood double doors cover a rectangular plate-glass door in the center opening with sidelights and a three-light arched transom. The two arched openings on either side of the entrance contain non-functional arched wood doors. A shallow wood ramp leads to the rectangular door in the southernmost bay, which provides access to public restrooms. Four gabled dormers lining the west roof slope contain six-over-six, double-hung wood sash. The **Fredericksburg Visitor Center Storage Building (contributing building)**, built ca. 1950, is at the north end of the parking area and also oriented north to south. The small rectangular brick building has a side-gable roof clad in slate shingles and a brick foundation. An engaged porch supported by a single square wood pillar at the southwest corner shelters a

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recessed six-panel door in the west elevation. A second six-panel door is centered in the west wall adjacent to the porch. The building also has two-over-two, double-hung metal windows.

A stone outline on the east side of the Sunken Road, just north of the Visitor Center parking area, marks the footprint of the Stevens house that stood on the Stevens House Site (CLI No. 154203, ASMIS No. FRSP00034.000, contributing site) during the Civil War. Archeological investigations of the site conclusively identified the foundation footprint on which the visible marker is placed, and a midden feature associated with the Stevens occupation. The Fredericksburg chapter of the UDC placed the Martha Stevens Stone (LCS No. 082074, CLI No. 153877, contributing object) at the east edge of the road near the house site in 1917. The granite block is 2' tall, 1' 8" wide, and 1' 1" thick and has a dressed slanted face.

Nearby, the Martha Stevens Grave Urn (LCS No. 082075, CLI No. 153883, contributing object), placed in 1960 by Stevens descendants, marks her gravesite in the Stevens Family Cemetery (contributing site), consisting of an open grassy space with unmarked graves, save for the Martha Stevens Urn, sited north of the Stevens House Site. The preformed cast concrete urn is 2'9" tall and 1'10 in wide at the top. The National Park Service likely constructed the Stevens Well House (non-contributing structure) just south of the Stevens house outline after it acquired the property in 1969. The small, rectangular, wood-frame well house is set on a slightly raised, square wood plank base. It has a shallow-pitched gable roof clad in wood shingles and supported on narrow wood posts. The sides of the well house are clad in horizontal weatherboards.

Opposite the well house, on the west side of the Sunken Road, Brigadier General Thomas Cobb's family erected the <u>Cobb Monument (LCS No. 007869, CLI No. 153899, contributing object)</u> ca. 1888 to mark the location where Cobb was mortally wounded in 1862. One of the oldest commemorative objects in the park, the monument consists of a 3'-tall, 2'-wide, and 1'-deep granite block on a concrete base. "COBB" is inscribed on the block's east face, and the slightly slanted top face bears an inscription.

The ca. 1882–1889 Richardson House Entrance Drive (non-contributing structure) runs southwest from the Sunken Road to the top of Marye's Heights, the former site of the Richardson House and later Montfort Academy, a private Catholic school for grades 1 through 8 that operated from 1948 to 1998. The drive, likely laid out by Charles Richardson when he constructed his house on Willis Hill (later part of the Montfort Academy complex), consists of a one-lane, asphalt-paved road, with ashlar granite pillars leading to low stone walls at the entrance. The National Park Service removed the Academy buildings between 1999 and 2014 and installed wood gates just west of the stone pillars to restrict vehicular access.

The Fredericksburg Centennial Commission dedicated the **Kirkland Monument (LCS No. 080002, CLI No. 153913, contributing object)**, located on a low grassy terrace surrounded by asphalt walkways edged with flagstone at the northeast intersection of Kirkland Street and the Sunken Road, in 1965 in honor of Confederate Sergeant Richard Kirkland of the Second South Carolina Volunteers. Kirkland was known as "The Angel of Marye's Heights" for his compassion during the Battle of Fredericksburg, when he brought water to wounded Federal soldiers. World-renowned artist Felix de Weldon sculpted the life-size bronze statue of Kirkland bending over to give water from a canteen to a wounded Federal soldier. The statue is set on a rectangular, black marble base (approximately 3' tall, 9' long, and 5.5' wide) within a low holly hedge enclosure added by the National Park Service ca. 1990. Each of the four sides of the monument is engraved.

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The <u>Battle of Fredericksburg UDC Marker (LCS No. 082081, CLI No. 153969, contributing object)</u>, one of the three 1927 UDC markers within the District described at the beginning of Section 7, is located at the southeast corner of the intersection of the Sunken Road and Hanover Street.

The National Park Service owns two non-contributing houses on the west side of Willis Street. 522 Willis Street (non-contributing building), constructed in 1949, is a two-story brick house with a side-gable roof clad in asphalt shingles, a one-story hip-roof entry porch, six-over-six double-hung aluminum windows, and a concrete foundation. A narrow two-track concrete driveway runs along the south side of the house, which is set close to the street on a grass-covered lot. 526 Willis Street (non-contributing building), constructed in 1953, is a one-story L-shaped brick house on a slightly elevated grassy terrace directly north of 522 Willis Street. It has a side-gable roof clad in asphalt shingles, a shed-roof porch along a portion of the facade (east elevation), and a cinderblock foundation. Fenestration consists of a tripartite picture window and six-over-one, double-hung wood sash. A concrete driveway along the north side of the house leads to the 526 Willis Street Garage (non-contributing building) at the northwest corner of the lot. The one-story two-car garage, likely constructed at the same time as the house, has an end-gable, asphalt-shingled roof; weatherboard walls; a poured concrete foundation; and six-over-six, double-hung windows.

Sophia Street Parcel

The discontiguous Sophia Street parcel owned by the National Park Service slopes down toward the Rappahannock River from the street edge between two residential properties. The open grass-covered lot, which was the site of the northernmost pontoon bridge landing, is largely vacant, containing only two small monuments. The parcel is screened from adjoining parcels by low boxwood shrubs.

The <u>Pontoon Bridge Marker (LCS No. 082077, contributing object)</u> is a small, rough-cut granite block placed by the UDC in 1917 near the river's edge. The marker measures 1' 3" tall, 2' 5" wide, and 1' 3" deep.

The 7th Michigan Monument (non-contributing object), erected in 2003 by Seventh Michigan Volunteer Infantry, Company B reenactors, is located at the edge of the street. It consists of a rounded boulder of Michigan granite measuring approximately 5' wide, almost 4' tall, and almost 3' deep on a concrete pad. A 3' x-2' bronze plaque is affixed to the west face of the boulder.

Lee Drive Area

The long, irregularly shaped southern portion of the Fredericksburg Battlefield site follows the central spine of Lee Drive and encompasses the sites of combat during the First and Second Battles of Fredericksburg and Confederate winter encampments between those battles. The approximately 1,320-acre parcel is bounded by CSX Railroad tracks along the east and northeast, Mine Road along the south, and residential neighborhoods and light industrial sites on the east and west. This portion of the battlefield contains several miles of Confederate defensive earthworks and a number of artillery emplacements, as well as Robert E. Lee's command post on Telegraph Hill (now Lee's Hill) near the northern end. The landscape consists predominantly of successional-growth forests and large open fields, particularly at the south end, which Lee and his men used to their advantage to conceal artillery pieces in some areas while repulsing the Federal troops across an open field of fire. Deep Run, a tributary of the Rappahannock River, crosses the northern portion of the site. Pull-offs, overlooks, and walking trails from the 1930s and Mission 66 park development periods and later facilitate access to various points of interest along the

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road, including artillery positions and lines of earthworks. Walking trails lead to open vistas across battlefield and plantation sites and through the woods past earthworks and batteries constructed by Confederate troops during the Civil War. Several maintenance and residential buildings constructed by the CCC and War Department are located on the west side of Lee Drive, near Howison Hill.

The Fredericksburg Confederate Earthworks consist of linear earthworks and three artillery emplacements constructed for the 1862 Battle of Fredericksburg. The Confederate Line encompasses all the linear earthworks located within the Fredericksburg Battlefield site and consists of 5 miles of earthworks, 2' to 4' wide and 3' to 5' tall with a 2' to 4' deep, and 7' wide outer trench, as well as the previously discussed earthworks along Marye's Heights. The Lee Hill Artillery Position (LCS No. 007857, ASMIS No. FRSP00148.000, historic associated feature) is an approximately 20'-wide, Lshaped earthwork at the top of Lee's Hill on the west side of Lee Drive, near the north end of the road. Confederate General Robert E. Lee used the hill, known as Telegraph Hill in 1862, as an overlook during the Battle of Fredericksburg. During the Second Battle of Fredericksburg, Union forces captured the hill from Confederates on May 3, 1863; the Confederates reoccupied the hill and launched attacks from it the next day. The earthwork is 70' long and 20' wide and has a gun emplacement. The Howison Hill Artillery Position (LCS No. 007859, ASMIS No. FRSP00147.000, historic associated feature) is an L-shaped emplacement on the west side of Lee Drive, north of Deep Run. It has a 3'- to 5'-wide, 2'- to 3'tall parapet. The Prospect Hill Artillery Position (LCS No. 007860, ASMIS No. FRSP00065.000, historic associated feature) at the southern end of the site, on the east side of Lee Drive, consists of 14 gun emplacements arranged in two U-shaped lines, with radiating infantry support trenches 4' wide and 15' deep.

Lee Drive (LCS No. 082056, contributing structure), a curvilinear two-lane asphalt road begun by the War Department in 1928 and completed by the CCC by 1940, runs south through successional growth from Lafayette Boulevard for approximately 2.6 miles, then crosses Lansdowne Road (Route 638) and runs southeast for another 2.1 miles to an open field and parking area at Prospect Hill. It follows the general path of the Civil War earthworks in the area, crossing them six times along its length. The southernmost third of the road follows the alignment of a Civil War military road built in 1862. CCC workers constructed the Lee Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082057, historic associated feature) that provide drainage along the length of the road and the Lee Drive Bridges (LCS No. 082058, historic associated feature) north and south of the intersection with Lansdowne Road. Several asphalt-paved spurs branch off the northern portion of Lee Drive (between Lafayette Boulevard and Lansdowne Road). The War Department Maintenance Area Road (LCS No. 082131, historic associated feature), built 1928-1934, curves southeast from the west side of the road for approximately one-tenth of a mile through a wooded area to access a park maintenance building complex (described below). The Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive (LCS No. 082065, historic associated feature), built in 1938 or 1939, heads west from the beginning of the maintenance area road for approximately 0.1 mile through a wooded area before curving south to terminate in a loop at the park superintendent's residence (described below). Two Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082066, historic associated feature) provide drainage at low areas along the drive. Farther south, Pickett's Turnout (LCS No. 082061, historic associated feature) runs east through the successional growth forest from Lee Drive to open out onto a picnic area, cul-de-sac with parking, and overlook. The Pickett's Turnout Culverts (LCS No. 082062, historic associated feature) provide drainage for the grassy area at the center of the cul-de-sac. The Bridle Trail Steps (LCS No. 082063, contributing structure) on the northeast side of Pickett's Turnout lead to a bridle trail laid out by the CCC between 1933 and 1935. They consist of four 5'-wide, 5"-tall steps constructed from rough-cut stone blocks.

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A nearly overgrown trace of <u>Braehead Road (LCS No. 082059</u>, contributing structure), a ca. 1800 gravel access road used by both Federal and Confederate troops during the 1862 Battle of Fredericksburg, runs southwest from Lee Drive through successional growth forest, just north of the War Department Maintenance Area and Superintendent's Quarters, to the privately owned Braehead Estate outside the District. Only 330' of the 12'-wide road falls within the District boundary.

The Coolidge Dedication Monument (LCS No. 082055, contributing object), dedicated by President Calvin Coolidge in 1928 to mark the beginning of park construction, is located in a grassy island created by the Y-intersection of Lee Drive and Lafayette Boulevard. The monument consists of a roughly 3'-x-2.5' bronze tablet affixed to the south face of a large boulder measuring approximately 6' tall, 6' wide, and 2.5' thick.

Park visitor facilities dating from the early park development and Mission 66 periods provide access to the Lee Hill and Prospect Hill artillery positions, both of which are also identified by 1903 Smith markers. The 1962 Lee Hill Trail (contributing structure) is a wide, paved, switchback path that leads from a small parking area near the north end of Lee Drive to the top of Lee's Hill. The 1962 Lee Hill Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure) at the top of the hill faces southeast toward the Fredericksburg battlefield lands, providing a view similar to Lee's in 1862. The one-story structure consists of three walls constructed of brick laid in a common bond on a concrete pad that extends beyond the walls. A large flat roof resting on horizontal I-beams seated atop the brick walls protects the interpretive panels affixed to the interior of the kiosk walls. The Lee Hill Seating Discs (contributing object), installed in 1962 on the concrete pad southeast of the kiosk, are three large cantilevered concrete discs intended as visitor seating. Metal triangles embedded in the top disc point toward Washington, DC; Fredericksburg; and Richmond. The 1903 Lee Hill Monument (LCS No. 007862, contributing object) is located between the visitor kiosk and the artillery position to the east.

The CCC constructed the <u>Prospect Hill Steps (LCS No. 082068, contributing structure)</u> at the south end of Lee Drive between 1933 and 1940. The four steps are 6'-wide, 5"-tall granite blocks that provide access from the north edge of the parking area to the former site of a visitor contact station (removed ca. 1963) near the Prospect Hill earthworks. The 1903 <u>Prospect Hill Monument (LCS No. 007863, contributing object)</u>, also referred to as the "Jackson on the Field" marker, is located near the steps.

The Jackson Monument/Meade Pyramid (LCS No. 007864, contributing object), erected in 1898 by the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad at the behest of the Confederate Memorial Literary Society, is on the north side of the CSX Railroad tracks that run through the southern end of the site. It is visible from Lee Drive just north of Prospect Hill. Modeled after a stone pyramid erected at Hollywood Cemetery in Richmond, the 24'-tall monument is constructed of rubble stone blocks found along the railroad right-of-way and has a 30' square base.

The maintenance building complex off Lee Drive, constructed by the War Department between 1928 and 1933, includes four buildings arranged in a horseshoe around a central paved yard at the end of the Maintenance Area Road. A chain-link fence encloses the complex. The War Department Maintenance Office (LCS No. 083057, contributing building) is at the north end of the west side of the yard and faces east. The one-story, three-bay-by-two-bay, wood-frame building has an end-gable, asphalt-shingled roof with slightly overhanging eaves. The walls are clad in clapboards, and the building has a concrete foundation. A gabled hood supported by wood brackets shelters the entrance centered in the east elevation. Two six-over-six, double-hung wood windows with plain board surrounds are symmetrically placed in each wall. The War Department Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082060, contributing

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building) is a long rectangular wood-frame building directly south of the office. The one-story, eleven-bay-by-one-bay building has a shallow-pitched side-gable roof, flush vertical board walls, and a concrete pad foundation. A small lean-to is attached to the south elevation. The first four bays from the north and the two southernmost bays are enclosed, while the five bays between are open on the east side to the yard and separated by bracketed wood posts. A shallow shed-roof hood shelters a door in the northernmost enclosed bay, and paired one-over-one, double-hung wood sash are centered in the next three bays. Overhead garage doors are centered in the two enclosed south bays. The wood-frame structure at the south end of the yard is a partially enclosed, one-story, wood-frame structure with a corrugated metal shed roof. The north side of the structure is open to the yard. The other three walls are clad in corrugated metal siding on the top half and flush horizontal boards on the bottom. The War Department Log Garage (LCS No. 083058, contributing building) along the east side of the yard is a one-story, two-bay-by-one-bay building constructed of debarked saddle-notched logs. It has a side-gable roof with slightly overhanging eaves, clad in standing-seam metal. Plywood and flush vertical board siding cover much of the west elevation, which has a recessed steel double door centered in the north bay.

Two residential buildings are located in a clearing in the woods west of the maintenance building complex, accessed by the Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive. The Superintendent's Quarters (LCS No. 082064, contributing building), constructed in 1938–1939 by the CCC, is on the east side of the entrance drive loop and faces west. The two-story, late Georgian Revival style, brick house has a sidegable roof clad in slate shingles, a molded cornice with deep returns, and a brick foundation. A one-story wing, with a slightly steeper side-gable roof and flush horizontal board siding on the east and west walls, is attached to the north elevation. The main house has a brick chimney at each end of the roof ridge, and the wing has a smaller brick chimney at the north end. Two shallow brick steps lead to the entrance centered in the facade (west) elevation of the house, which is slightly recessed in an arched surround with a fanlight and sidelights. The rear (east) elevation features a central cross gable with a fanlight and a onestory brick porch across the three central bays. The porch has a flat roof with a wide entablature supported by six wood Doric columns. It shelters a central entrance consisting of a pair of eight-light wood doors protected by louvered wood panels and surrounded by engaged pilasters and an arched louver. A small, partially enclosed, shed-roof porch is located at an entrance in the north end of the wing. The primary fenestration consists of symmetrically placed, six-over-six, double-hung wood windows with splayed brick lintels and louvered wood shutters. An arched opening centered in each gable end is flanked by two rectangular fixed six-light windows. Both arched openings are filled with a wood panel, and the east window in the north gable end contains a louvered vent. Two gabled dormers with six-light casement windows pierce the north wing's east and west slopes, and a fixed four-light window is centered in the north gable end of the wing. The Superintendent's Quarters Brick Walkway and Patio (contributing structure) consists of a brick patio southeast of the house and a narrow brick walkway leading to the east porch. The brickwork is partially obscured by grass and moss infill.

A short paved spur leads west from the Superintendent's Entrance Drive, just before the loop, to access the Superintendent's Garage (LCS No. 082010, contributing building), also constructed in 1938–1939. The one-story, two-bay, brick garage is south of the spur and faces north. It has an asymmetrical, steeply pitched, side-gable roof clad in slate shingles, with two gabled dormers in the north slope. The gable ends are clad in flush horizontal wood siding. Each garage bay in the facade (north) elevation contains a wood-paneled, vertical lift door with eight lights in the second row. A nine-light wood-paneled door is located in the north end of the east elevation; and a small, one-story, brick ell extends from the south end. The ell has a door centered in the north elevation and a wood-railed porch on the flat roof, accessed by a nine-light wood-paneled door centered in the east gable end of the garage.

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The Natural Resources Office (non-contributing building) at 11003 Parkview Drive, constructed ca. 1967 and also known as Quarters #15, is located on the west side of Lee Drive, just north of the intersection with Lansdowne Road. There is no access to the building from Lee Drive. The one-story, brick ranch house, seated on a concrete foundation, has a hip roof with a large central chimney and a two-car garage on a poured concrete slab attached to the south elevation. Fenestration consists of large picture windows and one-over-one aluminum sash.

Jackson Shrine

The Jackson Shrine unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP is 15 miles south of Fredericksburg at Guinea Station, a former stop on the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad. It encompasses just over 27 acres of the 740-acre antebellum plantation known as Fairfield, where Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson was taken for treatment and died after he was wounded at Chancellorsville.

The Jackson Shrine Site (Fairfield/Confederate Supply Depot) (ASMIS No. FRSP00087.000, contributing site) is a rectangular parcel bounded on the west by CSX Railroad tracks, on the north by private land, on the east by Artillery Drive, and on the south by Stonewall Jackson Road (Route 606). An entrance road to the site runs northwest from Stonewall Jackson Road, then turns northeast and terminates in a loop with parking along the northwest side. The site consists predominantly of a large, flat, open field, edged with successional-growth forest on the north, south, and east that separates the site from suburban residential development beyond; a large open field occupies the west side of the CSX tracks. The only building that remains from Thomas Chandler's Fairfield plantation is the small plantation office where Stonewall Jackson died. Archeological work at the site has mapped a 30'-x-50' depression that marks the former location of the Fairfield manor house and a ground depression associated with a former icehouse. Additional features suggested by historic photographs and site descriptions include a formal set of terraces that descend the slopes to the front of the house and a wood-frame smoke house. Documentary information records the site as having been used as a Confederate Supply Depot; although the exact location of that resource is uncertain, it is assumed to be coterminous with the overall site boundary.

The Fairfield Plantation Office (LCS No. 000426, contributing building), constructed ca. 1828 and extensively rehabilitated by the National Park Service in 1963, is a one-story, wood-frame building oriented at a northeast-southwest angle on the lawn northwest of the entrance loop. It has a steeply pitched end-gable roof clad in wood shingles, a canted cornice on the long sides, clapboard walls, and a brick foundation. Two brick exterior chimneys are symmetrically placed on the southwest end wall. A lean-to addition encloses the lower portion of the eastern chimney. Two off-center vertical board doors are located in the northeast elevation. The eastern door is sheltered by a gabled porch supported on chamfered wood posts. A six-over-six, double-hung wood window is centered in each gable end; two nine-over-six, double-hung windows with two-thirds board-and-batten shutters are symmetrically placed in each side elevation. The lean-to has a vertical board door in the southeast wall and two six-over-six windows with board shutters in the southwest wall. The interior of the building consists of an entry hall and small room at the northeast end and two large rooms across the southwest end. A stairway in the hall leads to two small loft rooms. The building is furnished with original objects from Jackson's stay and reproduction items and is open to the public seasonally.

The <u>Jackson Shrine Well House (LCS No. 007915, non-contributing structure)</u> on the lawn adjacent to the northeast corner of the building is a 1962–1963 replica of a ca. 1871 structure. It consists of an approximately 1.5' square, 4.5'-tall wood well house centered on an 8' square wood platform that covers

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the remains of a fieldstone well foundation. Horizontal, 8"-wide boards cover the gabled roof and three sides of the well house. A wood windlass is attached to the southeast side.

A red-brick walkway laid in a herringbone pattern connects the northeast entrance porch of the Shrine to a brick patio, also laid in a herringbone pattern and partially edged with 2'-tall brick walls, along the northwest edge of the entrance loop. The <u>Jackson Shrine Monument (LCS No. 007908, contributing object)</u>, one of the Smith markers placed in 1903, is located just north of the walkway where it meets the patio.

The brick patio extends around the northeast edge of the entrance loop to the <u>Jackson Shrine Comfort Station (non-contributing building)</u>, built in 1985. The one-story, wood-frame building has a cedar-shingled, end-gable roof; weatherboard siding; and a concrete slab foundation.

The 1942 Jackson Shrine Caretaker's House (contributing building), possibly one of the last CCC buildings constructed in the park, is located in a clearing to the southeast of the entrance loop. The one-story, wood-frame building faces east, away from the road, and is screened from view by a row of trees along the edge of the loop. Its central side-gabled section is augmented by a perpendicular end-gabled section that forms a T at the south end; a ca. 1959–1960 side-gabled, one-room extension on the north end; and a shed-roof screened porch and smaller shed-roof addition extending from the rear (west) elevation. A corbelled brick chimney rises from the ridge at the intersection of the central and north sections. The roofs are clad in asphalt shingles, and the walls in a combination of vertical boards and horizontal vinyl siding. The house is set on a raised concrete foundation. The entrance in the east elevation of the north end is sheltered by a shallow shed-roof porch. Rectangular window openings of varying sizes contain six-over-six aluminum double-hung sash.

The recently built <u>Jackson Shrine Caretaker's Shed (non-contributing structure)</u> on the lawn northeast of the house is a small, rectangular, wood-frame structure. It has a side-gable roof clad in asphalt shingles, vinyl-sided walls, and a wood sill set on low corner piles.

Salem Church

Salem Church consists of three discontiguous parcels located along VA Route 3, 7 miles east of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center and just west of U.S. Interstate 95 in Fredericksburg. The largest parcel is at the southeast corner of Salem Church Road and Route 3 and contains the Salem Church building and two small commemorative objects. The other two parcels, a smaller rectangular parcel to the east on the south side of Route 3 and a triangular parcel on the north side of Route 3 at the corner of Heatherstone Drive, each contain large monuments.

The <u>Salem Church Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00177.000, contributing site)</u> is a small, irregularly shaped parcel encompassing 3.28 acres around Salem Church and some of the scene of fighting during the Battle of Salem Church, May 3, 1863. A row of mixed woods west of the church screens Salem Church Road from view. The site includes a paved parking lot south of the church building and near the point where the asphalt-paved, two-lane Old Salem Church Road turns sharply east and runs through a densely developed residential area. The site is surrounded by residential developments and large commercial strips and free-standing retail stores. The ca. 1844 <u>Salem Church Road Trace (contributing structure)</u> continues north from the road along the west side of Salem Church.

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Salem Church (LCS No. 000428, contributing building), built in 1844–1845 by a congregation of Virginia Baptists, is a two-story, three-bay-by-two-bay, brick building. It has an end-gable roof sheathed in wood shingles with corbelled cornices along the north and south sides, and the brick walls are laid in a common bond with decorative five-point star tie rods. A pair of interior end wall chimneys is at the east end. The building is accessed by two doors in the west elevation, historically one for men and one for women. A third door, intended for use by enslaved people, is in the south elevation and led directly to the second-floor gallery. Fenestration consists of nine-over-nine and six-over-six double-hung windows. The interior of the building is largely intact and is open to the public seasonally.

Two monuments are located north of the church, near the intersection. A group of veterans led by James Power Smith placed the 1903 <u>Battle of Salem Church Monument (contributing object)</u> in its original location west of Salem Church Road. The Virginia Department of Transportation moved it to its current location during an early 1960s road widening project.

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania chapters of the UDC installed the 1927 <u>Salem Church UDC</u> <u>Marker (contributing object)</u> in its original location at the southwest corner of the Route 3/Route 639 intersection (outside the District boundary). The National Park Service moved it to its current location in 1977.

The 1906 23rd Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument (LCS No. 007906, contributing object) is located 100 yards east of Salem Church, on a separate parcel also on the south side of Route 3. Four boundary stones engraved with "23 N.J." mark the corners of the parcel. The granite monument is surrounded by a 1'-tall, square granite curb. It consists of a square shaft topped with a statue of a Union soldier and set on a square base. The north side, facing the road, is ornamented with a circular brass plate with the New Jersey state seal and relief carvings of two crossed muskets, a Greek cross, and a cartridge box. A large brass plate is affixed to each of the four sides of the base. A 1964 rededication marker is also located on the parcel.

The 15th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument (LCS No. 007907, contributing object) is located on the north side of VΛ Route 3 on a triangular grassy parcel enclosed by tall pine trees on the east and west sides. Erected in 1909 by the State of New Jersey at the behest of the Fifteenth Regiment New Jersey Volunteer Veterans Association, the south-facing monument was moved to its present location from a few yards farther south in 1961 when Route 3 was widened. The 30'-tall memorial has a 10'-tall square base, from which a column of polished stone rises another 10' and is topped with a statue of a Union soldier. Each of the four sides of the base is engraved. A 1964 rededication marker is at the base of the monument on the south side.

Chancellorsville Battlefield

The main portion of the Chancellorsville Battlefield unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP is located on the north and south sides of VA Route 3 in an unincorporated area within the county district of Chancellor in Spotsylvania County and encompasses approximately 1,654.42 acres of the core battlefield associated with the April to May 1863 Battle of Chancellorsville. It extends roughly from the intersection of Ely's Ford Road (Route 610) and U.S. Ford Road (Route 616) on the north to Jackson Trail on the south and from Stuart Drive on the west to McLaws' Drive on the east. Jackson Trail runs southwest from the Chancellorsville Battlefield site to the intersection with Brock Road, where it continues northwest to the Wilderness park unit. A small, discontiguous parcel containing portions of the 1863 battlefield and

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several non-contributing resources is on the north side of VA Route 3, west of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center.

The Chancellorsville Battlefield (contributing site) is an irregularly shaped site bisected by the fourlane VA Route 3 (outside the District boundary). Old Plank Road (also outside the District boundary) runs roughly north to south through the southern portion of the site, which is crossed by tributaries of the Ni and Po rivers. Ely's Ford Road (contributing structure), a two-lane asphalt road on a right-of-way established prior to the Civil War, runs northwest-southeast through the eastern edge of the site north of Plank Road. Ely's Ford Road is a state-maintained highway owned by the National Park Service. The landscape is a combination of historically open fields, some of which have been restored by the Park Service, and successional-growth forest. The northern portion of the site contains remnants of Confederate and Federal earthworks, including linear trenches and artillery emplacements; the ruins of the Chancellor Inn; a handful of monuments near Stonewall Jackson's wounding site; and several buildings constructed by the National Park Service during the CCC and Mission 66 park development periods, including the Mission 66 Chancellorsville Visitor Center. The southern portion of the site contains park tour roads constructed along lines of earthworks; historic homestead sites; commemorative objects; a cemetery; and the ruins of an antebellum ironworks, the Catharine Furnace. Many of the earthworks at Chancellorsville Battlefield are surrounded by successional-growth forest and blanketed with leaf litter that protects them from erosion. The site is surrounded by encroaching suburban development, particularly south of VA Route 3 and east of Ely's Ford Road. Large tracts of adjacent battlefield lands are owned by preservation groups or private individuals.

The Chancellorsville Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure) are predominantly south of VA Route 3, along the south and southeastern sides of the site, but some Confederate earthworks remain near the Chancellorsville Visitor Center. The Anderson's Line Gun Pit (LCS No. 082142, ASMIS No. FRSP00171.000, historic associated feature) near the Plank Road-McLaws' Drive intersection consists of a lunette-shaped gun emplacement, 20'-wide with a radius of 15', and 3'-tall, 10'-wide earthen walls. McLaws' Line (LCS No. 007891, ASMIS No. FRSP00178.000, historic associated feature) is a 1.9mile-long, 3'-tall, 5'-wide curvilinear stretch of earthworks on the south side of McLaws' Drive that is disrupted by Old Plank Road and continues across to Furnace Road. Modern development has destroyed portions of the line. Earthworks associated with Posey's Line (LCS No. 082145, ASMIS No. FRSP00031.000, historic associated feature), constructed by Brigadier General Carnot Posey's Sixteenth Mississippi infantry, are located south of Furnace Road, near the intersection with the Jackson Trail and Sickles Drive. Only a small remnant of the line running southeast from a small clearing on the edge of the road is within the District boundary. The earthwork is 600' long, with a 5'-tall, 8'-wide parapet and faced with a 5'-wide, 3'-deep outer trench. North of Plank Road, the Jackson's Corps Line (LCS No. 082150, ASMIS No. FRSP00158.000, historic associated feature) is a 0.8-mile curvilinear, discontiguous stretch of earthen fortifications northeast of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center, between Bullock and Plank roads. Constructed by Stonewall Jackson's Confederate First Corps, the earthworks consist of a 5'-tall parapet fronted by a 2'- to 3'-deep, 5'-wide trench. The 12th Corps, Pender's Line (LCS No. 082154, ASMIS No. FRSP00176.000, historic associated feature), northwest of Bullock Road, run northeast-southwest for approximately 1,550'. The curvilinear earthworks, constructed by General William Dorsey Pender's Confederate troops, are 3' to 5' tall and 8' wide, with an outer trench 2' to 3' deep and 3' to 5' wide.

The <u>Chancellorsville Federal Earthworks (contributing structure)</u> are located predominantly along the northeastern side of the battlefield site, particularly near the intersection of Ely's Ford and Bullock roads. Additional Federal earthworks circle north and east from south of Fairview to north of the Bullock

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House site, with scattered smaller works along the west side of the Chancellorsville Battlefield site. Couch's Works (LCS No. 007893, ASMIS No. FRSP00149.000, historic associate feature) run nearly a mile from the northeast corner of the Hooker Drive-River Road intersection along the east side of Hooker Drive. The curving linear earthwork, built by the men of Darius N. Couch's Second Corps, consists of a 5'-wide parapet faced by a 5'-wide, 3'-deep ditch. Hooker's Apex (LCS No. 007896, ASMIS No. FRSP00159.000, historic associated feature) is a large earthwork salient almost directly north of Couch's works and heavily obscured by leaf litter. It has an inverted U shape, with a 3'- to 4'-tall, 5'-wide parapet faced by a 5'-wide, 3'-deep outer trench. The majority of this line, which extends north for nearly two miles, is outside the District boundary. The Federal V Corps, Griffin's 1" Division Line (LCS No. 082140, historic associated feature) run northwest from Hooker's Apex. The T-shaped, gently curving linear earthwork is 900' long with a 300'-long rear line running perpendicular from the center of the line. The majority of the Federal earthworks within the Chancellorsville battlefield site are linear earthworks, with the exception of the Fairview Artillery Position (LCS No. 007892, historic associated feature) on the west side of the Fairview site, south of Plank Road. Artillerists from General Alpheus Williams' division of the Twelfth Corps built the set of 30 lunette-shaped gun emplacements: 24 lunettes face west and run south from near Plank Road; 6 lunettes face south and run west, perpendicular to the main line. Each lunette is approximately 30' long, 8' wide, and 5' tall. The CCC reconstructed one of the lunettes in 1933-1936. Slocum's Log Works (LCS No. 007895, ASMIS No. FRSP00151.000, historic associated feature), a defensive line constructed by Henry W. Slocum's Federal Twelfth Corps, run northwest-southeast across Stuart Drive west of Fairview. Confederate troops refaced the linear earthwork, 528' long and 5' wide with trenches on both sides, after it was abandoned by Union soldiers. It was partially destroyed during the construction of Stuart Drive. Slocum's Line (LCS No. 007894, ASMIS No. FRSP00150.000, historic associated feature), also built by Slocum's Twelfth Corps, extends 3,520' along the south side of Slocum Drive. The earthwork follows an elongated S-shape and consists of a 5'-wide by 2'-tall parapet faced with a 5'-wide, 1'- to 2'-deep ditch.

The Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System (contributing structure), constructed in 1931-1937, forms the primary vehicular circulation route through the battlefield site and past many of the earthworks constructed by Federal and Confederate troops during the Battle of Chancellorsville. Many of the roads are named after Civil War officers who directed the construction of nearby earthworks or led troops in the Battle of Chancellorsville. Bullock Road (LCS No. 082101, historic associated feature) runs northeast-southwest from Plank Road to Ely's Ford Road along a portion of the eighteenth-century Old Mine Road; the National Park Service rebuilt the road into a park drive ca. 1935. The 1.65-mile road curves gently to the northeast from Plank Road, just west of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center, through successional-growth woodlands and past an open field associated with the Bullock House. Hooker Drive (LCS No. 082083, historic associated feature), named for Union General Joseph Hooker, branches off the east side of Ely's Ford Road south of the intersection with Bullock Road and curves south along the east boundary of the site to end at River Road, following a line of Federal earthworks. The road is approximately one-half mile long and surrounded on both sides by successional growth and wetlands. Only a small section of River Road (LCS Nos. 082085 and 082152, historic associated feature), a ca. 1935 two-lane asphalt road built over a ca. 1800-1860 road trace, is located within the District boundary; the Park Service divested the majority of the road in 1973. The road curves northeast from Plank Road through the southeast corner of the site, where it intersects with Hooker Drive.

South of Plank Road, the tour road system begins at the eastern end of the site with the 1932 <u>McLaws'</u> <u>Drive (LCS Nos. 082088 and 082091, historic associated feature)</u>, following the historic alignment of the ca. 1813 Old Furnace Road that led from Plank Road to the Catharine Furnace, near a line of Confederate earthworks. Named for Confederate General Lafayette McLaws, the approximately 0.7-mile-

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long, two-lane, asphalt road runs southwest from VA Route 3, through successional-growth forest, to the intersection with Old Plank Road, where it becomes Furnace Road (LCS No. 082122, historic associated feature). The southern section of Furnace Road dates to the late eighteenth century; the park drive, historically known as Jackson Trail Bivouac, was completed in 1932. Furnace Road continues southwest to a Y-intersection at the Catharine Furnace Ruins and the north end of the Jackson Trail. The longest park road is the Jackson Trail (LCS No. 007897, historic associated feature), which follows the trail that Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson's men took from the Wilderness to Chancellorsville on May 2, 1863, to circle behind Union forces and played an instrumental role in the Confederate victory at Chancellorsville. The District boundary forms a very narrow corridor surrounding the approximately 5-mile, one-lane, gravel road that followed mine and farm roads of undetermined antebellum origin (ca. 1830-1862). Although the Trail spans two park units, it is historically associated with the Chancellorsville Battlefield. It begins near the Catharine Furnace ruins in the Chancellorsville Battlefield park unit, then curves southwest toward the Brock Road intersection, where it curves northwest toward the southeast corner of the Wilderness Battlefield park unit. The Chancellorsville Battlefield portion of the road is predominantly surrounded by successional-growth woodlands, with occasional openings onto fields, while the Wilderness portion passes numerous farms with open fields. The CCC constructed the Jackson Trail Stream Ford (LCS No. 082105, historic associated feature), a 20'-wide by 40'-long stone and concrete ford across Brock Run to replicate the conditions experienced by Jackson's troops as they marched toward Chancellorsville and to control road erosion. Four stone-lined ditches along the road, each measuring 2' wide, 3' deep, and 30' long, are almost completely filled with sediment. Sickles Drive (LCS No. 082092, historic associated feature), constructed in 1932 and named for Union General Daniel Sickles, runs due north from the Y-intersection for approximately 1 mile along a gently curving path to a second Y-intersection with Slocum and Stuart drives. Constructed in 1933 and named after Union General Henry Slocum, Slocum Drive (LCS No. 082094, historic associated feature) curves northeast and follows a set of Federal earthworks attributed to Slocum's Fifth Corps through secondgeneration forests for 0,8 mile to Old Plank Road, just south of Route 3. The two-lane, asphalt road forms a shallow S-shape and allows only one-way traffic. Stuart Drive (LCS No. 082096, historic associated feature), built in 1932, follows a curving path northwest from the Y-intersection with Slocum and Sickles drives through second-generation forests to VA Route 3, opposite Bullock Road. Named after Confederate General J. E. B. Stuart, the two-lane, asphalt road is nearly 0.8 mile. Berry-Paxton Drive (LCS No. 082098, historic associated feature), constructed ca. 1933 and named after Union Major General Hiram Berry and Confederate General Elisha Paxton, runs northeast from Stuart Drive just north of the Y-intersection for approximately 0.10 mile through successional-growth forest to a parking area at the open fields of the Fairview plantation site; the northern extension of the road to Route 3 was removed ca. 1972. The single-lane, asphalt road is surrounded on both sides by forest and wetlands. The Chancellorsville Tour Road System Culverts (LCS Nos. 082084, 082086, 082089, 082093, 082095, 082097, 082099, 082102, and 082153, historic associated features) provide drainage under Bullock, Hooker, McLaws', Slocum, Stuart, Berry-Paxton, Miles, and Sickles drives and Furnace Road. The Chancellorsville Tour Road System Bridges (LCS Nos. 082090, 082100, 082117, and 082151, historic associated features) provide access across larger streams along Furnace Road and Stuart, Berry-Paxton, and Sickles drives. The Chancellorsville Tour Road System Tree Rings (LCS Nos. 082087 and 082139, historic associated features) protect old-growth trees along the sides of River Road and Slocum Drive.

The Mission 66-era Chancellorsville Visitor Center (contributing building), a one-story, L-shaped, Modern building designed by National Park Service Chief Architect Robert E. Smith and built in 1962, is located on the northeast side of the intersection of VA Route 3 and Bullock Road. Surrounded by successional growth forest, the brick and wood building was designed as an unobtrusive addition to the

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historic scene that blends into the landscape. It has a shallow-pitched, cantilevered gable roof and a brick foundation. The main entrance is via a glassed-in vestibule at the east elevation of the L, sheltered by a shed-roof overhang that extends along the north elevation of the main block. Fenestration consists of curtain windows on the west elevation. The **Chancellorsville Visitor Center Entrance Road and Parking Area (contributing structure)**, also constructed in 1962 by the Park Service, consists of a one-lane, asphalt-paved road that curves northwest from Plank Road, slightly east of Bullock Road, and opens into a parking area adjacent to the Visitor Center. A small picnic area is located on the north side of the parking area, and various interpretive walking trails lead from the parking area to monuments, earthworks, and other points of interest. A brick apron connects the Visitor Center entrance to the parking area and surrounds a flagpole and directional compass.

A short path composed of rubberized mulch, laid out in 1979, circles around the Visitor Center to the 1888 <u>Jackson Monument (LCS No. 007903, contributing object)</u> between the building and the north side of Plank Road. The south-facing monument is surrounded on the north and west sides by brush and successional-growth forests. It consists of a 14'-tall, square monolith of five rough dressed granite blocks with a shallow pointed cap and a two-tiered square base. All four faces of the fourth block from the top are polished and engraved.

The path proceeds east, parallel to Plank Road, to the 1879 <u>Jackson Rock (LCS No. 007904</u>, <u>contributing object)</u>, a 3' 4"-tall white quartz boulder that was intended to mark the spot where Jackson was wounded. The rock is uncut and has no inscription. A small <u>Unknown Soldier Marker (LCS No. 082144</u>, <u>non-contributing object)</u> adjacent to the Jackson Monument marks the burial site of an unknown Union soldier's remains discovered by CCC enrollees in 1935. The enrollees initially placed a simple wood cross to mark the site, but the National Park Service installed a 2'-x-1' granite block issued by the Department of Veterans Affairs (similar to those found at the Fredericksburg National Cemetery) on the site in 2007.

A second interpretive path is roughly aligned with VA Route 3, Ely's Ford Road, Hooker Drive, and Bullock Road. The trail leads visitors from the parking area to numerous lines of earthworks and points of interest related to the Battle of Chancellorsville, including the Chancellorsville Inn site.

The Ranger Lane housing area northwest of the Visitor Center, also a Mission 66-era project, includes three residences for park staff. A one-lane, asphalt road named Ranger Lane (contributing structure), constructed in 1961, curves south from the west side of Bullock Road, just north of the Visitor Center, and terminates in a dead end. Three roughly identical, one-story ranch houses built in 1961 are located along the south side of the road, close to the end. Quarters #4 (contributing building), Quarters #5 (contributing building), and Quarters #6 (contributing building) sit far back on the lots and have asphalt driveways. The houses have side-gable asphalt-shingled roofs, clapboard walls, raised poured concrete foundations, and attached carports. A path runs from each driveway to a narrow concrete entrance porch centered on the facade between paired one-over-one aluminum sash windows on one side and a run of three nearly floor-to-ceiling plate glass windows on the other.

A ca. 1970 maintenance facility is located on the north side of Ranger Lane, near the intersection with Bullock Road, in an area proposed as such in the Mission 66 development plan. The **Ranger Lane Water Tower (non-contributing structure)** consists of a large round steel tank surrounded by a narrow walkway and supported by four round steel legs with diamond braces set on square, concrete pads. The water tower is connected to the rear of the **Water Tower Electrical Shed (non-contributing structure)**, a one-room, shed-roof enclosure with pebbledash walls on a concrete pad. The **Ranger Lane Pump**

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House (non-contributing building) is a one-room, shed-roof, cinder block building on a poured concrete pad. The late 1970s Ranger Lane Fire Cache (non-contributing building) immediately west of the Water Tower, is a one-story wood-frame building with an end-gable roof sheathed with asphalt shingles, vinyl-sided walls, and a raised poured concrete foundation.

West of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center and the Ranger Lane complex is the Wagner property, located at 9601 Plank Road, which consists of four non-contributing resources surrounded by portions of the 1863 battlefield.

The <u>Wagner House (non-contributing building)</u> is a ca. 1890, two-story, three-bay wide, center-entry farmhouse topped with a cross-gable roof clad in standing-seam metal. A one-story, pent-roof addition projects off the north elevation.

Three late-twentieth-century agricultural outbuildings are situated north of the house. Closest to the house is the <u>Wagner Storage Building</u> (non-contributing building), consisting of a large, end-gable building clad in vertical board siding and corrugated metal on the roof; a large, horizontally sliding, vertical board door is centered in the south elevation. Behind the Storage Building is the <u>Wagner Equipment Garage</u> (non-contributing building), which is a large, rectangular building topped with a shallow-pitch, end-gable roof. The walls and roof are clad in corrugated metal. The <u>Wagner Stable</u> (non-contributing building), consisting of a large, end-gable building with shed-roof projections on the east and west, clad in corrugated metal siding on the walls and roof, sits northeast of the Equipment Garage. The building is accessed by several vertical-lift doors.

The small ca. 1950 house at **8940 Ely's Ford Road (non-contributing building)** is located on a private inholding within the site opposite the intersection of Ely's Ford Road and Hooker Drive. The side-gable house has an exterior end chimney, a concrete block entry porch, and a concrete block foundation.

The Chancellorsville Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082082, contributing building), built in 1937 as the first component of the park maintenance area, is located in a small clearing near the north end of Hooker Drive, surrounded by woods and a chain-link fence. The one-story, six-bay-by-one-bay, wood-frame building has three-bay-by-one-bay wings at the north and south ends. Its side-gable roof is covered with standing-seam metal, and the walls are clad in clapboards. Each bay contains a pair of nine-light double hinged doors. The Maintenance Yard Sand Shed (non-contributing structure), built in 2005, is on the south side of the clearing. The large wood structure is enclosed on three sides; the overhanging shed roof shelters the sand supply for the park unit.

The ruins of the <u>Chancellorsville Inn (ASMIS No. FRSP00042.000, contributing site)</u>, constructed ca. 1816 and destroyed by fire during the Battle of Chancellorsville, are located at the northwest corner of the Plank Road and Ely's Ford Road intersection. Remnants of the front entry steps are the only aboveground piece of the inn, which was rebuilt following the war and destroyed by another fire in 1927. Low brick walls built in 1987 outline the building's footprint.

The Catharine Furnace Ruins (LCS No. 007910, ASMIS No. FRSP00008.000, contributing site), the extant remains of an iron foundry established in 1836 by John Spotsford Wellford, are located on the west side of the Jackson Trail near the intersection with Furnace Road and Sickles Drive. The furnace was abandoned in 1847 then reoccupied with the opening of the Civil War, supplying munitions to the Confederate Army until its destruction by Federal troops led by General George Custer in May 1864. The

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ruins consist of the remnants of the furnace stack, 15' tall, 8' across, and the outer walls of the blast furnace, 25' square by 2' 5" high, both constructed of random cut and laid stone.

The 1933 Matthew Fontaine Maury Birthplace Monument (LCS No. 007909, contributing object), on the north side of Furnace Road about halfway between the Catharine Furnace and the intersection with Old Plank Road, commemorates the birthplace of Matthew Fontaine Maury, an oceanographer who became the first superintendent of the United States Naval Observatory and founded the science of meteorology. The monument consists of a large granite boulder, to which is affixed a 1'8" x 2'3" bronze tablet with an inscription.

The 1960 General E. F. Paxton Monument (LCS No. 007901, contributing object), on the west side of Stuart Drive, was erected in honor of Confederate General Elisha Franklin Paxton at the behest of his grandson, Matthew W. Paxton, an area attorney. The monument consists of a 4'-tall, 2' 2"-wide, 10"-thick granite slab with a cast bronze tablet affixed to the east face.

The 27th Indiana Infantry Monument (LCS No. 007900, contributing object) consists of a set of three markers along the west side of Berry-Paxton Drive. John Bresnahan, a veteran of the regiment, erected the large central stone with two square flank markers approximately 150' on either side at some time from 1899 to 1901. The center stone is a 4' 6" tall and 2' 5" wide tablet set directly into the ground.

On the west side of Stuart Drive, just north of the intersection with Berry-Paxton Road is <u>Hazel Grove (contributing site)</u>, consisting of a high, open plateau overlooking the Chancellorsville battlefield toward Fairview to the east. The site today contains Confederate Civil War cannon and interpretive signage. <u>Fairview (ASMIS No. FRSP00043.000, contributing site)</u>, the former site of the Chancellor family plantation, is located on a field between the Berry-Paxton Drive parking area and the south side of Plank Road. The site is accessed via a walking trail and by a non-public, ca. 1967 maintenance road that runs south from VA Route 3. Four wood posts mark the house site, but the Chancellorsville Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00044.000, contributing site), established ca. 1812, is the only extant aboveground resource associated with Fairview. The 6'-tall brick Chancellorsville Cemetery Wall (LCS No. 082103, non-contributing structure), constructed ca. 1970, surrounds the rectangular plot oriented diagonally to the maintenance road on the east side of the site. The Chancellorsville Cemetery Grave Markers (LCS No. 082104, historic associated features)) vary in size and decoration, although all appear to be of granite or marble. The approximately 20 markers, some of which mark multiple burials such as a husband and wife, postdate the Civil War.

The 114th Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers Monument (LCS No. 007902, contributing object), also referred to as the "Zouaves Monument," is located on the south side of VA Route 3 about halfway between the maintenance road for the Chancellor Family Cemetery and the entrance to the Chancellorsville Visitor Center. Surrounded by a grove of trees near the edge of the highway, the monument is difficult to access. Dedicated by veterans of the One Hundred Fourteenth Pennsylvania in 1899, it consists of a 3'-tall, 4'-wide, and 1'-thick slab of locally quarried gray granite on a rectangular stone base. Most of the faces are rough cut, with the exception of the dressed top of the base and the east face of the slab.

Two monuments to the meeting that occurred between Stonewall Jackson and Robert E. Lee on the evening of May 1, 1863, in which they planned the Confederate assault on the Union troops at Chancellorsville, are located on the west side of the intersection of McLaws' Drive, Furnace Road, and Old Plank Road. The Lee-Jackson Bivouac Monument (LCS No. 007899, contributing object), one of

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the 1903 Smith markers, is closest to the intersection. The 1937 <u>Lee-Jackson Bivouac Plaque (LCS No. 082141, contributing object)</u> consists of a cast bronze plaque set into a stone base that is nearly flush with the ground at the foot of two cedar trees planted in honor of Lee and Jackson by park supporters.

Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield

The Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP is located approximately 7 miles southwest of Fredericksburg, north of the village historically known as Spotsylvania Court House. It encompasses approximately 1,328.32 acres of the core Battle of Spotsylvania Court House battlefield, including the Mule Shoe and Bloody Angle, the scene on May 8–21, 1864, of some of the most furious fighting in the war. It is bounded on the south by Courthouse Road (VA Route 208) and Brock Road and on the north, east, and west by private property.

The Spotsvivania Court House Battlefield (contributing site) is an irregularly shaped site surrounded by suburban and commercial development on the north, south, and east and farmland on the west. The heaviest development does not directly abut the site, but encroaching development has shaped it. The battlefield is characterized predominantly by successional-growth forest surrounding historically open fields. Several small streams, including tributaries of the Ni River and wetland areas, cross the site. Resources within the site consist of Confederate and Federal earthworks; historic homesteads that are now archeological sites, including the McCoull, Landram, and Harrison house sites; buildings constructed by the National Park Service during the CCC and Mission 66 park development periods; and monuments and markers to commemorate the men who fought and died there. Entrance to the site is at the west end via Brock Road.

The Spotsylvania Court House Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure) dominate the south and center of the site. Block House Road and Pritchett Road, both of which run south from Brock Road, provide access to the Confederate 1st Corps Works (LCS No. 007916, ASMIS No. FRSP00168.000, historic associated feature) on the north side of Pritchett Road, near the southwest corner of the site. Probably constructed as part of Lee's Final Line, the 3,900'-long set of 2'-tall and 3'-wide linear earthworks, is heavily overgrown with successional forest, and road construction destroyed large portions of it. Lee's Final Line (LCS No. 007920, ASMIS No. FRSP00160.000, historic associated feature), built after Union troops overtook the Mule Shoe under the direction of Lee's chief engineer General M. L. Smith, run east from Brock Road to a point just before Burnside Drive. The 3,700'-long, 3'-tall, and 6'wide set of earthworks is interspersed with gun emplacements and protected by successional-growth forest. The predominant Confederate defensive structure at Spotsylvania is the Mule Shoe salient, an inverted-U-shaped linear earthwork consisting of the East Shoulder of Mule Shoe (LCS No. 007923, ASMIS No. FRSP00165.000, historic associated feature) and the West Shoulder of Mule Shoe (LCS No. 007924, ASMIS No. FRSP00162.000, historic associated feature). The East Shoulder is an approximately 5,000' long earthwork with a 3'-tall, 5'-wide parapet that curves east then turns southwest from the Mule Shoe's apex to connect with Lee's Final Line along the southern portion of the site. Federal troops refaced parts of the East Shoulder after the Confederates abandoned it. The West Shoulder, a 3'-tall, 6'-wide earthen parapet, extends 3,700' from Bloody Angle Drive southwest along Anderson Drive to Lee's Final Line. The East Angle (LCS No. 007922, ASMIS No. FRSP00164.000, historic associated feature) at the apex of the Mule Shoe is a 1,200'-long set of linear earthworks, 2' tall and 4' wide, that extends 600' east and west of the Mule Shoe. The Bloody Angle (LCS No. 007921, ASMIS No. FRSP00163.000, historic associated feature), where some of the most intensive fighting at

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Spotsylvania took place, consists of a 1,500'-long, sod-covered linear earthworks with a 2'-tall, 7'-wide parapet, west of the Mule Shoe and north of the intersection of Grant and Anderson drives.

The Spotsylvania Court House Federal Earthworks (contributing structure) run along the north side of the site and curve down along the east and west sides of the Confederate earthworks. Hancock's Works (LCS No. 007917, ASMIS No. FRSP00156.000, historic associated feature), constructed by Winfield Hancock's Fifth Corps and partially rebuilt by the CCC, run approximately east to west for 2,500' along the edge of Hancock Drive. The linear earthworks are 2' tall and 3' wide. Rebuilt portions of the line include artillery emplacements. The Federal VI Corps Works (LCS No. 007918, ASMIS No. FRSP00153.000, historic associated feature), constructed by Horatio Wright's Federal troops, run north and east along Grant Drive near the west boundary of the site and the Bloody Angle. The linear earthworks are 7,500' long, with a 3'-tall, 3'-wide parapet. Gun emplacements are scattered along the line, particularly near the Bloody Angle. Portions of the works are covered with sod; the remainder are surrounded by successional-growth forest. Burnside's Works (LCS No. 007919, ASMIS No. FRSP00154.000, historic associated feature), constructed by Ambrose Burnside's Ninth Corps, are located east of the Mule Shoe and extend south to the site boundary. Although small portions have been lost to erosion, the linear earthworks extend 7,500' and have a 3'-tall, 7'-wide earthen parapet. Portions are covered with sod, and the earthworks are partially obscured by successional-growth forest.

The Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System (contributing structure) is the primary vehicular circulation route through the site. Designed to lead visitors past the sites of fierce fighting during the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House, many of the tour roads made use of preexisting farm roads. Hancock Drive (LCS No. 082007, historic associated feature) is a curvilinear gravel road that runs southwest from the west side of Brock Road for 0.7 mile through successional-growth forest before exiting the District. Grant Drive (LCS No. 082008, historic associated feature), named for Union General Ulysses S. Grant, runs northeast then east for 1.15 miles from the east side of Brock Road (opposite Hancock Drive) through the western portion of the battlefield to a parking area at the Bloody Angle. The asphalt road curves past the Spotsylvania Court House Visitor Kiosk, through successional-growth forest and past numerous earthworks. Anderson Drive (LCS No. 082003, historic associated feature) runs southsouthwest from the eastern end of Grant Drive for approximately 1.32 miles. Named after Confederate General Richard Anderson, the road skirts open fields on the west and woods on the east until it intersects in a Y with Gordon Drive, where it is surrounded on both sides by forest. The asphalt pavement ends near Brock Road, where a barely visible trace that is no longer passable for vehicles connects the two roadways. Gordon Drive (LCS No. 082021, historic associated feature), an asphalt-paved road named after Confederate General John Gordon, runs east then northeast from the Y-intersection with Anderson Drive near the center of the site to a Y-intersection with Bloody Angle Drive and Burnside Drive near the eastern edge of the site. Successional-growth forest flanks most of the roadway, with open fields on the east near Anderson Drive and on the west near the Bloody Angle. The McCoull House CCC Access Road (LCS Nos. 083059, 082026, and 007926, historic associated feature), slightly east of the Anderson and Gordon Drive intersection, includes the trace of a farm road that led to the McCoull house and a CCC-era road constructed on top of the farm road to access a CCC camp and park maintenance area. The approximately 0.56-mile, dirt and gravel road curves northeast from Gordon Drive past the McCoull House ruins through an open field edged by woods, then turns east to the maintenance area. Bloody Angle Drive (LCS No. 082001, historic associated feature) is a grass-covered road trace that runs northwest from Gordon Drive at the intersection with Burnside Drive, past the east shoulder of the Mule Shoe salient. Originally paved with asphalt, the roadbed now functions primarily as a walking trail through the open fields and earthworks of the Bloody Angle. Burnside Drive (LCS No. 082009, historic associated feature) follows a curving path south along the Federal earthworks adjacent to the east

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shoulder of the Mule Shoe, then turns southeast to skirt additional Federal earthworks at the edge of successional-growth forest before exiting the park at Courthouse Road (VA Route 208). The Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System Culverts (LCS Nos. 082019, 082013, 082014, 082016, 082022, and 082023, historic associated features) provide drainage for various streams and wetlands along Hancock, Grant, Anderson, Gordon, Bloody Angle, and Burnside drives.

Two historic farm roads function currently as walking trails or paths through the site. <u>Upton's Road Trace (LCS No. 007927, contributing structure)</u>, a remnant of an 1800–1850 road taken by Colonel Emory Upton's force of 12 regiments at the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House, runs southeast from Grant Drive toward Anderson Drive through successional-growth forest before exiting onto an open field. The 2'- to 3'-wide, 450'-long road trace is covered with grass. The ca. 1800–1850 <u>Landrum House Road (LCS No. 007925, contributing structure)</u> is a narrow, one-lane, dirt and gravel road that runs northwest through successional-growth forest from the Bloody Angle parking area on Grant Drive before turning northeast to travel through open fields, for a total of 3,000', and terminates at the Landrum House Ruins. A chain strung between posts on either side of the entrance restricts vehicular access to the road.

Additional resources within the Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield site include two park-related facilities and 12 commemorative objects.

The <u>Spotsylvania Court House Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure)</u>, built in 1964, is located near the western boundary of the site, slightly northeast of the intersection of Brock Road and Grant Drive. A short parking/entrance loop provides access to the kiosk on the grassy north side of Grant Drive. Constructed of brick laid in common bond, the one-story structure is enclosed on three sides and protected by an asphalt-shingled, shallow-pitched gable roof with deep overhangs. The roof extends to the north above the concrete pad foundation to create a sheltered area and to the east above enclosed restrooms. The concrete pad also extends beyond the kiosk on the sides and rear, surrounded by a low brick retaining wall, and connects to a concrete sidewalk leading to the parking area.

The <u>Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082025, contributing building)</u>, constructed in 1937 by the CCC for the National Park Service, is at the eastern end of the McCoull House CCC Access Road, near the site of CCC Camp Bloody Angle, and faces east. The onestory, three-bay-by-one-bay, wood-frame building has two-bay-by-one-bay wings at the north and south ends. Its side-gable roof is covered with asphalt shingles, and the walls are clad in clapboards. Each bay contains a pair of double hinged wood doors with plywood in the upper portions that likely had nine-light panels originally.

The Maryland Brigade Monument (LCS No. 007932, contributing object) is located in a small clearing north of the Confederate First Corps Works surrounded by woods. Maryland judge Charles E. Phelps, a member of the Maryland brigade that fought near the monument's location, erected the west-facing gray granite block in 1903. The stone is similar in appearance to the Smith markers, standing 2' 3" tall with 1' 8" square dressed and inscribed faces.

The General Sedgwick Monument (LCS No. 007928, contributing object), in a triangle of grass near the entrance to the Spotsylvania Battlefield unit from Brock Road, allegedly marks the location where a Confederate sniper killed Union General John Sedgwick. The Sedgwick Memorial Association, made up of veterans from the VI Corps, dedicated the monument in 1887. Carved by Philadelphia stone carver John Ferguson from Quincy granite, the 9'-tall pyramidal monument is set on a 5' 5" square granite base. The lower portion of the monument, constructed of rough cut blocks with tooled edges, is topped by a

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crenellated cornice and a truncated pyramid with the Greek cross, the insignia of the Sixth Corps. "Sedgwick" is engraved on the west face of the cornice, and "6th Army Corps" on the west face of the base. Dressed blocks in the center of each face of the monument are inscribed.

The <u>Upton's Charge Memorial (LCS No. 082015, non-contributing object)</u> is at the edge of the woods on the north side of Upton's Road Trace. Erected in 1994 by the Society of the Old Greek Cross and largely sponsored by Paul Heimbach, a descendant of a member of the Sixth Corps, the monument is a 7' tapered shaft of Vermont granite. The north face of the monument, facing the woods, is engraved with the image of a soldier kneeling before a Greek cross.

The Ramseur's Brigade Monument (non-contributing object), dedicated to the men of Confederate General Stephen D. Ramseur's brigade, is situated just behind the Confederate reserve line in the field east of Anderson Drive, near the West Shoulder of the Mule Shoe salient. The Living History Association of North Carolina, Inc. (Thirtieth North Carolina Troops Reactivated) and the North Carolina Division of the Sons of Confederate Veterans erected the granite monument in 2001. The rectangular slab, approximately 5' tall, 3' wide, and 8" thick, is set on a rectangular base atop a granite foundation stone. The front and back faces of the monument are dressed, while the sides and top are rough. The east face of the monument, facing the McCoull House Site, is engraved with a Confederate flag, tinted red and blue.

A rubberized mulch path leads from the parking area at the Bloody Angle past several monuments and earthworks. The 49th New York Infantry Monument (LCS No. 007929, contributing object), erected in 1902 by veterans of the Forty-ninth New York Infantry, is the closest monument to the parking area. Carved of Barre, VT, granite, it consists of a 12' square shaft on a 4' square base. A shallow pyramid at the top of the shaft is capped with a stand of four cannonballs. All four of the monument's faces are dressed and inscribed.

The State of New Jersey erected the 15th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument – Spotsylvania Court House (LCS No. 007930, contributing object) a few feet to the east in 1909. The monument consists of a 9'-tall, 4'-wide, granite slab on a 2' 6"-tall granite pedestal. The south face of the slab, facing the path, features a carving of a private soldier holding a musket "at rest." A 1964 rededication marker sits at the base of the monument on the south side.

The 1931 Fallen Oak Marker (LCS No. 081989, contributing object) is located in a grassy island created by the rubberized mulch walking path. The Fallen Oak Marker is the only one remaining of a set of three markers placed by Edward T. Stuart on his property on July 7, 1931. It commemorates the site of a 22"-thick oak tree cut down by the hail of bullets exchanged at the Bloody Angle. 12 The marker is a rectangular concrete block, 22.5" long and 16" wide, which slants from 10.5" tall at the back to 5.5" tall at the front. A raised platform on the slanted top appears to have held a plaque that is no longer extant.

A mown grass path leads north from the rubberized mulch walkway through a mown field to the 126th Ohio Regiment Monument (LCS No. 007931, contributing object), dedicated in 1914 by veterans of the 126th Ohio Volunteers and paid for by the State of Ohio. The 9' 7"-tall monument consists of a granite shaft on a stepped granite base, topped by a hipped pyramid capital with Greek crosses ringed in laurel on the north and south sides. All four sides of the monument are inscribed, and carvings of crossed muskets adorn the east and west sides above the inscriptions.

¹² Stuart placed the other markers at the sites of the East and West angles; both disappeared sometime after 1955, but photographs of them are on file at the park.

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The Stuart Memorial (LCS No. 082004, contributing object), is located in the woods between the One Hundred Twenty-Sixth Ohio Regiment Monument and the Landrum House Road. Erected in 1941 in honor of Edward T. Stuart, a benefactor of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP during its early years, by his friends, it consists of a large boulder placed atop a stone masonry base on an earthen mound. A bronze plaque is affixed to the boulder.

The MOLLUS Marker (LCS No. 082005, contributing object), erected by the Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States (MOLLUS) in 1940 at the same time the organization donated a large parcel of land to the National Park Service, is located at the end of the Landrum House Road adjacent to the Landrum House Ruins. The monument, similar to the UDC markers, consists of a roughly 4' square rubble stone base with an angled top on which a rectangular bronze plaque is affixed. The plaque contains the organization's insignia and an inscription.

The Brigadier General Samuel McGowan Camp 40, South Carolina Division, Sons of Confederate Veterans erected the <u>McGowan's Brigade Monument (non-contributing object)</u> in 2009 across the Bloody Angle from the Forty-Ninth New York and Fifteenth New Jersey monuments, along the edge of the woods. The Elberton blue granite monument, in the shape of a sarcophagus, is set on a rectangular base inlaid with polished pink granite. A Maltese Cross, inscribed with "1861 Deo Vindice 1865" on the front and "C.S.A." on the back, caps the monument.

The 17th Michigan Monument (non-contributing object), erected in 1995 and dedicated in 1997 by members of the Seventeenth Michigan Volunteers reenactment unit, is located on the south side of Burnside Drive about halfway between Gordon Drive and Courthouse Road. The monument consists of a 4'-tall, 2' 2"-wide, 6"-thick slab of black French Creek granite with a triangular top on a 3'-wide, 1'-deep base of the same material.

Ellwood

The Ellwood Plantation (CLI No. 300177, ASMIS No. FRSP00107.000, contributing site) located near the eastern edge of the Wilderness Battlefield, just south of Constitution Highway, encompasses 188 acres of the late-eighteenth-century plantation owned by the Lacy family during the Civil War. The site was used as a Confederate field hospital after the Battle of Chancellorsville and as headquarters for the Federal Fifth Corps during the Battle of the Wilderness. It consists of rolling farmland, some of which is still cultivated, separated from Constitution Highway by forest. Wilderness Run forms the southeast and south boundary, and private inholdings are adjacent to the site on the west and on the southeast bank of Wilderness Run. Many historically open views and spaces have been lost to successional-growth forest, but the core landscape remains relatively open. The domestic and agricultural grounds include pastures, a terrace surrounding the main house (the only extant Civil War-era building), and a small family cemetery. Post-and-rail and worm fences mark historic and current divisions throughout the property, and some historic fence lines are discernible from vegetative growth. Large, sprawling, deciduous trees dot the lawn around the house.

Ellwood (LCS No. 007951, CLI No. 153825, contributing building), also known as the Lacy House or the Ellwood-Lacy House, was constructed some time during the period 1781–1799 for William and Betty

Portions of the resource descriptions for Ellwood are adapted from Cultural Landscapes Inventory - Ellwood, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, Olmsted Center for Landscape Preservation, National Park Service, Boston, MA, 2011.

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Jones, on a grassy terrace near the east end of the site and faces east. The National Park Service and the Friends of Wilderness Battlefield have fully restored the exterior and interior of the house, which is open to the public seasonally. The two-story, T-shaped, Federal-style house has a side-gable roof with dentiled cornices, clapboard walls, and a raised brick foundation. A perpendicular, gable-roofed ell extends from the center of the rear (west) elevation. Brick interior end chimneys are situated on the ridgeline at the south end of the main block and the west end of the ell. A run of six stone steps on brick risers leads to the center entrance in the facade (east) elevation under a one-story pedimented porch supported by six hexagonal Doric columns. A secondary entrance is located in the north elevation of the rear ell. Both doorways contain paired four-panel wood doors, topped with a four-light transom and dentiled upper trim. Fenestration consists of six-over-six, double-hung wood sash in the second story; nine-over-nine, double-hung wood sash in the first story; and rectangular louvered panels in the basement. The interior contains two rooms separated by a center hall on the first floor, a stair hall and rear room in the ell, and four rooms on the second floor.

The Ellwood Barnyard Road (LCS No. 082110, CLI Nos. 153657, 153661, contributing structure), constructed in the 1840s, runs east toward the main house, and was extended north to Constitution Highway ca. 1934. The road is 10' wide, paved with gravel, and lined with trees indicating a historic fence line. The ca.1775 Ellwood Entrance Road Trace (contributing structure) originally ran south from an area near the modern day intersection of VA Route 3 and VA Route 20, then shifted south in about 1820 to terminate at the original route of VA Route 20, discussed below. Today the road bed is a two track farm lane terminating at the Old Orange Turnpike Road Trace, discussed below, east of the Alexander Cemetery (outside District).

Equipment Shed (non-contributing building) on the south side of the lane and the 1955 Ellwood Garage (non-contributing building) on the north side. The equipment shed, built as a brooder house for chickens, is a one-story, rectangular, cinderblock building with a standing-seam metal, end-gable roof and a concrete foundation. It has two entrances in the north elevation: a sliding double barn door in the center and a six-panel door in the east end. One-over-one replacement windows line the east, south, and west elevations. The garage is a small, square, cinderblock building with a standing-seam metal, end-gable roof and a concrete foundation. Two wood vertical-lift doors fill the south elevation. Fenestration consists of a two-over-two window in the east and west elevations. The Ellwood Farm Office (LCS No. 082111, non-contributing building), built ca. 1934 for Blanche and Leo Jones (no relation to Betty and William Jones), is located east of the equipment shed. The east-facing building is constructed of random-laid field stone with a moss-covered, wood-shingled, end-gable roof. The gable end is clad in horizontal boards and features a plain bargeboard with decorative ends. A wood door is set off center in the east elevation, and the building has no windows.

Members of the William Jones family established the Ellwood Cemetery (CLI No. 153247, ASMIS No. FRSP00108.000, contributing site) ca. 1807 on a small knoll at the edge of a field southeast of the domestic core. Accessed by a short walking trail, the small cemetery is surrounded by a post-and-rail fence installed by the National Park Service after 1977. The cemetery contains no family grave markers, only the Stonewall Jackson's Arm Monument (LCS No. 007944, CLI No. 153941, contributing object) placed by James Power Smith in 1903. The granite marker indicates the supposed location where

¹⁴ Although these buildings and the Farm Office were constructed during the District's period of significance, they are not associated with Ellwood's significance as an eighteenth- and nineteenth-century plantation or Civil War site and are, thus, evaluated as non-contributing resources.

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Reverend Lacy buried Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson's left arm after it was amputated following a friendly fire incident.

Wilderness Battlefield

The Wilderness Battlefield unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, the furthest west of the park units, lies on the north and south sides of Constitution Highway (VA Route 20) and Orange Plank Road (VA Route 621). It encompasses approximately 2,855 acres of the Battle of the Wilderness (May 5–6, 1864) battlefield, including Ellwood. The unit extends roughly from the edge of the Lake of the Woods subdivision on the north to Orange Plank Road and Jackson Trail on the south and from the west end of Hill-Ewell Drive on the west to Brock Road (VA Route 613) on the east. The large Lake Wilderness residential subdivision at the center of the unit is excluded from the District boundary. Jackson Trail runs southeast through the Wilderness Battlefield site to the intersection with Brock Road, where it continues northeast to the Chancellorsville park unit.

The Wilderness Battlefield (contributing site) is an irregularly shaped site divided horizontally by two east-west roads—Constitution Highway and Orange Plank Road—and hemmed in by suburban housing developments. Both roads are maintained by the state and lie outside the District boundary. Several small streams cross the site, including North and South Wilderness Run near Hill-Ewell Drive and Keatons Run north of Constitution Highway. The northern portion of the site is heavily forested and contains earthworks and the remnants of a CCC camp. The middle portion of the site consists predominantly of open fields, such as Saunders Field, the 177-acre Ellwood plantation and historic farmstead sites including the Widow Tapp, Chewning; and Higgerson sites, interspersed with successional forest growth. Multiple sets of linear earthworks run north to south along the middle and edges of the site. The southern extent of the site is predominantly forested, with earthworks running north to south along the east and west edges. The site also contains several monuments along Brock Road and Orange Plank Road. The Wilderness Battlefield site contains the remains of both Confederate and Federal earthworks. The majority of the earthworks are accessible by footpaths and largely covered with a thick layer of leaf litter.

The Wilderness Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure) run roughly north to south along the west edge of the site. Early's Works (LCS No. 007937, ASMIS No. FRSP00152.000, historic associated feature), constructed by Brigadier General Jubal Early's Second Corps, run northwest from Constitution Highway near the western boundary of the site through successional-growth forest. The linear earthworks consist of a 5'- to 8'-tall by 5'-wide parapet fronted by a 3'-deep, 5'-wide trench. Nearly perpendicular trenches extend from the line just north of the Culpeper Mine Road and farther north, near the northern edge of the site. Ewell's Works (LCS No. 007935, ASMIS No. FRSP00166.000, historic associated feature) begin at the north end of Hill-Ewell Drive, opposite the southern end of Early's Works. The linear earthworks run south along the east and west sides of Hill-Ewell Drive to about the Higgerson Farm site and consist of a 3'- to 5'-tall, 5'-wide parapet fronted by a 3'-deep, 5'-wide trench. Low brush and successional-growth forest surround most of the works. A. P. Hill's Works (LCS No. 007936, ASMIS No. FRSP00167.000, historic associated feature) run for approximately 3. 8 miles along the north, south, and west sides of the southern end of Hill-Ewell Drive, through the Widow Tapp site. These works are primarily linear earthworks with interspersed artillery emplacements. The linear works are 1' to 2' tall and 3' wide, with a 1'- to 2'-deep, 1'- to 2'-wide outer trench. Many run across open fields and are covered with sod, while others are surrounded by forest and low brush.

The <u>Wilderness Federal Earthworks (contributing structure)</u> are located in the central and east portions of the site, with one exception. The <u>Federal VI Corps Works (LCS No. 082149</u>, <u>ASMIS No.</u>

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FRSP00179.000, historic associated feature), built by Brigadier General Horatio Wright and Major General James B. Ricketts' Sixth Corps and refaced by Confederate troops under Brigadier General Early, begin just north of Constitution Highway and run approximately northwest parallel to Early's Works. The linear earthworks, surrounded by successional-growth forest, consist of two lines, one approximately 1,100' long, the other 1,700' long, with 3'- to 5'-tall, 5'- to 8'-wide parapets fronted on both sides by a 2'to 3'-deep, 3'-wide outer trench. Sedgwick's Works (LCS No. 007939, ASMIS No. FRSP00161.000, historic associated feature) extend roughly northeast from Constitution Highway for nearly a mile to Plank Road, largely through successional-growth forest. 15 Constructed by Union General John Sedgwick's Sixth Corps, the curvilinear linear earthworks consist of an approximately 3'-tall, 5'-wide earthen parapet faced with a 3'-wide, 2'-deep outer trench. Artillery emplacements are interspersed throughout the line; and a salient is built into the southern portion of the line, which is fronted by a 5'wide, 4'-deep outer trench. The Federal Line (LCS No. 007940, ASMIS No. FRSP00157.000, historic associated feature) extends south from Constitution Highway, opposite the south end of Sedgwick's Works, through the center of the site for nearly 2 miles to Orange Plank Road, skirting the edges of two large suburban housing developments. The curvilinear, discontinuous earthworks consist of an earthen parapet, 2'- to 3'-tall and 3'- to 5'-wide, faced with a 1'- to 2'-wide, 1'-deep outer trench. Two Federal Lunettes (LCS No. 082072, ASMIS No. FRSP00181.000, historic associated feature) constructed by Brigadier General James Wadsworth's Fifth Corps are situated in the forest on the south side of Orange Plank Road, southeast of the intersection with Brock Road. The lunettes consist of a 50'-wide, 30'-deep curved emplacement with 3'-tall, 10'-wide earthen walls. Hancock's Works (LCS No. 007938, ASMIS No. FRSP00160.000, historic associated feature) run south along the east and west sides of Brock Road toward the Jackson Trail.16 Constructed by men under the command of Union General Winfield Hancock, the works encompass three separate lines, one on the east side of Brock Road and the other two on the west. All three lines consist of an earthen parapet approximately 3' tall and 5' wide, fronted by a 3'-wide, 2'-deep earthen trench. They vary in length from approximately 1.7 miles on the east side of the road to 1.9 and 4.75 miles on the west.

Vehicular circulation around the site is primarily via state roads that lie outside the District boundary. Constitution Highway was known at the time of the Civil War as Orange Turnpike and crossed Germanna Plank Road (now VA Route 3 north of Constitution Highway) at the Wilderness Tavern; Germanna Plank Road was rerouted to the north in 1925, abandoning a stretch of the historic Route 20 and a portion of the original alignment of the Germanna Plank Road. The current alignment of Constitution Highway, a two-lane asphalt road maintained by the state, runs southwest from Plank Road, west of the Wilderness Tavern Ruins, through the site toward the community of Locust Grove. Orange Plank Road is a two-lane, state-maintained asphalt road that runs roughly southwest from Plank Road through the site toward Locust Grove and intersects with Brock Road near the eastern edge of the site. Brock Road is a two-lane, state-maintained asphalt road that runs approximately south-southeast along the eastern side of the site from Plank Road to Spotsylvania Court House, past the Spotsylvania Battlefield. The Fawn Lake Subdivision Entrance Gate (non-contributing structure), constructed ca. 1990 by a private developer, is located within the District boundary on the south side of Orange Plank Road, near the west edge of the site. The three-part, curved brick wall and entrance gate to a private residential community flanks Longstreet Drive, a CCC-era road no longer within the District boundary.

¹⁵ The LCS refers to this resource as the Culpeper Mine Road Works, but the fortifications are too far east to be associated with the Culpeper Mine Road. Thus, this document refers to them as Sedgwick's Works.

¹⁶ The LCS refers to this resource as Grant's Left Flank, which may be positionally accurate but is confusing. War Department era signs indicate the earthworks were constructed by Hancock's men; thus, this document refers to them as Hancock's Works.

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Hill-Ewell Drive (LCS No. 082114, contributing structure), constructed from 1931 to 1937 as a tour road for the national military park, is a 4.25-mile, asphalt-paved, curvilinear road that runs along the west side of the site from Constitution Highway to Orange Plank Road. The CCC constructed the four Hill-Ewell Drive Bridges (LCS No. 082116, historic associated features) to cross over small streams. Three of the bridges are 40' to 42' wide, 11' to 27' long structures built of stone and concrete. The fourth bridge is 30' wide and 100' long, with curved ends, battered stone sides, and an elliptical arch. The Hill-Ewell Drive Culverts and Lined Ditches (LCS No. 082115, historic associated feature), a series of stone-faced culverts and stone-lined drainage ditches along the edges of the roadbed, provide drainage. The stone-lined Hill-Ewell Tree Rings (LCS No. 082119, historic associated feature) surround trees near the north end of the road, across from Saunders Field.

Several disused remnants of historic roads leading to Civil War defensive works or abandoned farmsteads remain within the site. The ca. 1815 Old Orange Turnpike Road Trace (LCS No. 007941, ASMIS No. FRSP00172.000, contributing structure), a remnant of the historic alignment of Constitution Highway, runs east from the current Constitution Highway to Plank Road, emerging just east of the current intersection. The 18'-wide, 1,000'-long gravel roadbed is closed to vehicular use. Portions of Orange Plank Road overlay the 1852 Orange Plank Road Trace (LCS No. 007942, ASMIS No. FRSP00174.000, contributing structure), a 22'-wide, 6,000'-long former plank road laid out by William Mahone. Remnants of the original alignment of the ca. 1716 Germanna Plank Road, the Germanna Plank Road Trace (contributing structure), now used as a farm lane, run southeast from Lyons Lane (outside the Park boundary) then turn north to intersect with VA Route 3 east of Wilderness Tavern. The Culpeper Mine Road (LCS No. 082148, contributing structure), an 1800–1860 road trace, runs northeast for approximately 5,900' through the woods north of the Wilderness Visitor Kiosk, past several Confederate earthworks built on either side of the 10'-wide roadbed. The Higgerson Farm House Lane (LCS No. 082106, contributing structure) is a 10'-wide, 100'-long, sod-covered sunken road trace running west from Hill-Ewell Drive to the former site of the Higgerson farm.

The <u>Wilderness Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure)</u>, built in 1964, is located on the grassy north side of Constitution Highway at the east edge of Saunders Field and faces west. A short parking/entrance loop just east of Hill-Ewell Drive provides access to the kiosk. Constructed of brick laid in a common bond, the one-story structure is enclosed on three sides and protected by an asphalt-shingled, shallow-pitched gable roof with deep overhangs supported by posts extending vertically from the brick walls. The concrete pad foundation extends to the parking area.

The <u>Wilderness Maintenance Road (LCS No. 082107, contributing structure)</u>, laid out by the CCC ca. 1933, is a 10'-wide, dirt and gravel access road with deep ruts that runs north from Constitution Highway, near the Wilderness Visitor Kiosk, for 640' to a maintenance area. The <u>Wilderness Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082112, contributing building)</u>, constructed in 1936 by CCC Camp MP-4 for use by the National Park Service, is at the northern end of the road and faces southeast. The one-story, six-bay-by-one-bay, wood-frame building has three-bay-by-one-bay wings at the north and south ends. Its side-gable roof is covered with standing-seam metal, and the walls are clad in clapboards.

¹⁷ The LCS refers to this resource as Flat Run Road, but it is likely Culpeper Mine Road. Flat Run Road is well outside the park boundary. From *Finding Culpeper Mine Road*, "The Culpeper Mine Road, which was no more than a cowpath, was commonly known as the Spotswood Road for that portion from the Germanna Highway to the Constitution Highway. There are maps that label this roadbed Flat Run Road, which is easily confused with the County Road 601 of the same name, which today is the only connection from Germanna Highway to Constitution Highway that avoids their intersection" (Rainey 2012).

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Each bay contains a pair of double hinged wood doors with plywood in the upper portions that likely had nine-light panels originally.

The 140th New York Infantry Monument (LCS No. 082113, non-contributing object), erected in 1989 by members of the One Hundred Fortieth New York Volunteer Infantry reenactors group, is located in Saunders Field northwest of the Wilderness Visitor Kiosk. The 4'-tall, 4'-wide, 1'-thick grey granite marker has an 8"-tall, 5'-long, 2'-wide granite base with a sloped edge engraved with "May 5, 1864." A Greek cross is engraved in the center of the bottom half of the marker.

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania chapters of the UDC installed the 1927 <u>Battle of the Wilderness</u> <u>UDC Marker (LCS No. 082120, contributing object)</u> at its original location adjacent to Route 20 (Constitution Highway). The National Park Service moved the marker to its current location just south of Constitution Highway at the edge of Saunders Field.

East of the Wilderness Visitor Kiosk, at 35425 Constitution Highway, are four non-contributing mid-tolate-twentieth century resources: the Middlebrook House (non-contributing building), the
Middlebrook Storage Shed (non-contributing structure), the Gilder Marker (non-contributing
object), and the Middlebrook Marker (non-contributing object). The Middlebrook House is a onestory, L-shaped, brick ranch house constructed in 1954; a detached carport is immediately northeast of the
house. The Storage Shed north of the house is a low, shed-roofed, vertical board structure with
horizontally sliding doors in the east elevation. The Gilder Marker, erected in 2011, consists of a bronze
plaque affixed to a boulder thanking Richard Gilder of New York for contributions made toward the Civil
War Trust's acquisition of the Middlebrook property. The Middlebrook Marker, also placed in 2011,
consists of a bronze plaque affixed to a metal post thanking Warren and Shirley Middlebrook for their
involvement in the sale of the property to the Civil War Trust.

Several additional monuments are located in the southern portion of the Wilderness Battlefield site and are described from east to west, beginning with the <u>General Alexander Hays Monument (LCS No. 007948, contributing object)</u> on the west side of Brock Road, north of the intersection with Orange Plank Road. Dedicated in 1905 by the Sixty-Third Pennsylvania Regimental Association in honor of their former commander who died during the Battle of the Wilderness, the monument consists of a large black-painted cannon standing on end with its muzzle facing up on a 2'-tall, 6' square granite base. The <u>Hays Monument Fence (LCS No. 082108, historic associated feature)</u>, a circular metal picket fence, surrounds the monument. A large trefoil, the insignia of the Second Corps, is affixed to the cannon.

The 1942 12th New Jersey Regiment Monument (LCS No. 007947, contributing object) is on the south side of Orange Plank Road, southwest of the Brock Road intersection, and commemorates the service of the Twelfth New Jersey Volunteers. Paid for by the State of New Jersey, the monument consists of a dark shale boulder, 4' 8" tall, 3' 6" wide, and 1' 6" thick, with a rectangular bronze plaque affixed to it. The plaque has a clover, the insignia of the Second Corps, at the top. A 1964 rededication marker sits immediately to the west of the monument.

A short walking trail leads from the Twelfth New Jersey Regiment Monument to the <u>Vermont Brigade</u> <u>Monument (non-contributing object)</u> in the woods along the south side of Orange Plank Road. Paid for by the State of Vermont and dedicated on September 16, 2006, the large Barre granite monument is 4' tall, 8' long and 2' 6" wide and has a 1'-tall, 9'-long, 3' 6"-thick rectangular base. The top of the monument is carved to resemble Camel's Hump, a prominent mountain in Vermont. The stone is battered, aside from an inscription panel centered in the east and west faces.

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The <u>Brigadier General Wadsworth</u>, <u>USV Monument (LCS No. 007949, contributing object)</u>, erected in 1936 by Union Brigadier General Wadsworth's grandson Congressman James Wadsworth to mark the place where Wadsworth was killed in action, is on the north side of Orange Plank Road, slightly northeast of the intersection with Hill-Ewell Drive. It consists of an 8' 5"-tall, 5' 5"-wide, 3'-deep rubble stone column resting on an 8"-tall rubble base set into concrete, with a rectangular bronze tablet affixed to the south face. The tablet has a bas-relief profile of Wadsworth.

The Colonel James D. Nance Monument (LCS No. 007950, contributing object), erected on August 16, 1912, by two veterans of the Third South Carolina to mark the approximate site of the Confederate colonel's death, is located on the south side of Orange Plank Road, slightly southwest of the Hill-Ewell Drive intersection. The 2' 6"-tall, 2' 1"-wide gray granite block has battered sides and rear face and a sloped dressed north face.

Three monuments commemorating Texas troops and their insistence that Robert E. Lee fall back to the rear of the line for his own safety are located on the north side of Orange Plank Road at the edge of the field south of Hill-Ewell Drive. The "Lee to the Rear" Texans Monument (LCS No. 007945, contributing object), one of the 1903 Smith markers located throughout the District, is closest to the road. The Texas Brigade Monument (LCS No. 007946, contributing object), erected in 1964 by the Texas State Civil War Centennial Commission, is a rectangular red granite shaft that is 8' tall, 2' 6" wide, and 1' thick on a rectangular pedestal. The north and south faces feature an inscription beneath a star surrounded by laurels. The Lee-to-the-Rear Stone (contributing object) is an uninscribed white field quartz boulder, approximately 4' tall, 3' long, and 1' 6 in width, located slightly northwest of the Texas Infantry Monument. Placed by local residents in 1891, the stone marks the former gravesites of approximately 40 Texan soldiers now buried in the Fredericksburg Confederate Cemetery.

Archeological Sites

Chatham

The ca. 1768 Chatham Smoke House Foundation Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.001, contributing site) originally was identified in 1979 immediately northwest of the main manor house. The ruins as they existed at that time consisted of a heavily weathered handmade brick square at ground surface measuring 16' 8" and held together by a crude mortar made from river silts and lime. The feature was documented in the field and buried to ensure its preservation; it is currently marked by four dark brown wooden posts set by the NPS to interpret the corners of the structure.

Battle of Fredericksburg

Bernard's Cabins (ASMIS No. FRSP00066.000, contributing site) is interpreted as one of a set of slave quarter complexes associated with the Mansfield plantation owned by Arthur Bernard. Documentary research suggests the complex originally consisted of at least three two-room "double cabins," a stone-lined well, and perhaps a four-room house with a fourth double cabin. Most of the structures in the complex were located atop the east end of a low ridge on the north side of the lane connecting Mansfield Road to Massaponax Road and Mine Road. Confederate Captain Greenlee Davidson used the cabins as an artillery position in defense of the Union advance of Major General John Gibbon and General George G. Meade on December 13, 1862. Archeological survey in 1994 and 2004

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identified evidence of sub-plow-zone features and artifacts possibly associated with the site's use as slave quarters and several depressions and earthen platforms possibly associated with its military use.

Substantial archeological work has been conducted at the Washington Artillery and Willis Plantation Site (CLI No. 154207, ASMIS No. FRSP00036.000, contributing site), located just north of Fredericksburg National Cemetery overlooking the Sunken Road. The earliest remains date to the Willis occupation of the site from the late eighteenth through early nineteenth centuries and include the main residential structure, defined by a brick-lined cellar hole, and significant amounts of material culture. The foundation for a possible laundry building also has been identified. A second period of occupation dating from the mid-nineteenth century to the First and Second Battles of Fredericksburg also has been identified from a dense scatter of brick and a laid brick foundation associated with a small dependency from the Mitchell-era tenure on the property. Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) studies have identified what is interpreted as the main Mitchell residence in an area straddling the north wall of the National Cemetery. GPR survey and trenching also have confirmed the presence of a length of shelter trench, a lunette feature, and ordinance along the slope above the Sunken Road; a concentration of percussion caps (artillery discharge) and a Howitzer location between Willis and Marye's Heights; and two rifle trenches with evidence of a brick flooring.

The Ebert House Site (CLI No. 154053, ASMIS No. FRSP00035.000, contributing site) is located at the corner of modern-day Kirkland Avenue and the Sunken Road. The exact construction date of the house is unknown, but it may have been built as early as 1826 by John S. Wellford. In 1858, Henry Ebert, a recent Prussian immigrant, purchased the property and retained ownership until the mid-twentieth century. The house was demolished sometime around 1957. The Ebert property is reported to have been on the direct line of march of Union troops under the control of Generals William H. French, Winfield Scott Hancock, Oliver Otis Howard, and Andrew A. Humphreys. The site covers an area approximately 75' north—south by 85' east—west on a colluvial/alluvial fan formed at the base of the ravine that separates Willis and Marye's hills, sloping slightly north toward Kirkland Avenue, and is included within the landscaped grounds of the Kirkland Monument. Archeological work conducted at the site in 1965 and 2002 successfully identified the house's chimney stack, a brick-lined well, a pathway, and the remains of at least some *in situ* sandstone foundation stones.

Howison's Mill (CLI No. 154209, ASMIS No. FRSP00001.000, contributing site) contains the remains of a gristmill built in 1797 by Fontaine Maury on the banks of Hazel Run. The site was used as a Union encampment during the Battle of Chancellorsville, and all of its machinery was destroyed as Union troops retreated from Fredericksburg. The mill was back up and running by 1867, but the mill dam was later destroyed by flooding, and a December 1894 fire destroyed the mill. Field-verified features consist of the original mill foundation ruins, the remains of a later nineteenth-century dam structure, and a channelized stream bed.

The <u>Stevens House Site</u>, located along Sunken Road just south of its intersection with Mercer, was constructed in 1859 as a one story wooden structure. As reported in the 1860 census, the house was occupied by Edward, Martha, Mary, and Agnes Stephens and two slaves, although it is unclear whether the slaves were housed on the property or elsewhere. GPR survey and subsurface testing has identified the approximate position of the house as it stood during the war and a sheet refuse deposit consisting primarily of shell that likely dates to the Stevens occupation.

Jackson Shrine

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The <u>Jackson Shrine Site</u> comprises approximately 42 acres of the former domestic core of Fairfield Plantation. Fairfield was established in 1798 at Guinea Station and consisted of a succession of brick and wood manor houses, dependencies, and slave quarters. The sole surviving structure from the Civil War era is the office building in which Stonewall Jackson died. A Confederate supply depot was established on the grounds during the Battle of Chancellorsville, and the property also was used as a hospital facility and temporary interment location. Archeological features visible at the site consist of a 30'-x-50' depression that marks the former location of the Fairfield manor house and a depression associated with a former icehouse. Subsurface investigations have identified a hall-and-parlor type earthfast dwelling and a nineteenth-century slave cabin designated the Thornton-Chandler Slave Quarter. No evidence of the Confederate supply depot has been archeologically identified.

Chancellorsville Battlefield

The <u>Catharine Furnace Ruins</u> remain from a furnace operated as a local and regional iron plantation from 1837 to 1846, used as a Confederate iron foundry during the war, and abandoned completely shortly after the war. The site comprises 35 subsites, most of which are untyped depressions and structural platforms that may be associated with the iron operations or the Confederate military encampment set up there for five weeks in the period preceding the Battle of Chancellorsville. Aboveground remains consist of the structural ruins of the furnace, engine house and fuel court, coal house, blacksmith shop and loading facility, the Catharine Furnace dam, and the furnace race and roadbed.

The Chancellorsville Inn site covers an area approximately 200' square on the high, weathered uplands at the northeast corner of the intersection of Route 3 and Ely's Ford Road. The original Georgian-style brick mansion was built in 1816 and destroyed by fire during the Battle of Chancellorsville, when it served as a Union hospital facility and headquarters. The remains of the inn's brick foundations, exposed during archeological work in 1977, have been stabilized along with the stone front stairs. Investigations north and west of the foundation identified in situ foundation elements of the surrounding outbuildings and dependencies that were standing at the time of the war, although no comprehensive work has been conducted on those features.

The <u>Fairview</u> site is located in a former agricultural field on the south side of Route 3. Fairview, built in 1809, was a log cabin-like building that, according to historical records, was 20' by 30' and was used first as a Union, and then a Confederate, artillery position during the Battle of Chancellorsville. The building was destroyed during the battle. Trenching and shovel test pits have identified the remains of the brick and sandstone chimney base and an assemblage of military artifacts.

The Matthew Fontaine Maury Farmstead (ASMIS No. FRSP00020.000, contributing site) covers an area 200' north-south by 125' east-west and is located on the apex of a narrow, weathered, west-trending upland ridge. The property was purchased by the Maury family in 1797, at which time it consisted of 103 acres and a brick house. By the time of the Civil War, the eighteenth-century brick house had been replaced by a second nineteenth-century building that was eventually demolished. The site comprises a brick-walled, 60'-x-25' cellar hole separated by a path from a 25'-x-30' landscaped platform that could be an addition to the main dwelling or an outbuilding. A second cellar hole depression measuring 40' square with an attached platform lies approximately 100' to the north and is interpreted as the remains of the original eighteenth-century Maury House.

The Wellford Farmstead Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00009.000, contributing site) is located on a landscaped and platformed section of an upland west of Jackson Trail. A large patch of daffodils covers

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the area between the roadbed and the house site. Smaller gardens or patches of daffodils lie to the south and southeast of the structure. Four structural features have been identified at the site consisting of a 25'-x-20', 3'-deep, brick-walled cellar hole likely associated with the antebellum Wellford House; a wood-covered well, a 10'-x-12' possible outbuilding foundation; and a 42'-x-60' barn foundation.

The <u>Bullock House Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00041.000</u>, <u>contributing site)</u> is located in an open field approximately 200' west of Ely's Ford Road and is bordered on the south by woodland. The house built in 1849 was utilized as a Union artillery reserve position and was virtually destroyed during the Battle of Chancellorsville. The surviving archeological components of the site consist of the buried foundation and cellar remains of the main house and an associated secondary structure. Debris recovered from the cellar suggested that the feature remained open into the twentieth century and had been used as a dumping site. Artifacts recovered from the site included ceramics, container glass, architectural debris including brick, flat glass and nails, and children's toys.

Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield

The Harrison House (ASMIS No. FRSP00135.000, contributing site) is the site of a one-and-one-half-story building set on a stone foundation with two brick chimneys and two "shed additions" that survived the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House but fell into disrepair and was demolished shortly after the war. Remnants of the chimney bases and displaced foundation stones survive to mark the former location of the house, but there are no surface indications of the support structures that once surrounded the house including barns, stables, sheds, and a possible detached kitchen and slave quarters. The site lies in an area approximately 35' north-south by 48' east-west on the apex of a weathered, north-trending upland ridge. North- and northwest-trending ravines bracket the site on the west and northeast and converge to create the head of a larger north-trending ravine north of the site.

The Landrum House Ruins (LCS No. 007933, ASMIS No. FRSP00130.000, contributing site) are approximately 122' long and 184' wide and lie on the apex of a southeast-trending weathered upland ridge. A steep slope occurs to the northeast and gradually diminishes to the south. A rolling landscape characterizes the views to the southwest, and a dirt path that was likely a former road leads to the site from that direction. The aboveground, visible remains of the site consist of two stone chimney bases, several depressions that may be the remains of the former icehouse and other outbuildings, and linear drainage ditches. Subsurface testing at the site identified what was tentatively interpreted as a preserved cultural floor and the northwest and southeast corners of an original stone foundation that indicated an approximately 46'-x-20' building.

The McCoull House (ASMIS No. FRSP00132.001, contributing site) is located off Gordon Drive at the end of a spur road on the apex of a northeast—east-trending weathered upland ridge bracketed to the north and south by the heads of east-trending ravines. The one-and-one-half-story wood house with associated dependencies built ca. 1800 on the site was located in the Mule Shoe and survived the war but was destroyed by fire in 1921.

The Spindle House Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00138.000, contributing site) is located along a designated trail in an open field and is identified by two display signs. The two-and-one-half-story wood farmhouse built in 1821 originally was sited on a small rise and surrounded by an orchard and outbuildings before being destroyed by Confederate troops on May 8, 1864. The archeological remains consist of a 15'-x-25' backfilled cellar and associated laid brick feature; a depression marking the likely location of a

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springhouse; a linear mound of demolition debris; and a large assemblage of domestic debris with a smaller admixture of military debris.

Wilderness Battlefield

The Chewning House Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00124.000, contributing site) is located on the apex of a high weathered upland lobe at the head of a north-trending ravine that enters South Wilderness Run. The house, built in 1836 as a one-and-one-half-story structure with a shed addition and used briefly as a Confederate headquarters during the Battle of the Wilderness, stood until 1947 when it was destroyed by fire. No structural or archeological evidence of the house has been identified.

The <u>Higgerson Farm Ruins (LCS No. 082121, ASMIS No. FRSP00122.000, contributing site)</u> consist of a pile of rubble and a brick chimney that constitute the remains of a house that dated to the early 1800s and was destroyed in the 1930s. The house was a one-and-one-half-story, wood-frame building located on a road that connected Orange Plank Road with the Orange Turnpike. The Higgerson Farm was the site of some of the heaviest and most confused fighting during the Battle of the Wilderness. On May 5, 1864, Union soldiers of Brigadier General James Wadsworth's division battled Confederate brigades under Brigadier Generals John Gordon and Junius Daniel in the fields and adjacent woods of the Higgerson Farm.

The <u>Widow Tapp Ruins Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00125.000, contributing site)</u> is located on a low, weathered upland ridge above and east of a north-trending ravine. The one-and-one-half-story log home with at least two outbuildings and a small orchard survived the war but was destroyed sometime after 1865. No physical evidence of the house or associated outbuildings has been identified.

The Wilderness Tavern Ruins Site (LCS No. 082109, ASMIS No. FRSP00105.000, contributing site) lies on a weathered, west-trending ridge east of Wilderness Run Valley and overlooks the Plank Road Bridge. The landform is separated from the historic trace of the Germanna Plank Road by a west-trending ravine. In 1860, the site was the home of the Simms family and a group of ten enslaved people. The tavern, described as a two-story wood building, was destroyed during the war; any surviving archeological remains likely lie under the westbound lanes of Route 3. The site currently consists of a network of terraced landscapes, road traces, and a 12'-x-30' stone foundation believed to be the remains of one of the tavern's former dependencies.

Collections¹⁸

The museum collections of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP consist of archeological materials recovered from battlefield and historic sites, military items, and objects and documents associated with people or events relevant to the stated purpose of the park's scope of collections.

Statement of Integrity

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District retains integrity in the areas and periods of significance defined in Section 8 of this Registration Form. In general, the District conveys its historical significance through its location, setting, design, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The

¹⁸ The collections statement is adapted from the Collection Management Plan, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park, Northeast Museum Services Center, U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, 2009.

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District encompasses the core areas (as defined by the Civil War Sites Advisory Commission) of four major Civil War battlefields (Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Spotsylvania Court House, and the Wilderness), the smaller battle site associated with Salem Church, and antebellum plantations across the District. Although increased visitor use and management changes have resulted in incremental changes to certain historic features, the District's intact topography, historic eighteenth-century road traces, and field and forest configuration effectively communicate how and why the landscape contributed to the outcome of the battles. No substantial manmade changes—such as purposeful topographic change, large-scale replanting, or development—have occurred within the District boundaries.

Defining features of the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania battlefield landscape that are evident within the District include the hills of Marye's Heights at Fredericksburg, the open fields of Spotsylvania Court House and Chancellorsville Battlefield, and the thick underbrush of the Wilderness. Essential views at Lee's Hill and from Hazel Grove to Fairview at Chancellorsville Battlefield are maintained and help to demonstrate the reasoning behind the construction of fortifications at those sites. Many of the primary public roads date to the initial park development period between 1927 and 1942. Historic farm roads and traces were generally present during the Civil War and played important roles in the military activity. Changes in agricultural use over time throughout the District have altered the pattern of open versus closed that characterized the historic landscape. Woodlands now cover some areas that were open during the war; however, as stipulated in the National Register guidelines for evaluating the integrity of historic battlefields, natural changes in vegetation do not necessarily diminish a site's integrity. In many cases, forest growth has helped to preserve the earthworks at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania by preventing recreational use of the land. The condition of the earthen fortification remnants within the District varies greatly from site to site, but overall they possess good integrity. Many sections retain evidence of their design and workmanship that helps to convey how the earthworks functioned in battle.

Alterations to Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County battlefield sites after the Civil War have not resulted in a lack of integrity within the District. The majority of commemorative objects date to the early twentieth century or the centennial of the Civil War. Resources associated with the early twentieth-century conservation and development of the battlefield by the federal government also retain integrity. More extensive alterations to the setting have occurred outside the District, where modern development has erased many signs of the Civil War-era history and threatens to encroach on the overall feeling of the District, which is surrounded in many places by industrial sites or suburban housing developments. However, forest screens and carefully planned circulation routes help to create a sufficient degree of distance between the majority of the battlefield sites within the District and the surrounding density and noise.

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA County and State

DISTRICT DATA SHEET

CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

* Indicates a contributing resource identified in National Register documentation for Fredericksburg & Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park and Cemetery accepted by the Keeper of the National Register on May 23, 1978 (NRIS #66000046).

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
BUILDINGS = 32					
Chatham Manor*	1768–1771; altered 1820– 1830; restored 1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 000422 ASMIS FRSP00009.001 VCRIS 089-0011	1	2, 3
Chatham Caretaker's Cottage	1931	Chatham	LCS 080077 ASMIS FRSP00009.014 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Carriage House, Stable, and Boathouse	1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 007877 VCRIS 089-0011	1	10
Chatham Dairy Barn	1890-1900; altered 1984- 1987	Chatham	LCS 080076 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Farm Office and Garage	1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 007873 VCRIS 089-0011	1	11
Chatham Kitchen	1771; altered 1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 007872 VCRIS 089-0011	1	6
Chatham Laundry	1771; altered 1925	Chatham	LCS 007874 VCRIS 089-0011	ľ	5
Chatham Milk House	1900–1905	Chatham	LCS 007879 VCRIS 089-0011	1	13
Chatham North Greenhouse	1935	Chatham	LCS 007881 VCRIS 089-0011	1	12
Chatham South Greenhouse	1920–1929	Chatham	LCS 007880 VCRIS 089-0011	1	12
Chatham Well House	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082051 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge (Quarters #1)*	1869–1870	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007889 ASMIS FRSP00063.001 VCRIS 111-0147-0037	2	15
Fredericksburg Maintenance Building	1935-1936; altered 1960- 1970	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082071 CLI 153859 VCRIS 111-0147-0001	2	24

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Fredericksburg Visitor Center	1935–1936	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082069 CLI 153853 VCRIS 111-0147-0001	2	23
Fredericksburg Visitor Center Storage Building	ca. 1950	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0001	2	None
Innis (Ennis) House*	1859–1861	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007871 CLI 153761 ASMIS FRSP00056.000 VCRIS 111-0575	2	21
Superintendent's Garage	1938–1939	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082010 VCRIS 111-0147-0009	4	31
Superintendent's Quarters (Quarters #2)	1938–1939	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082064 VCRIS 111-0147-0009	4	30
War Department Log Garage	1928–1933	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 083058 VCRIS 111-0147-0004	4	34
War Department Maintenance Building	1928–1933	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082060 VCRIS 111-0147-0011	4	33
War Department Maintenance Office	1928–1933	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 083057 VCRIS 111-0147-0010	4	32
Fairfield Plantation Office*	1828–1829	Jackson Shrine	LCS 000426 VCRIS 016-0092	1	37
Jackson Shrine Caretaker's House (Quarters #3)	1942	Jackson Shrine	VCRIS 016-0092	1	38
Salem Church (Old Salem Church)*	1844–1845	Salem Church	LCS 000428 VCRIS 088-0062	1	39
Chancellorsville Visitor Center	1962	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0002	2	53
Quarters #4	1961	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0078	2	None
Quarters #5	1961	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0079	2	None
Quarters #6	1961	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0080	2	56
Chancellorsville Maintenance Building	1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082082 VCRIS 111-0147-0081	3	None
Spotsylvania Court House Maintenance Building	1937	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082025 VCRIS 111-0147-0054	4	None
Ellwood (Lacy House)*	1781-1799; altered 1848, 1907, 1933-1937	Ellwood	LCS 007951 CLI 153825 VCRIS 088-0139	5	64

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Wilderness Maintenance Building	1936	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082112 VCRIS 111-0147-0102	4	68
STRUCTURES = 52					
Chatham Corn Crib	1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 007878 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
North Greenhouse Hot Bed Foundations	1935	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	12
South Greenhouse Hot Bed Foundations	1920–1929	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	12
Chatham Rotunda	1926	Chatham	LCS 007883 VCRIS 089-0011	1	4
Chatham Rotunda Historic Assoc	iated Feature				
Pan Statue	1926; 2013 restored	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011-0002	1	4
Chatham Summer House	1926; altered 1940	Chatham	LCS 007875 VCRIS 089-0011	1	9
Chatham Entrance Gate	1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 082043 VCRIS 089-0011	1	1
Chatham Service Drive Gates	1920–1930	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Septic Tank	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082052 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham System of Roads	1769–1820; 1920–1930	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	1, 11
Chatham System of Roads History	ic Associated Featu	res			
Chatham Service Drive	ca. 1920	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	11
Chatham Lane	1769–1771	Chatham	LCS 082035 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Farm Lane	1769–1820; altered 1922– 1927	Chatham	LCS 082046 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Farm Road Trace	1769–1820	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
North Embankment Road Trace	Mid-19 th C	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Carriage Drive	1769–1771	Chatham	LCS 082039 VCRIS 089-0011	1	1

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Chatham Carriage Drive Culverts	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082040 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Carriage Drive Retaining Wall	1920–1930	Chatham	LCS 082042 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Carriage Drive Spur	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082041 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Caretaker's Cottage Drive	ca. 1925	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge Driveway	1889	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 081996 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	None
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gates and Wall	1866–1870	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007888 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2–3	14
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Roads	1866–1870	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 081993 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	None
Braehead Road	1800–1820	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082059 VCRIS 111-0147-0012	4	None
Bridle Trail Steps	1933–1935	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082063 VCRIS 111-0147-0013	4	None
Fredericksburg Confederate Earthworks*	1862, 1864	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0014	2–8, 10	27
Fredericksburg Confederate Ear	thworks Historic As	sociated Features			
Lee Hill Artillery Position	1862	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007857 ASMIS FRSP00148.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0014	3	27
Confederate Line	1862–1863	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007858 CLI 153257 ASMIS FRSP00169.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0014	2–8, 10	None
Howison Hill Artillery Position	1862	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007859 ASMIS FRSP00147.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0014	3	None
Prospect Hill Artillery Position	1862	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007860 ASMIS FRSP00065.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0014	10	None
Fredericksburg Visitor Center Entrance Loop	1935–1936	Fredericksburg Battlcfield	LCS 082123 CLI 153645 VCRIS 111-0147-0001	2	25

Resour	rce Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Fredericksburg Visitor Center Walkways		ca. 1962	ca. 1962 Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082070 CLI 153621 VCRIS 111-0147-0001	2	25
Lee Dr	ive	1928–1940, altered 1987– 1989	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082056 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	3–8, 10	29, 35
Lee Dr	ive Historic Associated Fe	atures				
	Lee Drive Bridges	1933–1935	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082058 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	Various	35
	Lee Drive Culverts	1933–1935	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082057 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	Various	29
	Pickett's Turnout	1933–1935	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082061 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	4	None
	Pickett's Turnout Culverts	1933–1935	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082062 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	4	None
	Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive	1938–1940	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082065 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	4	None
	Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive Culverts	1938–1940	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082066 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	4	None
	War Department Maintenance Area Road	1928–1934	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082131 VCRIS 111-0147-0015	4	None
Lee Hil	ll Visitor Kiosk	1962	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0016	3	26
Prospec	ct Hill Steps	1933–1940	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082068 VCRIS 111-0147-0017	10	None
Sunken	Road*	1810–1820; altered 1870– 1940; restored 2005	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 000429 CLI 153619 ASMIS FRSP00052.001 VCRIS 111-0147-0018	2	20
Sunken Wall	Road Reconstructed	1939	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082080 CLI 154263 VCRIS 111-0147-0019	2	20
Sunken	Road Wall*	1800–1840	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082079 CLI 153797 VCRIS 111-0147-0020	2	None
	atendent's Quarters Brick ay and Patio	1938–1940	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0009	4	None
War De Storage	epartment Maintenance Shed	1928–1933	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 083056 VCRIS 111-0147-0021	4	None

Res	ource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
ee	Hill Trail	1962	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0022	3	None
	kson Monument/Meade amid	1898	Fredericksburg Battlefield	007864 088-0128	10	36
ale	em Church Road Trace	ca. 1844	Salem Church	VCRIS 111-0147-0045	1	None
	ncellorsville Battlefield r Road System	1931–1943	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0082	1–12	55, 59, 62
ha	ncellorsville Battlefield Tou	r Road System Histori	ic Associated Feature	s		
	Berry-Paxton Drive	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082098 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	4, 5	None
	Bullock Road	1850-60; altered 1931-1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082101 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	2, 3	None
	Jackson Trail	1830-1862; altered 1939- 1943	Chancellorsville Battlefield/ Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007897 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	7, 9–12/ 15	59, 62
	Jackson Trail Stream Ford	1940–1942	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082105 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	12	62
	Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Culverts and Lined Ditches	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082099, 082102, 082089, 082084, 082153, 082086, 082093, 082095, 082097 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	Various	None
	Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Bridges	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082100, 082090, 082117, 082151 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	Various	60
	Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Tree Rings	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082087, 082139 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	Various	None
	Furnace Road (Old Furnace Road)	1798-1804; *altered 1931- 1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082122 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	7, 8	59
	Hooker Drive	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082083 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	3	None
	McLaws' Drive	1830-1845; altered 1931- 1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082088, 082091 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	6, 8	None
	River Road	1800–1860; ca. 1935	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082085, 082152 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	5	None

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Sickles Drive	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082092 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	4, 7	59
Slocum Drive	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082094 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	5	None
Stuart Drive	1931–1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082096 VCRIS 111-0147-0082	4	None
Ely's Ford Road	Pre-1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0083	3	None
Chancellorsville Confederate Earthworks*	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0084	2, 6–8	58
Chancellorsville Confederate Ear	thworks Historic A	ssociated Features			
12th Corps, Pender's Line	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082154 ASMIS FRSP00176.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0084	2	58
Posey's Line	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082145 ASMIS FRSP00031.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0084	7	None
Anderson's Line Gun Pit	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082142 ASMIS FRSP00171.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0084	6	None
McLaws' Line	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007891 ASMIS FRSP00178.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0084	6, 8	None
Jackson's Corps Line	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082150 ASMIS FRSP00158.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0084	2	None
Chancellorsville Federal Earthworks*	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0085	3-5	57, 63
Chancellorsville Federal Earthwo	rks Historic Associ	iated Features			
Fairview Artillery Position	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007892 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	5	63
Federal V Corps, Griffin's 1 st Division Line	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082140 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	3	None
Hooker's Apex	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007896 ASMIS FRSP00159.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	3	57
Slocum's Line	1863; altered 1931-1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007894 ASMIS FRSP00150.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	5	None

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Slocum's Log Works (Stonewall's Brigade Line)	1863; altered 1863, 1933–1935	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007895 ASMIS FRSP00151.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	4	None
Couch's Works (Federal Works North of Pike)	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007893 ASMIS FRSP00149.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0085	3, 5	None
Chancellorsville Visitor Center Entrance Road and Parking Area	1962	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0002	2	None
Ranger Lane	1961	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0086	2	None
Spotsylvania Court House Federal Earthworks*	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0055	1, 3–7	43
Spotsylvania Court House Federa	l Earthworks Histori	ic Associated Features			
Burnside's Works	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007919 ASMIS FRSP00154.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0055	4, 6–7	None
Federal VI Corps Works	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007918 ASMIS FRSP00153.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0055	1,3	None
Hancock's Works	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007917 ASMIS FRSP00156.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0055	3, 5	None
Spotsylvania Court House Confederate Earthworks*	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0056	2, 4-7	47, 50
Spotsylvania Court House Confed	lerate Earthworks Hi	storic Associated Feat	tures		
Confederate 1 st Corps Works	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007916 ASMIS FRSP00168.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	5	None
East Angle	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007922 ASMIS FRSP00164.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	4	None
East Shoulder of Mule Shoe	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007923 ASMIS FRSP00165.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	4	None
Lee's Final Line	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007920 ASMIS FRSP00160.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	6, 7	None
Bloody Angle*	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007921 ASMIS FRSP00163.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	4	47

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
West Shoulder of Mule Shoe	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007924 ASMIS FRSP00162.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0056	4, 6	None
Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System	1930–1942	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0057	3–7	44, 48, 51
Spotsylvania Court House Tour R	oad System Historic	Associated Features			
Anderson Drive	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082003 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	4, 6	48
Bloody Angle Drive	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082001 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	4	None
Burnside Drive	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082009 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	7	51
Gordon Drive	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082021 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	4	None
Grant Drive	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082008 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	3	None
Hancock Drive	1930–1942	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082007 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	5	None
McCoull House CCC Access Road	1800-1850; altered ca. 1933	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007926; 083059; 082026 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	4	None
Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System Culverts	1930–1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082016, 082019, 082023, 082022, 082014, 082013 VCRIS 111-0147-0057	Various	44
Landrum House Road	1800–1850	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007925 VCRIS 111-0147-0058	4	None
Spotsylvania Court House Visitor Kiosk	1964	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0059	3	42
Upton's Road Trace	1800–1850	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007927 VCRIS 111-0147-0060	3	None
Ellwood Barnyard Road	1840-1850; altered ca.1934	Ellwood	LCS 082110 CLI 153657, 153661 VCRIS 088-0139	5	None
Ellwood Entrance Road Trace	ca. 1775; altered ca. 1820	Ellwood	VCRIS 088-0139	5	None
Wilderness Federal Earthworks*	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0103	1-2, 4-6, 8-9, 11- 12, 14- 15	None

Resou	rce Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Wilder	rness Federal Earthworks H	istoric Associated	Features			
	Federal Line	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007940 ASMIS FRSP00157.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0103	4–5, 8, 11	None
	Federal Lunettes	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082072 ASMIS FRSP00181.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0103	5	None
	Federal VI Corps Works	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082149 ASMIS FRSP00179.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0103	1	None
	Hancock's Works (Grant's Left Flank)	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007938 ASMIS FRSP00160.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0103	9, 12, 14–15	None
	Sedgwick's Works (Culpeper Mine Road Works)	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007939 ASMIS FRSP00161.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0103	2	None
	rness Confederate works*	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0104	1, 4, 7, 10–11	69
Wilder	rness Confederate Earthwor	ks Historic Associ	ated Features			
	A. P. Hill's Works	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007936 ASMIS FRSP00167.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0104	10–11	None
	Early's Works	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007937 ASMIS FRSP00152.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0104	1	None
	Ewell's Works	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007935 ASMIS FRSP00166.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0104	4, 7	None
Hill-E	well Drive	1931–1937	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082114 VCRIS 111-01470105	7, 10–11	70
Hill-E	well Drive Historic Associa	ted Features				
	Hill-Ewell Drive Bridges	1931–1937	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082116 VCRIS 111-01470105	Various	None
	Hill-Ewell Drive Culverts and Lined Ditches	1931–1937	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082115 VCRIS 111-01470105	Various	None
	Hill-Ewell Drive Tree Rings	1931–1937	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082119 VCRIS 111-01470105	Various	None

Rese	ource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Wild	derness Maintenance Road	1936	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082107 VCRIS 111-0147-0106	4	None
Culp Road	eper Mine Road (Flat Run d)	1800-1860	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082148 VCRIS 111-0147-0107	1, 2, 4	None
Higg	gerson Farm House Lane	1800–1820	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082106 VCRIS 111-0147-0108	7	None
Old	Orange Turnpike Trace	1801-1820; altered 1910- 1920, 1960-1970	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007941 ASMIS FRSP00172.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0109	2–3	None
Oran	ge Plank Road Trace	1850; altered 1933–1935	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007942 ASMIS FRSP00174.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0110	9, 11–12	None
Gern	nanna Plank Road Trace	ca. 1716, altered 1925	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0111	3	None
Wild	lerness Visitor Kiosk	1964	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0112	4	67
SITI	ES = 35					
Smo	ke House Foundation	ca. 1768	Chatham	ASMIS FRSP00091.001 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chat	ham Designed Landscape	1768–1771; 1922–1927; 1984–1986	Chatham	ASMIS FRSP00091.000 VCRIS 089-0011	1	2, 12
Chat	ham Designed Landscape Hi	storic Associated Fed	atures			
	Flora Statue	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011-0010	1	None
	Exedra Bench	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	5
	Stone Plinth	1923	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	Chatham Music Stair	1926	Chatham	LCS 082031 VCRIS 089-0011	1	2
	Chatham Front Retaining Wall and Stair	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082037 VCRIS 089-0011	1.	None
	Chatham Front Entrance Path	1922–1927; restored 1984– 1986	Chatham	LCS 082038 VCRIS 089-0011	i	None
	South Ravine Path	1922–1927	Chatham	LCS 082044 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	Chatham Brick Entrance Paths	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	12

Res	ource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
	Chatham Fire Hydrants (2)	1900–1905	Chatham	LCS 082053 VCRIS 089-0011	Ĭ	None
	Chatham Caretaker's Cottage Walk	ca. 1925	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	Picket Fences	Early twentieth century	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	10
Cha	tham Walled Garden	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	3, 7, 8,
Cha	tham Walled Garden Historic	Associated Feature	es			
	Ceres Statue	1923	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011-0005	1	None
	Chatham Garden Paths	1922-1927; restored 1984- 1986	Chatham	LCS 082045 VCRIS 089-0011	1	6
	Chatham Garden Pergola	1922-1927; restored 1984- 1986	Chatham	LCS 082033 VCRIS 089-0011	1	8
	Chatham Garden Rose Trellises (5)	1922–1927; reconstructed 1984–1986	Chatham	LCS 082047 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	Chatham Lily Pond	1927	Chatham	LCS 007876 VCRIS 089-0011-0001	1	9
	Chatham Rear Garden Wall and Gates	1922-1927; restored 1984- 1985	Chatham	LCS 082036 VCRIS 089-0011	1	5
	Walled Garden Small- Scale Features	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011-0003, 089-0011-0004, 089- 0011-0006, 089-0011- 0007, 089-0011-0008	τ	7
	Walled Garden Well Head	1922-1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011-0009	1	None
	Garden Bench and Arbor	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	Marble Garden Benches	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	8
	Bird Pen Foundations	1922–1927	Chatham	VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
	dericksburg National netery*	1866	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	ASMIS FRSP00063.000 VDHR 44SP0467 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2–3	16, 18, 19

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Fredericksburg Nationa Cemetery Grave Marke		Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 082029 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2–3	16, 18, 19
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gun Monuments	1868	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	18
Fredericksburg Nationa Cemetery Hitching Pos		Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 081997 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	None
Fredericksburg Nationa Cemetery Steps	1866–1870	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 081995 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2–3	None
Fredericksburg Nationa Cemetery Lodge Walks		Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 082012 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	None
Bernard's Cabins	Nineteenth century	Fredericksburg Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00066.000 VDHR 44SP0125	7	None
Fredericksburg Battlefield*	1862, 1864	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0006	1–10	None
Ebert House Site	ca. 1826	Fredericksburg Battlefield	CLI 154053 ASMIS FRSP00035.000 VDHR 44SP0131	2	None
Howison's Mill	1797–1894	Fredericksburg Battlefield	CLI 154209 ASMIS FRSP00001.000	2	None
Stevens Family Cemetery	After 1830	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0024	2	None
Stevens House Site*	1859	Fredericksburg Battlefield	CLI 154203 ASMIS FRSP00034.000 VDHR 44SP0133	2	None
Willis Family Cemetery	1756–1940	Fredericksburg Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00037.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0025 VDHR 44SP0414	2	None
Washington Artillery and Willi Plantation Site	Late eighteenth to nineteenth century	Fredericksburg Battlefield	CLI 154207 ASMIS FRSP00036.000 VDHR 44SP0413	2	None
Jackson Shrine Site (Fairfield/Confederate Supply Depot)*	1798-mid-1920s	Jackson Shrine	ASMIS FRSP00087.000 VCRIS 016-0092 VDHR 44CE0106	1	39
Salem Church Site	ca. 1844	Salem Church	ASMIS FRSP00177.000 VCRIS 111-0147-0045	1	40
Chancellorsville Battlefield*	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5180	1–12	None

Reso	urce Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Catha	urine Furnace Ruins*	1836; altered 1861,1864	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007910 ASMIS FRSP00008.000 VCRIS 088-0130 VDHR 44SP0037	7	61
Chan	cellorsville Inn*	1816	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00042.000 VDHR 44SP0181	5	52
Fairv	iew	1809–1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00043.000 VDHR 44SP0150	5	None
Haze	l Grove	1863	Chancellorsville Battlefield	None	4	None
	new Fontaine Maury stead*	Late eighteenth to nineteenth century	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00020.000 VDHR 44SP0063	7	None
Wellf	ford Farmstead Site	1838	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00009.000 VDHR 44SP0415	9	None
Bullo	ck House Site	1849	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00041,000 VDHR 44SP0161	3	None
Chan	cellorsville Cemetery	1830–1940	Chancellorsville Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00044.000/ 44SP9150 VCRIS 111-0147-0077	.5	None
Chan	cellorsville Cemetery Histori	ic Associated Featu	re			
	Chancellorsville Cemetery Grave Markers	1830	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082104 VCRIS 111-0147-0077	5	None
	ylvania Court House efield*	1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5182	1-7	None
Harri	son House*	ca. 1830	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00135.000 VDHR 44SP0503	6	None
Land	rum House Ruins*	1800–1820	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007933 ASMIS FRSP00130.000 VDHR 44SP0498	4	49
McC	oull House*	1800	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00132.001 VDHR 44SP0461	4	None
Spind	lle House Site	1821–1864	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00138.000 VDHR 44SP0503	5	None
Ellwo	ood Plantation	1777–1864	Ellwood	CLI 300177 ASMIS FRSP00107.000 VDHR 44OR0170	2, 5	None

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Ellwood Cemetery	ca. 1807	Ellwood	CLI 153247 ASMIS FRSP00108.000 VCRIS 088-5229	5	65
Wilderness Battlefield*	1864	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5183	1–15	None
Chewning House Site	1836–1947	Wilderness Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00124.000	10	None
Higgerson Farm Ruins	1800–1820; altered 1870– 1920	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082121 ASMIS FRSP00122.000 VDHR 44OR0339	4, 7	None
Widow Tapp Ruins Site*	Nineteenth century	Wilderness Battlefield	ASMIS FRSP00125.000	11	None
Wilderness Tavern Ruins Site	1800–1860	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082109 ASMIS FRSP00105.000 VDHR 44SP0041	3	72
OBJECTS = 53					
Battlefield ID Tablets	1928–1933	All	LCS 082135 CLI 153973 VCRIS 111-0147-0049	Various	None
Earthworks ID Tablets	1928–1933	All	LCS 082133 VCRIS 111-0147-0049	Various	None
House Site ID Tablets	1928–1933	All	LCS 082134 VCRIS 111-0147-0049	Various	None
Road ID Tablets	1928–1933	All	LCS 082132 CLI 153971 VCRIS 111-0147-0049	Various	None
Chatham Gas Pump	1925–1930	Chatham	LCS 082050 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
Chatham Civil War Grave Markers (3)	1879	Chatham	LCS 007885 VCRIS 089-0011	1	None
127 th Pennsylvania Monument	1906	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007868 VCRIS 111-0147-0039	2	None
Moesch Monument (83 rd New York Volunteers Monument)	1890	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007867 VCRIS 111-0147-0040	2	17
Bivouac of The Dead Tablets	ca. 1882	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 082030 VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	19
Humphreys' Division Monument	1908–1909	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007865 VCRIS 111-0147-0041	2	18
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Flagpole	1905	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	VCRIS 111-0147-0036	2	None

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
Parker's Battery Marker	1973	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 081991 VCRIS 111-0147-0042	3	None
V Corps, Army of The Potomac Monument (Butterfield Monument)	1900–1901	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	LCS 007866 VCRIS 111-0147-0043	2	14
Battle of Fredericksburg UDC Marker	1927	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082081 CLI 153969 VCRIS 111-0147-0026	2	None
Cobb Monument	1890–1895	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007869 CLI 153899 VCRIS 111-0147-0027	2	None
Coolidge Dedication Monument	1928	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082055 VCRIS 111-0147-0028	3	28
Kirkland Monument	1965	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 080002 CLI 153913 VCRIS 111-0147-0029	2	22
Lee Hill Seating Discs	1965	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0016	3	26
Lee Hill Monument	1903	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007862 VCRIS 111-0147-0129	3	None
Martha Stevens Grave Urn	1960	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082075 CLI 153883 VCRIS 111-0147-0024	2	None
Martha Stevens Stone	1917	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082074 CLI 153877 VCRIS 111-0147-0030	2	None
Prospect Hill Monument	1903	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 007863 VCRIS 111-0147-0031	10	None
Pontoon Bridge Marker	1917	Fredericksburg Battlefield	LCS 082077 VCRIS 111-0147-0032	1	None
Jackson Shrine Monument	1903	Jackson Shrine	LCS 007908 VCRIS 016-0092	1	37
15 th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument – Salem Church	1909	Salem Church	LCS 007907 VCRIS 111-0147-0047	i,	41
23 rd Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument	1906	Salem Church	LCS 007906 VCRIS 111-0147-0048	1	40
Battle of Salem Church Monument	1903	Salem Church	VCRIS 088-0062	1	None
Salem Church UDC Marker	1927	Salem Church	VCRIS 088-0062	1	39

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
114 th Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers Monument (Zouaves Monument)	1899	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007902 VCRIS 111-0147-0088	3	None
27 th Indiana Infantry Monument	1899–1901	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007900 VCRIS 111-0147-0088	5	None
Commemorative Cedars Plaque	1937	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082141 VCRIS 111-0147-0089	8	None
Jackson Monument	1888	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007903 VCRIS 111-0147-0090	2	54
Jackson Rock	1879	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007904 VCRIS 111-0147-0091	2	None
Lee-Jackson Bivouac Monument	1903	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007899 VCRIS 111-0147-0092	8	None
Matthew Fontaine Maury Monument	1933	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007909 VCRIS 088-0131	7	None
General E. F. Paxton Monument	1960	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 007901 VCRIS 111-0147-0096	4	None
126 th Ohio Regiment Monument	1906	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007931 VCRIS 111-0147-0061	4	None
15 th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument – Spotsylvania Court House	1909	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007930 VCRIS 111-0147-0062	4	46
49 th New York Infantry Monument	1902	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007929 VCRIS 111-0147-0063	4	45
Fallen Oak Marker	1931	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 081989 VCRIS 111-0147-0064	4	None
General Sedgwick Monument	1886–1887	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007928 VCRIS 111-0147-0065	3	None
Maryland Brigade Marker	1880	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 007932 VCRIS 111-0147-0066	5	None
MOLLUS Marker	1940	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082005 VCRIS 111-0147-0067	4	49
Stuart Memorial	1941	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082004 VCRIS 111-0147-0068	4	None
Stonewall Jackson's Arm Monument	1903	Ellwood	LCS 007944 CLI 153941 VCRIS 088-5229	5	65
"Lee to The Rear" Texans Monument	1903	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007945 VCRIS 111-0147-0113	11	None

Resource Name	Year Built/Altered	Park Unit	LCS/ASMIS ID/ VCRIS/VDHR ID Numbers	Map Number	Photo Number
12 th New Jersey Regiment Monument	1942	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007947 V 111-0147-0114	9	None
Texas Brigade Monument	1964	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007946 VCRIS 111-0147-0115	11	None
Battle of The Wilderness UDC Marker	1927	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082120 VCRIS 111-0147-0116	4	None
Brigadier General Wadsworth, USV Monument	1936	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007949 VCRIS 111-0147-0117	11	71
Colonel James D. Nance Monument	1912	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007950 VCRIS 111-0147-0118	11	None
General Alexander Hays Monument	1905	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 007948 VCRIS 111-0147-0119	9	66
General Alexander Hays Monum	ent Historic Associa	ated Feature			
Hays Monument Fence	1905–1935	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082108 VCRIS 111-0147-0119	9	66
Lee-to-the-Rear Stone	1891	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0120	11	None

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA County and State

NON-CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES

RESOURCE NAME	DATE(S)	UNIT	INVENTORY NO.	MAP	РНОТО
BUILDINGS = 17					
Fredericksburg National Cemetery Garage/Equipment Shed	1961	Fredericksburg National Cemetery	VCRIS 1111-0147-0044	2	None
522 Willis Street	1949	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0624	2	None
526 Willis Street Garage	Mid-twentieth century	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0621	2	None
526 Willis Street	1953	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0621	2	None
Natural Resources Office (Quarters #15)	1970	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0034	5	None
Jackson Shrine Comfort Station	1984	Jackson Shrine	VCRIS 016-0092	i	None
Ranger Lane Pump House	ca. 1970	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0098	2	None
Ranger Lane Fire Cache	Late 1970s	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0098	2	None
8940 Ely's Ford Road	ca. 1938	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0094	3	None
Wagner House, 9601 Plank Road	ca. 1890	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5180-0004	2	None
Wagner Stable, 9601 Plank Road	Late twentieth century	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5180-0004	2	None
Wagner Equipment Garage, 9601 Plank Road	Late twentieth century	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5180-0004	2	None
Wagner Storage Building, 9601 Plank Road	Late twentieth century	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 088-5180-0004	2	None
Ellwood Farm Office	1934	Ellwood	LCS 082111 VCRIS 088-0139	5	None
Ellwood Garage	1965	Ellwood	VCRIS 088-0139	5	None
Ellwood Equipment Shelter	1955	Ellwood	VCRIS 088-0139	5	None
Middlebrook House, 35425 Constitution Highway	1954	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0121	5	None
STRUCTURES = 10					
Stevens Well House	After 1969	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0035	2	None

RESOURCE NAME	DATE(S)	UNIT	INVENTORY NO.	MAP	РНОТО
Richardson House Entrance Drive	ca. 1882–1890	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-5266	2	None
Jackson Shrine Well House	1962	Jackson Shrine	LCS 007915 VCRIS 016-0092	1	37
Jackson Shrine Caretaker's Shed	Early twenty- first century	Jackson Shrine	VCRIS 016-0092	1	None
Ranger Lane Water Tower	ca. 1970	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0098	2	None
Water Tower Electrical Shed	ca. 1970s	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0098	2	None
Maintenance Yard Sand Shed	2005	Chancellorsville Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0095	3	None
Chancellorsville Cemetery Wall	ca. 1970	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082103 VCRIS 111-0147-0077	5	None
Middlebrook Storage Shed, 35425 Constitution Highway	Late twentieth century	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0121	5	None
Fawn Lake Subdivision Entrance Gate	ca. 1990	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0122	11	None
OBJECTS = 10					
7 th Michigan Monument	2003	Fredericksburg Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0033	1	None
Unknown Soldier Marker	2009	Chancellorsville Battlefield	LCS 082144 VCRIS 1111-0147-0097	2	None
17 th Michigan Monument	1995	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0069	7	None
McGowan's Brigade Monument	2009	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0070	4	None
Ramseur's Brigade Monument	2001	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0071	4	None
Upton's Charge Memorial	1994	Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield	LCS 082015 VCRIS 111-0147-0072	3	None
140 th New York Infantry Monument	1989	Wilderness Battlefield	LCS 082113 VCRIS 111-0147-0123	4	None
Vermont Brigade Monument	2006	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0124	9	None
Gilder Marker	2011	Wilderness Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0121	5	None
Middlebrook Marker	2011	Wildemess Battlefield	VCRIS 111-0147-0121	5	None

DATE(S)

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA County and State

MAP

INVENTORY NO.

UNIT **РНОТО**

TOTAL NON-CONTRIBUTING RESOURCES = 36

RESOURCE NAME

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State

8.	State	ment of Significance
(M	The second secon	e National Register Criteria in one or more boxes for the criteria qualifying the property for National Register
2	Α.	Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
2	В.	Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
2	C.	Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.
2	D.	Property has yielded, or is likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.
		Considerations in all the boxes that apply.)
	Α.	Owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes
	В.	Removed from its original location
] c.	A birthplace or grave
7	D.	A cemetery
	E.	A reconstructed building, object, or structure
7	F,	A commemorative property
	G.	Less than 50 years old or achieving significance within the past 50 years

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State

Areas of Significance

(Enter categories from instructions.)

MILITARY

CONSERVATION

OTHER: COMMEMORATION

HEALTH/MEDICINE

ARCHITECTURE

LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE

ARCHEOLOGY: Historic-Non-Aboriginal

Period of Significance

1768-1965

Significant Dates

1768: Construction of Chatham Manor

December 11-15, 1862: Battle of Fredericksburg

April 27-May 6, 1863: Battle of Chancellorsville

May 4-7, 1864: Battle of the Wilderness

May 8-21, 1864: Battle of Spotsylvania Court House

1927: Establishment of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial

National Military Park

1933: Park administration transferred to the National Park Service

1961-1965: Civil War Centennial

Significant Persons

(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above.)

Jackson, Thomas "Stonewall"

Lee, Robert E.

Grant, Ulysses S.

Meade, George

Hooker, Joseph

Burnside, Ambrose

Cultural Affiliations

Euro-American

African American

Architects/Builders

Shipman, Ellen Biddle (landscape architect, Chatham, 1921–1927)

Clarke, Oliver (architect, Chatham renovations, 1921–1927)

Meigs, Montgomery C. (architect, Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge, 1869-1870)

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA County and State

Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph (Provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance, applicable criteria, justification for the period of significance, and any applicable criteria considerations.)

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park (NMP) Historic District is significant at the national level under National Register Criteria A, B, C, and D. The District derives its primary significance under Criterion A in the area of Military as the site of the American Civil War Battles of Fredericksburg (December 11-15, 1862), Chancellorsville (April 27-May 6, 1863), the Wilderness (May 4-7, 1864), and Spotsylvania Court House (May 8-21, 1864). Each of the battles was part of a major campaign initiated by the Union Army of the Potomac against the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia. Together, the battles resulted in more than 100,000 casualties, making the roughly 20-squaremile area over which they were fought the most contested ground of the Civil War. Under Criterion B, the battlefields are associated with defining moments in the careers of the generals responsible for planning and executing the battles, including Union Generals Ambrose E. Burnside, Joseph D. Hooker, Ulysses S. Grant, and George G. Meade and Confederate Generals Robert E. Lee and Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson. Jackson was mortally wounded during the Battle of Chancellorsville and died on May 10, 1863, at the Fairview Plantation Office preserved in Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP's Jackson Shrine unit. Several other contributing buildings in the District possess national significance under Criterion A in the area of Health and Medicine for their association with the care of wounded soldiers during and after the battles. The growing role of women in the care of wounded soldiers was reflected by the presences of Dr. Mary Walker and Clara Barton at the Union field hospital established at Chatham, a historic plantation house in Falmouth, Virginia, following the Battle of Fredericksburg.

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP possesses additional national significance under Criterion A for its association with national trends in battlefield commemoration and preservation during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Significant events included the creation of Fredericksburg National Cemetery in 1865, efforts to commemorate the battles and their heroes through the erection of monuments, and the movement to preserve the battlefields that resulted in the establishment of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP by the U.S. Congress in 1927.

A number of resources in Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP possess national significance under Criterion C in the areas of Architecture and Landscape Architecture. Chatham Manor and Ellwood are significant examples of antebellum plantation houses set in landscapes that reflect design traditions from the late eighteenth century through the early twentieth century. The gardens at Chatham represent the work of renowned landscape designer Ellen Biddle Shipman. The 1859–1861 Innis House and 1844 Salem Church also possess significance as representative examples of mid-nineteenth-century building types. The layout and design of the landscape and buildings of Fredericksburg National Cemetery represent the initial concepts employed by Quartermaster General Montgomery C. Meigs in developing the burial grounds of the National Cemetery System. During the initial period of its administration of the park from 1933 through 1942, the National Park Service constructed new visitor and park administrative facilities that reflected the planning and design principles initially developed for the national parks of the western United States. Park development during that period was largely undertaken with labor supplied through the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) program. The Chancellorsville Visitor Center is a representative example of the innovative design concepts employed by the National Park Service for visitor centers constructed during its Mission 66 development program of the late 1950s and early 1960s.

Under Criterion D, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP possesses national significance in the area of Archeology: Historic, Non-Aboriginal for the data it has yielded, and has the potential to yield, about the

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA

County and State

experiences of the Union and Confederate armies during the battles. The District also possesses significance at the state and local levels for its demonstrated and potential ability to provide information about the evolution of the agrarian and industrial economy and landscape in antebellum Virginia and the enslaved and free people who lived there.

Criteria Consideration D applies to Fredericksburg National Cemetery, which derives its significance from its association with important historic events and distinctive design features. Criteria Consideration F applies to the contributing commemorative monuments within the District that possess significance engendered from their age, design, and symbolic values.

The period of significance for the District extends from 1768, the construction date for Chatham Manor, to 1965, the 50-year cutoff date for National Register significance and the 100th anniversary of the end of the Civil War. The period of significance for Fredericksburg National Cemetery and the resources located within the cemetery extends to the present in recognition of the cemetery's continuing exceptional importance (National Park Service 2011:3–4). The District achieved its primary significance in the period between November 1862 and May 1864, during which the Battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Court House were fought. Other significant dates for the District include 1865 when Fredericksburg National Cemetery was established, 1927 when Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP was established by the U.S. Congress, and 1933 when the park was transferred to the National Park Service and became part of the National Park System.

Narrative Statement of Significance (Provide at least one paragraph for each area of significance.)

CRITERION A - MILITARY - BATTLEFIELDS

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP is primarily significant as the site of the major Civil War battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Court House. Located about halfway between Washington, DC, and Richmond, Virginia, the Fredericksburg area possessed strategic value that made its control important to both the Union and Confederate armies. The area was on the most direct overland route for Union campaigns to seize Richmond and gain control of the roads, railroads, and rivers that enabled the Confederate army to maintain its lines of supply. The Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers, however, proved to be major obstacles that Confederate General Robert E. Lee¹⁹ and his Army of Northern Virginia used to great advantage in defending the area from Northern incursion (Figures 1 and 2). The Battle of Fredericksburg on December 11–15, 1862, was initiated by Union Major General Ambrose E. Burnside, who succeeded Major General George B. McClellan as commander of the Army of the Potomac one month earlier. Burnside's plans to surprise Lee by moving quickly to cross the Rappahannock River at Fredericksburg were foiled when pontoon boats he requested did not arrive on time. The delay gave Lee time to consolidate his forces and establish a stout defensive line along the heights beyond Fredericksburg. Burnside's ill-conceived assaults on the entrenched Confederates resulted in a devastating Union defeat.

Major General Joseph Hooker replaced Burnside as commander of the army in February 1863 and planned a multi-pronged campaign to force Lee from his entrenchments at Fredericksburg. The main

¹⁹ The full rank of officers is given when they are first mentioned in the text. Officers are subsequently referred to by their names only, unless their rank changed from the initial mention.

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element consisted of the movement of a large column to the west for the purpose of assaulting Lee's left flank. During the final days of April 1863, the flanking column successfully crossed the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers to the west of Fredericksburg, but its progress was stalled on May 1 by a spirited Confederate attack directed by Lieutenant General Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson along the Orange Turnpike and Orange Plank Road. Over the objections of many of his general staff, Hooker chose to go on the defensive, surrendering the initiative to the Confederates. That evening, Lee and Jackson devised plans for an audacious flanking attack that resulted in the decisive Confederate victory at the Battle of Chancellorsville (May 1–3, 1863) and cemented Lee's reputation as one of the greatest American generals. The Confederate celebration was tempered, however, by the loss of Jackson, who suffered a mortal wound from friendly fire during the battle. Jackson's death deprived Lee of his most aggressive field general and had significant ramifications on the execution and outcome of coming battles, including the next major engagement of the armies at the Battle of Gettysburg.

The Wilderness and Spotsylvania Courthouse battlefields are the locations of the first two battles of the Overland Campaign (May 4–June 24, 1864), Lieutenant General Ulysses S. Grant's major push to defeat Lee and the Confederate army in the field. The two battles were desperate struggles that produced high numbers of casualties on both sides and resulted in tactical victories for the Confederates. Unlike Burnside and Hooker, however, Grant understood and accepted the "grim arithmetic" that favored the Union's greater capacity to replace troops lost in battle. Instead of retreating across the Rappahannock, he continued to maneuver southward, eventually pinning Lee and his depleted army in the Confederate defensive lines around Richmond and Petersburg. After a 10-month-long siege, Lee was forced to abandon Richmond and Petersburg and subsequently surrendered the Army of Northern Virginia to Grant at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865.

The Fredericksburg Campaign, November 15-December 16, 1862

On November 7, 1862, Ambrose Burnside received orders appointing him commander of the Union Army of the Potomac in place of his long-time friend George McClellan. In the time since the Union army's humiliating defeat at the Battle of First Manassas (July 21, 1862), McClellan had done much to improve moralc and develop the army into a formidable fighting force. As a field commander, however, he was a perpetual source of disappointment for President Lincoln and his administration. He constantly overestimated the enemy's strength and often failed to vigorously press advantages that might have produced a decisive victory. Those defects were dramatically exposed during the Peninsula Campaign (March 20-August 16, 1862), when McClellan was able to march his army of more than 100,000 men to within a few miles of Richmond, only to be driven away by Robert E. Lee's much smaller Army of Northern Virginia. Despite his failure on the Peninsula, McClellan remained popular with his troops, and Lincoln was forced to turn to him again to rally Union forces when Lee invaded Maryland after defeating Major General John Pope's Army of Virginia at the Battle of Second Manassas (August 28-30, 1862). The Union victory at the Battle of Antietam on September 17, 1862, ended the Confederate threat, but Lincoln was furious that McClellan allowed Lee's badly damaged army to escape across the Potomac River. When McClellan refused to mount an offensive in October, Lincoln decided to replace him with Burnside. As a corps commander, Burnside had amassed one of the most successful records of any of the Union generals to that point but felt he was unqualified to head the massive Army of the Potomac. He agreed to accept the promotion only after being informed that Joseph Hooker, whom Burnside detested and thought would be a disastrous choice, was next in line if he refused (McPherson 1988:568-570; Rable 2002:43).

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When Burnside formally assumed command on November 9, 1862, the Army of the Potomac consisted of more than 130,000 infantry, artillery, and cavalry troops and officers positioned along a front that stretched more than 20 miles between Manassas Junction and Waterloo in northern Virginia, Burnside's first task was to propose a plan to take the Confederate capital at Richmond. Lincoln had previously urged McClellan to take the overland route via Culpeper and Gordonsville using the damaged and difficult to guard Orange & Alexandria Railroad for supply (Figure 1). Burnside proposed instead to concentrate the army around Warrenton to "impress upon the enemy a belief that we are to attack Culpeper or Gordonsville ... then make a rapid move of the whole force to Fredericksburg, with a view to a movement upon Richmond from that point." This route, Burnside argued, would allow for a more protected supply line. While at Fredericksburg, the army could be supplied from the steamship landing at Aquia Creek on the Potomac River using the Richmond, Fredericksburg & Potomac Railroad. It could then move on to the Pamunkey River, which was controlled by the U.S. Navy. On November 12, General in Chief Henry Halleck, along with the army's railroad chief Herman Haupt and Quartermaster General Montgomery Meigs, visited Burnside in Warrenton. Halleck was not convinced that Burnside's proposal would work but promised to deliver the plan to Lincoln and, if it was approved, deliver the pontoons that would be necessary to bridge the Rappahannock River for a crossing from Falmouth to Fredericksburg. Although he too was skeptical, Lincoln did not want to countermand his new appointee and approved Burnside's plan. In communicating the decision to Burnside, Halleck stated "The President...thinks [the plan] will succeed if you move rapidly; otherwise not" (Cullen 1966:n.p.; Marvel and Pfanz 2007:3-4; Rable 2002:57-59).

Before moving south toward Fredericksburg, Burnside reorganized the command structure of the Army of the Potomac into three grand divisions. Major General Edwin Sumner's Right Grand Division was composed of Major General Darius Couch's Second Corps and the Ninth Corps, Burnside's former command now under Brigadier General Orlando Willcox. Despite his dislike of Hooker, his seniority dictated that Burnside make him commander of one of the grand divisions; he was given the Center made up of the Third Corps under Brigadier General George Stoneman and the Fifth Corps under Brigadier General Daniel Butterfield. Major General William Franklin took command of the Left Grand Division composed of Major General John Reynolds' Fifth Corps and Major General William F. Smith's Sixth Corps. In reserve was Brigadier General Julius Stahel's Eleventh Corps and Major General Henry Slocum's Twelfth Corps, which were both put under the overall command of Major General Franz Sigel. The Twelfth Corps was stationed at Harper's Ferry, and the Eleventh remained in northern Virginia. All of the grand division commanders were older than Burnside and, with the exception of Sumner, thought his appointment to command the army was a mistake. Jealousies and mistrust among the Union leaders factored significantly in the way the Battle of Fredericksburg was fought (Cullen 1966:n.p.; Marvel and Pfanz 2007:4; NPS 2015b; Rable 2002:59–60).

Lee took advantage of the time afforded by McClellan's delay in following up his victory at the Battle of Antietam to reorganize the Army of Northern Virginia. Reinforcements sent by Richmond brought the total strength of the army up to about 80,000 troops, which Lee divided among two corps under the commands of Lieutenant Generals Thomas Jackson and James Longstreet. Longstreet's First Corps contained five divisions commanded by Major Generals Lafayette McLaws, Richard H. Anderson, George E. Pickett, and John Bell Hood and Brigadier General Robert Ransom Jr. Jackson's Second Corps consisted of four divisions commanded by Major Generals Daniel Harvey Hill, Ambrose Powell Hill, and Jubal A. Early, and Brigadier General William B. Taliaferro. Longstreet's Corps was stationed at Culpeper Court House to guard against an anticipated Union thrust on Richmond via the Orange and Alexandria Railroad. Jackson's Corps was posted at Winchester, where it would be on the Army of the

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Potomac's right flank and in position to deal with any federal incursions into the Shenandoah Valley (Nolan 1995:28; Rable 2002:21-23).

Due to the long distance that Jackson had to travel to hook up with Longstreet, Burnside's movement to the southeast had a good chance of success if he acted quickly and got to Fredericksburg before the Confederates discovered his intentions. He put his army in motion on November 15, 1862. Sumner's Right Grand Division led the way and reached Falmouth, on the north bank of the Rappahannock opposite Fredericksburg, on the evening of November 17 (Figure 3). Seeing that Fredericksburg was lightly defended, Sumner requested permission to seek a place to ford the river (because all the bridges over the Rappahannock had been destroyed by the Confederates) and send cavalry units to take the city. Burnside would not allow it because rain was forecasted and he did not want the troops to be trapped by rising water. When Burnside reached Falmouth on November 19, he found that the pontoons he needed to cross the Rappahannock had not arrived. Halleck had failed to impress on the engineer corps the urgent need to deliver the pontoons to Burnside for his immediate use, and the first load of equipment had left Washington, DC, only that day. It would be another five days before enough pontoons were on hand to construct a single bridge, and the bulk of the pontoons did not arrive until November 27 (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:5; Rable 2002:81).

Lee received reports that the main body of the Army of the Potomac was headed toward Fredericksburg but was unsure if it was a feint designed to mask a thrust toward some other objective. As a result, Fredericksburg remained lightly defended and vulnerable to attack until Lee ordered Longstreet to begin moving his corps toward the city on November 18. Initially, Lee thought that the topography around Fredericksburg favored the Federals because of the commanding position that Stafford Heights on the Falmouth side of the river offered their superior artillery. He preferred to move south to more easily defended ground along the North Anna River, but Confederate President Jefferson Davis did not like the idea of allowing the Federals to get that close to Richmond. Lee, therefore, sought the best ground available to him at Fredericksburg, posting Longstreet's corps along the ridges and slopes of a broken range of wooded hills that rose up west of the city (Figure 4). Longstreet's front stretched about 7 miles from his left flank on the Rappahannock west of Beck's Island to his right, which was anchored on the marshy Massaponax Creek. This excellent defensive position offered cover among the heavily treed ridges for artillery and infantry while providing a panoramic view in the direction of the Federals. Should Burnside choose to make a frontal assault, the Federals would have to cross a broad open plain and ascend the heights to get at the Confederate line. The major drawback was that the Federal guns on Stafford Heights would prevent the naturally aggressive Lee from mounting a counter-offensive. As Jackson later predicted when he arrived and assessed the position, "We will whip the enemy, but gain no fruits of victory" (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:7; Nolan 1995:30).

With the arrival of Longstreet at Fredericksburg, Burnside realized he had lost the element of surprise upon which his original plan depended. He also knew that Lincoln and his administration expected action and would not approve if he suspended operations for the winter before making any attempt to take Richmond. After meeting with Lincoln and Halleck at Aquia Creek on November 26, Burnside decided to try crossing the Rappahannock at Skinker's Neck, about midway between Fredericksburg and Port Royal. By that time, however, Lee had ordered Jackson to begin moving his corps toward Culpeper and then sent him to cover potential crossings along the Rappahannock from Hamilton's Crossing to Port Royal. While Burnside's engineers were making preparations to bridge the river, they took fire from the advanced elements of Jackson's corps and were forced to withdraw (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:7–8; Rable 2002:116–117).

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Reports that Jackson had arrived at Skinker's Neck convinced Burnside to abandon the crossing there in favor of a new plan to exploit an apparent gap between the two wings of Lee's army. Jackson's presence at Skinker's Neck meant that the heights beyond Fredericksburg were defended only by Longstreet's corps. Burnside reasoned that Lee would not expect an attack on Fredericksburg and that a quick-hitting assault with his entire army on Marye's Heights might succeed in overwhelming Longstreet. Once Longstreet was defeated, Burnside could turn and strike Jackson's left flank or force him to retreat toward Richmond. The initial phase of the attack would be led by Sumner's Right Grand Division, which would cross the Rappahannock into Fredericksburg and make a frontal assault on Longstreet's position. At the same time, Franklin's Left Grand Division would cross near Hamilton's Crossing south of the city to attack Longstreet's right flank. Hooker's Center Grand Division would be held in reserve to follow up on any success (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:8–9; Rable 2002:148–149).

Burnside met with his generals on December 9 to go over his plan. Most opposed it as reckless and dangerous. "There were not two opinions among the subordinate officers as to the rashness of the undertaking," wrote one corps commander. The next day, after hearing of the growing dissatisfaction over his plan, Burnside called several of the generals to another meeting, this time at Chatham Manor (LCS No. 000422, ASMIS No. FRSP0009.001, contributing building), the sprawling Colonial-period mansion that Sumner was using as his headquarters (Figure 5). Several of his corps commanders spoke against the plan, believing that fire from Longstreet's artillery and infantry would make crossing in front of Fredericksburg extremely difficult, if not impossible. After listening, Burnside made stubborn defense of his plan and demanded that his generals support it and do their part. The meeting at Chatham proved to be a pivotal moment in the campaign, marking the point when Burnside's subordinates became resigned to executing a plan that many of them thought was doomed from the start (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:9, 12; NPS 2015a).

By the time the Federals had arrived at Falmouth in November 1862, Chatham had already served as the site of a number of important events and been used several times during the war for military purposes. George Washington and Thomas Jefferson visited Chatham in the late eighteenth century, and Robert E. Lee was a guest there prior to the Civil War. During the conflict, J. Horace Lacy, a staunch Confederate who served as a major in Lee's army, owned the plantation. Major General Irvin McDowell used the house as his headquarters in April 1862, while he and his 30,000 troops waited for orders to join McClellan in his attempt to take Richmond. On May 23, 1862, President Lincoln dined with McDowell at Chatham. While there, Lincoln received news of Stonewall Jackson's victory over Nathaniel Banks at the Battle of Front Royal and ordered McDowell to send a portion of his force to the Shenandoah Valley. McClellan later blamed the loss of McDowell's reinforcements as one of the major reasons for the failure of the Peninsula Campaign. Chatham was subsequently occupied by Brigadier General Rufus King, who took over command at Fredericksburg in McDowell's absence. When Burnside was summoned from North Carolina to Virginia in August 1862 to reinforce Union troops defending Washington, he camped on Chatham's front lawn while waiting for his troops to debark at nearby Belle Plains and was visited there by his friend McClellan. After the Battle of Fredericksburg, Chatham served as a hospital for the wounded.²⁰ In January 1863, Major General John Gibbon, who commanded a division in the Union Second Corps, made his headquarters there before attacking Fredericksburg during Joseph Hooker's Chancellorsville Campaign (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:10).

Crossing the Rappahannock, December 11-12, 1862

²⁰ Chatham's history as a Civil War hospital is more fully described below under Criterion A - Medical History.

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The construction of the pontoon bridges necessary to cross the Rappahannock commenced at three locations during the pre-dawn hours of December 11, 1862. Summer was to use a pair of bridges opposite Chatham and a single bridge downstream at the southeast edge of downtown Fredericksburg to bring his men into the city. Franklin was to cross on a pair of bridges (later augmented by a third) at a bend in the river about 1 mile south of the city. Work on Franklin's bridges progressed with only modest Confederate opposition and finished about 9:00 a.m. Construction of the bridges at Chatham, however, drew the attention of Brigadier General William Barksdale's Mississippi brigade, which had been stationed in the city to monitor Federal movements including the transport of pontoon sections down the North Embankment Road Trace (contributing structure). Barksdale moved about half his men to the waterfront, where they took protected positions behind stone walls and inside the predominantly brick warehouses, stores, and homes along Water Street. At about 5:00 a.m., when the bridges had reached the midpoint of the river, Barksdale's troops opened fire, killing or wounding several of the bridge builders and forcing them to retreat to the opposite shore. Federal artillery and infantry tried to provide covering fire when the work was resumed, but the foggy early dawn conditions prevented its effectiveness. The Federal engineers made as many as eight other attempts to complete the bridges but were driven back each time and eventually sustained about 50 casualties (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:12-14).

Reports of the delays in building the bridges infuriated Burnside because his plans depended on rapid movement to surprise Lee. He decided to clear the Confederate snipers by ordering his artillery chief, Brigadier General Henry J. Hunt, to "bring all your guns to bear upon the city and batter it down." Hunt had arranged his 147 guns along a 5-mile stretch of Stafford Heights from above Falmouth to Pollock's Mill, opposite the Confederate right flank. At about 12:30 p.m., Union gunners began a two-hour barrage of the city. Nearly every building suffered some damage, and many were completely destroyed (Figure 6). Until that time, the purposeful destruction of civilian property had been rare, and men on both sides were shocked by what one Union soldier called "a new phase of military operations, that of shelling a city." A Union surgeon who witnessed the event later recalled it as a "spectacle...of awful grandeur. The bursting bombs ... the great tongues of flame from the burning buildings...and the shock of the artillery which shook the earth, made up one of the most terribly magnificent of scenes." Lee was among the many Confederates who expressed fury at the Union attack, stating, "These people delight to destroy the weak and those who can make no defense; it just suits them" (Rable 2002:161–164; Sutherland 1998:35).

When the cannon stopped, the engineers resumed their work, only to be driven back again by the Mississippians who emerged from the barrage relatively unscathed. Finally, Burnside decided to send several regiments of infantry by boat across the river to clear the town of Barksdale's men (Figure 7). Although he had been ordered back to the Confederate lines, Barksdale gave up ground grudgingly, fighting a close-quarters, door-to-door battle as he retired. By nightfall the Union had gained control of the city, but Barksdale had delayed Burnside for an entire day, giving Lee valuable time to perfect his defenses. The following day, as Sumner and Franklin moved their men across the river and into position, Burnside revised his plan. Franklin was to lead off the attack by sweeping around the Confederate right flank to take the newly constructed Military Road that connected the two wings of Lee's army. Once Franklin was engaged, Sumner would move on Lee's left, storming Marye's heights near the Marye mansion using the Telegraph and Orange Plank roads leading west from downtown Fredericksburg. Deliberations over the plans with the grand division commanders took up much of the day, so Burnside decided to postpone the assault until the next morning, December 13 (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:15–17).

Lee spent the two days it took the Union engineers to lay the bridges trying to discern Burnside's intentions. From his headquarters on Telegraph Hill, he could plainly see Franklin's corps massing on the plain below his flank and decided to strengthen that portion of his line by recalling all of Jackson's corps

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to Fredericksburg. Lee apportioned his forces according to the natural and manmade features available on what now makes up the major portion of the area contained in the Fredericksburg Battlefield (ASMIS No. FRSP00063.000, contributing site) (Figure 8). To make room for Jackson's men and prepare for a Union attack, Longstreet contracted his lines northward and ordered his men to construct earthworks along the ridges of the heights to provide added cover from opposing artillery and infantry fire. Those works were expanded during and after the battle into the system of trenches that form the Confederate Line (LCS No. 007858, CLI No.153257, ASMIS No. FRSP00169.000, historic associated feature) of the Fredericksburg Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure). Below the main Confederate line on Marye's Heights, Longstreet advanced Brigadier General Thomas R. R. Cobb's brigade to man a 600-yard portion of a wagon road that intersected with Telegraph Road, the main thoroughfare to Richmond and likely route for a Union advance. The Sunken Road (LCS No. 000429, CLI No. 153619, ASMIS No. FRSP00052.001, contributing structure), as it became known, had been worn by years of traffic and was lined by a 4'-tall stone wall (the Sunken Road Wall LCS No. 082079, CLI No. 153797, contributing structure]) that offered cover and concealment for Cobb's men. Longstreet also carefully placed his artillery on elevated strong points such as Taylor's Hill, Marye's Heights, Howison Hill (Howison Hill Artillery Position [LCS No. 007859, ASMIS No. FRSP00147.000, historic associated feature], and Telegraph Hill (Lee Hill Artillery Position [LCS No. 007857, ASMIS No. FRSP00148.000, historic associated feature]), which later became known as Lee's Hill because it was the site of the commanding general's headquarters. Most of the large artillery pieces were massed on or behind the crests of hills in earthworks that offered concealment and limited the danger from Union fire. Smaller mobile field pieces, which could be used to deadly effect on advancing infantry, were concealed in the woods (Rable 2002:148–149).

By utilizing the natural topographical and manmade features of the landscape to his advantage, Longstreet was able to stretch his troops to cover a 5-mile front. The 2-mile stretch he vacated was lower and more vulnerable to attack, so Lee decided to protect it by massing all of Jackson's men there. Jackson's position ran from Longstreet's right flank south to Hamilton's Crossing on the Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad. With little room along his front, he stacked his four divisions one behind the other to a depth of nearly a mile. His right, which constituted the right flank of the army, was protected by a large number of artillery pieces on Prospect Hill (Prospect Hill Artillery Position JLCS No. 007860, ASMIS No. FRSP00065.000, historic associated featurel). Major General James "Jeb" Stuart's cavalry, which was positioned east of the railroad along Richmond State Road, provided additional security to the flank. When the battle started on the morning of December 13, all of Jackson's Second Corps divisions had reached Fredericksburg, except for D. H. Hill's, which arrived later that morning (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:19–20).

Battle of Fredericksburg, December 13, 1862

Burnside drafted the written orders for the attack during the early morning of December 13. They were characteristically ambiguous and left much to the discretion of his grand division commanders. Franklin thought his orders contradicted what he and Burnside had discussed the day before—that he was to make an immediate all-out assault on the Confederate flank. The written orders seemed to direct him to first send a single division to capture the dangerous Confederate artillery position on Prospect Hill before launching the general assault. There was also confusion over the routes to take due to poor mapping and Franklin's negligence in adequately scouting the position. In the end, Franklin chose to interpret the orders literally and selected a single division to make the assault on the artillery position. At 9:00 a.m., George Meade's Third Division of Reynold's First Corps of about 5,500 veteran troops was put in motion. The road that Franklin selected for Meade to use for the advance turned out to be incorrect and

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put Meade on a collision course with the heart of Jackson's defenses (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:22-24; NPS 2015a).

As he emerged onto the plain below the Confederates, Meade arranged two of his brigades in columns of attack and placed them 300 yards apart. He lined up his other brigade perpendicular to the first two to protect his left flank. While Meade's lines were forming, Confederate Major John Pelham of Stuart's horse artillery positioned a single field artillery piece in a shallow depression that was screened from view by cedar hedges and began raking the Federal's flank. Meade's advance stopped while his artillery tried unsuccessfully to get a fix on Pelham's position. Pelham was able to occupy the Federals for about an hour before his ammunition was exhausted and he was forced to withdraw. The extra time allowed D. H. Hill, the last of Jackson's command to arrive, to deploy his men behind the Confederate lines already in place (Rable 2002:196–197).

After Pelham stopped firing, Meade's men then pushed on toward the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad north of Hamilton's Crossing. When the Federals closed to within 500 yards of the railroad, Jackson unleashed an artillery barrage from a 14-gun Confederate battalion hidden in the trees. The Confederate shells ripped gaping holes in Meade's ranks as they sought to find some sort of protection in the slightly undulating open fields. Federal gunners responded and an hour-long artillery duel ensued. When a direct hit on a Confederate ammunition wagon caused a massive explosion and confusion, Meade ordered his men to charge. Meade's advance went through a marshy lowland near the railroad that the Confederates failed to occupy because they didn't think the Federals could traverse it (Figure 9). The Federals struck the resulting 600-yard gap in A. P. Hill's front and were able to widen the gap by rolling up the flanks of the adjacent Confederate brigades. Meade did not know that three more lines of Confederates lay behind the first line. As his men advanced farther, they ran into Brigadier General Maxcy Gregg's brigade resting along the new military road that Burnside sought. The two sides were equally surprised, but Meade's men recovered sufficiently to drive Gregg's South Carolinians backward before they rallied with the help of troops sent from neighboring brigades. During the fighting, Gregg mistakenly took advancing Federals for his own troops and was shot down from his horse as he galloped toward them. Meade's momentum stalled as more Confederates reacted to the breach in their lines. A Georgia brigade pushed back on Meade's right, while the artillery on Prospect Hill began to effect the advancement of his third brigade on his left. Franklin failed to send reinforcements that might have increased the gap in the Confederate lines, and Meade was forced to withdraw what was left of his battered division (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:25, 28; NPS 2015a).

According to the Union plan, Sumner's advance through Fredericksburg toward Marye's Heights would not commence until the Left Grand Division began rolling up Jackson's corps. By late morning, however, Burnside grew impatient and ordered Sumner to attack. At about 12:00 p.m., the first Federals emerged from the city streets into the open area below the heights, where they would have to descend into a valley and ascend an open slope of 400 yards to reach the base of the heights. A 30'-wide, water-filled canal ditch in the middle of the valley could not be forded because it was too deep. There were three bridges in the area, but the Confederates had removed the planking, leaving only the stringers for the Union soldiers to use to cross in single file. Under heavy fire from Longstreet's guns on the heights, the Federals that managed to make it across the bridges congregated and formed for attack under the protection of a bluff that shielded them from the Confederate guns (NPS 2015a).

The first attack established the pattern that was repeated by the wave after wave of Union soldiers that Burnside kept feeding into the battle during the remainder of the day (Figure 10). When the Union soldiers emerged from their protected position under the bluff, they were immediately hit by artillery fire

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that tore large holes in their ranks (Figure 11). The surviving Federals advanced to a swale about 100 yards from the Sunken Road and reformed for the final push toward the heights. Immediately upon cresting the swale, the Federals were staggered by a heavy volley by Cobb's infantry brigade and forced to fall back. As more Federal troops filtered into the swale, new and larger attacks were launched, but the results were the same. Longstreet sent Brigadier General Joseph Kershaw's brigade and Brigadier General Robert Ransom's demi-division to reinforce Cobb's brigade, whose commander suffered a mortal wound during one of the Federal attacks. Placed in four ranks behind the protection of the Sunken Road Stone Wall, the Confederates were able to fire in an almost continuous fashion, producing fearsome casualties with every Federal advance. "We came forward as though breasting a storm of rain and sleet, our faces and bodies being only half-turned to the storm, our shoulders shrugged," remembered one Federal. Lee, who watched the entire battle unfold from Telegraph Hill, famously remarked to Longstreet, "It is well that war is so terrible. We should grow too fond of it" (NPS 2015a).

In a one-hour span during the early afternoon, the Army of the Potomac lost nearly 3,000 men. During the attacks, the Innis (Ennis) House (LCS No. 007871, CLI No. 153761, ASMIS No. FRSP00056.000, contributing building), which still stands just east of the Sunken Road Stone Wall, was struck repeatedly by gunfire. Despite the fearsome casualties and lack of progress against the Confederate position, Burnside would not alter his plan and continued to funnel men into the battle. When Sumner's troops became exhausted about 3:30 p.m., Burnside called on Hooker to send in reinforcements. As Brigadier General Andrew A. Humphreys led his division of the Union Fifth Corps through the carnage of the battlefield, some of the wounded tried to grab on to his men in an effort to prevent them from suffering their fate. Part of one of Humphreys' brigades got within 25 yards of the Sunken Road, which represented the farthest Union penetration (Figure 12). After a total of 15 futile assaults, darkness finally ended the fighting. The next day, Burnside wanted to personally lead another attack, but his subordinates talked him out of it. Instead, he pulled his army back across the Rappahannock and pulled up the bridges during the night of December 15–16, bringing the Fredericksburg Campaign to a close (Marvel and Pfanz 2007:42; NPS 2015a).

Union losses during the Battle of Fredericksburg amounted to 12,600 killed, wounded, or missing, more than twice the 5,300 casualties suffered by the Confederates. Almost two-thirds of the Federals fell in front of the Sunken Road Wall. The battle had a profound demoralizing effect on the Army of the Potomac. In its wake, Burnside faced a revolt by members of his general staff, including Franklin and William F. Smith, who intrigued against him and were successful in convincing Lincoln to put a hold on Burnside's plans to resume the offensive in late December 1862. The incident touched off a crisis in the upper echelon of the army's leadership during which Burnside and Halleck offered to resign. Lincoln diffused the situation by refusing to accept the resignations and promising to support Burnside (Sears 1996:1–3).

By mid-January 1863, Burnside was ready to embark on another campaign, this one designed to turn the Confederate left by marching the army north to cross the Rappahannock at Banks Ford, about 5 miles above Fredericksburg. The operation got underway the morning of January 20 but had to be aborted the following day after a hard rain turned the roads into thick mud that made the passage of large wagons and guns nearly impossible. The so-called "Mud March" added to the demoralization of the army. To defend against continued recriminations from his general staff, Burnside drafted orders to relieve 10 of the most egregious offenders from command. On January 24, he went to Washington to present Lincoln with the ultimatum that he could either approve the orders or accept his resignation. Lincoln chose the latter, and the next day Joseph Hooker, whom Burnside detested and was among the generals he wanted cashiered, was appointed to command the Army of the Potomac (Sears 1996:19–25).

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Chancellorsville Campaign, April 29-May 6, 1863

"Fighting Joe" Hooker assumed his new command with supreme confidence in his own abilities and immediately applied his substantial administrative skills toward restoring the health and morale of his troops. He provided more and better rations, made sure the men received back pay, and introduced measures to enhance *esprit de corps* throughout the ranks. Hooker restructured the army by eliminating Burnside's grand division commands and by combining the cavalry, which had previously been attached in units to the various infantry division, into a single independent corps under Major General George Stoneman (Sears 1996:63–64, 67).

Lee spent the winter following the Battle of Fredericksburg straining to supply his army from the dwindling resources of the Confederacy and responding to demands from Richmond to provide troops to other vulnerable areas of the Confederacy. Following the battle, he once again spread his forces out to cover Rappahannock crossings, with Longstreet's corps manning the Fredericksburg defenses and Jackson's covering the area from Hamilton's Crossing to Port Royal. In mid-January 1863, D. H. Hill and Robert Ransom's small division consisting mostly of North Carolina troops were detached for service in their home state. A month later, Longstreet, with Hood's and Pickett's divisions, was sent to meet a potential threat to Richmond from the south and to gather food and supplies in southeastern Virginia. These reductions left Lee with a force of about 60,000 effectives on the Fredericksburg line, less than half the 130,000 the Federals had in their camps north of the Rappahannock (Foote 1963:240; Green 2014a; Sears 1996:92).

Before he left Fredericksburg, Longstreet took the time to strengthen his position so that it would require fewer men to defend and in the process improved the <u>Fredericksburg Confederate Earthworks</u> into one of the most elaborate systems of field fortifications yet developed during the war. One of the key features of the line was its shortened, squad-side trenches that were connected to the rear and other neighboring trenches by traverses, or covered ways. These types of trenches provided protected access between the front and rear and helped to solve the problem of the traditional long straight trench, which was subject to potentially devastating enfilade if breached or flanked. After consulting with Longstreet, Jackson was impressed and adopted similar methods for his lines. The system of entrenchments and mutually supporting artillery emplacements at Fredericksburg set the precedent for the more elaborate field fortifications that became common on subsequent Civil War battlefields (Foote 1963:240–242; Hess 2009:166–169).

While seeing to the rehabilitation of the Army of the Potomac, Hooker also worked on crafting a multipronged spring campaign designed to destroy the Army of Northern Virginia. As it was originally conceived, the plan called for Stoneman to take his cavalry, numbering about 10,000 troopers, on a raid southward to sever Lee's communications with Richmond and force him to abandon his entrenchments at Fredericksburg. The bulk of the Union infantry would march upstream to cross the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers beyond the Confederate position and sweep eastward on to Lee's left flank (Figure 13). Major General John Sedgwick would be in charge of constructing pontoon bridges at Franklin's and Fitzhugh's crossings below Fredericksburg and move his Sixth Corps and the First Corps across the Rappahannock to threaten Jackson's flank. Daniel Sickles' Third Corps and one division of the Second Corps, about 25,000 troops, would form the reserve. If all went well, Hooker would catch Lee in the open between the two Union infantry pincers with Stoneman's cavalry blocking the Confederate escape route to the south. "My plans are perfect," he boasted, "and when I start to carry them out may God have mercy on General Lee, for I will have none" (Gallagher 2007:10–11; Green 2014a).

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Like Burnside's original plan for crossing the Rappahannock at Fredericksburg, Hooker's plan depended on speed and deception to keep the Confederates off guard. Hooker put Stoneman in motion on April 13, 1863, with instructions to move swiftly to take and destroy the railroads between Fredericksburg and Richmond. Stoneman, however, was slow to get across the Rappahannock. A heavy rain fell early on April 15 and caused the river to rise to unfordable levels. On hearing that Stoneman still had not made it across, Hooker ordered the cavalry to stay where it was pending new orders (Sears 1996:122–124).

The Union infantry movement began on April 27, 1863, when the Fifth, Eleventh, and Twelfth corps broke camp and marched northwestward toward Kelly's Ford on the Rappahannock, about 20 miles above the Confederate position around Fredericksburg. Two days later, Sedgwick's Sixth Corps erected pontoon bridges about halfway between Fredericksburg and Hamilton's Crossing and created a secure lodgment on the Confederate side of the river. At the same time, Stoneman proceeded to cross the Rapidan with new, but similar orders to wreak havoc on Lee's supply lines. On April 30, Hooker's flanking force crossed the Rapidan River at Germanna and Ely's fords and entered the densely wooded area west of Fredericksburg called the "Wilderness." By mid-afternoon, 50,000 Federal troops, along with 108 artillery pieces, converged on Chancellorsville (Chancellorsville Battlefield [contributing site]) at the eastern edge of the Wilderness. Chancellorsville was a crossroads hamlet named for the Chancellorsville Inn (ASMIS No. FRSP00042.000, contributing site), a large brick tavern that stood at the intersection formed by the Orange Turnpike, Orange Plank Road, and Ely's Ford Road (contributing structure). To that point, Hooker's infantry movement had worked to near perfection. Lee was unaware of the movement, and nothing existed to prevent the Union army from seizing Banks Ford to create a direct supply link across the Rappahannock to Falmouth and from pushing on to hit Lee's left flank at Fredericksburg. Instead, Hooker made the fateful decision to halt at Chancellorsville for the evening to await the arrival of additional Union troops (Green 2014a; Sears 1996:166-167). That night, with victory seemingly assured, Hooker issued a general order of congratulations to the troops:

It is with heartfelt satisfaction the commanding general announces to the army that the operations of the last three days have determined that our enemy must either ingloriously fly, or come out from behind his defenses and give us battle on our own ground, where certain destruction awaits him (OR, Vol. 25, Pt. 1:171).

Hooker's decision to halt his advance on April 30, however, gave Lee critical time to formulate a plan. Caught by surprise and heavily outnumbered by the two converging Union infantry forces, military tactics dictated that he should retreat, but in characteristic fashion Lee chose instead to assume the offensive. To do so, he had to divide his army in the face of a superior enemy force—another violation of traditional military principles—gambling on the cautiousness of his opponents. Based on reports from his cavalry, Lee deduced that Hooker's main attack would come from the west and decided to meet that threat first. On May 1, Lee ordered Richard H. Anderson and Lafayette McLaws from Longstreet's corps to move their divisions west to prevent the Federals from gaining control of a ridgeline at Zoan Church that commanded the city of Fredericksburg. Jackson followed Anderson and McLaws with most of his corps, leaving only Jubal Early's division and Barksdale's brigade from McLaws' division behind to man the Confederate defensive line at Fredericksburg. Early had a total of 12,000 troops to defend against Sedgwick's force of 25,000 (Green 2014a).

Battle of Chancellorsville, May 1-6, 1863

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During the morning of May 1, 1863, Darius Couch's Second Corps and Daniel Sickle's Third Corps crossed the Rappahannock at the United States Ford, bringing the total number of troops with the flanking column to 70,000. Hooker decided to continue the advance on Fredericksburg in three columns. Meade took two of his Fifth Corps divisions out **River Road (LCS No. 082085 and 082152, historic associated feature)** in hopes of securing Banks Ford. His other division under Major General George Sykes moved east along Orange Tumpike. Farther south, Henry Slocum's Twelfth Corps, followed by Major General Oliver O. Howard's Eleventh Corps, moved east along Orange Plank Road. The primary goal of the latter two columns was to seize the high ground around Zoan Church (Gallagher 2007:18).

At about 8:00 a.m., Stonewall Jackson, riding out ahead of his men coming from their positions east of Fredericksburg, reached McLaws and Anderson as they were digging in at Zoan Church and ordered the two generals to abandon their defensive preparations in favor of an advance. At about 11:00 a.m., McLaws' division and Brigadier General William Mahone's brigade of Anderson's division began moving west on Orange Turnpike, while Anderson's other brigades, supported by Jackson's arriving men, pushed toward Chancellorsville on Orange Plank Road. The Confederates made first contact with the Federals advancing in the opposite direction about 11:20 a.m. Although badly outnumbered, the Confederates put up a spirited attack that surprised the Federal columns. After the initial shock, the two sides exchanged volleys for about an hour and a half before Hooker decided to recall his forces back to Chancellorsville. Many of the Union officers, including Meade, who was just about to seize Banks Ford, were incensed by Hooker's orders. Up to that point, casualties on both sides fighting on Orange Plank Road and Orange Turnpike had been light; had Hooker pushed all his available forces forward, the Federals would likely have been able to seize at least the strategically important ridge around Zoan Church. Instead, Hooker lost his nerve and surrendered the initiative to Lee. Later that day, he further stunned his general staff by informing them of his intention to assume a defensive posture and invite Confederate attack. "I have got Lee just where I want him," Hooker told Couch; "he must fight me on my own ground." Writing later of the exchange, Couch stated that he came away "with the belief that my commanding general was a whipped man" (Gallagher 2007:17-18; Green 2014a).

During the afternoon of May 1, the Federals began digging field fortifications that developed into the Chancellorsville Federal Earthworks (contributing structure). The line stretched about 6 miles in an arc and was sufficient to hold about two-thirds of the troops on hand. Meade's Fifth Corps (including the Federal V Corps, Griffin's 1st Division Line [LCS No. 082140, historic associated feature]) was anchored on the left by the Rappahannock River and occupied trenches on the west side of Mineral Springs Road to its intersection with Ely's Ford Road (Figure 14). There the line bowed southeastward around Chancellorsville intersection and was occupied by Couch's Second Corps (Couch's Works ILCS No. 007893, ASMIS No. FRSP00149.000, historic associated feature]) and Slocum's Twelfth Corps (Slocum's Line [LCS No. 007894, ASMIS No. FRSP00150.000, historic associated feature] and Slocum's Log Works [LCS No. 007895, ASMIS No. FRSP00151.000, historic associated feature]). The easternmost portion of the Federal line was a fortified salient north of the Chancellorsville Inn that became known as Hooker's Apex (LCS No. 007896, ASMIS No. FRSP00159.000, historic associated feature). Artillerists from Slocum's corps used the elevated and open fields of the Chancellor family's plantation, Fairview (ASMIS No. FRSP00043.000, contributing site), which was located southwest of the inn, to establish the Fairview Artillery Position (LCS No. 007892, historic associated feature), consisting of 30 lunette-shaped gun emplacements.²¹ Howard's Eleventh Corps was attached to Slocum's right and occupied a position along the south side of the Orange Turnpike past its western junction with

The <u>Chancellorsville Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00044.000, contributing site)</u> and <u>Chancellorsville Cemetery Grave Markers (LCS No. 082104, historic associated feature)</u> were established at Fairview by the Chancellor family.

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Orange Plank Road. Unlike Meade, who occupied the left flank of the army, Howard had no river or other natural feature on which to anchor his flank. Howard tried to protect his right flank by setting his westernmost brigades at right angles to face attacks from the south via Orange Plank Road or the west via the Orange Turnpike (Gallagher 2007:21; Hess 2005:176).

The Confederates also dug in, constructing entrenchments in case of Union attack. The Chancellorsville Confederate Earthworks (contributing structure) consists of remnants of Anderson's Line Gun Pit (LCS No. 082142, ASMIS No. FRSP00178.000, historic associated feature], Posey's Line (LCS No. 082145, ASMIS No. FRSP00031.000, historic associated feature), and McLaws' Line (LCS No. 007891, ASMIS No. FRSP00178.000, historic associated feature) established east and southeast of Hooker's position around the Chancellorsville Inn on May 1, 1863.

Lee and Jackson met during the evening of May 1 to discuss what could be done against the strong defensive line that the Federals were establishing (Figure 15). The rendezvous point for what proved to be the last meeting between the two generals was a small clearing at Orange Plank Road and Furnace Road (LCS No. 082122, historic associated feature), which led to Catharine Furnace (Catharine Furnace Ruins [LCS No. 007910, ASMIS No. FRSP00008.000, contributing site]), an iron furnace south of Chancellorsville, During the day, Lee had scouted the Federal left and found it securely anchored on the Rappahannock with no opening for an attack in that sector. The same was true for the Federal center where the bulk of Hooker's men and artillery were dug in behind earthworks fronted by abatis, cheveaux de frise, and other types of obstructions. That left Hooker's right flank, which according to a report from Lee's nephew, Brigadier General Fitzhugh Lee of Stuart's cavalry, was "up in the air," or vulnerable to a flank attack. With this information, Lee decided during the early morning of May 2 to undertake one of the largest gambles of the war. He would divide his already outnumbered army for a second time, sending 28,000 men of Jackson's Second Corps on a march around the Union right flank. To provide time and divert attention from Jackson's movement, Anderson's and McLaws' divisions with roughly 13,000 men would create a diversion on Hooker's front around Chancellorsville. The danger was obvious-if Hooker learned of Lee's intention, the Federals could easily destroy in detail the separated units of the Army of Northern Virginia (Gallagher 2007:21-22).

Jackson's movement depended on secrecy and speed. He was to use a circuitous 12-mile route composed of a series of sheltered mine and farm roads to bring his troops to the appointed position for the flank attack (Figure 16). A portion of the route is preserved in the District as <u>Jackson Trail (LCS No. 007897</u>, <u>historic associated feature)</u>. Shortly after Jackson got underway on the morning of May 2, Federal troops of Sickle's Third Corps positioned at <u>Hazel Grove (contributing site)</u>, a plateau of about the same height as Fairview and located immediately southwest, spotted the long line of Confederates filing westward. Hooker was alerted and sent instructions warning Howard to prepare for an attack on his right flank. Later claiming that he did not receive Hooker's message, Howard did little to alter his position to receive the impending attack. In the meantime, Sickles ordered a portion of his force to advance from Hazel Grove toward Catharine Furnace, where it successfully routed the tail end of Jackson's command. In doing so, however, Sickles left a gap in the Union line and was not in position to support Howard when Jackson unleashed his attack (Gallagher 2007:24).

By late afternoon on May 2, Jackson had successfully completed his march and was in position to attack Howard's exposed left flank. He arranged his men in long lines that centered on the Orange Turnpike and moved forward between 5:15 and 6:00 p.m. Brigadier General Robert E. Rodes led the assault as it slammed into two small regiments and a partial New York battery that formed the refused portion of Howard's flank facing westward on the Turnpike. Rodes' men easily overran the position and continued

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on, causing pandemonium and chaos among the Federals (Figure 17). Several times, Federal regiments in line along the Turnpike shifted position to face and resist the advance only to be quickly overwhelmed by the charging Confederates. Within two hours of the initial assault, the Eleventh Corps had completely collapsed and fell back eastward. Many collected at Fairview where Slocum's artillery was massed and provided protective fire that helped to stem the tide of the Confederate advance (Gallagher 2007:27–29; Green 2014a).

Around 7:15, Jackson ordered a temporary halt to allow Rodes to regroup and called up A. P. Hill's division with the intent of resuming the attack. Jackson hoped to block Hooker's escape routes to the river fords, so that he and Lee might crush the Federals between them the next day. In the gathering darkness, Jackson and several staff members went out to reconnoiter the Union position. On the way back to their lines, a North Carolina regiment mistook them for Federal cavalry and fired on the party. Jackson was shot twice in the left arm and once in his right hand. His arm broken and bleeding, Jackson was assisted from the field, relinquishing command to A. P. Hill. During the early morning of May 3, Jackson was transported to a field hospital near the Wilderness Tavern (Wilderness Tavern Ruins Site [LCS No. 082109, ASMIS No. FRSP00105.000, contributing site)] on the Orange Turnpike, where Doctor Hunter H. McGuire amputated his damaged left arm. Jackson's pastor, Beverly Tucker Lacy (brother of J. Horace Lacy of Chatham) subsequently buried the limb at Ellwood Cemetery (CLI No. 153247, ASMIS No. FRSP00108.000, contributing site), the Lacy family cemetery at Ellwood Plantation (CLI No. 300177, ASMIS No. FRSP00107.000, contributing site) (Gallagher 2007:32–33).

Shortly after assuming command from Jackson, A. P. Hill was wounded by artillery fragments in both his legs and also had to retire. Instead of transferring command to Rodes, who he thought too inexperienced to handle the command, Hill called on Jeb Stuart to take control of the field. On reaching the Confederate infantry position, Stuart assessed the situation and decided to call off the night attack that Jackson had planned. During the night, the Confederates consolidated their positions and dug earthworks for protection. Remnants of those earthworks that survive include 12th Corps, Pender's Line (LCS No. 082154, ASMIS No. FRSP00176.000. historic associated feature), a 1,550'-long trench northwest of Bullock Road, and Jackson's Corps Line (LCS No. 082150, ASMIS No. FRSP00158.000, historic associated feature), a 4,320'-long curvilinear line of discontiguous trenches east of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center and north of Orange Plank Road. The final action on May 2 was initiated by Sickles about 11:00 p.m. when he ordered a portion of his Union Third Corps to conduct a probe northwest from its position at Hazel Grove. The result was a significant number of Federal casualties, mostly caused by friendly fire from Slocum's batteries at Fairview (Gallagher 2007:30-31).

During the morning of May 3, Reynold's First Corps crossed the Rappahannock at the United States Ford and joined the Union flanking column, more than making up for the losses suffered by the Eleventh Corps the previous day. Hooker continued to hold a decided advantage over Lee in terms of troops, and the disparity would be far greater if Hooker decided to attack one of the separated wings of the Confederate army. Stuart's position, in particular, was exposed to a flank attack by Meade and Reynolds; had Hooker decided on a vigorous counterstroke, as some of his subordinates urged, he might have driven the Confederates from the field. Hooker, however, apparently gave no thought to assuming the offensive at Chancellorsville. Instead, he made the fatal mistake of removing Sickles from Hazel Grove to contract and fortify his lines in preparation for another Confederate assault. In doing so, he unwittingly surrendered key ground that Lee and Stuart had planned to assault in the morning to unite their forces (Gallagher 2007:34–35).

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Stuart spent the night arranging his lines astride Orange Plank Road to resume the assault on Hooker's left. A. P. Hill's division, which after Hill's wounding was led by Brigadier General Henry Heth, was nearest the Federals and was closely followed by Brigadier General Raleigh Colston's and Rodes' divisions (Figure 18). Union Brigadier General Alpheus Williams' First Division, Twelfth Corps and Major General Hiram Berry's Second Division, Third Corps were positioned south and north of the Plank Road, facing west toward the Confederates. The fighting that erupted in that sector of the battlefield was the fiercest of the battle. Struggling through dense vegetation along the sides of Orange Plank Road, the Confederates assaulted the Federal lines, which were far more stoutly defended than they were the day before. Hill's and Colston's divisions were able to create temporary lodgments in several areas, but Union counterattacks drove them back. At about 6:30 a.m., James Archer's Confederate brigade attacked Sickles' rearguard as it was leaving Hazel Grove and took control of the plateau there. The battle began to tip in favor of the Confederates when Rodes added the weight of his division to the attack and pushed the Federals in his front back toward Fairview. Additional pressure was applied by Anderson and McLaws, who attacked the Federal lines from the south and southeast (Gallagher 2007:35).

The success of Stuart's infantry attack was aided by an effective artillery barrage orchestrated by Longstreet's artillery chief Colonel Edward Porter Alexander. After Archer took Hazel Grove, Alexander moved 30 guns to the plateau there and together with a second postion along Orange Plank Road began converging fire on the Federal artillery on the Fairview plateau. At about 9:30 a.m., with his ammunition running low and the infantry falling back, Slocum's chief of artillery Captain Clermont Best removed the last of his guns from Fairview, ceding that important high ground to the Confederates. About that time, Hooker was knocked unconscious by an artillery shot that struck a pillar near where he stood on the porch of his headquarters at the Chancellorsville Inn. Shortly afterward, Hooker was moved to a new headquarters at the Bullock Place (Bullock House Site JASMIS No. FRSP00041.000, contributing site]), where, much to the chagrin of some of his subordinates, he recovered his wits enough to order a general pull-back to a contracted defensive line about 1 mile north. Hooker's retreat enabled Stuart to complete his link-up with the other wing of the Confederate army. At about 10:00 a.m., Lee rode into Chancellorsville to a chorus of cheers from his triumphant army. The day's fighting was not yet over, however, as Lee had to contend with a new threat from Sedgwick's force advancing from Fredericksburg (Gallagher 2007:35–37).

Second Battle of Fredericksburg and Battle of Salem Church, May 3, 1863

During the evening of May 2, Hooker ordered Sedgwick to assault Early's position on the heights beyond Fredericksburg to put pressure on Lee from the east. At daybreak on May 3, Sedgwick launched his three divisions against the same portion of the Sunken Road that Burnside had tried to carry during the first Battle of Fredericksburg in December 1862 (Figure 19). Believing that the Federals would not try that position again, Early had concentrated his strength 5 miles south near Prospect Hill, where Meade's troops had some success during the first battle. The line on Marye's Heights was defended by about 1,000 men from Barksdale's brigade and seven guns of the Washington Artillery, which were placed on the Willis Plantation north of the Sunken Road (Washington Artillery and Willis Plantation Site [CLI No. 154207, ASMIS No. FRSP00036.000, contributing site]). The Sunken Road once again proved its value as a defensive position as a comparatively small force of Confederates was able to turn back two waves of Federal attackers, inflicting heavy casualties in the process. Under a flag of truce, a Union contingent sent to treat the wounded discovered the weakness of the thinly manned Confederate line. With that intelligence, the Federals mounted one of the few true bayonet charges of the war and finally succeeded in breaching the Confederate defenses at the Sunken Road (Figure 20). Early executed an orderly retreat southward along Telegraph Road (present-day Lafayette Boulevard) with the intention of blocking

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Sedgwick's way if he chose to advance on Richmond. Sedgwick's orders from Hooker, however, were to advance west to attack Lee's rear at Chancellorsville (McPherson 1988:643–644; NPS 2015c).

Sedgwick lost precious time organizing his columns for the march west on Orange Plank Road, allowing Confederate Brigadier General Cadmus M. Wilcox to put his brigade in position to stall the Federal advance. Wilcox, who had moved his brigade up from its position guarding Banks Ford earlier in the morning and had observed the Union breakthrough of Early's line, executed a classic delaying action by making stands at three points along Orange Plank Road, forcing the Federals to deploy for battle at each, and then withdrawing farther west. As Wilcox had hoped, Lee sent reinforcements from McLaws' and Anderson's divisions, which joined him at Salem Church, about 2 miles west of Zoan Church on Orange Plank Road (Gallagher 2007:43–44).

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The portion of the Salem Church Battlefield preserved within the District consists of the 3.24-acre Salem Church Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00087.000, contributing site); the historic Salem Church (LCS No. 000428, contributing building), a Baptist church built in 1844-1845; and the Salem Church Road Trace (contributing structure), which intersected with Orange Plank Road. On reaching the church, McLaws took command and positioned the Confederate force, which numbered close to 10,000 troops, astride Orange Plank Road to the west of the church, facing east. From his left to right were the brigades of William Mahone, Brigadier General Paul J. Semmes, Wilcox, Joseph B. Kershaw, and Brigadier General William T. Wofford (Figure 21). The battle began in the late afternoon of May 3 with an artillery exchange. At about 5:30 p.m. Brigadier General William T. H. Brooks, whose division was at the head of Sedgwick's column, deployed two of his brigades north and south of Orange Plank Road and sent them forward against the Confederate center. As the Federals advanced, Confederate sharpshooters posted in the upper gallery of the church fired with deadly effect. Underbrush on the sides of the road made the going difficult, but Brigadier General Joseph J. Bartlett's brigade was able to reach the crest of a ridge a few yards from the church. At that point, the Confederates hidden in the Salem Church Road cut rose up and delivered a counterattack that drove Bartlett backwards. Colonel Henry W. Brown's brigade north of the road fared no better despite receiving assistance from Major General John Newton's Third Division. Nightfall ended the battle, and the two sides dug in where they stood at its conclusion (Gallagher 2007:44-45; NPS 2015d).

During the night of May 3–4, the main body of the Army of the Potomac held a strong U-shaped position that was anchored on both ends by the Rappahannock and covered U.S. Ford. Sedgwick had placed his still separated force in a similar U-shaped position in an attempt to keep control of his escape route via Banks Ford. Late in the day of May 3, Lee had urged Early and McLaws to coordinate an attack against Sedgwick, but the messages to the two commanders came too late to act on. That night, Early proposed to bring his force eastward the next morning to join up with McLaws. Lee approved the plan and decided to add much of Anderson's division to the assault, leaving Stuart to keep Hooker's force from assisting Sedgwick. Early's operation begain well as he was able to easily rout the Federals that were holding Marye's Heights and the highlands west of Fredericksburg. McLaws, however, refused to move. Even after Lee arrived with Anderson's division, the Confederate commander was unable to get his field generals to coordinate with one another and much of the day was wasted while Anderson maneuvered into position. Finally, at about 6:00 p.m. Early attacked Sedgwick's left center and was able to gain a foothold on the north side of Orange Plank Road, but Anderson's attack was not as vigorous and McLaws did nothing at all to help. The bungled Confederate offensive came to an end at nightfall and later that evening Sedgwick began withdrawing his force across the Rappahannock (Gallagher 2007:45-51).

Finding Sedgwick gone on May 5, Lee began working to combine his army for an attack on Hooker. By that time, however, the Union commander had also decided to withdraw. During the previous evening, Hooker called a council of war among his corps commanders to decide what the army's next move would be. Three of the five generals present voted to stay and attack Lee, but Hooker disregarded their advice and announced his intention to recross the Rappahannock. The movement toward the United States Ford commenced the next day and, by May 6, all the Federal troops, dispirited once more by the failures of their leaders, were back in their former camp around Falmouth (Gallagher 2007:49, 51–52).

News of the latest Union failure at Chancellorsville was cause for serious consternation in the North and wild celebration throughout the Confederacy. On hearing of Hooker's retreat on May 6, a shocked Lincoln exclaimed, "My God! My God! What will the country say?" In the aftermath, Hooker assumed his former bluster and refused to acknowledge any fault in his actions. He blamed Howard for being unprepared to defend the army's left flank on May 2 and Sedgwick for not

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vigorously prosecuting his orders to pressure Lee on May 3. The Northern press, however, put the responsibility for the debacle squarely on Hooker, and pressure began to mount for his dismissal. In the South, Lee's daring victory against a foe that outnumbered him more than two-to-one elevated him to hero status. His own reaction to the victory, however, was tempered by the damage it had inflicted on his army and the fact that the victory did little to change the strategic situation. His casualties for the campaign amounted to about 13,000, or 22 percent of his entire force. Hooker's army suffered 4,000 more casualties than the Confederates, but that amounted only to 13 percent of the total force. Moreover, the Army of the Potomac remained in its camps at Falmouth where it was in position to resume operations against Richmond at any time. Within a week, Lee would also receive the devastating news that he would be permantly deprived of the services of his most trusted lieutenant, Stonewall Jackson (Gallagher 2007:52–56; McPherson 1988:645).

On May 3, after Jackson had his arm amputated, Lee ordered that he be taken to a place where he could recuperate in safety and peace. The site selected was Fairfield, Thomas Chandler's plantation about 15 miles south of Fredericksburg at Guinea Station on the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad (Jackson Shrine Site JASMIS No. FRSP00087.000, contributing site)). Jackson had to endure a 14-hour wagon ride over some 27 miles of rutted roads to reach the plantation, which was being used as a Confederate field hospital. Jackson was given private accommodations in the Fairfield Plantation Office (LCS No. 000426, contributing building) and round the clock medical care. The initial prognosis for his recovery was good, but after a few days Jackson contracted pneumonia and his condition deteriorated rapidly. On Sunday, May 10, 1863, with his wife Anna present, Jackson uttered his famous last words, "Let us cross over the river, and rest under the shade of the trees," and died peacefully shortly thereafter (Ferguson 1992:328–329; Gallagher 2007:54).

Lee felt Jackson's loss deeply, and his inability to find a replacement with the innate aggressiveness that was key to implementing his daring field tactics would prove pivotal in the prosecution of future battles, beginning most glaringly with the Battle of Gettysburg the following July. On May 15, 1863, Lee visited Richmond and presented a plan for an invasion of Pennsylvania to Davis and the Confederate War Department. He argued that the move would provide an opportunity to resupply his army from the rich farmlands of Pennsylvania. The threat of another Union attempt to cross the Rappahannock and take Richmond would be relieved because Lincoln would recall Hooker's army from Falmouth to protect Washington, DC, The invasion might further demoralize the North and add fuel to the peace movement and a decisive battlefield victory might induce Great Britain or France to recognize the Confederacy as a sovereign nation. Davis approved the plan, and within a few weeks Longstreet reunited his force with the Army of Northern Virginia and the advance north toward Pennsylvania commenced. When Hooker failed to catch the Confederates before they crossed the Potomac River, Lincoln decided it was time for another change and promoted George Meade to commander of the Army of the Potomac. During the ensuing Battle of Gettysburg (July 1-3, 1863), Richard Ewell, Jackson's replacement as commander of the Confederate Second Corps, failed to press advantages with the vigor that characterized his predecessor's tactics. This, combined with several uncharacteristically rash moves by Lee against the powerful and well-positioned Army of the Potomac, produced a decisive Union victory that is considered the turning point of the Civil War. Meade proved his mettle as a field commander, but experienced Lincoln's wrath when he let Lee's badly damaged army escape back into Virginia (McPherson 1988:646-647, 651).

The Overland Campaign, May 4-June 12, 1864

On March 12, 1864, Ulysses S. Grant was promoted to the recently revived rank of Lieutenant General and given overall command of all Union armies. Grant came to the position with the outlines of a plan to

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launch a series of simultaneous offensives designed to destroy the South's capacity to wage war. The two main thrusts were to be conducted by Union forces in the West under Major General William T. Sherman and Meade's Army of the Potomac. Sherman was to march on Atlanta, destroy the main western body of the Confederate army under Joseph E. Johnston, and devastate the resources of central Georgia. Grant would accompany and oversee the operations of Meade's army in its operations against Lee in the East. Augmented by the addition of Ambrose Burnside's independent Ninth Corps, the Army of the Potomac was to once again cross the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers with the intent of marching on and seizing Richmond. Grant hoped that by threatening Richmond he could force Lee into a general and decisive battle. "Lee's Army will be your objective point," Grant instructed Meade, "Wherever Lee goes, there you will go also." Grant also found uses for several smaller, independent forces headed by politically connected generals whom he had to put up with for the time being. Their missions would be to draw Confederate forces away from concentrating against Sherman and Meade. Major General Nathaniel P. Banks was to coordinate with the Union blockading force in the Gulf of Mexico under Admiral David Farragut to seize Mobile, Alabama, the last remaining Confederate port on the Mississippi River. Major General Benjamin F. Butler's Army of the James and Major General Franz Sigel's Eleventh Corps were to play supporting roles in Meade's operation. Butler was to land his force of about 30,000 troops at Bermuda Hundred on the James River to threaten Richmond from the south and take the vital rail center of Petersburg, Virginia. Sigel, who had about 23,000 troops, was to operate in the Shenandoah Valley to disrupt Confederate supply lines and draw troops away from the main body of Lee's army (McPherson 1988:722-723; Stewart 2009:284-285).

Battle of the Wilderness, May 5-7, 1864

The Union offensives got underway simultaneously during the first week of May 1864. Grant's Overland Campaign began on May 4 when the Army of the Potomac, consisting of about 120,000 troops, crossed the Rapidan River into the Wilderness (Figure 22). It had been almost exactly one year since Hooker had taken the same route on his way to Chancellorsville. Major General Gouverneur K. Warren's Fifth Corps used Germanna Ford and proceeded to the Wilderness Tavern (Wilderness Tavern Ruins Site) on the Orange Turnpike. Warren established his headquarters at Ellwood (LCS No. 007951, CLI No. 153825, contributing building), the Federal-period manor house on J. Horace Lacy's Ellwood Plantation. Sedgwick's Sixth Corps followed Warren and took its initial position along Germanna Plank Road (Germanna Plank Road Trace [contributing structure]). Hancock's Second Corps crossed at Ely's Ford and moved southeast to Chancellorsville. Burnside was still north of the Rappahannock but was expected to catch up the next day. Relieved that the river crossing was uncontested by the Confederates, Grant ordered a halt about midday to prepare to move the next day against Lee's army, which he assumed would take up a defensive position behind Mine Run several miles to the west. One Union soldier later described what would become the Wilderness Battlefield (contributing site) as an area that "might have been conjured in the midst of a nightmare...a vast brooding thicket of scrub pine stands, threaded with underbrush, brambles, and other creeping, clutching growths" (Figure 23) (Beaudot 1993:120; Green 2014b; McPherson 1988:724; Rhea 2014a:2-3).

Lee was fully aware of the Federal movements on May 4, having observed them from a Confederate signal station along the Rapidan. At the time, his army of about 70,000 infantry and cavalry troops was spread out to the south and west of the Wilderness. Longstreet's First Corps was camped near Gordonsville on the Orange and Alexandria Railroad, and the Second and Third Corps under Major Generals Richard Ewell and A. P. Hill, respectively, were positioned along the Rapidan River near Orange Court House. Lee characteristically decided to become the aggressor, hoping to surprise the Federals in the Wilderness, where the dense thickets of second-growth forest and tangled understory

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would hamper their ability to maneuver and, therefore, neutralize their superiority in troop numbers and artillery. During the day, Ewell's corps marched east on the Orange Turnpike and made camp at Robertson's tavern, about 3 miles west of Warren's position around the Wilderness Tavern. Hill's corps took the parallel Orange Plank Road, stopping for the night at New Verdiersville. Longstreet, who had the farthest to travel, set off from Gordonsville at about 4:00 p.m. (Green 2014b; McPherson 1988:724; Rhea 2014a:3-4).

Lee's plan was to have Ewell and Hill, with about 40,000 men between them, pin the vastly superior Federal force in the Wilderness long enough for Longstreet to arrive and deliver the decisive blow. Ewell advanced along the Orange Turnpike during the early morning of May 5 and began digging entrenchments along the western edge of Saunders Field (the Wilderness Confederate Earthworks Icontributing structure). Ewell's Works (LCS No. 007935, ASMIS No. FRSP00166.000, historic associated feature) stretched southward from Flat Run across Culpeper Mine Road (LCS No. 082148, contributing structure) and Orange Turnpike to the Higgerson Farm (Higgerson Farm Ruins ILCS No. 082121, ASMIS No. FRSP00122.000, contributing site) and Higgerson Farm House Lane (LCS No. 082106, contributing structure). Major General Edward Johnson's division was positioned on Ewell's left astride the Orange Turnpike, and Robert Rodes' division formed Ewell's right. Jubal Early's division was in close support to the rear (Rhea 2014a;5-6).

During the night of May 4–5, Warren remained unaware of the Confederate threat because the Union cavalry he thought was protecting his right flank was not in position. As a consequence, he was surprised when pickets he sent out to the Orange Turnpike (Old Orange Turnpike Trace | LCS No. 007941, ASMIS No. FRSP00172.000, contributing structure|) early in the morning of May 5 reported that a Confederate force of unknown strength was advancing from the west (Figure 24). Warren notified Meade of the situation and, after Meade conferred with Grant, received instructions to change his line of march from Orange Plank Road (Orange Plank Road Trace | LCS No. 007942, ASMIS No. FRSP00174.000, contributing structure|) to the Orange Turnpike and seek an opportunity to attack the Confederates. Warren advanced Brigadier General Charles Griffin's division along the Orange Turnpike to the east edge of Saunders Field. Brigadier General James S. Wadsworth's division formed on Griffin's left in an area of dense woods between the Saunders and Higgerson farm fields. Brigadier General Samuel W. Crawford's division took Parker's Store Road southwest and deployed around an open knoll on the Chewning farmstead (Chewning House Site | ASMIS No. FRSP00124.000, contributing site|) (Rhea 2014a:4–5).

After identifying the Confederates in his front as Ewell's entire corps, Warren hesitated to attack because Johnson's Confederate division at the north end of Ewell's line overlapped and threatened Griffin's right flank. Warren requested time for Sedgwick's Sixth Corps to come up on his right, but Meade became exasperated with the delay and ordered him to advance. At about 1:00 p.m., Griffin's troops began crossing Saunders Field. The Union assault north of Orange Turnpike was halted by heavy volleys from the entrenched Confederate positions to their front and right. South of the Turnpike, Brigadier General Joseph J. Bartlett's brigade broke through the Confederate line and penetrated about one-quarter mile before being driven back. Advancing with Bartlett, Brigadier General Lysander Cutler's famed Iron Brigade had brief success against a portion of Rodes' line immediately south of Saunders Field, but a furious counterattack by Brigadier General John B. Gordon's brigade of Early's division sealed the breach. For the first time in the war, the Iron Brigade broke and was forced to retire in confusion. Union brigades on Warren's left became entangled in a swamp that bordered the Higgerson farm. Fighting in the mud and dense tangle of the swamp dissolved into isolated combat between small units that became disoriented and separated from their brigades. In several instances, small groups of Confederates were able to trick larger Federal units into surrendering to them. As the Federal infantry assaults began to lose

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steam, Warren attempted to sustain them with artillery he deployed in Saunders Field. In the closequarters fighting that characterized the battle, the artillery proved ineffective and the Federals were forced to retreat. The Confederates followed them across the field and attempted to sieze the cannon that had been left behind, but fire from Federal line to the east prevented them from securing their prizes. During the struggle for the guns, Saunders Field caught fire and both sides watched in horror as wounded soldiers who could not move were burned to death (Rhea 2014a:5).

At 3:00 p.m., shortly after Warren called in his troops, the advanced elements of Sedgwick's corps reached Saunders Field and renewed the battle there. Sedgwick focused his attack on Ewell's line north of the Orange Turnpike. For about one hour the two sides charged and countercharged to no conclusive results. Both sides called a halt to the assaults about 4:00 p.m., although firing between the lines continued into the evening. Sedgwick ordered his men to dig in where they were. The earthen trenches that are part of the Wilderness Federal Earthworks (contributing structure) in the northwestern section of the battlefield are representative of the hastily dug Federal VI Corps Works (LCS No. 082149, ASMIS No. FRSP00179.000, historic associated feature) that were assaulted by the Confederates the following day. During the day and evening of May 5, Warren's corps established an entrenched line south of the Turnpike (the Federal Line [LCS No. 007940, ASMIS No. FRSP00157.000, historic associated feature]) and Federal Lunettes [LCS No. 082072, ASMIS No. FRSP00181.000, historic associated feature]) (Rhea 2014a:7-8).

A. P. Hill had begun his advance along Orange Plank Road at sunrise on May 5. Lee chose to accompany Hill to oversee the linking with Longstreet's corps, which was critical to his plans. In the late morning, Hill's advanced units reached the Brock Road, which was the primary north-south route through the Wilderness. If Hill could take the intersection, Hancock's Second Corps, which was then positioned several miles south of Orange Plank Road, would be isolated from the rest of the Union army to the north. Alerted that Hill was advancing in that direction, Meade sent Brigadier General George W. Getty's division of Sedgwick's Sixth Corps to protect the intersection and ordered Hancock to come up in support. With his way blocked by Getty, Hill began establishing a defensive line of earthworks (A. P. Hill's Works [LCS No. 007936, ASMIS No. FRSP00167.000, historic associated feature]) north and south of Orange Plank Road. At 4:00 p.m., Meade ordered Getty to attack the portion of Hill's position occupied by Major General Henry Heth's division and located several hundred yards west of Brock Road. As soon has he reached the field, Hancock began sending his divisions into the fight, forcing Lee to commit Cadmus Wilcox's reserve division. The fight along Orange Plank Road was one of the fiercest engagements of the war, devolving into a hand-to-hand struggle in the thickets on either side of the road. Hancock's force pushed Hill backward and was on the verge of routing the Confederates when darkness fell. The exhausted troops on both sides dug in where they were, sometimes only a few yards apart from the enemy in some places. In preparation for resuming the fight the next day, the rest of Hancock's force began constructing Hancock's Works (LCS No. 007938, ASMIS No. FRSP00160.000, historic associated feature), which consisted of three separate lines: one along the east side of Brock Road and the other two on the west (Green 2014b; Rhea 2014a:8-9).

During the night of May 5-6, both commanding generals issued orders for renewing the fight in the morning. Lee had achieved his goal of holding the superior Federal force in the Wilderness. From his headquarters at the Widow Tapp's farm (the <u>Widow Tapp Ruins Site JASMIS No. FRSP00125.000</u>, contributing site]), about a mile west of Hill's line, he changed Longstreet's orders from linking up with Hill's right flank to coming up from behind along Orange Plank Road to assist Hill in attacking Hancock. Longstreet responded that he planned to reach the field the next morning. From the day's events, Grant learned that Lee's army was divided and devised plans to exploit that situation by ordering Hancock to

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make an all-out assault on Hill. Sedgwick and Warren were to pressure Ewell to prevent him from aiding Hill (Rhea 2014b; Trudeau 2000).

Hancock's attack started at 5:00 a.m. on May 6. His troops, along with Getty's and James Wadsworth's divisions, moved west on Orange Plank Road and slammed into Hill's line, forcing the Confederates to retreat westward in disorder. In what seemed a futile effort to stem the Union tide, Lee ordered Lieutenant Colonel William T. Poague to place artillery in the clearing at the Widow Tapp's farm. Poague's gunners fought valiantly but could not hold for long. Just as the position was about to be overwhelmed by the Federals, fresh gray-clad troops came marching up the road from the rear. When Lee asked the officer in charge what brigade he was leading, the response was the "the Texan brigade." Lee knew the brigade to be part of Longstreet's force and with renewed hopes urged them on to the front by waving his hat and shouting, "Texans always move them!" In the excitement, Lee began advancing with the troops and only consented to go to the rear after the troops halted and refused to move forward until he did so (Rhea 2014a:10-11).

The Texas troops suffered a fearsome casualty rate of about 50 percent but succeeded in blunting the Federal advance and giving Longstreet time to mass other units of his force for a counterattack. At about 6:00 a.m., he sent brigades under Major General Charles W. Field and Brigadier General Joseph B. Kershaw eastward on Orange Plank Road into the disorganized Federals, pushing them back past the Widow Tapp's farm. Grant sent Burnside's corps through the woods to assist Hancock, but delays caused by Confederate resistance and the difficulty of navigating through the dense woods caused Burnside to show up too late to make any difference. The decisive blow was delivered by four brigades under Longstreet's assistant adjutant general Lieutenant Colonel G. Moxley Sorrel, who used an unfinished railroad cut to hide his advance on Hancock's left flank. Sorrell's attack at about 11:00 a.m. completely surprised the Federals and forced Hancock to recall his entire corps to the safety of the entrenched lines that had been constructed the day before along Brock Road (Rhea 2014a:11–12; Trudeau 2000).

As Longstreet followed the Confederate advance east along Orange Plank Road, he and his staff were mistaken for a group of Federal officers. Like Stonewall Jackson the year before, Longstreet was felled by friendly fire and had to be carried from the field. His wound was not fatal, however, and he returned to the Army of Northern Virginia four months later. Lee assumed direct command of Longstreet's troops and assaulted Hancock's works with some success in the late afternoon, but lacked the manpower to effect a breakthrough. The fighting along Brock Road eventually died down at nightfall (Rhea 2014a:13).

The major event at the north cnd of the battlefield was Jubal Early's attack on Sedgwick's right flank (Figure 25). During the previous night, Ewell had extended his line northward by placing Jubal Early's division on Edward Johnson's left north of Saunders Field (Early's Works JLCS No. 0007937, ASMIS No. FRSP00152.000, historic associated feature]). John Gordon, whose Georgia brigade occupied Early's left, had scouted the unprotected Union right flank during the early morning of May 6 and urged an immediate attack. Early argued it was too risky and Ewell decided to hold off. Later in the day, Gordon again pleaded with his superiors to let him move forward and Ewell relented. Gordon's attack, which began at about 6:00 p.m., proved a complete surprise to the Federal brigades on Sedgwick's right and they were quickly overrun (Figure 26). Darkness prevented the assault from turning into a major rout. That evening Sedgwick consolidated his corps in a new line to the east (Sedgwick's Works JLCS No. 007939, ASMIS No. FRSP00161.000, historic associated feature]), extending roughly northeast from present-day Constitution Highway to Germanna Plank Road (Rhea 2014a:13–14).

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Another day of promise for the Army of the Potomac had devolved into a stunning reversal of fortune due to the fortuitous arrival of Longstreet. Both armies expected more combat on May 7, but neither side initiated hostilities. The vicious fighting on May 5 and 6 had resulted in more than 18,000 casualties for the Army of the Potomac. Lee's 11,400 casualties meant he had lost a proportionate number from his army. Had Grant decided, like the other Union generals before him, to retreat back north across the Rappahannock River, Lee could have claimed another significant victory. Grant, however, was determined to recover the initiative. During the evening of May 7, he directed Meade to move southward toward Spotsylvania Court House (Figure 27) in an attempt to maneuver between Lee's army and Richmond and force Lee into another battle outside the Wilderness on ground of Grant's choosing (Green 2014b; Rhea 2014b).

Battles of Spotsylvania Court House, May 7-21, 1864

On May 7, 1864, Lee responded quickly after learning that the Federals were on the move southward. He ordered his cavalry to harass the Union columns as they made their way south and sent Richard Anderson's division toward Spotsylvania Court House. Although Lee had not added any urgency to Anderson's orders, the general decided to move his troops quickly out of the burning stench of the Wilderness. By doing so, Anderson was in position during the morning of May 8 to assist Jeb Stuart's cavalry in administering a severe blow on the advanced Federal units from Warren's corps at a place northwest of Spotsylvania Court House that the Federals later named Laurel Hill. During the remainder of the day, the other units of both sides filtered into the area and constructed opposing earthworks on what became the Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield (contributing site). The Confederates established a stout defensive line (the Spotsylvania Court House Confederate Earthworks [contributing structure]) on high ground that formed an inverted U around Spotsylvania Court House. Anderson dug in along the ridge of Laurel Hill (Confederate 1st Corps Works [LCS No. 007916, ASMIS No. FRSP00168.000, historic associated feature]). Ewell's corps filed in on Anderson's right and overnight built a line of entrenchments to encompass the elevated terrain along their front. In the morning they discovered that their works formed a large salient that bulged outward from the rest of the Confederate line. The men nicknamed it the "Mule Shoe" because of its shape. The Confederate engineers believed Mule Shoe to be a dangerous flaw, but Lee though he could protect it with artillery and decided to leave Ewell's troops where they were (Green 2014b; Rhea 2014a:17-19).

When all of his corps moved into position opposite the Confederates on May 9, Grant's line (the Spotsylvania Court House Federal Earthworks [contributing structure]) consisted of Hancock's corps on the right (Hancock's Works [LCS No. 007917, ASMIS No. FRSP00156.000, historic associated feature]), Warren and Wright in the center (Federal VI Corps Works [LCS No. 007918, ASMIS No. FRSP00153.000, historic associated feature]), and Burnside on the left (Burnside's Works [LCS No. 007919, ASMIS No. FRSP00154.000, historic associated feature]).

The earthworks that Lee's and Grant's armies developed on the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House battlefields reflected the significant changes that had occurred in military technology and tactics during the war (Figure 28). Advancements in weaponry, particularly the rifled musket, which was as accurate at 300 yards as the smoothbore rifle it replaced was at 60 yards, made traditional field tactics obsolete. The hard lessons learned of massed troop assaults on fortified defensive positions at battles like Fredericksburg and Gettysburg made soldiers appreciate the protective value of earthworks, and far fewer of them protested when ordered to dig entrenchments. The fieldworks that were a common feature of all the battlefields of the Overland Campaign were far more complex than anything constructed in 1862. Both sides employed multiple supporting lines that were connected by traverses, which afforded

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protection from enfilading fire and allowed for rapid troop movements to different sectors of the lines. The trenches were deeper and wider and the parapets higher than in previous battles and were made stronger and more permanent through the use of logs and gabions as reinforcing materials. Troops removed trees in their fronts to create open fields of fire and used them to construct entanglements in front of the trenches to slow attackers. Abatis, an obstruction made of felled trees with the sharpened boughs facing outward toward the enemy, and *chevaux de frise*, a more refined version of an obstruction that consisted of a log with bored holes and protruding sharpened sticks, were employed all along the lines (Hess 2005:309; Rhea 1997:5–6; Rhea 2014a:23).

For the outgunned Confederates, fortifications helped to even the odds on the battlefield. In assessing the increasingly sophisticated lines that the Confederates developed during the Overland Campaign, Meade's chief of staff Major General Andrew A. Humphreys estimated that the relative strength of the defending force was increased by a factor of four. While the earthworks at the Wilderness had some effect on the strategy employed, those on the Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield dictated it. Because the two sides faced each other for two weeks, they had ample time to perfect and extend their works. The Confederates built what proved to be an impregnable line along Laurel Hill that was tested a number of times by Warren's Fifth Corps to no avail. The Mule Shoe salient was far more vulnerable and ultimately became the primary target of Union efforts (Rhea 1997:5–6; Rhea 2014a:23).

Grant spent the day of May 9 planning for an attack on Lee's left flank. Late in the day, Hancock's Second Corps crossed the Po River but was unable to initiate an attack because of darkness. The delay allowed Lee to discover Grant's intentions and send units from other parts of his line to the threatened sector. On the morning of May 10, Grant decided to alter his plans after discovering the Confederate troop build-up in Hancock's front (Figure 29). Figuring that Lee had weakened his lines at Laurel Hill to support his left, Grant withdrew all of Hancock's troops from the right of the Federal position, except Brigadier General Francis Barlow's division, to use them in a general assault to probe for weakness along the Confederate lines. Major General Henry Heth's division of A. P. Hill's corps attacked Barlow, and after a hard-fought conflict that became known as the Battle of Po River, Barlow narrowly escaped annihilation by retreating across the river and destroying the pontoon bridge after reaching the other side (Rhea 2014a:24–25).

Grant scheduled the attack to commence at 5:00 p.m., but before it got underway his plans began to unravel. Hancock was out of position because he was forced to go to Barlow's aid. Warren, whose slow and deliberate actions had been a constant source of complaint from Meade during the campaign, uncharacteristically asked that he be allowed to attack Laurel Hill before the general assault began. For some reason, Meade agreed, and Warren sent his men forward at about 4:00 p.m. Ensconced behind their stout entrenchments, the Confederates easily repelled the attack. Grant was forced to postpone the assault until Warren could reform, but several individual units along the line did not get the message. The most successful of the attacks was made by Colonel Emory Upton, who led a force of 12 regiments from Major General Horatio Wright's Sixth Corps along a wagon trace (Upton's Road Trace | LCS No. 007927, contributing structure|) leading southeastward toward the Mule Shoe. Upton's force briefly pierced the West Shoulder of Mule Shoe (LCS No. 007924, ASMIS No. FRSP00162.000, historic associated feature) before adjacent Confederate units responded to force it back. Upton did not receive any significant support, and his men were forced to hug the outer face of the Confederate entrenchments and wait until darkness provided them the opportunity to return safely to their lines (Rhea 2014a:25-27).

²² Wright replaced Major General John Sedgwick, who was killed by a sniper's bullet while inspecting his lines during the morning of May 9, 1864.

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The success of Upton's attack gave Grant renewed confidence that the Confederate lines could be breached with a massed assault directed at the Mule Shoe. The primary attacks would be made by Hancock and Burnside. Hancock's Second Corps and elements of Wright's Sixth Corps would target the northernmost end of the salient, and Burnside would hit the east side (East Shoulder of Mule Shoe ILCS No. 007923, ASMIS No. FRSP165.000, historic associated feature and East Angle [LCS No. 007922, ASMIS No. FRSP00164.000, historic associated feature]). On May 12 at 4:30 a.m., 20,000 Federal troops concentrated in the area surrounding the Brown House and moved due south across Landrum House Road (LCS No. 007925, contributing structure) toward the apex of the Mule Shoe (Figure 30). Barlow's division in the lead quickly overran the Confederate lines and created a large gap that spread along the eastern shoulder of the salient. Once inside the Confederate lines, the Union attack became disjointed, as troops began milling around with no clear idea of what they were supposed to do next. This gave the Confederates an opportunity to mount a counterattack. John Gordon took the lead in organizing units that were available in the vicinity. As Gordon pushed his men forward, Lee, as he had done at the Wilderness, began to advance with them and was convinced to retire only when Gordon's men stopped and began to chant "Lee to the rear! Lee to the rear!" As other Confederate units joined Gordon in pushing back the Federals, a desperate close-quarters fight ensued near the northwest corner of the Mule Shoe. The fight at what became known as the Bloody Angle (LCS No. 007921, ASMIS No. FRSP00163,000, historic associated feature) was one of the longest and fiercest hand-to-hand fights of the war (Rhea 2014a:27-34).

Grant tried to support Hancock's attack by pressuring Lee's flanks to prevent him from sending troops to the Mule Shoe. He ordered Warren to make another attack on Laurel Hill, but the men of the Fifth Corps were reticent about making another attack on the fortified Confederate position and delays ensued. Warren finally went forward at 10:00 a.m. and once again was repulsed with heavy casualties. Burnside fared little better on the eastern side of the Mule Shoe. He committed only a small force and his attack against elements of Heth's division got bogged down in the thick woods around his position and produced no significant results. Meanwhile, the fight at the Bloody Angle, which began at 6:00 a.m. on May 12, raged until 4:00 a.m. the following morning, when Lee called his men to a new defensive line (Lee's Final Line [LCS No. 007920, ASMIS No. FRSP00160.000, historic associated feature]) that had been established to the rear (Rhea 2014a:37–39).

Grant's aide Horace Porter described the carnage left behind at the Bloody Angle:

Our own killed were scattered over a large space near the 'angle' while in front of the captured breastworks the enemy's dead, vastly more numerous than our own, were piled upon each other in some places four layers deep, exhibiting every ghastly phase of mutilation (Rhea 2014a:39).

Heavy rain during the next four days prevented any significant operations. Grant spent the time reorganizing his lines for an assault on Lee's right along the eastern approaches to Spotsylvania Court House. Figuring that Lee would respond to his movement by strengthening his right, Grant decided to attack his center. On the morning of May 18, Hancock's and Wright's corps moved against Ewell's position in the center of the new line that the Confederates had been established as the fallback for the defenders of the Mule Shoe. Ewell had spent the previous five days perfecting the fortifications there and, as a result, the Union attack was easily repulsed (Rhea 2014a:40–41).

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After the series of unsuccessful frontal attacks against the strong Confederate defenses, Grant decided to lure Lee out to fight in the open. He sent Hancock southward along the Fredericksburg and Richmond Railroad and intended to put his other three corps on the Confederate rear if Lee decided to pursue. Instead, on May 19, Lee sent Ewell with parts of Rodes' and Gordon's divisions north on Brock Road to find and assault the Federal right flank. At about 5:00 p.m., Ewell's force encountered several Union heavy artillery regiments at Harris' farm. These untested regiments had formerly served in the defenses around Washington, DC, and had just been reassigned to service in the infantry. They put up a spirited fight, however, and after receiving support from Major General Daniel B. Birney's infantry division, successfully stopped Ewell's advance. After the fighting ended at 9:00 p.m., Ewell's men began moving back to their former position, but many lost their way and were captured. The engagement at Harris' farm cost Ewell more than 900 men and did nothing more than delay Grant's plan to move south (Rhea 2014a:41–42).

The official end of the Battles of Spotsylvania Court House came on May 21, when Grant put his troops in motion for his planned sidle around Lee's right (Figure 31). During the two weeks of battles, Grant's army suffered 18,000 casualties to Lee's 12,000—again a wide disparity between Union and Confederate losses. Unwilling to continue the stalemate, Grant again moved off to the left hoping to catch Lee by surprise. Using his advantage of inside routes, Lee was able to beat the Union army to Telegraph Road, which was the key transportation route south through the area. By the morning of May 22, the Confederates had established their lines along the south bank of the North Anna River near the Chesterfield Bridge. Grant followed Lee on Telegraph Road and reached the north side of the river on May 23. Over the next two days, the two sides fought the Battle of North Anna. The Federals were able to cross the river at several places and pressured the Confederates. Lee responded by contracting his lines and purposefully waiting for an opportunity to pounce on the separated units of the Federal force and defeat them in detail. Grant recognized the danger and decided to pull back, instead taking his army in a wide southeast swing toward White House where he could establish a new supply line using the Pamunkey River and put the Army of the Potomac in position to assault Richmond from the northeast (McPherson 1988:723–733; Rhea 2001:2–23).

On May 28, five brigades of Sheridan's cavalry engaged about an equal number of Confederates under Major General Wade Hampton at the Battle of Haw's Shop south of Nelson's Ford on the Pamunkey. The battle, which turned out to be one of the largest engagements involving only cavalry during the war, was inconclusive but gave Lee the knowledge that the Union army was now south of the Pamunkey. He moved his army to the south side of Totopotomoy Creek, between Shady Grove Church and Atlee's Station on the Virginia Central Railroad, and waited for Grant's next move. Grant followed, and on May 30, the two sides fought the Battle of Totopotomoy Creek, which ended in another draw and another attempt by Grant to move around Lee's right. Grant's chosen route depended on gaining the strategically important crossroads at the village of Old Cold Harbor. Eventually, the two armies engaged in an area east of the village. The Battle of Cold Harbor (May 31–June 12, 1864) was a devastating defeat for the Union as Grant hurled numerous charges against the well-entrenched Confederates (Rhea 2001:22–29).

The outcome of the Battle of Cold Harbor was sobering for Grant, who later wrote in his memoirs that the order for the assaults against the Confederate lines was one of his chief regrets of the war. The Overland Campaign cost the Union approximately 55,000 casualties, compared to the Confederacy's 32,000, and none of its primary goals had been accomplished. Grant was convinced that the casualties inflicted on Lee's army had drastically reduced its ability to conduct offensive operations, but Cold Harbor proved that Lee remained quite capable of defending Richmond behind the city's stout fortifications. In a June 5, 1864, report to the Army Chief of Staff, Major General Henry W. Halleck, Grant admitted that "Without

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a greater sacrifice of human life than I am willing to make, all cannot be accomplished that I had designed outside the city." He then laid out his plan to hold the ground occupied by the Army of the Potomac but switch the focus of the offensive campaign to Petersburg, the Confederacy's vital supply and transportation nexus 25 miles south of Richmond.

The Overland Campaign officially came to an end on the evening of June 12, 1864, when the Army of the Potomac began the difficult maneuver of disengaging from the lines at Cold Harbor without alerting the Confederates. On the morning of June 13, Lee received word that the Federals had left Cold Harbor but was unable to respond immediately because he lacked intelligence about their objective. Most of the army passed over a 2,100'-long pontoon bridge at Wyanoke Point and, on June 15, Smith's Eighteenth Corps assaulted the Confederate defensive works around Petersburg. After a three-day battle during which the Federals failed to capture Petersburg despite having a great advantage in numbers, the two sides settled into what became a 10-month-long siege of the city (Hess 2009:16–17; Simpson 2011:109; Stewart 2009:291–292).

CRITERION A - MILITARY: Establishment of Fredericksburg National Cemetery, 1865-1869

Fredericksburg National Cemetery (LCS No. none, ASMIS No. FRSP00063.000, contributing site) is nationally significant under Criterion A in the area of Military History as a symbolic and physical representation of the Civil War and for its associations with the early development of the National Cemetery System, established in 1862 to provide proper resting places for Union soldiers who died during the conflict. Fredericksburg National Cemetery was established in 1865 on Willis Hill at the southern end of Marye's Heights for the reburial of Union soldiers killed during the battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Wilderness, Spotsylvania Court House, Mine Run, and North Anna River and those who died from disease contracted in camps between those battles. Over the course of the following three years, the bodies of more than 15,000 Union soldiers were exhumed from shallow graves on the battlefields and reinterred in this cemetery. Fredericksburg is the fourth largest national cemetery after Vicksburg, Nashville, and Arlington and contains more unidentified interments (12,770, or more than 80% of the total number of interments) than any other national cemetery. This important example of a national cemetery is significant within the historic context "Initial Development of Permanent Memorials to Civil War Soldiers Who Died in Defense of the Union-1861 to 1881" and meets the registration requirements described in the Civil War Era National Cemeteries Multiple Property Documentation Form (MPDF). However, the MPDF only covers those national cemeteries maintained by the Department of Veterans Affairs and, thus, does not include Fredericksburg National Cemetery or other national cemeteries maintained by the National Park Service (Pfanz 2007:17; Sammartino 1994).

National Cemetery System, 1862–1873

The scale of Civil War battles and the high number of casualties they usually produced far exceeded those of any previous American war. Early in the war, it became obvious that the U.S. Army's long-standing system for the burial of soldiers who died in service to their country was inadequate. Before the establishment of the national cemeteries, the bodies of officers and soldiers were often buried where they fell or at a nearby military post cemetery or were transported for interment in cemeteries selected by their families.

A series of government actions taken before the Civil War's end ultimately resulted in the organization of a National Cemetery System on a scale comparable to that of the war itself. War Department General

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Order No. 55 dated September 11, 1861, delegated to the commanding officers of military corps and departments the responsibility for the burial of officers and soldiers who died within their jurisdictions without, however, authorizing them to acquire land for this purpose. To carry out the task, the Army obtained groups of plots in existing cemeteries near large hospitals, used cemeteries at Army posts, and accepted plot donations from the many newly formed cemetery associations. General Order No. 33, dated April 3, 1862, required commanding generals to designate parcels of land near every battlefield for burial purposes. Reacting to growing public concern about the frequently disorganized handling of the Union dead, the 37th Congress passed legislation in July 1862 authorizing the purchase of land for national cemeteries. Fourteen national cemeteries were created under this act in the second half of 1862 and six more in 1863, including one at Gettysburg. These wartime cemeteries, all administered by the War Department, were located principally where Northern military personnel were or had been concentrated—whether at battlefields (e.g., Mill Springs, Kentucky); near army hospitals and encampments (e.g., Arlington and Alexandria, Virginia); or at military posts (e.g., Fort Leavenworth, Kansas) (Sammartino 1994; Sellars 2005).

Within two months of Lee's surrender in April 1865, the Union Army initiated an extensive search and recovery program to rebury its dead. This systematic effort led to the creation of many more cemeteries, most of them established under the authority of congressional legislation approved in February 1867. This legislation strengthened the 1862 legal foundation for national cemeteries by reauthorizing the purchase of lands needed for burying places; allowing for the use of eminent domain when necessary to acquire private lands; and calling for the reimbursement of owners whose lands had been, or would be, expropriated for military cemetery sites. The total number of national cemeteries rose to 73 by 1870, when the reburial program for Union soldiers was considered essentially completed. Many of these cemeteries were located on battlefields or military posts, while others were part of existing private or city cemeteries. Two prominent battlefield cemeteries created and managed by states were transferred to the War Department: Pennsylvania ceded the Gettysburg cemetery in 1872, and Maryland transferred the Antietam cemetery five years later. In 1873, Congress passed an act that allowed all veterans who had served in the Civil War—Union and Confederate—to be buried in a national cemetery (Sammartino 1994; Sellars 2005).

Grief-stricken Americans immediately understood the national cemeteries to be hallowed commemorative sites, suggesting that the surrounding battlefield landscapes (which still held many unfound bodies) were also hallowed places. Because the national cemeteries were effectively the only areas of the battlefields in a condition adequate to receive the public in any numbers, they became the focal points for official ceremonies and other formal acts of remembrance such as Decoration Day (later referred to as Memorial Day). Thus, the national cemeteries were precursors to the far larger military parks, and direct connections often evolved between the two. Each of the five national battlefield parks established in the 1890s adjoined or was located near a military cemetery (Sellars 2005).

Fredericksburg National Cemetery, 1865–1869

Lieutenant Colonel James M. Moore supervised the Union Army's burial program in Virginia. On June 7, 1865, the Army directed Moore to lead the burial of soldiers who had died on the battlefields at the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House. With assistance from the First U.S. Veteran Volunteers Regiment, Moore oversaw the creation of two temporary cemeteries in the Wilderness (one near the western edge of Saunders Field and one near the intersection of Orange Plank and Brock roads), where the dead were buried in mass graves marked with white-painted wood tablets. He intended to create another cemetery at Spotsylvania but found that most of the dead there had been buried on the battlefield

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by their comrades or later by a local innkeeper. Likewise, most of those killed during the Battle of Fredericksburg had been buried immediately.

In the fall of 1865, Quartermaster General Montgomery C. Meigs ordered his field officers to report on the number and location of Union graves in their districts. Brevet Major Hiram F. Gerrish's survey of the Fredericksburg region identified 8,017 graves scattered throughout the city in "door yards & gardens" and over 100 parcels in the surrounding area, with the largest number at the Fredericksburg Agricultural Fair Grounds in front of Marye's Heights (quoted in Pfanz 2007:51). Gerrish recommended that the government maintain the cemeteries created by Moore in the Wilderness and establish four new cemeteries in the Fredericksburg area before the numerous scattered graves on the city lots and battlefields were destroyed. The following year, the War Department decided to consolidate the graves of Union soldiers throughout the Fredericksburg area into a single cemetery. In April 1866, the Army took possession of the agricultural fairgrounds land for this purpose. However, when Moore visited the site in May, he determined that its shallow water table and poor drainage conditions were unsuitable for burials and recommended that the cemetery instead be located on Willis Hill, at the southern end of Marye's Heights. Secretary of War Stanton authorized Moore to proceed, and the Army negotiated with the property owner, Douglas H. Gordon, to purchase 12 acres of land at \$250 an acre (Pfanz 2007:30–52, 63–65).

From 1866 to 1868, the burial corps retrieved the bodies buried by the First Regiment at the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House, as well as all those they could locate in Fredericksburg and the immediately surrounding area, and reinterred them on Willis Hill. The burial corps consisted initially of U.S. soldiers but, in June 1866, the government hired what came to be at least 200 private laborers. The Army constructed a central carriageway from the cemetery entrance at the base of the hill up to and encircling its plateau, where engineers laid out a series of grassy avenues at right angles to divide the property into four quadrants (divisions) with four non-uniform sections per quadrant. The laborers dug the graves in parallel rows within each section and along the parallel terraces that were cut into the hill's eastern slope in 1867. By the time the burial corps left Willis Hill in March 1869, the cemetery contained the remains of more than 15,000 soldiers. The Army simultaneously developed the cemetery landscape by erecting a wood perimeter fence with an arched entrance gate, two sets of wood terrace steps, and temporary wood headboards. Workers installed a flagstaff on a 6'-tall mound near the center of the plateau and constructed a larger mound near the southern end of the property for a proposed monument (never built). They also constructed a temporary wood-frame lodge for the cemetery superintendent and paved the carriageway and avenues with gravel. The government completed its official acquisition of the property on November 5, 1868 (Pfanz 2007:55-164).

CRITERION A - HEALTH AND MEDICINE - Military Field Hospitals

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District possesses national significance under Criterion A in the area of Health and Medicine for its associations with development of Civil War-era field hospitals and the important role that women assumed in their operation. Injured, ailing, and dying men filled innumerable field hospitals established in houses, barns, or tents near the surrounding battlefields. Troops commandeered houses for use as field hospitals, some of which remain extant in the District (Calcutt 2005:20).

Prior to the Civil War, Americans typically associated hospitals with disease and poverty, and only the poor went to hospitals to convalesce from illnesses. The war shifted that perception, as thousands of men

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who were not well enough to return to their units were transferred to general hospitals in cities along rail lines for further treatment or time to recuperate away from the rigors of battle. Medical attention for wounded Union and Confederate soldiers varied but generally followed a pattern that consisted of first aid administered on the battlefield, followed by transport to a field hospital to receive treatment from an army surgeon and evacuation to a general hospital somewhere behind the lines for rest and recovery. By 1863, the Confederate army had set up a system of "wayside hospitals" to provide interim medical care to soldiers on their way home on furlough to recover in their families' care. After Meade's army occupied Fredericksburg during the Overland Campaign of 1864, Union surgeons used warehouses and other buildings as hospitals (Figure 32) (King et al. 2006:39; Newell et al. 2011:177).

Troops generally set up field hospitals one to two miles behind the battle lines and organized them by regiment. They selected sites based on their proximity to potable water, the availability of buildings to be commandeered to supplement hospital tents to house the wounded, and their distance from the battle lines. Federal soldiers typically consolidated field hospitals into corps hospitals, allowing for increased efficiency and care of the wounded. Confederates organized field hospitals at the division level, as did Union troops. In Fredericksburg, the Union Second Corps set up tent hospitals at three locations on the north side of the Rappahannock River, including Chatham Manor, where the Second Corps also had their headquarters. Chatham served as a Union hospital following the 1862 Battle of Fredericksburg through December 1862, when the wounded were evacuated to hospitals in Washington, DC. Following the Battle of Chancellorsville in May 1863, Ellwood, Salem Church, and the Wilderness Tavern (Wilderness Tayern Ruins Site) functioned as field hospitals for Confederate troops. Ellwood served as a Confederate hospital from May through November 1863, while Salem Church was used for only a few days. After being injured by friendly fire at Chancellorsville, near the current Chancellorsville Visitor Center, General Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson was brought to a field hospital near the Wilderness Tavern, where his injured arm was amputated. The arm was later buried in Ellwood Cemetery (Happel 1966:5; King et al. 2006;39; Mitchell 2014;115; National Park Service 1980;18-20, 26; Newell et al. 2011;180; Oates 1994:104; Smith 2005:18).

Union field hospitals and camps were inspected by the United States Sanitary Commission (USSC), a civilian organization authorized by the United States government and funded by private donations to provide medical supplies and recruit doctors and nurses to Union hospitals. The USSC, which operated from 1861 until 1879, organized more than 7,000 aid societies that collected supplies for distribution. The USSC was primarily concerned with combating the spread of camp diseases, including dysentery and typhoid, and emphasized to Union officers and their men the necessity of properly cooked food and disposed waste in transient and permanent encampments. The Confederacy, lacking a central aid society, relied on independent charity organizations to send food and supplies to troops in hospitals and on the front lines. Further, lacking an overarching sanitation commission, camp cleanliness fell to individual Confederate medical officers, many of whom struggled to impress on camp leadership the necessity for cleanliness (Green 2004:2, 104, 120; NYPL 2013).

Two women who worked for a time at the Chatham Union field hospital were instrumental in expanding the role of women as nurses and doctors during the Civil War and represent civilian relief efforts during the Civil War. Dr. Mary Edwards Walker (1832–1919) and Clara Barton (1821–1912) were unaffiliated with humanitarian organizations during their time at Chatham, further demonstrating the widespread civilian efforts to support troops on both sides of the war.

Dr. Mary Edwards Walker (1832-1919) offered her services as a volunteer army surgeon at Chatham for a short period following the Battle of Fredericksburg. Walker was born in Oswego, New York, on

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November 26, 1832, the youngest of six children. Her progressive parents, Vesta Whitcomb and Alvah Walker, raised Mary in an egalitarian household that valued education and social reform. She attended Falley Seminary in Fulton, New York, from 1851 to 1852, then worked as a teacher in Minetto, New York, before attending medical school at Syracuse Medical College from 1853 to 1855. Walker married a Syracuse classmate, Albert Miller, shortly after graduation, and the couple opened a joint medical practice in Rome, New York. Walker's marriage ended by April 1861, and she closed her medical office to offer her services as a physician to the Union Army, volunteering as an assistant surgeon at Indiana Hospital, a relief hospital in Washington, DC, until 1862, when she left to study hygiene. By late fall 1862, Walker was back in Washington, then traveled to Warrenton, Virginia, to offer her surgical services to injured Union troops and to secure passage for them to Washington hospitals from General Ambrose Burnside. Following the Battle of Fredericksburg, Walker offered her services as a surgeon at Chatham, where the understaffed hospital and overworked surgeons allowed her to take on any case she wished. However, because the military was adamant that doctors treat only patients of their own sex, continual pleas to the War Department to allow her to continue her work went unheeded. Walker subsequently requested to be assigned to a women's military prison, and she served as an acting assistant surgeon there for the remainder of the war. On November 11, 1865, President Andrew Johnson awarded Walker the Congressional Medal of Honor (Harris 2009:1, 4-6, 8-9, 15, 31, 37, 40-41, 62, 73).

Clarissa Harlowe Barton was born in North Oxford, Massachusetts, in 1821. Her parents were Stephen Barton, a farmer and captain in the local militia, and Sarah Stone Barton. Clarissa Barton became involved in the war effort in April 1861, when members of the 6th Massachusetts Regiment were sent to Washington. After the regiment's supplies were taken during an ambush in Baltimore, Barton gathered and delivered replacements to the troops and wrote letters to loved ones at home for injured soldiers. These modest early efforts soon expanded, and Barton had to rent warehouse space to store and facilitate distribution of the supplies that began streaming in from the North. Following the death of her father in March 1862, Barton lobbied various Washington officials for permission to accompany General Ambrose Burnside's troops, but was turned down repeatedly with the argument that the front was no place for a woman. The Assistant Quartermaster General, Major D. H. Rucker, finally allowed her to go the front and gave her wagons to bring supplies to the troops. Barton transported supplies to the troops at the Battle of Cedar Mountain, Second Battle of Bull Run, and Antietam, as well as those in Fredericksburg in August 1862, before returning to Fredericksburg for a longer stay in December 1862 (Civil War Trust n.d.; Ross 1956:3, 4, 6, 11, 13, 24–25, 28–29, 32–35, 42).

Barton stayed at Chatham, where the Federal Second Corps had established a field hospital; she assisted doctors, comforted wounded soldiers, and set up a soup kitchen in the rear yard (the current site of the Walled Garden) to feed the men encamped there. She remained at Chatham for two weeks after the Battle of Fredericksburg to care for the wounded. Her personal records of the names of men who died and where they were buried enabled their reburial in marked graves at the war's end. After the men at Chatham were evacuated to Washington, DC, hospitals, Barton moved on to other battlefields and other hospitals. She returned to Fredericksburg in 1864 to attend to the wounded from the Spotsylvania Court House and Wilderness battles. After the close of the war, Barton traveled to Washington, DC, where Abraham Lincoln appointed her General Correspondent for the Friends of Paroled Prisoners, in charge of responding to inquiries about missing soldiers. She subsequently established the Bureau of Records of Missing Men of the Armies of the United States. In 1869, Barton traveled to Geneva, Switzerland, as a member of the International Red Cross during the Franco-Prussian War. A decade later, she founded the American Red Cross. Barton retired to Glen Echo, Maryland, in 1897 and died there on April 12, 1912. She was buried in the family plot in North Oxford, Massachusetts (Civil War Trust n.d.; National Park Service 2015e; Ross 1956:108, 202).

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CRITERION A - OTHER - COMMEMORATION: Commemoration of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields

Numerous monuments and markers at Fredericksburg and at Spotsylvania National Military Park possess national significance under Criterion A in the area of Commemoration for their associations with the origin and evolution of the Civil War battlefield memorialization movement. The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County battlefields contain relatively few commemorative objects in comparison to the heavily monumented Civil War battlefields at Gettysburg and elsewhere. As at other sites, though, veterans and their families were largely responsible for creating these tangible reminders of the losses endured. The collection of more than 40 monuments installed within the District during the period of significance consists of representative examples of many typical Civil War monuments: simple small stone markers, some with incised inscriptions; larger, funerary-type, stone slabs with bronze plaques or carved inscriptions; gun monuments; eight obelisks ranging in height from 6' to 38' tall; and four statues on pedestals (two bronze and two stone).

Civil War Commemoration

The unprecedented scale of the Civil War dramatically changed and expanded commemorative practices in the United States. Immediately after the war, Americans were occupied primarily with grieving for the immense numbers of dead. Especially in the South, people needed to come to terms with the magnitude of the death, defeat, and devastation that surrounded them. On a practical level, their first concern was collecting the corpses that scattered the landscape and providing them with decent burials. The federal government quickly mobilized to establish a National Cemetery System for handling the Union dead (see the discussion of Fredericksburg National Cemetery under Criterion A - Military), but the responsibility for the Confederate soldiers fell primarily to local residents or soldiers' families, who buried their dead in cemeteries all across the South in town and churchyard cemeteries. Women's memorial organizations and other concerned groups and individuals assisted greatly with this arduous process. The first Ladies' Memorial Association (LMA) formed in Winchester, Virginia, in the summer of 1865, and within a year, 70 such organizations existed throughout the South. During Reconstruction, these groups also aided in the care for, and repatriation of, Confederate veterans and helped to shift the focus of public memory from grief and defeat to the patriotism of the Confederate leaders. The Fredericksburg LMA formed on May 10, 1866, and assumed administrative responsibility for the Confederate burial ground established two years earlier at the northern end of the city cemetery. The Spotsylvania LMA, also established in 1866, oversaw the burials of Confederate soldiers in their area at a cemetery established on donated land just outside town (Bodnar 1993; Janney 2008:48; Pfanz 2006:258).

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The end of the Reconstruction Era (ca. 1877) coincided with the centennial anniversary of the American Revolution and kicked off a period of renewed patriotic and nationalistic fervor. Throughout the 1870s and 1880s, numerous local celebrations throughout the North and South marked the anniversaries of important battles and events from both the Revolutionary and Civil wars. These activities often consisted of gatherings of remembrance accompanied by speeches, parades, lectures, and battlefield reenactments. The immediacy of the more recent conflict brought with it a heightened sense of sacrifice and contributed to the creation of a new "cult of the veteran." Local and state veterans' groups, as well as larger, more broadly based veterans' associations that emerged after the war in both Northern and Southern states, played a critical role in promoting the memory of the common soldier. These organizations initiated

reunions, usually held on the anniversary of a particular battle, or on Decoration Day.

By the late 1870s, the Grand Army of the Republic, founded in 1866 in Springfield, Illinois, became the most influential of the Union veterans' associations, which included the Society for the Army of the Tennessee and the Society for the Army of the Potomac. Confederate veterans organized more slowly, primarily because of the extremely difficult conditions in the postwar South. The Association of the Army of Northern Virginia was established in 1870, five years after the war, followed by others, including the United Confederate Veterans established in 1889 and the Sons of Confederate Veterans organized in 1896. A number of women's patriotic groups—such as the United Daughters of the Confederacy (UDC) founded in 1894 and, in the North, the Woman's Relief Corps—supported the veterans' organizations as a way of entering the political and civic realm. The Virginia division of the UDC formed in 1895; by 1897, chapters existed in Lynchburg, Fredericksburg, Richmond, Petersburg, and Winchester. The UDC chapters directed most of their efforts toward raising funds for Confederate monuments (Janney 2008; Sellars 2005).

The veterans' groups and their auxiliaries, along with the Ladies' Memorial Associations, contributed greatly to the Civil War battlefield memorialization movement. As early as 1866, William Dean Howells addressed "The Question of Monuments" in an *Atlantic Monthly* essay (quoted in Jacobs 1998:7–8), indicating a strong national sentiment to commemorate the historic events. Towns throughout the North and South quickly erected simple monuments to their dead, typically tributes to individual soldiers. Reunion, civic, and commemorative groups soon joined in the movement, creating a huge demand for memorial statues that was reflected in the growing number of companies mass-producing monuments. Army reunion societies relied heavily on written appeals to their members to raise the funds for their commemorative projects. As public memory of the war evolved over time, so did the objects that enshrined it. Much of the early statuary created to commemorate the Civil War was inspired by classical and renaissance memorial architecture that portrayed specific standing soldiers, equestrian figures, or men in battle action. Eventually, more generic representations of the ordinary citizen-soldier appeared and experienced phenomenal popularity, reflecting the universality of the war's impact on all Americans. The

²³ The end of Reconstruction also ushered in the Jim Crow era of racial discrimination and segregation, as Southerners attempted to recast the Civil War as a patriotic struggle for state's rights rather than a fight over slavery. The Compromise of 1877, in which Southern Democrats accepted the election of Republican Rutherford B. Hayes as President in exchange for less federal intervention in Southern politics, enabled Southerners to revoke many of the rights that had been granted to former African American slaves immediately after the war. After 1877, legislative policies and social customs based on the concept of "separate but equal" proliferated throughout the country but especially in the South, as Northern and Southern politicians increasingly favored white solidarity over black civil rights. The US Supreme Court's landmark *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision of 1896 enshrined segregation law for decades. Thus, the development of a narrative for commemoration of the Civil War included the suppression of narratives related to the end of slavery and shifted the focus away from any improvement of African American conditions (Tafari 2002; Salvatore et al. 2009:9–14).

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most common Civil War monument is a lone soldier atop a pedestal, followed by plain shafts or obelisks dedicated to all those who gave their lives. The first five Civil War battlefields set aside as national battlefield parks by the federal government in the 1890s are among the most monumented battlefields in the world, containing objects ranging from large monuments to smaller stone markers and troop-position tablets. Gettysburg and Chickamauga in Georgia each have more than 1,400 monuments, and Vicksburg has more than 1,300 (Jacob 1998; Savage n.d.).

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania Battlefield Monuments, 1865-1927

A group from the North attempted commemorative activities at Fredericksburg almost immediately after the war ended. The Soldiers Monument Association (SMA), which was organized on October 12, 1865, and composed of Union "officers and soldiers, loyal citizens and refugees," proposed plans to erect a monument at the agricultural fairgrounds outside town, a site that was being considered for designation as a national cemetery. When construction of Fredericksburg National Cemetery began in the spring of 1866 on Willis Hill instead of the fairgrounds, the government built a circular mound at the southern end of the cemetery to serve as a base for the SMA monument. However, the SMA subsequently withdrew its support from the project and disbanded, leaving the mound empty. The Army removed it sometime prior to 1882 and planted a small copse of trees in its place (Pfanz 2007).

The earliest Civil War monuments that appeared in the Fredericksburg region typically were simple stone markers placed by individuals or families to honor the memory of Confederate loved ones. The oldest monument located on land that is now part of the District is likely the <u>Jackson Rock (LCS No. 007904</u>, <u>contributing object)</u>. The Reverend Beverley Tucker Lacy of Missouri, Stonewall Jackson's chaplain during the Civil War, placed the large stone (removed from the ground during nearby Orange Turnpike road improvements) on September 22, 1879, to mark the spot where Jackson fell off his horse after receiving his mortal wound. In 1888, the family of Confederate Brigadier General Thomas Cobb from Georgia placed the <u>Cobb Monument (LCS No. 007869, CLI No. 153899, contributing object)</u> at the spot where he was supposed to have received a mortal wound in December of 1862 while his brigade held the Sunken Road. Historical photographs show the monument atop a low stone wall; only vestiges of the wall remain, and the monument was moved at some point to a base between the wall and the road (Hennessy 2012a; Pfanz 2006:58–60, 125–126).

In the late 1880s, Civil War veterans from both the North and South began erecting more substantial memorials to individual fallen soldiers, particularly generals, at Fredericksburg and surrounding battlefields. Veterans of the Union Sixth Corps toured the Spotsylvania battlefield in 1886 and decided to erect a monument at the location where their commander General John Sedgwick had died on May 9, 1864. They established the Sedgwick Memorial Association in January 1887 and solicited contributions for the monument. Philadelphia sculptor John Ferguson designed the General Sedgwick Monument (LCS No. 007928, contributing object), dedicated on the 23rd anniversary of the fighting at the Bloody Angle on May 12, 1887. An iron fence with granite posts enclosed the monument until sometime after 1932. Veterans of the Eighty-Third New York Volunteers (Company B of the Ninth New York State Militia) raised funds to place a monument over the grave of their former commander Colonel Joseph A. Moesch. Moesch died at the Wilderness on May 5, 1864, and was buried initially in an unmarked grave within the Lacy family cemetery at Ellwood. Following the war, Fredericksburg National Cemetery superintendent Andrew Birdsall located Moesch's remains and reinterred them in the national cemetery on October 10, 1887. The Ninth Regiment dedicated the Moesch Monument (LCS No. 007867, contributing object) at the site on September 24, 1890 (Pfanz 2006:63–65, 211–215; Zenzen 2011:22).

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Soon after the idea for the Sedgwick Monument first circulated, Rufus Merchant, the editor of the Fredericksburg Star, proposed erecting a monument to the Confederate hero Stonewall Jackson. At a meeting of the Knights of Pythias on February 16, 1887, Merchant was elected president of the Chancellorsville Stonewall Monument Association. Lieutenant James Power Smith, an aide to Stonewall Jackson during the war and the son-in-law of Ellwood owner J. Horace Lacy, served as chairman of the association's Local Advisory Board. The group solicited contributions through multiple Virginia newspapers. Major Wilfred E. Cutshaw prepared drawings for the monument's design; Colonel Snowden Andrews donated the granite from his quarry near Richmond; and J. Horace Lacy, Smith, and Private Ves Chancellor selected the spot on a 1.5-acre parcel of land donated by W. N. Wyeth on an elevated spot on Orange Plank Road near the site where Jackson received his mortal wounds. Assembly of the Jackson Monument (LCS No. 007903, contributing object) on a clay base took place on June 5 and 6, 1888, and a dedication ceremony was held on June 13. The Hope Foundry of Fredericksburg manufactured a circular iron railing that enclosed the monument until the National Park Service removed it in 1942 during a scrap metal drive in support of the World War II effort (Figure 33) (Hennessy 2010; Pfanz 2006:129–135).

The two other monuments to individual soldiers located within the District, both at the Wilderness, were not erected until the early twentieth century. The Sixty-Third Pennsylvania Regimental Association dedicated a monument to their former commander, General Alexander Hays, on June 3, 1905. Cartwright & Davis of Fredericksburg manufactured the granite base for the General Alexander Hays Monument (LCS No. 007948, contributing object) and installed it near the site where Hays died on May 5, 1864, during the Battle of the Wilderness. The Hays Monument Fence (LCS No. 082108, historic associated feature) does not appear in photographs of the 1905 dedication but was likely added shortly thereafter. The Association deeded the 0.6-acre parcel of land that contains the monument to the National Park Service in 1959. On August 16, 1912, two Confederate veterans of the Third South Carolina Volunteers, Sergeant W. G. Peterson and Captain Thomas H. Pitts, marked the approximate site of their commander's death on the Wilderness Battlefield with the Colonel James D. Nance Monument (LCS No. 007950, contributing object). A South Carolina veterans' association may have sponsored this monument (Pfanz 2006:183–186, 196–198).

Local veterans and their families placed the uninscribed <u>Lee-to-the-Rear Stone (contributing object)</u> in 1891 to mark the open gravesites of approximately 40 Texan soldiers who died at the Wilderness on May 6, 1864, while protecting General Lee's retreat. The soldiers had been reinterred in the Fredericksburg Confederate Cemetery after the war (Pfanz 2006:176).

From 1899 to 1914, numerous Northern veterans' groups erected monuments to their former regiments in the Fredericksburg area, three of which are located at Fredericksburg National Cemetery. The Society of the Army of the Potomac held its 31st reunion in Fredericksburg on May 25–26, 1900, the first such meeting held in the South. The group gathered at the cemetery on the afternoon of May 25 to lay the cornerstone for a monument honoring the Fifth Corps, sponsored by the corps' commander at Fredericksburg, General Daniel Butterfield. Hoffman & Prochazka, a New York firm, produced the V Corps, Army of The Potomac Monument (LCS No. 007866, contributing object) completed by Memorial Day in 1901. The Pennsylvania legislature funded two other monuments placed in the national cemetery. Veterans of the 127th Infantry Regiment, Pennsylvania Volunteers dedicated the 127th Pennsylvania Monument (LCS No. 007868, contributing object) on June 26, 1906. The Fredericksburg Battlefield Memorial Commission of Pennsylvania erected the Humphreys' Division Monument (LCS No. 007865, contributing object) in the fall of 1908, with assistance from the state. Members of the commission visited Fredericksburg in May 1906 to select an appropriate site for the

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monument to honor the troops in General Andrew A. Humphreys' division of the Fifth Corps and decided to place it in the cemetery in the location previously occupied by the central flagstaff. Sculptor Herbert Adams produced the bronze statue of Humphreys unveiled on November 11, 1908, atop a base of Connecticut pink granite (Pfanz 2006:72–76, 83–86).

Most of the monuments erected by veterans' groups mark significant locations on the battlefields where the regiments fought. At Chancellorsville, twenty veterans of the 114th Infantry Regiment, Pennsylvania Volunteers joined members of the Battlefield Parks Association on May 3, 1899, to dedicate the 114th Regiment Pennsylvania Volunteers Monument (LCS No. 007902, contributing object) marking the regiment's location on May 3, 1863. George T. Downing of Fredericksburg produced the granite monument. The Twenty-Seventh Indiana Volunteer Regimental Association raised the funds to erect the 27th Indiana Infantry Monument (LCS No. 007900, contributing object) at Chancellorsville by September 1901. Former regiment member John Bresnahan spearheaded the project, also marking the regiment's locations at Antietam, Gettysburg, and Cedar Mountain.

At Spotsylvania, the Forty-Ninth New York Regimental Association dedicated the 49th New York Infantry Monument (LCS No. 007929, contributing object) on October 9, 1902, at the infantry's position on May 12, 1864. The National Park Service removed the iron fence that originally enclosed the monument in the 1930s. Charles E. Phelps from Baltimore, the commander of the Seventh Maryland Volunteers during the Battle of Spotsylvania, purchased 15.25 acres of battlefield land in 1885 with plans to install markers for his regiment and others in the Maryland brigade. About 1903, he placed the Maryland Brigade Marker (LCS No. 007932, contributing object) at the infantry's farthest advance point on May 8, 1864. The last of the pre-World War I regimental markers installed on land now within the District boundary was the 126th Ohio Regiment Monument (LCS No. 007931, contributing object) marking the point of the regiment's farthest advance at Spotsylvania. Veterans of the One Hundred Twenty-Sixth Ohio Volunteers dedicated the monument, funded by the State of Ohio, on May 15, 1914. The National Park Service removed the fence of wood posts and chain links that initially enclosed it in the 1930s (Pfanz 2006:138–140, 144–146, 223–234; Zenzen 2011:23).

The State of New Jersey erected three regimental monuments in the area during this period. Edward Burd Grubb, former colonel of the Twenty-Third New Jersey Volunteer Regiment, purchased a small plot of land on the Salem Church Battlefield in the early twentieth century and donated it to the Association of the Survivors of the Twenty-Third Regiment of New Jersey Volunteers. The Association petitioned the New Jersey legislature for funds to erect a memorial monument to the regiment on the parcel. The state appropriated \$6,000 for the project in 1906 and appointed three veterans to oversee it. Dedication ceremonies for the 23rd Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument (LCS No. 007906, contributing object) took place on May 3, 1907. The State of New Jersey retained ownership of the property until March 24, 1932, when it transferred the monument to the National Park Service. A flight of stone steps with large stone handrails originally led from Orange Plank Road to a paved walkway around the exterior of the curbing that encloses the monument but was removed at some point prior to 1963. A May 1906 visit to Salem Church and Spotsylvania inspired the Fifteenth Regiment New Jersey Volunteer Veterans Association to erect their own memorials. The group purchased two small plots of land and petitioned the state legislature for funds by the following year. The state approved an act on April 8, 1908, for the appropriation of \$6,500 and the creation of a six-person committee to oversee the project. The

²⁴ The 23rd New Jersey monument is unique in its inclusion of a plaque dedicated to the memory of the Alabama Confederate troops who fought the Twenty-Third at the Battle of Salem Church. Notably, Grubb was the first Northern soldier to contribute money toward the erection of headstones at the Fredericksburg Confederate Cemetery.

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15th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument – Salem Church (LCS No. 007907, contributing object) and the 15th Regiment New Jersey Volunteers Monument – Spotsylvania Court House (LCS No. 007930, contributing object) were both dedicated on May 12, 1909. The Salem Church monument marks the events of May 3, 1863. Originally located several feet south of its current location and surrounded by a square iron fence with nine granite posts, the monument was moved and the fence dismantled when Route 3 was widened in June 1961. The Spotsylvania monument marks the 1864 Bloody Angle engagement. In the early 1930s, the National Park Service removed the ornate iron fence and eight masonry pillars that originally enclosed the monument. The bronze Greek cross affixed to it is an in-kind replacement from the 1990s of the original cross that was stolen at an unknown date. On May 16, 1964, the New Jersey Civil War Centennial Commission (NJCWCC) placed a small rededication marker produced by Carroll Memorials of Fredericksburg at all three of these monument sites (Pfanz 2006:35–40, 149–152, 285–287).

As early as the 1890s, Virginians recognized the tourism potential in historic sites related to the Civil War. The Confederate Memorial Literary Society (CMLS), a Southern women's association headquartered in Richmond, asked railroad companies across Virginia to mark significant Civil War sites along the rail lines with signs. In late 1897, Mrs. Eliza T. Pratt of Fredericksburg donated to the CMLS a 0.5-acre parcel of land adjacent to the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad line about 4 miles south of the town. The railroad's president, Major Edmund T. D. Myers, had his employees construct a smaller version of the stone pyramid at Richmond's Hollywood Cemetery on the site. Completed in March 1898 and intended to mark the position of Stonewall Jackson's headquarters, the Jackson Monument/Meade Pyramid (LCS No. 007864, contributing structure) is actually located closer to the point where Meade's division broke through the Confederate line during the Battle of 1862; thus, people began referring to it as the Meade Pyramid. The CMLS maintained the monument until the National Park Service accepted their donation of the site in the late 1950s (Pfanz 2006:66–68; Zenzen 2011:97–98).

A few years after the completion of the Meade Pyramid, a committee of local veterans in Spotsylvania County, including Lieutenant James Power Smith, undertook a project "...not to mark battlefields, or lines of battle, but certain points or localities that would be of lasting historic interest..." (quoted in Pfanz 2006:13). On August 6 and 7, 1903, Smith supervised the placement of ten markers at area sites related to Lee and his generals. Thomas F. Ryan, a businessman from New York and Virginia, paid \$250 for the granite blocks produced by Cartwright and Davis of the Granite Works in Fredericksburg. Smith carefully chose locations along roadsides and rail lines where they would be readily visible to tourists. Many of the markers have since been relocated for the same reason or as a result of road widening. The following seven monuments are located within the boundaries of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP:

- The <u>Lee Hill Monument (LCS No. 007862, contributing object)</u> marking Lee's Headquarters
 at Fredericksburg originally stood beside Route 1. The National Park Service moved it to the crest
 of Lee's Hill in the 1960s, after the construction of the adjacent exhibit shelter.
- The <u>Prospect Hill Monument (LCS No. 007863, contributing object)</u>, or "Jackson on the Field" monument, originally stood along Mine Road near the rail line. The National Park Service moved it to the east side of Lee Drive at Prospect Hill after the construction of the road in the 1930s.
- The <u>Battle of Salem Church Monument (contributing object)</u> originally stood west of Salem Church Road. The Virginia Department of Transportation moved it to the church grounds in the early 1960s when it widened Route 3 and relocated Salem Church Road several feet west.

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 The <u>Lee-Jackson Bivouac Monument (LCS No. 007899, contributing object)</u> marks the location where Generals Lee and Jackson made plans for the Battle of Chancellorsville at the intersection of Plank and Furnace roads. It originally faced the Orange Plank Road and has been relocated by several feet twice.

- The Stonewall Jackson's Arm Monument (LCS No. 007944, contributing object) marks the burial site of Jackson's left arm on the Ellwood property and remains in its original location.
- The "Lee to the Rear" Texans Monument (LCS No. 007945, contributing object) marks the site where the men of General John Gregg's Texas Brigade halted their advance at the Wilderness on May 6, 1864, until Lee retired to safety. It remains in its original location.
- The <u>Jackson Shrine Monument (LCS No. 007908, contributing object)</u>, also known as the "Death of Jackson" monument, originally stood west of the Jackson Shrine near the rail line. The National Park Service moved it southeast of the building in the 1960s and added two lines to the inscription to clarify that the block does not mark Jackson's grave.²⁵

The Fredericksburg chapter of the UDC placed three small historic site markers within the town in 1917: the Martha Stevens Stone (LCS No. 082074, CLI No. 153877, contributing object) near the site of the Stevens house in the Stevens Family Cemetery (contributing site) on the Sunken Road, where Stevens had cared for wounded soldiers in December 1862; and two stones marking the Union pontoon bridge crossings over the Rappahannock River. The Pontoon Bridge Marker (LCS No. 082077, contributing object) at the foot of Hawke Street, also known as the Upper Pontoon Crossing Marker, is extant; the Middle Pontoon Crossing Marker placed at the foot of Rocky Lane (outside the park boundary) has disappeared (Pfanz 2006:21–22).

Lee's eminent biographer, Douglas Southall Freeman, spoke at the May 3, 1927, dedication ceremony for five markers installed by the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania chapters of the UDC at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Salem Church, Wilderness, and Spotsylvania. Three of these markers are located within the boundary of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP:

- the <u>Battle of Fredericksburg UDC Marker (LCS No. 082081, CLI No.153969, contributing object)</u>, which remains in its original location at the intersection of William Street and the Sunken Road;
- the <u>Salem Church UDC Marker (contributing object)</u>, originally located at the southwest corner of the Route 3/Route 639 intersection (outside the District boundary) and moved by the National Park Service in 1977 to the Salem Church site on the east side of Route 639; and
- the <u>Battle of the Wilderness UDC Marker (LCS No. 082120, contributing object)</u>, originally located adjacent to Route 20 and moved in 1968 to the edge of Saunders Field on the east side of Hill-Ewell Drive.²⁶

²⁶ The Buttle of Chancellorsville UDC Marker stood at the Chancellorsville Inn site at the intersection of Route 3 and Route 610 until the tablet was stolen in 1976 and the National Park Service removed the damaged base. The Battle of Spotsylvania Court House UDC Marker remains in its original location on the courthouse lawn outside the District boundary (Pfanz 2006).

²⁵ The other three markers placed under James Power Smith's supervision are located outside the District: the Stuart-Pelham Marker at the intersection of Route 2 and Route 608 east of Fredericksburg (moved a few feet to the south in 2007 when the Virginia Department of Transportation widened the road); the Lee's Headquarters Marker at the intersection of Route 636 (Mine Road) and Route 1251 (set on a granite base added at a later date); and the Lee's Headquarters at Spotsylvania Court House Marker on the courthouse grounds at the intersection of Route 613 and Route 208 (a 1964 replacement of the original, which was destroyed by a car) (Pfanz 2006:14–18).

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Freeman had led an effort begun in the spring of 1924 by a group of Richmond Rotary Club members to identify and mark key Civil War sites in the Richmond area. The group formed the Battlefield Markers Association and over the next three years erected more than 60 roadside markers, each consisting of a cast iron tablet set at an angle on a granite base so as to be read easily from an automobile. Freeman wrote the inscriptions for most of the tablets. Inspired by the Richmond association's success, a group of Confederate veterans led by Col. C. B. Linney and Col. R. M. Colvin organized the Battlefield Markers Association, Western Division, at Charlottesville on September 14, 1925. The group raised money for inscribed tablets to be placed on bases provided by various other organizations such as the UDC, the Daughters of the American Revolution, and memorial associations. Members of these groups installed 25 markers from Bull Run to Appomattox and throughout the Shenandoah Valley. Similar in design to the so-called Freeman Markers in Richmond, the slightly larger Western Division markers consisted of heavy bronze tablets on white granite block bases with tops inclined to make them easier to read. Linney wrote the inscriptions for the tablets, manufactured by the L. Arthur Limerick Company of Baltimore, Maryland. The Board of Supervisors for Spotsylvania and Orange counties and the Council of the City of Fredericksburg provided the bases for the markers in the Fredericksburg area. These private efforts likely influenced the Commonwealth of Virginia's implementation of a state historical marker program in 1927, led by the newly created Commission on Conservation and Development that was tasked with, among other things, promoting the state as a tourist destination (Pfanz 2006:24-29; RBA 2010; VA DHR 2014).

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania Battlefield Monuments, 1928-1965

Following the establishment of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park in 1927, individuals and groups continued to place monuments on private lands later incorporated into the park. Philadelphia resident Edward T. Stuart, the son of George H. Stuart who led the U.S. Christian Commission during the Civil War, owned much of the land in the vicinity of the Bloody Angle at Spotsylvania (the former Landram farm) in the 1930s. On July 7, 1931, he erected three simple stones on his property on his own initiative, marking the sites of the East Angle, the West Angle, and the oak tree at the Bloody Angle. Only the base of the Fallen Oak Marker (LCS No. 081989, contributing object) remains at the site where a large oak tree fell to the ground during the Bloody Angle fighting.²⁷ In 1940, the Pennsylvania Commander of the Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States (MOLLUS), the first military society organized after the end of the Civil War, donated 161.85 acres of land at the Bloody Angle to the National Park Service, including 32 acres given to the Pennsylvania Commandery by Edward Stuart. The MOLLUS Marker (LCS No. 082005, contributing object), dedicated on May 11, 1940, commemorates the MOLLUS gift. On that day, Stuart also donated a 2-acre in-holding to the park for the purpose of erecting a monument to his father. Following Edward's unexpected death on December 11, 1940, his friends (many of them park employees) raised money to erect the Stuart Memorial (LCS No. 082004, contributing object) in Edward's honor on the site intended for his father's marker. Dedication of the marker may have coincided with the Stuart family's September 25, 1941, donation of two additional acres to the park (Pfanz 2006:31–32, 237–241).

The Maury Birthplace Association organized in 1933 by Fredericksburg residents John T. Goolrick, O'Connor Goolrick, and L. J. Houston erected the Matthew Fontaine Maury Monument (LCS No. 007909 contributing object) near the site of the Spotsylvania County house where the prominent oceanographer and founder of the field of meteorology was born in 1806. Maury's family moved to Tennessee in 1811 and the house was removed prior to the Civil War, but the property supplied food and

²⁷ The East and West Angle markers disappeared at some time after 1955.

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livestock to the nearby Catharine Furnace operations throughout the nineteenth century. The National Park Service acquired the Maury house site, including the monument, in 1938 (Pfanz 2006:155–156).

U.S. Congressman James Wadsworth, grandson of General James S. Wadsworth, the commander of the Fourth Division, Fifth Corps, Army of the Potomac, visited the battlefield in March 1936 and proposed to erect a monument at the site where his grandfather was mortally wound. Park historian Edward Steere researched the exact location on the battlefield where General Wadsworth was injured, and Congressman Wadsworth subsequently purchased a 0.06-acre tract of land slightly west of the site determined by Steere, just outside the national park boundary at the time. The U.S. Commission of Fine Arts approved the monument design submitted by Wadsworth on July 17, 1936, and Carl C. Mose of Washington, DC, sculpted the bas relief bronze tablet. At some time in late 1936, Wadsworth had the **Brigadier General Wadsworth**, USV Monument (LCS No. 007949, contributing object) installed. His sister Harriet W. Harper deeded the monument and 50 square feet of land around it to the National Park Service on April 28, 1941 (Pfanz 2006:188–190).

On October 23, 1937, park supporters planted two cedar trees representing Lee and Jackson, and the National Park Service installed the <u>Commemorative Cedars Plaque (LCS No. 082141, contributing object)</u> at the Lee-Jackson Bivouac site. Historian Douglas Southall Freeman spoke at the ceremony, part of a day-long 10th-anniversary celebration of the establishment of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP that included the opening of the visitor center at Fredericksburg and the formal acceptance of the Jackson Shrine site as part of the park (Pfanz 2006:159–160, 274–275).

The 1927 enabling legislation that established the national military park not only authorized the federal government to mark historic points on the park lands but also included the following provision for the continued erection of commemorative objects by others:

It shall be lawful for the authorities of any State having had troops engaged in said battles of Fredericksburg, Spotsylvania Court House, Wilderness, and Chancellorsville, including Salem Church, or in any of said battles, to enter upon the lands and approaches of the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battle Fields Memorial for the purposes of ascertaining and marking the lines of battle of troops engaged therein: *Provided*, That before any such lines are permanently designated, the position of the lines and the proposed methods of marking them by monuments, tablets, or otherwise, including the design and inscription for the same, shall be submitted to the Secretary of War, and shall first receive written approval of the Secretary (44 Stat. 1091).

On July 5, 1939, Alvin S. Crispin of Woodstown, New Jersey, approached Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Superintendent Branch Spalding about erecting a marker to commemorate the regiment in which his ancestor fought. Crispin succeeded in getting the New Jersey legislature to appropriate funding for the 12th New Jersey Regiment Monument (LCS No. 007947, contributing object) monument and purchase 25 acres on the Wilderness Battlefield (subsequently donated to the National Park Service) for its placement. John W. Doyle and Company of Philadelphia manufactured the original bronze tablet affixed to a boulder placed near the earthworks recaptured by the men of the regiment on May 6, 1864. The tablet inscription noted the date Crispin intended to hold a dedication ceremony for the monument: Memorial Day, May 30, 1942. The ceremony was never held due to events surrounding America's entry into World War II. As part of the Civil War Centennial celebrations, the NJCWCC placed a small rededication marker at all four New Jersey monuments within the park, including the Twelfth Regiment's at the Wilderness, on May 16, 1964. The Park Service replaced the

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bronze tablet in kind after the original was stolen at some time in the early 1970s (Pfanz 2006:192-194, 285-287).

Almost no commemorative objects were erected within Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP during the period between World War II and the Civil War Centennial celebrations that began in 1963, with two exceptions. The Martha Stevens Grave Urn (LCS No. 082075, CLI No. 153883, contributing object) was placed by Stevens' descendants in 1960 to mark her gravesite within the family cemetery on the east side of the Sunken Road. A low wood picket fence originally formed an enclosure around the urn and gravesite, but the National Park Service removed the fence at some time after 2006. The E. F. Paxton Monument (LCS No. 007901, contributing object) was erected in 1960 at the site of Confederate General E. F. Paxton's death at Chancellorsville at the behest of Paxton's grandson, Matthew W. Paxton. Carroll Memorials of Fredericksburg produced the monument.

The centennial anniversary of the Civil War provided an opportunity for renewed commemorative activity at Civil War sites, President Dwight D. Eisenhower signed a joint congressional resolution in 1957 establishing the U.S. Civil War Centennial Commission, and many states and municipalities (including Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania) organized their own commissions to plan events. These activities took place against the backdrop of the growing Civil Rights Movement of the late 1950s and early 1960s and a period when the historians were reassessing the causes and outcomes of the Civil War (Cook 2007; Grant and Parish 2003; Isserman and Kazin 2000). As noted previously, the New Jersey Civil War Centennial Commission rededicated the four New Jersey regiment monuments within the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park on May 16, 1964, placing identical markers at each monument site. From 1963 to 1965, the Texas State Civil War Centennial Commission placed 11 markers on Civil War battlefields to honor Texans who fought in the war. Each marker is identical in size and design and made by Strasswender Marble and Granite Works of Austin, Texas, Carroll Memorials of Fredericksburg erected the Texas Brigade Monument (LCS No. 007946, contributing object) at the Wilderness at some time from June 1963 to September 1964. The other 10 markers are located at Pea Ridge, Arkansas; Chickamauga and Kennesaw Mountain, Georgia; Mansfield, Louisiana; Antietam, Maryland; Bentonville, North Carolina; Gettysburg, Pennsylvania; Fort Donelson and Shiloh, Tennessee; and Anthony, Texas (Pfanz 2006:179-180, 285-287; Zenzen 2011:166-173).

The largest state-sponsored Civil War Centennial monument within the District is the Kirkland Monument (LCS No. 080002, CLI No.153913, contributing object), installed in 1965 on a small plot of land beside the Sunken Road that belonged to Mary Washington College (later acquired by the National Park Service) in Fredericksburg. Dr. Richard Nunn Lanier, a dentist and director of the Fredericksburg Centennial Commission, persuaded the South Carolina legislature to appropriate \$15,000 for a monument to Sergeant Richard Kirkland of the Second South Carolina Volunteers. Known as "The Angel of Marye's Heights," Kirkland had requested permission to bring water to the wounded Union soldiers who lay between the opposing lines during the December 14, 1862, fighting at Fredericksburg. Lanier, a native of South Carolina, also obtained money for the monument from the Virginia State Assembly, Laurence Hoes, a member of the Kirkland Memorial Committee, arranged for his acquaintance the world-renowned sculptor Felix de Weldon (1907-2003) to design and fabricate the bronze statue of Kirkland for a nominal fee. Born in Vienna, Austria, de Weldon studied art and architecture throughout Europe and came to the United States in 1937. He produced more than 70 large statues; nearly 800 smaller sculptures, including many busts of American and European political and military leaders; and a large number of portraits, murals, and other paintings. His best-known work is the 1954 Marine Corps War Memorial in Washington, DC, a larger-than-life bronze sculpture depicting Joe Rosenthal's

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photograph of three men raising the American flag at Iwo Jima (Hattendorf 2009:17; Pfanz 2006:93-96; U.S. Marine Corps History Division 2015; Zenzen 2011:171-173).

Post-1965 Monumentation

The monumentation policy at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park is different from that at many of the battlefield parks within the National Park System. Unlike at Gettysburg or Antietam, for example, where the National Park Service no longer permits the erection of monuments, the policy at Fredericksburg continues to allow state governments to submit monument proposals for review by the park superintendent or regional director. Monuments erected within the park since 1965 include a New York Infantry marker and a Vermont Brigade marker at the Wilderness; Michigan regiment markers at Spotsylvania and the upper pontoon crossing of the Rappahannock River in Fredericksburg; two Confederate brigade markers at Spotsylvania sponsored by state chapters of the Sons of Confederate Veterans; and one privately sponsored marker at the site of the Union Sixth Corps assault led by General Emory Upton at Spotsylvania. These monuments should be reevaluated for their historic significance as they reach historic age, typically 50 years according to National Register guidance.

One monument erected within the District since 1965 is located inside Fredericksburg National Cemetery and is counted as a contributing resource in accordance with the guidance issued by the National Park Service for National Register evaluation and registration of national cemeteries, which states "recently constructed resources are to be recognized as contributing resources" (National Park Service 2011:3). The Parker's Battery Marker (LCS No. 081991, contributing object) installed near the south end of the cemetery on May 3, 1973, is the only marker in the Fredericksburg area dedicated to Virginia troops, the only Confederate monument in the cemetery, and the only monument in the national park connected to the Second Battle of Fredericksburg. Thompson Brown McCune, great-grandson of Parker's Battery commander Lieutenant J. Thompson Brown, advocated for the establishment of a monument to the company for their role in the May 1863 fighting, and Carroll Memorials of Fredericksburg constructed the monument (Pfanz 2006:98–99).

CRITERION A - CONSERVATION: Creation and Development of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park, 1927-1965

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park is nationally significant under Criterion A in the area of Conservation as one of several national military parks created during the period of increased nationalism and prosperity between the two World Wars. Local movements to preserve portions of the battlefields through land acquisition met with little success in the years immediately following the Civil War, despite the fact that in the 1890s battlefield preservation efforts at the federal level resulted in the creation of the country's first four national military parks, all at Civil War sites, under the management of the War Department. These designations prompted a flood of petitions in the early 1900s requesting that Congress act to establish additional parks for other deserving American battlefields.

Revived efforts to create a national park at Fredericksburg finally came to fruition in 1927, just after Congress authorized a study of all the nation's battlefields to assist in prioritizing the many petitions for creating national military parks and erecting memorials. The Army War College conducted the study over the next several years and devised a classification system for providing Congress with a list of battlefields ranked according to their relative importance. The Fredericksburg battlefields received national military park status while the study was underway, along with three other Civil War and two Revolutionary War

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sites. The subsequent development of the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, under the U.S. War Department and later the National Park Service, contributed to the evolution of nationwide standards for battlefield preservation and interpretation. The War Department laid the foundation for the park through land acquisition and road construction. Two major periods of National Park Service development—the New Deal era (1933–1942) and the Mission 66 era (1956–1965)—created much of the current park landscape.

American Battlefield Preservation Movement, 1865-1933

The events that eventually led to the public acquisition and lasting preservation of the battlefield sites in the Fredericksburg area were rooted in the Civil War battlefield preservation movement of the late nineteenth century. Broad participation in activities such as reunions, encampments, and battle reenactments attended by veterans of both sides of the conflicts engendered public support for commemoration of the Civil War and helped to create a groundswell for the preservation of battlefields at the local and state levels. The Gettysburg Battlefield Memorial Association, formed in 1864 before the war ended, headed the movement. The organization raised more than \$1 million from the states of the North for purchasing lands associated with the Battle of Gettysburg and placing monuments. Gettysburg served as an example for other Civil War battlefields, as thousands of veterans backed by their national, state, and local organizations, especially in the 1890s, initiated similar efforts to preserve sites of other major engagements. By that time, the North and South were gradually reconciling their differences in the aftermath of the bitter and bloody war that took the lives of more than 800,000 combatants.

Beginning in the early 1880s, Union and Confederate veterans gathered together on battlefields and in cities and towns around the country in what became known as Blue-Gray reunions. These events served to motivate Southerners to join their Northern compatriots in preserving battlefields, uniting them in their common desire to memorialize the glory, heroism, and sacrifice of the soldiers without addressing the moral and ideological differences that originally led to the conflict. The involvement of troops from many states in each of the major battles, plus the impact of each battle on the outcome of the war, made battlefield preservation a matter of importance to the nation as a whole and, ultimately, to the federal government (Smith 2008:217–218).

By 1890, it became apparent that federal government involvement would be necessary to assemble and manage the vast acreage of the major Civil War battlefields. The creation of Yellowstone National Park in 1872, followed by Yosemite, Sequoia, and General Grant national parks in 1890, set a precedent for the establishment of scenic and natural national parks. By the end of the nineteenth century, the generation of political leaders that served during the Civil War and exerted their political might during the last quarter of the nineteenth century generally supported the notion of extending similar status to the historically significant battlefields. With the exception of Grover Cleveland, every U.S. President from Ulysses S. Grant through William McKinley was a veteran of the Union Army, as were many U.S. Congressmen. Sectional reconciliation following Reconstruction, together with the elimination of many civil rights for African Americans, paved the way for ex-Confederates and their political spokesmen in Washington to join Northern leaders in supporting battlefield preservation.

The inevitable connection between historic battlefields and tourism shaped future preservation endeavors at many Civil War sites, as marketplace threats to the integrity of the landscape increased. Development schemes sought to capitalize on a growing and increasingly mobile class of tourists interested in visiting battlefield sites. The popularity of places like Gettysburg attracted the attention of entrepreneurs, who marketed necessities such as room and board to the crowds, as well as guided tours, battlefield relics, and

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other souvenirs. Almost immediately, commercial interests and preservationists came into conflict. In the nineteenth century, the most famous case was the Gettysburg Electric Railway Company's proposal to construct a rail line through the heart of Gettysburg Battlefield in 1893. Both the Gettysburg Memorial Association and the Gettysburg National Park Commission were strongly opposed to the railway and the real estate developments expected to accompany its completion because they threatened vitally important portions of the battlefield. They found support in Congress, which passed a joint resolution in June 1894 that granted the Secretary of War the power to acquire the railway's lands by purchase or condemnation. The Gettysburg Electric Railway Company fought back, filing a lawsuit against the United States that ultimately wound up before the Supreme Court. The court's decision in favor of the government affirmed the constitutionality of acquiring private property by right of eminent domain and had a profound effect on the establishment of a coherent federal policy toward protecting significant battlefield sites as hallowed ground on behalf of the American people (Lee 1973).

Prominent Civil War veterans in Congress, including New York Representative Dan Sickles, a former Union general, and South Carolina Senator Wade Hampton, a former Confederate general, sponsored a series of bills that resulted in the creation of the first four national military parks at the battlefield sites of Chickamauga and Chattanooga (1890), Shiloh (1894), Gettysburg (1895), and Vicksburg (1899). The creation of those parks established the precedent for setting aside land and using federal funds to acquire nationally significant historic sites for permanent preservation. The military parks were placed under the administration of the War Department. In addition to their preservation as historic sites, the parks were used by the Army and National Guard as training areas to study the tactics used during the engagements and to conduct military maneuvers. Other notable policy and management decisions resulted from this initial burst of battlefield preservation, including the ideas that battlefield lands should be preserved as nearly as possible in their condition at the time of the battle; that specialized knowledge was required to ascertain, mark, and preserve the main lines of battle and the cultural features of the terrain; and that states were expected to share the costs of preservation, marking, and monumentation (Lee 1973).

These groundbreaking federal designations prompted a flood of petitions to Congress in the late 1890s and early 1900s requesting the creation of additional national military parks. In 1901–1904, 34 bills were introduced seeking authorization of 23 historic battlefield reservations. The scope expanded from Civil War sites to cover battlefields from previous wars. Concerned about the potential costs of implementation, the House Committee on Military Affairs requested an accounting from the War Department of the amount expended in the creation of the four existing parks. Secretary of War Elihu Root responded that the total was more than \$2 million, which was considered exorbitant at the time. He estimated that, if enacted, the proposals before Congress would amount to at least that much again. The committee also struggled with the question of how to evaluate the merit of requests for battlefields and monuments from other wars. As a result, the committee held a series of hearings to gather information about the matter that ultimately shifted the government's approach to battlefield preservation (Lee 1973).

Army Judge Advocate General George B. Davis (1847–1914) testified as the chief witness before the House Committee on Military Affairs on April 2, 1902. Through his work as Chairman of the Commission for Publication of the Official Records of the War of the Rebellion from 1889 to 1895, Davis had studied numerous battlefield sites firsthand and arranged the placement of historical markers at some, including Appomattox Court House. From 1894 to 1896, as President of the Antietam Battlefield Board tasked with marking the lines of battle at Antietam, he had gained additional direct experience with the problems involved in marking and preserving historic battlefields. At Antietam, he determined that "to perpetuate this field in the condition in which it was when the battle was fought, it [Congress] should undertake to perpetuate an agricultural community" (quoted in Lee 1973). Thus, rather than acquiring

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large tracts of land as at Chickamauga and Gettysburg, Davis arranged for the government to acquire, at much less cost, narrow lanes along the lines of battle for the purpose of erecting tablets or monuments with fences on either side to preserve the existing farmland. Based on this experience, he advised the Committee on Military Affairs that "small tracts and markers should be sufficient in almost every pending case" (quoted in U.S. House 1906). Davis testified further before the committee on April 14, 1902, in support of general legislation that would provide for the establishment of a central national military park commission at the federal level to replace the model of individual battlefield commissions established at the existing parks. He felt strongly that the central commission should be responsible for making recommendations about battlefield preservation to Congress and that no further special acts should be passed to designate national battlefields (Lee 1973).

Davis' approach to battlefield preservation, which came to be known as the Antietam Plan, was supported by Committee on Military Affairs Chairman Richard Wayne Parker, who reported back to the House on May 14, 1902: "It is not desirable that all those battlefields should be turned into great military parks, adorned with monuments, and so changed as to be utterly unlike the country at the time of the battle" (quoted in Lee 1973). Parker subsequently introduced legislation to establish the recommended central national military park commission, which was to consist of five members appointed by the President and and vested "with the general power to restore, preserve, mark and maintain, in commemoration of the valor of American arms and for historical, professional, and military study, such battlefields, forts, cemeteries, or parts thereof, of the colonial, Revolutionary, Indian or civil wars, or of any wars of the United States, as may hereafter be acquired by the United States, and to establish military parks thereon." One section of the bill included an appropriation of \$200,000 for the work of the commission. Other sections of the bill provided for the protection of historic property; for cooperation with states, municipalities, and military societies; for the lease-back of lands to former owners on historic preservation conditions; and for permission for the commission to survey and investigate other worthy battlefields and make recommendations to Congress about the costs associated with preserving them. However, this far-reaching historic preservation legislation failed to pass in the House despite strong recommendation by its Committee on Military Affairs; it experienced the same fate each of the five additional times that Parker introduced the bill over the next decade before discussion finally ceased after Parker left Congress in 1911 and further action toward creating national military park system was deferred until after World War I (Lee 1973).

In the first quarter of the twentieth century, only five special acts related to battlefield commemoration and preservation were passed. These notably included engagements in wars other than the Civil War and monuments at the Revolutionary War King's Mountain Battlefield in South Carolina and the War of 1812 New Orleans Battlefield. The only additional national military park established during the period was the small 125-acre Guilford Court House National Military Park, created in 1917 to commemorate the largest and most hotly contested battle of the Revolutionary War's Southern Campaign (Lee 1973).

The victorious conclusion of World War I sparked a new era of nationalism and patriotism in the United States. During the 1920s, better pay, more vacation time, and the increased mobility offered by the automobile to middle-class, primarily white, Americans combined to increase visits to, and appreciation for, national parks and historical sites. Concern also increased for the preservation of important natural and historic resources threatened by industrial, commercial, and residential expansion. These factors helped to revive the battlefield preservation movement, and Congress faced a backlog of potential preservation projects. Initially, legislators enacted a handful of special bills for studies of individual battlefield sites under consideration, including Chalmette (1921), Yorktown (1923), Fredericksburg (1924), Petersburg (1925), and Appomattox (1926). In May 1926, Noble J. Johnson, Chairman of the

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House Committee on Military Affairs, reported that Congress was then considering 28 bills relating to military battlefields and monuments. Fourteen of the bills called for the establishment of national military parks with appropriations amounting to nearly \$6 million, which led the committee to strongly recommend that a provision be made to conduct a national study of all battlefields to assist Congress in making informed decisions on how to act on these bills. H.R. 11613, enacted on June 11, 1926, authorized this study and placed the responsibility for completing the investigation with the Secretary of War (Lee 1973).

An extensive memorandum on the subject of battlefield preservation submitted by Lieutenant Colonel C. A. Bach of the Army War College in 1925 provided the basic framework for the War Department's study of battlefields from 1926 to 1932. Bach reviewed past actions of Congress relative to battlefields, established a system for classifying battles according to their importance, and proposed appropriate preservation actions corresponding to the relative importance of each class. Bach had devised a fourtiered classification system based on past Congressional actions. Class I battlefields were those of exceptional political and military importance that had far-reaching effect on the outcome of the war during which they were fought. These battlefields had been recommended as worthy of preservation for detailed military and historical study and therefore were established as national military parks. Class II battlefields were of sufficient importance to warrant the designation of their sites as national monuments. This class was further subdivided into Class IIa battles (those of great military and historical interest that were worthy of locating and indicating the hattle lines of the forces engaged by a series of markers or tablets, but not necessarily by memorial monuments) and Class IIb battles (those of sufficient historical interest to be worthy of some form of commemorative monument, tablet, or other marker to indicate their location.) Bach also included a preliminary ranking of battles from all wars fought on American soil. By his conservative evaluation, he found only five that merited Class I distinction: the existing national military parks of Gettysburg, Chickamauga and Chattanooga, and Vicksburg, and two Revolutionary War battlefields-Saratoga and Yorktown. (He also acknowledged that Congress had placed Shiloh in this category.) Bach ranked the New Orleans Battlefield and 15 Civil War battlefields, including Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Spotsylvania Court House, and the Wilderness, as Class IIa battlefields. He placed an additional 64 battlefields in Class IIb (Lee 1973).

The responsibilities for conducting the study of battlefields were delegated to several groups within the War Department. The Historical Section of the Army War College conducted the historical research; the districts of the Army Corps of Engineers in which the battlefields were located carried out field investigations; and the Army's Quartermaster General directed any work performed through appropriations made by Congress to commemorate the battlefields. The two annual reports of the Secretary of War on the progress of the survey delivered in 1928 and 1929 dealt with most significant battlefields that had yet to be addressed by Congress. These included the Class I battlefields of Saratoga and Yorktown, and nine Class IIa battlefields, including Manassas, Chalmette (Battle of New Orleans), and Richmond. The reports included recommendations for monuments at 50 of the Class IIb battlefields that were further subdivided relative to the cost of the proposed monuments, which ranged from a low of \$2,500 for Civil War Balls Bluff Battlefield to a high of \$100,000 for Appomattox (Lee 1973).

While the study was underway, Congress also passed a series of six bills creating four new military parks, one new national park, and one battlefield memorial. In 1926, Moores Creek National Military Park (Revolutionary War) in North Carolina and Petersburg National Military Park (Civil War) in Virginia were established, followed by the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial (1927, Civil War) in Virginia (which specifically cited General Davis' Antietam Plan); Stones River National Military Park (1927, Civil War) and Fort Donelson National Park (1928, Civil War) in Tennessee; and

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King's Mountain National Military Park (1931, Revolutionary War) in South Carolina. Yorktown Battlefield was designated a national historical reservation as part of the establishment of Colonial National Monument in 1930 (Lee 1973).

Early Efforts to Preserve Fredericksburg Battlefields, 1891-1924

The national interest in the preservation of Civil War battlefields that emerged in the late nineteenth century included the battlefields in and around Fredericksburg. The climactic events that occurred in the area held particular meaning for both the North and South, as Union veteran, author, and diplomat Major J. O. Kerbey wrote in 1890:

Fredericksburg—what a cloud of war memories hangs over this old town! The mere mention of the name awakens the veteran's slumbering interests; ... I have estimated that every soldier of the Army of the Potomac, as well as that of Lee's Confederate Army of Northern Virginia, has at one time or other, been at Fredericksburg. We were not here for three days only, as at Gettysburg, which has become the Mecca of American valor to which tourists throng daily, and neglect this more interesting field. ... Perhaps the time may come when this old town, so close to the Capital, may become a Mecca.... If each separate deed of heroism done here were marked by a stone, the ground would be a forest of monuments. Who knows – perhaps the Government will, in time, reserve more of this battle-ground as a National park; hotels may spring up around its numerous springs. Here might appropriately be commemorated alike in a commingling of monuments the heroism of both sides (quoted in Happel 1955:26–27).

A group of entrepreneurial Union and Confederate veterans recognized the tourism potential in the region's historic sites. The men, including Vespasian Chancellor and newspaper editor Rufus Merchant, organized the Chancellorsville Battlefield Association in April 1891 for the purpose of acquiring land and forming a battlefield park in Spotsylvania County. Over the next two decades, the association purchased substantial acreage on the battlefields of Chancellorsville and Spotsylvania Court House and formed a holding company for the property in 1904. The members hoped to sell shares of stock and development rights to finance the creation of a war museum at the Chancellor House and a memorial park. Likeminded groups attempted similar projects at other Civil War sites in Virginia, such as Petersburg and Appomattox. The association's promotional materials emphasized the healthful benefits of spas and mineral springs in the area to attract investors. Its plans never came to fruition, however, and the land eventually returned to private ownership (Happel 1955:28–29; Zenzen 2011:25–27).

A separate movement to establish a park at Fredericksburg began in 1896, after the establishment of national military parks at the Civil War battlefields of Chickamauga and Chattanooga, Shiloh, and Gettysburg. The Fredericksburg City Council passed a resolution advocating for a park, and council members and other local citizens formed a committee to foster interest locally and in Congress. The group held an organizational meeting on April 16, 1896, and the mayor of Fredericksburg appointed 11 residents to a Battlefield Park Commission. The commission solicited support for the park proposal over the next 18 months through public meetings and other means. A brochure circulated by the members recommended "that the Government secure the fields upon which these battles occurred, and connect them by substantially built macadamized drive-ways, so that all can be easily and pleasantly visited and examined in a single day" (quoted in Happel 1955:36). The commission viewed the Battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Court House as interconnected events and, rather than creating four separate parks, identified a 6,500-acre area that encompassed parts of four

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battlefields in a single park. Their work encouraged other groups in the region, including the Petersburg National Battlefield Park Association, to embark on similar efforts (Happel 1955:29; Zenzen 2011:27–29).

The Battlefield Park Commission succeeded in getting the Virginia Assembly to incorporate the Fredericksburg and Adjacent National Battlefields Memorial Park Association of Virginia on February 12, 1898. The legislation authorized the association "to mark and preserve the battlefields of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, The Wilderness, and Spotsylvania Courthouse, and adjacent battlegrounds" (quoted in Happel 1955:33). It also granted the association the right to buy or acquire land for preservation and the construction of roads. A March 2, 1898, amendment to the legislation extended the right to acquire by condemnation "no more than 100 acres in Stafford, 25 acres in the corporation of Fredericksburg, and 7,000 acres in Spotsylvania and Orange Counties" that could be transferred to the federal government if and when Congress established a park. The association's members included veterans from Virginia and other Southern states as well as many Northern and some Western states (Happel 1955:31–35; Zenzen 2011:29).

Senator William J. Sewell of New Jersey and Representative Amos J. Cummings of New York each submitted bills to Congress for the establishment of a National Military Park at Fredericksburg in 1898. The bills adopted key points from the 1890 Chickamauga and Chattanooga act, including the marking of battle lines associated with both sides, the provision of roads to access the sites, and the ability of existing landowners to retain their property so long as they preserved historic buildings and landscapes. The proposed legislation also set aside lands at each of the four battlefields for military study. Both bills died in committee despite generally positive reactions. Park backers continued to push for action and cultivate support at all levels. An editorial in the Fredericksburg *Free Lance* on February 15, 1900, emphasized that the park proposal did not constitute land speculation and deplored the lack of a military park in Virginia. Later that year, the Society of the Army of the Potomac met at Fredericksburg and officially endorsed the park as "an American institution" (quoted in Happel 1955:39). Similar bills for a park at Fredericksburg were submitted in Congress almost every successive year through 1919, with the exception of 1904 through 1907 and 1918. However, the overwhelming number of battlefield petitions and the larger questions of park administration faced by Congress resulted in no further legislative action on the Fredericksburg proposals (Happel 1955:36–43; Zenzen 2011:29–32).

While the initial effort to incorporate the Fredericksburg battlefields into a national battlefield park failed, a private initiative succeeded in preserving the Chandler plantation office at Guinea Station where Confederate General Stonewall Jackson died on May 10, 1863. In 1909 William N. White, president of the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad Company, acquired the property and in 1911 deeded it to the railroad. The railroad opened the <u>Jackson Shrine Site</u> to the public by 1920 and funded a rehabilitation of the <u>Fairfield Plantation Office</u>, which it dedicated in 1928 (Happel 1955:63).

Establishment of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park, 1927–1932

The next serious consideration of a military park at Fredericksburg, which ultimately led to its establishment, coincided with the revival of the national battlefield preservation movement in the early 1920s. After World War I ended, the U.S. military continued to undertake annual training maneuvers, many at national military parks, to improve readiness for future conflicts. In September 1921, more than 4,000 marines from Quantico, Virginia, marched to Fredericksburg and on to the Wilderness battlefield for four days of tactical exercises. The events, attended by Civil War veterans, the Secretaries of Navy and Agriculture, and President Warren G. Harding, garnered substantial publicity for the area's Civil War

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history and returned the military park idea to the forefront of some state legislative agendas (Happel 1955:43-45; Zenzen 2011:34).

In 1924, Virginia Representative Schuyler O. Bland and Senator Claude Swanson successfully introduced bills in Congress to inspect the battlefields around Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania to determine the "feasibility of preserving and marking for historical and professional military study such fields" (quoted in Zenzen 2011:430). The legislation (43 Stat. 646) signed by President Calvin Coolidge on June 7, 1924, authorized the Secretary of War to appoint a commission composed of one Union veteran, one Confederate veteran, and an officer of the Army Corps of Engineers to conduct the inspection. The commission's report submitted on December 1, 1925, recommended that the Fredericksburg-Spotsylvania battlefields, identified as Class IIa battlefields in the War College study published that year, be marked and preserved according to George Davis' Antietam Plan. The report estimated that 535 acres would be sufficient to accomplish this effort: 275 acres at Spotsylvania, 150 acres at the Wilderness, and 110 acres around Fredericksburg, all at sites where "trenches on the main battle line are sufficiently well preserved to warrant retaining in their present condition" (quoted in Happel 1955:47). The report did not recommend the acquisition of land at Salem Church or Chancellorsville, considering it unlikely that development would prevent access to the battle lines at those locations. The commission also proposed the construction of 20 miles of roads, including one along the Confederate positions between Lee's Hill and Hamilton's Crossing. The report estimated that the entire project, including surveys, studies, and the production and placement of markers and tablets, would cost \$500,000 (Happel 1955:45-47; Zenzen 2011:34-36).

In early 1926, Congressman Bland submitted legislation to implement the commission's recommendations. The bill contained many similarities to those submitted by others from 1898 to 1919, including the appointment of a three-member War Department commission to oversee the park planning and the option for current landowners to retain their property. It also provided for a \$50,000 appropriation to the Secretary of War to start survey and land acquisition, plus additional funds as needed to complete those tasks. Although the bill stipulated that the 1925 commission report and the Antietam Plan would serve as a guide for park planning, it did not delineate specific lands for acquisition or limit the total acreage as the earlier proposals had. Instead, the language allowed the Secretary of War to acquire additional land "whether shown on said index map sheet [from the 1925 report] or not" (quoted in Zenzen 2011:38). President Coolidge signed "An Act to establish a national military park at and near Fredericksburg, Virginia, and to mark and preserve historical points connected with the battles of Fredericksburg, Spotsylvania Court House, Wilderness, and Chancellorsville, including Salem Church, Virginia" (44 Stat. 1091) on February 14, 1927 (Happel 1955:48–49; Zenzen 2011:37–38, 431).

Staff from the Historical Research Division of the Army War College conducted research to determine the locations of troop positions on the battlefield lands. The War Department park commission then verified the positions on the current landscape and submitted recommendations for land acquisition. Their recommendations largely matched those in the 1925 study, except at Chancellorsville, where the commission recommended the acquisition of battlefield lands as at the other battlefield sites. Surveying and land acquisition began in Fredericksburg in 1927 with assistance from the city manager, L. J. Houston, and a Battlefield Park Association formed by local residents in 1928. An active committee of residents in the Wilderness-Spotsylvania area also facilitated land negotiations there. By July 1932, the War Department had acquired more than 2,100 acres for what was originally called Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park. Much of the land contained earthworks associated with the battles. Adjacent areas for road construction according to the Antietam Plan were also acquired (Happel 1955:47, 55–56; Zenzen 2011:40–44).

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The commission held a dedication ceremony for the new military park in Fredericksburg on October 19, 1928. President Coolidge and many other dignitaries attended, and the Battlefield Park Association presented a bronze tablet to the park to commemorate the event. Several months later, the government affixed the tablet to a stone base and placed the <u>Coolidge Dedication Monument (LCS No. 082055, contributing object)</u> at the entrance to Lee Drive, the first park road planned for construction. Initially installed on the inside bend of the road's left-hand fork, the monument was later moved to its current location on the island between the forks (Happel 1955:51–52; Pfanz 2006:89–91; Zenzen 2011:39–40).

A \$215,000 federal appropriation from a pre-New Deal unemployment relief program helped to fund the initial road construction within the park. The grading of Lee Drive (LCS No. 082056, contributing structure) from Route 1 south to Hamilton's Crossing at Mine Road began in 1928, soon after the completion of land purchases along the Confederate trench lines at the lower end of the Fredericksburg Battlefield. Work crews cleared the undergrowth and surfaced the route, part of which followed the Confederate Military Road constructed in 1862. The route intersected with a 300' stretch of Braehead Road (LCS No. 082059, contributing structure), which was used by Confederate and Federal troops during the war and constitutes one of the historic road traces within the Fredericksburg Battlefield. Lee Drive was officially opened to the public on November 11, 1931. Road construction began at the other battlefields in the park early in 1932 and, by July, plans for almost 40 miles of roadway had been prepared (Happel 1955:54–55; Zenzen 2011:44).

The park commission met in rented office space on Princess Anne Street in downtown Fredericksburg. War Department Engineer G. M. Harbert designed the park's first maintenance complex, constructed in 1928 on the west side of Lee Drive. The complex included the <u>War Department Log Garage (LCS No. 083058, contributing building)</u>, <u>War Department Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082060, contributing building)</u>, <u>War Department Maintenance Office (LCS No. 083057, contributing building)</u>, and <u>War Department Maintenance Storage Shed (LCS No. 083056, contributing structure)</u> (Happel 1955:50).

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park under the Administration of the National Park Service, 1933–1942

The federal government transferred responsibility for Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park and Fredericksburg National Cemetery, among other properties, from the War Department to the Department of the Interior (National Park Service) in 1933. Since the early 1920s, the National Park Service had been lobbying for the transfer of all historic parks and monuments managed by the War Department and other agencies to its jurisdiction. Horace M. Albright, Assistant Director and then Director of the Park Service from 1916 to 1933, was the leading proponent of expanding the bureau's mission to include historic sites. He believed that the Park Service was the only agency in the government equipped to manage and interpret historic sites for public enjoyment. Despite support from the War Department, efforts in 1924 and 1928 to transfer the War Department's historic reservations to the Department of Interior (the division that oversaw the Park Service) stalled, in part because of the ongoing Army War College study on historic battlefield sites.

In April 1933, Albright had the opportunity to bring up the subject to newly elected President Franklin D. Roosevelt. By that time, Roosevelt had asked for and obtained from Congress broad authority to reorganize the Executive Branch by proclamation to facilitate his efforts to combat the effects of the Great Depression. He showed great interest in the discussion of the historical sites and instructed Albright to

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provide information about a possible transfer of jurisdiction to his reorganization committee. On June 10, 1933, Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 6166, which transferred to the National Park Service all the War Department's historic sites, including battlefields, parks, monuments, and cemeteries, as well as the public parks and buildings in Washington, DC. 28 It also gave the Secretary of the Interior authority over the National Capital Park and Planning Commission and the Commission of Fine Arts, which until that time had operated independently. After objections from both the Park Service and the War Department over the advisability of transferring active military cemeteries, Roosevelt issued a second clarifying order (Executive Order No. 6288) on August 10, 1933, that named 48 War Department properties (including the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park and Fredericksburg National Cemetery) to be transferred to the Park Service. This major event in the evolution of the National Park Service dramatically broadened the scope of its mission and created the basis for the diverse system of federally managed parks that exists today (Albright 1971:n.p.; Lee 2001:n.p.; Mackintosh 1991:28–29; Unrau and Williss 1983:n.p.).

The Park Service temporarily assigned Philip Hough, the superintendent at George Washington Birthplace National Monument in Colonial Beach, Virginia, to oversee the work at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park, with CCC representative George A. Palmer supervising onsite through July 1934. Branch Spalding came to Fredericksburg from Petersburg National Military Park in July and was designated acting superintendent in October 1934 and superintendent in August 1935. From March 1936 through 1941, Spalding also served as coordinating superintendent for all Civil War areas in Virginia consisting of the the national battlefield parks at Manassas and Richmond, the national military parks at Petersburg and Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania, and Appomattox Court House National Historical Monument. Petersburg and Appomattox became independent of the coordinating superintendent in the summer of 1941. Edward A. Hummel succeeded Spalding as both coordinating superintendent and superintendent of Fredericksburg in April 1942, and O. F. Northington Jr. transferred from Petersburg to replace Hummel in June 1946. Northington's responsibility for Manassas and Richmond ended in 1951 (Happel 1955:57; Wallace 1983:81–87).

President Roosevelt's New Deal relief and funding programs provided the Park Service with an influx of money and personnel that presented great opportunities for carrying out programs of preservation, restoration, planning, and interpretation of historical areas. The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), created by the Emergency Conservation Work (ECW) Act of 1933, played a particularly important role in the early work at most parks, including Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania. The Park Service employed the CCC, largely composed of unskilled laborers, to perform clearing, grading, and other activities at many of the historical parks where planning was underway. Unemployed architects and historians also found work through the CCC in the Park Service's history division. Most of the funding for CCC construction projects came through the Public Works Administration (PWA). At the program's peak in 1935, the Park Service oversaw CCC camps in 118 national parks and 382 state parks. At Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, the CCC carried out a variety of tasks designed to create the infrastructure of the park, such as completing and surfacing roads begun by the War Department, constructing stone bridges and culverts, and clearing and planting vegetation. CCC enrollees also participated in the more skilled labor of archeological excavations and the restoration of Civil War trenches (Mackintosh 1991:46; McClelland 1993:200–203; Unrau and Williss 1983).

²⁸ The order also renamed the National Park Service the "Office of National Parks, Buildings, and Reservations," but the following year the old name was restored.

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The state of Virginia was among the first to receive CCC work crews, and three CCC camps were established within Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP by October 1933. A number of different CCC companies occupied Camp MP-1 (also known as Camp Bloody Angle) at Spotsylvania from 1933 to 1936, initially with 180 to 193 white veterans. By August 25, 1934, a company that eventually included as many as 211 African American men occupied the camp and remained until it closed on April 30, 1936. Several companies of white workers initially occupied Camp MP-3 (later Camp NP-11), established just north of the Chancellor House ruins at Chancellorsville (Figure 34). Company 362-C, a company of 190 African American workers, lived at the Chancellorsville camp from August 1934 to December 1940, after which time a white company occupied it until its closure in March 1942. Company 282 occupied Camp MP-4 (later Camp NP-24) at Saunders Field along State Route 20 in the Wilderness Battlefield (Geier, Brien, and Fuller 2005:209; Happel 1955:56; Geier and Sancomb 2003b:43; Zenzen 2011:62).

More than \$1 million in New Deal funding, combined with the CCC work force, enabled the National Park Service to substantially develop the park infrastructure at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania. The CCC crews worked under the supervision of Park Service historians, engineers, and landscape architects. By 1942, when the CCC program ended, they had completed 21 miles of battlefield tour roads (including those started by the War Department) designed to follow the visible remains of fortification lines. Relief workers from the Bureau of Public Roads coordinated through the Park Service Branch of Planning and Design set the roads, and the CCC graded and seeded the road embankments. They also constructed stone bridges and culverts along the roads as needed. Beginning in the 1940s, the Park Service placed small metal plaques designed by the War Department park commission throughout the park: Road ID Tablets (LCS No. 082132, CLI No. 153971, contributing objects) identifying the military park roads, Earthworks ID Tablets (LCS No. 082133, contributing objects) identifying battle line trenches and lunettes, House Site ID Tablets (LCS No. 082134, contributing objects) marking historic house sites, and Battlefield ID Tablets (LCS No. 082135, CLI No. 153973, contributing objects) marking important battlefield positions and sites of military interest.

In Fredericksburg, the Park Service relocated and redesigned 5 miles of the War Department's Lee Drive, altered the War Department Maintenance Area Road (LCS No. 082131, historic associated feature), and added the Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive (LCS No. 082065, historic associated feature) and Pickett's Turnout (LCS No. 082061, historic associated feature). The CCC built the Lee Drive Bridges (LCS No. 082058, historic associated feature), Lee Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082057, historic associated feature), Pickett's Turnout Culverts (LCS No. 082062, historic associated feature), and Superintendent's Quarters Entrance Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082066, historic associated feature). The Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System (contributing structure) completed at Spotsylvania Court House included Anderson Drive (LCS No. 082003, historic associated feature), Bloody Angle Drive (LCS No. 082001, historic associated feature), Burnside Drive (LCS No. 082009, historic associated feature) (initially named Grant Drive East), Gordon Drive (LCS No. 082021, historic associated feature), Grant Drive (LCS No. 082008, historic associated feature), Hancock Drive (LCS No. 082007, historic associated feature), the McCoull House CCC Access Road (LCS Nos. 007926 083059, and 082026, historic associated feature), and the Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System Culverts (LCS Nos. 082019, 082013, 082014, 082016, 082022, and 082023, historic associated features). At the Wilderness, the CCC completed Hill-Ewell Drive (LCS No. 082114, contributing structure), the Hill-Ewell Drive Bridges (LCS No. 082116, historic associated feature), Hill-Ewell Drive Culverts and Lined Ditches (LCS No. 082115, historic associated feature).

²⁹ All CCC camps throughout the country were segregated after 1935 in response to pressure from local communities and institutionalized racism within federal agencies (Cole 1991:122).

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Hill-Ewell Drive Tree Rings (LCS No. 082119, historic associated feature), and the Wilderness Maintenance Road (LCS No. 082107, contributing structure).

The Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System (contributing structure) consisted of Berry-Paxton Drive (LCS No. 082098, historic associated feature), Bullock Road (LCS No. 082101, historic associated feature), Furnace Road, Hooker Drive (LCS No. 082083, historic associated feature), McLaws' Drive (LCS No. 082088 and 082091, historic associated feature), River Road, Sickles Drive (LCS No. 082092, historic associated feature), Slocum Drive (LCS No. 082094, historic associated feature), and Stuart Drive (LCS No. 082096, historic associated feature). The CCC constructed the Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Bridges (LCS Nos. 082090, 082100, 082117, and 082151, historic associated features) on Furnace Road, Stuart Drive, Sickles Drive, and two on Berry-Paxton Drive. Other road improvements consisted of the Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Culverts and Lined Ditches (LCS Nos. 082084, 082086, 082089, 082093, 082095, 082097, 082099, 082102, and 082153, historic associated features) and Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System Tree Rings (LCS Nos. 082087 and 082139, historic associated features) along River Road and Slocum Drive.

National Park Service historians conducted research to allow the accurate reconstruction of Jackson's flank attack route. By 1939, the park acquired the necessary land with assistance from the Battlefield Park Association and CCC work crews began rebuilding <u>Jackson Trail</u> as part of the Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System. Spalding stipulated that, while wider than the original trail to accommodate two lanes of vehicular traffic, the road should not be paved in asphalt so as to conform as nearly as possible to the original character. When the CCC left in 1942, the road, including the <u>Jackson Trail Stream Ford (LCS No. 082105, historic associated feature)</u>, was almost complete. The Army Corps' One Hundred and First Engineers Battalion, stationed at the A. P. Hill Military Reservation during World War II, finished surfacing it in gravel in 1943 (Happel 1955:58; Zenzen 2011:76).

Circulation planning throughout the park emphasized automobile tourism, but CCC crews also constructed 19 miles of foot trails and 11 miles of bridle trails to provide additional access to earthworks and for recreational opportunities. Subsequent experience proved that the foot trail system was underused and difficult to maintain. Consequently, the National Park Service allowed most of the trails from this period to deteriorate gradually. The Meade Bridle Path that opened in October 1936 is no longer maintained; only the https://example.com/Bridle Trail Steps (LCS No. 082068, contributing structure) constructed by the CCC (Happel 1955:60; Zenzen 2011:75–76).

Since the Civil War, the earthworks on the Fredericksburg battlefields had naturally compacted and dwindled in size, making it difficult for visitors to envision the landscape's war-time appearance. Park Service historians decided to restore the remains of selected trenches along their historic lines, rather than reconstruct the earthworks in new locations. CCC workers completed the first trench restoration efforts near the Bloody Angle at Spotsylvania Court House by December 1935. They dug a 100' stretch of trench at 2' 3" deep, placed vertical and horizontal logs along the trench, and cleared trees and laid abatis in front of it. The CCC also restored the east face of the salient at the Bloody Angle, forming the three-sided square earthwork with dirt and horizontal logs. By the end of the summer of 1936, workers restored trenches on the Wilderness and Chancellorsville battlefields, including an artillery position at Fairview that provided examples of different earthwork constructions. Additional landscape projects on the battlefields consisted of the removal of debris and timber to restore open fields and the planting of trees and shrubs to delineate the fields and screen views outside the park. The CCC planted more than 54,000

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trees within the park in 1936 alone, many of them donated by local residents or transplanted from other park areas (Zenzen 2011:73-75).

The CCC constructed a visitor contact station at each of the four battlefields in the park in 1935–1936. The small wood-frame buildings, all of which were removed ca. 1963 as part of the Mission 66 program (discussed below), were about 17' by 12' and had a stone fireplace and a porch with roof overhang. The Fredericksburg station was located at the south end of Lee Drive near Hamilton's Crossing. The Chancellorsville station stood next to the Jackson Monument on Route 3 (Figure 35). The Wilderness station was built opposite the start of Hill-Ewell Drive on the Orange Turnpike (Figure 36). The Spotsylvania station stood at the Bloody Angle near the Grant Drive West intersection. The CCC landscaped around the contact stations and placed interpretive features nearby, including concrete relief maps, maps mounted in wood frames, and 4' orientation discs set flush with the ground. They also built an enclosed map shelter near Sedgwick's Monument at the entrance to the Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield. The National Park Service has since replaced most of the CCC-era interpretive features within the park (Happel 1955:57; Zenzen 2011:77–78).

The National Park Service decided to build a museum and administration building funded by the Public Works Administration on park property at the corner of the Sunken Road (a two-lane thoroughfare at that time) and Route 1. Design and construction of the Fredericksburg Visitor Center (LCS No. 082069, CLI No. 153853, contributing building) began in 1935. Park Service architects produced the plans for the building, choosing a late Georgian Revival residential style in keeping with the predominant architecture of the surrounding urban environment. The two-story, brick and cast stone building originally housed a main entrance hall with offices upstairs for the park superintendent and staff; a lecture hall and museum space in two one-story wings; and additional exhibits, storage and office space, and restrooms for white patrons in the basement. 30 Outside contractors (primarily relief workers assigned by the Fredericksburg office of the National Reemployment Agency) completed the building in 1936, along with the adjacent, and architecturally similar, Fredericksburg Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082071, CLI No. 153859, contributing building) that contained garage and work space for park vehicles and restrooms for African Americans. They also constructed the Fredericksburg Visitor Center Entrance Loop (LCS No. 082123, CLI No. 153645, contributing structure). The Park Service added the visually compatible Fredericksburg Visitor Center Storage Building (contributing building) to the complex ca. 1950. CCC crews under the supervision of Park Service Assistant Landscape Architect Robert P. Stevens planted the grounds with native trees and shrubs. National Park Service architects also designed the late Georgian Revival-style Superintendent's Quarters (LCS No. 082064, contributing building) and adjacent Superintendent's Garage (LCS No. 082010, contributing building) and Superintendent's Quarters Brick Walkway and Patio (contributing structure), constructed on the west side of Lee Drive in 1938-1939 (Happel 1955:62; OCLP 2011b:88; Zenzen 2011:79-80).

Three other buildings constructed by the CCC for the National Park Service remain extant at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP: the 1937 Spotsylvania Court House Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082025, contributing building) built by Camp MP-1, the 1937 Chancellorsville Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082082, contributing building) built by Camp MP-3, and the 1937 Wilderness Maintenance Building (LCS No. 082112, contributing building) built by Camp MP-4.

³⁰ The unwritten policy of the federal government with regard to segregation at this time seems to have followed local laws. Virginia had passed legislation in 1924 mandating public segregation at all public assemblies. Development plans for Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP included segregated picnic areas at the Fredericksburg and Wilderness battlefields as well as the segregated restrooms at the Fredericksburg Visitor Center. Park documents do not indicate whether the picnic area plans were ever implemented (Mink 2010b).

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A portion of the original Sunken Road Stone Wall that served to protect Confederate defenders during the Battle of Fredericksburg in 1862 and Sedgwick's assault on Marye's Heights during the Battle of Chancellorsville in 1863 remained near the new administration building but outside the 1935 park boundary. Park historians prepared a detailed research report based on historical photographs of the wall and investigation of the existing section to facilitate the reconstruction of a missing section of the wall along the edge of the administration building grounds. CCC enrollees from the colored Chancellorsville camp built the southern portion of the Sunken Road Reconstructed Wall (LCS No. 082080, CLI No. 154263, contributing structure) in 1939 (Happel 1955:65; Zenzen 2011:81).31

With the establishment of the national military park at Fredericksburg in 1927, the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad Company offered to donate the Jackson Shrine property to the federal government in 1929. Legal issues related to the land title delayed the transfer, which finally occurred in 1937. The National Park Service formally accepted the property at the celebration of the park's 10th anniversary that year, CCC workers completed construction of the Jackson Shrine Caretaker's House (contributing building) in early 1942 on the site of the deteriorated nineteenthcentury plantation caretaker's house, which was removed (Happel 1955:63-64).32

CCC activities at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP slowed in the 1940s as the United States' involvement in World War II increased. One of the Wilderness camps moved to Appomattox in July 1940; two of the park's camps closed in December; and the remaining Wilderness camp moved to Chancellorsville in April 1941, then to the A. P. Hill Military Reservation in March 1942, when the last CCC camp at Chancellorsville closed. Military units used the country's national military parks, including Fredericksburg, for training purposes during the war, a potential function noted in the establishing legislation for these parks. The National Park Service budget diminished as federal funding supported the war effort, and only minimal maintenance occurred at the park after 1942 (Happel 1955:69-70).

Mission 66 Park Development, 1956-1966

The initiation of the National Park Service's Mission 66 program in 1956, combined with the national Civil War Centennial program initiated in 1957, provided the funding mechanisms for the implementation of several notable improvements at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP. The \$1 billion Mission 66 program represented the largest investment ever initiated for the national park system. The Park Service designed it as a 10-year program to restore park infrastructure and services that had deteriorated during the previous 15 years. During the prosperous 1950s, visitation to national parks grew significantly as more Americans could afford and had the time to take vacations. Most traveled by automobile, which expanded the range of locales available for family vacations and made it easier to reach remote parks . The increased visitor traffic put considerable strain on the outdated facilities at most parks. To get Mission 66 passed through Congress, Park Service officials presented a concise and well thought-out program that articulated the clear goal of providing modern amenities to ameliorate these conditions by the 50th anniversary of the National Park Service in 1966. The program touched every park in the system and dramatically improved facilities at most. Major projects that had languished due to lack of funding, such as the St. Louis Gateway Arch and the 469-mile Blue Ridge Parkway, were completed and 78 new parks were added to the National Park System. Construction efforts included new roads, trails,

³¹ The National Park Service extended the reconstructed wall to the north in 2004, after it acquired additional property along the Sunken Road.

32 The older building served as a residence for a retired Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad Company

employee through 1940 (Happel 1955:63).

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campgrounds, amphitheaters, visitor centers, administration buildings, and employee housing (French 2010).

The construction of new visitor centers was one of the most visible and important efforts undertaken during Mission 66. The National Park Service erected more than 100 such buildings between 1956 and 1966. The term "visitor center" emerged to identify a new type of Park Service building designed to provide the primary introduction point for park visitors. Exhibiting modern architectural designs, the buildings provided a variety of amenities, including interpretive exhibits, museum space, theaters, public restrooms, and administrative offices for park staff, and replaced those buildings usually referred to as administration and museum buildings. A key function of the visitor center was to introduce the story of the park and orient visitors to the landscape and sites they were invited to explore. Owing to their importance to the visitor experience, considerable thought was given to their placement. The Park Service usually chose prominent locations that allowed for extensive views of the park or site and allowed the visitors to understand the interpretive exhibits in the context of the entire site. Since most visitors arrived in automobiles, consideration was also given to placing each visitor center as close as possible to the primary roadways leading to a park and connecting each to the overall park circulation system as a means to efficiently manage visitor traffic (Allaback 2000:25–26; Carr 2007:195).

Reflecting the national trend in park visitation in the years following World War II, Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP's annual visitation figures increased nearly ten fold from 43,180 in 1945 to 413,600 in 1960.33 Mission 66 planning at the park coincided with planning for Civil War Centennial celebrations, both shaped largely by Superintendent Northington and Historian Ralph Happel. In addition to ameliorating the strain being placed on the existing facilities by the increasing numbers of visitors, park planners hoped to utilize Mission 66 funds to solve problems associated with interpreting and providing access to the four separate battlefield units and Jackson Shrine that comprised Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP. Various plans were proposed for improving the visitor contact facilities at the park, including replacing the museum and administration building in Fredericksburg with a new visitor center on the U.S. Route 1 bypass near Route 3, adding on to the rear of the existing building, or retaining the building for administration offices and building a separate visitor center at Marye's Heights or along Lee Drive. Ultimately, Park Service Director Conrad Wirth decided the existing Fredericksburg building could be remodeled to better interpret the Battle of Fredericksburg but that an additional visitor center was needed at Chancellorsville to "tell the story of the other three battles and to tie together the entire campaign, as well as to provide adequate storage" (quoted in Zenzen 2011:152; Happel 1955:72; Zenzen 2011:143, 150-154).

The Chancellorsville Battlefield had the second-highest visitation rates within Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP. Route 3, the busy state highway that traversed the site, provided the benefits of key visibility and accessibility to more potential visitors. However, the Park Service owned only about 600 acres at the site in the late 1950s, limiting options for building new facilities. In addition, planners had to account for a state proposal to widen Route 3 with the addition of a lane south of the existing road. On March 17, 1958, Director Wirth approved a plan for the construction of a visitor center, three employee residences, and a small water and maintenance facility south of Route 3, along Stuart Drive, with an underpass to provide access to the popular Jackson Monument on the north side of Route 3. Superintendent Northington requested a restudy of the plans, citing concerns about developing a visitor center in what was a key part of the Chancellorsville Battlefield between Hazel Grove and Fairview. Along with park historians, Northington endorsed locating the visitor center on the north side of the road,

³³ Park records do not indicate the race or ethnicity of these visitors.

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near the Jackson Monument and CCC contact station, and the park residences and maintenance buildings farther north on the site of the Chancellorsville CCC camp. Director Wirth and the Park Service Chief of Design and Construction Thomas Vint insisted, however, that the other buildings remain near the visitor center to facilitate park operations. The subsequent master plan review resulted in a new proposal, approved on November 16, 1959, for a visitor center just north of the Jackson Monument, on the south side of Bullock Road (replacing the CCC contact station), and a residential and utility area on the north side of Bullock Road (Zenzen 2011:150–154).

The National Park Service prepared the design for the Chancellorsville Visitor Center (contributing building) and Chancellorsville Visitor Center Entrance Road and Parking Area (contributing structure) in 1961 (Figures 37 and 38). The Ralph Thorpe Construction Company based in Richmond, Virginia, constructed the building, which officially opened on May 5, 1963, the centennial anniversary of the Battle of Chancellorsville. Its Modern style, which incorporated locally available building materials and a low unobtrusive profile, are hallmarks of Mission 66-era visitor center design. The building provided a modern welcoming station and orientation point for visitors. The museum space in the visitor center was a major element of the park's interpretive program. The same contractor also built the entrance road and parking area and the residential complex along Ranger Lane (contributing structure). Standardized Mission 66 plans prepared by the Park Service to resemble typical suburban architecture of the period were used for the three employee houses: Quarters #4 (contributing building), Quarters #5 (contributing building), and Quarters #6 (contributing building) (Figure 39) (Zenzen 2011:161).

In addition to installing new museum exhibits and a new ventilation system at the Fredericksburg Visitor Center and constructing the Fredericksburg Visitor Center Walkways (LCS No. 082070, CLI No. 153621, contributing structure) in 1961 and 1962, the park used Mission 66 funds for new visitor facilities at the Fredericksburg, Spotsylvania Court House, and Wilderness battlefields (completed by 1963) and removed the CCC contact stations. The Lee Hill site at the north end of Lee Drive provided visitors with an important view of the Fredericksburg Battlefield, but the site's difficult terrain and a new housing development just below it prevented construction of substantial visitor facilities there. Instead, workers built the Lee Hill Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure) and Lee Hill Seating Discs (contributing object) (Figure 40) at an overlook near the artillery position on the hill, accessed by the Lee Hill Trail (contributing structure). The Park Service initially wanted to build an access road to the kiosk from Lee Drive, but the steep slope would have required more switchbacks than the available land allowed. Mission 66 plans for the Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield initially proposed the construction of a visitor center at the Bloody Angle to replace the CCC contact station. Superintendent Northington and other park staff expressed concerns about development on the largely undisturbed battlefield lands, however, and instead recommended a seasonal exhibit shelter at the start of the battlefield tour route (at the intersection of Grant Drive West and Brock Road). The Park Service constructed the Spotsylvania Court House Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure) at that location and the Wilderness Visitor Kiosk (contributing structure) on Route 20, near the former entrance to the CCC camp (Zenzen 2011:151-155, 163).

As early as 1940, Superintendent Spalding had expressed concerns about development encroaching on the park, and postwar economic growth almost immediately began affecting the park boundaries. In the early 1950s, Lee Drive became a commuter route for residents of the new subdivisions in the area. However, the Mission 66 program did not provide funding for acquiring land, despite Superintendent Northington's requests to reduce building projects to allow for more acquisition. Consequently, the park's boundary maps remained virtually the same during the Mission 66 development period, although the Park Service

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acquired the historic Salem Church building and about one acre of surrounding land in June 1962 and the Widow Tapp farm at the Wilderness in 1963 through donation (Zenzen 2011:177–178).

Mission 66 also funded the completion of a self-guided auto tour developed by park historian Francis Wilshin. The 71-mile tour opened in 1956 and included 42 sequentially numbered stops throughout the four battlefield sites. Park staff proposed several alterations to park roads to limit their use as through routes for local commuters. One that was implemented was the closure of the south section of Lee Drive, between Lansdowne Road and Hamilton's Crossing, after dark. Among those not constructed were turnarounds proposed for Grant Drive at Spotsylvania Court House. A Mission 66-funded footpath with a parking area on Orange Plank Road was constructed on an isolated string of park land between privately owned subdivisions that comprised a line occupied by Federal troops at the Wilderness (Zenzen 2011:156–159).

The restoration of the Fairfield Plantation Office at the Jackson Shrine site was accomplished using funds available through the Mission 66 and Civil War Centennial programs. National Park Service historical architect Orville W. Carroll came to the site in the summer of 1962 to supervise the project. Carroll also worked on many of the restorations and reconstructions occurring at Appomattox Court House National Historical Park at the same time. The Park Service followed an established procedure for each of these projects, beginning with the preparation of measured drawings for the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) for restorations or with physical and documentary investigations for reconstructions. A team of architects and historians then incorporated the HABS drawings, historical research, and preliminary restoration plans into Part I of a Historic Structures Report (HSR). Following approval of Part I, the architects prepared working drawings to be sent out for contract bids and included in Part II of the HSR, which detailed the proposed work. Part III of the HSR, prepared after a project's completion, documented it thoroughly from start to finish. An 1880 photograph of the Fairfield Plantation Office found at the Library of Congress played a key role in the park's restoration of the building, which corrected some errors (e.g., the height of the chimneys and the location of the entry porch) made in the Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Railroad Company's 1927 restoration. The Park Service completed its restoration work at the Jackson Shrine site in 1963. Carroll, Happel, and Northington argued for the reconstruction of some Fairfield plantation outbuildings such as a smokehouse and icehouse to "provide the visual context for telling the Jackson story" (quoted in Zenzen 2011:175). However, the master plan supported only the restoration of the plantation office as a memorial. The Park Service completed landscaping and walkways from a new parking lot to the building, which re-opened to the public in 1964 (Zenzen 2011:173-177).

Post-1965 Park Development

The completion of Mission 66 development projects in 1965 marks the end of the period of significance for the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District, but efforts to expand the park—largely to protect battlefield lands from continually increasing development on all sides—have continued through the present as the National Park Service supports the intent of the 1927 establishing legislation. While automobile infrastructure aided park development in the 1920s and 1930s by enabling tourists to access the discontiguous battlefield sites, late twentieth-century road improvements threatened the historic nature of those same park lands. The Commonwealth of Virginia passed legislation in 1964 to develop an arterial network of roads around Fredericksburg. The Route 3 interchange with Interstate 95 opened in December of that year, and subsequent road-widening projects included the long-planned expansion of Route 3 from a two-lane country road to a four-lane divided highway and of Route 20 through the Wilderness. Both projects required the relocation of monuments on park lands. Road improvements led to

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more construction. The area along Lee Drive continued to develop with residential subdivisions, and the Lee Hill Industrial Park opened in the early 1970s. Heavy industry was established south of Hamilton's Crossing in the early 1980s. Recreational amenities and residential subdivisions appeared along Route 3 at Chancellorsville and the Wilderness, including Lake of the Woods in 1966, Lake Wilderness in 1969, Wilderness Camping Resorts in the early 1970s, and Presidential Resorts in the 1980s. Commercial development ranging from strip shopping centers to a large shopping mall occurred near the Route 3/Interstate 95 interchange (Zenzen 2011:235–243, 352).

To combat development threats, the park's 1969 Master Plan identified acquisition priorities that were enabled by funding from the newly established Land and Water Conservation Fund. Over the next ten years, the park acquired about 3,062 acres, effectively doubling its size. The tracts included the Innis House and Chatham in Fredericksburg; the ruins of the Chancellor House and 99 acres at Chancellorsville; 166 acres at Spotsylvania Court House, including the Laurel Hill engagement site and the area between the opposing lines on the west side of the Mule Shoe salient; Ellwood; and about 100 acres at the Wilderness. During this period, the Senate Subcommittee on Interior and Related Agencies initiated a two-year Civil War boundary study (completed in 1974) that resulted in the park's first authorized boundary definition and restricted it subject to change through legislative action based on master planning efforts. By 1979, the park had acquired all the land it could within the authorized boundary; the remaining private land was held by people unwilling to sell at that time (Zenzen 2011:233, 246–254).

When the first General Management Plan (GMP) (the planning document that replaced the Master Plan within the National Park System) was completed for Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP in 1986, the federal government owned 5,336 acres of the 5,909 acres that Congress had authorized for the park, with the remaining 573 in private ownership. The land acquisition strategy laid out in the GMP led to the development of 1989 legislation (103 Stat. 1851) that increased the authorized boundary to 7,764 acres. With funding available through the American Battlefield Protection Program (ABPP), and partnerships and cooperative agreements organizations such as the Central Virginia Battlefields Trust, the Civil War Trust, and the Friends of the Wilderness Battlefield, the park was to acquire more than 1,500 additional acres (including conservation easements on land outside the authorized boundary) from 1990 to 2002. New properties included the Kirkland Memorial, a site adjacent to the National Cemetery on Willis Hill, and 99 acres adjacent to McLaws' Drive. Two additional legislative boundary changes (106 Stat. 3565 in 1992 and 113 Stat. 1730 in 1999) enabled the acquisition by purchase or exchange of large portions of land at the Wilderness, including a 435-acre tract east of Longstreet Drive associated with Longstreet's Flank Attack (Zenzen 2011:261–276, 289–338, 363).

Limited development occurred on park lands after 1965, although several changes to the circulation through the park have altered the visitor experience. At Spotsylvania Court House in 1982, the National Park Service removed about 855' of Bloody Angle Drive where it joined Grant Drive West, renamed Grant Drive East to Burnside Drive, and closed Anderson Drive. In 1989, the Park Service created a turnaround on South Lee Drive at Prospect Hill and closed the remainder of the road to Hamilton's Crossing to prevent through traffic. The City of Fredericksburg's decision in May 2001 to close the Sunken Road to vehicular traffic (reduced by 80% after the opening of the Blue and Gray Parkway) enabled the Park Service to rehabilitate and restore the roadway to its Civil War appearance. Finally, to accommodate the substantial growth between the different areas of the park, separate inclusive tour routes for each battlefield have replaced the continuum road tour across all four battlefields developed by the Park Service during the Mission 66 period (Zenzen 2011:352, 363–368).

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CRITERION B - MILITARY

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District is significant under Criterion B at the national level for its associations with defining moments in the military careers of the principal commanders of the opposing forces during the early stages of the Civil War and the beginning of the 1864 Overland Campaign: Lieutenant General Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson (1824-1863), General Robert E. Lee (1807-1870), Lieutenant General Ulysses S. Grant (1822-1885), Major General Ambrose E. Burnside (1824-1881), Major General Joseph Hooker (1814-1879), and Major General George G. Meade (1815-1872). Lee commanded the Army of Northern Virginia through important defensive victories at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville and maintained competent command of his troops even after the tide turned against them in the early stages of the Overland Campaign. Jackson, Lee's most aggressive field general, led his troops to victory during the 1862 Battle of Fredericksburg and executed the famous flank march that gave the Confederates their resounding victory at Chancellorsville. Jackson was wounded by "friendly fire" during a reconnaissance mission at Chancellorsville and died less than a week later at the Fairfield Plantation Office at what is not the Jackson Shrine within Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP. Burnside, who had taken command of the Army of the Potomac following George McClellan's defeat at Antietam, was removed from command following a devastating loss at Fredericksburg that resulted in 13,000 casualties. Hooker was appointed commander of the Army of the Potomac after Burnside and was responsible for vast improvements in conditions and training for troops. However, he was unsuccessful against Jackson at Chancellorsville and subsequently resigned his command. Meade led the Third Division at Fredericksburg and the Fifth Corps at Chancellorsville before taking command of the Army of the Potomac after Hooker's resignation and leading it during battles at the Wilderness, Spotsylvania, Cold Harbor, and Petersburg.

Thomas J. "Stonewall" Jackson (1824-1863)

Thomas Jonathan "Stonewall" Jackson was born on January 21, 1824, in Clarksburg, Virginia. When he was two years old, his six-year-old sister and father Jonathan Jackson, an attorney, died of typhoid fever. In 1830, his mother remarried and sent Jackson and his sister Laura to live with his uncle in Jackson's. Mill in what is now West Virginia (Virginia Military Institute n.d.). In 1846, Jackson graduated from the U.S. Military Academy at West Point and began his military career as a brevet second lieutenant in the Mexican-American War (1846–1848), during which he met Robert E. Lee. Following the end of that war, Jackson continued his military career until he accepted a teaching position at Virginia Military Institute in Lexington, Virginia, in 1851, where he taught artillery tactics and natural philosophy until the outbreak of the Civil War. Known for his curtness and eccentric habits, Jackson was mocked by some of the cadets for habits such as always keeping one arm slightly raised to hide that it was longer than the other. Despite his unconventional behaviors, he was known for his honesty, temperance, and devout faith. In 1853, Jackson married Elinor Junkin; she died in childbirth just over a year later. In 1857, Jackson married Mary Anna Morrison and later had two daughters, one surviving for only a month after birth (Civil War Trust 2014a; Virginia Military Institute n.d.).

At the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861, Jackson joined the Confederate Army as a colonel and led the Virginia militia at Harper's Ferry. He was quickly promoted to brigadier general and led troops at the First Battle of Bull Run at Manassas in July 1861. During this battle, he earned the nickname "Stonewall," as he moved his troops forward to close a gap in the line against a Union attack. General Bernard Bee, a friend from West Point, urged his troops on, allegedly saying, "Look, men, there is

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Jackson standing like a stone wall! Let us determine to die here, and we will conquer!" (quoted in Farwell 1993:180). In November 1861, Jackson was promoted to major general and sent to the Shenandoah Valley to defend the South from Federal troops headed toward the Confederate capital of Richmond, Virginia. Following a reorganization of the Army of Northern Virginia in 1862, Jackson was promoted to lieutenant general. Later that year, Jackson led his troops to victory at Fredericksburg and then a decisive victory after the famous flank march at Chancellorsville on May 2, 1863. That evening, Jackson decided to make a reconnaissance trip with a few of his men. As they neared the Confederate encampment, a North Carolina regiment on patrol called for Jackson and his companions to identify themselves, which Jackson refused to do. Assuming they were Union soldiers, the North Carolinians opened fire, hitting Jackson in the left arm and right hand. After his left arm was amputated at a field hospital just north of the Wilderness Tavern, Jackson was brought to Fairfield, Thomas Chandler's plantation at Guinea Station to recuperate ahead of the Federal advance following the assault on Marye's Heights in Fredericksburg. The Reverend Beverly Lacy took Jackson's amputated arm and buried it in the Lacy family cemetery at Ellwood. Jackson died from pneumonia eight days after his wounding (Civil War Trust 2014a; Farwell 1993:180,517,521; Virginia Military Institute n.d.).

Robert E. Lee (1807-1870)

Robert Edward Lee was born on January 19, 1807, into one of Virginia's most distinguished families, At the age of 18, Lee enrolled at West Point Military Academy and finished first in his class in artillery and tactics. After graduating, he married Mary Custis, the great-granddaughter of Martha Washington and her first husband. The couple had seven children, including several sons who later served in the Army of Northern Virginia during the Civil War. Lee spent the first 15 years of his military career in a variety of posts with the Corps of Engineers, including superintendent of the construction of coastal forts and lighthouses. During the Mexican-American War (1846-1848), during which he served as an engineer on General Winfield Scott's staff and performed with distinction, Lee was promoted to the rank of Colonel. He subsequently held various posts in the Army, including superintendent of West Point from 1852 to 1855. In the latter year, he took a position in the U.S. Cavalry. In 1859 he commanded the cavalry unit sent to capture the abolitionist John Brown, who had attempted to sieze the federal arsenal at Harpers Ferry, Virginia. Shortly after the bombardment of Fort Sumter in April 1861, President Abraham Lincoln offered Lee command of the Union Army. After Virginia seceded from the Union on April 17, however, Lee declined, stating that he could not take up arms against his own state, and took a commission as general of the newly formed Confederate army (Civil War Trust 2014b; Washington & Lee University 2015).

Lee's first engagement as a commander was the Battle of Cheat Mountain in West Virginia, which was a Union victory. He subsequently served as Jefferson Davis' military advisor until June 1862, when he assumed command of the Confederate army in Virginia after General Joseph Johnston was wounded at the Battle of Seven Pines. Lee quickly reorganized the force and renamed it the Army of Northern Virginia. Although greatly outnumbered, he committed himself to preventing a siege of Richmond and arranged to strike a decisive counteroffensive. The Seven Days' Battles, begun on June 26, 1862, ultimately forced the withdrawal of the Army of the Potomac under General George McClellan and changed the fundamental nature of the conflict for both sides (Civil War Trust 2014b; Dowdey 1964:14–15).

In September 1862, Lee determined to take the fighting to Union soil by launching an invasion into Maryland. On September 17, the armies clashed at the Battle of Antietam. After fighting to a stalemate that proved to be the bloodiest single-day battle of the Civil War, Lee withdrew his force back to Virginia.

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During the next ten months, Lee's army foiled Union advances at several battles in Virginia, including Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. The latter, fought in May 1863, was perhaps the greatest example of Lee's audacity as a field commander, as he divided his force several times in the face of the enemy and achieved a resounding victory (Civil War Trust 2014b).

Following the Battle of Chancellorsville, Lee again took his army north to threaten Washington, DC. The Army of the Potomac, under its new commander General George Meade, caught up to Lee at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania. After three days of fighting, from July 1 to 3, 1863, Lee's advance was stopped and he was forced to retire to Virginia. Taking full responsibility for the defeat, Lee wrote Jefferson Davis offering his resignation, but Davis refused to accept it. Thereafter, Lee's army operated on the defensive. During the series of bloody battles of Grant's Overland Campaign in 1864, the Army of Northern Virginia continued to win tactical victories and succeeded in preventing the capture of Richmond. The cost was high, however, because Lee had far less capacity than Grant to replace the large number of men lost during the battles, and his ability to maneuver on the offensive was greatly diminished. After Grant's army managed to slip away undetected from their lines at Cold Harbor and move toward Petersburg, the situation threatened to become, as Lee had previously predicted, "a mere question of time" (Calkins 2015; Civil War Trust 2014b).

Lee maintained an active defense at Petersburg, hoping to confound the Federals to a point when public sentiment in the North would turn against the war: striking when the opportunity presented itself, punishing Union troops when they emerged from their fortifications to attack his lines, and preventing Grant from taking his lines of supply. As part of his larger strategy, Lee sent General Jubal Early's corps to the Shenandoah Valley with instructions to threaten Washington, DC, in hopes of forcing Grant to transfer troops from his lines to meet the threat. Lee managed to keep the Federal troops from taking Petersburg in 1864 but was unable to prevent them from extending their lines westward. After Sherman reached Savannah and started his move to join Grant in early 1865, Lee knew that time was running out. Grant mounted his final campaign to complete the envelopment of Petersburg after the Battle of Fort Stedman, Lee's last offensive operation. On the night of April 2–3, 1865, Lee evacuated his army from Petersburg and Richmond and, one week later, was forced to surrender at Appomattox Court House (CWSAC 2009; Rafuse 2008:184–185).

After the war, Lee, whose home at Arlington, Virginia, was seized by the federal government and developed as Arlington National Cemetery, returned to his family. Later in 1865, he reluctantly accepted the position of president of Washington College in Lexington, Virginia (now Washington & Lee University), stating that he thought it "the duty of every citizen in the present condition of the Country, to do all in his power to aid in the restoration of peace and harmony." Lee is credited for instituting new courses of instruction that put the small college on track to become one of the South's most prominent universities. He died in 1870 from a massive stroke (Washington & Lee University 2015).

Ulysses S. Grant (1822-1885)

Born Hiram Ulysses Grant on April, 27, 1822, in Point Pleasant, Ohio, Grant was the first son of Jesse Root Grant, a tanner and businessman, and Hannah Simpson Grant. A year after Grant was born, his family moved to Georgetown, Ohio, where he had as he described in his memoirs an "uneventful" childhood. Grant received his initial military training at West Point, where he was a mediocre student, and began his career in the Army by serving as Quartermaster and Captain in the Mexican-American War (1846–1848). Although he distinguished himself as a capable leader during that conflict, subsequent posts at remote locations far from his wife and young children led Grant to abuse alcohol. He resigned from the

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Army in 1854 and attempted various jobs in Missouri for six years before moving to Illinois to work in his family's store. After the outbreak of the Civil War in April 1861, he volunteered to serve in the Union Army and was appointed to lead a regiment of volunteers from Illinois. Triumphs at Fort Henry and Fort Donelson in western Tennessee in 1862 were followed by near disaster at the Battle of Shiloh. Grant faced heavy criticism for the high number of casualties there, and some officers demanded that Lincoln remove him from command. He redeemed himself the following year when his month-long siege of the Confederate stronghold at Vicksburg, Mississippi, resulted in the city's surrender in July 1863 and full Union control of the Mississippi River. The victory provided a much-needed morale boost to the North and established Grant's reputation as a military strategist. He went on to break the stalemate at Chattanooga, Tennessee, near the end of 1863 and emerged a hero.

The battles of the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House marked the first of Grant's tenure as commander in chief of the Union armies. In the spring of 1864, Congress revived the rank of Lieutenant General, created for George Washington, with Grant specifically in mind. The position gave Grant complete military control of the Union Army whether he was in Washington or the field. He decided to keep General William T. Sherman in charge of the Mississippi Department and came east to personally oversee the operations of George Meade's Army of the Potomac against Robert E. Lee's Army of Northern Virginia, Grant devised a comprehensive strategy of combined offensives by all the United States armies in the field to defeat the Confederates and bring a military end to the war. Grant accompanied Meade on the Overland Campaign through Virginia in May 1864. The campaign was designed to entice Lee into a decisive battle and take the Confederate capital at Richmond. In addition to the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House, the campaign produced the extremely bloody battles of North Anna, Totopotomov Creek, and Cold Harbor. Grant's reputation hung in the balance, and the end of the fighting seemed a distant hope after losing 49,000 men during the campaign. Grant regrouped and reformulated his strategy, moving his entire army south of the James River to attack the Confederate's central railroad hub at Petersburg. Grant orchestrated a 10-month siege of the city, which put constant pressure on Lee's dwindling army and ultimately led to a breakthrough of the Confederate lines on April 2, 1865. Lee abandoned Petersburg and Richmond and fled with his army westward in hopes of joining forces with other Confederate units and continuing the struggle. Grant, however, pursued Lee doggedly and within a week trapped him at Appomattox Court House, where he accepted the formal surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia (Calkins 2013).

Ambrose E. Burnside (1824–1881)

Ambrose Everett Burnside was born on May 23, 1824 in Liberty, Indiana. As a young man, he worked as a tailor until he entered the U.S. Military Academy at West Point in 1843. At first, he struggled with the strictness of the military academy and was nearly kicked out. However, he graduated 18th in his class of 38 in 1847 and began his military career as a brevet second lieutenant in the Second Artillery during the Mexican-American War (1846–1848). Following the war, he served garrison duty in the Southwest and was shot in the neck with an arrow while fighting the Apache. In 1852, while stationed at Fort Adams in Newport, Rhode Island, Burnside met and married Mary Richmond Bishop. The next year he resigned from the military and began manufacturing a breech-loading carbine rifle, which initially failed but gained widespread use during the Civil War (Civil War Trust 2014c; Marvel 2008).

At the outbreak of the Civil War, Burnside organized the First Rhode Island Infantry, one of the first units to arrive in Washington, DC, and offer the capital protection. During the First Battle of Bull Run at Manassas (July 21, 1861), Burnside commanded an infantry brigade and was subsequently appointed Brigadier General of Volunteers in August 1861. Later that year, Burnside was given command of the

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North Carolina Expeditionary Force, consisting of three brigades, and launched a successful attack on the North Carolina coast, gaining a foothold for the Federal army there. In March 1862, he was promoted to major general. After General George McClellan suffered a costly defeat at Antietam, Burnside was made commander of the Army of the Potomac on November 10, 1862. In December 1862, under Burnside's command, the Federal Army suffered a devastating defeat at Fredericksburg. In January 1863, Burnside launched an offensive on the Confederates in Northern Virginia, but his troops were bogged down by heavy rain that turned the roads into mud. This offensive failure became known as the "Mud March" and resulted in Burnside being relieved of his command, replaced by General Joseph Hooker (Civil War Trust 2014c).

Following his demotion, Burnside continued to serve in the Army of the Potomac and was given command of the Department of the Ohio in March 1863. That fall, Burnside led troops against Confederate forces under the direction of General James L. Longstreet for control of Knoxville, Tennessee. Burnside's troops held off Longstreet's men until William Sherman arrived with reinforcements and forced the Confederates to retreat. Subsequently, Burnside took command of the Eleventh Corps and participated in the Overland Campaign under the direction of General Ulysses S. Grant. After a major defeat at Petersburg, Burnside was placed on leave and eventually resigned from the military in April 1865 shortly after Robert E. Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House (Marvel 2008).

After the Civil War, Burnside went on to serve as director of several railways and the first president of the National Rifle Association in 1871. He served as Rhode Island's governor from 1866 to 1869 and U.S. senator from Rhode Island from 1874 to 1881. He died in 1881 at the age of 57 in Bristol, Rhode Island (Civil War Trust 2014c; Marvel 2008).

Joseph Hooker (1814-1879)

Joseph Hooker, the grandson of a Revolutionary War captain, was born in Hadley, Massachusetts, on November 13, 1814. He attended the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, graduating 29th in his class of 50 in 1837. Hooker began his military career in Florida during the Second Seminole War (1835-1842) as a staff officer under General Winfield Scott and future president Zachary Taylor, eventually rising to the rank of lieutenant colonel. In 1853, Hooker resigned from the army and struggled to make a living as a farmer and timber merchant in Sonoma, California, and turned to alcohol and gambling. In 1858, he unsuccessfully attempted to reenlist in the army (Civil War Trust 2014d; Schroeder 2009).

The outbreak of the Civil War offered Hooker a second chance in the army and, in 1861, he was commissioned as a brigadier general in the Army of the Potomac. During General George McClellan's 1862 Peninsula Campaign, Hooker proved his competence as a leader, earning a promotion to major general. In 1862, he led his men at the Battle of Fredericksburg under the direction of General Ambrose Burnside, where the Union Army suffered a devastating defeat that Hooker later blamed on Burnside's faulty tactics. Burnside tried unsuccessfully to have Hooker removed from command but was ultimately removed from his position instead. In 1863, President Lincoln named Hooker Commander of the Army of the Potomac in Burnside's place (Civil War Trust 2014d; Schroeder 2009).

Hooker greatly improved conditions for the soldiers, raising morale by improving food, medical care, and leave allowances, giving amnesty to deserters, and eliminating corruption among officers. Although Hooker was regarded as a competent leader, rumors circulated about him drinking on the job. His first major battle as commander was at Chancellorsville in 1863, which resulted in failure and led him to resign his command (Civil War Trust 2014d; Schroeder 2009).

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Hooker continued to fight in the Western Theater with the Army of Cumberland, winning battles at Chattanooga and Lookout Mountain in Tennessee, and in the 1864 Atlanta Campaign under the command of William Sherman. From the fall of 1864 until the end of the war, Hooker served as a departmental commander at headquarters in Cincinnati, Ohio. In September 1865, he married Olivia Groesbeck and retired from the military in 1868 due to his declining health. He died in 1879 in Garden City on Long Island, New York, at the age of 74 (Civil War Trust 2014d; Schroeder 2014).

George G. Meade (1815-1872)

George Gordon Meade was born December 31, 1815, in Cadiz, Spain, where his father served in the U.S. Navy. In 1828, following the death of his father, his family moved back to the United States, settling in Pennsylvania. Meade attended the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, graduating 19th in his class of 56 in 1835. He served in Massachusetts and Florida for a short time but had little desire to continue his career in the military and resigned from the Army in 1836. Meade pursued a career in civil engineering and worked for railroad companies and the War Department. In 1840, Meade married Margaretta Sergeant, daughter of politician John Sergeant. The couple had seven children over the course of their marriage (Civil War Trust 2014e; Rafuse 2014).

In 1842, Meade reenlisted as a junior officer in the Mexican-American War (1846–1848), after which he joined the Army Corps of Topographical Engineers, working on projects such as building lighthouses and surveying the Great Lakes. At the outset of the Civil War, Meade was appointed a brigadier general and served at the head of a regiment of the Pennsylvania Volunteers, gaining combat command experience under General George McClellan during the 1862 Peninsula Campaign. In December 1862, the Union suffered a disastrous defeat at Fredericksburg. However, Meade was recognized for leading one of the only units to successfully breach the Confederate line. As a result, he was promoted to major general and later commander of the Army of the Potomac, following General Joseph Hooker's defeat at Chancellorsville and subsequent removal from command in 1863 (Civil War Trust 2014e; Rafuse 2014).

The Battle of Gettysburg began just three days after Meade took command of the Army of the Potomac. The Confederate forces were defeated, but not without heavy casualties on both sides, resulting in heavy criticism from President Lincoln, the media, and Meade's own officers. Meade remained commander of the Army of the Potomac until the end of the war, but his authority was superseded when Ulysses S. Grant was appointed general" chief of all Union armies. Meade was largely unpopular in the media due to his harsh personality and quick temper, and his contributions toward the Union victory were often downplayed as a result (Civil War Trust 2014e; Rafuse 2014).

After the Civil War, Meade continued his career as the commanding officer of the Division of the Atlantic in Philadelphia. In 1868, he served as governor of the temporary government of Georgia, Alabama, and Florida during Reconstruction. He later became commissioner of the Fairmount Park Art Association in Philadelphia. Meade died of pneumonia in 1872 at the age of 56 (Civil War Trust 2014e; Rafuse 2014).

CRITERION C - ARCHITECTURE

Resources within the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District that possess national significance under Criterion C in the area of Architecture consist of the Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge, buildings that were constructed to provide facilities to operate and manage

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Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP after it was transferred to the National Park Service in 1933, and important examples of antebellum plantation, residential, and religious architecture.

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Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge, 1871-1872

The <u>Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge (LCS No. 007889, contributing building)</u> is significant as a relatively rare surviving example of a Second Empire-style lodge built to the standard designs of Brigadier General Montgomery C. Meigs, Quartermaster General of the U.S. Army from 1861 to 1882. It is one of 17 Meigs lodges that remain in Civil War-era national cemeteries and typifies public architecture from the immediate post-Civil War period. The buildings constructed by the National Park Service date from the 1930s and 1960s and reflect the prevailing Park Service design standards of those periods.

The Act to Establish and to Protect National Cemeteries, approved February 22, 1867, directed the Secretary of War to appoint superintendents at all of the national military cemeteries and provide them with adequate housing. In 1870–1871, Quartermaster General Meigs developed plans for three variations of a permanent superintendent's lodge: a one-story stone building with a shallow hipped roof, a two-story brick building with a slate mansard roof, and a two-story stone building with a slate mansard roof. He also produced standardized written specifications that provided construction details for each design. In addition to their almost-identical, elegant Second Empire exteriors, the lodges all displayed a standard L-shaped plan, with an office and living room joined by a dining room on the first floor and three rooms of approximate equal size on the second floor. The War Department funded the construction of at least 50 Meigs-designed lodges in 1871–1881. Lieutenant Colonel James M. Moore supervised the construction of lodges at most of the national cemeteries in the Virginia District, including those at Richmond and Cold Harbor in 1870, Seven Pines in 1874, and the Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge in 1871–1872 (Figure 41).

By the 1880s, the Office of the Quartermaster General began developing at least one updated plan for lodges to accommodate kitchens and additional living space. Starting in 1886, the War Department developed plans employing multiple architectural styles for the second (approximately 1880–1910) and third (approximately 1910–1950) generations of lodges. In several cemeteries, third-generation lodges built with indoor plumbing replaced an original, first-period Meigs-era lodge. The War Department also engaged in a series of standardized improvements to existing lodges from 1910 to 1940 that included the addition of bathrooms on the second floor and one-story kitchens at the rear. Since 1951, no new national cemetery lodges have been built (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:61; Cybularz 2012:28–35; Sammartino 1994:E-13–E-16).

Meigs' use of the French Second Empire style in his lodge designs reflected a conscious attempt to express the post-Civil War government's progressive and forward-looking outlook through its architecture. The style emerged in nineteenth-century Paris and became prominent in the United States, primarily in the northeastern and midwestern states, from about 1855 to 1885. Many public buildings constructed during President Grant's administration (1869–1877) employed the style precisely because of its modern associations. In imitating the most current architectural fashion in France rather than hearkening back to Classical or Renaissance periods, the Second Empire style stood in stark contrast to the more picturesque Gothic and Egyptian Revival styles popular in rural cemeteries prior to the Civil War, as well as to the Greek Revival aesthetic so commonly used in earlier public buildings. Although many of its architectural features overlap with the contemporaneous Italianate style, the principal characteristic of Second Empire buildings is the distinctive mansard roof. Other common elements include overhanging eaves, bold cornices, and multiple dormers (Cybularz 2012:28–35; McAlester 2013:317–330).

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The War Department constructed a one-story, flat-roof, sandstone cemetery superintendent's lodge at Fredericksburg in 1871. Two years later, the Department authorized the addition of a second story to the building. Jonathan C. Comfort served as contractor for the later work, and the addition completed in 1874 adhered to the 1871 Meigs drawings for a two-story stone lodge with a slate mansard roof. A similar modification was made to the lodges at Yorktown and Petersburg. Like most of the superintendent's lodges, the one at Fredericksburg is a prominent element located at the main entrance to the cemetery, inside the perimeter wall. The existing building clearly conveys Meigs' original design intent characterized by the straight-sloped mansard second story with gabled dormers and overhanging eaves, compact L-shaped massing of the original house, solid random-coursed stone walls, heavy dentil cornice, and rectangular six-over-six windows. The rear kitchen built in 1905 reflects a common alteration to Meigs' lodges built prior to indoor plumbing. However, its two-story mansard form differs from the standard designs prepared by the War Department for kitchen additions. Later alterations to the building included the construction of a cellar in 1929. The National Park Service enclosed the rear porch and created two rooms within the space at some time after 1940. Neither of these alterations obscures or diminishes the architectural integrity of the building as a whole. The lodge's original interior layout is retained on both floors, although the finishes have been altered (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:61-63; Pfanz 2007:107-112).

Montgomery C. Meigs (1816-1892)

Montgomery C. Meigs served as Quartermaster General of the U.S. Army from 1861 to 1882. Born in Georgia but raised in Philadelphia, Meigs graduated from the U.S. Military Academy at West Point in 1836 and served for a year in the artillery before transferring to the Army Corps of Engineers in July 1837. He subsequently participated in the construction of various fortifications, including Fort Delaware on the Delaware Bay, Fort Wayne on the Detroit River, and Fort Montgomery on Lake Champlain. From 1852 to 1860, Meigs supervised the construction of the Washington Aqueduct between Great Falls, Virginia and Washington, DC. He also oversaw the extension of the U.S. Capitol Building and the construction of its dome from 1853 to 1859 and the extension of the General Post Office Building from 1855 to 1859 (Sammartino 1994:E-3).

As head of the Quartermaster's Department during the Civil War, Meigs' responsibilities included transportation of Army troops and supplies by railroad, wagon, and ship. He had to ensure the maintenance of stocks in the general depots by anticipating the Army's needs. He also led the operations of the Military Telegraph Corps and provided for the interments of all soldiers who died in battle. In this capacity, General Meigs played a critical role in developing the grounds of Robert E. Lee's Arlington Mansion into a cemetery for the Union dead. After the war ended, Meigs continued to oversee large government construction projects, including the new War Department building constructed in 1866–1867, the National Museum (1876), the extension of the Washington Aqueduct (1876), and a hall of records (1878). He retired as Quartermaster General in February 1882 but was chosen to design and construct the Pension Building (now the National Building Museum) in Washington, DC, completed in 1887. Meigs died in 1891 of pneumonia and is buried at Arlington National Cemetery (Sammartino 1994:E-4).

National Park Service Buildings, 1935–1939

The <u>Fredericksburg Visitor Center</u>, <u>Fredericksburg Maintenance Building</u>, <u>Superintendent's Quarters</u>, and <u>Superintendent's Quarters Garage</u> are representative examples of Georgian Revival architecture from the early twentieth century and the work of architects in the National Park Service Branch of Plans and Design under Thomas C. Vint. The Park Service intentionally designed the buildings

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to harmonize with the surrounding environment of Fredericksburg, which contained antebellum plantation manors as well as a multitude of more recently constructed Colonial Revival-style residences. The Colonial Revival movement in America permeated numerous aspects of late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century society, including architecture. Fascination with the Georgian architecture of the Colonial Period led to the replication of houses in the style throughout the country, particularly in the South.

The design of visitor access, interpretive, administrative, and maintenance facilities at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP during the 1930s reflected many of the national trends used in National Park Service design and construction projects at the time. When the Park Service turned its attention to the development of the Eastern historical parks, it adapted the designs and planning practices developed for Western parks to a new setting. The agency's design approach evolved in the 1930s at the Eastern Division of the Branch of Plans and Design to incorporate the then-popular Colonial Revival-style architecture. The architects in the Eastern Division-under the supervision of Thomas Vint and Charles Peterson-designed administrative, maintenance, and residential facilities for numerous historic sites, recreational areas, and national military parks that not only met functional needs but also linked the sites to the natural landscape or existing development. They applied Park Service standardized planning principles and practices to each construction site. In many cases, the designs for major buildings employed architectural styles that evoked the historical era of the park's primary interpretive themes. At Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, Vint and his staff based their designs for the park's first museum and central administration building on late Georgian period architecture. Their choice reflected the antebellum and Civil War history of the sites within the park, as well as the architecture surrounding the building site near downtown Fredericksburg (Blythe et al. 1995:97; Zenzen 2011:79-80).

The extensive popularity of Georgian Revival architecture led to a wealth of information about the style. Historians and architects disseminated information through photographs and articles in the popular and scholarly publications. In 1898, American Architect and Building News began an extensive series titled "The Georgian Period," which was followed by the 1915 White Pine Series of Architectural Monographs. Fiske Kimball, the head of the architecture program at the University of Virginia, published Domestic Architecture of the American Colonies and Early Republic in 1922, and Thomas Tileston Waterman's Domestic Colonial Architecture of Tidewater Virginia appeared ten years later. Architectural journals filled their pages with images and drawings of seventeenth- and eighteenth-century American architecture. From the 1920s on, Architectural Record published a series titled Measured Drawings, Early American Architecture; Pencil Points created a monograph series called Records of American Architecture; and information about colonial architecture appeared in Architectural Forum's Interior section and Master Detail series and in American Architect's Brick Precedent and Portfolio series. Existing antebellum manor houses such as the 1838 Brompton estate at the north end of the Sunken Road and numerous Colonial Revival residences in the Fredericksburg area provided models for the Fredericksburg Visitor Center (Gebhard 1987:110–111; McAlester 2013:432; Wilson 2006:1).

The Fredericksburg Visitor Center presents a balanced, symmetrical facade, with two one-story wings on either side of the central two-story main block and regularly spaced windows on either side of the central entrance. Other characteristic features of the exterior include the pedimented gables with central oculi windows, steeply sloped roofs, and heavy dentiled cornices. The multi-paned double-hung windows have typical heavy muntins and heavy molded wood sills. The Park Service employed the same late Georgian style for the maintenance building behind the visitor center (1936) and the superintendent's residence and garage (1938–1939). All of the buildings are constructed of brick laid in a Flemish bond and feature steeply pitched roofs, gabled dormers, and symmetrical facades (Wells 1981). In keeping with local

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segregation policies at the time of its construction, the Visitor Center was designed with restrooms for white visitors in the basement, while restrooms for African American visitors were located in the maintenance building. It is not known when the restrooms were first integrated (Mink 2010b).

Chancellorsville Visitor Center, 1961-1963

The Chancellorsville Visitor Center is significant under Criterion C as a representative example of post-World War II Modern architecture as adopted by the Park Service for the approximately 100 visitor centers constructed as part of the Mission 66 Program. The building's character-defining features include red brick walls, floor-to-ceiling windows in the north elevation, and a low horizontal profile. The combination of these elements produced a building that sits lightly on the landscape, blending with its environment and unobtrusive to the historic battlefield it serves.

The National Park Service designed the Chancellorsville Visitor Center in 1961 and completed it in 1963, in time for the centennial of the 1863 Battle of Chancellorsville. It is an example of what Sarah Allaback, author of the definitive study on Mission 66 visitor centers, has identified as "Park Service Modern" to identify and describe visitor centers designed and built during the Park Service Mission 66 Program. These visitor centers were a response to the social, demographic, and economic conditions of the post-World War II era in which the Park Service needed to provide larger, more efficient amenities for American families with the time and money for vacations. The designs combined the functional requirements necessitated by increased visitation with the functional aspects of Modern architecture and construction techniques, including "free plans" that overlap or partially divide function spaces, flat or gently sloping roofs, and large curtain walls that provide openness and a connection to the surrounding landscape. Standardized and efficient means of construction, such as inexpensive building materials and prefabricated components, were also utilized. Another important aspect of Modern architecture employed in these designs is the large and atypical fenestration patterns that often provide sweeping and dramatic views of scenic and historic areas (Allaback 2000:270–271).

The Mission 66 visitor center served as a centralized facility within individual parks and typically housed multiple functions, including interpretive exhibits, theaters, information desks, administrative offices, and restrooms, in a single building. The sites chosen for visitor centers were often at park entrances or on roads near major destinations in the park. A parking lot usually accompanied the building and allowed visitors to leave their car in one location, gather information and maps, and explore the park. Long, winding ramps and paths were utilized instead of stairs to maintain the continuous movement of visitors around the building. A visitor center's location and the variety of services it offered made it the focal point for introducing the park to visitors. Park Service Modern architecture created the standardized appearance of visitor facilities of the centralized Mission 66 planning program and reinforced the strong sense of a national park system. Despite initial criticism, the Park Service Modern style became as influential as the Park Service Rustic style that was developed for the natural parks of the West in the 1920s (Allaback 2000:272–273).

In keeping with the tenets of Modern architecture, the visitor centers were designed as low-scale, linear buildings in colors and tones harmonious with the surrounding landscape. The exterior was often devoid of decorative or associative design elements and was clad in textured concrete with panels of stone veneer or locally available materials. Roofs were mostly flat or slightly pitched with projecting overhangs. Covered terraces and walkways, sometimes near large window walls, added to the permeability of the buildings and the visitor experience. Simple narrow columns, often of painted steel, supported projecting overhangs and defined terrace spaces (Allaback 2000:272–273).

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The interiors of the visitor centers reflected a shift in National Park Service priority from "education" to interpretation" that occurred in the late 1940s. The arrangement of interior spaces was intended to allow for a rapid and efficient dissemination of practical information for the park visitor. The movement of a visitor through the space was a crucial aspect of their design. Wide entrances, shallow-grade ramps and inclined planes, large open lobbies, and easy passages through the exhibit areas were common features. Interior spaces included theaters for slide shows and 16-mm films and areas for the interpretive displays that replaced or complemented the exhibit cases found in older park museums. Other essential features were a central "information desk" and significant views of natural features and/or historic sites to allow for interpretive talks (Allaback 2000:269).

The final construction of the Chancellorsville Visitor Center in 1962 incorporated many aspects of Mission 66-era architecture. Robert E. Smith, a National Park Service architect at the Eastern Office of Design and Construction, is credited with designing the building, which received an American Institute of Architects (AIA) National Honor Award in 1963. Located on the north side of Virginia Route 3, the Chancellorsville Visitor Center is easily visible and accessible from the highly trafficked state highway. It serves as the primary visitor contact and orientation point for the three park battlefields outside Fredericksburg. The adjacent parking lot and picnic area are connected to the main entrance via a short path.

When first built, the Chancellorsville Visitor Center's angular modernist form stood in stark contrast to the Georgian Revival architecture of the Fredericksburg Visitor Center, but as the trees around the building matured, it became less obtrusive. The building's low, horizontal profile and traditional red brick exterior blend in with the surrounding landscape, which predominantly consists of secondary-growth forest. The cantilevered roof extends over the brick and concrete patio at the front, and large windows in the north elevation provide views toward Bullock Road and the dense trees surrounding lines of earthworks. These architectural elements create a sense of fluidity between the interior and exterior spaces, a fundamental characteristic of Modern design. A rubberized mulch path around the building guides visitors through the story of Stonewall Jackson's mortal wounding, which occurred at site of the visitor center (Allaback 2000:32).

The Visitor Center's plan is an example of the National Park Service's effort to clarify services in their facilities and circulation between them. Unlike earlier examples built under the Mission 66 program, the later visitor centers were constructed with an entry lobby and distinct wings to house the different functions contained in the building. At Chancellorsville, the lobby connects a large auditorium surrounded by a U-shaped exhibit area with a smaller service area housing restrooms and park offices. Unlike the Fredericksburg Visitor Center, the Chancellorsville Visitor Center did not have segregated restrooms when constructed. Curatorial and storage space are on the basement level. The Park Service removed one of the park offices to expand the bookstore space ca. 1995 and enlarged the restrooms to improve accessibility ca. 2010. The overall spatial arrangement of the interior remains intact, with a central information desk, straightforward circulation through the exhibits, and clearly defined functional spaces (Allaback 2000:32).

Chatham

Chatham is a relatively intact representation of the domestic core of an antebellum Virginia plantation, including the manor house and major dependencies, with additional representative buildings and structures from the later years of the Country Place Era (ca. 1870–1930). Situated on a high bluff

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overlooking the Rappahannock River, Chatham was the last major plantation along the river before the fall line, where the geography changes from flat plains to undulating hills. The extant buildings and structures at Chatham are clustered around the restored 1920s walled garden, likely the site of a work yard in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

Early plantation architecture typically consisted of a monumental main house with detached dependencies, including service areas. Later plantations, built after ca. 1770, had a dwelling house with service wings and connecting passages that visually presented a cohesive whole. Domestic buildings (including quarters for slaves who worked in the house) were sited near the main house, the center of plantation life, while agricultural and auxiliary dwellings (such as additional slave quarters) were built farther from the domestic core. Chatham, established 1768–1771, straddles these two typical plantation architectures, with an integrated main house and the separation of service spaces. The main house, Chatham Manor, is architecturally significant as a Georgian-style mansion constructed during the early Federal period. The imposing brick building retains its exterior configuration of a large, rectangular main block and two wings connected to the main block by brick hyphens. Greek Revival porches, visible in Civil War-era photos, were added to the east and west elevations ca. 1820–1830 (Figure 42).

Architect Oliver H. Clarke (ca. 1884–1948) designed substantial alterations to the house in 1921. Clarke studied under Washington, DC, architect Waddy B. Wood and joined the Office of the Supervising Architect (no longer in existence) in 1905. He spent much of his career as a civil servant in Washington, DC, designing embassies, consulates, post offices, and other public buildings. After 1910, he went into private practice and specialized in residential colonial architecture. Clarke vacillated between private practice and government employment over the course of his career, ultimately retiring from government work just three years before his death in 1948 (Washington Post 1948).

Along with a series of modernizing updates to the interior, Clarke removed the two-story Greek Revival porch from the west elevation of the main house, the scars of which are still visible (Figure 43), and added Colonial Revival limestone door surrounds and stepped entry porches. The renovations also included the replacement of the original roof shingles (likely wood) with slate. The Chatham Kitchen (LCS No. 007872, contributing building) and Chatham Laundry (LCS No. 007874, contributing building) are adjacent to the house but not connected to it, as is commonly seen on early eighteenth-century plantations. The two brick dependencies are sited perpendicularly to the main house, visually indicating their importance in the domestic hierarchy as viewed from the entrance drive. Both buildings were constructed in a style similar to the main house, but with much more modest ornamentation befitting their function as service buildings (National Park Service 1984:6–7, 9, 24; Upton 1982:102).

An 1805 survey of the Chatham plantation owned by William Fitzhugh reflected typical large-scale southern agricultural operations. The property contained numerous other outbuildings, including slave quarters and an overseer's house, livestock barns, a smoke house (Smoke House Foundation | ASMIS No. FRSP00091.001, historic associated feature|), an icehouse, and a carriage house and stable, none of which remain on the site. However, extant buildings and structures that date to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries demonstrate the continuum of agricultural work on the property. The 1890–1900 Chatham Dairy Barn (LCS No. 080076, contributing building) and 1900–1905 Chatham Milk House (LCS No. 007879, contributing building) indicate the raising of dairy cows (Figure 44). The addition of two Chatham Fire Hydrants (LCS No. 082053, historic associated features) near the service yard gate

³⁴ The actual location of the slave quarters at Chatham is unknown. See the discussion under Criterion D for more information on possible locations.

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and the Laundry on the west terraces between 1900 and 1905 reflect the gradual modernization of fire suppression methods. The <u>Chatham Caretaker's Cottage (LCS No. 080077, ASMIS No. FRSP00009.014, contributing building)</u>, built some time between 1900 and 1930 in a typical Colonial Revival style and later altered, provided accommodations for a tenant farmer. The <u>Chatham Caretaker's Cottage Walk (historic associated feature)</u> and <u>Chatham Caretaker's Cottage Drive (historic associated feature)</u> are associated with the construction of the house. Agricultural activities continued at Chatham through at least the 1940s, when the <u>Chatham Corn Crib (LCS No. 007878, contributing structure)</u> was built (NPS 1982:5-7; Rutz 2006:16-18, 35, 40).

New York landscape architect Ellen Biddle Shipman redesigned the Chatham grounds in 1921, including many of the buildings added to the property as part of her overall landscaping plan (see Criterion C – Landscape Architecture for further discussion of the Chatham landscape). The Chatham Farm Office and Garage (LCS No. 007873, contributing building) appears to correspond to "Outbuilding 3" in the Shipman plans and photos from the 1920s. The brick dovecote off the east end of the garage was a characteristic feature of Shipman gardens and matches those constructed by Shipman for other clients, although it does not appear on her plans for Chatham (Figure 45). Other utilitarian additions to the site at that time were the Chatham Carriage House, Stable, and Boathouse (LCS No. 007877, contributing building), the Chatham Well House (LCS No. 082051, contributing building), the Chatham Septic Tank (LCS No. 082052, contributing structure), the Picket Fences (historic associated feature), and the Chatham Gas Pump (LCS No. 082050, contributing object) (Rutz 2006:33-34).

Ellwood

The <u>Ellwood Plantation</u> at the eastern edge of the Wilderness Battlefield is another representative example of an antebellum Virginia plantation. In 1845, Ellwood encompassed nearly 5,000 acres and multiple outbuildings: slave quarters, a detached kitchen, equipment sheds and garages, barns for different livestock, and assorted poultry-related buildings such as brooder and laying houses. Three outbuildings, all of which date to the early twentieth century, are extant: the <u>Ellwood Farm Office (LCS No. 082111, non-contributing building)</u>, the <u>Ellwood Garage (non-contributing building)</u>, and the <u>Ellwood Equipment Shelter (non-contributing building)</u>. The remainder of the outbuildings are no longer extant, either through demolition or decay over time. The plantation, and the manor house, was originally oriented to the east, facing the <u>Ellwood Entrance Road Trace (contributing structure)</u>, but is currently accessed by the <u>Ellwood Barnyard Road (LCS No. 082110, CLI Nos. 153657, 153661, contributing structure)</u>, which runs west from behind the house, through the historic barnyard area (Lanier and Herman 1997:225; National Park Service 1980:12; Rockwell Archaeology 1978:58, 67).

Ellwood, constructed ca. 1781–1799 on a small ridge overlooking present-day farmland, is significant as an example of a late eighteenth-century, timber-framed, Federal plantation house in Virginia. William Jones, the plantation's first owner, may have designed the house and incorporated various elements of common architectural styles in Virginia. The rectangular massing of the main block and west wing, the pedimented front porch, and the bracketed cornice are all typical of Federal-period residential architecture. The symmetrically placed windows, nine-over-six in the first story and six-over-six in the second, have relatively simple surrounds characteristic of the Federal style. The north end of the main house, including the chimney, was rebuilt after it collapsed in the late nineteenth century, resulting in the building's asymmetric end chimneys. The north and south ells on the west wing date to the early twentieth century. The Park Service restored the exterior of the house over two decades, with assistance from the Friends of Wilderness Battlefield, and opened it to the public in 1998 (National Park Service 1980:33–34; OCLP 2011a:5; Rockwell Archaeology 1978:58, 67).

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Innis House

The Innis (Ennis) House, constructed in 1859–1861, is architecturally significant as a restrained example of a Carpenter Gothic cottage with characteristic decorative bargeboard (Figure 46). The relatively flat pitch of the roof, in comparison to typical Gothic Revival-style construction, is a common variant found in central Virginia, where a muted version of the style often appeared. Historical photographs indicate that multiple small houses, including the Martha Stevens house and the Ebert house, lined the east side of the Sunken Road during the nineteenth century and, similar to the Innis House, most were relatively modest frame buildings with little ornamentation. Grander houses such as Brompton (outside the District boundary) sat above the Sunken Road along Marye's Heights on Willis Hill. The National Park Service acquired the Innis House in 1969 and subsequently removed a non-historic shed addition, non-historic porch, and clapboard siding before opening it to the public in the summer of 1987 (Glassie 1975:158,160; OCLP 2011b:40–41).

Salem Church

Salem Church is significant under Criterion C as an outstanding example of mid-nineteenth-century, Virginia Baptist church architecture. The late Federal-style brick church was constructed in 1844 to serve a growing population in west Fredericksburg that split off from the Massaponax Church in south Fredericksburg. Many Baptist churches built during the mid-nineteenth century were constructed of brick, with simple, open, rectangular plans. The new church buildings either replaced earlier wood-frame churches or housed new congregations as the Baptist faith gained a foothold in Virginia after a period of general intolerance by the Anglican Church that ended during the American Revolution, The use of brick signified the rising economic status of the Baptists following the end of persecution by the Anglicans. The building typifies the mid-nineteenth-century austerity of Baptist churches (along with those built for Mennonite and Quaker denominations), with little ornamentation and a simple plan. These midnineteenth-century churches represented a shift in ecclesiastical architecture, where the interior arrangement of the churches had shifted from a meetinghouse style plan with a pulpit centered along one long wall, to one where the pulpit was at one end of the building, which was demonstrated in the reorientation of the main entrance to a gable-end wall from one of the longer walls. In the case of Salem Church, and likely others where slavery existed, enslaved African American persons were required to use only the entrances on the eave-walls, while whites entered through the main entrances, one for men and one for women, facing Salem Church Road Trace on the west. Enslaved people were relegated to the balconies above the main floor, accessibly only through a door in the west end of the south elevation, while white worshippers sat in pews on the ground level. Many churches from this period have been altered with the addition of kitchens and halls, or other alterations, but the Salem Church building remains relatively unchanged, and thus a significant example of mid-nineteenth-century architecture (Happel 1966:5-6, 8; Happel 1968: vii-viii, ; Lounsbury 2006:8, 12; Traceries 1996:103).

CRITERION C - LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTURE

Fredericksburg National Cemetery, the Chatham Designed Landscape (contributing site) and Chatham Walled Garden (contributing site), and the designed landscape layers that the U.S. War Department and National Park Service superimposed on the battlefields of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP from 1930 to 1942 are significant under Criterion C in the area of Landscape Architecture.

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Fredericksburg National Cemetery

Fredericksburg National Cemetery is a designed landscape that manifests the characteristics defined for national cemeteries established during and immediately after the Civil War. The cemetery was developed through the early 1870s according to design guidelines issued by the U.S. Army's Quartermaster Department for the National Cemetery System. It meets the registration requirements outlined in the Civil War Era National Cemeteries Multiple Property Documentation Form for cemeteries eligible under Criterion C for their landscape design by retaining many of its original design elements, including the original perimeter wall, entrance gates, roadway, Civil War headstones, and superintendent's lodge (Sammartino 1994).

The legislation associated with the establishment of national cemeteries following the Civil War mandated several aspects of each site's design, such as the inclusion of a permanent superintendent's lodge, a stone or iron enclosure, and appropriate durable grave markers. However, military personnel, often the superintendent, associated with the individual cemeteries, determined the particular layout of each site. Common design elements that drew upon precedents from small vernacular graveyards to picturesque rural cemeteries united the diverse plans. Traditional early nineteenth-century cemeteries, including those established by the Army at frontier posts before the Civil War, generally consisted of simple upright wooden headboards set in rows, enclosed with a wall or fence, and surrounded by little or no landscaping. Beginning in the 1830s, larger rural cemeteries developed on the model of Mount Auburn Cemetery, established in 1831 in Cambridge, Massachusetts, which featured picturesque garden landscapes set in suburban areas with curvilinear carriage roads and pathways suitable for recreational use and elaborate monuments in place of the traditional headstones. A popular variant of the park-like landscape employed broad open lawns dotted with monuments and trees. Many of the designs for the first national cemeteries, such as Antietam established in 1865, also traced their stylistic origin more directly to Gettysburg National Cemetery, designed in 1863 by landscape gardener William Saunders of the U.S. Department of Agriculture and incorporated into the National Cemetery System in 1872. Saunders' stark geometric arrangement of the burial plots at Gettysburg in concentric half circles facing a central monument contrasted with the rural cemetery's overall informal, picturesque landscape composed of winding approach drives, sweeping lawns, and naturalistic plantings (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:38-40).

Lieutenant Colonel James M. Moore supervised the post-Civil War reburial program in Virginia and likely influenced, if not specified, the overall designs for most of the sites under his jurisdiction. The War Department plans for Fredericksburg National Cemetery (Figure 47) and other national cemeteries in the Virginia District share characteristics with both the Gettysburg model and earlier Army post cemeteries. Although none possesses an expansive picturesque landscape setting as at Gettysburg, most feature variations on a circular plan or a square or rectangular grid and central focal points combined with straight rows of simple headboards; like those at Alexandria National Cemetery, also established in 1863. The design of the cemetery at Fredericksburg follows this pattern but responds to the hillside site's distinctive topography, characterized by a reasonably level plateau with gentle undulations that falls sharply away to the south and east. The graves, originally marked with simple white-painted pine headboards, are arranged in a grid of parallel rows around a central flagstaff on the plateau and in single parallel rows along multiple terraces cut into the eastern slope (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:40–42; Pfanz 2007:91).

In addition to providing circulation routes through the cemetery, the <u>Fredericksburg National Cemetery</u> Roads (LCS No. 081993, contributing structure) add structure to the landscape and remain defining elements of the site design. The main carriage drive forms a central axis up the terraced eastern slope that

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splits into two curving branches and then encircles the plateau along the inside of the perimeter wall. A series of perpendicular avenues and two steep roads along the north and south edges of the terraces delineate the burial sections. When originally constructed in 1866–1870, the roads had gravel surfaces and brick gutters. The Army changed the roads to turf in 1878–1880, primarily to address maintenance concerns; by 1882, all but one brick gutter (later also removed) had been removed. The resulting effect is that the roads are largely unobtrusive but functionally important to the spatial arrangement of the cemetery. Small incongruous portions of the main carriage drive are currently surfaced in brick and concrete. Additional circulation elements that remain on their original alignments include the two sets of 1875 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Steps (LCS No. 081995, historic associated feature) through the south terraces and the 1866–1870 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge Walks (LCS No. 082012, historic associated feature) that connect the main carriage drive to the superintendent's lodge. The construction of the 1889 Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge Driveway (LCS No. 081996, contributing structure) to facilitate access to the maintenance area behind the lodge required

the relocation of interments from the terrace adjacent to the lodge to the next two higher terraces (Pfanz

The original cemetery design incorporated a circular flagstaff mound, 6' to 8' tall and 15' wide, at the intersection of two avenues near the center of the plateau. By October 1867, a 125'-tall wood flagstaff stood in this location, surrounded by a low octagonal picket fence and accessed by seven steps on the eastern side of the mound. The four **Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gun Monuments (historic associated feature)**, a standard feature in Virginia's national cemeteries, remain in their original ca. 1868 locations about 30' from each corner of the original flagstaff mound, which is now the site of the Humphrey's Division Monument. After the original flagstaff blew down in an 1873 storm, the War Department replaced it twice before erecting the current **Fredericksburg National Cemetery Flagpole** (contributing object) in 1905 in a new location just north of the point where the main carriage drive crests the hill. The flagstaff remains a principal organizing feature of the cemetery landscape and represents a significant character-defining feature of the site, as does the 20'-tall monument erected in 1908 in the original flagstaff's place (Pfanz 2007:132–139).

In addition to the provision related to superintendents and their housing, the 1867 Act to Establish and to Protect National Cemeteries included stipulations for enclosing every national cemetery with a substantial stone or iron fence and marking each grave with a small headstone or block. These improvements were generally not implemented at most cemeteries until the 1870s, after the initial battlefield recovery and burial work was complete. Quartermaster General Meigs filed plans on August 12, 1870, for a prototype flat-top stone wall approximately 5' tall with dividing pilasters and coping stones. By 1875, walls of stone or brick had been added at all Virginia national cemeteries, along with iron gates for the main entrances. At 4' tall and of brick construction the **Fredericksburg National Cemetery Gates and Wall (LCS No. 007888, contributing structure)**, built in 1873–1874, varied slightly from the Meigs prototype. The central vehicular gate flanked by smaller pedestrian gates matches that at other large cemeteries such as Richmond and Poplar Grove. The opening in the north wall for a double gate is an 1882–1883 alteration (Pfanz 2007:83–90).

On March 3, 1873, Congress appropriated \$1 million for the erection of "durable" stones at each grave in the national cemeteries. The Secretary of War drew up specifications for two types of stones: a small upright headstone for graves of known soldiers and a low square post for graves of the unknown. The upright headstones were consistent with the traditional uniformity of the wooden military headboards. They were to be polished white marble or granite with curved tops and an inscription of raised letters inside a recessed shield indicating the name (if known), state regiment, and grave number. Each stone was

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to measure 10" wide by 4" thick and be installed with 12" above the ground and 24" below. The 6"-square white marble posts, a new type of grave marker in military cemeteries, included only the grave number inscribed on the top surface and another number noting the number of interments if more than one. These were to be installed with only 4" above ground (Sammartino 1994:E-16).

In December 1873, the government awarded Captain Samuel G. Bridges the contract to install new Vermont marble markers with sand-blasted inscriptions at all national cemeteries, except for Fredericksburg. The Fredericksburg National Cemetery Grave Markers (LCS No. 082029, historic associated feature) are unique in that they are made of unpolished granite with incised inscriptions and no shields on the upright headstones. Edward P. Doherty, a former cavalry officer, initially received the contract to install the granite markers at Fredericksburg when his bid fell within the government's appropriation. Although granite is more durable than marble, it is also harder, heavier, and, consequently, more expensive. Doherty obtained the granite from Westham Quarry on the south bank of the James River approximately 7 miles west of Richmond. Delays at the quarry and issues with the government inspector assigned to the project ultimately resulted in Doherty losing the contract and the War Department arranging directly with Westham Quarry to complete the work at Fredericksburg. Although the new headstones continued the same white tablet form present on the landscape, the substitution of blocks for the headstones at the graves of the unknown-more than 80 percent of all grave markerschanged the uniformity of the plan. The new stones made clearly visible the enormous number of soldiers who died on the battlefield without proper identification and registration. Fredericksburg National Cemetery also contains approximately 18 privately funded headstones that identify graves dating to the nineteenth century: two for soldiers who died in the Civil War, the rest for local veterans who died after the war (Huets 2013; Pfanz 2007:96-97).

The War Department appropriation of 1870 provided funds for planting trees and shrubs in each of the 73 national cemeteries. In July 1870, Meigs contacted the noted landscape architect Frederick Law Olmsted Sr., best known for his design of Central Park in New York City, for professional advice on the plantings. Olmsted recommended avoiding the ornamental gardening then popular in Victorian landscapes in favor of plantings that emphasized the desired overall landscape effect of "permanent dignity and tranquility... a sacred grove, sacredness (and protection) being expressed in the enclosing wall and in the perfect tranquility of the trees within" (quoted in Department of Veterans Affairs 2014:5). Many of the national cemeteries, including Fredericksburg, adopted Olmsted's general guidelines and created informal and simple grove arrangements of specimen trees within the walls. However, the War Department's beautification programs also included scattered ornamental flowerbeds and clipped shrubs. Plantings at Fredericksburg during the 1870s and early 1880s included deciduous trees (such as elms, maples, silver poplars, chestnuts, and ashes) and evergreens (mostly hemlocks, pines, cedars, and spruce) arranged along the inside of the perimeter wall, around the edges of burial sections, and bordering the terrace steps, Small clusters of trees and shrubs, mostly pines or cedars, were planted inside each burial section and in the grassy triangle at the carriage drive fork. Boxwood hedges of varying heights bordered the lodge walks and porch (Auwaerter and Curry 2009;58-59; Department of Veterans Affairs 2014;5; Pfanz 2007;153-155).

By 1875, the War Department completed its program of major improvements for Fredericksburg National Cemetery. The landscape remained much the same during the next 50 years. The War Department installed the six **Bivouac of The Dead Tablets (LCS No. 082030, contributing object)** along the edge of the plateau ca. 1882, when it formalized a practice that began soon after the Civil War at military cemeteries throughout the country. The small cast iron tablets, fabricated at the Rock Island Arsenal in Illinois, each contain lines from the memorial poem "Bivouac of the Dead" by Theodore O'Hara. Written

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in 1850 to honor soldiers of the Second Kentucky Regiment who died in the Mexican-American War battle of Buena Vista, the poem first appeared in print in an 1858 Mobile, Alabama, newspaper and was subsequently reproduced across the country. As Americans in the North and the South faced the devastating effects of the Civil War, some placed crudely fabricated versions of the poem informally to honor the memory of the fallen. Although O'Hara fought during the Civil War on the side of the Confederacy, both Union and Confederate cemeteries bore the words of his elegy to fallen soldiers. Quartermaster General Meigs may have ordered the use of the verse on the McClellan Gate at Arlington and at other national cemeteries (Pfanz 2007:144).

A larger addition to the landscape at Fredericksburg National Cemetery was the construction of a castand wrought-iron rostrum in 1888 near a copse of trees at the southern end of the cemetery (a site
originally set aside for a proposed Soldiers Monument that was never built). Similar rostrums were added
ca. 1890 to many national cemeteries in a systematic way in tandem with the growing popularity of
Decoration Day ceremonies and the commemoration of the 25th anniversary of the end of the Civil War.
The rostrum was a standard design that matched those at Petersburg, Richmond, and Yorktown National
Cemeteries, among others. No information is available on the manufacturer or builder. The Yorktown
rostrum is gone, and only the base of the Richmond rostrum is extant. The Fredericksburg rostrum stood
until at least 1927 but was removed at some later date (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:78, 94; Olsen 1954:62;
Pfanz 2007:152; Sammartino 1994).

Veterans groups and Northern states also marked the war's 25th anniversary by erecting monuments to the dead in several cemeteries such as those at Culpeper, Cold Harbor, Winchester, Gettysburg, and Antietam. Fredericksburg National Cemetery acquired the Moesch Monument that year at the gravesite of Colonel Joseph A. Moesch, commander of a regiment of the 83rd New York Volunteers. Three additional monuments were erected within the cemetery in subsequent years: the V Corps, Army of the Potomac Monument (1900–1901); the 127th Pennsylvania Monument (1906); and the Humphrey's Division Monument (1908). Other changes to the landscape in the early part of the twentieth century consisted of the relocation of the central flagstaff in 1905 (discussed previously) and the installation of two metal hitching posts near the cemetery entrance in 1907, of which only one, the Fredericksburg National Cemetery Hitching Post (LCS No. 081997, historic associated feature), remains. Many of the plantings within the cemetery died in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; by 1934, only 197 trees remained—less than 20 percent of those alive in 1894.

Few major changes have been made to the Fredericksburg National Cemetery landscape since the National Park Service acquired it in 1933, aside from the construction of a maintenance garage/equipment shed in 1961 on the site of an earlier brick outbuilding and the installation of a small commemorative marker to Parker's Battery in 1973 near the former site of the rostrum. The cemetery retains its overall historic physical form and conveys its significance as a component of the National Cemetery System as initially developed during the post-Civil War period through the early twentieth century. Today, Fredericksburg National Cemetery continues to embody the important and commonly recognized landscape design of Civil War-era cemeteries (Auwaerter and Curry 2009:77–78; Pfanz 2007:145–153, 245).

Chatham Designed Landscape and Chatham Walled Garden, 1922-1927

³⁵ The monuments within the Fredericksburg National Cemetery are discussed in Criterion A - Other: Commemoration.

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The Chatham Designed Landscape (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.000, contributing site) and the Chatham Walled Garden (contributing site) are significant examples of the work of landscape architect Ellen Biddle Shipman designed near the end of the Country Place era (ca. 1870–1930). The design Shipman produced for Chatham's owners, Daniel and Helen Devore, reflected national shifts in landscape architecture related to the prevailing influence of the Arts and Crafts and Neoclassical movements of the early twentieth century. Alterations to the Walled Garden beginning in the 1950s removed many of Shipman's distinctive design elements, but the National Park Service restored the garden to its 1927 appearance in the mid-1980s. The grounds continue to illustrate the evolution of landscape design during the Country Place Era and provide valuable examples of the styles and techniques that characterized this period of American history (Olausen et al. 2014).

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Landscapes of the Country Place Era (ca. 1870-1930)

In the early years of the Country Place Era, landscape design was based in large part on the eighteenth-century tradition of English landscape gardening developed for country estates by designers such as Capability Brown and Humphrey Repton. While earlier landscape design focused on strict geometry and enclosed spaces adjoining a house, the English, or Natural, style as it was known embodied a romantic, idealized countryside represented by beautiful sweeping lawns, curving drives, and clumps of trees. The American landscape gardener Andrew Jackson Downing initially popularized the Natural style of landscape gardening in the United States through his 1841 publication A Treatise on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening, Adapted to North America; with a View to the Improvement of Country Residences. Open, naturalistic, and romantic gardens with views of the surrounding countryside appealed to an increasingly industrialized and urbanized population preoccupied with a pastoral ideal. Olmsted and Vaux's Central Park in New York City, one of the pre-eminent mid-nineteenth century examples of American landscape design, combined both beautiful and sublime characteristics (Olausen et al. 2014).

Although there was substantial stylistic diversity in American landscape designs of the Country Place Era, styles based on ancient classical precedents dominated during the later years. Largely introduced to the American public at the 1893-1894 World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago, the Classical Revival style was characterized by symmetry, formality, white surfaces, and classical order and decorative details. At the same time. American landscape architecture, from large-scale city planning down to country place garden design, was infused with a preference for formal Italian Renaissance-inspired gardens. The artist, architect, and landscape architect Charles A. Platt's popular 1894 work Italian Gardens documented sixteenth- and seventeenth-century gardens of the Renaissance. The first monograph of the subject in English, Platt's book proved to be a watershed in the theory and design of American gardens, spurring interest in neoclassical landscape design. Many owners of country place gardens updated earlier naturalistic landscapes with an overlay of neoclassical-style gardens near the house, but not necessarily connected to it, or integrated into the larger landscape. These neoclassical gardens formed a type of outdoor room and generally incorporated the following features: (1) definite proportions of 7 or 8 to 5; (2) a change in grade formed by geometric terraces; (3) structure along a major axis; (4) a minor cross axis; (5) visual reinforcement of the axes through paving, walls, and plantings; and (6) a terminus to each axis, either through a piece of art, specimen planting, built feature, or a distant view. The older Natural style remained a favored design for informal landscapes situated away from the house, reflecting the continued interest in creating an idealized rural setting (Olausen et al. 2014).

Following the Civil War, gardening became a socially acceptable activity for women of wealthy families and an especially useful one for those who summered at country places. Many books on gardening were published and most were written by women. By the early twentieth century, numerous women's garden clubs and societies gave women a public voice in civic horticulture and beautification efforts. These experiences also provided women opportunities in landscape architecture, which developed into a formal profession between the Civil War and the early twentieth century. The 11 founding members of the American Society of Landscape Architects, established in 1899, included one woman, Beatrix Farrand. Other female landscape architects practicing at the turn of the century included Martha Brookes (née Brown) Hutcheson and Ellen Biddle Shipman, who worked for the Devores in altering the grounds of their Fredericksburg estate (Olausen et al. 2014).

The design of country places continued to supply much of the work for professional landscape architects through the end of the prosperous 1920s. The financial panic of 1929 and the ensuing Great Depression,

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however, meant the end of large-scale estate building in the United States. Many country place landscapes declined in subsequent years, especially during World War II, and landscape architects increasingly turned to the public sector for work. Country Place Era landscapes represent a unique period in the history of landscape design, when landscape architects had ample opportunities for study, experimentation, and creativity that directly influenced the trajectory of the profession (Olausen et al. 2014).

Landscape Design at Chatham

The Chatham Designed Landscape retains evidence of alterations made by the plantation's original owner, William Fitzhugh, in the late eighteenth century, but primarily reflects the alterations and improvements made in the early twentieth century for Daniel and Helen Devore. The 85-acre site encompasses the domestic core—the manor house, kitchen, and laundry—and the west terraces of the plantation established by Fitzhugh on the east bank of the Rappahannock River in 1768–1771. The overall Chatham estate encompassed approximately 700 acres when William Fitzhugh inherited it as part of a larger group of properties in 1768 and expanded to 1,288 acres during the Jones tenure (1806–1857), before contracting to approximately 708 acres by the beginning of the Lacy ownership (1857–1872). The site retains vestiges of many aspects of the historic plantation, including agricultural fields cultivated by slaves and tenant farmers along the northeast, north, and northwest sides of the site; ravines to the north and south of the domestic core; and woodlots, an orchard, and terraces along the west slope down to the Rappahannock River. Smaller landscape features from later occupations, including the Devores and the Pratts, remain extant and contribute to the overall understanding of the use of the estate (Rutz 2006: 15).

The Chatham System of Roads (contributing structure) comprises the primary circulation system throughout the estate. It includes many early roads either laid out by Fitzhugh or pre-existing on the property when he acquired it: the entrance to the manor house via the Chatham Carriage Drive (LCS No. 082039, historic associated feature); Chatham Lane (LCS No. 082035, historic associated feature), possibly an existing access road used as another entrance to the estate; and the Chatham Farm Lane (LCS No. 082046, historic associated feature) and Chatham Farm Road Trace (historic associated feature) used by Fitzhugh and his slaves and employees to reach the various agricultural fields. Shipman improved the Carriage Drive as part of her overall landscaping plan and added the Chatham Entrance Gate (LCS No. 082043, contributing structure) at the River Road end and the Chatham Carriage Drive Culverts (LCS No. 082040, historic associated feature) and Chatham Carriage Drive Retaining Wall (LCS No. 082042, historic associated feature) along the length of the drive. She also added the Chatham Carriage Drive Spur (LCS No. 082041, historic associated feature) from the Carriage Drive across the west terraces to the Chatham Service Drive Gates (contributing structure), dividing the west terraces from a new service yard, and the Chatham Service Drive (historic associated feature) through the service yard.

On the west side of the manor house, Shipman added visual interest and usable space to the west terraces, which afford a striking view across the river to Fredericksburg. Her designs included the Chatham Front Retaining Wall and Stair (LCS No. 082037, historic associated feature) along the lower edge of the terraces, the Chatham Front Entrance Path (LCS No. 082038, historic associated feature) from the Carriage Drive Spur along the upper terrace to the west entrance and around the house to the walled garden, and alterations to the South Ravine Path (LCS No. 082044, historic associated feature) that leads along the south ravine (possibly along the alignment of a path used by Fitzhugh to reach the river) then curves north to a set of stone stairs leading to the upper terraces. Shipman's designs likely took into account the existence of three Chatham Civil War Grave Markers (LCS No. 007885, contributing objects), located near the retaining wall and ravine path. Oliver Clarke designed the Chatham Music

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Stair (LCS No. 082031, historic associated feature) as part of the renovation work he performed concurrently with Shipman's landscape work. He also designed several small Greek and Roman temples to shelter various statues commissioned by the Devores for the west terraces. The only extant temple, the Chatham Rotunda (LCS No. 007883, contributing structure) at the southern end of the upper terrace, shelters a Pan Statue (historic associated feature) recently restored by the National Park Service following extensive damage sustained in 2006. A small temple at the center of the terrace (removed by the National Park Service sometime after it acquired the site) sheltered the Flora Statue (historic associated feature), now located on a stone plinth at the south end of the upper terrace near the Front Entrance Path. An empty Stone Plinth (historic associated feature) opposite the statue of Flora, at the north end of the terrace, used to hold the Ceres Statue (historic associated feature), later moved outside the north gate of the walled garden. Near the empty plinth, a semi-circular Exedra Bench (historic associated feature) provides a seat for viewing the entire expanse of the west terraces, Rappahannock River, and Fredericksburg (Rutz 2006:15, 64, 70).

Helen Devore hired Shipman in 1922 to create a period garden that would complement the Washington, DC, architect Oliver Clarke's renovation work on the main house. Shipman designed several improvements for the west terraces and relocated the service yard east of the manor house to the south to create a space for the formal Chatham Walled Garden. She also worked closely with Clarke to design and determine the placement of architectural features, including outbuildings in the service area. (Tankard 2006; 67, 72, 76, 78).

The restored Walled Garden on the east side of the manor house, considered Ellen Biddle Shipman's "largest and most important commission in the Colonial Revival style" (quoted in Tankard 2006:76), typifies her design aesthetic characterized by an axial layout, geometric configurations, and straight paths decorated with utilitarian features such as sundials (Figures 48 and 49). It is a larger, grander version of her colonial gardens, which were generally sited close to the house and enclosed by fences, walls, or hedges, with orchards and fields often in close proximity outside the enclosure. At Chatham, the 9'-tall Chatham Rear Garden Wall and Gates (LCS No. 082036, historic associated feature) surrounding the Walled Garden create a secluded space bisected by the Chatham Garden Paths (LCS No. 082045, historic associated feature), comprising a central axis running from the east entrance and two axes along the north and south sides. The center path leads through the east gate, past the Ceres statue (originally the location of a statue of Diana that was donated to the Virginia Museum of Fine Arts) surrounded on three sides by boxwood, and terminates at the Chatham Brick Entrance Paths (historic associated feature) leading to the greenhouses and stable. The extension of the path to the brick entrance paths was completed by the National Park Service. The 1920-1929 Chatham South Greenhouse (LCS No. 007880, contributing building) and 1935 Chatham North Greenhouse (LCS No. 007881, contributing building) are outside the north garden wall near a series of raised beds (Figure 50). The North Greenhouse Hot Bed Ruins (contributing structure) and the South Greenhouse Hot Bed Ruins (contributing structure) were used in conjunction with the greenhouses for growing and hardening plants for the walled garden and other beds. The hot beds were heated by underground pipes fed from a boiler below the South Green House (Rutz 2006:24, 31).

Within the garden walls, Shipman frequently employed clipped evergreens, dwarf fruit trees, and roses, wisteria, and other garden standards arranged in an axial layout with flower borders in an attempt to make the gardens appear three-dimensional. Following the completion of the project, the garden overflowed with flowers: irises on the south side, roses on the north, and low parteres near the house filled with monochromatic groupings of flowers. For Shipman, however, the plantings were not an end unto themselves but instead intended to highlight architectural features such as the **Chatham Garden Pergola**

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(LCS No. 082033, historic associated feature) (Figure 51) that surrounds the Walled Garden Well Head (historic associated feature) in the center of the lawn or the Walled Garden Small-Scale Features (historic associated features) throughout the garden. The north garden path passes in front of the Chatham Summer House (LCS No. 007875, contributing structure) and the laundry before continuing west through the garden wall to the Front Entrance Path and east through the wall to the brick entrance path and greenhouses, passing under the Garden Bench and Arbor (historic associated feature). The current summer house is a 1940 replacement of a smaller one designed by Shipman. The south elevation opens onto the garden and Chatham Lily Pond (LCS No. 007876, historic associated feature). Five reconstructed Chatham Garden Rose Trellises (LCS No. 082047, historic associated features) line the east edge of the rose beds in the north garden. Small Marble Garden Benches (historic associated features) are scattered around the garden, including one each on the north and south sides of the south lawn and one near the piazza in front of the east entrance to the house. The south lawn within the garden is the only area to deviate from the initial Shipman plan, as it was enlarged to accommodate a planned swimming pool that was never installed. The Bird Pen Foundations (historic associated feature) along the south garden wall remain from enclosed bird runs designed to house Colonel Devore's pheasants, a unique feature of the Chatham Walled Garden.

In 1955, a Richmond landscape architect, Charles Gillette, redesigned the garden, removing the parterre beds and several trees, relocating the flagstone paving in the northwest corner, and planting irises beneath the pergola. In 1984–1986, the National Park Service restored the Walled Garden using Shipman's original plans and photographs taken by freelance photographer Frances Benjamin Johnston in the late 1920s. The restoration work included replanting the perennial flower beds, re-laying the slate walkways, and planting hundreds of new shrubs and flower bulbs. The National Park Service also uses the east entrance as the primary visitor entrance to lead visitors through the garden (Griswold and Weller 1991:194–195; Rutz 2006:28, 41–42, 48; Zenzen 2011:271).

Ellen Biddle Shipman (1869-1950)

Ellen Biddle Shipman was born in Philadelphia in 1869 but grew up in Texas and the Arizona Territory, where her father was a career soldier. She attended boarding school in the East followed by Radcliffe College (then an annex of Harvard) before marrying Louis Shipman, a playwright attending Harvard, in 1893. The couple moved to Plainfield, New Hampshire (near Cornish) the following year, drawn by the Cornish Art Colony which had been established by Augustus Saint-Gaudens and Charles Coatesworth Beaman, Jr. in in the late 1880s, and became friends with Charles Platt and his wife Eleanor, as well as other artists living in the area. Cornish appealed to artists because its isolated location ensured a quiet environment necessary for contemplative work and its natural scenery provided creative inspiration. The multi-hued, rolling hills of the Cornish landscape set alongside the winding Connecticut River beneath the looming profile of Mt. Ascutney offered both recreational enjoyment and artistic subject matter for its seasonal residents. The function of these bucolic Cornish properties as personal retreats resulted in their development with modern amenities and individual expressions of grandeur. Beaman established a tradition of relocating outbuildings to achieve a desired rustic affect, while colony designers developed ornate, classically influenced landscapes to demonstrate their mastery of the style and create inspirational settings for creative work. The initial wave of artists who established the colony during the late-nineteenth century comprised painters, sculptors, and designers, often with young families. Their collective associations with networks of New York-based intellectuals resulted in the broader expansion of the colony to include writers, thespians, and other illustrious figures. During the late 1890s, a second influx of artistic urbanites arrived in Cornish and rejuvenated the colony as a creative incubator. Louis Shipman converted novels written by Frederic Remington and Winston Churchill into plays. Ellen Shipman began

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working with Platt following her divorce from Louis Shipman in 1910 and established a notable career in landscape design. Inspired by the Cornish gardens, which represented for her "the renaissance of gardening in America, the first effort in this country to return to early traditional gardening," Ellen experimented with gardening on her own (Beaman 1884-1900:162; Birnbaum and Karson 2000:346–351; Karson 2007:119–126; Scofield et al. 2013: 42–44, 46; UNH 1985:43-60; Way 2009:77–82).

Shipman launched a solo career as a landscape architect by 1912, after learning drafting and design from Charles Platt. Through the mid-1920s, she created predominantly Colonial Revival gardens, while her contemporaries, including Beatrix Farrand and Martha Brookes Hutcheson, worked in the fashionable Beaux-Arts style they studied in Europe. Few intact examples of Shipman's work exist today, primarily because of the complexity of her designs. Shipman retired from landscape architecture and closed her office in 1947. She died of pneumonia in March 1950 at her home in Bermuda (Tankard 1996:179; Tankard 2006:68, 79).

Frances Benjamin Johnston (1864-1952)

Initially known for her work as a portrait photographer, capturing images of political and literary elites such as Susan B. Anthony and Mark Twain, Frances Benjamin Johnston later established a successful career as a landscape and architectural photographer. She was born in Washington, DC, the only surviving child of Anderson Johnston, the head bookkeeper at the U.S. Treasury Department, and Frances Antoinette Johnston, a Washington correspondent for the *Baltimore Sun*. Johnston attended Notre Dame Academy, a convent school in Govanston, Maryland, during her privileged childhood, then studied art at the Académie Julian in Paris from 1883 to 1885. She returned to Washington, DC, where she worked as a freelance artist creating illustrations for magazines. George Eastman gave Johnston her first camera, a Kodak, and Thomas Smillie, the first Smithsonian Institution photographer, trained her in its use and in darkroom work (Berch 2000:10–12, 14–15).

Johnston opened a professional studio in Washington, DC, about 1889 and initially gained acclaim for her portraits of sitting U.S. presidents and other politicians whom she had access to through family connections. Her first photographs appeared in the December 1889 issue of the monthly Demorest's, with an article she wrote titled "Uncle Sam's Money." Five more magazine stories followed in 1890, all illustrated with her own photographs; one on the White House and four on other houses belonging to members of the presidential administration, including the vice president and postmaster general. In 1891, Johnston ventured outside Washington, DC, to produce photo essays on coal mines in coal country, the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago, and Mammoth Cave in Kentucky. A series of photographs of buildings that housed schools to educate the children of former slaves were displayed at the Paris Exposition in 1900. In 1897, Johnston published an article in the Ladies' Home Journal in 1897 titled "What a Woman Can Do with a Camera," in which she advocated photography as a suitable profession for women and described the types of equipment, spaces, and training necessary for a potentially successful career behind the camera. She concluded with the statement, "Resource, a good sense, a cultivated taste and hard work are a combination that seldom fails to success in a country like ours, where a woman needs only the courage to enter a profession suitable to her talents and within her powers of accomplishment" (Berch 2000:16-17, 18; Johnston 1897).

Johnston turned her attention to landscapes and gardens about 1913, traveling around the country photographing gardens and lecturing to garden clubs through 1926, when Helen Devore hired her to photograph the Chatham estate. While in Fredericksburg and funded by Mrs. Devore, Johnston took pictures of old buildings around the city, specifically vernacular, institutional, and other types of

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"everyday" architecture. Displayed in Fredericksburg in April 1929, these photographs met with great acclaim. Johnston began focusing her work on photographing buildings and landscapes in danger of being lost to deterioration, providing preservationists and historical architects a glimpse into early America. In 1930, she donated her Chatham photos to the Library of Congress, where the 144 prints became the nucleus of the Pictorial Archives of Early American Architecture. The head of the archives, Dr. Leicester B. Holland, then convinced the Carnegie Corporation to fund further work by Johnston around the South. She worked with local and national scholars to identify sites depicting the pre-Civil War South and photographed interiors, exteriors, and outbuildings. She also gave talks and held press conferences in the towns she visited, believing that grassroots efforts, not the work of the economically elite, would save old buildings. Her work was displayed at the Smithsonian in February 1937 and at the annual meeting of the American Association of Museums (now the American Alliance of Museums) in May of that year. Through these exhibits, Johnston met people working for the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS), started in 1933, which was modeled on work done by Johnston in Virginia. She ultimately collaborated with several members of HABS on various literary projects. Johnston became an honorary member of the AIA in 1945 and, in 1947, donated nearly 8,000 negatives and prints associated with her Carnegie-funded work to the organization. She died in 1952 in New Orleans, Louisiana, where she had purchased a house on Bourbon Street in the Vieux Carré in 1945 (Andreassen 1960:133; Berch 2000:109, 113, 117, 123; Gushee 2008:21).

National Military Park Landscape, 1930-1942

The designed landscape of the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP as a whole, developed under the War Department and the National Park Service from 1930 to 1942, is significant under Criterion C in the area of Landscape Architecture. The landscape comprises representative examples of early national military and historical park design, as well as of Great Depression-era Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) planning and site improvement implementation. The roads designed and constructed during this period—Lee Drive in Fredericksburg, the Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System, the Chancellorsville Battlefield Tour Road System, and Hill-Ewell Drive at the Wilderness—and the numerous stone culverts, bridges, lined ditches, and tree rings associated with these roads are characterized by the curvilinear geometries, natural materials, and rustic detailing that are hallmarks of 1930s' national park design. The existing landscape continues to convey the initial design intent of the War Department and the National Park Service and reflects a successful application of the master planning process developed by the National Park Service during the 1930s and 1940s.

Evolution of a Program for Landscape Design at National Historical Sites

During his four years as National Park Service Director, Horace M. Albright took steps to expand the bureau's professional capabilities in managing historic sites. He created a historical division within the Branch of Research and Education and hired Verne E. Chatelain in 1931 as the first Park Service historian. Chatelain's responsibilities included extending and coordinating the historical and archeological research program of the Park Service; supervising the Service's activities in the fields of history and archeology; assisting in the formulation and implementation of policies and methods of procedure for preservation, interpretation, and development in the parks; initiating studies of policies relative to new area acquisition and techniques of restoration and reconstruction; and providing professional judgment on a wide range of new historical area proposals emanating from Congress. His pioneering efforts in research, preservation, and interpretation at the Service's first three historical sites laid foundations for the agency's historical program. The 1935 Historic Sites Act provided for a comprehensive research program within the Park Service (Unrau and Williss 1983).

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The Park Service's historical program evolved in conjunction with its comprehensive planning program. During the 1920s, it began an initial master planning process to address the fundamental problems involved with long-range planning at the wilderness parks in the West. The goal of those plans was to strike the proper balance between the development required to provide visitor access and the protection of the natural landscape and wildlife. The level of planning for the variety of facilities—including roads, trails, park villages, ranger stations, campgrounds, maintenance areas, and utilities—needed at the large natural parks was similar in scope to municipal planning and required contributions from various disciplines. Because those developments were primarily concerned with the treatment of park landscapes, Park Service landscape architects took the lead in coordinating the design process with engineers. architects, botanists, foresters, geologists, and other professionals. In 1927, Thomas Vint was made Chief of the Division of Landscape Architecture and put in charge of all master planning initiatives. Vint devised a three-part planning process that consisted of a narrative outline of the proposed development, a graphic representation of the development called the general development plan, and a list of individual projects to be completed over a six-year period. By 1932, the three elements were collectively referred to within the Park Service as "master plans," and each park was required to submit one. After the addition of numerous historical areas to the Park System, the planning department also required the inclusion of a "historical sheet" or "base historical map" as part of each master plan. Site staff; regional and Washington, DC, policy makers; and in-house and private professional advisers were part of a collaborative effort to enable plan approval at each stage (McClelland 1998).

The National Park Service made general development plans mandatory in 1929. As the effects of the Great Depression set in, a moratorium was placed on park construction. This freed Vint's staff to concentrate on planning, and the Landscape Division completed plans for every national park and monument within the system by the end of 1932. The pace of plan development accelerated in 1931, when Congress passed the Employment Stabilization Act requiring all agencies to produce six-year plans. The Act was intended to provide Congress with information about the level of appropriations that might be allotted for development projects that could provide work for the unemployed if the Depression persisted. The timely completion of the initial planning effort placed the Park Service in an excellent position to make use of the massive funding and labor supplied through President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal relief programs during the 1930s that led to unprecedented development throughout the system (McClelland 1998).

Development of the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Landscape

Park officials from the Branch of Plans and Designs worked with the Branch of Historic Sites and Buildings to develop the first master plan for Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, approved by Director Arno B. Cammerer in 1936. Planners and designers, engineers, foresters, and historians collaborated on the placement of roads and trails and the restoration of trenches according to the established Park Service concepts of naturalistic landscape design that emphasized visual and cultural harmonization. They overlaid their plans on existing circulation routes and the infrastructure foundation established by the War Department during the park's initial development, revising the designs for proposed as well as completed roadways. For example, landscape architects adjusted the alignment of the **Spotsylvania Court House Tour Road System** through the Bloody Angle area to address Chief Historian Chatelain's concern about its jarring appearance on the natural terrain. They also rerouted several miles of **Lee Drive** to more closely follow the site's natural contours (Zenzen 2011:62–63, 70–76).

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In general, the War Department and Park Service planners created serpentine roadways designed to lead visitors to historical points of interest, frame scenic or important historic vistas, minimize cut and fill, and avoid steep grades and sharp turns. The loop roads and broad Y-intersections at Spotsylvania and Chancellorsville are typical elements of Park Service road systems. CCC laborers carefully landscaped the road banks in a naturalistic style and constructed stone or stone-faced culverts, bridges, and gutters from local, rough-hewn materials. Engineers also attempted to avoid large trees along the routes and incorporated stone tree rings where necessary to protect trees close to the roadway. To ensure a consistent appearance, park planners used the standard designs and detailed construction guidelines for stonework produced by the Branch of Plans and Designs. Bridges and culverts identical to those at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP can be seen at other parks such as Shiloh NMP in Tennessee. Albert H. Good's three-volume 1938 Park and Recreation Structures includes numerous photographs of the types of bridges and culverts built throughout the state and national park systems in the 1930s (Blythe et al. 1995:97; Good 1938:169–200; Zenzen 2011:70–76).

The preservation of Civil War fortifications and access to them guided the landscaping plans for the park. CCC crews seeded and sodded trenches and thinned and planted trees. At the recommendation of a Park Service forester, the Eastern Division of Plans and Designs prepared planting plans intended to reverse some of the extensive tree thinning done by the War Department. Those earthworks close to roads required clearing but were covered with vegetation to prevent erosion. Carefully designed footpaths and trails with rustic stone bridges and steps (including the extant <u>Bridle Trail Steps</u> and <u>Prospect Hill Steps</u>) provided access to earthworks farther in the woods, where less clearing was needed (Zenzen 2011:62, 70–76).

CRITERION D - ARCHEOLOGY: HISTORIC - NON-ABORIGINAL

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District encompasses more than 9,000 acres spread across five administrative units. The units are connected by a network of modern highways, including Route 3, known as Orange Turnpike during the Civil War, and Routes 607, 608, and 613 that, in their earlier incarnations, formed the route used to transport a mortally wounded Stonewall Jackson to Fairfield Plantation. Dozens of archeological projects have been conducted at the park, most of which are summarized in a series of archeological overviews and assessments (AOAs) completed through a cooperative agreement between the National Park Service and James Madison University (JMU). As part of the AOA project, JMU also conducted a program of comprehensive reconnaissance survey and limited subsurface testing to inventory known and potential archeological resources within the park. The interpretive contexts and site descriptions provided below are derived primarily from JMU's research and field efforts.

The ASMIS inventory for the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP contains 186 entries of known and presumed archeological sites, buildings, and structures that date from before, during, and after the Civil War. Many of these resources provide material evidence of the organization, operation, military tactics, and experiences of the Union and Confederate armies that can be extrapolated to archeologically unexplored areas of the park. Because the war was fought on a preexisting cultural landscape shaped by an agrarian economy, many of the resources within the District also have the demonstrated and potential ability to yield important information about the antebellum development of that landscape and the enslaved and free people who lived on it.

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For organizational clarity, the resources within the District are discussed thematically with reference to their demonstrated and potential abilities to contribute to the research contexts that follow. Because the park's developmental and military histories are addressed in great detail in the preceding criteria statements, that history is summarized only to the extent necessary to contextualize and interpret the District's resources under Criterion D.

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Lines of Advance, Defense, and Retreat

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District comprises a series of physically discontiguous sites associated with specific battles and events that occurred from December 1862 to May 1864. This fragmentation of sites, caused by nineteenth- and twentieth-century residential, urban, and commercial property development, makes it difficult to understand those campaigns as components of the larger "universe of battle" to which they belonged. This is particularly true of the surviving earthwork features, many of which have been physically truncated or destroyed or lie on private property.

The construction and elaboration of field fortifications is the most visible relic of the Civil War on the extant landscape, and perhaps one of the most important contributions that the war made to the field of military engineering. The wide array of earthworks that the Union and Confederate armies constructed created a durable "defensive" military landscape within the District that provides an opportunity to study the how military field engineering, design techniques, and technology changed during the Civil War in response to technological advances in weaponry and changing battlefield tactics. For example, the earthworks constructed during and after the Battle of Fredericksburg 1862 differ greatly in terms of the complexity of their design and their size and extent from those built in 1864 on the Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House battlefields (Horowitz 1998:235).

Archeological excavations around surviving earthworks have the potential to provide evidence of how, and to what extent, the earthworks were constructed, used, and altered through the identification of buried ditch and scarp features, builders' trenches, retaining walls, and discrete work areas. While no substantial investigations of the earthworks in the District have yet been conducted, several resources within the Fredericksburg, Wilderness, Chancellorsville, and Spotsylvania battlefield sites have great potential to yield substantive information. These sites include Hamilton's Crossing (ASMIS No. FRSP00064,000), which comprises an extensive complex of earthworks believed to have been constructed after The Battle of Fredericksburg in preparation for the 1863 spring offensive and includes Walker's Artillery Battery (ASMIS No. FRSP00064.000); Fredericksburg National Cemetery, which contains the southernmost battery of the Washington Artillery used during the Battle of Fredericksburg and potentially reused as Parker's Virginia Battery during the second battle; Bernard's Cabin Battery and Earthworks (ASMIS No. FRSP00067.000); the Wilderness CCC Camp (ASMIS No. FRSP00113.000), which contains a line of Union earthworks above Keaton's Run; Slocum's Line (ASMIS No. FRSP00150.000); Burnside's Works (ASMIS No. FRSP00154.000); the Bloody Angle (ASMIS No. FRSP00163.000), approximately 1,500' of linear earthwork entrenchments that was the scene of some of the most savage fighting of the Civil War; and Lee's Last Line (ASMIS No. FRSP00160.000), a 3,700'-long line of earthworks constructed under the supervision of Lee's chief engineer General M. L. Smith, which marks the fullest development of fieldworks in the Civil War and set the pattern for later battles.

The archeological identification of less extensive military constructions such as rifle pits, trenches, and breastworks has the potential to reveal how they articulate, strategically and tactically, the larger battlefield landscape. The identification of this particular class of features is especially valuable in its ability to provide a more complete picture of the District battlefield sites that have been fragmented and truncated by modern development. More than 60 of these secondary military features have been identified throughout the park, many in association with the larger extant earthworks or encampments of which they were an integral part. When viewed as a group, they provide a spatial record of secondary military structures not readily available in the documentary record.

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The secondary military features at Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP also have the potential to contain incidental "domestic" debris associated with the soldiers stationed in them. Excavations conducted at Civil War trenches at Petersburg recovered an assemblage of Confederate materials, including spent copper percussion caps; waste lead fragments; zinc plugs; and a small number of dropped bullets, gun parts, and tools that suggested the soldiers were melting down spent bullets to make new bullets and fabricating makeshift gun parts to repair their failing weapons. The small, and apparently carefully curated, artifact assemblage poignantly reflects the dire supply shortage suffered by the Confederate soldiers at Petersburg; it is possible that similar features at Fredericksburg-Spotsylvania could yield data reflective of the soldiers' field experiences (Blades 1981).

Where there are fortifications, there is battlefield debris consisting of dropped and fired bullets; hardware sheared off uniforms, packs, and weapons; shrapnel from exploded shells; and canisters. Fields of fire and miscellaneous battle debris that may be archeologically recoverable around extant and former structures that provided expedient cover on the battlefield sites may provide insights into tactical maneuvers not otherwise available in documentary sources. As survey work at Matthews Hill at Manassas National Battlefield Park has shown, the type, number, and distribution of spent munitions can provide important information about undocumented tactical maneuvers during major battles. At Manassas, the recovery of a concentration of a specific bullet type associated with a specific Union regiment in a location at odds with historical documentation led researchers to conclude that the regiment of inexperienced soldiers panicked during the fight and fled their proscribed positions (Reeves 2011).

While seemingly incidental, the discoveries of battlefield debris can provide new insights into battlefield behaviors that, when considered cumulatively, may have contributed to the success or failure of an otherwise well-documented engagement. The information learned has the potential to underscore the very human element of combat often lost in the "big battle" models that more commonly inform our understanding of military outcomes. Archeological excavations at Fairview confirmed a likely diminished, but significant, presence of military artifacts including what appears to be grape shot, Minie balls, and round balls (Geier and Sancomb 2000). The Wadsworth Small Arms Fire Scatter (ASMIS No. FRSP00053.000) consists of a scatter of military artifacts associated with the Battle of the Wilderness identified through systematic subsurface testing and metal detector survey. The site boundaries of 15 by 60 meters are preliminary and likely extend across a much larger area. More expansive archeological excavations and metal detecting survey at Fairview and other known skirmish and artillery position sites, such as the Widow Tapp Farm, the Chewning House, and Bernard's Cabins, have the potential to provide additional information about troop movements, both planned and unplanned, through the lens of munitions and equipment patterning. Relative percentages of fired and unfired ammunition collected from a known battle or skirmish site, for example, can provide a measure of the tactical stability of troop lines and has been used to gather valuable information at other Civil War battlefields such as Shiloh and Chickamauga (Cornelison 1997, 2000, 2007).

Archeological work at the <u>Washington Artillery and Willis Plantation Site</u> identified a cross-section of major and minor battlefield features that illustrate the District's potential to contribute substantive archeological information about the conduct of the war. This site was part of the larger fortification system heights of Fredericksburg that were developed during and after the Battle of Fredericksburg in December 1862. The earthworks were among the most elaborate field fortifications constructed to that point of the Civil War. Contemporary accounts describe the trenches as being 5' wide and 2.5' deep with integrated batteries, lunettes, embrasures, and rifle pits. Ground Penetrating Radar (GPR) survey and subsurface excavation at the site has documented lunettes associated with the Washington Artillery Batteries, ordnance along the slope above the Sunken Road, a concentration of percussion caps (artillery

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discharge) at the location of the Willis residential foundation behind the second battery, a Howitzer location between Willis and Marye's Heights, and two rifle trenches with evidence of a brick flooring likely installed to reduce the effect of mud and water on the gunners. These data have the potential to provide information about the exact location and construction methods of earthworks and artillery positions, fields of fire and the stability of troop lines, and impromptu improvements to secondary military features that soldiers may have implemented to improve their comfort and effectiveness (Geier and Tinkham 2006:264–266).

The District also has the potential to provide substantive information about military strategies as informed by the perception of the landscape by officers and soldiers before and during a battle. Recent battlefield studies using aspects of geographic information system (GIS) technology, such as digital terrain analysis and visibility analysis, demonstrate that it is possible to reconstruct what was visible from different parts of a battlefield. The rudimentary forms of communication available at the time of the Civil War meant that visual awareness and reconnaissance of the surrounding areas were crucial aspects in strategic planning. The ability to "see" the battlefield from the perspective of the people fighting there provides the opportunity to better understand their strategies and actions. When combined with the analysis of historical maps and accounts, these study techniques permit the re-creation of the landscape as it existed at the time of the battle (Knowles et al. 2008).

The Experience of Military Camp Life

The thing people don't understand about an army is its great, unpunctuated wastes of inaction: you have to scavenge for food, you are camped out somewhere with a rising water level because your mad *capitaine* says so, you are shifted abruptly in the middle of the night into some indefensible position, so you never really sleep, your equipment is defective, the gunners keep causing small unwanted explosions, the crossbowmen are either drunk or praying, the arrows are ordered up but are not yet here yet, and your whole mind is occupied by a seething anxiety that things are going to go badly because *il principe*, or whatever little worshipfulness is in charge today, is not very good at the basic business of thinking (Thomas Cromwell, reflecting on his military service in Italy during the first decade of the sixteenth century [Mantel 2009]).

Although the above quote comes from the novel Wolf Hall, Hilary Mantel's fictionalized version of the life of Henry VIII's ill-fated advisor Thomas Cromwell, few descriptions better or more succinctly summarize the life of a soldier at almost any time and place. While battles and skirmishes tend to define the shape of wars for historians, the monotony of camp life was the dominant experience of nearly all soldiers. Recent studies of Civil War encampments have divided them into three basic categories—permanent camps, surface camps, and winter quarters, each with distinct and variably identifiable archeological signatures (Balicki 2011:57–58).

Permanent camps were long-term occupations characterized by semi-permanent housing and often sophisticated infrastructural systems designed to maintain and provision the permanent camp and outlying military installations. Permanent camps generally were organized by clearly proscribed military tenets that dictated the size and spacing of huts, barracks, support buildings, and transportation routes and provided policing mandates to ensure general compliance. Given their often strategic importance, permanent camps typically were sited farther from active battle and could have an almost town-like atmosphere. While factors including training, location, region of origin, the availability of materials, and time of year introduced some level of organizational variability, permanent camps typically present

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regular archeological features such as mounds, depressions, tent platforms, solidly constructed hearth bases, and relict avenues and roadways that provide a reasonably good picture of their former outlines (Balicki 2011:58).

In contrast to permanent camps, surface camps were generally temporary constructions used for summer and short-term occupations. They were likely the most common camp type during the Civil War and have the greatest potential to provide substantive information about the day-to-day lives of soldiers on the front lines of battle. Although surface camps could be quite large, their archeological signatures tend to be ephemeral as they were constructed as temporary by design. However, surface camps were likely the most common camp type during the Civil War and have the greatest potential to provide substantive information about the day-to-day lives of soldiers on the front lines of battle. Winter quarters consisted of temporary camps that were "dug in" to provide shelter from winter weather (Balicki 2011:58).

The remnants of several of these large surface camps have been archeologically identified at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and the Jackson Shrine Site. Chatham Manor was used as Union headquarters by Major General Edwin V. Sumner and General John Gibbons during the First and Second Battles of Fredericksburg and the surrounding plantation grounds were the site of a major Union encampment from November 1862 to May 1863. Extensive Confederate encampments occupied during December 1862 have been archeologically identified at Hamilton's Crossing and at Prospect Hill (ASMIS No. FRSP00065.000) by findings of hundreds of tent platforms, latrines, borrow pits, and other camp features. After the Battle of Chancellorsville in May 1863, the Second Corps of the Army of Northern Virginia camped for five weeks near the Catharine Furnace Ruins where 115, 5'-x-6' tent platforms have been identified (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.005). During the battle, a large Union encampment was established around Major General Joseph Hooker's headquarters at the Chancellorsville Inn. The lands of Fairfield Plantation, including those that comprise the Jackson Shrine unit of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP, were used as a Confederate encampment, hospital site, and supply depot before the Battle of Fredericksburg in December 1862 and were re-occupied by bivouacking Union troops in May 1864 following the battles of Wilderness and Spotsylvania Court House. Additional archeological survey at all of these locations could provide comparative data to explore Union versus Confederate organization and provisioning at larger surface camp sites.

More targeted and intensive archeological investigations of Union and Confederate encampments across all the contributing battlefield sites have the potential to provide important information about organization, shelter construction, provisioning, and living conditions among the various camp site types described above. The material culture and structural data collected from these known encampment sites could then be extrapolated to encampment sites of unknown temporal or military affiliation, including several camp sites on the Chancellorsville Battlefield (ASMIS Nos. FRSP00101.000, 102.000, 103.000). Multi-season or re-occupied encampments, like those at Chatham and Fairfield, would probably present a hybridized archeological signature of surface and dug-in shelters with some degree of infrastructure (such as road networks or chimney bases) more typical of permanent camps.

The data collected from these camps have the potential to address not only questions about the physical organization of the camps, but also broader questions about the overall quality of camp life as experienced by soldiers and officers. For example, is there any evidence that preferential provisioning was extended to certain regiments on the basis of political or personal relationships? This question also could be expanded to address issues of how and if differential provisioning existed among regiments from different states. Issues concerning the quality and quantity of food as reflected in faunal and floral remains could be explored through the analysis of privy or trash pit features excavated from secure

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contexts. Additionally, are there any discernible differences in the organization of tents, huts, and support structures among the many regimental encampments that might reflect varying levels of troop discipline or training?

Fighting and Dying at "the End of the Medical Middle Ages"

An estimated six out of seven casualties during the Civil War were attributable to disease and events occurring at camp. With little or no working knowledge of germ theory, the most rudimentary of medical instruments, and minimal (if any) antiseptics and pain relief, afflictions such as dysentery, blood poisoning, pneumonia, tuberculosis, whooping cough, measles, and gangrene killed 250,000 Union soldiers and 164,000 Confederate soldiers off the battlefield. Although the establishment of the U.S. Sanitary Commission in 1861 and the appointment of the brilliant physicians Samuel Preston Moore and William Alexander Hammond as surgeons general to the Confederate and Union armies, respectively, helped to standardize medical care and hygienic standards, mortality rates attributable to disease and infection remained staggeringly high (Geier and Tinkham 2011).

To meet the unprecedented medical crisis precipitated by the Civil War, large military hospitals were established, generally in or near urban centers accessible by rail, wagon, and sea. These hospitals served as regional hubs to receive field casualties from surrounding battlefields and were comparatively rare. More common by far than large urban hospitals, like Chimborazo in Richmond, were the expedient field hospitals set up during and after battles. Nearly any available structure, whether occupied or unoccupied, could be used as a field hospital. Troops generally set up field hospitals 1 to 2 miles behind the battle lines and organized them by regiment. They selected sites based on their proximity to potable water, the availability of buildings to be commandeered to supplement hospital tents for housing the wounded, and distance from the battle lines. Federal soldiers typically consolidated field hospitals into corps hospitals, allowing for increased efficiency in the care of the wounded. Confederates organized field hospitals at the division level.

The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP Historic District contains numerous examples of these field hospitals. Given their size, large number of outbuildings and dependencies (including slave quarters), and function as military headquarters, Chatham, Ellwood, and Fairfield plantations all functioned as field hospitals and temporary burial grounds. These properties likely provided a more protected environment to treat the wounded, with medical tents cordoned off and staffed by doctors and trained support staff. Clara Barton and Walt Whitman treated wounded soldiers at Chatham. An ambulance station was reportedly set up behind the protection of the brick wall surrounding the Willis Family Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00037.000, contributing site), although no evidence of the station has been identified to date. Smaller private homes, churches, taverns, and inns also were used as field hospitals, including the Stevens, Bullock, and Fairview houses; Salem Church; the Wilderness Tavern; and the Chancellorsville Inn. The locations of these properties within the battlefields probably resulted in a more chaotic treatment environment. The Chancellorsville Inn, for example, served as a Union hospital and burial ground from May 1 to 3, 1863, until Confederate fire forced the removal of wounded soldiers before the building's destruction by fire on May 3. From 1866 to 1868, 1,000 Union dead were disinterred from the grounds surrounding the former inn site and moved to Fredericksburg National Cemetery. While no conclusive evidence of Fairview's use as a field hospital has been recovered, a door hinge in the purported location of a makeshift operating table fashioned out of a cabin door was recovered during a JMU survey (Geier and Sancomb 2000).

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The archeological signature of these sites as field hospitals would likely be limited to the recovery of durable medical instruments (e.g., bone saws or pharmaceutical bottles) or the identification of specific features such as limb pits. That information, however, is valuable because it provides insights into the level of care soldiers may have received and how that care may have varied based on the field surgeons' provisioning and medical expertise.

Because the Civil War was fought primarily by a civilian volunteer army, the examination of skeletal remains from battlefield, field hospital, and burial contexts provides an unparalleled opportunity to assess the overall health of Northern and Southern soldiers independent of the battle-related wounds or illnesses from which they died. The average age of an enlisted Union soldier was 25.8 years old, but there is no definitive information regarding the average age of an enlisted Confederate soldier. Presumably, Confederate soldiers, at least during the first half of the war, were 18–28 years old, although those a bit younger or older were likely accepted if they appeared physically capable (Civil War Trust 2015).

Assuming comparable average ages, most of the soldiers would have come from a life of manual labor in a factory or on a farm, which would have left physical imprints on their bodies. Bone fractures and improperly healed breaks, herniated discs, pitting of the skull consistent with anemia, and poor dentition resulting from poor diet may be discerned from skeletal remains and are often separable from the battlefield injuries or infectious diseases that ultimately killed an individual. These skeletal markers provide important insights into the general health of a soldier at the time of his enlistment and may be used to track the declining physical well-being of soldiers enlisting later in the war. This is especially true of the Confederacy, which by the end of the war began accepting young boys and old men when healthy men of standard fighting age became few and far between. Skeletal data also may be used to compare the health of the average Confederate and Union soldier at the time of his enlistment and how differences between the two could be linked to factors such as state of origin, ethnic background, work history, and even personal habits. Long-term tobacco chewing and pipe smoking, for example, leave noticeable staining and abrasion marks on teeth and often lead to poor dental health that, in turn, contributes to poor general health (Scott 2011).

The hasty burial and subsequent disinterment of war dead occurred at sites throughout the District, including Howison's Mill, Chancellorsville Inn, Fairview, Fairfield, and Chatham. Recent geophysical survey at the abandoned Confederate Saunders Field Military Cemetery (ASMIS No. FRSP00114.000) and Union Wadsworth Monument Military Cometery (ASMIS No. FRSP00114.000) in the Wilderness identified a number of grave shafts that likely contain remnant human remains left behind during the exhumation process. The remains in these two cemeteries have the potential to provide information about the age, health, and cause of death of the soldiers and would also provide convenient comparative samples of Union and Confederate troops. An example of this information potential comes from the identification of four Union interments on Roulette Farm in Maryland, which is just outside Antietam Battlefield lands owned by the National Park Service. The identified remains provided general and specific information about the soldiers, not all of which was available in documentary records and some of which was contradictory to the documentary record. The location of the bodies and their recovered personal and military effects, including New York State cuff buttons, .69-caliber buck-and-ball ammunition, rosary beads, and Catholic medallions, identified the men as soldiers New York's Irish Brigade. The recovery of metal knapsack parts from two of the four bodies seemingly contradicts an after-action report in which the Irish Brigade commander claimed that his regiment uniformly obeyed an order to abandon all their equipment except their guns and ammunition. On a more intimate and personal level, osteological analysis of the skeletal remains revealed that the soldiers were 25 to 49 years old, that the oldest of the group likely suffered from mild arthritis, and that one of the bodies was subject to post-burial exposure as

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evidenced by substantial erosion of the recovered skeletal materials ((Hager-Richter Geoscience, Inc. 2013; Potter and Owlsey 2000:66, 69).

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The Intersection of Civilian and Military Landscapes

Tactical use of the existing landscape was critical to battle. Lee's use of Marye's Heights to decisively repel Burnside's advance in Fredericksburg and the quagmire of the Wilderness that brought both armies to such grief, not once but twice, are textbook examples of the tactical and strategic use of the natural landscape to achieve (or thwart) military ends. However, the cultural landscape of Fredericksburg-Spotsylvania also was a valuable military asset to Union and Confederate troops that transformed a predominantly agrarian landscape into a military zone. Landscape archeology, an approach that emphasizes a complete cultural landscape as its unit of analysis, is especially useful in assessing the impacts of this transformation (Geier and Tinkham 2011; Sharer and Ashmore 2003:124).

The bloody battles that occurred in 1862–1864 took place in an already established cultural landscape that included domestic, industrial, and agricultural structures; farmland; roads; and rail lines. In the course of their activities, Union and Confederate troops both utilized and altered the preexisting landscape, making use of abandoned residences and farm buildings, transportation routes, stores of supplies, and strategic aspects of the existing terrain to construct their camps, fortifications, and supply lines. The actions of the two armies resulted in long-term impacts to the cultural landscape and the pre- and post-war resident population of the greater Fredericksburg area.

Although some people returned to their homes after the war to try to reestablish their homes and farms, the battle-scarred landscape never completely recovered. The immediate collateral damage to civilian properties that occurred during the war included the looting, burning, and shelling of the Stevens House Site (CLI No. 154203, ASMIS No. FRSP00034.000, contributing site), the Bullock House Site, the Chancellorsville Inn, Fairview, the Landrum House Ruins (LCS No. 007933, ASMIS No. FRSP00130.000, contributing site); and the Spindle House (ASMIS No. FRSP00138.000, VDHR No. 44SP0503, contributing site); the confiscation of stored foods and livestock; and the deaths of people and animals. At Fredericksburg, the long-term impacts of the military occupation of civilian properties also included the hasty and often shallow burial of dead soldiers and animals on private property or on agricultural lands, a practice that made the return home for many civilians a horrifying experience and fouled the formerly rich farmland for many years. As a result of this "collateral damage" to civilian properties during the siege, many homes and farms were completely destroyed and never re-built.

Archeological investigation at many of these former buildings has largely been limited to the identification and mapping of structural and yard features. A GPR survey by Bruce Bevan in 1993 and subsurface testing by Allan Cooper in 2000 were successful in identifying the approximate position of the Martha Stevens House as it stood during the war. Follow-up work at the site designed to identify the locations of former stone walls on the property, which may have been used as defensive positions during the war, was unsuccessful (see discussion below) but did identify a sheet refuse deposit likely dating to the Stevens occupation. Work at the **Ebert House Site (CLI No. 154053, ASMIS No. FRSP00035.000, contributing site)** in 1965 and 2002 successfully identified its chimney stack, a brick-lined well, a pathway, and the remains of at least some *in situ* sandstone foundation stones. In 2000, JMU identified remnants of a chimney base associated with Fairview through trenching and test pits. (Bevan 1993; Cooper 2000; Geier and Sancomb 2002a, 2002b; JMU 2000; Wilson 1965).

Residential sites taken over for military purposes are potential archeological "time capsules" of daily life and have the potential to yield information about archeological site formation processes related to rapid site abandonment and destruction of domestic sites during wartime. Other civilian properties—such as **Fairfield**, which housed a Confederate supply depot; Chatham; the **McCoull House (ASMIS No.**

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FRSP00132.001, contributing site); the Chewning House Site; Ellwood; Fairview; the Willis Plantation; and the Bullock House Site—were occupied by troops who turned the surrounding grounds into encampments, supply areas, hospitals, and command centers. These properties have the potential to provide substantive information about the experiences of civilians and soldiers during the campaigns and the military tactics that made use of the existing landscape. For example, the slave quarters at the Harrison House (ASMIS No. FRSP00135.000, contributing site) were pulled down to build breastworks during the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House (Geier and Tinkham 2011; Harrison 1986:289).

Extant road networks were critically important to the efficient movement of troops, munitions, and provisions across the battlefield landscape and were often major tactical considerations in the selection of encampment and engagement sites. The **Sunken Road** at the base of Marye's Heights played a major role as a Confederate defensive position during the Battle of Fredericksburg. A significant portion of that road in its original alignment and has been preserved for interpretive purposes. Archeological excavations identified portions of the wall that originally bordered the road and its method of construction and identified the shadow of a possible military trench dug during the period between the Battle of Fredericksburg and Battle of Chancellorsville. Archeological work done in 2002 attempted to identify the configuration of the stone walls that formerly surrounded the Stevens House bordering the Sunken Road to assess their possible use as defensive lines during the battle, but no clear evidence of the former wall complex was found (Geier et al. 2001; Geier and Sancomb 2002a).

Modern development in and around the District has destroyed or obscured the routes of many other historical roadways used during the Civil War. One example is the road that extended the length of Lee's defenses in the Fredericksburg Battlefield, fragments of which have been archeologically identified at Hamilton's Crossing (ASMIS No. FRSP00064.005), west of Willis Hill, and west of the Bernard's Cabin Battery and Earthworks (ASMIS No. FRSP00064.005). Other roads within the current District boundaries that are consistently mentioned in battlefield descriptions include Old Orange Turnpike Trace (ASMIS No. FRSP00172.000), Orange Plank Road Trace (ASMIS No. FRSP00174.000), Mountain Road (ASMIS No. FRSP00051.000), Hazel Grove Road, Bullock Road, Furnace Road, and Culpeper Mine (Flat Run) Road. While often depicted as linear and straight features on military maps, several of the roads actually were contoured to the existing landscape or branched in different directions through a series of smaller traces that allowed for more efficient traffic flow. Archeological survey targeted at the locations of known and suspected historical road alignments across the District has the potential to resolve major and minor military map discrepancies and provide important information about troop movement and lines of communication that is not readily available in the existing documentary and cartographic sources.

Another aspect of the war that has received scant attention is the fate of refugee populations. Wealthy Southerners displaced by the war typically had a range of housing options available to them in neighboring cities or on outlying plantations. These individuals and families, while no doubt experiencing hardships as reflected in their personal correspondences, had the financial means and social connections to resettle themselves, temporarily or permanently, and wait out the war. Lower-class Southern whites and enslaved African Americans, however, did not have the socioeconomic resources to allow for their often hasty displacement or the literacy to record their experience (Hennessy 2012b). Some displaced individuals may have resorted to squatting in abandoned but comparatively undamaged houses and outbuildings. Martha Stevens, for example, seems to have left her badly damaged house after the Battle of Fredericksburg and taken up residence at Brompton, the abandoned Marye estate, with a black man named Charles (Harrison 1995b:131). Some former slaves found refuge in the Union lines where, under policies established early in the war, they were treated as contraband and paid to perform services for the

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army. The fate of other citizens of Fredericksburg who were forced to evacuate their homes in the cold of December 1862 is more of a mystery. <u>Salem Church</u> and <u>Fairfield</u> are reported to have housed refugees during the war, although their identities or their duration of occupation are not specified (Harrison 1990:161–162).

The archeological footprint of refugee encampments is a potentially important but largely unexplored aspect of Civil War history. What would such encampments look like? How would they differ in organization and content from temporary surface camps set up by soldiers? One obvious element might be a lack of military artifacts or the inclusion of children's toys, but marbles and self-supplied ammunition, particularly among Confederate troops, could obscure the distinction between military and civilian occupation. The fate and movement of these populations is important because they were part of a larger military landscape that likely interacted with and, to some extent, may have influenced the offensive or defensive actions of the clashing armies and the disbursement of supplies.

The Antebellum Landscape of Fredericksburg-Spotsylvania

The District contains sites and resources spanning the full spectrum of farms and early industrial complexes, from the most elaborate plantations and iron foundries, to the middling and marginal farming and milling complexes that represented the majority of antebellum Virginia's economy. The relative success of these farms and industries, and the corresponding wealth of their owners, was largely predicated on prevailing topographic conditions.

Farms and Fields

The large plantations, originally settled as part of early eighteenth-century land grants, were generally sited on well-drained uplands surrounded by vast arable fields and ready access to the transportation routes provided by the Rappahannock River or its navigable tributaries. Slave labor was universally used on these large plantations, resulting in a complex internal network of roads, residential complexes, field systems, and self-supporting industrial and commercial sites often harnessed to convenient water sources. Slave quarters were located near the main house and/or near the fields (Vlach 1993:10, 12). The District contains several extant and archeological resources reflecting the elaborate agricultural complexes at Chatham, Ellwood Plantation, the Jackson Shrine Site (Fairfield), and the Willis Plantation.

Chatham Manor was constructed in 1768–1771 in the Georgian style under the direction of William Fitzhugh. At the time of its construction, the surrounding grounds had only a few support structures: a detached kitchen and laundry and two small outbuildings. When the property was sold in 1797, insurance documents inventoried a much more expansive complex including a brick storehouse and springhouse, a stone dairy and springhouse, stables, a coach house, a farmyard containing barns and a granary, a cowhouse, an overseer's house, a blacksmith shop and quarters, workers' and slaves' quarters, a merchant mill, a miller's house, fisheries, and quarries. This expansive estate suggests an extremely wealthy family in control of substantial agricultural and commercial assets, including what was likely a substantial enslaved workforce. The Civil War brought about the dramatic and irreversible decline of that fortune for the Lacy family, the owners of the plantation at that time. Unable to recover from their property losses in a Southern economy decimated by both war and the elimination of slavery, the Lacys sold the estate and, by 1872, it was in the hands of a new owner. Over the intervening century, numerous new outbuildings, including a dairy barn, summerhouse, and greenhouses, were added; new and extensive gardens and walls were constructed; the kitchen was moved inside; and the outbuildings were turned first into servants' quarters, and then into guesthouses.

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The earliest and most comprehensive archeological work at Chatham was conducted during the late 1970s. The fieldwork consisted of a pedestrian survey and subsurface testing to locate potential resources identified through archival research. Significant features identified on the grounds surrounding the main house consisted of architectural debris suggesting former outbuildings; the remains of landscaped terraces that had been used for apple orchards; three relict road traces, including a remnant of the original River Road; stone storage chambers associated with the manor gardens; and the remains of a brick springhouse. Closer to the house itself, the survey identified several areas of exhumed Civil War graves; a front stairway leading to River Road, and the remains of several former support buildings, including a ca. 1768 smoke house (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.001) and cistern (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.002); an early milk house (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.005); an icehouse (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.011); and a nineteenth-century midden (ASMIS No. FRSP00091.007). Subsurface testing in 2004 recovered eighteenth- and nineteenth-century domestic debris but no significant cultural features or stratigraphic sequences (Cooke 2004:36).

No archeological work specifically targeting the location of the main residential complex for Chatham's enslaved workforce has yet been conducted, but architectural, cartographic, and historical research suggest that extant Outbuilding No. 1may have been used for that purpose. Test pits excavated around the building in 1978/1979 identified a midden containing mid- to late nineteenth-century domestic debris, but no unequivocal evidence of the site's occupants (Mid-Atlantic Archaeological Research, Inc. 1979; Mink 2010a).

The property that would come to be called Ellwood Plantation was first settled in 1777 by William Jones on 642 acres leased from the estate of Alexander Spotswood. Jones eventually purchased the "Spotswood Tract" outright and renamed it "Wilderness" in 1788. The extant manor house at Ellwood, built ca. 1798, is reported by family members to have replaced an earlier residential building that burned down at the onset of the Revolutionary War. A 1799 Mutual Assurance Map identifies the main house along with a number of outbuildings, including a detached kitchen, smokehouse, and dairy. As of 1799, Jones owned 29 enslaved African American people, making him one of the largest slaveholders in Spotsylvania County. Based on this number, it is likely that at least five and perhaps ten or more slave quarters were located on the estate, hidden from site of the main house. By 1805, four additional support buildings and structures had been added to the property including a laundry, an oven, and a smokehouse yet farther to the north. Jones continued to add land and buildings to his estate so that by the time of his death in 1845, the plantation consisted of 5,000 acres, 400 of which were improved. Ownership of the plantation was transferred to Jones' daughter, Betty Churchill Jones, who married J. Horace Lacy in 1848 and relocated to Chatham. From that time until the onset of the war, Ellwood served primarily as the Lacys' summer home with overseers and enslaved people maintaining the plantation in their absence. During the Battle of Chancellorsville, the house was used as a Confederate field hospital. Before it became a Union hospital during the 1864 Battle of the Wilderness, Lacy moved his enslaved workforce and their manager, Mr. Neese Jones, to another plantation, leaving Ellwood effectively deserted. The Lacy family reestablished control of Ellwood after the war but did not return there until 1872. The family lived on the property until the mid-1890s, after which tenants occupied it through 1906, when Hugh Evander Williss purchased it. During the 1920s and 1930s, Williss demolished the slave quarters, a cook's house, and a nineteenthcentury smokehouse and converted Ellwood into a working farm (Basalik et al. 1985:3).

The earliest archeology conducted at Ellwood occurred in 1978 and was designed to provide data about the manor house foundation in support of National Park Service plans to rebuild the front of the main house and to identify the nature and extent of yard features on the surrounding property. Excavations

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along the facade of the house identified an eighteenth-century midden. A site map identifying the former locations of landscape features also was produced, drawn largely from the recollections of Dr. Gordon Jones, one of the most recent occupants of the house at that time. Dr. Jones identified the possible locations of a privy, out-kitchen, well, cook's house, springhouse, icehouse, and slave quarters, with the slave quarters provisionally located across the old road behind the main house. Additional geophysical survey and subsurface testing identified burned soil horizons, midden features, porch footings, slab footings for a former kitchen structure, a buried brick walkway and brick floor surface, and a former cellar entrance (Bevan 1985; Mid-Atlantic Archaeological Research, Inc. 1984; Rockwell 1978; Wilson 1980).

JMU's 2004 survey of the property, designed to field verify the feature locations provided on the 1978 site map, met with mixed results. There was no clear evidence of the smokehouse, springhouse, oven, ca. 1860 barn, or cook's cabin, but the kitchen and dairy appeared to have survived as slight ground depressions. The only evidence of the former slave quarters, removed during the early twentieth century, was a shallow, approximately 14'-x-14.5' depression. The remains of the pre-war icehouse, filled with twentieth-century farm trash, were observed along the lower slopes of a ravine north of the manor house. No evidence of a residential structure pre-dating the Lacy House was conclusively identified, but the recovery of mid-eighteenth-century artifacts and the identification of walkways and brick floors that did not clearly connect with the standing building provide indirect evidence of an earlier occupation.

While most famous as the site of Stonewall Jackson's death, Fairfield Plantation was established long before the Civil War ravaged Caroline County. Established by John Thornton in 1798 on 465 heavily forested acres carved out of a much larger seventeenth-century land patent, Fairfield is located in an area known historically as Guinea Station. With Thornton's death in 1844, his property went to his third wife, Mildred Washington Dade. The following year, Thomas Coleman Chandler of Spotsylvania acquired the farm (less a ½-acre family cemetery) in two parcels. Chandler evidently did not care for Thornton's wood-frame house and replaced it with a brick building in the same location, perhaps re-using the same foundation in whole or in part. One of Chandler's son, John Alsop Chandler, went to medical school in Philadelphia and returned home to Fairfield to set up his practice, at least briefly, in the "office" building southeast of the manor house, the same building in which General Jackson died on May 10, 1863 (Happel 1961:9–11, 16–17).

The 1860 census records the Chandler holdings at Fairfield as 2,574 acres, 740 of which were owned outright by Thomas. There were 38 enslaved people older than the age of 12 at Fairfield. The large amount of land combined with the large number of enslaved workers suggests that the Chandler family was engaged in large-scale tobacco production, which by the mid-nineteenth century had become nearly the exclusive purview of wealthy planters. In 1863, presumably after the death of Stonewall Jackson on the property, Thomas Chandler sold (or possibly leased) the plantation to the physician Edgar McKenney who was identified as the resident owner at the time the Union Sixth Corps passed through the area in May 1864. The property changed hands several times after the war and, by 1909, it had been extensively subdivided. In 1909, William N. White, president of the Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac Railroad, acquired 5 acres of the former Fairfield plantation that included the brick manor house and the wood "office" where Jackson died. The dilapidated state of the manor house resulted in its removal, but the office was extensively repaired (Happel 1961:22, 69–70).

Fairfield (more commonly referred to as the Jackson Shrine Site) consists of the renovated office building, a 30'-x-50' depression that marks the former location of the manor house, a 1962 well house built as a replica of a Civil War-era structure that stood on the property, and a ground depression

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associated with a former icehouse. Additional features suggested by historic photographs and site descriptions include a formal set of terraces that descend the slopes to the front of the house and a wood-frame smokehouse. Archeological investigations conducted at the site in 1983 and 1984 identified a hall-and-parlor type earthfast dwelling and a nineteenth-century slave cabin designated the Thornton-Chandler Slave Quarter (ASMIS No. 00089.000) (Linck 1983; Sorenson 1987).

Based on the property history as reconstructed from deeds, the earthfast structure likely was built and occupied at some time during the mid-eighteenth century and abandoned during the 1770s. This chronology suggests that the building was not the house built by Thornton and later torn down by Chandler, but the first of three primary residential buildings erected on the site. The rudimentary nature of the identified housing contrasts, to some extent, with the more expensive, higher-status domestic assemblage recovered from the site. As it was common for plantation owners to install their sons as overseers on their more far-flung plantation "quarters," it is likely that one of Thornton's sons occupied the property to gain experience in plantation management, perhaps easing the strain of tight quarters with more refined dining habits. The slave quarter structure consisted of a brick chimney base and two postholes but no evidence of a brick or stone foundation. This pattern suggests that the building was constructed on wood piers, a common, cheap, and expedient building technique for slave housing during that period. The location of the former building south of the main house contradicts historical accounts that place the slave quarters north of the house, suggesting that the building may have housed an overseer or enslaved house servants whose status granted them some physical separation from the main slave housing complex.

Archival research on the Willis Plantation on Marye's Heights documented a substantial agricultural complex occupied by the Willis family in the late eighteenth century. A 1796 insurance map of the Willis estate illustrates the main residence surrounded by a number of dependencies and yard features, including a laundry, dairy, meat house, and well. The plantation burned, fully occupied, on December 13, 1817. After the fire, the plantation site remained undeveloped until the mid-nineteenth century, when William Mitchell purchased the property and built a fairly substantial brick residence surrounded by a number of brick dependencies. The exact construction date of the Mitchell farmhouse is unknown, but photographs and maps indicate that it was built largely within the footprint of the former residential core of the Willis plantation. Following the Battles of Fredericksburg, only the brick chimneys of the Mitchell brick residential building and a smaller brick dependency survived, both of which were removed after 1882 when Charles Richardson purchased the property and built an Italianate-style residence. The National Park Service removed the Richardson House and associated outbuildings after 2010. Geophysical survey and subsurface testing conducted at the site in 2001-2003 identified a number of landscape and structural features including Willis-era landscaped slopes running to the Sunken Road; a well depicted on a 1796 Mutual Assurance record; the extant Willis Family Cemetery; the stone foundation of the Willis kitchen and associated cellar hole; the north wall of the Willis laundry; a Mitchell-era brick foundation and cellar hole; and evidence of a third brick Mitchell-era structure (McCartney 2002).

The plantation sites discussed above reflect the tremendous agricultural fertility of the terraces and uplands along the Rappahannock River and the Mattaponi River drainage, and the great amount of wealth that was reaped from those lands during the antebellum period. In most instances, the high-profile families who occupied these properties were some of the earliest white settlers to the region, and were deeply connected to one another through the ties of society, business, and family. The social and economic connections shared among these families resulted in broadly similar declines in fortune with the abolition of slavery, the economic depression that followed the Civil War, and the realignment of the social hierarchy during Reconstruction.

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The Chatham, Ellwood, Fairfield, and Willis plantations exhibit generally good integrity and have the potential to yield substantive information about the antebellum agricultural development of the area from the late eighteenth through mid-nineteenth centuries. The number and level of preservation of the former buildings on the sites, in particular, have the potential to provide data about how structural and landscape patterns might reflect prevailing trends in crop selection and the organization of labor. For example, early settlement at the Ellwood, Fairfield, and Willis plantation sites suggests the survival of late eighteenth-to very early nineteenth-century residences and outbuildings that could provide information about housing patterns and architectural preferences among the elite during a period pre-dating the wholesale adoption of tobacco as a cash crop and the near exclusive use of slave labor. Variable proximity to the Rappahannock River among the plantations and the movement and marriage of elite families from one plantation to another suggest questions. Do riverfront plantation settings result in substantively different landscape and building organization patterns than interior plantation sites, especially in the location of slave quarters? Do Ellwood and Chatham exhibit any complementarity in landscape organization and labor provisioning based on family ties?

The presence of an enslaved workforce at each of these sites provides another set of inquiries. Does increased or decreased proximity between the "big house" and slave quarters result in qualitatively different material cultural and architectural patterns? How do residential and consumption patterns compare and contrast among enslaved populations living on owner-occupied plantations such as Chatham versus those living on overseer maintained properties such as Ellwood? Did house servants and artisans at Chatham have comparatively greater freedom or at least some limited agency that established that they were something more than just the property of other people? Known slave quarters such as **Bernard's Cabins (ASMIS No. FRSP00066.000, contributing site)** on the Mansfield Plantation and the Thornton-Chandler Slave Quarter at Fairfield have the potential to yield information to substantively address these types of questions, although the level of archeological work conducted on the sites has so far yielded equivocal temporal and functional information (Cooper 2000:29–34; Geier and Lotts 2004; Linck 1983; Sorenson 1987).

As large plantations were subdivided as the result of marriage or attrition throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, smaller but comfortably prosperous farms developed that took advantage of good, albeit more limited, acreage. These farms, some of which may have used slave labor depending on the wealth and proclivities of the owner, operated on a more local scale to supply themselves and the surrounding community with agricultural products. They were less structurally complex than the large plantations and generally consisted of a core residential complex with a limited suite of outbuildings. Contributing sites within the District representative of this "middling" class of farmers include the Landrum House Ruins, the McCoull House, the Harrison House, and the Spindle House.

According to the 1860 census, the Landrum House was owned by the farmer Williss Landrum and shared with several family members including Lucy, Mary, Bettie, Cornelius, and Edward. The farm, purchased in 1825, comprised 170 acres and supported livestock valued at \$295. The house is believed to have been a log-framed, wood-sheathed, one-and-one-half-story building with four rooms surrounded by a garden and at least one outbuilding. Family members claim the house was very old at the time of its purchase by Williss, suggesting a potential eighteenth-century construction date. A detached kitchen, log barn, and icehouse also may have stood on the property. Williss reportedly purchased three enslaved people in 1845, suggesting the potential for associated housing, but there is no record of those individuals in the 1860 census. The family abandoned the house on May 11, 1864, during the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House. It served as a Union headquarters until May 18, when it was destroyed. The Landrum family

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rebuilt in the same location, but that house was destroyed by fire in 1897. The aboveground, visible remains on the site consist of two stone chimney bases, several depressions that may be the remains of the former icehouse and other outbuildings, and linear drainage ditches. Subsurface testing identified what was tentatively interpreted as a preserved cultural floor and the northwest and southeast corners of an original stone foundation that indicated an approximately 46'-x-20' building (Blades 1979:3, 4 10, 11–12; Harrison 1986:297–298).

The earliest mention of the McCoull family in Spotsylvania is found in a deed dated November 22, 1774, when Neil McCoull, a merchant, is recorded as having purchased 1,000 acres. McCoull purchased 150 more acres in 1778, which connected his original purchase with the property of the wealthy and influential Marye family to the north. Through a series of complicated land transactions and debt payments, the McCoull family came into possession of more than 400 acres of the neighboring Marye estate in 1808, land that became the core of the McCoull (or Woodshaw) Farm. The 1860 census records list a descendant of Neil McCoull as the property owner and that the estate comprised 600 acres and livestock and farm equipment valued at more than \$800. McCoull also owned six enslaved people at this time. During the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House, the McCoull farmhouse was encompassed by the portion of the Confederate defensive line that became known as the "Mule Shoe," and was used as Confederate headquarters. Robert E. Lee and other high-ranking officers met in the house on multiple occasions. The house survived the war and was leased as a tenant farm until it was destroyed by fire in 1921. Archival photographs dating to 1865 show that the one-and-one-half-story house was surrounded by a substantial number of outbuildings including a smokehouse, a detached kitchen, stable, springhouse, and slave quarters. The results of a 1933 archeological investigation at the site described an extant 18'-x-33' house foundation, but no analysis of the recovered artifact assemblage (Geier and Tinkham 2006; Gurney 1939:3-15; Harrison 1986:292; Rhea 1997:187, 225).

In 1860, the Harrison House was occupied by Edgar W. Harrison, who survived the war as a Confederate veteran of Company E of the Ninth Virginia Cavalry. Before entering the army, Harrison owned 190 acres valued at \$1,500 and maintained a personal estate of \$9,500 that included a small number of horses and livestock. Harrison also exploited the work of 11 enslaved people. Harrison's farm produced corn, oats, tobacco, and butter sufficient to support his wife and two children. The house itself was described as a wood one-and-one-half-story building set on a stone foundation with two brick chimneys and two "shed additions," all of which survived the Battle of Spotsylvania Court House only to fall into disrepair and burn to the ground after the war. With the exception of an archeological reconnaissance survey conducted in 2004 by JMU, no systematic survey of the site has been conducted, so its overall integrity cannot be assessed. Remnants of the chimney bases and displaced foundation stones mark the former location of the house, but there are no surface indications of the support structures, including barns, stables, sheds, and a possible detached kitchen and slave quarters, that once surrounded the house (Harrison 1986:288).

Burned to the ground by Confederate troops during the engagement at Laurel Hill on May 8, 1864, the Spindle House stood on land originally owned by the Wiglesworth family. The house was built in 1821 by Benjamin Spindle who had married into the family at or close to that year. Benjamin died in late 1859 or early 1860, and his estate of 332 acres was divided among his children and his second wife, Sarah. His heirs also divided 21 enslaved people among themselves. While the valuation of the Spindle land and property holdings was high, the family home was comparatively modest, described as a simple 2 ½ -story wooden farmhouse sited on a small rise and surrounded by an orchard and outbuildings. Like many of their neighbors, the Spindles practiced a more diversified farming regimen consisting of tobacco, wheat, corn, oats, tobacco, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, and hay but were still reliant on the productivity of an

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enslaved workforce (KCI Technologies 1997; Harrison 1986). Several phases of archeological work have been conducted at the site resulting in the identification of a 15'-x-25' backfilled cellar and associated laid brick feature; a depression marking the likely location of a springhouse; a linear mound of demolition debris; and a large assemblage of domestic debris associated with the Spindle occupation and military debris (i.e. 2-ring minie ball, an Enfield bullet, several percussion caps, an artillery fuse, and pieces of shrapnel). The percussion caps were concentrated around the brick feature at the north end of the cellar, suggesting that Union soldiers shielded themselves with the end of the house as Confederates fired at them from earthworks to the south (Geier et al. 2005, KCI Technologies 1997).

The Landrum, McCoull, Harrison, and Spindle sites consist of structural and landscape features associated with thriving antebellum middle-class farmsteads that have the potential to provide information on a range of research issues from a comparative, diachronic perspective. These agrarian complexes participated to varying degrees in the antebellum slaveholding economy and, unlike much larger plantations, were oriented to the production of wheat and corn rather than tobacco or cotton. The archeological exploration of changes to these disparate farm landscapes, including changes in architecture and activity patterns, may shed light on the processes of economic development, shifting patterns of agriculture, and shifting ideas about class, race, and social relations before, during, and after the war in rural Spotsylvania County. The exploration of the living conditions of enslaved individuals living on these farms would provide an especially interesting point of comparison to larger plantation complexes such as Chatham, Ellwood, and Fairfield. Unlike those estates where slave housing was organized as discrete, physically separate quarters from the "big house," enslaved and free people on these smaller slave-holding farms likely lived in much closer proximity to one another. At the McCoull House, for example, the attic space above the detached kitchen is believed to also have been used as slave housing. How this proximity, with its presumed increase in surveillance on one hand and increased personal interactions on the other hand, might express itself archeologically is an open question that could be addressed through the comparative analysis of material culture assemblages among and between large and middling farm contexts.

As the best lands were consolidated into ownership by fewer and fewer individuals during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, families with limited money and resources were forced onto acreage deemed agriculturally marginal at best and valueless at worst. The heavily forested and comparatively low-lying and swampy conditions of the Wilderness that proved such a misery to the Union and Confederate troops likely presented an equally miserable farming prospect to all but the least prosperous families with the fewest choices. This supposition is corroborated by the Higgerson Farm Ruins, the Chewning Farm, and the Widow Tapp Ruins Site, all known to have been standing during the Battle of the Wilderness and used as tactical and headquarters positions during that engagement (see discussion above).

The Higgerson farm, described by an advancing Union infantryman as "a small hut and tobacco barn built of logs," was home to farmer Benjamin Higgerson, age 50; his wife, Permelia Chewning Higgerson; and four children aged 2 to 8. The census data records no enslaved persons in the household. A photograph taken during the 1930s shows a one-and-one-half-story building with a shed addition used as a kitchen. A pile of rocks, the former chimney, is all that remains of the house. The Chewning farm was home to farmer William M. Chewning, age 69; his wife Permelia, age 68; and what appear to be an adult son and daughter or daughter-in-law. Chewning owned 150 acres, 80 of which were described as improved, and a two-and-one-half-story, two-room-deep house with associated outbuildings. JMU's reconnaissance and subsurface testing surveys of the site identified no structural or artifact evidence of the Chewning House. The Tapp farm was occupied by Catharine Tapp, age 55, and a large group of family members and

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boarders ranging in age from infancy to mid-twenties. Catherine is listed as a farmer in the 1860 census, although she owned no real estate and the farm did not use slave labor. The presence of Jackson Lewis in the house, a 25-year-old laborer, suggests Tapp may have been working the surrounding land. The house is described as a one-and-one-half-story log building with at least one chimney with a companion orchard, corn crib, and log stable. The house evidently survived the war but was destroyed sometime shortly after. No evidence of the house or associated yard features has been identified archeologically.

The Higgerson, Chewning, and Tapp farms were occupied by lower-class farming families tied together by marriage and circumstance. While the lifestyles of the upper-class "farming" families that occupied plantations like Ellwood, Chatham, and Fairfield are well-documented, the lower end of the spectrum consisting of hardscrabble white farmers is less well understood. This comparative lack of documentation is as much a phenomenon of their low archeological and archival "visibility" as to any inherent lack of scholarly interest. Because of their roles in the Battle of the Wilderness, the Chewning, Higgerson, and Tapp farms survive as known archeological resources, but their value is in their potential to provide meaningful data about the material culture, architectural, and landscape profiles of lower-class farm families in the rural agricultural community of western Spotsylvania County in particular and antebellum Virginia in general. Moreover, domestic and architectural artifacts and features collected from these sites (e.g., ceramics and glass, food remains, residential and ancillary building foundation footprints, window glass, or nails) could provide meaningful comparative data to those from slave quarter sites such as the Thornton-Chandler Slave Quarter and Bernard's Cabins. Are there similarities between the two that could speak to legally distinct but practically similar social and economic positions? Are differences best understood as internal cultural signifiers, or as products of economically influenced acquisition and use patterns?

The Engines of Industry

A description of Fredericksburg in the period immediately preceding the Civil War underscores that it was not only an agricultural center, but also a town striving for industrial and commercial prominence on local and regional levels:

Fredericksburg waged a perpetual struggle for prosperity. In the 1850's, the town made investments in canals, railroads, and even a road made of planks (Orange Plank Road), trying to lure business and goods into town from the piedmont. Entrepreneurs made private investments in hundreds of businesses, many of them lasting only few months. Several new mills dotted the river and power canal, including John Marye's Excelsior Mill.... Northern transplant Peleg Clarke opened a sash and blind factory near the railroad. The Hope foundry started its noisy business of making steam engines and farm implements.... Both John Knight and George Aler (who doubled as a slave trader) operated brickyards.... Out the Orange Plank Road stood John G. Hurkamp's tannery, one of the most prominent industries in town (Hennessy 2005:7).

Several resources associated with industrial and commercial pursuits survive within the District and are significant for their influence on the antebellum economy and their roles in shaping the battlefield landscapes.

Water-powered gristmill and sawmill complexes were developed along the waterways and tributaries of the Rappahannock and Rapidan rivers within and north of the District. Hazel Run, a tributary stream that flows south of Willis Hill and then east to the Rappahannock, served a number of these businesses

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including Howison's Mill (CLI No. 154209, ASMIS No. FRSP00001,000, contributing site). This gristmill was constructed in 1797 by Fontaine Maury, and insurance records indicate that the wood and stone mill building was three stories in height. In 1799, Maury sold "all mills, mill dams, mill stones, and gear and utensils there belonging" to William Drummond and, by 1800, an advertisement by Drummond suggests the presence of a residential building, likely the miller's house visible in an 1865 photograph. Tax records indicate that by 1836 a second mill, owned by John Wellford, was standing on the property. During the Civil War, the mill site was located just behind the Confederate defenses on Willis Hill and likely provided some protection and a staging area for troops during the Battle of Fredericksburg in 1862. After using the site as an encampment during the Battle of Chancellorsville, Union soldiers destroyed all the machinery in the mill before leaving Fredericksburg at the end of May 1863. The mill was back up and running by 1867, but sometime thereafter the mill dam was destroyed by flooding and, in December 1894, the mill itself was destroyed by fire. Archeological evidence of the nineteenth-century miller's house likely has been compromised by quarrying, filling, and dumping activities associated with modern road construction and maintenance. Remnants of the early mill complex (FRSP00001.003), however, are still visible on the landscape as are the remains of a later nineteenth-century dam structure (FRSP00001.006) and a channelized stream bed (FRSP00001.004), mill dam, and race, although the latter is located just outside the District boundaries (Geier and Sancomb 2003b:10; Geier and Sancomb 2003a:28; Harrison 1986; McCartney 2002:39).

Sawmills and gristmills were critically important to agrarian communities but were generally smallerscale enterprises that served local needs. Iron furnaces, on the other hand, were far larger and more complex industries that, by virtue of their significant capital and labor expenditures, were typically tied into a much larger regional economy. The Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park falls within the productive Louisa Spotsylvania Limonite District, a line of metallic mines across the western Piedmont that supported at least eight iron mines and two ironworks, including the Catharine Furnace Ruins). The Catharine Furnace was established ca. 1837 under the management and controlling interest of the Wellford family. With the death of John Wellford in 1846, the furnace was put up for sale and eventually abandoned for lack of a buyer. The furnace was sited to take advantage of the abundant hardwoods in the Wilderness that could be used to make charcoal, a necessary component for iron smelting. In 1861, the property was conveyed to new owners, including members of the Wellford family and, by 1862, efforts were underway to renovate the furnace facilities. The company was formally incorporated in 1863 to manufacture iron in support of the Confederate war effort and was overrun and destroyed by the Union Army in May 1864 during the Battle of the Wilderness, A second iteration of the furnace, rebuilt by February 1865 and designed to manufacture steel, was erected within 0.5 mile of its original location but was quickly eclipsed by the burgeoning industry in Pittsburgh (Geier and Tinkham 2003b; Gooch 1954:10; Watson 1994).

The Catharine Furnace Ruins Site comprises a well-preserved collection of structural features, including the Furnace, Engine House and Fuel Court (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.001), the Coal House (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.002), Blacksmith Shop and Loading Facility (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.013), the Catharine Furnace Dam (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.014), and the Furnace Race and Roadbed (ASMIS No. FRSP00008.015). Several phases of archeological work have mapped the complex and documented the surviving structural remains through trenching (Geier and Sancomb 2003b; Gruber 1978; Northington 1936).

The Catherine Furnace formerly was surrounded by a network of roads, including Old Furnace Road and Hazel Grove Road, which connected it to the surrounding mining and timbering areas and to the **Matthew Fontaine Maury Farmstead (ASMIS No. FRSP00020.000, contributing site)** and the

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Wellford Farmstead Site (ASMIS No. FRSP00009.000, contributing site), both of which supplied food and other support needs to the workers and livestock essential to the mining operation. The Maury family purchased the Matthew Fontaine Maury Farmstead in 1797 from "Light Horse Harry" Lee, father of Robert E. Lee, At that time the property consisted of 103 acres and a house in which Matthew Fontaine Maury—the first superintendent of the United States Naval Observatory, founder of the science of oceanography, and an officer in the Confederate Navy-was born in 1806. Maury lived in the house until about the age of five, when the family moved to Tennessee. By the time of the Civil War, the eighteenthcentury house had been replaced by a second, nineteenth-century building that was eventually demolished. The nineteenth-century house remains consist of a brick-walled, 60'-x-25' cellar hole separated by a path from a 25'-x-30' landscaped platform that could be an addition to the main dwelling or an outbuilding. A second cellar-hole depression measuring 40' square with an attached platform is approximately 100' to the north and is interpreted as the remains of the original eighteenth-century Maury House. The Wellford Farmstead was built by the Wellford family as part of the furnace complex; according to archival photographs, it stood at least until the 1930s. The site, south of the furnace on the west side of Jackson Trail, consists of a 25'-x-20' brick cellar hole and chimney base associated with the Wellford house, a wood-covered well, a stone platform possibly associated with a former outbuilding, and a possible barn platform.

Catharine Furnace was an important component of the local and regional economies. More comprehensive archeological survey of the site has the potential to provide information about how the furnace articulated, structurally and functionally, with the surrounding community and natural environment. The operation of the furnace relied the ample supply of wood available in the Wilderness. Some of the untyped depressions identified across the landscape at Chancellorsville and the Wilderness may be the remains of charcoal hearths and colliers' huts related to the Catharine Furnace rather than to Civil War-era military features. The positive identification of these features has the potential to add to the story of how and where the manufacture of iron utilized natural resources.

It also has the potential to provide information on who performed that labor. Unlike the itinerant workforce used to monitor the charcoal mounds in other areas, enslaved labor is known to have been used in all aspects of iron production, including charcoal making, at Catherine Furnace. Historians have little source material to work with to explore the industrial slavery, and the archaeological information on that topic is virtually non-existent. Archeological excavations at the furnace in 1936 confirmed the locations of the boardinghouse and smokehouse, but provided little information on the associated material culture profile to examine the lives of the people who worked in those buildings. More targeted excavations at Catherine Furnace have the potential to provide information on the nature of industrial slavery as expressed through portable material culture, hut construction, and food remains. This data can be compared to other known industrial slavery contexts such as Pennsylvania's Cornwall Furnace or Virginia's Tredegar Iron Works, and to non-slave labor contexts such as Pennsylvania's Hopewell Furnace. The information could also be compare to the comprehensively explored contexts of agrarian plantations to assess differences and similarities in provisioning, diet, and housing, and how those issues may have been influenced by the nature and locations of the enforced labor (Adams 2011: 49–62).

The aboveground remains at the Catharine Furnace provide an excellent opportunity to explore the infrastructure and technology of a cold-blast iron furnace. These types of furnaces were critical to the development of the early American industrial economy and typically consisted of a broad range of structures and buildings. The 1846 sale advertisement of the furnace provides a picture of the complex as it existed at that time, including a 36'-tall stack, casting house, stone engine house, bridge and coal houses, an office, boardinghouse, blacksmith shop, ball and pattern house, and smoke house. The

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archeological exploration of these resources has the potential to provide information about the physical layout of the complex and how that layout compares to other early nineteenth-century iron plantations such as Hopewell Furnace.

Analysis of waste materials at the site could also provide information on iron production processes and the relative quality and technological sophistication of products from the furnace. For example, Roland Robbins tested ten samples from the ca. Saugus Iron Works slag pile against samples taken from a contemporaneous blast furnace in Braintree for comparison. The chemical analysis employed by Robbins characterized the slag samples by their major compounds and measured the amount of elemental phosphorous and sulfur contained in each sample; these data are useful for comparison with similar analyses conducted at other ironmaking sites (Kotlensky 2007:135–171). Similarities between the slag samples suggested that the managers at Saugus operated their furnace in a similar fashion to that of the Braintree furnace, and perhaps adapted ironmaking knowledge, if not talent, directly from Braintree (Linebaugh 2000:22, 36). This early comparative exercise illustrates the potential of the data contained in slag deposits, and might be used to explore differences and similarities in Catherine Furnace's iron production that made it more or less profitable compared to other regional furnaces, information that is not otherwise contained in the documentary record (Griswold 2011:132; Linebaugh 2000:22).

Many of the subsites documented for the Catharine Furnace have been described as untyped platforms or depressions variably ascribed to the operation of the facility. Some of these features may be the remains of impermanent structures used to house furnace workers. The workers' roles, and whether they were enslaved or free, are important to understanding how the furnace operated. The positive identification and exploration of worker housing around the furnace has the potential to provide information about diet, health, and ethnicity and could also provide clues about the level of integration the workers had with the larger community. Are there similarities in ceramics, glass, and food remains that suggest a common commercial source, or are they different enough to suggest separate provisioning by the furnace owners? Additional archeological investigations at the Wellford and Maury farmsteads, both of which were known to have supplied the furnace, could yield valuable comparative data with which to address similarities and differences between small, family-owned farms in proximity to the furnace and those domestic sites specifically oriented to provisioning the furnace.

Secondarily (and unintentionally) the small- and large-scale industrial complexes created road networks, dams, buildings, and structures that the Union and Confederate armies used for tactical purposes during the Battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. Their destruction or disablement during the war had profound and negative economic consequences for communities that were already suffering deeply from the loss of their homes, livestock, and productive agricultural lands.

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Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA

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Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA

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Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Military Park Name of Property County and State Previous documentation on file (NPS): preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested previously listed in the National Register previously determined eligible by the National Register designated a National Historic Landmark recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey # recorded by Historic American Engineering Record # recorded by Historic American Landscape Survey # Primary location of additional data: State Historic Preservation Office Other State agency X Federal agency Local government University Other Name of repository: Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): 10. Geographical Data Acreage of Property 7,231.42 acres Use either the UTM system or latitude/longitude coordinates Latitude/Longitude Coordinates Datum if other than WGS84: (enter coordinates to 6 decimal places) Wilderness Battlefield AA. Latitude: 38,326206 Longitude: -77.768839 AB. Latitude: 38.332214 Longitude: -77.734950 AC. Latitude: 38.324371 Longitude: -77.721176 Longitude: -77.708916 AD. Latitude: 38.313821 AE. Latitude: 38.282765 Longitude: -77.684331 AF. Latitude: 38.276727 Longitude: -77.690317 AG. Latitude: 38.283202 Longitude: -77.710401 AH. Latitude: 38.281227 Longitude: -77.472975

Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania	National	Military	Park
Name of Property			

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State

AI. Latitude: 38.283486	Longitude: -77.751884
AJ. Latitude: 38.296136	Longitude: -77.757682

Chancellorsville Battlefield

Handellor o Time Datestelles	
BA. Latitude: 38.319622	Longitude: -77.669614
BB. Latitude: 38.320769	Longitude: -77.641432
BC. Latitude: 38.318493	Longitude: -77.632686
BD. Latitude: 38.300483	Longitude: -77.612748
BE. Latitude: 38.279024	Longitude: -77.644741
BF. Latitude: 38.264171	Longitude: -77.669174
BG. Latitude: 38.263097	Longitude: -77.679480
BH. Latitude: 38.276773	Longitude: -77.690433
BI. Latitude: 38.269547	Longitude: -77.667784
BJ. Latitude: 38.290170	Longitude: -77.652852
BK. Latitude: 38.304257	Longitude: -77.654006
BL. Latitude: 38.310355	Longitude: -77.671957

Spotsylvania Court House Battlefield

potaji ama cout i mouse continui	
CA. Latitude: 38,232125	Longitude: -77.611330
CB. Latitude: 38.232095	Longitude: -77.590454
CC. Latitude: 38.228405	Longitude: -77.586488
CD. Latitude: 38.211015	Longitude: -77,576048
CE. Latitude: 38.206687	Longitude: -77.592459
CF. Latitude: 38.207900	Longitude: -77.629193
CG. Latitude: 38.216483	Longitude: -77.624552

Salem Church

DA. Latitude: 38.289249	Longitude: -77.531382
DB. Latitude: 38.291437	Longitude: -77.527985
DC. Latitude: 38.287580	Longitude: -77.530785

Chatham

EA. Latitude: 38.313710	Longitude: -77.462061
EB. Latitude: 38.313147	Longitude: -77.454168
EC. Latitude: 38.308793	Longitude: -77.451136
ED. Latitude: 38.305215	Longitude: -77.455851

Fredericksburg Battlefield

FA. Latitude: 38.308075	Longitude: -77.460743
FB. Latitude: 38.297170	Longitude: -77.468960
FC. Latitude: 38.293812	Longitude: -77.466461
FD. Latitude: 38.291331	Longitude: -77.468306
FE. Latitude: 38.291154	Longitude: -77.474303
FF. Latitude: 38.289178	Longitude: -77.474831

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State

Hamo or Freparty	
FG. Latitude: 38.275019	Longitude: -77.465859
FH. Latitude: 38.262503	Longitude: -77.466191
FI. Latitude: 38.263305	Longitude: -77.453336
FJ. Latitude: 38.253733	Longitude: -77.430796
FK. Latitude: 38.243427	Longitude: -77.434511
FL. Latitude: 38.246001	Longitude: -77.452492
FM. Latitude: 38.252497	Longitude: -77.471181
FN. Latitude: 38.265672	Longitude: -77.477172
FO. Latitude: 38.286409	Longitude: -77.477282
Jackson Shrine	
GA. Latitude: 38.150322	Longitude: -77.441302
GB. Latitude: 38.144875	Longitude: -77.438889
GC. Latitude: 38.148954	Longitude: -77.433284

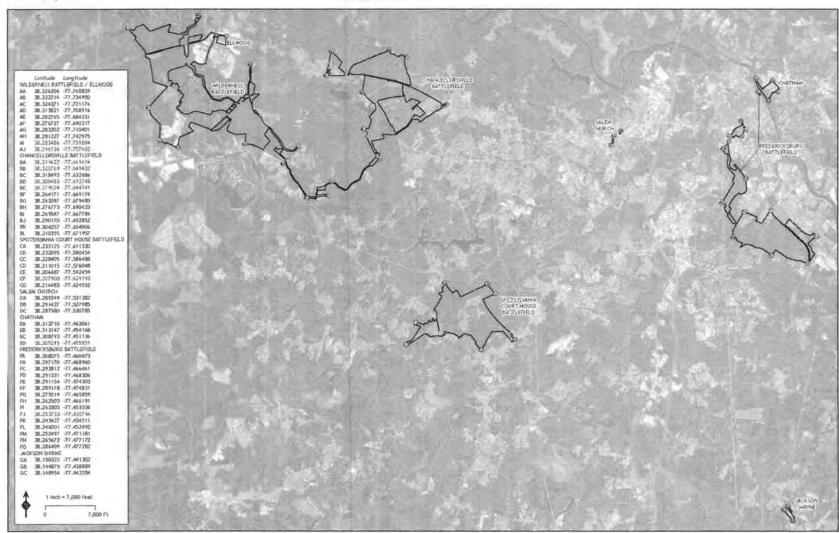
Verbal Boundary Description (Describe the boundaries of the property.)

The National Register district boundary corresponds to the authorized boundary of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park minus non-Federally owned lands adjacent to the authorized boundary and encompasses seven discontiguous parcels of land that total 7,326.5 acres, as shown on the attached district map.

Boundary Justification (Explain why the boundaries were selected.)

In accordance with NPS-28: Cultural Resource Management Guideline, Appendix Q, the National Park Service is responsible for evaluating the entire area contained within the authorized boundaries of historical units within the National Park System. National Register boundaries may contain less but not more area than the authorized boundary. The district boundaries for the Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park Historic District follow the authorized boundaries of Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National Military Park minus non-Federally owned lands that are adjacent to the authorized boundary. Non-Federally owned inholdings that are completely surrounded by park lands are included within the District.

Fredericksburg/Spots/Ivania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State



Fredericksburg & Spotsylvania National Military Park Historic District Coordinate Map

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA
County and State

11. Form Prepared By

name/title: Stephen A. Olausen, Sr. Architectural Historian; Kristen Heitert, Sr.

Archaeologist; Laura Kline, Architectural Historian; Gretchen Pineo, Architectural Historian;

Elizabeth de Block, Asst. Architectural Historian

organization: PAL

street & number: 26 Main Street

city or town: Pawtucket state: RI

zip code: <u>02860</u>

e-mail: solausen@palinc.com telephone: (401) 728-8780

date: May 2016; revised July 2017

Additional Documentation

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- Maps: A USGS map or equivalent (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.
- Sketch map for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources. Key all photographs to this map.
- Additional items: (Check with the SHPO, TPO, or FPO for any additional items.)

Photographs

Submit clear and descriptive photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels (minimum), 3000x2000 preferred, at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Key all photographs to the sketch map. Each photograph must be numbered and that number must correspond to the photograph number on the photo log. For simplicity, the name of the photographer, photo date, etc. may be listed once on the photograph log and doesn't need to be labeled on every photograph.

Photo Log

Name of Property: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania County Battlefields Memorial National

Military Park

City or Vicinity: Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Spotsylvania, Woodford

County: Fredericksburg (city), Caroline, Orange, Spotsylvania, Stafford State: VA

Photographer: <u>Gretchen Pineo and Laura Kline</u> Date Photographed: November 3–7, 2014

Fredericksburg/Spotsylvania/Stafford/Orange/Caroline, VA

County and State

Description of Photograph(s) and number, include description of view indicating direction of camera:

- 1 of 72. Chatham Entrance Gate and Chatham Carriage Drive, looking northwest.
- 2 of 72. Chatham Manor and Chatham Music Stair, looking northeast.
- 3 of 72. Chatham Manor and Chatham Walled Garden, looking south.
- 4 of 72. Chatham Rotunda and Pan Statue, looking southeast.
- 5 of 72. Chatham Laundry, Chatham Rear Garden Wall and Gates, and Exedra Bench, looking northeast.
- 6 of 72. Chatham Garden Paths and Chatham Kitchen, looking southeast.
- 7 of 72. Chatham Walled Garden and Walled Garden Small-Scale Features, looking north.
- 8 of 72. Chatham Walled Garden, Marble Garden Benches, and Chatham Garden Pergola, looking south.
- 9 of 72. Chatham Summer House, Chatham Garden Paths, and Chatham Lily Pond, looking northwest.
- 10 of 72. Chatham Carriage House, Stable, and Boathouse, looking north.
- 11 of 72. Chatham Farm Office and Garage and Chatham Service Drive, looking south.
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- 34 of 72. War Department Log Garage, looking southeast.
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- 67 of 72. Wilderness Visitor Kiosk, looking north.
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- 70 of 72. Hill-Ewell Drive, looking southeast.
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Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C.460 et seq.).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 100 hours per response including time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Office of Planning and Performance Management. U.S. Dept. of the Interior, 1849 C. Street, NW. Washington, DC.

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GLOSSARY OF FORTIFICATION TERMS³⁶

NOTE: Many of these terms have multiple meanings. The ones most closely associated with the resources as described in this documentation are selected.

Abatis: A crude field defensive obstruction made of felled trees with the sharpened

boughs facing outward toward the direction of attack.

Banquette: A platform of earth within the parapet, high enough to enable defenders to

fire over the crest of the parapet while standing.

Barbette: An earthen terrace or platform situated inside the parapet or a rampart that

provides for the positioning of cannon to fire over a wall rather than through

a gun port. A battery in this situation is called a "battery en barbette."

Bastion: A multi-sided work projecting from the curtain wall of a fortification

designed to provide flanking fire to adjacent curtains and bastion.

Battery: A mobile or fixed grouping of artillery.

Bombproof: A covered shelter constructed of earth, timber, fascines, gabions, or other

materials designed to protect soldiers from artillery blasts.

Breach: A break made in a fortification's defenses by an attack.

Breastwork: An earthwork thrown up to breast height to provide protection to defenders

firing over the crest of the work while in a standing position.

Chevaux de frise: A defensive obstruction usually consisting of a log with bored holes that

accommodated protruding sharpened sticks.

Covered way: A pathway fronted by an embankment or a ditch that provided soldiers

protection from enemy fire while moving within a defensive line. Also

known as the covert way.

Curtain: A fortified wall of a fort between bastions.

Ditch: A wide trench excavated along the outer perimeter of a fortification utilized

to impede the approach of an enemy force.

Earthwork: A fortification made chiefly by excavating and embanking earth.

Embrasure: An opening in the parapet or the wall of a work for firing guns through at an

enemy.

Enfilade: A position from which rifle or artillery fire is brought to bear along the length

of a line of troops, a trench, or other work.

Entrench: To fortify with a trench and parapet.

³⁶ Most definitions compiled from Stephen Francis Wyley, 1990, A Dictionary of Military Architecture Fortification and Fieldworks from the Iron Age to the Eighteenth Century, http://www.angelfire.com/wy/svenskildbiter/madict.html.

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Escarpment: The foreground of a fortification, which was excavated precipitously to

hinder an enemy's approach.

Fascines: Bundles of brush and sticks used to fill in ditches, strengthen earthworks, and

prevent erosion.

Field work: A temporary work constructed by an army in the field, used to cover an

attack on a fortification, or as protection against another enemy army,

especially a relieving force.

Flank: The end or side of an earthwork or military troop position.

Fortification: A fortified work or structure used as a military position.

Fraise: A defensive barrier of pointed, closely spaced, inclined stakes or barbed wire.

Gabion: A wickerwork basket, which was filled with earth and used to build field

works such as revetments and parapets. Also used by sappers as cover from fire—as they advanced their trench, the gabion was rolled before them.

Gun platform: An unroofed platform built to provide an area for artillery.

Lunette: A two-sided earthwork forming a salient angle in advance of a parapet.

Magazine: A protected shelter for storing ammunition.

Palisade: A defensive fence or wall of wooden stakes arranged vertically or obliquely

in a row.

Parallel: A siege trench dug parallel to the front of a fortress.

Parapet: The top of a wall of either a fortification or fieldwork used to protect the

defenders from fire.

Picket line: An advanced line of rifle pits used to detect and impede an attack long

enough for defenders of the main defensive line to prepare.

Pioneer: A military engineer or soldier assigned to clear obstacles for an attack or

establish and construct a new line of defensive fortifications.

Rampart: An embankment of earth excavated from a ditch and raised on the inside or

outside of the ditch.

Redan: A triangular work situated forward of the main fortification, consisting of

two faces and an open gorge.

Redoubt: An outwork or fieldwork, square or polygonal in shape without bastion or

other flanking defenses, sited at a distance from the main fortification, used

to guard a pass or to impede the approach of an enemy force.

Refused line: The repositioning of forces or works to meet an attack from an expected

direction.

Revetment: A strong retaining wall constructed on the outside of a fortification's

earthwork rampart and parapet, so as to prevent it falling into the ditch.

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Rifle pit:

A pit or short trench affording shelter to riflemen firing at an enemy.

Salient: The forward projecting point of a bastion or other projecting work.

Sally port: A small, heavily fortified gateway or gate from the inner works to the outer

works of a fortification from which attacks or reconnaissance missions may

be launched.

Sap: A siege trench.

Sapper: A soldier or engineer assigned to construct trenches to approach a

fortification.

Scarp: The side of the ditch next to the parapet.

Siege: A military operation carried out by an armed force for the purpose of gaining

entry and control of a position or fortification.

Skirmish shelter: A rifle pit or other advanced work designed to protect skirmishers from

enemy fire.

Traverse: A mound or earth aligned at right angles to the work to prevent it from being

swept by enfilading fire in the event that part of the work is taken by the

enemy or could be observed from higher ground by the enemy.

Trench cavalier: An elevation constructed by a besieger of gabions, fascines, earth, or other

materials to discover and enfilade a covered way.

Trench: A ditch dug in the ground with the earth from the trench thrown up to form a

parapet.

Zigzag trench: A trench excavated in a zigzag pattern and designed to reduce the amount of

exposure to enfilade fire from the enemy.

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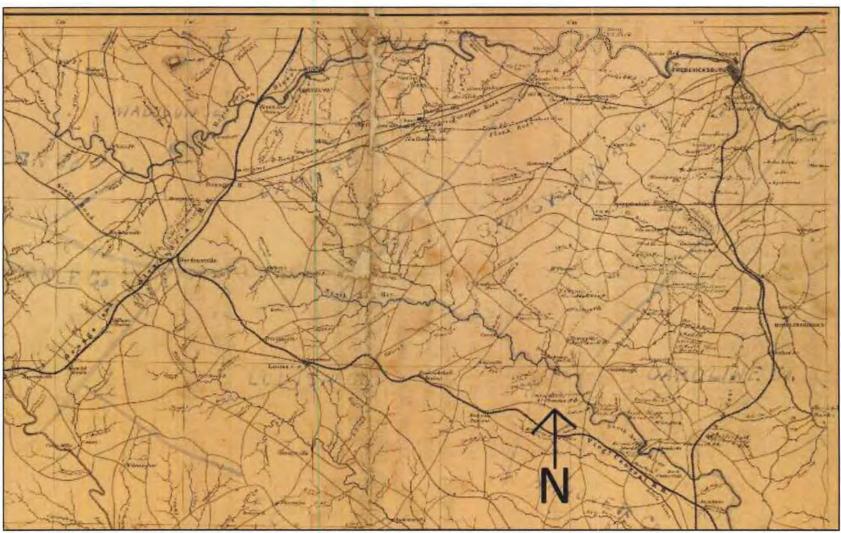


Figure 1. "Part of the map of the military department of S.E. Virginia & Fort Monroe," U.S. Bureau of Topographical Engineers, 1861 (source: Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, DC). Includes the areas where the battles of Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, Wilderness, and Spotsylvania were fought.

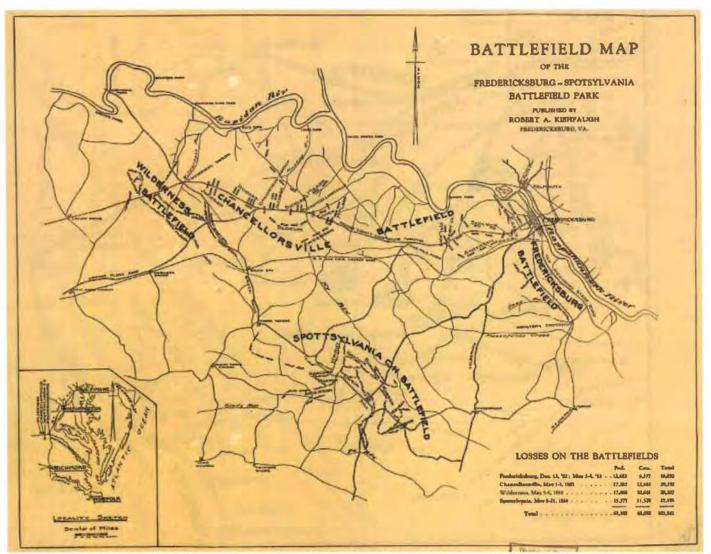


Figure 2. Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania National Battlefield Park, 1981 (source: Library of Congress Geography and Map Division Washington, DC).

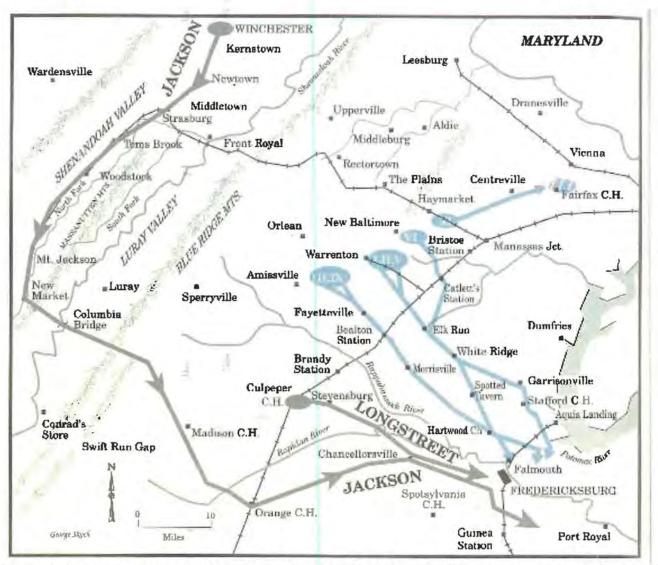


Figure 3. "The Armies move to Fredericksburg, November 15-December 4," (source: map by George Skoch in Pfanz 2007:6).

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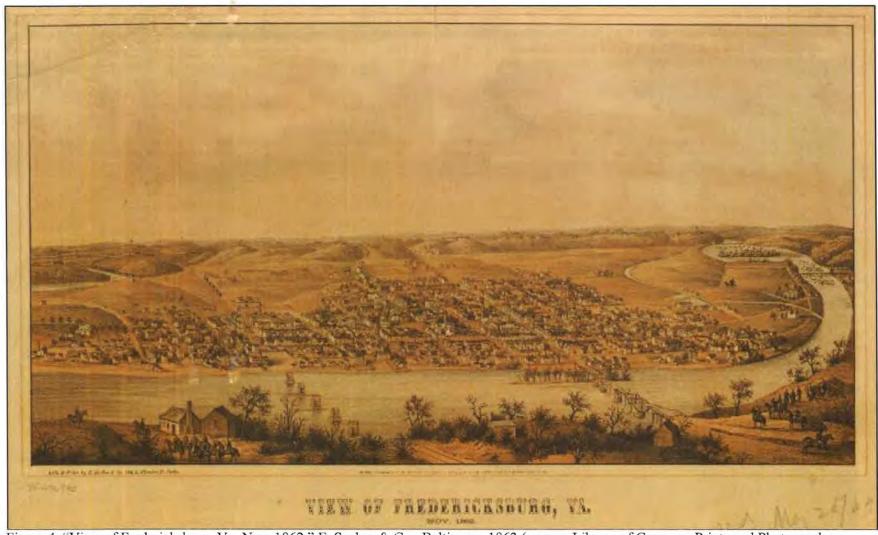


Figure 4. "View of Fredericksburg, Va. Nov. 1862," E. Sachse & Co., Baltimore, 1863 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Birdseye view of Fredericksburg from Stafford Heights shortly before the First Battle of Fredericksburg. Flags on the hills behind the city mark the Confederate positions.



Figure 5. "Lacy House [Chatham], Fredericksburg," Alfred R. Waud, December 1862 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Sumner's headquarters and site of Burnside's meeting to discuss his plans for a frontal on Fredericksburg with his general staff on December 10, 1862.



Figure 6. "Views in Fredericksburg, Va., showing destruction of houses by bombardment on December 13, 1862," 1862 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). The Union bombardment of the city was one of the first times in the war that civilian homes and businesses were purposefully targeted. It presaged the type of "total war" that was practiced by both sides during the latter stages of the war.



Figure 7. "Attack on Fredericksburg," Alonzo Chapel, December 1862 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Depicts the landing of Union troops to push back Barksdale's Confederates in order to complete the pontoon bridges for Sumner's crossing.

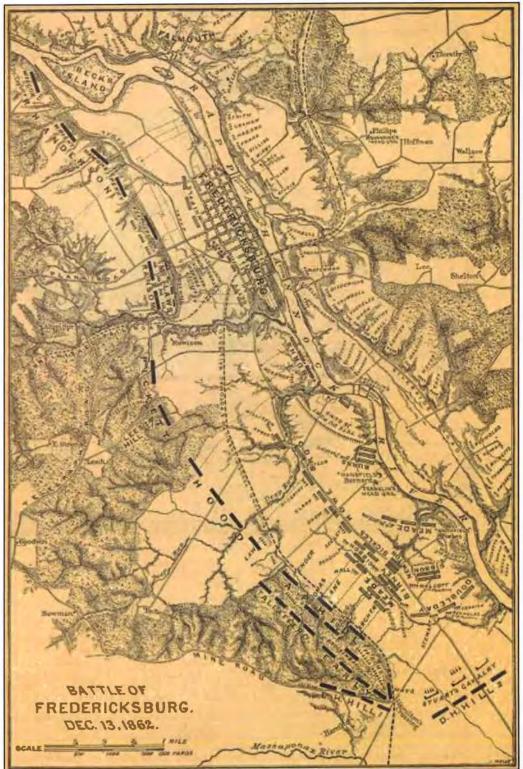


Figure 8. "Battle of Fredericksburg. Dec. 13, 1862," Jacob Wells, 1886. From *Century Illustrated* monthly magazine, v. 32, Aug. 1886. p. 622 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC).

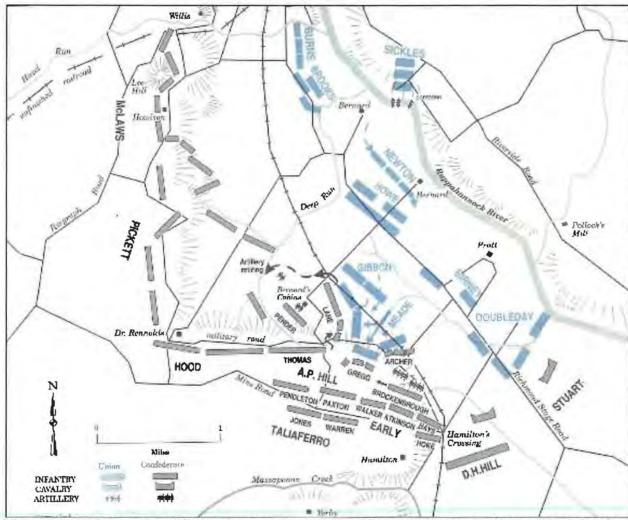


Figure 9. "Meade Breaches Hill's Line, December 13, 1:00 P.M." (source: map by George Skoch in Pfanz 2007:29).

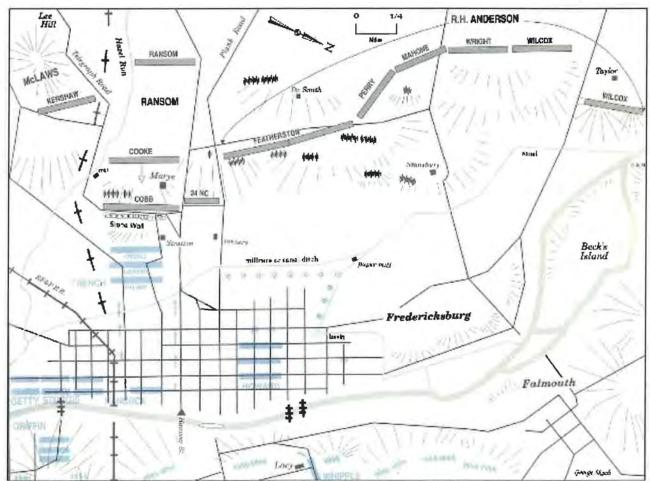


Figure 10. "French Attacks Marye's Heights, December 13, Noon-1:00 P.M." (source: map by George Skoch in Pfanz 2007:35).



Figure 11. "Attack on the rebel works. Fredericksburg. Dec. 13th," Alfred Waud, December 13, 1862 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Marye's Mansion from which the heights above Fredericksburg took their name is noted in the upper right of the view.



Figure 12. "Genl. Humphreys charging at the head of his division after sunset of the 13th Dec," Alfred Waud, December 13, 1862 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Humphrey's attack was one of the last of the numerous Union assaults directed at the Sunken Road on Marye's Heights.

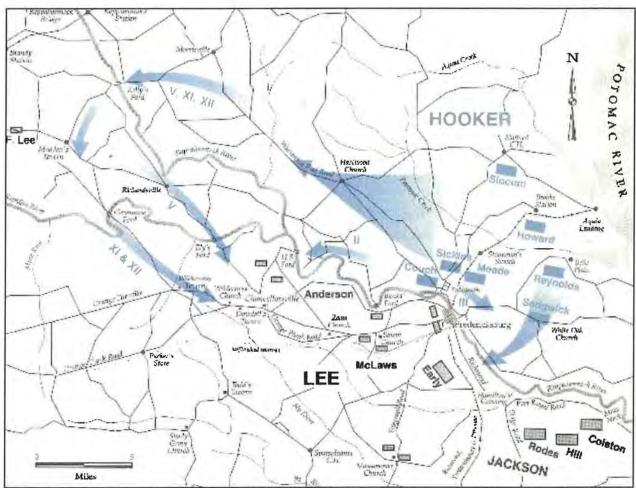


Figure 13. "The [Chancellorsville] Campaign Begins: April 27–30." (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:11).

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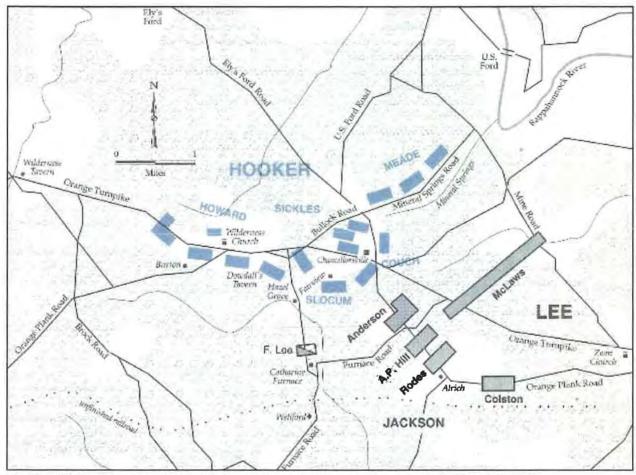


Figure 14. "Situation May 1, Night" (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:21).



Figure 15. "The last meeting between Gen. Lee and Jackson," J.G. Fay, 1877 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). On the night of May 1, Lee met Jackson on the Catharine Furnace Road where the two men planned the daring attack on Hooker's right flank the following day. It was the last time that Lee saw his most trusted battlefield lieutenant.

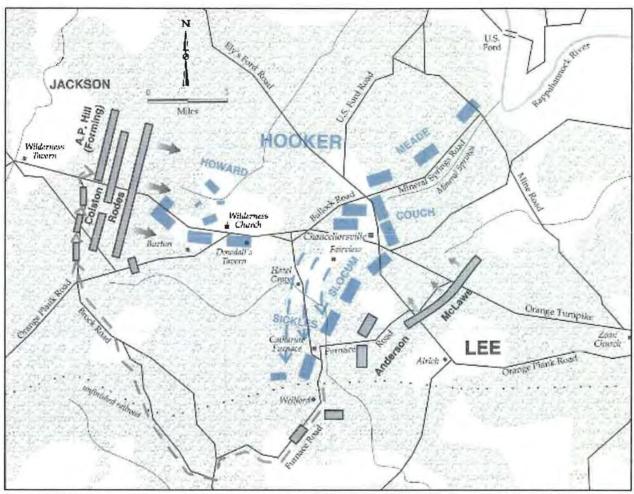


Figure 16. "Jackson's Flank Attack: May 2, 5-6 p.m." (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:28).



Figure 17. "Couch's Corps forming line of battle in the fields at Chancellorsville to cover the retreat of the Eleventh Corps disgracefully running away," Alfred R. Waud, May 1–3, 1863 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC).

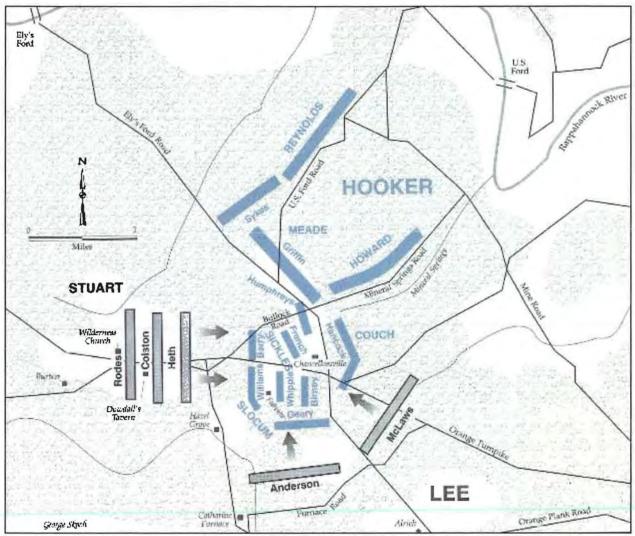


Figure 18. "Lee Assails Hooker's Line: May 3, Dawn" (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:36).

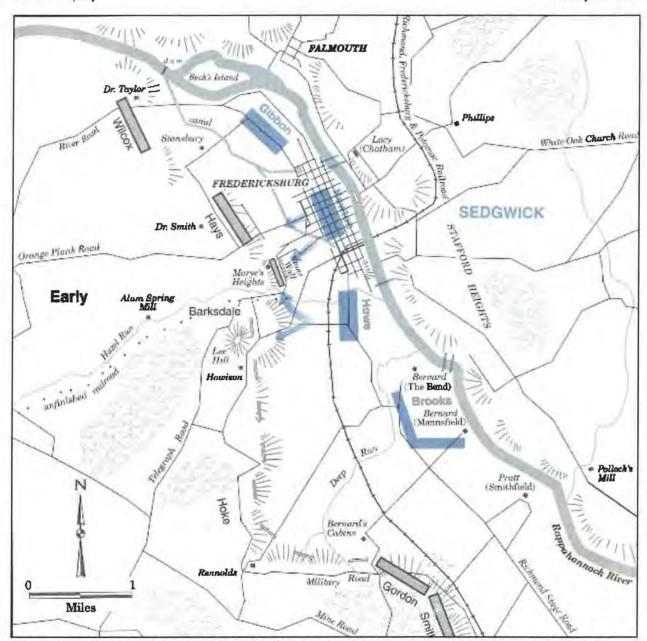


Figure 19 ff Sedgewick Storms Marye's Heights: May 3, Morning" (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:42).



Figure 20. "Stone wall, rear of Fredericksburg with rebel dead, May 3d, 1863," Andrew Russell, May 3, 1863 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). The Sunken Road and the stone wall that lined it on Marye's Heights was a key position defended primarily by Cobb's and Kershaw's Confederate brigades during the first Battle of Fredericksburg. This picture shows the Sunken Road after Sedgewick's Union Sixth Corps, which greatly outnumbered the Confederates under Jubal Early, carried it during the Second Battle of Fredericksburg.

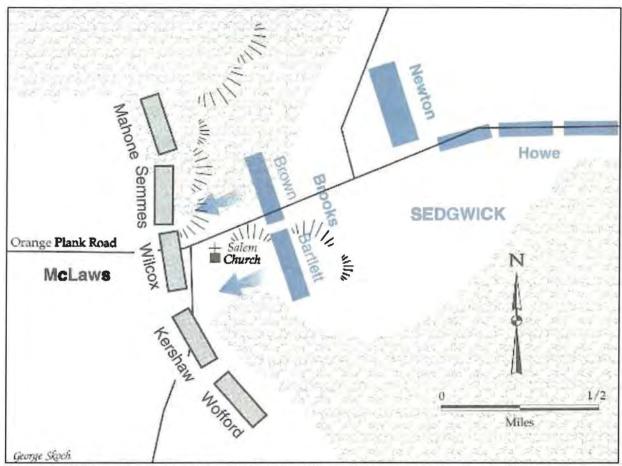


Figure 21. "The Battle of Salem Church: May 3, 5:30 p.m." (source: map by George Skoch in Gallagher 2007:46).

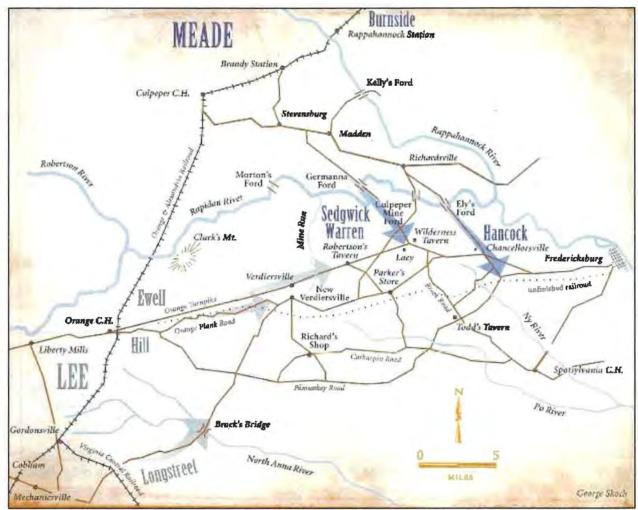


Figure 22. "The Armies March into the Wilderness: May 4" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:4).

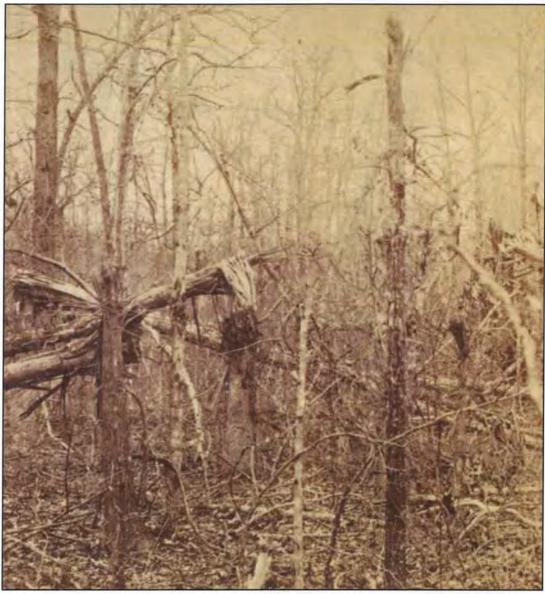


Figure 23. View of Confederate works in the Wilderness, 1865 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). The heavy second growth forest of the Wilderness made the coordinated maneuvering of troops extremely difficult.

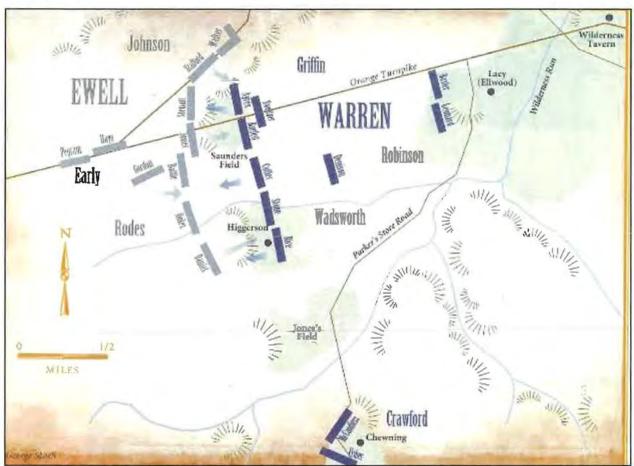


Figure 24. "Warren Opens the Fighting: May 5" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:6).

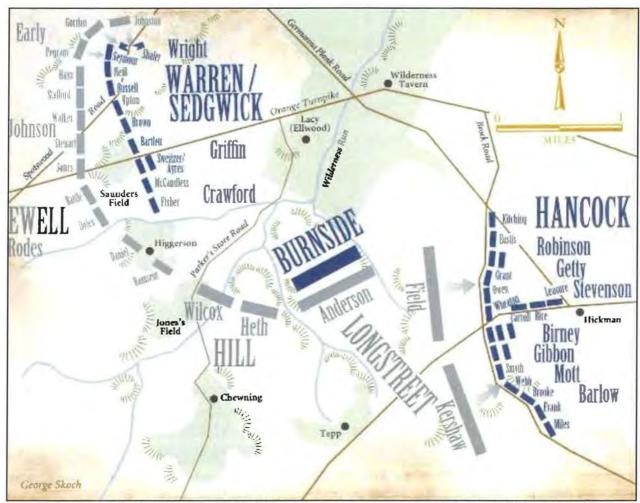


Figure 25. "Final Attacks: 2 p.m. to Dark, May 6" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:14).



Figure 26. "The 6th Corps--Battle of the Wilderness--fighting in the woods," Edwin Forbes, May 7, 1864 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC).

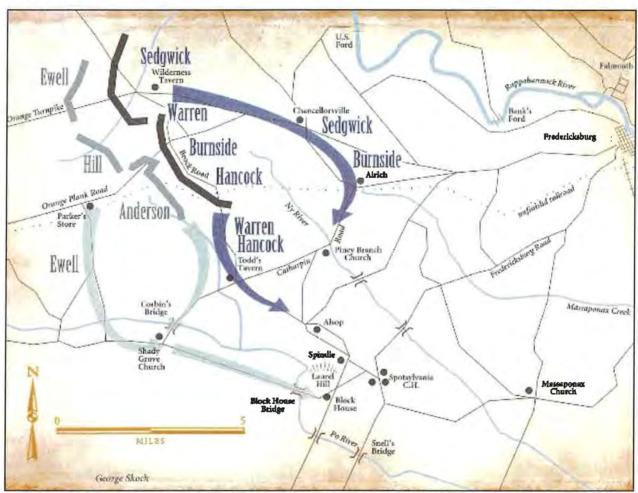


Figure 27. "The Race to Spotsylvania Court House: Night, May 7-8" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:18).

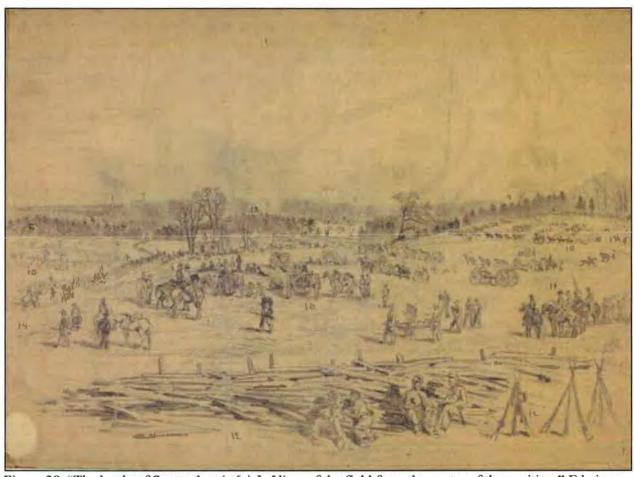


Figure 28. "The battle of Spottsylvania [sic]--View of the field from the center of the position," Edwin Forbes, May 9, 1864 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Note the reveted breastwork in the foreground, a version of the type of fieldworks that became common features of battlefields as the war progressed.

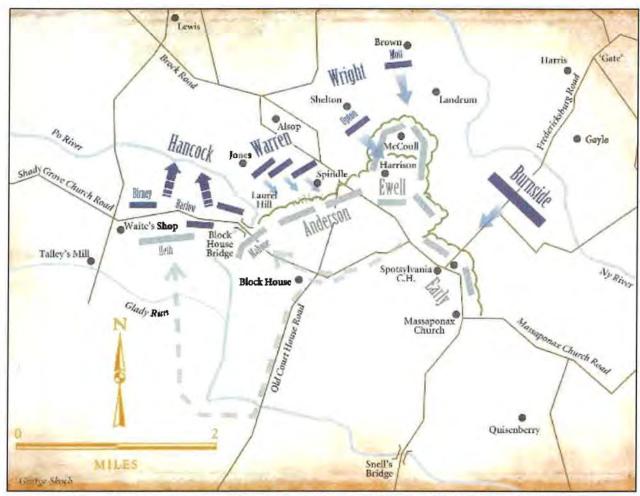


Figure 29. "Grant Seeks an Opening: May 10" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:18).

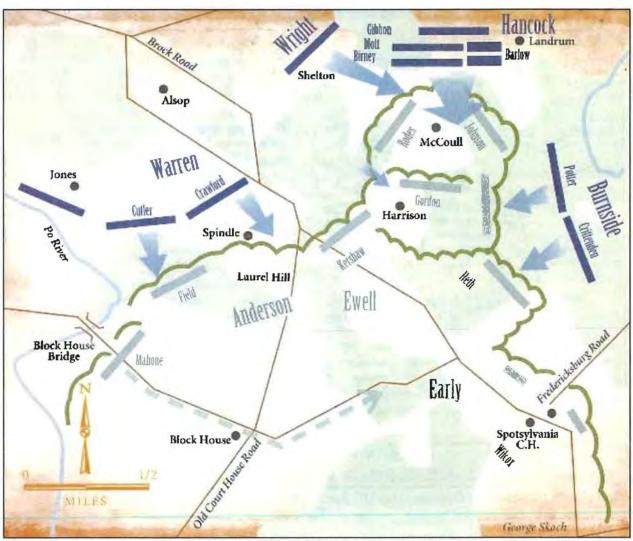


Figure 30. "The Battle for the Bloody Angle: May 12" (source: map by George Skoch in Rhea 2014:331).

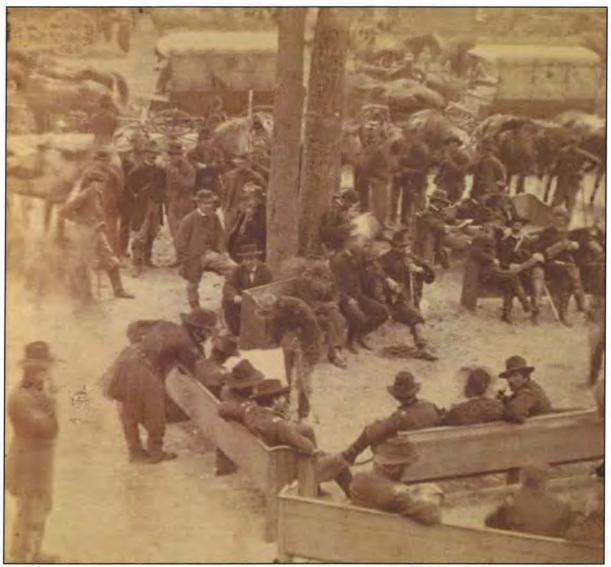


Figure 31. General Grant's council of war near Massaponax Church, May 21, 1864 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Even after suffering more than 36,000 casualties at the Battles of the Wilderness and Spotsylvania, Grant continued to push his army south toward Richmond. The ensuing battles of the Overland Campaign at North Anna River, Totopotomoy Creek, and Cold Harbor added significantly the "butcher's bill."



Figure 32. "Hospital at Fredericksburg, Va., May, 1864," James Gardner, 1864 (source: Library of Congress Prints and Photographs Division Washington, DC). Photo shows Union soldiers wounded at the Battle of the Wilderness resting outside of the U.S. Sanitary Commission depot in Fredericksburg. The woman seated in the doorway is volunteer nurse, Abby Gibbons of New York City.



Figure 33. Scrap Metal Drive, Fredericksburg, VA, September 1942 (Image from Central Rappahannock Heritage Center, posted on https://npsfrsp.wordpress.com/2010/07/23/a-patriotic-end-for-some-cool-history-stuff/). Photo shows the fence which had surrounded the Jackson monument at Chancellorsville in a pile of scrap metal being collected in support of the World War II effort.

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Figure 34. Civilian Conservation Corps Camp MP-3/NP-11 (source Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows CCC Camp MP-3 at Chancellorsville, on the east side of Ely's Ford Road. The majority of the camp, which is no longer extant, was on the north side of Hooker Drive; the maintenance building, constructed by the CCC for the NPS is long, rectangular building on the south side of Hooker Drive.



Figure 35. Chancellorsville Visitor Contact Station, undated photograph (source: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows CCC-built Chancellorsville Visitor Center at center, and Jackson Monument at right; the contact station would be replaced by the Chancellorsville Visitor Center in 1962.



Figure 36. Wilderness Visitor Contact Station, 1938 (source: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows CCC-built Wilderness Visitor Contact Station, across from Hill-Ewell Drive. The building is no longer extant.

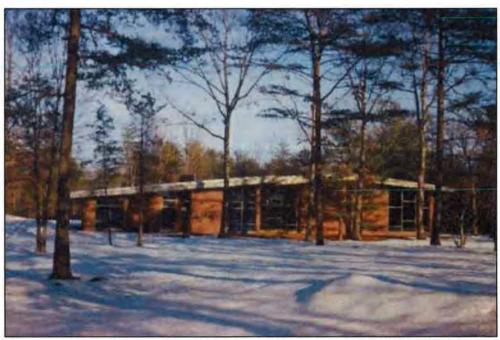


Figure 37. Chancellorsville Visitor Center, 1963 (source: National Park Service, Denver Service Center). Photo shows Chancellorsville Visitor Center, shortly after opening to the public.



Figure 38. Chancellorsville Visitor Center, 1961 (source: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows Chancellorsville Visitor Center under construction; sign in the center of the image states that the project is part of Mission 66 improvements.



Figure 39. Chancellorsville Ranger Housing, undated (source: National Park Service, Denver Service Center). Photo shows typical housing on Ranger Lane, constructed as part of Mission 66 improvements.

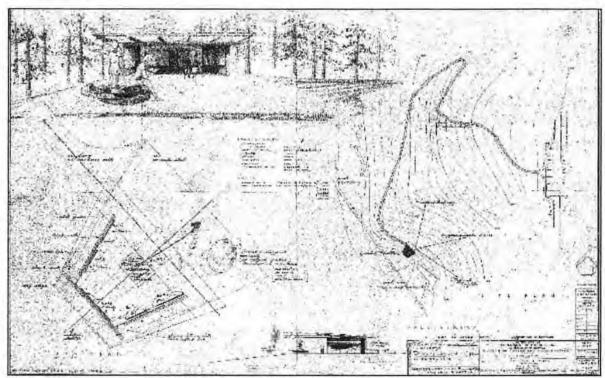


Figure 40. Architectural plans for the Lee's Hill Visitor Kiosk, 1961 (source: National Park Service, Denver Service Center). Image shows preliminary site plan and floor plan for Lee's Hill Visitor Kiosk on the top of Telegraph (now Lee) Hill.



Figure 41. Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge, undated (source Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows Fredericksburg National Cemetery Lodge with a greenhouse (no longer extant) off the south elevation.



Figure 42. Chatham, ca. 1863 (source: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows west elevation of Chatham with two-story Greek Revival porch that was removed during ca. 1920 renovations.



Figure 43. Chatham, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-ppmsca-16908). Photo shows west elevation of Chatham and west terrace landscape following restoration and landscape work by Oliver Clarke and Ellen Biddle Shipman in the early to mid-1920s. Note the removal of the Greek Revival porch and its replacement with a Classical Revival door surround.



Figure 44. Chatham Carriage House and Stable, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-csas-06175). Photo shows carriage house and stable, with the corn crib in the far right of the image.

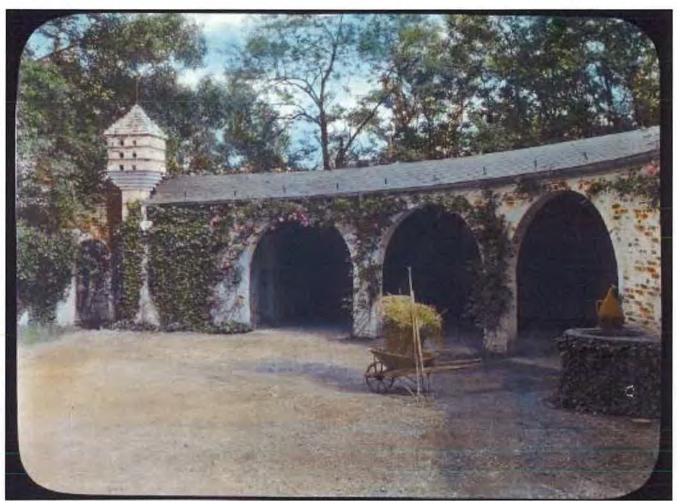


Figure 45. Chatham Garage and birdhouse, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-ppmsca-16205). Hand-colored lantern slide shows service court area with garage and birdhouse.



Figure 46. Innis House, undated (source: Fredericksburg and Spotsylvania NMP). Photo shows Sunken Road, Sunken Road Wall, and Innis House, as seen from the north.

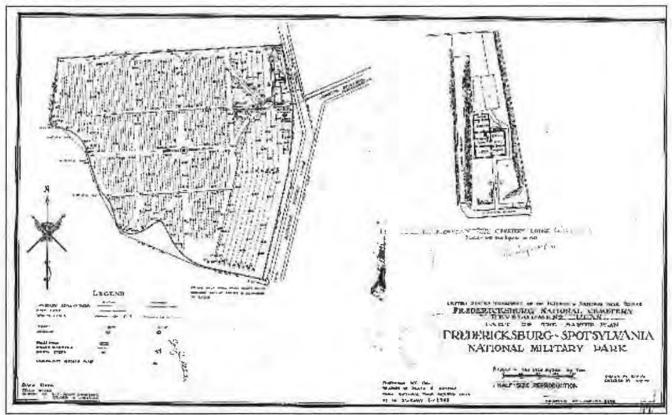


Figure 47. Fredericksburg National Cemetery Plan, 1940 (source: National Park Service, Denver Service Center). Image shows the plan of the cemetery, including major plantings and monuments, and the floor plan of the Cemetery Lodge.



Figure 48. Chatham walled garden, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-csas-07057). Photo shows walled garden, looking east from the main house.

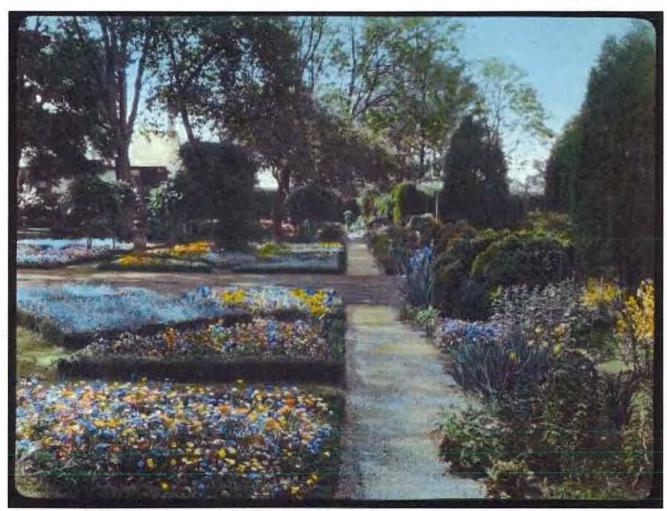


Figure 49. Chatham walled garden parterre beds, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-ppmsca-16334). Hand-colored lantern slide showing Chatham Walled Garden and parterre beds, viewed toward the Laundry and Summer House.

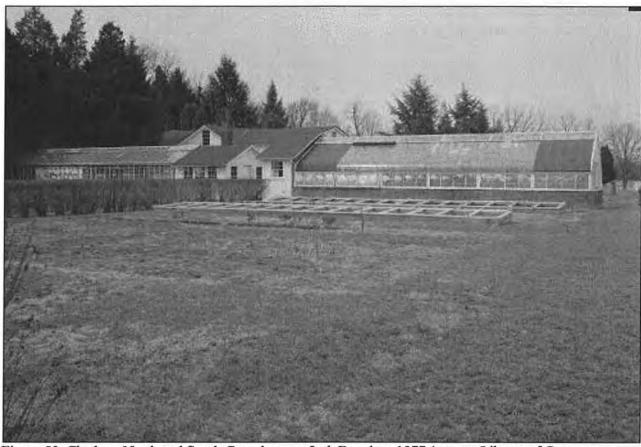


Figure 50. Chatham North and South Greenhouses, Jack Boucher, 1977 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, 156896pv). Photo shows greenhouses and hot beds in front of North Greenhouse; Dairy Barn is visible behind South Greenhouse.



Figure 51. Chatham Walled Garden Pergola, Frances Benjamin Johnston, 1929 (source: Library of Congress, Prints and Photographs Division, LC-DIG-ppmsca-16906). Photo shows Garden Pergola, walkway, and beds on either side of walkway.