

ANALOSTAN: THE ARCHEOLOGY OF THEODORE ROOSEVELT ISLAND

George Washington Memorial Parkway, Washington, D.C.

Contract No. P16PC00290 / Work Order No. 8

VOLUME I



**THIS REPORT CONTAINS CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION
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Prepared for:



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

Prepared by:



WSP USA Inc.
1250 23rd Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20037

December 8, 2020

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- E) Historical Society of Washington, D.C., 2019
- F) Library of Congress, 2000

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John Bedell, Tiffany Raszick, and Gregory Katz

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FORWARD

Theodore Roosevelt Island has a remarkable history that stretches back thousands of years. Ancient Native Americans settled here, and Europeans after them. A ferry crossed the river here, and a grand plantation was built and then went bankrupt. Civil War soldiers trained here, including the 1st Regiment of U.S. Colored Troops, raised in the District of Columbia. Here refugees found shelter, pretend knights staged mock medieval tournaments, and athletes competed in track meets while gamblers lurked in the shadows. Young men of the Civilian Conservation Corps worked to help their families during the Depression. Experimental aircraft were flown here, and an experimental explosive called “Jovite” was tested to see if rifle trenches could be blasted out faster than they could be dug with shovels. A monument was erected to one of our most famous presidents, and the island turned into a wooded park. And much else besides.

The island has had at least three names, representing three stages of its history. The Algonquian-speaking Native Americans who lived along the Potomac called it Anacostien or Analostan, and those are the names that appear in colonial records. After the Mason family built a mansion on the island in the 1790s, people called it Mason Island, and after it was set aside to become his monument, it was renamed to honor Theodore Roosevelt. Each epoch left its mark in the island’s soil.

In fact, from the point of view of an archeologist, the island has too much history. The entire island is an archeological site, rich with remains of the past, but because people have kept living and building on the same spots over and over, they have kept moving around the remains left by the people who came before them. Some of the residents tried to reshape the whole island to better suit their needs, leveling or terracing the ground, carving roads and paths, clearing fields or planting trees. Because of all this overlapping activity, the whole past is mixed up together. In one shovelful of dirt, you might find stone artifacts left thousands of years ago by Native Americans, glass left by European settlers, a bullet from the Civil War, and a ketchup packet from the 1990s. Unraveling all of this is not easy.

The island belongs to the National Park Service (NPS), and it is administered as part of the George Washington Memorial Parkway. The National Park Service has a long-term plan to explore the archeological record of all its parks, so that the important sites can be preserved and interpreted. As part of that program, the National Capital Area of the NPS contracted with WSP USA Inc. (WSP) to carry out a two-year archeological survey of the island. The fieldwork for the survey was completed in 2018 and 2019. This document is Volume I of a two-volume report describing the results of that survey. Volume I is intended for park interpreters and the general public, and it omits sensitive data on the exact location of archeological sites. Volume II is intended for park planners and archeological professionals and includes much more technical data.

More than 10,000 artifacts were found during the survey, everything from 116 stone tools to five U.S. pennies and a wrench, representing all periods from 9,000 years ago to the present. These objects add much to the island’s fascinating story and give us new ways of understanding our capital’s past.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. PROJECT BACKGROUND

Theodore Roosevelt Island lies in the Potomac River in Washington, D.C. (Figures 1 and 2). Every U.S. national park has a four-letter acronym, and Theodore Roosevelt Island is known as TRIS. Since the full name is such a mouthful, TRIS will be used frequently in this study. Although the island is within the District of Columbia, its only bridge connects it to the Virginia shore; partly for that reason, the National Park Service (NPS) administers the island as part of the George Washington Memorial Parkway. The island measures about 90 acres.

The study carried out at Theodore Roosevelt Island was an Archeological Overview, Assessment, Inventory, and Evaluation. That means:

- *Overview* of the archeological and historical work already done in the park;
- *Assessment* of what more should be done;
- Searching for new archeological sites to create a better *Inventory*; and
- *Evaluation* of those archeological sites to determine their scientific and interpretive importance.

The National Capital Area of the NPS contracted with WSP USA Inc. (WSP) to carry out the study. WSP's archeologists already had a great deal of experience in this area. They had just completed a three-year archeological survey of the George Washington Memorial Parkway north of Alexandria and a four-year study of Great Falls Park in Virginia, and the TRIS study drew heavily on research done for those studies.

TRIS was already known to be an important archeological site. Pioneering archeologists in the mid-1800s had identified an "Indian village" site on the island, and the ruins of the Mason family mansion built in the 1790s had also long been known and explored. Other parts of the island had also been investigated and more artifacts recovered. One of the earliest archeologists interested in the Potomac River basin was S.V. Proudfit. He amassed a large collection of artifacts, now held by the Smithsonian, and wrote several papers on the precontact archeology of the area (Proudfit 1889, 1923). Proudfit took part in an 1889 symposium sponsored by the Anthropological Society of Washington, and he prepared a synthesis of Indian sites located within "the old District lines" (Proudfit 1889) (Figure 3). Of note for the current study is a "village" site Proudfit mentioned that was located on the island.

Another nineteenth-century avocational archeologist was William Hallett Phillips. Phillips was a well-known lawyer in Washington, D.C., practicing mainly before the Supreme Court. In the 1880s Phillips was appointed special agent by the Secretary of the Interior to investigate conditions at Yellowstone Park. It was his work at Yellowstone that gained him membership in the Boone and Crockett Club, an elite sportsmen's club of which Theodore Roosevelt was a founding member; Roosevelt counted Phillips among his close friends (Broadbent 1997:75). In 1897 Phillips

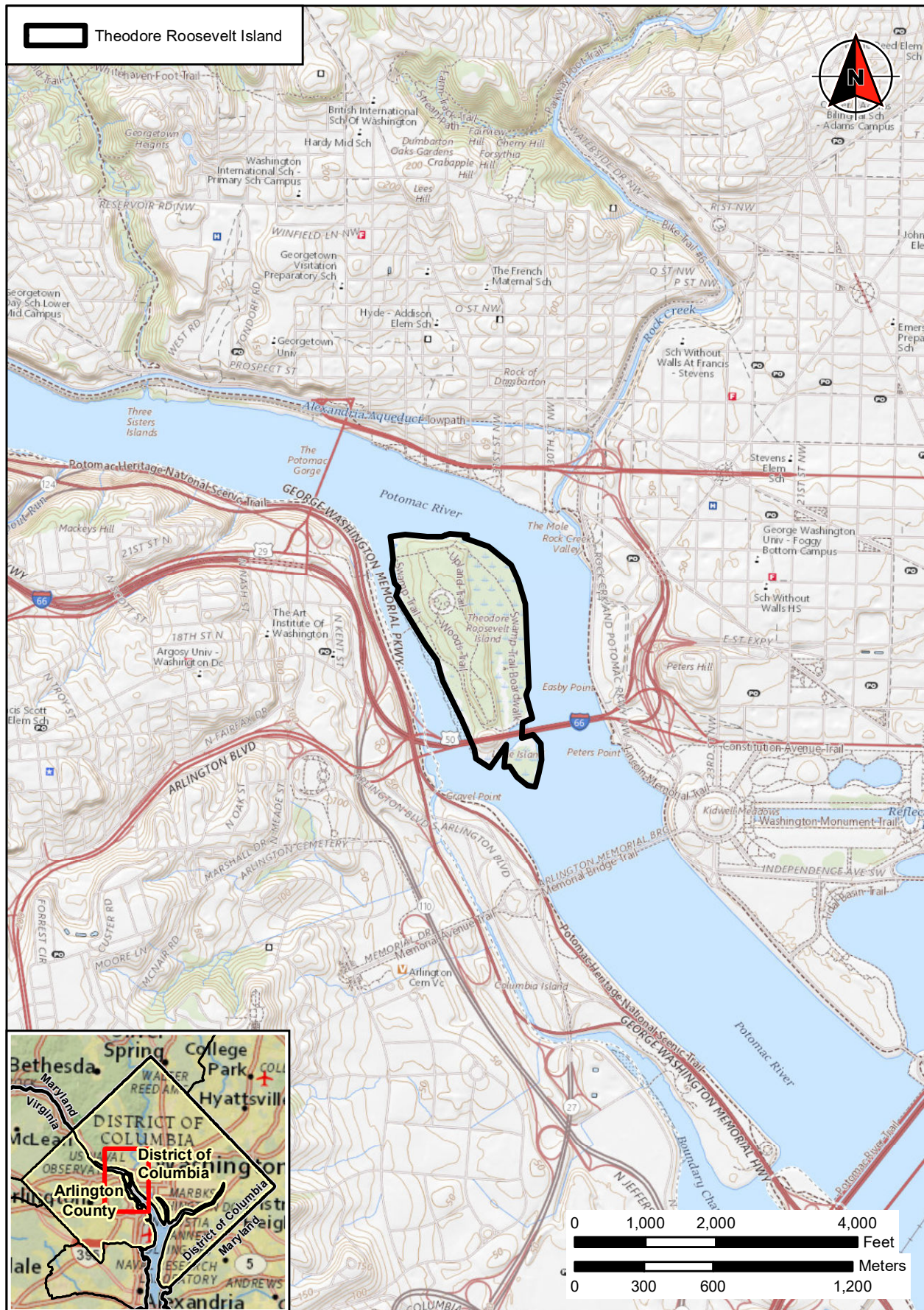


FIGURE 1: Location of the Project Area (ESRI USA Topo Maps 2020a)



FIGURE 2: Map of Theodore Roosevelt Island (USGS NED 2015, Washington West 2016)

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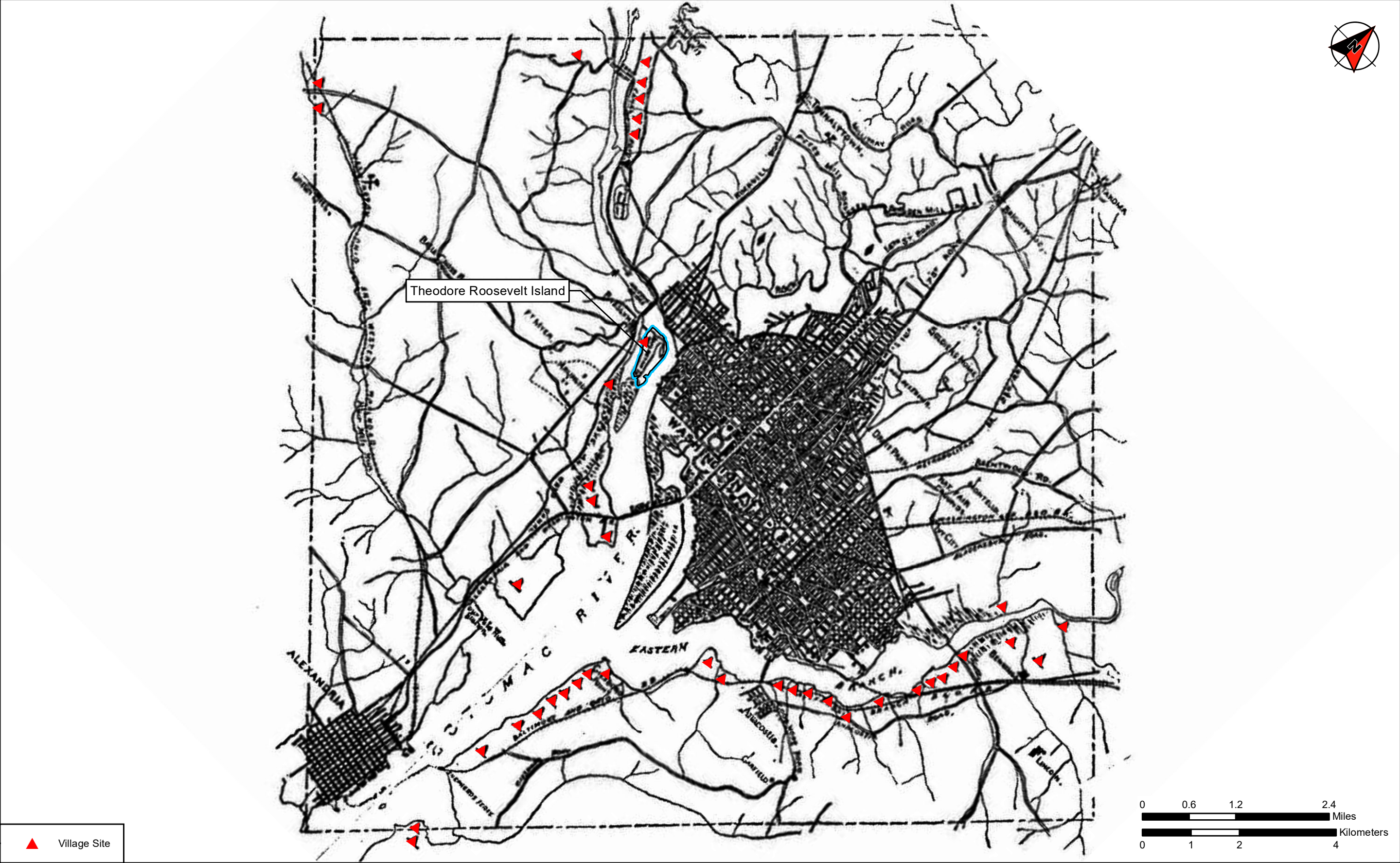


FIGURE 3: Proudfit Map Showing an “Indian Village” on TRIS (Proudfit 1889)

drowned during a boating accident, and his family donated his archeological collections to the Smithsonian Institution. A *New York Times* article from November 22, 1897, stated:

The Smithsonian Institution has come into possession of the William Hallett collection of Indian implements and antiquities from the Potomac Valley. It is reputed the largest collection of its class in the world, and its value is enhanced greatly by the careful arrangement and record of individual specimens.

So the problem put to WSP was not so much finding archeological sites—that could be done by sticking a shovel in the ground almost anywhere on the island—as sorting out how archeological remains are distributed across the landscape and which parts of the island preserve the most important records of the past.

The archeological fieldwork was guided by documentary research. The Washington, D.C. area has a rich record of maps going back to Capt. John Smith, with a particularly rich set dating to the Civil War. Other important records include historical photographs, Civil War military records, newspaper stories, and records describing the creation of the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial. Two documents that have greatly assisted this investigation are the National Register of Historic Places nomination for the island and the recent Cultural Landscape Report.

B. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Archeological fieldwork was carried out in September, October, and November 2018, and in October and November 2019. John Bedell, PhD (Registered Professional Archeologist [RPA] 39384252) served as Project Manager. Tiffany Raszick (RPA 989592) served as Principal Investigator and Field Director, with assistance from Gregory Katz (RPA 15888) and Bill Auchter (RPA 36363396). The field crew consisted of Emily Walter, Dr. Stephen Potter, Judy Joklik, Charles Simpson, Sofia Krom, and Meredith McCulley. Kathryn Wilkins directed the laboratory analysis. Graphics were produced by Jacqueline Horsford, and this report was edited by Anne Moiseev.

We wish to acknowledge the assistance of the many people with the NPS who made this study possible, including Matthew Virta, Dr. Stephen Potter, Dr. Joshua M. Torres, Simone Monteleone, Marian Creveling, Karen Orrence, and Bradley Kruger.

II. THE ISLAND

TRIS is mostly wooded, and what is visible from either riverbank is trees (Figure 4). TRIS measures about 92 acres if one includes Little Island, which is within the legal boundaries of this park unit. Of the 92 acres, about 44 acres are low-lying marsh. Early maps of the island do not show this marshy ground, so it has been created by the river within the past 150 years and contains little of archeological interest. The Theodore Roosevelt Memorial and the Theodore Roosevelt Bridge, which carries I-66 over the island near its south end, occupy about 2 acres. About 4 acres are steep slopes. This leaves about 42 acres with archeological potential. These area figures are derived from NPS geographic information system (GIS) data. They are presented in a deliberately imprecise way because different data sets give quite different values; for example, the overall area of the island is shown in different sources as anywhere from 88 to 110 acres, a level of imprecision that renders anything to the right of the decimal point meaningless.

TRIS is located at the boundary between the Coastal Plain and the hilly Piedmont. Because the Potomac has carved deeply into the hard rock of the Piedmont hills, the first falls on the river are actually about 4 miles upstream from TRIS. The island is therefore part of the Tidewater, and the river around it rises and falls over the course of the day. The island is closer to the Virginia shoreline than the District of Columbia shoreline, and the shallow portion of the Potomac that separates the island from Virginia is known as the Little River. The broader reach toward Washington is called the Georgetown Channel. The navigable river and its resources have always been key factors in the use and settlement of the site.

The island has endured for thousands of years because its core is stone, an outcrop of sedimentary rock called diamictite (Southworth and Denenny 2005:17). Most of its soils formed from the breakdown of that rock rather than being deposited by the river. The river has shaped the soils of the island to some extent, especially along the north shore, but most of the dirt is decayed rock that formed not far from where it lies today. The island has two high points, or plateaus, one to the north and one to the south, both at about 44 feet elevation above sea level.

When TRIS was made into a park in 1932, most of it was intended to be a quasi-natural forest with native species. That is what grows across most of the island today. Bald cypress trees, planted according to the 1934 plan submitted by the Olmsted Brothers landscaping firm, can still be seen in the freshwater tidal marsh. Formal plantings of English ivy, boxwood, and willow oaks surround the monument. The island does have problems with non-native plants, including invasive species like Japanese honeysuckle, fig buttercup, and creeping myrtle (also known as periwinkle or vinc). An Early Detection Rapid Response program identifies and monitors invasive species on the island. During the appropriate season invasive plants are pruned and treated with herbicides to kill them to support the growth of native vegetation.

A. ANCIENT NATIVE AMERICANS

Archeologists and antiquarians have been exploring the Native American remains of the Chesapeake region for 150 years. The basic sequence of cultures is fairly well understood. In recent years scientists have learned much about the earth's climate history, and archeologists have shown that some past cultural changes happened around the same time as climate shifts (Table 1). Many



FIGURE 4: View of the North End of the Island from Georgetown

questions about the people who lived here and their ways of life remain to be answered, however, so research continues.

TABLE 1: MIDDLE ATLANTIC REGION, CULTURAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CHRONOLOGY

DATES AD/BC	CLIMATE/ENVIRONMENT CHANGES	CULTURAL PERIODS	CULTURAL EVENTS AND ARTIFACT TYPES
AD 1500	Little Ice Age onset (AD 1350); dry (AD 1320-1400)	Late Woodland	Palisaded villages (AD 1300)
1000	Medieval Climatic Optimum; dry (AD 800-1200)	900 AD	Maize AD (AD 900) Bow and arrow (AD 700) Algonquian migrations
500	Ice-rafting event (AD 600) Pollen change (AD 300)	Middle Woodland	
AD 1	Dry (200 BC-AD 300)	500 BC	Delmarva Adena (400 BC) Piscataway points (500 BC)
500 BC	Ice-rafting event (800 BC) Pollen change (850 BC)		
1000		Early Woodland	Pottery (1200 BC)
1500		1200 BC	
2000	Pollen change (2100 BC) Megadrought (2200 BC) Ice-rafting event (2000 BC)	Terminal Archaic	Fishtail points (1500 BC) Stone bowls, grooved axes, Broadspear points (2200 BC)
2500		2200 BC	
3000	Mid-Late Holocene transition (3250 BC)		
3500		Late Archaic	Lamoka points (3500 BC)
4000	Drought; Ice-rafting event (3900 BC)		
4500		5000 BC	Halifax points (4500 BC) Brewerton points (4500 BC) Otter Creek points (5000-4500 BC)
5000	Pollen change (4700 BC) More severe El Niño events (5000 BC)		
5500		Middle Archaic	Morrow Mountain points (6000 BC)
6000	Chesapeake becomes salty estuary (5800 BC)		
6500	Ice-rafting event (6200 BC cold event); drought; Hypsithermal (warm, dry) begins		Stanly points (6500 BC)
7000	More rainfall in Southeast (7000 BC)		
7500	Ice-rafting event (7400 BC)	7500 BC	Bifurcate base points (7500 BC)
8000			
8500 BC	Pollen change (8200 BC) Ice-rafting event (8300 BC)	Early Archaic	Kirk, Palmer corner-notched points (9000 BC)
9000	Pre-Boreal Oscillation cold event (9300 BC)		
9500	End of Younger Dryas; Holocene begins (9500 BC)	9500 BC	Side-notched points
10,000			
10,500		Paleoindian	Extinction of megafauna (10,700 BC)
11,000	Younger Dryas onset (cold) (11,000 BC)		
11,500	Intra-Alleröd cold period (11,400-11,200 BC)	11,500 BC	Clovis fluted points
12,000	[warming]		Earliest sites in Alaska (12,000 BC)
12,500	Bölling-Alleröd warming onset (12,700 BC)		

People have lived along the Potomac River for at least 13,000 years. The upper part of the Tidewater, what is called the Inner Coastal Plain, has long been the most densely settled part of the region. John Smith's 1608 map shows the middle reaches of the Potomac and other Western Shore rivers lined with hamlets and villages (Figure 5). Archeology shows that the dense occupation of waterfront locations in this zone extends back at least 5,000 years. The area right around the Falls also has a rich record of ancient Indian activity; however, this record is not consistent, and it seems there were times when few people lived between Little and Great Falls. Perhaps the Falls were a boundary between different groups of people who lived in the Coastal Plain and the Piedmont, and the area for miles on either side of the boundary was a buffer zone where few people dared to go.

1. Paleoindian Period (11,000 to 9600 BC)

Archeologists debate when the first people came to the Americas. Some experts think this happened tens of thousands of years ago, while others think the first people came around 14,000 to 13,000 years ago. Recent genetic data suggests that most Native Americans share common ancestors who lived around 15,000 years ago, which supports the more recent dates for entry (Posth et al. 2018; Wei et al. 2018). Whoever is right, there were certainly people in the Potomac Valley around 13,000 years ago. At that time the earth was warming, but much of the planet's water was still locked up in vast glaciers and sea levels were around 300 feet lower than today. The Chesapeake Bay did not exist, and the Potomac River joined the ancient Susquehanna River before the combined great river flowed south and then east, entering the Atlantic somewhere east of Hampton Roads.

The people of that time were few and lived in highly mobile bands with 20 to 150 members. They probably traveled hundreds of miles across the country, following herds of game or searching for other resources. In the west they hunted large, now extinct animals like mastodons and mammoths, but the limited evidence from eastern North America suggests they relied on fishing and hunting smaller game. They had dogs, descended from the ones they had brought with them from Asia. The distinctive artifact of that time is the Clovis spear point (Figure 6). Many of these were made of striking stone—crystal quartz, red jasper, obsidian—and some of them are much bigger than they needed to be, so like the jeweled swords and etched lances of later eras, they were symbols or art objects as well as hunting weapons. No Clovis points have been found on TRIS, but several have been found elsewhere in the Potomac Valley.

2. Early Archaic Period (9600 to 7600 BC)

The years after the end of the last Ice Age were a time of large, rapid changes in the climate. After the warming period of 12,700 to 11,000 BC came a harsh cold period that lasted more than a thousand years. This is called the Younger Dryas. Very few artifacts from that period have been found in the Potomac Valley, so it seems that people mostly migrated toward the south. After 9600 BC the continent warmed dramatically again, and people came back.

After they came back, they had a very different culture than before. Large, Clovis-style spear points disappeared, and people used smaller points with notches in the corners or on the sides. Some of these are called Palmer, Kirk, and Amos points. There were many more people in this period, so



FIGURE 5: John Smith Map of 1608 (Smith 1624)

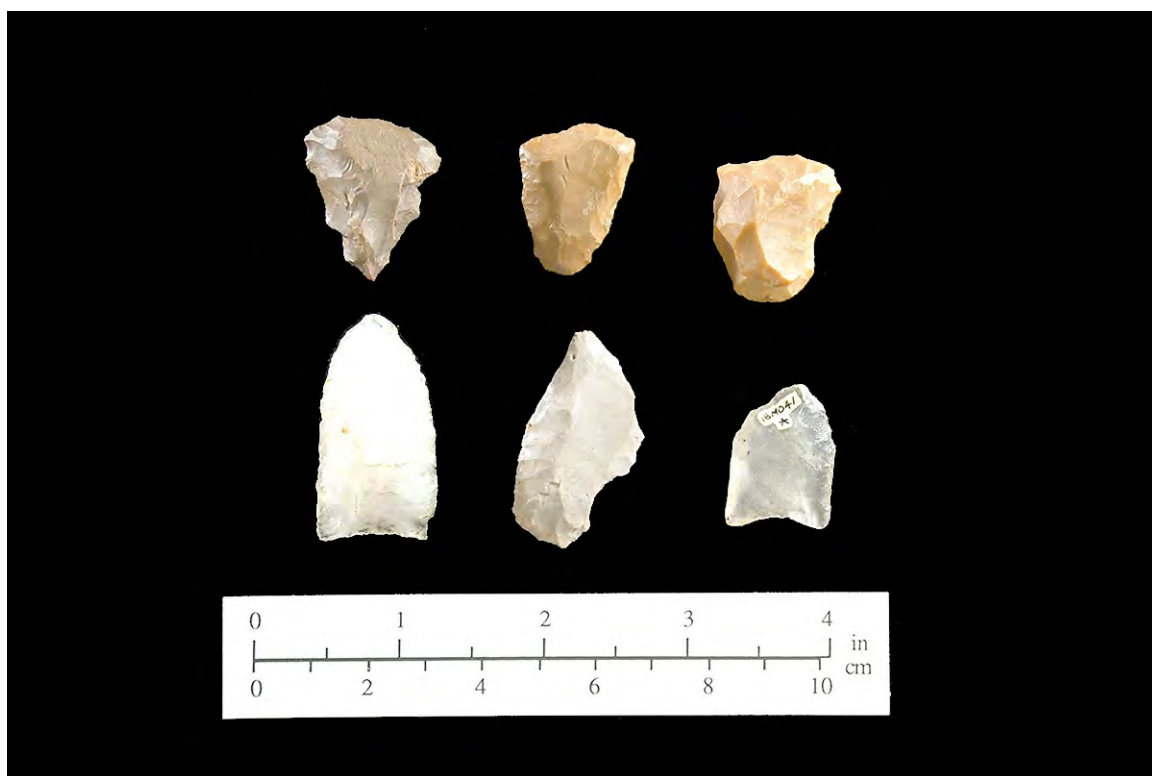


FIGURE 6: Clovis Artifacts from Maryland (Fiedel et al. 2005)

archeological sites are much more common (Johnson 1986); however, population density remained low. A comparison with the recent Native hunting peoples living in the similar environment of present-day northeastern Canada suggests that the territory of a single band of perhaps 150 to 250 people might have stretched from the Chesapeake Bay to the Blue Ridge, covering as much as half the state of Virginia (Custer 1990).

Several stone tools of this period have been found around Washington. These include Kirk points from sites along the Anacostia and near Little Falls, and Palmer points from the Spring Branch Site, just a mile from TRIS (McNett 1975). No Early Archaic artifacts were found during the TRIS survey, and there do not seem to be any in the older collections from the island.

3. Middle Archaic Period (7600 to 3800 BC)

The Middle Archaic cultural period roughly corresponds to the Hypsithermal, a climatic episode marked by higher temperatures and less rainfall. The first decades of this period were as warm as the twenty-first century and possibly warmer. An oak-pine-hemlock forest dominated the region (Yuan 1995), and the dominant animals were the same ones we know today, especially deer and wild turkeys.

Archeologists find more sites of this period, some of them quite large, and sites are found in locations that people had not used before. All of this points to a growing population. Most sites are still small, however, showing that people still spent much of their time traveling through the landscape in small groups. The larger sites on the rivers may show us that people came together in part of the year in larger groups, although this is far from certain. People made a wider variety of stone tools, including some designed for wood-working, seed-grinding, and nut-cracking: axes, adzes, mauls, grinding slabs, and nutting stones.

Among the point types used around 7000 BC were some with bifurcated bases (Figure 7). One of these was found during the TRIS survey, and there is at least one more in an old collection from the island kept by the Smithsonian. So we know that people visited the island around 9,000 years ago. Other examples have been found along the Potomac between TRIS and Little Falls, and along the Anacostia. These points are somewhat puzzling. The bifurcated base is very distinctive, which is very helpful for archeologists, but nobody else in North America evidently thought it was a good design—most other ways of shaping a point base are more common and reappear again and again. It seems to have been a stylistic choice, or maybe an ethnic or cultural marker. But once the point was inserted in a spear or dart shaft and wrapped with twine or sinew, the base would have been invisible. Perhaps it was actually something of a secret, passed by older men to their sons and nephews when they taught them how to make and use weapons.

Some of the bifurcate points from around Washington are made of rhyolite, a type of stone found in the Blue Ridge Mountains of Maryland and Pennsylvania. Rhyolite is easy to shape and holds its edge fairly well, and many different groups of Native Americans have preferred to use it for stone tools. So the makers of bifurcate points either traveled to the mountains themselves every so often to get new stone, or traded for it. In this early period they probably walked to the mountains. This tells us that the territory of the people who camped on TRIS extended at least as far as Catoctin Mountain in Maryland. Probably trips to the mountains for hunting, gathering nuts and berries, and quarrying stone were a regular part of their seasonal rounds.



FIGURE 7: Bifurcate Points from a Site in Maryland (Fiedel et al. 2005)

Although a few older points have been found on the island, many have been found that date to after 6200 BC. This seems to be when the island was first heavily used by people. Point types of this period have names like Morrow Mountain, Guilford, Otter Creek, and Lobate. At least 20 points of these types have been found on TRIS, including four or five in the current survey. The wood-working tools and the increased use of islands in general shows that people were probably moving around in canoes.

The earlier cultures seen in the Potomac Valley, from Clovis to bifurcate, covered large areas and changed only slowly. After 6200 BC there was more diversity in the Middle Atlantic region, and there were rapid shifts in the types of stone tools used. Could these represent different groups of people moving into the region, replacing others? For example, the Morrow Mountain and Guilford points that were common around 6200 to 5000 BC seem to have been replaced in the Potomac Valley by Otter Creek points, perhaps around 4500 BC. At the Spring Branch Site, just a mile from TRIS, a group of Otter Creek points was found, all made of imported stone; was this a group of invaders? It is hard to know, but the later history of Native Americans is full of long-distance migrations, so it seems possible that there were also great movements of people in earlier times.

4. Late Archaic Period (3800 to 2400 BC)

A series of thriving cultures developed throughout eastern North America during the Late Archaic period. These cultures had higher population densities than anything seen before, apparently based on great expertise in exploiting the forest environment. The variant most commonly found around Washington is called the Halifax culture. The most striking thing about Halifax people is that they ranged widely across the landscape. Most Halifax points have been found at small, upland sites, and often they are the only points found at such sites. Halifax points have also been found along large rivers and in wetlands, but not in great numbers. The greatest numbers of Halifax points have been reported in the western Piedmont, near the foot of the mountains, where sites are found along streams and rivers of every size and are usually associated with good soil for nut-bearing trees (Holland 1978; Mouer 1991). At those sites Halifax points seem to be associated with crude scrapers and chipped stone axes made from large quartz cobbles. The preference of Halifax people for making tools out of quartz may be related to their wandering ways; quartz was available just about everywhere within their range, so they never had to carry around extra stone for tool-making or leave off hunting to make a special trip to the quarries.

Recent excavations at the Chopawamsic Creek Site at Marine Corps Base (MCB) Quantico provided an opportunity to study a Halifax occupation in a roughly stratified context (Bedell et al. 2014) (Figure 8). Such opportunities are rare; although Halifax points are very common in the Piedmont and Coastal Plain of North Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, they have mainly been found in near-surface contexts on eroded upland sites. This has made it hard to learn very much about the people who made them. Apart from the typical quartz points, the finds from the Halifax levels at Chopawamsic Creek include pit features, large amounts of fire-cracked rock, and several small formal scrapers. Five radiocarbon dates were obtained, all between approximately 3800 and 3600 BC. Large “platform hearths” made of cobbles have been attributed to the smoking of fish caught in annual runs of herring or eels, so the finds at Chopawamsic Creek suggest that the reliance on this annual bounty began in Late Archaic times.



FIGURE 8: Halifax Points from MCB Quantico (Bedell et al. 2014)

Wood charcoal shows that when Halifax people lived along Chopawamsic Creek, the local forest was dominated by oaks and hickories, and the Halifax residents certainly collected hickory nuts. In fact the origin and spread of the Halifax adaptation may be related to the appearance of the oak-hickory and oak-chestnut forests in Virginia and Maryland. Before 4000 BC, this region was dominated by oak-pine-hemlock forests, which are noticeably less productive from the point of view of human hunter-gatherers. Sometime between 4000 and 3500 BC, the climate grew warmer and drier. Hemlocks and pines declined, and the weakened hemlocks suffered an abrupt die-off (Bennett and Fuller 2002; Haas and McAndrews 2000; Yuan 1995). Oaks increased, and hickories first became a significant part of the picture. In the mountains chestnuts multiplied. The effects of the drier climate and the changed forests on humans may have been profound. Historic-period Indians made great use of forest nuts, and their favorite game animals (deer and turkeys) also relied on nut mast to sustain them through the winter.

So the appearance of the Halifax culture around the same time as the development of oak-hickory and oak-chestnut forests may not be a coincidence, and it may be that their culture was built around exploiting the new riches of their changing environment. In fact the rise of the oak-hickory forest may have been partly caused by human activity. Data from Dan's Bog near Greenbelt, Maryland, and other sites show an increase in burning in this period (Yuan 1995). The burning might have been caused solely by the drier climate, but humans may have played a role (as previously suggested in a controversial essay by Stevens [1991]). Human-set fires have a habit of getting out of control in dry, windy conditions and spreading to the surrounding forest, so just the presence of more people usually leads to more fires. Historic-period Indians also set large fires intentionally when they were driving game in large communal hunts. Fires favor oak and hickory trees over evergreens, so more frequent fires helped maintain the oak-hickory forest. Some Indian groups may have set fires as a way of intentionally changing their environments, and from Halifax times onward, Indians and the oak-hickory forest may have existed in a symbiosis, each benefiting the other.

Halifax points have been found at sites all along the mid-Potomac, including TRIS. At least three were found during the recent survey, and half a dozen more can be found in old collections. This seems typical for other sites in the area. Each has produced only a few points, suggesting occasional use by small, highly mobile groups.

The radiocarbon dates for the Halifax culture mainly fall into the 4000 to 3000 BC period. What came after the Halifax tradition is obscure and much disputed. In some parts of the Middle Atlantic, stemmed points resembling the Lamoka points of New York are found; work at the Puncheon Run Site in Delaware led to the recovery of several stemmed points associated with radiocarbon dates of 3085 to 2035 BC (LeeDecker et al. 2005). At the Slade Site in southeastern Virginia, Lamoka-like points were found in a stratum just above the Halifax levels; no radiocarbon dates were obtained, but the excavators estimated the date of this horizon as 3000 to 2500 BC (Egloff and McAvoy 1990:74). Similar points have been reported from several sites along the Potomac, including the Gulf Branch Site, the Maddox Branch Sites, and the Fletcher's Boathouse Site (Barse 2002).

Several stemmed points have been found on TRIS, including four in the current survey. Stemmed points are one of those obvious shapes that show up over and over among Stone Age peoples, so

the ones from TRIS cannot really be dated. But some of them look like points of this period, and it certainly makes sense that use of the island continued.

5. Terminal Archaic Period (2400 to 1400 BC)

Around 2400 BC the cultures of the Chesapeake region again changed dramatically. The narrow-bladed points of the Late Archaic were replaced by broad-bladed points, initiating what is called the Terminal Archaic period (2400 to 1400 BC). The first of the broad-bladed point types is called Savannah River, after the place where they were first found, and their appearance in the Potomac Valley probably means new people had arrived from much farther south (Figure 9). As this culture spread west into the mountains, new kinds of “broadspears” appeared called Susquehanna and Perkiomen. Over several centuries the Susquehanna broadspears were transformed into narrower points: Holmes, and Dry Brook and Orient Fishtail (circa 1400 to 800 BC). These large, broad-bladed stemmed points are typically made of quartzite (in the Coastal Plain) or rhyolite (in the Piedmont and mountains).

The way people lived also changed. The diffuse, widely dispersed settlements of the Halifax and similar peoples were replaced by a smaller number of larger sites, almost all of which are adjacent to rivers or other major bodies of water. Archeologists call these larger sites “base camps.” Sites can be quite large, particularly in the Coastal Plain. The number of small sites in the uplands greatly decreased (Bedell et al. 2014; Mouer 1991). The pattern of sites suggests that people were spending much of the year in these riverside base camps and moving much less often, and also that they preferred to move about by canoe.

It is not certain why people changed their ways of life in this period. It may have been purely a cultural choice; this was how the people of coastal Georgia and South Carolina liked to live, and they brought it with them when they moved. But the climate continued to change across this period and the rivers in particular continued to evolve. In historic times Native Americans made much use of fish that run up the rivers in the spring and eels that run down them in the fall, and lower down the river they harvested oysters. They also harvested the roots of marsh plants they called Tuckahoe, which had to be dried and processed in a complex way. It may be that the spread of the Savannah River culture represents the mastery of these resources; people lived along the rivers because they had learned how to make use of the great bounty of these ecosystems.

During the Terminal Archaic period people began to use carved bowls made of steatite, or soapstone. Soapstone was quarried during this period in the Piedmont of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania, including sites in Washington, DC. Pioneering American archeologist W.H. Holmes (1897) recorded a number of soapstone quarries in Washington and nearby locales. Vessels were apparently carved at the quarries and transported in finished form, probably by canoe (Dent 1995:182-184). Soapstone pots were used for cooking, but it is not yet known what foods they were used to process (fish, meat, seeds, tubers, or nuts). It is also a puzzle why stone cooking containers suddenly became necessary or desirable. After all, the stone pots took a great deal of work to make and were difficult to transport, and people had gotten by without them for thousands of years.

The large sites of the Savannah River culture are the most impressive known sites up to that time in the region. Very large sites of this period, producing hundreds of points, have been found along

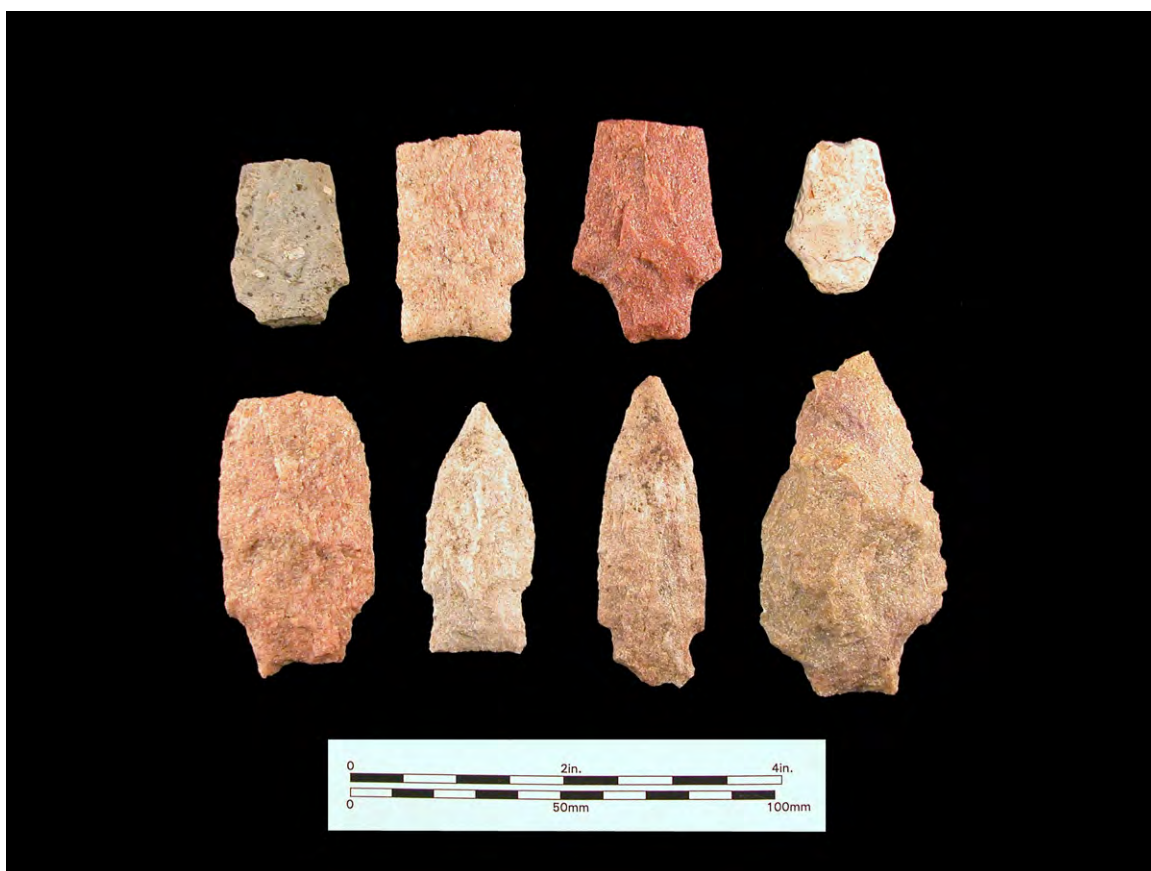


FIGURE 9: Savannah River Points from Maddox Branch Site in the Potomac Gorge
(Fiedel et al. 2008)

the lower Anacostia and in other places. At least four Savannah River and Holmes points were found during the TRIS survey, so people lived on the island in this period. Old collections hold two pieces of soapstone from TRIS; neither is obviously an artifact, but since soapstone is not found naturally on the island, people must have brought the pieces, probably in the form of a bowl. However, the island was not the site of a major Savannah River settlement like some other spots nearby.

6. Early Woodland Period (1400 to 700 BC)

The Early Woodland period began around 1400 BC when people started making pottery. In the Early and Middle Woodland periods, the basic lifeways established in the Terminal Archaic continued. People spent much of their time in large base camps along rivers and other major wetlands making hunting and gathering trips to other areas. Larger sites are common on the Potomac's tributaries both above and below the Falls, with smaller sites in a wide variety of environmental settings. The major change came with the appearance of pottery. The kinds of pottery made in this period include Marcey Creek, Selden Island, and Accokeek.

The earliest ceramic vessels, known as Marcey Creek ware, imitated the form of flat-bottomed soapstone pots, including lug handles, and were tempered with bits of soapstone (Egloff and Potter 1982). This ceramic type was defined at the Marcey Creek Site, which is along the Potomac 2 miles above TRIS (Manson 1948), and sherds have been found at TRIS.

Selden Island vessels, although steatite-tempered like Marcey Creek ware, were conoidal (bag-shaped), marked with corded paddle, and constructed by coiling rather than from slabs. Accokeek pottery is a thin-walled, cordmarked ware, with quartz particles and sand added to the clay as temper; vessels were conical or round-bottomed (Egloff and Potter 1982). Large Accokeek sites are common on the Anacostia River and the nearby Potomac (Bedell et al. 2013), and Accokeek pottery has been reported from TRIS (McNett and Ayers 1974) and others nearby, in particular the Donaldson and Gulf Branch sites (Deppe 1972; Fiedel et al. 2008; Johnson 2001) (Figure 10). The current survey discovered half a dozen Accokeek sherds.

Point types associated with the Early Woodland include Orient, Calvert, Rossville/Piscataway (Figure 11), and teardrop or ovoid points (Dent 1995). Quite a few points that might be typed as Rossville or Piscataway have been found on TRIS, and two more were found in 2018-2019. These types are not very distinctive, however, and some of them closely resemble Morrow Mountain points from the Middle Archaic. Figure 12 shows part of the Smithsonian's collection from the island, and the authors and their colleagues debated how these points ought to be typed. The only consensus was that the brown point second from the right in the upper row does not belong in this photo at all. Of the others, the two on the left in the top row, and the leftmost in the second row, look more like Morrow Mountain points, and the rest look more like Rossvilles. The reader can see that the identification of points is not easy.

7. Middle Woodland Period (700 BC to AD 1000)

The Middle Woodland period covered a long period of time, 1,700 years as defined here, and it may not correspond very well to events in the past. These terms come from the archeology of the Ohio Valley, where they fit better with the record, and they are used in eastern North America



FIGURE 10: Part of an Accokeek Pot Reportedly Collected from the Donaldson Site
(Louis Berger 2018)

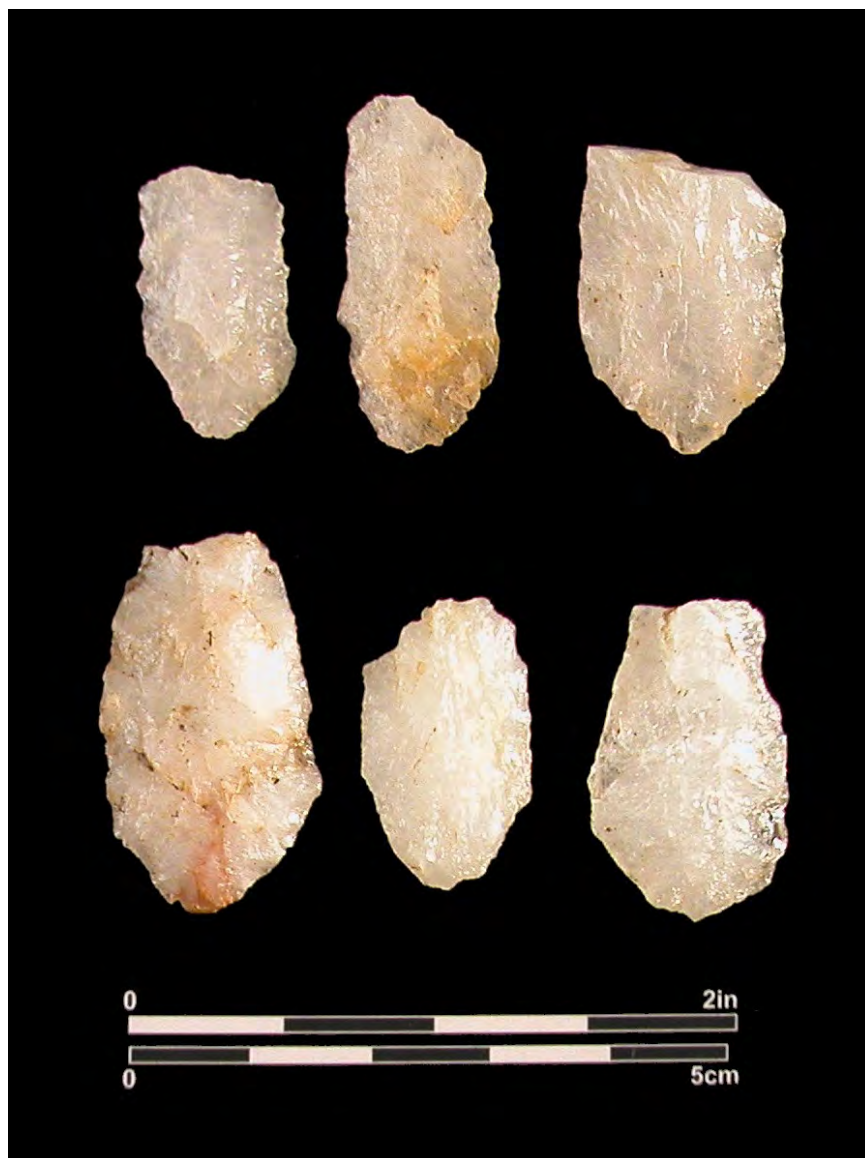


FIGURE 11: Piscataway Points from a Site in Washington, D.C.
(Bedell et al. 2013)



FIGURE 12: Possible Rossville/Piscataway Points in the Smithsonian's Phillips Collection (Smithsonian Institution)

mainly because archeologists are familiar with them. A clumsy language that people understand is sometimes more useful than one that might be more precise but that is not widely known. Several archeologists have tried to create schemes of periodization that fit better with local data, for example, Jay Custer's new chronology for Delaware (1989), but they have not caught on. So, what happened on TRIS during this arbitrary, badly named Middle Woodland period?

During the earlier part of this period, the population of eastern North America may have severely declined, as sites are comparatively rare (Fiedel 2001). However, the population of TRIS boomed, and it is likely that more people lived on the island in that period than ever before or would live there again until after the American Revolution. The most common type of ceramic on the island is Pope's Creek ware, which dates to between 700 BC and AD 300. It could be that the same troubles that led to an overall fall in population disrupted life along the mid-Potomac and caused some group of people to abandon other sites and spend more time on TRIS.

Pope's Creek pottery (Figure 13) is a thick-bodied ware with sand temper that usually bears the marks of having a net impressed into the clay. It is not known why the net impressions are there, but it could be that these pots were made by pressing clay into a net bag. The Popes Creek ceramic type takes its name from a shell midden site on the Potomac River near its mouth (Egloff and Potter 1982). Popes Creek pottery has been found at many sites around Washington, D.C., including TRIS. During the 2018-2019 survey at least 45 sherds of Pope's Creek ware were found, almost all in the north half of the island. Middle Woodland people used a variety of projectile points, some of which may have looked much like those of other periods. At the Pig Point Site on Maryland's Western Shore, the most common points in the Middle Woodland levels were rather poorly made side-notched forms hard to distinguish from the cruder examples of earlier types (Luckenbach et al. 2010). In the early stages they probably still used Piscataway and Calvert points that had been introduced earlier.

Later, after AD 1, population in the region began to rise. After the disruption of the early Middle Woodland, the pattern of cultural evolution continued in much the same way as before. Communities seem to have gotten larger, and people spent even more of their time in their main settlements by the rivers. But they still wandered some distance in pursuit of things they needed. For example, there are Middle Woodland sites near the rhyolite sources at Catoctin Mountain, and the ceramics and tools found at those sites are so similar to those found around the Falls of the Potomac that archeologists think they were left by the same people. That would mean Maryland's Catoctin Mountain was within the territory of the people who lived at TRIS, and they regularly traveled at least 75 miles away on their seasonal rounds (Johnson 2001; Stewart 1992).

A new pottery type took over the region after AD 300, shell-tempered Mockley ware, along with different point types and possibly different people. The new point types include Fox Creek-Selby Bay points (Fiedel et al. 2008). These points are less refined, but they are very common along this stretch of the Potomac, so they must have served a purpose (Figure 14).

One of the striking things about the Middle Woodland in the Middle Atlantic region is the wholesale importation of ritual complexes from other regions. Beginning around 600 BC, certain important people in New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland were buried with artifacts imported from the Adena culture centered in the Ohio Valley, or made in imitation of Adena forms (Lowery 2012;



FIGURE 13: Middle Woodland Period Pope's Creek Pottery



FIGURE 14: Selby Bay Points from the Maddox Branch Site in the Potomac Gorge (Fiedel et al. 2008)

Luckenbach 2013). These artifacts include large stemmed points made of imported stone, tubular pipes made of Ohio fireclay, copper beads, and shale and slate gorgets (elongated stone objects with drilled holes, possibly worn around the neck as armor or decoration). Most objects were broken or “killed” before they were placed in the ground. In the Ohio Valley people refer to the Adena as “Mound Builders,” but the people of the Chesapeake did not take up mound building.

It is not known what these artifacts meant to people at the time, since life otherwise seems to have gone on pretty much the same as during previous periods; no exotic artifacts are found outside these specific burials. Among Native Americans of later times, the exchange of such spiritually potent objects implied a strong connection between people, and exchange of valuable gifts was used to cement important bonds. Those bonds were often described in kinship terms; for example, an important chief might adopt a subsidiary chief as his son, or two equals making an alliance might declare themselves brothers (Hall 1997). One explanation for the appearance of Adena artifacts in the Chesapeake would be that they were given to seal relationships between local leaders of the Chesapeake and great men of the Ohio Valley who had adopted them into their families.

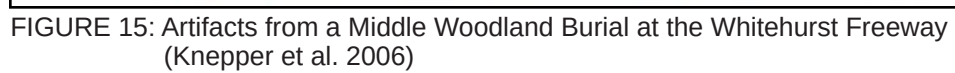
Later, after AD 600, artifacts are found in the region that resemble those used in the Northeast. A cremation burial dated to about AD 750 was discovered some years ago beside the Whitehurst Freeway in Washington, D.C.; it contained a comb made of moose or elk antler, fossil shark teeth, and a polished stone gorget (Figure 15) (Knepper et al. 2006). Similar artifacts were associated with late Middle Woodland burials at the Hand Site (44SN0022) in Southampton County, Virginia, and are thought to relate to a cultural horizon known as the Kipp Island Phase in New York State (Ritchie 1969; Ritchie and Funk 1973) and the Intrusive Mound Complex in Ohio (Seeman 1992).

In the 1600s many of the Native Americans living around the Chesapeake spoke Algonquian languages, which linguists think originated around the Great Lakes. Based on theories about the rates at which languages change, these Algonquian tongues might have separated from those to the north and northwest between 1,000 and 2,000 years ago. This means that the artifact found at the Whitehurst Freeway and similar sites might represent the first Algonquian speakers to arrive in the region.

8. Late Woodland Period (AD 1000 to 1607)

At around AD 1000 people living in the Middle Atlantic region began to practice a new kind of farming using maize, a plant native to Mexico. Reliance on maize varied from group to group; indigenous diets continued to include fish, game, and gathered plants. A dramatic increase in the number of sites coincides with the onset of agriculture. Just like everywhere else in the world, farming led to a major increase in the population. Late Woodland sites include small permanent hamlets, and villages of varying sizes, all of which are typically located in floodplains of higher-order streams and adjacent to high-yield agricultural soils. Ranked societies emerged during the Late Woodland period, which developed into the complex tribes and chiefdoms encountered by the Europeans in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries (Potter 1993).

Prior to AD 1200 or even 1300, settlements were not stockaded (fortified), suggesting that warfare was not a serious problem (Stewart 1993). At around AD 1200 to 1300, throughout the Middle Atlantic region, population density increased, nucleated settlements and stockaded villages were established, and there is evidence of population movement and displacement (Stewart 1993).



Diagnostic artifacts of the Late Woodland period include Levanna and Madison triangular projectile points (Figure 16). These were certainly used as arrow tips; the bow and arrow seem to have replaced the spearthrower around AD 800.

Ceramics found most commonly along the Potomac basin include Rappahannock ware (also known as Townsend) (AD 1000 to 1600), and Potomac Creek ware (AD 1300 to 1600). Rappahannock pottery is a shell-tempered, fabric-impressed, sometimes incised ware that was common along the Coastal Plain in the Middle Atlantic region (Figure 17). Sites containing Potomac Creek ware have been identified in both the Piedmont and Coastal Plain regions of the Potomac basin and along the Rappahannock drainage. Potomac Creek pottery, which is tempered with crushed rock and has a variety of surface treatments, is the most prevalent ware on sites dating from AD 1300 to 1600 along the Potomac River south of the Fall Zone (Johnson 2001:109). McNett and Ayers (1974) reported Potomac Creek sherds from Site 51NW003.

Even though the adoption of agriculture and the sedentary lifestyle that resulted from it led to a major increase in population across the region, fewer Late Woodland than Middle Woodland artifacts were found at TRIS. This is true for the Falls Zone generally. In early historic times the area around the falls of the Potomac, as well as the James and the Rappahannock, was a buffer zone between different ethnic groups that occupied the Piedmont and Tidewater areas. So the people who left Late Woodland artifacts on TRIS probably did not spend much time on this island, since it was disputed or dangerous territory. Perhaps they came to fish, or to hunt deer in lean seasons when the deer closer to their villages had been hunted out.

B. EUROPEAN SETTLERS ARRIVE

1. *Settlement (1607 to 1717)*

As early as the 1520s or 1530s, the French and Spanish were exploring the “Neck,” the land between the Rappahannock and the Potomac rivers that today includes parts of Virginia. In the 1580s the English settled their first colony in Virginia at Roanoke, which failed. Their colony at Jamestown, established in 1607, proved more successful. English exploration of the Potomac area was led by Capt. John Smith in 1607 and again in 1608. The Potomac area north of the falls was explored in 1632, and interior portions of what make up today’s Fairfax and Arlington counties were likely explored in the late seventeenth century as settlement expanded outward from major streams.

Capt. John Smith’s 1608 map shows a number of native villages on the Virginia side of the Potomac between the mouths of Aquia Creek and the Anacostia River: from south to north, Pamacocack, Tauxenent, Namassingakent, Assaomeck, and Namoraughquend (see Figure 5). Tauxenent was the only settlement that Smith denoted with the longhouse symbol he reserved for “kings” residences. Tauxenent was on the north bank of the Occoquan River, near its mouth, in the vicinity of modern day Colchester, Virginia. The tribes were members of the Powhatan chiefdom, a political amalgamation of Algonquian-speaking native people who inhabited the Coastal Plain and Tidewater regions of Virginia and Maryland (Potter 1993).

Captain Smith’s map depicted the Indian town of Nacotchtanck (a corruption of the Algonquian name; another form is Anacostia) on the east side of the Anacostia River in what is now the city

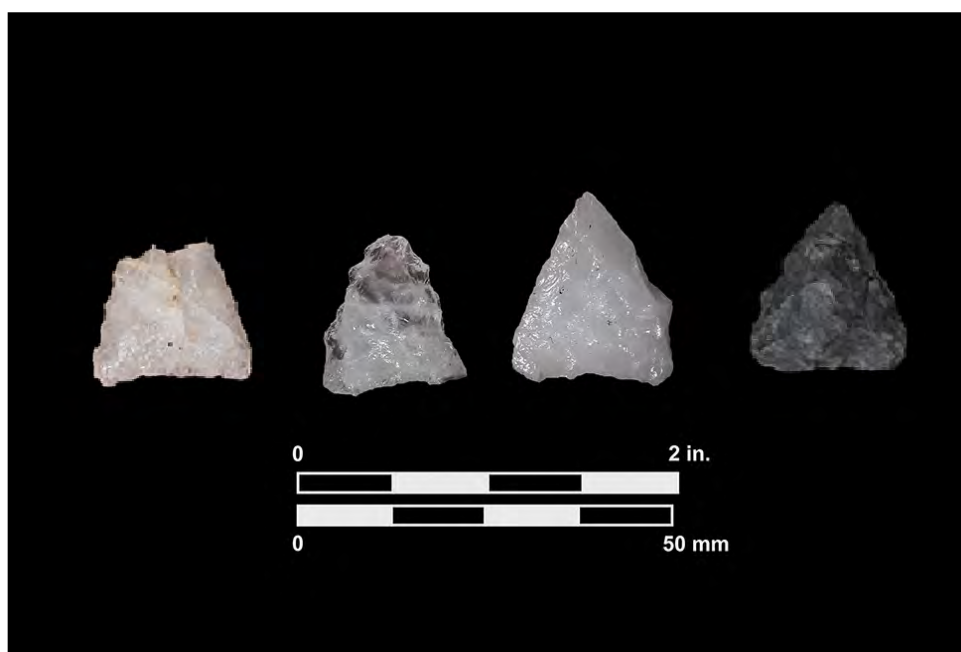


FIGURE 16: Late Woodland Levanna and Madison Triangular Points



FIGURE 17: Rappahannock Incised Sherd from a Site in the Potomac Gorge (Fiedel et al. 2008)

of Washington, D.C. Beyond Nacotchtanck, Smith observed and later depicted the river bank, including an inlet that is probably the mouth of Rock Creek, but he did not record additional settlements. In 1632 Englishman Henry Fleet sailed to the falls of the Potomac and sent a party upriver in search of furs. The party reported no villages within 140 miles of the falls, which suggests that an area once replete with native settlements was largely desolate by the second quarter of the seventeenth century.

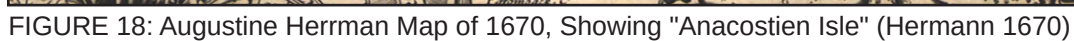
Interactions between the members of the Powhatan chiefdom and the colonists were complex. Both sides initially worked the relationship for their perceived benefits. The colonists were working to gain foodstuffs, knowledge, wealth, and control of lands, while the Powhatan worked to increase their influence and gain high-status trade goods (Potter 1993). The relationship ebbed and flowed, with periods of conflict, including major Indian uprisings in 1622 and 1644. A peace treaty between the Powhatan and the European governing body was signed in Virginia in 1646. Terms of the treaty required the Powhatan groups to stay outside colonial settlement areas and to pay an annual tribute to the colonial government. This treaty marked a major shift in power from Virginia's Indians to the colonial government, and was a watershed moment in Virginia's Indian-Colonial European relations (Potter 1993). By the 1650s the local Indian population had sold off much of their river land to the colonists and found themselves without access to resources. Diaspora communities that formed along the frontiers, particularly along the major waterways, were typically short-lived (Bedell et al. 2011).

The Herrman map of 1670 (Figure 18) depicts TRIS as "Anacostien," a name that suggested the Nacotchtanck Indians had lived there. The first land grant for the island was given in 1680 to Capt. Randolph Brandt of Charles County, Maryland, as part of a property known as "Barbadoes":

... all that tract or parcel of land being an island now called Barbadoes lying in Charles County aforesaid in Potomack River near the falls of the said river over against Rock Creek commonly called or known by the name of the Annalostian Island containing by estimation and laid out for seventy five acres more or less [Maryland State Archives Liber CB3:48, in Johnson, Mirmiran & Thompson 2018:2-3].

Brandt died in 1698, and Barbadoes passed to his daughter and son-in-law, Margaret and Francis Hammersley, who maintained ownership for the next 19 years. There is no documentary evidence that permanent structures were established on the island during either the Brandt ownership or the Hammersley ownership. Settlement west of the Anacostia River was sparse until after 1722, when the Treaty of Albany was signed, which required the Iroquois and their allies to remain west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. However, there is some suggestion in the historical records of occupation in the immediate area before and after the Treaty of Albany. A small fort was built near Little Falls in 1692, which implies that there was something to protect. Ninian Beall, a Scottish immigrant who rose from prisoner of war and indentured servant to become one of the leading men in Maryland, patented his "Rock of Dumbarton" property in modern Georgetown in 1703, and he was living there by 1712. A lease of 1713 places a man named John Garth along Rock Creek. The first tax record for this part of Maryland, dating to 1733, lists 131 names in Rock Creek Hundred, which stretched from the Anacostia to Rock Creek, and 156 in Patowmack Hundred, which stretched from Rock Creek to the Monocacy (Fiedel et al. 2005:vol. I:78-79).

There is some controversy over occupation on TRIS in the early eighteenth century. In 1711, during his survey expedition, Swiss explorer Baron Christoph von Graffenried made a trip up the



Potomac River to Colonel Beall's land (now Georgetown) and mapped the island (Figure 19). On the map he made these notes about Analostan Island:

This island is all cut out of rock. Above it is a very fine and good soil, sufficient to support a whole family. Indians live there. One could make an impregnable fort of it [Werner 1968:9].

Some researchers (Curry 1971; Netherton 1980) have been fairly confident that Graffenried was talking about Analostan Island. However, others (Cissna 1990) have suggested that Graffenried was actually referring to Heater's (Conoy) Island, which was located farther up the Potomac near Point of Rocks (Cultural Landscape Inventory [CLI] 2-4 [Moss 2010]). The Brooke (1737) map of the Potomac shows "Col Masons Island" in the same relative position to Rock Creek as the Graffenried map, suggesting that Graffenried was referencing Analostan Island and that there were indeed Native Americans on the island during the Hammersley period of ownership.

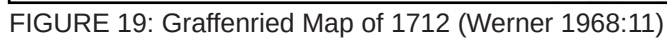
2. The Masons and Their Island (1717 to 1833)

George Mason III of Virginia purchased TRIS in 1717 from Margaret Hammersley for 35 pounds sterling. In ca. 1733 and 1735, Mason III also acquired property across from Analostan Island and across from Georgetown. At his death in 1735, his son George Mason IV, author of the 1776 Virginia Constitution and Declaration of Rights, inherited the island and other landholdings. Neither Mason lived on the island, and the first recorded use of the island was for a ferry licensed to George Mason IV in 1748. The ferry ran between the north side of the island and a dock in Georgetown. It is thought that Mason IV constructed one or more landings at the north end of the island.

An obvious question is what would one do upon reaching the island from what was then part of Maryland (called Georgetown today)? To get from Virginia to the island, or from the island to Virginia, it has generally been assumed that hiring a boat would have been necessary, but there is some indication that the Masons also ran the ferry to Virginia. Francis Awbrey had operated a ferry since 1738 in present-day Rosslyn, "just below the present key bridge" (Holmes 1951:3). After World War I the road that led to the ferry, Awbrey's Ferry Road, was renamed Wilson Boulevard (Awbrey 2007:189).

In 1748 George Mason IV acquired a portion of Awbrey's Virginia tract across from Analostan Island, including the ferry and a tavern, from Awbrey's son Richard. That same year, Mason was granted permission by the Virginia Legislature to run a ferry from there to Analostan Island. Several late eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century articles state that Mason's Ferry ran from Analostan Island to High Street in Georgetown, propelled by an iron chain that was stretched across the river. It would have made sense to cross the Potomac in two stages, across the shorter water spans between the Virginia shore and the island, and the island and Georgetown.

One of the questions the archeologists were hoping to answer in the 2018-2019 survey was, did anyone live on the island in the 1700s? Early European settlers often inhabited islands—Jamestown Island, Kent Island—and other records tell us that people had settled along Rock Creek by the 1690s. The easiest way to travel around Virginia and Maryland was by boat, so the site was far from isolated. It seems that Analostan Island would have been an obvious place for someone to build a house. Yet no previous archeological investigations had reported any evidence of



colonial settlement on the island, and the collections at the Smithsonian and the NPS did not contain any colonial-period artifacts. The current survey did not answer this question definitively one way or the other. A small handful of artifacts were found that probably date to colonial times: two sherds of tin-glazed Delftware, one of creamware with Whieldon glaze (ca. 1740-1770), three sherds of an English ceramic called Midlands Mottled, and a few other items (Figure 20). If these had all come from one area, they would be enough to indicate a tenant house in that spot before 1770. Instead they were found scattered across the island, some north of the monument, some to the southwest. Perhaps they represent more than one residence, each occupied for only a few years. Colonial tenant farmers were a wandering lot, so this is certainly possible. Also, the two best spots on the island for a house were used for major building projects later on, one becoming the site of the Mason mansion and the other the site of the Roosevelt monument, so what we have found might just be the scattered remnants of old tenancies in one or both of those locations.

3. *The Founding of Washington*

In 1791 George Washington designated a 10-square-mile area for the location of the new federal capital, the Territory of Columbia, which included TRIS. Congress required the new federal government to spend the first 10 years in Philadelphia, however, and the government did not move to Washington until late in 1800 (Netherton and Netherton 1987:46). The *Plan of the City of Washington in the Territory of Columbia*, published in 1792, shows Analostan Island divided into eight agricultural fields (Ellicott 1792) (Figure 21). As the map was a projection of what Washington would look like after 1800, the depiction of the island could also be a projection; however, it is more likely that the island was leased to tenants during Mason III's ownership and the map reflects the agricultural use of the property. The map also depicts two rock clusters on the north end of the island that were probably ferry landings. The westernmost cluster is in the general location of the later causeway and may have served as part of the dam's foundation. To this day three very large rocks can be seen at low tide jutting from the water in that same location.

Remains of the Mason ferry landing were observed during the current survey on the northeast side of the island (Figure 22). Since the time of the Mason occupation, the landing area has been subject to fairly intensive activity. For a short time ca. 1865, a pontoon bridge was built from Georgetown to the island's Ferry House location. In the early 1950s the NPS built a boat landing that connected to the island by way of a sandbag walkway topped with a concrete or bituminous surface that entered the island northeast of the earlier eighteenth-century ferry landing. Other rock clusters noted off the north end of the island may have been Civil War landings.

Mason's Ferry operated until ca. 1867. Among the famous Americans to use the ferry were George Washington, who noted the cost of the ferry in a 1785 diary entry, and James Madison, who used it to flee Washington in 1814 when the British seized the city and burned the White House.

A two-story house was eventually built at the northeast ferry landing; however, research has not identified the original construction date of the Ferry House. It is shown on several photographs taken in the mid- to late nineteenth century and on one painting dating to 1840 (Figure 23). An aquatint published in 1801 shows buildings in the general location of the Mason house on a cleared island but does not include a building at the Ferry House location (Figure 24). This may have simply been artistic license, and a choice to focus attention on the mansion house. Newspaper advertisements from January and February 1793 stated that Mason was looking for "12 to 15 stout

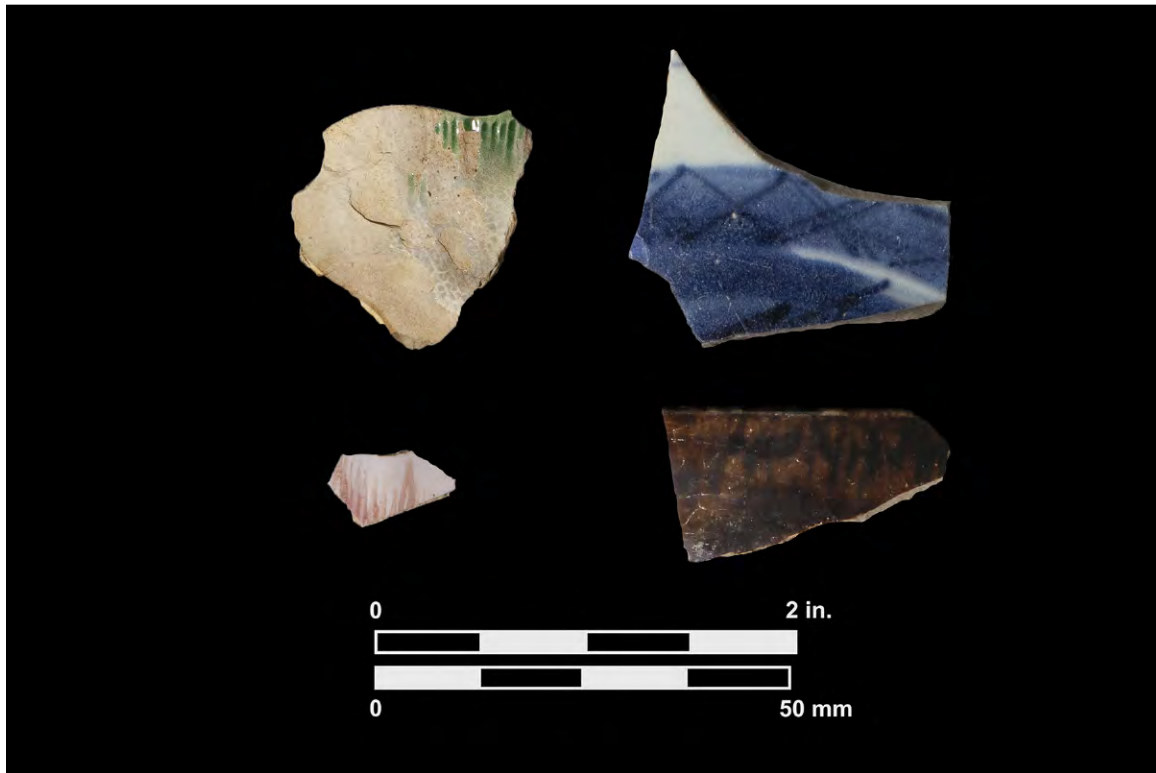


FIGURE 20: Early Historic Artifacts from Survey Area D, Theodore Roosevelt Island

Top row, from left: Molded shell-edge pearlware rimsherd (Field No. 2212.2);
Handpainted Canton porcelain with trellis motif ca. 1690-1797 (Field No. 2701.1)

Bottom row, from left: White-glazed Delftware with handpainted decoration
(Field No. 2519.2); Midlands Mottled hollowware rimsherd (Field No. 2523.3)

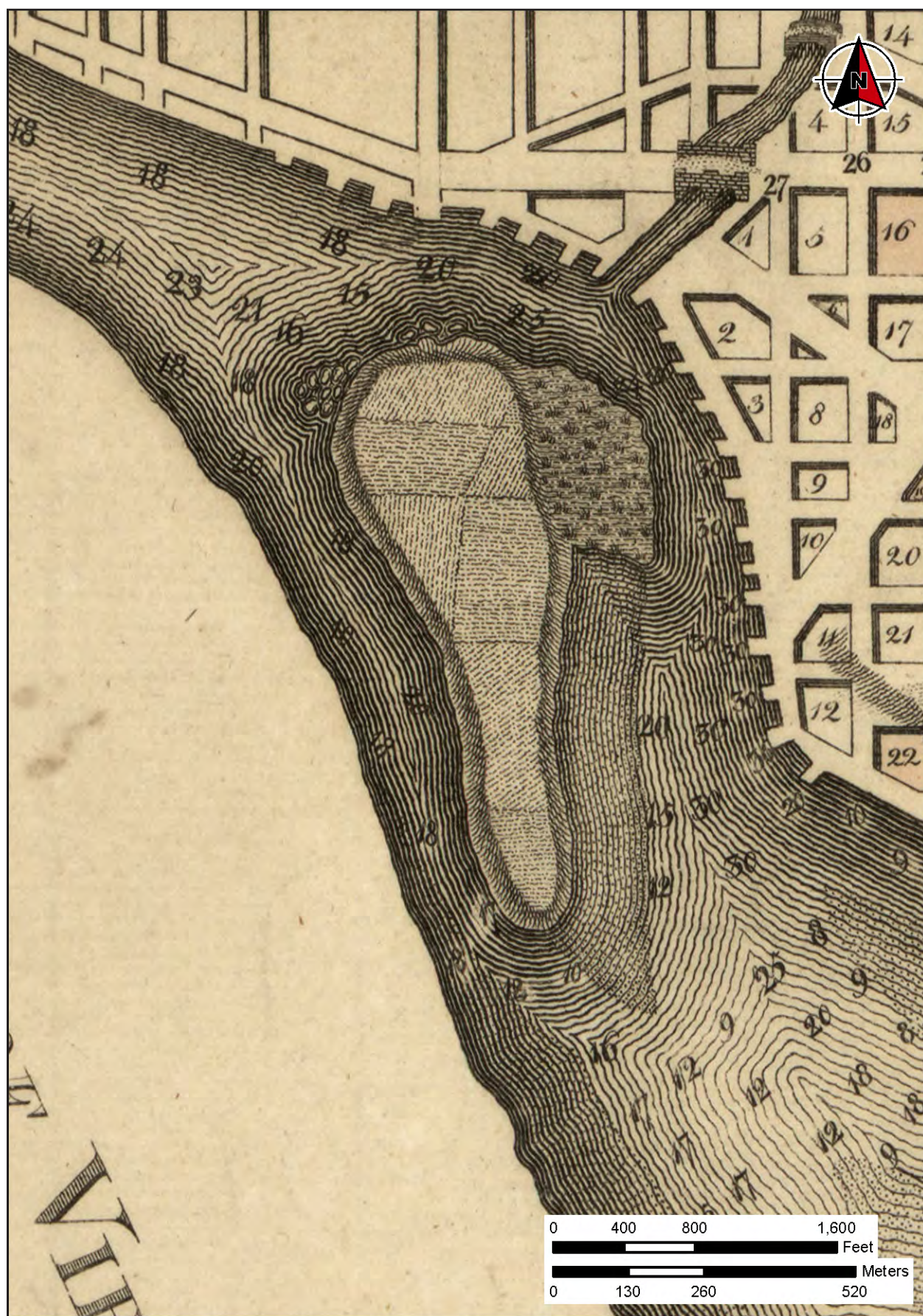


FIGURE 21: Theodore Roosevelt Island in 1792 (Ellicot 1792)



FIGURE 22: Mason Ferry Landing Ruins, Facing East

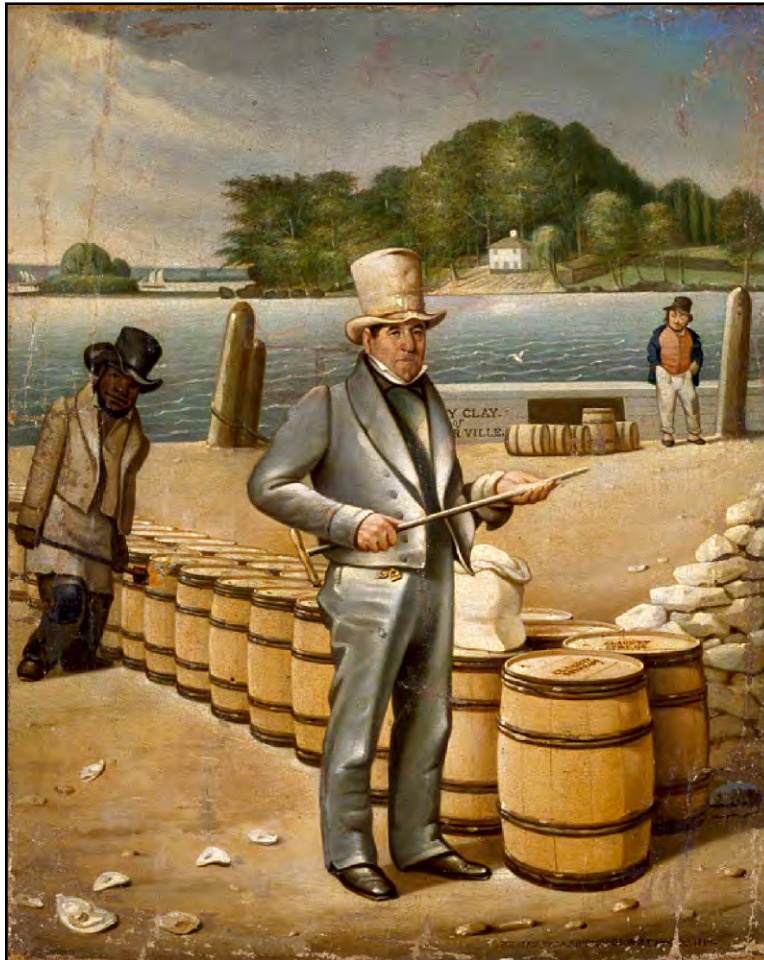


FIGURE 23: "George Shoemaker Inspecting Flour for the Park of Georgetown, 1840" Showing Theodore Roosevelt Island and the Ferry House (1840) (JM&T 2018)



FIGURE 24: View of Theodore Roosevelt Island ca. 1801 (Cartwright 1801)

young Negro Fellows for a year's employment in the neighborhood of my Ferry-House opposite Georgetown" (Webb 1976: 24). That suggests the Ferry House was constructed shortly after he acquired the property from his father's estate.

4. *Mason's Island (1793 to 1833)*

In 1792 John Mason, fourth son of George Mason IV, inherited the island as part of a larger estate, the majority of which was located in Alexandria County, Virginia. Plans were under way by 1793 to begin construction of a house on the island, which was completed sometime prior to 1802 (Figures 25 and 26).

The house was in the classical style as indicated in surviving photographs and a set of measured drawings, with arched windows and a small portico. It was one story with a full basement; the main floor included a drawing and dining rooms, three bed chambers, and a "bath" room while the kitchens and storage rooms were located in the basement. There was a large brick terrace along the south front of the house and the small entrance portico on the north front faced Georgetown. The house was approached by a long driveway. A well, an ice house, and other outbuildings were located nearby [Webb 1976:25].

The house was designed in a typical Classic Revival H-plan. There has been speculation that only the west wing was ever completed, as there were no funds for construction of the east wing; however, there is evidence that the east wing burned down in a fire in 1806 and was never rebuilt. Thomas Jefferson describes the Mason house fire in a letter dated June 29, 1806:

...one wing was burnt down and the middle nearly so. They saved their furniture. Suspicions arising that it was done by one of his house servants who wished the family to go back to Georgetown, he was arrested and on his way to prison with the constable, he jumped out of the boat and drowned himself. I understand the family will continue through the summer in the remaining wing [Gunston Hall 2018].

The July 2, 1806, edition of the *National Intelligencer and Washington Advertiser* also noted "the destruction by fire of the greater part of General Mason's buildings on his beautiful island opposite George Town." The 1801 painting (see Figure 24) shows two structures on the highest point of the island. It is possible that those represent the east and west wings of the house, the central portion not yet having been built.

In 1807 John Mason constructed a dam and causeway from the Virginia shore to the northwest side of the island to bring traffic out to the ferry and to provide access to the house for his family and guests. Mason hired Thomas Moore, who would in the 1820s lead two Potomac canal surveys, to direct construction of the causeway. A visitor to the island in 1828 wrote: "The island lies in the Potomac river; and the General, at great cost, has built an elegant bridge over that part of the stream that bounds the Virginia shore. The scenery, from the bridge, in all directions, is beautiful; and the island, clothed in the most dense and luxuriant green, is eminently so" (Netherton 1980:29). The causeway was damaged in 1852 and again in 1877. NPS reconstructed the causeway in 1955 but removed it in 1979 when the footbridge was completed. Ruins of the 1950s NPS concrete causeway slab are still visible on the northwest side of the island.

Mason and his wife, Anna Maria Murray of Annapolis, were consummate hosts. Stories of their society dinners were retold for decades, including a particularly lavish one held for Louis Philippe,



FIGURE 25: Mason House ca. 1905 (Library of Congress 1936)



FIGURE 26: Nineteenth-Century Drawing of the Mason House Titled "Analostan" (JM&T 2018)

Duc d'Orleans in 1798. Mason bred several species of sheep on the island and experimented with different varieties and colors of cotton. He was also an avid gardener and laid out extensive beds for both vegetables and flowers, and much of his entertaining was done outside in the garden.

David Baillie Warden left this description of the property after a visit:

The house, of a simple and neat form, is situated near that side of the island which commands a view of the Potomac, the President's House, Capitol, and other buildings. The garden, the sides of which are washed by the waters of the river, is ornamented with a variety of trees and shrubs, and, in the midst, there is a lawn covered with a beautiful verdure.

In July, 1811, Mrs. M. gave a rural dance to the friends and acquaintance of her son, at the eve of his departure for France. Though the weather had been excessively warm during the day, in the evening there was a delicious breeze. The young people danced on the lawn. Tea, coffee, cakes, fresh and preserved fruits, were presented to the guests, who sat or walked about conversing, or silently admiring the dance under the shade of trees, illuminated by lamps, which were half obscured by the bright light of the moon. The summer-house is shaded by oak and linden-trees, the coolness and tranquility of which invite to contemplation. The refreshing breezes of the Potomac, and the gentle murmuring of its waters against the rocks, the warbling of birds, and the mournful aspect of weeping willows, inspire a thousand various sensations. What a delicious shade. . . [Netherton 1980:29-31].

Anne Newport Royall was similarly enraptured in 1828:

The house is some distance in the island, in the midst of a thick grove which completely conceals it. It is a large, elegant building, and stands on an artificial mount. The house fronts the course of the river, on both sides; the trees are mostly removed from that part of the island facing Washington, so as to command the view. On this part of the island, viz. the south front of the house, lie the garden and pleasure grounds. A great part of the garden, some acres, consists of culinary vegetables. That part adjacent to the house, is appropriated to flowers, shrubs, grapes, and every rare plant, consisting of the various species of the four quarters of the globe.

An avenue, planted with trees, leads from the house, south, to the river, dividing the garden into two equal parts. The margin of the island is fringed with natural growth, and forms innumerable grotesque coppices, of subtle, whimsical figures — some entwined with the wild grape, form beautiful bowers and recesses, on the very brink of the river. Those natural bowers completely shut out the rays of the sun.

The whole of the kitchen and flower garden, is laid off with exquisite taste, and cultivated in the neatest style. The rear front of the house, or that part which faces up the river, has also underwent the hand of taste, and is beautifully decorated with trees; the orchard and some tillable land, and by far the largest part of the island, lies on this side of the mansion; the greater part, however, is covered with lofty, verdant trees.

Taking the whole together, it is the most enchanting spot I ever beheld! A smooth, noble river in front, encircled by the same on all sides — the variety and richness of the dazzling flowers, intermingled with every shade of green — the broad, straight walks — the exact, level squares — the wild, woven bowers — the varied shrubbery, the lofty trees— the

melody of the birds, every where redundant in the nicest touches of taste and skill — it staggers belief that such is reality, and fills the mind with intoxicating pleasure [Netherton 1980:29-31].

The King (1818) map of Washington is an idealized depiction of Mason’s Island in the early nineteenth century with roads and agricultural fields depicted on the north end of the island, and the Mason house and gardens at the south end of the island (Figure 27). The map shows none of the support buildings that were most certainly part of the plantation. In 1811 Warden (quoted in a 1902 *Washington Times* story) noted that the south side of the island was “substantially walled and dotted with neat white cottages for servants’ buildings.” Quarters for enslaved workers and workshops were purportedly located south of the house, some possibly along “the island’s walled eastern shore” (Pliska 2008:9). However, the area south of the house was extensively disturbed and graded during Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) activities there in the 1930s, and no indication of those landscape features is visible.

Although no clear foundations for the Ferry House were found in 2018-2019, plenty of evidence of structures of some sort was discovered in that area. Near the northeast corner of the island are stone piles and a terrace wall (Figure 28) much like those shown in the 1840 painting. Many artifacts dating to the 1790-1860 period were also found, and a few that seem to be older.

The location of the Mason mansion was never lost, and the site has been explored many times since. During the 2018-2019 survey the location of the house itself could be seen marked by mounds and pits, from which various bits of stone and brickwork emerged. For example, the stones shown in Figure 28 marked the curving drive on the house’s front side.

Besides the house, the most prominent remnant of the Mason occupation is the ice house, hidden in the trees. The location of one of the Mason dependencies, possibly a summer kitchen, and the private well were also located in the wooded area around the house ruins. No clear evidence of other buildings was found during the survey, but the whole island is scattered with artifacts dating to this period.

There is some debate about why the Masons left the island in 1833. One theory suggests that the Masons lost the island through bankruptcy. A second theory is that the family finally decided to leave because the damming of Little River created unhealthy conditions on the island.

5. The Island After Mason

In the years following the Mason era of ownership, the island was a locus for a variety of social activities. On July 30, 1834, a hot-air balloon ascension took place from the “Analostin Gardens” (Curry 1971:74). A grandstand capable of holding 6,000 to 7,000 spectators was specially built for the occasion. A second balloon ascension, combined with a fireworks display, took place in the fall of 1834 (Netherton 1980:41; Pliska 2008:15).

Between 1838 and 1842, the island was held in trust to Richard Smith for 12 common tenants (Pliska 2008:15). In 1842 one of those tenants, Col. John Carter, purchased the island and cultivated it for commercial business. Carter’s business partner, Alexander Garden, and several workers lived on the island and cultivated peach trees, rosebushes, asparagus, carrots, parsley, and rhubarb. The ruins of structures possibly associated with the Carter/ Garden tenure were found on

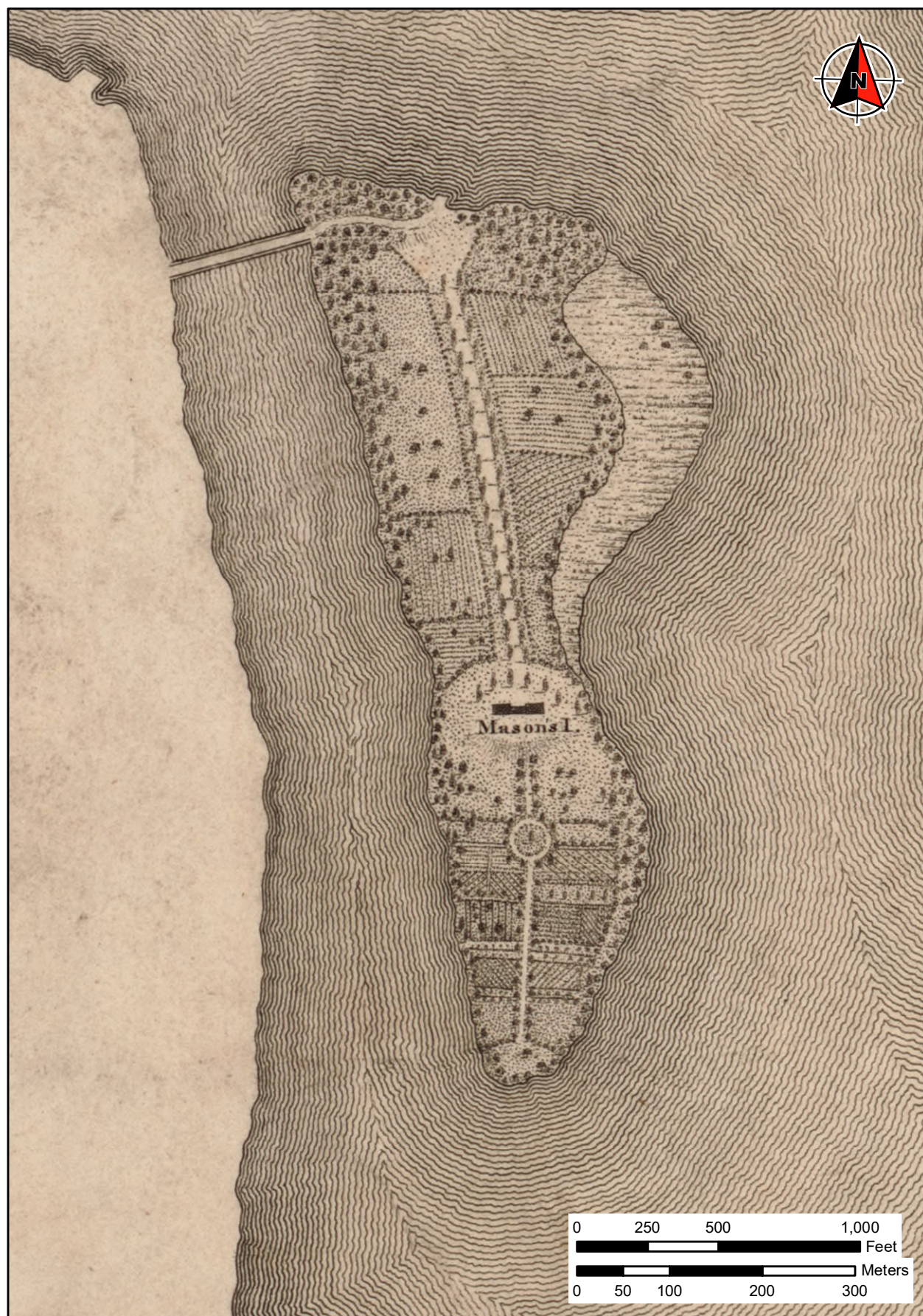


FIGURE 27: Theodore Roosevelt Island in 1818, Showing the Mason Estate (King 1818)



FIGURE 28: High Terrace Wall, North End of Island, Survey Area A, Facing East

the west side of the island during the 2018-2019 survey. When Carter died in 1850, the property was put up for sale.

In 1852 William A. Bradley, Mayor and Postmaster of the City of Washington, director general of the C&O Canal Company, and one of the men behind the Great Falls Manufacturing Company, bought the island. Bradley rented out most of the island (likely the north and north-central portion) to tenant farmers for a sum ranging from \$900 to \$1,000 a year. Bradley developed the remaining portion as a resort destination. Reports from the time suggest that a Colonel Rodier actually ran the resort, probably leasing land from Bradley, and in 1865 “Messrs. Rodier and Co.” were granted a license to run a tavern on the island. A dance pavilion was built next to the Mason house and two new wharves were constructed, one on the north side of the island and one on the east side of the island. The survey did not identify the location of those mid-nineteenth-century wharves, but on the east side of the island a wood post or pier was encountered that could date to that period.

A man by the name of Jacob Powers leased land from 1852 to 1863 for commercial gardening and received a reduction in rent in exchange for constructing the resort buildings, landscaping, and maintenance of the Mason-era structures, such as the main house and probably the Ferry House.

In 1859 the *National Intelligencer* gave high praise to the resort:

ANALOSTAN ISLAND – One among the many places of resort during the summer season for pic-nic and other pleasure parties is the above-named island. Situated immediately opposite Georgetown, and to the west of our city, it is easy of access from all directions. A pleasure seeker has only to take the omnibus to Georgetown, then go down High street to the river, where he will always find a boat in readiness to take him across to the island. The situation is beautiful, and every convenience is to be found on the island that is conducive of pleasure to the excursionist. The pavilion is large and well built, immediately adjoining [the Mason] house, which affords ample protection in case of rain, besides furnishing dining and other rooms appropriate to such an establishment. The proprietors are gentlemanly and obliging, and always succeed in sending their visitors home well pleased [*National Intelligencer* 1859].

The Boschke map published in 1861 shows the Mason house and a second structure, probably the pavilion, at the south end of the island (Figure 29). The Boschke map also shows the Ferry House at the north landing, and a fourth structure on the central-west side of the island with the designation “W. A. Bradley.” That building may have been the personal residence of the Bradley family, but it is unclear if Bradley ever actually lived on the island. The structure does not appear on the 1838 map, which means it may not have been built during the Mason occupation, but it could possibly have been constructed during the Carter period, sometime in the 1840s. Bradley or Rodier may have incorporated the island’s earlier structures, such as the main house and outbuildings, into his development plans.

6. *Analostan During the Civil War (1861 to 1865)*

a. *First Union Troops and a Commissary*

The federal government appropriated the island at the start of the Civil War. It was occupied by U.S. troops and African-American refugees from 1861 through 1864. For a year, from spring 1861



FIGURE 29: The W.A. Bradley Property ca. 1861 (Boschke et al. 1861)

to spring 1862, white Union troops were stationed on the island. In May 1862 the Commissary Department set up a storage and distribution camp on the island and remained there until the end of the war. Artifact concentrations noted during the 2018-2019 TRIS survey support photographic evidence that during the early part of the war, troop life was focused at the north end of the island. The soldiers lived in tents before more substantial barracks, officers' quarters, hospitals, and offices were built. A pontoon bridge was constructed from Georgetown to the island near the location of the north ferry landing, and several buildings were erected during the military occupation (Figure 30).

b. 1st District of Columbia Colored Volunteers (1st USCT)

For about three months in 1863, the island was utilized as a training ground and camp for the 1st District of Columbia Colored Volunteers, a Union regiment composed of black enlisted men and white officers. The question of whether black soldiers would be allowed to serve loomed over the Union war effort from its early days. Radicals like Frederick Douglass argued strongly for arming free blacks, but Northern conservatives were frankly horrified by the prospect, and the Republican leadership initially held back. The issue was forced by events in the field. Wherever Union armies went in the Confederacy, they were met by black people eager to liberate themselves, and officers began to bombard the War Department with queries about what they should do. Some officers did not wait for instructions but immediately welcomed runaways and put the able-bodied to work building fortifications or other labor. After all it was an old doctrine that anything the enemy was using to support the fight could be seized as "contraband of war," and it seemed to many white officers that enslaved individuals obviously fell into that category. Refugees who came north thus found themselves designated "Contrabands."

Limiting able-bodied men to labor seemed a waste to some officers, and there were attempts to organize black troops from the spring of 1862 on. President Lincoln, worried about the effect of such a measure on public opinion in the North, continued to repudiate these efforts, which he thought would require explicit legislation. Moves in Congress to authorize black troops began in the fall of 1862, and Thaddeus Stevens introduced a bill to legalize black regiments in the Senate on January 12, 1863. Southerners who could see what was coming vowed to execute every captured black soldier and treat their white officers the same way. With Lincoln's quiet support, Congress passed a bill for the raising of black troops on February 3. It was not all the radicals had wanted; for one thing it specifically excluded African-Americans from serving as combat officers, and it set the pay of black troops at less than that of whites.

Those failings galled abolitionists but did not deter them. Massachusetts was the first state to recruit black troops, under the leadership of radical Republican governor John Andrew. Andrew and his friends threw themselves into creating what became the Massachusetts 54th Infantry (Figure 31). They recruited sons of some of the state's most prominent white families to serve as officers, eventually landing two veterans who already had exemplary records from the earlier part of the war, Robert Gould Shaw to serve as colonel and Edward Hallowell as lieutenant colonel. To recruit soldiers they turned to the many famous orators who had long advocated for abolition, including Frederick Douglass. Douglass (1863a, 1863b) delivered dozens of speeches across the North and published a manifesto titled, *Men of Color, to Arms*. Some African-Americans were skeptical of joining the war on behalf of a government that still allowed slavery, in states that denied free blacks the right to vote, but Douglass (1863b) did not agree:



FIGURE 30: Theodore Roosevelt Island During the Civil War, Showing the Pontoon Bridge, Looking from Georgetown (Library of Congress 1865b)

MEN OF COLOR

TO ARMS! TO ARMS!

NOW OR NEVER

This is our golden moment! The Government of the United States calls for every Able-bodied Colored Man to enter the Army for the

Three Years' Service!

And join in Fighting the Battles of Liberty and the Union. A new era is open to us. For generations we have suffered under the horrors of slavery, outrage and wrong; our manhood has been denied, our citizenship blotted out, our souls seared and burned, our spirits cowed and crushed, and the hopes of the future of our race involved in doubt and darkness. But now our relations to the white race are changed. Now, therefore, is our most precious moment. Let us rush to arms!

FAIL NOW, & OUR RACE IS DOOMED

This is the soil of our birth. We must now awake, arise, or be forever fallen. If we value liberty, if we wish to be free in this land, if we love our country, if we love our families, our children, our home, we must strike now while the country calls; we must rise up in the dignity of our manhood, and show by our own right arms that we are worthy to be freemen. Our enemies have made the country believe that we are craven cowards, without soul, without manhood, without the spirit of soldiers. Shall we die with this stigma resting upon our graves? Shall we leave this inheritance of Shame to our Children? No! a thousand times NO! We WILL Rise! The alternative is upon us. Let us rather die freemen than live to be slaves. What is life without liberty? We say that we have manhood; now is the time to prove it. A nation or a people that cannot fight may be pitied, but cannot be respected. If we would be regarded men, if we would forever silence the tongue of Calumny, of Prejudice and Hate, let us Rise Now and Fly to Arms! We have seen what Valor and Heroism our Brothers displayed at Port Hudson and Milliken's Bend, though they are just from the galling, poisoning grasp of Slavery, they have startled the World by the most exalted heroism. If they have proved themselves heroes, cannot WE PROVE OURSELVES MEN?

ARE FREEMEN LESS BRAVE THAN SLAVES

More than a Million White Men have left Comfortable Homes and joined the Armies of the Union to save their Country. Cannot we leave ours, and swell the Hosts of the Union, to save our liberties, vindicate our manhood, and deserve well of our Country. MEN OF COLOR! the Englishman, the Irishman, the Frenchman, the German, the American, have been called to assert their claim to freedom and a manly character, by an appeal to the sword. The day that has seen an enslaved race in arms has, in all history, seen their last trial. We now see that our last opportunity has come. If we are not lower in the scale of humanity than Englishmen, Irishmen, White Americans and other Races, we can show it now. Men of Color, Brothers and Fathers, we appeal to you, by all your concern for yourselves and your liberties, by all your regard for God and humanity, by all your desire for Citizenship and Equality before the law, by all your love for the Country, to stop at no subterfuge, listen to nothing that shall deter you from rallying for the Army. Come Forward, and at once Enroll your Names for the Three Years' Service. Strike now, and you are henceforth and forever Freemen!

E. D. Bassett,	Rev. J. Underdue,	P. J. Armstrong,	Rev. J. C. Gibbs,	Elijah J. Davis,
William D. Forten,	John W. Price,	J. W. Simpson,	Daniel George,	John P. Burr,
Frederick Douglass,	Augustus Dorsey,	Rev. J. B. Trusty,	Robert M. Adger,	Robert Jones,
Wm. Whipper,	Rev. Stephen Smith,	S. Morgan Smith,	Henry M. Cropper,	O. V. Catto,
D. D. Turner,	N. W. Depee,	William E. Gipson,	Rev. J. B. Reeve,	Thos. J. Dorsey,
Jas. McCrummell,	Dr. J. H. Wilson,	Rev. J. Boulden,	Rev. J. A. Williams,	I. D. Cliff,
A. S. Cassey,	J. W. Cassey,	Rev. J. Asher,	Rev. A. L. Stanford,	Jacob C. White,
A. M. Green,	James Needham,	Rev. Elisha Weaver,	Thomas J. Bowers,	Morris Hall,
J. W. Page,	Ebenezer Black,	David B. Bowser,	J. C. White, Jr.,	J. P. Johnson,
L. R. Seymour,	James R. Gordon,	Henry Minton,	Rev. J. P. Campbell,	Franklin Turner,
Rev. William T. Catto,	Samuel Stewart,	Daniel Colley,	Rev. W. J. Alston,	Jesse E. Glasgow,

A Meeting in furtherance of the above named object will be held

And will be Addressed by _____

U. S. Steam-Power Book and Job Printing Establishment, Ledger Buildings, Third and Chestnut Streets, Philadelphia.

FIGURE 31: Recruiting Poster for the U.S. Colored Troops, 1863 (Douglass 1863b)

There is no time to delay. The tide is at its flood that leads on to fortune. From East to West, from North to South, the sky is written all over, "Now or never." Liberty won by white men would lose half its luster. "Who would be free themselves must strike the blow." "Better even die free, than to live slaves." This is the sentiment of every brave colored man amongst us. There are weak and cowardly men in all nations. We have them amongst us. They tell you this is the "white man's war"; that you will be "no better off after than before the war"; that the getting of you into the army is to "sacrifice you on the first opportunity." Believe them not; cowards themselves, they do not wish to have their cowardice shamed by your brave example. Leave them to their timidity, or to whatever motive may hold them back. . . .

I will not argue. To do so implies hesitation and doubt, and you do not hesitate. You do not doubt. The day dawns; the morning star is bright upon the horizon! The iron gate of our prison stands half open. One gallant rush from the North will fling it wide open, while four millions of our brothers and sisters shall march out into liberty. The chance is now given you to end in a day the bondage of centuries, and to rise in one bound from social degradation to the plane of common equality with all other varieties of men.

As Douglass's rhetoric shows, the raising of black troops was for anti-slavery radicals the crucial issue of 1863, the one to which they devoted their greatest efforts. Once those troops were raised, hope for eventual black equality was all bound up in their success. Many Americans viewed the performance of black troops as a crucial test of the worthiness of African-Americans to be full citizens of their country. The calls of Douglass and others were readily answered, and by the end of the war, about 178,000 black men had volunteered for the Union army and about 19,000 for the navy. Roughly 20 percent of these soldiers died during the war.

The pioneering efforts of Massachusetts were followed by other states and also by the District of Columbia. Thousands of Contrabands had come to the nation's capital in search of safety or work, and the federal district also had a population of free blacks from which to recruit. The government therefore moved to raise a black regiment from the city, which was successful; in fact, by the end of the war, more than 3,500 men from the District had enrolled in the Union military.

A number of local leaders were involved in recruiting black soldiers, including J.D. Turner, an Army chaplain, W.G. Raymond, chaplain of the military hospital at Judiciary Square, and several black ministers. Most zealous of the ministers was the Rev. Henry McNeal Turner of the Beth Israel African Methodist Episcopal Church at South Capitol and B streets (B Street is now Constitution Avenue). Reverend Turner had been advocating the raising of black regiments since early in 1862, and as the reality of black soldiers approached, he threw himself into recruiting. On May 4, 1863, he visited a crowded refugee camp at 12th and Q streets NW, then held a rally that night at the Asbury United Methodist Church.

A detailed account survives of a rally Turner led on May 18 at his own church (Gibbs 2002:35-39). The evening opened with a brief prayer and then the hymn, "Am I a Solider of the Cross." After a report on the progress of recruiting to date, W.G. Raymond spoke, saying he hoped the next day would shine on two more companies of black troops.

He ended his remarks by referring to a beautiful handmade flag draping the pulpit. The banner was made by Julia Henderson, a black woman, who wrote in a letter accompanying the flag that she hoped it might be the first to enter Richmond [Gibbs 2002:35].

Raymond was followed by a Captain Thoret of the British Royal Navy, who spoke of the excellent record of black regiments in British service. Other preachers followed, one saying that he thought African-Americans were bound for the land of Canaan. Reverend Turner spoke last:

Reverend Turner replaced Hatton at the pulpit with the remark that while he could not say with his Methodist colleagues that they were bound for the land of Canaan, they were certainly bound for the land of Dixie where they had rich spoils to win [Gibbs 2002:39].

The next day 130 men signed up at Beth Israel.

Although the troops had begun mustering in the city, on May 22 the regiment moved to Analostan Island. A great deal has been written about this move in recent times, but the historical record is extremely thin. Some modern accounts have it that the troops were moved because the sight of black men with guns disturbed the populace, but this explanation has not yet been found in any reliable Civil War-era source. Other accounts say the troops were moved because of fights with other soldiers and the police, and there is plenty of contemporary evidence of such fights (Gibbs 2002:39-41). On the other hand Civil War soldiers got into fights all the time— infantry against cavalry, state against state, regiment against regiment — and the D.C. police spent a great deal of time dealing with those brawls, so the mere fact of fighting does not necessarily explain the move.

The source most often cited for the claim that racism was behind the move to the island is Margaret Leech in *Reveille in Washington, 1861-1865*, a Pulitzer Prize-winning book of 1941. But Leech did not exactly say what happened:

The strictness and secrecy of the seclusion on the island may have been prompted by a fear of race riots and bloodshed, once the Negroes were armed and soldiers continued their persecution of colored men. Early in June, a disorderly gang made an attack on the contraband camp, and seriously wounded several Negroes before a detachment of Massachusetts troops arrived to protect them [Leech 1941:254].

The exact reason for the move to the island remains a mystery. Perhaps fear of race trouble was a problem, but perhaps the Army just wanted to get the men out of town, away from the bars and their non-soldier friends, to get their training properly under way.

The commander of the 1st USCT was Col. John H. Holman, a Missourian who had served since the very beginning of the war. He had organized and then led “Holman’s Independent Battalion of Sharpshooters,” which became Company A of the 26th Missouri Volunteers. The 26th Missouri became part of Grant’s Army of the Mississippi and took part in the entirety of the Vicksburg campaign. Sources consulted to date do not explain why Holman was in Washington and available for a new command when his regiment was still besieging Vicksburg; perhaps, like some other officers recruited to lead black regiments, he had been wounded badly enough to need a long recovery behind the lines. Holman led the regiment until the end of the war and was promoted to brigadier general in April 1865 for “gallant & meritorious service” (Gibbs 2002:101).

The official name of the camp of the 1st USCT on Analostan Island was Camp Greene. Walt Whitman left a brief description of the camp on July 11, when he went to help distribute the soldiers’ pay:

I write this on Mason's (otherwise Analostan) island, under the fine shade trees of an old white stucco house, with big rooms; the white stucco house, originally a fine country seat (tradition says the famous Virginia Mason, author of the Fugitive Slave Law, was born here.) I reach'd the spot from my Washington quarters by ambulance up Pennsylvania avenue, through Georgetown, across the Aqueduct bridge, and around through a cut and winding road, with rocks and many bad gullies not lacking. After reaching the island, we get presently in the midst of the camp of the 1st Regiment U. S. C. T. The tents look clean and good; indeed, altogether, in locality especially, the pleasantest camp I have yet seen. The spot is umbrageous, high and dry, with distant sounds of the city, and the puffing steamers of the Potomac, up to Georgetown and back again. Birds are singing in the trees, the warmth is endurable here in this moist shade, with the fragrance and freshness. A hundred rods across is Georgetown. The river between is swell'd and muddy from the late rains up country. So quiet here, yet full of vitality, all around in the far distance glimpses, as I sweep my eye, of hills, verdure-clad, and with plenteous trees; right where I sit, locust, sassafras, spice, and many other trees, a few with huge parasitic vines; just at hand the banks sloping to the river, wild with beautiful, free vegetation, superb weeds, better, in their natural growth and forms, than the best garden. Lots of luxuriant grape vines and trumpet flowers; the river flowing far down in the distance [Whitman 1863].

A photograph taken from Georgetown (Russell ca. 1861-1865) shows orderly rows of tents on the northwest side of the island, on the south side of a road that skirts the north edge of the island (Figure 32). The date for the photograph is given as "ca. 1861 to 1865"; however, the presence of



FIGURE 32: Detail of the Russell Photograph Showing Tents on Mason's Island (ca. 1861 to 1865) (Russell 1861-1865 [Library of Congress])

tents rather than the barracks, which were constructed later, suggests that the photo may have been taken during the summer the 1st USCT was stationed on the island or during the earlier white troop encampment (between 1861 and the end of July 1863). The image also shows a second cluster of what appear to be tents on the south side of the Ferry House. It has not been possible to distinguish between the white Union troops and the 1st District of Columbia Colored Volunteers archeologically. The soldiers would have all been issued the same general supplies, and most were unlikely to have brought many personal items with them.

The 1st USCT left Analostan Island on July 30, 1863, shipping to Fortress Monroe in Virginia and then joining other regiments in Portsmouth for the eventual drive toward Petersburg and Richmond (Figure 33). The 1st USCT was among the troops that took possession of Wilmington, North Carolina, for the Union on February 22, 1865. The regiment was mustered out of service in late 1865.



FIGURE 33: The 1st U.S. Colored Troops on Parade, 1864 (Brady 1864)

Quite a few artifacts left by Civil War soldiers have been found on the island, including bullets and uniform buttons (Figure 34). An especially interesting artifact is a barely recognizable fragment from a brass shoulder epaulette. This must have been from early in the war, because officers quickly learned that these shiny ornaments made perfect targets for marksmen and removed them from their uniforms.

c. From Camp Green to Contraband (Freedman's) Camp

The first compulsory draft took place in July 1863. Local conscription occurred just two months later, and this time white troops once again reported to the island. The island primarily served as a holding camp where draftees awaited assignment to permanent units. By November of that year, over 800 enlisted men and 33 officers occupied Analostan Island. Until April 1864, when women and children were barred, draftees were allowed to live on the island with their families (Pliska 2008:21). In May 1864 the island was closed to the draft and the camp vacated.

From May 1864 through June 1865, the now vacant army camp was repurposed for use as a Freedman's camp (National Archives and Records Administration [NARA] n.d.) (Figures 35 and 36).



FIGURE 34: Civil War Artifacts from Theodore Roosevelt Island





FIGURE 36: Lithograph Showing Structures on TRIS ca. 1865 (Library of Congress 1865)

Essentially, it was to serve as a depot for former enslaved people who had good prospects of finding jobs in Washington. The island camp was only intended to be a short stop-over for the refugees, so accommodations and supplies were sparse. The plan was unsuccessful, however, and soon the camp became grossly overcrowded. The conditions at the camp were subpar, and hundreds of deaths were reported from malnutrition and disease. The government paid some of the freedmen to farm corn and potatoes on the island to provide sustenance, which was in very short supply. In mid-1864 the Association of Friends intervened on behalf of the camp tenants, providing food, clothing, hospital support, and other basic necessities, and started a school.

There has been some speculation that a graveyard associated with the camp was located on the northeast side of the island (southwest of the Ferry House). During research of the island undertaken in the 1930s, a local rumor said that a dwelling located in that area had been built on top of a graveyard (Pliska 2008:136). An extant dwelling and three smaller buildings were depicted there on the 1932 Office of Public Buildings and Public Parks survey of the island. In 1935 CCC workers found a hermit had been living in the dwelling for several years. It is unclear when the structures were built, for what purpose, and if they were placed on, or in the vicinity of, a cemetery. Given that there was easy access to the island via the causeway, and the potential difficulties in digging graves through the island's bedrock, it is more likely that the deceased were removed from the island and interred elsewhere. They may have been buried either in what is today Lot 27 of the National Cemetery, where residents of neighboring contraband villages were buried, or in the same cemetery as the residents of the Arlington House Freedman's Village, which was found in the vicinity of the Sheraton Hotel on the south side of Arlington Cemetery. In the 1950s the NPS built an orientation station and a flagpole at the location of the structures depicted on the 1932 map, neither of which survives.

By the early summer of 1865, only some 500 refugees remained on the island and preparations were made to remove them, possibly to the Freedman's Village at Arlington House in Virginia. At the end of June 1865, the island was turned back over to Bradley. In a November 1865 advertisement, Bradley declared that some 60 acres of land were available for lease. About 10 acres were already under lease to a Captain Rodier. In addition to the land, two ice houses that could hold around 2,500 tons each were available for lease. It is conjectured that all of the buildings constructed during the military occupation and freedman's camp were also turned over to Bradley. In July 1865 D.H. Rucker, Quartermaster, placed an advertisement for the sale and relocation of government buildings on Analostan Island, which gives some idea of the infrastructure that had been built there during the war (Netherton 1980). The buildings listed were the following.

8 Barracks, each 20.5 by 110 feet
2 Hospital Wards, 24 by 190 feet
Hospital Messhouse, 24 by 65 feet
Cook House, 40 by 20.5 feet
Guard House, 65 by 24 feet
5 Officers Quarters, each 16 by 32 feet
One Office, ceiled (sic) with boards, 16 by 32 feet
Stable, room for 50 horses, 28 by 100 feet
Ice-house, 140 by 26 feet

Also for sale were the crops on the island belonging to the government, "consisting of about 6 acres of corn and one acre of potatoes." The date of the government sale prior to Bradley's

announcement of land for lease indicates that the government did not turn the buildings over to Bradley. The foundation remains of what may have been the Camp Greene stables was found during the 2018-2019 survey. Artifacts from the area date to the mid-nineteenth century, not earlier, indicating that it was at least not a Mason-era structure. The ruins of a second structure were found just south of the proposed stable but it was of a very different construction and contained artifacts that dated it to the Mason era.

The United States Coast Survey of 1864 details several structures present on the island, many of which were likely built during the military occupation (Figure 37). Bills for lumber and shingles found after Bradley's death indicate that he continued construction activities on the island after the Civil War. Bradley may have been constructing some new buildings, but he was also likely repairing existing structures. The map shows the Ferry House, the guard house at the end of the causeway, the possible Bradley structure/house depicted on the Boschke (1861) map, and the Mason house. A nineteenth-century photograph of the island from Georgetown clearly shows the guardhouse seated at the very edge of the island, almost in the mudflats created by the damming of Little River Channel (Figure 38). Given the pictorial evidence and the modern erosion of the shoreline, any evidence of the guardhouse would be gone today, or at least in the water. The structure itself was probably sold at the end of the Civil War along with all the other military buildings on the island.

Also depicted are two linear structures north of the "Bradley" house, a square fenced area on the southeast side of the Mason house, and what appears to be a collection of small structures, possibly tents, south of the Ferry House. The collection of small structures may represent the tents visible in the 1866 photograph (see Figure 36).

Once the island was turned over to him, Bradley attempted to collect back rent and damages from the U.S. government. Between 1861 and June 1865, the island's landscape had been severely altered by the construction of buildings, the destruction of Mason-era stone retaining walls to build boat landings, and the cattle brought to the island by the military, who ate the crops Jacob Powers had planted. Bradley had to buy back Powers's lease in 1863 because it became untenable for Powers to continue his commercial planting business. It is unclear if Bradley ever received compensation from the government.

The archeologists began work in 2018 thinking it might be easy to identify the remains of Camp Green. After all, the locations of the barracks at some of Washington's Civil War forts were easily discovered; the barracks area at Fort Totten was a carefully leveled terrace covered with a thin layer of gravel and heavily strewn with nails, coal ash, and nineteenth-century artifacts. At other forts trash dumps have been found containing thousands of artifacts left by the soldiers (Fiedel et al. 2008). But nothing archeological is that easy at TRIS. The foundations of most of the buildings and the neatly leveled grounds that must have surrounded them have been obscured by all that has happened on the island since. Still, some evidence of the camp was found. Rectangular features outlined with stone, stone piles, and buried wall ruins were found during the archeological survey, especially on the north end of the island (Figure 39). These stone structures were probably part of Camp Greene, possibly the remains of barracks, sinks, or officer's quarters.



FIGURE 37: United States Coast Survey of 1864 (Bache et al. 1864)



FIGURE 38: Detail of Photograph Showing the Guardhouse and Causeway (LOC)



FIGURE 39: Stones That May Have Been Part of a Civil War Building

7. Postwar Activities on the Island (1865 to 1930)

Several special events were held on the island following the Civil War. During the last half of 1865, the Steam Fire Engine Company held a picnic on the island, and in a separate event, a medieval-style joust was held in a clearing at the north end of the island followed by a moonlight dance at the Mason house (Figure 40).

Knights representing different regions competed against each other in attempting to spear a golden ring. Following the tournament, knights, ladies, and spectators processed down Mason's Allee to the Mason house, where the winning knight crowned the Queen of Love and Beauty [Fanning 2001:8-42].

In 1866 the Oldest Inhabitants of Washington D.C. Club, co-founded by William Bradley, held a meeting on the island. Festivities included feasting, dancing, and athletic competitions. In attendance was Mr. Hepburn, who was born on the island ca. 1806. His father was a renowned English gardener and the main landscape designer on the island, employed there by John Mason between 1796 and 1802.

William Bradley died in 1867. The Bradley family held title to the island until about 1906, when the court ordered it sold to pay off numerous and substantial debts accrued by the Bradley heirs. In the meantime, over the next couple of decades, both authorized and illegal activities occurred on the property. A story in the *National Republican* dated April 9, 1868, indicates that a building occupied by a family in the employ of Mr. Rodier, proprietor of the Pavilion, caught fire. Several employees of the Great Falls Ice Company tried to help quell the flames using water from the nearby well, but to no avail. Luckily, the flames did not catch the "extensive building and pavilion" that were next to it. The ice house workers were living on the island; the incident occurred at night, the weather was bad, and the ferry could not get to the fire engine to the island. Mason's Ferry ceased operation in 1867 and the causeway was severely damaged in 1877, although it was still possible to walk over it carefully to the island.

The Great Falls Ice Company was established in 1865. The company set up ice houses in Maine, and shipped the ice to the Georgetown wharves, and also had ice houses located in the Great Falls area, north of TRIS. The *Evening Star* (June 1867) stated that the company was "constructing a railroad across Analostan Island, from their ice-houses to the river." It is unclear if that railroad was constructed, as no remains were found during the survey, but the information does suggest that the company purchased the ice house advertised by the quartermaster at the close of the camp ca. 1865, and may have constructed a second ice house. One of those ice houses may have been located in the west-central section of the island, possibly in the area depicted on the 1932 NPS map as "rock ruins of an old wharf," but the location of the second ice house is unknown. The *Evening Star* notes that the Ice Company was abandoning its works at Great Falls and moving its buildings from there to Analostan Island. By 1875 the company was reportedly storing 12,000 tons of ice at Analostan Island (*Evening Star*, May 1875). The company operated until ca. 1901. It is unclear how long they were present on the island, but newspaper stories indicate at least until 1881.

As early as 1887, the Columbia Athletic Club held events there. In May 1887 the Club announced it was establishing a committee to lease Analostan Island, "that part of the island directly opposite the Columbia boat house. It is proposed to place a wire fence about it, to grade and lay out a good

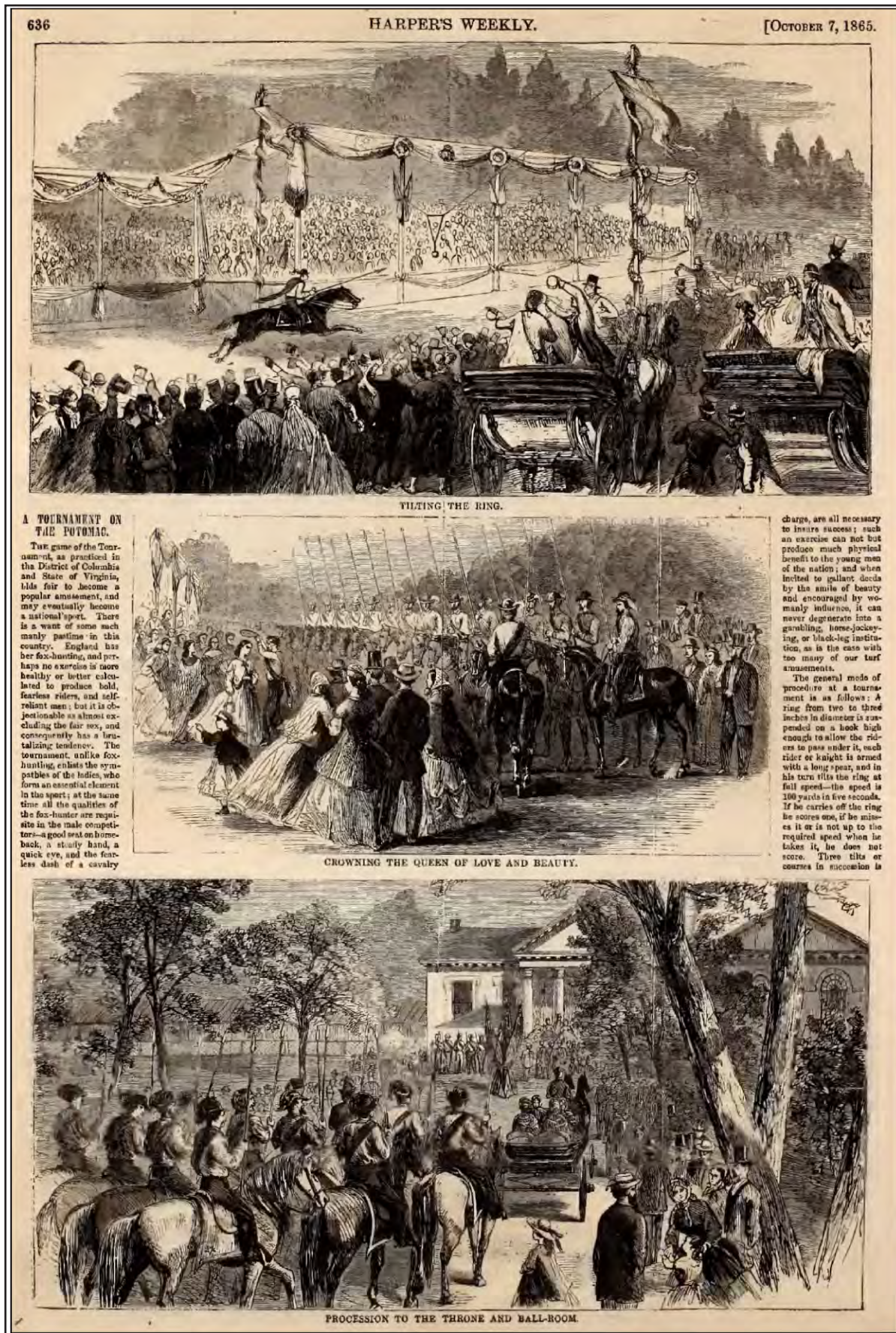


FIGURE 40: Harper's Magazine Covers the Jousting on TRIS (JM&T 2018)

baseball, cricket and football ground, and half a dozen tennis courts” (*Washington Critic*, May 2, 1887). The club owned a vacant lot at the intersection of 15th/D/Ohio Streets that was originally purchased for the intention of building a new clubhouse (*The Evening Star*, July 30, 1887) but in April 1887 the vacant lot was put up for lease at public auction. By October 1891 the Columbia Athletic Club occupied a large building “on G Street above 17th,” which was its main clubhouse (*The Evening Star*, October 24, 1891). From ca. 1889 to 1892, the Club leased the island from the Bradley heirs. Also during that time, the Washington Canoe Association and various shooting clubs held events on the island. The Columbia Athletic Club operated a ferry that ran from Georgetown to the island’s north shore, near the location of the old Ferry House.

It has long been presumed that the location of the medieval jousting match that took place ca. 1865 was later used as the location for the Athletic Club’s track, and ultimately became the site of the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial. The *Evening Star* (October 4, 1890) depicted the track (Figure 41), constructed by the club prior to the meet of the Amateur Athletic Union, which was held on October 11, 1890. The track itself was approximately 200 yards (180 meters) end-to-end, or just

under a quarter mile around. The *Evening Star* also noted that in addition to the three stands around the tracks, “the tents [which were regulation U.S. Army hospital tents] of the various clubs taking part in the games [were] scattered over the ground between the track and river, and also the west side of the covered stands,” which the diagram labels Stands A and B.

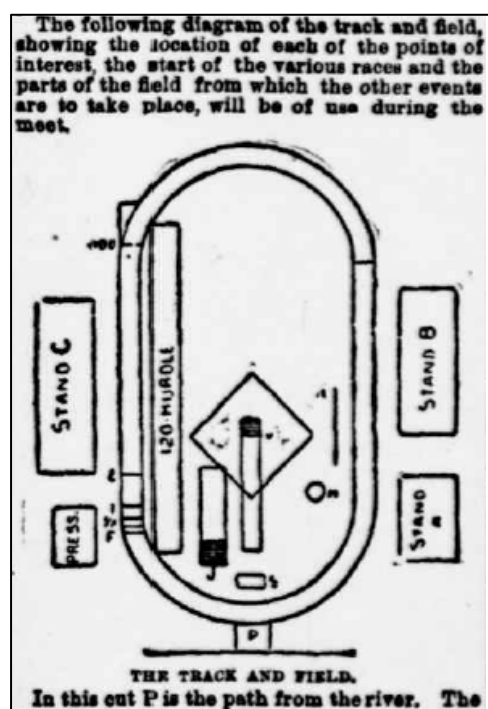


FIGURE 41: Plan of the Columbia Athletic Club Track on Analostan Island, ca. 1890 (*Evening Star*, October 4, 1890)

The Club also constructed a clubhouse ahead of the October meet. The location of the clubhouse is currently unknown but the *Washington Post* (1891) described it as a “pretty little house.” The clubhouse burned down on May 16, 1891, not even a year after it was constructed. The clubhouse was described as Queen Anne style, was “two stories and an attic high,” and surrounded with a circular veranda; the house was designed by an architect named Mr. Wagner, who also designed the club’s G Street house (*Sunday Herald* May 17, 1891). Undeterred, the club announced the next day they intended to rebuild the clubhouse, and sporting events continued as scheduled (*The Evening Star*, May 17 and May 21, 1891). However, a year later the club left the island, not renewing the lease and having not rebuilt the clubhouse.

Between ca. 1883 and 1896 (and probably earlier and later), various news sources reported illegal squatting on the island by disreputable and assorted characters, “the resort of negro roughs and gamblers” (Johnson, Mirmiran & Thompson, Inc. 2018:2-15). The *Washington Post* (1896) reported a disreputable hangout called “Robey’s Resort.” It is difficult to imagine those disreputable characters carrying on with their shady pastimes while more refined folk held races and jousts nearby. But perhaps there was room on the island for both, or perhaps they alternated in possession, respectable people by day and ruffians by night.

The Hopkins (1894) map shows Analostan Island with the name Reginald Fendall, and “75-acres” written over the island. The Bradley heirs did lease out the island and collect rent, but that was not their only means of earning money from the property; they repeatedly used it as collateral against promissory notes. According to the *Washington Post*, this practice began in 1886, when “Powell M. Bradley conveyed the island by deed of trust to Reginald Fendall, trustee, to secure a note for \$3,500 in favor of William Coppinger and another note for \$2,000 in favor of Jane E. Brooke, payable in three years,” and in 1887 when Powell Bradley again “conveyed the tract of land to secure two notes for \$2,000 in favor of Blair Lee, payable in two years” (Pliska 2008:42). Also in 1887, the three owners together “conveyed the island...to Reginald Fendall, to be sold, the proceeds to go to the grantors and their heirs and assigns.” The island, however, was not sold, and in January 1889 Fendall transferred the property back to the Bradleys, only to receive it again one month later. In each of these two transfers, the recipient(s) paid \$5 for the island. The real estate dealings were apparently carried out as a means of acquiring additional capital, as “Powell M. Bradley” conveyed the property to Fendall on several subsequent occasions, bringing the total indebtedness of the island up to \$80,000. Fendall later reported that in 1894 the Bradley heirs refused an offer of \$100,000 to sell the island. As its assessed value was only \$37,500, the decision not to sell the property was likely heavily influenced by “the slight profit the sale would have garnered in light of such a large debt” (Pliska 2008:42).

For a brief period in the summer of 1898, during the Spanish-American War, the island was used as an explosives test range. The tests were carried out by professors from the National Museum and Columbia University for the “education of a select group of qualified civilians and military personnel” (Pliska 2008:43). The testing lasted about three weeks. It involved planting an explosive called jovite, which was similar to gunpowder, in a series of holes to create a rifle ditch. This was determined to be a faster, more effective, and safer way to ditch than digging by hand. Additional testing (beyond ditching) was conducted to test the effect of jovite on infrastructure. Although not explicitly stated in reports from the period, photographic evidence suggests that the Mason house was used as a testing site. A photograph of the house from 1907 shows dramatic destruction of the building compared to an earlier 1890 photograph, when the walls were still largely intact.

The *Evening Star* (August 1901) stated that the first shooting event of the Analostan Gun Club was to take place on the island that Labor Day. The event was a clay pigeon shoot. Special arrangements were made to ferry people across the Potomac to the island. A 1912 issue of *Sporting Life* noted that the Analostan Gun Club would be meeting on Saturday. So apparently, the club was active on the island for at least 11 years. This explains the large number of twentieth-century shotgun shells and skeet and clay pigeon fragments found across the island during the survey.

In 1902 a journalist for the *Washington Times* reported that “the interior aspect of Analostan is desolate in the extreme,” with the ruins of the Mason house “hidden in the dense growth of trees which has overrun the island.” Since the causeway was “partially destroyed,” the island could be reached only by boat (in his journal Alexander Graham Bell describes taking a boat to the island in March 1902 to attend a demonstration of the Baddeck kite by Professor Langley [Bell 1901/1902]). The *Washington Times* reporter found the ruin of a “small, roofless structure, picturesque in its decay, its dilapidated walls overgrown with moss and ivy.” He identified it as a building which had been inhabited by “divers natives of Georgetown,” most recently a “notorious river character” who was still in residence.

Also in 1902, the federal government proposed to purchase the island for use as a park. The proposal was to use the island as a connecting point via a concourse between the Lincoln Memorial and Arlington House. The government did not move forward with purchase of the property. For the next several years various businesses proposed plans for island use, including two different amusement parks, apartments, a university stadium, and a new city jail and workhouse.

In 1907 the *Washington Post* recorded a “scene of dismal devastation,” with the ruins of the Mason house, “stone and brick barns and stables,” smokehouses, and enslaved workers’ quarters standing amidst dense undergrowth. The story referred to a “large open space of more than two acres surrounded by splendid trees,” probably the former athletic field to the north (now the site of the Theodore Roosevelt Monument) (Fanning 2001). Another article from 1907, in describing the proposed sale of the island (this was the \$100,000 purchase price refused by the Bradley heirs) and construction of an amusement park on the island, noted that “the center of the island is a large field of about forty acres with sod, undisturbed for half a century, forming a perfect carpet” (*The Evening Star*, August 31, 1907). At the time the purchase of the island was put forward, there were purportedly nine owners of small tracts on the island, with the American Colonization Society holding the title on the major portion of the island. It seems that those with claims to the property were note holders who remained unpaid. Apparently Mr. Fendall had “borrowed” money while treasurer of the American Colonization Society against promissory notes of the Bradley heirs (Fendall was later sued by the Society). In the end the park was never built and illegal gambling returned to the island, and likely some amount of squatting.

In 1913 Joseph Leiter, president of the Washington Gas Light Company, agreed to purchase the island. The land transfer was initially made from the Analostan Improvement Company (a real estate company based in Rosslyn, Virginia) to Leiter for \$10, subject to a trust of \$42,000. A year later, he transferred the property to the Gas Light Company to be held as a site for a new gas plant; however, nothing was ever built. The company retained ownership for the next 17 years, and the island sat derelict.

8. Establishing the Theodore Roosevelt Memorial

In 1927 the federal government began to worry that Washington Gas Light might actually build their long-mooted gas plant, which would have a big impact on plans for Washington’s monumental core. In 1931 the Roosevelt Memorial Association (RMA, established in 1919 following Roosevelt’s death, and renamed the Theodore Roosevelt Association [TRA] in 1953), began searching for a site in Washington for a memorial to Roosevelt. At first they settled on a site by the Tidal Basin, but in 1926 that site had been set aside for a monument to Thomas Jefferson. In 1930 the RMA decided that Mason Island would be an even better site, and in 1932 the RMA purchased the island from the Washington Gas Light Company. The RMA turned the island over to the federal government later that same year. The island’s wild, wooded state evoked “Roosevelt the rugged outdoorsman,” and the leaders of the RMA advised the government that the island “should be kept . . . a wild place,” maintaining “a sense of sanctuary where the people may flee from modern civilization” (Johnson, Mirmiran & Thompson 2018:2-30). Later that year, the island was renamed Theodore Roosevelt Island.

In 1932 the RMA hired the Olmsted Brothers landscape architecture firm and architect John Russell Pope to prepare plans for the island and the monument. The NPS assumed jurisdiction

over the island in 1933, but the RMA held authority over the planting plan for the island and the right to erect a monument to Roosevelt. In 1934 Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr. submitted a landscape plan to the government, specifying which plants he wanted eradicated and which he wanted left alone. Olmsted's plan also involved demolition of the Mason-era and later buildings on the property. The work was started in 1935 by the CCC, who began removing non-native vegetation, including those planted by Mason, and planting approved species. They ultimately planted more than 35,000 trees, shrubs, and other plants. Some areas of the island were graded to prepare paths.

The CCC workers also excavated the remains of the Mason house, completely clearing the accumulated soil and exposing the foundations. In 1936 the NPS allowed a team from the Historic American Buildings Survey (HABS) a short time to document all of the buildings on the island. The HABS team dug trenches across the house site to reveal its structure. Apparently, the extensive cutting of tree roots around the house ruins caused Olmsted some amount of consternation. So instead of his previous position of total removal of the ruins, he recommended filling in the basement level with all the above-ground wall ruins, and removing or reburying lower walls. The purpose was to avoid damaging the trees and to the best of his abilities "soften and obscure the continuity and rigidity of the artificial terrace bank" on which the house was built. In his words: "In short, the end view is ... to accelerate the approach of inconspicuousness, such as these or any other such remnants of relatively unimportant human structures fall into when abandoned long enough to the forces of nature in a region reconquered by forest" (Fanning 2001:53-54). Although Olmsted stated an intention not to affect the topography of the island, a picture of CCC work done on the south terrace, or "Overlook Terrace," just south of the Mason ruins, in 1935 shows clearing and grading for walking trails and bridle paths, and large holes for tree planting (CLR 2-32 [Johnson, Mirmiran & Thompson, Inc. 2018]) (Figure 42). In 1936 archeological excavations were carried out at the Mason House in conjunction with the HABS documentation of the house ruins (Library of Congress 1936). The labor was supplied by the CCC, which had already been working on the island helping to clear it of non-native vegetation. The results of that project include mapping of the house foundations (Figure 43), numerous photographs of the ruins (Figures 44 and 45), and field notes. The scale of the ruins uncovered convinced landscape designer Olmsted to leave the remains of the house in place rather than trying to remove them completely.

The final HABS report documented three dependencies east of the main house and one immediately to the west. Based on the limited number of archeological finds, however, no function or use of the buildings was postulated. A drawing in the *Harper's Weekly* (1865) article shows the Mason house and several buildings inside a fence on its east side (see Figure 40).

The CCC archeological study also mapped two clusters of ruined scows off of the northwest corner of the island, and also a 70-foot-long shipwreck off the east side of the island. During the 2018-2019 survey an attempt was made to locate the shipwreck on the east side of the island, but it was unsuccessful. Over the years stormy waters have likely moved at least some of ship framing away from the shoreline and it is likely that others are still buried under silt.

Between the late 1930s and the early 1940s, work on the island was at a standstill, partly because of Olmsted's poor health and a lack of funds. During World War II government agencies, including the Office of Strategic Services (OSS), used the island for training. They built temporary pontoon bridges connecting both ends of the island to Virginia, and a road across the north end of the island (Figure 46). The road may have in part incorporated the earlier historic road but also cut through



FIGURE 42: CCC Members Working on the Overlook Terrace, July 1935 (JM&T 2018)

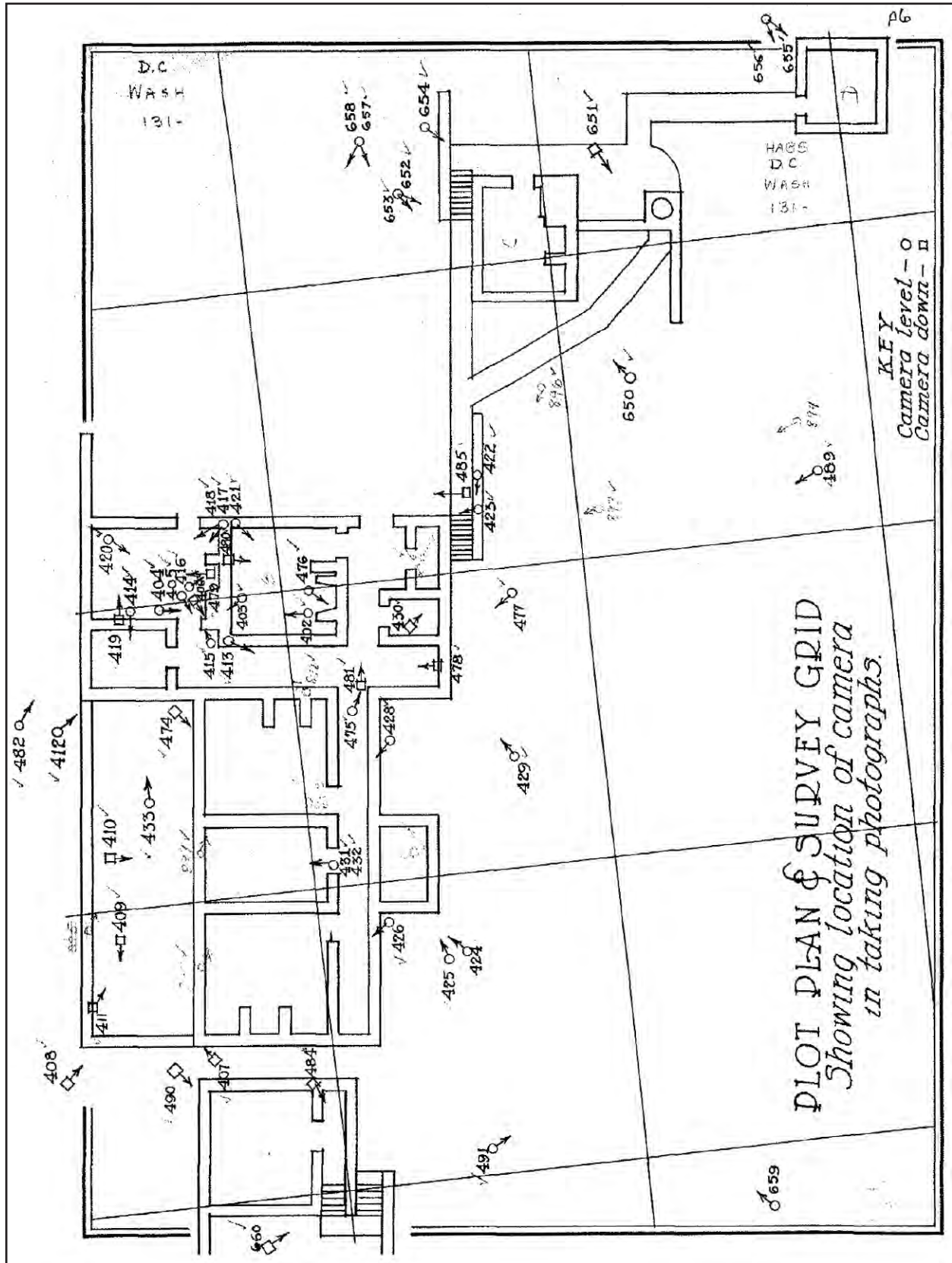


FIGURE 43: Plan of the Mason House Foundations, 1936 (LOC)



FIGURE 44: The Mason House Under Excavation, 1936 (Library of Congress 1936)



FIGURE 45: Part of the Mason House Cellar, 1936 (Library of Congress 1936)

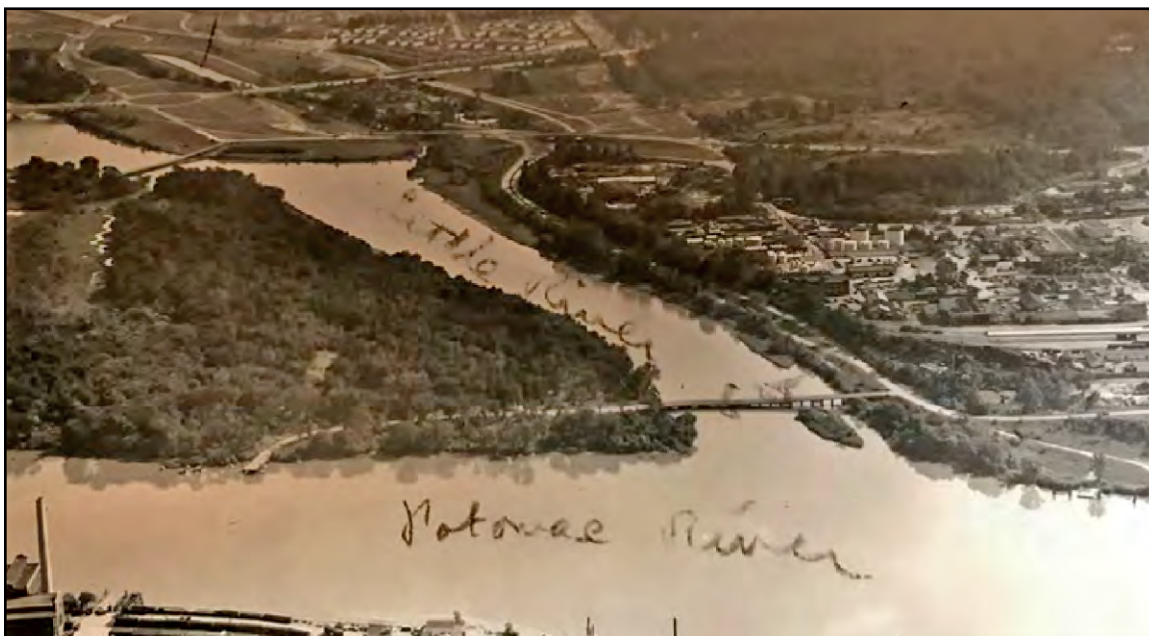


FIGURE 46: World War II Aerial Photo of Theodore Roosevelt Island, Showing Bridges and Road (JM&T 2018)

a previously undisturbed portion of the north side of the island, west of the Ferry House. The road cut was apparently so extreme that then Assistant Superintendent of the National Capital Parks recommended ordering a new topographic map of the island (CLR 2-34 [Johnson, Mirmiran & Thompson, Inc. 2018]). After World War II the bridges were removed and the island could be accessed only by boat. For a time in the early 1950s, the NPS operated a ferry service from Georgetown. Then in 1955 the NPS constructed what amounted to a new version of Mason's old causeway, connecting the north end of the island to the Virginia shore. The causeway was realigned in 1957 but was ultimately removed when the pedestrian bridge opened in 1979.

In the 1950s several proposals were made for the location of a vehicular bridge connecting Virginia to Washington, D.C. and Maryland. This program led eventually to the Theodore Roosevelt Bridge, which crosses over the south end of TRIS. Initially, the RMA strongly opposed the bridge, but after numerous other locations were investigated and found wanting, they eventually agreed to the current route, which was approved in 1956. The bridge was completed in 1964. Olmsted's plan for the island had included a boat house and a viewing platform at the south end of the island, but that plan had to be abandoned once the bridge became a reality.

The monument that was eventually built in the center of the island had a complex and controversial development. The RMA wanted the monument in place for the centennial of Roosevelt's birth in 1958, and they commissioned Eric Gugler to prepare a design. His first effort included a parking area and electric lights, which many people felt violated the original vision of the island as a place of nature. Even Roosevelt's family got involved. It was not until 1961 that a second design, which omitted the parking and the lights, was eventually approved.

The Theodore Roosevelt Memorial was formally dedicated in 1967 by President Lyndon Johnson in 1967 (Figure 47). Parking on the Virginia shore was later added and eventually expanded. On the island a small A-frame ranger contact building (now demolished), a small storage shed, and the pedestrian bridge to replace the causeway entrance were added to support visitor services on the island.

Today, almost 2 miles of foot trails wind through the wooded uplands, passing by the buried ruins of the Mason House, and traverse the swampy bottomlands along the Potomac River. The island is used by Park visitors for recreational activities such as birding and hiking. The island, long a retreat for locals, is now also a destination for tourists to the area.

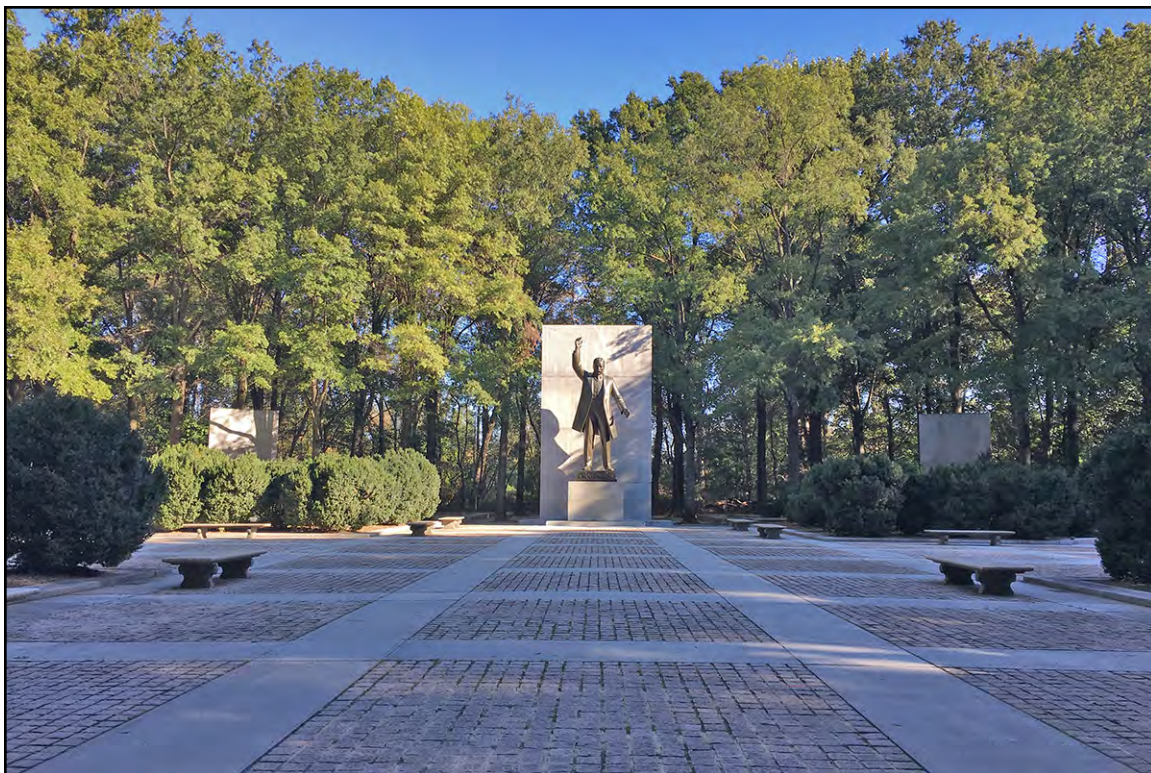


FIGURE 47: The Theodore Roosevelt Memorial

III. DISCUSSION

From ancient hunter-gatherers to modern highway builders, Theodore Roosevelt Island preserves a remarkable record of the past. Even where the landscape seems most disturbed, traces of long-ago lives remain. Walking the trail and other footpaths, it is possible to forget that you are in the midst of a great city, and you can cast your mind back to the past, when ancient Indians, European settlers, Civil War soldiers, refugees, and early twentieth-century merry-makers passed across the island.

During this study much of the park was explored by archeologists searching for the remains left by those long-ago people. The oldest datable artifact found during the survey was a Middle Archaic point dating to around 6000 BC; the most recent had been dropped only months before. The remains of these periods overlap. Flakes of stone left by prehistoric tool makers are found together with sherds of teacups from the 1790s, Civil War buttons, and bottle glass left by twentieth-century party-goers.

During the two-year archeological survey of TRIS more than 6,500 precontact artifacts were found, including dozens of stone tools and potsherds. They represent people visiting the island over thousands of years, from the Middle Archaic period through the end of the Woodland period. Historic artifacts date from the John Mason ownership period (late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries) to the early twentieth century, when the Roosevelt Memorial Association purchased the island. A few artifacts suggest that unknown tenant farmers lived on the island in the mid-1700s, but this is not certain.

The archeological remains were concentrated in two parts of the island. Historically, the north part of the island was the focus of activity in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries (the Mason period) and during the Civil War. The central portion of the north plateau yielded a larger number of and more varied Civil War-period artifacts than any other area; combining these data with the evidence of photographs shows that this was the location of Camp Greene and the Contraband camp. Several historic features were identified there, both on the surface and as a result of test unit excavation.

The other archeological focus was to the south, around the ruins of the Mason House. The house itself was found there as well as other structures associated with it, such as the ice house, a well, and at least one of the dependencies, possibly a summer kitchen. Some precontact artifacts were also found there, but not nearly so many as farther north. A few artifacts that may come from an additional eighteenth-century house were also found, but that could not be confirmed. That tenancy, if it existed, was probably built over in more recent times. Perhaps the Masons built their mansion where it had stood, or perhaps Olmsted's crew dug through it to make trails, or maybe it was bulldozed away by the engineers of I-66. So much could have happened to it, because so much has happened on this amazing little island.

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