

APPENDIX F

**CULTURAL HISTORY OF
THE CHESAPEAKE BAY REGION**

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Information regarding the past cultural chronology in the region assists in the assessment of the archeological potential, and provides an interpretive context for any potential archaeological or architectural resources in the project area. The chronology presented below follows the major cultural traditions for the study region in Virginia and Maryland. Knowledge of local prehistory and history helps to place cultural resources within their historic context and is necessary for evaluating the importance of cultural resources within the project area.

Prehistoric Contexts

The prehistory of Virginia and Maryland, and the Middle Atlantic region in general, is conventionally divided into three broad periods reflecting widespread developments in the environment, as well as technological and social adaptations. Following Griffin's (1967) chronology for eastern North America, these periods are referred as the Paleoindian (ca. 10,000-8000 B.C.), the Archaic (ca. 8000-1000 B.C.), and the Woodland (ca. 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1600). The Archaic and Woodland periods are further divided into three subperiods (Early, Middle, and Late) based on changes in style or other attributes in projectile points and ceramics.

The environment of the Middle Atlantic region has remained relatively stable for at least the past 3,000 years. Prior to that time, two major trends are apparent, both of which were related to the retreat of continental glaciers at the end of the last Ice Age, a period that coincides with the arrival of Native American populations in the Northeast. The trends are gradual warming, and the replacement of boreal, coniferous forests with mixed deciduous communities.

Paleoindian (10,000 B.C. - 8000 B.C.).

The undisputed record of human habitation in the Middle Atlantic begins some 12,000 years ago, near the end of Late Wisconsin Glacial period. The end of the Late Wisconsin Glacial period brought a fairly rapid warming trend throughout the Middle Atlantic, a phenomenon directly reflected by the replacement of northern flora and fauna by southern species. The large Pleistocene grazing and browsing fauna were, by this point, mostly gone from the Middle Atlantic region. However, the forests and transitional zones would have supported a wider range of floral and small faunal species than were present in the western savannahs (Wesler et al. 1981; Johnson 1986). The period is traditionally thought of as one where big game, e.g., mammoth, mastodon, and caribou, were the major prey species. However, there is increasing evidence that smaller game and a variety of plants were also exploited as major dietary sources (Meltzer 1988).

Archaeological sites dating to this period are identified by the presence of fluted stone projectile points, or spear tips, such as Clovis or Dalton/Hardaway, often made of high quality, cryptocrystalline lithic material such as chert or jasper. These points are more common in Virginia than in the rest of the Middle Atlantic. The points are frequently reported as isolated finds, and it is unclear whether they represent small campsite locations or items lost during individual hunting forays. Other diagnostic artifacts of this time period are unfluted lanceolate and notched points. Many additional stone tool forms are found, including drills, graters, *pieces esquillees* or wedges, uniface tools, bifacial knives, and various types of scrapers (Funk 1978:17). Ground stone tools such as hammerstones, anvils, pitted stones, and abraders were

also used. Together, these were part of a generalized tool kit of a highly mobile people, who exploited a variety of plant and animals for food clothing, shelter, and tools. Paleoindian sites are found throughout North America, with regional variations in lifeways (Cannon and Meltzer 2004; Ritchie 1980). Paleoindian social organization was probably relatively simple, consisting of egalitarian bands made up of small family units that only periodically gathered together (Anderson 1996). Based on excavations in the Shenandoah Valley, Gardner argues for a Paleoindian settlement model in which base camps were situated in areas of high resource diversity, particularly near sources of cryptocrystalline stone (Gardner 1974; 1979). Other smaller and more temporary camp sites were situated near quarry locations proper and these served a variety of purposes. Specialized hunting camps could be expected still farther from the main base camp. They moved between temporary camps as resources became available through the year. Neither horticulture nor settled village life was practiced by these people.

Relatively few Paleoindian sites have been reported throughout the Middle Atlantic. Virginia however, is known for as a Paleoindian “hot-spot” within the region and a number of important sites have been excavated in the state. These include the Flint Run Paleoindian Complex (Gardner 1974) located in the northern Shenandoah Valley and the Williamson Site in Dinwiddie County (McCary and Bittner 1978). A more recently investigated Paleoindian period site is Cactus Hill (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997). Located along the Nottoway River in interior southeast Virginia, this site is better known for its controversial, possible pre-Paleoindian component. While southeast Virginia is known to contain numerous Paleoindian sites, it is probable that many other sites located further east on the continental shelf and in the Chesapeake Bay have been submerged by ongoing sea level rise, a phenomenon seen elsewhere (Faught 2004).

Archaic Tradition (8000 - 1000 B.C.).

The Archaic period extended from ca. 8000 - 1000 B.C. and was marked by trends toward warmer and increasingly drier conditions and the establishment of environmental conditions increasingly like that of the present (Joyce 1988). The major sub-periods recognized within the Archaic period are referred to as Early (8000 - 6500 B.C.), Middle (6500 B.C. - 3000 B.C.), and Late (3000 - 1000 B.C.)

One of the most important environmental changes affecting prehistoric populations throughout the Middle Atlantic region was the gradual rise in sea level resulting from the melting of the continental ice sheets. Beginning during the late Paleoindian period and continuing throughout the Holocene, rising sea level resulted in the inundation of the much of the continental shelf. Widespread lowland flooding resulted, which extended up many Pleistocene valleys, such as the Delaware and Susquehanna Rivers, and gave rise to the term "drowned" river valley. As the continental ice sheets began to recede, sea level rose very rapidly forming about 80% of the modern Chesapeake Bay by the inundation of the Susquehanna River Valley (Blanton and Margolin 1994). Among the effects of inundation were a marked rise in local water tables, an increase in shoreline complexity associated with estuary development, and a consequent increase in floral and faunal resources in newly formed marsh or wetland areas (Potter 1982). Local populations were exploiting the new floral and faunal resources brought by the transformation of the mixed pine-oak forest to a temperate oak-hemlock deciduous forest.

Large marshes and swamps, which resulted from the ongoing inundation of coastal waterways, became an important focus of occupation during the period. Although generalized foraging is assumed as the main resource procurement strategy, seasonally specialized transient procurement stations have been identified, functioning as support facilities for estuarine base camps (Gardner 1978; Custer 1986).

The Early and Middle Archaic artifact assemblages are dominated by a variety of projectile point forms including Kirk and Palmer (Coe 1964) corner-notched points; bifurcate types such as St. Albans, LeCroy, and Kanawha (Broyles 1971); stemmed points such as Stanly; unique forms such as Guilford and Morrow Mountain (Coe 1964); and finally, the side-notched Halifax point (Coe 1964). The lithic tool kit during this period was further marked by the appearance of groundstone tools and woodworking tools such as axes, mauls, adzes, etc. These tools represent the earliest artifact evidence of extensive plant processing.

By the end of the Middle Archaic period, new point types appeared in the area. Mouer (1990) argues that side-notched Halifax and Brewerton-like points came to dominate lithic assemblages throughout the Coastal Plain and Piedmont north of the James River. However, subsistence and settlement patterns appear to have remained unchanged. Seasonal transhumance predominated, with deer, small mammals, wild turkey, and plant resources comprising the majority of the diet.

The succeeding Late Archaic period was characterized by the replacement of the oak/hemlock forest with an oak/hickory forest environment. The rate of sea level rise slowed, allowing riverine and estuarine environments to stabilize sufficiently to support significant populations of shellfish and runs of anadromous fish. It is widely suggested that the focus of settlement shifted during the Late Archaic period to these riverine and estuarine locales to take advantage of the increasingly predictable resources they harbored (Catlin et al. 1982; Custer 1978; Gardner 1978; Mouer 1990). A marked increase in the number of sites is observed during the early portions of the Woodland period, suggesting both an overall population increase and movement into new environmental zones (Turner 1978).

Characteristic of the Late Archaic period are large broad bladed stemmed bifaces known as Savannah River as defined by Coe (1964) in the North Carolina Piedmont. These broad-bladed points may have been designed as cutting implements, or knives, in part to exploit the newly available estuarine and/or riverine resources. Other point types temporally diagnostic of the Late Archaic include the broadly side-notched Otter Creek, Susquehanna, Perkiomen, and Fishtails (Ritchie 1971; Kinsey 1972). These appear somewhat later than Savannah River and occur most often in the Potomac drainage. The Late Archaic also saw the adoption of stone vessels carved of steatite. In Piedmont areas, use and production of stone bowls is closely tied to the Savannah River complex (McLearen 1991).

Woodland Tradition (1000 B.C. - A.D. 1600.).

Around 1000 B.C., techniques for pottery manufacture were introduced across the region. This innovation has traditionally defined the beginning of the Woodland period in the Middle Atlantic (Reinhart and Hodges 1992). The Woodland period is divided into three sub-periods: Early (1000 B.C. to A.D. 300), Middle (A.D. 300 to 1000), and Late Woodland (A.D. 1000 to

1600). The first half of the Woodland corresponds roughly to a climatic episode referred to as the Sub-Atlantic, characterized by a trend toward progressively cooler and wetter conditions in comparison to the preceding Sub-Boreal episode (Carbone 1976). Custer (1984) argues that plant communities which approximate modern conditions became established during this episode. The deliberate and intensive foraging strategies of the Late Archaic period appear to have remained unchanged in the early portions of the Woodland period. Nonetheless, there is some evidence for an increase in sedentism as populations became more efficient in exploiting available resources.

Ceramics, which have more discretely bounded time ranges than projectile point forms, have become the primary temporal indices for the Woodland period. The earliest known ceramic in the area is a steatite-tempered variety referred to as Marcey Creek ware (ca. 1200-900 B.C.) after its type site on the Potomac River in Arlington County, Virginia (Manson 1948). A subsequent diagnostic ceramic ware is the sand- and grit-tempered Accokeek ware, in use for the full span of the Early Woodland from about 1,000 B.C. to 300 B.C. (Klein and Stevens 1995). Accokeek ware is named after the type site on the Potomac River in Prince Georges County, Maryland (Stephenson and Ferguson 1963). Projectile points typical of the subperiod include contracting stemmed Piscataway and Rossville types, along with the wide-stemmed Calvert type (Stephenson and Ferguson. 1963; Kinsey 1972).

Although subsistence practices during the Middle Woodland period appear to resemble that of the preceding period, i.e., hunting, fishing, and intensive foraging, there is evidence that semi-sedentary base camps were relocated from small creek floodplains to large river floodplains (Snyder and Gardner 1979). This shift may have set the stage for the development of horticulture. Sand- and grit-tempered ceramic wares such as Accokeek and Popes Creek characterize the early Middle Woodland period in the region. By the second half of the Middle Woodland period, the predominant ware was a shell-tempered, cord-marked or net-impressed pottery referred to as Mockley. Mockley groups in the Coastal Plain region of Virginia and southern Maryland are commonly associated with the manufacture of Mockley ceramics and wide stemmed or side-notched Selby Bay points, a high percentage of which are manufactured from non-local material, especially rhyolite from Catocin Mountain in the Ridge and Valley region of north-central Maryland (Potter 1993:66). Further south and inland in Virginia a variety of point forms are known for the period including Potts and in later times, pentagonal and corner-notched Jacks Reef forms (McLearen 1991). The bow and arrow is assumed to been adopted over the use of atlatls, or spearthrowers, around this time.

By the Late Woodland, the use of triangular arrow points become near-universal. These triangular points also generally decreased in size with time during the late prehistoric period. Also during the Late Woodland horticulture achieved a significant role in the total subsistence system (Reinhart and Hodges 1992) and the semi-sedentary village-based settlement practices, described by the first European colonists, took hold. Artifacts diagnostic of the Late Woodland period include triangular points and thin-walled, shell- or grit-tempered ceramics. Shell-tempered Townsend ware (Blaker 1950; Griffith 1980), usually fabric-impressed and often incised, is found on sites throughout the coastal region in contexts spanning the entire subperiod. As the Late Woodland period progressed, the size and complexity of the villages and settlement systems in the Middle Atlantic increased. The time was also characterized by a higher degree of

both socio-political complexity in the form of ranked societies and political entities such as chiefdoms. The middle and later portions of the Late Woodland period in northern Virginia and the western shore of Maryland were associated with the Potomac Creek complex (Blanton 1998; MacLab 2002; Stephenson and Ferguson 1963). Grit-tempered Potomac Creek pottery is generally considered to represent an intrusion into the Coastal Plain region of northern Virginia. Potter (1993) has suggested that the Potomac Creek complex is probably related to the preceding Montgomery Complex of the Piedmont Potomac. Further south, the latter part of the Late Woodland period is characterized by the shell-tempered Roanoke ware and the very similar quartz-tempered Gaston, while Townsend and Potomac Creek are found as minority types (Mouer and McLearen 1989). In the Eastern Shore area of Maryland and Virginia, Townsend wares predominate and continue through until the contact period (MacLab 2002).

Contact Period to Abandonment (A.D. 1608-1730)

The records of Captain John Smith's journey up the Potomac from Jamestown in 1608 represent the earliest historic documentation pertaining to Native Americans in Virginia and Maryland. Descriptions of subsequent occupation rely on a variety of maps and records which chronicle the history of land use in the state. The early history of contact with Native Americans was varied and at times, violent. In 1622, a party of Englishmen traveled up the Potomac with the purpose of trading for corn. This group, which was led by Ralph Hamor and included Henry Fleet and others, stopped at the Powhatan village of Patawomecke, in the general vicinity of modern-day Stafford, Virginia. Although the Patawomeckes did not have corn to trade, they informed the British that the Nacochtanks, located in the village of Nacochtank (near present day Anacostia), who were their enemies, had an abundance of corn. The British, along with 50 Patawomecke warriors, raided Nacochtank and plundered the village, killing as many as 18 villagers (Holmes et al. 1891; Archer 1910; Humphrey and Chambers 1977).

In 1623, a party of Englishmen again sailed up the Potomac in search of corn. Henry Spelman, who had earlier been left with the Powhatans by Smith, and spent nearly a year among them, was one of 20 men who landed at Nacochtank, while five others remained on board the ship (Fleet 1876). Most of the landing party were killed, including Spelman, whose head was seen to roll down the bank (Fleet 1876; Ferguson and Ferguson 1960). The five men on the ship were attacked by the Nacochtanks "whom they repulsed with the discharge of cannon" (Fleet 1876). Henry Fleet was the only Englishman ashore who survived. He was held captive by the Nacochtanks for five years until he was ransomed by the British in 1628, and his account provides an unusual source of information about the area at the time of European Contact (Fleet 1876).

By the 1660s, formal treaties were signed between the British colonists and groups such as the Conoy, while efforts to move them to assigned areas on the Eastern Shore of the Chesapeake in 1680 failed (Feest 1978a). Indian groups were still present in the area at the end of the seventeenth century, as evidenced by court records of 1697 (Maryland Assembly Proceedings, May 26-June 11, 1697), and reservations were present into the 20th century, e.g., Mattaponi and Pamunkey in Virginia (Feest 1978b:265). Although the court account describes hostilities between Indians and the new settlers, it is apparent that there was considerable trading between the two groups, and that the Indians still occupied seasonal quarters in some parts of the

area. Numerous groups in the region claim ancestry to Native American populations present at European contact, and are actively pursuing state and federal recognition.

Historic Contexts

The following historic context is taken from a variety of sources, including *How to Use Historic Contexts in Virginia: A Guide for Survey, Registration, Protection and Treatment Projects* (VDHR 1992a) and the framework established by the MHT as part of the Maryland Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan (MHT 1986). This section includes additional context development for exploration or occupation of the area prior to the first permanent European settlement.

Early Exploration (Pre-1607)

In addition to the documented voyages by early European explorers, there is more recent speculation that pre-Columbian voyagers, specifically Romans and Norsemen, may have reached the coast of North America near the area of the Chesapeake Bay. Evidence for this early exploration is lacking and most theories are refuted, however, evidence for early European presence in the region is better documented (Blanton and Margolin 1994). In particular, the early 16th century expedition of Spaniard Lucas Vasquez de Allyon has been speculated to have resulted in landfall and settlement along the Atlantic coast; however, opinions vary widely about where exactly landfall occurred. Some suggest it was in the area of Jamestown but it may have been as far south as South Carolina or Georgia. Giovanni de Verrazano, an Italian sailing for the King of France, left European waters in 1524 searching for a western route to China. He likely passed the entrance to the Chesapeake Bay on his northward voyage along the Atlantic coastline before returning to France. As early as 1525, Spaniards reported exploratory voyages into the Chesapeake Bay which they named “Bahia de Santa Maria” (Koski-Karell 1979 in Krivor 2004). Other accounts of possible early landings include a wreck discovered at low tide around Tangier Island in Chesapeake Bay. Oystermen tonged copper goods from the wreck which experts from Harvard University’s Peabody Museum deemed to be “Medieval” and of “Latin origin.” The wreck may actually have been that of a vessel lost in the area in 1611.

The first European settlement in the Chesapeake Bay region occurred at the behest of the Spaniard Pedro Menéndez de Aviles. In 1570, Menéndez de Aviles attempted to establish a Spanish base north of St. Augustine, Florida. He dispatched a group of Jesuits to establish a mission in the bay region. Jesuit scholars believe the party entered the James River, crossed the peninsula on foot, and established a settlement along the southern bank of the York River. The settlement was short-lived as natives raided and killed all but one member of the party. An expedition later returned to avenge the deaths and killed eight of the suspected culprits (Blanton and Margolin 1994; Krivor 2004). The Spanish did not attempt further colonization of areas north of the Carolinas.

During the late 16th century the British began to establish colonies in the Americas with the goal of finding passage to the Far East and blocking Spanish expansion in the area. The first colony was established on Roanoke Island on the outer banks of North Carolina in 1585. The first attempt lasted only a year, after which all the colonists returned to England. The British

attempted a second time to colonize North America in 1587. The colony was intended to be in the Chesapeake Bay region, but the group instead landed in Roanoke. John White, the leader of the colony returned to England to gather supplies but was prevented from returning to the colony until 1590 because of England's war with Spain. When he finally did return he found the entire settlement deserted. It would be another decade and a half before the British would again attempt colonization.

Settlement to Society (1607-1750)

On April 10, 1606, King James I granted the first charter of the Virginia Company. Commanded by Christopher Newport, a fleet of three vessels entered Chesapeake Bay and on May 13, 1607, Jamestown was physically established on a peninsula on the James River approximately sixty miles from the mouth of the bay. For these early colonists, disease was the greatest danger (Morgan 1975:159). Less than half of the 104 settlers who landed at Jamestown in May 1607 were alive in January 1608. A stream of settlers trickled in and the colony survived and prospered although it remained dependent on English supplies for years. This settlement marked the beginning of England's permanent settlement of the Chesapeake Bay region and its control of colonial trade.

The search for a cash crop to sustain the colony and make it economically viable for the Virginia Company ended with tobacco. Settlers continued to stream in, and despite disease, the colonists expanded throughout the Chesapeake Bay area. After 1610, such towns as Hampton, Henrico, and Bermuda City were established along the James River (Reps 1965: 91) and other settlements spread south near the mouth of the bay and along other tributaries. The northern portion of the bay wasn't settled until two and half decades later. The first European American settlement in Maryland was established in 1631. A Virginian, William Claiborne, established a small settlement and a palisaded trading post at Kent Island in Chesapeake Bay, where he traded furs with the local tribes. The following year, a royal charter granted the Chesapeake region of Maryland to Cecilius Calvert, the Second Lord Baltimore. The Calverts took possession of the Maryland patent in 1634, establishing a colony at Blackiston's Island on the lower end of the bay and founding St. Mary's City (DiLisio 1983:142; Land 1981:8-11).

Due to the demand for tobacco, the new colonists settled small isolated plantations where large tracts could be planted, rather than establishing consolidated towns. Removed from centralized services, many of the large plantations became self-sufficient entities which prospered even after the price of tobacco dropped (Earle 1975; Reps 1965; Crowell 1986). The isolated and dispersed location of early manors and farms along the Chesapeake watershed margin created a water-based transportation network; early colonists adapted European boat and ship building techniques to create vessels better suited to local conditions. This settlement pattern initially retarded the growth of commercially based towns because riparian settlement already supplied convenient access to the outside world (DiLisio 1983:142; Main 1982:28-30).

Because of the success and profitability of tobacco, planters focused their efforts on increasing production rather than developing other agricultural economies and industries. Colonists were dependent on British shipping to and from the Chesapeake Bay for the tobacco trade. Shipbuilding within the colony began around 1622 to construct small vessels for river and

bay travel. The region had a ready supply of timber for boat and ship construction, but the more profitable tobacco trade diverted attention from the industry.

Although the cultivation of tobacco was a complex process, using it to achieve economic success relied on a simple formula: a large tract of land planted in tobacco and cultivated with a large labor force. This resulted in more money for the planter than a small amount of land cultivated by a small labor force. The byproduct of this formula was the plantation system, which evolved in Tidewater Virginia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Large plantations, each with its own dock for ocean-going vessels, sprawled along the shores of the many navigable rivers and streams that fed into the Chesapeake Bay. A few towns were necessary to serve courthouse complexes and tobacco warehouses, but by and large, each plantation was nearly autonomous.

Both the plantation system and the institution of slavery that sustained it evolved from rudimentary beginnings in the early seventeenth century. The first blacks arrived in Virginia in 1619, most likely as indentured servants, not as slaves. The concept of slavery took hold gradually in British America during the course of the century. The tobacco agriculture was labor-intensive, which was initially satisfied by immigrants seeking refuge from declining economic conditions in England. As the century wore on, however, conditions in the mother country improved somewhat and this factor, coupled with the availability of cheap land in Virginia, meant that newly arrived Englishmen were less available or inclined to work for another. As the flow of indentured servants slowed, the number of blacks stolen or purchased from their captors in Africa increased. Cultural differences and racism combined to encourage the replacement of temporary servitude with permanent slavery. By the end of the century, the institution was well established.

British colonies to the north became more self-sufficient and developed local industries, including shipbuilding, as their volume of trade with England increased. Vessels constructed in the northern colonies made their way to Virginia and were used throughout the Chesapeake Bay. The British enacted legislation to prevent trade directly between the colonies and foreign nations, primarily the Dutch, and to encourage trade and shipbuilding industries within its own colonies. However, trade with the Dutch continued, prompting England to capture the Dutch colony capital, Manhattan, in 1664, and removing their main rival. To further its maritime strength, England encouraged shipbuilding in the colonies. Illicit trade between the Chesapeake Bay region and the West Indies increased in the early 18th century. Although the tobacco trade was still of primary importance, the West Indies provided a market for other trade goods from the region such as grain, lumber, and pork. This trade also promoted local shipbuilding and support industries such as sailcloth, hemp, and naval stores. The geography of the Chesapeake region contributed to the success of illicit trade; there was ample shoreline and tributaries that could not be monitored by customs officials where transactions could occur.

Watercraft specialized for use in the bay region included the sloop, the shallop, and other small craft; these were important in the local trade economy, both legal and illegal. Ferry services began as early as 1640s and were important for transporting goods and people due to the difficulty of overland travel. Small sailing craft were used to cross open bodies of water while small flats and scows that could be poled, rowed, or pulled by a rope were used to cross small

creeks and river narrows. Sloops were replaced by schooners in the second half of the 17th century and eventually evolved into the Chesapeake clipper-schooner and eventually the Baltimore Clipper. Because of their speed, these vessels became a favorite of American privateers and were used for trade in the West Indies; they were later used to transport slaves (Blanton and Margolin 1994; Krivor 2004).

Another geographic feature contributing to the success of the Chesapeake Bay region was the ease of navigation. Compared to the rocky coasts of New England and the reefs in the Caribbean and Florida, the bay approaches were fairly uniform; however, shipwrecks were not uncommon in the region and resulted from various causes. Some wrecks were accidental and occurred because of storms or navigational miscalculations. Other wrecks were the result of warfare or raiding. Numerous encounters variously between British, Dutch, French, and Spanish squadrons and privateers resulted in looting and ship burning. In peacetime, pirates prowled the region, particularly between 1660 and the early 1720s (Blanton and Margolin 1994).

Colony to Nation (1750-1789)

By the third quarter of the eighteenth century, the residents of the colonies felt that they were not enjoying the rights and privileges guaranteed them under the original charter. The colonies felt excessively taxed and had no political representation in England. Though colonial governments had been established, these were subject to the throne. The Continental Congress issued the Declaration of Independence in 1776, and the Revolutionary War had begun. Without a doubt, the Revolution was the event that created more significant underwater sites than any other in Virginia history. The incidents that caused the losses of ships and lives were beyond local or regional importance, they were of lasting national significance.

Virginia Governor Lord Dunmore's retreat from Hampton Roads in 1775 caused some of the earliest losses for this period when he ordered the scuttling or burning of several vessels on the Norfolk flats to avoid enemy capture. Several additional vessels were scuttled in Maryland waters before the governor's group of loyalists left the Chesapeake Bay altogether. Between 1779 and 1781, the Americans experienced several significant losses including the Gosport Shipyard, the destruction of the Hampton waterfront, occupation of Portsmouth, and the sacrifice of fleets in Virginia rivers to prevent capture by the enemy.

With help from other European countries, the war came to a dramatic conclusion at Yorktown, Virginia, the last major battle of the Revolution where British forces surrendered. In spring of 1781, British General Charles Cornwallis, disobeying orders from his superior, General Clinton, marched his armies from coastal North Carolina into Virginia. French General Lafayette, who was shadowing the British, sent word to General Washington in West Point, New York, detailing the British location and disposition near Yorktown. At the same time, a French fleet, under Admiral de Grasse, seized control of the Chesapeake Bay, blocking any possible British withdrawal. Deceiving British troops in New York by leaving some of his forces in forts near the city, General Washington led most of his army to Virginia where the continentals were supplemented with French troops disembarked from Admiral de Grasse's fleet. On September 28, 1781, the Franco-American forces besieged General Cornwallis' encampment at Yorktown. The British held for twenty days, but finally capitulated on October 19. Although this was not

the last battle of the Revolution, it was the last major confrontation. Cornwallis' surrender hastened the resignation of British Prime Minister Lord North. By November of 1782, the Treaty of Paris, which officially recognized the United States as a sovereign nation, had been drafted; it was officially signed on September 3, 1783. Much of the stranded British fleet, including merchant vessels and transports, had been intentionally scuttled in the river.

Early National Period (1789-1830)

The end of the eighteenth century saw Virginia changing from an almost exclusively agrarian society with most counties having only the smallest villages if any at all, to a state gradually gaining urban centers. With the War of 1812, American ports were blockaded by the British navy. The mouth of Chesapeake was a strategic location effectively controlled by the British. American forces on Craney Island and aboard the U.S.S. *Constellation* in the Elizabeth River prevented the British from seizing or destroying the Navy Yard at Gosport, the U.S. Navy's oldest shipyard. American gunners were able to sink two to five British gunboats in the 1813 battle.

Once direct British restraints on trade were removed (a process that was not completed until after the War of 1812), American trade increased and river ports located along the fall line (e.g., Alexandria, Fredericksburg, and Petersburg) as well as bay ports like Baltimore, became thriving commercial centers with impressive concentrations of domestic and commercial structures. Steamboats began entering the bay in 1815. Although less seaworthy than sailing vessels, steam-powered vessels were efficient and reliable means of transportation in many areas where the road system was still poorly developed.

Industry and Urbanism (1830-1950)

During this period, the state's internal improvement system, which first received public funding in 1816, hit full stride. The Virginia Board of Public Works cooperated with private joint stock companies to construct a transportation network of canals, turnpikes, railroads, and navigable rivers to provide farmers and merchants access to markets. During this period, for the first time, roads and railroads began to challenge the dominance of waterways as the principal means of transportation.

Steamboats in the Chesapeake Bay region took on a distinctive design in this period that was carried into the 20th century. Shipbuilding had never become a large industry in the region even with large timber stands and expansive waterfronts. The bay's shipbuilding center was in Baltimore, but Norfolk was Virginia's shipbuilding center by the mid-19th century. Iron and later steel hull construction began replacing traditional wooden hulls but the Civil War temporarily halted technological developments in this area.

Slavery created a contentious moral conflict in the region during the middle of the 19th century. The nation had been founded on the principle of equality yet the economy was based on forced slave labor. Both sides became more adamant and vocal. The advent of the Civil War threatened shipping and commerce in the Virginia Capes region. The Confederacy seized the naval yard at Norfolk in 1861 but abandoned and burned it a year later under Union pressure.

The Union held Fort Monroe and enforced a blockade of the Hampton Roads region, attempting to keep Confederate vessels out of the bay. Blockade runners ran the Union gauntlet with varying success, and numerous shipwrecks are likely present from this time period throughout the bay.

With the defeat of the South and its associated economic deprivation, major changes occurred in the region, the effects of which greatly influenced it well into the 20th century. During this period, the foundations were laid for modern America as an industrialized, urban nation. Specifically, Baltimore's shipbuilding industry declined as Norfolk became the commercial center for the region. Local trade was conducted by small watercraft like canoes and bug-eyes fitted with sloop or schooner rigs, and by steamers. Shipping in the region changed with the introduction of the propeller, ultimately replacing paddle-wheel vessels. Shipbuilding in Norfolk remained small and was hampered by lack of a facility for the use of iron. By the end of the 19th century, however, Norfolk and Portsmouth became a major naval center aiding in the growth of the area. Today the mouth the Chesapeake Bay is home to one of the world's largest Navy facilities and to the U.S. Atlantic fleet.

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