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March 24, 2017

Mr. Roger Kirchen, Director
Review and Compliance Division
Virginia Department of Historic Resources
2801 Kensington Ave.
Richmond, VA 23221

**Subject: Section 106 Review –Architectural Survey Report Addendum 5
Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC, Atlantic Coast Pipeline Project
DHR File No. 2014-0710**

Dear Mr. Kirchen:

Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) is requesting review and comment on the enclosed addendum architectural survey report on investigations conducted for the proposed Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP). The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead Federal agency for this Project. Atlantic's consultant, ERM, conducted the survey and prepared the enclosed report pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.

Atlantic would appreciate your comments on the attached addendum architectural survey report, and we look forward to continuing to work with you on this Project. If you have any questions regarding the enclosed report, please contact Richard B. Gangle at (804) 273-2814 or Richard.B.Gangle@dom.com, or by letter at:

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Respectfully submitted,

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "Robert M. Bisha".

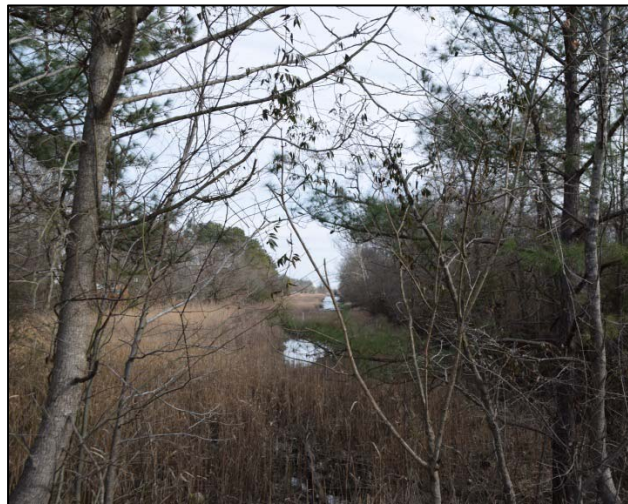
Robert M. Bisha
Technical Advisor, Atlantic Coast Pipeline

cc: Richard Gangle (Dominion)
Enclosure: **Architectural Survey Report Addendum**



**PHASE I HISTORIC ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY OF THE
ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE PROJECT**

Virginia Addendum 5 Report



Prepared by



March 2017

**PHASE I HISTORIC ARCHITECTURAL SURVEY OF THE
ATLANTIC COAST PIPELINE PROJECT**

Virginia Addendum 5 Report

DHR File No. 2014-0710

Draft

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March 2017

ABSTRACT

This report presents the results that were achieved during Phase I historic architectural surveys conducted in association with the Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP) project (Project). Dominion Transmission, Inc. (DTI) will build and operate approximately 600 miles of natural gas transmission pipeline and associated laterals on behalf of Atlantic, which is a joint company consisting of subsidiaries of Dominion Resources, Duke Energy, Piedmont Natural Gas, and Southern Company Gas. The pipeline system extends from West Virginia to southern North Carolina, and the Project also will include access roads, meter stations, compressor stations, and other above-ground facilities. This document presents findings for the segment of the pipeline corridor in Virginia, which is 308.1 miles long, and passes through Highland, Bath, Augusta, Nelson, Buckingham, Cumberland, Prince Edward, Nottoway, Dinwiddie, Brunswick, Greensville, and Southampton counties, as well as the cities of Suffolk and Chesapeake. It includes the 235.8 mile-long trunk line (AP-1), and three laterals (AP-3, AP-4, and AP-5) that total 72.3 miles. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) includes the 300-foot-wide survey corridor that will encompass the construction zone and the permanent pipeline right-of-way for the proposed pipeline, the footprints for access roads and other facilities associated with the Project, and areas of potential indirect (visual) effects that lie within line of sight of proposed aboveground facilities and landscape changes due to clearing of vegetation or other impacts associated with construction. The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead federal agency, and work was conducted pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended.

Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted initial portions of the historic architectural surveys for this Project; ERM subsequently conducted further architectural surveys. The current document contains survey results associated with segments of the Project where access previously had been denied, and in conjunction with previously unsurveyed proposed access roads and facilities. ERM also revisited resources for which further study was recommended in previous surveys for the Project. ERM performed public road survey for the remaining previously denied areas with a view to the Project corridor in Virginia, recording historic structures that were visible from public vantage points.

A total of 37 resources were surveyed during the current field effort. The current document contains descriptions of six previously unrecorded resources that were formerly inaccessible or are associated with newly identified Project access roads and facilities. In addition to these resources, ERM resurveyed 12 previously recorded resources in the APE that had not been surveyed as part of this Project and 19 resources surveyed as part of this Project for which Virginia Department of Historic Resources (VDHR) required additional information. Of these 37 resources, ERM recommends that four are eligible for the NRHP (including one resource already listed on the NRHP), 20 are ineligible, and four are no longer extant. Nine resources were inaccessible and could not be accurately documented. In accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that these resources be treated for Project purposes as if they are eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted.

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INTRODUCTION

This report presents the results that were achieved during Phase I historic architectural surveys conducted in association with the Atlantic Coast Pipeline, LLC (Atlantic) Atlantic Coast Pipeline (ACP) project (Project). Dominion Transmission, Inc. (DTI) will build and operate approximately 600 miles of natural gas transmission pipeline and associated laterals on behalf of Atlantic, which is a joint company consisting of subsidiaries of Dominion Resources, Duke Energy, Piedmont Natural Gas, and Southern Company Gas. The pipeline system extends from West Virginia to southern North Carolina, and the Project also will include access roads, meter stations, compressor stations, and other above-ground facilities (Figure 1). This document presents findings for the segment of the pipeline corridor in Virginia, which is 308.1 miles long, and passes through Highland, Bath, Augusta, Nelson, Buckingham, Cumberland, Prince Edward, Nottoway, Dinwiddie, Brunswick, Greensville, and Southampton counties, as well as the cities of Suffolk and Chesapeake. It includes the 235.8 mile-long trunk line (AP-1), and three laterals (AP-3, AP-4, and AP-5) that total 72.3 miles. The Area of Potential Effects (APE) includes the 300-foot-wide survey corridor that will encompass the construction zone and the permanent pipeline right-of-way for the proposed pipeline, the footprints for access roads and other facilities associated with the Project, and areas of potential indirect (visual) effects that lie within line of sight of proposed aboveground facilities and landscape changes due to clearing of vegetation or other impacts associated with construction. The Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) is the lead federal agency, and work was conducted pursuant to the requirements of Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended (16 USC 470). Section 106 requires federal agencies to take into account the effects of their undertakings (including the issuance of Certificates) on properties listed in or eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). DTI, as a non-federal party, is assisting FERC in meeting its obligations under Section 106 by preparing the necessary information, analyses, and recommendations as authorized by 36 C.F.R. § 800.2(a)(3). Environmental Resources Management (ERM) is conducting Phase I cultural resource investigations to gather information on historic properties that could be affected by the Project in support of the Section 106 consultation process.

Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail) conducted initial portions of the historic architectural surveys for this Project (Lesiuk et al. 2016, Staton 2016; Anderson and Staton 2015). ERM conducted further architectural surveys for this Project (Voisin George et al. 2016, Tucker-Laird et al. 2017). The current document contains survey results associated with segments of the Project where access previously had been denied, and in conjunction with previously unsurveyed proposed access roads and facilities. ERM also revisited resources for which further study was recommended in previous surveys for the Project. ERM performed public road survey for the remaining previously denied areas with a viewshed to the Project corridor in Virginia, recording historic structures that were visible from public vantage points.

ERM will prepare a supplemental report that summarizes findings from previous survey work and provides assessment of effects discussions for all of those resources in the APE for the final Project alignment that are eligible for the NRHP.

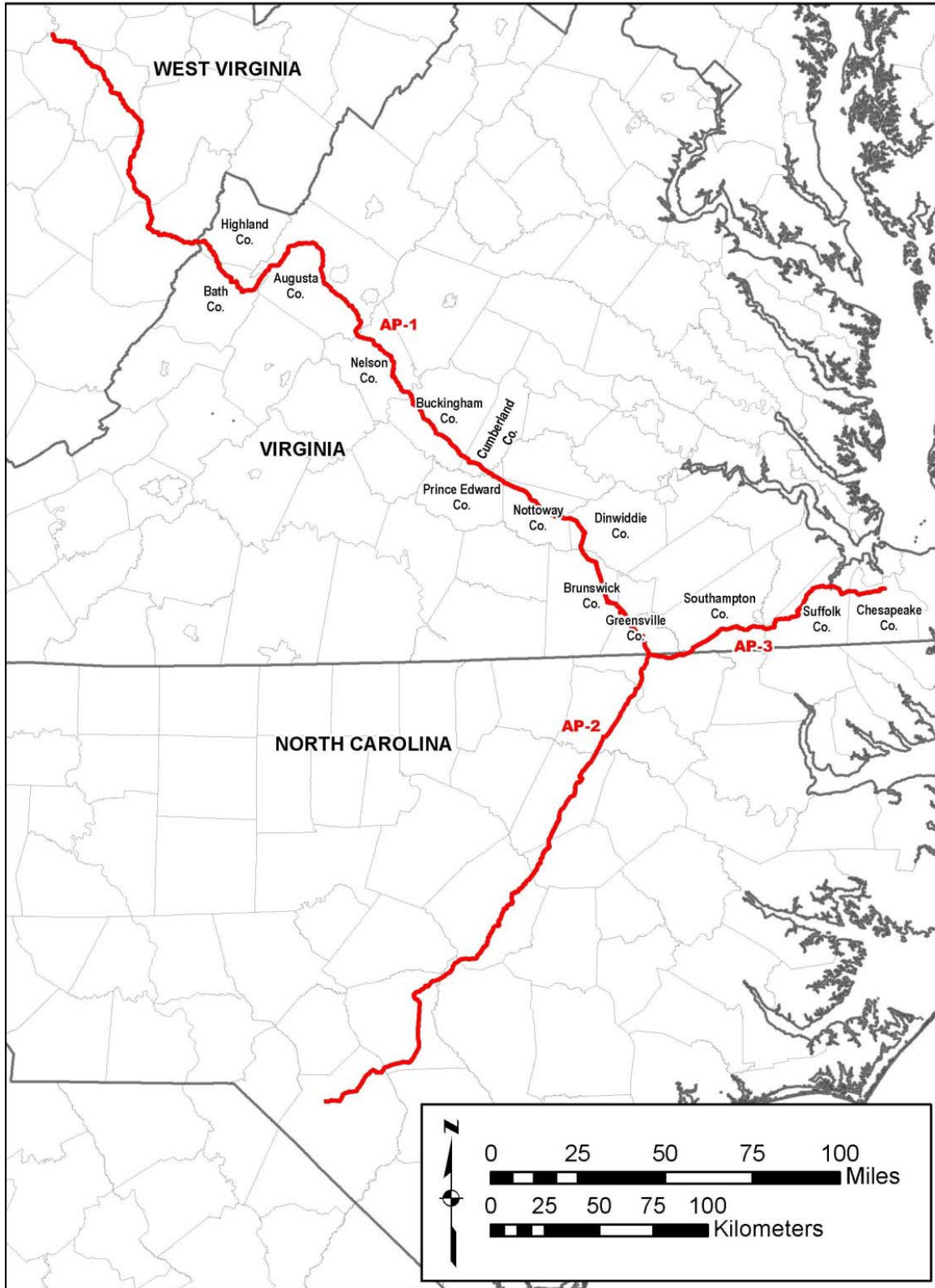


Figure 1. General Overview of the Project Corridor.

MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

A total of 37 resources were surveyed during the current field effort. The current document contains descriptions of 6 previously unrecorded resources that were formerly inaccessible and at newly identified access roads and facilities associated with the Project. In addition to these resources, ERM resurveyed 12 previously recorded resources in the APE that had not been surveyed as part of this Project and 19 resources surveyed as part of this Project for which Virginia Department of Historic Resources (VDHR) required additional information. Of these 37 resources, ERM recommends that four are eligible for the NRHP (including one resource already listed on the NRHP), 20 are ineligible, and four are no longer extant. Nine resources were inaccessible and could not be accurately documented. In accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that these resources be treated for Project purposes as if they are eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted.

METHODS

BACKGROUND RESEARCH

Before field investigations for historic resources were initiated, a file search was conducted for previously-identified historic resources, along with information on properties listed in or nominated for the NRHP, within a half-mile buffer of the proposed Project corridor. In response to changes in the proposed route, and to identify any recently identified resources since the start of the Project, another file search was conducted prior to the current field effort. ERM collected information on resources maintained by the VDHR in Virginia Cultural Resource Information System (V-CRIS). The purpose of the search was to identify resources that might be located within the APE, and to anticipate the types of resources likely to be encountered in the region. The results of the updated file search are presented in the previous Addendum Report (Voisin George et al. 2016) for the entire length of the current Project in Virginia.

FIELD SURVEY METHODS

An APE is defined as “the geographic area or areas within which an undertaking may directly or indirectly cause changes in the character or use of historic properties, if any such properties exist” (36 CFR Part 800.16[d]). The APE for the current Project includes possible areas of direct construction effects within a 300-foot corridor encompassing the centerline of the proposed pipeline, as well as within the footprint of the associated pipeline facilities, and it also includes areas of potential visual effects on identified historic structures from changes to the setting from construction of new facilities, clearing of vegetation, and/or other modifications to the landscape. Thus, the APE extends into areas surrounding the Project containing historic resources within line-of-sight of changes that will derive from the proposed undertaking. The APE is depicted on USGS topographic quadrangle maps in Appendix A.

The current field effort covered the APE for the relevant segments of the proposed pipeline corridor, access roads, and facilities not previously surveyed. Due to public sentiment and the sensitive nature of the Project, ERM architectural historians surveyed those properties for which the owners had been contacted by right-of-way agents. Properties in the APE for which permission was not received were documented only from the nearest public right-of-way.

Within the parameters limiting survey access as discussed above, ERM architectural historians surveyed all properties determined to be 50 years or older along the relevant Project segments. Each resource was photographed and marked on the applicable U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) quadrangle map. Digital photographs were taken to record the structures’ overall appearance and details. Sketch maps were drawn depicting the relationship of dwellings to outbuildings and associated landscape features. Additional information on the structures’ appearance and integrity were recorded to assist in making recommendations of NRHP eligibility. For properties without granted access, observations were limited to what could be obtained from the nearest road. Sufficient information was gathered on all resources to determine eligibility for listing on the NRHP, and what effect the proposed undertaking might have on any resource determined to be eligible.

Resources were generally defined to encompass the entire extent of the current parcel boundary. For those resources considered ineligible for the NRHP, Project effects do not need to be assessed, and so for simplicity, those resources are indicated in the Appendix A maps as the locations of the actual structures. Some of those structures lie outside the defined visual

APE, but the parcels on which they are located extend into the APE. The Appendix A maps do, however, depict the entire parcel boundary that is the proposed NRHP boundary for resources recommended eligible for the NRHP. Assessment of Project effects for NRHP-eligible resources addresses each element of the resource that contributes its eligibility, including elements of the landscape within the entire parcel boundary when they contribute to qualities that constitute the resource's significance.

Resources identified in the current field effort were reported to the VDHR. V-CRIS numbers were obtained, and shape files and database information provided.

NRHP EVALUATION

Sufficient information was collected to make recommendations for each identified historic resource regarding eligibility for listing on the NRHP. According to 36 CFR 60.4 (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002), cultural resources eligible for listing on the NRHP are defined as buildings, structures, objects, sites, and districts that have "integrity" and that meet one or more of the criteria outlined below. Criterion D is typically relevant to archaeological sites.

Criterion A (Event). Association with one or more events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of national, state, or local history.

Criterion B (Person). Association with the lives of persons significant in the past.

Criterion C (Design/Construction). Embodiment of distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; or representation of the work of a master; or possession of high artistic values; or representation of a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction.

Criterion D (Information Potential). Properties that yield, or are likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history. Criterion D is most often (but not exclusively) associated with archaeological resources. To be considered eligible under Criterion D, sites must be associated with specific or general patterns in the development of the region. Therefore, sites become significant when they are seen within the larger framework of local or regional development.

"Integrity" is perhaps the paramount qualification of NRHP eligibility, and can be related to any or all of the following (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002):

Location: the place where the historic property (or properties) was/were constructed or where the historic event(s) occurred;

Design: the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property (or properties);

Setting: the physical environment of the historic property (or properties);

Materials: the physical elements that were combined to create the property (or properties) during the associated period of significance;

Workmanship: the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory;

Feeling: the property's (or properties') expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of the period of significance; and

Association: the direct link between the important historic event(s) or person(s) and the historic property (or properties).

Ordinarily cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the NRHP (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002). However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

- Consideration A: A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or
- Consideration B: A building or structure removed from its original location, but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or
- Consideration C: A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building directly associated with his or her productive life; or
- Consideration D: A cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or
- Consideration E: A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or
- Consideration F: A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance; or
- Consideration G: A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Each identified resource was evaluated in relation to these criteria and considerations.

HISTORIC CONTEXT

The Project crosses an expansive swath of Virginia's geography, including mountains, the Piedmont, and the Tidewater. The topography of each region influenced historic and contemporary land uses observed along the respective portions of the route, which mostly lie within rural, agricultural areas. The major historical developments relevant across the Project area are summarized below.

SETTLEMENT TO SOCIETY (1607–1750)

By the beginning of the seventeenth century A.D., some Native American kinship groups had developed chiefdoms in restricted areas, where economic, socio-political, and religious offices were coordinated through a central authority based on formal rules of inheritance. Most noted is the Powhatan chiefdom that had a population of probably over 13,000 persons and encompassed most of the Coastal Plain.

Following the establishment at Jamestown of the first permanent English settlement in America in 1607, the character of the Virginia landscape began to change dramatically as the result of European habitation. Closely intertwined with growth and expansion of the English in Virginia were interactions with indigenous Native Americans, contacts that were to eventually destroy traditional life ways that had slowly evolved over some ten thousand years of Native American settlement.

During the contact period a small band of European adventurers laid the foundations of a new civilization in Virginia's Tidewater. Both the plantation system and the institution of slavery that sustained it evolved from rudimentary beginnings in the early seventeenth century. The first blacks who came to Virginia by 1619 most likely were not slaves but indentured servants. The concept of slavery took hold gradually in English America during the course of the century. Economic forces, 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. Large plantations, with docks for ocean-going vessels, dotted the shores of the many navigable rivers and creeks that fed into the Chesapeake Bay. A few towns emerged to serve courthouse complexes and tobacco warehouses, but by and large each plantation was a nearly autonomous entity.

Simultaneously with the evolution of the plantation system during the seventeenth century, the colonists developed other institutions that supported the society they had created. These included the ecclesiastical structure of the established church and a system of self-government that included the House of Burgesses and local courts that exercised executive as well as judicial powers. [VDHR 2011:124–125]

The policies of the Virginia Company's colonists at Jamestown on settlement and relations with Native Americans influenced Euroamerican expansion into Virginia's southern coastal plain through the beginning of the eighteenth century. Although the colony's initial intent for their interactions with the Native Americans was to engage in trade and Christian proselytization, numerous conflicts occurred during the decades following the establishment of the British colony in 1607. The three ships first made landfall at Cape Henry, on the southern side of the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, where Native Americans attacked the colonists (Heinemann et al. 2007:19).

The location selected for the initial settlement on the Jamestown peninsula was part of the territory controlled by a confederation of Algonquin Indians, which included 200 villages and 32 tribes and encompassed much of Virginia's coastal plain. British colonists referred to the chieftain of this polity as King Powhatan, after the name of the village in which he lived (Hofstra 2012). The Powhatans provided food to the colonists during their first winters, trading for iron hatchets, copper, and beads. Captain John Smith also negotiated for corn with the non-affiliated Chickahominy Indians, who traded with the Monacan tribe of the Piedmont region (Heinemann et al. 2007:22; Utley and Washburn 2002:13–15). However, the colonists' continued inability to grow enough corn for winter stores contributed to aggressive actions against the Native Americans, known as the First Anglo–Powhatan War from 1610–1614 (Heinemann et al. 2007:26).

After colonist John Rolfe's experimentation with a Caribbean variety of tobacco, its cultivation in Virginia began in 1614 (Heinemann et al. 2007:28). The cultivation of tobacco quickly depleted nutrients in the soil, prompting the settlers to search for new areas of arable land, sometimes taking over fields that Indians had previously cleared (Utley and Washburn 2002:15).

The settlement of groups outside the bounds of Jamestown had begun in 1613 with the creation of plantations called “Hundreds” (an English term for the location of ten tithings, or groups of families, in a settlement), whose residents paid an annual quitrent or tax to the Virginia Company (Grymes 2014a, 2014b). In 1618, Virginia land distribution was reorganized to be similar to the conveyance of private title, as in the British colony at Bermuda. Virginia governor John West encouraged the expansion of Euroamerican claims, allowing investors to amass private estates and setting a pattern that would be followed by Virginia's gentry class (Heinemann et al. 2007:35). The “Greate Charter” of 1618 also instituted the headright system, granting 50 acres of land for each settler transported to the colony (Heinemann et al. 2007:28; Hofstra 2004:111–112). In the next three years, over 3,700 new English colonists arrived in Virginia (Heinemann et al. 2007:29).

As Euroamericans moved inland from the coast, they often found Native American villages in locations with fertile soil and access to water transportation (Shamlin 1992). New settlements were established inland on the banks of the James River, in the core of the Powhatan territory (Heinemann et al. 2007:31; Rice 2014). During the early period of expansion, King Powhatan sought to avoid violence with colonists. However, following his death in 1618, a “perpetual warre without peace or truce” began with the large-scale attack on the Jamestown colony and the upriver settlements in 1622. The conflict, known as the Second Anglo-Powhatan War, continued through 1632 (Heinemann et al. 2007:30–31; Utley and Washburn 2002:16–27). Through the war, English soldiers and settlers destroyed Native American fishing weirs, ruined their cornfields, burned their villages, and indiscriminately killed the Native Americans they encountered (Heinemann et al. 2007:32).

The treaty ending the Second Anglo-Powhatan War recognized the authority of each side over its territory (Utley and Washburn 2002:18). Virginia governor John Harvey strengthened the Jamestown fortifications and local defenses, and ordered the construction of a palisade across the peninsula both for the colonists' safety and to fence in their cattle and swine (Heinemann et al. 2007:32; Tarter 2014). The livestock that Euroamericans deemed their property were perceived by Native Americans as natural resources available to anyone, and the natives' hunting practice of setting fire to the land to drive game was protested as destructive to the colonists' timber and farmland. The fragile peace obtained in 1632 was threatened by English colonists who took up land on the Rappahannock and Potomac rivers in the early 1640s in

violation of the treaty. In retaliation, Powhatan's brother, Opechancanough, assembled another coalition of tribes and launched an assault on the colonists in 1644, known as the Third Anglo-Powhatan War. The war ended in 1646 with Opechancanough's capture. He was killed while in English custody at Jamestown. The Third Anglo-Powhatan War marked the end of Native American aggression towards the Virginia colonists (Rountree 1990, 2015).

From the time before the second Anglo-Powhatan War, Euroamerican settlements began to spread into the Coastal Plain on the south side of the James River. By 1620, English settlement began on the banks of the Elizabeth River near the present-day city of Chesapeake, with a land grant being made to shipbuilder John Wood. The river had been surveyed by Captain John Smith while exploring the Hampton Roads area in 1608, and he noted an abundance of fish and oysters. The local Native American tribe called it Chisapeake (City of Chesapeake, Virginia 2015a; Elizabeth River Project 2014). When the English colony in Virginia was divided into administrative shires in 1634, Chesapeake was part of Elizabeth City Shire, which contained both sides of the Hampton Roads harbor. The southern portion became New Norfolk County in 1636, and Lower Norfolk County in 1637 (Salmon 2012; The Newberry Library 2015). New immigrants to the Virginia colony in the 1630s who settled in this area included a considerable percentage of religious dissenters (Heinemann et al. 2007:34).

At the south side of Chesapeake is the Great Dismal Swamp. It was surveyed in 1728 under William Byrd II's supervision, as part of the boundary between Virginia and North Carolina. Byrd named the wetland Great Dismal, with "dismal" then being a term for a swamp. He proposed to drain the swampland, and to construct a navigable canal between the Elizabeth River and North Carolina's Albemarle Sound, but its construction did not begin until the end of the eighteenth century (Schaeffer 2015). Following insurrections of enslaved workers in Jamaica in the 1720s and 1730s, there were rumors of escaped slaves establishing colonies of maroons in the swamp (Heinemann et al. 2007:87).

Another of the original eight shires was Warrasquyoake, named for the Native American tribe who lived on the shore as part of the Powhatan confederacy. Re-named as Isle of Wight County in 1637, it included the current Southampton, Greensville, and Brunswick counties (Grymes 2014c). In 1633, a tobacco inspection site was located in Warrasquyoake (Salmon and Salmon 2013). In 1749, the area west of the Blackwater River became Southampton County. The county's first courthouse was built in 1752 on the east bank of the Nottoway River where the present courthouse now stands. The courthouse was an addition to the clerk's office, prison, and pillory built a year earlier in 1751 (Southampton County, Virginia 2011).

Native American tribes in this area included the Nottoways and Meherrins, who were Iroquoian tribes. They were not part of the Powhatan confederacy, and lived in autonomous villages. In 1650, trader Abraham Wood and Edward Bland, an explorer and investor in the Virginia Company of London, led an expedition to establish new trading opportunities in the southwestern area of the colony, and visited a Meherrin village near present-day Emporia, in Greensville County (Briceland 2013). The area along the Meherrin River was explored by Euroamericans again in 1670, and by 1710, a settlement was established on the river at Hick's Ford, which is now part of the City of Emporia (City of Emporia, Virginia 2015:3).

Violence affecting the Indians of southern Virginia flared up again during Bacon's Rebellion in 1675–1676, fueled by both the demand of new Euroamerican settlers for Native American land and the fear of Native American attacks. The initial fighting with the Susquehannock occurred in northern Virginia. However, the Occaneechi tribe of southern Piedmont Virginia allied with

colonists and were themselves attacked by the Virginia militia at Occaneechee to the west in Mecklenburg County. The conflict ended with the Treaty of Middle Plantation that protected and patented tribal lands, and also required the Native Americans to pay tribute to the crown. In 1683, the Meherrins signed a second version of this peace treaty, which defined the boundaries of Meherrin territory and created a reservation along the Nottaway River in Southampton County. Reservations of tributary tribes were intended to serve as a buffer zone between the Euroamericans and “hostile” Native Americans in surrounding areas (Virginia Department of Education 2015; Heinemann et al. 2007:56–58; Grymes 2014d). In 1696, the Meherrin tribe moved down the Meherrin River and relocated in Hertford County, North Carolina (Meherrin Nation 2011). At this time, Cherokees also lived on the banks of the Nottaway River near the North Carolina border (Virginia Department of Education 2015).

The Blackwater River, which served as a route from the colony’s settlements on the James River into the Southside region of Virginia, is the boundary between Southampton, Isle of Wight and Suffolk counties. It served as part of the boundary line between Native American and Euroamerican territories defined in the 1646 treaty ending the third Anglo-Powhatan war. However, this boundary was revoked in 1706 (Bell n.d.; Hening 1814, cited in Encyclopedia Virginia 2013).

In 1710, Alexander Spotswood was appointed Lieutenant Governor of Virginia, serving in the place of the governor in England, the Earl of Orkney. He viewed the colonists’ conflicts with the Native Americans as more than a military issue, and took steps to strengthen diplomatic and economic relations with a number of tribes (Heinemann et al. 2007:79). In 1714, Spotswood created the Virginia Indian Company and established Fort Christanna, located near the Meherrin River two miles south of the current city of Lawrenceville in Brunswick County, then about 15 miles beyond the colony’s westernmost settlements (Omohundro Institute of Early American History and Culture [Omohundro] 1901:214–215). Spotswood noted of the early settlers’ interactions, “the mischiefs We have of late years Suffered from the Indians are chiefly owing to the Clandestine Trade carreyed on by some ill men,” meaning trading unfairly with Native Americans or enslaving or killing them (Hofstra 2004:59). In addition to serving as a defensive buffer for Euroamerican settlements and as a fur trading post for all Indians located south of the James River, Fort Christanna included a school to educate and Christianize Indian children, with 70–100 students reported by 1716 (Brunswick County, Virginia 2014; Omohundro 1901:216; Virginia Department of Conservation and Recreation 2005:7). Members of the Meiponsky, Occaneechi, Saponi, Stuckenock, and Tutelo tribes lived in the fort and in a settlement nearby (Marker History 2010). Ten miles west of Fort Christanna in Brunswick County was the Occaneechi Trail, a major trading path for Native American exchange that extended from the northern border of Georgia to the site at the Appomattox River at which English colonists in 1645 established Fort Henry. The adjacent settlement was incorporated as Petersburg in 1748 (Petersburg and the Atlantic World 2010). However, Fort Christanna’s trading post was not financially successful and did not achieve Spotswood’s goal of creating Native American dependence on English manufactured goods that could be used as a diplomatic tool for forging alliances to help stabilize the frontier. Support for continued operation of the fort ended in 1717 (Hofstra 2004:59). The school was closed in 1718, and trading was discontinued in 1722 (Historical Marker Database 2009). But surviving members of the Saponi, Tuscarora, Tutelo, and Nansemond tribes continued to live in the Fort Christanna area until the mid-eighteenth century, before relocating to Old Granville County in North Carolina (UNC American Indian Center 2015).

Following Lieutenant Governor Spotswood's "golden horseshoe" expedition across the Blue Ridge Mountains to the Valley of Virginia, Brunswick was one of two new counties created in 1720, each containing one of the identified mountain passes over the Blue Ridge Mountains. The legislature's intended that these two counties would defend the colony's frontiers that "are exposed to danger from the Indians and the late settlements of the French" west of the Blue Ridge (Hofstra 2004:65). Here, too, Spotswood sought to establish a buffer of agricultural settlements between eastern settlements and western lands occupied by Native Americans and claimed by the French within the watershed of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. Creation of the two new Piedmont counties also was intended to prevent the mountains from becoming a refuge for escaped slaves and a haven for colonies of maroons as was the case in some of Britain's Caribbean colonies (Hofstra 2004:7-8). When Brunswick's county court was established in 1732, areas of Surry and Isle of Wight counties were added to Brunswick for a better allocation of tithables (taxation) in each county (Omohundro 1901:215-216). As the population of these areas grew and the need for courts and the recording of deeds, wills, and estates increased, Amelia County was divided in 1735 from the northern section of Brunswick and western Prince George counties. Dinwiddie County was also formed from Prince George County in 1752 (Dinwiddie County Historical Society 2015). Prince Edward County was separated from Amelia in 1754, and Greensville County was created from the eastern part of Brunswick in 1780 (Neblett 2014). During the 1730s, the Three Notch'd Road between Richmond and the Shenandoah Valley was established, probably following the route of an earlier Native American trail (Pawlett and Newlon 2003).

At the eastern side of Brunswick County is the Fall Line, the escarpment that separates Virginia's Coastal Plain from the Piedmont region. Rivers often have rapids and waterfalls as they cross the Fall Line, creating an obstacle for their navigation and slowing the advance of Euroamerican settlement westward. The Fall Line is also the eastern boundary of the Southside region of southern Piedmont Virginia, which continues west to the Blue Ridge Mountains, and extends from the James River south to the North Carolina border. The soils of the Southside region were less fertile than those of the Coastal Plain, and less valuable varieties of tobacco were grown there. Consequently, as this region was settled, it developed a more diversified economy than in the tobacco-dominated counties to the east that were oriented toward European markets. Southside produce included grain, cattle, and hogs, and also naval stores, which were sold in the Caribbean colonies and also New England (Hofstra 2004:47).

Nottoway County to the northwest of Brunswick County was named for the Iroquoian tribe called Nadowa that lived along the county's only river. Prior to visits by Euroamerican explorers and traders in 1650, it had been a Native American crossroad, and later became an intersection between the new western frontier with colonial population centers to the north and east. Much of the land in this area was claimed by the mid-1700s and developed as self-sufficient farms and small plantations. Nottoway County was created from Amelia County in 1788 (County of Nottoway, Virginia 2014).

Cumberland and Buckingham counties are located in the central Piedmont region of Virginia. New counties were created as the area's population grew large enough to sustain them (Salmon 2012). Amelia County was created in 1735, with Prince Edward divided from Amelia in 1754. Cumberland County was established in 1749.

In the 1720s, grants were made for land near Bremo Creek in the area of Henrico County, which became Buckingham County in 1761. Additional grants were made for large tracts or plantations in the 1740s. Some of the settlers were English natives moving inland from Tidewater Virginia,

some were Scots-Irish and German immigrants who had crossed the Blue Ridge Mountains eastward into the area, and a small number of enslaved Africans and African-Americans were brought with Tidewater settlers for tobacco cultivation. Along with tobacco, corn, wheat, and cotton were grown as well (Anderson 1955). Also beginning in the 1720s and 1730s, grand main houses for the plantations of Virginia's planter elite were built along the James River (National Park Service 2015a).

Euroamerican exploration of the Blue Ridge region began in 1669 when John Lederer, an immigrant from Germany, was commissioned by Virginia governor William Berkeley to make a series of expeditions into the colony's unmapped backcountry. Lederer crossed the Blue Ridge Mountains into the Shenandoah Valley and recorded an account of his expedition that included information about then remote tribes (Virginia Department of Education 2015). A village called Monahassanough of the Siouan Monacan and Mannahoac tribes was located along the James River near the current community of Wingina in southeastern Nelson County (Smith 2014:11; Thomas Jefferson Planning District Commission 1993). Reduced in numbers by European diseases, these Native Americans had avoided contact with the Euroamerican settlers by moving westward during the seventeenth century. The group also include some Native Americans who had been living at Fort Christanna, as well as Tuscaroras who settled with the Monacans in Nelson County when other members of their tribe relocated to New York (Monacan Indian Nation 2013; Smith 2014:12).

By 1720, much of the land in the Tidewater and near the navigable rivers in the Coastal Plain had been claimed and patented, and settlement moved further west into the Piedmont (Monticello 2015a). New markets were opened for tobacco throughout Europe and the 1707 Act of Union with England opened trade throughout the British Empire for the first time, encouraging an extension of the Tidewater's social and political model (Hofstra 2012). Enslaved workers, usually African-American, became a significant labor force in Virginia when the number of indentured servants arriving in the colony declined. Although of smaller scale than the slave trade to the sugar plantations in the British West Indies in the second half of the seventeenth century, slavery became institutionalized at Tidewater plantations (Heinemann et al. 2007:53–54). Slave ownership became an indicator of wealth and status among planters, and an element of the Tidewater social customs that was transferred to new inland settlements.

Members of the planter class or gentry amassed large estates in the Piedmont region in the 1720s and 1730s. Lieutenant Governor William Gooch wrote to the London Board of Trade that in making large land grants to "men of substance" that the "meaner sort of People [have been encouraged] to seat themselves as it were under the Shade & Protection of the Greater" (Hofstra 2004:54). There were few towns in the Piedmont, and the widely spaced plantations functioned as self-sufficient communities. Small planters and their families seldom traveled beyond the immediate area, except for county court days, markets, or church services (Heinemann et al. 2007:72). Tobacco was the primary crop produced utilizing enslaved labor, but to a lesser degree than at Tidewater plantations. The threshold between a small holder and a small planter was 400 acres, and even a small farmstead usually had small number of slaves (Ayres 1968:27, 30–31; Heinemann et al. 2007:87).

When the first land patents were issued in the 1720s, the area that would become Nelson County was part of Goochland County, and subsequently part of "Big Albemarle" County when it was formed in 1744. Amherst County was carved out of Albemarle County in 1761, and Nelson County was created from it in 1807. The first land grants were along the rivers, one of which was a 4,800-acre patent to William Cabell, around whose Swan Creek plantation (later named

Liberty Hall) the village of Warminster developed (Smith 2014:12; University of Virginia Library 2015a). Cabell served as the assistant surveyor of “Big Albemarle” County from 1746–1754. His cousin, William Mayo, who with Alexander Irvin prepared the survey map of the Virginia/North Carolina border in 1728, was the Goochland County surveyor from 1728 until his death in 1744. Mayo appointed his neighbor Peter Jefferson (father of U.S. President Thomas Jefferson) as assistant county surveyor (Bedini 2000; Colonial Williamsburg 2015a; University of Virginia Library 2015b). Between the surveying skills of William Cabell and his sons, and the information they obtained about the most valuable lands in the region, they created a considerable estate of 58,000 acres, much of it near what would become Wingina in southern Nelson County (University of Virginia Library 2015b).

PIONEER ERA OF WESTERN VIRGINIA (16TH TO 18TH CENTURIES)

Beginning in the seventeenth century and continuing through the eighteenth century, Virginia played a leading role in the early English efforts to extend the frontier westward into the interior of North America. This process involved the emigration of settlers from the Tidewater into the Piedmont and beyond, trickling into the Valley regions. Though smaller in scale than Virginia’s large coastal plantations, the frontier farms and their associated historic resources document a significant and crucial phase of Virginia’s history.

As the English settlers and their institutions moved progressively westward from the Tidewater through the Piedmont and into the Valley, they encountered substantial numbers of German and Scots-Irish pioneers. These settlers moved into the Valley and backcountry of the Piedmont mostly from Pennsylvania, and had brought with them non-English services of worship and non-Tidewater forms of domestic and farm architecture and agricultural practices. [VDHR 2011:125–126]

In the seventeenth century, trails in the Shenandoah Valley were used as thoroughfares by Native Americans. Some traveled on expeditions to hunting grounds in present-day West Virginia and Kentucky, making long treks along the Appalachian ridgelines to hunt or visit, or—particularly in the case of the Iroquois—to make war. Warfare served the Iroquois’ expansionist goals of acquiring and defending hunting territory in the Appalachians and Great Lakes region. Overhunting in their New York state heartland drove the Iroquois to seek richer hunting grounds so they could continue to dominate the fur trade. Their early acquisition of firearms and their collaborative confederacy gave them the strength to displace many tribes from surrounding regions. The League of the Iroquois was believed to have been formed in the fifteenth or sixteenth centuries to bring to an end a long period of constant warfare among all of the Iroquois groups, which led to reciprocal raiding and revenge by members of the injured clan. The League not only put an end to internal conflict, but also made the Iroquois a formidable regional force, able to deploy large numbers of warriors to accomplish military objectives on behalf of the confederacy (Josephy 1968:83; Tooker 1979). Among the targets of Iroquois League warfare were tribes in Virginia (Hofstra 2004:5–6; Josephy 1968:96). During a 1717 convocation of Catawba and other Native Americans at Fort Christanna, a band of Iroquois warriors conducted a raid, killing some of the Catawbas and taking others as captives. Lieutenant Governor Spotswood obtained the captives’ release, and worked with the governors of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New York on a proposal made at the Iroquois’ 1718 treaty conference. Iroquois parties traveling across Virginia would remain west of the Blue Ridge Mountains and not to cross the mountains eastward without a pass issued by the colonial governor of New York. In addition, Indians native to Virginia would remain east of the Blue Ridge (Hofstra 2004:63–64).

Philadelphia was the leading port for immigration to the North American colonies in the eighteenth century. Immigrants, many of them from Protestant Scottish families that had relocated early in the seventeenth century to the English “plantation” in Catholic Northern Ireland, arrived in Philadelphia with few resources. Together with Swiss, Welsh, and Dutch settlers, French Huguenots and other religious dissenters, the Scots-Irish settlers moved inland in search of affordable land, crossing Pennsylvania to the Great Valley of the Appalachians and southward into the drainages of the upper Potomac River at the beginning of the Shenandoah Valley (Hofstra 2004:52–53, 2012). While some became tenants of the “men of substance” of whom Lieutenant Governor Gooch had written, others exercised “tomahawk rights” (referring to slashes thus made on trees at boundary points) to stake claims on attractive tracts of vacant land (Williams 2001:10). Initially locating near the Great Wagon Road, some “scattered for the Benefit of the best Lands,” forming open-country neighborhoods along waterways. With farmsteads enclosing about 300 acres of small fields with access to springs and water courses, they raised small grains including wheat and rye, as well as cattle, pigs, and horses—in contrast with the large tobacco plantations of Tidewater and Piedmont regions (Hofstra 2004:38, 2012). Due to tremendous costs to ship their produce across the Blue Ridge Mountains, it was not economically feasible for these settlers to send cash crops to markets in Tidewater Virginia (Grymes 2014e).

The arrival of these settlers not only fulfilled the goal of Lieutenant Governor Spotswood and his successor, William Gooch, to create a buffer securing Virginia “from the incursions of the Indians and the more dangerous Incroachments of the French” in the Great Lakes and Ohio Valley, but also served the interests of speculators who received enormous land grants in the Shenandoah beginning in the 1730s (Hofstra 2004:64–65). Between 1730 and 1732 Lieutenant Governor Gooch issued a series of land orders totaling close to 400,000 acres west of the Blue Ridge. This pattern was similar to the English plantation in Ulster, Northern Ireland, in which wealthy Scottish “undertakers” were granted tracts of 2,000 to 3,000 acres, with the obligation to secure settlers who would develop the land in accordance with the objectives of the plantation, which included building the structures necessary for shelter, agriculture, and defense (Blair 2000:5). The Virginia grants—some which were for more than 100,000 acres—required that their recipients recruit one settler family for every 1,000 acres within two years as a condition of the land patents.

In the early 1730s, speculators sought land to the south of the boundaries of the Fairfax Grant (whose western boundary was not settled until 1745) and the settlements in the lower part of the Shenandoah Valley, such as that at Opequon Creek in Frederick County (Grymes 2014f; Hofstra 2004:34). In 1736, William Beverley, a wealthy planter of Essex County in the Northern Neck of Tidewater Virginia, and his partners obtained a grant of 118,491 acres, which they called Beverley Manor. It included much of present Augusta County. Some Ulster Scots immigrants had previously settled in the area, and in 1735, Benjamin Borden of New Jersey obtained a grant of 92,000 acres immediately south of Beverley Manor, most of it in current day Rockbridge County (MacMaster 2007). Settlement proceeded slowly, and Borden had to request time beyond the required two years from the Virginia Council to recruit 100 settlers for his patent. Beverly entered into a partnership with James Patton, a native of Northern Ireland and a ship captain in the Chesapeake tobacco trade, to transport the settlers needed to perfect the claim. This part of the Shenandoah Valley became known as “The Irish Tract” when Augusta County was created in 1738, with the county’s boundaries extending to the “utmost limits of Virginia” and including West Virginia, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and part of present-day Pennsylvania (Hofstra 2004:40–41; Sorrells 2007). Beverley also donated

land for Staunton as a county seat in 1746, with its courts established in 1748. The Augusta County courthouse was the westernmost in British North America prior to the Revolutionary War, and Staunton became a trading center for the region in the 1750s (Hofstra 2004:261; Staunton Convention and Visitor's Bureau 2014).

Located in the Allegheny Mountains on the west side of the Shenandoah Valley, Highland County was created in 1847 from Bath County (established in 1790) and Pendleton County, which was formed from Rockingham in 1787. Highland County contains the headwaters of the James and Potomac rivers, along whose courses the early settlers from the Valley took up land (Highland County Chamber of Commerce 2014; Morton 1911:62). It has been one of the least populated counties throughout the state's history, and early residents supported themselves by obtaining furs for trade, and raising cattle, horses, and sheep, which they drove over the mountains to market (Morton 1911:99, 107–108).

During the first decades of Euroamerican settlement of Virginia's Shenandoah Valley, the settlers routinely interacted with Native Americans passing through the area, but their coexistence was not without conflict (Hofstra 2004:36). Conflict in some cases arose from Iroquois claims to the Shenandoah Valley. The Iroquois perceived the Euroamerican "buffer" settlement as trespassing on territory they had won from the Susquehannock tribe in the 1670s. In 1742, the governor of the colony of Maryland wrote to Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Gooch of his fear of an Indian conspiracy with the French to cut off and destroy the Euroamerican residents of Maryland and Pennsylvania. He based this fear on observation of a large gathering of Native Americans in Maryland, and a statement by an Iroquois leader during Pennsylvania treaty negotiations that the Six Nations of the Iroquois League had never received any "consideration" for the land then occupied by Euroamericans south of Pennsylvania. In December 1742, at Borden's Tract in then-Augusta County, a group of Euroamerican settlers fearing violence attempted to seize the guns of a party of Oneida and Onondaga Indians traveling on the Great Wagon Road route, resulting in the deaths of a number of Native and Euroamericans—the latter including the local militia captain (Hofstra 2004:41–47). To avoid a full-scale war with the Iroquois, representatives of Virginia participated in a native condolence ritual in 1743. In 1744, representatives of the Six Nations attended treaty negotiations in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, in which Euroamerican settlements along the Great Wagon Road of the Shenandoah Valley were discussed. In the resulting Lancaster Treaty of 1744, the Iroquois agreed to vacate the land claimed by the colony of Virginia, which then extended to the Pacific Ocean. They also agreed to cease killing settlers' livestock with assurances that any justice of the peace or militia captain living along the road would supply them with provisions they might need while traveling, and they accepted the requirement to carry a pass signed by the governor of New York in order to use the Great Wagon Road (Hofstra 2004:171–175).

In this period, the frontier in Virginia's Shenandoah Valley backcountry and western highlands was distinct from new Euroamerican settlements in the Southside and Piedmont regions. The latter was an extension of Virginia's Tidewater culture, economy, and patterns of development, centered on a hierarchical plantation society of Anglo-Virginia culture, tobacco production, African-American slavery and Native American containment and removal. Development in the Valley included a (sometimes uneasy) mixture of social classes, ethnic diversity, and religious pluralism, continued interaction and negotiation with Native Americans, and a small-farm, mixed grain-livestock economy that was dependent on neither tobacco nor slavery (Hofstra 2012).

COLONY TO NATION (1751–1789)

This period saw the emergence of Virginia’s planter-statesmen as founders of the Commonwealth and of the United States, as the American colonies struggled through the Revolutionary War years and created a new nation. The diversity of cultures in the Virginia colony, as well as the colonists’ experience with self-government, eventually resulted in a parting of the ways with the mother country. [VDHR 2011:126]

The Industrial Revolution began in Britain in the mid-eighteenth century, but occurred later in its North American colonies, due both to the scarcity of labor and to restrictions on manufacturing and trade in the colonies, beginning with the Navigation Acts and the Staples Act in the 1660s. Virginia was expected to ship raw materials including lumber, wool, iron, tobacco, and rice to England, and to purchase finished goods—including cloth, furniture, kitchen utensils and knives, guns and ammunition—only from British suppliers. Items produced in other nations, such as tea from India, French silk, or Dutch linen would have to be purchased from a British importer. Virginia’s main export during the Colonial period was tobacco, the majority of which was re-shipped from Britain to Europe (Independence Hall Association 2014a; Ladenburg 2007).

The Industrial Revolution increased the variety of manufactured goods available, many of which previously were available only to the gentry or planter class. The resulting “consumer revolution” made a wide range of goods affordable to the middle class. In Virginia, the factors of Scottish merchants established networks of stores in towns and along river routes into the backcountry throughout Tidewater, Southside, and Piedmont Virginia. These Virginia merchants developed credit accounts through which planters could obtain goods throughout the year, in expectation of selling the annual tobacco crop (Colonial Williamsburg 2015b). Given the fluctuating prices for tobacco, many planters bought more goods than could be covered by credits ultimately received for their crop, resulting in the accumulation of large debts.

The history of trade between Euroamericans and Native Americans in the backcountry and competition between European powers set the stage for decisive events in the second half of the eighteenth century. In the second half of the seventeenth century, the Iroquois League drove out most of the other Native American tribes from the upper Ohio and Potomac River valleys, and used the area as a hunting preserve (Hofstra 2012). During this time, French explorers and traders formed relationships with Native Americans in the areas claimed by France, which extended from the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes, through the Ohio Valley, and down the Mississippi River to New Orleans—a vast region dotted by widely scattered trading posts, forts and missions (Heinemann et al. 2007:92; Western Michigan University 2015). In exchange for animal furs and skins from Native Americans, the French provided manufactured items such as firearms and alcohol, as well as European beads and decorative goods that Native Americans valued for use in burial ceremonies (Caskey et al. 2001; United States History 2014a). In addition to trade, the exchange of gifts was an important element of amicable relations with the Native Americans, endowing the giver with prestige, honor, and influence (Western Michigan University 2015).

Although the appropriation of Native American lands by the French resulted in conflicts similar to those in Britain’s North American colonies, the French often chose to integrate themselves rather than fight Native Americans, and those in frontier settlements often intermarried with the natives and became part of their tribes. It was noted that “those with whom we mingle do not become French, our people become Indian” (Utley and Washburn 2002:77). This blending of cultures and respect for the natives was treated with disgust by some British leaders and

military officers. France's colonization efforts also included Jesuit missions, and the establishment of a far-reaching trade network manned in large part by independent entrepreneurs known as *coureurs des bois*. These young Frenchmen hunted, trapped and traded with Native Americans at remote interior trading posts. Although not officially sanctioned by the French crown, *coureurs des bois* provided France a means of maintaining exchange relations and political and military alliances with Indian tribes across the territory they claimed but lacked the means of controlling, providing critical service as translators and interpreters of cultural practices (Jurgens 2015).

The boundary between Virginia and Pennsylvania was not definitively established until 1779. The disputed region in the upper Ohio Valley and the area known as the Forks of the Ohio (currently the location of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania), which also was inhabited by Native Americans (Shawnee, Delaware, and Seneca groups as well as mixed villages of those tribes that were referred to as Mingo Indians), and claimed by the French, became the flashpoint for the French and Indian War (Fort Edwards Foundation 2000; Heinemann et al. 2007:92). Native American allies of the French began a series of raids on frontier settlements in western Virginia, and many frontier settlers fled eastward. A series of forts, stockades, and blockhouses were built as protection, primarily in what is now Virginia (Cook 1940; Manarin 2010).

In 1752, the governor general of New France took action to ensure the territorial integrity of the French empire in North America, to drive the British merchants out of the Ohio Valley, and to re-establish peace with the Native American tribes (Côté 2015). In 1753, he sent an expedition of 1,000 men to build a chain of forts between Lake Erie and the Forks of the Ohio during the summer. When Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Robert Dinwiddie learned of the forts' construction, he received direction from London to take whatever action necessary to protect British possessions in North America while avoiding offensive actions that could provoke open warfare. When the French refused Dinwiddie's order to withdraw from the Ohio Country, the governor ordered a Virginia regiment under Colonel Joshua Fry, with George Washington appointed lieutenant colonel as second in command, to garrison Fort Prince George on the Ohio River at the site of present-day Pittsburgh (Ferling 1998:198; Heinemann et al. 2007:94–95; National Park Service 2002[1954]; Ockershausen 1996). The French, meanwhile, constructed their own fort at Pittsburgh, which they named Fort Duquesne. The French met the Virginia regiment en route and defeated them, forcing them to return to Virginia. A second effort to oust the French in 1755 also ended in failure, and settlements on the Virginia frontier were subsequently subjected to sporadic attacks by Indian warriors of tribes allied with the French (Heinemann et al. 2007:95–96; National Park Service 2002[1954]; Ockershausen 1996).

While some of the frontier settlers fled eastward, numerous forts, stockades, and blockhouses were built as protection, including one near Staunton in Augusta County, which came to be known as Fort Lewis (Cook 1940; Manarin 2010). After Washington was commissioned as a colonel and given command of the provincial army, he established his headquarters in Winchester in Frederick County, where Fort Loudoun was built in 1756. Settlers who lived in dispersed settlements in the Shenandoah Valley would flee to towns such as Staunton and Winchester on receiving word that a Native American attack was imminent. Washington experienced great difficulty in recruiting men for the militia as the settlers were committed to protecting their own homes, crops, and communities, but not the investments of wealthy speculators or European immigrants in other areas (Heinemann et al. 2007:97; Hofstra 2004:243–244). Washington urged Virginia's Lieutenant Governor Dinwiddie to make alliances with Native American tribes to the south, and in 1756, Dinwiddie obtained the support of the Catawbas and Cherokees, with four hundred warriors camped near Winchester, enabling

Virginia officers to lead their raiding parties against hostile tribes (Hofstra 2004:244–245). A 1758 treaty conference at Easton, Pennsylvania, sought to redress the Native Americans' grievances, and issued a proclamation prohibiting the movement of British settlers west of the mountains without special authorization (Utley and Washburn 2002:86). Also in 1758, a British army under General John Forbes arrived in the colonies, and together with the provincial army units, crossed Pennsylvania to the Ohio Country (Ferling 1998:203–204). Forbes made peace with the Iroquois, Shawnee, and Delaware warriors, ending their support for the French (Potts and Thomas 2006:13). Besieged by the British and deserted by their Native American allies, with the fort deteriorating and with little food remaining, French forces abandoned and burned Fort Duquesne in November 1758 (McGrath 2015).

By the time of the 1763 Treaty of Paris ending the French and Indian War, a new type of Native American conflict developed on Virginia's western frontier (Twohig 1998:17). At the conclusion of their service supporting British General Forbes, Cherokee warriors felt slighted at their limited compensation. As the warriors returned southward, Euroamerican settlers did not distinguish between them and the Shawnee that had been attacking in Augusta County, and turned on the Cherokees as well. Also at this time, Euroamericans in South Carolina executed some Native American hostages, and a period of conflict known as the Cherokee War ensued in 1760–1761, ranging from Virginia to Georgia until the 1761 Treaty of Long Island on the Holston in Virginia, and the 1762 Treaty of Charleston in South Carolina (Heinemann et al. 2007:99). The smaller scale border warfare between settlers, colonial and state troops, and Native Americans continued intermittently in Virginia's frontier areas until the 1794 Battle of Fallen Timbers and the 1795 Treaty of Greenville (Cook 1940; Potts and Thomas 2006:14–15; Utley and Washburn 2002:115). Although this period of conflict diminished settlement in Virginia's western counties, the population of "Big Albemarle" county increased, and Buckingham County was divided from it in 1761.

Recognizing that it lacked the resources to control the vast interior, England's Proclamation of 1763 established the ridge of the Appalachian Mountains as a boundary between its North American colonial domain and Native American territory, restricted settlement to areas in the east, and imposed regulations intended to control abuse of trade with the Native Americans. However, Euroamerican settlers were already living west of the Proclamation Line, and in Virginia, individuals and gentry speculators had been anticipating land grants west of the Appalachians. Grievances among the settlers and perceptions that these government policies favored Native Americans and restricted their opportunities led to vigilantism (Providence Plantation Foundation 2014). At the Treaty of Fort Stanwix in 1768, the Iroquois granted 2.5 million acres east and south of the Ohio River (known as the Indiana Grant) to Britain. However, the Native Americans living in the Ohio Country—which included Delaware, Seneca, and Shawnee tribes—were not parties to this agreement (Ohio History Central 2015a; Potts and Thomas 2006:16). Nevertheless, beginning in 1769, waves of settlers swept into the upper Ohio, Monongahela, Greenbrier, and Kanawha valleys. By the early 1770s, Euroamericans crossed the Proclamation Line and established settlements across present-day West Virginia and Kentucky (Rice 2014; Utley and Washburn 2002:102).

Following the French and Indian War, Britain's efforts to pay for its war debts by more strictly enforcing trade and customs regulations, and imposing new measures to increase revenue from its colonies, were most strongly resisted in Virginia at the colonial capital of Williamsburg and in the Tidewater counties. Virginia's House of Burgesses sent addresses to the King and Parliament stating that it was they and not Parliament that had the right to tax and manage their internal affairs (Heinemann et al. 2007:105–106). Seven "Virginia Resolves" opposing the

Stamp Acts were circulated in the other colonies, and the Virginian who had been appointed as the stamp agent was persecuted until he fled to England. County governments refused to use the paper on which stamp duties would have to be paid, instead closing down their operations, as did some of the ports. One ship's captain was reported to have been tarred and feathered in Norfolk (Heinemann et al. 2007:107--108). Faced with a general refusal of British imports to the colonies, the Stamp Acts were repealed in 1766. They were replaced with the less extensive Townshend Acts in 1767, which were also protested and repealed in 1770 on every item except tea (Heinemann et al. 2007:110). Following the 1773 dumping of a shipment of surplus tea into Boston Harbor, Parliament passed the retaliatory Coercive Acts (also known as the Intolerable Acts). The Virginia House of Burgesses was subsequently dissolved, and its members called on the counties to send delegates to the First Continental Congress in Philadelphia to discuss the colonies' response. The skirmishes between British army units and colonial Minutemen at Lexington and Concord in Massachusetts in April 1775 made it evident that the grievances would not be settled peacefully (Heinemann et al. 2007:112--113, 116--117).

At the onset of the Revolutionary War, a substantial percentage of Virginians remained loyal to Britain, including conservative members of the gentry and Scottish businessmen in Norfolk whose position as middlemen depended on the mercantile system of England. Others remained loyal from principle, believing that small losses of personal liberty were of less value than the security associated with the British empire, and fearing the chaos and mob rule that may result from its absence (Heinemann et al. 2007:129). West of the Blue Ridge Mountains and along the frontier, the population was largely self-sufficient, with few economic ties to England, as the cost for transportation of crops over the mountains to the Tidewater was prohibitive. Some areas of the backcountry were loyal to the King. The western settlers also had reasons to rebel against the Tidewater gentry who had dominated the colony, levying taxes on their products and ordering the construction of roads, but not fully representing the concerns of the western portion of the state (Grymes 2014e).

By June 1775, Governor Dunmore had fled from his country house in York County to a British warship in the York River and declared the colony in a state of rebellion, instituting martial law and offering freedom to slaves and bonded servants of the rebels and their sympathizers if they were willing to bear arms and fight for the British (Colonial Williamsburg 2015c). The withdrawal of the British army caused a large number of wealthy and influential loyalist families to also flee the Norfolk area. In total, Virginia contributed fifteen regiments to the Continental Army under General George Washington. Militia units also came from Augusta, Brunswick, Buckingham, Dinwiddie, Prince Edward, and Southampton counties. Much of the action against the British forces in the first three years of the Revolutionary War was in the Mid-Atlantic colonies to the north. However, British military units conducted raids in surrounding counties, in search of the rebels' supplies, leading to confrontations in November and December between Virginia militia and British soldiers at the battles of Kemps Landing and Great Bridge near Norfolk (Jamestown-Yorktown Foundation 2015). On January 1, 1776, British ships destroyed most of Norfolk, a shipbuilding center and an important trans-shipment point for the import and export of goods. Norfolk was then considered the most prosperous city in Virginia. Rebellious colonists burned the remaining buildings, to prevent it from being a resource to the British (Jamestown-Yorktown Foundation 2015; Norfolk Convention & Visitors Bureau 2014).

The Chesapeake Bay area was continually harassed by the British Navy and privateers (Heinemann et al. 2007:129). Attacks focused on the Southern colonies of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia began in 1778 under British general Henry Clinton (Schulz 2009:17, 26). In Suffolk County, the city of Suffolk, was burned during the British naval raid on Hampton in

1779 (Wagner and Laub 1986). In 1780, British general Benedict Arnold's troops burned much of Richmond, which had recently become Virginia's capital. The Virginia legislature fled to Charlottesville in Albemarle County, and with former governor Thomas Jefferson, most of its members narrowly escaped capture there during a raid by Lieutenant Colonel Banastre Tarleton's dragoons the following summer (Heinemann et al. 2007:130–131). While attempting to establish a defensible port on the Yorktown peninsula of Virginia in 1781, the British army under Lord Cornwallis was trapped between a French fleet at the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay and the combined forces of the Continental and French armies on the peninsula, and surrendered in October (Schulz 2009:17, 26).

During the Revolutionary War, agricultural products from the Shenandoah Valley were in high demand to help supply the army's needs, including wheat, beef, and hemp for cordage. At the same time, the market for tobacco collapsed, affecting growers in the eastern part of the state most severely. In the years that followed, the prices for commodities and hemp dropped, and tobacco crops grown across the state were largely used to pay taxes. The institution of new state taxes were a hardship for backcountry merchants, who had to pay a levy on their merchandise stock, as well as duties on import goods transported from Philadelphia or Baltimore. Farmers in the western counties were also allowed to pay their taxes in flour, hemp, or deerskins (Heinemann et al. 2007:140). During this period, land available in the trans-Appalachian West led many with few resources to pursue this opportunity. Between 1783 and 1790, the population of Kentucky County expanded from 12,000 to more than 73,000. The needs of these settlers for food, provisions, and wagon repairs provided opportunities for those living along the Great Wagon Road (Hofstra 2004:282–283). New towns were established along the road, and a hierarchical pattern of hamlets, villages, and towns developed. Although an exchange-based economy persisted, some businesses utilized cash transactions (Hofstra 2004:285–287). As part of the development of the former British colonies' Articles of Confederation, in 1781 Virginia ceded to the new United States all of its claim to the territory north of the Ohio River, while retaining its rights to the area including present-day Virginia, West Virginia, and Kentucky (Heinemann et al. 2007:133).

Increasing settlement west of the Alleghany Mountains also increased the demand for road construction and maintenance between the western part of Virginia and Tidewater ports. The Virginia General Assembly passed a bill in 1782 for a general survey of roads between the Blue Ridge Mountains and various port towns, but without funding to accomplish it. Interest in water routes also increased, with companies formed in the mid-1780s to develop canals and improve navigation on the Potomac and James rivers (Pawlett 2003).

After the Revolutionary War, a tobacco inspection station was established at Warminster (present-day Wingina) in southeastern Nelson County adjacent to the Swan Creek plantation of Dr. William Cabell. The surrounding area developed into a town, the center of a flourishing agricultural district, and a tobacco shipping port on the James River (Hallock 2005). Upon the death of Dr. William Cabell in 1774, his son, Nicholas Cabell, inherited the adjacent Swan Creek plantation and re-named it "Liberty Hall". The plantation "Edgewood" was built on the north side of the Liberty Hall property around 1790 for his sister, Margaret Jordan Cabell, and her husband, Robert Rives, who was a partner in a chain of stores in the Virginia backcountry. In 1775, Nicholas and Margaret's brother William Cabell, Jr., built the "Union Hill" plantation to the southwest, a few miles up the James River near Norwood. He separated the estate "Soldier's Joy" from the east side of his Union Hill plantation, upon his son Samuel J. Cabell's safe return from military service during the Revolutionary War (University of Virginia Library 2015b). The Late Georgian style house at Soldier's Joy, built between 1783 and 1785, exemplifies Virginia's

Tidewater traditions being transplanted to the Piedmont region (Virginia Historic Landmarks Commission 1980a).

In Prince Edward County, Hampden-Sydney College was established in 1775 south of Farmville, among the predominantly Scots-Irish population of south-central Virginia, and modeled on the University of Edinburgh. Among the college's founders was Nathaniel Venable, the land for whose Slate Hill tobacco plantation in Farmville had been granted in 1739, with the main house built in 1756 (Hampden-Sydney College 2015). The town of Farmville, established in 1798, became a regional center for trade, finance, and education (Farmville Area Chamber of Commerce 2015).

EARLY NATIONAL PERIOD (1790–1829)

The end of the eighteenth century saw Virginia changing from a colonial society almost exclusively agrarian, containing counties with only very small villages or none at all, to a new state gradually beginning to accommodate urban centers. Once direct British restraints on trade were removed, not fully realized until the War of 1812, river ports located along the fall line (Alexandria, Fredericksburg, and Petersburg, for example) became thriving commercial centers with impressive concentrations of domestic and commercial structures. This period also saw the development of numerous towns and villages in the Piedmont and in western Virginia, particularly along the migration route extending south and west through the Valley. The Piedmont centers of Charlottesville, Warrenton, and Leesburg, and western communities such as Winchester, Staunton, Lexington, and Abingdon, all began as county seats that prospered in this period....Meanwhile, the disestablishment of the Anglican church coincided with the rise of other religious denominations and the construction of new churches in cities, towns, and the countryside. [VDHR 2011:126–127]

As the new United States developed its economy without the support and restrictions of the British Empire, agricultural improvements and diversification as well as transportation routes across the state were significant concerns. Planters had long known of tobacco's detrimental effect on soil nutrients, and experimented with crop rotation and amendments to repair the effects of tobacco. In addition, lower prices for tobacco and greater competition in European markets, paired with the greater demand and better prices for wheat, led to more diversified agricultural production in Virginia at the turn of the nineteenth century (Digital Archaeological Archive of Comparative Slavery 2015; Hofstra 2004:288).

In the Shenandoah Valley, farms produced rye, oats, barley, corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, but primarily wheat. In 1790, four million pounds of flour were produced annually in the lower Shenandoah Valley, and more than two and a half times that amount by 1800. Mills gained greater importance for grinding wheat into flour, and often required payment in cash instead of barter or exchange (Hofstra 2004:288–289).

Shipping grain to the markets on the eastern seaboard was risky due to poor storage facilities and dangerous roads. Smaller farms distilled some of their grain into liquor, which was less expensive to ship and store. In 1791, Congress imposed a tax on whiskey. Farmers in Virginia and western Pennsylvania viewed this tax as an unfair policy dictated by the Tidewater elite that negatively impacted those living on the western frontier. They refused to pay the tax, and rioting ensued. After the home of the regional tax collector in Pittsburgh was burned in 1794, then-President George Washington led a militia force to western Pennsylvania. Most of the rebelling frontiersman dispersed before their arrival. During the Whiskey Rebellion, 150 men were

apprehended and tried for treason, and the two men found guilty were later pardoned (Heinemann et al. 2007:153–154; Kotowski 2015).

Although some Native American tribes fought with the Continental and militia forces during the Revolutionary War, the new United States government subsequently presumed the Native Americans' defeat and did not view their councils or nations as equals (Utley and Washburn 2002:112). U.S. military expeditions led by inexperienced commanders against Native American tribes in the Northwest Territory in present-day Ohio and Indiana failed in 1790 and 1791. In 1792, Anthony Wayne was appointed the commander of the Army of the Northwest, charged with defending Euroamerican settlers in the Northwest Territory. After building a number of forts and supply depots, U.S. soldiers defeated a coalition of Miami, Shawnee, Potawatomi, and Ojibwe tribes in 1794. In 1795, the Treaty of Greenville was signed by representatives of the Miami, Wyandot, Shawnee, Delaware, and other tribes, agreeing to leave the northwestern part of the present-day Ohio (Ohio History Central 2015b). As the threat of Native American attacks subsided in the western part of the state, many Virginians were struck by "Kentucky Fever," flocking to what was then Kentucky County. This outmigration from Virginia relieved some pressure on land development, easing conditions for those who remained (Hofstra 2004:284). In 1792, Kentucky County was organized as the state of Kentucky (Hutchinson 2000).

In the context of western expansion, internal improvements were not only crucial for commerce and tax revenues, but also for retaining the cohesion of the United States. Some farmers west of the Appalachian Mountains looked to the Mississippi River and Spanish-controlled New Orleans at its mouth on the Gulf of Mexico as an alternative connection to world markets. In Virginia, public works being developed included highways and turnpikes, canals and river improvements, and beginning in the 1830s, railroads. The Virginia Board of Public Works was created in 1816 to administer the funding of these projects and oversee the technical and financial aspects of their implementation (McKee 2003). Prior to this, the federally-funded National road was authorized in 1806. Constructed between 1811 and 1818, its route was similar to the military road built for General Braddock's 1755 campaign, and reached from Cumberland, Maryland to Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, and Wheeling on the Ohio River, which was then part of Virginia (National Park Service 2002[1954]). Also in 1806, a privately-owned turnpike was built over the Thornton's Gap pass through the Blue Ridge Mountains between the Valley and the Piedmont.

In 1785, the James River Company was chartered, with then-retired General George Washington as its honorary president, for the purpose of improving river navigation from the James River at Richmond to Buchanan in Botetourt County in present-day southwest Virginia. By 1795, the improvements enabled transportation by flat-bottomed batteaux as far as Lynchburg in Bedford County, reducing travel time from five days to two. The Appomattox River was also improved for batteau transportation between Petersburg and Farmville. In 1820, the Commonwealth of Virginia bought the charter of the James River Company, and also improved navigation on the Great Kanawha River in western Virginia. Plans for a more substantial James-Kanawha canal system powered by horses from a towpath (instead of being poled by boatmen) was proposed, but the funding was not available (Heinemann et al. 2007:165). However, these aquatic corridors supported the development of the Southside and Central Piedmont regions (Hill and Trout 1971).

On the James River in Warminster (present-day Wingina) in Nelson County, a Georgian plantation house called Montezuma (also known as Spring Hill) was built in the 1790s by William Cabell, Jr. Located on the west side of his Union Hill plantation near the village of New

Market (present-day Norwood), and part of the eleven Cabell family homes built in the area in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, it may have been built for one of his sons, Landon or Hector (University of Virginia Library 2015b; Virginia Historic Landmarks Commission 1980b).

In 1790, the Dismal Swamp Canal Company was established to construct a canal between the Chesapeake Bay in Virginia and Albemarle Sound in North Carolina, via the Elizabeth River which empties into the bay at Hampton Roads near Norfolk (Dismal Swamp Welcome Center 2015). A causeway was built in 1790, construction on the canal began in 1793, and the canal opened to flatboat traffic in 1805. The development of the canal allowed the town of Chesapeake to become a commerce center in the 1790s (City of Chesapeake, Virginia 2015a). In 1808, U.S. Secretary of the Treasury Albert Gallatin proposed an inland waterway extending from Massachusetts to Georgia to provide a protected transportation route without the need to travel on the open ocean, but there was little support until after the British blockade of the U.S. coastline during the War of 1812 (Walbert 2009).

To the north of the Dismal Swamp, the town of Suffolk, which had been burned during the Revolutionary War, was rebuilt, with the lots of an annexation laid out in 1791. However, much of the construction from this period was destroyed in a fire in 1837 (Wagner and Laub 1986).

In the recently-formed Greensville County, the Town of Hicksford was established in 1796 on one bank of the Meherrin River and in 1798, the Town of Belfield was started on the opposite bank. In 1887, these two villages merged to become Emporia (County of Greensville, Virginia 2015).

Those living to the west of the Allegheny Mountains looked to the Mississippi River as a transportation and shipping route. France ceded control of Louisiana to Spain in 1762 at the end of the Seven Years War. Spain quietly supported the American colonists during the Revolution, sending supplies upstream to Washington's army from New Orleans via the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. After the war, Spain and the United States quarreled over a number of issues related to boundaries and navigation rights along the Mississippi River. To settle these issues, the U.S. negotiated the 1795 Treaty of San Lorenzo, obtaining from Spain (among other things) the right for its citizens to ship goods on the Mississippi River and store them in New Orleans (Cummins 2008:93). After the French Revolution, Napoleon negotiated to regain Louisiana from Spain in 1800. France then revoked American shipping rights through New Orleans (Richard 2003:21). The economic hardship posed by the lack of shipping access from the west, and the risk of losing the allegiance of the new western states and territories was sufficiently critical for President Thomas Jefferson to send commissioners to France to negotiate for the purchase of New Orleans. In response, the French minister conveyed Napoleon's proposal that the U.S. purchase the entire Louisiana territory. The offer was quickly accepted and was ratified by the U.S. Congress in 1803 (Independence Hall Association 2014b; Monticello 2015b; Turner 1904).

The 1791 slave revolt in France's Caribbean sugar- and coffee-producing colony of Saint-Domingue (present-day Haiti), and the expense of sending forces to suppress it, may have factored in Napoleon's decision to sell the Louisiana territory. After the Saint-Domingue revolt, the French Navy brought a wave of refugees to Norfolk and other ports beginning in 1793. Some of the plantation owners brought their slaves with them. The Haitian Revolution also increased fear of a slave uprising in the United States (U.S. Department of State, Office of the Historian 2015). One such revolt was planned in Richmond in 1800, and became known as

Gabriel's Rebellion. When the conspiracy was revealed, Gabriel fled to Norfolk, where he was arrested (Nicholls 2013).

The institution of slavery was exploited by British forces during the War of 1812, instilling fear and suspicion in Virginia slaveowners. While the British navy blockaded the East Coast between Delaware and South Carolina, British Admiral Alexander Cochrane made an announcement in 1814 similar to Lord Dunmore's 1775 proclamation, offering freedom to slaves who would fight for the British (G. Smith 2015). Escaped slaves also contributed their knowledge of the local terrain to guide British forces raiding American farms and plantations in the Chesapeake Bay area. Piedmont residents drafted into Virginia's militia, which was centered in Norfolk, also feared slave uprisings in their absence (Taylor 2013:162–163). In Nottoway County, men who were exempt from military service formed a mounted unit to guard the homes of those who were serving (Butler 2013:365). No battles were fought in the Piedmont or Shenandoah Valley counties, but militia companies were recruited to defend the Tidewater counties.

In 1807, Congress passed legislation prohibiting the importation of African slaves, effective in 1808. Support for the abolition of slavery was stronger in the northern states, and some national and Virginia leaders proposed systems to eliminate slavery. Without emancipating those who were then in bondage, however, the enslaved population continued to grow as children were born into slavery. The 1793 development of the cotton gin and an increasing market for cotton due to the Industrial Revolution led to increased production of cotton in Southampton and other counties in Southside Virginia between 1815 and 1825. Labor-intensive cotton agriculture spread to the west and south from the Tidewater as new land became available in the "Old Southwest," including present-day Missouri, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana, but cotton was not a major crop in western Virginia, where the climate was marginal. The westward migration contributed to a decline in cotton production in Virginia and an increase in the number of slaves transported from Virginia to the Deep South (Crofts 1992:79).

At the conclusion of the War of 1812, the re-opening of domestic and international markets along with a major increase in the sales of public land stimulated the economy. However, a reduction in demand for U.S staple exports in Europe led to an economic crisis in 1819, causing unemployment and loss of property values in Virginia (Haulman 2010; Reynolds 2009).

ANTEBELLUM PERIOD (1830–1860)

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, and railroads, while improving navigable rivers to provide farmers and merchants better access to markets. Despite such setbacks as the Panic of 1837, the construction campaign succeeded in opening the West and Southwest to settlement and in creating a new prosperity in areas where the improved transportation links were located. During this period for the first time roads and railroads began to challenge the dominance of waterways as the principal means of transportation.

Several of Virginia's towns emerged as urban and commercial centers in this era, including Richmond, Norfolk, Alexandria, and Petersburg. Manufacturing activities, diffused in pockets throughout the countryside during the colonial period, became concentrated in towns and cities. Richmond, for example, became a center of ironmaking and milling.

Slavery as an institution reached its peak during this period. It was, in fact, the growing controversy over slavery that dominated the minds and emotions of Virginians and characterized the era. In 1831, Nat Turner's Rebellion in Southampton County realized slave owners' worst fears and resulted in the passage of harsh laws by the General Assembly regarding slaves and free blacks, in the suppression of public debate over the abolition of slavery, and in a general hardening of southern public opinion in favor of retaining the institution. The Civil War that concluded this period was the violent climax of emotions aroused by the slavery question and states' rights. [VDHR 2011:127]

A number of turnpikes were built in Virginia in the 1820s and 1830s, and those in Augusta County included the Staunton and James River Turnpike through Waynesboro, the Rockfish Gap to Scottsville, the Valley Turnpike along the route of the Great Wagon Road between Staunton and Winchester, and the Staunton and Parkersburg Turnpike between the Shenandoah Valley and the Ohio River along present-day U.S. 250 (Staunton-Parkersburg Turnpike Alliance 2014; Sturm 2010; Young 1975). Staunton was incorporated in 1801, and as a result of transportation improvements and the construction of taverns, businesses, a bank, schools, and institutions (including a school for the deaf and an insane asylum), its population grew to 2,500 by 1850. In the first half of the nineteenth century, many buildings were designed in the Greek Revival style, with Italianate and Gothic Revival taking precedence after 1850 (Brown 1985; Schilling 2000).

The success of the Erie Canal in New York, which opened in 1825, was an impetus for internal improvements throughout the U.S. The canal increased the volume of agricultural products exported from western areas and greatly reduced the cost of their shipment, creating new prosperity for towns along its route (Bernstein 2005:26–27). In 1832, the Virginia legislature incorporated the former James River Company as the James River and Kanawha Canal Company. By 1851, the 196-mile canal had been constructed across the state from Richmond at the Fall Line to Buchanan in Botetourt County, with connections to Lexington and improvements to the Rivanna River completed in the 1850s (Hill and Trout 1971; Town of Buchanan, Virginia 2011). New Market (present-day Norwood) in Nelson County was an important port for shipping on the James River and Kanawha Canal. By 1835, the community included a store, warehouse, tavern, grist and saw mill, blacksmith shop, two physicians, and 12–14 houses (Smith 2014; Thomas Jefferson Planning District Commission 1993). Canal traffic was heaviest in the 1850s as tobacco, wheat, timber, and iron ore from western Virginia were shipped to Richmond. These goods, and the grist mills fed by the canal's channels, enabled Richmond to become a major producer and exporter of flour (National Park Service 2015b). Richmond's Tredegar Iron Works was Virginia's largest iron manufacturing facility, but sizeable furnaces also existed in Buckingham and Nelson counties (Grymes 2014g; Heinemann et al. 2007:204; U.S. Forest Service 2015).

The utility of canals faded in the second quarter of the nineteenth century as rail lines were constructed throughout the state. The Baltimore & Ohio (B&O) Railroad was completed to Harpers Ferry in 1834, and reached the Ohio River at Wheeling in 1850 (Frey 2010). The Virginia Central Railroad, chartered in 1836 as the Louisa Railroad, was completed between Richmond and Staunton in 1854. Together with the turnpikes, it enabled Staunton to develop as the largest town in the upper Shenandoah Valley and become a transportation and industrial center. In 1853, the Commonwealth chartered the Covington & Ohio Railroad to connect the Virginia Central Railroad at Staunton and the James River & Kanawha Canal at Covington with the Ohio River. In 1868, the Virginia Central and Covington & Ohio Railroads were consolidated as the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad (C&O), and competed with the B & O Railroad for the Ohio

Valley trade (Brown 1985; Grymes 2014h; Larson 2001:72). In Southampton County, the Portsmouth and Roanoke rail line constructed bridges across the Nottoway and Blackwater rivers. The town of Franklin developed at the Blackwater junction in the early 1840s. Farmville in Prince Edward County, established in 1798 on the Appomattox River, had become the fourth largest tobacco market in Virginia by the 1840s, and the arrival of the Southside Railroad in the late 1850s enabled it to expand its commercial and tobacco-processing industries (Edwards 1989). In 1857, the Petersburg-Norfolk Railroad was also completed through Southampton County (Southampton County, Virginia 2011).

The coal for that fueled railroad and canal construction in the state was first mined near Richmond, and until 1828, Virginia led Pennsylvania in coal production. By the 1840s, coal production in the Allegheny region was greater than in the eastern part of the state, providing not only fuel for the locomotives but the principal freight of its cars (Heinemann et al. 2007:203–204).

The advent of the railroad was a metaphor for a national network providing assistance to persons escaping from slavery in the South. The term “Underground Railroad” emerged around 1831 for the network of safe places en route to the North. The homes and businesses where fugitives could rest and eat were called “stations” and “depots” and were run by “stationmasters.” Those who contributed money or goods were “stockholders,” and the “conductor” was responsible for moving fugitives from one station to the next (Public Broadcasting Service 2015). In Virginia, numerous locations associated with the Underground Railroad have been identified along the rail lines in Richmond and in the Tidewater region near Norfolk (Race, Time, and Place 2015).

In 1831, the most significant slave rebellion in U.S. history began in Southampton County. Nat Turner, an enslaved field worker and Baptist lay preacher, along with six fellow slaves, traveled between eleven plantations, killing all the white people (a total of 55), and gaining a following of fifty or sixty enslaved men. When confronted by the militia, they fled into the woods and the Dismal Swamp. In the following months, many were captured and executed. Virginia subsequently passed legislation further restricting the behavior of both enslaved persons and free blacks (Heinemann et al. 2007:174–175; Johnson 2007:106–107; Wood and Walbert 2009). No large-scale slave revolts occurred after Nat Turner's uprising in 1831, but the enslaved workers undermined the slave economy by working inefficiently, taking goods from their masters, breaking tools, and running away. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, which was part of the Compromise of 1850, empowered federal officials to assist owners seeking to reclaim runaway slaves (Library of Virginia 2014a). Demonstrations against slavery and return of escaped slaves in northern states were viewed by slaveholding Southerners as a violation of their Constitutional right to recapture their property (Heinemann et al. 2007:215).

Efforts to extend slavery into the western states led to increased tensions and occasional clashes between slaveholders and abolitionists. In 1859, abolitionist John Brown led two of his sons and a force of black and white men in an attack on the federal armory at Harper's Ferry, intending to seize the arms and incite enslaved and free blacks to form an army that would force slaveholders to free their slaves. The raid was unsuccessful, and Brown was captured and executed for murder, conspiracy to incite a slave uprising, and treason against the Commonwealth of Virginia (Heinemann et al. 2007:215–216; World History Group 2015a). Recovered correspondence suggested that Brown had acted with the support of influential abolitionists in the North, prompting Virginia Governor Henry Wise to expand the state's militia and launch a crackdown on suspected agitators (Heinemann et al. 2007:216).

Residents in the western part of Virginia, including what is now West Virginia, were less enthusiastic in their support of slavery than the Tidewater gentry of the eastern counties, and as early as the Virginia Constitutional Convention of 1829–1830 had supported abolition. However, political and economic power remained with the planters and moneyed interests of the Chesapeake region, and the slavery question would eventually precipitate a nationwide conflict and tear the state in two (Johnson 2007:126–127; Heinemann et al. 2007: 171–174, 208).

CIVIL WAR (1861–1865)

Much of the Civil War was fought on Virginia soil and throughout the Commonwealth survive battlefields, fortifications, earthworks, military headquarters, shipwreck sites, and other places that figured in the events of the bloody conflict. Among Virginia's main Civil War battlefields, Manassas, Fredericksburg, Spotsylvania Court House, the Wilderness, Petersburg, Richmond, and Appomattox, along with associated cultural landscapes, buildings, structures, and archaeological sites, are preserved by the National Park Service as outstanding, if poignant, historic resources and reminders of the national struggle. While many examples remain preserved through private and local governmental efforts, many other Civil War-era resources have no protection at all and are routinely lost, with acreage consumed almost daily as Virginia continues to experience increasing development. [VDHR 2011:127–128]

The Virginia Convention of 1861 was convened in February, after the November presidential election of Abraham Lincoln led to the secession from the Union of South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas, and the formation of the Confederate States of America (World History Group 2015b). The majority of the delegates favored Virginia remaining in the Union on the condition that Lincoln forswore any coercion of the seceded states. However, the April conflict at Fort Sumter and Lincoln's call for troops to suppress the rebellion led to a vote for Virginia to secede. A number of delegates from the western counties voted against secession, and used the process to create a new state, with the northwestern counties becoming the Reorganized Government of Virginia, later re-named West Virginia (Heinemann et al. 2007:219; Williams 2013). The Virginia militia seized the arsenal at Harper's Ferry and also the Gosport Navy Yard at Norfolk, and the capital of the Confederate States was moved to Richmond (Heinemann et al. 2007:223). The commercial center at Suffolk—connected to Norfolk by rail as well as via the Nansemond and James rivers—was occupied by Confederate troops in 1861–1862, and by Union troops in 1862–1863 during skirmishes for the control of the Nansemond and Blackwater rivers (Wills 2001).

Staunton's role as a transportation hub and a collection point for the agricultural produce of the Shenandoah Valley was valued by both the Union and Confederate armies. In 1862, Confederate General Thomas "Stonewall" Jackson's "Valley Campaign" distracted Union forces focused on Richmond by attacking Union-held locations in the Shenandoah Valley. Jackson's victories also enabled the Confederacy to secure Staunton. After a battle in Kernstown in Frederick County, Jackson set up a headquarters at Elkton, between the Blue Ridge and Massanutten Mountains in Rockingham County, as Union troops approached. Jackson deceived Union forces by marching his army east to Charlottesville, then boarding trains to return to Staunton, and marching west to the mountains of recently-formed Highland County to shut off that access route to the Valley. At the Battle of McDowell, Jackson defeated the Union forces to prevent capture of Staunton via the Staunton and Parkersburg Turnpike (Shenandoah Valley Battlefields Foundation 2015a, 2015b).

In the late summer and fall of 1864, as part of his objective to cut off the Confederate supply line, U.S. General Ulysses S. Grant called for the destruction of the Shenandoah Valley's agricultural resources. After two months of fighting southward in the Shenandoah Valley from the Potomac River to Rockfish Gap near Waynesboro, attempting to destroy the Virginia Central Railroad, Union troops occupied Staunton. But General Philip H. Sheridan convinced Grant that his forces could not proceed further south. During the burning of the "Breadbasket of the Confederacy," Sheridan's troops withdrew to the north, systematically burning mills, barns, and public buildings, and destroying or carrying away grain, livestock and forage. Staunton's charitable and educational institutions were spared, but its railroad station, factories, foundries and mills were destroyed (Brown 1985; Shenandoah Valley Battlefields Foundation 2015c). Without Shenandoah Valley produce to sustain them, the cavalry and infantry units of both armies had to forage. Union troops returned to Staunton in February 1865, and after overcoming Confederate units at Waynesboro in Augusta County, the Union soldiers continued over the Blue Ridge Mountains to Charlottesville, confiscating horses and food supplies from farms in the countryside to the south while destroying the locks of the James River Canal, en route to Petersburg. In the vicinity of the Project, the lock at New Market (present-day Norwood) was destroyed and the adjacent Tye River warehouse was burned (Shenandoah Valley Battlefields Foundation 2015d; Smith 2014:19).

One of Grant's targets was the railroad hub at Petersburg. As part of the Richmond-Petersburg Campaign (also known as the Siege of Petersburg), Grant sent cavalry divisions to Southside Virginia to destroy the track, buildings, supplies, and rolling stock. In June 1864, under U.S. Generals James Wilson and August Kautz, the Wilson-Kautz Raid (also known as the Battle of Nottoway) destroyed portions of the Southside and Richmond & Danville railroads (Civil War Traveler 2014; Virginia State Parks 2011). Another mission to cut rail lines in December 1864 was the Hicksford Raid (in present-day Emporia) in Greensville County, in which U.S. Major General Gouverneur K. Warren's troops marched from Petersburg down the Weldon Railroad, wrecking 16–17 miles of it from the Nottoway River to the Meherrin River, confronting Confederate troops at Hicksford (The Siege of Petersburg Online 2014).

On April 1, 1865, Union Forces at the Battle of Five Forks captured the Southside rail line, the last one supplying Petersburg. The following day, Confederate General Robert E. Lee prepared to evacuate Petersburg and Richmond (Virginia Historical Society 2015a). As the Confederate forces retreated across Southside Virginia, battles occurred in Nottoway and Cumberland counties, with Confederate forces withdrawing after the Battle of Cumberland Church to the north of Farmville, just as Union troops arrived to occupy the town in Prince Edward County (Snedden 2015).

RECONSTRUCTION AND GROWTH (1866–1916)

Following the economic deprivation of the war years, the defeat of the South at the end of the Civil War led to further financial hardship, and in Virginia, the southern state most devastated by the war, a long period of rebuilding lay ahead. During Reconstruction, major changes occurred in Virginia, the effects of which greatly influenced the state well into the twentieth century. During this period, the foundations were laid for modern America to move away from a heavily agrarian-based economy to emerge as an industrialized and urban nation.

The expansion of Virginia's cities as commercial and industrial centers continued after the war as the state struggled to emerge from the ruins of the Confederacy. The late nineteenth century in particular became a time of enormous growth as Virginians found

new wealth in the mining of coal and mineral resources, the exploitation of forest products, tobacco manufacturing, and the expansion of railroad and shipping lines.

Most of this prosperity was realized by white Virginians, not by most of the state's black residents. Although freedmen benefited from the brief period of military Reconstruction at the end of the war, when education, suffrage, and land ownership became available to blacks at last, their new-found freedom was quickly circumscribed by a new phenomenon – institutionalized racism. The white-dominated political and economic power structure ensured that black laborers were paid less than whites, that black schools received less funding than white schools, that black access to public facilities remained inferior to that of whites and that blacks (with the adoption of the 1902 Constitution) lost the franchise.

Blacks responded to racial segregation by creating their own institutions. During this period African Americans established independent black churches, corporations, and educational institutions, as well as fraternal and social self-help organizations. Despite this, however, lack of equal access to public institutions and programs, which had become cemented in Virginia's social and political structure, resulted in a lower degree of economic and political advancement for most blacks. [VDHR 2011:128]

Virginia's entire economy had been devoted to the Confederate war effort, with the armies provided with food from farms, along with supplies from arsenals and factories at Lynchburg and Danville in Southside Virginia, iron furnaces in the Shenandoah Valley, lead mines near Wytheville and salt from Smyth County in southwest Virginia (Heinemann et al. 2007:234). At the war's end, much of the lower Shenandoah Valley had been burned, and the region from Richmond west to the Blue Ridge Mountains had been scoured for food, fodder, and wood. For six months after the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia at Appomattox, thousands of Virginians survived on rations provided by the Union army. The Confederate government-issued currency was worthless and most residents' personal savings had been depleted, resulting in a barter economy for the scarce goods available (Heinemann et al. 2007:241–242). With the assistance of Freedmen's Bureaus, some emancipated slaves looked for work in tobacco factories and flour mills, or used skills they had learned on plantations to start their own businesses as blacksmiths, shoemakers, and draymen, while others became hired agricultural laborers (Heinemann et al. 2007:243).

In 1867, Congress placed the South under military administration, with Virginia designated as Military District Number One (Library of Virginia 2014b). A constitutional convention was held in 1867–1868 to write the new laws of the Commonwealth (Heinemann et al. 2007:248). Its General Assembly ratified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, and President Ulysses S. Grant readmitted Virginia to the Union in 1870 (Heinemann et al. 2007:250). The Virginia legislature pledged to pay its public debt that added wartime interest to its pre-war commitments for canal and railroad construction, and raised funds with coupon bonds whose coupons could be used by the bond holder instead of cash to pay state taxes. Following the end of the war, much of Virginia experienced Depression-like conditions, worsened by drought and high property taxes. Those who protested the funding act, many of whom were in rural areas, expected that it would raise property taxes and that the decline in revenues would result in state services being unfunded. They sought to have the interest rate of the debt readjusted lower, which was not achieved politically until 1881 (Heinemann et al. 2007:251, 258).

After the assassination of President Abraham Lincoln, President Andrew Johnson granted a Presidential pardon to those who aided the Southern war effort, and restored property rights in the South with the exception of slaves (Blue and Gray Trail 2015). With the loss of enslaved

labor, many plantations divided their land into small parcels and farms, which were rented to tenants or worked in a sharecropping agreement. Between 1860 and 1900, the number of farms tripled while their average size was reduced by a third (Heinemann et al. 2007:272–273). Crop yields were lower and prices declined, and small landowners, tenants and croppers were often in debt to local merchants for food, seed and fertilizer. By 1900, one third of Virginia farmers did not own the land they worked. Some former planters relocated to cities such as Richmond for opportunities in the recovering markets and industries, becoming absentee landlords of their agricultural homes. (Heinemann et al. 2007:252). A large percentage of agricultural tenants and sharecroppers raised tobacco in Southside Virginia, but the limited area of sandy soil required for its production resulted in the loss of Virginia’s position as the leading producer of tobacco to North Carolina and Kentucky (Heinemann et al. 2007:273).

In Staunton, the federal troops left in early 1866. A considerable number of former slaves moved from the eastern part of the state seeking higher wages and more tolerant surroundings. Three black churches were soon organized, with the 1865 African Episcopal Church being Virginia’s first black church west of the Blue Ridge. These churches also served as schools and social centers for the black community (Brown 1985). Construction began in 1873 on the Valley Railroad line between Staunton and Winchester, which was later leased to the B&O Railroad (Abandoned Rails 2013).

Major floods on the James River in 1870 and 1877 contributed to the insolvency of the James River and Kanawha Canal. In 1880, the right-of-way for the route of the bankrupt canal company was conveyed to the Richmond and Allegheny Railroad, which built a rail line on the former canal’s towpath. This line was acquired by the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad in 1888, which constructed depots at both Norwood and Wingina around 1900 (Grymes 2014i; Smith 2014:25, 28).

In 1865, at Norwood in Nelson County, the Cabell family home “Norwood,” which had been built by William Daniel Cabell on the Union Hill property to the west of “Soldier’s Joy” in 1856, was converted to the Norwood High School and College, to provide secondary education for young men returning from Civil War service. The academy continued operation until 1897, at times on the support of the Cabell family. In 1887, the Cabell family donated land west of Union Hill for the St. John Baptist African-American church at Pine Hill Lane and for the Bethany United Methodist Church at Findlay Gap Road. The post office in the town of New Market, which had been known as Tye River Warehouse since 1821, was re-named Norwood in 1859. The post office at the nearby village of Hardwicksville changed its name to Wingina in 1889 (Smith 2014:24, 27).

As tobacco production began to decline, Nelson County became known for its apples. Andrew Stevenson, U.S. minister to Great Britain from 1838 to 1841, whose home was in Albemarle County, Virginia, presented some Albemarle Pippin apples (prized as a dessert apple) to Queen Victoria. As a mark of her regard and gratitude, the Albemarle Pippin was designated a duty-free export and commanded premium prices in Britain. As a result, the Rockfish Valley became a center for apple production in the 1880s (Agelasto et al. 2006; Albemarle CiderWorks 2015). In Suffolk, some grain was produced in addition to tobacco, but a larger segment of the local economy was based on juniper and cypress shingles, lumber, tar, and turpentine harvested from the Dismal Swamp, as well as oyster packing. In addition to the Norfolk & Western and Seaboard & Roanoke railroads, the Suffolk and Carolina railroad was opened in 1885 and was projected to connect the Nansemond River to shipping ports on Albemarle Sound in North Carolina, encouraging the development of Suffolk as a processing and shipping center for the

lumber industry. The first peanut processing plant was opened in 1898, with Planters Peanuts moving their main facility to Suffolk in 1912 to be closer to the peanut plantations of Nansemond (of which Suffolk was a part until 1974) and surrounding counties. The construction of the Albermarle and Chesapeake Canal through the agricultural land of Norfolk County in 1858 created economic competition with the Dismal Swamp Canal, but the population of Suffolk doubled in the 1870s (Carolana 2015; City of Chesapeake 2015a; Wagner and Laub 1986).

Sections of the Southside Railroad destroyed during the war in 1865 were rebuilt, and in 1870, the railroad merged with the Norfolk and Petersburg Railroad and the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad to create the Atlantic Mississippi and Ohio Railroad, stretching from Norfolk to Bristol in southwestern Virginia. In 1881, it was reorganized as the Norfolk and Western Railroad, and helped to make Norfolk the largest coaling station in the world, as well as an exporter of lumber, cotton, and peanuts (Heinemann et al. 2007:262; Longwood University 2015a). The Portsmouth & Roanoke Railroad was completed to Norfolk County in 1835, enabling it to compete with Richmond and Petersburg, which had the advantage of rail and steamship facilities. However, the Portsmouth & Roanoke was soon merged into the Seaboard & Roanoke. In the postbellum period, Norfolk County's large plantations were divided into farms of 100 acres or less. Many of them operated as truck farms growing produce for northern markets, raising spinach, kale, peas, beans, berries, corn, and wheat, in addition to peanuts (Culhane 1999).

South of the Appomattox River in Prince Edward County, the Farmville Female Seminary, founded in 1839, was acquired by the Commonwealth in 1884. Its rotunda was constructed, and later became a state Normal School (Longwood University 2015b). In Suffolk, the Suffolk Female Institute was established in 1869, and located in the former Central Hotel, with the Suffolk Collegiate Institute chartered in 1872 (Library of Virginia 2014c; Wagner and Laub 1986).

In the 1880s, a movement called for industrial progress in the "New South," in contrast to the agricultural/plantation-oriented "Old South". Although Virginia remained predominantly agricultural, tobacco factories, coal mines, and textile, flour, and lumber mills were established (Virginia Historical Society 2015b). In 1880, Richmond was the second largest manufacturing center in the South, particularly in flour milling, iron making, and tobacco production. The development of mass-produced cigarettes beginning in the 1870s helped drive Richmond's economic recovery. The new prosperity funded infrastructure improvements like an electric street railway system and a central telephone exchange that were installed in the 1880s. However, many of the investors in Virginia's industrial growth were in the northern states, and a large percentage of the profits generated did not remain in Virginia. Approximately 80 percent of Virginia's citizens lived in rural areas, and did not see improvements to utility services until well into the twentieth century (Heinemann et al. 2007:263–265).

A financial panic in 1893 triggered another period of economic depression. The Panic of 1893 coincided with a glut of cotton and tobacco on the world markets, resulting in low commodity prices that forced many farmers to default on loans previously taken out for new equipment, additional land, and other investments. Some lost their farms and tenancy rates increased, particularly in the cotton belt. In the non-farm economy, widespread bankruptcies, closing factories, and skyrocketing urban unemployment continued through 1897 (Heinemann et al. 2007:265, 275; Knetsch and Wynne 2011:31; Whitten 2003; United States History 2014b).

The challenges of the New South led to nostalgia for real or imagined better times of the past. In 1894, United Daughters of the Confederacy (UDC) was formed as a women's group that

memorialized Southerners killed in the Civil War, participated in veterans reunions, and established cemeteries and monuments to commemorate the “Lost Cause.” The UDC was formed to protect and perpetuate Confederate Memory, celebrating the traditional privileges of race, gender, and class by casting them as “natural” parts of the region's history (Heinemann et al. 2007:253; Janney 2014).

In 1896, the U.S. Supreme Court's *Plessy v. Ferguson* decision opened the door for Southern states to enact racial segregation laws. The ruling set a precedent that “separate” facilities for blacks and whites were constitutional as long as they were “equal.” The “separate but equal” doctrine was quickly extended to cover many areas of public life, such as restaurants, theaters, restrooms, public schools, and public conveyances such as railroads. However, the facilities for blacks were usually inferior to those for whites (Heinemann et al. 2007:271; Wormser 2002). In 1926, the Public Assemblage Act required segregated seating at public gatherings. Virginia's 1924 Racial Integrity Act defined “white” as a person who had no trace of African American blood: the “one drop” rule (Heinemann et al. 2007:301–302). The 1902 Virginia constitution disenfranchised most African Americans (and about half of the white electorate) through poll tax and literacy tests, encouraging many black residents to move out of state (Heinemann et al. 2007:276–277).

In the early 1900s, the Progressive movement addressed the lack of funding for teachers, inadequate school facilities, and Virginia's 23 percent illiteracy rate. The 1906 Mann High School Act provided funding for the construction of high schools across the state. In rural areas, many of the new high schools provided agricultural education for boys, and domestic sciences for girls. The poor condition of Virginia's roads was also addressed, with the formation of the Virginia Good Roads Association and the 1906 creation of the State Highway Commission (Heinemann et al. 2007:279–283).

By 1920, Virginia's farms experienced increases in productivity, acreage, and prices, with diversification in potatoes, peanuts, apples, and livestock production. Although the state's agricultural economy was less dependent on tobacco, it was still the largest cash crop (Heinemann et al. 2007:283).

WORLD WAR I TO WORLD WAR II (1917–1945)

During this period, country residents migrated to cities in large numbers, as America became a truly urban nation and the number of viable operating farms began to decline. Many independent small farmers and sharecroppers from the rural South moved to the North's industrialized cities for better job opportunities and, for blacks, the hope of greater social equality as well. The decline in agricultural employment was accelerated by changes in farming, including the increasing use of more effective fertilizers and mechanization, resulting in a reduction of labor required for crop production.

As the country urbanized and its population experienced dramatic growth, two events occurred that transformed the roles and power of the national and state governments: the Great Depression and World War II. The existing political and financial structure was inadequate to deal with the negative economic consequences of the Great Depression, so the size and scope of government programs expanded to treat them. Likewise, the logistical and organizational problems presented by the war resulted in an increase in the number and size of government agencies to overcome them. The Virginia scene changed dramatically with the rapid growth of a federal presence during this period, to meet the country's military mission in particular, and housing developments sprang up especially in

Northern Virginia and Tidewater to house military personnel, war effort workers, and federal employees. State government grew similarly during this time.

These changes had several effects upon the landscape of Virginia and upon its historic resources. During the Depression, the federal government sponsored public works programs that improved highways and constructed public buildings, bridges, and parks throughout the state. These programs also served to halt the decline of the state's population. Synthetic textile industries were established in many areas of the state. The war brought thousands of servicemen and servicewomen to the Virginia suburbs of Washington, D.C. and to the Norfolk area, many of whom remained in Virginia after the war.

Traditionally a largely rural state with a generally poor network of roads, Virginia joined the national movement in standardizing auto-related transportation networks during this period. While streetcars contributed to the growth of suburbs, better roads and faster travel increased Virginia's role as a tourist destination, with Colonial Williamsburg – founded in the 1920s and developed in the 1930s with reconstruction and restoration of buildings in the colonial town – becoming a major attraction. [VDHR 2011:128–129]

Following the United States' 1917 entry into World War I, a U.S. Naval Operating Base was established at Norfolk, on the grounds of the 1907 Jamestown Exposition. Operations during World War I and World War II at the Naval Operating Base in Norfolk more than doubled its size. The former Gosport Shipyard in Portsmouth became the homeport for Navy ships based at Hampton Roads. The St. Julien's Creek Annex in Chesapeake, used as an ordnance and material storage facility since 1849, was used to supply ammunition to the fleet, as well as to conduct experiments and test loading for new ammunition (Butt 1951[1960]; McPhillips 2015; Virginia Department of Environmental Quality 2002).

The proximity of the naval yards provided employment to residents throughout Norfolk County. Opportunities to work away from the farm combined with improvements in mechanization and agricultural yields decreased the size of both farms and the agricultural workforce. Housing was constructed in the towns hosting the military installations for workers supporting the war effort. The construction of both single family and multi-family developments created the first wave of suburban expansion in the Tidewater region (Culhane 1999).

Following the World War I boom, a post-war recession caused increased unemployment with the return to "normalcy." Between 1919 and 1921, Virginia's gross farm income declined by 55 percent, and prices of produce dropped by 65 percent—no longer propped up by wartime demand. During the 1920s, agriculture became more diversified in the state, with more dairy farming and orchard development, but one third of Virginia's population had become urban (Heinemann et al. 2007:299, 305).

The effects of the Great Depression were delayed in Virginia, which was initially buffered by its economic balance between agriculture, industry, commerce and subsistence-level farming, as well as federal funding in the areas near Washington D.C. and Norfolk. However, a drought crippled the agricultural sector in 1930, exacerbating broader economic problems. The value of manufactured products in Virginia fell by 30 percent (compared with 50 percent nationwide), and farm prices—including tobacco prices—declined. Many farmers stopped growing tobacco and focused on raising livestock and poultry, producing dairy products, and harvesting pulpwood from timber lots. Some rural businesses were ruined by the loss of farm income. Farmers struggled to prevent foreclosure on their farms and destroyed farm produce rather than sell it at

prices lower than the cost of production. By 1933, steel production fell to 12 percent of capacity, and industrial construction was 8 percent of its 1929 level, with more than 25 percent of the workforce unemployed (Heinemann et al. 2007:311–314).

Buckingham, Cumberland, Prince Edward, Nottoway, Dinwiddie, Brunswick, and Greensville counties are part of the Southside Virginia tobacco-producing region (Virginia Tobacco Indemnification and Community Revitalization Commission 2007). Farms producing tobacco benefitted from a federal commodity price support program established under the Agricultural Adjustment Act of 1938 (Womach 2004). It stabilized tobacco prices by issuing marketing quotas to control supply by limiting the amount of tobacco grown. In return, farmers were guaranteed a price for their product above the cost of production (Huntrods 2012). Each farm's quota was assigned to the land, to enable farm income to be supported through artificially high market prices, instead of direct government payments (Womach 2004).

Many Virginians weathered the Depression years with assistance from President Roosevelt's New Deal programs. For example, under the New Deal's Federal Emergency Relief Administration, 40,000 to 50,000 Virginians were given work constructing schools, roads, parks, and sewers, while a Women's Work Division provided jobs in libraries, sewing rooms, and in clerical and recreational positions. The Works Progress Administration built roads, bridges, schools, post offices, hospitals and libraries (Heinemann et al. 2007:316, 319). Virginia also reaped the benefit of infrastructure improvements and various conservation and stewardship projects carried out by the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). Beginning in 1933, the CCC provided relief by employing more than three million men. The CCC put most of its effort into controlling erosion and flooding, but also engaged in forestry and wildlife management. Its contributions in Virginia included planting 15.2 million trees in reforestation and erosion control efforts, constructing 986 bridges, reducing fire hazards over 152,000 acres, stringing 2,128 miles of new telephone line, and stocking 1.3 million fish (Heinemann 2014; Virginia State Parks 2013). One CCC project was Camp Sherando in Augusta County, where workers constructed an earth-filled dam and 25-acre lake, excavated a channel and canal, and built a public campground, parking area, and truck trails between 1936–1938. The camp had semi-permanent wooden buildings, and after its closure as a CCC camp in 1941, it was used at the beginning of World War II as a Civilian Public Service camp for conscientious objectors (Otis et al. 1986).

After the Nazi invasion of France in 1940, government contracts for shipbuilding in Virginia increased. Employment in the Norfolk area quadrupled, creating housing and other shortages. Despite the urgent need for labor, segregated facilities and transportation were still required by law in the Southern states, even at federal facilities and projects. College campuses were used for government research laboratories and officer training units. Preparation for war created an economic boom that ended the Depression. Industrial production of chemicals, clothing, furniture, and tobacco also increased. Prices rose for farm products, while the number of farms decreased due the greater use of machinery, thus forcing many sharecroppers and tenant farmers to move to to urban areas (Heinemann et al. 2007:323, 325–326).

In 1912, the Albemarle and Chesapeake Canal company could not meet its mortgage payments, and was purchased by the U.S. government as a toll-free intracoastal waterway. Following the passage of the River and Harbor Act of 1927, the Dismal Swamp Canal was also purchased by the federal government, becoming part of the Atlantic Intracoastal Waterway channel that was developed from Norfolk, Virginia, to Miami, Florida. This 3,000-mile inland water route was used to safely ship large quantities of military cargo during World War II away

from submarine activity in the Atlantic Ocean (City of Chesapeake, Virginia 2015b; U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Norfolk District 2015; Walbert 2009).

During World War II, nearly all captured enemy personnel in Europe were transferred to camps within the United States. One of Virginia's base camps for prisoners of war was Camp Lyndhurst, located in Augusta County, south of Waynesboro at the former Civilian Conservation Corps Camp Sherando (Melton 2006:117). Due to wartime labor shortages, the prisoners of war at Camp Lyndhurst were contracted to perform agricultural labor in Augusta County, including harvesting the bumper apple crop in 1944, pulpwood cutting, logging, lumber production and food processing. North of Staunton, the Ingleside Resort and its golf course were requisitioned as an internment camp for German and Italian diplomats, their families, and staff members who were captured at their respective consulates during the Allies' desert campaigns in North Africa. These civilian internees held at the Ingleside Hotel were not required to work as the military prisoners were (Owen 2009).

With the progress of the war in Europe, U.S. Army surveyors identified former CCC Camp Pickett, east of Blackstone, as a location for a large post. In 1942, 42,000 acres in Nottoway, Dinwiddie, Lunenburg, and Brunswick counties were acquired and cleared to convert the camp into Fort Pickett. Its rapid development was a top priority after the U.S.'s entry into World War II. One thousand barracks were constructed for enlisted soldiers, with 70 officer's quarters and 400 administrative, storage, and special-purpose buildings. An Army airfield and railways were constructed to move troops on and off base, and the site had its own water and sewage treatment plants. Over 2,400 prisoners of war were held at Fort Pickett, in an area separated from the troops preparing for deployment (Freitus 2014; Seagrave 2012; Virginia National Guard 2014).

THE NEW DOMINION (1946 TO THE PRESENT)

Since World War II, the growth of government and related businesses in Washington, D.C., and in Richmond, has affected the adjacent counties as farmland has been lost in favor of housing and service facilities. A related phenomenon – the transportation route as development corridor – has occurred in the last half of the twentieth century. Although in previous periods some towns and villages were created or grew along the routes of internal improvements, such development remained fairly localized. More recently, however, not only have large communities sprung into being near highways such as Interstate 95, but a correspondingly elaborate system of support facilities has been established with them, including schools, shopping centers, office parks, airports, and additional roads. These transportation and support facilities presently exert the most dramatic pressures on historic resources and the natural environment in Virginia.

Such changes have been more a consequence than a cause of Virginia's exploding population growth since 1945. By 1955, Virginia had more urban residents than rural dwellers, and since that time the state has ranked fourteenth in population among the states. By 1990, most Virginians, like most Americans, live in suburbs defining the space between urban centers and rural regions.

Major themes define the Commonwealth's recent history, including the end of segregation and the victory of the Civil Rights movement; the increasing complexity of federal, state, and local government relations in social programs such as health, education, housing, community development, and welfare, and recognition of the challenge presented by promoting both economic development and environmental protection. These developments indicate that Virginia has entered a pivotal period of

transformation, while continuing to build upon the Commonwealth's rich history, manifested by Virginia's many significant historic resources. [VDHR 2011:129–130]

In the post-war period, service members returned with experience from outside Virginia, and others who had been stationed in Virginia during the war remained, often marrying and starting families. These outside experiences provided the challenged Virginia's status quo and led to criticism of the state government's failure to provide good schools, eliminate poll restrictions and voter fraud, and improve participation in the democratic process. In 1947, Virginia was 44th of 48 states in the percentage of income spent on education and in the percentage of persons receiving welfare assistance, and it was last in old age assistance. President Truman's Committee on Civil Rights recommended an immediate end to segregation, and in 1948 Truman desegregated the armed forces, while the Commission on Higher Education proposed an end to segregated schools nationwide (Heinemann et al. 2007:331, 334).

One of the five cases involved in the 1954 *Brown v. Board of Education*, Topeka, Kansas decision, arose out of a 1951 strike by African-American students at the Robert Russa Moton High School in Farmville in Prince Edward County. Following the U.S. Supreme Court ruling that "separate but equal" in public education was unconstitutional, Virginia Governor Tom Stanley framed the decision as another dangerous example of federal interference in state affairs that could undermine the political and social status quo. He stated that he would use all means at his disposal to continue a system of segregated education in Virginia, or repeal the section of the state constitution that provided for the maintenance of free public schools (Heinemann 2007:340, 342). In the subsequent "Massive Resistance" to school integration, public schools in counties throughout Virginia were closed in 1958 and 1959, with private academies being held at churches and other civic organizations. Schools in Prince Edward County were closed from 1959 to 1964 (Robert Russa Moton Museum 2015). Support for continued segregation was the strongest in the Southside counties, which had a high percentage of African-American residents, and fears of race-mixing were strong. Both the Virginia Supreme Court and the federal district court determined the state's actions to be unconstitutional (although the "freedom of choice" plans perpetuating school segregation were not declared illegal until 1968), and in 1959, black students entered formerly all-white schools, beginning with Norfolk and Arlington. Sit-ins were held in Richmond in 1960, and in Farmville and Danville in 1963, with segregation of public facilities ending after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Heinemann et al. 2007:341, 347–348, 355).

After World War II ended, federal expenditures and employment continued to sustain economic growth, and enabled expansion in Virginia's textile, chemical, and furniture industries. With the onset of the Korean War in 1950, the United States returned to a wartime status, with its defense industry mobilized, Virginia National Guard and reserve units activated, and Navy shipyard employment doubled (Heinemann et al. 2007:338). In 1953, the naval operations in Norfolk were re-named Naval Station Norfolk. Expanded in the 1970s and 1980s to accommodate larger ships and a rebuilt fleet, it is one of the largest military facilities in the world. During the space program of the 1960s, it served as the Recovery Control Center Atlantic, providing command and communications for all the ships and aircraft involved in the recovery of Apollo 7 (Taylor and Calhoun 2012).

The 1920 census showed that, for the first time, more Americans were living in urban areas than rural ones. But in Virginia, this transition did not occur until 1950, when the census recorded that the majority of Virginians lived in cities and towns. Although Virginia's population growth was concentrated in its southwestern counties at the beginning of the twentieth century, after 1950,

the center of population moved east toward the port cities and Richmond, and then north toward the Washington, D.C. metro area (Lombard 2014). By 1970, only 5 percent of Virginia's population lived on farms. In the early 2000s, when soybeans replaced tobacco as Virginia's largest cash crop, only half of those living in Virginia were natives, compared with 90 percent in 1900 (Heinemann et al. 2007:355, 375; Virginia Historical Society 2015c).

Augusta County continues to have the greatest amount of farm acreage among Virginia counties, and is a leader in agricultural products and the production of beef cattle, sheep and lambs, milk cows, and poultry (Augusta County, Virginia 2008). In Highland County, wool remains an important commodity, with the third largest number of sheep among Virginia counties (Highland County Chamber of Commerce 2014). Corn, soybeans, small grains and hay are produced in the Piedmont and Tidewater counties. Timber for lumber and pulp is processed, marketed, and stored in the City of Suffolk (Coleman et al. 1960; Hammer 2007; Harper and Nicholson 2009; Mooney and Caine 1901; Reber et al. 1981, 2007; Virginia Soil Survey Staff, Natural Resources Conservation Service 2009).

U.S. domestic production of tobacco was at its peak in 1954 and began to decline in the second half of the twentieth century, with domestic and foreign buyers turning to non-U.S. suppliers (Huntrods 2012, Internal Revenue Service 2011). Prices for the product grew as excise taxes were imposed, making tobacco one of the most heavily taxed agricultural commodities. As demand dropped, agricultural quota allotments consequently declined, which further limited production. In addition, concerns about the effects of smoking on health began to surface in the 1950s, and public smoking became increasingly restricted (Huntrods 2012). In 1998, the Attorneys General of 46 states signed the Master Settlement Agreement with the four largest tobacco companies in the United States to settle state suits to recover billions of dollars in costs associated with treating smoking-related illnesses. Virginia's share of the settlement was estimated at \$4.1 billion. Federal tobacco quotas and price supports were phased out beginning in 2005, and programs were instituted to ease farmers' transition to the free market. Forty-one counties in tobacco-dependent areas of Southwest and Southside Virginia, including Dinwiddie County, participated in the programs (Virginia Tobacco Indemnification and Community Revitalization Commission 2007).

As a result of the Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1956, a national system of highways was constructed in the 1960s and 1970s, and provided a boost to manufacturing in the Shenandoah Valley (Heinemann et al. 2007:353). As travel by automobile became more popular than rail travel through the early twentieth century, the Chesapeake & Ohio Railroad discontinued passenger service on the line in the 1960s, reducing the amount of commercial and tourist activity in its service area (Smith 2014:25).

During the twentieth century, textiles and furniture manufacturing became leading industries in the Piedmont region of Virginia. Today, textile manufacturing in Virginia—with production ranked fifth in the nation—is concentrated in the Southside region. The 1994 North American Free Trade Agreement intensified this industry's decline that began in the 1970's with increased globalization and technological advances (Kestner 1999; Virginia Main Street Communities 2016).

In 1974, Nansemond County was consolidated with the city of Suffolk, becoming the largest city in Virginia (Advisory Council on Historic Preservation 2009). While still the home of Planters Peanuts, the company's stature as a major employer in Suffolk has waned with the growth in

military computer technology research, government jobs and the construction of a Target distribution center (Applegate 2006).

RESULTS

This chapter presents the information assembled during the updated file search and the results of recent survey efforts.

PREVIOUSLY RECORDED RESOURCES IN THE VICINITY OF THE PROJECT

ERM collected information on known historic resources within 0.5 miles of the Project (see Voisin George et al. 2016). Among those, seven are listed on the NRHP, four of which are also listed on the Virginia Landmarks Register (VLR). Most recorded resources within 0.5 miles of the Project have not been assessed for NRHP eligibility or are considered not eligible. Among the 711 previously recorded historic resources within 0.5 miles of the Project, 172 are located in the APE, based on terrain analysis and observations about the viewshed during the field survey. During previous surveys by Dovetail for the current Project, those 172 resources were documented and reported (Lesiuk et al. 2016, Staton 2016), along with an additional 122 historic resources. Some of the resources discussed in previous survey reports for the Project are no longer in the APE. A final historic resource report will be prepared that summarizes previous findings, lists resources in the APE of the final Project design, and provides assessment of Project effects on NRHP-eligible resources.

NEW SURVEY FINDINGS

A total of 37 resources were surveyed during the current field effort (Table 1). The current document contains descriptions of six previously unrecorded resources that were formerly inaccessible or were associated with proposed access roads and facilities associated with the Project. In addition to these resources, ERM resurveyed 12 previously recorded resources in the APE that had not been surveyed as part of this Project and 19 resources surveyed as part of this Project for which VDHR required additional information. The resources discussed in the sections that follow are summarized in Table 1 below. The referenced photographs and sketch maps for each resource can be found in Appendix B. Sketch maps for inaccessible properties are based on aerial imagery provided by ESRI (2013–2015).

Table 1.			
Summary of Resources in the APE			
Resource	Map Location	Description	NRHP Recommendation
<i>Augusta County</i>			
007-0003*	Appendix A, Sheet 3	Hughart Run Bridge	No longer extant
007-0119*	Appendix A, Sheet 3	Hamilton Draft Bridge	No longer extant
007-0272*	Appendix A, Sheet 5	James Thompson House	Eligible
007-0397*	Appendix A, Sheet 6	Single pen log house, ca. 1860	Ineligible
007-0442*	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Hunter Mountain Farm, ca. 1800	Eligible
007-0459*	Appendix A, Sheet 4	Calfpasture River Steel Truss Bridge	No longer extant
007-1163*	Appendix A, Sheet 5	Bridge #6251, Dryden Rd (Rte 737), Moffett Cr.	Ineligible
007-5542#	Appendix A, Sheet 7	House, vernacular, ca. 1950	Assumed Eligible
007-5556#	Appendix A, Sheet 7	House, ranch, ca. 1950	Ineligible
007-5557#	Appendix A, Sheet 7	House, vernacular, ca. 1920	Ineligible
007-5584#	Appendix A, Sheet 6	Folk Victorian I-house, ca. 1900	Ineligible

Table 1.			
Summary of Resources in the APE			
Resource	Map Location	Description	NRHP Recommendation
007-5587#	Appendix A, Sheet 5	Modern house	Ineligible
007-5741	Appendix A, Sheet 3	Ranch house, 1974, historic outbuildings	Ineligible
007-5743	Appendix A, Sheet 4	House, vernacular, ca. 1935	Ineligible
<i>Bath County</i>			
008-5068	Appendix A, Sheet 2	Modern house and historic outbuildings	Ineligible
008-5069	Appendix A, Sheet 2	Ranch house, ca. 1964	Ineligible
<i>Brunswick County</i>			
012-5017#	Appendix A, Sheet 15	Sills Cemetery	Ineligible
012-5188#	Appendix A, Sheet 15	Cape Cod, 1953	Ineligible
012-5190#	Appendix A, Sheet 15	Cemetery, Belfield Rd	Ineligible
012-5191#	Appendix A, Sheet 14	Modular home, ca. 1960	Ineligible
<i>Buckingham County</i>			
014-5065#	Appendix A, Sheet 10	I-house, ca. 1880	Ineligible
014-5066#	Appendix A, Sheet 10	House, unknown	Assumed eligible
014-5074#	Appendix A, Sheet 11	Ranch, ca. 1950	Assumed eligible
014-5088	Appendix A, Sheet 9	Log cabin, ca. 1920	Ineligible
<i>City of Chesapeake</i>			
131-0035*	Appendix A, Sheet 21	Dismal Swamp Canal	Listed
131-5382*	Appendix A, Sheet 21	House, 1201 Richmond Ave	No longer extant
<i>Dinwiddie County</i>			
026-5222#	Appendix A, Sheet 13	House, ca. 1947	Assumed eligible
<i>Highland County</i>			
045-5090	Appendix A, Sheet 1	Agricultural buildings, ca. 1880	Ineligible
<i>Nelson County</i>			
062-5119-0113#	Appendix A, Sheet 8	House, ca. 1850	Eligible
<i>Nottoway County</i>			
067-0110	Appendix A, Sheets 12, 13, 14	Fort Pickett Historic District	Ineligible
<i>Southampton County</i>			
087-5610#	Appendix A, Sheet 16	House, ca. 1926	Assumed eligible
087-5613#	Appendix A, Sheet 17	I-house, ca. 1910	Ineligible
087-5618#	Appendix A, Sheet 18	House, unknown	Assumed eligible
<i>City of Suffolk</i>			
133-5481*	Appendix A, Sheet 19	House, ca. 1900 and cemetery	Ineligible
133-5482#	Appendix A, Sheet 19	House, unknown	Assumed eligible
133-5492#	Appendix A, Sheet 20	House, ca. 1920	Assumed eligible
133-5498#	Appendix A, Sheet 20	House, ca. 1920	Assumed eligible

indicates resources surveyed by Dovetail, resurveyed and reassessed by ERM in 2017.

* indicates resources recorded prior to survey work by Dovetail, resurveyed and reassessed by ERM in 2017.

Augusta County

Fourteen resources are recorded in Augusta County. Resources include bridges and dwellings. Twelve of the resources were previously recorded resources revisited by ERM in the current survey effort, and of these, five were previously visited as part of the Project. Two resources were newly recorded by ERM. Three of these resources, all of which are bridges, have been replaced. According to information from the Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT), 007-0003 was replaced in 1991, 007-0119 in 1990, and 007-0459 in 1987. ERM recommends that these resources no longer meet the age threshold to be considered eligible for the NRHP. ERM recommends that two resources, 007-0282, and 007-0442, both of which were previously recorded and recommended eligible remain eligible for inclusion on the NRHP. One property, 007-5542, is assumed to be eligible for Project purposes as full access could not be gained to make a conclusive NRHP assessment. One resource 007-5587 (see below) is modern and does not meet the age threshold for consideration on the NRHP. The remaining resources are recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP.

In addition to the resources that are discussed below, ERM revisited a location in the APE that was recorded as part of an earlier reconnaissance survey for the current Project (Anderson and Staton 2016). The location was recorded as 007-5587, although it was inaccessible and documented principally based on its depiction on USGS quadrangles (Nationwide Environmental Title Research, LLC [NETR] 2017). ERM visited this location and found that no historic structures are present on the property. Tax assessor information confirmed that the house is modern, dating from 1988. A review of historic USGS quadrangles and aerial photographs suggests that a structure had been built on the property prior to 1947, when the house first appears on a map of the location (NETR 2017; USGS 1947). Aerial photographs indicate that the original house was razed when the modular home was built. (Appendix B, Figure 1). ERM recommends that the V-CRIS number for 007-5587 be deaccessioned, since the property is not historic

007-0272

Resource 007-0272 is located at 300 Dryden Road, Churchville, in Augusta County, approximately 315 feet north-northeast of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 5). The dwelling is situated on the southwest side of Dryden Road on a 4.738-acre parcel with four ancillary buildings (Appendix B, Figure 2). Dryden Road takes a near 90-degree turn away from the property to the northeast and over a creek, before bending to continue eastward. The surrounding area is pastureland with scattered residences and associated farm structures. The terrain slopes upward to the southwest. The area immediately around the house is manicured lawn, and there are only a few ornamental trees and shrubs. The dwelling is set back approximately 180 feet from the center line of the road, and an asphalt drive with a turnaround leads up to it. The surrounding area largely retains its pastoral setting, with mountains in the distance to the northwest.

The V-CRIS file for the site states that Edward Chappell first recorded the property on December 1, 1976 as part of a Phase II/Intensive Survey. The dwelling is a ca. 1850 vernacular, rectangular-form building also known as the James Thompson House. During the 1976 survey it was described as a “two-story, nearly symmetrical three-bay log house, extended by a late nineteenth century lateral addition” (Chappell 1976). At the time, the log construction was covered by metal siding. By February 2012, Sandra DeChard noted the dwelling as having weatherboard siding and vinyl windows. DHR staff subsequently determined that the resource

was potentially eligible under Criterion C for its architectural merit and for the integrity of its outbuildings and rural landscape (Holma 2012).

The residence largely retains the characteristics identified during the previous surveys, with some material changes. It is a two-story structure set on a fieldstone foundation and is currently clad in vinyl siding. It has a three-bay wide ca. 1850 I-house form main block, with a later 3-bay wide, late nineteenth century addition that extends the footprint to the southeast (Appendix B, Figure 3). The windows on the primary façade are one-over-one, vinyl-frame, double-hung, replacement windows with muntin inserts, and decorative shutters. The primary elevation has an almost full-length porch with Doric style columns. The porch is set on a pier foundation screened by lattice and shrubbery; it has a wood floor with stone steps at the front and side leading up to it from the ground level. The porch has a shed roof that is clad in standing-seam metal. The ornate brackets that once supported the shed roof (DeChard 2012), are no longer extant. A secondary, single-story, rear shed-roof porch can be partially seen from the public right-of-way. It features wood posts supporting the shed roof, rather than the more ornate classical columns seen on the primary façade. The dwelling's side-gable roof is moderately sloped, and clad in standing-seam metal. There are two brick chimneys with Flemish bond pattern, and they flank the ca. 1850 section; one is now an interior chimney as a result of the addition. In the gable end of the northwest elevation, on either side of the exterior chimney, there are two small, one-over-one, vinyl-frame, double-hung windows that may not be original.

There are five visible outbuildings associated with this dwelling, four of which are historic. The first is a ca. 1850, single-story washhouse clad in clapboard siding and set on concrete block piers. It is two bays wide at its northwest elevation with a vertical-board door on the east end and a six-over-six, wood-frame, double-hung, sash window on the west end of that elevation. A common-bond brick chimney is located on the southeast elevation (Appendix B, Figure 4). The second outbuilding is a ca. 1900, single-story, detached garage set on a poured-concrete foundation and clad in clapboard siding. It features replacement ribbed-metal, sliding doors on the southeast elevation. The roof is end-gabled and is clad in standing-seam metal (Appendix B, 5). The third outbuilding is a ca. 1900, wood-frame, vehicle barn with a central side-gabled massing flanked by two shed-roof bays (Appendix B, Figure 6). It is set on a poured concrete foundation, clad in clapboard siding, and is five bays wide. It has a central, split, vertical-board door, and two bays of varying sizes on each side. The bays formerly had vertical-board sliding doors, but only the one on the southeast end is intact, and it features a square window opening. The roof of the barn is clad in standing-seam metal. A modern barn, built ca. 2013 is to the west of this barn. The last of the outbuildings is only partial visible from the public right-of-way, and no photo was possible. It appears to retain the characteristics noted in previous surveys. It is a ca. 1850, log-construction smokehouse with a gabled roof clad in standing-seam metal. Previous surveys also noted the presence of a root cellar, which was not observed during the current survey.

NRHP Assessment: DHR staff have previously determined 007-0272 potentially eligible under Criterion C for inclusion in the NRHP. Although the resource has had a few material changes, most notably, the application of modern vinyl siding and changes to the front porch, it still retains its primary form and high integrity with respect to its outbuildings and pastoral landscape. It is ERM's recommendation that 007-0272 retains enough integrity to remain NRHP eligible under Criterion C (Figure 2). The historical research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant historic persons or events associated with this resource significant to history as set forth in the NRHP. Therefore it is ERM's recommendation that it is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

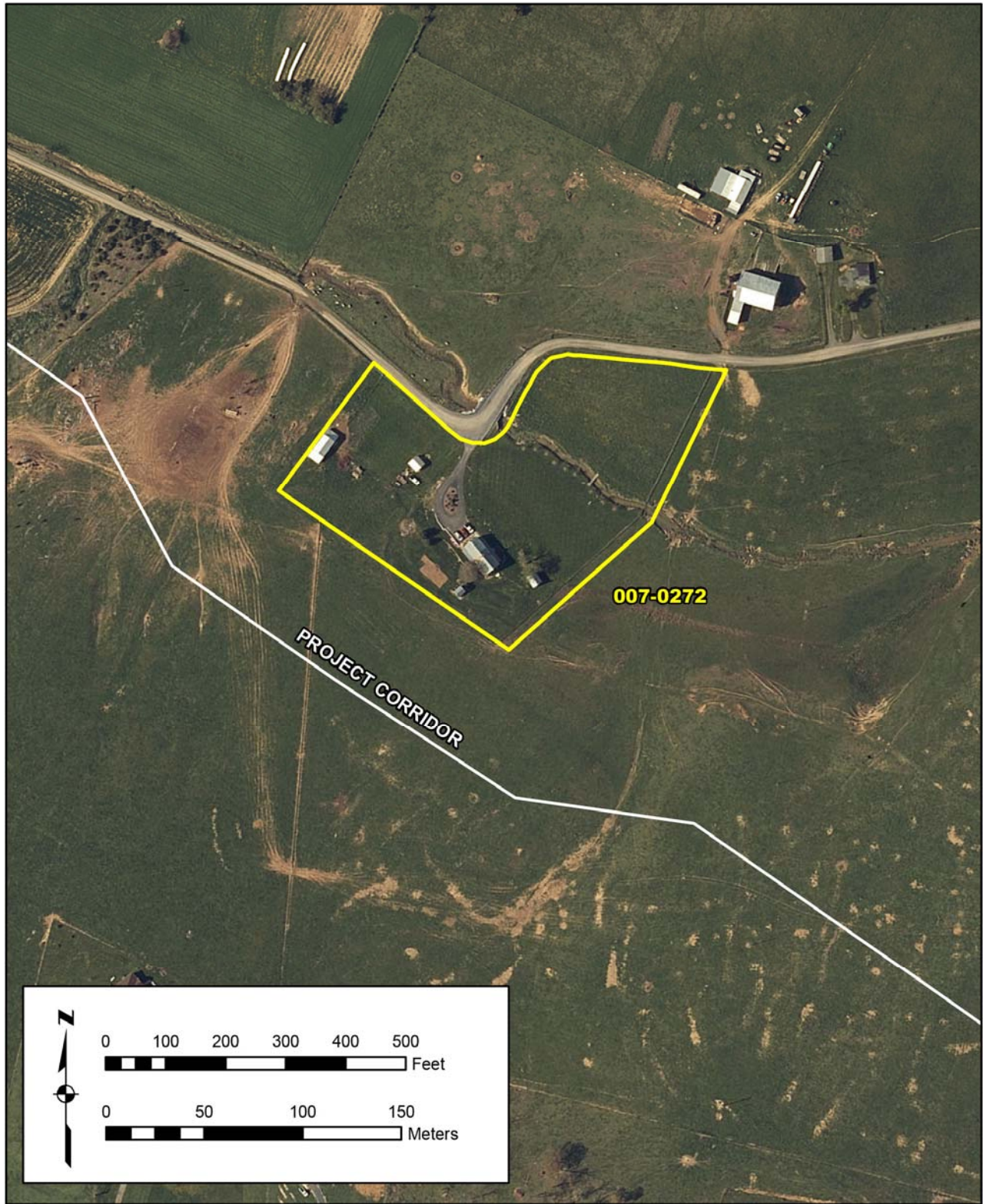


Figure 2. 007-0272, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

007-0397

Resource 007-0397 is located at 181 Miss Phillips Road, Swoope, in Augusta County, approximately 615 feet west of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 6). The dwelling is situated in a manicured lawn next to a large mature tree, and on a hill that slopes up from the road. A post and wire fence surrounds the residence. A dirt drive leads up to it from the road, from which the residence is set back approximately 850 feet. Rolling hills and pasture land surround the property, and there is a tree line about 1,150 feet to the north of the cabin. Residences and associated farm structures are scattered throughout the area.

The V-CRIS file for the resource states that Ann McCleary first recorded the property in 1978 as part of a Phase II/Intensive Survey (McCleary 1978a). The cabin, also known as the Reid Cabin, is a ca. 1850 building and is located on a property that was once the David Sterrett Farm in the 1860s (Bean 2014). The cabin is a one-and-a-half story, log-construction building with dovetail notches and wide areas of replacement concrete chinking (Appendix B, Figures 7 and 8). It features a ca. 1950 brick chimney on its southwest elevation and a steep-pitched roof with corrugated metal. The foundation was not visible at the time of survey as it was covered with metal sheathing. On the southeast elevation is a six-over-six, wood-frame, double-hung, sash window with vertical muntins. Also on this elevation is a ca. 1950s, wood-frame, shed-roof addition set on concrete block piers and clad in vinyl siding. It features a vinyl door, and a modern one-over-one, wood-frame, double-hung sash window. The roof of the entry addition is corrugated metal and has exposed rafters. A wood deck sits adjacent to the northeast of it. Although not visible during the survey, previous studies indicate that there is a partial-width porch on the northwest elevation with wood posts, wood floor, and shed roof (Bean 2014). Property access restrictions at the time of survey did not allow for surveying or photographing of the silo, cattle chute, or pens that were reported in 2014. Further, a modern trailer is located on property, as is evident from the aerial imagery.

NRHP Assessment: DHR staff have previously determined 007-0397 not individually eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A, B, C, or D. Since the time of determination, the characteristics of the property appear to be the same. A combination of alterations, including a prominent shed addition on the façade a later chimney, and some replacement windows. These changes detract from the simple character of the building. It is ERM's opinion that the resource remains not individually eligible for the NRHP, as previously determined.

007-0442

Resource 007-0442 is located at 715 Shenandoah Mountain Road, West Augusta, in Augusta County, approximately 300 feet west of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 4). The residence is set back 235 feet from the road, and is on top of a hill that slopes south down to the road. An asphalt drive curves up the hill from the road; a fieldstone retaining wall supports it, and the hill is covered in bushes between the driveway and the house. The property is a mix of forest, manicured yard, and farmland. The area surrounding the property consists of wooded, mountainous terrain characteristic of the Appalachians, as well as patches of cleared farmland.

The V-CRIS file for the site states that Ann McCleary first recorded the property, known as the Hunter Mountain Farm, on October 1, 1978, as part of a Phase II/Intensive Survey (McCleary 1978b). The building is a ca. 1800 two-story, vernacular hall-parlor, dwelling of log-construction, featuring V-notching (Appendix B, Figures 9 and 10). Its older, side-gabled massing is three bays wide at its primary, or south, elevation. The central bay features a door that is slightly off-

center to the west. Above the door is what appears to be a decorative transom with circular wood details. It is possible that the detail is of a different material such as dark glass or metal; however, access restrictions did not allow for better identification. One six-over-six, wood-frame, double-hung, sash window is on either side of the door, making up the remaining bays. This window type is the primary window throughout the house. A notable feature between the door and the eastern bay is a log wall that crosses the interior, visible on the exterior via a vertical line of notching. The second floor of the original massing has two six-over-six windows above the first-floor windows, but not above the door. The roof is side-gabled and clad in wood shingles. There is a single exterior fieldstone chimney on the west elevation. There are two additions to the dwelling on the east elevation. The first is a ca. 1920 shed-roof addition that is two bays wide with six-over-six windows on the south elevation. It is clad in unpainted board-and-batten, and has wood shingles covering the roof. Its height reaches to the cornice of the original block's gable end, but the addition appears to be only a single story. A second ca. 1950 shed-roof addition continues off the previous one to the east, and features a screened-in porch and board-and-batten siding where it is not screened. The roof is clad in wood shingles as well. No other elevations were visible at the time of survey.

Aerial photographs of the complex show that there are multiple outbuildings and structures associated with the dwelling, likely ranging in construction date from ca. 1800 to the late twentieth century. Due to access limitations, the vast majority of the structures are not visible from the roadside. One ca. 1970 building to the east of the dwelling was visible (Appendix B, Figure 11). It is a secondary dwelling, and features board-and-batten siding, a fieldstone chimney, and an irregular side-gabled roof with asphalt shingles. It has a large window on its south elevation that appears to be a fixed-pane window with decorative muntins; however, bushes cover up most of the detail.

NRHP Assessment: No NRHP recommendation was offered by McCleary (1978b); however, it is ERM's opinion that the resource is eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C due to the high integrity of the dwelling and its setting. The dwelling exhibits design and materials characteristic of rural log structures in the early nineteenth century within the region, providing excellent illustration of the workmanship that went into its structural components. It represents a rare surviving example of log construction from the period. The surrounding area has few modern intrusions with the exception of the roadway, and imparts a strong feeling evoking the resource's original mountain farmstead setting. Although there are additions on the dwelling, they are compatible in overall material feeling and design, not overpowering the older massing. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B (Figure 3).

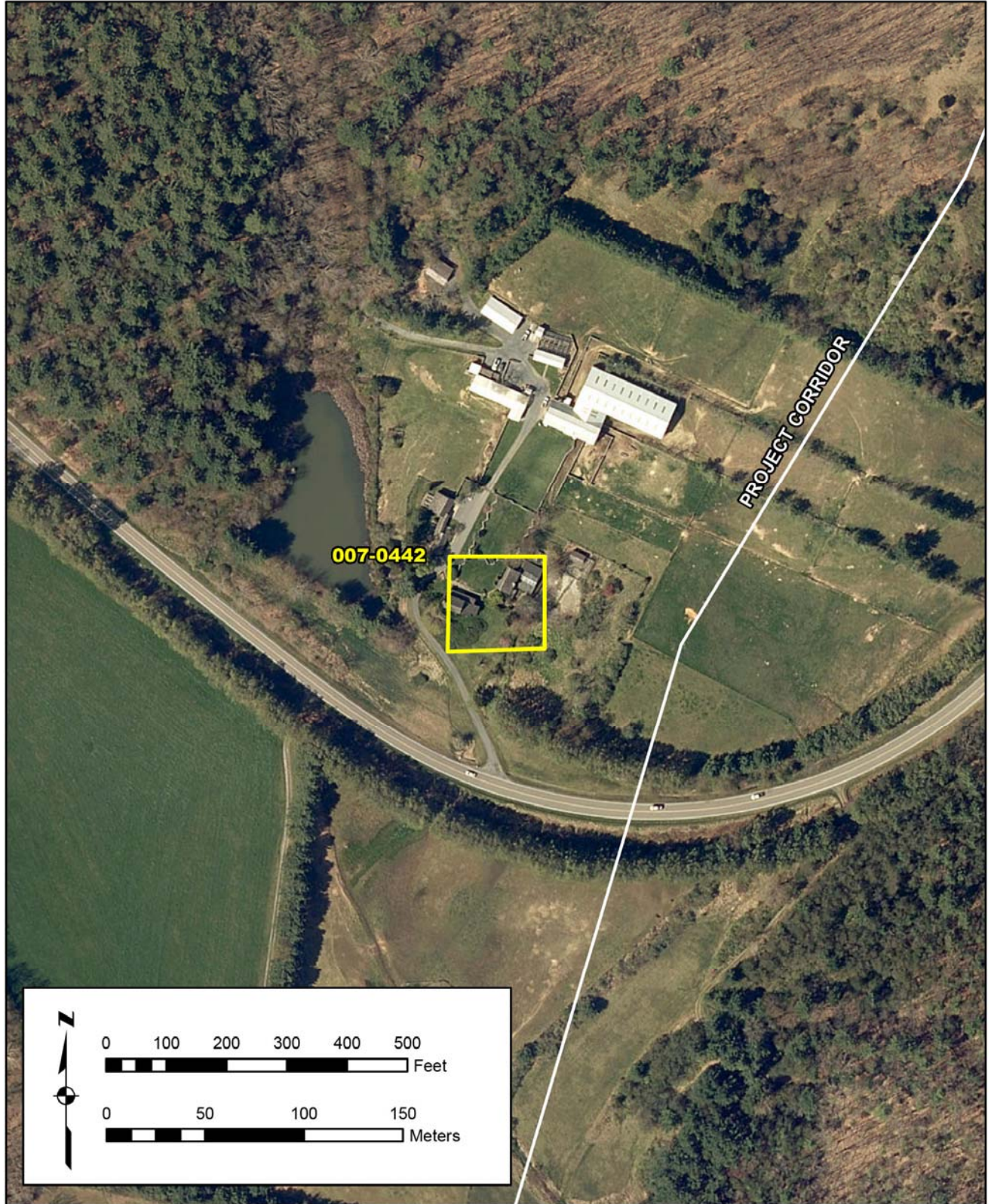


Figure 3. 007-0443, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

007-1163

Resource 007-1163, or Bridge #6251, is located on Dryden Road, north of Churchville in Augusta County. It is approximately 100 feet north of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 5). The road takes a 90 degree bend to cross over Elk Run at the bridge, before it continues eastward. It is located in the creek's bottomland, with the gently rolling terrain rising from the creek's somewhat eroded bed to the north and the south. The area around the bridge is pastureland and rolling hills, with widely-spaced farms along the road. There are no trees in the immediate vicinity of the bridge.

The bridge was first surveyed in 1993 (Virginia Transportation Research Council [VTRC] 1993). It is a 1932 concrete, single-lane bridge. It features poured-concrete walls, poured-concrete abutments, and a 21 foot wide poured-concrete deck paved in asphalt (DeChard 2012). It has a low metal guardrail barrier on both sides, in addition to a wire fence supported by wood posts on the northwest side. The concrete deck is joined to the abutments with poured concrete joints.

NRHP Assessment: DHR staff have previously determined 007-1163 to be not individually eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A, B, C, or D. Some degradation of the stream bank adjacent to the abutments was observed (Appendix B, Figures 12 and 13), but the bridge retains structural integrity. No significant change to the bridge has occurred, and the characteristics of the property appear to be the same. The design elements of the bridge do not exhibit any outstanding characteristics, and are standard for a bridge of its type. It is ERM's recommendation that the resource remains not individually eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C, as previously determined. The historic research carried out for this project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with his resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

007-5542

This resource is located at 152 Windy Acres Lane, about 0.6 miles northwest of the community of Sherando and 460 feet east of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 7). Originally surveyed as part of the Project in 2015 (Lesiuk et al. 2016), the resource consists of a farmstead located at the end of a 0.35-mile farm road that serves as the driveway for the main dwelling. The two-story, multi-gabled farmhouse and associated barns and outbuildings are situated in a cleared grassy area on a low rise that overlooks a large pasture to the northeast (Appendix A, Figures 14 and 15). The pasture is part of the 48.6-acre parcel on which the house is located. According to tax records, the dwelling was constructed in 1950; however, it appears that it may be an earlier I-house, constructed ca. 1900, with later additions. According to appraisal records, the house is clad in vinyl siding and has a continuous concrete foundation and an asphalt roof. The outbuildings include a historic barn, a modern barn, four sheds, and several garages. Resource 007-5542 could not be sufficiently observed from the public right-of-way to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility.

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that the resource be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 4).

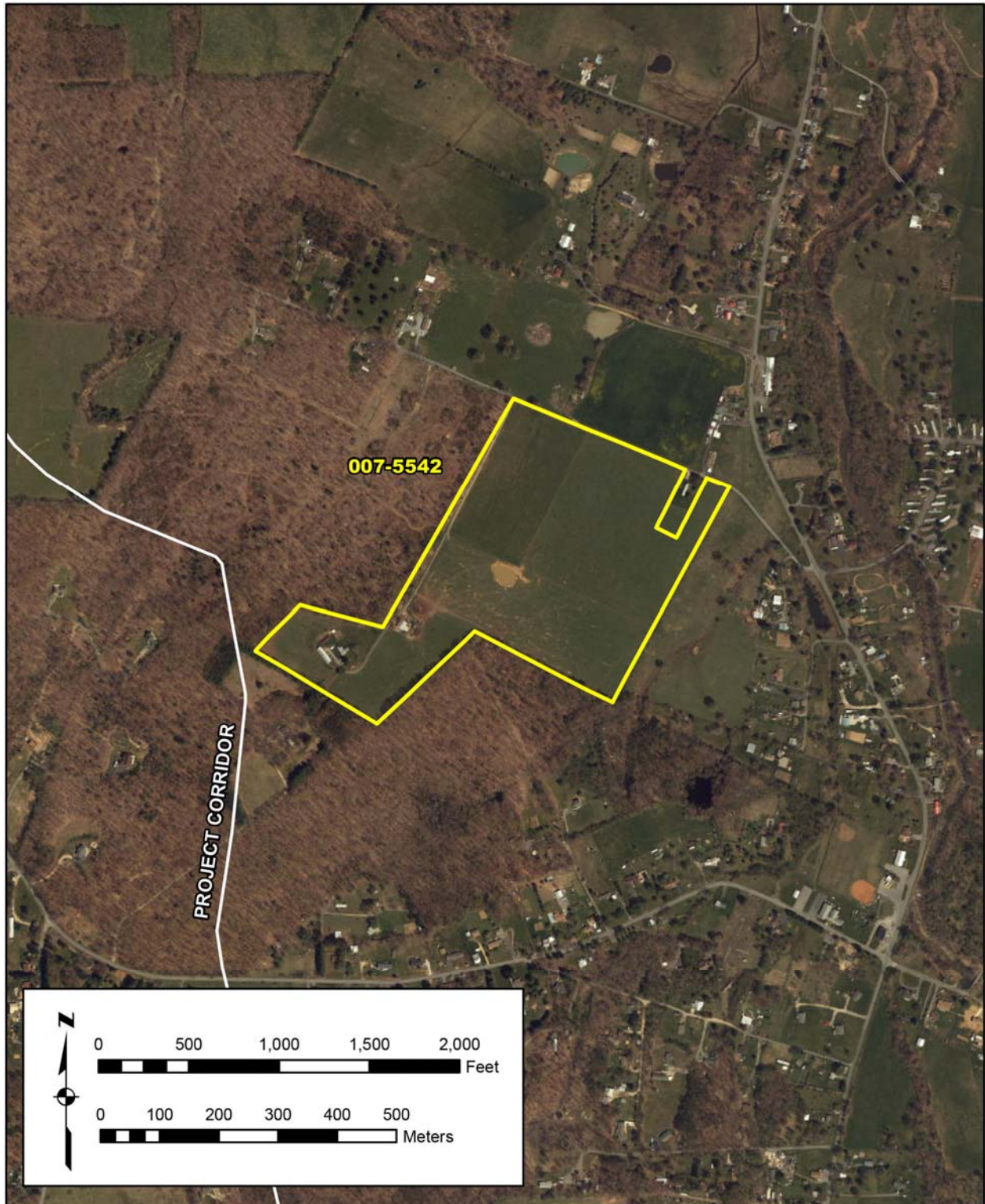


Figure 4. 007-5542, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

007-5556

The resource is located at 3429 Mount Torrey Road, Lyndhurst, in Augusta County, approximately 0.1 miles northwest of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 7). It is located above Back Creek on the toe-slope of Torry Ridge, which rises steeply to the west-northwest of the resource. On the east side of the creek and the road, the bottomland has been cleared and is used for agriculture or pasturage, with the wooded slope of the Blue Ridge on the opposite side. There is a stand of woods to the south, with a wooded low saddle beyond. There are some modest residences widely-spaced along Mount Torrey Road to the southwest.

The resource is sited above the road, and surrounded by trees, obscuring the visibility of the property from the public right-of-way (Appendix B, Figures 16 and 17). Aerial photographs show a dwelling that also appears on ca. 1980s topographic maps, with a second linear structure on its southeast side. This second structure is visible from the road. It is a circa 1950s, one-story side-gabled vernacular dwelling constructed of concrete masonry. Its foundation is not visible from the road. It has a weathered corrugated metal roof with an internal brick chimney at the ridgeline (Appendix B, Figure DSC_0548). The southwest gable end is clad with vertically-oriented wood siding and features a vinyl louvered vent. A shed-roof extension covers a full-width porch at its southeast façade, supported by wood poles on a poured concrete foundation. This elevation has sliding vinyl replacement windows with applied muntins. A centered door opening is visible but the door material could not be discerned due to tree coverage. On its southwest elevation there is a circa 1970s, wood-frame, shed-roof addition. It is clad in T1-11 siding and set on concrete block piers, with corrugated metal roofing. The entrance to this addition on the southeast elevation is covered by a storm door, and the entry door is not visible from the road. The northeast end of the dwelling also appears to be a circa 1980s gable addition, clad with flagstone veneer, and it features one-over-one, vinyl-frame, double-hung windows with applied muntins, in addition to a fanlight in the gable end (Appendix B, Figure 18). The resource appears to be in overall fair condition.

To the west-northwest of the dwelling, a shed-roofed accessory structure with a corrugated metal roof is visible from the road. Its siding is vertical board covered with asphalt sheeting. A vertical board door opens to the southwest. It is in fair condition. Farther to the west-northwest, the southwest end of another gabled accessory structure is visible. It is also clad with vertical board covered with asphalt sheeting, vertically-oriented wood siding at the gable end, and an oxidized metal roof. It is in fair condition. Two additional small structures are visible farther to the west-northwest in aerial photographs, but their form and materials could not be discerned from the road. Southwest of the circa 1950s dwelling, there is a circa 1960s shed-roofed storage structure. It is clad with vertically-oriented wood siding; its roof material and foundation were not visible from the road. Located between this structure and the circa 1950s dwelling is a fieldstone foundation topped with concrete coping, which may be the base of a former root cellar. No other details were visible from the road.

NRHP Assessment: Dovetail originally surveyed this resource for the Project (Lesiuk et al. 2016); however the property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. Based on observations from the current survey, the resource's residential structure and the associated outbuildings that are visible from the road are types that are common in the surrounding area. The additions to the basic concrete block form and the replacement windows detract from the original design of the structure due to their material differences. The outbuildings and dwelling also do not exhibit especially significant characteristics in construction or design, nor do they appear to represent the work of a master designer. It is ERM's

recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

007-5557

The resource at 3604 Mount Torrey Road, Lyndhurst, in Augusta County, is located approximately 0.15 miles north-northwest of the proposed Project, and immediately adjacent to an access road; its garage is partially within the pipeline survey corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 7). The resource is located above the east side of the road, sited in a saddle between two low, wooded hills. To the south, an agricultural field occupies the saddle and curves around the southerly of the two hills as well as the slope to the east. This field is bounded by woods. The slope of the Blue Ridge rises to the east, with the Blue Ridge Parkway near its crest. There are scattered trees and bushes adjacent to the house and its associated outbuildings. The surrounding area is very lightly populated with modest homes and farms, and the Appalachian Trail is located to the southeast.

The resource consists of a dwelling and a garage, as well as some doghouses (Appendix B, Figure 19). The dwelling is a circa 1950 two-story, end-gabled vernacular dwelling, with an asphalt shingled roof, and a raised concrete masonry foundation that responds to the site's slope. The first floor features concrete masonry walls, while the second floor is clad in weathered clapboard siding (Appendix B, Figure 20). The house is three bays wide, with a central, paneled, wood door with one light covered by an aluminum-framed storm door flanked by two six-over-six, wood-frame, double-hung, sash windows. There is a one-story full-width, raised porch at the northwest façade. It has a shed roof clad with asphalt shingles supported by square wood posts with plain balusters in the railing panels, and a wood floor. Wood steps lead up to the porch from the northeast, and wood lattice panels cover two of the three bays below the porch. A door or hatch to the basement level was visible in the open bay below the porch. The second floor features smaller one-over-one and three-over-three aluminum windows aligned with those at the first floor. The windows throughout the rest of the house follow this pattern of wood-frame windows on bottom and smaller aluminum windows on the second floor. Openings to the basement level at the northeast façade are closed with wood panels. On the southeast elevation, another shed roof clad in what appears to be metal sheets is supported by square wood posts set in a poured concrete pad, creating a large back porch and carport. The exterior finishes are weathered, and the dwelling is in overall fair to good condition.

To the south of the house there is a detached, circa 1990s prefabricated garage. It has a shed roof with asphalt shingles and its bays open to the southeast. To the east of the dwelling and garage, there is a grouping of doghouses along a creek just inside the tree line. These are small gabled cages with corrugated metal roofs. There is also a wood-frame doghouse with plywood siding and a gambrel roof with asphalt shingles.

NRHP Assessment: Dovetail has previously surveyed this resource for the Project (Lesiuk et al. 2016); however, property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. Based on the current survey, the resource displays an unremarkable form and materials, and it does not exhibit any outstanding features or characteristics, nor does it represent the work of a master. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify

any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

007-5584

Located at 1095 Middlebrook Road, Staunton in Augusta County, the resource is approximately 470 feet southwest of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 6). It was previously recorded by Dovetail in the Addendum Architectural Reconnaissance Survey of the Atlantic Coast Pipeline Corridor; however, the report listed the address as 1105 Middlebrook Road (Lesiuk et al. 2016). Located southeast of Little North Mountain and northwest of the Blue Ridge Mountain, the terrain is very gently rolling, descending gradually to Lewis Creek, which runs northeast to southwest along Middlebrook Road. The resource is located on the north side of Middlebrook Road (Route 252) at its intersection with Dynamite Road. A circa 1900s low partially-parged fieldstone bridge with a reinforced concrete deck spans over Lewis Creek, providing access to the house from the road (Appendix B, Figure 21). Formerly used as pastureland, the resource's historic parcel was been subdivided for modern housing ca. 2000. The surrounding area is characterized by large fields, with widely-spaced farms, modest homes, and a few industrial uses. A circa 1960–1970s retail structure used as a specialty grocery/meat wholesaling company is located on the opposite side of the intersection with Dynamite Road.

A total of four buildings are located on the property, comprised of a circa 1903 two-story T-plan gable-ell rural residence with ancillary agricultural outbuildings that appear to have been constructed between 1903 and 1960, based on historic aerials and Augusta County Appraisal records (Appendix B, Figure 22). Sited slightly above the road, the vernacular dwelling features Folk Victorian elements. The original section of the dwelling and a gabled two-story addition at the northwest end of the cross-gable have steeply-pitched gabled roofs, clad with standing seam metal roofing, as does the one-story partial-width porch at its southeast façade. The one-story wraparound porch at its west corner has a shed roof clad with asphalt shingles, however the roof of the one-story shed-roofed addition at the structure's northwest façade could not be determined from the road. (Appendix B, Figure 23). The exterior has narrow shiplap vinyl siding on all elevations with the exception of the gable ends, which are clad with wide aluminum clapboard siding. A wide band runs along the cornice on all elevations. The gable ends feature turned eaves and pierced details. The one-story raised porch at the front (southeast) elevation features a hipped metal roof with turned wood posts and decorative balustrade. The porch rests on a wood pier foundation with lattice sheathing. While the turned posts appear original, the pierced balusters appear to be a later alteration that may have occurred circa 1960, based on design. The entrance from the porch features a single flush door within a door surround having lower wood panels topped with narrow one-over-over double-hung windows. There is a two-over-two double-hung window framed by paneled wood shutters at the northeast end of the porch. At the second story, two two-over-two wood sash windows are aligned with the door and window on the porch. An interior brick chimney is found at the ridgeline of the front-facing gable and side-gable units. The rear elevation includes the two-story gabled addition at the southwestern elevation, and one-story addition on the northeastern and southwestern elevations. (Appendix B, Figure 24). The foundation is parged stucco applied over concrete masonry. The dwelling is in good condition.

A one-story side-gabled concrete masonry building facing Middlebrook Road to the west-southwest of the dwelling is listed as a commercial/business parlor by the Augusta County Appraiser (Appendix B, Figure 25). Prior to 1972, it was attached by a breezeway to a larger gabled building, likely a dairy barn. Per aerial images, the gabled building was demolished

between 1972 and 2003, and may have occurred at the time of the housing subdivision of the historic parcel circa 2000. The structure has a standing seam metal roof, and a louvered metal vent in its southwestern gable end. An internal stove pipe chimney is located at the ridgeline on the northeastern section of the roof, with a concrete masonry internal chimney on the northwest side of the ridgeline. A shed roof extension covers a stoop of concrete masonry and two board-and-batten doors that are located flush in the front (southeastern) elevation. Three two-over-two metal casement windows are also found in the front elevation, with one two-over-two metal casement window in the northeastern elevation. A board-and-batten door on an overhead track is located in the southwestern elevation. The wall treatment is concrete masonry in standard running course, with a foundation of parged concrete from the ground to water table; the foundation responds to the site's gradual slope to the south (Appendix B, Figure 26). The concrete masonry building is in good condition.

Two agricultural structures are located on the property. A circa 1920s one-story, shed-roofed structure is located northwest of the concrete masonry building and west of the dwelling. It has a foundation of parged concrete block, ribbed metal roofing panels, and board-and-batten wood siding patched with standing-seam metal panels at the southwest foundation that may close an earlier entrance. There is also a six-over-six double-hung window at the southwest façade. A bank of eight six-over-six wood sash double-hung windows fills the southeast façade (Appendix B, Figure 27). The second shed is located northeast of the dwelling. Its exterior is somewhat weathered, and it is in fair to good condition. To the north of the dwelling, a two-bay shed-roofed equipment shelter has an asphalt shed roof and a parged concrete masonry foundation (Appendix B, Figure 28). This shed is in fair condition. A well house is visible on the aerials, but property restrictions did not allow for survey of this structure.

NRHP Assessment: The previous addendum report lists 007-5584 with an indeterminate eligibility recommendation (Lesiuk et al. 2016). Based on further survey and research efforts, ERM does not recommend this resource eligible for listing on the NRHP under Criterion C. The design of the house and outbuildings does not represent the work of a master, nor possess high artistic values. The installation of replacement vinyl siding and alterations to the dwelling's porch at the southeast façade have resulted in a loss of integrity. In addition, an element of the farmstead, possibly a dairy barn, that was connected to the concrete masonry accessory structure has been demolished. As a result, the sense of place and feeling associated with the agricultural past of the historic parcel has been diminished. Modern housing has been constructed on the subdivided historic parcel, further impacting the resource's integrity of setting and feeling. It is also ERM's recommendation that the resource is not eligible under Criterion A for any association with significant event or thematic associations with agriculture. The historic research carried out for this Project has not identified significant personages associated the resource, and it is not recommend eligible for listing on the NRHP under Criterion B.

007-5741

Located at 3722 Deerfield Valley Road, Deerfield, 007-5741 is a one-story dwelling with one outbuilding. According to Augusta County tax records, the dwelling was built in 1974. No structure is shown in this location on a 1967 USGS topographic map, or the photorevised version of the map from 1985. The house is clearly shown on a 1998 aerial (USGS 1967, 1985; NETR 2017). The vacant dwelling is approximately 220 feet west of the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 3). The residence is located west of Deerfield, which is a small community located in the Shenandoah Valley near the George Washington National Forest. The Hamilton

Branch of the Calfpasture River runs north of the property along the northern side of Deerfield Valley Road (Route 629). The dwelling is sited on the south side of Deerfield Valley Road.

The single-story Ranch dwelling has a side gable roof with standing seam metal roofing (Appendix B, Figures 29 and 30). The laterally oriented dwelling has a rectangular plan composed of three units. An original central four-bay block is flanked by a one-bay addition to the east and a two-bay addition to the west. The central unit features a concrete masonry unit chimney at the western gable intersection with the western addition. The standing steam metal roof appears to have been recently replaced. The exterior is clad with vinyl siding on all elevations. The windows are two-over-two, double-hung vinyl units on the original block, a two-over-two wood unit on the western addition and a one-over-one aluminum window on the eastern addition. The foundation is continuous concrete block. A modern deck with pressure treated wood is found on the front (northern) façade, providing access to the entrance whose door is currently missing. The western addition appears to have been converted from a two-car attached garage into interior living space. One of the former garage door openings is filled with plywood and a pair of single-light French doors; the other former garage door opening is filled only with plywood. Likewise, a personnel door on the east elevation of the former garage has been replaced with plywood. The eastern addition is smaller in massing than that of the central, and materials (other than its aluminum window) are consistent with the main block. The building is in fair condition.

The gable roof wood frame shed has a partially collapsed asphalt shingle roof and metal roof lean-to addition (Appendix B, Photo 31). The outbuilding appears to have been built ca. 1960, and may be associated with an earlier dwelling on the property. It is located just southwest of the dwelling. The outbuilding is in poor condition. A stacked stone well or fire pit is found immediately southeast of the dwelling (Appendix B, Photo 32).

NRHP Assessment: Resource 007-5741 does not meet the age criteria for consideration for listing on the NRHP. Furthermore, the dwelling does not retain material integrity nor demonstrate an outstanding example of a particular architectural style or building type. Although the outbuilding appears to have reached the age threshold, it is in poor condition, and the primary dwelling is not of age. For these reasons, it is ERM's recommendation that the resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify a locally significant theme or person associated with the resource. Therefore, it is ERM's recommendation that 007-5741 is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

007-5743

Resource 007-5743 is located at 2158 Deerfield Valley Road, West Augusta, in Augusta County, approximately 600 feet south-southeast of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 4). The resource is located down a long gravel drive, to the southwest of where the gravel drive transitions to a dirt drive. It is set back approximately 1,550 feet from the road, and is within a relatively flat, cleared area of farmland. To the southeast is a creek that is just within the tree line. There are scattered trees on the property, primarily focused around the dwelling associated with it. Residences along this stretch of Deerfield Valley Road are concentrated along the road with several outliers further away.

The resource consists of a dwelling and five outbuildings, and a roadside sign identifies the property as "Far Afield." The dwelling is a ca. 1935, single-story, vernacular, irregular-footprint residence clad primarily in clapboard siding, with some fieldstone sections (Appendix B, Figures

33 and 34). The roof of the house is side-gabled and clad in standing-seam metal, but it continues into a hipped roof porch that wraps around the building. The porch is supported by wood posts and has a wood floor. Within the porch there are three entry points to the house with wood paneled doors. One of the doors provides access to a ca. 1970s shed-roof addition that has a solitary side light west of the door. The addition appears to be clad in T1-11 siding. The roof of the addition is covered with asphalt shingles. A brick interior chimney is located at the junction between the shed-roof addition and the main massing where a gable wing projects to the rear from the main side-gable section. There are several windows on the primary elevation; however, the details of the windows are unclear due to distance and tree coverage. There is also a fieldstone addition on the southwest side of the structure. Trees largely obscure this part of the building, but it features a fieldstone chimney, a pair of six-over-six windows on the northwest elevation, and a standing-seam metal hipped roof. The foundation of the house was not visible at the time of survey.

Adjacent to the dwelling is a ca. 1950s detached garage. It is two-bays wide with garage doors and has a side-gabled, standing-seam metal roof. It appears to be clad in T1-11 siding (Figure 35). The other outbuildings include a barn and four sheds (Appendix B, Figure 36). The barn is a ca. 1935, wood-frame structure clad in vertical board with a side-gable roof clad in standing-seam metal. It is to the southwest of the dwelling (Figure 37). The central massing has one large open bay on its northwest and southeast elevations. There are two additions that flank the central massing, one on the northeast elevation and another on the southwest elevation. The southwest addition is wood-frame with a shed roof clad in standing-seam metal. It is two bays wide, both of which are open air. The northeast addition is wood-frame with vertical board siding and it features a hipped roof with standing-seam metal. It has a door opening on its northwest elevation. Three of the sheds are near the barn. The first is a wood-frame shed clad in T1-11 siding to the northeast of the barn (see Figure 37). It is gabled with a standing-seam metal roof, and has two one-over-one vinyl windows with muntin inserts on its northwest elevation. The other two sheds are behind the barn and are side-gabled with openings to the southwest as seen on aerial imagery. The roofs are clad in standing-seam metal, and all other details are not visible from the public right-of-way. The final outbuilding is a shed that is southwest of the house and barn by itself. It is a ca. 1935 wood-frame, clapboard-sided structure with a gabled roof clad in standing seam metal. It is the farthest away from the road and, again, due to limited access, few details were noted (Figure 38).

NRHP Assessment: Resource 007-5743 represents a common, unremarkable type for the area. The residence and associated outbuildings do not exhibit especially significant characteristics in construction or design, nor do they appear to represent the work of a master designer. Additions and changes to the dwelling also affect the overall integrity of its original form and fabric. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

Bath County

Two resources were recorded in Bath County, neither of which are previously recorded resources. Both of the resources are dwellings with associated outbuildings, and neither is recommended eligible for listing on the NRHP.

008-5068

Located at 7711 Mill Creek Road, Millboro in Bath County, 008-5068 is a one-story modern Ranch dwelling featuring an L-plan, an outhouse, root house, a modern prefabricated metal barn, and three agricultural wood frame outbuildings. Prior to 2011, aerial images show a side-gable rectangular plan dwelling located on the property. The rectangular plan dwelling was substantially altered or replaced by the current dwelling ca. 2011. The dwelling and outbuildings are approximately 2,650 feet south of the proposed pipeline (Appendix A, Sheet 2). Resource 008-5068 is sited west of Mill Creek at the intersection of Mill Creek Road (Route 640) and a private driveway. Deerfield Road (Route 629) is north of the property and Route 600 is further south. The modern dwelling is located on the west side of Mill Creek Road and the agricultural outbuildings are located along the east side of Mill Creek Road. The complex is located in a rural area characterized by agricultural fields and little residential development in the Shenandoah Valley near the George Washington National Forest.

The modern dwelling is sited at the foot of a forested hill and features minimal landscaping (Appendix B, Figures 39 and 40). The original Ranch dwelling is listed as being constructed ca. 1955. The current one-story Ranch dwelling was either rebuilt ca. 2011 or substantially altered from the original side-gable dwelling. The current dwelling has a standing seam metal roof, stucco façade, and hipped partial-width front porch with square posts on a fabricated rubble stone knee wall. All windows are modern vinyl and doors are aluminum. An external stone chimney is located on the western portion of the front elevation. The front porch and rear gable addition were added ca. 2011. Based on aerial images, however, during this renovation, the rectangular footprint was slightly expanded and a rear detached garage was demolished. The dwelling is in excellent condition.

West of the dwelling a wood frame root cellar and an outhouse are sited on a small rise at the foot of a hill. The outbuildings are nestled into tiered landscaping featuring field stone retaining walls (Appendix B, Figures 41 and 42). The wood frame gable roof root cellar features a low pitched metal roof with narrow wood weatherboard siding. A single six-over-six wood frame window is located on the eastern elevation. A stacked stone chimney is located on the western elevation of the root cellar. The wood frame outhouse is just east of the root cellar. The outhouse features a shed roof and vertical board siding. The stacked stone retaining wall, while native material, appears to have been recently added during the 2010s. The root cellar and outhouse are in fair condition.

Three agricultural outbuildings are located on the east side of Mill Creek Road overlooking the open pasture land in the valley located in between Walker Mountain (south) and Chestnut Ridge (Figure 43). The barns all have gabled roofs of corrugated metal. The barn located nearest the dwelling is a two-story raised barn with wood pier foundation that appears to be hewn logs. It is built into a small rise Vented wood slats frame in the south façade, but it otherwise features wood weatherboard siding (Appendix B, Figure 44). A single raised entrance with poured concrete stairs and wood deck entry is accessible on the southern elevation alongside an open bay. The barn has a steeply pitched saltbox roof over the open bay on the western elevation, which is likely used for farm equipment storage. The second barn is a two-story side-gable, three-bay barn with wood weatherboard siding. The barn has a moderately pitched saltbox roof on the eastern elevation. The barn is built on a wood pier foundation (Appendix B, Figure 45). Irregularly placed window openings are found on the southern elevation. Two flush man door entries are located on the western elevation with an open bay at the center. A hay loft opening is found above the open bay on the second story (Appendix B, Figure 46). None of the windows

have panes, and a board and batten door hangs ajar from near its former opening in a ruinous state. A granary unloading dock is found on the second-story at the gable peak (Appendix B, Figure 47). The third outbuilding is a single-bay small livestock barn with wood frame, board-and-batten siding, and a corrugated metal gable roof. The small livestock barn is built on wood pier foundation (Appendix B, Figure 48). A flush single man door entrance and a small livestock door are found on the west north elevation (Appendix B, Figure 49). A modern prefabricated four-bay barn is located in the distance (Appendix B, Figure 50). All barns are in fair condition with the exception of the modern metal barn.

NRHP Assessment: Resource 008-5068 is not recommended eligible for listing on the NRHP under Criterion C, based on lack of material integrity of the dwelling and associated outbuildings. The primary dwelling originally associated with the outbuildings is no longer extant, or has been altered so severely that the original form is no longer apparent. The historic outbuildings are beginning to deteriorate, and the loss of the dwelling has affected the integrity of setting and feeling. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify significant events or personages associated with 008-5068; therefore, it is not recommended eligible for listing on the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

008-5069

Located at 887 Bright Hollow Road/State Route 641, Deerfield in Bath County, the resource is approximately 0.05 miles east of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 2). It is in the narrow Back Draft valley between the slopes of Walker Mountain in the George Washington National Forest on the east, and Brushy Ridge on the west. The surrounding area is wooded with few other residences nearby. The resource is sited on the west side of the road and includes a residence with a detached garage and an accessory building.

The split-level vernacular dwelling appears to have been originally a one-story Ranch house, built in 1964. Prior to 2000, aerial images show a one-story dwelling with a rectangular footprint and a small addition (possibly the shed-roofed front porch) at its southeastern elevation. A two-story gabled addition has been constructed onto its southwestern elevation. A gabled addition at its northeastern elevation appears to be an enclosed entrance (Appendix B, Figures 51 and 52). The front (southeast) elevation includes a single flush entry on the partial-width raised front porch. The porch's shed extension roof is supported on composite wood squared posts, with plain balusters in the railing panels between them and lattice panels below. The dwelling's roofs are asphalt shingled, and the building has vinyl siding and replacement vinyl windows. It is in good condition. A detached single-bay garage is located northeast of the dwelling. It features a gable roof with asphalt shingles and vinyl siding wall treatment. To the southwest of the dwelling there is a one-bay shed, with a gabled asphalt shingle roof and vinyl siding. The garage and shed are in overall good condition. A ca. 1970 dwelling to the east of the Ranch house was not visible at the time of survey.

NRHP Assessment: The resource is of a style common in the surrounding area, and it has been substantially altered from its original design. It does not represent the work of a master, nor possess high artistic values. It is ERM's recommendation that 008-5069 is not eligible for listing on the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify significant events or personages associated with this dwelling, and it is recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B, as well.

Brunswick County

Four resources in Brunswick County, previously visited as part of the Project, were revisited by ERM in order to obtain an NRHP assessment. These include two cemeteries and two residences. None of the resources are recommended eligible for inclusion on the NRHP.

012-5017 (Sills Cemetery)

Sills Cemetery (012-5017) was first recorded in a Phase I archaeological survey that identified it as part of archaeological site 44BR0261, a historic house site (Frost and Tyrer 2011). It is located on the south side of Governor Harrison Parkway, about 1.1 miles west of Reedy Creek Road in Brunswick County. A lateral pipeline is planned as part of the current Project that would pass to the north of the resource (Appendix A, Sheet 15).

The 2011 survey reported that the small family cemetery at the site contained two marked graves and one broken gravestone adjacent to a depression. The single legible stone marked the grave of Sarah T. Sills, who died in 1885. Her husband, Joseph Sills, is reported to be buried next to her. The cemetery was recorded again in 2012 (GAI Consultants 2013). Both reports note the possibility of other unmarked graves being present at the cemetery. The Frost and Tyrer report states that a buffer of 45 feet by 60 feet was marked around the cemetery and that it would be avoided by the proposed development. Since 2013, a Dominion power facility has been constructed on the property. The cemetery could not be accessed during a site visit on February 2, 2017 because of a locked gate, but aerial photographs suggest that the cemetery is preserved within a marked area adjacent to a storage yard in front of the plant (Appendix B, Figures 53 and 54). The location of the cemetery is just to the southwest of the boundary recorded in V-CRIS for the resource. The actual location has been marked on the current Project map.

NRHP Assessment: Sills Cemetery (012-5017) was determined ineligible for the NRHP in 2013 by DHR staff. ERM concurs with this recommendation.

012-5188

The resource located at 22614 Governor Harrison Parkway, Freeman, in Brunswick County, is approximately 0.1 miles west of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 15). The terrain slopes gently toward a pond and Greenville Creek to the southeast. The surrounding area is characterized by irregular agricultural fields between large stands of woods, with widely-spaced modest residences and a hardwood and mulch plant. The resource is set back approximately 0.2 miles from the south side of the road, and it is accessed by gravel-paved driveway that crosses a Norfolk Southern rail line. The resource is surrounded by a manicured lawn with scattered trees, with a retention pond adjacent to the driveway to the northwest of the structures.

The resource consists of a dwelling and a garage (Appendix B, Figure 55). The dwelling's construction dates to 1953 according to tax records (Staton 2016), and a structure is shown on the site in the 1963 USGS topographic map (USGS 1963). It is a one-and-one-half story side-gabled Cape Cod Revival, central-passage residence, clad in vinyl siding and set on a poured-concrete foundation (Appendix B, Figure 56). The primary north elevation is three bays wide with a central vinyl door featuring a fanlight. On either side there are paired one-over-one, vinyl-frame, double-hung windows with muntin inserts; the windows are framed by shutters. The north

elevation also has a partial-length porch set on a poured-concrete foundation with basic, classical-style columns. It has a shed roof with asphalt shingles. The roof of the dwelling is side-gabled with asphalt shingles, and it has a large, shed dormer that is three bays wide with smaller iterations of the vinyl windows. A small façade gable caps each bay of the shed dormer. A circa 1990s one-story, shed-roofed addition at the south elevation is partially visible from the road. Aerial photographs show three gabled dormers at the south elevation. The dwelling's foundation is not clearly visible. There is a pair of one-over-one double-hung windows with muntin inserts at its west end. The dwelling appears to be in good condition. To the southeast of the dwelling is a circa 1950s garage with circa 1990s modifications as well. It has a poured-concrete foundation, vinyl siding, and an end-gabled roof with asphalt shingles. The structure has two shed-roof additions on the north and south sides. It has a vinyl, roll-up door at its west façade where the driveway ends.

NRHP Assessment. Dovetail originally surveyed 012-5188 for the Project (Staton 2016), however property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. The resource and its associated garage appear to have been significantly modified by additions and the installation of vinyl cladding and windows. It does not have integrity representative of a mid-century residence. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

012-5190

Resource 012-5190 is located off Belfield Road, Freeman, in Brunswick County, approximately 1,200 feet southeast of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 15). The surrounding area is rural and the cemetery sits in the middle of a cotton field. Tree lines and woods surround the fields, and there is a small pond in the trees to the east. A private drive leads up a hill towards the farmstead and the cotton field. The immediate location around the cemetery is relatively flat in elevation, and the cemetery itself is overgrown.

The resource is a vernacular cemetery, likely a family cemetery (Appendix B, Figures 57 and 58). It has a small rectangular footprint surrounded by a chain-link fence, for which segments of fence have been removed. A large stump remains from a tree that once shaded the cemetery. Most of the grave markers are covered by a brush that has overgrown the area inside the fence. Six markers were visible in the cemetery, four of which belong to the Ward family. The cemetery does not appear to be in active use due to the current condition. The markers are headstones and lawn level markers, and are primarily of granite and marble. The dates of the markers that were visible range from 1914–1960, with four that are confirmed twentieth-century markers.

NRHP Assessment. Dovetail originally surveyed 012-5190 for the Project (Staton 2016), however property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. Resource 012-5190 is in poor condition as a historic cemetery landscape due to overgrown brush and damaged fencing, and its markers do not feature any special characteristics or design. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

012-5191

Resource 012-5191 is located off Buford Lane in Brunswick County, approximately 570 feet west of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 14). The area was once known as Zero, Virginia up until 1942 (USGS 1942). The surrounding area is rural and the cemetery sits to the east of a gravel drive within a cleared field. At the center of the cemetery is a mature cedar tree. The surrounding area is wooded, and the elevation is relatively flat. Further up the drive, approximately 1,280 feet to the northwest, is a grouping of structures that are less than 50 years in age. These are also within a cleared area of manicured grass that is separated from the field containing the cemetery by a thin tree line that follows a stream. The field is relatively flat, and slopes slightly down to the southeast and northwest.

The resource consists of a vernacular cemetery, likely a family cemetery due to its size and location within private property that also contains a modular home and three outbuildings (Appendix B, Figures 59 and 60). It has a small, roughly rectangular footprint within the field, and at its center is a pine tree. Small barbed wire fences surround the area. The markers visible from the drive are headstones and ledgers. The stones face east, away from the drive. Sixteen markers were noted from the public right-of-way. Based on the approximate style of the markers, the cemetery is likely early twentieth century. The condition of the cemetery appears good; it appears to still be active or at least actively maintained.

Historic topographic maps show that a historic structure once stood at the location of the modular home, and this is first seen on the 1918 Lawrenceville USGS topographic map (USGS 1918). Additional residences are seen along this driveway on the 1942 Lawrenceville USGS topographic map (USGS 1942). None of the other structures remain along this drive. The modular home is a ca. 1970s dwelling clad in vinyl siding that features a side-gable roof with a standing-seam metal and sheet-metal covering that surrounds the upper fourth of the modular home (Appendix B, Figures 61 and 62). The home has primarily aluminum-frame, three-light, fixed-pane windows, a wood-frame porch with wood flooring set on wood posts, and a vinyl door on its west elevation. There is also a wood-frame patio at its east elevation next to a concrete-block chimney. The historic 1969 aerial photograph of the area shows the historic house still present at the time, and the modular home was constructed after that date (NETR 2017). All the structures currently present also appear after that date.

The first outbuilding is a ca. 1970s, wood-frame shed clad in standing-seam metal siding. It is to the northwest of the modular home and has a metal, sliding door with three, fixed-pane, aluminum windows. It has a shed roof with exposed rafter ends, and it is clad in standing-seam metal. Adjacent to that is a ca. 1990s, wood-frame, open-air, dog kennel. It has chain-link fence and entrance surrounding the wood posts that support the roof. The roof is side-gabled and clad with a variety of sheet metal. The last of the buildings is a ca. 2000s, wood-frame, storage structure clad in ribbed metal siding. It is gable end with a ribbed metal roof. It has a wood pen on its south side, and an open, shed-roof extension on its north elevation. There is a large open bay at the center of the structure facing east.

NRHP Assessment: Dovetail originally surveyed 012-5191 for the Project (Staton 2016), however property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. Resource 012-5191 is a common, small cemetery for the region with vernacular characteristics. It does not feature any stand-out landscape features, and its markers have no special characteristics or design. All the structures on the property are less than 50 years in age. Therefore, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under

Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

Buckingham County

Of the four resources surveyed in Buckingham County, all of which are residences, three had been visited previously for the Project. One of these, 014-5065 has been recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP by ERM. The remaining two previously visited resources, 014-5066 and 014-5074, were not accessible at the time of survey and not enough information could be gathered in order to make a firm assessment. These two resources are assumed to be eligible for the purposes of the Project. One newly recorded resource, 014-5088 is recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP.

014-5065

The resource located at 984 Dixie Hill Road, Dillwyn in Buckingham County, is approximately 0.4 miles south of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 10). Agricultural fields bordered by stands of woods lie to the north, east, and south of the resource. Farms and scattered residences are widely spaced along Dixie Hill Road. Set back approximately 0.1 miles from the road, which follows a ridgeline between Horsepen Creek to the east and Pitman Creek to the west, the group of farm buildings was built on the east side of a broad hilltop. The resource includes a dwelling and eight outbuildings, accessed by a long gravel-paved drive. The dwelling is sited within a grouping of trees, with a tall wooden utility pole on its south side. Due to the rise of the terrain at the hilltop and the trees, the structures are only partially visible from the road.

The dwelling is a circa 1900 two-story vernacular I-house clad in clapboard siding (Appendix B, Figure 63). It is side-gabled with a standing-seam metal roof and an exterior brick end chimney on its northeast elevation. It has a one-story full-length porch at the northwest façade with turned wood posts and a shed roof clad in standing-seam metal (Appendix B, Figure 64). The entrance from this porch is not visible from the road. The house has three bays at the second floor, with two-over-two, double-hung windows with wood sash. There is a two-story shed-roofed addition at the southeast elevation that features the same characteristics as the primary massing. A further circa 1960 hipped-roof addition is located on the southeast side of the previous addition. While not all of the second addition is visible, it features clapboard siding, one-over-one double-hung windows with aluminum sash, and the roof is clad in standing-seam metal. It appears to be in fair to good condition.

Eight accessory structures are visible in aerial photographs; however, only four of the outbuildings are visible from the roadside (Appendix B, Figure 65). To the north-northwest of the dwelling is a circa 1990 two-bay twin gabled carport; its asphalt shingled roof is supported on metal posts. To the east of the carport there is a circa 1980–1990s barn or large storage structure. It is end-gabled with a standing-seam metal roof, and it is clad in T1-11 siding. Two door openings to the barn are visible; at the southern end of the northwest elevation, and near the middle of the southwest elevation. Much of the building is screened by trees. South of the barn is a circa 1950 side-gabled structure that may be a secondary dwelling. It is clad in Dutch lap wood siding and has two-over-two double-hung windows with wood sash; the windows at the southwest elevation that are visible from the public right-of-way are paired. Most of structure's roof is obscured by tree foliage. The northwest end of the building appears to be an integral gabled garage with a roll-up door, an asphalt shingle roof, T1-11 siding, and exposed

rafter ends. The gable end of a small accessory structure to the southeast of the secondary dwelling is visible, but its materials could not be determined. Four additional small storage buildings are located to the east and southeast of these structures.

NRHP Assessment: Dovetail originally surveyed 014-5065 for the Project (Staton 2016), however property access restrictions made an NRHP recommendation impossible at that time. The resource is typical of vernacular I-house architecture in the region. It does not exhibit any features that are unique or outstanding for an I-house of its type, and several additions have impaired its integrity. The associated outbuildings are also either not of age or not of exemplary design, construction, or materials. For these reasons, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

014-5066

This resource is located at 6037 Andersonville Road, near Andersonville in Buckingham County. The primary resource lies about 388 feet north of the Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 10). Initially recorded for the Project in 2015 (Lesiuk et al. 2016), the property was inaccessible at the time of the original survey. Aerial photography indicates that the resource is a farmstead consisting of at least one dwelling, a garage, and a swimming pool. The house seems to have two sections. The south section appears to be a two-story I-house with at least one end chimney and an addition on the south elevation. The north section appears to be a one-story, gabled wing with a center chimney and a shed porch. The garage is located southeast of the dwelling, and the swimming pool is to the east of the dwelling. Two outbuildings in poor condition are located to the south on an adjacent property that likely was part of the original farm. The house is set on a ridge adjacent to the upper reaches of Horsepen Creek, and is reached by a three-quarter mile farm road that passes through recently harvested timberlands. Because of the great distance of the dwelling from the public right-of-way, the resource could not be surveyed (Appendix B, Figures 66 and 67).

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that the resource be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 5).

014-5074

This resource is located at 708 Old Curdsville Road, near Curdsville in Buckingham County. It is located about 485 feet south of the road at the end of a dirt driveway. Originally recorded for the Project in 2016, 014-5074 was inaccessible at the time of survey (Anderson and Staton 2016). The primary resource lies about 108 feet north of the Project survey corridor in an area of mature trees and grass (Appendix A, Sheet 11). The property slopes down to the south to Little Willis Creek. Aerial photography indicates that the resource is a farmstead consisting of a dwelling house, a large garage/barn or storage building, and other small sheds (Appendix B, Figure 68). The dwelling appears to be a ca. 1960s ranch house. This is consistent with historical maps, which show a dwelling in this approximate location in 1968 but not 1958 (USGS 1958, 1968). The garage/barn is located about 180 feet northeast of the house on the east side of the driveway. It is a metal prefab building likely constructed in the 2010s.

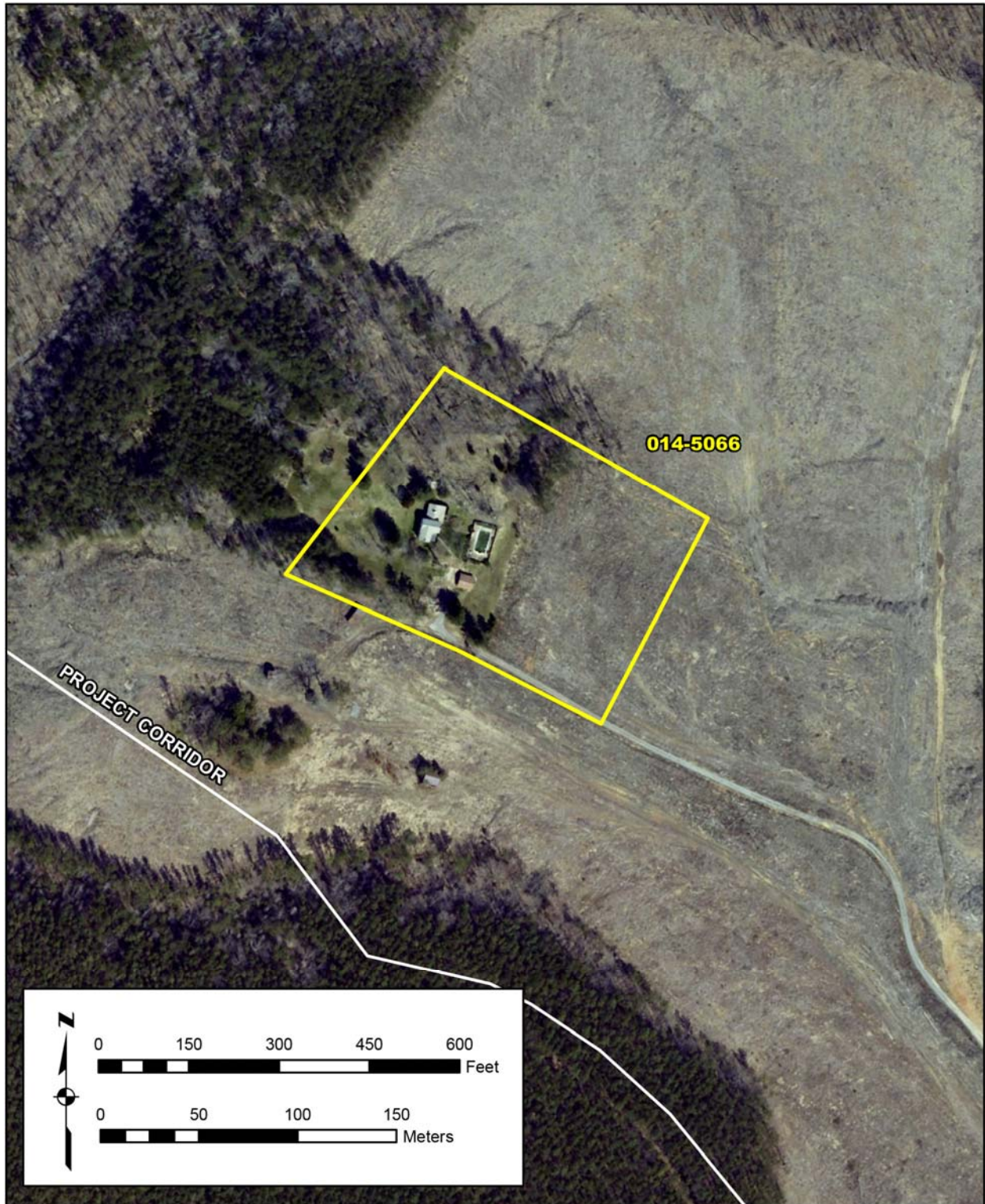


Figure 5. 014-5066, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

NRHP Assessment: The resource was located too far from the public right-of-way to be accurately documented. In accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 014-5074 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 6).

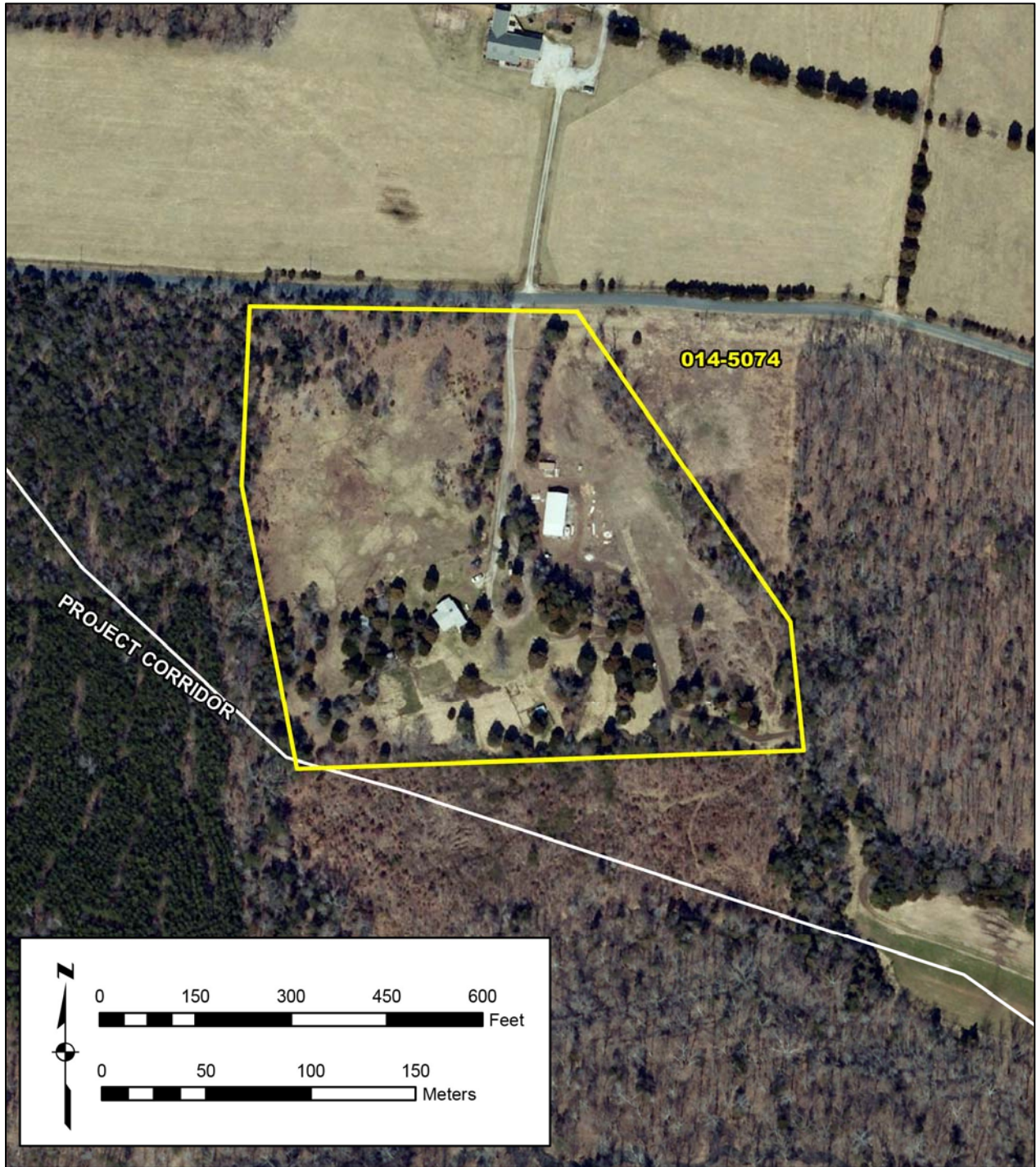


Figure 6. 014-5066, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

014-5088

Resource 014-5088 is located off Woodland Church Road in Buckingham County, approximately 80 feet north of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 9). Also recorded as archaeological site 44BK0382 (Stanyard et. al. 2016), it is within the woods, approximately 1,000 feet east of the James River. It rests at the foot of a hill that slopes down west to a wetland area that follows the river. The resource is accessed via a jeep trail, and it is not occupied. No other structures are present in the surrounding area and the structure may represent a temporary dwelling, such as for a hunting cabin (Appendix B, Figure 69).

The resource is a ca. 1920, log cabin within no chinking (Appendix B, Figures 70 and 71). It is set on a combination of field stone and concrete block piers, which likely replaced field stone piers. The gabled roof features standing-seam metal and vertical board in the gable end. The entrance is a vertical-board door in disrepair that faces southwest. The cabin features square joints with large wire nails appearing to connect the log joints to a vertical member. The cabin also has cut nails noted in some of the logs. To the south of the structure is a grouping of poured-concrete piers that were once a foundation; however, trees now grow between them. During the survey, a collapsed brick chimney was also noted near the concrete piers.

NRHP Assessment: Resource 014-5088 is a relatively common log structure for the region. Its features are simple and the structure is in disrepair. It does not appear to display any significant characteristics or exhibit features that are the work of a master. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

City of Chesapeake

Two resources were surveyed in the City of Chesapeake. Resource 131-0035, the Great Dismal Swamp Canal, is listed on the NRHP, and ERM recommends that it retains its eligibility. Resource 131-5382 is no longer extant, having been replaced by a modern structure (see below). ERM recommends that the resource no longer meets the age threshold to be considered eligible for the NRHP. Updates will be provided to the SHPO for their records.

Resource 131-5382 was located at 1201 Richwood Avenue in the City of Chesapeake, approximately 116 feet north of the Project centerline. It was first surveyed in 2008 as part of cultural resource investigations related to the adjacent transmission lines. At that time, it was recorded as a one-and-a-half story, three-bay structure with a side-gable roof and shed-roof dormer, constructed ca. 1940. It was recommended as not eligible for the NRHP. The resource was revisited in 2015 as part of the architectural reconnaissance survey for the current Project, and the surveyor noted that the resource was unchanged since the 2008 survey (DeChard and Lindtveit 2008; Jacobe 2015). However, the resource was reported as "not evaluated" in the accompanying report and was considered outside of the Project APE (Lesiuk et al. 2016).

ERM revisited the location of 131-5382 in January 2017 to determine if the resource needed further evaluation. It was evident that the old dwelling had been razed and replaced with a new structure. This is confirmed by records of the City of Chesapeake Tax Assessor, which give a construction date of 2016 for the two-story residence now located on the property (Appendix B, Figure 72). A Google Earth image shows the lot after demolition of the previous structure and

before the construction of the current structure. ERM recommends that the state resource number for 131-5382 be deaccessioned, since the property is no longer historic.

131-0035 (Dismal Swamp Canal Historic District)

Resource 131-0035 is part of the Great Dismal Swamp Canal Historic District, of which the canal is a major contributing structure. The canal was not assessed in previous surveys for the current Project. The Project corridor crosses the NRHP boundary approximately 0.4 miles northeast of where the canal is crossed by I-64 (Appendix A, Sheet 21; Appendix B, Figure 73). A transmission line crosses the canal at this point and the canal in this area has been partially filled (Appendix B, Figure 74). This portion of the canal is known as the Gilmerton Cut or Deep Creek Canal, which was constructed in 1843 to shorten the route between the northern end of the canal at Deep Creek and the Southern Branch of the Elizabeth River (Kuhlman 1987). The Dismal Swamp Canal was constructed between 1787 and 1800 to connect Chesapeake, Virginia to the village of South Mills, in Camden County, North Carolina.

The privately-funded Dismal Swamp Canal Company began construction in 1793 on a 22-mile canal that would connect the Elizabeth River in Norfolk, Virginia with the Pasquotank River in Camden County, North Carolina. Roads were constructed in Chesapeake as well as along the newly constructed canal in the Dismal Swamp. Promoters hoped the canal would provide a safe trade route between the Chesapeake Bay region and Albemarle Sound. Unfortunately these early Americans did not foresee the frequency of droughts in the area, and in the early nineteenth century, trenches and waterways needed to be constructed to aid in ships' passage through the canal. The canal was also periodically widened and deepened to allow larger vessels to pass. In 1843, the Gilmerton Cut was constructed between Deep Creek and the Elizabeth River, extending the canal by 2.25 miles. The Dismal Swamp Canal did provide an important transportation and trade route between the two states between 1805 and 1859, when competition from the recently constructed Albemarle and Chesapeake Canal, as well as an extensive railroad network, led to its decline. In 1899, a major rehabilitation effort was completed that widened and deepened the canal, which enabled it to operate with only two locks, one at each end. At the same time, the Deep Creek channel was dredged and straightened, eliminating the need for the Gilmerton Cut, which was abandoned (Kuhlman 1987; Virginia Canals and Navigations Society 2004).

NRHP Assessment: Although portions of the Gilmerton Cut, including the section crossed by the Project corridor (Figure 7), have not been maintained and have been filled in by natural and man-made causes, the changes have not compromised the integrity of the Dismal Swamp Canal Historic District as a whole, of which the Gilmerton Cut remains a contributing part (Hearnes 2013; Lesiuk et al. 2015). ERM recommends that the Dismal Swamp Canal District retains sufficient integrity for listing on the NRHP.

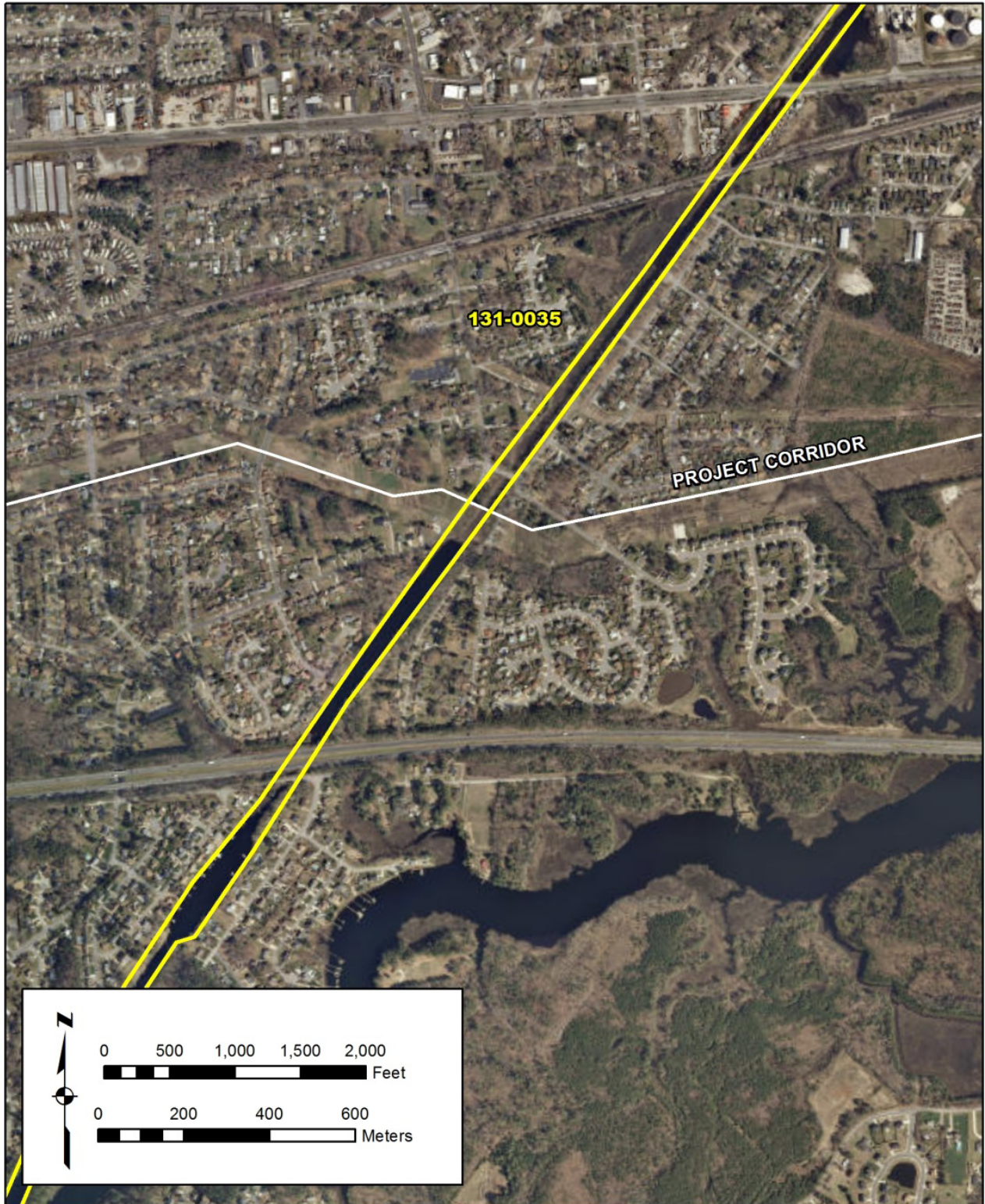


Figure 7. 131-0035 NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

Dinwiddie County

One resource was surveyed in Dinwiddie County. It was not visible from the public right-of-way, and access to the property was not granted at the time of survey. Resource 026-5222 is assumed eligible for the purposes of the Project.

026-5222

This resource is comprised of two residences that are located south of Darvills Road, near the community of Darvills, at the end of long driveway (Appendix A, Sheet 13). Originally recorded for the Project (Anderson and Staton 2016), the property was not accessible at the time of the previous survey, so a NRHP recommendation could not be made. The two dwellings are located on separate parcels. The resource at 4723 is located about 0.3 miles south of Darvills Road and 316 feet northwest of the Project centerline. According to Dinwiddie County tax records, this resource is a one-story, gable-roof dwelling constructed in 1947 (Appendix B, Figures 75 and 76). It has a cinderblock foundation, composition shingle roof, and asbestos siding. A two-story frame building and at least two metal sheds are also located on the property. The dwelling could not be further documented from the public right-of-way during the current survey effort. The resource at 4725 Darvills Road is located about 0.1 miles south of Darvills Road and about 288 feet northwest of the Project centerline. According to tax records, the dwelling at this address is a one-story brick dwelling constructed in 2002. A metal garage of unknown age is also located on the property. A house appears at this location on a 1963 aerial view, indicating that the older residence may have been replaced sometime after 1963.

NRHP Assessment: Because it is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that the resource be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 8).

Highland County

One previously unrecorded resource was recorded by ERM in Highland County. Resource 045-5090 is a farm complex that includes two agricultural buildings and a shed. It is recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP.

045-5090

Resource 054-5090 is located off Jackson River Road in Bath County, approximately 180 feet east of the proposed centerline of the Project, and along a proposed access road associated with the Project (Appendix A, Sheet 1). It is located northwest of the road along a curving, gravel drive. It is set back approximately 415 feet from the road, and the terrain slopes up to the northwest from the road. The resource is set in a clearing of overgrown grass, which is surrounded by woods. The overall area is an agricultural valley in the Appalachian Mountains, and there are scattered residences and farm structures focused along Jackson River Road.

The resource consists of two agricultural buildings and a shed (Appendix B, Figure 77). The first is a ca. 1880 log structure with no chinking set on a fieldstone-pier foundation (Appendix B, Figure 78). The logs are hand-hewn and roughly square at the bottom, but rounded for the upper logs. The joints are V-notched. It has a vertical-board door on its north elevation at center.

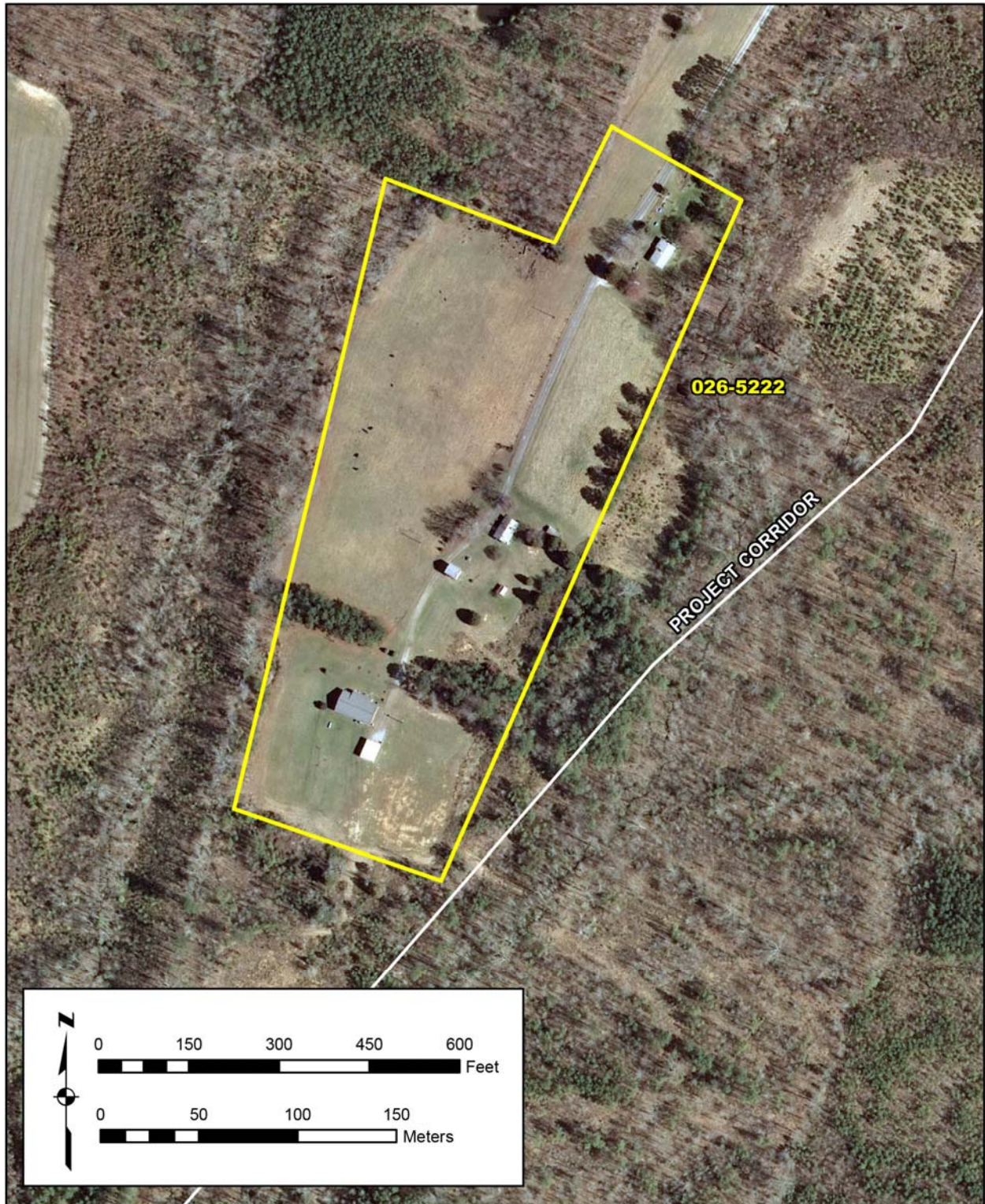


Figure 8. 026-5222, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

The door has three hinges that have been changed over time, two of which are broken. The older hinges have wire nails, while the top one has screws. Nailed into some of the logs are cut nails. The roof is gabled with corrugated metal, and it has vertical board in its gable ends. There is a rectangular opening in the gable end of the southeast elevation. On the south elevation is a wood-frame addition with vertical-board siding. It has a shed roof with standing-seam metal. It has an open bay to the east.

Closer to the road, to the southeast, is a ca. 1930, wood-frame barn clad in wide board-and-batten. It has a central, gabled section and a shed-roof extension to the northeast (Appendix B, Figure 79). The roof is clad in standing-seam metal. There are vertical-board doors on all elevations, and the shed-roof extension has open bays on both its northwest and southeast elevations (Appendix B, Figure 80). The third structure is a ca. 1970, wood-frame shed located in the northern tree line between the previous two structures. It is clad in wide board-and-batten siding, and has a replacement paneled wood door with six-lights at its southwest elevation. It features a shed roof with standing-seam metal that slopes to the northeast. It sits on concrete block piers and has metal chains with hooks hanging on the rear, or northeast elevation, of the structure.

NRHP Assessment. Resource 045-5090 consists of agricultural structures characteristic of the region. The log structure has materials that appear to be replacements, including the door and roof material, and it is not in good condition. The forms of all the structures are unremarkable and do not display any especially significant features. Because they are no longer associated with a historic dwelling, they have lost their integrity of setting and feeling. It is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

Nelson County

One resource, 062-5119-0113, was surveyed in Nelson County. The resource, a ca. 1850 house and associated outbuildings, is recommended eligible for the NRHP, and is associated with the Rockfish Valley Rural Historic District.

062-5119-0113

The resource is located at 2228 Rockfish Valley Highway, about 0.5 miles south of the road at the end of a long private drive. It is approximately 0.1 miles east of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 8). The resource is associated with the Rockfish Valley Rural Historic District (062-5119) and is within the proposed NRHP boundary of the district. The surrounding terrain slopes gently to the east, with large agricultural fields to the north and northeast, divided by the South Fork of the Rockfish River. To the south rise wooded finger ridges associated with Horseshoe Mountain. On the opposite side of the field to the west off Edgewood Drive are developments of late-twentieth century homes with large yards. The resource's structures are located approximately 0.55 miles south of Rockfish Valley Highway, and they are accessed via a 0.7-mile dirt and chip-paved drive that crosses the river approximately halfway to the structures.

The original section of the circa 1850 two-story brick Greek Revival dwelling has a standing-seam-metal hipped roof with end chimneys at the east and west elevations (Appendix B, Figure

81). A three-quarter width one-story porch with a hipped standing-seam-metal roof spans the symmetrical north façade. Its foundation was not clearly visible from the drive; it appears to be of poured concrete or covered with stucco, suggesting that the current porch is not original. Doric columns rest on brick masonry pedestals, with railing panels of turned balusters. The entrance from the porch features a paneled wood door in a door surround of three-light sidelights with wood panels below, and a six-light transom above. There are aligned nine-over-six double-hung windows at the first and second floors; the central window at the second floor is flanked by five-light sidelight panels, mirroring the composition of the entrance below it. Aerial photographs show a number of additions that are not visible from the drive, including a hipped addition at the south façade, a two-story gabled ell, and a hipped addition on the east side of the ell. The dwelling appears to be in good condition.

The previous survey of the property recorded a garage, barn, stable, swimming pool, secondary/guest dwelling, slave quarters, and three sheds (Appendix B, Figure 82). The circa 1850–1870s gabled barn is located to the west of the dwelling, on the opposite side of the drive. It has a fieldstone foundation which responds to the site's slope, and includes two fixed windows (Appendix B, Figure 83). It has an updated ribbed metal roof, and appears to be clad with vinyl siding. The pattern of the fenestration on its east façade appears to include a window and a sliding door on an overhead track at the lower level, and a loft opening with a door-like hinged cover at the upper level; the doors and the cover have a braced lower section, and the lower level door appears to have two windows in its upper half. A raised wood deck with steps at the barn's west façade indicates another entrance. The barn appears to be in good condition. At the northwest corner of the barn there is a small circa 1900–1920s gabled shed. It has a poured concrete foundation that responds to the site's slope, a weathered standing-seam-metal roof, and it is clad with weatherboard siding. There is a door at its east façade, but no other fenestration is visible from the drive. It appears to be in fair to good condition. Five additional gabled structures are partially visible to the southwest of the house (Appendix B, Figure 84). One is a gabled storage shed, which may also have a poured concrete foundation and weatherboard siding, and a round window or vent at its gable end. There is an end-gabled well house with an asphalt shingle roof. There also is a gabled structure that may be the secondary/guest dwelling, featuring a large multi-light window in its gable end and weatherboard siding. There is a smaller gabled structure of which only a portion of the roof and its north façade is visible. A corrugated metal roof may belong to the stable. Not enough of these buildings was visible to assess their condition. The swimming pool and at least one additional shed were not visible from the drive.

NRHP Assessment: In a 2015 survey by Hanbury Preservation Consulting and the William & Mary Center for Archaeological Research (WMCAR), the resource was recommended as eligible for the NRHP under Criteria A and C in the areas of Agriculture and Architecture. The dwelling has had numerous additions and material renovations, but appears to retain sufficient integrity for listing in the NRHP, and ERM concurs with the recommendation that it is individually eligible under Criterion C and as a contributing resource to the Rockfish Valley Rural Historic District. It was previously noted to be a good example of mid-nineteenth-century farm life in the area, and ERM also concurs with this recommendation that it is also eligible under Criterion A. The historic research for this Project did not identify any individuals associated with the resource whose significance would recommend it for the NRHP under Criterion B. The proposed NRHP boundary for the resource is depicted in Figure 9.

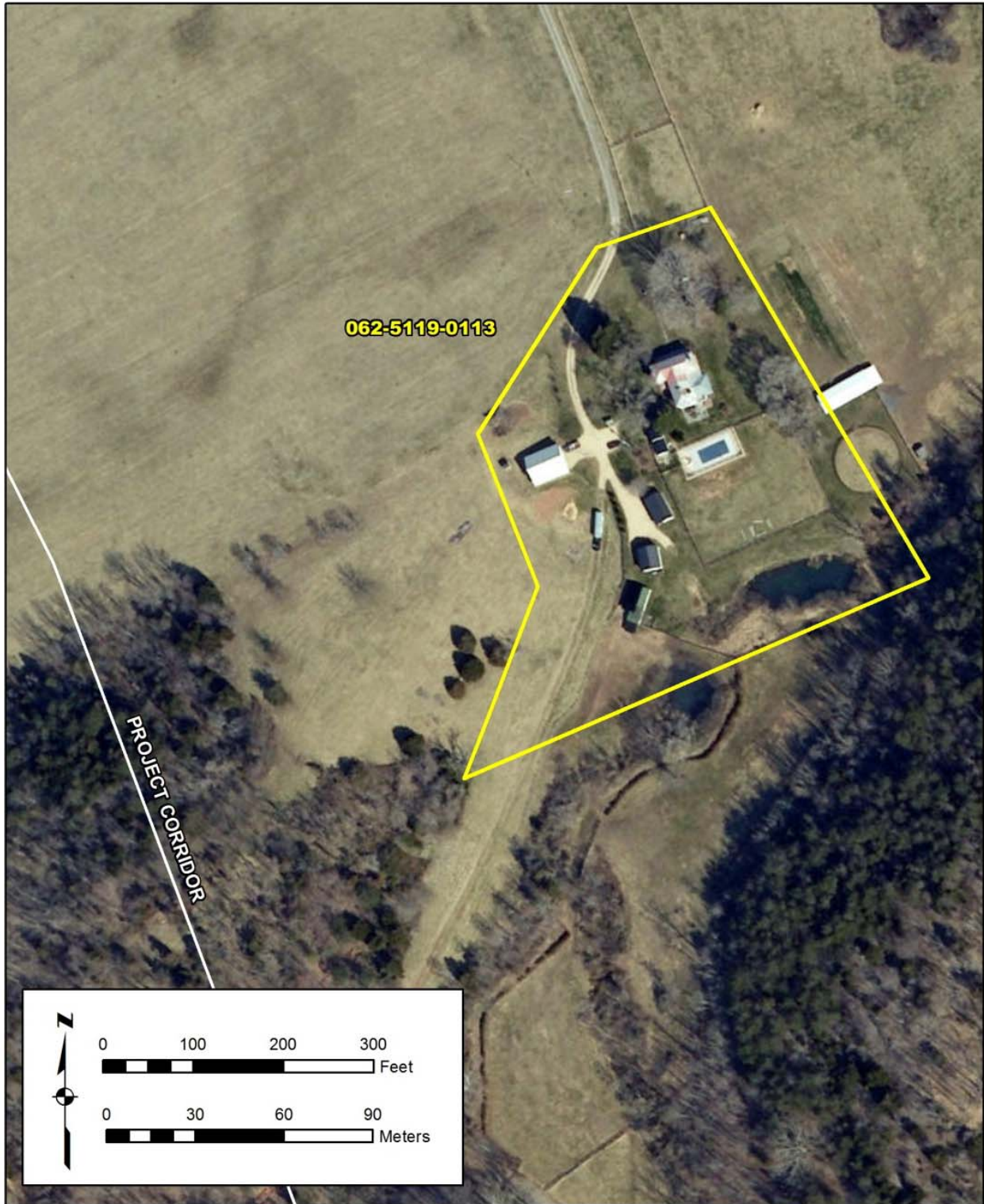


Figure 9. 062-5119-0113, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

Nottoway County

One resource, the Fort Pickett Historic District (067-0110) was surveyed in Nottoway County. This previously recorded resource is recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP.

067-0110

Resource 067-0110 is the Fort Pickett Historic District, which is defined by the boundary of the Fort Pickett Military Reservation, containing approximately 4,770 acres to the south and west of the proposed Project corridor in Nottoway, Dinwiddie, and Brunswick counties. The survey corridor borders the reservation boundary for about 0.7 miles on the northeast corner of the reservation and for about 1 mile on the southeast corner (Appendix A, Sheets 12–14).

Fort Pickett, originally known as Camp Pickett, was constructed as a World War II training facility and was used by the National Guard during the Cold War. The main cantonment area, warehouse area, airfield, and other activity areas are all located on the west side of the reservation, and no architectural resources associated with the historic use of the facility have been identified within the Project APE (Appendix B, Figures 85 through 87). The facility was first surveyed in 1995, but the survey was incomplete and lacked an adequate context for evaluation. Although VDHR recognized the potential for a historic district, by the time of a 2009 survey by Versar, Inc., the majority of World War II era buildings had either been demolished or had significant changes to materials, form, and function, resulting in a loss of integrity (Griffits 2009). In 2010, VDHR staff concluded, “The architectural resources comprising Fort Pickett do not represent a historic district eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places” (Holma 2010).

NRHP Assessment: The Fort Pickett Historic District (067-0110) has been determined ineligible for the NRHP. ERM concurs with this recommendation.

Southampton County

Three resources were surveyed in Southampton County, all of which had been previously surveyed as part of the Project. Resource 087-5613 is recommended ineligible for inclusion on the NRHP. Resources 087-5610 and 087-5618 were not accessible at the time of survey, and are assumed to be eligible for listing on the NRHP for the purposes of the Project.

087-5610

This resource is located at 19120 Lassiters Drive, about 1.5 miles northeast of the community of Boykins and 209 feet south of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 16). The resource consists of a farmstead located at the end of a 0.57-mile farm road that serves as the driveway for the main dwelling. Originally recorded for the Project in 2015, 087-5610 was inaccessible at the time (Lesiuk et al. 2016). The resource is a 1926 one-story dwelling with four outbuildings (Appendix B, Figures 88 and 89). The buildings are situated in a 107-acre lot of cleared land with agricultural fields to the northeast and dense wooded areas to the northwest, southwest, and southeast. According to tax records, the dwelling has a porch addition on the west elevation, and a one-story addition to the east elevation. It has a cinderblock foundation and walls, and a metal gabled roof. Tax records also indicate that one of the outbuildings was built in 1926. It has a cinderblock foundation and exterior, with a metal gabled roof. According to aerial photographs and historic views, the three other outbuildings also have metal, gabled

roofs. Resource 087-5610 could not be sufficiently observed from the public right-of-way to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility.

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 087-5610 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 10).

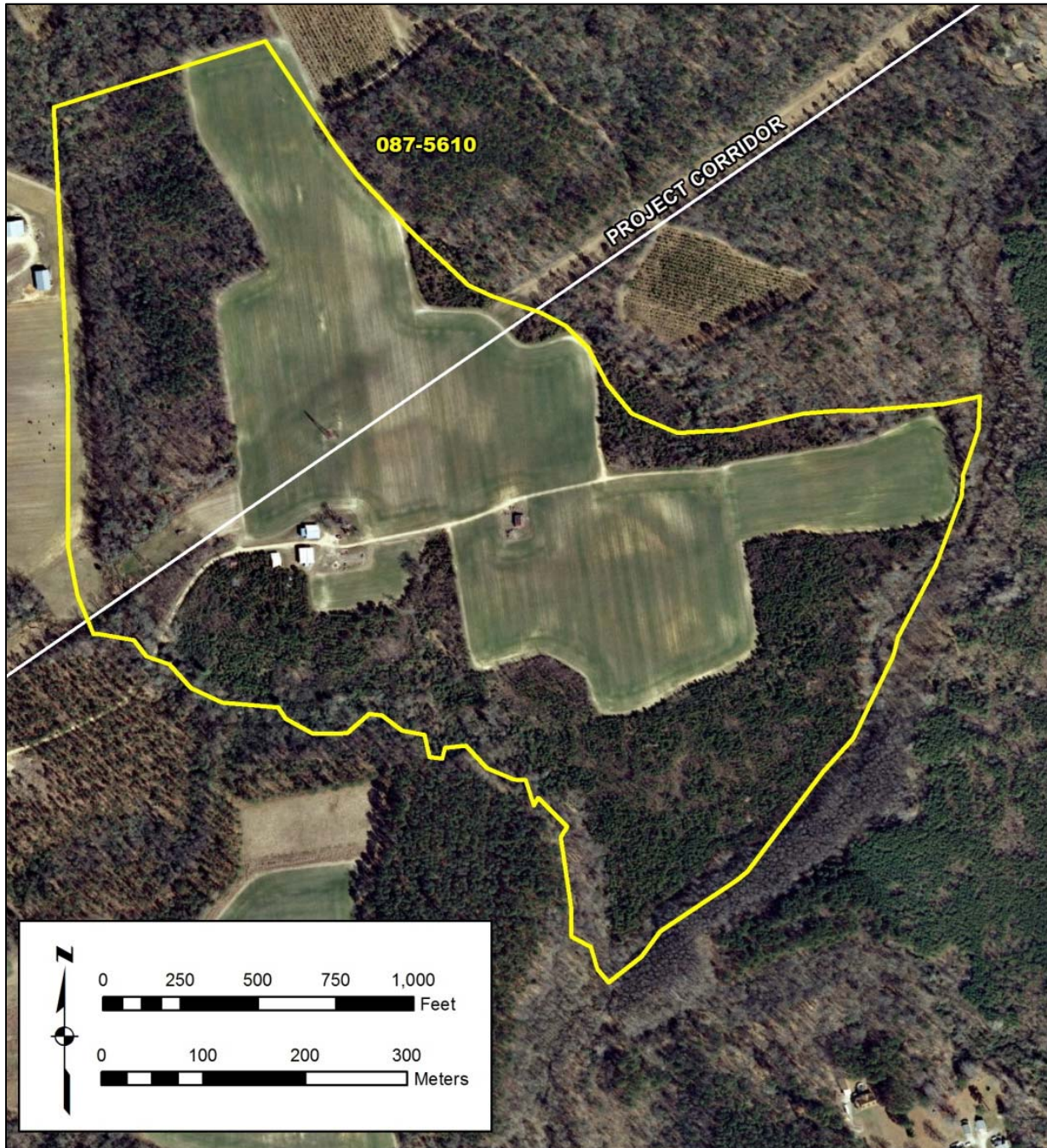


Figure 10. 087-5610, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

087-5613

The resource at 24092 Thomaston Road/Route 709 in Southampton County is approximately 0.15 miles north of the proposed Project (Appendix A, Sheet 17). The area to the east, south, and southwest have large agricultural fields bordered by woods. To the northwest, the north side of the road is lined with modest mid-twentieth century homes with a wooded slope behind them. The resource is situated higher than the road at the end of a rock-chip-paved driveway, about 0.1 miles south of Thomaston Road, with the terrain sloping moderately down to the north, east and west sides of the dwelling. The bed of an intermittent stream parallels the road on its south side, and the resource's driveway crosses it on berm with a culvert beneath it. There is an open tree line on the bank of the stream, with dense rows of trees and vegetation on the east and west sides of the yard around the structures. There is an overhead transmission line running east to west across the field behind the house, immediately adjacent to the north side of the proposed Project corridor.

Resource 087-5613 is a circa 1900 one-and-a-half story vernacular I-house with replacement vinyl siding and an asphalt shingle, side-gabled roof (Appendix A, Figures 90 and 91). The house has six-over-six vinyl replacement windows and fixed vinyl shutters. The foundation was not visible from the public right-of-way. The north façade includes a hipped roof porch addition supported by squared wood posts and a wooden baluster. The primary façade features a centered entrance with a paneled door and a vinyl storm door. The details of the door could not be discerned from the public road. The house also includes brick exterior end chimneys on the east and west elevations of the original block of the house; however, a one-story, circa 1940 addition on the east end has now enclosed one of the original chimneys. The addition has the same siding and windows as the original block. Aerial photographs show an extensive shed roof at the south façade, which is not visible from the road. The house is in good condition.

To the south of the house, a barn, shed, three grain bins, one silo, and two outbuildings are visible in aerial photographs, but only the shed, barn, and one bin are visible from the public road. The circa 1960 shed is located near the road, northeast of the main house (Appendix B, Figure 92). It is partially screened by trees and vegetation, but appears to have a standing-seam metal shed roof with wood siding, and is in poor condition. The circa 1910 barn is located to the south-southwest of the house and is a front-gabled, wood-frame structure with a rusticated standing-seam metal roof and vertically-oriented wooden siding; its foundation is not visible from the road (Appendix B, Figure 93). A shed roof extends from the barn's east elevation, but the supports at its outer edge are not visible from the road. The bin is a circa 1970–1980 structure with ribbed metal siding and a standing-seam metal roof (Appendix B, Figure 94). According to aerial photography, there are two other bins to the south of the house of similar material and design to the other one. There also are two outbuildings to the southwest of the house. The details could not be seen from the road, but aerial photography shows that both have gabled, metal roofs.

NRHP Assessment: A sign at its entrance recognizes the resource as a Century Farm. However, there appear to have been numerous modifications and material changes to the structures. It is ERM's recommendation that the resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify and significant events or personages associated with the resource, and ERM also recommends it as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

087-5618

The resource at 28459 Nottoway Farms Drive is approximately 6.1 miles southwest of the community of Franklin and 150.5 feet northeast of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 18). The resource consists of a house located at the end of a 1.5-mile farm road. The property was previously surveyed for the Project in February of 2016 (Anderson and Stanton 2016), but could not be seen from the public-right-of-way at the time of survey. Further, ERM could not access the property during the current survey (Appendix B, Figures 95 and 96). The house is surrounded by dense woods to the north, east, and west, with an agricultural field to the south. The house is situated on a 308-acre lot and has a gabled, metal roof. One front-gabled barn with two shed-roof additions on the northwest and southeast elevations is associated with the property. USGS topographic maps and historic aerial photographs date the house to pre-1964. Resource 087-5618 could not be sufficiently observed from the public right-of-way to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility.

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 087-5618 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 11).

City of Suffolk

Four resources were surveyed in Southampton County, all of which had been previously surveyed as part of the Project. Resource 133-5481, originally recorded as a cemetery, has been expanded to include the entire associated farmstead, but it remains ineligible for listing on the NRHP. The remaining resources, all residences, were inaccessible at the time of survey, but are assumed to be eligible for listing on the NRHP for the purposes of the Project.

133-5481

The resource is located off Holy Neck Road in Suffolk, on the north side of Interstate 58. There is a large agricultural field with woods bounding its northwest and southwest sides as well as a band of woods running northeast-southwest in its center, and encompassing the farmstead, a deteriorated structure, and a cemetery. The proposed Project crosses the northern end of the field, and then follows its northwestern edge at the tree line (Appendix A, Sheet 19). Another large agricultural parcel is located to the northeast, with woods beyond. A development of modest mid-twentieth century homes is located to the east and southeast. The terrain slopes gently in all directions from a high point in the center of the field.

The farmstead is surrounded by one of the agricultural fields, approximately 150 feet southwest of the road and accessed by a gravel drive, and 150 feet south of the proposed Project. There are several scattered trees and ornamental bushes around the house and associated outbuildings in the yard around the dwelling. The farmstead includes a dwelling, four outbuildings, and a well (Appendix B, Figures 97 and 98). The dwelling is a circa 1900 one-story vernacular side-gabled structure, clad in clapboard siding and set on brick piers that have been partially covered and infilled with metal skirting pressed to resemble concrete masonry (Appendix B, Figure 99). The roof is clad in standing-seam metal, with a brick chimney near center of the ridgeline and a stove pipe on the southwest corner of the building. An addition at its southeast façade appears to be an enclosed porch featuring a shed-roofed extension of the

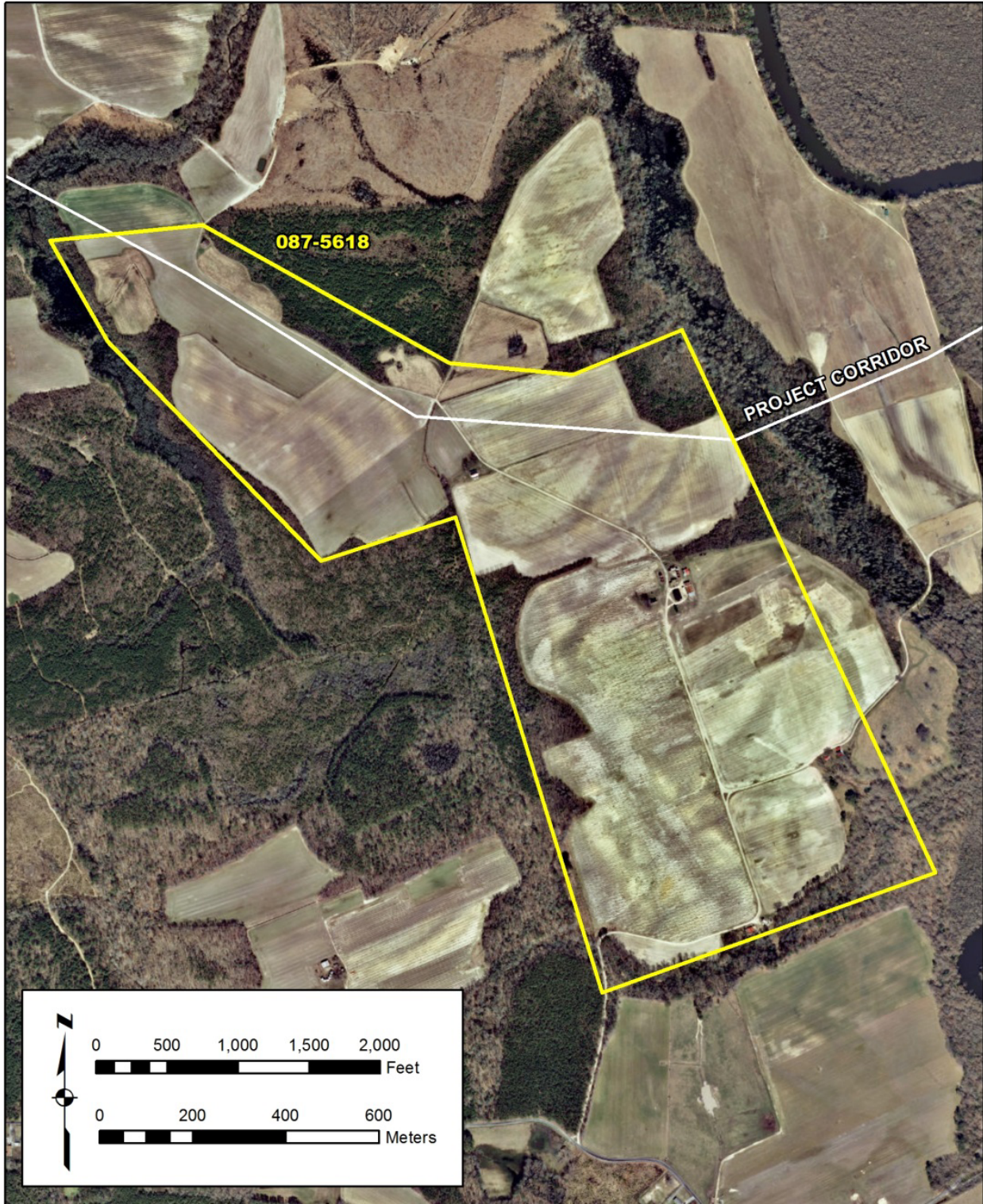


Figure 11. 087-5618, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

dwelling's roof. A metal storm door to the enclosed porch appears to be the primary entrance to the dwelling. This elevation has vinyl siding and features four window openings, one of which was screened and three were filled with plastic sheeting at the time of survey. There are two-over-six, double-hung windows with wood sash at the northwest elevation. There also is an entrance on the southwest elevation, covered by a metal storm door, and metal awning over one of the windows. The exterior is weathered, and the dwelling is in overall fair to good condition.

To the southwest of the dwelling, there is a circa 1900 shed-roofed storage structure set on concrete masonry piers. It is clad in horizontal board and corrugated metal siding, with corrugated metal roof panels. Its exterior is considerably weathered and its roof is sagging; it is in fair to poor condition. On the southwest side of this structure, there is a circa 1940 wood-frame, gabled outbuilding with clapboard and plywood siding and a standing-seam metal roof. Its exterior is also weathered, and it is in fair to poor condition as well. On its southwest side are two pens whose board fence is in the early stage of collapse. Between the pens there is a circa 1900 wood-frame, shed-roof outhouse. It is clad in vertical board, and has a standing-seam metal, shed roof. Its exterior is weathered and it is in fair condition. At the south corner of the dwelling's yard, there is a circa 1940, wood-frame shed clad in corrugated metal siding. It has a standing-seam metal, shed roof and has two bays that open to the northeast. There is also a poured-concrete well with wood-frame, pulley system to the south of the house. It is also weathered and in fair condition.

Within the band of woods that crosses the center of the field, a circa 1900 wood-frame structure is sited adjacent to the road; it appears to be an abandoned dwelling. It is overgrown and surrounded by trees, and only partially visible from the road. It has a dilapidated, asphalt-shingle, gabled roof. It is clad in clapboard siding, and wire nails were observed in its construction. There is a door opening facing to the east. There is no glazing in the windows and not enough of the sash is extant to identify the number of lights they held (Appendix B, Figure 100). The structure first appears on the 1957 Holland USGS Topographic Map (USGS 1957). The resource is in poor condition.

Southeast of the deteriorated structure and surrounded by another agricultural field is the small, unfenced Holland-Beale family cemetery, which contains three headstones and an obelisk. The headstones are in fair to good condition, but there is no definition or design of the cemetery.

NRHP Assessment. The cemetery section of this resource was previously surveyed for this Project (Voisin George et al. 2016). The dwelling is of a form that is common in the surrounding area and it has had several modifications to its form, most notably the vinyl-siding, and the screened-in porch alteration on its southeast elevation. The outbuildings are also common for the region, and are in fair to poor condition. Due to the alterations, combined with a lack of notable features for the resource, it is ERM's recommendation that this resource is not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion C. The historic research carried out for this Project did not identify any significant events or personages associated with this resource, and it is also recommended as not eligible for the NRHP under Criterion A or B.

133-5482

This resource is located at 7676 Harvest Drive, about 0.8 miles southwest of the community of Elwood and 566 feet northwest of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 19). The resource consists of a house and two outbuildings located at the end of a 0.33-mile driveway.

The one-story frame house and three outbuildings are situated on a two-acre parcel surrounded by wooded areas on all sides (Appendix B, Figures 101 and 102). It is located in an area of rural residential and agricultural land use. From aerial views, the house is side-gabled with an asphalt shingle roof and a rear addition. USGS topographic maps and historic aerial photographs date the house to circa 1950. When originally recorded for the Project, 133-5482 was inaccessible for survey (Lesiuk et.al, 2016). During the current survey effort, ERM also was unable to access resource 133-5482, which could not be sufficiently observed from the public right-of-way to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility.

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 133-5482 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 12).

133-5492

The resource at 591 Longstreet Lane is approximately 2.1 miles southeast of the town of Holland and 587.6 feet south of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 20). The resource is located on a cleared lot of agricultural fields, with dense woods to the west. It consists of multiple modern outbuildings and a modern house on the west side of the road (Appendix B, Figures 103 and 104). The property was previously surveyed for the Project in July of 2015 (Lesiuk et al. 2015), and the surveyors found a circa 2005 modern house and a side-gabled historic house with a one-story addition to the north elevation (Myruski 2015a). The July 2015 survey also found a circa 2000 modern house, a circa 2005 barn, and a circa 2000 shed. During the February 2017 survey, the historic house was hidden by thick tree coverage. According to historic aerial photographs and USGS topographic maps, the house was built pre-1920. Resource 133-5492 is approximately 1,730 feet southeast from the public right-of-way, and could not be sufficiently observed to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility.

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 133-5492 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 13).

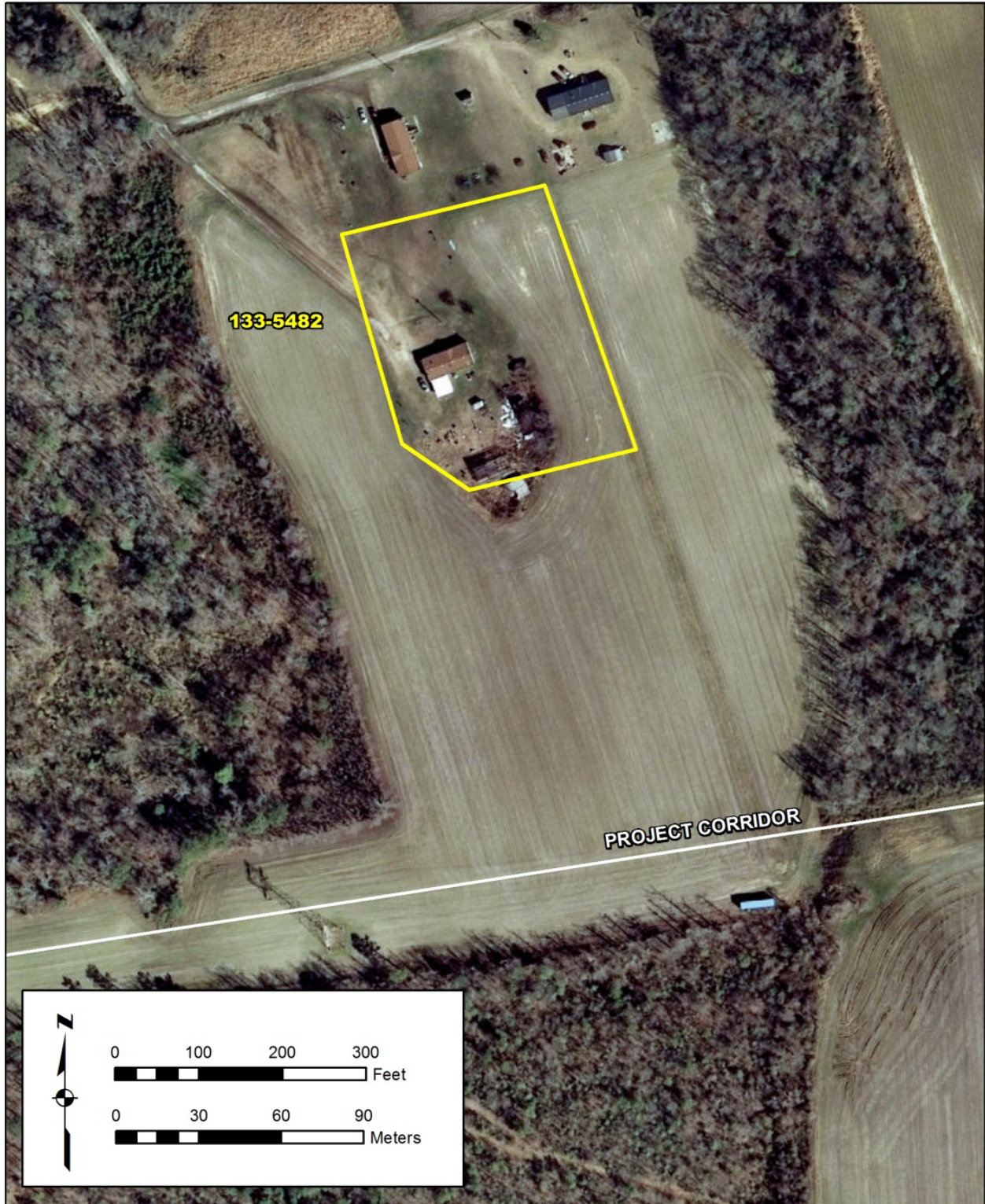


Figure 12. 133-5482, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

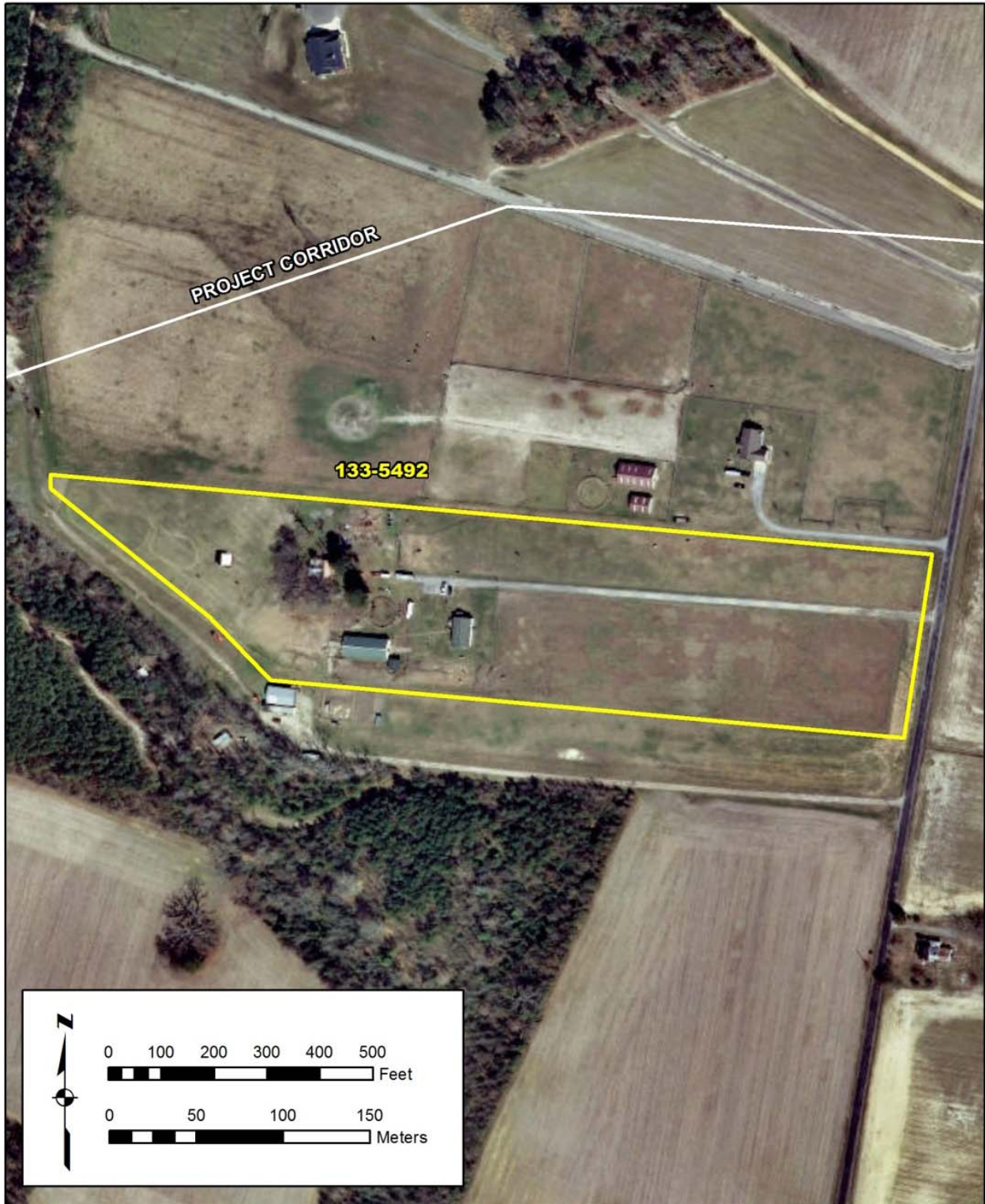


Figure 13. 133-5492, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

133-5498

The resource at 1001 B Lummis Road is approximately 2.1 miles southwest of the community of Lummis and 1,200.8 feet southeast of the proposed Project corridor (Appendix A, Sheet 20). The resource consists of a one-story house, garage, and a gabled structure located about 0.5 miles northwest of Lummis Road surrounded by agricultural fields with a wooded area to the west and north (Myruski 2015b). The property was previously surveyed for the Project in July of 2015 (Lesiuk et al. 2016), but could not be seen from the public-right-of-way at the time of survey. The house is situated on an 80-acre lot and has a hipped, asphalt shingle roof. USGS topographic maps and historic aerial photographs date the house to pre-1919. There is a gabled addition to the southeast and a gabled entry portico to the northeast. Tax accessor records show that the house has a brick veneer exterior. The one-story, three-bay barn is to the north of the house with a metal, gabled roof. The gabled garage is to the west of the house. Resource 133-5498 is approximately 1,400 feet northwest of the public right-of-way and could not be sufficiently observed to make a recommendation regarding NRHP eligibility (Appendix B, Figures 105 and 106).

NRHP Assessment: As the resource is not visible from the road, in accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that 133-5498 be treated for Project purposes as if it is eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted (Figure 14).

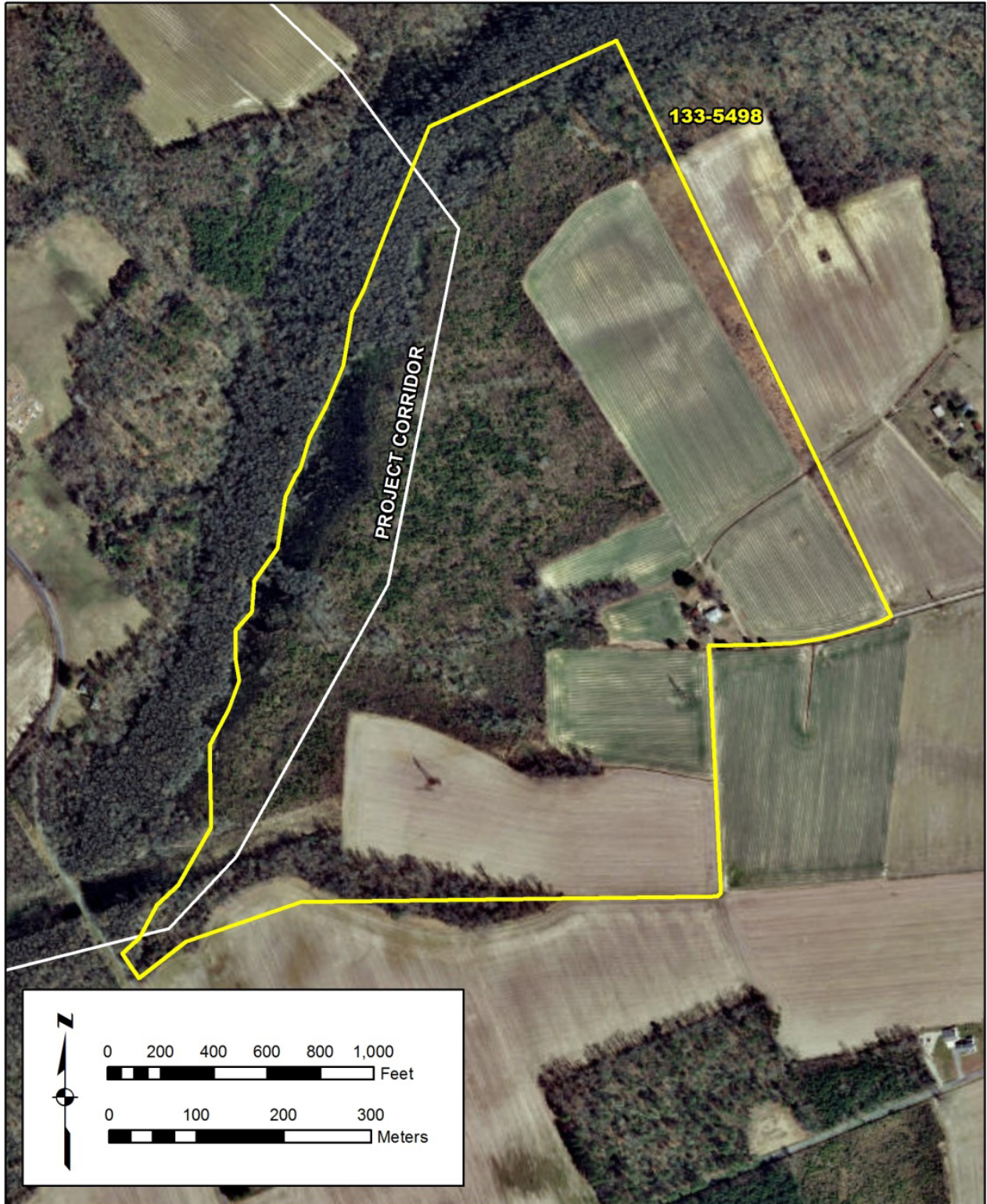


Figure 14. 133-5498, proposed NRHP boundary and relationship to Project.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A total of 37 resources were surveyed during the current field effort. The current document contains descriptions of 6 previously unrecorded resources that were formerly inaccessible and at newly identified access roads and facilities associated with the Project. In addition to these resources, ERM resurveyed 12 previously recorded resources in the APE that had not been surveyed as part of this Project and 19 resources surveyed as part of this Project for which VDHR required additional information. Of these 37 resources, ERM recommends that four are eligible for the NRHP (including one resource already listed on the NRHP), 20 are ineligible, and four are no longer extant. Nine resources were inaccessible and could not be accurately documented. In accordance with guidance from the VDHR, it is ERM's recommendation that these resources be treated for Project purposes as if they are eligible for the NRHP until an assessment and determination of eligibility can be conducted.

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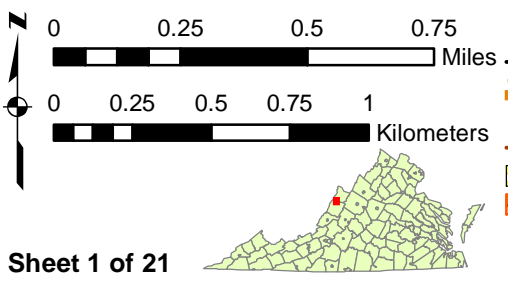
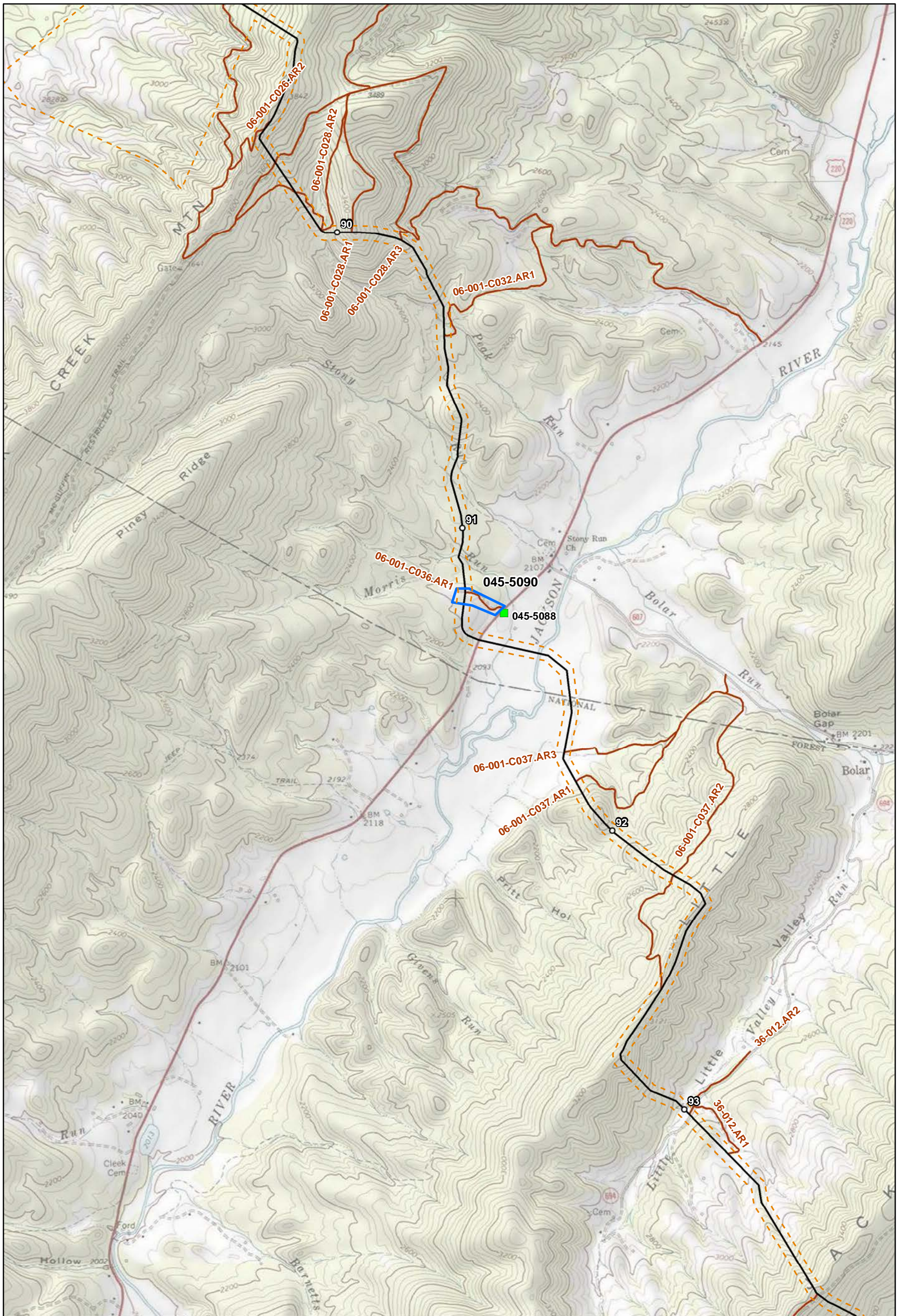
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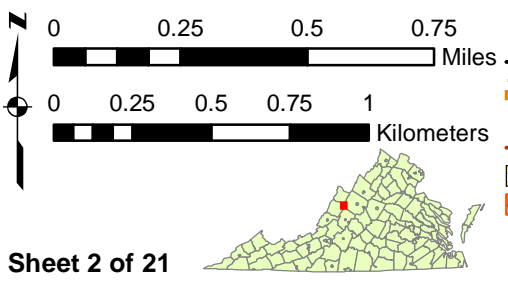
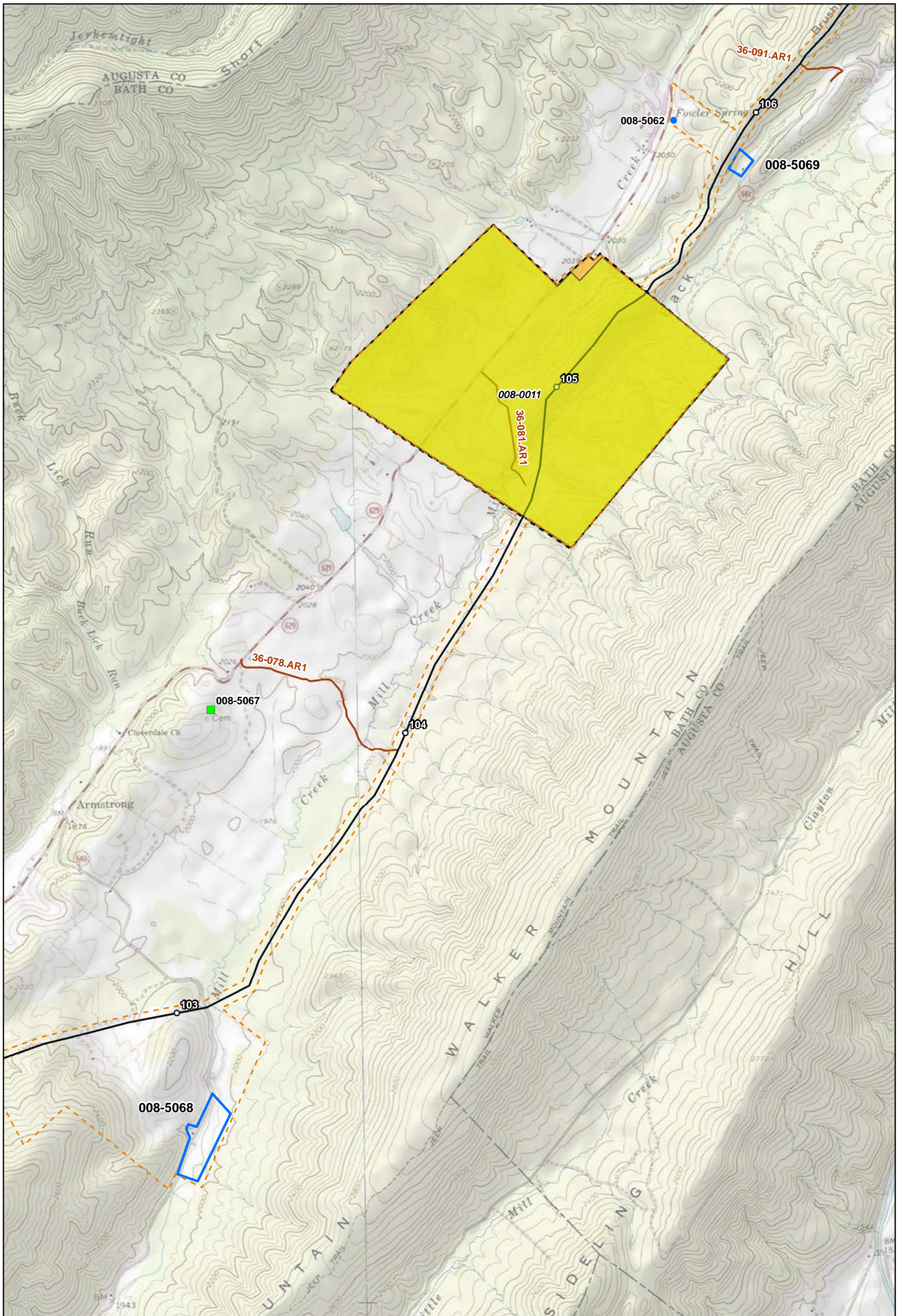
APPENDIX A – PROJECT MAPS DEPICTING RESOURCE LOCATIONS



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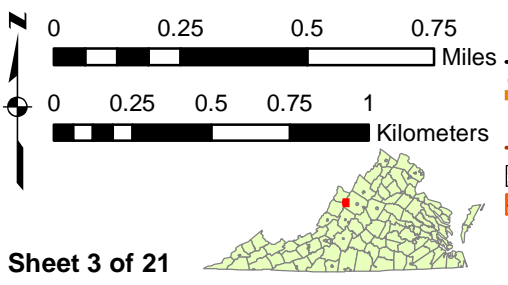
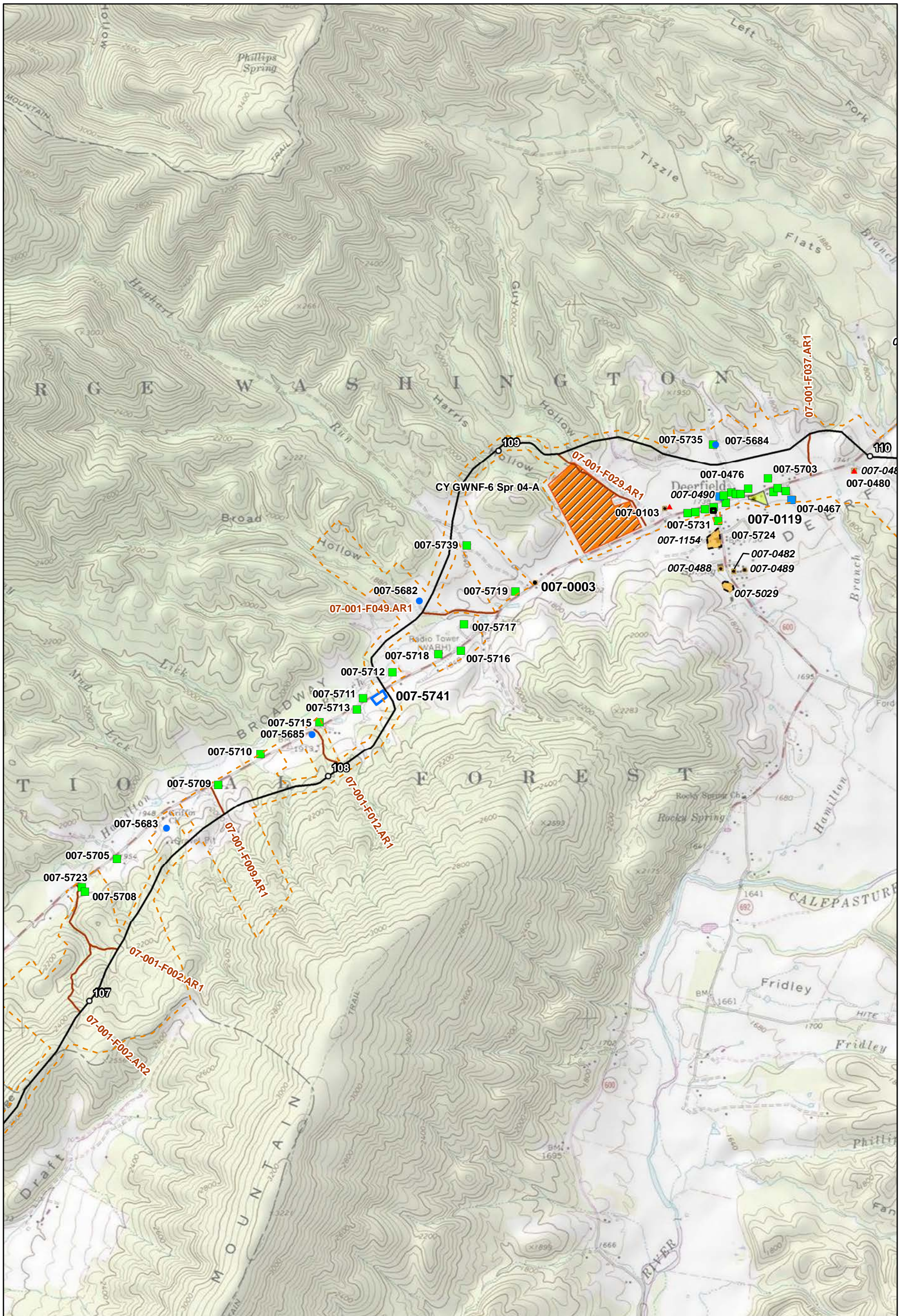
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 - - - Visual APE
 - Mileposts
 - Access Roads for Survey
 - ▨ M&R Stations
 - ▨ Contractor Yards
- Historic Resources Previously Recorded for the Project:
- ▨ Indeterminate
 - ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Not Eligible
 - ▨ Potentially Eligible
 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

- ACP Addendum 3 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Newly Surveyed - Ineligible
 - ▲ Revisited - Eligible
 - ▲ Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Ineligible
 - Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Revisited - Eligible
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 - ▨ Not Extant



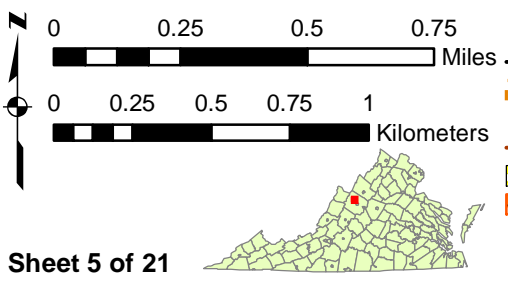
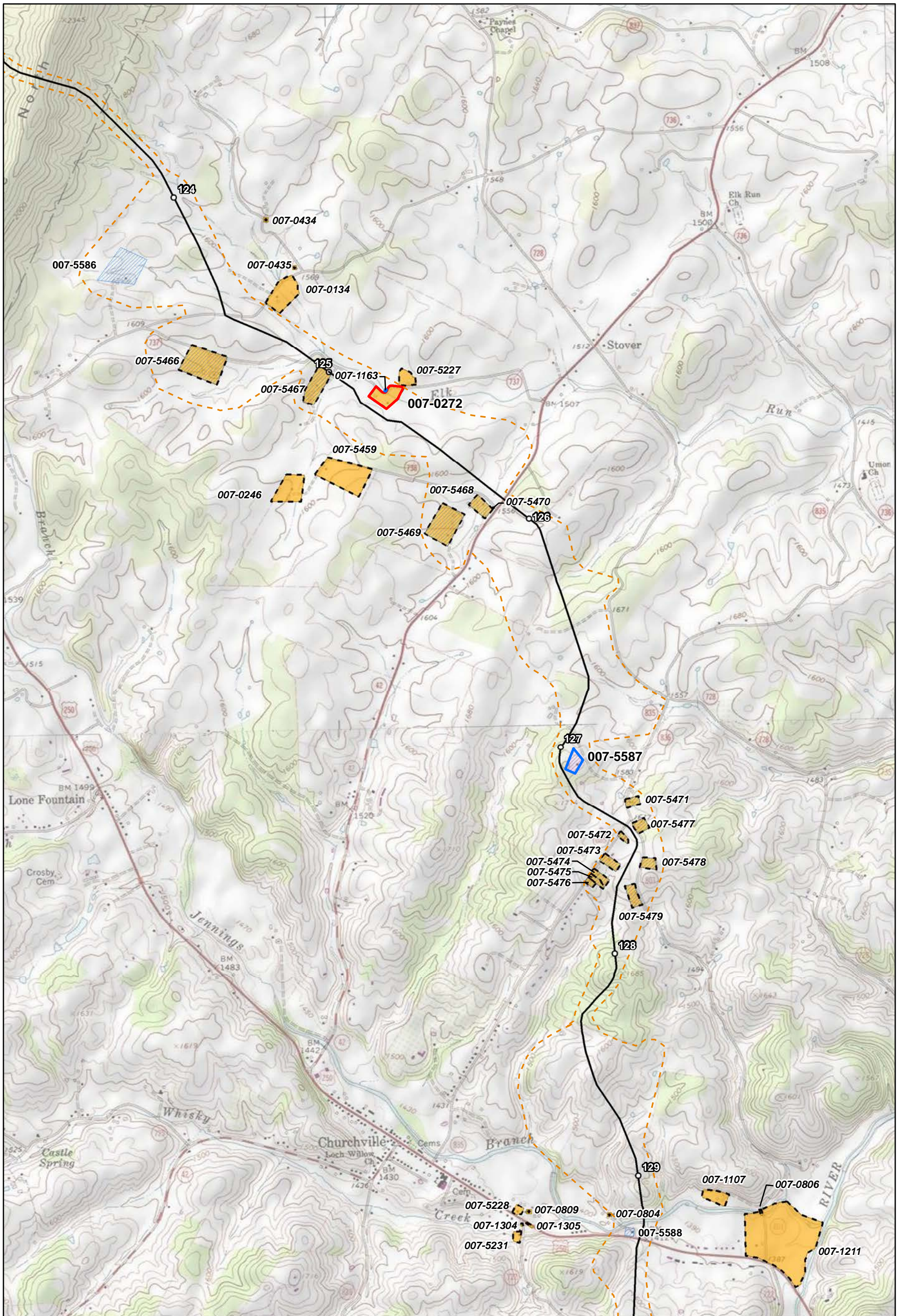
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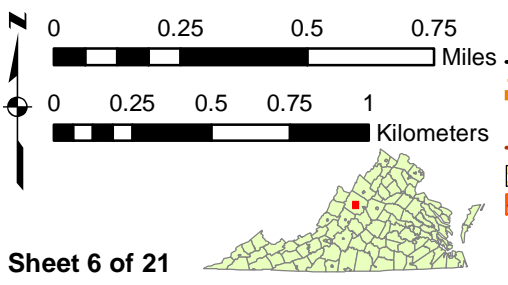
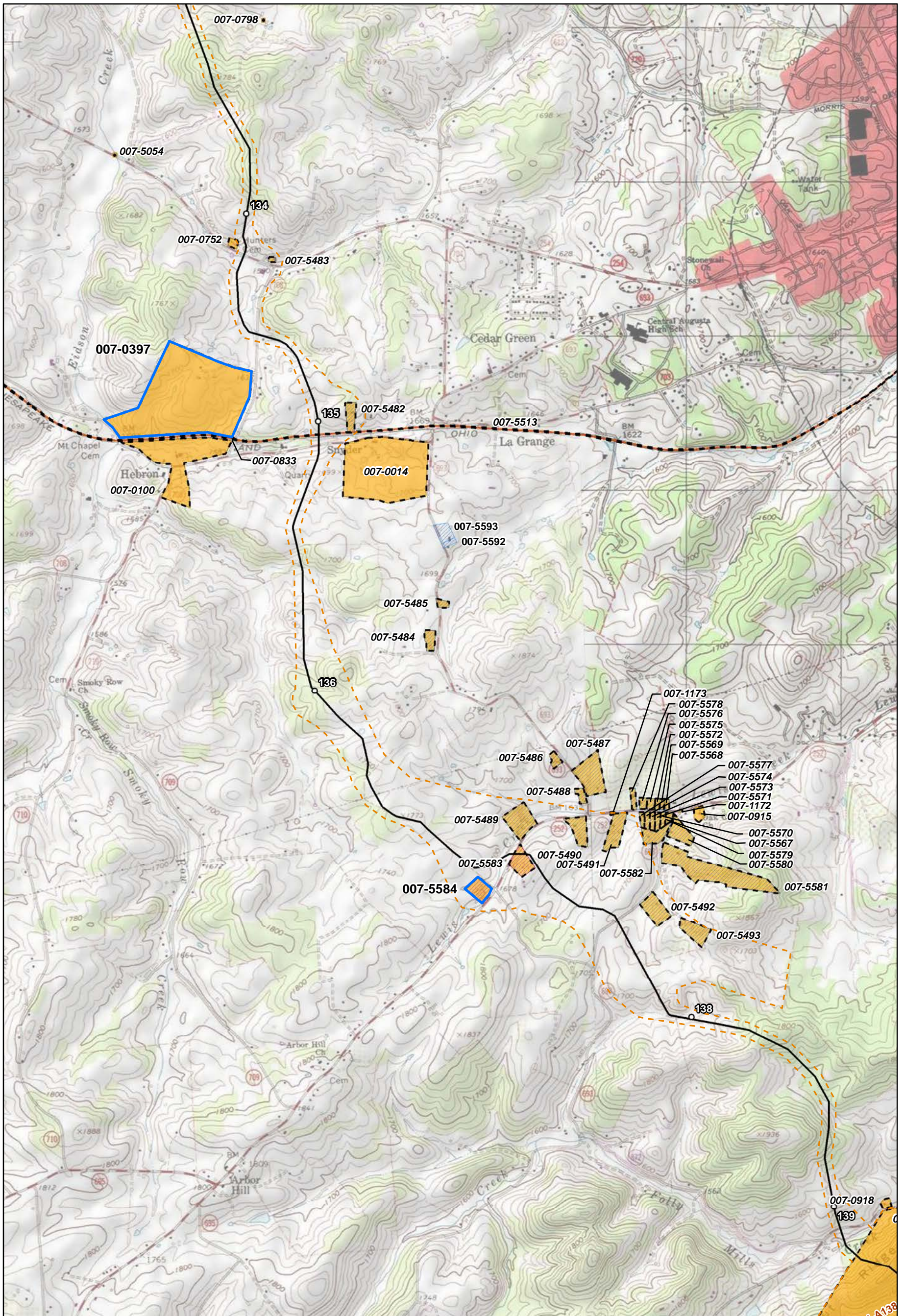
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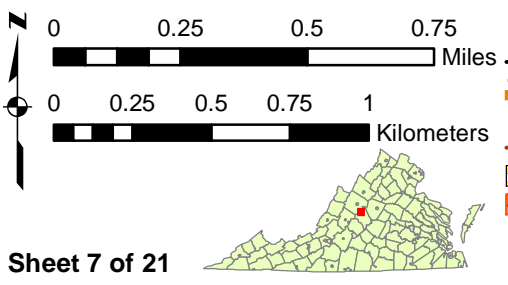
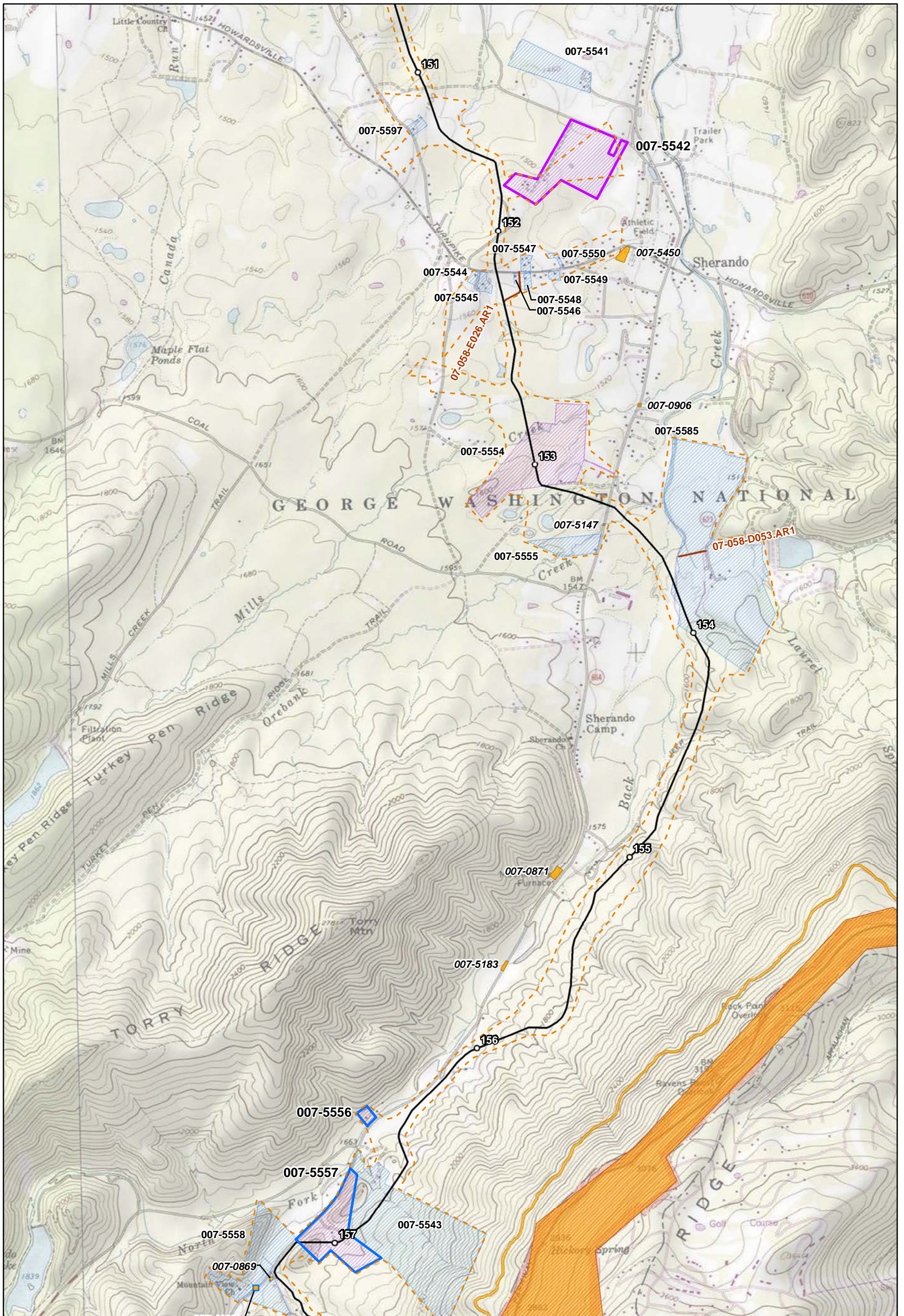
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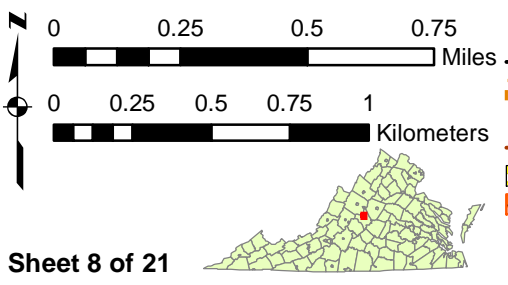
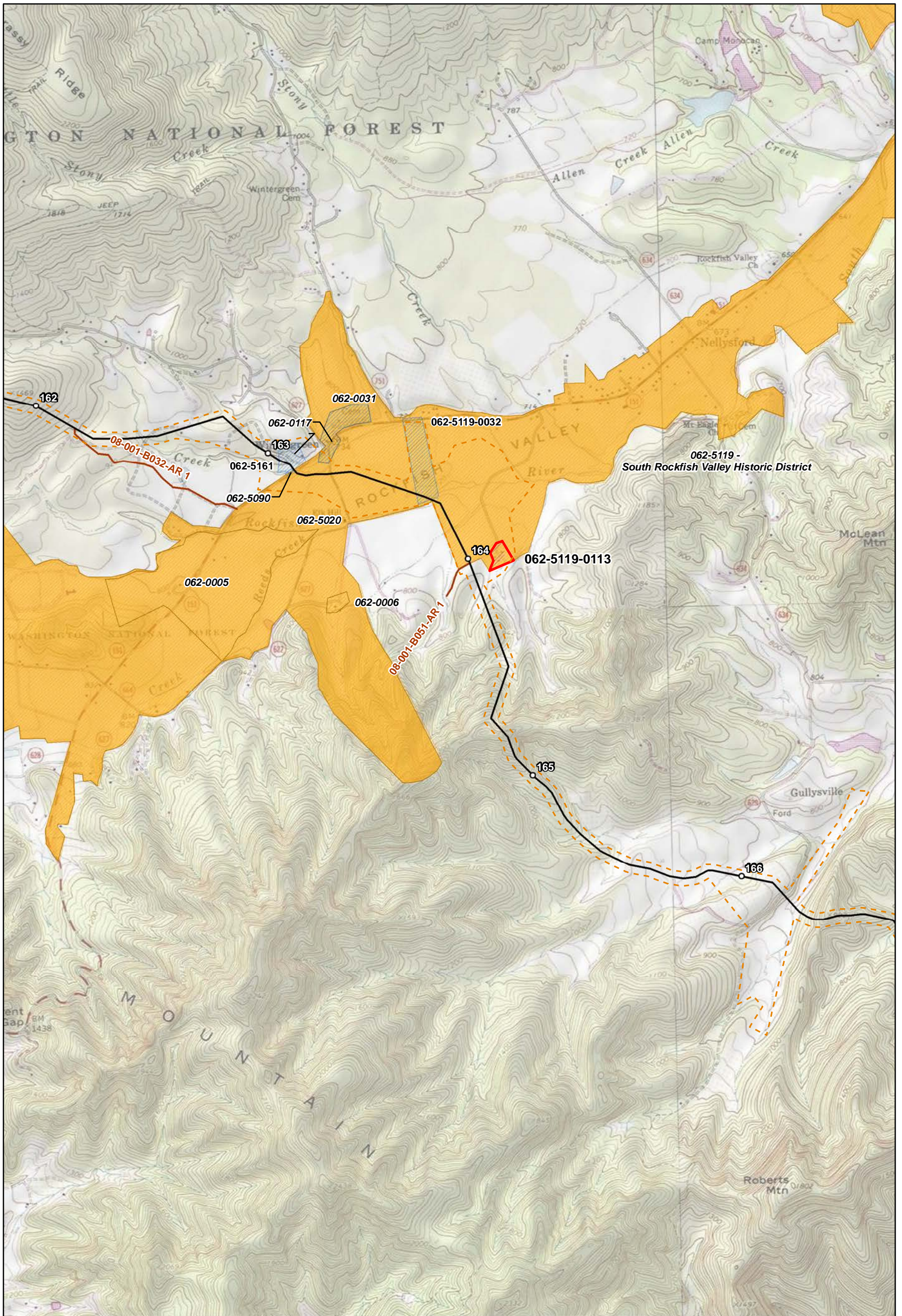
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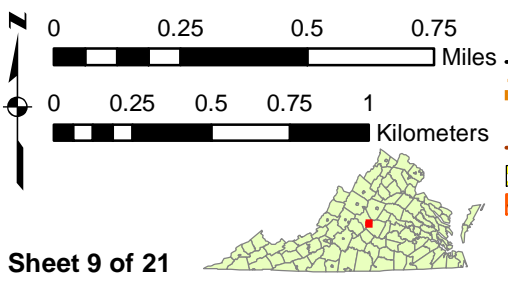
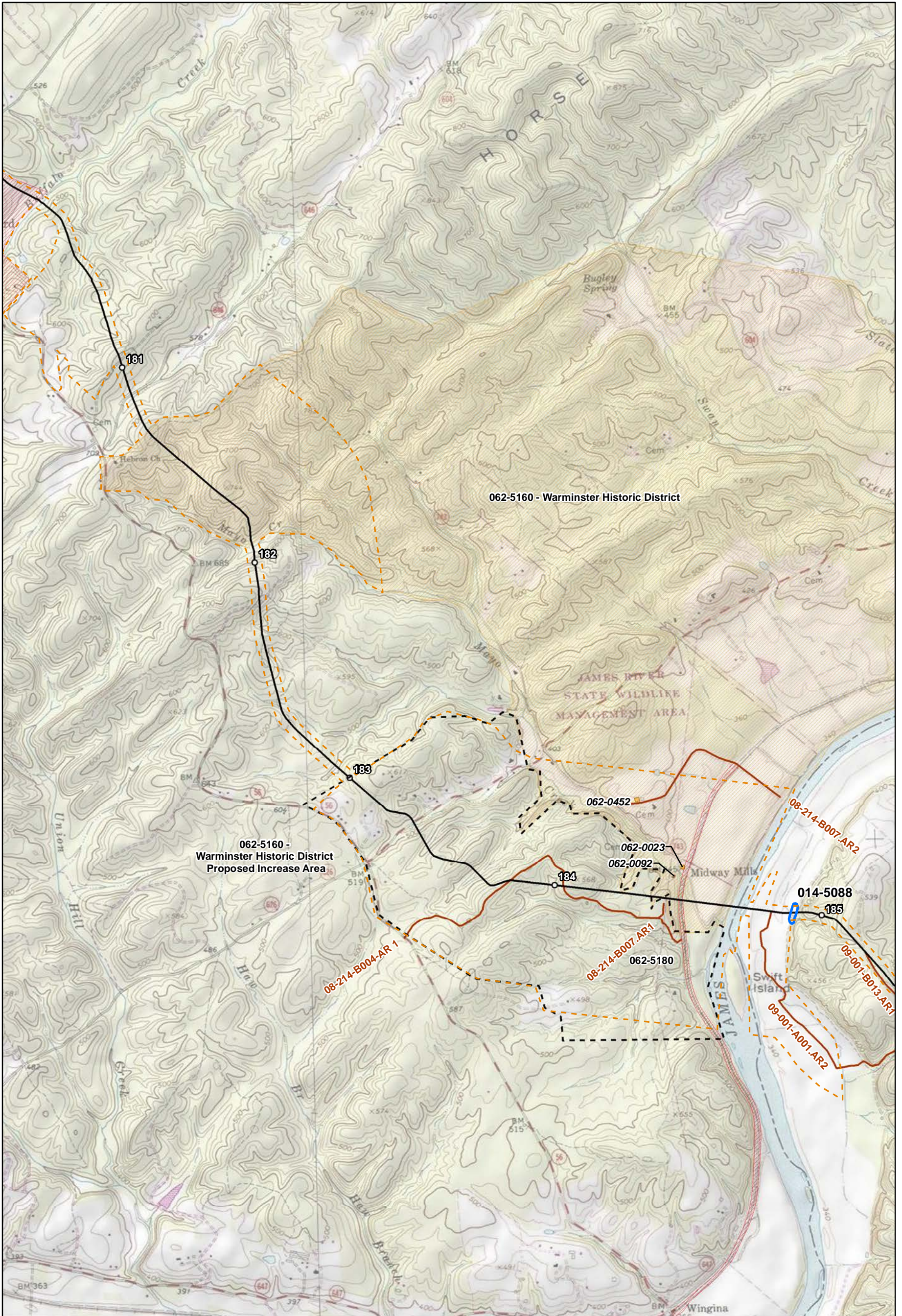
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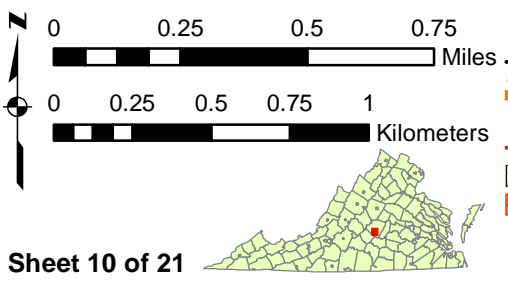
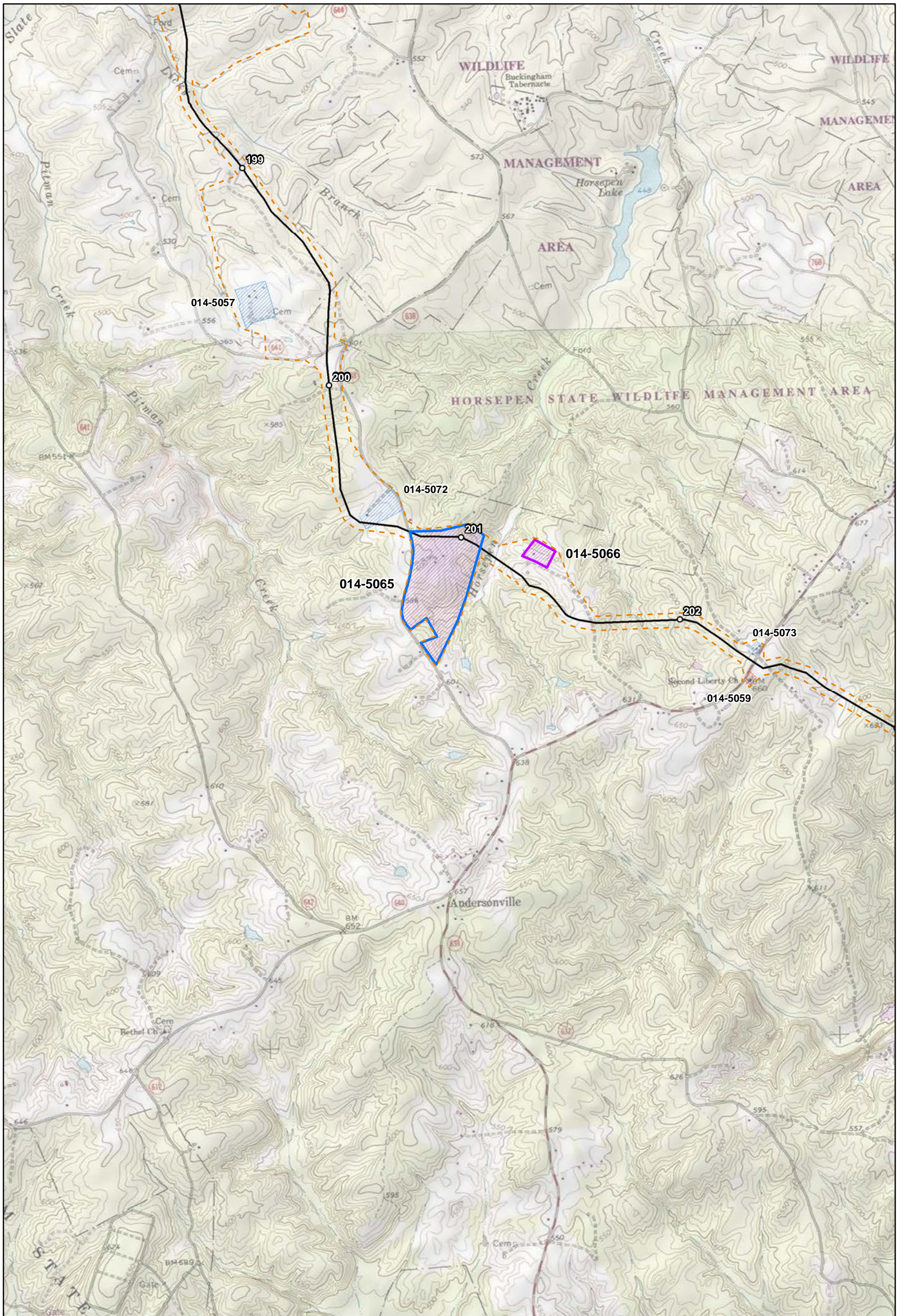
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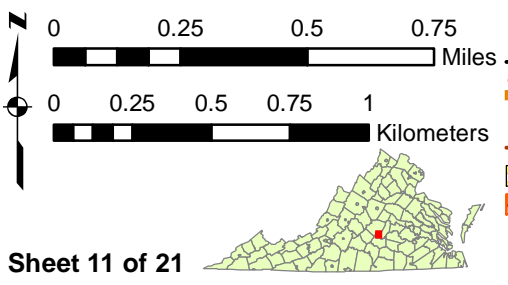
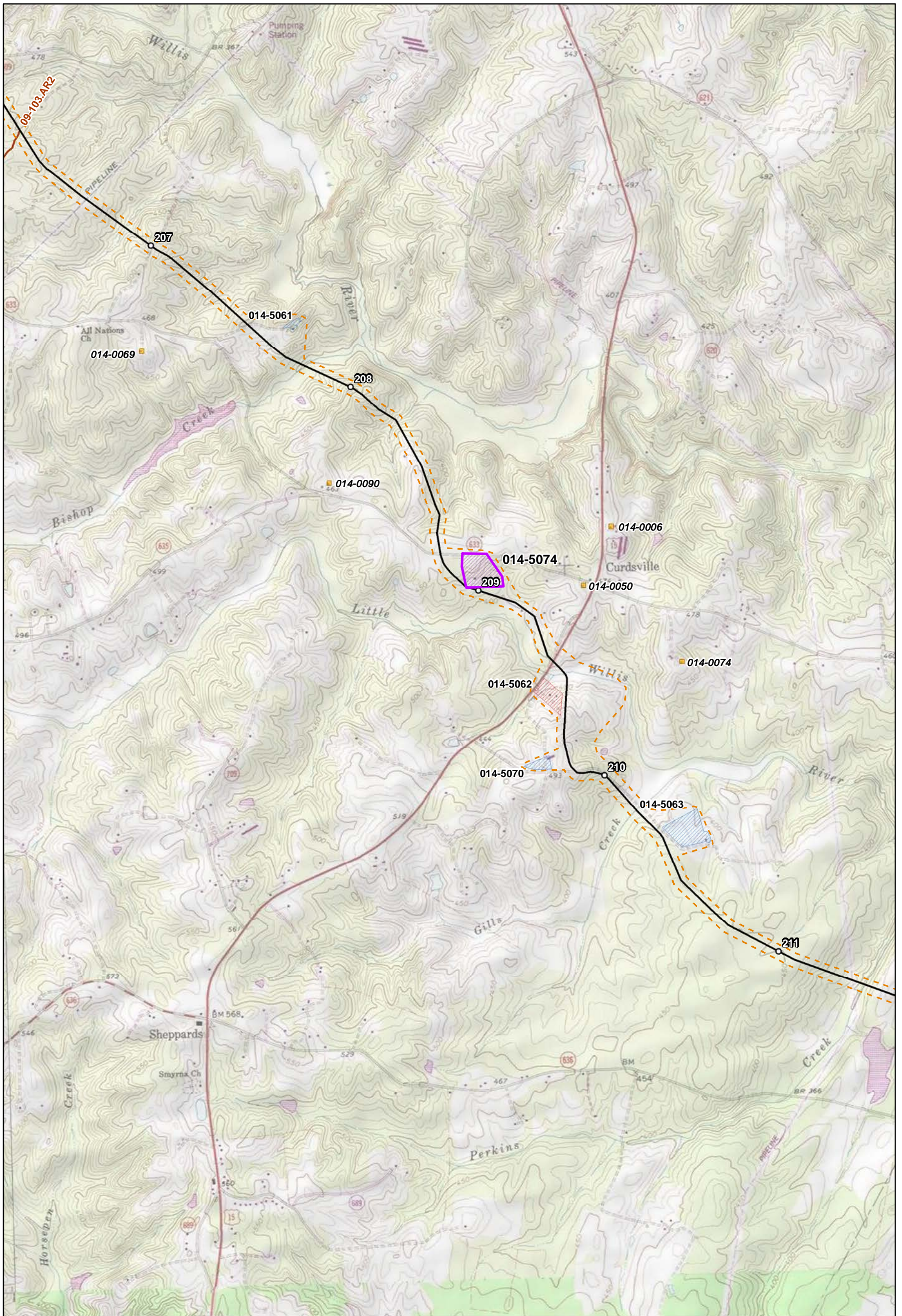
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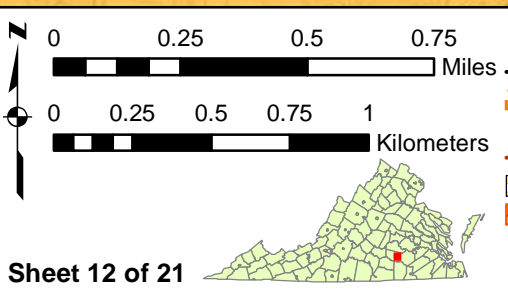
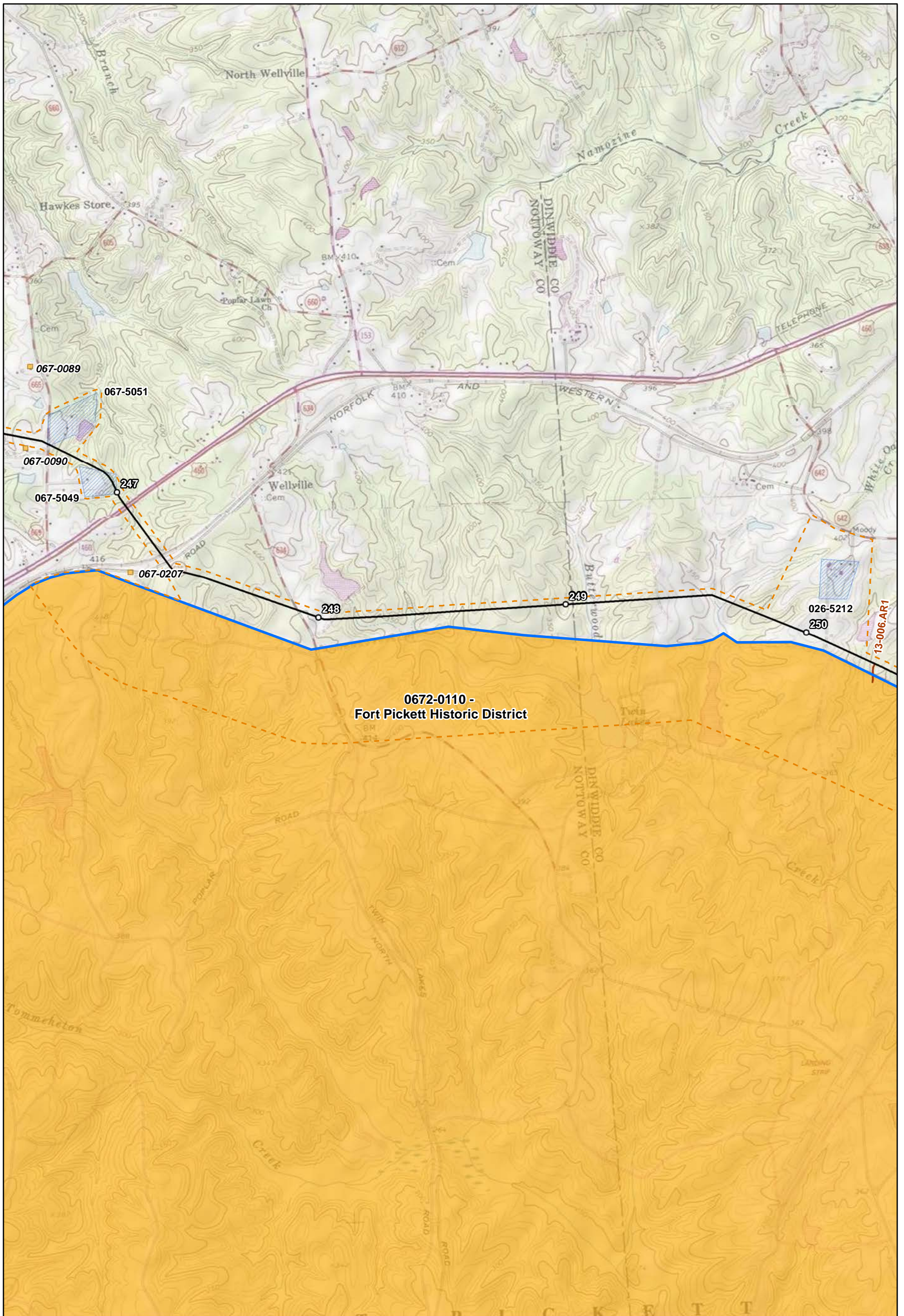
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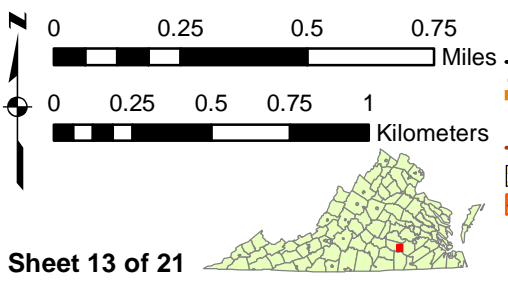
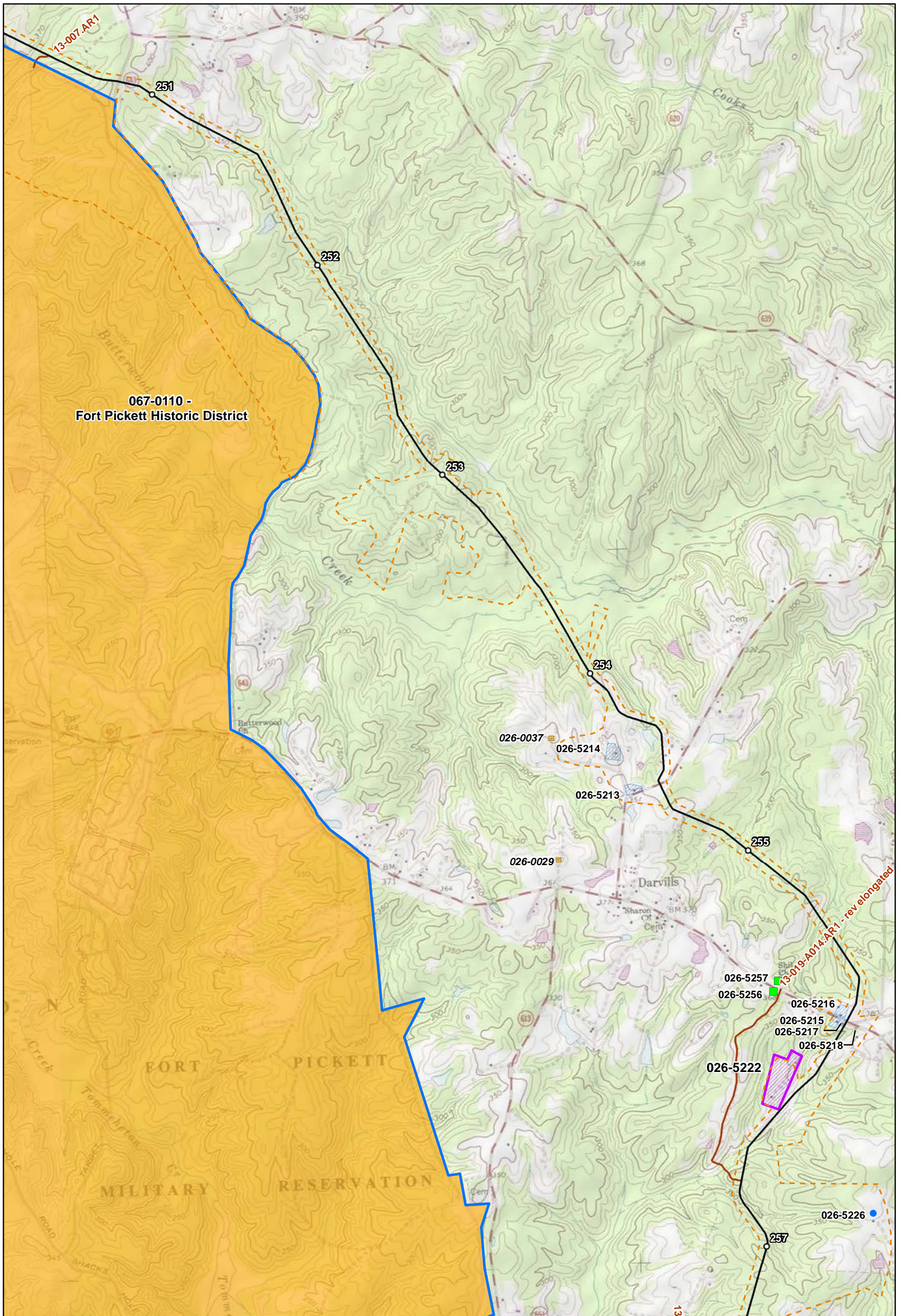
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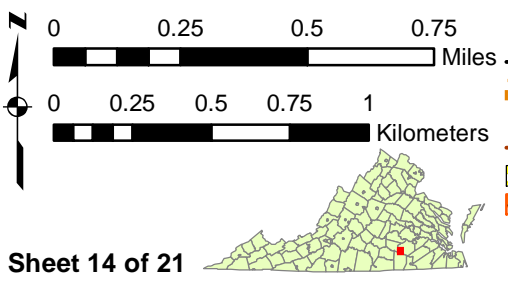
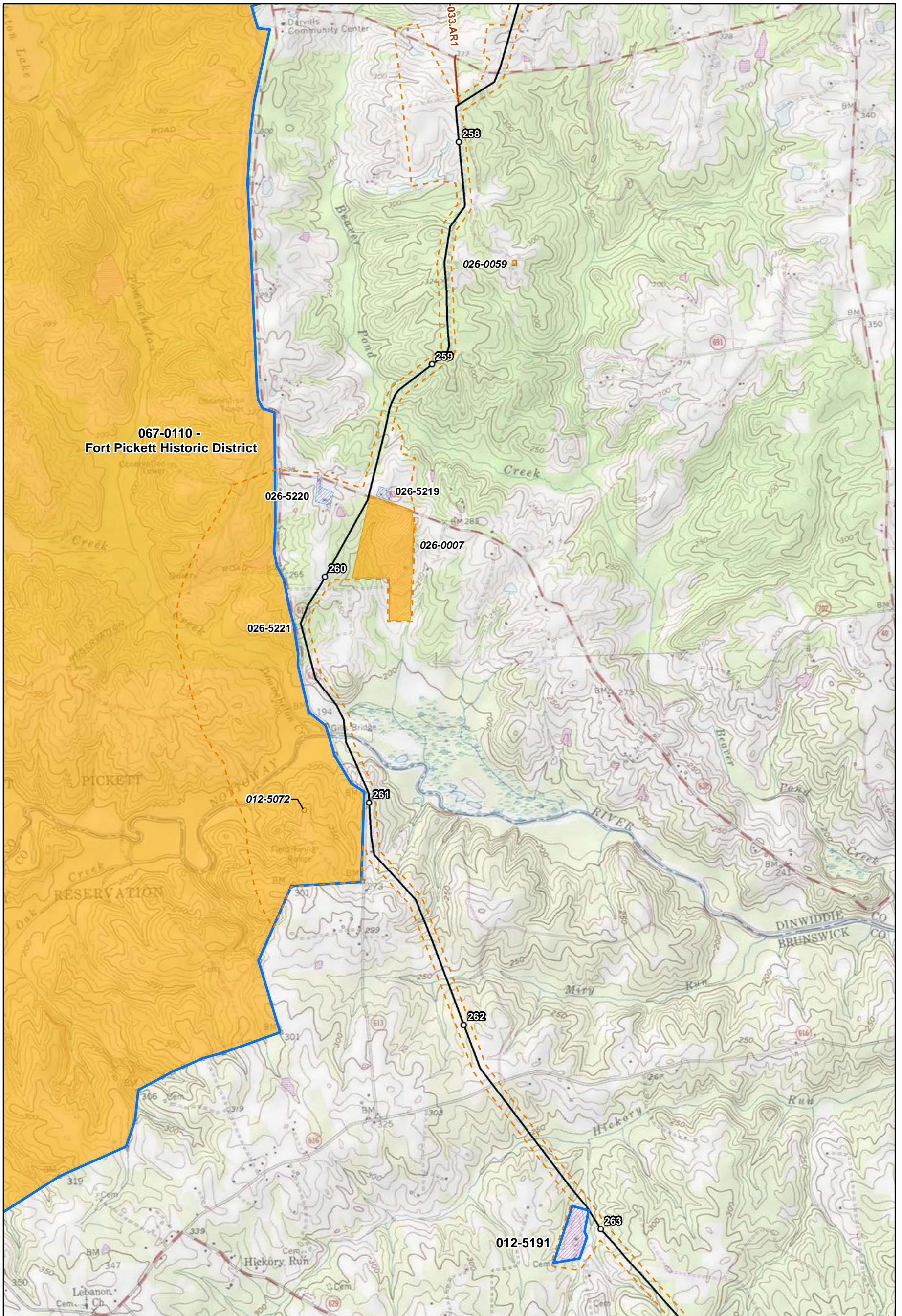
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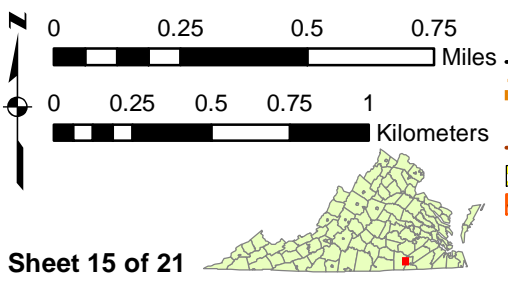
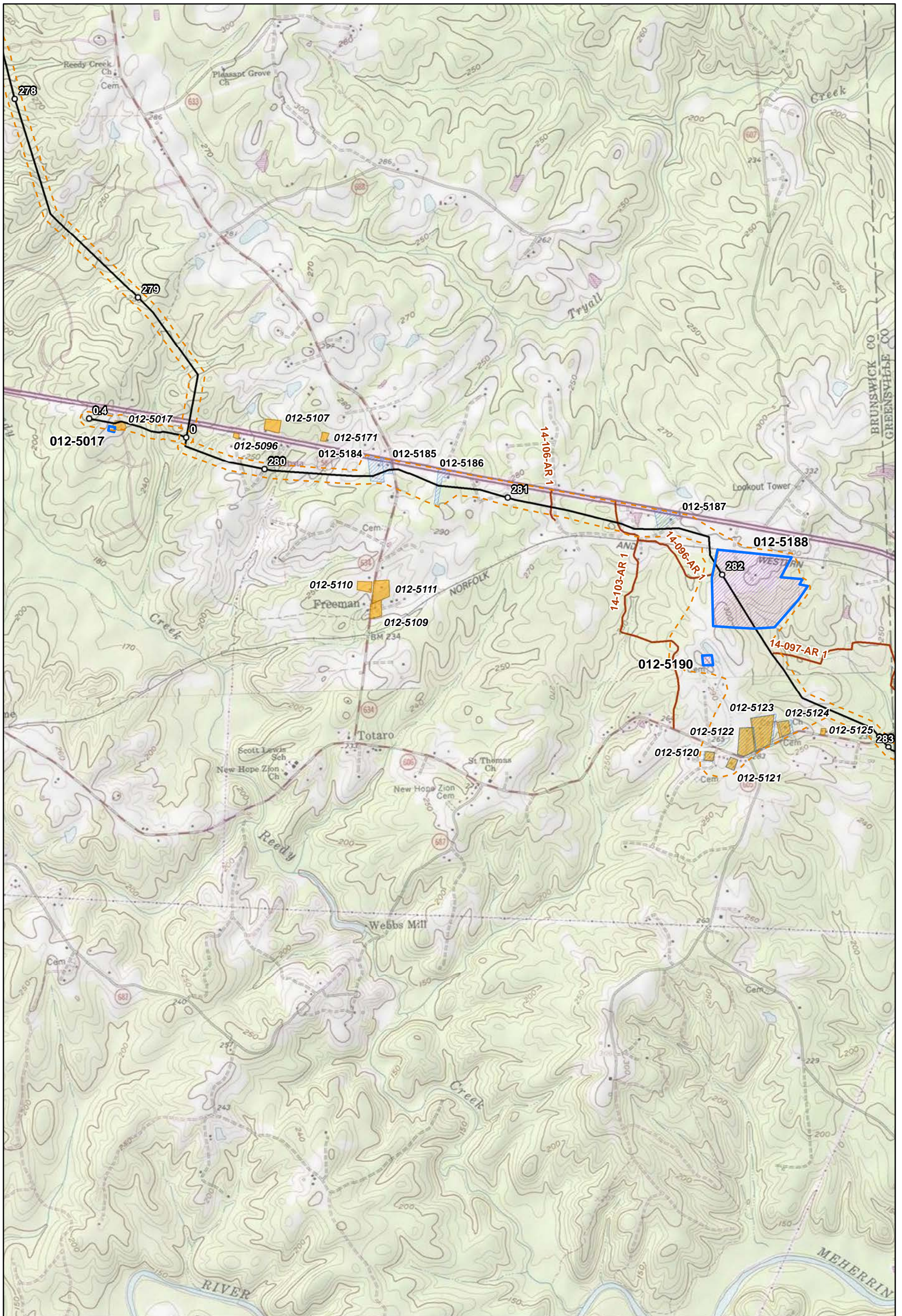
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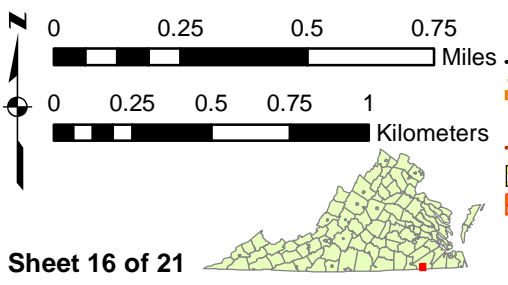
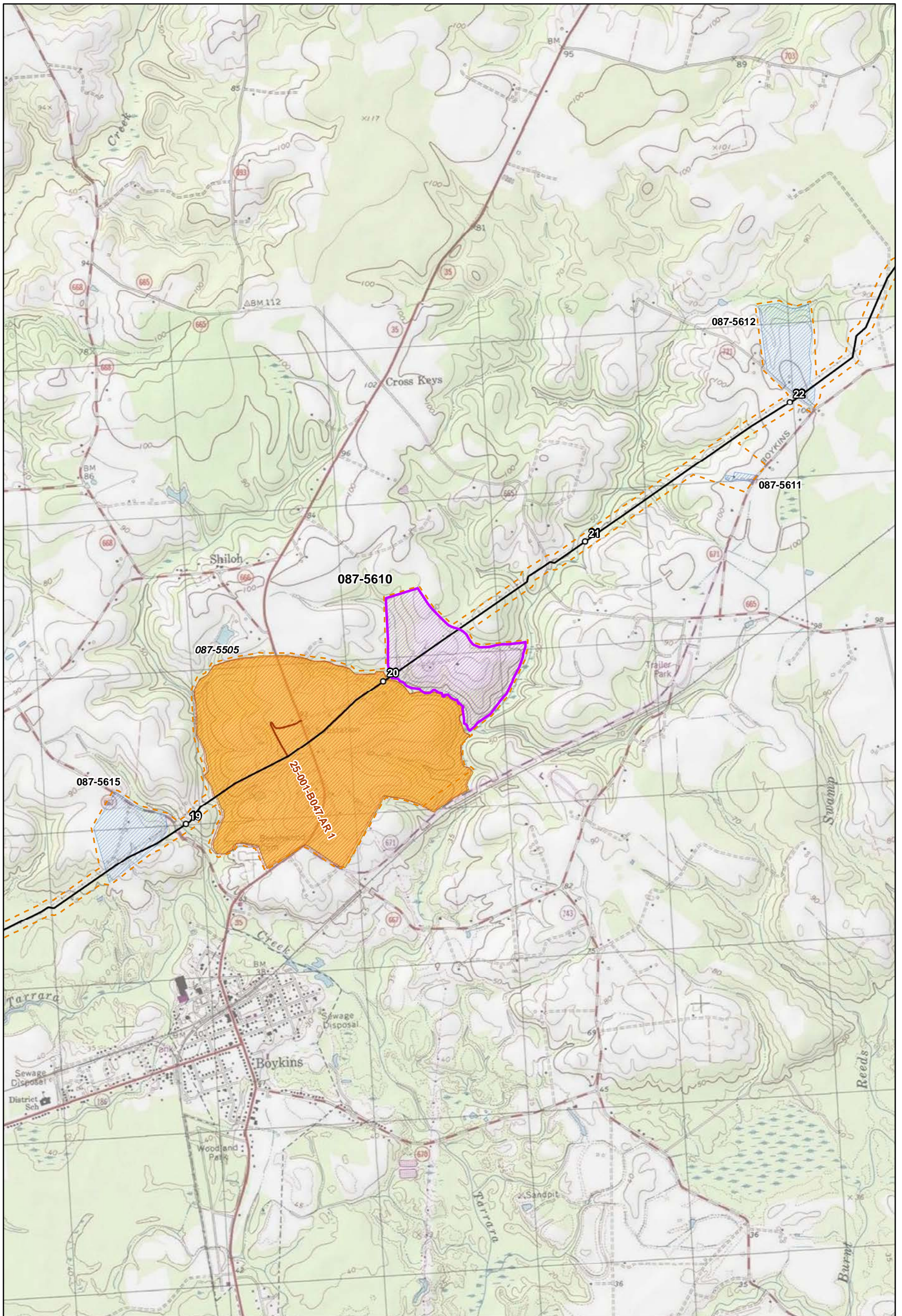
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 - ▨ Contractor Yards
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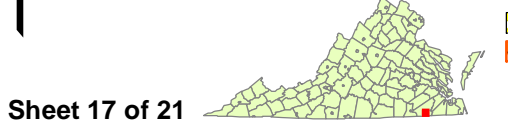
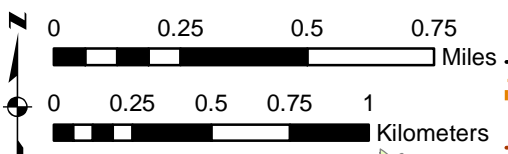
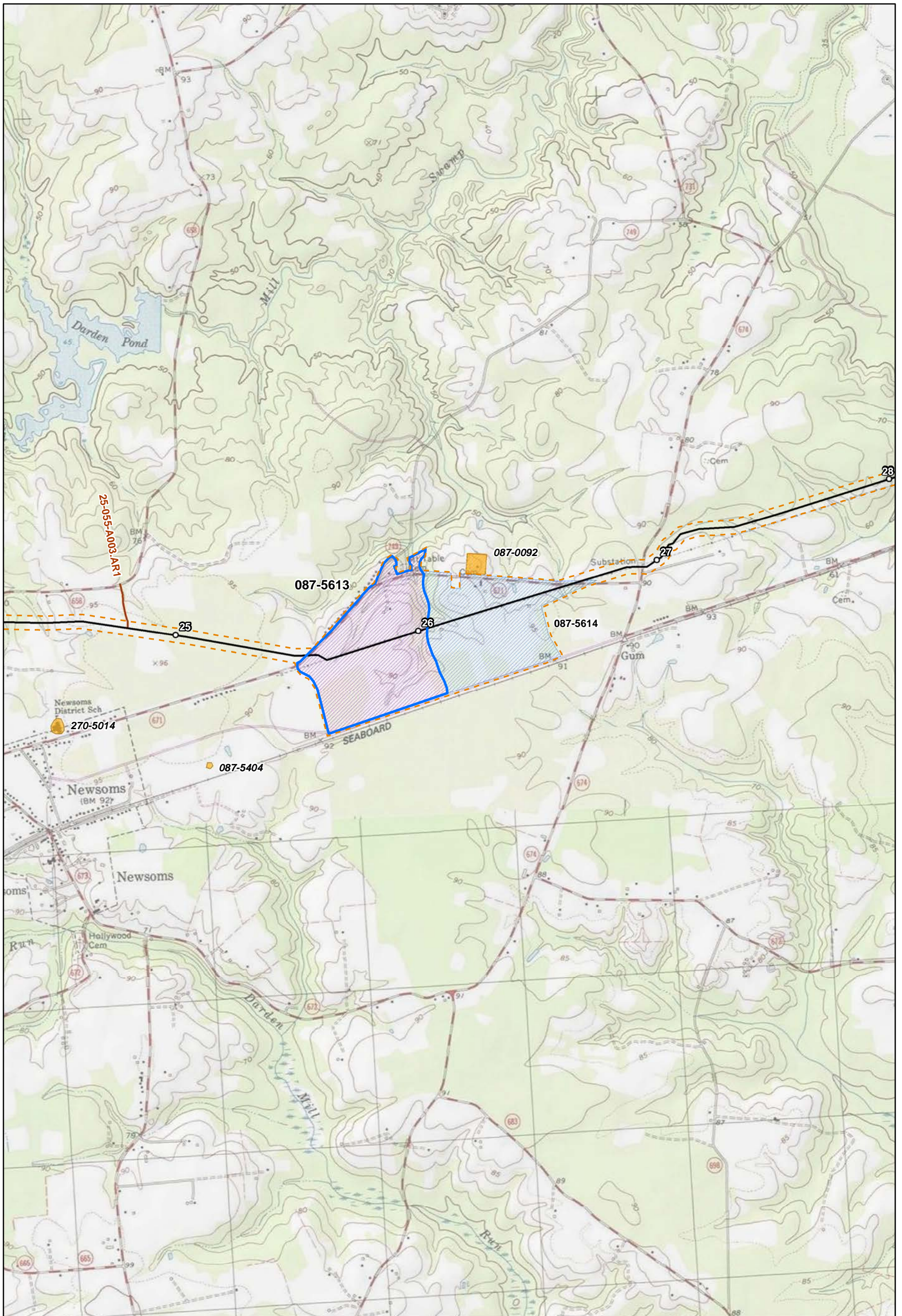
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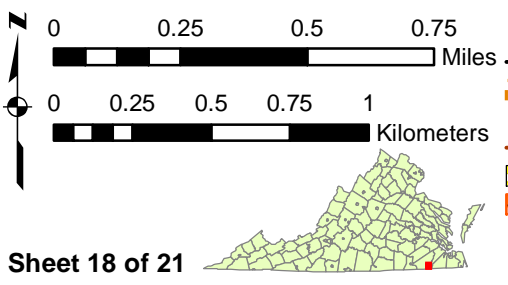
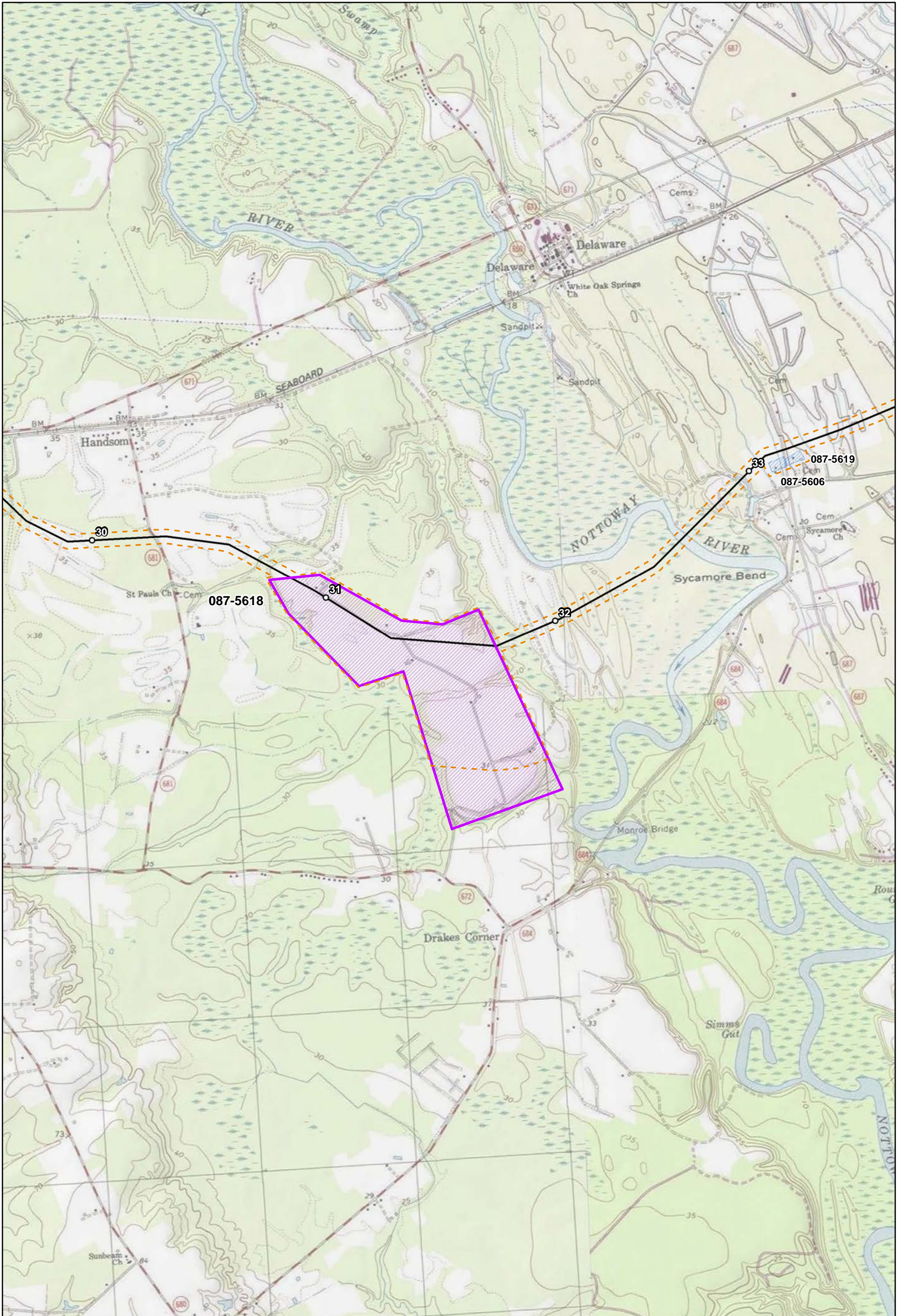
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 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

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- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Newly Surveyed - Ineligible
 - ▲ Revisited - Eligible
 - ▲ Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Ineligible
 - Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Revisited - Eligible
- ACP VA Addendum 5 Survey:
- ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Eligible
 - ▨ Assumed Eligible
 - ▨ Ineligible
 - ▨ Not Extant



Sheet 17 of 21

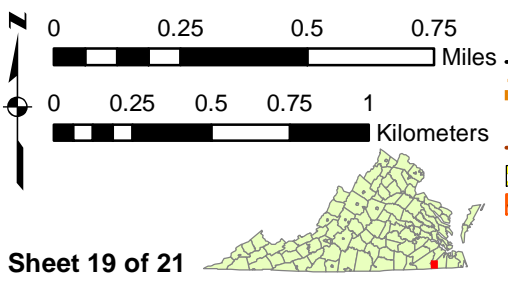
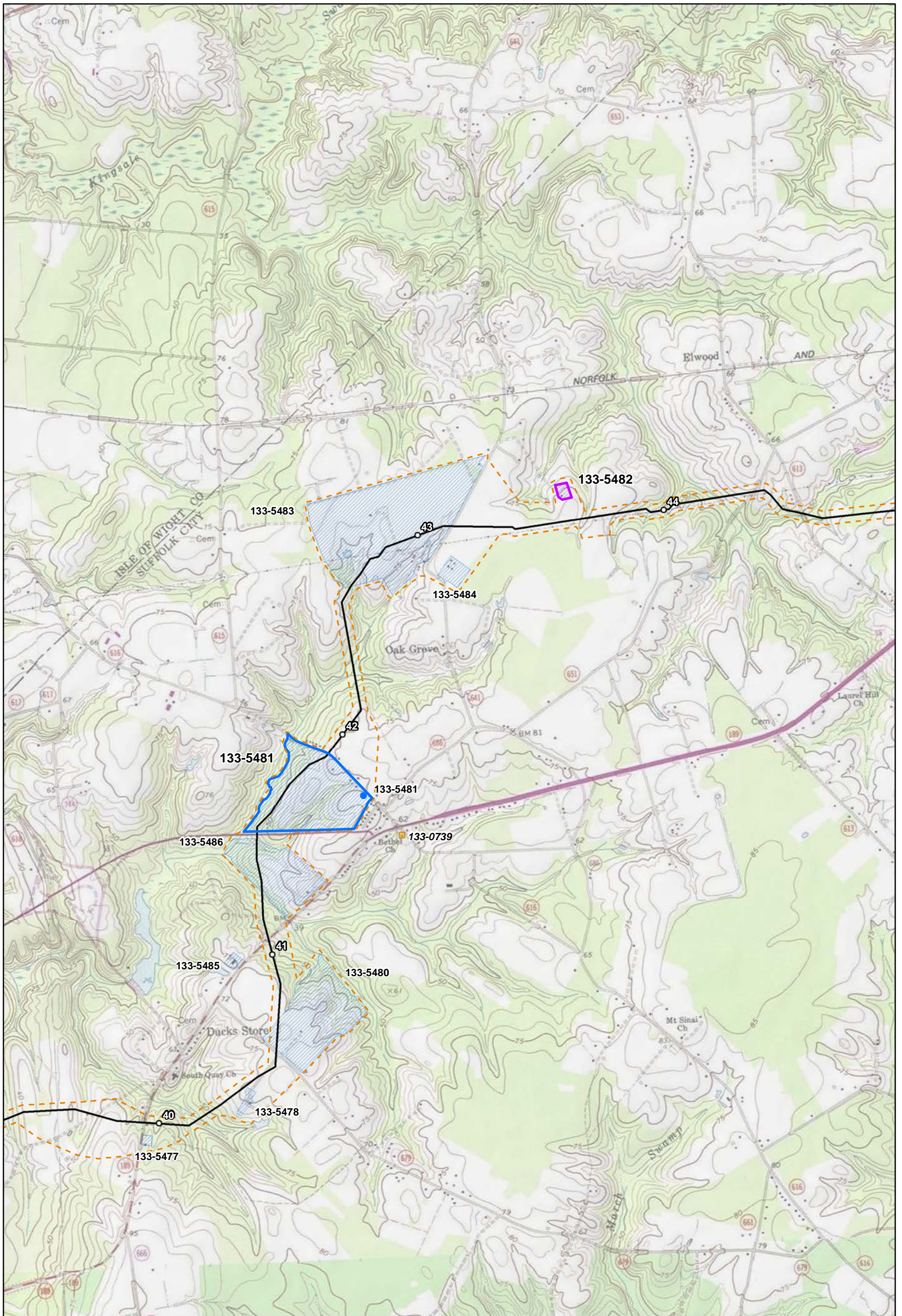
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|---|--|--|---|



Sheet 18 of 21

- Corridor Centerline
 - - - Visual APE
 - Mileposts
 - Access Roads for Survey
 - ▨ M&R Stations
 - ▨ Contractor Yards
- Historic Resources Previously Recorded for the Project:
- ▨ Indeterminate
 - ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Not Eligible
 - ▨ Potentially Eligible
 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

- ACP Addendum 3 Survey:
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 - ▲ Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
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 - Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
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- ACP VA Addendum 5 Survey:
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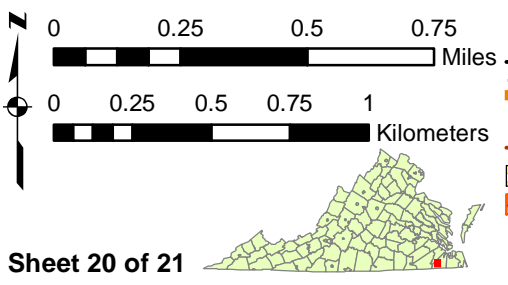
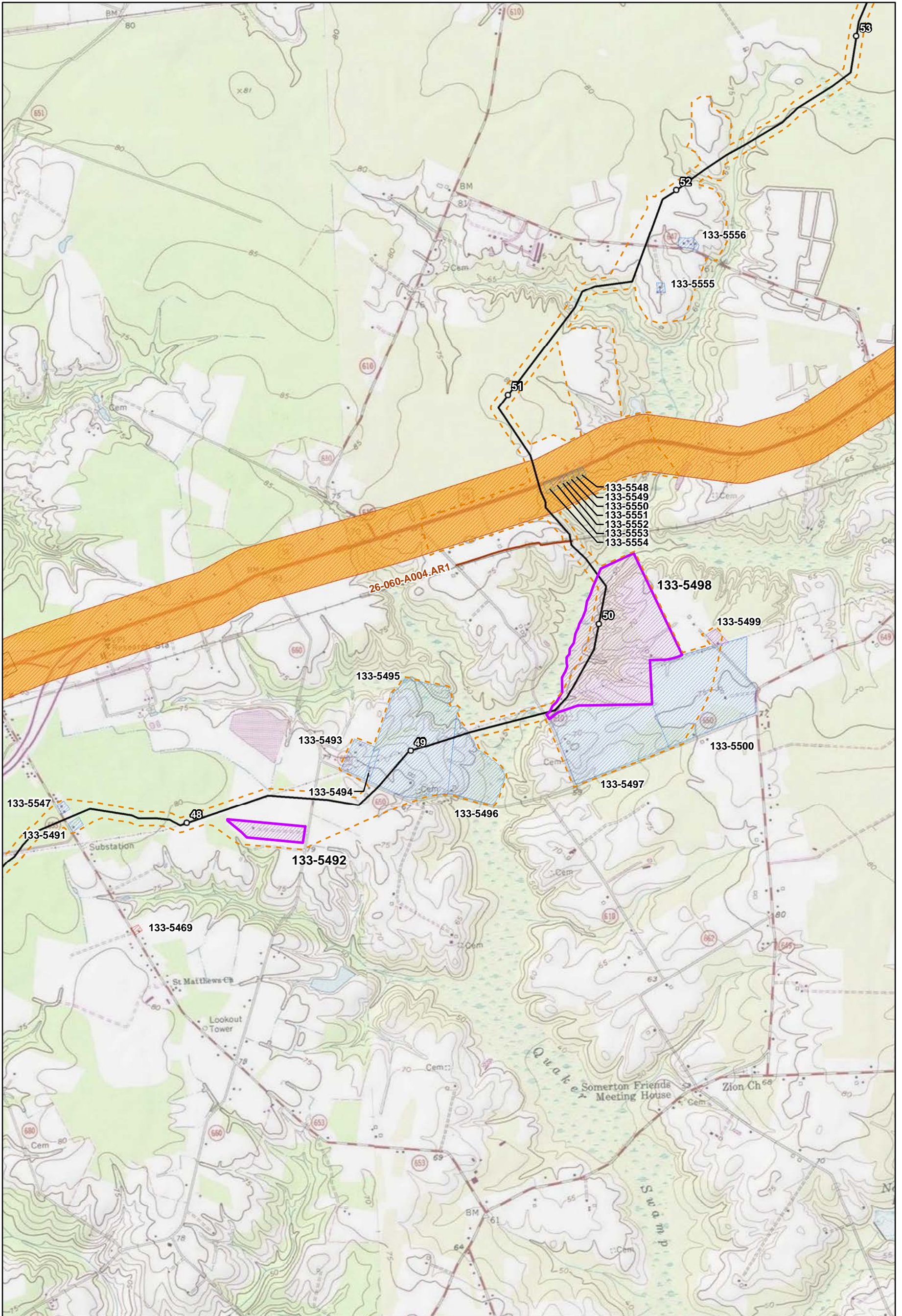


Sheet 19 of 21

- Corridor Centerline
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 - Mileposts
 - Access Roads for Survey
 - ▨ M&R Stations
 - ▨ Contractor Yards
- Historic Resources Previously Recorded for the Project:
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 - ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Not Eligible
 - ▨ Potentially Eligible
 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

- ACP Addendum 3 Survey:
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 - ▲ Revisited - Eligible
 - ▲ Revisited - Ineligible
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- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
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 - Revisited - Eligible

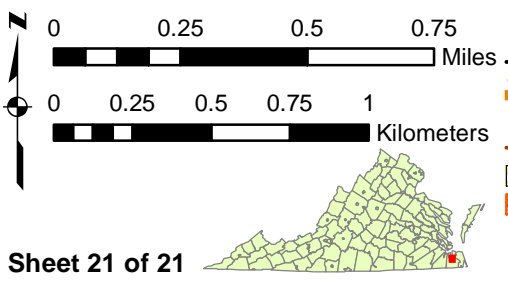
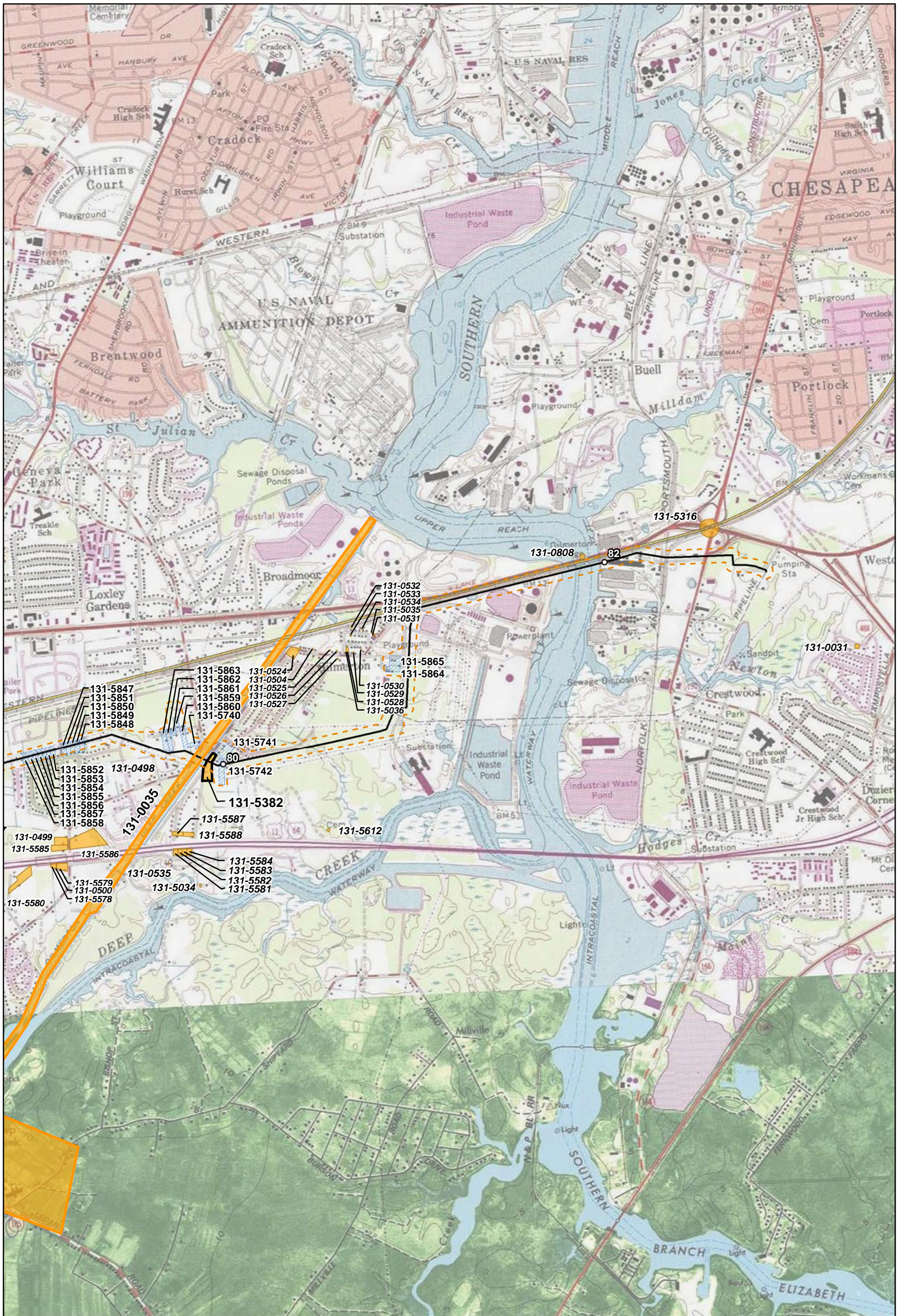
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 - ▨ Eligible
 - ▨ Assumed Eligible
 - ▨ Ineligible
 - ▨ Not Extant



Sheet 20 of 21

- Corridor Centerline
 - - - Visual APE
 - Mileposts
 - Access Roads for Survey
 - ▨ M&R Stations
 - ▨ Contractor Yards
- Historic Resources Previously Recorded for the Project:
- ▨ Indeterminate
 - ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Not Eligible
 - ▨ Potentially Eligible
 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

- ACP Addendum 3 Survey:
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 - Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Revisited - Eligible
- ACP VA Addendum 5 Survey:
- ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Eligible
 - ▨ Assumed Eligible
 - ▨ Ineligible
 - ▨ Not Extant



Sheet 21 of 21

- Corridor Centerline
 - - - Visual APE
 - Mileposts
 - Access Roads for Survey
 - ▨ M&R Stations
 - ▨ Contractor Yards
- Historic Resources Previously Recorded for the Project:
- ▨ Indeterminate
 - ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Not Eligible
 - ▨ Potentially Eligible
 - ▨ Previously Recorded Resources (in italics)

- ACP Addendum 3 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
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- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
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 - Revisited - Ineligible
- ACP Addendum 4 Survey:
- Newly Surveyed - Eligible
 - Revisited - Eligible
- ACP VA Addendum 5 Survey:
- ▨ Listed
 - ▨ Eligible
 - ▨ Assumed Eligible
 - ▨ Ineligible
 - ▨ Not Extant

APPENDIX B – RESOURCE FIGURES



Figure 1. 007-5587, facing northwest.

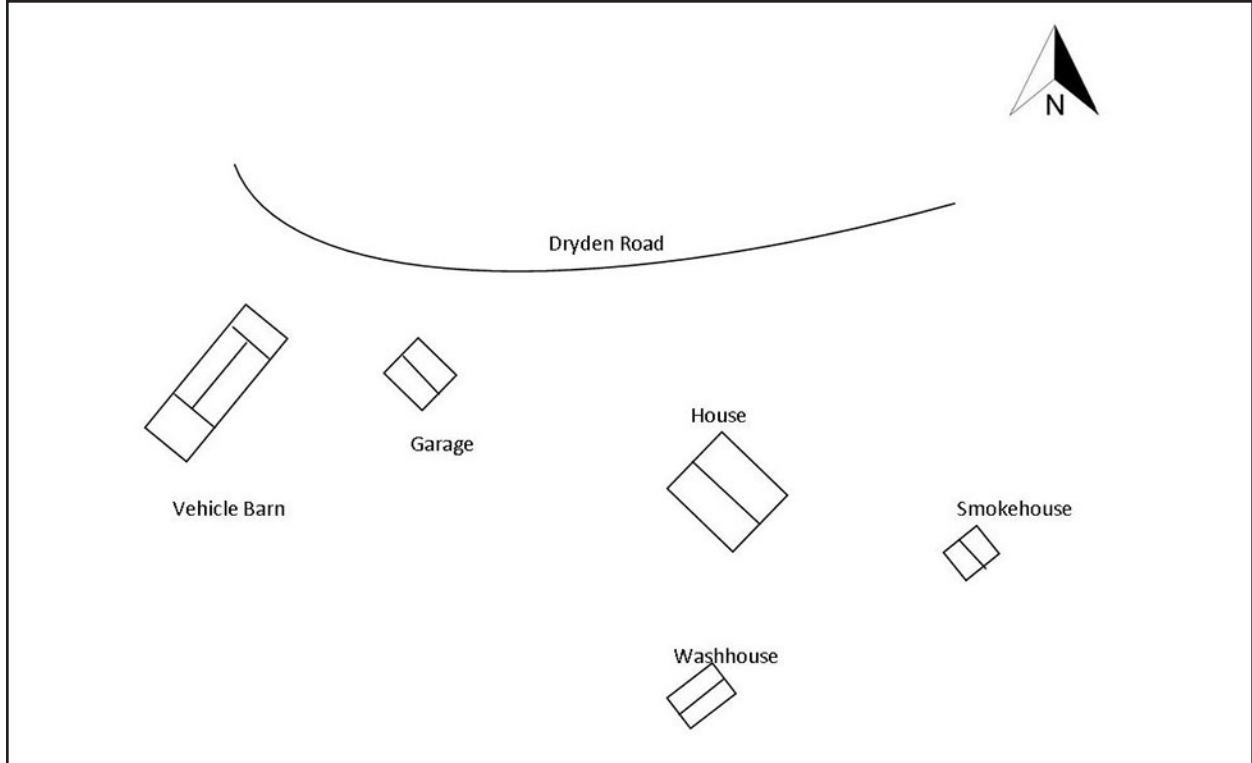


Figure 2. 007-0272, sketch map.



Figure 3. 007-0272, facing south.



Figure 4. 007-0272, wash house, facing southwest.



Figure 5. 007-0272, garage, facing northwest.



Figure 6. 007-0272, barn, facing southwest.

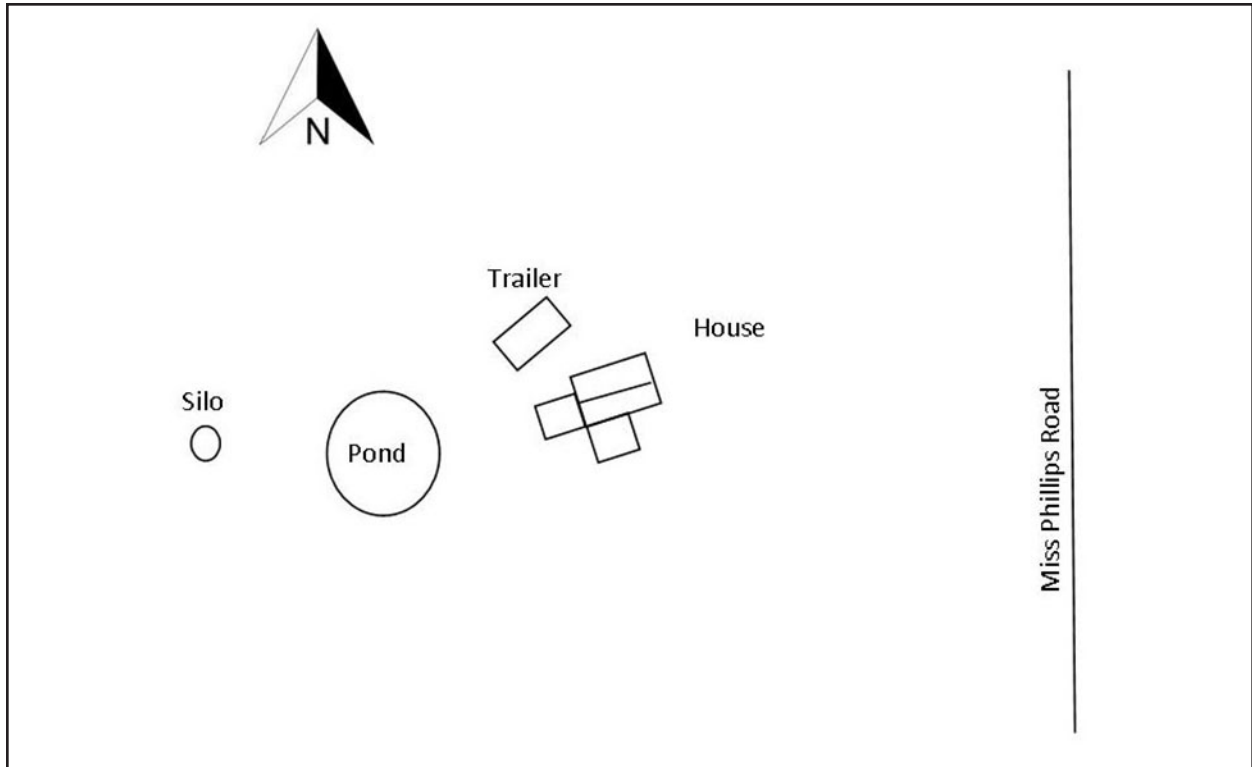


Figure 7. 007-0397, sketch map



Figure 8. 007-0397, house, facing northwest.

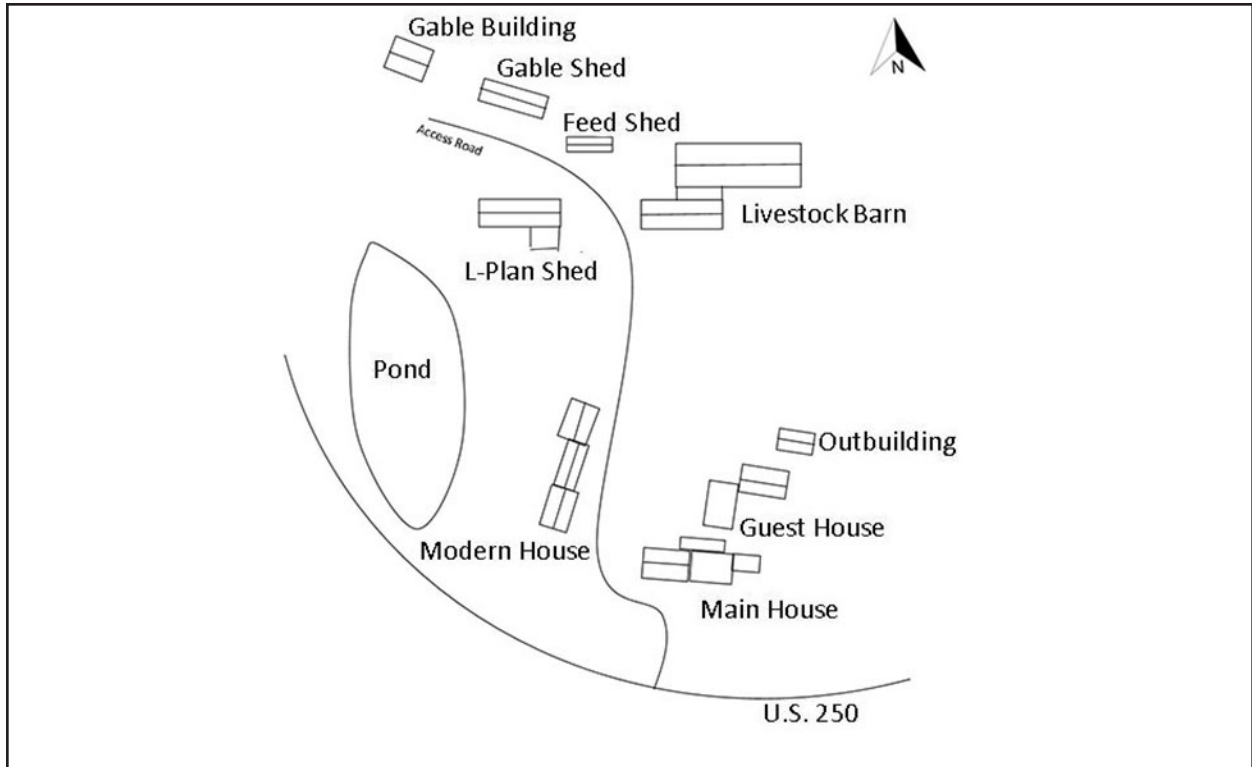


Figure 9. 007-0442, sketch map.



Figure 10. 007-0442, house, facing north.



Figure 11. 007-0442, house, facing north.

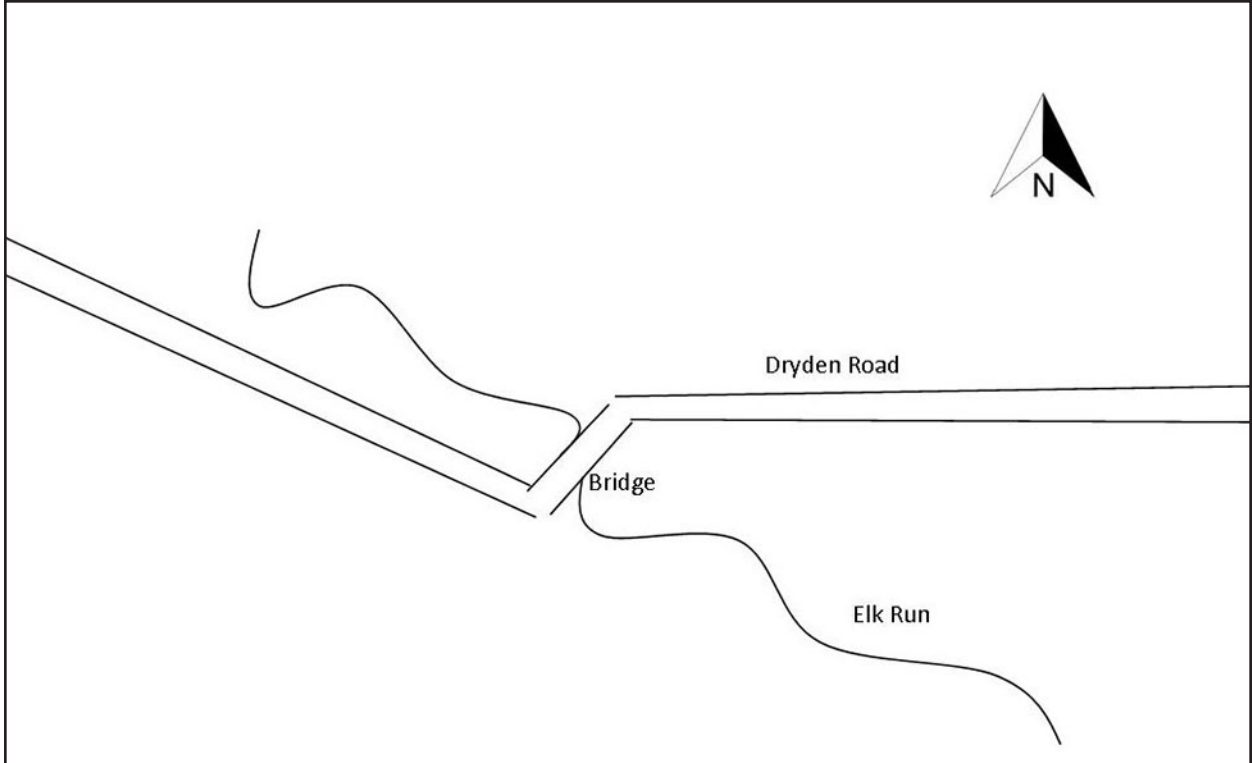


Figure 12. 007-1163, sketch map.



Figure 13. 007-1163, bridge, facing north.

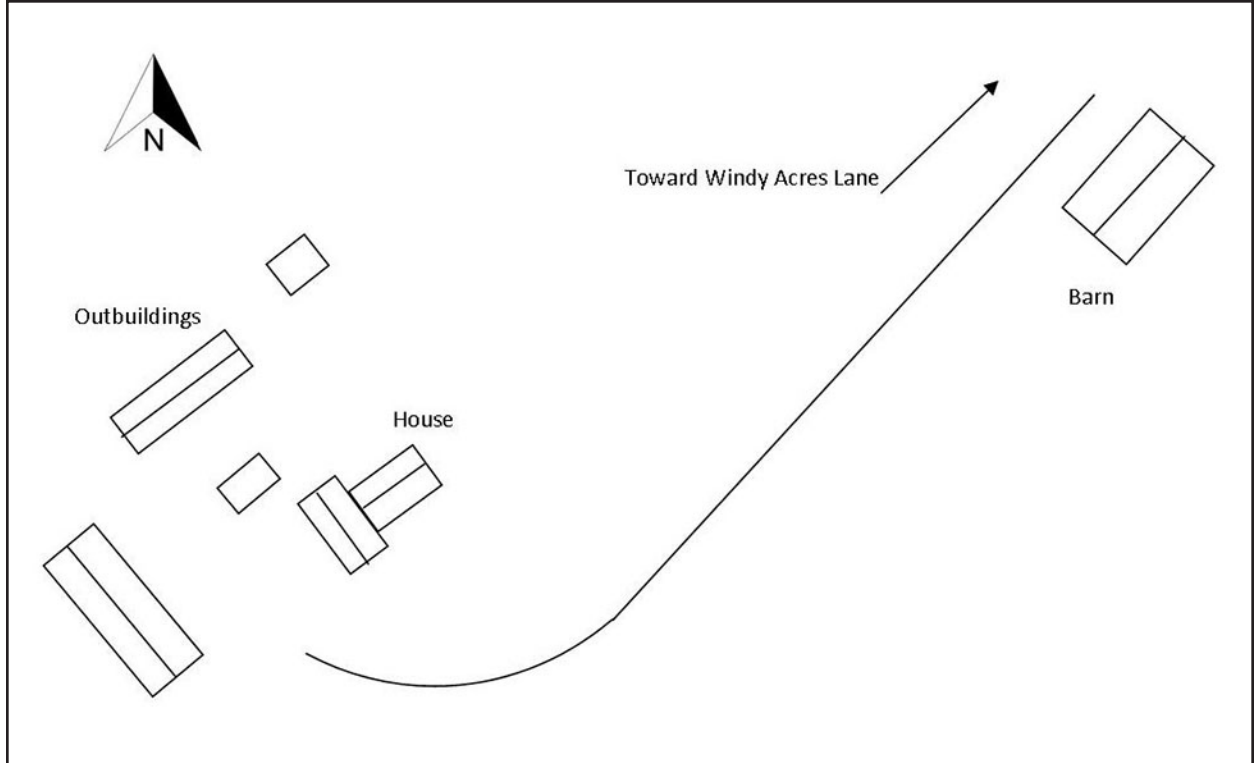


Figure 14. 007-5542, sketch map.



Figure 15. 007-5542, facing west.

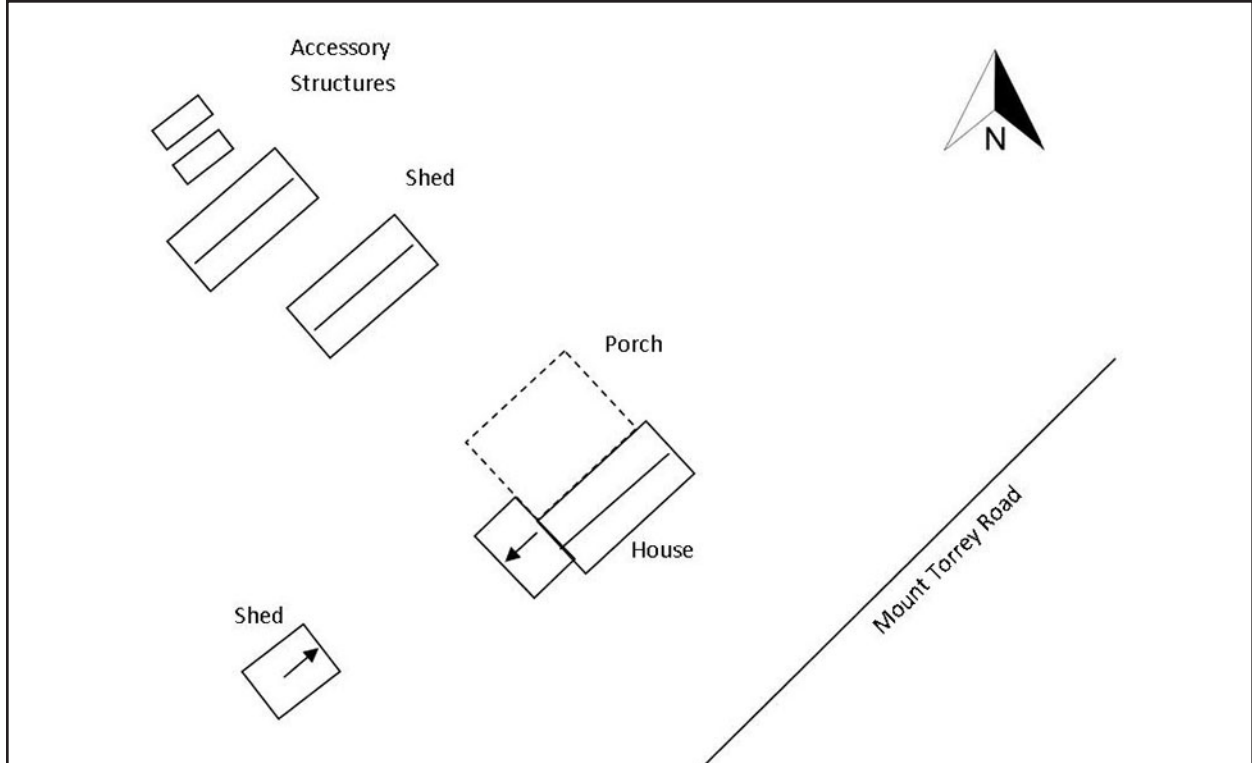


Figure 16. 007-5556, sketch map.



Figure 17. 007-5556, facing north.



Figure 18. 007-5556, northeast addition, facing west.

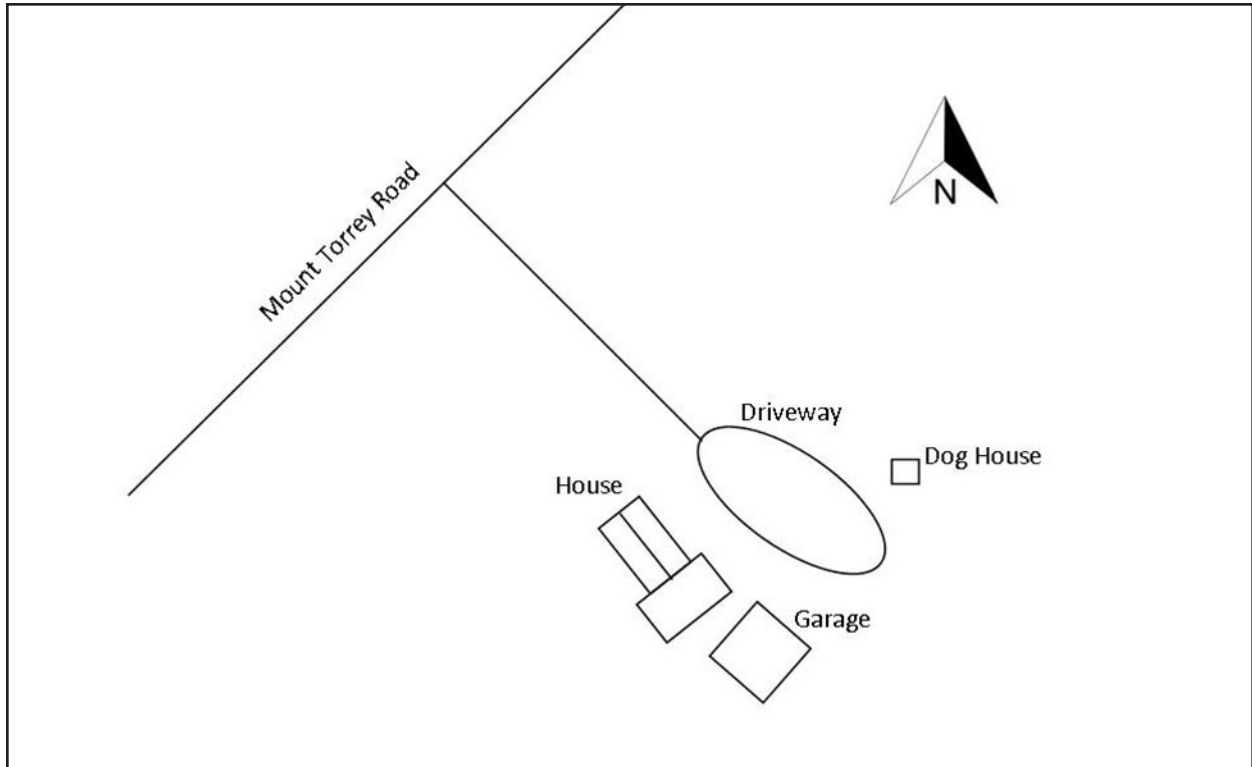


Figure 19. 007-5557, sketch map.



Figure 20. 007-5557, facing southeast.



Figure 21. 007-5584, facing north.

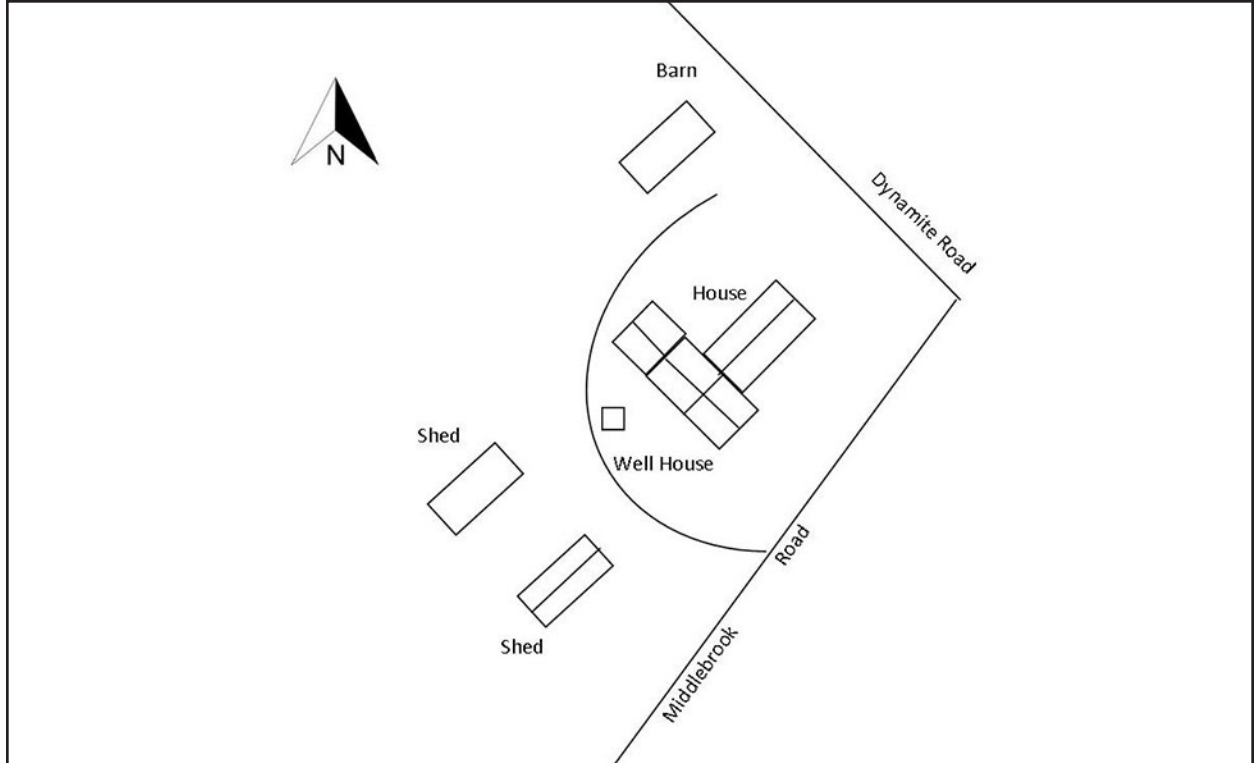


Figure 22. 007-5584, sketch map.



Figure 23. 007-5584, facing northwest.



Figure 24. 007-5584, facing northeast.



Figure 25. 007-5584, concrete block building detail, facing northwest.



Figure 26. 007-5584, concrete block building, facing northeast.



Figure 27. 007-5584, shed detail, facing northwest.



Figure 28. 007-5584, shed detail, facing northeast.

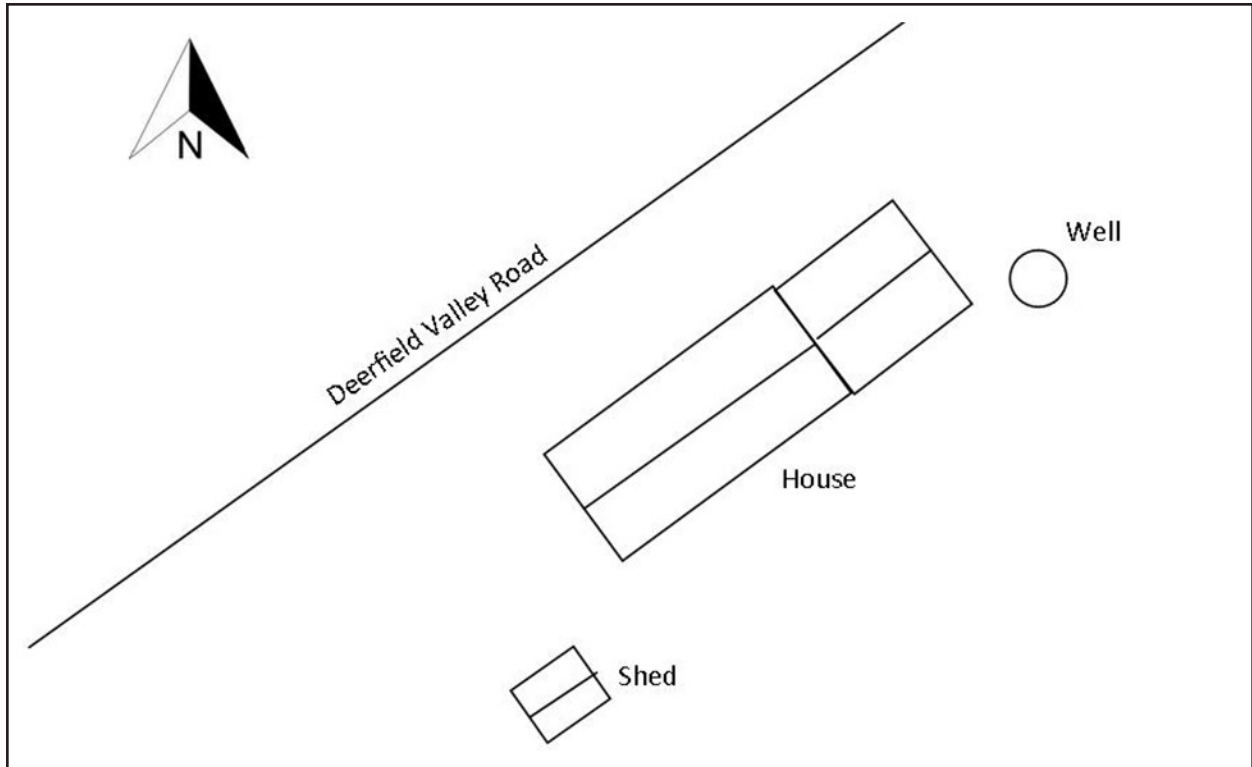


Figure 29. 007-5741, sketch map.



Figure 30. 007-5741, facing southwest.



Figure 31. 007-5741, shed, facing southeast.



Figure 32. 007-5741, stacked stone, facing southwest

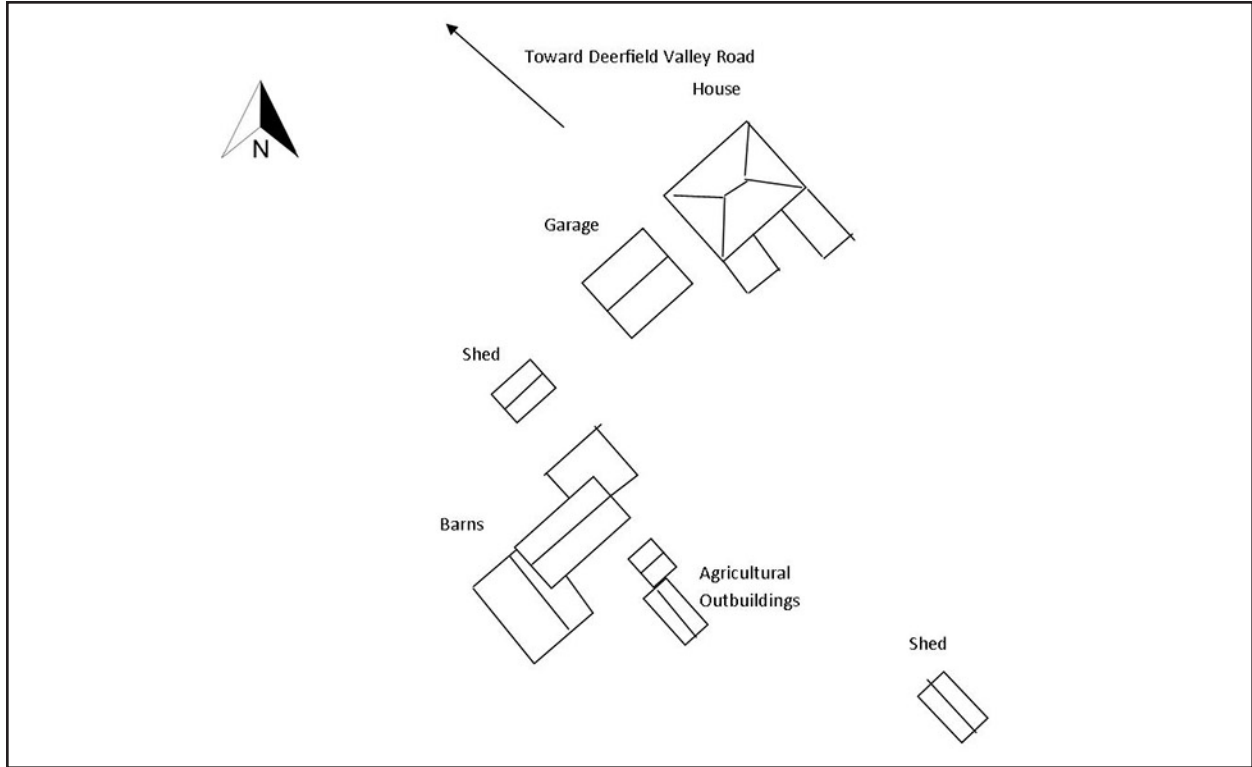


Figure 33. 007-5743, sketch map.



Figure 34. 007-5743, facing southeast.



Figure 35. 007-5743, fieldstone addition and garage, facing north.



Figure 36. 007-5743, outbuildings and setting, facing southeast.



Figure 37. 007-5743, barn and shed, facing south.



Figure 38. 007-5743, shed, facing south.

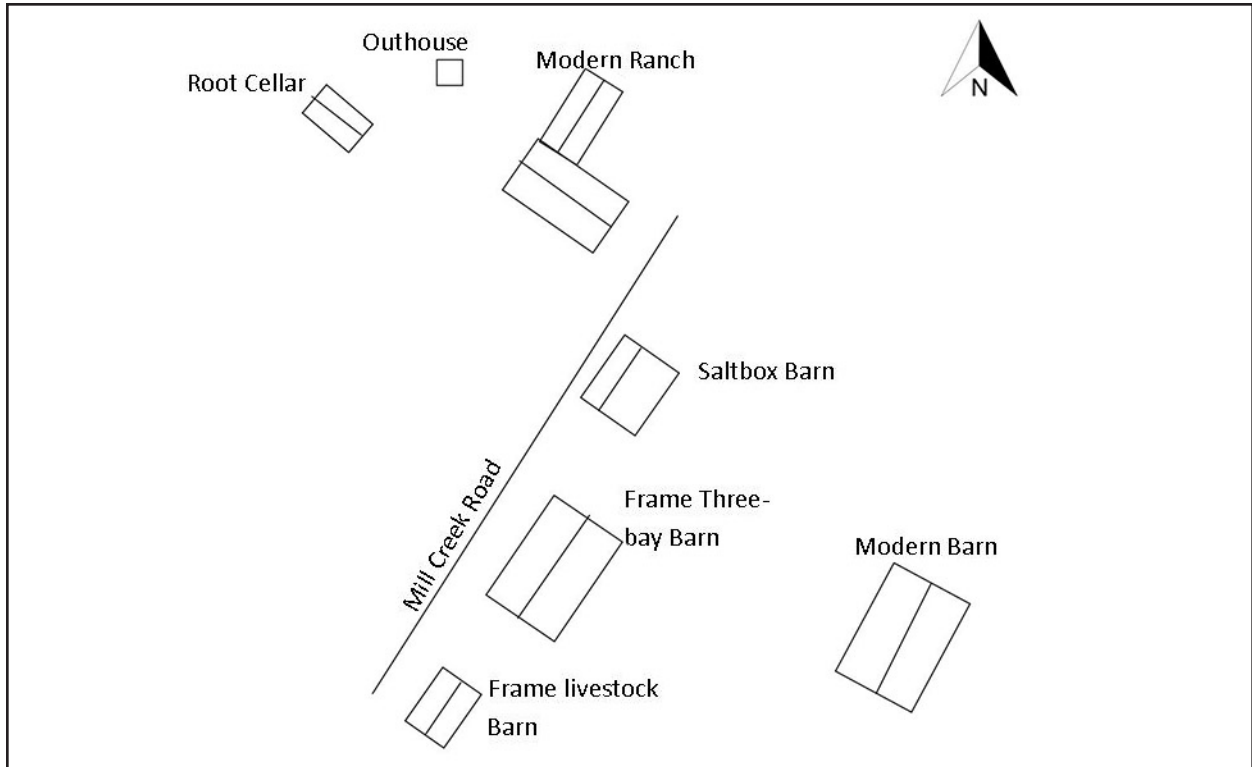


Figure 39. 008-5068, sketch map.



Figure 40. 008-5068, modern house, facing south.



Figure 41. 008-5068, outbuildings, detail, facing northwest.



Figure 42. 008-5068, outbuildings, detail, facing northwest.



Figure 43. 008-5068, barns and outbuilding, facing south.



Figure 44. 008-5068, north barn, side detail, facing north.



Figure 45. 008-5068, granary and livestock barn, side detail, facing northeast.



Figure 46. 008-5068, granary and livestock barn, window detail, facing east.



Figure 47. 008-5068, granary and livestock barn, facing south.



Figure 48. 008-5068, barns, facing northeast.



Figure 49. 008-5068, small livestock barn, facing southeast.



Figure 50. 008-5068, modern barn, facing east.

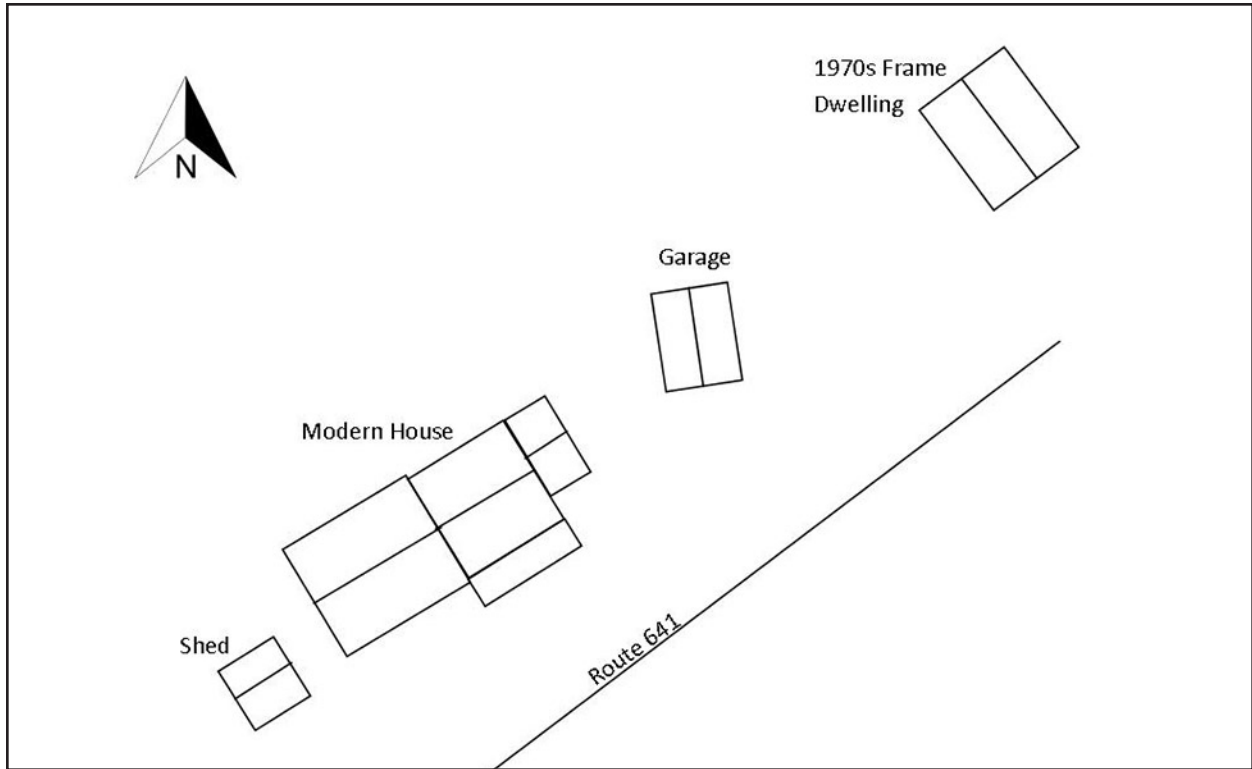


Figure 51. 008-5069, sketch map.



Figure 52. 008-5069, facing west.

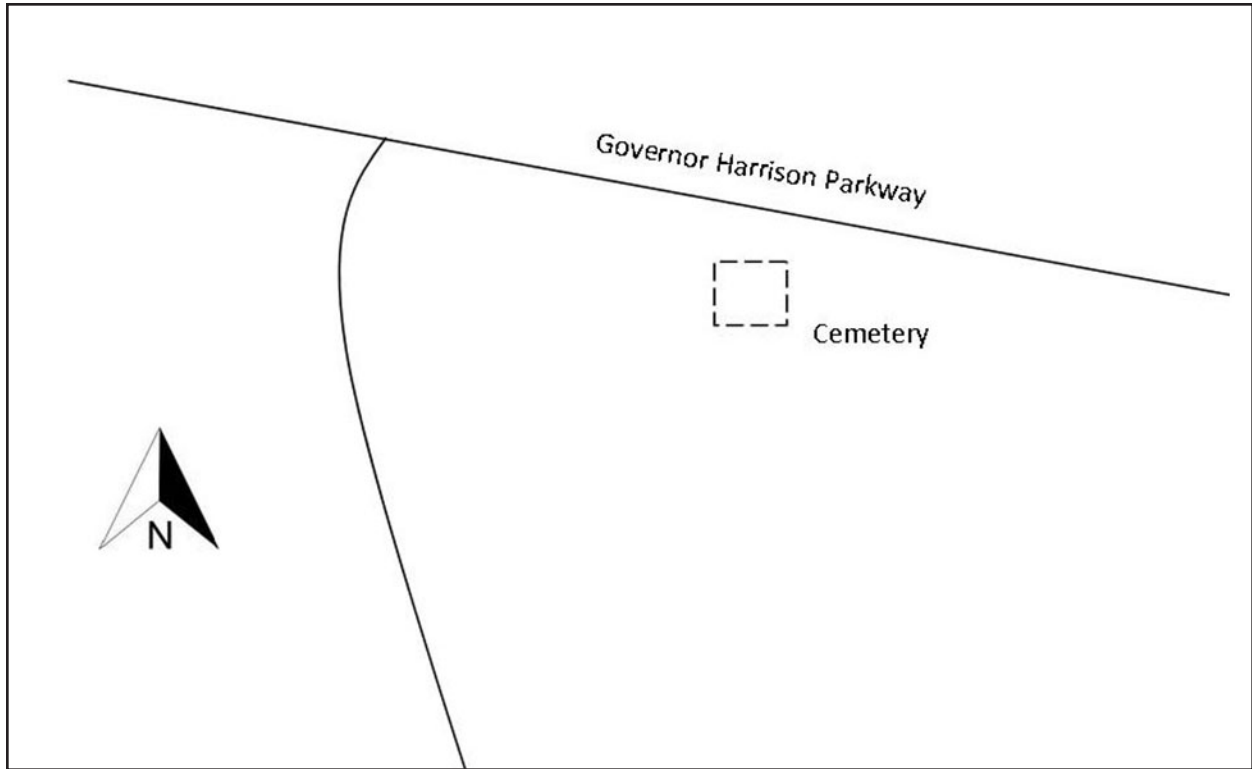


Figure 53. 012-5017, sketch map.



Figure 54. 012-5017, aerial view showing cemetery.

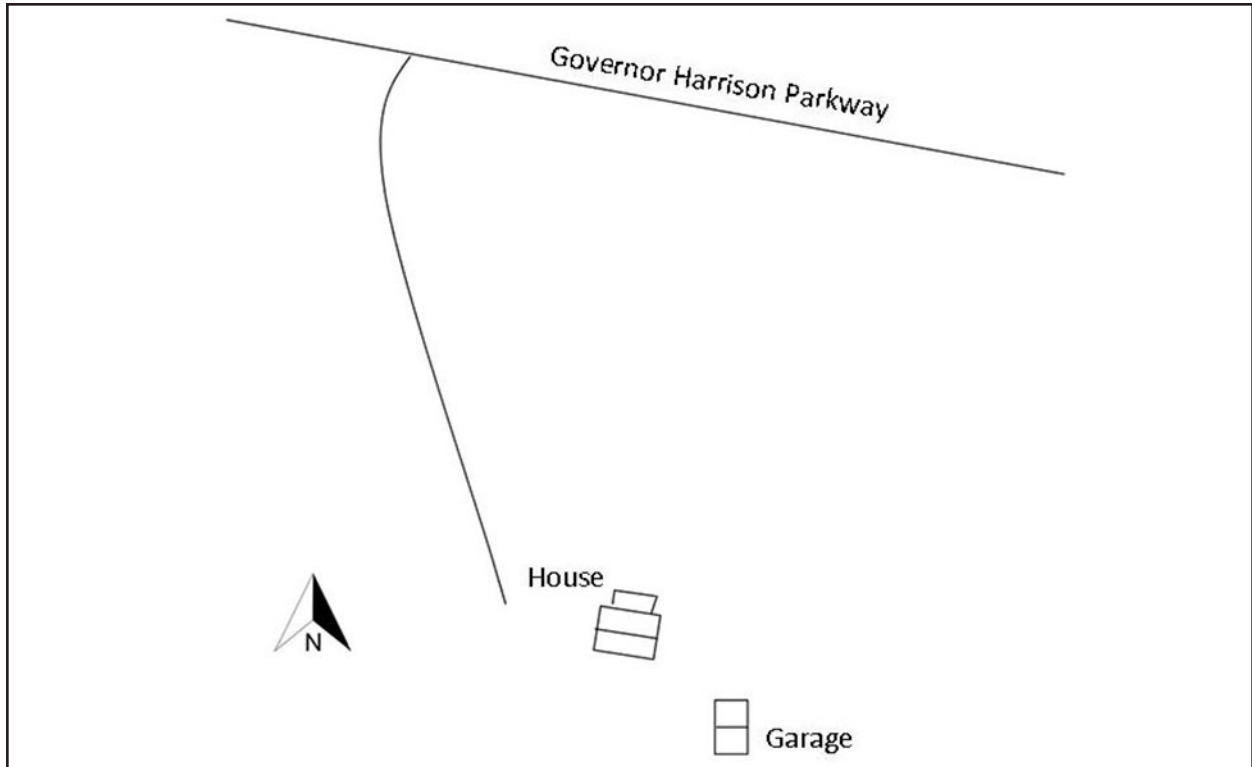


Figure 55. 012-5188, sketch map



Figure 56. 012-5188, dwelling, facing southeast.

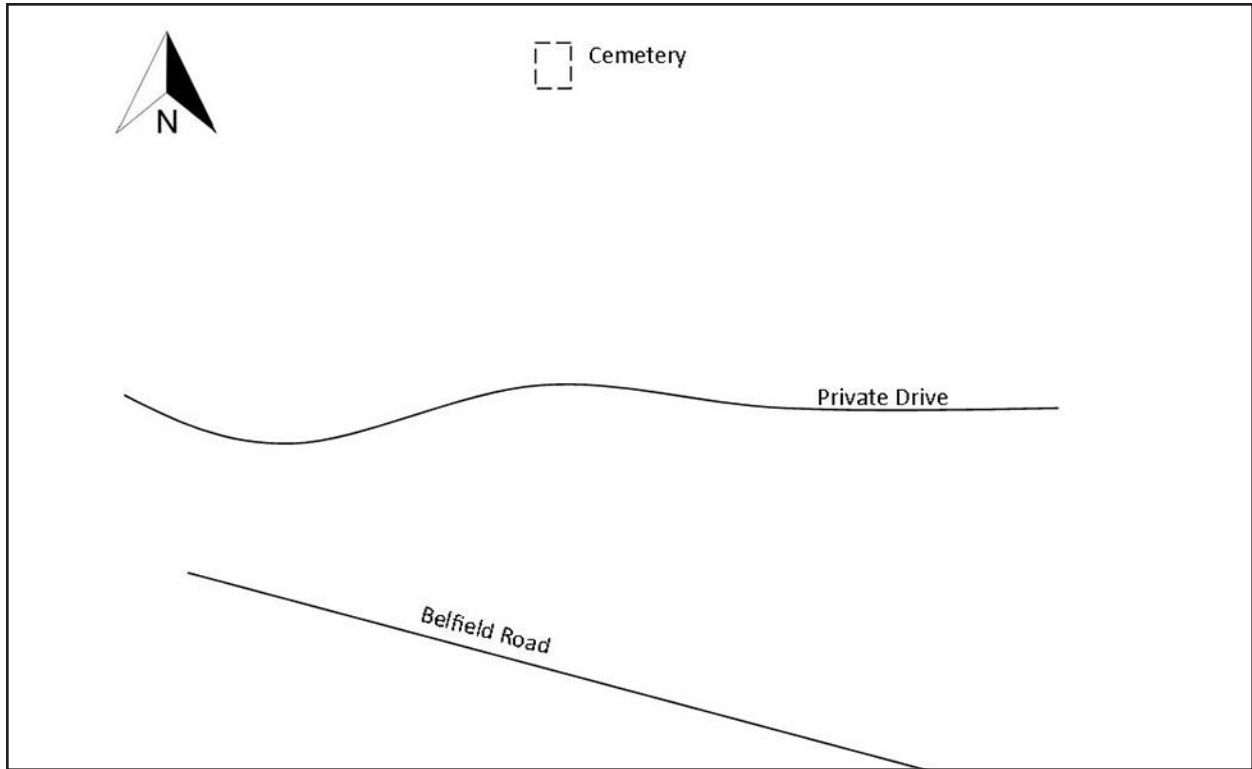


Figure 57. 012-5190, sketch map.



Figure 58. 012-5190, facing southeast.

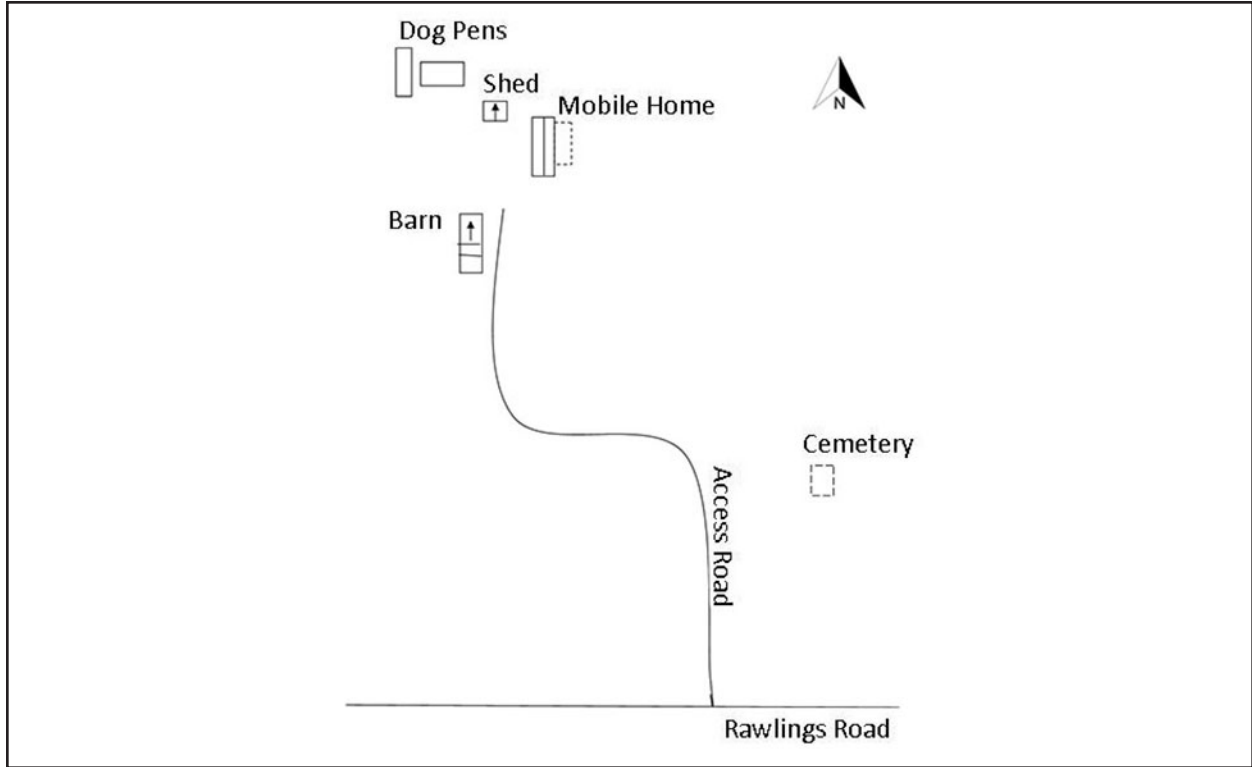


Figure 59. 012-5191, sketch map.



Figure 60. 012-5191, cemetery, facing east.



Figure 61. 012-5191, modular home and outbuildings, facing north.



Figure 62. 012-5191, modular home, facing northeast.

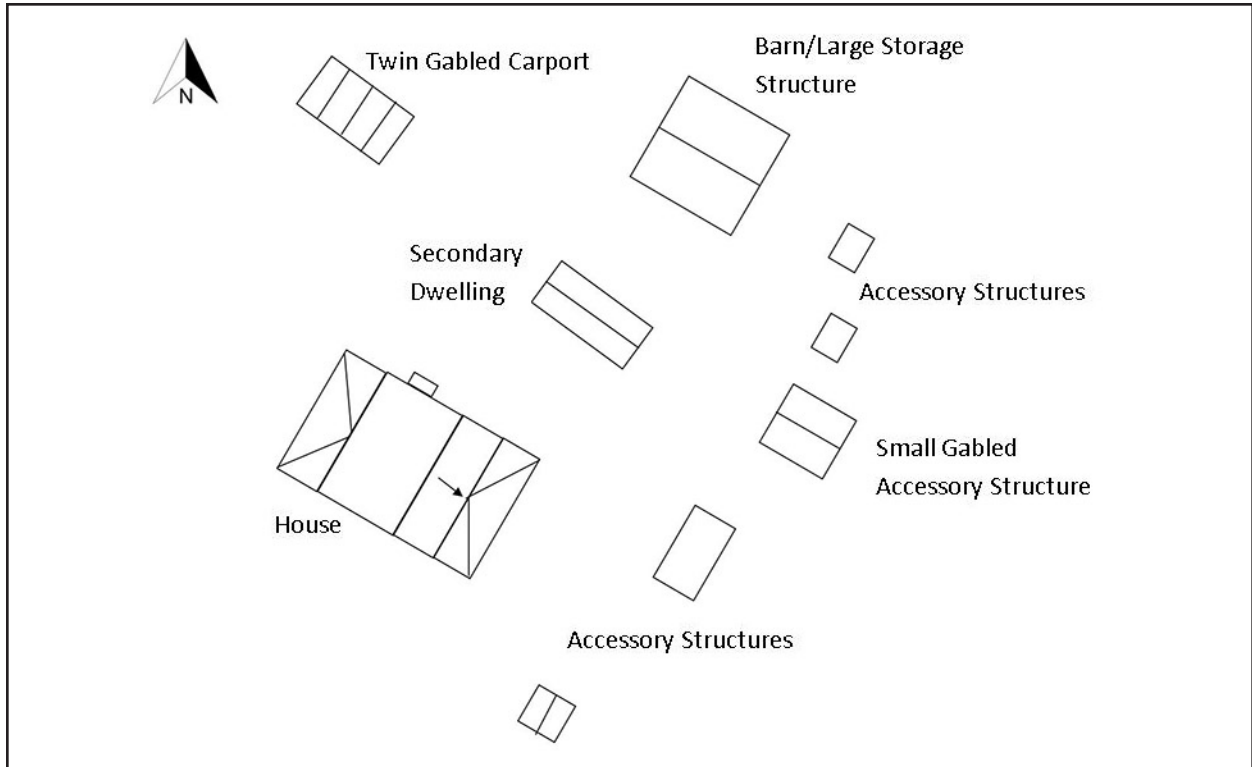


Figure 63. 014-5065, sketch map.



Figure 64. 014-5065, facing east.



Figure 65. 014-5065, outbuildings, facing east.

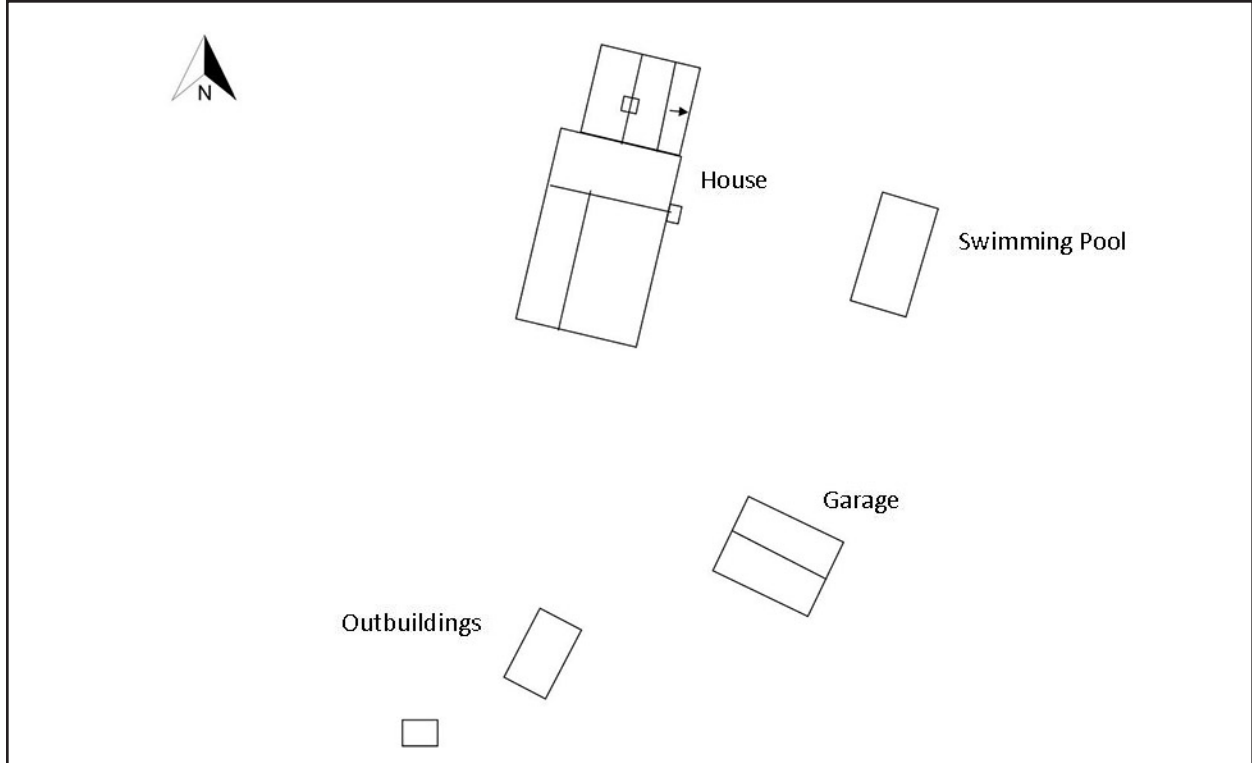


Figure 66. 014-5066, sketch map.



Figure 67. 014-5066, from public right-of-way, facing northwest.

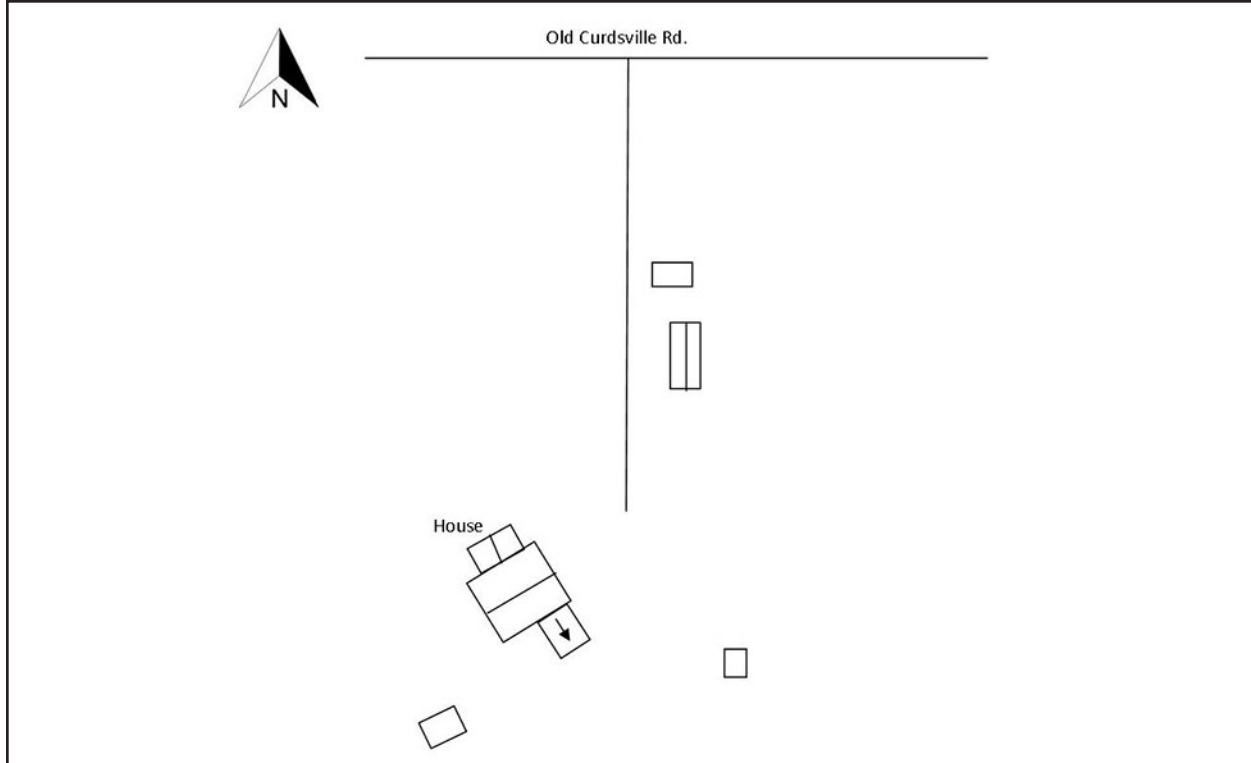


Figure 68. 014-5074, sketch map.

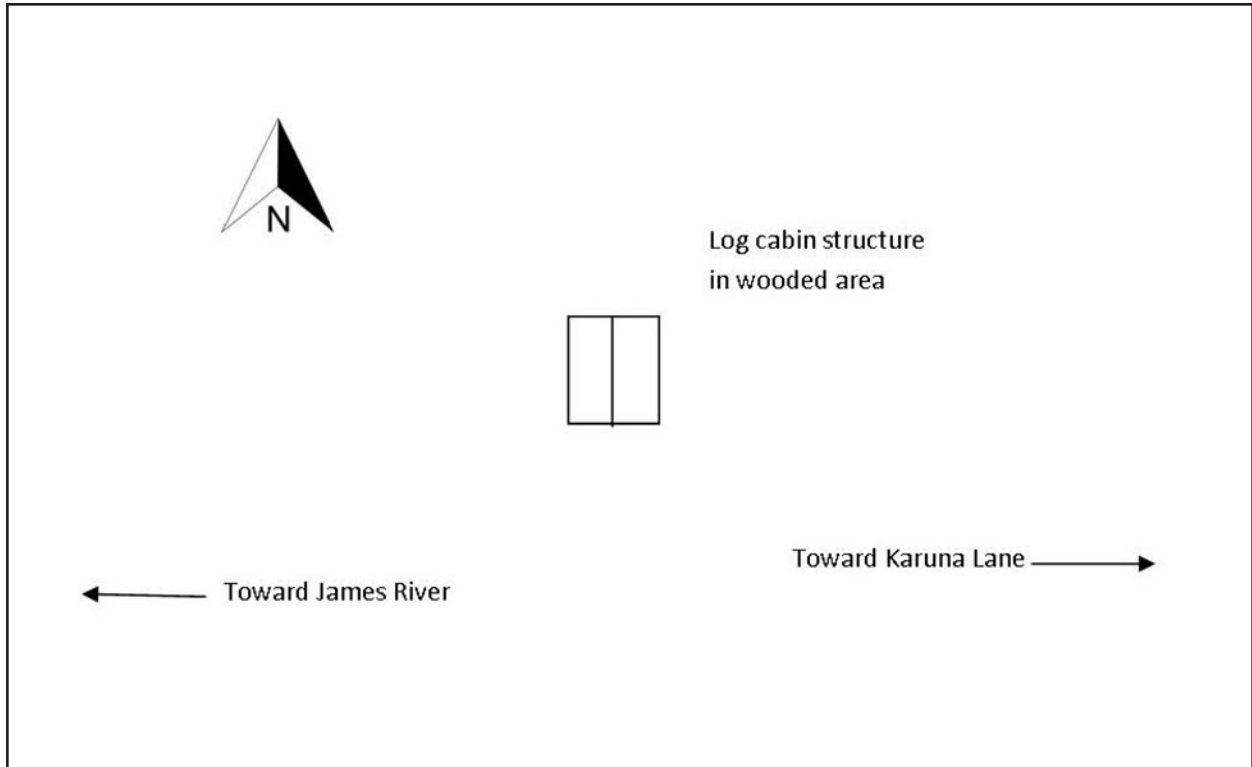


Figure 69. 014-5088, sketch map.



Figure 70. 014-5088, cabin, facing east.



Figure 71. 014-5088, facing south.



Figure 72. Modern residence at location of 131-5382, facing south.

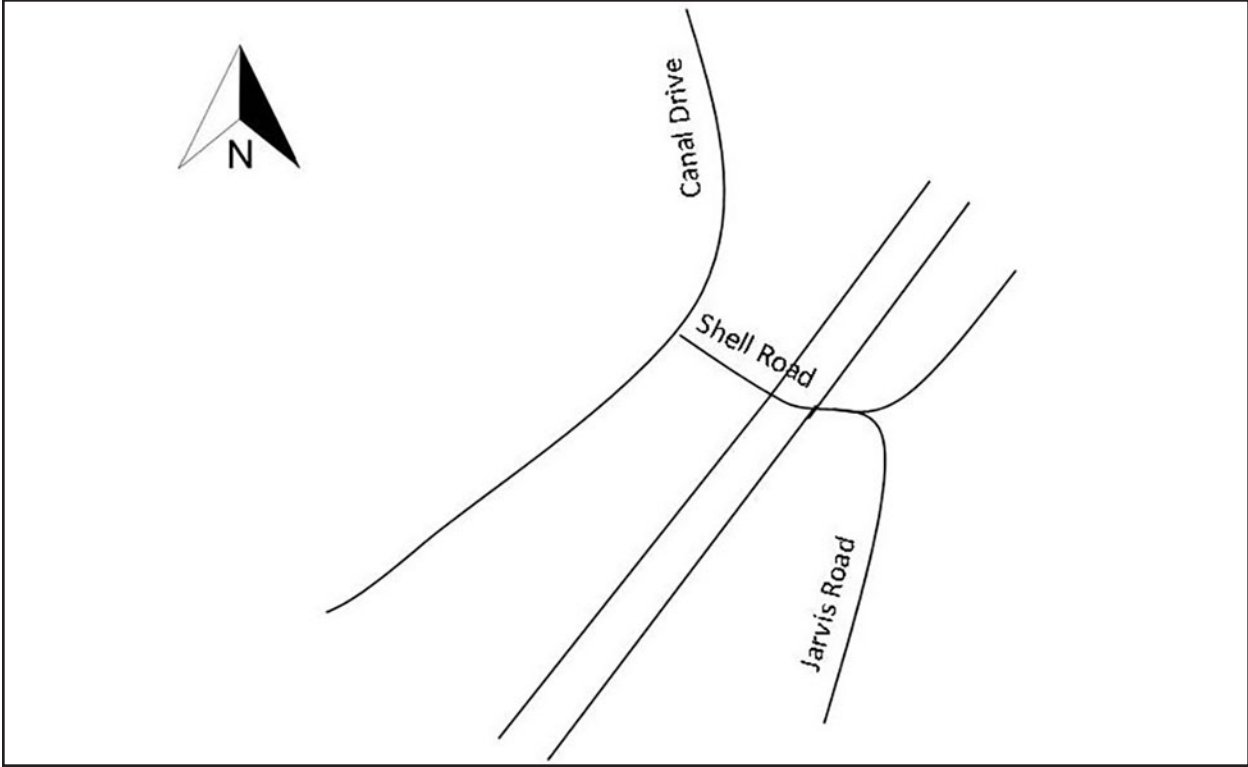


Figure 73. 131-0035 sketch map.



Figure 74. 131-0035, facing northeast.

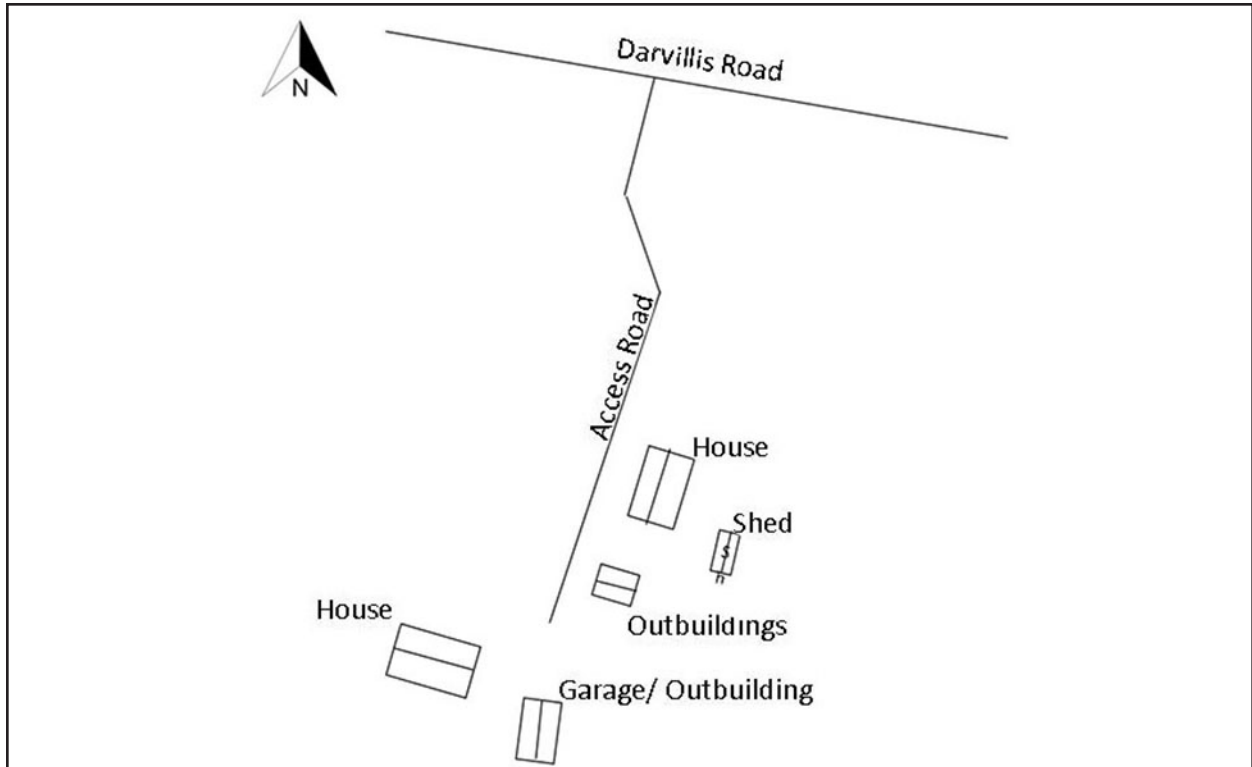


Figure 75. 026-5222, sketch map.



Figure 76. 026-5222, facing south.

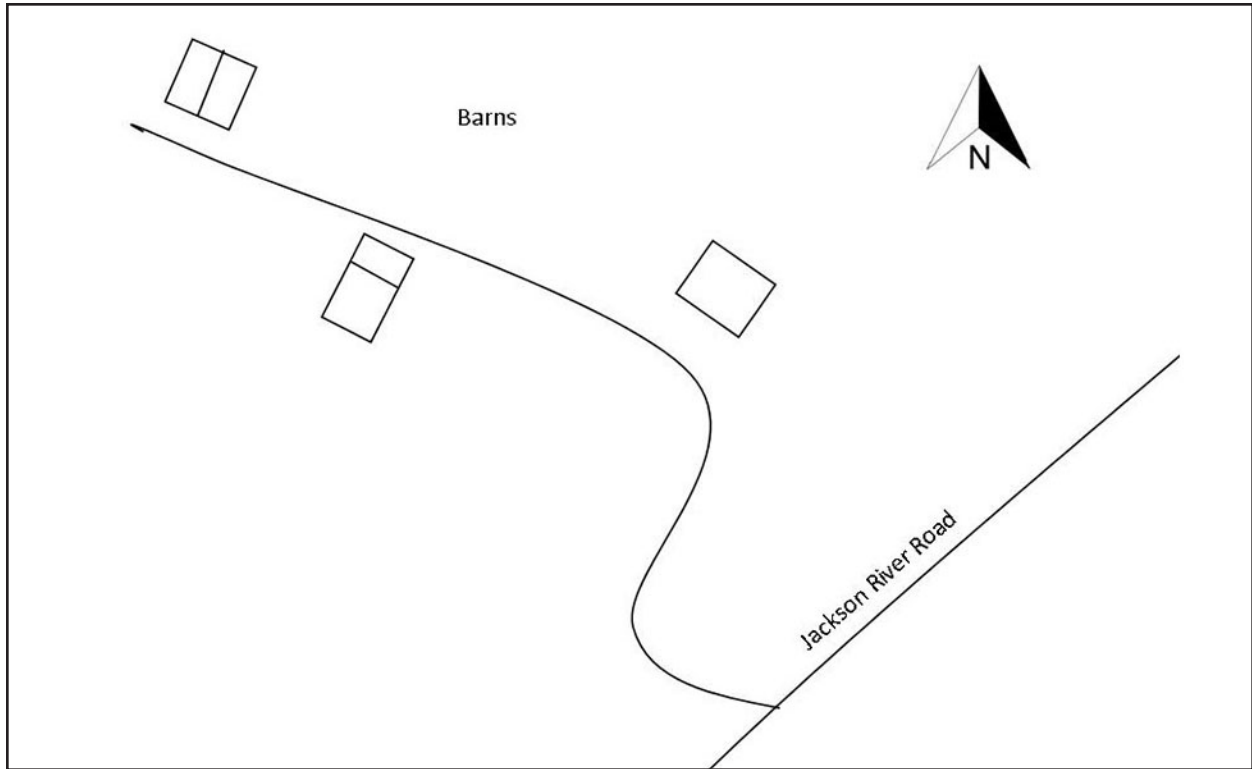


Figure 77. 045-5090, sketch map.



Figure 78. 045-5090, log structure, facing south.



Figure 79. 045-5090, barn, facing southwest.



Figure 80. 045-5090, facing southeast.



Figure 81. 062-5119-0113, house, facing south.

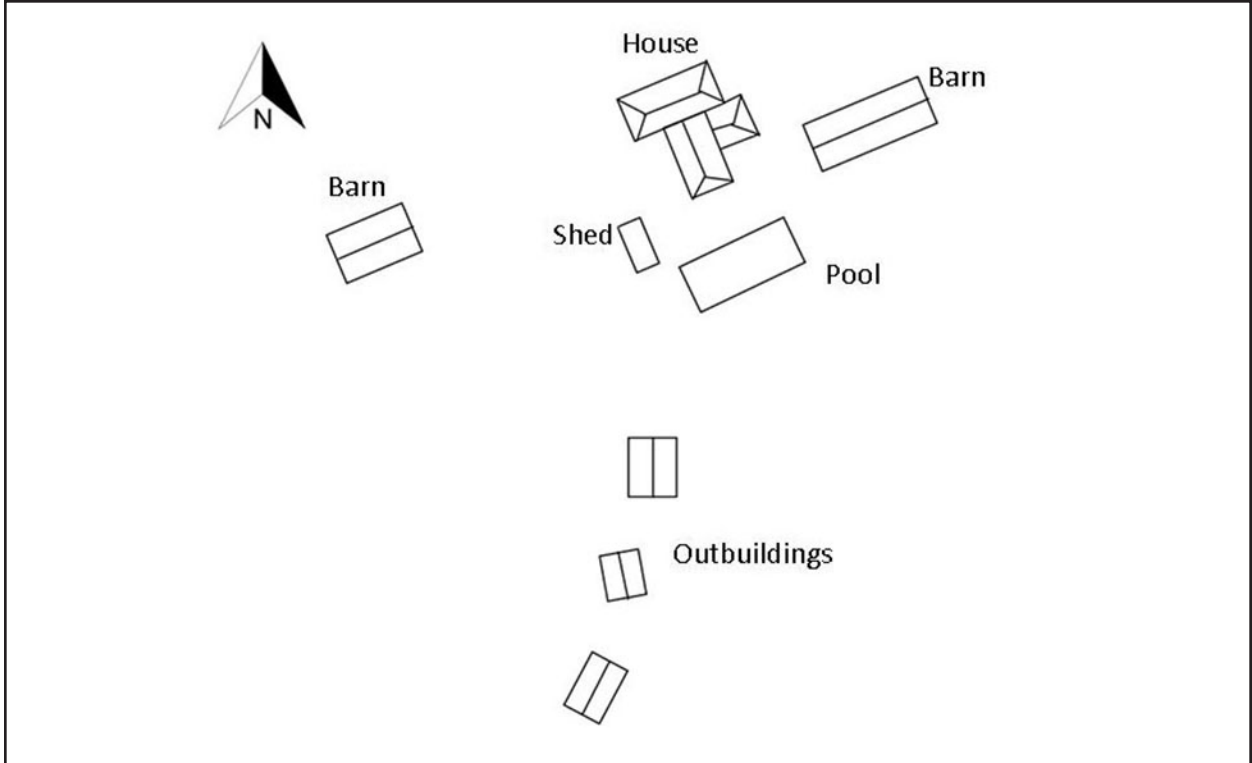


Figure 82. 062-5119-0113, sketch map.



Figure 83. 062-5119-0113, barn, facing south-southwest.



Figure 84. 062-5119-0113, accessory structures, facing south.

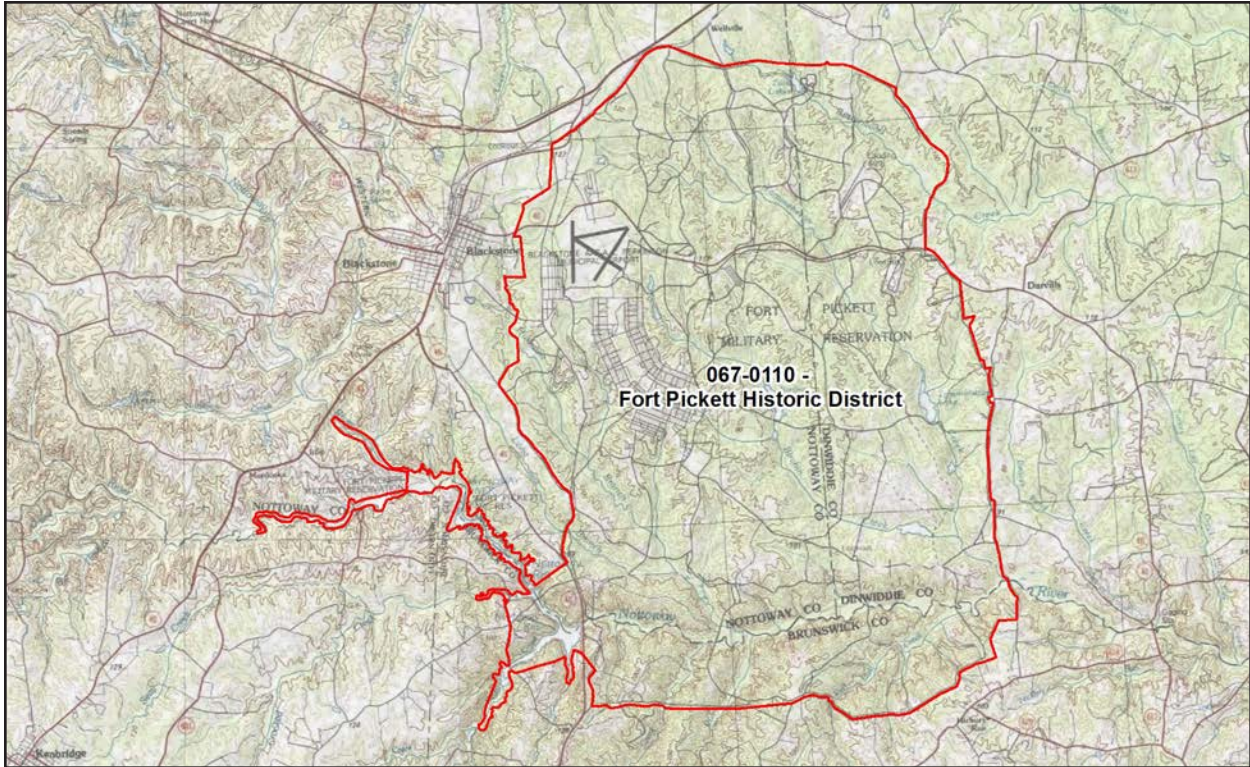


Figure 85. 067-0110, overview map.



Figure 86. 067-0110, facing south.



Figure 87. 067-0110, facing southeast.

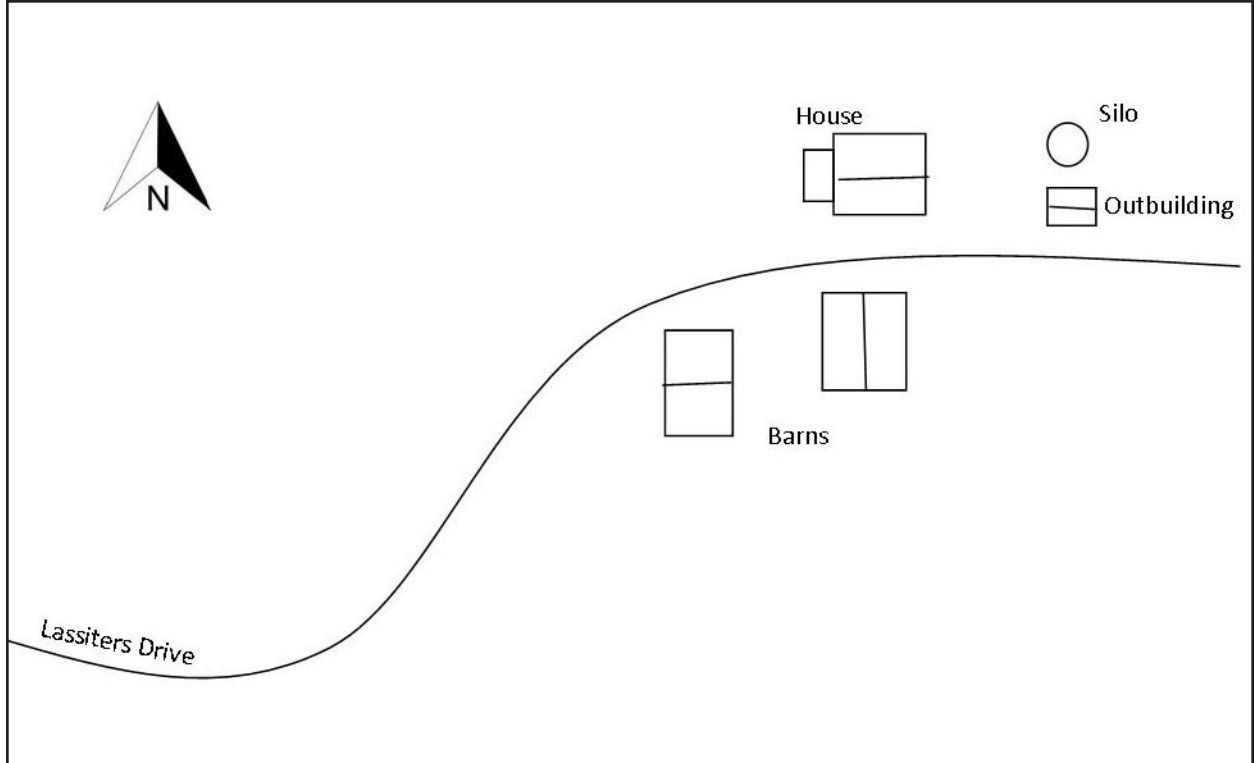


Figure 88. 087-5610, sketch map.



Figure 89. 087-5610, facing east-northeast.

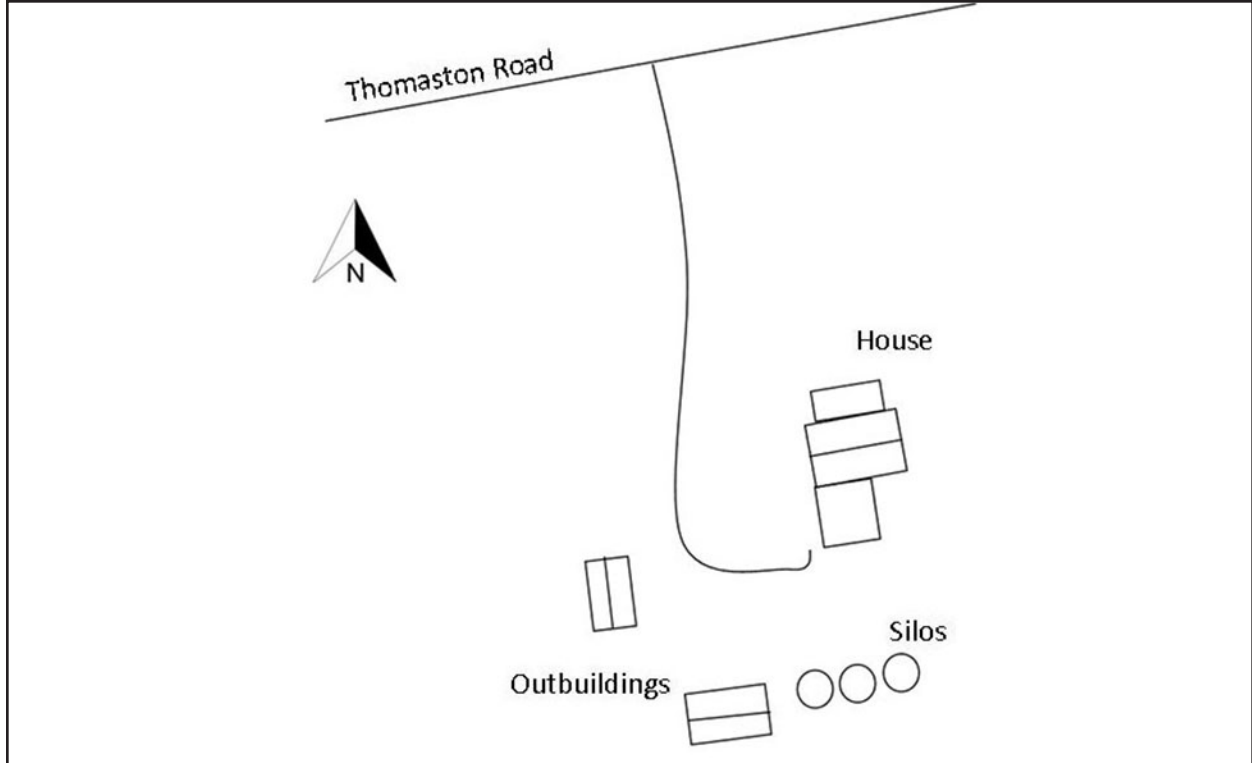


Figure 90. 087-5613, sketch map.



Figure 91. 087-5613, facing south.



Figure 92. 087-5613, shed facing southeast.



Figure 93. 087-5613, barn facing south.



Figure 94. 087-5613, silo facing south-southeast.

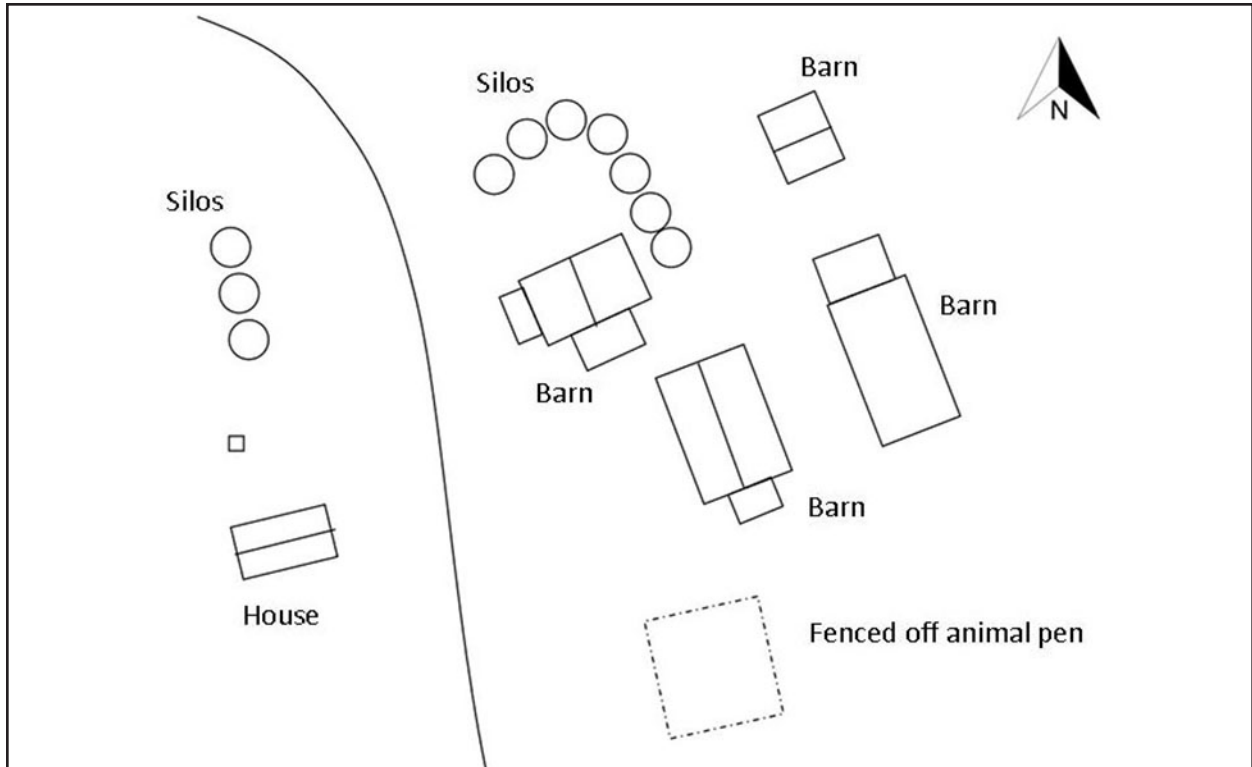


Figure 95. 087-5618, sketch map.



Figure 96. 087-5618, facing east-southeast.

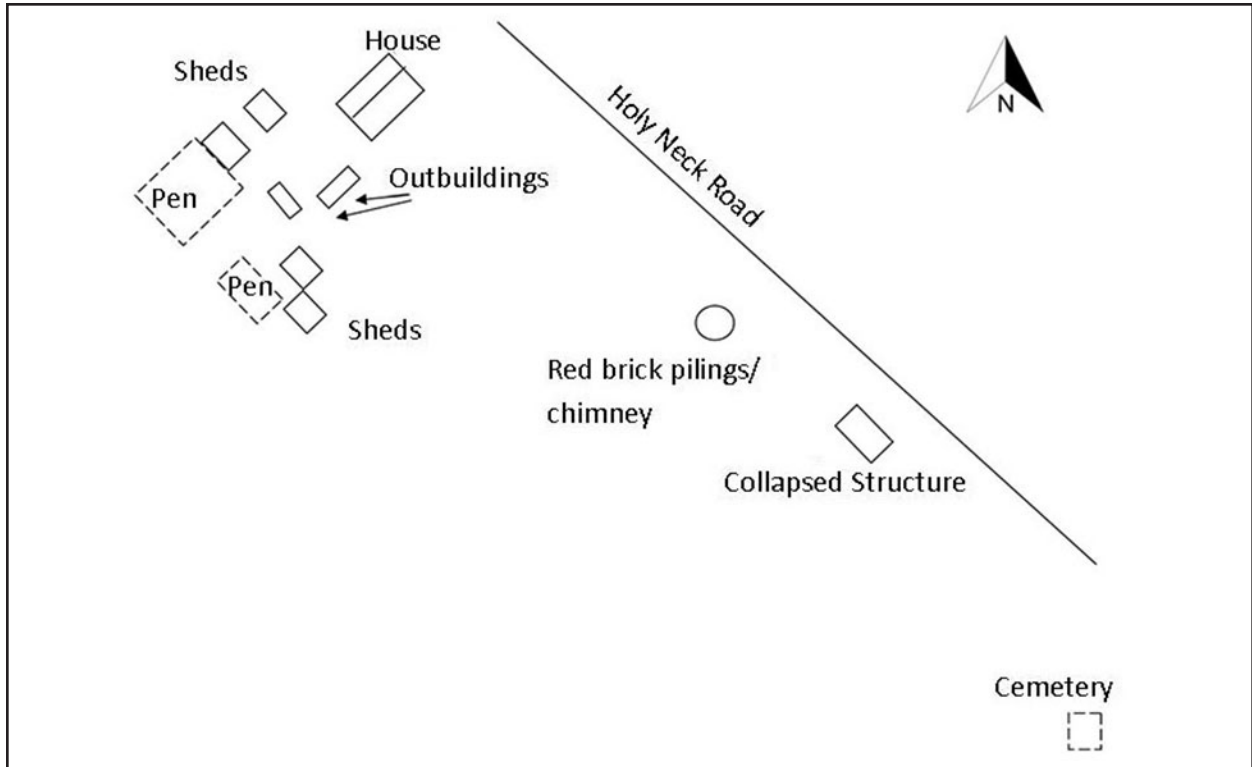


Figure 97. 133-5481, sketch map.



Figure 98. 133-5481, outbuildings, facing northeast.



Figure 99. 133-5481, facing north.



Figure 100. 133-5481, deteriorated structure, facing southwest.

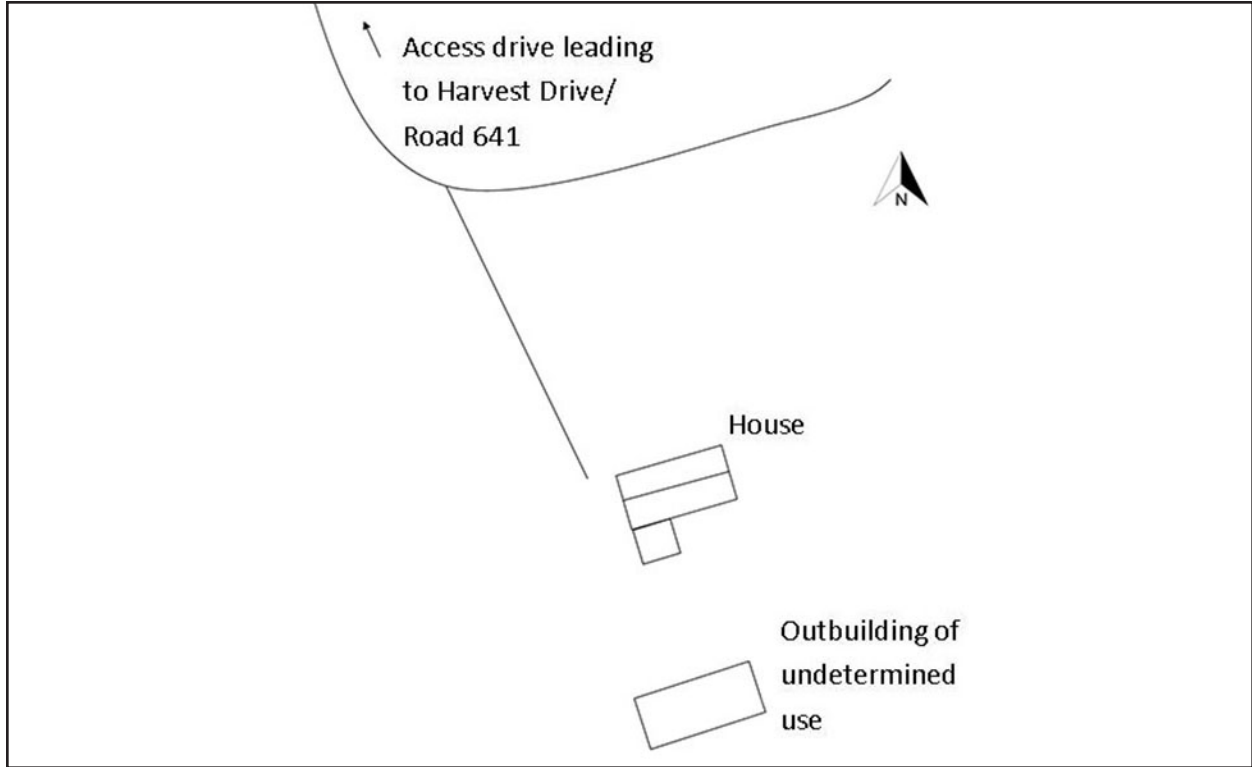


Figure 101. 133-5482, sketch map.



Figure 102. 133-5482, Google Earth image showing distance from public right of way.

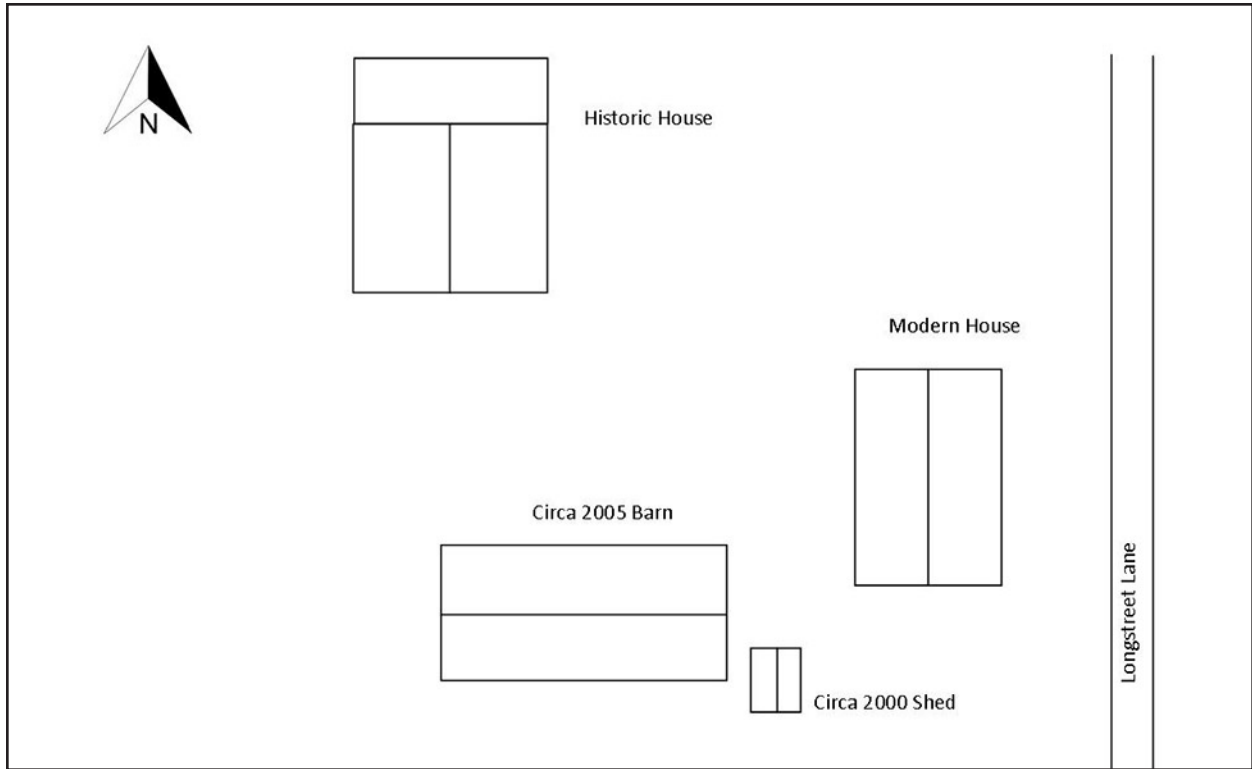


Figure 103. 133-5492, sketch map.



Figure 104. 133-5492, modern house, facing southwest.

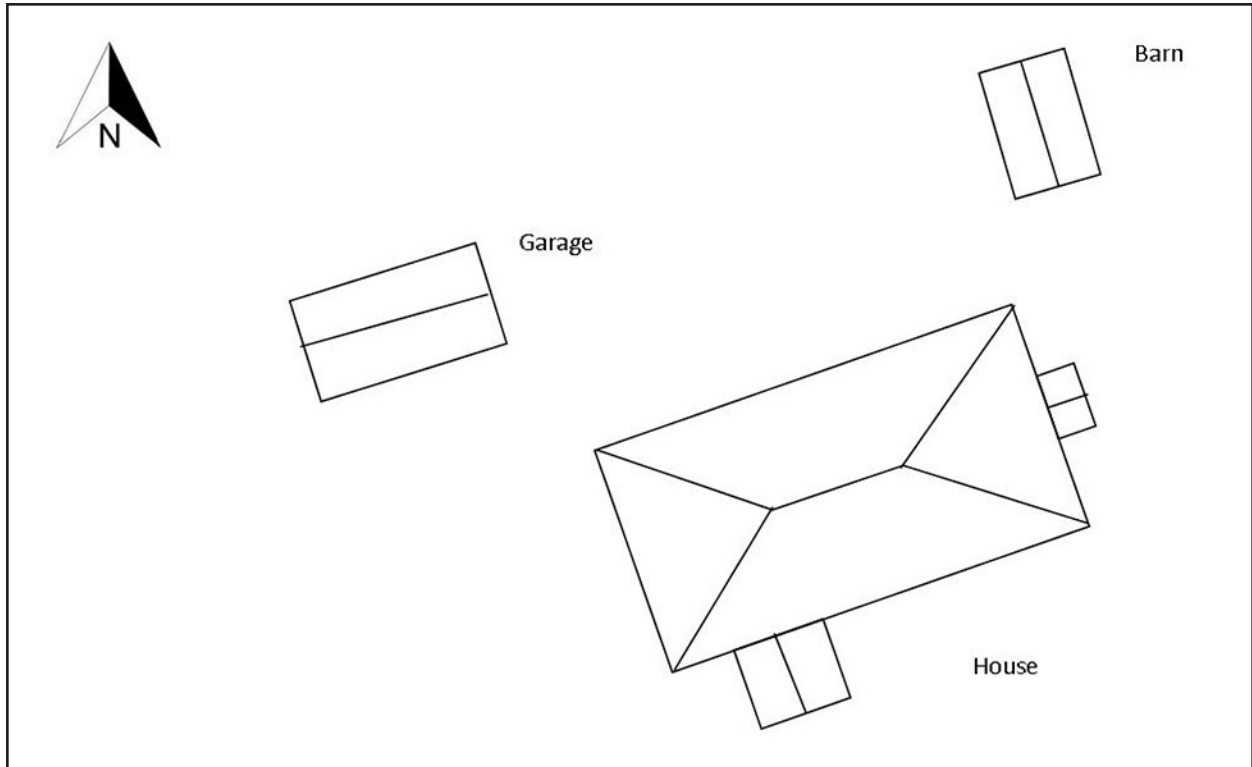


Figure 105. 133-5498, sketch map.

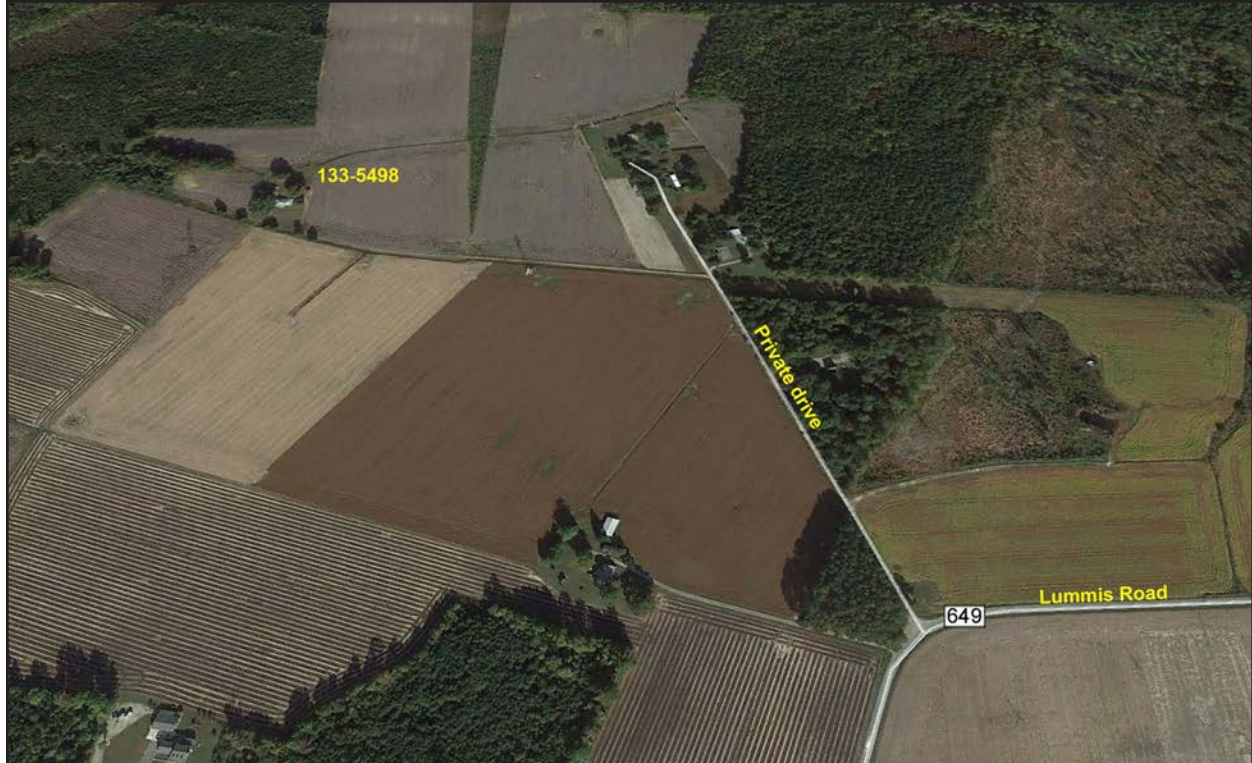


Figure 106. 133-5498, Google Earth image showing distance from public right of way.

APPENDIX C – RESUMES

Emily Tucker-Laird

Staff Scientist



Ms. Tucker-Laird has ten-plus years of experience in cultural resources management, and is Secretary of the Interior Qualified as an architectural historian and archaeologist. Ms. Tucker-Laird has experience in the oil and gas, transportation, power, and telecommunications industries. Ms. Tucker-Laird has worked on projects in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maine, Mississippi, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Texas. These projects involved private sector clients, county and municipal governments, state agencies, and federal clients. Ms. Tucker-Laird has been involved in all aspects of project tasks. She has coordinated with clients, state, and federal agencies. She has conducted background research and field studies, written reports, and prepared relevant state and federal forms.

Registrations & Professional Affiliations

- Register of Professional Archaeologists (RPA)

Fields of Competence

- Phase I, II, and III Archaeological Field Investigations
- Architectural Resource Field Survey
- National Register of Historic Places eligibility evaluation
- Cemetery Delineation and Excavation
- Preparation of State Archaeological and Architectural Survey Forms
- Rural America and Vernacular Forms
- Industrial and Transportation Resources
- Compliance with state, and federal cultural resource regulations, including guidelines set forth by various State Historic Preservation Offices, the

National Historic Preservation Act and the National Environmental Policy Act

Education and Training

- M.A., Anthropology, Ball State University, 2013
- M.S., Historic Preservation, Ball State University, 2003
- B.S., Social Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, 1999

Certificates

- Federal Energy Regulatory Commission Environmental Review and Compliance for Natural Gas Facilities (FERC, February 25-27, 2014)
- Occupational Safety and Health Standards for the Construction Industry: OTI510 (GA Tech, April 8-12, 2013)
- Introduction to NEPA and Transportation Decision Making (web-based, National Highway Institute, January 7, 2013)
- NEPA Cumulative Effects Analysis and Documentation (The Shipley Group, August 30 and 31, 2012)
- Identification and Management of Traditional Cultural Places (National Preservation Institute, June 19 and 20, 2012)
- NEPA and the Transportation Decision Making Process (National Highway Institute, June 12-14, 2012)
- Section 4f: Compliance for Historic Properties (National Preservation Institute, December 8 and 9, 2011)
- Section 106: Principles and Practice (SRI Foundation, January 12 and 13, 2010)

Key Projects

With ERM

Telecommunications Client - Nationwide

Architectural Historian and Archaeologist for a nationwide NEPA Program Management Team serving a major national telecommunications carrier, provide QA/QC oversight on cultural resources submittals and client deliverables. Key tasks include assuring that all compliance submittals conform to regulatory requirements as well as meeting client standards, and assuring that required documentation of compliance is included in all client deliverables. This includes SHPO, tribal, local government, and public consultation under the National Historic Preservation Act and the National Environmental Policy Act.

Anadarko Petroleum Corporation - Wyoming, Colorado

2015: NEPA and Section 106 efforts to support 64 telecommunications projects within existing Wattenberg, CO facilities. Served as co-tribal consultant, researcher and report writer.

Representative Historical Architectural Studies with Other Companies

Architectural Historian for the HABS Level II documentation of selected resources of the Tennessee Valley Authority Muscle Shoals Reservation, Alabama. The architectural survey included a detailed survey of both the interior and exterior of 20 resources.

Architectural Historian for 55.18-miles of proposed transmission line in Burke, Jefferson, McDuffie, and Warren counties, GA. The architectural survey involved identifying all historic resources, both newly and previously recorded that could fall within the viewshed of the proposed project.

Architectural Historian during the Georgetown Historic District Survey, including fieldwork to record 900 resources within the National Register-listed historic district.

Architectural Historian for a conditions assessment of the 13-acre Linwood Cemetery in Macon, Georgia. Containing over 4,000 burials, this historic African-American Cemetery had succumbed to neglect over a period of decades.

Representative Archaeological Studies with Other Companies

Environmental Coordinator and TRC Health and Safety Lead, acting as a liaison between the crew, subcontractors, and client for this 80-mile long project in Illinois and Indiana.

Co-field director for the Phase III Spirit Hill Site excavations, in Alabama. The site included both formal burial areas and intensively used residential zones that were occupied during the Late Woodland and Mississippian periods.

Field director for the removal of 357 individuals from 362 graves at the Wells Cemetery in Tennessee. Duties included crew supervision and coordination, assuring that burials were removed with consistent methodology, photography, and organizing excavation notes. Following the field effort, created a burial database.

Selected Publications

2014 *Phase I Cultural Resource Survey for the Line 78 Project in Livingston, Grundy, Kankakee, Will, and Cook Counties, Illinois*. TRC Environmental Corporation. Report Submitted to Enbridge Energy, Limited Partnership (senior author with Price K. Laird, Jeffery L. Holland, Jessica Burr, and Larissa A. Thomas).

2012 *HABS Level II Documentation of 20 Historic Resources on the Tennessee Valley Authority Muscle Shoals Reservoir, Colbert County, Alabama*. TRC, Inc. Report Submitted to Tennessee Valley Authority (with Jeffery L. Holland, Jessica Burr, and Vincent Macek).

2007 *Phase I Cultural Resource Survey for the Monroe Gas Storage Project, Monroe County, Mississippi*. TRC, Inc. Report Submitted to Foothills Energy Ventures, LLC (senior author with Jeffrey L. Holland).