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ENVIRONMENTAL PLANNING DIVISION
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**Native American Trails to Historic Roads
Historic Context and Methodology, Maryland**



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NATIVE AMERICAN TRAILS TO HISTORIC ROADS HISTORIC CONTEXT AND METHODOLOGY, MARYLAND

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1. INTRODUCTION

The Maryland State Highway Administration (SHA) contracted AECOM to research the indigenous trail system in Maryland with a focus on trails that became part of the state roadway system. The goals of the project are to document and map roads that likely originated as Native American trails and to relate the major trails to key resources such as well-known large habitation sites or historically documented villages, as possible. The context may contribute towards identification, interpretation, and evaluation of Native American sites in the future. This context is accompanied by a Geographic Information System (GIS) record of the paths.

The terms trail and path are used interchangeably and refer to foot paths used repeatedly without formal improvement or paving. Native Americans would have used the trails during the Late Woodland period and the period of contact with Europeans. In order for the roads to have eventually been incorporated into the modern highway system, colonists and later historic populations would have continued to use the trails.

This project was accomplished through a collaboration between AECOM, Dovetail Cultural Resource Group (Dovetail), and SHA. Historian Cameron Boutin, archaeologist Heather Crowl and GIS Specialists/Archaeologists Jordan Schaefer, Nina Shinn Polizze, and Kate McCormick completed the research and analysis. The background information and results are organized according to broad regions of Maryland, reflecting the varied settings and history of the area.

2. NATURAL SETTING

Maryland includes a diverse range of natural features and settings, ranging from the Atlantic coast in the east to the Allegheny Mountains in the west. These conditions affected settlement and the movement of people throughout prehistory and history.

2.1 PHYSIOGRAPHY

Maryland includes five physiographic provinces, moving from east to west: Atlantic Coastal Plain, Piedmont Plateau, Blue Ridge, Ridge and Valley, and Appalachian Plateau.

The Coastal Plain lies between the Fall Line on the west and the Continental Shelf/Atlantic Ocean on the east. It is bisected by the Chesapeake Bay and encompasses the Eastern Shore, counties bordering the Chesapeake Bay, and Southern Maryland. This area is characterized by unconsolidated sediments underlain by sand, silt, and clay, dipping downward to the east (Maryland Geological Survey 2024). The generally flat to rolling landscape of the Coastal Plain, with long and gradual slopes towards waterways, is due to soil movement and reworking over long periods of time. However, the area remains characterized by non-homogenous environments including riverine and coastal marsh systems. This variety of settings and resources has been attractive to both wildlife and humans throughout history (Custer 1989).

The Piedmont Plateau province covers central Maryland and extends from the Fall Line along the inner edge of the Coastal Plain westward to Catoctin Mountain, the eastern boundary of the Blue Ridge Province. The Piedmont Plateau is a broad, rolling upland with several deep gorges cut by rivers, underlain by hard, crystalline igneous, and metamorphic rocks. Areas of Precambrian gneiss overlain by quartzite, marble, and schist are present. A variety of mineral resources have historically been mined within the Piedmont Plateau, including building stone, slate, gold, chromium ore, and iron ore. Topography within the Piedmont features rolling hills and ridges dissected by numerous drainages with broad to narrow floodplains. The variety of environments, fertile soil, and availability of high-quality lithic materials made the Piedmont Plateau important for settlement.

The Blue Ridge Province is a narrow, mountainous area mainly located in western Frederick County. It is made up of metamorphic rock, including quartzite, schist, and gneiss, with igneous rock intrusions. This region would have been an impediment to east-west travel, while also providing a diversity of natural resources and sources of cryptocrystalline materials, such as metarhyolite.

The Ridge and Valley province includes tightly folded topography creating a series of parallel ridges and valleys. The province contains limestone, shale, and sandstone as well as cryptocrystalline materials for use in stone tool production. The eastern edge of the Ridge and Valley region is marked by the Great Appalachian Valley, which lies just west of the Blue Ridge. The western side of the Ridge and Valley region is marked by steep escarpments such as the Allegheny Front.

The Appalachian Plateau is a broad plateau of rolling ridges of sandstone and eroded shale. This area is largely devoid of high-quality lithic sources. The headwaters of many of Maryland's important rivers have their origin in the Appalachian Plateau and Ridge and Valley provinces, and numerous natural springs are present. The presence of upland wetlands in parts of the Appalachian Plateau appear to have been important for pre-contact people living in the region.

2.2 HYDROLOGY

Maryland includes numerous small to large order drainages across the state. Most waterways flow into the Chesapeake Bay, with the middle part of the state being part of the Potomac River

basin. The far east coast drains into the Atlantic Ocean, and the far western part of Maryland, including the Youghiogheny River, flows into the Ohio River and is part of the Mississippi River basin. The major river valleys have been important for transportation, communication, resources, and settlement from the Paleoindian period through to today. Some of the major rivers in the state include the Choptank, Piscataway, Patuxent, Patapsco, Susquehanna, Monocacy, Conococheague, and Youghiogheny rivers. The Potomac River forms most of the southern and western state border.

3. CULTURAL CONTEXT

The Maryland Historical Trust (MHT) has developed cultural contexts that provide a necessary framework for the description and analysis of known and anticipated cultural resources (Weissman 1986). These contexts are the basis for evaluating the significance of resources. The cultural context that follows provides an overview of the history of Native Americans in Maryland. The context begins with the pre-Paleoindian period before 10,000 B.C. and extends to the early post-contact period. While a direct connection between the occupants of early Native American sites and the tribes present at European contact has not been established, it is likely that some continuity exists.

3.1 PRE-PALEOINDIAN PERIOD (PRIOR TO 10,000 B.C.)

While definitive evidence of human occupation in the Mid-Atlantic region is generally attributed to the Clovis archaeological culture with its signature fluted points, which begin around 10,000 B.C., traces of earlier occupation are present at several regional sites. The Cactus Hill site in southern Virginia (McAvoy and McAvoy 1997), the Meadowcroft Rockshelter site in southwestern Pennsylvania (Adovasio et al. 1998), and the Barton site in western Maryland have all yielded carbon dates pre-dating Clovis occupation.

3.2 PALEOINDIAN PERIOD (10,000-8,000 BC)

The Paleoindian period marks the retreat of glacial conditions and the beginning of a Holocene environment that is characterized by cold temperatures and alternating periods of moist and dry climate (McWeeney 2013:50–51). Human adaptations to these environmental conditions in North America manifested in hunting and gathering in small nomadic bands. These bands focused on hunting caribou, elk, deer, and now-extinct mega-fauna (Goodyear et al. 1979; Meltzer 1988; Moeller 2002:93; Smith 1986; cf. Lepper 2002:81–85). It appears, however, that the focus on mega-fauna decreased south of the formerly glaciated region (Carr and Adovasio 2002:3–4; Dent 1995:69; Gardner 2002:98; Gingrich 2011). Settlement often focused on the large rivers in the area, which would have included the ancestral Susquehanna that flowed through eastern Maryland prior to the inundation of its lower reaches, which resulted in the eventual formation of the Chesapeake Bay (Jefferson Patterson Park and Museum [JefPat] 2002; Lepper 2002:84).

Buried Paleoindian sites are rare in Maryland (e.g., Higgins's site; Ebright 1992). Much of what archeologists know about Paleoindians comes from isolated finds of fluted projectile points (e.g., Flint Run Complex; Gardner 1974, 1977). While uncommon, enough sites have been identified in the Mid-Atlantic region to provide for an interpretation of precontact settlement patterns and subsistence during the period. The traditional view of Paleoindian settlement and subsistence in Virginia and Maryland is based on the forager through collector spectrum outlined by Binford (1980). The Paleoindian period inhabitants of the region are typically viewed as being closer to the idealized forager with small bands moving through the landscape for most of the year hunting, fishing, and foraging for wild edibles. Available evidence suggests Paleoindian subsistence was focused on hunted game, although it is likely that plant foods supplemented the game. These small bands may have come together to form larger groups during certain times of the year at sites located near geographically restricted resources such as quarry sites (Dent 1995). The tools often displayed high degrees of maintenance and reworking, which is consistent with nomadic lifestyles and logistical migration between sources of lithic raw materials and seasonally specific sources of subsistence resources (e.g., Lobel 2013:329). Paleoindian people likely traveled on paths created by hunted game.

While the majority of Paleoindian finds come from Coastal Plain settings, some have been identified in Piedmont and mountainous settlements of the Maryland and Virginia interior. The

most important is perhaps the Thunderbird site in Warren County, Virginia, representing a Paleoindian camp and lithic processing center. In the Piedmont of Maryland, Kavanagh (1982) reported one fluted point at 18FR17 at the confluence of Tuscarora Creek and the Monocacy River, as well as an isolated find on a Monocacy River terrace.

3.3 ARCHAIC PERIOD (8,000-1,200 B.C.)

The Archaic period dates to ca. 8,000–1,200 B.C. and is conventionally subdivided into the Early (ca. 8,000–6,800 B.C.), Middle (ca. 6,800–2,200 B.C.), and Late/Transitional (ca. 2,200–1,200 B.C.) periods. The Archaic period refers to pre-ceramic sites associated with hunter-gatherers that occupied the emerging deciduous forests of the Eastern Woodlands. A climate shift at the end of the Pleistocene, ca. 8,000 B.C., brought about dramatic warming and environmental changes. As glaciers receded north, boreal (e.g., spruce) forest was replaced by pine and deciduous mast-producing species (e.g., oak and hickory). The warming trend led to the inundation of the Continental Shelf along the Atlantic coast and major waterways, notably the Susquehanna, leading to the formation of the Chesapeake Bay.

The Archaic period is defined by a series of adaptations to the changing environment that include increased sedentism and a shift in settlement focus to larger rivers and major tributaries. The period is interpreted as representing the gradual shift by the end of the Archaic from the foraging subsistence base of the preceding Paleoindian period toward a more collector-based system characterized by large macro-group base camps and smaller resource procurement sites (Binford 1980; Dent 1995). Resources obtained at smaller procurement sites were brought back to larger base camps. Increasing territoriality and regional diversity throughout the Archaic period are reflected in the varieties of artifacts, especially projectile points.

There does not appear to be a dramatic change in the tool kits of the Early Archaic and their Paleoindian predecessors and their settlement and subsistence patterns seem to be very similar (Anderson et al. 1996; Cable 1996). The transition into the Archaic period is marked by an increase in site size and artifact quantity, as well as an increase in the number of sites (Egloff and McAvoy 1990).

Early Archaic period inhabitants continued to show a preference for high-quality lithic materials, either transported into the area through trade or travel, or obtained from cobble sources in river and stream beds. However, several researchers have noted that Early Archaic people appear to have utilized other lithic materials as well, with metarhyolite in particular increasingly used for tools (Lowery 2001, 2003; Custer 1984a, 1986; Dent 1995). This indicates that people traveled long distances to obtain the preferred lithic raw material; alternatively, long-range trade networks may have been established (Steponaitis 1983). Catoctin Mountain exhibits metarhyolite outcrops that would have served as an important source for local lithic manufacturing and trade (Fiedel et al. 2000). At the close of this period, we see a shift to an increased reliance on a wider range of lithic resources.

Sites dating to the Middle Archaic are more numerous, suggesting an increase in population, and sites appear to be occupied for longer periods of time. The Middle Archaic covered a relatively warm and dry period that may have resulted in widespread population movements (Delcourt and Delcourt 1987; Stoltman and Baerreis 1983). With the embayment of the Susquehanna River during this period, people in Maryland began to take advantage of the new shallow estuarine environments and started harvesting oysters. Mouer (1991:10) sees the primary cultural attributes of the Middle Archaic as “small-group band organization, impermanent settlement systems, infrequent aggregation phases, and low levels of regional or areal integration and interaction.” Increased reliance on collecting and harvesting of plant resources also required changing movement patterns and the developments of a more specialized toolkit, which included ground stone tools, to process diverse resources (Chapman 1975; Barse and Harbison 2000).

By approximately 3,000 B.C., modern vegetation had become established in the region, and the climate was punctuated by alternating periods of dry and moist conditions (Brush 1986). In general, the Late Archaic period is characterized by the development of oak and hickory forests and open grasslands (Carbone 1976; Custer 1984b; Custer and Mellin 1989; Kellogg and Custer 1994). Sea level continued to rise but was relatively stable by the end of the Late Archaic period (Colman et al. 1993; Dent 1995; Lowery 2003). The warmer and drier climate appears to have stabilized stream valleys and estuaries in the region making such localities more attractive for settlement. These settings developed into rich habitats with a great diversity of exploitable resources, particularly shellfish and anadromous fish (Dent 1995). This is reflected in the changes manifested in Late Archaic toolkits as well as in the number of site types and site locations utilized.

The period of time from approximately 4500 BP to 3200 BP is referred to as the Transitional period by some (Mouer 1991), while others argue that due to the lack of pottery, it is more accurately classified as an extension of the Late Archaic (Dent 1995:180). By the early portion of this period, glacial retreat had led to higher sea levels on the Atlantic seaboard. This allowed for the development of large estuaries and tidal wetlands that were conducive to the development of coastal resources such as fish and shellfish. Sites dating to this time period are often located in areas where populations can exploit these types of resources, such as river valleys, the lower portion of the coastal plain tributaries of major rivers, and near swamps. This has led archeologists to postulate that fish began to play a larger role in the subsistence system. Platform hearths seen during this period are interpreted as being associated with fish processing (Dent 1995:185). The first definitive evidence of shellfish exploitation in the region is seen during this period on the lower reaches of the Potomac River (JefPat 2002; Potter 1993).

Transitional sites tend to be larger than those of the previous Archaic periods, likely reflecting an increase in population; however, there is still no evidence for year-round occupation. Dent (1995) argues that the larger sites may be misinterpreted as reflecting longer term occupation and may simply be sites that were revisited for short periods on many occasions. The appearance of “broadspears,” projectile point styles characteristic of the end of the Late Archaic/Transitional period, has been interpreted as possibly demonstrating the movement of people from the north into the Chesapeake Bay area (Dent 1995).

3.4 WOODLAND PERIOD (1,200 B.C. – A.D. 1550)

The Woodland period is divided into the Early (1,200–500 B.C.), Middle (500 B.C.–A.D. 900), and Late (A.D. 900–1550) periods based on changes in ceramic types, lithic technologies, subsistence patterns, and social development. The climate during the Woodland period was characterized by a return to cool, moist conditions and the establishment of vegetation that is typical of the region today. The Woodland period is marked by the introduction of ceramics, significant population growth, and the development of semi-sedentary and sedentary ways of life. Production innovations, as reflected in ceramic types, have become a significant basis for dating Woodland period archeological site components. Hunting and gathering of wild floral and faunal resources remained important, but budding horticulture, based on maize cultivation, eventually formed an important part of the subsistence base (Dragoo 1975). An increased focus on estuarine resources, especially shellfish, is manifested in numerous shell middens, especially in the lower reaches of the Potomac estuary.

It was previously thought that the transition between the Archaic and Woodland Periods, between 2,000–1,000 B.C., represented the introduction of horticulture (e.g., Fritz 1993; Smith 1992, 1995). Although Early Woodland groups in the South and Midwest used cultivated plants, there is presently no evidence that cultivated foods played a role in the diet of Early Woodland people in the area. Very efficient hunting and gathering systems, including riverine and marine species exploitation, may have made the incorporation of cultigens slow at first. Only after A.D. 800 to 900, when varieties of tropical cultigens adapted to local conditions arrived in the Middle Atlantic

area, did cultivated foods begin to assume an important role (Smith 1995). These tropical cultigens complemented cultigens of the Eastern Agricultural Complex (erect knotweed, goosefoot, little barley, maygrass, squash, sunflower, and sumpweed) that had been part of the precontact diet for centuries.

During the Early Woodland period, metarhyolite was transported from sources in the Blue Ridge to the Coastal Plain, though locally available materials, such as quartz, were still procured and used for tool manufacture (Kavanagh 1982). Sites are typified by large base camps located in riverine settings, especially near the junction of fresh and brackish water streams (Barse and Harbison 2000). Smaller sites generally associated with specialized ventures are found on or near interior drainages. The hearth features found at Late Archaic sites continue into the Early Woodland and pit features, used for storage and cooking, become much more common at Early Woodland sites (Klein and Klatka 1991). These features are indicative of an increasingly sedentary lifestyle as greater amounts of labor were invested in non-portable processing and storage facilities.

The Middle Woodland is marked by the rise of certain sociocultural characteristics that include “interregional interaction spheres, including the spread of religious and ritual behaviors, which appear in locally transformed ways; localized stylistic developments that sprung up independently alongside interregional styles; increased sedentism; and evidence of ranked societies or incipient ranked societies” (McLearen 1992:55). While there is a degree of commonality among Middle Woodland peoples, one of the striking characteristics of this period is the rise of regional trends, particularly in pottery. Coastal Plain ceramic styles, such as Mockley, can be distinguished from Piedmont and Western Valley styles, such as Watson. Differences that correspond to river drainages that drain into the Chesapeake Bay can also be discerned. Subsistence economies along the Chesapeake Bay and major rivers continue to increase during this period as well as long distance trade (JefPat 2002).

The Middle Woodland settlement system and subsistence practices are viewed as a transitional period in Mid-Atlantic prehistory between more mobile collectors of the Late Archaic/Early Woodland periods and the fully sedentary villages of the Late Woodland period (Sperling 2008). Evidence for increased sedentism is found at sites across Virginia and Maryland during the Middle Woodland. Large, 9-ft diameter storage pits and smaller refuse pits were found at the Dorr site (18AN19) in Upper Marlboro, Maryland, and the Patuxent Point Site in Calvert County (Barse et al. 2006; Sperling 2008). In addition to the large and small pits, an oval house pattern was found at the Patuxent Point site. These sites have been interpreted as representing semi-sedentary occupations. It is possible that early forms of horticulture were taking place at these larger, semi-sedentary occupations (Barse et al. 2006). Smaller sites, including middens and small rockshelters devoted to exploiting specialized resources, hunting, and quarrying, continued to be found along inland drainages and small estuaries (Barse and Harbison 2000).

Trade/exchange, both local and regional, was an important component of Middle Woodland societies. Middle Woodland exchange in the Mid-Atlantic has been characterized as a mixture of broad-based and focused systems of exchange (Sperling 2008). Broad-based exchange systems resulted in the movement of large amounts of metarhyolite from sources in the Blue Ridge and Monocacy Valley, argillite from New Jersey, and some Pennsylvania jasper to produce stone tools (Barse et al. 2006; Sperling 2008). Participation in extensive broad-based regional trade and exchange networks is demonstrated by the recovery of natural copper from several Mockley phase sites in Maryland (Barse et al. 2006).

The Late Woodland period is marked by an increased reliance on agriculture, attendant population growth, larger villages, and increased sociocultural complexity (Turner 1992). Far western Maryland sites were part of the Monongahela Woodland complex with ties to settlements in southwestern Pennsylvania and possibly to the Fort Ancient culture of the Ohio River valley

(Wall 1981). Monongahela-distinctive cultural traditions disappeared from the archaeological record before initial contact with Europeans. The trend towards sedentary settlements continues throughout the Late Woodland. In the early portion of this period, settlements consisted of small clusters of houses with little to no internal organization. However, by the end of the sixteenth century, larger villages are observed. Features associated with these villages include palisades, houses, hearths, storage pits, and burials (Hantman and Klein 1992). Late Woodland mortuary sites consist of large ossuaries containing human remains and few grave goods. Exotic items, such as those found in Early and Middle Woodland period mortuary contexts, are largely absent from Late Woodland ossuaries.

The establishment of stable agriculture during the Late Woodland period led to the development of sedentary floodplain village communities. Villages were often located within palisades near agricultural fields (Wall 2001). The reliance on agriculture, as well as the presence of village palisades, hearths, storage pits, middens, and ossuaries indicated the greatest degree of sedentism seen until this time. Settlements were generally located on broad floodplains, often near the junction of a tributary stream and river (Wall 2001). Social organization included the appearance of chiefdoms. While settled villages are the dominant settlement type a dichotomy in the spatial organization of village sites has been observed with nucleated, palisaded villages and internally dispersed villages.

The nucleated, palisaded villages are characterized by a circular palisade wall enclosing a series of elongated circular wooden post structures arranged around a ring of storage/trash pits which encircles a small open space. These sites are typically associated with Potomac Creek pottery, ossuary burials, and are found along the inner coastal plain from the Rappahannock River to Baltimore with the greatest concentration found along the Potomac River (Potter 1993; Stephenson et al. 1963; Stewart 1992; Turner 1992). Examples of this type of site include the Late Woodland components at the Accokeek Creek site in Prince George's County, Maryland, and the Potomac Creek site in Stafford County, Virginia (Stephenson et al. 1963; Stewart 1992). While large Late Woodland villages are typically found along the major rivers of the Coastal Plain, several have been located in the Piedmont, including the Biggs Ford (18FR14), Rosenstock (18FR18), and Devilbiss Bridge (18FR38) sites near the Monocacy River.

The internally dispersed village settlement type is characterized by widely separated residential buildings dispersed within a core area and is associated with Townsend/Rappahannock ceramic wares (Potter 1993). These settlements are not bound by a palisade wall and individual residences may be nucleated or widely dispersed over multiple hectares but are not as rigidly organized and are more widely separated than those found at villages sites bound by palisade walls (Turner 1992). Examples of this type of settlement include the White Oak Point site in Westmorland County, Virginia, and the Indian Town Farm site in Lancaster County, Virginia (Potter 1993). These types of sites have a wider distribution throughout the Coastal Plain compared to the palisaded villages (Turner 1992).

Small transient camps have been found in upland settings (Gardner et al. 1984). Hunting and gathering was conducted from larger estuarine camps surrounded by micro-band camps. Other trends include shifts in lithic raw material preferences, perhaps related to the development of more sedentary lifestyles. As a result, smaller foraging and hunting ranges would have resulted in more limited exploration for lithic raw materials and greater dependence on resources found near the camps as well as those regularly obtained through exchange with other groups.

Wall (1981) suggests the presence of palisaded villages on rises perhaps indicates increased conflict between Native American groups. Events in the sixteenth century, including increased population growth and the appearance of the Little Ice Age, led to competition for more scarce resources within Iroquoian areas of New York, resulting in the movement of Iroquois people

southward (Wall 1981:49). Susquehannock settlement of Pennsylvania pushed into the lower Susquehanna River basin, including into northern Maryland and the Shenandoah Valley.

The cultural continuity between the Late Woodland culture and the Algonquian culture and villages reported during European contact can be inferred by European trade goods placed within burials (Curry 1999). The locations of Late Woodland villages along the Chesapeake Bay coincide spatially with ethno-historic accounts of Algonquian villages. After A.D. 1500, there was an increase in social and political interaction among indigenous tribes in the region, and Potter (1993) has suggested that an alliance of Coastal Plain Algonquian groups was formed prior to European contact. Possibly as a result of increased raids from the north along major waterways, it appears that Algonquin village sites above the Fall Line were largely abandoned by the time of European contact, while villages in the Coastal Plain survived, consolidated loosely under the Powhatan paramount chiefdom (Wall 1981:52).

3.5 CONTACT PERIOD (1500-1650)

Captain John Smith's explorations of the Chesapeake Bay area during the years 1608–1610 marked the first well-documented contact between European explorers and Native Americans in the region. Captain Smith's journal (Smith 2013) describes his travels and maps Indian villages along the Chesapeake Bay extensive estuaries of the Potomac River.

During the period of initial European intrusion, most of the Chesapeake Bay area of Maryland was inhabited by several Algonquin-speaking societies, with Iroquoian speaking Susquehannock at the head of the Bay. Native American societies were stratified and organized into chiefdoms that at times became confederated paramount chiefdoms (Dent 1995:261-264). Rountree and Davidson (1997a:1) assert that “although divided by politics and to some extent by language, the Indian tribes of the region lived lives that were more alike than different, and they relied on many of the same tools, both technological and social, to deal with the natural world and with each other.” Most of the Native American villages in the region were scattered rather than concentrated settlements and only occupied for part of the year due to tribes' annual cycle of hunting, foraging, fishing, and planting, which required frequent movement. Indigenous peoples were so accustomed to moving about the region that waterways formed the center of political units (Rountree 1989:29). The introduction of European goods into the artifact assemblage is a distinguishing characteristic of this period. Depopulation related to European-borne disease and changed trade dynamics are the two primary factors often cited in cultural changes during this period. While the period of initial contact with Europeans described here relates to the early seventeenth century explorations, it should be noted that initial contact with Native Americans living on the interior further northwest took place later as European settlement expanded.

3.6 CONTACT AND EARLY SETTLEMENT (1600–1750)

Europeans increasingly affected the North American landscape after 1500. British, French, and Spanish expeditions visited the Chesapeake Bay and its tributary rivers beginning in the mid- to late-sixteenth century. Sustained contact between Native Americans and Europeans, however, began with the construction of the English fort at Jamestown in 1607. Contact and settlement of Maryland differed across the state. This discussion is broken out into regions to discuss the Native Americans living in the diverse areas of the state and their interactions with settlers.

3.6.1 Eastern Shore

Jamestown colonist John Smith briefly explored the Eastern Shore of Maryland in 1608, visiting the waterfront towns of several different Indigenous peoples, including the Nanticoke and Pocomoke (Clark 1950:39–41). Beginning in the 1620s, English traders from Virginia began to frequent the Eastern Shore to trade with the Native American inhabitants for furs. William Claiborne established a trading post on Kent Island in 1631, but he was soon ousted by the newly

established Maryland colonists (Potter 1993:188–191). The profits of the fur trade delayed the English settlement of the Eastern Shore for several decades, with most of the Native American tribes in the region establishing regular trade relations with both Maryland and Virginia colonists in the Chesapeake Bay by 1640 (Rountree and Davidson 1997:84–89). Commercial links stretched across the Delmarva Peninsula through the early- and mid-seventeenth century, as the Native American societies of Maryland's Eastern Shore also had close connections with Delaware tribal groups and traded with the Dutch and Swedes on Delaware Bay (Soderlund 2015:45).

The main Native American groups inhabiting the Eastern Shore of Maryland in the seventeenth century were the Wicomiss, Choptanks, Nanticokes, Pocomokes, and Assateagues (Rountree and Davidson 1997:93). The Wicomiss dwelled on the upper Eastern Shore near the Chester River at the beginning of the century, but the Iroquoian-speaking Susquehannocks soon began extending their territory southward into the head of the Chesapeake Bay region. The Wicomiss resisted the expansion, but they were made subordinate to the Susquehannocks by 1648 and displaced from their lands. Both the Wicomiss and Susquehannocks were also in conflict with the colonists of Maryland by the 1640s, though the latter made peace with the English in 1652. The Susquehannocks surrendered their claim to the upper Eastern Shore to Maryland, while the Wicomiss moved south of the Choptank River and lived in the territory of the Nanticoke in present-day Dorchester County by the 1660s. The displaced tribe seemed to have wandered freely between the Nanticoke lands and southern Delaware but remained hostile toward the Maryland colonists (Marye 1938:149–152; Rountree and Davidson 1997:89–99).

The Choptanks occupied multiple towns on the south side of the Choptank River from around present-day Cambridge to Secretary Creek in Dorchester County. Their territory extended inland from the river to include the headwaters of the Little Blackwater and Transquaking Rivers. The Choptanks maintained amicable relations with the colony of Maryland and signed a treaty of alliance in 1659 (Clark 1950:54–55; Marye 1937:1–5). The Nanticokes did sometimes clash with Maryland colonists in the mid-seventeenth century, though these conflicts were small in scale, and peaceful trade soon resumed. In 1650, the core of the Nanticoke territory centered around the Nanticoke River but extended south to the Wicomico River (formerly known as Rockawalkin [Maryland State Archives Liber L1 1690's Pages 84-87 as cited by the Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc.]). The Nanticokes' principal settlement was Chicone, which was situated on the west bank of the Nanticoke River and north of the modern town of Vienna in Dorchester County, but the tribe had several other villages. The Rockawalkin people (often erroneously referred to as Wicomicos in later secondary histories [Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., personal communication]¹) resided at a settlement called Tundotank near present-day Salisbury on the Wicomico River in Wicomico County (Clark 1950:48–50; Rountree and Davidson 1997:95–99).

The Pocomoke occupied the southern side of the lower Pocomoke River drainage at the beginning of the seventeenth century in territory within the later political boundaries of both Maryland and Virginia. Over the course of the century, the tribe became a paramountcy including several subtribal groups; (Annemessex, Quandocquan, Morumsco, Acquintica, Nusswattux, Gingoteague, and Mananoakin (Manokin) encompassing several bodies of water and crossing present day state lines before English expansion. By 1678, the Pocomoke were living at Askiminikansen on the north bank of the Pocomoke River near the modern town of Snow Hill in Worcester County (Clark 1950:46–47; Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., personal communication; Rountree and Davidson 1997:96).

¹ In archival records, the tribal name associated with settlements on the present-day Wicomico River is the Rockawalkin. The river and eventually the people were erroneously referred to first as the Wighcocomoco and eventually the Wicomico in an attempt by Col. Edmund Scarborough to transfer the geographic location of the river name, originally noted by Captain John Smith referring to the Pocomoke to the Rockawalkin River. This was done in an unsuccessful attempt to secure more land for Virginia as the boundary between the colonies of Virginia and Maryland on the Eastern Shore was to be the Wighcocomoco as it appeared on the Map of Virginia published in 1612. This renaming first appeared in 1673 within the Map of Virginia and Maryland by Augustin Herrman. (Pocomoke Indian Nation, personal communication)

The last major Native American group was the Assateagues, who lived on the Atlantic side of the Delmarva Peninsula and had little contact with the colonial government of Maryland until the second half of the seventeenth century. Like the Pocomokes, the Assateagues may have been an aggregation of several smaller tribes, and by the 1680s, they also lived at Askiminikansen (Rountree and Davidson 1997:96).

The Native Americans of Maryland's Eastern Shore had continuous contact with the English from 1620 onward, but for 40 years these relations were dominated by the fur trade. Rountree and Davidson (1997:122) note that the "tribes successfully modified their traditional economy to take advantage of the availability of European goods and to accommodate themselves to the demands of the fur trade, while maintaining a traditional way of life in virtually all other respects." The strictly commercial relationship meant that unlike other Chesapeake Bay Native American groups, a long time passed before they had to compete with colonists for land. But by 1660, the importance of the fur trade declined, and English colonists began to move to the Eastern Shore. Settlers spread rapidly up the peninsula's waterways, claiming grants of land that had traditionally been used by Native Americans and steadily overwhelming their communities (Clark 1950:50; Rountree and Davidson 1997:99–104).

Maryland went to war against the still-hostile Wicomiss in the late 1660s and nearly destroyed the tribe with the help of the Choptanks, the Nanticokes, and other Eastern Shore Native Americans, ending their presence in the region (Marye 1939:51–53). In the period after the conflict, Maryland signed a series of treaties with the different tribes in the region, including one with the Choptanks in 1668 that granted them title under Maryland law to their territory along the Choptank River. This was the first reservation to be created on the Eastern Shore of Maryland (Clark 1950:55; Marye 1937:5–12). In 1678, the Maryland government extended formal recognition of land rights to the Nanticokes, Pocomokes, and Assateagues. These tribes received acknowledgement of their towns on the Nanticoke, Rockawalkin (present-day Wicomico), Mananoakin (Manokin), and Pocomoke Rivers, but not legal boundaries or title to the land. Consequently, encroachment and harassment by Maryland colonists continued, and many of these Native American reservations disappeared in the years after 1678 (Porter 1979:180–181; Rountree and Davidson 1997:105–115). The Maryland government finally established formal boundaries for Askiminikansen in 1686 and Chicone in 1698, creating official reservations for the Pocomokes, Assateagues, and Nanticokes (Clark 1950:47–51; Rountree and Davidson 1997:114–121).

Throughout the later decades of the seventeenth century, Maryland's policy toward the Native Americans of the Eastern Shore was influenced by the colony's intermittent war against the Iroquois to the north. The colonial government was concerned about Eastern Shore tribes, particularly the Nanticokes, joining the conflict on the side of the Iroquois. But by the late 1690s, the Nanticokes and the other major tribes had all become less politically, militarily, and economically important to the Maryland authorities and were relegated to a dependent status (Rountree and Davidson 1997:115–122).

In the early-eighteenth century, the three legally protected reservations allowed the Choptanks, Nanticokes, Assateagues, and Pocomokes to preserve their traditional beliefs, customs, and practices. They were not confined to their reservations and could make use of the surrounding lands for hunting and foraging. Contact between the Native American groups was also common, as members of the different tribes interacted and traveled between the reservations (Rountree and Davidson 1997:125–131). As the century progressed, however, the Native American peoples' traditional ways of life became untenable. Grain farming became the main form of agriculture practiced by Maryland settlers on the Eastern Shore, and this required large tracts of land to be under cultivation at any one time, which in turn reduced the area available for hunting (Clark 1950:96–98; Rountree and Davidson 1997:124–125). The steadily growing English population on the Eastern Shore surrounded the Native American reservations with private landholdings, cutting the inhabitants off from outside resources and forcing them to subsist only on what their

reservation lands could produce. Most significantly, English encroachment onto the Native American peoples' remaining territories persisted throughout the first decades of the eighteenth century. The tribes complained to the Maryland colonial government, which tried to maintain good relations with the Native American groups, but no meaningful measures were taken to stop the English expansion onto reservation lands (Porter 1979:182–184; Rountree and Davidson 1997:142–152).

After 1742, new treaties further eroded the tribes' autonomy and underscored their subordinate status in the colony (Rountree and Davidson 1997:153–155). Most of the Native Americans remaining on the Eastern Shore decided to leave Maryland in the years that followed. Many Assateagues and Pocomokes had already left the Askiminikansen reservation over a decade earlier, and the settlement faded away by 1750 (Rountree and Davidson 1997:156–157). Both the Nanticokes and Choptanks also began to depart Maryland in large numbers. Displaced Native Americans from the Eastern Shore either moved into remote locations of the Eastern Shore, moved north, assimilated into the local colonial population, or intermarried with other ethnicities over time. The populations of the two remaining reservations continued to decline until the Nanticoke town at Chicone was formally abolished and purchased by the Maryland government in 1768; Maryland purchased the Choptank lands at Locust Neck in 1798–1799 (Porter 1979:186–187; Rountree and Davidson 1997:158–162).

3.6.2 Western Shore Coastal Plain

The Native American tribes living in southern Maryland and what would become Prince George's, Calvert, St. Mary's, and Anne Arundel counties included various Algonquin tribes loosely allied under the Piscataway chief, and the Powhatan paramount chiefdom. Tribes included the Piscataway, Doag, Mattawoman, Choptico, Yaocomico, Patuxent, Anacostans, and others (Hienton 1972:27; Land 1981). Villages were located on large estuaries at the confluence of major rivers.

In the first half of the seventeenth century after the establishment of Jamestown, there was little direct effect on Native American lifeways in the upper Chesapeake and Potomac River Basin. Captain John Smith's explorations of the Chesapeake Bay area during the years 1608–1610 marked the first well-documented contact between European explorers and Native Americans in the region. Captain Smith's journal (Smith 2013) describes his travels and maps Indian villages along the extensive estuaries of the Potomac River. Smith noted six chiefdom villages on the northern side of the Potomac River, with the largest population found at the community of Moyaone, possibly near the modern town of Accokeek in Prince George's County, Maryland (Toogood 1969:2). Other villages included Nacotchtanck in what is now southeast Washington, D.C., Cepowig near the head of the Patapsco River near present-day Baltimore, Cecomocomoco near the confluence of the Wicomico (not to be confused with the river on the Eastern Shore) and Potomac rivers in St. Mary's County, Acquintomacsuck on the Patuxent River in St. Mary's County, and Quomo across Patuxent River in Calvert County. Several additional smaller settlements were also noted.

By 1623, the Piscataway chiefdom moved from Moyaone nearby to the south side of Piscataway Creek (Ferguson and Ferguson 1960; Scharf 1967; Toogood 1969:8). This move was likely in response to raids on Moyaone by the Virginia English that took place in 1623 (Kingsbury 1906:450; McKnight 2019:175). Late Woodland and Contact period sites have been identified on the south side of Piscataway Creek (e.g., 18PR4, 18PR7, 18PR8, 18PR40, 18PR42, 18PR248, and 18PR266).

In 1632, Virginia Colony members under Captain Henry Fleet sailed up the Potomac River to the Piscataway village, Patabanos, near Port Tobacco (Klaphor and Brown 1958:2-3). There, they engaged the Piscataway in fur trading. The first Maryland Colonists landed at St. Clement's Island

in 1634. From there they traveled to Patabanos where the Yoacomico Indians sold land to the English for the establishment of St. Mary's City; the Yoacomico eventually moved to St. Georges Creek and elsewhere (Pogue 1968:116). The English established a fort and Jesuit mission at St. Mary's City in 1637 and at Port Tobacco in 1642 (Klapthor and Brown 1958).

Initially the Piscataway tribes welcomed the English as trade partners and as allies against the incursion of Susquehannocks and Seneca into the upper Chesapeake Bay from the north. By 1648, however, the mission lands were being patented into plantations. Ten plantations were patented in the area of the missions between 1648 and 1665 (Tubby and Watts 1995:16). Tobacco cultivation became the main economic system in the colony, and English plantations expanded north from St. Mary's City on both sides of the Patuxent River. Individual leaders of the southern Maryland tribes traveled to St. Mary's City throughout the early to mid-seventeenth century to request an end to the incursion of English settlements into areas that interfered with their access to resources (Pogue 1968:118-119). For example, the Choptico leaders petitioned the Governor to prevent colonists Hatton and Barber from taking Choptico land along the Wicomico River (not to be confused with the Eastern Shore of Maryland river of the same name), and the Governor assured the Choptico they would not be compelled to give up their land (Pogue 1968:117). In 1663, the leader of the Potabacoes traveled to St. Mary's City to ask the Governor to prevent new English settlements, noting that the tribe had already had to abandon their town closest to the river (Pogue 1968:118). English incursions into Native American territories, combined with Susquehannock and Iroquois raids from the north, created stressors that led to consolidation of the Algonquin-speaking tribes, with several groups joining the Piscataway (Pogue 1968:117).

By 1669 Governor Calvert created a reservation along the Potomac River between the Piscataway and Mattawoman rivers for all of the area tribes (Hienton 1972:27; Maryland Land Patents, Liber XII, folio 339 as quoted in Marye 1935:239). As the seventeenth century progressed, however, English settlement surrounded the reservation, regularly encroaching into the land. By 1697, surviving peoples of the Potomac valley began to move west of the Fall Line into Virginia and north into areas recently abandoned by the Susquehannock due to disease and warfare (Ferguson and Ferguson 1960; Grumet 1992:142). By the third quarter of the seventeenth century, the only tribes documented in southern Maryland were the Piscataway, Chapticoe, and Mattawoman (Hienton 1972:14). In 1699, the Piscataway Tayac (Chief) moved to Heater's Island within the Potomac west of the Fall Line.

The English founded more towns as they moved north, such as Providence (Annapolis) on the Severn River in 1649 and Charles Town by 1683. By the end of the seventeenth century, Potomac nations had been systematically dispossessed of their lands as a result of English settlement. At the start of the eighteenth century, most Native Americans had left the area, many of whom banded together as they moved west into Virginia or north into northern Maryland and Pennsylvania. However, descendants of survivors continue to live in Maryland today, and some have become organized as the Piscataway Indian Nation and the Piscataway Conoy Tribe of Maryland. These tribes have not been granted Federal recognition but are recognized by the State of Maryland.

Less is known about the Native Americans who lived within the upper Coastal Plain prior to the movement of Susquehannocks into the region at the end of the sixteenth century. Warfare and disease led to the Susquehannock moving back north and west by the end of the seventeenth century. After a smallpox outbreak hit the Piscataway residing on Heater's Island around 1704, the Piscataway dispersed, with some moving into the former Susquehannock areas of northern Maryland and Pennsylvania. A historical marker along the Susquehanna River in Pennsylvania commemorates a settlement of Conoy and Nanticokes who had moved into the Susquehannock territory after loss of their lands (Grumet 1995). Reportedly "Conoy" was the Iroquoian name for the Piscataway the Iroquois encountered in the Piedmont and northern Coastal Plain (Marye 1935:231). By the 1660s, English residents in the Baltimore area complained to the Maryland

Governor about fighting with the Susquehannock and Senecas. A peace treaty was signed between Baltimore County and the Susquehannocks in 1663, though fighting continued with Senecas (Brooks and Rockel 1979). The continued fighting led to the assembly of a group of rangers whose job was to protect the frontier settlers of Baltimore County from hostile Native American attacks. In 1693, Fort Garrison was established to house the rangers (Brooks and Rockel 1979; Lanman 2009). Eventually most Native Americans moved out of the area.

3.6.3 Piedmont Plateau

European settlement of the Piedmont areas of Maryland generally began in the eighteenth century and thus contact with Native American was not as extensive as in the Chesapeake Bay area. Early contact was between explorers and fur traders traveling along the Potomac, Monocacy, or other rivers. In his exploration of the Chesapeake Bay, John Smith recorded a village called Cepowig near the head of the Patapsco River near present-day Baltimore (Smith 1624).

Archival records note the presence of Piscataway, Shawnee, Tuscarora, Seneca, Cayuga, and Susquehannock in the region, particularly in the Monocacy River Valley. By 1699, the Piscataway Chiefdom had moved to Heater's Island (formerly Conoy Island) in the Potomac River at Point of Rocks. In 1699, English explorers visited Conoy Island, noting it was occupied by Piscataway Indians living in a fortified village (Virginia State Papers, 1652-1781, p. 63 as cited in Marye 1935). A contact period site has been recorded on Heater's Island adjacent to the current river crossing at Point of Rocks (18FR72).

Swiss explorer Franz Ludwig Michel visited the Piscataway at Conoy Island around the turn of the eighteenth century; he produced a map in 1707 that notes a longhouse on the north side of the Potomac River at the crossing (Michel 1707). McKnight (2021:63) suggests that soon after the Piscataway settlement on Conoy Island may have been abandoned due to a sickness (likely smallpox) that spread in 1704. When French fur trader Martin Chartier visited in 1712, the settlement encountered may have been Shawnee, or a mix of remnant Piscataway and Shawnee (McKnight 2021:63). Chartier was married to a Shawnee woman and lived among the Shawnee in Cecil County, Maryland, and in Pennsylvania (McKnight 2021:62).

In the eighteenth century, surveyors entered the area to lay out lands for settlement. One such surveyor in the area that became Frederick County was Philemon Lloyd. He noted in 1721 that the inhabitants at the confluence of the Monocacy and Potomac rivers were Iroquoian Tuscarora Indians, likely from North Carolina (Tracey and Dern 1987:13). When the Tuscarora eventually left the area, they moved north to join the Iroquois league of five nations as a sixth nation. As European settlement increased, garrisons were established along the frontier as protection from the Susquehannock and Seneca Indians (Stein 1972:20). Archival records from the 1720s reference dispersed farmsteads of Seneca and use of a road along the Monocacy by Cayuga and Susquehanna Indians (McKnight 2021:64). Eventually as a result of warfare, disease, and continued European settlement, the Algonquin and Iroquoian tribes dispersed or moved to the north. No Native American village was noted at the mouth of the Monocacy River during Robert Brooke's 1737 survey (McKnight 2021:63).

3.6.4 Western Maryland

Early contact between Native Americans and explorers in the mountainous regions of Maryland is not well documented. Sixteenth century fur traders sought contact with Native Americans in the area, likely consisting of Massawomeck and Susquehannock. Evidence of the presence of the Susquehannock has been found on sites in western Maryland, including the Barton Site (18AG3) in Allegany County. Through examination of Susquehannock artifacts recovered from sites in the Upper Potomac, Bob Wall and Heather Lapham (2003) conclude that initial Susquehannock expansion out of the Susquehanna River Valley took place during the late sixteenth century. The Susquehannock likely engaged with early European fur traders.

By the seventeenth century, early European explorers in the upper Potomac do not mention Susquehannocks (Pendergast 1991). In 1634, Henry Fleet recorded his travels up the Potomac to the villages of the Iroquoian Massawomecks, who inhabited western Maryland, West Virginia, and parts of Pennsylvania. Johnson (2001) suggests that the Massawomecks were related to the earlier Monongahela culture of the region, particularly prevalent in the far western area of Maryland in the Appalachian Plateau.

By the 1690s, Shawnee had settled in the upper Potomac region of western Maryland (Wall and Lapham 2003). Shawnee King Opessa lived at the village of Opessa's Town near what is now Oldtown until the 1720s before moving into Pennsylvania and Ohio.

In the late seventeenth and early eighteenth century, the early frontier colonists in western Maryland repeatedly expressed concern to the Maryland House of Burgesses that conflict between the local and invading tribes (likely Seneca and Iroquois from New York) threatened English farmsteads (Marye 1943).

In the early eighteenth century, Thomas Cresap established a trading post at Oldtown, and early records indicate he had good relations with the Iroquoian people who passed by his storehouse, possibly along the Warrior Paths to Cresaptown and Oldtown (Marye 1943). Cresap also hired Delaware Nation Chief Nemacolin to lead explorers across the mountains along Nemacolin's Trail. Intensive European settlement of the area did not progress until the end of the eighteenth century.

4. METHODOLOGY

The goal of the project was to synthesize information on the history of Native American trails in Maryland and how they correspond with modern state roadways. The study relied on a review of historical and archival data, particularly historic and modern maps of Maryland and surrounding states. The process for identifying roadways that originated as Native American Trails included comparing paths discussed in secondary and archival resources, which often simply list end points, to historic maps and environmental data to attempt to determine the route of the paths. Data reviewed included historic and modern maps, Maryland land records, environmental data, previously recorded archaeological and historical sites, and archeological and historical studies.

Online resources included the University of Maryland's Digital Map Collections, Library of Congress, Maryland State Archives, JSTOR, and the Archaeological Society of Delaware's publications. The Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., provided materials for the Eastern Shore. The Maryland Historical Trust (MHT) provided data on Late Woodland village and funerary sites and sites with Contact period components. The Pennsylvania Historical and Museum Commission provided the results of a similar project to map Native American trails discussed in Paul Wallace's *Indian Paths of Pennsylvania* (1952) via PA-SHARE.

Environmental data considered important for the identification of Native American trail routes included topography, hydrology, the location of natural fords, mountain passes, and natural springs. Significant trails would have followed convenient routes, taking advantage of natural features, such as long ridges, stream terraces, natural fords, and mountain passes. State-wide environmental data was entered into GIS to facilitate review.

In addition, a least-cost path analysis was conducted to model suitable land routes across the landscape, the goal being to determine whether the roads identified during the historical background review would have functioned as ideal pathways on foot. Produced through geographic information systems (GIS) software, least-cost pathways (LCPs) are an estimation of the "ideal" route across a landscape and typically assume people will avoid walking across difficult, or energetically "costly" terrain, such as steep slopes (Conolly and Lake 2006:252). LCPs were formed using Esri's ArcGIS software and based on a weighted cost-surface model (defined below) that approximated difficult terrain on the Eastern Shore. LCPs were then compared with modern street locations, especially those present on historical maps of the region. Where possible, the potential routes were first drawn on historic mapping to align the Native American trails with paths as they were historically recorded; due to the nature of these maps, they were not drawn to scale. The potential route and the LCP of each Native peoples' trail were then shown, where possible, over topographic basemaps.

The cost-surface model used to form the LCPs was based on three environmental variables: terrain slope, stream locations, and soil drainage. Slope is a common variable incorporated into cost-surface models under the assumption that people will opt to walk on level ground as opposed to steep hills or drop-offs. However, given the relatively flat topography of the Eastern Shore, slope was likely not a major contributing factor in the establishment of Native American pathways and was thus assigned less weight in the model. Other environmental factors that possibly influenced land movement include broad streams and wetlands, which people often avoid crossing in favor of drier options (Kelly et al. 2023). To account for these environmental factors, the cost-surface model used to generate the LCPs was weighted so that areas consisting of wide streams and poorly drained soils would be avoided if possible. Slope data were derived from a 98.4-foot (30-meter) resolution digital elevation model (DEM) downloaded from the United States Geological Survey's (USGS) National Map service (USGS 2024a). Stream vector data were downloaded from the USGS National Hydrography Dataset (USGS 2024b). Soil drainage data

were sourced from the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Natural Resources Conservation Service's (NRCS) Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) (USDA 2024).

Based on the above criteria, the LCPs are based purely on environmental factors. There are other, cultural factors that might have influenced where a person or group elected to move across the landscape. These include passage through areas with access to forageable resources and hunting grounds, visibility of certain landscape features, and other culturally-defined perspectives of the landscape based on complex cultural reasons (Whitley and Hicks 2003). However, these types of data and their importance in pathway selection are not readily available and difficult to objectively incorporate into the final cost-surface model. While the LCPs alone do not reveal whether a Native American trail existed in a given route, they do help indicate whether certain roads would have served as ideal pathways if traversed on foot. The estimated LCPs are therefore used as supplementary evidence for pathways as identified during the historic map review.

5. RESULTS

The results are organized by geographic region. The trails discussed below are referred to by names that reflect their perceived use, end points, or by names traditionally assigned to the routes in historic documents and maps, including several histories prepared in the early to mid-twentieth century. In very few cases do the names reflect the Indigenous perspective or understanding of the trails. While modern roads discussed below appear to have originated as Indigenous trails, the modern routes include changes to accommodate carriage and eventually vehicular traffic, including straightening and widening. The routes are drawn with a 500-foot buffer to encompass minor changes over time. It is likely that circuitous portions of the original routes have since been cut off from the main route, and road traces may be found in undeveloped areas. The original routes through now heavily developed areas are hard to trace.

Waterways provided the most important transportation routes through most of the pre-contact and early colonial period. Overland routes, however, were also important, particularly to facilitate communication and trade over more distant areas, reach areas above the falls, and in areas with fewer navigable waterways. Native American paths likely ran between villages and significant resources, religious and funerary sites, and meeting places. Events that took place in the sixteenth century, including the Little Ice Age and conflict among Iroquoian nations in the north, led to more overland north-south travel as Native American groups from the north traveled into Maryland and continued south into Virginia and the Carolinas. As colonial settlement expanded in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, existing paths were likely rerouted or branched to include paths to European forts, store houses, and settlements. While it is assumed that most of the paths that became part of the modern roadway system were used during the Contact period, evidence of extensive trade and exchange networks as early as the Late Archaic period suggests some overland routes had been in use for thousands of years. Many of the paths that continued to be used in the eighteenth century were straightened, widened, and paved (often with logs, sand, and stone) during the Turnpike era of the early nineteenth century prior to the advent of rail travel.

5.1 EASTERN SHORE

The following section provides details on main Native American trails on the Maryland Eastern Shore that were identified during this study and how they correspond with modern state highways. For each trail, first broad and general route descriptions will be provided followed by a history of the use and documentation of the pathways and their potential overlap with present-day roadways. The Native American path names recorded in historical documents are European in origin; the names originally assigned to the different trails by indigenous peoples are not known.

The exact routes of all the Native American trails on the Eastern Shore cannot be determined with certainty, but the general courses that they followed and the locations that they connected are known. Many of these trails stretched across the Delmarva Peninsula, linking sites in eastern Maryland with ones along the coast in Delaware. The paths often crossed over the various waterways that riddled the Eastern Shore by making use of fording places near or above the head of tide areas. The Native peoples' trails were utilized for travel and communication, but above all for commercial activities, allowing tribal groups to trade with each other and eventually with Europeans in the Chesapeake Bay and Delaware Bay.

Deeds, patents, and other Maryland land records from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are filled with references to properties on the Eastern Shore being situated along or near "Indian paths" (Marye 1936a:5). English settlers and travelers made use of the Native American trails, portions of which seemed to form the foundations for some of the colonial and later state roads and highways in eastern Maryland.

5.1.1 Choptank Road/Delaware Path

A major Native American trail that connected the Eastern Shore of Maryland with northeastern Delaware was the Choptank Road, also known as the Delaware Path. According to William B. Marye (1936a:6), it “presumably was one of the longest and one of the most important Indian highways of the Delmarva Peninsula.” The trail started at New Castle, Delaware, and moved in a southwesterly direction across the peninsula into Maryland to a ford on Back Creek, a tributary of the Elk River, in present-day Cecil County. From there, it went south to fording places at or near the head of tide areas on the headwater streams of the Bohemia River. The trail continued south, crossing the head of the Sassafras River into modern Kent County, and then passing over Chester River likely at fording points near the modern town of Millington or the mouth of Unicorn Branch (Marye 1936a:5–8, 1936b:5–7).

The path kept moving in a southerly direction through present-day Queen Anne’s County and into Caroline County to the Choptank River. The trail likely crossed the river at a ford located at the mouth of a stream called Gravelly Branch, which empties into the east side of the waterway less than 2 miles (3.22 km) north of the modern town of Greensboro (Marye 1936b:5–7). This site near Greensboro was the southernmost fording place on the Choptank River and formed a “trail hub,” where the Choptank Road/Delaware Path seems to have intersected with another Native American trail called the Saint Jones Path (Walsh 1999). The final stretch of the trail headed southward along the Choptank River to Cabin Creek, where it seemingly connected with another Native peoples’ path that went to the southwest to the head of the Transquaking River in present-day Dorchester County (Marye 1937:15).

The Choptank Road/Delaware Path passed through the territory of several of the main indigenous tribes—the Wicomiss, Choptanks, and Nanticokes—who dwelled in the northern and central portions of Maryland’s Eastern Shore. The trail was presumably utilized by all these groups and served as the primary avenue of travel and trade with the New Castle area in Delaware. A land dispute over property boundaries in Cecil County in the early-eighteenth century involved the opposing parties arguing over the exact alignment of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path, which formed the dividing line between two manor properties, Bohemia Manor and St. Augustine Manor. Many of the depositions detailed the long existence of this Native American trail through the region (Marye 1936a). One witness in 1721 claimed “that he knew the Old Highway Road or Delaware path above thirty eight years ago and since hath used it often: and that it was a road made before his time” (Marye 1936a:8). Another deponent testified that “all the time or most part of his Life [50 years] he Lived near the head of Sasafras River & yt [sic] he never know any other high way road or that was Called the Indian Path that came from Choptank or Nanticoke that Led to Delaware in those former days” (Marye 1936a:8).

In at least Cecil County, segments of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path were documented as being incorporated into the Maryland highway system during the Colonial period. In 1775, a petition by Augustine Herrman complained about the state of the former Native American trail, writing “part of Delaware highway Road leading from Choptank to Delaware... being not only an Antient Way for Travellers [sic] but also the bounds of your Petitioners Bohemia Mannor has for some time been Neglected to be Cleared & is much stopped and Grown up to the prejudice of Travellers” (Gould 1915:133). Historic maps of Maryland from the late-eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries show state highways that seem to match the general route followed by the Choptank Road/Delaware Path south of Cecil County to Dorchester County (Figure 1) (Griffith et al. 1794).

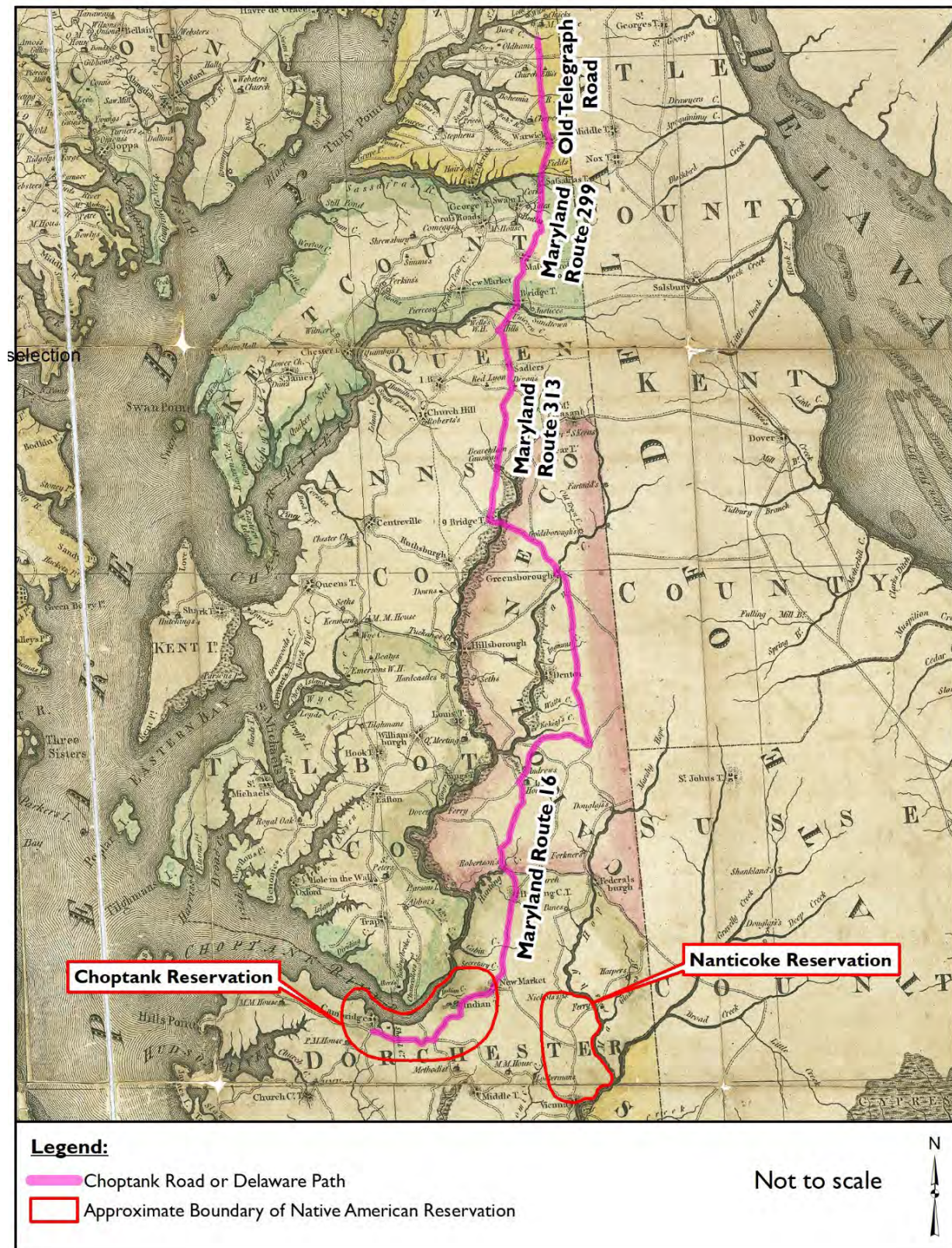


Figure 1. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

In modern Cecil County from Back Creek to south of the Bohemia River, the route of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path appears to roughly correspond with present-day Old Telegraph Road. South of the town of Warwick to the area of Greensboro, portions of Maryland Route 299 and Route 313 may overlap with the course followed by the former indigenous peoples' trail. The path's route between the trail hub near Greensboro to Cabin Creek and beyond possibly ran along the same general track as Maryland Route 16 (Figures 2 to 5). This proposed route is largely supported by the LCP analysis, which estimated the optimal route between Back Creek to the "trail hub" to run consistently with Old Telegraph Road and most of Route 299. The LCP deviated from Maryland Route 313 in between the Chester and Choptank rivers but reconnected at the fording location north of Greensboro. From here, the LCP matched Maryland Route 16 closely, indicating this route was an ideal path for those wishing to avoid crossing over water and wetlands.

5.1.2 Saint Jones Path

The Saint Jones Path was a Native American trail that stretched across the center of the Delmarva Peninsula. The western end began in the vicinity of Skipton Creek in present-day Talbot County and moved in an easterly direction to the fording place on the Choptank River near the mouth of Gravelly Branch in modern Caroline County. This site was the "trail hub" where the Saint Jones Path intersected with the Choptank Road/Delaware Path. Once across the Choptank River, the Saint Jones Path continued northeast into Delaware to its eastern terminus at the Saint Jones River in the general area of Tidbury Creek, one of its tributaries (Marye 1936b:7–8; Walsh 1999).

The Maryland stretch of the Saint Jones Path did not directly pass through any of the territories occupied by the region's main indigenous groups, but due to its connections with the Choptank Road/Delaware Path at the trail hub, it was likely utilized by the same tribes that used the other trail. The Saint Jones Path would have given groups like the Choptanks and Nanticokes access to the Delaware Bay area in central Delaware. Colonial records reveal that this Native American trail was also traversed by Maryland settlers on the Eastern Shore. In a deposition in 1725, Daniel Rutley stated that while a servant in Talbot County around 40 years ago in 1685, he was "sent by his master from Maryland to St. Jones Creek upon Delaware Bay and he Traveling a Long a small Indian Road up to the said Creek" (Marye 1936b:22).

Historic maps of Maryland from the late-eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries do not show any roadways that seem to align with the route of the Saint Jones Path except for one segment between the present-day town of Hillsboro and the Greensboro area (Figure 6) (Griffith et al. 1794). This portion of the trail may correspond with modern Maryland Route 480 (Figure 7). The LCP for this route, which started at the mouth of Gravelly Branch and ended at Tidbury Creek, generally followed the path of Maryland Route 480, especially on the eastern and western ends of the road and deviated from the center by only 1 mile (1.6 km) to the south. Although it is uncertain whether any roads align with the eastern and western terminus of the LCP, Maryland Route 480, for the most part, has characteristics that make for an ideal land route across the region.



Figure 2. Overview Map of the Potential Route of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (USGS 2017).

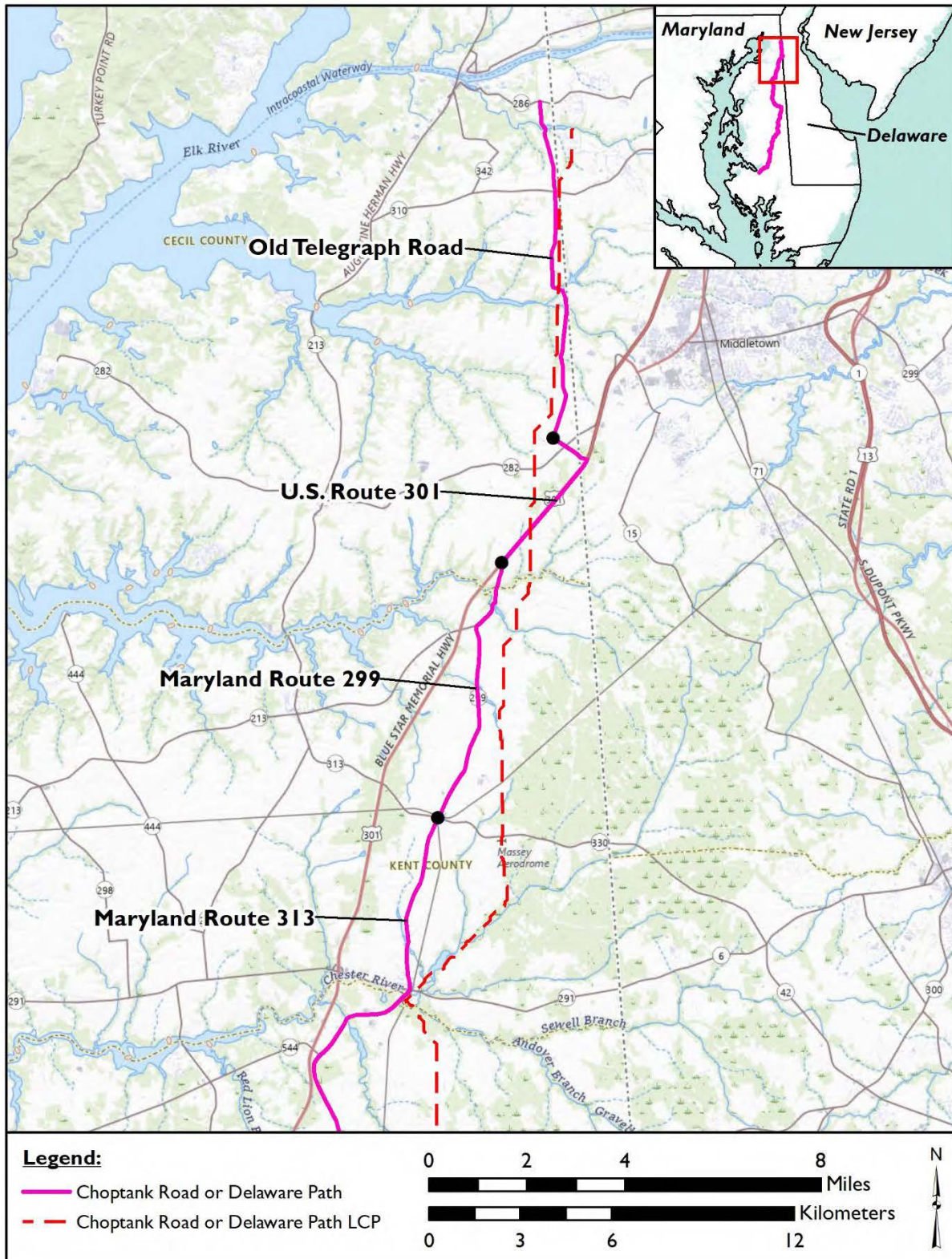


Figure 3. Map of the Potential Route of the North Section of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

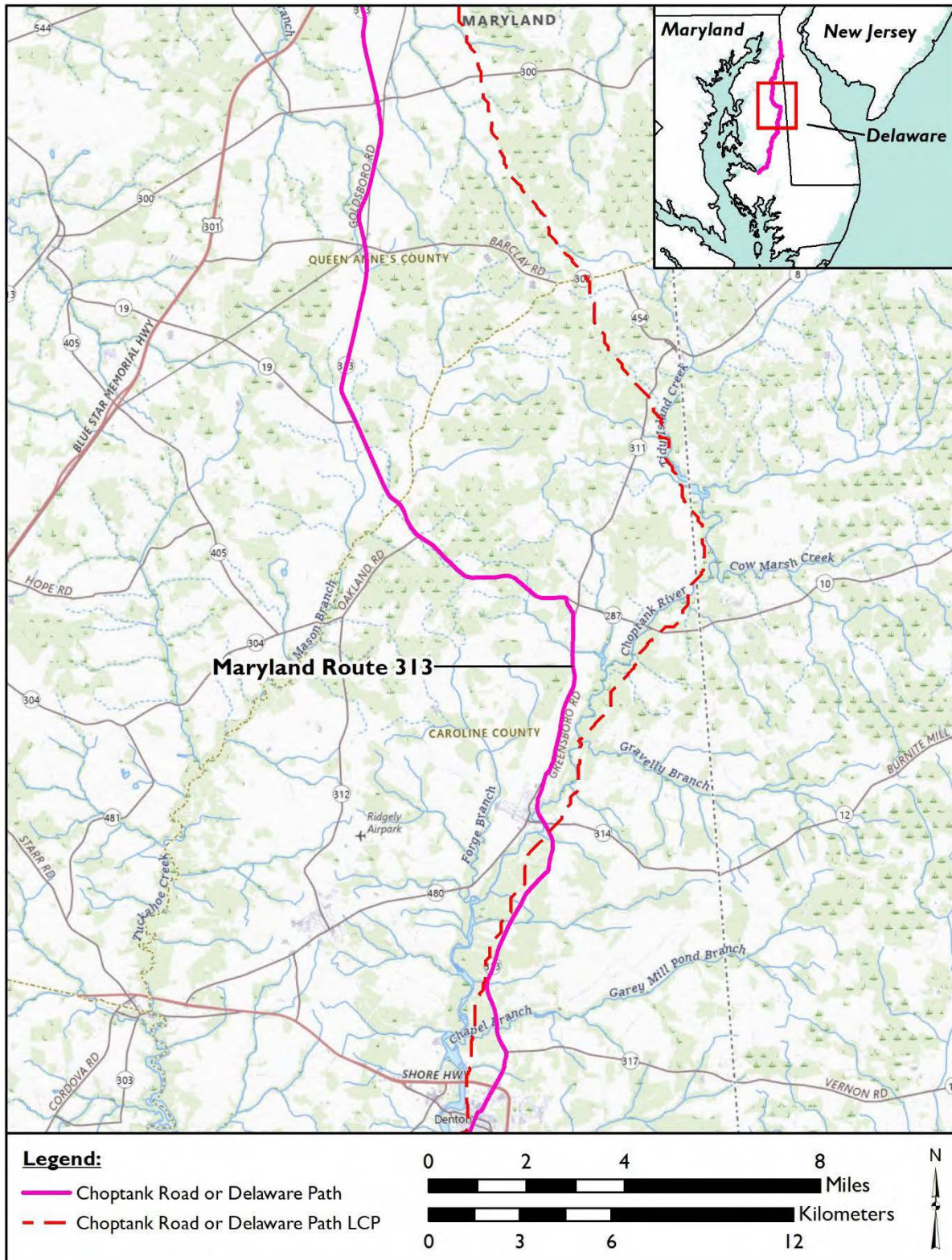


Figure 4. Map of the Potential Route of the Central Section of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

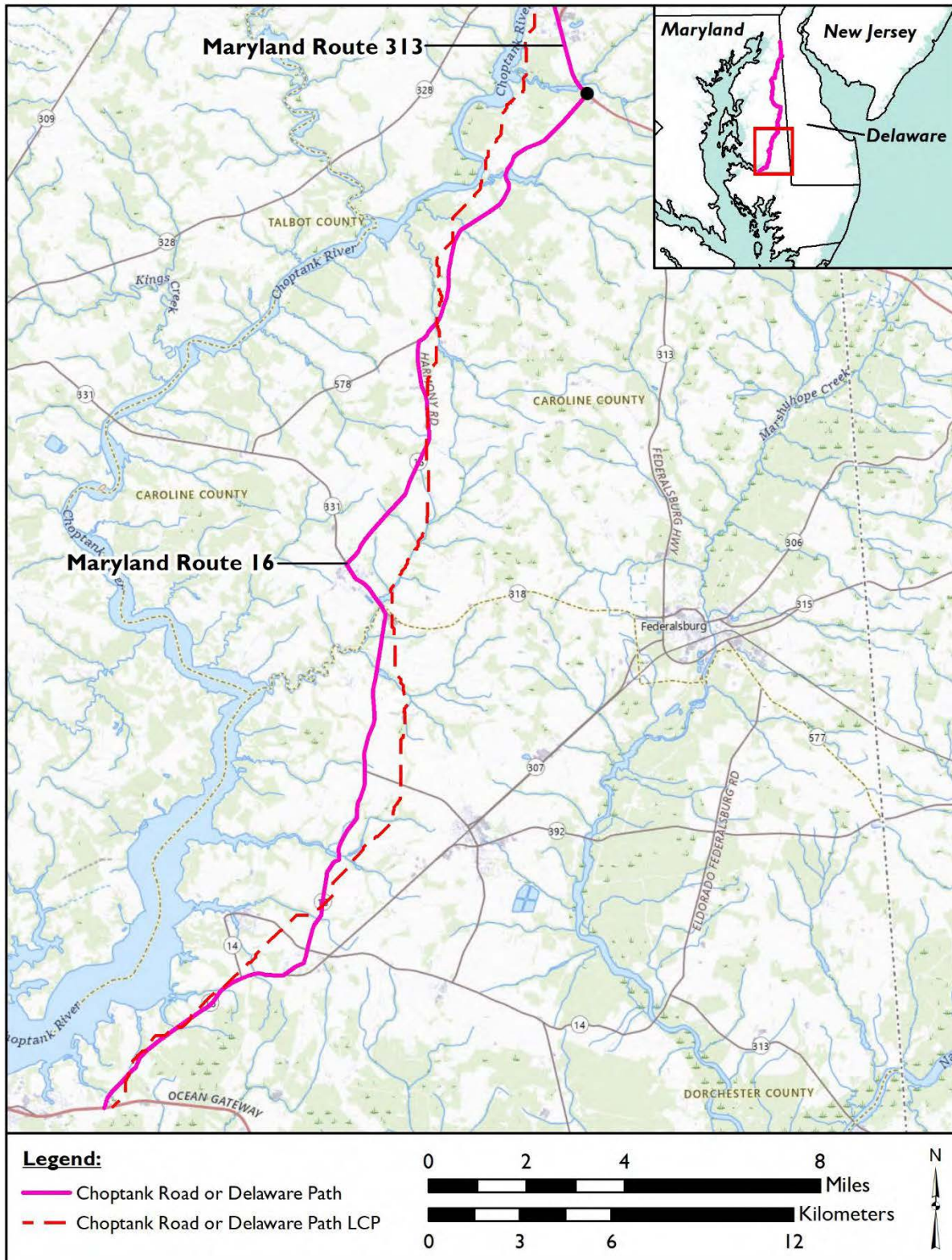


Figure 5. Figure 4: Map of the Potential Route of the Southern Section of the Choptank Road/Delaware Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

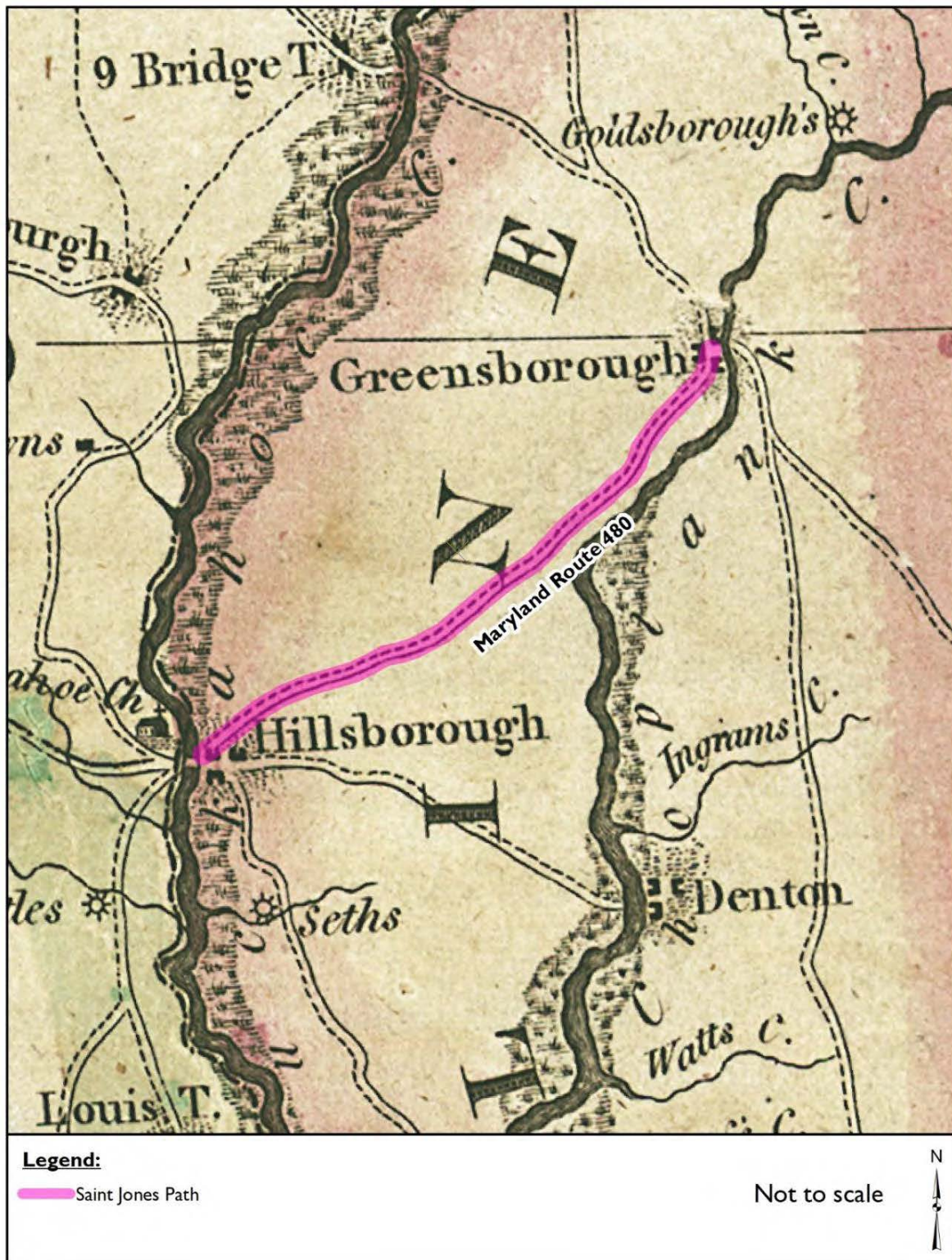


Figure 6. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Saint Jones Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
A modern roadway that possibly corresponds with the trail is labeled. Not to scale.

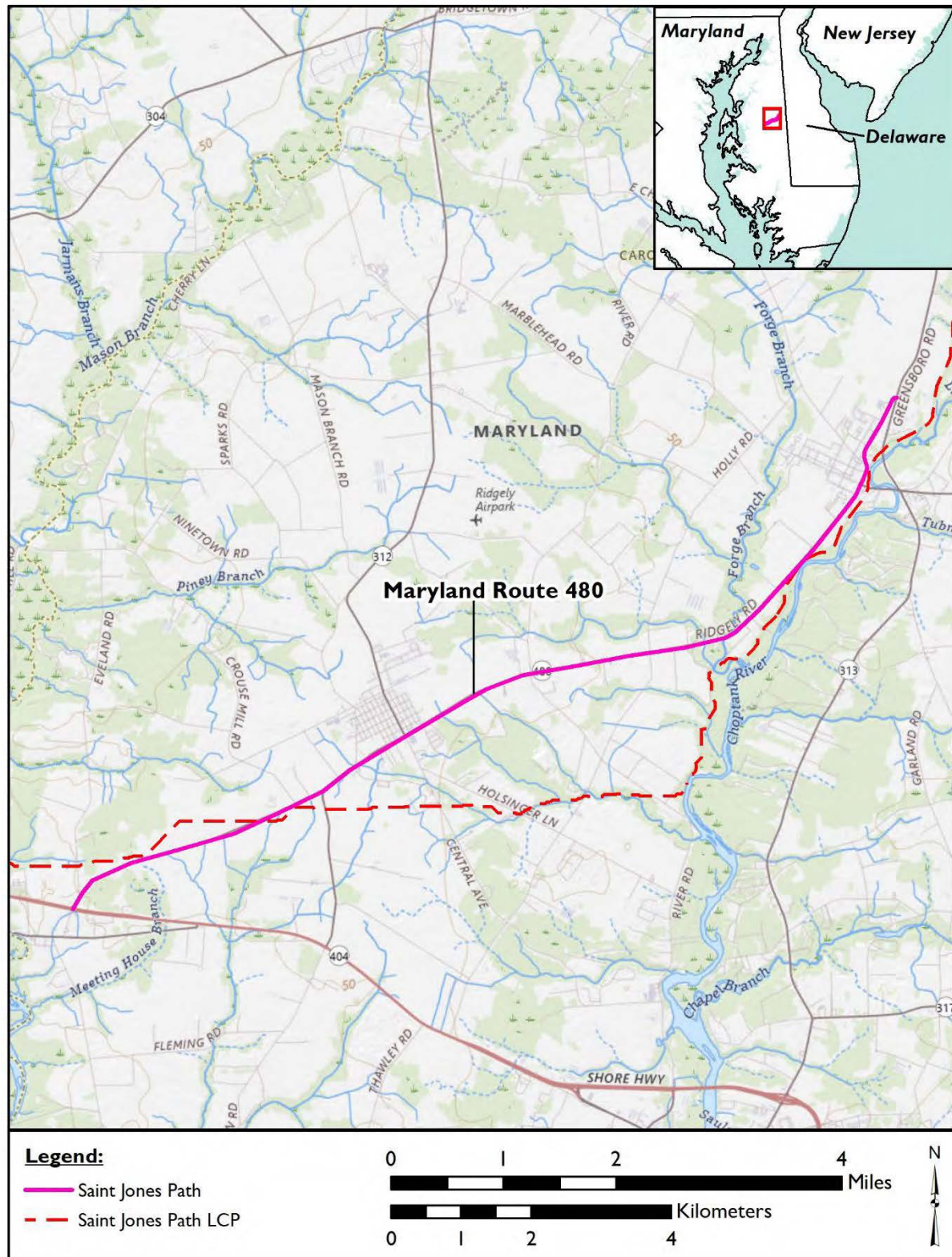


Figure 7. Map of the Potential Route of the Saint Jones Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.1.3 Wicomiss/Whorekill Path

The Wicomiss or Whorekill Path was an important trading trail that ran from the head of the Sassafras River through the upper Choptank River area to a settlement of a Delaware group at Cape Henlopen on Delaware Bay. Lewes Creek, the waterway where the town of Lewes is located, was formerly known as Whorekill Creek, and the country around Cape Henlopen was previously called the Whorekills (Marye 1938b:150–151). The trail was used by the Wicomiss and Nanticokes to maintain regular contact with tribal groups on the other side of the Delmarva Peninsula and for trade in the Cape Henlopen area (Rountree and Davidson 1997b:99; Soderlund 2015:45).

Details about the specific course of the Wicomiss or Whorekill Path are unknown, but it does not appear to have been incorporated into Maryland's roadway system during the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries. It is unlikely that any modern highways or roads in Maryland correspond with this former indigenous peoples' trail.

5.1.4 Choptank-Nanticoke Trail

An unnamed and relatively short trail connected the Choptank communities south of the Choptank River with those of the Nanticokes west of the Nanticoke River in modern Dorchester County (Marye 1937:15). From the beginning of English settlement in Maryland, the two tribes lived in these areas, which eventually became the official sites of their respective reservations. The trail would have allowed frequent contact between members of the Choptanks and Nanticokes. Rountree and Davidson (1997b:131) assert, "travel between reservations is well documented during the late seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, and contacts between the populations of the [...] reservations became, if anything, even more frequent as the eighteenth century progressed."

The exact route of the trail is not known, but historic maps of Maryland from the late-eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries show several roadways connecting the same general vicinities where the two indigenous groups' villages and reservations had been situated. One of these routes was between the modern town of Cambridge on the Choptank River and present-day Vienna on the Nanticoke River, while another ran from Vienna to the modern town of East New Market and then west toward Cambridge. On the historic maps, this route passes through an "Indian T. [town]" located west of East New Market near the Choptank River (Figure 8) (Griffith et al. 1794; Lewis et al. 1795).

The Native American trail may have roughly corresponded with one of these two routes. The road between Cambridge and Vienna seems to align with present-day U.S. Route 50, while the other route may overlap with portions of Maryland Route 16, Route 14, and Route 331 (Figure 9). Based on the LCP analysis, U.S. Route 50 is the more direct route and tends to follow well drained soils; however, this does not preclude the possibility that two routes existed between both locations.

5.1.5 Locust Neck-Jordan's Point Trail

A shorter Native American trail ran west from the Choptank village at Locust Neck south of the Choptank River to Jordan's Point on the Chesapeake Bay in present-day Dorchester County. Locust Neck was the Choptanks' longest lasting reservation settlement, and the path had likely been used by the tribe to provide more direct access to the bay area. A Maryland deposition in 1700 revealed that this trail became a colonial roadway, testifying that "the main road that is now from the Indian Towne to Jordans point was the Indian path about thirty-seven years ago" (Marye 1937:23–24).

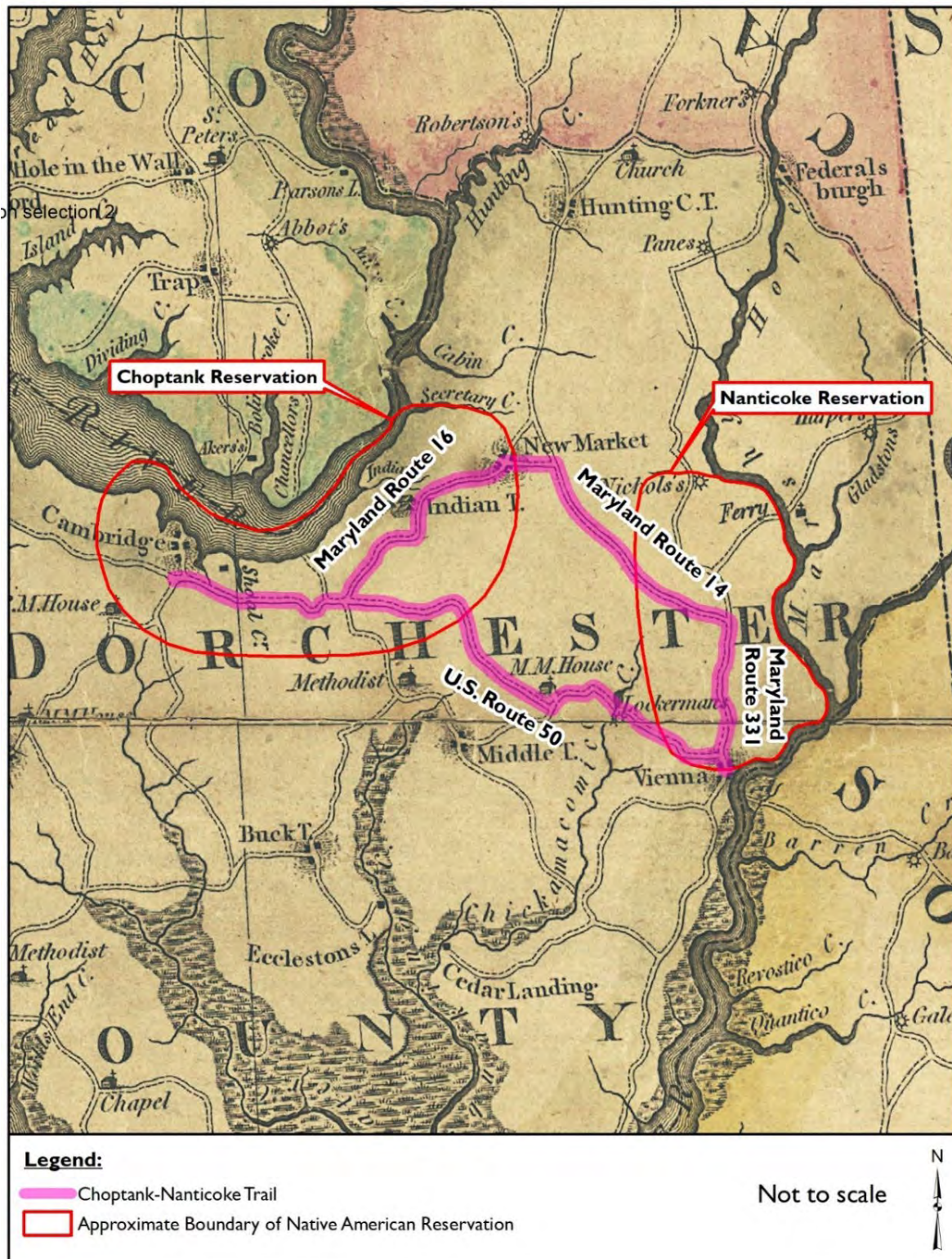


Figure 8. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Routes of the Choptank-Nanticoke Trail in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).

Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

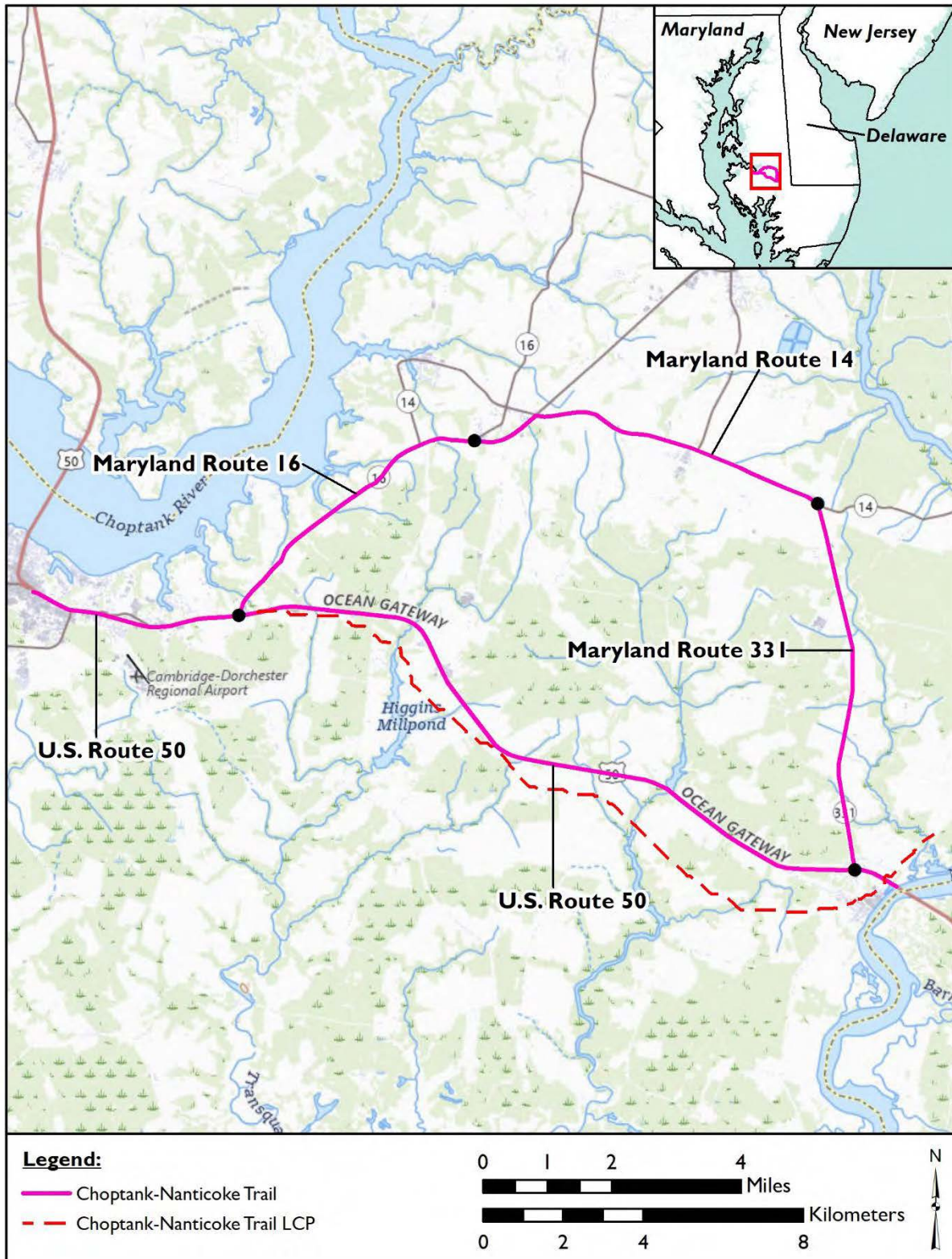


Figure 9. Map of the Potential Route of the Choptank-Nanticoke Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

The eastern end of the trail seemed to originate near the modern town of Cambridge, and historic maps of Maryland from the late-eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries display a road connecting this site with what became known as Hill's Point (Figure 10) (Arrowsmith and Lewis 1812; Griffith et al. 1794; Marye 1937:24). The course of this roadway seems to align with the Native American path, and in the present day that road appears to be Maryland Route 343 and Hills Point Road (Figures 11-13). The LCP between Hill's Point and Cambridge closely aligned with Hills Point Road and Maryland Route 343 with little deviation in between. Based on the shape of the bay and numerous creeks between these two locations, there are realistically no other pathways one can take without crossing over a body of water, which further suggests Maryland Route 343 as a former Native American trail.

5.1.6 Trail Near the Seaboard

A trail ran north along the Atlantic seaboard from Assateague settlements in what became Worcester County, Maryland, to the Delaware tribal community at Lewes (Clark 1950:60). According to William B. Marye (1938a:5–9), the Maryland portion of this path stretched from the vicinity of Brockatonorton Bay through the upper Marshall's Creek area near the modern towns of Newark and Ironshire. A portion of the path also seemingly connected with the Assateague-Pocomoke reservation site at Askiminikansen along the Pocomoke River near present-day Snow Hill. Colonial records from Worcester County described this trail as the "old Indian path to the whore kill" (not to be confused with the actual Whorekill Path, which was farther to the north) and "the usefull Indian path," indicating that it was likely used by Maryland settlers on the southern Eastern Shore as well as the indigenous inhabitants of the region (Marye 1938a:5–11).

Historic maps of Maryland from the late-eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries show a roadway moving north from Snow Hill through the Ironshire area and into Delaware to Lewes (Figure 14) (Denison 1796; Griffith et al. 1794).² This road may correspond with the former Native American trail and it seems to align with portions of modern U.S. Route 113 (Figures 15-17). The Maryland segment of this trail's LCP was directed to start at Brockatonorton Bay and connect with Marshall's Creek, then to Lewes, Delaware. The result was an LCP that closely followed U.S. Route 113 to Millsboro, Delaware, a path that primarily consisted of well-drained soils and avoided wetlands to the west. At Millsboro, the LCP crossed a fordable section of the Indian River and moved northeast to Lewes. This segment of the LCP ran parallel with Delaware Route 24, offset about 1 to 3 miles (1.6 to 4.8 km) to the west depending on location.

5.1.7 Parahocon-Tundotank Trail

A trail stretched north from the Pocomoke town of Parahocon along the headwaters of Dividing Creek to the indigenous settlement of Tundotank near the modern site of Salisbury in Wicomico County. The trail seemed to have run along the western side of Dividing Creek all the way north until it joined with Tundotank Creek, an eastern branch of the Rockawalkin (Wicomico) River. This path is documented in Maryland records from the seventeenth century, with one land patent indicating that the tract in question was located "on the west side of a path from Tundotank to Parahocon" (Somerset County deeds dating to 1695 as referenced by the Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc.). The two Native American towns received recognition from the Maryland colonial government in 1678 but not in legal title to the land. Both settlements gradually disappeared in the face of English encroachment in the years that followed (Rountree and Davidson 1997b:108–113).

² As the positions of the river branches and creeks are not entirely accurate on the historic maps of the region, the boundary locations of the Askiminikansen Reservation in Figure 14 on page 36 are not exact.

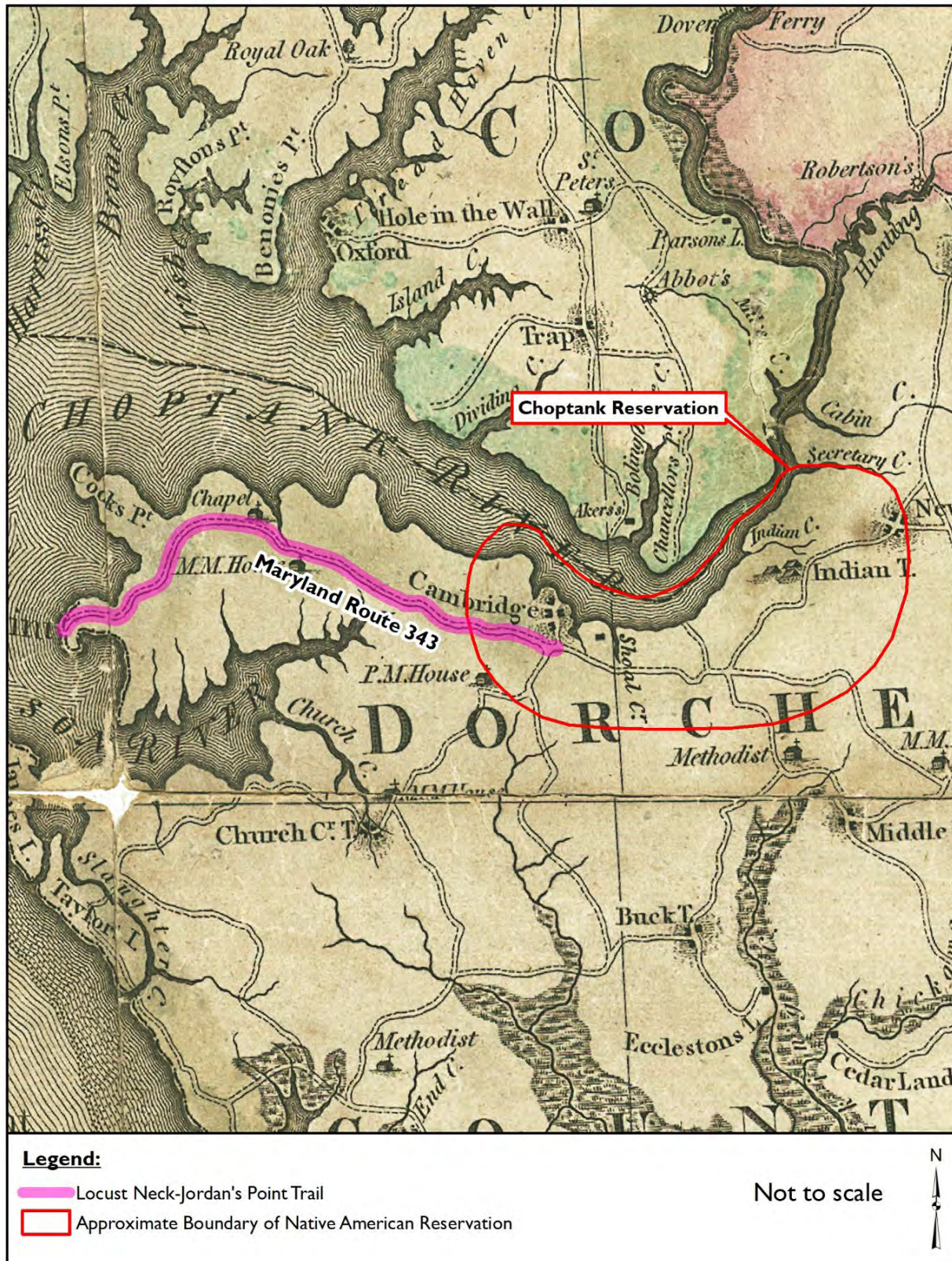


Figure 10. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Locust Neck-Jordan's Point Trail in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). A modern roadway that possibly corresponds with the trail is labeled. Not to scale.

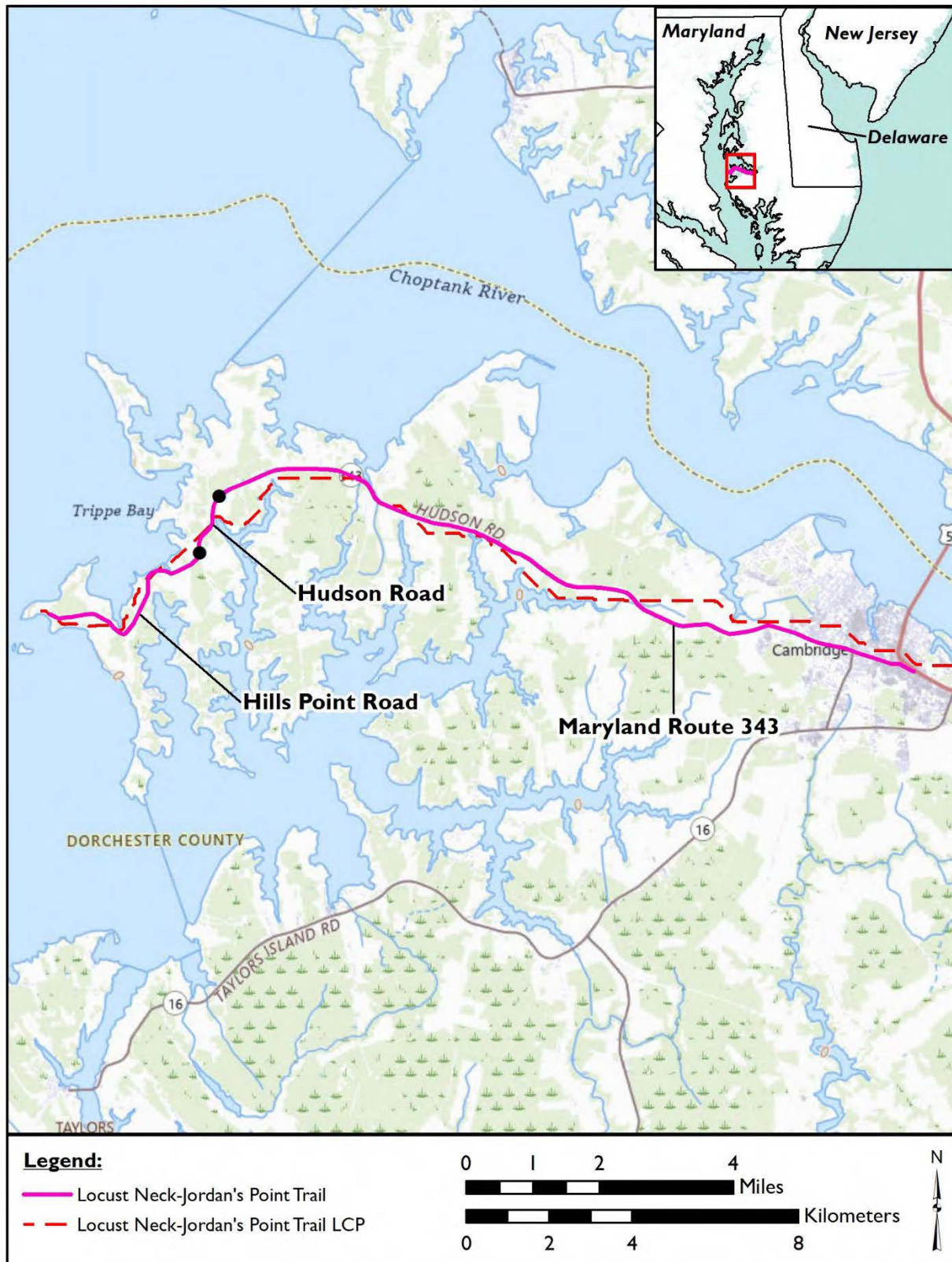


Figure 11. Overview Map of the Potential Route of the Locust Neck-Jordan's Point Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



Figure 12. Map of the Potential Route of the Western End of the Locust Neck-Jordan's Point Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



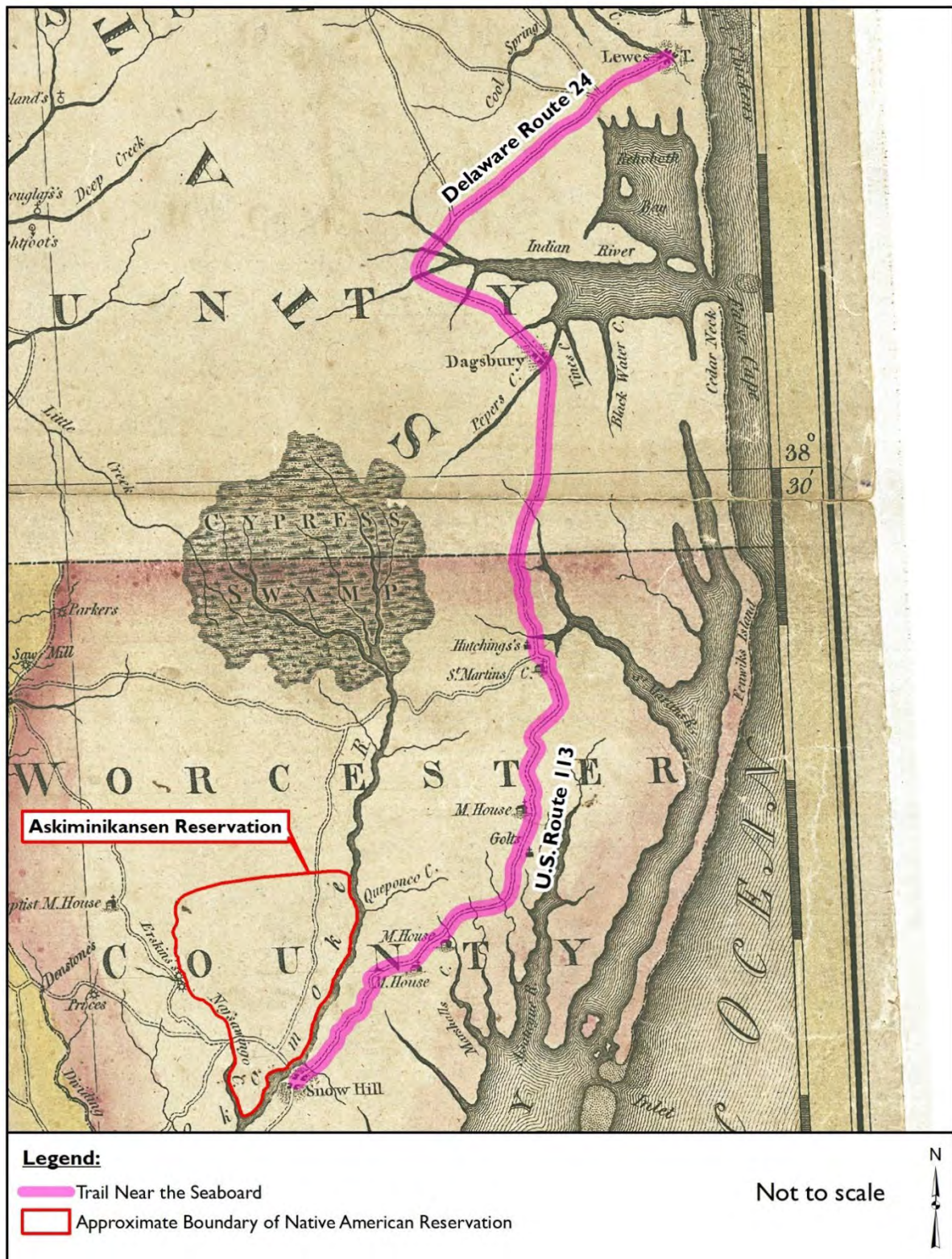


Figure 14. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Trail Near the Seaboard in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).³
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

³ As the positions of the river branches and creeks are not entirely accurate on the historic maps of the region, the boundary locations of the Askiminikansen Reservation are not exact.

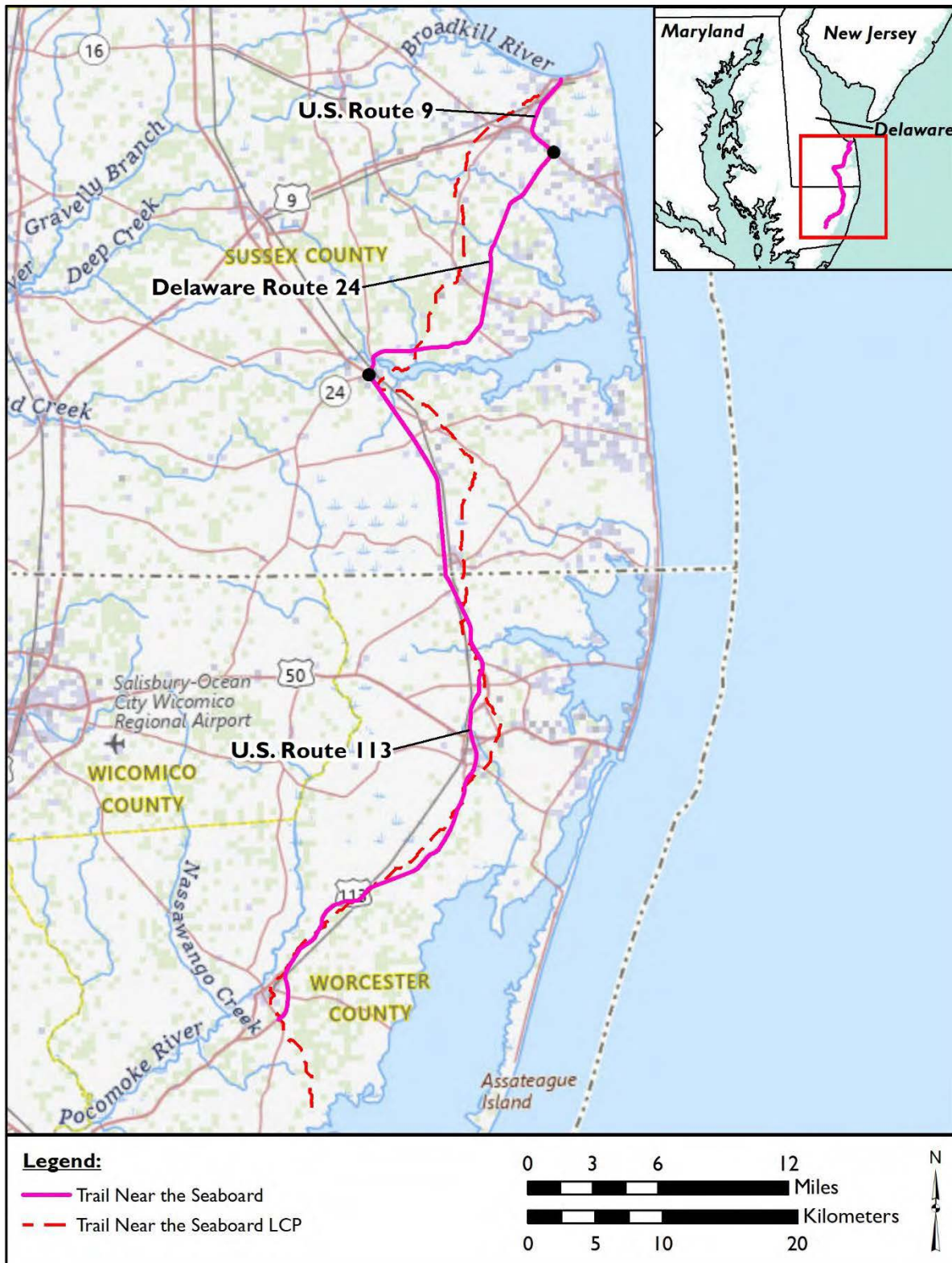


Figure 15. Overview Map of the Potential Route of the Trail Near the Seaboard and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

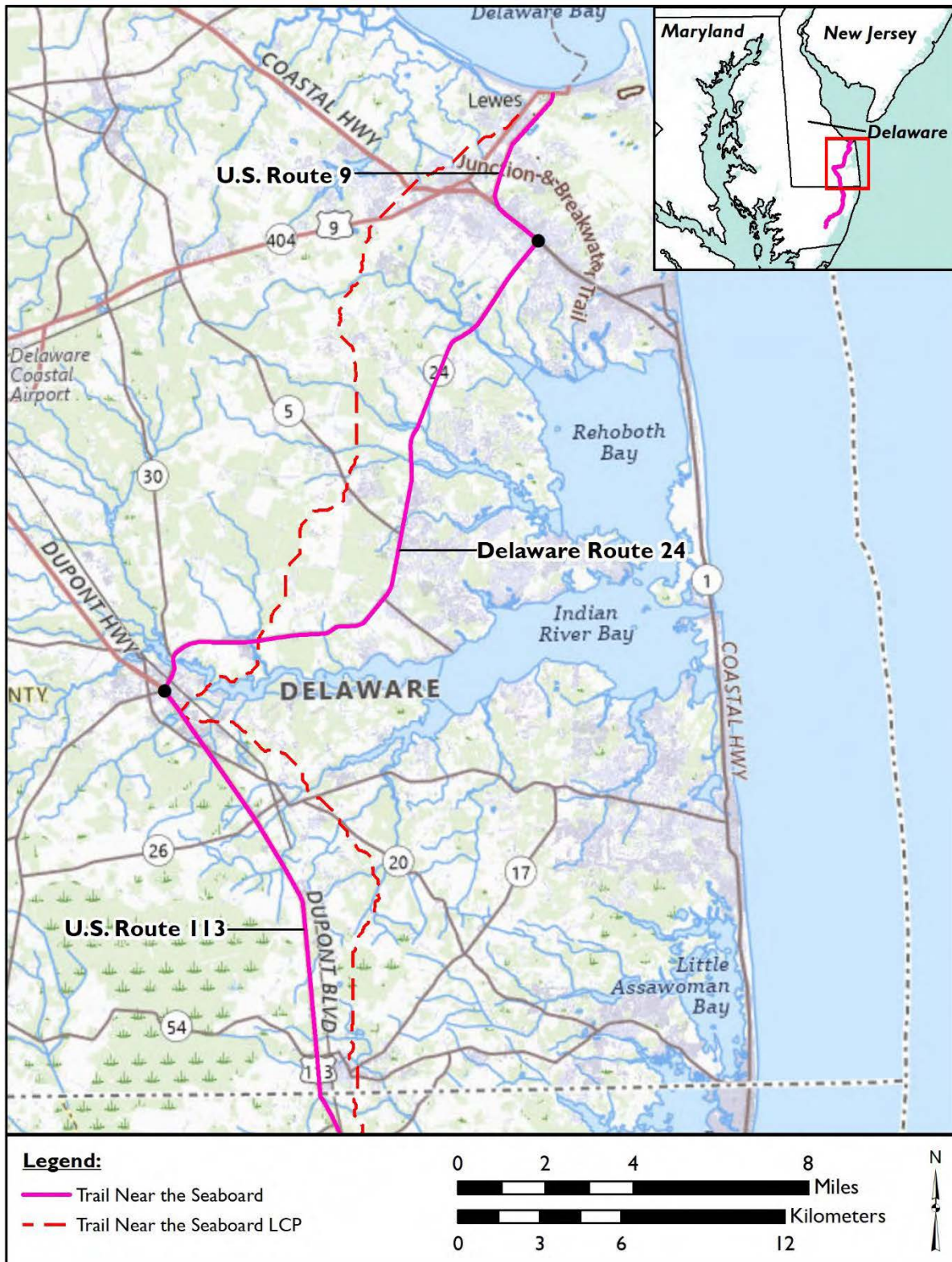


Figure 16. Map of the Potential Route of the Northern Section of the Trail Near the Seaboard and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

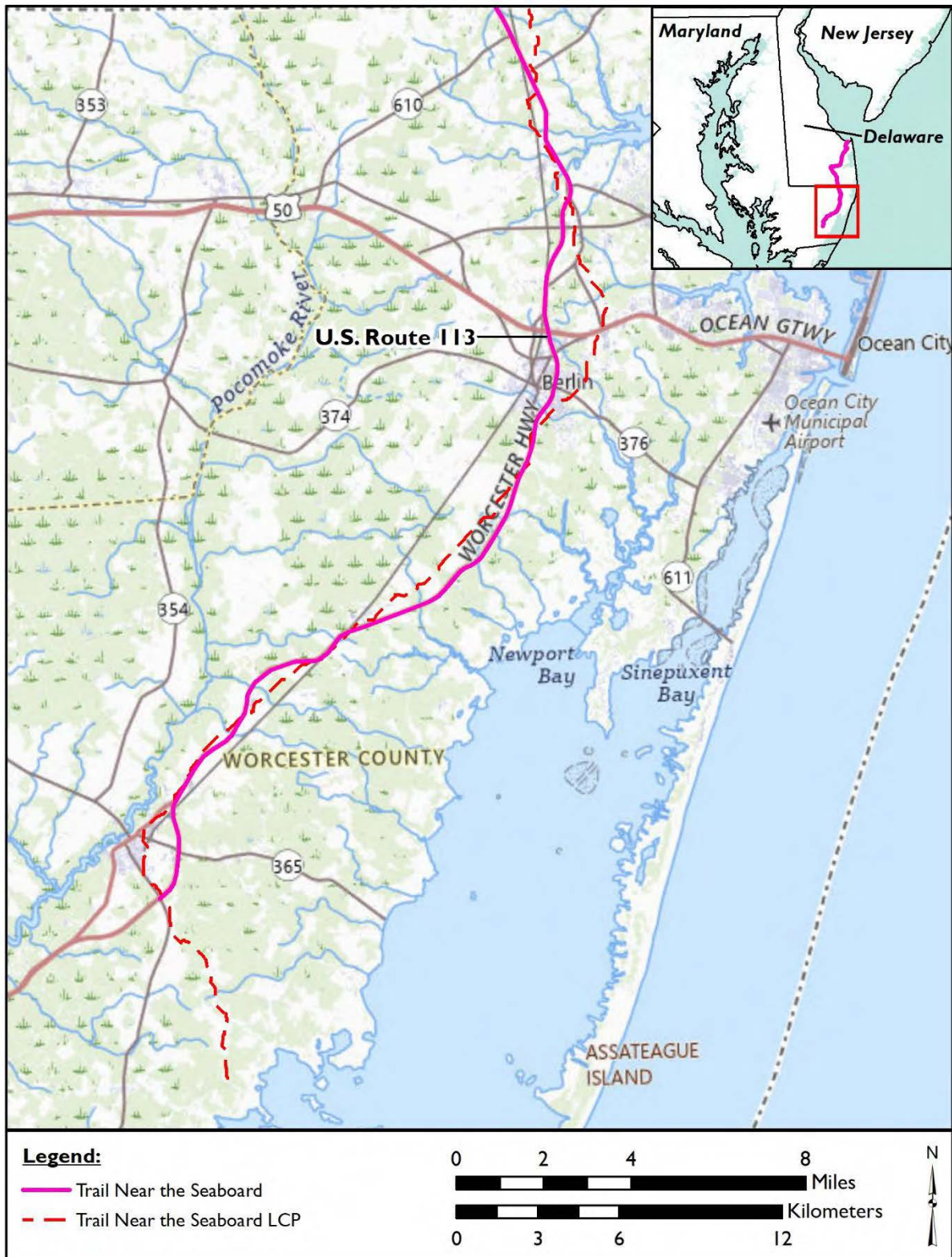


Figure 17. Map of the Potential Route of the Southern Section of the Trail Near the Seaboard and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

The trail between Parahocon and Tundotank presumably was no longer used as a travel route by tribal groups after the towns passed out of indigenous peoples' hands. The path does not seem to have been incorporated into Maryland's road system, with historic maps from the late-eighteenth century showing no roadways corresponding with its general route (Figure 18) (Griffith et al. 1794)⁴. The former Native American trail appears to have crossed over a few modern county roadways, such as Meadow Bridge Road, but its route does not overlap with any state highways (Figure 19). The LCP analysis for this trail started at the Parahocon reservation, at the confluence of Dividing Creek and Pusey Branch, and connected with the Tundotank reservation to the north. The southern half of the LCP closely followed Dividing Creek and the established Parahocon-Tundotank Trail. The northern half of the LCP deviated slightly, veering westward toward Meadow Bridge Road, however it is entirely possible that the LCP would follow the trail more closely with a destination point farther to the east along Tonytank Creek. Regardless, the LCP analysis confirms the pathway along Dividing Creek as an efficient pathway between both reservations.

⁴ The length and relative location of Dividing Creek is not fully accurate on historic maps of the region, and consequently the boundary of the Parahocon town can only be approximated. Philip L. Goldsboro (Pocomoke Indian Nation) suggests that the settlement was located 3 miles (3.83 km) south of the location on Figure 18 on page 40.

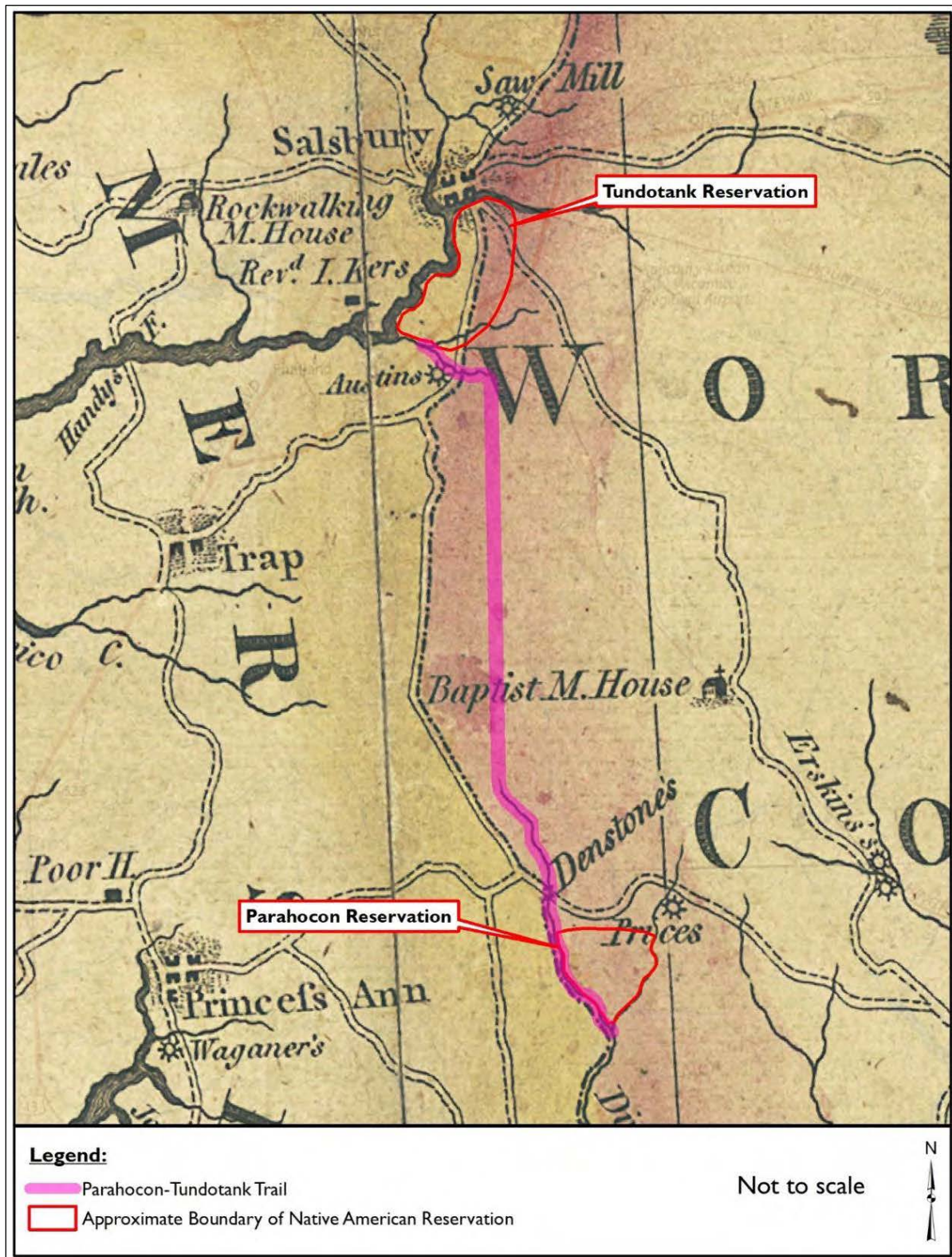


Figure 18. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Parahocon-Tundotank Trail in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). Not to scale.

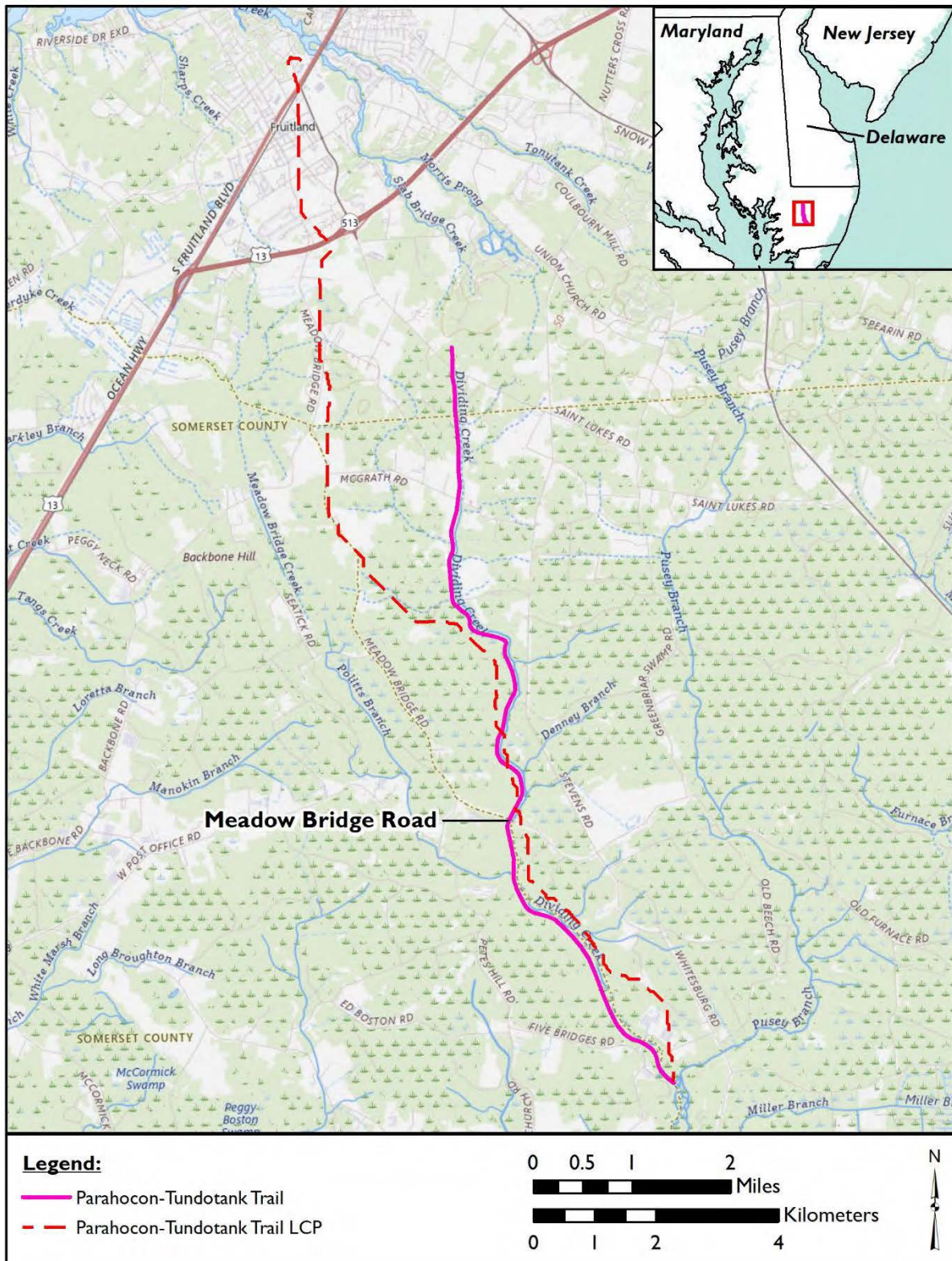


Figure 19. Map of the Potential Route of the Parahocon-Tundotank Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a World Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.2 WESTERN SHORE COASTAL PLAIN/ SOUTHERN MARYLAND

The Western Shore Coastal Plain encompasses the area west of the Chesapeake Bay and east of the Fall Line. This was the home of the Piscataway and other Algonquin speaking tribes at the time of European contact in the seventeenth century. The abundant river systems in the area provided much of the transportation needs for Native Americans as well as early colonists. Overland routes, however, facilitated longer distance travel, connected tribes, provided access between the Patuxent and St. Mary's rivers, and connected the early colonial settlements at St. Mary's City and Port Tobacco to Native American villages. Long-distance trade forged diplomacy and relations with neighboring groups (Rice 2009:60). As European settlement of the area increased in the seventeenth century, Native Americans petitioned to the Maryland governor to prevent encroachment into their settlements. The governor created a reservation in 1669 located between the Piscataway and Mattawoman creeks along the Potomac River for the various Algonquin tribes (Hienton 1972:27).

5.2.1 Three Notch Road

Three Notch Road (MD 235) has served as a main transportation route in southern Maryland since the precontact period. The road name derives from early historic trail markers consisting of three equally spaced notches in trees along the route, indicating the road led to a ferry. The path was widened by 1692 as the "Patuxent Main Road" (Pogue 1968:108). This route follows a long ridge that forms the backbone of the peninsula between the Potomac and Patuxent rivers, avoiding slopes and most stream crossings. As shown on Griffith et al.'s map of 1794, the route stretched from Point Lookout on the southern tip of St. Mary's County north to Piscataway Creek in Prince George's County (Figure 20). The path would have connected the reservation established for the Western Shore Algonquin tribes in 1669 with the mouth of the Potomac River.

The route was modified in the early twentieth century with the creation of MD 235, and again as this main thoroughfare was widened and straightened, particularly north of the intersection with MD 5. The path may have included part of what are now Point Lookout Road, Three Notch Road (MD 235), Leonardtown Road (MD 5), and Berry Road (MD 228). LCP analysis suggests that the modern Three Notch Road segment of the path followed the most convenient route, while the MD 5 segment on the north end deviates from the ideal path (Figure 21).

5.2.2 Port Tobacco Path

In 1669 Governor Calvert established a reservation for the Piscataway and other Algonquin tribes, located between the Piscataway and Mattawoman creeks. The east boundary of the reservation was noted as near a generally north-south Indian path running from Piscataway village to Zekiah swamp, near Port Tobacco (Marye 1935:197). The route of this path is not known, but it may have included part of the road shown on Fry and Jefferson's 1755 Map of Maryland running from Port Tobacco past Piscataway Creek and Upper Marlboro, and on to Londontowne and Annapolis (Figure 22). The road intersected Three Notch Road near what is now Waldorf. James Smallwood's land patent from 1688 for "Porke Hall" mentions the path, referred to as "Sakya path that leads to Piscattaway" (Marye 1935:216).

The Port Tobacco Path currently largely follows present-day US 301, although the road has been significantly widened and straightened from the early route (Figure 23). Specifically, the path likely followed what is now Port Tobacco Road (MD 6) from Port Tobacco to what is now La Plata, where it generally followed U.S. 301 north to the intersection with Old Indian Head Road, representing a portion of the historic road network in place before U.S. 301. The path generally followed Old Indian Head Road, reconnecting with U.S. 301, and then Turnips Hill Road to its end. At this point the path likely turned east to pass close to the confluence of the Western Branch and Piscataway Creek, where numerous Late Woodland and Contact period sites have been documented (e.g., 18PR006, 18PR009, 18PR103, and 18AN019), although no modern road follows this route.



Figure 20. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Three Notch Road Trail in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).

Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

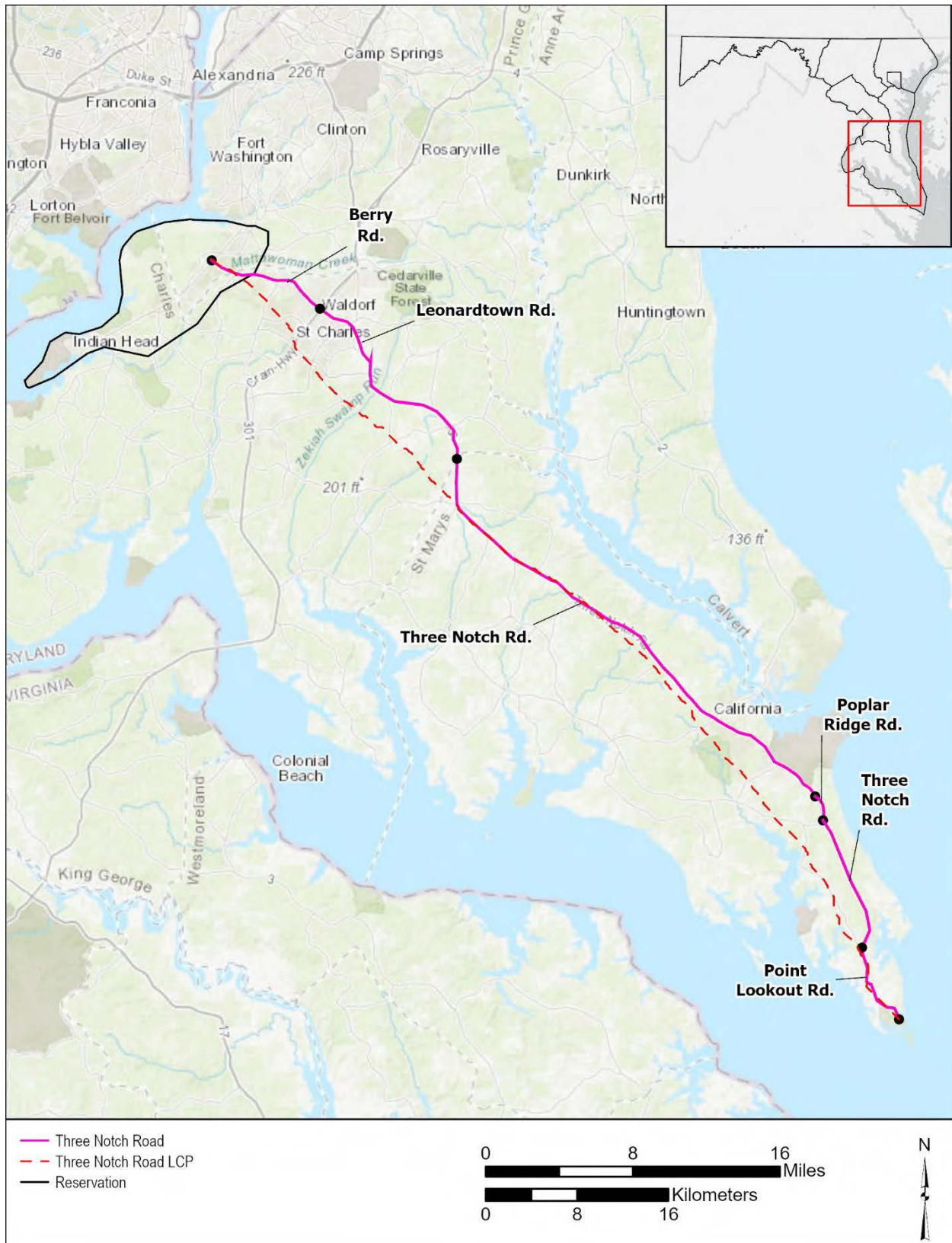


Figure 21. Map of the Potential Route of Three Notch Road Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

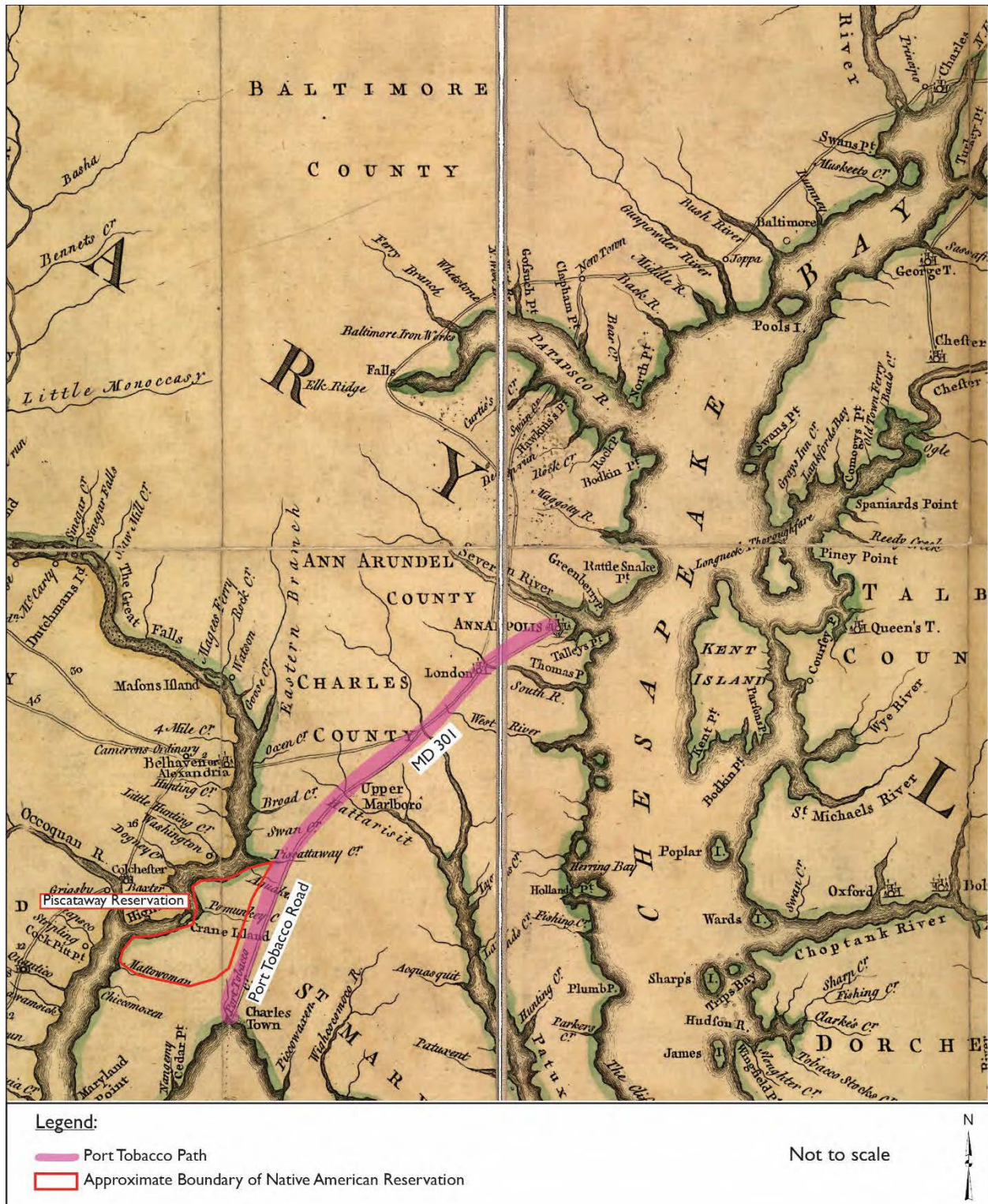


Figure 22. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Port Tobacco Path in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

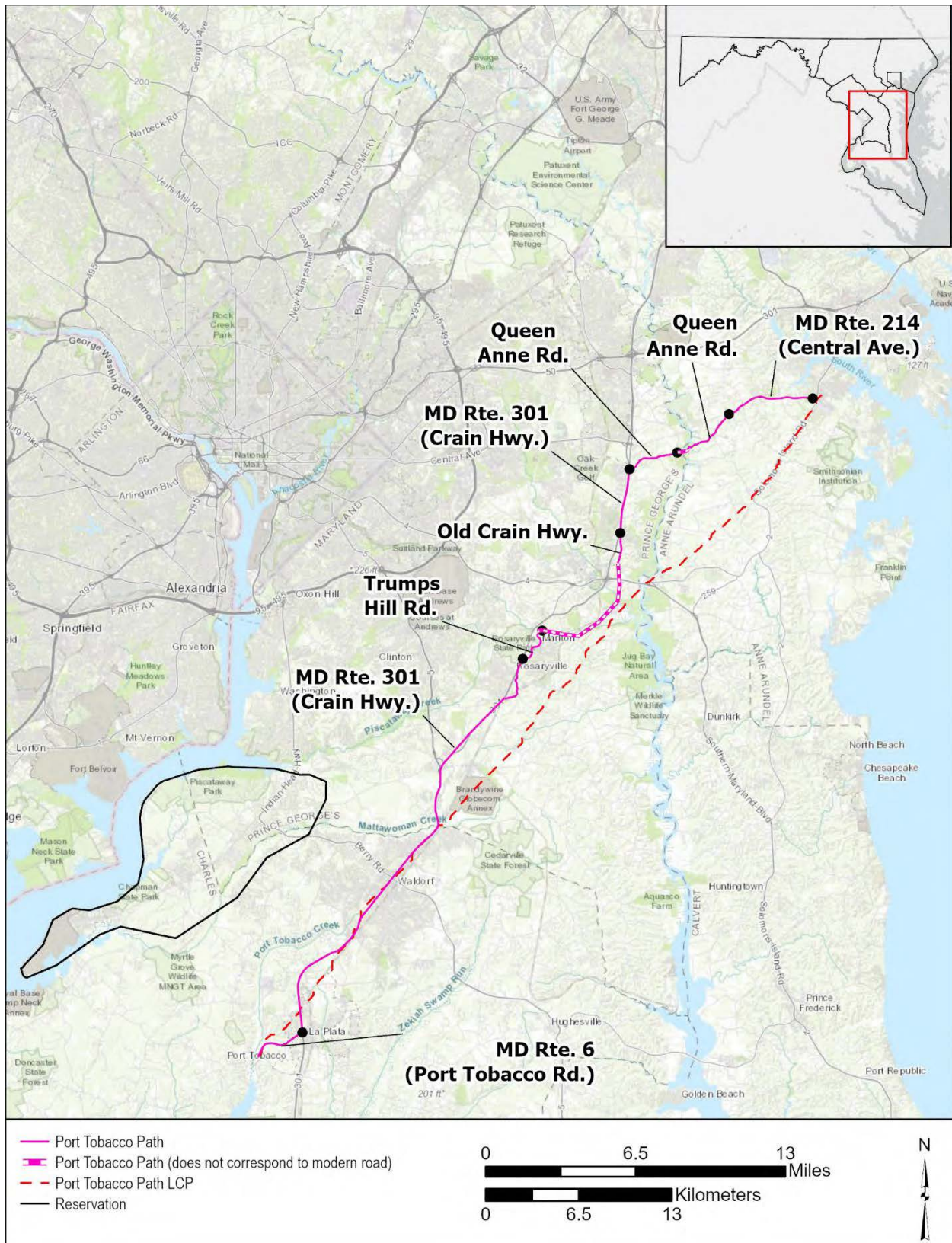


Figure 23. Map of the Potential Route of Port Tobacco Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

The LCP suggests the Indigenous route may have passed further to the east rather than following the highway through Upper Marlboro. The path may have rejoined the modern roadway on Old Crain Highway, continuing north to intersect U.S. 301 once again. The route turned east on Queen Anne Road before crossing the Patuxent River and continuing onto Patuxent River Road and Queen Anne Bridge Road, and then continuing northeast on MD 214 towards Londontowne. In addition to providing transportation between Piscataway and Zekiah swamp, this long path would have facilitated communication across Piscataway lands and with English settlements.

5.2.3 Mattapany Path

According to a history of St. Mary's County, a Native American path crossed east-west from St. Mary's City to the Chesapeake Bay. Referred to as the Mattapany Path, it was first noted in a 1639 land patent with reference to a Native American trail (Hammett 1991:282). The exact location of this route is not known, although Hammett (1991) contends that the road retains its historic name. While the modern Mattapany Road seems to connect St. Mary's City and the Chesapeake Bay, LCP analysis does not indicate that the modern road follows a convenient path (Figure 24). This path does not appear on eighteenth century maps, and little more is known.

5.2.4 Chaptico Indian Path

The Chaptico Indian Path led from St. Clement's Island to the Chaptico Indian settlements along the Chaptico and Wicomico Rivers (not to be confused with the river on the Eastern Shore of Maryland) (Hammett 1991:283). Contact period sites have been documented in the vicinity of the route (e.g., 18ST153, Choptico Indian Town). English colonists established the current town of Chaptico as a fort in 1651 to protect inhabitants from Iroquoian raids; the town became a shipping point later in the seventeenth century. The original route of the Native American path is not known, as the direction likely changed after establishment of the current town of Chaptico. The seventeenth century path from St. Clement's to Chaptico served both Native Americans and colonists. Two routes are shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map that may correspond with this path, with the eastern route more closely following roads in existence today (Figure 25).

The most likely route for the historic path would have run north from the island on a rise between the southern Maryland Wicomico River and wetlands. This route likely followed what became Maddox Road (MD 238) and Colton Point Road (MD 242). LCP analysis, however, suggests a more inland route than that followed by Maddox Road would have been more efficient; the inland route does not correspond to modern roads (Figure 26).

5.2.5 St. Leonard Road

The predecessors of MD 4, including St. Leonard Road/H.G. Trueman Road (MD 765) along with Solomons Island Road (MD 2/4) in Calvert County, run along a long rise avoiding major river crossings, similar to Three Notch Road. Based on topography and the presence of Late Woodland and Contact period archaeological sites in the vicinity, this route likely originated as a Native American trail, although confirmation for this assertion has not been found to date. The road appears on Griffith's 1794 map (Figure 27). The south end of the path led to a Late Woodland and Contact period settlement on the shore of the Patuxent River at the confluence with Hungerford Creek (18CV279). By end of the seventeenth century, the path led to the colonial settlement at Londontowne on the north. The path would have provided an overland route between Algonquin villages along the Patuxent River and its tributaries, including the Piscataway settlement at the mouth of Battle Creek. St. Leonard Road may have connected to the Nanticoke Path into Pennsylvania via the Road from Baltimore to Philadelphia (discussed below). The LCP analysis suggests the modern roads follow the most convenient route for most of the route, although the southern end deviates somewhat, potentially having been rerouted to Port Republic in the 1670s (Figure 28). The north end of Solomons Island Road likewise deviates from the preferred path, possibly reflecting modern changes to the route.

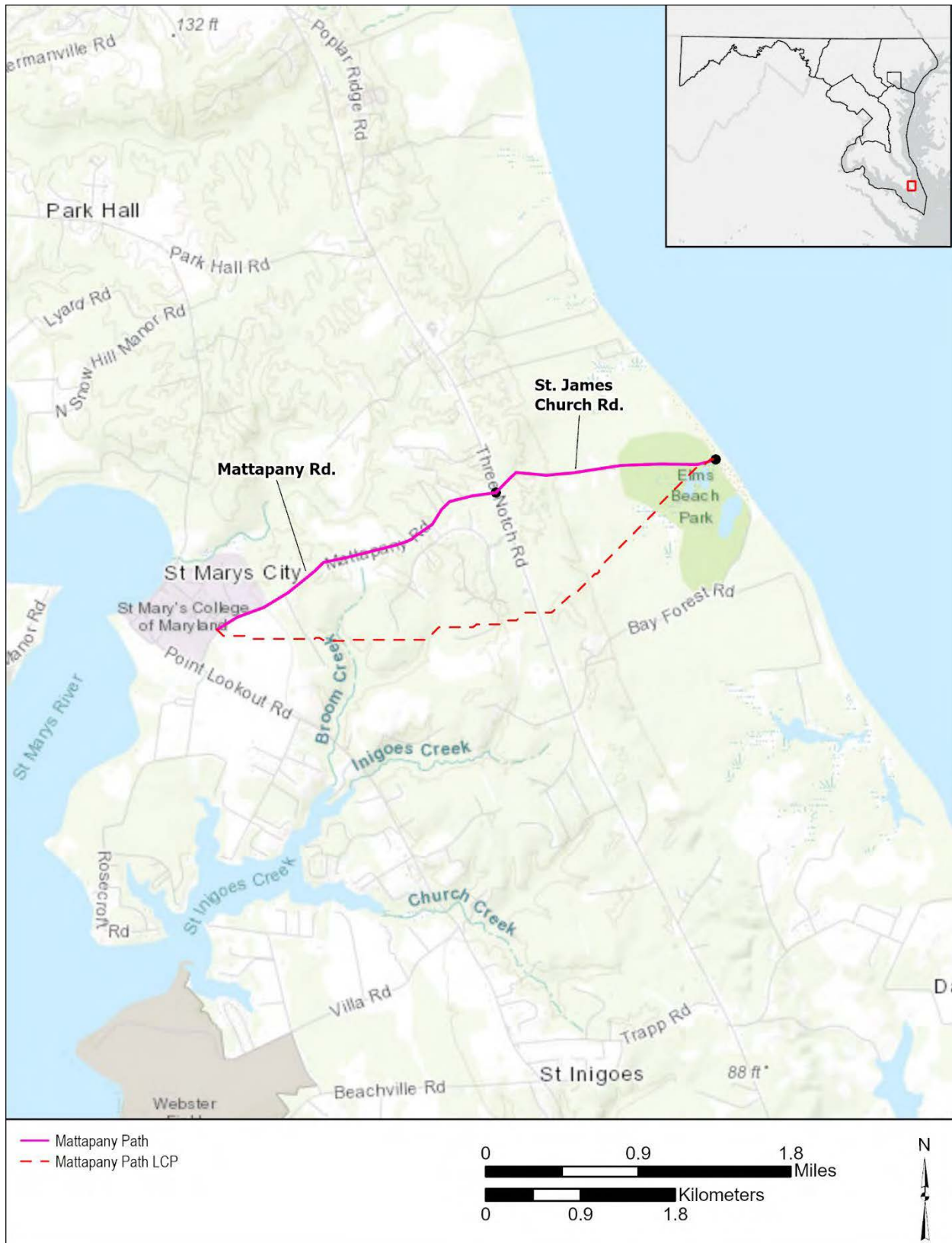
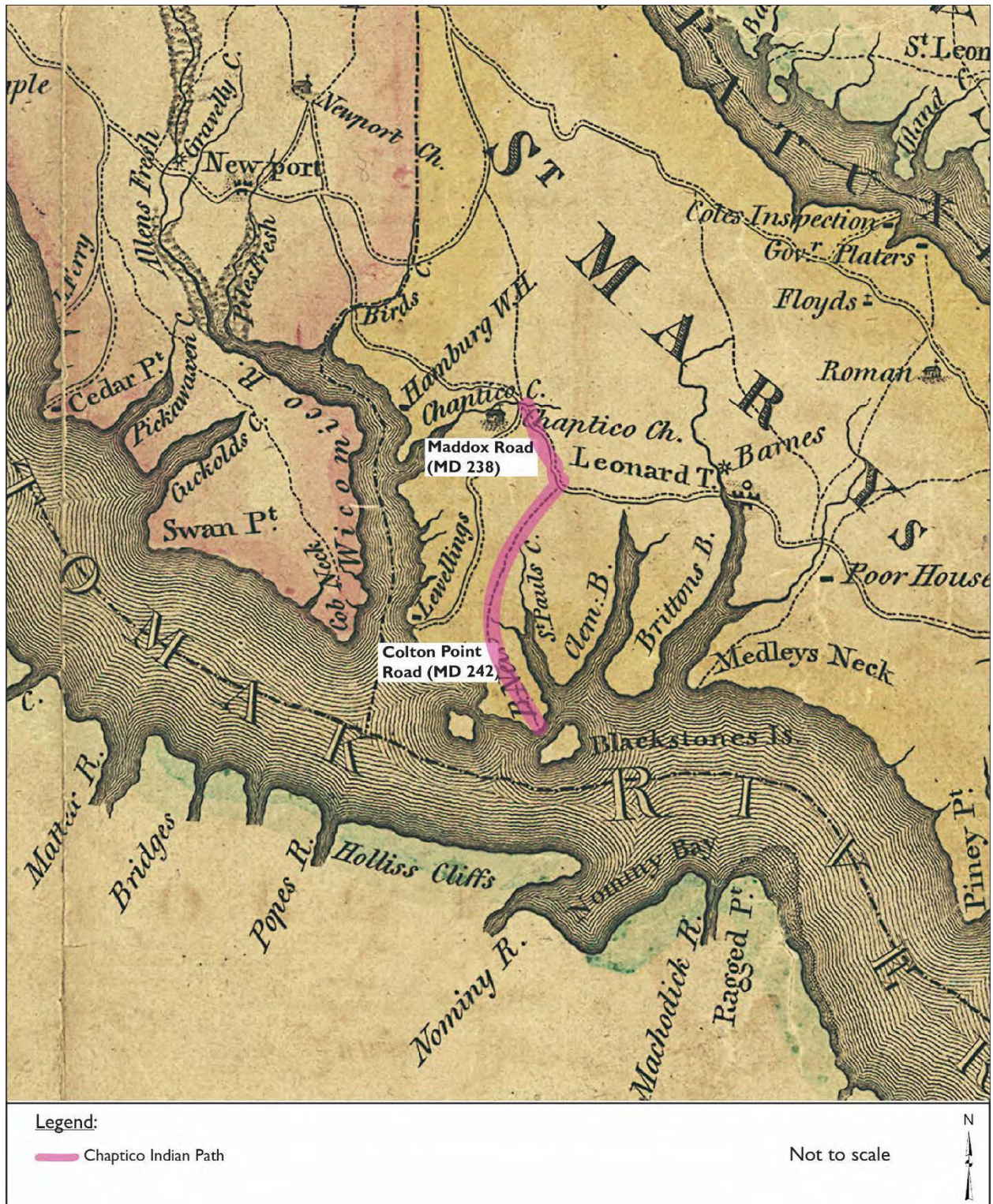


Figure 24. Map of the Potential Route of the Mattapany Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



**Figure 25. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Chaptico Indian Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**

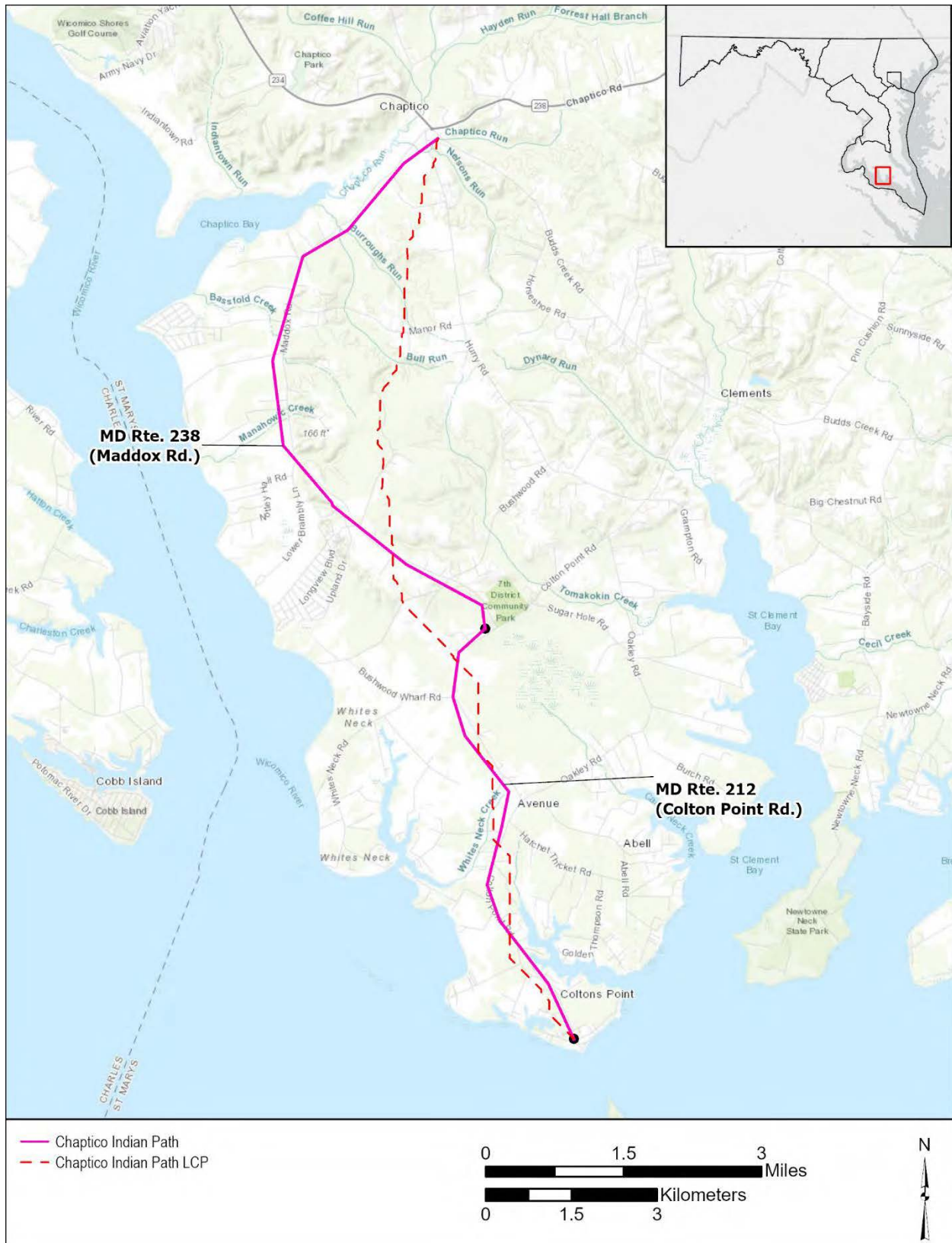


Figure 26. Map of the Potential Route of the Chaptico Indian Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



**Figure 27. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the St. Leonard Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**

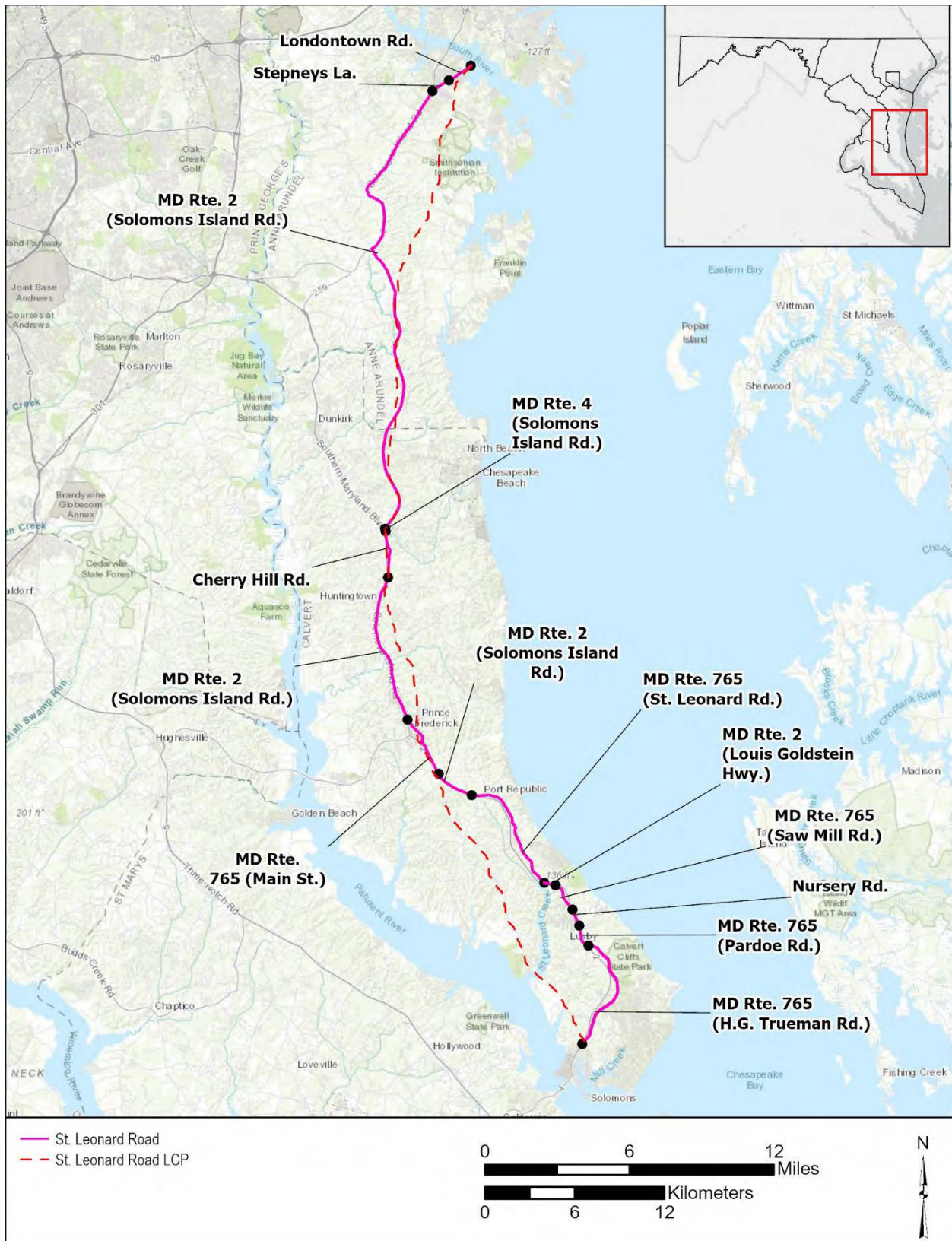


Figure 28. Map of the Potential Route of St. Leonard Road and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

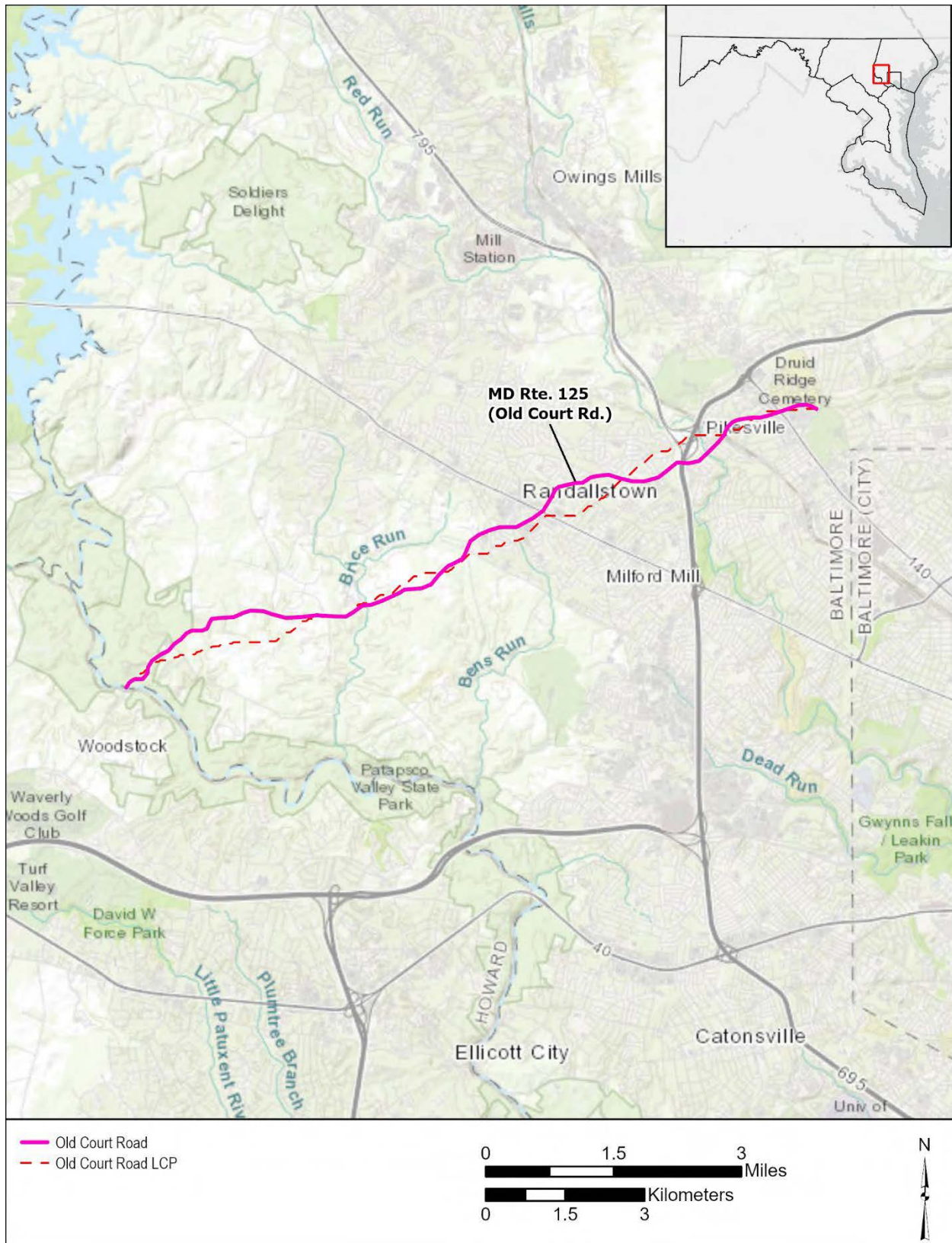
5.3 PIEDMONT PLATEAU AND NORTHERN COASTAL PLAIN

This area in central Maryland broadly encompasses the Maryland Piedmont Plateau from the foot of the Blue Ridge Mountains east to the Susquehanna River and Chesapeake Bay, including the northern Coastal Plain in the vicinity of Baltimore. The rolling terrain of the Piedmont would have facilitated both east-west travel between the Coastal Plain and Blue Ridge and north-south travel into Pennsylvania and Virginia. Several Late Woodland period village sites have been found in this area, likely related to the later Algonquin-speaking tribes. The appearance of Iroquoian tribes moving into the area from the north in the fifteenth century changed the settlement patterns, however, prior to contact with Europeans. At the time of initial contact with Europeans, Piscataway, Patuxent, and Nanticoke tribes resided in the lower Piedmont (Stein 1972:30); John Smith noted a Piscataway village called Cepowig at the head of the Patapsco River near present-day Baltimore (Smith 1624). Susquehannock Indians occupied the upper Piedmont and Susquehanna River basin. Through the seventeenth century, Susquehannock and other Iroquoian tribes, including Seneca, pushed south into the area. By the end of the seventeenth century, as a result of warfare and disease, the population of the Susquehannock had been decimated and much of the Piedmont and northern Coastal Plain of Maryland abandoned. Seneca continued to move into the area to conduct raids.

Court and land records from the seventeenth and eighteenth century often reference “Old Indian Paths”, which sometimes were used to form the boundary of land grants or hundreds (Marye 1920a; 1920b). In colonial Maryland, “hundreds” referred to land divisions within counties. As roads were cleared for colonists in the eighteenth century, court orders sometimes reference the Native American paths that were expanded for colonial use. In general, it is difficult to place the trails referenced in archival records, however. One example of reference to a Seneca road was from the end of the seventeenth century: in order to deal with raids from presumed Senecas, the Maryland Council requested Jacob Young, who spoke the Seneca language, to “lye in waite at or neere the house of Mr. Anthony Demondidier or else where in their road” (Liber XV, 310 as quoted in Marye 1920a:112). Many of the early roads converge at Frederick, Maryland. While this may reflect historic development of Frederick, Late Woodland village and mortuary archaeological sites have been located in the vicinity of Frederick, demonstrating Native American occupation of the area (e.g., 18FR18, a Late Woodland village, and 18FR14, a palisaded village on the east side of Frederick along the Monocacy River). Site 18FR14 also contained a contact period component. Additional contact period sites have been identified along the Potomac River to the south of Frederick and along the Patapsco River near Baltimore.

5.3.1 Old Court Road

A section of Old Court Road (MD 125/123) in the vicinity of Granite, northwest of Baltimore, was cleared in the 1730s along the course of a Native American trail (Marye 1920a:110). The historic road ran between Woodstock and Pikesville, crossing two natural fords. Court records from 1733 appointed Charles Wells to oversee improvement of “the Indian Road out of said road to Gwinns Falls out of said Jone’s road Gist’s Mill from the lower wading place of the main falls of Patapsco to the second wading place of Gwinns Falls, from the fording place of Davis’s Run” (Baltimore County Pro. Liber --, 1733-1734, p. 189 as quoted in Marye 1920b:218). This path was likely used by Algonquin groups to move between resources or settlements along the Patapsco, Back, and Gunpowder rivers while minimizing stream crossings, although the route between these features is not known. Old Court Road does not appear on eighteenth century maps. LCP analysis indicates the current road closely follows the most convenient path (Figure 29).



5.3.2 Baltimore to Philadelphia and Nanticoke Paths

The Road from Baltimore to Philadelphia is shown on the American Philosophical Society's 1771 and Griffith et al.'s 1794 maps (Figures 30 and 31). For most of its route, it appears to follow Philadelphia Road and Old Philadelphia Road (MD 7), which crosses Big Gunpowder Falls at the "long calm ford" often mentioned in archival records (Marye 1920a, 1920b). A Late Woodland to Contact period site has been recorded near the road on the Gunpowder River (18BA153). The route crosses the Susquehanna River at Havre De Grace, at a point mapped historically as the lower ferry. Marye (1920) notes that land records in this vicinity contain numerous references to "Old Indian Roads", which appear to have been incorporated into this historic road. The LCP analysis of the route closely follows the modern roads (Figure 32).

By the end of the eighteenth century, the road connected Philadelphia and what is now the Fells Point area of Baltimore. Fry and Jefferson's 1755 map, however, shows this road continuing south around the Patapsco River to Londontowne, where it would have met the Port Tobacco and St. Leonard roads (Figure 33). Native Americans may have used the path from Pennsylvania south to Calvert County as part of the Nanticoke Path noted by Wallace (1952). The path would have facilitated contact between Iroquoian and Algonquin groups. The Nanticoke Path is recorded as resource 2019RE13937 in Pennsylvania and shown entering Maryland on Chrome Road (MD 272). The route from the Maryland line to the Road from Baltimore to Philadelphia is not clear, but it may have followed MD 272 or Calvert and Ebenezer Church roads. LCP analysis of this road segment suggests neither option follows the most convenient path, and this portion of the Nanticoke Path may not have a modern equivalent (Figure 34). Likewise, the modern equivalent of the route around and south of Baltimore to Londontowne is not known, but it may have followed a combination of MD 2 and MD 10.

5.3.3 Blue Ridge to Chesapeake Path

The Blue Ridge Mountains are a north-south mountain range mainly located in western Frederick County. The range includes abundant lithic materials, such as metarhyolite, and represents the boundary between the Piedmont and the mountainous areas of Western Maryland. The Blue Ridge Mountains to Chesapeake Path is an east-west route that may have facilitated trade and movement of the abundant metarhyolite from the Blue Ridge to the Coastal Plain, suggesting the path was initially used by Algonquin tribes. The path appears to have run along a series of ridges where Liberty Road (MD 26) is now located. Marye (1920:110) notes that a small section of the route through Eldersburg, Maryland, became a boundary between the Delaware and Pipe Creek Hundreds in 1755; the description of the hundreds references the "Old Indian Road" (Marye 1920:110). The road crosses Patapsco Falls at the original ford.

The Blue Ridge to Chesapeake Path appears on Griffith et al.'s map from 1794 running from Frederick to the mouth of the Patapsco River in Baltimore (Figure 35). The LCP analysis confirms the eastern half of the path follows the preferred route, including across the Patapsco River at the fall line (Figure 36). The LCP for the western half suggests a more efficient path would have run to the south of the current and historic roads.

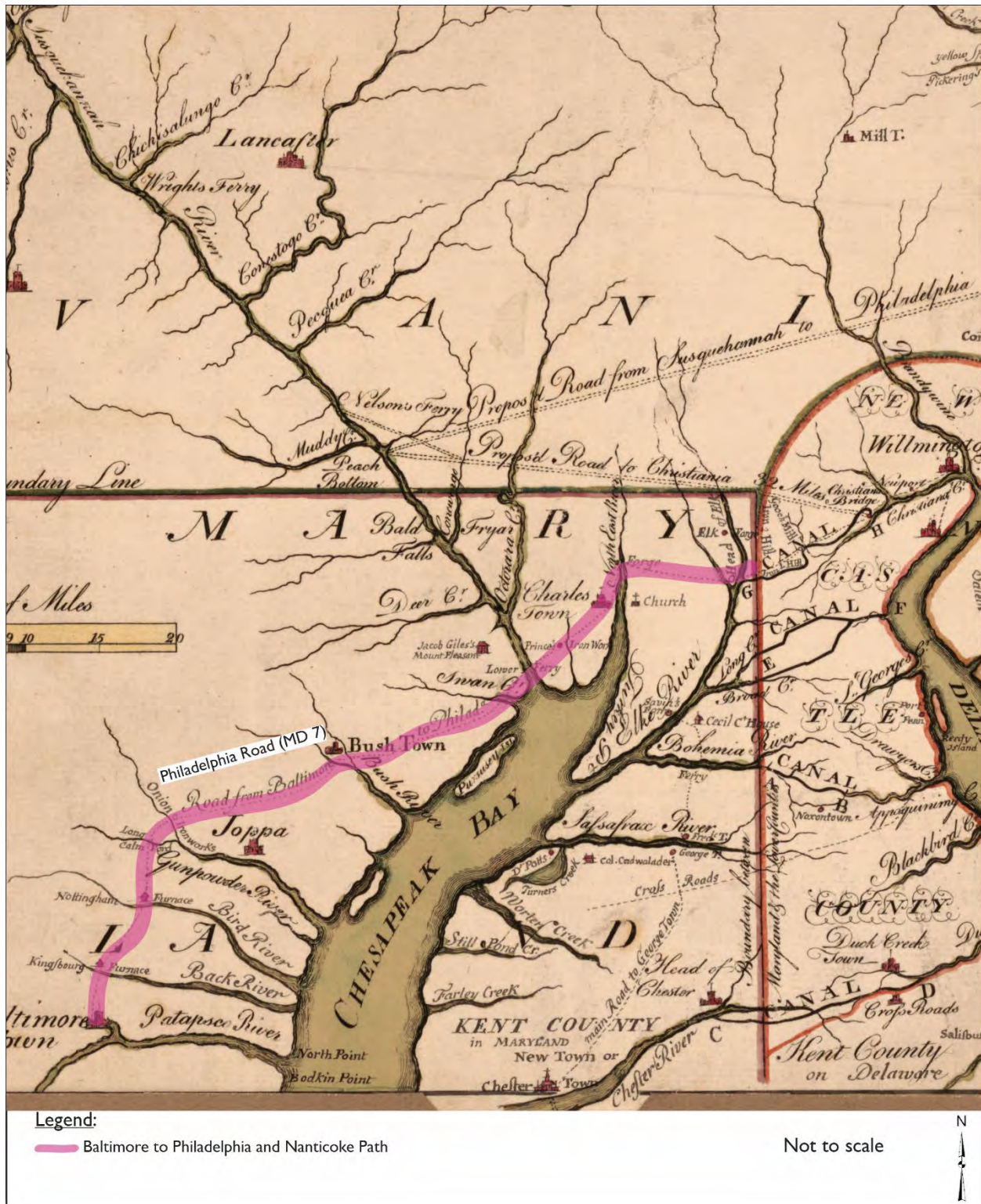
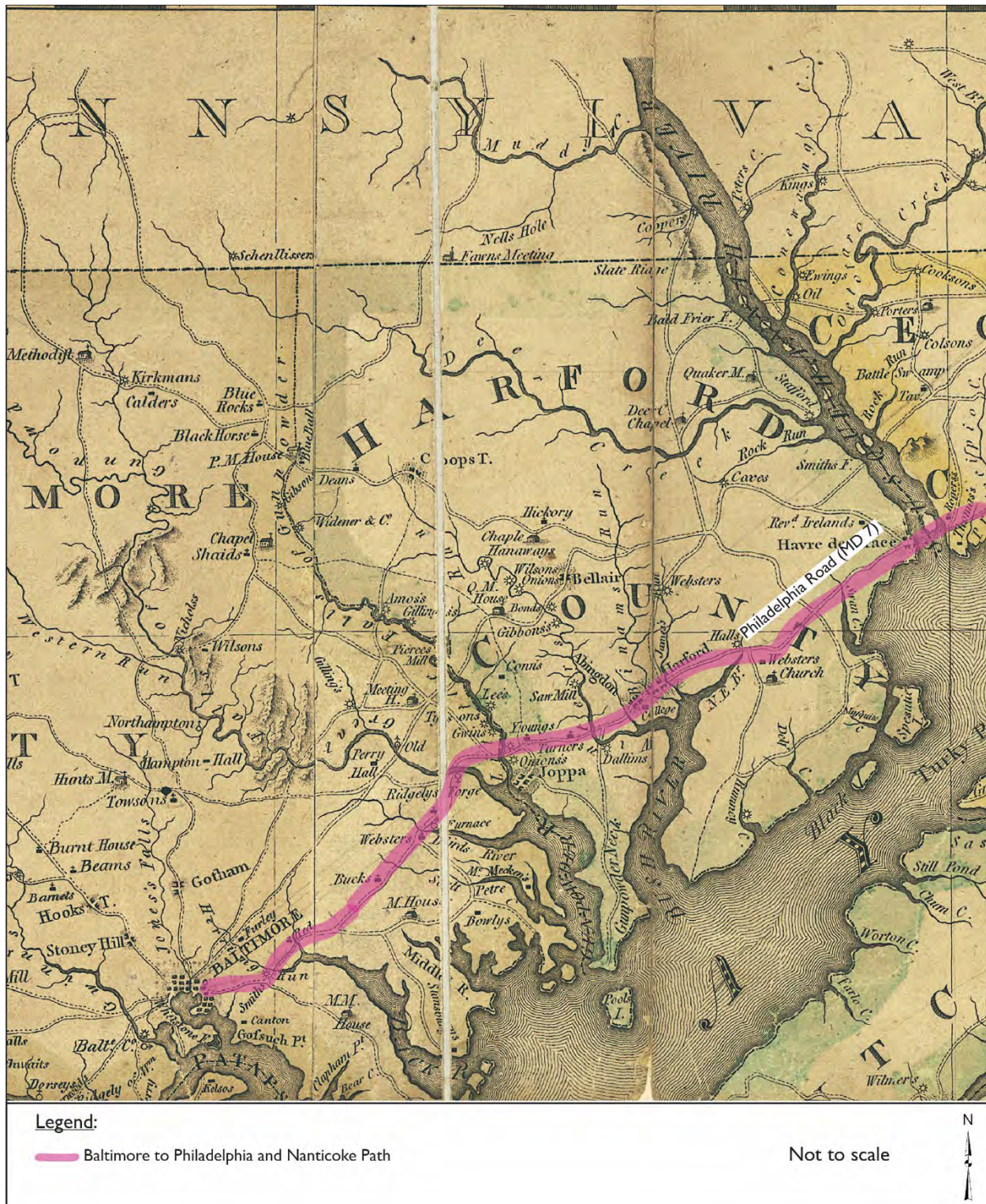


Figure 30. 1771 Map of Northeastern Maryland with the Potential Route of the Baltimore to Philadelphia and Nanticoke Paths in Pink (American Philosophical Society 1771).



**Figure 31. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Baltimore to Philadelphia and Nanticoke Paths in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**



Figure 32. Map of the Baltimore to Philadelphia Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

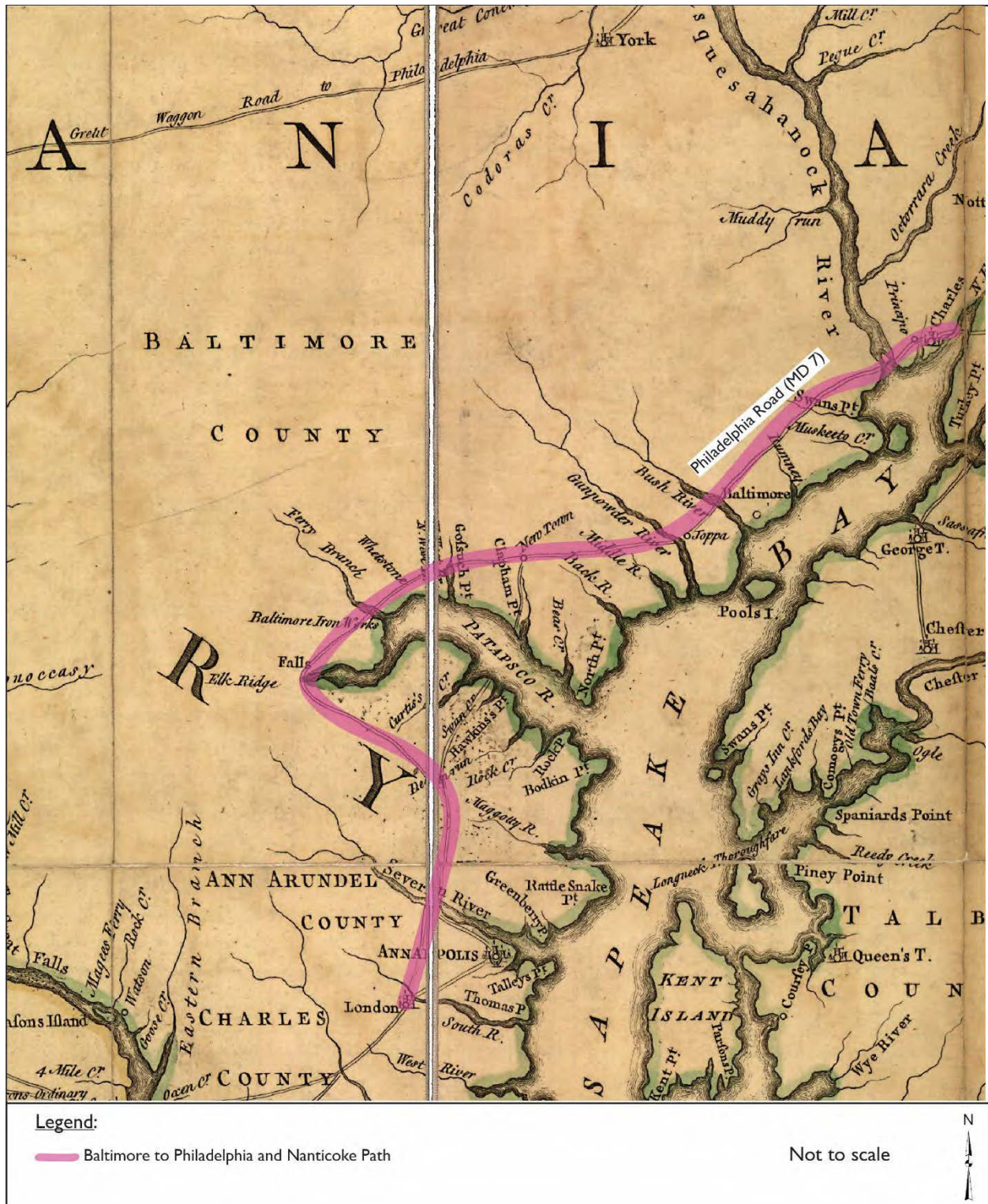


Figure 33. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Road from Baltimore to Philadelphia and Nanticoke Path in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled as possible. Not to scale.

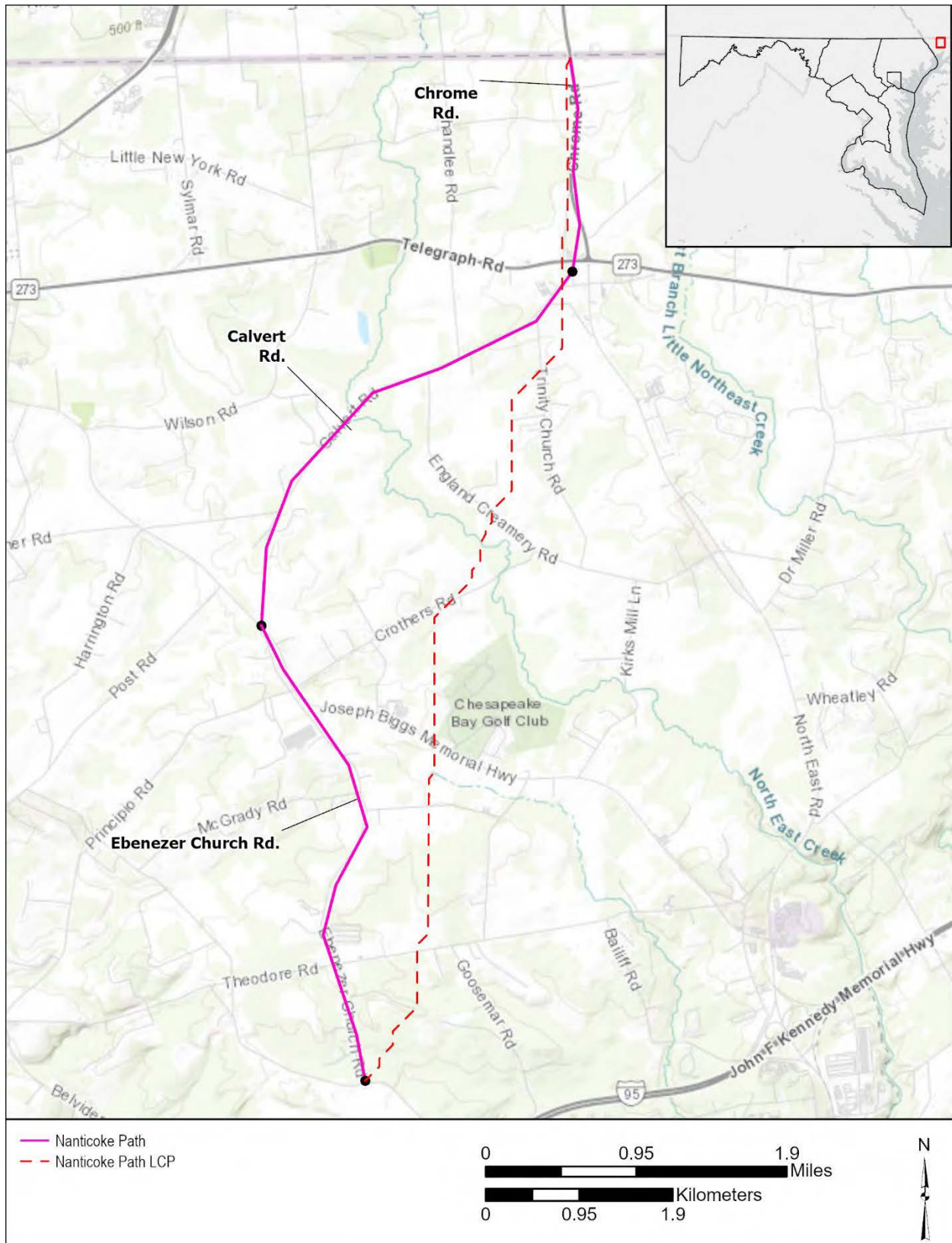


Figure 34. Map of the Nanticoke Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



Figure 35. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Blue Ridge to Chesapeake Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

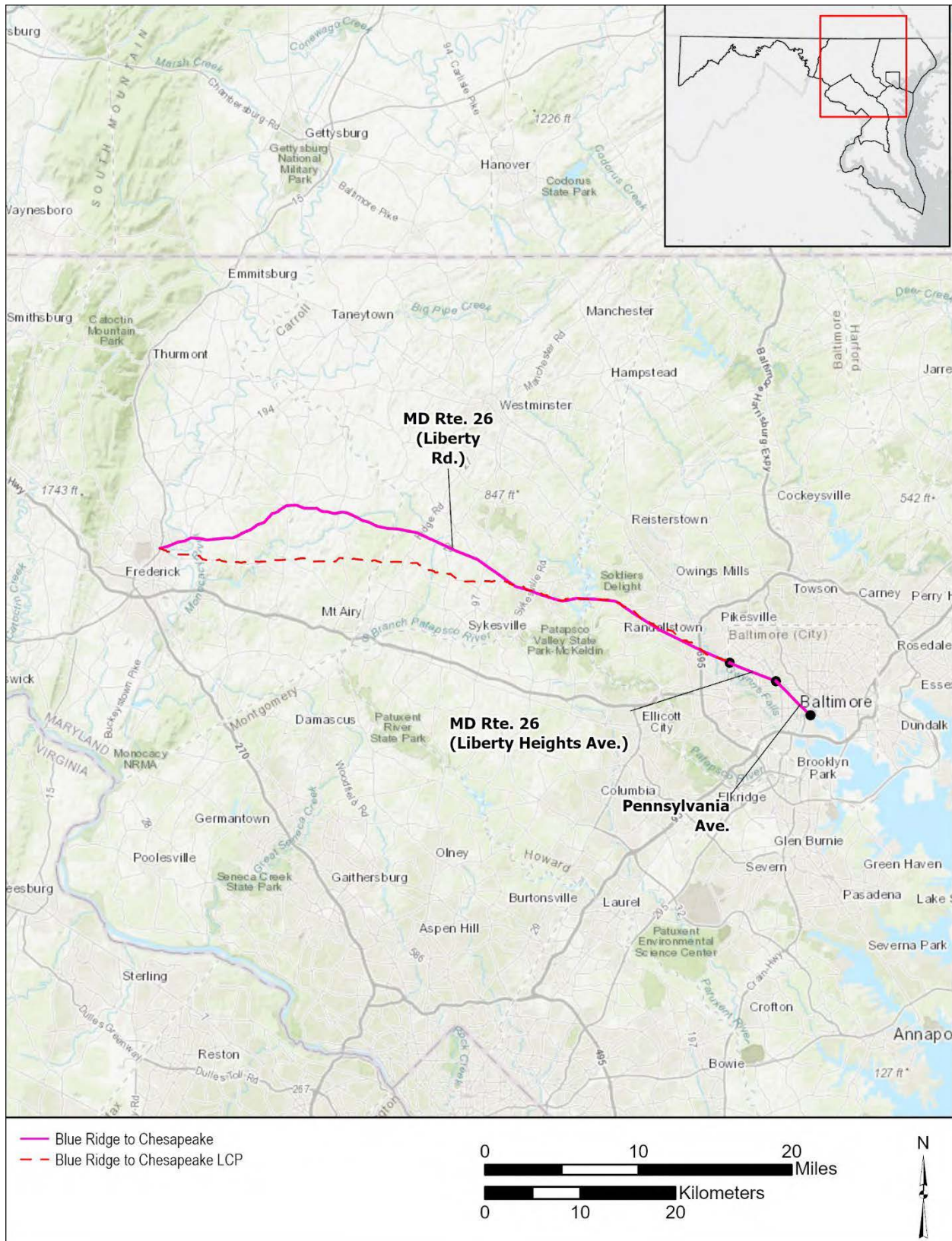


Figure 36. Map of the Blue Ridge to Chesapeake Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.3.4 Point of Rocks and Whites Ferry Paths

The Point of Rocks Path crossed the Potomac River from Virginia in the vicinity of Point of Rocks and led to what is now Rockville where the path intersected the Great Road. The Darnestown historical marker suggests the road was originally used by the Seneca Indians in 1600 (Historical Marker Database 2024). While it is likely that Seneca did pass into Virginia along this route, Piscataway Indians living on Conoy Island (now Heater's Island) were likely the original users. In 1699, English explorers visited Conoy Island at Point of Rocks, noting it was occupied by Piscataway Indians living in a fortified village (Virginia State Papers, 1652-1781, p. 63 as cited in Marye 1935). A Contact period site has been recorded on Heater's Island (18FR72).

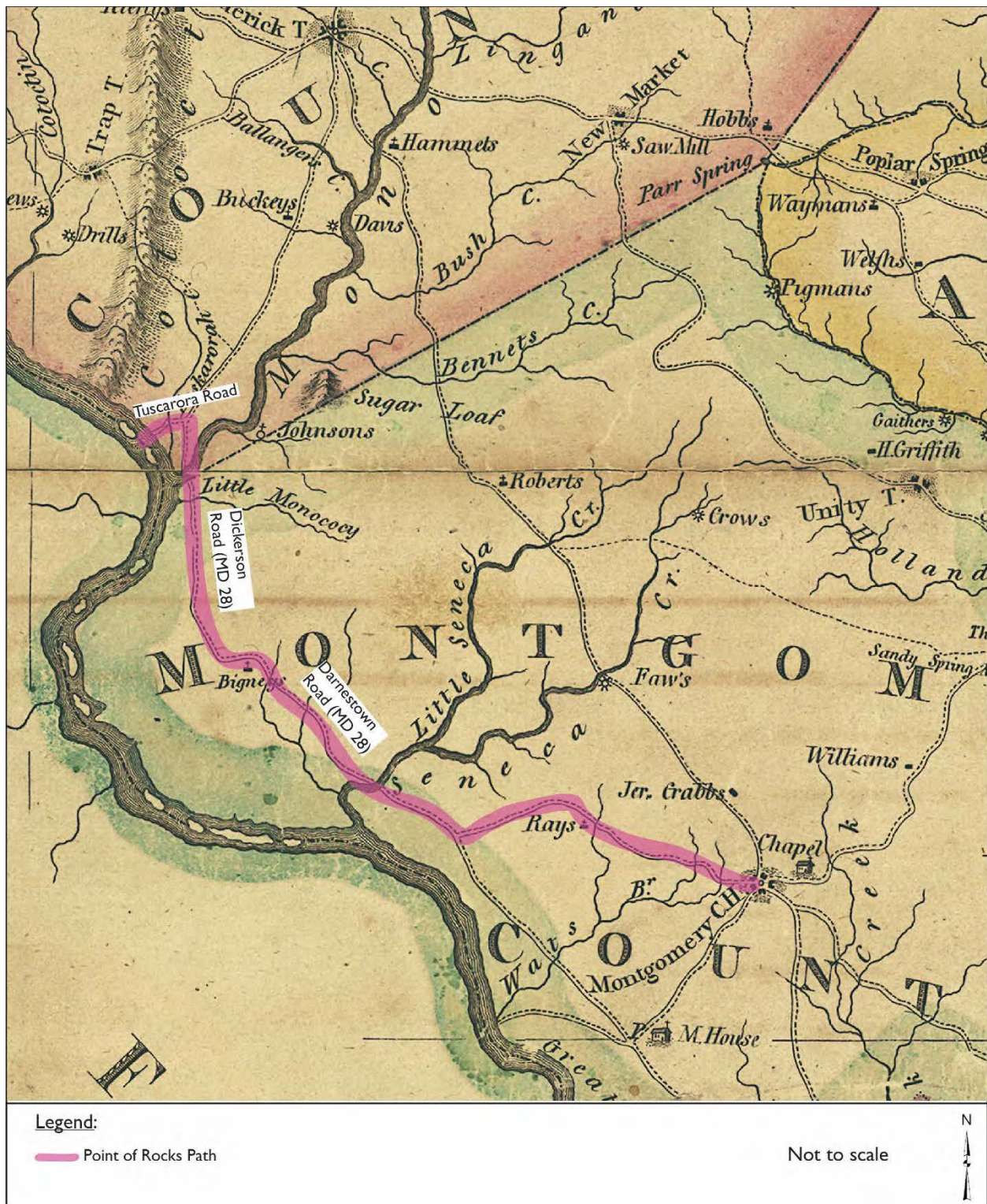
The Point of Rocks path is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map leading from Point of Rocks across the Monocacy and Seneca rivers and continuing to Georgetown in Washington, D.C.; a road extends off of the main route at Darnestown leading to Montgomery County Courthouse (Rockville) to connect with the Great Road (Figure 37). This approximate route is shown on Baron Christoph von Graffenried's sketch from 1712 and labeled the Road to Canavast (Heater's Island) (McKnight 2021:62); Graffenried was an associate of Swiss explorer Franz Ludwig Michel. The LCP more closely follows the banks of the Potomac River on the western end of the path but reconnects with the portion of the path that follows Darnestown Road (Figure 38). The Point of Rocks path generally followed Tuscarora, Dickerson, and Darnestown roads (MD 28).

A possible alternative route extended from the historic Edwards Ferry (later White's Ferry) to Darnestown before joining the Point of Rocks Path. The historic ferry crossing was just north of Harrison Island in the Potomac River, where a possible Late Woodland period village has been recorded (18MO391). The route roughly followed White's Ferry Road (MD 107). This path segment is not shown on eighteenth century maps and its origin as an Indigenous trail is not confirmed.

5.3.5 The Great Road

Portions of Rockville Pike/Frederick Road (MD 355), historically referred to as the Great Road, have their origins as a Native American trail along a long ridge from Georgetown to Rockville and continuing to Frederick (Marye 1935:231). The trail was part of a network of paths that provided contact between Native American groups from New York to the Carolinas. Marye (1935:231) notes that Baron de Graffenried traveled on this road while visiting the Piscataway village on Conoy Island, likely connecting to the Point of Rocks Path. While the route is not shown on historic maps prior to the end of the eighteenth century, General Braddock noted an ordinary was established along the route by 1755. This Braddock reference and the topographic setting following a long ridge suggest the path was known earlier than mapped. A Contact period site has been recorded in the vicinity of the road north of Gaithersburg (18MO012). The road is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figure 39).

The Great Road closely follows the LCP route, following a long ridge (Figure 40). The Washington Turnpike company incorporated the path into the Georgetown to Rockville Turnpike in the early nineteenth century. Over time, Rockville Pike was widened and straightened. In an interview, a local resident described the path as late as 1946 as "a little snaky road north of Bethesda" (Brown 1979) in contrast to what it has become today.



**Figure 37. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Point of Rocks Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**

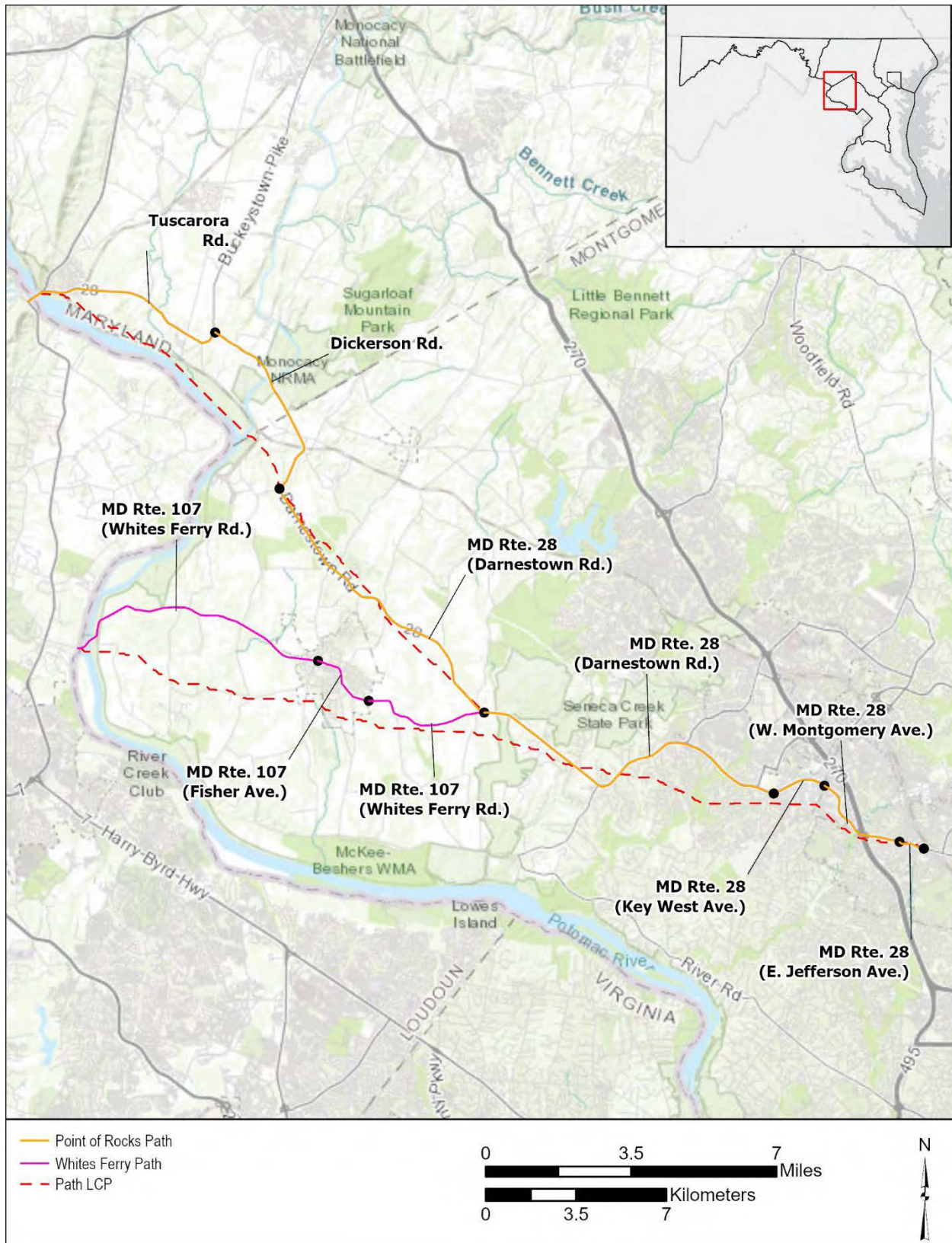


Figure 38. Map of the Point of Rocks and Whites Ferry Paths and their Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



Figure 39. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Great Road in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).

Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

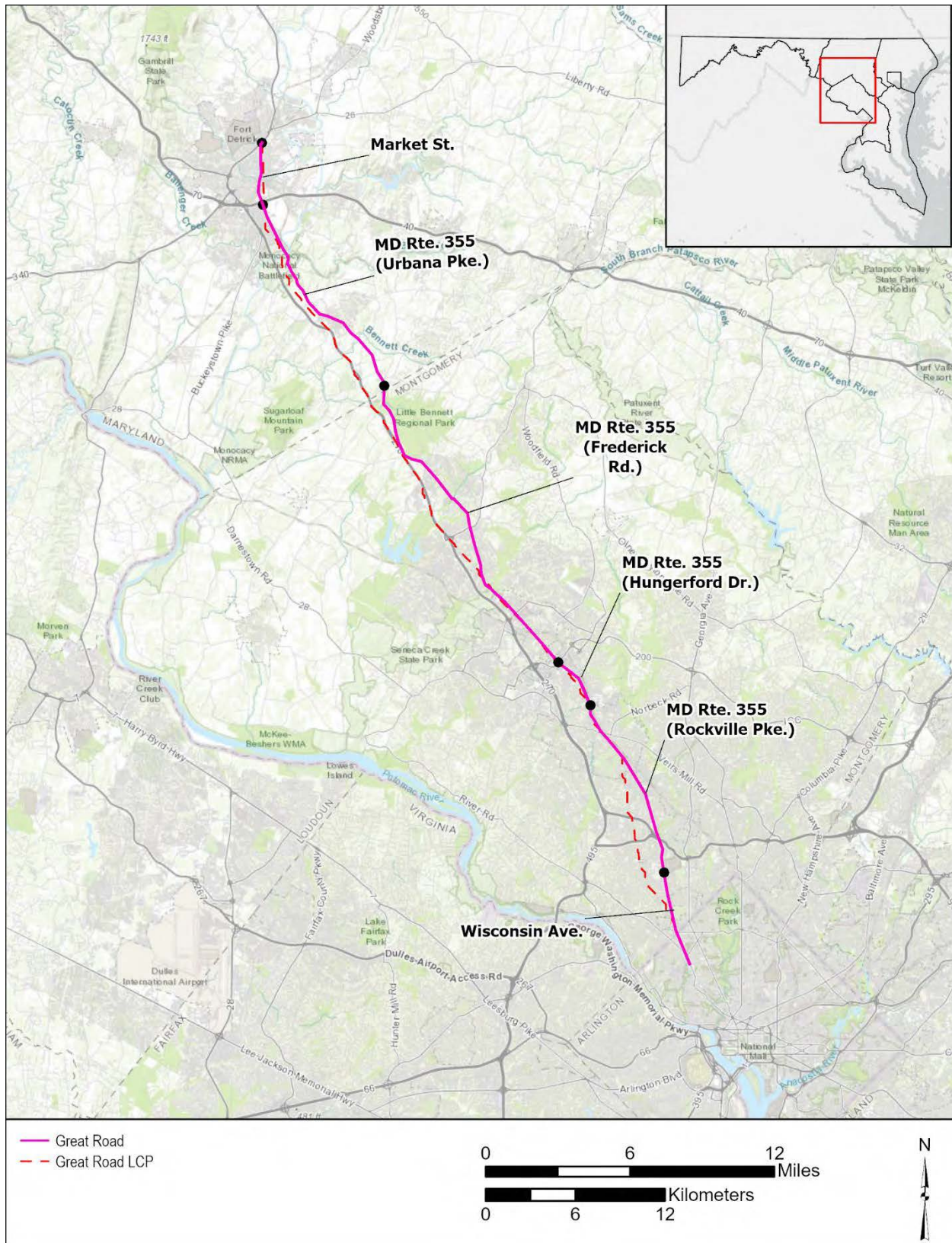


Figure 40. Map of the Great Road and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.3.6 Monocacy Path

The Monocacy Path ran along the Monocacy River, connecting Native American settlements on Conoy (Heater's) Island with settlements to the north. The name Monocacy was taken from the Shawnee name for the river that runs near the base of the Blue Ridge Mountains east of Frederick (Monnockkesey; Frederick County 2023). In 1707, Swiss explorer Franz Ludwig Michel traveled in the Monocacy region, producing a map that appears to show the Monocacy Path leading north from Heater's Island towards Pennsylvania, along with a second route he traveled from Annapolis, past Great Falls and Sugarloaf Mountain, and across the Monocacy River (Michel and Kemper 1707; McKnight 2021:62). What was likely the Monocacy Path was also depicted on a 1712 map drawn by Caron Christoph von Graffenried, an associate of Michel's (McKnight 2021:62).

As summarized by Matthew McKnight (2021), archival records reference various Native American groups using the road from Heater's Island. Initially the Algonquin-speaking Piscataway and Shawnee lived at sites in the area, followed by the Iroquoian Tuscarora and Seneca. Records also reference Cayuga and Susquehannock traveling on the road.

The Monocacy Path is shown on Griffith et al.'s map of 1794 and is one of few paths shown on Mason and Dixon's 1768 map of the dividing line between Maryland and Pennsylvania that is named (Figures 41 and 42). By 1739, there was enough interest in settling near the Monocacy River that a road was built from Wright's Ferry in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, to the Maryland line and south to the Potomac River at Point of Rocks. This newly cleared road followed an old Native American trail and was subsequently called Monocacy Road (Schultz 1896:6). Mason and Dixon's 1768 map places Monocacy Road between Rock Creek and Piney Run where MD 194 now crosses into Pennsylvania. The Monocacy Path to Frederick is recorded as Resource 2019RE06651 in Pennsylvania.

The Monocacy Path led from Wrightsville, Pennsylvania, to Frederick, Maryland, essentially along what is now MD 194 (Francis Scott Key Highway and Woodsboro Pike). The path through Frederick is not known. South of Frederick, the path followed what is now Catoclin Mountain Highway (U.S. 15) to the Potomac River. The LCP closely follows the current route (Figure 43).

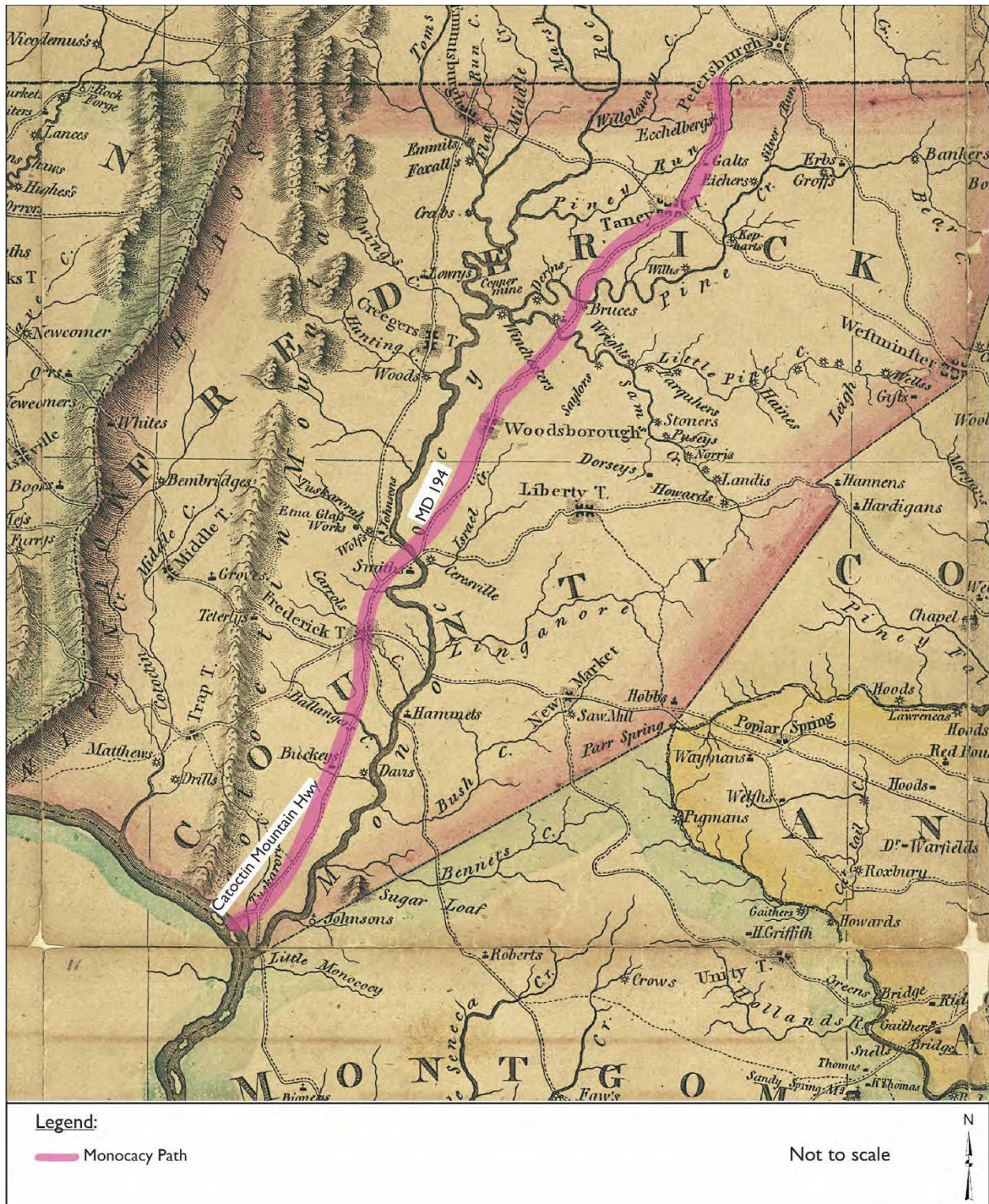


Figure 41. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Monocacy Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

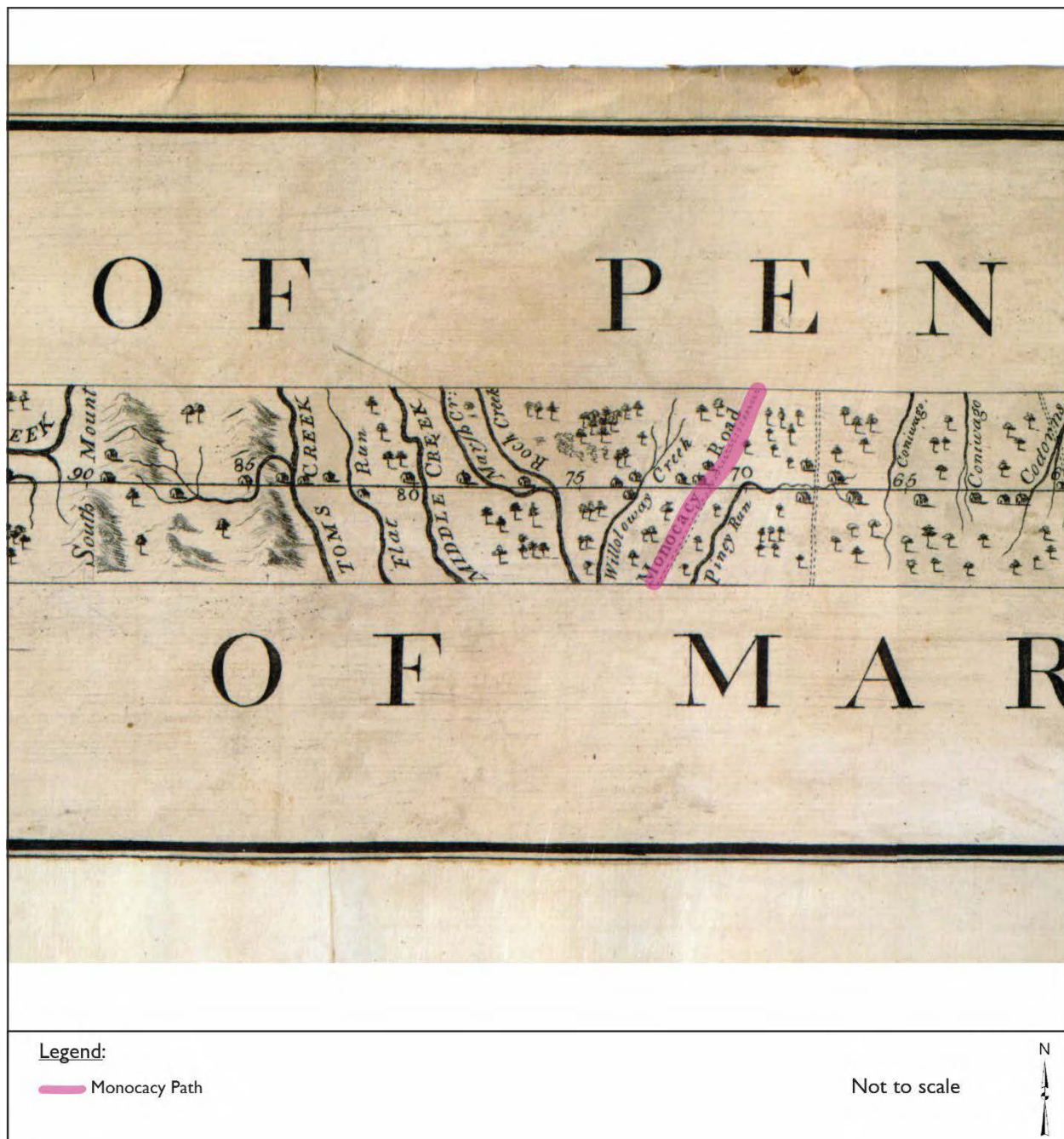


Figure 42. 1768 Map of the Boundary between the Provinces of Maryland and Pennsylvania showing Monocacy Road in Pink (Mason et al. 1768).

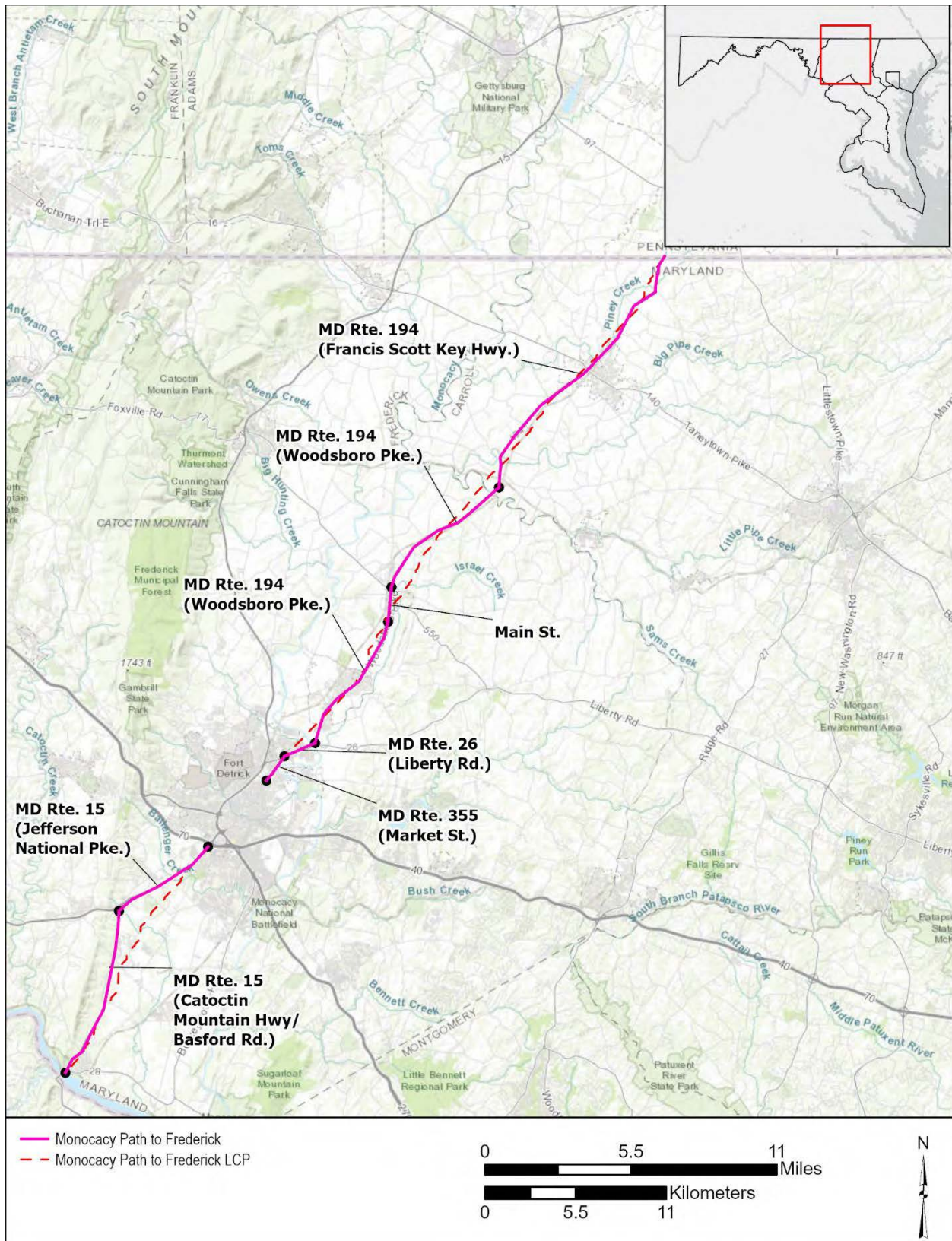


Figure 43. Map of the Monocacy Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.4 WESTERN MARYLAND

Western Maryland includes the Appalachian Plateau in the west and Ridge and Valley Province in the east. While the Appalachian Plateau features rolling hills and broad mountains with mountain passes, the Ridge and Valley area is more tightly dissected by north-south trending ridges and narrow valleys. During the Late Woodland period, the Monongahela tradition dominated late pre-contact sites within the Appalachian Plateau (Wall 1981), although the cultural traditions appear to die out before European contact, potentially pushed out by Iroquoian groups from the north. The Ridge and Valley area includes late pre-contact sites representing a variety of cultural traditions related to Monongahela and Algonquin people. Unlike the eastern part of the state, long navigable waterways are limited in western Maryland, which would have made overland travel more important. Numerous paths have been documented in the region, with most paths leading to early historic forts or facilitating movement from north to south. Many of the paths in Western Maryland utilized portions of other paths to reach similar final destinations. Therefore, the mapping for this region includes multiple paths on one figure to demonstrate the interconnectedness of the paths. Many paths only briefly passed through Maryland as they connected Pennsylvania with West Virginia, Virginia, and the Carolinas.

5.4.1 Nemacolin's Path

Portions of Alt. US 40, the National Road, originated as Nemacolin's Path, also called Braddock's Road (Wallace 1952:25). The trail was one of several that led to Cumberland and Oldtown, Maryland. The Ohio Company of Virginia built a storehouse and fort at Wills Creek in the early eighteenth century, which became Fort Cumberland and later the City of Cumberland. Situated at the confluence of Wills Creek and the Potomac River, the location was important for both Indigenous and colonial settlers.

Reportedly Thomas Cresap, who established a trading post at Oldtown, hired local Delaware Nation Chief Nemacolin to blaze a trail across the Allegheny Mountains following a path known to the Native Americans via the Cumberland Narrows Pass (Hulbert 1903). Several paths from Pennsylvania intersected with Nemacolin's Path and then followed the path to Cumberland and Oldtown.

Captain Snow's sketch map produced in 1754 shows the road, labeled the "Road to Philadelphia" leading from Fort Necessity across the mountains and to the "New Store" at Wills Creek (Figure 44). Fort Cumberland was built by 1755 in the vicinity of the trading post and served as a muster point for British General Braddock's troops during the French & Indian War. Fry and Jefferson's 1755 map of the region shows the fort, store, and Nemacolin's Trail (Figure 45). Nemacolin's Trail was widened and improved in the early nineteenth century to establish the first National Road, eventually connecting the Patapsco River in Baltimore with the Mississippi River at St. Louis. In Pennsylvania, Nemacolin's Trail is recorded as resource ID 2019RE23610. The LCP for Nemacolin's Path generally follows the mapped path, only deviating significantly upon approaching Cumberland on the east end of the path (Figures 46-48).

Secondary histories that discuss Nemacolin's Path and the Turkey Foot Path offer conflicting opinions about which of the two roads contributed to the French and Indian War effort and General Braddock's troop movements. A plan of the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania from 1768 (Mason et al. 1768) confirms that Nemacolin's Path became Braddock's Road.

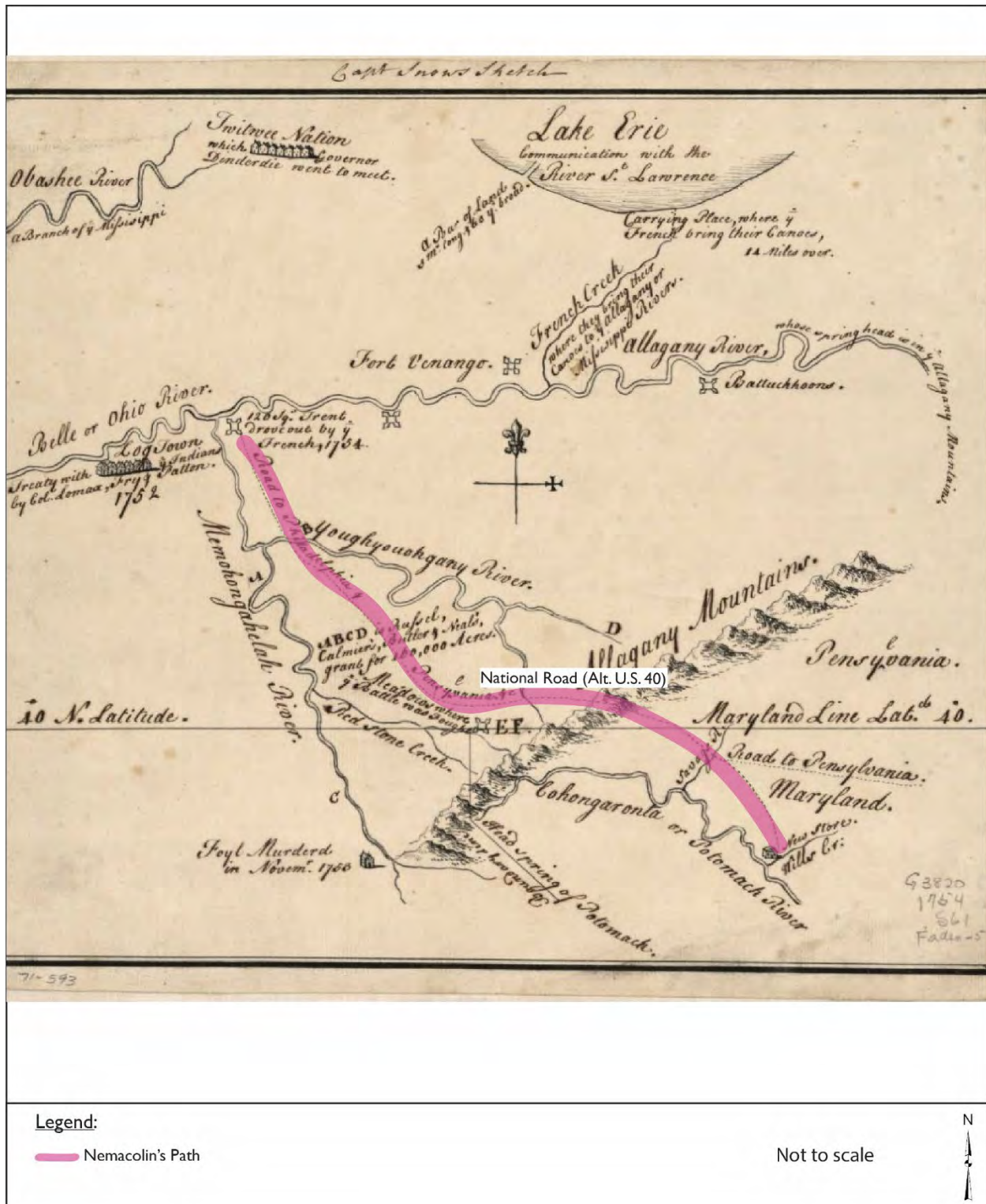
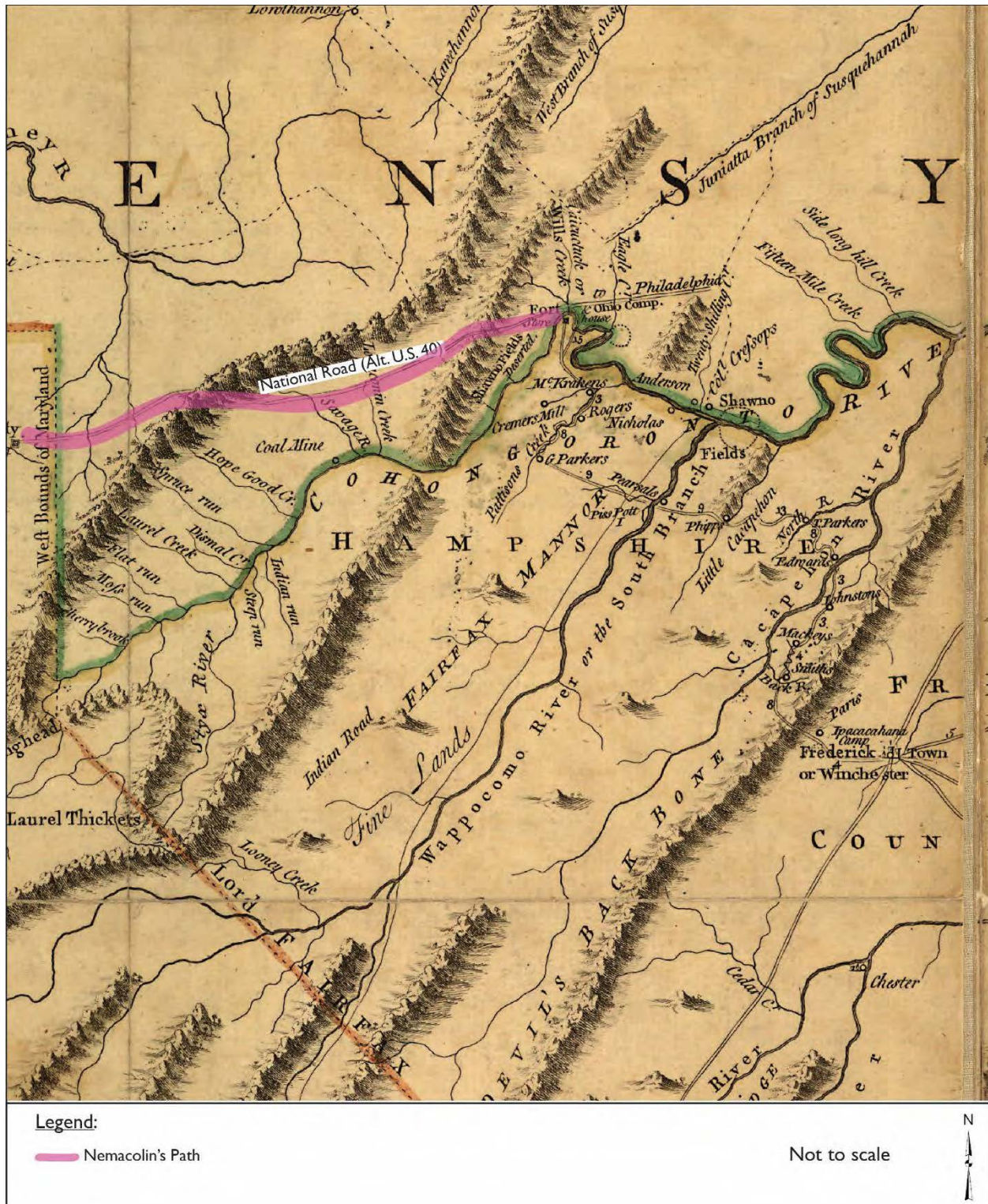


Figure 44. 1754 Captain Snow's Sketch showing Nemacolin's Path in Pink (Snow 1754).



**Figure 45. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of Nemacolin's Path in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**

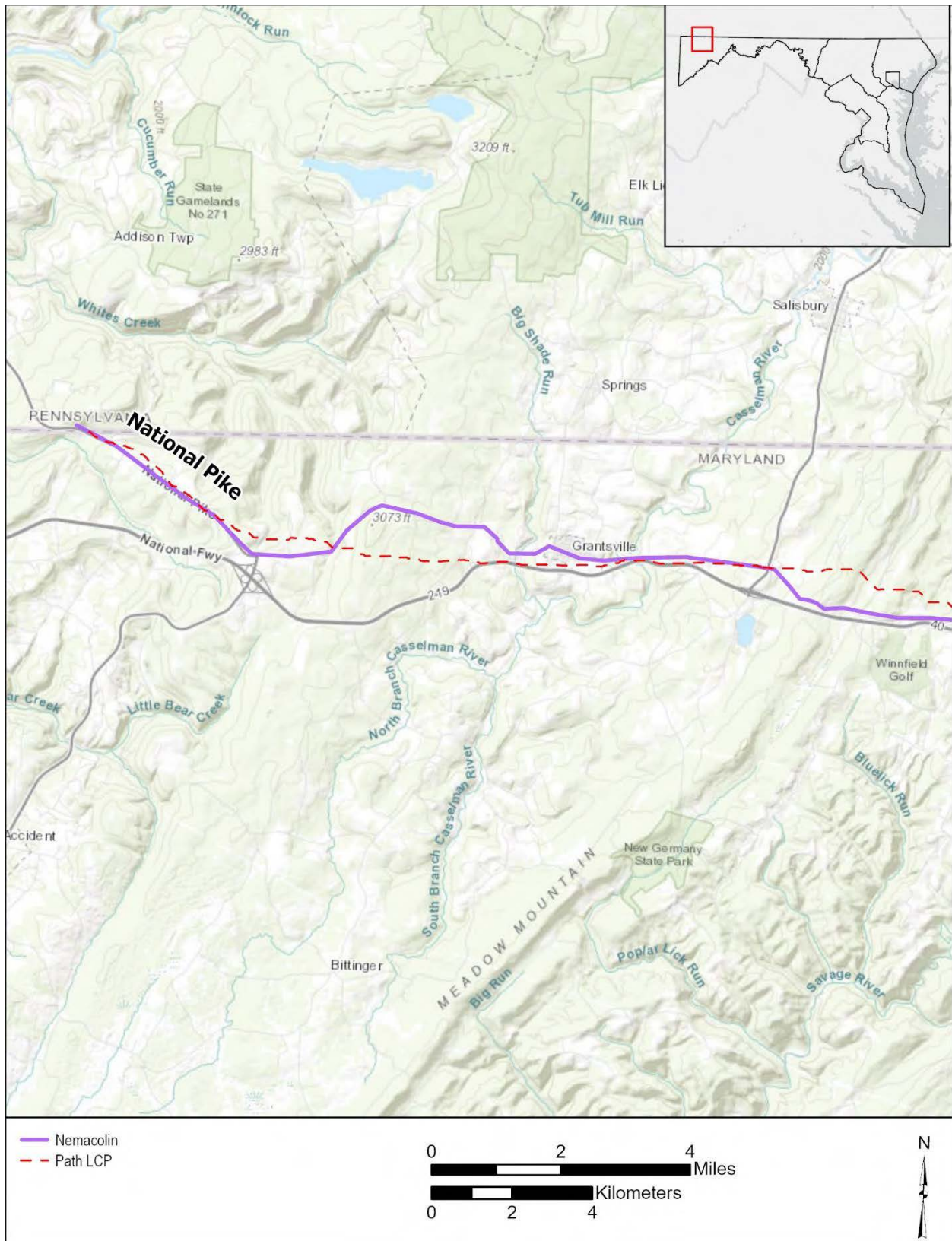


Figure 46. Map of the Nemacolin's Path (west section) and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

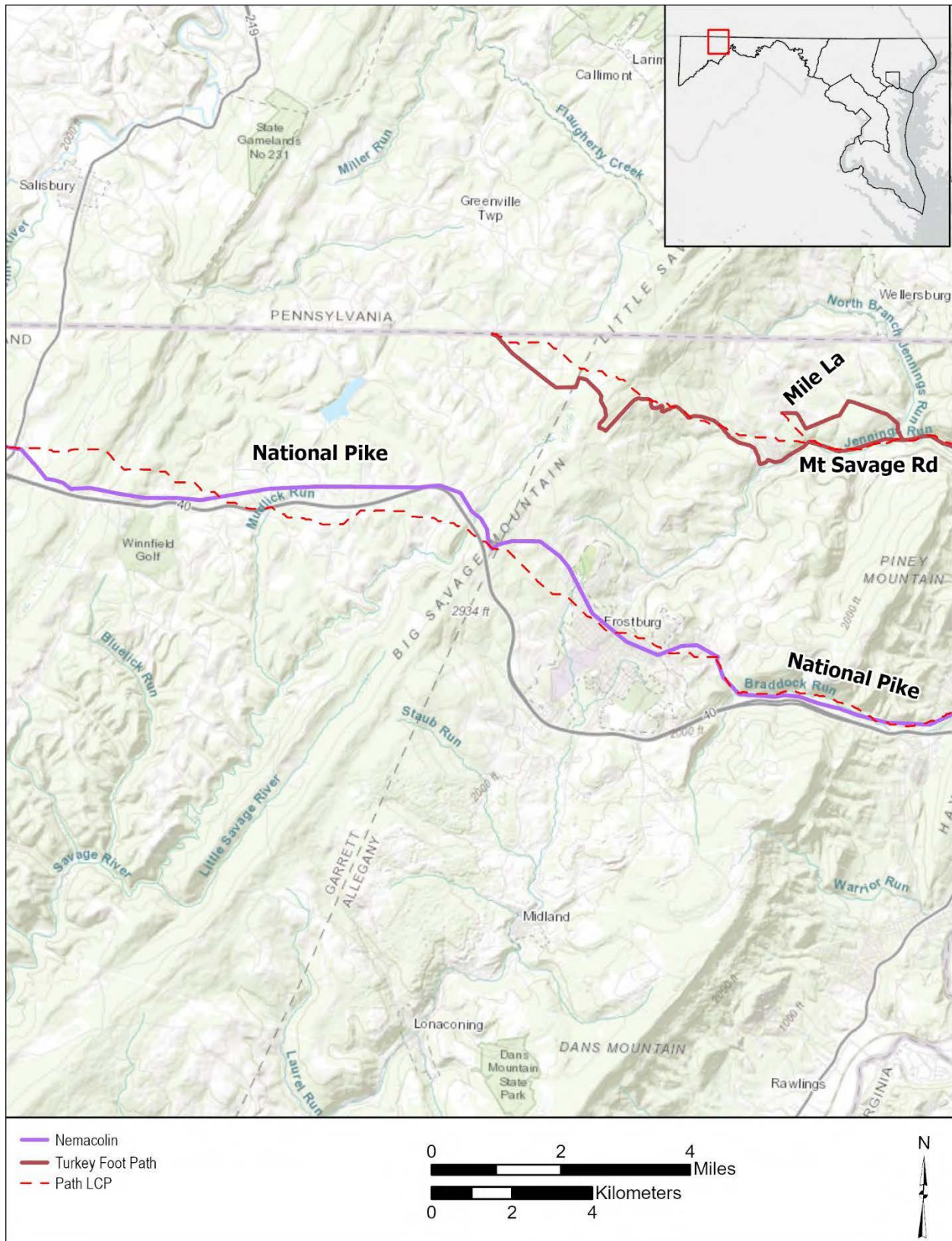


Figure 47. Map of Nemacolin's (central section) and Turkey Foot Paths and their Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

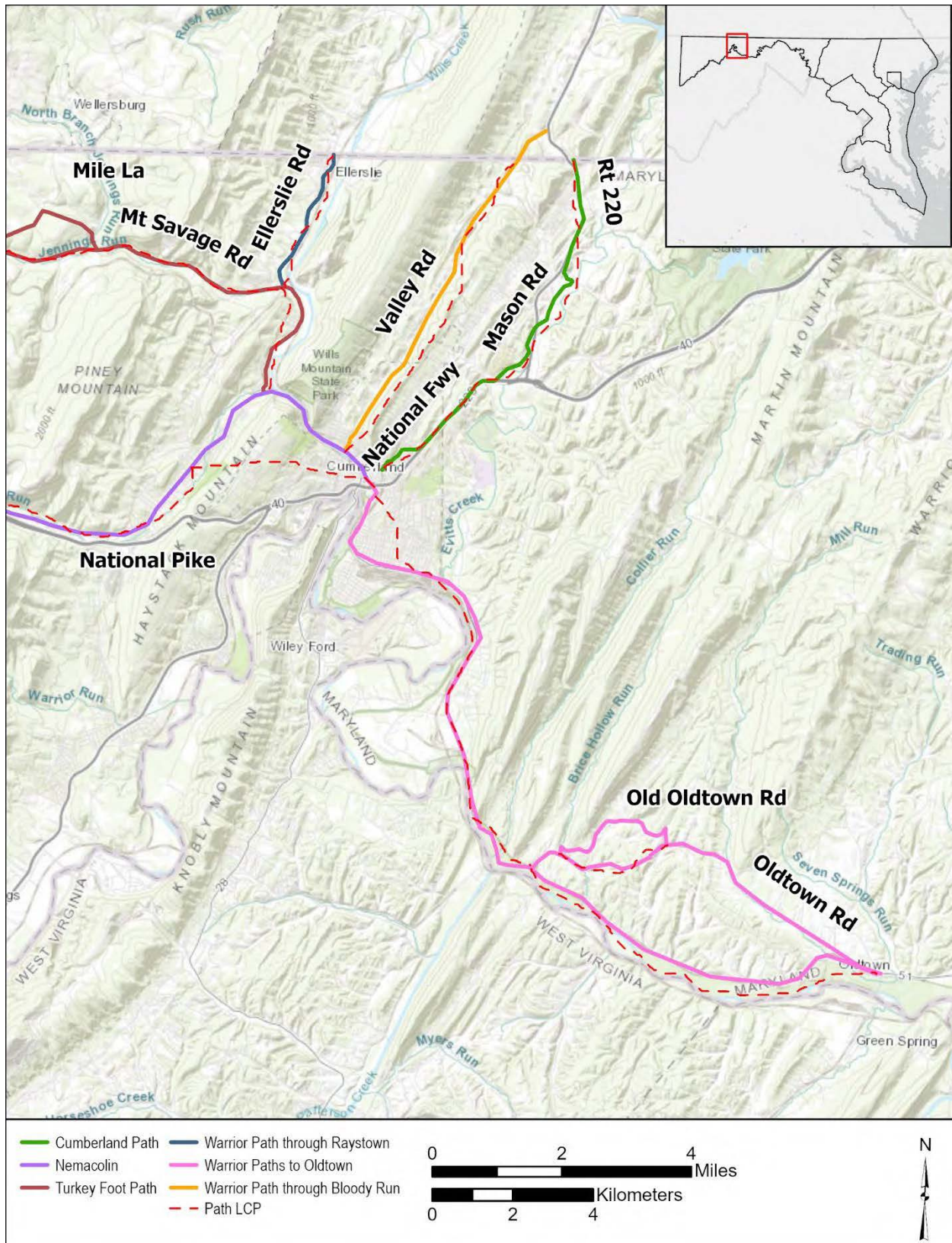


Figure 48. Map of the Nemacolin's and Turkey Foot Paths (east sections) and associated paths and their Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.4.2 Turkey Foot Path

The Turkey Foot Path consisted of a series of intersecting path alternatives extending from Cumberland, Maryland, northwest across Big Savage Mountain to the Turkey Foot Settlement near present-day Confluence, Pennsylvania. Based on their research, Dietle and McKenzie (2010-2011) describe the Turkey Foot Trail as a footpath extending across Mount Savage and northwest into Pennsylvania. They traced the likely route of the path between Mount Savage, Maryland, and Salisbury, Pennsylvania, based on analysis of eighteenth-century maps and oral tradition. The path partially follows existing roads, including unnamed roads, and in places exists as several alternative foot-path trails.

The Turkey Foot Path is shown on Fry and Jefferson's 1755 map (Figure 49). After the Revolutionary War, portions of the Turkey Foot Path were cleared for use as a military supply road to Fort Pitt. While the Turkey Foot Path originally included varied alignments, improvement of the road in the late eighteenth century cemented the current alignment as the route. The route follows Alt. 40 from Cumberland along the path of Nemacolin's Path before turning northwest on Mount Savage Road (MD 36) through the towns of Barrelville and Mount Savage.

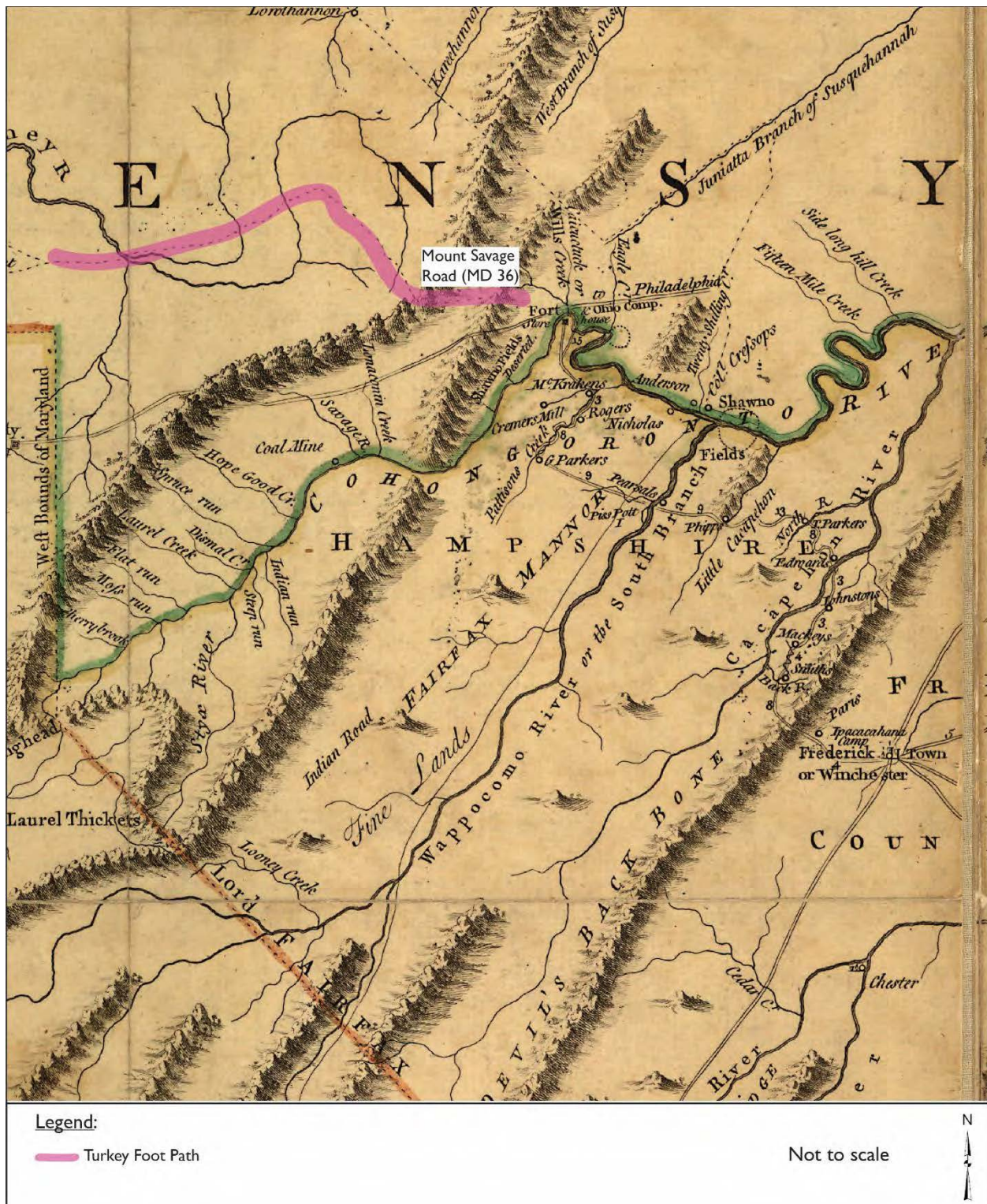
Dietle and McKenzie (2010-2011) suggest that the path through Mount Savage along MD 36 was an early nineteenth century version of the trail and that the path originally passed to the north of the town where the Anderson Family settled in the eighteenth century, crossing the mountain closer to the boundary with Pennsylvania (Dietle and McKenzie 2010-2011:4). Mile Lane may represent a portion of this path, although the full route does not appear to correspond to modern roads. Dietle and McKenzie (2010-2011:425) note that the Turkey Foot Path was not a single path, but rather a "maze" of routes that evolved over time leaving remnant road traces in the vicinity of the modern roads. The LCP generally follows the route of the Turkey Foot Path, although the LCP follows a more direct route across the Big Savage Mountain (Figures 47 and 48). The more meandering nature of the modern roads may reflect the limits of cart and vehicle travel in ascending slopes, requiring more switch-backs in the historic and modern era. In Pennsylvania, the Turkey Foot Trail is recorded as resource 2019RE17281.

5.4.3 Warrior Paths

A series of north-south trending paths have been documented in the western part of Maryland and described in records as "warrior paths". Marye (1943) suggests Iroquoian groups from the vicinity of New York, such as the Seneca, used the paths to pass through Maryland to confront the peoples to the south. Seventeenth century records from the Maryland House of Burgesses make reference to conflicts between Indigenous groups; for example, in 1696, the House expressed concern that war parties of "foreign Indians" passed on roads close to English settlements in Maryland on route to Virginia and the Carolinas (Maryland Archives, Vol. 20, P.356 as quoted in Marye 1943:6). It seems likely that the paths would have also facilitated trade. Two paths crossed the Potomac River at Cumberland, briefly following the Nemacolin and Turkey Foot paths to reach Cumberland (Hays Mill and Raystown). Three paths continued east from Cumberland before crossing the Potomac River at Oldtown (Bloody Run, Cumberland, and Cresaptown). Two paths crossed the Potomac River at Williamsport (Tuscarora and Virginia). Limited information exists for these trails that passed through Maryland, and each are introduced briefly below.

5.4.3.1 Warrior Path through Raystown

The Warrior Path through Raystown (Resource 2019RE19885 in Pennsylvania) entered Maryland along Ellerslie Road (MD 35) on the west side of Wills Creek. It ran along Ellerslie Road south to the intersection with the Turkey Foot Path to Cumberland. A 1762 Maryland property survey references an old Indian War road leading up the west side of Wills Creek (Dietle and McKenzie 2010-2011:2). This trail is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figure 50). The LCP closely follows this path (Figure 48).



**Figure 49. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Turkey Foot Path in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**



5.4.3.2 Hays Mill Path

Wallace (1952) notes a warrior path called Hays Mill Path running from Somerset, Pennsylvania, to Cumberland, Maryland. This path would have followed Barrelville Road (MD 47) south in a valley to the intersection with the Turkey Foot Path along Mount Savage Road (MD 36) to Cumberland. In Pennsylvania, the resource is recorded as 2019RE03321. By the end of the eighteenth century, Griffith et al.'s 1794 map shows this trail continuing south to the Potomac River at Georges Creek rather than turning to Cumberland (Figure 51). The LCP from Pennsylvania to the Turkey Foot Path closely follows the suspected path (Figure 52).

5.4.3.3 Cumberland Path

The Cumberland Path, Resource 2019RE13598 in Pennsylvania, entered Maryland along U.S. 220, following U.S. 220 south along a ridge below the mountain peaks before deviating from the highway to run through a valley, potentially following Mason Road. The Cumberland Path continued to Cumberland along the National Freeway, following a segment of the Warrior Path to Baltimore. The Cumberland Path is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figure 53). The LCP closely follows the suspected route of the Cumberland Path (Figure 48).

From Cumberland, the trails to Oldtown likely followed the Potomac River as shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figure 53). Portions of the paths may have been incorporated into the C&O Canal towpath when built by 1850. An alternative route places the trail from Cumberland to Oldtown to the north of the Potomac River and across a gap through Martin and Warrior mountains on Old Oldtown and Oldtown roads (MD 51). Oldtown was originally referred to in Maryland records as King Opossa's Town, named after the Shawnee chief (Calvert Papers as quoted in Marye 1943:10). The Shawnee left Opossa's Town in the 1720s, moving into Pennsylvania and eventually into Ohio. A member of General Braddock's expedition, Engineer Harry Gordon described Oldtown in 1755 thus, "There lives Colonel Cressop...This place is in the Track of Indian Warriours when going to War, either to noward or soward" (quoted in Marye 1943:11). From Oldtown, the paths would have crossed the Potomac River into West Virginia. The LCP suggests that the path along the Potomac River to Oldtown would have been most efficient (Figure 48).

5.4.3.4 Warrior Path through Bloody Run

Two Warrior paths ran from Pennsylvania to Oldtown via Cumberland. Wallace (1952) notes a warrior path running in a valley from Huntingdon, Pennsylvania, to Oldtown, Maryland (Warrior's Path through Bloody Run, Resource 2019RE10173 in Pennsylvania). The path entered Maryland on Valley Road and ran in the valley east of Haystack Mountain south to intersect Nemacolin's Path to Cumberland. The LCP closely follows the suspected route of this Warrior Path (Figure 48). This route does not appear on eighteenth century maps. From Cumberland, the path would have followed the same route as the Cumberland Path to reach Oldtown.

5.4.3.5 Warrior Path to Cresaptown

A warrior path ran south from Pennsylvania between Town Creek and Warrior Mountain. While Wallace (1952) suggests this path ran between Frankstown, Pennsylvania and Cresaptown, Maryland, it is likely the reference is to Oldtown, Colonel Cresap's home, rather than to the Maryland town that currently bears the name Cresaptown. The route may have followed Town Creek, Dry Ridge, and Bear Hill roads. Alternatively, the path may have run along the ridge at the base of Warrior Mountain (note no modern road follows this route). A path noted on the 1755 Fry and Jefferson map seems to represent this path (Figure 54), although it is not shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map. Various land records from the mid-eighteenth century reference a war path in the vicinity of Town Creek and Warrior or Flintstone Gap (Marye 1943:22-24); these references are difficult to assign to a specific location due to vague reference points that no longer exist. The LCP generally follows the suspected path route, although the modern roads are not as direct (Figure 55). This path is recorded as 2019RE13386 in Pennsylvania.

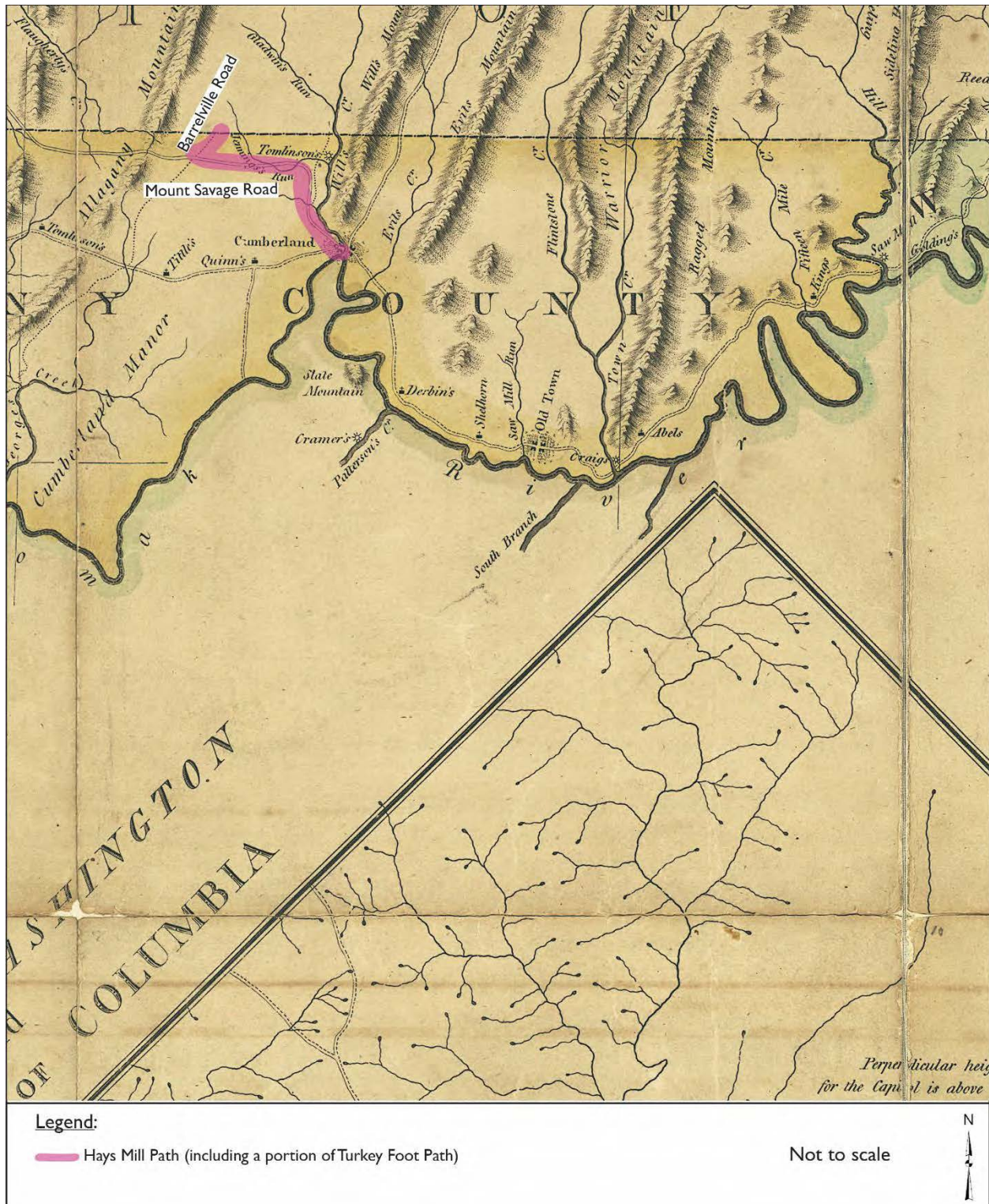


Figure 51. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Hays Mill Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

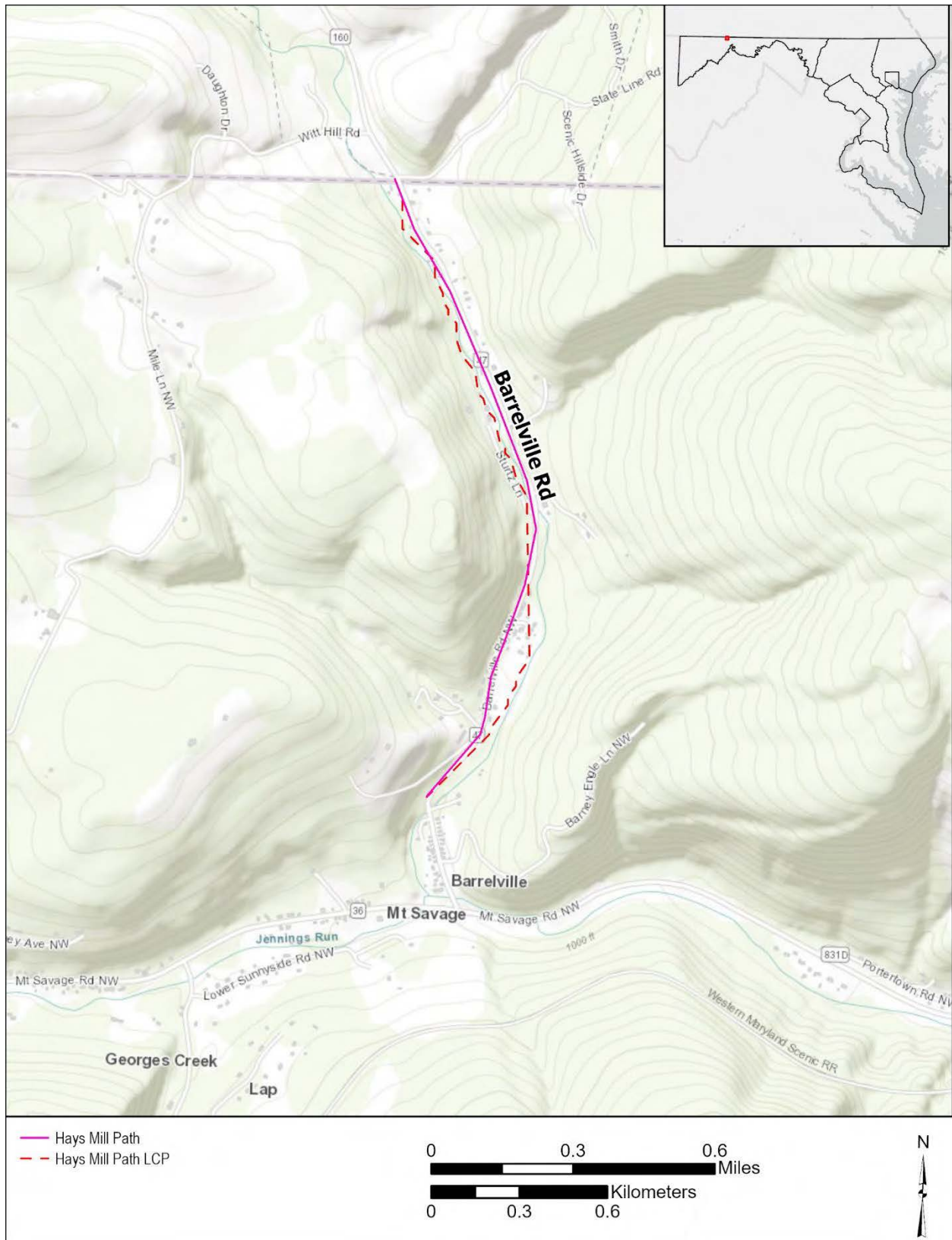
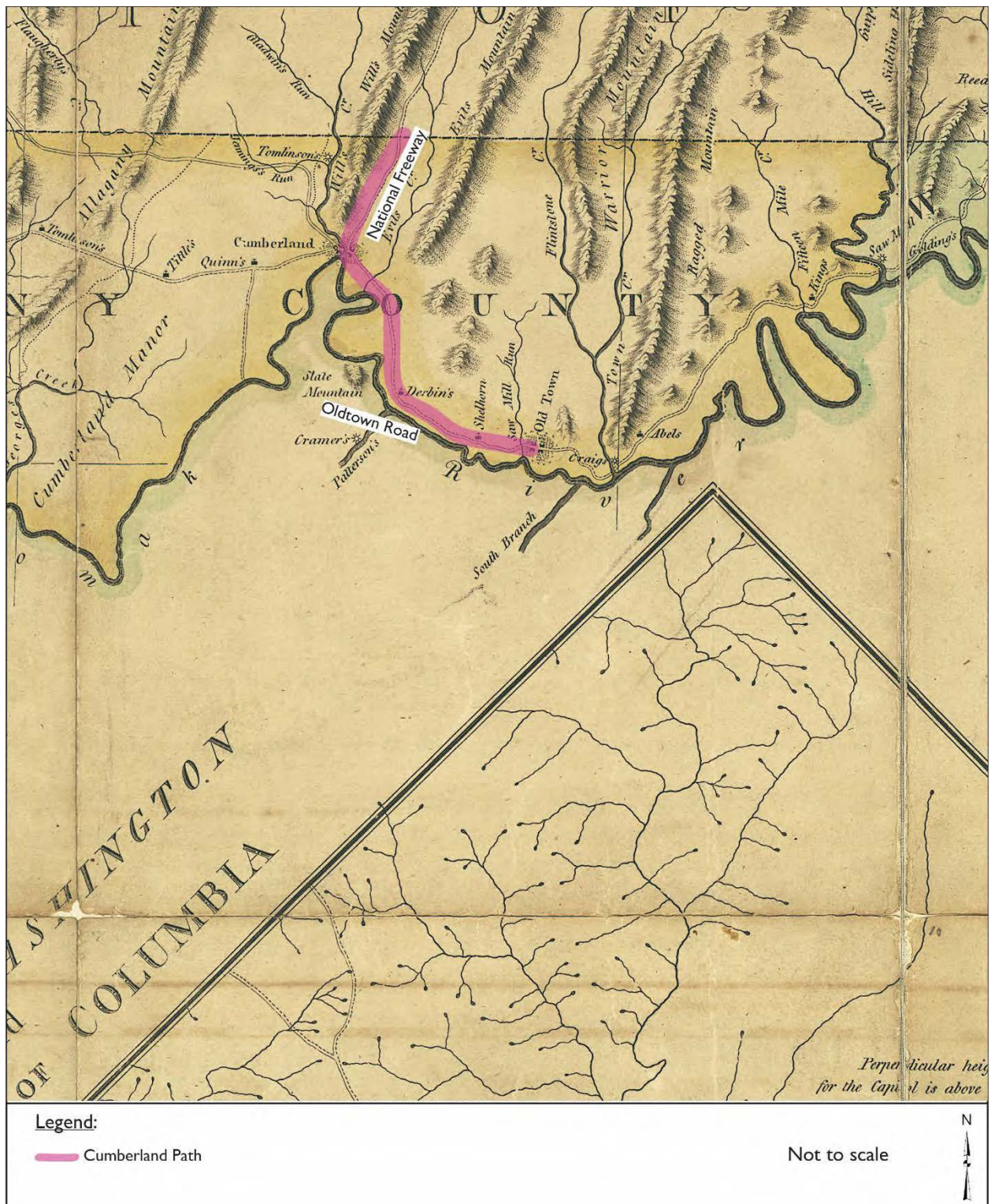
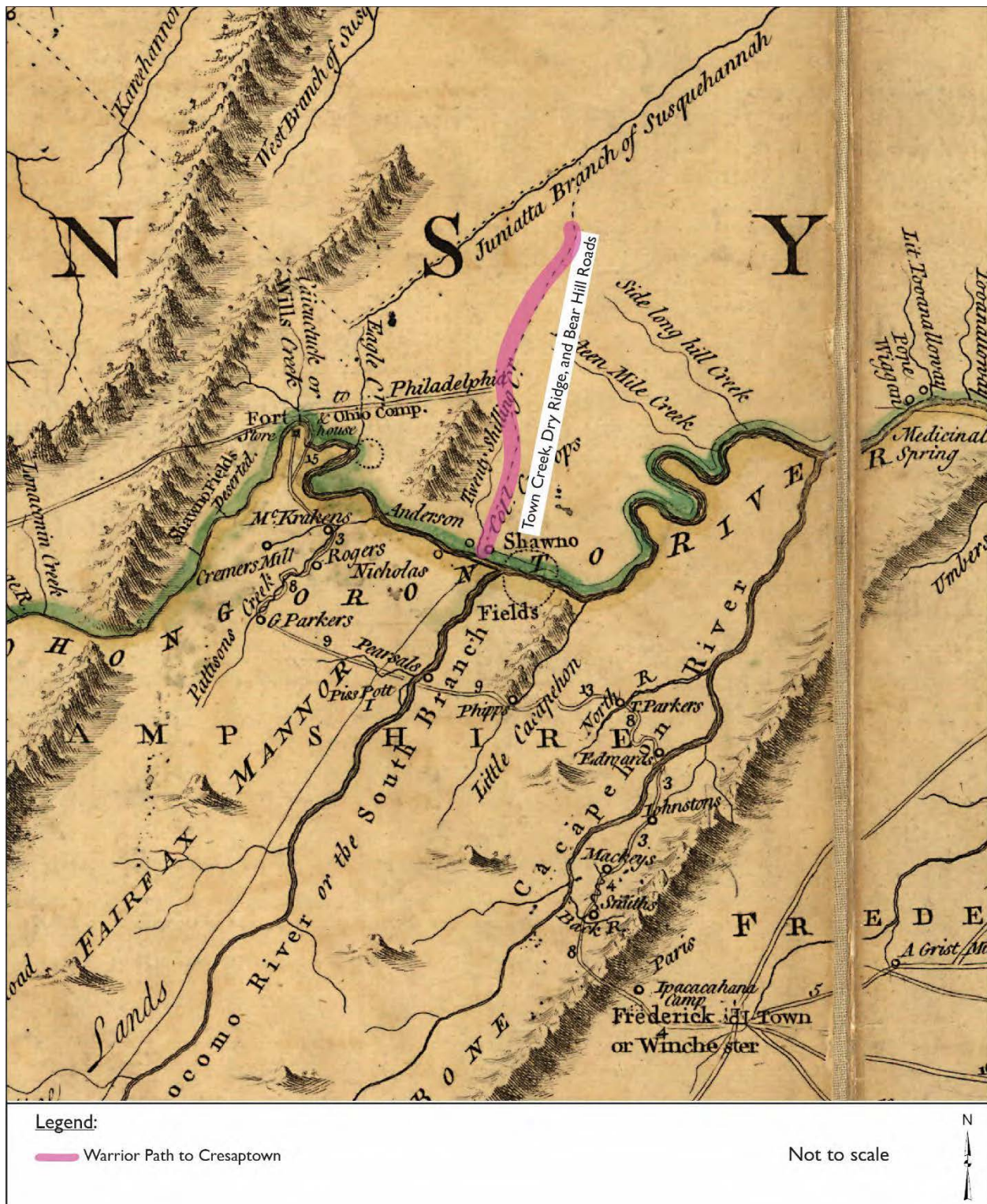


Figure 52. Map of Hays Mill Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



**Figure 53. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Cumberland Path in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale**



**Figure 54. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Warrior Path to Cresaptown in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**

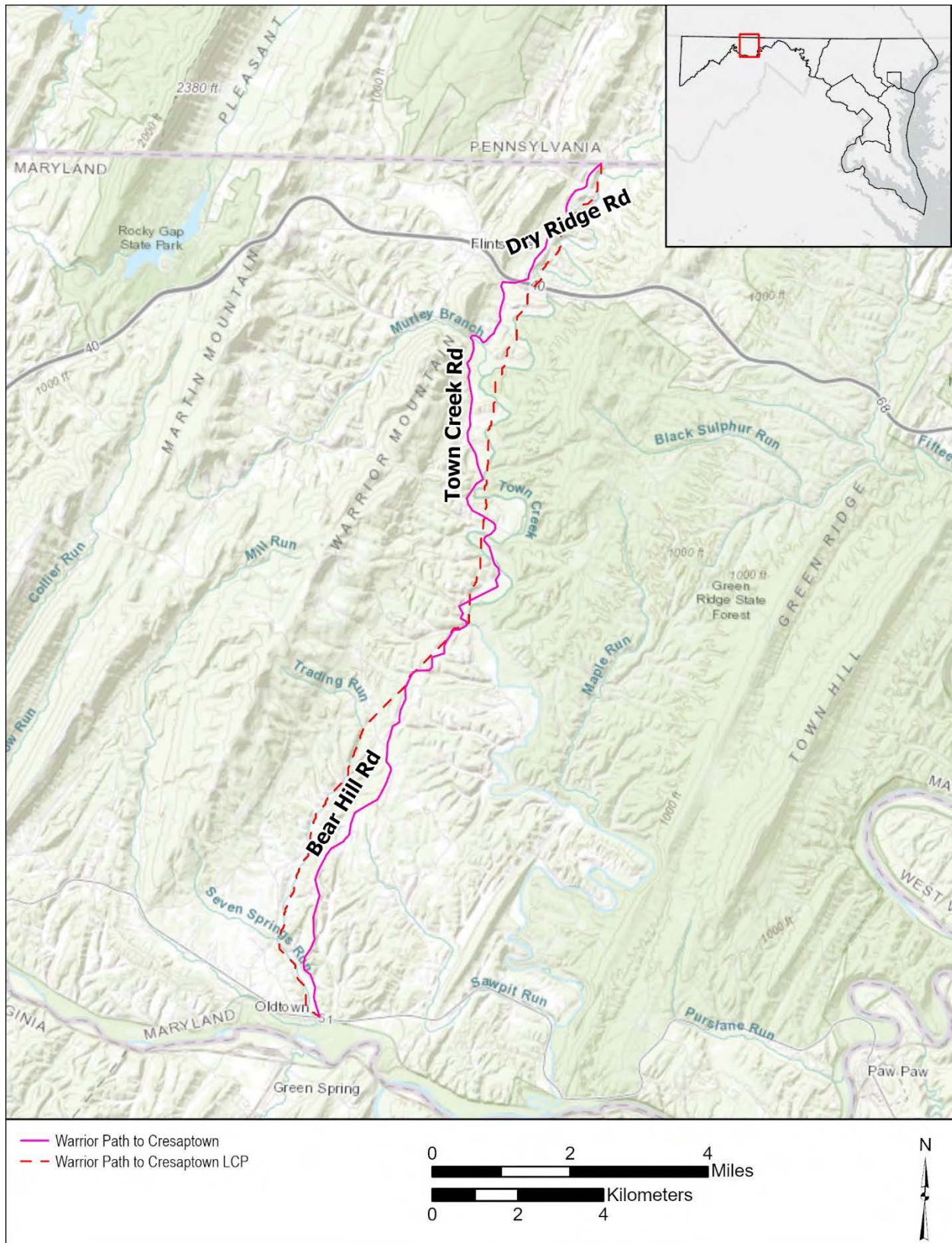


Figure 55. Map of the Warrior Path to Cresaptown and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.4.3.6 Virginia Path

What Wallace (1952) refers to as the Virginia Path ran from Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, through Williamsport, Maryland, to Winchester, Virginia. The route was later incorporated into the Williamsport Turnpike in the early nineteenth century. This Warrior Path generally follows Greencastle Pike (MD 63) and is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figure 56). The route deviates somewhat from the LCP, potentially reflecting nineteenth century changes to the route (Figure 57). Like other Warrior Paths, the Virginia Path was likely used primarily by Iroquoian Indians to reach areas to the south. In Pennsylvania, the path is documented as Resource 2019RE06606.

5.4.3.7 Tuscarora Path

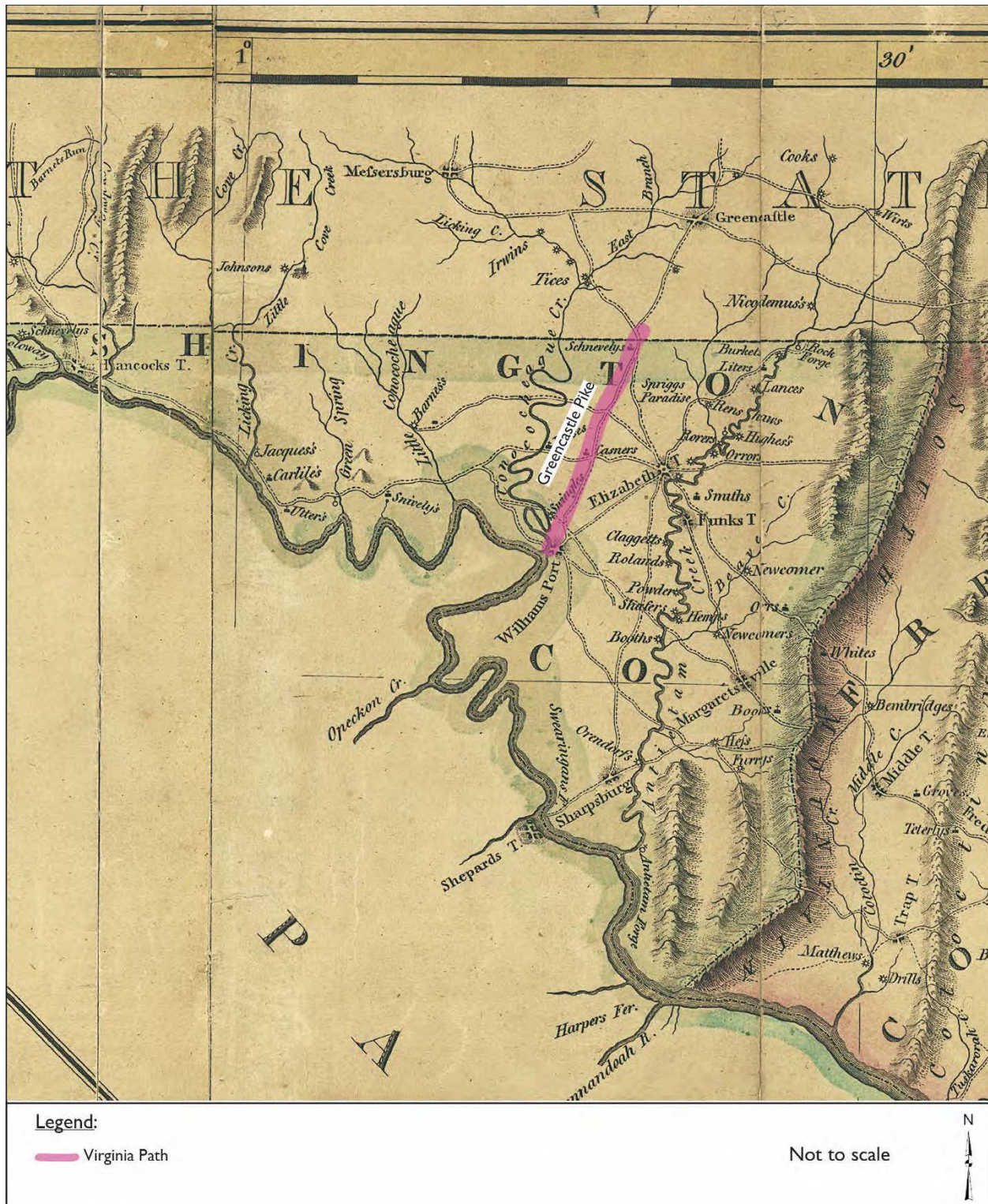
The Tuscarora Path ran between Sunbury, Pennsylvania, and North Carolina. Wallace (1952) indicates the Tuscarora Path crossed into Pennsylvania at the foot of Kasies Knob along Fairview Road (MD 494) and St. Paul Road (MD 57). The trail then turned east possibly along Clear Spring Road (MD 68) to Williamsport before crossing the Potomac River. Griffith et al.'s 1794 map shows a portion of the Tuscarora Path that follows MD 68, but not the northern part. The Tuscarora Path is documented as Resource 2019RE06617 in Pennsylvania. As the name suggests, the path was likely used by Iroquoian raiders. The route deviates somewhat from the LCP, potentially reflecting nineteenth century changes (Figure 58).

5.4.4 Warrior Path to Baltimore

The Warrior Path to Baltimore extended from the Allegany mountains east across the state to the Patapsco River. While described as a "warrior path" (Thomas and Williams 1923), the long east-west route would more likely have facilitated trade and communication between western and eastern tribes. Portions of this path are more well-documented than others across the state, but the path appears to have become the National Road (Alt US 40). While the exact route of the Baltimore Pike/National Pike was adjusted in the early nineteenth century turnpike era, much of the route appears to have had its origin in Indigenous paths. The portion of the path between Hagerstown on the west and Baltimore on the east is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map (Figures 59 and 60).

In the History of Allegany County, the authors suggest a warrior path crossed Warrior's Mountain via Flintstone Gap to the north of Oldtown, near where the Baltimore Pike/National Pike (MD 144/US 40) now passes (Thomas and Williams 1923). This seems to be confirmed on the 1751 map showing Nemaquin's Path, which reportedly ended at Cumberland, extending east as the "Road to Philadelphia".

The western third of the path from Cumberland on the west to Hancock on the east is not shown on eighteenth century maps. A path is shown on maps from the early nineteenth century onward (Burr 1835; Figure 61), and based on the locations of the stream crossings, the path appears to have followed a series of modern minor roads parallel to the National Pike. From Hancock, the path followed Western Pike (MD 144) to Sidling Hill, where the path left the turnpike route and traveled south on Riser Road. The path crossed Sideling Hill Creek and continued onto Harry Norris Road where it turned north to Price Road, west to Orleans Road, and north to connect back to the National Pike to Pratt Hollow. Construction of the modern I68 interchange in Pratt Hollow appears to have interrupted the historic road system, and for a span, the suspected path does not follow modern roads. The path realigns with existing roads on Picnic Road west to Old Williams Road and then Williams Road across Flintstone Creek and Evits Mountain to Cumberland. The LCP largely follows the western portion of the path, but deviates in the vicinity of the towns, including Hagerstown, suggesting the path was rerouted to the historic town after no longer in use by Native Americans (Figures 62 and 63). The western end of the LCP follows the route of the National Road (MD 144) despite this route not appearing on maps before the mid-nineteenth century (Figure 64).



**Figure 56. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Virginia Path to Cresaptown in Pink (Fry and Jefferson 1755).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.**



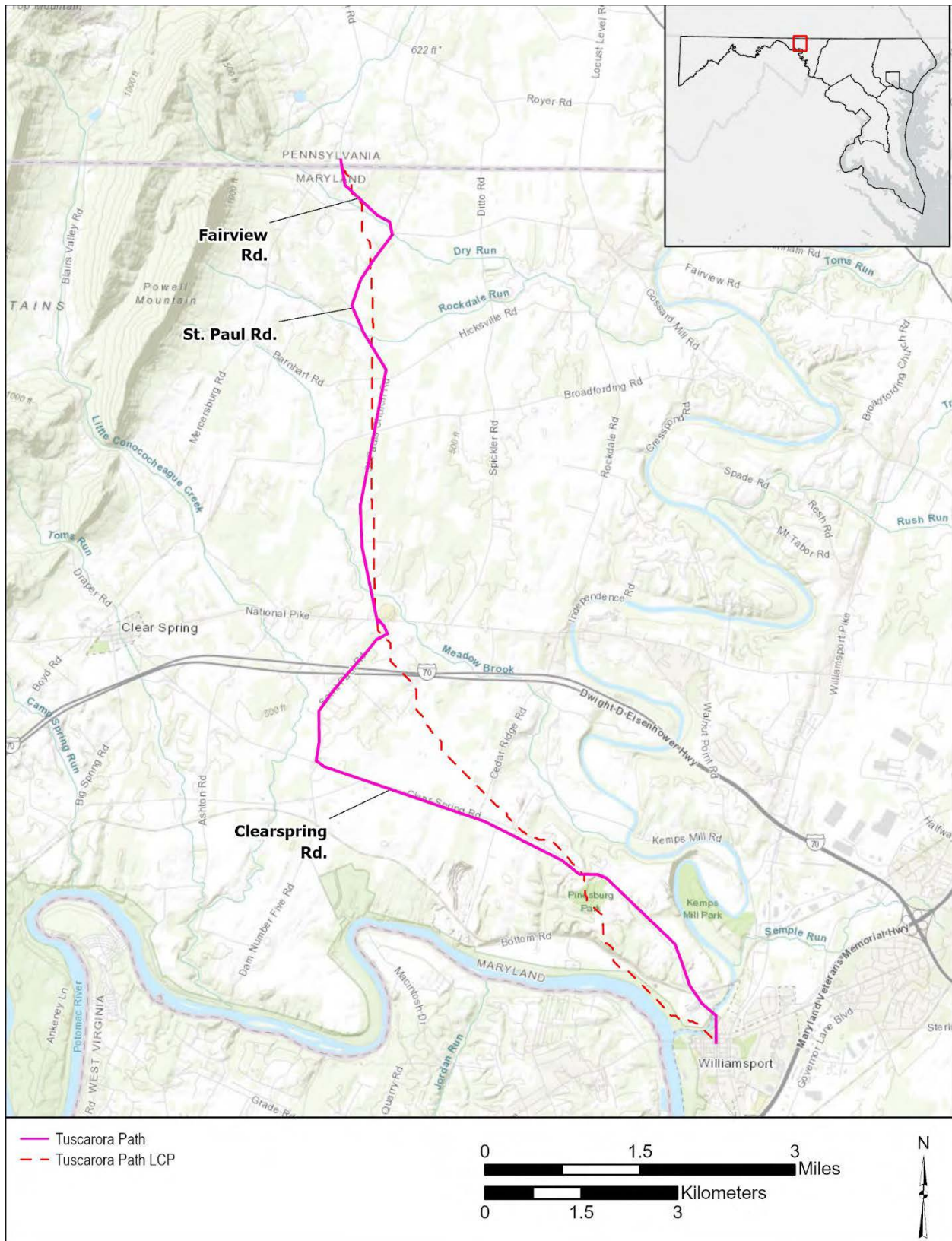


Figure 58. Map of the Tuscarora Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

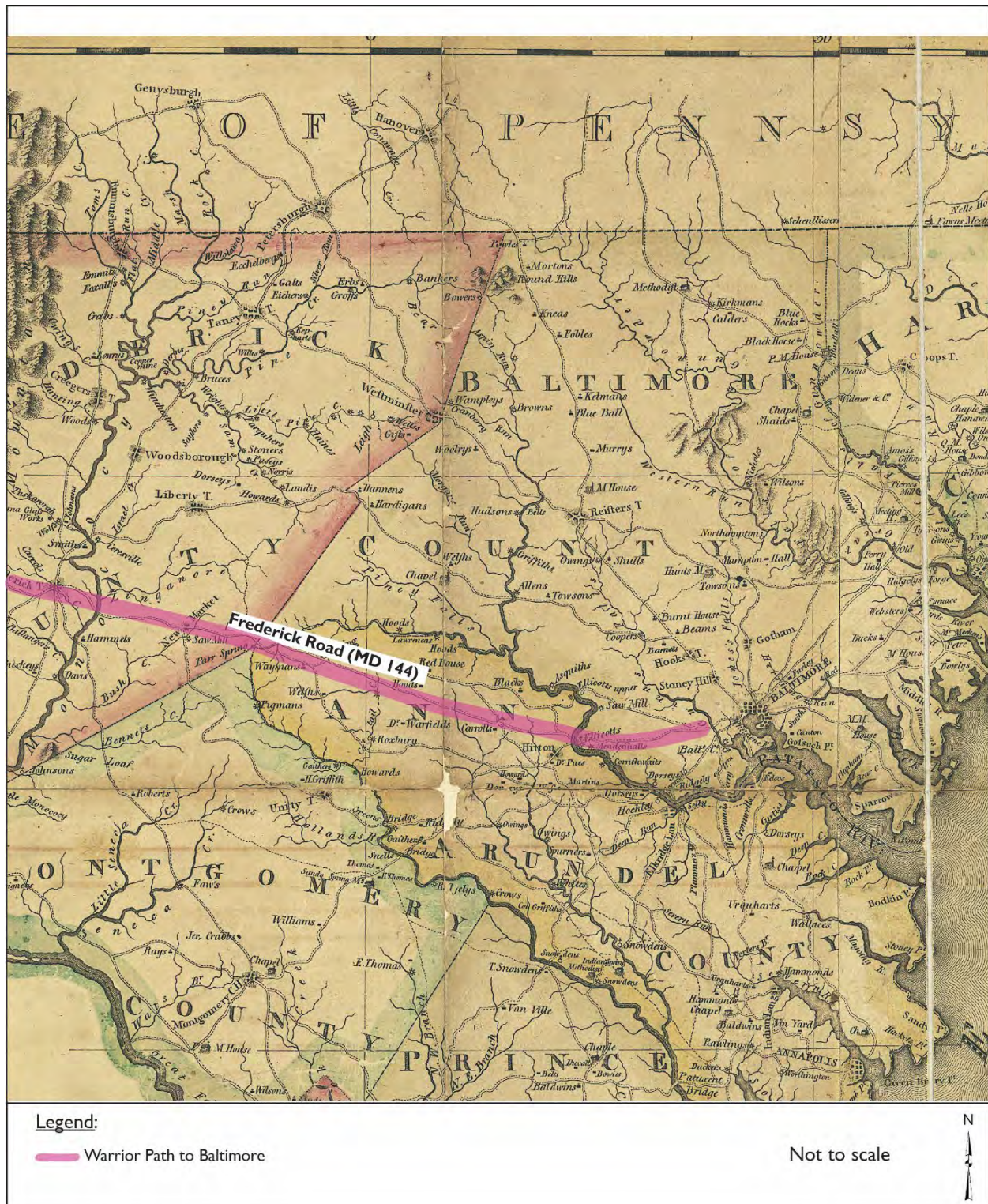


Figure 59. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Warrior Path to Baltimore (east third) in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

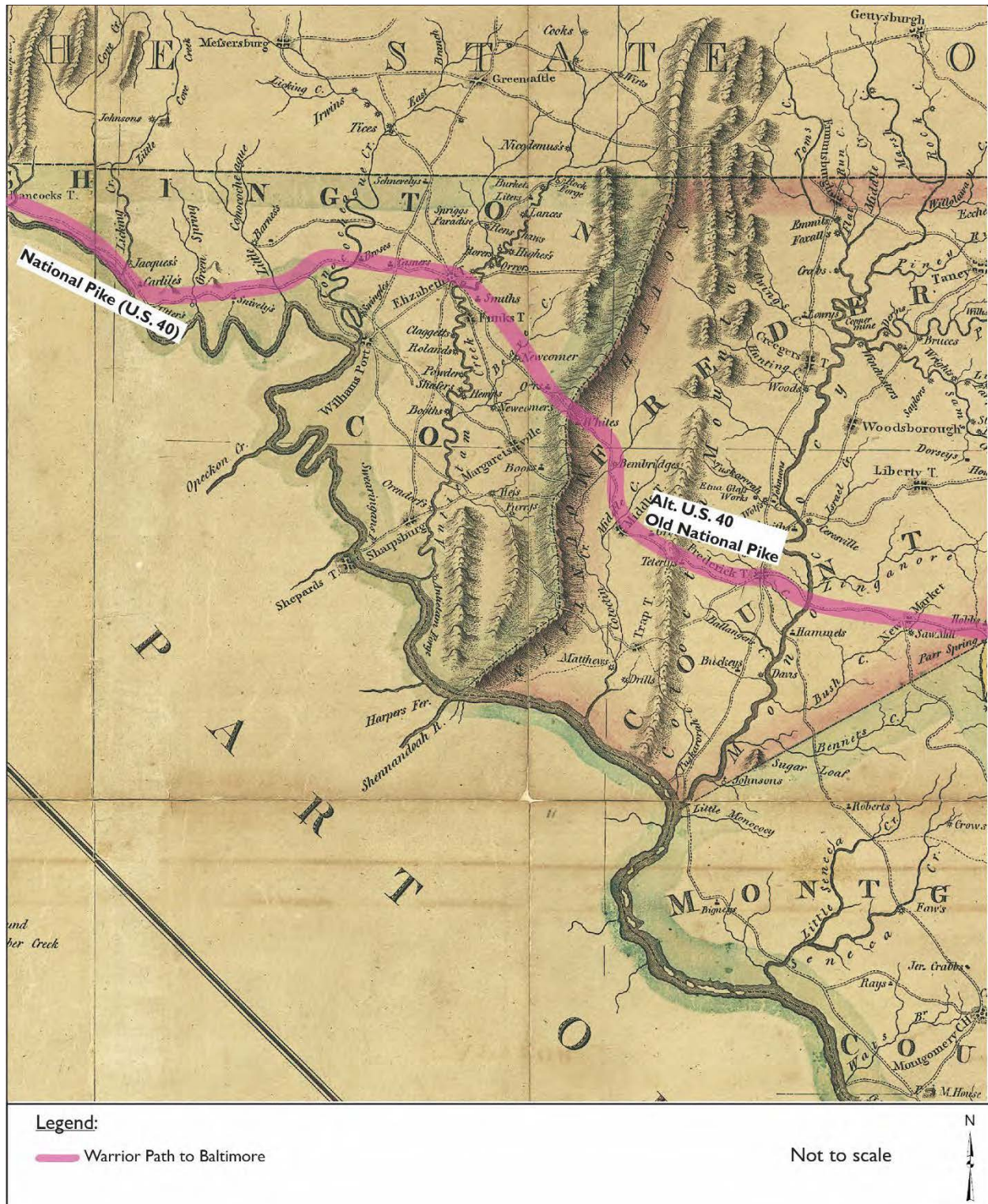


Figure 60. 1794 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of the Warrior Path to Baltimore (central third) in Pink (Griffith et al. 1794). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

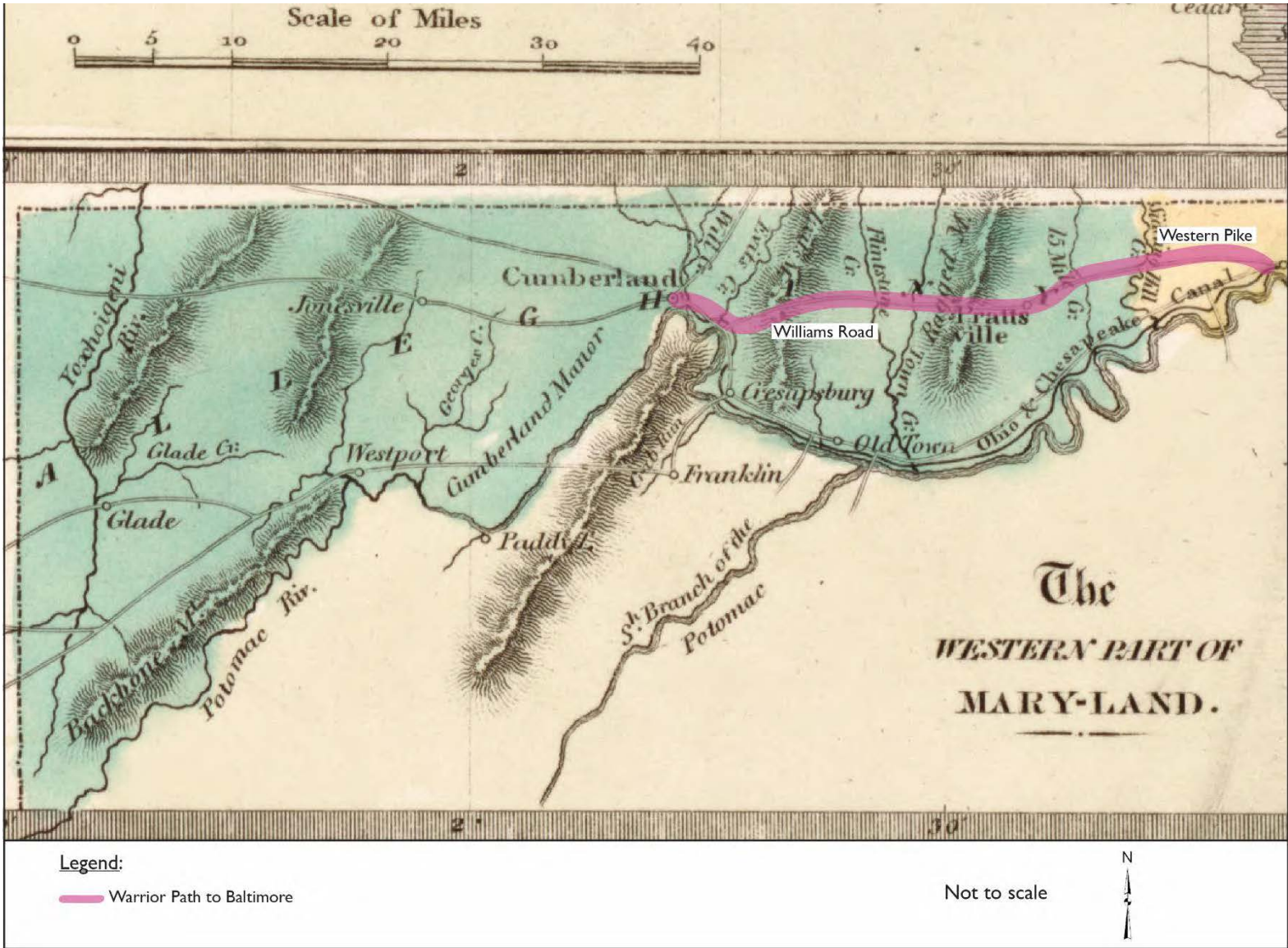


Figure 61. 1835 Map of Delaware and Maryland with the Potential Route of the Warrior Path to Baltimore (eastern third) in Pink (Burr 1835). Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Scale as shown.

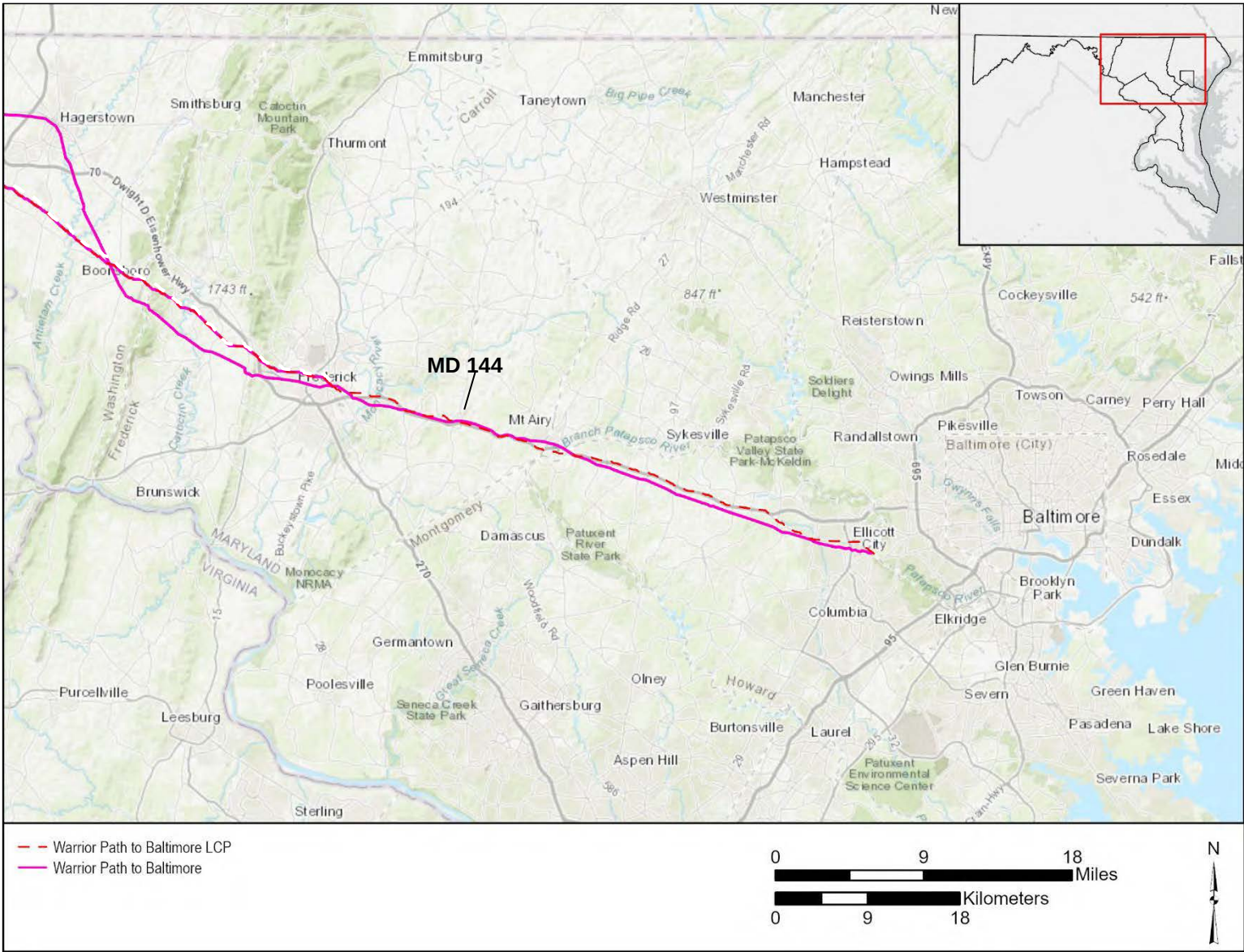


Figure 62. Map of the East End of the Warrior Path to Baltimore and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads (Esri 2022)

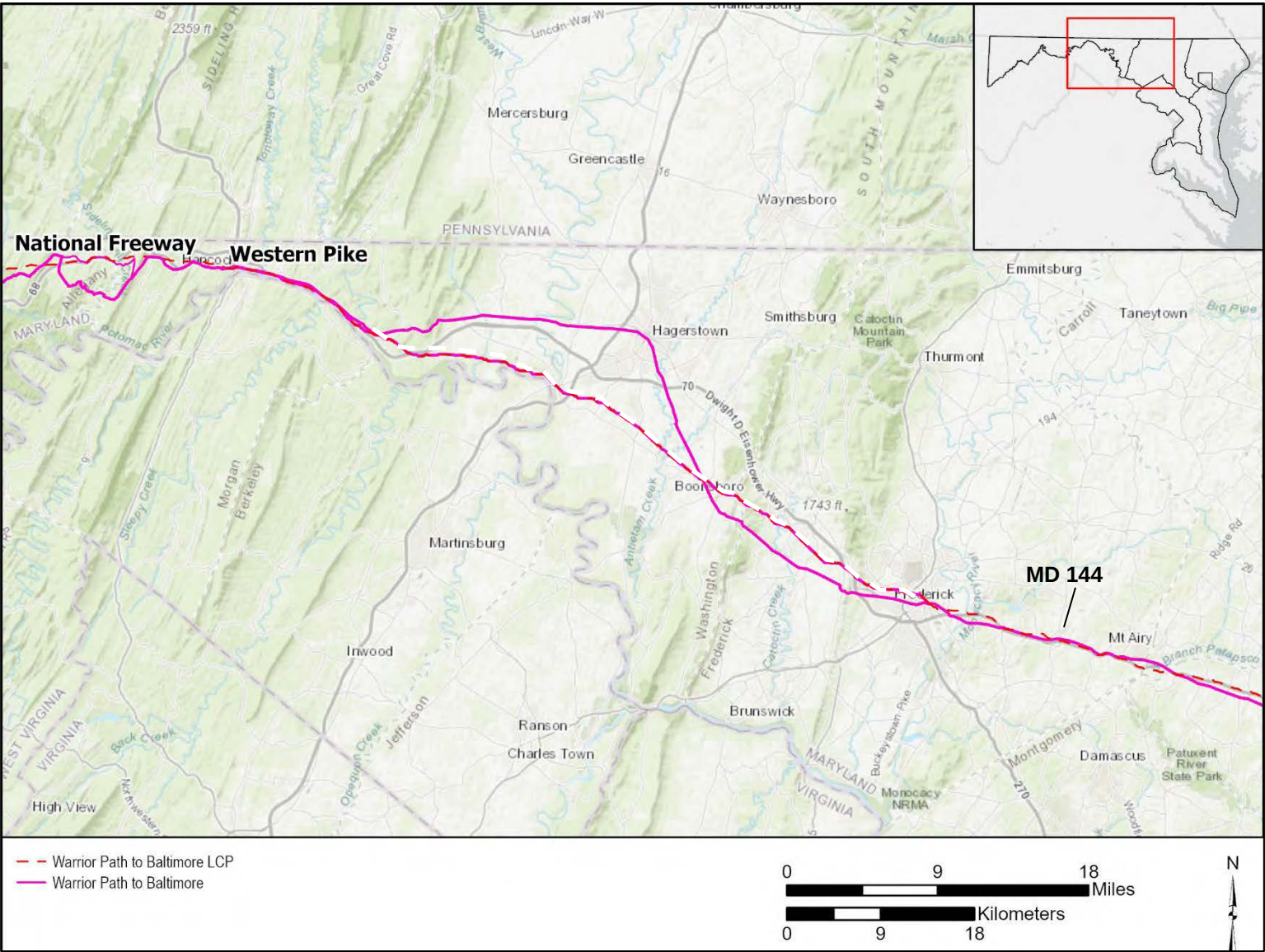


Figure 63. Map of the Central Section of the Warrior Path to Baltimore and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022)

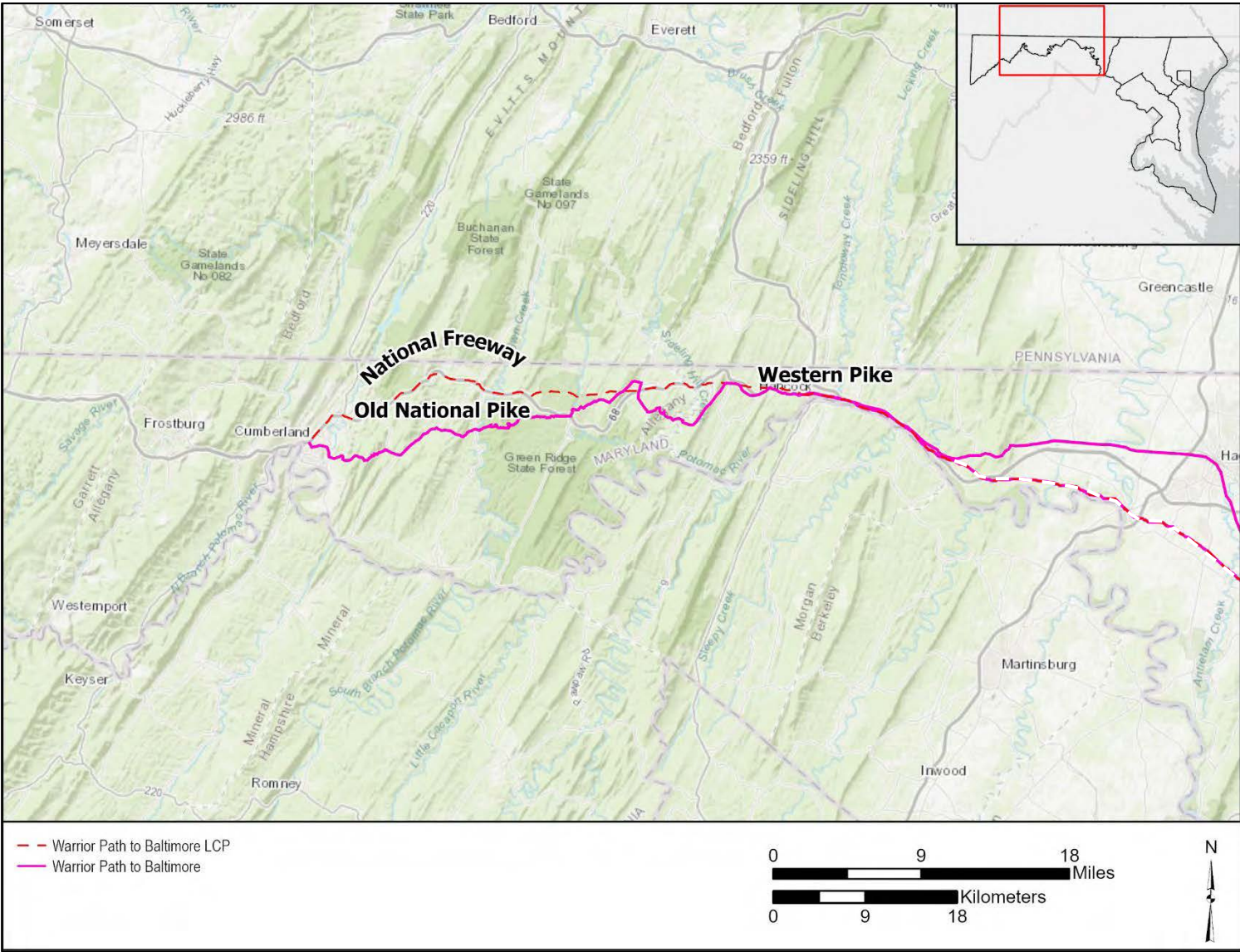


Figure 64. Map of the West End of the Warrior Path to Baltimore and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022)

5.4.5 Warm Springs Path

Wallace (1952) indicates that the Warm Springs path ran from Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, to Berkeley Springs, West Virginia, although the route taken between these points is not clear and it is possible that the path instead terminated at other Maryland springs, such as documented springs within present-day Big Spring or Clear Spring (Otton 1985). At a minimum, Blairs Valley Road would have originated as part of the trail, and possibly Big Spring Road. If the path did lead to Berkeley Springs, from Clear Spring, the path may have turned west along what is now Alt. 40, the National Road to Hancock, before turning south and crossing the Potomac River. The LCP between Pennsylvania and either Clear Spring or Berkeley Springs would have crossed the mountains south of where the modern road currently crosses (Figure 65). This path is not shown on eighteenth century maps. In Pennsylvania, the Warm Springs path is recorded as resource 2019RE03397.

5.4.6 Seneca Trail (U.S. 11)

Multiple paths in Maryland are referred to as Seneca Trails, reflecting their use by Seneca Indians moving south into and through Maryland in the sixteenth century. This Seneca Trail roughly follows U.S. 11 in Maryland. This north-south trail ran from Chambersburg, Pennsylvania to Hagerstown, Maryland, before intersecting the Virginia and Tuscarora paths and crossing the Potomac River into West Virginia where Williams Ferry would be located (now Williamsport). The trail facilitated trade, communication, and potentially conflict between northern and southern Indigenous groups. Seneca Trail appears as an unnamed trail on Mason and Dixon's 1768 map on the east side of the Conocochea Creek. The path is noted as the Great Wagon Road to Philadelphia on Fry and Jefferson's 1755 map (Figure 66). The LCP generally follows present day U.S. 11, deviating for a time on the south side of Hagerstown (Figure 67).

5.4.7 Seneca Trail

A second Seneca Trail is noted in the southwest corner of Maryland. This Seneca Trail roughly follows Garrett Highway (U.S. 219) from Oakland, Maryland, south through West Virginia to Princeton on the border with Virginia. The path is shown on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map of Maryland extending south from the intersection with Glades Path. The eighteenth-century maps do not show the path continuing to the north, although Schlosnagle (1997) suggests the path extended to New York, continuing along U.S. 219. During the French and Indian War, in 1763, King George III issued a proclamation forbidding settlement beyond the Allegheny Mountains along a line roughly following the Seneca Trail. The LCP follows the route of the Seneca trail from the intersection with West Virginia to the possible intersection with the Northwestern Trail (U.S. 50) (Figure 68). From this intersection, the LCP deviates from the current route of Garrett Highway. In the 1920s, West Virginia historian Hu Maxwell noted the presence of road traces related to the original route in the vicinity of the modern U.S. 219 (Maxwell 1954). It is possible that the original route more closely followed the LCP and that road traces may be present in this area.

5.4.8 Glades Path

The Glades Path connected the Ohio and Potomac watersheds and facilitated interaction and trade between the western tribes. The trail appears on Griffith et al.'s 1794 map of Maryland extending from the confluence of the Savage and Potomac rivers to the intersection with the Seneca Trail to the south where Oakland would eventually be settled (Figure 69). The path continued west to the Cheat River in the vicinity of Dunkard Bottom, West Virginia. It roughly follows what are now Hutton Road (MD 39) and Maryland Highway (MD 135). The LCP follows the suspected route along the Maryland Highway portion of the path but deviates from Hutton Road to follow a more direct route (Figure 70).

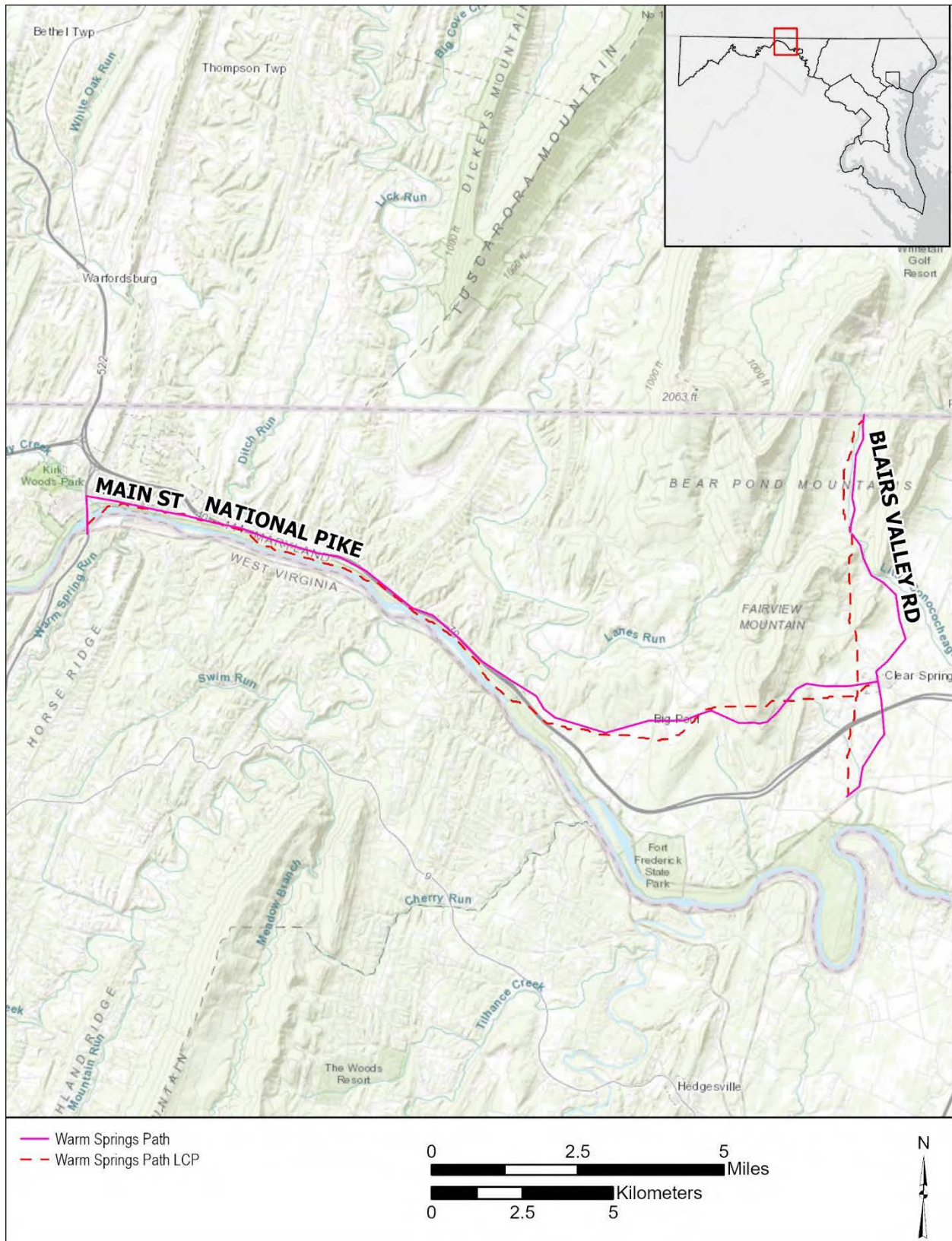


Figure 65. Map of the Warm Spring Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



Figure 66. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of Seneca Trail (U.S. 11) (Fry and Jefferson 1755).
Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

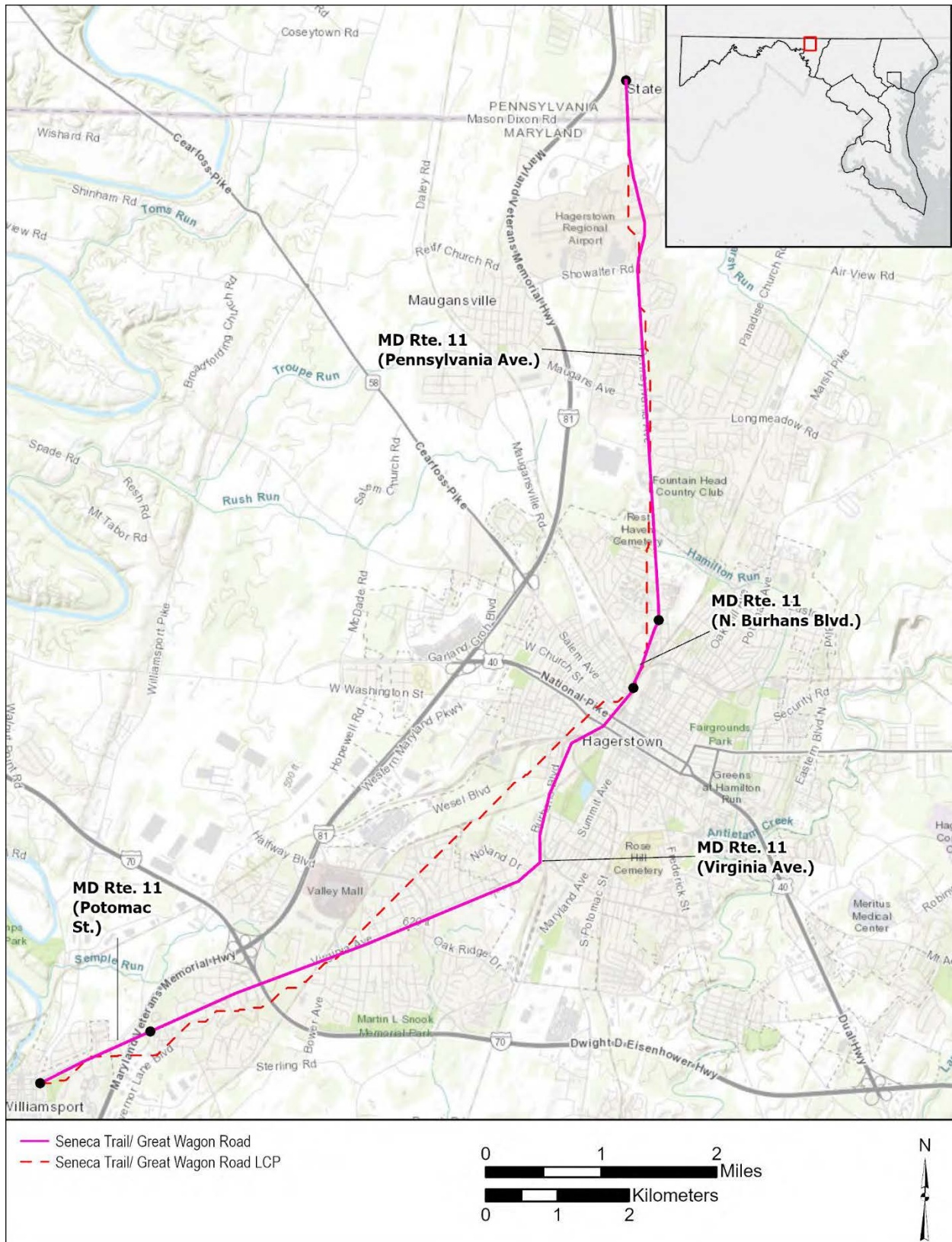


Figure 67. Map of Seneca Trail (U.S. 11) and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).



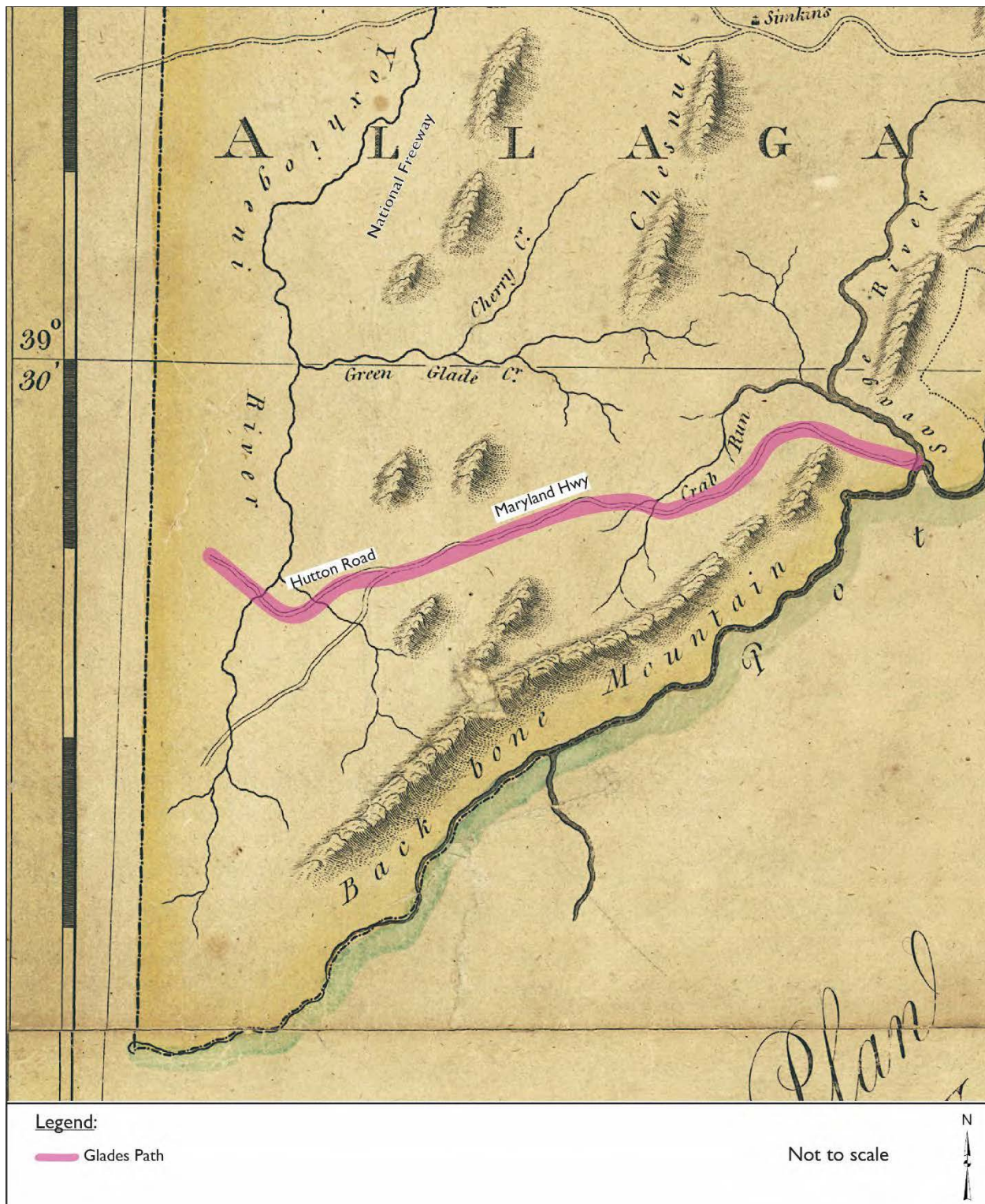


Figure 69. 1755 Map of the State of Maryland with the Potential Route of Glades Path (Fry and Jefferson 1755).

Modern roadways that possibly correspond with the trail are labeled. Not to scale.

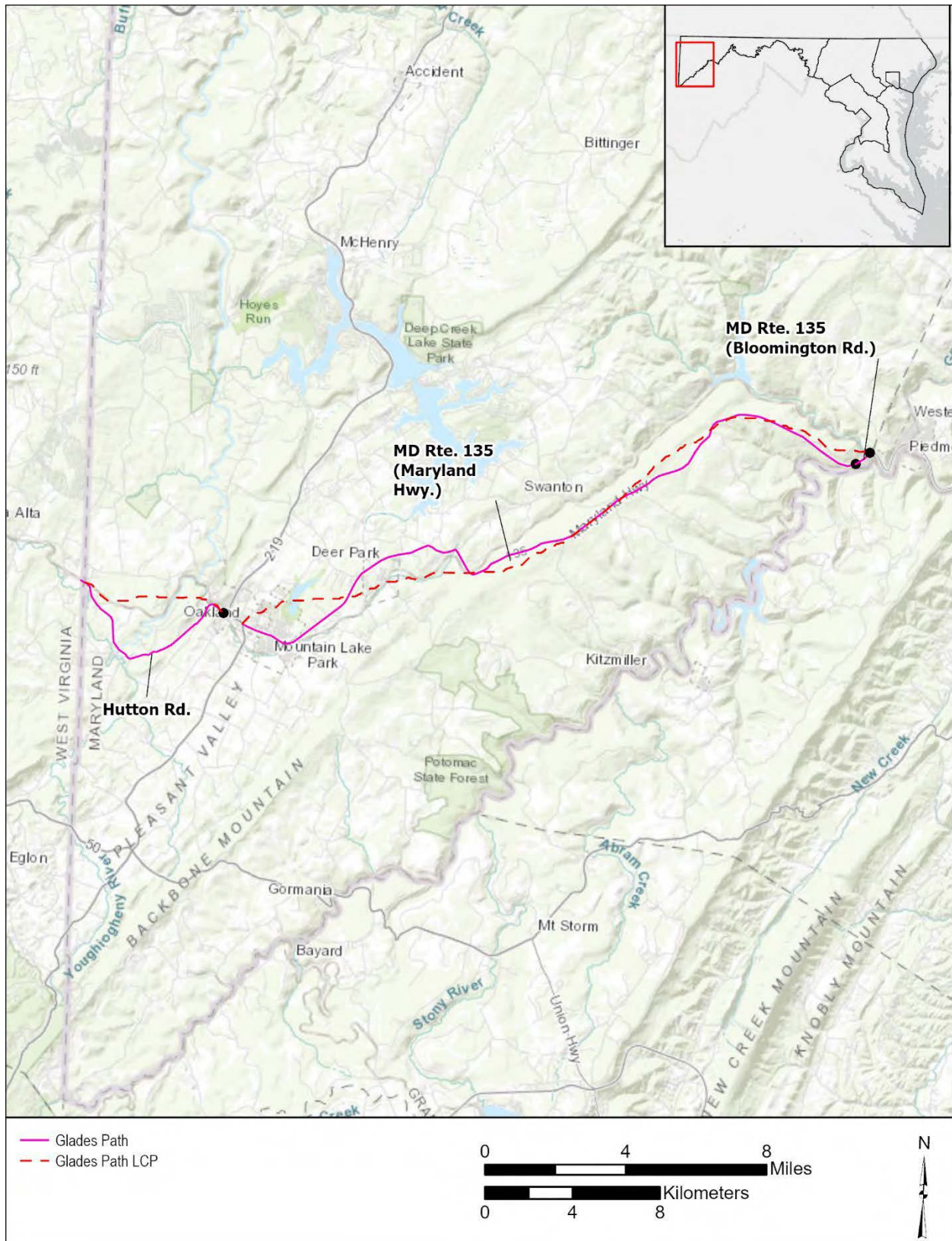


Figure 70. Map of the Glades Path and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

5.4.9 Northwestern Trail

Like Glades Path, the Northwestern Trail connected the Potomac and Ohio river valleys. In Maryland, the path ran from the Potomac River near the confluence with Nydegger Run to the Cheat River at Rowlesburg, West Virginia (Schlosnagle 1997:31). The general route was incorporated into the Northwestern Turnpike/ George Washington Highway (US 50) in the early nineteenth century. The LCP follows the suspected path from the Potomac River for about a quarter of the route in Maryland and crosses Backbone Mountain at the location where U.S. 50 crosses the mountain (Figure 71). Otherwise, the LCP deviates from the highway. The Northwestern Trail does not appear on eighteenth century maps.

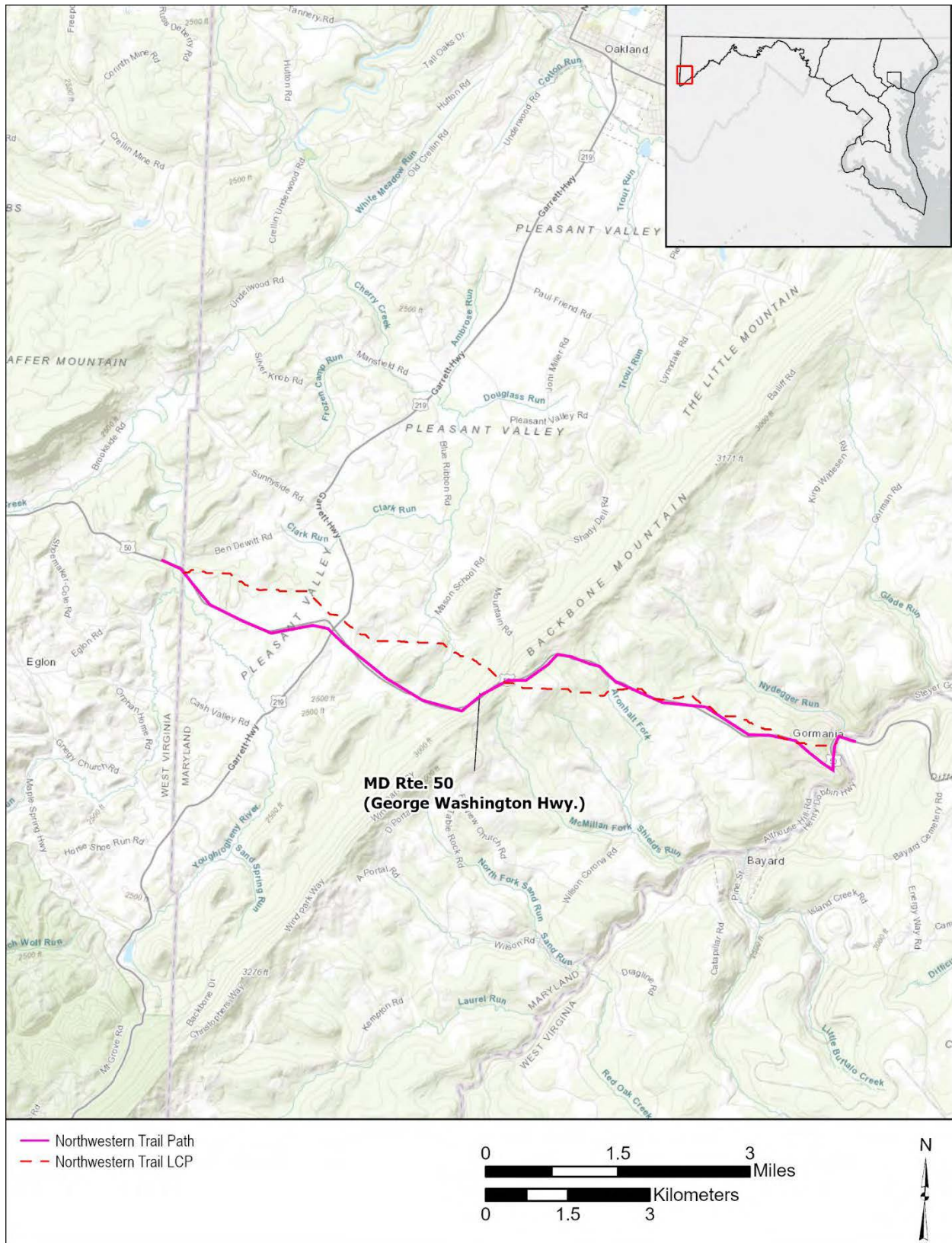


Figure 71. Map of the Northwestern Trail and its Estimated LCP over Modern Roads and a Topographic Basemap (Esri 2022).

6. SUMMARY

6.1 SUMMARY

The research conducted for this project resulted in the identification of 35 routes in Maryland with likely origins as Native American paths. Table 1 presents a summary of the paths discussed in this document, and Figure 72 shows an overview map of Maryland with all the identified indigenous paths. The PA Share resource numbers are included where applicable to ensure continuity across state lines. The paths were used by various Algonquin and Iroquoian tribes to reach resources, expand trade networks, facilitate communication, and to facilitate war. Identified paths have been recorded in GIS. The data may also assist in the evaluation of identified resources. The results of this research are not intended to be the final determination of the origins of modern roads, but to present the data as currently known. It is assumed that as additional research takes place, the GIS map data may be refined, updated, and expanded.

Table 1. Summary of Identified Paths

Name	Modern Roads	Estimated End Points	PA-SHARE #
Choptank Road/ Delaware Path	Old Telegraph Road, Portions of Maryland Route 299, Route 313, and Route 16	New Castle, Delaware, to Cabin Creek/ head of the Transquaking River in Maryland	
Saint Jones Path	MD 480	Skipton Creek in Maryland to Saint Jones River in the general area of Tidbury Creek in Delaware	
Wicomiss/ Whorekill Path	None known	Head of the Sassafras River in Maryland to Cape Henlopen on Delaware Bay	
Choptank-Nanticoke Trail	Portions of U.S. 50, or possibly segments of Maryland Route 16, Route 14, and Route 331	Modern town of Cambridge on the Choptank River to present-day Vienna on the Nanticoke River	
Locust Neck-Jordan's Point Trail	Maryland Route 343 and Hills Point Road	Modern town of Cambridge to Hill's Point	
Trail Near the Seaboard	Portions of U.S. 113 and Delaware Route 24	Vicinity of Brockatonorton Bay and near area of Snow Hill in Maryland to Lewes, Delaware	
Parahocon-Tundotank Trail	Portions of Meadow Bridge Road	Headwaters area of Dividing Creek to modern town of Salisbury	
Old Court Road	Old Court Road (MD 125/123)	Woodstock to Pikesville	
Baltimore to Philadelphia	Philadelphia Road (MD 7) and US 40	Baltimore to Philadelphia	
Nanticoke Path	MD 272, MD 7, US 40	Philadelphia to Calvert County	2019RE13937

Name	Modern Roads	Estimated End Points	PA-SHARE #
Port Tobacco Path	US 301, MD 6, Old Indian Head Road, Turnips Hill Road, Old Crain Highway, Queen Anne Road, Patuxent River Road, Queen Anne Bridge Road, MD 214	Port Tobacco to Londontowne and Annapolis	
Mattapany Path	Mattapany Road	St. Mary's City to Patuxent River	
Three Notch Road	MD 235, MD 5, MD 228	Point Lookout to Piscataway Creek	
Chaptico Indian Path	MD 238 and MD 242	St. Clement's Island to Chaptico	
St. Leonard Road	MD 765, MD 2/4	Solomon's Island to Londontowne	
Point of Rocks Path	MD 28	Potomac River to Rockville, MD	
Whites Ferry Road	MD 107 and MD 28	Potomac River to Rockville, MD	
Great Road	MD 355	Georgetown to Rockville	
Monocacy Path to Frederick	MD 194	Wrightsville, PA to Frederick	
Blue Ridge to Chesapeake	MD 26	Frederick to Washington, DC	
Nemacolin's Path	Alt. 40	Cumberland to Fort Necessity	2019RE23610
Turkey Foot Path	Alt. 40, MD 36, Blank Road, Tower Road, Mile Lane	Cumberland to Confluence, PA	2019RE17281
Warm Springs Path	Blairs Valley Road, poss. Big Spring Road; Alt. 40	Mercersburg, PA, to Berkeley Springs, WV, OR to Big Springs	2019RE03397
Cumberland Path	US. 220, Mason Road, MD 51	Bedford, PA to Cumberland and Oldtown, MD	2019RE13598
Warrior Path through Bloody Run	Valley Road, MD 51	Huntingdon, PA to Cumberland and Oldtown, MD	2019RE10173
Warrior Path through Raystown	MD 35	Frankstown, PA to Cumberland, MD	2019RE19885
Hays Mill Path	MD 47	Somerset, PA to Cumberland	2019RE03321
Warrior Path to Cresaptown	Town Creek, Dry Ridge, and Bear Hill	Frankstown, PA to Oldtown	2019RE13386
Warrior Path to Baltimore	MD 144/40 Riser Road, Harry Norris Road, Price Road, Orleans Road, Old Williams Road, Williams Road	Warrior's Mountain to Baltimore	
Virginia Path	MD 63	Harrisburg, PA to Winchester, VA	2019RE06606
Tuscarora Path	MD 494 and MD 57, MD 68	North Carolina and Sunbury, PA	2019RE06617
Seneca Trail/ Great Wagon Road	US 11	Chambersburg, PA to Hagerstown, MD and south	
Seneca Trail	US 219	Oakland, MD to Princeton, WV	
Glades Path	MD 135 and MD 39	Savage Rier to Cheat River	
Northwestern Trail	US 50	Potomac River to Cheat River	

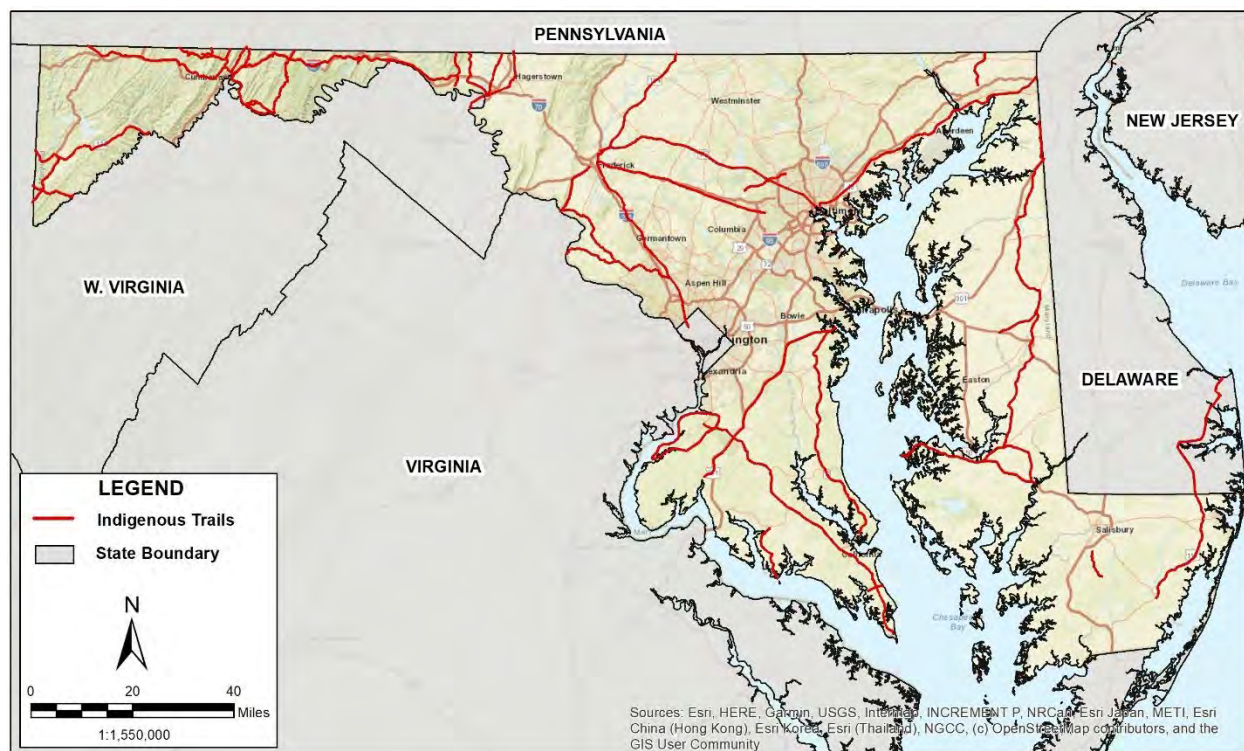


Figure 72. Overview of All Identified Indigenous Trails Within the State of Maryland.

Paths appear to have been more numerous in areas where significant waterways were limited and in contested areas with more unstable settlement where groups were moving into and through new areas (e.g., western Maryland contained more paths than the Western and Eastern Shore of Maryland). Settlement changes immediately before and after European colonization appear to have led to the increased use of overland routes; it is possible, however, that the visibility of earlier paths is obscured.

The paths generally followed convenient routes based on the fact that most Least-Cost Paths did not deviate significantly from the suspected routes. Paths made use of mountain passes, long ridges, natural fords, and avoided excessive stream crossings. Deviations of modern roads from the LCP provides information about historical (or modern) changes that affected the final route of paths, although intentional deviation to reach resources is also a possibility.

One of the goals of the project was to relate Native American trails to well-known habitation sites. This proved to be somewhat difficult due to the limitations of the data available. The knowledge of village site locations is limited to areas where archaeological investigations have taken place and sites retain integrity. Archaeological and ethnographic data is not available uniformly across the state. In addition, the routes of Native American trails were often inferred from historic maps produced after colonization. While the early roads that began as Indigenous trails generally followed the routes Native Americans used, the historic roads typically ended at Euroamerican settlements. Late Woodland and Contact period sites have been documented in the vicinity of the paths, including near the historic towns at the path endpoints, but the routes specifically to the Native American settlements are not known because the routes that remained in use after colonization were the ones documented on historic maps. Still, the presence of Late Woodland and Contact period sites identified in the vicinity of the paths suggests examining site locations may contribute to identification of roads that originated as Native American trails. In the same way, knowledge of potential Native American trails may contribute to identifying village and contact period sites.

Several paths were identified based on local oral tradition regarding the history of a road or area as presented in twentieth century local and county histories. In many cases modern roads retain names suggestive of their use, which provided confirmation of their identification as the routes described in early twentieth century texts (e.g., Monocacy Road, Old Court Road, Old Philadelphia Road). Caution should be exercised, however, in concluding that routes with “Indian” or other suggestive terms in their name or identified through local folklore did in fact originate as Indigenous trails. As is discussed below in the recommendations section, additional research using primary records would help confirm the history. Mid- and late eighteenth century mapping allowed confirmation of that suspected paths were used during the early historic period, making it more likely that Native Americans may have used the paths. Most paths were noted in secondary histories as featuring multiple routes to the same general destination. The routes that became solidified into the modern road system represent a combination of Native American and Euroamerican choices and history as Indigenous paths were certainly modified to reach Euroamerican settlements.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.2.1 Additional Research and Analysis

The duration and scope of the current project precluded comprehensive research to fully document and confirm the routes of Indigenous trails. Additional research and analysis is recommended. This research may include detailed review of primary records, field investigation, and GIS-based analysis.

While review and analysis of primary records was beyond the scope of the current project, the most detailed and accurate information for Indigenous trails came from areas where historians have conducted archival research, including the ongoing efforts of the Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., and William Marye’s research in the early to mid-twentieth century. Examination of early historic journals and possibly letters, land records, court orders, and other archival documents may provide information about the early use and origin of specific routes. For example, court orders requesting the opening of roads sometimes refer to roads as Indian trails. Early journals sometimes mention the specific Indigenous tribe in the area as well as how paths were used. Examination of archival records across the state would require a significant effort, and it may be important to prioritize certain areas or paths for specific goals (e.g., erection of a historical marker or in support of historic and archaeological studies for roadway projects). Students could undertake research as part of graduate studies for a variety of disciplines.

Field investigation along roads suspected to have originated as Native American trails may help refine the specific routes through identification of natural river crossings near modern bridges or early buildings (to refine the potential routes through towns). Windshield or pedestrian survey may identify evidence of Native American markers, such as modified trees, or road trace segments where the modern road deviates from the historic route. Roads that have not been significantly altered from historic times in route or width may warrant Phase I survey along the routes or at key topographic features and water crossings.

GIS analysis of soils data, topographic features, and hydrology was conducted as part of the current study, but on a broad scale. Additional analysis at a finer grained level may help refine suspected routes in some areas. Preliminary analysis of site location data shows less direct correlation between late woodland and contact period sites and the end points of potential trails than expected. This suggests the routes were redirected to colonial settlements after the trails were no longer primarily used by Native Americans, or that secondary trails led from main transportation routes to Native American settlements and resources. Additional GIS analysis of the trail and site data may help refine interpretations.

6.2.2 Data Use

The GIS map data may inform future research and archaeological investigations as roads that likely originated as Native American trails have significant age, suggesting precontact, contact, and historic archaeological sites as well as historic architectural resources may be identified along the routes. As noted above, roads that have not been significantly altered from historic times in route or width may warrant Phase I survey along the route or at key topographic features and water crossings. Knowledge of the potential Native American use of routes may contribute to site identification, while at the same time site identification along roads and near end points may lead to refinement of knowledge of the routes Native Americans followed. Knowledge of Native American trails may also contribute to the definition of cultural landscapes.

6.3 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The contributions of Native American partners was invaluable to completion of this project. The Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., has conducted (and is continuing to conduct) extensive primary research related to Indigenous paths and bridges on the Eastern Shore of Maryland and graciously shared this research. The Pocomoke Indian Nation, Inc., also attended meetings during project initiation and provided meaningful comments on the draft report.

The federally-recognized Oneida Indian Nation, Delaware Nation, Pamunkey Indian Tribe, and Shawnee Tribe all reviewed the draft report, as did the state-recognized Accohannock Indian Nation, Piscataway-Conoy Tribe and their subgroup Piscataway Choptico Band of Indians. Further, the Nause-Waiwash Band of Indians and Maryland Commission on Indian Affairs (MCIA) also reviewed the report. The Delaware Nation, Piscataway-Conoy Tribe, Piscataway Choptico Band of Indians, Nause-Waiwash Band of Indians, and MCIA all attended meetings to discuss this project.

MHT provided research guidance and GIS site file data filtered for Late Woodland village and funerary sites as well as Contact-period sites. MHT also attended meetings to discuss the project and provided report review and comments. SHA shared their compiled research and provided guidance and comments throughout the project.

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