A Cultural Resources Assessment Survey of the Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract, Volusia County, Florida

APRIL 2025

PREPARED FOR

Spruce Creek Crossing, LLC
Orlando, Florida

PREPARED BY

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A CULTURAL RESOURCES ASSESSMENT SURVEY OF THE CREEK CROSSING PHASE 2 TRACT, VOLUSIA COUNTY, FLORIDA.

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ABSTRACT

On behalf of Spruce Creek Crossing, LLC. (Client), SWCA Environmental Consultants (SWCA) conducted a cultural resources assessment survey for the proposed 40-acre Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract, in Volusia County, Florida. All work was conducted in support of the client's State of Florida permit application (Application No.: TBD) that complies with Department of State - Division of Historical Resources (DHR) standards.

The investigation was conducted on April 17th and 18th, 2025. The investigation consisted of a pedestrian survey coupled with subsurface testing and a historic resource survey. As a result of the study, no archaeological sites, isolated artifacts, or historical structural remains were encountered.

No historic structures were identified within the Subject Area nor within its viewshed.

In accordance with state and county regulations, SWCA has made a reasonable and good faith effort to identify historic properties within the proposed Subject Area. Based on the results of this investigation, SWCA recommends a finding of NO HISTORIC PROPERTIES AFFECTED (per 36 CFR 800.4[d][1]) within the proposed Subject Area.

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INTRODUCTION

On behalf of Spruce Creek Crossing, LLC. (Client) SWCA Environmental Consultants (SWCA) conducted a cultural resources assessment survey for the proposed 40-acre Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract, in Volusia County, Florida. All work was conducted in support of the client's State of Florida permit application (Application No.: TBD) that complies with Department of State - Division of Historical Resources (DHR) standards.

Project Description/Area of Potential Effects

The client is planning to construct a residential development consisting of 81 townhome units. The Subject Area is 40-acres and is located east of Spruce Creek, north of Lacey Lane, and southwest of Southcreek Boulevard near Samsula, Volusia County, Florida. According to the Volusia County Property Appraiser (VCPA) website, the project tract is made up of parcel 623600000060. The project location is illustrated on the Samsula, Florida 7.5-minute United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic map (Figure 1). The Subject Area primarily consists of clear cut high ground adjacent to Spruce Creek, while also containing 3 acres of wetland habitat that runs north-south through the center of the property.

The area of potential effects consists of direct impacts and those within the viewshed. The direct area of effect for this project is defined by the project boundaries which was subjected to archaeological pedestrian inspection and subsurface testing. The area of visual effect for this project is defined by the adjacent parcels that are in the line of sight. The historic resource survey included a search of the Volusia County property appraiser online viewer, a search of the Florida Master Site File (FMSF) for previously recorded above ground resources, and a windshield survey conducted within the viewshed to determine the presence of historic resources adjacent to the Subject Area.

Project Personnel

SWCA archaeologist Matthew Fenno completed the survey with Secretary of the Interior (SOI) qualified archaeologist Brent M. Handley serving as Principal Investigator. The architectural history analysis was performed by SOI qualified architectural historian Alex Green, MHP. Geographic information systems (GIS) support was provided by GIS Specialist Sydney Moffat. Reporting was facilitated by Matthew Fisher B.S. and Brent Handley.

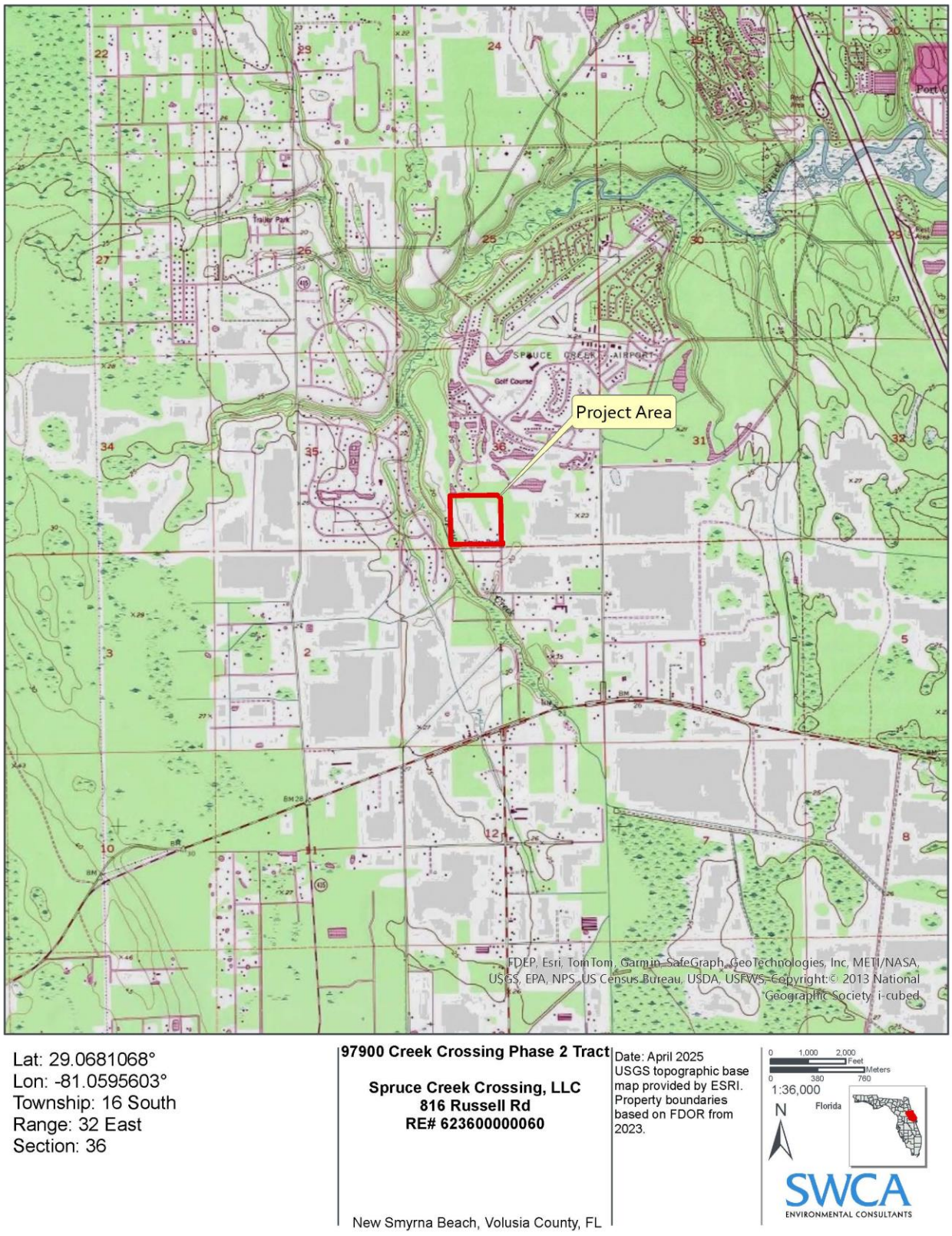

Figure 1. Proposed project location.

ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

The availability of better drained soils, fresh water, and associated natural raw resources for food and material for tool making has had an enormous effect on prehistoric and historic site selection, technology, and mobility (Anderson et al. 1990). Therefore, knowledge of past environments coupled with archaeological data is critical to the reconstruction of past lifeways and in drawing appropriate conclusions regarding site location probability as well as interpretation.

Physiography

The Subject Area exists within the Eastern Florida Flatwoods level IV ecoregion, within the greater Southern Coastal Plain level III ecoregion (EPA). According to Brooks (1981), the Subject Area is located within the Volusia Ridge Sets subdistrict within the Eastern Flatwoods District. This region of Florida is comprised of accreted coastal deposits consisting of a flatwoods plain of subdued beach ridge sets underlain directly by fine sands and silty sand with some clay. The Subject Area's topography ranges from 13 to 22 feet above mean sea level (AMSL).

Hydrology

Hydrology is often a key factor in the selection of short-term campsites to sedentary habitations. Water sources within and near the Subject Area were identified as Spruce Creek which forms part of the western boundary of the Subject Area and related wetland systems and small lakes found within the Subject Area and its surroundings. Additionally, Spruce Creek drains into Strickland Bay which connects to the Halifax River before draining into the Atlantic Ocean.

Soils

According to the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS) Web Soil Survey (NRCS 2021), soils within the Subject Area include four different soil types (Figure 2). These soil types range from very poorly drained, to somewhat poorly drained.

LiDAR

LiDAR (light detection and ranging) data was utilized to detect slight elevations that could have supported precontact or historic occupations during dry seasons (Cody and Anderson 2021). On review of the LiDAR data set provided for the Subject Area, most of the property contains elevations ranging from 19 to 22 feet amsl. The areas of uplift adjacent to Spruce Creek and surrounding the wetland found within the property's central portion hold the highest likelihood of containing cultural resources (Figure 3).

Current Property Conditions

The property generally consists of a cleared field with a wetland habitat running north-south through the property's central axis (See Figure 8 Figure 9 in Results Section).

Figure 2. Area soils map.

Figure 3. Area LiDAR map.

CULTURAL SETTING

The following review of regional culture history of the Subject Area serves as a framework for understanding past human land use in the general vicinity. The changes in material culture over time has permitted archaeologists to categorize human cultural patterns and adaptations, as discussed in more detail below.

Paleoindian Period

Evidence of the earliest human occupations in the southeastern United States dates to the Paleoindian period (10,000 and 12,000 years before present [BP]). Dating techniques have revealed clusters at 12,000 BP from Warm Mineral Springs and Little Salt Springs in Sarasota County (Cockrell and Murphy 1978; Clausen et al. 1979) and during investigations at the Harney Flats site in Hillsborough County (Daniel and Wisenbaker 1987; Daniel et al. 1986) have supplied additional information about Paleoindian lifeways as they existed in central Florida.

As mentioned above, radiocarbon dates clustering at 12,000 BP have been generated from sites located in counties along the Gulf Coast (Cockrell and Murphy 1978; Clausen et al. 1979). However, by 2016, pre-Clovis occupation was concluded at the Page-Ladson Site located within the Aucilla River drainage in Florida (Halligan et al. 2016). This remains the earliest evidence for human habitation in Florida and potentially the Southeast. The Page-Ladson site was calculated at 14,550 calendar years BP. This demonstrates that the earliest peopling within the Gulf Coast region was at the same time as other locations in North America. Other evidence recovered from the Page-Ladson site suggested the co-existence of humans and megafauna in the Southeast.

According to Dunbar and Waller (1983), the major areas of Paleoindian site concentrations in Florida is the Panhandle and the central Gulf Coast region, specifically the Suwannee and Santa Fe rivers. These localities are characterized by areas of exposed Tertiary age limestone that served as important sources of stone tool material to these early peoples. Pasco County is known for suitable stone material for tool manufacturing close to ground surface.

Unfortunately, limited settlement pattern information is available for this early period, but it is generally presumed that settlements were small and ephemeral and that material possessions were light and portable. The most widely accepted model for the peopling of North and South America argues that Asian populations migrated to North America over the Beringia land bridge that formerly linked Siberia and Alaska some 12,000 years ago (Smith 1986). However, archaeological data are mounting in support of migrations that date to before 12,000 years ago (Adovasio et al. 1990; Dillehay et al. 2008).

Due to preservation biases in the archaeological record, lithic tools, generally associated with past hunting and butchering activities, are the most frequently recovered artifacts at Paleoindian sites. The most common Paleoindian implement was the stone lanceolate projectile point. Diagnostic spear point types found in Florida include Clovis, Simpson, Suwannee, and Dalton (Bullen 1975). Archaeological evidence also suggests that bone pins, stone knives, lithic scrapers, and atlatls were used by Paleoindian hunters as well (Milanich 1994).

Archaic Period

The Archaic period (9500 to 2500 BP) was characterized by slightly warmer climatic conditions and higher sea levels than during the Paleoindian period (Milanich and Fairbanks 1980). Modern sea levels were reached around 5000 BP during the middle Holocene and changed the climate of the area. The Pleistocene megafauna was unable to adapt to the more arid Holocene environment. This period happens in this Holocene environmental time of change between 10,000 to 3000 BP. As a result, Archaic period peoples focused their subsistence strategies on the procurement of smaller game, fish, wild plant foods, and shellfish. This cultural period has been characterized by changes in human subsistence patterns and tool manufacturing due in part to the changing environment (Russo 2010). As the population became sedentary or seasonal, a variety of site types evolved, including short-term camps, procurement camps, and cemeteries. These site sizes increased during the transition of sub-stages referred to as the Early, Middle, and Late Archaic periods that were necessary for the changing systems that included more social complexity. While prehistoric peoples had developed a sedentary or semi-sedentary settlement system, small nomadic groups continued in various areas of Florida (Hemmings and Kohler 1974).

Recent excavation at the Wedgeworth site in in South Florida reveals patterns that shed light on how Archaic people adapted, and perhaps thrived, in an environment long believed by archaeologists to have been unsuitable for the establishment of communities (Locascio 2019:4). While many small lithic scatter sites potentially dating to the Archaic period in Florida have been recorded, only a few large Archaic sites have been investigated archaeologically. Milanich and Fairbanks (1980:50-51) suggest that the increased variety of projectile points and tools may reflect ethnicity and, perhaps, cultural relationships with similar groups located outside of Florida.

The most well-known artifacts of the Archaic period in Florida belong to a family of large, stemmed, spear point types that include Hillsborough, Newnan, Alachua, Putnam, and Marion (Bullen 1975). Tools in other parts of the state where chert material for Archaic points was not available include bone and shell tools, bone awls, bone points, and manufactured antler tools.

During the Late Archaic period, pottery is introduced to the archaeological record. Believed to be some of the oldest pottery in the New World, the pottery of this time is referred to as “Orange fiber tempered,” named after the often orange-red staining of the pottery after firing. The unique technique included adding plant fiber to the clay prior to forming the pot and firing it (Smith 2012). Radio-carbon dating places the introduction of pottery in Florida near 3000 BP (Russo 2010).

Woodland Period (2500 to 1250 BP)

After the Late Archaic period, there was a transitional period followed by what is traditionally referred to as the Woodland period, which is sub-divided into the Early, Middle, Late, and Mississippian. According to Milanich (1994), Florida can be described regionally based upon distinctive cultures after 2500 BP. This classification is primarily based on origins of distinctive pottery styles that could be correlated with different geographical regions. Milanich identified nine distinct cultural regions during the Woodland period, which included Northwest, North, North-central, East and Central, North Peninsular Gulf Coast, Central Peninsular Gulf Coast, Caloosahatchee, Okeechobee Basin, and Glades. The current study area is in Region 4, East and Central (Figure 4).

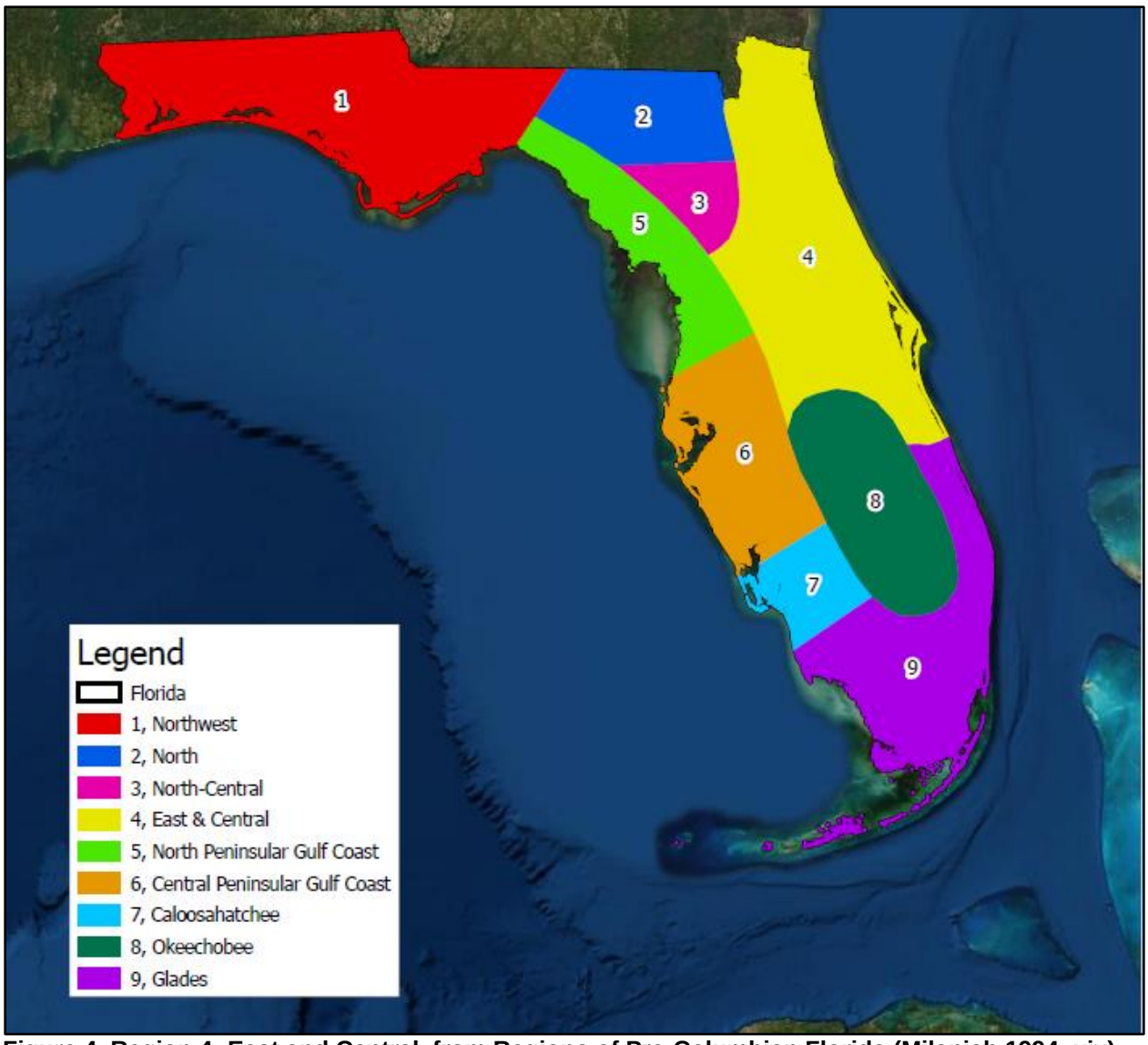

Figure 4. Region 4: East and Central, from Regions of Pre-Columbian Florida (Milanich 1994; xix)

Region 4: East and Central, Woodland Period Cultural Manifestations

The archaeological landscape of East and central Florida maintains a wealth of evidence demonstrating continuity of cultural occupation dating from the Late Archaic populations associated with the Orange period, through the period of European Contact at which the Timucuan were the regions incumbent residents. The regional environmental landscape is comprised of the lower and central St. Johns River, its tributaries, adjacent areas of coastal barrier islands and estuaries, and the central Florida Lake District (Milanich 1994: 243). Generally, settlement strategies of the St. Johns I period express continuity with the Late Archaic communities, either centered around the St. Johns River and its tributaries, lakes, and wetlands, or lagoons, marshlands, and estuaries in coastal areas. Subsistence behaviors during the St. Johns I included the exploitation of diverse suites of resources that include terrestrial, aquatic, and aviary species. This trend in continuity is accompanied by continued reliance on shell and bone implements in tool technology. Common tools associated with the St. Johns I period include shell scrapers, bone pins, bone awls, and bone projectile points. increasing population sizes, demonstrated by an increasing number of archaeological sites through time (Milanich 1994: 256).

Early accounts produced by archaeologists of the late nineteenth century describe the most obtrusive archaeological features in the region having occurred as large, shell middens composed of strictly marine along the coast and intercoastal areas, and shell mounds composed strictly freshwater species found along the banks of the St. Johns and its tributaries. The dichotomy in midden compositions reflect the adaptive subsistence and settlement strategies of populations between their respective environments. Associated with larger population centers in favorable habitation areas, the horizontal extent of larger mounds are measured in acres with heights up to 75 feet. Additionally, sand burial mounds are also found throughout the region (Milanich 1994: 257).

Twentieth century land clearing, and development activities have consequently left the region devoid of its once wonderous mounds, with only a few surviving today. Fortunately, early archaeological investigations in the region provide contemporary researchers with integral records for the stratigraphic sequencing of mound features which provide invaluable data regarding indigenous cultural chronologies and continuity of occupation. As with other regions of Florida, and the greater Southeast, cultural chronologies center around ceramic typologies exhibiting evolution in construction materials, and distinct stylistic markers in surface treatments. The Woodland period cultural manifestations of Eastern and Central Florida include the Saint Johns I period, and its two subphases referred to as St. Johns Ia and Saint Johns Ib.

St. Johns I (2500 - 1900 BP)

The Woodland period of the East and Central cultural region is traditionally marked by the production of St. Johns pottery and the initial appearance of mound building activities in the region. The St. Johns pottery type has a chalky feel due to the type of clay used containing sponge spicules. St. Johns I ranges from 1250 to 2500 BP and occurs throughout Region 4. The earlier occupations of the St. Johns I period often includes plain and incised pottery treatments, as well as Deptford type pottery. In St. Johns and Duval Counties, several sherds have been recovered that cross Orange fiber tempered wares with St. Johns, referred to locally as Fiber-Johns (Handley and Hendryx 2003). Variance in the St. Johns cultural phenomena is seen on the periphery such as the Ais Indian culture complex in the southernmost portion of Region 4. These sites often yield St. Johns pottery in combination with Malabar pottery types (Milanich 1994: 261).

Early mounds are described by twentieth century archaeologist as low rises or truncated conical constructions that were generally less than four feet tall, with outliers in the regional distribution as high as ten feet tall. Functionally, the mounds served for burial and associated charnel activities. Burial mounds are known to contain both primary interments, secondary bundles, and cremated remains of multiple individuals, generally consisting of <25 (MNI), but ranging upwards of 200 individuals (Milanich 1994: 260).

St. Johns Ia (1900 – 1500 BP)

Archaeological assemblages associated with the St. Johns Ia subphase reflect involvement in broad exchange networks that not only include regional exchange amongst populations within Florida associated with Yent and Green Point ceremonial complexes, but also with populations of the greater Southeast, and the American Bottom exhibited by artifacts stemming from Hopewellian interaction sphere (Milanich 1994: 261). Mound building practices continued in the region, growing in overall size, ubiquitously occurring as truncated conical constructions, and containing a more diverse assemblage of mortuary caches than during the St. Johns I period. Depending on social status and, or familial

association, caches of mortuary goods were interred with the deceased. Early phase mound caches could include but are not limited to; 1) locally made Dunns Creek Red and St. Johns Plain ceramic vessels; 2) locally made ceramics using St. Johns pastes, but with Deptford esque check stamping or complicated designs; 3) and Deptford ceramic wares. Sometime shortly after 1900 BP, caches containing exotic trade goods appear in mound contexts, including mica, galena, ochre, copper covered animal jaws, wooden effigies, greenstone celts, quartz plummets, copper discs, copper earspools, and bird effigy elbow pipes. Exotic trade goods found in St. Johns Ia mound contexts provide credence to the region's involvement in broad reaching spheres of exchange and interaction amongst Florida populations, and populations outside of Florida involved with the Hopewellian empire (Milanich 1994: 260-61). Other non-local ceramic wares found within St. Johns Ia stratigraphic context include Late Deptford, Swift Creek, and in the later part of the phase, Weeden Island varieties. Oppositional to these non-local ceramic wares and artifacts, utilitarian ceramic wares of the St. Johns Ia subphase are for the most part all plain St. Johns wares (Milanich 1994: 247).

St. Johns Ib (1500 – 1250 BP)

Archaeological assemblages from the St. Johns Ib phase are indicative of declining trade and social relations with populations outside of Florida, and trending towards the intensification of trade relations and an expression of cultural identity with the Weeden Island cultural complex. This shift in trade relations is explicated by the disappearance of copper ornaments at St. Johns Ib sites and coincides directly with the demise of the Hopewellian empire around 1500 BP (Milanich 1994: 262; Byers 2015). A St. Johns Ib ascribed cultural identity with the Weeden Island world is demonstrated by ceramic wares constructed with St. Johns paste technology, while exhibiting Weeden Island vessel morphology and containing Weeden Island decorative surface finishes (Milanich 1994: 262). During the St. Johns Ib phase, ceramic assemblages often contain varieties of late Swift Creek Complicated Stamped, Tucker Ridge-pinched, and Weeden Island Incised and Punctated along occurring alongside St. Johns Plain and Dunns Creek Red wares (Milanich 1994: 262).

Mississippian Cultural Manifestations

The concept of what Mississippian means archaeologically is broken down into two basic levels of understanding of the Mississippian as a period, and Mississippian as a mechanism for describing a widespread cultural phenomenon. The Mississippian as an archaeological period is prescribed to the span of time between the close of the first millennia (1,100 BP) of the common era, all the way up to European contact in the 15th century (Ashley and White 2012). The Mississippian period as a cultural phenomenon is characterized by its Hopewellian-esq, wide-reaching interaction sphere which facilitated the movement of exotic goods of social prestige, new concepts of political structure during a time of population increase, an increase in social stratification, a religious movement exhibited as the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, technological advancements affording maize agriculture, and an emphasis on mound building and mound burials (Ashley and White 2012: 173; King and Myers 2002: 113). The essence of Mississippian culture is as widespread geographically as it is regionally variable. In East and Central archaeological zone of Florida, the regional expression of Mississippianism as a cultural phenomenon is attributed to the St. Johns II culture.

What is known regarding the St. Johns II period is largely derived from the excavation of mound sites during the late nineteenth century. The period ranges from 1250 to 1513 BP and is identified with the introduction of St. Johns Check Stamped Pottery. The start of this period is often associated with the region's transitional start into the Mississippian period and ending with European exploration (Ashley and White 2012: 100; Milanich 1994: 263). This time saw the increase in central habitations that were more sedentary with some smaller groups on the periphery (Ashley and White 2012: 104). While evidence have

suggested agricultural practices began prior to the St. Johns II era, it became more evident as cultural centers were developed. Mound building increased during the Mississippian period and was accompanied by long distance trade relations with the larger Mississippian world. By time of the European invasion into the New World, other pottery types began to manifest such as St. Mary's, and San Pablo, although the latter is often associated after European contact (Ashley and White 2012; Milanich 1994).

St. Johns IIa (1250 – 950 BP)

The St. Johns IIa phase is denoted by the appearance of St. Johns Checked Stamped pottery in both village and mound contexts. An increasing population base is evident during the period and explicated by the increasing numbers of village and mound sites in the archaeological record. As with the preceding St. Johns Ib phase, Weeden Island cultural materials and their regionally reproduced copies using St. Johns paste technology are at times found in mound contexts (Ashley and White 2012; Milanich 1994).

St. Johns IIb (950 – 487 BP)

The first true expression of a Mississippian identity in the Eastern and Central archaeological zone of Florida is found during the St. Johns IIb phase. Though St. Johns Checked Stamped ceramic wares are the dominant type in archaeological assemblages during the St. Johns IIb, two major changes in the archaeological record point towards the Mississippianization of the region as a cultural phenomenon; 1) mound construction evolves from truncated conical morphology to include large pyramidal mounds; 2) the appearance non-local and exotic artifacts in mound context, and the that delineate the cultural phase as part of the greater Mississippian World. Such artifacts include Fort Walton and Safety Harbor ceramics, and artifacts that area clearly associated with the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex. Three principle mound complexes along the St. Johns River characterize Mississippian identity in the region, these include Shields Mound (Duval County), Mt. Royal (Putnam County), and Thursby Mound (Volusia County).

St. Johns IIc (487 – 435 BP)

By the St. Johns IIc phase, the incumbent regional population of east and central Florida consisted of the well-established Timucuan. Though the era of European Contact had a profound negative effect on the cultural landscape of the Eastern and Central Florida archaeological zone, it is from this time that we gained one of the most well documented enthnohistorical accounts of a regional indigenous group in Florida. The Timucuan peoples of the St. Johns IIc phase maintained strong continuity with their Woodland and Mississippian ancestors as seen through the continued use of burial mounds, a regional emphasis on naturally occurring subsistence resources derived from the hammocks and interior forests, and freshwater and coastal biotic communities, and residential sedentism.

Contact and Mission Period

In 1513, Juan Ponce De Leon explored the Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico, and the Florida Atlantic coastline, making landfall in St. Augustine. Although he never found the fabled Fountain of Youth, his discoveries in the area soon attracted the attention of French, English and Dutch traders and explorers. Spanish Galleons and fleets of vessels called *flotas* coming from Mexico and South America would rendezvous at Havana, and together, thus protected from plunder, would speed home through a favored route along the Florida coastline (Riley, 2000).

In the 1560's, French Admiral Coligny convinced Catherine de Medici to support an exploratory expedition to La Florida ostensibly to seek a place where French Huguenots might worship without

persecution. They both plotted to locate colony near the route of Spanish treasure fleets returning to Seville. In 1562 Captain Jean Ribault with Rene Laudonniere second in command failed to garrison soldiers on the coast of South Carolina. But on June 29, 1564, Laudonniere established Fort Caroline among friendly Indians along the banks of the River May (Florida's St. Johns River) – a desolate area claimed by Spain. When the Spanish King Philip II, learned of the French activities, he sent Pedro Menendez se Aviles to cast out the heretics and put them to the knife (Purdy 2002). The Brutal destruction of Fort Caroline and the massacre of the French Huguenots at Matanzas Inlet by Menendez in the fall of 1565 terminated France's colonizing efforts in this part of the new world.

For more than two centuries, Spanish rulers claimed that all the Americas were their property because Columbus had sailed under the authority of Queen Isabella. By virtue of conquest, the Crown was said to possess all political, judicial, and religious authority, own any property, and retain all powers of taxation throughout. Anyone of any nationality entering the Americas must obey the royal laws. In theory, only Spaniards could move or trade with the colonies, and all goods had to be brought over from Spain in the Annual fleets of licensed Spanish Ships. Free trade was not declared until the Spanish Bourbon Dynasty permitted it later in 1765. (Rogozinski 1999).

Soon after the early Spanish garrison-style settlements of St. Augustine and Santa Elena, in what is now Florida and South Carolina, respectively, the Jesuits and Franciscan Friers set out to convert native inhabitants to Christianity through a system of missions. The first of these efforts was started by the Jesuits who arrived in South Carolina in mid-16th century (Thomas 1993). Jesuit and Franciscan friars established a series of Catholic missions along the Atlantic coast and in the interior of Florida, resulting in over a century of sustained Spanish Indian interaction (Gannon 1965; McEwan 1993; Milanich 1999). During this time, the Timucua, Guale, and other native coastal groups had to accommodate their lifestyle to a swiftly changing physical and cultural environment (Dobyns 1983). During the Spanish Mission period, European diseases and fatal conflicts decimated the native population. Groups were frequently relocated and consolidated to facilitate missionization and the exploitation of their labor by the Spaniards.

Spanish missions were established in the North Florida or Utina region during the early seventeenth century and continued until around 1689 or 1690 (Milanich 1978). Weisman (1991) argues that the Spaniards never used the term Utina but referred to the area as the "land or province of the Timucua." Prior to the founding of missions in North Florida, European contact with the Utina-Timucua was intermittent. The mid-seventeenth century Utina population was more consolidated, and groups were concentrated in sedentary horticultural villages in the southern and western sections of the Utina territory along the St. Augustine to Apalachee Trail (Milanich 1978). The appearance of Leon-Jefferson ceramics at mission-related sites dating to the seventeenth century marks the movement of Apalachee Indians into North Florida. Johnson (1991) has recorded several mission period sites in the vicinity of Alligator Lake, and one such mission (San Juan de Guacara) is located at Charles Springs (Loucks 1993; Worth 1992).

British Florida (1763-1784)

At the termination of several years of European conflict in the old word, the colonizing European powers negotiated peace and reparations that changed the map of the Americas. As part of the Treaty of Paris negotiations ending the Seven Years War in February 1763, France gave up most of their conquests in the German States, in return, Britain returned French Slave Stations on the African coast, as well as Martinique Guadalupe, and Saint Lucia. The British kept Canada as well as Grenada and the Grenadines and the formerly "neutral islands" of Dominica, Saint Vincent, and Tobago. They returned Havana to Spain, acquiring Florida in exchange (Rogozinski 1999). Most of the former Floridians moved to Cuba as well as Mexico (Gannon ed. 1996).

The Treaty of Paris marked the high point of the mercantile British Empire. Spain, Holland, France, and England had fought-almost since 1492 a fierce competition for sea power and colonial wealth. The Americas had been invaluable prizes of battle. Now Britain was supreme in North America, free to expand territorially in India, and ready to absorb the commerce of Spanish America.

With the acquisition of Florida, Great Britain acquired a colony with no rival inhabitants of European origin. The remaining Native peoples and escaped or freed Africans did not qualify as settler material in the eyes of the British. With the Proclamation of 1763, British administrators split the former Spanish colony into East and West Florida at the Apalachicola River. The Proclamation of 1763 assigned Native Americans to lands west of the Appalachians in the colonies north of Florida. A 1765 agreement between the Native Americans in Florida and the new British government in East Florida relegated Native activity to the west side of the St. Johns River, in a manner like the Proclamation of 1763. Migrating Creek groups of Native Americans had begun moving into Spanish Florida by 1715 and were known as Seminoles by 1764 (Gannon, ed. 1996).

The British envisioned converting the Florida peninsula into a land of plantations. Indigo and rice were crops that were particularly favored at the time. Surveyors and publicists visited Florida to encourage land sales on the Home Island and subsequent development. A proclamation provided for township grants of up to 20,000 acres or for family grants that were apportioned according to family size. James Grant, the new governor of East Florida, was anxious to colonize the province. He realized that good roads would increase trade, speed communications, permit rapid movement of military forces and supplies, and encourage settlers to locate along the way (Coomes 1976).

Based on surveys by James Moncrief, Military Engineer, and by William Gerard De Brahm, Surveyor General for the Southern District of North America, Grant recommended the location for a future settlement and proposed to build "… a road from this place to the Mosquetoes. It will be a continuation of the Subscription Road and will be a continuation of the Subscription Road...". The location favored by Grant was selected a few years later by Dr. Andrew Turnbull for his New Smyrna colony (Coomes 1976).

The King's Road had hardly been completed when the American Colonies declared their independence from British rule. When Georgia and South Carolina required their citizens to take a strict oath of allegiance to the Revolutionary cause, the province of East Florida became a haven for the Loyalists. A stream of some 7,000 refugees came in 1778 alone. Many arrived in St. Augustine over the King's Road (Coomes 1976). Historian Leitch Wright thought that half of the 12,000 refugees were slaves brought by their fleeing owners. A community of Loyalist refugees sprang up at St. Johns Bluff, and at least 200 substantial houses appeared at the community called St. Johns Town (Wright 1975).

Second Spanish Period

During the early 1780's East Florida was being threatened by the Spanish, who were at war with Britain in alliance with France and military engineers worked to fortify St. Augustine. Pensacola, in West Florida, fell to Bernardo de Galvez, thus giving Spain Claim to Florida when peace negotiations finally commenced in 1783. British negotiators ceded East and West Florida to Spain. Under the treaty's provisions, Spain was allowed to require all British subjects who remained in Florida to confess the Roman Catholic Faith and all landowners to trade Solely with Spain and in Spanish ships (Nelson, 1993). The majority chose to relocate to other parts of the British Empire. Many of the migrants had only resided in Florida for a short time. In July 1784, a Spanish governor once again took command of the Florida peninsula. Spain, however, lacked the resources to develop the area (Adams 1990).

Most of the Spanish inhabitants– both black and white-earned their living through subsistence farming and as open-range cattle ranchers. Cattle and hogs provided meat for towns. Further, their hides and fat

(tallow) found a ready market in Europe both through legal exports, and through sales to foreign smugglers (Rogozinski 1999)

The presence of hostile English-allied Indian groups played into the decision not to expand. During the Second Spanish period, Florida provided a place for runaway slaves, contraband trade, and slave smuggling. The combination of escaped slaves, British arms merchants, slave traders, and frontiersmen created a land of lawlessness and unrest. To further add to the confusion, new settlers coming from Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina were interested in adding Florida to the newly formed United States. When Andrew Jackson invaded Florida during the First Seminole War in 1818, it became clear that Spain could no longer control the region, and it was transferred to the United States in 1821 as a territory (Adams 1990).

American Territorial (1821-1845)

In the years between 1818 and 1845, central Florida was the scene of numerous hostilities between transplanted Creek Indians (Seminoles) and white settlers associated with the relatively newly established United States of America.

The First Seminole War: The fallout from Native American displacement in Georgia, Alabama, South Carolina, and Florida since the time of first contact came to a head in 1818 with the beginning of the First Seminole War. Pushed southward into Florida, the displaced populations of the Creek Nation and the regional tribes of Florida coalesced to form the Seminole Confederacy. Raids by the Seminole into South Florida have been documented in historical narratives (Adair 1930; Rouse 1951). The beginning of the First Seminole War sparked attention from the federal government, and with the Adams-Onis Treaty of 1819, Florida became a U.S. territory in 1921. Andrew Jackson was appointed provisional governor of the new territory. The territory was split into two counties, St. Johns and Escambia. St. Johns County encompassed all of Florida, lying east of the Suwannee River, and Escambia County included all land lying to its west. The first territorial census in 1825 states that around 5,077 people reportedly lived east of the Suwannee River; by 1830, the population of St. Johns County had risen to roughly 9,000 people.

In 1821, the U.S. government formed the Territory of Florida and named Andrew Jackson as the military governor. Jackson initiated the Americanization of Florida policy, naming Tallahassee the seat of the territorial government. St. Augustine lost its political influence as the capital of the province of East Florida.

In 1822, Congress appointed a board of land commissioners with the task of confirming or rejecting private claims in Florida. This process, which often included translating Spanish documents, obtaining old surveys from archives, deposing witnesses, and reviewing claims, slowed the public survey and land sales by the federal and state governments. Still, by the end of 1825, the East Florida commissioners had confirmed 325 claims and rejected 61 others. Congress furnished final adjudication for 88 other claims that consisted of 3,000 or more acres, while several large grants were adjudicated in the courts during the 1830s (Tebeau 1980).

The impact of the First Seminole War was that it forced the hand of the federal government to address the tensions between the Seminole and the white settlers. Though the First Seminole War was fought in north Florida, the Treaty of Moultrie Creek in 1823 would affect the settlement of all Florida. The Treaty of Moultrie Creek forced the Seminole to relinquish their claims to the whole peninsula of Florida, and in return, they were granted approximately 4 million acres of reservation land south of Ocala and north of Charlotte Harbor (Archaeological Consultants, Inc. [ACI] 2009). These reservation lands constricted the Seminole to the resources of landlocked middle Florida, stripping them of a major part of their cultural legacy and adaptation to coastal environments. For the white settlers, their thirst for land acquisition was

never satiated and called for the complete removal of the Seminole from Florida altogether. Over the next decade, two more treaties were forced upon the Seminoles to move the Seminole population to Oklahoma. The terms of the treaties were unfair to the Seminoles, and this led to the Second Seminole War in 1835 (Mahon 1967).

The Second Seminole War: During the Second Seminole War, the Seminoles frequently conducted raids throughout Florida. On the east coast, they raided sugar plantations in Mosquito County, which includes present-day Brevard County. By 1836, the raids led to the destruction of 16 of these plantations on the northern Mosquito Lagoon. This led Commanding General Thomas Jessup to execute a plant to corral the Seminole down in their Everglades stronghold. To aid the effort, the military developed five strategic forts on the eastern peninsula: Fort Ann, Fort Pierce, Fort Taylor, Fort Christmas, and Fort Bassinger. The intent of the forts was to serve as a supply station for U.S. Army troops moving southward down the Indian River in the campaign against the Seminole (Eriksen 1994).

The Second Seminole War ended in 1842. At the time, some of the Seminole were persuaded to relocate westward to Oklahoma to set aside reservation lands. Those who refused to relocate were granted sanctuary in the deep south of Florida in the Everglades and the Big Cypress Swamp, where the Seminole reservation lands are still located today.

With the end of the Second Seminole War, the Armed Occupation Act was approved in 1842 to encourage settlement of central Florida. The act made available 200,000 acres to the south of Gainesville to the Peach River. Coastal lands within the stretch of newly opened lands would remain barred from settlement, as would those within a 2-mile radius of a fort. As a result, any family head or male over the age of 18 was eligible to receive 160 acres provided they agreed to cultivate at least 5 acres, build a dwelling, and reside there for at least 5 years (Tebeau 1980). Soon after, settlers, mostly southern Anglo-American farmers, began to infiltrate. After taking effect, 1,184 permits were issued to settlers for land allotments totaling 189,440 acres. The surveys and maps of the Florida peninsula that were created during the campaigns of the Second Seminole War, as well as the development improvements of trails and forts, proved invaluable to the settlement of Florida (ACI 2009).

The Third Seminole War: By 1849, tension between the remaining Seminoles and the invasive settlers continuously compounded on the tensions remaining from the First and Second Seminole Wars. Seminole raids occurred on settler colonies such as the Indian River Colony, which was established by the Armed Occupation Act (Shofner 1995). The Third Seminole War began in December 1855 as a response from the remaining Seminoles in Florida, who were under continued pressure to relocate west. The first battle of the Third Seminole War was started as a retaliatory attack by Seminole Chief Holatter-Micco, Billy Bowlegs, and 30 Seminole warriors for the intentional destruction of property owned by Billy Bowlegs at the hands of U.S. Army artillerymen. The retaliation attack on the Army camp killed four soldiers and wounded four more. Unfortunately, any retaliation by the Seminole against oppression by the U.S. government only brought about renewed U.S. Army goals and objectives to eradicate the Seminole from Florida.

Throughout the war, U.S. military campaigns against the Seminole amounted to no progress in the attempt to remove the remaining Seminoles. In a last-ditch effort in 1858, the U.S. government offered monetary compensation for the remaining Seminoles to relocate to Oklahoma. Many Seminoles conceded to the monetary offer out of desperation to live a life free of constant agitation by the U.S. Army and the settler populations. On May 4, 1858, the ship *Grey Cloud* departed from Fort Myers with 38 Seminole warriors and 85 Seminole women and children. Another 41 captives and a Seminole woman guide boarded the *Grey Cloud* after a stop at Egmont Key. The total number of Seminoles aboard the ship totaled 165 individuals. The Third Seminole War was declared over on May 8, 1958 (STOF 2023). By the late 19th century only 200 Seminole were reported to be living among family camps on tree islands in the

Everglades and Big Cypress Swamp, marking a 96% reduction in the Seminole population since the early 19th century when their population was estimated at around 5,000 (STOF 2023: 6). The Third Seminole War was declared over on May 8, 1858 (STOF 2023).

The Seminole Tribe of Florida Culture History

One of the great historical claims and misconceptions that have plagued the Seminole Tribe of Florida's (STOF) fight for sovereignty and attempts on the reclamation of traditional lands is the idea that the true ancestral populations of Native Americans in the state were totally decimated in the first few centuries after initial contact (1513 to 1763) (STOF 2023). Additionally, writings of colonial distinction argue that the Seminole Tribe of Florida does not represent the lineal descendants of the state's indigenous heirs because the STOF is a federation of many regional tribes from neighboring territories (STOF 2023). Under this narrative, Europeans and colonist alike have used this false information as a mechanism to assert their claim over traditional territories of "extinct peoples" that in their interpretation, have abandoned the land (STOF 2023). This false narrative has many negative implications that support the colonial assertion of control over territories in Florida. The colonial narrative ignores the multi-sourced lines of evidence demonstrating Seminole occupation and cultural affiliation to Florida (STOF 2023: 1).

Prior to European contact, indigenous societies of southeastern North American were part of the greater Mississippian world that connected indigenous societies across the eastern North America under a common political and religious ideology (STOF 2023:1; Ashley and White 2012). The concept of what Mississippian means is broken down into two basic levels of understanding, 1) the Mississippian as a period, and 2) the Mississippian as a mechanism for describing a widespread cultural phenomenon. The Mississippian as an archaeological period is prescribed to the span of time between the close of the first millennia (1,100 BP) of the common era, all the way up to European contact in the 15th century (Ashley and White 2012: 8). The Mississippian period as a cultural phenomenon is characterized by its wide-reaching, social interaction sphere across eastern North America. Indigenous societies of the Mississippian world did not subscribe to Western ideas of ridged geopolitical boundaries. Instead, indigenous societies maintained a fluid social landscape between themselves and those populations of neighboring regions (Ashley and White 2012: 3). The utility derived from participating in such a fluid interaction sphere is that it creates a social environment suited for gift giving and reciprocity between genetically, and socially distinct populations. Not only is intercommunity marital exchange necessary for biological sustainability, but it is also necessary to establish bonds between populations that cannot be torn asunder, and to be upheld during times of hardships and war. Maintaining fluid boundaries was integral for social relations, economic interests, and biological security (STOF 2023).

What we know about the Mississippian world prior to European contact supports the notion of deeply rooted genetic ties between the indigenous societies of Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, and South Carolina (Ashley and White 2012). It is a fallacy to subscribe to the colonial notion that the STOF is not actually of Floridian origin, because before the first westerner penciled in a ridged political boundary, forcing the indigenous regionalization of tribal identity for preservation of their people and lands, they shared genetic relations. Oral history of the STOF defends this archaeologically based position on the social and genetic relationships between indigenous societies in Florida and its neighboring states. Oral history surrounding the Green Corn Ceremony discusses the STOF's relationship with its Mississippian ancestors who as participants in the long distance social interaction sphere, subscribed to a religious movement exhibited as the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, along with its adoption of maize agriculture, and an emphasis on mound building (STOF 2023). The Green Corn Ceremony in various forms is practiced by not only the STOF, but by tribes throughout the Eastern Woodlands and southeastern North America including but not limited to the Creek, Miccosukkee, and Yuchi (STOF 2023).

In the years following European contact, European explorers and missionaries recorded the social and political landscapes of indigenous populations as they saw them. Often, their depictions of indigenous cultures were ridged and disingenuous narratives. In the centuries that followed, these narratives would become a platform for judging a tribe's essence of purity and relevance by European settlers and the United States Government. The indigenous populations of the southeast experienced significant changes in social and political construction in the years post-contact with Europeans. A common mechanism for conscribing indigenous identity was to evaluate a tribe's culture and population size against the narratives left by European explorers and missionaries. If a tribe did not conform to the tribal characteristics detailed in early narratives, colonial thought suggested that the original tribe to be extinct, and they were viewed the incumbent tribe as illegitimate heirs to the land, which would then be claimed by the U.S. Government. In Florida, the U.S. Government cast a cultural blanket over all tribes residing in the state as belonging to the Creek Nation. The southeastern tribes that were assumed under the Creek Nation represented at least 150 linguistic groups, clearly demonstrating the government's dismissal of tribal identity (2023: 2). Placing all Florida tribes under the Creek Nation moniker, it meant that all tribes would be subject to the terms of future treatises between the Creek Nation and the U.S. Government. An excerpt from the Seminole Tribe of Florida's historical report explains how the Seminole moniker was adopted and its ramifications leading to targeted aggression by the U.S. Government and their ultimate displacement from their traditional lands:

> "These groups were then lumped together as the Creek Nation. From this linguistic group comes the phrase isti Semoli, meaning "those who camp at a distance," "one who has camped out from the regular towns," or "free people at distance fires" (STOF 2023). To classify those individuals living in Florida, as "runaways," "fugitives," and "wild people," the United States government and their Creek allies began to refer to these people as Seminole. By changing the terminology, the United States government modified how these people were viewed, primarily so that land acquisition could occur easily (STOF 2023). Although the term Seminole has often been thought to have derived from the Spanish term cimmarron, the meaning and essence of the term is the same and fits the United States' agenda. As this brief history suggests, the names of the people living in and using the territory of Florida were of European construct and were not created by the native populations themselves. Instead, there were a variety of groups in Florida that were once known by different names and were simply lumped into the broad category of Seminole Creek by the Europeans, the United States, and Creek allies. While these people were comprised of different groups, it is likely that they were all interconnected through lines of communication, trade, warfare, and reciprocity" (STOF 2023).

Another excerpt from the Seminole Tribe of Florida's historical report communicates long distance cultural ties between precontact tribal communities of Florida with other tribal communities in the Southeast such as the Creek Nation:

> "For example, Seminole Tribal member Willie Johns explains "Creek people were in Florida before the fight [Creek War] and Creek leaders have always known the Everglades, they hunted and fished it for decades before the Europeans" (Johns and Brindenstine 2017: 4-5). Seminole Tribal member Billy Walker, a fourth generation descendant from those who fought in the Seminole Wars, noted that his clan, Panther Clan, is an older clan and comes from those Creek people who traveled to South Florida and had children with members of the Calusa bands (Walker 2019). He explains that the Calusa "are still their people today." Furthermore, groups of indigenous people, such as the Shawnee, who now reside outside of Florida, remember the territory once serving as their home (Wickman 1999: 37). One Shawnee elder in Ohio recounted in 1819 that he came from West Florida near the Suwanee River and the sea. These accounts demonstrate a stark contrast to previous research that suggests that the Seminoles are not the direct descendants of the pre-contact Florida Natives, simply because they would not have crossed modern geopolitical boundaries (STOF 2023)".

In the void of accurate ethnographic materials, the application of archaeological data from sites in southwest Florida plays a major role in teasing out the culture history of the region and its association with the Seminole. Archaeological sites in southwest Florida have produced radiocarbon dates spanning 375 BCE to 1630 CE at major interior population centers like the Brighton Reservation, while on the southwest coast of Florida, data derived from the major Calusa centers of Mound Key site and the Pineland demonstrates continuity of occupation leading up to the 18th century, but also shows diminishing levels of occupation as the years progressing into the 18th century (STOF 2023). Archaeological evidence of indigenous occupation at these sites post-dates European contact by up to 200 years, as evidenced by Spanish cultural materials associated with elite, supports the position that indigenous populations of southwest Florida were in fact still alive, and their hierarchical structure still intact. Though the spread of disease certainly reduced population sizes and in turn reduced their occupational footprint left at archaeological sites, its larger populations likely experienced periods of fission and dispersal into smaller groups in the face of external stressors brought on by European contact. This would certainly cause shifts in cultural dynamics that have not identified in the archaeological record, and in turn, just do not understand yet.

Seminole Settlements of the 18th Century

Seminole settlements of the early 18th century are known and best understood in north and central Florida and relate to the movements of people from Georgia and Alabama into Alachua savanna (STOF 2023). Only three early 18th century Seminole related sites are known to exist. The location of these sites is generally located in oak-hickory uplands, on ridgelines, or around productive water sources (STOF 2023). Artifact assemblages during the era exhibit low densities and are thus easily overlooked.

Mid-18th century Seminole village sites are known to have been large and permanent (STOF 2023: 4). These substantial population centers, referred to as towns, are found along the banks of the Suwannee River, the hammocks of the middle St. Johns River, and on the Chocachatti Prairie around Brooksville, Hernando County. Such towns are focused on a square ground which contains roughly 20 or more central habitation locations, and dispersed habitation sites. Central to the Seminole construction of square ground town settlements is their emphasis on the number four which maintains an ontological and cosmological association with the Seminole. Use of the number four in Seminole construction patterns is consistent through time and through changing social dynamics, making the patterned use of the number four as a general indicator of Seminole association(STOF 2023). Artifacts associated with mid-18th century Seminole settlements include Lamar and Chattahoochee Brushed pottery; both pottery types are found at sites to the north and south of the modern geopolitical boundary separating Georgia and Florida (STOF 2023). This supports the notion that Florida's indigenous populations prior to, and after European contact maintained fluid social dynamics in the region, involving multiple population groups who shared cultural associations across vast areas, and environmental contexts. In addition to artifacts of indigenous construct, European goods are commonly found in association with mid-18th century Seminole occupations (STOF 2023).

The close of the 18th century saw shifting settlement patterns for the Seminole from the earlier centralized square grounds to widely dispersed settlements that are influenced by the necessity for suitable environments for agro-pastoralist use. These settlements are focused around upland environments with well-drained soil for maize agriculture, wetland environments for rice cultivation, and pasture lands for animal grazing (STOF 2023: 5). Along with the presence of large, cleared fields for agro-pastoralist functions, outbuilding structures called *tufto* are commonly associated with late-18th century Seminole settlements (STOF 2023). Tufto were used for storage of food, medicines, and family valuables (STOF: 5). Such structures would become less common as increasing warfare with the United States Government

forced increasing residential mobility, and the abandonment of permanent and semi-permanent settlements.

Adaptative Settlement Strategies of the Seminole

The Seminole War Period

The Seminole War era saw dramatic changes in tribe's settlement strategies as an adaptive response to the U.S. Government's incessant pursuit to corral and removed the Seminole from their homelands. Though a general trend of continued southward mobility existed from 1817 onward, the southward movement of the tribe into the far reaches of southern Florida appeared only partly influenced by the U.S. war efforts. Some Miccosukee-Seminole tribal elders possess a viewpoint of southward migration as part of their cultural legacy:

> "The Seminoles were not driven into Florida by the pressures of the US settlers and soldiers. Instead, their ancestors had been migrating southward toward the lower reaches of the peninsula for all time because their medicine people always told them that the nose of the deer or the pointed tip of the southeastern peninsula was the place they would ultimately find refuge and peace" (STOF 2023: 7).

Personal accounts as such demonstrate the deeply rooted cultural knowledge and association between ancestral Seminole populations and the entirety of Florida's landscape. Ethnographic accounts as such provide additional evidence and validity in support of the Seminole's ancestral presence and belonging in Florida prior to European contact and up to the present day.

Adaptations in settlement strategy during the war centered around avoidance of encountering the U.S. military. The U.S. military maintained forts and trails in areas where vegetation was low and topography easily navigable so that their movements had little restriction and affording ease of transport for supplies and soldiers. The nature of U.S. strategy led Seminole populations to dig deeper into the refuge of dense the hammocks of south Florida where the U.S. military's method of operation would be at a disadvantage should they attempt to attack. Understanding the vulnerability and restricted mobility of U.S. military trails, the Seminole often waged attacks in the areas surrounding the trails and forts.

In response to the threat of attack by the U.S. military, Seminole settlements during the war transitioned from the permanent and semi-permanent towns of the 18th century to small residence camps that afforded frequent residential and logistical mobility (STOF 2023: 7). These smaller settlements are known as clan camps. Historical documentation suggests that these clan camps to be comprised of three to four lodges embedded and hidden within the swamps of south Florida with associated gardens in nearby areas (STOF 2023: 7). The separation of gardens from clan camps aimed to ensure that in the event of an attack by the U.S. military, even if the camps were destroyed, the Seminole could still return to the viable gardens. The construction of these lodges changed from the traditional wood framed structures to the use of the Seminole chickee structure that consisted of thatched roof over a wooden platform. These structures are reminiscent of traditional Creek talwas (STOF 2023: 8).

The reduced size and complexity of structural construction during the Seminole War left a smaller and less noticeable footprint on the landscape which reduced the visibility of clan camps during the war, and in an archaeological context. Archaeologically, as the war progressed the artifact compositions of these small clan camps tend to contain less and less European and American trade goods, demonstrating the degrading social relations between the tribe and outsiders (STOF 2023: 8).

Post-War Seminole Settlement Adaptation

Following the Seminole War, settlements centered around upland tree islands with well-drained soils surrounding wet prairies and near productive deep water sources including lakes and ponds. Though the availability of dry land upon which to settle was limited and in areas perceived as marginal by Euro-American standards, the tree islands provided dry ground during the wet season, access to a wealth of natural resources, and enough fertile land to maintain gardens of pumpkins, corn, beans, and squash (STOF 2023: 9). We do not have significant detail regarding the size and composition of post-war settlements. However, ethnographic records and Seminole oral testimonies indicate settlements contained dispersed residential and hunting camps that ranged from one-half mile to three miles apart from one another. Additionally, the distance between settlements ranged from 40 to 60 miles apart. The sizes of each settlement were also variable. STOF (2023) notes that the Cow Creek camp had 12 inhabitants, while the Fish Eating Creek camp had 32 inhabitants. Additionally, the Fish Eating Creek settlement is said to have contained 32 chickees and included a square ground (STOF 2023: 9). The continued use of the square ground demonstrates the continuity of precontact cultural practices in the face of the monumental societal changes following the Seminole War.

Though the heat of the Seminole War had passed, post-war settlements were still not permanent. Reasons for changes in settlement location were variable. Sometimes changes in settlement location occurred due to cultural stigma. Other times, settlement locations changed to allow more strategic positions by which to more effective engage in commerce with American trading companies (STOF 2023: 10). Whatever the impetus, the post-war adaptive settlement strategies of the Seminole had intention and purpose and illustrate the continued survival of Seminole culture and the people.

Reservation Period Seminole Settlement

The beginning of the Reservation Period in Florida began with the opening of the Brighton Reservation on Jun 13, 1935. A nucleus for the Seminole Tribe of Florida, the Brighton Reservation brought together tribal members from settlements throughout the state. The Brighton Reservation experienced three major phases of its settlement: 1. settlements based on the formation of the reservation (1930-1940); 2. settlements based on the cattle industry and administration complex locations (1940-1960); 3. settlements near major roadways and near the administration complex. These settlements were all established on tree islands, continuing the cultural tradition of the post-war era (STOF 2023).

Regional History

Volusia County, located in east-central Florida, spans from the Atlantic coast to the St. Johns River. Volusia County was established on December 29, 1854, as Florida's 29th county, carved from the expansive Orange County (Shofner, 1981). Named after the settlement of Volusia, possibly derived from a Seminole word or a Belgian settler named Volus, the county originally covered a vast area, including parts of present-day Flagler and Brevard counties (Gold, 1927). Prior to statehood, the region was home to the Timucua and later the Seminole peoples, who faced displacement during the Second Seminole War (1835–1842) (Mahon, 1967). By 1845, American settlers, primarily from the Carolinas and Georgia, were drawn to the area's fertile lands and access to the St. Johns River, a vital trade route (Williamson, 1991). The county's creation reflected Florida's growing population and the need for localized governance as settlement expanded.

The first county seat, established in 1854, was Enterprise, a settlement on the north shore of Lake Monroe along the St. Johns River (Shofner, 1981). Enterprise's strategic location facilitated steamboat traffic, making it a commercial hub for early settlers. However, by the 1880s, the rise of railroads shifted economic focus inland. In 1888, DeLand, founded by Henry A. DeLand in 1876, became the county seat

after a contentious election (Dreggors & Hess, 1997). DeLand's growth was spurred by its designation as the site of Stetson University (founded in 1883 as DeLand Academy), which fostered a cultural and intellectual identity distinct from the coastal communities (Lycan, 1983). The Volusia County Courthouse, constructed in DeLand in 1929, solidified its status as the administrative center, while Daytona Beach emerged as a separate economic powerhouse (Volusia County Government, 2020).

Following Florida's statehood, Volusia County's economy relied on cattle ranching, citrus groves, and timber, supported by enslaved labor until the Civil War (Shofner, 1981). The county's population in 1860 was around 1,200, with plantations along the St. Johns River (U.S. Census Bureau, 1860). During the Civil War, Volusia remained under Confederate control, but Union raids disrupted local agriculture (Williamson, 1991). Post-war Reconstruction saw an influx of freedmen and northern settlers, laying the groundwork for cultural diversity. The establishment of New Smyrna as a port and the arrival of the Florida East Coast Railway in the 1880s connected Volusia to broader markets, spurring growth (Gold, 1927).

The late 19th century marked Volusia's emergence as a tourist destination. The arrival of Henry Flagler's railroad in 1888 transformed Daytona, incorporated in 1876, into a resort town (Dreggors & Hess, 1997). Wealthy northerners flocked to its beaches, and the Ormond Hotel (opened in 1888) became a symbol of luxury (Punnett, 1992). The county's cultural landscape diversified with African American communities, particularly Midway, which thrived as a commercial and cultural hub (Griffin, 1999). The early 20th century saw Daytona Beach's beaches gain fame for automobile racing, with the first recorded speed trials in 1903. These events, held on the hard-packed sand, attracted international attention and laid the foundation for motorsport culture (Strickland, 2003).

The Great Depression hit Volusia hard, with citrus and tourism industries suffering (Shofner, 1981). New Deal programs, including the Works Progress Administration, funded infrastructure projects like roads and schools, bolstering recovery (Volusia County Government, 2020). World War II brought economic revival, as DeLand Naval Air Station (established in 1942) trained pilots, and coastal areas supported military efforts (Lycan, 1983). The war also diversified the workforce, with women and African Americans taking on new roles (Griffin, 1999). Post-war, the county's population surged, reaching 74,229 by 1950, driven by veterans settling in the area and the growing appeal of coastal living (U.S. Census Bureau, 1950).

The 1950s cemented Volusia's place in motorsport history with the opening of Daytona International Speedway in 1959, replacing beach races. The Speedway, backed by NASCAR founder Bill France Sr., drew thousands annually, shaping Daytona Beach's identity as the "World Center of Racing" (Strickland, 2003). Culturally, the county grappled with segregation, with civil rights activism in the 1960s leading to the integration of schools and public spaces (Griffin, 1999). DeLand remained a center of education, with Stetson University fostering literary and artistic communities (Lycan, 1983). By the 1970s, tourism dominated, with Daytona Beach's boardwalk and Spring Break culture peaking (Punnett, 1992). The county's population grew to 169,487 by 1980, reflecting suburbanization and infrastructure expansion, including Interstate 95 (U.S. Census Bureau, 1980).

BACKGROUND REVIEW

The background review consisted of a cultural resources and environmental literature review of the Subject Area and a 0.5-mile (1-km) radius around the Subject Area. A SWCA archaeologist reviewed the Florida Master Site File (FMSF) for any previously recorded surveys and historic or prehistoric sites located within or near the Subject Area. These sources provided information on the nature and location of previously conducted archaeological surveys and previously recorded cultural resource sites. Site files, relevant maps, National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) listings, cemeteries, historical markers, and historic trails and highways were also reviewed. An area view of historic topographic maps from the early to mid-1900s (Topoview), historical maps, aerial photographs, geological maps, and the NRCS Web Soil Survey were also examined for historical and environmental information related to the Subject Area.

Previous Cultural Resources Investigations

According to the Florida Master Site File (FMSF) data base, one previous cultural resource survey has been completed within 0.5 miles of the Subject Area (FMSF 2024) (Table 1 and **Error! Reference source not found.**5). This survey does not intersect with the current Subject Area. SWCA conducted the cultural resource survey for Creek Crossing Phase 1 in 2024, but this survey has yet to be entered into the state's database.

Table 1. Cultural resources investigations within 0.5 mile of the Subject Area

Survey No.	Project	Year	Investigator	Agency/Sponsor
7757	Proposed Wireless Tower, Taylor and 415	2001	Carlson, Betsy	Geosyntec Consultants

Source: FMSF (2024).

Previously Recorded Cultural Resources

The background review revealed that no cultural resources to have been previously identified within the project area. Expanding the search to include the general vicinity revealed one historic structure has been recorded within a half mile of the project area (Table 2 and Figure 5). The 2024 SWCA survey encountered one archaeological site (8VO10922) deemed ineligible for listing in the NRHP; this resource has yet to be added to the state's database.

Table 2. Previously Recorded Cultural Resources Within 0.5 Mile of the Project Area

Site No.	Site Name	Site Type	Site Type II	Date	NRHP Status
VO04759	3709 Charles Road	Historic Structure	Frame Vernacular; Balloon Wood Frame	ca. 1935	Ineligible for NRHP

Source: FMSF (2024).

Historic Map Review

Historical topographic maps (USGS 1:24,000-scale, Samsula, Florida) 1952 series quadrangle, and aerial photographs (Google Earth 2022 and HistoricAerials.com) were examined. According to the Samsula, FL USGS topographical map series (Figure 6), the property has been undeveloped since the mid-20th

Century. Historical aerial images dating between 1952 and 2021 demonstrate the Subject Area to have existed in its current state as a cleared field with dispersed communities of vegetation (Figure 7).

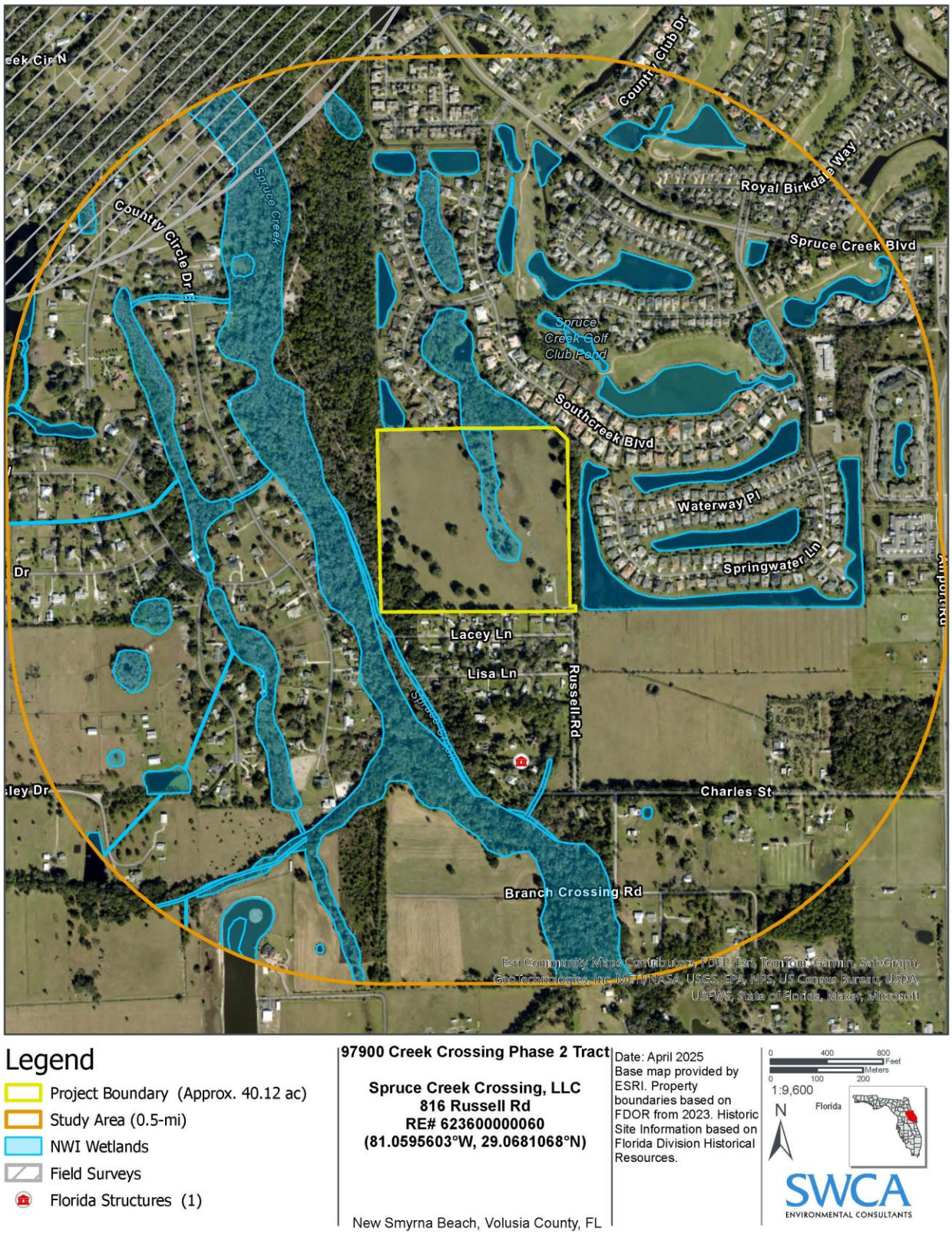

Figure 5. Previous surveys and cultural resources within 0.5 mile of the Subject Area.

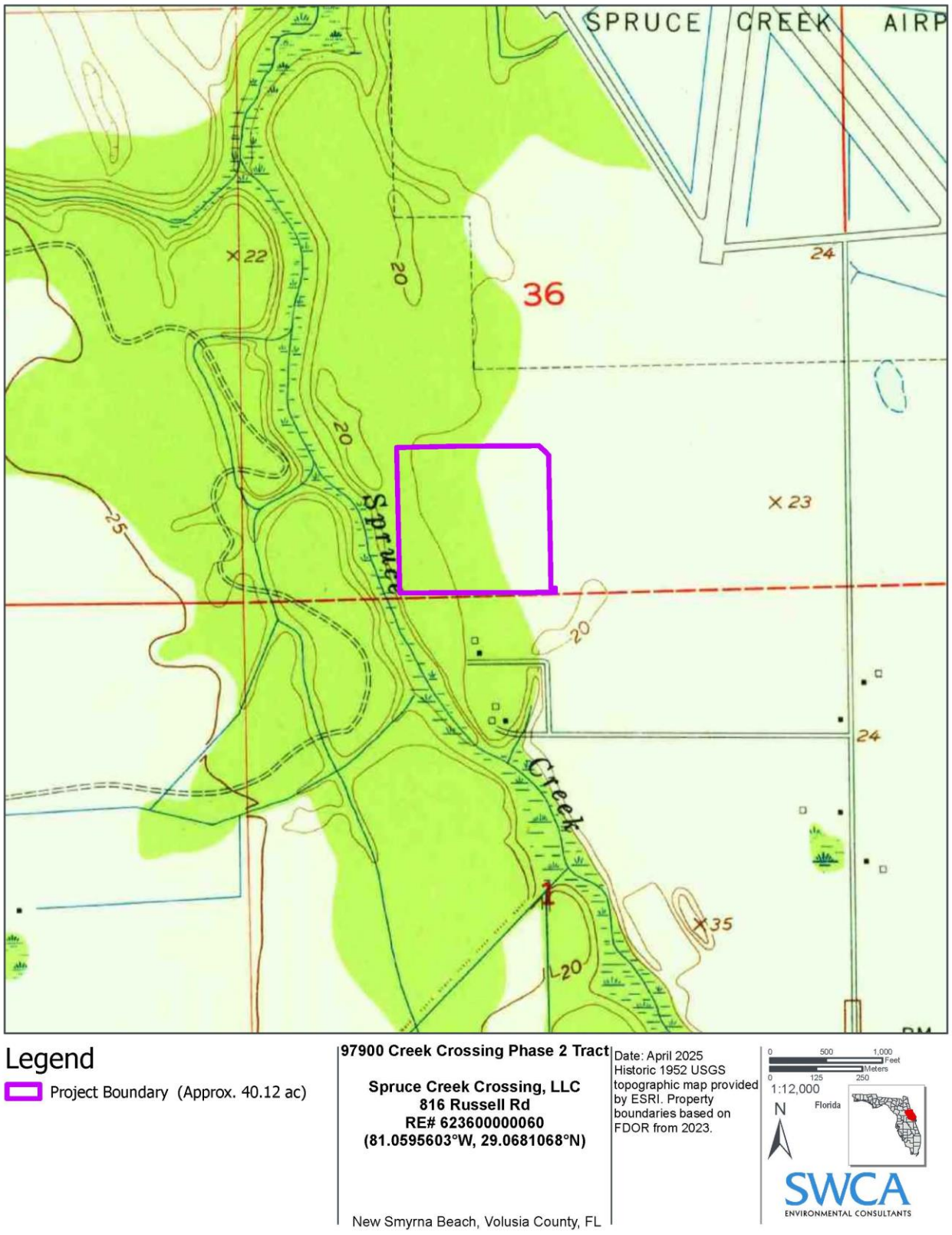

Figure 6. 1952 Samsula, FL USGS topographic map of the Subject Area.

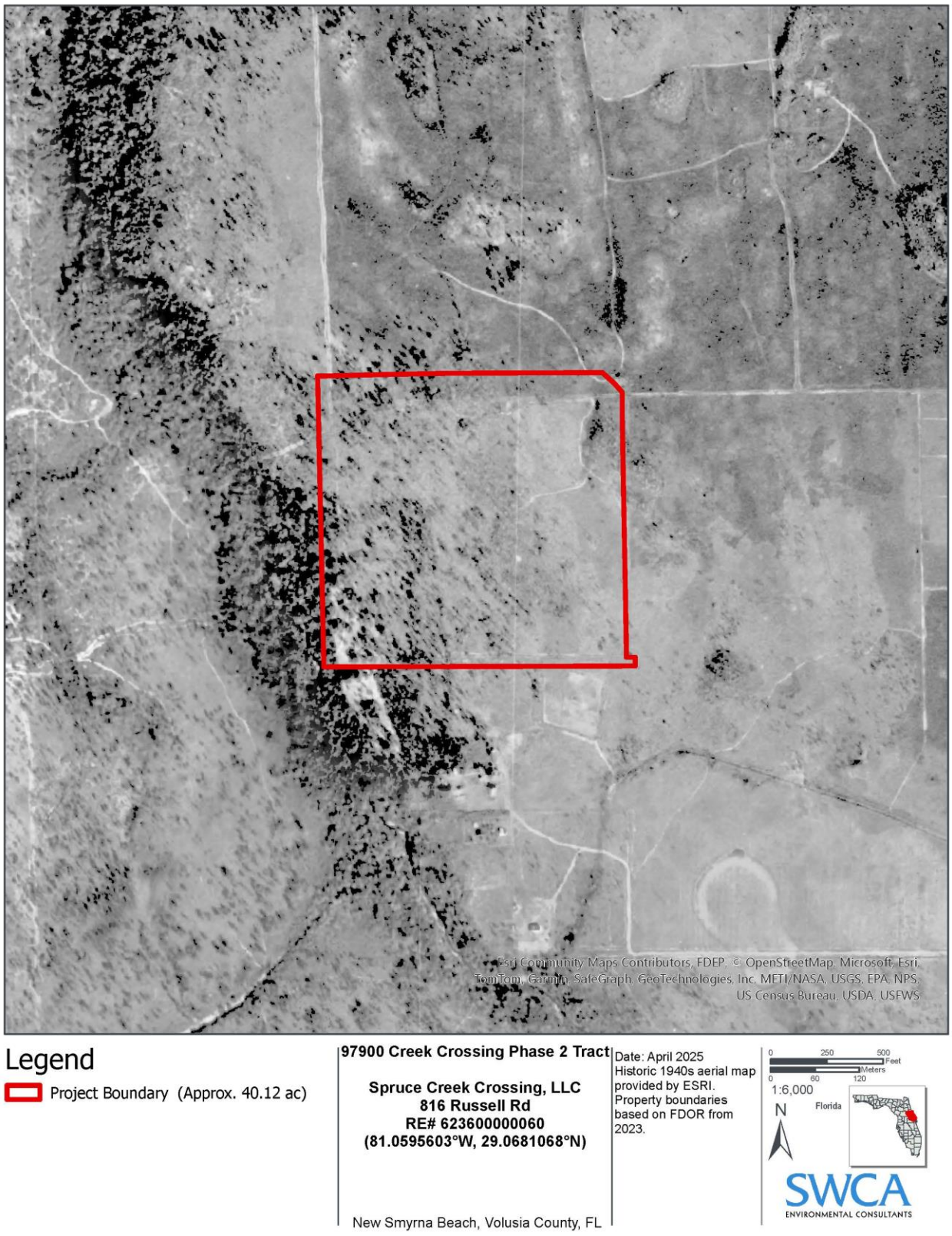

Figure 7. 1940s Aerial Image of the Subject Area.

FIELDWORK METHODOLOGY

The investigation was conducted in accordance with DHR standards. The survey was of sufficient intensity to determine the nature, extent, and, if possible, significance of any cultural resources located within the Subject Area. The Phase I archaeological survey focused on areas not previously tested archaeologically or having been previously developed, along with areas with higher elevation according to LiDAR information. Areas that were identified as untestable were subjected to a pedestrian survey. The survey met all DHR minimum archaeological survey standards for such projects, with any exceptions thoroughly documented.

Pre-Survey Preparations

Prior to the initiation of fieldwork, testing areas were defined and health and safety measures were accounted for. Areas of testing probabilities were defined using several tools, including:

- The identification of developed areas.
- NRCS soil classifications and National Wetland Inventory (NWI) (see Environmental Setting Section).
- LiDAR images (see Environmental Setting Section).
- FMSF database search results (see Background Section).
- Historical and contemporary aerial images.
- And historical and contemporary USGS topographical maps.

The above-mentioned information was used to formulate a testing strategy. Specifically, the information was used to identify areas of moderate to high probability for containing cultural resources. Similarly, the data from the pre-survey sources also eliminated areas from testing due to being wet or severely disturbed.

Pedestrian Inspection and Shovel Testing

A survey which included a pedestrian inspection and subsurface testing was performed throughout upland portions of the Subject Area. Areas deemed testable were based on the results of the pre-survey preparations discussed above.

During the survey, SWCA cultural resource staff conducted a thorough pedestrian inspection of upland portions of the property at 25-meter (m) intervals. These transects were aligned north-south as well as east-west, depending on the terrain, access points, or other obstructions such as wetlands. During the walkover, all areas of exposed ground surface were inspected for the presence of cultural material older than 50 years.

Subsurface explorations performed during the survey were conducted through the excavation of shovel tests within testable areas that were described above. Shovel tests were key to determining the level of disturbance within the Subject Area and the nature of the soils, geology, and topography. All shovel tests were 50 cm by 50 cm and dug to a depth of at least 100 cm below surface (cmbs) whenever possible. Shovel tests were spaced at intervals of 25, 50, and 100 m depending on a specific area's probability for containing cultural resources. SWCA also used judgmental testing at locations where conditions indicated the need for additional subsurface testing.

All excavated dirt was screened through ¼-inch hardware mesh, and all shovel tests were backfilled upon completion. The location of each shovel test was plotted using a GPS receiver, and each test was recorded on appropriate project field forms. Shovel test locations and the location of surface finds were uploaded to an online data collection application in real time.

Historic Resource Survey

A historic resource survey was conducted of the Subject Area and the surrounding visual effect area (VEA). The goal of the survey was to identify all above-ground historic resources built prior to 1975 and to assess the NRHP status. Historic topographical maps, historic aerial images, and the county property appraiser database were used to ascertain possible historic structures within and nearby the project tract. Fieldwork included a windshield survey to inspect and photograph the buildings. Structures outside the Subject Area were either inspected from the project boundaries or from the right-of-way.

The results of the research and the windshield survey were reviewed to determine whether any locally, regionally, and/or nationally significant event occurred on or was associated with any historic structures and associated properties that meets the requirements of Criterion A of the NRHP or whether any person listed in ownership of the property meets the requirements of Criterion B of the NRHP. Criterion C judges the uniqueness of the architectural style, while the likelihood of future research to yield important information in history or prehistory is evaluated under Criterion D.

Site Recording

When archaeological sites were identified within the Subject Area, they were explored as much as possible while taking into consideration land access constraints. Any identified sites were assessed for potential significance. Additional shovel tests were conducted in accordance with Florida standards at all identified sites to define horizontal and vertical boundaries where appropriate. The goals of the survey were to identify, delineate, and evaluate the NRHP eligibility of each site.

The following standard information was gathered during evaluations:

- Horizontal and vertical dimensions of the site,
- Determining site contexts,
- Identifying site function(s) through artifact identification and distribution,
- Assess site integrity, and
- To assess data potential if data recovery is required.

A detailed plan map of each site was produced, and site locations were plotted on USGS 7.5-minute topographic maps and relevant project maps and attached to the appropriate site data form. SWCA used submeter accuracy GPS units to map sites and spatially relate them to the Survey Areas.

The current testing strategy applied to the newly recorded site included 25 m interval testing as the site boundaries did not require further defining.

Laboratory Analysis/Reporting

Once the archaeological survey was completed, SWCA analyzed the field data and artifacts and began preparing the report of investigations.

All cultural material collected during the investigation was cleaned, analyzed, and entered a database. A standardized catalogue system, initiated during fieldwork, would have been employed to ensure that provenience data were recorded for all artifacts. This record-keeping method facilitates subsequent laboratory processing and analysis.

This cultural resource report of the Subject Area was written to conform to all DHR report guidelines, and, to ensure compliance, the DHR Sufficiency Checklist was followed. The field data analysis included mapping, the production of appropriate site forms for all documented resources, and the review, organization, and assessment of field notes. Once this was completed, SWCA prepared this report, which includes a brief discussion of previous investigations in the area, background cultural and environmental settings, the methodology used in the investigation, the general nature and extent of cultural resources encountered during the archaeological survey, recommendations on the need for further work (if any), and the potential significance of the cultural resources regarding future development and eligibility for the NRHP.

NRHP Eligibility Recommendation

All cultural resources identified or revisited during the current investigation received a preliminary assessment of eligibility for the NRHP. These resources were then evaluated for their significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture as districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. For a cultural resource to qualify for the NRHP, it must meet one or more of the NRHP criteria under 36 CFR 60.

Criteria for Evaluation

A summary of the Criteria for Evaluation and Criteria Considerations provided by the NPS (2017) is as follows:

- **Criterion A.** That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- **Criterion B.** That are associated with the lives of significant persons in our past; or
- **Criterion C.** That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction; that represent the work of a master; that possess high artistic values; or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- **Criterion D.** That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in history or prehistory.

Criteria Considerations

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

a. A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or

b. A building or structure removed from its original location, but which is primarily significant for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or

c. A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building associated with his or her productive life; or

d. A cemetery that derives its primary importance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or

e. A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or

f. A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance; or

g. A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Curation

Upon the competition of the project, all artifacts will be sent to the project sponsor.

Procedures to Implement for Unanticipated Finds

Archaeologists frequently encounter unanticipated features that require efforts that exceed the scope of project expectations. In such cases, it is sometimes necessary to reevaluate the research design and/or seek additional funding to address unexpected discoveries. It is our policy to amend a project research design as needed to ensure that proper treatment and evaluation are afforded to unexpected findings. Coordination with the client and the office of the SHPO is a necessary step in such an approach. Unexpected findings might include the discovery of human remains during project construction, which would require additional coordination with the state archaeologist in compliance with Chapter 872.05, Florida Statutes, or a medical examiner if the remains appear less than 75 years old.

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATION

The investigation was conducted in April 2025 and included archaeological testing and a historic resource survey. The survey was of sufficient intensity to determine the nature, extent, and, if possible, significance of any cultural resources located within the Subject Area. The survey met all DHR minimum cultural resource assessment survey standards for such projects, with any exceptions thoroughly documented.

Pedestrian Survey and Shovel Testing

The current survey included a pedestrian inspection coupled with subsurface testing.

The pedestrian inspection was conducted along 25 m intervals that were aligned north-south except around the extensive wetland system in the eastern portion of the property. The walkover survey revealed the general setting of the Subject Area to consist of a cleared field with dispersed communities of vegetation surrounding its central wetland (Figure 8 and Figure 9). Though the pedestrian survey resulted in the identification of no archaeological materials nor historical cultural resources, a man made cattle pond was identified in the property's north central extent which provides us information regarding the Subject Area's history of land use not observable in historical quadrangles or historical aerial images.

Figure 8. Photograph of the general project setting #1.

Figure 9. Photograph of the general project setting #2.

In addition to the pedestrian inspection, the Subject Area was subjected to subsurface testing throughout the project tract (Figure 10). The subsurface testing portion of the survey included the excavation of 36 shovel tests, each measuring 50 cm x 50 cm extending from ground surface to 100 cm below surface whenever possible.

A typical shovel test consisted of two distinct soil strata that included the following: Stratum I consisted of dark grey sand (10YR 4/1) from ground surface to 39 cm below surface (cmbs); Stratum 2 consisted of mottled and compacted sands (10YR 3/1 & 5/1) from 39 to 100 cmbs.

Subsurface testing resulted in no positive shovel tests.

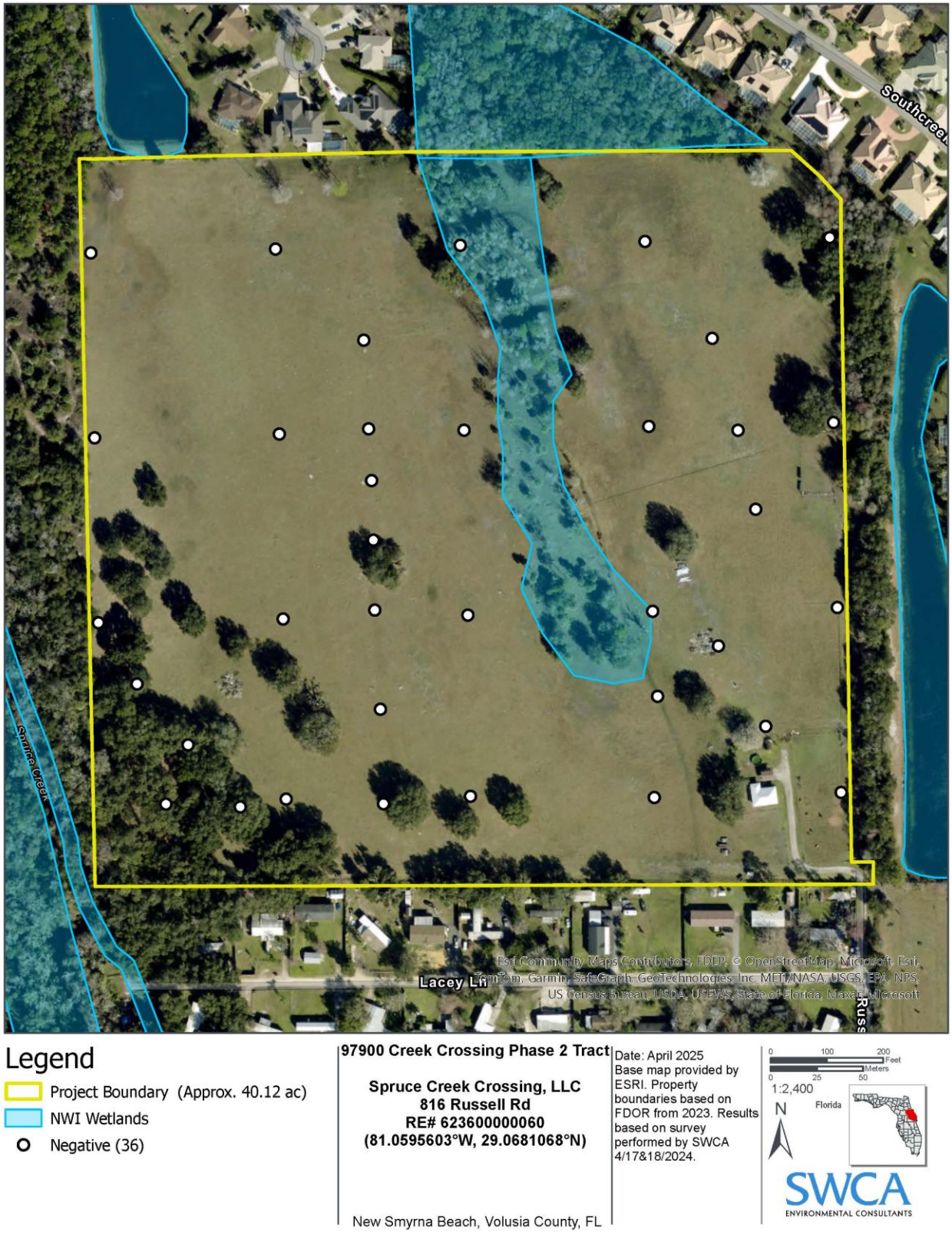

Figure 10. Results of field investigation.

Historic Resource Survey

In addition to the archaeological testing, SWCA also performed a historic resource analysis and windshield survey. According to the Volusia County property appraiser online database, there are no standing structures within the Subject Area, and none built prior to 1975 outside the Subject Area within line of sight.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Between April 17 and 18th, 2025, SWCA conducted a cultural resources assessment survey of the Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract in Volusia County, Florida. All work was conducted in support of the client's State of Florida permit application (Application No.: TBD) that complies with Department of State - Division of Historical Resources (DHR) standards.

During the investigation, a thorough pedestrian inspection was conducted along 25 m interval transects oriented north-south. In addition to the walkover survey, 36 shovel tests were excavated throughout upland portions of the Subject Area. The pedestrian inspection and subsurface testing revealed poorly drained soils in throughout the Subject Area. The historic resource survey revealed no buildings within or near the Subject Area that were built prior to 1975.

As a result of the survey, no archaeological materials or historic cultural resources were encountered.

In accordance with state and local regulations, SWCA has made a reasonable and good faith effort to identify historic properties within the proposed Subject Area. Based on the results of this investigation, SWCA recommends a finding of NO HISTORIC PROPERTIES AFFECTED (per 36 CFR 800.4[d][1]) within the proposed Subject Area.

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APPENDIX A

FMSF Form

Clear Form Values

Ent D (FMSF only) _____

Survey Log Sheet

Florida Master Site File
Version 5.0 3/19

Survey # (FMSF only) _____

Consult *Guide to the Survey Log Sheet* for detailed instructions.

Manuscript Information

Survey Project (name and project phase)
Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract

Report Title (exactly as on title page)
A Cultural Resources Assessment Survey of the Creek Crossing Phase 2 Tract, Volusia County, Florida

Report Authors (as on title page)
1. Brent Handley
2. Matthew Fisher
3. _____
4. _____

Publication Year 2025 **Number of Pages in Report** (do not include site forms) 35

Publication Information (Give series, number in series, publisher and city. For article or chapter, cite page numbers. Use the style of *American Antiquity*.)

Supervisors of Fieldwork (even if same as author) Names Brent Handley

Affiliation of Fieldworkers: Organization SWCA Environmental Consultants City _____

Key Words/Phrases (Don't use county name, or common words like *archaeology*, *structure*, *survey, architecture, etc.*)
1. Spruce Creek 3. Volusia Ridges 5. _____ 7. _____
2. Halifax River 4. _____ 6. _____ 8. _____

Survey Sponsors (corporation, government unit, organization, or person funding fieldwork) Clear Sponsor Values
Name Spruce Creek Crossing, LLC Organization _____
Address/Phone/E-mail 4700 Millenia Blvd, Suite 260 Orlando, FL. 32839

Recorder of Log Sheet Matthew Fisher **Date Log Sheet Completed** 4-22-2025

Is this survey or project a continuation of a previous project? ☒No ☐Yes: **Previous survey #s (FMSF only)** _____

Project Area Mapping

Clear Mapping Values

Counties (select every county in which field survey was done; attach additional sheet if necessary)
1. Volusia 3. _____ 5. _____
2. _____ 4. _____ 6. _____

USGS 1:24,000 Map Names/Year of Latest Revision (attach additional sheet if necessary)
1. Name SAMSULA Year 2024
2. Name _____ Year _____
3. Name _____ Year _____
4. Name _____ Year _____
5. Name _____ Year _____
6. Name _____ Year _____

Field Dates and Project Area Description

Fieldwork Dates: Start 4-17-2025 End 4-18-2025 **Total Area Surveyed** (fill in one) _____ hectares 40.00 acres
Number of Distinct Tracts or Areas Surveyed 1
If Corridor (fill in one for each) **Width:** _____ meters _____ feet **Length:** _____ kilometers _____ miles

Florida Master Site File / Div. of Historical Resources / R.A. Gray Bldg / 500 S Bronough St., Tallahassee, Florida 32399-0250
Phone 850.245.6440, Fax 850.245.6439, Email: SiteFile@dos.myflorida.com

Survey Log Sheet

Survey #_____

Research and Field Methods

Types of Survey (select all that apply): ☒archaeological ☒architectural ☒historical/archival ☐underwater
☐damage assessment ☐monitoring report ☐other(describe): _____

Scope/Intensity/Procedures

Phase I CRAS involving pedestrian survey and subsurface shovel testing at 25-, 50-, and 100m intervals.

Preliminary Methods (select as many as apply to the project as a whole)

☐Florida Archives (Gray Building)	☐library research- *local public*	☒local property or tax records	☒other historic maps	☒LIDAR
☐Florida Photo Archives (Gray Building)	☐library-special collection	☐newspaper files	☒soils maps or data	☐other remote sensing
☒Site File property search	☐Public Lands Survey (maps at DEP)	☒literature search	☒windshield survey	
☐Site File survey search	☐local informant(s)	☐Sanborn Insurance maps	☒aerial photography	

☐other (describe): _____

Archaeological Methods (select as many as apply to the project as a whole)

☐Check here if **NO** archaeological methods were used.

☐surface collection, controlled	☐shovel test-other screen size	☐block excavation (at least 2x2 m)	☐metal detector
☐surface collection, **un**controlled	☐water screen	☐soil resistivity	☐other remote sensing
☒shovel test-1/4"screen	☐posthole tests	☐magnetometer	☒pedestrian survey
☐shovel test-1/8" screen	☐auger tests	☐side scan sonar	☐unknown
☐shovel test 1/16"screen	☐coring	☐ground penetrating radar (GPR)	
☐shovel test-unscreened	☐test excavation (at least 1x2 m)	☒LIDAR	

☐other (describe): _____

Historical/Architectural Methods (select as many as apply to the project as a whole)

☐Check here if **NO** historical/architectural methods were used.

☐building permits	☐demolition permits	☐neighbor interview	☒subdivision maps
☐commercial permits	☒windshield survey	☐occupant interview	☒tax records
☐interior documentation	☒local property records	☐occupation permits	☐unknown

☐other (describe): _____

Survey Results

Resource Significance Evaluated? ☐Yes ☒No Clear Check Boxes

Count of Previously Recorded Resources 0 **Count of Newly Recorded Resources** 0

List Previously Recorded Site ID#s with Site File Forms Completed (attach additional pages if necessary)

List Newly Recorded Site ID#s (attach additional pages if necessary)

Site Forms Used: ☐Site File Paper Forms ☒Site File PDF Forms

REQUIRED: Attach Map of Survey or Project Area Boundary

SHPO USE ONLY **SHPO USE ONLY** **SHPO USE ONLY**

Origin of Report: ☐872 ☐Public Lands ☐UW ☐1A32 # _____ ☐Academic ☐Contract ☐Avocational
☐Grant Project # _____ ☐Compliance Review: CRAT # _____

Type of Document: ☐Archaeological Survey ☐Historical/Architectural Survey ☐Marine Survey ☐Cell Tower CRAS ☐Monitoring Report
☐Overview ☐Excavation Report ☐Multi-Site Excavation Report ☐Structure Detailed Report ☐Library, Hist. or Archival Doc
☐Desktop Analysis ☐MPS ☐MRA ☐TG ☐Other: _____

Document Destination: Plottable Projects **Plotability:** _____

Florida Master Site File / Div. of Historical Resources / R.A. Gray Bldg / 500 S Bronough St., Tallahassee, Florida 32399-0250
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