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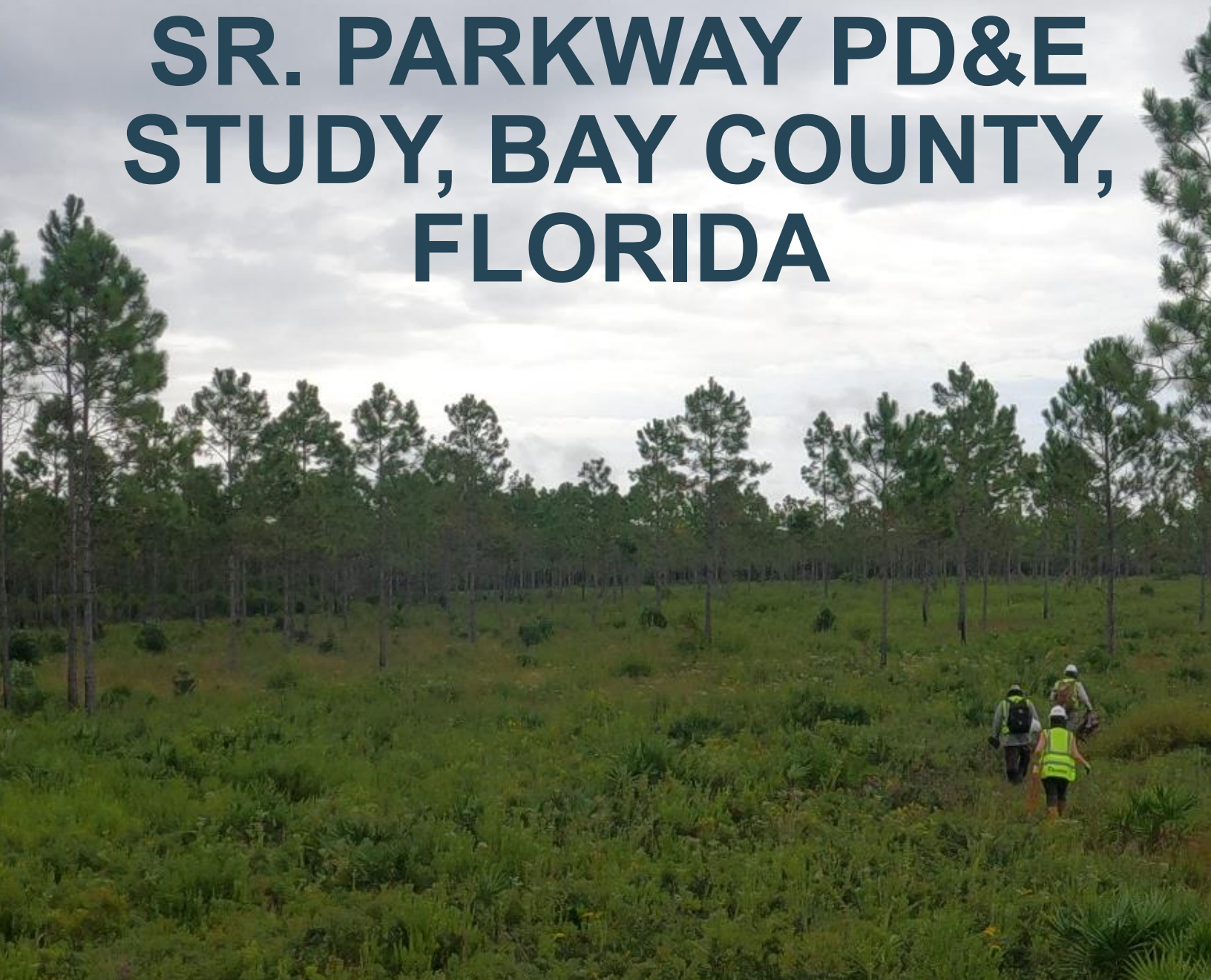
Cultural Resource Assessment Survey

September 2025

Prepared for Bay County

Prepared by AtkinsRéalis USA, Inc

PHILLIP GRIFFITTS SR. PARKWAY PD&E STUDY, BAY COUNTY, FLORIDA



CULTURAL RESOURCE ASSESSMENT SURVEY
Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study
Bay County, Florida

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September 2025

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

On behalf of Bay County, AtkinsRéalis has prepared a Cultural Resource Assessment Survey (CRAS) for the Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway in Bay County, Florida. The proposed undertaking is expected to impact the Breakfast Point Mitigation Bank (BPMB), a state and federally authorized, privately owned mitigation bank established to provide compensatory mitigation for unavoidable wetland impacts within the approved mitigation service area (MSA). The approximately five-mile-long project area with associated pond sites extends from Clara Avenue to Chip Seal Parkway in Sections 22, 23, 24, and 25, Township 3 South, Range 16 West and Sections 19, 29, and 30, Township 3 South, Range 15 West of the Panama City Beach, FL (2024) United State Geological Survey (USGS) quadrangle map.

The purpose of this CRAS is to identify any archaeological sites and/or historic resources within the area of potential effects (APE) and assess their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) according to criteria set forth in 36 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) 60.4 and, if applicable, to apply the Criteria of Adverse Effects, as set forth in 36 CFR Part 800.5(a)(1), to the project. Based on the scale and nature of the proposed project, the project APE is defined as those areas subject to ground disturbance and indirect effects as a result of project activities.

The CRAS was designed in compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (Public Law 89-665, as amended), as implemented by 336 CFR 800 (Protection of Historic Properties, effective August 2004); Section 102 of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969, as amended (42 United States Code [USC] 4321 et seq.), as implemented by the regulation of the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) (40 CFR Parts 1500–1508); as well as Chapters 267.061 and 373.414, Florida Statutes (FS), and Chapter 1A-46, Florida Administrative Code (FAC). All work was performed in accordance with the standards outlined in “Module Three Guidelines for Use by Historic Preservation Professionals” (Florida Division of Historical Resources [FDHR] 2003), by staff who meet the Secretary of the Interior’s Professional Qualification Standards (48 Federal Register [FR] 44716) for archaeology, history, architecture, architectural history, or historic architecture.

A desktop analysis was conducted prior to any field surveys to identify any previously recorded cultural resources and any parcels of historic age with the potential for containing structures 48 years of age or older within the APE. To account for project build time, an additional two years were added to the period of evaluation, i.e., constructed in or prior to 1977. Background research did not identify any previously recorded archaeological sites or historic resources within and/or adjacent to the APE.

The field survey consisted of a thorough visual inspection, subsurface testing, and photographic documentation of the APE. A total of 18 shovel tests were excavated within the project build alternatives. As a result of the current investigation, no archaeological sites or archaeological occurrences were identified within the APE.

Based on the results of this assessment, AtkinsRéalis recommends a finding of ***no historic properties affected*** for this project. No further work is recommended.

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1. INTRODUCTION

On behalf of Bay County, AtkinsRéalis has prepared a Cultural Resource Assessment Survey (CRAS) for the Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway in Bay County, Florida. The proposed undertaking is expected to impact the Breakfast Point Mitigation Bank (BPMB), a state and federally authorized, privately owned mitigation bank established to provide compensatory mitigation for unavoidable wetland impacts within the approved mitigation service area (MSA). The approximately five-mile-long project area with associated pond sites extends from Clara Avenue to Chip Seal Parkway in Sections 19, 29, and 30, Township 3 South (S), Range 15 West (W) and Sections 15, 22, 23, and 24, Township 3 S, Range 16 W of the Panama City Beach, FL (2024) United State Geological Survey (USGS) 7.5-Minute series quadrangle (**Figure 1.1**).

The purpose of this CRAS is to identify any archaeological sites and/or historic resources within the area of potential effects (APE) and assess their eligibility for listing in the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) according to criteria set forth in 36 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) 60.4 and, if applicable, to apply the Criteria of Adverse Effects, as set forth in 36 CFR Part 800.5(a)(1), to the project. Based on the scale and nature of the proposed project, the project APE is defined as those areas subject to ground disturbance and indirect effects as a result of project activities.

The CRAS was designed in compliance with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (Public Law 89-665, as amended), as implemented by 336 CFR 800 (Protection of Historic Properties, effective August 2004); Section 102 of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969, as amended (42 United States Code [USC] 4321 et seq.), as implemented by the regulation of the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) (40 CFR Parts 1500–1508); as well as Chapters 267.061 and 373.414, Florida Statutes (FS), and Chapter 1A-46, Florida Administrative Code (FAC). All work was performed in accordance with the standards outlined in “Module Three Guidelines for Use by Historic Preservation Professionals” (Florida Division of Historical Resources (FDHR) 2003).

Fieldwork for the CRAS was conducted over two separate periods in October 2024 and July 2025 by Anthony Boucher, M.A., Thomas Lee, M.A., Cassidy Rayburn, M.A., and Joshua Goodwin, M.A., RPA. All AtkinsRéalis staff who contributed to this report meet the Secretary of the Interior’s Professional Qualification Standards (48 Federal Register [FR] 44716) for archaeology, history, architecture, architectural history, or historic architecture.

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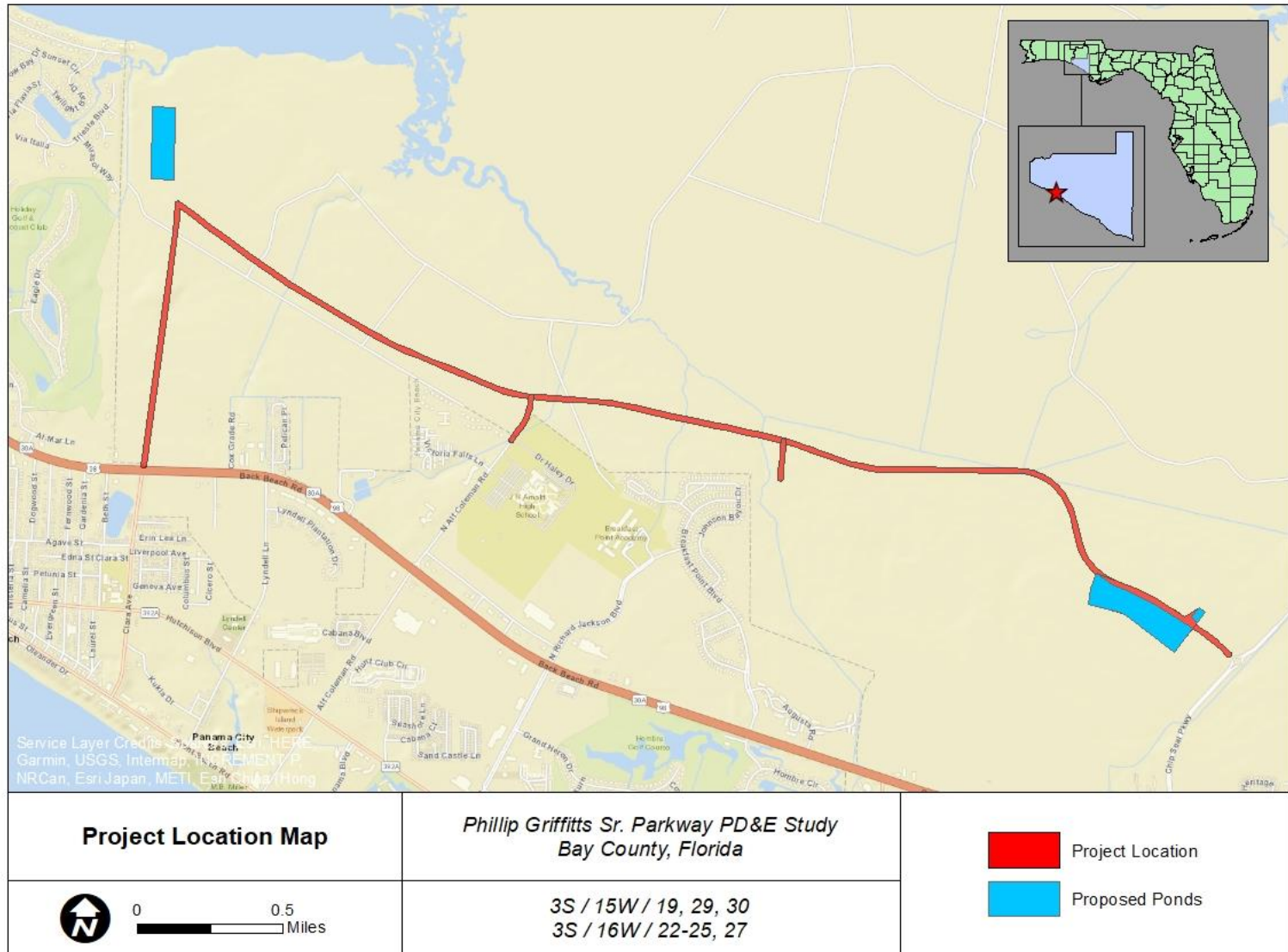


Figure 1.1. Project Location Map (Esri 2025).

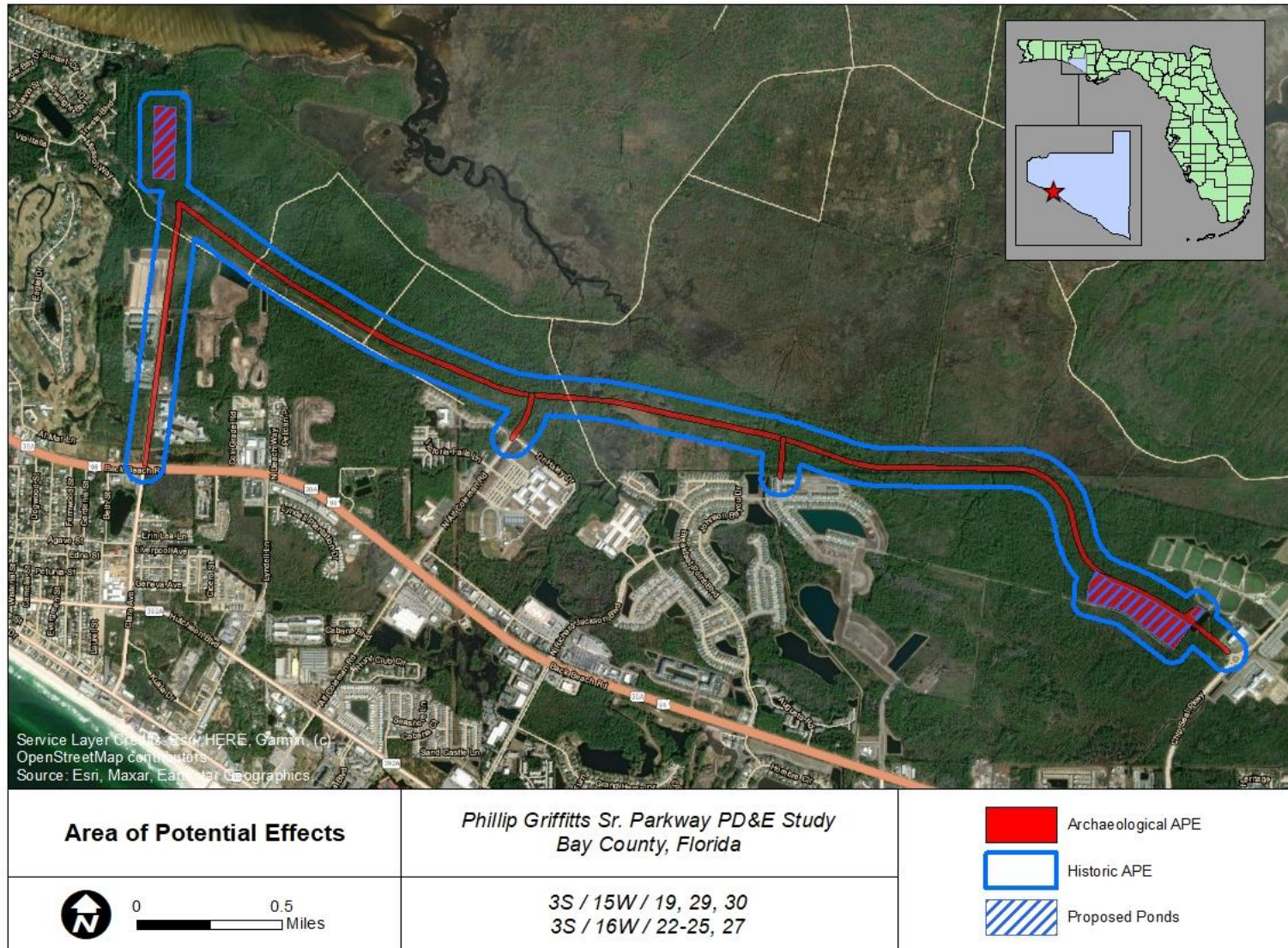
1.1 Project Purpose/Description

The purpose of this project is to improve regional mobility and connectivity for vehicle and pedestrian traffic in Panama City Beach by providing an alternative route to US 98 (SR 30)/Panama City Beach Parkway. The corridor is intended to provide additional east-west capacity; improve connectivity to J.R. Arnold High School, A. Gary Walsingham Academy, the Panama City Beach Publix Sports Park, and the Breakfast Point neighborhood; alleviate congestion on US 98 (SR 30)/Panama City Beach Parkway; and improve safety on US 98 (SR 30)/Panama Beach Parkway. The proposed corridor extends approximately five miles from Clara Avenue to Chip Seal Parkway within the city limits of Panama City Beach. The proposed typical section will include a two-lane roadway with 11-foot travel lanes, four-to-five-foot paved shoulders, curb and gutter, and a 10 – 12-foot shared-use-path for most of the project length within a 100-foot ROW.

1.2 Area of Potential Effects (APE)

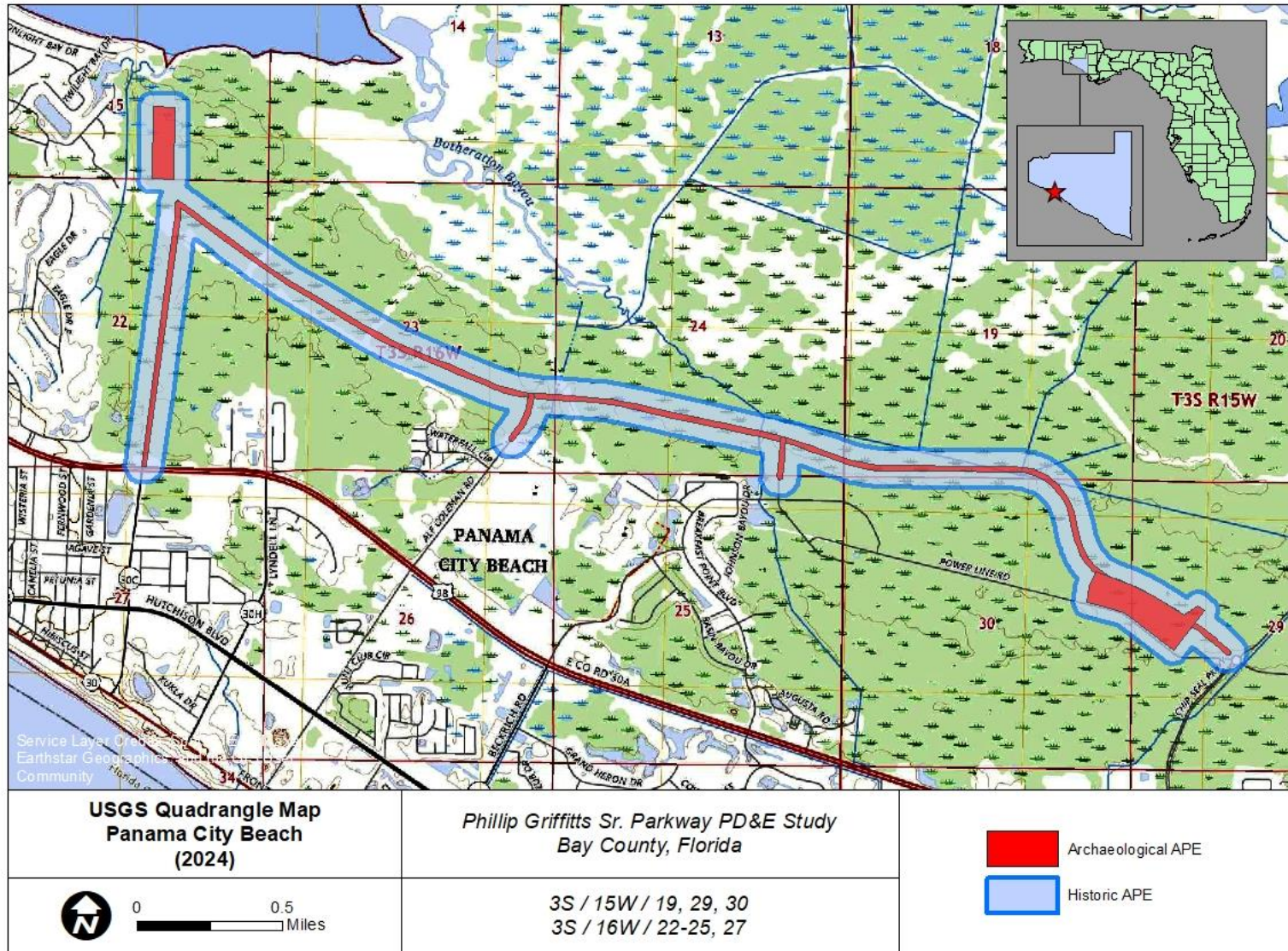
As defined in 36 CFR Part § 800.16(d), the APE is the “geographic area or areas within which an undertaking may directly or indirectly cause alterations in the character or use of historic properties, if any such properties exist.” Based on the scale and nature of the activities, the archaeological APE was confined to the footprint of the proposed improvements, including the roadway alignment and retention pond sites. The historic APE includes those areas encompassed within the archaeological APE as well as those areas within 250 feet of the archaeological APE that may be subject to direct and/or indirect effects as a result of the undertaking (**Figures 1.2 and 1.3**).

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 Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study
 Bay County, Florida



Date: 9/16/2025

Figure 1.2: Area of Potential Effects (APE) map (Esri 2025).



Date: 9/16/2025

Figure 1.3: APE shown on Panama City Beach, FL, USGS 7.5" Series Quadrangle Map (2024).

2. ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

Relative changes in landforms, soils, vegetation, and water availability inform the probability of uncovering *in situ* archaeological material within the APE. Pre-contact archaeological sites are most often found in areas with elevated landforms, better-drained soils, and areas adjacent to freshwater. Post-contact Indigenous and historic archaeological sites are also found in similar areas. Post-contact homesteads and communities developed primarily along waterways, trails, early roads, and railroad corridors. This section presents an evaluation of the environmental setting of the project APE and the degree to which development activities have subsequently altered natural features. Understanding the relative distribution of environmental variables and anthropogenic disturbance informs our evaluation of archaeological probability within the current project area.

2.1 Project Location

The APE for the proposed project improvements lies in Panama City Beach in Bay County, within Township 03 S, Range 15 W, Sections: 19, 29, and 30, and Township 03 S, Range 16 W Sections 15, 22, 23, and 24 of the Panama City Beach, FL USGS 7.5-Minute series quadrangle (2024) (**Figure 1.3**). The project area is located on land managed by the St. Joe Paper Company in Panama City Beach and includes a strip of approximately 5 miles of planted pine and wetlands crossed by an assortment of ditches, elevated dirt roads, and power lines. The APE is situated less than a half mile south of the banks of the Western Bay and less than a quarter mile south of one of the bay's smaller tributaries. Land between the APE and the bay is mostly an undeveloped floodplain. The Gulf of Mexico ranges between 1 and 1.8 miles south of the APE, and urban development has begun to encroach upon the APE from the coastline. Today, the entire APE has been heavily disturbed by the forestry industry and is mostly associated with activities related to timber production, water management, hunting, and residential development.

2.2 Physiography, Soils, and Vegetation

The project APE is located within the Major Land Resource Area (MLRA) 152A – Eastern Gulf Coast Flatwoods. This section of the Southeastern Coastal Plain is generally flat or gently sloping from north to south. Lakes and ponds are abundant throughout the region. The rivers that cross the MLRA and empty into the Gulf of Mexico include the Escambia, Yellow, Choctawhatchee, Apalachicola, Ochlockonee, and Suwannee Rivers. Within the Coastal Strip section along the Gulf of Mexico, vegetation patterns are dominated by salt marshes and mangroves that form around sporadic estuaries of the beaches and barrier islands. Further from the Coastal Strip section, the dominant vegetation pattern is that of pine savanna flats, which are heavily reliant on regular fire disturbances for maintenance. Undeveloped areas within the MLRA are mostly forested and owned privately as part of the pulp and paper industry. Relatively small portions of this MLRA are used for farming or ranching. Crops that are grown include corn, peanuts, tobacco, and soybeans. The Coastal Strip in this MLRA is an international tourist destination for consumers interested in recreational activities centered around the many beaches and waterways (United States Department of Agriculture [USDA] 2022; Williams, Scott, and Upchurch 2022).

Physiographically, MLRA 152A is located within both the Florida section of the Coastal Plain province as well as the East Gulf Coastal Plain section of the same province. The APE for this project is located approximately 40 kilometers (km) (25 miles) east of this transition, just within the Lower Delta Geomorphology Province of the Apalachicola Delta District within the Florida Section. The general characteristics of the larger delta were shaped by two sets of processes. The first are those processes related to prehistoric changes in sea level, resulting in the constant creation and destruction of cusped deltas in what is now part of the inland region. These marine landscape features now comprise the dry ridges and escarpment that separate the delta from the Dougherty Karst district to the north. Late Pliocene and Early Pleistocene shorelines were predominantly oriented northwest to southeast on the west side of the modern Apalachicola River Delta and southwest to northeast on the east side of the delta. The other major processes involve the deposition of quartz sand across the delta via the Apalachicola River. The influx of this siliciclastic sediment into the region created an environment that was no longer favorable to the production of limestone characteristic of the underlying geology, and which continues further south near the Florida Keys. The siliciclastic deposits from the river also buried any karst features in a thick layer of sediment. The resulting reduction in karst limestone features on the surface is a distinct characteristic of this region that separates it from the neighboring Dougherty Karst and Ocala Karst Geomorphology Districts (Williams, Scott, and Upchurch 2022).

The coastal processes that acted upon the delta region in the Pleistocene are still acting upon the modern coastline, resulting in the sometimes-sporadic creation of barrier islands and cusped deltas, narrow sandy beaches, and wide tidal marshes. The underlying geology is comprised of the Miocene Hawthorn Group and Quaternary undifferentiated [siliciclastic] sediments (Brooks 1981). The barrier islands and other edges of the coastal sound consist of Holocene undifferentiated sediments. Elevation within the Lower Delta Province ranges between 0 and 80 ft, generally sloping upward to the north toward the paleo-shorelines previously mentioned (Williams, Scott, and Upchurch 2022).

The soils in the MLRA are typically “very deep, somewhat poorly drained to very poorly drained, and loamy, mucky, or sandy” (USDA 2022:515). Soils of the pine savanna flats are strongly acidic and low in nutrients and organic matter as a result of the regular burning. The area within the APE is dominated by spodosols and histosols with patches of inceptisols. Though covering an area more than 4 miles in length, the entire APE and most of the surrounding landscape are represented by 4 soil types: Pamlico-Dorovan complex, Pottsburg sand, Rutlege sand, and Leon sand (**Table 2.1; Figures 2.1-2.3**).

The Dorovan series consists of sapric, very deep, very poorly drained, moderately permeable soils on densely forested flood plains, hardwood swamps, and depressions along gradient drainageways. They formed in highly decomposed and acidic materials. They are found in generally flat environments with slopes less than 1%. The soils are generally inundated unless the area is artificially drained. Typical Dorovan muck presents as 10YR 2/1 to a depth of 3 to 5 feet before overlaying sandy subsoils that are also stained with acidic organic coatings (USDA 1984:68-69).

Table 2.1: Soils Present in the Project APE (USDA 1984).

Soil Name	Drainage Description	Ecological Community	Topography	Slopes
Pamlico-Dorovan complex	Very poorly drained	Flatwoods	Flat coastal lowlands	0 – 1%
Pottsburg Sand	Poorly drained	Flatwoods	Flat coastal lowlands	< 2%
Rutlege Sand	Very poorly drained	Flatwoods	Flat coastal lowlands	<2%
Leon Sand	Very poorly drained	Flatwoods, scrub	Coastal plains, Florida Ridge	< 5%

The Pamlico series consists of sapric, very poorly drained, moderately permeable soils that formed in highly decomposed organic material underlain by dominantly sandy sediment. These soils are nearly level and most commonly found in depressional areas along low-gradient drainageways. Slopes are generally less than 1% and are concave. The water table is near or above the soil surface except in periods of extended drought or when artificially drained (USDA 1984:75).

Pottsburg series consists of moderately permeable, poorly drained soils that formed in thick beds of loamy marine sediment. These soils are nearly level and generally found in depressional areas of the lower coastal plain and pine flatwood forests. They are sandy to a depth of 80 inches or more, highly acidic throughout the profile, dense with organics, and may include the incomplete formation of a spodic body. Pottsburg soils often contain a spodic horizon below a depth of 50 inches. Soils form where the depth to bedrock is greater than 80 inches and depth is dependent on the height and fluctuation of the water table (USDA 1984:79).

The Rutlege series consists of rapidly permeable, very poorly drained soils that formed in sandy marine deposits. They are nearly level and found in slightly depressional areas of the lower coastal plain within pine flatwoods. They are sandy, mucky, highly acidic, and siliceous with both marine and fluvial parent materials. They occur where bedrock is greater than 60 inches and occur within six inches of the high-water table. Slopes are less than 2 percent (USDA 1984:80-81).

The Leon series consists of moderately permeable, poorly drained soils that formed in thick beds of sandy material. These soils are nearly level and occur in flatwoods as well as depressions, stream terraces, and tidal areas. The water table is within 10 inches of the soil surface for 1 to 4 months and within 40 inches for more than 9 months most years. Soils are sandy, strongly acidic, dense with organic material, and often contain a spodic horizon within 30 inches of the surface (USDA 1984:73-74).

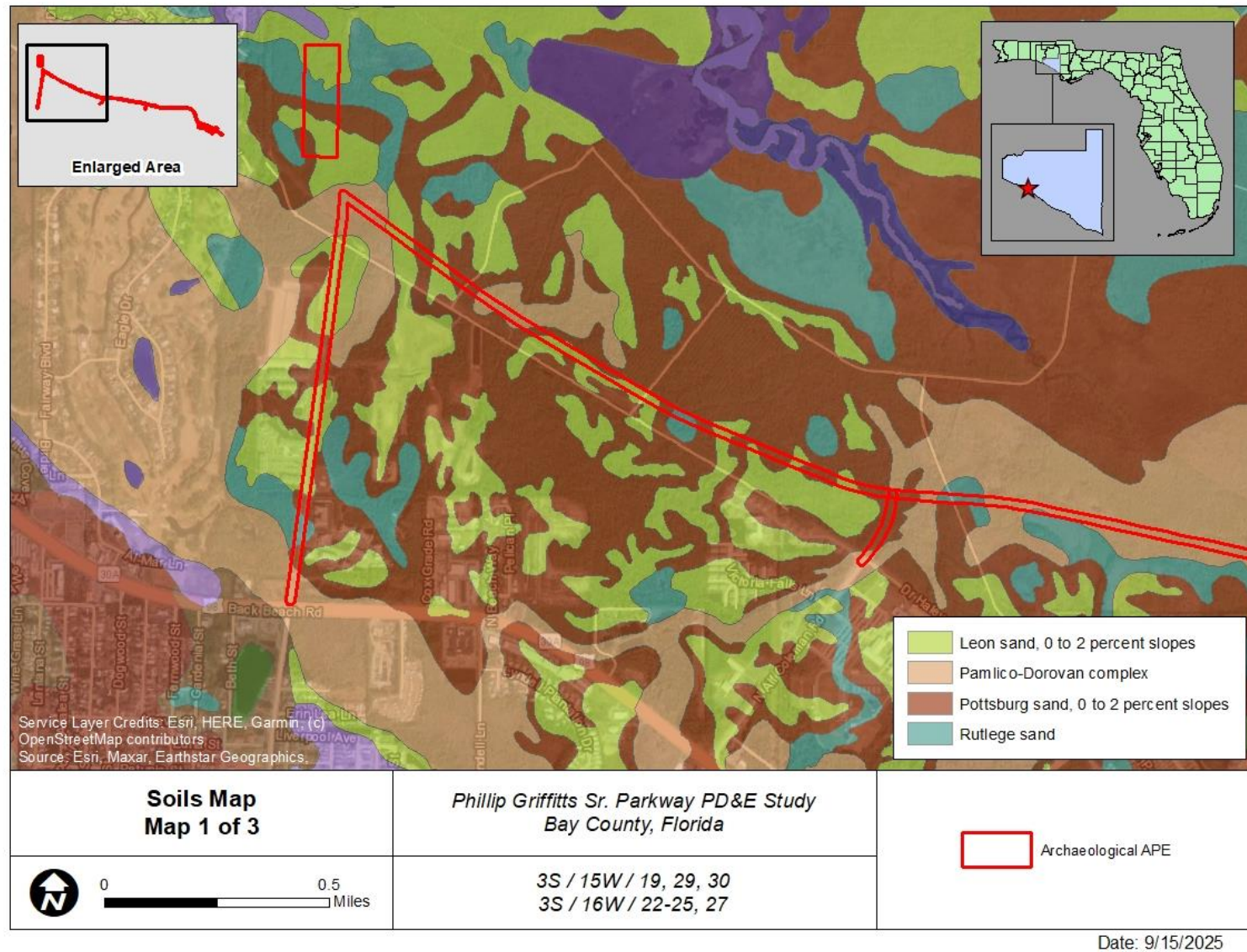


Figure 2.1: Map of soils within the APE (1 of 3) (USDA 1984).

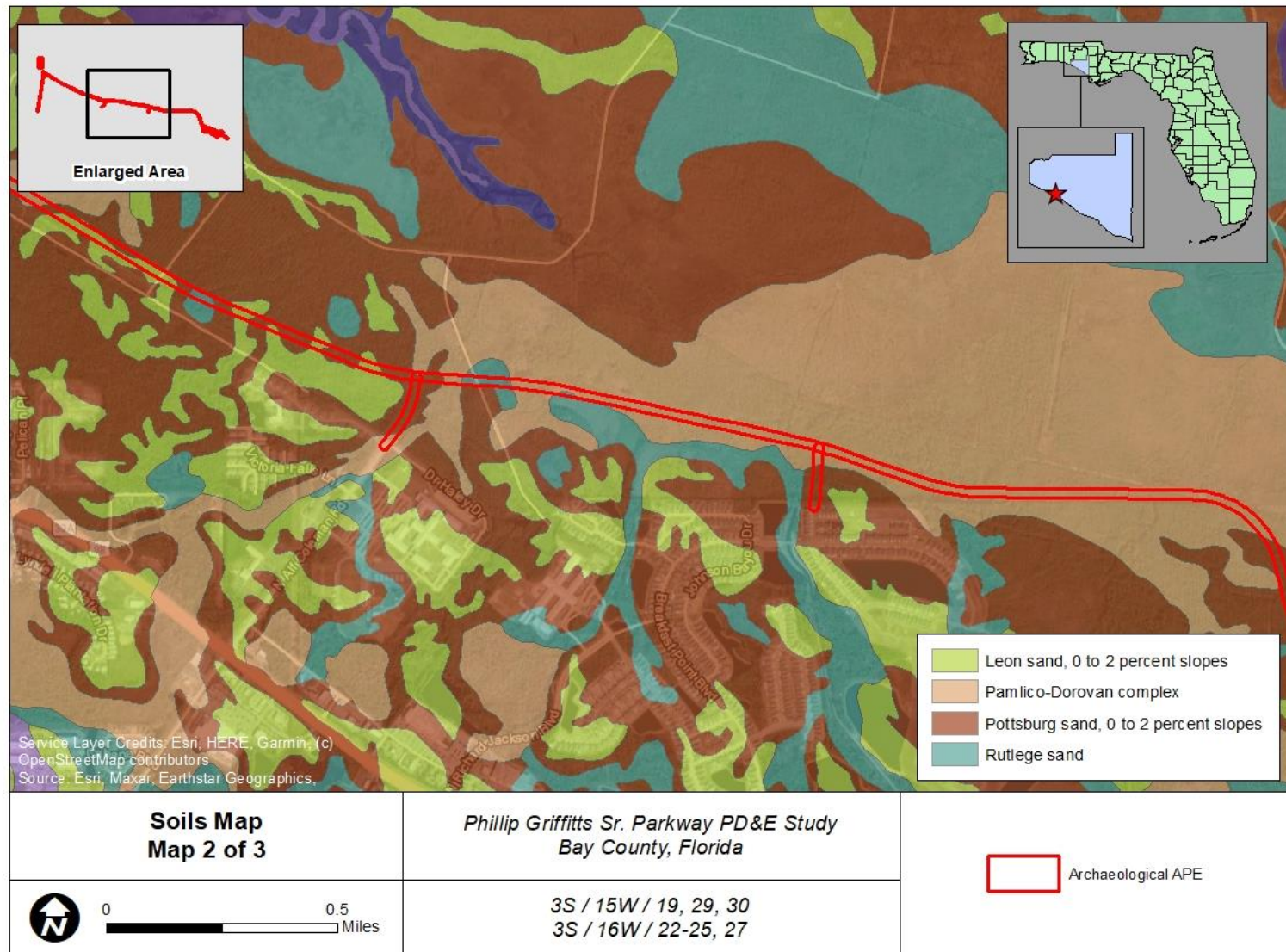


Figure 2.2. Map of soils within the APE (2 of 3) (USDA 1984).

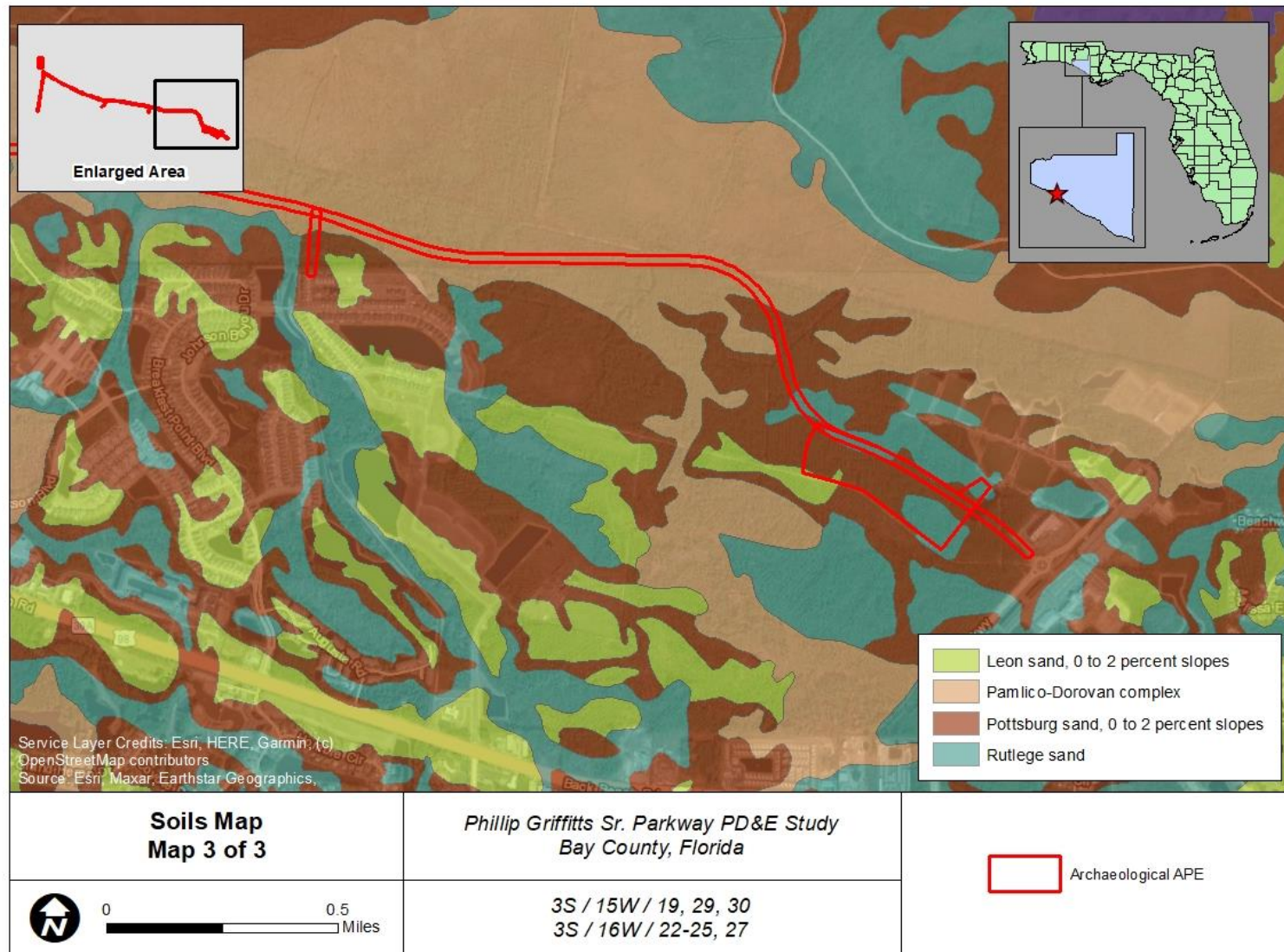


Figure 2.3. Map of soils within the APE (3 of 3) (USDA 1984).

3. BACKGROUND RESEARCH

This section represents an overview of the previous archaeological and historic investigations and previously recorded cultural resources within and in proximity to the APE. The information presented is designed to provide a comparative basis from which to interpret the data obtained during the present assessment. Information on previous cultural resource surveys, previously recorded resources, and the potential for unrecorded cultural resources was obtained by examination of data contained in the Florida Master Site File (FMSF), historic and contemporary aerials, Bay County Property Appraiser data (Bay County 2025), and Google Earth street views.

3.1 Previous Surveys

There has not been a comprehensive archaeological and historic survey of the APE; however, there have been five (5) surveys previously conducted that intersect or overlap with this project area (Table 3.1; Figure 3.1).

Table 3.1: Previous surveys conducted within the APE (FMSF 2025).

Survey No.	Title	Year	Author
13116	<i>Cultural Resources Assessment of the Breakfast Point DRI Development Track, Bay County, Florida.</i>	2006	Post, Buckley, Schuh, & Jernigan (PBS&J)
23254	<i>Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of SR 30A/US 98/Panama City Beach Parkway from Mandy Lane to Thomas Drive Intersection, Bay County, Florida.</i>	2016	Southeastern Archaeological Research (SEARCH)
27442	<i>Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Colonial Landings Townhomes Property, Panama City Beach, Bay County, Florida.</i>	2020	Archaeological Consultants, Inc. (ACI)
27447	<i>Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Clara Avenue Apartments Property, Bay County, Florida.</i>	2020	ACI
28553	<i>Phase I Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Colonial Landing East Development Properties, Bay County, Florida</i>	2022	Heritage Consulting Services LLC (HCS)

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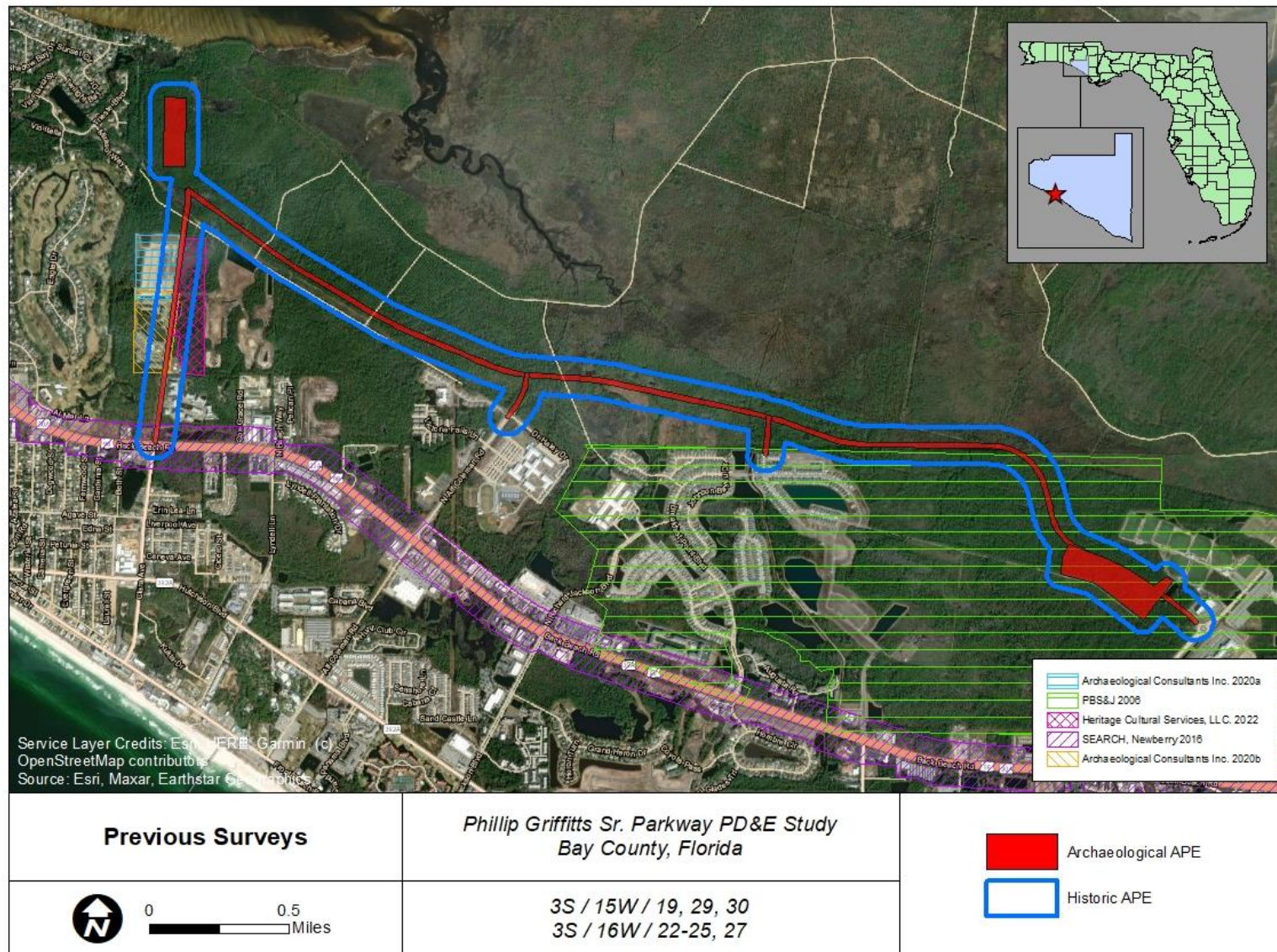


Figure 3.1: Map of previous surveys conducted within the APE

In 2006, a *Cultural Resources Assessment of the Breakfast Point DRI Development Tract, Bay - County, Florida* (FMSF Survey No. 13116; Post, Buckley, Schuh, and Jernigan [PBS&J] 2006a) was conducted to identify the presence of cultural resources within an approximately 1,448-acre area intended for the proposed Breakfast Point tract. PBS&J excavated 200 shovel tests within the areas that had the highest probability of encountering archaeological sites. No cultural material was recovered as part of this survey, and it was noted that most of the ground surrounding the project area was heavily saturated and disturbed by pine tree farm planting and maintenance. A significant portion of the 2006a survey overlaps eastern portions of the current project APE, and 11 of the shovel tests excavated as part of that survey occurred within the eastern pond locations.

In 2016, a *Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of SR 30A/US 98/Panama City Beach Parkway from Mandy Lane to Thomas Drive Intersection, Bay County, Florida* (FMSF Survey No. 23254; Southeastern Archaeological Research [SEARCH] 2016) was conducted for a proposed Florida Department of Transportation (FDOT) project for roadway widening, intersection improvements, and the installation of bicycle lanes and sidewalks. The purpose of this survey is to identify any archaeological sites or historic structures located within the project area that could be eligible for the NRHP. There were no archaeological sites or artifacts found in the seventeen shovel tests that were conducted, and no further work was recommended. However, there were seven historic structures identified, one of which was previously recorded. All resources identified as part of this survey are outside the current project APE, and all were determined ineligible for NRHP listing.

In 2020, a *Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Colonial Landings Townhomes Property, Panama City Beach, Bay County, Florida* (FMSF Survey No. 27442; Archaeological Consultants Inc. [ACI] 2020) was conducted to locate and assess the NRHP eligibility of any cultural resources located within the APE (project limits). ACI surveyed the project area that included 15 shovel tests throughout the 23 acres and did not locate any cultural material. No historic resources were identified as part of this survey.

In 2020, a *Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Clara Avenue Apartments Property, Bay County, Florida* (FMSF Survey No. 27447; Archaeological Consultants Inc. [ACI] 2020) was conducted to locate any archaeological sites or historic structures in the project area and assess their National Registry eligibility. This area was determined to have low to moderate probability for the location of an archaeological site, and no historic resources were identified as a result of the survey.

In 2022, a *Phase I Cultural Resource Assessment Survey of the Colonial Landing East Development Properties, Bay County, Florida* (FMSF Survey No. 28553; Heritage Cultural Services, LLC [HCS] 2022) was conducted to locate any cultural resources within the 28.03-acre development property. The project area is located east of Highway 98 and is surrounded by privately owned agricultural and commercial lands. Background research showed that there were no previously recorded archaeological or historical sites located within the APE, but several resources in the surrounding area. HCS excavated 77 shovel tests and recovered no cultural material. No historic resources were identified as a result of the survey.

3.2 Previously Recorded Resources

No previously recorded archaeological sites or historic resources (including structures, bridges, cemeteries, or resource groups) were identified within, and/or adjacent to the project APE. There

are seven (7) previously recorded archaeological sites (8BY00014, 8BY00045, 8BY00780, 8BY00778, 8BY00894, 8BY01344, and 8BY01943) located within one mile of the project APE, although none of these is within nor adjacent to the project APE (**Table 3.2; Figure 3.2**).

The Brock Hammock site (8BY00014) is categorized as a mound site, specifically a burial mound, located on St. Andrew's Bay. The Brock Hammock site has been excavated several times in the past, starting as early as 1902 by C. B. Moore and then again in 1918. Although the Hammock Site (8BY00014) is listed as a burial mound, no human remains have been discovered. Researchers, like Gordon Willey, believe the burials may have been removed before Moore's first excavation in the early 1900s. Moore noted finding several pottery sherds with various decorative styles, including plain, check-stamped, and complicated stamped surface treatments (Willey 1949). There is also a Weeden Island Plain vessel from the Hammock Site (8BY00014) that is part of the Peabody Foundation; thus, the period of use was classified as Weeden Island by Willey in 1949. The Hammock Site (8BY00014) has not been evaluated by the SHPO.

The West Bay site (8BY00045) is an Archaic site excavated as early as 1968. This site is unique for this area in the fact that not a single ceramic sherd has been discovered, making it the largest non-ceramic site in the St. Andrews Bay area. It is also known for its assemblage of microlithic artifacts associated with Poverty Point material culture. Given the lack of pottery and Poverty Point association, the site was characterized as Late Archaic. Half of the site had already been eroded at the shoreline and was in danger of being further destroyed when the site was first recorded. The West Bay site (8BY00045) has not been evaluated by the SHPO.

The Waste Treatment Drainage site (8BY00778) is a Pre-contact artifact scatter located along the bank of West Bay, northeast of the current project area. The site was originally recorded by an avocationalist based upon the collection of artifacts exposed in the littoral zone from erosion. PBS&J conducted shovel testing in the upland portions of the Waste Treatment Drainage site (8BY00778) in 2006, resulting in the recovery of a single lithic artifact. The site was later visited by PBS&J in 2006 (PBS&J 2006b). The site was determined ineligible for listing in the NRHP in 2007.

The Colony Club Beach site (8BY00780) has a prehistoric and historic component shown through the occupation of the site starting from the Early Archaic, continuing into the historic period. Some of the earliest artifacts recovered from this site include Bolen Beveled and Florida Archaic Stemmed projectile points, and some of the historic artifacts include shards of glazed dishware and modern brick. Although the Colony Club Beach site (8BY00780) has a great amount of local significance, due to the site's continuous occupation, it has been deemed ineligible for the NRHP.

The Locus D-1 site (8BY00894) is classified as a historic refuse site located on the north side of US 98 and Wildwood Road. There was a very low density of artifacts recovered from this site, with the only diagnostic artifact being a turpentine pot base fragment. The site was being used as a logging dump site when it was listed with FMSF. Due to the surface disturbance from logging,

it was determined that the Locus D-1 site (8BY00894) offered minimal research potential and was deemed ineligible for the NRHP.

The Botheration Bayou Turpentine Still site (8BY01344) was found and identified by Thomas C. Watson, a civilian who was exploring the area on foot and stumbled upon the site. Watson was the individual responsible for registering the Botheration Bayou Turpentine Still site (8BY01344) with FMSF. Watson described the site in detail, discussing the foundation for an evaporator of a Turpentine Still and including accompanying photographs. The Botheration Bayou Turpentine Still site (8BY01344) has not been evaluated by the SHPO.

The Anderson site (8BY01943) is a prehistoric site that is owned by the state of Florida. This site, like so many of the other sites near the coastline, is below the high-water line, which presents a huge danger to the site's integrity. Only three non-diagnostic artifacts were recovered from the Anderson site (8BY01943) and were deemed ineligible for the National Registry.

Table 3.2: Previously Recorded archaeological sites within one mile of the project area and historic resources within, and/or adjacent to the project area. (FMSF 2025).

Site Number	Cultural Affiliation	Site Type	NHRP Status
8BY00014	Prehistoric, Weeden Island A.D. 450-1000	Prehistoric mounds	Undetermined
8BY00045	Prehistoric, Archaic unspecified	Lithic scatter, microliths	Undetermined
8BY00780	Prehistoric, American 1821-present	Prehistoric shell midden, historic homestead	Undetermined
8BY00778	Prehistoric, Late Archaic, unspecified	Artifact scatter	Ineligible
8BY00894	American, nineteenth and twentieth centuries	Artifact scatter	Ineligible
8BY01344	American, twentieth century	Turpentine still foundation remains	Undetermined
8BY01943	Prehistoric, unspecified	Artifact scatter, tidal	Undetermined

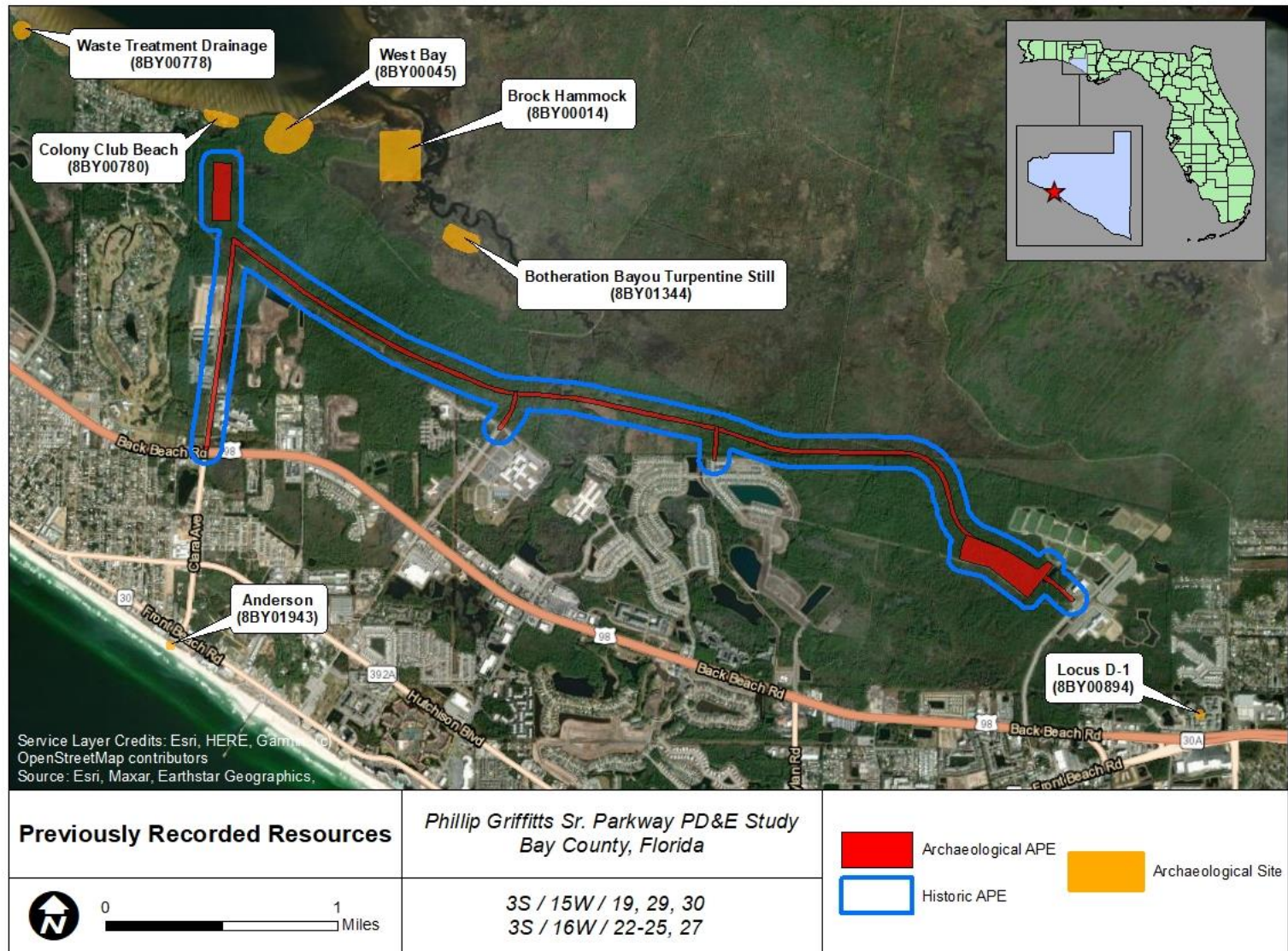


Figure 3.2: Map showing previously recorded Archaeological Sites within one mile of the APE (FMSF 2025).

4. CULTURAL OVERVIEW

Florida's prehistory is divided spatially and temporally based on predominant cultural ways of life in each region. Milanich and Fairbanks (1980, 24-26) define the region surrounding the project area as the Northwest Archaeological Region (Figure 8). Within each region, the archaeological past is subdivided into stages, each characterized by environmental and cultural changes (i.e., artifacts, settlement, and subsistence patterns). The region's history (post-contact) is divided into broad periods, beginning with European Contact and Colonization in the 1500s. Reviewing these periods, important events, infrastructure improvements, and land utilization provides a framework for understanding the project area's prehistoric, historic, and modern development. Charlton W. Tebeau's *History of Florida* (1999) and Michael Gannon's *The History of Florida* (1996) provided much of the state and local historical context.



Figure 4.1: Archaeological regions of Florida with a star indicating approximate project location (Milanich 1994).

4.1 Paleo-Indian Period (14,000 years before present [BP] – 11,500 BP)

The initial movement of peoples into Northwest Florida began during the Paleo-Indian Period (14000 BP – 8500 BP). Glaciers still covered much of the northern half of the continent, and with much of Earth's water frozen in ice, sea levels were about 75 meters (m) below present-day levels. The dry land mass of Florida at that time was nearly double what it is today, and in the northern Gulf coast of Florida, this corresponded to a coastline that was in many places over 200 m seaward of its present position (Anderson and Sassaman 2012, Milanich 1994). Early conditions were much more arid prior to the onset of the Holocene, and during these times of lowered sea levels, the water table would have been much lower, and many of the inland bodies of water would not have existed (Dunbar 1991; Milanich 1994). Available water sources at that time would have been restricted to existing rivers, limestone-bottomed catchment basins that could hold rainwater, and deep sinkholes that intercepted the groundwater table (Milanich 1994). Those Paleo-Indian sites that have been documented in Florida are often associated with rivers, springs, and other karstic features that were likely attractive to people and animals as sources of potable water (Dunbar 1991). The first people in Florida are believed to have lived in small, highly mobile groups, and the Paleo-Indian sites that have been recorded are generally thought to represent ephemeral camps and procurement sites. Due to the great antiquity of the Paleo-Indian presence in Florida and the associated preservation issues over such long spans of time in southeastern North America, the material record consists mostly of stone tools and debitage but also includes a number of bone and ivory artifacts (Dunbar 2016; Dunbar, Hemmings, and Webb 2004). Given that several Paleo-Indian sites have been located in parts of Florida that were not inundated by this transgression and the great expanse of adjacent land that would have existed during the end of the Pleistocene, an undoubtedly large portion of the archaeological record of this time period remains to be discovered by underwater archaeologists (Anderson and Sassaman 2012; Faught 2004).

4.2 Archaic Period (11,500 BP – 3,200 BP)

These eight thousand years subsume a vast era of change in the climate and the cultures of Florida and the greater Southeast. A rise in global temperatures at the end of the Younger Dryas marks the transition from the Pleistocene to the Holocene and ushered in severe changes in the environment. In Florida, this change would have been pronounced as cold-adapted plant and animal communities migrated northward, giving way to ecological conditions closer to what is found in the present. The Archaic Period in Northwest Florida, as elsewhere in the Southeast, has been subdivided into three temporal phases – Early, Middle, and Late. These divisions are based largely on projectile point and pottery typologies (Bullen 1975; Milanich 1994). Changes in point technology from fluted to side-notched forms that began in the Paleo-Indian period carried into the Early Archaic, possibly reflecting a move from hunting migratory megafauna to a more generalized subsistence model focused on localized non-migratory game, namely white-tailed deer (Anderson and Sassaman 2012).

The Early Archaic begins with the end of the Younger Dryas climatic period and with it, a sharp rise in global temperatures as the Pleistocene epoch comes to an end and the Holocene begins. By

this time, relatively dense human occupations exist throughout the southeast, and Early Archaic occupations are recognized by side- and corner-notched and bifurcate-based bifaces (Anderson and Sassaman). The cultural and technological changes that began in the late-Paleo-Indian period, as Southeastern peoples moved away from the occasional harvest of large megafauna toward a more generalized food procurement strategy focused more on deer and other mammals, appear to continue into the Early Archaic (Anderson and Sassaman 2012). As populations increased during the Early Archaic, groups are believed to have been organized into mobile bands that were oriented toward physiographic ranges, drainage basins, tool stone procurement sites, as well as sinks and springs (Anderson and Sassaman 2012).

The corner- and side-notched point technology of the Early Archaic gives way to stemmed forms that are a hallmark of the Middle Archaic in Florida and throughout the Southeast (Anderson and Sassaman 2012). Along with these Middle Archaic stemmed points, the use of fire to treat tool stone has been suggested as another technical innovation introduced during this time (Purdy 1971). The Middle Archaic is assumed to be a time when groups of people concentrated settlement into increasingly localized regions. Most occupations are thought to have been seasonal; however, coastal occupations may have very well been permanent year-round settlements (Saunders and Russo 2011). Indeed, the earliest evidence for shell mounds appears along the coasts in the region during the Middle Archaic, indicative of intensive use of saltwater aquatic environments (Mikel and Saunders 2007; Saunders and Russo 2011).

The Late Archaic is generally regarded as a period when populations and regional cultures in Southeastern North America fluoresced. It is considered to have begun about 5,800 cal yr BP, as the climatic upheaval of the Mid-Holocene gave way to near-modern conditions, and previously rising sea levels abated, allowing the establishment of estuarine systems along the Southeastern coasts (Anderson and Sassaman 2012). This cultural development is most apparent in the large shell works that began during the Late Archaic along the coasts and along the St. John's River. Not only do Late Archaic shell mounds demonstrate the first substantial permanent settlements in Florida, attending practices such as feasting, large-scale gatherings, and cooperative public works projects bear the mark of a transegalitarian complex hunter-gatherer society (Russo 2004). Evidence of long-distance trade has been demonstrated during this time period, including interaction with Poverty Point in Louisiana, which has its own unique expression in Florida known as Elliot's Point (Gibson 2000; Lazarus 1958). One significant result of the movement of people and ideas during the Late Archaic is the introduction of fiber-tempered ceramic pottery, a technology that originated along the Savannah River to the north, where it is known as Stallings Point and locally in northwest Florida as Norwood series pottery (Anderson and Sassaman 2012; Milanich 1994). According to Tesar (1980:54), Norwood pottery, which occurs in plain and simple-stamped varieties, more closely resembles Stallings Point pottery than the Orange series fiber-tempered pottery of the Florida peninsula. Whether this apparent similarity speaks to the routes over which this new technology spread is unclear but given that other materials and ideas seem to have been traveling along the Chattahoochee and Apalachicola rivers, a north-to-south route is possible for bringing fiber-tempered pottery to the northern Gulf coast.

4.3 Woodland Period (3,200 BP – 1,200 BP)

The Woodland period has often been described as a time of regionalization with an emphasis on the participation of a pan-regional religious movement involving mound building, elaborate mortuary ceremonialism, animal effigy creation, and heightened use of exotic or nonlocal objects in ceremonial contexts (Anderson and Sassaman 2012). Woodland villages and mound complexes are typically considered hubs or centers in far-reaching ceremonial and economic networks with influences that can be traced to the Hopewell traditions and symbolism of the American Midwest. The first emergence of Hopewellian traditions in the Ohio region began to wane around 350 Anno Domini (AD), and the emphasis on mound ceremonialism and exchange began to shift into the lower Southeast and Florida (Milanich 1994).

In northwest Florida, diagnostic archaeological materials of the Early Woodland period are attributed to the Deptford culture, whose geographical range extends from the southern Atlantic and Gulf Coastal plains of South Carolina, Georgia, and Northern Florida by about 500 BP (Anderson and Mainfort, Jr. 2002; Milanich 1994). The fiber-tempered and molded form ceramic technology of the Late Archaic Norwood is gradually replaced by coil-made pottery tempered with quartz sand and grit (Milanich 1994). Coupled with new decorative techniques, the change in overall appearance in the ceramic assemblage makes this the most easily diagnostic feature of Deptford culture. Changes in vessel form include the addition of podal supports to the base of vessels. Decoration techniques include plain varieties, cord-marked, Deptford Bold check stamp, Deptford Linear check stamped, and simple stamped, which consists of parallel linear grooves (Milanich 1994).

Deptford sites are traditionally found in hardwood hammocks located along the coasts and swamps, where evidence suggests people lived in small villages and engaged in a subsistence economy focused on the plentiful estuarine and terrestrial resources. Shell middens and rings composed predominantly of oysters suggest that shellfish were a major part of the Deptford diet. However, the strategic habitation of coastal hammocks would have allowed ready access to both terrestrial and inshore species (Milanich 1994). Although less numerous, Deptford period sites have been located inland; these are generally much smaller than coastal sites. It may be that these represent seasonal camps where Deptford people traveled to procure upland resources such as large land mammals and mast (Milanich 1994).

Deptford culture was believed to have covered a large range across the Southeast beginning at about 500 BP, but Milanich (1994) suggests temporal variation existed in two distinct Gulf and Atlantic regions. Where along the Atlantic coast, Deptford continues virtually unchanged until, after AD 700, northern Gulf coast populations seem to follow a different trajectory, transitioning into Swift Creek culture after about AD 200-300. This apparent difference may lie in the developing ceremonialism, which began during Deptford times along the Gulf coast and continues through Swift Creek on into Weeden Island times.

Swift Creek appears to be a natural continuation from the earlier Deptford tradition, and considerable overlap exists in the pottery types associated with these two cultures. Plain pottery types continue to be made; however, Swift Creek is most recognized for the first instance of complicated stamped designs in the Southeast. Swift Creek Complicated Stamped ceramics rose in popularity and continued to be made and used until AD 850 across much of the Southeast, including Georgia, western Alabama, northern Florida, and lesser portions of other adjacent states (Anderson and Mainfort, Jr. 2002; Wallis 2011). Like earlier potters of the Woodland Southeast, Swift Creek potters transferred decorations onto wet or unfired vessels by stamping them with carved wooden paddles. In the case of Swift Creek's complicated stamping, these designs are more intricate than previous check- and simple-stamped motifs, often featuring what has been interpreted as zoomorphic and anthropomorphic faces and forms (Snow 1998; Wallis 2011). Likely due to issues of preservation, none of these carved wooden paddles has yet been found. Still, their presence is preserved in clay, which often bears the woodgrain patterns and cracks as signatures of particular paddles. Hundreds of paddle matches have been recognized across different vessels, and through the analysis of these "signatures" as well as the petrographic analyses of clay signatures, archaeologists have demonstrated that both paddles and vessels were transported throughout the Swift Creek landscape (Snow 1998; Stephenson, Bense, and Snow 2002; Wallis 2011).

Lithic artifacts associated with Swift Creek culture include stemmed projectile points/knife types such as Citrus, Columbia/Taylor, Bakers Creek, Swan Lake, and Hernando varieties (Jones and Tesar 1996). In addition to chipped stone tools, other lithic artifacts include nutting and grinding stones, chipped fragments of quartz, mica, and galena, and groundstone objects such as bar gorgets and platform pipes (Penton 1974). A third class of material culture associated with Swift Creek occupation of sites includes modified shell and animal bone artifacts. This class of material may include items bearing clear marks of modification, such as shell cups and dippers, polished bone pins, and cut, polished, or perforated deer, bear, dog, and bobcat mandibles and teeth.

Although it has come to be known as a distinct archaeological culture known for its elaborate decorative styles and zoomorphic forms of ceramic media, most scholars of Pre-Contact Florida archaeology consider Weeden Island to be a continuation of Swift Creek culture (Jones and Tesar 2009; Milanich 1994; Russo, Dengel, and Shanks 2014; White 2014). By and large, settlement patterning, mortuary practices, resource procurement strategies, and way of life appear to be similar in most aspects between these two archaeological cultures, demonstrating a more or less seamless transition.

Like the preceding two Woodland archaeological cultures, the cultural material most widely associated with Weeden Island culture is its distinctive ceramic types. Gordon Willey (1949) originally subdivided Weeden Island ceramics into two categories, an early Weeden Island I phase and a late Weeden Island II phase, based on the appearance of certain styles through time as observed in his survey of sites along the northern Gulf Coast. Later, Percy and Brose (1974) refined this sequence into five separate phases based on their observations of Weeden Island sites within

the Apalachicola River Valley. According to Percy and Brose's (1974) chronology, Weeden Island I is characterized by the presence of late Swift Creek complicated stamped as well as the Weeden Island incised and punctated types, including Carabelle Incised, Carabelle Punctated, Keith Incised, and Weeden Island Incised. The Weeden Island II phase is marked by a greater variety of Weeden Island types, including effigy vessels and those featuring cut-outs normally found in mortuary contexts. Weeden Island III is distinguished by the appearance of Wakulla Check-stamped ceramics and a decline in complicated stamped vessels. Weeden Island IV is based on the complete disappearance of complicated stamping, and Weeden Island V is marked by the dominance of check-stamped ceramics with limited instances of incised, punctated, and cob-marked decorative forms (Percy and Brose 1974). In addition to those types discussed by Percy and Brose (1974), Willey's (1949) mention of the type Weeden Island Plain, which he considered a holdover from the earlier Swift Creek Franklin Plain. Weeden Island Plain vessels have been observed to occur both in elaborate vessel styles featuring modeled effigies or vessels with effigy appliques along the rims, as well as high-quality storage and serving vessel forms.

4.4 Mississippian Period (1,000 BP – 500 BP)

The Mississippian Period is characterized by the development of chiefdoms, maize-based subsistence strategies, platform mound centers supporting residential and civic structures, and large villages. The development of complex Mississippian chiefdoms was largely fueled by an ideological shift that led to what is traditionally known as the Southeastern Ceremonial Complex, which followed themes of ancestor worship, war, and fertility expressed in a myriad of symbols and objects (Bense 1994). Paralleling this ideological shift was the construction of massive platform mound centers that were utilized to establish ceremonial and ritual practices along with political authority throughout the Mississippian chiefdoms. Two prime examples of these Mississippian mound centers are Cahokia in Illinois and Moundville in Alabama. The local Mississippian expression in northwest Florida is known as the Fort Walton culture (Marrinan and White 2007; Milanich 1994; Tesar 1980).

After about 1,000 AD, Weeden Island culture transitioned into what is now known as Fort Walton. According to Tesar and Jones (2009:30-31), "The Fort Walton culture emerged from resident Weeden Island peoples being influenced by Middle Mississippian peoples in the Chattahoochee-Flint River and Ochlockonee River drainage systems, which in turn had been influenced by more westerly Mississippian tribes." Fort Walton ceramics appear to be an outgrowth of the Weeden Island ceramic tradition, retaining such characteristics as sand-tempered ware and stylistic attributes such as design motifs and surface treatments in which punctations and incisions feature prominently. A contrasting yet similar transition occurred further to the west as Weeden Island peoples of the western Florida Panhandle-Mobile Bay area were influenced more through their contact with Moundville, resulting in the development of Pensacola culture, another Florida Mississippian variant that typically produced more shell-tempered pottery (Marrinan and White 2007:294).

4.5 European Contact and Colonialism (ca. 1500 – 1821 CE)

The historical period began with European contact in the early 1500s. The Spanish are credited with being the first European explorers in Florida, but they were soon followed by French and, subsequently, British explorers. Spanish explorer Ponce de León was the first documented European explorer to land in Florida in 1513. Ponce de León landed in northeast Florida, near St. Augustine, and named the area "La Florida," meaning land of flowers (Tebeau 1999). In 1528, Spaniard Panfilo de Narváez landed near present-day Tampa with some 300 men and began moving north, raiding, killing, and pillaging every Indigenous village he encountered along the way. Just over a decade later, in 1539, a third Spanish explorer, Hernando de Soto, landed in Florida near Tampa Bay (Waitley 1997). De Soto is believed to have explored areas to the east in search of gold and silver. He crossed the Kissimmee River through present-day Osceola County, eventually claiming all of what today is the southeast United States for Spain.

Following these early unsuccessful attempts to gain a stronghold in La Florida, Spain launched another expedition backed by the Viceroy of Mexico and led by Tristán de Luna y Arellano with the goal of establishing a settlement along the northern Gulf coast. Thirteen ships set sail from Veracruz, Mexico, with 1,500 people, arriving in modern-day Pensacola Bay in 1559. Days after anchoring, a hurricane struck, sinking nine of the expedition's vessels and destroying vital supplies. Several forays were made into the interior to establish contact with Indigenous groups encountered during the de Soto expedition in the hopes of procuring much-needed supplies for the starving colonists. Unfortunately, the desperate colonists found the Indigenous presence in the area had been significantly reduced, and many of the settlements visited by de Soto had emptied. In 1561, after only eight months, the de Luna expedition was abandoned (J. T. Milanich 1999)

In 1564, French explorer René Goulaine de Laudonnière founded Fort Caroline on a small inlet near the mouth of the St. Johns River in present-day Jacksonville. Initially, the colony prospered under Laudonnière, who had established relations with the Indigenous populations of the Timucua and Mocama peoples; however, the colony soon began to run out of supplies. The hardships sparked desertion and later mutiny when a group of 75 colonists seized Laudonnière and forced the leader to authorize the mutineers' taking of two vessels. The mutinous attachment sailed south into the Caribbean, intent on raiding Spanish ships and settlements. Unfortunately for the French, a number of these deserters were captured by the Spanish, exposing the French and alerting the Spanish Crown to the settlement at Fort Caroline. As Philip II prepared for a renewed attempt at the settlement of La Florida, granting a contract to a new Spanish colonial governor, Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, the French were amassing a sizable fleet of ships under the leadership of Jean Ribaut to reinforce Fort Caroline with military power and supplies (Gannon 1996).

Under an agreement to establish two cities and see to the conversion of the Indigenous population to Roman Catholicism, the newly appointed Adelantado de la Florida, Pedro Menéndez de Avilés, set sail for La Florida with 10 ships and more than 1,000 men in June 1565. With intelligence that Ribaut's fleet had set sail for Florida in May, Menéndez hoped the Spanish fleet would beat the French to Fort Caroline; however, upon arrival, they found the French fleet already anchored

outside the mouth of the St. Johns River. A skirmish ensued between the two fleets before both parties put out to sea. On September 8, 1565, Menéndez's fleet landed at St. Augustine, claiming title to all the lands of La Florida and placing its inhabitants under the authority of the Spanish Crown (Gannon 1996).

Shortly thereafter, Ribaut attempted an attack on the nascent Spanish colony but was rebuffed. As the French ships retreated, they were beset by a storm that would ultimately leave Ribaut's fleet wrecked and scattered along the coast as far south as Cape Canaveral. Believing that Fort Caroline would be poorly defended in Ribaut's absence and that the captain general of New France would likely be detained by the storm, Menéndez launched an overland attack on Fort Caroline on September 20, 1565. The Spanish overwhelmed the French force, capturing Fort Caroline and renaming it San Mateo. Following the wrecking of the French fleet, Ribaut and a contingent of survivors marched north along the coast. They were met by Menéndez and his troops at an inlet just south of St. Augustine and persuaded to surrender, believing that they would receive decent treatment by the Spanish; however, upon surrendering, Ribaut and most of his shipwrecked sailors were executed on the beach. Thereafter, the inlet was named Matanzas, meaning "place of slaughter" (Gannon 1996).

A period of Spanish settlement and exploration in North America followed for the next 200 years. In their attempt to establish a stronghold along the eastern seaboard of North America, the Spanish established a series of forts and settlements extending from the Chesapeake Bay down into the Florida peninsula. Throughout the seventeenth century, Franciscan and Jesuit friars established missions scattered across central and northern Florida to convert the Indigenous population to Catholicism and to procure a source of labor for the burgeoning La Florida colony. The mission system functioned under the Spanish institution of repartimiento, whereby Indigenous people would provide labor in exchange for Christian education. For a time, it seemed the mission system flourished, especially among the Apalachee of northwest Florida; however, by the beginning of the eighteenth century, war, disease, slave raiding, and the ever increasing pressure of incursions from colonial powers to the north and west, had taken significant toll on the Indigenous population and the entire mission system (Milanich 1999).

As British colonies to the northeast began to thrive, the British Crown sought to control larger and larger swaths of land to the south. Capitalizing on the poor relations between the Indigenous population and the Spanish, the British allied themselves with the Indigenous population that had been driven from their lands in La Florida into present-day Georgia and the Carolinas. Armed with British munitions, Indigenous tribes successfully destroyed several Spanish missions along the northeast coast of La Florida. Eventually, the colony of Savannah was established to protect Charleston from the Spanish attack, and now, with intensified pressure from the British and the Indigenous populations, the Spanish Colony began to suffer. The conflict that ensued between Britain, France, Spain, and the Indigenous population that followed was formally known as the Seven Years' War but more commonly referred to as the French and Indian War in North America (Gannon 1996).

After two and a half centuries under its rule, Spain ultimately ceded La Florida to England in 1763 in exchange for Cuba as part of the Treaty of Paris, which officially ended the Seven Years' War (Gannon 1996). From France, Britain also gained the area that spanned west of La Florida to the Mississippi River. Britain divided this vast area into two provinces separated by the Apalachicola River. The land east of the Apalachicola River and south of the St. Marys River (the Florida Peninsula) became the province of East Florida, with St. Augustine as the capital. Meanwhile, the area that extended from the Apalachicola River westward to the Mississippi River (the Florida panhandle and much of Alabama and Mississippi) became West Florida, with Pensacola as the capital. British rule lasted about 20 years until Britain traded both East and West Florida back to Spain in exchange for the Bahamas as part of the Treaty of Versailles (Gannon 1996).

La Florida was divided into East and West portions once again at the beginning of the Second Spanish Period (1783–1821), with Pensacola and St. Augustine serving as their respective capitals. By then, a new country to the north, the United States of America, had gained all territory north of the St. Marys River. The former territory that “La Florida” had once encompassed was now separated into the United States to the north and France to the west. As the United States began expanding west, portions of the Muscogee Nation and remnants of other Indigenous groups from Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina moved into Spanish Florida to repopulate the area after being displaced by American settlement (Romans 1961). The Seminole, as these emigrating groups became known, formed at various times loose confederacies for mutual protection against the new American nation to the north, complicating efforts for the settlement of the territory (Tebeau 1999).

4.6 Seminole Wars, Territorial Period, and Statehood (ca. 1821 – 1861 CE)

During the second Spanish period, Spain's hold over La Florida was tenuous at best. Military conflicts such as the War of 1812, continuous Seminole uprisings and raids (First Seminole War 1816–1818), and financial costs of supporting the overseas territory contributed to undue strain on the Spanish Crown. Furthermore, with little military presence in the territory and rising territorial conflicts with the newly independent nation to its north, Spain's inability to effectively rule the territory had become apparent. As a result of the burden, Spain decided to cede the territory of Florida to the United States of America as part of the Adams-Onís Treaty in 1819 in exchange for settling a boundary dispute along the Sabine River in Spanish Texas (Gannon 1996).

Florida officially became a United States territory in 1821, creating an opportunity for development. As American homesteaders began to migrate south to settle in the area, Andrew Jackson, named provisional governor of Florida, divided the territory into two counties: St. Johns County, which included all of Florida lying east of the Suwannee River, and Escambia County, which included the land lying to the west. During this period, settlement was largely concentrated in the northern part of the state, where the Seminole were displaced as part of the First Seminole War. As more homesteaders filled the lands, the Seminole were forced southward, increasing tensions between the two cultures (Gannon 1996).

The Treaty of Moultrie Creek officially ended the First Seminole War in 1823, shaping the settlement of South Florida for decades to come. The treaty established a four-million-acre reservation in the center of the Florida peninsula in exchange for a Seminole exodus from northern Florida. The reservation extended from south of Ocala to north of Charlotte Harbor. However, the treaty was not well received by either party (Mahon 1967). The living conditions on the reservation were woefully inadequate, and as the demand for American frontier land grew, so did pressure for Seminole removal, leading to further conflict (Tebeau 1999).

The outbreak of the Second Seminole War (1835–1842) culminated in several skirmishes throughout central Florida and ended after the federal government decided to withdraw troops after a seven-year battle with the Seminole. Some of the battle-weary Seminole were removed west to Indian Territory (present-day Oklahoma), where the federal government had established lands for Indigenous habitation. The United States forced the remaining Seminole farther south into the last stronghold for the tribe, the Florida Everglades and Big Cypress Swamp (Mahon 1967).

Middle Florida quickly became the most populous region, with the population booming from fewer than 2,400 persons in 1825 to 16,000 persons by 1830, totaling approximately 45 percent of the territory's entire population (Gannon 1996). By 1830, the Florida Territory had a total of 16 counties, with the three largest, Alachua, Mosquito, and Monroe counties, forming the majority of its southern region. By the following decade, Florida consisted of 20 counties with a population of 55,000 (US Census). However, most development was concentrated in the state's northern and eastern coastal regions, with central and southern Florida remaining an unsettled frontier (Gannon 1996; Mahon 1967).

The Armed Occupation Act was passed in 1842. It was designed to promote settlement and protection of the Florida frontier, and as such, many Anglo-American pioneers and their families began to move south through Florida (Tebeau 1999). The Act provided 200,000 acres outside the already developed regions south of Gainesville to the Peace River for white American settlement but prohibited the settlement of coastal lands and those within a two-mile radius of a fort, and near the Peace River, which had been allotted to the Seminole (Baker 2018; Polk County Historical Association 2008). During the nine months the law was in effect, 1,184 permits were issued, totaling some 189,440 acres (Covington 1961).

The State of Florida was admitted to the Union as a slave state in 1845, with Tallahassee as its capital and a population of approximately 87,000 (Knotts 2003). A hurricane struck Hillsborough County in 1849, forcing settlers inland in violation of the Armed Occupation Act. Although the area was largely inaccessible, southern and central Florida settlements slowly grew by attracting new homesteaders, farmers, and ranchers who grew agricultural products and established small communities. Soon, the population had grown sufficiently to warrant the creation of a new county, and in 1861, Polk County was carved out of a swath of Eastern Hillsborough and Western Brevard Counties (Polk County Historical Association 2008).

The passage of the Swamp Land Act of 1850 made federally owned swamplands available to the State of Florida, provided it would agree to make them productive. The Act aimed to make the Everglades developable, and in 1855, the state of Florida acquired 20 million acres of the Everglades in South Florida (Penniman 2014). This led to an increase in development and an escalation of conflicts with its remaining Seminole, culminating in the outbreak of the Third Seminole War (1855–1858).

As the United States increased its efforts to force remaining Indigenous peoples throughout Florida to emigrate to the West, it fought the Seminole primarily in the Big Cypress Swamp and the Florida Everglades for two and a half years. The United States military action was not decisive in this Third Seminole War. As a result, the United States government resorted to financial compensation to induce the remaining Seminoles to migrate west in 1858 (Tebeau 1999). Following the Seminole Wars, 200-300 Seminoles remained in South Florida, living in small, scattered bands in the remote regions of the Big Cypress Swamp and the Florida Everglades (Gannon 1996; Tebeau 1957). The United States placed little value on the swamplands, which provided a refuge for the Seminole who had escaped removal (Covington 1982) (J. W. Covington 1982).

As settlers began to migrate to the last frontiers of Florida, cattle ranching (Central Florida) and sugarcane and produce farming (South Florida) emerged as major economic activities throughout the region. Wild cattle were found roaming Florida after the Seminole were forced south and captured to be sold to new settlers. By the late 1850s, there was a significant cattle industry in Florida, with abundant land and access to shipping out of the various bays across the state. Jacob Summerlin, one of many cattle ranchers in the area who became known as “Florida Crackers” for their long cracking whips, rounded up wild cattle and drove them to ports in the Gulf for shipment to Cuba. The Florida Cracker culture continued to develop through this time as Frontiersmen brought their families and farm animals to the “edge of the wilderness,” seeking affordable and fertile land. By 1860, more than 30,000 head of cattle roamed the inland grasslands, and the roughly 900 or more “Florida Crackers” that lived among the prosperous Manatee River plantations became the majority of the population in the southern farming regions of the state (Gannon 1996).

4.7 Civil War and Aftermath (ca. 1861 – 1881 CE)

Before the Civil War, approximately two-thirds of Florida’s population was concentrated in the northern portion of the state. Wagons, stagecoaches, and steamboats transported passengers and cargo up and down rivers such as the St. Johns and Kissimmee, and along canals to Lake Okeechobee. Florida’s secession from the Union on January 10, 1861, quickly disrupted the state’s economy, travel, and development. Many of its white male residents abandoned their farms to join the Confederacy, depleting its labor force. The United States Navy blockaded the port in Tampa during the war, but most of central and southern Florida witnessed few actual battles. Cattle ranching became one of Florida’s main contributions to the war effort, as it was the principal beef supplier for the Confederate Army for much of the conflict (Tebeau 1957).

The Civil War officially ended in April 1865, and by May of that year, many of Florida's Black residents realized freedom for the first time, although they were initially denied suffrage. The passage of the 14th Amendment (Reconstruction Act) by the United States Senate placed the state under martial law in 1867, requiring it to register all eligible male voters. Florida ratified the 14th Amendment in June 1868 and was readmitted to the Union soon after. Reconstruction (1868–1877) marked a new era of Florida politics as several Black candidates were elected to public office. Federal troops still occupied much of Florida as Reconstruction ended in 1876. As the state returned to home rule, Democrats took control of the Republican-led House and Senate, disenfranchising Black candidates and voters in the process (Gannon 1996).

Despite its political upheavals, Florida continued to develop as a new frontier. Florida's political leaders attempted to capitalize on the state's potential for growth and sought to attract immigrants from the north as well as investment capital to rebuild the economy. Taxes and government involvement were kept low to encourage outside investment and growth so as not to interfere with business development. New enterprises such as tourism, citrus growing, phosphate mining, turpentine distilling, and, most importantly, railroad building moved Florida society slowly away from cotton growth. Jacksonville and Pensacola were the primary port towns that saw economic gains during Reconstruction, with major turpentine (also called naval stores) and lumber exports. Meanwhile, central Florida began to develop quickly as orange groves and winter vegetable crops filled its once-open landscape (Knotts 2003).

4.8 Late Nineteenth Century Railroad Boom (ca. 1881 – 1900 CE)

Florida's financial crisis, born of pre-war railroad bond indebtedness, led Governor William Bloxham to seek financial reprieve by selling the state's most surplus commodity, its open and undeveloped land. Bloxham's search for a qualified buyer led him to Hamilton Disston, a Philadelphia investor and personal friend, in 1881. Disston purchased four million acres of swamp and overflow land for a million dollars from the State of Florida that year, effectively clearing its debts (Gannon 1996). In what became known as the Disston Purchase, large land subsidies were distributed to developers and railroad companies, which facilitated extensive new construction programs for new rail lines throughout the state (Tebeau 1971). Disston developed plans to drain the Florida Everglades wetlands to accommodate residential and agricultural uses by 1882. The Disston Land Company (also known as the Florida Land and Improvement Company) was established in the 1890s to acquire and develop the land. Convinced that the swamp areas of the state could be drained and developed with the creation of a new canal drainage system, growth was spurred throughout the central and southern portions of the peninsula. Surveyors also identified phosphate deposits in and around the Peace River in Polk County by this time, providing new economic opportunities in central Florida (Brown 1995).

Railroad construction brought substantial economic growth to Florida, opening the state for tourism, shipping, and unprecedented population growth. As two of the largest railroad builders in

the state, railroad barons Henry Flagler and Henry Plant laid thousands of miles of track. Towns and cities in inland Florida were “born in almost the exact order” in which the railroads reached them (Frisbie 1976). As the founder of Standard Oil, Flagler quickly became the most prominent name in eastern Florida for his development along the Atlantic coastline. Likewise, Plant, who had established himself as a prominent railroad operator in Georgia and South Carolina, became one of the most well-known businessmen in western Florida (Henry B. Plant Museum 2015; Knotts 2003; Turner 2003).

Plant hoped to expand his railway lines into Florida in the late 1800s, and subsequently constructed his railroads from both ends to meet in the middle (around what is today the City of Lakeland). With this segment completed in 1884, a cross-state railroad from Orlando connected Tampa with the St. Johns River and Jacksonville (Bruton and Bailey 1984). Plant continued to purchase several small railroad companies that had filed for bankruptcy after the Civil War and merged them to form the Plant System of Railways. He then undertook the challenge of standardizing rail tracks, stations, and equipment through the use of standard gauge rails. By making his line uniform, Plant effectively made “switching tracks” at the end of each rail line obsolete (Henry B. Plant Museum 2015).

The investment in the railroads and the improved transportation systems brought unprecedented capital to the state, fueling the prosperity of south-central and southwestern Florida. The railroad era saw increased growth across the state, with its population doubling between 1880 and 1900. The state’s development inevitably followed railroad routes and expanded established communities. The ideal citrus-growing climate of central Florida’s moderate climate fostered the establishment of endless orange groves along railroad tracks throughout the region. One rail line, the Florida Southern, went as far as to advertise its lines surrounding the Bartow area as the “Orange Belt Route” (Turner 2003). By 1900, the state had approximately 2,500 miles of railroad lines, and the increase in quality transportation not only provided more farmland but also adequate and economical transportation for goods to port cities such as Charlotte Harbor and Tampa Bay, further spurring Florida’s export economy (Knotts 2003; Turner 2003).

As Florida’s railroad network continued to develop, northern railroad barons sought to create partnerships by acquiring smaller rail lines and connecting them with other established routes, such as the Seaboard Air Line and Atlantic Coast Line Railroads (Turner 2003). After Henry B. Plant’s passing in 1898, the Atlantic Coast Line Railroad set its sights on acquiring the railroad portion of the vast Plant empire. Atlantic Coast Line Railroad chairman Henry Walters oversaw the purchase of 2,235 miles of Plant System trackage from Plant’s widow Margaret Plant for \$46,563,898 in 1902, which more than doubled the Atlantic Coast Line overnight, making it the most dominant railroad in Florida at the turn of the century (Turner 2003).

4.9 Early Twentieth Century – World War I, and Florida Land Boom (ca. 1900 – 1927 CE)

The turn of the century brought several changes to Florida and profoundly impacted the United States as a whole. The Good Roads Movement, World War I, and the Florida Land Boom combined to influence growth and development across the state. The increase in population placed a greater demand on the state's resources, ushering in an era focused on transportation and development. The growth of the Good Roads Movement was fueled largely by the election of Governor Napoleon B. Broward. Broward embarked on a battle against the railroads soon after he was elected, promising to "drain the Everglades," and proclaiming that "the railroads are draining the people instead of the swamps" (Gannon 1996). Aside from the construction of "modern, hard-surface roads" throughout the state, Broward's political platforms included bolstering public education, prohibiting child labor, and implementing food quality laws across Florida (Gannon 1996).

Under his leadership, Florida's most populous counties developed programs to promote road improvement, and the state soon passed its first laws regulating the use of automobiles. Automotive owners were required to register their vehicles for two dollars each, and by 1908, 733 cars were recorded in Florida, with the proceeds going to improve its road systems (Gannon 1996). Soon after, Henry Ford reduced social and geographic distances with the release of the Model T (Gannon 1996; Williams 2018). Generally recognized as the first affordable automobile, Ford's Model T provided economical transportation for the middle class, but also created new methods for rural families and farmers to access goods in neighboring towns and cities. By 1910, 458,377 vehicles were registered in Florida, fostering a reliance on the automobile that now spans more than a century (Williams 2018).

World War I (1914–1918) brought soldiers from all branches of the armed forces to the state for training, and an additional 42,000 Floridians joined the armed services (Knotts 2003). Florida was an ideal location to train thousands of recruits. With its moderate climate and abundance of local agricultural resources, soldiers could be trained and fed year-round (Sawyer 2010). Florida's agricultural industry was instrumental to the war effort, as the United States asked Florida farmers to increase wartime crop production. The demands of World War I on the state's resources were compounded by the Spanish Flu outbreak of 1918. The outbreak ultimately culminated in a global disaster, claiming the lives of approximately 5,000 Floridians (Florida Department of Health 1961).

World War I galvanized the national movement for a more efficient transportation system. Soon after the war, the federal government subsidized current state road-building efforts and forged new partnerships with state municipalities. The Florida State Road Department (SRD) was formally established by the Florida Legislature in 1915, and the Federal Highway Act of 1917 helped fund highways nationwide (Waitley 1997). The development of railroads and state roadways during the early 1900s improved the agricultural economy and unlocked additional opportunities for tourism and migration into the state. Increased travel demand accentuated the importance of creating

formal downtown areas as a centralized location for travelers and residents alike to access goods, entertainment, stores, fueling stations, and safe lodging (Ingram 2014).

Many of the first state's first highways were built adjacent to historic railroad corridors, connecting the cities and towns that had developed along rail lines. The famous Dixie Highway, built between 1915 and 1926 and connecting Lake Michigan to Miami Beach (Ingram 2014), stands as a testament to the road construction efforts of the era (Gannon 1996; Williams 2018). The Dixie Highway was eventually replaced with the east coast route of US 1 to create a coastal highway that connected Canada through Miami to Key West (also known as the Overseas Highway or State Road [SR] 4A). The completion of the Dixie Highway fueled long-standing discussions of connecting the west coast of Florida to the booming east coast city of Miami. These discussions were realized in 1927 when the Tamiami Trail was completed, connecting Tampa and Miami via the Florida Everglades. The road was considered an engineering marvel at the time of its construction and required the cooperation of six counties: Dade, Lee, Monroe, Manatee, Charlotte, and Hillsborough for its completion (Gannon 1996; Williams 2018).

Following World War I, the state experienced a brief period of unprecedented economic growth known as the Florida Land Boom from 1921 to 1926. Real estate developers became millionaires, and soon movie stars, politicians, and royalty flocked to newly built, elaborate Florida hotels and resorts, marking a period of excess and extravagance for the state (Moorhead and Wynne 2010). As the automobile continued to gain popularity with travelers, railroads turned their attention to tourists and freight, while Florida's larger cities adapted to the growing number of cars on local roadways (Knowlton 2020).

4.10 Great Depression, the New Deal, and World War II (ca. 1927 – 1945 CE)

The effects of the Great Depression struck Florida much sooner than the rest of the nation, with its economy crashing after the collapse of the land boom in 1927. Over-speculation, a Mediterranean Fruit Fly infestation, and a series of devastating hurricanes combined to bring the state's economy to a grinding halt two years earlier than the rest of the nation (Tebeau 1957). By the late 1920s, construction in Florida was at a standstill. Land prices plummeted as the public lost interest in buying homes in Florida, and the crash of the stock market further solidified the end of the Boom in October of 1929. By the 1930s, the state became characterized by widespread unemployment and the closure of banks, mines, mills, and factories (Knowlton 2020). Wages fell to record lows as municipalities struggled to meet the demand for public assistance (Taylor 2005). Many farms and railroads went bankrupt as tourism dropped from three million to approximately one million visitors per year (Knotts 2003). While the vast majority of Florida struggled during the Great Depression, the state's overall population increased as people moved from cities to rural agricultural areas in hopes of surviving off the land (Etheridge and Knetch 1993).

Franklin D. Roosevelt implemented a series of programs, public work projects, and financial reforms and regulations known as The New Deal in 1933 to pull the nation out of the Depression.

Florida benefited from several such programs and projects as the Public Works Administration (PWA), Works Progress (later Projects) Administration (WPA), and Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC). The PWA funded the construction of new roads, parks, beach restoration, public buildings, and bridges, while the CCC replanted depleted forests and built recreation facilities (Taylor 2005). The National Parks System was also expanded with a renewed focus on conservation at the national level. However, Florida did not recover from the Great Depression until World War II (Lowry 1974).

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor drew the United States into World War II, yet also fueled the resurgence of the United States as a whole. As for Florida, the state once again became one of the nation's primary military training grounds during the conflict due to its expansive coastline. Former military installations were reactivated, while others were constructed nearly overnight. For example, construction of the Bartow Army Airfield (now the Bartow Executive Airport) began on December 8, 1941, a day after the attack on Pearl Harbor. The increased construction of roads, channels, and airfields brought countless workers and new residents to Florida, and by the war's end, the state was home to roughly 40 active military installations, with most bases located within or adjacent to major cities with highway access, such as Pensacola, Tampa, and Jacksonville (Taylor 2005).

4.11 Post-World War II (after 1945 CE)

Florida slowly shifted from a mostly rural, agricultural state to a more modern and urban society after World War II. Suburban developments replaced farms and homesteads as new roads and highways connected cities throughout the state. As consumerism reached record levels, tourists began flocking to Florida by the late 1940s, and by the 1950s, it had become one of the most popular tourist destinations in the United States. GIs who trained at one of its many military bases returned to start families and buy homes in Florida after the war. The introduction of air conditioning on a larger scale, combined with advances in construction methods, fueled unprecedented residential and commercial growth throughout central and southern Florida, while its northern sections remained largely agricultural except for a few cities (Gannon 1996).

Florida's population doubled from 1940 to 1950, as the state gained nearly 2.5 million residents in a decade. Florida also gained more industrial and manufacturing businesses during this period, which contributed to its residential growth. Drainage, dredging, and filling operations created new communities by transforming swamplands that were uninhabitable before the war into exclusive residential neighborhoods. Improved asphalt and concrete technologies facilitated the construction of highways and bridges much faster than before the war, allowing motorists to travel more freely throughout the state. As automobile ownership continued to increase, Florida's expanding tourism industries continued to fuel the state's postwar development. Service industry businesses and land development became commonplace in many cities to accommodate new businesses, residents, and tourists (University of Florida 2018).

President Dwight D. Eisenhower signed the Interstate Highway Bill into law in 1956, creating a new highway network that spanned over 50,000 miles. Construction of Florida's first major interstates (Interstate [I]-4 and I-95) led to further growth in central and southern Florida. The first segment of I-4 (Lakeland to Plant City) opened in 1959, and the Tampa to Orlando section opened in 1962 (Gannon 1996). The Jacksonville expansion of I-95 was completed by 1960, and it was extended along the east coast to Miami by 1961. I-75, which started in Michigan in the north, was extended to Tampa by the 1960s. These infrastructural investments increased migration to Florida and furthered growth within the state. It is estimated that approximately one-third of Florida's farmland was lost to development during this period.

The concept of tolled superhighways began in the late 1940s to accommodate rapid growth and increased tourism, as well as supplement federal interstate facilities. Lobbyists began pushing for a tolled Turnpike facility in Florida after seeing the Pennsylvania Turnpike. The state created the Florida Turnpike Act in 1953, and by 1955, nearly \$75 million in state bonds had been issued for the project. The concept was innovative, with original plans for the toll booths to be easily accessible with service plazas that had restaurants, souvenir shops, and gas stations (FDOT 2007). Advanced technologies and the standardization of engineering plans made roadway and bridge construction fast and efficient. Simple utilitarian designs for concrete bridges (slab, box culvert, and beam and girder) became the standard by incorporating prefabricated components for efficient onsite assembly (Archaeological Consultants, Inc. [ACI] 2012).

Construction of the first Turnpike segment began in the late 1950s. The 110-mile section of the facility from Golden Glades (Miami Gardens) to Fort Pierce (St. Lucie County) opened in 1957 and was known as the Sunshine State Parkway. As the state's population grew, a second Turnpike segment soon followed. Construction began in 1961, and the second segment formally opened in 1964 and extended from Ft Pierce to Wildwood (FDOT 2007). Animator and entrepreneur Walt Disney viewed the development of the Florida Turnpike as an opportunity and chose Orlando as a location for a new theme park due to its proximity to the intersection with I-4. Walt Disney World opened in 1971 and quickly became one of Florida's greatest attractions (Waitley 1997).

5. DEVELOPMENT WITHIN THE PROJECT AREA

A review of the original land surveys (General Land Office [GLO] 1849, 1915), historical aerial imagery (USDA 1953), topographic maps (USGS 1955, PR 1973), newspapers, and other sources provides an overview of the development of the project area from the mid-nineteenth to late twentieth century.

The European settlement of the St. Andrews Bay area began with the establishment of homesteads after Spanish settlers discovered fig and orange trees growing nearby in the early 1700s. Great Britain acquired the area from Spain at the end of the Seven Years' War and incorporated it as part of the West Florida Territory in 1763. Over the next two decades, the British granted lands to military officers and soldiers who served during the conflict. Wells, a small town along the western shore of St. Andrews Bay, became an important trading site by 1765 and remained until Great Britain ceded the territory to Spain through the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Spanish soldiers claimed the structures the British had abandoned, as there was little interest in improving the area until it became a United States territory in the early 19th century (Works Progress Administration [WPA] 1939a).

Following General Andrew Jackson's invasion of Pensacola, Spain transferred the East and West Florida territories to the United States through the Adams-Onís Treaty in 1819 (State Library and Archives of Florida 2025). When a provisional government headed by General Jackson was formed in 1821, only a handful of Spanish fishermen remained in the St. Andrew's Bay area, which became part of Jackson County upon its formation the next year. The area quickly became popular with Alabama and Georgia fishermen and was incorporated as part of Washington County upon its creation from portions of Jackson and Walton Counties in 1825. The United States constructed a military road for the shipment of corn, cotton, and produce from Georgia and Alabama the next year, and by 1827, there were only about a half-dozen squatters spread along the coast of St. Andrews Bay (WPA 1939a).

Bay County gained its first customs house to process shipments from warehouses at Bay Head as well as nearby Cedar Creek and Homes Valley in 1828 (WPA 1939a). Webbville, 60 miles north of St. Andrews Bay, served as the initial county seat of Jackson County, but it was moved to Marianna in 1829, which was incorporated that year (WPA 1939b). The small cluster of settlements surrounding the bay became known as Old Town by that time, which a group of Jackson County investors had planned to develop further until shifting their focus to St. Joseph near Pensacola. The United States began issuing land patents in the St. Andrews Bay area at the outbreak of the Second Seminole War (1834-42). The conflict further hindered the area's development, as wandering non-native bands of the Seminole invaded and attacked Jackson County settlements. A road north from St. Andrews (formerly Old Town) to Webbville was constructed in 1838, and the St. Andrews Bay Land Company began offering homesites following its incorporation by the Florida Territorial Legislative Council in 1842 (State Library and Archives of Florida 1842). The area's isolated nature and lack of railroad access prohibited its success, however, as there were only about three dozen homes constructed in the area by the following decade (WPA 1939a).

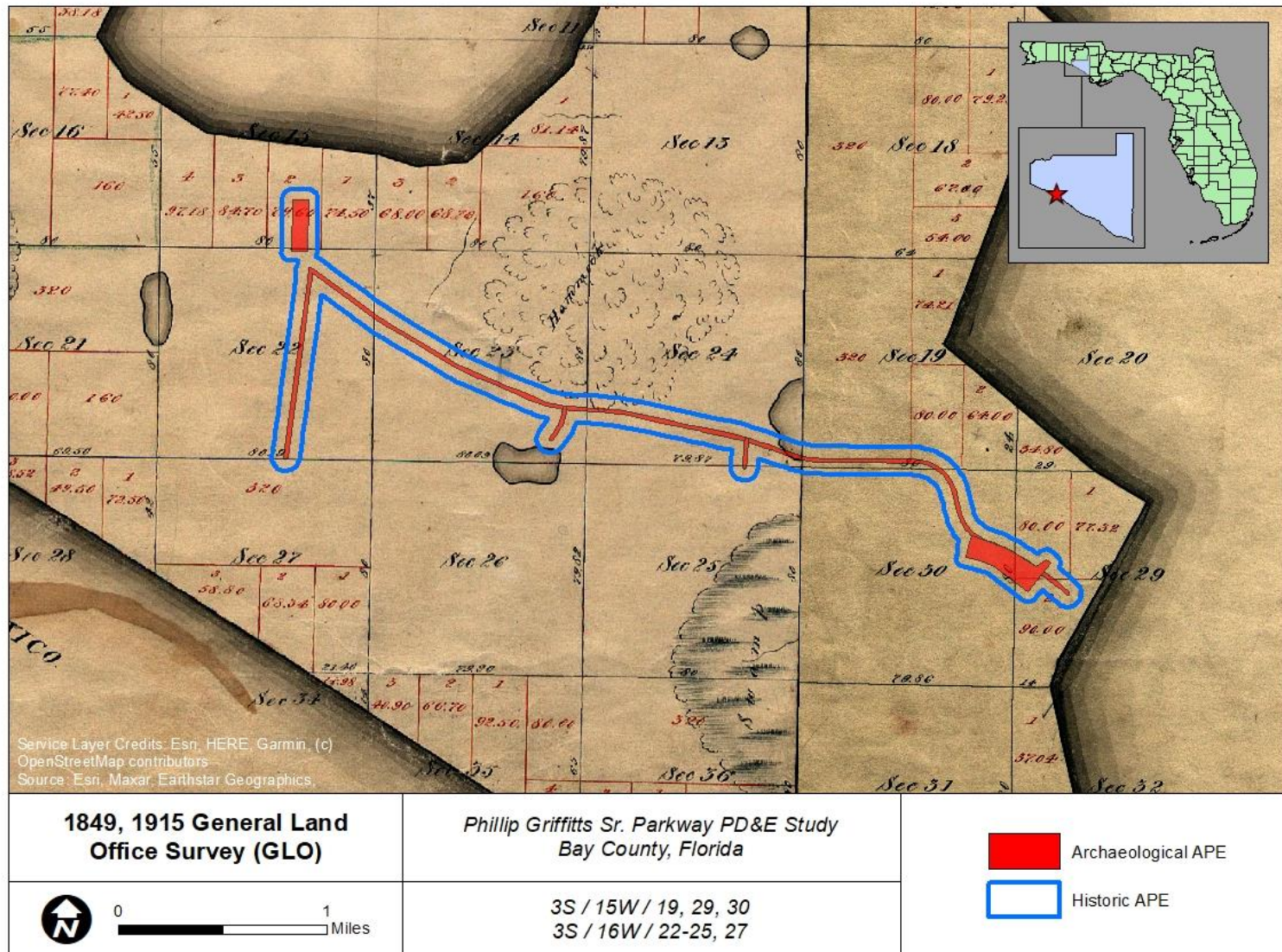
The small fishing village of St. Andrews was the only settlement on St. Andrews Bay at the time Florida was admitted to the Union in 1845. The town gained its own post office by 1857 and was then home to about 1,200 residents, many of whom were employed by a nearby sawmill; however, fishing was the area's primary industry. During this time, fish were harvested from local waters, salted, packed in barrels, and shipped to plantations in Alabama and Georgia. St. Andrews also had a saltworks, which employed enslaved Black laborers to support the Confederacy, but it was destroyed along with most of the town by Union troops during the Civil War in 1863 (State Library and Archives of Florida 2012; WPA 1939a).

Original land surveys (**Figure 5.1** (General Land Office [GLO] 1849, 1915) illustrate the undeveloped nature of the APE in the mid-19th to early 20th century. The surveys show the boundary lines of individual plats within and adjacent to the APE, but there are no other indications of development visible within its boundaries (GLO 1849, 1915).

Following the Civil War, a group of Marianna businessmen assembled to discuss the construction of a railroad that would link St. Andrews Bay with Cottondale, Georgia, in 1867. The St. Andrews Bay Railroad, Land, and Mining Company was formed in 1886, but the proposed railway was never built. The commercial fishing industry, virtually eliminated during the war, soon recovered, bringing financial prosperity to St. Andrews by the late 19th century. A small village known as Park Resort was established southeast of St. Andrews in 1888. Its name was changed to Harrison in honor of U.S. President Benjamin Harrison (1833-1901) soon after, and a post office was established there by 1889. Millville, another community farther south, was also established by then and became home to the German-American Lumber Company by 1906 (WPA 1939a).

The construction of the Atlanta and St. Andrews Bay Railroad began after its president, A.B. Steele, borrowed funds from Coca-Cola founder Asa Candler (Womack 2013). The railway, designed primarily to transport lumber, was completed in 1908. Harrison was renamed Panama City in anticipation of the opening of the Panama Canal in 1906 (Landeck 2019; *Miami Metropolis* 1906). Boat construction, commercial fishing, lumber, and naval stores formed its economic foundation, and upon its incorporation in 1909, it had become home to approximately 600 residents. The city became part of Bay County upon its formation from portions of Calhoun, Walton, and Washington Counties in 1913 (Landeck 2019). The St. Andrews Bay Terminal Railroad, a 2.6-mile railway spur, allowed the shipment of thousands of pounds of fish directly from the city's ice plant and provided tourists access to the city, which was designated as the county seat by 1914 (Womack 2013).

Cultural Resource Assessment Survey
 Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study
 Bay County, Florida



Date: 9/17/2025

Figure 5.1: Original land surveys (GLO 1849, 1915).

Despite much controversy, Millville and St. Andrews were consolidated into Panama City by 1926 (Womack 2013). Industrial growth of the area followed the Southern Kraft Paper Corporation's announcement that it would construct a \$10 million paper mill in Panama City in 1930 (*Fort Lauderdale Daily News* 1930). Employing as many as 2,000 workers and covering some 300,000 acres, the plant provided much-needed jobs for the city's rapidly growing population and also replenished much of the forests that surrounded it, which had been depleted by the German-American Lumber Company (Powell 1954). Kraft partnered with the Bull Line of steamships to transport its products to New York via its port in Tampa (*Tampa Tribune* 1931). The shallow nature of the St. Andrews Bay channel initially limited the mill's output, but once the entrance was dredged and widened, Kraft Paper was able to make direct shipments of over 1200 tons each by 1933 (*Tallahassee Democrat* 1933).

Despite the improvements to St. Andrews Bay, many Bay County roadways remained unpaved until the early 20th century. State Road 20 connected the area with other cities to the north, such as Alford, Cottondale, and Youngstown, and State Road 10 (later State Road 30) traced the coast to Apalachicola, but many local roadways were unpaved and flooded often (Florida State Road Department 1939; *Palm Beach Post-Times* 1948). Due to these conditions and Panama City's remote nature, it was home to fewer than 2,000 people in 1920. By the decade's end, however, construction of the Lynn Haven Bridge, the Coastal Highway (U.S. Highway 98), and the Hathaway Bridge opened the St. Andrews Bay area to automotive travel, fostering the economic development of Bay County for years to come, including several small waterfront communities such as Panama City Beach (Landeck 2019; Womack 2013).

North Florida businessman Gideon Thomas's purchase of a 108-acre tract along the Gulf of Mexico marked the beginning of the development of the Panama City Beach area in 1933. Thomas established a resort southeast of the APE soon after, including the construction of a shell-paved access road leading to US 98 (Thomas Drive), which still bears his name. His Panama City Beach Hotel and adjacent cottages opened in 1935 along with an amusement park and a 1000-foot pier extending to the Gulf of Mexico. Electricity had not yet reached the area, prompting Thomas to devise a wind turbine system to provide power to the resort and its attractions. The 27-mile beachfront area was incorporated as part of Bay County in 1936 and remained popular until the outbreak of World War II, when travel restrictions brought its tourism industry to a virtual halt (Redd 2024).

Charged with defending the Florida Gulf Coast during World War II, Tyndall Air Field (later Tyndall Air Force Base) was established in 1941. J.A. Jones, a North Carolina shipbuilder, signed a government contract for the construction of Liberty Ships for the war effort by the following year, at which point the Wainwright Yard began to employ as many as 15,000 workers (Landeck 2019). In addition, the U.S. Navy Mine Defense Laboratory was established to the northeast of the APE in 1943, bringing more military personnel to the Panama City area, after its expansion in the mid-1950s (*Tallahassee Democrat* 1955; Womack 2013). As demands on local roadways continued to increase. State Road 10 was redesignated as State Road 30 (its current designation) in 1946 (*Pensacola Journal* 1947).

By the 1950s, Panama City had become what some claimed to be Florida's "fastest growing city," mostly due to the demand for postwar residential housing and the continued growth of its tourist

industry. Once the thousands of shipyard and other war-related jobs evaporated, local officials joined with civic leaders to market the city as a tourist destination more aggressively. Six new municipalities were created along Panama City Beach by 1952 to welcome tourists to the area. Numerous small, independently owned and operated hotels, motels, and cottages were established along US 98 by the end of the decade. Among the more extravagant was the Long Beach Resort, which was later converted to condominiums and survives southeast of the APE to this day (Panama City Beach 2025; Redd 2024; Womack 2013). The establishment of St. Andrews State Park, combined with the construction of a municipal pier, area beaches, hotels, resorts, and other attractions, continued to draw thousands of visitors from Alabama and Georgia, ensuring the city's continued economic growth for years to come (Powell 1954).

Historical aerial imagery (**Figure 5.2**) highlights the undeveloped nature of the APE in the early 1950s. The APE consists primarily of a cleared, unimproved area north of State Road 30 and Panama City Beach. A communication or power easement intersects the western portion of the APE as it leads south towards the coast and State Road 30, but there are no structures or any other indications of development visible within its boundaries (USDA 1953).

By the 1960s, Panama City was no longer a remote city along the Florida panhandle. Several hotels, restaurants, and other local attractions lined its Gulf Coast beaches to accommodate the growing demand of its burgeoning postwar tourist industry (*Pensacola Journal* 1967). Panama City Beach gained its first high-rise, the Fontainebleau Terrace Hotel, in the early 1960s. Featuring an indoor pool and designed to withstand hurricane-force winds, its construction marked the waterfront transition from small, mom-and-pop hotels with a scenic view to towering high-rises in the late 20th century (Redd 2024). The six independent beach municipalities created in 1952 were consolidated as the City of Panama Beach in 1970 (*Pensacola Journal* 1970). Building upon the economic contributions of tourism, improvements to the U.S. Navy Mine Defense Laboratory and Tyndall Air Force base continued through the 1970s, attracting more permanent residents through the creation of more military employment (Duke 1972).

The Panama City area suffered one of the greatest natural disasters in its history when Hurricane Eloise made landfall on September 24, 1975 (Harmon 1975). Topping \$2 billion in losses and claiming 76 lives, the storm's 100-mile-per-hour-plus winds wreaked havoc on local hotels, residences, and commercial businesses as it reached the Florida panhandle early that fateful morning. It was the only hurricane to strike the United States in 1975, and also the only one to make landfall in Panama City during the twentieth century by that point (Henderson 1975). Meteorologists had predicted that the storm would strike within a 50-mile radius of the city, yet many residents and businesses were largely unprepared for the damage and flooding that followed (*Tampa Tribune* 1975). The hurricane marked a turning point for the Panama City Beach area. By the following decade, most of Panama City Beach's small mom-and-pop hotels and motels were demolished. They were replaced by the high-rise condominiums that now line US 98, forever changing the city's skyline and transforming it into a modern tourist destination (Redd 2024).

A historical topographic map (**Figure 5.3**) illustrates the undeveloped nature of the APE in the late 20th century. It shows a portion of Black Creek Road intersecting the western end of the APE as it leads south to State Road 30 towards Bid-A-Wee and Bahama Beach. Botheration Bayou can be

seen to the north of Black Creek Road, leading northwest to St. Andrews Bay. Another road or trail is visible to the southeast, leading north to Black Creek Road, crossing a transmission line, and intersecting the APE. Aside from the two roads, there are no indications of development within the APE (USGS 1955, PR 1973).

The former Bay Parkway was renamed to the Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway in 2021 in honor of the late former mayor of Panama City Beach, Florida. Phillip Griffiths was a prominent member of the community and Panama City Beach's longest serving mayor, serving from his election in 1982 until 2000 (Cobb 2021).

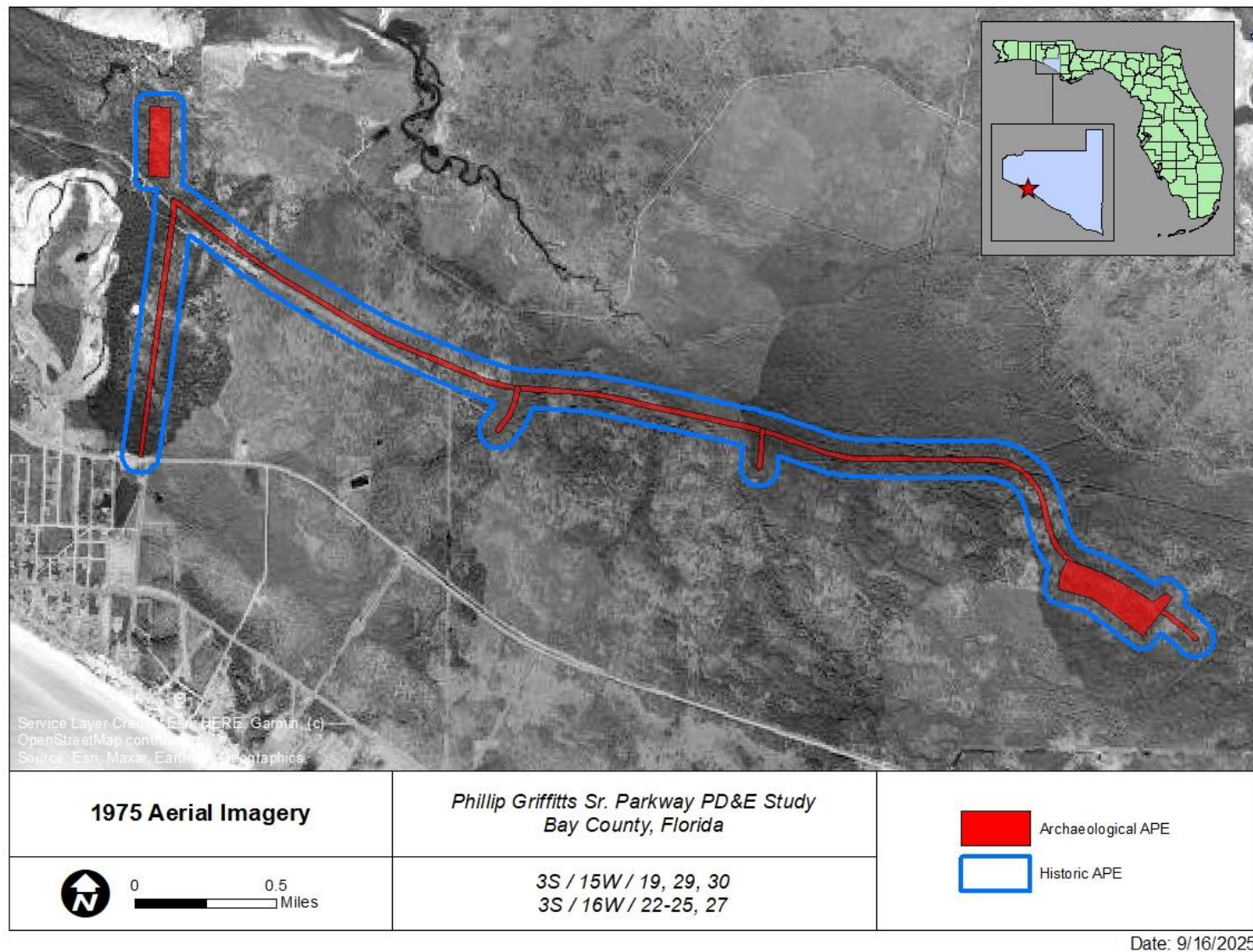
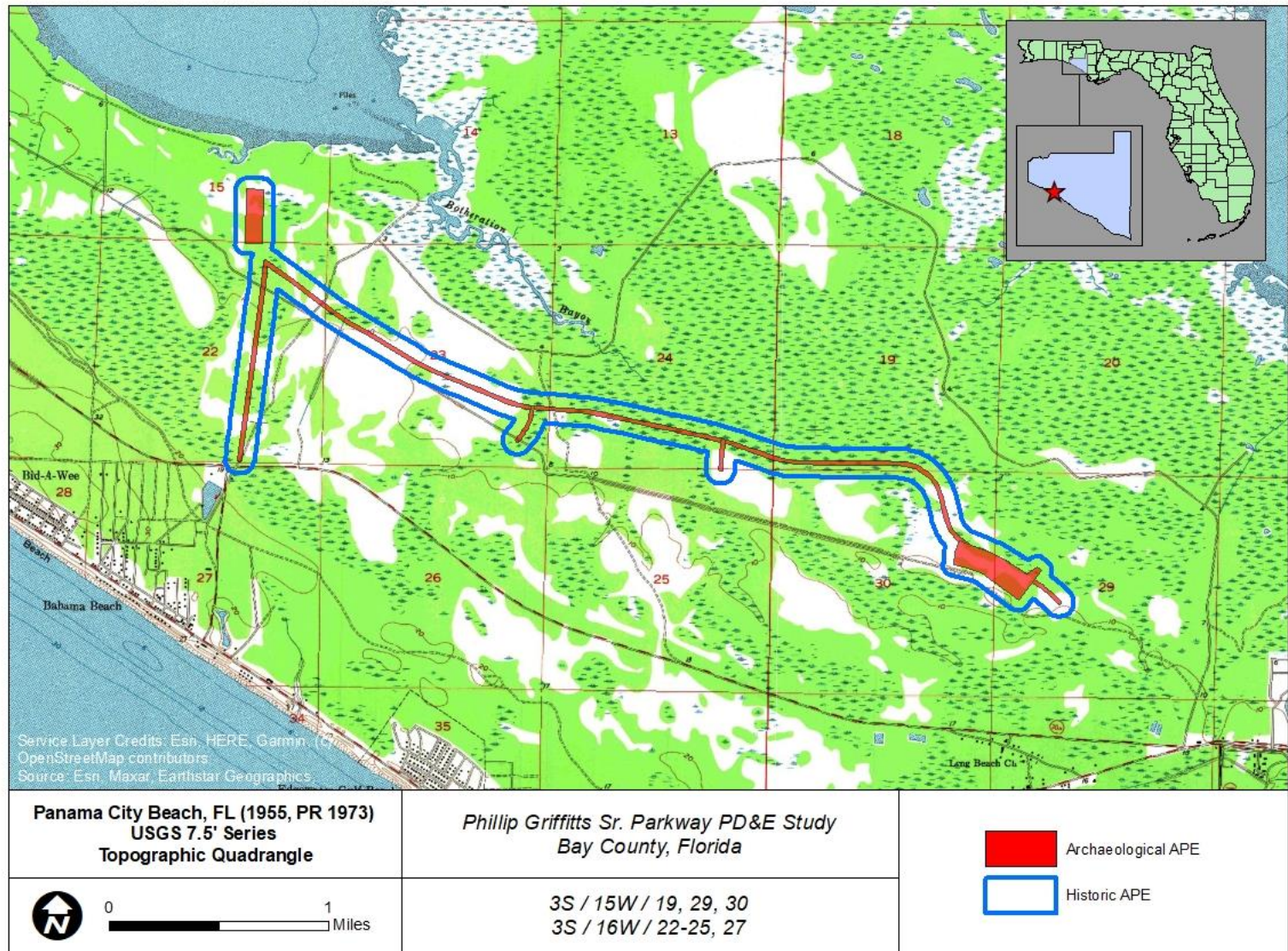


Figure 5.2: Historical aerial imagery (USDA 1975).



Date: 9/16/2025

Figure 5.3: Historical topographic map (USGS 1955, PR 1973).

6. SURVEY AND LABORATORY METHODS

6.1 Archaeological

This Phase I CRAS was designed to evaluate the APE for the presence of historic properties. Historic properties include, but are not limited to, archaeological sites, structures/buildings, historic cemeteries, historic objects, and historic features, including landscape and linear features that are listed or eligible for listing in the NRHP. Fieldwork was carried out by Cassidy Rayburn M.A., Thomas Lee M.A., Anthony Boucher M.A., and Joshua Goodwin M.A. The archaeological field survey consisted of a thorough visual inspection of surface exposures, photographic documentation of the survey areas, and the excavation of systematic and judgmental shovel tests. Prior to conducting the field investigations, an examination of the information in the FMSF, recent and historical aerials, soil maps, and topographic maps was undertaken. An examination of the FMSF records was conducted to identify previously recorded archaeological sites, historic resources, and assessment surveys conducted in the general project area. Background research indicated that the APE is located within 300 m of two previously recorded archaeological sites (8BY00780 and 8BY00045). Results of the desktop analysis indicated that the APE consists of very poorly-drained to poorly drained soils that have been disturbed as a result of previous and ongoing silvicultural operations. Following guidance provided in “Module Three Guidelines for Use by Historic Preservation Professionals” (FDHR 2003), the APE has an overall low probability of holding unrecorded archaeological sites or cultural materials, except for a portion of the APE within the western pond location, which contained an area of moderate probability due to its proximity to previously recorded sites (8BY00045 and 8BY00780). The subsurface testing methodology employed systematic shovel testing of proposed pond sites at 100-m and 50-m intervals along offset transects. The ROW alignment was tested by placing judgmental tests where conditions were dry enough to allow shovel testing. No cultural materials were recovered as a result of this survey; however, in the event that a positive shovel test was recorded, additional close interval (10-m) shovel tests would have been sited in the cardinal directions from the initial positive shovel tests. Delineation testing would have continued along each delineation transect until two consecutive negative tests were recorded in each direction.

Each shovel test measured 50 centimeters (cm) in diameter and was excavated to a depth of 1 m (100 cm) unless impeded by subsurface obstructions or water incursion. All excavated soil was screened through 0.25-inch (in) (6.4-millimeter [mm]) mesh hardware cloth, retaining all cultural materials greater than 0.25 in. No artifacts were identified as a result of this survey; however, had they been identified, all collected artifacts would have been bagged and labelled by provenience and retained for later analysis. Soil profiles for each shovel test were recorded on standardized shovel test forms, noting environmental observations as well as Munsell soil color, texture, and depths of observed stratigraphic units. GPS locations were collected for shovel test locations using a Trimble Catalyst DA2 receiver and Esri Field Maps software.

6.2 Laboratory and Curation

No artifacts were collected as a result of this archaeological investigation; however, in the event that cultural materials are identified, all artifacts recovered during archaeological investigations

would be transported to the AtkinsRéalis laboratory facilities in Tampa, FL. Artifacts would be washed, sorted by provenience, and analyzed by qualified archaeologists using accepted practices. The analysis would consist of inventory and classification of all recovered artifacts. If encountered, Pre-Contact ceramics and lithic artifacts are designated and classified, when possible, following existing typologies (Bullen 1975; Scarry 1985; Willey 1949). During analysis, artifacts would be entered into an inventory organized by provenience and placed into 4 mil polyethylene film bags and labeled with provenience and excavation details in preparation for permanent curation.

All artifacts, field notes, maps, photographs, and digital data, including geospatial project data resulting from the archaeological testing program, will be curated at the AtkinsRéalis laboratory facilities in Tampa, FL.

6.3 Historic Resources

A historic resources desktop analysis was conducted to identify any previously recorded historic resources within the APE, to assess the potential for unrecorded historic resources within the APE, and to review the location of the proposed improvements in relation to these cultural resources. Historic resources are defined as structures, bridges, cemeteries, and resource groups 48 years of age or older (constructed in or prior to 1977). An additional two years were added to the historic resource search timeline to allow for project build time.

AtkinsRéalis conducted a field survey to assess the APE for historic resources. The field survey included a pedestrian survey and a windshield survey of the overall project APE to identify, document, photograph, and evaluate any resource 48 years of age or older (constructed in or prior to 1977). No historic resources were identified as a result of the survey; however, if present, any resource that was previously recorded but displayed significant changes since the last recordation would receive an updated FMSF form. If there were no significant changes to previously recorded resources, and the previous FMSF form met FDHR standards and was last recorded or updated within the last ten years, forms would not be updated. Had any historic resources been identified within the project APE, the field survey would have evaluated the integrity of any cultural resources and their eligibility for listing in the NRHP, individually and as part of a historic district. Additionally, potential effects for resources listed or eligible for listing in the NRHP would have been evaluated under the Criteria of Adverse Effects, as set forth in 36 CFR Part 800.5(a)(1).

6.4 National Register Eligibility Criteria

The cultural resources evaluation conducted for this project utilized the criteria for listing historic properties in the NRHP as a basis for site evaluations. The following describes the criteria used for the evaluation of properties for inclusion in the NRHP and is taken from guidelines published by the U.S. Department of the Interior:

Criteria for Evaluation

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, and culture is present in

districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and:

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

6.5 Local Consultation

There was no Certified Local Government (CLG) within Bay County that was registered with FDHR at the time that this CRAS was prepared, and therefore, no local consultation was initiated.

6.6 Inadvertent/Unanticipated Discovery of Cultural Remains

Occasionally, archaeological deposits, subsurface features, or unmarked human remains are encountered during development, even though the project area may have previously received a thorough and professionally adequate cultural resources assessment. Such events are rare, but they do occur. If human remains are encountered during development, the procedures outlined in Chapter 872, FS, must be followed.

In the event such discoveries are made during the development process, all activities in the immediate vicinity of the discovery will be suspended, and a professional archaeologist will be contacted to evaluate the importance of the discovery. The area will be examined by the archaeologist, who, in consultation with staff of the Florida SHPO, will determine if the discovery is significant or potentially significant.

In the event the discovery is found to be not significant, the work may immediately resume. If, on the other hand, the discovery is found to be significant or potentially significant, then development activities in the immediate vicinity of the discovery will continue to be suspended until a mitigation plan acceptable to SHPO is developed and implemented. Development activities may then resume within the discovery area, but only when conducted in accordance with the guidelines and conditions of the approved mitigation plan.

7. SURVEY RESULTS

AtkinsRéalis archaeologists conducted a Phase I cultural resource assessment survey of the project APE in October 2024 and July 2025. Fieldwork included a combination of pedestrian survey and systematic and judgmental shovel testing within areas of the proposed alignment. A total of 18 systematic and judgmental shovel tests were excavated as part of the current investigation. Due to design changes that occurred during the course of the project, four (4) shovel tests fall outside of the preferred alignment. All shovel tests were negative for cultural materials, and no new archaeological sites or historic resources were recorded. During both field visits, the APE and the surrounding areas were exceedingly wet. Standing water was observed throughout the majority of the project area, hampering access and precluding shovel testing over much of the APE. An overview of current field conditions, the overall setting, and general APE is included below (**Figures 7.1 – 7.13**). To help illustrate the wet conditions observed in the field, a map is provided in **Figure 7.14** that shows the project APE overlying a 2024 surface waters map provided by the Florida Department of Environmental Protection (DEP). A map of the full project APE with shovel testing locations and results is provided in **Figure 7.15**. The results of archaeological testing are discussed in *Section 7.1 Archaeological Survey Results*. A FMSF Survey Log is included in **Appendix A**.



Figure 7.1: Overview of the APE, looking north.



Figure 7.2: Overview of the APE, looking south by southeast.



Figure 7.3: Overview of the APE, looking northwest.



Figure 7.4: Overview of the APE, looking south by south.



Figure 7.5: Overview of the APE, looking north.



Figure 7.6: Overview of the APE, looking north by northeast.



Figure 7.7: Overview of the APE, looking northeast.



Figure 7.8: Overview of the APE, looking northeast.



Figure 7.9: Overview of the APE, looking east.



Figure 7.10: Overview of the APE, looking south.



Figure 7.11: Overview of the APE, looking south by southwest.



Figure 7.12: Overview of the APE, looking south.



Figure 7.13: Overview of the APE, looking south by southeast.

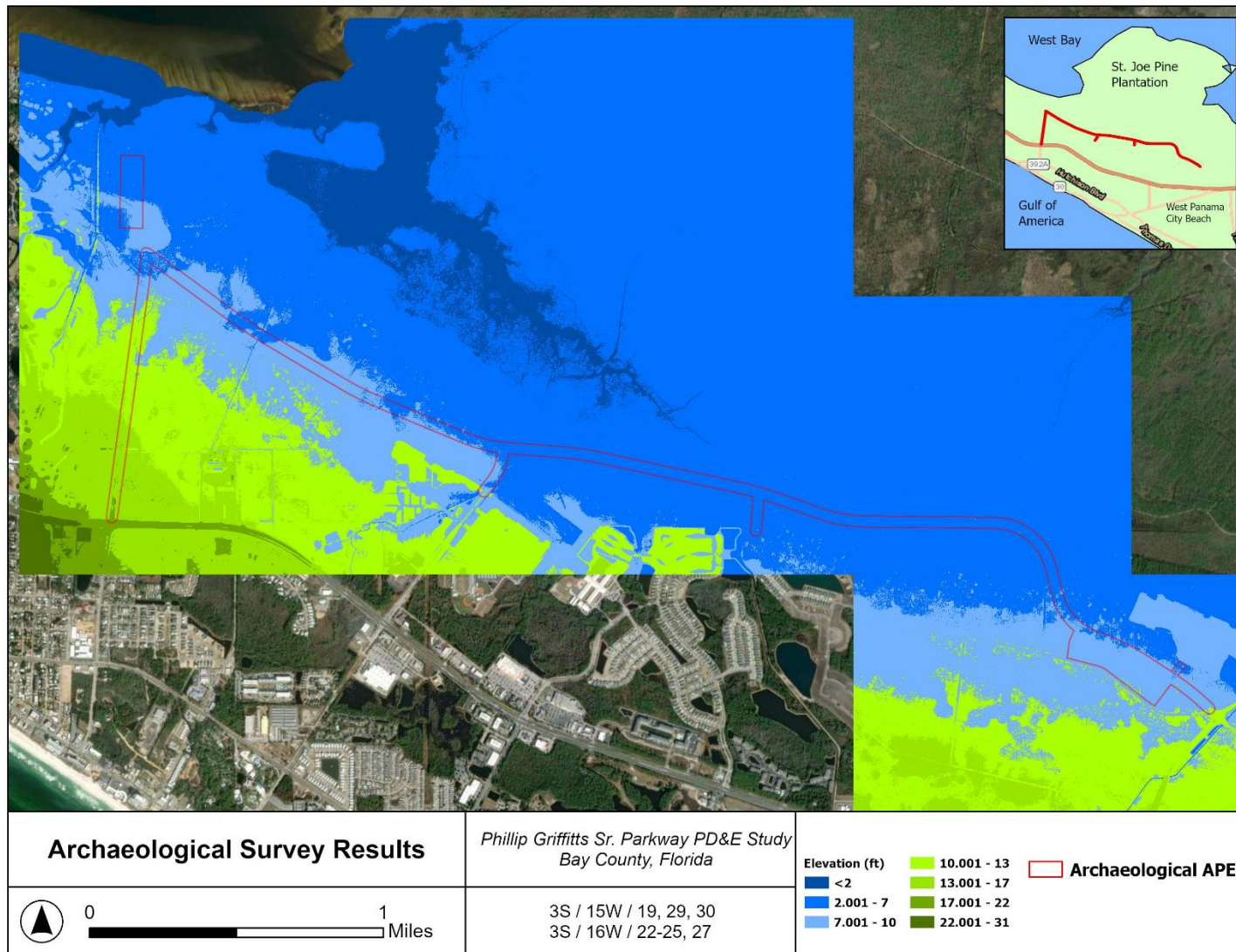


Figure 7.14: Project APE shown on surface water maps provided by floridagio.gov (2024).

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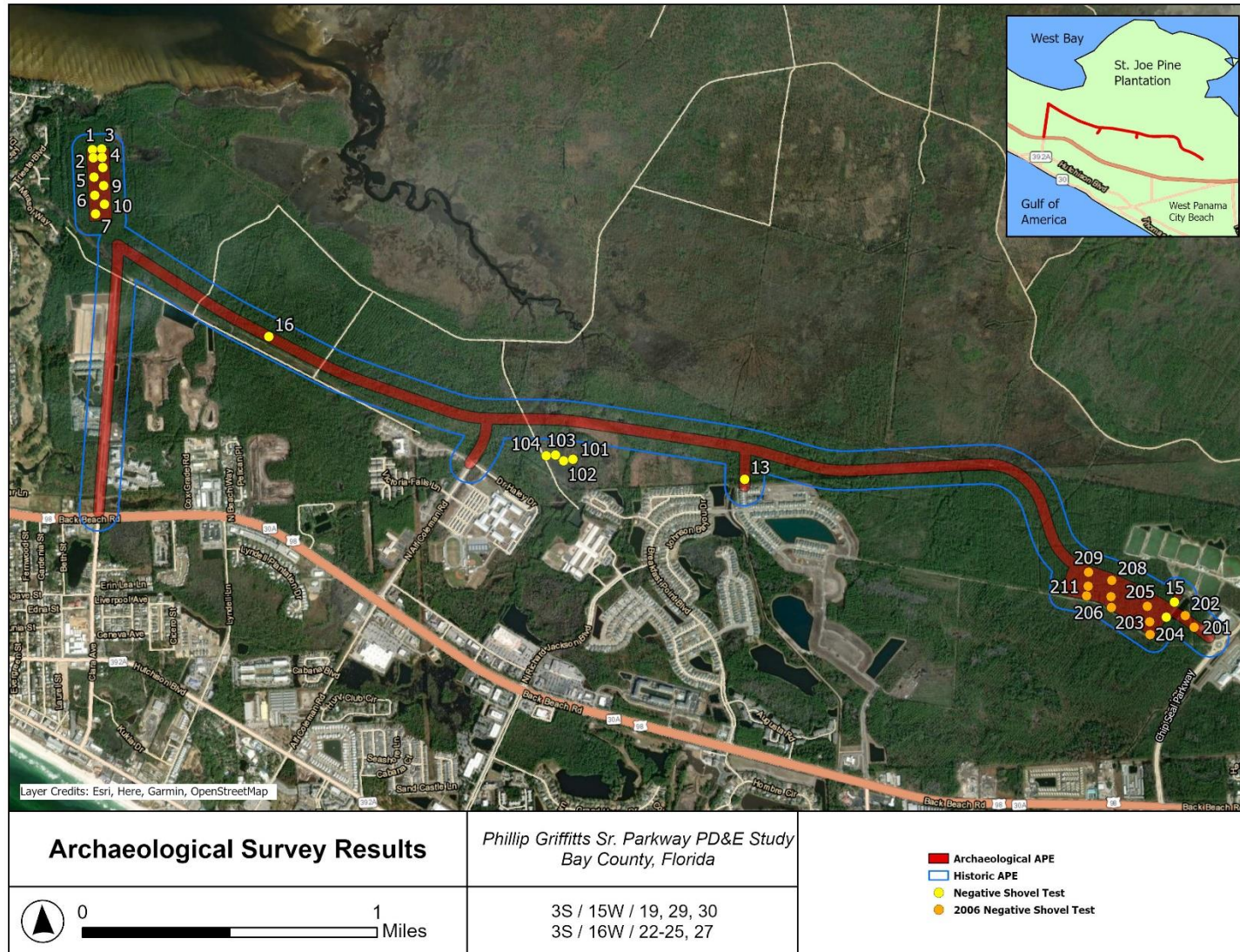


Figure 7.15: Overview map of shovel testing locations and results with photo key.

7.1 Archaeological Survey Results

As outlined above, prior to the field survey, a cultural resources desktop analysis was conducted to gather cultural and environmental data relevant to the project area. No previously recorded historical resources were identified within or intersecting the APE. As previously mentioned, a significant portion of the eastern extent of the proposed project was previously surveyed by PBS&J in 2006, which included the excavation of 200 shovel tests within the areas that had the highest probability of encountering archaeological sites. A total of 11 shovel tests excavated as part of that survey (PBS&J 2016) were excavated within the current project APE in areas that were precluded from shovel testing during the current investigation due to the presence of standing water. All shovel tests excavated by PBS&J (2016) that fall within the current project APE were negative for cultural material, and it was noted that most of the ground surrounding the project area was heavily saturated and disturbed by pine tree farm planting and maintenance.

The archaeological field survey for this CRAS consisted of pedestrian survey and a combination of systematic and judgmental shovel testing. A total of 18 shovel tests were excavated as part of the current investigation in portions of the preferred alignment, as well as two retention pond sites. (**Figure 7.15**). All shovel tests measured 50 cm in diameter and were excavated to a maximum depth of 100 cm below the surface. The subsurface testing strategy was based on guidance following “Module Three Guidelines for Use by Historic Preservation Professionals” (FDHR 2003). The APE was considered to have a low to moderate probability of holding any unrecorded archaeological sites or cultural materials based on environmental and cultural factors. The only area of moderate probability occurred in the western pond location, and probability was determined based upon the proximity of two previously recorded archaeological sites (8BY00045 and 8BY00780) relative to the APE. The two proposed pond sites were tested systematically at 50-m and 100-m intervals along offset transects, and the roadway alignment was tested by placing judgmental tests where conditions were dry enough to allow shovel testing. The APE consists of very poorly-drained to poorly drained soils that have been disturbed as a result of previous and ongoing silvicultural operations. The prevailing conditions across the APE include planted pine trees and wetlands dominated by titi thicket, green briar, and smilax understory with standing water in the furrows between pine plantings. Most of the APE is prone to flooding, and flooded conditions were observed during each field visit. It was noted that several of the forest roads used to access the APE during the October 2024 survey were impassible due to high water during the July 2025 survey.

The eastern portion of the APE contains two proposed retention ponds. This area falls within the area previously surveyed by PBS&J (2006a), and 11 shovel tests were excavated within the current project APE. Both eastern pond locations were flooded with standing water during field visits, and only two shovel tests were attempted in this portion of the APE. Both shovel tests (Shovel Test 14 and 15) were terminated early at the water table (**Figures 7.16 and 7.17**). While shovel testing was not possible as part of the current survey, PBS&J recorded nine negative shovel tests within the newly proposed pond during their 2006 survey (**Figure 7.18**).



Figure 7.16: Photograph of Shovel Test 14, view facing south by southwest.



Figure 7.17: Photograph of Shovel Test 15, view facing east.

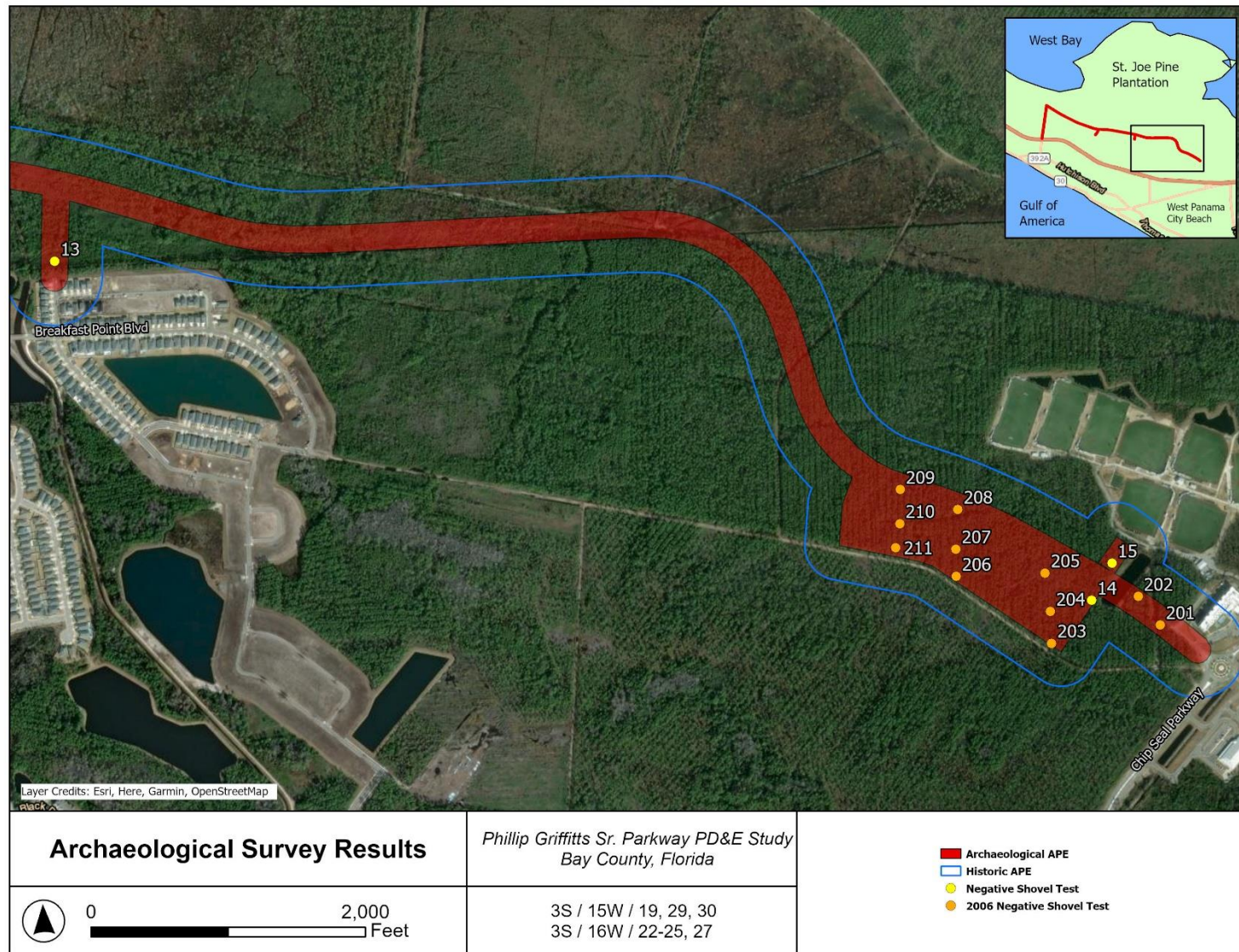


Figure 7.18: Detail map 1 of 3 showing shovel test locations and results from the current investigation and PBS&J (2006a)

Further west of the eastern ponds, one shovel test (Shovel Test 13) was placed near the edge of a residential development in an area that looked relatively dry for testing. Shovel Test 13 was terminated at the water table at a depth of 35 cmbs. Soils observed within the observable profile included black (10YR 2/1) saturated sandy loam/muck (**Figure 7.19**).

No shovel tests were placed within the APE between eastern pond locations and Shovel Test 13. This section of the APE is composed of flooded stands of pine and wetlands, and standing water was observed throughout this area. The APE traverses an existing canal through this section, and on both occasions, the canal and most of the access roads were flooded throughout this area.



Figure 7.19: Photograph of Shovel Test 13, view facing north by northeast.

During the first field visit in October 2024, four shovel tests (Shovel Tests 101-104) were excavated within a previously proposed alignment of the project (**Figure 7.20**). Following subsequent design changes, those shovel tests do not fall within the current boundaries of the project APE. At the time of the field visit, the location, a sparsely wooded palmetto prairie, offered some of the only available dry ground for shovel testing. Visual inspection and subsurface testing results suggest the area had been previously disturbed by timber harvesting operations. Subsurface soils included light gray (10YR 7/1), gray (10YR 6/1-2) fine sandy loam overlying black (10YR 2/1) sandy muck (**Figures 7.21 and 7.22**). Each of the four shovel tests excavated within this location was terminated at the water table at a depth of between 35 and 60 cmbs. All shovel tests excavated in this portion of the APE were negative for cultural materials.

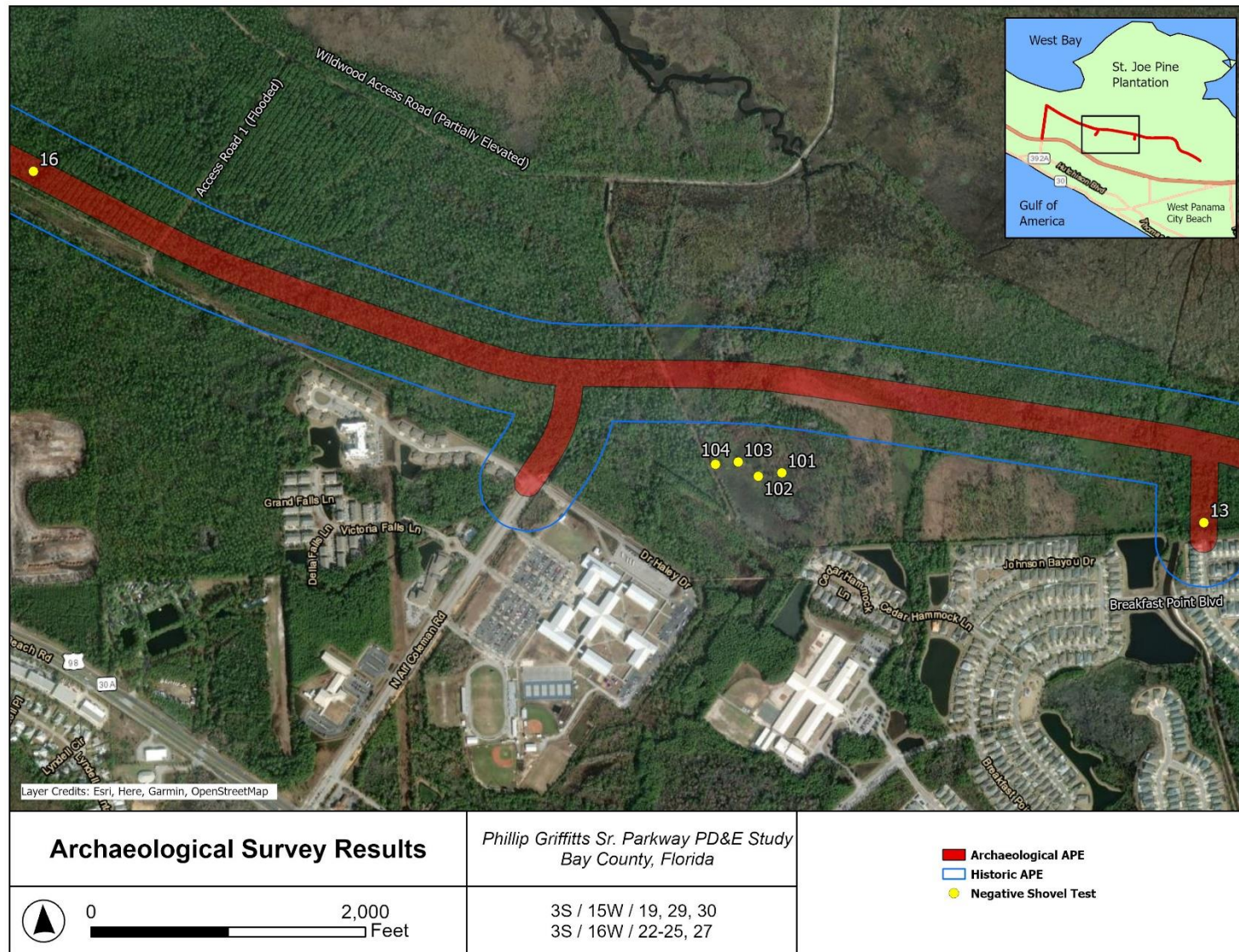


Figure 7.20: Detail map 2 of 3 showing shovel test locations and results.



Figure 7.21: Photograph of Shovel Test 102, view facing north.



Figure 7.22: Photograph of Shovel Test 101, view facing north.



Figure 7.23: Detail map 3 of 3 showing shovel test locations and results.

Testing in the western portion of the project APE was focused within the proposed pond location (**Figure 7.23**). This portion of the APE is slightly more elevated and consists of planted pines. Soils within the western pond location are classified as very poorly- to poorly-drained; however, given the area's relative elevation, and its proximity to West Bay as well as two previously recorded sites (8BY00045 and 8BY00780), the APE here was tested at 50-m and 100-m intervals. A total of 10 shovel tests were excavated within the western pond. All were negative for cultural resources. Subsurface soil profiles observed within the moderate probability zone of the site included an upper stratum of dark gray (10YR 6/1) to dark yellowish brown (10YR 4/4) fine sands overlying light gray (10YR 7/1) fine sand. Two of the shovel tests (Shovel Tests 3 and 4) placed within the moderate probability zone were terminated at the water table (**Figure 7.24**), and two were terminated at 45-50 cmbs due to spodic layer impasse (**Figure 7.25**).

East of the western pond, the APE traverses an area of planted pine. Much of this area was wet when observed during visual inspection. At the time of the field survey, a homeless encampment occupied an area of relatively higher ground within the APE. Out of concern for the safety of the field crew, this area in the immediate vicinity of the encampment was avoided for shovel testing. A single shovel test (Shovel Test 16) was placed in this area. Subsurface results were similar to those recorded in the western pond location, with an upper stratum of gray (10YR 6/1) fine sand extending to a depth of 15 cmbs and overlying light gray (10YR 7/1) sands before terminating at the spodic layer at 45 cmbs.



Figure 7.24: Photograph of Shovel Test 1, view facing north.



Figure 7.25: Photograph of Shovel Test 2, view facing northeast.

The segment of the proposed alignment that runs generally north to south along Clara Avenue, connecting the project to US 98/30A, was under construction at the time of the field survey. This portion of the APE was already constructed, and the APE had clearly been subject to recent ground disturbance and development; therefore, this area was precluded from shovel testing.

7.2 Historic Resources Survey Results

A desktop analysis was conducted prior to any field surveys to identify any previously recorded cultural resources and any parcels of historic age with the potential for containing structures 48 years of age or older within the APE. To account for project build time, an additional two years were added to the period of evaluation, i.e., constructed in or prior to 1977. Background research did not identify any previously recorded archaeological sites or historic resources within and/or adjacent to the APE.

AtkinsRéalis conducted a field survey to assess the APE for historic resources in October 2024 and July 2025. The field survey included a pedestrian survey and a windshield survey of the overall project APE to identify, document, photograph, and evaluate any resource 48 years of age or older (constructed in or prior to 1977). No historic resources were identified as a result of the survey.

8. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

On behalf of Bay County, AtkinsRéalis has prepared a CRAS for the Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway in Bay County, Florida. The proposed undertaking is expected to impact the BPMB, a state and federally authorized, privately owned mitigation bank established to provide compensatory mitigation for unavoidable wetland impacts within the approved MSA. The approximately five-mile-long project area with associated pond sites extends from Clara Avenue to Chip Seal Parkway in Sections 22, 23, 24, and 25, Township 3 S, Range 16 W, and Sections 19, 29, and 30, Township 3 S, Range 15 W of the Panama City Beach, FL (2024) USGS quadrangle map.

The purpose of this CRAS is to identify any archaeological sites and/or historic resources within the APE and assess their eligibility for listing in the NRHP according to criteria set forth in 36 CFR 60.4 and if applicable, to apply the Criteria of Adverse Effects, as set forth in 36 CFR Part 800.5(a)(1), to the project. Based on the scale and nature of the proposed project, the APE is defined as those areas subject to ground disturbance and indirect effects as a result of project activities.

A desktop analysis was conducted prior to any field surveys to identify any previously recorded cultural resources and any parcels of historic age with the potential for containing structures 48 years of age or older within the APE. To account for project build time, an additional two years were added to the period of evaluation, i.e., constructed in or prior to 1977. Background research did not identify any previously recorded archaeological sites or historic resources within and/or adjacent to the APE.

The field survey consisted of a thorough visual inspection, subsurface testing, and photographic documentation of the APE. A total of 18 shovel tests were excavated within the project build alternatives. As a result of the current investigation, no archaeological sites or archaeological occurrences, or historic resources were identified within the APE.

Based on the results of this assessment, AtkinsRéalis recommends a finding of ***no historic properties affected*** for this project. No further work is recommended.

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10. APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: FMSF Survey Log

Cultural Resource Assessment Survey
Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study
Bay County, Florida

APPENDIX A: FMSF Survey Log

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)

Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study

Report Title (exactly as on title page)

Cultural Resource Assessment Survey, Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study, Bay County, Florida.

Report Authors (as on title page)

1. Joshua Goodwin

3. Cassidy Rayburn

2. Shannon Bruffett

4. Thomas Lee

Publication Year 2025

Number of Pages in Report (do not include site forms) 89

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

AtkinsRealis. 2025. A Cultural Resource Assessment Survey, Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study, Bay County, Florida.

Supervisors of Fieldwork (even if same as author) Names

Joshua Goodwin

Affiliation of Fieldworkers: Organization

ATKINS Global

City Tallahassee

Key Words/Phrases (Don't use county name, or common words like *archaeology*, *structure*, *survey*, *architecture*, etc.)

1. West Bay

3. PD&E

5.

7.

2. Phillip Griffiths Sr.

4. Panama City Beach

6.

8.

Survey Sponsors (corporation, government unit, organization, or person funding fieldwork)

Name Bay County

Organization Bay County Public Works

Address/Phone/E-mail 840 W 11th Street, Panama City, Florida 32401

Recorder of Log Sheet Joshua Goodwin

Date Log Sheet Completed 9-15-2025

Is this survey or project a continuation of a previous project? ☐ No ☒ Yes:

Previous survey #s (FMSF only)

Project Area Mapping

Counties (select every county in which field survey was done; attach additional sheet if necessary)

1. Bay

3.

5.

2.

4.

6.

USGS 1:24,000 Map Names/Year of Latest Revision (attach additional sheet if necessary)

1. Name PANAMA CITY BEACH

Year 2024

4. Name

Year

2. Name

Year

5. Name

Year

3. Name

Year

6. Name

Year

Field Dates and Project Area Description

Fieldwork Dates: Start 10-4-2024 End 7-25-2025 Total Area Surveyed (fill in one) _____ hectares _____ acres

Number of Distinct Tracts or Areas Surveyed _____

If Corridor (fill in one for each) Width: _____ meters 200 feet Length: _____ kilometers 5.00 miles

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

Pedestrian survey, windshield survey, systematic and judgmental archaeological shovel testing

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, uncontrolled ☐ 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

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)

N/A

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

N/A

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

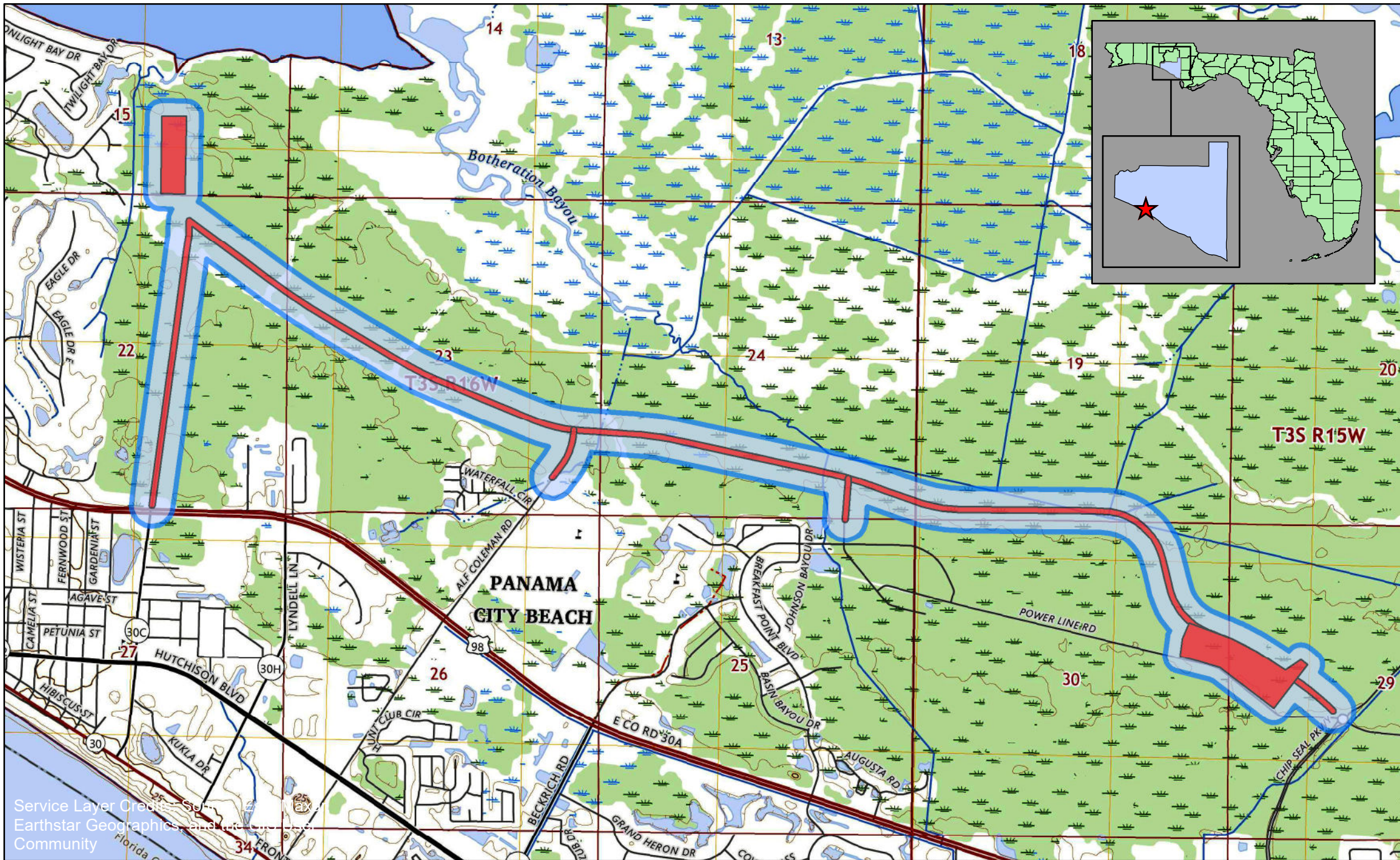
REQUIRED: Attach Map of Survey or Project Area Boundary

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:** _____



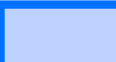
Service Layer Credits
Earthstar Geographics, Inc.
Community

**USGS Quadrangle Map
Panama City Beach
(2024)**

*Phillip Griffiths Sr. Parkway PD&E Study
Bay County, Florida*



3S / 15W / 19, 29, 30
3S / 16W / 22-25, 27

-  Archaeological APE
-  Historic APE