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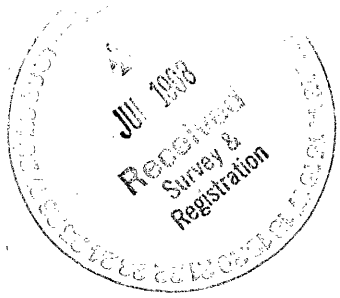

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National Register of Historic Places Multiple Property Documentation Form

This form is used for documenting multiple property groups relating to one or several historic contexts. See instructions in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Complete each item by entering the requested information. For additional space, use continuation sheets (Form 10-900-a). Use a typewriter, word processor, or computer to complete all items.

X New Submission ___ Amended Submission

A. Name of Multiple Property Listing

Prehistoric and Historic Archeological Properties of the Naval Live Oaks Reservation, Gulf Breeze, Florida

B. Associated Historic Contexts

(Name each associated historic context, identifying theme, geographical area, and chronological period for each.)

[See Section E for historic contexts descriptions]

I.b.(3) Late Archaic (4000BC-1000BC)
I.c.(1) Early Woodland (1000BC-AD200)
I.c.(2) Middle Woodland (AD200-AD500)
I.c.(3) Late Woodland (AD500-AD1200)
I.d. Mississippian (AD1200-AD1700)
II.a.(1) First Spanish (AD1528-AD1763)
II.b.(1) Early American (AD1821-AD1845)
II.b.(2) Antebellum (AD1845-AD1860)

C. Form Prepared by

name/title Norma Harris, Research Associate; Reviewed by Judith A. Bense, Phd.

organization University of West Florida Archeology Institute date June 1997

street & number 11000 University Parkway, Building 80 telephone (850)474-3015

city or town Pensacola state Florida zip code 32514

D. Certification

As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, as amended, I hereby certify that this documentation form meets the National Register documentation standards and sets forth requirements for the listing of related properties consistent with the National Register criteria. This submission meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 60 and the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation. (☐ See continuation sheet for additional comments.)

Superintendent / Donald M Greenley FPO 24JUL1998 / 8-17-98
Signature and title of certifying official Date

Gulf Islands Nat'l Seashore (Nat'l Park Service) / NPS Cult.Res. Stewardship & Partnership Prog.
State or Federal agency and bureau

I hereby certify that this multiple property documentation form has been approved by the National Register as a basis for evaluating related properties for listing in the National Register.

for Barbara J Little 9/28/98
Signature of the Keeper Date of Action

Table of Contents for Written Narrative

Provide the following information on continuation sheets. Cite the letter and the title before each section of the narrative. Assign page numbers according to the instructions for continuation sheets in *How to Complete the Multiple Property Documentation Form* (National Register Bulletin 16B). Fill in page numbers for each section in the space below.

Paperwork Reduction Act Statement: This information is being collected for applications to the National Register of Historic Places to nominate properties for listing or determine eligibility for listing, to list properties, and to amend existing listings. Response to this request is required to obtain a benefit in accordance with the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended (16 U.S.C. 470 *et seq.*).

Estimated Burden Statement: Public reporting burden for this form is estimated to average 18.1 hours per response including the time for reviewing instructions, gathering and maintaining data, and completing and reviewing the form. Direct comments regarding this burden estimate or any aspect of this form to the Chief, Administrative Services Division, National Park Service, P.O. Box 37127, Washington, DC 20013-7127; and the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reductions Project (1024-0018), Washington, DC 20503.

National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form

Naval Live Oaks Area, Gulf Islands National Seashore

Section E. Statement of Historical Contexts

I. Prehistoric Chronology

The archaeological investigations undertaken over the last 100 years in northwest Florida have produced much data on the prehistory and history of the region, and a picture of human adaptation to the northwest Florida area has emerged. Presented below is a brief overview of the culture history of the area. For a more complete delineation of northwest Florida cultural chronology, the reader is referred to Bense (1989, 1994a), Milanich and Fairbanks (1980), Milanich (1994), and Thomas and Campbell (1993).

a. Paleoindian Stage (ca. 12,000 - 8,000 B.C.)

The Paleoindian Stage, representing the earliest occupation of the Western Hemisphere, began during the late Pleistocene (Great Ice Age) and ended about 8,500 B.C. (Bense, 1994a:38). These first human occupants of North America probably migrated from northeast Asia during the latter stages of this last glacial period. After crossing the Bering Land Bridge, a wide savannah that once connected Siberia with Alaska, these migrants apparently moved southward through the Canadian ice sheet along an ice-free corridor into the upper Great Plains. From the plains they probably followed eastward trending rivers into the central Mississippi valley before spreading east and south along the Ohio, Tennessee and Cumberland river valleys (Bense, 1994a:38).

The Paleoindian stage is divided into three periods, Early, Middle and Late, primarily on the basis of changes in projectile point styles. The hallmark of the early and middle Paleoindian periods is the lanceolate shaped projectile point with a convex or straight haft element and base (Bense, 1994a: 41-42). These artifacts are long, thin bifacially worked blades, made of fine grained chert, that often exhibit a flute, or long shallow flake scar, on each face. Early and middle Paleoindian sites in north Florida are marked by the Suwannee and Simpson projectile point types, and an expedient lithic tool kit of unifacial scrapers, adzes, blades, spokeshaves, flake knives, and ground stone implements (Milanich, 1994:48-51). Late in the Paleoindian stage, climatic events evidently triggered changes in settlement and subsistence. These developments are reflected in late Paleoindian settlement systems and assemblages. The Late Paleoindian assemblage includes small serrated projectile points, and the addition of woodworking implements (Bense, 1994a:55).

(1) Early and Middle Periods (ca. 13,000 - 8,500 B.C.): Paleoindians probably came to north Florida near the end of the Pleistocene, approximately 12,000 years ago (Milanich, 1994: 37).

Climatic conditions in Florida were substantially different from today. The region was drier and several degrees cooler, sea levels were about 160 ft lower, and the Gulf Coast shoreline was located well south of its present position. Modern coastal areas, which are now flat, low and wet, were formerly dry uplands marked by extreme topographic relief. Inland drainages, springs, streams, and wetlands were virtually non-existent, and the water table was much lower. Potable water during the late Pleistocene was scarce, and it was available in the rain-fed water holes and lakes, and deep sinkholes fed by springs (Milanich, 1994:39). These water holes, lakes and deep sinks were most plentiful in the karstic limestone deposits of north peninsular Florida, from near Tampa north to the Chipola River; these limestone deposits also extend off the Gulf Coast. Most of these sinks and lakes are now inundated.

Recent research by Dunbar, Waller, Webb and their associates (cf. Waller and Dunbar, 1977; Dunbar, 1981; Dunbar and Waller, 1983; Dunbar et al. 1989) has contributed significant settlement and subsistence information about the early and middle Paleoindian periods in Florida. These researchers have demonstrated that most Paleoindian sites are located in these areas of karst topography: the Santa Fe-Ichetucknee River basin; the Aucilla-Wascissa River system; the Steinhatchee River; the Oklawaha River-Silver River basin; the Withlacoochee River; the Hillsborough River drainage; the Chipola River system; and the St. Johns River (Milanich, 1994: 43). Many of these sites are now inundated. The Page/Ladson site on the Aucilla River has yielded radiocarbon dates of 10,000-7,500 B.C. for strata producing Paleoindian materials (Milanich, 1994: 46). At Harney Flats near Tampa, Daniel and Wisenbaker (1987) excavated a Paleoindian site situated on a ridge divide between two river valleys that overlooked a savannah. This almost completely undisturbed Paleoindian settlement yielded thousands of artifacts that provided data on the production sequence for Suwannee points, and enabled these researchers to delineate special activity areas. At the Silver Springs Run Site, archaeologists recovered mammoth bones in association with a stemless point and chert flakes (Hoffman, 1983:83-87).

Dunbar and Webb's work indicates that water was the crucial element in Paleoindian settlement. This "oasis model" suggests that these water holes, sinks, and lakes provided the Paleoindians with relatively rich natural communities that supported a diversity of plant and animal resources (Milanich, 1994:41). The current theory of Paleoindian subsistence is that it was readily adaptable to unfamiliar and rapidly changing environments. The primary subsistence activities were hunting, fishing, and collecting a wide range of faunal and floral resources (Bense, 1994a:44).

Little is known about the Paleoindian occupation in northwest Florida. The multi-year Eglin Air Force Base research in nearby Okaloosa county failed to produce any early Paleoindian sites, although these researchers note that several Paleoindian sites have been recovered in a submerged context near the base (Thomas and Campbell, 1993:503). Paleoindian markers in the form of fluted and lanceolate projectile points (eg. Simpson and Suwanee points) have been discovered by collectors in northwest Florida, from the Chipola River, St. Andrew Bay, Choctawhatchee Bay and Escambia Bay. Most sites of the early and middle Paleoindian periods probably are submerged or may be deeply buried in the bays and interior floodplains.

(2) Late Paleoindian Period (ca. 8,500 - 8,000 B.C.): The late Paleoindian period perhaps represents a transitional era between the Paleoindian and Archaic stages. Marked by the Dalton projectile point style, this period exhibits changes in technology and is interpreted by most archaeologists as reflecting a change from the cooler, wetter environment of the late Pleistocene to the warming and drying climate of the Holocene (Milanich, 1994). Characterized by a dramatic increase in the number of sites in comparison to the preceding periods, the late Paleoindian period is thought to be a time of increasing populations with the establishment of many new settlements. These settlements are found not only in the same locations as preceding periods, but in upland areas as well. Dalton peoples apparently retained a hunting and gathering economy. Recent investigations in Escambia, Okaloosa, and Santa Rosa counties have produced Dalton sites in upland settings near lower order drainages (cf. Phillips, 1989a; Phillips, and Bense, 1990a; Penton, 1991a; Phillips and McKenzie, 1992a; Phillips, 1992c; Phillips, 1994).

Table 1. Cultural sequence for northwest Florida

Stage	Period	Date*	Culture
Paleoindian	Early and Middle	13,000 - 8,500 B.C.	Unnamed
	Late	8,500 - 8,000 B.C.	Dalton
Archaic	Early	8,000 - 6,000 B.C.	Kirk
	Middle	6,000 - 4,000 B.C.	Unnamed
	Late	4,000 - 1,000 B.C.	Unnamed, Norwood, Elliott's Point
Woodland	Early	1000 B.C. - A.D. 200	Deptford
	Middle	A.D. 200 - A.D. 500	Santa Rosa/Swift Creek
	Late I	A. D. 500 - A. D. 800	Early Weeden Island
	Late II	A.D. 800 - A.D. 1200	Late Weeden Island
Mississippian/	Middle	A.D. 1200 - A.D. 1450	Early Pensacola, Bottle Creek phase
Protohistoric	Late	A.D. 1450 - A.D. 1750	Late Pensacola, Bear Point phase, Leon-Jefferson

* Dates are synthesized from Milanich (1994) and Bense (1994a) and Smith (1951, 1965)

b. Archaic Stage (ca. 8,000-1000 B.C.)

The Archaic stage occurred between 8000 and 1000 B.C. (Bense, 1994a: 62). The longest stage of cultural development in the region, this stage is marked by notched and broad-bladed projectile points, containers, and ground and polished stone implements. Among the important cultural developments that began during this stage are the initial construction of mounds and earthworks, the establishment of long distance trade, and the development of large settlements and sites (Bense, 1994a). The Archaic stage began at the outset of the Holocene

climatic epoch, and ended with the beginning of modern climatic conditions. Global warming peaked midway through the Archaic, and has been cooling ever since. Concomitant with the changes in climatic conditions was a steady rise in sea level, and a change from deciduous hardwood forest communities to a fire sub-climax pine forest community.

The Archaic stage witnessed an increase in the number and diversity of artifacts produced in comparison to the preceding Paleoindian stage (Bense, 1994a: 64-65). Projectile points, the most sensitive diagnostic artifact type, changed from the lanceolate-shaped type of the Paleoindian stage to triangular shaped artifacts with notched or stemmed bases. In addition, ground and polished axes, celts, and ornamental items were added to the Archaic lithic inventory. Trade networks were established in which personal ornaments and raw material were exchanged; these ornaments also became high status markers. Containers of wood, stone, and later pottery, first appeared during this stage. Other Archaic artifacts include textiles and baskets, wooden dugouts, tools, and adornments.

Research indicates that by the Archaic stage, people had developed a diversified economy, and a wide variety of animal and plant resources were exploited (Bense 1994a:65). There is some evidence that early forms of agriculture began during the Archaic stage. Archaic settlement systems utilized seasonal base camps and short term special use camps.

The Archaic stage in the East Gulf Coastal Plain is divided into three periods (Bense, 1994a). The Early Archaic period existed from 8000-6000 B. C.. The Middle Archaic period lasted from 6000-4000 B.C. The Late Archaic began around 4000 B.C. and ended in 1000 B.C.

(1) Early Archaic Period (ca. 8,000 - 6,000 B.C.): At the beginning of the Early Archaic period, conditions were substantially different from today. Sea level was about 90 ft lower, the climate was becoming warmer and drier, and the region was covered in hardwoods (Bense, 1994a: 65). The archaeological record indicates a continued reliance on a traditional hunting and gathering economy; however, there is a hint of increased specialization. The Early Archaic assemblages are more diverse with increasingly specialized stone tools performing a variety of tasks (Milanich, 1994). The assemblage includes chipped stone knives, scrapers, and adzes, and a variety of cutting and scraping implements produced on blades struck from prepared cores. A specialized bipolar industry and ground stone celts also were developed during this period. The Early Archaic is marked by small side and corner notched projectile points, and by the invention of the spear thrower or atlatl. These technological developments are thought to have enabled hunters to more efficiently kill the small fast moving game that inhabited the post-Pleistocene environment. The Early Archaic settlement pattern evidently involved seasonal movements of small family-based groups who occupied small short-term camps for part of the year. During the fall, when food was more plentiful, these small groups may have gathered at larger base camps (Bense, 1994a: 72).

(2) Middle Archaic Period (6,000 - 4,000 B.C.): This period marks the beginning of a shift from the dispersed settlement pattern of the preceding period to a system of more nucleated

floodplain base camps with numerous, smaller satellite camps (Bense, 1989). These changes in settlement maximized the resources of the forest and coincided with the climatic episode known as the Altithermal; a period in which post-glacial temperatures peaked, and rainfall diminished. These economic adaptations involved hunting, fishing and gathering technologies that exploited a few primary resources within the interior forest (Caldwell, 1958; Dye, 1980). Artifacts associated with this period include broad-bladed, stemmed projectile points, specialized tools such as microliths, burins, large chopping implements, and an array of expedient tools.

Middle Archaic settlement and subsistence patterns evidently were similar to those of the Early Archaic (Bense, 1994a:82). Macro bands of extended families probably occupied part or all of a watershed. These groups apparently separated into smaller family groups who moved from campsite to campsite through the territory. For a part of the year these groups may have coalesced at larger base camps. Toward the end of the Middle Archaic, in the eastern part of the Florida panhandle, there may have been a change from this dispersed settlement pattern to one of more sedentary existence (Bense, 1994a:82). Exceptionally large sites developed with thick midden deposits and numerous features.

Recently, a significant early middle period cemetery in east central Florida was excavated (Stephenson, 1985). The Windover Site (8BR246) has yielded extensive information about the biology, diet, textile industry and environment of this period. Religious paraphernalia associated with Windover burials suggests a well-developed religious ceremonialism. Windover promises to add much new information about Archaic lifestyles.

Middle Archaic sites in the northwest Florida area are relatively rare, and few have been recorded in the area. Like the preceding period, the Middle Archaic is probably represented in northwest Florida by isolated finds or low density occurrences.

(3) Late Archaic Period (ca. 4,000 - 1,000 B.C.): The Late Archaic was a time of innovation that eventually brought about a new stage of cultural development. These innovations include the use of containers of stone and clay, plant food cultivation, increased trade, and mound building (Bense, 1994a:85). The environment was changing, from the hot dry climate of the Altithermal, to cooler and wetter conditions; sea level also began to stabilize. Evidently marine resources became more abundant. Subsistence strategies and technologies reflect the beginnings of an adaptation to these resources; it is during this period that coastal shell middens like the Meig's Pasture Site in Okaloosa County began to appear in this area (Curren, 1987). Evidently there were increases in population and in sedentism. Base camps, strategically located near the developing wetlands to target marine resources, begin to appear with greater frequency in the Late Archaic.

The projectile point styles that mark the beginning of the Late Archaic include broad-bladed, stemmed projectile styles that are very similar to those of the preceding Middle Archaic period. Ground and polished stone tools and ornaments continued to be developed in this period. Tiny ornaments, often carved in to the shape of animals, were produced. Another innovation in

stone utensil use was the development of steatite cooking vessels. Toward the end of the Late Archaic, ceramic utensils are added to the assemblage.

The pre-ceramic Late Archaic remains problematic. Continued use of broad-bladed projectile points makes recognition of these components difficult to distinguish from the Middle Archaic. Nonetheless, the pre-ceramic Late Archaic occupation of northwest Florida appears to be somewhat limited. Again, like the preceding period, the pre-ceramic Late Archaic is probably represented in northwest Florida by isolated finds or low density occurrences (Thomas and Campbell, 1993:517). This area was an excessively drained upland ridge with limited water and a very sparse environment. Scores of these low density pre-ceramic sites have been reported in the Escambia and nearby Blackwater river valleys (Bense, 1983; Little et al. 1988; Phillips, 1989a).

The end of the late Archaic, about 1,000 B.C., signals the introduction of fiber-tempered ceramics of the Norwood series (Milanich, 1994:95). This fiber tempered ware was later replaced by early sand tempered ceramic types. These occurrences indicate significant changes among late Archaic cultures in the greater southeast. Among these are further increases in population, an increase in the number of dense village middens, and even more reliance on marine resources. In addition, there is some evidence of regional interaction with other cultures such as the Poverty Point complex of the lower Mississippi valley. The northwest Florida variant, termed Elliott's Point, includes fired clay balls, a microlith industry and other Poverty Point-like expressions (Thomas and Campbell, 1993:522). The Elliott's Point complex initially appeared in northwest Florida around 2,000 B.C. and reached its classic form by 1,000 B.C. (Thomas and Campbell, 1993:522-541). The complex is marked by a distinctive assemblage of baked clay balls, microliths, and exotic items that suggest connections with the lower Mississippi Valley; the Norwood ceramic series was added to the assemblage at approximately 1,000 B.C. Thomas and Campbell (1993:528-529) believe that Elliott's Point settlement mirrors Poverty Point. They see a general pattern of small sites that are aligned around regional centers. Regional centers have mounds or ring middens organized into horseshoe, semicircular or oval shapes.

c. Woodland Stage (1000 B.C.-A.D. 1200)

The Woodland Stage is the third major stage of cultural development in eastern North America. The climate and major forest zones during the Woodland Stage were similar to today, although the sea-level continued to fluctuate until approximately 400 B.C. (Bense, 1994a: 110). The Woodland stage is marked by population increases in the river valleys and along the coast, an increased use of pottery, and more elaborate ceremonial and mortuary rituals (Bense, 1994a). This stage also saw more plants cultivated in the northern southeast, more burial mounds constructed, and increased trade networks. While none of these traits developed in the Woodland stage, they became more common, and increasingly complex during the stage.

The Woodland Stage is divided into three periods. The Early Woodland period in the East Gulf Coast region probably began about 1000-500 B. C. and ended around A.D. 200

(Milanich, 1994: 111-114). The Middle Woodland period lasted from A. D. 200 to approximately A.D. 500 (Thomas and Campbell, 1993: 491), whereas the Late Woodland period began around A.D. 500 and lasted until perhaps A. D. 1200 (Bense, 1989).

(1) Early Woodland Period (ca. 1000 B.C. - A.D. 200): In north Florida and southern Georgia, the Early Woodland period is represented by the Deptford culture (Milanich, 1994:111-114). The main aspects of the culture include a coastal-riverine subsistence base, a religious complex and a base camp-satellite camp settlement pattern (Bense, 1989). This subsistence system evidently correlates with the emergence of modern climatic conditions, and the development of swamps, wetlands, and marine resources. The base camps are marked by the presence of shell middens, and are located almost exclusively along the coast within maritime hammocks near brackish or fresh water (Bense, 1985; Milanich, 1994:116). The satellite camps are small special activity sites that are often located within interior stream valleys near major drainages. This settlement pattern began in the late Archaic, and marked a definite shift in settlement toward the coastal lowlands. Deptford base camps tend to be strategically located in ecotonal settings. Living near the environments of both forest and the marsh, each supporting a rich and diverse natural community, provided a stable, multifaceted resource base. The settlement and subsistence pattern established by the Early Woodland Deptford culture was continued relatively unchanged for the next 2,000 years along the eastern Gulf and Atlantic coasts.

Deptford culture is characterized by a series of paddle stamped, sand tempered ceramics and minority amounts of net and fabric impressed types. Among the Deptford vessels are large, deep, and cylindrically shaped cooking pots with rounded bottoms, and short cylindrical vessels; some Deptford vessels also have distinctive podal supports. Stone tools on Deptford sites are rare (Milanich, 1994:126). Large stemmed projectile points and medium sized triangular points, bifacially worked tools, small blades, and expedient flake tools have been recovered in very limited numbers. The lithic assemblage also includes ground and polished celts, limestone and sandstone grinding implements, hammer stones and whetstones. Bone tools, including points, awls, flakers, pins, and gouges, are occasionally recovered from Deptford sites. Oyster and clam shells were used as ladles, spoons, cups and dippers, whereas whelk shells were utilized as picks or axes.

Excavations at two Deptford sites in northwest Florida, Hawkshaw (8ES1287) and Pirate's Bay (8OK183), have produced much information about Deptford subsistence and settlement (Bense, 1985, Thomas and Campbell, 1984). Both are coastal sites that provide evidence that Deptford people exploited a wide range of local marine and terrestrial food resources. In addition, trade ceramics from the lower Mississippi Valley Tchefuncte culture, and Swift Creek cultures of Georgia were recovered from both sites, indicating that a wide trade network existed during this time. Mikell et al. (1989:216) describe a strong Deptford presence on Tyndall Air Force Base near Panama City that supports the model that Deptford culture was a coastal oriented society in northwest Florida (Milanich, 1994:112).

(2) Middle Woodland Period (ca. A.D. 200 - 500): The Middle Woodland period in northwest Florida developed out of the Deptford culture (Bense, 1994a:158). The period is recognized by ceramic changes and an increase in sites. Settlement and subsistence patterns remained fairly consistent with that of the Deptford culture. In the interior areas, floodplain base camps are found in the stream valleys and temporary camps are found in the uplands. An analogous pattern is found along the coast: Large shell middens, representing lowland base camps, sometimes made in the shape of horseshoes and rings, are found in the lowlands. Surrounding the base camps are several satellite sites. These small special activity sites occur along the coast and in the interior (Bense 1994a:159). There are indications of settlement clusters that consist of one large base camp and several satellite sites. In the Santa Rosa-Swift Creek area, the large site is commonly a ring or horseshoe shaped midden with an associated burial mound (Bense, 1994a:159).

This Santa Rosa-Swift Creek culture is marked by two ceramic series: Swift Creek and Santa Rosa. The Swift Creek series is a complicated stamped pottery that apparently developed out of the Southern Appalachian tradition (Bense, 1994a:158). Swift Creek ceramic designs consist of curvilinear elements such as scrolls, concentric circles, teardrops, and spirals. Santa Rosa pottery, evidently a variant of the Lower Mississippi Valley-northern Gulf Coast Marksville series, represents a continuation of the Gulf Tradition: incised, punctated and rocker stamped design elements. Santa Rosa-Swift Creek vessel shapes include open jars, and bowls with podal supports and notched and scalloped rims. The Santa Rosa-Swift Creek tool kit includes stone, bone, and shell implements. The lithic assemblage includes expanded stemmed projectile points, bifacial knives, spokeshaves, flake scrapers, limestone, sandstone and chert abraders, and pitted anvil stones. Bense and Watson (1979) recovered bone awls, flakers, polished pins, and bone scrapers at 8BY73; cut and polished carnivore teeth and mandibles are also known from village middens (Milanich, 1994:145). Although shell tools are rare, whelk ladles and cups, picks, hammers and pounders also occur on Santa Rosa-Swift Creek sites.

The Santa Rosa ceramics are viewed by some researchers as having different uses in different areas (Phelps, 1969). In the Santa Rosa culture area, which may have centered west of Pensacola, Santa Rosa ceramics are believed to have been used as every day ware, but east of the Apalachicola River these ceramics were used only as mortuary wares. In essence, the Middle Woodland culture in northwest Florida evidently was the product of a blend of influences: Marksville from the lower Mississippi Valley, Hopewell from the Ohio Valley and the complicated stamped tradition from the Georgia area.

The socio-religious aspect of this culture has been defined as the Green Point complex (Sears, 1962). It has been suggested that the Middle Woodland mounds may have been used for more than mortuary activities (Penton, 1974). Some mounds have been described as flat topped, others had ramps, whereas some evidently had structures on the summits. The major stimulus for the socio-religious complex was participation in the Hopewellian interaction sphere. Santa

Rosa peoples, along with contemporaneous Woodland cultures to the west, north and east participated in an exchange of exotic items such as copper, mica, conch shells, ear spools, and ceramics and began to construct burial mounds (Bense, 1989; Milanich, 1994:133-141). The religious ceremonialism associated with the complex that developed during this period contained themes which continued throughout prehistory. Socio-political specialists began to emerge as specialists, and sacred materials became separated from the secular environment. Sacred paraphernalia was interred with this specialist class of high status individuals in burial mounds.

Recent investigations at the Bernath Place site (8SR986), located in Santa Rosa County, have provided much information about Santa Rosa/Swift Creek subsistence, settlement, and socio-political and religious organization (Phillips, 1992a; Bense, 1992; 1994b). Bernath Place is a coastal site with remnants of an intact Santa Rosa-Swift Creek and early Weeden Island midden, and domestic features that provide evidence that a wide range of local marine and terrestrial food resources were exploited. Radiocarbon dates ranging between A.D. 350 and A.D. 590 were obtained from two sealed Santa Rosa-Swift Creek features (Phillips, 1992a). Field work also documented the remains of a ring midden surrounding a semi-circular central plaza swept free of debris; this plaza contains numerous burials. Bense (1994b) suggests that Woodland ring midden sites, such as 8SR986, functioned as sociopolitical centers, each with a semi circular central plaza swept free of debris. She further suggests that the historically documented square grounds of traditional Muskogean societies were derived from these semi-circular plazas.

(3) Late Woodland Period (ca. A.D. 500 - 1200): The late Woodland period in northwest Florida has been traditionally called Weeden Island (Willey, 1949). Recent research has defined this construct so that "Weeden Island" now refers to several distinct regional cultures that showed the same basic ceremonial complex. This complex may have been associated with specific social and political patterns (Milanich, 1994). Not all Weeden Island traits are found in all areas; these cultures are referred to as Weeden Island "related" or Weeden Island "period" cultures. Recent research by Bense (1994a) and Thomas and Campbell (1993) indicates that the late Woodland Period lasted until approximately A.D. 1200 in extreme northwest Florida. These long lasting late Woodland cultures appear to have occurred all along the Atlantic and Gulf coastal areas except at the mouths of major rivers such as the Mobile-Tensaw, Savannah and Apalachicola.

The Weeden Island culture was originally divided into two chronological periods, Weeden Island I and II, based on village midden ceramic assemblages (Willey and Woodbury, 1941; Willey, 1949). Weeden Island I was marked by Swift Creek Complicated Stamped ceramics and the Weeden Island Incised and Punctate types. Weeden Island II was identified by a lack of complicated stamping, a reduction in the frequencies of the Weeden Island Incised types and the appearance of check stamped ceramics. Mikell et al. (1989:219-229) refined the Weeden Island chronology using seriation to define three periods of Weeden Island on Tyndall Air Force Base in Bay County that may have some validity for the Pensacola area: Weeden

Island I; Weeden Island II; and Terminal Weeden Island. Weeden Island I is characterized by late varieties of Swift Creek Complicated Stamped and St. Andrews Complicated Stamped ceramics, small quantities of Weeden Island incised and punctate types, and 50 to 80 percent plain sand tempered wares. Weeden Island II is marked by high percentages (upwards to 43 percent) of Wakulla Check Stamped ceramics, a diminished percentage of plain sand tempered ceramics (ca. 50 percent), and an increase in the frequencies of Weeden Island incised, punctated and other surface treatments; complicated stamped varieties occur in very low numbers. Terminal Weeden Island is dominated by Wakulla Check Stamped, decreased frequencies of plain sand tempered wares, and very limited numbers of Weeden Island incised and punctated types.

Recent investigations in northwest Florida have suggested that there was change in settlement during the Weeden Island period (Bense, 1989). Village midden and mound sites are often found in different settings than earlier Middle Woodland period sites. At these new locations, the ring midden patterns continued, and rings, horseshoes or rectangles have been documented. New burial mounds, some with ramps and flat summits were constructed near the large middens. The mounds contained the standard assemblage of sacred paraphernalia found throughout the culture area. Subsistence studies suggest that these peoples continued to exploit shellfish, fish, deer, and nuts as primary food resources. There appears to be some continuity between Santa Rosa-Swift Creek and Weeden Island occupations (Mikell et al. 1989:218) . Not only are both cultural expressions found in the same coastal environmental settings, but these cultures exploited similar marine resources.

In the latter part of the late Woodland period, new settlements appear in the upper reaches of the bay systems (Bense, 1989). The patterns of settlement consisted of several small communities organized around a nearby mound. The appearance of these new settlements is interpreted as a reflection of an increase in population and resultant pressures on the food resources in the lower bays where only larger settlements once existed.

d. Mississippian Stage (A.D. 1200 - 1700)

Research suggests that this culture evolved in the Apalachicola River valley ca. A.D. 1000 (Scarry, 1980, 1981, 1982). This Apalachicola-Fort Walton culture, stimulated by cultural connections with emerging Mississippian groups upriver, evidently evolved in place out of the preceding Weeden Island culture. These contacts apparently brought new ideas to the indigenous population for organizing increasingly larger societies and more intensive and efficient agriculture. Mississippian peoples developed complex chiefdoms based on maize agriculture and a redistribution tribute system. Politico-religious centers such as the Lake Jackson site near Tallahassee developed (Jones 1982). This center had several mounds and was associated with a ruling class.

In coastal areas of northwest Florida , the Mississippian way of life was different from that of the agriculturally-based Apalachicola-Fort Walton (Bense, 1989). Stowe (1984) describes this coastal Mississippian culture as the "Pensacola variant". The area included by the

"Pensacola variant" encompasses the northern Gulf Coast from Choctawhatchee Bay west to the Pascagoula River, up the Tombigbee River to Jackson, Alabama and up the Alabama River to Camden, Alabama. Two phases are identified: Bottle Creek (A.D. 1200 - 1450) and Bear Point (A.D. 1450 - 1700). Each phase has distinctive ceramic assemblages, although there is an overlap of types. The main source of Mississippian influence and cultural interaction apparently derived from the north (Moundville). In essence, the Pensacola culture is one of many coastal Mississippian societies distinguishable by ceramic assemblages and settlement strategies (Knight, 1980; Tesar, 1980).

The Woodland settlement pattern and subsistence system continued in the Mississippian stage in northwest Florida. Large settlements, located on coastal hammocks, were surrounded by many smaller satellite camps, often in a variety of coastal and upland environments. Coastal Mississippian subsistence continued the Woodland strategy and was based on hunting, gathering and fishing. Agriculture is not considered to have been as important on the coast as in the river valleys due to very poor nature of the coastal soils. Researchers also agree that there is a low frequency of ceremonial sites with mounds in the coastal environmental zone. The lack of mounds in the area may reflect lower agricultural production potential and consequent lesser support of a chiefly ruling class.

II Historic Overview

As can be seen in Table 2, the historic chronology of northwest Florida begins with the Spanish explorers who sailed into the Pensacola Bay system. Pensacola was included in two well known Spanish explorations: Panfilo de Narvaez in 1528 and Hernando de Soto in 1539.

The first Europeans to see present-day northwest Florida were probably members of the Narvaez expedition in 1528 (Hodges, 1907:37-40). Cabeza de Vaca's narrative of this expedition produced the first description of the northwest Florida natives. The next known Spanish visitor to Pensacola Bay was the pilot of the Soto expedition, Diego Maldonado, who sailed into the bay during the winters of 1539 and 1540 to resupply the ill-fated expedition. Soto never arrived, choosing to remain inland, and there are no known descriptive documents from the Maldonado visit. During his sojourn in the Pensacola Bay region, Maldonado probably explored the rivers and bayous (Lewis, 1907:193).

Europeans returned to the Pensacola area in 1559. Under pressure to establish a foothold in the New World north of Mexico, the Spanish sent Tristan de Luna with a large contingent of colonists to establish a settlement at Pensacola. He was also under orders to move to Coosa (northern Georgia) and St. Helena (Parris Island, South Carolina). Within weeks of landing the 11 to 13 vessel fleet and before the ships were completely unloaded, a hurricane destroyed 7 to 9 of the ships. This setback, in combination with diseases and dissension, doomed the Luna colony and it was abandoned in 1561 (Priestly, 1928). The location of the Luna settlement on Pensacola Bay is unknown. Recent underwater investigations in Pensacola Bay by Roger Smith, Underwater Archaeologist for the State of Florida, have revealed the location of a sixteenth century shipwreck that may be associated with the Luna expedition. Spanish artifacts recovered

from the wreck at Emanuel Point date from the early to mid-sixteenth century (Smith, et. al, 1995).

Table 2. Historic chronology of northwest Florida.	
Period	**Date Range**
a. Colonial	
(1) First Spanish	1528 - 1763
(2) British	1763 - 1781
(3) Second Spanish	1781 - 1821
b. American	
(1) Early American	1821 - 1845
(2) Antebellum	1845 - 1860
(3) Late 19th/early 20th century	1860 - 1917
(4) World War I/World War II	1917 - 1940

Nearly one hundred and fifty years passed before the Spanish once again became interested in colonizing the Pensacola area. In 1698, fearful of French expansion, the Spanish founded the presidio of Santa Maria de Galvé and Fort San Carlos de Austria on Pensacola Bay, and the long Spanish colonial period commenced. The French attacked Santa Maria de Galvé in 1719, and burned the outpost. The Spanish and French continued to struggle over the presidio between 1719 and 1722. In 1722, following a treaty between the two warring nations, France restored northwest Florida to the Spanish (Parks, 1986). The University of West Florida is nearing completion of the third phase of a multi-year project to investigate the first successful Pensacola settlement, Santa Maria de Galvé, on Pensacola's Naval Air Station. This work, combining extensive historical research and large-scale archaeological investigation, isolated and spatially defined the First and Second Spanish Colonial and British Colonial occupations and a Native American component. The temporally associated First Spanish and American Indian components are represented by sealed midden deposits and features, and a cemetery with at least nine interments. This work has also identified the stockade walls of Fort San Carlos de Austria as well as a structure within this fortification.

After the 1722 treaty was signed, the Spanish resettled on Santa Rosa Island. Their new fort, known as Santa Rosa Punta de Siquenza (8ES22), was destroyed by a hurricane in 1752 (Griffen, 1959). The survivors moved back to the mainland near a blockhouse and mission in the area of Seville Square in downtown Pensacola. Few colonial settlers ventured past the small outpost of Pensacola on the bay, fearful of the still numerous and unpredictable Indians in the surrounding region. The Spanish eventually became aware of the value of the pine forests of the northwest Florida region. As early as 1743, Dominick Serres shipped two masts of yellow pine, each 84 feet long, to Havana, Cuba (Gober, 1956:104; Polk, 1971:1). By royal decree the settlement was renamed Panzacola. The archaeological remains of the stockade and interior buildings of Fort Panzacola have been identified in the City of Pensacola (Joy, 1989; Bense, 1996).

The British gained control of Florida from the Spanish following the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Pensacola became the capital of the Province of West Florida. They converted the small Spanish settlement into a heavily fortified military establishment, busy port city and center of commerce (Parks, 1986). Outside the city, the British operated at least two water-powered sawmills. Gauld's 1768 map of the Pensacola area shows Taits Sawmill on Elevenmile Creek near Perdido Bay, and Snider and Palmer (1994:549) note the "Old English Sawmill"on a tributary of the Escambia River. Timber, indigo, deerskins, cattle, corn, tallow, bear's oil, rice, tobacco, salted fish, pecans, sassafras, and oranges were exported during this period (Howard, 1940:217). The archaeological remains of the Fort of Pensacola and interior buildings, private residences outside the fort, and the nearby Fort George redoubt, have been documented in several investigations (Baker, 1975; Bense, 1989; Cusick, 1986; Joy, 1989; Bense, 1994a).

By the late 1770s the English and Spanish were again at war. Spanish forces under Bernardo de Galvez, attempting to destroy British influence on the northern Gulf Coast, ousted the English from Pensacola in 1781. The Spanish regained control of northwest Florida, and established Fort San Carlos de Barrancas on the mainland at the mouth of Pensacola Bay to protect the harbor.

During the Second Spanish Colonial period (1781-1821) the local population continued to grow. Indian trade grew in commercial importance, more brickyards and sawmills were established, and cattle ranching began. The vast longleaf pine forests of northwest Florida became even more important economically, and northwest Florida's considerable topographic relief and many spring-fed, perennial drainages provided countless water-powered mill seats for the lumber industry. Although the pine forests were exploited during the British period, the Second Spanish period witnessed an increase in milling activity as timber became an even more important resource. The massive Arcadia mill complex (8SR384) is a water-powered mill that had its origins late in the Colonial period. The Arcadia property was given as a Spanish land grant to Juan de la Rua, a prominent Spanish businessman in Pensacola, during the waning years of the Second Spanish period (ca. 1817). The Arcadia mill was fully developed during the following Early American period into a productive industrial complex that dwarfed all other water-powered mills in the area (Phillips, 1993a).

The Second Spanish Period also saw the rise of a profitable market for deerskins. The Industrial Revolution in England during the late 1700s created a strong demand for leather for belts and bands, and leather from West Florida deerskins became an important trade commodity. Northwest Florida's chief commercial export became deer hides, and the Panton-Leslie trading company, with its main office at Pensacola, grew into a thriving firm which traded blankets, guns, and other articles with the southeastern Indians in exchange for deerskins. Begun in 1783, Panton, Leslie and Company came to dominate the Indian trade of the region. Pensacola became the center of a large trading operation, a trading operation which netted company profits from deerskins and eventually Indian lands (Brown, 1959:328-336).

By 1800, however, Pensacola and the northwest Florida region were experiencing severe economic and political difficulties that were related to international developments. Pensacola was a poor, undermanned military outpost, and Spain's slipping political, economic, and military strength meant continuous difficulties for the small colonial port city. These international developments alarmed Spain. They viewed with apprehension Napoleon's rise to power, French imperialistic designs on the New World, and the sale of Louisiana to the United States. Also contributing to Spain's and Pensacola's difficulties were an increasing population of aggressive Anglo-Americans on the Spanish Florida borderlands; the inevitable Anglo-American and Indian skirmishes; and the growing conflicts between Great Britain and the United States. Pensacola was vulnerable to attack and expropriation in this volatile political environment. Starting with the Creek War and the War of 1812, and the accompanying British and Indian intrigues along the American border, northwest Florida became a target for American military predation. Twice, in 1814 and again in 1818, General Andrew Jackson led U.S. forces into Spanish Pensacola to restore order along the frontier. These maneuvers convinced Spain that Florida was a liability, and the Spanish colony was officially transferred to the United States in July of 1821 (Parks, 1986:43-48; Rucker, 1990:6-35). Archaeological investigations in the City of Pensacola (cf. Bense 1989) and in southern Escambia County have documented a wide variety of settlements and features associated with the Second Spanish Period.

Many of the colonial settlements were concentrated near the mouth of Pensacola Bay on the peninsulas, islands, and mainland of present day Escambia County. However, several areas of coastal Santa Rosa County were intensively utilized during the Colonial period. Among the most significant is the ship careening area on the western tip of the Gulf Breeze peninsula. Here, along the shores of Old Navy Cove, English Navy Cove and Town Point, ships were cleaned and repaired throughout the Colonial period. Part of this area has been surveyed (Joy, 1988), and a scuttled shipwreck from the British period has been identified and excavated by the University of West Florida (Bense, 1988; Franklin, Morris, and Smith, 1992). Many more shipwrecks lie just off the western end of the Gulf Breeze peninsula.

In the first half of the 1700s, the western portion of Garcon Point peninsula was also occupied. It is reported by historians that a "trading post" was established there and a settlement of Apalachee Indians was established after the 1704 British raids in the Tallahassee area. Several archaeological sites have been recorded along the shore of Garcon Point peninsula.

Anglo-American settlers from the Carolinas also came to the northwest Florida interior late in the Second Spanish Colonial period looking for better opportunities. They settled in mixed pine-oak forests along small drainages near the Escambia and Blackwater rivers on marginally productive agricultural soils. These settlers cleared the forests, established small communities, and constructed small water-powered sawmills and gristmills. These settlers essentially "squatted" in what was Spanish territory. The Spanish contingent at Pensacola, however, was unable to mount any efforts
to remove these settlers. The archaeological remains of one these early Anglo-American communities has been found on the terraces along Diamond Creek, a tributary of the Escambia River on the western side of Santa Rosa County (Bense, 1983). Many more of these late Second Spanish and Early American settlements exist, but have not been archaeologically documented.

Florida became an American Territory in 1821 after a series of successful invasions of Pensacola by Andrew Jackson in pursuit of American Indians. These Creek Indians were hostile to American expansion and had sought refuge in Pensacola. The Spanish finally left Florida to the Americans and withdrew, ceding Florida by treaty to the United States in 1819. King Ferdinand of Spain signed the treaty in 1820, and it became an American territory in 1821 (McGovern, 1974). Pensacola was the temporary capital of this new territory and Jackson became interim governor.

Between 1821 and 1861, the region grew slowly. Pensacola's economic condition improved in the 1820s when a U.S. Navy Yard was established southwest of the city; however, Pensacola's development suffered from periodic yellow fever epidemics, government neglect, and the lack of a viable hinterland. Nonetheless, the forests and bays of northwest Florida offered economic opportunities. Numerous brickyards in the vicinity of Pensacola and along the larger rivers in northwest Florida, provided bricks for the federal forts under construction near the mouth of the harbor: Pickens (1834), McRee (1840), and Barrancas (1844). These brickyards also supplied bricks to other Gulf Coast locations. More importantly, the lumber industry grew even larger and more economically important during this period, and the huge stands of longleaf yellow pine were soon being harvested throughout northwest Florida. More water-powered sawmills and grist mills sprang up on the streams of present-day Escambia and Santa Rosa counties, giving birth to additional small frontier communities.

It was during this period (1828) that the Naval Live Oaks Reservation was established by the United States Government. The original purpose of the reservation on the Gulf Breeze peninsula was to preserve and cultivate live oaks for shipbuilding and repairs. For further details, see the individual registration form included in this multiple property nomination for "The Naval Live Oaks Reservation."

In the 1840s, steam-powered lumber mills began to appear along the rivers and bays. Since steam engines required no moving water to power the saws, this new technology freed the big lumber operations from the dual constraints imposed by the traditional interior-based, water-powered technology of poor transportation networks and an uneven and limited power supply. The new technology enabled the lumbermen to move down out of the interior, closer to the

commercial shipping lanes. As the center of the lumber shifted from the interior to the lower rivers and bays; larger mill towns such as Milton, Bagdad and Pinewood began to develop and prosper; Pensacola also had a thriving lumber industry on Point Diablo (8ES1361). By the first days of the Civil War, Pensacola finally achieved its first railroad connection to Montgomery, Alabama, and the future appeared promising (Dibble, 1974; Doherty, 1959:337-356; Parks, 1986:49-66).

When the Civil War began in 1861, Floridians who lived in the western panhandle area had mixed loyalties. Some citizens from Pensacola, Marianna, and Milton hoped to delay secession or postpone it indefinitely, whereas most northwest Floridians were anxious to sever ties with the North (Adams et al.1992). The federal garrison at Fort Pickens, located at the entrance to Pensacola Bay, refused to surrender and was one of the few Southern fortifications held by the Union for the duration of the war. The Confederates unsuccessfully attacked Fort Pickens in October 1861, and artillery bombardments took place in 1861-62 between Pickens and nearby Confederate-held forts. But by early 1862, with more strategic regions of the South in peril from Union advances, Pensacola was abandoned by the Confederacy. After implementing a scorched earth policy on the region's industrial complexes, the Confederate forces retreated from Pensacola in the spring of 1862. Pensacola was practically abandoned for the remainder of the war, and various skirmishes between Union forces and Confederate forces occurred throughout northwest Florida until 1865 and the war's end (Parks, Rick and Simons, 1978; Parks, 1986: 67-74; Rucker, 1990: 625-750). The remoteness of the western panhandle provided a haven for people coming to avoid conscription into the Confederate Army. Those people, some of whom were Union collaborators, supplied Union ground forces and blockade ships with valuable information and guided Union forces on raids throughout the region.

Most citizens of the state welcomed the cessation of hostilities and the opportunity to return to a normal life. The economy, however, was in shambles and property values plummeted (Adams et al. 1992). The lack of adequate transportation to inland areas impeded economic development and population growth. The end of the war also brought anarchy to northwest Florida. Bands of former soldiers, deserters, and criminals terrorized the population. Local governments collapsed and in 1866 several northwest Florida counties were placed under martial law.

Much of northwest Florida's industrial capacity had been destroyed in the war, and the region laboriously began rebuilding. The lumber and turpentine industries enjoyed a boom in the late 1800s. Pensacola became one of the world's best known ports for the exportation of yellow pine timber, shipping it as far away as South America, Italy, and Scandinavia. Lumber railroads stretched deeper into the forests and tapped previously inaccessible stands of pine. These railroads provided transportation for the lumber industry and greatly facilitated logging in the interior uplands away from the drainages. As the interior ridges were logged, farming communities began to develop on the agriculturally rich sandy loams found in these uplands. Meanwhile, scores of large mills sprang up along the shores of Perdido, Escambia, East, and Blackwater bays. Smaller lumber mills, boat repair yards, boat works and ports also developed along the rivers and smaller drainages. Lumbering and turpentining communities and temporary

camps were set up throughout the interior of the area. Railroad connections were re-established to the north, and new rail lines connected Pensacola east to Jacksonville and west to other Gulf Coast communities. A growing fishing industry, primarily exploiting red snapper, also developed in the Pensacola vicinity by the late 1800s (Parks, 1982; McGovern, 1976; Parks, 1986:85-109; Pearce, 1980: 90-179; Rucker, 1990: 758-761; Wells, 1976).

Unfortunately, the failure of northwest Florida's lumbermen to implement resource conservation measures brought the lumber boom to an end by the early decades of the twentieth century. Increasingly the inhabitants of Florida's panhandle turned to agriculture, planting the cut-over timberlands in cotton, corn, and peanuts, and experimenting with blueberries, satsumas, pecans, grapes, and pears.

The Great Depression further weakened an already stagnant economy. The onset of World War II improved conditions, however, and in the years following the war, the presence of the U.S. military profoundly altered and improved the economic climate. Military installations like Pensacola Naval Air Station, Whiting Field, and Eglin Air Force Base have proved extremely important in the development of northwest Florida since the mid-twentieth century. Agricultural pursuits and the pulpwood industry are still dominant in the interior portions of northwest Florida, but the economy has diversified in the last thirty years with the addition of chemical plants, oil fields, and beach-related tourism to the local economy (Armstrong, 1930; Fischer and Collier, 1993; King, 1972; McGovern, 1976; Parks, 1986:85-109; Pearce, 1980:90-179; Rucker, 1990:758-761; Wells, 1976).

National Register of Historic Places
Multiple Property Documentation Form

Naval Live Oaks Area, Gulf Islands National Seashore

Section F. Associated Property Types

Name of Property Type: Accretionary Middens

Description

Accretionary middens include the features, artifacts, and ecofacts that build up as a result of everyday activities. Features include refuse and storage pits, postmolds and construction trenches from structures, and may contain human burials. Artifacts found in these middens include shell tools, bone tools and unworked animal and fish bones, stone tools and debris, and ceramic fragments. Ecofacts are frequently represented by animal and fish bones, and plant remains such as seeds, nuts and charcoal. In coastal environments, locally available marine resources are represented by sometimes large amounts of oyster or clam shells. Microscopic plant pollen can also be collected in a controlled manner.

Accretionary middens present at the Naval Live Oaks Reserve range from small areas of thinly scattered shell and organically rich soil to large areas where dense amounts of shell can measure up to 3 feet thick. The smaller middens are thought to be short term camp sites, or seasonally used camps that were used infrequently from year to year. Larger sites with denser shell and artifact concentrations were probably village sites or larger camps that were used on a seasonal basis and returned to year after year. Internal stratigraphy can help determine whether a site was used continuously for a long period of time or on a seasonal basis.

The Naval Live Oaks Reserve has several multi-component accretionary middens reported to date, while others seem to be almost 'pure' occupations from one archaeological period. These are generally located along the waterline on both the northern and southern side of the Gulf Breeze peninsula. Many of these shell midden concentrations are visible in the eroded bluffs throughout the park.

Significance:

The accretionary middens in the Naval Live Oaks Area of the Gulf Islands National Seashore are significant at the state level under National Register Criterion 'D'. The research topics related to these middens include settlement and subsistence patterns, social organization, technology, foodways, and cultural ecology. These sites range in time from the Late Archaic (4,000 - 1,000 B.C.) to the First Spanish Colonial period (A.D. 1528 - 1763), with evidence of European trade goods present in some.

The initial interaction between Native Americans and Europeans presents some unique research questions related to acculturation and changing traditions, both on the part of the native population and the invading Europeans. Early contact sites of this type are rare, and provide the opportunity to study the material culture of this phenomenon by archaeologists and ethnohistorians.

Organic preservation in middens with heavy shell concentrations is usually excellent compared to other shell-free middens. The remains of animal and plant resources that were utilized by populations are usually well represented, as well as shell, the by-product of shell-fishing. Seasonality studies can be conducted using certain types of shell such as marsh clams, coquina, and quahog, and measurements from oyster shells can provide some information about the specific types of marine environments from where the bivalves were collected.

Modern disturbances are limited in the Reserve; however, construction has impacted some sites. This destruction is less of a problem than the constant erosion on sites bordering the Sound and Pensacola Bay. Even with these impacts, there are many areas of intact midden located within the park that have little or no disturbance.

Registration Requirements:

Accretionary middens are eligible for nomination if they are associated with one of the time periods outlined in Section E and they retain their integrity. Much remains to be learned from the intact midden deposits, as they have and can yield significant information about the prehistory of the Gulf Coast region.

Large, deep midden deposits like that of the Big Heart West site (8SR68) have the potential to provide information relevant to settlement and subsistence patterns. Its importance increases in its relationship to other nearby Weeden Island sites. The Inky Tent North Site (8SR64) is another accretionary midden in the vicinity of a large, late Mississippian/Protohistoric cemetery (8SR36). This midden is probably associated with the cemetery, and may be the remains of the associated village section of this complex (Tesar, 1973). Important information about acculturation and adaptations to early European contact can be recovered from these rare, early Protohistoric sites. The Inky Tent North Site is a dense, buried shell midden and preservation of organic materials should be good. Features are often well preserved in shell middens of this type. The Inky Tent North midden (8SR64) is located somewhat inland and has not been subject to shoreline erosion. This inland location also makes it somewhat unusual and significant.

Smaller midden deposits on the Reservation have the potential to yield important information. These sites are probably the remains of short term base camps, or satellite camps for the exploitation of seasonal resources such as marine resources or acorns. Sites of this type previously investigated in the proposed multiple property area include the Plantation Hill West site (8SR67) and Rattlesnake Midden (8SR73). This site consists of a series of small, discrete

shell middens arranged in a circular pattern that may be associated with a temporary camp, judging from the density of the deposits and arrangement of the discarded shell (Doran and Piatek, 1985).

Name of Property Type: Mounds

Description

Mounds in Northwest Florida were constructed by piling basket loads of sand and shell into flat-topped platform shapes or conical mounds usually associated with human burials. Any type of mound can contain burials, as well as the goods placed with the dead during ceremonial activities. Burials can be primary, secondary, or cremations. These earthworks can range in size from two to three feet up to twenty feet. In the area being nominated, the typical mound is between two and four feet in height.

Platform mounds can also contain burials; however, they may also have been constructed to support structures of important people within the Native American community or structures used as charnel houses. Although built in the same manner as conical burial mounds, the most common archaeological features present in platform mounds are post molds, hearths and fire pits. These mounds can be constructed in several stages and it is common for them to be used during several time periods, beginning in the Woodland Stage of prehistory. Stratigraphy can reveal the successive stages and their associated culture periods. Artifacts recovered include projectile points, ground stone celts, whole and fragmented ceramic vessels, ceramic pipes, engraved shell and copper ornaments, and shell beads. In mounds of the Protohistoric, typical European trade goods interred with the Native Americans include small brass bells, iron celts, and especially glass beads.

Significance

The mounds present in the Naval Live Oaks Area of the Gulf Islands National Seashore are significant under National Register Criterion D. Research topics include social organization, political organization, trade practices, and demography. The presence of a mound associated with the Middle Woodland Santa Rosa Swift Creek Culture (8SR40, the Manly Mound) is rare in Northwest Florida. The limited testing in the mound has revealed little information except for mound construction processes (Prokopetz, 1976); however the research potential for this site is great.

The Butcherpen Mound complex (8SR29) contains three mounds. Even though these mounds have suffered from erosion and vandalism, testing conducted by Doran and Piatek in 1981-1982 (Doran and Piatek, 1985) show that the undisturbed portions of the site can still yield important information from the Late Woodland and Mississippian periods. No human burials have been recovered from either mound site; however, testing has been limited.

These mound groups may have served a function other than for human burial, such as a base for structures, either secular or sacred, and future excavations are needed to determine their specific purpose.

Registration Requirements

A mound's eligibility depends primarily on its integrity. Mounds are particular targets for vandalism because of the potential for exotic, high quality grave goods. Even though disturbed through vandalism or excavation, mounds can be considered eligible if thought to have archaeological integrity and therefore retain the potential to yield important information about Native American belief systems, social and political organization. Early professionals targeted mounds specifically for recovery of elaborate Native American ceremonial goods. C.B. Moore visited Pensacola Bay and the Gulf Breeze Peninsula; however, his excavations did not include any sites on the Naval Live Oaks Reserve (Moore, 1901). There is evidence of looting in the Butcherpen Mound complex (8SR29); however subsequent test excavations have revealed that a major portion of Mounds A and B remain undisturbed. Mound C's primary danger is from erosion, but Doran and Piatek (1985) determined that approximately half of the double banded mound is still intact. Typically it is the upper portions of the mounds that are most in danger from relic hunters, while the lower, older deposits remain undisturbed.

The Manly Mound (8SR40) shows no evidence of vandalism, and since it is located in the interior and not along the bluff line, has suffered less erosion than other sites within the Reservation. The only artifacts from the mound date from the Santa Rosa Swift Creek Period (Tesar, 1973), and only very limited testing was done by Prokopetz in 1976. Therefore, the integrity of this remote mound is quite high.

Name of Property Type: Cemeteries

Description

Cemeteries referred to in this property type are non-mound, subsurface burials. The prehistoric/protohistoric cemetery listed individually in this nomination covers a large area and contains spectacular artifacts from the Late Mississippian (Pensacola) period. There have been several types of burials reported from this site, flexed and extended primary burials, secondary burials, and cremations.

Significance

The Naval Live Oaks Cemetery (8SR36) is significant at the state level under National Register Criterion D. The artifacts removed by amateurs in the 1960s represent the latest prehistoric period in the Pensacola Bay System. This large number of incredible artifacts includes hundreds of whole vessels, copper and shell ornaments, projectile points and shell beads. The earliest evidence of European contact in the Bay system is also present, as evidenced by the removal of early Spanish glass trade beads (Head, 1965; Lazarus, Lazarus & Sharon, 1967). Spanish explorers traversed the Gulf Coast in the early 16th century and left evidence of their visits in the form of trade goods. These exotic goods were interred with the Native Americans at this site. The dates of the glass beads suggests that they may have come from the Narvaez (1528), Soto (1539-41) or Luna (1559-1561) expeditions. Later beads were probably associated with the time period of permanent Spanish settlement in Pensacola, between 1698 and 1750.

Research questions surrounding the cemetery include social organization, political organization, trade, mortality studies, and acculturation questions. This cemetery presents the unique opportunity to study a traditional type of burial in the first years of European/Native American interaction. These people may have continued with their traditional lifestyle while living on the fringes of European settlement, and incorporating elements of Spanish material culture into their society. The effects of disease and conflict affecting the Native people is also a scientific avenue that can be researched using data recovered from this site.

8SR36 is located near three accretionary midden sites that are probably contemporary, 8SR64, 8SR11, and 8SR14. These sites likely represent the village core of the settlement that included the Naval Live Oaks Cemetery. 8SR36 can also contribute to the overall understanding of village arrangement during the late prehistoric/protohistoric period.

Registration Requirements

The most important requirement for nomination for cemeteries is site integrity. Even though disturbed, cemeteries can still be considered eligible if they are thought to have some site integrity. The Naval Live Oaks Cemetery has suffered from severe vandalism in the past;

however, there are still intact sections of the site. The upper levels of such sites are usually the most disturbed, and since this site contains so many burials, the potential for equally important information is great. William Lazarus, although not a professional, had much experience and published several works on sites on the Gulf Coast in professional journals, including one on this cemetery (Lazarus, Lazarus and Sharon, 1967). His salvage excavations after the looting in the 1960s show that there are many areas of the site that retain its integrity (see individual property nomination for 8SR36). There have been no reports of vandalism since the episode in the 1960s, once local concerned citizens and professionals discovered the looting.

Name of Property Type: Shell Rings

Description

Shell rings consist of a circular or horseshoe shaped accumulation of shell that is the result of refuse disposal in a pattern reflecting special settlement patterns or ceremonial activities. These rings began in the Late Archaic and continue into the Middle Woodland, although becoming more rare. In Northwest Florida, the are usually associated with the Santa Rosa Swift Creek Culture. In the Late Archaic, the shell ring on Sapelo Island, Georgia (The Sapelo Shell Ring) reached a maximum height of twelve feet, measuring approximately three hundred feet across at the base (Waring and Larson, 1977). This is the largest, most well preserved site of this type in the southeast. Originally, two other smaller rings were present on the island; however, shell mining in the antebellum period depleted most of the other two sites. Waring and Larson found evidence of hearths on the dense shell ring, and very few artifacts in the center of the large ring. Structural remains were located outside the shell ring.

Excavations in 1991 and 1992 by the University of West Florida at the Bernath Place site (8SR986) revealed a horseshoe shaped shell ring associated with the Santa Rosa Swift Creek Culture (Bense, 1994; Phillips, 1992). The Bernath Ring Midden has an unusual feature that other shell rings lack: burials inside the horseshoe. Bense has suggested (1994) that this type of site can be the social equivalent in the Santa Rosa Swift Creek period to mound centers and modern square grounds.

Naval Live Oak's First Gulf Breeze site (8SR8) is also a Santa Rosa Swift Creek shell ring (Willey, 1949; Phelps, 1968; Tesar, 1973; Lazarus, 1961; Prokopetz, 1976; Piatek, 1980; Houston and Stoutimire, 1982; Doran and Piatek, 1985). It has the horseshoe shape of the Bernath Ring Midden; although both of these shapes may have been completely closed circles at one time. Erosion may have modified the ring, leaving the horseshoe shaped pattern.

Significance

Shell rings are significant at the state level under National Register Criterion D. Preservation of organic materials is excellent in the areas with dense shell. These sites can yield scientific information related to social organization, settlement patterns, political organization, subsistence patterns, and internal village arrangements. They may also be special activity ceremonial sites which aids in the interpretation of social belief systems. Site 8SR8 is one of the few recognized shell ring middens left on the Gulf Coast (Bense, 1992).

Registration Requirements

This type of site is associated with the Middle Woodland period (Section E), and therefore eligible for nomination. The site must demonstrate integrity through intact deposits, and the potential for intact subsurface features. Although there has been limited disturbance

from historic activities, the Third Gulf Breeze (8SR8) site proposed within this multiple properties nomination as a representative type of shell ring retains its archaeological integrity. There have been several test excavations in 8SR8, but the investigators all agree that this site holds much more information and should be protected (Willey, 1949; Phelps, 1968; Tesar, 1973; Lazarus, 1961; Prokopetz, 1976; Piatek, 1980; Houston and Stoutimire, 1982; Doran and Piatek, 1985).

Name of Property Type: Road

Description

The remnant of the First American Road constructed in Florida (completed between A.D. 1824 and 1826) located on the Naval Live Oaks Reserve is an unpaved original section that runs parallel to State Highway 98 through the park. Roads of this time period were major engineering feats because of the dense vegetation and harsh conditions of the workers assigned to complete the task. The preserved section of road is approximately 12 feet wide and 2.39 miles in length. It is currently used by park employees for access to other sites, and by park visitors as a hiking trail.

Significance

Roads of this type are significant at the state level under National Register Criterion A, sites that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history. The First American Road in Florida (8SR66) is important to the history of transportation and the linking of the two sections of Florida in the early 1800s (Boyd, 1935, 1938). Its status as a "first" is important to the history of development of Florida in the early days of American occupation. The construction of the road from Pensacola to St. Augustine (also known as "The Pensacola/St. Augustine Road;" The Federal Road;" "The Andrew Jackson Trail;" and the eastern section was also called "The Belamy Road") was started to supplement the long sea voyage to the east coast and to aid in communication between Florida's two largest settlements. The road probably utilized existing, ancient Indian trails between the two cities (Stringfield, 1993).

Registration Requirements

The integrity of the site and its historical associations are the most important requirements for registration of a road. The First American Road in Florida has been continuously used in one form or another since its construction in 1824. Its historical importance is evident in its service as an early link between the two former Spanish colonies of East and West Florida, and the major cities of Pensacola and St. Augustine in the early American Territorial period.

Name of Property Type: Agricultural Plantation (Live Oak Reservation and Cultivation)

Description

The agricultural plantations of the southeastern United States during the late 1700s and early 1800s took many forms and cultivated many different types of products. The first plantations were located along the southeastern Atlantic coast from Virginia to the northern coast of Florida in the tidewater regions. Early planters used indentured labor, or Indian and African slaves to tend and harvest cash crops such as rice, tobacco, sea island cotton, indigo and sugar cane, as well as subsistence crops such as corn. The English settlers of these regions started with modest land holdings, and some were able to increase their property to thousands of acres of potential crop land.

Plantation agriculture quickly spread into the interior of the southern states after the invention of the cotton gin. The gin made the production of short staple cotton profitable, and it eventually replaced the long staple sea island cotton. Short staple cotton could be grown in more diversified types of environments, including the Piedmont and inland Coastal Plain regions of the southeast and along river valley flood plains.

The labor force by the late 1700s consisted exclusively of African slaves. The social hierarchy of planter-overseer-slave was an important part of the system created by southern elites. This hierarchy is evident not only in the historical record of the nation, but also in the archaeological deposits left by the plantation inhabitants.

Most plantations depended on cash crops, some that were well proven, such as cotton, and others who experimented with new crops to provide for the specialized needs of the new nation. One of those was the cultivation of live oak for the ships required by the newly approved United States Navy. By 1794, the need for a navy was becoming apparent for the protection of the extensive Atlantic coastline. With the addition of Louisiana territory in 1803 and East and West Florida in 1821, the coast of the Gulf of Mexico also became threatened by enemies of the United States, and made expansion of the navy even more urgent. This expansion required thousands of cubic feet of wood suitable for shipbuilding, and the strength, resistance to disease, and natural curvatures of the naval live oak (*Quercus virginiana*) made it the first choice of architects responsible for the design and construction of these ships (Snell, 1983).

Beginning in the late 1790s, the government of the United States started to recognize the importance of reserving lands on which the live oak grew for shipbuilding. To insure the supply, public lands along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts were set aside and the cutting of timber by private individuals was prohibited. The implementation of the idea for conservation of live oak began with the purchase of two barrier islands along the coast of Georgia: Grover's Island in 1799; and Blackbeard's Island in 1800 (Snell, 1983). The first of several conservation laws was passed in 1817, shortly after the War of 1812 ended, when officials recognized their weakness without a navy.

Eight islands in Grand Lake, Louisiana were also set aside as live oak reserves in 1820 by President Monroe; however, they never provided any timber for the navy. One year after the transfer of Florida from the Spanish, the United States passed another act specifically aimed at preservation of live oaks on public lands in Florida territory. A survey of the newly acquired lands was immediately undertaken to determine the areas to be set aside for live oak preserves. Between 1821 and 1861, 241,673.94 acres had been set aside in the southern states, almost 90,000 of which were located in West Florida.

One of these reservations was also the location of an experiment to grow live oaks, as well as care for and protect the existing forests. In 1828, the United States set aside public lands already owned, and purchased additional tracts on what is now known as the Gulf Breeze Peninsula between Pensacola Bay and Santa Rosa Sound in Santa Rosa County, Florida for this purpose. The original Deer Point Naval Live Oak Reservation covered a maximum of 15,953.28 acres by 1838. A 200-acre tract of this land was used for planting of live oaks from acorns. The parcel was tended by a superintendent, overseer, and African slaves between 1828 and 1861 (Snell, 1983).

Significance

The cultivation of live oak trees for shipbuilding on the Deer Point Reservation was unique in the nation. It is a highly specialized type of plantation designed to meet the specific needs of the expanding U.S. Navy in the early 19th century. This unique plantation is eligible for the National Register under Criterion A, associated with events that have made a significant contribution to patterns of maritime and antebellum history; and Criterion D, with the potential to yield important archaeological information about undocumented history.

This site is important to both history and archaeology. The Deer Point Naval Live Oak Reservation is an example of experimental agricultural practices directly related to the building of the U.S. naval fleet. This episode in naval history contributed to the military strength of the nation until the outbreak of the Civil War and the introduction of ironclad warships. It is important to the understanding of shipbuilding during that period of history, and also to the dedication of U.S. officials to protect their coastlines from foreign threats. It was also the result of one of the first examples of legislation specifically aimed at the conservation of an important natural resource.

Plantation life in West Florida during the Second Spanish (A.D. 1783 - A.D. 1821) and Early American (A.D. 1821 - A.D. 1845) periods was vastly different from the tidewater plantations of the Atlantic coast and the interior Piedmont plantations. During the Spanish period, slaves became more integrated into the society, and it was easier for a slave to be emancipated. Since large scale agricultural plantations never developed in West Florida, the slavery system was different from the task and gang labor systems in other areas. African slaves were used as domestics, laborers in mills, and as skilled and unskilled labor for the construction of the Pensacola Navy Yard, founded in 1825 (McGovern, 1974; Doherty, 1959). Few plantation

sites have been investigated archaeologically in West Florida to date. Potential research questions that can lead to a better understanding of the lifeways of Antebellum Floridians include: status studies from material cultures on a socially stratified site (superintendent-overseer-slave); study of slavery under a system unique to non-traditional agriculture and the lives of slaves under this system which were not documented by the dominate segment of society; economic relationships; African survival practices under this particular system; belief systems, and other aspects of African-American history.

Registration Requirements

Agricultural plantations must demonstrate some archaeological integrity and have the potential to provide significant contributions to history. The Deer Point Naval Live Oak Reservation meets eligibility requirements for nomination from an historical, as well as archaeological aspect. This unique plantation was an example of early American experimental agriculture with a specific purpose: protect and cultivate live oaks to insure the supply for the building of the U.S. fleet. This expansion of military strength directly contributed to the position of the United States as a world power in the 19th century. It was also one of the first conservation efforts, recognizing the need for protection of a natural resource.

Archaeologically, the site's integrity has not been fully explored. While there was some post-Civil War disturbance to the site, the area where the support buildings and residences of the people associated with the plantation have not been properly researched. Tesar (1973) recommended that the site be protected, although he mistakenly wrote that the Reservation had been placed on the National Register, he recognized the need for further historical and archaeological research. Since there are so few African-American sites from this time period noted in West Florida, and little is known about their lives, the potential for research related to slave activities and living quarters is great, adding another chapter to the often undocumented history of these people during the Antebellum period.

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Section G. Geographical Data

The Naval Live Oaks Area of the Gulf Islands National Seashore is located in within the Coastal Plain physiographic province on the Gulf Breeze peninsula which extends into the Pensacola Bay estuary system, encompassing Pensacola, Escambia and East Bays. The major rivers emptying into the bay system include the Escambia, Blackwater and Yellow rivers, along with several other small tributaries. The peninsula is composed of cross-banded aeolian dune sediments typical of relict barrier islands. The entire district is located in Santa Rosa County, Florida.

The proposed multiple property listing is bounded on the north by Pensacola Bay and Reservation Road, on the south by Santa Rosa Sound, and on the west by the city of Gulf Breeze, Florida. The residential housing development of *Villa Venyce* bounds the district to the southeast, and Bayshore Drive runs along the northeastern boundary line. State highway 98 was constructed east/west through the midsection of the Federal property.

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Section H. Summary of Identification and Evaluation Methods

The Naval Live Oaks Area and the surrounding peninsula has been investigated by amateurs and professional archaeologists for over 100 years. The bulk of the modern investigations have been by employees of the National Park Service; however, prior to federal acquisition of the property, The Naval Live Oaks Reservation has been the subject of examinations by local enthusiasts, professional archaeologists, and historians. Table 1. lists the sites recorded with the State of Florida Bureau of Archaeological Research Master Site File index to date on the Reservation. This table includes the name, site number, locational data, cultural component and date, and bibliographic references. The following information summarizes published and unpublished works chronologically.

The earliest report of prehistoric site description from the Gulf Breeze Peninsula was published in 1876 by a U.S. Army surgeon in the *American Association for the Advancement of Sciences Proceedings* (Sternberg, 1876). The exact locations of the sites that he describes are unknown; however, they were surely located within a few miles of Naval Live Oaks, or actually on the reservation property. Sternberg estimates the ground is covered with "a few bushels to thousands of bushels" of shells evident on the cleared land covering about 150 acres in this area. The "kitchen-middens" of Gulf Breeze contained deer bone awls, fish bone and ceramics disbursed among the clam and oyster shell remains. He also removed nine skulls from a large mound located on the peninsula for further analysis.

The first reported site investigation within the modern boundaries of the district was done by S. T. Walker in 1883 (Walker, 1885). Walker's article was published in the Smithsonian Annual Report for that year. He described the site as a "shell heap" near "Dr. Rotherford's place, about 2 miles east of the old Government Live Oak Plantation." The associated map and description of the site seem to indicate that it was the Third Gulf Breeze Site (8SR8).

Researchers from the Smithsonian returned to the Gulf Coast in the 1940s. Gordon R. Willey published a volume describing sites along the coast (Willey, 1949), including some of those located on the Naval Live Oaks Reservation. He made surface collections from the First Gulf Breeze site (8SR6), the Second Gulf Breeze site (8SR7), and the Fourth Gulf Breeze site (8SR9) in 1940, with more attention paid to the Third Gulf Breeze site (8SR8). Six test units ranging in size from 1 x 1 meters to 3 x 3 meters were stratigraphically excavated and a map of the estimated limit of the midden was sketched. An analysis of ceramics from each unit was made, as well as surface finds collected during his investigations (see individual site nomination proposal for 8SR8).

Between 1955 and 1970, William and Yulee Lazarus of the Ft. Walton Temple Mound Museum collected artifacts and conducted excavations on the Reservation (Hammersten, 1989). Although not professional archaeologists, the Lazarus' used standardized methods of recording and recovery and published two articles in professional journals. Mr. Lazarus also did limited surveys on the property, and reported several new sites. The first of the published articles (Lazarus, 1961) described ten sites on the Reservation:

First Gulf Breeze	(8SR6)
Second Gulf Breeze	(8SR7)
Third Gulf Breeze	(8SR8)
Fourth Gulf Breeze	(8SR9)
Tent Camp Site	(8SR11)
La Casa	(8SR12)
Escola	(8SR13)
Inky East Pond	(8SR14)
Big Heart	(8SR22)
Camp Inky	(8SR23)

The article summarized Willey's findings (1949) for 8SR6, 8SR8, and 8SR9. Lazarus collected surface artifacts from 8SR7, 8SR11, 8SR12, 8SR13, 8SR14, 8SR22 and 8SR23. He excavated test units in .5" levels for 8SR11 (size of unit unknown), and one 5 x 5 feet unit in 8SR12. Artifacts from this and other excavations done by the Lazarus' are housed at the Southeast Archaeological Center, National Park Service, Tallahassee, Florida (for accession numbers, see Hammersten, 1989:39).

The Naval Live Oaks Cemetery site (8SR36) was the subject of investigation in the mid 1960s by local amateurs, and was overseen in one case by William Lazarus. One published article was produced from this work (Lazarus, Lazarus and Sharon, 1967). The excavation of this site was begun in 1965 by Randy Head, a high school student from the area. Mr. Head was given permission by the state of Florida (owners of the property at the time) to excavate this cemetery site for a high school science fair project. He produced a report for the project (Head, 1965) and he retained possession of the artifacts. Notes were kept, along with sketch maps and the artifacts recovered were cataloged. Artifacts recovered, including skeletal materials, were retained by the Head family. The science fair project placed first in the school, regional competition and in the state exhibits for 1966.

When local enthusiasts heard about the spectacular artifacts that were being recovered from this site, others began to dig indiscrimately in the site. The large site was vandalized until professionals and concerned citizens became alerted. William Lazarus then began to salvage as much of the site as possible with the help of Don W. Sharon, another local amateur. The resulting excavations were published in the 1967 article.

All of the excavations produced primary, secondary and cremation burials. Thousands of artifacts were recovered by Head, Sharon and Lazarus. Mr. Head loaned a portion of the collection to the University of West Florida for study in the late 1980s, but has retained a major portion including early European trade goods and skeletal materials.

Some artifacts recovered by Lazarus and Sharon apparently remained in the possession of Mr. Sharon. They were on display for a time at the Ft. Walton Temple Mound Museum, but were removed and returned to Mr. Sharon. Recent communications with Mr. Sharon by the author have not located the artifacts which include many associated funerary remains. Mr. Sharon said that he reburied the skeletal remains that littered the site from vandals at the time, and no longer had any artifacts from the site (Personal communication, Don Sharon, March 20, 1997). A list of these artifacts is on file at the Ft. Walton Temple Mound Museum, Fort Walton Beach, Florida.

C.E. Kegerreis, a local park ranger, excavated a trench in the Butcherpen Mound site (8SR29) in 1965. The trench measured 26'5" from south to north, and measured 3 feet in width. There are three mounds on the site, and this unit was apparently excavated in Mound A (Kegerreis, n.d.; also see Tesar, 1973). Stratigraphic observations were made in the brief report of Kegerreis and a partial list of artifacts is attached (level 1 only). No analysis of the artifacts or interpretations were made. The present location of these artifacts is unknown.

Another amateur excavation was conducted in the park by S.S. Williams and T.E. Brown in 1966 (Williams, 1967). 8SR8 was once again the subject of investigation for this project. Williams reported evidence of recent looting on the site when he began his testing. Six pits were dug in varying sizes and to varying depths. A sketch map was made, and two other amateurs classified the artifacts: lithics by E.E. Fagan; and ceramics by Don W. Sharon. The current location of these artifacts is unknown.

Professional excavations were again conducted at 8SR8 in 1969 by David S. Phelps, then associate professor of Anthropology at Florida State University. Phelps produced a preliminary report on his work in *The University of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology Notebook* (Phelps, 1969). Included in the report is a summary of two other Swift Creek sites tested in that same year in northwest Florida, 8WA14 and 8WA52. Although the report describes some of the artifacts that were recovered from 8SR8 and a discussion of Swift Creek culture in northwest Florida, excavation methods are not outlined. The associated artifacts are located at East Carolina University Archaeological Laboratory, Greenville, North Carolina.

The most comprehensive survey of the Gulf Islands National Seashore was done by Louis Tesar of Florida State University in 1973 (Tesar, 1973; also see 'Tesar Field Notes', 1973). Tesar summarized the prehistoric historical background of the area, as well as executing a ground truth survey of the Seashore, including the Naval Live Oaks Reservation. His work resulted in the initial recording of many of the sites listed with the State of Florida today, as well as the limited testing and outlining of boundaries of a few of the sites. The following is a complete list

of sites visited by Tesar on the Reservation. No new sites have been recorded since this survey:

8SR6	First Gulf Breeze
8SR7	Second Gulf Breeze
8SR8	Third Gulf Breeze
8SR9	Fourth Gulf Breeze
8SR11	Tent Camp Site (This was combined with 8SR9 by Tesar)
8SR12	La Casa
8SR13	Escola
8SR14	Inky East Pond
8SR22	Big Heart
8SR23	Camp Inky
8SR29	Butcherpen Mound
8SR36	Naval Live Oaks Cemetery
8SR40	Manly Mound
8SR42	Boy Scout Water
8SR48	Naval Live Oaks Reservation
8SR60	Butcherpen Cove
8SR61	Tornado Corner
8SR62	Limestone Rock
8SR63	Inky Cemetery
8SR64	Inky Tent North
8SR65	Naval Live Oaks North Line
8SR66	First American Road in Florida
8SR67	Plantation Hill West
8SR68	Big Heart West
8SR69	Butcherpen Cove East
8SR70	La Caseta
8SR71	Butcherpen Cove Swamp
8SR72	Sacksaw Landing
8SR73	Rattlesnake Midden

Accompanied by local informants, Tesar reported new sites and revisited sites already recorded. Using probing and shovel testing, he delineated boundaries and produced sketch maps of each of the recorded sites, as well as a site map of the Reservation area with all sites and other features noted.

Individual methods for recording each site are not generally listed; however some additional information is available in the field notes that Tesar made at the time of the survey. Surface collections are noted, and artifacts are scheduled in Table 6 of the report (Tesar, 1973:188). Artifacts collected are curated at the Southeast Regional Archaeological Center of the National Park Service, Tallahassee, Florida. Stratigraphic observations were made on many of the sites visited.

Tesar also acknowledged several historic sites that he did not report as official sites, and although he did sketch some of the remains, little attention was paid to these sites (Tesar, 1973:99-103). Further investigation is needed to determine the significance of these archaeological deposits.

The interior upland sections of the Reservation were apparently not systematically surveyed by Tesar. He states: "By way of comment, it seems to be appropriate to point out that except for relatively recent European (American) materials, no sites have been located in the relatively sterile wastelands of scrub oaks and pines. This wastelands area composes the large, central interior of the Reservation (Tesar, 1973:98)." Until recently, the areas more intensively surveyed focused on the oak and cedar hammocks along the coastlines. Modern studies in the interior uplands of similar environmental regions along the Gulf Coast have shown that the potential for sites in these areas is better than once assumed (Phillips, [ ]; Gresham, [Tyndall site]).

Construction plans at the Reservation prompted another examination of 8SR8 in 1976 by the National Park Service and, 8SR67 and 8SR40 were also tested (Prokopetz, 1976). Work at 8SR8 concentrated on areas of the site that might be impacted by development. Boundaries of the site were determined by surface remains and soil augering to locate any subsurface remains outside the visible surface deposits. The limits of the site were mapped with compass or transit. A grid was also laid out and 280 auger tests were made across the site to determine depth of midden and find any internal features. The grid was laid out in fifty foot squares, perpendicular to the beach line. A 5 x 5 feet test unit was also placed in the northeast corner of the site, excavated in arbitrary .5' feet levels to sterile sand. A topographic map of the site was also made.

Prokopetz also dug a small trench in the Manly Mound (8SR40). The 3' long x 1.5' wide unit was placed along the east side of the mound, oriented north/south. No artifacts were recovered from this excavation; however, stratigraphic observations were made and a map was made of the site.

Soil augering at 8SR67 indicated that the site was as extensive as previously reported. Prokopetz located three small midden areas (each approximately 20' in diameter), with no midden deposits exceeding 1.2' in depth.

Prokopetz returned to Naval Live Oaks in 1979 to monitor construction of the visitor center and parking area. Some disturbance to 8SR8 had already taken place when he arrived; however, he stopped construction in that area and no further cultural materials were encountered in this first phase of his report (Prokopetz, 1980). Additional monitoring of the area produced cultural materials at the site of the construction of a lift station for the sewer system. A radio carbon date was obtained from this area (8SR8) approximately 10 to 14 feet below the ground surface yielding a date of 1,385±80 years B.P, but the cultural association of this date was not reported (Prokopetz, 1980:3).

This project also included a survey of the known sites on the Reservation. Each site was ranked either 1, 2 or 3 depending on the amount of erosion and/or vandalism that was present. These categories were determined using data from Tesar (1973) and Propoketz (1976). Eight sites were considered Rank 1 (most in danger from erosion); Seven considered Rank II (erosion less prominent) ; and 11, Rank III (vandalism) (Prokopetz, 1980:9).

Also in 1980, George R. Fischer of the Southeast Archaeological Center of the National Park Service recommended twenty-three of the twenty-nine sites located on the Reservation be considered eligible for nomination to the National Register of Historic Places (Fischer, 1980). His analysis was based on the accumulated work of others to that date.

Later in the same year, Huston and Stoutamire of the Southeast Conservation Archaeology Center of Florida State University conducted a survey, testing and evaluation in the Naval Live Oaks Reservation (Huston and Stoutamire, 1980). A total of thirteen sites were examined. Surface and subsurface investigations were made to determine limits of each site, cultural affiliation, site integrity, and site significance. Initial work consisted of a literature review and relocation of the sites in question. Shovel test transects were oriented appropriate to each site layout at ten meter intervals. Site limits were defined by the absence of cultural materials in two or in come cases, three consecutive shovel tests. 1 x 1 meter excavation units were then placed in areas with the greatest potential for representative data collection. No excavation units were placed in sites where shovel testing revealed destruction beyond the ability to recover significant information. No 1 x 1 meter units were place in 8SR8 because previous work was considered sufficient to make recommendations. Laboratory analysis of recovered materials was done for each site and is currently located at the Southeast Archaeological Center of the National Park Service, Tallahassee, Florida.

Sites 8SR6, 8SR7, 8SR42, Features E and F of 8SR48, and 8SR72 were found destroyed by Huston and Stoutamire in 1980, and not significant due to erosion or looting. Sites 8SR22 and 8SR69 were determined disturbed, and not significant. Although there had also been some disturbance at sites 8SR8, 8SR29, 8SR40 and 8SR68, they were considered significant. Additional testing to determine site limits and protection were recommended for 8SR8 due to future plans for construction of the visitor center complex. Data recovery and protection was recommended for 8SR29 and 8SR68; and protection for 8SR40. The only undisturbed and threatened sites were 8SR70 and 8SR71. It was recommended that both of these sites be protected (Huston and Stoutamire, 1980:iii).

The National Park Service ordered a survey of 8SR66 and 8SR67 in 1981 as a result of a report from a professional visit to the Reservation. A firebreak had been constructed that could possibly have impacted these two sites. Bruce Piatek of the Southeast Archaeological Center conducted a visual examination of the disturbed area and collected any exposed artifacts. He also photographed and measured impact areas of each site. His findings concluded that both sites had been adversely affected by the construction (Piatek, 1981).

An archaeological field school was held in the Naval Live Oaks Area in 1981 and 1982 by Florida State University (Doran and Piatek, 1985). Sites 8SR8, 8SR29 and 8SR67 were tested by the professionals and students. Testing at 8SR8 focused on the definition of site boundaries due to the impending construction of the visitor center. A permanent datum was established, and a ten meter grid laid out over the site. Ninety-two shovel tests were conducted at 20 meter intervals and their location and stratigraphy recorded. Four test units were also excavated: two bulk sample columns, a 1 x 1.5 meter unit and a 1 x 2 meter stratigraphic unit. An additional series of shovel tests were placed at five meter intervals to determine past damage to these areas of the site.

Field methods at 8SR29 included the establishment of a permanent datum. Investigations focused on the areas of exposed midden along the bluff line. The site boundaries were also delineated by shovel testing transects placed north/south and east/west throughout the site with additional shovel tests placed to the east and west of the central north/south transect (a total of 109 were excavated). Stratigraphic excavation units were placed in Mound A, Mound B and Mound C. Other stratigraphic units were placed along the bluff line, and in the areas between the mounds, a total of ten units on the site. Bulk samples for faunal and chemical analysis were also taken from both mounds and midden areas.

Site limits were determined at 8SR67 using shovel test transects at 20 meter intervals. A total of 67 shovel tests were dug. Four stratigraphic excavation units were placed within midden areas of the site to study site morphology and to recover data sufficient to make management decisions. A permanent datum was also established at this site.

Cultural resource management recommendations were made in the 1985 report (Doran and Piatek, 1985) as well. Monitoring of 8SR8 was recommended during construction of the proposed visitor center. 8SR29 was recommended for mitigation to Mound C due to the dangers of severe erosion along the bluff, and the entire site was in danger from vandalism and additional erosion. Testing at 8SR67 revealed 12 discrete middens in a circular fashion. Although some vandalism was apparent, and firebreak construction had impacted the site, its integrity warranted protection and future research.

Glen Doran returned to the Reservation in 1983 to test portions of the Rattlesnake Midden site (8SR73) that were to be impacted by disking of existing firebreaks in the area. Previous survey of the site had suggested that there were two shallow midden deposited separated by a swamp drainage (Tesar, 1973). However, Doran found that the eastern portion of the site had been destroyed, and that the western portion was larger and deeper than first reported (Doran, 1983). Both areas were examined by looking at surface distributions of shell and twenty-one shovel tests were placed within the western area of the site. Doran recommended that disking be limited to the existing firebreaks and that there be no further disturbance to the site. A visit to the site in March of 1997 in preparation for this nomination revealed that a portion of the site on the western side of the drainage is now covered by water from the construction of a beaver dam.

The construction of the park visitor center required some data recovery from a portion of the Third Gulf Breeze site (8SR8) in 1986. This was done by John W. Walker of the Southeast Archaeological Center of the National Park Service. His research questions focused on the Pensacola culture area of the site. Ten shovel tests, twelve 0.5 x 1.0 meter test units, twenty 1 x 1 meter squares, and two 5 x 5 meter units were excavated in the area of impact. The final report is not yet available; however, the site area impacted by the center was confirmed as primarily a Pensacola period occupation (Hammersten, 1989).

The methodology used to gather information for this nomination to the National Register included both literature and field research. Field investigations included relocation of the sites to be nominated and all other previously recorded sites. Each site was photographed and notes were made about any current evidence of erosion or vandalism. As presented above, previous work on associated property types within the Reservation was sufficient to determine the eligibility and significance. Active shoreline erosion is still evident. Only one recent episode of vandalism was observed on any site (8SR61). Some artifacts were collected from the surface of a few sites (8SR11; 8SR14 and 8SR42). Other artifacts were collected from the surf zone on the Santa Rosa Sound side of the site. These probably eroded out from 8SR42, 8SR61 and 8SR68. These will be permanently housed at the curation facility for the Gulf Islands National Seashore located on Santa Rosa Island at the Ft. Pickens National Historic Site.

Monitoring of sensitive areas continues within the boundaries of the Naval Live Oaks Reservation. Firebreak construction activities, utility repair and installation, and any other ground disturbing activities are monitored by the Southeast Archaeological Center of the National Park Service in Tallahassee. The Reservation also employs a full-time Cultural Resource Specialist who is responsible for the protection of all sites located on all properties of the Gulf Islands National Seashore.

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