CULTURAL RESOURCES ASSESSMENT SURVEY FOR THE FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY CASACUBA PROJECT MIAMI-DADE COUNTY, FLORIDA

Prepared for:

Florida International University 11555 SW 17th St MMC Campus, CSC 142C Miami, FL 33199

Prepared by:

Janus Research 1107 N. Ward Street Tampa, Florida 33607

FINAL REPORT

January 2020

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

At the request of Florida International University (FIU), Janus Research conducted a Cultural Resources Assessment Survey (CRAS) of the FIU CasaCuba Project in Miami-Dade County. The purpose of this CRAS was to locate and evaluate archaeological and historic resources within the area of potential effect (APE) and to assess their eligibility for inclusion in the *National Register* of Historic Places (National Register) according to the criteria set forth in 36 CFR Section 60.4.

This assessment complies with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (Public Law 89-665, as amended), as implemented by 36 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] 800 -- Protection of Historic Properties (incorporating amendments effective August 5, 2004); Section 102 of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969, as amended (42 United States Code [USC] 4331 et seq.), as implemented by the regulations of the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) (40 CFR Parts 1500–1508); and the standards embodied in the Florida Division of Historical Resources' (FDHR) Cultural Resource Management Standards and Operational Manual (February 2003), and Chapter 1A-46 (Archaeological and Historical Report Standards and Guidelines), Florida Administrative Code (F.A.C.). All work conforms to professional guidelines set forth in the Secretary of Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (48 Federal Register [FR] 44716, as amended and annotated).

Principal Investigators meet the *Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualification Standards* (48 FR 44716) for archaeology, history, architecture, architectural history, or historic architecture. Archaeological investigations were conducted under the direction of James P. Pepe, M.A., RPA. Historic resource investigations were conducted under the direction of Ginny Jones, M.A.

No archaeological or historic resources were identified within the project area. Background research and a pedestrian survey confirmed the low archaeological potential of the project area. No subsurface testing was feasible during this survey due to the presence of hardscape, landscaping, gravel, spoil piles, and underground utilities.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	i
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ii
LIST OF APPENDICES	. iii
LIST OF TABLES	. iii
LIST OF FIGURES	. iii
INTRODUCTION	1
Project Description	1
AREA OF POTENTIAL EFFECT	3
ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING	5
Paleo-Environment and Macro-Vegetational Change	5
Regional Environment	6
Physical Environment of the Project Corridor	7
PRECONTACT OVERVIEW	. 11
Paleoindian Period (12,000-7500 BC)	11
Archaic Period (7500-500 BC)	. 11
Early Archaic (7500-5000 BC)	12
Middle Archaic Period (5000-3000 BC)	12
Late Archaic Period (3000-500 BC)	13
Formative Period (500 BC-AD 1513)	14
HISTORICAL OVERVIEW	17
European Contact and Colonial Period (c. 1513–1821)	17
Territorial and Statehood Period (1821–1860)	18
Civil War and Post War Period (1860–1898)	20
Spanish-American War Period/Turn-of-the-Century (1898–1916)	22
World War I and Aftermath Period (1917–1919)	.24
Florida Land Boom Period (1920–1929)	25
Depression and New Deal Period (1930–1940)	. 29
World War II and the Post-War Period (1941–1949)	30
Modern Period (1950 to present)	. 33
FLORIDA MASTER SITE FILE SEARCH AND LITERATURE REVIEW	41
Previously Conducted Cultural Resource Surveys	41
Previously Recorded Archaeological Resources	41
Previously Recorded and Potentially Historic Resources	41
METHODS	42
Archaeological Survey Methods	42
Historic Resources Survey Methods	42
Local Informants and Certified Local Government Coordination	42
PROJECT RESEARCH DESIGN AND SITE LOCATION MODEL	43
RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS	44
Unanticipated Finds	46
Curation	46
REFERENCES	47

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A:	Project Information
Appendix B:	Current Conditions Within the Archaeological APE
Appendix C:	Survey Log

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Glades Cultural Sequence	. 16
Table 2. Land Apportionment in the Vicinity of the Project Area	. 23

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: General Location of the Project Corridor	. 2
Figure 2: Project APE	. 4
Figure 3: Approximate Location of the Project Area on a 1938 Aerial Photograph	. 8
Figure 4: Approximate Location of the Project Area on a 1968 Aerial Photograph	. 9
Figure 5 Glades Cultural Region.	15
Figure 6: 1839 Map Showing Fort Dallas on the Miami River (circled in red) in Present-Day	
Miami and the Everglades (Courtesy of The Library of Congress)	20
Figure 7: Historic photo c. 1897 of the Mouth of the Miami River showing Fort Dallas (left	
foreground) and the Royal Palm Hotel (left background), (Courtesy of Florida Memory 2	22
Figure 8: Trailblazers on the Tamiami Trail, 1923 (Courtesy of Florida Memory)	26
Figure 9: 1947 aerial photograph showing Tamiami Trail (US 41) looking west with	
Tamiami Airport in the left background	32
Figure 10: 1956 USDA aerial photograph of the original Tamiami Airport (the Project APE	
is located east and just outside the area of this photograph) (Courtesy of Paul Freeman) 3	35
Figure 11: The original Tamiami Airport, as depicted on an early-1960s FDOT street map	
(Courtesy of Paul Freeman)	36
Figure 12: An undated photo of a Piper Tri-Pacer in front of the office of Kendall Flying	
School Inc. at Tamiami Airport (Courtesy of Paul Freeman)	37
Figure 13: Chuck Perry, Butler Waugh, Nick Sileo, and Donald McDowell at the old	
Tamiami Airport tower in September 1969 to officially mark the beginning of FIU	
(Courtesy of FIU News)	38
Figure 14: FIU's first president, Charles Perry, standing in from of the University sign, circa	
1970s (Courtesy of FIU Photographic Archive)	39
Figure 15: Parking Lot in the Archaeological APE from SW 17th Court, Facing Northeast	44
Figure 16: Utilities along the Western Boundary of the Archaeological APE, Facing East	45
Figure 17: Hardscape and Utilities in the Archaeological APE, Facing Southeast	45

INTRODUCTION

At the request of Florida International University (FIU), Janus Research conducted a Cultural Resources Assessment Survey (CRAS) of the FIU CasaCuba Project in Miami-Dade County (Figure 1). The purpose of this CRAS was to locate and evaluate archaeological and historic resources within the area of potential effect (APE) and to assess their eligibility for inclusion in the National Register according to the criteria set forth in 36 CFR Section 60.4.

This assessment complies with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 (Public Law 89-665, as amended), as implemented by 36 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] 800 -- Protection of Historic Properties (incorporating amendments effective August 5, 2004); Section 102 of the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA) of 1969, as amended (42 United States Code [USC] 4331 et seq.), as implemented by the regulations of the Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) (40 CFR Parts 1500–1508); and the standards embodied in the Florida Division of Historical Resources' (FDHR) Cultural Resource Management Standards and Operational Manual (February 2003), and Chapter 1A-46 (Archaeological and Historical Report Standards and Guidelines), Florida Administrative Code (F.A.C.). All work conforms to professional guidelines set forth in the Secretary of Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archaeology and Historic Preservation (48 Federal Register [FR] 44716, as amended and annotated).

Principal Investigators meet the *Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualification Standards* (48 FR 44716) for archaeology, history, architecture, architectural history, or historic architecture. Archaeological investigations were conducted under the direction of James Pepe, M.A. Historic resource investigations were conducted under the direction of Ginny Jones, M.A.

Project Description

The proposed project consists of the construction of a building on the east side of the Modesto A. Maidique Campus (Appendix A). This project is being funded by a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) Challenge Grants Program. The project includes the construction of a courtyard, gardens, and limited parking facilities. The roadway and service drives will also be reconstructed as required. The project area is approximately 2.36 acres in size and located to the west of SW 107th Avenue between SW 16th Street and SW 17th Street. It is in Section 7 of Township 54 South, Range 40 East on the Hialeah (1988) US Geological Survey (USGS) quadrangle map.



AREA OF POTENTIAL EFFECT

According to 36 CFR 800.16(d), the APE is the geographic area or areas within which an undertaking may directly or indirectly cause changes in the character or use of historic properties, if such properties exist. The APE is influenced by the scale and nature of the undertaking as well as its geographical setting. The APE must include measures to identify and evaluate both archaeological and historical resources. Normally, archaeological and other below-ground resources will be affected by ground disturbing activities and changes in ownership status. Structural resources and other above ground sites, however, are often impacted by those activities as well as alterations to setting, access and appearance. As a consequence, the survey methodologies for these two broad categories of sites differ.

The project APE, therefore, considers the improvements that will be implemented as part of the proposed project and the extent of potential ground disturbance as well as the setting and character of the project area. The project area is approximately 2.36 acres of undeveloped land on the eastern side of the FIU campus. The archaeological APE included this 2.36 acres (Figure 2). The historic resources APE consisted of the project area and extended to a distance of 150 feet to allow for the consideration of potential visual or noise impacts (Figure 2).



ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

Environmental and ecological factors through time have had a direct influence on the choice of occupation sites by precontact populations and early historic settlers. Therefore, factors such as geologic, hydrologic, and meteorological processes that may have affected the APE and its biotic resources are important elements in the formulation of a settlement/subsistence model for precontact and early historic peoples.

Paleo-Environment and Macro-Vegetational Change

Since the termination of the Pleistocene Epoch at the end of the Wisconsin glaciation, roughly 11,550 BC, Florida has undergone significant climatic and environmental change. Notable changes in climate and subsequently in flora and fauna required human groups to adapt to their surroundings. These adaptations resulted in cultural changes in their hunting/foraging strategies and seasonal migration patterns. Within the archaeological record, these changes can be observed by differences in settlement patterns, midden composition, refuse disposal patterns, and the kinds of stone tools or pottery made.

Paleobotanical evidence suggests that between 31,050 and 11,550 BC, Florida was dry, windy, and cool (Whitehead 1973). By the early Holocene, roughly 11,550 BC, the climate in west-central Florida had warmed and it is likely that precipitation increased; as a result, the shallow, perched lake levels rose. At about 3,050 BC, sea levels had risen to within a few meters of their current levels (Griffin 1988). Increased rainfall resulted in the formation of Lake Okeechobee, the Everglades, and other modern ecosystems (Watts and Stuiver 1980; Brooks 1984:38; Gleason et al. 1984:311). The relative sea level stability combined with freshwater discharge allowed for the development of coastal estuaries (Widmer 1988). Around 750 BC, the rising sea level had slowed to the point that some modern beach ridges in southern Florida, like Cape Sable, began to form. Increased precipitation in the interior made cypress common in many areas, including the Big Cypress Swamp, and made droughts in the Everglades less common (Griffin 1988). The southern rim of Lake Okeechobee reached its maximum height about this time (Brooks 1984:38). Vegetation reached its present distributional patterning and estuaries were fully formed and supplied by enough freshwater drainage to become highly productive (Widmer 1988; Griffin 1988).

The climatic fluctuations that have occurred over the past 13,000 years have affected the way human groups were able to exploit resources. The Paleoindian and Early Archaic inhabitants would have found the area drier and access to water restricted, possibly only seasonally available at perched water ponds, or in solution lakes (sinkholes). The Florida peninsula was wider as sea level was as much as 49 m (160 ft.) lower than present level (Milanich 1994:38). The continental shelf was exposed in what is now the Gulf of Mexico. Mixed forests of oak and pine probably dominated the lower, riparian areas and the higher, arid locations were covered with rosemary scrub and grass species.

By Late Archaic times, the environment of the region approached present conditions. With the incipient development of the Everglades, Lake Okeechobee, Lake Kissimmee, swamps, wetlands,

and other drainages, water was no longer the limiting factor to site and resource location. The choice of site location was probably more a matter of finding a reasonably dry spot rather than a nearby water supply (Almy 1976, 1978; Grange et al. 1979). Sea levels were still fluctuating but were within one meter of current levels (Mörner 1969; Widmer 1988). Woodland Period culture groups exploited microhabitats that existed until modern logging, ranching, and land drainage practices were instituted.

Regional Environment

The project area is in the Everglades physiographic region (White 1970:Plate 1-C), which is characterized by low, poorly drained flatland that represents the shallow, flat bottoms of Pleistocene seas. Peat and organic-rich soils that have accumulated on a bedrock floor which consists of Miami Oolite cover this region. Miami Oolite, a Pleistocene era deposit, consists of a soft, white to yellow limestone that varies from a sandy limestone to calcium carbonate. This bedrock floor rises to the east and west where it lies very near the surface and where elevations tend to be somewhat higher. The Miami Oolite gradually thickens to the east where it eventually forms the Atlantic Coastal Ridge. It is also important to note that modern human attempts to drain, ditch, or divert water have severely altered much of the Everglades. Elevations range from sea level along Florida Bay to approximately 10 feet above sea level (ASL) in the northern end of the Everglades. The project APE is relatively low with an elevation of approximately 7 feet ASL.

Limestone and dolostone dominate the sediments of Miami-Dade County. This formation is a soft, oolitic limestone that is generally less than 40 feet thick (Puri and Vernon 1964). It characteristically contains large quantities of ooliths, which are small, spherical particles formed when calcite or aragonite was deposited in concentric layers around a nucleus of some type (United States Department of Agriculture [USDA] 1996:3–4). Outcrops of silicified limestone, or chert, which was often sought out by precontact peoples as raw material sources for the manufacture of stone tools do not occur in this area (Lane et al. 1980). The closest known outcrops lie to the west along the Peace River in the central part of the state (Scott 1978; Upchurch et al. 1982). Shell was the material of choice for the manufacture of precontact tools, and large univalve and bivalve shells occur in abundance along nearby Biscayne Bay.

Water resources consist of ground and surface water. The surficial aquifer, known as the Biscayne Aquifer, consists of sediments from the Anastasia formation, Miami and Key Largo limestone, and the Fort Thompson formation (Scott 1992:53), and is recharged through local rainfall. Because of low hydraulic gradients, movement of water within this zone is very slow. Water is discharged from the aquifer through lateral seepage into streams or lakes, or through evapotranspiration. Drainage ditches have allowed for more rapid drainage of inland areas. The ground water aquifer in southern Florida, known as the Floridian Aquifer, underlies the surficial Biscayne Aquifer. The Floridian Aquifer is presently non-potable due to saltwater intrusion caused by excessive pumping.

Physical Environment of the Project Corridor

Modern drainage and development have drastically changed the drainage patterns and overall environment of the area during the past century. The modified nature of the project area makes it difficult to determine the original vegetative communities located in and around the survey area as no native vegetation remains. A review of the 1845 General Land Office (GLO) historic plat map (Florida Department of Environmental Protection [FDEP] 1845) shows the APE was in a part of the Everglades that was not surveyed during the mid-19th century. Surveyors' notes are not available for the APE.

Aerial photographs from 1938, 1952, 1961, 1968, 1971, 1973, 1978, 1984, and 1991 (FDOT, Surveying and Mapping Office 1996–2019; USGS 2019; University of Florida, George A. Smathers Libraries 1999–2016) were reviewed to identify hammocks in the APE and examine land use in the area during the 20th century. No hammocks or tree islands are visible in the APE on any photographs. In 1938, the APE appears flat and wet with no vegetation (Figure 3). No development is visible in the APE. Numerous ponds are scattered throughout the vicinity. The APE is still undeveloped during the 1950s and 1960s (Figure 4), though the runways of an airport are visible to the west. Drainage has started in the area as evidenced by canals and ditches to the south and east of the APE. By 1973, the APE is in a small undeveloped plot of land that has been encircled by a paved roadway. The land appears wet and covered by vegetation. An increase in development is evident to the west and northwest, including numerous buildings, paved parking lots, and retention ponds. The APE remains undeveloped on the 1984 and 1991 photographs. Modern satellite imagery available from Google Earth shows a paved road and large area of ground disturbance in the APE in 2002. A building has been constructed adjacent to the west of the APE at this time, followed by a second building in 2004.

Soils can also provide information about environmental conditions prior to development. A review of the 1947 Soil Survey Detailed-Reconnaissance, Dade County, Florida (USDA 1958) and Soil Survey of Dade County Area, Florida (USDA 1996) was conducted to look at pre-development soil drainage characteristics and environmental associations within the APE. The 1947 soil survey reconnaissance indicated that prior to development, the APE was mostly within poorly to very poorly drained Davie mucky fine sand. This soil was typically found on the edges of sandy prairies bordering the Everglades. Areas containing this soil type were described as having a thin layer of peat or moss followed by sand and underlain by limestone between 2 and 4 feet from the surface. Prior to drainage, natural vegetation consisted of sawgrass (USDA 1958:16-17). The southwest corner of the APE contained Rockdale fine sand, level phase-Limestone complex, which consisted of solution holes filled with fine sands to a depth of up to 2 feet. The drainage was generally good. Natural vegetation included slash pine, saw palmetto, and other subtropical plants. The review of the 1996 soil survey noted that most of the APE contains poorly drained Hallandale fine sand. This soil is found on broad flats between the Everglades and the coastal ridge. The water table is typically within one foot from the surface for up to 6 months and between one and two feet for the remainder of the year. Natural vegetation consists of slash pine with an understory of scattered saw palmetto and native grasses. Melaleuca and Australian pine are also present. The southern boundary of the



CRAS for the FIU CasaCuba Project Miami-Dade, Florida January 2020



APE contains Urban land, which generally consists of parking lots, streets, sidewalks, buildings, and other structures where natural soil cannot be observed. Open areas of this soil type typically contain udorthents that have usually been altered by grading, shaping, and/or the addition of up to 18 inches of stony fill material (USDA 1996:21–22).

Currently, the APE does not contain any structures. The paved road is still present, along with sidewalks, a basketball court, an area of grass and gravel used as parking, and landscaping. Above-ground and buried utilities are present throughout the APE.

PRECONTACT OVERVIEW

Native peoples have inhabited Florida for at least 14,000 years. The earliest cultural stages are pan-Florida in extent, while later cultures exhibited unique cultural traits. The following discussion of the precontact time period in the vicinity of the APE is included in order to provide a framework within which the local archaeological record can be understood.

Paleoindian Period (12,000-7500 BC)

The earliest inhabitants of Florida are known archaeologically as Paleoindians. The prevailing view of the Paleoindian culture, a view based on the uniformity of the known tool assemblage and the small size of most of the known sites, is that of a nomadic hunting and gathering existence, in which now-extinct Pleistocene megafauna were exploited. Settlement patterns were restricted by availability of fresh water and access to high-quality stone from which the specialized Paleoindian tool assemblages were made. Waller and Dunbar (1977) and Dunbar and Waller (1983), from their studies of the distribution of known Paleoindian sites and artifact occurrences, have shown that most sites of this time period are found near karst sinkholes or spring caverns.

The majority of Paleoindian sites in Florida consist of surface finds. The most widely recognized Paleoindian tool in Florida is the Suwannee point, typically found along the springs and rivers of northern Florida. Other points, including Simpson and Clovis points, are found in lesser numbers. Other Paleoindian stone tools tend to be unifacial and plano-convex, with steeply flaked, worked edges (Purdy and Beach 1980:114–118 and Purdy 1981), bifacial and "hump-backed" unifacial scrapers, blade tools, and retouched flakes, including spokeshaves (Purdy 1981; Daniel and Wisenbaker 1987:62–81, 86–87). Some tools are little more than flakes or blades that were struck from cores, used, and discarded (Milanich 1994:51).

By the end of the Paleoindian period, the climate had become warmer and wetter. It is possible that at this time the modern wetlands of southern Florida began to emerge. Sea levels began a fairly rapid rise, shrinking the available land mass through coastal inundation. These dramatic climate changes, and possible pressure from Paleoindian hunters, led to the extinction of the Pleistocene megafauna and other species.

Archaic Period (7500-500 BC)

During the Archaic period, climate and sea levels gradually stabilized and southern Florida began to take on its current appearance. The Archaic period is known for the adaptations made by Florida's earliest inhabitants to the modernizing climate and landscape. At the beginning of the Archaic, lifeways in Florida were quite similar to those of the preceding Paleoindian period. However, by the end of the Archaic, Florida's native people had developed more sedentary lifestyles, made many technological innovations, the most important of which was the invention of pottery, and began to differentiate themselves into distinct regional subcultures. Florida's Archaic is divided into an Early, Middle, and Late sub-periods, each of which have recognized horizons that are limited to restricted geographic areas and/or times.

Early Archaic (7500-5000 BC)

By the beginning of the Early Archaic sub-period, the Pleistocene megafauna and other characteristic fauna had become extinct. The settlement patterns and tools of Early Archaic people in Florida were initially very similar to those of the preceding Paleoindian period. As the Early Archaic progressed, more wetland habitats within southern Florida began to emerge.

By the end of the Early Archaic, local environments were becoming more subtropical. Additionally, interior ponds had begun to form (Carr 2002:194–195; Wheeler 2004:7). Sea levels throughout the Early Archaic were also still lower than modern levels.

Most of what is known about Early Archaic subsistence comes from highly preserved materials recovered from the anaerobic muck of the Windover Pond site in Brevard County. The Windover analysis (Andrews et al. 2002) indicates that Early Archaic peoples utilized the fibers of sabal palm, saw palmetto, and other plants in the weaving of baskets and textiles. Windover also illustrates that at least some Early Archaic populations had developed an intensive exploitation strategy focused on inland aquatic resources supplemented by terrestrial game (Dickel and Doran 2002:54). Within southern Florida, sites dating to this time period are rare. The Cutler Fossil site (8DA2001) in the Deering Estate, Miami-Dade County, is one definite Early Archaic site (Carr 1986). Other possible Early Archaic sites in southern Florida include Sunset Lakes (8BD3176), Blue Cow (8BD2150) (Davis and Carr 1993), and Silver Lakes (8BD1873) (Carr et al. 1991).

Middle Archaic Period (5000-3000 BC)

During the Middle Archaic period, the environment of southern Florida approached that of modern times, becoming less arid and supportive of a broader range of animal and plant resources. Broad wetlands, lakes and rivers began to develop and sea levels began to stabilize (Dixon 1999; Littman 2000). The human populations began to develop distinct regional adaptations to the changing environmental conditions. For the first time, such distinct regional adaptations and cultures appeared across all of Florida, including the southern portion of the peninsula. Along the southwest coast, populations developed year-round adaptations to the developing estuaries, producing large shell middens and constructing shell mounds in the process. Within southern Florida, Middle Archaic populations began to adapt to the developing Everglades ecosystem as well as the more dispersed wetland resources to the north of what is now Lake Okeechobee. The unique adaptation to the interior marshlands of southern Florida that can be seen developing during the Middle Archaic has been labeled the Glades or Everglades Archaic (Pepe 2000:32; Pepe and Jester 1995:19; Wheeler 2004; Wheeler et al. 2002:143-144).

Large coastal shell middens dating to the Middle Archaic are known for the southwestern coast of Florida, providing ample evidence of fully developed estuaries there during these times (Russo 1991; Torrence 1996). Within the interior, peat formation became widespread toward the end of this period, eventually giving rise to the Everglades ecosystem. The Middle Archaic artifact assemblage is not well documented but includes Florida Archaic Stemmed (FAS) and related points. Thonotosassa points, related to FAS points but larger, thicker, and more crudely made, have also been found in southern Florida at sites dating to the Middle Archaic (David Dickel, personal communication with James Pepe 2007; Farr 2006:91). Within southern Florida, an example of this point was noted at Ryder Pond (8LL1850). Wooden artifacts known from the

Middle Archaic include dugout canoes and a variety of wooden stakes and other tools recovered from wet sites. Although a variety of shell tool types are known from Middle Archaic sites, the main shell tool type known for southern Florida during this time is the *Strombus* celt (Wheeler 1994).

Several Middle Archaic sites have been identified on sandy ridges along the eastern edge of the Everglades. Sites such as Ranch Ridge (8BD1119) and Hiatus #2 (8BD3283) consist of scatters of lithic artifacts, including Middle Archaic point types and lithic debitage. Other probable Middle Archaic sites located in the Everglades, such as Bass Creek/Blockbuster #1 (8BD2878) and Cheetum (8DA1058), may represent early manifestations of the aforementioned Glades Archaic culture. All are, or were, hammock tree island sites surrounded by what would have been marshlands before modern drainage and other disturbances.

Late Archaic Period (3000-500 BC)

By the beginning of the Late Archaic, all of the modern physiographic regions and ecosystems of southern Florida were present in essentially their modern forms, including the entire Kissimmee-Lake Okeechobee-Everglades drainage system. Although the environment of southern Florida had achieved some sense of stability, the archaeological record of this period is much more dynamic. As a result, there is a great deal of variability between Late Archaic sites in southern Florida. Until recently, variations of Bullen's chronology for the Late Archaic Orange culture in northeastern Florida were generally used for the Late Archaic in southern Florida. Using this scheme, fibertempered pottery, the earliest pottery type known for all of North America, was considered to be a marker for the pottery of the Late Archaic. The generally accepted chronological sequence for the Late Archaic was expressly unilineal, with plain (undecorated) fiber-tempered pottery, followed by decorated fiber-tempered pottery, replaced finally by plain pottery that was not tempered with fibers (Bullen 1954, 1955, 1972). It was also understood that sand was eventually added as a tempering agent to fiber-tempered pottery. Orange pottery tempered with both fiber and sand is sometimes referred to as "semi-fiber tempered." The application of this chronology to southern Florida seemed to indicate that most of the area, especially the Everglades, was sparsely settled during the Late Archaic due to the general absence of Orange pottery at sites (Griffin 2002:146-149; Widmer 1988:201-201).

Investigations have questioned the use of the "standard" fiber-tempered sequence for the Late Archaic in southern Florida and suggest that, at some sites or in some areas, the earliest pottery present may be Sand-tempered Plain or thick, chalky wares. Investigations of a Late Archaic period site in Jupiter, the Joseph Reed Shell Ring, resulted in a tentative new chronology for the Late Archaic in southeastern Florida (Russo and Heide 2002). The proposed Late Archaic I is marked by fiber-tempered and/or semi-fiber tempered plain pottery. During the next proposed period, Late Archaic II, only chalky ware pottery, possibly early St. Johns Plain, is predicted to occur. The Late Archaic III, is distinguished by the presence of plain sand-tempered pottery along with the chalky pottery. Pepe and Jester (1995:19) propose that there are two, distinct Archaic traditions in southeastern Florida. In this model, the fiber-tempered pottery tradition is largely a coastal phenomenon associated with shell mound building, while the aceramic Archaic or "Glades Archaic" is a more widespread tradition, perhaps giving rise to the distinctive regional culture of

the Tequesta and their ancestors (see also Pepe 2000:29-32; Russo and Heide 2002:80; and Wheeler et al. 2002:143-144).

Many of the ubiquitous faunal bone middens located in the interior wetlands of southern Florida date to Late Archaic times, despite the fact that many of them lack pottery of any kind. These sites are notoriously difficult to date because, not only do they often lack chronologically diagnostic artifacts, but most of the faunal bone at the sites lacks collagen, the datable material in bone samples sent to radiocarbon labs. Nevertheless, many sites clearly have aceramic components that underlie pottery-bearing strata, logically indicating that these aceramic components most likely date at least as far back as the Late Archaic. Ongoing research by the National Park Service in the Big Cypress National Preserve and Everglades National Park has identified dense aceramic faunal bone middens yielding radiocarbon dates between 2850 and 1550 BC (Michael Russo, personal communication with James Pepe 2007; Schwadron 2006).

Formative Period (500 BC-AD 1513)

The Formative Period represents a time when changes in pottery and technology occurred throughout Florida. The specific changes in pottery traditionally used by archaeologists to mark the beginning of this period include the replacement of fiber-tempered pottery with sand-tempered, limestone-tempered, and chalky-paste ceramics. Three different projectile point styles (basally notched, corner-notched, and stemmed) also occur in some areas in contexts contemporaneous with these new ceramic types. This profusion of ceramic and tool traditions suggests population movement and social interaction between culture areas. The earliest known major occupations of southern Florida date to this period (Bullen et al. 1968; Sears 1982). The regional diversity that marked this period has been primarily attributed to local adaptation to varied ecological conditions within the state. The ceramic tradition for southern Florida, characterized by sand tempered bowls with incurvate rims, is known as the Glades or Everglades cultural tradition.

The project area is located in the Glades (Milanich 1994:301). As defined by Milanich (1994:298), the Glades cultural region (Figure 5) includes all of south Florida "east and south of the Caloosahatchee and Okeechobee regions. It includes most of St. Lucie County, "the Everglades, a largely sawgrass marsh in Hendry, Palm Beach, Broward, Dade, and Monroe counties; the Big Cypress Swamp west of the Everglades in Collier County; and extensive saltwater marshes and mangrove forests ounce found along both coasts, now almost totally destroyed in Broward and Dade counties."

Glades Culture

Environmentally, the interior portions of the Everglades area are dominated by inundated or formerly inundated humic or peat soils which are drained by massive sheet-flow instead of river channeling. The Atlantic coast, which has developed from beach dune deposition, has a few rivers cutting through the Atlantic Coastal Ridge and a coast-parallel lagoon system.



Figure 5 Glades Cultural Region.

John Goggin established a ceramic sequence for the Glades region on the basis of work he conducted from the 1930s to early 1950s (Goggin n.d.). Subsequent research has refined his basic chronological framework (Griffin 1988; Griffin et al. 1982). Table 1 is based on Griffin's 1988 work and presents the most thorough chronological framework for southern Florida. Summaries of the ceramic markers associated with each period are provided, as well. It is important to note that the information provided in this table is most applicable to the heartland of the Glades archaeological area: the Big Cypress Swamp, Everglades, and coastal portions of southern Florida to the south of Lake Okeechobee.

Glades period sites include those at Gordon's Pass (Goggin 1939), Goodland Point (Goggin 1950), Marco Island (Van Beck and Van Beck 1965), Useppa Island (Milanich et al. 1984), Horr's Island (McMichael 1982), Sanibel Island (Fradkin 1976), and the Turner River site (Sears 1956). An interesting feature of these large coastal sites is the progressive movement of habitation areas toward the water (Cushing 1896; Goggin 1950; Sears 1956), and indications are that dwellings may have been built to extend out over the water. Inland sites consist of shell and dirt middens along major watercourses (Laxson 1966) and small dirt middens containing animal bone and ceramic sherds in oak/palm hammocks or palm islands associated with freshwater marshes. The coastal Glades subsistence pattern is typified by the exploitation of fish and shellfish, wild plant food, and inland game, while Glades sites in the Big Cypress Swamp show a greater, if not exclusive, reliance on interior resources.

Period	Dates	Distinguishing Characteristics
Glades I early	500 BC-AD 500	First appearance of sand-tempered pottery; no decoration
Glades I late	AD 500–750	First appearance of decorated pottery: Fort Drum Incised, Fort Drum Punctated, Cane Patch Incised, Gordon's Pass Incised, Opa Locka Incised, Sanibel Incised; sand-tempered plain persists
Glades IIa	AD 750–900	Appearance of Key Largo Incised and Miami Incised; sand- tempered plain and Opa Locka Incised persist; none of the earlier decorated types are present
Glades IIb	AD 900–1100	Sand-tempered plain and Key Largo Incised persist; Matecumbe Incised appears; none of the earlier decorated types are present; certain rim modifications (incised lip arcs and lip crimping and grooving) also appear for the first time
Glades IIc	AD 1100–1200	Almost no decorated ceramics; some grooved lips but no more lip arcs or crimped rims; Plantation Pinched appears
Glades IIIa	AD 1200–1400	Plantation Pinched is no longer present; Sand-tempered plain and grooved lips persist; appearance of Surfside Incised and St. Johns Check Stamped
Glades IIIb	AD 1400–1513	Glades Tooled, sand-tempered plain and St. Johns Check Stamped are present, Surfside Incised and grooved lips are not present
Glades IIIc	AD 1513–ca.1700	Same as previous period with the addition of historic artifacts

Table 1: Glades Cultural Sequence

Griffin 1988: 124–142

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

The following overview traces the historical development of the general project area from the European settlement through the twentieth century. The intent of this historical overview is to serve as a guide to field investigations by identifying the possible locations of any resources within the project APE and to provide expectations regarding the potential historic significance of any such resources. It also provides a context with which to interpret any historic resources encountered during the CRAS.

European Contact and Colonial Period (c. 1513–1821)

Official credit for the discovery of Florida belongs to Juan Ponce de León, whose voyage of 1513 took him along the eastern coast of the peninsula (Tebeau 1971:21). He is believed to have sailed as far north as the mouth of the St. Johns River before turning south, stopping in the Cape Canaveral area and possibly at Biscayne Bay. The expedition then continued southward, following the Florida Keys, making contact with the local Tequesta people en route before turning to the northwest, where they encountered the Calusa along the southwestern Gulf Coast.

Other Spanish explorers followed Juan Ponce de León, and over the next 50 years the Spanish government and private individuals financed expeditions hoping to establish a colony in "La Florida." In 1565, King Philip II of Spain licensed Pedro Menéndez de Avilés to establish a settlement in St. Augustine, Florida. Settlements with associated missions were established at St. Augustine, San Mateo (Ft. Caroline) and Santa Elena, and smaller outposts and missions were located in Ais, Tequesta, Calusa, and Tocobaga territory (Gannon 1965:29).

In 1567, Brother Francisco Villareal was sent to one of the large Tequesta villages located on Biscayne Bay. In 1568, a skirmish between the Spanish soldiers and the Tequesta Indians temporarily closed the mission. By the end of 1568, the Tequesta were willing to reopen the mission, largely due to the work of Don Diego, a Tequesta who had visited Spain. Despite zealous attempts, the native groups in Florida continued to resist conversion, and in 1572 Jesuit authorities decided to abandon their missionary efforts in Florida.

Another attempt to build a mission in southeastern Florida took place nearly 150 years after the establishment of St. Augustine. Because it was in Spain's best interest to maintain control along the Florida coastline and alliances with the native groups inhabiting the coast, a missionary effort was supported in the Biscayne Bay area (Parks 1982:55–65). Father Joseph María Monaco and Joseph Xavier Alaña were sent from Cuba in 1743 and arrived at a Native American village located at the mouth of the Miami River. The village did not appear any more receptive towards accepting Christianity than before. After Joseph Xavier Alaña conveyed this to the Governor of Cuba, the mission was closed, and the fort they had erected was destroyed to prevent its fall into hostile hands (Parks 1982:55–65). Although the Spanish were resigned to the fact that missionization and settlement of South Florida came at too high a price, they did strive to maintain good relations with the various native people who lived in the area.

By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Native American population of South Florida had declined considerably as a result of disease, slave raids, intertribal warfare, and attacks from a new group of Native Americans, the Seminoles. The Seminoles, descendants of Creek Indians, moved into Florida during the early eighteenth century to escape the political and population pressures of the expanding American colonies to the north (Wright 1986:218).

By the end of the eighteenth century, the Seminoles had become the dominant Native American group in the state. Groups of fugitive African American slaves also had settled among the Seminoles by the early nineteenth century (Brown 1991:5–19). Armed conflict with pioneers, homesteaders, and eventually the United States Army resulted in the removal of most of the Seminoles from Florida. This action forced the withdrawal of the remaining Seminole population to the harsh environment of the Everglades and Big Cypress Swamp by the late nineteenth century.

Territorial and Statehood Period (1821–1860)

In 1821, after several years of negotiations with Spain, the U.S. acquired Florida as a territory. The population of the territory at that time was still centered in the northern areas around Pensacola, St. Augustine, and Tallahassee. As more European-American settlers moved into the region, conflicts arose with the Seminole people over available land. Pressure began to bear upon the government to remove the Seminoles from northern Florida and relocate them farther south. The Treaty of Moultrie Creek (1823) restricted the Seminole people to approximately four million acres of land in the middle of the state, running south from Micanopy to just north of the Peace River (Mahon 1967: Rear foldout map). The Seminoles did not approve of this treaty because they were reluctant to move from their established homes to an area that they felt could not be cultivated. Other treaties soon followed such as Payne's Landing (1832) and Fort Gibson (1833), which called for Seminole emigration to the western territories (Mahon 1967:75–76, 82–83). These treaties fostered Seminole resentment of settlers that would culminate in the Second Seminole War in 1835.

At the beginning of the Second Seminole War, the conflict was centered near the Withlacoochee region. In 1838, U.S. troops moved south to pursue the retreating Seminoles into the Lake Okeechobee and Everglades regions. Colonel Zachary Taylor was sent to the area between the Kissimmee River and Peace Creek. Colonel Persifor Smith and his volunteers were dispatched to the Caloosahatchee River, and U.S. Navy Lt. Levi N. Powell was assigned the task of penetrating the Everglades (Mahon 1967:219–220). Powell's detachment had several skirmishes with Seminole people near Jupiter Inlet. Powell established a depot on the Miami River and erected Fort Dallas in the approximate location of present-day downtown Miami. For three months, Fort Dallas was a base of operations as Powell led his men into the Everglades in search of the Seminoles (Gaby 1993:47).

The Second Seminole War had a deleterious effect on new settlement in Florida. To encourage settlement in the middle portion of the territory after the war, the Armed Occupation Act of 1842 offered settlers 160 acres of land at no cost, provided they built a house, cleared five acres, planted crops, and resided on the land for five years. Any head of a family, or single man over 18 years of age and able to bear arms, was eligible to receive a homestead. This act, plus the end of the Second

Seminole War, created a small wave of immigration by Anglo-American pioneers to central Florida. Most of these immigrants were Anglo-American farmers and cattle ranchers, or "crackers," from the southeastern United States (Gaby 1993). During the latter years of the Territorial Period, South Florida represented a frontier with few European-American settlers who were primarily involved in the milling of lumber and arrowroot.

Miami's earliest permanent land records date from the Second Spanish Period. John Egan's grant from the King of Spain was included as part of his son James's claim after Florida became a territory of the United States in 1821. A commission was set up to validate claims from the Spanish Period. James Egan's claim for the north bank of the Miami River (640 acres) and his mother Rebecca Egan's claim for the south bank (640 acres) were validated in 1825. These two grants included most of the original limits of the City of Miami (Robbins, Graham and Chillingworth Examining Counsel 1897). Key West resident Richard Fitzpatrick, formerly of South Carolina, purchased the James Egan grant in 1830 for \$400. By 1833, he had also purchased the Rebecca Egan grant for \$640 and two other grants (Polly and Jonathan Lewis), each 640 acres. These latter two grants were located along the bay, south of Rebecca Egan's grant. Fitzpatrick cleared the land and was in the process of building a large plantation when the Second Seminole War erupted in late 1835. Early in 1836 Fitzpatrick left the area, and the Seminole Indians burned his plantation to the ground. Just weeks before, as President of the Territorial Council, he had successfully pushed for the creation of Dade County from the larger Monroe County. The United States established Fort Dallas on Fitzpatrick's property in 1838 and occupied it intermittently until the war ended in 1842 (Figure 6).

By the time the war was over, Richard Fitzpatrick had lost interest in the area and sold his entire holdings to his nephew, William F. English, for \$16,000. English platted the "Village of Miami" on the south bank of the Miami River in 1843 and began building a large plantation house and slave quarters of native oolitic limestone on the north bank. When another Indian outbreak brought the troops back to the Miami River in 1849, English went to California to seek his fortune during the gold rush as a means to finance his new city. He was accidentally killed in California. The Army occupied the English plantation (renamed "Fort Dallas") improved the two stone buildings he had constructed and added several others.

The troops left a year later, only to return and reactivate Fort Dallas in 1855, at the beginning of the Third Seminole War. During this occupation, the Army again occupied English's stone buildings. Military engineers also constructed the region's first road, connecting Fort Dallas with the military outpost at Fort Lauderdale. William Wagner, a settler who followed the troops to the wilderness, decided to stay after the war. Sometime between 1855 and 1858 he built a simple frame house on a creek that branched off the Miami River. This house and English's slave quarters (Fort Dallas) are now located in Lummus Park and are the only known buildings of the pioneer era that remain in downtown Miami. The Miami Post Office opened in December 1856, receiving mail once a month by boat from Key West. When the Third Seminole War ended, many soldiers settled in the area and Fort Dallas became the nucleus of a permanent community (Patricios 1994:12, 19).



Figure 6: 1839 Map Showing Fort Dallas on the Miami River (circled in red) in Present-Day Miami and the Everglades (*Courtesy of* The Library of Congress)

Civil War and Post War Period (1860–1898)

With the beginning of the Civil War, cattle were needed to help feed the Confederate Army. Herds from as far south as central Florida were driven to railheads near the Georgia border. However, cattle ranchers discovered they could sell their herds in Cuba for a greater profit and began dealing with blockade-runners. The Union attempted to stop all shipping from Florida ports, but blockade-runners were too abundant. Cattle ranchers from all over Florida drove their cattle to Punta Rassa to be shipped to Cuba for payment in Spanish gold. It is not known how many cattle were shipped from the port during the Civil War. However, after the war as cattle continued to be shipped, it is reported that in the decade between 1870 and 1879 over 165,000 head were shipped (Grismer 1949).

In the 1880s, interest in the resources of South Florida increased due in large part to people like Hamilton Disston and Henry B. Plant. By 1881, the State of Florida faced a financial crisis involving a title to public lands. On the eve of the Civil War, land had been pledged by the Internal Improvement Fund to underwrite railroad bonds. After the War, when the railroads failed, the land reverted to the State. Almost \$1 million was needed by the state to pay off the principal and accumulated interest on the debt, thereby giving clear title.

Hamilton Disston, son of a wealthy Philadelphia industrialist, contracted with the State of Florida in two large land deals: the Disston Drainage Contract and the Disston Land Purchase. The Drainage Contract was an agreement between Disston and the State in which Disston and his associates agreed to drain and reclaim all overflow lands south of present-day Orlando and east of the Peace River in exchange for one-half the acreage that could be reclaimed and made fit for cultivation. The Disston Land Purchase was an agreement between Disston and the State in which Disston agreed to purchase Internal Improvement Fund Lands at \$1.25 an acre to satisfy the indebtedness of the fund. A contract was signed on June 1, 1881 for the sale of 4,000,000 acres for the sum of \$1 million, the estimated debt owed by the Improvement Fund. Disston was allowed to select tracts of land in lots of 10,000 acres, up to 3,500,000 acres. The remainder was to be selected in tracts of 640 acres (Davis 1938:206–207). Before he could fulfill his obligation, Disston sold half of this contract to a British concern, the Florida Land and Mortgage Company, headed by Sir Edward James Reed (Tischendorf 1954:123).

Disston changed Florida from a wilderness of swamps, heat, and mosquitoes into an area ripe for investment. This enabled Henry B. Plant to move forward with his plans to open the west coast of Florida with a railroad-steamship operation called the Jacksonville, Tampa & Key West Railway. Through the Plant Investment Company, he bought up defunct rail lines such as the Silver Springs, Ocala & Gulf Railroad, Florida Transit and Peninsular Railroad, South Florida Railroad, and Florida Southern Railroad to establish his operation (Mann 1983:68; Harner 1973:18–23). In 1902, Henry Plant sold all of his Florida holdings to the Atlantic Coast Line, which would become the backbone of the southeast (Mann 1983:68).

Private land claims between 1881 and 1883 were probably squatters acquiring the land on which they lived prior to the land transfers under the Disston Land Purchase contract. The flurry of land transfers recorded in the early 1880s was mainly the result of two factors: large influxes of people as a result of the railroads, and the widespread unpopularity of the Disston Land Purchase and Drainage Contracts. The public resented the \$0.25 per acre price Disston paid under the land contract, as they were required to pay \$1.25 per acre under the terms of the Homestead Act of 1876. There were also claims that Disston was receiving title to lands that were not swamplands or wetlands (Tebeau 1971:278). Many residents bought up the higher, better-drained parcels of land for speculation, knowing that the surrounding wetlands and flatwoods would be deeded to Disston under the Land Purchase contract.

In 1874, George M. Thew established the Biscayne Bay Company to purchase several of the original land claims and market the property. Julia Sturtevant Tuttle, a resident of Cleveland, Ohio, moved to Florida in 1891, and was so taken with the old Fort Dallas property that she purchased it from the Biscayne Bay Company for \$2,000.00. She also recognized the importance of transportation if the region was ever to progress. Consequently, she negotiated with railroad magnate Henry Flagler to transfer to him half of her acreage along the Miami River in exchange for bringing the FEC Railway to Miami. Flagler agreed, and by 1896 the railroad arrived. Flagler used some of the land he received from Julia Tuttle to build the Royal Palm Hotel on the north bank of the river across from Brickell's Point (Figure 7). The City of Miami was incorporated three months after the construction of the railroad, with a population of 502 voters. Flagler extended his railway to Homestead, completing the line by 1903 (Mann 1983).



Figure 7: Historic photo c. 1897 of the Mouth of the Miami River showing Fort Dallas (left foreground) and the Royal Palm Hotel (left background), (*Courtesy of* Florida Memory

The Florida Coast Line Canal and Transportation Company (FCLCTC) was chartered in 1881 to construct a series of canals connecting existing lakes and rivers between St. Augustine and Lake Worth, Florida. In 1893, railroad mogul Henry Flagler became associated with the company in order to help extend his railroad to the south of the state (Wiggins 1995).

Spanish-American War Period/Turn-of-the-Century (1898–1916)

At the turn-of-the-century, Florida's history was marked by the outbreak of the Spanish-American War in 1898. As Florida is the closest state to Cuba, American troops were stationed and deployed from the state's coastal cities. Harbors in Tampa, Pensacola, and Key West were improved as more ships were launched with troops and supplies. "The Splendid Little War" was short in duration, but evidence of the conflict remained in the form of improved harbors, expanded railroads, and military installations (Miller 1990).

Rapid and widespread growth was the theme of this period in Florida history. Thousands of miles of railroad tracks were laid, including the FEC, Atlantic Coast Line, and Seaboard Air Line railroads. While agriculture, especially the citrus industry, had become the backbone of Florida's economy, manufacturing and industry began growing during the beginning of the century. Fertilizer production, boat building, and lumber and timber products were strong secondary industries (Weaver et al. 1996:3).

In 1904, Governor Napoleon Bonaparte Broward initiated significant reforms in Florida's politics. Several of Broward's major issues included the Everglades drainage project, railroad regulation, and the construction of roads. During this time, railroads were constructed throughout the state and automobile use became more prevalent. Improved transportation in the state opened the lines to export Florida's agricultural and industrial products (Miller 1990). As various products such as fruits and vegetables were leaving the state, people were arriving in Florida. Some entered as new residents and others as tourists. Between 1900 and 1910, the state population increased from 528,542 residents to 752,619. At this time, St. Lucie and Palm Beach counties were established, indicative of the increasing numbers of people moving to the east coast of the state.

In 1909, the construction of the Miami Canal began for the expressed purpose of controlling flooding in western Miami-Dade County and draining the Everglades for agriculture and development (Gaby 1993). Prior to the building of the canal, most of the land west of present-day NW 27th Avenue was flooded sawgrass prairie with isolated hammocks. By the time of its completion in 1912, the Miami Canal had drained most of the eastern portion of the Everglades and opened up land for settlement and development. Consequently, land to the east of the former wetlands became available for development. Much of this "new" land consisted primarily of scrub growth of palmetto, Florida pine, and coconut palms, with mangrove and sawgrass where water was once present (Sessa 1950:2).

A review of the Florida Department of Environmental Protections (FDEP) Tract Book Records (n.d.) indicates that settlement in the region began in the late nineteenth century. Land apportionment within the project area is listed in Table 2 below.

Section	Portion Owned	Owner	Date of Deed or Sale	
Township 54 South, Range 40 East				
7	All	Richard J. Balles	December 24, 1908	

Table 2. Land Apportionment in the Vicinity of the Project Area

FDEP: n.d.

By 1912, small farming communities of the Redland District materialized west of NW 27th Avenue that was formerly under water (Janus Research 1999:26-27). By 1917, four major canals were draining the Everglades from the southeast end of Lake Okeechobee towards Miami, Ft. Lauderdale, and Boca Raton (Clement 2002). The North New River Canal extended between Lake Okeechobee to the New River and was dredged between 1906 and 1911. A canal extending from the Caloosahatchee River in southwestern Florida was also dredged starting in 1906. Yet another canal was the Florida East Coast Canal (later the Intracoastal Waterway) which was completed in 1911; it stretched from Jacksonville to Biscayne Bay (Clement 2002). A smaller canal, the Snapper Creek Canal was also part of the early drainage system. In the late 1920s, after two hurricanes had devastated the area, Congress passed the River and Harbor Act of 1930 and the construction of levees on the north and south sides of Lake Okeechobee began.

The idea of constructing the Tamiami Trail, a highway across the Everglades, which would link the Gulf and Atlantic coasts in southern Florida, was first promoted by James Franklin Jaudon in 1915. Jaudon, a former Miami-Dade County tax assessor, wanted to develop property he owned in the western Everglades and around Chevalier Bay in northern Monroe County, and believed that construction of the Tamiami Trail would make this feasible (Burnett 1988).

Beginning in 1916, promoters and developers placed advertisements about Miami in northern magazines and newspapers in hopes of attracting more buyers to the area. This advertising expanded yearly (Sessa 1950: 47), and the demand for land gradually increased.

World War I and Aftermath Period (1917–1919)

The World War I and Aftermath period of Florida's history begins with the United States' entry into World War I in 1917. Wartime activity required the development of several training facilities in the state, and protecting the coastlines was a priority at this time. One World War I-era airfield was Chapman Field along Biscayne Bay. Although the conflict only lasted until November 1918, the economy was boosted greatly by the war. For example, the war brought industrialization to port cities such as Tampa and Jacksonville, where shipbuilding accelerated. These cities also functioned as supply depots and embarkation points. An indirect economic benefit of the war was an increase in agricultural production, as beef, vegetables, and cotton were in great demand (Miller 1990).

While Florida industrialization and agriculture flourished, immigration and housing development slowed during the war. Tourism increased as a result of the war in Europe which forced Americans to vacation domestically. Tycoons such as Henry Plant were building hotels and railroads for tourists seeking winter vacations in sunny Florida. These magnates took an interest in the improvements and promotion of Florida in an effort to bring in more tourist dollars. The end of the war marked a slight increase in population.

In 1917, Tamiami Trail promoters, Jaudon, L. T. Highleyman, eventual Supervisor of the Southern Drainage District, and R. E. McDonald purchased 20,000 acres of land in the Everglades from the Trustees of the Internal Improvement Board (Jaudon 1924). Jaudon and a promotion group then convinced Lee, Miami-Dade, and Monroe county officials of the value and feasibility of a road and canal through his landholdings. At the time, there was even serious talk of the construction of a railroad alongside the Tamiami Trail and Canal (Jaudon 1917–1934). Consequently, Miami-Dade County raised \$125,000 and graded a rough road from the eastern part of the county to the edge of the Everglades, while Lee County worked on the western end of the highway. Work on the project temporarily stopped during World War I, when the war and problems connecting the Miami-Dade and Lee County portions delayed the road's completion. Tamiami Trail and Tamiami Canal are near, but outside, of the current project APE.

Miami-Dade County experienced a tremendous amount of growth and development in the years following World War I. Since many areas of South Florida were low-lying and therefore prone to flooding during the rainy season, it was necessary to fill these areas to make them suitable for living (Sessa 1950:6). Another option used by developers to create livable land was to purchase

bay bottom from the State Internal Improvement Fund, apply for permits from the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers to dredge, and then pump their claims in order to create islands. Some of the islands created by this practice of dredging and filling, which began in 1918, included Palm Island, Hibiscus Island, La Gorce Island, Sunset Islands, and Venetian Islands.

By 1917, Miami had a population of 30,000 and two new skyscrapers, the Ralston Building and McAllister Hotel. Eighty-seven new storefronts were added in one year. Miami now had one car for every 13 people, partly a result of the opening of the Dixie Highway promoted by Miami Beach developer Carl Fisher in 1915. Miami also had a new trolley system that ran all the way to Buena Vista, pushing development northward.

Florida Land Boom Period (1920–1929)

After World War I, Florida experienced unprecedented growth. Many people relocated to Florida during the war to work in wartime industries or were stationed in the state as soldiers. Bank deposits increased, real estate companies opened in many cities, and state and county road systems expanded quickly. Earlier land reclamation projects created thousands of new acres of land to be developed. Real estate activity increased steadily after the war's end and drove up property values. Prices on lots were inflated to appear more enticing to out-of-state buyers. Every city and town in Florida had new subdivisions platted and lots were selling and reselling for quick profits. Southeastern Florida, including cities such as Miami and Palm Beach, experienced the most activity, although the boom affected most communities in central and South Florida (Weaver et al. 1996:3).

Between 1919 and 1920, agricultural production in the area reached record levels. In the early 1920s, the real estate "boom" hit Miami-Dade County and the population doubled. The real estate boom was created in part by the desirable sub-tropical climate of the area, the abundance of available land created by the draining of the Everglades, and the visions and schemes of promoters and developers (Parks 1991:107). Real estate was rapidly changing hands and several new residential subdivisions were platted. Near the project area, the Pittsburgh-Miami Land Company purchased acreage to the west of Miami and laid out the plat of "Sweetwater Groves." The Pittsburgh-Miami Investment Company was owned by James J. Marshall (President) and was located across SW 8th Street/Tamiami Trail and Tamiami Canal from the current project area (Miami-Dade County Recorders Office 1923).

Road building became a statewide concern as it shifted from a local to a state function. These roads made even remote areas of the state accessible and allowed the boom to spread. On a daily basis up to 20,000 people were arriving in the state. Besides the inexpensive property, Florida's legislative prohibition on income and inheritance taxes also encouraged more people to move into the state.

Work on the Tamiami Trail resumed after the war ended. However, by 1921, Lee County had run out of funds, and work again halted (Burnett 1988:41–44). In the meantime, Jaudon surveyed and staked out the most feasible route. In the spring of 1923, a group of Lee County promoters organized a motorcade to attract public interest and demonstrate that automobile travel across the

Everglades was possible. On April 4, 1923, these motorists, called the "Trail Blazers," left Fort Myers to drive across the flooded and rock-bottomed prairies of the Everglades (Figure 8). The expedition, which consisted of ten cars, 23 men, and two Seminole-Miccosukee guides, took 23 days to reach Miami and captured the attention of the nation as daily reports were wired to the press (Federal Writers' Project 1984:406; Covington 1993:202; Gaby 1993:163).



Figure 8: Trailblazers on the Tamiami Trail, 1923 (Courtesy of Florida Memory)

This trip stimulated interest in building the highway and also demonstrated the viability of overland automobile traffic across the Everglades. Following this journey, Barron G. Collier, a millionaire tycoon with more than one million acres in southern Lee County, guaranteed completion of the highway. Collier's guarantee to complete the Tamiami Trail was contingent on the establishment of a new county, to be called Collier County, in what was then southern Lee County. It also required the re-routing of the road across Collier's holdings in this new county, thereby bypassing Monroe County and Jaudon's original Chevalier Bay tract.

Collier County officially came into being in 1923 (Tebeau 1966:108). The newly created Collier County issued \$350,000 in bonds to pay for the Tamiami Trail and work began again in 1923. By 1924, Jaudon reported that 42 or 34 miles of the Trail in Miami-Dade County had been completed by the J. B. McCrary Company (Jaudon n.d.). Collier's financing was depleted by 1926, when the State Road Department took over the final 12 miles of the Everglades section of the road, the most difficult, in order to link it with the Miami-Dade County portion, as well as the work from Naples to the Lee County line. When the 143-mile-long Tamiami Trail officially opened on April 25, 1928, it had taken thirteen years to build at a cost of \$13 million (Tebeau 1966:220–232; Burnett 1988:41–44).

In 1923, the President of Seaboard Air Line Railroad, Mr. S. Davies Warfield, initiated a move to extend a line from the existing Coleman station in Sumter County, Florida to West Palm Beach, with the ultimate goal of connecting the line to Miami. After Warfield organized the quick purchase of over 160,000 acres, construction began on the West Palm Beach branch in the summer of 1924. Over 204 miles of nearly straight track from Coleman to West Palm Beach were completed in fall 1925. Immediately following this expeditious construction, work on the line connecting West Palm Beach and Miami was initiated, and by the end of the year the line was extended from Miami to Homestead.

Miami was also an important early center for the aviation industry. In the late 1920s, the Miami International Airport was a small airport on the south side of NW 36th Street and south of Miami Springs, known as Pan American Field. The land was purchased from the Seminole Fruit and Land Company. The small airport consisted of two hangars, two runways, and a terminal building. The terminal building featured a stucco and glass dome, a restaurant, and separate waiting rooms for departures and arrivals and was considered the first modern terminal in the Country. By the end of the 1920s, Pan American Field was the number one airfield in the United States (Miami Air Traffic Control Tower n.d.).

The boom of the 1920s transformed the small southern resort town of Miami into a metropolis. As a resort destination, Miami had a "season" that began in December and ended in early April. The real estate boom was created in part by the desirable sub-tropical climate of the area, the abundance of available land created by the draining of the Everglades, and the visions and schemes of promoters and developers. The boom brought Miami into the national spotlight as investors, speculators, and hopeful new residents poured into town from all over the United States (Parks 1991:107). Nationally known architectural firms like Schultze and Weaver, and Kiehnel and Elliott opened Miami offices and designed major new buildings. Several of the historic buildings that remain in downtown Miami are legacies of the boom era.

In October 1920, the "Chaille Plan" of renaming streets was adopted. Chaille, then a Miami City Council member, proposed a system that would divide Miami into four quadrants. The dividing line separating north from south was Flagler Street (formerly 12th Street), and Miami Avenue (formerly Avenue "D") separated the east from west quadrants (Kleinberg 1989:106). Bayfront Park and Biscayne Boulevard (formerly Biscayne Drive) were developed on land pumped up from Biscayne Bay that dramatically increased the availability of waterfront land. Before long, scaffolding for new skyscrapers would rise, creating Miami's first skyline. The suburbs were

pushed out in all directions, freeing up more and more central city property for commercial development. The growing popularity of the automobile fueled Miami's growth in the 1920s. The increased mobility of the population, their disposable income and the availability of leisure time resulted in the migration of all classes of people who responded to the marketing of Miami's sub-tropical delights (CMPD 1987:8).

Between 1920 and 1925, the population of Miami more than doubled and large-scale massive efforts were underway to replace the buildings constructed during the city's pioneer days with "modern" ones. During the height of the boom, land prices could double or triple in just one day. Front-page stories in major newspapers replaced paid advertisements as the means of promoting South Florida.

During this period, the city demolished the old docks in order to create new land for a bayfront park and wide boulevards. Several small communities developed throughout Miami-Dade County as new land was acquired and former agricultural areas gave way to subdivisions. Opa-Locka, Miami Springs, Hialeah, Buena Vista, Shorecrest, Allapattah, and Flagami were just a few of the new place names in Miami-Dade County. In 1925, the City annexed Buena Vista, Lemon City, Allapattah, Little River, Silver Bluff, and Coconut Grove thereby creating Greater Miami (Parks 1991:118). The largest of these new subdivisions included Miami Shores, Miami Beach, and Coral Gables.

By the end of 1925, over-speculation and over-development threatened the Miami region's vigorous and unprecedented growth. Housing was scarce, more lots were for sale than could be sold, more acreage was available than could be portioned into subdivisions, and prices were out of proportion to the value (Parks 1991:118; Sessa 1950:353). Then, in August of 1925, the FEC Railway announced an embargo on all carload freight except fuel, petroleum, livestock and perishable goods (Sessa 1950:264–265). Soon after, steamship companies followed suit and refused to bring in any additional goods until buyers cleared out the backlog of goods that existed in warehouses, freight cars, and steamships in Miami. This embargo threatened the economy of the area by delaying or cutting off the arrival of supplies for building contractors and forcing them to lay off workers. Compounding the problems posed by the embargo was an active anti-Florida campaign in the northern states. Major magazines did exposés on the often unscrupulous practices of Florida developers and warned of the dangers of speculating in Florida real estate. Finally, the capsizing of the *Prinz Valdemar*, a World War I era brigantine undergoing renovations, in the middle of the shipping channel in January 1925 prevented the use of the Miami Harbor for 25 days (Parks 1991:120).

Another blow to the boom came with a hurricane in 1926. Despite the warnings that the area was extremely vulnerable to tropical storms and hurricanes, development of the Miami area continued uninterrupted until the hurricane of September 19, 1926. Because there had not been a major storm in Miami-Dade County for 16 years, the 1926 hurricane took the area completely by surprise (Tebeau 1980:387). Before South Florida could completely recover from the storm of 1926, another more powerful hurricane struck the coast near West Palm Beach. The September 16, 1928 storm washed out part of the Okeechobee dike causing massive flooding and casualties (Tebeau 1980:388). Damage to the coastal areas was staggering, and Florida's land boom turned to bust.

By the time the stock market collapsed in 1929, Florida was suffering from an economic depression. Construction activity had halted and industry dramatically declined. Subdivisions platted several years earlier remained empty and buildings stood on lots partially-finished and vacant. The 1929 Mediterranean fruit fly infestation that devastated citrus groves throughout the state only worsened the recession (Weaver et al. 1996).

Within the project area, the collapse of the "boom" period and the devastating hurricane put an end to any plans to develop the "Sweetwater Groves" area platted earlier in the 1920s by the Pittsburgh-Miami Land Company, thus postponing development in and around the project area until after the Depression (City of Sweetwater 2013).

Depression and New Deal Period (1930–1940)

This era of Florida's history begins with the stock market crash of 1929. As previously discussed, there were several causes for the economic depression in Florida, including the grossly inflated real estate market, two devastating hurricanes, and a fruit fly infestation. During the Great Depression, Florida suffered significantly. Between 1929 and 1933, 148 state and national banks collapsed, more than half of the state's teachers were owed back pay, and a quarter of the residents were receiving public relief (Miller 1990).

The Depression affected most areas of the state's economy. Beef and citrus production declined, manufacturing slowed, and development projects were stopped. Even the railroad industry felt the pressures of the 1930s and had to reduce services and employees. In addition, the increasing use of automobiles lessened the demand for rail travel. Despite the Depression, tourism remained an integral part of the Florida economy during this period. New highways made automobile travel to Florida easy and affordable and more middle-class families were able to vacation in the "Sunshine State" (Miller 1990).

During the Great Depression, the Miami region fared better than many areas, as tourism helped keep the local economy active. The city really regained its vigor when it was rebuilt through the policies of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal (Sessa 1950:350). Federal Emergency Relief Agency (FERA) funds were released to the unemployed, and the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) improved existing parks and made new parks, such as Matheson Hammock and Greynolds Park, which became the nucleus of Miami's future park system. By 1935, the Works Progress Administration (WPA) was in Miami and new public buildings were constructed. WPA construction projects provided jobs to construction workers. Other WPA projects employed artists, writers, and teachers to teach art to children, prepare guidebooks to Miami, and develop theater and music projects. The Red Cross, WPA, and FERA were the major organizations responsible for funding and labor of the rehabilitation projects throughout the state. However, the American Legion, local and amateur radio stations, volunteers and newspapers also played a valuable role. During the 1930s, Miami continued to attract working middle class tourists who wished to escape the gloom of the Great Depression. By the late 1930s, Miami was experiencing a financial recovery, ahead of most of the rest of the nation.

In the 1930s, Pan American moved most of its operations to Dinner Key where its "flying boat airline" could succeed near the water. Pan American Field was being used primarily for maintenance until Eastern Airlines relocated there in 1934. In 1937, National Airlines followed Eastern and Pan American Field was renamed the 36th Street Airport (Miami Air Traffic Control Tower n.d.).

Disaster struck on Labor Day of 1935, when a devastating hurricane with wind speeds of more than 200 miles per hour hit South Florida and the Keys, killing thousands and causing several million dollars in building damage. The major fatalities were World War I veterans working on the Overseas Highway extension who were housed in tents and temporary barracks (Hopkins 1986:51).

Following the storm, businesses and homes were destroyed, as was Flagler's railroad, which was in receivership; the bankruptcy courts ruled against rebuilding. The FEC Railway went bankrupt; the railroad was abandoned, and its tracks and cars lay in ruins (Wilkinson n.d.: 1).

Development in and around the project area had not occurred even though Sweetwater Groves had been platted in the 1920s. Figure 3 shows the project area in 1938 and the lack of development beyond a few isolated homesites and the Tamiami Trail and Tamiami Canal. Interest in the land near the project area was rekindled in 1938, when Clyde Andrews purchased most of the lots within the "Sweetwater Groves" tract and began marketing them. At this time, a troupe of Russian little people who worked for a circus purchased most of the lots as retirement homes. The retired circus troupe settled in Sweetwater and constructed several small-scaled homes that accommodated their stature. For many years, Sweetwater was known as the "midget" community (City of Sweetwater 2013).

It was also at this time that the Sweetwater Bridge, located near the project APE, was erected (circa 1938), three years before the incorporation of the town in 1941. This bridge originally carried SW 109th Avenue across the Tamiami Canal and remained the only bridge connecting Sweetwater to the Tamiami Trail until 1970 when a bridge on SW 107th Avenue was constructed (Metropolitan Dade County Historic Preservation Board 1984).

World War II and the Post-War Period (1941–1949)

From the end of the Great Depression until after the close of the post-war era, Florida's history was inextricably bound with World War II and its aftermath. It became one of the nation's major training grounds for the military including foreign fighters. Prior to this time, tourism had been the state's major industry. During the War, tourism was brought to a halt as tourist and civilian facilities, such as hotels and private homes, were placed into wartime service. The influx of thousands of servicemen and their families increased industrial and agricultural production in Florida and introduced these new residents to the warm weather and tropical beauty of Florida.

Railroads once again profited, since servicemen, military goods and materials needed to be transported. However, airplanes were now becoming the new form of transportation, and Florida continued to be an important center for the airline industry. The highway system was also being

expanded at this time. The State Road Department constructed 1,560 miles of highway during the war era (Miller 1990).

In 1941, the community of "Sweetwater Groves" was incorporated as the Town of Sweetwater. Joe Sanderlin, who served as the Russian circus little people troupe's guardian and manager, was elected the first mayor (City of Sweetwater 2013).

With the outbreak of World War II, the military and federal expenditures in the state tripled the income of the entire state and the population increased by roughly 25 percent. Miami and Miami Beach became integral to the war effort by providing war camps and major training centers for the Armed Forces. By the end of 1942, many of the area's once empty hotels had become barracks for the Army Air Force Officers Candidate School, an Officers Training School and a basic training center. Other hotels were turned into hospitals, golf courses were transformed into drill fields, fancy restaurants and clubs became mess halls, and churches and synagogues were used for classrooms. The establishment of the Homestead Army Air Base greatly influenced the expansion of south Miami-Dade's economy. The base was primarily utilized as a transportation depot and training station for the Air Transport Command. The base facilities were rebuilt and reactivated under the auspices of the Strategic Air Command (George 1995:136–137).

After the war, there was a huge influx of cash from federal agencies. The Federal Security Administration built roads, bridges and public improvements. Tourism quickly rebounded and once again became a major source of the state's economy. The end of the war also brought an influx of new residents to the area as former soldiers who had trained in Florida decided to settle in the state permanently. Consequently, Miami experienced a post-war boom. The Veterans Administration began to disburse millions of dollars in benefits to ex-GIs. The Federal Housing Authority guaranteed the financing of 15,000 new homes each year (Safford 1950:58). Between 1940 and 1950, the population nearly doubled, and new subdivisions of small concrete block homes dotted what had once been the outskirts of Miami (Parks 1991:168–170).

Sometime between the years 1944 and 1947, the establishment of the original Tamiami Airport took place (Figure 9). This airport was located on the property that would eventually become the FIU campus. This earlier airport should not be confused with the present-day Miami Executive Airport, which is located farther to the southwest. The original Tamiami Airport was damaged by a hurricane in 1947, which flooded the runways and caused training operations to be temporarily shifted to Opa-Locka Airport (Freeman 2013).



Figure 9: 1947 aerial photograph showing Tamiami Trail (US 41) looking west with Tamiami Airport in the left background (Courtesy of George W. Young)

The flooding associated with a 1945 storm and two smaller hurricanes in 1947 prompted the Florida Legislature to create the Central & Southern Florida Flood Control District. The organization, renamed the South Florida Water Management District in 1972, was responsible for designing, building, and maintaining the massive system of canals, levees, and pumping stations protecting low-lying communities and opening new areas to development (Mormino 2005). While the post-war economic boom, expansion of the Air Command base, and improved flood control combined to spur unprecedented growth in south Miami-Dade County, these factors also put pressure on the federal government to protect the Everglades from encroaching development. President Harry S. Truman dedicated Everglades National Park during ceremonies in the town of Everglades on December 6, 1947; a smaller ceremony was held that afternoon at Florida City, acknowledging the town as the eastern gateway and only entrance by road into the park (Tebeau 1968:180). With the establishment of the park, the Miccosukee lands within its boundaries became property of the federal government and many were forced to move to reservations set aside for them (Downs 1982).

Modern Period (1950 to present)

By 1950 the population of the City of Miami had reached 172,000 residents while the county had reached 495,000 people. During the 1950s, the incorporation of several municipalities in Miami-Dade County signaled that the population was indeed swelling. By 1955, the county population was up to 715,000 residents. In 1956, the Miami NAACP chapter demanded an end to segregation in Miami-Dade County buses and a federal suit was filed to end segregation in public Florida schools. The first Black police station was constructed in a few years earlier in 1951. In 1959, The Miami-Dade County school board accepted four black students at Orchard Villa Elementary, becoming the first integrated public school in Florida. In 1960, Downtown Miami was the first place in Florida to integrate lunch counters and integration was ordered at the Miami police training school.

One of the most significant developments in Miami's history during the second half of the twentieth century was the influx of tens of thousands of Cuban immigrants to the United States. Fidel Castro's rise to power in Cuba led to the exodus of over 800,000 Cubans over the course of a 35-year span. The most dramatic impact came from the periods shortly before and after the ousting of Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista in 1959. "The first emigres who came in 1958 were, according to the history of the time, followers of General Fulgencio Batista, the dictator who had taken power in a 1952 military coup" (Wasem 2009). Predicting the political shift, many of Batista's followers fled to Miami.

After Fidel Castro took power in 1959, the exodus escalated and peaked in 1962 with the arrival of approximately 78,000 refugees. Cuba's upper and middle classes were those most likely to suffer from Castro's communist reign and were the first group to flee. This exodus lead to a general 'brain drain' from Cuba. As many of these early refugees were urbanites with formal educations, training, and business experience they found South Florida a natural fit and worked to relocate their businesses and Cuban culture to South Florida.

This wave of immigration made Miami one of the nation's largest immigration ports in the latter half of the twentieth century. Cuban immigrants created their own ethnic communities within Miami, particularly in areas such as Hialeah and Little Havana (formerly known as Riverside/Shenandoah). Because many of those arriving in the first wave of immigration possessed professional and business backgrounds, the economies of these ethnic communities boomed, creating jobs and industry for Spanish speakers in the area. The Cuban Refugee Program and Refugee Emergency Center were established in 1960 by the federal government, in cooperation with social service organizations and religious groups, notably the Catholic Archdiocese of Miami. The emergency center was established in the Miami Daily News Tower in downtown. When it reopened, the building was renamed the Freedom Tower. The Freedom Tower quickly became a symbol of the refuge immigration for Miami's Cuban community.

The Cuban population in the United States grew almost six-fold within a decade, from 79,000 in 1960 to 439,000 in 1970. While thousands of these immigrants initially resettled throughout the United States, many returned to Miami. At the time of the 1960 census, over 40% of Florida's

foreign-born population resided in Miami-Dade County. Nearly 60% of all Cubans in the United States resided in Miami thirty years after the immigration wave began (Gannon 1996: 404-406).

The third wave of Cuban immigration occurred during what is now referred to as "The Mariel Boatlift." Castro's communist regime generally prohibited emigration but on several occasions, he allowed people to leave without repercussion. The largest instance was the 1980 Mariel Boatlift during which approximately 124,800 Cubans fled to Florida by boat (Batalova and Zong 2017; Nolin 2016; Wasem 2009). Immigrants of this time period were referred to in Spanish as "Marielitos."

Under the Cuban Adjustment Act of 1966, immigrants who resided in the United States after one year were eligible to become lawful permanent residents. However, mounting costs of accepting so many immigrants from the Mariel Boatlifts forced Congress to establish the "Immigration Emergency Fund" in the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act. This Fund provided federal aid to "regions and communities facing more general health and safety problems due to overcrowded and unsuitable living conditions that rise when mass migration occurs" (Wasem 2009).

During the 1950s, the original Tamiami Airport remained a busy general aviation airport. During the Cuban Missile Crisis in 1962, a surplus control tower from Miami International Airport ("Old Tower #5") was reassembled at the original Tamiami Airport, presumably to handle an influx of deployed military aircraft. The original Tamiami Airport was listed in the 1962 Aircraft Owners and Pilots Association (AOPA) Airport Directory as having three asphalt runways. The operators were listed as Avex Inc., American Aviation, Embry Riddle Aviation, Howe Aviation, Kendall Flying School, Miami Executive Aircraft, Mike's Flying Service, Great Southern Aircraft Corp., and Tursair Inc. (Freeman 2013). Figure 10 below shows the original Tamiami Airport on a historic aerial from 1956 and Figure 11 shows its location on a historic map. Figure 12 shows the Kendall Flying School, located at the Tamiami Airport (Freeman 2013).



Figure 10: 1956 USDA aerial photograph of the original Tamiami Airport (the Project APE is located east and just outside the area of this photograph) (*Courtesy of Paul Freeman*)



Figure 11: The original Tamiami Airport, as depicted on an early-1960s FDOT street map (Courtesy of Paul Freeman)



Figure 12: An undated photo of a Piper Tri-Pacer in front of the office of Kendall Flying School Inc. at Tamiami Airport (*Courtesy of Paul Freeman*)

By the late 1950s, Sweetwater had seen much development and attracted a population of over 500 people. The little town boasted a town hall, church, grocery store, service station, and 183 private residences. A two-man police force, as well as a volunteer fire department, was established to patrol the town.

The Palmetto Expressway was constructed in 1960, and construction of the Dolphin Expressway began in 1967 and was opened to the public in 1969. Originally called the East-West Expressway, it was renamed the Dolphin Expressway after the Miami Dolphins won the Superbowl in 1973 and in 1974. The construction of these roads impacted the town of Sweetwater drastically. With easier access to Miami, the small town quickly became a popular choice of residency.

By the mid-1960s, most of the tenants at Tamiami Airport had relocated to Opa-Locka Airport. In 1967, the original Tamiami Airport (near the project area) was replaced by the new Tamiami Airport (Freeman 2013). Figure 4 is an aerial from 1968 that shows that the airport had been decommissioned and non-airport related development was beginning to grow in the previous airport boundaries. The APE was devoid of any historic resources in the 1968 aerial. In 1965, Florida Senator Robert M. Haverfield introduced Senate Bill 711, which instructed the State Board of Education and the Board of Regents (BOR) to begin planning for the development of a state university in Miami. Governor W. Haydon Burns signed the bill into law in June 1965, which was the first step in the creation of FIU (FIU 2013).

In the summer of 1969, founding FIU president Charles E. Perry and three other men, Butler Waugh, Donald McDowell and Nick Sileo, worked to create FIU on the site of the old Tamiami Airport. The campus was laid out to place the former air traffic control tower for Tamiami Airport in the center of campus and designed FIU's Ivory Tower. The tower remains on the campus today, but is located outside of the current project area (Figures 13–14). FIU opened its doors in 1972 to 5,667 students, which was the largest opening enrollment in U.S. collegiate history (FIU 2013).



Figure 13: Chuck Perry, Butler Waugh, Nick Sileo, and Donald McDowell at the old Tamiami Airport tower in September 1969 to officially mark the beginning of FIU (Courtesy of FIU News)



Figure 14: FIU's first president, Charles Perry, standing in from of the University sign, circa 1970s (*Courtesy of FIU Photographic Archive*)

The first class to graduate had 191 students and commencement was held in June 1973. When Chuck Perry left the presidency in 1975, there were over 10,000 students attending classes and a campus with five major buildings and a sixth being planned (FIU 2013).

Under the tenure of President Gregory Wolfe, FIU made the transition from a two-year, upperdivision school with limited graduate programs into a university with a lower division and doctoral programs. The legislature approved the proposal, and in August 1981 the first-ever freshmen and sophomores started to attend classes at FIU. In 1984, FIU received the authority to begin offering degree programs at the doctoral level (FIU 2013).

In addition to the growing curriculum, groundbreaking was held in October 1983 for the first oncampus residence halls at North Campus, which housed 550 students. A \$10 million housing facility for 738 students opened at University Park in 1985. By the time President Wolfe retired in 1986, FIU had grown to more than 16,500 students and facilities were rapidly increasing (FIU 2013).

In 1986 when President Modesto A. "Mitch" Maidique was appointed, FIU was ranked by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching as a Master's university. Today, it is classified as a Doctoral/Research University-Extensive - the highest, most prestigious ranking. The University also opened a 38-acre satellite campus, the Engineering Center one-half mile from the main University campus. The face of FIU's campuses has also changed dramatically under President Maidique's leadership. More than \$600 million was spent on construction of new

facilities or renovation and expansion of existing facilities, including the \$40 million eight-story Green Library at University Park, one of the largest in the state system. Several other major construction projects have also taken place, which continue to expand the facilities to meet the ever-growing needs of the University. In recent years, FIU has also become one of the community's major cultural centers (FIU 2013).

In the latter half of the twentieth century, Hurricane Andrew was the single event having the greatest impact on south Miami-Dade County. On August 24, 1992, the category four storm struck the area; Florida City and Homestead were among the communities hit hardest by the hurricane. With winds over 150 mph, Andrew destroyed approximately 85 percent of Florida City's buildings and more than 50 percent of its historic architecture. The hurricane's effects are still evident, with numerous vacant lots and bare foundations throughout the community. In Homestead, more than 99 percent (1,167 of 1,176) of all mobile homes were completely destroyed (Mayfield et al. 1994). The category four storm damaged 75 percent of Homestead Air Force Base, prompting Defense officials to close the active duty base and move military units and families. Since then, the base has been divided, with about 75 percent turned over to the base closure agency and the remainder serving as an Air Force reserve station (*Mobile* 1999).

FLORIDA MASTER SITE FILE SEARCH AND LITERATURE REVIEW

An archaeological and historical literature and background information search pertinent to the project area was conducted to determine the types, chronological placement, and location patterning of cultural resources within the archaeological APE. A review of FMSF data, previous surveys, property appraiser records, and historical research material was conducted to determine the potential for cultural resources within the project APE that are listed, eligible, or considered eligible for listing in the National Register, or that have potential or confirmed human remains. The FMSF is an important planning tool that assists in identifying potential cultural resources issues and resources that may warrant further investigation and protection. It can be used as a guide but should not be used to determine the State Historic Preservation Officer's (SHPO) official position about the significance of a resource.

Previously Conducted Cultural Resource Surveys

The work of previous investigators was reviewed to gather information about the types of precontact and early historic period sites that could be expected to occur within the project APE. A search of pertinent literature and records was conducted to determine the locations of significant and potentially significant resources within the APE, as well as any archaeological and historical assessments of tracts of land within the APE.

A search of FMSF and in-house data identified three previously conducted cultural resource surveys that contain the project APE. FMSF Manuscript Nos. 340, 602, and 2127 are County-wide surveys that did not comprehensively survey the project APE for archaeological or historic resources.

Previously Recorded Archaeological Resources

A search of the FMSF data did not identify any previously recorded archaeological sites within or adjacent to the archaeological APE. The closest archaeological site is the Tamiami Airport (8DA91) site, a Glades period midden located approximately .0.25 miles to the northeast of the APE. It was first documented by D. D. Laxson during the 1950s and revisited by Robert Carr in 1978. The FMSF form notes that this site had been heavily disturbed by a residential development and has not been evaluated by the SHPO. A review of in-house and local cultural resources data identified no Miami-Dade County-designated archaeological sites or zone within the archaeological APE.

Previously Recorded and Potentially Historic Resources

The FMSF data did not identify any previously recorded cultural resources within or adjacent to the historic resources APE. Although the Miami-Dade County Property Appraiser and GIS information indicated that the parcel containing the project area has an actual year built (AYRB) dates of 1972, the review of aerial photographs from 1968, 1971, and 1973 (FDOT, Surveying and Mapping Office 1996–2019) showed that the project area was vacant during the late 1960s and early 1970s. Figure 4 shows the project APE on a 1968 aerial.

METHODS

Archaeological Survey Methods

The archaeological field survey included a surface inspection that consisted of a visual inspection of exposed ground to look for evidence of archaeological sites within the archaeological APE and document current conditions. No subsurface testing was feasible within the APE due to the presence of existing hardscape, landscaping, gravel, spoil piles, underground utilities. Standard archaeological methods for recording field data were followed throughout the project. Current field conditions were recorded on maps of the archaeological APE included in Attachment B.

Historic Resources Survey Methods

A visual inspection was conducted to ensure that any resource built during or prior to 1972 within the historic resources APE was identified, mapped, and photographed. The historic resources survey used standard field methods to identify and record historic resources. All resources within the APE received a preliminary visual reconnaissance. Any resource with features indicative of 1972 or earlier construction materials, building methods, or architectural styles was noted on aerial photographs and a USGS Quadrangle map.

In addition to a search of the FMSF, GIS datasets were utilized to approximate construction dates within the project corridor. GIS datasets usually yield the majority of the historic resources located within the project corridor. The project architectural historian identified any resource not accounted for by this information in the field based on aforementioned methods.

Each resource's individual significance was then evaluated for its potential eligibility for inclusion in the National Register. Historic physical integrity was determined from site observations, field data, and photographic documentation. Concentrations of historic resources within or adjacent to the APE were assessed in terms of the potential for inclusion in historic districts. If a potential historic district was present, each resource's present condition, location relative to other resources, and distinguishing neighborhood characteristics were noted and photographed for accurate assessment of National Register Historic District eligibility.

Local Informants and Certified Local Government Coordination

Local informants may often provide valuable information which is otherwise not available through official records or library collections. Miami-Dade County is listed on the September 16, 2019 list of Certified Local Governments (CLG) posted on the Florida Division of Historical Resources' website (FDHR 2019). Mr. Jeff Ransom, Miami-Dade County Archaeologist was contacted on January 10, 2020 and Ms. Sarah Cody, Historic Preservation Chief for Miami-Dade County, was contacted on January 14, 2020 for comment on the proposed project. Mr. Ransom responded on January 13, 2020 that his office did not have any cultural resources concerns regarding the project. As of the date of this report, no response has been received from Ms. Cody's office.

PROJECT RESEARCH DESIGN AND SITE LOCATION MODEL

The background research and literature review, in conjunction with pertinent environmental variables, contributed to the formulation of project-specific field methods designed to locate and evaluate previously unrecorded archaeological sites within the archaeological APE. Four environmental factors are typically used to help predict site locations: distance to fresh (potable) water, topography, distance to hardwood hammocks, and soil type (soil drainage).

Fresh water is an important resource, as the need for water is universal. This variable would have been of greater importance during the Paleoindian and Early Archaic periods (12,000–5000 BC) when the perched water system was more restricted. The APE was formerly located in the Everglades, which would have provided ample access to fresh water. The APE is low and lacks significant topographic features. Elevation ranges between 3 and 7 feet ASL.

The presence of tree islands or hardwood hammocks serve as reliable indicators of site location in southern Florida. Their use by precontact, Seminole and modern hunters, campers and permanent residents is well documented. One obvious reason for their use is that they are not prone to flooding, except during episodes of very high water. Yet, hammocks are moist enough to retard the development and spread of fires. The thick foliage of hammocks also provides a great deal of shade as well as serving to moderate temperatures year-round. The thick canopies of hammocks also provide good shelter during periods of heavy weather. Mature hammocks are noted for a lack of ground cover vegetation due to the closed canopy above shading out younger trees, herbs and shrubs. Thus, mature hammocks offer enough open space for habitation and activity areas. Many fruits, nuts and tubers are available in hammocks that are important as human food sources as well as for their ability to attract game animals. The review of aerial photographs did not identify any hammocks or tree islands within the APE.

In southern Florida, historic period sites frequently co-occur with precontact archaeological sites. This is often the result of environmental conditions found desirable by both groups: better-drained uplands near transportation routes (i.e., historic trails and major rivers). The review of the 1845 historic plat map did not identify any military forts, roads, encampments, battlefields, or historic Native American villages or trails within or adjacent to the APE.

The characteristics of soils have been used successfully by researchers to formulate predictive models for precontact site location. In general, soils with an organic pan, with underlying marl or clays, and with slow to moderate internal drainage tend to retain water or be inundated. Areas with a low elevation relative to perched water systems tend to be wet or inundated. Although wet areas can contain abundant wildlife and plant resources, they make poorer habitation areas when better-drained locations are available. The APE is on poorly drained soils associated with the Everglades.

Currently, the proposed project is located in vacant lot that has been drained and filled. The lot contains hardscape, landscaping, grass, gravel parking area, spoil piles, and underground utilities. Based on the nature of the proposed improvements, the analysis of environmental variables, and the level of modification within the project area, the archaeological APE was determined to have a low probability of containing intact archaeological sites.

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

No newly or previously recorded archaeological sites were identified within the project APE. The pedestrian survey confirmed the low archaeological potential of the archaeological APE. The visual inspection of the project area identified spoil piles, areas elevated by fill, and several underground utilities. No subsurface testing was conducted due to the presence of hardscape, landscaping, gravel, spoil piles, and underground utilities. Representative photos of the archaeological APE are in included in Figures 6–8. Notes on current conditions are illustrated in Appendix B.

No historic resources or features associated with the historic airport were identified during the field reconnaissance.



Figure 15: Parking Lot in the Archaeological APE from SW 17th Court, Facing Northeast



Figure 16: Utilities along the Western Boundary of the Archaeological APE, Facing East



Figure 17: Hardscape and Utilities in the Archaeological APE, Facing Southeast

Unanticipated Finds

Although unlikely, should construction activities uncover any archaeological material, it is recommended that activity in the immediate area be stopped while a professional archaeologist evaluates the material. If human remains are found during construction or maintenance activities, Chapter 872.05, *F.S.* applies and the treatment of human remains will conform to Chapter 3 of the FDOT *CRM Handbook*. Chapter 872.05 states that, when human remains are encountered, all activity that might disturb the remains shall cease and may not resume until authorized by the District Medical Examiner or the State Archaeologist. The District Medical Examiner has jurisdiction if the remains are less than 75 years old or if the remains are involved in a criminal investigation. The State Archaeologist may assume jurisdiction if the remains are 75 years of age or more.

Curation

A copy of this report is curated at the FMSF. A survey log is included in Appendix C. Field notes and other pertinent project records are temporarily stored at Janus Research until their transfer to the FDOT storage facilities.

REFERENCES

Almy, Marion

- 1976 A Survey and Assessment of Known Archaeological Sites in Sarasota County, Florida. Master's thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of South Florida, Tampa.
- 1978 The Archaeological Potential of Soil Survey Reports. The Florida Anthropologist 31(3):75– 91.
- Andrews, R. L., J. M. Adovasio, B. Humphrey, D.C. Hyland, J.S. Gardner, and D.G. Harding, (with J. S. Illingworth and D.E. Strong)
- 2002 Conservation and Analysis of Textile and Related Perishable Artifacts. In *Windover: Multidisciplinary Investigations of an Early Archaic Florida Cemetery*, edited by Glen Doran, pp. 121-165. University Press of Florida, Gainesville.

Batalova, Jeanne and Jie Zong

2017 "Cuban Immigrants in the United States." *Migration Policy Institute*. Published online November 9, 2017. Accessed at https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/cuban-immigrants-united-states.

Brooks, H. K.

1984 Lake Okeechobee. In *Environments of South Florida: Present and Past II* (2d ed.), edited by P. J. Gleason, pp. 38–68. Miami Geological Society, Coral Gables.

Brown, Canter, Jr.

1991 Florida's Peace River Frontier. University of Central Florida Press, Orlando.

Bullen, Ripley P.

- 1955 Stratigraphic Tests at Bluffton, Volusia County, Florida. *Florida Anthropologists* 8:1–16.
- 1954 Further Notes on the Battery Point Site, Bayport, Hernando County, Florida. *The Florida Anthropologist* 7: 103-108.
- 1972 The Orange Period of Peninsular Florida. In Fiber-tempered Pottery in Southeastern United States and Northern Colombia: Its Origins, Context, and Significance, edited by R. P. Bullen and J. B. Stoltman, pp.9–33. Florida Anthropological Society Publications 6, Gainesville.

Bullen, R. P., A. K. Bullen, and C. J. Clausen

1968 The Cato Site Near Sebastian Inlet, Florida. *The Florida Anthropologist* 21:14–16.

Burnett, G. M.

1988 Florida's Past, Volume 2: People and Events that Shaped the State. Pineapple Press, Sarasota.

Carr, Robert S.

1986 Preliminary Report on Excavations at the Cutler Fossil Site in Southern Florida. Paper presented at the 38th annual meeting of the Florida Anthropological Society, Gainesville.

2002 The Archaeology of Everglades Tree Islands. In *Tree Islands of the Everglades*, edited by Fred H. Sklar and Arnold Van der Valk, pp. 187-206. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston.

Carr, Robert S., Amy Felmley, Richard Ferrer, Willard S. Steele, and Jorge Zamanillo

1991 An Archaeological Survey of Broward County, Florida: Phase One. AHC Technical Report #34. Archaeological and Historical Conservancy, Miami. Manuscript on file, Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

City of Sweetwater

2013 Sweetwater History. Accessed online at http://cityofsweetwater.fl.gov/about.htm on December 16, 2013.

Clement, Gail

2002 Everglades Timeline. Available online at http://everglades.fiu.edu/reclaim/timeline/.

Cushing, Frank H.

1896 Exploration of Ancient Key Dwellers' Remains on the Gulf Coast of Florida. *Proceedings: American Philosophical Society* Volume 35 (153):329–448

Covington, James W.

1993 The Seminoles of Florida. University Press of Florida, Gainesville.

Daniel, I. Randolph and Michael Wisenbaker

1987 Harney Flats: A Florida Paleo-Indian Site. Baywood Press, Farmingdale, New York.

Davis, T. Fredrick

1938 The Disston Land Purchase. *The Florida Historical Quarterly* 17(3):200–210.

Davis, Joe, and Robert S. Carr

1993 An Archaeological and Historical Assessment of the Weston Increment III Area, Phase II, Broward County, FL. AHC Technical Report #79, Archaeological and Historical Conservancy, Miami. Manuscript on file, Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

Dickel, David N., and Glen H. Doran

2002 An Environmental and Chronological Overview of the Region. In *Windover: Multidisciplinary Investigations of an Early Archaic Florida Cemetery*, edited by Glen H. Doran, pp. 39–58. University Press of Florida, Gainesville.

Dixon, E.J.

1999 Human Colonization of the Americas: Timing, Technology, and Process. *Quaternary Science Reviews* 1–68.

Downs, Dorothy

1982 Miccosukee Arts and Crafts. Miami: Miccosukee Tribe of Indians of Florida.

Dunbar, James and Ben I. Waller.

1983 A Distribution Analysis of the Clovis/Suwannee Paleoindian Sites of Florida—A Geographic Approach. *The Florida Anthropologist* 36(1-2):18–30.

Farr, Grayal Earle

2006 A Reevaluation of Bullen's Typology for Preceramic Projectile Points. M.A. Thesis, Department of Anthropology, Florida State University, Tallahassee.

Federal Writers' Project of the Work Projects Administration for the State of Florida

1984 The WPA Guide to Florida: The Federal Writer's Project Guide to 1930s Florida. Pantheon Books, New York.

Florida Department of Environmental Protection (FDEP)

- 1845a Plat Map for Township 54 South, Range 40 East. Division of State Lands, Board of Trustees Land Document System. Electronic document, http://labins.org/survey_data/ landrecords/landrecords.cfm/, accessed December 26, 2019.
- 1846 Surveyor's Field Notes for Township 54 South, Range 40 East. Field Notes. Division of State Lands, Board of Trustees Land Document System. Electronic document, http://labins.org/survey_data/landrecords/landrecords.cfm/, accessed December 26, 2019.

Florida Department of Transportation (FDOT), Office of Surveying and Mapping

1996–2019 Aerial Photography Archive. Electronic documents, https://fdotewp1.dot. state.fl.us/AerialPhotoLookUpSystem/, accessed December 26, 2019.

Fradkin, A.

1976 The Wightman Site: A Study of Prehistoric Culture and Environment on Sanibel Island, Lee County, Florida. Master's thesis on file Department of Anthropology, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.

Florida International University (FIU)

- 2013 History. Accessed online at http://www.fiu.edu/about-us/history/index.html on December 16, 2013.
- 2013 Brief History. Accessed online at http://www2.fiu.edu/docs/brief_history2.htm on December 16, 2013.

Freeman, Paul

2013 Abandoned & Little-Known Airfields: Florida: Central Miami Area. Accessed online at http://www.airfields-freeman.com/FL/Airfields_FL_Miami_C.htm on December 16, 2013.

Gaby, Donald C.

1993 *The Miami River and Its Tributaries*. The Historical Association of South Florida, Miami, Florida.

Gannon, Michael

- 1965 *The Cross in the Sand: The Early Catholic Church in Florida 1513–1870.* University of Florida Press, Gainesville.
- 1996 The New History of Florida. Gainesville: University of Florida Press.

George, Paul S.

1995 *A Journey Through Time: A Pictorial History of South Dade*. The Donning Company Publishers, Virginia Beach, Virginia.

Grange, Roger T., Jr., Mildred Fryman and J. Raymond Williams

1979 A Phase I Study of the Deltona Corporation Property on State Road 581 in Hillsborough County, Florida: Prepared for the Deltona Corporation. Manuscript on file, Florida Department of State, Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

Grismer, Karl

- 1949 The Story of Ft. Myers. St. Petersburg Printing Co., St. Petersburg, Florida.
- Gleason, P. J., A. D. Cohen, P. Stone, W. G. Smith, H. K. Brooks, R. Goodrick, and W. Spackman, Jr.
- 1984 The Environmental Significance of Holocene Sediments from the Everglades and Saline Tidal Plain. In *Environments of South Florida: Present and Past II*, edited by P. J. Gleason, pp. 297-351. Miami Geological Society, Coral Gables

Goggin, John M.

- 1939 A Ceramic Sequence for South Florida. New Mexico Anthropologist 3:35–40.
- 1950 Cultural Occupation at Goodland Point, Florida. The Florida Anthropologist 2:65–91.
- n.d. The Archaeology of the Glades Area, Southern Florida. [Written about 1949, with additions in subsequent years into the 1950s.] Typescript. Manuscript on file, Florida Museum of Natural History, Gainesville, Florida.

Griffin, John W.

- 1988 The Archaeology of Everglades National Park: A Synthesis. Contract CX 5000-5-0049. SEAC.
- 2002 Archaeology of the Everglades. University Press of Florida, Gainesville.
- Griffin, J. W., S. B. Richardson, M. Pohl, C. D. MacMurray, C. M. Scarry, S. K. Fish, E. S. Wing, L. J. Loucks, and M. K. Welch
- 1982 *Excavations at the Granada Site: Archaeology and History of the Granada Site, Volume I.* Florida Division of Archives, History and Records Management, Tallahassee, Florida.

Harner, Charles E.

1973 Florida's Promoters: The Men Who Made It Big. Trend House, Tampa.

Hopkins, Alice

1986 *The Development of the Overseas Highway*. Journal of the Historical Association Southern Florida.

Janus Research

1999 Tri-County Commuter Rail Authority Double Track Corridor Improvement Program for Segment 5 Cultural Resource Assessment Survey. Copies available from Janus Research, Tampa, Florida.

Jaudon, James Franklin

- 1917–1934 James Franklin Jaudon Papers. On file at the Historical Museum of Southern Florida, Miami.
- 1924 Letter to the Editor of the *Miami Daily News and Metropolis*, 14 July 1924. James Franklin Jaudon Papers, Box 11, Folder 6. On file at the Historical Museum of Southern Florida, Miami.
- n.d. "The Tamiami Trail." James Franklin Jaudon Papers, Box 11, Folder 10. On file at the Historical Museum of Southern Florida, Miami.

Kleinberg, Howard

1989 Miami: The Way We Were. Miami Daily News, Miami, Florida.

Lane, E. M., S. Knapp and T. Scott

1980 Environmental Geology Series: Fort Pierce Sheet. *Florida Bureau of Geology Map Series* No. 80, Tallahassee, Florida.

Laxson, D. D.

1966 The Turner River Jungle Gardens Site, Collier County, Florida. *The Florida Anthropologist* 19:125–140.

Littman, Sherri Lynn

2000 Pleistocene/Holocene Sea Level Change in the Georgia Bight: A Paleoenvironmental Reconstruction of Gray's Reef National Marine Sanctuary and J Reef. M.A. thesis, Department of Geology, University of Georgia, Athens.

Mahon, John K.

1967 History of the Second Seminole War, 1835–1842. University of Florida Press, Gainesville.

Mann, R. W.

1983 Rails 'Neath the Palms. Darwin Publications, Burbank, California.

Mayfield, Max, Lixion Avila, and Edward N. Rappaport

1994 Annual Summaries: Atlantic hurricane Season of 1992. National Hurricane Center, NWS, NOAA. Coral Gables, Florida. Accessed online https://www.wunderground.com/ hurricane/mwr/1992.pdf. McMichael, Alan

1982 A Cultural Resource Assessment of Horrs Island, Collier County, Florida. Miscellaneous Project Report Series Number 15. Department of Anthropology, Florida State Museum, Gainesville, Florida.

Metropolitan Dade County Historic Preservation Board

- 1984 Designation Report for the Sweetwater Bridge. On file at the Miami-Dade County Planning Department, Historic and Archeological Resources, Miami, Florida.
- Miami Air Traffic Control Tower
- n.d *Miami International Airport History and Tower History*. Available online at http://www.faa.gov/ats/atct/miatct/history.html

Miami-Dade County Recorders Office

1923 *Sweetwater Groves Plat.* Available online at https://onlineservices.miamidadeclerk.com/officialrecords/StandardSearch.aspx.

Milanich, Jerald T.

1994 Archaeology of Precolumbian Florida. University Presses of Florida, Gainesville.

Milanich, Jerald T., Jefferson Chapman, Ann S. Cordell, Stephen Hale, and Rochelle A. Marrinan

1984 Prehistoric Development of Calusa Society in Southwest Florida: Excavations on Useppa Island. In *Perspectives on Gulf Coast Prehistory*, edited by David D. Davis, pp. 258–314. University of Florida Press/FMNH, Gainesville, Florida.

Miller, James J. (compiler)

1990 State of Florida Draft Comprehensive Historic Preservation Plan. Manuscript on file, Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

Mobile

Homestead: District nears completion of \$60 million in work at reserve base. *Mobile* Vol. 21, No. 6, November–December 1999. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Mobile District. Found online at: http://www.sam.usace.army.mil/pa/Novem99/ 9911hom.htm.

Mormino, Gary

2005 *Land of Sunshine, State of Dreams: A Social History of Modern Florida.* Gainesville, University Press of Florida.

Mörner, N. A.

1969 The Late Quaternary History of Kattegat Sea and Swedish West Coast: Deglaciation, Shoreline Displacement Chronology, Isostasy, and Eustacy. *Sveriges Geologiska Undersoknin* 640.

Nolin, Robert

2016 "How Fidel Castro's revolution remade South Florida." *Los Angeles Times*. Published online November 27, 2016. Accessed at https://www.latimes.com/nation/la-na-castro-florida-20161127-story.html.

Parks, Arva Moore

- 1982 Archaeology and History of the Granada Site, Volume II, Where the River Found the Bay: Historical Study of the Granada Site, Miami, Florida. Florida Department of State, Division of Archives, History and Records Management, Tallahassee.
- 1991 The Magic City: Miami. Miami: Centennial Press.

Patricios, Nicholas N.

1994 Building Marvelous Miami. University Press of Florida. Gainesville.

Pepe, James P.

2000 An Archaeological Survey of St. Lucie County, Florida. AHC Technical Report #280. Archaeological and Historical Conservancy, Miami. Copies available from Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

Pepe, James, and Linda Jester

1995 An Archaeological Survey and Assessment of the Mt. Elizabeth Site, 8Mt30, Martin County, Florida. *AHC Technical Report #126*, Miami.

Purdy, Barbara Ann

- 1981 *Florida's Precontact Stone Tool Technology*. University of Florida Press, Gainesville, Florida.
- Purdy, Barbara A., and Laurie M. Beach
- 1980 The Chipped Stone Tool Industry of Florida's Preceramic Archaic. Archaeology of Eastern North America 8:105–124.

Puri, Harbans S., and Robert O. Vernon

1964 Summary of the Geology of Florida and a Guidebook to the Classic Exposures. *Special Publication* No. 5, Florida Geological Survey, Tallahassee, Florida.

Robbins, Graham and Chillingworth Examining Counsel

1897 Abstract of Title to the James Hagan (Egan) Donation.

Russo, Michael

1991 Archaic Sedentism on the Florida Coast: A Case Study from Horr's Island. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, Gainesville.

Russo, Michael, and Gregory Heide

2002 The Joseph Reed Shell Ring. *The Florida Anthropologist* 55(2):55–87.

Safford, Virginia

1950 "Florida Facts and Fancies." *Minneapolis Sunday Tribune*. Weekly Column. March 19, 1950. Page 2F. Accessed online at https://www.newspapers.com/image/180815224.

Sears, William H.

- 1956 The Turner River Site, Collier County, Florida. The Florida Anthropologist 9:47-60.
- 1982 Fort Center: An Archaeological Site in the Lake Okeechobee Basin. *Ripley P. Bullen Monographs in Anthropology and History* No. 4. University Presses of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.

Sessa, Frank Bowman

1950 Real Estate Expansion and Boom in Miami and its Environs during the 1920s. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh.

Scott, Thomas M.

- 1978 *A Geological Overview of Florida*. Florida Bureau of Geology, Open File Report No.50, Tallahassee, Florida.
- 1992 A Geological Overview of Florida. Florida Bureau of Geology, Open File Report No.50, Tallahassee, Florida.

Schwadron, Margo

2006 Everglades Tree Islands Prehistory: Archaeological Evidence for Regional Holocene Variability and Early Human Settlement. *Antiquity* 80(310). Electronic document, http://antiquity.ac.uk/projgall/schwadron/index.html.

Tebeau, Charlton W.

- 1966 *Florida's Last Frontier: The History of Collier County.* (Revised edition.) University of Miami Press, Miami.
- 1968 *Man in the Everglades: 2000 Years of Human History in the Everglades National Park.* Coral Gables: University of Miami Press.
- 1971 A History of Florida. University of Miami Press, Miami.
- 1980 A History of Florida. Revised Edition. University of Miami Press, Miami.

Tischendorf, A. P.

1954 Florida and the British Investor: 1880–1914. *Florida Historical Quarterly* 3(2):120–129.

Torrence, Corbett McP.

1996 From Objects to the Cultural System: A Middle Archaic Columella Extraction Site on Useppa Island. M. A. thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of Florida, Gainesville.

United States Department of Agriculture (USDA)

1958 *Soil Survey (Detailed-Reconnaissance), Dade County Florida.* Series 1947, No. 7. United States Department of Agriculture/Soil Conservation Service.

1996 *Soil Survey of Dade County Area, Florida*. United States Department of Agriculture/Natural Resources Conservation Service.

United States Geological Survey (USGS)

2019 Aerial Photography Database. EarthExplorer Interface. Electronic documents, https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/, accessed January 8, 2020.

University of Florida, George A. Smathers Libraries

1999–2016 Aerial Photography: Florida Collection. University of Florida Digital Collections. Electronic documents, http://ufdc.ufl.edu/aerials/, accessed December 26, 2019.

Upchurch, Sam B., Richard N. Strom, and Mark G. Nuckels

1982 Methods of Provenance Determination of Florida Cherts. Manuscript on file, Geology Department, University of South Florida, Tampa, Florida.

Van Beck, J. C. and L. M. Van Beck

1965 The Marco Midden, Marco Island, Florida. *The Florida Anthropologist* 18:1–20.

Waller, Benjamin I. and James Dunbar

1977 Distribution of Paleo-Indian Projectiles in Florida. The Florida Anthropologist 30:79-80.

Wasem, Ruth Ellen.

2009 Cuban Migration to the United States: Policy and Trends. [Washington, D.C.]: Congressional Research Service, 2009. Accessed online at http://assets.opencrs.com/ rpts/R40566_20090507.pdf.

Watts, W. A., and M. Stuiver

1980 Late Wisconsin Climate of Northern Florida and the Origin of Species Rich Deciduous Forest. *Science* 210:325–327.

Weaver, Paul L. III, Historic Property Associates, Inc., and Pappas Associates, Inc.

1996 Model Guidelines for Design Review: A Guide for Developing Standards for Historic Rehabilitation on Florida Communities. Florida Department of State, Division of Historic Resources, Tallahassee.

Wheeler, Ryan J.

- 1994 *Cultural Resources Survey and Assessment of the Proposed Farr Prison Site, Okeechobee County, Florida.* Environmental Management Systems, Inc. Submitted to Richard T. Creech, Inc. Manuscript on file, Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.
- 2004 Southern Florida Sites associated with the Tequesta and their Ancestors: National Historic Landmark/National Register of Historic Places Theme Study, Florida Division of Historical Resources, Tallahassee.

Wheeler, Ryan J., Wm. Jerald Kennedy, and James P. Pepe

2002 The Archaeology of Coastal Palm Beach County. *The Florida Anthropologist* 55(3-4):119–156.

White, William A.

1970 The Geomorphology of the Florida Peninsula. *Geological Bulletin* No. 51, Bureau of Geology, State of Florida Department of Natural Resources.

Whitehead, P. R.

1973 Late Wisconsin Vegetational Changes in Unglaciated Eastern North America. *Quaternary Research* 3:621–631.

Widmer, Randolph J.

1988 *The Evolution of the Calusa, A Non-Agricultural Chiefdom on the Southwest Florida Coast.* University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

Wiggins, Larry

1995 "The Birth of the City of Miami." *Tequesta*, Number LV. Accessed online at http://digitalcollections.fiu.edu/tequesta/files/1995/95_1_01.pdf.

Wilkinson, Terry

- n.d. *History of Lower Matecumbe Key.* Found on the Keys Historeum of the Historical Preservation Society of the Upper Keys at: http://www.keyshistory.org/lowermatecumbekey.html.
- n.d. *History of Plantation Key*. Found on the Keys Historeum of the Historical Preservation Society of the Upper Keys at: http://www.keyshistory.org/ plantationkey.html.

Wright, Leitch J.

1986 Creeks and Seminoles, Destruction and Regeneration of the Muscogulgee People. University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln. **APPENDIX A:**

PROJECT INFORMATION

VII. ANALYSIS OF IMPACT ON MASTER PLAN

The project is consistent with required elements of the campus master plan including Future Land Use and academic/support facilities described in the Capital Improvement element to accommodate future needs.



VIII. SITE ANALYSIS

The site selected for CasaCuba is on the east side of MMC fronting SW 107th Avenue between SW 16th and SW 17th streets. The building should be located so as not to diminish service and emergency vehicle access for the adjacent buildings.



VIII. SITE ANALYSIS (continued)



VIII. SITE ANALYSIS (continued)

Particular attention must be given to the layout of the building footprint and site arrangement to achieve the following:

- Create a memorable, iconic building image from at a distance for pedestrians on campus and vehicles on 107th Avenue with a readily identifiable main entrance.
- Develop a building plan that establishes a clear linkage with neighborhood facilities allowing for easy pedestrian access between buildings.
- Maintain vehicular access to existing buildings for drop-off, deliveries and unloading/loading trash removal service and emergency vehicles. Maintain access to existing building support facilities including trash rooms, electrical and mechanical rooms, etc.
- VIP and valet parking should be considered.
- Re-work campus roadways and service drives as required.





APPENDIX B:

CURRENT CONDITIONS WITHIN THE ARCHAEOLOGICAL APE





APPENDIX C:

SURVEY LOG

Ent D (FMSF only)

Survey Log Sheet Florida Master Site File Version 5.0 3/19

Survey # (FMSF only)

Consult Guide to the Survey Log Sheet for detailed instructions.

	Manusc	ript Informatio	n		
Survey Project (name and project phase)					
Florida International University	(FIU) CasaCuba	a Project, Mi	lami-Dade Cou	nty, Florida	
Poport Title (averable on an title norm)					
Cultural Recourses Assessment Sur	VAVG (CDAG) O	f the Florida	Internation	al University (FIII) CacaCuba
Project, Miami-Dade County, Flori	da			ai oniversity (FIU) Casacuba
Report Authors (as on title page) 1. Janu	ls Research		3		
2			4		
Publication Year 2020 Number	of Pages in Repo	rt (do not include si	te forms)60	0	
Publication Information (Give series, number in s	eries, publisher and c	ity. For article or ch	apter, cite page num	nbers. Use the style of A	merican Antiquity.)
Janus Research, 1107 N Ward Stree	t, Tampa, FL	33607			
Supervisors of Fieldwork (even if same as autho	r) Names Pepe	, James: Stre	elman, Amv		
Affiliation of Fieldworkers: Organization Janu	s Research			City Tampa	
Kev Words/Phrases (Don't use county name, or co	ommon words like <i>ard</i>	chaeology, structure	. survev, architectu	re, etc.)	
1. FIU 3.		5.	, , ,	7.	
2. CasaCuba 4.		6.		8.	
Survey Spansors (corporation, government unit, a	raphization or poreor				
	ryanization, or persor	(Arganization	-lorida International I Ini	iversity	
Addrose/Phone/E-mail 11555 SW 17th s	St MMC Campus	Uiganization MiamiEL_3	3199		
Recorder of Log Sheet Janus Research	se mie campus,	Filami, Fil 5	Date I n	a Sheet Completed	1-16-2020
In this survey or project a continuation of a	rovious proiost?		Dutie Lo		
	nevious project:		5. Frevious surve	y #\$ (FIVIOF UIIIY)	
	Proiect	t Area Mapping			
	,				
Counties (select every county in which field survey	was done; attach ad	ditional sheet if nec	essary)		
1. Dade	3		5		
2	4		6		
USGS 1.24 000 Man Names/Vear of Latest	Revision (attach ad	ditional sheet if nec	accaru)		
			533al y/		Voor
2 Name	Teal <u>1900</u>	5 Name			
3 Name	Teal	6 Name			
5. Name		U. Name			
	Field Dates and	Project Area D	escription		
Fieldwork Dates: Start <u>12-5-2019</u> End	12-5-2019 d 1	Total Area Surv	veyed (fill in one)	hectares	15.00 acres
If Corridor (fill in one for each) Width:		feet	Length:	kilometers	miles

Page	2
------	---

Survey Log Sheet

Survey #_____

Research and Field Methods				
Types of Survey (select all that apply):	⊠archaeological	⊠architectural	□historical/archival	Dunderwater
	□damage assessment	□monitoring report	other(describe):	
Scope/Intensity/Procedures	-			
Desktop analysis, pedestr historic resources.	ian survey. Visual	inspection of t	he project area o	f potential effect for
Preliminary Methods (select as many	y as apply to the project as a	whole)		
Florida Archives (Gray Building)	□library research- <i>local public</i>	⊠local property	or tax records 🛛 🗵 other hi	storic maps 🛛 LIDAR
Florida Photo Archives (Gray Building)	library-special collection	newspaper file	s 🛛 🗵 soils ma	aps or data 🛛 other remote sensing
Site File property search	Public Lands Survey (maps at I	DEP) 🛛 🗵 literature sear	ch 🗌 windshi	eld survey
Site File survey search	⊠local informant(s)	Sanborn Insur	ance maps 🛛 🛛 🖾 aerial p	hotography
Xother (describe): Janus Librar	У			
Archaeological Methods (select as r	many as annly to the project a	s a whole)		
Check here if NO archaeological meth	nany as apply to the project a			
	Shovel test-other screen siz	e 🗖 bloc	k excavation (at least 2x2 m)	metal detector
Surface collection, uncontrolled		c ⊡siec	resistivity	Dother remote sensing
Shovel test-1/4"screen	Dposthole tests		netometer	The destrian survey
Shovel test-1/8" screen	\square auger tests	□side	scan sonar	
Shovel test 1/16"screen			nd penetrating radar (GPR)	
Shovel test-unscreened	test excavation (at least 1x	2 m) □LIDA	IR	
─ ▼other (describe): Desktop anal	ysis			
Historical/Architectural Methods (Check here if NO historical/architectu building permits commercial permits interior documentation	select as many as apply to the ral methods were used. demolition permits windshield survey local property records	e project as a whole) □neig □occu □occu	hbor interview Ipant interview Ipation permits	□subdivision maps □tax records □unknown
Xother (describe): Visual inspe	ction of the APE			
	:	Survey Results		
Resource Significance Evaluated? Count of Previously Recorded Res List Previously Recorded Site ID# NA	Yes ⊠No cources s with Site File Forms Com	Count of New pleted (attach additional	rly Recorded Resources pages if necessary)	<u> 0 </u>
List Newly Recorded Site ID#s (at NA	tach additional pages if neces	sary)		
Site Forms Used: □Site File F	Paper Forms 🛛 🖾 Site Fi	le PDF Forms		

REQUIRED: Attach Map of Survey or Project Area Boundary

SHPO USE ONLY	SHPO USE ONLY	SHPO USE ONLY		
O rigin of Report: \square 872 \square Public Lands \square UW	□1A32 # □	Academic Contract Avocational		
Grant Project # Compliance Review: CRAT #				
Type of Document: 🛛 Archaeological Survey 🖾 Historical/Architectural Survey 🖾 Marine Survey 🖾 Cell Tower CRAS 🖾 Monitoring Report				
🔲 Overview 🛛 Excavation Report 🖾 Multi-Site Excavation Report 🖾 Structure Detailed Report 🖾 Library, Hist. or Archival Doc				
Desktop Analysis MPS	MRA TG Other:			
Document Destination: Plottable Projects	Plotability:			

