

CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY FOR THE SANDERSON AND WENTWORTH PROJECT

**CITY OF HEMET,
RIVERSIDE COUNTY, CALIFORNIA**

APNs 456-040-028 and -029

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Report Title: Cultural Resources Study for the Sanderson and Wentworth Project, City of Hemet, Riverside County, California (APNs 456-040-028 and -029)

Type of Study: Phase I Cultural Resources Survey

USGS Quadrangle: Section 17, Township 5 South, Range 1 West of the *Winchester, California* (7.5-minute) Quadrangle

Acreage: 5.76 acres

Key Words: Survey; no resources identified; *Winchester* USGS quadrangle; mitigation measures are not recommended.

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MANAGEMENT SUMMARY/ABSTRACT

In response to a request from the project applicant, BFS A Environmental Services, a Perennial Company (BFS A) conducted a cultural resources study for the proposed Sanderson and Wentworth Project. The project will include the development of a vacant 5.76-acre property located west of Sanderson Avenue and southeast of the intersection of Wentworth Drive and Scaramella Circle within the city of Hemet, Riverside County, California. The project, identified as Assessor's Parcel Numbers (APNs) 456-040-028 and -029, is situated within the former San Jacinto Viejo Land Grant, Section 17, Township 5 South, Range 1 West, on the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) (7.5-minute) *Winchester, California* quadrangle. The purpose of this investigation was to locate and record any cultural resources present within the project and subsequently evaluate any resources as part of the City of Hemet's environmental review process conducted in compliance with the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA). The archaeological investigation of the project also includes the review of an archaeological records search performed at the Eastern Information Center (EIC) at the University of California, Riverside (UCR) in order to assess previous archaeological studies and identify any previously recorded archaeological sites within the project or in the immediate vicinity. The records search identified seven resources (one prehistoric and six historic) within a one-mile radius of the project, none of which are located within the project's boundaries. The records search also identified a total of 23 cultural resources studies which have been conducted within one mile of the project. One of these studies includes the entirety of the subject property (Lange 2005). A Sacred Lands File (SLF) search was also requested from the Native American Heritage Commission (NAHC). The results of the SLF records search have yet to be received. All correspondence with the NAHC is provided in Appendix C.

The survey, which took place on March 3, 2023, did not result in the identification of any prehistoric or historic resources within the subject property. Aerial photographs indicate that the entire property has been disced and cultivated for agricultural purposes since at least 1953 and never contained any structures. Further, the property does not contain any natural sources of water or bedrock outcroppings often associated with prehistoric sites in the area. Due to the past agricultural disturbance of the property and the absence of any indications of cultural resources within the project, mitigation monitoring will not be recommended.

Although no monitoring is recommended, the recommendations section of this report includes procedures for the unlikely inadvertent discovery of cultural resources and/or human remains. A copy of this report will be permanently filed with the EIC at UCR. All notes, photographs, and other materials related to this project will be curated at the archaeological laboratory of BFS A in Poway, California.

1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

1.1 **Project Description**

The cultural resources survey program for the Sanderson and Wentworth Project was conducted in order to comply with CEQA and City of Hemet environmental guidelines. The 5.76-acre project (APNs 456-040-028 and -029) is located west of Sanderson Avenue and southeast of the intersection of Wentworth Drive and Scaramella Circle within the city of Hemet, Riverside County, California (Figure 1.1–1). Further, the project is situated within the former San Jacinto Viejo Land Grant, Section 17, Township 5 South, Range 1 West, on the USGS (7.5-minute) *Winchester, California* quadrangle (Figure 1.1–2). As designed, the project applicant proposes to construct an industrial warehouse development along with associated infrastructure within the subject property (Figure 1.1–3). The decision to request this investigation was based upon the cultural resource sensitivity of the locality as suggested by known site density and predictive modeling. Sensitivity for cultural resources in a given area is usually indicated by known settlement patterns which in west-central Riverside County were focused around freshwater resources and a food supply, or historic land-use patterns.

1.2 **Environmental Setting**

The Sanderson and Wentworth Project is located in west-central Riverside County, within the limits of the city of Hemet. The city of Hemet is situated within the San Jacinto Valley which is surrounded by the Santa Rosa Hills and the San Jacinto Mountains. The San Jacinto River is formed at the western base of the San Jacinto Mountains and a section of the San Jacinto River passes near the Santa Rosa Summit leading to Lake Hemet. Although Hemet is dry with low precipitation, the San Jacinto River provided an invaluable resource that facilitated prehistoric occupation and encouraged the development of the city of Hemet.

The subject parcel is generally flat, with elevations within the property ranging from approximately 1,520 to 1,524 feet above mean sea level. The property does not contain any natural sources of water or bedrock outcroppings. Further, the property is vacant and does not appear to have ever contained any structures. According to the geologic map of the *Winchester* quadrangle, the surficial geology at the project consists of Holocene and late Pleistocene-aged young alluvial fan deposits of Bautista Canyon, Unit 1, which are predominately characterized as gravel, sand, and silt (Wirths 2023). This same unit is indicated as simply Holocene and late Pleistocene-aged young alluvial fan deposits on the *Lakeview* and *Winchester* quadrangle maps but are additionally described as distal deposits related to the fan deposits emanating from Bautista Canyon (Morton and Matti 2001; Morton 2003, respectively). The specific soil types mapped within the project are characterized as Chino silt loam, drained, saline-alkali (Cf), Traver fine sandy loam, strongly saline-alkali, eroded (Tt2), and San Emigdio fine sandy loam, 0 to 2 percent slopes, occasional frost (SeA) (NRCS 2019).

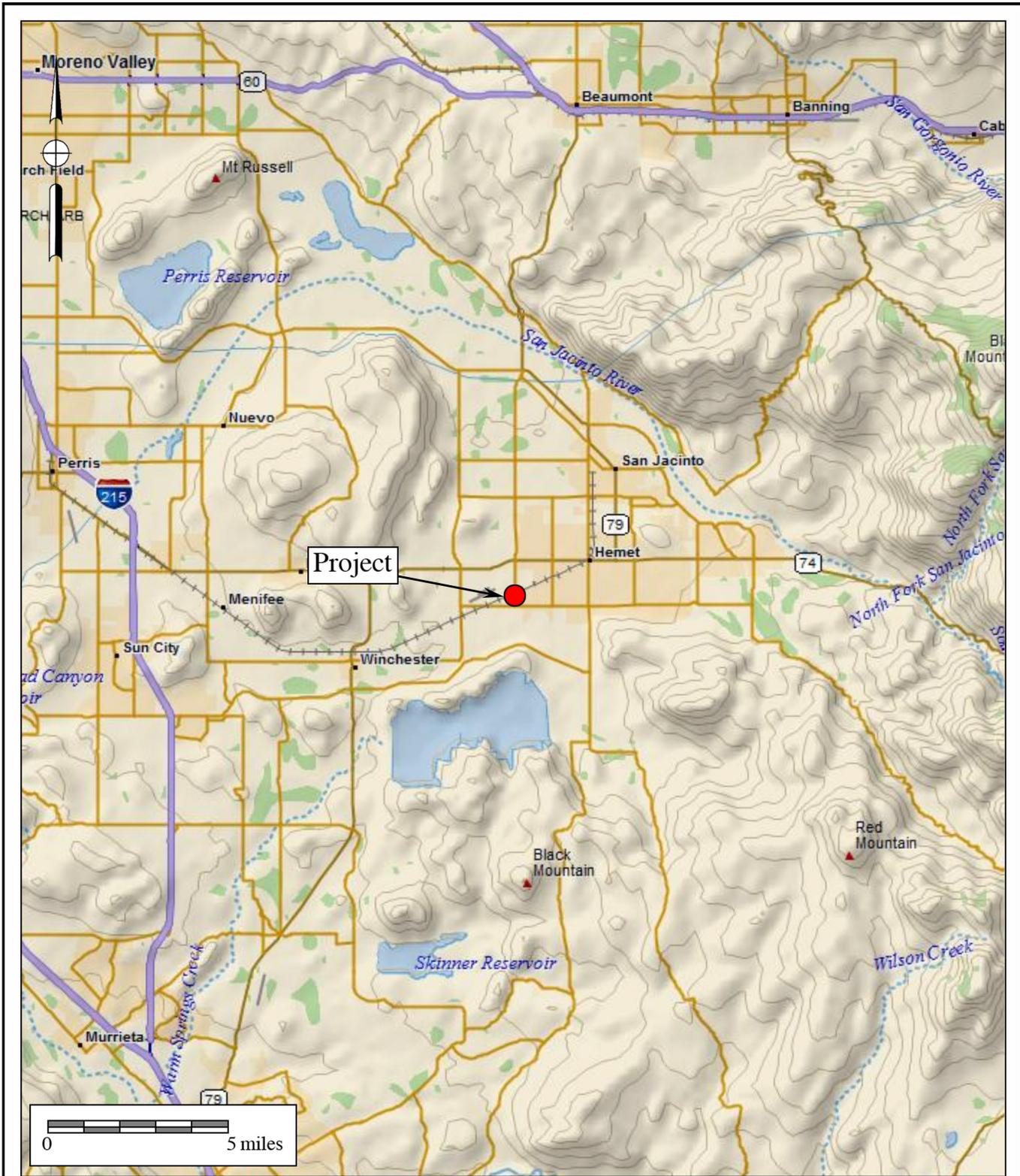


Figure 1.1-1
General Location Map

The Sanderson and Wentworth Project
 DeLorme (1:250,000 series)



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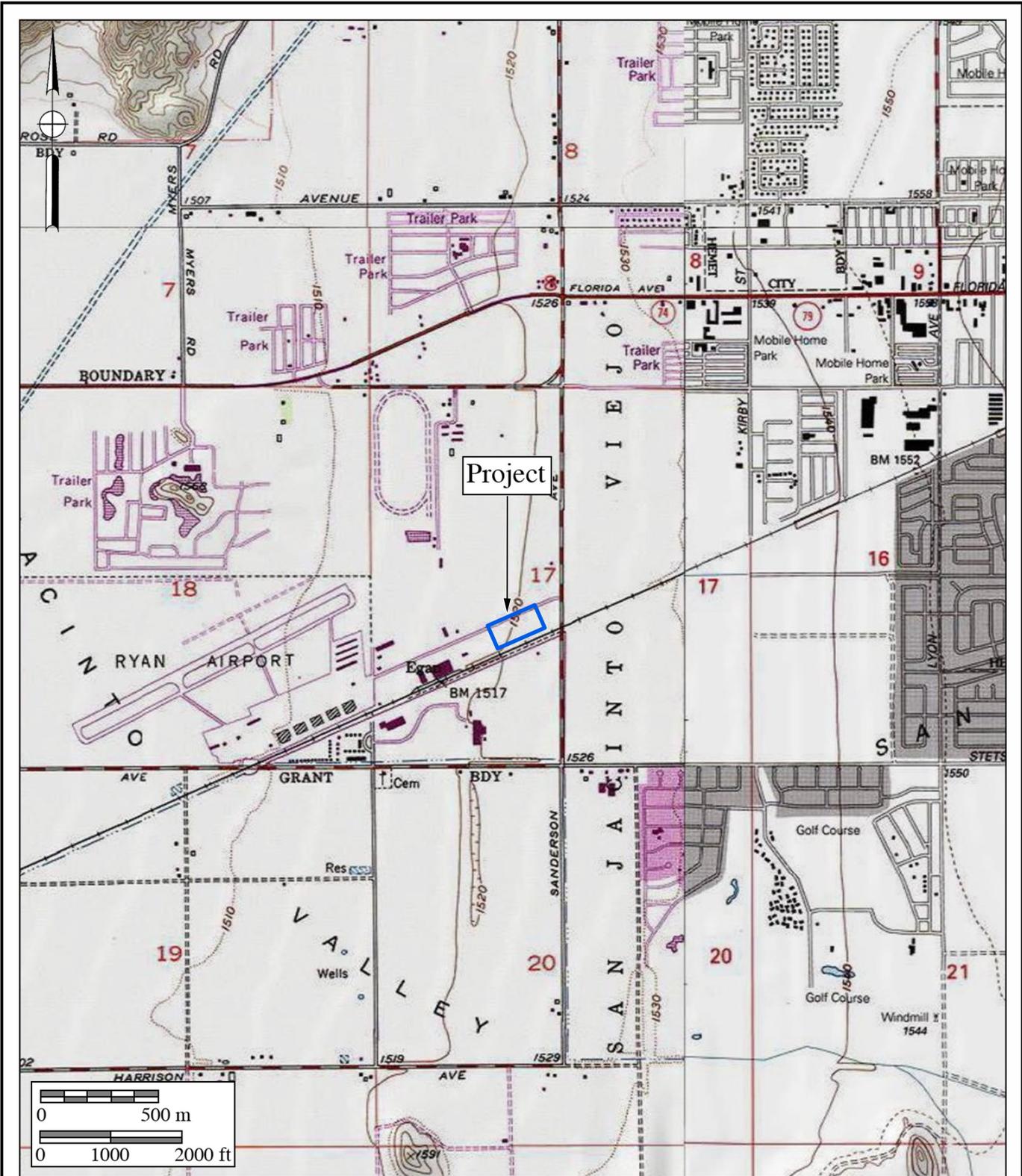


Figure 1.1–2
Project Location Map

The Sanderson and Wentworth Project
 USGS *Winchester* Quadrangle (7.5-minute series)



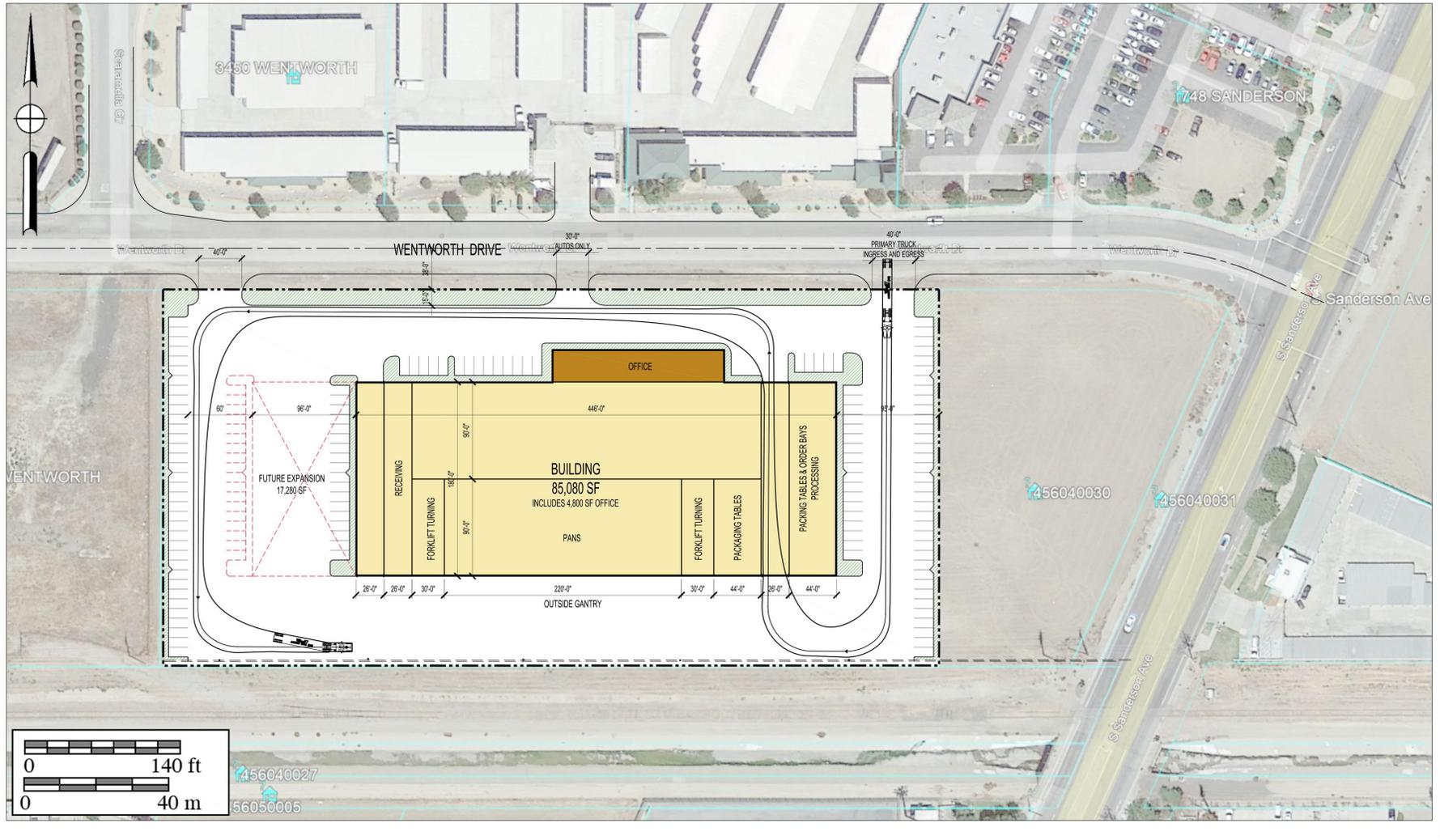


Figure 1.1-3
Conceptual Site Plan
The Sanderson and Wentworth Project

1.3 Cultural Setting – Archaeological Perspectives

The archaeological perspective seeks to reconstruct past cultures based upon the material remains left behind. This is done using a range of scientific methodologies, almost all of which draw from evolutionary theory as the base framework. Archaeology allows one to look deeper into history or prehistory to see where the beginnings of ideas manifest via analysis of material culture, allowing for the understanding of outside forces that shape social change. Thus, the archaeological perspective allows one to better understand the consequences of the history of a given culture upon modern cultures. Archaeologists seek to understand the effects of past contexts of a given culture on *this* moment in time, not culture in context *in* the moment.

Despite this, a distinction exists between “emic” and “etic” ways of understanding material culture, prehistoric lifeways, and cultural phenomena in general (Harris 1991). While “emic” perspectives serve the subjective ways in which things are perceived and interpreted by the participants within a culture, “etic” perspectives are those of an outsider looking in hoping to attain a more scientific or “objective” understanding of the given phenomena. Archaeologists, by definition, will almost always serve an etic perspective as a result of the very nature of their work. As indicated by Laylander et al. (2014), it has sometimes been suggested that etic understanding, and therefore an archaeological understanding, is an imperfect and potentially ethnocentric attempt to arrive at emic understanding. In contrast to this, however, an etic understanding of material culture, cultural phenomena, and prehistoric lifeways can address significant dimensions of culture that lie entirely beyond the understanding or interest of those solely utilizing an emic perspective. As Harris (1991:20) appropriately points out, “Etic studies often involve the measurement and juxtaposition of activities and events that native informants find inappropriate or meaningless.” This is also likely true of archaeological comparisons and juxtapositions of material culture. However, culture as a whole does not occur in a vacuum and is the result of several millennia of choices and consequences influencing everything from technology to religions, to institutions. Archaeology allows for the ability to not only see what came before, but to see how those choices, changes, and consequences affect the present. Where possible, archaeology should seek to address both emic and etic understandings to the extent that they may be recoverable from the archaeological record as manifestations of patterned human behavior (Laylander et al. 2014).

To that point, the culture history offered herein is primarily based upon archaeological (etic) and ethnographic (partially emic and partially etic) information. It is understood that the ethnographic record and early archaeological records were incompletely and imperfectly collected. In addition, in most cases, more than a century of intensive cultural change and cultural evolution had elapsed since the terminus of the prehistoric period. Coupled with the centuries and millennia of prehistoric change separating the “ethnographic present” from the prehistoric past, this has affected the emic and etic understandings of prehistoric cultural settings. Regardless, there remains a need to present the changing cultural setting within the region under investigation. As a result, both archaeological and Native American perspectives are offered when possible.

1.3.1 Introduction

Paleo Indian, Archaic Period Milling Stone Horizon, and the Late Prehistoric Takic groups are the three general cultural periods represented in Riverside County. The following discussion of the cultural history of Riverside County references the San Dieguito Complex, Encinitas Tradition, Milling Stone Horizon, La Jolla Complex, Pauma Complex, and San Luis Rey Complex, since these culture sequences have been used to describe archaeological manifestations in the region. The Late Prehistoric component present in the Riverside County area was primarily represented by the Cahuilla, Gabrielino, and Luiseño Indians.

Absolute chronological information, where possible, will be incorporated into this archaeological discussion to examine the effectiveness of continuing to interchangeably use these terms. Reference will be made to the geological framework that divides the archaeologically-based culture chronology of the area into four segments: the late Pleistocene (20,000 to 10,000 years before the present [YBP]), the early Holocene (10,000 to 6,650 YBP), the middle Holocene (6,650 to 3,350 YBP), and the late Holocene (3,350 to 200 YBP).

1.3.2 Paleo Indian Period (Late Pleistocene: 11,500 to circa 9,000 YBP)

Archaeologically, the Paleo Indian Period is associated with the terminus of the late Pleistocene (12,000 to 10,000 YBP). The environment during the late Pleistocene was cool and moist, which allowed for glaciation in the mountains and the formation of deep, pluvial lakes in the deserts and basin lands (Moratto 1984). However, by the terminus of the late Pleistocene, the climate became warmer, which caused the glaciers to melt, sea levels to rise, greater coastal erosion, large lakes to recede and evaporate, extinction of Pleistocene megafauna, and major vegetation changes (Moratto 1984; Martin 1967, 1973; Fagan 1991). The coastal shoreline at 10,000 YBP, depending upon the particular area of the coast, was near the 30-meter isobath, or two to six kilometers further west than its present location (Masters 1983).

Paleo Indians were likely attracted to multiple habitat types, including mountains, marshlands, estuaries, and lakeshores. These people likely subsisted using a more generalized hunting, gathering, and collecting adaptation utilizing a variety of resources including birds, mollusks, and both large and small mammals (Erlandson and Colten 1991; Moratto 1984; Moss and Erlandson 1995).

1.3.3 Archaic Period (Early and Middle Holocene: circa 9,000 to 1,300 YBP)

Archaeological data indicates that between 9,000 and 8,000 YBP, a widespread complex was established in the southern California region, primarily along the coast (Warren and True 1961). This complex is locally known as the La Jolla Complex (Rogers 1939; Moriarty 1966), which is regionally associated with the Encinitas Tradition (Warren 1968) and shares cultural components with the widespread Milling Stone Horizon (Wallace 1955). The coastal expression of this complex appeared in southern California coastal areas and focused upon coastal resources and the development of deeply stratified shell middens that were primarily located around bays

and lagoons. The older sites associated with this expression are located at Topanga Canyon, Newport Bay, Agua Hedionda Lagoon, and some of the Channel Islands. Radiocarbon dates from sites attributed to this complex span a period of over 7,000 years in this region, beginning over 9,000 YBP.

The Encinitas Tradition is best recognized for its pattern of large coastal sites characterized by shell middens, grinding tools that are closely associated with the marine resources of the area, cobble-based tools, and flexed human burials (Shumway et al. 1961; Smith and Moriarty 1985). While ground stone tools and scrapers are the most recognized tool types, coastal Encinitas Tradition sites also contain numerous utilized flakes, which may have been used to pry open shellfish. Artifact assemblages at coastal sites indicate a subsistence pattern focused upon shellfish collection and nearshore fishing. This suggests an incipient maritime adaptation with regional similarities to more northern sites of the same period (Koerper et al. 1986). Other artifacts associated with Encinitas Tradition sites include stone bowls, doughnut stones, discoidals, stone balls, and stone, bone, and shell beads.

The coastal lagoons in southern California supported large Milling Stone Horizon populations circa 6,000 YBP, as is shown by numerous radiocarbon dates from the many sites adjacent to the lagoons. The ensuing millennia were not stable environmentally and, by 3,000 YBP, many of the coastal sites in central San Diego County had been abandoned (Gallegos 1987, 1992). The abandonment of the area is usually attributed to the sedimentation of coastal lagoons and the resulting deterioration of fish and mollusk habitat. This is a well-documented situation at Batiquitos Lagoon where, over a two-thousand-year period, dominant mollusk species occurring in archaeological middens shift from deep-water mollusks (*Argopecten* sp.) to species tolerant of tidal flat conditions (*Chione* sp.), indicating water depth and temperature changes (Miller 1966; Gallegos 1987).

This situation likely occurred for other small drainages (Buena Vista, Agua Hedionda, San Marcos, and Escondido creeks) along the central San Diego coast where low flow rates did not produce sufficient discharge to flush the lagoons they fed (Buena Vista, Agua Hedionda, Batiquitos, and San Elijo lagoons) (Byrd 1998). Drainages along the northern and southern San Diego coastline were larger and flushed the coastal hydrological features they fed, keeping them open to the ocean and allowing for continued human exploitation (Byrd 1998). Peñasquitos Lagoon exhibits dates as late as 2,355 YBP (Smith and Moriarty 1985) and San Diego Bay showed continuous occupation until the close of the Milling Stone Horizon (Gallegos and Kyle 1988). Additionally, data from several drainages in United States Marine Corps Base Camp Pendleton indicate a continued occupation of shell midden sites until the close of the period, indicating that coastal sites were not entirely abandoned during this time (Byrd 1998).

By 5,000 YBP, an inland expression of the La Jolla Complex is evident in the archaeological record, exhibiting influences from the Campbell Tradition from the north. These inland Milling Stone Horizon sites have been termed “Pauma Complex” (True 1958; Warren et al. 1961; Meighan 1954). By definition, Pauma Complex sites share a predominance of grinding

implements (manos and metates), lack mollusk remains, have greater tool variety (including atlatl dart points, quarry-based tools, and crescentics), and seem to express a more sedentary lifestyle with a subsistence economy based upon the use of a broad variety of terrestrial resources. Although originally viewed as a separate culture from the coastal La Jolla Complex (True 1980), it appears that these inland sites may be part of a subsistence and settlement system utilized by the coastal peoples. Evidence from the 4S Ranch Project in inland San Diego County suggests that these inland sites may represent seasonal components within an annual subsistence round by La Jolla Complex populations (Raven-Jennings et al. 1996). Including both coastal and inland sites of this time period in discussions of the Encinitas Tradition, therefore, provides a more complete appraisal of the settlement and subsistence system exhibited by this cultural complex.

More recent work by Sutton has identified a more localized complex known as the Greven Knoll Complex. The Greven Knoll Complex is a redefined northern inland expression of the Encinitas Tradition first put forth by Mark Sutton and Jill Gardener (2010). Sutton and Gardener (2010:25) state that “[t]he early millingstone archaeological record in the northern portion of the interior southern California was not formally named but was often referred to as ‘Inland Millingstone,’ ‘Encinitas,’ or even ‘Topanga.’” Therefore, they proposed that all expressions of the inland Milling Stone in southern California north of San Diego County be grouped together in the Greven Knoll Complex.

The Greven Knoll Complex, as postulated by Sutton and Gardener (2010), is broken into three phases and obtained its name from the type-site Greven Knoll located in Yucaipa, California. Presently, the Greven Knoll Site is part of the Yukaipa’t Site (SBR-1000) and was combined with the adjacent Simpson Site. Excavations at Greven Knoll recovered manos, metates, projectile points, discoidal coggled stones, and a flexed inhumation with a possible cremation (Kowta 1969:39). It is believed that the Greven Knoll Site was occupied between 5,000 and 3,500 YBP. The Simpson Site contained mortars, pestles, side-notched points, and stone and shell beads. Based upon the data recovered at these sites, Kowta (1969:39) suggested that “coastal Milling Stone Complexes extended to and interdigitated with the desert Pinto Basin Complex in the vicinity of the Cajon Pass.”

Phase I of the Greven Knoll Complex is generally dominated by the presence of manos and metates, core tools, hammerstones, large dart points, flexed inhumations, and occasional cremations. Mortars and pestles are absent from this early phase, and the subsistence economy emphasized hunting. Sutton and Gardener (2010:26) propose that the similarity of the material culture of Greven Knoll Phase I and that found in the Mojave Desert at Pinto Period sites indicates that the Greven Knoll Complex was influenced by neighbors to the north at that time. Accordingly, Sutton and Gardener (2010) believe that Greven Knoll Phase I may have appeared as early as 9,400 YBP and lasted until about 4,000 YBP.

Greven Knoll Phase II is associated with a period between 4,000 and 3,000 YBP. Artifacts common to Greven Knoll Phase II include manos and metates, Elko points, core tools, and discoidals. Pestles and mortars are present; however, they are only represented in small numbers.

Finally, there is an emphasis upon hunting and gathering for subsistence (Sutton and Gardener 2010:8).

Greven Knoll Phase III includes manos, metates, Elko points, scraper planes, choppers, hammerstones, and discoidals. Again, small numbers of mortars and pestles are present. Greven Knoll Phase III spans from approximately 3,000 to 1,000 YBP and shows a reliance upon seeds and yucca. Hunting is still important, but bones seem to have been processed to obtain bone grease more often in this later phase (Sutton and Gardener 2010:8).

The shifts in food processing technologies during each of these phases indicate a change in subsistence strategies; although people were still hunting for large game, plant-based foods eventually became the primary dietary resource (Sutton 2011a). Sutton's (2011b) argument posits that the development of mortars and pestles during the middle Holocene can be attributed to the year-round exploitation of acorns as a main dietary provision. Additionally, the warmer and drier climate may have been responsible for groups from the east moving toward coastal populations, which is archaeologically represented by the interchange of coastal and eastern cultural traits (Sutton 2011a).

1.3.4 Late Prehistoric Period (Late Holocene: 1,300 YBP to 1790)

Many Luiseño hold the worldview that, as a population, they were created in southern California. Archaeological and anthropological data, however, proposes a scientific archaeological perspective suggesting that, at approximately 1,350 YBP, Takic-speaking groups from the Great Basin region moved into Riverside County, marking the transition to the Late Prehistoric Period. An analysis of the Takic expansion by Sutton (2009) indicates that inland southern California was occupied by "proto-Yuman" populations before 1,000 YBP. The comprehensive, multi-phase model offered by Sutton (2009) employs linguistic, ethnographic, archaeological, and biological data to solidify a reasonable argument for population replacement of Takic groups to the north by Penutians (Laylander 1985). As a result, it is believed that Takic expansion occurred starting around 3,500 YBP moving toward southern California, with the Gabrielino language diffusing south into neighboring Yuman (Hokan) groups around 1,500 to 1,000 YBP, possibly resulting in the Luiseño dialect.

Based upon Sutton's model, the final Takic expansion would not have occurred until about 1,000 YBP, resulting in the Vanyume, Serrano, Cahuilla, and Cupeño dialects. The model suggests that the Luiseño did not simply replace Hokan speakers, but were rather a northern San Diego County/southern Riverside County Yuman population who adopted the Takic language. This period is characterized by higher population densities and elaborations in social, political, and technological systems. Economic systems diversified and intensified during this period with the continued elaboration of trade networks, the use of shell-bead currency, and the appearance of more labor-intensive, yet effective, technological innovations. Technological developments during this period included the introduction of the bow and arrow between A.D. 400 and 600 and the introduction of ceramics. Atlatl darts were replaced by smaller arrow darts, including

Cottonwood series points. Other hallmarks of the Late Prehistoric Period include extensive trade networks as far-reaching as the Colorado River Basin and cremation of the dead.

1.3.5 Protohistoric Period (Late Holocene: 1790 to Present)

Ethnohistoric and ethnographic evidence indicates that three Takic-speaking groups occupied portions of Riverside County: the Cahuilla, the Gabrielino, and the Luiseño. The geographic boundaries between these groups in pre- and proto-historic times are difficult to place, but the project is located well within the borders of ethnographic Luiseño territory. This group was a seasonal hunting and gathering people with cultural elements that were very distinct from Archaic Period peoples. These distinctions include cremation of the dead, the use of the bow and arrow, and exploitation of the acorn as a main food staple (Moratto 1984). Along the coast, the Luiseño made use of available marine resources by fishing and collecting mollusks for food. Seasonally available terrestrial resources, including acorns and game, were also sources of nourishment for Luiseño groups. Elaborate kinship and clan systems between the Luiseño and other groups facilitated a wide-reaching trade network that included trade of Obsidian Butte obsidian and other resources from the eastern deserts, as well as steatite from the Channel Islands.

According to Charles Handley (1967), the primary settlements of Late Prehistoric Luiseño Indians in the San Jacinto Plain were represented by Ivah and Soboba near Soboba Springs, Jusipah near the town of San Jacinto, Ararah in Webster's Canyon en route to Idyllwild, Pahsitha near Big Springs Ranch southeast of Hemet, and Corova in Castillo Canyon. These locations share features such as the availability of food and water resources. Features of this land use include petroglyphs and pictographs, as well as widespread milling, which is evident in bedrock and portable implements. Groups in the vicinity of the project, neighboring the Luiseño, include the Cahuilla and the Gabrielino. Ethnographic data for the three groups is presented below.

Luiseño: An Archaeological and Ethnographic Perspective

When contacted by the Spanish in the sixteenth century, the Luiseño occupied a territory bounded on the west by the Pacific Ocean, on the east by the Peninsular Ranges mountains at San Jacinto (including Palomar Mountain to the south and Santiago Peak to the north), on the south by Agua Hedionda Lagoon, and on the north by Aliso Creek in present-day San Juan Capistrano. The Luiseño were a Takic-speaking people more closely related linguistically and ethnographically to the Cahuilla, Gabrielino, and Cupeño to the north and east rather than the Kumeyaay who occupied territory to the south. The Luiseño differed from their neighboring Takic speakers in having an extensive proliferation of social statuses, a system of ruling families that provided ethnic cohesion within the territory, a distinct worldview that stemmed from the use of datura (a hallucinogen), and an elaborate religion that included the creation of sacred sand paintings depicting the deity Chingichngish (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Subsistence and Settlement

The Luiseño occupied sedentary villages most often located in sheltered areas in valley bottoms, along streams, or along coastal strands near mountain ranges. Villages were located near water sources to facilitate acorn leaching and in areas that offered thermal and defensive protection. Villages were comprised of areas that were publicly and privately (by family) owned. Publicly owned areas included trails, temporary campsites, hunting areas, and quarry sites. Inland groups had fishing and gathering sites along the coast that were intensively used from January to March when inland food resources were scarce. During October and November, most of the village would relocate to mountain oak groves to harvest acorns. The Luiseño remained at village sites for the remainder of the year, where food resources were within a day's travel (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

The most important food source for the Luiseño was the acorn, six different species of which were used (*Quercus californica*, *Quercus agrifolia*, *Quercus chrysolepis*, *Quercus dumosa*, *Quercus engelmannii*, and *Quercus wislizenii*). Seeds, particularly of grasses, flowering plants, and mints, were also heavily exploited. Seed-bearing species were encouraged through controlled burns, which were conducted at least every third year. A variety of other stems, leaves, shoots, bulbs, roots, and fruits were also collected. Hunting augmented this vegetal diet. Animal species taken included deer, rabbit, hare, woodrat, ground squirrel, antelope, quail, duck, freshwater fish from mountain streams, marine mammals, and other sea creatures such as fish, crustaceans, and mollusks (particularly abalone, or *Haliotis* sp.). In addition, a variety of snakes, small birds, and rodents were eaten (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Social Organization

Social groups within the Luiseño nation consisted of patrilinear families or clans, which were politically and economically autonomous. Several clans comprised a religious party, or nota, which was headed by a chief who organized ceremonies and controlled economics and warfare. The chief had assistants who specialized in particular aspects of ceremonial or environmental knowledge and who, with the chief, were part of a religion-based social group with special access to supernatural power, particularly that of Chingichngish. The positions of chief and assistants were hereditary, and the complexity and multiplicity of these specialists' roles likely increased in coastal and larger inland villages (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976; Strong 1929).

Marriages were arranged by the parents, often made to forge alliances between lineages. Useful alliances included those between groups of differing ecological niches and those that resulted in territorial expansion. Residence was patrilocal (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976). Women were primarily responsible for plant gathering and men principally hunted but, at times, particularly during acorn and marine mollusk harvests, there was no division of labor. Elderly women cared for children and elderly men participated in rituals, ceremonies, and political affairs. They were also responsible for manufacturing hunting and ritual implements. Children were taught subsistence skills at the earliest age possible (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Material Culture

House structures were conical, partially subterranean, and thatched with reeds, brush, or bark. Ramadas were rectangular, protected workplaces for domestic chores such as cooking. Ceremonial sweathouses were important in purification rituals; these were round and partially subterranean thatched structures covered with a layer of mud. Another ceremonial structure was the wámkis (located in the center of the village, serving as the place of rituals), where sand paintings and other rituals associated with the Chingichngish religious group were performed (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Clothing was minimal; women wore a cedar-bark and netted twine double apron and men wore a waist cord. In cold weather, cloaks or robes of rabbit fur, deerskin, or sea otter fur were worn by both sexes. Footwear included deerskin moccasins and sandals fashioned from yucca fibers. Adornments included bead necklaces and pendants made of bone, clay, stone, shell, bear claw, mica, deer hooves, and abalone shell. Men wore ear and nose piercings made from cane or bone, which were sometimes decorated with beads. Other adornments were commonly decorated with semiprecious stones including quartz, topaz, garnet, opal, opalite, agate, and jasper (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Hunting implements included the bow and arrow. Arrows were tipped with either a carved, fire-hardened wood tip or a lithic point, usually fashioned from locally available metavolcanic material or quartz. Throwing sticks fashioned from wood were used in hunting small game, while deer head decoys were used during deer hunts. Coastal groups fashioned dugout canoes for nearshore fishing and harvested fish with seines, nets, traps, and hooks made of bone or abalone shell (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

The Luiseño had a well-developed basket industry. Baskets were used in resource gathering, food preparation, storage, and food serving. Ceramic containers were shaped by paddle and anvil and fired in shallow, open pits to be used for food storage, cooking, and serving. Other utensils included wood implements, steatite bowls, and ground stone manos, metates, mortars, and pestles (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976). Additional tools such as knives, scrapers, choppers, awls, and drills were also used. Shamanistic items include soapstone or clay smoking pipes and crystals made of quartz or tourmaline (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Cahuilla: An Archaeological and Ethnographic Perspective

At the time of Spanish contact in the sixteenth century, the Cahuilla occupied territory that included the San Bernardino Mountains, Orocopia Mountain, and the Chocolate Mountains to the west, Salton Sea and Borrego Springs to the south, Palomar Mountain and Lake Mathews to the west, and the Santa Ana River to the north. The Cahuilla are a Takic-speaking people closely related to their Gabrielino and Luiseño neighbors, although relations with the Gabrielino were more intense than with the Luiseño. They differ from the Luiseño and Gabrielino in that their religion is more similar to the Mohave tribes of the eastern deserts than the Chingichngish religious group of the Luiseño and Gabrielino (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Subsistence and Settlement

Cahuilla villages were typically permanent and located on low terraces within canyons in proximity to water sources. These locations proved to be rich in food resources and also afforded protection from prevailing winds. Villages had areas that were publicly owned and areas that were privately owned by clans, families, or individuals. Each village was associated with a particular lineage and series of sacred sites that included unique petroglyphs and pictographs. Villages were occupied throughout the year; however, during a several-week period in the fall, most of the village members relocated to mountain oak groves to take part in acorn harvesting (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

The Cahuilla's use of plant resources is well documented. Plant foods harvested by the Cahuilla included valley oak acorns and single-leaf pinyon pine nuts. Other important plant species included bean and screw mesquite, agave, Mohave yucca, cacti, palm, chia, quail brush, yellowray goldfield, goosefoot, manzanita, catsclaw, desert lily, mariposa lily, and a number of other species such as grass seed. A number of agricultural domesticates were acquired from the Colorado River tribes including corn, bean, squash, and melon grown in limited amounts. Animal species taken included deer, bighorn sheep, pronghorn antelope, rabbit, hare, rat, quail, dove, duck, roadrunner, and a variety of rodents, reptiles, fish, and insects (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Social Organization

The Cahuilla was not a political nation, but rather a cultural nationality with a common language. Two non-political, non-territorial patrimoieties were recognized: the Wildcats (túktem) and the Coyotes (?ístam). Lineage and kinship were memorized at a young age among the Cahuilla, providing a backdrop for political relationships. Clans were comprised of three to 10 lineages; each lineage owned a village site and specific resource areas. Lineages within a clan cooperated in subsistence activities, defense, and rituals (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

A system of ceremonial hierarchy operated within each lineage. The hierarchy included the lineage leader, who was responsible for leading subsistence activities, guarding the sacred bundle, and negotiating with other lineage leaders in matters concerning land use, boundary disputes, marriage arrangements, trade, warfare, and ceremonies. The ceremonial assistant to the lineage leader was responsible for organizing ceremonies. A ceremonial singer possessed and performed songs at rituals and trained assistant singers. The shaman cured illnesses through supernatural powers, controlled natural phenomena, and was the guardian of ceremonies, keeping evil spirits away. The diviner was responsible for finding lost objects, telling future events, and locating game and other food resources. Doctors were usually older women who cured various ailments and illnesses with their knowledge of medicinal herbs. Finally, certain Cahuilla specialized as traders, who ranged as far west as Santa Catalina and as far east as the Gila River (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Marriages were arranged by parents from opposite moieties. When a child was born, an alliance formed between the families, which included frequent reciprocal exchanges. The Cahuilla

kinship system extended to relatives within five generations. Important economic decisions, primarily the distribution of goods, operated within this kinship system (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Material Culture

Cahuilla houses were dome-shaped or rectangular, thatched structures. The home of the lineage leader was the largest, located near the ceremonial house with the best access to water. Other structures within the village included the men's sweathouse and granaries (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Cahuilla clothing, like other groups in the area, was minimal. Men typically wore a loincloth and sandals; women wore skirts made from mesquite bark, animal skin, or tules. Babies wore mesquite bark diapers. Rabbit skin cloaks were worn in cold weather (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Hunting implements included the bow and arrow, throwing sticks, and clubs. Grinding tools used in food processing included manos, metates, and wood mortars. The Cahuilla were known to use long grinding implements made from wood to process mesquite beans; the mortar was typically a hollowed log buried in the ground. Other tools included steatite arrow shaft straighteners (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Baskets were made from rush, deer grass, and skunkbrush. Different species and leaves were chosen for different colors in the basket design. Coiled-ware baskets were either flat (for plates, trays, or winnowing), bowl-shaped (for food serving), deep, inverted, and cone-shaped (for transporting), or rounded and flat-bottomed for storing utensils and personal items (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Cahuilla pottery was made from a thin, red-colored ceramic ware that was often painted and incised. Four basic vessel types are known for the Cahuilla: small-mouthed jars, cooking pots, bowls, and dishes. Additionally, smoking pipes and flutes were fashioned from ceramic (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Gabrielino: An Archaeological and Ethnographic Perspective

The territory of the Gabrielino at the time of Spanish contact covers much of present-day Los Angeles and Orange counties. The southern extent of this culture area is bounded by Aliso Creek, the eastern extent is located east of present-day San Bernardino along the Santa Ana River, the northern extent includes the San Fernando Valley, and the western extent includes portions of the Santa Monica Mountains. The Gabrielino also occupied several Channel Islands including Santa Barbara Island, Santa Catalina Island, San Nicholas Island, and San Clemente Island. Because of their access to certain resources, including a steatite source from Santa Catalina Island, this group was among the wealthiest and most populous aboriginal groups in all of southern California. Trade of materials and resources controlled by the Gabrielino extended as far north as the San Joaquin Valley, as far east as the Colorado River, and as far south as Baja California (Bean

and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Subsistence and Settlement

The Gabrielino lived in permanent villages and occupied smaller resource-gathering camps at various times of the year depending upon the seasonality of the resource. Larger villages were comprised of several families or clans, while smaller, seasonal camps typically housed smaller family units. The coastal area between San Pedro and Topanga Canyon was the location of primary subsistence villages, while secondary sites were located near inland sage stands, oak groves, and pine forests. Permanent villages were located along rivers and streams and in sheltered areas along the coast. As previously mentioned, the Channel Islands were also the locations of relatively large settlements (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Resources procured along the coast and on the islands were primarily marine in nature and included tuna, swordfish, ray and shark, California sea lion, Stellar sea lion, harbor seal, northern elephant seal, sea otter, dolphin and porpoise, various waterfowl species, numerous fish species, purple sea urchin, and mollusks such as rock scallop, California mussel, and limpet. Inland resources included oak acorn, pine nut, Mohave yucca, cacti, sage, grass nut, deer, rabbit, hare, rodent, quail, duck, a variety of reptiles such as western pond turtle, and numerous snake species (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Social Organization

Little is known about the social structure of the Gabrielino; however, there appears to have been at least three social classes: 1) the elite, which included the rich, chiefs, and their immediate family; 2) a middle class, which included people of relatively high economic status or long-established lineages; and 3) a class of people that included most other individuals in the society. Villages were politically autonomous units comprised of several lineages. During times of the year when certain seasonal resources were available, the village would divide into lineage groups and move out to exploit them, returning to the village between forays (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Each lineage had its own leader, with the village chief coming from the dominant lineage. Several villages might be allied under a paramount chief. Chiefly positions were of an ascribed status, most often passed to the eldest son. Chiefly duties included providing village cohesion, leading warfare and peace negotiations with other groups, collecting tribute from the village(s) under his jurisdiction, and arbitrating disputes within the village(s). The status of the chief was legitimized by his safekeeping of the sacred bundle, a representation of the link between the material and spiritual realms and the embodiment of power (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Shamans were leaders in the spirit realm. The duties of the shaman included conducting healing and curing ceremonies, guarding the sacred bundle, locating lost items, identifying and collecting poisons for arrows, and making rain (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Marriages were made between individuals of equal social status and, in the case of

powerful lineages, marriages were arranged to establish political ties between the lineages (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Men conducted the majority of the heavy labor, hunting, fishing, and trading with other groups. Women's duties included gathering and preparing plant and animal resources, and making baskets, pots, and clothing (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Material Culture

Gabrielino houses were domed, circular structures made of thatched vegetation. Houses varied in size and could house from one to several families. Sweathouses (semicircular, earth-covered buildings) were public structures used in male social ceremonies. Other structures included menstrual huts and a ceremonial structure called a yuvar, an open-air structure built near the chief's house (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Clothing was minimal; men and children most often went naked, while women wore deerskin or bark aprons. In cold weather, deerskin, rabbit fur, or bird skin (with feathers intact) cloaks were worn. Island and coastal groups used sea otter fur for cloaks. In areas of rough terrain, yucca fiber sandals were worn. Women often used red ochre on their faces and skin for adornment or protection from the sun. Adornment items included feathers, fur, shells, and beads (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

Hunting implements included wood clubs, sinew-backed bows, slings, and throwing clubs. Maritime implements included rafts, harpoons, spears, hook and line, and nets. A variety of other tools included deer scapulae saws, bone and shell needles, bone awls, scrapers, bone or shell flakers, wedges, stone knives and drills, metates, mullers, manos, shell spoons, bark platters, and wood paddles and bowls. Baskets were made from rush, deer grass, and skunkbush. Baskets were fashioned for hoppers, plates, trays, and winnowers for leaching, straining, and gathering. Baskets were also used for storing, preparing, and serving food, and for keeping personal and ceremonial items (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

The Gabrielino had exclusive access to soapstone, or steatite, procured from Santa Catalina Island quarries. This highly prized material was used for making pipes, animal carvings, ritual objects, ornaments, and cooking utensils. The Gabrielino profited well from trading steatite since it was valued so much by groups throughout southern California (Bean and Smith 1978; Kroeber 1976).

1.3.6 Ethnohistoric Period (1769 to Present)

Traditionally, the history of the state of California has been divided into three general periods: the Spanish Period (1769 to 1821), the Mexican Period (1822 to 1846), and the American Period (1848 to present) (Caughey 1970). The American Period is often further subdivided into additional phases: the nineteenth century (1848 to 1900), the early twentieth century (1900 to 1950), and the Modern Period (1950 to present). From an archaeological standpoint, all of these phases can be referred to together as the Ethnohistoric Period. This provides a valuable tool for

archaeologists, as ethnohistory is directly concerned with the study of indigenous or non-Western peoples from a combined historical/anthropological viewpoint, which employs written documents, oral narrative, material culture, and ethnographic data for analysis.

European exploration along the California coast began in 1542 with the landing of Juan Rodríguez Cabrillo and his men at San Diego Bay. Sixty years after the Cabrillo expeditions, an expedition under Sebastián Viscaíno made an extensive and thorough exploration of the Pacific coast. Although the voyage did not extend beyond the northern limits of the Cabrillo track, Viscaíno had the most lasting effect upon the nomenclature of the coast. Many of his place names have survived, whereas practically every one of the names created by Cabrillo have faded from use. For instance, Cabrillo named the first (now) United States port he stopped at “San Miguel”; 60 years later, Viscaíno changed it to “San Diego” (Rolle 1969). The early European voyages observed Native Americans living in villages along the coast but did not make any substantial, long-lasting impact. At the time of contact, the Luiseño population was estimated to have ranged from 4,000 to as many as 10,000 individuals (Bean and Shipek 1978; Kroeber 1976).

The historic background of the project area began with the Spanish colonization of Alta California. The first Spanish colonizing expedition reached southern California in 1769 with the intention of converting and civilizing the indigenous populations, as well as expanding the knowledge of and access to new resources in the region (Brigandi 1998). As a result, by the late eighteenth century, a large portion of southern California was overseen by Mission San Luis Rey (San Diego County), Mission San Juan Capistrano (Orange County), and Mission San Gabriel (Los Angeles County), who began colonization of the region and surrounding areas (Chapman 1921).

Up until this time, the only known way to feasibly travel from Sonora to Alta California was by sea. In 1774, Juan Bautista de Anza, an army captain at Tubac, requested and was given permission by the governor of the Mexican state of Sonora to establish an overland route from Sonora to Monterey (Chapman 1921). In doing so, Juan Bautista de Anza passed through Riverside County and described the area in writing for the first time (Caughey 1970; Chapman 1921). In 1797, Father Fermín Lasuén (of Mission San Diego de Alcalá), Father Juan Norberto de Santiago, and Corporal Pedro Lisalde (of Mission San Juan Capistrano) led an expedition through southwestern Riverside County in search of a new mission site to establish a presence between San Diego and San Juan Capistrano (Engelhardt 1921). Their efforts ultimately resulted in the establishment of Mission San Luis Rey in Oceanside, California.

Each mission gained power through the support of a large, subjugated Native American workforce. As the missions grew, livestock holdings increased and became increasingly vulnerable to theft. In order to protect their interests, the southern California missions began to expand inland to try and provide additional security (Beattie and Beattie 1939; Caughey 1970). In order to meet their needs, the Spaniards embarked on a formal expedition in 1806 to find potential locations within what is now the San Bernardino Valley. As a result, by 1810, Father Francisco Dumetz of Mission San Gabriel had succeeded in establishing a religious site, or capilla, at a

Cahuilla rancheria called Guachama (Beattie and Beattie 1939). San Bernardino Valley received its name from this site, which was dedicated to San Bernardino de Siena by Father Dumetz. The Guachama rancheria was located in present-day Bryn Mawr in San Bernardino County.

These early colonization efforts were followed by the establishment of estancias at Puente (circa 1816) and San Bernardino (circa 1819) near Guachama (Beattie and Beattie 1939). These efforts were soon mirrored by the Spaniards from Mission San Luis Rey, who in turn established a presence in what is now Lake Elsinore, Temecula, and Murrieta (Chapman 1921). The indigenous groups who occupied these lands were recruited by missionaries, converted, and put to work in the missions (Pourade 1961). Throughout this period, the Native American populations were decimated due to introduced diseases, a drastic shift in diet resulting in poor nutrition, and social conflicts due to the introduction of an entirely new social order (Cook 1976).

Mexico achieved independence from Spain in 1822 and became a federal republic in 1824. As a result, both Baja and Alta California became classified as territories (Rolle 1969). Shortly thereafter, the Mexican Republic sought to grant large tracts of private land to its citizens to begin to encourage immigration to California and to establish its presence in the region. Part of the establishment of power and control included the desecularization of the missions circa 1832. These same missions were also located on some of the most fertile land in California and, as a result, were considered highly valuable. The resulting land grants, known as “ranchos,” covered expansive portions of California and by 1846, more than 600 land grants had been issued by the Mexican government. Rancho Jurupa was the first rancho to be established and was issued to Juan Bandini in 1838. Although Bandini primarily resided in San Diego, Rancho Jurupa was located in what is now Riverside County (Pourade 1963). A review of Riverside County place names quickly illustrates that many of the ranchos in Riverside County lent their names to present-day locations, including Jurupa, El Rincon, La Sierra, El Sobrante de San Jacinto, La Laguna (Lake Elsinore), Santa Rosa, Temecula, Pauba, San Jacinto Nuevo y Potrero, and San Jacinto Viejo (Gunther 1984). As was typical of many ranchos, these were all located in valley environments within western Riverside County.

The treatment of Native Americans grew worse during the Rancho Period. Most of the Native Americans were forced off their land or put to work on the now privately-owned ranchos, most often as slave labor. In light of the brutal ranchos, the degree to which Native Americans had become dependent upon the mission system is evident when, in 1838, a group of Native Americans from Mission San Luis Rey petitioned government officials in San Diego to relieve suffering at the hands of the rancheros:

We have suffered incalculable losses, for some of which we are in part to be blamed for because many of us have abandoned the Mission ... We plead and beseech you ... to grant us a Rev. Father for this place. We have been accustomed to the Rev. Fathers and to their manner of managing the duties. We labored under their intelligent directions, and we were obedient to the Fathers according to the

regulations, because we considered it as good for us. (Brigandi 1998:21)

Native American culture had been disrupted to the point where they could no longer rely upon prehistoric subsistence and social patterns. Not only does this illustrate how dependent the Native Americans had become upon the missionaries, but it also indicates a marked contrast in the way the Spanish treated the Native Americans compared to the Mexican and United States ranchers. Spanish colonialism (missions) is based upon utilizing human resources while integrating them into their society. The Mexican and American ranchers did not accept Native Americans into their social order and used them specifically for the extraction of labor, resources, and profit. Rather than being incorporated, they were either subjugated or exterminated (Cook 1976).

By 1846, tensions between the United States and Mexico had escalated to the point of war (Rolle 1969). In order to reach a peaceful agreement, the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was put into effect in 1848, which resulted in the annexation of California to the United States. Once California opened to the United States, waves of settlers moved in searching for gold mines, business opportunities, political opportunities, religious freedom, and adventure (Rolle 1969; Caughey 1970). By 1850, California had become a state and was eventually divided into 27 separate counties. While a much larger population was now settling in California, this was primarily in the central valley, San Francisco, and the Gold Rush region of the Sierra Nevada mountain range (Rolle 1969; Caughey 1970). During this time, southern California grew at a much slower pace than northern California and was still dominated by the cattle industry that was established during the earlier rancho period. However, by 1859, the first United States Post Office in what would eventually become Riverside County was set up at John Magee's store on the Temecula Rancho (Gunther 1984).

During the same decade, circa 1852, the Native Americans of southern Riverside County, including the Luiseño and the Cahuilla, thought they had signed a treaty resulting in their ownership of all lands from Temecula to Aguanga, east to the desert, including the San Jacinto Valley and the San Gorgonio Pass. The Temecula Treaty also included food and clothing provisions for the Native Americans. However, Congress never ratified these treaties, and the promise of one large reservation was rescinded (Brigandi 1998).

With the completion of the Southern Pacific Railroad in 1869, southern California saw its first major population expansion. The population boom continued circa 1874 with the completion of connections between the Southern Pacific Railroad in Sacramento to the transcontinental Central Pacific Railroad in Los Angeles (Rolle 1969; Caughey 1970). The population influx brought farmers, land speculators, and prospective developers to the region. As the Jurupa area became more and more populated, circa 1870, Judge John Wesley North and a group of associates founded the city of Riverside on part of the former rancho.

Although the first orange trees were planted in Riverside County circa 1871, it was not until a few years later when a small number of Brazilian navel orange trees were established that

the citrus industry truly began in the region (Patterson 1971). The Brazilian navel orange was well suited to the climate of Riverside County and thrived with assistance from several extensive irrigation projects. At the close of 1882, an estimated half-million citrus trees were present in California. It is estimated that nearly half of the citrus tree population was in Riverside County. Population growth and 1880s tax revenue from the booming citrus industry prompted the official formation of Riverside County in 1893 out of portions of what was once San Bernardino and San Diego counties (Patterson 1971).

Shortly thereafter, with the start of World War I, the United States began to develop a military presence in Riverside County with the construction of March Air Reserve Base. During World War II, Camp Anza and Camp Haan were constructed, with the former located in the western part of the city of Riverside and the latter in what is now the current location of the National Veteran's Cemetery. In the decades that followed, populations spread throughout the county into Lake Elsinore, Corona, Norco, Murrieta, and Wildomar (Patterson 1971). However, a significant portion of the county remained largely agricultural well into the 1970s. Following the 1970s, Riverside saw a period of dramatic population increase as the result of new development, more than doubling the population of the county to a population of over 1.3 million residents.

General History of the Surrounding Communities: Hemet and the San Jacinto Valley

The project is situated within the city of Hemet and the San Jacinto Valley. In the early 1880s, Helen Hunt Jackson visited the San Jacinto Valley to conduct research for her upcoming book, *Ramona*. Although *Ramona* is a fictional dramatization of Native American mistreatment, the book sparked tourism within the San Jacinto Valley which would eventually lead to the creation of the California Historic Landmark (CHL) Ramona Bowl (CHL No. 1009), where the annual Ramona Pageant, a dramatization of the events depicted in the novel, was first performed in 1923 (OHP 1993).

Settlement in the area began with a 35,500-acre land grant given to José Antonio Estudillo in 1842, known as the Rancho San Jacinto Viejo Land Grant. Estudillo's children began developing the ranch in the 1880s by constructing two two-story brick mansions, one of which is still located at Main and Seventh Street in San Jacinto, and raising cattle on the land (Plate 1.3–1). In 1889, 15,000 acres of the Rancho San Jacinto Viejo Land Grant was sold to a group of Los Angeles investors known as the San Jacinto Land Association. Prior to the secession of the acreage, these investors developed a rival town in 1883 just two miles away from San Jacinto. The town, which called itself New San Jacinto, competed for



Plate 1.3–1: The Estudillo Mansion, circa 1890.
(Image courtesy of the City of San Jacinto archives)

dominance with Old San Jacinto (Plate 1.3–2). However, the battle was ultimately decided when the Santa Fe Railroad built a branch line that terminated in New San Jacinto. Old San Jacinto ultimately faded from existence by the twentieth century (City of San Jacinto 2020). “The San



Plate 1.3–2: Old San Jacinto, circa 1890.
(Image courtesy of the City of San Jacinto archives)

Jacinto Land Association originally wanted the region to be a Methodist temperance colony and had even gone as far as to state that deeds to land sold by the Association would contain a clause prohibiting the manufacture or sale of alcoholic beverages upon land sold by the company. Nevertheless, it appeared as though such clauses were never initiated into the deeds” (Wiley 2018).

The valley land was divided into large farm lots, usually made up of one quarter of the sectioned land. Portions of the San Jacinto Land Association land were irrigated with

water obtained from the San Jacinto Mountains to the east. However, the region still lacked a sufficient water supply to support agriculture on a larger scale, until:

Edward Mayberry, William Whitter, Albert H.H. Judson, Hancock M. Johnston, and Peter Potts formed the Lake Hemet Water Company and the Hemet Land Company after acquiring portions of Rancho San Jacinto. By 1895, the Lake Hemet Water Company had constructed a dam (Lake Hemet) that they planned to use to irrigate the holdings of the Hemet Land Company. The formation of the Lake Hemet Dam led to the incorporation of the city of Hemet in 1910. (Wiley 2018)

With the expanded irrigation capabilities, agriculture began to thrive in the San Jacinto Valley (City of San Jacinto 2020). Farming continued as an integral part of the San Jacinto Valley throughout the early twentieth century as settlements increased, giving rise to small family-owned agricultural businesses, and large-scale cattle ranching declined in popularity. Instead, “small-scale horticulture increased,” with many different crops grown throughout the San Jacinto Valley due to its relatively high water table (10 to 15 feet below the surface) and warm climate (Wiley 2018; Pitman 1976). “Citrus, alfalfa, corn, potatoes, oat hay, and walnut orchards all prospered in the early twentieth century” (Wiley 2018).

As the population of the valley grew, the demand for dairy products increased and dairy farming became more prevalent within the San Jacinto Valley. By 1922, dairy farmers in the San Jacinto Valley were producing more than 500,000 gallons of milk yearly (Law 1922). The wide-open acreage and thorough irrigation allowed dairy cows in the San Jacinto Valley to free forage on ample fresh alfalfa, producing healthier cows and a better milk product, which could be shipped

to Los Angeles daily on the railroad lines (City of San Jacinto 2020). Turkey ranching and lime kilns also added to the economy, along with tourism garnered by the draw of natural hot springs located within the north side of the valley. Tourism stimulated the growth of the area by ushering in the development of resorts and hotels. Notably, the Gilman and Soboba Hot Springs, which were developed in the late nineteenth century, drew increased tourism in the early twentieth century (City of San Jacinto 2020). These industries are still important to the economy of the San Jacinto Valley today.

The 1960s brought “large-scale residential development” to Hemet, including “Sierra Dawn Estates, California’s first ‘mobile home subdivision’” (City of Hemet 2012). According to the City of Hemet General Plan 2030:

In the 1980s, subdivisions of single-family homes began to sprout up from former ranch land with a subsequent expansion of retail. The local economy began another transition to a family-oriented commuter-based economy with growth driven by externally earned income. The City experienced steady growth in the 1990s with housing starts skyrocketing in the early 2000s. By 2010, 78,657 people lived in Hemet. Hemet today retains much of its retirement orientation, but is also becoming home to significant numbers of younger families drawn to good schools and relative affordability. (City of Hemet 2012)

1.4 Results of the Archaeological Records Search

An archaeological records search for the project and the surrounding area within a one-mile radius was conducted by BFSa from data supplied by the EIC at UCR (Appendix B). The records search identified seven resources (one prehistoric and six historic) within a one-mile radius of the project, none of which are located within the project’s boundaries. The prehistoric resource is an isolate while the historic resources include the Hemet-Ryan airport, a segment of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe/San Jacinto Valley Railroad, foundations with a standpipe, a communication line, an airport hangar, and a farm property (Table 1.4–1).

Table 1.4-1
Cultural Resources Within One Mile of the Project

Site Number	Resource Type
P-33-011196	Prehistoric isolate
P-33-005780	Historic Hemet-Ryan Airport (multiple structures)
P-33-015743	Historic segment of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad/ San Jacinto Valley Railroad
P-33-017000	Historic foundations and standpipe
P-33-017004	Historic communication line
P-33-019614	Historic airport hangar (within Hemet-Ryan Airport)
P-33-028850	Historic farm property (Sneed Stock Farm/Double J Stock Farm)

The records search also identified a total of 23 cultural resources studies which have been conducted within one mile of the project. One of these studies includes the entirety of the subject property (Lange 2005).

BFSA reviewed the following sources to help facilitate a better understanding of the historic use of the property:

- The National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) index
- The Office of Historic Preservation (OHP) Built Environment Resources Directory (BERD)
- Bureau of Land Management General Land Office (GLO) records
- Historic USGS maps (1901 *Elsinore* [30-minute], 1942 *Murrieta* [15-minute], and 1953 and 1970 *Winchester* [7.5-minute] topographic maps)
- Historic aerial photographs (1953, 1967, 1972, 1978, 1985, 1996, 2002, 2005, 2010, and 2021)

Neither the NRHP index, BERD, nor GLO plat maps identified any potential resources within the project. Likewise, the historic maps and aerial photographs do not show any structures ever being located within the project. It appears the project has primarily been utilized for agriculture. The 1953 photograph shows the property under cultivation. Subsequent photographs show the regular clearing and discing of the project along with the steady development of surrounding parcels beginning around 1996.

Based on the records search results, the most common resource type found within one mile of the property are associated with built environment. Despite 23 previous studies having been completed within the search radius, only a single prehistoric isolate has been recorded within one

mile. This likely is due to the valley setting of the project and that no natural sources of water or bedrock outcroppings are found within the project. Within the surrounding vicinity, the prehistoric sites tend to cluster in the surrounding bedrock laden foothills or near natural permeant water sources.

BFSA also requested a SLF records search from the NAHC. The SLF search results have yet to be received. All correspondence is provided in Appendix C.

1.5 Applicable Regulations

Resource importance is assigned to districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess exceptional value or quality illustrating or interpreting the heritage of Riverside County in history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture. A number of criteria are used in demonstrating resource importance. Specifically, the criteria outlined in CEQA, provide the guidance for making such a determination. The following sections detail the criteria that a resource must meet in order to be determined important.

1.5.1 California Environmental Quality Act

According to CEQA (§15064.5a), the term “historical resource” includes the following:

- 1) A resource listed in or determined to be eligible by the State Historical Resources Commission for listing in the California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR) (Public Resources Code [PRC] SS5024.1, Title 14 CCR. Section 4850 et seq.).
- 2) A resource included in a local register of historical resources, as defined in Section 5020.1(k) of the PRC or identified as significant in a historical resource survey meeting the requirements of Section 5024.1(g) of the PRC, shall be presumed to be historically or culturally significant. Public agencies must treat any such resource as significant unless the preponderance of evidence demonstrates that it is not historically or culturally significant.
- 3) Any object, building, structure, site, area, place, record, or manuscript, which a lead agency determines to be historically significant or significant in the architectural, engineering, scientific, economic, agricultural, educational, social, political, military, or cultural annals of California may be considered to be a historical resource, provided the lead agency’s determination is supported by substantial evidence in light of the whole record. Generally, a resource shall be considered by the lead agency to be “historically significant” if the resource meets the criteria for listing on the CRHR (PRC SS5024.1, Title 14, Section 4852) including the following:
 - a) Is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of California’s history and cultural heritage;
 - b) Is associated with the lives of persons important in our past;

- c) Embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, region, or method of construction, or represents the work of an important creative individual, or possesses high artistic values; or
 - d) Has yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.
- 4) The fact that a resource is not listed in, or determined eligible for listing in the CRHR, not included in a local register of historical resources (pursuant to Section 5020.1(k) of the PRC), or identified in a historical resources survey (meeting the criteria in Section 5024.1(g) of the PRC) does not preclude a lead agency from determining that the resource may be a historical resource as defined in PRC Section 5020.1(j) or 5024.1.

According to CEQA (§15064.5b), a project with an effect that may cause a substantial adverse change in the significance of a historical resource is a project that may have a significant effect on the environment. CEQA defines a substantial adverse change as:

- 1) Substantial adverse change in the significance of a historical resource means physical demolition, destruction, relocation, or alteration of the resource or its immediate surroundings such that the significance of a historical resource would be materially impaired.
- 2) The significance of a historical resource is materially impaired when a project:
 - a) Demolishes or materially alters in an adverse manner those physical characteristics of a historical resource that convey its historical significance and that justify its inclusion in, or eligibility for inclusion in the CRHR; or
 - b) Demolishes or materially alters in an adverse manner those physical characteristics that account for its inclusion in a local register of historical resources pursuant to Section 5020.1(k) of the PRC or its identification in a historical resources survey meeting the requirements of Section 5024.1(g) of the PRC, unless the public agency reviewing the effects of the project establishes by a preponderance of evidence that the resource is not historically or culturally significant; or,
 - c) Demolishes or materially alters in an adverse manner those physical characteristics of a historical resource that convey its historical significance and that justify its eligibility for inclusion in the CRHR as determined by a lead agency for purposes of CEQA.

Section 15064.5(c) of CEQA applies to effects on archaeological sites and contains the following additional provisions regarding archaeological sites:

1. When a project will impact an archaeological site, a lead agency shall first determine whether the site is a historical resource, as defined in subsection (a).
2. If a lead agency determines that the archaeological site is a historical resource, it shall refer to the provisions of Section 21084.1 of the PRC, Section 15126.4 of the guidelines, and the limits contained in Section 21083.2 of the PRC do not apply.
3. If an archaeological site does not meet the criteria defined in subsection (a), but does meet the definition of a unique archaeological resource in Section 21083.2 of the PRC, the site shall be treated in accordance with the provisions of Section 21083.2. The time and cost limitations described in PRC Section 21083.2 (c-f) do not apply to surveys and site evaluation activities intended to determine whether the project location contains unique archaeological resources.
4. If an archaeological resource is neither a unique archaeological nor historical resource, the effects of the project on those resources shall not be considered a significant effect on the environment. It shall be sufficient that both the resource and the effect on it are noted in the Initial Study or Environmental Impact Report, if one is prepared to address impacts on other resources, but they need not be considered further in the CEQA process.

Section 15064.5 (d) and (e) contain additional provisions regarding human remains. Regarding Native American human remains, paragraph (d) provides:

- (d) When an initial study identifies the existence of, or the probable likelihood of, Native American human remains within the project, a lead agency shall work with the appropriate Native Americans as identified by the NAHC as provided in PRC SS5097.98. The applicant may develop an agreement for treating or disposing of, with appropriate dignity, the human remains and any items associated with Native American burials with the appropriate Native Americans as identified by the NAHC. Action implementing such an agreement is exempt from:
 - 1) The general prohibition on disinterring, disturbing, or removing human remains from any location other than a dedicated cemetery (Health and Safety Code Section 7050.5).
 - 2) The requirements of CEQA and the Coastal Act.

2.0 **RESEARCH DESIGN**

The primary goal of the research design is to attempt to understand the way in which humans have used the land and resources within the project area through time, as well as to aid in the determination of resource significance. For the current project, the study area under investigation is in west-central Riverside County. The scope of work for the cultural resources study conducted for the Sanderson and Wentworth Project included the survey of a 5.76-acre area. Given the area involved, the research design for this project was focused upon realistic study options. Since the main objective of the investigation was to identify the presence of and potential impacts to cultural resources, the goal is not necessarily to answer wide-reaching theories regarding the development of early southern California, but to investigate the role and importance of identified resources. Nevertheless, the assessment of the significance of a resource must take into consideration a variety of characteristics, as well as the ability of a resource to address regional research topics and issues.

Although elementary resource evaluation programs are limited in terms of the amount of information available, several specific research questions were developed that could be used to guide the initial investigations of any observed cultural resources. The following research questions take into account the small size and location of the project.

Research Questions:

- Can located cultural resources be associated with a specific time period, population, or individual?
- Do the types of any located cultural resources allow a site activity/function to be determined from a preliminary investigation? What are the site activities? What is the site function? What resources were exploited?
- How do located sites compare to others reported from different surveys conducted in the area?
- How do located sites fit existing models of settlement and subsistence for valley environments of the region?

Data Needs

At the survey level, the principal research objective is a generalized investigation of changing settlement patterns in both the prehistoric and historic periods within the study area. The overall goal is to understand settlement and resource procurement patterns of the project area occupants. Therefore, adequate information on site function, context, and chronology from an archaeological perspective is essential for the investigation. The fieldwork and archival research were undertaken with the following primary research goals in mind:

- 1) To identify cultural resources occurring within the project;

- 2) To determine, if possible, site type and function, context of the resource(s), and chronological placement of each cultural resource identified;
- 3) To place each cultural resource identified within a regional perspective; and
- 4) To provide recommendations for the treatment of each cultural resources identified.

3.0 ANALYSIS OF PROJECT EFFECTS

The cultural resources study of the project consisted of an institutional records search, an intensive cultural resource survey of the entire 5.76-acre project, and the preparation of this technical report. This study was conducted in conformance with City of Hemet environmental guidelines, Section 21083.2 of the California PRC, and CEQA. Statutory requirements of CEQA (Section 15064.5) were followed for the identification and evaluation of resources. Specific definitions for archaeological resource type(s) used in this report are those established by the State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO 1995) and the City of Hemet Municipal Code.

3.1 Survey Methods

The survey methodology employed during the current investigation followed standard archaeological field procedures and was sufficient to accomplish a thorough assessment of the project. The field methodology employed for the project included walking evenly spaced survey transects set approximately 15 to 20 meters apart while visually inspecting the ground surface. All potentially sensitive areas where cultural resources might be located were closely inspected. Photographs documenting survey areas and overall survey conditions were taken frequently.

3.2 Results of the Field Survey

The cultural resources survey covered all areas of the project and took place on March 3, 2023. The survey was directed by Principal Investigator Tracy A. Stropes, M.A., RPA, with the assistance of Field Archaeologist James S. Shrieve. The entire property was accessible; however, ground visibility was characterized as poor due to dense non-native weeds and grasses found through the project (Plates 3.2-1 and 3.2-2).

The survey did not result in the identification of any prehistoric or historic resources within the subject property. Aerial photographs indicate that the entire property has been disced and cultivated for agricultural purposes since at least 1953 and never contained any structures. Further, the property does not contain any natural sources of water or bedrock often associated with prehistoric sites in the area. Coupled with the fact the property has previously been surveyed, also with negative results, it is unlikely that any unidentified resources exist within the project.



Plate 3.2-1: Overview of the project, facing south.



Plate 3.2-2: Overview of the project, facing east.

4.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

The Phase I survey for the Sanderson and Wentworth Project did not identify any cultural resources within the property. The EIC records search indicates that a previous survey of the property also did not identify any resources within the project (Lange 2005). Further, the property has never contained any built resources, has been impacted by previous agricultural use, and does not contain any natural features often associated with prehistoric sites in the area. As such, there is limited to no potential for any cultural resources to be present or disturbed by the proposed project.

Given that no archaeological sites, features, or artifacts were identified during the survey, no potential impacts to cultural resources are anticipated with the approval of the proposed development. No further archaeological study is recommended and no site-specific mitigation measures for cultural resources are necessary as a condition of project approval. However, in the event that any historic or prehistoric cultural resources are inadvertently discovered, all construction work in the immediate vicinity of the discovery shall stop and a qualified archaeologist shall be engaged to discuss the discovery and determine if further mitigation measures are warranted. Should human remains be discovered, treatment of these remains shall follow California Public Resources Code 5097.9. Any human remains that are determined to be Native American shall be reported to the Riverside County sheriff-coroner and subsequently to the NAHC.

5.0 LIST OF PREPARERS AND ORGANIZATIONS CONTACTED

The cultural resources survey program for the Sanderson and Wentworth Project was directed by Principal Investigator Tracy A. Stropes, M.A., RPA. The archaeological fieldwork was conducted by Field Archaeologist James S. Shrieve. The report text was prepared by Andrew J. Garrison, M.A., RPA, and report graphics were prepared by Emily T. Soong. Technical editing and report production were conducted by Shawna M. Krystek. The archaeological records search data was supplied by the EIC and compiled by Emily T. Soong.

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1961 Early Gathering Complexes of Western San Diego County: Results and Interpretations of an Archaeological Survey. *Archaeological Survey Annual Report 1960-1961*. University of California, Los Angeles.

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APPENDIX A

Resumes of Key Personnel

Andrew J. Garrison, MA, RPA

Project Archaeologist

BFSA Environmental Services, A Perennial Company

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Education

Master of Arts, Public History, University of California, Riverside	2009
Bachelor of Science, Anthropology, University of California, Riverside	2005
Bachelor of Arts, History, University of California, Riverside	2005

Professional Memberships

Register of Professional Archaeologists
Society for California Archaeology
Society for American Archaeology
California Council for the Promotion of History

Society of Primitive Technology
Lithic Studies Society
California Preservation Foundation
Pacific Coast Archaeological Society

Experience

Project Archaeologist **June 2017–Present**
BFSA Environmental Services, A Perennial Company **Poway, California**

Project management of all phases of archaeological investigations for local, state, and federal agencies including National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) and California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) level projects interacting with clients, sub-consultants, and lead agencies. Supervise and perform fieldwork including archaeological survey, monitoring, site testing, comprehensive site records checks, and historic building assessments. Perform and oversee technological analysis of prehistoric lithic assemblages. Author or co-author cultural resource management reports submitted to private clients and lead agencies.

Senior Archaeologist and GIS Specialist **2009–2017**
Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. **Orange, California**

Served as Project Archaeologist or Principal Investigator on multiple projects, including archaeological monitoring, cultural resource surveys, test excavations, and historic building assessments. Directed projects from start to finish, including budget and personnel hours proposals, field and laboratory direction, report writing, technical editing, Native American consultation, and final report submittal. Oversaw all GIS projects including data collection, spatial analysis, and map creation.

Preservation Researcher **2009**
City of Riverside Modernism Survey **Riverside, California**

Completed DPR Primary, District, and Building, Structure and Object Forms for five sites for a grant-funded project to survey designated modern architectural resources within the City of Riverside.

Information Officer
Eastern Information Center (EIC), University of California, Riverside

2005, 2008–2009
Riverside, California

Processed and catalogued restricted and unrestricted archaeological and historical site record forms. Conducted research projects and records searches for government agencies and private cultural resource firms.

Reports/Papers

- 2019 A Class III Archaeological Study for the Tuscany Valley (TM 33725) Project National Historic Preservation Act Section 106 Compliance, Lake Elsinore, Riverside County, California. Contributing author. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I and II Cultural Resources Assessment for the Jack Rabbit Trail Logistics Center Project, City of Beaumont, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the 10575 Foothill Boulevard Project, Rancho Cucamonga, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Cultural Resources Study for the County Road and East End Avenue Project, City of Chino, San Bernardino County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Phase II Cultural Resource Study for the McElwain Project, City of Murrieta, California. Contributing author. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Section 106 (NHPA) Historic Resources Study for the McElwain Project, City of Murrieta, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Cultural Resource Monitoring Report for the Sewer Group 818 Project, City of San Diego. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Phase I Cultural Resource Survey for the Stone Residence Project, 1525 Buckingham Drive, La Jolla, California 92037. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Seaton Commerce Center Project, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2017 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Marbella Villa Project, City of Desert Hot Springs, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2017 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for TTM 37109, City of Jurupa Valley, County of Riverside. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2017 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Winchester Dollar General Store Project, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2016 John Wayne Airport Jet Fuel Pipeline and Tank Farm Archaeological Monitoring Plan. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the County of Orange, California.
- 2016 Historic Resource Assessment for 220 South Batavia Street, Orange, CA 92868 Assessor's Parcel Number 041-064-4. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. Submitted to the City of Orange as part of Mills Act application.

- 2015 Historic Resource Report: 807-813 Harvard Boulevard, Los Angeles. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the South Central Coastal Information Center, California State University, Fullerton.
- 2015 Exploring a Traditional Rock Cairn: Test Excavation at CA-SDI-13/RBLI-26: The Rincon Indian Reservation, San Diego County, California. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc.
- 2014 Archaeological Monitoring Results: The New Los Angeles Federal Courthouse. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the South Central Coastal Information Center, California State University, Fullerton.
- 2012 Bolsa Chica Archaeological Project Volume 7, Technological Analysis of Stone Tools, Lithic Technology at Bolsa Chica: Reduction Maintenance and Experimentation. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc.

Presentations

- 2017 "Repair and Replace: Lithic Production Behavior as Indicated by the Debitage Assemblage from CA-MRP-283 the Hackney Site." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Fish Camp, California.
- 2016 "Bones, Stones, and Shell at Bolsa Chica: A Ceremonial Relationship?" Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Ontario, California.
- 2016 "Markers of Time: Exploring Transitions in the Bolsa Chica Assemblage." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Ontario, California.
- 2016 "Dating Duress: Understanding Prehistoric Climate Change at Bolsa Chica." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Ontario, California.
- 2014 "New Discoveries from an Old Collection: Comparing Recently Identified OGR Beads to Those Previously Analyzed from the Encino Village Site." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Visalia, California.
- 2012 Bolsa Chica Archaeology: Part Seven: Culture and Chronology. Lithic demonstration of experimental manufacturing techniques at the April meeting of The Pacific Coast Archaeological Society, Irvine, California.

APPENDIX B

Archaeological Records Search

(Deleted for Public Review; Bound Separately)

APPENDIX C

NAHC Sacred Lands File Search

(Deleted for Public Review; Bound Separately)