

**A PHASE I CULTURAL RESOURCES STUDY
FOR THE RUHS MEDICAL CENTER
MASTER PLAN AND PHASE I
DEVELOPMENT PROJECT
RIVERSIDE COUNTY, CALIFORNIA**

APNs 486-280-025, -026, -037, and -057

**Project Site Location: Section 16, Township 3 South, Range 3 West of the San Bernardino
Base and Meridian, as shown on the USGS (7.5-minute) *Sunnymead, California*
Quadrangle**

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***Fieldwork Performed: February 28, 2025
Key Words: 58.81-acre study area;
archaeological survey; negative results; no further study recommended.***

Archaeological Report Summary Information

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USGS Quadrangle: *Sunnymead, California*

Study Area: 58.81-acre study area

Key Words: Archaeological survey; 58.81-acre study area; negative results; County of Riverside; USGS *Sunnymead, California* topographic quadrangle; no further study recommended.

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1.0 MANAGEMENT SUMMARY/ABSTRACT

The following report describes the results of the cultural resources survey conducted by BFSA Environmental Services, a Perennial Company (BFSA), for the Riverside University Health System (RUHS) Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project. The project is located at 26520 Cactus Avenue, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. The property is owned by the County of Riverside, which will also serve as the Lead Agency for the project. As proposed, the project includes the expansion of the RUHS, formerly the Riverside County Regional Medical Center (RCRMC). The RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project study area consists of 58.81 acres within Assessor's Parcel Numbers (APNs) 486-280-025, -026, -037, and -057. The subject property is situated within Section 16, Township 3 South, Range 3 West of the San Bernardino Base and Meridian, as shown on the United States Geological Survey (USGS) *Sunnymead, California* (7.5-minute) topographic quadrangle map. BFSA conducted this assessment to locate and record any cultural resources within the project, in compliance with the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) and County of Riverside Cultural Resource Guidelines (Draft).

1.1 Purpose of Investigation

The purpose of this investigation was to determine if any cultural resources would be affected by the proposed land development. BFSA conducted an archaeological records search at the South Coastal Information Center (SCIC) at San Diego State University (SDSU). The records search results indicate that 23 resources (14 prehistoric and nine historic) are recorded within one mile of the project, none of which are located on the subject property. The records search also identified 34 previous studies conducted within one mile of the project, four of which included the subject property (Weaver 1975; McCarthy 1987; Bray 2009; Tang et al. 2012).

In addition, the Native American Heritage Commission (NAHC) was contacted for a Sacred Lands File (SLF) search, which was negative for the presence of any recorded Native American sacred sites or locations of religious or ceremonial importance within the vicinity of the project. In accordance with previous recommendations from the NAHC, BFSA contacted all Native American consultants listed in prior NAHC response letters for the region at least two weeks before the initiation of the field survey. All correspondence is provided in Appendix C.

1.2 Major Findings

BFSA field archaeologist Parker Sheriff conducted the pedestrian survey of the project on February 28, 2025. The Phase I cultural resources study for the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project did not identify any cultural resources within the project. These negative findings are consistent with previous surveys of the property (Weaver 1975; McCarthy 1987; Bray 2009; Tang et al. 2012). Due to prior impacts to the property from agricultural use and development, coupled with the absence of any cultural resources within the project boundaries, the potential for significant resources to be impacted by the proposed project

is minimal, and no impacts to cultural resources associated with the proposed development are anticipated.

1.3 Recommendation Summary

Based upon the results of this study, no further archaeological study or mitigation measures are recommended. However, in the unlikely event that any historic or prehistoric cultural resources are inadvertently discovered, all construction work in the immediate vicinity of the discovery should cease, and a County of Riverside qualified archaeologist should 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 (PRC) 5097.9. Any human remains that are determined to be Native American shall be reported to the Riverside County Medical Examiner and subsequently to the NAHC. A copy of this report will be permanently filed with the SCIC at SDSU. All notes, photographs, and other materials related to this project will be curated at the BFSAs archaeological laboratory in Poway, California.

2.0 INTRODUCTION

BFSA was retained by the applicant to conduct a cultural resources survey for the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project. The archaeological survey was conducted in order to comply with the requirements of CEQA and County of Riverside Cultural Resource Guidelines with regard to development-generated impacts to cultural resources. The project is located in an area of moderate cultural resource sensitivity. Sensitivity for cultural resources in a given area is usually indicated by known settlement patterns, which, in Riverside County, are focused around environments with accessible food and water.

The project is located at 26520 Cactus Avenue, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California (Figure 2.0–1). The RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project study area consists of 58.81 acres within APNs 486-280-025, -026, -037, and -057. The project is situated within Section 16, Township 3 South, Range 3 West of the San Bernardino Base and Meridian, as shown on the USGS *Sunnymead, California* (7.5-minute) topographic quadrangle map (Figure 2.0–2). Figure 2.0–3 depicts the project study area, and the project is specifically described as such:

The RUHS Medical Center is an existing medical center campus located northwest of the intersection of Cactus Avenue at Nason Street in the City of Moreno Valley, California. The proposed Project consists of two components: 1) adoption of a Master Plan (MP) for the RUHS Medical Center to guide expansion of uses at the Medical Center Campus in Moreno Valley through year 2055 (herein, “Future Phases”); and 2) site-specific design approvals for the near-term construction and operation of two of the buildings planned by the Master Plan (herein, “Phase I”), including a proposed Medical Office Building (MOB) and an Emergency Department Expansion (EDE) that would include an Inpatient Medical Care Facility (IMCF No. 1).

The proposed Master Plan identifies future phases of development on the existing Medical Center Campus through at least 2055. In addition to the MOB and EDE/IMFC No. 1 that would be constructed in Phase I, the Master Plan would accommodate five new medical office buildings; two new Inpatient Medical Care Facilities (IMCF Nos. 2 and 3); and four parking structures, in addition to surface parking, landscaping, and infrastructure improvements. In total, the Master Plan and Phase I Development Project cover 58.81 acres, within which some areas would remain in their existing condition and other areas would be disturbed by grading and development to support implementation of the Project.

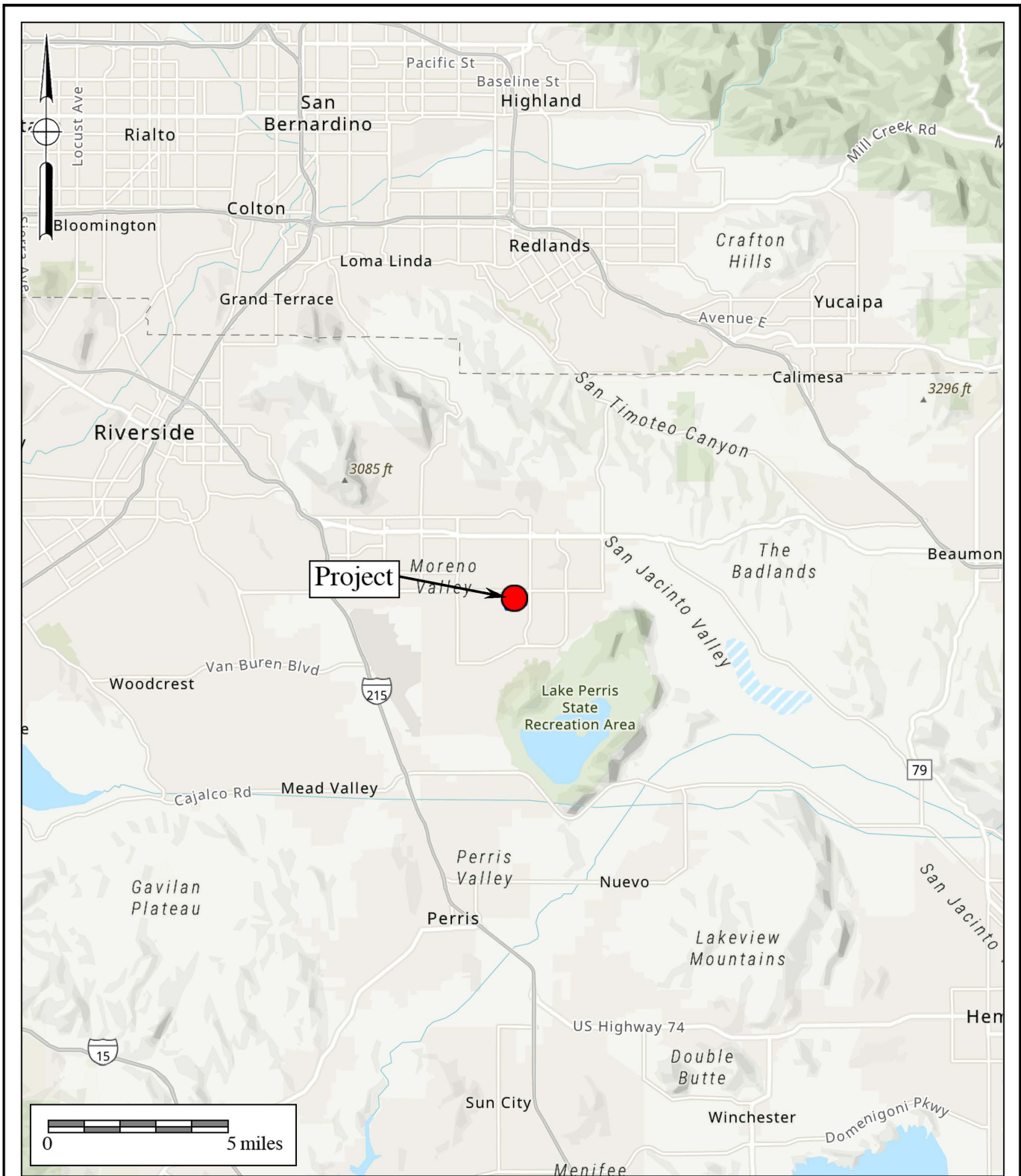


Figure 2.0-1
General Location Map

The RUHS Medical Center Master Plan
 and Phase I Development Project

Esri World Topographic Map



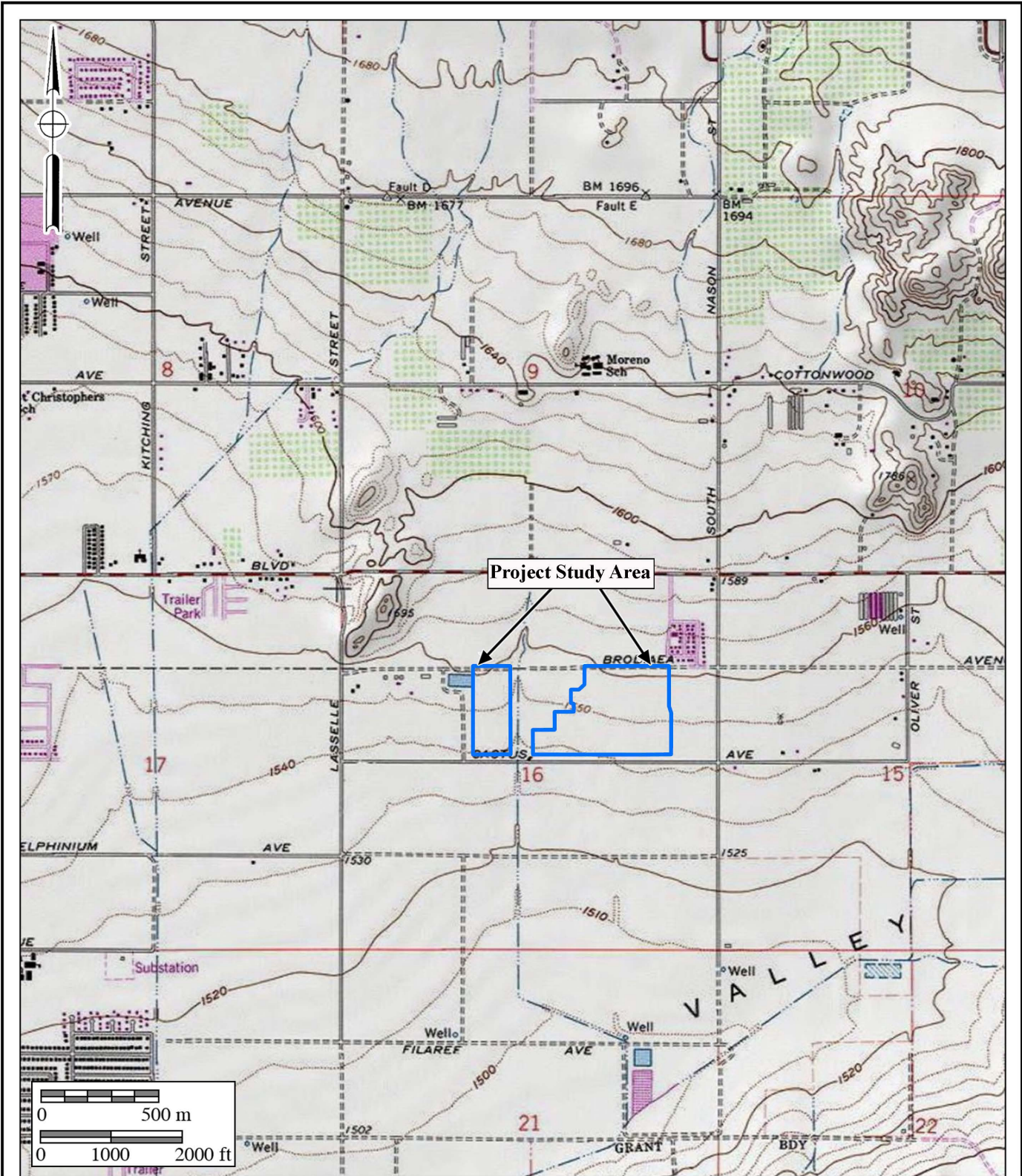


Figure 2.0-2

Project Location Map

The RUHS Medical Center Master Plan
and Phase I Development Project

USGS *Sunnymead* Quadrangle (7.5-minute series)



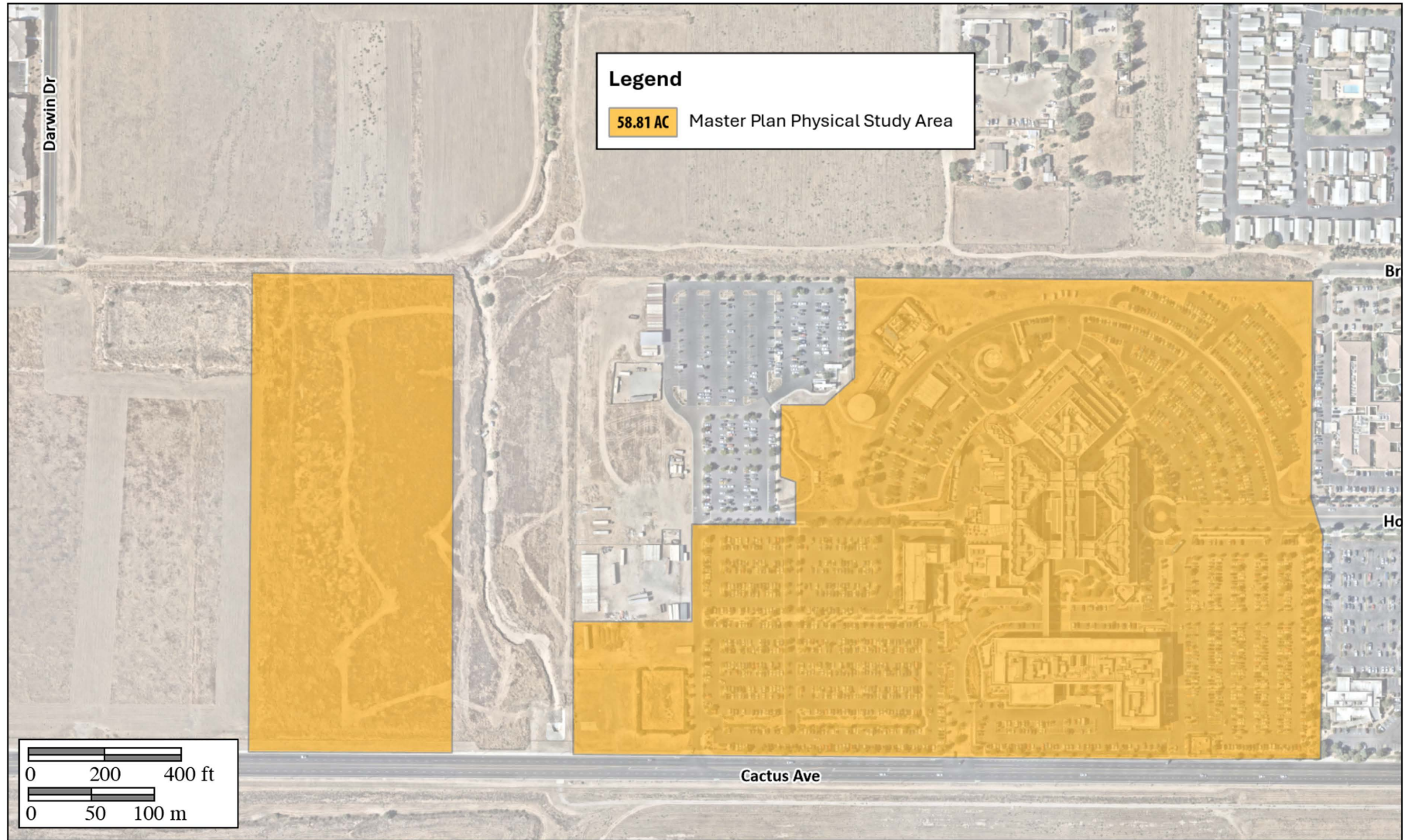


Figure 2.0-3
Limits of Disturbance
The RUHS Medical Center Master Plan
and Phase I Development Project

Principal Investigator Tracy A. Stropes, M.A., RPA directed the cultural resources study for the project. BFSAs field archaeologist Parker Sheriff conducted the field survey. The survey was conducted in 10- to 15-meter interval transects. The visibility of the natural ground surface varied due to existing infrastructure and vegetation. Senior Archaeologist Andrew J. Garrison, M.A., RPA prepared the technical report and created the report graphics. Danielle Del Castillo conducted technical editing and report production. Qualifications of key personnel are provided in Appendix A.

2.1 Previous Work

BFSAs conducted an archaeological records search for the project and the surrounding area within a one-mile radius at the SCIC. The records search results indicate that 23 resources (14 prehistoric and nine historic) are recorded within one mile of the project, none of which are located on the subject property. The records search also identified 34 previous studies conducted within one mile of the project, four of which included the subject property (Weaver 1975; McCarthy 1987; Bray 2009; Tang et al. 2012).

2.2 Project Setting

Riverside County lies within the Peninsular Range Geologic Province of southern California. The range, which trends northwest to southeast through the county, extends about 1,000 miles from the Raymond-Malibu Fault Zone in western Los Angeles County to the southern tip of Baja California. The project is relatively flat, with elevations ranging from approximately 1,540 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in the southwest corner to 1,565 feet AMSL in the northeast. The eastern three-quarters of the project has been impacted by development and contains existing infrastructure, parking areas, maintained commercial landscaping, and a storage and staging yard with shipping containers and building materials associated with the RCRMC campus. The remainder of the property, primarily the western quarter, although undeveloped, has been previously impacted by agriculture and repeated clearing and discing.

The subject property is located in the Moreno Valley, northeast of the March Air Reserve Base and northwest of Mount Russell. The Moreno Valley originally contained perennial grasses, which have primarily been replaced by non-native weeds and grasses. Although not present on the subject property, the Riversidian sage scrub plant community is the most prevalent native vegetation in the region. The Riversidian sage scrub is primarily found within the nearby Box Spring Mountains, Badlands, and Bernasconi Hills, and includes desert encelia, brittle brush, sagebrush, black sage, white sage, buckwheat, foxtails, and cacti. Mammals within the region include mule deer, coyote, bobcat, mountain lion, ground squirrel, and quail; birds include hawks and eagles, owls, mourning doves, mockingbirds, jays, herons, crows, finches, and sparrows.

During the prehistoric period, vegetation near the project provided sufficient food resources to support prehistoric human occupants. Animals that inhabited the project during prehistoric times included mammals such as rabbits, squirrels, gophers, mice, rats, deer, and coyotes, in addition to a variety of reptiles and amphibians. The natural setting of the project

during the prehistoric occupation offered a rich nutritional resource base. Fresh water was likely obtainable from seasonal drainages and the San Jacinto River, located east of the project. Currently, vegetation within the project is limited and primarily consists of pockets of non-native weeds and grasses within the undeveloped portions of the property, with the developed areas containing limited maintained commercial landscaping.

2.3 Cultural Setting

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.

2.3.1 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; however, the project does also fall within an area likely occupied by the Serrano.

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).

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

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).

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

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 environmentally stable, 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, which is a well-documented situation at Batiquitos Lagoon. Over a two-thousand-year period at Batiquitos Lagoon, 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 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 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 Sutton and Gardner (2010). Sutton and Gardner (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 Gardner (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 cogged 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 Gardner (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 Gardner (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 Gardner 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 Gardner 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).

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

Many Native American groups in the region hold the world view 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 circa 3,500 YBP moving toward southern California, with the Gabrielino language diffusing south into neighboring Yuman (Hokan) groups circa 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 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.

2.3.5 Protohistoric Period (Late Holocene: 1790 to Present)

Ethnohistoric and ethnographic evidence indicates that three Takic-speaking groups occupied Riverside County: the Cahuilla, the Gabrielino, and the Luiseño. However, the project is also located near the territory known to have been occupied by the Serrano. The geographic boundaries between these groups in pre- and proto-historic times are difficult to place. 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, 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 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.

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, the Orocopia Mountains, and the Chocolate Mountains to the east, Salton Sea and Borrego Springs to the south, Palomar Mountain and Lake Mathews to the west, and the Santa Ana River to the north (Bean 1978; Kroeber 1976). According to Bean et al. (1992), the Cahuilla were centered around the San Jacinto and Santa Rosa mountains. Milanovich (2021), quoting the Late Cahuilla elder Alvino Siva, states, "The Cahuilla boundaries existed as far west as Colton, north to the San Bernadino Mountains, east to the Chocolate Mountains, and south to Palomar Mountain."

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. The

following is a summary of ethnographic data regarding this group (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 publicly owned areas and areas 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, cat's claw, desert lily, mariposa lily, and a number of other species such as grass seed. Several 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 (?ístan). 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).

Luiŕeño: An Archaeological and Ethnographic Perspective

When contacted by the Spanish in the sixteenth century, the Luiŕeño 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 Luiŕeño 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 Luiŕeño 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 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 quartz or tourmaline crystals (Bean and Shipek 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, and 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, wood paddles and bowls. Baskets were made from rush, deer grass, and skunkbush, and 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).

2.3.6 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 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 the Spanish at 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 de Lasuén (of Mission San Diego de Alcalá), Father 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.

Through the mission system, the Spanish gained power through the support of a large, subjugated Native American workforce. The subjugation also included assigning labels to the Native population as it relates to the mission they were located on. As such, many of the names used for the Native groups in the area and later by ethnographers are not the original names the people had called themselves. 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 by 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 the 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. Considering the brutality of the 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. Further, many Native Americans had their traditional lands taken from them and moved to land that was not adequate for them to maintain their lifeways. 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, the Native Americans of southern Riverside County, including the Cahuilla, Cupeño, Luiseño, and Serrano, 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. Milanovich (2021) notes that "The treaty commissioners told the tribal leaders to sign the treaties, or face annihilation through war, settlement, relocation, and forced removal." The Treaty of Temecula was signed on January 5, 1852, while a similar treaty known as the Treaty of Santa Ysabel was signed with the Kumeyaay two days later (Milanovich 2021). However, Congress never ratified these treaties, and the promises laid out in them were rejected during a "secret session" (Brigandi 1998; Milanovich 2021). As a result, Native Americans were evicted from their lands, which were desired by American citizens. "The United States chose not to act on the issue until twenty-three years later when President Ulysses S. Grant began to establish reservations through executive orders in Southern California" (Milanovich 2021). 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 a million citrus trees were present in California. It is estimated that nearly half of that 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 County (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 what would become March Air Reserve Base. March Air Reserve Base was established on March 1, 1918, as the Alessandro Flying Training Field after the United States entered World War I (Gunther 1984). The name was officially changed to March Field on March 20, 1918, in honor of Peyton C. March, Jr., who had been killed in a training plane crash in Fort Worth, Texas, earlier that year. The airfield continued to change names, including March Army Air Field in 1941, March Army Air Base in 1942, March Army Air Force Base (to reflect the establishment of the United States Air Force) in 1947, and March Air Reserve Base in 1996 (March Field Air Museum 2024).

In the decades that followed, populations spread throughout the county into Lake Elsinore, Corona, Norco, Murrieta, and Wildomar. 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 with a population of over 1.3 million residents (Patterson 1971).

2.3.7 General History of the Moreno Valley

The “Town of Moreno was founded” in 1890 (P&D Consultants 2006) through the efforts of “Frank E. Brown, a civil engineer and co-founder of Redlands ... His water company [the Bear Valley Land and Water Company] built a pipeline to bring water to the area from Bear Valley in 1891. He and other investors plotted out acres of the valley for growing citrus, grapes and other fruit” (Ghori 2014). Due to Brown’s involvement, the town’s “name came from the Spanish word for Brown: *moreno*” (Ghori 2014). However, “the absence of a reliable water supply” forced many residents to move away (P&D Consultants 2006). As a result “[b]y 1901, few people resided in the Moreno Valley, and those who remained turned primarily to the dry farming of hay, grain, and grapes” (City of Moreno Valley 2019). Meanwhile “[n]eighboring townships, Sunnymead and

Edgemont, were more successful and established rural communities drawing on well water” (P&D Consultants 2006).

In 1918, Alessandro Aviation Field, which later became March Air Field and eventually March Air Reserve Base, was constructed “on the Alessandro Plain. The construction helped the community’s growth soar a second time in the following decades” (Ghori 2014). As documented:

The military airfield was originally built on 640 acres of land purchased primarily from the Hendrick Ranch. March was established at a time when the United States was anticipating entry into World War I and was rushing to build up its military forces. (City of Moreno Valley 2019)

Sunnymead, Edgemont, and Moreno “finally incorporated into the City of Moreno Valley in 1984, with a population of nearly 47,000” (P&D Consultants 2006). The city’s population grew to 100,000 by 1990 (Ghori 2014). Beginning in the 1970s and 1980s, Moreno Valley experienced a transition from rural enterprises to urbanization, which included the construction of housing developments and recreation opportunities (such as the Riverside International Raceway and the Lake Perris Recreation Area) (City of Moreno Valley 2019).

2.4 Research Goals

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 through time, as well as to aid in the determination of resource significance. For the current project, the study area under investigation is the western portion of Riverside County. The scope of work for the archaeological program conducted for the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project included an intensive pedestrian survey of the entire 58.81-acre project study area. Given the area involved and the narrow focus of the cultural resources study, the research design for this project was necessarily limited and general in nature. 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 the identified resources. Although survey-level investigations 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 consider the size and location of the project discussed above.

Research Questions:

- Can located cultural resources be associated with a specific time period, population, or individual?

- Do the types of 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 the located sites compare to others reported from different surveys conducted in the area?
- How do the 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 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 these 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 deposit, 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 of the cultural resources identified.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

The archaeological program for the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project consisted of a records search, a SLF search, an intensive pedestrian survey of the entire 58.81-acre study area, and the preparation of this technical report. This archaeological study conformed to County of Riverside Cultural Resource Guidelines and the statutory requirements of CEQA Section 15064.5. Specific definitions for archaeological resource type(s) used in this report are those established by the State Historic Preservation Office (1995).

3.1 Archaeological Records Search

BFSA conducted an archaeological records search at the SCIC at SDSU. Results of the records search are provided in Appendix B and discussed in Section 4.1. BFSA also reviewed the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) index, historic USGS data, and aerial photographs. In addition, the BFSA research library was consulted for any relevant historical information.

3.2 Field Methodology

In accordance with County of Riverside CEQA review requirements, an intensive pedestrian reconnaissance was conducted that employed a series of parallel survey transects spaced at 10- to 15-meter intervals to locate archaeological sites within the project. The archaeological survey of the project was conducted on February 28, 2025. The entire project was covered by the survey process and photographs were taken to document project conditions during the survey (see Section 4.2).

3.3 Report Preparation and Recordation

This report contains information regarding previous studies, statutory requirements for the project, a brief description of the setting, research methods employed, and the overall results of the survey. The report includes all appropriate illustrations and tabular information needed to make a complete and comprehensive presentation of these activities, including the methodologies employed and the personnel involved. A copy of this report will be permanently filed with the SCIC at SDSU. Any newly recorded sites, or sites requiring updated information, will be recorded on the appropriate Department of Parks and Recreation site forms, which will be held at the SCIC.

3.4 Native American Consultation

BFSA requested a review of the SLF by the NAHC on February 13, 2025, to determine if any recorded Native American sacred sites or locations of religious or ceremonial importance are present within the vicinity of the project. The NAHC SLF search did not indicate the presence of sacred sites or locations of religious or ceremonial importance within the search area. In accordance with previous recommendations of the NAHC, BFSA contacted all Native American consultants listed in previous NAHC response letters for the region at least two weeks prior to the

initiation of the field survey. This request is not part of any Assembly Bill 52 Native American consultation. All correspondence is provided in Appendix C.

3.5 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. Criteria outlined in the CEQA provide the guidance for making such a determination. The following sections detail CEQA criteria that a resource must meet in order to be determined important.

3.5.1 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 CRHR [California Register of Historical Resources] (PRC SS5024.1, Title 14 CCR [California Code of Regulations]. 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 an 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 an 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, or not included in a local register of historical resources (pursuant to Section 5020.1[k] of the PRC), or not identified in an 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 an 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 an historical resource is a project that may have a significant effect upon the environment. CEQA defines a substantial adverse change as:

- 1) Substantial adverse change in the significance of an historical resource means physical demolition, destruction, relocation, or alteration of the resource or its immediate surroundings such that the significance of an historical resource would be materially impaired.
- 2) The significance of an historical resource is materially impaired when a project:
 - a) Demolishes or materially alters in an adverse manner those physical characteristics of an 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 an 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 an 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 upon 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 an historical resource, as defined in subsection (a).
- 2) If a lead agency determines that the archaeological site is an historical resource, it shall refer to the provisions of Section 21084.1 of the PRC and 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 to 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 upon those resources shall not be considered a significant effect upon the environment. It shall be sufficient that both the resource and the effect upon it are noted in the Initial Study or Environmental Impact Report, if one is prepared to address impacts upon other resources, but they need not be considered further in the CEQA process.

Sections 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.

4.0 RESULTS

4.1 Records Search Results

BFSA conducted an archaeological records search for the project and the surrounding area within a one-mile radius at the SCIC. The records search results indicate that 23 resources (14 prehistoric and nine historic) are recorded within one mile of the subject property, none of which are located on the subject property. The prehistoric resources are all bedrock milling feature sites situated within the bedrock-laden foothills. The historic resources include two cisterns; three single-family residences, one of which was also utilized as a doctor’s office; one ranch complex; one group of foundations with associated trash scatter; and two road alignments. Table 4.1-1 provides detailed descriptions of the resources identified during the records search and their proximity to the proposed project.

Table 4.1-1
Cultural Resources Within One Mile of the
RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project

Site	Description	Distance from the Project (m)
P-33-000857	Prehistoric bedrock milling sites	209.3
P-33-003089		1,510.6
P-33-003133		1,469.6
P-33-003134		1,332.0
P-33-003135		1,240.7
P-33-003159		357.1
P-33-003223		1,121.6
P-33-003224		1,107.2
P-33-003233		1,253.8
P-33-003234		1,361.0
P-33-003235		1,108.9
P-33-003341		293.1
P-33-003342		380.8
P-33-016788		649.4
P-33-003248		Historic cisterns
P-33-003249	420.2	
P-33-007276	Historic single-family residences	906.2
P-33-007277		440.0
P-33-007281	Historic single-family residence and doctor’s office	1,541.0
P-33-011215	Historic ranch complex	1,161.8
P-33-015454	Historic foundations and associated trash scatter	703.1

Site	Description	Distance from the Project (m)
P-33-028580	Historic Alessandro Boulevard road alignment	1,200.5
P-33-028581	Historic Olive Street road alignment	1,247.2

The records search also identified 34 previous studies (Table 4.1-2) conducted within one mile of the project; four of which included the subject property (Weaver 1975; McCarthy 1987; Bray 2009; Tang et al. 2012). The Weaver (1975) and Tang et al. (2012) studies are mapped overlapping small portions of the study area and were primarily associated with the installation of water pipelines and storm drains primarily focused directly adjacent to the study area to the north. The 1987 study by McCarthy is a large cultural resources inventory for the City of Moreno Valley, and, based upon maps presented in the report, the current project was only included in a “Judgmental Survey.” Finally, the Bray (2009) study was conducted for an earlier expansion of the RCRMC campus and overlaps a portion of the already developed eastern portion of the study area. The results of the records search are included within Appendix B.

Table 4.1-2

Previous Studies Conducted Within a One-Mile Radius
of the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project

Alexandrowicz, John Stephen

- 2006 An Historical Resources Identification of Alessandro Pointe Project, Tract 34681, 25817 Alessandro Boulevard, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Blumel, Wendy and Andrew Meyers

- 2017 Cultural Resources Investigation of The One-Acre Cottonwood Basin Project in the City of Moreno Valley. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Bonner, Wayne H.

- 2011 Letter Report: Cultural Resources Records Search and Site Visit Results for T-Mobile USA Candidate IE24226-A. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Bonner, Wayne and Mamie Aislin-Kay

- 2008 Letter Report: Cultural Resource Records Search and Site Visit Results for Royal Street Communications Candidate. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Bray, Madeleine

- 2009 Negative Survey of Approximately 25 Acres for the Riverside County Regional Medical Center Expansion Project, City of Moreno Valley, County of Riverside, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Brunzell, David

- 2014 Cultural Resources Assessment of the Dracaea Project, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California (BCR Consulting Project No. TRF1401). Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Drover, C. E.

- 1987a An Archaeological Assessment of The A.L.T.A. Specific Plan, Moreno Valley, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.
- 1987b Letter Report: Archaeological Evaluation of Potential Hospital Site in Moreno Valley. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Drover, Christopher E.

- 1986 An Archaeological Assessment of Tract 20464, Moreno Valley, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.
- 1990 Environmental Impact Evaluation: The Stoneridge Project Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Duke, Holly, Desiree Martinez, Tim Spillane, and Sherri Gust

- 2018 Cultural Resources Assessment for the Alessandro Boulevard Convenience Store Project, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Encarnacion, Deidre and Daniel Ballester

- 2010 Identification and Evaluation of Historic Properties: Moreno Valley Medical Village Project, Assessor's Parcel Nos. 486-290-001 and -002, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Greenberg, Gregory P.

- 2014 Cultural Resources Survey: I CARE/ CLV5965, 14315 Nason Street, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California 92557. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Lindgren, Kristina

- 2018 Cultural Resources Investigation Moreno MDP Line H-2 Project Area in the City of Moreno

Valley. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Mack, Joanne M. and G.A. Clopine

- 1986 Archaeological Assessment of Assessor's Parcel # 483-340-005 And 009, Vicinity of Oliver Street and Alessandro Blvd., Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Macko, Michael E.

- 1988 Draft Report of An Archaeological Records Check and Literature Review for The Stoneridge Center Specific Plan No. 211, City Of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

McCarthy, Daniel F.

- 1986 An Archaeological Assessment Of 27 Acres of Land Located in The City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

- 1987 Cultural Resources Inventory for The City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

- 2000 Archaeological Survey of Parcel Map 29700, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Rosenberg, Seth A. and Brian F. Smith

- 2005 An Archaeological Survey for the Alessandro Plaza Project, City of Moreno Valley, County of Riverside, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc.

- 1984a Cultural Resource Survey Report on Wolfskill Ranch. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

- 1984b Cultural Resource Survey Report for Tract 19861, Near Moreno, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Stropes, Tracy A. and Brian F. Smith

- 2016 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the TTM 37060 Project, City of Moreno Valley, County of Riverside. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Smith, Brian F.

- 2020 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the Commercial Center Shell Gas Station Express Car Wash Office Building Project. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Smith, Brian F. and Courtney J.A. McNair

- 2021 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey of the Pacifica Alessandro Project, City of Moreno Valley, County of Riverside. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Tang, Bai

- 2015 Update to Historical/Archaeological Resources Survey Assessor's Parcel No. 486-280-043 (Rocas Grandes Project) City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California CRM TECH Contract No. 2980. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Tang, Bai and Michael Hogan

- 2013a Historical/Archeological Resources Survey Report, Assessor's Parcel No. 486-280-043, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

- 2013b Historical/Archaeological Resources Survey Report, Desilting Basin Site, Boulder Ridge Family Apartments Project, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Tang, Bai, Michael Hogan, Deirdre Encarnacion, and Daniel Ballester

- 2012 Phase I Archaeological Assessment: Moreno Master Drainage Plan Revision. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Tetra Tech, Inc.

- 2006 An Archaeological Survey of Approximately 20 Acres (AP 477-180-012 and -013) for the Tentative Tract 34397 Moreno Valley Project Located Southeast of Cottonwood Avenue and Nason Street, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California 92555. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

- 2007 An Archaeological Survey of 10-Acres (APN 486-280-001) Southeast of the Intersection of Alessandro Boulevard and Lasselle Street, Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California 92555. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Weaver, Richard A.

- 1975 Environmental Impact Evaluation: Archaeology of Brodiaea Avenue, Pl 984, Water Systems Addition, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Wilke, Philip J.

- 1979 Environmental Impact Evaluation: An Archaeological Assessment of 17.64 Acres Considered for Change of Zone (CZ 2707), Southeast of Sunnymead, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

Wirth Associates

- 1983 Devers-Serrano-Villa Park Transmission System Supplement to the Cultural Resources Technical Report - Public Review Document and Confidential Appendices. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

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

- The NRHP Index
- The Office of Historic Preservation, Built Environment Resource Directory
- Historic USGS data
- Historic aerial photographs (1938 to 2024)

These sources did not indicate the presence of any potential archaeological or historical resources currently within the project. The aerial imagery and maps also indicate the property was historically utilized for agricultural purposes and devoid of any structures until between 1985 and 1997, when the RCRMC campus first became visible. Development of the RCRMC campus, at that time, appears to have included grading across all but the approximately western 15 acres of the study area.

BFSA also requested a SLF search from the NAHC to determine if any recorded Native American sacred sites or locations of religious or ceremonial importance are present within the vicinity of the project. The NAHC SLF search did not indicate the presence of sacred sites or locations of religious or ceremonial importance within the search area. In accordance with previous recommendations of the NAHC, BFSA contacted all Native American consultants listed in previous NAHC response letters for the region at least two weeks prior to the initiation of the field survey. At the time of this report, the only responses to this tribal scoping consisted of an email autoreply from the Rincon Band of Luiseno Indians, who were out of the office, and replies from the Fort Yuma Quechan Indian Tribe and Torres Martinez Desert Cahuilla Indians, both of whom deferred to more local tribes. All correspondence is provided in Appendix C.

4.2 Results of the Field Survey

BFSA field archaeologist Parker Sherriff conducted the pedestrian survey of the project on February 28, 2025. Aerial photographs, maps, and a compass facilitated the orientation and location of project boundaries. The entire study area was surveyed in 10- to 15-meter transects. A survey form, field notes, and photographs documented the survey work undertaken.

At the time of the survey, ground visibility throughout the property varied. Within the eastern three-quarters of the study area, visibility was hindered by the existing RCRMC infrastructure, parking areas, maintained commercial landscaping, and a storage and staging yard with shipping containers and building materials (Plates 4.2–1 and 4.2–2). Visibility within the western one-quarter of the property was at times hindered by pockets of dense non-native vegetation (Plates 4.2–3 and 4.2–4). All exposed ground surfaces were carefully inspected, including rodent burrows and disturbed areas. The survey did not identify any cultural resources within the project and confirmed that most of the property has previously been impacted by the development of the current RUHS, formerly the RCRMC campus.



Plate 4.2–1: Overview of the eastern portion of the project from the southeast corner of the property, facing northwest.



Plate 4.2-2: Overview of the eastern portion of the project, facing northeast.



Plate 4.2-3: Overview of the western quarter of the property, facing south.



Plate 4.2–4: Overview of the western quarter of the property, facing north.

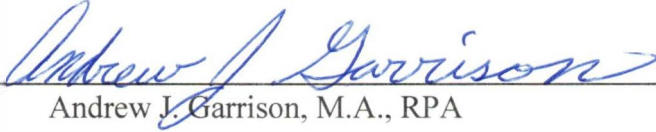
5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

The Phase I cultural resources study for the RUHS Medical Center Master Plan and Phase I Development Project did not identify any cultural resources within the study area. The negative findings of the current study are consistent with previous surveys of the property (Weaver 1975; McCarthy 1987; Bray 2009; Tang et al. 2012). Further, the only prehistoric sites within one mile of the property are bedrock milling feature sites situated within the surrounding bedrock-laden foothills. Given that the property is situated within a valley and does not contain any bedrock outcroppings, the potential for prehistoric resources is low. In addition, the property was historically devoid of any structures and was utilized for agriculture before being partially developed for the current RUHS, formerly the RCRMC campus. As such, due to prior impacts to the property from agricultural use and development, coupled with the absence of any cultural resources within the project boundaries, the potential for significant resources to be impacted by the proposed project is minimal, and no impacts to cultural resources associated with the proposed development are anticipated.

Based upon the results of this study, no further archaeological study or mitigation measures are recommended. However, in the unlikely event that any historic or prehistoric cultural resources are inadvertently discovered, all construction work in the immediate vicinity of the discovery should cease, and a County of Riverside qualified archaeologist should 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 PRC 5097.9. Any human remains that are determined to be Native American shall be reported to the Riverside County Medical Examiner and subsequently to the NAHC. A copy of this report will be submitted to the SCIC at SDSU.

6.0 CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that the statements furnished above and in the attached exhibits present the data and information required for this archaeological report, and that the facts, statements, and information presented are true and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief.



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Senior Archaeologist
County of Riverside Registration #319

October 17, 2025

Date

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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.

Weaver, Richard A.

- 1975 Environmental Impact Evaluation: Archaeology of Brodiaea Avenue, Pl 984, Water Systems Addition, Riverside County, California. Unpublished report on file at the South Coastal Information Center at San Diego State University.

APPENDIX A

Qualifications of Key Personnel

Andrew J. Garrison, MA, RPA

Senior 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 of Primitive Technology
Society for California Archaeology	Lithic Studies Society
Society for American Archaeology	California Preservation Foundation
California Council for the Promotion of History	Pacific Coast Archaeological Society

Experience

Senior Archaeologist

BFSA Environmental Services, a Perennial Company

June 2017–Present

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

Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc.

2009–2017

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

City of Riverside Modernism Survey

2009

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 Cultural Resource Monitoring Report for the Pipeline Rehabilitation AP-1 Project, City of San Diego, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Cultural Resources Study for the Pioneer Redlands Project, San Bernardino County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Cultural Resource Report for the U.S. Allied Carriers Project, City of Riverside, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the Go Fresh Gas Station Project, City of Moreno Valley, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Negative Cultural Resources Survey Report for the Barnaba Soccer Fields and Event Space Project, San Diego County, California.
- 2019 Phase I Cultural Resource Survey for the 2608 South Escondido Boulevard Project, City of Escondido. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Negative Cultural Resources Survey Report for the Quail Ridge Project, San Diego County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resource Study for the Eastvale Self Storage Project, Eastvale, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 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 Cultural Resources Assessment for the Dudley Pomona Project, Pomona, California. 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 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the IDI Rider 2 & 4 High Cube Warehouses and PVSD Channel Improvement Project, Perris, 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 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the IPT Perris DC III Western/Nandina Project, Perris, 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.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey Report for the Commercial/Retail NWC Mountain and Lake Streets Project, City of Lake Elsinore, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Section 106 (NHPA) Historic Resources Study for the Twin Channel Project, City of San Bernardino, San Bernardino County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 Cultural Resources Study for the 10407 Elm Avenue Project, City of Fontana, San Bernardino County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resource Study for the Olivenhain Apartments Project, Encinitas, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resource Study for the Sanctuary Project, Encinitas, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Cultural Resources Survey Report for the Borrego Springs 141 Project, San Diego County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the Natwar Project, Perris, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the Morningstar Marguerite Project, Mission Viejo, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Anza Baptist Church Project, Riverside County. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Inland Propane Project, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2019 A Phase I Cultural Resources Survey for the First Industrial Wilson Avenue Project, Perris, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 A Class III Historic Resource Study for Phase 2 of the Atwell Project for Section 106 Compliance, Banning, 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 Hanna Banning Project, Banning, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.

- 2018 Cultural Resources Negative Findings for the SNC Mixed Use Project, San Diego County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Cultural Resources Study for the Perrin Oak Ranch Winery Project, San Diego County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Phase I Cultural Resource Survey for the Stemley 42nd Street Project, San Diego, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Cultural Resource Monitoring Report for the 320 West Cedar Street Project, San Diego, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Cultural Resource Monitoring Report for the 8352 La Jolla Shores Drive Project, San Diego, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 Phase I Cultural Resources Survey of APNs 316-210-032 and -033, City of Moreno Valley, County of Riverside. Contributing author. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2018 A Cultural Resources Assessment for TR 37177, City of Riverside, Riverside County, California. 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 Survey for the Jefferson & Ivy Project, City of Murrieta, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2017 A Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment for the Nuevo Dollar General Store Project, Riverside County, California. Brian F. Smith and Associates, Inc.
- 2017 A Phase I Cultural Resource Study for the Westmont Project, Encinitas, California. 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.
- 2017 Phase I Cultural Resource Assessment for TTM 31810 (42.42 acres) Predico Properties Olive Grove Project. Scientific Resource Surveys, 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 Phase I Cultural Resources Assessment: All Star Super Storage City of Menifee Project, 2015-156. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the Eastern Information Center, University of California, Riverside.
- 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.
- 2015 Class III Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. Survey for The Lynx Cat Granite Quarry and Water Valley Road Widening Project County of San Bernardino, California, Near the Community of Hinkley. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the South Central Coastal Information Center, California State University, Fullerton.
- 2014 Archaeological Phase I: Cultural Resource Survey of the South West Quadrant of Fairview Park, Costa Mesa. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the South Central Coastal Information Center, California State University, Fullerton.
- 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.
- 2010 Phase II Cultural Resources Report Site CA-RIV-2160 PM No. 35164. Scientific Resource Surveys, Inc. On file at the Eastern Information Center, University of California, Riverside.
- 2009 Riverside Modernism Context Survey, contributing author. Available online at the City of Riverside.

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.
- 2015 "Successive Cultural Phasing Of Prehistoric Northern Orange County, California." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Redding, California.
- 2015 "Southern California Cogged Stone Replication: Experimentation and Results." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Redding, California.

- 2015 "Prehistoric House Keeping: Lithic Analysis of an Intermediate Horizon House Pit." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Redding, California.
- 2015 "Pits and Privies: The Use and Disposal of Artifacts from Historic Los Angeles." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Redding, California.
- 2015 "Grooving in the Past: A Demonstration of the Manufacturing of OGR beads and a look at Past SRS, Inc. Replicative Studies." Demonstration of experimental manufacturing techniques at the January meeting of The Pacific Coast Archaeological Society, Irvine, California.
- 2014 "From Artifact to Replication: Examining *Olivella* Grooved Bead Manufacturing." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Visalia, 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.
- 2012 "Expedient Flaked Tools from Bolsa Chica: Exploring the Lithic Technological Organization." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, San Diego, California.
- 2012 "Utilitarian and Ceremonial Ground Stone Production at Bolsa Chica Identified Through Production Tools." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, San Diego, California.
- 2012 "Connecting Production Industries at Bolsa Chica: Lithic Reduction and Bead Manufacturing." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, San Diego, California.
- 2011 Bolsa Chica Archaeology: Part Four: Mesa Production Industries. Co-presenter at the April meeting of The Pacific Coast Archaeological Society, Irvine, California.
- 2011 "Hammerstones from Bolsa Chica and Their Relationship towards Site Interpretation." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Rohnert Park, California.
- 2011 "Exploring Bipolar Reduction at Bolsa Chica: Debitage Analysis and Replication." Presented at the Society for California Archaeology Annual Meeting, Rohnert Park, California.

APPENDIX B

Archaeological Records Search Results

(Deleted for Public Review; Bound Separately)

APPENDIX C

NAHC Sacred Lands File Search Results

(Deleted for Public Review; Bound Separately)