

**5.16 CULTURAL RESOURCES**

This section addresses the potential cultural resources impacts of the Palomar Energy Project. Cultural resources considered include archaeological sites and artifacts, historical structures and buildings, and locations of concern for traditional cultural values. The section addresses potential impacts at the power plant site and along the proposed water supply/wastewater return pipeline and natural gas pipeline upgrade routes, based on archival research and field surveys.

As discussed throughout the AFC, the Palomar Energy Project will be developed within Planning Area 1 of the proposed ERTC industrial park. Industrial park development activities prior to Palomar project construction will thoroughly disturb the ground surface of the 20-acre plant site, as well as a major portion of the water supply/wastewater return pipeline route. If cultural resources are present in the Palomar project area (which is considered unlikely, based on the investigations discussed in this section), they almost certainly would be encountered during the industrial park development grading activities that occur prior to the commencement of Palomar project construction. Section 5.16.5 assesses the cumulative effects of the industrial park project together with the Palomar project. In order to provide the data requested by the CEC Staff, the cumulative analysis delineates between effects associated with Planning Area 1 of the industrial park versus the remainder of the industrial park.

SDG&E will upgrade approximately 2,600 feet of natural gas pipeline about one mile from the Palomar site in central Escondido. This upgrade will occur beneath existing paved streets. A records search and a field reconnaissance of the pipeline route identified no cultural resources. This pipeline upgrade will have no cultural resources impacts, and is not discussed further in this section.

A detailed Technical Report of the cultural resources investigations for the ERTC Specific Plan Area, which includes the overall ERTC industrial park site (Planning Areas 1-8) and therefore also includes the Palomar site (Planning Area 1 of the industrial park), is provided as Appendix I of the AFC. The portion of Appendix I that provides potentially sensitive archaeological site information has been provided to the CEC under separate cover with a request for confidentiality under Title 20, California Code of Regulations 2501 et seq.

**5.16.1 Affected Environment**

Human occupation of the southern California coast has considerable antiquity. These pre-contact people had an economy based on hunting and gathering of native plants, animals and sea life. Understanding the lifeways of these people and the cultural resources of the region requires some background knowledge of the natural environment, the previous prehistoric research, the ethnographic record, and the local history. These issues are briefly summarized below.

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### 5.16.1.1 Natural Environment

As discussed in Sections 5.5, Geologic Resources and 5.6 Agriculture and Soils, the underlying geology of the project area consists of Mesozoic Era granitic rocks primarily tonalite (quartz diorite) and diorite. In the project area, bedrock granitic rocks form rounded and weathered outcrops, some of which exhibit natural polishing. This natural polishing is caused by water erosion, but is occasionally confused with the polish resulting from prehistoric milling. Soils in the area consist of weathered, decomposed granitic silts, sands and gravels. Landforms consist of rounded, weathered hills bisected by small seasonal drainages. These form tributaries of Escondido Creek, located approximately 0.6 mile southeast of the power plant site. Escondido Creek flows in a southwesterly direction and is a year-round stream with a well-developed riparian plant community. Today, this flow is enhanced by urban runoff; Escondido Creek may not have been a year-round water source at times during prehistory.

The vegetation in the project area during prehistoric times probably consisted of two major plant communities: coastal sage scrub and valley grassland. As discussed in Section 5.3 Biological Resources, the area currently is highly disturbed and dominated by non-native plants, although some remnants of the coastal sage scrub plant community still exist. Coastal sage scrub was not particularly productive for prehistoric people and was probably much less extensive than today because of intentional burning and management by Native peoples (Bean and Lawton 1968, 1973; Bean and Shipek 1978; Lawton 1974; Lawton and Bean 1968).

Grasslands once covered much of the coastal strip of southern California as far north as Santa Barbara and encompassed much of the Los Angeles Basin and coastal San Diego County. Called the valley grassland community, they formed their most distinctive stands in the foothills of the San Joaquin and Sacramento Valleys (Heady 1988). *Stipa pulchra* or other *Stipa* species typically dominated the community. Today many of the former valley grassland areas have been covered by coastal sage scrub and by non-native annuals (Heady 1988). Grass seeds were a staple food resource second only to acorns in the Late Prehistoric Period native diet (Bean and Shipek 1978; White 1963).

Coast live oak (*Quercus agrifolia*), the acorns of which were a favored food resource in the Late Prehistoric period, formed a patchy over-story in the coastal grasslands of San Diego County. Still occasionally seen on northern slopes and in drainages, coast live oaks were probably much more plentiful in prehistory. One such oak-covered drainage exists approximately 250 meters (830 feet) southwest of the Palomar plant site, although *Eucalyptus spp.* trees dominate the upper parts of it. Oaks are also located along Escondido Creek. Acorns of the scrub oak (*Q. berberidifolia* and *Q. dumosa*) were considered less desirable, but were also a food resource for Late Prehistoric populations. These are also found in the vicinity, but not within the project site.

Major wildlife species found in this environment prehistorically were coyote (*Canis latrans*), mule deer (*Odocoileus hemionus*), grizzly bear (*Ursus arctos*), mountain lion (*Felis concolor*), rabbit (*Sylvilagus auduboni*), jackrabbit (*Lepus californicus*), and various rodents, the most notable of which are the valley pocket gopher (*Thomomys bottae*), California ground squirrel (*Ostospermophilus beecheyi*), the western grey squirrel (*Sciurus griseus*), and the dusky footed woodrat (*Neotoma fuscipes*) (Heady 1988). Rabbits, jackrabbits, and rodents were very important to the prehistoric diet; deer were somewhat less significant for food, but were an important source of leather, bone, and antler.

### 5.16.1.2 Prehistoric Background

The most influential syntheses of the prehistory of southern California are those proposed by Wallace (1955, 1978) and Warren (1968, 1984); (Warren and Crabtree 1986). They are interpretations and extrapolations from sparse and uneven research, and perhaps should be viewed as preliminary frameworks rather than solid concrete foundations. In general terms, these chronologies posit three or more periods: a Paleoindian, Archaic, and Late Prehistoric. The dates associated with these are approximate, and there seems to be considerable regional variation.

#### Paleoindian Period (12,000 to 7,000 BP)

The earliest well-documented sites in the San Diego area belong to the San Dieguito complex, thought to be something over 9,000 years old. Related materials have been found in the Mojave Desert and in the Great Basin, called the Lake Mojave complex. Recently, materials associated with human bone excavated on Santa Rosa Island were dated to 11,500 years BP (Johnson et al. 1999). While this substantiates the notion of early occupations in southern California, the relationship of these island people to the San Dieguito complex is poorly understood. The San Dieguito complex, sometimes placed in a larger context and termed the Paleo-Coastal tradition, is thought by most researchers to have an emphasis on big game hunting and coastal resources. The assemblage is dominated by finely-made scraping and chopping tools of felsite or fine-grained basalt. Large stemmed Lake Mojave and Silver Lake type projectile points, are relatively abundant while seed grinding technology was absent or limited. This suggests a subsistence emphasis on big game hunting.

#### Archaic Period (7,000 to 1,500 BP)

This period brings an apparent shift toward a more generalized economy and an increased emphasis on seed resources, small game, and shellfish. The local cultural manifestations of the Archaic period are called the La Jollan complex along the coast, and the Pauma complex inland. Pauma Complex sites lack the shell that dominates many La Jollan sites. Along with an economic focus on gathering plant resources, the settlement system appears to have been more sedentary. There appears to have been a shift away from the northern San Diego coast in the middle of the period. This is probably a response to the depletion of coastal resources

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and the siltation of lagoons. The La Jollan assemblage is dominated by rough, cobble-based choppers and scrapers and slab and basin metates.

### **Late Prehistoric Period (1,500 BP to 1769)**

Near the coast and in the Peninsular Mountains beginning as far back as approximately 1,500 years ago, patterns began to emerge which seem to suggest the ethnohistoric Diegueño, and Luiseño, (including the Juaneño). This period is characterized by higher population densities and elaborations in social, political, and technological systems, some of which probably derived from the Gabrieliño and Chumash to the north. On the other hand, some traits probably originated with the Hohokam and diffused west by way of the Lower Colorado River tribes, to which the Kumeyaay are closely related. 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, but effective technological innovations.

Two major complexes characterize the Late prehistoric archaeology of the San Diego coast and foothills: the San Luis Rey and the Cuyamaca. The definition of the San Luis Rey complex was based primarily on excavations near Pala, about 18 miles north of the project area. The San Luis Rey complex is thought to represent the ancestors of the ethnographic Luiseño (True 1966, 1970), who arrived in northern San Diego county, as part of a series of coastward migrations of Shoshonean speakers, sometimes called the Takic Wedge (Meighan 1954, Waugh 1986).

San Luis Rey I is characterized by slab metates and mortars, both of which can be found in shaped and unshaped, bedrock and portable configurations. Their attendant manos, and pestles can also be shaped or unshaped. Cremations, bone awls, and stone and shell ornaments are also prominent in the material culture. The later San Luis Rey II assemblage adds to the earlier materials, pottery cooking and storage vessels, cremation urns, polychrome pictographs. Chipped stone arrowpoints are dominated by the Cottonwood Triangular series, but Desert Side-notched, Dos Cabazas Serrated, leaf-shaped, and stemmed styles also occur.

Subsistence is thought to be focused on the utilization of acorns and grass seeds, with small game serving as a primary protein resource with big game a secondary resource. Fish and shellfish were also secondary resources except right along the coast where they assumed primary importance (Bean and Shipek 1978; Sparkman 1908). The settlement system is characterized by seasonal villages where people utilized a central-based collecting subsistence strategy.

The Cuyamaca complex is primarily known from the work of D. L. True at Cuyamaca Rancho State Park, some 20 miles southwest of the project area. True suggests that this late prehistoric complex represents a continuous *in situ* development from the Archaic (La Jollan) to the ethnohistoric Kumeyaay (True 1970). This lack of a hiatus in the cultural sequence from La Jollan to the Kumeyaay and a similar situation in the Santa Barbara area (King

1981:327) leads True to suggest that the various millingstone cultures (i.e., Oak Grove, Topanga, La Jollan) along the southern California coast may have been Hokan speakers and the direct ancestors of the Kumeyaay and Chumash. On the other hand, some researchers looking at origin myths and other ethnographic and archaeological evidence suggest that, during the early portion of the period, Yuman speakers, the ancestors of the Kumeyaay, entered southern San Diego County from the Colorado River area (Moriarty 1966, 1967).

The Cuyamaca complex is characterized by the presence of steatite arrowshaft straighteners, steatite pendants (some of these steatite items are incised with crosshatching), steatite comales (heating stones, some of which are biconically drilled on one end), Tizon Brownware pottery, ceramic figurines reminiscent of Hohokam styles, ceramic "Yuman bow pipes," ceramic rattles, miniature pottery various cobble-based tools (e.g., scrapers, choppers, hammerstones), bone awls, manos and metates, mortars and pestles, and Desert Side-Notched (more common) and Cottonwood series projectile points.

### 5.16.1.3 Ethnographic Background

The project area is near the traditional territorial boundary between the Luiseño to the north, and the Kumeyaay to the south (see Figure 5.16-1). The Luiseño are the most southwesterly of the Shoshonean or Uto-Aztecan speakers (Kroeber 1925; Sparkman 1908; Strong 1929). Their language is a member of the Takic branch of this large linguistic stock. Takic, after the word for person, also includes Cahuilla, in northeast San Diego County and Riverside County; the Gabrieleño, a once populous and prosperous group who lived in the Los Angeles Basin; and foothill and desert groups, the Serrano, Vanyume, and Kitanemuk.

The Kumeyaay (also known as Kamia, Ipai, Tipai, and Diegueño) occupied the southern two thirds of San Diego County. They share a considerable number of cultural traits with the Luiseño, but speak an unrelated language. The Kumeyaay language belongs to the Hokan language stock, which includes the lower Colorado River tribes (e.g., Quechan [Yuma], Mojave, Halchidhoma, Cocopa) and Arizona groups (e.g., Maricopa, Havasupai, Paipai) to whom they are closely related. The term Kamia and Kumeyaay are variants of the same word meaning westerner, from the point of view of the Colorado River groups (i.e., the Quechan and Mojave).

The Kumeyaay and Luiseño lived in semi-sedentary, politically autonomous villages or rancherías. Most rancherías were the seat of a clan, although it is thought that aboriginally some clans lived at more than one ranchería and some rancherías contained more than one clan. With the Spanish invasion came wave after wave of devastating epidemics and very high death rates. The worst year was 1806 when a measles epidemic hit coastal southern California. An estimated 33.5 percent of the Indian population along the coast died (Cook 1976).

**Figure 5.16-1 Native American Territorial Boundaries**

The most basic social and economic unit was the patrilocal extended family. The extended family unit has persisted in the face of massive social and economic change (Harvey 1974). Within the family, there was a basic division of labor based upon gender and age, but it was not rigid. Women made pottery, basketry, gathered plant resources, ground seeds and acorns, prepared meals and so on. Men hunted, fished, helped collect and carry acorns and other heavy tasks, and made tools for the hunt. Old women were active in teaching and caring for children while younger women were busy with other tasks. Older men were involved in politics, ceremonial life, teaching young men, and making nets, stone tools, and ceremonial paraphernalia (Bean and Shipek 1978).

Settlement systems typically consisted of two or more seasonal villages with temporary camps radiating away from these central places. For example, the Kumeyaay band who spent summers at Mount Laguna, migrated downslope to Vallecitos to spend the winter in the desert. Padre Boscana writing at San Juan Capistrano in 1813, alludes to a similar bipolar settlement system: "In the winter they resided in one place, and in summer in another. This was general among them, excepting in the case of those tribes located on the sea coast who seldom moved because their maintenance was derived from the sea" (Boscana 1933 [1813]).

Houses were typically hemispherical, built with a framework of poles and covered with reeds or brush. Sometimes these were dug into the earth approximately 60 cm. A hole was left for smoke to escape through the top, and entry was provided by a crawl hole in the side or a covered crawl way extending a few feet from the structure (Kroeber 1925; Sparkman 1908).

As Sparkman (1908) and Kroeber (1925) suggest, most of the cooking and other activities took place outside, except during the infrequent inclement weather. A rectangular pole and beam structure with no walls and a flat, brush covered roof provided shade and a locus for this activity. This structure is known by the Spanish term *ramada* and is widespread in the greater Southwest. Unlike the case with the Yokuts, the Mojave, and the Quechan, this shade roof structure is not used in any ceremonial connection (Kroeber 1925).

Most researchers suggest that with the exception of the Colorado River tribes, the economic system of southern California Indians in the Late Prehistoric and Ethnographic periods consisted of hunting and gathering with a focus on small game, acorns, grass seeds and other plant resources. As White (1963) succinctly put it: "None of the so-called Mission Indian Tribes were agriculturalists."

Acorns, the most important staple among inland groups, are quite bitter with tannic acid, and must go through a labor-intensive leaching/grinding process before they can be made into a mush or pudding and eaten. As reconstructions suggest, game was a major source of protein in the diet. In addition, animals provided sinew and bone for tools, skins and, in particular, rabbit fur for blankets. Among groups right along the coast, seafood was a major protein source (Bean and Shipek 1978; White 1963). Deer were both stalked and driven. Small game were taken with a curved throwing stick (the Spanish term *macana* is often used); nets were

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utilized for rabbit drives. Deadfall and spring-pole traps were utilized for small game as well (Bean and Shipek 1978; Sparkman 1908).

A wide range of tools were made of locally available and imported materials. A simple shoulder-height bow was utilized for hunting. Arrows had either fire-hardened wood or flaked stone points. Numerous other flaked stone tools were made including scrapers, choppers, flake-based cutting tools, and biface knives. Preferred stone types were locally available fine-grained metavolcanics, cherts, and quartz. Obsidian was imported from the deserts to the north and east.

Groundstone objects include mortars and pestles typically made of locally available, fine-grained granite like that found in the project area. Both portable and bedrock types are known. Many examples of the latter are documented at site CA-SDI-12,209 just north of Escondido Creek. Simple basin metates, and cobble manos, were also used for grinding grass seeds and other items. Shaped metates and three-legged metates were not known until the arrival of the Spanish (Sparkman 1908:208). The word metate, is Spanish, derived from the Aztec word metlatl. The Luiseño word malal has the same origin as the Aztec having derived from an ancient Uto-Aztecan stem (Kroeber 1925).

Ocean fishing was mostly conducted near shore in kelp beds utilizing tule or dugout canoes.(Kroeber 1925:654). Inland, freshwater fish were taken with traps, nets or poison (Sparkman 1908).

The Luiseño and Kumeyaay made fine baskets of either coiled or twined construction. The Kumeyaay and Luiseño also made pottery utilizing the paddle-and-anvil technique. The Kumeyaay made more extensive use of pottery than the Luiseño, but the ceramic tradition was not well developed and relatively few pottery shapes were made (Mieghan 1954, May 1976, 1978).

### 5.16.1.4 Historical Background

Cultural activities within San Diego County between the late 1700s and the present provide a record of Native American, Spanish, Mexican, and American interaction and land use. Spanish colonization of southern California began in 1769, with the establishment of the first outpost in San Diego. The Spanish presence immediately affected many of the coastal Native Americans in the region, but de facto Native American autonomy in some backcountry areas was finally ended only after the Garra uprising in the early 1850s (Philips 1975).

#### Spanish Period

The Spanish period (1769-1821) represents a time of European exploration and settlement. While California was in theory a colony of Spain since its discovery by Juan Cabrillo in 1542, it was more than 200 years later that Spain established colonies in the area. Military and naval forces along with a religious contingent founded the San Diego Presidio, the pueblo of San Diego, and the San Diego Mission in 1769 (Rolle 1998). Gaspar de Portola, former

governor of Baja California headed the military expedition to Alta California. He split the expedition into two groups. He headed one, which included Padre Junipero Serra, who would go on to found the missions system of Alta California. The other group was led by Capitan Fernando Rivera y Moncada, accompanied by Padre Juan Crespi, who left a journal of great value to future historians and anthropologists. The naval contingent consisted of three small ships, the San Antonio, San Jose, and the San Carlos. The San Jose was lost at sea with all hands; the other two made it to San Diego Bay ahead of the overland expeditions. Of the 300 men who set out for Alta California in these various parties, less than 200 survived to see San Diego (Rolle 1998).

Leaving Serra and some troops in San Diego, Portola continued on to explore northern California. He discovered San Francisco Bay on November 2, 1769. By the end of January 1770, the Portola party was back in San Diego to find the situation desperate. The little colony was nearly starving; survival was tenuous and supply lines were very long and thin. Portola sent the San Antonio back to New Spain for supplies. It made it back to San Diego just in time to save Serra and the ragged little colony from starvation in March 1770.

Portola, the first governor of California, turned over the reins of government to Pedro Fages on July 9, 1770. He later became the governor of Puebla. Serra went on to found a series of 21 Franciscan missions located near the coast from San Diego to San Francisco Solano de Sonoma (now known as simply Sonoma). These were founded approximately one day's travel apart, between 20 and 50 miles. The missions were originally granted huge tracts of land to be held in trust for the Indians (Pourade 1969).

At first, Mision San Diego de Alcala consisted of wooden and brush structures near the Presidio at what is now Old Town. The priests became immediately concerned about the soldiers and the abuse of women neophytes and moved the mission to its present location approximately five miles up the San Diego River in what is now known as Mission Valley. The mission system in general utilized forced Native American labor, encouraged by liberal use of corporal punishment, to build the mission, tend the fields and flocks and build infrastructure needed to support European settlement.

The mission system also introduced horses, cattle, other agricultural goods and implements, and provided new construction methods and architectural styles. Extensive over-grazing brought hunger and hardship for Native American people who depended on grass seeds as a dietary staple (Carrico 1987). Native American culture in the coastal strip of California rapidly deteriorated despite repeated attempts to revolt against the Spanish invaders (Cook 1976). The first of these revolts occurred at the newly built mission in Mission Valley in 1775.

The Mision San Luis Rey de Francia (Mission Louis King of France), located approximately 14 miles northwest of the project area, was founded in 1798. In contrast to other missions in the chain, the Indians at San Luis Rey evidently had genuinely kind and understanding

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oversight. Padre Peyri allowed most of the Indians to live in their own traditional villages and pursue their traditional subsistence practice, supplemented by Spanish-style gardens. While the overcrowding, poor food, and harsh punishment typical of the mission system were not the norm at San Luis Rey, still the Native population declined precipitously, as it did at other missions. Pablo Tac, a San Luis Rey neophyte who had been taken to Spain and later interviewed in 1830 about the mission experience, recalled that when the mission was founded there were approximately 5,000 Indians living in the area; after a few years, disease had killed off two fifths of them.

One of the hallmarks of the Spanish colonial scheme was the rancho system. In an attempt to encourage settlement and development of the colonies, large land grants were made to meritorious or well-connected individuals. The rancho system began in 1784 when *Gobornador* Pedro Fages was empowered to grant individual ranchos not to exceed three square leagues (a league was about 2.6 miles). During the Spanish Period, the population of Alta California was limited, and the number of Spanish Period land grants was less than 30.

At the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the far-flung Spanish colonies became restless under distant and at times arrogant rule of the Spanish Crown. Revolutionary spirit flourished all over the empire, but California was a quiet backwater at the time and largely uninformed about the affairs taking place in Mexico City, Buenos Aires, Lima, etc. In February 1821, the independence of Mexico was declared. It was not until April 1822, some 14 months later, that Californian governmental officials acknowledged the new government in Mexico City.

### **Mexican Period**

The new Mexican government encouraged increased settlement and trade in Alta California. In the Mexican Period (1822-1848), approximately 600 large tracts of land were granted to individuals and families, and the rancho system was vastly expanded.

The mission system was secularized by the Mexican government over a period of years with 1834 usually given as the time of completion. In north San Diego County, the last priest left Mission San Luis Rey in January 1832. At the time of secularization, the Mission San Luis Rey and its associated ranchos and other facilities housed some 2,788 Indians, who tended approximately 27,500 head of cattle, a similar number of sheep, and nearly 2,000 horses. After the mission system was secularized, the dramatic expansion of the rancho system was based to a large degree on former mission lands.

The modern city of Escondido, where all Palomar project facilities will be developed, is located on lands that were once part of the Rancho El Rincon del Diablo. El Rincon del Diablo, the devil's corner, was once a rancho covering some 12,653 acres. It was first granted to Don Juan Bautista Alvarado by *Gobornador* Manuel Micheltoarena in 1843. Don Juan had been a *Regidor* or town council member in Los Angeles in 1830. After moving to San Diego a short time later, he became a *Regidor* there in 1835 and became a member of the *Diputacion* or state assembly three years later. After receiving the land grant, Don Juan and his wife built

a large adobe home overlooking the village of Escondido and lived there throughout the Mexican Period (Pourade 1969). The project area is just west of the rancho boundary, but in 19<sup>th</sup> century Latin America, boundaries were often only approximate and not taken very seriously. Undoubtedly, livestock belonging to the rancho grazed in the current project area.

The southern California economy became increasingly based on cattle ranching during the Mexican Period. Meat, both fresh and dried, was the mainstay of the menu and the resourceful Californios used leather, bone, and horn for a wide variety of items. Tallow and dried hides became major items of export in exchange for cloth, household furnishings and manufactured goods. Indeed, dried steer hides were even a medium of exchange called “California Bank Notes” and worth about a dollar U.S. The cattle industry required large numbers of *vaqueros* or buckaroos to handle the hundreds of horses and thousands of cattle. Despite fictional cowboy and Indian accounts to come, in California during the Spanish and Mexican Periods, the cowboys were the Indians. Some larger ranchos employed over 100 native laborers. The Mexican period ended when Mexico ceded California to the United States after the Mexican-American War (1846-1848) which concluded with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (Rolle 1998).

### **American Period**

The American period began in 1848; less than a year later gold was discovered at Sutters Mill in the northern California Sierra Nevada foothills. The great influx of Americans and Europeans that resulted, quickly overwhelmed many of the Spanish and Mexican cultural traditions and eliminated many remaining vestiges of Native American culture. Many Mexican ranchos were the subject of title disputes for years. The American homestead system encouraged settlement beyond the coastal plain into areas where Indians had retreated and were able to avoid the worst of Spanish and Mexican influences (Carrico 1987; Cook 1976).

In an exception to the norm, Don Juan Bautista Alvarado and his wife were able to hold on to the Rancho El Rincon del Diablo through the transition from Mexican to American government. However, both died in 1850 and their children sold the rancho to Judge Oliver S. Witherby. Witherby enjoyed a meteoric rise in his career in the newly Americanized California. He arrived in San Diego in 1849 with the Mexican Boundary Commission. In 1850, he was named to the state legislature, shortly thereafter, he was named district judge and in 1853, he was appointed customs collector for the port of San Diego. He lived at the Rancho El Rincon del Diablo and operated it until 1868, when he sold the entire grant to Edward McGeary and Matthew, John, and Josiah Wolfskill for \$8,000 (Pourade 1969).

In the 1860s, a small amount of gold was found in the Escondido area. The Rincon del Diablo and Escondido Mining Company was formed and a stamp mill and other facilities were built. The gold deposits did not prove to be substantial and when the Julian gold rush took place in 1870, the stamp mill was moved up to Julian.

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Rancho Rincon del Diablo was purchased by a Los Angeles syndicate in 1883 for a reported \$128,000. The little town of Escondido was growing, and in 1886, the Escondido Land and Town Company acquired the grant and began subdividing the land into small farms. Two years later, the Land and Town Company laid out the townsite and the town was officially incorporated.

In 1886, several wells were drilled on the rancho to provide water for the newly incorporated city of Escondido and for the numerous small farms and ranches in the region. In 1887, The Escondido Irrigation District was formed to build a dam and reservoir northeast of town. This was later named Lake Wohlford after a local pioneer family.

In 1885, the Santa Fe Railway was completed into San Diego along a route that passed through San Bernardino, Temecula, Fallbrook, and Rancho Santa Margarita y las Flores, what is now Camp Pendleton. The railroad greatly facilitated shipment of crops, supplies and equipment into the region. Ranching and agriculture continued to dominate Escondido, where a diversity of farm, orchard, vineyard and dairy production took place (WPA 1939). The town became a transportation and supply center for the surrounding farms and ranches. A branch of the Santa Fe Railway linking Escondido with Oceanside and the main Santa Fe line was completed in 1890.

Real estate speculation and unstable economics of the late 19th and early 20th centuries brought “boom and bust” economic cycles to southern California. The establishment of Army and Navy bases during WWI helped stabilize the local economy, as did the completion in 1919 of the San Diego and Arizona Eastern Railway linking San Diego with Yuma and points east. Toward the end of the Great Depression manufacturing and commercial activities in support of World War II became increasingly important in southern California (WPA 1939). Tourism, light manufacturing, and the Navy are the economic mainstays of the region today.

### 5.16.1.5 Resources Inventory

The term “cultural resources” is used here to refer to any site, district, building, structure or object that might qualify for the California Register of Historic Resources or the National Register of Historic Sites. This would include archaeological sites and artifacts, historical structures and buildings, and locations of concern for traditional cultural values. The inventory of cultural resources consisted of two primary activities: archival research and field survey. These will be discussed below.

#### Archival Research

Archaeological staff from EDAW, Inc. (see Appendix I) conducted a records search at the South Coastal Information Center, San Diego State University and at the San Diego Museum of Man. In keeping with San Diego County guidelines, copies of site records for all previously recorded cultural resources within one mile of the project were requested. Thirty such sites have been previously recorded within this area. Basic site information is presented in Table 5.16-1. Twenty previous cultural resources projects have been conducted in this area (see Table 5.16-2). Historic maps from the South Coastal Information Center, San Diego State University and published sources were also examined.

### **Field Research and Results**

Fieldwork began on May 14, 2001 and was concluded on Friday, May 18, 2001. Survey work was conducted in 10 meter transects over the entire power plant site, as well as the remainder of the ERTC industrial park site. Much of the area was overgrown in dense brush, which made ground visibility poor. In some areas, it was obvious that the original ground surface had been recontoured into flat areas and roads.

Fieldwork and recordation proceeded under guidelines of the California Office of Historic Preservation (OHP), Department of Parks and Recreation (DPR) (OHP 1989, 1995) utilizing personnel qualified under the standards of the Register of Professional Archaeologists. Jackson Underwood, Ph.D., Registered Professional Archaeologist led the field survey. Resources of field personnel are provided in Appendix I.

No previously recorded sites or new sites were found on the proposed plant site or along the proposed water pipeline route. No collections were made and therefore no curation agreement was necessary.

### **Potential for Unanticipated Finds**

Vegetation obscured ground visibility in some areas during the cultural survey. Consequently, there is a possibility, although it is not considered high, that unanticipated cultural materials could be encountered during initial clearing and grading of the plant site. Additionally, the water line alternative route crosses areas of alluvial deposition where buried archaeological sites could be present, although not visible, on the present ground surface.

### **Native American Consultation**

A letter was sent to the NAHC asking them to identify appropriate Native Americans who might have an interest in or knowledge of cultural resources in the project vicinity. The NAHC was also asked to check their files of sacred sites. They responded that no sacred sites were recorded in the site vicinity, and provided a list of 25 interested Native Americans (see Appendix I). Upon receipt of their response, letters were sent to individuals on the NAHC list soliciting their comments. These letters included a brief description of the proposed project, a map of the project area, a response form, and a self-addressed-stamped envelope.

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**Table 5.16-1 Previously Recorded Sites within One-Mile Radius**

<b>Trinomial (CA-SDI-) or P-Number (P-)</b>	<b>San Diego Museum of Man (W-)</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Date Recorded</b>
153		No description	ND
154		No description	ND
1035		Bedrock metate	1962
5501	1681	Bedrock milling	1978
5502	1682	Bedrock milling	1978
5503	1683	Bedrock milling	1978
5504	1684	Lithic scatter; bedrock milling	1978
5505	1685	Lithic scatter; bedrock milling; two loci	1978
7871		Bedrock milling; midden; historic debris	1980
8280/H	1046	Lithic scatter; bedrock milling; rock art; historic debris	1976; 1991; 1992; 1996
8305		Lithic and tool scatter	1980
12,209H	255; 476	Pictograph; bedrock milling; lithic and ceramic scatter; historic debris	ND; 1973; 1978; 1991
12,460	5031	Bedrock milling	1991
12,461	5032	Bedrock milling	1991
12,528H	4995.A	Historic debris scatter	1991
12,529H	4995.B	Historic debris scatter	1991
12,532/H	4995.C	Historic structures and debris scatter; lithic scatter	1991
12,601		Lithic scatter; bedrock milling	1992
14,325	7103	Bedrock milling	1996
15,351		Bedrock milling	1999
15,352		Bedrock milling	1999
37-017514		Isolate - one piece of angular waste	1999
37-017515		Isolate - flake	1999
37-017516		Single family residence - standing	1999
37-017517		Structure	1999
37-017518		Well	1999
37-018560		Single family residence - standing	1983
37-018561		Single family residence - standing	1983
37-018562		Dairy office and shed	1983
	477	Lithic scatter	1978

**Table 5.16-2 Previous Cultural Resources Surveys within One-Mile Radius**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Date</b>
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**Table 5.16-2 Previous Cultural Resources Surveys within One-Mile Radius**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Date</b>
Beer	Archaeological Reconnaissance Report for the Eden Valley Project, Rancho Los Vallecitos de San Marcos, San Diego County, California.	1990
Bissell	Archaeological Reconnaissance of the San Marcos Creek Flood Channel Project, San Diego County, California.	1986
Carrico	Archaeological Sensitivity and Potentiality Survey for Richland Neighborhood Study San Marcos, California.	1976
Chace	Supplemental Archaeological Survey for the Louetto Business Park Project, City of Escondido.	1986
Chace	An Archaeological Survey of Escondido Tract No. 563, City of Escondido.	1983
Chace	An Archaeological Survey of the Smith Property, Escondido, California.	1982
Chace	An Archaeological Reconnaissance and Testing Program for the Storm Drain Alignment – Hale Avenue Sewage Treatment Plant, Escondido, California.	1982
Flower et al.	Archaeological and Historical Survey of Westridge Industrial Park, Escondido, California.	1978
Fulmer	Nordahl Road Bridge Widening 11-SD-78 P.M. 15.3-R15.6 11206-133490.	1984
Gallegos	Archaeological Report for Business/Industrial, Richmar, Lake San Marcos, and Barnham/Discovery Community Plan, San Marcos, California.	1983
Gallegos and Strudwick	Historic/Archaeological Survey Report for the Proposed Citracado Parkway Extension.	1992
Gallegos et al.	A Cultural Resource Overview for Escondido, California.	1987
Pigniolo and Baksh	Confidential Cultural Resource Inventory and Evaluation Program for the Harmony Grove Project Escondido Tract No. 688R-A City of Escondido, California.	1999
Smith	Archaeological Investigations for the Hale Avenue Wastewater Treatment Plant Expansion Project.	1991
Smith	Archaeological Investigations for the Hale Avenue Wastewater Treatment Plant Expansion Project.	1992
Smith	Archaeological Survey/Cultural Resource Evaluation at WURFL Substation.	1990
SRS, Inc.	Archaeological Reconnaissance Report for Eden Valley Project Rancho Los Vallecitos de San Marcos San Diego County.	1990
Strudwick	Historical Survey for the Richard Hills, San Marcos Project.	1991
Walker and Bull	A Cultural Resource Study of Proposed Access Roads Between the Escondido Substation and the Proposed Substation Site at Rainbow.	1979
York	Archaeological Survey for Proposed Expansion to the Hale Avenue Resource Facility, Escondido, California.	1996

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As noted in Appendix I, responses were received from four Native American representatives, but these responses related to a rock art site south of Harmony Grove Road. This site is, well removed from the proposed power plant site and pipeline route and would not be affected by the Palomar project.

### 5.16.2 Environmental Impacts

The determination of significance of a cultural resource in California is based on the criteria of the California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR), which stipulate that a building, structure, archaeological site, etc., shall be considered significant if it includes the following:

- Is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of California's history and cultural heritage;
- Is associated with the lives of persons important in our past;
- 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
- Has yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Items that satisfy one or more of these criteria are then considered "historical resources," a term that connote significance.

#### 5.16.2.1 Construction Phase Impacts

Under CEQA, a project that produces a substantial adverse change to an historic resource produces a significant effect on the environment. A substantial adverse change is defined as destruction, physical demolition, relocation or alteration of the resource or its immediate surroundings such that the significance of the resource would be materially impaired. Disturbance of any human remains, including those interred outside of formal cemeteries, also is considered a significant impact.

Based on the archival research, field research, and Native American consultation, construction activities at the Palomar site and along the proposed pipeline routes would be expected to have no impacts on cultural resources.

#### 5.16.2.2 Operation Phase Impacts

Once the power plant and associated pipelines are in place, no additional impacts to cultural resources are anticipated through the operation of these facilities.

### 5.16.3 Mitigation Measures

Rough grading of the ERTC industrial park site (including the Palomar site, as well as a major portion of the proposed water pipeline route), will already have occurred prior to construction of the power plant. This will have thoroughly disturbed the ground surface of the Palomar site. Therefore, no mitigation is required.

**5.16.4 Significant Unavoidable Adverse Impacts**

No cultural resources were identified during the investigations conducted for the proposed project. Thus, the Palomar Energy Project as proposed would have no unavoidable adverse impacts on cultural resources.

**5.16.5 Cumulative Impacts**

There are two small power plants under development near the Palomar site; the CalPeak 49 MW plant on Enterprise Street adjacent to the northern boundary of the Palomar site, and the RAMCO 44 MW plant about 0.5 mile to the north of the Palomar site. There also is the overall ERTC industrial park, within which the Palomar site is located.

The RAMCO project is being developed on an existing urban industrial site where there is minimal likelihood of any cultural resources being discovered. Cultural resources investigations for the CalPeak project revealed no significant cultural resources that would be impacted (CEC, 2001b).

Cultural resources investigations performed for the entire ERTC Specific Plan Area, which includes the ERTC industrial park site (Planning Areas 1-8), and thus, also includes the Palomar site (Planning Area 1 of the industrial park), identified no significant cultural resources. Thus, no cultural resources impacts would be expected development of the Palomar project or the remainder of the industrial park site. Archaeological monitoring of the clearing and grubbing activities of associated with industrial park rough grading and infrastructure development would provide additional assurance that no cultural resources were missed during the site surveys because of tall vegetation that obscured ground visibility in some areas. This would ensure that no significant cultural resources impacts would occur from development within the eight Planning Areas of the overall industrial park site, including Planning Area 1.

Either singly or in combination with the other cumulative projects, the Palomar project as proposed will not cause or contribute to significant cultural resources impacts.

**5.16.6 LORS Compliance**

The cultural survey conducted for the Palomar project conforms to the requirements and guidelines of the applicable LORS. Implementation during construction of the mitigation measures discussed above will ensure compliance with these LORS. The applicable LORS are identified in Section 6.4.16.

**5.16.7 Involved Agencies and Agency Contacts**

Table 5.16-4 lists the cultural resources management contact person for the Palomar Energy Project at the California Native American Heritage Commission (NAHC).

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**Table 5.16-4 Involved Agencies and Agency Contacts**

Agency	Contact/Telephone	Permits/Reason for Involvement
California Native American Heritage Commission	Mr. Rob Wood (916) 653-4040	State compliance regarding Native American traditional cultural issues on private lands.

### 5.16.8 Permits Required and Permit Schedule

The Palomar Energy Project does not require state or local permits, other than the CEC site certification, for cultural resources management.

### 5.16.9 References

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