the future of southern california

Murrieta

General Plan Update

Appendix I:

Cultural Resources Existing Conditions Report

CULTURAL RESOURCES ASSESSMENT

CITY OF MURRIETA GENERAL PLAN UPDATE

RIVERSIDE COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

LSA

January 2010

CULTURAL RESOURCES ASSESSMENT

CITY OF MURRIETA GENERAL PLAN UPDATE

RIVERSIDE COUNTY, CALIFORNIA

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MANAGEMENT SUMMARY

Under contract to the City of Murrieta and RBF Consulting, LSA Associates, Inc. (LSA) conducted a cultural resources assessment to provide planning constraints and possible mitigation measures as part of the City of Murrieta General Plan Update. The planning area consists of approximately 23,936 acres, approximately 18,176 acres within City limits and 5,760 acres within the City's sphere of influence. A records search was performed to determine the number, type, and significance of recorded cultural resources and potential cultural resources that future development within the planning area could potentially impact. The mitigation measures were developed to comply with the guidelines of the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA).

The records search indicated that a great deal of the planning area had been previously surveyed for cultural resources. The results of the records search indicate that 330 cultural resource studies have been conducted within the planning area, resulting in the identification of 199 documented cultural resources. The previous studies within the planning area are mainly cultural resource assessments, survey reports, and archaeological test excavations. The documented resources within the planning area include more than 75 bedrock milling sites, 36 milling artifacts, 53 sites with lithic artifacts (flakes, points, debitage), 5 sites with rock art, 9 possible prehistoric campsites or habitation sites, 3 possible prehistoric quarries, 7 built resources, and 11 historic archaeological sites (trash scatters, habitation remains).

INTRODUCTION

LSA Associates, Inc. (LSA) is under contract to the City of Murrieta and RBF Consulting to prepare a cultural resources assessment for the Murrieta General Plan Update. Cultural resources are prehistoric and historic archaeological resources, buildings, objects, and structures that are 50 years and older. It is intended to provide guidance for compliance with the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA), Public Resources Code (PRC) Chapter 2.6, Section 21083.2 and 21084.1, and California Code of Regulations (CCR) Title 14, Chapter 3, Article 5, Section 15064.5.

PROJECT LOCATION AND DESCRIPTION

The City of Murrieta is located in southwestern Riverside County, with an area that surrounds the junction of Interstate 215 (I-215) and Interstate 15 (I-15). The planning area consists of approximately 23,936 acres, approximately 18,176 acres within City limits and 5,760 acres within the City's sphere of influence. The City is roughly bordered by the Cleveland National Forest to the west, the Cities of Wildomar and Menifee to the north, unincorporated County land to the east (mostly within the spheres of influence of Murrieta and Temecula), and the City of Temecula to the south. The planning area is located in Townships 6 and 7 South, Ranges 2, 3, and 4 West, San Bernardino Baseline and Meridian, as shown on the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) *Murrieta, Winchester, Romoland,* and *Wildomar, California* 7.5-minute topographic quadrangles (see Figure 1).

REGULATORY CONTEXT

California Environmental Quality Act

CEQA (PRC Chapter 2.6, Section 21083.2 and CCR Title 145, Chapter 3, Article 5, Section 15064.5) calls for the evaluation and recordation of historic and archaeological resources. The criteria for determining the significance of impacts to cultural resources are based on Section 15064.5 of the *CEQA Guidelines* and Guidelines for the Nomination of Properties to the California Register of Historical Resources (California Register). Properties eligible for listing in the California Register and subject to review under CEQA are those meeting the criteria for listing in the California Register, National Register of Historic Places (National Register), or designation under a local ordinance.

California Register of Historical Resources. The California Register program encourages public recognition and protection of resources of architectural, historical, archeological and cultural significance, identifies historical resources for state and local planning purposes, determines eligibility for state historic preservation grant funding, and affords certain protections under CEQA. According to Technical Assistance Bulletin #3, to become a historical resource, a site must be significant at the local, state, or national level under one or more of the following four criteria:

1. It is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of local or regional history, or the cultural heritage of California or the United States; or
2. It is associated with the lives of persons important to local, California, or national history; or
3. It embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, region, or method of construction, or represents the work of a master or possesses high artistic values; or

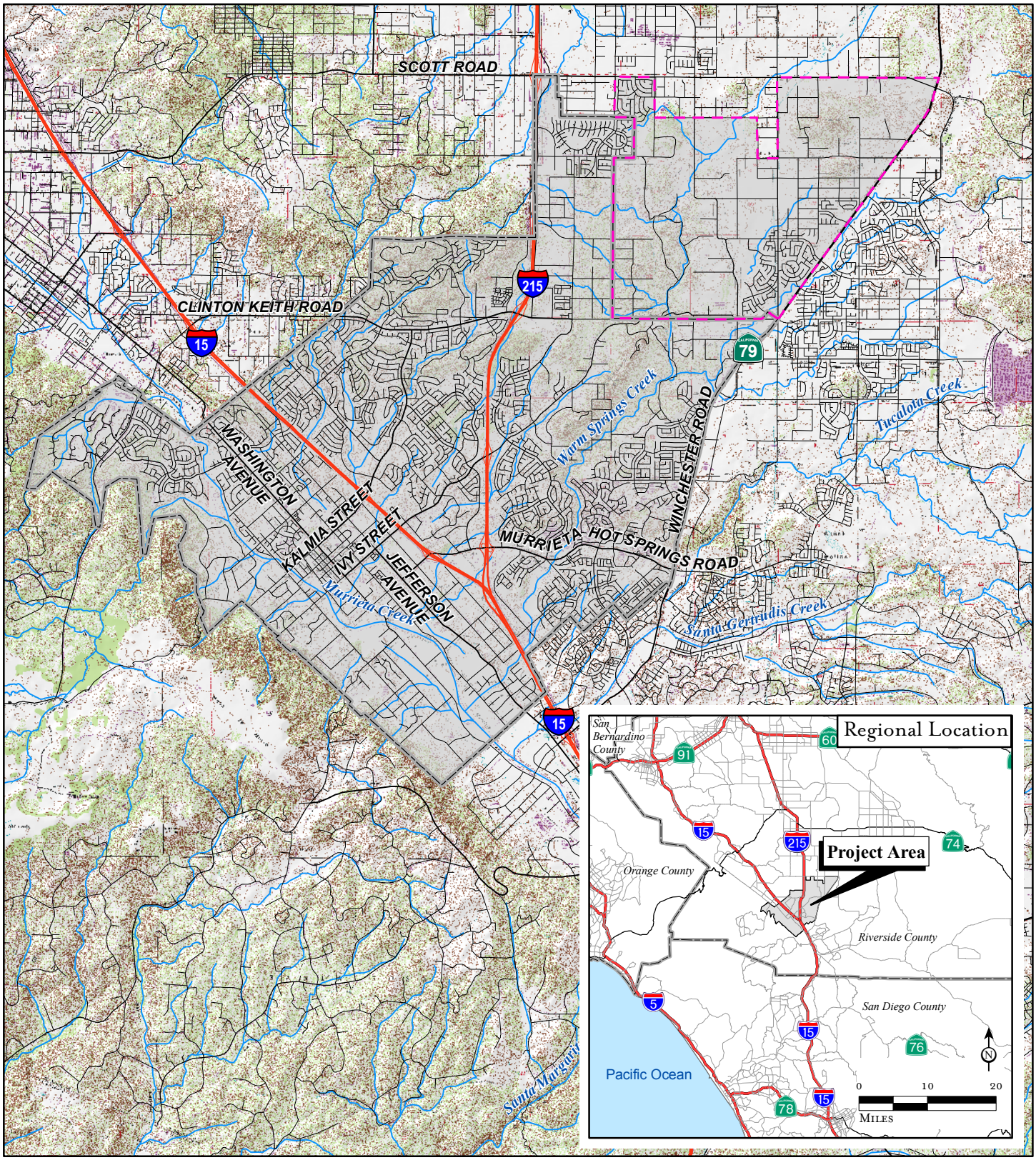

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FIGURE 1

Study Area

City Boundary

Sphere of Influence Boundary

0 4,500 9,000

Feet

SOURCE: USGS 7.5' Quads: Lake Elsinore (88), Romoland (79), Winchester (79), Wildomar (88), Murrieta (79), Bachelor Mtn (73), Fallbrook (88), Temecula (75), Pechanga (88), CA; Thomas Bros., 2009; National Hydrography Dataset, 1999.

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Regional and Project Location

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4. It has yielded, or has the potential to yield, information important to the prehistory or history of the local area, California, or the nation.

In addition to having significance, resources must have integrity for the period of significance. The period of significance is the date or span of time within which significant events transpired, or significant individuals made their important contributions. Integrity is the authenticity of a historical resource's physical identity as evidenced by the survival of characteristics or historic fabric that existed during the resource's period of significance. Alterations to a resource or changes in its use over time may have historical, cultural, or architectural significance. Simply, resources must retain enough of their historic character or appearance to be recognizable as historical resources, and to convey the reasons for their significance.

City Cultural Resource Preservation Ordinance (Murrieta Municipal Code §16.26)

The City of Murrieta added a cultural resource preservation ordinance to its Municipal Code in 2001 for the purpose of, "establish[ing] a mechanism by which community resources such as buildings, structures and sites within the city of Murrieta, which are of pre-historic and historic interest or value or which exhibit special elements of the city's architectural, cultural or social heritage may be identified, protected, enhanced, perpetuated and used in the interest of the public's health, safety, welfare and enrichment" (MMC §16.26.010). The cultural resource preservation ordinance was also established to implement the provisions of the conservation and open space element of the general plan. The ordinance requires that a "Certificate of Appropriateness" be granted by the City Council prior to the demolition or relocation of any designated cultural resource or contributing resource (MMC §16.26.080).

Murrieta Municipal Code §16.26.050: Designation Criteria For Cultural Resources Archaeological Districts And Historic Districts. For the purposes of the ordinance codified in this section, an improvement or natural feature may be designated a cultural resource by the city council and any area within the City may be designated as an archaeological district or historic preservation district by the City Council if it meets any of the following criteria:

- **Individual Resource Designation**
    1. It exemplifies or reflects special elements of the city's cultural, architectural, aesthetic, social, economic, political, artistic and/or engineering heritage;
    2. It is identified with persons, a business use or events significant in local, state or national history;
    3. It embodies distinctive characteristics of style. type, period or method of construction or is a valuable example of the use of indigenous materials or craftsmanship;
    4. It is representative of the notable work of a builder, designer or architect; or
    5. Its unique location or singular physical characteristic represents an established and familiar visual feature of a neighborhood, community or the city.
- **Local District Designation**

A geographic area may be designated as a local archaeological district or historic preservation district if the city council, after hearing(s) finds that all of the requirements set forth below are met. Concurrent with the designation of a historic preservation district, design guidelines shall be developed and shall apply to all properties within the historic preservation district.

- **Archaeological District**

  a. The area is a geographically definable area.

  b. The area possesses either:

     1. A significant concentration or continuity of archaeological resources; or

     2. The area is associated with the prehistory of Murrieta.

  c. The designation of the geographic area as an archaeological district is reasonable, appropriate, and necessary to protect, promote and further the goals and purposes of the ordinance codified in this chapter and is not inconsistent with other goals and policies of the City.

- **Historic Preservation District**

  a. The area is a geographically definable area:

  b. The area possesses either:

     1. A significant concentration or continuity of buildings unified by past events or aesthetically by plan or physical development; or

     2. The area is associated with an event, person, or period significant or important to Murrieta history.

  c. The designation of the geographic area as a historic preservation district is reasonable, appropriate, and necessary to protect, promote, and further the goals and purposes of the ordinance codified in this chapter and is not inconsistent with other goals and policies of the City.

  d. Determining Factors: In determining whether to designate a historic preservation district, the following factors shall be considered:

     1. District should have integrity of design, setting, materials, workmanship, and association; and

     2. The collective value of the buildings and structures in a district taken together may be greater than the value of each individual building or structure.

National Register of Historic Places

The National Register is the nation's official list of cultural resources worthy of preservation. According to National Register Bulletin 15, in order to qualify for the National Register, a resource must meet the criteria for evaluation. Properties are significant under the following criteria:

a. The property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

b. The property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

c. The property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. The property has yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations. Ordinarily, cemeteries, birthplaces, or graves of historical figures, properties owned by religious institutions or used for religious purposes, structures that have been moved from their original locations, reconstructed historic buildings, properties primarily commemorative in nature, and properties that have achieved significance within the past 50 years shall not be considered eligible for the National Register. However, such properties will qualify if they are integral parts of districts that do meet the criteria or if they fall within the following categories:

- A religious property deriving primary significance from architectural or artistic distinction or historical importance; or
- A building or structure removed from its original location but which is significant primarily for architectural value, or which is the surviving structure most importantly associated with a historic person or event; or
- A birthplace or grave of a historical figure of outstanding importance if there is no appropriate site or building directly associated with his or her productive life; or
- A cemetery which derives its primary significance from graves of persons of transcendent importance, from age, from distinctive design features, or from association with historic events; or
- A reconstructed building when accurately executed in a suitable environment and presented in a dignified manner as part of a restoration master plan, and when no other building or structure with the same association has survived; or
- A property primarily commemorative in intent if design, age, tradition, or symbolic value has invested it with its own exceptional significance; or
- A property achieving significance within the past 50 years if it is of exceptional importance.

Integrity. Integrity is the ability of a property to convey its significance. To be listed in the National Register, a property must not only be shown to be significant under the National Register criteria, but it also must have integrity. The evaluation of integrity is sometimes a subjective judgment, but it must always be grounded in an understanding of a property's physical features and how they relate to its significance. Historic properties either retain integrity (this is, convey their significance) or they do not. Within the concept of integrity, the National Register criteria recognize seven aspects or qualities that, in various combinations, define integrity. To retain historic integrity, a property will always possess several, and usually most, of the aspects. The retention of specific aspects of integrity is paramount for a property to convey its significance. Determining which of these aspects is most important to a particular property requires knowing why, where, and when the property is significant.

The seven aspects of integrity:

1. Location is the place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred.
2. Design is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property.
3. Setting is the physical environment of a historic property.
4. Materials are the physical elements that were combined or deposited during a particular period of time and in a particular pattern or configuration to form a historic property.
5. Workmanship is the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory.
6. Feeling is a property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time.
7. Association is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property.

Riverside County Landmarks

To be eligible for consideration as a Riverside County Historic Landmark, a historic resource must be nominated through the following application and approval process.

A. Historical resources that may be considered by nomination include:

- Historical resources found as eligible for local, state, or national landmark status during CEQA cultural review.
- Historical resources found as eligible for local, state, or national landmark status during a historic resource survey.
- A historic resource or district already so designated under a municipal or county preservation or landmark ordinance. (Riverside County Historic Preservation Districts are established by a different set of criteria under Riverside County Ordinance 578 and are not established under the criteria and procedures contained in this document.)
- Nominations for historic resources not already having some level of landmark designation, or found to be eligible for such, will be reviewed under criteria established below in Section VI, Types of Historical Resources and Criteria for Listing.

VI. Types of Historic Resources and Criteria for Listing: The typology and criteria listed below are consistent with those developed by the California Office of Historic Preservation but have been modified for local application at the county level.

A. Types of resources eligible for nomination:

- Building: A resource, such as a house, barn, church, factory, hotel, or similar structure created principally to shelter or assist in carrying out any form of human activity.

- Site: A site is the location of a significant event, a prehistoric or historic occupation or activity, or a building or structure, whether standing, ruined, or vanished, where the location itself possessed historical, cultural, or archaeological value. A site need not be marked by physical remains if it is the location of a prehistoric or historic event. Nor is it required that a building, structure, or object marked the site at the time of it is historic significance, occupation, or activity. Examples include trails, landscapes features, battlefields, habitation sites, Native American ceremonial areas, and rock art.
- Structure: The term "structure" is used to describe a construction made for a functional purpose rather than creating human shelter. Examples include mines, flumes, roads, bridges, and tunnels.
- Object: The term "object" is used to describe those constructions that are primarily artistic or commemorative in nature, relatively small in scale, and associated with a specific setting or environment. Objects that are located in museums are not eligible for landmark listing. Examples include fountains, monuments, maritime resources, sculptures, and boundary markers.
- Historic Districts: A geographic area designated as containing multiple historic resources that collectively have a special character or value—historical, cultural, architectural, archaeological, community, or aesthetic. A district must meet at least one of the criteria discussed below in Section B.

B. Criteria for evaluating the significance of historic resources: To be considered a historic resource eligible for landmark listing, the resource must be at least 45 years of age at the time of nomination. A historic resource must be significant under one or more of the following criteria in order to qualify for listing as a Riverside County Historic Landmark.

1. It is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of Riverside County's history and cultural heritage.
2. It is associated with the lives of persons important to the history of Riverside County or its communities.
3. It embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, Riverside County region, or method of construction, or represents the work of an important creative individual or possesses high artistic values.
4. It has yielded or may be likely to yield, information important in Riverside County, state of California, or national prehistory or history.

Integrity: Historical resources that have been preserved, rehabilitated, or restored according to the U.S. Secretary of Interior's standards for integrity will be given the highest consideration in the approval process.

Reconstructed buildings will not be considered for landmark status unless they are more than 45 years old and embody traditional building methods and techniques or they exhibit high artistic values in the execution of the reconstruction.

California Historical Resource (CHR) Status Codes

To be significant, a resource must meet at least one of the above-listed criteria and also retain enough integrity to convey its period of significance and association with an important historic context. Once a significance evaluation has been made, the resource is assigned a CHR status code. The CHR status codes are a standardized, shorthand method for identifying the significance level of a resource and include the following general categories:

1. Properties listed in the National Register or the California Register.
2. Properties determined eligible for listing in the National Register or California Register.
3. Appears eligible for National Register or California Register through survey evaluation.
4. Appears eligible for National Register or California Register through other evaluation.
5. Properties recognized as historically significant by local government.
6. Not eligible for listing or designation as specified.
7. Not evaluated for National Register or California Register or needs re-evaluation.

Generally, properties which have been given a 6 in its status code have been determined to be ineligible for designation under any criteria, and are not considered historical resources for the purposes of CEQA or the Murrieta Cultural Resource Preservation Ordinance. It should be noted that there are several subcategories within each of these that allow for various nuances, such as whether or not a resource is a contributor to a Historic District.

EXISTING CONDITIONS

Natural Setting

The City of Murrieta is located on the eastern margin of Temecula Valley, south of the Hogbacks Ridge. It has an average elevation of approximately 1,110 feet above mean sea level (AMSL). The project region is characterized by a semi-arid climate, with dry, hot summers, and moderate winters. Rainfall ranges from 12 to 16 inches annually (Beck and Haase 1974). Precipitation usually occurs in the form of winter rain, with occasional warm monsoonal showers in late summer. The nearest source of water is Warm Springs Creek, which is located in the eastern portion of the project.

The project is situated within the Lower Sonoran Life Zone, which ranges from below sea level to 3,500 feet AMSL (Bean 1977) and is represented in cismontane valleys and low mountain slopes covered with chaparral (Jaeger and Smith 1971). Common plants in the Murrieta area include oak, scrub oak, California buckwheat, cacti, chaparral, tule, mustard, hare oats, and various grasses. Common animals include coyotes, rabbits, rodents, raptors, vultures, reptiles, and insects. The natural biology of the project has been extensively disrupted by historical development. Most of the surface of the project has been disturbed by historic construction of the hot springs in the 1930s along with periodic flooding of Warm Springs Creek.

Geology. The project area is located in the Peninsular Range geologic province of California that encompasses western Riverside County. Crystalline rocks in the Murrieta area include gabbro and

granodiorite of the southern California batholith. These resistant rocks weather to form dark- or light-colored, boulder-covered conical buttes and hills. These granitic rocks have intruded and metamorphosed the Bedford Canyon Formation to form gneissic and schistose rocks (Rogers 1965). The crystalline rocks in the project area are covered by Older Pleistocene alluvium (Kennedy 1977) that, in turn, is covered by a thin horizon of Holocene soils and recent stream sediments in channels (Rogers 1965). Pedogenic carbonate (caliche or hardpan) is a depositional product associated with the Holocene soils and invades the Pleistocene sediments.

The southern tip of the Northern Peninsular Range has a number of igneous rocks utilized by Native American for food processing and tool manufacture. Granodiorites, quartz monzonites, and breccias are indigenous to the project. Metamorphosed sedimentary rocks, such as metamorphosed quartzite, are also found near the project in the Bedford Canyon formation. Olivine basalt, found near the project, was utilized as prehistoric tool material.

Cultural Setting

Prehistory. The description of various prehistoric stages, or chronologies, synthesizing cultural evolution in southern California has been attempted numerous times. Several of these chronologies have been combined in Moratto (1984:158) and illustrate that no single description is universally accepted. The varying chronologies are primarily based on changes in artifact styles, the introduction of new artifact types, and innovations in the use of raw materials. The presence of trade artifacts or raw material from distant sources is also used as temporal indicators. Variation exists among the chronologies due primarily to the differences in material items recovered from sites. Small differences occur over time and space, which combine to form patterns that are variously interpreted. The stages outlined in Table A serve to show a general relationship between the chronologies.

Table A: Cultural Chronology of Riverside County

Mojave and Colorado Desert			Western Riverside County		
Period	**Chronological Range**	**Diagnostic Artifacts**	**Period Name**	**Chronological Range**	**Diagnostic Artifacts/Features**
Proto-historic	AD 1200–1850	Desert Side-notched	Late Prehistoric	AD 500–Historic	Ceramics, Cottonwood Triangular and Desert side-notched projectile points (arrow points), cremations
Saratoga Springs	AD 500–1200	Rosegate series; pottery	Intermediate	2000 BC–AD 500	Mortars, pestles, discoidals, abundant (dart) projectile points, land and sea mammal bone
Gypsum	2000 BC–AD 500	Elko, Gypsum, Humboldt series; T-shaped drills, occasional large scraper planes, mortar and pestle	Milling Stone	6500–2000 BC	Metates, manos, cogstones, discoidals, core tools, paucity of projectile points, inhumations

Table A: Cultural Chronology of Riverside County

Mojave and Colorado Desert			Western Riverside County		
Period	**Chronological Range**	**Diagnostic Artifacts**	**Period Name**	**Chronological Range**	**Diagnostic Artifacts/Features**
Pinto	5000–2000 BC	Pinto series; large keeled-scrapers, flat milling stones	Early Man	9000 BC?–6500 BC	Large, often fluted, points, such as Clovis and Folsom types in association with extinct fauna
Lake Mojave	7000–5000 BC	Lake Mojave series; well-made bifacial knives and other cutting tools, large domed or keeled scrapers	—	—	—

Sources: Wallace 1955, 1962; Warren 1984, 1986.

The simplest of the chronologies generally divides prehistory into two major time periods: Early and Late (Meighan 1959; also Strudwick and Gallegos 1994:1.4). These chronologies are oversimplifications that have come to be replaced with other, more detailed sequences that more accurately reflect what actually existed.

Two primary regional culture chronology syntheses for southern California are commonly referenced in the archaeological literature. The first, advanced by Wallace (1955) delineated four cultural horizons, each with characteristic local variation. These include the Early Man, Milling Stone, Intermediate, and Late Prehistoric Horizons. Subsequently the term "Period" came to replace the term "Horizon," although both terms are intended to describe periods of time. In 1978, Wallace slightly revised and more clearly defined this chronology and applied radiocarbon dates, unavailable in 1955, to provide absolute dates (Wallace 1978:25-36). Currently, Wallace's chronology (1955, 1978) is among the most widely used prehistoric cultural chronology for southern California.

The second commonly used cultural chronology, based broadly on southern California prehistoric cultures, including those of the inland desert areas, San Diego, and Santa Barbara, was proposed by Warren (1968). This chronology was later revised (Warren 1984; Warren and Crabtree 1986) and utilizes five periods in southern California prehistory: Lake Mojave, Pinto, Gypsum, Saratoga Springs, and Protohistoric periods. Warren views cultural continuity and change in terms of various significant environmental shifts, marked by changing artifact assemblages and utilizes the cultural ecological approach. In this chronology, changes in settlement patterns and subsistence focus are viewed as cultural adaptations to a changing environment, beginning with the gradual environmental warming in the late Pleistocene, the desiccation of the desert lakes during the early Holocene, the short return to pluvial conditions during the middle Holocene, and the general warming and drying trend, with periodic reversals, that continues to this day (Warren 1986).

Early Period (Pre-5750 BC). Initial human occupation of prehistoric southern California is labeled "Early Man" or "Horizon I" by Wallace (1955). Elsewhere this "Paleo Indian" or "Early

Period" covers the time period from the first presence of humans in southern California until post-glacial times. Moratto (1984:104) uses the term *Paleo-Coastal*, which was first proposed by Davis et al. (1969) to identify specific components of coastal California sites dated between 11,000 and 8000 BP. Wallace (1978:25-28) renames this period the "Hunting" Period, and states that the terminal portion of the Early Period was approximately 6000–5000 BC. For purposes of this discussion, the Early Period nomenclature is retained and it designates a time period predating 5750 BC.

Although coastal Early Period cultures in California have been interpreted as diversified foraging economies (Moratto 1984:79-88; Erlandson 1994:44-45), Early Period artifacts and cultural activities from inland sites such as the California high desert (Warren 1984) suggest a predominantly hunting culture (Wallace 1955). Social structure from these cultures appears to have been based on hunting of now extinct megafauna, including large animals such as bison and mammoth. The occurrence of extremely large and occasionally fluted bifaces characterize this period (Moratto 1984:81). Large bifaces are associated with use of the spear and *atlatl*, also known as the spear thrower, and indicate big game hunting activities.

In the California desert, the Lake Mojave Period (7,000 to 5,000 BC) is associated with now-dry pluvial lakes. The material culture of the Lake Mojave Period is dominated by stylized dart points of the Lake Mojave and Silver Lake series, well-made bifacial knives and other cutting tools, large domed or keeled scrapers, and other characteristic artifact types (Wallace 1962). Ground stone tools are rare or absent at most sites from this time period.

In much of California, a Western Pluvial Lakes Tradition (WPLT) has been proposed as a concept to "… bring order to some of the taxonomic chaos …" in an effort to organize the "… terminological jungle that has obscured basic archaeological patterns and relationships" in California (Moratto 1984:92).

In general, the WPLT toolkit commonly includes crescentics, large flake and core scrapers, choppers, scraper planes, hammerstones, different core types, drills, gravers, and diverse types of flakes (Moratto 1984:93). A primary characteristic of WPLT sites is their location on the shores of pluvial lakes. The WPLT is thought to have manifestations at sites on the shores of pluvial lakes from northern central California to southern California (Moratto 1984:81, 103). The Lake Mojave Complex is one of the best known expressions of the WPLT.

None of the previous surveys and excavations in the City of Murrieta General Plan area has encountered artifacts from this period.

Milling Stone Period (5750–3000 BC). Wallace's (1955, 1978) "Horizon II" or "Milling Stone" follows the Early Period in time. Wallace (1955) suggests that cultures of the Milling Stone were generally hunter-gatherers who collected and processed plants. Wallace (1978:28-30) renames this period the "Food Collecting" Period, although he continues to use the Milling Stone Horizon in discussions. Some researchers have included the Milling Stone Period in other traditions and regional variants (Moratto 1984:125-133; Erlandson 1994:45). Milling Stone cultures are well represented in southern California and are also common from inland areas (True 1958; Strudwick and Bergin 1999). Milling Stone Period cultures are termed "Pinto" in the inland deserts (Warren

1984; Warren and Crabtree 1986); "Encinitas" in the San Diego and Orange County areas (Warren 1968); "Sayles" in the interior mountain region of San Bernardino County (Moratto 1984); "Topanga" along the coast in the Los Angeles area (Treganza and Bierman 1958); "La Jolla" along the San Diego Coast (M. Rogers 1939, 1945, 1966); and "Oak Grove" in the Santa Barbara area (D.B. Rogers 1929).

In the Peninsular Ranges of northern San Diego County, True (1958) identified a culture complex similar to the San Dieguito. The "Pauma Complex" was assigned to designate a series of sites containing crescentics and leaf-shaped points or knives of San Dieguito origin, associated with La Jolla Complex milling stones, core scrapers, and discoidals (Moratto 1984:151). The Pauma Complex was named after the Pauma Valley where some of the sites were found. The Pauma Complex appears to be an inland variant of the La Jolla Complex, located in and near areas that subsequently became Luiseño territory.

Wallace originally ended the Milling Stone period at approximately 1000 BC (Wallace 1955:223), but later placed the Milling Stone Period between 6000 and 3000 BC (Wallace 1978:28). However, Wallace stressed that the earliest known dates for the Santa Barbara and San Diego areas along the coast were only 5500 BC. For this report, a time period of 5750–3000 BC is taken to represent the Milling Stone Period.

Milling Stone traditions enjoyed a long history along the coast during the early Holocene. In the desert, the Pinto Period (5000–2000 BC) succeeded the Lake Mojave Period, and appears to have been a time of climatic stress, with resultant changes in environment and staple resources which affected cultural adaptations. As lakes and rivers dried up, plant and animal resources changed. Warren (1984) postulated that populations adjusted to hostile arid conditions by moving to oases in the deserts or to the edges of the desert. This dry period was followed by a moister period in which people returned to the deserts and more plant resources were utilized (Wallace 1962; Warren 1984).

The Milling Stone site characteristics include burial beneath rock or milling stone cairns. Milling Stone Period bifaces are rare and when found are usually large and likely used in conjunction with the atlatl. Bone is also rare at sites from this period. Milling Stone Period sites typically contain an abundance of ground stone artifacts including manos and metates. Crescentics, or crescentically-shaped bifacially flaked stone artifacts that are shaped liked curved knives, are commonly found on sites along the shoreline of pluvial lakebeds (Warren and Crabtree 1986:184), although they also occur on later sites. Occasionally, crescentics appear to be representations of animals. It is possible that cogged stones and crescentics are both, at least in part, material representations associated with spiritual beliefs. Cogged stones are shaped much like discoidals, but they have grooves or dogs, giving them an appearance similar to gears with teeth; what these objects represent is unknown. Although discoidals are also found into later times, both cogged stones and discoidals are found on Milling Stone Period sites (Wallace 1955), and most date from 4000–1000 BC (Moratto 1984:149).

In the inland deserts, milling implements are also found in large quantities on Milling Stone Period sites. Similar to the preceding Lake Mojave Period, dart points, especially Pinto series points, still dominated the material culture, and heavy keeled scrapers, flat millingstones, and manos are still found associated with sites from this period. The Milling Stone Period is

considered to be a wet period followed by a dry spell, which resulted in decreased desert populations; it subsequently led into the Little Pluvial at about 2000 BC (Warren 1984). Sites in the Mojave Desert associated with the Pinto Period are generally small and usually limited to surface debris, leading to the hypothesis that these sites are related to seasonal occupation by smaller groups (Warren 1984).

Although there is an overall lack of distinctively temporal artifacts from previous surveys, the majority of the sites and artifacts recovered from previous surveys and excavations in the City of Murrieta General Plan area probably date from this period (cf. Hoover and Dailey 2006; Cooley and Patterson 2008).

Intermediate Period (3000 BC–AD 500). The Intermediate Period is named because it falls midway between the Milling Stone Period and the Late Prehistoric Period. These three time periods were originally thought to be the only ones to exhibit a significant record of human occupation and use. The terms "Middle Period" (Warren 1968; King 1981) and "Diversified Subsistence" (Wallace 1978:28) have also been used. In southern California, the Intermediate Period has been referred to as "Gypsum" in the inland deserts (Warren 1984; Warren and Crabtree 1986), "Hunting" in the Santa Barbara area (D.B. Rogers 1929), and "Campbell" in the Santa Barbara and Ventura areas (Warren 1968). Wallace (1955:223) identifies "Horizon III" or the "Intermediate Horizon" as occurring between 1000 BC and AD 1000. Wallace (1978) later placed the Intermediate Period between 3000 BC and AD 500. Koerper and Drover (1983:11) report the Intermediate Period in Orange County from 1000 BC to approximately AD 650 (3000–1300 YBP).

The Intermediate Period is characterized by a diversification in subsistence strategies and an increased emphasis on exchange and interregional trade as ameliorating factors contributing to cultural stability. Inland populations centered around pluvial lakes created by runoff from melting glaciers. The use of the mortar and pestle increased dramatically during the Intermediate Period, marking the beginning of this period according to Wallace (1955, 1978). The mortar and pestle represent an important innovation in seed processing technology, and probably reflect a diversification in seed foraging and processing. It is possible that the mortar began to be preferred over the metate, which has a flat grinding surface, because the bowl-like shape of the mortar acted to contain small seeds during grinding. It is also possible that the mortar and pestle represent an increased reliance on acorns as a food resource (Glassow et al. 1988). The basket hopper-mortar was also used during the Intermediate Period.

The start of the Little Pluvial and Gypsum Periods (2,000 BC to AD 500) coincide with Elko series points as the diagnostic artifact. Manos and milling stones are commonly found at Gypsum Period sites. Flake scrapers were more widely used, although the occasional large scraper plane is also found (Warren 1984). Limited trade goods reaching the desert from the coast, such as *Haliotis* and *Olivella* shell beads and ornaments, are found associated with Gypsum Period sites (Warren 1968). Minor (1975) suggests that the first of the pit and groove petroglyphs were produced during the latter half of the Gypsum Period. Coso area petroglyphs, thought to have been made prior to the Intermediate Period, reflect a change in tool choice: from atlatl to bow-and-arrow which coincides with the use of the atlatl at the beginning of the Gypsum Period, and with an increased use of the bow-and-arrow into the Late Holocene (Warren 1984).

Sites from this period have also been recorded from surveys and excavations in the City of Murrieta General Plan area (cf. PCR Services Corporation 2007; Jones and Lerch 2006; Hoover 2006; Keller 2006).

Late Prehistoric Period (AD 500–1769). Wallace's "Horizon IV," the "Late Prehistoric Horizon," otherwise known at the "Late Prehistoric Period" or simply the "Late Period," begins roughly at AD 500 (Bean and Smith 1978). At this time, Late Prehistoric Period cultures represented in the archaeological record in southern California became increasingly complex and diverse. Changes in tool types, representing a new artifact technology, reflect other changes in cultural patterns, such as subsistence strategy and ceremonial practices. Changes in these cultural traits have been linked to a proposed Uto-Aztecan (Takic), or Shoshonean, cultural migration from the Great Basin to the Pacific Coast. Although there is some variation on when the Late Prehistoric Period occurred, it is generally assumed that the period began approximately AD 500–750, and its termination is widely accepted as AD 1769, the date of the beginning of permanent European occupation of California.

In desert areas, the cultural designation assigned to the Late Prehistoric Period includes the Saratoga Springs Period (AD 500–1200), followed by the Shoshonean Period, or Protohistoric Period (AD 1200 to historic times, and as late as 1850 in some locales) (Warren 1984). During the Saratoga Springs Period, groups continued a successful hunting and gathering adaptation to the desert environment through increasingly complex subsistence strategies. Distinguishing characteristics of the Saratoga Springs culture include the presence of pottery and projectile point types associated with use of the bow-and-arrow. Ceramic vessel technology, appearing first on the lower Colorado River approximately AD 800, and begins to spread west into the southern California deserts by AD 900. Brown Ware and Buff Ware ceramics both occur at Saratoga Springs Period sites. Associated with the use of ceramics are Desert Side-notched and Cottonwood triangular projectile points, both small projectile points associated with use of the bow-and-arrow. Increased use of steatite for ornaments, beads, and pendants is also characteristic of this period (Warren 1984).

In the subsequent Shoshonean, or Protohistoric Period, there was a strong reliance on plant food gathering and hunting of small game, and a decreased reliance on large game (Warren 1984; Warren and Crabtree 1986). Seasonal movement, transhumance, was common and resulted in a diverse array of site types. Technology in desert areas was greatly influenced by Hakatayan Culture of the lower Colorado River area (Warren 1984). Shoshonean Period sites contain flaked stone assemblages made almost exclusively of pressure flaked cryptocrystalline silicates, such as chert, chalcedony, and obsidian. Few bifaces, an increase in the quantity of flake cores and large flake blanks, and a decrease in flaked stone density characterize most Shoshonean Period sites.

Generally, in southern California during the Late Prehistoric Period, projectile points become smaller, indicating use of the bow-and-arrow for hunting. Studies indicate that Late Period projectile points begin to weigh, on average, less than 3.5 grams (Fenenga 1953). The use of steatite for arrow shaft straighteners, cooking, containers, and effigies such as pendants (Koerper and Drover 1983:20) becomes more common during the Late Prehistoric Period. Natural asphaltum, otherwise known as bitumen or tar, was more commonly used. Bone tools became

more common and varied. Ornaments of shell, bone, and stone were also more common. Koerper and Drover (1983) also state that pecten shell (*Argopecten* spp.) rattles are highly concentrated on Late Prehistoric Period sites. According to current literature, interment practices during this time are primarily cremation, except in the Santa Barbara area and on the Channel Islands where burial was still the preferred method of interment. Elaborate mortuary customs become widespread and abundant grave goods become common. In addition, there is evidence of an increase in land and sea mammal hunting.

By AD 1000, ceramic smoking pipes and pottery began to appear (Meighan 1954; Warren 1984). Within Luiseño territory, Meighan (1954) postulated two relatively distinguishable phases of the Late Period. One, an earlier pre-ceramic phase termed the San Luis Rey I, dates from approximately AD 1400 to 1750; the other, termed the San Luis Rey II, dates from approximately AD 1750 to 1850 and includes the presence of ceramics. Additionally, Meighan lists ceramic smoking pipes, cremation urns, red and black pictographs, and grooved steatite arrow shaft straighteners as indicators of the San Luis Rey II period. The introduction of ceramics to the Luiseño area was subsequently estimated by True et al. (1974:97) to have occurred approximately AD 1500–1600.

Ceramic vessels occur only sporadically within Gabrielino territory, and ceramic vessel technology appears to have remained in a vestigial stage in the Orange County area. Some researchers believe that utilitarian ceramic vessel technology, although known in what is now the Orange County area, was not practiced by the native population there until after European contact (McLean 2001). Prehistoric ceramic vessel technology is well documented in western Riverside County, and also from nearby San Diego County to the south (Meighan 1954; True 1958, 1966, 1970).

Late Prehistoric Period sites in the southern California area are also identified by the increased frequency of Salton Sea (Obsidian Butte) obsidian, which was used sporadically in southern California until after circa AD 1000. Obsidian Buttes obsidian is thought to have been made available by the receding shore of prehistoric Lake Cahuilla, its last two stands occurring from approximately AD 900 to 1500 (Wilke 1978:57). Other Late Prehistoric Period traits include the presence of Grimes Canyon fused shale, a semi-vitreous lithic material similar in appearance to obsidian that originates in Ventura County (Demcak 1981; Hall 1988). Artifacts made from fused shale are rare in Riverside County.

Wallace's Late Prehistoric Period (Horizon IV) is contemporaneous with the influx of native groups and sudden changes in material culture, subsistence focus, and burial practices thought to have originated in the deserts to the east. These cultural changes coupled with a group migration are thought to have occurred in approximately AD 500. This migration was formerly termed the *Shoshonean Intrusion* or *Shoshonean Wedge* and has been identified as such in a number of cultural chronologies. For the most part, use of the term "Shoshonean" to indicate a Uto-Aztecan (Takic) language has been dropped from the anthropological literature due to potential confusion with modern Shoshonean tribes who are Numic (Bergin and Ferraro 1999:24), another division of the obsolete Shoshonean language-group terms (Shipley 1978:90). The ethnographically recorded Luiseño, Juaneño, and Gabrielino are thought to be the descendants of prehistoric Takic populations that settled along the coast during the Late Prehistoric Period, or possibly earlier. The Serrano and Cahuilla, more distant from the coast, are also Takic-speaking tribes.

The term *Takic Wedge* is intended to imply the wedge of Takic culture groups that moved to the coast, displacing tribes of the Hokan language stock to the north and south. Displaced Hokan groups on the California coast include the Chumash and Salinan language families to the north, and the Yuman language family (Diegueño language) to the south. Kroeber (1925:578-580) first described what he terms as the "Shoshonean Intrusion" when he identified the narrow southwestern extension of the Shoshonean language family that existed throughout a large portion of the American Southwest and Great Basin. Kroeber describes an increasing number of dialects within the narrow southeastern extension stretching toward the California coast. Kroeber's original map (Kroeber 1925:578) depicting this wedge shows an enormous area of Shoshonean speakers in the Great Basin and American Southwest, with individual languages more numerous and the area narrowing as the wedge nears the Pacific Coast. Koerper (1979:78-79) includes information from many sources in a summary of this theory. Kroeber (1925) believed that the split between the Takic "wedge group" languages and the Hokan language groups that could have taken as long as 1,000 to 1,500 years to develop. Wallace (1962:178) and Rogers (1966:140) both place Takic incursions into the southern California deserts at approximately AD 1000.

Actual differences between the Takic language groups within the wedge, and the Hokan language groups outside of and separated by the wedge, include differences in cordage weave pattern (Rozaire 1967:330), human skull morphology (Titus 1987; Vellanoweth and Altschul 2002:102-104; Kerr et al. 2002), distinct language-group differences (Kroeber 1925:551), and differences in fishhook shank style that coincide with linguistic differences on the coast (Strudwick 1986:286). The migration may have occurred in successive waves over a period of time and it may have originated with trade between culture groups. Cultural familiarity would eventually lead to the knowledge of adjacent culture areas and could eventually result in cultural assimilation if one group was forced to emigrate from its culture area into an adjoining culture area, due to subsistence hardship or some other reason. Based on evidence from artifacts and human morphology distinguishable between Takic and Hokan groups, there is reason to believe that differences in what eventually became Takic-language areas were identifiable from the Hokan language areas much earlier than the 1,000–1,500 years that Kroeber (1925:578-580) and others had originally assumed. Although the nature and the timing of the *Takic Wedge* is currently a topic of some debate, it appears that people were entering coastal areas from desert regions as early as the middle Holocene (Grenda and Altschul 2002:145). What is unclear is when this incursion began, how long it continued, and if it was a series of successive waves of migration or a single immigration into the southern California area.

In the San Diego area, the most recent portion of the Late Prehistoric Period is referred to as the "San Luis Rey I and II" (Meighan 1954), while inland it is referred to as the "Cuyamaca Complex" (True 1958, 1966, 1970). The San Luis Rey phases gave way to the ethnohistorically described Luiseño, while the Cuyamaca Complex resulted in what we now call the Diegueño. In the Orange County area, the Late Prehistoric cultures are ethnohistorically recorded as the Gabrielino, except for a small group in the vicinity of Mission San Juan Capistrano known as the Juaneño.

The lack of Obsidian Butte obsidian and prehistoric ceramics at previously recorded sites in the Murrieta General Plan area suggests that the general plan area was little occupied during the Late Prehistoric Period.

Ethnography. The City of Murrieta is located within the traditional lands of the Luiseño. Prior to Spanish occupation of California, the territory of the Luiseño extended along the coast south to Agua Hedionda Lagoon, northwestward to Aliso Creek just north of San Juan Capistrano, and eastward to the Elsinore Valley and Palomar Mountain. These territorial boundaries changed over time, but they are generally southward of Gabrielino territory and westward of Cahuilla territory. As with the Cahuilla, they encompassed an extremely diverse environment that included coastal beaches, lagoons and marshes, inland river valleys and foothills, and mountain groves of oaks and evergreens (Bean and Shipek 1978). Kroeber (1925:648) describes the Luiseño as a hill people rather than a mountain people and states that they "…scarcely anywhere reached the summit of the watershed."

As previously stated, the Luiseño were named because they lived within the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of Mission San Luis Rey de Francia. Mission San Luis Rey was founded on June 13, 1798 (Hoover et al. 1962:47; Lowman 1993:2) by Father Fermín Francisco de Lasuén, Father Presidente of the missions after Father Junípero Serra's death on August 28, 1784 (McGroarty 1911:365). Mission San Luis Rey, known as the "King of the Missions," was the last of the southern missions to be founded. It was considered one of the most productive missions, with an enormous pasturage and many thousands of sheep, cattle, and horse, plus fields of wheat and grapes.

Like other Native American groups in southern California, the Luiseño caught and collected seasonally available food resources and led a semi-sedentary lifestyle. The geographical-political unit used by the Spanish to describe individual groups of Luiseño and Juaneño was the *rancheria* (White 1963:104). This term was also used for other California tribes. The term *rancheria* is generally equivalent with the term town or village. White (1963:115, 117) states that the average Luiseño village included approximately 30 square miles of territory, although Oxendine (1983:57) believes that the size of the village was less than 30 square miles. Average population of the Luiseño village was approximately 60 individuals, with a documented range of about 14 to 100 individuals (Oxendine 1983:57).

Luiseño villages were commonly located in valley bottoms, along streams, along coastal strands near mountains ranges, or sheltered in coves and canyons near a fresh water source that contained diverse resources. Village sites were commonly situated on elevated landforms. As described by Oxendine (1983:4, 178–179), the prehistoric Luiseño village exhibits certain attributes and environmental characteristics. These include midden sediment, bedrock milling features, ceramic pottery sherds, and usually pictographs and Cottonwood series projectile points. Specifically, the village site was located along the edge of a valley, at the interface of two or more plant communities, and at a location containing a spring or creek, sandy loam sediment, a slope of approximately 9 percent or less, and bedrock outcrops with horizontal or slightly sloping faces useful for milling purposes (Oxendine 1983:4, 178–179). Village locations could include both sides of a creek, but the village was always located within 100 m (328 ft) of water (Oxendine 1983:172).

As stated by Kroeber (1925:616), the time for creating an accurate map of Gabrielino villages was already past; and this statement is also more or less true for the Luiseño. Luiseño villages known to occur in and near Murrieta include *Avaa'ax* (meaning Cottonwood or Alamo), *Paashuku* (Gonzales Adobe) and *Toatwi* (Oxendine 1983:141-143). Another major Luiseño village, *Temeku*, is known from the Temecula area (McCown 1955). It is possible that another village existed in the area near Glen Ivy Hot Springs, less than 1.0 mile (1.6 km) from where Don Leandro Serrano built the first

house in Riverside County. That an early occupant of Riverside County constructed a residence in an area suggests that the locale possessed a native population and village, since settlers of southern California used native populations for labor.

The Luiseño took advantage of the various available resources. At any given time, individuals from the village would have been away from the village site procuring food such as seeds from local grasses, manzanita, sunflower, sage, chía, pine nuts, and acorns. Seeds were dried, ground, and cooked into a mush. In the historic period, acorns accounted for 10–25 percent of the food supply of coastal Luiseño, while acorns accounted for as much as 50 percent of the food supply of inland Luiseño (White 1963:121–122). Each autumn, the majority of a village camped near oak groves for a few weeks while collecting acorns that were stored and eaten over the course of the next year (Oxendine 1983:57). For the Luiseño and other native populations, however, there is some indication that the high percentage of acorn consumption may have reflected post-Mission dietary stress and does not represent continuity of a pre-Mission subsistence pattern.

Game animals such as deer, rabbit, jackrabbit, wood rat, mice, antelope, and many types of birds were regularly hunted (Bean and Shipek 1978). The Luiseño utilized fire for communal rabbit drives, as well as for crop management (Bean and Shipek 1978). Small seasonal habitation sites associated with these hunting activities would contain a paucity of artifacts, including fire-affected rock (FAR), some burned bone, and small amounts of ground and flaked stone tools. They might be found as open sites atop knolls or ridges, or in protected areas near streams, or even in rock shelters.

The Luiseño community was the focus of family life. Patrilineally linked, extended families occupied each village (Kroeber 1925; Bean and Shipek 1978). The Luiseño had a well-developed sense of ownership (White 1963:122), and their concept of property rights included the idea of private property. Property rights covered items and land owned by the village as well as items such as houses, gardens, ritual equipment, trade beads, eagle nests, and songs that were owned by individuals; trespass against any property was punished (Bean and Shipek 1978). Luiseño villages were politically independent and were administered by a chief, who inherited his position from his father.

The Luiseño conducted an elaborate toloache ritual related to the god *Chinigchinich*, including the ceremonial ingestion of Jimson weed (*Datura meteloides*), or datura, a hallucinogenic substance used to induce visions (Kroeber 1925:666; Bean and Shipek 1978). This cult, also referred to as the datura, or Jimson weed cult, was associated with the deity *Chinigchinich.* The cult of the culture hero, creator-god, and spiritual being *Chinigchinich*, was observed and recorded by Franciscan Friar Gerónimo Boscana during his residences at Missions San Juan Capistrano and San Luis Rey (Harrington 1933; Boscana 1933). The Luiseño also practiced ground or sand painting (DuBois 1908:87–91; Kroeber 1925:661), which was a significant ritual-cosmological component associated with most of their rituals (Bean and Shipek 1978:556). Although known to have been made by the Juaneño, Gabrielino, Diegueño, and Cupeño, sand painting has been best documented for the Luiseño and is not known for most Hokan language groups such as the Chumash, or Yuma, or by nearby Penutian language groups such as the Central Valley Yokuts. As such, Kroeber (1925:661) states that sand painting in prehistoric California was a development of the coastal Shoshonean, or Takic, language groups and was connected with similar paintings made by the Navajos and Pueblo groups of the Southwest. Furthermore, Kroeber (1925:661) stated that Luiseño sand painting was conducted in relation to the ingestion of datura during the toloache ritual.

History. In California, the historic era is generally divided into three periods: the Spanish Period (1769 to 1821), the Mexican Period (1821 to 1848), and the American Period (1848 to present). Early exploration of the Riverside County area began slowly until Lieutenant Pedro Fages, then the military governor of San Diego, crossed through the San Jacinto Valley in 1772.

On January 8, 1774, the Juan Bautista de Anza expedition crossed the Colorado River and entered California. Bautista de Anza's second excursion into Riverside County included 29 soldiers and their wives and children, who would form the new community at the Presidio of San Francisco (Beattie 1925). With the Spanish intrusion of the late 18th century came a drastic change in lifestyle for the natives of southern California. Incorporation of the indigenous populations into the mission system generally led to the disruption of native cultures and changes in subsistence and land use practices (Harley 1988). In 1821, Mexico overthrew Spanish rule, and the missions began to decline. By 1833, the Mexican government passed the Secularization Act, and the missions, reorganized as parish churches, lost their vast land holdings, and released their neophytes. In 1834, a prominent group of Californians, including the Lugos, the Vallejos, the Picos, and the Ortegas, coerced Governor Figueroa to create the "Provisional Regulations." These regulations made mission lands available for their occupation (Beattie and Beattie 1939). Sixteen ranchos were granted in Riverside County during the Mexican Period (1821 to 1848). They were predominantly devoted to cattle, with great tracts of land used for grazing. Until the Gold Rush of 1848, livestock and horticulture dominated the economics of California (Ingersoll 1904; Beattie 1925; Beattie and Beattie 1951).

As travel along the Santa Fe Trail and Southern Emigrant trails during the early American Period brought more settlers, the pattern of settlement developed along the Santa Ana and San Jacinto waterways. The Southern Pacific Railroad completed its line from Los Angeles through the San Gorgonio Pass in 1876. In 1883, the California Southern Railway opened up travel through the Cajon Pass and down to San Diego through western Riverside County. The trains were eventually used to transport settlers into the area, creating a period of agricultural and land development, ultimately resulting in the establishment of Riverside County in 1893. Transportation, agriculture, and the control of water have continued to be central themes in the settlement, development, and growth of Riverside County (Robinson 1979).

Murrieta. Murrieta's land area was originally included in Mission San Luis Rey's lands as part of Rancho Temecula. After secularization, other ranchos were carved out of the Temecula Rancho, including the Pauba, La Laguna, and Little Temecula Ranchos. By the mid-19th century, Murrieta's land area was bisected by the Southern Emigrant Trail, which ran through western Riverside County in a similar alignment to the current I-15. The trail, which also served as the route of the Butterfield stage, went through a major stop called "Alamos," which was located near the present-day intersection of Cherry and Jefferson Avenues in Murrieta. Another branch of the Southern Emigrant Trail turned northward from Temecula to Box Springs near present-day Moreno Valley roughly along the current route of I-215 (Lech 2004).

Murrieta was named after Don Juan Murrieta, a Spaniard who had come with his brothers to California in 1863. They originally settled in the Merced region of the San Joaquin Valley, but Don Juan Murrieta eventually drove his herds of sheep southward to southern California. After bringing 100,000 sheep to southwestern Riverside County, Murrieta (along with several business

partners) purchased 52,000 acres of the Temecula and Pauba ranchos from Vincent de Laveaga of San Francisco in 1873. Juan and his brother Ezekiel Murrieta deeded a right-of-way to the California Southern Railway in 1882, and soon thereafter announced their plans to subdivide a town called "Murrietaville" along the railroad (Garrison 1963; Lech 2004).

In 1884, before they could make their plans a reality, the Murrieta brothers were bought out by the Temecula Land and Water Company. The company immediately subdivided a portion of its new holdings near the Alamo stage stop, which had in the previous year also become a stop along the new California Southern Railway. The subdivided lands included 14,500 lots that were mostly 40 acres each, as well as some larger tracts ranging from 200 to 4,000 acres each for large-scale agriculture (Garrison 1963). At the heart of the subdivision was the Murrieta town site, which consisted of 160 acres divided into 537 lots near the railroad depot. The original grid layout of streets included Kalmia, Juniper, and Ivy Streets, which ran northeast to southwest; and Washington, Clay, and Hayes Streets, which ran northwest to southeast. The town increased rapidly during the boom years that affected many railroad-adjacent towns in southern California in the late 1880s (Lech 2004).

By 1886, the town included a post office, depot, large hotel, restaurant, newspaper, two general stores, a hardware and furniture store, school, livery stable, lumber yard, butcher shop, laundry, blacksmith shop, a church, a newspaper called *The Era*, and two physicians. By 1890, the town had a population of 800 (Garrison 1963). When Riverside County was formed in 1893, Murrieta was designated one of 12 original judicial townships and 40th election precinct (Gunther 1984).

The Santa Fe Railroad acquired California Southern Railway after a wet winter in 1883–1884 had ruined a large stretch of their newly-created railway through the Temecula Valley. They rebuilt the connection, but their purchase was never particularly profitable. After they completed their own line through the San Jacinto Valley, the California Southern alignment became somewhat redundant as well. In 1891, after another wet winter flooded and washed out the California Southern tracks in Temecula Valley, Santa Fe drastically curtailed rail service through Murrieta. Instead of repairing the flood-prone line through Fallbrook, Elsinore, and Corona, they realigned their route through the Pechanga Valley and connected it with the Santa Fe line up through Perris. Murrieta became the end of a rail spur from Corona and not a stop along any major thoroughfare (Garrison 1963). This, in addition to the broader southern California real-estate bust in the 1890s dampened Murrieta's growth as a town. After a short-lived attempt in the 1890s to attract "gentleman planters" to the area with an irrigation district aimed at supporting widespread groves of deciduous fruits, the area settled into a more bucolic existence (Lech 2004). Daily train service continued into Murrieta until 1935, after automobile use had become a well-established alternative to train travel in southern California (Garrison 1963).

From the 1890s through the late 20th century, Murrieta's land use and local economy focused on dry-farming grains (barley, wheat, and oats). According to a community history of Murrieta, "[Murrieta's] identity was shaped by the farms of vast rolling fields of the seasonal grasses, first green and then golden. Temecula was a town of cattlemen; Murrieta, of grain farmers that drove huge teams of horses pulling combine harvesters over the fields of the Antelope Valley, the Santa Rosa Plateau, and the Alamos district." Murrieta farmers also grew potatoes, alfalfa, vegetables, and grape vineyards, as well as orchards of olive, cherry, pear, apple, fig, and nectarine trees (Alter et al. 2005).

One exception to the community's dominant agricultural identity was the regionally-popular Murrieta Hot Springs. Located along present Murrieta Hot Springs Road just east of I-215, the mineral-rich springs have been used by people for thousands of years. The Luiseño called the springs *Cherukanukna Hakiwuna* and their extensive use of the springs is reflected in the numerous habitation sites and artifacts found nearby. Non-Indian visitors in the late 19th century determined that the springs had healing properties, and Murrieta Hot Springs became part of a rapidly growing network of Southern California destinations for health-seekers. In 1887, a Pasadena syndicate bought the hot springs, along with over a thousand acres of land. After several years of new owners, Murrieta Hot Springs was purchased by Fritz Guenther in 1902. It prospered under the family's ownership for nearly 70 years, expanding from 200 acres of ranch land and a few decrepit buildings into over 500 acres of prime resort spa, complete with bathhouses, tiled pools, hotels, great halls, stables, gardens, and hiking trails. However, by 1969 profits were down due to laws prohibiting gambling and affordable air travel enticed families to take their vacations elsewhere. Murrieta Hot Springs was sold again, continuing its decline over the years until the spa was closed in 1990 and the resort was auctioned off (Boyce 1995).

Renewed residential growth in Murrieta began in the 1980s with the improvement of I-15 and I-215 and subsequent migration of thousands of San Diego and Orange County residents farther inland in search of affordable suburban housing. The 1980 Census recorded only about 2,200 residents in Murrieta, but by 1990, the population had soared to over 24,000 residents. This rapid residential growth between 1980 and 1990 led Murrieta to incorporate as a general law City in 1991. Since incorporation, residential growth has continued to skyrocket, to 44,282 people in 2000 and to about 85,000 in 2005, making Murrieta the fifth largest city in Riverside County (City of Murrieta 2009).

FINDINGS

Records Search Methods and Results

In November 2009, a records search was conducted at the Eastern Information Center (EIC), located in the Department of Anthropology at the University of California, Riverside. This included a review of all recorded historic and prehistoric archaeological sites, as well as a review of known cultural resource surveys and excavation reports generated from projects located within the planning area. In addition, a review was conducted of the National Register, and documents and inventories from the California Office of Historic Preservation including the lists of the California Register, California Historical Landmarks, California Points of Historical Interest, and the Inventory of Historic Structures. LSA also reviewed historic maps, conducted online and secondary source research, and contacted the EIC for additional information on cultural resources within the planning area.

The results of the records search indicate that 330 cultural resource studies have been conducted within the planning area, resulting in the identification of a total of 199 documented cultural resources. The previous studies within the planning area are mainly cultural resource assessments, survey reports, and archaeological test excavations. The documented resources within the planning area include more than 75 separate milling features in bedrock, 36 milling artifacts, 53 sites with lithic artifacts (flakes, points, debitage), 5 sites with rock art, 9 possible prehistoric campsites or

habitation sites, 3 possible prehistoric quarries, 7 built resources, and 11 historic archaeological sites (trash scatters, habitation remains).

Of the documented resources, none of these are listed on the National and California Registers, and/or none are designated State Historic Landmarks and Points of Historic Interest.

Evaluated Resources in the Historic Properties Directory

A review of the Historic Properties Directory (HPD) revealed that an additional 73 properties have been documented and evaluated (see Table B). Several of these resources have been demolished or were otherwise not relocated by subsequent surveys. Eleven of them are part of the Murrieta Hot Springs complex, which was incorporated into a Christian conference center in 1995.

Table B: Evaluated Resources in the Historic Properties Directory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
24695 1st Avenue	Old Cheney Place, Holiness Parsonage	1900	5S2
24903 1st Avenue	Bradford Place/Houston Place	1890 (demolished)	5S2
24995 1st Avenue	Freeman House	1915	5S2
24628 2nd Avenue		1920	5S2
24646 2nd Avenue		1930 (demolished)	5S2
24675 2nd Avenue	Murrieta Elementary School	1920 (ruins)	3S
24790 2nd Avenue		1922	3S
24770 2nd Avenue	R.W. Bollen Place, Chrisman Place	1910	3S
42011 A Street	Methodist Parsonage/MT Auto Parts	1910	5S2
24260 Adams Avenue	Jake Lambert House Site	1900	7R
24370 Adams Avenue	Deering Home, Sawyer House	1930	7R
24460 Adams Avenue	Judge Thorn House, Curtis Thompson	1900	5S2
25549 Adams Avenue	Brown House	1885	3S
25701 Adams Avenue	Roy Southard Place	1894 (demolished)	3S
41919 C Street	Frank Lloyd House	1920	5S2
42086 C Street	Frank Thorn House	1898	3S
24711 Clay Avenue	Lambert House	1900 (demolished)	7R
24737 Clay Avenue	Fountain House Hotel Site	1936	7R
42036 D Street	Cora Stoller House	1910	5S2
24120 Hayes Avenue	Sykes House	1905 (demolished)	5S2
24916 Hayes Avenue	Williams Ranch/Mefferd	1920	5S2
41833 Ivy Street		1920	5S2
41950 Ivy Street	Hedges House/Rail House	1900	5S2

Table B: Evaluated Resources in the Historic Properties Directory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
42835 Ivy Street	Matteson Ranch/Olive Hill Ranch	1930	7R
Jefferson Avenue	Burnham House/Drucker Ranch	1932	5S2
25679 Jefferson Avenue	Merrill House/Provolt House	1900	5S2
25751 Jefferson Avenue	Raleigh Brown Place	1910 (demolished)	5S2
41958 Juniper Street	Doolittle House/Cruz House	1885	5S2
41539 Kalmia Street	Austin Warner House, Hite House	1913 (demolished)	5S2
37100 Los Alamos Road		1947 (demolished)	7R
37201 Los Alamos Road	James Place	1915 (demolished)	5S2
40851 Los Alamos Road	Yoder Ranch	1900 (demolished)	5S2
41301 Los Alamos Road	Ross Rail House	1916 (demolished)	7R
41621 Magnolia Street	Cornwell Place, Morrow Place	1920 (demolished)	5S2
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Hotel	1915	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Bungalows	1905	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, California	1908	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Alive Polari	1908	3S
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Steam Plants	1925	3D
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Offices	1928	3D
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Bath House	1929	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Plunge	1929	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, New Hotel	1926	3B
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs	Murrieta Hot Springs, Landscape	1910	3D
39401 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Dining Room	1910	3B
39405 Murrieta Hot Springs	Guenther's Murrieta Hotsprings	1926	7J
40030 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Temecula Hot Springs		5S2
92362 Murrieta Hot Springs Road	Murrieta Hot Springs, Memorial Hall	1913	3B

Table B: Evaluated Resources in the Historic Properties Directory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
39755 Murrieta Hot Springs Road			6Y
New Clay Avenue	Grain Elevator	1919	3S
24721 Clay Avenue	Manse House	1931	5S2
24912 Plum Avenue	B.W. Tarwater House	1888	3S
42670 Tenaja Road	McCool House	1920 (demolished)	5S2
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Ranch Home	1910 (demolished)	3B
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Rancho Viejo de Car	1910 (demolished)	3S
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Root Cellar	1910 (demolished)	3B
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Barn	1910 (demolished)	3B
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Bunk House #1	1910 (demolished)	3D
10250 Verdugo Road	Wheeler Ranch, Bunk House #2	1910 (demolished)	3D
24190 Washington Avenue	Schupe's Log Cabin, Anderson's Café	1920 (demolished)	3S
24264 Washington Avenue	Paul Thompson Place	1937	5S2
24280 Washington Avenue	U.S. Soil Conservation Office	1934 (demolished)	5S2
24490 Washington Avenue	Thompson House	1914	5S2
24629 Washington Avenue	George Cocking House, Kane House	1920 (demolished)	5S2
24641 Washington Avenue	Sam Barnes House	1920 (demolished)	5S2
24770 Washington Avenue	Lakeman's Restaurant/Ray's Café	1900	5S2
24792 Washington Avenue	Lakeman House/Bezanson House	1885 (demolished)	5S2
24854 Washington Avenue	Hamilton House	1925	5S2
24890 Washington Avenue		1930	5S2
24973 Washington Avenue	Cliff Thompson House	1917 (demolished)	5S2
25190 Washington Avenue	Dodd House, Stoner House	1885	5S2
25229 Washington Avenue	Buchanan House	1885	5S2
25440 Washington Avenue	Hutchison House	1885	3S
92362 Washington Avenue	Thompson House, A.K. Small House	1900	5S2

Properties Listed in the City Historic Resources Inventory

As shown in Table C, another 59 historic resources were included in the 2005 Murrieta Historic Resources Survey Update (Alter et al. 2005). Many of these resources were initially documented by the Riverside County Historical Commission in a 1982 survey. This 1982 survey was submitted to the

EIC and added to the Riverside Historic Properties Directory, but the 2005 survey was not submitted. Therefore, some of the properties listed below also appear in the HPD list above.

Table C: Properties Listed in the City Historic Resources Inventory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
24635 1st Street	H.P. Zimmerman Property	1920	6Z
24643 1st Street	I.O. and Marion O. Rail Property/ Gagnon House	1930	6Z
24695 1st Avenue	Old Cheney Place, Holiness Parsonage	1900	5S2
24757 1st Street	Lotta Matteson Property/Westrem House	1950	6Z
24903 1st Avenue	Bradford Place/Houston Place	1890 (demolished)	5S2
24920 1st Street	Frank G. Thorne Property/Steely House	1925	6Z
24995 1st Avenue	Freeman House	1915	5S2
24620-24646 2nd Street		1910	5S2
24628 2nd Avenue		1920	5S2
24646 2nd Avenue		1930 (demolished)	5S2
24675 2nd Avenue	Murrieta Elementary School	1920 (ruins)	3S
24770 2nd Avenue	R.W. Bollen Place, Chrisman Place	1910	3S
24790 2nd Avenue		1922	3S
24815 2nd Street	Fred & Cora Cooper Property/ Boyd/Jones House	1930	6Z
24993 2nd Street	Charles Provost Property/ Alvarado-Luz House	1920	6Z
42011 A Street	Methodist Parsonage/MT Auto Parts	1910	5S2
24260 Adams Avenue	Jake Lambert House Site	1900	7R
24370 Adams Avenue	Deering Home, Sawyer House	1930	7R
24460 Adams Avenue	Judge Thorn House, Curtis Thompson	1900	5S2
24960 Adams Avenue			
25549 Adams Avenue	Brown House	1885	3S
41919 C Street	Frank Lloyd House	1920	5S2
41940 C Street	Fire Station No. 1	1948	5S2
42086 C Street	Frank Thorn House	1898	3S
24711 Clay Avenue	Lambert House	1900	7R
24721 Clay Avenue	Manse House	1931	5S2
24737 Clay Avenue	Fountain House Hotel Site	1936	7R
42036 D Street	Cora Stoller House	1910	5S2
24120 Hayes Avenue	Sykes House	1905 (demolished)	5S2
24916 Hayes Avenue	Williams Ranch/Mefferd	1920	5S2

Table C: Properties Listed in the City Historic Resources Inventory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
41529 Ivy Street		(demolished)	
41541 Ivy Street			
41763 Ivy Street	Nancy Lee Gossett Property	1940	6Z
41833 Ivy Street		1920	5S2
41950 Ivy Street	Hedges House/Rail House	1900	5S2
24413 Jefferson Avenue	Bessie Wickerd Property	1930	5S2
24831 Jefferson Avenue		1920	5S2
25580 Jefferson Avenue	Charles Charnock Property	1930	5S2
41810 Juniper Street			
41958 Juniper Street	Doolittle House/Cruz House	1885	5S2
41539 Kalmia Street	Austin Warner House, Hite House	1913 (demolished)	5S2
37100 Los Alamos Road	George Hind/ Gentry Family Property	1945	5S2
37201 Los Alamos Road	James Place	1915 (demolished)	5S2
40798 Los Alamos Road		1930	6Z
40851 Los Alamos Road	Yoder Ranch	1900 (demolished)	5S2
41223 Madison Avenue		1930	5S2
41886 Magnolia Street	H.B. Lashlee Property/ Railroad Workers Dormitory	1942	5S2
41908 Magnolia Street	H.B. Lashlee Property	1906	5S2
New Clay Avenue	Grain Elevator	1919	3S
24901 New Clay Street	Norma Jean Cunnington Property/ Isham House	1978	6Z
21945 Plum Street		1935	5S2
24912 Plum Avenue	B.W. Tarwater House	1888	3S
24980 Plum Street	D.H. and Sarah J. Turnbeaugh Property	1930	6Z
24264 Washington Avenue	Paul Thompson Place	1937	5S2
24280 Washington Avenue	U.S. Soil Conservation Office	1934 (demolished)	5S2
24490 Washington Avenue	Thompson House	1914	5S2
24629 Washington Avenue	George Cocking House, Kane House	1920 (demolished)	5S2
24641 Washington Avenue	Sam Barnes House	1920 (demolished)	5S2
24741 Washington Avenue			
24770 Washington Avenue	Lakeman's Restaurant/Ray's Café	1900	5S2
24785-24791 Washington Avenue			
24792 Washington Avenue	Lakeman House/Bezanson House	1885 (demolished)	5S2
24854 Washington Avenue	Hamilton House	1925	5S2
24861 Washington Avenue			

Table C: Properties Listed in the City Historic Resources Inventory

Address	Name	Date of Construction	CHR Status Code
24890 Washington Avenue		1930	5S2
24935 Washington Avenue			
24973 Washington Avenue	Cliff Thompson House	1917 (demolished)	5S2
25069 Washington Avenue			
25190 Washington Avenue	Dodd House, Stoner House	1885	5S2
25229 Washington Avenue	Buchanan House	1885	5S2
25440 Washington Avenue	Hutchison House	1885	3S

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APPENDIX A

RECORDS SEARCH LETTERS