9 CULTURAL RESOURCES

This document provides an overview of cultural resources in Butte County, including an overview of the historical themes; a discussion of federal, State and local regulations pertaining to the management of cultural resources; and a discussion of the types of cultural resources likely to be encountered.

Cultural resource is the term used to describe several different types of properties: prehistoric and historical archaeological sites; and architectural properties, such as buildings, bridges and infrastructure, and locations important to Native Americans.

Federal regulations (36 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] 800) define a *historic property* as any prehistoric or historic district, site, building, structure, or object included in, or eligible for inclusion in, the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP).

Historical resource is a term from the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA) that includes buildings, sites, structures, objects, or districts—each of which may have historical, prehistoric, architectural, archaeological, cultural, or scientific importance and be eligible for listing or be listed in the California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR).

A. Regulatory Framework

This section presents federal, state and local laws and regulations pertaining to cultural resources and Native Americans.

1. Federal Regulations

a. Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act

Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) requires federal agencies, or those they fund or permit, to consider the effects of their actions on the properties that may be eligible for listing or that are listed in the NRHP. To determine whether an undertaking could affect NRHP-eligible properties, cultural resources (including archaeological, historical and

architectural properties) must be inventoried and evaluated for listing in the NRHP. Although compliance with Section 106 is the responsibility of the lead federal agency, the work necessary to comply may be undertaken by others.

The Section 106 process entails six basic steps, listed below.

- Initiate consultation and public involvement.
- Identify and evaluate historic properties.
- Assess effects of the project on historic properties.
- Consult with the State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) regarding adverse effects on historic properties, resulting in a memorandum of agreement (MOA).
- Submit the MOA to the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP).
- Proceed in accordance with the MOA.

b. Federal Historic Significance Criteria

For federal projects, cultural-resource significance is evaluated in terms of eligibility for listing in the NRHP. NRHP criteria for eligibility are defined below.

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures and objects of state and local importance that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling and association, and that

1. are associated with events that have made a contribution to the broad pattern of our history;
2. are associated with the lives of people significant in our past;
3. embody the distinct characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or represent the work of a master, or possess high artistic

values, or represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

4. have yielded, or are likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history (36 Code of Federal Regulations 60.4).

2. State Regulations

a. California Environmental Quality Act

CEQA requires that public agencies that finance or approve public or private projects must assess the effects of the project on cultural resources. Cultural resources are defined as buildings, sites, structures, or objects, each of which may have historical, architectural, archaeological, cultural, or scientific importance. CEQA requires that if a project would result in significant effects on important cultural resources, alternative plans or mitigation measures must be considered; only significant cultural resources, however, need to be addressed. Therefore, prior to the development of mitigation measures, the importance of cultural resources must be determined. The steps that are normally taken in a cultural-resources investigation for CEQA compliance are as follows:

- identify cultural resources;
- evaluate the significance of resources;
- evaluate the impacts of a project on *significant* cultural resources; and
- develop and implement measures to mitigate the impacts of the project only on *significant* resources, namely historical resources and unique archaeological resources.

The State CEQA Guidelines define three ways a cultural resource may qualify as a historical resource for the purposes of CEQA review:

- The resource is listed in or determined to be eligible for listing in the California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR);
- The resource is included in a local register of historical resources, as defined in Public Resources Code (PRC) 5020.1(k), or is identified as significant in a historical-resource survey meeting the requirements of

PRC 5024.1(g), unless the preponderance of evidence demonstrates that it is not historically or culturally significant; or

- The lead agency determines the resource to be significant as supported by substantial evidence in light of the whole record (14 California Code of Regulations [CCR] 15064.5[a]).

A cultural resource may be eligible for inclusion in the CRHR if it:

- 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 to prehistory or history.

In addition, CEQA distinguishes between two classes of archaeological resources: those that meet the definition of a historical resource as described above and *unique* archaeological resources. An archaeological resource is considered unique if it:

- is associated with an event or person of recognized significance in California or American history or of recognized scientific importance in prehistory;
- can provide information that is of demonstrable public interest and is useful in addressing scientifically consequential and reasonable research questions; or
- has a special or particular quality, such as being the oldest, best, largest, or last surviving example of its kind (PRC 21083.2).

b. Public Resources Code 5097.9

California PRC 5097.9 states that no public agency or private party on public property shall "interfere with the free expression or exercise of Native American Religion." The code further states that:

> No such agency or party [shall] cause severe or irreparable damage to any Native American sanctified cemetery, place of worship, religious or ceremonial site, or sacred shrine ... except on a clear and convincing showing that the public interest and necessity so require.

County and city lands are exempt from this provision, expect for parklands larger than 100 acres.

c. Government Code 65352.3-5 (Senate Bill 18), Local Government – Tribal Consultation

California Government Code Section 65352.3-5, formerly known as Senate Bill (SB) 18, states that prior to the adoption or amendment of a city or county's general plan, or specific plans, the city or county shall consult with California Native American tribes that are on the contact list maintained by the Native American Heritage Commission (NAHC). The intent of this legislation is to preserve or mitigate impacts on places, features and objects, as defined in PRC 5097.9 and PRC 5097.993, that are located within the city or county's jurisdiction. The bill also states that the city or county shall protect the confidentiality of information concerning the specific identity, location, character and use of those places, features and objects identified by Native American consultation. Government Code 65362.3-5 applies to all general and specific plans and amendments proposed after March 1, 2005.

3. County Regulations

a. Butte County Code

Historic resources are not separately addressed in the Butte County Code but are incorporated into various sections of it. The County Code provides for the protection of cultural resources in Chapters 24 and 26. Zoning Chapter 24-82(2) requires the preservation of important cultural resources. More

pointedly, it requires the preservation of sensitive archaeological sites and requires that historic areas be regarded as open space [(24-82(g)1a.4.], [24-82(g)1b.3]. The code also requires certain business zones to either provide a buffer to sensitive historic features or preserve and incorporate historic elements as design features [24-167(12)a,c].

B. Cultural Setting

1. Prehistoric Context

The history of human occupation and use of the Sacramento Valley/northern Sierra Nevada foothills/southern Cascades area is characterized by a number of related trends taking place throughout the last 10,000 years. Archaeologically visible patterns can be attributed to responses to gradual changes in climate, resource availability and human population growth. The cultural responses to these changes include specialization, intensification, sedentism and the development of regional economic networks. This summary of the prehistory of the Butte County area follows similar but varying temporal outlines, depending on the geographic area under consideration.

a. Central Valley

This summary of the archaeology of the Central Valley (which includes the Sacramento Valley) follows a temporal outline using the Early, Middle and Late Horizons but does so within a processual perspective incorporating the Windmiller, Berkeley and Augustine Patterns. The Central Valley sequence is seen as a continuous and gradual cultural response to both ecological and social constraints.

Archaeological evidence for human use of the Central Valley during the late Pleistocene and early Holocene is scarce. At the end of the Pleistocene, circa 10,000–8000 B.C., parts of the Sierra Nevada adjacent to the Central Valley were covered with large glaciers and the valley provided a major transit route

for animals and people. This transportation corridor, perhaps rivaled only by maritime coastal travel, was undoubtedly used heavily by early Californians.

Although rare, the archaeological remains of these activities have been identified in the Central Valley south of Butte County.[1] Johnson[2] presents evidence for some use of the Mokelumne River area, under what is now Camanche Reservoir, during the late Pleistocene. A number of lithic cores and a flake were found at three different locations. All lithic specimens were associated with Pleistocene gravels. These archaeological remains have been grouped into what has been called the Farmington Complex, characterized by core tools and large, reworked percussion flakes.[3] Farther north, at Rancho Murieta, lithic artifacts spanning the reduction sequence, as well as unworked raw material, were recovered from gravel deposits attributed to the late Pleistocene.[4]

Some archaeological evidence of human use of the Central Valley during the Pleistocene does exist. The paucity of evidence from this time period is likely a product of the archaeological record itself rather than the lack of use of this area. Most Pleistocene-Holocene era sites are deeply buried in the gravels and

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[1] Johnson, J.J., 1967. The Archaeology of the Camanche Reservoir Locality, California. Paper 6. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Anthropological Society.

Peak & Associates, Inc., 1981. Archaeological Investigation of CA-SAC-370 and CA-SAC-379, the Rancho Murieta Early Man Sites in Eastern Sacramento County. Sacramento, CA: Ann S. Peak and Associates.

Treganza, A.E. and R.F. Heizer, 1953. Additional Data on the Farmington Complex: A Stone Implement Assemblage of Probably Early Post-Glacial Date from Central California. University of California Archaeological Survey Report 22:28–38.

[2] Johnson, J.J., 1967. The Archaeology of the Camanche Reservoir Locality, California. Paper 6. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Anthropological Society.

[3] Treganza, A.E. and R.F. Heizer, 1953. Additional Data on the Farmington Complex: A Stone Implement Assemblage of Probably Early Post-Glacial Date from Central California. University of California Archaeological Survey Report 22:28–38.

[4] Peak & Associates, Inc., 1981. Archaeological Investigation of CA-SAC-370 and CA-SAC-379, the Rancho Murieta Early Man Sites in Eastern Sacramento County. Sacramento, CA: Ann S. Peak and Associates.

silts that have accumulated in the Central Valley from erosion and river flooding and silt deposition over the last 5,000 years, or have eroded away.

The economy of the Central Valley residents during the late Pleistocene is thought to be based on the hunting of large Pleistocene mammals. Although no direct evidence of this exists in the Central Valley, the similarity of the artifact assemblages with those of other locations in western North America, where the association can be demonstrated, supports this argument. Much of the Pleistocene megafauna became extinct at the Pleistocene-Holocene transition. These extinctions were caused by warming temperatures, rising sea levels and changing precipitation patterns. The Central Valley gradually became both warmer and drier. Pine forests were replaced with vegetation similar to that found today. The rising sea level filled San Francisco Bay and created the Sacramento/San Joaquin River Delta marshes. To survive without large game, people had to change their food-procurement strategies to make use of a more diverse range of smaller plants and animals.

i. Early Horizon: 6000–2000 BC

Using a wider range of smaller resources meant that people had to have access to larger areas of land to hunt and to collect the food and other resources they needed. Small groups of people probably moved through the valley, the foothills, the Sierra Nevada and the Cascades to take advantage of seasonally available resources and those limited to particular ecozones. The ability to move from resource to resource was key to the survival of populations using this adaptive strategy.

Reliance on a diverse number of smaller plants and animals had several consequences. First, people had to move around from one area to another to take advantage of the seasonal availability of particular resources. Second, large areas of land were needed to ensure that enough resources were available during all times of the year. Third, more specialized tools were necessary to procure and process the wider range of plants and animals that were being used.

A generalized subsistence strategy worked well for the inhabitants of the Central Valley for many millennia. During the Early Horizon, beginning at approximately 4000 BC, change in the subsistence strategy began to take place. This change to a more specialized subsistence strategy can be at least partially explained by the increasing numbers of people living in the Central Valley. As the population slowly increased, it became more difficult for people to obtain seasonally available resources across large areas of land. Increasing populations are suggested by a much more abundant archaeological record and dietary stress indicated by dental pathologies.[5] When the population's ability to maintain sustenance was constrained, it was forced to find ways to increase the amount of food that could be procured from smaller portions of land.

The beginnings of this intensification can be seen in what Fredrickson[6] has identified as the Windmiller Pattern, based on the assemblage at the Windmiller site (CA-SAC-107). Artifacts and faunal remains at Windmiller sites indicate that a diverse range of resources, including seeds, a variety of small game and fish, was exploited. The material culture assemblage includes trident fish spears; at least two types of fishhooks; quartz crystals and numerous charm stone styles; and a baked clay assemblage that included net sinkers, pecan-shaped fish line sinkers and cooking balls. Ground stone items found included mortars and pestles. The bone-tool industry appears minimal but includes awls, needles and flakers. People with a Windmiller adaptation buried their dead in formal cemeteries, both within and separate from their villages, in a ritual context that included the use of red ochre, often rich grave offerings and ventral extension with a predominantly western orientation (although other burial positions, such as dorsal extension and flexed, and

[5] Moratto, M.J., 1978. *Archaeology and California's Climate*. California Indian Library Collections, Berkeley, CA.

[6] Fredrickson, D.A., 1973. *Early Cultures of the North Coast Ranges, California*. Ph.D. dissertation. Davis, CA: Department of Anthropology, University of California, Davis.

cremations are known also).[7] Though the Windmiller Pattern is identified with the Sacramento/San Joaquin River Delta, work at Camanche Reservoir (situated in Calaveras County in the Sierra foothills east of the city of Lodi) has identified sites with Windmiller assemblages,[8] indicating that people exhibiting these adaptations also used other peripheral Central Valley settings.

ii. Middle Horizon: 2000 BC–AD 500

It is during the Middle Horizon that resource specialization is readily visible in the archaeological record. At least one factor that necessitated the need for specialization was the gradual increase in population in the Central Valley that was mentioned in the prior section. Central Valley inhabitants responded to this population pressure by focusing on two things. First, they used the marshlands of the Delta area where the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers meet. The Delta at this time was much more extensive than it is today and was rich in food resources. Second, they increased the use of the acorn as a food source. The acorn had been used before this time, but it became a much more predominant resource with specialized procurement and processing technologies. People in this period were more sedentary than they had been in the past, and village sites are found throughout the valley along rivers and near other areas with permanent sources of water. An economic shift from a foraging to a collecting strategy probably occurred during this time.

The adaptive pattern that is found most frequently during this period is called the Berkeley Pattern and is based on the assemblage of CA-ALA-307.[9] Sites displaying Windmiller Pattern assemblages, however, are also found in the

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[7] Moratto, M.J., 2004. *California Archaeology*. Orlando, FL: Coyote Press, Salinas, CA.

[8] Johnson, J.J., 1967. The Archaeology of the Camanche Reservoir Locality, California. Paper 6. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Anthropological Society.

[9] Fredrickson, D.A., 1973. *Early Cultures of the North Coast Ranges, California*. Ph.D. dissertation. Davis, CA: Department of Anthropology, University of California, Davis.

Middle Horizon. The Windmiller Pattern sites in this period seem to occur with more frequency in or near the Delta, while Berkeley Pattern sites tend to be more prevalent farther north. The Berkeley Pattern differs primarily in its greater emphasis on the exploitation of the acorn as a staple. This distinction is reflected in the more numerous and varied mortars and pestles. This complex is also noted for its especially well-developed bone industry and such technological innovations as ribbon flaking of chipped stone artifacts. During this era, flexed (fetal position) burials replaced extended (outstretched) burials, and the use of grave goods generally declined.[10]

A restricted land base, coupled with a more specialized resource base, meant that people had to develop economic relationships with other groups of people living in other areas with access to different specialized resources. Although resources and commodities were being exchanged throughout the region prior to this period, it is in this period that more extensive and more frequently used economic networks developed. Transported resources likely included foods (trans-Sierran acorn movement is known from later periods[11]) and commodities more visible in the archaeological record, such as shell and lithic materials.

iii. Late Horizon: AD 500–1769

The trends toward specialization, exchange and spatial circumscription that characterized prior periods continued in the Late Horizon. Population continued to increase and group territories continued to become smaller and more defined. The Delta region of the Central Valley reached population density figures higher than almost any other area of North America.[12] Patterns in the activities, social relationships, belief systems and material

[10] Moratto, M.J., 2004. *California Archaeology*. Orlando, FL: Coyote Press, Salinas, CA.

[11] D'Azevedo, W.L., 1985. Washoe. In W. L. d'Azevedo, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 11, *Great Basin Indians*:466–498. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[12] Chartkoff, J.L. and K.K. Chartkoff, 1984. *The Archaeology of California*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

culture continued to develop during this period and took forms similar to those described by the first Europeans that entered the area.

The predominant generalized subsistence pattern during this period is called the Augustine Pattern.[13] Archaeological sites representing the Augustine Pattern show a high degree of technological specialization. Artifacts in this period include artifacts of composite materials; developed reductive technologies such as stone and shell work; and highly specialized adaptive technologies, including basketwork and ceramic production. Other notable elements of the material culture assemblage include flanged tubular smoking pipes; harpoons; ceramic figurines and vessels (Cosumnes Brownware); clamshell disk beads; and small projectile point types, such as the Gunther Barbed series. These small projectile points may indicate the use of the bow and arrow. Complex social and economic institutions also are represented by differential access to wealth as indicated by the amount and diversity of mortuary goods found in particular burials, the implementation of a shell money system, and the maintenance of extensive exchange networks.

b. Southern Cascades

Baumhoff[14] provided one of the first temporal-cultural reconstructions for the southern Cascade Range foothill regions, Kingsley Cave and Payne Cave. He postulated a two-phase chronology, with the earlier prehistoric phase termed the Kingsley Complex, followed by the Mill Creek Complex. The major distinction between these two complexes was the difference in projectile-point styles. The Kingsley Complex was characterized by large, basalt, side-notched and corner-notched projectile points, while points characteristic of

[13] Fredrickson, D.A., 1973. *Early Cultures of the North Coast Ranges, California*. Ph.D. dissertation. Davis, CA: Department of Anthropology, University of California, Davis.

[14] Baumhoff, M.A., 1957. *An Introduction to Yana Archaeology*. University of California Archaeological Survey Report 40:1–61.

the Mill Creek Complex included Desert Side-Notch points with expanding stems, small serrated points and points similar to the Gunther Barbed series.[15]

Baumhoff[16] interpreted the Kingsley Complex as part of one of the early Hokan-speaking groups that are thought to have occupied all of California once. As with other Hokan-speaking groups, Baumhoff stated that Kingsley Complex groups were pushed into marginal areas along the edge of the Sacramento Valley by Penutian-speaking peoples some 3,500 to 4,000 years ago. Because major material differences between the two complexes were lacking, he suggested that the occupants of the southern Cascade Range remained relatively isolated from outside influences.

Since the late 1960s, investigations within the southern Cascade and northern Sierra region have resulted in the expansion and refinement of Baumhoff's interpretations. Based on the analysis of materials recovered from eight sites, researchers from California State University, Sacramento,[17] have postulated a five-phase chronological sequence that spans the last 4,000 years. Johnson's phases,[18] which incorporate Baumhoff's, from earliest to latest are Deadman, Kingsley, Dye Creek, Mill Creek and Ethnographic.

The Deadman Complex (3450–2450 before present [BP]) is characterized by large side-notched, leaf-shaped and stemmed projectile points made

[15] West, G.J. and P. Welch, 2000. Cultural Resource Inventory and Evaluation for the Battle Creek Salmon and Steelhead Restoration Project, Shasta and Tehama Counties, California. Prepared for Bureau of Reclamation—Mid-Pacific Region, Sacramento, CA.

[16] Baumhoff, M.A., 1957. *An Introduction to Yana Archaeology*. University of California Archaeological Survey Report 40:1–61.

[17] Johnson, J.J, no date. Archaeological Investigations in Northeastern California (1939–1979). Master's thesis. Sacramento, CA: California State University, Sacramento.

[18] Johnson, J.J, no date. Archaeological Investigations in Northeastern California (1939–1979). Master's thesis. Sacramento, CA: California State University, Sacramento.

principally of basalt; a preference for basalt for other chipped stone tools; and the presence of manos and metates. The Kingsley Complex (2450–1450 BP) is generally represented by large stemmed and corner-notched projectile points made primarily out of basalt, scoop *Olivella* shell beads and spatulate bone tools. Hopper mortars, flat-ended pestles and the continued presence of manos and metates characterize the groundstone plant-processing tools of this phase.

The Dye Creek Complex (1450–450 BP) is characterized by rectangular and barrel-shaped *Olivella* shell beads, large circular *Haliotis* ornaments, perforated freshwater clamshell ornaments and deer ulna artifacts. The groundstone assemblage is similar to that of the Kingsley Complex. Projectile points included large serrated points of obsidian and basalt, Gunther Barbed variants and specimens similar in shape to Columbia Plateau corner-notched styles.

The Mill Creek Complex (450–100 BP) is characterized by the presence of medium-sized clamshell disc beads; whole, spire-lopped *Olivella* shell beads; *Glycymeris* shell beads; magnesite cylinders; twined basketry; hopper mortars; flat-ended pestles; manos; and metates. Projectile point types are Desert Side-Notched points, southern Cascade serrated points and small triangular points of obsidian and occasionally silicates.

The Ethnographic Complex (1845–1911 AD) consists of a large majority of the aboriginal items of the prehistoric Mill Creek Complex and miscellaneous artifacts of Euro-American manufacture. Pitted boulder petroglyphs, which first may have appeared during the Mill Creek Complex, are frequently found in association with ethnographic Yana and Konkow village sites.

c. Northern Sierra Nevada

The cultural chronology developed for the northern Sierra Nevada was first established by Elsasser.[19] Two basic complexes were identified, the Martis Complex and the Kings Beach Complex. The earlier Martis Complex was identified by the use of basalt to manufacture flaked-stone tools, little use of obsidian and chert, the manufacture of large spear points, millingstone and mortar and pestle technology, and subsistence based on large game and seeds. The later Kings Beach Complex attributes consisted of the use of obsidian and chert for flaked-stone tools; emphasis on bedrock mortars for processing acorns and other plant resources; small arrow points; and greater reliance on fishing and acorn, pinyon and seed collecting with less emphasis on hunting.[20]

Later work completed in the area resulted in a refinement of the Martis-Kings Beach Complexes has grown to encompass a larger area that includes not only the northern Sierra Nevada, but also adjacent areas.[21]

The Washoe Lake Phase (before 10,000 BP) is the earliest known evidence of human occupation of the region and is represented by fluted points. Presumably, groups during this phase were highly mobile. The Tahoe Reach Phase (10,000–8000 BP) is characterized by large stemmed points used to hunt

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[19] Elsasser, A. B., 1960. The Archaeology of the Sierra Nevada in California and Nevada. Berkeley, CA: University of California Archaeological Survey Report 51:1–93.

Heizer, R.F. and A.B. Elsasser, 1953. Some Archaeological Sites and Cultures of the Central Sierra Nevada. Berkeley, CA: University of California Archaeological Survey Report 12:1–42.

[20] Jackson, R.J., T.L. Jackson, C. Miksicek, K. Roper, and D. Simons, 1994. *Framework for Archaeological Research and Management on the National Forests of the North-Central Sierra Nevada*. Unit 1, Volume B. BioSystems Analysis, Inc. Submitted to the U.S. Forest Service, Eldorado National Forest.

[21] Elston, R.G., 1979. The Archaeology of U.S. 395 Right-of-Way Corridor Between Stead, Nevada and Hallelujah Junction, California. Report submitted to the California Department of Transportation and the Nevada Department of Transportation. On file, special collections, at Getchell Library; University of Nevada, Reno.

a variety of mammals. The occasional use of ground stone artifacts indicates that while plant resources were used, they were not a major focus of effort. Little is known about the subsequent Spooner Phase (8000–5000 BP) because temporally diagnostic artifacts are lacking. The Early (5000–3000 BP) and Late (3000–1300 BP) Martis Phases are both highly visible in the archaeological record, implying a significant increase in human population in the region. The differences between the Early and Late Martis Phases are changes in diagnostic projectile point styles while grinding artifacts, house pit features and storage features are present throughout these phases. The Early Kings Beach Phase marks the introduction of the bow and arrow to the region and specialization in flaked-stone tool production. The Late Kings Beach Phase is represented by a decrease in archaeological sites and features, possibly indicating a change in settlement patterns.

2. Ethnographic Context

Butte County includes the territories of four Native American groups, the Maidu (mountain Maidu), the Nisenan (southern Maidu), the Konkow (northwestern Maidu) and the Yana. While ethnographers historically demarcated contact-period tribal boundaries in varying ways, territorial limits drawn by early ethnographers are essentially the same in the Butte County area. The Maidu, located at the approximate boundary between the northern Sierra Nevada and southern Cascade Range, inhabited the mountain valleys from Honey Lake to Lassen Peak, generally at altitudes higher than 4,000 feet. The Nisenan occupied lands south of the Maidu, from the banks of the Sacramento River across the lower Feather River drainages to the crest of the Sierra. The Konkow inhabited the Feather River area west of Richbar and extending to the southwest almost to the Sutter Buttes, and the Sacramento River area from about Butte City on the south to Butte Meadows on the north. The Yana occupied an area of diverse habitat from the edge of the Sacramento Valley east to the crest of the Cascades and northern Sierra.[22]

[22] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians.* Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

a. Maidu

The Maidu, located at the approximate boundary between the northern Sierra Nevada and southern Cascade Range, inhabited the mountain valleys from Honey Lake to Lassen Peak. Their territory was generally above 4,000 feet in elevation. They were bordered on the east by the Northern Paiute, on the south by the Nisenan, on the west by the Yana and Konkow, and on the north by the Atsugewi. The Maidu language is a branch of the Maiduan language family (consisting of Maidu, Konkow and Nisenan), derived from the Penutian stock. Groups of the Penutian stock occupied most of the Central Valley, Bay Area and northern Sierra Nevada.[23]

Maidu society was focused at the village level, with a village generally containing about seven households.[24] Village communities, consisting of several adjacent villages, usually occupied a single valley. Where winter weather allowed it, permanent villages were established. In other areas, villages were occupied on a seasonal basis. An individual's connection was to the village community, and group differentiation was determined more by geographical location rather than any other factor. Community boundaries were guarded and defended. Warfare could take place between individual

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Levy, R., 1978. *The Linguistic Prehistory of Central California: A Processual View*. Tucson, AZ: Paper presented at the annual meeting for the Society for American Archaeology.

[23] Shipley, W.F., 1978. Native Languages of California. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians.* Vol. 8, *California*:80–90. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Smithsonian Institution, Washington D.C.

Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[24] Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

villages or between village communities and generally consisted of raiding or ambushes.[25]

One village served as a focal point for community activities and ceremonies, but no strict political control was exercised by the community headman, who was chosen for his maturity, wealth, ability and generosity.[26] Located within the headman's village would be a large assembly chamber, or dance house. The earth-covered, semi-subterranean structure, about 4 feet deep and 20–40 feet in diameter, was built to accommodate members of the community for ceremonial and subsistence activities.[27]

Each village was self-sufficient and obtained sustenance by exercising a seasonal hunter-gatherer strategy. Group hunts might be organized for bear or deer, although individuals also hunted these animals. Tobacco (*Nicotiana* sp.) was the only cultivated plant. A wide range of plant and animal resources was exploited to provide for the needs of the village. Plant food sources included acorns, seeds, roots, berries and bulbs; the acorn was the most important of these foods. Additional food sources included large and small game, fish, eel and various insects. Other resources included materials for manufacturing tools and weaving basketry. Generally, all land was

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[25] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[26] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

[27] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

communally owned and accessible to all members of the community for gathering and hunting purposes. In certain instances, however, a family might claim a private fishing hole, and anyone wishing access would need to acquire the family's permission. Deer fences also might be held under private ownership. Private property of this sort was inheritable through the direct male line.[28]

External contact was generally hostile, although the Maidu did engage in some trade with their immediate neighbors for goods they could not obtain within their own territory. They received arrows, bows, deer hides and certain foods from the Konkow in return for pine nuts and salmon. They traded with the Achumawi to the north for beads, obsidian and green pigment for dye. Currency was in the form of circular, disk-shaped shell beads.[29]

b. Nisenan

The project area is located within the lands occupied and used by the Nisenan, or southern Maidu. The language of the Nisenan, which includes several dialects, is classified within the Maiduan family of the Penutian linguistic stock.[30] The western boundary of Nisenan territory was the

[28] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[29] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[30] Kroeber, A.L., 1925. *Handbook of the Indians of California*. (Bulletin No. 78.) Washington, DC: Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution. Reprinted in 1976. New York: Dover Publications.

western bank of the Sacramento River. The eastern boundary was "the line in the Sierra Nevada mountains where the snow lay on the ground all winter".[31]

Nisenan settlement locations depended primarily on elevation, exposure and proximity to water and other resources. Permanent villages usually were located on low rises along major watercourses. Village size ranged from three houses to 40 or 50. Houses were domed structures covered with earth and tule or grass and measured 3–4.5 meters in diameter. Brush shelters were used in the summer and at temporary camps during food-gathering rounds. Larger villages often had semi-subterranean dance houses that were covered in earth and tule or brush and had a central smokehole at the top and an east-facing entrance. Another common village structure was a granary, which was used for storing acorns.[32] A Nisenan village, *Holloh*, was located at the confluence of the Feather and Bear Rivers.[33]

The Nisenan occupied permanent settlements from which specific task groups set out to harvest the seasonal bounty of flora and fauna that the rich valley environment provided. The Valley Nisenan economy involved riparian resources, in contrast to the Hill Nisenan, whose resource base consisted primarily of acorn and game procurement. The only domestic plant was native tobacco, but many wild species were closely husbanded. The acorn crop from the blue oak (*Quercus douglasii*) and black oak (*Q. kelloggii*)

Shipley, W.F., 1978. Native Languages of California. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians.* Vol. 8, *California*:80–90. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Smithsonian Institution, Washington D.C.

[31] Littlejohn, H.W., 1928. *Nisenan Geography*. Manuscript at University of California Archives, Department of Anthropology, Document 18. Berkeley, CA.

[32] Wilson, N.L. and A.H. Towne, 1978. Nisenan. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:387–397. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[33] Wilson, N.L. and A.H. Towne, 1978. Nisenan. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:387–397. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

was so carefully managed that its management served as the equivalent of agriculture. Acorns could be stored in anticipation of winter shortfalls in resource abundance. Deer, rabbit and salmon were the chief sources of animal protein in the aboriginal diet, but many other insect and animal species were taken when available.

Religion played an important role in Nisenan life. The Nisenan believed that all natural objects were endowed with supernatural powers. Two kinds of shamans existed: curing shamans and religious shamans. Curing shamans had limited contact with the spirit world and diagnosed and healed illnesses. Religious shamans gained control over the spirits through dreams and esoteric experiences.[34] The usual mode of burial was cremation.[35]

c. Konkow

The project area was once inhabited by the Konkow, also known as northwestern Maidu, a linguistic division of Maidu that also includes northeastern Maidu and Nisenan (also known as southern Maidu). The Maidu inhabited the area of California extending from Lassen Peak to the Cosumnes River and from the Sacramento River to Honey Lake. The division of these three groups is based on linguistic and environmental differences. The language of each group has been classified as a separate language within the Maiduan family, Penutian stock.[36] Within each language, several dialects existed.

The Konkow inhabited the Feather River area west of Richbar and extending to the southwest almost to the Sutter Buttes, and from the Sacramento River

[34] Wilson, N.L. and A.H. Towne, 1978. Nisenan. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:387–397. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[35] Faye, P., 1923. *Notes on the Southern Maidu*. University of California Publications in American Archaeology and Ethnology 20:35–53.

[36] Shipley, W.F., 1978. Native Languages of California. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *The Handbook of North American Indians.* Vol. 8, *California*:80–90. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Smithsonian Institution, Washington D.C.

near Butte City in the south to Butte Meadows in the north. The Konkow were bordered on the south and east by the Nisenan, on the west by the Nomlaki, and on the north by the Yana and northeastern Maidu.[37]

The basic subsistence strategy of the Konkow was seasonally mobile hunting and gathering. Acorns, the primary staple, were gathered in the valley, along with seeds, buckeye, salmon, insects and a wide variety of other plants and animals. During the warmer months, people moved to mountainous areas to hunt and collect food resources particular to higher elevations, such as pine nuts.[38]

Politically, the Konkow were organized by tribelet. Each tribelet was composed of several villages. When needed, for group decisions or groups activities, the headman of one of the villages in a tribelet was selected to be the leader of the villages composing the tribelet. Headmen were not powerful but acted as advisors and were chosen through the auspices of a shaman for qualities such as wealth, maturity, ability and generosity.[39]

Although the first contacts with Euro-Americans occurred in 1808, it was not until between 1828 and 1836 that exposure to whites became intensive. This increased contact was a result of fur trapping in the region by Hudson's Bay Company. In 1833, an epidemic, possibly malaria, killed up to 75% of the Konkow population. The establishment of Sutter's Fort in Nisenan territory in 1839 became the focal point of settlers' and miners' incursions (especially after the 1848 gold discovery) into Konkow lands. The population reduction

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[37] Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[38] Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[39] Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

from the epidemic left the Konkow unable to resist the overwhelming flood of miners and settlers. Many of the few survivors became wage laborers on mines and ranches, their language and culture greatly diminished.[40]

d. Yana

At the time of contact, the Yana, a Hokan-language-speaking group, occupied the northern boundary of the study area. The Yana inhabited the upper Sacramento River valley and foothills east of the Sacramento River and south of the Pit River and north of Pine and Rock Creeks (primarily along the Deer Creek drainage), and the crest of the southern Cascades passing through Lassen Peak formed the eastern boundary. Their numbers probably never exceeded 2,000 individuals.[41] Much of what is known about Yana culture was provided by Ishi, a Yahi Yana, who was brought to the University of California in 1911 after his family group died and he was left alone to survive.

Yana territory was divided among numerous tribelets, each consisting of a major village with a principal chief and assembly house and several allied villages. The chief's position was hereditary, but the chief's authority was limited to making suggestions, without the power of control or command. The chief's status within the community obtained certain favors, however. For instance, the chief did not have to hunt and was provided with other presents, as well.[42] The southern Yana and Yahi lived in single-family dwellings, which consisted of a shallow, oval depression 10 to 12 feet in

[40] Riddell, F.A., 1978. Maidu and Konkow. In R. F. Heizer, volume ed., Handbook of North American Indians. Vol. 8, California:370–386. Washington DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[41] West, G.J. and P. Welch, 2000. Cultural Resource Inventory and Evaluation for the Battle Creek Salmon and Steelhead Restoration Project, Shasta and Tehama Counties, California. Prepared for Bureau of Reclamation—Mid-Pacific Region, Sacramento, CA.

[42] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians.* Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

diameter. The exterior structure was conical in shape and consisted of a covering of slabs of bark supported by a framework of poles.[43]

Yana subsistence procurement consisted of the gathering of a wide variety of resources. They consumed a variety of plant foods, including acorns, berries, seeds, roots, tubers and bulbs. The acorn, harvested in September and October, was the most important of all resources. Of the various game animals hunted, deer were the most important. Deer usually were hunted by individual hunters, as were rabbits and quail. In addition to these animals, rodents and some insects were a part of the Yana diet, as were fish such as salmon, trout and suckers.[44]

Relations between the Yana and their neighbors were seldom cordial. The Maidu considered them their enemies, as did the Wintu and Achumawi. Despite the enmity, however, some trade did take place between the Yana and their adjacent neighbors. Goods acquired by the Yana included obsidian, arrows, quivers, buckskin, woodpecker scalps, clamshell disk beads, magnesite cylinders, dentalium shells and arrow points. In trade, the Yana supplied fire drills, deer hides, dentalia, salt, buckskin and baskets.[45]

The Yana suffered severely during the period of Anglo-American contact. In 1844, Mexican land grants to Peter Lassen and Job F. Dye were established along the eastern side of the valley and extended into the foothills occupied by the southern and Yahi Yana. Daniel Sill settled on part of the Lassen grant

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[43] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[44] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[45] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

in 1846.[46] The first major hostility took place when Capt. John Fremont attacked a peaceful gathering of Native Americans on Bloody Island (at the mouth of Battle Creek) in the Sacramento River. The village supposedly belonged to the Yana.[47] This initial conflict marked the beginning of the end for the Yana. Johnson estimates that in approximately 20 years, their numbers were reduced from 1,900 individuals to fewer than 100. Today, while a few individuals claim Yana ancestry, there are no federally recognized Yana tribes.

3. Historic Context

a. Butte County

Butte County is situated on the east side of the Sacramento Valley and is bounded by the Sacramento River to the west and the Sierra Nevada to the east.[48] Butte was one of the original 27 counties created when California became a state in 1850. The County initially included all the lands of Plumas County, as well as large portions of Lassen and Tehama Counties. The present county limits, established in 1923, abut Glenn and Colusa Counties to the west, Tehama County to the north and northwest, Plumas County to the east, Sutter County to the south, and Yuba County to the southeast.[49] The original county seat was located in Hamilton, a former mining town. In

[46] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[47] Johnson, J.J., 1978. Yana. In R. F. Heizer, ed., *Handbook of North American Indians*. Vol. 8, *California*:361–369. (W. C. Sturtevant, general ed.) Washington, DC: Smithsonian Institution.

[48] Phillips, E. and J.H. Miller, 1915. Sacramento Valley and Foothill Counties of California: An Illustrated Description of All the Counties Embraced in this Richly Productive Geographical Subdivision of the Golden State. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Valley Expositions Commission.

[49] Coy, O.C., 1923. *California County Boundaries.* California Historical Survey Commission, Berkeley, CA.

1853, the seat moved to Bidwell's Bar (another mining camp and now under Lake Oroville); in 1856, it moved again to the current location of Oroville.[50]

Butte County is basically a rural county, with Biggs, Chico, Gridley, Durham, Paradise and Oroville representing (roughly) six of the largest communities. The lack of any real major mineral deposits, such as coal or iron, as well as the county's distance from major commercial centers, has contributed to the overall rural development of the county. Residents historically have relied on agriculture, lumber and some mining to subsist.

b. Early Exploration

Spaniards explored parts of Butte County as early as 1808. Gabriel Moraga guided an expedition up north, along the Calaveras, Mokelumne, Cosumnes, American and Sacramento Rivers, in search of potential inland mission sites. In 1820, a party led by Luis Arguello passed through the region as far north as the Columbia River.[51]

During the early 1800s, hunters and trappers, such as Jedediah Strong Smith and a group of Hudson's Bay Company trappers, explored the present-day Butte County. The hunters found the banks of the rivers and streams rich with beavers, otters and other animals whose pelts were highly valuable commodities in the worldwide trade of the time. The region remained outside the mainstream of both Mexican and American settlement until the California gold rush of 1848.[52]

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[50] Gudde, E.G., 1969. California Place Names: the Origin and Etymology of Current Geographical Names. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Coy, O.C., 1923. *California County Boundaries.* California Historical Survey Commission, Berkeley, CA.

[51] McGie, J.F., 1982a. *History of Butte County, Volume I: 1840–1919*. Oroville, CA: Butte County Board of Education.

[52] McGie, J.F., 1982a. *History of Butte County, Volume I: 1840–1919*. Oroville, CA: Butte County Board of Education.

c. Mining

The discovery of gold in 1848 brought an influx of gold seekers to the region. Thousands of miners descended upon the area and set up transitory encampments, such as Bidwell Bar, Long Bar and Hamilton, along the Feather River where some gold was discovered. During the next 70 years, gold mining in some form remained the primary economic activity in Butte County.

The Feather River was largely the site of placer mining in the mid-19th century, but as time wore on, mining techniques changed and evolved. More labor-intensive methods such as river mining, drift mining, hydraulic mining and dredging soon replaced simple placer mining. Quartz mining also occurred but to a lesser degree. The more labor-intensive mining techniques necessitated the building of dams, ditches and flumes that in turn required extensive labor. Mining and ditch companies soon established themselves in the area to oversee the construction of major mining activities, including the building of numerous ditch systems. Mining continued until the 1880s, when the number of miners throughout the county decreased largely as a result of the end of hydraulic mining. This, along with the collapse of the wheat industry, led to a general depression and decline in the county's overall population.[53]

During the early 20th century, dredge mining became popular in the Feather River near the City of Oroville and farther south. At the height of dredge mining, more than 40 dredges were operating in the river and bringing prosperity to Oroville. As a result, the Town enjoyed a population boom, increasing from 1,787 to 3,859 persons between 1890 and 1910. Mining activity gradually declined during the following decades as deposits began to

[53] Walker, M., M. Selverston, and M. Markwyn, 2005. Archaeological and Historical Resources Inventory Report, Oroville Facilities Relicensing, FERC Project 2100. Rohnert Park, CA: Anthropological Studies Center, Sonoma State University. Prepared for the Department of Water Resources, the Resources Agency, State of California.

be played out. Gold mining continued until 1942, when the War Production Board closed all mines in the region.[54]

d. Settlement

Prior to the gold rush of 1848, only a handful of ranches scattered on the Mexican land grants in the Sacramento Valley area comprised the few settlements in the region. During the 1850s and 1860s, much of Butte County was settled with small farms, where settlers raised wheat; vegetables; livestock; and cultivated orchards that included apples, peaches, pears, figs, citrus and olives. Wheat became the prevalent crop during this period and dominated the agriculture of the county for much of the remainder of the century until the state experienced an overall decline in the 1890s as a result of the wheat bust.[55]

By the early 20th century, Butte County served as a major fruit and nut-producing region. During this period, land holdings increased in number yet declined in overall acreage. While the number of farms increased from 1,179 to 2,603, the average farm decreased from 574.3 acres to 238 acres.[56]

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[54] Walker, M., M. Selverston, and M. Markwyn, 2005. Archaeological and Historical Resources Inventory Report, Oroville Facilities Relicensing, FERC Project 2100. Rohnert Park, CA: Anthropological Studies Center, Sonoma State University. Prepared for the Department of Water Resources, the Resources Agency, State of California.

[55] Walker, M., M. Selverston, and M. Markwyn, 2005. Archaeological and Historical Resources Inventory Report, Oroville Facilities Relicensing, FERC Project 2100. Rohnert Park, CA: Anthropological Studies Center, Sonoma State University. Prepared for the Department of Water Resources, the Resources Agency, State of California.

[56] Walker, M., M. Selverston, and M. Markwyn, 2005. Archaeological and Historical Resources Inventory Report, Oroville Facilities Relicensing, FERC Project 2100. Rohnert Park, CA: Anthropological Studies Center, Sonoma State University. Prepared for the Department of Water Resources, the Resources Agency, State of California.

i. Oroville

Oroville (originally Ophir) was built on flat land below the junction of the forks of the Feather River. It was originally established as a mining camp during the Gold Rush and gradually developed into a trading center for mining and then for lumbering and agricultural goods. In 1856, state officials designated Oroville as the county seat. As the local economy shifted from mining-based activities to agricultural-based activities, numerous canneries and processing plants opened in town. By the 1880s, Oroville was home to numerous establishments, including a grocery store, a dry-goods store, a drug store, a bank, a brewery and several saloons. Oroville continues to serve as a steady economic and social focal point into the present day.[57]

ii. Chico

The City of Chico is named after Rancho Chico, which John Bidwell, a prominent California politico, purchased from William Dickey and Edward A. Farwell, the original grantees, in the late 1840s. In 1860, Bidwell founded the town of Chico and later donated land for the Northern Branch State Normal School. The school became California State University, Chico and, as it was when it was founded, remains the center of the community. After Bidwell's death, his wife, Annie, donated 1,900 acres of the ranch to the City of Chico, which became Bidwell Park.[58]

iii. Paradise

The area surrounding City of Paradise was first settled during the Gold Rush by miners searching for gold along the Feather River and Butte Creek. It was not until 1877, when a post office with the name of Paradise was established where the present city is located, that the small agriculturally focused

[57] Walker, M., M. Selverston, and M. Markwyn, 2005. Archaeological and Historical Resources Inventory Report, Oroville Facilities Relicensing, FERC Project 2100. Rohnert Park, CA: Anthropological Studies Center, Sonoma State University. Prepared for the Department of Water Resources, the Resources Agency, State of California.

[58] Kyle, D.E., 1990. *Historic Spots in California*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

settlement began to have the features of a town. By 1880, the United States Census listed the small community as "Paradise Ridge." After the Butte County Railroad was completed in 1902, the town's population began to expand, and it became the center of the apple industry in Butte County.[59] Currently, the population is over 40,000.

iv. Gridley

The town of Gridley was established after the California and Oregon Railroad constructed an alignment through the area in 1870. The town was constructed on property owned by George W. Gridley, a prominent agriculturalist in Butte County.[60] It incorporated in 1905. The current population is 5,959.

v. Biggs

Like the town of Gridley, the town of Biggs was established when the California and Oregon Railroad constructed an alignment through the area in 1870. In that year, a post office and store were located in the town, and the town's namesake, Marion Biggs, shipped the first grain out. The town grew slowly but, by the 1880s, was the third biggest town in Butte County.[61] The current estimated population is 1,780.

e. Development

i. 19th Century

Throughout the latter part of the 19th century, Butte County enjoyed a steady growth in population, largely because of the establishment of lumber, mining (primarily gold and diamond), and hydroelectric power industries. The continued growth and success of agriculture and the introduction of fruit-canning operations in particular, contributed to the economic

[59] McDonald, Lois, 2000. *This Paradise We Call Home* Paradise: Gold Nugget Museum, 2000.

[60] Wells, Harry L. and W.L., 1882. Chambers, History of Butte County California San Francisco: Harry L. Wells.

[61] Wells, Harry L. and W.L., 1882. Chambers, History of Butte County California San Francisco: Harry L. Wells.

development of the region. Crops produced in the county included hay, citrus fruits, vegetables, nuts (primarily almonds), grapes, berries, apples, plums, pomegranates, figs, melons, cherries and olives.[62]

A major employer in the area was the Diamond Match Company, which opened a plant in Chico in 1902 to make matches and other wood products. The company established a lumber mill east of Magalia, in the mountains, and constructed the Butte County Railroad in 1903 to transport lumber from the mill to Chico. Although established primarily to transport lumber, the passenger and freight service offered by the Butte County Railroad stimulated growth in the communities along the route.[63] The construction of the Northern Electric Railroad (later the Sacramento Northern Railroad) in 1905 and the Western Pacific Railroad (part of the transcontinental railroad system) in 1910 further stimulated the region's growth and development.

ii. 20th Century

Manufacturing and service industries continued to flourish during the early 20th century as Butte County struggled to meet the demands of World War I. The influx of people to the area also created pressure to construct new housing. Butte County's economy suffered through the Depression years with the rest of the nation, later to be rejuvenated by the onset of World War II. During those years, the county poured its energies into the war effort, and, once the conflict ended, Butte County citizens redirected their attention to the home front. Beginning in the late 1940s and into the 1950s, Butte County embarked on a long-postponed construction project that involved

[62] Phillips, E. and J.H. Miller, 1915. Sacramento Valley and Foothill Counties of California: An Illustrated Description of All the Counties Embraced in this Richly Productive Geographical Subdivision of the Golden State. Sacramento, CA: Sacramento Valley Expositions Commission.

[63] Mansfield, G., 1918. *History of Butte County*. Historic Record Company, Los Angeles, CA.

Robertson, D., 1998. *Encyclopedia of Western Railroad History*. Volume IV, *California*. Caldwell, IN: Caxton Publishing.

building churches, schools and housing, as well as improving the infrastructure for the growing population.[64]

By the 1950s, the economy throughout the county was booming with the continued success of the Diamond Match Company; the construction of the Oroville Dam (completed in 1968); and the thriving agriculture, canning, lumber and wood-processing enterprises. Other local industries included the manufacture of lead tube containers and prefabricated houses, structural steel fabrication, olive processing, sugar manufacturing, rice milling, walnut and almond processing and dairy processing. Agriculture continued to be the primary industry of the county in terms of production and growth. Major crops produced were almonds, olives, walnuts, citrus fruits and rice, as well as peaches, prunes, grain and hay. Overall, during the postwar period, Butte County experienced a 30% growth in business. The county's population grew from 42,840 in 1940 to 82,030 by 1960.[65]

f. Transportation

i. U.S. Highway 99

Historic U.S. Highway 99 traveled from the Mexican border north toward Sacramento, where it split into U.S. Highway 99W and U.S. Highway 99E. The two parts rejoined in Red Bluff and generally followed the current Interstate 5 (I-5) route north toward the Oregon/California border. It was originally a dirt and gravel road, but highway officials paved the alignment by the late 1920s when it became one of the first highways commissioned in the nation. U.S. Highway 99 functioned as the main artery along the West Coast until it was largely bypassed in the 1960s by the newly constructed I-5. Between the late 1960s and early 1970s, U.S. Highway 99 was decommissioned and relegated to secondary highway status.

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[64] McGie, J.F., 1982b. *History of Butte County, Volume II: 1920–1980*. Oroville, CA: Butte County Board of Education.

[65] McGie, J.F., 1982b. *History of Butte County, Volume II: 1920–1980*. Oroville, CA: Butte County Board of Education.

Although U.S. Highway 99 traveled through the Central Valley as early as 1926, for many years it skirted Chico by traveling up to, but not through, the city. By 1955, the State had relocated U.S. Highway 99E through Chico. This newer segment traveled southwest of the current route along the historic Esplanade. Despite public opposition, the state rerouted the highway again in the early 1960s, to alleviate traffic congestion. Chico residents hotly disputed the new highway because it bisected Bidwell Park and traveled through an established residential district. The new alignment (which travels through the project area) is supported by a 20-foot-high earth-filled dike and cuts through 8 acres of parkland.[66]

C. Existing Conditions

1. Known Cultural Resources

To prepare this report, Jones & Stokes requested a general countywide record search be conducted at the Northeast Information Center (NEIC) of the California Historical Resources Information System at California State University, Chico. Specifically, the NEIC keeps records of known archaeological and architectural sites and studies on U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) 7.5-minute topographic quadrangle maps. All of the USGS maps covering Butte County were consulted by NEIC staff. This information provided the basis for the basic archaeological-sensitivity assessment of Butte County, discussed later in this report. Additionally, NEIC consulted the following sources: Office of Historic Preservation (OHP) historic property listings, California State Archaeological Determinations of Eligibility, NEIC historic resources maps, California Inventory of Historic Resources, *California Place Names*,[67] *California Gold Camps*,[68] Caltrans Historic Bridge

[66] California Department of Transportation 1918, 1936, 1963; San Francisco Examiner 1962; Sheridan 1955.

[67] Gudde, E.G., 1969. California Place Names: the Origin and Etymology of Current Geographical Names. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

[68] Gudde, E.G., 1969. California Place Names: the Origin and Etymology of Current Geographical Names. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Inventory, California Historical Landmarks (1996), California Points of Historical Interest (1992) and *Historic Spots in California.*[69]

a. Archaeological Resources

Of the 2,982 archaeological sites recorded in Butte County, 1,519 sites are either prehistoric archaeological resources or include a prehistoric archaeological component. There are 1,552 sites that are historic period sites or contain a historical archaeological component. According to the California Office of Historic Preservation, a total of 129 archaeological sites are listed on or have been formally recommended eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (and therefore by default on the California Register of Historical Resources). Of these, 98 are prehistoric archaeological sites, 25 are historic period archaeological sites, and six are archaeological sites that contain both prehistoric and historic period components.

i. Prehistoric Archaeological Resources

Previous studies in the general region provide reasonable expectations for the range of archaeological property types likely to occur in Butte County. Prehistoric site types include habitation sites, limited occupation sites, hunting/processing camps, lithic reduction stations, milling stations, quarries/single reduction locations, rock-art sites, bedrock milling features and burial locations. Sites may fall into more than one category. For example, habitation sites may be associated with rock art. Therefore, sites may be classified as more than one site type.

Habitation sites are locations of long-term occupation. These sites were typically located near streams and springs, which are abundant in Butte County. Habitation sites are characterized by midden deposits and a variety of artifacts (flaked-stone debitage, bifaces, unifaces, other flaked-stone tools, ground-stone implements and fire-affected rock).

[69] Kyle, D.E., 1990. *Historic Spots in California*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Temporary camps are distinguished from habitation sites by the absence or limited development of midden deposits. Archaeological deposits at temporary camps are typically shallow or restricted to the surface and are limited principally to ground-stone tools, flaked-stone tools and debitage (in approximate descending order of frequency).

Lithic scatters are collections of flaked- or ground-stone debris, including tools and debitage that relate to post-quarry reduction and tool manufacturing efforts. They are perceived primarily as daily or overnight task-oriented camps where a limited range of activities was conducted

The most common prehistoric site type found in the Butte County area is temporary occupation sites. Other site types found in the area include hunting/processing camps, lithic scatters, milling stations sites, habitation sits, quarry/single reduction loci and rock art sites.

The overall prehistoric archaeological sensitivity of Butte County is generally considered high, particularly in those areas near water sources or on terraces along watercourses. In particular, the Sacramento River and Feather River watersheds among the Sierra foothills possess river terraces that are rich in archaeological resources. In the Oroville area where the forks of the Feather River converge, the archaeological site density is some of the highest in California; at least 500 sites have been recorded in this area between 2005 and 2006 alone and reported to the NEIC. In general, the lands on the margins of the Sacramento River and other major waterways are sensitive for prehistoric archaeological resources. Prehistoric archaeological sites often are located along riverbanks in the Sacramento Valley, although they usually are found on natural rises that protected the inhabitants from frequent floods. Sites along the Sacramento River and other major drainages in Butte County do exist, and the possibility remains that additional prehistoric deposits may be buried in similar locations, in natural buried contexts (such as under alluvial deposits) as well as cultural buried contexts (such as below constructed levees or mixed in as a portion of levee fill material).

ii. Historic-Period Archaeological Resources

Historic site types include old transportation corridors and alignments, remnants of activities associated with historic homesteading, ranching and agriculture, mining and commerce. The overall historic archaeological sensitivity of Butte County area is generally considered moderately high in those areas where historic records indicate transportation routes, agricultural settlements and mining occurred.

b. Built Environment

Historic cultural resources generally include buildings, roads, trails, bridges, canals and railroads usually associated with the time period beginning with the first EuroAmerican contact. Because settlement of Butte County dates to the 1840s, the county is rich in historic cultural resources. In general, concentrations of historic resources in the county are expected to occur adjacent to transportation corridors (historic highways, railroads, navigable waterways); on historic ranches; in areas of historic rock, soil, mineral and timber extraction; and within historic neighborhoods and business districts.

i. Historic Properties in State Database

The Historic Property Data File Historic Resources Inventory (HRI), which is maintained by the State Office of Historic Preservation, identifies properties that have been recorded and whether those properties are considered eligible or ineligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places. The listing for Butte County indicates that 846 properties within the county have been inventoried at some level. This includes several hundred properties that are listed or appear to meet the criteria for listing in the National Register. In general, listing a property in the NRHP involves submission of a formal nomination form that requires concurrence from SHPO, the State Historical Resources Commission and the Keeper of the National Register. Properties that are evaluated and found, with SHPO concurrence, to be eligible for listing under one or more of the NRHP criteria but are never nominated, are afforded the same protections for federally funded projects as listed properties. As noted previously, properties listed or found eligible for listing are also automatically eligible for the

California Register of Historical Resources. The HRI also includes buildings that have been identified as historically significant by local government agencies. The numbers and types of properties in Butte County are discussed briefly below.

a) Oroville Area

Surveys have identified 184 buildings and structures in the Oroville area that meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. Among these are buildings that comprise the Berkeley Olive Association Historic District, located in the vicinity of Coal Canyon Road and Rocky Lane, that was listed in the National Register in 2000. Individually eligible buildings in and around Oroville include the Oroville Chinese Temple (1500 Broderick Street); the State Theatre (1489 Myers Street); the Old Oroville Commercial District Building (Montgomery Street); and the Governor Perkins Building (1864 Montgomery Street).

b) Chico Area

Chico includes some of the most important cultural resources in the entire county. Surveys have identified 511 buildings and structures in the Chico area that have been surveyed, evaluated and found to meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. Of these, 124 structures and buildings are listed or determined eligible for listing in the NRHP or CRHR. Among these are buildings that make up the South of Campus Neighborhood Historic District. Located in the vicinity of Cherry Street and 2nd through 6th Streets, this historic district was listed in the National Register in 1991. Individually eligible buildings in and around Chico include the Southern Pacific Depot (5th Street); the Chester Cole Residence (334 Normal Avenue); the Bidwell Mansion (Sowillenno Avenue) and the Patrick Rancheria (SR99).

c) Paradise Area

The HRI contains 23 buildings and structures in and around Paradise that have been surveyed, evaluated and found to meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. Among these, the Honey Run

Covered Bridge and the Centerville Schoolhouse have been nominated and are listed in the National Register.

d) Gridley Area

The town of Gridley includes 42 properties that have been surveyed, evaluated and found to meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. The Hazel Hotel (850 Hazel Street) was listed in the National Register in 2001.

e) Biggs Area

Ten buildings and structures in the vicinity of Biggs have been surveyed, evaluated and found to meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. None have been formally nominated and listed in the National Register.

f) Other Areas

In areas located in Butte County other than those listed above, 76 buildings and structures have been surveyed, evaluated and found to meet the criteria for listing in the NRHP, the CRHR, or have local designation. Of these, eight have been formally nominated and listed in the NRHP, including the W.W. Durham House in Durham, the Magalia Dam and the Magalia Community Church in Magalia, The Honcut Creek Bridge in Palermo, Big Bear Mountain Lookout and Brush Creek Standard Office in Plumas National Forest, Bridge #12-38 on SR70 in Pulga and the Inskip Hotel near Stirling City.

ii. California State Historical Landmarks

The State of California officially began commemorating sites important to the history of the state in 1932. Originally, the California Historical Landmarks emphasized well-known places and events including the missions, early settlements and the Gold Rush. Over the years, the program has been refined to include only those sites that are of statewide historical importance and must be the first, last, only or most significant of a type in a large geographical area.

The following lists the nine resources in Butte County that the state has designated as California Historical Landmarks:

- Hooker Oak (Landmark No. 313), Bidwell Park, Chico
- Old Suspension Bridge (Landmark No. 314), Lake Oroville State Recreation Area, Oroville
- Rancho Chico and Bidwell Adobe (Landmark No. 329), Bidwell Mansion State Historic Park, Chico
- Bidwell's Bar (Landmark No. 330), Lake Oroville State Recreation Area, Oroville
- Chinese Temple (Landmark No. 770), town of Magalia
- Dogtown Nugget Discovery Site (Landmark No. 771), Town of Magalia
- Oregon City (Landmark No. 807), Diggins Drive between cities of Oroville and Cherokee
- Discovery Site of the Last Yahi Indian (Landmark No. 809), City of Oroville
- Chico Forestry Station and Nursery (Landmark No. 840-2), Bidwell Park, Chico

iii. California Points of Historical Interest

California Points of Historical Interest are sites, buildings, features, or events that are of local (city or county) significance and have anthropological, cultural, military, political, architectural, economic, scientific or technical, religious, experimental, or other value. No historical resource may be designated as both a Landmark and a Point of Historical Interest. If a Point of Historical Interest is subsequently granted status as a Landmark, the Point designation will be retired. To be eligible for designation as a Point of Historical Interest, a resource must meet at least one of the following criteria: the first, last, only, or most significant of its type in the State or within the local geographic region (city or county); association with an individual or group having a profound influence on the history of the local area; a

prototype of, or an outstanding example of, a period, style, architectural movement or construction; or is one of the more notable works or the best surviving work in the local region of a pioneer architect, designer or master builder.

There are 20 California Points of Historical Interest in Butte County. They are:

- Lott Museum, Oroville
- Honey Run Covered Bridge, near Paradise
- Manzanita School, east of Gridley
- Chico flour Mill, Chico
- Garrott's Saw Mill, Oroville
- California-Oregon Railroad Depot, Gridley
- Centerville Schoolhouse, northeast of Chico
- Old Chinese Cemetery, vicinity of Oroville
- Townsite of Cherokee and Spring Valley Mine, near Oroville
- Little Chapman Mansion, Chico
- Butte County Railroad Depot, Paradise
- Long's Bar, near Oroville
- Oroville Cemetery, vicinity of Oroville
- Chinese Cemetery, vicinity of Oroville,
- Jewish Cemetery, vicinity of Oroville
- Site of 14-Mile House, Toll Station and Wayside Inn, Vicinity of Chico
- Richardson Springs Resort, northeast of Chico
- Odd Fellows Home (Bella Vista Hotel) Site, vicinity of Thermalito
- The Fagan House, east of Gridley
- Bethel African Methodist Episcopal Church, Chico