3.12 Cultural Resources

3.12.1 Environmental and Cultural Setting and Land Uses

The Hemet to Corona/Lake Elsinore Corridor (HCLE Corridor) is a generally east to west trending corridor between the towns Corona or Lake Elsinore to the west, and the town of Hemet, on the east. The HCLE alternatives traverse the highlands of El Sobrante de San Jacinto, then descend into San Jacinto Valley and Domenigoni Valley. The HCLE corridor alternatives cross several other valley areas; specifically, Eagle, Temescal, Mead, Warm Springs, Perris, San Jacinto, Domenigoni, and Menifee. Other narrow canyons include Walker, Cajalco, Arroyo del Toro, Mockingbird, Cottonwood, and Railroad Canyon. Within the corridor area, the foothills are as high as 760 m (2,500 ft) in elevation. Foothills include areas surrounding Arlington Mountain, Gavilan Peak, Steele Peak, Lakeview Mountains, and Bernasconi Hills.

There are 17 habitat types crossed by the proposed HCLE. Eleven of these are "natural" environments that would have been more widespread prehistorically, and contain the biological resources utilized by Native American inhabitants of the region prior to European contact. The remaining six habitat types have developed as a result of European settlement and urbanization of the landscape. A discussion of the biological setting of the HCLE study area is provided in the Section 3.11 of this EIS/EIR.

3.12.1.1 Cultural Setting

Prehistory. The chronology of the region applies to large expanses of the Mojave and Colorado deserts and southern' Great Basin. Listed earliest to latest, the periods include Lake Mojave, Pinto, Gypsum, Saratoga Springs, and Protohistoric (Table 3.12.A). The Lake Mojave period, from 10,000–5,000 B.C., is characterized by sites located on the margins of lakes and streams. Characteristic artifact assemblages include large numbers of leaf-shaped bifaces and projectile points, as well as stemmed projectile points, especially Lake Mojave and Silver Lake types. Other Lake Mojave period implements include domed unifacial scraping tools that were apparently used for processing animal products, as indicated by use-wear analysis. Another Lake Mojave period flaked stone artifact is the crescentic or eccentric biface of unknown function. Manos and milling stones rarely occur.

Table 3.12.A – Characteristics of the Prehistoric Periods of Riverside County

Period (Mojave Desert Periods in Parentheses)	Chronological Range	Diagnostic Artifacts/Features
Late Prehistoric (Protohistoric)	A.D. 500	Ceramics, Cottonwood Triangular and Desert Side-notched projectile points, cremations
Intermediate (Saratoga Springs and Gypsum)	3000 B.C.-A.D. 500	Mortars, metates
Millingstone (Pinto)	5500-3000 B.C.	Cogstones, Discoidals

Period (Mojave Desert Periods in Parentheses)	Chronological Range	Diagnostic Artifacts/Features
Early (Lake Mojave)	10,000-5000 B.C.	Large, often fluted points, such as Clovis and Folsom types

Lake Mojave period sites in Riverside County also contain cutting and piercing tools and rarely contain milling equipment. This has been taken to suggest a reliance on hunting, and although faunal remains are lacking from most sites, remains include hares, rabbits, and other small mammals, with fewer hoofed mammals, and occasionally numerous tortoise bones. In much of California, a Western Pluvial Lakes Tradition (WPLT) has been proposed for the earliest periods. In general, the WPLT toolkit commonly includes crescentics, large flake and core scrapers, choppers, scraper planes, hammerstones, different core types, drills, gravers and diverse flakes. A primary characteristic of WPLT sites is their location on the shores of pluvial lakes. The WPLT is believed to have manifestations at sites on the shores of pluvial lakes from northern central California to southern California. The Lake Mojave complex is one of the best known expressions of the WPLT.

The Pinto period, 5,000–2,000 B.C., follows the Lake Mojave period in the inland desert region of Southern California. The Pinto period is considered coeval with the Millingstone period along the coast. Large pluvial lakes disappeared during this period, influencing settlement and subsistence patterns. The Pinto period artifact assemblage includes a wide range of bifaces, domed scrapers, and unifacial tools. Major differences between Pinto and Lake Mojave period sites are the introduction of Pinto points, drills, and an increase in milling tools, in conjunction with the absence of crescents, beaked gravers, and the loss of the Lake Mojave point. Another technological addition was the atlatl, or spear thrower, used to increase the throwing force and range of dart points. It is thought that the transition from a primarily foraging subsistence strategy to a more logistically- oriented seasonal collecting strategy occurred during the Pinto period. Pinto period sites exhibit considerable functional differences, and later Pinto period sites are often specialized activity sites, reflecting these changes in subsistence strategy. Changes in food procurement were characterized by exploitation of a wider variety of resources from a broader range of ecological zones than utilized previously. This settlement and subsistence strategy is also referred to as the Archaic in the Great Basin region.

The Gypsum period, 2,000 B.C.–A.D. 500, is characterized by the successful adaptation to arid desert landscapes. The Gypsum and later Saratoga Springs periods are considered contemporary with the Intermediate period of the coastal region. Cultural assemblages of the Gypsum period are more elaborate and diverse than any that preceded this time. Gypsum period residential sites are located predominantly near mesquite groves in valley bottoms, and settlement patterns are at least partially characterized by seasonally-occupied sites in those areas where mesquite or other reliable subsistence staples were available. Populations living closer to the coast subsisted on resources such as the oak, available in the upland areas of Riverside County and in the Santa Ana Mountains. Gypsum period artifacts include Elko, Gypsum, and Humboldt series projectile points, as well as large, broad, thin, extremely well-made triangular and lanceolate knives and bifaces. Manos and metates are common and the mortar and pestle first occur. Additional artifacts include shaft straighteners, incised slate and sandstone tablets and pendants, and drilled slate tubes.

Evidence of use of the atlatl includes the presence of atlatl engaging spurs, and dart shafts, foreshafts and butts. Bone awls, *Haliotis* spp. rings, and coastal Intermediate period artifacts, including *Olivella* spp. shell beads, are also found in Gypsum period sites, and are found in increasing numbers in Saratoga Springs period sites. Perishable items from Gypsum period sites include sandals, S-twist cordage, and split-twig figurines.

The Saratoga Springs period, A.D. 500-1200, is characterized by successful adaptation to a desert environment through increasingly complex subsistence strategies and technology. Throughout much of Riverside County, subsistence patterns established in the earlier Gypsum period appear to have persisted with little change. The major technological change was the introduction of the bow and arrow, indicated by the use of small arrow points rather than the larger dart points used in conjunction with the atlatl or spear-chucking device. Artifacts characteristic of the Saratoga Springs period include small projectile points such as stemmed Rosegate series projectile points and Cottonwood triangular points. Also present are quantities of marine shell beads originating from the California and Gulf of California coasts. Ceramic pottery also occurs. Pottery from Saratoga Springs period sites includes Puebloan Graywares, and lower Colorado Buffwares and Tizon Brownwares, the latter two of which are associated with Hakatayan culture groups of the lower Colorado River area.

The Protohistoric period, coastally referred to as the Late Prehistoric period, A.D. 1200–historic period, is characterized by the continuation of the generalized Archaic lifestyle based on hunting and gathering practices with a strong reliance on plant foods and small game. A decreased reliance on large game is evident in archaeological assemblages. Seasonal transhumance was common and resulted in a diverse range of site types. The beginning of the Protohistoric period is identified by the introduction of Desert Side-notched points and the presence of Brownware and Buffware ceramics. It was during the Protohistoric period that the Puebloan occupation of the Mojave Desert ended and the Numic Chemehuevi occupation of the area began. Numic settlements are identified by the presence of coarse tempered Brownwares. Another indicator of the Protohistoric period is the presence of Obsidian Butte obsidian, especially at Southern California sites. Obsidian Butte obsidian occurs commonly in prehistoric sites only after the shoreline of prehistoric Lake Cahuilla receded, the lake's last stand ending approximately A.D. 1500.

Ethnography. At the time of Euroamerican contact with native populations, the future Riverside County was occupied by eight distinct cultural groups speaking various dialects or languages of the Uto-Aztecan or Hokan language stocks. Ethnohistorically, Riverside County incorporated one primary culture, the Cahuilla, and seven bordering groups: Gabrielino, Juaneño, Luiseño, Quechan, Halchidhoma, Chemehuevi, and Serrano. The HCLE project area was occupied primarily by Luiseño, Serrano, and Cahuilla groups. Culture boundaries are arbitrary in that they represent the peripheries of what is known of traditional gathering and hunting territories, with considerable overlap by neighboring groups, and also represent a single temporal "snapshot." Based on the archaeological record, significant changes are known to have occurred in the distribution of tribal territory late in the Protohistoric period, primarily as a result of the desiccation of Lake Cahuilla and the necessary outmigration of the natives toward the coast and the Colorado River. In much of Riverside County, population densities were low during the Ethnohistoric period, and territorial boundaries were not an issue, as these areas were more or less frontiers between population clusters.

The project area largely falls within the Luiseño culture area, an ethnographically recorded region based on linguistic similarities and differences with nearby groups. The term Luiseño is given to those native people living within the jurisdictional area of Mission San Luis Rey, who were gathered together by the Spanish under the belief that they shared an ancestral relationship.

Late period Luiseño villages are described as archaeological sites containing midden, bedrock milling features, prehistoric ceramic sherds, and usually pictographs and Cottonwood style projectile points. Preferred habitation locations are described as along valley edges, at interfaces of two or more plant communities, and in locations specifically containing a spring, a creek, sandy loam sediments, slopes of about nine percent, and bedrock with horizontal or slightly sloping faces. It is also suggested that the people preferred village areas located on elevated landforms such as knolls and ridges. The Luiseno were hunters and gatherers who used both inland and coastal food resources. Their territory included the coastal Orange County region and portions of Los Angeles and San Diego counties during Ethnohistoric times, and extended inland into western Riverside County, generally in the vicinity of the Santa Ana Mountains and neighboring areas of the Peninsular and Transverse ranges.

The Luiseno caught and collected seasonally available food resources, and led a semi-sedentary lifestyle, living in permanent communities along inland watercourses and coastal estuaries. Individuals from these villages took advantage of the varied resources available. Seasonally, as foods became available, native groups moved to temporary camps to collect plant foods such as acorns, buckwheat, chía, berries, and fruits, and to conduct communal rabbit and deer hunts. They also established seasonal camps along the coast and near bays and estuaries to gather shellfish and hunt waterfowl. Villages were politically independent, and were administered by a chief, who inherited his position from his father. Shamans guided religious and medical activities, while group hunting or fishing was supervised by individual male specialists.

Cahuilla villages were usually situated in the lower part of the Upper Sonoran life zone, centrally located in the richest food gathering areas. As food ripened in different areas, individuals and groups moved to harvest the bounty. While at no time would an entire village move to resource exploitation sites, a considerable component of the village could be absent during certain seasons in pursuit of gathering activities in especially productive areas. For example, in October and early November, the bulk of each village traveled five or ten miles to their traditional oak groves to harvest the economically important staple, acorn. Next to the oak tree, mesquite and screwbean, both Prosopis species, were the most extensive food producing trees utilized by the Cahuilla. While oak comprised the staple food of the Pass and Mountain Cahuilla, mesquite and screwbean provided the primary foods of the "Desert" Cahuilla. Mesquite is commonly found below 900 meters (3,000 feet).

The Cahuilla territory can be generally described in an inland area of Southern California between the San Bernardino Range and the mountains that extend to the south of Mount San Jacinto. Three divisions create a more definitive boundary: the San Gorgonio Pass, the Colorado Desert, and the mountains south of Mount San Jacinto. These areas range in elevation from 3,385 meters (11,000 feet) above to 84 meters (273 feet) below mean sea level. Thus, the Cahuilla lived in a varied environment; the lowest regions were in the vicinity of the Colorado desert, specifically the Salton sink.

The Cahuilla inhabiting the area around San Gorgonio Pass are referred to as the Western or Pass Cahuilla. Villages were usually situated within canyons or on alluvial fans near water and food resources. A primary factor in siting villages and other types of habitation sites was the presence of a dependable supply of potable water. Deep, walk-in wells are characteristic of the Western Cahuilla; from these wells, the name of the town of Indian Wells was derived. The living structures varied in size and shape, and included brush shelters that were dome-shaped or rectangular; the shape varied according to the use. The more sacred Cahuilla areas were marked with pictographs or petroglyphs. Villages relocated only for specific reasons, including alterations in resource availability, changes in the environment, and/or changes in political affiliation. Acorn collection, which occurred seasonally, was the greatest influence on village movement.

The Cahuilla collected and utilized a wide variety of floral material. They collected six different types of acorns. Additionally, mesquite, screw beans (mesquite), piñon nuts, cactus, seeds, fruit berries, tubers, and roots supplemented their diet. Proto and marginal agricultural techniques were used to produce corn, beans, squash and melons. Hunting of bighorn sheep, deer, antelope, rabbit, small rodents, reptiles, quail, dove, and duck using bow and arrow, throwing sticks, traps, and communal drives is well documented. Men hunted or captured animals, then prepared the meat for cooking by skinning and butchering. The women cooked the meat by roasting or boiling. They also preserved meat by cutting it into strips for sun drying.

Specialized tools were used to process gathered foods. A mortar and pestle was used to grind acorns and berries, manos and metates were used to grind seeds, and wood mortars and pestles were used on soft, fibrous materials. The Cahuilla roasted yucca and agave in stone ovens. Artifacts common to the Cahuilla included coiled pottery that was often incised and painted, baskets, manos, metates, mortars, pestles, arrow shaft straighteners, mesquite or willow bows and arrows, wooden throwing sticks, charmstones, bull roarers, and small, bifacially worked stone points. Marine shells, including Olivella spp. beads, are often associated with cremations.

The region in the vicinity of Mount San Jacinto is replete with Indian lore, including the tale of Takwish, a powerful Cahuilla monster or divinity associated with the moaning sound created by Mount San Jacinto's cold winds roaring down Tahquitz Canyon into Palm Springs. The term Takwish means "eater" or "eating," and Tahquitz is the modern name derived from the legendary appellation. Takwish, said to have been born in Poway in Diegueño territory, lives on San Jacinto Mountain, although he does visit among the Luiseño, especially in association with Temecula. Takwish usually appears as a low-flying meteor or ball of lightning, but is also depicted in bird-like form or as a man in feathers. The creature is said to carry off and devour humans, and simply the sight of this creature portends disaster and death. A similar Gabrielino term, Toowish, is reported to be the same as the Luiseño word, meaning "devil." Interestingly, the Juaneño term *towish* means ghost, and was applied to both the corpse and associated spirit. The San Jacinto and Hemet area contained a substantial Cahuilla Indian population during the early Historic period. The San Jacinto Valley is said to have once contained seven native Cahuilla villages, and the tribes living here were among the most powerful of any in the Southwest .

The Serrano occupied the northwestern portion of the project area during the 16th to 19th centuries). They occupied topographic regions that varied from about 1,500 feet in the desert to over 11,000 feet in the mountains. Foods included mountain sheep; deer; rabbits; acorns; seeds of various grasses; pinon nuts; bulbs and tubers; shoots and

roots; berries and mesquite; barrel cacti and joshua trees. Most settlements were in the foothills; however, some were on the desert floor near permanent water sources. The Serrano were primarily hunters and gatherers and did some fishing. Commonly- used hunting implements were bows and arrows, curved throwing sticks, traps, snares and deadfalls. Food preparation implements included: earth ovens; water tight baskets; heated stones; shallow trays; metates; wooden and stone manos; flint knives; stone and bone scrapers; pottery trays and bowls; baskets; and horn and bone spoons and stirrers.

Family homes were circular, domed structures constructed of willow frames and covered with tule thatching. The family house had a central fire pit. Many outdoor activities took place under a ramada, a shelter constructed of four poles supporting a roof of tule thatching. Other village buildings included a ceremonial house, granaries and sweathouses. Sweathouses were always placed adjacent to water. These were large, circular, semisubterranean, earth-covered structures supported by willow pole frames and thatching. The Serrano made baskets; pottery; rabbitskin blankets; awls; arrow straighteners; sinew-backed bows; arrows; fire drills; stone pipes; rattles made from turtle shell, tortoise shell and deer hooves; wood rasps; bone whistles; bull-roarers; flutes; feathered costumes; mats; bags; storage pouches; cordage, and nets.

History. The line that separates the historic period from the prehistoric period is simply the advent of written documentation of events. In California, the historic period is associated with the founding of the first mission, San Diego de Alcala, on July 16, 1769. Riverside County's entrance into the historic record, however, followed a more vernacular route. In 1772, Lieutenant Pedro Fages, then the military governor of San Diego, inadvertently crossed the San Jacinto Valley while in hot pursuit of deserting soldiers.

Early exploration of the Riverside County area began slowly. On January 8, 1774, Juan Bautista de Anza, with Fathers Garces and Diaz, 20 soldiers, 11 muleteers, servants, and Sebastian Tarabal as a guide, began an expedition from the Mission in Tubac (near Tucson) and headed west seeking a practical overland route to Alta California. Traveling between two and three miles per hour, Anza crossed the Colorado River and entered California. Heading north and west, Anza skirted the Santa Rosa Mountains and made his way up through Coyote Canyon, stopping at a small spring he named for Saint Catherine (Santa Catarina) (State Historical Landmark #103) (Brown 1985). The following day, Anza descended into San Jacinto Valley, likely passing through Riverside's Sycamore Canyon and Tequesquite Arroyo, and camped near what is now Pedley Meadows (State Historical Landmark #787). Anza's vivid portrayal of the expedition created an alluring vision for future travelers. By the time he reached the San Gabriel Mission on March 21, 1774, Viceroy Antonio Bucareli and Carlos III were already making plans for a second expedition, to establish a pueblo at San Francisco Bay. Anza's second excursion into Riverside County included 29 soldiers, their wives and children, who would form the new community at the Presidio of San Francisco (Brown 1985).

Early settlement in Riverside County was slow and sporadic. By the time Lieutenant Pedro Fages crossed into Riverside County, five of the 21 California missions were already established. During the Mission period (1769-1833), Riverside County proved to be too far inland to establish any missions or asistencias, although San Luis Rey claimed a large part of southwestern Riverside County for livestock grazing.

Leandro Serrano is credited as the first nonnative to settle in the Riverside County area. In 1818, Serrano obtained permission from the priests at San Luis Rey to settle "five leagues of land in the Temescal" (Brown 1985:35) (State Historical Landmarks # 185, 186, 224, and 638). Three years later, Native American neophytes from the San Gabriel Mission established the Rancho San Gorgonio near Banning and Beaumont.

In 1821, Mexico successfully overthrew Spanish rule; however, news of the victory did not reach Alta California until the following year. Without the backing of Spain, the missions lost the financial and political support required to keep them going. By 1833, the Mexican government passed the Secularization Act. The missions, reorganized as parish churches, lost their vast land holdings and "released their neophytes." To facilitate the transition of landholding, the Mexican government established the office of Comisionados, appointed by the Governor, to supervise the transition of missionary lands into the hands of private citizens.

During the Rancho period (1821-1848), the ranchos were predominately devoted to the cattle industry, with their great tracts of land used for grazing. Until the gold rush of 1849, livestock and horticulture dominated the economics of California (Ingersoll, 1904; Beattie and Beattie, 1939; Brown, 1985).

Sixteen ranchos were granted in Riverside County. In 1839, the first of these, Rancho Jurupa (over 32,000 acres), was granted to Juan Bandini. Among the large ranchos established during this period, the Santa Rosa Rancho (located on the Santa Rosa Preserve) is a prime example of cattle ranching in Southern California (State Historical Landmark # 1005).

As travel along the Sante Fe Trail brought more settlers, the pattern of settlement developed along the Santa Ana and San Jacinto waterways. With the influx of new settlers, some of the larger ranchos were divided into smaller parcels. Among these, Louis Rubidoux purchased 6,700 acres in the center of Rancho Jurupa. After his death in 1868, a portion of his ranch would become part of the Riverside Colony (Brown, 1985) (State Historical Landmarks # 102, 303).

With the 1848 signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, California entered into the American period. Within two years, on September 9, 1850, California entered the union as a free state. On September 15, 1858, the first Butterfield stage carrying overland mail left Tipton, Missouri, and passed through Temecula, arriving in Los Angeles on October 7, 1858 (State Historical Landmark # 188). The event was momentous; finally Southern California had a reliable, relatively fast link to the rest of the union.

The floods of 1862 and the smallpox epidemic of 1862-1863 did little to encourage settlement in the area. The pattern of growth remained slow until after the Civil War and the completion of the transcontinental railroad. Transportation, agriculture, and the control of water are central themes in the settlement, development, and growth of Riverside County.

From 1900 to 1940, the population of Southern California blossomed, increasing by a staggering 1,107 percent. While many credit the railroad for boom years, historians Tobey and Wetherell believe the citrus industry was responsible for the region's exponential growth.

On April 6, 1917, the United States declared war on Germany, and Congress responded by appropriating funds for the expansion of the Army's Air Service and the establish-

ment of new airfields. On March 1, 1918, the Allessandro Aviation Field opened. Three weeks later the field was officially named for Lieutenant Peyton C. March, Jr., a pilot killed the previous month in Fort Worth, Texas.

The development of transportation systems has played a key role in the settlement of Riverside County. The historian Frederick Jackson Turner described the European settlement of the west as a progressive series of steps along a path. These steps included initial exploration by explorers following trails established by Native Americans and expanding these trails into a regular network for overland travel. Turner believed that the opportunity for "free" land served to drive exploration and settlement of the western frontier. While the earliest nonnative forays into Riverside County were individuals passing through to other regions of Southern California, the earliest settlements did develop along many of the early trails and paths into the region, and many are still in use today.

In 1818, when Leandro Serrano settled in Temescal, he followed the traditional paths used by the Luiseño and Gabrielino. By 1831, this path became the route used by J.J. Warner of Warner's Ranch. In 1849, the explorer John C. Frémont followed this well-worn route, and from 1849 through 1851, during the Gold Rush, it was well traveled. From 1858 through 1861, it became the Butterfield Stage route, and today it is the old Temescal Road (California Historic Landmark # 638, California Historic Landmark # 188).

The railroads and Southern California have a unique give and take relationship. While much of the early settlement and growth in Riverside County is linked to railroad boosterism, the later growth of the railroad can be linked to the expansion of the Southern California citrus industry.

When the Southern Pacific Railroad began construction in the 1870s, most of the work was completed by Chinese labor. Ten years later, the California Southern began construction in San Diego; by 1881, it had reached Temecula Canyon, again largely built by Chinese labor. The first Chinatown in the City of Riverside was located within the historic Mile Square district in 1880. In 1893, Chinatown was destroyed by fire and relocated west of Brockton in the Tequesquite Arroyo. The California Southern from the San Diego area reached San Bernardino via Riverside in September, 1883. By 1885, the California Southern linked with the Sante Fe, establishing a second transcontinental railroad.

From 1876 to 1890, the Southern Pacific Company promoted southern California through publicity, settlement agents, and land bureaus. During this period, railroad agents sold lots in Southern California towns to prospective settlers in Ireland before they had booked passage for America. Perhaps the best known examples of the railroads promoting sales in southern California were the excursion parties and emigrant trains. In fact, the colony of Murrieta was promoted as an area "which for richness of soil, salubrity of climate, excellence of water and healthfulness cannot be excelled (California Southern Railroad poster circa 1880)." The history of Temecula and Murrieta exemplifies some of this early settlement and growth in Riverside County.

The area around Temecula was used extensively by the Luiseño and Juañeno. During the Mexican era, it served as a crossroads and the center of ranching activities. In 1873, Louis Wolf and John Magee began the Temecula settlement with their store and stage station. With the construction of the railroad through the canyon in 1882, the first railroad station and post office was established on January 24, 1883. The colony of

Murrieta, promoted by the California Southern, started as a small ranching area settled by Juan Murrieta. With the establishment of the train station, Murrieta became a shipping point and center of commerce for local ranchers and farmers.

The community of San Jacinto was established in the 1850s on a portion of the San Jacinto Rancho (granted to José Antonio Estudillo in 1842). By 1870, it was well-established with a post office, store, and 23 residences. Due to a homicide by the leading businessman of the community (H.T. Hewitt), and ensuing litigation, the settlement was in decline by the early 1880s. In 1883, the community was moved north to its present location by the San Jacinto Land Association, which purchased land from the Estudillo family and laid out a new town site. The post office was relocated shortly thereafter, and the original settlement became known as Old Town, South San Jacinto, and finally, Bowers. In 1886, the population numbered in excess of 1,500, and by 1888, the San Jacinto Valley Railway branch line from Perris was completed. San Jacinto was incorporated as a city in 1888, and when Riverside County was formed, the community was designated as one of the 12 original judicial townships.

The San Jacinto Viejo was inherited by Francisco Estudillo, who sold 8,000 acres to H.T. Hewitt, an early San Jacinto settler. Hewitt sold 3,000 acres to W.F. Whittier, E. L. Mayberry, Handcock Johnson, J. S. Chapman, and A.H. Hudson, who also purchased an additional 3,000 acres from Estudillo. Whittier and his associates formed the Hemet Land Company and the Lake Hemet Water Company. In 1891, the water company started construction of Lake Hemet Dam, located on the South Fork of the San Jacinto River in the San Jacinto Mountains, 15 miles south southeast of Little Lake. Lake Hemet and the water distribution system, which included small reservoirs, were built by 1895. Water flowed through the Lake Hemet main canal, irrigating citrus orchards in the San Jacinto Valley. Subsequently, land was sold, laterals were installed in the Little Lake flume, and other citrus orchards were started in east Hemet. The creation of Lake Hemet and its canal system ensured the future development of the community of Hemet, which had a post office by 1898, and was incorporated in 1910. The citrus industry, as well as walnut and apricot groves, flourished in Hemet until the early 1960s, when residential development began to encroach on the citriculture. Many remnant citrus groves are still located on the eastern edge of Hemet.

Homeland was created as a mid-1920s subdivision of the 'home area' of the Guthridge Ranch on the north side of Double Butte just east of Hemet. A post office was established in 1949. By the early 1950s, the community included a church, approximately 60 residences, and a goldfish farm.

The community of Romoland was established as Romola Farms by the Pacific Mutual Life Insurance Company in 1925. The development was based on four- to five-acre parcels offered for fig orchards. Romoland was so successful that the neighboring community of Ethanac's post office was renamed "Romoland" the following year. Though now abandoned, a small commercial center was established by the early 1950s on the north side of Highway 74.

Lakeview was named for its proximity to an ephemeral lake known as Mystic Lake, Lakeview was established by Frank E. Brown of Redlands, who purchased more than 10,000 acres of the Wolfskill Ranch (formerly part of Ranch San Jacinto Nuevo) in 1893. Brown, along with E.G. Hudson and other prominent Redlands speculators, founded the Lakeview Water Company. A post office was established the following year, and the California Southern Railway (which would later become Santa Fe) was persuaded to build an eight-mile spur to Lakeview which was completed in 1898. The

Lakeview station was constructed the following year. The spur line served Lakeview until 1937, when it was removed due to lack of business. Lakeview enjoyed a brief boom in the 1930s when the Colorado River Aqueduct was under construction nearby. The local hotel (P-33-7246) and boarding house/café (LSA-SVC933-HA-28) served the aqueduct workers, and a prosperous apricot orchard dry-yard occupied the center of town.

Known to the Luiseno Indians, the hot springs just west of the community were known as the *Pilares* (basin or bowl) to San Luis Rey Mission padres, and were later called the Ramona Hot Springs. Joseph Wolfskill acquired the land which included the springs, and they were known by his name for a time. Swiss immigrant Bernardo Bernasconi, who arrived in California in 1859, purchased property from Wolfskill which included the hot springs in 1879. Prior to the establishment of Lakeview, Wolfskill put in a well at the springs which yielded sulfur water. Subsequently, Bernasconi's wife Marcellini negotiated a deal with Wolfskill, had six bathhouses constructed, and established the successful Bernasconi Hot Springs. When Lakeview lots were first sold, residents camped out at the hot springs until their houses were completed. The hot springs continued to be popular, and the property went through a succession of names as it changed hands over the years, including Ginsberg, Stewart, and finally Lakeview, until its water was cut off by the construction of the Colorado River Aqueduct in the 1930s.

Established around a railroad station, Perris was named after E. Dexter Perris, chief engineer and construction superintendent of the California Southern Railway, who facilitated the relocation of the station north from Pinacate in 1886. Most of Pinacate's buildings and businesses were subsequently moved to Perris, and a post office was built. When Riverside County was formed in 1893, Perris was designated one of the 12 original judicial townships of the new county, and the town was incorporated as a city in 1911.

The name of El Cerrito, located south of Corona originated with surveyor G. Howard Thompson in 1868. *Cerrito (*Spanish for "hillock") was used by Thompson to describe two of the numerous hills in the vicinity. In 1892, R.B Taylor, one of the founders of Corona, acquired the property where the hillocks were located, established citrus orchards, and called it Cerreto [sic.] Ranch. Four years later, Taylor sold the property (400 acres) to Baron Harden Hickey, who in turn sold it to Francis A. Stearns, who initiated the first of several subdivisions under the name "El Cerrito Hills" following the end of World War II.

Temescal Canyon Road, an important historic route (also known as Old Temescal Road, the Southern Immigrant Trail, and Colorado Road) which runs through the middle of El Cerrito was established during the Mission Period. The Butterfield Stage line had established a station on the road south of the community by 1858, and the first sections of the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe railroad line between Lake Elsinore and Corona were constructed in 1896 east of the community, in order to serve coal and clay mines just to the south, so the area was well-connected by transportation prior to the establishment of El Cerrito.

Corona was established on former lands of the La Sierra Rancho and Temescal Grant as South Riverside in 1886 as a "citrus colony" by R.B. Taylor, George L. Joy, Samuel Merrilll, A.S. Garretson, and Adolph Rimpau (The South Riverside Land and Water Company). Informally known as "Circle City" and "Queen Colony," its name was changed to Corona (at a suggestion by Baron Harden Hickey) and the community was incorporated ten years later. The Butterfield Stage line brought many Americans to

Riverside along the Old Temescal Canyon Road between 1858 and 1861, before the arrival of the railroad in the early 20th century. The citrus industry was the economic base of Corona until suburban housing development began displacing the groves in the early 1960s. Mining has always played a secondary but vital role to the more prominent citrus industry. Historically, this area is known for having the only productive tin mine in the country, and it produced tin until 1893. Other more successful mining ventures included the Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company (previously Blue Diamond mine), the Pacific Clay Company (organized in 1886), Redlands Clay Tile, Maruhachi Ceramics, Monier Roof Tile, and U.S. Tile.

Known as *Paiakche* to the LuiseÁo Indians and *Laguna Grande* to the Spanish and Mexicans, Lake Elsinore was renamed by Franklin H. Heald after Heald, Donald Graham, and William Collier acquired the La Laguna Rancho in 1883. The community of Lake Elsinore was established around hot springs which resulted in its rapid development as a resort town, and it was incorporated in 1888. The railroad completed construction of the San Diego to San Bernardino line through Lake Elsinore Junction by 1883. The construction of the Crescent Bath House that same year resulted in early prosperity that waned over the next few decades.

3.12.2 Cultural Resource Regulations

Prehistoric, historic, multi-component (containing both historic and prehistoric), and historic architectural resource sites are found within the HCLE Corridor. Historic archaeological sites and historic architectural resources are concentrated in more urbanized environments, and archaeological sites are concentrated along stream courses and the bases of topographic features. The majority of cultural resource sites identified within the HCLE Corridor have not been evaluated for eligibility for listing on either the California Register of Historical Resources (California Register) or the National Register of Historic Places (National Register); however, there are important resources present in some areas.

Prehistoric archaeological sites are defined as those cultural resources where prehistoric use and/or occupation is evidenced. Historic archaeological sites are those sites where historic remains are present, and there is an absence of remaining buildings, structures, or objects. Historic architectural resource sites are those areas where historic buildings, structures, or objects remain. Finally, multi-component sites are those site that contain a mixture of one, or more, of the preceding types. Therefore, multi-component sites include prehistoric archaeological sites that contain artifacts from multiple time periods, sites containing both historic and prehistoric components, and historic and prehistoric archaeological sites containing historic architecture resources.

Cultural resources are protected under a variety of federal, State and local regulations. Federal regulations are primarily encompassed by Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (16 U.S.C. 470f) as promulgated in 36 CFR Part 800, as amended July 1, 2001. Section 4(f) of the United States Code (49 U.S.C. §303) provides direction for Department of Transportation projects on the protection of public lands, including historic sites. In addition, Public Laws 95-341, and 103-141, and Executive Order 13007, relating to American Indian religious freedom and sacred sites, apply to those resources and geographical areas determined to have a sacred and/or religious significance to the Native American population. The National Environmental Policy Act (42 U.S.C. 4321, NEPA) addresses project impacts to the environment, including cultural resources, and Executive Order 12898 addresses environmental