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Excerpt from
CULTURAL RESOURCE ASSESSMENT OF RENEWABLE ENERGY DEVELOPMENT AREAS IN ARIZONA

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APPENDIX D
CULTURAL HISTORY BACKGROUND OF ARIZONA

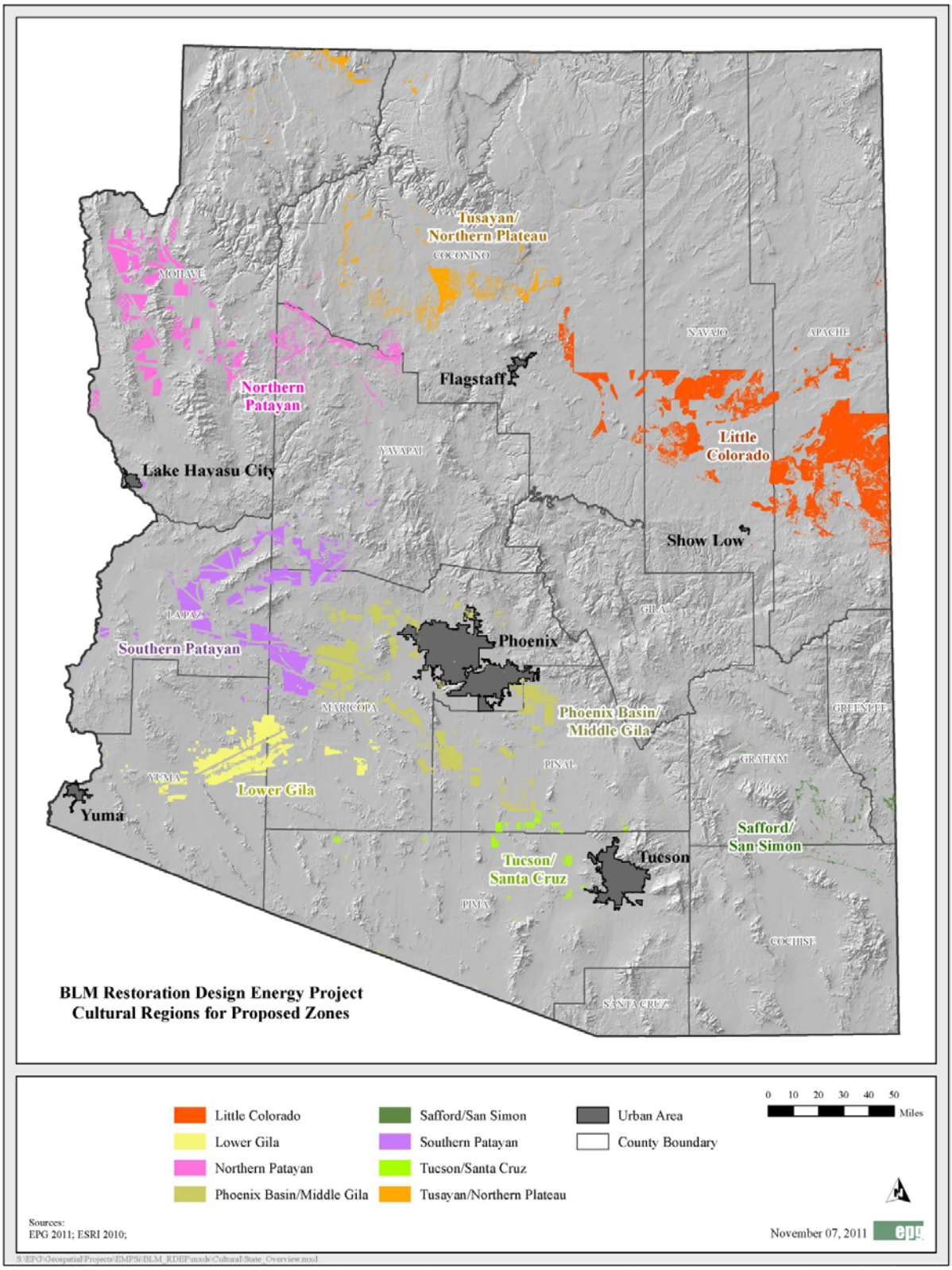
A culture history sets the background context and provides an understanding of the general characteristics of a culture group a specific time period. This section provides a general culture history for Arizona and detailed culture histories for the 8 cultural regions defined for the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) Restoration Design Energy Project (RDEP), as shown on Figure 1. The culture history of the State of Arizona spans approximately 12,000 years of human occupation, and is divided into several prehistoric and historic periods. Additional details of cultural resources in the planning area are provided in the *Cultural Resource Assessment Of Renewable Energy Development Areas In Arizona* (July 2011) prepared by Environmental Planning Group (BLM Permit No. AZ-000451) available by request from the BLM Arizona State Office.

Paleoindian Period (ca. 10,000 to 8000 BC)

The earliest occupation of present-day Arizona occurred during the Paleoindian period. At this time, prehistoric populations consisted of small, mobile groups of hunter-gatherers who hunted large game animals, collected native plants foods, and occupied temporary campsites (Cordell 1984). The most widely recognized Paleoindian cultural tradition, the Clovis complex, stems from excavations at Blackwater Draw, New Mexico, in 1932. These excavations yielded distinctive "fluted" projectile points as well as a number of stone and bone butchering and processing tools, in association with extinct Pleistocene megafauna dating to 11,500 to 11,000 years ago; since this time, a number of Paleoindian sites have been identified and excavated in southern Arizona (Boldurian and Cotter 1999; Bonnichsen and Turmire 1991).

Although Clovis represents the oldest recognized cultural tradition in the Southwest, a number of distinctive Paleoindian complexes, such as the Folsom and Cody, succeeded Clovis on the Great Plains where Paleoindian hunters shifted their focus to bison, following the extinction of mammoth (Frison 1993).

Figure 1. BLM RDEP Cultural Regions



Interestingly, Folsom assemblages are absent in southern Arizona. It has been suggested that this dichotomy resulted from resident Paleoindian populations foregoing bison hunting in favor of subsistence strategies suited to the changing climate, giving rise to the Archaic Cochise and San Dieguito traditions of the desert lowlands (Waters 1986).

Warming and cooling trends associated with continental and mountain glaciers characterize the Paleoindian period. Much of the Southwest consisted of verdant grasslands and playas that sustained numerous, now-extinct herbivore populations such as mammoth, tapir, camel, horse, and bison (Haynes 1970; Mehringer and Haynes 1965). Pollen data suggest an abrupt change in climate at the Pleistocene-Holocene transition, marked by declines in effective moisture and greater seasonal variability (Greiser 1980). This resulted in drastic alterations of vegetative patterns and the loss of browse vegetation. Extinction of large Pleistocene mammals, which was well underway during the Late Glacial period, was accelerated and species diversity became greatly reduced.

Although frequently characterized as nomadic hunters whose subsistence economy was focused on now-extinct megafauna and other large game, the Paleoindian occupants of the region probably pursued relatively diverse subsistence strategies that included intensive utilization of wild plant resources and hunting of large fauna. Very low population densities prevailed among these early regional inhabitants, who were organized as very small, residentially mobile, and socially fluid groups. Mobile demographic patterns of Paleoindian peoples contribute to the low visibility and relatively sparse occurrence of Paleoindian archaeological sites, as do factors such as soil accumulation that may obscure surface manifestations (Cordell 1979), or the absence of temporally diagnostic materials (e.g., Binford and Anderson 1992). Paleoindian site types may include, but are not limited to, kill sites, temporary hunting camps, base camps, processing sites, resource procurement sites, and quarries (Cordell 1984; Frison 1993; Haury 1953; Hemmings 1970; Hemmings and Haynes 1969).

Archaic Period (ca. 8000/7500 to 1200 BC)

The transition from the Paleoindian period to the Archaic period is marked by the absence of Pleistocene megafauna. It remains unclear to what extent climatic change and hunting contributed to their extinction. While extinction is not the only factor influencing the shift from large-scale hunting to small-scale hunting and plant processing, most scholars believe that this was at least one of the factors in the subsistence shift. The change from Paleoindian lanceolate and stemmed points to the Archaic side-notched types appears to have been abrupt and is easily detected in the archaeological record (Frison 1991).

Spring dominant storms, declines in plant cover, and water tables resulted in increased erosion and arroyo cutting (Albanese 1982). By 7000 BC the short-grass browsing areas appear to have reached their maximum, and lower effective moisture allowed for the invasion of the Southwest by a xerophytic

desert community dominated by juniper and mesquite. Faunal remains recovered from archaeological contexts indicate a general reduction in animal populations and the intrusion of desert-adapted species. By 2700 BC, the dry conditions that prevailed during the earlier phases appear to have abated. A southern shift in winter and summer frontal zones at approximately 1500 BC resulted in a general cooling trend in the region. This was followed by a warming trend, which produced climatic conditions similar to present day (Greiser 1980).

Archaic peoples increasingly incorporated a reliance on wild plants into their subsistence strategies as evidenced by stone tool assemblages, which became less specialized and distinctive than in the preceding period, and by increasing numbers of plant processing tools and features (Cordell 1984; Hayden 1982; Rogers 1966b).

Early Agricultural Period (ca. 1200 BC to AD 50)

The Early Agricultural period (previously called the Late Archaic) signifies the introduction of domesticated plant species, early farming practices, pottery production, and the beginnings of settled villages in the greater Southwest. The timing of the introduction of cultigens from Mexico is not known; however, radiocarbon dates on maize suggest that its cultivation in the Tucson Basin and other areas of the Southwest was underway by 1200 BC (Mabry 2008). Although this period marks significant changes in subsistence for many prehistoric peoples, the appearance of pottery and the transition to agriculture varied among cultural groups and geographic areas.

Ceramic Period (AD 50 to 1450)

The Ceramic period represents a time of significant socioeconomic/political changes for the prehistoric peoples of Arizona and the greater Southwest. Increasingly dependent on agricultural subsistence, many semi-sedentary peoples during this period became full-time, settled villagers. The regular use of pottery for containers and storage vessels, as well as the settlement of pithouse villages, highlights the transition from the Early Agricultural period to the agrarian lifeways that typified this era in the Southwest. As population densities increased in aggregated village settings, agricultural groups expanded into territories previously occupied by hunter-gatherers, which resulted in the reduction of the latter's population. Once committed to agrarian subsistence, elaborate technological innovation and approaches to increasing crop yields occurred (Cordell 1984; Plog 1997). Moreover, new ideas regarding property ownership, communal religious architecture, and symbols of differential social status also were developed (Plog 1997). Archaeologists have identified and defined numerous, distinct cultural traditions across Arizona, including the Patayan, Anasazi/Ancestral Pueblo, Sinagua, Hohokam, and Mogollon, as well as the Salado ceramic tradition.

Protohistoric (AD 1450 to 1691)

The Protohistoric period in the American Southwest was a time of transition between the prehistoric and historic periods, ranging from AD 1450 to 1700 (Gilpin and Phillips 1998; Ravesloot and Whittlesey 1987; Riley 1987; Wilcox and Masse 1981). This circumstance derives from the uncertainty in dating sites that postdate AD 1450, leaving a significant period of time accounted for between the end of the prehistoric and the Spanish entrada (Whittlesey, et al. 1994b). In North America, the most common definition of the Protohistoric is the period that postdates the arrival of Europeans to the New World, to the time of continuous occupation or contact with Europeans (Ravesloot and Whittlesey 1987). Arizona archaeologists broadly define the end of the Protohistoric with the entrance of Spanish Jesuit missionaries into southern Arizona at the beginning of the eighteenth century (Gilpin and Phillips 1998).

The period of AD 1300 to 1500 marked the beginning of a period of mass abandonment, migration, and social reorganization throughout the Southwest. As such, the Protohistoric Native American world in Arizona at the time of the Spanish entrada consisted of numerous tribal groups representing a mix of sedentary and nomadic cultural groups. Sedentary groups at this time included O'odham-speaking people along the Santa Cruz, San Pedro, and middle Gila rivers and desert regions of southern Arizona; Yuman-speaking tribes along the Colorado River (Mojave, Quechan, Cocopah, Maricopa, Hualapi, Havasupai, and Yavapai); and the Hopi and Zuni along the Little Colorado River. Extant nomadic groups included numerous Athabaskan speakers, including the semi-sedentary Navajo in northeast Arizona; and perhaps less sedentary Apachean groups in the central and southern mountains of eastern Arizona, including the Manso, Suma, Jano, and Jacome who ranged across a wide portion of northern Mexico and southeastern Arizona (Bolton 1949; Dozier 1983; Forbes 1959; Gilpin and Phillips 1998; Lockhart 1997; Seymour 2009; Wells 2006).

Spanish and Mexican Periods (AD 1691 to 1856)

Although the crown colony of Nuevo México first sent Franciscan missionaries to the Hopi pueblos starting in 1629, sustained contact with Europeans in the territory encompassing present-day Arizona did not begin until the end of the seventeenth century, when Jesuit priest Eusebio Francisco Kino began a mission building program in the region (Doelle 1984; Trimble 1989). Kino's mission building program provided the conduit for additional Spanish settlement in the region, and eventually led to the establishment of the Presidio San Agustín del Tucsón (present-day Tucson) in 1775 (Dobyns 1976). With the presidio for protection, Spanish colonists established farms along the Santa Cruz River and mines in the surrounding hills, and grazed cattle. Spanish goods and the relative safety provided by the presidio attracted indigenous settlers. The Spanish and Native American farmers grew corn, wheat, and vegetables, and cultivated fruit orchards; the San Agustín Mission was known for its impressive gardens (Williams 1986).

Following independence from Spain in 1821, economic instability and periodic civil war greatly affected the newly established Mexican government's ability to maintain control in the far northern reaches of the country. In the Pimería Alta, lack of leadership from the central government resulted in increasing indigenous hostilities and mass abandonments. In 1831, the San Agustín Mission was abandoned, followed by most of the residents of the Tucson Basin (Elson and Doelle 1987; Hard and Doelle 1978).

Following the annexation of Texas in 1846, the United States exerted pressure on Mexico to cede the New Mexico territory east of the Rio Grande. However, Mexico refused to recognize any of the United States' claims west of the Nueces River in Texas, and war quickly followed (Prince 1883). On August 18, 1846, American forces under the command of Brigadier General Stephen W. Kearny entered Santa Fé and secured the city without firing a shot (Lavender 1980; Simmons 1977). That October, approximately 340 soldiers of the Mormon Battalion led by Lieutenant Colonel Philip St. George Cooke departed from Santa Fé for San Diego in Alta California. Tasked with blazing a wagon trail to the Pacific, the battalion crossed into the Pimería Alta, where they seized the Presidio San Agustín de Tucsón from provisional Mexican forces who had retreated there prior to the army's arrival. The Cooke wagon road became the first American wagon route extending from New Mexico to the Pacific Coast. In the ensuing years, thousands of immigrants would travel this road during the California Gold Rush of 1848–1849, which subsequently became known as the Gila Trail (Pike 2004; Trimble 1989).

American Territorial and American Statehood Periods (AD 1856 to Present)

The Mexican-American War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. Under terms of the treaty, Mexico ceded most of its northern territories to the United States; this included disputed land in Texas, California, New Mexico, and all land north of the Gila River in present-day Arizona. Following the Gadsden Purchase of 1854, the United States acquired the rest of the land south of the Gila River to the present-day international boundary with Mexico (Trimble 1989). With annexation, the United States government quickly established a series of military forts, and began the first surveys of the region with the U.S. Army Corps of Topographical Engineers. Throughout the 1850s, survey parties mapped waterways and springs, noted soils and climate, and searched for potential wagon and railroad routes. Coinciding with the California gold rush, the U.S. Army constructed Fort Calhoun in 1849 and later Camp Yuma, on the California side of the lower Colorado River at Yuma Crossing, in order to provide protection for gold prospectors and settlers following the Gila Trail through Arizona (Lavender 1980; Trimble 1989).

After the end of the Civil War, immediate concerns in Arizona focused on Indian resettlement and economic expansion (Lavender 1980). Following the failure of the forced relocation to Bosque Redondo in New Mexico, in 1867 the

Navajo were eventually awarded 3.5 million acres in their former homeland in northeastern Arizona and northwestern New Mexico (ibid). Although the sedentary Pima and Papago of southern Arizona had provided supplies to immigrants bound for California during the gold rush, labored on Anglo ranches in the Santa Cruz Valley, and fought with U.S. troops against the Apache throughout the 1860s, Anglo settlers insisted on appropriating their lands. As such, the United States government instituted a system of reservation lands for the various tribal groups (Pritzker 2000). Subjugation and resettlement of the Apache, particularly the Chiricahua, proved more difficult for the government. Final peace with the Apache only came with the surrender of Geronimo and the last of his band (some two dozen followers) in 1886 (Sweeney 1992; Trimble 1989).

With native resettlement relatively complete, rural development and industrialization increased unimpeded throughout Arizona in the 1870s. Moreover, the introduction of the telegraph and railroad significantly improved conditions for Anglo settlement and growth. During this period cattle ranching, mining, and farming expanded throughout the territory (Trimble 1989). Beginning in the 1890s, the first of numerous reclamation projects to come were undertaken by the federal government; these involved the construction of dams, reservoirs, and canals throughout the region's river valleys. Although the guiding policy was the reclamation of arid lands in the West, the construction of dams decreased the threats posed by seasonal floods to irrigation agriculture, provided a stable delivery of water for the region's farms, and most importantly, generated hydroelectric power (Clark 1987; Trimble 1989). Presently, the region's reclamation projects provide agricultural, municipal, and industrial water to approximately one third of the population in the Southwest (Bureau of Reclamation 2000).

On February 14, 1912, the Arizona territory became the forty-eighth of the last contiguous states admitted to the Union. Its population continued to increase after statehood; however, the region remained rural in character and economically dependent on mining and agriculture. These conditions peaked following the United States' entry into the war in Europe in 1917, which produced a high demand for resources such as copper, cattle, and agricultural products. Although the war boosted the regional markets, the post-war years proved detrimental for the traditional economies, sparking repeated economic restructuring that continued throughout the twentieth century (Nash 1987; Trimble 1989).

Tourism provided the needed boost to the region throughout the 1920s. Dude ranches and resorts were very popular with the American public. Arizona constructed additional and improved highways, which resulted in the emergence of such cultural roadside icons as gas stations, auto lodges (motels), campgrounds, cafes, curio shops, and other recreational facilities (Nash 1987; Trimble 1989). Like the rest of the nation during the 1930s, Arizona was hit

hard by the Great Depression as agricultural prices fell, mines closed, and populations declined. In 1933, congress created the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), which put approximately three million young men to work on park, soil, and water conservation projects throughout the country (Cornebise 2004). Throughout the late 1930s, CCC workers built roads, bridges, trails, wells, reservoirs, and recreational facilities. By the end of the program in 1942, twenty-seven CCC camps had been established in Arizona.

Following the United States' entry into World War II, Arizona's natural resources were once again in demand for the war effort. Production in the raw materials industry increased; however, the biggest changes occurred in the expansion of manufacturing and service industries. With the expanding manufacturing sector, a significant portion of the rural population migrated to the major centers at Tucson and Phoenix, contributing to the loss of their small-town characters (Nash 1987; Sheridan 1995). This change in trajectory of the regional economy grew and strengthened in the post-war years, and produced the diverse and complex economy that exists today (Nash 1987).

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