This section provides a background discussion of the prehistoric period background, ethnographic background, historic period background, known cultural resources in the region, the regulatory setting, an impact analysis, and mitigation measures. There was one written comment received during the public review period for the Notice of Preparation regarding this topic:

- An undated letter to Shasta County signed by residents Ashley Wayman, Tim Wedan, and Barbara Wedan, received on August 3, 2009 requested that the EIR address the potential for the project to impact cultural or historical resources.

Information in this section is derived primarily from the following sources:

- Cultural Resources Inventory for a Proposed Cogeneration Facility at the Sierra Pacific Industries, Inc. Sawmill, North of the City of Anderson, Shasta County, California (ENPLAN, 2007) (**Appendix D**)
- Shasta County General Plan, 2004
- City of Shasta Lake General Plan, 1999
- City of Redding General Plan, 2000
- City of Anderson General Plan, 2007
- Gold Districts of California (Division of Mines and Geology, Bulletin 193, 1970)
- California Gold Camps (University of California Press, Berkeley, Gudde, Erwin G. 1975)
- Handbook of the Indians of California (Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin 78. Washington, Kroeber, Alfred L. 1925)

The project specific Cultural Resources Inventory prepared by ENPLAN is attached as **Appendix D**.

3.4.1 ENVIRONMENTAL SETTING

Shasta County includes portions of the California Great Valley Geomorphic Province, the Southern Cascade Physiographic Province, the Modoc Plateau Province and the Klamath Province. Lavas of the Tuscan and Tehama formations are the dominant rock throughout the county (Lydon and O'Brien 1974:9). These lavas were extruded during the Pliocene and early Pleistocene. The boundary between the Cascade and the Modoc Plateau provinces is indeterminate, since both areas have a similar geological history of volcanic activity (Hartman 1970). The western portion of Shasta County is in the Klamath Province, but in an area of mixing with Cascade formations.

The cities of Redding and Anderson are located in the northern portion of the Sacramento Valley, an extension of the California Great Valley Geomorphic Province that is characterized by a thick accumulation of alluvial and floodplain deposits. The alluvium and floodplain deposits, which reach depths of as much as several thousand feet in thickness, fill in an asymmetric trough approximately 40 miles wide by 400 miles in length.

The Cascade Range comprises a string of volcanoes, often rising conspicuously above the surrounding landscape. In the Southern Cascade Range, Mount Shasta and Mount Lassen are the most prominent peaks. To the northeast, the Medicine Lake Highland marks the eastern boundary

of the Cascade Range. The Highland is surrounded by the Modoc Lava Plateau on the east, north, and south. The basement lavas of the Highland are andesitic in composition, while the more recent extrusions are lighter-colored lavas similar in composition to granite.

PREHISTORIC PERIOD

Archeological studies have been largely confined to two areas within Shasta County: the Sacramento River and adjoining areas and the Pit River in and around Lake Britten, east of Burney. Since it is necessary to discuss cultural events within a temporal framework, a very simple chronology proposed by Farber and Neuenschwander (1984) based on results from the Squaw Creek site is used to offer a basic temporal framework within which to assess the particular events that were transpiring in northeast California, with particular reference to the southern Cascades, during a certain period. The chronology formulated by Fredrickson (1973) for the North Coast Ranges has also been applied to the region (c.f. Peak & Associates 1984). His periods are temporal events, but they are defined by a dominance of certain economies, subsistence practices and general aspects of the ordering of society. The periods are generally similar to those offered earlier by Willey and Phillips (1958) and have a wide area of applicability, however, as pointed out by Farber and Neuenschwander, the latest prehistoric period defined by Fredrickson, the Emergent, implies aspects of cultural development that are not documented ethnographically or archaeologically in much of the Cascades region.

The periods advanced by Farber and Neuenschwander, with approximate dates in years before the present (B.P.) are early prehistoric (7600 B.P. – 5000 B.P.), middle prehistoric (5000 B.P. – 1450 B.P.), and late prehistoric (1450 B.P - 100 B.P.). The present is defined as 1950, to conform with radiocarbon dating conventions.

There is some evidence of human presence in the region prior to the Early Period, but it is scarce. There are some flake-based industries from near Redding (Sundahl 1976), but none have been reported along the Pit River and its environs. Fluted points and long-stemmed versions of the Great Basin Stemmed series (such as Lind Coulees and Cougar Mountain points) have been reported from Goose Lake (Hughes 1977a) and Fall River Mills Valley (Peak 1979). Jensen and Farber (1982) have excavated an encampment north of the project area near Macdoel characterized by Great Basin Stemmed series points.

The Sacramento Canyon sites are located still farther west and provide comparison with archaeological sequences in Central California and the North Coast Ranges. The sequence labeled "Tehama County" was developed from the long term CSU, Sacramento, project directed by Jerald Johnson in the Dye Creek area east of Red Bluff.

Early Prehistoric Period

Within Shasta County, only Component I at Squaw Creek dates to the Early Prehistoric Period. At this time contacts with the North Coast Ranges and Central Valley are evident, with Borax Lake Wide Stems and other wide stem variant points present (Clewett 1977, Clewett and Sundahl 1983). Squaw Creek rises in the Klamath Mountains and flows south to the Pit River. Since Squaw

Creek demonstrates North Coast and Valley influence, it is reasonable to expect that the influence was also present along the lower reaches of the Pit River. The Lorenzen site (Baumhoff and Olmsted 1963), far up the Pit River drainage, also contained Borax Lake points. The Borax Lake points are believed by Baumhoff and Olmsted to date later than their age at Squaw Creek, but this may be a measure of site disturbance or excavation techniques. Sixteen similar points have been reported from Sacramento Canyon sites (Goldberg and Raven 1983; Basgall and Hildebrandt 1987:170-175). Kowta (1984) sees some relationship between site location for this temporal period and Elk distribution in northern California. He believes that the people who used the wide stem points were highly mobile big game hunters who traveled in small bands.

Middle Prehistoric Period

The long time span assigned to Component II at Squaw Creek defines the Middle Prehistoric Period. This period stretches from the first intensive occupation of most sites in the southern Cascades through the introduction of the bow and arrow and generally features a population with less emphasis on big game hunting and more emphasis on vegetable food collecting and processing. Over time, these groups become increasingly adapted to their environment, in part by responding to long term changes in environmental conditions. This long time period is broken up into more than one major cultural phase in all of the archaeological sequences in the region, including Squaw Creek after reanalysis of Component II based on results from the Clickapudi Creek sites.

The earliest defined occupation phase from northern Shasta County is the Pollard Flat phase (Basgall and Hildebrandt 1987). The point forms characteristic of this period were familiar from the Squaw Creek report, but not named (other than the McKee point forms) until Basgall and Hildebrandt defined the Squaw Creek Contracting Stem and Pollard Diamond-shaped types. These points also characterize the early portion (through about 3,000 B.P.) of Component II at Squaw Creek and Component III at Clickapudi (Clewett and Sundahl 1979, 1980, 1981, 1982). All of these components are quite similar in that a wide variety of tool forms are present, including a relatively high frequency of non-utilitarian tools, reflecting a variety of activities at the site. Basgall and Hildebrandt (1987:445) interpret this as reflecting a rather stable version of a forager settlement/subsistence strategy wherein a group moves regularly from one base camp to another located in areas where resources are readily obtained near the base camp. They note that the number of non-utilitarian objects does not fit well with the standard definition of this system (Binford 1980) and suggest that the sites were occupied for relatively lengthy periods each year because a long-lasting warm-dry interval (West 1987:36-55) had created a favorable ecological situation.

The latter part of the Middle Prehistoric Period in this region is represented by the latter part of Component II at Squaw Creek, all of Component II at Clickapudi and the Vollmers phase in the Sacramento Canyon. This phase is characterized by Clickapudi Notched series projectile points. In all of the above areas this phase sees reduced intensity of occupation at individual sites and more diversity of artifact complement between sites. Basgall and Hidebrandt believe that this represents a shift to a fission-fusion adaptive strategy wherein the population gathered in large

residential base camps in the fall and winter, but in the spring divided into small groups that moved regularly to favored collection areas; that is, followed a forager strategy for the rest of the year. The components noted above, therefore, would reflect the smaller, specialized, resource collection camps. Basgall and Hildebrandt (1987: 449-450) believe that the winter base camps related to the Sacramento Canyon sites are located on Clear Creek near Whiskeytown Dam, at sites previously thought to be later in time. These sites include well-developed middens with a diverse artifact assemblage and non-utilitarian artifacts are common.

Late Prehistoric Period

The introduction of the bow and arrow marks the beginning of the Late Prehistoric Period. This is considered a prime temporal marker, since the appearance of smaller projectile points begins almost everywhere at this time *circa* 1700 B.P. to 1500 B.P. In some areas, its introduction is accompanied by a simple reduction in size of the projectile point forms currently used in the region. Elsewhere, the introduction of the bow and arrow apparently came as a package, that is, the style of the new, smaller point forms were completely different from the earlier forms.

Perhaps correlated with the results of the introduction of the bow and arrow, but occurring somewhat later in time depending on the region, was a widespread intensification of resource exploitation. For the southeast Great Basin, Bettinger and Baumhoff (1982) see this as a shift to resources requiring comparatively high energy to process but which are common (i.e., grass seeds), in comparison to those requiring less energy to process but are less common or are more widely distributed (i.e., deer). The shift in the Central Valley is clearly towards acorn processing and an anadromous fishing emphasis, seen in the Northern Valley as the Shasta Complex, which appears to coincide with the movement of the Wintu into the area. In the southern Cascades there appears to be a more conservative response, which Clewett and Sundahl (1983) term the Tehama Complex.

The Tehama Complex reflects a seasonal round similar to the ethnographic for the Yana, i.e., villages are seasonally occupied, there are diversified resource exploitation strategies, and seasonal settlements are located both on major rivers and their tributaries. This seasonal scheduling stands in contrast to that of the Shasta Complex is better correlated with the population increase and intensified resource exploitation characteristic of that period. The villages are permanent, located next to the major rivers, and there is heavy reliance upon anadromous fish and acorns. In the Sacramento Canyon the Mosquito Creek phase reflects this period. Like the preceding Vollmers phase, the sites are relatively small with a limited variety of artifacts, representing the specialized spring-summer camps similar to the Shasta Complex. However, Basgall and Hildebrandt (1987:450-451) are not convinced that these sites represent the Shasta Complex as exemplified in the Redding vicinity and they certainly do not reflect the Tehama Pattern. Farber (1985) also does not accept the Shasta/Tehama dichotomy and argues that the Tehama Complex is, basically, the Shasta Complex adapted to the differing environmental constraints of the foothills versus the valley. This conclusion is drawn from excavations of two sites near Redding (Farber and Neuenschwander 1984; Farber, Ritter and Jensen 1985) where

mano and metate technology, absent in the Shasta Complex according to Sundahl (1982), appears with otherwise typical Shasta Complex materials.

The Late Prehistoric Period in the above areas is heralded by the appearance of the Gunther series, as well as small corner-notched and side-notched point forms believed to be smaller versions of dart point forms that preceded them in this region (Clewett and Sundahl 1983). The Tehama Complex is the earliest appearance of the period in this region and is replaced by the Shasta Complex *circa* 1200 B.P., both in the lower Pit River and upper Sacramento Valley areas. Gunther series points only comprise part of the projectile point forms in the Tehama Complex, but they become dominant in the Shasta Complex. There is a strong southern Cascade influence demonstrated by the small side- and corner-notched point specimens. The relatively few Desert Side Notched and Cottonwood Triangular points are a measure of the lessened Great Basin influence, which clearly is not a major factor.

ETHNOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

Shasta County was home to five major linguistically-related Native American tribes: the Wintu, Yana, Shasta, Achumawi and Atsugewi.

The Wintu are the northernmost dialectical groups of the Wintun, whose territory roughly incorporates the western side of the Sacramento Valley from the Carquinez Straits north to include most of the upper Sacramento River drainage, the McCloud River, and the lower reaches of the Pit River. The Wintun, a collective name, were subdivided into three sub-groups with the Southern, Central, and the Northern dialects known respectively as Patwin, Nomlaki, and Wintu. The area between Cow Creek and the Pit River up at least as far as the western survey parcels was attributed to the Stillwater Wintu (Du Bois 1935:6-9). However, their occupation of this area may be very recent (Dotta 1980:123-124).

Perhaps Yana territory stretched from the Pit River to Rock Creek on the south and from the edge of the upper Sacramento Valley along the eastern tributaries of the Sacramento River to their headwaters. The main landmark in the Yana territory was the peak of Mount Lassen. In general, Yana territory was characterized by a series of volcanic mud flows that were incised by a series of small to medium size drainages. The soil is usually a thin mantle over the volcanic rock making it difficult for vegetation to thrive (Kroeber 1925:338).

The separation of the Yana into the Northern, Central, Southern, and Yahi divisions is based primarily on linguistic differences. While there are many cultural similarities between the Northern and Central divisions their differences from the Southern and Yahi groups were secondary in importance (Johnson 1978:361).

Numerous tribelets existed throughout Yana territory. In most cases, a tribelet consisted of a major village where the principal chief and assembly house were located, and several smaller allied villages. Most villages had their own chief whose status was attained through inheritance. A chief made speeches that were suggestive but not commanding and apparently lacked the power to control, impose his views, or command the obedience of others (Johnson 1978:365).

The Yana's relationship with their neighbors varied. The Yahi Yana people were the principal enemy of the Northern Maidu, but they were on good terms with the Wintu allowing them to hunt and camp in Yahi territory. The Stillwater and McCloud River Wintu, the Northern Maidu, and the Achumawi feared the Northern Yana and considered them aggressors. The Yana never formed large war parties but they would attack another group in reprisal for poaching and to avenge the abduction of women (Johnson 1978:363).

The Shastan peoples controlled the territory along much of the Klamath. In California, three main divisions are recognized; the Scott Valley band, the Shasta Valley band, and the Klamath River band (Silver 1978:211). The Klamath River band controlled the area along the Klamath from its junction with the Scott River in the west to near the present day community of Hornbrook.

The family was the basic social unit, with some villages composed of members from a single family (Silver 1978:214). Each village, and each of the bands, had a headman. The headman would adjudicate disputes, which were rectified by payments of property. If the offender could not pay, it was the responsibility of the headman to pay the settlement, so a certain level of personal wealth was required before one could become a headman.

Each village, and in some cases individual families within a village, had a specific territory where they could collect resources. This included fishing places along the Klamath River, as well as hunting areas, and areas where tobacco (*Nicotiana* spp.) was cultivated.

The Shastan peoples constructed rectangular-shaped, semi-subterranean dwellings for occupation during the winter months. During spring and summer, families moved into brush shelters. When acorns were ready to harvest, and during hunting expeditions, families and/or groups of men would construct bark houses, or would simply camp out (Silver 1978:214). Large villages also had an assembly house, similar in design to the winter occupied structures, and sweathouses, and in some cases a menstrual hut.

The Achumawi, along with the Atsugewi, are combined together to form the group more commonly known as the Pit River Indians. Although sometimes referred to as divisions (Kroeber 1925) or tribes (Merriam 1926; Garth 1953), the Pit River Indians were more accurately bands (Olmstead 1966). Nine of these bands, comprising the Achuwami segment, lived along the middle and upper courses of the Pit River. The total population of the Pit River Indians at the time of contact has been estimated at approximately 3,000 (Kroeber 1925:308). The tribelets were divided into different geographical areas that functioned as individual entities. The members of the individual bands, like each individual tribelet, functioned as an autonomous political unit, though socially they were connected by intermarriage and by consciousness that they spoke a common language not shared by their neighbors (Olmstead and Stewart 1978:230).

Each village functioned as an autonomous political unit. No overall tribal authority existed, though popular chiefs were influential far outside their own areas and could make decisions overriding those of lesser chiefs. Individuals within a village or village complex "owned" plots of land along

the banks of rivers or along the sides of valleys. One man might own a pond used by geese. He also owned those geese, but allowed others to hunt them communally, with him in charge of the hunt. The plots were occupied by family groups who moved seasonally to take advantage of available natural resources such as spawning salmon or ripe berries, for example (Kniffen 1928).

Relationships between and among the Pit River Bands varied. The Atsugewi were normally on the best of terms with immediate neighbors and shared hunting and gathering resources. Unlike most of the Achumawi tribelets, the Atsugewi were on good terms with their non-Pit River neighbors. Groups of Atsugewi, some bands of Achumawi, Yana, and Maidu gathered for salmon harvesting on the Pit River and for acorns and roots in other areas. This fraternization led to frequent intertribal marriages, an important factor in intertribal bonds (Garth 1978:239).

HISTORIC PERIOD BACKGROUND

As a consequence of geographical isolation, the historic era began comparatively late in the Shasta area. Although Spanish explorers and missionaries settled in California in 1769, they remained on the coast, leaving the northeast corner of the state for later exploration. For more than half a century after the Spanish occupied California, Shasta County remained locked in its geographic isolation, a land unknown to all Euro-Americans.

When Mexico established its independence from Spain in 1821, California became a semi-independent colony of the New Mexican Republic; and the Franciscan rule in California began to give way to a new secular order. The leaders in this new order formed another sort of society, a kind of rural patriarchy based upon wealth in cattle, horses, and land, over which presided a closely linked alliance of family leaders, essentially a class of *hidalgos* that sought to expand their own privileges and powers like a frontier type of medieval lord.

This new class of Californio elite also found itself welcoming more and more foreigners to their once isolated communities. The accumulating wealth of these men made them more eager for trade in the fine goods and manufactured luxuries that could not be supplied by Mexico. British and American shipmasters, attracted to the Pacific Coast first for the sea otter trade, diversified and expanded into other industries by exchanging their manufactured goods for the Californios' cattle hides and rendered tallow--products that had a market in the shoe and candle industry in England and New England. By the 1830s, because of this activity, the Californios opened their country to an expanding system of commerce and trade that made it a lively, active outpost of mercantile capitalism on the Pacific Coast.

Initially, these activities did not immediately affect Shasta County, but they did have a distant, indirect impact. Northward, in the Oregon country, the British Hudson's Bay Company had secured its own commercial monopoly by 1821, establishing its headquarters at Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River. The company governor, Dr. John McLoughlin, directed a sophisticated strategy that led his fur hunters to California. Because of his concern to preempt American competitors and secure the Northwest's premium beaver furs for his company, Dr. McLoughlin sent annual expeditions into the Snake River country--a vast region between the Rocky Mountains and the Great Salt Lake on the east and Oregon's Cascade Range on the west. Led by Peter Skene

Ogden, after 1824, these Snake River brigades had orders to trap the beaver to exhaustion in the Snake River drainage and northern Great Basin. Hudson's Bay company men would make their profit and leave the Snake River country barren of furs; thus, giving the American fur hunters no reason to invade this part of the British company's domain (Cline 1974:62-64).

During his 1826-27 expedition with the Snake River brigade, Peter Skene Ogden became the first fur hunter to reach the Pit River. He named the waterway the Pit River because of the number of animal pit traps that the local Indians had constructed. Ogden's exploration opened the area to other trappers. The Americans entered the territory when Jedediah Smith took a southern route into California and trapped his way up the American River, eventually working his way northeast to Fort Vancouver.

As more trappers explored the area, they established several routes of travel. In 1846, by the onset of the war with Mexico, British and American fur traders and immigrants had carried out a substantial exploration of northern California, including the Upper Pit River country and Shasta County, where neither the Spanish nor the Mexican authorities had ventured. The various expeditions, mostly commercial in their objectives, had made clear the geographical outlines of the region, demonstrating among other points, that it was the only stream south of the Columbia River to pass through the Cascade-Sierra mountain barrier from the interior region. These same expeditions had also demonstrated that no resources of important commercial value could be found in the Upper Pit River country to attract immigrants into the region. No longer an unknown land, by 1846 this area still remained well beyond the periphery of development for the expanding Anglo-American civilization.

Pierson B. Reading came west in 1843 with the Chiles-Walker party. Reading passed through Shasta County before eventually arriving at Sutter's Fort. He worked for Sutter for a year and was able to obtain a land grant of 26,000 acres, Rancho Buena Ventura, the most northerly land grant in California, from the Governor Micheltorena. A house was constructed for Reading's overseer of the rancho, in 1845 and the land was stocked with cattle. He later built an adobe on the west bank of the Sacramento River near it confluence with Cottonwood Creek, seven miles east of the community of Cottonwood.

Although Major Reading first discovered gold in Clear Creek in 1848, the area initially did not attract the hoards of miners that descended on Coloma and its environs. Reading's early discovery had proved the existence of profitable placer deposits in this region, making it certain others would also come crowding to sluice the gravels and pan the dark sands of the local rivers and streams.

Shasta County was established in 1850, one of the 27 original counties in California. At first it included all the territory that later became Modoc and Lassen counties, as well as portions of Plumas, Siskyou and Tehama counties. The original County seat was located at Reading's Ranch.

From 1852 through the rest of the nineteenth century, mining became the first, most basic industry in the region. Mining has remained important to the local economy during the twentieth century as well, though periods of renewed productivity have alternated sharply with periods of

decline or even the complete shutdown of mining operations. This pattern of alternating boom and bust, inherent within the precious metals mining industry throughout the American West and worldwide has been exaggerated in the project region by the geological characteristics of its mineral deposits. Predominantly, the mineral wealth of the Shasta area is in the form of copper in deposits of massive sulfide ore that also contain zinc, lead, silver, and gold, among other minerals. Quartz deposits which elsewhere have provided a more stable base for the gold mining economy, are rare within this region (Lydon and O'Brien 1974:17).

The second prominent industry of the Shasta region is lumbering. Like the mining industry, the lumber market was subject to outside influences. Initially, the lumber industry in the area supplied the settlers and miners in the region with wood for constructing houses, wagons, and flumes. The industry grew in spurts in the 1900s. The San Francisco earthquake of 1906 created a surge in the demand for lumber when people were rebuilding, but when San Francisco had been reconstructed, the demand for lumber waned (Lawson 1986:89-92).

The next surge in the lumber industry came with the Unites State's entry into WWI. The country needed lumber for the construction of barracks at training bases and California's resources helped supply that need. Once the army had constructed their barracks, however, the need for lumber subsided once again. WWII brought similar demands on the lumber industry but this demand continued after the war when soldiers returning to the United States wanted to purchase homes made affordable by loans available through the GI Bill. These fluctuations continued. Although there was a slight lull in the market in the 1950s, the 1960s and 1970s brought a rebound to the industry as the Baby Boomers--the children born in the late 1940s and 1950s--reached maturity and started their own families, driving up the demand for new housing. Adding to the demand for construction-grade lumber, some mills also manufactured Novoply, a new type of particleboard invented in the 1970s (Lawson 1986:89-92).

Redding

The Rancho Buena Ventura lands included the future town of Redding. The area that was later to become Redding was originally known as Poverty Flats until the Southern Pacific Railroad built tracks through the future town site and renamed the area Redding, in honor of railroad man Benjamin P. Redding. Locals resisted the new name and in 1874 rechristened the town Reading in honor of the early pioneer. The Southern Pacific prevailed, and by 1880, the community's name was restored to Redding.

The town incorporated in 1887 and had 600 residents. The population by 1910 was 3,572 with many of the residents employed in the nearby copper and iron mines. A decline in these industries during the 1920s led to a decrease in population, but with the construction of the nearby Shasta Dam in the late 1930s, the population recovered and continues to increase to this day (Wikipedia n.d.).

Anderson

Elias Anderson purchased the American Ranch, as it had become to be known, in 1856, and on his land grew the nucleus of what is now the City of Anderson. The American Ranch was an early stopping place for travelers and traders on the old California-Oregon Road (Hoover, Rensch and Rensch 1970:485, 488).

By 1881, the town of Anderson had 225 residents, with two hotels, three blacksmith shops, a wagon shop, a harness shop, three saloons and a flour mill. A post office was established at American Ranch in 1855, and then was transferred to Anderson in 1878.

In 1872, Elias Anderson granted a right-of-way for the California and Oregon Railroad (now Southern Pacific Railroad) through his property (Gudde 1969:10).

KNOWN CULTURAL RESOURCES IN SHASTA COUNTY

According to the Northeast Information Center of the California Historical Resources Information system, as of August 2008, 4,471 cultural resources identified within Shasta County have been assigned primary identification numbers. This includes cultural resources that are assigned primary numbers only (isolated artifacts, resources that lack complete documentation, State Landmarks) and those resources that are more comprehensive in nature and have been documented to standards established by the Office of Historic Preservation. This second category receives both a permanent and primary number.

Site types present, or expected to exist, within Shasta County include prehistoric period occupation areas (both short and long term), burial areas, ceremonial areas, resource collection and processing sites, lithic scatters, quarries, rock art sites, trails, and isolated examples of prehistoric period artifacts.

For the historic period, cultural resources may include post-contact Native American occupation and ceremonial areas, trails, roads, railroads, small and large-scale mining features, logging features, occupation areas (short and long term), buildings, structures, water conveyance features (ditches), quarries, Shasta Dam construction-related features, trash dumps, and cemeteries.

In general, prehistoric period cultural resources were situated in the most favored environmental settings—areas adjacent to permanent water sources such as the Sacramento and Pit rivers, with relatively level topography. This is also true of most historic period resources, with the exception of mining related features and settlements where the discovery of a mineral deposit did not always correspond with a favored environmental setting. It is important to note that a lower sensitivity area could still contain resources, and the review of all areas proposed for impact should always be indicated.

KNOWN CULTURAL RESOURCES WITHIN THE PROJECT SITE

A Cultural Resources Inventory (CRI) was prepared for the proposed project in October 2007 by ENPLAN. Letters requesting comment on the project were sent to seven organizations and individuals on September 12, 2007. The following is the list of these groups and individuals.

- Anderson Historical Society
- President, Shasta Historical Society
- Chairman, Wintu Tribe of Northern California
- Robert Burns, Wintu Education and Cultural Council
- James Hayward Sr., Redding Rancheria, Cultural Resources Program
- Carol Sinclair
- Loretta Root

ENPLAN received responses from the Anderson Historical Society, the Shasta Historical Society, and the Wintu Education and Cultural Council. The Anderson Historical Society indicated that they had no information or concerns regarding cultural resources within the project. The Shasta Historical Society responded with historic photographs taken within the project area, but did not identify any known historic resources within the project area. Mr. Robert Burns with the Wintu Education and Cultural Council expressed concerns regarding the potential to uncover artifacts, but was satisfied with the explanation that no excavation would take place. Engineering plans were later changed which would require removal and replacement of existing fill material. Mr. Burns was contacted again to determine if he had concerns regarding the removal and replacement of fill. No response was received.

The CRI was peer reviewed to evaluate the methods, results, and recommendations of the CRI. The peer review was completed by Melinda Peak of Peak and Associates. Ms. Peak is a registered professional historian with a Bachelor's degree in Anthropology from the University of California, Berkeley and a Master's degree history at California State University, Sacramento. Through her education and experience, Ms. Peak meets the Secretary of Interior Standards for historian, architectural historian, prehistoric archeologist and historic archeologist. The peer review completed for this project determined that the CRI completed by ENPLAN in October 2007 was valid and met the requirements of CEQA.

NATIVE AMERICAN CONCERNS

There are two independent Rancherias, Roaring Creek Rancheria and the Redding Rancheria, and three others, Big Bend Rancheria, Lookout Rancheria, and Montgomery Creek Rancheria that are affiliated with the Pit River Tribe. The Pit River Tribe was federally recognized in 1976 and has eleven bands, each with a voting member (Pritzker, 2000).

As stated above, a Cultural Resources Inventory (CRI) was prepared for the proposed project. The CRI analyzed potential impacts to Native American cultural resources and included a Sacred Lands Search Request submitted to the Native American Heritage Commission (NAHC). The NAHC responded that a search of sacred land files failed to indicate the presence of Native American cultural resources in the immediate project area. Request for comment was sent to persons and

organizations listed above. Mr. Robert Burns of the Wintu Education and Cultural Council expressed concerns regarding the potential to uncover artifacts, but was satisfied with the explanation that no excavation would take place. When engineering plans were modified to include excavation activities, Mr. Burns was contacted but did not respond.

3.4.2 REGULATORY SETTING

FEDERAL

National Historic Preservation Act

The National Historic Preservation Act was enacted in 1966 as a means to protect cultural resources that are eligible to be listed on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The law sets forth criterion that is used to evaluate the eligibility of cultural resources. The NRHP is composed of districts, sites, buildings, structures, objects, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture that are significant to American History.

Virtually any physical evidence of past human activity can be considered a cultural resource. Although not all such resources are considered to be significant and eligible for listing, they often provide the only means of reconstructing the human history of a given site or region, particularly where there is no written history of that area or that period. Consequently, their significance is judged largely in terms of their historical or archaeological interpretive values. Along with research values, cultural resources can be significant, in part, for their aesthetic, educational, cultural and religious values.

STATE

California Register of Historic Resources

The California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR) was established in 1992 and codified in the Public Resource Code Sections 5020, 5024 and 21085. The law creates several categories of properties that may be eligible for the CRHR. Certain properties are included in the program automatically, including: properties listed in the NRHP; properties eligible for listing in the NRHP; and certain classes of State Historical Landmarks. Determining the CRHR eligibility of historic and prehistoric properties is guided by CCR Section 15064.5(b) and Public Resources Code (PRC) Sections 21083.2 and 21084.1. NRHP eligibility is based on similar criteria outlined in Section 106 of the NHPA (16 U.S. Code [USC] 470).

Cultural resources, under CRHR and NRHP guidelines, are defined as buildings, sites, structures, or objects that may have historical, architectural, archaeological, cultural, or scientific importance. A cultural resource may be eligible for listing on the CRHR and/or NRHP 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 in prehistory or history.

If a prehistoric or historic period cultural resource does not meet any of the four CRHR criteria, but does meet the definition of a "unique" site as outlined in PRC Section 21083.2, it may still be treated as a significant resource if it is an archaeological artifact, object or site about which it can be clearly demonstrated that, without merely adding to the current body of knowledge, there is a high probability that it meets any of the following criteria:

- it contains information needed to answer important scientific research questions,
- there is a demonstrable public interest in that information,
- it has a special and particular quality such as being the oldest of its type or the best available example of its type, or
- it is directly associated with a scientifically recognized important prehistoric or historic event.

California Environmental Quality Act

CEQA Guidelines Section 15064.5 provides guidance for determining the significance of impacts to archaeological and historical resources. Demolition or material alteration of a historical resource, including archaeological sites, is generally considered a significant impact. Determining the CRHR eligibility of historic and prehistoric properties is guided by CCR Section 15064.5(b) and Public Resources Code (PRC) Sections 21083.2 and 21084.1. NRHP eligibility is based on similar criteria outlined in Section 106 of the NHPA (16 U.S. Code [USC] 470).

CEQA also provides for the protection of Native American human remains (CCR Section15064.5[d]). Native American human remains are also protected under the Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990 (25 USC 3001 et seq.), which requires federal agencies and certain recipients of federal funds to document Native American human remains and cultural items within their collections, notify Native American groups of their holdings, and provide an opportunity for repatriation of these materials. This act also requires plans for dealing with potential future collections of Native American human remains and associated funerary objects, sacred objects, and objects of cultural patrimony that might be uncovered as a result of development projects overseen or funded by the federal government.

Assembly Bill 978

In 2001, Assembly Bill (AB) 978 expanded the reach of Native American Graves Protection and Repatriation Act of 1990 and established a state commission with statutory powers to assure that federal and state laws regarding the repatriation of Native American human remains and items of patrimony are fully complied with. In addition, AB 978 also included non-federally recognized tribes for repatriation.

LOCAL

Shasta County General Plan

The September 2004 Shasta County General Plan contains a Heritage Resources Element that intends to, "….identify and protect sites and structures of architectural, historical, archaeological, or cultural significance" (Shasta County General Plan 2004:6.10.1). The 2004 General Plan Heritage Resource Element has a sole objective; the protection of significant and historic cultural resources (Shasta County General Plan 2004:6.10.3). To accomplish this objective, Shasta County has adopted Policy HER-a, "Development projects in areas of known heritage shall be designed to minimize degradation to these resources. Where conflicts are unavoidable, mitigation measures which reduce such impacts shall be implemented. Possible mitigation measures may include clustering, buffer or non-disturbance zones, and building sitting requirements" (Shasta County General Plan 2004:6.10.4).

3.4.3 IMPACTS AND MITIGATION MEASURES

THRESHOLDS OF SIGNIFICANCE

Consistent with Appendix G of the CEQA Guidelines, the proposed project is considered to have a significant impact on cultural resources if it will:

- Cause a substantial adverse change in the significance of a historical resource as defined in CEQA Guidelines §15064.5;
- Cause a substantial adverse change in the significance of archaeological resource pursuant to CEQA Guidelines §15064.5;
- Directly or indirectly destroy a unique paleontological resource;
- Disturb any human remains, including those interred outside of formal cemeteries.

IMPACTS AND MITIGATION MEASURES

Impact 3.4-1: Cause a substantial adverse change to a significant historical or archaeological resource, or directly or indirectly destroy or disturb a unique paleontological resource or human remains (Less than Significant with Mitigation)

As described above, there are no known cultural, historical, archaeological or paleontological resources or human remains on the project site.

The CRI, completed by ENPLAN in October 2007, included research, correspondence, and field investigations. While the project site is not expected to contain any cultural or paleontological resources or human remains, there is the possibility that excavation and construction activities could adversely affect unknown cultural resources directly or indirectly. The CRI recommended that a qualified archaeologist inspect the native soils beneath the fill material once the fill has been excavated (ENPLAN 2007:10).

Compliance with Mitigation Measure 3.4-1 will reduce **potentially significant** effects to significant historical or archaeological resources, paleontological resources, or human remains to a less than significant level.

MITIGATION MEASURES

Mitigation Measure 3.4-1: The following measures shall be included on all project construction plans and shall be adhered to throughout project site work.

a) *A qualified archaeologist shall inspect the native soils once they have been exposed through excavation and prior to backfilling. If cultural resources are identified at that point, a qualified archaeologist shall document the resources and recommend/implement mitigation measures as necessary.*

b) *If any cultural resources (i.e., human bone or burnt animal bone, midden soils, projectile points, humanly-modified lithics, historic artifacts, etc.) are encountered during any phase of construction, all earth-disturbing work shall stop within 100 feet of the find. The Shasta County Planning Department shall be notified and l a qualified archaeologist shall make an assessment of the discovery and recommend/implement mitigation measures as necessary. Shasta County shall consider mitigation recommendations presented by a qualified archaeologist that meets the Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards in prehistoric or historical archaeology for any unanticipated discoveries. The County and the project applicant shall consult and agree upon implementation of a measure or measures that the City and project applicant deem feasible and appropriate. Such measures may include avoidance, preservation in place, excavation, documentation, curation, data recovery, or other appropriate measures. The project applicant shall be required to implement any mitigation necessary for the protection of cultural resources.*

c) *If human remains are discovered, all work shall be halted immediately within 50 meters (165 feet) of the discover and the Shasta County Planning Department and the County Coroner shall be notified, according to Section 5097.98 of the State Public Resources Code and Section 7050.5 of California's Health and Safety Code. If the remains are determined to be Native American, the coroner will notify the Native American Heritage Commission, and the procedures outlined in CEQA Section 15064.5(d) and (e) shall be followed.*

d) *Prior to the commencement of project excavations, all construction personnel shall read and sign an agreement that describes and protects Native American remains and any/all potential, subsurface cultural resources.*

e) *In the event that project plans change to include areas not surveyed, additional reconnaissance shall be required prior to any earth-disturbing activities to identify any potential cultural or paleontological resources or human remains. If any cultural resources are identified, Shasta County shall consider mitigation recommendations presented by a qualified archaeologist that meets the Secretary of the Interior's Professional Qualifications Standards in prehistoric or historical archaeology for any unanticipated discoveries. The County and the project applicant shall consult and agree upon implementation of a measure or measures that the City and project applicant deem feasible and appropriate. Such measures may include avoidance, preservation in place, excavation, documentation, curation, data recovery, or other*

appropriate measures. The project applicant shall be required to implement any mitigation necessary for the protection of cultural resources.

SIGNIFICANCE AFTER MITIGATION

While the project is not anticipated to result in impacts to any cultural or historical resources, implementation of Mitigation Measure 3.4-1 would ensure that if any previously unknown resources are discovered during construction activities, those resources will be analyzed and protected by a qualified archaeologist, as appropriate. Implementation of this measure would ensure that the project would result in **less than significant** impacts to cultural and historical resources.