

Cultural Resources Supplemental Information

Material contained in this appendix is auxiliary to Chapter 7, Cultural Resources, and is intended to provide a better understanding of the historical and sociocultural events that led to the current cultural climate in the Project area.

Record Searches

Source materials consulted for the Cultural Resources evaluation include both the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP) and California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR) (CAL/OHP, 2002), the California History Plan (CAL/OHP, 1973), the California Inventory of Historic Resources (CAL/OHP, 1976), California Historical Landmarks (CAL/OHP, 1990), an ethnic sites survey (CAL/OHP, 1988), and California Points of Historical Interest (CAL/OHP, 1992). Several local planning documents were also reviewed for potential conflicts between locally known/recorded resources and proposed PG&E project features.

CHRIS reports examined for this Project include: Anastasio, et al. (1988), Archaeological Consulting and Research Services (1977, 1979, n.d.a, n.d.b), Archaeological Resource Management (1997), Avina (2000), Baker (1979), Baker and Hill (1998), Banks (1982, 1983), Basin Research Associates (1981), Cartier (1978), Chavez (1977a,b), Chavez and Hupman (1991), Clark (1979, 1992, 2000a,b,c,d), Desgrandchamp and Orlins (1990), Dietz (1974, 1976a,b), Dowdall (1991a,b), Drake (1942), Fitzgerald (1986), Harmon (1999), Holman (1988, 1990), Hylkema (1996), Losee (2001), McHale (1999), Melandry (1980), Moratto (1974), Newland (1999), Pastron (1993), Rice (1994a,b), Roop and Bacchetti (1997), Salzman (1984), Shoup, et al. (1994a,b), Shoup (1989), Solari (1992), Wilson (1974), and Young (1976).

Public Resources Code and Other State Regulations

- California Public Resources Code Section 5020.1 defines several terms, including the following: (j) “Historical resource” and (q) “Substantial adverse change” means demolition, destruction, relocation, or alteration such that the significance of a historical resource would be impaired.
- California Public Resources Code Section 5024.1 establishes a California Register of Historical Resources (CRHR).
- California Public Resources Code Section 5097.5 states that any unauthorized removal or destruction of archaeological or paleontologic resources on sites located on public land is a misdemeanor. As used in this section, “public lands” means lands owned by, or under the jurisdiction of, the state, or any city, county, district, authority, or public corporation, or any agency thereof.
- California Public Resources Code Section 5097.98 defines procedures for notification of discovery of Native American artifacts or remains and for the disposition of such materials. If the county coroner determines that the remains are Native American, the

coroner is required to contact the NAHC, which is then required to determine the “Most Likely Descendant” to inspect the burial and to make recommendations for treatment or disposition of the remains and any associated burial items.

- California Public Resources Code Section 5097.99 prohibits obtaining or possessing Native American artifacts or human remains taken from a grave or cairn and sets penalties for these actions.
- California Health and Safety Code, section 7050.5. If human remains are discovered during construction, the project owner is required to contact the county coroner.
- California Public Resources Code Section 097.991 states that it is the policy of the state that Native American remains and associated grave artifacts shall be repatriated.
- California Public Resources Code Section 21000, *et seq.* CEQA, requires the analysis of potential environmental impacts of proposed projects and requires application of feasible mitigation measures.
- California Public Resources Code Section 21083.2 states that if a project may affect a resource that has not met the definition of a historical resource set forth in section 21084, then the lead agency may determine whether a project may have a significant effect on “unique” archaeological resources; if so, an EIR shall address these resources. If a potential for damage to unique archaeological resources can be demonstrated, the lead agency may require reasonable steps to preserve the resource in place. Otherwise, mitigation measures shall be required as prescribed in this section. The section discusses excavation as mitigation; limits the applicant’s cost of mitigation; sets time frames for excavation; defines “unique and non-unique archaeological resources”; and provides for mitigation of unexpected resources.
- California Public Resources Code Section 21084.1 indicates that a project may have a significant effect on the environment if it causes a substantial adverse change in the significance of a historic resource; the section further defines a “historical resource” and describes what constitutes a “significant” historical resource.
- CEQA Guidelines, Title 14, California Code of Regulations (CCR), Section 15126.4 “Consideration and Discussion of Mitigation Measures Proposed to Minimize Significant Effects” sub-section (b) discusses impacts of maintenance, repair, stabilization, restoration, conservation, or reconstruction of a historical resource. Subsection (b) also discusses mitigation through avoidance of damaging effects on any historical resource of an archaeological nature, preferably by preservation in place, or by data recovery through excavation if avoidance or preservation in place is not feasible. Data recovery must be conducted in accordance with an adopted data recovery plan.
- CEQA Guidelines, Title 14, CCR Section 15064.5 “Determining the Significance of Impacts to Archaeological and Historical Resources.” Subsection (a) defines the term “historical resources.” Subsection (b) explains when a project may be deemed to have a significant effect on historical resources and defines terms in describing those situations. Subsection (c) describes CEQA applicability to archaeological sites and provides a bridge between the application of the terms “historical” resources and a “unique” archaeological resource.

- CEQA Guidelines, Title 14, CCR Section 15064.7 “Thresholds of Significance.” This section encourages agencies to develop thresholds of significance to be used in determining potential impacts and defines the term “cumulatively significant.”
- California Penal Code Section 622.1/2. Anyone who willfully damages an object or thing of archaeological or historic interest can be found guilty of a misdemeanor.

Cultural Classification Periods

CCTS

Moratto (1984) suggests the Early Horizon dated to ca. 4,500 to 3,500/3,000 years ago with the Middle Horizon dating to ca. 3,500 to 1,500 years ago and the Late Horizon dating to ca. 1,500 to 250 years ago. The Early Horizon is the most poorly known of the period with relatively few sites known or investigated. Early Horizon traits include hunting, fishing, use of milling stones to process plant foods, use of a throwing board and spear (“atlatl”), relative absence of culturally affected soils (midden) at occupation sites, and elaborate burials with numerous grave offerings.

Middle Horizon sites are more common and usually have deep stratified deposits that contain large quantities of ash, charcoal, fire-altered rocks, and fish, bird and mammal bones. Significant numbers of mortars and pestles signal a shift to plant foods from reliance on hunted animal foods. Middle Horizon peoples generally buried their dead in a fetal position and only small numbers of graves contain artifacts (and these are most often utilitarian). Increased violence is suggested by the number of burials with projectile points embedded in the bones or with other marks of violence.

The Late Horizon emerged from the Middle Horizon with continued use of many early traits and the introduction of several new traits. Late Horizon sites are the most common and are noted for their greasy soils (midden) mixed with bone and fire-altered rocks. The use of the bow-and-arrow, fetal-position burials, deliberately damaged (“killed”) grave offerings and occasional cremation of the dead are the best known traits of this horizon.

Acorn and seed gathering dominated the subsistence pattern with short and long-distance trade carried out to secure various raw materials. Compared to earlier peoples, Late Horizon groups were short statured with finer bone structure; possible evidence of the replacement of original Hokan speakers by Penutian speaking groups ca. 1,500 years ago.

Chartkoff and Chartkoff

Chartkoff and Chartkoff’s (1984) scheme is also used by archaeologists (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

The Chartkoff and Chartkoff (1984) Model of Cultural Periods in California

Pre-Archaic Period - 11,500-9,000 B.C.
Pre-Archaic populations were small and their subsistence included big game hunting of now extinct mammoth and mastodon. Research indicates that the Pre-Archaic economies were based on a wide-ranging hunting and

TABLE 2
The Chartkoff and Chartkoff (1984) Model of Cultural Periods in California

gathering strategy, dependent to a large extent on local lake-marsh or lacustrine habitats.
Early to Middle Archaic Period - 9,000-4,000 B.C.
During the Early and Middle Archaic periods, prehistoric cultures began to put less emphasis on large-game hunting. Subsistence economies probably diversified somewhat, and Archaic era people may have started using such ecological zones as the coast littoral more intensively than before. Advances in technology (milling stones) indicate that new food processing methods became important, enabling more efficient use of certain plant foods, including grains and plants with hard seeds.
Late Archaic Period - 4,000-2,000 B.C.
An important technological advance was the discovery of a tannin-removal process for the abundant and nutritious acorns. Prehistoric trade networks developed and diversified, bringing raw materials and finished goods from one region to another. Resource exploitation, as during the Early and Middle Archaic, was generally seasonal. Bands moved between established locations within a clearly defined/defended territory, scheduling resource harvests according to their availability. Clustering of food resources along the shores of large lakes or the banks of major fish-producing rivers allowed for larger seasonal population aggregates. Dispersed resources, such as large and small game, during the winter prompted small family groups to disperse across the landscape for more efficient food harvesting. The spear thrower (atlatl) may have been introduced or increased in importance, accounting for a change in projectile point styles from the Western Stemmed to the Pinto and Humboldt series. Seed grinding increased in importance.
Early and Middle Pacific Periods - 2,000 B.C.-A.D. 500
The Pacific Period is marked by the advent of acorn meal as the most important staple food. Increasing population densities made it desirable and necessary for Indian populations to produce more food from available land and to seek more dependable food supplies. The increasing use of seed grinding and acorn leaching allowed for the exploitation of more dependable food resources; increased use of previously neglected ecological zones (the middle and high Sierran elevations) may also have been part of this trend.
Late Pacific Period – A.D. 500-1400
Around A.D. 500 – 600, a cultural watershed was triggered by the introduction of the bow and arrow, which replaced the spear thrower and dart as the hunting tool/weapon of choice. The most useful time markers for this period tend to be small projectile points/arrow tips. Another trend is the marked shift from portable manos/metates to bedrock mortars/pestles (Moratto, 1984). Moratto, et al. (1978) demonstrated that this was a time of cultural stress, during which trading activity abated, warfare was common, and populations shifted away from the Sierra Nevada foothills to higher mountain elevations. They explain these changes in terms of rapid climatic fluctuations, including a drier climate and a corresponding shift of vegetation zones.
Final Pacific Period - A.D. 1400-1789
Populations became increasingly sedentary and depended more on staple foods, even as the diversity of foods exploited increased. Permanent settlements with high populations were more common. Every available ecological niche was exploited, at least on a seasonal basis. Other trends included the resurgence of long-distance trade networks and the development of more complex social and political systems.

Coastanoan Tribes

The Coastanoan people, who occupied present-day San Mateo County, were divided into tribelets. In 1770, these tribelets were politically autonomous groups with from 50-500 individuals and an average population of 200. Tribelet territories, defined by physiographic features, usually had one or more permanent villages surrounded by a number of temporary camps. The camps were used to exploit seasonally available floral and faunal resources (Levy 1978:485, 487).

Each tribelet that occupied present-day San Mateo County varied in population from 80 to 300 individuals and contained two to five permanent villages of equal size. As the seasons

changed, groups left these major villages for temporary camps scattered throughout the tribelet territory in order to fish, hunt and collect plant foods (Milliken 1983:120; Salzman 1984:37-38). The permanent villages were located next to creeks, the Bay and the Pacific Coast. Creekside sweathouses as well as large, conical, thatched, semi-subterranean dance houses and assembly houses, often capable of accommodating the entire tribal population, were located at these major villages. The most visible dwellings were small, domed, grass or tule-thatched living quarters constructed on a bent-pole framework. Some tribelets also built structures of split redwood or redwood bark (Levy 1978:492; Kroeber 1925:468).

Extensive ethnographic data on the Costanoans are lacking since the aboriginal lifeway apparently disappeared by 1810. The rapid disruption of the aboriginal lifeway was due to factors such as new diseases, a declining birthrate, and the cataclysmic impact of the mission system and the later secularization of the missions by the Mexican government. The Costanoans were transformed from hunters and gatherers into agricultural laborers who lived at the missions and worked with former neighboring groups such as the Yokut, Miwok, and Patwin (Levy 1978:486). Later, because of the secularization of the missions by Mexico in 1834, most of the aboriginal population gradually moved to ranchos to work as manual laborers (Levy 1978:486). Thus, multi-ethnic Indian communities grew up in and around Costanoan territory and it was these people who provided ethnological data in the period from 1878 to 1933. For a more extensive review of the Costanoan, see Brown (1994), Cook (1940, 1943), Harrington (1942), C. King (1977, 1978), T. King (1973), King and Hickman (1973), Kroeber 1925:462-473), Levy (1978:48-495), Margolin (1978), and Milliken (1983, 1995).

Historical Setting

Spanish Period

Spanish explorers in the late 1760s and 1770s were the first Europeans to traverse the San Francisco Peninsula. Gaspar de Portola and Father Juan Crespi traveled up the coast in search of Monterey Bay. In the fall of 1769, they first sighted San Francisco Bay from a Peninsula ridge. Sergeant Jose Francisco Ortega scouted the area although his exact route remains uncertain (Beck and Haase 1974:17). Fernando Javier Rivera and Father Francisco Palou reached the Peninsula in late 1774. They selected the Palo Alto area for a mission site, but continued to travel north to San Francisco. The same route was followed by Heceta in 1775 (Beck and Haase 1974:17). In September 1775 Heceta and Fray Francisco Palou passed the mountain which historians believe was named for Heceta's patron saint "Bruno" (Stanger 1963:8-10 in Baker and Shoup 1988).

Despite Rivera and Palou's recommendations, the lack of a deep harbor near Palo Alto prompted the establishment of both the mission and presidio in San Francisco. In 1776, Colonel Juan Bautista de Anza and Father Pedro Font traveled from Monterey to San Francisco to select the settlement sites. Font who accompanied Anza's expedition commented in his diary on the existence of "a good-sized village situated on the banks of the arroyo of San Matheo." They camped at the banks of the creek at Arroyo Court and the north side of Third Avenue (California 1976:124, 262; California 1982:126, Landmark 47; Hart 1978:382). A few months after the return of Anza and Font to Monterey, Lieutenant Jose Moraga led a party of 193 colonists up the Peninsula to settle at the mission and

presidio, also camping on San Mateo Creek en route (Hynding 1982:17-19). Father Palou noted an attack and burning of the large town occupied by San Francisco “northerners” by the “southerners” of the multi-village *salson* tribelet of San Mateo (Palou 1926:4:135). Thus, the *salson* group appears to have been territorially distinct and aggressive.

Within the province of Alta California, the missions, presidios, pueblos, and ranchos were used to settle the land. Of the four, the missions were the most successful. Starting in 1769, 21 missions were established by the Franciscan priests along the coast between San Diego and San Francisco. The first task of the missions was to Christianize the natives, but they also became the main force behind the economic development of Spanish California (Gentilcore 1961:46-72). In contrast to the missions, only three presidios were established because of the difficulty of recruiting soldiers for these remote outposts. The presidios served as a token line of defense for the missions (Chapman 1930:383-396; Findlay 1985:4).

The Ohlone were brought by force to the Spanish missions and throughout the mission period experienced cataclysmic changes in their lifeways. As a result of introduced diseases and a declining birth rate, their population fell from more than 10,000 in 1770 to less than 2,000 by 1831. Analysis of baptismal records indicates that the last Ohlone living a traditional existence had disappeared by 1810 and that their subsistence practices were largely supplanted by the mission agricultural economy (Levy 1978:486).

Mission San Francisco de Asis (Mission Dolores) was formally established in 1776 as the 6th of the 21 California missions (Beck and Haase 1974:19; Hart 1978:388). As one of 7 missions located within Costanoan territory, Mission San Francisco probably had the greatest impact on the aboriginal population living in the vicinity (Hart 1978:96). It provided for all the religious needs of the Peninsula until the American Period. By 1800, almost all the Native Americans of the Peninsula had been brought into the mission fold, and as a result the mission area became overcrowded.

The process of converting the natives was highly successful at Mission San Francisco. In addition, the sandy and windswept land made for poor farming, so in the 1780s Palou established a rancheria in San Pedro Valley to re-settle the neophytes and provide food for both the mission and presidio (Hynding 1982:19-20). This settlement was successful until 1791, when an epidemic decimated the native population. Soldiers from the presidio were sent out to round up new converts from the East Bay, and soon a new rancheria was established in San Mateo (Hynding 1982:22).

In 1793, an adobe was built at the rancheria near San Mateo Creek along El Camino Real, the trail which connected the San Francisco outpost with Monterey. This “Hospice” or Outpost of Mission Dolores also functioned as a waystation from Santa Clara to Mission Dolores (California 1976:138; California 1982:127, Landmark #393). In addition, a 1797 report to the Spanish viceroy noted that San Bruno Mountain was one of six good pastures available to the mission. As a consequence, the area south of the mountain in the 1830s was called Rodeo Viejo, that is, “old roundup corral” (Baker and Shoup 1988:3).

By 1800, 30 mission-trained Indians were living in and around the San Mateo Creek adobe. Under occasional supervision by mission fathers, these neophytes raised wheat, corn, and vegetables, and tended herds of sheep and cattle. Soon other outlying herding stations were established on the east side of the Peninsula, each run by a handful of Indian workers living

in one or two huts. The San Mateo rancheria was by far the largest of these agricultural outposts, as well as a stopping place for travelers on El Camino Real (Hynding 1982:2-23). In 1810, the San Mateo adobe was destroyed by an earthquake and a new larger adobe was built in its place (Hynding 1982:23). A 1850 drawing illustrates the large adobe adjacent to the ruins of the original (Stanger 1944:246, 248), and a 1866 maps locates the adobe at the intersection of El Camino Real and Baywood Avenue (Stanger 1944:247). Excavations at the southwest corner of El Camino Real and Baldwin/Baywood Avenue confirmed the presence of Hispanic Period cultural material in the area (Debutz, Drake, and Bonet 1942).

Mexican Period

During the Spanish Period (1769-1820), the philosophy government was directed at the founding of presidios, missions, and pueblos with the land held by the Crown whereas the later Mexican policy stressed individual ownership of the land (Findlay 1985). During the Mexican Period (1822-1846) vast tracts of land were granted to individuals. On the Peninsula, 18 ranchos were granted from mission lands (Hynding 1982:29-30). The general trend for granting rancho lands was to give away the lands farthest from the missions first (Broek 1932:41); however, the Project area was not granted for many years, perhaps because of the Native Americans who still lived there and worked the lands. For a time, it was thought that the Mexican government might grant the former neophytes some of the mission lands (Hart 1978:276; Stanger 1944:255; Stanger 1963:50).

The Project corridors span a number of former ranchos including *Rancho Pulgas*, *San Mateo*, *Buri Buri*, and *Cañada de Guadalupe la Visitacion y Rodeo Viejo* (from south to north).

Known adobe structures in the vicinity of Rancho San Mateo include the 1793 adobe “Hospice” or Outpost of Mission Dolores built at the rancheria near San Mateo Creek along El Camino Real. During part of the Mexican Period, the former “Hospice” and later San Mateo adobe remained in the hands of the few Indians left to work at the ranchos. In 1830, the adobe was described as occupied by Indian and in a poor state of repair with “...bones and refuse scattered everywhere” (Hendry and Bowman 1940:1012).

After the secularization of the missions in 1833, the mission fathers lost control over the rancheria. According to Hendry and Bowman, the adobe had been more or less abandoned in 1836, while Brown stated that in 1835 the ranch legally became an Indian settlement. The Indians were expelled around 1852 around the same time the beginnings of the present city appeared south of the creek (Brown 197:84).

No roads, adobe or *palizada* structures of the Hispanic Period are known to have existed on or adjacent to the proposed Project alignments. *Palizada* structures, a Spanish variant of the Kentucky log house, were constructed of poles set upright in the ground and bound together with leather thongs, and were roofed with earth or thatch and sometimes whitewashed in the interior with lime made from sea shells. These structures were not very durable and were normally replaced with adobe brick buildings as soon as conditions permitted the construction of permanent buildings (Kirker 1973:2).

American Period

Beginning in the mid-19th century, most of the rancho and pueblo lands in California were subdivided as the result of population growth, the American takeover and confirmation of

property titles. The initial population explosion on the Peninsula was associated with the Gold Rush (1848), followed later by the completion of the transcontinental railroad (1869), and construction of local railroads. Still later, European immigration and the development of a prosperous dairy industry had an impact on population growth in the area. Until about World War II, San Mateo County was dominated by a predominantly agricultural or rural land-use pattern.

The former ranchos underwent a transformation in concert with the growth of transportation systems, the City of San Francisco and other towns in San Mateo County. These major transportation nodes included El Camino Real, former toll roads and later the San Jose and San Francisco Railroad in 1863 (later Southern Pacific Railroad 1906-1907), the electric service in 1903 and the Bayshore Highway. The Project alignments proceed through portions of Brisbane, Daly City, Colma, South San Francisco, San Bruno, Millbrae, Burlingame, San Mateo and rural uplands west of Belmont, San Carlos and Woodside near the Crystal Springs Reservoirs. In large part, the San Francisco 1906 earthquake and fire and post-World War II eras were periods of notable growth of Peninsula communities.

The San Mateo adobe continued to play a part during the America Period. In 1849, Nicholas DePeyster moved into the abandoned mission building, repaired it, and converted it into an inn. Not long after DePeyster opened his inn, William Howard took control of the property and forced him to leave, whereupon DePeyster moved across San Mateo Creek and built a new inn, known as San Mateo House (at 2nd and El Camino)(Hynding 1982:53-54). San Mateo House served as a major way station for the Butterfield Overland Mail Stages (California 1973b:164; Gebhard et al. 1985:134). Howard drove off the remaining Indians who had been living around the adobe. The building lasted until 1868 when it was destroyed in an earthquake; it was demolished and cleared as a result.

San Mateo County was created in 1856 from the southern part of San Francisco County and enlarged by annexing part of Santa Cruz County in 1868 (Hart 1978:383). The San Bruno toll road, predecessor of Bayshore Highway, was built along the bayshore east of the proposed Project alignment ca. 1860. This thoroughfare attracted entrepreneurs who combined the services of hotels, restaurant, store and resort along the toll road (Baker and Shoup 1988:5 after Stanger 1946:51; see Stanger 1963:64-69).

San Mateo began to develop in the 1860s. For the most part, the cultural landscape consisted of large estates and farms from San Francisco to Palo Alto. Wealthy San Franciscans bought up portions of *Pulgas Rancho* south of Rancho San Mateo and developed large estates. Charles Polhemus, a director of the San Francisco-San Jose Railroad (SFSJ RR) which ran through San Mateo, had William Lewis plan the town in 1862 around the railroad depot (Lewis 1862; Hynding 1982:92-93). San Mateo developed into a “business district” in the middle of farm country, complete with “waterfront and shipping industry located where [San Mateo] Creek became a tidal slough.” The city was laid out by Polhemus in 1863 when the SFSJ RR was built and the first train arrived at San Mateo Station on October 18, 1863 and accelerated growth in the area (Gudde 1969:290).

Burlingame was named in 1868 by William C. Ralston for his friend Anson Burlingame (1822-1870) who was a well known orator, diplomat and Minister to China in 1867-1870 (Gudde 1969:43) and as a result of his efforts, Chinese laborers were imported into California to work on the railroads. In 1866, Senator William Sharon acquired most of

Ralston's land west of the highway. Ralston's dairy became Sharon's Dairy and supplied the renowned Palace Hotel in San Francisco. In 1875, the eastern part of the tract was purchased by William Corbitt who established the famous San Mateo Stock Farm, including horse breeding. A town plat with a three square block business section east of the railroad was drawn in 1876 but was not develop as projected (Stanger 1946:73). Early Burlingame improvements were limited to a railroad depot with post office and the Burlingame Country Club for the residents of outlying country estates (Stanger 1946:73).

In 1860, Ansel I. Easton purchased 1500 acres between Sanchez Avenue to Adeline Drive and from Bay to Spring Valley Lakes and christened his property "Black Hawk Ranch" and built a race track with other horse breeders north of present Broadway (east of the railroad track). This race track was sometimes called Shell Park Track because of the shell material used originated from Indian mounds (Stanger 1946:75). Between 1900 and 1910, the area along Broadway in present day Burlingame was known as Easton (Brown 1975:11). Easton was annexed in 1910 by Burlingame (Brown 1975:30). In 1926 Buri Buri Avenue was officially changed to Broadway Avenue (Brown 1975:11, 30).

In the mid 1850s, the small Spanish settlement on El Camino Real just south of Millbrae Avenue was known as the Sanchez Ranch. It included two adobe structures built in 1835 (Brown 1975:55-56). James Wilson sold his 1,500 acre tract of the subdivided rancho to Darius Ogden Mills in 1860 (Stanger 1946:69; Hynding 1982:121). Mills was one of San Francisco's leading bankers and promoters (Gudde 1969:202). At this time, a roadhouse/post office/hotel known as the "17 Mile House" dating from the early 1850s stood near the old adobes was still standing. Mills purchased land for a country estate which he named "Millbrae", relying on the suffix brae which is Scottish for hill slope. His residence was built south of the townsite and built the Millbrae Dairy in 1862 and provided land for the railroad station in 1863. Millbrae Dairy included hundreds of acres of rich bayshore marshlands reclaimed by the Chinese (Hynding 1982:121). Unlike other San Mateo areas, Millbrae did not experience a post-1906 growth spurt, in part due to the reluctance of the Mill heirs to part with their patrimony.

According to one story, the town of San Bruno owes its name to the creek named by Palou in 1774 (Gudde 1969:280). Alternatively, the town's namesake was the Mountain which was named after patron saint of Bruno Heceta during his 1775 exploration of the study area. By the 1780s "San Bruno" was also the Spanish name for the Indian village at San Bruno lake (near Villa Avenue and El Camino in Colma). The town developed around Richard Cunningham's San Bruno House (1862) and the San Bruno toll road (Alley 1883:238, Gudde 1969:281).

The City of South San Francisco developed as a result of the formation and growth of the South San Francisco Land and Improvement Company which was owned by influential Californians such as Henry S. Crocker, Henry Miller, and the Lilienthal family along with Chicago meatpackers P.D. Armour and G.F. Swift.

The population influx associated with the Gold Rush resulted in a lucrative demand for supplies. In 1853 Charles Lux purchased land near the site of "Rodeo Viejo" at the southern part of San Bruno Mountain for a cattle ranchstead. Later, in partnership with Henry Miller, the area was an assembly point for cattle destined for the San Francisco market. In 1856, Charles Lux purchased part of *Rancho Buri Buri* and built a country residence at "Baden"

situated along Colma Creek about 2 miles from Point San Bruno (Hynding 1982:102). At this time, 12 Mile House (dating to at least 1853) was located just to the north and a number of small dairies, vegetable farms and fields were in the area. Local produce and supply distribution relied on wharves. In 1858 Lux and Henry Miller became partners and constituted the West Coast's largest livestock company.

After Lux's death in 1887, 3,500 acres of his property were purchased by the South San Francisco Land syndicate. As planned, an immense factory complex was to be located east of the railroad right of way. Housing construction began in 1891 with the factories no later than 1892 (Hynding 1982:102-104; Baker and Shoup 1988:5 after Alexander and Hamm 1916:0-62). Land sales included residential property as well as major industries such as Steiger Terra Cotta Company and Fuller Paint in 1898, and steel fabricators ca. 1913-1914. Thirty-five industrial plants were active by 1938 and WW II was responsible for fostering the construction of concrete barges for war shipping (Stanger 1946:53). From the inception of the San Francisco Land and Improvement Co. through the 20th century, water transport played a major factor in South San Francisco's growth.

Brisbane was established in 1908 under the name Visitacion City, but confusion with Visitacion Valley resulted in a change to Brisbane. The origin of the name "Brisbane" may have been to honor the well known journalist Arthur Brisbane or for Brisbane, Australia (Gudde 1969:38). According to Stanger 1946:47), Brisbane is located at Guadalupe Valley where Jacob Leese built his mud and timber house (1840), corral, and brush fence for 8-10 acres for cultivation. His main headquarters for cattle herding were located in Visitacion Valley to the north and consisted of another house and corral where his majordomo and Indian herders lived. The 1906 earthquake and fire coupled with the real estate promotion of Guadalupe Valley/Brisbane in 1908 resulted in only minor growth, though the French Hotel attracted small game hunters. From 1929, rapid development ensued and a tract sales office opened and the town of Visitacion was renamed "Brisbane." A school opened in 1930, a post office in 1931, and by 1933, some 400 homes had been built.

The formerly pristine San Bruno Mountain has been affected by population growth. An electric transmission line and gas pipeline were built between 1915-1939 and a transmission tower was installed prior to WWII between 1939-1941. Bunkers were constructed during the war. Post war impacts to the mountain include a number of radio towers built between 1947-1956, and a Nike-missile base built on Radio Ridge in the late 1950s/early 1960s.

The American Period history of the Crystal Springs Reservoirs vicinity begins in the Spanish Period. In the autumn of 1769, the Portola expedition camped in the region south of Crystal Springs Reservoir. Father Crespi wrote that "the mountains to the west were beautiful, with groves of oak, redwood and other trees and dotted with meadowlands" (Banks 1983:4).

Some of the existing PG&E transmission line towers are located within the County golf course located just west of Skyline. This area was once within the *Rancho Canada de Raymundo*, granted in 1840 to John Coppinger in reward for military service to Governor Alvarado. Coppinger, a former British Naval officer, led the artillery company that assisted Alvarado in his campaign against a faction who sought closer ties with Mexico, and had ensured Alvarado's control of California (Banks 1983:4). The original Coppinger residence was built near the intersection of Woodside Road and Kings Mountain Road; his adobe was

built in 1841 but destroyed by the 1906 earthquake. Canada Road, was located over the compromise boundary line *between Rancho de las Pulgas and Rancho Canada de Raymundo*.

The other main thoroughfare of the historic period was Whipple's Mill Road. The part of Whipple's Mill Road used today, which includes Edgewood Road, Cordilleras Road, Upland Road and Whipple Avenue, extends from Canada Road to Redwood City, but in early historic times it continued southwestward from Canada Road to a sawmill on West Union Creek (built in 1852 and owned until 1855 by Willard Whipple) (Banks 1983:4).

This early sawmill was designated by Whipple as the West Union Mill, but was more commonly known as Whipple's Upper Mill (and West Union became the name of the creek). The mills were steam-powered and were among the earliest of such mills in San Mateo County. Even before 1853, some \$500,000 worth of lumber had been removed from Rancho Canada de Raymundo and that 14 mills were located on that rancho during the 1850s. Agoston Haraszthy, the pioneer of the California wine industry, first attempted to ripen grapes from his imported stock in the Crystal Springs region of San Mateo County in 1852. Frequent fogs prevented the vineyards from being as successful as Haraszthy had envisioned and he moved his operations to Sonoma Valley in 1856 (Banks 1983:6). The most important historical development in this vicinity, was creation of reservoirs to supply San Francisco and other local communities.

San Francisco needed a new water source to supply its growing population and the environmental and technological realities of the time dictated that new water sources had to be found to the south of San Francisco, in the mountains of San Mateo County. The leaders of the Spring Valley Water Company (SVWC) were the first to recognize and act upon the need to expand into San Mateo County. In 1864 the Spring Valley Water Company built the San Andreas Dam to impound the waters of Pilarcitos Creek, and through a system of flumes and pipes deliver water to San Francisco.

This earth filled dam, which was originally built to a height of over 75 feet (and later raised to 105 feet in 1928), has a crest length of 750 feet (and a capacity to hold 6.2 billion gallons of water). Teamsters, local farmers and a large crew of Chinese workers built the dam; when completed, it was one of the largest earthen dams in the world (Babal 1991).

The Sawyer Labor Camp Site (1868-1870) was the location of the camp that housed the San Andreas Dam construction workers. In 1981, the San Francisco Water Department, San Mateo Board of Supervisors and the California Department of Parks and Recreation developed the Historic Sawyer Camp Trail (currently a paved road inside the fenced San Francisco Watershed). In early 1865, the SVWC and the San Francisco Water Works merged, forming a single large company which was to monopolize water development and delivery for San Francisco over the next half century.

In May, 1866, Hermann Schussler was pointed Chief Engineer of the entire Spring Valley Water System. As consumption went up, more San Mateo County land was purchased. In 1875-1877 the Crystal Spring Valley was partly developed by the erection of the earthen Upper Crystal Springs Dam. The building of the concrete Lower Crystal Springs dam had to await future political and technological development (Shoup 1989:4). One of the most important reasons why Schussler elected to construct a concrete dam was because the San

Andreas fault was only one-quarter mile away from the chosen dam site. Work began in 1886 and substantially completed by 1890 using interlocking concrete blocks.

In constructing Crystal Springs Dam (located near the intersection of Skyline and Crystal Springs Road), the small, scattered farmsteads throughout the valley, the popular Crystal Springs Hotel (ca. 1860), the stage road from San Mateo to Half Moon Bay, Pescadero and Santa Cruz, as well as the resort village of Crystal Springs (founded northwest of the dam around 1856) were razed and/or submerged below Lower Crystal Springs Lake. Even with the larger water supply, the City's water needs increased.

In 1900 Mayor James Phelan directed City Engineer Carl E. Grunsky to study 14 possible water sources for the City. Of those 14, Grunsky chose the Tuolumne River System for its high quality and large supply of water, fine reservoir sites and hydroelectric production possibilities. Later renamed Hetch Hetchy, the Tuolumne System was seen as the best approach to providing safe, reliable drinking water to a growing number of residents.

After several political conflicts within city government and with the Modesto and Turlock Irrigation Districts (MID, TID), who feared the City would threaten their established use of Tuolumne water, the City dropped the Hetch Hetchy proposal in early 1906. The 1906 earthquake was followed by ravenous fires throughout the city. The Spring Valley Water Supply System failed to curtail widespread destruction of the city. The earthquake and fires reinforced the City's hope of constructing a more reliable water system with a higher capacity. After several years of political conflict at local, state and national levels, on September 3, 1913 the Raker Act (a.k.a. Hetch Hetchy Act) was adopted by the House of Representatives. It included provisions that met the objections of the MID and TID as well as others opposed to the Hetch Hetchy project.

When the Raker Act moved to the floor of the Senate, however, another battle began between environmentalists from around the nation and the City. Many people feared that the Hetch Hetchy system would destroy Yosemite Valley, as well as other natural resources in the area. Nevertheless, many other respected environmentalists believed the City's plan would not do significant damage to the area. With the support of the California State Legislature, every major city in California and every Bay area community, the Raker Act was adopted by the Senate on December 2, 1913.

The Act granted the City use of public land to construct, operate and maintain dams, tunnels, and other structures necessary to develop a water and power system. Among many other provisions, it also stipulated that the prior water use rights of the TID and MID be left untouched, and that no water or power generated by the system be sold to private companies for resale.

Work on the Hetch Hetchy system began in 1914. The immense project included dams, reservoirs, conduits, powerhouses and an aqueduct. Surveying and construction took place in mountainous regions without roads or power. Machinery, equipment and thousands of men had to be transported to site areas, making an already difficult project even more challenging, the City built the 68-mile-long Hetch Hetchy railroad to move people and materials to the edge of Hetch Hetchy Valley. Actual Water and Power System construction took place through separate, simultaneous construction projects, spanning an area of 150 miles. These diverse projects eventually came together to form a system whole. The success

of the project is attributed to City Engineers Michael Maurice O'Shaughnessy and Carl E. Grunsky. Hetch Hetchy water finally reached San Francisco in 1934.

On October 24, 1934, the first Hetch Hetchy water flowed into Upper Crystal Springs Lake, seemingly from the Pulgas Water Temple – a Roman Renaissance-style structure located at the outfall of the Hetch Hetchy tunnel (Stanger 1963:185). Thousands of Peninsula residents were made aware of the historic event – when the sound of the first gurgling water coming through the Temple was broadcast by radio.

The inscription carved on the temple entablature, constructed in 1938 to replace the temporary structure built for the 1934 ceremonies, reads: “*I will give water in the wilderness and rivers in the desert to give drink to my people*” (Chavez and Hupman 1991:18).

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