

The Paleoindian Period

(10,000 B.C.–8,000 B.C.)

Holocene Hunter-Gatherers



Time Scale

10,000 B.C.
PALEOINDIAN PERIOD



8,000 B.C.
ARCHAIC PERIOD

A.D. 200
PRE-CLASSIC PERIOD

A.D. 1150
CLASSIC PERIOD

A.D. 1450
PROTOHISTORIC/SPANISH ARRIVAL PERIOD

A.D. 1700
SPANISH COLONIAL/ MEXICAN PERIOD

A.D. 1856
TERRITORIAL PERIOD

A.D. 1912
STATEHOOD PERIOD



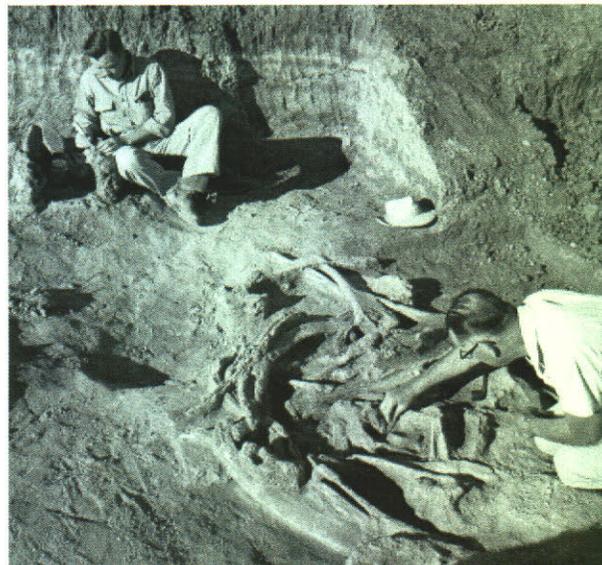
ILLUSTRATION BY NOLA DAVIS, COURTESY LUBBOCK LAKE LANDMARK STATE HISTORICAL PARK, TEXAS

Paleoindian hunters use throwing sticks (atlatls) to hunt bison.

When most people think of the U.S. Southwest, words like arid and hot come to mind. Things were not always this way, however. During the Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene periods, global climatic conditions were much cooler and wetter than the arid conditions we experience today. Consequently, Pima County looked very different to Paleoindian inhabitants when they lived here. Cienega marshlands were as common then as desert vistas are now. Juniper-oak woodlands and open grasslands covered areas that are presently dominated by large



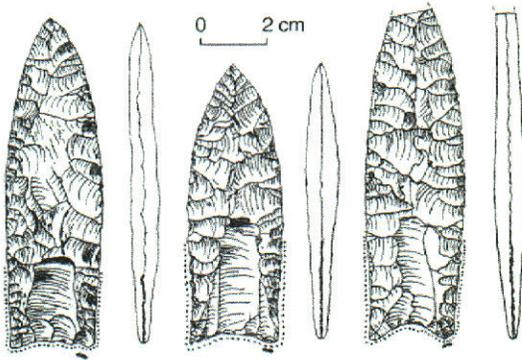
Paleoindian spear point found in association with mammoth bones. Dime added for scale. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. Paul Fish, Photographer.



cacti and Sonoran desert scrub. Animal populations were also quite different. Paleoindian people interacted with a number of animals that are now extinct, including species of mammoth, bison, horse, camel, bear, sloth, large cat, and wolf. In fact, archaeological sites found throughout the Southwest indicate that hunting some of these ani-

Archaeologists uncovering mammoth remains at Naco, an important Paleoindian site in southeastern Arizona. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. E. B. Sayles, Photographer.

Three examples of Paleoindian spear points from southern Arizona. Image courtesy of Jonathan Mabry, Center for Desert Archaeology. Drawn by Leon H. Lorentzen.

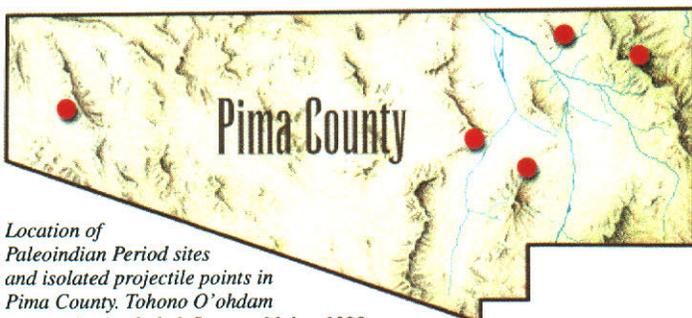


imals was an extremely important part of the Paleoindian subsistence strategy. Paleoindian hunters slaughtered mammoth and bison with skillfully fashioned spear points and butchered their carcasses with stone bifaces and blades. Remains of these distinctive tools, in association with bones of extinct animals, allow archaeologists to identify Paleoindian kill sites, butchering areas, and campsites. Researchers of this period commonly refer to Paleoindian people as “big game hunters”, although small animals and plant resources were also relied upon for nourishment.

Aside from this general understanding of food collecting behaviors, relatively little is known about the daily lives of people who lived during the Paleoindian Period. Archaeological evidence suggests that they lived in small, dispersed, highly mobile groups that traveled across hundreds, even thousands, of square miles per year collecting plants and hunting animals on a seasonal basis. As the temperature gradually rose and moisture levels dropped, the environment underwent drastic changes. The big game species, thought to be so important to Paleoindian subsistence, began to die in the warmer environment and move out of the region in search of cooler, wetter climates. Some Paleoindian people probably followed herds of big game as they migrated out of the Southwest, while others may have stayed in the area and changed their behaviors to survive in the new environment.

In all, only 55 Paleoindian Period archaeological sites have been found in Arizona, four of which are located in Pima County. It is possible that more Paleoindian sites have not been found because they were washed away by streams and/or they are deeply covered by floodplain deposits.

If you are interested in learning more about the Paleoindian Period occupants of this area or the environment in which they lived, you will find more detailed introductory discussions in *The Archaeology of Ancient Arizona* by Jefferson Reid and Stephanie Whittlesey and in *Archaeology of the Southwest* by Linda Cordell.



Location of Paleoindian Period sites and isolated projectile points in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Mabry 1998.



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The Paleoindian at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Cooler temperatures than the present
- Less arid than the present
- Marshes and grasslands, rather than desert, dominated the landscape

Settlement Pattern

- Small, highly mobile, bands of family groups
- Seasonal residential movement
- Houses were most likely insubstantial “tents” made of brush, earth, and animal skins.

Subsistence Techniques

- Hunted “big game” species, such as mammoth and bison, as well as smaller fare, such as rabbits and deer
- Gathered available plant resources

Technology

- Throwing/thrusting spears
- Large, finely-worked fluted and unfluted spear points (Folsom and Clovis)

Important Paleoindian Sites in the Area

- Naco
- Lehner Ranch
- Murray Springs
- Escapule



Paleoindian points recovered with mammoth remains at the Naco site. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona.

The Archaic Period

(8000 B.C.–A.D. 200)

Holocene Hunter-Gatherers and Early Agriculturalists

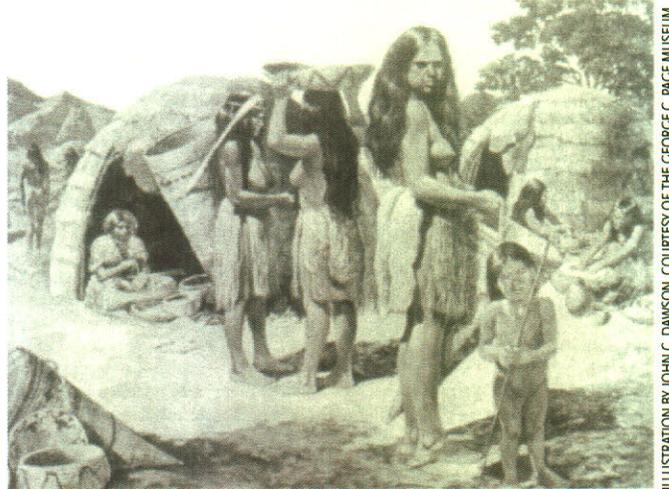
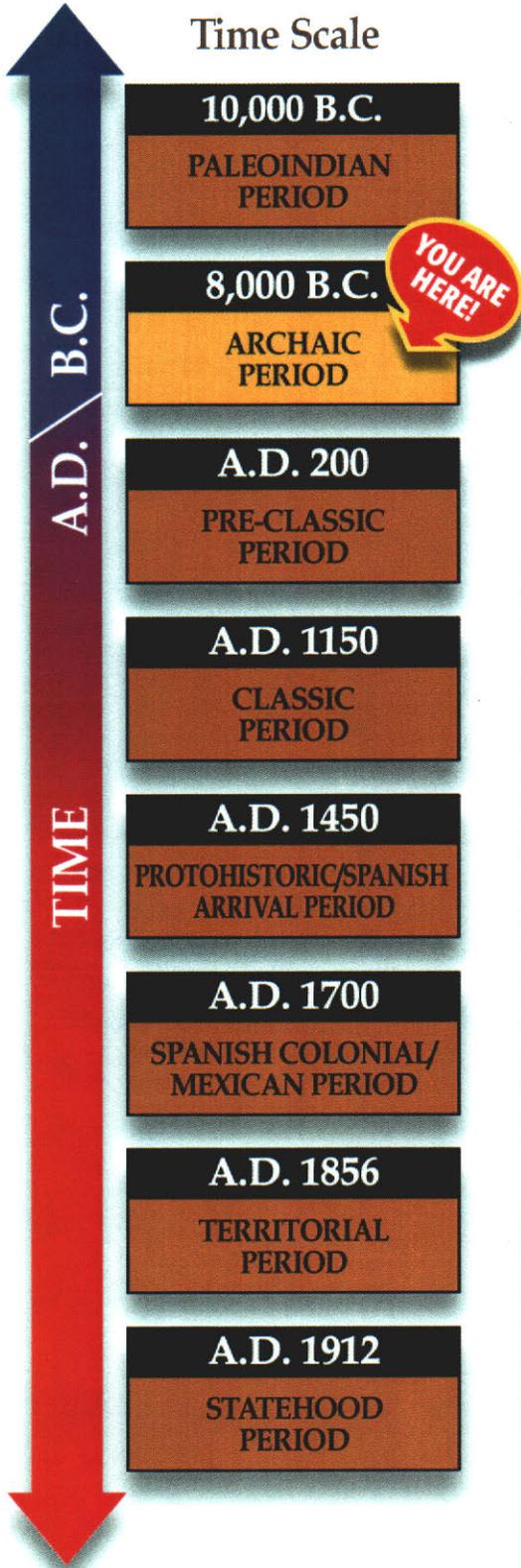


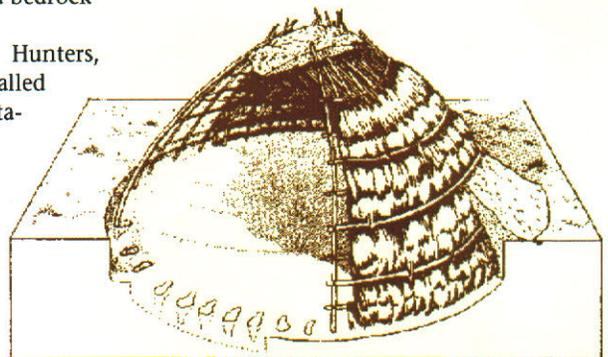
ILLUSTRATION BY JOHN C. DAWSON, COURTESY OF THE GEORGE C. PAGE MUSEUM.

Women at work in an Archaic Period settlement.



With the local disappearance of Pleistocene "big game" species, such as mammoth and bison, by about 8,000 B.C., the people that remained in southern Arizona were forced to shift the focus of their food procurement strategies to smaller game and plant materials. Thus, Early Archaic Period people began to use stones for grinding seeds, roasting pits, and bedrock mortars more extensively than Paleoindian people before them. Hunters, with the aid of throwing sticks called atlatls, hurled darts tipped with tapering stemmed points in place of longer spears tipped with large fluted points. Like Paleoindian Period populations, Early Archaic Period groups relocated often, moving their residences to new spots after having depleted the food resources in an area.

Archaeological research indicates that southern Arizona was inhabited discontinuously and intermittently by humans during the warmest and driest stretch of the last 10,000 years, from about 6000 - 4000 B.C. Following this extremely warm and dry spell, people moved back into the area, and/or down from high elevations



Artists conception of what a typical pithouse may have looked like in Late Archaic times. Illustrated by Robert Ciaccio. Courtesy of the Center for Desert Archaeology.



Photograph showing the foundation of an Late Archaic pithouse discovered along the Santa Cruz River in Tucson, Arizona. House was discovered in the back hoe trench shown at right. Photograph by David Gregory. Courtesy of the Center for Desert Archaeology.

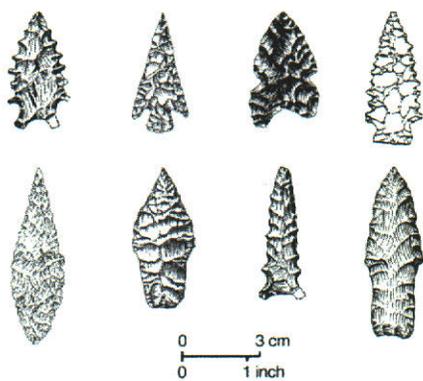
during the Middle Archaic Period, and resumed hunting and gathering.

The greatest amount of change in the whole 8,200 year Period occurred around 1500 B.C. Recent archaeological excavations conducted along the Santa Cruz River in Tucson, Arizona provided information about the Late Archaic Period transition from hunting and gathering to farming and foraging economies in the U.S. Southwest. For reasons which are yet unclear, some Late Archaic Period people adopted a less migratory lifestyle, living a significant portion of the year in one place and growing corn, and possibly other crops, along perennial streams. This important switch to small-scale farming is why some archaeologists also call this period the Early Agricultural Period.

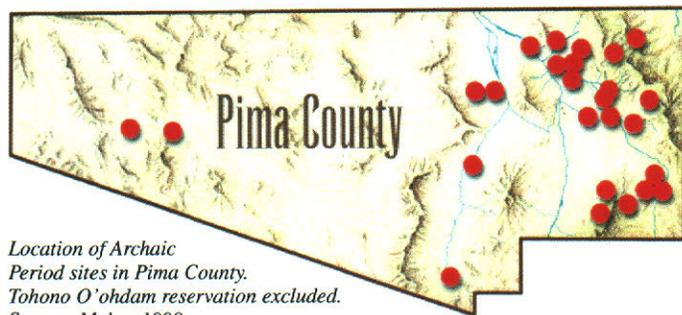
New evidence suggests that these early farmers lived in small villages, each containing perhaps a few dozen people. They used structures built in hand-cleared shallow pits, called pitstructures, for shelter from the elements, cooking, storage, tool manufacture, and tool repair. It is important to note that hunting and gathering practices continued during the Early Agricultural Period; the adoption of agriculture did not put a halt to the traditional food procurement methods.

Hunters tipped their weapons with various styles of points. Evidence of long distance travel and/or trade, such as sea shells from the Pacific Ocean and Gulf of California, indicates contact with distant groups of people. Distinctive artifacts found at Late Archaic/Early Agricultural Period sites include fired-clay figurines, the oldest known ceramic vessels in the U.S. Southwest, carved and polished stone beads and pendants, carved bone implements, ground stone milling tools, and flaked stone tools. Many of these items suggest cultural continuity between Early Agricultural Period people and the subsequent farmers of the Sonoran Desert, the Hohokam.

Given their rarity and our lack of knowledge about their periods, Early Archaic Period and Middle Archaic Period sites in Pima County are important cultural resources. If you are interested in learning more about the Archaic Period occupation of Pima County, consult *The Archaeology of Ancient Arizona* by Jefferson Reid and Stephanie Whittlesey.



Projectile points commonly made during the Archaic Period in Arizona. Courtesy of Arizona State Parks, State Historic Preservation Office, Mabry 1998.



Location of Archaic Period sites in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Mabry 1998.

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The Archaic at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- 8000-6000 B.C. Temperature gradually rises from the previous period's relatively cool, wet climate.
- 6000-4000 B.C. Warmer and drier than today.
- 4000 B.C.-AD 200 Temperature gradually drops to approximate the present climate.

Settlement Pattern

Early and Middle Archaic Period:

- Small, highly mobile, bands of family groups.
- Seasonal residential movement was used to obtain a variety of resources.

Late Archaic/Early Agricultural Period:

- Some people began to settle in one place for extended periods.
- Small villages/farming hamlets became established.
- Organized task-specific trips from primary villages were used to obtain a variety of resources.

Subsistence Techniques

- People hunted and gathered available plants and animals.
- Small-scale cultivation was adopted at the beginning of the Late Archaic Period.

Technology

- Early and Middle Archaic Periods:
- Spears, atlatls and darts
- Medium-sized stemmed, corner-notched, and side-notched flaked stone projectile points
- Slab metates and manos (grinding stones)
- Ephemeral brush and earthen structures
- External storage pits

Late Archaic/Early Agricultural Period:

- Atlatls, darts, and possibly arrows were used.
- Medium-sized to small-sized corner-notched and side-notched flaked stone projectile points
- Semi-permanent pitstructures were built.
- Internal and external storage pits
- Basin metates and manos

Important Archaic Sites in Pima County

- Las Capas
- Los Pozos
- Santa Cruz Bend Site
- Stone Pipe Site
- Ventana Cave
- Double Adobe

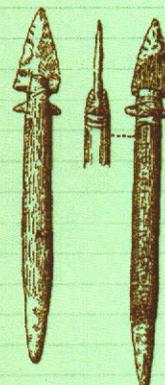


Illustration of Archaic Period Atlatl shaft and fore shafts. Courtesy of Desert Archaeology, Inc. From Guernsey and Kidder 1921, Harvard University, Camb., MA.

The Early Ceramic/ Pre-Classic Period

(200–1150)

Sonoran Desert Farmers

Time Scale

10,000 B.C.

PALEOINDIAN
PERIOD

8,000 B.C.

ARCHAIC
PERIOD

A.D. 200

PRE-CLASSIC
PERIOD

A.D. 1150

CLASSIC
PERIOD

A.D. 1450

PROTOHISTORIC/SPANISH
ARRIVAL PERIOD

A.D. 1700

SPANISH COLONIAL/
MEXICAN PERIOD

A.D. 1856

TERRITORIAL
PERIOD

A.D. 1912

STATEHOOD
PERIOD

B.C.

A.D.

TIME

YOU ARE
HERE!



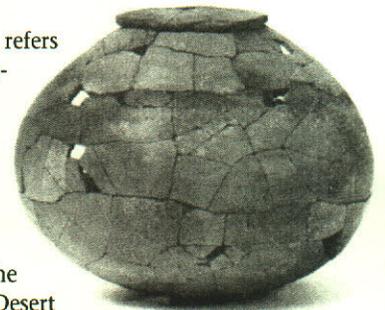
Ball court festivities in a Pre-Classic Hohokam village.

ILLUSTRATION BY PAUL MIROCHA, COURTESY ARIZONA STATE MUSEUM

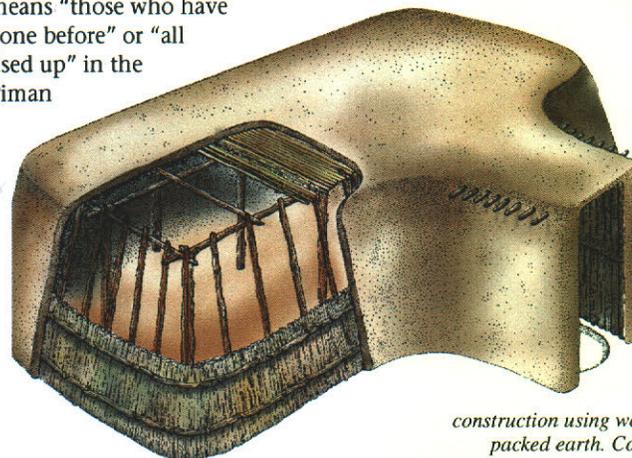
The 500 years between the end of the Archaic Period and the beginning of the Hohokam Pre-Classic is commonly referred to as the Early Ceramic Period (A.D. 150-650). Although ceramic figurines and miniature pots were made during Late Archaic times, it was not until the early centuries of the Christian Era that people started to make ceramic vessels large enough to be used for practical purposes. Archaeologists hypothesize that these plainware “seed jars” were used to store crop seeds and foodstuffs and represent an increased reliance upon and involvement with early farming practices. Aside from a growing dependence upon agriculture, Early Ceramic Period house designs and village organization are also very similar to those found during the Hohokam Pre-Classic.

The term Hohokam, which means “those who have gone before” or “all used up” in the Piman

language, refers to the pre-historic pottery-producing, farmers who inhabited the Sonoran Desert in central and southern Arizona and Northern Mexico from roughly AD 650 to 1450. Archaeologists divide this 800 year period into two smaller periods, the Pre-Classic (AD 650-1150) and the Classic (AD 1150-1450). Pre-Classic Hohokam sites in the Tucson Basin are distinguished from Early Ceramic Period sites by the presence of brown colored pottery decorated with red designs.



(Top) Simple globular shaped “seed jar” with lid typical of vessels from the Early Ceramic Period (A.D. 200 - A.D. 650). Courtesy of the Center for Desert Archaeology. Helga Teiwes, photographer.



(Left) Artist’s conception of typical Hohokam pithouse of the Pre-Classic Period (A.D. 650 - A.D. 1150). Note layered construction using wood posts, saguaro ribs, reeds, and packed earth. Courtesy of Statistical Research, Inc.

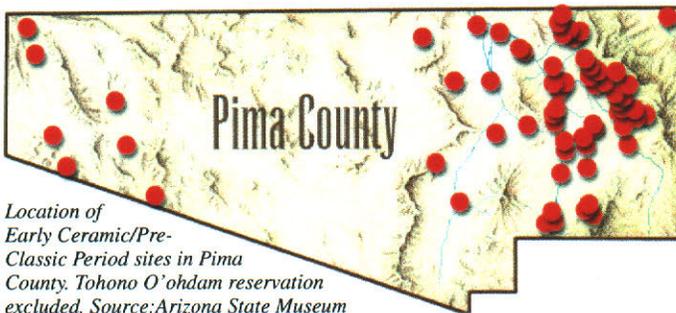
In the area now known as Pima County, the Hohokam practiced intensive irrigation farming in the major river valleys, and dry and flood water farming elsewhere. Pre-Classic Hohokam settlement remains include sites ranging from small camps located where wild plants and other resources were obtained, to agricultural fields and canal systems, small farmsteads or hamlets, and large villages with public facilities. Some of these public facilities include courtyards, plazas, water reservoirs, and large, oval-shaped earthen structures that archaeologists refer to as ballcourts. Within villages, pithouses were built around shared open spaces in arrangements called courtyard groups. A number of courtyard groups were then arranged around a larger shared space called a plaza. Each village had cemeteries and agricultural fields, while many large Pre-Classic villages each had their own ballcourt as well.



Sacaton Red-on-buff pot typical of the Pre-Classic Period (A.D. 650 - A.D. 1150). Red on buff or brown decoration is a hallmark of Hohokam pottery during this time. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona, Helga Teiwes, photographer.

Ballcourts were first built around AD 775, and their numbers increased until the 1100s. They had an oval-shaped, flat floor with earthen berms, which acted as "bleachers" for an audience. Archaeologists have debated ballcourt function for some time. Most experts believe that the ballcourt was used to play some version of the Mesoamerican ball game, whereas others propose the structures were used to hold dances or other types of important ceremonies. Whichever interpretation is more accurate, it is generally agreed that ballcourt structures served as a way to bring people together, helping to form a wider community network.

By the end of the Pre-Classic Period, ballcourts were no longer in use and changes in village size and location had occurred. Exactly why this happened is unclear, but some archaeologists have suggested that environmental factors and/or the threat of warfare, may have been involved in this transformation. If you are interested in learning more about the Hohokam of southern Arizona, you may consult *The Hohokam: Early Desert Farmers and Craftsmen* by Emil Haury or *The Archaeology of Ancient Arizona* by Jefferson Reid and Stephanie Whittlesey.



Location of Early Ceramic/Pre-Classic Period sites in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum and National Park Service.

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The Pre-Classic at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Temperatures and moisture levels were very similar to today's.

Settlement Pattern

- Large pithouse villages were occupied at this time.
- Extended family/friends arranged their houses into courtyard clusters.

Subsistence Techniques

- Dry, floodwater, and irrigation farming were practiced.
- The Hohokam hunted small game, such as rabbits.
- They also gathered many varieties of wild plants as they became seasonally available.

Technology

- A wide variety of decorated and plain ware ceramic vessels were made.
- Bows and arrows were commonly used during this time.
- Extensive irrigation canals were dug in the river valleys.
- Multi-seasonal houses-in-pits were built using wood and earth.
- Stone plates or "palettes" were carved and used for ceremonial functions.

Important Early Ceramic Sites

- Lonetree
- Stone Pipe Site
- Houghton Road Site
- Valencia Vieja

Important Pre-Classic Hohokam Sites

- Los Morteros
- Honey Bee Village
- Valencia Site
- Romero Ruin
- Hodges
- Julian Wash



Line drawings of projectile points that were commonly used during this time period indicating the adoption of the bow and arrow. Courtesy of the Center for Desert Archaeology. Drawn by R. Jane Sliva.

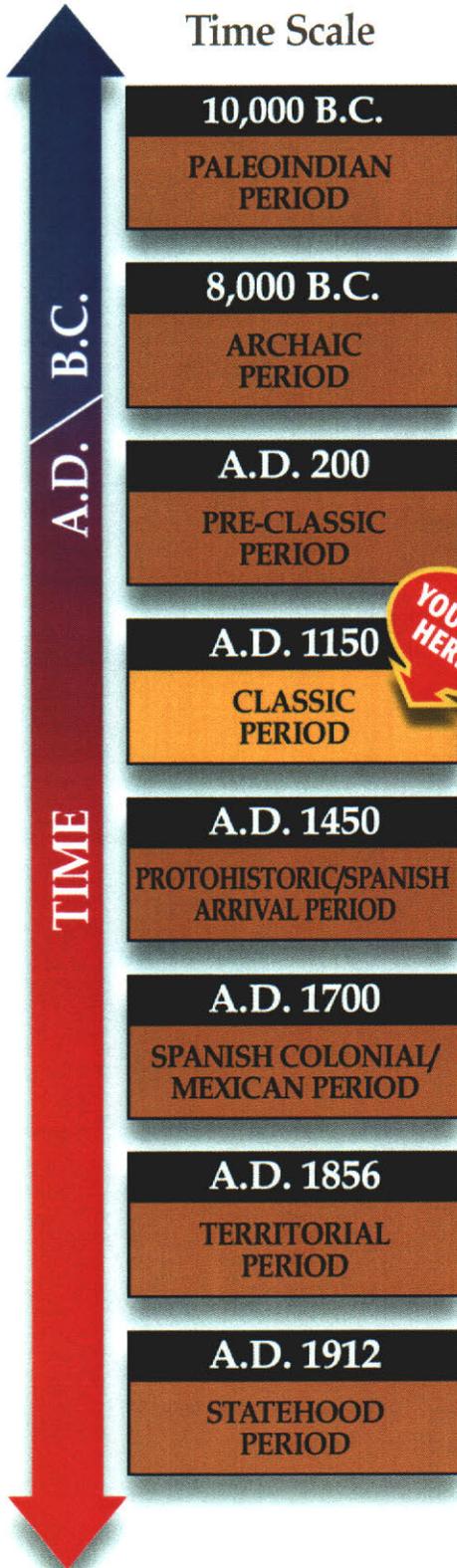
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The Classic Period (1150–1450)

Platform Mound Communities



Dancers petition the gods in a Classic Hohokam village.

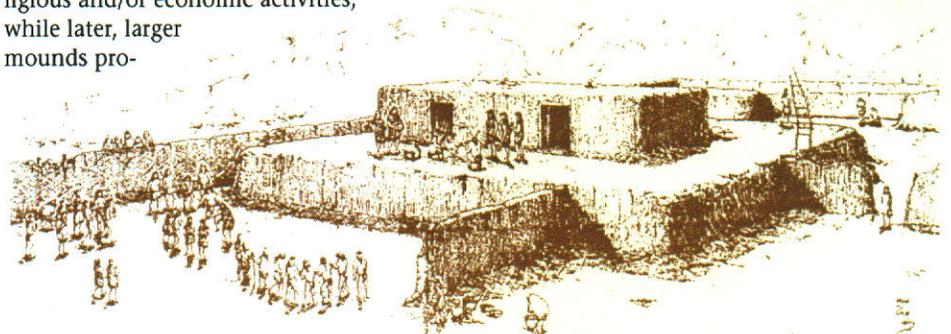


The term Hohokam, which means “those who came before” or “all used up” in the Piman language, refers to the prehistoric pottery-producing farmers who inhabited the Sonoran Desert in central and southern Arizona, and northern Mexico from roughly A.D. 650 to 1450.

In the beginning of the Classic Period around AD 1150, major changes took place in Hohokam life. Individual villages became more compact, and above-ground adobe structures replaced many Pre-Classic pithouse structures, or structures built into the ground. The construction of ballcourts, which were common public architectural features to many Pre-Classic Hohokam villages, ceased. Instead, large earthen rectangular mounds were built. Like the role of ballcourts, archaeologists do not know exactly how platform mounds functioned in Hohokam communities. Some experts suggest that the earliest mounds were the locales of religious and/or economic activities, while later, larger mounds pro-

vided politically powerful or wealthy people with a residence that was physically raised above their constituents’ or neighbors’ houses. Many platform mounds are so large that some archaeologists have argued that it would have been necessary to gather community support and labor to design and build these structures. This suggests that either the person(s) who wanted a mound had some authority over the community as a whole or that every member of the community had something to gain from the presence of a platform mound in their village.

Classic Period Hohokam people farmed, hunted wild game, and gathered edible and medicinal plants in ways similar to those of their immediate ancestors. During this period, they also continued to produce skillfully decorated pottery, although archaeologists note a change in design motifs and style. Classic Period sites in Pima County have also yielded ce-



Artist's conception of Classic Period platform mound. Reprinted from Archaeology in Tucson Vol 9, No. 3, Courtesy of the Center for Desert Archaeology. Drawing by Ziba Ghassemi.



Classic Period Tucson Polychrome pots from the University Indian Ruins, Tucson, Arizona. Courtesy of the Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona.

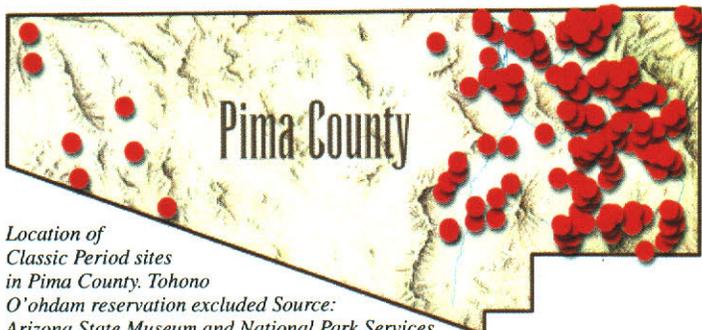
ramics from what is now Mexico, and shell from the Pacific Ocean, indicating the continued presence of trade networks capable of spanning significant distances. Despite the apparent success of the Hohokam in adapting to and modifying the Sonoran desert landscape, their reign eventually ended and they returned the desert to its own natural devices. Large, clustered settlements with substantial architecture, such as Casa Grande, the University Ruin, and Marana Mound, were deserted by A.D. 1450.

What happened to the Hohokam? Some archaeologists argue that evidence of drought and local environmental deterioration due to farming and wood gathering may point to logical reasons that the clearly recognizable Hohokam tradition disappeared circa A.D. 1450. Others suggest that warfare or disease decimated Hohokam communities and was ultimately responsible for their disappearance from the area. Most archaeologists believe that the Hohokam reorganized themselves to deal with the changing environment and that the direct descendants of the Classic Period Hohokam were the Sobaipuri and the Tohono O'odham people who the Spanish encountered in the late 17th century.

If you would like to learn more about the Classic Period Hohokam of southern Arizona, please check out *The Archaeology of Ancient Arizona* by Jefferson Reid and Stephanie Whittlesey.



Shell and Turquoise mosaic pendant from Casa Grande National Monument. Both materials were widely traded by the Hohokam. Courtesy of the Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona.



Location of Classic Period sites in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum and National Park Services

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The Classic at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Periods of drought and severe flooding during the 14th century may have contributed to the decline of the Hohokam.

Settlement Pattern

- People lived in concentrated, aboveground, adobe compounds within relatively large communities.

Subsistence Techniques

- Dry, floodwater, and irrigation farming were all practiced
- People hunted around small fields and in adjacent zones as well as in the surrounding mountains
- Wild plants, such as Saguaro fruit, were gathered.

Technology

- The Hohokam built large earthen platform mounds
- Many varieties of decorated and undecorated pottery were skillfully made
- Houses were made using adobe wall construction
- Agave was cultivated in huge fields using rockpiles to protect each plant.
- Rock terraces (trincheras) and check dams were built to control erosion and water flow.

Important Sites in the Area

- Marana Mound
- University Indian Ruin
- Robles Mound
- Los Morteros
- Cerro Prieto
- Linda Vista
- Sabino



Hohokam rock art (petroglyphs) typical of those found in the Tucson area.

The Protohistoric/Spanish Arrival Period

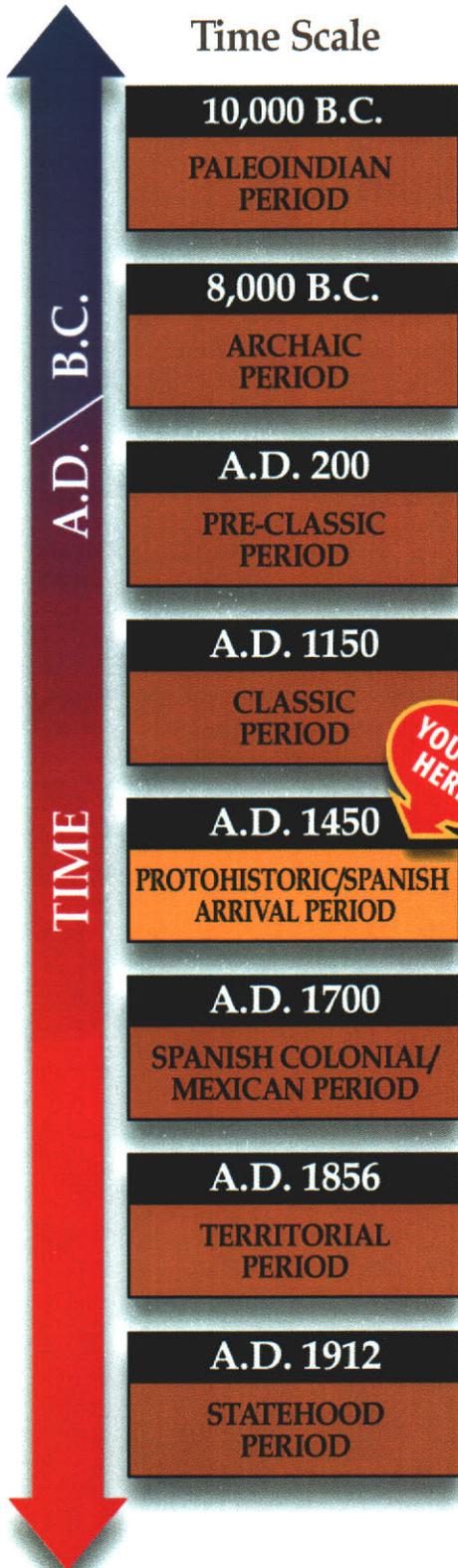
(1450 – 1700)

Bridging Prehistory and History in Pima County



ILLUSTRATION BY BUCK MCCAIN, COURTESY OF BUCK MCCAIN.

Spanish Conquistadors in the desert Southwest.



The term "prehistory" conventionally refers to the time before writing was implemented. In the U.S. Southwest, the term "protohistoric" refers to the period which occurred after the end of the Classic Period Hohokam (A.D. 1150-1450), and before the first document was written to describe the people of this land. When the first Spanish explorers passed through what is today Pima County in 1539, the protohistoric era came to an end. However, it was not until approximately 150 years later, when a small group of Europeans came to settle the area they called terra incognita, that the close and often turbulent relationship between Native Americans and settlers of European and Mexican descent really began.

What exactly happened to the Hohokam after A.D. 1450 is unknown. To date, very few sites from this period have been found and investigated by archaeologists. What little evidence they have uncovered suggests widespread changes in mobility and the location of settlements. It seems that Protohistoric Period residents of

southern Arizona reclaimed the more mobile lifestyle of their Pre-Classic ancestors. They replaced Classic Period adobe compounds and sedentary communities with simple brush structures and small dispersed rancherias, although larger villages do appear to have been settled.

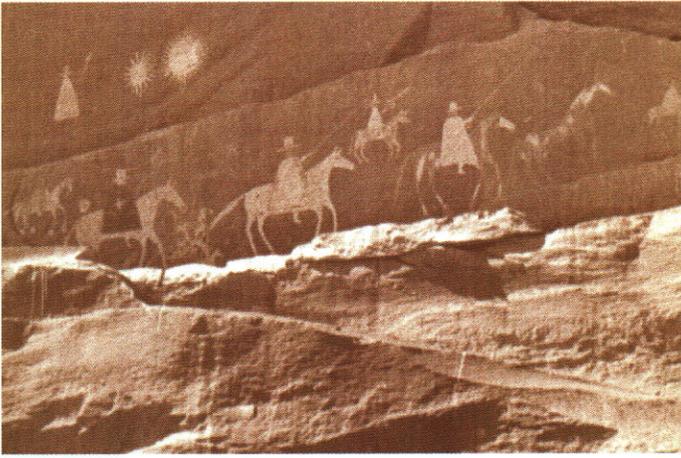
In 1539, the first European explorer, Fray Marcos de Niza passed through southern Arizona on his way to verify stories of treasure located to the north. Following de Niza's return to Mexico, stories of native cities possessing indescribable wealth spread quickly. The following year, Francisco Vasquez de Coronado mounted



(Top). A Sobaipuri house in the San Pedro River Valley after excavation. These structures were often no bigger than a modern tent. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona.

(Bottom). Sobaipuri arrow points in their original foreshafts recovered from Colossal Cave. Top shaft is about four inches long. Courtesy of Jonathan Mabry.



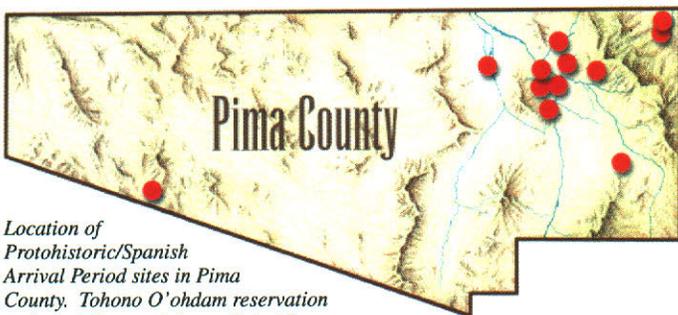


Native American pictograph (painting) of Spaniards on horseback. Canyon de Chelly, Arizona. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. Helga Teiwes, photographer.

his famous expedition to find the elusive "cities of gold." Many historians believe these early expeditions used the San Pedro River as a direct trail to the north.

Spanish contact with, and knowledge of southern Arizona Native Americans was relatively minimal until 1691, when Father Eusebio Kino and Captain Juan Mateo Manje traveled down the Santa Cruz River from Sonora. The small Sobaipuri settlements which Kino and Manje encountered along the river survive today as scatters of plainware pottery sherds and pieces of flaked stone. Subsequent explorations encountered different settlements in the desert, west of the Santa Cruz River. The people who lived in this area were called Papagos and Sand Papagos. Their ancestors still live in the area, and today call themselves the Tohono O'odham and Hia Ced O'odham, respectively. The Sobaipuri and other O'odham groups were all Piman speakers and were probably the descendants of the Hohokam. Apaches and other mobile hunter-gatherer-raider groups entered into the region during this period as well interacting with both the settled native farmers and the new comers, the Spanish. It was the co-mingling of all these different people at the end of the 18th century that set in motion the ensuing struggle for control over the land and its resources in the years that followed.

If you would like to learn more about the Early Spanish explorers, missionaries, and their effects on Native American populations at the crossroads between prehistory and history in southern Arizona, please consult *Hispanic Arizona, 1536-1856* by James E. Officer and *Cycles of Conquest* by Edward H. Spicer.



Location of Protohistoric/Spanish Arrival Period sites in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum.

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Protohistoric at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Temperature and rainfall levels fluctuated over time, as they do today.

Settlement Pattern

- Varied considerably depending on group from ephemeral encampments occupied by highly mobile people (Hia'C'ed) in the western deserts to permanent year round villages maintained by settled farmers along the region's major rivers (Sobaipuri).

Subsistence Techniques

- Dry, flood water and canal farming.
- Grew corn, beans, squash, melons, and cotton
- Hunted game near fields and in uplands
- Gathered wild plant resources, such as cactus and mesquite beans

Technology

- Plain pottery
- Bow and arrow with distinctive points
- Houses were small oval shaped brush structures covered by mats or dirt and organized in either villages or dispersed rancherias.

Important Sites/Settlements in the Area

- San Xavier del Bac
- San Agustin de Oiaur
- Aribac
- San Cosme del Tucson
- San Cayetano del Tumacacori
- Guevavi
- Quiburi
- Sopor
- Quitobaquito

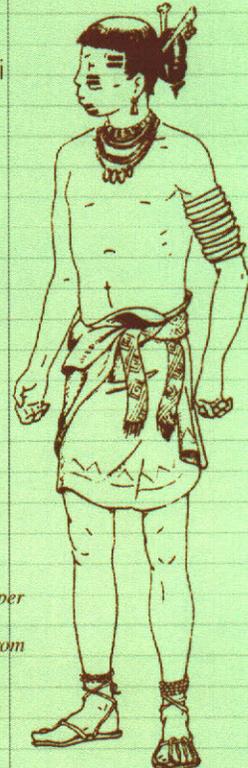


Illustration of an "Upper Piman" man during protohistoric times. From Di Peso 1956, *The Amerind Foundation*.

Spanish Colonial and Mexican Period

(1700 – 1856)

Missions, Presidios, and Rancherias

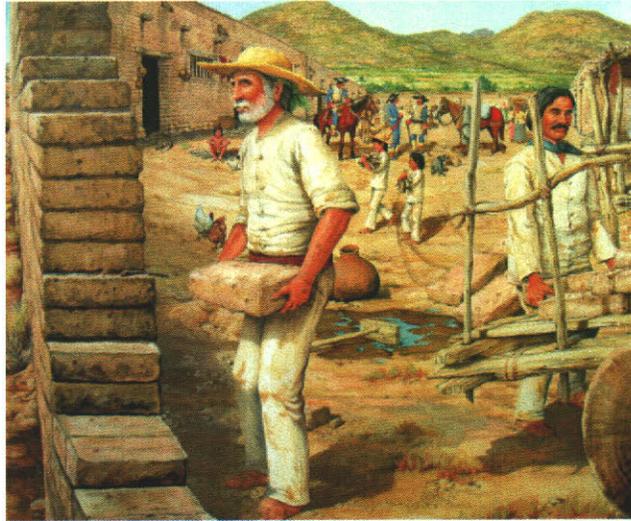
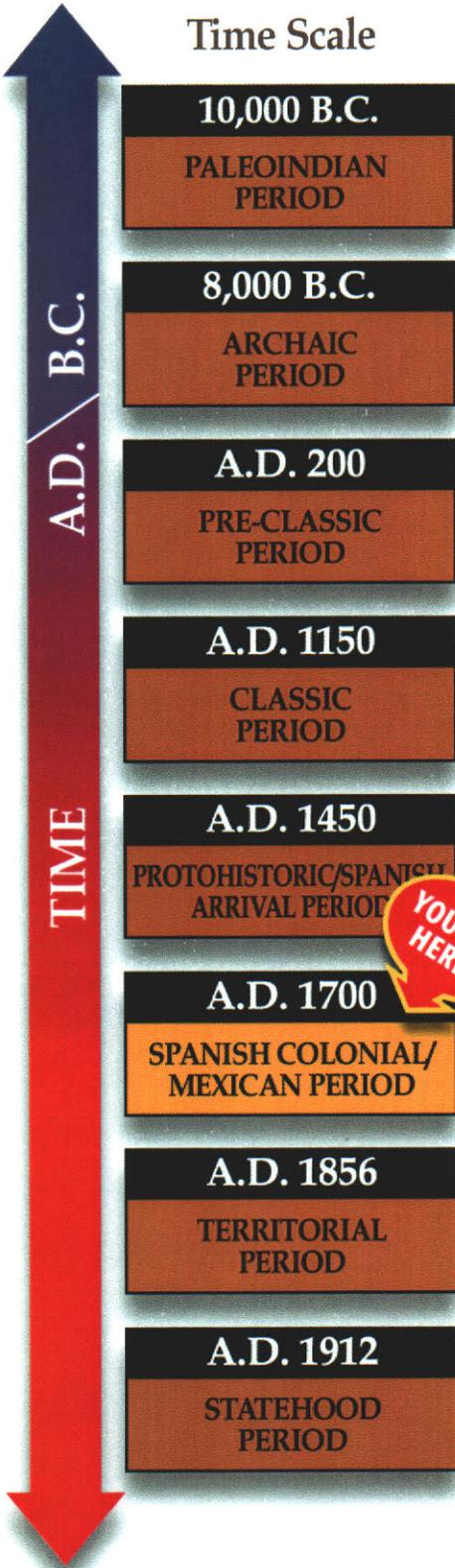


ILLUSTRATION BY JOE FERRARA, COURTESY OF PIMA COUNTY.

Spanish colonists build the Tucson Presidio wall.

In a time when the U.S. Southwest was known as "New Spain," one could just imagine what a force the Spanish presence was in this area. The Catholic Church set about converting the native peoples to Christianity, and the military protected Spanish settlers and their Indian allies. To these ends, missions and visitas were constructed in or near indigenous settlements all along the northern Spanish frontier in what is today Sonora Mexico and Southern Arizona. Initiated by Father Eusibio Kino, the Jesuits worked hard to establish a system of self sufficient mission communities in the Pimeria Alta, the land of the Upper Pima, during the early 1700s. By mid century, however, relations with the native people deteriorated dramatically, culminating in the Piman Revolt of 1751. The Spanish were so taken aback by this event, and the increasingly hostile relations with the Apaches, that defensive garrisons or "Presidios" were built in response. The first of these was located in Tubac in 1752, which was eventually relocated to Tucson in 1775. A

third outpost, the Presidio of Santa Cruz de Terrenate, was constructed in the same year along the banks of the San Pedro River not far from modern day Tombstone. Incessant Apache attacks forced its abandonment by 1779.

The fortified village at "Stjukson," meaning "at the foot of the black mountain" in the Piman language, became the central Spanish community on the edge of the frontier. It too was nearly wiped out by an attack of some 600 Apache warriors on May 1, 1782; quick use of a canon prevented an end to Spain's experiment in colonialism. Native peoples were having their own security problems with the Apaches during these years. The Sobaipuri, who lived in large settlements along the San Pedro River, abandoned their homes and relocated among their



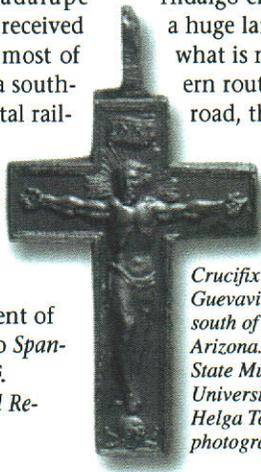
*Archaeologists uncover the Tucson Presidio wall beneath a sidewalk at the Pima County courthouse.
Courtesy of Pima County.*



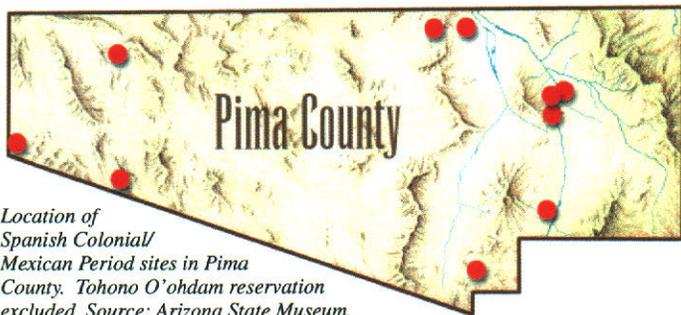
Mexican Majolica bowl made in the mid 19th century. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona.

O'odham relatives near the Santa Cruz River. In time, the Sobaipuri ceased to be a recognizable culture group. The combined effects of disease, warfare, and resettlement severely strained the native populations in the region and made for a very tenuous foothold for the Spanish.

Mexico won its independence from Spain in 1821 but along with greater control came a serious lack of funding. As a result, the mission system collapsed. The Catholic Church was no longer able to maintain its holdings and many of the churches along the northern frontier were abandoned. Despite this, life went on and people in the region continued to farm, raise livestock, mine for ore, and trade with their neighbors - when lulls in the fighting made these things possible. The Americans took an interest in the region during the war with Mexico between 1846-1848. It was through the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo ending the a huge land settlement from Mexico including most of zona. Then in 1854, seeking a south-California for a transcontinental rail- road, the Americans bought 29,640 square miles of northern Mexico bringing the little village of Tucson and the land of southern Arizona into the U.S. territories. For more information about this fragment of Pima County's history, refer to *Spanish Colonial Tucson* by Henry F. Dobyns, or *Friars, Soldiers, and Reformers* by John Kessell.



Crucifix from the Guevavi mission site south of Tubac, Arizona. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. Helga Teiwes, photographer.



Location of Spanish Colonial/ Mexican Period sites in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum.

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Spanish Colonial at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Temperature and rainfall levels fluctuated as they do today.

Settlement Pattern

- The Spanish lived in fortified outposts called "Presidios" and built adobe brick structures.
- The O'odham continued to live in rancherias and large permanent settlements along the regions major rivers as before. Warfare and defensive needs altered the pattern of settlement as the Spanish attempted to concentrate native populations in places where they could be protected.
- The Apaches lived in small highly mobile bands and lived in brush structures.

Subsistence Techniques

- Dry, flood water and canal farming.
- The Spanish introduced wheat, barley, chilli, sweet potatoes, peaches and other fruits and vegetables, as well as cattle, horses, and sheep. These augmented the traditional native crops of corn, beans, squash, melons, and cotton
- Game was hunted by all and wild plants were gathered too.

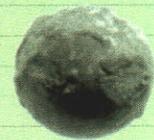
Technology

- The Spanish brought metal tools and weapons, pottery, and cloth as well as new techniques for mining and producing food. Spanish goods were traded to the native populations who continued to make their own tools and pottery.

Important Sites/Settlements in the Area

- Tucson
- Tubac
- Tumacacori
- San Ignacio de la Canoa Land Grant
- Sopori
- Aribac
- San Xavier del Bac
- San Agustin del Tucson
- Santa Ana del Chiquiburitac

Spanish musket ball (top) and 1/12 real coin (1771) recovered from the Guevavi mission site south of Tubac, Arizona. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. Helga Teiwes, photographer.



American Territorial Period (1856-1912)

Spanish Frontier to U.S. Statehood

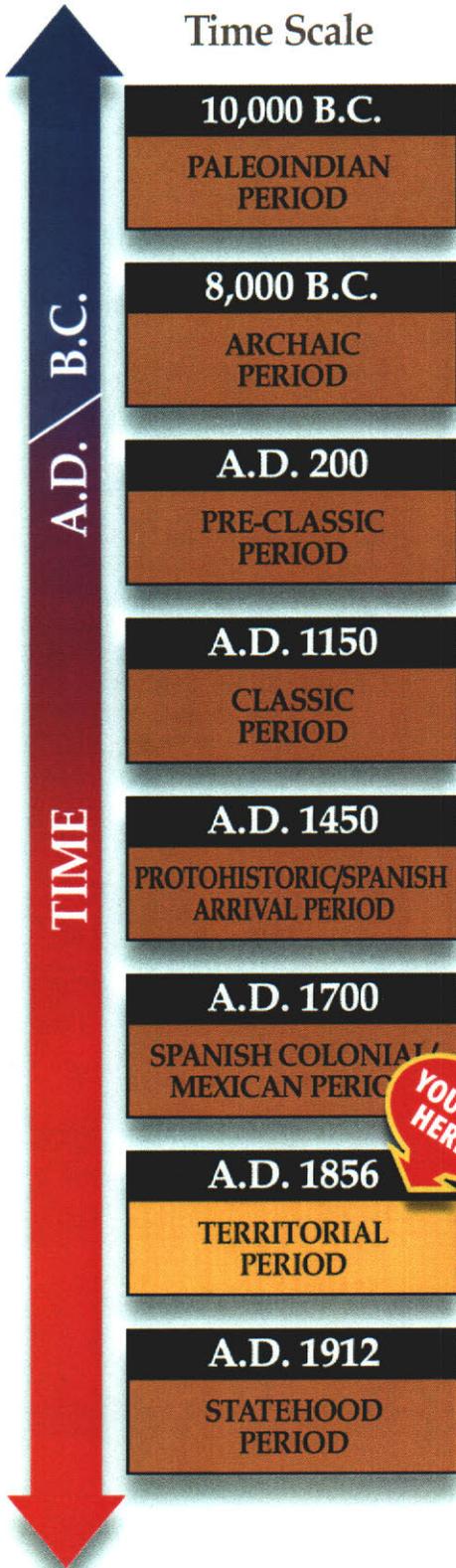


ILLUSTRATION BY J. ROSS BROWNE. COURTESY MARY ELLEN FAHS

The Mission church of San Xavier del Bac, 1864.

After the Gadsden purchase of 1854, it took two years for American troops to show up in Tucson and formally take possession of the land for the United States. Tucson was the largest settlement west of Mesilla at the time but was still a small Mexican town of only a couple hundred people. In those days, few lived outside the protective walls of the presidio and most of what would become Pima County remained largely in the hands of different Indian groups.

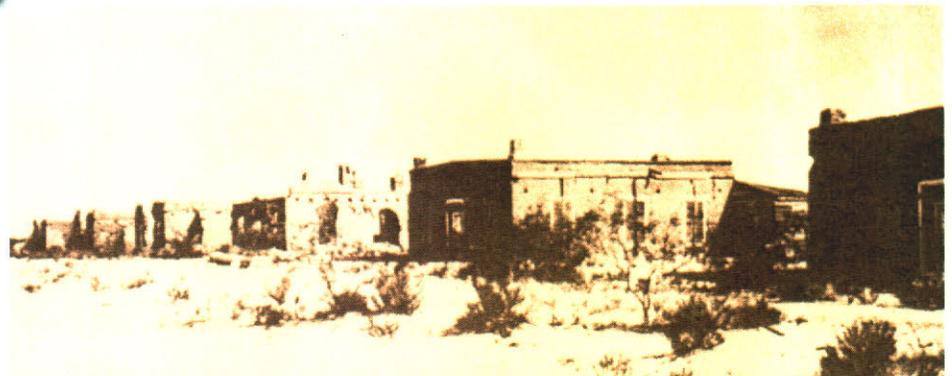
Just as people were adjusting to life under American rule, Pima County got caught up in the Civil War. Both the South and the North were interested in the region for its rich mineral deposits and each took steps to claim it as their own. Union Troops had been withdrawn from Tucson at the beginning of the war, so in February 1862 soldiers of the Confederate States of America marched into Tucson, but only briefly. A large contingent of Blue

Coats chased them out a few months later. A skirmish between the two sides near Picacho Peak was the only engagement of the Civil War in southern Arizona. Then, on February 24, 1863, President Abraham Lincoln authorized splitting the New Mexico Territory in two, thereby creating the Arizona Territory.

With the end of the war, Tucson soon became a rough frontier town, with hot, dusty saloons, armed men and dilapidated, sun-baked adobe houses. Visitors from the east often decried what they thought to be the primitive living conditions and low morals of the people. However, with the passage of the Homestead Act of 1862, they came anyway.

Apache attacks continued to be a major

*Ruins of Fort Lowell around 1900, Tucson, Arizona.
Courtesy of the Arizona Historical Society,
Tucson, Arizona.*



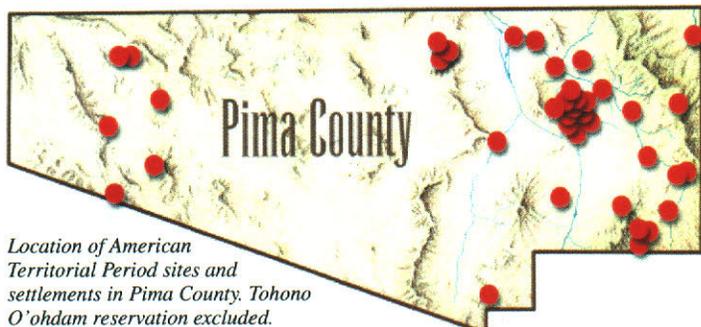
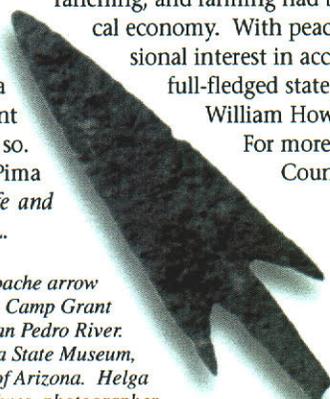


Modern day ruins of the Helvetia mining town in the Santa Rita Mountains. Courtesy of Pima County. Jessica Levy, photographer.

concern for all, and stories of murder and mayhem fueled continuous demands for protection from the federal government. In response, a system of frontier forts was constructed throughout the Territory starting in the early 1860s, which replaced the Spanish presidios that had been built for the same reasons. Fort Lowell was established northeast of Tucson in 1872 and became an important military base in the Indian Wars that raged off and on until Geronimo, the famed Apache medicine man, and his warriors surrendered to U.S. forces in 1886.

The railroad came to Tucson in 1880 making shipment of both people and goods relatively easy for the first time. With the end of the frontier wars with the Apaches, people began to spread out beyond the confines of Tucson into the county and establish new settlements. Many of these centered around mining camps such as Ajo, Olive, Total Wreck, Helvetia, Greaterville, and Cerro Colorado. Today, most of these places are ghost towns, silent testimonies to the boom and bust cycle of mining life. Ranches, some covering hundreds of square miles, were established during this time, too, wherever there was good water and plentiful grass. By the beginning of the 20th century, mining, ranching, and farming had become the mainstays of the local and prosperous economy. With peace and prosperity came congressional interest in accepting Arizona into the Union as a full-fledged state, and on February 12, 1912 President William Howard Taft signed legislation making it so. For more information about this time in Pima County's history, refer to *Tucson, the Life and Times of an American City* by C.L. Sonnichsen.

Metal Apache arrow point from Camp Grant on the San Pedro River. Arizona State Museum, University of Arizona. Helga Teiwes, photographer.



Location of American Territorial Period sites and settlements in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum and Pima County.

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Territorial Period at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Overuse of the Santa Cruz River for irrigation combined with severe flooding in the late 1880s resulted in a drop in the water table.

Settlement Pattern

- Most people lived within or close to the Tucson Presidio while the Apaches and O'odham settled in the surrounding countryside. The Papago reservation was created in 1874.
- After the end of hostilities with the Apaches in 1886, the population began to spread out across Pima County establishing ranches, mines, and farms.

Subsistence Techniques

- Food was produced locally through irrigation and dry farming. It was also shipped into the region via the railroad in quantities not previously possible by overland freight.

Technology

- The coming of the railroad to Tucson in 1880 meant that people and goods could be easily transported into the region from across the globe.
- American influences brought a host of tools and technologies into the area for residential, commercial and industrial uses.
- Native Americans continued to use traditional weapons and tools adding Euro-American items to their tool kits in some cases and replacing them entirely in others. Their homes were built in traditional designs and forms with materials used for this purpose for generations.
- Euro-Americans built adobe houses, as had the Spanish before them, a technique that began to be replaced with the arrival of the railroad, which allowed milled lumber and brick to be shipped into the area.

Important Sites/Settlements in the Area

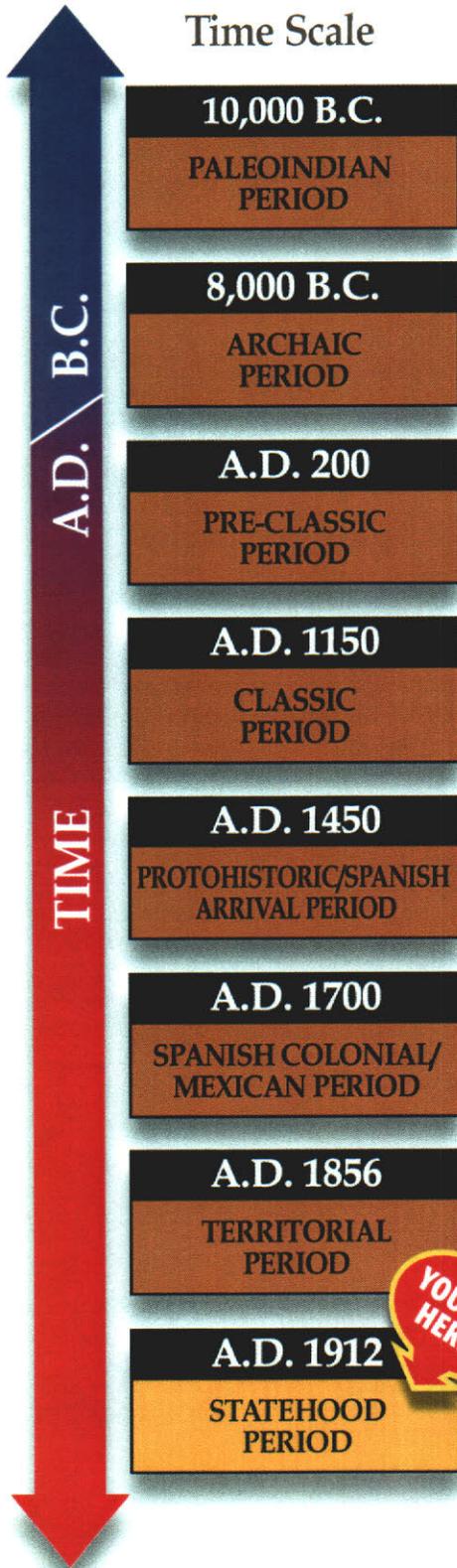
- Tucson
- San Xavier
- Greaterville
- Arivaca
- Ajo
- Redington
- Empire Ranch
- Robles Ranch
- Canoa Ranch

Cienega Canyon train around 1888 after a flood washed out the original tracks. Courtesy of the Arizona Historical Society.



Statehood Period (A.D. 1912 – Present)

Growth, growth, and more growth.



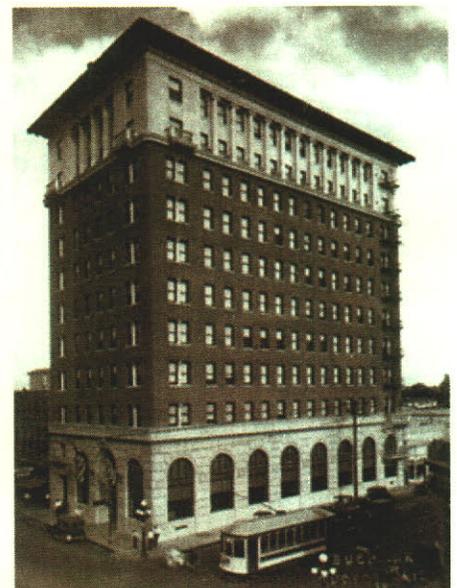
Modern view of the Pima County Court house built in 1928.

PHOTOGRAPH BY PETER CORRAO, COURTESY PIMA COUNTY GRAPHIC SERVICES.

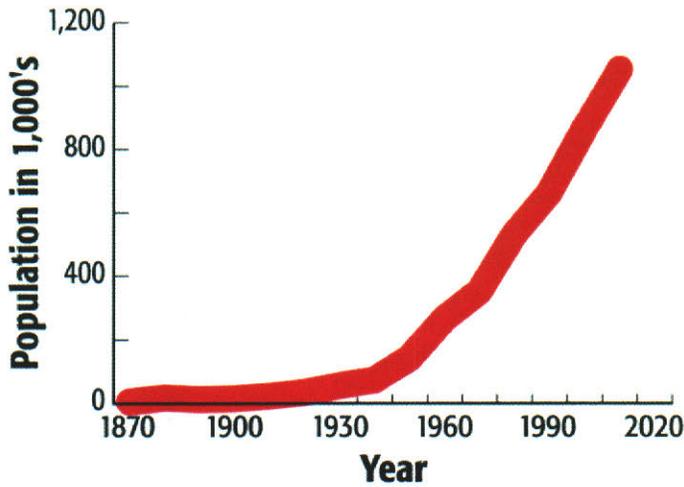
At the time Arizona was granted statehood in 1912, Pima County had a total of only 23,000 citizens, most of whom lived in Tucson. Still, the population had more than quadrupled since 1870, and in the process Tucson was transformed from a small village to a bustling town. With more people came demands for more resources, particularly water. A series of floods along the Santa Cruz River in late 1880s, combined with overuse of the river for irrigation, led to a drop in the water table making traditional farming more difficult. In the early 1900s, deep wells were dug tapping the ground water beneath the Tucson Basin for irrigation. Demand for cotton during the First World War encouraged large-scale cultivation, made possible by ground water pumping. Other crops including citrus, vegetables, and pecans were grown as well.

Immigration also contributed to growth in Pima County. Starting in the late 19th century, Tucson began to promote the health benefits of the region's warm and arid climate, and by the 1920s and 1930s, thousands of people with tuberculosis had settled in the county, some in tent cities on the edge of Tucson. Tourism brought people into the region in ever increasing numbers, too.

Dude ranching became a popular excursion for city people who wanted to vacation on a western ranch during this time. The Depression years saw Pima County struggle with the effects of the national economic collapse and federally funded public works projects helped to sustain many. The Civilian Conservation Corps hired local men to build roads, bridges, parks and trails throughout the county, many of which are still in use today. When the U.S. entered World War II in 1941, the economy shifted to war time production. The airport at Davis-



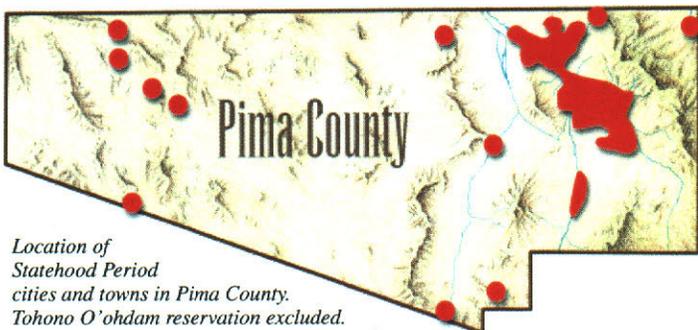
The Valley National Bank building built in 1929. Tucson's first skyscraper. Courtesy of the Arizona Historical Society, Tucson, Arizona.



Graph showing population growth in Pima County between 1870 and 2010 (projected). Source: City of Tucson Planning Department. Pima County Graphic Services.

Monthan Field expanded to become a major military air base. The base brought in thousands of service men who after the war settled in Tucson to raise families. In 1940 Pima County's population was about 73,000; by 1950 it had doubled to 141,000, and by 1960 had burgeoned to 265,000 people, 212,000 of which lived in Tucson. With growth came expansion as more and more people moved to Tucson's growing suburbs and into smaller communities outside the city's limits during the 1970s and 1980s. The latest census figures for the year 2000 put the total county population at 866,000.

Today Pima County is at a crossroads. Many times in the past, the people living in this arid land have been confronted by conditions that require making choices about the future. At the beginning of the 21st century, Pima County faces the problems that come with rapid population growth. The demands of a growing population require ever larger quantities of land, water and other resources needed to sustain current living practices. These resources are limited, however. The City of Tucson estimates that by July 2008, the county's total population will exceed one million people and expand to 1,700,000 in fifty years. How will the necessities of life be met under these conditions? To answer this question, choices will have to be made, and soon. The Sonoran Desert Conservation Plan is an attempt to choose a future that meets the needs of a growing population while also conserving open space, ranch lands, cultural and historical resources, riparian areas, and the habitats of animals that live in this fragile desert environment.



Location of Statehood Period cities and towns in Pima County. Tohono O'odham reservation excluded. Source: Arizona State Museum and Pima County.

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Statehood Period at a Glance

Environmental Conditions

- Natural resources became increasingly affected by human population growth after 1940.

Settlement Pattern

- Native Americans continued to live on reservations. In 1916 the main reservation of the Tohono O'odham reservation was created. The Pasqua Yacqui reservation was established in 1964.
- Most people continued to settle primarily around Tucson, although the traditional north/south settlement along the Santa Cruz River began to shift east/west.
- Smaller communities such as Continental (1916) and Silverbell (1948), were established during the first half of the period and others such as Oro Valley (1974) more recently.

Subsistence Techniques

- Agricultural production shifted from a focus on local subsistence at the end of the previous period to large scale commercial production.
- Large quantities of food were shipped into Tucson for local distribution via the railroad and later by truck over the interstate highway system.

Technology

- U.S. industrial and technological capability rapidly evolved during the 20th century and continues today. "Smokestack" industries never became established in Pima County due to a lack of water.
- Mining continues to rely on specialized technologies and new industries related to defense and optics have emerged in the second half of the period.
- House construction shifted from using traditional materials such as adobe to brick and wood structures with stucco exteriors in a variety of styles and designs.
- The automobile replaced the horse as the main source of transportation.

Major Settlements in the Area

- Tucson
- South Tucson
- Arivaca
- Ajo
- Marana
- Green Valley
- Oro Valley

Housing subdivision intrudes into the surrounding desert



PHOTOGRAPH BY ANDRIEL HESEY, © ANDRIEL HESEY