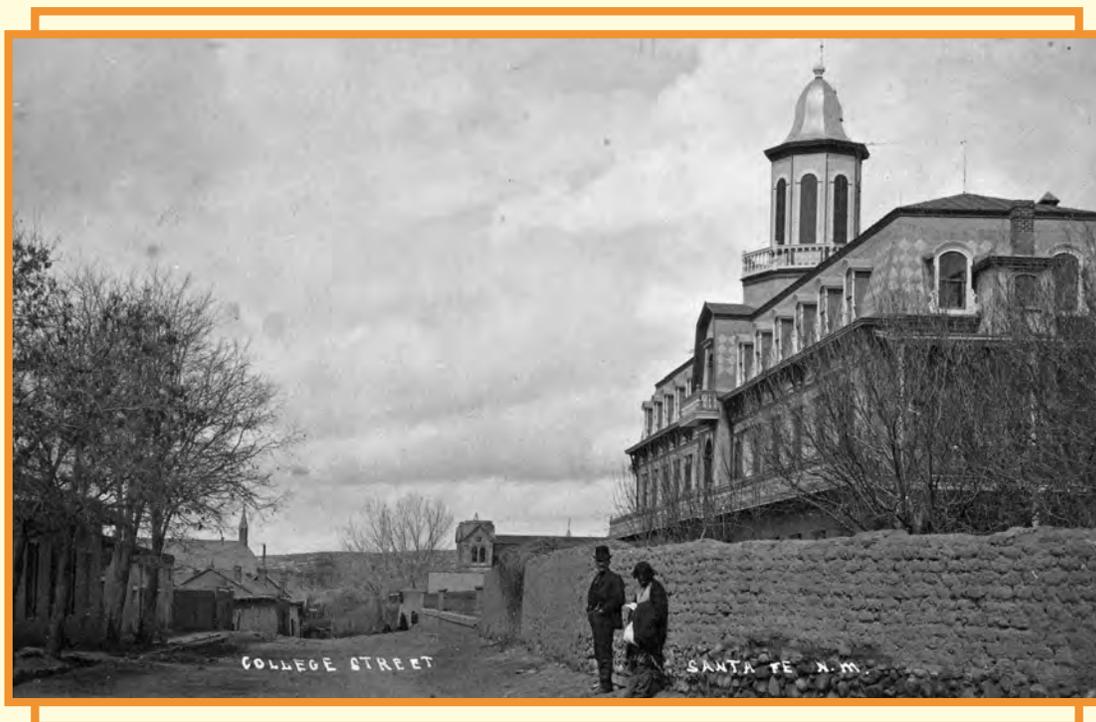


AN ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT AND MONITORING PLAN
FOR THE PERA BUILDING PARKING LOT PARK & RIDE SHELTER
AND ADA RAMP PROJECT, SANTA FE, NEW MEXICO

Matthew J. Barbour, Richard H. Montoya,
and Mary Y. Weahkee



Office of Archaeological Studies  Museum of New Mexico

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**Matthew J. Barbour, Richard H. Montoya,
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**Robert Dello-Russo
Principal Investigator**

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SANTA FE 2012 NEW MEXICO

Administrative Summary

At the request of the Environmental Bureau of the New Mexico Department of Transportation (NMDOT), the Office of Archaeological Studies (OAS), Department of Cultural Affairs, performed a literature review and archaeological assessment of the area proposed for the construction of a Park & Ride pedestrian shelter and Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) ramps in the PERA (Public Employees Retirement Association) Building parking lot. NMDOT plans to modify the PERA Building parking lot by installing the shelter and adding standard ADA ramps, replacing the current curbs and gutters, and relocating an existing signpost. These activities are expected to impact roughly 435 sq ft (0.01 acres) in the southwest corner of the PERA Building parking lot.

The project area is in the Santa Fe Historic District (LA 4450; *State Register of Cultural Properties* No. 260, September 29, 1972; *National Register of Historic Places*, July 23, 1973), the Downtown Archaeological District, and the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood. Nearby historic and cultural significant structures such as the Lamy

and PERA Buildings will not be affected by the project. However, based on archival research, there is significant potential for encountering prehistoric and historic subsurface deposits. These include the possibility of Native American pithouses, a Spanish Colonial structure, the Sena and Vigil residences along East Manhattan Street, and outbuildings associated with St. Michael's College. The abandoned cemetery associated with the nearby San Miguel Church should not be affected or encountered as a result of this project.

OAS recommends archaeological monitoring of all ground-disturbing activities during installation of the shelter and ADA ramps. The monitoring plan calls for the systematic archaeological excavation of the footprints associated with the proposed shelter and ramps if in situ cultural deposits are uncovered.

MNM Project No. 41.947
NMDOT Project No. T900140
NMCRIS Activity No. 123614

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1. Introduction

At the request of Laurel Wallace of the Environmental Bureau of the New Mexico Department of Transportation (NMDOT), the Office of Archaeological Studies (OAS), Department of Cultural Affairs, performed a literature review and archaeological assessment of the area proposed for the PERA Building parking lot Park & Ride Shelter and Americans with Disabilities (ADA) Ramp Project. NMDOT plans to modify the PERA Building parking lot by installing a pedestrian shelter, adding standard ADA ramps, replacing existing curbs and gutters, and relocating an existing signpost.

The project area is near the northeast corner of Santa Fe Trail and Paseo de Peralta in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood (Figs. 1.1, 1.2). It is within the Santa Fe Historic District (LA 4450; *State Register of Cultural Properties* No. 260, September 29, 1972; *National Register of Historic Places*, July 23, 1973), the Downtown Archaeological District, and the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood. The construction activities are expected to impact roughly 435 sq ft (0.01 acres) in the southwest corner of the PERA Building parking lot. This represents slightly more than 0.1 percent of the total area designated

as LA 4450. However, for this report, a 100 ft buffer around the project area was considered while performing the literature review and archaeological assessment. Because the area is currently utilized as an asphalt-covered parking lot, a brief pedestrian survey of the area of potential effect found no cultural resources. Investigations focused on discussing previous archaeological work in the area and a review of archival sources.

The archaeological assessment, the monitoring plan, and the proposed actions discussed in this report comply with provisions set forth in Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act (36 CFR 800), Executive Order 11593 (1972); and the National Environmental Policy Act of 1969 (91 Stat 852) and are in conformance with Section 18-6-5 (NMSA 1978) of the Cultural Properties Act (4.10.15-17 NMAC-N, January 1, 2006). Since the project area is within the City of Santa Fe Historic Downtown Archaeological District, this assessment and all proposed activities to be undertaken will follow guidelines included in the Archaeological Review District Ordinance (adopted October 12, 1987).

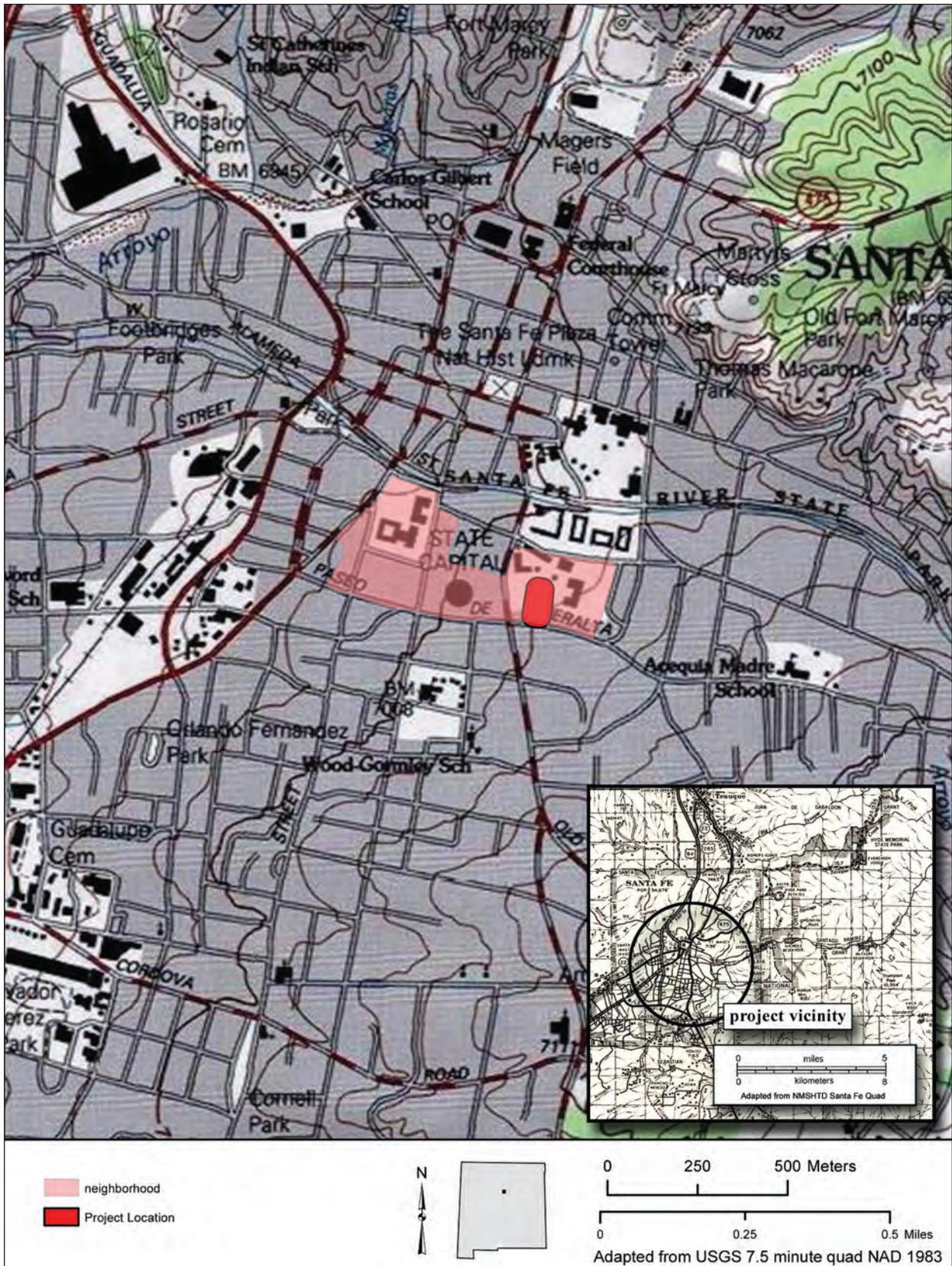


Figure 1.1. Project location.

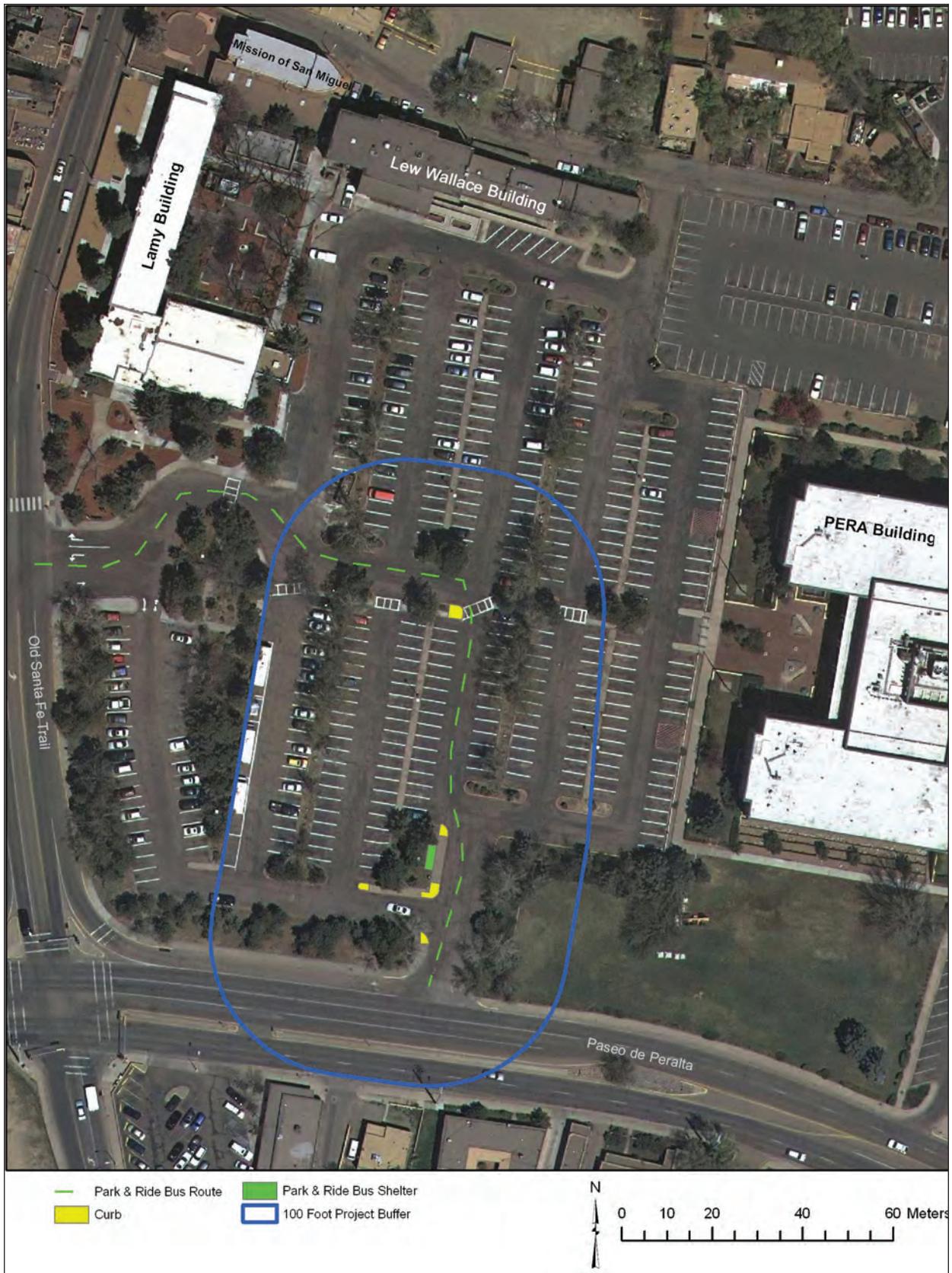


Figure 1.2. Project area.

2. Environmental Setting

This environmental overview is adapted from previous archaeological investigations in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood (Barbour 2011a).

PHYSIOGRAPHY

Santa Fe is on a fault zone within a subdivision of the Southern Rocky Mountain physiographic region known as the Española Basin, one in a chain of extensional basins comprising the Rio Grande Rift, which extends from southern Colorado to southern New Mexico (Kelly 1979:281). This basin, which is considered an extension of the Southern Rocky Mountain Province (Fenneman 1931), is enclosed by alternating uplands of mountain ranges and uplifted plateaus; the Rio Grande flows along the long axis of the feature (Kelly 1979:281). The northern boundary of the Española Basin is the eroded edge of the Taos Plateau. The Sangre de Cristo Mountains form the east boundary, and the southern boundary is marked by both the Cerrillos Hills and the northern edge of the Galisteo Basin. The La Bajada fault escarpment and the Cerros del Rio volcanic hills denote the southwestern periphery. The basin is bounded to the west by the Jemez volcanic field, and the Brazos and Tusas Mountains form the northwestern boundary. Elevations along the Rio Grande through the basin vary from 1,845 m in the north to 1,616 m in the south, and altitudes in the surrounding mountains reach 4,013 m in the Sangre de Cristos, 3,522 m in the Jemez Mountains, and 2,623 m in the Brazos and Tusas (Kelly 1979:281).

The project area occupies a nearly level terrace on the south side of the Santa Fe River at an elevation of 2,126 m. This area is part of an ancient alluvial fan upon which most of Santa Fe resides. The terrace soils developed in reworked, mixed alluvial deposits of the Tertiary/Quaternary-period Santa Fe Formation (Folks 1975).

GEOLOGY

The Rio Grande Rift was established during the late Oligocene epoch (ca. 30 million years BP), when a cycle of crustal downwarping and extensional faulting succeeded a period of regional uplift (Kelly 1979:281). As the subsidence of the Española Basin continued through the Miocene and Pliocene epochs (ca. 3 to 25 million years ago), erosion from the Nacimiento, Jemez, and Brazos uplifts to the north and northwest, and from the Sangre de Cristo uplift to the east, provided most of the sediments for what is known as the Santa Fe Group, the prominent geologic unit within the Española Basin. Other sources of sediment in this geologic unit included ash from volcanic fields in the Jemez, Brazos, and Sangre de Cristo Mountains. Subunits of the Santa Fe Group, such as the Tesuque Formation, consist of deep deposits (over 1 km thick) of poorly consolidated sand, gravel, conglomerate, mudstone, siltstone, and bedded volcanic ash (Lucas 1984).

Alluvial deposits of ancient and modern gravels are found in arroyos and on adjacent terraces. Tertiary volcanic deposits, Cenozoic sediments, and Precambrian rock are exposed in surrounding areas. These sediments and deposits provide most of the materials needed for the production of lithic artifacts by humans. In particular, chert is available in the Ancha Formation (Kelley 1980:11-12), and sandstone, siltstone, andesite, basalt, and silicified wood occur in other nearby formations. The most commonly used chert in the study area outcrops in the Madera limestone formation and occurs in local gravel deposits. Small amounts of obsidian are found scattered along the basalt-capped mesas west of Santa Fe (Kelley 1980:12).

The project area is in the inner valley of the Santa Fe River, or airport physiographic surface (Spiegel and Baldwin 1963:56). The major soil association is Bluewing gravelly sandy loam (Folks 1975:15-16). This soil occurs on 0 to 5 percent slopes and may coexist with Pojoaque and Fivemile soils. These well-drained soils developed in alluvium of mixed origin along terraces and floodplains. The gravelly sandy

loam has rapid permeability with medium runoff; these factors present a severe erosion hazard.

CLIMATE

LA 4450 has a semiarid climate. Latitude and altitude are the two basic determinants of temperature; however, altitude is the more powerful variable in New Mexico. In general, mean temperatures decline faster with increased elevation than with increased latitude. Cold-air drainage is a common and well-known feature of New Mexico valleys. Narrow valleys create their own temperature regimes by channeling air flow: the usual patterns are warm, up-valley winds during the day and cool, down-valley winds at night. In contrast, shifts in temperature over broad valley floors are influenced by local topographic relief (Tuan et al. 1973).

The Santa Fe weather station is at an elevation of 2,195 m. The mean annual temperature reported by the Santa Fe station is 10.5 degrees C (Gabin and Lesperance 1977). The climatological data further indicate that the study area conforms to the general temperature regime of New Mexico, that is, hot summers and relatively cool winters.

The average frost-free period (growing season) at Santa Fe is 164 days. The latest and earliest recorded frosts, respectively, occurred on May 31 (in 1877) and September 12 (in 1898) (Reynolds 1956:251). Although a frost-free season of 130 days is sufficiently long to grow most indigenous varieties of maize by means of dry-farming (Schoenwetter and Dittert 1968; Hack 1942), the unpredictability of late spring and early fall frosts creates agricultural risk. The best agricultural strategy is to plant late enough that seedlings will not erupt above the ground until after the last frost, but early enough that they will be able to fully mature prior to the first killing fall frost.

Precipitation in Santa Fe can fluctuate widely. A maximum of 630 mm of precipitation was recorded in Santa Fe in 1855, compared to a minimum of 128 mm in 1917 (Reynolds 1956). The amount of precipitation is even more variable in any given month in successive years. Late summer is the wettest season in the annual cycle of the Santa Fe area, whereas June is one of the driest months. Precipitation records from

Santa Fe indicate that more than 45 percent of the mean annual precipitation falls between July and September (Gabin and Lesperance 1977). Although October is drier than September, it is the fourth wettest month of the annual cycle. Significant precipitation (7.6 percent of the annual total) also falls in Santa Fe during this month. Late summer and fall moisture is derived from the Gulf of Mexico when air masses from this region push inland to bring the economically important monsoons (Tuan et al. 1973:20). Summer rains tend to be violent and localized. They saturate the ground surface at the beginning of a storm, and much of the moisture is lost to runoff.

FLORA

The project area currently functions as an asphalt-covered parking lot (Fig. 2.1). However, historical local flora and fauna are typical of Upper Sonoran grasslands. Piñon-juniper grassland, which supports a variety of plant and animal species, is the most common habitat. The characteristic vegetation includes piñon, juniper, prickly pear, cholla, yucca, and several species of muhly and grama grass (Pilz 1984). The piñon-juniper community thins as it descends from the Sangre de Cristo foothills and grades into short grass plains containing scattered juniper midway between the foothills and the Santa Fe River (Kelley 1980:12). The open, grass-covered valleys contain grama grass, muhly, Indian rice grass, galleta grass, soapweed yucca, one-seed juniper, Colorado piñon, occasional Gambel's oak, and small stands of mountain mahogany. Arroyo bottoms contain various shrubs such as four-wing saltbush, Apache plume, rabbitbrush, big sagebrush, and wolfberry. The riparian/wetlands habitat is found only along perennial streams such as the Rio Pojoaque and Rio Tesuque. Modern vegetation includes willow, cottonwood, salt cedar, rushes, and sedges (Pilz 1984). In the wider valley bottoms, as in the vicinity of the present study area, ditch irrigation is practiced.

FAUNA

Fauna found historically within the project area include coyote, badger, porcupine, black-tailed

jackrabbit, desert cottontail, spotted ground squirrel, and many species of birds. Mule deer and black bear are known to occur, but in low numbers (Pilz 1984). Use of the area by these animals may have been more common before

the twentieth century (Carroll 1984:2). Plains animals, such as buffalo and pronghorn, may also have been present or available within a few days' travel.



Figure 2.1. The project area.

3. Cultural Overview

This cultural overview is adapted from reports on nearby archaeological projects conducted by the OAS in recent years. The prehistoric context is derived from the results of archaeological data recovery efforts at the Santa Fe Judicial Complex (Lakatos 2011). Much of the historic section incorporated data first synthesized by Maxwell and Post (1992:12–20) during a study of the Old Pecos Trail and is complemented with a more in-depth look at early twentieth-century Santa Fe by Barbour (2011a:9–30) during a study of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood.

PREHISTORIC-PERIOD OVERVIEW (9500 BC–AD 1600)

Two general developmental/chronological frameworks are commonly used to order and classify archaeological sites and materials in the Northern Rio Grande region. One is the Pecos Classification (Kidder 1924; see Cordell 1984:55–59); the other is what Peckham (1984) referred to as the Rio Grande Classification, which was developed by Wendorf (1954) and Wendorf and Reed (1955). Although several other frameworks have been presented for specific subregions and to refine various temporal phases (e.g., Dickson 1979; McNutt 1969; Wetherington 1968), this study follows the Rio Grande Classification.

The Rio Grande chronological framework, as defined by Wendorf and Reed (1955), begins with a preceramic period, which includes occupations dating from the Paleoindian period (ca. 9500 BC) through the end of the Archaic period (ca. AD 400–600). The beginning of the Pueblo period is identified by the appearance of corn, pottery, and regularly patterned pit structures. The Pueblo sequence chronology spans the years from AD 600 to 1600 and is subdivided into the Developmental (AD 600–1200), Coalition (AD 1200–1325), and Classic (AD 1325–1600) periods.

The Developmental period in the Northern Rio Grande spans between AD 600 and 1200. This period is further subdivided into the early Developmental (AD 600 to 900) and late Developmental (AD 900 to 1200) phases. The early Developmental corresponds temporally with the

Basketmaker III and Pueblo I periods of the Pecos Classification, and the late Developmental with the Pueblo II and early Pueblo III periods of the Pecos Classification. The Coalition (AD 1200–1325) period follows the Developmental period and corresponds with the late Pueblo III period. The subsequent Classic period (AD 1325–1600) and historic (postcontact) period AD (1600–1912) are associated with the Pueblo IV and Pueblo V Pecos periods, respectively.

Paleoindian Period (9500–6000 BC)

The earliest well-defined occupation of the American Southwest was by mobile big-game hunters referred to collectively as Paleoindians. Evidence of Paleoindian occupation in the Northern Rio Grande region is rare and typically consists of diagnostic projectile points and butchering tools found on the modern ground surface or in deflated settings (Acklen et al. 1990). More recently, two Clovis-period components have been reported in the Jemez Mountains (Evaskovich et al. 1997; Turnbow 1997), and late Paleoindian material has been reported along the eastern flank of the Rio Grande west of Santa Fe (Dello-Russo 2010). Data recovery at one Clovis-period component identified two medial Clovis point fragments associated with a single thermal feature and tool manufacture debitage (Evaskovich et al. 1997). Identification of Paleoindian occupations within a montane setting may suggest a seasonal subsistence adaptation, from a focus on lowland resources in the winter to a highland adaptation in the summer or, perhaps, a response to drier environmental conditions in lowland settings. An increased focus on hunting smaller game and gathering wild plants than in previous periods may also reflect changes in climate toward the end of the Paleoindian period (Haynes 1980; Wilmsen 1974).

The paucity of reported Paleoindian remains around Santa Fe may be attributed to low visibility of these remains rather than a lack of occupation. Paleoindian remains may be masked by later Archaic and Puebloan occupations. Poor visibility of these remains may also be attributed

to geomorphological factors. Surfaces or strata containing Paleoindian remains may be deeply buried and only visible in settings where these geological deposits are exposed (Cordell 1979), or those strata may have eroded away. Given the land-use patterns in the area over the last 400 years, it is no surprise that Paleoindian sites have not been reported in the Santa Fe area.

Archaic Period (6000 BC to AD 600)

The term *Archaic* applies to the broad-spectrum hunting and foraging populations exploiting local topography and wild food sources. Most Archaic sites in the region date from the Bajada phase (4800 to 3200 BC) to the En Medio phase (800 BC to AD 400), identified by distinctive projectile point types, scrapers, knives, and grinding stones. However, relatively few Early and Middle Archaic-period sites have been identified. Most have been reported from along the Santa Fe River and its primary tributaries south of town (Post 2001, 2010) and from the piedmont northwest of town (Lakatos et al. 2001). These occupations were represented by a variety of thermal features, shallow house foundations, and scattered lithic, ground stone, and fire-cracked rock artifacts. The variety of feature types combined with evidence for dwellings and patterned artifact distributions indicates the annual reoccupation of favorable camp locations adjacent to a range of subsistence resources during this time (Post 2008).

Consistent with the broader regional data, evidence supports an increase in occupation of the Santa Fe area during the Late Archaic period (Acklen et al. 1990; Lang 1997; Post 1996, 2001, 2010). This increase in occurrences may be attributed to changes in settlement and subsistence patterns identified during the Armijo phase (1800 to 800 BC; Irwin-Williams 1973). Settlement changes include evidence of seasonal aggregation, longer periods of occupation, and the exploitation of a broader range of environmental settings, while changes in subsistence practices include the adoption of horticulture, identified at a limited number of sites south of La Bajada Mesa around the Albuquerque area. In the Santa Fe area, Armijo-phase sites have been identified in the piedmont and along the Santa Fe River (Post 1996; Schmader 1994). These sites range from small foraging camps to larger base camps with

shallow structures. Radiocarbon dates, obtained from thermal features, suggest these sites were occupied between 1750 and 900 cal BC (Post 1996; Lakatos et al. 2001; Schmader 1994).

En Medio-phase (800 BC to AD 400) sites are the most numerous Archaic-period sites reported in the Santa Fe area. These sites are found in riverine, piedmont, foothill, and montane settings (Acklen et al. 1990; Kennedy 1998; Post 1996, 1999, 2010; Schmader 1994). En Medio-phase sites range from isolated occurrences to limited-activity sites to base camps with well-defined structures, intramural and extramural features, and patterned artifact distributions. Increased diversity in settlement patterns and site types suggest population increase, longer or reduced time between occupations, and truncated foraging range.

Although many of these sites contained structures, formal features, and grinding implements, evidence of horticulture was absent. Excavation of En Medio sites from the Las Campanas Project (Post 1996) recovered diagnostic projectile point types with dates that range between AD 500 and 850 (Irwin-Williams 1973; Thoms 1977). This temporal observation and the paucity of sites with evidence of horticulture indicate that Archaic subsistence strategies (generalized foraging) may have extended into the early or middle AD 900s north of La Bajada (Dickson 1979; McNutt 1969; Post 1996). No Archaic-period sites are found in the immediate vicinity of the project area.

Early Developmental Period (AD 600 to 900)

Most reported early Developmental sites are south of La Bajada Mesa, primarily in the Albuquerque area, with a few reported at higher elevations along the Tesuque, Nambe, and Santa Fe River drainages (Peckham 1984; Skinner et al. 1980; Wendorf and Reed 1955). Pueblo sites dating prior to AD 900 are relatively rare in the Santa Fe area; after that date, Pueblo occupations became increasingly more numerous. These occupations are typically represented by limited-activity areas and small residential settlements situated along low terraces overlooking primary and secondary tributaries of the Rio Grande. These locations may have been chosen for their access to water and arable farming land (Cordell

1979). Terrace locations may also have provided access to environmental zones with a wide range of foraging resources (Anschuetz et al. 1997).

Early Developmental residential sites typically consisted of one to three shallow, circular pit structures with little or no evidence of associated surface structures (Allen and McNutt 1955; Peckham 1954, 1957; Stuart and Gauthier 1981). Excavation data indicate a suite of construction characteristics for these early structures. Typically, structures were excavated up to 1 m below ground surface and were commonly 3 to 5 m in diameter. Walls were sometimes reinforced with vertical poles and adobe (Lakatos 2006). Walls, floors, and internal features commonly lacked plaster. Ventilators were commonly located along the east to southeast wall of the structures. Common floor features included central hearths, ash-filled pits, deflectors, ladder sockets, and four postholes. Less common floor features included sipapus, warming pits, and pot rests, as well as subfloor pits of various sizes and depths (Allen and McNutt 1955; Hammack et al. 1983; Peckham 1957).

Ceramics associated with early Developmental sites include plain gray and brown wares, red-slipped brown wares, and San Marcial Black-on-white (Allen and McNutt 1955). These types persist through the early Developmental phase, with the addition of neck-banded types similar to Alma Neckbanded, Kana'a Gray, Kiatuthlanna Black-on-white, La Plata Black-on-red, and Abajo Red-on-orange through time (Wendorf and Reed 1955). The accumulation of pottery types and surface textures over time, as opposed to sequential replacement of types and textures, appears to be characteristic in the Rio Grande region during the Developmental period (Wilson 2003). Decorated pottery at early Developmental-period sites may suggest cultural affiliation with people to the west and northwest. However, early Developmental assemblages also contain red and brown pottery, suggesting interaction with Mogollon populations to the south and southwest (Cordell 1979). Although cultural affiliations may seem more secure in assemblages clearly dominated by specific ware groups, cultural affiliations are difficult to determine at early Developmental sites that are dominated by various frequencies of gray, brown, and white wares.

Late Developmental Period (AD 900 to 1200)

Late Developmental sites have been identified from the Albuquerque area to the Taos Valley. This period is marked by an increase in the number and size of residential sites, habitation of a broader range of environmental settings, and the appearance of Kwahe'e Black-on-white ceramics (Cordell 1979; Mera 1935; Peckham 1984; Wendorf and Reed 1955; Wetherington 1968). Late Developmental populations expanded into higher elevations, settling along the northern Rio Grande, Tesuque, Nambe, and Santa Fe River drainages (Allen 2004; Ellis 1975; McNutt 1969; Peckham 1984; Skinner et al. 1980; Wendorf and Reed 1955). Commonly along low terraces overlooking primary and secondary tributaries of these rivers, these sites provided access to water, arable farming land (Cordell 1979), and a variety of foraging resources (Anschuetz et al. 1997). Although late Developmental sites are more common at higher elevations than early Developmental sites, there is little evidence for late Developmental occupation of the Pajarito Plateau (Kohler 1990; Orcutt 1991).

Reported late Developmental period sites typically consist of a residential unit comprising one to two pit structures, sometimes associated with a surface structure having 5 to 20 rooms, and a shallow midden (Ellis 1975; Peckham 1984; Stubbs 1954; Stuart and Gauthier 1981; Wendorf and Reed 1955). These residential sites occur as single units or in clusters of units referred to as communities (Anschuetz et al. 1997; Wendorf and Reed 1955).

Surface structures were commonly constructed of adobe, with some rock incorporated into the adobe walls or upright slabs used as wall foundations or footers (McNutt 1969; Stubbs 1954). Walls were constructed with multiple courses of adobe, with or without rock, wattle and daub (jacal), or combinations of these techniques. Contiguous rectangular rooms often lacked floor or wall features, and floors were unplastered, with a few reported examples of adobe, cobble, or slab floors. Subrectangular and D-shaped rooms have also been reported but were apparently less common (Ahlstrom 1985; Boyer and Lakatos 1997; Ellis 1975; McNutt 1969; Stubbs 1954; Skinner et al. 1980).

Variety in size, shape, depth, and construction

techniques is typical of late Developmental pit structure construction. Circular pit structures were the most common, followed by subrectangular structures. Pit structures ranged from 30 cm to 2 m below ground surface and between 3 and 5 m in diameter. Walls of subsurface structures varied from the unplastered surface of the original pit excavation to construction techniques using multiple courses of adobe, with or without rock; wattle and daub; upright slabs used as foundations; adobe reinforced with vertical poles; or combinations of these techniques (Ahlstrom 1985; Boyer and Lakatos 1997; Allen and McNutt 1955; Lange 1968; Stubbs 1954; Stubbs and Stallings 1953).

Floors ranged from compact use-surfaces to well-prepared adobe surfaces. Common floor features include central hearths, upright "deflector" stones, ash-filled pits, ventilator complexes, ladder sockets, and four postholes toward the interior of the structure, perhaps functioning as supports for looms. Other, less common floor features include sipapus, subfloor channels, pot rests, and subfloor pits of various sizes and depths. Ventilators were constructed by connecting the exterior vent shaft to the interior of the structure with a tunnel or a narrow trench. This trench was subsequently roofed using latillas, effectively creating a tunnel. Exteriors of shallow structures were connected to the interior through an opening in the wall. Ventilators were commonly oriented to the east and southeast (Boyer and Lakatos 1997; Allen and McNutt 1955; Lange 1968; Stubbs 1954).

Utility ware ceramics associated with late Developmental sites include types with corrugated and incised exteriors in addition to the plain gray, brown, neck-banded and polished/smudged types associated with the early Developmental period. Decorated white wares were both imported and manufactured locally. Common types included Red Mesa Black-on-white, Gallup Black-on-white, Escavada Black-on-white, and Kwahe'e Black-on-white. Less common types included Socorro Black-on-white, Chupadero Black-on-white, Chaco Black-on-white, and Chuska Black-on-white (Allen 1972). Although decorated red wares have been found at late Developmental sites, they are reported in very low frequencies and appear to have originated from the Upper San Juan,

Tusayan, and Cibola regions. Imported ceramic types suggest late Developmental inhabitants obtained limited amounts of pottery from the Mogollon, San Juan Basin, and Upper San Juan regions (Cordell 1979).

An example of a late Developmental site near downtown Santa Fe is the KP Site (LA 46300). At this site, Wiseman (1989) identified a single trash-filled and burned structure with a variety of imported and locally produced decorated and utility ware pottery types. Obsidian predominated in the flaked stone assemblage, although local chert types, particularly red jasper, were also reported. The subsistence economy was reflected by a wide variety of plant and animal remains, including corn, squash, bee weed, deer, antelope, and cottontail (Wiseman 1989:139). Tree-ring and two radiocarbon dates indicate that the structure was occupied in the mid to late AD 1000s and that the fill had accumulated in the early AD 1100s.

Coalition Period (AD 1200 to 1325)

Several researchers assert that the Coalition period was marked by three major changes reflected in the archaeological record: an increase in number and size of residential sites, contiguous surface rooms used more often as domiciles than during previous periods, and a shift from mineral paint to vegetal based paint for decorating pottery (Cordell 1979; Peckham 1984; Stuart and Gauthier 1981; Wendorf and Reed 1955). An increase in the number and size of residential sites during this period suggests population increase and the extension of the village-level community organization typical of the late Developmental period. Although there is an apparent increase in the number of Coalition-period sites in upland areas that had limited occupation during the Developmental period, like the Pajarito Plateau, the southern Tewa Basin could be the source of this population. Coalition-period sites, whether at higher elevations or in the Tewa Basin, are situated along terraces or mesas overlooking the Rio Grande, Tesuque, Nambe, Santa Fe, and Chama River drainages (Cordell 1979; Dickson 1979). These locations provided access to water, arable farming land, and a variety of foraging resources (Cordell 1979).

Coalition-period residential units typically consisted of one to two pit structures associated

with 10 to 20 surface rooms, and a shallow midden (Peckham 1984; Stuart and Gauthier 1981; Wendorf and Reed 1955). Surface structures often consisted of small linear or L-shaped roomblocks oriented north-south. These roomblocks were one or two rooms deep, with a pit structure or kiva incorporated into or east of the roomblock (Kohler 1990; Steen 1977, 1982). Sites that exhibited this layout were generally considered to have dated to an earlier part of the Coalition period. Although most Coalition-period sites were relatively small, some are reported to have contained up to 200 ground-floor rooms (Stuart and Gauthier 1981). These larger sites were commonly U-shaped, enclosing a plaza(s) to the east. Generally, large Coalition-period sites with an enclosed plaza(s) are considered to have been a later development (Steen 1977; Stuart and Gauthier 1981).

Various construction techniques have been identified in excavated Coalition-period surface and subsurface structures. The walls of surface and subsurface structures were constructed with adobe, with or without rock, masonry, or combinations of these techniques. On the Pajarito Plateau, adobe construction incorporated unshaped tuff into the adobe walls. Masonry consisted of unshaped or cut tuff block jointed with adobe mortar and sometimes chinked with small tuff fragments (Kohler 1990). Contiguous, rectangular rooms were the most common, with a few reported examples of subrectangular and D-shaped rooms (Kohler 1990; Steen 1977, 1982; Steen and Worman 1978).

Variety in size, shape, and depth of pit structure construction was common during the Coalition period. Circular pit structures were most common, followed by subrectangular structures. Pit structure depths ranged from 30 cm to 2 m below ground surface and were commonly 3 to 5 m in diameter. Walls of pit structures were constructed using the techniques described for surface-room construction. Common floor features include central hearths, "deflector" stones, ash-filled pits, ventilator complexes, and four postholes toward the interior of the structure. Other, less common floor features include sipapus, entryways, pot rests, and subfloor pits of various sizes and depths. Ventilators were constructed by connecting the exterior vent shaft to the interior of the structure with a tunnel. Exteriors of shallow structures were connected

to the interior through an opening in the wall. Ventilators were commonly oriented to the east or southeast (Kohler 1990; Steen 1977, 1982; Steen and Worman 1978; Stuart and Gauthier 1981; Stubbs and Stallings 1953; Wendorf and Reed 1955).

Utility ware ceramics include types with corrugated, smeared corrugated, and plain exteriors. Less common utility ware types include striated, incised, or tooled exteriors. Decorated white wares include Santa Fe Black-on-white, Galisteo Black-on-white, and Wiyo Black-on-white, and very low percentages of Kwahe'e Black-on-white. Few trade wares have been reported from Coalition-period sites compared to sites of previous periods; one that has been found is White Mountain Redware (Kohler 1990; Steen 1977, 1982; Steen and Worman 1978).

The ability to inhabit higher elevations during the Coalition period may have been afforded by changes in precipitation patterns and access to unclaimed farming land. However, innovative methods were needed for producing sufficient crops in these cooler settings (Anschuetz et al. 1997). Intensification of water management and agricultural practices through the use of check dams, reservoirs, and grid gardens, especially during the latter part of this period and during the succeeding Classic period, are examples of this intensification (Anschuetz et al. 1997; Maxwell and Anschuetz 1992).

In the Santa Fe area, large villages, such as the Agua Fria School House ruin (LA 2), LA 109, LA 117, LA 118, and LA 119 were established during the early Coalition period. Other large Coalition sites, such as Pindi (LA 1), Tsogue (LA 742), and Tesuque Valley Ruin (LA 746), appear to have been established during the late Developmental period and to have grown rapidly during the Coalition period (Ahlstrom 1985; Stubbs and Stallings 1953). Near downtown Santa Fe, numerous Coalition-period sites have been recorded. Excavations at the old San Miguel Church site identified deposits dating to the fourteenth and seventeenth centuries (Stubbs and Ellis 1955). Excavations at LA 132712, near the intersection of Guadalupe Street and Johnson Street, had a Coalition component represented by a trash concentration, pits, and burials (Scheick 2003). A Coalition-phase pit structure and associated artifacts were found in the west

courtyard of the Federal Courthouse (Scheick 2005). Other sites with Coalition or Coalition-Classic-period materials in the downtown area include LA 1051 (Lentz and Barbour 2008; Lentz 2011), LA 114261 (Hannaford 1997), LA 930 (Peckham 1977; Post and Snow 1982), LA 120430 (Post et al. 1998), LA 125720 (C. Snow 1999), LA 126709 (Viklund 2001), and LA 111 (C. Snow and Kammer 1995).

Classic Period (AD 1325 to 1600)

Wendorf and Reed (1955:53) characterize the Classic period as “a time of general cultural florescence.” Occupation shifted away from the uplands and began to concentrate along the Rio Grande and the Chama and Santa Cruz Rivers, as well as in Galisteo Basin. Large villages containing multiple plazas and roomblocks were built, and regional populations peaked. The construction of large, multiplaza communities superseded the village level community organization typical of the late Developmental and early Coalition periods. In the Santa Fe area, large villages such as the Agua Fria School House ruin (LA 2), Arroyo Hondo (LA 12), Cieneguilla (LA 16), LA 118, LA 119, and Building Period 3 at Pindi (LA 1) flourished during the early part of this period. Although these large villages grew rapidly during the early Classic, only Cieneguilla remained occupied after AD 1425.

Regional ceramic trends included the continued use of carbon-painted pottery, commonly referred to as biscuit wares, in the north, such as the Tewa Basin and Rio Chama Valley; the adoption of glaze wares in southern areas, including the Galisteo Basin; and the production of Jemez Black-on-white in the Jemez Mountains. Along with the development of large aggregated sites, Glaze A, a red-slipped locally manufactured pottery type, was introduced. Although the reasons for the appearance and proliferation of glaze-painted pottery in the area from the Santa Fe River south are ambiguous, many researchers believe it developed from White Mountain Redware. Similarities between types in the two regions are viewed as evidence for large-scale immigration into the Northern Rio Grande from the Zuni region and the San Juan Basin (Mera 1935, 1940; Reed 1949; Stubbs and Stallings 1953; Wendorf and Reed 1955). Other

researchers attribute the changes during this period to expanding indigenous populations (Steen 1977) or the arrival of populations from the Jornada branch of the Mogollon in the south (Schaafsma and Schaafsma 1974). For whatever reason, this was a time of village reorganization.

Sites such as Pindi (LA 1) and Arroyo Hondo (LA 12) experienced reoccupation of older portions of the pueblo during this time (Creamer 1993; Stubbs and Stallings 1953). Intracommunity changes are also suggested by decreasing kiva-to-room ratios (Lipe 1989; Stuart and Gauthier 1981) and the revival of circular subterranean pit structures with an assemblage of floor features reminiscent of the late Developmental period (Peckham 1984). More clearly delineated plaza space and “big kivas” (Peckham 1984:280) suggest social organization that required the emphasis of centrally located communal space.

Emphasizing communal space may have been a means to integrate aggregated populations through ceremonial functions. The need to enhance communal space using architectural units may also be related to the introduction of the Katsina Cult into the Northern Rio Grande during this time (Schaafsma and Schaafsma 1974). A shift from geometric designs to masked figures and horned serpents in kiva murals (Hayes et al. 1981; Hibben 1975) and the occurrence of shield-bearing anthropomorphic rock art figures (Schaafsma 1992) suggest the acceptance of new ideological concepts. Changes in community structure and settlement patterns during the Classic period may reflect the adaptation to or the adoption of new populations, ideological elements, and organizational systems by indigenous inhabitants.

Few Classic-period sites have been excavated in the immediate vicinity of the project area. One such site is LA 1051, the site of the Santa Fe Community Convention Center (Lentz and Barbour 2008; Lentz 2011). Although excavation data are few, Classic-period structural remains and abundant artifacts have consistently been encountered in the Santa Fe area, suggesting that this temporal component is masked by subsequent land use and development (Deyloff 1998; Drake 1992; Lakatos 2011; Mera 1934; Peckham 1977; Tigges 1990).

HISTORIC-PERIOD OVERVIEW (AD 1540 TO PRESENT)

Spanish Contact, Pueblo Revolt, and Reconquest (AD 1540 to 1692)

The first European contact with the northern Rio Grande Valley occurred in the late winter or early spring of 1541, when a foraging party of Coronado's men set up camp near San Juan Pueblo (Hammond and Rey 1953:244, 259). Having heard of Coronado's earlier plundering farther south, these pueblos were hastily abandoned by their occupants. The Spaniards looted the deserted villages (Ortiz 1979:280; Winship 1896:476).

After the Spanish entradas of the mid- and late-sixteenth century, Native American groups underwent numerous changes in lifestyle, social organization, and religion. The introduction of new crops and livestock contributed to major changes in subsistence, as did mission programs, which taught new industries such as metalsmithing and animal husbandry. These were meant to wean the Pueblo people away from traditional ways (Simmons 1979b:181). Incursions by Plains groups also caused the abandonment of many pueblos and a contraction of the region occupied by the Pueblos (Chávez 1979; Schroeder 1979). A combination of new diseases to which the Pueblo people had no natural defenses, intermarriage, conflict attendant with the Pueblo Revolt of AD 1680-92, and the abandonment of traditional lifestyles all contributed to a significant decrease in Pueblo populations over the next few centuries (Dozier 1970; Eggan 1979).

In 1591 San Juan Pueblo was visited by the Gaspar Castaño de Sosa expedition. Castaño de Sosa erected a cross, received obedience to the King of Spain, and appointed a governor, a mayor, and various other administrators (Schroeder and Matson 1965:121, 129; Lentz 1991:7).

With the goals of missionization, territorial expansion, and the acquisition of mineral wealth, the colonizing expedition of Don Juan de Oñate arrived at Ohkay Owingeh (San Juan Pueblo) on July 11, 1598, and proclaimed it the capital of the province. During the winter of 1600-1601, the Spaniards moved across the river to a partially abandoned 400-room pueblo village, which they renamed San Gabriel de los Caballeros. The first Catholic mission church, called San Miguel, was

built at the southern end of the village. Soon, New Mexico was divided into seven missionary districts. A Spanish *alcalde* (magistrate) was appointed for each pueblo, and all were under Oñate's leadership (Spicer 1962:156). In January 1599, in retaliation for the death of Juan de Zaldívar (one of Oñate's two nephews), 70 of Oñate's men attacked Acoma Pueblo. After a three-day battle, the Spanish troops prevailed. In retribution, 500 Acoma prisoners over the age of 25 had one foot severed and were sentenced to 20 years of hard labor in the mines of Zacatecas.

The Spanish colony at San Gabriel did not survive the first decade of the seventeenth century. Oñate returned to Mexico in disgrace, and in 1610 the capital was moved from San Gabriel to the current site of Santa Fe (Ortiz 1979:281; Pearce 1965:146; Spicer 1962:157). There is some scholarly debate regarding exactly when Santa Fe was initially founded (Ivey 2010). Bandelier (1893) and Twitchell (1963) have argued that Santa Fe was founded by Oñate in 1605. However, the most recent interpretations of the archival documents suggest the settlement was initially established by Oñate's captain, Juan Martínez de Montoya, between 1605 and 1608. Early in 1610, under the orders of the viceroy, Pedro de Peralta organized the Villa de Santa Fe as a royally chartered town (Hammond 1927).

During the next twenty years, churches were built in all the pueblos. Native American secular and church officers were also established in each village. These included governors, *alcaldes*, and *fiscales* (tax collectors). During the 1620s, the villages were peaceful, population grew, and conversions to the Catholic Church increased. By 1630, 50 Franciscan missionaries were working in 25 missions, and a school was operating in each (Spicer 1962:158).

In 1676 a series of events led to the Pueblo Revolt of 1680. Forty-seven Pueblo religious leaders were jailed and flogged in Santa Fe for their adherence to traditional Pueblo beliefs. Among them was the San Juan moiety chief, Popé, under whose leadership the Pueblo Revolt was subsequently planned and carried out (Spicer 1962:162-163). Twenty-one of the Franciscan friars in the territory were killed, along with 400 Spaniards. Santa Fe was besieged by an alliance of Pueblo forces, and on August 21, 1680, Governor Antonio de Otermín was forced to surrender and

evacuate the city (Hackett and Shelby 1942:11, 56–57; Lentz 2004). Coincidentally, a similar insurrection successfully ousted the Spanish from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, Mexico, that year.

The Pueblos held firm to their independence for 12 years. During the winter of 1681–82, an attempted reconquest by Otermín was turned back. Otermín managed to sack and burn most of the pueblos south of Cochiti before returning to Mexico. Taking advantage of inter-Pueblo factionalism, the definitive reconquest was initiated in 1692 by Don Diego de Vargas (Dozier 1970:61; Simmons 1979b:186).

Later Spanish Colonial Period (1692 to 1821)

During this period, Spain, under Hapsburg (until 1700) and Bourbon (1700–1821) rulers, was changed from a world empire to a second-tier political and economic power as its European landholdings dissolved, its New World riches were spent, and the social hold of its missionization effort was diminished (Kamen 2003). At the height of its empire, early in the eighteenth century, Spain had economic ties covering three-quarters of the known world. The empire was based on economic superiority gained through alliances with the rich bankers and royalty of the Italian city states, the Flemish, and its neighbor and sea power, Portugal. New Spain and New Mexico were affected by imperial trends as the structure of the government, the focus of the economy, and pressures on the imperial borderlands changed. New Mexico and Santa Fe were on the frontier of the Spanish Empire and at the end of the Camino Real, the main communication and transport route for public, governmental, and ecclesiastic institutions and individuals. Pressured until 1789 by the French and English advances into the North American interior, Santa Fe soon felt the social and economic pressures brought on by the growing pains of the United States and its rapid institution of Manifest Destiny. These pressures exerted tremendous influence on New Mexico as Mexico gained its independence from Spain in 1821.

Government and military. During the eighteenth century and into the early nineteenth century, Santa Fe functioned as the provincial capital of Nuevo Mexico in New Spain. The greater territory and military were administered

by the governor and his appointed officials (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974; Kessell 1989; Weber 1992). After 1735 the governor ruled under the Audencia of Mexico and the Viceroy of New Spain (Westphall 1983:16–17). Locally, Santa Fe was governed by an *alcalde mayor* and *cabildo*, or town council (Hordes 1990; Snow 1990; Twitchell 1925). The *alcalde* and *cabildo* were responsible for carrying out the daily operation of the local government, fulfilling the legal requirements of land petitions as assigned by the governor, and collecting taxes and tithes for the church. These individuals, who were citizens and soldiers, controlled the social and economic well-being and development of the community and surrounding area (Bustamante 1989; Westphall 1983). After 1722, the *alcalde mayor* in Santa Fe appointed two *juezes repartidores*, one for each side of the river, to inspect farmlands and acequias and allot water based on need (Baxter 1997:19). Beginning in 1776 and continuing into the 1800s, the *presidio* system was revamped along with the military importance of Santa Fe and New Mexico. Until the late 1780s, the Santa Fe *presidio* and the improved and expanded *presidio* system provided protection against continued Indian raiding of Spanish and Pueblo villages. With a major decrease in the raiding following Governor Juan Bautista de Anza's treaty with the Comanches, the military served as a buffer against French, English, and later American incursions from the north and east (Moorhead 1974; Simmons 1990; Weber 1992). During this time the Spanish governmental organization in Mexico changed three times, but New Mexico remained primarily under its governor, who also remained the military commanding officer.

Settlement and economy. Following Don Diego de Vargas's Reconquest (1692–96), both pre-Pueblo Revolt and new settlers returned to Santa Fe and the Rio Grande Valley. They allegedly returned to a villa that had been partially destroyed after the escape of Governor Otermín and the surviving colonists, soldiers, and missionaries. The fact that settlers temporarily moved into the Tano pueblo that occupied the former *casas reales* suggests that most of the residences had been destroyed or rendered uninhabitable. Early priorities for the returning colonists and administration were the rebuilding of the *casa reales* and the *acequia*

system, the reallotting of grants to former *encomenderos* and landholders or their surviving family members, and the expansion of the pre-Revolt settlement (Kessell 1989; Simmons 1979a). With the termination of *encomienda*, settlers were expected to be more independent and self-sufficient and to properly compensate the Indians for their labor and goods (Westphall 1983:7). For defensive purposes, settlers were encouraged to settle lands near Santa Fe. However, the quality and quantity of suitable farm land, combined with the practice of living close to their fields, resulted in an elongated and dispersed settlement pattern along the Santa Fe River and adjacent to acequia-irrigated fields, as depicted in the 1766–68 Urrutia map (Simmons 1979a:105–106; Adams and Chávez 1956:40; Moorhead 1975:148–149).

Presumably, all families were eligible for the typical town lot, which in the seventeenth century was defined as two lots for house and garden, two contiguous fields for vegetable gardens, two others for vineyards and olive groves, four *caballerías* of land, and the water necessary for irrigation, if available, thus obligating the settlers to establish residence for ten consecutive years without absenting themselves (Hammond and Rey 1953:1088). Land documents from the eighteenth century clearly show that house and garden lots were common and that they were bought and sold regularly, once the ten-year residency requirement had been fulfilled (Tigges 1990). The extent to which vineyards and olive groves were actually introduced is unclear and has not been addressed archaeologically or well documented historically.

Arable land within the *villa* was scarce by the middle 1700s. Individual or family grants within the city league that included the full four *caballerías* of land or explicit access to the *ejido*, or common land, parcels for livestock grazing were relatively few. Only twenty-four are shown on William White's undated *Sketch Map of Grants within the Santa Fe Grant*, reflecting landownership in the early 1890s and coinciding with land claims filed with the Court of Private Land Claims (Westphall 1983:237). Based on William White's 1895 map, *Showing Owners of Land within the Santa Fe Grant Outside of City Limits*, the long-lot land subdivision pattern is clearly evident. These long-lots were the basis of the small-scale agropastoral economic tradition that typified

eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century land use within village or urban settings such as Santa Fe. The residences, which may be termed *ranchos* or *rancherías*, were much smaller than *haciendas* (Simmons 1979a; Payne 1999:100–109). They were sufficient for subsistence but did not lead to economic advantage or prosperity. Long-lots allowed access into the *ejido* or common lands for other natural resources, such as wood, game, and stone for construction (Wozniak 1987:23–25). Acequia irrigation that supported intensive wheat and corn cultivation was the backbone of successful settlement in New Mexico (Ackerly 1996; Baxter 1997; Snow 1988; Wozniak 1987).

Class and community. During the eighteenth-century, Santa Fe and New Mexico were inhabited by a diverse population. It was a socially stratified society with the governor, high-ranking officials, and officers of the presidio in the upper echelon. The middle class contained the farmers and artisans, who were slightly more prosperous than the common people, and the soldiers of the presidio (Bustamante 1989:70). Other divisions within Hispano society reflected a diverse, mixed, and perhaps somewhat discriminatory and arbitrarily defined caste system (Brooks 2002; Bustamante 1989; Frank 2000). Economically based social stratification was present, but the majority of the population consisted of small landholders of Hispano, Mestizo, Genízaro, or Indio castes.

The Urrutia map shows the area south of the Santa Fe River and between San Miguel Church and the Guadalupe Church area as the Barrio de Analco, in which the population was partly composed of Tlaxacalan Indians from Mexico. Men were soldiers, farmers, shepherds, and laborers, with a few skilled blacksmiths, educators, and medical professionals. During this time, churches and secular *cofradías* remained the main avenues by which social and economically defined groups would cooperate and act as a community (Frank 2000). Until the building of the Santuario de Guadalupe in the early 1800s, worship and service would have been connected with the Parroquia or would have occurred at San Miguel Chapel. With addition of the Santuario, the area assumed a more communal organization mediated through church membership and lay organizations (Sze and Spears 1988:37).

Mexican Period (1821 to 1846)

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, Spain's hold on Mexico and the northern territories had diminished significantly. Recognizing that the citizens of New Mexico could not partake in the normal political, economic, and social activities of the declining empire, Spain allowed New Mexico to operate in virtual independence, except for the most important activities (LeCompte 1989; Westphall 1983). The positive effect was that New Mexico could determine much of its social and economic future. The negative effect was that the economic problems, compounded by limited sources of money, limited access to durable goods, and slow responses to military and administrative issues created a stagnant economic environment. In addition, pressure from the United States to open economic ties, applied through small-scale economic reconnaissance, increased in frequency between 1803 and 1821.

With Mexico's independence from Spain in 1821, New Mexico became a frontier province and an economic avenue to the commercial markets and production centers of the United States. Two major changes instituted by the new government had important consequences in northern New Mexico: the establishment of normal economic relations with the United States through overland trade on the Santa Fe Trail, and the abolition of the caste system, which meant that everyone was a Mexican citizen.

Government. The political structure of Santa Fe experienced only minor change with the switch to a Mexican administration (LeCompte 1989; Pratt and Snow 1988). The abolition of the caste system meant that any citizen had an equal opportunity to hold a public office. Governors were still appointed by Mexico, and the governor continued to be the military commander. He was also responsible for collecting tariffs and regulating the Santa Fe Trail commerce. The town council and *alcalde* still oversaw the town business. Santa Fe was divided into six parishes that formed the nucleus through which issues could be advanced to the council and discussed throughout the community.

Economy. In 1821, with Mexico's independence, the New Mexican frontier was opened to trade with the United States. The Santa Fe Trail, extending from Santa Fe

to Independence, Missouri, became a major trade route for European goods from the East (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974; Simmons 1989). England also opened formal trade relations with Mexico. Due to these improved trade relations, large volumes of Euroamerican manufactured goods were available and filtered north on the Camino Real. By the 1830s, the dominant source of manufactured goods was the Santa Fe Trail, eclipsing the Camino Real in importance. Trade between the United States traders and Mexico continued with a special focus on the northern Mexican silver mining region (Scheick and Viklund 2003:14). Americans traded in New Mexico and became involved in the transfer and allotment of large illegal land grants from Mexican officials (Westphall 1983).

The opening of the Santa Fe Trail and the effect that it had on northern New Mexico's economy has been explored by many researchers (LeCompte 1989; Pratt and Snow 1988; Boyle 1997). With the opening of the Santa Fe Trail, New Mexico still remained predominantly an agropastoral economy. Most villages and towns barely felt the effects of the increase in commercial and consumer opportunity, except that basic household and work items were more readily available. While not widespread immediately, but with greater effect through time, the Santa Fe Trail trade provided access to durable and manufactured goods in quantities and at lower costs than had been available from Camino Real commerce. Seemingly basic household goods, such as window glass, dishware, and hand tools, were available to anyone that could afford to buy them or who could open a line of credit based on projected farm and ranch production. The beginnings of a more viable cash economy meant that wage labor added to the available options for supporting a family. It also meant that with cash available, land that could not sustain a family's needs could be sold.

Society in transition. Mexican independence from Spain resulted in limited changes to the family-and-church-based social structure of Santa Fe and New Mexico. The abolition of the caste system and the granting of equal citizenship to all Mexicans and New Mexicans potentially allowed for changes in the social status of local and provincial officeholders or officials, but there is not strong evidence for such changes

in Santa Fe. General historical descriptions indicate that under Mexican rule, Santa Fe and New Mexico continued to have considerable autonomy resulting in strong organizations that governed religion and other aspects of Hispanic organization (LeCompte 1989:83; Abbink and Stein 1977:160; Frank 2000). Abolition of the caste system and full citizenship had little effect on Hispanic populations but had serious consequences for the Pueblo Indians, who had enjoyed special status relative to land holdings under Spanish rule. Their lands could now be sold and were subject to the vagaries of land transactions (Hall 1987).

Perhaps the strongest force for social change in Santa Fe was the opening of the Santa Fe Trail. This officially opened New Mexico to influences and settlement by populations from the United States and added a new layer of cultural diversity to the social setting which would eventually shift the balance of the social and economic relations in Santa Fe and along the Rio Grande.

American Territorial Period (1846 to 1912)

New Mexico's Territorial-period quest for statehood was one of the longest endured by any state of the Union. Following the United States' acquisition of new southwestern and western territories, there was a disorderly and turbulent rush to own or control land, mineral, and natural resources. The struggle for control created a political, economic, and social order that still affects how New Mexico functions as a state today. Two authoritative accounts of this period are Larson (1968) and Lamar (1966). Much of the following summary is derived from those sources.

Santa Fe Trail and Pre-Railroad times (1846 to 1879). On July 30, 1846, rumors that the United States would invade Mexican territory became a reality as General Stephen Kearny proclaimed his intention to occupy New Mexico. After possible secret negotiations with General Manuel Armijo, the Army of the West arrived in Santa Fe on August 18 and New Mexico was surrendered to the United States (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:44). Between 1846 and the ratification of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo on March 10, 1848, the United States army continued to occupy New Mexico, and a civilian government was installed,

including a governor (initially appointed by General Kearny) and a territorial assembly.

New Mexico changed politically when it was designated a territory of the United States under the Organic Act of 1851 (Lamar 1966:13). The act set up the territorial governorship, from which important appointments were made in the territorial administration. The territorial legislative assembly dealt with issues on a local level, while the territorial governor's job was to ensure that federal interests were served (Lamar 1966:14). The center of government remained in Santa Fe, as it had been during the Spanish and Mexican administrations.

Between 1848 and 1865, the economy continued to focus on Santa Fe Trail trade, with the inclusion of routes from Texas (Scurlock 1988:95-97). Santa Fe continued to be the economic and political center of the territory. In addition to the mercantile trade, the establishment of military forts such as Fort Union and Fort Stanton expanded the economic markets (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:50; Scurlock 1988:76-88). Local economies continued to be agrarian and pastoral. The large ranches supplied cattle and wool to the eastern markets and, until the end of the Civil War, to Mexico. A full-scale cash and wage economy was not yet in place, since New Mexico was still isolated from the rest of the United States by long distances and hostile Indian tribes (Abbink and Stein 1977:167; Fierman 1964:10).

Changes in the social structure were gradual before the Civil War. Early migration by Anglo-American and European entrepreneurs was slow because industries such as mining had only been established on a small scale. As the terminus of the Santa Fe Trail, Santa Fe attracted immigrant Jewish and German merchants, who brought Eastern European business experience into the new territory. These merchants replaced the early traders and established formal businesses (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:63). Early merchants were not satisfied with dealing only in goods and participated in growing land speculation in Spanish and Mexican land grants.

Between 1865 and 1880, the trends that began with establishment of the territory were amplified. Before 1860 the United States' attention was focused on the sectional conflict and the resulting Civil War. New Mexico was a Union territory, and for a brief period in 1862

the Confederates occupied Santa Fe without a shot being fired from the cannons of Fort Marcy, which overlooked Santa Fe. However, when the Confederate contingent attempted to move north to the Colorado gold mines, they were engaged, defeated, and exiled from the territory (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:50-51).

With the end of the Civil War, attention was turned to the settlement of the new territories and their potential for economic opportunity. Military attention turned to pacification of the Native American tribes that roamed New Mexico outside the Rio Grande and its tributaries (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:51-56). The new western territories were perceived as a place where lives ruined by the Civil War could be renewed. Eastern professionals with all kinds of expertise were encouraged by associates to come to New Mexico, where the political and economic fields were wide open (Lamar 1966). Much of this migration centered on Santa Fe, which continued to be the economic and political center of the territory.

The newcomers joined forces with and embraced the *patrón* system, thereby gaining acceptance into the existing cultural setting. These alliances were referred to as "rings." The rings were informal organizations of lawyers, cattlemen, mining operators, landowners, merchants, and government officials (Larson 1968:137). Their common goal was to provide a favorable environment for achieving economic and political aims. The most well known was the Santa Fe Ring, which included territorial governors, land registrars, newspaper owners, lawyers, and elected and appointed officials. Important persons in New Mexico history belonged to the Santa Fe Ring, including Stephen Elkins (secretary of war and US senator), Thomas Catron (territorial delegate and US senator), L. Bradford Prince (US senator and territorial governor), Francisco Chávez (president of the Territorial Assembly), and M. W. Mills (territorial governor) (Larson 1968:142-144). The Santa Fe Ring crossed party lines and was extremely fluid in its membership; disloyalty resulted in ostracization and often in political or economic ruin. Opposition to the ring was suppressed by law and violence, as demonstrated by the Lincoln and Colfax County Wars in the 1870s (Larson 1968:137-140).

The alliances between the new political and economic entrepreneurs and the old power structure came to dominate the territorial legislature, which through time passed an increasing number of laws benefiting the new structure to the detriment of the Spanish and Native American populations (TANM Roll 102, Frames 78-95). The new westerners often had contacts in Washington through which they influenced territorial political appointments and disbursement of economic aid (Lamar 1966:169-170).

Perhaps the greatest lure in the New Mexico territory was land. Ownership of large tracts of land was intensely sought by Santa Fe Ring members, a pattern typified by Thomas Catron, who was one of largest landholders in the United States by 1883, only 16 years after arriving in the territory (Larson 1968:143). To land speculators, most of New Mexico was unsettled and unused. This was an illusion promoted by the frontier subsistence economy of low-density, land-extensive farming and ranching, which had prevailed before the Territorial period. Lack of transportation to markets, conflicts with Indians, and a general lack of funds had retarded New Mexico's cattle, lumber, and mining industries. Under the Spanish land grants, nonarable land was a community resource and was therefore not overexploited. It was the community land that land speculators obtained, to the detriment of New Mexico's rural economy and social structure (Van Ness 1987).

New Mexico's economy changed after the Civil War because of increases in the number of military forts and the growing Anglo-controlled mining and ranching industries. A mercantile system that had focused on Mexican and California trade now supplied the military and transported precious ores from the gold and silver mines of the Santa Rita and Ortiz Mountains to national markets. A marginal cash economy grew as the federal government spent money on military forts and the Indian campaigns. The Santa Fe, California, and Texas trails were the main routes for goods. The Chihuahua trade died after the Civil War (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:61-62).

Early Railroad era (1879 to 1912). Between 1879 and 1912, political power was concentrated in the Santa Fe Ring, which consisted of several Santa Fe politicians (Dean 2010). The

group controlled territorial and local political appointments through a system of patronage and effectively blocked legislation proposed by its opponents. In 1885 Edmund G. Ross was appointed territorial governor and was asked to end the political and economic control of the Santa Fe Ring, a task he was unable to complete.

National attention on New Mexico focused on the continued abuses of the land grant situation. Between 1870 and 1892, the Santa Fe Ring was able to manipulate land grant speculation to their advantage. Surveyors general were usually appointed with the blessing of the ring and were often involved in land deals with ring members (Westphall 1965). William Julian was appointed surveyor general and given the job of halting the land grant abuses, which he carried out in spectacular if not a little overzealous fashion. His inclination was to deny all claims as fraudulent and recommended very few to Congress for confirmation. The grants within and on the periphery of Santa Fe were at both ends of the spectrum. Julian recommended the Sebastián de Vargas Grant, on the southeast boundary of Santa Fe, for confirmation, even though it lacked the proper documents (Court of Private Land Claims [CPLC]). On the other hand, the Salvador Gonzáles Grant, within the northeast corner of the Santa Fe Grant, became the focal point for a national lambasting by Julian (1887) of the abuses of the land grant situation. To the Santa Fe Ring, Julian was an obstructionist, who used his position to advance personal vendettas (Bowden 1969).

At stake in the land grab were millions of acres that would leave private control and enter the public domain if they could not be confirmed as part of a land grant. Julian and Ross believed the public domain should be available to small landholders (Lamar 1966). The Santa Fe Ring supported large-scale ranching and mining interests. Because Santa Fe was the political and economic center of the territory, the land around it was valuable, and large tracts not legitimately included in the Spanish land grants were falsely claimed.

From 1880 to 1912, economic growth in the Santa Fe area began to lag as other areas of the state—Las Vegas, the Mesilla Valley, and Albuquerque—grew in importance. Much of the economic slowdown can be ascribed to the

lack of a through railroad (Elliott 1988:40). Santa Fe, no longer an important economic center, became only a stop at the end of a spur on the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway. Although it was also the terminus of the Denver and Rio Grande Railway, which had local and regional significance, that route had little national importance because it did not tie in directly to the east-west transportation corridor (Pratt and Snow 1988:419).

In a move to spur economic growth, a concerted effort was made to advertise Santa Fe and New Mexico as a tourist and health destination (Spude 2010). Sanatoriums sprang up all across New Mexico, even in remote locations such as Folsom, in the northeast corner of the state. The trip on the Denver and Rio Grande Railway was described as an excellent remedy for lung problems (Nims 1881; Williams 1986:129–131). Two notable sanatoriums in Santa Fe were St. Vincent Sanatorium, established in 1883, and Sunmount Sanatorium, started in 1906 (Lewis 2010). John Gaw Meem was treated at Sunmount in 1920–21 and was the lead architect in remodeling and additional construction at St. Vincents in 1954.

New Mexico's unique cultural heritage was recognized as an important tourist draw. Preservation and revival of traditional examples of architecture and Native crafts and ceremony were encouraged. Large-scale tourist corporations such as the Harvey Corporation invested heavily in Native American crafts. Tourism and economic development became a dichotomy of economic goals. The tourist industry emphasized the old and romantic, while the economic development interests portrayed New Mexico as booming and vital, embodying the modern values embraced by the eastern establishment (Wilson 1981:105–159).

Spude (2010:339) notes that during this time Santa Fe went through a period of "Americanization," where progressive-minded citizens strove to reform government, social and cultural values, and the very appearance of their city. These reforms included the incorporation of the city in 1891, the installation of a sewage system, the paving of roads, new laws governing trash disposal, closing saloons on Sundays, and prohibitions against many forms of gambling. While Santa Fe may not have exhibited much growth, it did maintain economic stability.

The city acquired many federal and territorial expenditures and jobs. Attempts to move the capital to Albuquerque in the early 1880s were defeated, which proved critical to the long-term economic stability of Santa Fe (Lamar 1966). Another choice made by legislators interested in Santa Fe's economic growth was to locate the penitentiary in Santa Fe. As a tradeoff, Albuquerque, Las Cruces, Las Vegas, and Socorro received colleges. The penitentiary was viewed as economically more valuable than schools.

Statehood to Modern Times (1912 to Present)

New Mexico was delayed in its quest for statehood by eastern politicians who viewed the small population, the arid climate, and a Spanish-speaking majority as liabilities. Most New Mexicans favored statehood but had different conditions under which they would accept it. Some citizens feared statehood because of the potential for increased taxation, domination by one ethnic group over another, and the loss of federal jobs under a state-run system. These factors, combined with political factionalism in New Mexico, resulted in the struggle (Larson 1968:302–304).

On January 6, 1912, New Mexico was admitted into the Union as a state. After statehood, the patterns that had been established in the Territorial period continued. New Mexico experienced only slow population growth, with most settlement concentrated along the Rio Grande corridor and in the southeast around Roswell. More than half the state land had a population density of fewer than five people per square mile (Williams 1986:135), partly because of the large area that was part of the National Trust and could not be settled. The major industries continued to be mining, ranching, lumber, farming within the Pecos and Rio Grande irrigation districts, and tourism (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974:77).

The Prohibition era (1920–1933). In the United States, the term *Prohibition* refers to 1920 to 1933, when the sale, manufacture, and transportation of alcohol for drinking was banned nationally by the Eighteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution (Hakim 1995:16–20). After much pressure by the temperance movement, the United States Senate passed the Eighteenth Amendment on December 18, 1917. The “Volstead Act,”

the popular name for the National Prohibition Act, passed Congress over President Woodrow Wilson's veto on October 28, 1919. The Eighteenth Amendment was certified as ratified on January 16, 1919, having been approved by 36 states, including New Mexico, and went into effect on a federal level on January 16, 1920 (Skilnik 2006).

The Prohibition, or dry, movement began in the 1840s, primarily through various religious denominations, but didn't become a strong force in state and local politics until the 1880s, after the Civil War had ended, the Women's Christian Temperance Union (WCTU) was founded in 1873, and the Carrie Nation Prohibition Group was founded around 1881 (Kyvig 2004:3–4). They identified saloons as politically corrupt and drinking as a personal sin and were opposed by other groups, who denounced the idea that the government should define morality. The Progressives won, however, when the Eighteenth Amendment went into effect.

In New Mexico, heavy drinking was a staggeringly pervasive fact of life; some men drank throughout the day. New Mexico voters and legislators were therefore attempting to pass their own prohibition against alcohol during the time of the general movement nationwide. The WCTU and other Prohibition supporters quickly gained ground after the start of World War I. An editorial in the *Santa Fe New Mexican* argued, “If we are to win this war we cannot do it if we stay ‘pickled.’ We should vote ‘dry’ for our country's sake” (Silverman 2006:34–38).

New Mexico voters passed Article XXIII on November 6, 1917, by a margin of three to one, with every county but Rio Arriba and Taos voting for Prohibition, and on October 1, 1918, New Mexico became the 26th dry state (Silverman 2006). This milestone was overshadowed by news of the war and the arrival of a flu pandemic which closed all public gathering places.

Although it was highly controversial, Prohibition was supported by diverse groups: progressives, the Ku Klux Klan, women, southerners, people in rural areas, and African Americans (Blue 2004). The law, however, proved difficult to enforce because, while alcohol was illegal in the US, it was not illegal in Canada, Mexico, and the Caribbean, where alcohol was consumed by visiting Americans or illegally imported to the US. Chicago became notorious

as a haven for disobeying Prohibition during the Roaring Twenties. Bugs Moran and Al Capone made millions of dollars from illegal alcohol sales through the Chicago speakeasies and the bootlegging business from Canada to Florida (see Kyvig 2004:163–186).

As in other areas of the nation, New Mexicans never really stopped drinking. Cheap booze, created in homemade and commercial stills and smuggled up from Mexico by rumrunners, remained readily available. New Mexico also had its illegal drinking establishments, although not on as large a scale as Chicago. Historian David J. McCullough described one Santa Fe speakeasy, circa 1927: “One of the more notable establishments was housed in a three-story building. . . . The quality of the drinks and the décor of the rooms changed on each floor. The first floor was for ‘poorer people’ who wished to quench their thirst with ‘white mule. . . .’ The second floor was for those slightly more affluent who wished to ascend to ‘Second Heaven. . . .’ Only those with a ‘fat wad’ could make it to the third floor where good quality booze was sold.”

To add to the problem of enforcing the state’s prohibition, New Mexico legislators at the time were hard drinkers and refused to pass legislation that would give the antialcohol laws any teeth. When the Eighteenth Amendment went into effect, 1,520 Federal Prohibition agents (police) were given the task of enforcing the law. Some of those officers later rated New Mexico as worse than average in fighting illicit liquor sales (Silverman 2006).

As Prohibition became increasingly unpopular, especially in the big cities, its repeal was eagerly anticipated. On March 23, 1933, President Franklin Roosevelt signed into law an amendment to the Volstead Act, known as the Cullen-Harrison Act, which allowed certain kinds of alcoholic beverages to be manufactured and sold (Skilnik 2006). The Eighteenth Amendment was then repealed with ratification of the Twenty-first Amendment on December 5, 1933. This amendment gives states the right to restrict or ban the purchase or sale of alcohol, which has led to the confusion of laws that allow some counties and towns within a state, but not others, to sell alcohol.

Overturning the New Mexico legislation was a challenge. Attempts at reform were made in 1927

and 1929 to no avail. The temperance movement remained strong, but the antitemperance movement began to gain prominent citizens as supporters, rather than only saloon owners. It took a few years, but they were finally able to bring a repeal measure to the State Legislature. New Mexico voters finally ratified the state repeal measure in September 1933 to overthrow Prohibition. New Mexico then ratified the Twenty-first Amendment on November 2, 1933 (Silverman 2006).

Many social problems have been attributed to the Prohibition era, in New Mexico as well as across the US, including a profitable, often violent black market for alcohol and racketeering. Stronger liquor surged in popularity because it was more profitable to smuggle. The high cost of enforcing Prohibition and the lack of tax revenues on alcohol negatively affected the local, state, and federal treasuries of government. Also, only half the breweries that had existed before Prohibition were able to reopen, and several historians credit Prohibition for destroying the fledgling wine industry in the US (MacNeil 2000:630–631).

The Great Depression era and the New Deal (1929–1941). A great depression is defined as a period of diminished economic output with at least one year where output is 20% below the trend (Kehoe and Prescott (2007). The beginning of the Great Depression in the United States is associated with the stock market crash on October 29, 1929, known as Black Tuesday; it lasted until the onset of the war economy of World War II, beginning around 1939. It caused a widespread economic downturn, affecting countries worldwide, some as early as 1928 (Engerman and Gallman 2000). Cities and countries around the world were hit hard, especially those that were dependent upon heavy industry. International trade sharply declined, construction virtually halted in many countries, and crop prices in farming and rural areas fell by 40 to 60 percent. Demand plummeted, and there were few alternate sources of jobs (Cochrane 1958).

In the US, however, optimism persisted even following the 1929 Wall Street crash. John D. Rockefeller insisted that “depressions had come and gone” in his 93 years, and that “prosperity has always returned” (Schultz and Tishler 1999). In fact, the stock market turned upward in early 1930, and government and business actually spent

more in the first half of 1930 than in early 1929. Consumers who had lost heavily in the crash, however, were wary and cut back their spending by 10 percent. Even though credit was ample and available at low rates, people were reluctant to add new debt by borrowing. By May 1930, prices in general began to decline. Wages, however, held steady in 1930, then began to drop in 1931. Furthermore, a severe drought hit the agricultural heartland beginning in the summer of 1930. Industries hardest hit by economic conditions were agriculture, due to low commodity prices, and mining and logging, where unemployment was high, and few other jobs were available. As the American economy declined, other countries were affected either positively or negatively, depending upon their internal strengths or weaknesses. By late 1930, a steady decline set in, reaching bottom in March 1933.

Debt is seen as one of the causes of the Great Depression. People and businesses that were deeply in debt when price deflation occurred or when demand for their product decreased often defaulted. Massive layoffs occurred, leading to over 25 percent unemployment. As debtors defaulted on debt and worried depositors began massive withdrawals, banks began to fail. Capital investment and construction then slowed or completely ceased, and banks became even more conservative in their lending. A vicious cycle developed, and the downward spiral accelerated.

A sharp decline in international trade after 1930 is also thought to have helped worsen the depression, particularly for countries significantly dependent upon foreign trade (Kindleberger 1973:291-308). Others argued that the Great Depression was caused by monetary contraction, the consequence of poor policy making and inaction by the American Federal Reserve System and the continuous crisis in the banking system (Bernanke 2000; Krugman 2007; Griffin 2002). Some argue that part of the reason the Federal Reserve did not act to limit the decline of the money supply was the laws regulating gold (Wueschner 1999). At the beginning of the Great Depression, Herbert Hoover was president (Hakim 1995). His secretary of the treasury, Andrew Mellon, advised Hoover that shock treatment would be the best response to deal with the economic problems: "Liquidate labor, liquidate stocks, liquidate the farmers, and liquidate real estate. . . . That will

purge the rottenness out of the system. High costs of living and high living will come down. People will work harder, live a more moral life. Values will be adjusted, and enterprising people will pick up the wrecks from less competent people." Hoover rejected that advice because he believed that government should not directly aid the people. He insisted instead on "voluntary cooperation" between business and government (Hoover 1979:3-9) and stricter government regulation of existing laws.

Enter Franklin D. Roosevelt. Inaugurated in 1933, he primarily blamed the excesses of big business for causing an unstable bubblelike economy. He wanted to restructure the economy, and so the New Deal was designed as a remedy by empowering labor unions and farmers and by raising taxes on corporate profits, among other things (Vieter 1994). Part of the initial reforms (called the First New Deal by historians), the National Recovery Administration (NRA) and the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA), were intended to highly regulate and stimulate the economy (Kyvig 2004:236-238). The two concepts were apparently incompatible, however, since the economy continued to stagnate. By 1935, the Second New Deal added Social Security; a national relief agency (the Works Progress Administration); and, through the National Labor Relations Board, a strong stimulus to the growth of labor unions (Kyvig 2004:269-270). Unemployment fell from 25% to 14.3% in the period from 1933 to 1937. But then a short-lived recession in 1937-1938 caused unemployment to jump to 19%. Roosevelt also responded to the 1937-38 deepening of the Great Depression by abandoning his efforts to balance the budget and by launching a \$5 billion government spending program (an effort to increase mass purchasing power) in the spring of 1938. It was not until the military draft of World War II, the decontrol of the wartime command economy, and a sharp reduction of taxes and regulations in 1946 that consumer goods were finally allowed to be created and unemployment fell to levels under 10 percent.

Eventually, some of the New Deal Regulation (the NRA in 1935 and AAA in 1936) was declared unconstitutional by the US Supreme Court. In a bipartisan wave of deregulation, most New Deal regulations were later abolished or scaled back in

the 1970s and 1980s (Vietor 1994).

The citizens of New Mexico benefited greatly from many of the New Deal programs. New Mexico was one of the most destitute states in the Union even prior to the onset of the Depression (Arrington 1969:311-316). In the early 1930s, many New Mexicans were struggling financially, which in turn caused a shortfall in the state's tax base, leading to its inability to serve the state's most vulnerable citizens (Coan 1925; Forrest 1989). By the height of the Depression, 50 percent of New Mexicans were unemployed, and only 1 percent of the irrigable land was actually under cultivation (Welsh 1985:20). The need for jobs was so great that the New Mexico Federation of Labor proposed limiting employment on government construction projects to one wage earner per family. Governor Arthur Seligman applied for a small amount of federal aid, initially from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and later from other programs, seeing the money as a way to employ out-of-work New Mexicans and improve New Mexico's infrastructure. He believed that plenty of men would be willing "to work for a dollar a day and their board and keep" to provide something beneficial to the state (Seligman 1933).

New Mexico's state-government-sponsored capital improvements were insignificant compared to the projects completed through New Deal programs. New Mexico is ranked fifth among all states in per capita expenditure of New Deal money from 1933 to 1939 (Kammer 1994:2). Conchas Dam (35 miles north of Tucumcari) is a consummate example of the New Deal in New Mexico and involved essentially every New Deal program created by the Roosevelt Administration, from the 1935 Federal Emergency Relief Act (ERA) to the Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC), including the Works Progress Administration (WPA), the Public Works Administration (PWA), and the Works Projects Administration (WPA) programs for writers, artists, and teachers. The Conchas Dam construction project was justified as a means to bring wage-paying jobs to an area of high unemployment. Labor-intensive methods, such as handmade adobes and hand-quarried local sandstone blocks, were employed during the construction of an entire town, which had to be built prior before the construction of the Dam itself (Schelberg and Everhart 2008:134).

The town included virtually every facility and amenity associated with life in the 1930s (Kramer 1941).

The project, as first proposed in 1931 and at a cost over \$11,600,000, was rejected by Congress and the US Army Corps of Engineers as not economically justified. It was not considered economically viable until 1935, and only then with the possibility of employing ERA relief workers. Ultimately 2,500 people worked on the Conchas Dam, many for as little as \$0.25 per hour and for no more than 20 hours per week so that more people could be hired. Even with the low wage, there was a continuous waiting list of applicants. In accordance with ERA provisions, 90 percent of the employees were listed on relief rolls and 10 percent on the Civil Service Commission registry. Of the former, 80 percent were from New Mexico and 20 percent from the Texas panhandle. Most skilled workers were from California and the Midwest, since there were no skilled workers in New Mexico (Welsh 1985:22-32; Kammer 1994:64).

In addition to Conchas Dam, one of the lasting New Deal legacies for New Mexico was establishing Spanish-Pueblo Revival style and Territorial Revival style as the two regional architectural construction styles for the government buildings that remain in use to this day (Kammer 1994:32). Clyde Tingley, Albuquerque mayor from 1932 to 1934, became familiar with the New Deal programs by bringing Civil Works Administration (CWA) projects into Albuquerque, including 17-acre Roosevelt Park, near UNM, and Tingley Beach, adjacent to a flood-control channel (Kammer 1994:27-28). After Tingley became governor, from 1934 to 1938, he maintained a special relationship with President Roosevelt and wholeheartedly embraced the New Deal with the goal of improving New Mexico by expanding governmental services—a fundamental tenet of the New Deal. Under Tingley's guidance, the WPA put thousands of New Mexicans back to work on projects which resulted in unprecedented public capital improvements (Kammer 1994:26-41). During his years as governor, the projects included 2,916 miles of road improvements, 277 new schools, many highway district buildings, institutional buildings and hospitals, public parks, water and sewer systems, and several dams (Kammer

1994:76).

Conchas Dam remains today, but provisions of the lease required that the construction town was to be demolished once the dam was completed and any salvaged materials were to be sold to other Corps districts or government agencies. Neither adobe nor sandstone could be profitably sold or transported great distances. Therefore, much of the demolition was done carefully by hand by the CCC, and the materials were then reused by the CCC to construct the Corps' administration building and five houses for the personnel operating the dam. The administration building and the houses were still in use in 2007, and the land that the town sat on had reverted to private ownership (Schelberg and Everhart 2008:144).

Other buildings and structures around New Mexico that were built by CCC crews and other New Deal programs include 30 structures at Bandelier National Monument, the National Park Service building on Old Santa Fe Trail, the 1934 Don Gaspar Bridge, the Supreme Court Building in Santa Fe, and six structures for the New Mexico School for the Deaf (Weideman 2008).

While the New Deal is well known for the construction projects undertaken throughout the country, it is less well known that there were also artist and writer projects established by the Works Progress Administration (WPA) to provide support for the humanities. Many of New Mexico's best-known artists were involved in this New Deal's WPA Art Project, to their benefit and the benefit of many locations throughout New Mexico. More than 65 murals with varied subject material were created in New Mexico during the Depression. In addition to these murals, more than 650 paintings, ten sculptural pieces, and numerous indigenous Hispanic and Native American crafts were sponsored by the WPA (Collector's Guide 2008).

In terms of benefit from New Deal programs, New Mexico was one of the highest ranked states, especially with regard to building and conservation funding. The programs of the New Deal essentially created the existing New Mexico state government structures, confirmed the architectural style of the government buildings, and did much to introduce New Mexico to the modern era (Schelberg and Everhart 2008:145).

The Proud Decades (1941-1960). President

Roosevelt's New Deal Programs were credited with pushing New Mexico to modernize. State agencies had to be created for New Mexico to take advantage of the federal government's offers of financial aid. By 1939, New Mexico's economy was already deeply in trouble, with farm, livestock, and taxable property values tumbling for almost a decade. As with much of the country, New Mexico's economic rebound was intimately associated with World War II and the militarization of the state. Agriculture also received a strongly needed boost as the demand for food surged.

During World War II, New Mexico was home to 8 major air bases, 13 bombing and gunnery ranges, 4 army hospitals, 3 prisoner of war camps, 11 National Guard armories, and 7 specialized military locations (Hoffman n.d.). Its citizens had compiled an impressive and unique record of military service, although contributions by Hispanic and Native Americans received little public recognition. A partial explanation in the case of the Navajo Code Talkers was the secrecy which cloaked this program until the 1980s. In 1942, 29 Navajo volunteers from boarding schools in Shiprock, Fort Defiance, and Fort Wingate were organized into the first unit of Code Talkers. Structuring the code was not a simple task. Military terms had to be translated into images and the images into Navajo spoken language, which allowed messages to be radioed among combat command posts. First employed in 1942 on Guadalcanal, the code was used throughout the war years and was never broken by the enemy (Paul 1998).

In 1940 the 111th Cavalry Unit of the New Mexico National Guard was redesignated the 200th Coast Artillery Regiment, and the 158th was reorganized as the 104th Antitank Battalion (Reed 2010). These units, as well as the 21st Engineer Regiment, were called to active duty for one year of training. In August 1941, the 200th shipped out to Fort Stotsenberg in the Philippines and was responsible for downing seven aircraft during the Japanese attack of December 8, despite having to use outdated and faulty ammunition (Reed 2010:389-391). A segment of the 200th was subsequently assigned to the 515th Coast Artillery Regiment, which was charged with providing aircraft protection for Manila, the Philippine capital. These units all participated in the four-

month Battle of Bataan and are credited with delaying the Japanese advance and thereby preventing the invasion of Australia (Reed 2010).

On April 9, 1942, 47,000 surviving American and Filipino soldiers surrendered to the Japanese. The American "Battling Bastards of Bataan" were subsequently to receive numerous medals and commendations from the United States and Philippine governments for their heroic performance under terribly adverse conditions. During the 65-mile Bataan Death March, 16,950 American and Filipino service men died, and many more succumbed during their years of imprisonment at Camp O'Donnell. Of the 1,800 New Mexicans who took part in the Bataan campaign, only one-half returned home at the end of the war (Reed 2010:383). Many of these died during the following year of war-related injury and illness.

On the European front, the New Mexico National Guard's 104th Anti-Tank Battalion was sent to Oran in North Africa in February 1943 for advanced training. In January 1944, the battalion landed in Italy and participated in the fighting that led to breaking the Gustav Line and the Allied entry into Rome in June. One month later, the 104th assisted with clearing enemy forces from the Arno River, which allowed penetration into northern Italy. The spring of 1945 saw the 104th cross the Po River and enter Treviso in what was the final phase of the war in Italy. The men of the battalion received eight Silver Stars, three Legions of Merit, and sixty Bronze Stars. One hundred thirty-five Purple Hearts were awarded, thirty posthumously.

The Albuquerque Army Base, subsequently designated as an Air Force advanced flying school, was the site for the training of bombardiers and the filming of the 1943 movie *Bombardier*, starring several of Hollywood's biggest names. During 1942-43, the actor Jimmy Stewart was in Albuquerque instructing trainees to pilot AT-7, AT-9, and B-17 aircraft. He went on to command the 703rd Bomb Squadron and flew several combat missions in the war against Germany (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/James_Stewart).

The 20th Combat Engineering Battalion compiled for itself a commendable record, participating in the invasion of Sicily on July 10, 1943, and later in the year, the invasion of

Paestum, Italy. Journalist Ernie Pyle, who called New Mexico his adopted state, documented the 20th's activities throughout the Italian campaign, writing, "It was good to get back to those slow-talking, wide and easy people of the desert, and good to speak of places like Las Cruces, Socorro, and Santa Rosa." Pyle also praised the cartoonist Bill Mauldin, who hailed from Mountain Park, New Mexico, for his sensitive portrayal of the men fighting and dying on the battlefield. After the war, Mauldin went on to a distinguished career as a newspaper cartoonist. In 1962 he moved to Santa Fe and sculpted a bronze statue of his *Cavalry Sergeant* cartoon, which is still on display at the New Mexico Veterans Memorial Visitor Center and Museum. In 2010 he was honored with a commemorative stamp by the US Postal Service. Ernie Pyle did not survive the war he covered so brilliantly.

New Mexico history is inseparably linked to the Manhattan Project, conducted, in part, between 1942 and 1946 at Los Alamos, which culminated in the development and assembly of the world's first atomic bomb (Diggins 1988:48-53). The project was named after the borough of New York City, where the early operations were conducted. This massive undertaking involved more than 30 sites in the United States and Canada and thousands of scientists and engineers from around the world. The project director, J. Robert Oppenheimer, summarized the motivation of the participants: "Almost everyone knew that this job, if it were achieved, would be a part of history. This sense of excitement, of devotion, and other patriotism in the end prevailed." Oppenheimer recalled the difficulty recruiting personnel who could not be told anything about the where, what, and why of the job (Sullivan 2004). "The notion of disappearing into the desert for an indefinite period and under quasimilitary auspices disturbed a good many scientists and the families of many more." After the US Army purchased the site at Los Alamos, there followed a rush to construct laboratories, barracks, apartments, and all the supporting structures required for the new town (Merlan 1997). The only mailing address for all residents was PO Box 663, Santa Fe, and this address appeared on the birth certificates of all children born at Los Alamos. Soft coal fueled the town; soot and dust covered everything. When it rained, the streets and yards were mired in mud.

Water control was strictly enforced, and new arrivals were advised to soap their bodies before entering the shower and hope that the water turned on. Some residents kept horses and rode the countryside; others took advantage of the outdoors by hiking.

The first and only nuclear test, code name "Trinity," took place on July 16, 1945, near Alamogordo (Merlan 1997). The two other weapons, code names "Little Boy" and "Fat Man," were released over Hiroshima and Nagasaki, respectively. Causing massive destruction and loss of life, the bombs forced the surrender of Japan and averted the need for an invasion of the Japanese mainland, which, it is claimed, would have resulted in an even greater number of Japanese casualties as well as the deaths of many thousands of American servicemen.

Despite the tight security at Los Alamos, three spies were identified. Klaus Fuchs arrived with a delegation of British scientists and was subsequently convicted of spying for the Soviet Union. Theodore Hall was never tried for spying and subsequently immigrated to Great Britain. Also convicted was David Greenglass, the brother of Ethel Rosenberg. His testimony was instrumental in the conviction of Julius and Ethel Rosenberg, who were executed for spying for the Soviet Union. Finally, KGB files, opened many years after the war, raised the possibility of a fourth spy, code name Perseus.

After the war ended, Los Alamos National Laboratory continued to develop nuclear weapons. Operation Crossroads tested the effect of the atomic bomb on naval vessels, and Operation Sandstone, in 1948, evaluated newly designed nuclear weapons. The laboratory continues to be actively engaged in weapons and other research projects (Eidenbach et al. 1996).

The White Sands Missile Range, just west of Alamogordo and the site of the Trinity test, comprises 60 percent of the area covered by the White Sands dunes; the remaining 40 percent is in White Sands National Monument (Welsh 1995). During World War II, a portion of the land was designated the Alamogordo Bombing Range, and on July 16, 1945, the first atomic bomb test was conducted. The official press release issued by the US Army claimed that an ammunition magazine had exploded. Late July saw the arrival of 300 freight-car loads of V-2 rocket components

taken from the German Pennemuende Rocket Center on the Baltic Sea. Toward the end of 1945, German scientists headed by Wernher Von Braun arrived to conduct the rocket research project at White Sands Proving Ground, code name Paperclip. On April 16, 1946, the first missile was launched. In 1958 the White Sands Proving Ground was officially designated the White Sands Missile Range. Then in 1985, the original Trinity detonation site and blockhouse were designated a national historic landmark by the National Park Service.

One regrettable consequence of the attack on Pearl Harbor was Executive Order 9066, signed on February 19, 1942, which authorized the roundup of 120,000 Americans of Japanese origin who lived along the West Coast of the United States and their internment in relocation centers (Reed 2010). Two-thirds were American citizens. Twenty-three thousand Canadians of Japanese origin were also relocated by the Canadian government. The justification offered for this disenfranchisement of American citizens was the threat to national security. General John Dewitt, in command of West Coast defenses, stated, "The Japanese race is an enemy race and while many second and third generation Japanese born on U.S. soil, possessed of U.S. citizenship, have become 'Americanized' the racial strains are undiluted." As it turned out, there were no instances of proven collusion between Japanese Americans and the government of Japan throughout the war, and many Japanese Americans volunteered to fight. The 442nd Infantry Regiment of the 34th Army Division, composed entirely of Japanese men born in the United States, became the most highly decorated unit of the war.

Santa Fe and Fort Stanton were both sites for detention camps administered by the United States Department of Justice (Reed 2010). Other facilities were administered by the US Army, the Wartime Civilian Central Agency, and the War Rehabilitation Authority. In March 1942, the first of the detainees arrived at the Santa Fe facility. During the war years, 4,555 detainees were housed in a 28-acre site in the current Casa Solana neighborhood (Reed 2010:400). High-risk prisoners, mainly Issei, men born in Japan who immigrated to the United States, were often transferred to US Army camps such as the facilities in Santa Fe and Lordsburg. Lower-risk

persons were permitted to join their families in relocation camps or to reside outside the West Coast Military Zone. In general, while the detainees in Santa Fe resented their internment, they were treated with respect, and no serious problems emerged. Prisoners at Lordsburg complained of persecution and mistreatment by the army. The Santa Fe interment camp closed in April 1946 (Reed 2010:400–401).

During this time, Santa Fe was also home to the army's Bruns Hospital (Reed 2010:397–398). In March 1943, a tract of land southeast of the city was set aside for the facility, which opened its doors on April 19, 1943. Named after Colonel Earl Harvey Bruns, a leading authority on pulmonary disease and thoracic surgery, the hospital treated 1,352 patients in the first year of operation and employed 1,000 civilians and 600 military personnel. By 1934 the Bruns Hospital complex had grown to 196 buildings. Bruns was one of 51 general hospitals built during World War II for the army, but it was never intended to be a permanent facility (Reed 2010:398). The buildings were constructed of wood or plasterboard, like so many in Los Alamos during the Manhattan Project. However, the facility continues to be used as the Santa Fe University of Art and Design.

Well into the 1940s, New Mexico, Arizona, Maine, Mississippi, and Washington excluded Native Americans from voting. Article VII, Section 1, of the New Mexico Constitution, enacted in 1912, states that "Indians not taxed may not vote." It was not until 1948 that this exclusion was challenged by Miguel Trujillo Sr. On August 3, 1948, a federal court in Santa Fe struck down this constitutional provision, ruling New Mexico had discriminated against Native Americans who did pay state and federal taxes except for private property on reservations (Bronitsky 2004).

The era from 1940 to 1960 saw a major shift in the basic economic sectors for Santa Fe County. Expressed as a percentage of the total work force, there was a decline in agricultural workers from 12 to 2 percent and in mining/manufacturing workers from 12 to 5 percent; Government employees increased from 14 to 21 percent, while tourism/arts staff rose from 10 to 12 percent

(Wilson 1997:331). Over the same period, the number of hotels and lodging rooms increased from 21 and 740, respectively, to 31 and 1,150, reflecting the growing importance of tourism to the city's economy.

A principal attraction of Santa Fe was its distinctive architectural styles. In 1958 the city, determined to avoid the glass and steel high-rise structures springing up in cities around the country, passed an ordinance stating that all new and rebuilt buildings, especially those in designated historic districts, must demonstrate Spanish Territorial- or Pueblo-style architecture with flat roofs and other features indicative of the area's traditional adobe construction (Wilson 1997). It should not be assumed that this decision was made without prolonged and, at times, harsh disagreements among the residents of the city. Later houses built of lumber, concrete, and other common materials but with stucco exteriors have sometimes been referred to as faux-adobe. Rancorous debate over architectural style of planned state government structures continued into the 1960s.

Santa Fe today. In Santa Fe, the absence of a major spur into the national railroad lines proved to be a detriment to industrial growth. Instead, development in Santa Fe focused on its state and federal administrative centers and the tourism and art trade (Pratt and Snow 1988; Wilson 1981). Today, Santa Fe is the centerpiece of a tourism industry that brings more than \$1 billion into the state every year. Municipal ordinances and efforts of the art and anthropological community to preserve Santa Fe's cultural heritage in the 1920s and 1930s have made it a desirable location for second residences and professional people who supply services to the national markets. The lack of industry that had retarded Santa Fe's growth was turned into a positive situation. Without heavy industry and the accompanying population density, a tranquil quality of life became a draw for people seeking to escape the increasingly crowded and polluted cities. As part of the quality of life and the uniqueness of Santa Fe, its multicultural heritage continues to be emphasized.

4. History of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood

(adapted from Sze and Spears [1988:75–84] and Barbour [2011a:31–42])

The project area is in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood (Fig. 4.1), an area bounded on the north by East De Vargas Street, on the east and south by Paseo de Peralta, and on the west by Cerrillos Road and Galisteo Street. Portions of West Manhattan and South Capitol Streets, Galisteo, Don Gaspar, Old Santa Fe Trail, and Orchard Drive are included in the neighborhood. Today, the area is dominated by large buildings, the majority of which are owned by the State of New Mexico and are used for the administration of state government (Sze and Spears 1988:74–85).

After the United States conquest of New Mexico in 1846, the Palace of the Governors was used for US government offices. By 1852 it was decided that a territorial capitol building should be built on the north side of Santa Fe (Fig. 4.2). Due to lack of funds, it took 30 years to complete, by which time it was considered more appropriate to use the building as the federal courthouse (*Daily New Mexican*, January 27, 1887). In 1884 the Legislative Assembly voted to acquire property and build a capitol building (Wilson 1981:86).

The area chosen by the assembly was south of the Santa Fe River between De Vargas Street and Manhattan Road. The area around the proposed Capitol had largely served as farmland since the founding of Santa Fe. However, it had become more attractive real estate in recent years after the arrival of the railroad, several blocks to the west, in 1880.

St. Michaels College existed in the area prior to both the State Capitol and the railroad (Fig. 4.3). Established in 1859 by the Christian Brothers, it was south and east of San Miguel Church. Even though it was called a college, it was actually a prep school for boys and was among the first schools in the territory where a higher than elementary-level education could be obtained. The school did not become a college program until the early 1950s. The school was first established by brothers from France at the invitation of Bishop Lamy, in what is described as “the old adobe hut,” next to San Miguel Church (*Santa Fe Reporter*, July 31, 1990).

The school struggled for the first 10 years before Brother Botulph arrived in November 1870.

In the 36 years following his arrival, the school was under continuous construction. A dormitory was built in 1878 (now the Lamy Building; Fig. 4.4). A building to house an infirmary, cafeterias, and rooms for visitors was built in 1887 (now known as the Lew Wallace Building; Fig. 4.5). In 1926 the dormitory suffered a near-disastrous fire but was saved by “some brave students” (*Santa Fe Reporter*, July 31, 1990). The fire left the college struggling to find classroom space. In response, a former student, Miguel Chavez, took on the task of constructing a new building. Named the Chavez Memorial Building, it stood until 1967, when the state acquired all the properties from the Christian Brothers for development of the Public Education Retirement Association (PERA) Building. The school moved outside the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood and became St. Michaels High School. The college program developed in the 1950s became the forerunner for the Santa Fe University of Art and Design, which now occupies the former Bruns Hospital (St. Michaels College 1964:15; *Santa Fe Reporter*, July 31, 1990).

By the time of completion of the Capitol in 1886 (Fig. 4.6), a residential community had developed in the area surrounding it and St. Michael’s College. This community was initially comprised of Hispanic families, including the Alarid, Delgado, García, Romero, and Sena families. As the neighborhood grew, Anglo occupants from the eastern United States began to settle the area in ever-increasing numbers.

The first Capitol Building burned down in 1892 (Fig. 4.7), probably due to arson, although responsibility was never determined (Sze and Spears 1988:75). Shortly afterward, efforts were made to move the capital to Albuquerque. In 1900, after deliberations about moving the capital and difficulties in raising funds, a second Capitol Building was built on the same site (Fig. 4.8; Jenkins and Schroeder 1974). The second building is now subsumed within the present-day Bataan Memorial Building.

In 1887 it was planned to extend Don Gaspar Avenue southward along the east side of the Capitol grounds, but that extension was delayed



Figure 4.1. Buildings in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood.

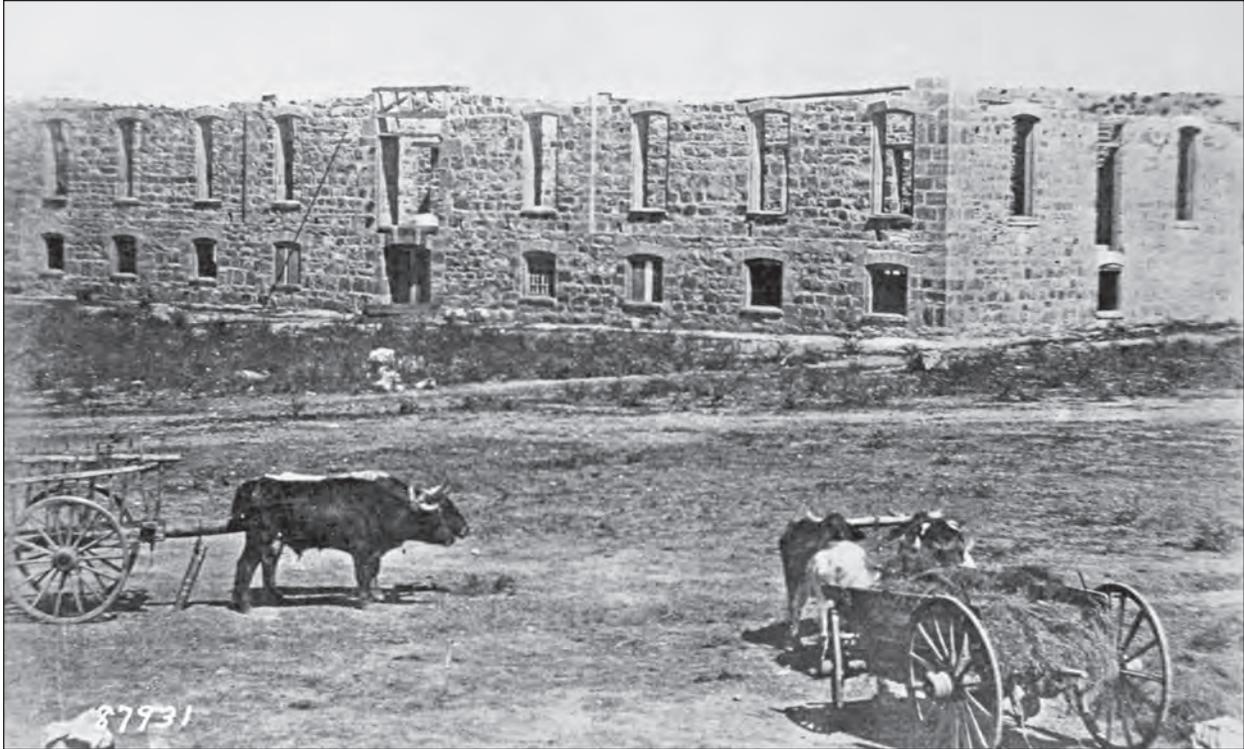


Figure 4.2. Initial construction of the proposed Capitol Building was halted in 1853; the building was completed in 1889. No longer needed as a statehouse, it became the Federal Courthouse. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 010242.

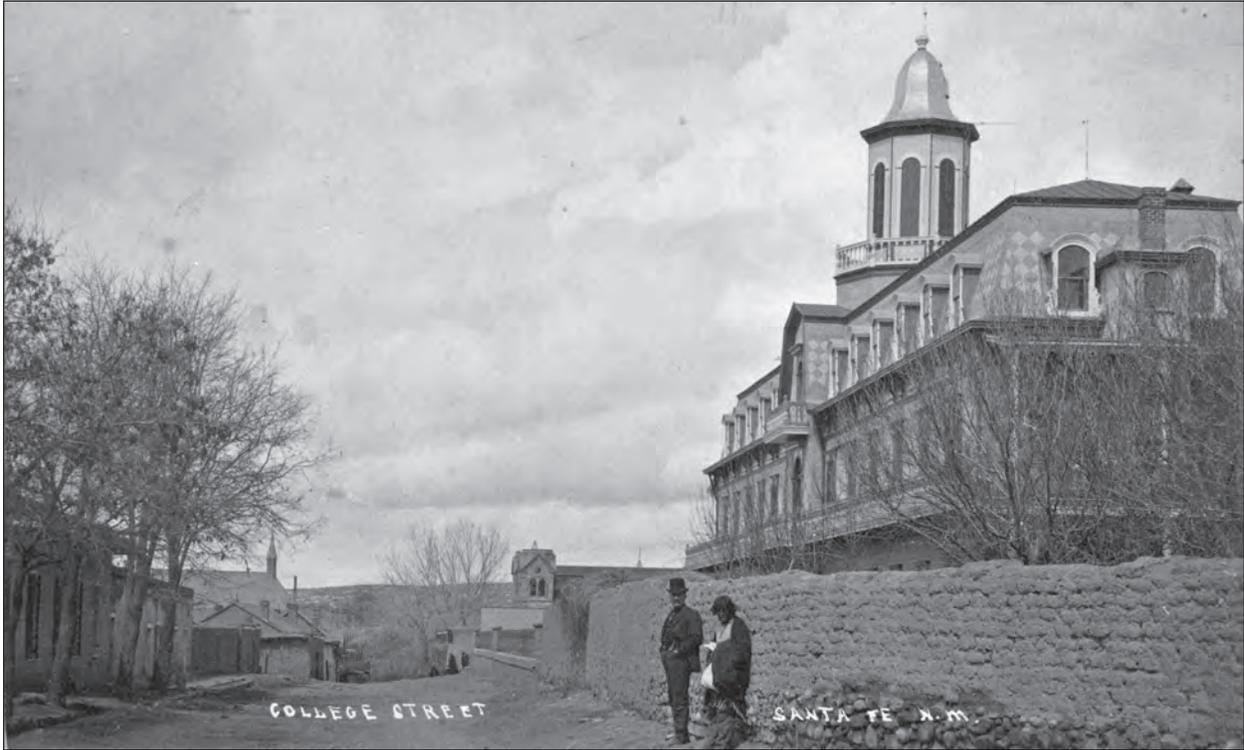


Figure 4.3. St Michael's College. Undated. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 011116.



Figure 4.4. St. Michael's playground and dormitory, now the Lamy Building, in the background, ca. 1924. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 051336.



Figure 4.5. St. Michael's College infirmary, cafeteria, and visitor's center, now known as the Lew Wallace Building, ca. 1924. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 051335.



Figure 4.6. The first Capitol Building, built in 1886. Museum of New Mexico, Neg. No. 76041.



Figure 4.7. The first Capitol Building, which burned in 1892. Museum of New Mexico, Neg. No. 16710.



Figure 4.8. Territorial Capitol Building, ca. 1910. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 010376.

for several years due to land acquisition problems (Wilson 1981:104). In 1900, eight years after it was first proposed, a street named North Capitol was constructed north of the Capitol grounds between Don Gaspar and Galisteo Street. By 1912 the street name had been changed to Manderfield Street to honor William Manderfield, a longtime editor of the *New Mexican* (Sze and Spears 1988:76).

Construction of a new governor's mansion began in 1907 on the south side of the river, just north of the Capitol, near the site of the present Education Building. It was completed in 1909 (Jenkins n.d.; Sze and Spears 1988:76). By 1912 Santa Fe had acquired and subdivided several large tracts of land south of the Capitol into residential building lots, although these areas were still mostly vacant. They included Allan's Highland Addition; the Collingwood, Buena Vista, Salmon, and Capitol Additions; and the Mahaffey Tract. South Capitol Street had also been established, and six new brick houses stood facing the south end of the Capitol. Manhattan Avenue also had several new one- and two-story houses but was still not very developed. The Collingwood Addition, at Manhattan Avenue and Don Gaspar Avenue, where the State Capitol now stands, had no buildings in 1912, but several small frame structures were added later (Sze and Spears 1988:76).

Throughout the 1900s (Fig. 4.9), the number of state government buildings gradually increased in the Capitol Complex area, replacing older residential structures. The existing Capitol Building was enlarged with a major new wing facing Don Gaspar Avenue (Jenkins and Schroeder 1974). In 1934, replacing several pre-1886 structures, the New Mexico Public Welfare building (now the Villagra Building) was completed by the Works Progress Administration (WPA) on the west side of Galisteo Street, opposite the domed Capitol. In 1937, using federal Public Works Administration (PWA) funds, the Supreme Court, which had been housed in the Capitol, constructed a building facing the river just east of Don Gaspar Avenue (Short and Brown 1939:64).

The 1950s brought more changes to the area. The Capitol dome and portico were removed, and the building was "territorialized" from 1951 to 1953. The Governor's Mansion was dynamited in 1955, after a new one had been built on Mansion Drive north of town. The State Department of Education Building, originally named the Mabry Building, was built north of the Capitol in 1950. It had a series of terracotta bas-relief representational panels of images based on New Mexico themes. However, there was a great public outcry over one of the images, that of Miss Fertility, and it had to be removed before the

building opened (Sze and Spears 1988:79).

Extensive remodeling and expansion of the Capitol Complex occurred during the 1960s, mostly east of the existing Capitol Building. The New Mexico State Land Office was built in 1960 at the southwest corner of the river and Old Santa Fe Trail, replacing pre-1886 structures (Sze and Spears 1988:79). The New Mexico State Library, constructed in 1964 at the southeast corner of De Vargas and Don Gaspar, replaced some pre-1912 structures, several old adobes along Amado Street, and Judge Laughlin's house (*New Mexican*, July 12, 1964).

The present State Capitol ("the Roundhouse") was built in 1964–66 between Don Gaspar and Old Santa Fe Trail, north of Paseo de Peralta, displacing the Collingwood Subdivision on Paseo de Peralta and the William Manderfield house on Old Santa Fe Trail (Fig. 4.10; Sze and Spears 1988:79; Wilson 1997:287–291). The PERA (Public Employees Retirement Association) Building was constructed in 1966–67 north of Paseo de Peralta and east of Old Santa Fe Trail (Fig. 4.11). Part of this vacant land had been a baseball field belonging to St. Michael's College, and part had

been a cemetery. The Lew Wallace Building and the Lamy Building, east of Old Santa Fe Trail and south of De Vargas, were originally built in 1887 and 1878 as part of St. Michael's College. They were acquired by the state in 1965 and remodeled in 1969. The Chavez Memorial Building, also part of St. Michael's College, was demolished by 1967. The Villagra Building, west of Galisteo Street and east of Cerrillos Road, was remodeled in 1969. The New Mexico Employment Security Building, between Guadalupe and Sandoval and south of De Vargas, was planned in the late 1960s and completed in 1971 (Sze and Spears 1988:79–83; Wilson 1997:282).

Today, the Capitol Complex area is dominated by large buildings primarily owned by the state (Fig. 4.12). A few older residential pockets remain, including remnants of the Barrio de Analco along De Vargas Street, a residential compound on the grounds south of the Crespín House off west De Vargas, and a few other houses on Galisteo Street, Don Gaspar Avenue, Old Santa Fe Trail, and between the PERA Building and Paseo de Peralta, most of which were constructed prior to 1920 (Sze and Spears 1988:83–84).

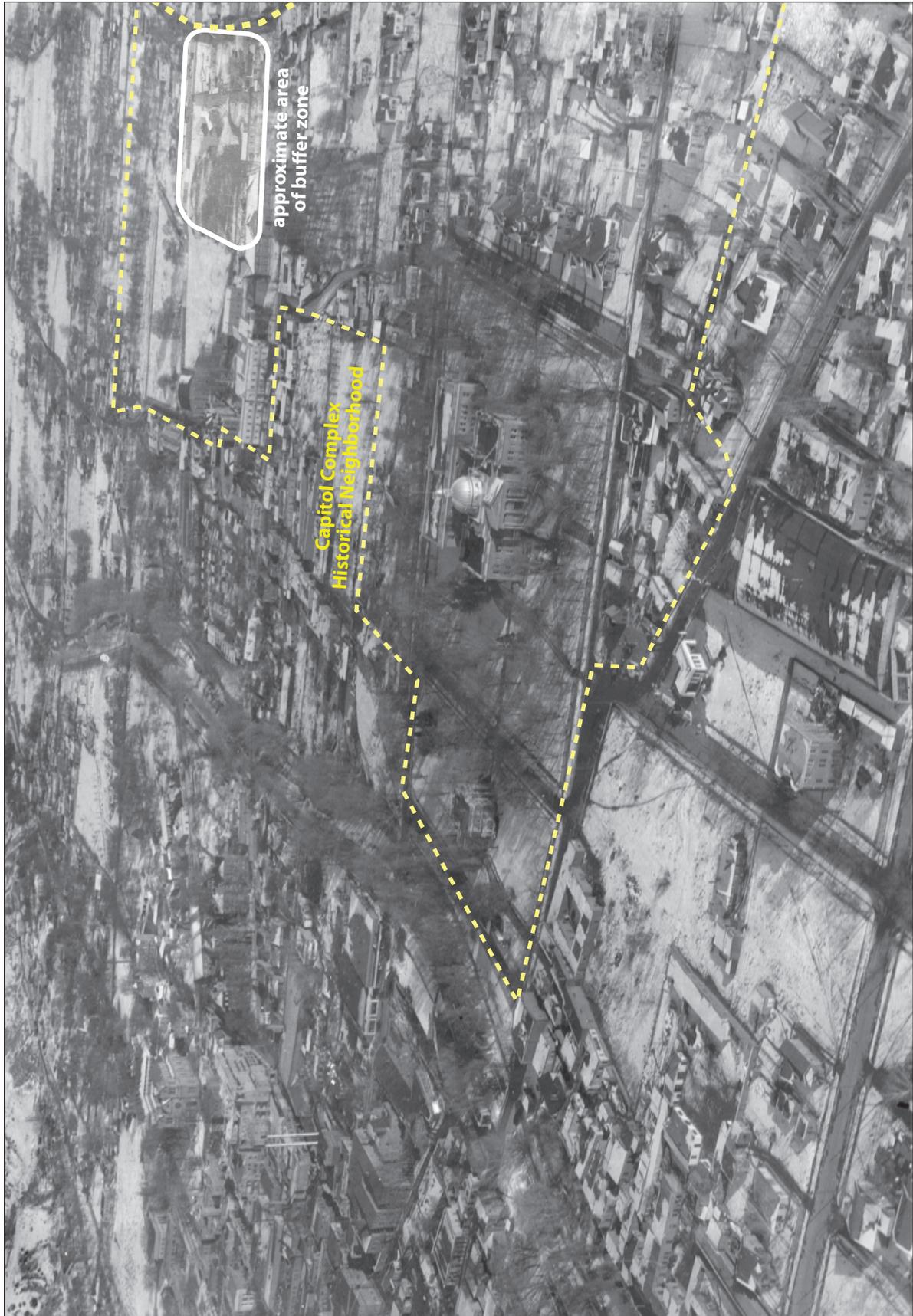


Figure 4.9. Aerial view of the Old State Capitol Building and its surroundings, ca. 1930, looking east. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 40671.



Figure 4.10. Current New Mexico State Capitol Building, known as the Roundhouse.



Figure 4.11. The former New Mexico Public Employees Retirement Association (PERA) Building.



Figure 4.12. Remaining historic casitas along Don Gaspar Avenue, associated with the early twentieth-century residential neighborhood.

5. Archival Research

The project area is in both the Santa Fe Historic District (LA 4450; State Register of Cultural Properties No. 260, September 29, 1972; National Register of Historic Places, July 23, 1973) and the Downtown Archaeological District. It is situated among state and county administrative buildings in a portion of the city referred to by some historians and archaeologists as the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood (see Sze and Spears 1988; Snow 2011; Barbour 2011a). Given that no cultural resources were encountered via a 100 percent pedestrian survey of the area, archival research was undertaken to develop expectations for what might be encountered below the surface during the PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project. It included areas directly impacted by construction and a 100 ft buffer around the project area.

Archival research focused on three primary lines of inquiry: a search of the New Mexico Cultural Resources Information System (NMCRIIS) data base for archaeological patterns in the vicinity of the project area, a survey of historic maps and photographic imagery to place the project area in a historic context, and an examination of written archival documents to garner information about who occupied the project area, when it was occupied, and what sorts of activities were conducted on the site.

NEW MEXICO CULTURAL RESOURCES INFORMATION SYSTEM

Archival research was conducted in the NMCRIIS database to identify archaeological sites within a 500 m radius of the project area. This search turned up 52 archaeological sites representing 77 temporal components (Table 5.1). The vast majority of the components (n = 62) are historic Hispanic and Anglo/Euroamerican. The entire body of temporal components represents over 400 years of European occupation of the area in and around Santa Fe. These Hispanic and Anglo/Euroamerican components include residential and industrial/transportation settings. The residential settings date back as early as

the founding of Santa Fe; the project area is slightly south of the Barrio de Analco Historic Neighborhood. One of the oldest residential areas in Santa Fe, the Barrio de Analco is believed to have been settled by Mexican Indians, or *indios amigos*, in the seventeenth century. However, this idea has recently become the subject of some academic debate (Wroth 2010). To the west, the Railroad Historic District was the transportation and industrial hub of the city from 1880 onwards. The railroad provided the incentive for large-scale settlement south of the Santa Fe River during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood encompasses the project area and its immediate environs. The neighborhood has housed state government for the Territory and the State of New Mexico since the 1880s and provided a residential setting for occupants of the city.

The remaining cultural components are unknown (n = 6) and Pueblo (n = 19); the vast majority of Puebloan sites date between AD 1100 and 1600. These dates can be linked to a large pueblo, LA 1051, which during the Coalition and Classic periods dominated the area now occupied by downtown Santa Fe (Lentz 2005, 2011). While LA 1051 is north of the Santa Fe River, fieldhouses or smaller communities have been identified to the south, such as LA 156207, where archaeologists documented a pithouse and several human burials during construction of the Santa Fe County Judicial Complex (Lakatos 2011). These smaller sites suggest a somewhat dispersed agricultural community all along the Santa Fe River.

Several of the archaeological sites found in this search are listed on the National Register of Historic Places and the State Register of Cultural Properties (Table 5.2). These include the Santa Fe Historic District (LA 4450), the Palace of the Governors (LA 4451), Santa Fe Plaza (LA 80000), and the Barrio de Analco/San Miguel Church (LA 4449). All of these sites represent areas of the City of Santa Fe occupied since its founding. The project area includes a portion of LA 4450 (the Santa Fe Historic District; Fig. 5.1), a site number that encompasses all archaeological sites

Table 5.1. Archaeological sites within 500 m of the project area by component

Component	Dates (AD)	Total
Pueblo		
Anasazi unknown	1–1600	1
Anasazi unknown	900–1100	1
Anasazi unknown	1100–1600	1
Anasazi unknown	1100–1300	2
Anasazi simple feature (burial)	1100–1600	1
Anasazi structural	1100–1600	1
Anasazi artifact scatter	1200–1325	1
Anasazi artifact scatter	1200–1600	3
Anasazi features and artifact scatter	600–1200	1
Anasazi features and artifact scatter	600–1400	1
Pueblo unknown	1692–1821	3
Pueblo unknown	1539–1680	1
Pueblo unknown	1100–1600	1
Pueblo multiple residence	1680–1692	1
Subtotal		19
Hispanic		
Hispanic single residence	1692–1821	1
Hispanic single residence	1750–1856	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1593–1993	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1605–1846	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1714–1996	2
Hispanic residential complex/community	1605–1680	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1821–1846	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1846–1912	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1853–1858	1
Hispanic residential complex/community	1880–1960	1
Hispanic governmental	1605–1680	1
Hispanic governmental	1692–1846	1
Hispanic unknown	1539–1993	1
Hispanic unknown	1692–1821	1
Hispanic unknown	1821–1846	1
Hispanic unknown	1912–2006	1
Hispanic unknown	1945–1993	2
Hispanic simple feature	1539–1680	1
Hispanic simple feature	1605–2004	1
Hispanic simple feature	1846–1912	2
Hispanic simple feature	1692–1821	1
Hispanic simple feature	1846–1996	1
Hispanic simple feature (cemetery)	1846–1912	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1539–1680	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1600–1977	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1600–1900	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1600–1912	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1600–1945	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1700–1850	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1700–1945	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1720–1750	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1720–1821	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1767–1810	1
Hispanic artifact scatter	1846–1945	1

Component	Dates (AD)	Total
Hispanic features and artifact scatter	1620–1930	1
Hispanic features and artifact scatter	1692–1821	1
Hispanic features and artifact scatter	1600–1880	1
Hispanic features and artifact scatter	1610–1680	1
Hispanic features and artifact scatter	1835–1945	1
Hispanic ranching/agricultural	1610–1912	1
Subtotal		43
Anglo/Euroamerican		
Anglo/Euroamerican military	1846–1851	1
Anglo/Euroamerican military	1846–1912	1
Anglo/Euroamerican unknown	1912–1945	1
Anglo/Euroamerican governmental	1846–1945	1
Anglo/Euroamerican single residence	1856–1990	1
Anglo/Euroamerican single residence	1883–1912	1
Anglo/Euroamerican industrial	1891–1960	1
Anglo/Euroamerican simple feature	1725–1945	1
Anglo/Euroamerican simple feature	1846–1912	1
Anglo/Euroamerican simple feature	1945–1960	1
Anglo/Euroamerican commercial	1912–1945	1
Anglo/Euroamerican commercial	1881–1886	1
Anglo/Euroamerican residential complex/community	1846–9999	1
Anglo/Euroamerican features and artifact scatter	1821–1859	1
Anglo/Euroamerican features and artifact scatter	1846–1955	1
Anglo/Euroamerican features and artifact scatter	1850–1930	1
Anglo/Euroamerican features and artifact scatter	1850–1950	1
Anglo/Euroamerican features and artifact scatter	1900–1970	1
Anglo/Euroamerican artifact scatter	1700–1850	1
Subtotal		19
Unknown		
Unknown	900–1880	2
Unknown	?	4
Subtotal		6
Total		77

Table 5.2. Archaeological sites listed on the *State Register* and *National Register* within 500 m of the project area

Name	Site	<i>State Register</i>		<i>National Register</i>
		No.	Date	Date
Barrio de Analco	LA 4449	4	12/20/1968	11/24/1968
Santa Fe Historic District	LA 4450	260	9/29/1972	7/23/1973
Palace of the Governors	LA 4451	17	12/20/1968	10/15/1966
Santa Fe Plaza	LA 80000	27	no date	10/15/1966

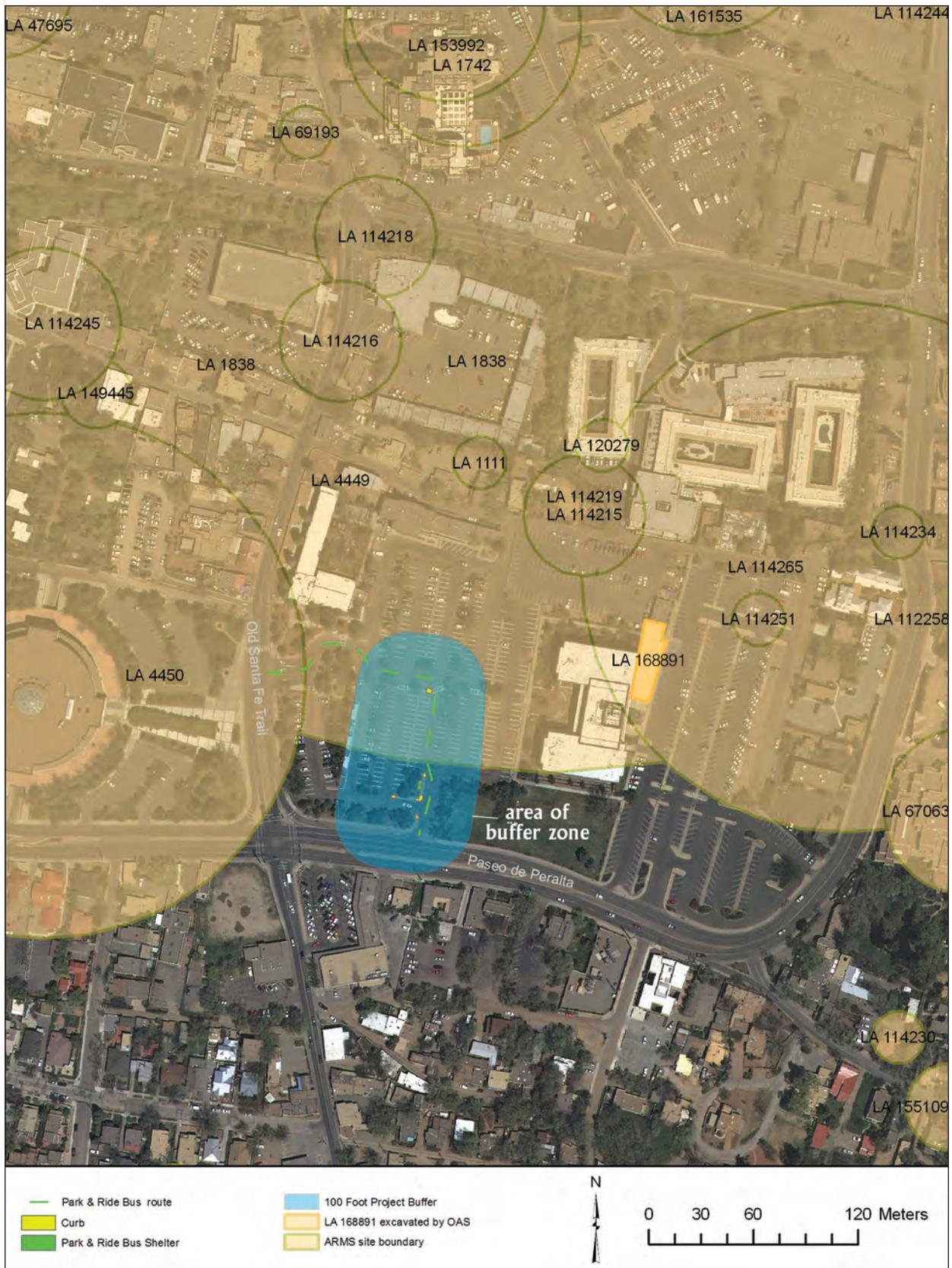


Figure 5.1. Archaeological sites in the immediate vicinity of the project area.

in downtown Santa Fe. LA 4450 and all other previously recorded sites listed by NMCRIS are within and adjacent to the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood (n = 12; Fig. 5.2).

LA 4449: Barrio de Analco/San Miguel Church

LA 4449, known as the Barrio de Analco Historic District, is believed to have originally been settled by Tlaxcalan or other Nahuatl-speaking Indians in the seventeenth century (Wroth 2010; Barbour 2010, Barbour 2011a). It was later occupied by Mestizos and Genízaros who worked the farmland of the *gente de razón*, who, in turn, settled in the villa to the north (Snow 2011).

The district includes nine historic structures interspersed in a modern urban landscape. The inhabitants of this neighborhood claim the barrio possesses the oldest Euroamerican house and church in the United States. The name Analco comes from the Nahuatl language spoken by many Mexican Indian groups, such as the Tlaxcalteca, Mexica, Chichimeca, and P'urhépecha, who accompanied the Spanish on their conquest and settlement of New Mexico. It means "place next to the water." In this case the Barrio de Analco literally refers to the barrio next to the Santa Fe River (National Register Nomination 1997).

There have been no systematic archaeological investigations performed in the Barrio de Analco as a whole. However, two excavations are noted in the manuscripts at the Archaeological Records Management Section (ARMS) associated with San Miguel Church.

In 1955 archaeological investigations conducted by Stanley Stubbs and Bruce Ellis consisted of removing plaster from some wall sections, complete excavation of the sanctuary, and collecting tree-ring samples (National Register Nomination 1997:17). These excavations revealed an earlier church building under the present church. The earlier building contained a small sanctuary, two side altars, low platforms in front of each altar, and at least two steps leading to the sanctuary. Beneath the earlier church were remains of a Native American occupation, consisting of trash, ceramics, and a floor dating to AD 1300. Two burials found under the present church floor (post-1798) are believed to be those of Father Lutour (1863) and Deacon Vaure (1854). Two infant burials dating to post-1710 were also

encountered (Stubbs and Ellis 1955).

Archaeological monitoring by Southwest Archaeological Consultants in 1995 was conducted on a trench being excavated for a wall being built in the courtyard of San Miguel Church. Monitoring revealed disarticulated human remains in the fill of the trench. These remains were presumed to be in secondary deposits from the expansion of the Santa Fe Trail or from construction of one of the buildings south and east of the San Miguel Church. These remains were reburied in their original location at the request of the Brothers of San Miguel Church (Schillaci 1995).

More recent archaeological work at San Miguel Church has also been conducted by Michael Elliot and Elizabeth Oster of Jemez Mountains Research. However, no documentation of this work could be found at ARMS.

LA 4450: Santa Fe Historic District

LA 4450 covers the entire Santa Fe Historic District. As a historic district, Santa Fe is listed in the *National Register* (July 23, 1973) and *State Register* (No. 260, September 20, 1972). Landowners of LA 4450 include the State of New Mexico, city and county government, and private landowners. Archaeological investigations in the Historic District suggest continual occupation of the Santa Fe area from the Developmental period (ca. AD 600) to the present. Cultural features include buried and standing structures, churches, pit structures, residences, and roomblocks (Dart 1977).

All other sites discussed with the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood are within LA 4450. However, they all have unique LA numbers, and many were given "locality numbers" to distinguish them from each other in instances when concentrations of artifacts and structural remains were found. Generally, these locations have been recorded as individual sites because the documentation of each was related to a specific construction activity.

LA 114215

LA 114215, also known as Locality No. 9 in the Santa Fe Historic District, was discovered during an asphalt paving project on East DeVargas

Street. As reported in the ARMS records, the site consists of an artifact scatter with ceramics. The types of ceramics encountered are not identified. The age of the site is unspecified prehistoric period (AD 900) to unspecified historic period (AD 1880), suggesting materials dating from the Developmental to American Territorial periods. However, no report detailing the site could be found.

LA 114219

LA 114219, also known as Locality No. 13 in the Santa Fe Historic District, was indicated by black polished ceramics found in the bricks of the "Old F. Valdez House" on DeVargas Street as it was being remodeled into an office building. LA 114219 was dated to the post-Pueblo Revolt period (1720 to 1821). No report detailing the site could be found.

LA 114232

LA 114232 is mislocated in NMCRIS records as being on Galisteo Street next to the Bataan Memorial Building. It is not in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood. Known as Locality No. 29, LA 114232 is an artifact scatter discovered during backhoe trench excavation near West San Francisco Street and the corner of Sandoval Street, near the Lensic Theater (Wilson 1971). The scatter consists of Ogapoge or Tewa Polychrome ceramics and was dated to the post-Pueblo Revolt period (1720 to 1780).

LA 114245

LA 114245, also known as Locality No. 50 in the Santa Fe Historic District, was discovered during the construction of a building east of the Community Theater on the south side of DeVargas Street (Tigges 1990). The site consists of an early cobble foundation with ceramics buried roughly 30 cm beneath the current concrete foundation of the Community Theater. Based on the probable date range of the ceramics and corresponding settlement patterns, LA 114245 is believed to date from the post-Pueblo Revolt to the New Mexico Statehood period (1700–1945).

LA 114251

LA 114251, also known as Locality No. 57 in the Santa Fe Historic District, was discovered during excavations for a building foundation on 632 Paseo de Peralta that went 12 ft deep (Tigges 1990). The site consists of a dark ash-stained feature and a U-shaped cobble alignment, suggesting a possible acequia. The acequia is believed to date from the Colonial to the end of American Territorial period (1610–1912). The ash-stained feature is more recent, dating to after 1945.

LA 114265

LA 114265, also known as Locality No. 73 in the Santa Fe Historic District, was discovered when two test pits were excavated prior to the installation of structural footings for a building on 1000 Paseo de Peralta or 338 East DeVargas (Snow 1991). The site consisted of an undefined pit and artifact scatter. The artifacts recovered indicated a date range from the Santa Trail to the New Mexico Statehood period (1835–1945). Artifacts were found as deep as 44 cm below the current ground surface.

LA 137736 (also LA 137737)

LA 137736 was also mistakenly designated LA 137737. It is under the current Villagra Building. During renovations and additions to the building in 2005, archaeologists encountered eight features, including a 5 m diameter artifact deposit with ash and a wood-lined well. These features are believed to date to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Hannaford 2007:19).

LA 158037

LA 158037 is an archaeological site with deposits dating primarily to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. During the late Territorial and New Mexico Statehood periods, it was part of multiethnic residential area in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood of Santa Fe. LA 158037 is bounded by Galisteo Street to the west, South Capitol Street to the north, Don Gaspar Avenue to the east, and West Manhattan Avenue to the south. It is on state land.

Archaeological investigations were

conducted at the site by the OAS in 2007 (Barbour 2008), 2008 (Barbour 2011a), and 2011 (Barbour in prep.). These investigations were undertaken in conjunction with development of the State Capitol Parking Facility and Executive Office Building by the New Mexico General Services Division and resulted in the documentation of over 370 features and the collection of over 25,000 artifacts. Feature types included structural foundations, privies, irrigation ditches, domestic refuse pits, and animal burials. No prehistoric or Spanish Colonial deposits have been encountered on the site.

LA 168891: San Miguel Cemetery

LA 168891 is adjacent to the northwest corner of the PERA Building and is believed to represent the location of the San Miguel Church Cemetery, depicted on American Territorial-period maps of the area. Archaeological monitoring associated with renovations of the PERA Building was conducted in 2010 and 2011 by the OAS (Moga and Post 2011). Monitors encountered human remains less than 30 cm below the present ground surface. These human remains were mixed with modern debris, suggesting that construction of the PERA Building in 1967 had impacted burials in the historic San Miguel Cemetery. The extent of this disturbance is currently unknown. Many burials associated with the cemetery were exhumed by workers during construction of the PERA Building.

HISTORIC MAPS AND PHOTOGRAPHS

Historic maps and photographs create a visual narrative of the project area. This narrative begins with the 1766 Joseph Urrutia map of Santa Fe, which depicts fields with several small structures in the vicinity. There are no seventeenth-century maps of Santa Fe. However, given its proximity to the Santa Fe River, it seems likely that the area had been utilized for agricultural purposes at least since the founding of Santa Fe. By the late nineteenth century, the area was urbanized with the construction of St. Michael's College, New Mexico state administrative buildings, and a fully developed residential neighborhood.

Urrutia's Map of Santa Fe (1766)

Joseph Urrutia's map of 1766 shows the project area south of a line of buildings which formed the Barrio de Analco (Fig. 5.3). It is immediately south of the San Miguel Church, north of the *acequia para regadio* (irrigation ditch) and east of the road to Pecos. Most of the project area appears to have been occupied by agricultural fields. However, a linear structure found in the project area measured 80 ft east-west by 36 ft north-south. Given its proximity to the fields, the structure may have housed field laborers, the lower echelon of Santa Fe society. If so, the inhabitants may have been Genízaros from the surrounding Native American tribes and/or *indios amigos* from central Mexico. While San Miguel Chapel (Fig. 5.4) is outside of the project area, it is important to note that the *campo santo*, or cemetery, is west of the aforementioned structure. The location of the cemetery was changed in future depictions of the area.

Gilmer's Map of Santa Fe (1846-1847)

Lt. Emory Gilmer's map of 1846-1847 shows the City of Santa Fe as it appeared under the jurisdiction of the US government. As seen in Figure 5.5, the project area appears largely unchanged from the early eighteenth century representation. The linear structure depicted on the Urrutia map is still standing. However, the cemetery associated with San Miguel Church is no longer depicted.

Nearby, development had continued along the road to Pecos, and several larger structures with interior plazas are visible. If structure size is used as a proxy for wealth, this could suggest growing affluence among those residing south of the Santa Fe River. The growing affluence is presumably tied to the opening of the Santa Fe Trail in 1821, on which caravans from the eastern United States entered Santa Fe via the road to Pecos.

Stoner's Birdseye View of Santa Fe (1882)

Stoner's illustration of Santa Fe is the first to depict Santa Fe after the arrival of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway in 1880 (Fig. 5.6). In this depiction the project area no longer



Figure 5.3. Detail of Joseph Urrutia's map of Santa Fe, 1766.

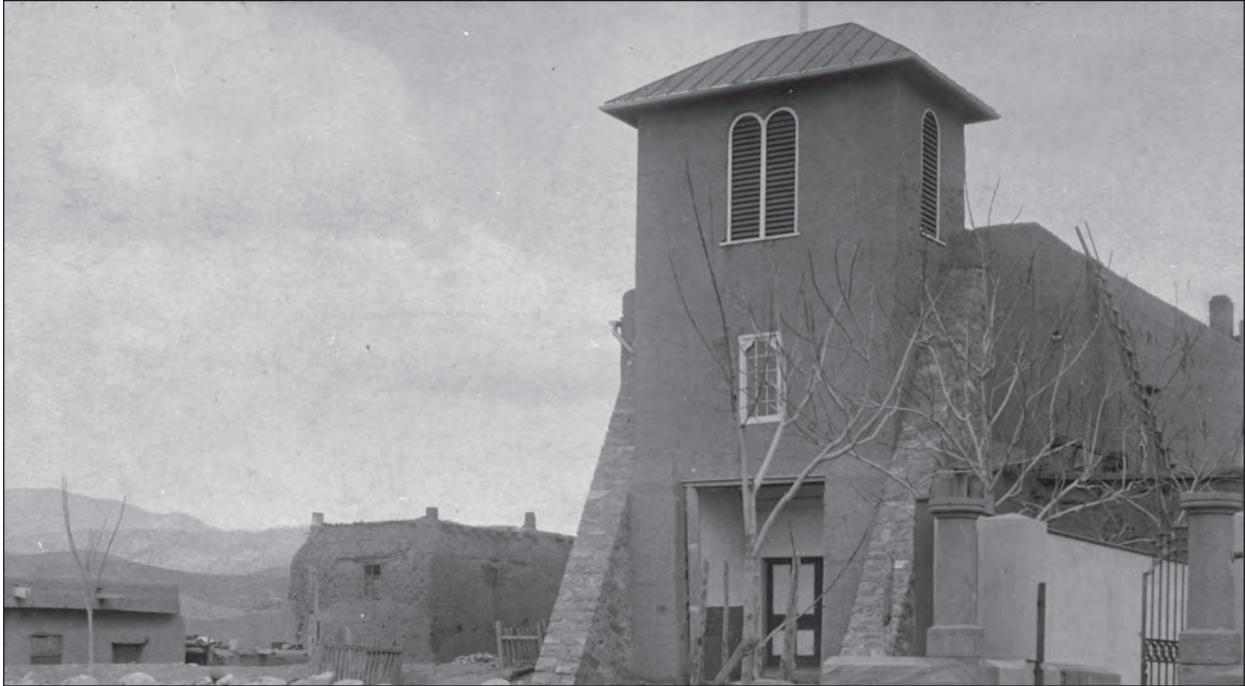


Figure 5.4. San Miguel Chapel, ca. 1891. Museum of New Mexico Negative No. 049154.



Figure 5.5. Detail of Lt. Emory Gilmer's map of Santa Fe, 1846-1847.

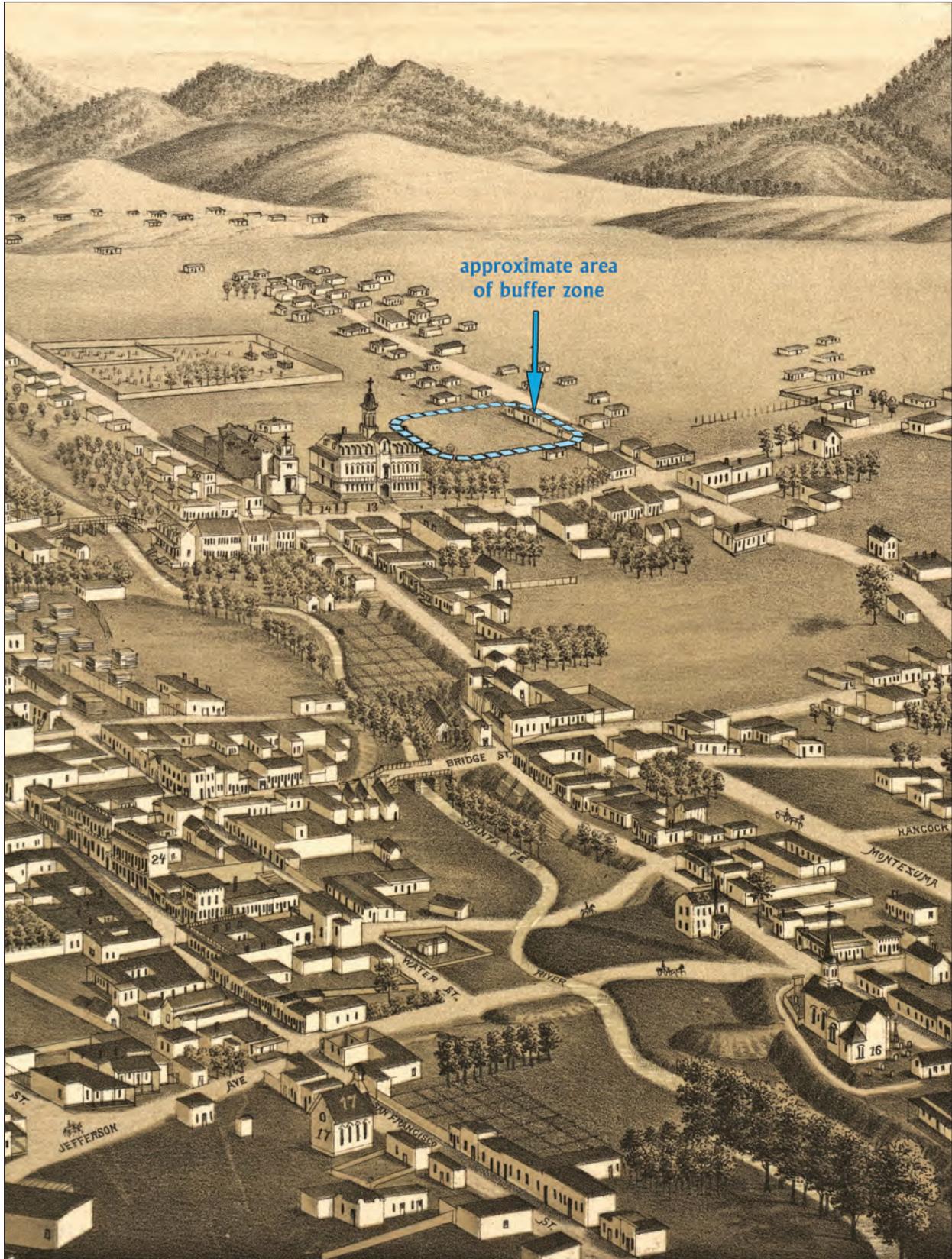


Figure 5.6. Detail of Stoner's Birdseye View of Santa Fe, 1882.

appears to have been occupied by agricultural fields. Instead, it apparently underwent a rapid transformation as the area south of the Santa Fe River began to urbanize as the result of railroad development (Snow and Barbour 2011). Manhattan Road (or Street, known later as Manhattan Avenue) stretches from the railyard to a large housing development southeast of the project area. Structures along Manhattan are flat-roofed and one story high. Like many of the structures in Santa Fe during this period, they were presumably constructed of adobe.

In 1882 the cemetery associated with San Miguel Church was depicted to the west of the structure, and St. Michael's College is immediately to the south. The college, as depicted in *Stoner's Birdseye View*, is a three-story building with a central belltower. Most of the project area is in the surrounding St. Michael's College campus. A cluster of trees on the campus, either adjacent to or in the project area, could represent an orchard or study area. The road to Pecos was then identified as College Street.

Hartmann Map of Santa Fe (1885–1886)

Hartmann's map dates only three years later than Stoner's but adds to the narrative by providing a more accurate plan of the project area, including details of property ownership (Fig. 5.7). St. Michael's College is listed as the College of Christian Brothers, the name used by the school during the late nineteenth century. By the time of the *Hartmann Map of Santa Fe*, construction had already begun on what was to become the St. Michael's Study Hall Building. Known today as the Lew Wallace Building, it was completed in 1887 (Sze and Spears 1988:79).

Private property along Manhattan Road, in or adjacent to the project area, was largely held by owners with Hispanic surnames. Individual property owners included: "J. Delgado," "F. Garcia," "L. Sena," "F. Ruth," "L. Gonzales," and "J. Quintana." Juan Delgado (along with his father, Fernando) and Loreto Sena are depicted as owning numerous properties south of the river in what would become the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood. Along with Alarid and Romero families, the Delgados and Senas appear to have represented the largest (and possibly the original) landowners of much of the historic

neighborhood (Barbour 2011a).

King's Map of Santa Fe (1912)

Depicting the project area 15 years later, *King's Official Map of Santa Fe* shows three private residences in or adjacent to the project area along Manhattan Street (Fig. 5.8). These residences were owned by "Gunaro Digeo," "M. Vigil & Sons," and "Feliciano Sena." Digneo is an Italian surname, and Gunaro is one of several Italian immigrants who appear to have been making the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood their home at the beginning of the twentieth century. Two of the three properties had multiple structures, possibly used as rental structures.

St. Michael's College appeared much as it did 15 years earlier. However, a rectangular building was then located in or adjacent to the north end of the current project area. Sanborn Fire Insurance maps of the area initially refer to this structure as a stable and later as a shed.

Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps of Santa Fe (1898, 1913, 1921, 1930, and 1948)

The Sanborn Fire Insurance maps of Santa Fe do not depict the project area until 1898. Even then, the maps depicted only the built portions of St. Michael's College campus. This left most of the current project area as terra incognita. In 1898 a rectangular stable measuring 30 ft north-south by 15 ft east-west was depicted in or adjacent to the north end of the current project area. In 1913 the barn was labeled as a "wooden shed," and by 1921 this shed had been replaced with a greenhouse and chicken coop.

In the 1930 Sanborn map (Fig. 5.9), the area depicted had been expanded to include the entire project area and had encompassed the residences along East Manhattan Avenue. All of the structures along East Manhattan were listed as being of one-story adobe construction. Larger structures were on the street side, and smaller peripheral buildings were in the backyard. While conventional knowledge suggests that these subsidiary buildings functioned as sheds and garages, they were listed as dwellings. These so-called "mother-in-law suites" were presumably being used as rentals.

Only one structure, 309 East Manhattan, had

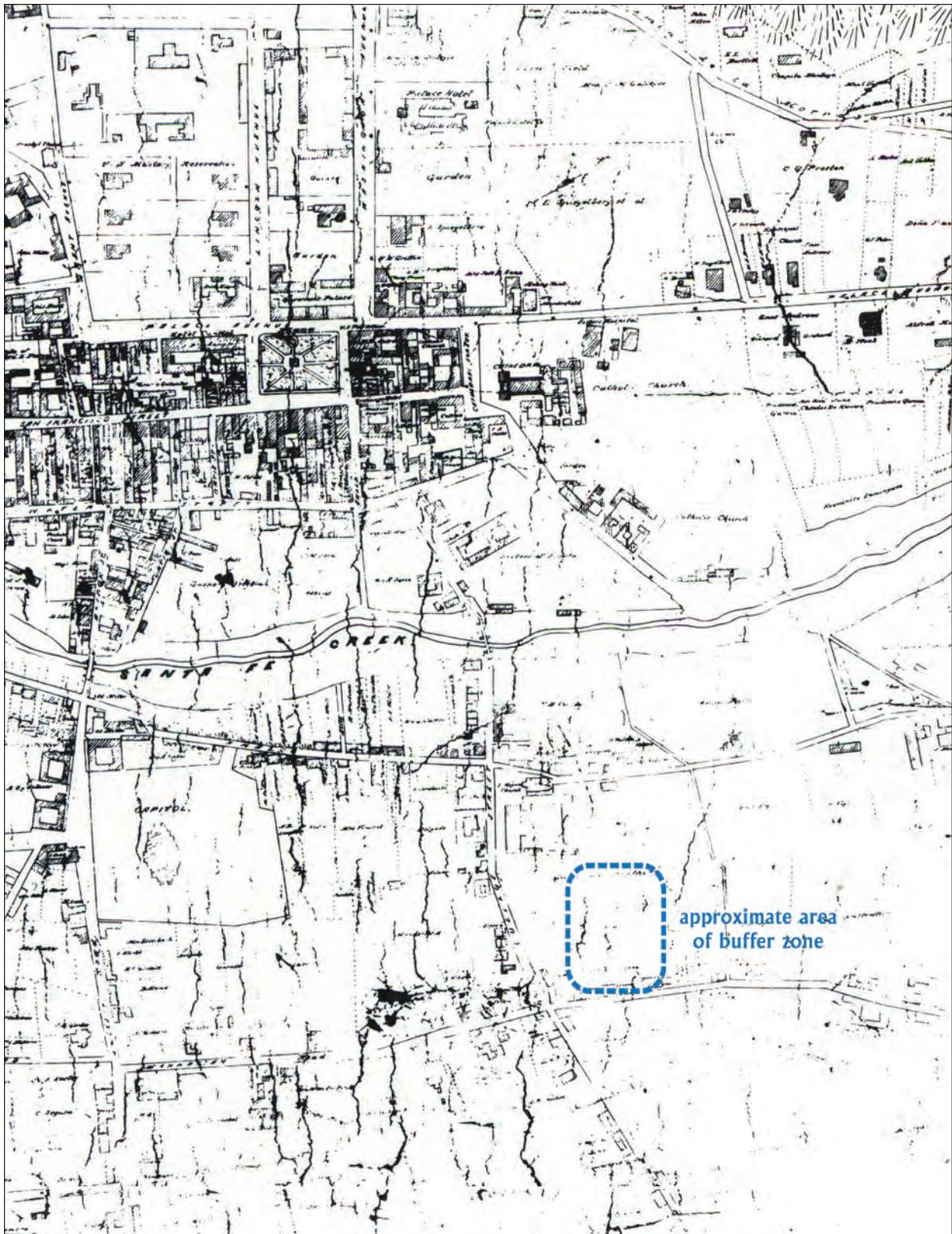


Figure 5.7. Detail of Hartmann Map of Santa Fe, 1886-1887.

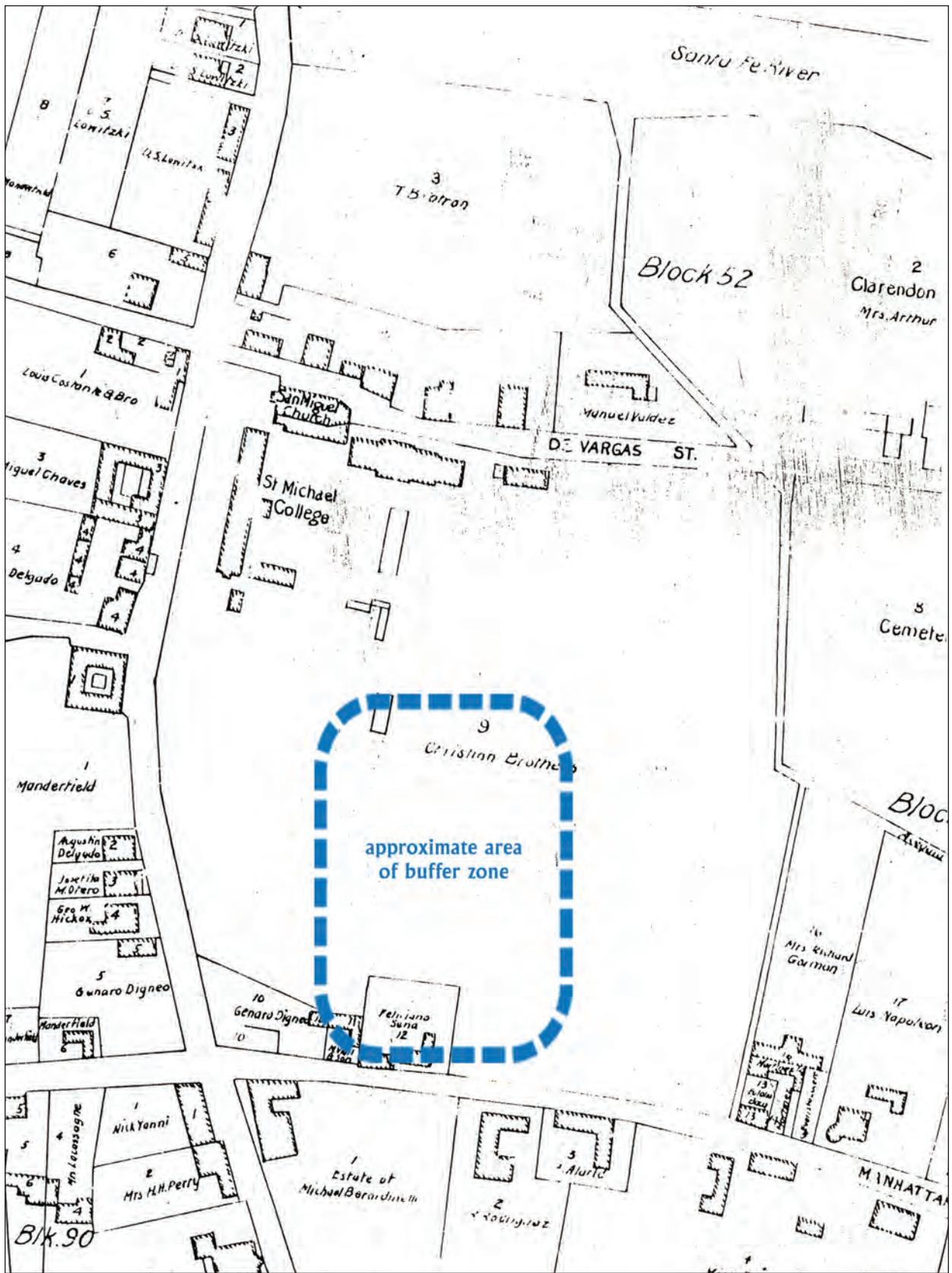


Figure 5.8. Detail of King's Official Map of Santa Fe, 1912.

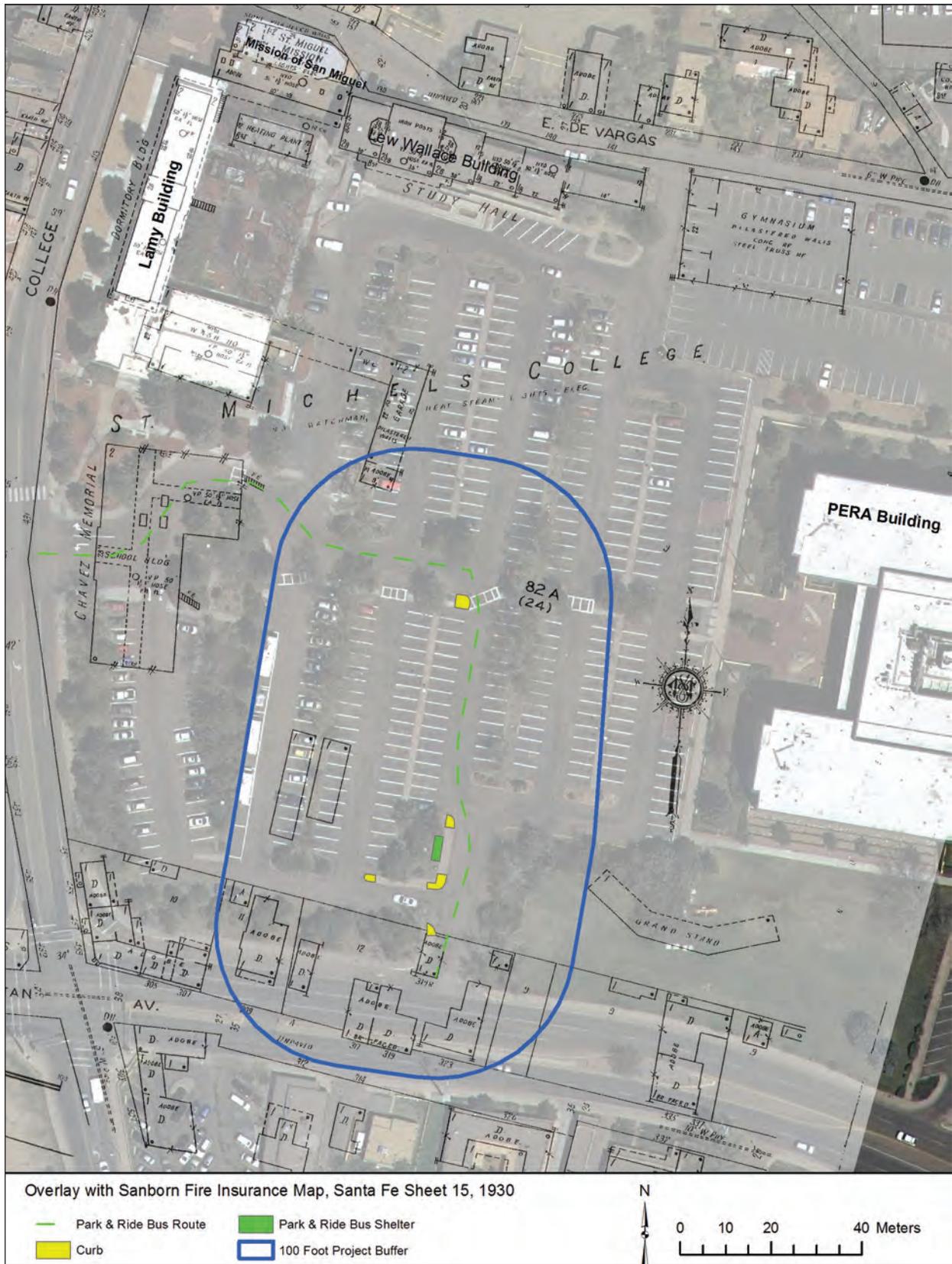


Figure 5.9. Detail of Sanborn Fire Insurance map, 1930.

an automobile garage. The lack of automobile garages is somewhat telling and, in the case of a newer, contemporary dwelling, could indicate a lower-income area. However, these structures were built early during the development of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood, before the automobile became widely used. In more recently developed areas, such as the current location of the Roundhouse (i.e., the Collingwood Subdivision and Manderfield House), all but one of the buildings were depicted with associated automobile garages.

In addition to the residential structures, a filling station/automobile repair shop was on the northeast corner of College Street and Montezuma Avenue (463 College Street). The station, like the residential structures, was a single-story adobe brick building. The use of adobe bricks suggests that the structure was a renovated domicile functioning as a filling station, as opposed to a newer structure specifically constructed for that purpose. Fueling stations typically have underground fuel-storage tanks. Given that the station was in the periphery of the current project area, it is unlikely that the tank will be encountered during the PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project.

By this time, St. Michael's College had undergone several changes, including the construction of the Chavez Memorial Building, a gymnasium, and a grandstand. Two one-story wood-framed structures associated with the college were in the project vicinity. There is no label regarding their function. However, these structures are not depicted on the 1948 Sanborn Fire Insurance map, which instead depicts an automobile garage in the general vicinity (Fig. 5.10).

Notably absent from all of the Sanborn Fire Insurance maps was the cemetery once associated with San Miguel Church. By the time of the 1930 Sanborn Map, a gymnasium associated with the college stood where much of the cemetery had once been. The remainder of the area appears to have been converted to use as athletic fields.

Aerial Photography (ca. 1950s)

In addition to the archival maps, the New Mexico Photo Archive was examined to identify photos of the project area during the 1950s. Three

photos (Museum of New Mexico Neg. Nos. 074144, 074169, and 145337) depict the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood during this period. Museum of New Mexico Neg. No. 145337 (Fig. 5.11) was taken in 1955. The remaining negatives date to 1956 (No. 074144, Fig. 5.12; No. 074169, Fig. 5.13). Collectively these photos display the neighborhood at roughly the same time from different angles. More importantly, they represent the neighborhood as it existed just before state acquisition of most of the private land, the construction of three state office buildings (Roundhouse, PERA, and Concha Ortiz y Pino), and the installation of Paseo de Peralta in the 1960s.

During the 1950s, the project area included portions of the ballpark at St. Michael's College, residential structures along East Manhattan, and a car dealership on the corner of East Manhattan and College Streets. The automobile garage depicted on the 1948 Sanborn Fire Insurance map is clearly visible and appears to be a one-story structure made of fire-hardened bricks. A dirt road appears to have circled the ballpark, and all of the residential structures along East Manhattan appear to have been made of adobe.

ARCHIVAL DOCUMENTS

Several sources of archival documents were investigated to provide more detailed information about former landowners and residents, and when and what sorts of activities were conducted on site: *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories*; US census records, *New Mexico Business Directories*, and the direct and indirect deed books at the Santa Fe County Courthouse.

Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories (1928–1973)

Beginning in 1928, *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories* provides details on who lived in the area and when. Unlike census records, which provide only decadal glimpses, *Hudspeth's* directories were published on an annual or biennial basis. This allows historians and historical archaeologists to better assess the nature of life in the neighborhood and capture information on more transient populations (i.e., short-term renters).



Figure 5.10. Detail of Sanborn Fire Insurance map, 1948.

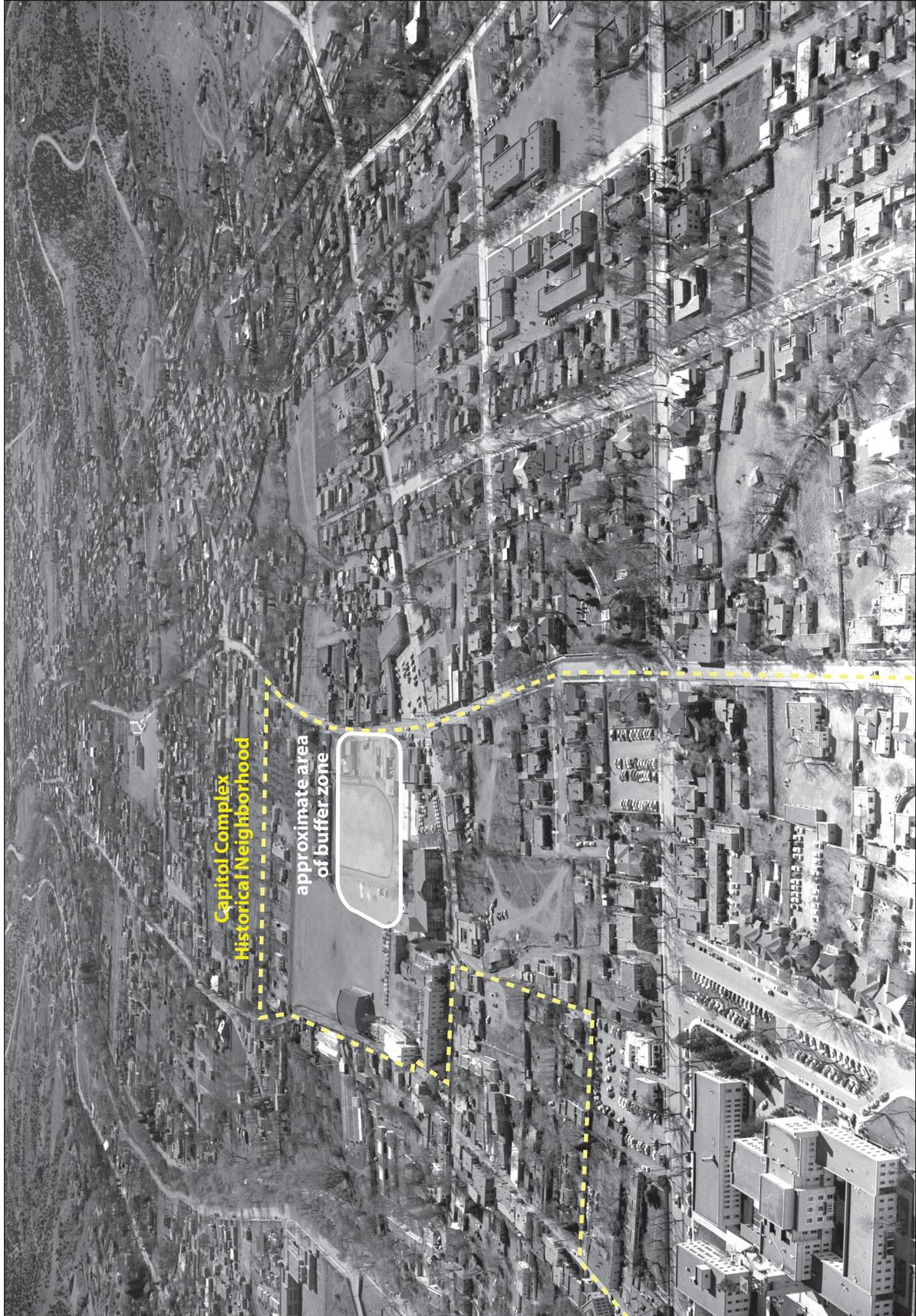


Figure 5.11. Aerial photo of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood, 1955. Museum of New Mexico Negative No. 145337.



Figure 5.12. Aerial photo of the Capitol Complex Historical Neighborhood, 1955. Museum of New Mexico Negative No. 074144.



Figure 5.13. Aerial photo of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood, 1955. Museum of New Mexico Negative No. 074169.

As depicted in Table 5.3, residents living within and adjacent to the current project area after 1928 had a mix of Caucasian and Hispanic surnames. Occupants appear to have come primarily from middle and lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Professions listed include painters, clerks, grocers, mechanics, laborers, and blacksmiths. Several families, including the Lópezes (309 East Manhattan), Franks (313 East Manhattan), Senas (317 and 323 East Manhattan), and Vigils (335 and 337 East Manhattan), appear to have lived in the neighborhood for several decades, with different family members assuming the status of property owner.

In addition to the residences, several businesses are also listed within the area. These include Travelers Home Hotel (453 College Street), Bruce's Texaco Station (463 College Street), Sauter Pontiac Co. (463 College Street), and Colwes Body Shop (319 East Manhattan). Bruce's Texaco Station, also advertised as Bruce's Texaco Corner, appears to have been the filling station listed on Sanborn Fire Insurance maps. Later, the property was transformed into a Pontiac dealership. The Travelers Home Hotel appears to have been an early form of recreational vehicle and camping park, similar to a KOA campground.

San Miguel Church and St. Michael's College along College Street appear irregularly within the directory. However, both stood at their current locations well before the directories began in 1928. San Miguel Church is still there today, and the school did not move outside the project area until the mid-1960s, when the dormitory was remodeled into government offices and the PERA Building was installed in place of the ballpark.

Like most other areas within the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood, the directories suggest the early presence of a largely residential neighborhood with some small businesses. Over time, population within the neighborhood began to decline. Barbour (2011a:355) speculates that the overall decline of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood was a result of suburban development to the south in the 1940s and 1950s. Much of the land was ultimately bought up by state government, which subsequently demolished the structures to develop larger government facilities. In this specific case, all of the residences were bought or condemned for the construction of the PERA Building and Paseo de Peralta in 1967.

United States Census Records (1850–1930)

The United States Census Records are a glimpse into Santa Fe's residents on a decadal scale. These records list not only who was living at a specific address at a given time, but also their marital status, place of birth, who their parents were, where their parents were born, their profession, the names and ages of their children, and their level of education. The results of the Census Records survey are presented in Table 5.4.

For the decade beginning in 1850, residences within or adjacent to the current project include the Sena and Delgado families. The Sena family has a long history within the project area; the family occupied the same residence along East Manhattan until the 1950s. The first Sena family members recorded in the US Census at this location were a blacksmith named Henrique Sena and his wife, Manuela. Manuel Delgado and his wife, María La Luz Delgado, were farmers. Both the Senas and Delgados are listed as not being able to read or write. However, illiteracy in New Mexico during the mid-nineteenth century was fairly commonplace.

Loreto Sena, son of Henrique Sena, first appears in the 1860 census. Like his father before him, he was listed as a blacksmith, and he was married to Antonia Sena. Fernando Delgado, a son of Manuel Delgado and father of the younger Manuel Delgado, inherited the Delgado property by the time of the 1860 census. Married to Trinidad Delgado, Fernando listed his occupation as a merchant.

No changes are listed for the Delgado family in the 1870 census. However, for reasons unknown, the Sena family was not listed in the 1870s record. It is clear, based upon later records, that the family was still living in the area.

Both families are again listed in the 1880 census, along with two new families: the Garcías and Colemans. By 1880 two of Loreto's sons had become blacksmiths. Loreto Sena's wife, Antonia, no longer appeared in the record and may have died between 1860 and 1880. Fernando Delgado also appeared to have passed away. Trinidad Delgado was then listed as the head of the household. Francisca García was living alone; and William Coleman, a blacksmith, and his wife, Mary, had moved to the neighborhood. Unlike their Hispanic neighbors, the Colemans

Table 5.3. Occupants living in or adjacent to the project area as listed in *Hudspeth's City of Santa Fe Directories (1928–1966*)*

Address	Type	Year	Occupant	Profession	Status
403 College Street	church	1962–1966	Catholic Church	San Miguel Mission	owner
413 College Street	school	1928–1966	Christian Brothers	St Michaels College	owner
417 College Street	business	1947	Bacalski, D. M.	Navajo Trading Post	owner
453-459 College Street	business	1928–1929	Maynard, Mrs. M. W.	Travelers Home Hotel	owner
453-459 College Street	business	1930–1931	Riley, Mrs. M. W.	Travelers Home Hotel	owner
453 College Street	residence	1936–1937	vacant	NA	NA
453 College Street	residence	1938–1940	Richardson, Nealy J. (wife: Zelma)	hod carrier	owner
453 College Street	NA	1941	no longer listed	NA	NA
457 College Street	residence	1936–1937	Duren, Joseph H. (wife: Rebecca)	salesman, Quality Fruit	owner
457 College Street	residence	1938–1940	Clairmont, Raoul de	mechanic, engine	owner
457 College Street	NA	1941	no longer listed	NA	NA
459 College Street	business	1932–1935	Logan, James L. (wife: Stella M)	Camp Logan	owner
459 College Street	business	1936–1937	Abreu, Marcos (wife: Frances)	Blanket Manufacturer	owner
459 College Street	business	1938–1940	Chase, Lee (wife: Winnifred)	Elkhorn Fruit Market	owner
459 College Street	NA	1941	no longer listed	NA	NA
463 College Street	business	1942–1943	Johnston, Mrs. Madje	Bruce's Texaco Corner	owner
463 College Street	business	1944–1954	Sauter, J. Harry	Sauter Pontiac Co. Autos	owner
463 College Street	business	1955–1958	Colwes, William F.	Colwes Buick, Pontiac, GMC	owner
463 College Street	business	1959–1962	Campbell, Collin W.	Campbell Pontiac Buick	owner
463 College Street	business	1963	Cimino, Carl A.	Carl's Pontiac, Buick, GMC	owner
463 College Street	vacant	1964–1965	NA	NA	NA
463 College Street	NA	1966	no longer listed	NA	NA
463 College Street (rear)	residence	1942–1943	Johnston, Mrs. Madje	Bruce's Texaco Corner	owner
463 College Street (rear)	residence	1944–1946	Parenti, Jno	mechanic, New Mexico State Police	owner
463 College Street (rear)	residence	1947–1949	Howard, Barney (wife: Patricia)	driver, Rowley's Banking	owner
463 College Street (rear)	vacant	1950–1958	NA	NA	NA
463 College Street (rear)	business	1959–1962	Campbell, Collin W.	Bill Campbell Texaco	owner
463 College Street (rear)	NA	1963	no longer listed	NA	NA
309 East Manhattan	residence	1928–1931	López, James S. (wife: Julia)	Santa Fe Grocery, Bakery and Meat Market	owner
309 East Manhattan	residence	1932–1937	López, James S. (wife: Julia)	Santa Fe Police	owner
309 East Manhattan	residence	1932–1933	López, James S., Jr. (son)	doorman, Paris Theater	renter
309 East Manhattan	residence	1934–1937	López, James S., Jr. (son)	doorman, Lencis Theater	renter
309 East Manhattan	residence	1938–1941	López, James S. (wife: Julia)	driver, Star Lumber Company	owner
309 East Manhattan	residence	1938–1942	López, James S., Jr. (son)	manager, Paris Theater	renter
309 East Manhattan	residence	1942	López, James S. (wife: Julia)	no job listed	owner

Address	Type	Year	Occupant	Profession	Status
309 East Manhattan	residence	1943–1946	López, James S., Jr. (son)	manager, Paris Theater	owner
309 East Manhattan	residence	1947–1950	López, James S., Jr. (son)	New Mexico Drivers License Division	owner
309 East Manhattan	residence	195–1952	López, James S., Jr. (wife: Socorro)	no job listed	owner
309 East Manhattan	NA	1953–1954	vacant	NA	NA
309 East Manhattan	NA	1955	no longer listed	NA	NA
313 East Manhattan	residence	1928	Frank, Paul (wife: Tonita)	painter	renter
313 East Manhattan	residence	1930–1952	Frank, Paul (wife: Tonita)	painter	owner
313 East Manhattan	residence	1953–1956	Frank, Paul (wife: Tonita)	no job listed	owner
313 East Manhattan	residence	1957–1966	Frank, Tonita (widow of Paul)	no job listed	owner
313 East Manhattan	NA	1967	no longer listed	NA	NA
317 East Manhattan	residence	1928–1933	Sena, Feliciano (wife: Cruzita)	blacksmith	renter
317 East Manhattan	residence	1934–1941	Sena, Mrs. Cruzita (widow of Feliciano)	no job listed	owner
317 East Manhattan	residence	1942–1943	Standish, Mrs. Anna	quilter	renter
317 East Manhattan	residence	1944–1946	Padilla, Candelaria William	no job listed	renter
317 East Manhattan	residence	1947–1950	Padilla, Ruben (wife: Mabel)	plasterer	owner
317 East Manhattan	residence	1951–1952	vacant	NA	NA
317 East Manhattan	business	1953–1954	Sauter, J. Harry	Sauter Pontiac Co. Body Shop	renter
317 East Manhattan	business	1955–1958	Colwes, William F.	Colwes Body Shop	renter
317 East Manhattan	business	1959–1962	Campbell, Collin W.	Campbells Body Shop	renter
317 East Manhattan	business	1963	Cimino, Carl A.	Carl's Pontiac Buick	renter
317 East Manhattan	NA	1964–1966	vacant	NA	NA
317 East Manhattan	NA	1967	no longer listed	NA	NA
317 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1928	Schumaker, Adolph S. (wife: Petra)	wholesale salesman	renter
317 East Manhattan (rear)	NA	1930–1931	vacant	NA	NA
317 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1932–1933	Coleman, James W. (wife: Mildred)	cook	renter
317 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1934–1935	Piatt, Paul M. (wife: Mary)	deliveryman	renter
317 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1936–1937	Bretan, Pablo (wife: Rufina)	lab	renter
319 East Manhattan	business	1953–1954	Sauter, J. Harry	Sauter Pontiac Co. Body Shop	renter
319 East Manhattan	business	1955–1958	Colwes, William F.	Colwes Body Shop	renter
319 East Manhattan	business	1959–1962	Campbell, Collin W.	Campbells Body Shop	renter
319 East Manhattan	business	1963	Cimino, Carl A.	Carl's Pontiac Buick	renter
319 East Manhattan	NA	1964–1966	vacant	NA	NA
319 East Manhattan	NA	1967	no longer listed	NA	NA
323 East Manhattan	residence	1930–1942	Sena, Ignacio	grocer	owner
323 East Manhattan	residence	1943–1954	Sena, Hilario (wife: Josefa)	driver, Mountain Ice Co.	owner
323 East Manhattan	residence	1955–1957	Ogle, Edward M. (wife: Betty)	driver, Jack and Stacy's Indian Motor Tours	renter
323 East Manhattan	residence	1958	Archuleta, Filiman (wife: Antonia)	laborer	renter

Address	Type	Year	Occupant	Profession	Status
323 East Manhattan	residence	1959	Archuleta, Mrs. Antonia (widow of Filiman)	no job listed	renter
325 East Manhattan	school	1928-1961	Christian Brothers	St Michaels College Ball Park	owner
325 East Manhattan	NA	1962	no longer listed	NA	NA
335 East Manhattan	residence	1928-1929	Vigil, Juan N	laborer	renter
335 East Manhattan	residence	1930-1941	Vigil, Juan N. (wife: Manuela)	laborer	owner
335 East Manhattan	residence	1942-1950	Vigil Juan L. (wife: Gerdee)	no job listed	owner
335 East Manhattan	residence	1951-1952	Vigil Juan L. (wife: Gertrude)	no job listed	owner
335 East Manhattan	residence	1953-1954	Salazar, Mrs. Matilda V. (widow of Pedro)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan	residence	1955-1965	Vigil, Ernest (wife: Margret)	clerk, State Highway Department	owner
335 East Manhattan	NA	1965	vacant	NA	NA
335 East Manhattan	NA	1966	no longer listed	NA	NA
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1936-1937	Vigil, Ernest (son of Juan)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1936-1937	Vigil, Gilbert (son of Juan)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1936-1937	Vigil, Gregorro (son of Juan)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1938-1941	Vigil, Juan N. (wife: Anna)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1932-1956	Payne, Russel H. (wife: Ruby)	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1957-1958	Romero, Mrs. Josie	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	residence	1959-1960	Garcia, Otomel	no job listed	renter
335 East Manhattan (rear)	NA	1961-1966	vacant	NA	NA
337 East Manhattan	residence	1934-1935	Vigil, Mrs. Tonita	no job listed	owner
337 East Manhattan	residence	1936-1937	Matt, Vincent J.	draftsman, State Highway Department	renter
337 East Manhattan	residence	1938-1943	Elias, José (wife: Mary)	bookkeeper	renter
337 East Manhattan	residence	1944-1946	Vigil, Ernest (wife: Margret)	recorder, New Mexico State Highway Dept.	renter
337 East Manhattan	residence	1947-1950	Vigil, Francis	clerk, Motor Vehicle Dept. Bureau of Revenue	renter
337 East Manhattan	residence	1951-1954	Gallegos, Willie (wife: Francis Vigil)	auditor, Bureau of Revenue School Tax Division	renter
337 East Manhattan	residence	1955-1965	Bernal, Dalio (wife: Rosa)	glazier, Lewis Paint and Glass	renter
337 East Manhattan	NA	1966	no longer listed	NA	NA

* 1966 was the last year that most of the project area was under private ownership. The state acquired the property in 1967.

Table 5.4. United States Census record listings for families living in or adjacent to the project area

Name	Relation	Age	Sex	Occupation
1850				
Henrique Sena	not listed	37	male	blacksmith
Manuela Sena	not listed	34	female	not listed
Josefa Sena	not listed	17	female	not listed
Loreto Sena	not listed	15	male	blacksmith
Antonio Sena	not listed	13	male	not listed
Manuel Delgado	not listed	58	male	farmer
María La Luz Delgado	not listed	41	female	not listed
Fernando Delgado	not listed	25	male	farmer
Felipe Delgado	not listed	20	male	farmer
Stefana Delgado	not listed	14	female	not listed
Felipa Delgado	not listed	4	female	not listed
Samuel Delgado	not listed	15	male	farmer
Marcos Delgado	not listed	24	male	farmer
María Loreta Delgado	not listed	17	female	not listed
1860				
Loreto Sena	not listed	23	male	blacksmith
Antonia Sena	not listed	20	female	not listed
Manuela Sena	not listed	2	female	not listed
Andrés Sena	not listed	1	male	not listed
Fernando Delgado	not listed	33	male	merchant
Trinidad Delgado	not listed	27	female	not listed
Manuel Delgado	not listed	8	male	not listed
José Delgado	not listed	6	male	not listed
Merced Delgado	not listed	3	female	not listed
Francisco Delgado	not listed	2	male	not listed
1870				
Fernando Delgado	not listed	44	male	merchant
Trinidad Delgado	not listed	34	female	not listed
Manuel Delgado	not listed	18	male	not listed
José Delgado	not listed	16	male	not listed
Merced Delgado	not listed	13	female	not listed
Francisco Delgado	not listed	12	male	not listed
Agrifita Delgado	not listed	10	female	not listed
Antonio Delgado	not listed	8	male	not listed
Augustín Delgado	not listed	4	male	not listed
Fernando Delgado	not listed	2	male	not listed
Teresa Delgado	not listed	24	female	domestic servant
Pedro Sánchez	not listed	30	male	domestic servant
1880				
Loreto Sena	head	42	male	blacksmith
Andrés Sena	son	20	male	blacksmith
Pablina Sena	daughter	18	female	at home
Francisco Sena	son	16	male	blacksmith
Ignacio Sena	son	13	male	at home
Feliciano Sena	son	12	male	at school
Earrna Sena	daughter	7	female	not listed
Francisca García	head	61	female	keeping home
Trinidad Delgado	head	44	female	keeping home
Juan Delgado	son	27	male	territorial clerk treasurer
Modesta Delgado	daughter-in-law	18	female	at home
Pablo Delgado	grandson	2	male	not listed
Rafelia Delgado	daughter	23	female	at home
Ramona Delgado	daughter	21	female	at home
Pedro Delgado	son	19	male	bookkeeper

Name	Relation	Age	Sex	Occupation
Felipa Delgado	daughter	17	female	at home
Luz Delgado	daughter	15	female	at home
William H. Coleman	head	35	male	blacksmith
Mary J. Coleman	wife	33	female	not listed
William H. Coleman	son	9	male	not listed
James Coleman	son	1	male	not listed
1900				
Loreto Sena	head	57	male	farmer
Hilario Sena	son	16	male	day laborer
Petra Sena	daughter	14	female	not listed
Joaquín Sena	son	11	male	at school
Feliciano Sena	head	33	male	farmer
Cruz G. Sena	wife	24	female	not listed
Tomasita Sena	daughter	7	female	not listed
Antonia Sena	daughter	5	female	not listed
Juanita Sena	daughter	1	female	not listed
Trinidad Delgado	head	63	female	not listed
Ramona Delgado	daughter	37	female	not listed
Juan N. Vigil	head	33	male	farmer
Manuelita Vigil	wife	30	female	not listed
Donicio Vigil	son	16	male	farm laborer
María de La Luz Vigil	daughter	10	female	not listed
Eligio Vigil	son	9	male	not listed
1910				
Feliciano Sena	head	39	male	police
Cruz Sena	wife	37	female	housekeeper
Tomasita Sena	daughter	16	female	housekeeper
Antonia Sena	daughter	14	female	not listed
Carmelita Sena	daughter	7	female	not listed
Diego Sena	son	4	male	not listed
Alfredo Sena	son	3	male	not listed
Francisca Garcia	head	77	female	out work
Genaro Digneo	head	66	male	not listed
Waldo Digneo	son	26	male	painter
Ernest Digneo	son	24	male	clerk
Melisendro Vigil	head	50	male	printer
Grabiela Vigil	wife	52	female	housekeeper
Epifanio Vigil	son	23	male	suit maker
Refujia Vigil	daughter	27	female	housekeeper
Antonio Vigil	son	15	male	newsboy
Juan N. Vigil	head	41	male	general merchant
Manuelita Vigil	wife	38	female	not listed
Alfonso Vigil	son	18	male	not listed
Benito Vigil	son	15	male	not listed
James López	head	22	male	baker
Julia López	wife	19	female	not listed
Donicio López	brother	21	male	laborer
Little López	sister-in-law	20	female	not listed
1920				
Feliciano Sena	head	52	male	not listed
Cruzita Sena	wife	50	female	not listed
Tomasita Sena	daughter	28	female	office aide
Carmelita Sena	daughter	16	female	not listed
Diego Sena	son	13	male	not listed
Freddie Sena	son	11	male	not listed
Tony Sena	son	20	male	printer
Juan N. Vigil	head	50	male	office clerk
Manuelita Vigil	wife	46	female	not listed

Name	Relation	Age	Sex	Occupation
Benito Vigil	son	23	male	teacher
James López	head	34	male	printer
Julia López	wife	28	female	not listed
Louis López	son	9	male	not listed
Christina López	daughter	7	female	not listed
James López	son	5	male	not listed
Genivive López	daughter	4 1/2	female	not listed
Dolores López	daughter	2 1/2	female	not listed
Henry López	son	1 1/2	male	not listed
1930				
Feliciano Sena	head	58	male	blacksmith
Cruzita Sena	wife	56	female	not listed
Tomasita Sena	daughter	35	female	not listed
Diego Sena	son	25	male	plasterer
Fred Sena	son	23	male	blacksmith
Bernard Sena	grandson	3	male	not listed
Ignacio Sena	head	60	male	merchant
Juan N. Vigil	head	61	male	merchant
Manuelita Vigil	wife	56	female	not listed
Salomón E. Vigil	grandson	16	male	not listed
Teadro Vigil	grandson	15	male	not listed
Gregorio L. Vigil	grandson	12	male	not listed
María F. Vigil	granddaughter	10	female	not listed
Manuelita Vigil	granddaughter	4	female	not listed
James López	head	42	male	baker
Julia López	wife	38	female	not listed
Louis López	son	19	male	laborer
Christina López	daughter	17	female	not listed
James López	son	16	male	not listed
Genivive López	daughter	14	female	not listed
Henry López	son	11	male	not listed
Edward López	son	9	male	not listed
Paul Frank	head	29	male	painter
Tonita Frank	wife	28	female	not listed
Milliam Frank	son	7	male	not listed
Charles Frank	son	6	male	not listed
Mildred Frank	daughter	4 1/2	female	not listed
Milliam L. Piatt	head	54	male	mail delivery
Dora E. Piatt	wife	50	female	not listed
Bernice Piatt	daughter	27	female	bookkeeper
Ruth Piatt	daughter	25	female	abstractor
Charles Piatt	son	20	male	bookkeeper
Gilberta Piatt	daughter	18	female	stenographer
Paul Piatt	son	16	male	not listed
Malcolm Piatt	son	14	male	not listed
Victor Piatt	son	12	male	not listed
James Piatt	son	9	male	not listed
Dean Piatt	son	9	male	not listed
Robert Piatt	son	8	male	not listed
V. P. Richardson	head	23	male	farmer
Eluie Richardson	wife	23	male	not listed
Carla Fae Richardson	daughter	5	female	not listed
Opal Richardson	daughter	3 1/2	female	not listed
Willie Bee Richardson	daughter	1 1/2	female	not listed
Nealy Richardson	brother	21	male	laborer
Zelma Richardson	sister-in-law	18	female	not listed

were listed as being able to read and write. They were the first family listed in the project area that were able to do so; they were relative newcomers to the territory, born in Ireland and Wisconsin, respectively.

No Census Bureau records could be found for those living within or adjacent to the project area within the 1890 census. However, many of the families reappeared in the 1900 census, suggesting they had remained in the project area in the two decades since the 1880 census. The Sena family was represented by Loreto Sena, who had become a farmer. His brother, Feliciano Sena, also a farmer, was also listed as having moved into the area with his wife, Cruzita. Trinidad Delgado, then age 63, was being cared for by her daughter and was still listed as the head of household. Newcomers—Juan Vigil, a farmer, and his wife, Manuelita—were listed for the first time.

Loreto Sena and his family were not listed in or near the project area in the 1910 census. However, his brother, Feliciano, and his sister-in-law, Cruzita, still lived in the neighborhood. By the time of the census, Feliciano had become a police officer. Also, Francisca García, who was last listed in the 1880 census, reappeared as the head of household in 1910. Her absence in 1890 and 1900 was likely the result of surveyor error. Presumably, she had lived in the area for the last two decades. The Vigil family was represented by Melisandro Vigil, a printer, and his spouse, Gabriela, a housekeeper, in addition to Juan N. Vigil and his wife, Manuelita, who had been listed previously. The relationship of the two Vigil family groups is unclear.

New family groups listed on the 1910 census consisted of the Italian Digneos and the Hispanic Lópezes. The Digneo family lived in the neighborhood for less than a decade, whereas the López family continued in the neighborhood until the last of the census records (1930). James López was listed as a baker and his brother as a laborer. All in the López family could read and write. The ability to read and write became common among Hispanic and Anglo families after the beginning of the twentieth century and reflected access to schooling systems within New Mexico, particularly the Santa Fe area.

Only three families are listed on the 1920 census. All of these families represented a

continuation of occupation from previous records. They included the Sena, Vigil, and López families. The only substantive change was Juan Vigil's occupation, which was then listed as an office clerk. These families continued into the 1930s record along with three new families: the Franks, Piatts, and Richardsons. Paul Frank was listed as a painter, Milliam Piat as a mailman, and V. P. Richardson as a farmer.

While the 1940 census records became available on April 2, 2012, initial online access to these documents has been patchy. As a result, the 1940 census was not surveyed. Much of the information presented in these new archival records has been previously available through the 1940 *Hudspeth's City of Santa Fe Directories* (Table 5.3).

New Mexico State Business Directories (1928–1960)

Once a business was found to be in or adjacent to the project area, the *New Mexico State Business Directories* were consulted to gauge who owned the business, if the business advertised, and what services the business provided. An examination of the *New Mexico State Business Directories* between 1928 and 1960 found no discrepancies between the information provided in their listings and the information provided by Hudspeth's.

Texaco ads (Fig. 5.14) indicate that Bruce's Texaco Corner was at the corner of College and Manhattan Streets; it advertised the popular slogan, "Let us Marfak your car!" Marfak, a proprietary engine oil supplied at Texaco stations, suggests a full-service station with automotive maintenance facilities. Later advertisements confirm this association. The Pontiac dealership, which moved onto the property in the 1950s and 1960s, advertised sales and automotive repair services (Fig. 5.15).

Most other business, with the exception of St. Michael's College (Fig. 5.16), did not appear to advertise in the *New Mexico State Business Directories*. St. Michael's claimed in their 1928 advertisement to be fully accredited as a high school and to function as both a boarding and day school. The school boasted the "largest gymnasium in the State of New Mexico."

Magnolia Petroleum Co.




Mobil Oil — Gas
Lubrication

Stay with Magnolia and Stay Ahead

R. B. BURNETT PHONE 979
Wholesale Agt., Santa Fe P. O. Box 966

THE TEXAS COMPANY

Sky Chief Gasoline Fire Chief Gasoline
For Those Who Steps Up Your
Want The Best Engine



Let us
MARFAK
your car

Dealers: Irby's Texaco Service, ss Cerrillos Road, opposite U S Indian School, Phone 1819; Pooler's Texaco Service, Galisteo nw cor Montezuma, phone 1849; Purdy's 212 Agua Fria; Capitol Motor Service, 237 Don Gaspar av, phone 1585; Zia Motor Service, W Water and Galisteo, phone 1627; Bruce's Texaco Corner, College and Manhattan, phone 1920; Art's Service Station, ns Cerrillos rd, 2½ mi w of city, phone 037-J-1.

I. N. MAY Wholesale Phone 190

Figure 5.14. Advertisement for Bruce's Texaco Corner, 1942.

Figure 5.16 (right). Advertisement for St. Michael's College, 1928.

CARL'S



PONTIAC



BUICK

"FACTORY AUTHORIZED"

SALES **GMC** **SERVICE**

463 COLLEGE **TEL. 982-8511**

Figure 5.15. Advertisement for Carl's Pontiac, Buick, GMC, 1963.

St. Michael's College

"MIGUEL CHAVEZ MEMORIAL"

Boarding and Day School
Conducted by the Christian Brothers

Elementary, Commercial and Scientific courses with High School Department fully accredited as a standard High School by the State Board of Education.

Largest Gymnasium in the State of New Mexico.

For Particulars apply to
Brother August, President
SANTA FE, NEW MEXICO

ALLISON-JAMES SCHOOL

Boarding School for Spanish-Speaking Girls
Conducted by the Board of National Missions, of the Presbyterian Church of the U. S. A.

Tuition reasonable. Complete Academic Course from fourth grade through High School. Special attention given to Domestic Science and Domestic Art. High School accredited by State Department of Education. Both College Preparatory and Commercial Courses. Special instruction in Music.

Address RUTH K. BARBER, Principal
141 Federal Place Phone 144-W Santa Fe, New Mexico

Do You Know

That the CLASSIFIED PART of the DIRECTORY is a BUYERS' GUIDE?

It is consulted by citizens and strangers every day of the year. Do not fail to have your business fully represented in it.

The Direct and Indirect Deed Books at the Santa Fe County Courthouse

A brief examination of the direct and indirect deed books dating to the late nineteenth and early twentieth century at the Santa Fe County Courthouse revealed several land transactions in or adjacent to the current project area. More are likely available, albeit difficult to access. Since the United States census records and Hudspeth city directories provided a list of occupants through the American Territorial and New Mexico Statehood periods, the deed books are of limited value to archaeologists in determining who was living in the project area at a specific time. All property impacted as a result of the current proposed project is now owned by the State of New Mexico. However, the four deeds discussed below are indicative of land transfers among members of the Sena family throughout nineteenth and twentieth centuries and the acquisition of land by the Vigil family in the early twentieth century. (Note: The following entries are reproduced as they appear in the deed books.)

1890 (BK U:322). Andres Sena y Griego and brothers bought from Loreto Sena. Pct. 3; Bd. east Demetria S. Sena; west G.F. Gracie; north St. Miguel College; south Pub Rd.

1914 (BKM-2:211). Juan N. Vigil and Manuelita bought from Anciento Bustamente. Pct. 3; Bd. North Maria de Luz Valdez and Christian Brothers; south Manhattan Street; east and west Christian Brothers.

1933 (BKP-4:522). Juan N. Vigil bought from Adela Alarid de Rivera. Pct. 3; Bd. North and west St. Michaels College; east and south entrance and exits for grantee.

1939 (BK 18:174). Loreto Sena and Andres and brothers bought from Feliciano Sena. Pct. 3; Bd. East S de Sena; west F. Gracie; north Christian Brothers; south Manhattan Rd.

Family Histories

A brief survey of *Origins of New Mexico Families: A Genealogy of the Spanish Colonial Period* (Chávez 1992) and internet genealogical services provided

the following information about the Sena, Delgado, López, Vigil, Frank, and Piatt families, who occupied the project area throughout much of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. A brief history of each surname is provided below.

Surname: Sena.

Origin: Portuguese.

Members at location: Henrique (ca. unknown-1850), Manuela (ca. unknown-1950), Josefa (ca. 1850), Loreto (ca. 1850-1900), Antonio (ca. unknown-1850), Manuela (ca. 1860), Antonia (ca. 1860), Andrés (ca. 1860-1880), Pablina (ca. 1880), Francisco (ca. 1880), Ignacio (ca. 1880-1942), Feliciano (ca. 1880-1933), Earna (ca. 1880), Cruzita (ca. 1900-1941), Tomasita (ca. 1900-1930), Juanita (ca. 1900), Carmelita (ca. 1910-1920), Diego (ca. 1910-1930), Alfredo (ca. 1910-1930), Tony (ca. 1920), Bernard (ca. 1930), Hilario (1943-1954), Josefa (1943-1954).

History: The first documented Sena in the Santa Fe area was a foundling (abandoned infant) from the Valley of Mexico, or Mexico City. He came to New Mexico in 1693 at the age of nine with his newly adopting parents, José de Valle and Ana de Ribera. On February 8, 1705, he married Tomasa Martín González and stated that his name was "Bernardino de Sena y Valle" (Chávez 1992:286).

From the time Bernardino got married until his death, he lived in Santa Fe, where he acquired considerable property, including the plaza that now bears his name. He was also very instrumental in church matters and gathering funds for the restoration of San Miguel Chapel. When he passed away on November 11, 1765, he was buried in the chapel of San Miguel, a request he had made earlier to the Franciscans. Bernardino and his wife of twenty years, Tomasa, had one son, Tomás Antonio Sena. Tomás continued to live in Santa Fe and was very active in the church, just like his father. He and his wife, María Luisa García de Noriega, had a family of fourteen children; his profession was listed as blacksmith (Chávez 1992:286-287). This same profession is listed for Henrique Sena in the 1850 census; his son, Loreto Sena, in the 1850, 1860, and 1880 censuses; Loreto's son, Feliciano Sena, on the 1930 census; and Feliciano's son, Alfredo Sena, on the 1930 census. Even though there is no direct information linking Bernardino Sena to Henrique Sena and his family, based upon the location of

the Sena property next to the San Miguel church land and the consistency in occupation through time, it is likely that Bernardino Sena was the grandfather or great-grandfather of Henrique Sena.

The first clear historical documentation of the Sena family living in the project area is in the 1850 census, with Henrique Sena. The Sena family continuously occupied land within the project area from at least 1850 until 1954. If there is a link between Henrique and Bernardino Sena, it is very probable that the Sena family has lived in the project area since the early eighteenth century. Properties known to be owned by the Sena family include 317 and 323 East Manhattan, at about the location of the adobe structure depicted on the 1766 Urrutia map. It is reasonable to speculate that the structure depicted on the Spanish Colonial map was owned by the Sena family.

Surname: Delgado.

Origin: Spanish/Portuguese.

Members at location: Manuel I (unknown), Josefa (unknown), Manuela (unknown), Manuel II (unknown-ca. 1855), María La Luz (unknown-1850), Felipe (unknown-ca. 1850), Stefana (unknown-ca. 1850), Felipa (unknown-ca. 1850), Samuel (unknown-ca. 1850), Marcos (unknown-ca. 1850), María (unknown-ca. 1850), Fernando (unknown-ca. 1880), Trinidad (ca. 1860-1900), Manuel III (ca. 1860), José (ca. 1860), Merced (ca. 1860), Francisco (ca. 1860), Agrifita (ca. 1860), Antonio (ca. 1860), Agustín (ca. 1860), Fernando II (ca. 1860), Teresa (ca. 1860), Juan (ca. 1880), Modesta (ca. 1880), Pablo (ca. 1880), Rafelia (ca. 1880), Ramona (ca. 1880-1900).

History: The first documented Delgado in the Santa Fe area was Manuel Delgado, a native of Pachuca. The 1790 census of the Santa Fe Presidio names him as second in command, a *primer teniente*, 51 years old. While he and his wife, Josefa García de Noriega, were living in the Nambe-Pojoaque area, they had twins named Manuel and Manuela, baptized on June 28, 1792. Josefa died on May 9, 1811, and Manuel married Ana María Baca on November 30, 1814. Manuel died suddenly the following year on August 13. His son Manuel S. Delgado II married María de la Luz Baca, daughter of Juan Domingo Baca and Gertrudis Ortiz, on April 20, 1814, just a few months before his widowed father married Ana

María Baca (Chávez 1992:168-169).

According to the *Santa Fe New Mexican* (November 9, 1986), Manuel S. Delgado II became a trader, initially along the Camino Real between Santa Fe and Chihuahua, and later on the Santa Fe Trail to Missouri. In 1855, at the age of 63 (correlates with 1850 census), Delgado decided to make one last trip on the Santa Fe Trail. He died in Kansas of cholera and was buried in an unmarked grave by his grandson, Eugenio Romero; and servant, Susano Leyba. They placed charcoal over him and covered him with three barrels of distilled liquor for preservation. The following summer Romero and Leyba returned to the grave site and recovered Delgado's preserved body and took it back to Santa Fe, where they reburied him at Rosario Cemetery.

The first historical documentation of Delgados living in the project area was Manuel S. Delgado II and his wife, María de la Luz, in the 1850 census. According to the census records, the Delgado family remained in the project area until just after 1900. Individuals residing in the project area included Manuel's son, Fernando; and Fernando's wife, Trinidad. The 1900 census lists Trinidad as living along College Street, presumably at the corner of what would become College Street and East Manhattan Avenue. There is no record of the Delgado family in *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories*, since the family left the project area prior to 1928.

Surname: López.

Origin: Spanish/Portuguese.

Members in location: James Sr. (ca. 1910-1942), Julia (ca. 1910-1942), Donicio (ca. 1910), Little (ca. 1910), Louis (ca. 1920-1930), Christina (ca. 1920-1930), James Jr. (ca. 1920-1952), Genivive (ca. 1920-1930), Dolores (ca. 1920-1930), Henry (ca. 1920-1930), Edward (ca. 1930)

History: Several Lópezes are documented as living in New Mexico and Santa Fe in the seventeenth century. The earliest is Francisco López, a native of Jerez, who had passed away sometime before 1626. Early in the century, he had fired his arquebus at Governor Argüello, which may have been the cause of his early demise. Another seventeenth-century López in Santa Fe was Juan López, a native of Cartagena de Levante. He was married in Santa Fe in 1634 to Ynez de Zamora (Chávez 1992:54).

Several López family members can be identified in the Santa Fe area during the eighteenth century. One particular family stands out as possible having some connections with the project area. Luis López was married to Ana María Bernal in 1704. She was at least a half sister to Tomasa Martín González, wife of Bernardino de Sena, who possibly lived in the project area. However, there is no way to link Luis López with the López family that occupied the area in the early twentieth century.

The first historical documentation of López family living in the project area was James S. López, a baker, and his wife, Julia, listed on the 1910 census. They are also listed in the 1920 and 1930 censuses along with their family. The 1920 census indicated that they lived on College Street, and the 1930 census indicated that they lived on Manhattan Street. It appears that the family actually lived near the northeast corner of the intersection of Manhattan and College in the old Delgado residence (309 East Manhattan). According to the *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories*, James S. López lived at 309 East Manhattan until 1942, the year of his death. His son, James S. López Jr., took over as head of the household in 1942, and the 1951–1952 directories suggest that he had a wife named Socorro. By 1953 the address is recorded as vacant, and it is no longer listed in 1955, presumably bought up by Colwes Pontiac dealership in 1954.

Surname: Vigil.

Origin: Spanish/Italian.

Members in location: Juan N. (ca. 1900–1941), Manuelita (ca. 1900–1941), Donicio (ca. 1900), María de la Luz (ca. 1900), Eligio (ca. 1900), Alfonso (ca. 1910), Benito (ca. 1910–1920), Salomón (ca. 1930), Teadro (ca. 1930), Gregorio (c. 1930), María (ca. 1930), Manuelita (ca. 1930), Juan L. (1942–1952), Gertrude (1942–1952), Ernest (1936–1965), Anna Margret (1955–1965), Gilbert (1936–1937), Gregorro (1936–1937), Melisendro (ca. 1910), Grabiela (ca. 1910), Epifanio (ca. 1910), Refujia (ca. 1910), Antonio (ca. 1910).

History: The first documented Vigil in the Santa Fe area was Francisco Montés Vigil, with his wife, María Jiménez de Ancizo. They were colonists from Zacatecas. In 1695 Francisco claimed that he was a native of El Real de Zacatecas and was 30 years old. In 1710 he received a grant of land

at Alameda and sold it two years later. Francisco and María had three sons mentioned in Chávez (1992): Francisco Montés Vigil II and his wife, who lived at Santa Cruz; Manuel Montés Vigil, a soldier in Santa Fe, who in his last will in 1733 stated he was married to Manuela Sánchez; and Juan Montés Vigil, who had two wives—Ynez López and Antonia Nicolosa Luján, whom he married in 1745 (Chávez 1992:311–312). Pedro Montés Vigil—apparently their brother, although there is no documentary evidence to link them—was 33 and a resident of Santa Fe in 1717. In 1710 he worked on the restoration of the San Miguel Chapel (Chávez 1992:312). He may have been associated with the Vigils living within the project area.

The first clear historical documentation of Vigils living in the project area was Juan N. Vigil and his wife, Manuelita, in the 1900 census. According to *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories*, Juan N. Vigil lived at 335 East Manhattan Street from at least 1928 to 1941. His son, Juan L. Vigil, lived at this same address from 1942 to 1952, and Ernest Vigil (son of Juan N.) lived at this address from 1955 to 1965. The State of New Mexico acquired the property in 1965 or 1966.

Another Vigil family, led by Melisendro Vigil, was also listed on the 1910 census as living on Manhattan Street. How or if Melisendro was related to Juan is currently unknown. There is no record of Melisendro in *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories*, which indicates that he may not have lived in the area very long.

Surname: Frank.

Origin: German.

Members in location: Paul (ca. 1928–1956), Tonita (ca. 1928–1966), Milliam (ca. 1930), Charles (ca. 1930), Mildred (ca. 1930).

History: Paul Frank, a painter, was documented as living in Santa Fe in the 1930 census along with his wife, Tonita, and family. Tonita's birthplace and that of both her parents were listed as New Mexico. Paul's birthplace was listed as New Mexico; his father was born in Germany, and his mother was born in New Mexico. While the Frank surname has multiple origins, in this case the family origin can be definitely labeled German. However, if you take into account that Paul's mother was Hispanic, his wife was Hispanic, and Paul Frank was born in New Mexico, the

family likely had more in common with local Hispanic families than with their German origins. *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories* indicates that the Franks lived at 313 East Manhattan starting in 1928. Paul lived at this address until 1956, when he presumably passed away. His widow is listed as continuing to live at the address until 1966, when the property was acquired by the state.

Surname: Piatt.

Origin: England.

Members in location: Milliam (ca. 1930), Dora (ca. 1930), Bernice (ca. 1930), Ruth (ca. 1930), Charles (ca. 1930), Gilberta (ca. 1930), Malcom (ca. 1930), Victor (ca. 1930), James (ca. 1930), Dean (ca. 1930), Robert (ca. 1930), Paul (ca. 1930-1935), Mary (ca. 1930-1935).

History: Paul Piatt, a delivery man, was first documented as living in Santa Fe in the 1930 census along with his father, Milliam; mother, Dora E.; and family. Both he and his parents were born in Kansas along with seven of his siblings, although he had three siblings born in New Mexico. Milliam's father was born on Ohio, and his mother was born in Iowa; both of Dora's parents were born in New York.

Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories indicates that Paul M. Piatt lived at 317 East Manhattan, renting the rear apartment from Cruzita Sena, between 1934 and 1935. Another family moved into the apartment in 1936, and no more Piatts are listed in the archival records.

6. Impacts, Expectations, and Recommendations

This chapter explores the impacts of construction, reviews expectations regarding archaeological discoveries, and provides recommendations for mitigating the effects of the proposed undertaking in the PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project.

IMPACTS OF CONSTRUCTION

The NMDOT plans to modify the PERA Building parking lot by installing a pedestrian shelter (n = 1), adding standard ADA ramps (n = 5), replacing the current curbs and gutters (n = 5), and relocating an existing signpost (Fig. 6.1). These activities are expected to impact roughly 435 sq ft (0.01 acres) in the southwest corner of the lot. The plans call for no remodeling of existing buildings, the preservation of all standing trees, and the avoidance of all existing utilities.

The area planned for the shelter is shaded by ponderosa pines near the exit out of the lot onto Paseo de Peralta (Fig. 6.2). The shelter will be on a 3 in concrete pad measuring 19 ft 7.5 in north-south and 9 ft 6 in east-west (Fig. 6.3). To install this pad, contractors must be able to excavate up to roughly 1 to 2 ft below the current ground surface.

Two types of ADA accessible ramps are to be installed (Fig. 6.4). These ramps are to be placed along curbs and sidewalks adjacent to the shelter and along nearby curbs and sidewalks to the north and south (Fig. 6.1). Type A ramps (n = 3) measure 5 ft long and 3 ft wide. They will be installed into existing curbs. Type B ramps (n = 2) measure 5 ft square and will be installed into existing sidewalks. Both ramp types may require the contractor to excavate up to 1 ft below the current ground surface.

A single mountable curb (Type C) will be installed in the north end of the project area. The remaining curbs and gutters (Type D, n = 4) will have 6 in high barriers but will be built in collaboration with Type A and B ramps to allow handicap access. Both curbs are 6 ft long and roughly 1 ft wide (Fig. 6.5). Like the sidewalks, curb and gutter installation may require the

contractor to excavate at most 1 ft into the current ground surface.

The relocation of the signpost will require removal of the current post and reinstallation roughly 1 ft north of the shelter. The post is currently sunk into the ground without the use of a concrete base. If the post is simply removed and then hammered into its new location, no excavation will be necessary. If a concrete footer is utilized, this footer is expected to be no bigger than 1 ft in diameter and to go no deeper than 2 ft below the current ground surface.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL EXPECTATIONS

Based upon archival research presented in the previous chapter, the current project area is situated in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood. This neighborhood is in the Downtown Archaeological District and the Santa Fe Historic District (LA 4450; *State Register* No. 260, September 29, 1972; *National Register*, July 23, 1973). While a 100 percent pedestrian survey of the project area yielded no cultural resources, archival research suggests subsurface deposits may be present.

With the possible exception of LA 114215, no prehistoric archaeological sites have been recorded in this neighborhood. The majority of prehistoric sites documented in downtown Santa Fe are north of the Santa Fe River. However, recent work at Santa Fe County Judicial Complex in the adjoining Railyard Historic District encountered a pit house and human burials south of the river. Hence, Native American deposits may be encountered during current project.

Historic deposits dating to the Spanish Colonial, Mexican, American Territorial and New Mexico Statehood periods are commonly found in the area. The horizontal extent and depth of these deposits is highly variable. Many of the archaeological sites listed in the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood, with the exception of LA 158037, have not been extensively documented.

A review of historic maps indicates the project area is just south of San Miguel Church

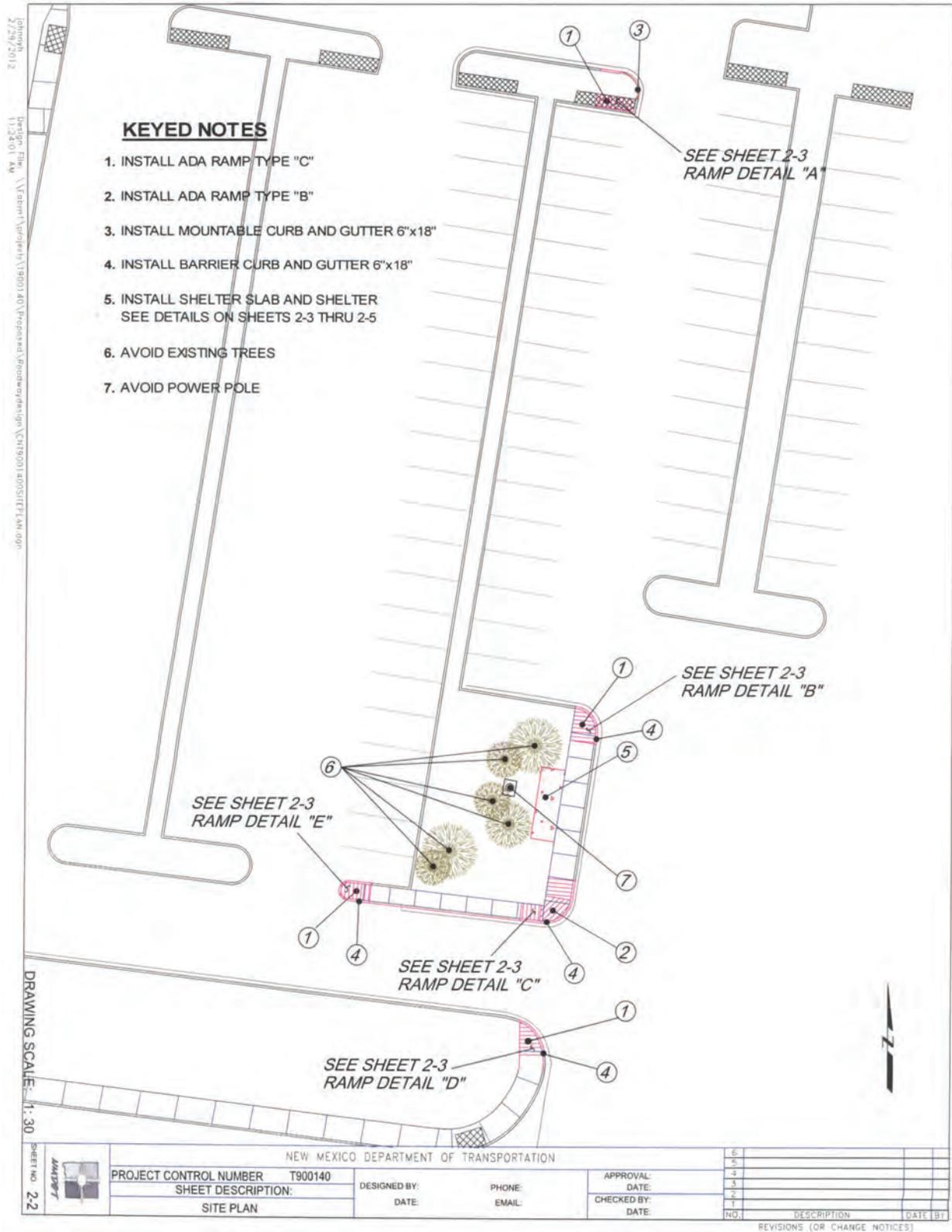


Figure 6.1. Former PERA Building Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project plan.



Figure 6.2. Proposed location of the Park & Ride shelter.

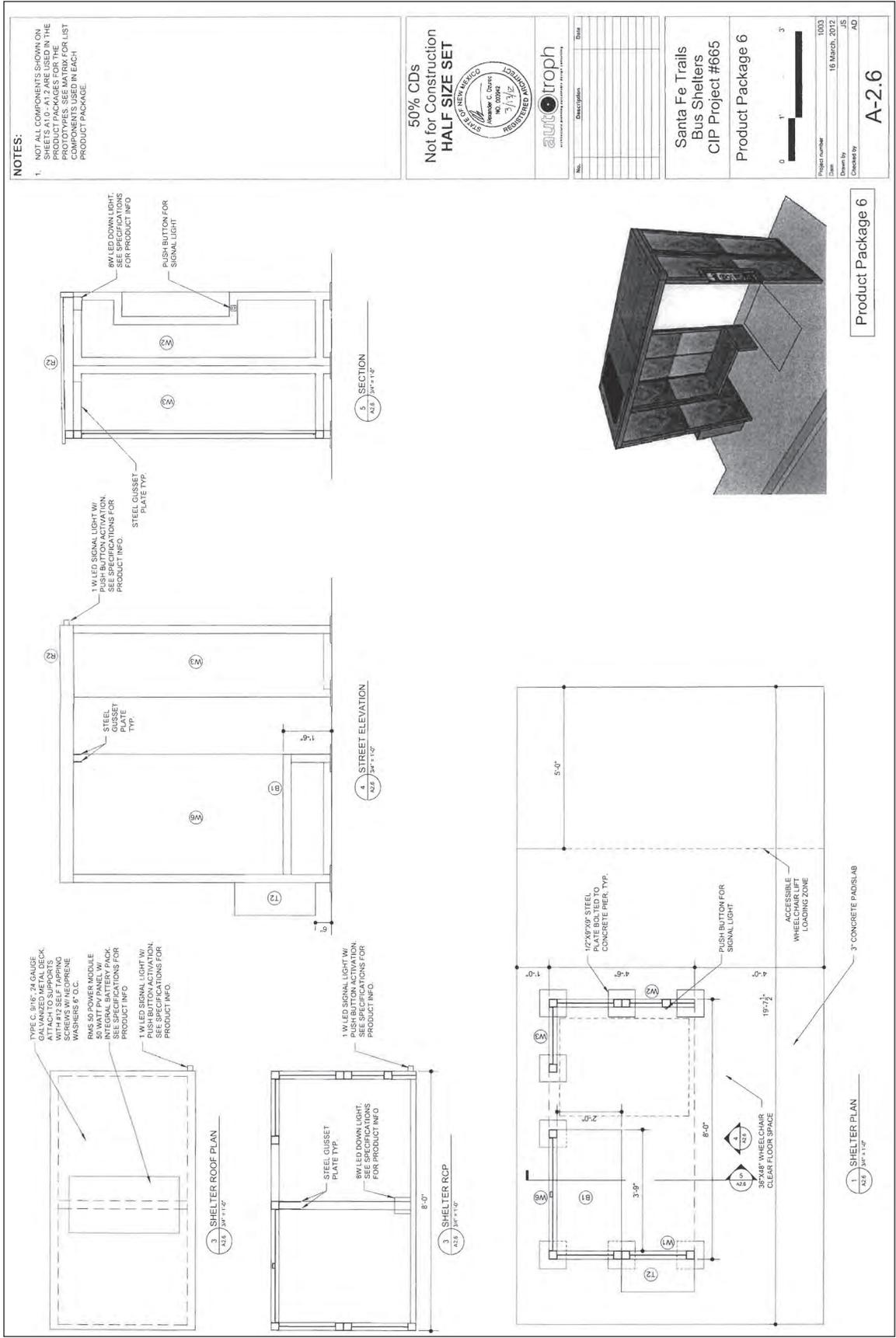


Figure 6.3. Schematic for construction of the shelter's platform.

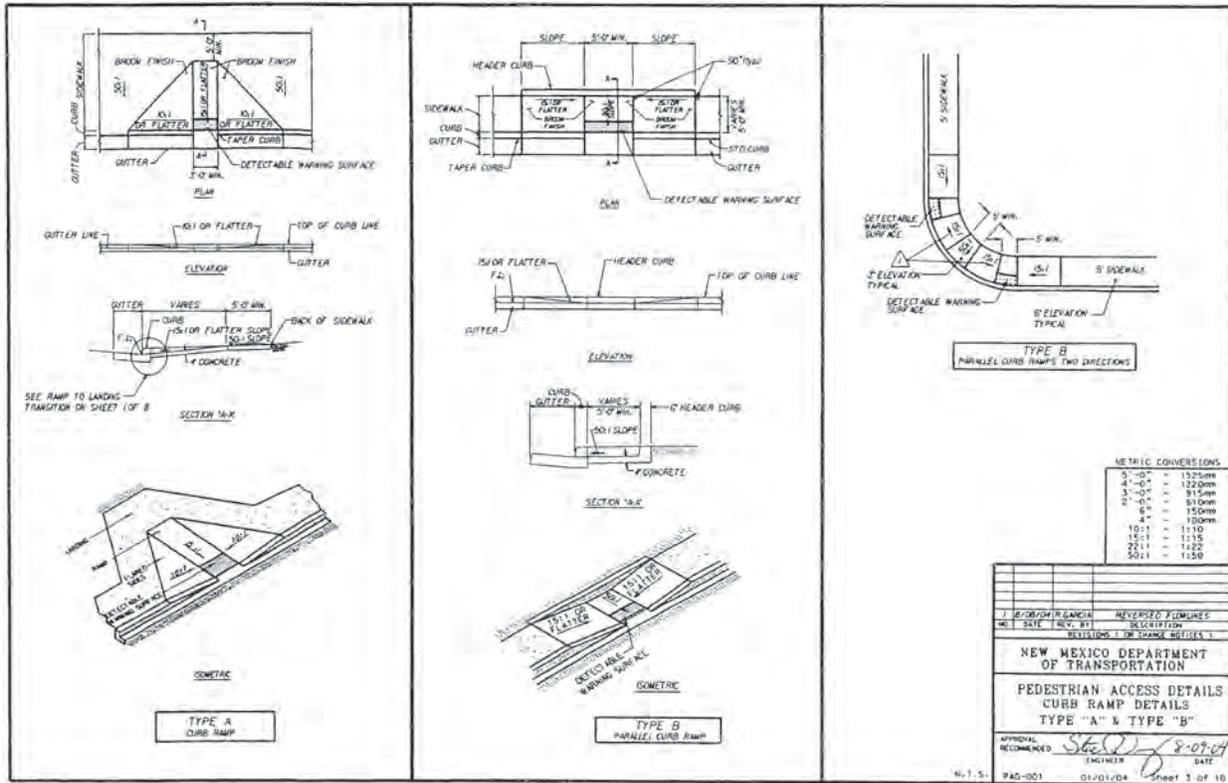


Figure 6.4. Schematics for construction of the ADA ramps.

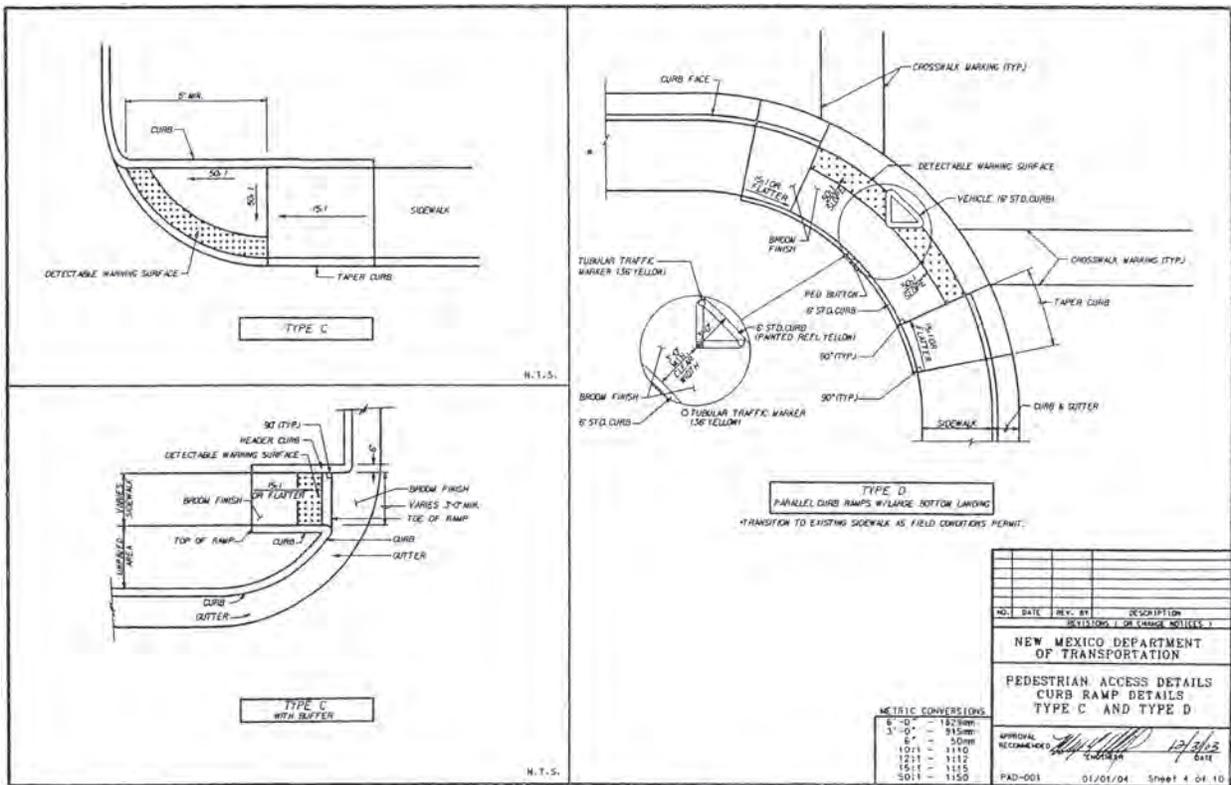


Figure 6.5. Schematics for construction of the curbs.

and the Barrio de Analco and north of the *acequia para regadio*. While much of this area was utilized as agricultural fields, at least one residential structure appears to have been inside of or adjacent to the current project area. Residential use of the area expanded during the American Territorial period, with residential communities becoming established along Manhattan Street and College Street (the old road to Pecos, now Santa Fe Trail). Commercial businesses, such as a filling station and car dealership, followed in the early twentieth century. While most filling stations have underground petroleum tanks, it is unlikely, given the location of the aforementioned filling station, that an underground tank will be found in the current project area.

During much of the nineteenth century and early twentieth century, a large portion of the current project area was within the grounds of St. Michaels College. Functioning as boarding school for boys, the college was established in 1859. The athletic fields, a stable, a greenhouse, and a chicken coop were all in the vicinity of the project area at one time or another.

Examination of *Hudspeth's Santa Fe City Directories* and US Census Records indicates that the Sena and Vigil families lived in the project area during much of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and a brief examination of their family histories indicates that both groups settled Santa Fe in the Spanish Colonial period. If archaeological deposits associated with the Sena and Vigil residences are encountered in the project area, cultural materials tied to these families may provide information about life in Santa Fe during the Spanish Colonial, Mexican, American Territorial, and New Mexico Statehood

periods.

Previous archaeological monitoring efforts adjacent to the PERA Building encountered human remains in the upper 30 cm of fill. These remains were probably associated with San Miguel's *campo santo*. Although the location of the cemetery appears to have changed over time, the cemetery never came close to the current project area, and there is no reason to expect human remains during the PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Nearby historic and culturally significant structures, such as the Lamy and PERA Buildings, will not be affected physically by the PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and ADA Ramp Project. Installation of the shelter and handicap accessible ramps substantially will not detract from the visual qualities that characterize these structures and contribute to the Santa Fe Historic District's eligibility for listing on the national and state registers.

However, based upon archival research, there is a significant potential for encountering both prehistoric and historic subsurface deposits. The OAS recommends archaeological monitoring of all ground-disturbing activities during installation of the shelter and handicap ramps. If cultural deposits are encountered during monitoring, archaeological excavation and documentation of all cultural strata and features within the areas impacted by the current construction project should adequately characterize the subsurface deposits within the general area.

7. Monitoring Plan

If the NMDOT, New Mexico Historic Preservation Division, and City of Santa Fe Historic Preservation Division agree that monitoring represents the best option for mitigating the impacts of the proposed undertaking, OAS proposes the following monitoring plan. Monitoring would be conducted under OAS General Permit NM-12-027-M. If excavation becomes necessary, it will be conducted under OAS General Permit NM-12-027-T, since the current project area represents just over a 0.1 percent sample of the total area designated LA 4450.

FIELD METHODS

When construction of the Park & Ride shelter and curb modification begins, OAS proposes that a supervisory archaeologist be present on site to monitor all mechanical and hand-excavation conducted in relation to the project. The location and dimensions of all excavation areas will be mapped in UTM NAD 1983 Zone 13 using a Trimble GeoExplorer 3000 Series Geo-XH global positioning unit.

If and when cultural materials are encountered, the archaeologist will halt contractor excavations and investigate the context in which the materials were found. If the deposits in which the cultural materials are determined to be mixed, the archaeologists will note the cultural materials, allow the contractor to continue, and carry on monitoring the contractor's work.

If and when in situ prehistoric or historic cultural deposits are encountered, OAS will notify the NMDOT, the NMHPD, and the City of Santa Fe HPD. The archaeologist will then shift from monitoring the contractor to performing systematic test excavations of the construction area. Hand-excavation by the archaeologist inside the shelter or curb modification area will be conducted using 1 by 1 m units excavated in 10 cm levels. Cultural fill removed from the hole will be screened through 1/4-inch mesh to collect artifacts.

These excavation methods will continue until all intact cultural deposits have been removed within the footprint of the undertaking or until

the hole has reached the depth necessary for the contractor to complete installation of the shelter and curbs. Excavations are not planned for depths greater than 60 cm below the current ground surface. However, if the excavations exceed 1.3 m in depth and the OAS archaeologist must enter the pit to work, the surrounding area will be stepped back by the contractor to a depth not exceeding 45 cm below ground surface.

If architectural or other feature remains are encountered, the feature will be defined and excavated within the extent of the shelter or curb modification area. A feature number will be assigned, and the artifact content, stratigraphy, morphology, construction methods, and age will be recorded. A profile of the feature will be drawn and photographed. Feature fill will be screened through 1/8-inch mesh to systematically recover artifacts for dating and functional analysis.

Following the completion of archaeological excavations, the archaeologist will generate a stratigraphic profile of the excavated area. Strata will be described according to color, texture, composition, origin, and cultural inclusions, such as artifacts, charcoal, coal, or fragments of building materials.

All field recording will be conducted on standard OAS feature and excavation forms under the provisions of General Permit NM-12-027-M and NM-12-027-T. Recovered artifacts and samples from each arbitrary level within an excavation area will be assigned a field specimen (FS) number, which will be recorded on related excavation forms and bags and listed in a catalogue.

If burned or charred deposits are encountered, chronometric and flotation samples will be collected to help date and characterize the nature of the deposit. Two-liter flotation samples will be collected and brought to the laboratory for flotation processing and archaeobotanical analysis.

Human Remains

If human remains are encountered, OAS will follow the state burial law (4.10.11 NMAC), notify the appropriate authorities, and immediately

activate its annual unmarked burial excavation permit. The location of the human remains will be recorded on the project map, a profile drawing will document stratigraphic relationships, and field observations will be made regarding the era of interment and probable cultural or ethnic affiliation.

LABORATORY ANALYSES

Laboratory analyses will be conducted in accordance with previously established laboratory procedures routinely observed by the OAS and on file with NMHPD. A detailed discussion of current OAS analytical procedures and their application with the downtown Santa Fe area may be found in Barbour (2011b). Utilization of these analytical methods during the current project will allow for comparability with other recent OAS projects completed in the area, such as the Capitol Parking Facility (LA 158037 [Barbour 2011a]), Executive Office Building (LA 158037 [Barbour in prep.]), Santa Fe County Judicial Complex (LA 156207 [Lakatos 2011]), and previous monitoring at the former PERA Building (LA 168891 [Moga and Post 2011]).

Artifacts from the field will be cleaned, inventoried, and catalogued. Any remains that appear to be unstable will be treated in consultation with the Museum of New Mexico's Conservation Unit. Analytic methods for each material type are discussed briefly below.

Native Ceramic Analysis

Traditional ceramic typologies will be used to classify ceramic artifacts as appropriate. Extant typologies for ancestral Puebloan pottery that may be utilized include the Rio Grande, Jemez, Pajarito, Galisteo, and Pecos series (Habicht-Mauche 1993) for matte-paint pottery. For ancestral Puebloan and early historic Pueblo-period glaze ware, the Rio Grande glaze ware series as defined by Mera (1940) and refined by Warren (1979b) will be employed. For late ancestral and historic Pueblo matte-paint pottery traditions, the Tewa series (as defined by Harlow [1973] and revised by McKenna and Miles [1991]) will be utilized. Besides ceramic type, attributes that will be examined include temper

composition, paint type, surface manipulation, modification, and vessel form.

Flaked Stone Analysis

Flaked stone artifacts will be examined using a standardized analysis format (OAS 1994a). Attributes that will be recorded for all lithic artifacts include material type, material quality, artifact morphology, artifact function, cortical texture coverage, portion, presence of thermal alteration, edge damage, and dimensions. Other attributes are aimed specifically at examining the reduction process and can only be obtained from flakes. They include platform type, platform width, evidence of platform lipping, presence or absence of opposing dorsal scars, and distal termination type.

Ground Stone Analysis

Ground stone artifacts will be examined using a standardized methodology (OAS 1994b). It was designed to provide data on material selection, manufacturing technology, and use. Attributes that will be recorded include material type, material texture and quality, function, portion, preform morphology, production input, plan-view outline, ground-surface texture and sharpening, shaping, number of uses, wear patterns, evidence of heating, presence of residues, and dimensions.

Fauna Analysis

Specimens chosen for analysis will be identified using the OAS comparative collection, supplemented by that of the Museum of Southwest Biology, when necessary. Analysis of bone remnants will focus on the identification of the species and anatomical element represented; whether or not the animal was processed for consumption or other use, and if so, how it was processed and which parts were processed; and how taphonomic and environmental conditions have affected the specimen. Attributes recorded will include taxonomic identification, certainty, skeletal element, side, age, portion, comments, completeness, environmental alteration, animal alteration, burning, evidence of butchering, and measurements.

Human Remains Analysis

Human remains, if encountered, will be analyzed following the procedures set out in Buikstra and Ubelaker (1994). This comprehensive system focuses on gaining the maximum amount of comparable information by recording the same attributes using the same standards. If the human remains are to be reburied, Buikstra and Ubelaker (1994:174) recommend curating samples for future analysis. These samples, if taken, will be done in consultation with the client, landowner, preservation authorities, and Native American tribes.

Euroamerican Artifact Analysis

Euroamerican artifacts are objects that were not available in the American Southwest prior to the establishment of European settlements in the sixteenth century. Assemblages of such artifacts typically include a variety of artifact classes such as bottle glass, can or metal fragments, and wheel-thrown ceramics. The OAS Euroamerican analysis format and procedures were developed over the last ten years and incorporate the range of variability found in sites dating from the sixteenth to the twentieth centuries throughout New Mexico (Boyer et al. 1994). These methods are loosely based on South's (1977) Carolina and Frontier artifact patterns and the function-based analytical framework described by Hull-Walski and Ayres (1989). Recorded analysis attributes include artifact category, type, function, material, fragment, condition, begin date, end date, manufacturer, brand, manufacture method, shape, seams, opening/closure, color, paste, ware, decoration, dimensions, and weight.

Archaeobotanical Analysis

Macrobotanical studies could include flotation analysis of soil samples, species identification, morphometric measurement of macrobotanical specimens (where appropriate), and species identification of wood specimens from both flotation and macrobotanical samples. Seed attributes such as charring, color, and aspects of damage or deterioration will be recorded to help determine if the seeds are present in the sample due to cultural affiliation or postoccupational

contamination. Condition (carbonization, deflation, swelling, erosion, damage) will be noted as a potential indicator of cultural alteration or modification of original size dimensions. Relative abundance of insect parts, bones, rodent and insect feces, and roots helps to isolate sources of biological disturbance and the resulting commingling of bioturbated plant remains in the ethnobotanical record.

Chronometric Dating

Chronometric samples may be collected and used to define the occupation sequence, if other means (such as relative dating) fail to provide sufficient data. Absolute dating methods that may be used in this project include dendrochronology, archaeomagnetism, optically stimulated thermoluminescence, and radiocarbon assays. With the exception of archaeomagnetism, these chronometric studies will be performed by contractors outside of the OAS. Relative dating studies, such as ceramic stylistic and technological variation and Euroamerican artifact manufacture dates, will be conducted as part of Native ceramic and Euroamerican artifact analyses.

RESEARCH RESULTS AND CURATION

A final report will be published in the OAS Archaeology Notes series. The report will describe the results of the monitoring and if necessary, excavation activities. It will provide analysis results, interpretive summaries, and cultural resource management recommendations. The report will include professionally drafted graphics including but not limited to a site map, soil profiles, and photographs of the excavation. All original field recording forms, maps, and photographs will be deposited with the Archaeological Records Management Section of the New Mexico Historic Preservation Division. Artifacts will be curated at the Museum of Indian Arts and Culture, Archaeological Research Collections Unit in Santa Fe, New Mexico. A project activity form and site update form will be completed and submitted to the Archeological Records Management Section in Santa Fe.

SCHEDULE AND PERSONNEL

Initiation and completion of fieldwork depends largely on contractor schedules, which were not finalized when this report was written. NMHPD and City of Santa Fe HPD will be notified prior to groundbreaking activities. Within six months of completion of fieldwork, a final report will be presented to the NMDOT for review.

The monitoring plan described in this report will be implemented by the Office of Archaeological Studies. Robert Dello-Russo will serve as the project's principal investigator. Matthew Barbour will serve as supervisory archaeologist and will direct all monitoring, laboratory analyses, and report production tasks. Curriculum vitae for these project staff are on file with NMHPD.

Susan Moga, Richard Montoya, or Donald Tatum—all OAS operational archaeologists—may serve as crew chiefs, and other OAS staff will

act as crew members, if necessary. Laboratory analyses will be conducted by Nancy Akins (fauna and human remains), Matthew Barbour (Euroamerican artifacts), Pamela McBride (archaeobotanical samples), Richard Montoya (Native ceramics), James Moore (flaked stone), and Karen Wening (ground stone).

Previous archival and ethnohistorical studies of the Capitol Complex Historic Neighborhood have been conducted by David Snow and Matthew Barbour (Snow 2011; Snow and Barbour 2011; Barbour in prep.). In conjunction with the data presented within this report, these histories represent a sizable discourse on the history of occupation and land use of the current project area. Any supplemental research necessary to interpret and discuss the archaeological deposits identified during monitoring of the former PERA Building Parking Lot Park & Ride Shelter and Curb Modification Project will be conducted by Matthew Barbour.

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