



R. Cultural Resources Technical Memo

For

Williams Creek Generating Station



Colorado Springs Utilities Customer Service Department ca. 1930s. Internal archives photograph shared on the Colorado Springs Utilities LinkedIn page [www.linkedin.com/posts/colorado-springs-utilities_its-time-for-a-throwback-thursday-picture-activity-6336994896783642624-ln9q].

Colorado Springs Utilities, Williams Creek Power Plant Project, Cultural Resources Technical Memo El Paso County, Colorado



Prepared for:
Colorado Springs Utilities

Bristlecone Ecology, LLC.
2023 W Scott Place
Denver, CO 80211

Colorado Springs Utilities, Williams Creek Power Plant Project, Cultural Resources Technical Memo

El Paso County, Colorado

Prepared for:

AK Pioneer Consulting, LLC
8777 E Summit Rd
Parker, CO 80138

TYPE OF WORK
Desktop Diligence Study

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR
Kimberly Bailey

AUTHOR(S)
Obi Oberdier, Kimberly
Bailey, and Amber Bell

DATE
September 29, 2026

Colorado Springs Utilities

Bristlecone Ecology, LLC.
2023 W Scott Place
Denver, CO 80211

For Official Use Only:
Disclosure of Site
Locations Prohibited (43
CFR 7.18)

Table of Contents

Introduction.....	1
Project Description.....	1
Environment.....	3
Present Environment.....	3
Hydrology	3
Topography and Geology	4
Soils and Depositional Settings.....	4
Natural Vegetation and Wildlife	4
Present Built Environmental Setting.....	4
Culture History	4
Paleoindian Stage (>11,500–7,800 B.P.).....	5
Archaic Stage (7,800–1,850 B.P./A.D. 100).....	7
Late Precontact Stage (1,850–225 B.P./A.D. 100–1725).....	9
Tribal History - Protohistoric.....	10
Postcontact Stage/Historic Period (A.D. 1725–1976)	12
Early Explorers.....	12
Historic Trails.....	14
Mountain Men and Traders	15
Gold Rush and Railroad Building	15
Settlement and General William Jackson Palmer.....	17
Colorado Springs Utilities	18
Previous Work.....	19
Historic Maps and Aerials.....	23
Historical Markers.....	27
Cemeteries	27
Summary and Recommendations.....	27
Potential Effects and Recommendations	27
References Cited	28

List of Figures

Figure 1. Project Location	2
Figure 2. Proposed Project.....	3
Figure 3. Map of Historical Aboriginal Territories (O'Meara 2021)	11
Figure 4. Map of Early Trails and Forts in Colorado (Hafen 1925).....	13
Figure 5. Unrestricted OAHP sites and previous inventories within one mile of the Project Area.	22
Figure 6. 1862 GLO survey plat for T16S, R65W with Project Area outlined in black and yellow.	23
Figure 7. USGS 1896 Colorado Springs, CO 1:125,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and red.	24
Figure 8. USGS 1909 Colorado Springs, CO 1:125,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and yellow.....	24
Figure 9. USGS 1975 Fountain, CO 1:24,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and yellow.....	25
Figure 11. 1947 aerial image of the Study Area and surrounding areas.	26
Figure 12. 1960 aerial image of the Project Area and surrounding areas.	26

List of Tables

Table 1. Cultural stages in the Arkansas River Basin.	5
Table 2. Previous inventories within one mile of the Project (intersecting inventories highlighted).	19
Table 3. Cultural resources within one mile of the Project Area (eligible resources highlighted).	21

List of Acronyms

°F	degrees Fahrenheit
ACHP	Advisory Council on Historic Preservation
AKPC	AK Pioneer Consulting, LLC
APE	Area of Potential Effect
B.P.	Before Present (years before A.D. 1950)
Bristlecone	Bristlecone Ecology, LLC
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
CRS	Colorado Revised Statutes
CSG	Colorado Springs Gazette
CSU	Colorado Springs Utilities
EPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
GLO	General Land Office
NHPA	National Historic Preservation Act
NRCS	Natural Resources Conservation Service
NRHP	National Register of Historic Places
OAHP	Office of Archaeology and Historic Preservation
Project	Colorado Springs Utilities, Williams Creek Power Plant Project
USDA	U.S. Department of Agriculture
USGS	U.S. Geological Survey

Introduction

The Colorado Springs Utilities (CSU) is planning the Williams Creek Power Plant Project southeast of the city of Fountain in El Paso County, Colorado (Project). Bristlecone Ecology, LLC (Bristlecone), CSU's contractor assisting them with environmental and permitting considerations for the Project, contracted AK Pioneer Consulting, LLC (AKPC) to complete a cultural resources desktop review for the Project. This report provides important information for Project planning and supports Colorado Revised Statutes (CRS) 24-80-401 through 411 (Part 4 – Historical, Prehistorical, and Archaeological Resources) and El Paso County 1041 Land Development Code to protect or preserve “areas of historical and archaeological importance” (El Paso County, Colorado, Land Development Code, Appendix B, Chapter 2, Article 3, 2.303).

Project Description

The Project is in El Paso County, southeast of the city of Fountain, in Sections 23, 24, 25, and 26 of Township 16 South, Range 65 West, of the 6th Meridian. It is approximately 2.8 miles northeast of Interstate 25, on the north side of Irradiance Rd. and encompassing Substation Dr., Williams Creek Rd., and Arrays Pl. (**Figure 1**). The proposed Project plans to construct a new power plant and associated facilities (**Figure 2**). The Area of Potential Effects (APE) includes all areas within which the Project may directly or indirectly cause an alteration to the character or use of a historic property (as defined in 36 CFR 800.16) that qualify it for inclusion in or eligibility for the National Register, if such properties exist. The Project will involve extensive ground disturbance for grading and excavation for the main facility footprint, substations, pump house, storage tanks, septic systems, and associated underground utilities. Installation of fiber-optic lines, and electrical conduits will require trenching. Construction of two brine solar ponds and a reject pond will involve large-scale earthwork to create bermed basins and lined containment areas. Additional disturbance will occur from laydown yards, access roads, perimeter fencing, and work pads for heavy equipment. The APE includes access points, work areas, and a small portion of the existing facilities, totaling 200 acres.

AKPC conducted a cultural file search and historical records review to identify areas of previous cultural resource inventories, previously recorded cultural resources, and undocumented cultural resources in and near the Project area. AKPC completed this review using available online databases and resources that included a search of site files, records, technical reports, and map files from the Colorado Office of Archaeology and Historic Preservation (OAHP) online database, listings on the Colorado State (CO SRHP) and National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), Colorado Centennial Farms, state and national historic landmarks, historical General Land Office (GLO) plat maps, historical United States Geological Survey (USGS) topographic maps, historical markers, and cemeteries.

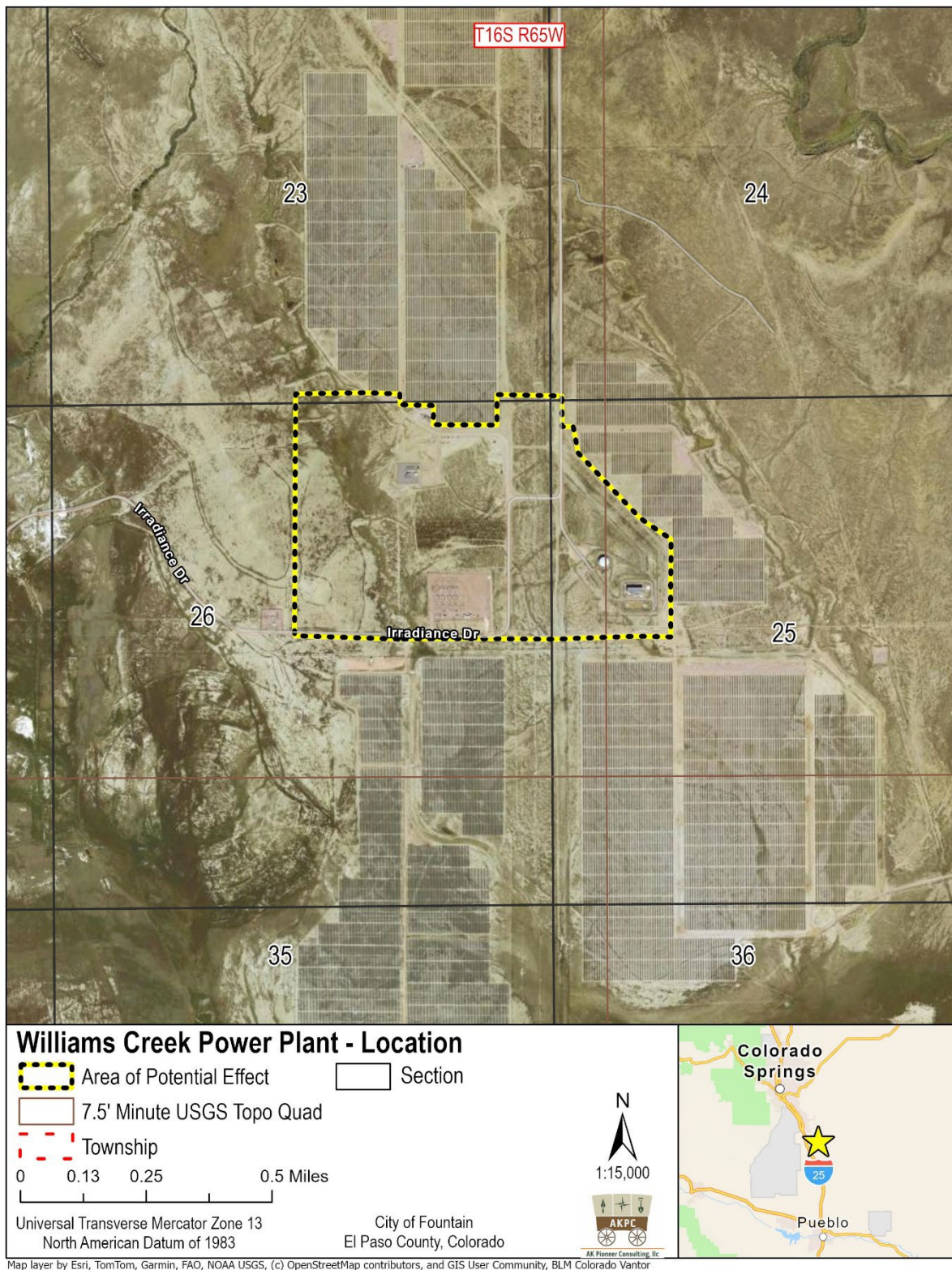


Figure 1. Project Location

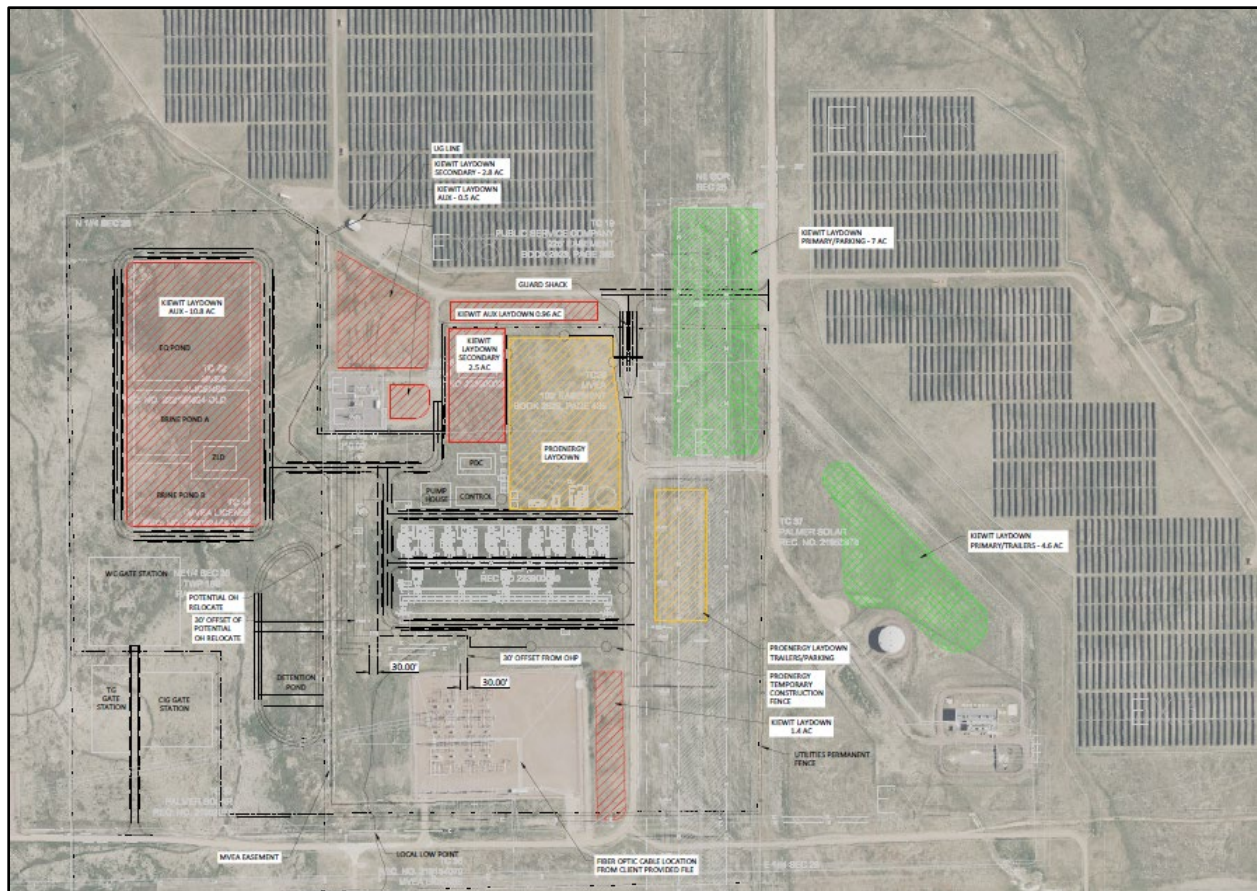


Figure 2. Proposed Project

Environment

Present Environment

The Project is within the Colorado Plateau physiographic province (Williams and Chronic 2014). It is within a cold semi-arid, continental climate characterized by warm summers, cold winters, and generally low annual precipitation. Climate normals for the period 1991 to 2020 report an average annual precipitation of 16.54 inches. Average July temperatures reach highs of 85° Fahrenheit (°F) and lows of 57°F, while January temperatures average highs of 43°F and lows of 18°F. Winters bring periodic snowfall, with an average annual total of 39 inches (U.S. Climate Data 2026). The average elevation of the Project Area is around 5,452 feet above sea level.

Hydrology

Ephemeral and intermittent drainages in the Fountain Watershed flow across rolling shale plains toward Fountain Creek. Runoff is driven mainly by spring frontal storms and intense late-summer thunderstorms, producing short-duration flooding that moves fine alluvium and loess downslope. Small stock ponds and limited diversion structures support localized agricultural use, but most uplands remain dry, with hydrology shaped by highly erodible soils and recurring drought cycles (USDA NRCS 2007). A small

drainage flows intermittently through the western portion of the Project Area, and Williams Creek is approximately 0.65 miles to the northeast.

Topography and Geology

The Project is in the Colorado Piedmont Plains and Tablelands ecoregion. The structural geology of this region is composed of Quaternary alluvium and eolian deposits of loess, silt, and sand overlaying bedrock of Cretaceous shale, limestone, and sandstone (Chapman *et al.* 2006). The Project Area is in the plains, with minimal variations in elevation produced by the drainage, small eolian deposits, and push piles from road construction and solar farms.

Soils and Depositional Settings

Soils in the Project Area are mostly Midway clay loam (~85% of the Project Area), roughly 11–20 inches deep. Along the drainage in the western portion of the Project Area are deeper soils: Heldt clay loam (~6.3%), and Manzanola silty clay loam (~8.7%), which is more saline (NRCS 2026).

Natural Vegetation and Wildlife

The Project Area is in a shortgrass prairie that typically includes blue grama, buffalograss, needle-and-thread, green needlegrass, and red three awn, with scattered western wheatgrass, galleta, sand dropseed, and little bluestem. Sand sagebrush, yucca, and cholla may also appear (Chapman *et al.* 2006). The high plains around the Project Area support common grassland mammals such as mule deer, pronghorn, prairie dogs, pocket mice, and several bat species, along with mountain lions and a wide range of snakes, lizards, and turtles. Seasonal and resident birds include raptors like golden eagles, prairie falcons, northern harriers, and Swainson's hawks, as well as grassland songbirds, burrowing owls, mountain plovers, cranes, hummingbirds, and quail. (Colorado Parks and Wildlife 2006).

Present Built Environmental Setting

The present built environment includes elements of agriculture and modern development, with some portions of the plains remaining undeveloped. The Project Area is immediately surrounded by agricultural fields and solar farms, with small access roads throughout.

Culture History

The following discussion of the precontact culture history of the Arkansas River Basin is based on *Colorado Prehistory: A Context for the Arkansas River Basin* (Zier *et al.* 1999), which builds on the scholarship synthesized in *Colorado Mountains Prehistoric Context* (Guthrie *et al.* 1984) and *Colorado Plains Prehistoric Context* (Eighmy 1984). The discussion of the protohistoric and postcontact culture history is based on *Colorado History: A Context for Historical Archaeology* (Church *et al.* 2007), which builds on earlier scholarship in *Colorado Plains Historic Context* (Mehls 1984).

The Arkansas River Basin extends from the river's headwaters near Leadville into southeastern Colorado, where the river widens as it flows through the Plains. The Arkansas River Basin includes the tributaries Monument Creek, Jimmy Camp Creek, and Fountain Creek in the Colorado Springs area. This discussion will be organized according to major cultural stages adapted from the context for the Arkansas River Basin: Paleoindian, Archaic, Late Precontact, and Postcontact (**Table 1**).

Table 1. Cultural stages in the Arkansas River Basin.

Cultural Taxon		Temporal Range
Paleoindian Stage		>11,500–7,800 B.P.
	Pre-Clovis Period	>11,500 B.P.
	Clovis Period	11,500–10,950 B.P.
	Folsom Period	10,950–10,250 B.P.
	Plano Period	10,250–7,800 B.P.
Archaic Stage		7,800–1,850 B.P. (A.D. 100)
	Early Archaic Period	7,800–5,000 B.P.
	Middle Archaic Period	5,000–3,000 B.P.
	Late Archaic Period	3,000–1,850 B.P. (A.D. 100)
Late Precontact Stage		1,850–225 B.P. (A.D. 100–1725)
	Developmental Period	1,850–900 B.P. (A.D. 100–1050)
	Diversification Period	900–500 B.P. (A.D. 1050–1450)
	Apishapa Phase	900–500 B.P. (A.D. 1050–1450)
	Sopris Phase	900–750 B.P. (A.D. 1050–1200)
	Protohistoric Period	500–225 B.P. (A.D. 1450–1725)
Postcontact Stage/Historic Period		(A.D. 1725–1976)

Paleoindian Stage (>11,500–7,800 B.P.)

The Paleoindian Stage is divided into four periods: Pre-Clovis, Clovis, Folsom, and Plano. Although Pre-Clovis peoples likely moved through the region, their populations were small and their campsites highly ephemeral, leaving little material evidence. No sites in the Arkansas River Basin have been securely dated to the Pre-Clovis Period, and it is therefore not addressed further in this report. The Clovis, Folsom, and Plano periods are represented in the basin's archaeological record, though sites from these periods remain relatively rare compared to those of later cultural stages.

Clovis Period sites are typically located near water and generally represent temporary occupations by small groups. Large, lanceolate projectile points with bifacial fluting near the proximal end dominate Clovis artifact assemblages. When fired from a weapon called the atlatl, these large points were effective for hunting mammoths and other large game. The frequency of these points relative to other artifact types indicates that most common site type for this period consist of sites where large game were killed and butchered. Most Clovis projectile points exhibit reworked edges, suggesting they were used for multiple purposes. Stone tools from this period were consistently made from

high-quality, fine-grained silicates. Aside from the iconic projectile points, bifaces, blades, and modified flakes were also utilized. Campsites from this period are relatively rare and ephemeral.

The nearest notable Clovis Period site to the Project Area is the Hahn Site (5EP.1), a surface find situated in the upper headwaters of Big Sandy Creek on the Palmer Divide. Located along a gravel ridge near natural springs, it lies approximately 31 miles northeast of the Project Area. The site had diagnostic Clovis and Folsom projectile points suggesting repeated, long-term use of this region during the Paleoindian Stage.

Folsom Period sites are more common in the Arkansas River Basin than Clovis Period sites. Folsom site types include kill, butchering, and campsites that are attributed to small, mobile groups of people. Like the Clovis projectile points, Folsom projectile points were fluted. Their fluting extended almost the length of the points. However, they were considerably smaller than Clovis projectile points, suggesting that they might have been used to hunt smaller game. Folsom artifact assemblages had an increased variety in tool types. Lithic bifaces and modified flake tools became more common, as did bone items, such as awls, beads, scrapers, and incised disks.

Site 5CF.84, in the Trout Creek Pass area east of Buena Vista, is an important quarry site that has yielded Folsom projectile points and demonstrates that people during this period exercised tremendous mobility between the plains and mountains.

The Plano Period is known for extensive bison kill and butchering sites. Projectile points recovered from Plano Period sites demonstrate an increasing trend towards increasing diversity in forms and functions. The projectile points were no longer fluted, but they were still launched from atlatls, relatively large, and typically lanceolate in form. Plano Period sites often contain tools made from high-quality silicates from distant places, such as western North Dakota and Texas, and yet expediently used ground stone and bone tools made from local materials also became more common at these sites. Floral and faunal assemblages from this period demonstrate increased diversity in the range of resources that were utilized. However, bison remained a preferred food source. Plano sites are more likely to be found in upland environments than Clovis and Folsom Period sites. Throughout the Paleoindian Stage, projectile points tended to be reworked often, a pattern that continued unabated into the Plano Period.

The Olsen-Chubbuck Site (5CH.1) is an exemplary site from the Plano Period in the Arkansas River Basin. It is a kill site dating to about 10,150 BP, which preserves a mass kill of more than 190 large *Bison occidentalis* driven into an arroyo in Cheyenne County. The bone bed extended roughly 170 feet and shows highly organized butchering, with remains stacked in a consistent sequence from leg units at the bottom to skulls on top. This site is indicative of larger human populations and well-organized group hunts (Colorado Encyclopedia n.d.). Other important Arkansas River Basin sites with Plano components include the excavated Runberg Site (5CF.358) and the surface locality at Trout Creek Quarry (5CF.84). Both lie on or near mountain passes in the upper basin and contain Early Archaic materials, indicating that the upland-environment preference

that emerged during the Plano Period may be connected to similar preferences in the Early Archaic.

Archaic Stage (7,800–1,850 B.P./A.D. 100)

The cultural adaptations of the Archaic Stage coincided with the Altithermal, a warming and drying trend that resulted in environmental conditions more similar to the present than the preceding ice age. The end of the Pleistocene brought about the extinction of most North American megafauna, along with major predators and other species. This enabled diversification among the remaining taxa, resulting in expanded utilization of diverse plant resources and the development of more specialized subsistence strategies. The Archaic Stage is sub-divided into the Early Archaic, Middle Archaic, and Late Archaic periods.

The Early Archaic Period is poorly represented in the archaeological record of Colorado, with sites found more frequently in the mountains and foothills than on the plains. However, surface finds have been documented in the area around Fountain. This pattern of site distribution fits with the prevailing hypothesis among Colorado archaeologists that environmental changes in the early Holocene may have driven people to seek refugia in the high country, while forays into the lowlands still occurred, but at lower frequencies and shorter durations. During this period, lanceolate forms became less common and new forms of projectile points were manufactured. Large side-notched points were most popular but stemmed points and corner-notched points also began to appear. The creation of other novel tools began during this period, including ovoid bifaces, microtools, new varieties of scrapers, and flanged drills. Local raw materials were commonly chosen for the production of these projectile points and stone tools, eschewing the dependence on fine-grained materials from distant sources that had been typical during the Paleoindian Stage. Hunting strategies broadly shifted from big-game hunting to the pursuit of smaller game. Elsewhere in Colorado, subterranean pithouses and shallow basin structures first appeared during the Early Archaic Period, although none from this period have been identified within the Arkansas River Basin.

The trend toward increased use of small game and diverse plant resources, first evident in the Early Archaic, continued into the Middle Archaic. However, sites dating to the Middle Archaic are much more common than those of the Early Archaic, a pattern confirmed through radiocarbon dating, obsidian hydration analysis, and projectile-point typologies. In addition to the high mountains and Arkansas headwaters, Middle Archaic sites were frequently located on the plains and along Fountain Creek. This increase in both frequency and geographic range is generally attributed to significant population growth. That interpretation is consistent with the finding that, despite their wider distribution, Middle Archaic sites still tend to be situated near water sources. At the beginning of the Middle Archaic, people began producing projectile points and tools diagnostic of the newly emergent McKean Complex, which included both lanceolate and stemmed indented-base forms. Ground stone artifact manufacture and use were widespread in both the foothills and the plains, but plains sites often contain a broader variety of projectile points that diverge from the McKean Complex than do upland sites.

Basin-type structures also became common in the Arkansas River Basin during this period.

Significant Middle Archaic sites in the Arkansas River Basin are more numerous than those of earlier periods. Important open sites include 5CF.18, 5LK.159 (Dead of Winter), 5LK.372, 5CF.84 (Trout Creek Quarry), 5FN.349, and 5CF.555 (Venado Enojado). However, the most informative Middle Archaic sites come from rockshelters, where protected depositional environments preserve stratigraphy, features, and artifacts far better than open sites. Roughly half of the Middle Archaic sites in the basin that have been tested or excavated are well-stratified rockshelters, such as 5PE.8 (Two Deer Shelter), 5PE.648 (Recon John Shelter), and 5PE.910 (Gooseberry Shelter). Work at these sites has provided archaeologists with a much clearer and more detailed understanding of this period than was possible for earlier periods. Notable sites in El Paso County include 5EP.2158 (Cathedral Canyon), a rockshelter site in Colorado Springs with substantial faunal and lithic assemblages and well-preserved hearths, and 5EP.576 (Bohart Rockshelter), a small rockshelter site about 15 miles to the northeast with a complex lithic assemblage and projectile points.

Late Archaic sites are common throughout the Arkansas River Basin, and many provide clearer evidence of sustained occupation than those of earlier periods. Rockshelters with Late Archaic components often contain cultural deposits that are thicker and more complexly stratified than deposits from previous occupations, suggesting intensive and repeated use by growing populations. Projectile points were still fired using atlatls, but they evolved into new forms, typically stemmed or corner notched. Lithic assemblages frequently include large, broad blades with shallow corner notches, expanding stems with straight or concave bases, and unshouldered points with contracting or straight stems and concave bases, reflecting continued reliance on smaller and more diverse game. Expediently used ground stone artifacts are common, and bone and shell artifacts occur at rates similar to those of the Middle Archaic. Smaller game and wild plants remained important food sources during this period. Although uncommon, maize has been recovered from some Late Archaic rockshelters, indicating limited experimentation with cultivated crops near the end of the period.

Approximately, one third of Late Archaic sites are rockshelters with thick cultural deposits. Such sites are geographically limited due to geological constraints. In contrast, open sites are widely distributed. For example, 5CF.589 (Ruby Mountain), a dense lithic scatter, and 5CF.555 (Venado Enojado Site), a possible pithouse site, are examples of open sites with late Archaic components. Notable sites in El Paso County include 5EP.45, a small sheltered camp about 13 miles to the southwest, and 5EP.935 (Crow's Roost Cliff), a large open camp with abundant ground stone, projectile points, hearths, and pottery from the Developmental Period, about 17 miles to the northeast, and 5EP.576 (Bohart Rock Shelter) and 5EP.2158 (Cathedral Canyon), previously-mentioned sites that contain evidence of repeated occupation through time.

Late Precontact Stage (1,850–225 B.P./A.D. 100–1725)

The beginning of the Late Precontact Stage represents a continuation of Late Archaic lifeways, but important technological, demographic, settlement, and trade changes occurred in the Arkansas River Basin. This stage is marked by the appearance of ceramic vessel fragments and the introduction of bow-and-arrow technology, which replaced the atlatl for most hunting activities. Population levels increased during this period, and there is evidence of greater sedentism. The earliest ceramics in the Arkansas River Basin include cord-marked, plain, incised polished, micaceous, corrugated, and painted wares. Stone tool assemblages also became more complex than those of earlier stages. Large Late Archaic projectile points co-occur with small arrow points, reflecting a continued reliance on diverse game species alongside new hunting technologies. Expediently used ground stone artifacts are the most common artifact type after flaked stone tools, and bone and shell artifacts also become more common. The Late Precontact Stage is divided into the Developmental, Diversification, and Protohistoric Periods, with the Diversification Period further subdivided into the Apishapa and Sopris Phases.

The beginning of the Developmental Period is defined by the appearance of bow and arrow technology and ceramics. Residential architecture also became more widespread, and evidence of maize horticulture is occasionally present. Bone and shell ornaments and implements are more abundant in Developmental Period contexts than in previous periods. Ground stone assemblages tend to consist of flat or shallow slab metates and small manos. Notable Developmental Period sites in El Paso County include 5EP.2 (Davis Rockshelter) and 5EP.935, on Black Squirrel Creek. These sites yielded small corner-notched projectile points and cord-marked ceramics. Farther south, a series of well-dated Developmental Period rockshelters was excavated at Fort Carson.

The Diversification Period consisted of two phases, the Apishapa and Sopris. These distinct traditions developed on the Eastern Plains at roughly the same time. Population levels and sedentism peaked during this period as evidenced by the diversity of architecture, features, and artifacts. Settlements with multi-room structures grew larger and more complex than in the preceding period.

Apishapa Phase architectural sites range from isolated structures to larger multi-room complexes. Stone was used to form foundations or low walls, and the structures were typically circular. Rockshelters with contexts dating to this phase are often located near open architectural residential bases. Ceramic vessel forms and manufacturing techniques suggest external influences or trade. Bone tools and side-notched projectile points are common, and trade wares from Ancestral Puebloan, Plains Village, and Sopris populations have been recovered from Apishapa sites. Stone tool assemblages typically contain numerous early- to middle-stage bifaces and modified flakes. Small, side-notched Reed/Washita projectile points are a defining characteristic of Apishapa sites. Shallow basin slab metates and small cobble manos, similar to those of the Developmental Period, are common.

Maize was an important part of the diet during the Apishapa Phase; however, the abundance and diversity of wild plants in floral assemblages suggest that wild resources were more heavily relied upon for sustenance. The presence of processed large and small mammal bones appears to correlate with open architectural sites and rockshelters, respectively. Bone tool assemblages were diverse and included awls, spatulas, hide grainers, fleshers, scrapers, digging sticks, and knives. Stone pipes, shell tools and ornaments, disk beads, juniper and plum seed beads, and pigment stones are among the artifacts recovered from Apishapa sites. Sites attributed to the Apishapa Phase, such as 5LA.1247 (Snake Blakeslee) and 5LA.1085 (Juan Baca), share similarities in settlement-subsistence strategies and artifact assemblages with Plains Village sites to the east of Colorado.

The Sopris Phase is unique to the Purgatoire River area, the highlands south and west of Trinidad, Colorado and Raton, New Mexico, and the rivers along the southern tip of the Park Plateau. All habitation structures occur in open settings, although sites are also found on ridges, benches, river terraces, and valley bottoms. The phase was originally defined on the basis of architecture and ceramics, and Ancestral Puebloan influences are evident. Structures tend to be rectangular and contain multiple rooms built from some combination of stone and adobe. Some include slab-lined cists and basin hearths with raised adobe collars set into their floors, as well as ground-level entryways. Rectilinear stone masonry and Taos Incised and Taos Black-on-white ceramic sherds are indicators of Sopris Phase occupations. Sopris sites have been documented along the Purgatoire River and its tributaries.

Many Sopris Phase habitation structures contained burials beneath their floors. Most structures were expanded over time, suggesting an increase in occupants and intensified use. The destruction of many Sopris Phase structures by fire, combined with the discovery of disarticulated human remains and an individual with an embedded projectile point, has led researchers to conclude that violence contributed to social collapse and site abandonment during this phase. Projectile point and ground stone morphologies are highly variable. Trough metates, thought to have been used to grind maize, first appear on Sopris Phase sites. Bone tools made from deer and cottontail bones are common. Wild plants and domesticated maize, beans, and squash were important supplements to large and small game. Examples of Sopris Phase sites include 5LA.1415 (Sopris) and 5LA.1211 (Leone Bluff), both located along the Purgatoire River.

Tribal History - Protohistoric

The beginning of the Protohistoric Period is marked by the end of the Apishapa Phase and the arrival of Athapaskan-speaking peoples in the region. The languages of the Navajo, Jicarilla Apache, Mescalero Apache, Chiricahua Apache, and Kiowa Apache all have Athapaskan origins. European expeditions led by Oñate, Valverde, Ulibarri, and Zaldivar recorded interactions just before 1700, noting conflicts involving the Jicarilla Apache, Comanche, and Ute. It is thought that the early Jicarilla Apache entered southern Colorado as preceramic bison hunters who used dog travois; however, limited archaeological evidence makes it difficult to distinguish early Jicarilla Apache

occupations from those of other groups present at the time. Few sites have been confidently attributed to the Jicarilla Apache. Archaic projectile point forms and small triangular, unnotched, and side-notched points have been recovered from Protohistoric contexts. Sangre de Cristo Micaceous pottery is the most defining material expression associated with the Jicarilla Apache and reflects influence from Rio Grande Puebloan communities. Ocate and Cimarron Micaceous pottery, subtypes of Sangre de Cristo Micaceous pottery, are heavily micaceous vessels formed by coiling and hand shaping, often globular with striations from corncob thinning. Many Apachean micaceous ceramic sherds were recovered from the Sopris Phase Leone Bluff site (5LA.1211). Because so few archaeological sites can be confidently dated to this period, settlement patterns and subsistence practices remain poorly understood. Within the Arkansas River Basin, stone circles or tipi rings have been attributed to Jicarilla Apache occupations.

By the sixteenth century, the Pikes Peak area was home to the Ute or Tabeguache people, who called Pikes Peak *Tava*, meaning sun mountain. During the spring, summer, and fall, Ute families traveled in small groups, then gathered in the Colorado Springs area during winter where piñon-juniper stands and abundant plant and animal resources supported seasonal occupation. By the seventeenth century, Comanche and Kiowa groups were also present in the region, and by the early nineteenth century the Cheyenne, Lakota, and Arapaho visited and traveled through the area (Mondragon n.d.).

According to tribal historians, the Ute had obtained horses as early as 1580, greatly expanding their mobility and defensive strength. By 1650, seven Ute bands held well-defined territories across the Rockies and adjoining plains (**Figure 3**). The Mouache occupied the eastern slopes of the Rockies from Denver south to Trinidad and into northern New Mexico. Today, the Mouache and Caputa together form the Southern Ute Tribe headquartered at Ignacio, Colorado (Southern Ute Indian Tribe 2025). Other Indigenous groups, such as the Plains Apachean, migrated south across the plains and arrived in the Southwest around 1525 A.D. The Comanche entered Colorado in the early eighteenth century, prompting Apache groups to move out of



Figure 3. Map of Historical Aboriginal Territories (O'Meara 2021)

northeastern Colorado and continue their migration south. The Kiowa and Pawnee were also present in eastern Colorado (Church et al. 2007:90–93).

Postcontact Stage/Historic Period (A.D. 1725–1976)

Tribal History - Postcontact

The mobility and military strength of the Ute people were evident in conflicts such as the 1806 battle near Taos against Comanche forces. Throughout the nineteenth century, Ute leaders sought to negotiate with the United States, beginning with the 1849 Treaty of Abiquiú and later the 1868 treaty that established a reservation encompassing roughly the western third of Colorado under Chief Ouray's leadership. Subsequent events, including the 1873 Brunot Agreement ceding the San Juan mining district and increasing restrictions on Ute autonomy that culminated in the 1879 Meeker Incident, resulted in significant land loss and growing pressure for Ute removal. In 1871, the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad reached Douglas County and extended to Castle Rock, accelerating the influx of settlers and industry into Ute homelands. In 1880, Chief Ouray traveled to Washington, D.C., to negotiate another treaty, which further reduced Ute territory. These events collectively illustrate how Ute seasonal lifeways, once centered on mountain summers and plains winters, were disrupted by treaties, violence, and dispossession, leading to the forced removal of most Ute bands from Colorado by the early 1880s (Southern Ute Indian Tribe 2025).

By the early nineteenth century, Cheyenne and Arapaho peoples had extended their ranges into the Front Range foothills and plains, including what is now El Paso County. The adoption of horses, acquired through trade and intertribal exchange, transformed their mobility, subsistence practices, and territorial claims, enabling seasonal movements that brought them to wintering grounds along Fountain Creek and the Arkansas River. Archaeological and ethnographic records emphasize that Cheyenne and Arapaho lifeways centered on bison hunting, trade, and mobile encampments, often overlapping with Ute seasonal use of the mountains and foothills. Relations with the United States were formalized in 1851 with the Treaty of Fort Laramie, which recognized Cheyenne and Arapaho sovereignty over the central plains while guaranteeing safe passage for emigrants along major trails. Increasing settler encroachment, depletion of game, and military pressure soon eroded these guarantees. By the 1860s, federal policy and violent conflict, including military campaigns along the Arkansas and Platte Rivers, accelerated dispossession. The Cheyenne and Arapaho were ultimately forcibly removed from Colorado following the Sand Creek Massacre in 1864, with survivors relocated to reservations in Oklahoma and Wyoming. Their seasonal presence in El Paso County, marked by winter camps along river valleys, ended under the combined weight of treaty violations, military campaigns, and settler expansion (Colorado State University 2025).

Early Explorers

With the signing of the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, half of what would become Colorado came under the jurisdiction of the United States, while the remainder was still claimed by Spain. The Arkansas and Red Rivers marked the boundary between U.S.

territory to the north and east and Spanish territory to the south and west. Spanish explorers had traveled through Colorado since the establishment of Santa Fe in 1610, which at the time was the northernmost Spanish settlement in the New World.

In 1779, Governor Juan Bautista de Anza led a force of soldiers, colonists, and Pueblo allies into the San Luis Valley in response to ongoing conflict between Spanish settlements and Comanche groups. Following Comanche bands northward, de Anza's expedition crossed Poncha Pass into the Arkansas River Basin. The campaign culminated in a major engagement near Greenhorn Mountain in the Wet Mountain Range south of the Arkansas River. Spanish accounts describe this encounter as one of the most decisive battles of the late eighteenth century (Sprague 1984:3-5).

At the request of President Thomas Jefferson, Zebulon Montgomery Pike led sixteen soldiers from St. Louis, Missouri, into the western reaches of the Louisiana Purchase in 1806 (Figure 4). Their mission included locating the headwaters of the Arkansas and Red Rivers. After crossing the eastern plains of Colorado, Pike's party followed the Arkansas River and its tributaries into South Park (Simmons 1990:24; Sprague 1984:7). They crossed South Park to Trout Creek Pass and, after summiting the pass, descended toward the Arkansas River, which Pike mistakenly believed was the Red River. The expedition camped along the river for two days before Pike and several men traveled north in search of its headwaters. When they reached open terrain with a clear view for miles, Pike concluded he had seen the river's origin and rejoined the rest of the party northwest of Salida (Simmons 1991:25).

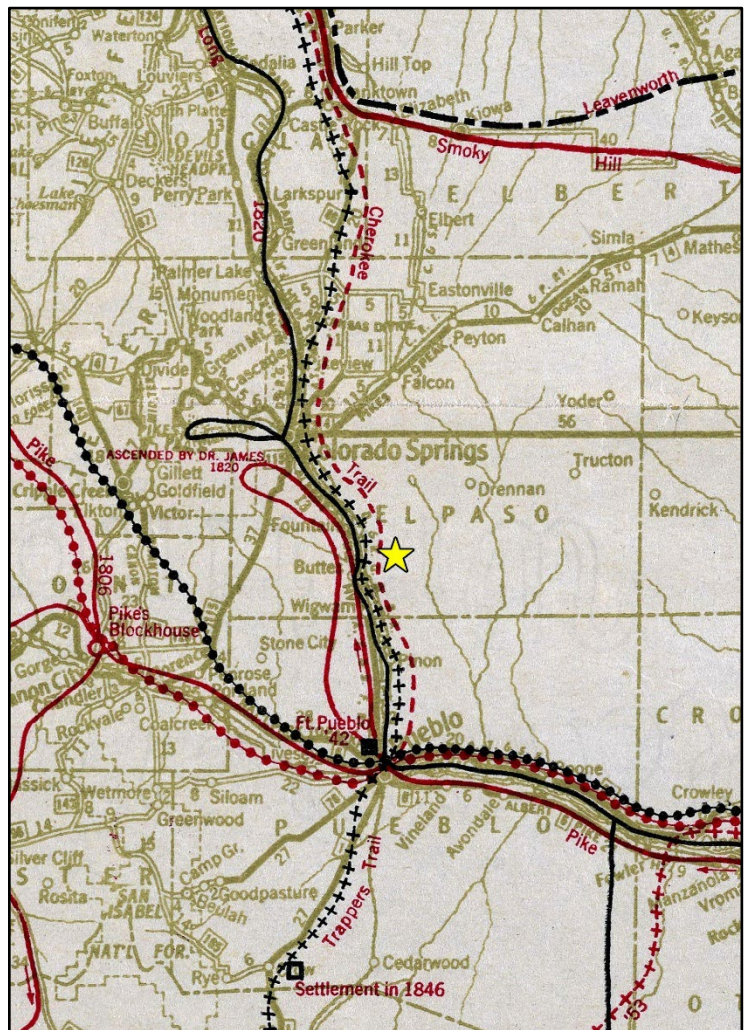


Figure 4. Map of Early Trails and Forts in Colorado (Hafen 1925)

Believing they had successfully located the Red River, Pike and his men traveled downstream, only to find themselves back at their earlier camp near Cañon City. Realizing the river was the Arkansas, they continued their search for the actual Red River. The expedition moved south through the San Luis Valley to the Rio Grande,

which they again misidentified as the Red River. Acting on information provided by Ute people, Spanish soldiers located Pike's encampment and arrested the party for trespassing into Spanish territory. Pike and his men were taken to Chihuahua for detainment (Sprague 1984:8).

Historic Trails

Trappers Trail

Although numerous trails through Colorado were developed after the discovery of gold in the Rocky Mountains, the Trappers Trail predates the Gold Rush. These routes collectively formed the Greater Denver Area trail network. The Trappers Trail, which extended north from Taos, New Mexico, followed nearly the same course as the Cherokee Trail within the Denver quadrangle.

The Trappers Trail was used by fur trappers and explorers, running north from Taos, New Mexico, to Colorado, through Pueblo, Colorado Springs, and Denver. From Denver, it followed the east side of the South Platte River through Forts Lupton, Jackson, Vasquez, and St. Vrain to Latham Station, where it continued northward along Crow Creek, eventually reaching Fort Laramie, Wyoming. Major Stephen Long, for whom Long's Peak would later be named, and his exploration party followed this trail in 1820 (Colorado Highway Department 1929).

Cherokee Trail

The Cherokee Trail, while not as celebrated as the Santa Fe Trail, was equally well traveled. This trail shared the same route as the Trapper's Trail near the Project. It originated along the Arkansas River near today's Arkansas–Oklahoma border and was first followed by French explorers in the mid-18th century (Alexander 2025). In Colorado, the trail branched off from the Santa Fe Trail at La Junta and continued up the Arkansas River. From there, the Cherokee Trail followed Fountain Creek to Colorado City, passed through what is now Denver, and continued north to Virginia Dale near the Wyoming border, eventually reaching the goldfields of Sacramento, California. U.S. Highway 50 now traces the trail's course from the Kansas border to Fountain Creek east of Pueblo, while a later stage route followed the west side of the creek to Colorado City before the establishment of Colorado Springs. With the rise of automobile travel, the original route of U.S. Highway 85, now Interstate 25, followed this same historic path through southern Colorado (Alexander 2025).

In Colorado, the Cherokee Trail gained importance beginning at Bent's Fort near modern-day La Junta, moving west to Pueblo, then north into Laramie, Wyoming, and west again to connect with the Oregon Trail at Fort Bridger. During this period, the site of present-day Denver was occupied by an Arapaho encampment of as many as 1,500 people (Turner 2007).

In 1850, several wagon trains composed of Cherokee travelers and white settlers followed the trail into the region. Some of these groups branched west just north of present-day Denver, rejoining the original route near Fort Collins. Near present-day

Broomfield, this western spur of the trail roughly followed the path of today's U.S. Highway 287. Initially, the trail was heavily used by emigrants bound for California, and over time it became a major corridor for travel and settlement in northern Colorado (Turner 2007).

As migration increased, demand for food and supplies grew. Farmers and ranchers moved in to provide crops such as potatoes, corn, pumpkins, squash, and wheat, along with cattle and horses. The Cherokee Trail eventually became the main stagecoach route between Colorado Springs and Salt Lake City and became known as the Cherokee/Overland Trail. A host of notable individuals traveled through the area along the trail, including Ulysses S. Grant, Schuyler Colfax, Generals William T. Sherman and Philip H. Sheridan, Horace Greeley, and Billy the Kid (Turner 2007).

Mountain Men and Traders

In 1821, Mexico gained independence from Spain, ending Spanish restrictions that had prohibited trade with Americans. Soon afterward, American traders were welcomed into Mexican territory (Murray 1979:19). During the 1820s and 1830s, fur trappers traveled through the mountains and along Indigenous trails that crossed them. American traders brought textiles and small hardware to exchange for Mexican gold and silver, horses, and mules. The route from Independence, Missouri across Kansas and into southeastern Colorado became known as the Mountain Branch of the Santa Fe Trail (Murray 1979:27).

In 1829, traders William Bent and Ceran St. Vrain built a trading post on the north bank of the Arkansas River near Hardscrabble Creek. Constructed of upright picket posts, it was the first permanent Euro-American structure in the area. In 1833, William and Charles Bent and Ceran St. Vrain established a larger adobe trading post on the Arkansas River south of La Junta. From Old Bent's Fort, they freighted goods along the Mountain Branch of the Santa Fe Trail to markets in Mexico (Murray 1979:30). Some years later, in 1842, George Simpson and Robert Fisher built an adobe trading post known as El Pueblo at the location of present-day Pueblo (Simmons 1991:30–32). Old Bent's Fort operated until 1849, and the fort was relocated farther downriver in 1852 (Murray 1979:32).

Lieutenant John Charles Frémont, tasked with mapping the American portions of the Oregon Trail, departed Westport, Missouri in the spring of 1843. Frémont sought improved routes to the West Coast through the Colorado Rockies. After a year traveling through the northern Colorado Rockies en route to the Oregon Trail, Frémont and his party passed through South Park and descended Fourmile Creek to the Arkansas River, eventually reaching Old Bent's Fort. He returned in 1845 to locate the headwaters of the Arkansas River (Simmons 1991:37; Sprague 1984:13–20).

Gold Rush and Railroad Building

General Stephen Watts Kearny and a column of regular dragoons marched west, capturing Mexican settlements in New Mexico and Arizona on their way to secure Mexican ports in California (Murray 1979:34). Kearny's advance was accelerated by the

discovery of gold in California. The conflict concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848, which again extended the political boundaries of the United States westward and southward.

Ten years later, in 1858, gold was discovered in Colorado near present-day Denver, along Cherry Creek and the South Platte River. The discovery sparked a major migration of fortune seekers to the region, with more than 50,000 people arriving in the Pikes Peak area (Sprague 1984:26–28). By 1859, Colorado City had become a bustling town filled with shops and saloons and frequented by placer miners from South Park seeking supplies, food, and entertainment (Wyckoff 1999:134). Some miners eventually abandoned prospecting and turned to farming. Many had brought seeds and tools with them, and they constructed irrigation ditches and established markets to sell their produce (Mondragon n.d.).

Early mining efforts in most districts relied on placer mining, with lode and pit mining developing as placer deposits were exhausted and extraction technologies improved. Populations during these early years were fluid, with people moving from one new gold strike to the next, creating a boom-and-bust cycle. In 1867, Nathaniel P. Hill developed a smelting process that freed Colorado's mining industry from dependence on placer deposits. This innovation spurred the extraction and processing of gold, copper, lead, silver, zinc, tungsten, and molybdenum throughout ore-bearing regions of Colorado.

The last major gold rush in Colorado occurred in Cripple Creek in the early 1890s. Gold was first discovered there in 1874 by geologist H. T. Wood, a member of Ferdinand Hayden's United States Geological Survey of the West. The Pisgah Gold Mining District was organized, but investors were hesitant and did not promote mining in the area at the time. In 1886, Robert Womack filed a claim and located gold-bearing ore that drew renewed attention. The Cripple Creek Mining District was formally organized in 1891. The Florence & Cripple Creek Free Road opened in 1892, improving access to the district. Electricity, telephone service, and telegraph lines soon followed. The Florence & Cripple Creek Railroad arrived in 1894, and the Midland Terminal Railroad, a spur of the Colorado Midland Railroad, reached the district in 1895, providing more affordable transportation of ore to processing centers (Colorado Encyclopedia 2022).

The Pikes Peak Gold Rush brought more than miners to Colorado Territory. Speculators and entrepreneurs also arrived seeking business opportunities. Some hoped for quick returns on their investments, while others pursued long-term ventures. General William Jackson Palmer first visited the eastern slope of Pikes Peak in 1869. He explored the hogbacks, known today as Garden of the Gods, drank from the mineral springs in present-day Manitou Springs, ate in Colorado City, and was deeply impressed by Pikes Peak. Palmer envisioned building a railroad connecting Denver to Pueblo and then extending into the mountains along the Arkansas River to reach hard- and soft-rock mining districts (Sprague 1984:54–57). The Denver–Pueblo segment was completed in 1872. That same year, Palmer and his investors began purchasing land to extend the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad (D&RG) from Pueblo into southern Colorado (Sanchez 2010:85). Palmer's broader vision included carrying the

D&RG southward into Mexico to create new opportunities for international trade (Wyckoff 1999:135).

Construction of the Colorado Midland Railroad began in 1886. The railroad was backed by businessmen in Colorado Springs who sought a reliable way to transport minerals and ore from central Colorado's mining districts to mills and smelters in Colorado Springs. The Colorado Midland Railroad wound its way through Ute Pass west of Colorado Springs, crossed South Park, and continued to Trout Creek Pass. After crossing the pass, the line descended to the Arkansas River and then turned north toward Leadville.

The Colorado Midland Railroad competed with the D&RG and other railroads for space to lay track. In many areas, the grades of competing railroads ran parallel as they traversed mountain passes, canyons, and valleys. The Colorado Midland Railroad and the D&RG remained rivals from 1887 to 1919 (Simmons 1992:202–206).

Settlement and General William Jackson Palmer

The Homestead Act of 1862 was enacted to encourage settlement across vast areas of the newly opened frontier. Applicants were required to improve their claims by building a dwelling and planting crops within five years, after which they could receive a land patent upon paying filing fees. The act's ambiguity, however, led to widespread fraud. Speculators, cattlemen, miners, and railroad companies ultimately acquired far more land than individual homesteaders. Between 1862 and 1904, the General Land Office distributed 500 million acres, but only 80 million went to homesteaders. Subsequent legislation revised the Homestead Act, increasing allowable claims from 160 acres to 320 acres in 1909 and to 640 acres in 1916. These changes reflected federal recognition that 160 acres was insufficient for survival in the semi-arid West. As a result, homesteaders acquired more land under the act in the twentieth century than in the nineteenth (U.S. National Archives 2018).

General William Jackson Palmer and Dr. William Bell visited the mineral springs at the base of Pikes Peak in 1868 while surveying for the Kansas Pacific Railroad. Dr. Bell recognized the medicinal value of the springs, and Palmer envisioned a resort community served by a railroad originating in Denver (Wyckoff 1999:134). Palmer soon returned with the intention of establishing a town. In 1870, he purchased 9,000 acres at 80 cents per acre. After securing financial backing from eastern and English investors, he formed the Colorado Springs Company and sold portions of his land to the company for \$15 per acre. In 1871, 2,000 acres were platted and offered for sale. The Colorado Springs Company sold lots to members of the Fountain Colony for \$100, along with assurances of temperance and good moral character. By the time the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad reached the Fountain Colony—located near the confluence of Fountain Creek and Monument Creek—fifty houses and a log hotel had been constructed. In 1872, Palmer financed the construction of the Colorado Springs Hotel, and approximately 1,500 new residents arrived. By the late 1870s, more than 25,000 tourists and health seekers visited the area each season (Wyckoff 1999:134–136).

In November 1873, the *Colorado Springs Gazette* reported that Henry W. Austin had come to town to inspect his investments. He planned improvements to his “little farm” of 12,000 acres east of town, including roads, buildings, tree plantings, and the establishment of a “fine herd of sheep” (CSG 1873). Austin Bluffs is named in his honor. In 1888, the Austin Bluff Land and Water Company was formed. Advertisements in the *Colorado Springs Gazette* described an elaborate water system designed to draw water from a tributary of Monument Creek and pipe it to a reservoir supplying a proposed townsite two miles northeast of Colorado Springs. The company purchased nearly the entire area known as Austin Bluffs and planned to sell residential lots of at least one acre. Advertisements highlighted the abundant sunshine available to health seekers on south-facing porches (CSG 1888). By 1890, the land had been platted into residential lots and parks (CSG 1890).

Colorado Springs Utilities

Colorado Springs Utilities traces its beginnings to the founding of Colorado Springs, when General Palmer recognized that the city’s future depended on reliable municipal services. In 1871, Palmer helped construct the El Paso Canal, the first utilities infrastructure in the community, establishing a water system that supported early settlement.

As the city grew, residents approved an \$80,000 bond in 1878 to build the first municipal water system, followed by an 1888 bond to construct the city’s first sewer system. Electric and gas services arrived in the 1880s through private companies, but service was inconsistent and rates were high. By 1909, voters adopted a Home Rule Charter allowing the city to purchase these systems, and civic leaders, led by Lillian Kerr of the Woman’s Club, pushed for public ownership. In 1924, voters approved a \$1.25 million bond to buy the consolidated Colorado Springs Light, Heat & Power Company. On June 30, 1925, the city formally took ownership of its electric and natural gas systems, creating the community-owned utility that continues today. Rapid improvements followed, including a rebuilt streetlight network and the city’s first gas pipeline.

Securing long-term water supplies became a central priority. Between 1890 and 1929, the city constructed seven reservoirs on the South Slope of Pikes Peak and acquired land and water rights on the North Slope. Despite the Great Depression, the South Catamount and Crystal reservoirs were completed by 1937. In the 1940s, Colorado Springs pursued the Blue River Project, a major transmountain diversion that ultimately succeeded through negotiation and federal support. The project became a key factor in the Air Force’s decision to locate the Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs. Planning continued with the Homestake Project, a \$60 million transmountain system that doubled water resources for Colorado Springs and Aurora. After a favorable Colorado Supreme Court ruling in 1962, construction began in 1963, and Homestake became the city’s primary raw water supply, delivering most of its water through Rampart Reservoir by 1970. Throughout the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, Colorado Springs Utilities expanded its electric, gas, water, and wastewater systems to continue meeting

community needs (CSU n.d.). The proposed Project is the latest chapter in the continuation of that mission.

Previous Work

AKPC conducted a review of the OAHP's Compass database to determine the number of previous cultural resource inventories and sites within one mile of the Project Area. According to data received on September 22, 2026 (File Search No. S- 2158), ten previous inventories have been completed within one mile of the Project (**Table 2**). These surveys investigated proposed pipeline corridors, geotechnical investigations, pump station power supply, water well locations, and associated access routes. Three of these surveys intersected portions of the Project Area; EP.E.R4 crossed the APE's southern portion, as did MC.E.R35. Survey MC.R.R82 overlapped with the APE's eastern portion, covering approximately one-third of the current Project Area.

Table 2. Previous inventories within one mile of the Project (intersecting inventories highlighted).

Report #	Report Title	Acres	Date
EP.E.R4	Colorado Interstate Gas Company Nixon Lateral Pipeline: Class III Cultural Resource Inventory, El Paso County, Colorado	121.3	12/13/1998
EP.E.R8	Intensive Cultural Resource Inventory of the Proposed Midway Expansion Project, El Paso County, Colorado	111	08/08/2002
EP.R.NR6	Southern Delivery System: Class III Cultural Resources Inventory of 1.56 Acres for Two Proposed Water Well Locations and Associated Access Road, El Paso County, Colorado (MWH-TKG)	1.56	03/11/2008
EP.R.R2	Southern Delivery System Geotechnical Corridor – Report 2: Class III Cultural Resource Inventory of Approximately 157 Acres in El Paso County, Colorado (NWH-TKD5/03-B-065)	157	04/07/2005
EP.R.R17	Cultural Resources Survey of Upper Williams Creek Pump Station Power Supply Southern Delivery System Project, El Paso County, Colorado	51.5	07/19/2012
EP.RE.R1	Midway to Geesen OPGW Installation Project: Class III Cultural Resource Inventory	78.8	08/11/2011
MC.E.R35	Colorado Interstate Gas Company's Proposed Valley Line Expansion and 5C-24 Central Pipelines: Cultural Resource Inventory and Evaluation in Adams, Arapahoe, Douglas, Elbert, El Paso & Weld Counties, Colorado Proposed Re-Routes #01 and #01-2 in Elbert County, Colorado: Addendum 2 (Original and Addenda I and II) Proposed Route Changes and Additional Extra Work Spaces in Douglas, Elbert, and Weld Counties, Colorado: Addendum 3 A Proposed Access Road and Expanded Staging Area for the Valley Line in El Paso County, Colorado: Addendum 4 Subsurface Testing at Site 5EL576, Elbert County, Colorado: Addendum 5 Proposed Re-Routes, Arapahoe, Douglas, Elbert, and El Paso Counties, Colorado: Addendum 6 Proposed Warehouse Locations and Temporary Water Line, Douglas and El Paso Counties, Colorado: Addendum 7 Proposed Staging Area and Temporary Water Line, El Paso County, Colorado: Addendum 8 Cultural Resource	3660.98	08/01/2002

Report #	Report Title	Acres	Date
	Inventory for the Proposed Extra Work Space, Arapahoe County, Colorado: Addendum 9 Cultural Resources Inventory for One Proposed Extra Work Space and Nine Access Roads, Arapahoe, Douglas, Elbert, and El Paso Counties, Colorado: Addendum 10 Cultural Resources Inventory for Three Proposed Extra Work Spaces, Arapahoe and Douglas Counties, Colorado: Addendum 11 Cultural Resources Inventory for a Proposed Extra Work Space, Elbert County, Colorado: Addendum 12 Cultural Resource Inventory of Three Rock Disposal Areas and Access Roads, and One Pipeline Access Road, Douglas, Elbert and El Paso Counties, Colorado: Addendum 13		
MC.E.R95	A Class III Cultural Resource Inventory and Test Excavation for the Proposed Raton 2010 Expansion Project in Las Animas, Huerfano, Pueblo, and El Paso Counties, Colorado (Original and Addendum)	3297.71	10/07/2008
MC.R.R81	Bureau of Reclamation and Colorado Springs Utilities Southern Delivery System Geotechnical Corridor Report 14: Class III Cultural Resources Inventory of Approximately 50 Acres in El Paso and Pueblo Counties, Colorado	50	05/10/2005
MC.R.R82	A Class I and Class III Cultural Resource Inventory of the Southern Delivery System Project, Chaffee, El Paso, Fremont, and Pueblo Counties, Colorado (Volumes 1-3) (Original and 5 Addendums)	6813	2006

The NHPA requires a historic property to possess three elements in order to be eligible for listing on the NRHP: 1) integrity, meaning that the building retains its essential form and construction and continues to exist in the setting it was intended to occupy; 2) historic significance, meaning that the building meets one or more of the NRHP criteria; and 3) historic significance derived from a historic context organized by theme, place, or time. Integrity is assessed through a resource's retention of seven "aspects" which include location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. Historic significance is based on a resource qualifying for one or more of the following criteria:

- (Criterion A) That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
- (Criterion B) That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- (Criterion C) That embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
- (Criterion D) That have yielded or may be likely to yield, information important in history or Prehistory.

Thirty-four (34) cultural resources have been recorded within one mile of the Project (**Table 3**). The resources include 17 precontact isolated finds, four precontact open camps, two precontact open lithic scatters, one precontact architectural site, three

historical isolated finds/features, two canals/ditches, one historical windbreak, and four multi-component sites consisting of combinations of precontact and historical resources. Resources eligible for the NRHP comprise one precontact open lithic scatter (5EP.4836), one precontact open camp (5EP.4840), the precontact architectural site (5EP.4833), and one of the multi-component sites, which has a historical agricultural complex and an open lithic scatter (5EP.4847). None of the eligible resources are within the Project Area. One historical isolated feature (5EP.4884), an old survey marker, is inside the Project Area. This feature is recommended not eligible for the NRHP. Unrestricted cultural resources near the Project Area are shown on the map in **Figure 5**.

Table 3. Cultural resources within one mile of the Project Area (eligible resources highlighted).

Site Number	Site Name/Type	NRHP Eligibility Status	Intersect APE?
5EP.3296.1	Chilcott Ditch - Segment	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.3982	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4238	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4239	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4717	Historical Windbreak	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.4719	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4720	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4832	Precontact Open Camp	Officially needs data	No
5EP.4833	Precontact Architecture	Officially eligible	No
5EP.4836	Precontact Open Lithic Scatter	Officially eligible	No
5EP.4837	Precontact Open Camp	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.4839	Precontact Open Camp	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.4840	Precontact Open Camp	Officially eligible	No
5EP.4841	Multi-Component Site	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.4846	Multi-Component Site	Officially not eligible	No
5EP.4847	Multi-Component Site	Officially eligible	No
5EP.4848	Multi-Component Site	Officially needs data	No
5EP.4857	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4858	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4859	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4867	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4868	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4870	Historical Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4871	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4872	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4873	Historical Isolated Feature	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4874	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4876	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.4884	Historical Isolated Feature	Field not eligible	Yes
5EP.4886	Precontact Isolated Find	Field not eligible	No
5EP.10332	Precontact Open Lithic Scatter (Provisional)	Data not available	No
5EP.10347	Precontact Isolated Find (Provisional)	Data not available	No

Site Number	Site Name/Type	NRHP Eligibility Status	Intersect APE?
5EP.10348	Precontact Isolated Find (Provisional)	Data not available	No
5EP.10397.1	Historical Ditch Segment (Provisional)	Does not support eligibility of entire linear resource	No

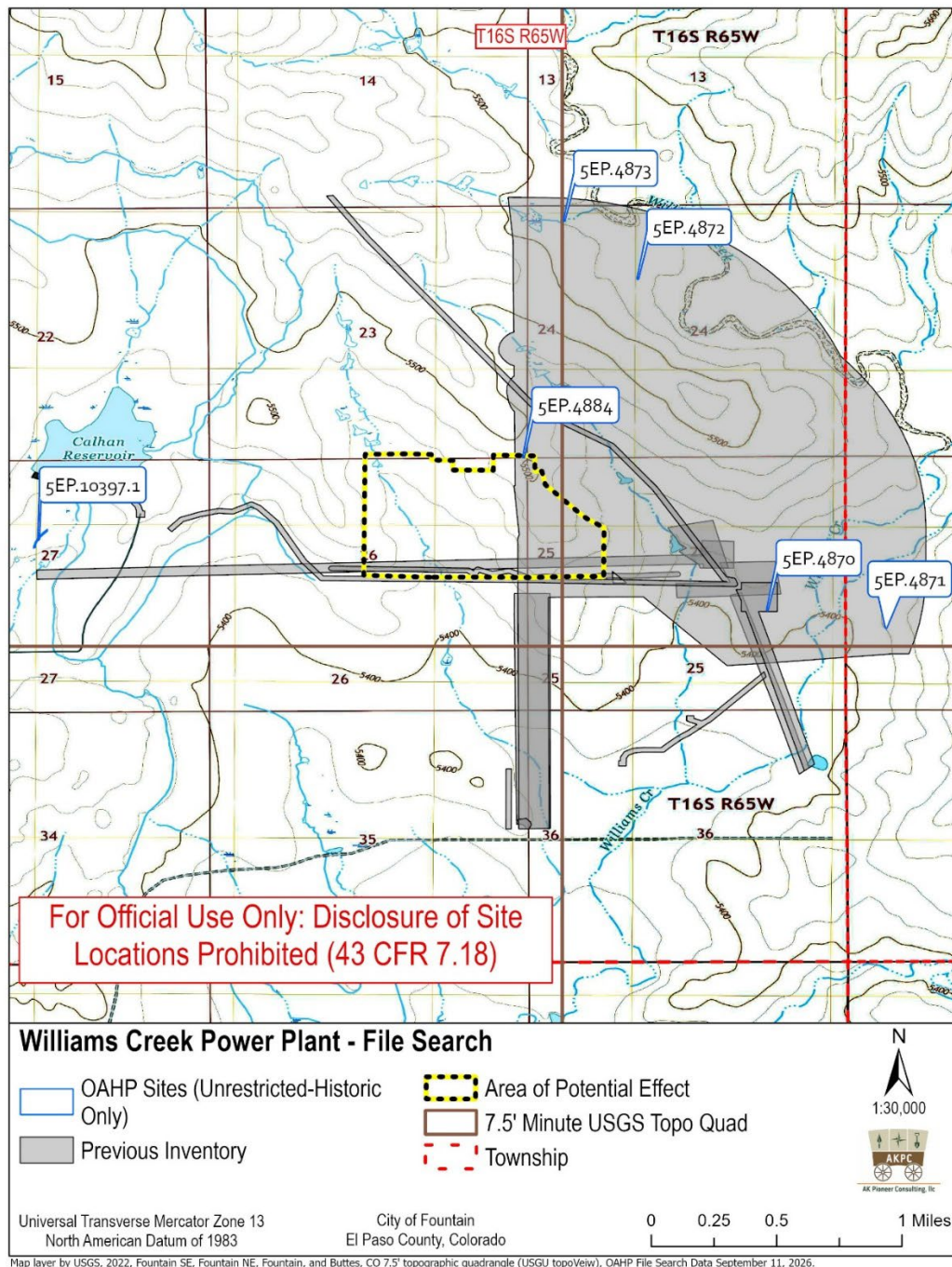


Figure 5. Unrestricted OAHP sites and previous inventories within one mile of the Project Area.

Historic Maps and Aerials

General Land Office (GLO) plat maps, U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) topographical maps, and aerial photos were searched to determine if there were historical modifications to the land within the Project Area. Such modifications may include trails and roads, settlements, irrigation ditches, and other culturally modified features.

The 1862 GLO survey plat for Township 16 South, Range 65 West was reviewed (GLO 1862; **Figure 6**). The map does not depict any structures or cultural features within one mile of the Project Area. Patents were filed to Frederic L Martin for all of Section 23 (GLO 1888a; COCOAA 077838), the west half of Section 24, and northwest quarter of Section 25 (GLO 1888b; SER-COCOA 077840), on April 28, 1888. Patents were filed to John H Behrens for the east half of Section 26 April 15, 1875 (GLO 1875; doc 1403) and the north half of Section 26 on October 9, 1895 (GLO 1895; Doc 61). There is no evidence in available online records that Frederic L Martin or John H Behrens are significant to the history of El Paso County or the State of Colorado.

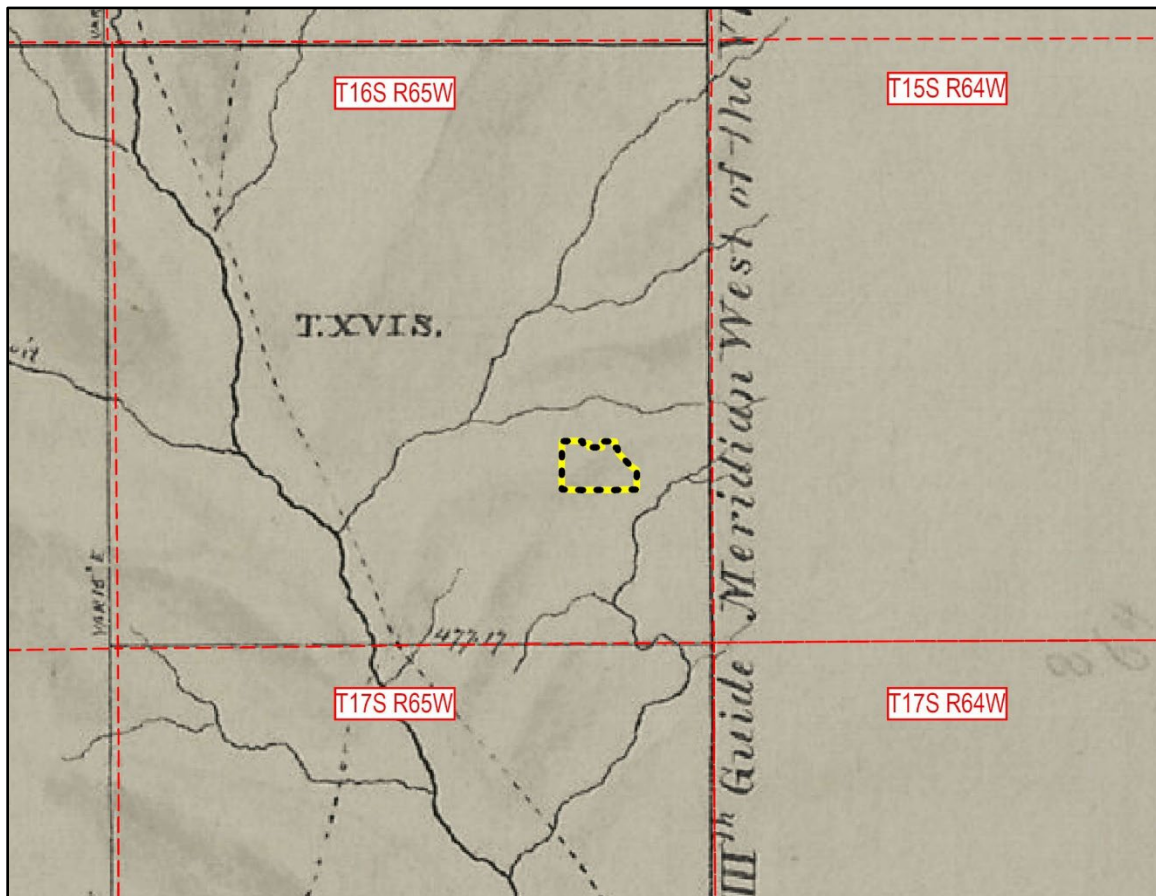


Figure 6. 1862 GLO survey plat for T16S, R65W with Project Area outlined in black and yellow.

The USGS Colorado Springs, CO 1:125,000 scale topographic maps made in 1893 then revised in 1896 (USGS 1896; **Figure 7**), 1898, and 1909 (USGS 1909; **Figure 8**) were reviewed for the Project. None of these maps depict structures or other cultural resources within the Project Area, though by 1909 some small roads crossed within a one-mile radius.

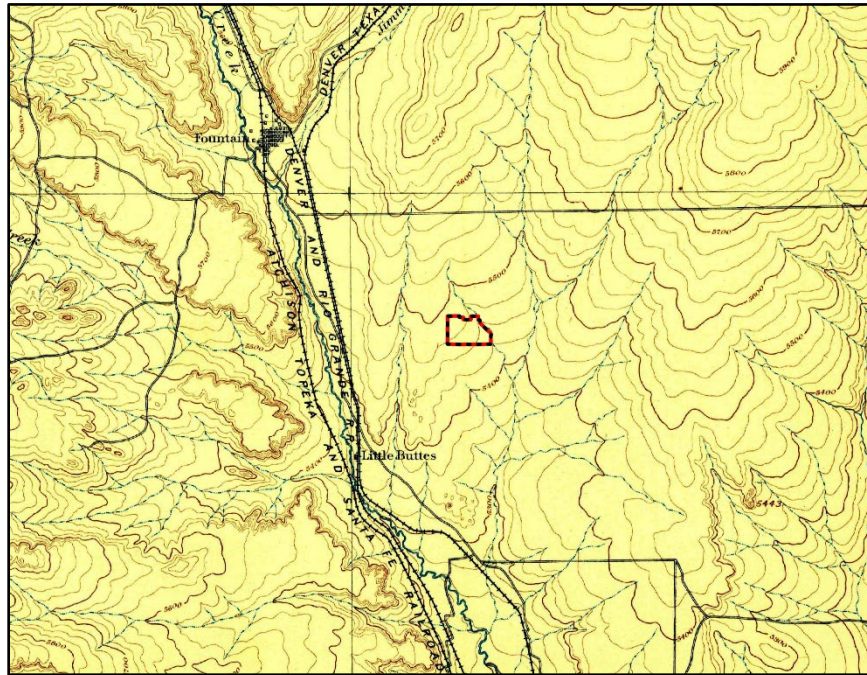


Figure 7. USGS 1896 Colorado Springs, CO 1:125,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and red.

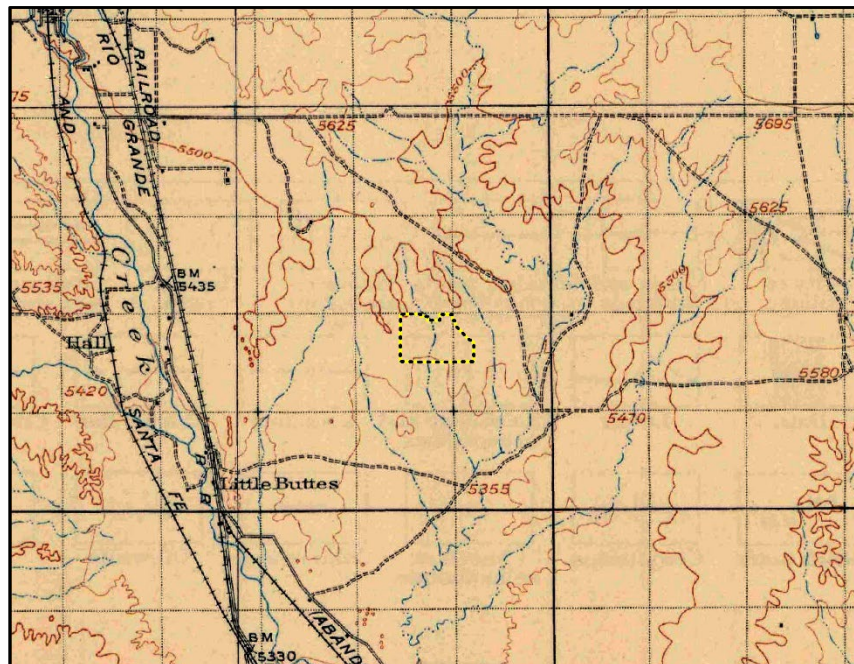


Figure 8. USGS 1909 Colorado Springs, CO 1:125,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and yellow.

The USGS Fountain, CO 1:24,000 scale 7.5'-topographic quadrangle maps made in 1948, then revised in 1950, 1951, 1958, 1961, 1963, 1969, 1970, and 1975 (USGS 1975; **Figure 9**) were also reviewed. These maps depict the history of development in the surrounding area, notably the construction of the Chilcott Ditch and Calhan Reservoir within one mile to the west of the Project Area, but they do not show any structures or other cultural resources in the Project Area.

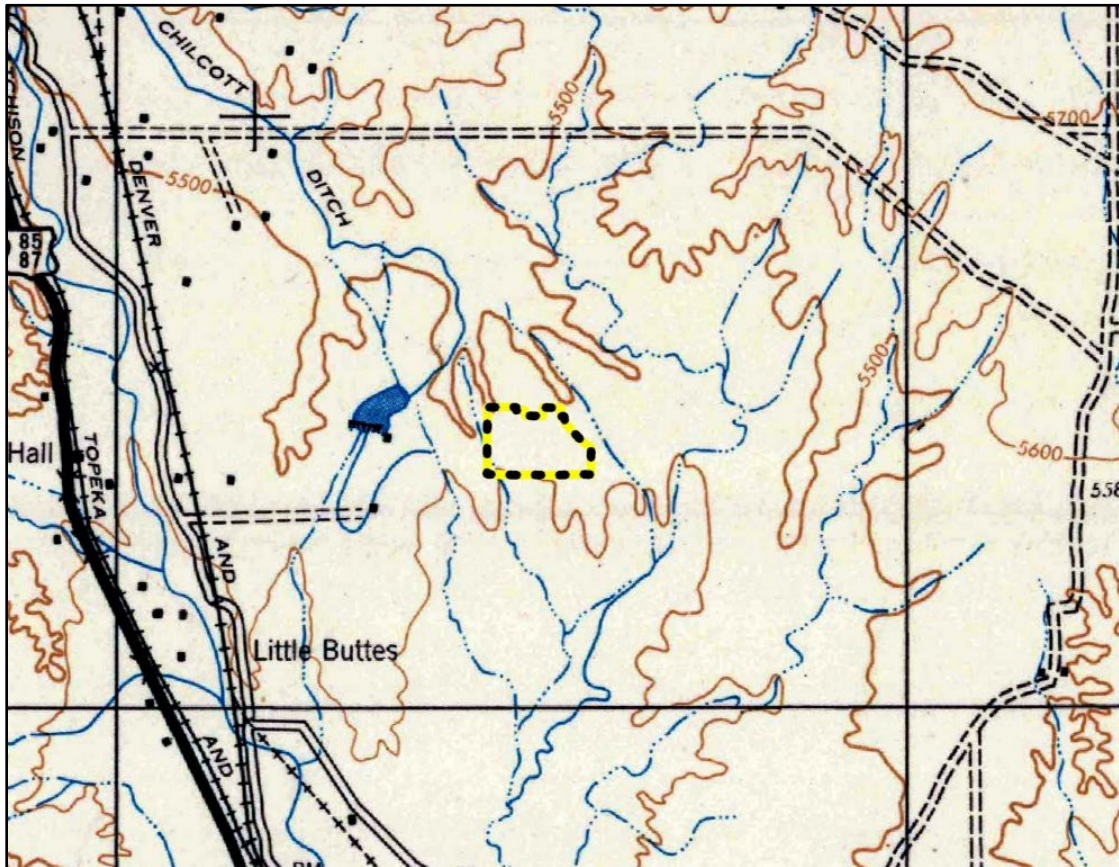


Figure 9. USGS 1975 Fountain, CO 1:24,000-scale topographic map with the Project outlined in black and yellow.

Historic aerial images from 1947 (NETR 2026; **Figure 11**) and 1960 (NETR 2026; **Figure 12**) of the area show that the Project Area was minimally developed as rangeland with associated access roads, fencing, and small erosion-control features. The 1947 image depicts a dirt road running roughly northwest–southeast through the middle of the Project Area and intersecting with an east–west road in the Project Area’s northern portion. Fencelines can be seen running along the boundaries between PLSS sections. One possible erosion-control feature can be seen in the drainage in the western portion of the Project Area. By 1960, the existing roads had been worn deeper, and one additional road had appeared in the Project Area’s eastern portion and one in the western portion. Two additional erosion-control features had been installed in the far northwestern portion of the Project Area. The scars of these roads and erosion-control features can still be seen on the land in recent satellite imagery. However, they appear to have been severely degraded from abandonment and erosion.

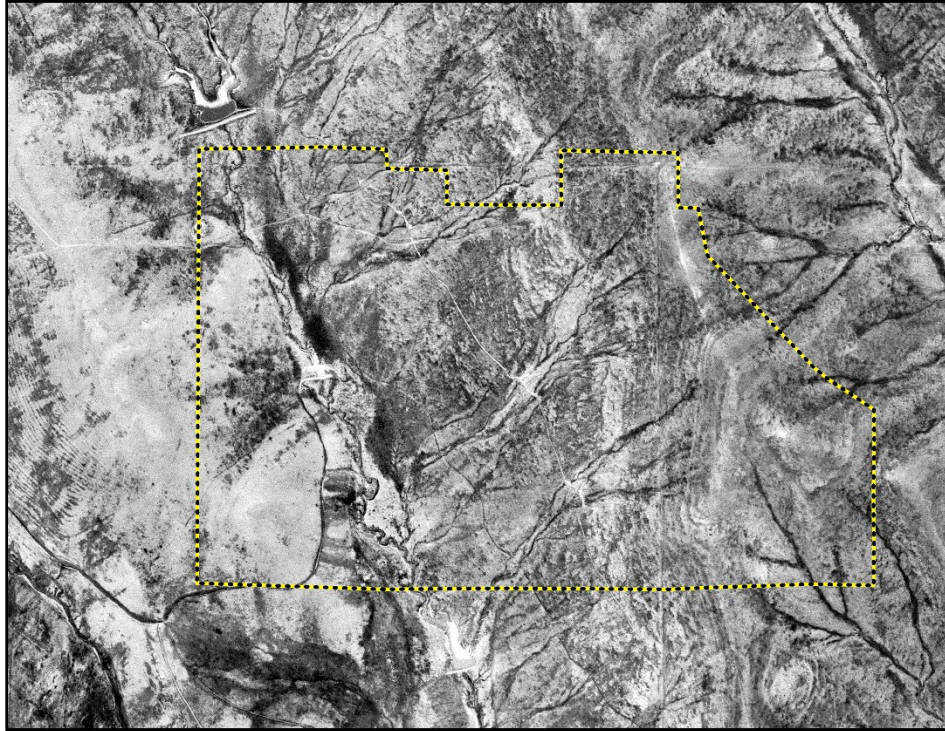


Figure 10. 1947 aerial image of the Study Area and surrounding areas.

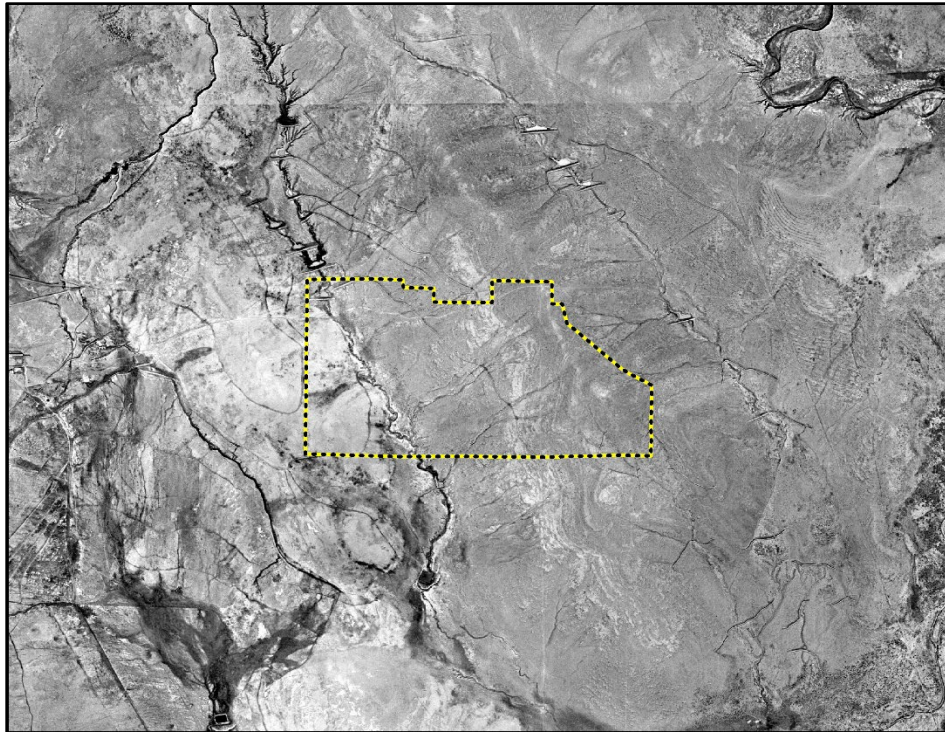


Figure 11. 1960 aerial image of the Project Area and surrounding areas.

Historical Markers

A review of the historical marker databases (HMdb.org 2026; NPS 2026) did not identify any historical markers within one mile of the Project Area.

Cemeteries

No cemeteries are located within one mile of the Project (ColoradoGravestones.org 2026; Find-A-Grave 2026)

Summary and Recommendations

The CSU plans to construct a new power plant facility to connect existing energy infrastructure to a larger service region. The Project will involve extensive ground disturbance for grading and excavation for the main facility footprint, substations, pump house, storage tanks, septic systems, and associated underground utilities, including trenching for fiber-optic lines, and electrical conduits, and the construction of two brine solar ponds and a reject pond, as well as disturbances from laydown yards, access roads, perimeter fencing, and work pads for heavy equipment.

The OAHF records search identified 34 cultural resources within one mile of the Project. One of these resources intersects with the Project Area: a non-eligible isolated historical survey marker. Reviews of historic maps and aerial imagery found evidence of features typical of rural rangeland, which lack association with events or persons of historical significance, are not notable for their construction or design, and do not have the potential to yield additional data; these features have degraded following abandonment and lack integrity. A search for cemeteries and historical markers found no records of other historical resources within one mile of the Project.

Potential Effects and Recommendations

No known historic properties or significant resources are within the Project APE. Potential indirect impacts on historic properties from the Project include vibration, auditory changes, and dust accumulation from machinery, as well as changes to historical settings related to equipment staging, vehicles, cones, and other temporary construction equipment. These impacts are temporary and will occur only during construction activities. They are unlikely to have long-term adverse effects on the historic significance or character of nearby historic properties. Because the Project's new infrastructure is within an area with existing modern development (a substation and a solar facility), the proposed Project is unlikely to have any additional effect on the integrity of feeling, setting, or association of nearby historic properties.

The historical context for this area and known resources in the vicinity suggest a moderate to high potential for cultural resources within undisturbed areas in the Project APE. AKPC recommends following the processes and procedures outlined in an Inadvertent Discovery Plan or a similar document if unanticipated resources are discovered during construction.

References Cited

- Alexander, Kathy (editor). 2025. *Early Trails of Colorado*. Colorado Department of Transportation, on Legends of America website. Electronic document, [Early Trails of Colorado](#), accessed June 20, 2025.
- Chapman, Shannon S., G.E. Griffith, J.M. Omernik, A.B Price, J. Freeouf, and D.L. Schrupp. 2006. Ecoregions of Colorado (color poster with map, descriptive text, summary tables, and photographs). Reston, Virginia, U.S. Geological Survey (map scale 1:1,200,000). Electronic document, Chapman 2006 Ecoregions of Colorado (epa.gov), accessed September, 2026.
- Church, Minette, S.G. Baker, B.J. Clark, R.F. Carrillo, J.C. Horn, C.D. Späth, D.R. Guilfoyle, and E.S. Cassells. 2007. Colorado History: A Context for Historical Archaeology. Colorado Council of Professional Archaeologists.
- Colorado Encyclopedia. n.d. Olsen-Chubbuck Bison Kill Site. Electronic document, Olsen-Chubbuck Bison Kill Site | Colorado Encyclopedia, accessed September 21, 2026.
- Colorado Highway Department. 1929. History and Romance Along Colorado Highways, in Colorado Highways. June 1929, Volume VIII, Number 6, p. 9.
- Colorado Parks and Wildlife. 2006. CPWSpeciesData. Electronic resource, <https://www.arcgis.com/apps/mapviewer/index.html?url=https://services5.arcgis.com/ttNGmDvKQA7oeDQ3/ArcGIS/rest/services/CPWSpeciesData/FeatureServer&source=sd>, accessed September 17, 2026.
- Colorado Springs Gazette (CSG) [Colorado Springs, Colorado]. 1873. Honorable Henry W. Austin Visits. 22 November.
1888. New Townsite. 15 August.
1890. Austin Bluff. 29 March.
- Colorado State University, History Department. 2025. Fort Collins Ancestors: Indigenous Peoples of Colorado. History Matters Project, Colorado State University, Fort Collins. Electronic document, <https://historymatters.colostate.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/48/2025/04/Fort-Collins-Ancestors-Indigenous-Peoples.pdf>, accessed November 23, 2025.
- Eighmy, Jeffrey, L. 1984. Colorado Plains Prehistoric Context: For the Management of the Prehistoric Resources of the Plains of Colorado. Office of Archaeology and Historic Preservation. Colorado Historical Society, Denver.
- Find-A- Grave. 2026. Cemeteries of El Paso County, Colorado. Electronic Database, <https://www.findagrave.com/cemetery>, accessed September 28, 2026.

General Land Office (GLO). 1862. Plat Map of Township 16 South, Range 65 West, Sixth Principal Meridian, El Paso County, Colorado. U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.

1888a. *Serial Patent COCOAA 077838: Frederic L Martin*. U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, Washington, D.C.

1888b. *Serial Patent COCOAA 077840: Frederic L Martin*. U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, Washington, D.C.

1875. *Patent Doc 1403: John H Behrens*. U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, Washington, D.C.

1895. *Supreme Court Scrip SCS-0395-087: John H Behrens*. U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Land Management, Washington, D.C.

Guthrie, Mark B., Powys Gadd, Renee Johnson, and Joesph J. Lischka. 1984. Colorado Mountain Prehistoric Context. Office of Archaeology and Historic Preservation. Colorado Historical Society, Denver.

Hafen, LeRoy R. 1925. Map of Early Trails and Forts in Colorado. Prepared for Municipal Facts Magazine, Denver. Colorado State Historical Society, Denver. Electronic document, David Rumsey Historical Map Collection, accessed February 18, 2026.

Historical Marker Database (HMdb.org). 2026. Historical Markers and War Memorials. Electronic database, <https://www.hmdb.org/Results.asp?Search=State&State=Colorado&u=>, accessed July 21, 2025.

Murray, Robert A. 1979. Las Animas, Huerfano, and Custer: Three Colorado Counties on a Cultural Frontier. A History of the Raton Basin. Cultural Resource Series No. 6. Colorado State Office, Bureau of Land Management, Denver.

Mehls, Steven F. 1984. Colorado Plains Historic Context. Colorado Historical Society, Denver.

Mondragon, Salvador. n.d. "Colorado Springs." Colorado Encyclopedia. Electronic document, <https://coloradoencyclopedia.org/article/colorado-springs>, accessed September 28, 2026.

National Park Service (NPS). 2026. National Historic Landmarks. Electronic document, List of NHLs by State - National Historic Landmarks (U.S. National Park Service), accessed September 28, 2026.

Nationwide Environmental Title Research, LLC (NETRonline). 2026. Historic Aerials database viewer. Historic Aerials: Viewer, accessed September 24, 2026.

O'Meara, Sean. 2021. [Revised 2025]. Indigenous Connections: Native American Ethnographic Study of Golden, Colorado and the Clear Creek Valley. City of Golden, Golden, Colorado. Electronic document, *Ethnography_Report_Revised_2025.pdf*, accessed September 22, 2026.

Sanchez, Virginia. 2010. Forgotten Cuchareños of the Lower Valley. The History Press, Charleston.

Simmons, Virginia McConnell. 1990. *The Upper Arkansas: A Mountain River Valley*. Pruett Publishing Company, Boulder.

1992. *Bayou Salado: The Story of South Park*. Fred Pruett Books, Boulder.

Southern Ute Indian Tribe. 2025. *Ute History*. Southern Ute Indian Tribe, Ignacio, Colorado. Electronic document, <https://www.southernute-nsn.gov/history/>, accessed November 25, 2025.

Sprague, Marshall. 1984. *Colorado: A History*. American Association for State and Local History. W.W. Norton and Company, New York.

Turner, Carol. 2007. "Cherokee Trail was early road through Colorado," *Broomfield Enterprise*. Broomfield, CO. 20 May.

U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS). 2007. *Fountain Watershed Hydrologic Unit Code 11020003 Rapid Assessment*.

2026. Web soil survey data. Electronic database, <https://websoilsurvey.sc.egov.usda.gov/App/WebSoilSurvey.aspx>, accessed September 18, 2026.

U.S. Climate Data. 2026. *Climate for Colorado (Colorado Springs)*. Electronic Document, *Climate Colorado Springs - Colorado and Weather averages Colorado Springs*, accessed September 18, 2026.

U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), TopoView. 1898. *Colorado Springs, Colorado, 1:125,000 Topographic Map*. Electronic database, [topoView | USGS](#) accessed September 18, 2026.

1909. *Colorado Springs, Colorado, 1:125,000 Topographic Map*. Electronic database, [topoView | USGS](#) accessed September 18, 2026.

1975. *Fountain, Colorado, 1:24,000 Topographic Map*. Electronic database, [topoView | USGS](#) accessed September 18, 2026.

Williams, Felicie and Halka Chronic. 2014. *Roadside Geology of Colorado*, 3rd Edition. Mountain Press Publishing Company, Missoula, Montana.

Wyckoff, William. 1999. *Creating Colorado: The Making of a Western American Landscape, 1860-1940*. Yale University Press, New Haven.

Zier, Christian J. and Stephen M. Kalasz. 1999. *Colorado Prehistory: A Context for the Arkansas River Basin*. Colorado Council of Professional Archaeologists, Denver.