Community-Based Archaeology at *Sii Túupentak* in the San Francisco BayArea: Integrated Perspectives on Collaborative Research at a Major Protohistoric Native American Settlement

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This paper presents an example of a community-based archaeological study in the southeast San Francisco Bay Area by the Muwekma Ohlone Tribe, joined by an interdisciplinary team of researchers. The nature and breadth of this cooperative effort is presented, highlighting the Tribe's perspective on project goals, the nature of their involvement, and their initiative in addressing ancestral remains and funerary regalia. This includes the questions being asked of the archaeological record, how these interests and goals were operationalized within the context of a CRM-driven development project, and how the results will be contextualized to the broader community. Project insights are summarized, with particular emphasis on the lifeways of Síi Túupentak's ancestral Ohlone inhabitants during the four centuries prior to forced relocation in 1805 due to Spanish colonization. The discussion touches on site setting, age, and structure; the subsistence economy; the lived lives and mortuary practices of the ancestors; sociopolitical implications of regional trade; and the wider implications of the study.

COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH BETWEEN NATIVE American tribes and archaeologists has increased in recent years. This paper presents an example of a community-based archaeological study at *Sii Túupentak* ("Place of the Water Roundhouse Site," CA-ALA-565/H), an ancestral heritage Native American Ohlone village and associated cemetery in the southeast San Francisco Bay Area (Fig. 1). This is a collaborative study by the Muwekma Ohlone Tribe of the San Francisco Bay Area, joined by an interdisciplinary team of archaeological

researchers led by the Far Western Anthropological Research Group. The nature and breadth of this cooperative effort is presented, highlighting the Tribe's perspective on overall project goals, the nature of their involvement throughout the study, and their initiative in addressing ancestral remains and funerary regalia. This includes consideration of the questions being asked of the archaeological record, how these interests and goals were operationalized within the context of a cultural resources management (CRM) driven development project, the key



Figure 1. Regional map showing project location.

role played by the project proponents and the regulatory agency, and how the results are being contextualized to the broader San Francisco Bay Area community.

As requested by the Tribe prior to the start of the project, detailed archaeometric analyses were carried out on the ancestral Ohlone individuals recovered from burial excavations to gain new insights into community trends, social and ideological complexity, and the lives of these individuals. Novel project insights are emphasized, with particular emphasis on the lifeways of *Sii Túupentak's* ancestral Ohlone inhabitants during the four centuries prior to forced relocation in 1805 due to Spanish colonization. The site setting, age, and structure, and its subsistence economy are presented initially. This is followed by consideration of the lived lives and mortuary practices of the ancestors, the sociopolitical implications of regional trade prior to and during Spanish colonization, and the broader implications of the study.

REGIONAL BACKGROUND

California is well-known for being one of the geographical regions of North America with extremely high indigenous cultural and linguistic diversity (Golla 2011; Heizer 1978; Kroeber 1925). In the late 1700s Native Californians spoke more than 78 languages within six major linguistic families (Golla 2011; Hinton 1994). California also supported large pre-colonial populations with the highest population density in North America, owing in large part to its high coastal and terrestrial ecological productivity (Codding and Jones 2013; Kroeber 1939; Ubelaker 1992).

The San Francisco Bay Area notably had some of the highest regional population densities in California (along with the Lower Sacramento Valley and the Santa Barbara area) at the start of European colonization (Cook 1976). Based on population reconstructions using Spanish Mission baptismal recruitment records, more than 15,000 Native Americans from five distinct language groups were residing in 45 territorial communities (landcontrolling autonomous polities) within 20 kilometers (km.) of the Bay (Byrd et al. 2017, 2018; Milliken 1995, 2010). Native American groups residing in the San Francisco Bay Area included the Ohlone in the southern and central portion; Coast Miwok in the northwest portion; and Bay Miwok, Plains Miwok, Patwin, and Delta Yokuts in the eastern Bay-Delta area (Johnson 1978; Kelly 1978; Kroeber 1925; Levy 1978a, 1978b; Wallace 1978). All lived in villages with well-defined tribal territories that were considerably smaller than the potential daily foraging range, and they interacted and traded widely with nearby settlements (Byrd et al. 2020a).

The site of *Sii Túupentak* is situated near Sunol in the southeast San Francisco Bay Area within the Causen Ohlone territorial community (Milliken 1995, 2006). As such it lies within the unceded lands of the Ohlone, who at the time of Spanish colonization occupied ~4.3 million acres from San Francisco to Monterey and from the coast to the upland edge of the Central Valley. The Ohlone population circa 1770 is estimated to have been at least 16,000 people living in 59 Territorial Communities (Milliken 2010). Between 1770 and 1797, Spanish colonizers situated six California missions in Ohlone territory owing to the high indigenous population density.

Extensive investigation of the San Francisco Bay's numerous archaeological sites has produced a trans-Holocene record, revealing that intensive sedentary or semi-sedentary habitation of complex hunter-gatherers extends back more than 5,000 years (Byrd et al. 2017; Lightfoot 1997; Milliken et al. 2007). Regional population grew over the last 4,000 years, along with increasing social, political, and economic complexity. This resulted in an increasing reliance on more costly-to-acquire foods (including particular species of marine mammals, terrestrial mammals, birds, fish, and plants) indicative of resource intensification (Broughton 1999; Broughton et al. 2015; Whitaker and Byrd 2014; Wohlgemuth 2002). Active landscape management (including prescribed burning), territorial circumscription, and periodic upswings in inter-group violence are also indicated (Lightfoot et al. 2013; Milliken 2006; Schwitalla et al. 2014). It has also been asserted that non-egalitarian social structure and status ascription was widespread in the region (Bellifemine 1997; Hylkema 2002:258-261; Leventhal 1993; Luby 2004; Milliken et al. 2007),

particularly during the Late Period (post-685 calibrated years before present [cal B.P.]), although more nuanced perspectives have also been presented (Byrd and Rosenthal 2016).

Luby (1995) initially recorded and excavated Síi Túupentak with a field school in 1993, noting that it was a significant Late Period/Contact-era village that may also include a Native American rancheria associated with the nearby circa-1840s Mexican-era Suñol Adobe complex. It is also probably the Ohlone village described by Fages and Crespí when they traversed the Sunol Valley (which they named Santa Coleta, noting that it was an ideal setting for a mission) on April 2, 1772 Common Era (C.E.; 178 cal B.P.; Crespí 1927:300). More than a decade after Luby's work, plans for large-scale infrastructure construction by the San Francisco Public Utilities Commission (SFPUC) of a public outreach watershed interpretive center within the site boundaries required extensive archaeological investigations to be conducted at this large, ancestral Native American Ohlone settlement (Byrd et al. 2020a). Therefore, the current archaeological study provided the opportunity to better bridge the gap between pre-colonial and post-colonial Ohlone lifeways.

It should also be noted that additional large-scale infrastructure construction by the SFPUC led to the discovery and extensive data recovery of the archaeological site of Rummey Ta Kuččuwiš Tiprectak ("Place of the Stream of the Lagoon Site," CA-ALA-704/H) 400 meters to the northeast (Byrd et al. 2020b; Ross et al. 2020). This large, multicomponent settlement included a pre-colonial Indigenous occupation and a subsequent colonial Mexican and Early American period ranch complex (including remnants of the Suñol Adobe) in use from 1839 C.E. to the early 1900s. The Native American component was investigated by the same collaborative team that conducted the excavations and analysis at Sii Túupentak, documenting numerous features and burials dating primarily from 2,440 to 1,610 cal B.P. (88% of the dates fall within this time span) along with sparser evidence of occupation between 1610 to 175 cal B.P. (Byrd et al. 2020b).

COLLABORATIVE ARCHAEOLOGY

Community-based or collaborative archeology falls within the broad category of public archaeology. There

is a long history of public archaeology and publications on this topic; in the U.S.A. this orientation took off in the 1960s and 1970s with changes in public interest, laws, and policy regarding the archaeological record (McGimsey 1972). During the last 20 years, engagement with local communities has been an increasingly important focus of public archaeology and archaeology in general, as witnessed by the emergence of topical journals (e.g., the *Journal of Community Archaeology* and *Heritage* and *Public Archaeology*) and a series of edited books, especially in the last few years (e.g., Gould 2019; Gürsu 2019; Merriman 2004).

This interest in and advocation for communityengaged archaeology is global in nature (Jameson and Musteată 2019; Okamura and Matsuda 2012). It is also prominent in California, and the investigations of Kent Lightfoot and his colleagues (e.g., Lightfoot and Gonzalez 2018; Lightfoot et al. 2013) and of Tsim Schneider and Lee Panich (e.g., Schneider 2021; Schneider and Panich 2019) are notable examples of community-engaged archaeology, focusing on collaborative research on topics of interest to Native California descendant communities. Indeed, such projects across North America have been wonderfully successful, asking questions descendent communities are interested in, training Native American community members, and helping indigenous scholars to become professional archaeologists (Cowie et al. 2019; Silliman 2008).

Overall, these global archaeological developments have provided much insight into how to design and carry out community-engaged research projects, highlighting how individual projects will vary greatly based upon the descendant community involved (Gürsu 2019; Jameson and Musteață 2019). It has also been noted that in indigenous settings, an important first step is invariably for participants to acknowledge that archaeology has an early historical legacy founded in racism and questionable ethics, and that there is a need to actively work to decolonize its modern practices (Church 2020; Colwell 2016; Murray 2011). It is also important to recognize that most of these praiseworthy communityengaged projects have been done outside of CRM, and very rarely in challenging archaeological situations where modern development cannot or will not avoid impacting archaeological sites (Church 2020). In such contexts, moving from descendant community consultation to

meaningful collaboration is much more challenging, due to time constraints, costs, and reliance on normative CRM protocols. These trends and recent developments were very much on our minds when we embarked on this study, and as outlined here, we hope our experiences contribute meaningfully to the topic.

Similar trends toward community-engaged research are also taking place in related fields, notably in history and biological anthropology (Meloche et al. 2021; Smith 1988; Warren 2017). In biological anthropology, for example, there is now widespread and growing recognition that the ethical study of ancestors must be done with the consent and oversight of the descendent community (Bader and Malhi 2019). It is also important to stress that the perspective of indigenous communities regarding such investigations will vary greatly. Many will not want any study of their ancestors. Other tribes will have considerable interest in reconstructing who their ancestors were in life and will want to ask specific questions that have relevance to their community.

The edited volume *Working With and For the Ancestors* (Meloche et al. 2021) presents a series of collaborative studies where research on ancestors was first approved by the indigenous descendant community and then carried out in a collaborative, sensitive, and appropriate manner (e.g., Bader et al. 2021). The work at *Sii Túupentak*, presented here, is in this vein of collaborative research with the active participation of the descendant community.

SÍI TÚUPENTAK COLLABORATIVE STUDY

The *Sii Túupentak* collaborative project started well before the current social movement supporting racial justice for underprivileged and minority communities in the U.S., and evolved over more than half a decade. The collaboration involved the SFPUC (the development project proponent), the Muwekma Ohlone Tribe of the San Francisco Bay Area (the descendant community), joined by San Jose State University anthropology students, an archaeological research team led by Far Western and academic scholars from several universities, and the San Francisco Planning Department (the regulatory agency ensuring compliance with city protocols regarding state of California environmental laws and regulations, notably the California Environmental Quality Act).

Former Chairwoman and state-assigned Most Likely Descendent (M.L.D.) representative Rosemary Cambra, current Chairwoman Charlene Nijmeh, Vice Chair and current M.L.D. Monica V. Arellano (who also led the Muwekma's field team and served as primary monitor), and Tribal Archaeologist Alan Leventhal all played key roles in the project. The project also benefited from the experience gained by the Muwekma Ohlone's long-term program of historical and archaeological research that has included running their own CRM archaeological projects (e.g., Cambra et al. 1996; Field et al. 1992; Leventhal et al. 1987, 2015) and developing collegial relationships between members of the archaeological community and the Tribe. Many of those initial collaborative projects prominently involved Mark Hylkema while he worked for Caltrans. They included the Tamien Station project (CA-SCL-690), during which Muwekma Tribal members monitored, excavated, and were technicians in training at the Osteology Lab at SJSU, and also wrote their own ethnographic overview chapter (Hylkema 1994, 2007); and 1992 investigations at "Kaphan Umux: The Three Wolves site," CA-SCL-732, a large, ancestral Native American cemetery site discovered in a San Jose interchange (Cambra et al. 1996), during which Hylkema assisted in certifying the Muwekma Ohlone Tribe and their archaeological firm, Ohlone Families Consulting Services, to direct the field work and write the report, despite opposition from the archaeological community.

One of the principal goals of this and prior Muwekma archaeological and historical investigations and collaborations with various scholars has been to shatter the widespread myth that the Muwekma Ohlone people are extinct and/or have no historic or biological claims to their ancestral heritage cemeteries and village sites.

In April 2014, Muwekma Ohlone Tribal leadership was approached by the SFPUC to discuss plans to construct an educational facility—the Alameda Creek Watershed Center—adjacent to the Sunol Water Temple, with a focus on the natural history of the Alameda Creek watershed. The agency intended to include space in the center for the indigenous inhabitants of the region to tell their story. Thus, the Muwekma Ohlone had the rare opportunity to present information to the SFPUC on their tribe's history and heritage and their relationship to the greater Sunol/Pleasanton/Niles/Livermore region from Spanish contact, through the twentieth century, and into the present. The Alameda Creek Watershed Center is scheduled to open in 2023.

During these discussions, the Muwekma Ohlone Tribal leadership demonstrated to SFPUC officials (who funded the project) that by employing various records including Spanish Mission marriage, baptismal, and death records:

- their enrolled lineages descend from the California tribes of the greater East and South Bay region and could trace their ancestry back to their aboriginal villages;
- that their direct biological ancestors were missionized into the three Bay Area Spanish missions—San Jose, Santa Clara, and San Francisco;
- their families comprised the historic (after 1906) and previously federally-recognized Verona Band of Alameda County that resided in the Pleasanton (Alisal), Sunol, Livermore (Del Mocho), and Niles (El Molino) rancherias from post-mission secularization to the early twentieth century;
- they served as linguistic and cultural consultants to such notable anthropologists as J. P. Harrington and A. L. Kroeber between 1879 and 1934, when their last fluent speakers passed away;
- they had family members buried at the Ohlone Indian Cemetery in the city of Fremont during the nineteenth and early to mid-twentieth centuries;
- they enrolled with the Bureau of Indian Affairs between 1928 and 1971;
- they went to Indian boarding schools in the 1930s and 1940s; and
- they belonged to the Bay Area California Indian Council in the mid-1940s to 1950s.

All of these details were also published in the project's ethnohistory chapter, which was written by the tribal leadership and the Language Committee (Arellano et al. 2020).

Muwekma Ohlone families clearly lived for centuries within the greater Sunol region, and parents and grandparents were baptized at Mission San Jose as Indians. For example, co-author Monica V. Arellano's paternal grandfather Albert Arellano and his mother (her great grandmother) Mercedes Marine were born on the Alisal Rancheria (1910 Federal Indian Census, "Indian Town" Pleasanton Township). Her father Joel C. Arellano, Sr. and his siblings regularly met and played on the rocks in Niles Canyon as children while visiting other Muwekma Indians living in Niles. Although left as a landless tribe, the Muwekma Ohlone never abandoned their tribal relations or left their aboriginal lands, and Muwekma families have maintained close ties and relationships to Sunol and surrounding areas during the twentieth century (i.e., born on the Sunol Rancheria, baptized, sent to the orphanage, and having funeral services at Mission San Jose) within the San Francisco Bay Area.

A Memorandum of Understanding was then developed so the Muwekma Ohlone could consult on the Watershed Center's indoor and outdoor Native American cultural exhibits and serve as monitors on the archaeological work for the project. Tribal leadership made recommendations relative to the treatment of the archaeological site (*Sii Túupentak*) that lay within the footprint of the proposed Watershed Center. Furthermore, SFPUC allowed the Tribe to recommend a Cultural Resources Management firm that they felt would be respectful of their input and leadership, and thus one they could trust. Far Western was recommended and accepted, and joined the project in June 2015; subsequently, the team including the staff of the SFPUC—has collaborated in meaningful ways on this project.

The Muwekma Ohlone involvement in the community-based cultural resources work for the project has included the following:

- naming the archaeological site *Sii Túupentak*, meaning "Place of the Water Roundhouse Site" in their native Chochenyo Ohlone language;
- recommending and approving all archaeological field and lab methods;
- reviewing, providing comments, and approving all of the technical reports (including: Research Design for Archaeological Testing, Archaeological Testing Report, Research Design for Archaeological Data Recovery, and Archaeological Mitigation Report);
- monitoring all fieldwork;
- excavating all ancestral burials;
- writing the ethnohistory chapter in the final reports;

- contributing to manuscripts and news stories published or disseminated about the project, including a peer-reviewed archaeological monograph on the investigations, several articles in professional journals, and articles in newspapers, including the *New York Times*;
- approving the curation plan (non-mortuary items were curated at Sonoma State University's curation facility) and reburial of ancestors and sacred objects nearby and taking the lead on the reburial process;
- providing substantive input on the Watershed Center's educational displays and programs that will prominently feature the Tribe's history and highlight their ancestral heritage site;
- supporting and being active participants in all phases of the archaeological mitigation project documented in the PBS educational film *Time Has Many Voices* aimed at the broader Bay Area community.

The main archaeology field investigations carried out by Far Western and the Muwekma Ohlone involved a multi-stage field effort between 2016-2017 that included test excavations, data recovery investigations, remote sensing (Engbring et al. 2019; Grebenkemper et al. 2021), mechanical and manual archaeological stripping, and the excavation of all features and burials identified. Fieldwork entailed the excavation of 48 units, 10 trenches, and 1,130 liters of sediment floated and fine-mesh wet screened. It also ultimately entailed the stripping (including a substantive portion done manually) of 1,700 cubic meters of sediment covering the full building footprint to ensure that all burials and features were carefully identified and recovered prior to construction. Whenever conflicts or concerns occurred during more than a year of working side by side, the group (including SFPUC officials) sat in a circle under a tree at the site and had meetings. During these, the team talked through the process to ensure everyone was heard, and everyone listened to each other with respect and looked for common ground in what at times was a challenging endeavor, especially when numerous burials were encountered.

Collectively, Muwekma Ohlone tribal members and representatives of the scientific community are looking into the lives and deaths of ancestral people from the past. For the Tribe, this includes a variety of studies (notably including accurate sex determination) conducted to provide enhanced perspective on the persona of each individual, to gain insight into them as the unique people that they were. Muwekma Ohlone would not survive to this day if it were not for the sacrifice, struggles, and commitment of their families. By retelling some of their history and stories through archaeology, the Tribe members celebrate the lives of their ancestors, and ultimately honor them when they are returned to the *warep* (translated as "the earth" in Chochenyo), where their loved ones originally placed them with affection and respect.

With regard to the study of their ancestors that might be encountered during fieldwork, rigorous state of the art archaeometric studies were requested by the Muwekma Ohlone at the very first archaeological meeting for the project in 2014. At the request of tribal leadership, a presentation to the Tribal Council on proposed methods and research specialties was conducted by Far Western. Approved analyses (using microsamples) for ancestral remains included radiocarbon dating; stable isotopes (carbon, nitrogen, strontium, sulfur) to examine diet, age at weaning, and changes in residence; study of teeth proteins to identify sex, especially of young individuals; paleogenomic DNA analysis to determine sex and ancestry/relatedness; ancient DNA (aDNA) analysis to confirm osteological indications of tuberculosis; dental calculus analysis to identify inhalant compounds, notably tobacco; and a pilot study of dental calculus to explore the oral microbiome aDNA with respect to diet and disease. Several presentations were made to the Tribal Council on emerging results during the project, and a talk on the project was presented at a tribal-wide meeting upon completion of the study. All of these studies were completed and published collectively as part of the overall study of Síi Túupentak as a UC Davis CARD monograph (Byrd et al. 2020a). A series of articles on various aspects of the results has also been published (Buonasera et al. 2020, In press; Engbring et al. 2019; Grebenkemper et al. 2021; Scheib et al. 2018; Severson et al. 2002).

HIGHLIGHTING SÍI TÚUPENTAK RESULTS

Setting, Age, and Site Structure

Sii Tiupentak is located on an alluvial floodplain near the confluence of Alameda Creek and Arroyo de la Laguna within the Alameda Creek watershed, the largest in the

southern San Francisco Bay Area. Situated adjacent to a rich riparian setting, the extensive Sunol Valley was an oak savanna with adjacent grasslands, and the nearby hills contained a mixed hardwood forest (Stanford et al. 2013). The site is a large (6.9 acres) sedentary village site consisting of a thick deposit of cultural material along with an associated cemetery (Byrd et al. 2020a). In the middle of the site there is a low (30 cm.) anthropogenic mound (approximately 30 meters in diameter) formed by intensive occupation activity. Archaeological investigation of 6.2% of the site recovered a wide range of cultural remains, including more than 13,000 artifacts, numerous food remains, 36 features, and 66 burials comprising 76 individuals.

Sii Tüupentak dates from 605-111 cal B.P. (1345-1839 C.E.), based on 129 radiocarbon median intercept results from 96 burials and features (Byrd et al. 2020a:83-86). More than 95 percent of the features and burials are concentrated in a narrower time span from 539-145 cal B.P. (1411-1805 C.E.), indicating that Sii Tupentak was primarily occupied for around 400 years. This occupation encompassed the last 100 years of the central California Late 1 Period (full extent of period 685-440 cal B.P.), all of the Late 2 Period (440-180 cal B.P.), and almost 30 years of 'historical era' occupation after the arrival of the Spanish (Groza et al. 2011). Thus, the site was founded prior to European contact and continued to be inhabited during early European coastal exploration. This colonial exploration started 408 cal B.P/1542 C.E. and continued through the region's Spanish colonization, which began locally 173 cal B.P./1777 C.E. with the founding of missions San Francisco Asis (Dolores) and Santa Clara, until most of the inhabitants were forced into the Spanish mission compounds (145 cal B.P./1805 C.E.). The site was also reoccupied in the 1830s C.E. after the Spanish empire lost control of Alta California.

Five site components (Late 1, Late 2a, Late 2b, Late 2c, and Historic) were defined for intra-site analysis, based on the temporal distribution of dated features and burials (Table 1). Notably, the Late 2c component continued until 145 cal B.P. (1805 C.E.) in the "Historic/Mission" period, based on radiocarbon dating evidence of occupation continuity. This is consistent with Spanish mission records that demonstrate that 98 percent of the Ohlone of the Sunol area (the *Causen* tribal community) listed in the Spanish mission registries did not relocate

Period (Groza et al. 2011)	Site Component	Total Span (cal B.P.)	Total Span (C.E.)	Burial % (n = 70)	Feature % (n = 26)
Historic: 145-50 cal B.P. (1805-1900 C.E.)	Historic	119-112 (9 years)	1831-1838	1%	4%
Late 2: 440-145 cal B.P. (1520-1805 C.E.)	Late 2c	199-145 (54 years)	1744-1805	11%	17%
	Late 2b	312-273 (39 years)	1638-1677	37%	6%
	Late 2a	395–362 (33 years)	1512-1588	23%	26%
Late 1: 685-440 cal B.P. (1265-1520 C.E.)	Late 1	539–441 (98 years)	1411-1509	26%	44%
		605-601 (4 years)	1345-1349	1%	2%

Table 1
SÍI TÚUPENTAK TEMPORAL COMPONENTS-BASED RADIOCARBON MEDIAN INTERCEPTS OF FEATURES AND BURIALS

to the missions until 153–146 cal B.P. (1797–1804 C.E.), when nearby Mission San Jose was founded (Milliken 2010). Finally, the historical-era component dates from 119 to 112 cal B.P. (1831 to 1838 C.E.), documenting post-mission use of the site by Native people during the Mexican period presumably associated with the adjacent Suñol ranch complex.

Intra-site analysis revealed strong, temporally-driven spatial patterning during settlement occupation. Features and burials were concentrated in a 65-by-20-meter area, with most from the Late 1 Period in the northwest portion of this concentration, and the vast majority of Late 2 burials and features (and 60% of all burials) within and immediately to the southeast of the low mound (Fig. 2). In contrast, the historic Mexican Period Native American feature and burial were situated much farther to the southeast of this concentration. Generalized site midden deposits were also patterned along this northwest-southeast site axis (from Late 1 to Historic Period in age). Notably, over time, based on generalized site deposit constituents that were spatially associated with the remains from each period, there was increased reliance on imported Napa obsidian for flaked stone tool use, shifting from moderate (45%) in the Late 1 Period to overwhelmingly dominant near the end of the Late 2 Period (up to 83%).

Subsistence Economy

Features were dominated by residential-related fire-affected rock concentrations, ash lenses, and large roasting pits (Fig. 3). In addition to these domestic features, a large formal hearth and a pit feature may have been used in ceremonial activities. Subsistence analysis reveals the inhabitants actively managed the local landscape, and that prescribed burns were undoubtedly undertaken to enhance grasslands and small-seeded plants (Wohlgemuth 2020; see also Lightfoot and Lopez 2013). Wohlgemuth's (2020) study demonstrates that plant resource processing was strongly associated with domestic features, sometimes represented by plants collected during a single season and sometimes by plants collected during more than one season. In these contexts, small-seed processing (notably farewell to spring, fescue, and hairgrass) was more important than that of nuts. Overall, the site's rich archaeobotanical assemblage included 50 plant genera dominated by small seeds and nuts (primarily acorn and then bay nut). Most are spring-ripening small-seed taxa (46%) and summer small-seed and berry taxa (42%), with fewer fall-ripening nut taxa (12%)—a seasonality distribution consistent with a sedentary village community, given that all key seasons of plant availability are represented. Eurasian cultigens (wheat, barley, and watermelon) and weeds (such as filaree and cheeseweed) and New World domesticated corn are present and were primarily recovered from two Late 2c features and the historical-era Native American feature.

Analysis by Whitaker (2020) reveals that vertebrate faunal remains from features and elsewhere include both large and small mammalian fauna (notably deer, rabbits, hares, various carnivores, and rodents), with many fewer birds and other remains. Domestic dog is also present, based on aDNA results by Brian Kemp (Whitaker 2020:251). Fish were also important, mainly represented by freshwater fishes (especially Sacramento sucker), along with a moderate quantity of salmonids, pike minnow, and surfperch (Gobalet 2020). Estuarine fish and shellfish taxa were uncommon, and the former declined over time. The results reveal a consistent and sustained pattern of procurement throughout the sequence with an absence of large mammal resource depression.



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Punon Non Non

Controlled Stripping Boundary

Meters 10

50

Feet

20

100

Burial

Feature

0

0

Figure 2. Map showing distribution of burials and features by period, and location of low anthropogenic mound.

LATE 2

241

LATE 1



Figure 3. Roasting pit Feature 10.

Instead, a healthy U-shaped artiodactyl population (with younger and older adults dominating the assemblage) persisted despite hunting throughout the year, particularly in the fall and winter, based upon a dental increment seasonality analysis by Jaffke and Peabody (Whitaker 2020:229–230). Eurasian domesticates are not present in protohistoric features, a trend consistent with prior investigations of sites of this age in the Bay Area (Byrd et al. 2018). The lone 1830s historical-era feature includes cattle, goat, and domestic cat, a shift consistent with Native American's access to domesticated resources while working on the adjacent Suñol Rancho.

LIVED LIVES

As requested by the Muwekma Ohlone, detailed archaeometric analyses of the 76 individuals recovered from burial excavations yielded new insights into the lives of these unique individuals, as well as community trends and insights into social and ideological complexity. Multi-factor sexing of adults and younger individualscombining the results of osteological, ancient DNA (aDNA), and amelogenin protein from teeth-allowed for comprehensive sexing of a burial population for the first time in indigenous California, and the ability to differentiate between health, diet, and mortuary trends in females and males of all ages (Buonasera et al. 2020; DiGiuseppe and Grant 2020; Malhi et al. 2020; Parker et al. 2020). Based on the analyses, the biological sex of the indigenous ancestors included 32 females, 34 males, and 10 of indeterminate sex.

Nuclear genome aDNA analysis by Malhi and colleagues provided new insights into broader Native American lineages and early migration patterns in the peopling of the New World (Malhi et al. 2020; Scheib et al. 2018). Notably, Severson et al. (2022), in a study of 12 ancestors from *Sii Túupentak* and nearby *Rummey Ta Kučučwiš Tiprectak* and eight present-day members of the Muwekma Ohlone, demonstrated that these pre-contact individuals shared a distinct ancestry from other groups, as well as an element of continuity over time with living Muwekma Ohlone tribal members. As Severson et al. (2022:7) noted, "the shared ancestry components provide support for genetic continuity between the individuals from the *Rummey Ta Kučučwiš Tiprectak* and *Sii Túupentak* archaeological sites and between the two sites

and the present-day Muwekma Ohlone." The results indicate that the Ohlone arrived in the Bay Area at least 500–1,000 years earlier than the 1,500–1,000 cal B.P. time frame typically suggested (Fagan 2004; Golla 2011; Levy 1978a). Mitochondrial genomic aDNA analysis revealed that the population of *Sii Túupentak* was primarily composed of individuals from haplogroup D, with lesser representation by haplogroups C and B. This differs markedly from the results from most other nearby sites (Byrd et al. 2020a:Fig. 201; Monroe 2014, 2019), probably due to long-term differences in mating interactions between territorial communities.

A notable osteological observation on health and disease was also confirmed by an aDNA analysis conducted by Anne Stone, who demonstrated that at least four individuals from Sii Tuupentak were suffering from tuberculosis, generally considered to be a disease introduced to North America by Europeans (DiGiuseppe and Grant 2020:276). All were males, including three juveniles and one infant, with median age intercepts from 478-312 cal B.P. (1472-1638 C.E.) and all but one dating to 382-290 cal B.P. (1568-1638 CE.). These results indicate that early European explorers (who landed at nearby Monterey or along the Mendocino/ Marin coasts following established trade networks) may have first introduced the disease to the region, rather than its original introduction coinciding with Spanish colonization in the late 1700s.

Variations in diet and survivorship were observed both between males and females, and between adults and younger individuals. In terms of dietary patterns, a stable carbon, nitrogen, and sulfur isotope analysis by Eerkens et al. (2020a) revealed that males consistently consumed higher trophic-level foods than females (both among adults and children), and that there was an overall steady temporal trend towards a reduction in diet breadth and an intensification in the use of regional resources. In terms of childhood diet, Eerkens et al.'s (2020b) study (based on serial nitrogen and carbon isotope samples from teeth) revealed that males were weaned on average almost a year earlier than females (2.3 versus 3.2 years). As detailed by Buonasera et al. (In press), male infants (five years or younger) were also less likely to live to adulthood, dying almost twice as often as female infants, and there appears to be a positive correlation between isotopic dietary signals and an individual's survivorship into adulthood. This is likely the result of a biological survival advantage in female infants (e.g., Zarulli et al. 2018), combined with such extrinsic factors as disease, nutrition, and engendered enculturation.

Other differences between male and female adults were also discerned. Strontium isotope analysis of molars and bone by Harold (2020) revealed trends in residential marriage patterns, with more females than males immigrating around the age of puberty, indicating a preference for patrilocality. General migration frequency also decreased over time, indicating that fewer people immigrated from farther afield. This may suggest a reduction in the need for exogamy over time, likely due to a growing local population with more potential marriage partners.

A liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis of dental calculus by Tushingham et al. (2020) showed that there were also differences between males and females in the use of psychoactive plant inhalants. Compared to males, a higher proportion of women of varied ages tested positive for nicotine use. Moreover, there are patterned differences in the location of nicotine on teeth-among men, it is found primarily on the front teeth, which is indicative of smoking, while among women it is located primary on the back teeth, which is indicative of tobacco chewing. These results contradict ethnographic reports that mention only tobacco smoking, and state that males of all ages were the predominate users, with only occasional older women and female shamans smoking tobacco (Harrington 1932; Tushingham et al. 2020:357; Winter 2000a).

MORTUARY PRACTICES

Investigations of mortuary practices revealed a series of patterns, the most notable of which are highlighted here (Byrd and Engbring 2020). Some 79% of the 76 ancestors documented were present as inhumations and 21% were cremations. There was a shift from uniform mortuary treatment in the Late 1 Period (exclusively primary inhumations, typically loosely flexed on their back or right side) to highly varied and more complex interment practices in the Late 2 Period that included cremations (26%) and secondary inhumations (6%) for the first time. The earliest cremation is dated to 387 cal B.P. (1563 C.E.) during the Late 2a component, and relative cremation frequencies rise in later components. Cremations mainly involve adults (94%; and 39% of all Late 2 adults), and cremated males (mainly young or middle-aged adults) are twice as common as females. All were secondary burials (i.e., were cremated elsewhere), and two-thirds were interred in two adjacent clusters of five individuals each, interred over a considerable period of time. One cluster was centered on a large formal hearth; the other cluster had stone cairns with mortars overlying each individual.

Another significant Late 2 mortuary development was the ritual use of red pigment on human bone and on select artifacts (lipped type E shell beads, bone whistles, and a mortar). Red pigment, dated to the Late 2b and 2c components (296-183 cal B.P./1654-1767 C.E.), occurs with 21% of the burials. Most is bright reddish-orange cinnabar (mercury sulfide) pigment, along with some hematite, distinguished by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis (Martindale Johnson 2020a). Cinnabar pigment occurs with 30% of adults from these components-typically males (71%) and especially cremated individuals. In contrast, only a single younger individual has associated cinnabar pigment. Cinnabar was also used by the Ohlone in historical times as a paint for a variety of ceremonial and ritual purposes, including as body paint, for pictographs, and for wall painting at the Mission Santa Clara church (Coombs 1999; Hylkema 2010; Jones 2015).

With respect to mortuary items, a diverse range of offerings and combinations of non-perishable items were interred with burials, highlighting the uniqueness of individuals. Olivella shell beads dominated the list of mortuary items (Eubanks 2020; more than 90% of the almost 4,500 items recovered), along with a fair number of abalone shell ornaments, projectile points, mortars, pestles, and whistles, with lesser quantities of 20 other types of items, including smoking pipes (Figs. 4 and 5). Most individuals had mortuary offerings (83%), typically involving just a few items, but some had many items. Individuals with numerous mortuary offerings were from varied temporal components, locations in the site, and DNA-based matrilineages; they also included inhumations and cremations, men and women, and diverse ages (including a fetus).

Four ancestors are highlighted here with respect to mortuary offerings to illustrate variations in practice. Each lived a unique life, and they were mourned by



Figure 4. Select *Sii Túupentak* artifacts including thin rectangles (Class M) *Olivella* beads, banjo abalone pendants, projectile points, very large incised bird bone, bone whistles, and composite smoking pipe.

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enlarged

Figure 5. Select Sii Túupentak artifacts including two flower-pot/show mortars and a pestle.

family and friends after their passing, as evidenced by their careful and sometimes lavish interments. Late 1 Period Individual 66 was born around 1429 C.E. (521 cal B.P.) at a different settlement (i.e., outside of the *Sii Túupentak* strontium isotope range) and lived to the age of 35–40 years. She was buried with more funerary objects (n=1,154) than any other individual. Most (97%) were rectangular M-series *Olivella* sequin shell beads, often overlapping (see Fig. 4), which were likely stitched onto a garment or blanket, along with 25 abalone shell ornaments, two bone whistles, a bone tool, one flowerpot/show mortar (see Fig. 5), four pestles, and another ground stone item. The whistles were placed on her neck and cheek, and the imported flower-pot/show mortar was ritually broken along its rim. Large, finely-made volcanic mortars from *Sii Tiupentak* and elsewhere were undoubtedly used in special ceremonies, such as feasting or food-related ritual events associated with the (re) distribution of food resources, and their deposition with selected individuals likely implies that these individuals occupied an elevated social rank within the local community (Bellifemine 1997; Buonasera 2013:205–206; Leventhal 1993:222–225, 261–263; Martindale Johnson and Byrd 2020:474–480).

Late 1 Individual 36 was born at Sii Tuupentak more than a half century later, around 1473 C.E. (477 cal B.P.) and died some 17 to 20 years later. Although the number of total associated mortuary items was relatively low and notably no shell beads were present, there was a high diversity of offerings. She was accompanied by five bone whistles, and she had a pestle on her outstretched right arm, two whistles behind her neck, and two bone tools elsewhere (see Fig. 4). She was also interred with the only two banjo abalone ornaments documented at Sii Túupentak (both probably suspended as a necklace; see Fig. 4). They are notable, since they have been suggested as identifying Kuksú ceremonial system big head dancers and possibly indicating membership in the Kuksú religion (Hedges 2019; Hylkema 2002; Leventhal 1993; Milliken et al. 2007).

Individual 62 was a female *in utero* neonate aged 36–40 weeks in component Late 2b (1646 C.E./304 cal B.P.). She was interred with 239 *Olivella* shell beads (primarily spire-lopped Type A), two projectile points, and a very large, elaborately incised bird bone tube (see Fig. 4). This individual is noteworthy for several reasons: she was the only fetus with mortuary items not interred with an adult, she had more associated items than all but eight individuals in the mortuary population, and is the only individual buried with an incised bone tube.

Finally, Late 2b Burial 49 is a double interment of cremated adult males dated to 1662 C.E. (283 cal B.P.). One man was in his 20s, with more than 200 (mostly E-Series lipped) *Olivella* beads and two Stockton Serrated obsidian arrow points. The other individual lived to 35-40 years of age and was interred with 21 mostly obsidian projectile points of varied types (see Fig. 4, including three non-local point types; several of the points were embedded in his body), 21 mostly spire-lopped *Olivella* shell beads, a large pestle (see Fig.5), two obsidian bifaces, and assorted obsidian flakes and a flake tool. A substantial overturned bowl mortar was situated next to both individuals.

Considerable attention has been placed on mortuary practices as a way of gaining insight into socio-political complexity and identifying elites in northern California and elsewhere (e.g., Atchley 1994; Bellifemine 1997; Byrd et al. 2017:12-1-12-4; Gamble 2008; King 1974; Leventhal 1993). There has also been greater recognition of the fact that there is not always a simple 1:1 relationship between mortuary offerings and status or wealth, since mortuary events are public occasions where shared social meanings and memories are constructed, social order is reinforced, group cohesion is promoted, and community-wide identities are crafted (e.g., Reddy 2015). This highlights the need to explore social identity, agency, and interaction with respect to a wider range of social categories (including age, sex, and group affiliation) when considering mortuary practices (Byrd and Rosenthal 2016; Gardner 2013; Leventhal 1993; Luby 2004).

Overall, several factors may have contributed to variations in mortuary offerings: achieved status, intracommunity membership/lineage, and the loss felt by surviving family members. There is no unequivocal mortuary evidence of either hereditary elites (where, for example, families of individuals of both sexes and all ages have many more mortuary offerings, were buried in close proximity to each other, and/or were buried in a distinctive and elaborate manner) or an extremely poor segment of the community. Instead, in the Late 2 Period, there is an increasing divergence in mortuary offerings, with adult cremations having a mean and median 10 times greater than adult inhumations. Cremated adults also have greater shell bead ubiquity, many more non-shell bead items, and consumed more foods of a higher trophic level, an indication that their diets were richer in meat (Eerkens et al. 2020a). Interestingly, Late 2 Period adult inhumations also have 50 percent fewer mortuary items on average than Late 2 younger individuals, with older adults having the least associated items. These differences in mortuary behavior and offerings between Late 2 adult cremations and inhumations may signify more broad-scale, intra-community social differences in mortuary treatment. At the end of the sequence (Late 2c, post-199 cal B.P./1744 C.E.), there is an uptick in median mortuary items, the diversity of total items, the ubiquity of shell beads, and the quantities of non-shell bead items, despite the lowest mean in mortuary items. Both internal and possibly external factors (such as disruptions in long-standing trade networks) may have influenced these Late 2c mortuary trends toward more varied and evenly distributed mortuary offerings within the population. These trends highlight changes in the complexity of mortuary practices, especially in the latter half of the occupation span.

SOCIOPOLITICAL IMPLICATIONS OF TRADE AND EXCHANGE

Fine craftmanship is exhibited in the elaborately made and abundant non-perishable material goods of the *Sii Túupentak* community. Many items were made with locally available products—elaborate bone awls, whistles, and the incised tube, as well as ground stone pestles and bowl mortars made of local greywacke (Galindo Arias 2020; Martindale Johnson 2020b). A considerable number of items, including the three most common mortuary offerings, however, were non-local trade goods. Although trade details are unknown, acquisition of these items was most likely via trade and exchange (and typically as finished items), since direct source acquisition would have required traveling through the territories of three or more tribes, and at times having to cross into the territory of non-Ohlone-speaking Bay Area groups (Fig. 6).

Olivella shell beads and abalone pendants were imported primarily from along the central California coast, a distance of at least 50 km. A nearby prominent hematite source is 30 km. to the northwest, while the only source of cinnabar is the Pooyi/Almaden Mine area of Mount Umunhum 45 km. to the south, where the Ohlone had active mining tunnels in 150 cal B.P. (1800 C.E.) if not earlier (Coombs 1999; Heizer and Treganza 1972:302, 311-312). Flowerpot/show mortars (all four of which were recovered from mortuary contexts) were XRF sourced to a volcanic outcrop at Mount Diablo 35 km. to the north (Martindale Johnson 2020b: 141-146; see also Bennyhoff 1977). These very large (at least two times the largest bowl mortars), well-finished and unique mortars were likely acquired as finished products via trade with the Bay Miwok that resided near Mount Diablo. Obsidian (the dominant flaked-stone raw material for both debitage and tools, despite the presence of local cherts) was imported from the Napa and Annadel sources in Wappo territory, a distance of 110 km., with seven tribes, the Bay, and two language groups in between.

The widespread extent of this active system of trade and exchange involving these luxury goods testifies to the wealth of the community and the settlement's importance in central California. It also provides insight into the structure and organization of regional inter-territorial community interaction and alliance maintenance, reinforcing the importance of well-developed rules of political, social, and religious interaction mediated by community leaders (Bean and Lawton 1973; Gardner 2013; Leventhal 1993). The nature and extent of these interactions appear to have varied across this region, suggesting overlapping spheres of social interaction reinforced by trade and the exchange of finished goods, raw materials, mates, food resources, and other material attributes of these socio-political, economic, and symbolic interactions. Notably, widely traded emblematic objects reflect a community of practice that was contingent on shared beliefs and ideas grounded in ceremonial and socio-political interaction (Wenger 1998).

In the eastern Bay area, flower-pot/show mortars and banjo abalone ornaments are both present, with mortars more frequent in the north and the pendants much more ubiquitous in the south (Byrd et al. 2020a:469-486). Clam shell disk beads, on the other hand, are absent or very rare south of the Sacramento River, and only a single one was recovered from Sii Tuupentak (Eubanks 2020; Rosenthal 2011). Finally, high-volume trade of Napa obsidian was concentrated in the inland east Bay Area valleys and extended only as far south as Sii Tupentak. Napa obsidian is present at Native American settlements within the tribal territories in the east Bay margins, northern Santa Clara Valley, and the San Francisco Peninsula, but it is not the dominant raw material used (Byrd et al. 2020a:472-473). These overlapping interaction spheres cross-cut linguistic and territorial community boundaries in much more varied and complex ways than has thus far been appreciated.

FORCED ABANDONMENT AND PERSEVERANCE

Spanish Mission Santa Clara and the San Jose Pueblo were founded in 1777 C.E. (173 cal B.P.) only 30 km. to the southwest (Milliken 1995). Despite being situated relatively close by, *Sti Túupentak* was somewhat buffered by the presence of other Ohlone territorial communities



Figure 6. Prominent raw material source localities in relationship to Sii Tuupentak and tribal community territories.

(Tamien, Santa Ysabel, and SF Solono) between them and the newly arrived colonizers at Mission Santa Clara and Pueblo de San Jose (see Fig. 6). During the several decades of regional co-existence, there is limited material evidence of interaction with the Spanish—a few glass trade beads, and two features with introduced domestic food remains, including watermelon, grain (probably wheat or barley), and corn as well as filaree, a non-local weed. This is consistent with the low-level integration of colonial items at indigenous settlements in the Bay Area during the Spanish colonial period (Byrd et al. 2018), and the conservative incorporation of newly introduced foods into the indigenous diet noted elsewhere in California (Reddy 2015).

Historical records reveal that external events that took place less than a decade before Sii Tüupentak was abandoned circa 1804 had a profound impact. Mission San Jose was founded on June 11, 1797 C.E. (153 cal B.P.), just 6.5 km. to the southwest of the Ohlone settlement (Milliken 1995, 2008). This was immediately followed by a violent summer of concerted efforts by Spanish soldiers to exert their control over the lands near their new mission, to capture Ohlone and Bay Miwok runaways from missions San Francisco and Santa Clara, and to punish the Native Americans still living in independent villages in the southeast Bay region that had given them refuge (Milliken 1995, 2008). Was Sii Tüupentak visited during these military raids? That is unknown, but it is likely, since this was the closest substantial indigenous settlement to the new Spanish outpost. Certainly, the inhabitants knew their options had just become more limited, and their lives were about to change significantly.

On September 7, 1797, a few days after the first baptism at the mission, the first Ohlone from the *Síi Túupentak* area came to Mission San Jose and were baptized—five children aged 2–8 were brought by an elderly native man (Milliken 2010). By the end of the year, two-thirds of the newly baptized people at the mission were from the *Síi Túupentak* area. The archaeological dating evidence from *Síi Túupentak* is consistent with the mission baptismal records, which confirm that during the next eight years, until 1804 C.E. (146 cal B.P.), 209 Ohlone from the *Síi Túupentak* area relocated to the mission (and only one did so afterwards, in 1807). They helped build its now famous church, worked the mission agricultural lands where Ohlone College stands today, and undoubtedly planted and tended the mission's orchards and fields, as well as the incipient herds of cattle. This was, however, a harsh and foreign setting for them, and life expectancy at this colonial outpost was on average only eight years, based upon an analysis of the digital mission records (Milliken et al. 2006). As a result, only four people from the Síi Túupentak area survived until the Spanish colonial effort collapsed in 1833 C.E. (117 cal BP). One of those survivors was Moychol (MSJ-B 6) from "de la Lameda" (Almeda Creek), a two-year-old boy who was part of the first group from *Síi Túupentak* to be baptized at the new mission.

The Ohlone narrative did not end there-Síi Túupentak also has a modest 1830s Mexican period component, complete with a feature and burial, revealing post-Spanish-era use of the site by Ohlone that returned to this persistent place (Byrd et al. 2020a; Luby 1995). Some were undoubtedly among the Native American laborers documented as having worked at the Mexican period Rancho El Valle de San José, which was centered on the Sunol area, and the 1845 Suñol Adobe (situated within the pre-contact Ohlone settlement of Rummey Ta Kuččuwiš Tiprectak) was located 400 meters away (Arellano et al. 2020; Byrd et al. 2020b; Ross et al. 2020). The subsequent American period presented new challenges for the survivors of missions San Jose, Santa Clara, and San Francisco, but their descendants persisted nearby, living in Niles Canyon to the west, and near Verona station at the Alisal Rancheria to the northeast (Arellano et al. 2020). They continued to work in the local area, and the descendants from the historic, federally recognized Verona Band of Alameda County are thriving today as the Muwekma Ohlone Tribe of the San Francisco Bay Area, who collaborated on and actively participated in the design, implementation, and fieldwork at Sii Tuupentak. They are also active stewards of their ancestral sites and a vital part of the Bay Area community.

CONCLUSIONS

This study has provided fresh insights into indigenous lifeways during a 400-year period, from just prior to early European exploration, through Spanish colonization and the forced relocation of many Native Californians into the missions in central California—a period of significant change in the lives of native people. Overall, the evidence

demonstrates that Sii Tuupentak was a substantial, sedentary village, undoubtedly the most important village within the Causen Ohlone territory. This community was also an important node in central California interregional social interactions, interactions that were deeply meaningful and demonstrative of a set of shared beliefs and ideas. These complex inter- and intra-community dynamics entailed diverse elements, some of which were expressed in the form and patterning of material culture, while others were expressed in the life histories of the individuals that comprised these communities. These patterns were nuanced and filtered by social conventions tied to local community size, families, and lineages, and the social agency of the individuals within them. These ritualized practices helped to bond these distinctive territorial communities together into a rich tapestry of shared beliefs, practices, and obligations that reinforced social order and promoted regional cohesion within this densely populated area of central California.

This was also a substantial collaborative, communityengaged research project, with agency representatives, tribal members, and archaeologists working together during more than a year of fieldwork and research, resulting in a tremendous co-generation of knowledge of benefit to the descendent community. This paper has attempted to share our experience doing collaborative archaeology in a CRM mitigation context, as well as demonstrate that archaeological investigations centered on the co-production of information are both necessary and possible. It is also important to emphasize that the Muwekma Ohlone "Indianized" the collaborative process, which included reciprocity, mutual benefits between the scientific community, SFPUC, and the tribe, and mutual respect, acknowledging the tribe's history, heritage, and intellectual property.

Despite the challenges of a large, fast-paced excavation and the breadth of the discoveries, it was a collectively enriching and rewarding experience. Given that archaeological findings can be unpredictable, collaborative endeavors also require periodic recalibration to ensure goals and methods are in sync for everyone, and if needed, new approaches and solutions can be implemented. Our experiences underscore the importance of research and methodological flexibility even while fieldwork is ongoing, which can be difficult due to a number of factors, including financial considerations. One of the most important lessons learned was that a community-based project like this can only succeed with the effective and willing involvement and in partnership with the project proponent and the regulatory agency. These keystones of the CRM process are generally underappreciated (especially in CEQA-only projects), and much more support and recognition of outstanding regulatory practitioners is crucial, as is a willingness to call out those that are failing in their regulatory responsibilities. More graduate training is also needed to prepare students to succeed in such roles. In the case of this project we wholeheartedly acknowledge the efforts and support of our key partners on the staff of the SFPUC and the San Francisco Planning Department.

Of course, in hindsight there are aspects of the project that could have been done better or differently. More involvement of Muwekma Ohlone excavating units and features (and not just burials) would have been beneficial to all parties. Similarly, a better integration of the descendant community into the laboratory phase would have increased inclusivity at every stage of knowledge production and provided long-lasting dividends for everyone.

Working so closely together during this project resulted in the creation of strong relationships of mutual respect within this "new ecology of learning" (Warren 2017). It also facilitated several key goals, including empowering Muwekma tribal participants, refining cross-disciplinary approaches that enabled archaeologists to relate ethically and effectively with the descendant community, and the repatriation of knowledge to aid in the rediscovery of historical details and the creation of new narratives (e.g., Barnes 2017; Warren 2017). An important Muwekma Ohlone objective was to move away from the abstract and impersonal ways that academics have described their ancestors. Instead, they wanted to honor and celebrate the perseverance and tenacity of their ancestors as individuals, by respectfully telling the story of their lived lives. We believe this study successfully accomplished this and several other key objectives.

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