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The Desert Tortoise (Xerobates agassizii) in the Prehistory of the Southwestern Great Basin and Adjacent Areas

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THE importance of the desert tortoise (Xerobates agassizii)¹ to the aboriginal peoples of the southwestern Great Basin and adjacent areas has not been fully recognized. This lack of recognition can be attributed to several factors, including meager information regarding the biology and ecology of the species, confusion of terminology and the overlapping of ranges of members of the order Testudines, meager archaeofaunal data and a lack of a synthetic view of the data that are available, and a paucity of ethnographic information.

The generic name "turtle" (order Testudines) incorporates 12 families of turtles and tortoises living today. Of these, seven are represented on the North American continent. The 18 genera (see Note 1) comprising these seven families have 48 species (Behler and King 1979). Several species are represented in faunal collections from archaeological sites in the geographical area with which this paper is concerned. These include the desert tortoise, the western pond turtle (or Pacific pond turtle), the western box turtle, and several species of mud turtles. All the turtles (with the exception of the western box turtle) require a year-round source of water; the desert tortoise is entirely terrestrial. These ecological requirements have far-reaching archaeological and ethnological implications.

FOCUS OF THIS STUDY

This study is focused on the desert areas of California and Nevada. The ranges of the

western pond turtle and the desert tortoise overlap in portions of this region so that specific attention is directed to these two species in the first part of this paper. Similar archaeological problems may exist in other areas where species ranges overlap (e.g., Hohokam sites in Arizona).

Faunal analysts should be aware that both turtle and tortoise remains can occur at archaeological sites in areas where their ranges overlap or where there is a possibility that these animals, or objects derived from them, were exchanged. Environmental and cultural interpretations that are based in part on faunal remains should consider that while turtle and tortoise elements may be confused, ecological requirements and seasonal availability generally are very different for the two reptilian genera.

The second part of this paper narrows the focus to the desert tortoise, the remains of which are present in many sites in the southwestern Great Basin and adjacent eastern areas (Tables 1-3; Fig. 1). The major portion of the ethnographic literature search and the synthetic discussion is focused on this animal.

DISTRIBUTION AND BIOLOGY

Western Pond Turtle (Clemmys marmorata)

The western pond turtle inhabits ponds and marshes, slow-moving streams, brackish water, and lakes with abundant vegetation. The general range of the southwestern sub-

CHRONOLOGICAL PLACEMENTS OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES WITH REMAINS OF XEROBATES AGASSIZII (DESERT TORTOISE)

Site Type	(9	.=
Comment	Locus A Minimal remains Component 1, moderate Component 2, frequent Component 2, frequent Component 2, frequent Minimal remains Most frequent fauna Most frequent fauna Most frequent fauna Carapace bowl (Smith 1963) Very frequent remains Date questionable Very frequent remains Frequent remains Frequent remains Wery frequent remains Minimal remains Wery frequent remains Minimal remains Moderate remains Moderate remains	Moderate remains Very frequent remains Very frequent remains 25% of faunal remains 25% of faunal remains Frequent remains Moderate remains Minimal remains Minimal remains MINI = 2, also Kinosternon Minimal remains, burned Frequent remains, burned Frequent remains 100% faunal remains IOW faunal remains IOW 12, kinosternon Moderate remains Moderate remains Moderate remains Moderate remains Moderate remains Moderate remains Mini = 3, hurned carapace MNI = 1, burned carapace MNI = 2, fanosternon, Terrapene
Reference	Douglas et al. 1988 Douglas 1987 Williams and Orlins 1963 Williams and Orlins 1963 Williams and Orlins 1963 Shutler et al. 1960 Davis and Smith 1981 Warren 1982; Douglas 1982 Sutton 1986; Douglas 1982 Warren 1982; Douglas 1982 Warren 1982; Douglas 1982 Warren 1982; Douglas 1982 Ellis et al. 1982 Blair 1986 Schroeder 1961 Blair 1986	
n Site	CA-SBR-4562, Awl site CA-SBR-4562, Awl site CA-SBR-4966, Henwood site CA-SBR-4966, Henwood site CA-SBR-4966, Henwood site CA-SBR-300, Clark Mountain 26-CK-243, Com Creek Dunes 26-CK-243, Com Creek Dunes Stuart Rockshelter CA-SBR-199, Newberry Cave 26-CK-1345, Atlatl Rockshelter CA-SBR-3801, Owl Canyon 26-CK-1384, Autalt Rockshelter CA-SBR-3801, Owl Canyon 26-CK-1384, Turtle Bone site 26-CK-1987, Quail Point 26-CK-1991, Roadside Roast 26-CK-1992, Quail Point 26-CK-1991, Roadside Roast 26-CK-1991, Low Way Back Willow Beach, AZ 26-CK-1088, Pestisite	26-CK-1088, Pestisite 26-CK-1091, Roadside Roast 26-CK-1091, Roadside Roast 26-CK-1300, Mule Springs CA-SBR-798, Clark Mountain 26-CK-1, Bird Springs 26-CK-1, Bird Springs CA-SBR-489, Clark Mountain CA-SBR-798, Clark Mountain CA-SBR-798, Clark Mountain CA-SBR-798, Clark Mountain CA-SBR-798, Clark Mountain CA-SBR-778, Foehn Lake AZ AA:12:49, Dakota Wash AZ AA:12:49, Dakota Wash AZ AA:12:49, Dakota Wash CA-KER-875, Koehn Lake CA-SBR-483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-72, Oro Grande CA-SBR-73, No Grande CA-SBR-77, Oro Grande CA-SBR-77, Koehn Lake AZ AA:12:484, Hawk's Nest 26-CK-300, Mule Springs CA-KER-875, Koehn Lake AZ EE:2:105 AZ U:1548, Jones Ruin
¹⁴ C YBP ^a Temporal Association	Lake Mojave, Pinto 7,000-4,000 B.P. ^c 7,000-4,000 B.P. ^c Atlatl I preceramic Atlatl II preceramic Atlatl II preceramic	to 680±50 1,330-650 B.P.° 1,250-1,050 B.P.° 1,250-970 B.P.° 1,150-250 B.P.° 1,150-250 B.P.°

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CA-SBR-85, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-85, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-87, West Camp CA-SBR-87, West Camp CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon Sutton and Yohe 1989 CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon Sutton and Yohe 1989 CA-SBR-86, Afron Canyon CA-SBR-11, Tanquility site SO-650 B.P. AZ U1537, Casa Buena GSD-100 B.P. AZ U1537, Casa Buena GSD-100 B.P. AZ U1537, Casa Buena GSD-100 B.P. AZ T1330, Agua Fria CA-SBR-81, No Name West Basin Douglas 1985 CA-SBR-820, Cronese Lakes CA-SBR-820, Donaing Springs CA-SBR-820, No Name West Basin Douglas 1985' CA-SBR		Locus V
ca. 850 B.P. 850-650 B.P. 650-100 B.P.	Minimal remains Minimal remains in each of 6 loci Minimal remains? Minimal remains? Minimal remains Very frequent remains Very frequent remains Carapace pendant, ceramics Minimal remains Sucy frequent remains All skeletal remains Very frequent remains	Very frequent remains
ca. 850 B.P. 850-650 B.P. 650-100 B.P.	Sutton and Yohe 1989 Ciolek-Torrello et al. 1988 Leonard and Drover 1980 Gillespie 1987 Brooks and Larson 1975 Sutton and Yohe 1989 Fowler et al. 1973 Ciolek-Torrello et al. 1988 Brooks and Larson 1975 Szuter 1984 Hatch and Howard 1988 Basgall et al. 1988 Brooks and Larson 1975 Pinto 1989 Sutton 1987; Yohe 1987 Wilke 1978 Wilke 1978 Wilke 1978 Douglas 1985 Kent 1985 Douglas 1985 Kent 1985 Douglas 1985 Sutton and Yohe 1987 Douglas 1985 Sutton and Yohe 1987 Douglas 1985 Sutton and Yohe 1987 Douglas 1985 Sutton 1987; Yohe 1987 Douglas 1985 Drover 1979; Langenwalter 1978a Cilreah et al. 1987	Douglas 1985
2	CA-SBR-85, Afton Canyon NA:18:003, Brady Wash CA-SBR-807, West Camp AZ BB:13:14, San Xavier Bridge 26-CK-1081, Rattlesnake site CA-SBR-85, Afton Canyon 26-LN-418, O'Malley Shelter AZ AA:348 (NA:18:001), Whip It AZ AA:348 (NA:18:001), Whip It AZ CI:12:37, Casa Buena CA-SBR-100, Lakeshore site AZ T:12:37, Casa Buena CA-SBR-260, Cronese Lakes CA-SBR-260, Cronese Lakes CA-SBR-280, Cronese Lakes CA-SBR-289, Donning Springs CA-KIV-81, Wadi Beadmaker CA-SBR-117, Mitchell Cavering CA-SBR-4483, No Name West Basin 26-CK-1081, Rattlesnake site CA-SBR-85, Denning Springs CA-RIV-1766, Myoma Dunes CA-SBR-85, Afton Canyon CA-SBR-85, Afton Canyon CA-SBR-483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-384, Tiefort Basin CA-SBR-483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4483, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-449, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4499, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4499, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4499, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4504, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4504, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-4499, No Name West Basin CA-SBR-489, No Name West Basin	CA-SBR-4504, No Name west basin
920 + 70	5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	леш

^a Years Before Present. Radiocarbon dates are presented here only when they were considered valid by the various investigators, i.e. confirmed by contextual orientation. Omitted are radiocarbon dates considered to be invalid for one reason or another by the investigators of each study. Diadications of the frequencies or proportions of Xerobaces agassizii remains are in relation to the total faunal assemblage in most cases. "Few" or "rare" means <5 specimens; "moderate" means up to 20% of the assemblage; "frequent" means 25-35% of the assemblage; "very frequent" means 35-75% of the assemblage. In some cases, only the presence of tortoise is noted. "MNI" refers to minimum number of individuals. Cross-dated with reference to faunal remains at other sites. Andiocarbon dates from Gilreath et al. 1987.</p>

CERAMIC ASSOCIATIONS OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES WITH XEROBATES AGASSIZII (DESERT TORTOISE) (NO RADIOCARBON DATES)

Comments	Carapace filled with hematite	Carapace	Carapace scoops	Carapace and skeletal remains		Lower midden	Atlatl III level, frequent remains	Atlati III level, very frequent remains	Extremely frequent remains			Burned carapace	Carapace	Caranace fragments	and the same		Atlati IV level, trequent remains	Atlatl IV level	Unit VII, protohistoric	Carapace, modified, painted	Extremely frequent remains		Levels 1,2,3, moderate remains	bearing animal and a second	Modelate lemains, ourned	MNI = 2, Kinosternon pendant (?)	
Ceramic Type*	Virgin Anasazi	Virgin Anasazi	Pueblo	Virgin Anasazi	Pueblo	Anasazi	Anasazi	Anasazi	Virgin Anasazi	Anasazi	Anasazi	Pueblo/Painte	Painte	Dointe	rainte	Painte	Painte	Painte	Shoshonean	Shoshonean basketry	Painte	Paiute	Hohokam	Hohokam	Hohokam	Hohokam	
Site Type	Structure	Cave	Turquoise mine	Structure, burials	Rockshelter	Cave	Rockshelter	Open, dune	Open, wash	Rockshelter	Open	Cave	Cave		I urquoise mine	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	Caves 1, 2	Open, wash	Rockshelter	Upper cave		Pithouse, hearth	Pithouse, trash pit Pithouses, trash	
Reference	Havden 1930	Harrington 1930	Rogers 1929	Shutler 1961	Shutler et al. 1960	Sutton et al. 1987	Warren 1982; Douglas 1982	Warren 1982; Douglas 1982	Rafferty, pers. comm. 1988	Davis 1962	Warren et al. 1972	Jensen MS	Userington 1930	Trainington 1200	Leonard and Drover 1980	Shutler et al. 1960	Warren 1982; Douglas 1982	Warren 1982: Douglas 1982	Fowler et al. 1973	Howe 1980	Rafferty, pers. comm. 1988	Davis 1962	Haury 1950	Haury 1938	James 1986	James 1989b	Januar 1997
Site	Mere House Newada	Painte Cave Nevada	Fact Camp California	Lost City Nevada	Stuart Rockshelter Nevada	CA-SBR-334. Southcott Cave	26-CK-1345. Atlati Rockshelter	26-CK-1384 Turtle Bone site	26-CK-1526. Berger site	CA-SBR-288. Rustler Rockshelter	26-CK-948 Big Spring	CA-SBR-2226, Half Moon Cave		Painte Cave, Nevada	West Camp, California	Stuart Rockshelter, Nevada	26-CK-1345 Atlati Rockshelter	26 CV 1393 Couth Chelter	24 I N 419 O'Maller: Shelter	Disch Comma California	26-CK-1528 Berger sile	CA-SBR-288, Rustler Rockshelter	Ventana Cave. Arizona	AZ U:13:1, Snaketown	AZ AA:3:126, Lovely site	AZ U:6:37, Blue Point Bridge	AL U.S.S, FINITACIE FEAR

Pueblo/Anasazi: ca. 1,450 B.P. to 800 B.P.; Paiute: ca. 950 B.P. to 200 B.P.; Desert Hohokam: ca. 1,150 B.P. to 550 B.P.

Table 3 SITES WITH XEROBATES AGASSIZII (DESERT TORTOISE) REMAINS UNKNOWN CHRONOLOGICAL PLACEMENT

Comments or Association	Carapace bowls Plastons and caranace	Carapace, plastron, skeletal remains		Burned and butchered	Cottonwood point, glass bead		Very frequent remains			Desert Side-notched points	Tizon brownware	Probably Death Valley IV	Probably Death Valley IV	Large percentage of few faunal remains	"Preceramic," frequent remains	Tortoise carapace, modified (?)	"Preceramic," frequent remains		Skeletal and shell fragments	Skeletal and shell fragments	Frequent remains	Frequent skeletal and shell remains	Frequent skeletal and shell remains	Frequent skeletal and shell remains	MNI = 10, Hohokam	MNI=2, Hohokam	Minimal remains, Hohokam	MNI=2, Pleistocene fauna
Site Type	Cave	Cremations	Rockshelter	Temporary camp	Open, base of cliff	Open, two components	Open		Hearths in dunes			Mesquite dunes	Open camp	Open, marsh	Open, marsh	Rockshelter	Open, wash		Roasting pits	Roasting pits	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	Rockshelter	ć	ć.	Field house	Rockshelter
Reference	Harrington 1933 Peck and Smith 1957 Cambrell 1931	Goodman pers. comm. 1989	Yohe, pers. comm. 1988	Sutton and Tremblay 1977	Sutton 1988	Yohe, pers. comm. 1988	Douglas 1985	Schroth 1983	Douglas 1980	Basgall et al. 1988	Basgall et al. 1988	Hunt 1960	Hunt 1960	Wallace 1986	Wallace and Taylor 1959	Macko et al. 1982	Rafferty, pers. comm. 1988	Brooks and Larson 1975	Brooks et al. 1982	Brooks et al. 1982	Douglas 1986	Connolly and Eckert 1969	Connolly and Eckert 1969	Connolly and Eckert 1969	Ciolek-Torrello et al. 1988; Weaver 1988	Ciolek-Torrello et al. 1988; Weaver 1988	Ciolek-Torrello et al. 1988; Weaver 1988	Smith 1963
iod Site	Gypsum Cave CA-SBR-51,-52,-53, Seep Spring Tuenth rine Polme carie	I wenty-nine raims oasis Toshua Tree National Monument	CA-KER-147, Red Rock Canyon	CA-KER-495, Edwards A.F.B.	CA-KER-517, California City	CA-KER-2211, Cantill	CA-SBR-4509, No Name Basin	CA-SBR-363B, Soda Spring	Late and Modern CA-SBR-4040, Soda Lake	CA-SBR-4450, Drinkwater Basin	CA-SBR-4441, Drinkwater Basin	41-56, Bennetts Well	126-56, Furnace Creek Fan	CA-SBR-5545, Saratoga Springs 3	CA-SBR-90, Saratoga Springs 1	CA-SBR-2343	26-CK-1528, Berger site	26-CK-1113	26-CK-1482, Barbeque site	26-CK-1481, Happy Face site	26-CK-3023, Scout Shelter	26-CK-415, Flaharty site	26-CK-303, Out-of-Site	26-CK-304, R and K site	AZ AA:7:32 (NA:18:030), Rock Terrace	AZ AA:7:15 (NA:18:031), McClellan Wash	NA:18:037	CA-SBR-316, Schuiling Cave
Likely Time Period	Pueblo/Late Late	Late	Late	Very late	Late	Late	Late	Late	Late and Moder	Late	Late	Late	Late		ċ		i	·	Late	Late		Late	Late	Late	·			i

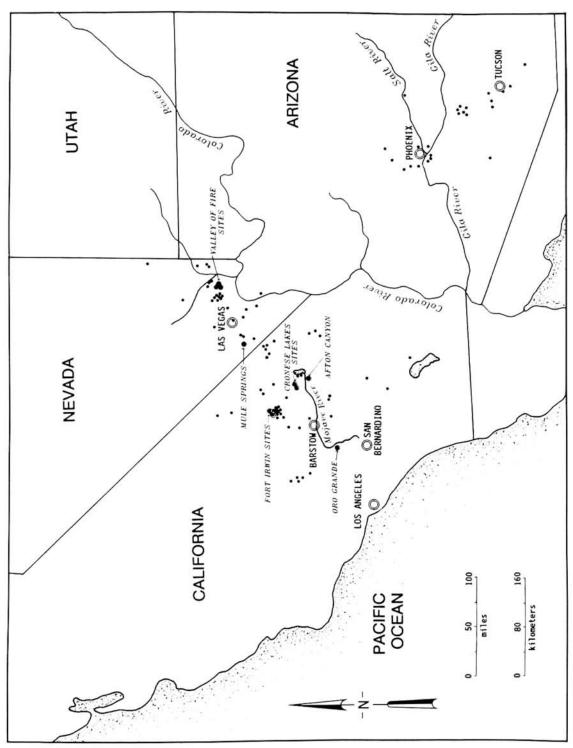


Fig. 1. Locations of archaeological sites from which the remains of Xerobates agassizii have been recovered. Each small dot represents one site. The larger encircled dots that are labelled represent sites specifically discussed in the text.

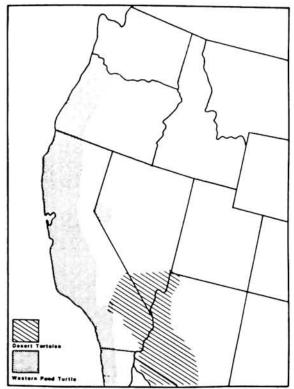


Fig. 2. The present ranges of desert tortoise (Xerobates agassizii) and western pond turtle (Clemmys marmorata) in southwestern North America. Adapted from Stebbins (1966).

species (C. m. pallida) lies west of the Sierra Nevada crest from San Francisco Bay south into northwestern Baja California (Fig. 2). There are a few eastern extensions of the range, including one running north and then east along the course of the Mojave River, and other isolated populations along the Carson and Truckee rivers in western Nevada.

Western pond turtles are from 8.9 to 17.8 cm. in diameter. The smooth, broad, and low-profile carapace (dorsal shell, Fig. 3) is olive to dark brown in color. The plastron (ventral shell, Fig. 3) is pale yellow and on males is concave. As with other aquatic turtles, *C. marmorata* enjoys basking in the sun and feeds mostly on aquatic plants, insects, and carrion. Females lay from three to 11 oval, hard-shelled eggs in an earthen chamber next to or near water, sometime between April and

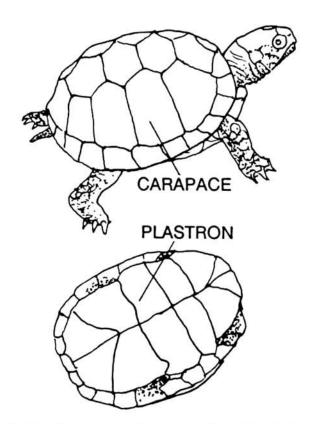


Fig. 3. General schematic representation of tortoise/ turtle indicating portions discussed in text. Adapted from Stebbins (1966).

August (depending upon latitude). The incubation period is about 12 weeks (Behler and King 1979). Western pond turtles hibernate in mud for approximately six months during the colder part of the year (Stebbins 1966).

Desert Tortoise (Xerobates agassizii)

The desert tortoise is strictly terrestrial (Fig. 4). The high, domed carapace is oblong and brown; the plastron is yellowish, the male plastron being concave (Behler and King 1979). The front pair of the round, stumpy, elephantine legs are adapted for digging. The tortoise can reach a length of more than 35 cm., but most average about 25 cm. (Dodd 1986).²

The desert tortoise now is an inhabitant of the Mojave, Colorado, and Sonoran deserts



Fig. 4. The desert tortoise (Xerobates agassizii).

and ranges from extreme southwestern Utah, southern Nevada, southern and western Arizona, and southeastern California to northern Mexico (Stebbins 1966; Dodd 1986; Fig. 2). It is found associated with a variety of desert plant communities, including Creosote Bush Scrub, Cactus Scrub, Shadscale Scrub, and Joshua Tree Woodland (Luckenbach 1982).

Evidence from packrat middens (which document the association of desert tortoise remains with *Pinus edulis, Quercus pungens*, and *Juniperus* sp. at about 12,000 B.P.) in New Mexico and Texas attest to a more ecologically diversified and expanded range in the past (Van Devender and Moodie 1977). Late Pleistocene fossils of desert tortoise range as far west as coastal California and as far east as Dry Cave, near Carlsbad, New Mexico

(Van Devender and Moodie 1977). Beginning approximately 8,000 B.P. the range appears to have contracted to its modern configuration.

The desert tortoise is a vegetarian, feeding on grasses, young and tender plant shoots, and flowers during the cooler hours of the day. During the heat of the desert day, the tortoise retreats to a burrow. Hibernation in burrows or dens was thought to occur from about October to early March (Stebbins 1966), but new information indicates that it is variable, depending on individuals and environmental conditions (see Dodd [1986] for a summary of new data).

The female desert tortoise lays from three to seven leathery-shelled eggs in a six-inch-deep nest often located at the mouth of a burrow (Behler and King 1979; Dodd 1986). Local environmental conditions may result in

variation of clutch size and number of clutches per year, ranging from none to two (Dodd 1986) or three (Behler and King 1979).

Tortoise burrows also vary in their configuration depending on season of use and latitude (Woodbury and Hardy 1948; Dodd 1986). Burrowing habits have major implications for the cultural use of the desert tortoise by aboriginal peoples (see below). Woodbury and Hardy (1948) studied the desert tortoise on Beaver Dam Slope in Utah and differentiated between summer and winter burrows (dens). More recent work (Burge 1978) has shown that the differentiation is somewhat less definite and variable. Woodbury and Hardy (1948) reported that winter dens generally are permanent excavations, and are reused year after year for winter hibernation (Fig. 5). These winter dens usually are found in small clusters in compact gravel banks and run horizontally into the bank for distances up to 10 m. (Woodbury and Hardy 1948). Often up to a dozen tortoises will share a winter The dens are large, most with a den. characteristic half-moon-shaped entrance (Fig. 6). Other animals, notably packrats, mice, rabbits, lizards, and snakes, make use of tortoise dens. The debris of these animals often fills the tunnel entrances. Old twigs and cactus spines, which are the nesting materials of rodents, may offer the tortoises some measure of protection from intruders, but the activity trails of the rodents can indicate the presence of a tortoise den (Woodbury and Hardy 1948). Some winter dens are large enough to be entered by a grown man (Woodbury and Hardy 1948). Winter dens also can be natural features such as a deep niche in a rock wall (Fig. 7).

In contrast, summer shelters are temporary retreats, constructed annually, and used by individual tortoises during the active season (Fig. 5). These burrows are dug from 1 to 1.5 m. into the ground at an angle of 20°

to 40°. The tortoises pass the heat of the day in these shelters. Rarely is a hole reused the following year, for weather and rodent activity usually cause them to be filled in between seasons (Woodbury and Hardy 1948).

Sources of biological, ecological, behavioral, paleontological, and taxonomic information on the desert tortoise have been gathered in an annotated bibliography (Hohman et al. 1980). A comprehensive compendium of information on the desert tortoise has been prepared by Berry (1984).

OVERLAPPING OF RANGES AND TERMINOLOGY

The present range of the desert tortoise overlaps that of the western pond turtle in portions of the southwestern Great Basin, especially along the Mojave River in southeastern California and at locations in extreme western Nevada (Fig. 2). The co-occurrence of these species leads to potentially confusing archaeological faunas. There often is difficulty in distinguishing between the two taxa from fragmented specimens. This is especially troublesome when species identity is used to make inferences about seasonality of site use and environmental conditions. The western pond turtle is an aquatic animal and requires a year-round water source while the desert tortoise is a dweller of arid lands. Differing ecological requirements and species-specific hibernation patterns have important implications for the archaeologist both in cultural and paleoenvironmental reconstruction.3

Adding to the confusion from the overlap of ranges is confusion of terminology in the ethnographic, archaeologic, and zoologic literature. "Turtle" often is used generically with little attempt at identification of species; sometimes "turtle" and "tortoise" are used interchangeably to refer to the same animal (e.g., Ebeling 1986).

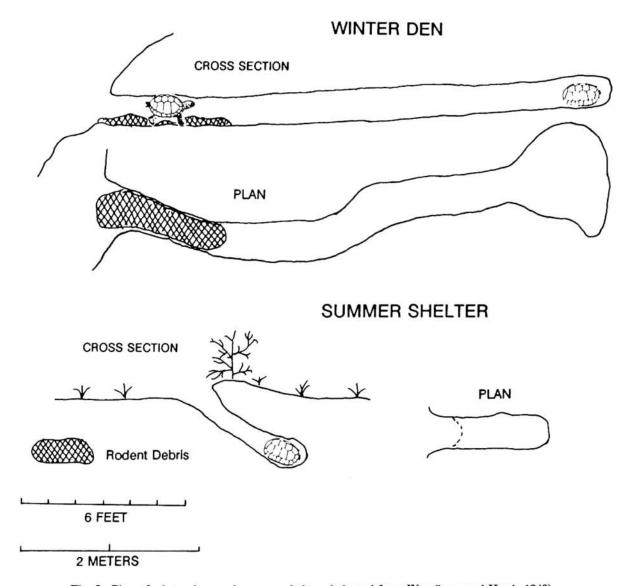


Fig. 5. Plan of winter dens and summer shelters (adapted from Woodbury and Hardy 1948).

THE DESERT TORTOISE IN ETHNOGRAPHIC CONTEXT

The use of the desert tortoise by aboriginal people has been poorly documented in the ethnographic literature, in spite of a wide distribution of remains in the archaeological record. Relevant information is considered under five categories: subsistence, ceremonial or ritualistic use, medicinal use, technological and household use, and symbolic and mythical associations. However, much of the literature does not distinguish between tortoise and turtle, leading to confusion.

Subsistence

Ethnographic documentation of desert tortoise as a subsistence item is sparse. Culture Element Distribution (CED) lists, a prime source of ethnographic information, often provide only "yes" or "no" answers to



Fig. 6. A desert tortoise burrow entrance. Note the characteristic half-moon-shaped entry. Suburban Las Vegas, Clark County, Nevada.

questions posed about various foods eaten. Tortoises were eaten by many desert-dwelling aboriginal groups, including the Cupeño. Southern Diegueño (Ipai), Chemehuevi (Drucker 1937); the Southern Paiute of Ash Meadows and the Shoshoni of Beatty, Nevada (Steward 1941); the Taviwatsiu Ute (Stewart 1942); the Yokuts, Owens Valley Paiute, Mono, Tübatulabal, and Panamint Shoshoni (Driver 1937); the Yuma (McGuire and Schiffer 1982; Trippel 1984); the Maricopa (Castetter and Bell 1951); the Papago (Castetter and Bell 1942); the Yavapai (White and Stevens 1980); and the Cahuilla (Bean 1972). Informants from other groups either denied, or were uninformed, about the use of tortoise as food. The Mohave, however, had a great aversion to eating tortoise and spoke in a derogatory manner about groups that did eat the animal (Kroeber 1925; Laird 1976). Drucker (1941:171) reported that among the Yuma and Pima groups from which he gathered information any "turtle" was considered In historic times, Paiute and poisonous. Chemehuevi camps were considered ethnically distinctive because of the abundance of castout tortoise shells littering the fringes of settlements (Mollhausen 1858:287; Battye Southern Paintes near the Great 1934a). Bend of the Colorado River ate tortoises until



Fig. 7. A desert tortoise winter den beneath a rock overhang, Joshua Tree National Monument, San Bernardino County, California.

the late 1860s (Stejneger 1893).

Nutritional analysis has shown that 100 g. of tortoise meat provides slightly fewer calories than the same amount of squab (Connolly and Eckert 1969). Tortoise meat was described as "delicious" (James 1906; Battye 1934a, 1934b) and as delicate in taste, similar to chicken, but slightly coarser in texture (Connolly and Eckert 1969). However, an 1862 traveler in Nevada tried eating a desert tortoise and noted (Fairchild 1933:14):

Though there was considerable meat upon the carcass of the reptile, I admit that I did not relish it as well as I did the ordinary plain "jerky"-perhaps on account of the manner of cooking.

Mexican traders reportedly recognized the potential for a readily portable and storable source of protein and water and carried live tortoises on their journeys (Pepper 1963).

The preparation of tortoise meat is not well documented in the ethnographic literature. The Cahuilla roasted the tortoise (Bean 1972). The Papago removed the plastron, packed the interior with hot pebbles, and roasted the tortoise in its shell in the ashes of a fire (White and Stevens 1980). The Yavapai baked tortoise in an earthenware oven (White and Stevens 1980). Historical accounts describe placing the live tortoise on

its back on the glowing embers of a fire, roasting it in its own shell (Mollhausen 1858: 287); killing the animal, removing the shell and skin and boiling the flesh with seasonings (James 1906:199); and breaking open the plastron, inserting a hot stone in the body cavity and roasting on a fire (Felger et al. 1981). The Seri Indians of the west coast of mainland Mexico first twisted off the legs and ate them before the rest of the meat was consumed (Felger et al. 1981).

Charring on the dorsal side of carapace fragments found in some archaeological contexts suggests that the animal often was placed on its back while being roasted (e.g., Connolly and Eckert 1969; Langenwalter et al. 1983). Tortoise fragments have been found in the excavation of limestone ring middens identified as roasting pits for agave and other plant foods (Blair 1986; Rafferty and Blair 1987; Kroesen and Schneider n.d.). Agave and tortoise may have been gathered, cooked, and eaten together in the early spring in the Clark Mountain area of eastern California (Kroesen and Schneider n.d.).

Tortoise procurement also is poorly documented. A search of the literature pertaining to groups living in the study area had negative results (Steward 1933, 1938, 1941; Drucker 1937; Stewart 1941, 1942; Bean 1972; Laird 1976). The best account of hunting practices comes from the Seri (Felger et al. 1981) and has important archaeological implications for the southwestern Great Basin.

Although faunal analysts have used the presence of desert tortoise remains as an indication of spring, summer, and/or early fall site seasonality, this is not necessarily a valid inference. Seri women, using dogs specially trained to locate tortoises by smell, hunted that animal during its active season. Three or four tortoises were placed in a basket that was carried on the head. Tortoises were lured out of their burrows with water placed near the

entrances. The tortoise sensed the presence of the water, came out of the burrow, and was seized by the hunter (Felger et al. 1981). The Seri also obtained tortoise during the winter months when the animal was in hibernation. Wire hooks at the ends of long poles were thrust into dens (winter burrows) to drag tortoises out (Felger et al. 1981).

It is our view that tortoises may have been used by aboriginal peoples of the Great Basin year-round. Winter dens as well as summer shelters certainly could have been recognized by desert people as places where tortoises predictably were available. Field observation by the senior author established that winter hibernation locations are readily recognizable and that tortoises within these dens or burrows can be observed directly in some cases. Our view is substantiated by a recent report describing a technique that biologists have used to capture tortoises when they are "Tapping" on the within their burrows. carapace or on the floor or roof of the burrow, with a pole or stick, and then retreating a short distance usually resulted in the tortoise emerging to the burrow entrance (Medica et al. 1986). If burrow locations were known, a simple technique such as this would have made tortoise procurement more reliable than procurement based on chance encounter. In addition, desert tortoise behavior reportedly includes aspects of homing and reuse of winter burrows (Woodbury and Hardy 1948; Berry 1986); these characteristics would add to the likelihood that aboriginal people knew where to find tortoises during all seasons of the year. If this were the case, the desert tortoise was not only available, but had the additional benefit of self-storage, i.e., that it was in a known location where it could be used when needed, but did not require the preservation methods used in the storage of other subsistence items (i.e., drying, parching, storage containers).

The possibility that tortoises were used as living reservoirs of water has been suggested (James 1906; Woodbury and Hardy 1948). The urinary bladder of an adult tortoise can yield up to one-half pint of potable water. Waste materials are concentrated in the form of solid uric acid, which is less toxic than urea. When picked up, frightened, or molested, the tortoise will discharge this water. This mechanism may have provided life-saving water to desert travelers.

Ceremonial or Ritualistic Use

The use of rattles made of turtle or young tortoise shell has been recorded for the Cupeño, Luiseño, and various Diegueño groups. These rattles were used for specific ceremonies such as mourning, first fruits, and girls' puberty ceremonies (Du Bois 1908; Kroeber 1908; Sparkman 1908; Waterman 1909; Drucker 1937). Steward (1933, 1938, 1941) and Stewart (1941, 1942) did not report any ceremonial use of turtles or tortoises. The use of ceremonial rattles seems to be more prevalent on and near the Pacific coast. Specimens were recovered at Oro Grande (CA-SBR-72) in the Mojave Desert (Rector et al. 1983), but they may represent trade goods or coastal influences. A tortoise-shell rattle is in the collections of the Palm Springs Desert Museum (Cheryl Jeffrey, personal communication 1989) and possibly may have been used by Cahuilla groups in that area.

The ceremonial use of tortoises or turtles by aboriginal Mesoamerican groups may be represented in the various codices and architectural motifs compiled by Seler (1939). These include use as a rattle, a drum beaten with an antler, and ceremonial garb.

Medicinal Use

Medicinal use of the tortoise has been recorded by only one ethnographer (Gifford 1936). The Yavapai pulverized the shell and rubbed it on the belly to relieve stomach problems. The same group mixed the pulverized shell with boiled tortoise urine and drank the mixture as a cure for urinary problems (Gifford 1936).

Technological and Household Use

The Cahuilla used tortoises for household utensils (Bean 1972). The Chemehuevi used the carapace as a ladle and as a container in which seeds were parched with hot coals (Drucker 1937), and sometimes used tortoise shell fragments as spoons for children (Kelly MSa). The Southern Paiute of Ash Meadows, Nevada, used a dipper of "turtle shell" (Steward 1941), as did the Shivwitz Southern Paiute and the Wimönuntci Ute (Stewart 1942).

Tortoise carapace fragments were found at aboriginal turquoise mines in the vicinity of Halloran Springs. Malcolm Rogers (1929) thought that these had been used as hand scoops to "muck out" excavations (Heizer and Treganza 1944). An account of a Mohave-Chemehuevi battle includes the use of "turtle shells" to dig a grave for a victim wrapped in buckskin (Van Valkenburgh 1976).

The Shivwitz Paiute of southern Utah made coiled pottery and used a piece of "turtle shell" to smooth both the interior and exterior surfaces of a vessel (Lowie 1924:225-226). Tortoise shell bowls in the possession of Paiute and Gosiute groups probably were obtained in trade (Fowler and Matley 1979).

During the Carleton campaign against the Paiute in June of 1860 "terrapin shells full of salt mixed with a yellowish kind of earth..." were found near planted and irrigated gardens at what was probably Cornfield Spring (Casebier 1972:34).

Symbolism and Myth

The incorporation of turtle or tortoise motifs or themes in aboriginal design and oral tradition suggests that spiritual values and

symbolic significance were connected with these reptiles. Representational tortoise/ turtle elements were thought originally to be absent at Mojave Desert rock art sites (Rector 1981) and those at central Baja California sites were reported to be sea turtle (Rector and Ritter 1978). Investigations of Nevada petroglyph sites in the Valley of Fire by the senior author have resulted in the recording of eight tortoise/turtle motifs (Fig. 8). Similar motifs are reported to be present at other sites in the Valley of Fire (Eileen Green, personal communication 1986); at Piute Creek, Piute Spring, and the Rodman Mountains (Arda Haenszel, personal communication 1986); and at Cow Cove (Daniel McCarthy, personal communication 1986). Although many of these sites have not been visited by the authors, it does appear that tortoise/turtle motifs have a wider occurrence in the desert regions than originally was recognized. Interpretations of rock art remain hypothetical; animal motifs have been related to sympathetic "hunting magic" and have been attributed to clan symbolism (Eileen Green, personal communication 1986).

A finely made basket that incorporates a tortoise or turtle motif in its base is in the collections of the Palm Springs Desert Museum (Cheryl Jeffrey, personal communication 1989).

A tortoise/turtle design has been reported on Mohave pottery (Kroeber and Harner 1955). The tortoise food taboo practiced by the Mohave (Kroeber 1925; Laird 1976) and the characterization of "Turtle" in Mohave myth (see below) suggest special significance for the tortoise/turtle in Mohave symbolism.

The Las Vegas band of the Southern Paiute fed "turtles" (as well as chuckwalla and rabbit) to eagles that were taken from their nests when young and raised in cages for ceremonial use (Kelly MSb).



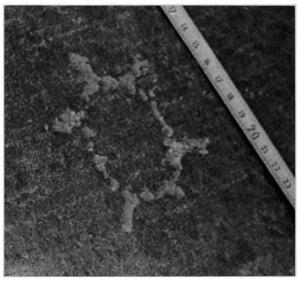


Fig. 8. Tortoise/turtle petroglyph motifs, Valley of Fire, Nevada.

Tortoise/turtle symbolism is a widespread cultural phenomenon. Some common symbolic interpretations include that of long or eternal life, revered old age (a recognition of the longevity of tortoises) and a base or form of the earth. Mayan symbolism in this respect has recently been discussed by Taube (1988) in his report on Mayan Katun wheels and ceremonial bloodletting receptacles. Seler (1939) collected a wide variety of tortoise/turtle motifs from codices and other representational media and discussed their possible symbolic meanings.

"Turtle" appeared to represent a characterization of both tortoises and turtles in a number of myths (at least those myths translated to English in the literature of the Desert Southwest), for the term is used interchangeably in regions where one or the other or both of the animals are present. Among the Chemehuevi, the "turtle" was a symbol of the spirit of the people and had an aura of sacredness (Laird 1976). In one myth, "Turtle" had the role of a lesser chief in a tale of a violated food cache. At the end, "Turtle" accepted inevitable doom and died with great dignity. "He thus expresses the Chemehuevi ideal: patience to endure, strength to survive, courage when all hope is lost" (Laird 1976:277). Other myths portrayed the "turtle" as both a semi-villain (Beals 1945) and as a stranger (Gifford 1936). A Mohave song called "Turtle" recalled a westward journey in the direction of the Chemehuevi who ate turtle (Kroeber 1925). A coyote tale called "Iron-Clothes" related how the "land turtle" came to be used as food and how it was cooked and eaten (Sapir 1930). The unique character of the tortoise/ turtle including its physical form, longevity, speed of locomotion, and other behavioral patterns represented a sharp contrast to many other animals and thus, perhaps, qualified it for a place in the symbolism and myth of aboriginal peoples.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL DATA

Desert tortoise and western pond turtle remains have been recovered at numerous archaeological sites in the southwestern Great Basin and adjacent areas (Fig. 1). These remains include unmodified fragmental specimens (both burned and unburned) identified in faunal analyses, tortoise eggs, portions of turtle and tortoise carapace bearing traces of asphaltum, and tortoise carapace "bowls" and "scoops" scraped on the interior and ground on one or more edges.

The problem of distinguishing naturally occurring tortoise and turtle remains from culturally modified ones in archaeological sites is not confined to these species, but extends to faunal remains in general. There is no question that ground, drilled, decorated, or otherwise modified specimens are an indication of cultural use. However, burned specimens, often accepted as indicators of cultural activity also could be a result of accidental burns such as brush fires. Conversely, a lack of burning does not necessarily mean that the presence of faunal remains is a natural occurrence (see ethnographic descriptions of tortoise preparation given above). The subjective judgement of the investigator should be recognized.

Data relating to the occurrence and frequency of desert tortoise and various turtle remains have been collected from a variety of reports of archaeological investigations within the southwestern Great Basin and adjacent areas (Tables 1-3). Data indicate that high frequencies of tortoise and/or turtle remains occur in a number of sites including Afton Canyon (Sutton and Yohe 1989); Oro Grande (Langenwalter et al. 1983); Cronese Lakes (Drover 1979); Fort Irwin sites in Drinkwater Basin (Reynolds and Shaw 1982), Tiefort Basin (Kent 1985), and No Name West Basin (Douglas 1984, 1985); and Atlatl Rockshelter (Douglas 1982). Archaeologists should be aware that, especially when dealing with turtles and tortoises, over-representation in numerical totals may occur when MNI (Mini-

mum Number of Individuals) analysis is not used. Theoretically, if the entire animal was carried to the site (as is the case with most small animals) all skeletal elements may be represented in the assemblage. animals butchered elsewhere may be represented by fewer elements since only those animal parts with greater economic value would be selectively transported to a habitation site (Binford 1978). Cooking methods such as roasting in the shell also may result in over-representation of tortoise and turtle in faunal collections because carbonization improves preservation of carapace and plas-In addition, the unique tron fragments. characteristics of the carapace and plastron make even fragmentary specimens more easily identified than bone fragments of some other animals.

Selected Archaeological Sites with Tortoise/Turtle Remains

With the above qualifications in mind, selected archaeological sites in the Mojave Desert (Fig. 1) with high frequencies of desert tortoise and/or western pond turtle remains will be discussed. It is beyond the scope of this paper to consider individually all sites with reported tortoise or turtle remains. However, all the sites that the authors have identified from published (and some unpublished) literature are presented in Tables 1-3 with appropriate references for the interested reader. A synthetic discussion of the archaeological incidence of desert tortoise considers the data from all of these sites.

Oro Grande (CA-SBR-72). At Oro Grande, a seasonal camp on the Mojave River just north of Victorville, dated to ca. A.D. 1000, Rector et al. (1983) reported both turtle and tortoise remains. Although tortoise egg shell fragments (even those that were burned) and whole sterile eggs were dismissed as non-cultural, the tortoise skeletal remains were

considered cultural (Langenwalter et al. 1983). Tortoise remains were distributed in all of the three areas of the site with greater frequencies in the two more heavily utilized areas (Rector et al. 1983).

The specimens of western pond turtle were artifactual and probably represented the remains of two or more rattles. Several of the turtle shell fragments were drilled and some were stained with asphaltum. Both characteristics are indicators that the shell was used as a rattle. One specimen of desert tortoise shell also bears traces of asphaltum, possibly indicating that tortoise shell also was used for rattles (Langenwalter et al. 1983).

Afton Canyon (CA-SBR-85). Analysis of the faunal collection from the Afton Canyon site on the Mojave River indicated high frequencies of desert tortoise (Sutton and Yohe 1989). The desert tortoise apparently was an important source of protein during the time this site was occupied (ca. 1,000 B.P.). Identified specimens of tortoise remains (mostly plastron fragments) were the second most frequent (after bighorn sheep), and more frequent than lagomorphs. Western pond turtle remains were absent although this site is located within the present range of that animal.

Drinkwater Basin (CA-SBR-4213, -4446, -4449, -4450). Excavations in Drinkwater Basin yielded frequent specimens of both desert tortoise and western pond turtle at sites where Rose Spring and Cottonwood projectile points also were Triangular The presence of pond turtle is recovered. interesting because the aquatic habitat required by this species has not been present at this location for more than 10,000 years according to paleoenvironmental reconstructions (Jefferson 1968; Reynolds and Shaw 1982). There was evidence that these animals were cooked and eaten here, apparently after having been roasted (Reynolds and Shaw 1982).

The identification of pond turtle remains at these sites has been questioned (Basgall et al. 1988). There is a possibility that there may have been some confusion between pond turtle and juvenile tortoise specimens. Resolving this faunal question is important because of the environmental and seasonal implications involved.

Cronese Lakes (CA-SBR-259, -260B). The Cronese Lakes are two dry lake beds at the terminus of the Mojave River that occasionally are filled by the flood waters of that river during periods of heavy precipitation. Drover (1979) studied two sites there and found the remains of both western pond turtle and desert tortoise. The pond turtle specimens indicate that either year-round water of suitable quantity was available at Cronese Lakes in the past or that the turtle was imported from the Mojave River (Langenwalter 1978a).

Tortoise was the third most frequent animal identified in the faunal collection. Forty-two of the 530+ (MNI=7) elements collected were burned or calcined. Clustering of the tortoise remains may indicate that the tortoise shell was intact when discarded (Langenwalter 1978a).

Mule Springs (26-CK-300). Substantial tortoise remains were recovered from this southern Nevada site situated at a fairly high elevation (ca. 1,250 m.). The authors noted that the site is at least 152 m. above the 1,067 m. upper elevational range of desert tortoise (Connolly and Eckert 1969). This suggested that tortoises were transported from lower elevations. The presence of charred specimens suggested that tortoises were cooked directly in the fire.

New information from recent studies of modern tortoises indicate that their upper elevational range is greater than 1,067 m. and that the desert tortoise ranges from below sea level to above 2,200 m., although most are found below 1,500 m. (Dodd 1986). These new data indicate that it is not unusual for tortoise remains to occur at sites at higher elevations.

Valley of Fire (26-CK-1345, -1383, -1384). Faunal remains from three sites (Atlatl Rockshelter, South Shelter, and Turtle Bone site [Warren 1982]) near natural water catchments in sandstone outcrops in southern Nevada had high proportions (up to >83% of faunal remains) of desert tortoise elements. Many of the elements, including carapace, plastron, and especially terminal phalanges, were charred. There were no butchering marks. Douglas (1982) interpreted the data from these sites to mean that the tortoise probably was cooked whole over a fire.

These sites were stratified and also showed changes over time in the importance of the various fauna represented in the collection (to be discussed below).

California Coastal Sites. As might be expected from the known range of western pond turtle, remains of this aquatic reptile have been recorded in many coastal southern California archaeological sites including those in Ventura County (Langenwalter 1978b), Long Beach (Wallace 1980), San Clemente and San Miguel islands (Heye 1921), Santa Barbara County, and the Channel Islands (Gifford 1940).

Southern Arizona Sites. Both desert tortoise and turtle (Kinosternon spp.; Terrapene ornata) have been recovered at Hohokam sites in Arizona (Tables 1-3). Here, as in the Mojave and Colorado desert sites, tortoise and turtle ranges overlap. Frequency of remains and proportions of faunal assemblages are quite low at most of these sites. James (1989b), however, noted that both desert tortoise and Sonoran mud turtle (Kinosternon sonoriense) were more important in the Hohokam diet than previously thought, comprising over 29 percent of the

faunal assemblage at one site. Although the Hohokam were horticulturalists, they supplemented their diet by hunting and gathering (Szuter 1989).

Patterns of Archaeological Incidence of Desert Tortoise

Archaeological data from portions of the Great Basin in California, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah support our view that desert tortoise was an important resource to the aboriginal hunter-gatherers and to some extent the horticulturalists of the desert regions of the North American Southwest. These data indicate that tortoise was used throughout a major portion of the Holocene and that certain environmental, cultural, and temporal patterning in the use of this resource can be demonstrated.

Chronological and contextual data for excavated archaeological sites with remains of Xerobates agassizii within California, Nevada, and Arizona are presented in Tables 1-3.4 Compilations of archaeological data of this type are hampered by several factors. First, it is only relatively recently that faunal remains have been routinely analyzed as part of site investigation and reporting. Therefore, it is certain that a good deal of information has been lost from sites excavated in the past. Second, some confusion in the identification of desert tortoise and western pond turtle and other turtle species may exist, especially in a few areas where their present or past ranges may overlap. Third, the interpretation of any unmodified faunal material as cultural, rather than naturally occurring, is always problematic. Fourth, tortoise (and other small animals) may be overrepresented in frequencies in faunal analyses because the bones of larger animals, macerated and splintered in the process of obtaining nutrient-rich marrow, may be difficult to identify. Fifth, tortoise may be further overrepresented in species identification data because the unique characteristics of carapace and plastron fragments make them relatively easy to identify. Sixth, faunal remains from early sites in most of the present range of desert tortoise are rare. Often archaeological deposits of this period are surface or very shallow phenomena and faunal remains are subject to extreme taphonomic processes. With these cautionary statements in mind, compilations of *Xerobates agassizii* data (Tables 1-3) suggest some interesting patterns.

Environmental Patterns. Desert tortoise was widely used prehistorically throughout large portions of its present range. Tortoise remains have been recovered at a variety of site types and features, including open sites with and without midden development, caves and rockshelters, pithouses and trash accumulations, roasting pits and hearths, and in cremation associations (John Goodman, personal communication 1989).

Tortoise remains are found in a wide variety of geographical locations, including rockshelters and open sites in proximity to washes or extinct water courses, such as at the Henwood site (Douglas et al. 1988) and the California Wash sites (Blair 1986); at high elevations such as Mule Springs (Connolly and Eckert 1969; Turner 1978) and Clark Mountain (Rafferty and Blair 1986; Kroesen and Schneider n.d.); at lacustrine sites such as Wadi Beadmaker (Wilke 1978), Koehn Lake (Sutton 1988), and Cronese Lakes (Drover 1979); near natural water catchments such as the Turtle Bone site (Warren 1982); at marshside sites such as Myoma Dunes (Wilke 1978) and Saratoga Springs (Wallace and Taylor 1959; Wallace 1986); at extant and extinct springs such as Rogers Ridge (Douglas et al. 1988), Big Spring (Warren et al. 1972), and Soda Springs (Schroth 1983); and in riparian environments such as Afton Canyon (Schneider 1989), Oro Grande (Rector et al. 1983),

and Willow Beach (Schroeder 1961).

A study of faunal remains from early sites (i.e., Lake Mojave/Pinto Period sites) at Fort Irwin (Douglas et al. 1988) presents a model relating intersite variability in faunal representation to site location, i.e., elevation, catchment area, and topography of the surrounding area. This model was tested using artiodactyl and leporid remains only. It certainly seems reasonable that fauna would be more available and thus more frequent in faunal assemblages in archaeological sites close to the habitats of particular species.

What then, would be the most likely geographic area to have high frequencies of desert tortoise in archaeological assemblages? Above and beyond what was already known, recent studies of desert tortoise range, habitat, and behavior (given impetus by the endangered status of this species) have added information on population locations. For example, a recent study of tortoise habitat at Twentynine Palms, California, found a higher correlation between the locations of tortoise burrows and the edges of galleta grass (Hilaria rigida) stands, than with washes, previously cited most often as prime habitat area (Baxter and Stewart 1987).

Other recent studies have shown that slopes between mountain ranges are prime habitat but that dry lake playas are devoid of tortoises (Berry 1984; Dodd 1986). Mixed ecotonal settings may have a correlation with tortoise habitat, and thus with high frequencies of tortoise remains at archaeological sites.

Patterns of Cultural Use. Desert tortoise remains in archaeological sites show several different patterns: carapace fragments only, skeletal fragments only, both carapace/plastron and skeletal elements, and carapace elements modified for technological, ornamental, or ceremonial use. Presence or absence of burned elements (as discussed in the ethnographic section above), especially differen-

tial burning of carapace/plastron fragments, has been used by faunal analysts to infer various methods of cooking. Analysis of intersite variability in the patterns of remains has the potential for obtaining significant information about cultural practices, food preferences, and exchange.

Temporal Patterns. Changes in subsistence patterns over time sometimes can be recognized by differences in frequencies of various species making up faunal assemblages and the *relative* importance of one resource compared to others (e.g., artiodactyl and leporids [Douglas et al. 1988]; artiodactyl, leporids, and tortoise [Sutton and Yohe 1989]; tortoise and artiodactyl [Warren 1982]).

Douglas et al. (1988) noted that data from sites at Ft. Irwin indicate that after the Pinto Period tortoise became an important component of faunal assemblages and that high frequencies of tortoise remains may be indicative of more recent cultures (i.e., cultures dating after the Lake Mojave/Pinto Period).

Warren (1982) presented data from three culturally stratified sites in the vicinity of Atlatl Rock in the Valley of Fire, Nevada, that showed an increase in the proportion of desert tortoise over time, as the proportion of artiodactyl remains dramatically decreased (in the Atlatl IV Period [ca. 1200-1880 A.D.]) and the proportion of leporids remained constant. It was hypothesized that this reciprocal phenomenon may be related to the decimation of the bighorn sheep population due to the widespread use of the bow and arrow during the Atlatl IV (Paiute) Period (Warren 1982:38). At Afton Canyon, near the terminus of the Mojave River, artiodactyl/leporid/ tortoise proportions remained the same over time (i.e., stratigraphically) with a suggestion that artiodactyl may actually have increased over time (Sutton and Yohe 1989). However, the increase in artiodactyl most likely was a reflection of the specialized use of this

campsite as a bighorn sheep watering/hunting location (Schneider 1989).

The data compiled in Tables 1-3 indicate that, over time, there was a significant increase in the number of sites with identified desert tortoise remains. Whether this increase is related to changes in subsistence patterns remains problematic. When summarizing extensive chronological data from the Ft. Irwin Archaeological Project, Gilreath et al. (1987) noted that the vast majority of radiocarbon dates fall within the last 2,500 years. Thus, an increase in desert tortoise frequencies may well be due to larger aboriginal populations later in time or may be an artifact of taphonomic processes and/or site visibility rather than an expression of subsistence change. Among the Hohokam horticulturalists of Arizona, tortoise remains are present, but generally in consistently low frequencies. This may indicate that tortoise was only a supplementary resource.

SUMMARY

Faunal specimens of western pond turtle and other turtles can be confused with those of desert tortoise, especially in areas where ranges overlap. This confusion extends to the terminology used very commonly in archaeological, ethnographic, and biological literature. Because of the widely divergent ecological requirements of these species and paleoclimatic reconstructions based on these requirements, it is important that correct identification be made.

Biological and ecological evidence, much of it newly discovered, indicates that desert tortoise was more abundant in the past, had a wider range, and was a dependable and predictable resource. Faunal remains in archaeological sites, historic accounts of the use of tortoise, and direct nutritional analysis of tortoise meat suggest that the desert tortoise was an important subsistence resource to many of the aboriginal peoples of the Desert Southwest, especially hunters and gatherers. With a few exceptions, ethnographic sources provide only vague and/or incomplete references to methods of procurement, extent of exploitation, and uses of the desert tortoise.

At least one ethnographic study, tortoise behavioral characteristics, and field observations indicate that the desert tortoise was available on a year-round basis. For this reason, it is unwise to attempt to establish site seasonality based on the presence of tortoise remains in faunal assemblages.

From the data presented here (Tables 1-3) it does seem reasonable to conclude that the use of Xerobates agassizii by aboriginal hunters and gatherers of the Desert Southwest has increased over time. Although desert tortoise is represented in the faunal assemblages from a few early Holocene sites, frequencies are not great, yet tortoise remains are, by virtue of their physical characteristics and common cultural modifications, relatively easily identified and relatively resistant to taphonomic processes. The number of archaeological sites having frequent and very frequent remains increases over time.

Tortoise was readily available, apparently year-round, over a wide geographical range. It was readily portable and could be stored in live condition. Its habitats at ecotonal boundaries were favored locations for the procurement of other resources (both plant and animal) as well as tortoise. Although certain cultural groups reportedly avoided eating tortoise and other reptiles, tortoise was important economically and ideologically to many aboriginal groups in the Greater Southwest.

NOTES

1. A revision of the taxonomic classification of the gopher tortoises recently has been published (Bramble 1982; Lamb et al. 1989). This generic revision is based on skeletal, evolutionary, and mtDNA evidence. Under the revision, there are two tortoise genera: Xerobates and Gopherus. The previously used taxonomic nomenclature for desert tortoise was Gopherus agassizii, and this is the designation used for this species in most literature up to the present time. This paper uses the revised taxonomic identification for desert tortoise, Xerobates agassizii. The bases of the generic revision have important implications for archaeologists in terms of soil types and paleoclimatic reconstructions.

- 2. Very little was known about the desert tortoise until the early 1970s when concern about the endangerment of the species was first voiced (Berry 1984). Since then, a good deal of information has been gathered from biological and ecological studies supported by the U.S. Government, many a direct result of the development of the 1980 California Desert Plan. Dodd (1986) has summarized much of the newly acquired information from a monumental review of desert tortoise work by Berry (1984).
- 3. Reptiles, in particular, are valuable in paleoenvironmental reconstruction because they are particularly sensitive to temperature due to their "cold-blooded" metabolism. Reptiles also have a relatively slow rate of evolutionary change; response to climatic variation more likely is a move to a more desirable environment rather than the relatively rapid adaptation of mammalian species (Voorhies 1977).
- 4. Communications with a number of faunal analysts and archaeologists at universities, the Bureau of Land Management, National Park Service, and U.S. Forest Service had negative results regarding the presence of desert tortoise faunal remains in excavated archaeological sites in southwestern Utah.

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