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The Southern Texas Archaeological Association brings together persons interested in the prehistory of south-central and southern Texas. The organization has several major objectives: To further communication among amateur and professional archaeologists working in the region; To develop a coordinated program of site survey and site documentation; To preserve the archaeological record of the region through a concerted effort to reach all persons interested in the prehistory of the region; To initiate problem-oriented research activities which will help us to better understand the prehistoric inhabitants of this area; To conduct emergency surveys or salvage archaeology where it is necessary because of imminent site destruction; To publish a quarterly journal, newsletters, and special publications to meet the needs of the membership; To assist those desiring to learn proper archaeological field and laboratory techniques; and To develop a library for members' use of all the published material dealing with southern Texas.

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LA TIERRA

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All contributions to this Non-Profit organization are tax deductible.

THE END OF 1985

This issue concludes Volume 12 and helps close out 1985. The issue includes a note on a lithic cache from Dimmit County (Hester and Brown), two papers on coastal Indian groups (Smith and Johnson), a further report on several sites in Bandera County (by Lee Patterson), and an STAA survey of sites in Kendall County (Neureuther). Because of the number of coastal papers, the front cover of this issue highlights the Karankawa Indians as representative of a Texas central coast group.

This year has been a relatively quiet but important year for STAA. After a slow start in renewals, the membership just kept growing, and by the end of the year reached about 435 individual members, the highest level ever!!! An increasing proportion of STAA involves Contributing, Supporting, or Family memberships, which helps keep our regular membership at the same dues level despite increasing publishing and mailing costs. (We've still only raised dues once in the last 12 years!). Hopefully, these very positive trends will continue and we can reach a membership of 500 before the end of 1986!!!

STAA also cohosted the 1985 TAS Annual Meeting with the Witte Museum, UTSA-CAR, and the Institute of Texan Cultures. The very successful result (despite some facilities and scheduling problems) marks a new high in terms of cooperative effort. A larger attendance than expected (over 340 registered), a variety of very excellent reports and symposia, and a number of shared activities (guest speaker, Sunday bus tour, etc.) marks this as one of the better TAS meetings, and reflects considerable credit on STAA as a cohost. It also in indicative of the acceptance of STAA (and the other cohosting organizations) around the state and nation. STAA is something special as one of the most successful iontrastate regional archaeological associations.

Well ... where do we go from here? The new year of 1986 will represent another challenge ... another opportunity. There is always more to do ... (sites to find and report, threatened sites to be salvaged, work at 41 CM 104 to continue, committees to head or serve on, meetings to plan or arrange, reports to write, new members to recruit, etc.). Get ready, 1986 ... Here we come!

The Editor

NOTES ON SOUTH TEXAS ARCHAEOLOGY: 1985-4

Thomas R. Hester and Dorothy M. Brown, M. D.

A Cache of Bifaces from Southern Texas

Lithic caches have received considerable attention in Texas archaeological research in recent years. Such caches often give clues to artifact manufacturing technologies, to avenues of ancient trade, hints to meaningful typologies, and, sometimes, a look at sets of tools used for particular tasks or functions. The most notable studies of caches have been those conducted by Curtis Tunnell and Robert J. Mallouf of the Texas Historical Commission. Ken Brown of UTSA has just completed research on caches of Guadalupe tools found in south-central Texas (this will be published in the 1985 Bulletin of the Texas Archeological Society. A. J. Taylor's work on the lithic caches from the Loma Sandia cemetery (41 LK 28) is also eagerly awaited.)

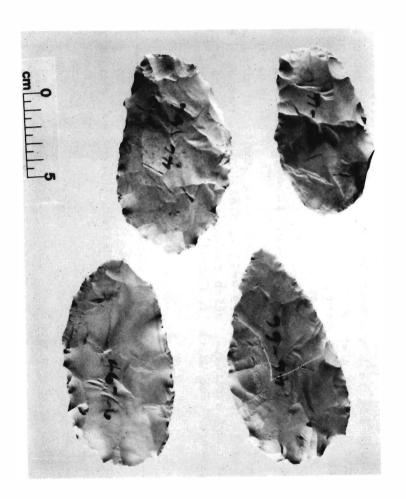
The cache of chipped stone bifaces recorded here was first brought to Hester's attention by Dr. Brown in 1968. The notes got filed, only to be exhumed in 1984. At that time, Dr. Brown, the discoverer of the cache, graciously loaned the artifacts to UTSA for further analysis and documentation. Photographs and specific site data are on file for consultation by qualified researchers.

The specimens were found at a site in southwestern Dimmit County. They were tightly clustered, with part of only one specimen exposed above the surface. The sandy soil around them was cleared away, revealing the cache. A scattering of various dart points and flakes were observed across the site. Dr. Brown noted at the time that there was no nearby creek or recognizable water source and that burned rock scatters sometimes seen on area sites were absent.

The bifaces had been shaped by percussion and are relatively crude; however, specimen d in Figure 1 has been thinned more than the others. The specimens are white to light gray in color; although on a couple of specimens this may be due to the patination process, there is also some discoloring that suggests the use of heat-treating prior to the knapping of the bifaces. They are clearly unfinished specimens — "blanks" or preforms — with no patterns of use-wear evident along the edges. The metric dimensions and the weights of these artifacts are found in Table 1. [EDITOR'S NOTE: A cache of materials with a single burial on the Haiduk Site in Karnes County included several stages of such "blanks" or preforms as well as finished and reworked Marcos points and Corner Tang artifacts, which documents the validity of a manufacturing and use sequence. See Mitchell, Chandler and Kelly, La Tierra 11(2):12-39, April 1984.]

Figure	Length (mm)	Width	Maximum Thickness	Weight (g)	
1,a	125	7υ	16	138	
1,b	100	58	16	106.2	
	125	64	17.5	133.4	
	134	68	14.5	114.5	

Table 1. Dimensions and Weights of Bifaces from Dimmit County Cache.



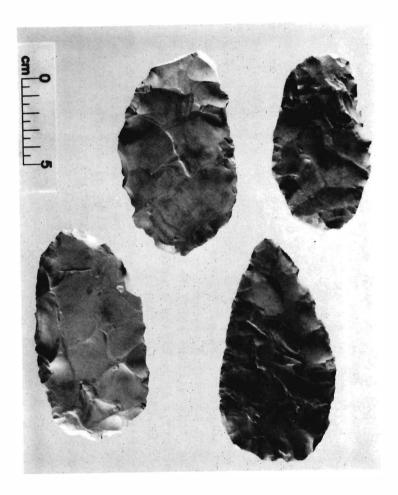
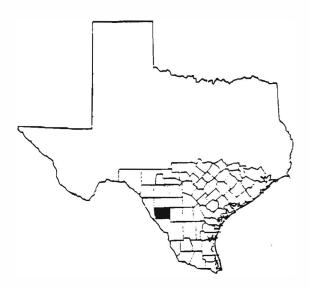


Figure 1. Views of Both Faces of Specimens from Dimmit County Biface Cache. a, upper left; b, upper right; c, lower left; d, lower right (see Table 1).

There is no way to assign a date to this Dimmit County biface cache with any certainty. They are much like biface preforms in the Archaic sites of central and south-central Texas. Although it is conceivable that they could have been fashioned locally, their size (larger than most local Uvalde and Rio Grande gravels) and the fine-grained nature of the chert suggests that they were made in central Texas (i.e., within the Edwards Plateau) and represent pieces traded into southern Texas in prehistoric times. This suggestion is supported by the absence of similar specimens, whole or fragmentary, at other Dimmit County sites examined by the authors. If other lithic caches are known from southern Texas, it is hoped that they will be reported in future issues of La Tierra.



RELATIONSHIPS OF PROTOHISTORIC INDIAN GROUPS ALONG THE CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN TEXAS COAST (What's In A Name?: Part 3)

Malcom L. Johnson

ABSTRACT

An analysis of the language groupings of some of the protohistoric Indian groups located along the central and southern Texas coast is presented and relationships among the groups hypothesized. Such ethnohistoric information has implications for future archaeological research in the area.

INTRODUCTION

In an earlier report (M. Johnson 1985a), the names of Indian groups encountered by Cabeza de Vaca during his journey through southern Texas (1533-1535) were examined. Analysis of the memnonic nicknames revealed new and potentially useful information about each of these protohistoric groups. In a second paper, the same techniques were applied to names of groups recognized during the early Mission period (1718-1780). The names of these later Indian groups were also found to be possibly compound Spanish words which seem to contain information about the groups (M. Johnson 1985b). In these previous articles, the group names analyzed were those reported by Campbell and Campbell (1981) as relevant to the central and southern Texas coast. In this paper, the early groups reported by Cabeza de Vaca will be reviewed in terms of their This is a diffigeographic locations and possible linguistic relationships. cult undertaking since such groups were transient, traveling between widely separated areas at different seasons of the year ("bilobate territories"). In addition, various groups jointly used both the pecan harvesting and tuna collecting areas. Campbell and Campbell note that the geographical relationships of the groups "are obviously too complex to be shown on a conventional ethnographic map" (Campbell and Campbell 1981:15). Yet the relationships of the various groups are extremely important to visualize and study, since they have significant implications for our understanding of the protohistoric groups of the central and southern Texas coast. Indeed, such information may be important to future archaeological work in the region in terms of eventually distinguishing group territories by subtle patterns (or variations) in the artifactual record. Perhaps by using multiple maps, we can develop at least some picture of the relative locations of these protohistoric groups.

Let me repeat, however, that I am no authority on language or geography. Having lived in Corpus Christi from 1940 until 1970, I do have a keen interest in the ethnohistory and archaeology of the coastal bend area.

LANGUAGES AND GEOGRAPHY

In his report, Cabeza de Vaca noted that several of the Indian groups he had encountered spoke "different" languages. Campbell and Campbell have suggested that some of them may have spoken different dialaects of the same language rather than all speaking distinctly different languages (1981: 14,25,29,32). Some of the major differences appear to involve coastal versus inland groups.

Coastal Groups

The Indians living directly on the Texas coast are distinguished by Cabeza de Vaca from those coastal groups living east of the Guadalupe River; these eastern coastal groups include the Capoques, Chorruco, Doguenes, Han, Mendica,

and Quevenes (1981:10). For some discussion of the possible meaning of the names of these groups, see Part 1 (M. Johnson 1985a). The Capoques may equate to the historic Coco (see Corbin 1974:49-52); if so, their homeland probably lay between the Colorado and the Brazos Rivers. Some of the Coco lived at Mission Espiritu Santo in Goliad (Berlandier 1969) and spoke a different language or dialect from the Karankawa and Aranama.

The group closest to the lower Guadalupe River were the Quevenes, who probably lived in what is now Calhoun County including the northern half of Matagorda Island (see Figure 1). Their name may suggest shell wearing and Cabeza de Vaca indirectly indicates they were of fairly large size; thus, they may have been Karankawa. The Karankawa were known to be larger than most southern Texas Indian groups (Gatschet 1891).

Other groups ranging down the central Texas coast include the Quitoles, Camoles, Guaycones, and Los de los Higos or the Fig People (see Figure 1). Several of these groups were probably protohistoric Karankawa-speaking peoples, based on implications of their large size or specific habits, such as tattooing (M. Johnson 1985a:34). The southernmost of these groups, Los de los Higos, were located to the south of Corpus Christi Bay including adjacent sections of Padre Island (Campbell and Campbell 1981). They had friendly relations (including trading) with adjacent inland groups, as did the Camoles around Corpus Christi Bay itself (M. Johnson 1985a).

Cabeza de Vaca did not report the names of any Indian groups on the Texas coast south of Baffin Bay, since his course of travel was through the inland area (Campbell and Campbell 1981; Leroy Johnson 1985). If the hints from Cabeza de Vaca's report of the coastal groups are correct, then it is entirely likely that the Karankawan language (and dialects) were spoken from at least Matagorda Bay south to Baffin Bay. This would agree fairly well with the location of the Karankawa groups during later historic times. It also is the area Sayles (1935) designated as his Karankawan Culture based, in part, on the distribution of Rockport pottery.

Inland Groups

The inland groups that are said to have spoken different languages are the Avavares, Cutalchiches, Maliacones, Mariames, Quevenes, and Yguazes. Two groups Campbell and Campbell believe spoke the same language are the Arbabaos and Cuchendados, who are also both located in far South Texas. These inland groups are plotted on Figure 2.

The language of the Mariames (seashore travelers) and the Yguazes (same as their neighbors or hunters of alligators) is said to be different. However, their ranges overlap considerably; both occupy parts of Refugio, Victoria, and Goliad Counties. They also traveled somewhat parallel routes through San Patricio and Nueces Counties to reach the summer prickly pear grounds. On the basis of this geographical association, it is possible that they spoke a different dialect of the same language rather than a totally different one.

The Cutalchich were encountered in the summer of 1535 during harvest of prickly pear, and at the end of the season, Cabeza de Vaca says they returned "to their own country" (Campbell and Campbell 1981:28). This suggests he considered them a distinct group, and also implies that distinct ranges or territories were considered to belong to the various groups. Since the Cutalchich's country was not to the north or northeast (the route the Spaniards came) nor to the south or southwest (the route the Spaniards later traveled), their range was probably farther up the Nueces River. Cabeza de Vaca mentions that both the Cutalchich and Avavares had large flint knives that were highly regarded and possibly of ceremonial use. Because of the lack of flint in the coastal area large enough to produce such large knives, we can assume that the flint was obtained or traded elsewhere, probably farther northwest toward the Texas hill country. Another point of interest is that even though the

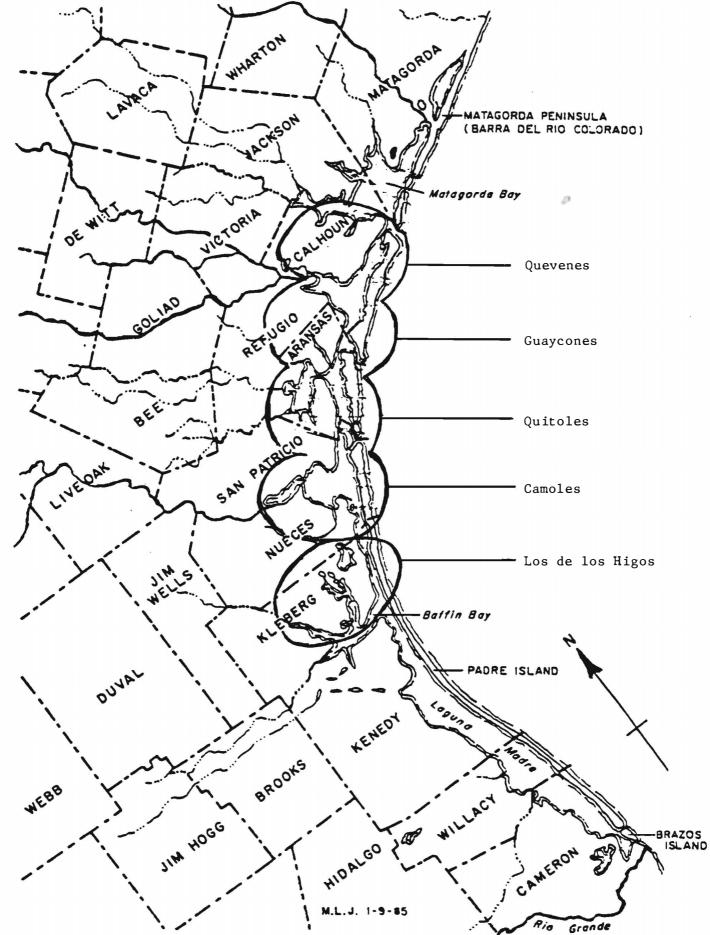


Figure 1. Map of Texas shoreline showing approximate location of various protohistoric Indian groups.

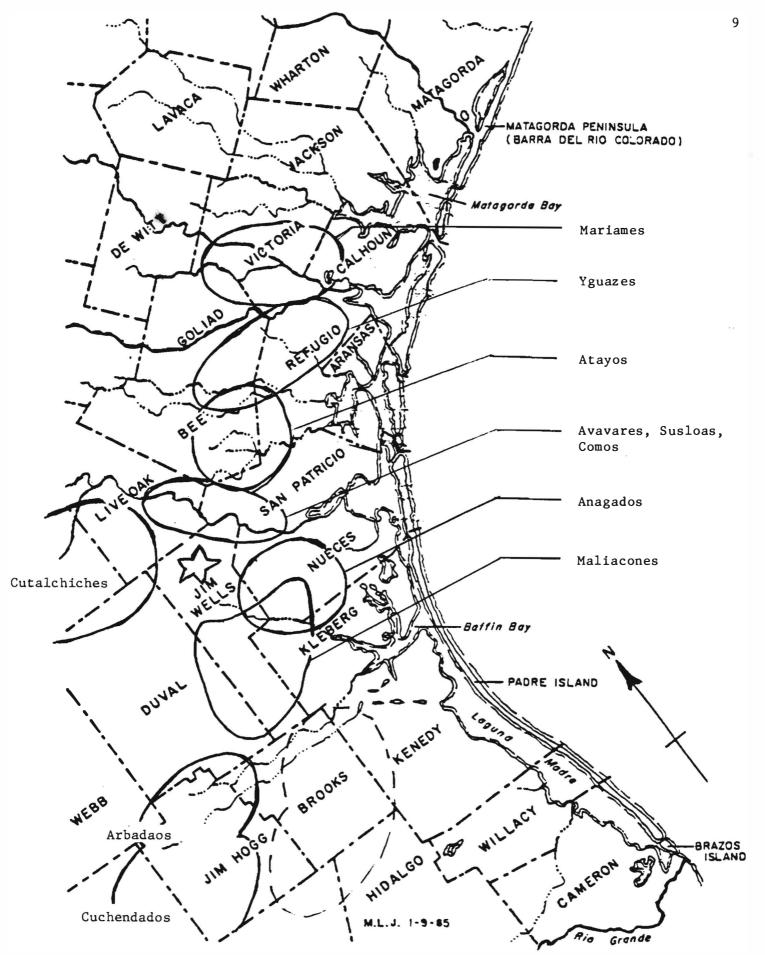


Figure 2. Inland protohistoric Indian groups along Texas Coastline.

Spaniards had lived among the Avavares for about eight months and were considered by them to be "Children of the Sun," it was the Cutalchich who presented them with large flint blades. This implies that it was the Cutalchich who had access either to a source of large flint or to the finished knives. They may have been the group that was trading them to the coastal area. It is not unreasonable that they had a language that was distinct.

The Avavares and Mariames are also noted as having spoken different languages; yet they lived close enough for the Avavares to learn to speak the Mariame language (Campbell and Campbell 1981:24) or dialect. The Avavares evidently lived near the lower Nueces River, mainly in San Patricio County northwest of Corpus Christi Bay. During the summer prickly pear season, they ranged through a fairly large area, perhaps as far south as Benavides in central east Duval County (Campbell and Campbell 1981:24). It is interesting to note that several other groups also at times occupied parts of the Avavares' range, including the Anegados, Atayos, Coayos, Comos, Cutalchich, and even the Malicones. When the Spaniards escaped from the Avavares at the end of prickly pear season, they traveled to the camp of the Maliacones, who aided them by taking them on (south or southwest) to the camp of the Arbadoas (Campbell and Campbell 1981:29). This would seem to indicate that the Malicones were on better terms with the Arbadaos than with the Avavares and that they were familiar with the groups to the south or southwest (See Figure 2).

Cabeza de Vaca implies the Malicones were associated with the Cutalchiches who had some sort of ceremonial activity, and the Malicones name may imply use of some sort of drug (M. Johnson 1985a). Perhaps the Malicones were obtaining mescal or peyote from the groups of the southwest inland area for ceremonial use.

Two groups located deeper inland were the Arbadaos and the Cuchendados; they were said to have spoken a common language, one presumably different from the languages spoken by the groups outlined above. The Arbadaos and Cuchendados normally lived to the south and southwest, in an area covering most of Jim Hogg County, northeast of Falcon Lake (Campbell and Campbell 1981:37). In a recent critical review of Campbell and Campbell, LeRoy Johnson (1985) asserts a more southerly route for Cabeza de Vaca, crossing the Rio Grande in Hidalgo County (near Reynosa, Tamaulipas). Such a route would place the Arbadaos and Cuchendados villages nearer the coast, perhaps near the Brooks-Kenedy County line.

Languages

The Comecrudo language is associated with northern Tamaulipas in the late 1600s and early 1700s in the area around Reynosa. The Cotoname language is also known historically from southern Hidalgo County and adjacent northern Tamaulipas (Hester 1980:52). Either of these languages could be associated with Cabeza de Vaca's Arbadaos and Cuchendados groups (or even some other language).

In order to determine which of the groups occupying the central coastal bend inland area (San Patricio, Nueces, and Jim Wells Counties) may have spoken a common language, it will be necessary to use a process of elimination. Cabeza de Vaca first knew the Mariames, Susolas, and Yguazes when they were along the lower Guadalupe River in the area of Victoria, Calhoun, Refugio, and Goliad Counties. This seems to be the area where these groups spent most ofthe year. Keeping this in mind, they can be eliminated as seasonal intruders into the San Patricio, Nueces, and Jim Wells Counties area. Since the Cutalchich "returned to their own country" (probably further up the Nueces River), they can also be eliminated as seasonal visitors. In addition, the Malicones were more closely associated with groups to the southwest, and perhaps could also be eliminated.

As a further basis for removing some of the groups, it can be remembered that Cabeza de Vaca implied that the Cutalchuches, Maliacones, Mariames, and Yguazes spoke languages different from the Avavares. And the Camoles and Los de Los Higos were shoreline groups who probably spoke Karankawa.

This leaves five groups in the San Patricio, Nueces, and Jim Wells Counties area who may have shared a common language or probably spoke at least a dialect of the same language. These groups were the Avavares, Anegados, Atayos, Coayos and the Comos.

In various later historical documents we find that prior to 1733 there was a cluster of groups called the Pamaque who occupied the western portions of Nueces and San Patricio Counties (Campbell and Campbell 1981:44). This name is Spanish for "people of the plains" or "people of the south" (M. Johnson 1985b). What is interesting is the fact that the Pamaque is also composed of five different groups; they are: Camasuqua, Sarapjon, Taguaguan, Tinapihuaya, and Viayan. Could it be possible that these five historic groups are the five groups that Cabeza de Vaca reported living in the same area? Could it be possible that the Avavares (whose name means seed or fruit harvesters) of Cabeza de Vaca equate with the Taguaguan (harmless people or fruit eaters) of later documents (M. Johnson 1985a and b)?

Could it be possible that Cabeza de Vaca's Anagados (whose name can be interpreted as "water logged ship," who were trading with the Camoles, and who probably went out to Padre Island to see the Tellez and Penalosa barge) might equate with the Tinapihuaya? The Tinapihuaya name implies carrying pottery in leather netting (M. Johnson 1985b); they may have been carrying jars of nuts, seeds, or dried tunas out to the island to trade with coastal groups (the Manos de Perros who may equate with Cabeza de Vaca's Camoles).

In the same light, the Cutalchich of Cabeza de Vaca might also be related to historical groups. If they indeed spoke a different language or dialect and if their "own country" was farther up the Nueces River, then they may have been a group known later as Pampopa (Spanish for "behind the plain"). The Pampopa were known as early as 1708 and were seen on the Medina River and in present McMullen, Live Oak, and LaSalle Counties along the Nueces and Frio River (Campbell and Campbell 1981:45-48). Pampopa was probably a collective name for groups living in that region, just as Pamaque is a collective name for "people of the south."

CONCLUSIONS

Much more is known about the protohistoric Indian groups along the central and southern Texas coast than was thought possible a decade or two ago. Because of the very valuable works by Campbell and Campbell, considerable progress has been made. They have even identified the Mariame with the Muruam of Mission San Antonio de Valero (1722-1762), and the Yguazes (Iguaz) with the Oaz of Guerrero, Coahuila in 1708 and the Aguastaya of Mission San Antonio later that century; such findings are now well accepted (see LeRoy Johnson 1985:346-347). They have also equated the historic Arcahomo of Mission Espada with Cabeza de Vaca's protohistoric Como (Campbell and Campbell 1981:41; 1985:60-61) and have evaluated Aranama as a separate language (Campbell and Campbell 1985:74). They have made us all much more conscious of the ethnic and linguistic diversity that was present in central and southern Texas and adjacent areas of Mexico.

Unfortunately, the relationship of most of the groups named by Cabeza de Vaca along the Texas coast to the groups mentioned in later documents must remain speculative. Unless some new evidence is located, it probably can never be stated with certainty which groups were actually related, even though there are tantalizing bits of evidence to suggest some may have been. I hope that my speculations will encourage more research and discussion of these very fascinating groups.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Jim Mitchell for his constructive criticisms and encouragement while I was preparing this series of articles, and for his efforts in editing them. However, responsibility for statements or errors in this work must remain with the author.

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THE KARANKAWA INDIANS OF THE TEXAS COAST: Folklore Versus Fact

Herman A. Smith

ABSTRACT

This paper examines ethnohistoric and archaeological evidence on the Karankawa Indians of the central Texas Coast, who were reported to be both giants and cannibals.

INTRODUCTION

Padre Island, the great barrier island of the Texas Coastal Bend, protects a vast number of inland bays and estuaries that were once the home of one of the most interesting and enigmatic aboriginal populations of North America—the Karankawa Indians. Little known and much maligned, the Karankawas were said to be a race of fierce cannibals who were described as "giants" by the European intruders early in the Hispanic period. They resisted every effort by the Europeans to "civilize" them and literally fought to the last man for the right to roam the islands and bays of the Texas Coast unrestricted by the will of the white man. For over 300 years the Karankawas were locked in deadly combat with the Spanish, French, Mexicans, Anglo colonists, marauding Comanches and Lipan Apaches, all of whom imposed themselves upon the Karankawa heartland.

Out of this struggle was born a kind of conventional wisdom in coastal Texas that the Karankawas were somehow different from the other Texas Indians in that they were extraordinarily fierce, tall and robust people, very skilled in the use of the bow and arrow and were reportedly given to the consumption of human flesh.

The present paper proposes an evaluation of the folklore within the available archaeological and ethnohistorical frameworks. To what extent are the tales of the "giant cannibals" supported by the archaeological and historic evidence?

THE KARANKAWA AS "GIANTS"

It must be remembered that "giant" is a relative term. The descriptions of the Karankawas that have come down to us from the early European observers must be taken in context. That is to say, one must be aware that the average European male in the early years of exploration and colonization of the New World, was by present height standards, quite short.

Data for the period are sparse, but, as Bowles (1932) reports from a study at Harvard University, the stature of European man has increased in the last three centuries. The average height of American revolutionary war soldiers was 172.51 cm based on a sample of 315 soldiers actually measured. This corresponds to a height of something slightly over 5'5". The height of sailors from a slightly later period (1766 to 1805) shows a markedly shorter height; a mean of 169.21 cm or roughly 5'2". As Bowles suggests, this disparity may be a result of the desire to recruit small men for shipboard living. The geographic and racial extraction of those two groups is essentially the same, as is the age component.

Measurements of Italians from the period 1855 to 1896 showed an increase in overall height of males from a mean of 162.4 cm to 164.5 cm or from 5'0"to 5'2". Swiss Army recruits between the years 1792 and 1872 actually increased in average height from a mean of 155.5 cm to 165.0 cm, or from about 5 1" to 5'3".

On a more pragmatic level, a visit to the nearest museum where clothing and armor of the 16th and 17th centuries may be viewed will certainly show the

diminutive stature of the European male (and female). It is perhaps illustrative to note that General Robert E. Lee was only 5'l". Only three general officers in the entire Confederate Army were over 6 feet tall. Let us now examine the comments of eyewitnesses relative to the height and robusticity of the Karankawas.

Ethnohistoric Data

Cabeza de Vaca, the first European to encounter the Karankawas following a series of unfortunate events that cast him upon the coast of Texas in 1528, described the Karankawas as "Indian bowmen, who, if they were not large, our fears made them giants." He also commented that they were "large and well-formed" (Smith, 1871; Bandelier 1905).

Nearly two centuries passed before Europeans again encountered the Karan-kawas (and lived to tell about it). In 1685 the French explorer Robert Cavalier, Sieur de La Salle, landed at Matagorda Bay and established Fort St. Louis on Garcitas Creek, but survivors of that ill-fated expedition did not record observations of the Karankawa stature.

A few years later, in 1720, one of Bernard de La Harpe's intrepid captains, Jean Beranger, sailed into Aransas Bay through Aransas Pass. A skilled navigator and map maker (his map of the area survives and is accurate enough for navigation purposes today), Beranger was a trained observer who met, traded with, and actually measured a number of Karankawa men who came aboard his ship while at anchor in Rockport Bay. Impressed with the size of the Karankawas, Beranger reported:

"They are tall, plump and shapely. I have measured some of them six feet two inches tall."

The French foot, in common use in 1720, was 32.51 cm in contrast with the English, and subsequent U.S., foot which is 30.48 cm. Thus a Karankawa measured by Beranger at 6'2'' would be nearly 6'6'' by our present standards (Carroll 1983).

Jean Louis Berlandier, French naturalist in the employ of the Mexican government between 1828 and 1834, encountered the Karankawa during a commissioned survey of what was to eventually become South Texas. He reported:

"They are men of tall stature, from five French feet, eight inches to five feet ten inches. Their bearing is arrogant and all are remarkably robust" (Berlandier 1969).

Translated into present terms of measurement, these Karankawa would have been between $6\,'0''$ and $6\,'2''$, tall...and robust.

Early Texans were also impressed with the stature of the Karankawas, commenting that they frequently exceeded six feet in height and were well proportioned (Kuykendall 1903; Jenkins 1958). Stephen F. Austin described the Karankawas as "...tall men of a stout, magnificent exterior" (Gatschet 1891). W. B. DeWees, in 1823, reported that the Karankawas could "...with very great propriety be termed a race of giants; their general height is over six feet, and they are stoutly built" (DeWees 1968).

Another eyewitness discussed the disparity between the physical properties of the Karankawa and their northern neighbors, the Atakapa speakers of the upper Texas Coast:

"The (Atakapa) men were short in stature...they seemed to have no racial affinities with the tall, slender and agile Karankawas" (Dyer 1917).

Gatschet (1891) adds the following comment in the only ethnological study of the Karankawa, published by Harvard's Peabody Museum:

"All witnesses from earlier and later epochs are unanimous in describing their men as very tall, magnificently formed, strongly built and approaching perfection in their bodily proportions. Many southerners regarded them as giants."

Archaeological Data

Anthropometric examination of Karankawa skeletal remains by Woodbury and Woodbury (1935) involved the measurement of 16 coastal skeletons and led these authors to conclude that they represented a physical type not usually found among North American Indians. The skeletal materials confirmed the fact that the Karankawas were an unusually tall people.

A poorly preserved Karankawa burial excavated in southern Kleberg County, Texas in 1979 by Dr. Malcom Shuman of Texas A&I University was viewed by the present author. Long bones were fragmentary but the mandible was intact, and it was measured in accordance with procedures outlined by Bass (1971). According to the rough score derived from various measurements of the mandible, a number value of 75 to 80 would indicate a relatively small individual; 80 to 85 a moderate to large person. The score derived for this Karankawa male of approximately 35 years of age was 97, certainly suggesting that this individual falls within a category that can only be described as large.

The scant archaeological data suggest the estimations of the size of the Karankawas are in concert with the ethnohistoric data. The obvious conclusion is that in relative terms, the Karankawa Indians of the Texas Coast were, in fact, much larger than their European counterparts. It is not difficult to imagine a European of 5'2" or so confronting a 6'6" Karankawa and coming away with the impression that the Indian was a "giant." To put this all in perspective, it is suggested that the reader take a stroll onto a football field or basketball court occupied by present-day professional players. The experience will give new dimension to the word "intimidation."

THE KARANKAWAS AS CANNIBALS

Cannibalism among the aboriginal populations of the New World is well documented (Harris 1975; Weaver 1972; Burns 1956). Various forms of "ritual cannibalism" were widespread and were distinct from the custom of eating humans as food. Most Texas Indians ate selected portions of their dead or dying enemies as a way of exacting supreme vengeance or ritually gaining the strength or courage of the opponent (Newcomb 1961). A few Texas groups went beyond what has been called "ceremonial" cannibalism and consumed human flesh with impunity (Newcomb 1961; Jenkins 1958; Folmer 1940; Smithwick 1900; Gatschet 1891). These groups include the Caddo, Atakapa, Tonkawa, Comanche and Wichita, all neighbors of the Karankawas.

Ethnological Evidence

The Karankawas have frequently been described as cannibals; Gatschet (1891) certainly had no doubts when he stated:

"The fact is certain that these people (the Karankawas) were anthropophagists (cannibals) up to the beginning of the 19th century."

In spite of a reputation to the contrary, direct eyewitness accounts of Karankawa cannibalism are all but non-existent. The only account of consumption of human flesh on the part of the Karankawas that can be called anything but hearsay evidence is the narrative of the Talon brothers, who were captured by the Karankawas when La Salle's settlement was destroyed at Fort St. Louis. Liberated after several years as captives of the Karankawas, the brothers stated that the Karankawas never ate the flesh of slain Frenchmen but were in the habit of eating the bodies of their Indian enemies. Jean-Baptiste Talon said he was offered nothing but the cooked flesh of a slain Ayonai Indian for three days but refused it, preferring to starve to death if necessary (Gatschet 1891).

Aside from this single account, no reliable first-person reports of cannibalism have come down to us. Cabeza de Vaca makes no mention of the practice among the Karankawas and states flatly that the Karankawas were outraged upon learning of Spanish cannibalism among shipwreck survivors. Several Spaniards ate their dead comrades as a last-ditch survival strategy, and it is possible that the Karankawa made a clear distinction between endocannibalism and exocannibalism. That is to say, consumption of one's dead enemy was culturally accepted; eating a dead friend was something else (Smith 1871).

The reputation of the Karankawas as cannibals is apparently based on second-hand reports and indirect evidence. As early as 1720 Beranger reported:

"They (the Karankawas) are rascals and eat their enemies" (Carroll 1983).

A Spanish priest, on an inspection tour of the missions in East Texas in 1767-68, obviously did not think highly of the Karankawas when he commented:

"They eat locusts, lice and even human flesh" (De Solis 1932).

Bolton (1914) quotes Athanase de Mézières in the following narrative, circa 1760:

"The Caranqaques nation...are terrible to shipwrecked people, as was shown...by the sad experience of the Chevalier Gremer who grounded there (St. Joseph's Island), leaving about 60 companions who died at the hands of these islanders, finding no other graves than the voracious stomachs of the above-mentioned Indians."

In 1828, Berlandier (1969) commented:

"That truly cannibalistic tribe had spread terror among all the (shipwrecked) mariners because formerly, and perhaps still in our day, they ate their enemies."

John C. Duval, another pioneer Texan, saw his first Karankawa near Goliad in 1836. He wrote that he had been told the Karankawas were cannibals and shortly after this encounter a number of Karankawas captured, killed and "barbequed" several Americans. The enraged settlers sent an expedition against the Karankawas and reportedly succeeded in "exterminating the whole tribe with the exception of a small remnant that fled to Mexico" (Duval 1936).

One peculiar practice described by two 18th century Spanish priests includes the abduction of children for deferred consumption. Although not witnesses to the act, the priests were told by Karankawa men at the Mission Espiritu Santo de Zúñiga that:

"When one nation makes war with another, the one that conquers puts all the old men and old women to the knife and carries off the little children for food to eat along the way" (De Solis 1931; Morfi 1932).

There were dissenting opinions, of course. Austin Holley, Stephen F. Austin's cousin, held a different view of the Karankawas:

"They were popularly believed to be cannibals, and many tales of most frightful import were told of them; such as, if true, it must be acknowledged, were sufficiently appalling to check the enterprise and damp the ardour of the most eager adventurer. These representations of the Carancahuas, though in a measure true, were greatly exaggerated; and it is believed by many that they were either fabricated or at least countenanced by the Spanish authorities to prevent intercourse with the Province, which was not easy to guard by military force" (Hatcher 1933).

Archaeological Evidence

What archaeological evidence supports the assertions of Karankawa cannibalism? The sad fact is very few archaeological investigations of Karankawa sites have been carried out along the lower central Texas Coast which have yielded any human bone other than burials. Dr. Dee Ann Story excavated a portion of a Karankawa site at Ingleside Cove near Corpus Christi but did not report evidence that would contribute to the body of archaeological data concerning cannibalism (Story 1968).

The present author has conducted investigations at three small Karankawa extraction sites and a large base camp in the Baffin Bay area of southern Kleberg County, Texas. A single human bone was recovered from a midden containing numerous deer, bird, fish and small mammal bones. The bone is a right distal epiphysis of a humerus from a child of approximately 7 years of age. The bone has been burned and bears scars that are probably cut marks. In my opinion, these cut marks are the result of butchering. This single bone constitutes the only existing archaeological evidence for Karankawa cannibalism but certainly "a single swallow does not a summer make."

CONCLUSIONS

The lack of corroborative evidence for cannibalism amongst the Karankawas is undoubtedly a reflection of the paucity of archaeological research in the Karankawa homeland. Archaeological evidence for consumption of human flesh should be highly visible and needs to be looked for as Karankawa sites are investigated. In summary, the very scant archaeological evidence certainly suggests that the ethnohistoric reports of the Karankawas are substantially correct; they were indeed giants relative to other Indians and Spanish explorers. It is highly probable that they were cannibals as well.

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ADDITIONAL DATA FOR BANDERA COUNTY SITES

L. W. Patterson

ABSTRACT

Lithic materials are reported from three sites in Bandera County, Texas (41 BN 8, 11, and 12). These projectile points document use of these sites in Early to Late Archaic times as well as during the Late Prehistoric. Other artifacts recovered include gravers, prismatic blades, cores, and possible unifacial arrow point elements.

INTRODUCTION

Information has been published on prehistoric sites 41 BN 8 (Patterson 1974) and 41 BN 11 (Patterson 1978) in Bandera County, Texas (See Figure 1). Both of these sites have large burned rock middens. Additional surface collections have been made on these sites which will be summarized here. Also, enough diagnostic artifacts have now been found on a nearby site, 41 BN 12, to warrant publication of a brief description of this site.

Data from these sites demonstrate a long prehistoric occupation sequence in south-central Bandera County, starting at least as early as the Early Archaic period and continuing through the Late Prehistoric. An Archaic hunting and gathering lifeway is indicated for the occupants of these sites, although the exact function of large burned rock middens has still not been completely resolved. This is not a unique problem for central Texas. The function of similar burned rock middens in the Trans-Pecos region of Texas and in south-eastern New Mexico also remains to be resolved.

Intensive surface collecting appears to be the best method of obtaining data from these specific sites. Significant stratification does not seem to be present at these locations, judging by the mixture of artifacts from different time periods that are found on the deflated surfaces of the sites.

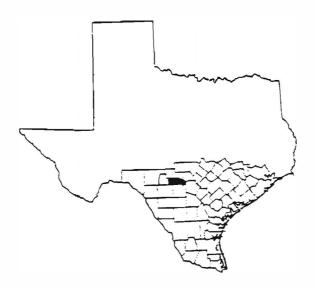


Figure 1. Map showing southern Texas counties. Darkened area is Bandera County.

Site 41 BN 8

Site 41 BN 8 has previously been described as a large area with three large burned rock middens (Patterson 1974). Flint artifacts and debitage are scattered over the entire area of this site.

More flakes and miscellaneous cores have been collected, but these materials appear to be of the same general nature as the same types of materials previously described (Ibid). Heat treating of flint was done here, as shown by the waxy luster of flake scar surfaces and potlid surface fractures of some specimens. There is a low percentage of formal unifacial tool types. As for many prehistoric sites in this region, the utilized flake is the predominant tool type. Three additional gravers have also been recovered from the site.

Projectile point types previously reported (Patterson 1974:Figure 1) include Frio, Travis-like and unclassified dart points, and Scallorn arrow points. Specimens previously identified as possible Abasolo and Angostura points are probably preforms. New projectile point finds for this site are shown in Figure 2. Following Prewitt's (1981:Figure 4) chronology for central Texas, Early Archaic points from this site now include Gower-like (with impact flute), Gower, Martindale and Early Triangular types. Middle Archaic types include Nolan, Travis-like and Bulverde points. The Late Archaic is represented by Montell and Frio points, and Scallorn arrow points found here are from the Late Prehistoric. Projectile point typology used here follows the descriptions given by Suhm and Jelks (1962) and Turner and Hester (1985).

Twenty-eight unclassified dart point fragments have now been found, along with nine dart point preforms and one arrow point preform. Two of the dart point fragments have expanding stems and one dart point fragment (Figure 2,L) has an impact flute.

A total of 88 prismatic blades have now been documented, most having widths between 8 and 15 mm. The lithic collection includes six blade core fragments and two small blade cores that have been previously illustrated (Patterson 1976:Figure 1). As previously mentioned (Patterson 1974, 1976), some prismatic blade segments may have been used to make unifacial arrow point elements.

Site 41 BN 11

Site 41 BN 11 (Patterson 1978) is located in the same general area as Site 41 BN 8, and has a single large burned rock midden. Flint artifacts and debitage are scattered around this midden.

Additional flint flakes and cores recovered from 41 BN 11 are similar to the collection previously described (Patterson 1978:23). New projectile point finds shown in Figure 3 include Nolan, Martindale and Bulverde types. Eleven unclassified dart point fragments were also recovered. The total projectile point collection from this site now includes Gower, Martindale and Early Triangular points from the Early Archaic period; Bulverde and Nolan points from the Middle Archaic; and Frio and Fairland points from the Late Archaic. Specimens previously identified as possible fragments from Abasolo, Plainview and Angostura points (Patterson 1978:Figure 1) remain problematic.

Site 41 BN 12

Site 41 BN 12 is a small site located several hundred feet from Site 41 BN 8. It is not connected with any burned rock midden. Artifacts were found in an area about 30 feet in diameter. Projectile points from this site shown in Figure 3 include **Pedernales**, **Nolan** and **Frio** types. This site appears to have artifacts that cover some portions of the Middle and Late Archaic periods. All **Nolan** points shown in this article have the beveled stem edges typical of this point type.

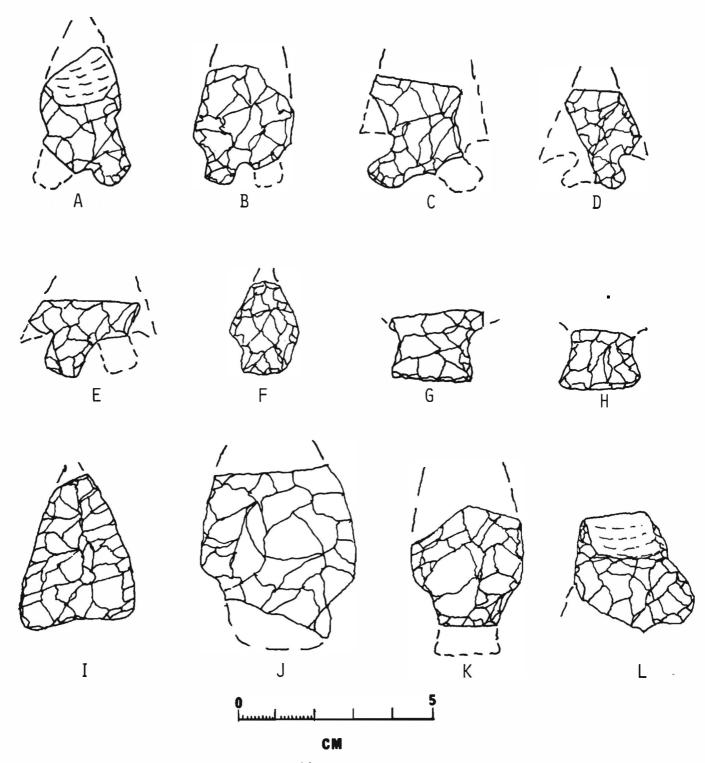


Figure 2. Projectile Points from Site 41 BN 8. A, Gower-like; B, Gower; C, Frio; D, Martindale; E, Montell; F, Unclassified; G, H, K, Nolan; I, Early Triangular; J, Bulverde preform; L, Unclassified. A and L have impact flutes.

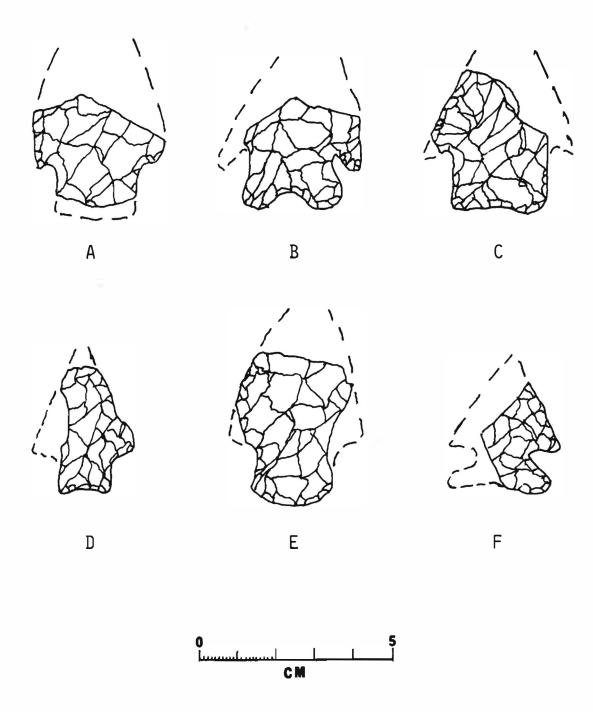


Figure 3. Projectile Points from Sites 41 BN 11 and 41 BN 12.

Site 41 BN 11: A, Nolan; B, Martindale; C, Bulverde
Site 41 BN 12: D, Pedernales; E, Nolan; F, Frio

In addition to projectile points, the lithic collection from this site includes one dart point preform fragment, two miscellaneous cores, a miscellaneous biface, four thick flint pieces and 18 flakes.

SUMMARY

This article has summarized additional data from surface collecting on three prehistoric sites in south central Bandera County. Analysis of projectile point styles indicates a long-time, stable settlement pattern for this area, with hunting as one major subsistence activity. The presence of large burned rock middens may indicate processing of plant food materials, but details on this subject remain to be resolved.

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ARCHAEOLOGY OF THE ALLEN HAAG RANCH: A SURVEY OF GOSS CREEK, KENDALL COUNTY, TEXAS

Rita Neureuther

ABSTRACT

Although rich in archaeological materials, Kendall County's archaeological resources have been little investigated or documented. A survey of Goss Creek, a tributary of the Guadalupe River, was carried out for the purpose of enhancing archaeological knowledge of the area.

INTRODUCTION

In the Spring of 1982 (March, April and May), volunteers from the Southern Texas Archaeological Association (STAA) conducted surveys along Goss Creek on the Allen and Vera Haag Ranch. Access to the ranch and the motivational drive for the surveys were accomplished by Cecil Peel. Mr. Peel has been a steadfast member of STAA and the Texas Archeological Society, and has also participated in a wide variety of UTSA-CAR projects. The survey on Goss Creek is a result of his interest in the archaeology of the area. Cecil Peel was aware of some of the archaeological resources of the area for a number of years and felt there was a need for formal documentation of the sites. Thanks to the efforts of Cecil Peel, the interest and help of the Allen Haags, and members of STAA, a portion of Kendall County, admittedly small, has now been intensively surveyed and documented.

The survey was conducted on weekends with varying numbers of volunteers. Steve Black and Dennis Knepper provided technical assistance and guidance for the group. Many of us neophyte surveyors benefited from their direction. Dennis Knepper and Steve Black also compiled a brief summary of the work, with drawings of the artifacts. In addition, Steve Black prepared a catalog of the sites and a partial photographic record.

THE AREA

The Haag Ranch lies about midway between Sisterdale and Kendalia, in the Central portion of Kendall County (see Figure 1). Kendall County is located in South Central Texas on the southern portion of the Edwards Plateau (Sellards,

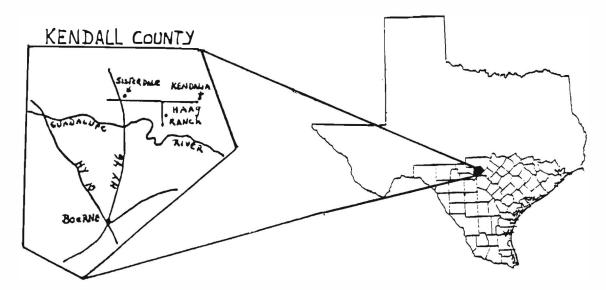


Figure 1. Location of Kendall County and the Allen Haag Ranch.

Adkins and Plummer 1932). It is included in the Balconian biotic province (Blair 1950). The area is typical of what is known locally as "The Hill Country" (see Figure 2). "In general, the uplands are rugged expanses of limestone, with sparse vegetation consisting of scrub cedar, blackjack, live oak, shin oak, post oak and short grasses... Major vegetational forms found in terrace-flood plain locales include live oak, persimmon, black walnut, mulberry, pecan, mesquite, prickly pear (and occasional yucca), and tall to mid grasses. In the riparian environs along stream courses, vegetation becomes considerably more dense, dominated by live oak, persimmon, walnut and vines" (Bass and Hester 1975).

Anglo-American settlement of the area began primarily in the 1840s. Some of the first settlers were highly educated Germans who fled their homeland as political refugees. There are many historical sites of these first settlers in the area. The most well-known community is historic Sisterdale. It was settled by German intellectuals in the late 1840s and was known as the Latin Community in its early days. Dr. Knapp was one of the more prominent members of the community. He established a health spa in Sisterdale because the waters there were believed to be a curative (Flach 1973).

The economy of the area developed primarily around ranching, with the raising of various types of cattle, sheep, and goats. Much of this rugged terrain is unsuitable for farming except in the lowlands and river bottoms. This condition has aided the preservation of some of the archaeological remains, as they have not been disturbed by plowing or other commercial activities. Some areas, unfortunately, have been destroyed by chaining (a process of land clearing involving the use of heavy chains to uproot trees and brush), relic collecting, and, more recently, by commercial extraction of trees for plant nurseries.

In recent years, such "progress" has been encroaching into the area as ranches are sold and subdivided for housing lots. The result of this has been the destruction of sites and loss of a portion of the archaeological record. Yet substantial areas remain that are archaeologically pristine. These areas can provide unbiased archaeological information that could significantly add to our knowledge of prehistoric settlement patterns and lifeways for the Hill Country. Much archaeological work needs to be done soon, before the opportunity falls before the feet of "progress." As everywhere, the resources are being destroyed and disturbed at a rapid rate.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

Archaeologically, Kendall County is relatively unknown. The archaeology of the county has not been studied or recorded until quite recently. The present recorded sites represent a very limited sample when compared to the undocumented areas. Kendall County has been less extensively investigated than neighboring counties, such as Kerr or Bandera. In February, 1975, only 24 archaeological sites had been recorded (Bass and Hester 1975). As of 1977 the number had increased substantially but was still less than 90. By the end of 1984 the number of sites was 93. The investigation and documentation of sites in Kendall County have been concentrated primarily on the Cibolo Creek drainage area in the southern end of the county (Valdez and McGraw 1977). Two sites have also been recorded in the Sisterdale area. A pictograph site (41 KE 66) was recorded by L. D. Williams in 1975. This site was recently rediscovered and documented by an STAA crew (Neureuther 1984). A historic grist mill site on the Guadalupe River has also been documented (41 KE 90; C. K. Chandler, personal communication, 1984).

The types of sites found in Kendall County are similar to those found in neighboring sections of the Hill Country. These include: open campsites, burned rock middens, rockshelters, lithic scatters, buried terrace sites, quarry workshop sites, sinkhole burials, and historic sites. Most of the sites



Figure 2. Scene on Haag Ranch, showing typical Kendall County Survey terrain.



Figure 3. Floodplain of Goss Creek on the Haag Ranch, Kendall County.

are on terraces overlooking major streams or are in the upper reaches of tributaries (Hester 1975). Hester feels the sites of greatest promise may be the rockshelters because of the possibility of preserved perishable material and occasional rock art.

Native American sites in Kendall County cover the time periods from Paleo-Indian (9200-6000 B.C.) to Late Prehistoric (Neo-American; A.D. 500/1000-1600). The majority of the sites seem to fall within the Archaic (ca. 6000 B.C. - A.D. 500/1000). The Paleo-Indian stage is represented by scattered surface finds, mostly dating from the latter part of the period (Bass and Hester 1975). One Clovis point, found in the vicinity of East Sister Creek, has been documented (Chandler 1983). Prehistoric pottery is rare in the area; one fragment, possibly Caddoan trade type from East Texas, was found at the pictograph site near Sisterdale (Neureuther 1984). Indian groups such as the Comanche and Apache were known to be in the area during historic times and are recorded in historical accounts by the early settlers.

In the immediate area of the Goss Creek survey, dart points of the Archaic period (with a fair sampling of Early Archaic) dominate the collections of the local inhabitants. The collections rarely include arrow points indicative of the Late Prehistoric (Neo-American) period. This may be the result of sample bias; projectile points are frequently picked up rather incidentally and larger points are more apt to attract the eye. It could also indicate the area was not as heavily utilized in the later time periods.

A sinkhole "burial" is also known from the area. It was discovered approximately seven years ago when some teenagers interested in spelunking (cave exploring) were clearing a sinkhole shaft in hopes of finding an underground cavern. The sinkhole is located on the top of a ridge near Spicewood Canyon, approximately one mile west of Goss Creek. The remains of three individuals may have been present; bones were fragmentary and scattered throughout the dirt. A Scallorn point was found in the vicinity of the first burial. One of the excavators, Gary Athey, related that rocks, which appeared to be purposefully set in the shaft, were encountered just above the area that contained the skeletal materials (personal communication). Anne Fox visited the site during excavation and later reconstructed part of a skull (personal communica-Her notes indicate the bones represented one individual approximately 14 years old, a young child, and fragments of what appears to be an adult. Sinkhole burials are known from the Hill Country area where numerous shafts pocket the limestone ridges. One well-known example is Hitzfelder Cave in Bexar County; 30-40 individuals were recovered from this site (Givens 1968). Three Frio points, a Pedernales, and a point between a Marshall and Lange were reportedly recovered in the excavations. A radiocarbon date of 1000 A.D. ± 190 (uncorrected) would seem compatible with the Scallorn point found in the Kendall County sinkhole. Robert A. Benfer and Ruben M. Frank have called sinkhole burials "inverted burial grounds"; they report sinkhole burials for Uvalde, Comal, and Edwards Counties (Benfer and Frank 1967). Sinkhole burials may have played a larger part of the mortuary practices of the native groups of southcentral Texas than realized. The terrain is such that in many areas traditional burials would have been difficult or impossible because of the closeness of the bedrock to the ground surface. Sinkholes are one area of archaeological evidence that has not been explored very intensively in this region.

THE SURVEY AREA

Goss Creek is one of many tributaries flowing into the Guadalupe River in Kendall County. The creek has, through time, cut a fairly deep, wide ravine (or valley) through the surrounding limestone hills. Goss Creek has a narrow floodplain that seldom exceeds 75 meters in width; along much of its length, the creek is flanked by steep slopes that lead up to high rolling terraces (see Figure 3). At several points within the survey area, smaller tributaries

intersect Goss Creek, resulting in promontories that provide views overlooking the drainage system (Black and Knepper 1982). Goss Creek is an intermittent stream where the flow is dependent on available precipitation in the area. Judging from the number of sites along its course, Goss Creek must have once been a more reliable water source.

About three miles of the creek and adjacent areas were surveyed. The survey extended from the Goss Creek headwaters to a point approximately one mile from its intersection with the Guadalupe River. This last mile of the creek does not lie on the Haag property and was not accessible to the surveyors. The survey area consisted of the major portion of Goss Creek. Steve Black and Dennis Knepper estimated approximately 1,700 acres were surveyed (Black and Knepper 1982).

SURVEY TECHNIQUES

When adequate numbers of people were available, the surveyors were divided into teams and assigned a portion of the survey area to be investigated. The survey was conducted on foot, and a high percentage of the total area was covered. This included the floodplain, terraces, and hilltops. In a few areas investigation may have been hampered by ground cover, but in general this was not a problem as the survey was conducted during the time of year when ground cover tends to be thin. Sites were plotted on USGS topographical maps (Sisterdale Quadrangle) and information (topography, dimensions, sketches, etc.) was recorded on site survey forms. The sites were given a field number and later assigned a Kendall County Survey (KCS) number and were henceforth known by their KCS#. The field number and KCS# were both recorded in a catalog. About halfway through the survey, an area specific form was developed and utilized (Black and Knepper 1982).

During the first day of surveying, diagnostic artifacts and tools were recorded and left in place. Subsequently, the landowners requested that the artifacts be collected. The resulting collection has been returned to the landowners and is now in the possession of Karen and Ronnie Schneider, daughter and son-in-law of the Haags. Collecting during the survey was restricted to diagnostic artifacts and tools. Information recorded during the survey is being submitted to TARL for assignment of permanent numbers for the sites.

THE SITES

Twenty-three prehistoric sites and one historic site were recorded during the course of the survey. The sites consisted of lithic scatters, burned rock middens, a historic homesite, and two rockshelters. Diagnostic materials recovered range from Late Paleo-Indian to Late Archaic or Late Prehistoric.

Site KCS# 1

KCS# 1 is an oval-shaped burned rock midden on the floodplain near the intersection of a tributary with Goss Creek. The midden is 12×13 meters (39 x 42 feet) and partially eroded. It was an occupation site where one expended core tool was observed.

Site KCS# 2

KCS# 2 is an irregularly-shaped lithic scatter, 15 to 23 meters (50-75) feet) in diameter. It is located on the floodplain between Goss Creek and an intersecting tributary. Archaeological evidence included lithic debris, burned rock, and a biface. The site was typed as a lithic scatter with possible occupation. Also noted were two historical, undecorated white ware ceramic fragments and a piece of brown bottle glass.

Site KCS# 3

KCS# 3 is a lithic scatter along the top of a limestone ridge, between Goss Creek and an intersecting tributary. It was typed as a multi-functional site since scattered burned rock was also present. Artifacts included worked flakes and two point fragments which appear to be Early to Middle Archaic.

Site KCS# 4

KCS# 4 is a historical site located on a low terrace adjacent to Goss Creek. A large pecan grove is nearby. The site consists of stone foundations and part of a stone chimney, which had a large cactus growing out of it. Artifacts included historic pottery, bottle glass, nails, and cut and dressed stone. The Haags related the site was probably built by Semon Snyder, a former owner of the property. Semon's son, Joe Snyder, was born in the house May 13, 1874. Another story about the site relates that two "old maid" sisters inhabited the house at one time. When one died, the surviving sister reportedly buried her near the house. A search of the vicinity revealed no visible evidence of a headstone or marker.

Site KCS# 5

KCS# 5 is a burned rock midden located on a low terrace between Goss Creek and a tributary. Chert debris is scattered on the hill slope above the midden and along the terrace edge but appears dense at the midden edges. The midden covers an area about 10 x 12 meters (32 x 39 feet). Artifacts noted included a Montell base, chert flakes, utilized flakes, core fragment, and biface fragment.

Site KCS# 6

KCS# 6 is a lithic scatter situated on the edge of a high terrace over-looking Goss Creek. It is approximately 600 meters (656 yards) east of Highway 474. The site consists of a small scatter of flakes over an area approximately ten meters (32 feet) in diameter.

Site KCS# 7

KCS# 7 is situated on a high terrace between Goss Creek and a tributary to the west. The site is a lithic scatter approximately 7.5 meters (24 feet) along the north-south line and 25 meters (81 feet) from east to west. An Early Explanding Stem and Nolam point were collected from the site (see Figure 4). A cave spring is located north of the site.

Site KCS# 8

KCS# 8 extends over a low terrace between Goss Creek to the east and a rocky slope rising abruptly at the western edge of the site. The site surrounds a partially disturbed midden, 13 meters (42 feet) in diameter. At the time of the survey the site was thickly carpeted with grass, and the cultural material was difficult to see. In 1958, Cecil Peel dug a trench in the middle of the midden approximately six meters (19 feet) long and one meter (3 feet) wide. He reports the materials were not screened and no artifacts were recorded at the time. Mr. Peel relates that a year later a black point, approximately nine centimeters long and three centimeters wide at the base, was found in the back dirt. He also reported that during excavation abundant ochre was observed in the center of the midden and that the midden dirt was very dark.

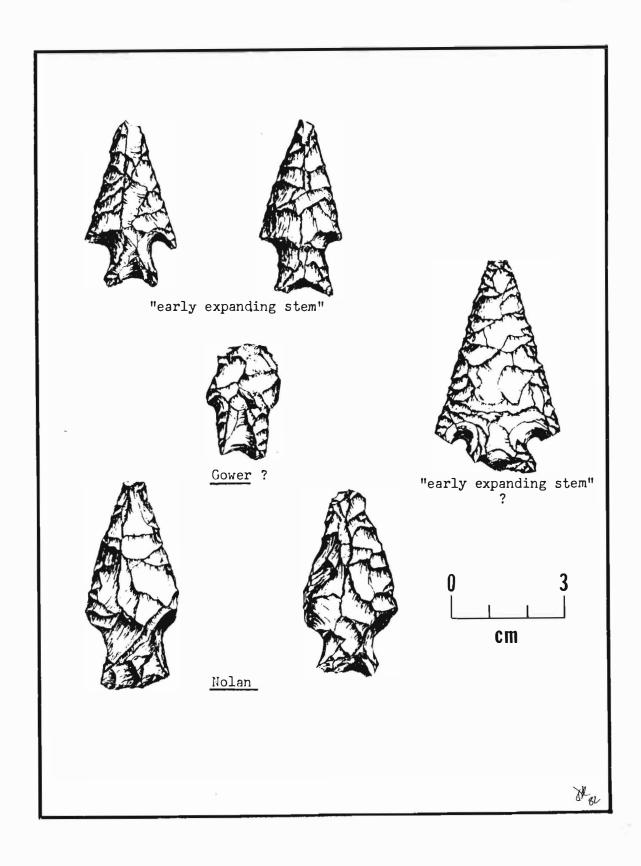


Figure 4. Artifacts from the Kendall County survey. Illustrated by Dennis Knepper.

Ground cover, at that time, was thin, and abundant lithic debris was observed in the area surrounding the midden.

Site KCS# 9

KCS# 9 is a lithic scatter on a low terrace between Goss Creek, to the east and a rocky bluff, to the west. The site is oval shaped, 30 meters (98 feet) wide on an east-west line, and 40 meters (130 feet) on the north-south line. The site is eroded and does not seem to have much depth. Archaeological evidence included one Angostura point, flakes, utilized flakes, biface fragments, both thick and thin, and possible burned rock. The chert was both patinated and unpatinated. The site was revisited in February 1985, and four more artifacts were collected. These included a Nolan-like dart point crudely made with a manufacturing flaw and beveling only on one side (possibly an unfinished point), a Martindale-like point and two unifacial arrow points or possible tools. The unifacial artifacts could be Edwards or Perdiz (see Figure 5). One appears to have been reworked and also has a possibly off-set base. Several very small medial sections of Perdiz- or Edwards-sized artifacts were also recovered.

Site KCS# 10

KCS# 10 is a possible ring midden located on a high peninsula created by Goss Creek and a smaller drainage to the south. A flat terrace forms a horse-shaped bench around the site. The midden is approximately 15 x 20 meters (50 x 65 feet) with a central depression of four meters (13 feet) in diameter and 50 centimeters (20 inches) in depth. Flakes, cortex flakes, cores, and trimmed flakes were found at the site. The ring midden impression may have been created by a former Sheriff who is known to have "operated" on another midden in the vicinity. A small depression (possible pothole) was noted on the northwest side of the midden. When the site was revisited in February, 1985, a decaying screen was found in the area.

Site KCS# 11

KCS# ll is a lithic scatter located on a high promontory. The site is a thin scatter, oval in shape, approximately 50×100 meters (164 x 328 feet). Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, cores, a large bifacial knife, one unidentified point, a possible Early Expanding Stem point and scattered burned rock.

Site KCS# 12

KCS# 12 is a lithic scatter located on a low promontory overlooking Goss Creek. The site is oval in shape, approximately 30×50 meters (98 x 164 feet), with a deer blind in the center. Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, cores and one distal tip.

Site KCS# 13

KCS# 13 is a roughly circular-shaped lithic scatter, approximately 75 meters (246 feet) in diameter, located on a hilltop. The major concentration is on the hilltop but continues down slope for several hundred meters. Materials observed included chert flakes, cores, thick and thin biface fragments and some burned rock. Artifacts included a heavily patinated **Travis** point, a possible **Gower**, an **Angostura**-like specimen, and a heavily patinated Early Expanding Stem point (see Figures 4 and 6).

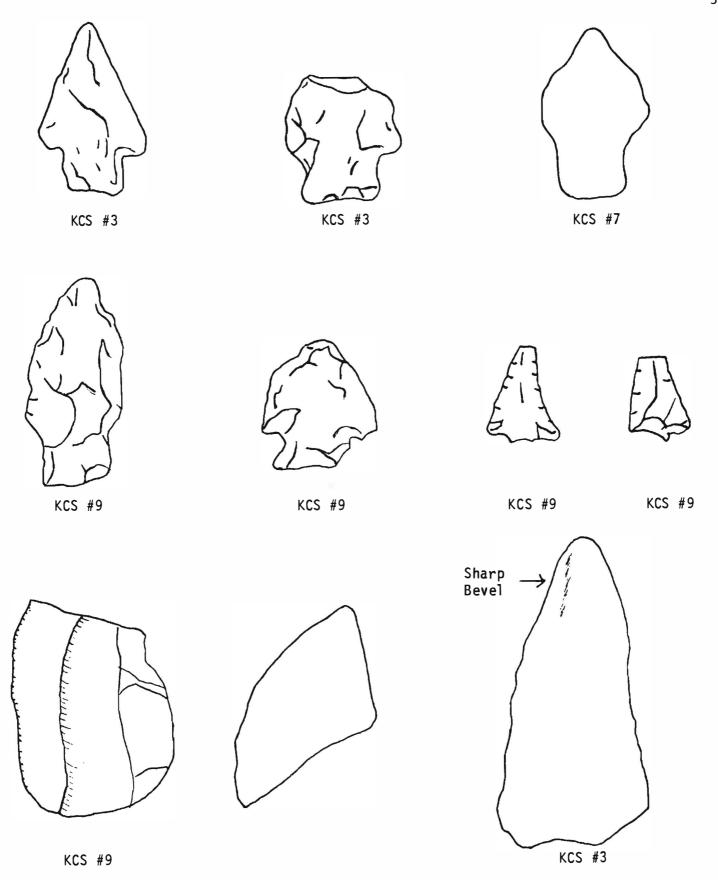


Figure 5. Artifacts from the Kendall County Survey Sites.

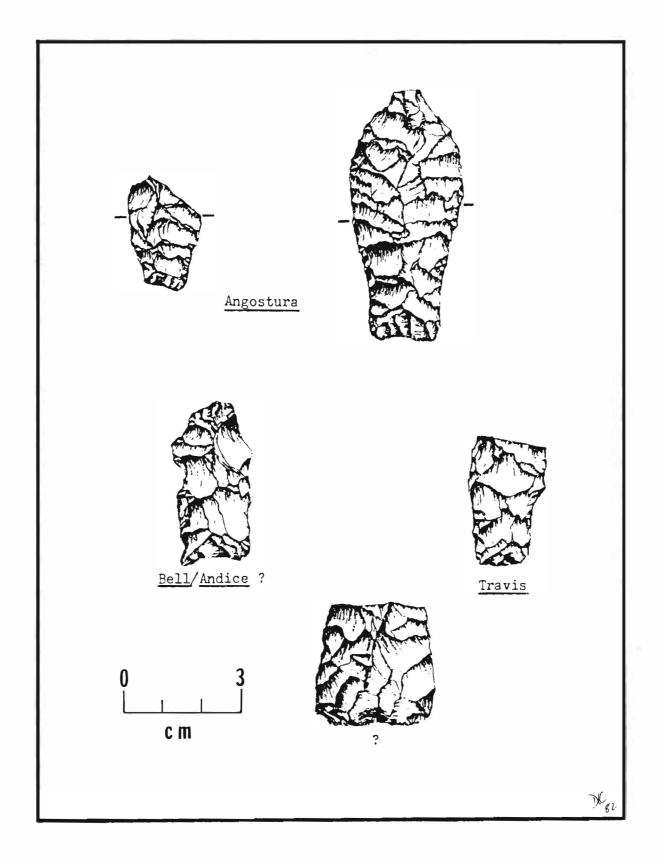


Figure 6. Artifacts from the Kendall County Survey. Illustrated by Dennis Knepper.

Site KCS# 14

KCS# 14 is a poorly-defined lithic scatter, approximately 40×150 meters (131 x 492 feet), located on the top of a hill. The materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, a core chopper, and three point fragments, thinly spread over a large area.

Site KCS# 15

KCS# 15 is known as the Keeble site. It consists of a possible ring midden and a small rockshelter. The midden is on the northwest side of Goss Creek, and approximately 25 meters (82 feet) in diameter. A local Sheriff (Keeble) excavated part of the site about ten years ago; the appearance of a ring midden may be the result of his activities. Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, bifaces, unifaces, trimmed flakes, and a burned bone eroding out of a gopher hole near the creek. The shelter is directly across the creek, to the east of the midden. The shelter dimensions are: 5 meters (16 feet) long, 3 meters (10 feet) deep, and 2.20 meters (7 feet) high. The shelter is on the bank of Goss Creek and almost at creek level. There is a pool in the creek, in front of and to the south of the shelter. An **Edwards** point was found on the surface of the floor. The shelter is small and could not have afforded shelter except to a few people at a time.

Site KCS# 16

KCS# 16 is a lithic scatter located on a high terrace. Scattered lithic material covers a large area on a slope and several terraces above Goss Creek. Cultural Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, cores, bifaces and unifaces.

Site KCS# 17

KCS# 17 is a rockshelter located at the head of a steep ravine. It is about 20 meters (65 feet) below the rim of the canyon. The dimensions of the shelter are: 14.5 meters (47 feet) wide, 5.9 meters (19 feet) deep, and a maximum height of 1.5 meters (5 feet). The opening of the shelter was partially walled off by travertine deposits. Materials observed included decorticate flakes, cores, bifaces, and clusters of burned rocks. In 1958 Cecil Peel found a Montell point on the surface and dug into an apparent hearth feature. Excavations of the shelter have taken place since the original survey and will be reported in a later article.

Site KCS# 18

KCS# 18 is a lithic scatter east of Goss Creek. It is located on a high ridge between Goss Creek and Coyote Canyon. Poor surface visibility made definition of the site size difficult. Materials observed included a few flakes, cortex flakes, chert chunks and scattered burned rock.

Site KCS# 19

KCS# 19 is a shallow burned rock midden and a lithic scatter located on a high promontory overlooking Goss Creek. Cultural material included flakes, cortex flakes and cores. The dimensions of the midden are approximately 7×7 meters (23 feet in diameter).

Site KCS# 20

KCS# 20 is a burned rock midden located to the west of Goss Creek. It is on an intermediate terrace between the creek and the hilltop. Cultural materials observed included flakes, chipped stone tools (not defined in the surveyer's notes), bifaces and trimmed flakes.

Site KCS# 21

KCS# 21 is a lithic scatter located on the second terrace east of Goss Creek. The site encompasses a limestone ridge just below a hilltop, and extends to the hilltop. The size was not well defined. It was approximately 150 meters (492 feet) long (north-south) and 40-50 meters (131-164 feet) wide (east-west). Cultural materials included flakes, cortex flakes, bifaces, a possible chopping tool, and a patinated proximal point fragment with alternately beveled edges and weak shoulders.

Site KCS# 22

KCS# 22 is a lithic scatter located on a low terrace adjacent to Goss Creek. The site is oval in shape, approximately 100 x 150 meters (328 x 492 feet) and shallow. Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, cores, bifaces, and trimmed flakes, scattered burned rock, and two unidentified points (see Figure 7).

Site KCS# 23

KCS# 23 is a widespread thin lithic scatter spread across three terraces overlooking Goss Creek. Materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, bifaces and projectile points (see Figure 7).

Site KCS# 24

KCS# 24 is a thinly-spread lithic scatter located on a high promontory overlooking Goss Creek. Cultural materials observed included flakes, cortex flakes, and untyped projectile points.

SURVEY SUMMARY

A total of 24 sites were recorded during the survey; one historic and 23 prehistoric sites. Of the prehistoric sites, seven constituted burned rock middens, 15 were lithic scatters and two were rockshelters. One site (KCS #15) consisted of both a burned rock midden and a rockshelter.

The historic site was a homestead inhabited around the 1870s and most likely the home of a former owner of the Haag ranch, Semon Snyder.

Of the seven burned rock middens, five were adjacent to Goss Creek, either on the floodplain or on terraces next to the creek. The remaining two middens were located near hilltops. Two of the middens (KCS#s 10 and 15) were described as possible ring middens; these middens are located near each other and the northernmost one is across the creek from a small shelter (KCS# 15). A Sheriff Keeble is known to have dug the midden associated with the shelter and could quite possibly have explored the other midden, as they are in the same area, creating the "ring middens."

Materials associated with the middens included flakes, cortex flakes, bifaces, unifaces, cores and trimmed flakes. In general, diagnostic materials associated with the midden sites were scarce. Site # 5 produced a **Montell** point and descriptions of former excavations at Site # 8 noted red ochre in the center of that midden and a large point was found eroding out of the backdirt.

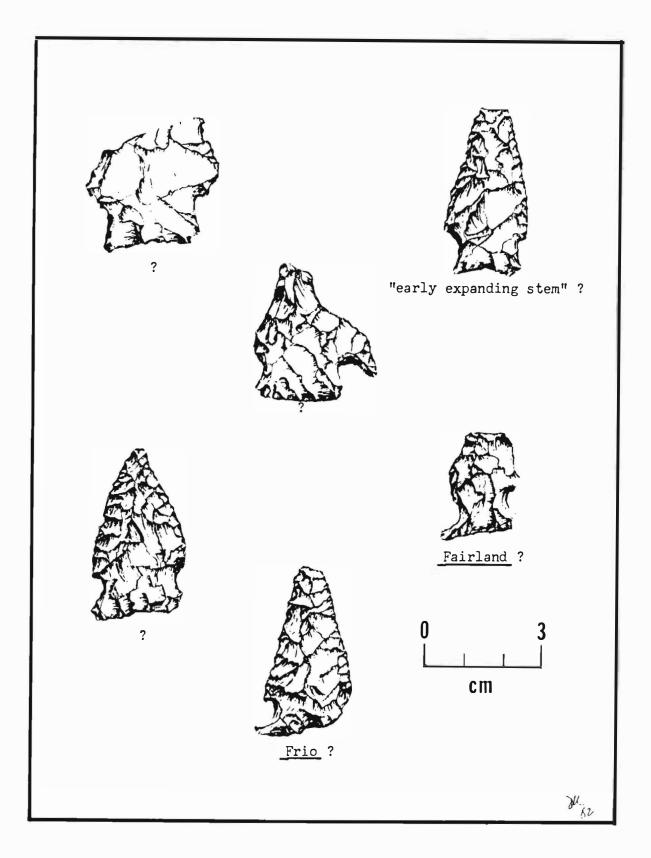


Figure 7. Artifacts from the Kendall County Survey. Illustrated by Dennis Knepper.

Fifteen of the prehistoric sites consisted of lithic scatters. Twelve of these lithic scatter sites were located on high terraces or hilltops and command an excellent view of the surrounding territory and drainages. Most of the lithic scatters were thin and usually spread out over a large area along ridges and terrace edges. The majority of the lithic materials consisted of flakes and cortex flakes. Some cores and bifaces were also noted at a few of the sites. Scattered burned rock was noted at four sites and thermally-fractured chert at one. The diagnostic materials (identified by Steve Black) consisted of Early Expanding Stem, Nolan, Travis, Angostura-like and possible Gower points. Four different sites contained Early Expanding Stem points. One site had an Early Expanding Stem and a Nolan; another contained Early Expanding Stem, Travis, Angostura-like and possible Gower. The Early Expanding Stem type is not fully understood at this time and its placement in time has not been pinpointed. On the Haag Ranch, the Early Expanding Stem type occurs consistently on high terrace sites and with diagnostics from an early period. A possible Bell or Andice base recovered in the survey is also suggestive of this early period.

This time period is seen by some (Sollberger and Hester 1972) as a transitional period between the Late Paleo-Indian and Archaic traditions. Others view it as part of the Early Archaic (Prewitt 1981). This time period spans approximately 2,500 years after the end of the Paleo-Indian period. It has variously been called Pre-Archaic (Sollberger and Hester 1972) and the Circle-ville Phase of the Archaic (Prewitt 1981). The occurrence of these materials on the Haag Ranch may indicate occupation of the area by prehistoric peoples prior to or at the beginning of the Archaic.

The sites of scattered lithics may represent temporary camps of a mobile people engaged in short-term, perhaps seasonal pursuits (hunting?) and the hilltops and high terraces were sought to ensure sighting of the game (Hester 1980). The sites are not the most ideal camp sites as they are unsheltered, open to the elements, and while water would have been available, a steep climb up and down is usually necessary to obtain it.

Three of the 15 lithic scatters were located on lower elevations instead of the more usual hilltop or high terraces. All of these sites are adjacent to Goss Creek on low terraces or the floodplain, and are in fairly sheltered locations. Scattered burned rock was present at all three sites as well as bifaces.

In general, the survey area lacks materials from the Paleo-Indian period and artifacts of the Late Prehistoric (Neo-Archaic) period are minimal in surface sites. This may be the result of sampling bias.

The Haag Ranch, at this time, seems to have been most heavily utilized during the Pre-Archaic/Early Archaic and during the Middle Archaic. The earlier occupation is characterized by archaeological materials (lithic scatters, Early Expanding Stem) occurring on hilltops and high terraces overlooking Goss Creek and its tributaries. The later concentration of occupation occurs adjacent to the creek, on the floodplain, or low terraces, and is characterized by burned rock middens.

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