

**ARCHAEOLOGICAL INVESTIGATIONS AT 41BX1968,
SAN ANTONIO, BEXAR COUNTY, TEXAS**

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Management Summary

In June of 2014, Raba Kistner Environmental, Inc. (RKEI) was contracted by the San Antonio River Authority (SARA) to conduct archaeological investigations on property owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society in San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas. The investigations were requested to further examine the location that may have been the first site of Mission San Antonio de Valero, established in 1718. Previous investigations conducted at the site by the University of Texas at San Antonio's Center for Archaeological Research (UTSA-CAR) were inconclusive. The RKEI investigation was conducted in February of 2015 and consisted of the excavation of 18 auger bores, four shovel tests, and three test units within areas owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The asphalted parking lot located to the north of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society Hall, the grassy field located to the west of said parking lot, and the brick-paved courtyard between the Church and the Hall were investigated during the course of the project. Steve Tomka served as Project Manager and Kristi Miller Nichols served as Project Archaeologist. Given that the project occurred on private property, it did not fall under the jurisdiction of the Antiquities Code of Texas.

During the course of the investigations, auger borings in the asphalted parking lot found that the underlying soils had been extensively disturbed. The augers either encountered yellow clays or dark grayish brown clay loam soils. The yellow clays did not contain cultural materials. The dark grayish brown clay loam soils contained a mixture of nineteenth and twentieth century artifacts. The auger bores within the grassy field also revealed cultural materials in the upper, darker clay loam soils. Deeper gravelly and caliche-like soils were sterile. Cultural materials encountered in these units typically dated from the late-nineteenth to early-twentieth century. Shovel tests excavated in the grassy field encountered distinct soil deposits that may be indicative of disturbances associated with the construction of IH-35 and borrowing for fill for the adjacent asphalted parking lot.

Three test units were excavated during the course of the project. Two 50-x-50 cm units were excavated in the courtyard between the Church and the Hall. Disturbed clays mixed with asphalt and concrete were noted below the brick pavers present in the courtyard. Artifacts recovered from these units were in a mixed context, and dated from the late-nineteenth to the early-twentieth century. One 1-x-1 m unit was excavated within the grassy field west of the parking lot. A high density of artifacts was encountered in the upper four levels of excavations. The material was mixed and dated from the late-19th to the early-20th century.

Thirty-seven artifacts recovered from excavated contexts were identified as possibly relating to the Spanish colonial occupation of San Antonio. A total of 19 ceramic sherds and 12 glass fragments were of varieties that have been encountered at colonial sites in San Antonio. In addition, six chipped lithic stone artifacts also may be related to the Spanish Colonial Period. All of the material was encountered mixed with late-nineteenth and early-twentieth century artifacts. A small number of additional items found on surface also may be related to the same time period.

Similar to the findings of the 2013 excavations conducted by UTSA-CAR, RKEI found that the location has been extensively impacted over the years. Colonial materials recovered from the surface, augers, and test units were mixed with late-nineteenth and early-twentieth century materials, suggesting that the artifacts have been re-deposited as a result of construction and other earth-moving activities. The cultural material associated with the Spanish Colonial Period is just a small fraction of the artifacts that were recovered at the site.

The investigations conducted at the site have identified one feature, and a small number of artifacts, including chipped stone, olive glass, a handful of Goliad and tin and lead glazed ceramics that may potentially be linked to the early 18th century and the location to the first site of Mission San Antonio de Valero. These materials represent roughly three percent of the artifacts recovered during the combined UTSA-CAR and RKEI excavation. The range and variety of artifacts as well as the single feature fit the archaeological pattern one may expect in association with the first site of the mission occupied for 12-14 months between the spring of 1718 and summer of 1719. Unfortunately, many of the artifacts that can be linked to the Spanish Colonial Period, have a manufacture length which extends beyond the early 18th century and therefore, they do not indisputably link the location to the first site of the Mission. In addition, no artifacts recovered during the combined investigations incontrovertibly date to the early 18th century (1700-1725) thereby linking the occupation of the site to the establishment of the mission.

In summary, based on the combined efforts of two field seasons of excavation at 41BX1968, the investigations have recovered a small amount of cultural material that is associated with the Spanish Colonial Period. Unfortunately, however, the small sample of artifacts, while consistent with a short occupation span of the first mission site, does not contain key temporal diagnostics that definitively link the assemblage and site to the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero. Based on these results, the possibility that 41BX1968 is the first site of the Mission cannot be completely ruled out, particularly in light of the archival information which also appears to match the location.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Raba Kistner Environmental, Inc. (RKEI) was contracted by the San Antonio River Authority (SARA) to conduct archaeological investigations in search of evidence confirming the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero. While the location has yet to be definitively identified, the dates of its establishment, the events that occurred there, and the length of occupation are reasonably well known. Several pieces of circumstantial evidence, including information gathered from the archival and ethnohistoric accounts of the expedition, investigations in the vicinity of San Pedro Springs for the appropriate geographic markers that matched the expedition description and GIS-based research have been used to identify the potential locations of the first site of the mission settlement. The landform on which the San Francesco di Paola Catholic Church and the Christopher Columbus Italian Society Hall falls at a distance that matches the location of the first European civilian settlement and Mission San Antonio de Valero, as identified in the Mezquía account of the expedition (Hoffman 1938).

Recent work at the location conducted by the UTSA-CAR resulted in the recovery of a handful of artifacts (Puebla Blue on White Majolica ceramics, Galera lead-glazed ceramics, wrought iron nails and fragments, melted lead fragments, glass trade beads, and olive glass) that are potentially related to the 1718-19 occupation. However, the excavation did not recover features and cultural materials that could be definitively linked to 1718.

SARA and the Christopher Columbus Italian Society, working in cooperation with the Office of Historic Preservation, City of San Antonio, requested that additional investigations be conducted to gather conclusive evidence of the Mission's location at the site. The Christopher Columbus Italian Society made available the property owned by them for examination. The archaeological investigations conducted by RKEI focused on answering two principal questions: 1) are there additional cultural materials present at the location that could substantiate the preliminary conclusion that the site may indeed be the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero and 2) are there any features, architectural footprints, or activity areas that may represent remnants of Mission San Antonio de Valero?

To answer these questions, the work proposed by RKEI focused on three locations. First, the portion of the property located under the asphalt-covered parking lot situated to the north and downslope of the Church was investigated. Second, the formerly graded, grassy field located to the west of the parking lot also was studied. And, third, the courtyard between the Church and the Society's Hall was tested.

The Area of Potential Effect (APE)

The Area of Potential Effect is located on a high bank overlooking San Pedro Creek near downtown San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas. The APE is shown on Figure 1-1, the combined San Antonio East (1998-133) and San Antonio West (1998-132) USGS 7.5-minute quadrangle maps. The property is owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The adjoining two tracts comprise the APE located to the north of the San Francesco di Paolo Catholic Church and the Christopher Columbus Italian Society Hall, while the other is the asphalted parking lot located to the north of the Church and Hall. The other is the grassy field located to the west of the parking lot (Figure 1-2). The Church was constructed in 1927 on land donated by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The Hall was completed the next year, adjacent to and in similar style as the Church. The construction of the buildings and parking lots has greatly disturbed the soils at the site. During the 2013 investigations, members of the Society and Parish reported that they remembered people picking up artifacts from the surface during the construction of additions to the Church. It is possible that some of the artifacts may have been Spanish Colonial. Several parishioners visited with the archaeological crews during the more recent investigations and repeated the same observations.

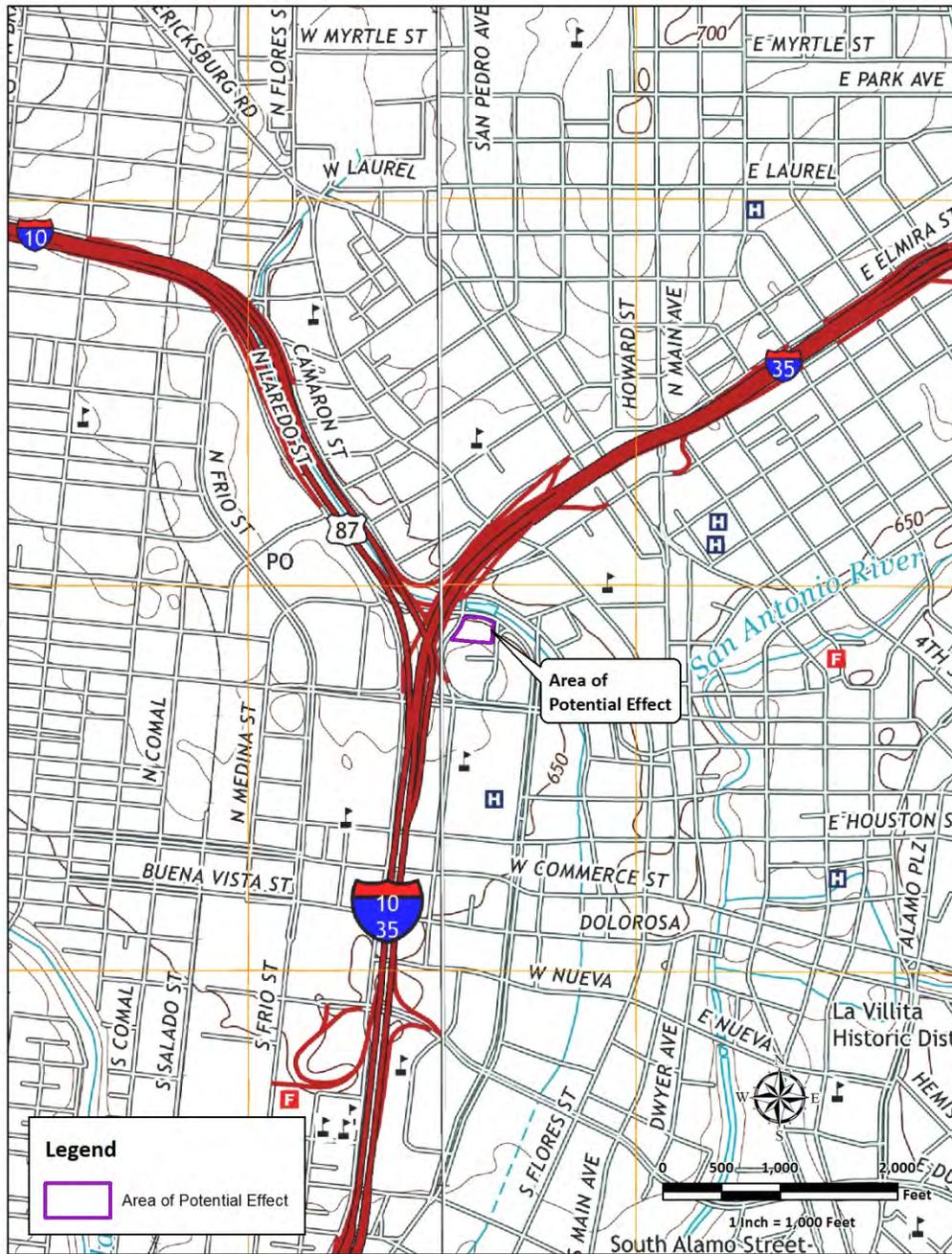


Figure 1-1. The APE on the combined San Antonio East (1998-133) and San Antonio West (1998-132) USGS 7.5-minute quadrangle map.

The open field located to the west of the parking lot was recently mowed. Pockets of the lot contained no grasses and were eroded. Near the gate at the southern edge of the field, no grasses were growing and artifacts were noted eroding out on the surface.



Figure 1-2. Current aerial of the APE.

Chapter 2: Historical Background and Previous Archaeology

Interest in the upper reaches of the San Antonio River drainage, and in particular San Pedro Springs and the San Antonio River came about as a result of increased concern by the Spanish Crown that the French would infringe on territory claimed by Spain. Neither the wealth nor the military resources of the Spanish crown permitted a large-scale military expansion beyond the Rio Bravo to offer a robust response to French presence. Therefore, the crown was much more supportive of a softer approach that in part took advantage of the zeal of the Church to “civilize” the thousands of native groups living beyond the Rio Bravo. The strategy that was born out of this mutual interest was one that depended primarily on the Church to establish a missionary foothold in the unexplored frontier and rely on the padres to attract Indian neophytes who would eventually be civilized and would become tax-contributing citizens of the crown. These advances into the unexplored country to the north would receive token support from a small number of civilian-soldiers who would also defend the civilian towns established near the missions.

The Spanish began systematic and repeated incursions across the Rio Bravo as early as the 1680s to establish relations with the native groups of east-central Texas, whom they hoped would serve as a buffer against the French. These initial explorations left Mexico from Mission San Juan Bautista (in the area of modern day Guerrero, Mexico and Eagle Pass on the state side) and followed the northerly route crossing the Nueces, Leona, and Frio Rivers before reaching the San Antonio River drainage.

While other earlier expeditions (i.e., Masanet 1691; Hatcher 1932) must have passed by San Pedro Springs, the first clearly identifiable description of the feature appears in the Mezquía diary of the Espinoza-Olivares-Aguirre expedition of 1709 (Tous 1930). Apparently, this was the first Spanish expedition that reached the area that would later become San Antonio. The expedition members came to the site on April 13, 1709. The diarist noted that the water emanating from the springs was abundant. Espinoza decided that the springs provided sufficient water to support an entire town (Hoffman 1938).

In 1716, by order of the Duke of Linares, Viceroy of New Spain, a new expedition was organized to the Province of Texas. This expedition was led by Captain Domingo Ramón, who was accompanied by 55 individuals, soldiers and civilians. The expedition reached the vicinity of San Pedro Creek on May 14th. Espinosa, the expedition’s diarist, states that after leaving Leon Creek the party “entered the plain at the San Antonio River. At the end of the plain there is a small forest of sparse mesquites, and some oaks.

To it succeeds the water of the San Pedro; sufficient for a mission. Along the bank of the latter, which has a thicket of all kinds of wood, and by an open path we arrived at the River San Antonio. " (Tous 1930:9).

Prompted by favorable impressions of the upper reaches of the San Antonio River provided by these expeditions, Governor Martin de Alarcón lobbied for the establishment of a settlement in the area to serve as a way-station to expeditions traveling to the Tejas of east Texas. The Crown granted his wishes in late 1717. Thirty families were to be commissioned to enter the Texas frontier and settle a new town in the vicinity of San Pedro Springs. The families were to receive land, livestock, supplies, and a salary (de la Teja 1995). However, Alarcón was unable to attract the interest of this many would be settlers. Only 72 persons, including three padres, six soldiers and their families, an engineer, a stone mason, a blacksmith, muleteers, and servants (Hoffman 1938:312), volunteered to settle the new town.

Governor Alarcón and the rest of the expedition party left San Juan Bautista Mission and crossed the Rio Grande del Norte on February 16, 1718. Fr. Pedro de Mezquía, a missionary in Coahuila, kept a diary of the events. The expeditionary party consisted of seventy-two individuals, and also included sheep, cattle, goats, horses, and chickens (Hoffman 1938). Three people from the party were described as "religious" and would likely be the padres that would help to establish the new mission in the San Antonio area. The remainder of the party consisted of soldiers and their families, civilians, and the mule team leaders.

Fray Antonio de Olivares of the Querétaro College was to serve as the mission Padre. Olivares grew increasingly impatient as Alarcón assembled the group and performed necessary duties while they were at the Capital. Adding to his frustrations was the unwillingness of the commandant of the Presidio, Capitan Diego Ramon, to supply soldiers as escorts (Hoffmann 1935:23-24). While Olivares had left Saltillo at an earlier date, he could not leave San Juan Bautista without soldiers to escort his group to San Antonio (Hoffmann 1935:23). Olivares was forced to wait until Alarcón arrived at the Presidio. When it came time to leave, Alarcon's party crossed the Rio Grande on April 9, 1718 and Olivares left San Joseph Mission on April 18th (Hoffmann1935:23-25). Alarcón's group arrived near the San Antonio River on April 25, 1718, while Olivares arrived on May 1st (Hoffman 1935: 23, 24; Weddle 1968). Mezquía indicated that the party "arrived at about noon at the first spring of San Antonio which is about six leagues distant" from the Medina River (Hoffman 1938:317). Céliz clearly identifies this first spring as San Pedro Springs which is about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a league from the principal river (see Hoffmann 1935:48).

During the first week at the site, Alarcón went on several excursions to investigate the surrounding land (Hoffman 1938). His group found that there was a good water source from both the springs at San Pedro and the headwaters of the San Antonio River. On May 1st, Alarcón and Father Olivares founded Mission San Antonio de Valero. On May 5th, Governor Alarcón performed the necessary rituals to make claim to the land and establish Villa de Bejar (Hoffmann 1935:23, 49).

By May 5th, Fray Olivares had already begun the construction of a jacal that was to serve as a chapel, a dormitory for the religious, and a store room for the supplies (Hoffmann 1938:318). Mezquía noted that the location of the new mission “is near the first spring, half a league from a high ground and adjoining a small thicket of live oaks” (Hoffman 1938:318). Fr. Francisco de Céliz, a missionary from Coahuila, who served as the official diarist of the expedition, wrote that the site of the first mission was three-fourths of a league (1.97 mi.) south of the springs, along San Pedro Creek, on the west side of the San Antonio River (Hoffman 1935:49). The location was to be temporary, being used until the Native inhabitants returned from their seasonal hunting and gathering trips (Cox 2005). The mission stayed at the first location for about a year before being moved to the east bank of the San Antonio River (Habig 1990).

The civilian settlement, the Villa, was to be occupied by settlers who also were to guard it (Hoffmann 1935:49). Mezquía noted that the villa was located between the creek and the river, and the mission was placed at a distance from the villa (Cox 2005).

There are discrepancies in the distances provided by the accounts, although both indicate that the villa was established in the immediate vicinity of “the first spring” (Hoffman 1938:318). In addition, it is not stated whether the distances were measured along the stream channel/meander or in a straight line. However, it is possible that the distances were indeed on-the-ground measurements rather than straight-line estimates.

One possible approach to estimating the location of the first site of the mission is to measure the half-league distance from San Pedro Springs south along the creek channel. The original orientation of the creek is well illustrated on historic maps of the area (Koch’s Bird’s Eye View of San Antonio; J.J. Olsen and Son Map of San Antonio 1889) even though the channel is partially hidden today under IH-35. These maps suggest that the route of the channel has not changed significantly in this stretch of the creek between the late-19th and mid-20th centuries.

Therefore, measuring the one-half league distance, according to Mezquía, along the modern channel may provide a reasonable estimate of the location of the mission’s first site, assuming, of course that

the distance estimate was based on on-the-ground rather than straight-line “as the crow flies” measurements. Hoffman, in his translation of the Céliz diary, states that in Spanish America, the judicial league was employed as the standard of measurement. He indicated that this unit of measurement represents 4,190 meters (Hoffman 1935:91). Using this unit of measurement, therefore, the one-half league measurement would place the site of the mission approximately 2,095 meters downstream of the springs following the creek channel.

The question that remains is where exactly is the distance measured from, the south end of the pool of water or the north end where the water emanated? Since the account references a high ground, we chose to measure the distance from the northern end of the modern pool, where a steep limestone escarpment is the first indication of a topographic rise across the landscape. Beginning with these assumptions then and measuring 2,095 meters along the channel of the creek, one arrives to just north of the location where the San Francisco di Paola Church sits. The actual location of the parking lot of the Church is approximately 2,110 meters downstream of the spring, only 15 meters off the 2,095 meter estimate. Therefore, it would appear that the location of the Church matches most closely the estimated distance provided in the Mezquía account for the first site of the Mission San Antonio de Valero.

The mission, presidio, and villa appeared to have stayed at their initial locations during the first year (Cox 2005). By winter, Native groups, including the Xarames, Payayas, and Pamayas, had assembled at the mission. Alarcón had left San Antonio for East Texas in the fall, returning with additional supplies from Mexico in January of 1719. Historians writing about the event indicate that Alarcón was happy to see the Native Americans gathered at the mission site (Habig 1968; Cox 2005). According to Céliz, the Native Americans appeared to have been instructed in the faith and assembled when called by the church bell (Hoffman 1935:86). Alarcón proceeded to distribute gifts and appoint positions to the chiefs (Hoffman 1935).

The construction of *acequias* that was to serve the villa, presidio, and the mission commenced in January of 1719 prompted by orders from Governor Alarcón who had just returned to the site with provisions (Hoffmann 1935:55-56). Mezquía’s reports on the location of the mission’s *acequia* appear to support that the second, more permanent site for the mission had been determined (Cox 2005; Hoffman 1935; Hoffman 1938). And, by the summer of 1719, Olivares moved Mission Valero to the east side of the river (Habig 1968; 1990).

After it was abandoned, the first site of Mission Valero likely remained uninhabited until the late 1800s. The second location is believed by some later historians to be the spot on which St. Joseph's Church currently stands. Other historians such as James Ivey, more recently have placed the second location in the area of La Villita. Research conducted by Father Habig (1968; 1990) suggested that a stone chapel had been constructed at the second mission location. Records indicated that the chapel stood until 1756 and was referred to as Capilla de la Santa Cruz (Habig 1990).

In 1724, Mission Valero was moved to its third and final location after a hurricane destroyed much of what had been constructed (Cox 2005). The third location was approximately 1/8 of a mile from the second site (Habig 1995). The first site of Mission Valero after it was abandoned likely lay in disuse as a residential area until the late 1800s.

Expected Archaeological Signatures of the Mission Site

Historical accounts indicate that the Mission buildings and facilities began to be constructed soon after Fray Olivares arrived to the site (May 5th). However, by the summer of 1719, the mission was moved to a new location on the east bank of the San Antonio River. Based on this timeline, the mission operated at this first location for approximately 12 to perhaps 14 months.

While we know that some 72 persons accompanied the expedition, most would have been involved in the establishment of the secular villa rather than the mission. Only a small segment of the expeditionary groups would have actually been involved in the initial founding and the building of the mission itself. However, while the Spanish and mulato population would have been a small fraction of the founders residing at the first location of the mission, the native groups would have made up the bulk of the residents at the mission.

Even if the population of the newly established mission was small in the early months, by winter, the mission had Native groups assembling at its location. Alarcón made his way to Rio del Norte during the summer, returning to San Antonio with additional supplies in January of 1719. Accounts indicate that he was happy to see the Native Americans gathered at the mission site upon his return, since by this time "there were many Indians of the three following tribes in the mission of San Antonio de Balero, to wit: Xarames, Payayas, and Pamayas." Hoffman 1935). Therefore, it appears as if the increase in mission native population could have aided construction efforts especially during the second half of the first year of occupation.

The length of occupation of the first site as well as the number of neophytes that were present are important aspects of what one may expect to be the archaeological signatures of the first site. That is, the material culture that would have been manufactured and abandoned and architectural features that would have been constructed and used were conditioned by the general cycle and well-practiced specific procedures of mission establishment, as well as the number of residents present at the site and the length of site occupation. The following section outlines some of the expected archaeological signatures that would be correlated with the first site of Mission San Antonio de Valero. The discussion is organized into three sections, one focused on architectural elements, a second on possible features and facilities, and yet another on artifact collections that may be found or should be expected at the first mission site in the San Antonio River drainage.

Architectural Features

The Mezquía diary states that Fr. Olivares himself was building the first structure, a *jacal* church, when the remainder of the expeditionary party arrived to the site on April 25, 1718. He had begun his track to the upper reaches of the San Antonio River, and arrived a few days ahead of the main expeditionary force. Chabot states that the padre had three Indians assisting in the construction of the *jacal* (Fr. Olivares' recollections). The *jacal* was used as a church, as a residence of the padres and his companions, and also a store room for supplies. Francisco de Barreiro y Alvarez, a Military Engineer, stated that he assisted the Padre in the construction of the Church (Wagner 1967). The fact that the structure served and had to accommodate multiple functions suggest that it was a relatively large building with a large footprint. *Jacal* construction techniques may leave little archaeological signature if after the abandonment, the structure simply decays or is demolished. On the other hand, the burning of a *jacal* structure does leave more extensive and more archaeological visible signatures in the form of burnt clay with imprints of poles, burnt clay floors, charcoal, and potentially burnt post remnants.

Typically, following the construction of the church came the building of a residence for the padre(s) that accompanied the expedition. Given, the description of the aforementioned *jacal*, it is possible that the construction of such a residence may not have occurred during the first year of site occupation. If, on the other hand, it did take place, this structure also would have been a temporary shelter, most likely made in the form of a *jacal* or wattle and daub architecture. A kitchen facility would also have been erected reasonably quickly to allow for the feeding of the neophytes since many of the padres recognized that often the Indian groups that joined the missions did so for a dependable food source. Initially, the residences for the neophytes would have been built of brush and would have remained

rather temporary well after the mission was in use even for decades in some cases. More permanent structures built of adobe would have followed but only years after other facilities were established (see Mission San José; Ivey et al., 1990:114). In San Antonio de Bejar, these structures most likely would have been constructed of wattle and daub, adobe or stone. Having a serviceable acequia as soon as possible was critical to planting the spring corn so that by late summer/early fall a harvest could take place. Irrigated fields adjacent to the mission site would have been laid out shortly thereafter followed by the larger irrigated fields that would be planted away from the mission. Since the expedition arrived in May, it appears to have been too late to begin constructing the acequia for the 1718 planting season. Instead, the construction of the acequia that was to serve both the civilian settlement and the mission commenced in January of 1719. By the end of the month, a great deal of progress had been made and corn, beans, and other grains could be planted during the spring (Hoffman 1935:86). The civilian settlement called the Villa de Bejar was established within close proximity to San Pedro Springs for "...the civilian settlement and the soldiers who are to guard it,.." At the time it served both as the Villa as well as the Presidio, since the adult members of the settlement also served as soldiers, sent to defend the territory. The mission of San Antonio de Valero was established by the governor "...about three-fourths of a league down the creek.." according to Céliz. So, the Villa was up-stream of the mission and the acequia was to serve both the fields of the mission and the fields of the civilian settlement.

The sequence of acequia that serviced the first civilian and mission fields was not the Alamo Acequia but rather the San Pedro Acequia. The yield of the first crops from this *acequia* would have been planted during the spring of 1719, meaning that construction suggests that the Alamo Acequia was not begun in 1719 but rather in 1720.

Activity Area Features

The archaeological signatures of such temporary buildings, particularly of the brush "lean-to" type would be difficult to identify especially if thermal cooking features and trash disposal and other activity areas were not associated with them. One of the methods employed by the padres to help neophytes transition into the new world order was to teach them new trades including agriculture, carpentry, and weaving. In addition, a number of tasks with specific and unique skill sets were also performed regularly by residents during the day-to-day operations of the mission. Many of these tasks were performed either away from the mission or within the mission compound but in designated, specific workshops. Based on the descriptions of the practices associated with the founding and operations of missions, few activities occurred in outdoor settings or outdoor activity areas. This pattern of activity area

organization contrasts dramatically with the commonly employed outdoor generalized and/or specialized activity areas that are the norm in hunter-gatherer camps (Hitchcock 1985).

Cultural Materials and Their Distribution

It is likely that at least hearths would have been present in each family's domicile although trash disposal appears to have occurred into specific trash dumps away from the residential areas. In addition, storage pits do not appear to have been a standard element of mission residences although at least one archaeological find made at mission Espada, suggests that some family compounds did maintain clandestine storage pits in the floor of their later adobe room-blocks.

The material culture that would have been utilized and portions of which would have been discarded and or lost on site would have been a combination of Native American-made items and Spanish Colonial manufactured and/or used materials. The Native American materials would have likely included examples of expedient lithic artifacts, debris from the manufacture of chipped stone artifacts, manufacture-failed items, cores, and worn-out and/or use-broken tools. Also present could be Native American-made artifacts using non-traditional materials such as arrow points and minimally retouched tools such as knives made of recycled glass, and arrow points made of metal. Analyses of the lithic technology of Native groups residing in the missions of San Antonio indicate that the tool kit consisted primarily of expedient tools. Ceramic technology would have been dominated by bone-tempered wares made by neophytes both for household consumption as well as to supply the pottery needs of the entire community.

The Spanish Colonial material culture would have been dominated by tin and lead glazed wares such as majolicas, Olive Jars, Red Browns wares, and Yellow and Green Glazed I and II wares. The manufacture of Olive Jars began as early as 1580 and continued for nearly 200 years while the other wares were made for approximately 100 years beginning in the early 1700s. Tin glazed wares that could also be associated with the 1718 occupation of the mission site should include Puebla Blue on White, Abo Polychrome, Puebla Polychrome, San Luis Polychrome, Castillo Polychrome, San Augustin Blue on White, and Puebla Plain. Each of these types began to be manufactured either as early as the middle of the 17th century of early 18th century and therefore would be diagnostic of a 1718 occupation of the locality.

Other Spanish Colonial artifacts that would likely be encountered could include wrought iron nails and spikes, copper fragments, lead derived from the manufacture of bullets, and olive glass.

In the spring of 1719, Olivares was injured as he crossed the San Pedro Creek on his burro to inspect progress on the acequia (Cox 2005). After he recovered from his injuries, in the summer of 1719, Olivares moved Mission Valero to the east side of the river (Habig 1990). The second location is often believed to be the spot on which St. Joseph's Church currently stands, or possibly in the area of La Villita. Research conducted by Father Habig (1990:159) indicated that a stone chapel had been constructed at the second mission location. Records indicated that the chapel stood until 1756 and was referred to as Capilla de la Santa Cruz (Habig 1990:159).

Mission Valero was moved to its third and final location in 1724 after a hurricane had destroyed much of what had been constructed (Cox 2005). The third location was approximately 1/8 of a mile north of the second site (Habig 1990).

The first site of Mission Valero after it was abandoned likely lay in disuse or became a residential area until the late 1800s.

The History of the Study Area

While the area west of San Pedro Creek was used as agricultural land by the mid-eighteenth century, (see Urrutia's 1767 map), San Pedro Springs and its immediate vicinity were outside of the original town tract of 1839 and 1845. Through the first few decades of the nineteenth century, while the area between the San Antonio River and San Pedro Creek was being populated, the region west of San Pedro Creek was considered too dangerous for settlement. By 1848, a few adventurous settlers began acquiring and occupying tracts on the west bank of the creek and by 1852, the town tract map depicts a major expansion that included a much larger area well beyond the limits of the creek and San Pedro Springs itself.

The property included in the APE was sold to José Casiano by J.M. Devine (Mayor of San Antonio) in August of 1849 (BCDR H1:282-283). José Casiano conveyed a portion of the property to Refugia Flores y Garza in January of 1855 (BCDR M2:476-477). The remaining part of the property was conveyed by Casiano to Gregorio Hermann in April of 1855 (BCDR G2:126-127). Deed records indicate that Jesus de la Garza, husband of Refugia, entered into a contract with Gregorio Hermann to construct a one-story house that measured 18 long, 6 broad, and the walls were to be 18-inches thick and plastered with lime (BCDR N1:185-186). The contract stipulated that Hermann was to deliver stone, earth, and sand for the structure. The Cassiano and de la Garza families are two very prominent early San Antonio families.

Cesario Torres acquired a portion of the property in 1861 from Refugia and Jesus de la Garza (BCDR S2:101). Refugia and Jesus de la Garza conveyed another portion to Torres in October of 1868 (BCDR U1:576-77). Lawsuits filed against Torres caused him to have to sell the property via a Sheriffs Deed dated February, 1909 (BCDR 304:405-406). Torres' heirs took possession in 1916 as part of a Quit-Claim Deed (BCDR 493:392-393). The heirs also lost the property in a lawsuit several years later. On June 10, 1925, the property was sold as a Quit-Claim Deed to Bernard Franza (BCDR 831:256). A Receiver's Deed indicates that the property was sold in a private sale according to the court order. As part of the judgment against the Torres heirs, Charles Max Uhl conveyed the property to Bernard Franza for a sum of \$7000 (BCDR 831:256-257). Bernard Franza conveyed the property to nearby residents in June of 1926. The individuals included A. Altobelli, B. Catalani, Paul Broggi, Frank Talerico, Joe DiCarlo, C. Fecci, G. Gerodetti, and Salvatore Granato (BCDR 891:541-543). The aforementioned persons conveyed the property to the Christoforo Columbus Society, of which they were all part (BCDR 953:320-321) in June of 1927. In October, the deed was amended to reflect the new name of the society, the Christofer Columbus Italian Society (BCDR 979:356-357).

The first Italian Society in San Antonio, the Societa Italiana di Mutuo Soccorso, was founded by Antonio Bruni, Augustine Rubino, Francesco Rubiolo, José Cassiano, Luigi Moglia, and Paolo Columbo in 1884 (Belfiglio 1995). On May 14, the Societa Italiana Cristoforo Colombo was chartered by Cavaliere Carlo Alberto Solaro and fifteen additional Italians in the community (Institute of Texan Cultures 1973). This benevolent-fraternal organization was later to be known as the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The Society aimed at providing loans to local Italian families in need, offering entrepreneurial and employment advice, and provided English classes for new immigrants, as well as organized social events and festivals (Belfiglio 1995). According to the history of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society, the Society donated the land on which the Italian community constructed San Francesco di Paola in 1927. The next year, the Society opened the first Italian Hall located adjacent to the Church (CCIS 2015). In 1957, the Society donated a statue of Christopher Columbus to the City of San Antonio. The City placed the statue in Columbus Park, located to the south of the Church and Italian Hall.

The park had been called Franklin Square as early as 1881 (SAMA 2015a). Franklin Square appears on the 1892 key map, but there are not detailed pages for the area. This is the earliest Sanborn map on which the Square appears; early maps do not illustrate the current project area. The 1896 Sanborn map depicted both the Square and the area that the Society would later obtain (Figure 2-1). The name of the square was changed at the time that the Columbus statue was dedicated. It is possible that at least one

of the two “adobe” structures identified on the 1896 Sanborn’s map could be associated with the 1855 structure mentioned earlier.

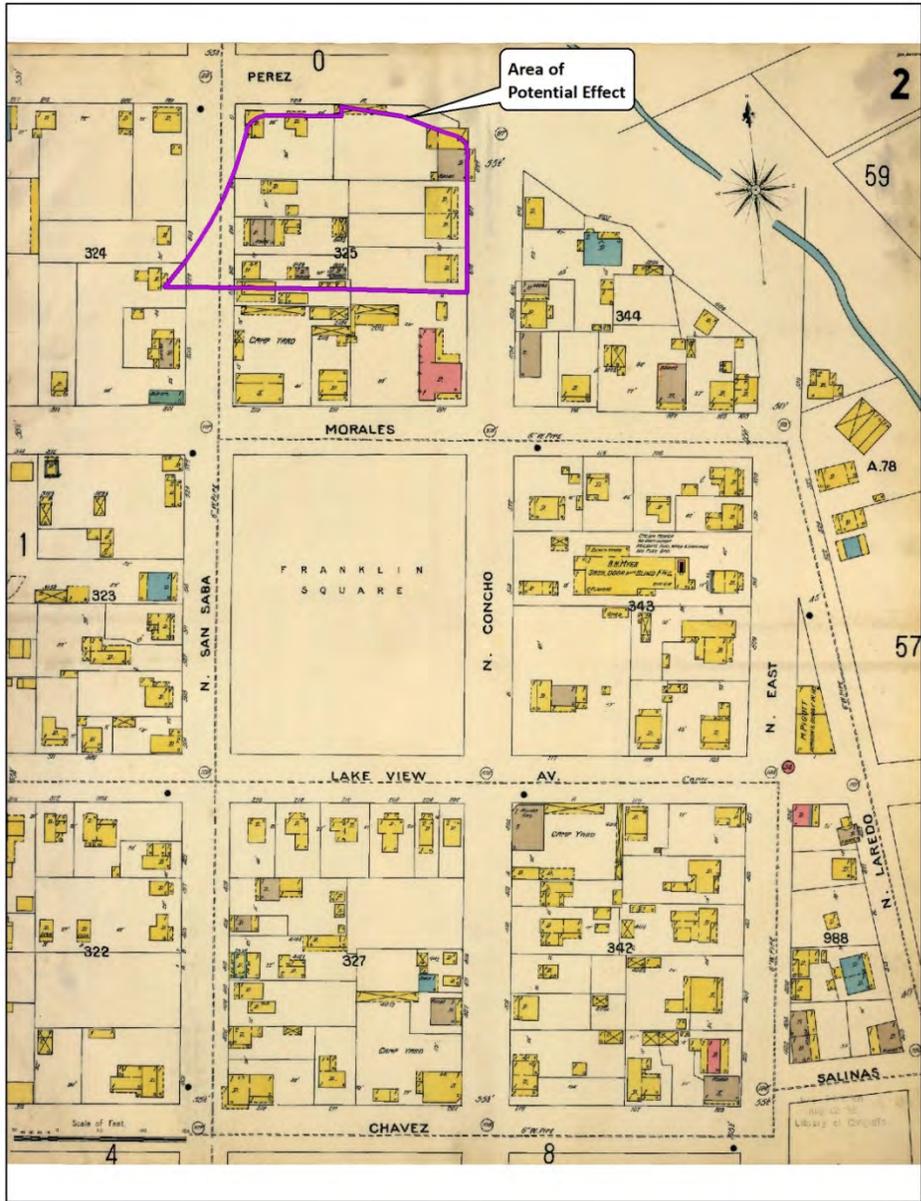


Figure 2-1. The 1896 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map with the current APE.

The 1904 Sanborn map also identifies the park as Franklin Square. A series of paths lead to a center circle. By 1904, it appears that at least one of the adobes is no longer standing (Figure 2-2). One structure is present in a similar location as one of the adobes, but it is not labeled as “adobe” on this version of the Fire Insurance Maps. It was not uncommon that structures labeled “adobe” on the

Sanborn's maps were actually constructed of a soft limestone.

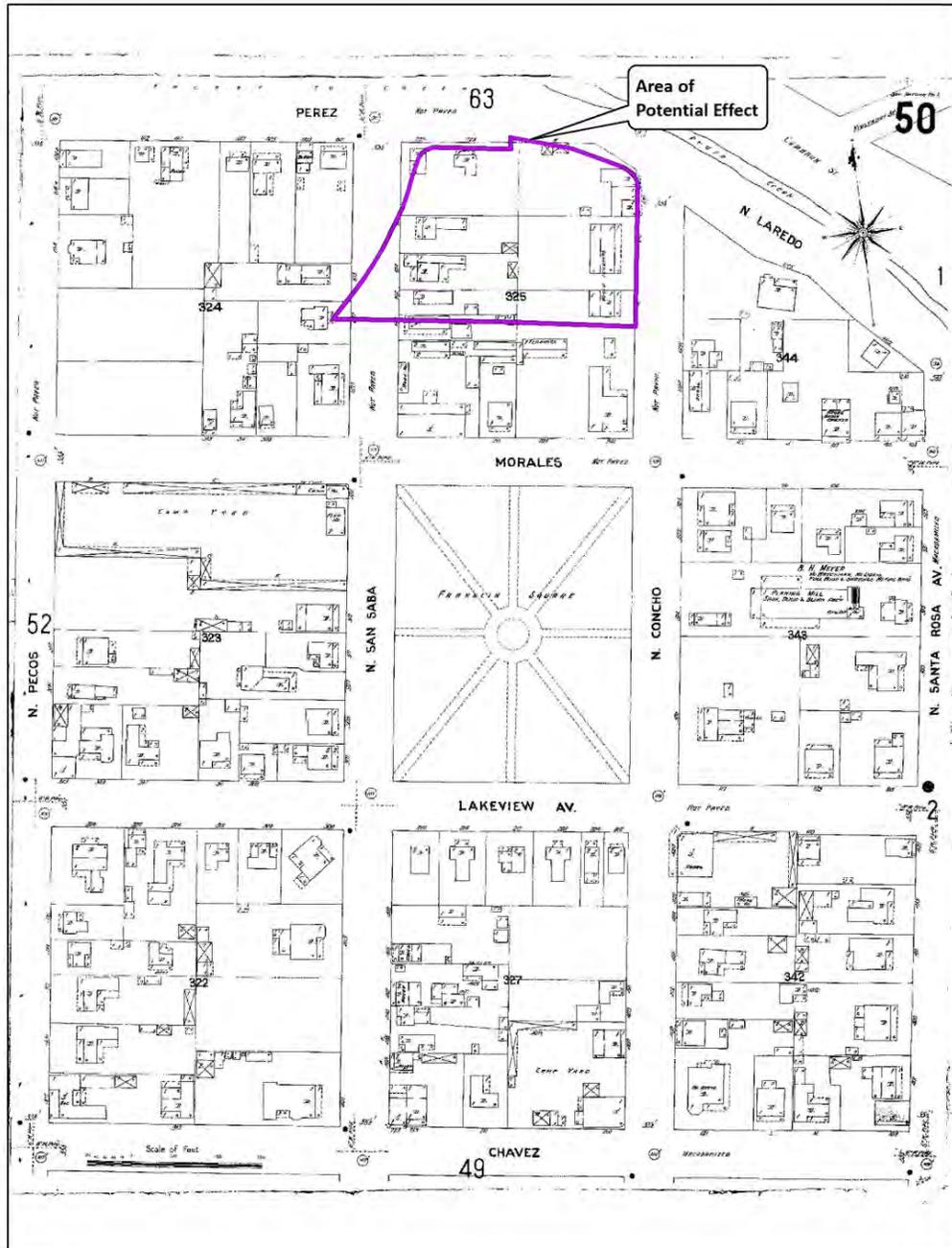


Figure 2-2. The 1904 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map of the APE.

The 1911-1924 Sanborn Map depicts the project area in 1911 (Figure 2-3). The park is identified as Franklin Square. The adobe structure is no longer standing. N. Laredo Street has been further developed with additional dwellings. The entire block appears to be a residential area. This map series

was drawn prior to the construction of the Church and Italian Hall. At this time, a large structure and a few smaller dwellings were present on the property.

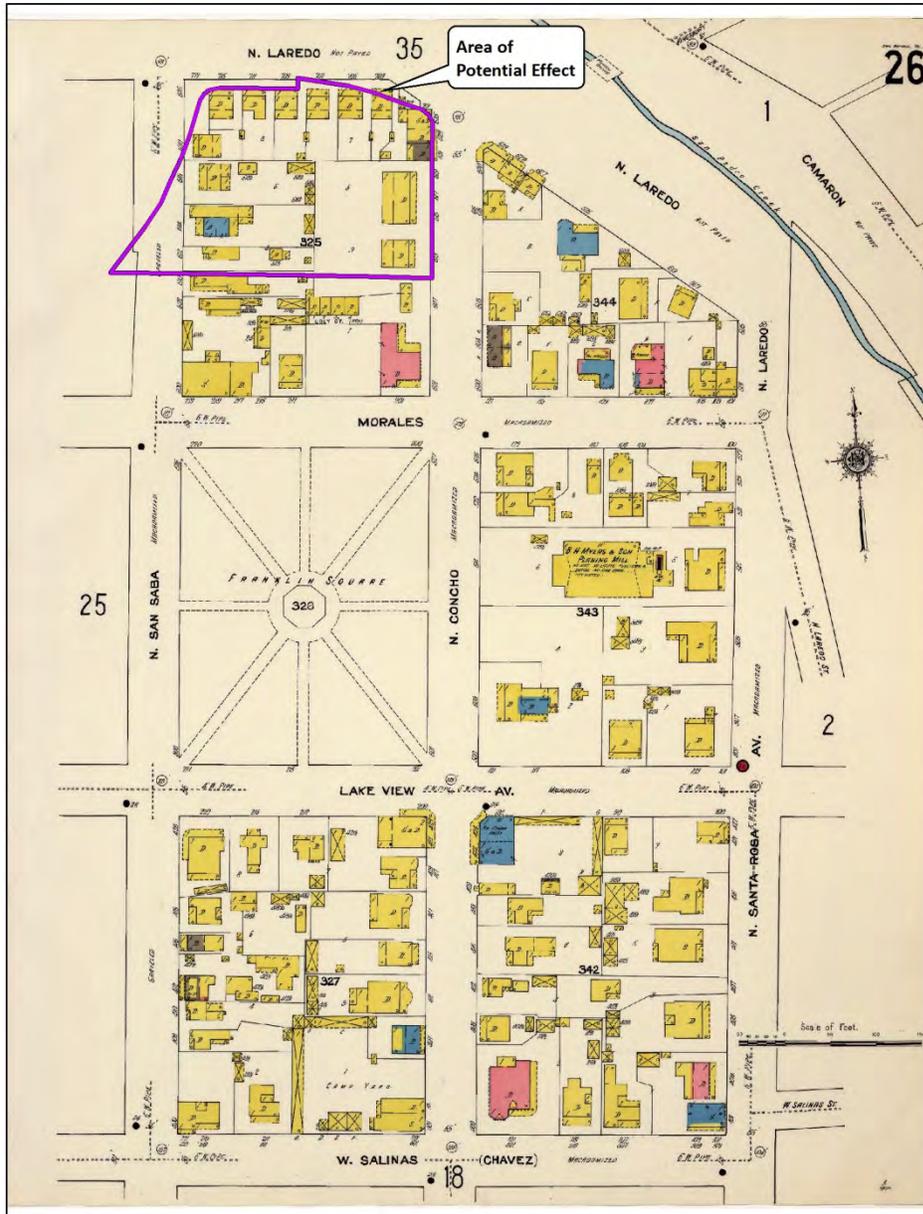


Figure 2-3. The 1911-1924 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map depicting the APE.

In the next Sanborn Fire Insurance Map, the Church and Hall had been constructed (Figure 2-4). The 1911-1950 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map depicts the Church and the Hall surrounded by a residential neighborhood. Dwellings are present to the north and west of the Church. In addition, the park is still

called Franklin Square. A portion of North Concho was renamed North Columbus.

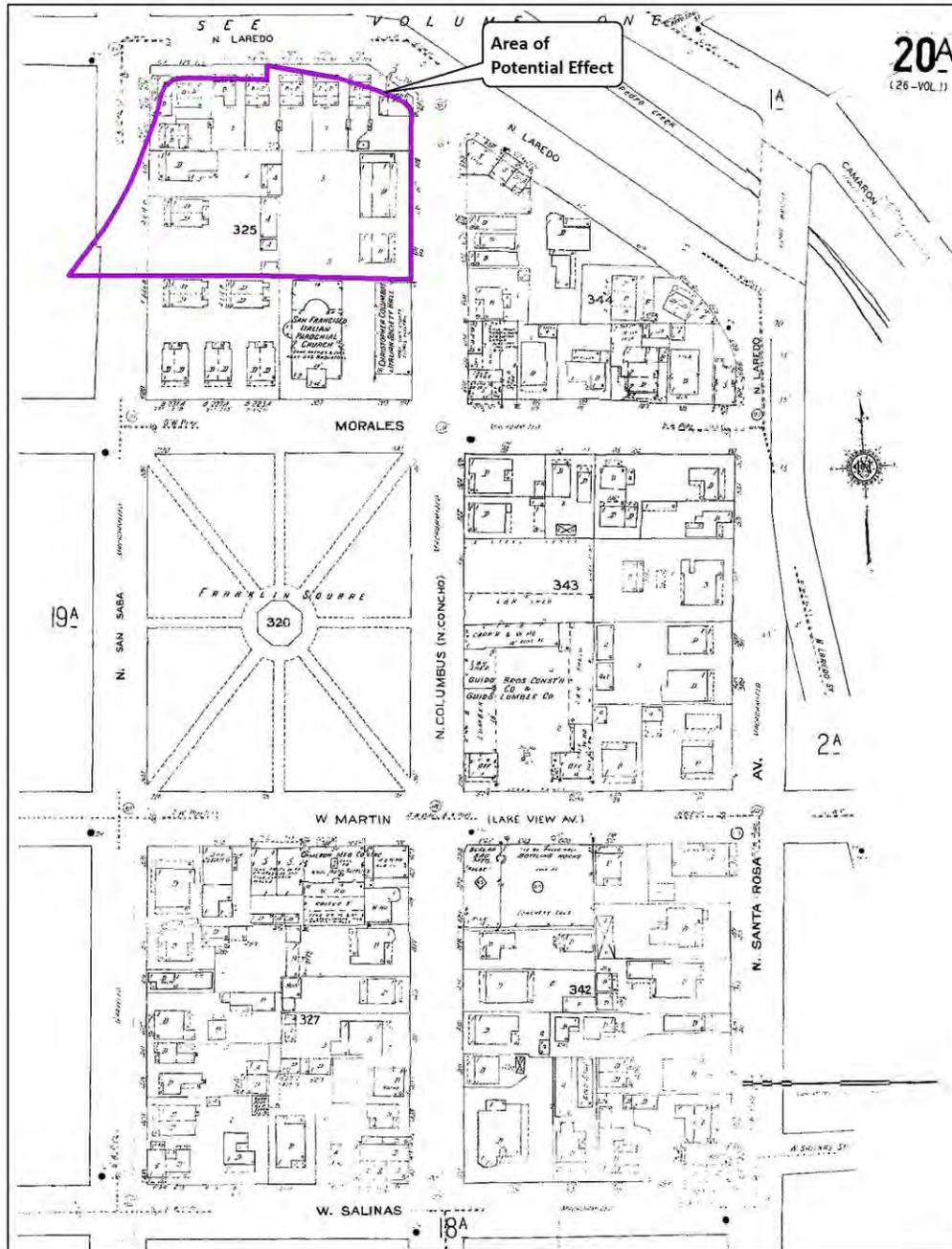


Figure 2-4. The 1911-1950 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map with the APE.

By March of 1963, the Rosa Verde Urban Renewal project was in the planning stage (Figure 2-5). The City of San Antonio approved and passed Ordinance 31193, allowing the City of San Antonio to petition for an advance in Federal funds (SAMA 2015b). In 1967, a portion of Columbus Park was deeded to the

Renewal Agency. The Society realized that portions of San Saba and Morales Street were to be closed impeding the flow of traffic to the Church and Hall. In addition to traffic concerns, the Society felt that the project would impact the available parking in the area. The City motioned to study the matters further (CCMM Feb. 25, 1971). As part of the solution, the Urban Renewal Agency deeded to the Society a parcel of land that could be used for additional parking (CCMM Feb. 25, 1971). In preparation for the development of the area and construction of IH-35, all the structures that had been located in Block 325 other than the Church and the Hall were razed.

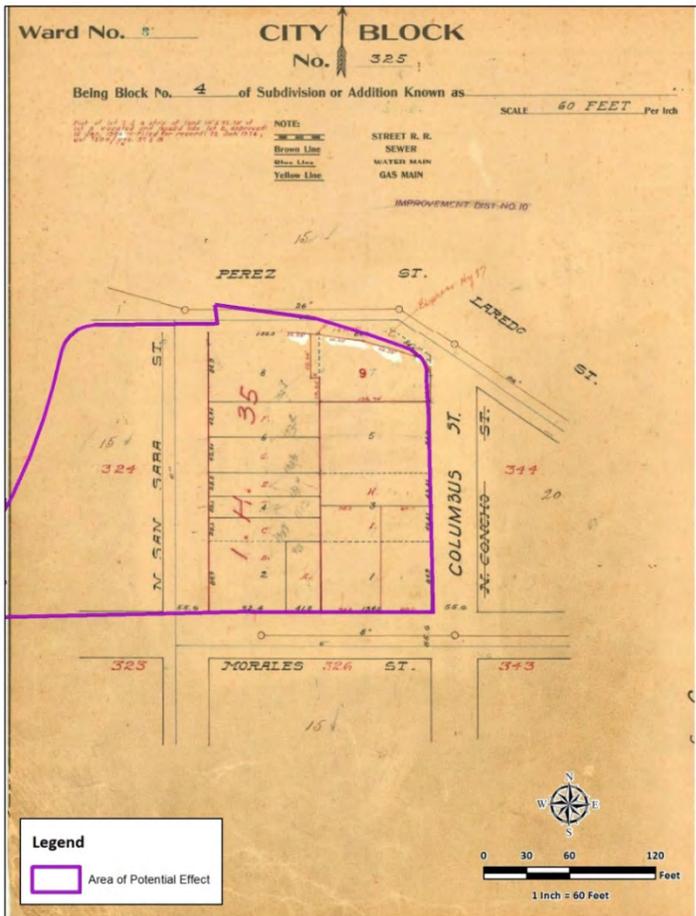


Figure 2-5. Plat with the APE showing the block behind the Church to be used for IH-35.

An aerial photograph taken in March of 1968 on file at the Institute of Texan Cultures shows that IH-10 had a loop for the interchange that occupied the property west of the Church. This would indicate that there had been much disturbance to the open field and the location of the parking lot to the west. The interchange construction resulted in the grading of the property, and movement of the soils to

accommodate the interchange, as well as the introduction of base material for the ramp. Once the ramp was removed, the property would have undergone additional grading. It is possible that much of the colonial surface would have been removed from the property during the construction and removal of the interchange.

Previous Archaeology

The previous archaeology for the project area has been discussed in Nichols (2015), and this section provides a recap of that work. The project area was surveyed in 1979 by UTSA-CAR for the Army Corps of Engineers, Fort Worth Division. No archaeological sites were recorded in the vicinity of the Church or Hall. Three sites were recorded in the general vicinity of the APE located approximately 0.32 to 0.60 km from the project area: 41BX508, 41BX514, and 41BX992. Site 41BX508 is located approximately 0.3 km to the southeast of the current project area. The site, the Menger Soap Works, was recorded by Anne Fox of UTSA-CAR. The Soap Works was in operation during the mid-19th Century to the mid-20th Century. The structure had fallen into ruins and was later converted into a clubhouse for an apartment complex (THC 2015).

Located approximately 0.6 km to the northwest of the current APE is site 41BX514, the Ximenes Chapel. The chapel is also known as the Chapel of the Miracles and is listed on the National Register of Historic Places. The Chapel was likely constructed during the 1850s or 1860s by Juan Ximenes who was a soldier in the Texas Army, once having fought in the Storming of Bexar. The chapel has been altered, but retains its historical significance. Within the chapel is a crucifix that is reported to have been removed from Mission San Antonio de Valero. It is possible that the crucifix was entrusted to the Ximenes family once the mission was secularized. The chapel stands on private property but is open to the public (THC 2015). Chabot believed that this location was the first site of the mission (Chabot 1937).

Site 41BX992 (Milam Square or Milam Park) is located approximately 0.6 km to the south of the current project area. The area was used as a cemetery until 1885. Some documentation indicates that the burials were removed to the City Cemetery after 1885, although the archives are scant with information (Tennis 1995). Subsequently, the property was used as a City Park. In 1993, the Center for Archaeological Research removed a burial that was believed to be that of Ben Milam (THC 2015).

In addition to the archaeological survey that was conducted in 1979, the project area falls within the boundaries of a neighborhood survey conducted in 1981. Several residential structures were recorded

along Kingsbury Street located east of the APE. Immediately to the east of the project area are the Towne Center Apartments which were recorded during the 1981 survey as well. The NRHP eligibility of the apartments was not listed (THC 2015).

From December 2012 to March of 2013, the UTSA-CAR was contracted by the San Antonio River Authority and conducted a historic standing structure survey along San Pedro Creek. A portion of San Pedro Creek that was part of the standing structure survey was located to the north of the current APE, and the northern most portion of the APE was identified as property that was considered potentially eligible for listing on the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP), mainly due to the potential for the area to be the first location of Mission San Antonio de Bexar. In addition, the apartment complex located to the east of the San Francesco di Paola Catholic Church was found to be not eligible for listing to the NRHP (Tomka et al 2013).

In May of 2013, the UTSA-CAR conducted an archaeological investigation at Columbus Park and the property owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society (Nichols 2014). A total of 31 shovel tests and three test units were excavated during the course of the project. Surface collection within the APE owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society produced a few small fragments of artifacts that could potentially date to the Spanish Colonial Period of San Antonio. These included a forged nail, a majolica sherd, olive glass, a trade bead, and a lead fragment. Test Unit excavations produced a few small fragments of majolica and lead-glazed ceramics that could potentially date to the Spanish Colonial Period. The majority of the cultural material recovered during the investigation consisted of artifacts that dated to the nineteenth to twentieth century. The investigation concluded that it was possible that the Spanish Colonial material had been re-deposited during the construction of the Church and Hall in 1927. UTSA-CAR recommended that additional archaeological investigations be conducted to determine if evidence was present that could definitively identify the APE as the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero (Nichols 2014).

Chapter 3: Review of Historic Aerials

The historic aerials of the project area were examined to gather information concerning the more recent impacts to the APE. The earliest aerial obtained for the area was taken in 1938 (Figure 3-1). The Christopher Columbus Italian Society Hall and San Francesco di Paola Catholic Church had already been constructed. However, the 1938 aerial is not clear enough to see each of the structures individually. Nonetheless, it is evident that the area immediately south of San Pedro Creek is heavily developed.



Figure 3-1. The 1938 aerial of the project area.

The 1963 aerial is slightly clearer and depicts the Church, Hall, and neighborhood (Figure 3-2). Several buildings occupy the area that is now an open field. It appears there was a structure located in the area that currently has artifacts eroding on the surface. The aerial was taken before the Urban Renewal Project was implemented.



Figure 3-2. The 1963 aerial of the APE showing houses located north of the Church and Hall.

By 1966, the neighborhood located north of the Church had been razed (Figure 3-3). In addition, a highway interchange associated with IH-35 takes up the majority of the space where the community once stood. A portion of the area located to the north of the Church and Hall has also been converted into a parking lot.



Figure 3-3. The 1966 aerial of the project area showing the highway interchange loop.

The 1977 aerial shows that the parking lot to the north of the Church and Hall was increased in size

(Figure 3-4). The parking lot was extended to what is now N. Santa Rosa Street. It is likely that the retaining wall that is seen from the street-level at the downslope edge of the parking lot was constructed at this time. In addition, it appears that Columbus Park has undergone some renovations to include a basketball court, parking, picnic areas, restrooms, and a pavilion with water feature.



Figure 3-4. The 1977 aerial showing the expanded parking lot.

The 1985 aerial shows little change to the area (Figure 3-5), although the park exhibits some additional tree cover. The parking lot and interchange noted on the 1977 aerial are the same.



Figure 3-5. The 1985 aerial of the APE.

Between 1985 and 1995 the highway interchange was demolished (Figure 3-6). A portion of San Saba Street was extended to meet N. Santa Rosa Street. San Saba Street now is the western boundary of the

APE. No other major changes to the landscape are visible.

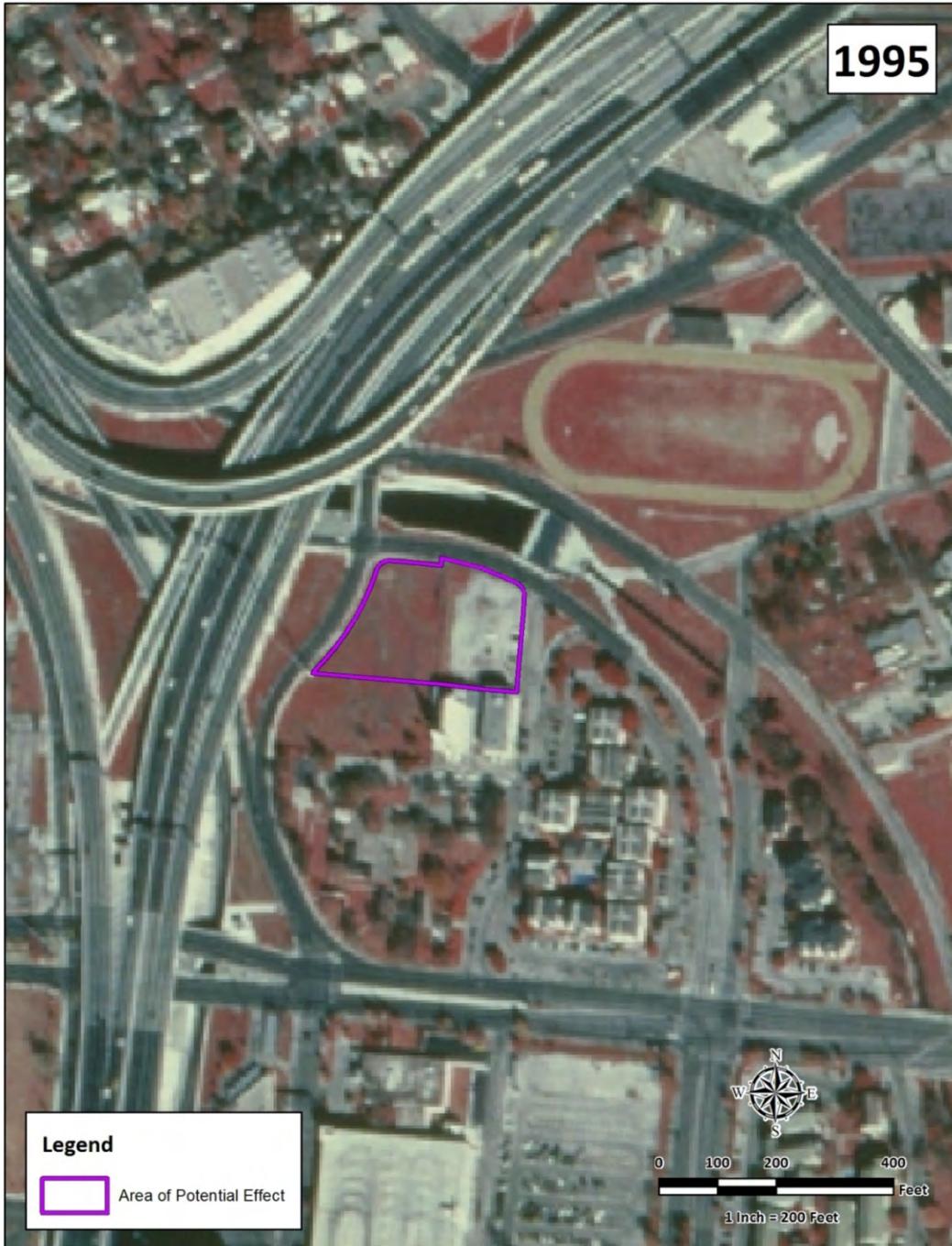


Figure 3-6. The 1995 aerial of the APE showing extended San Saba Street.

By 2008, the upper parking lot, located outside of the APE and to the west of the Church, was constructed. The remainder of the area appears to have stayed the same (Figure 3-7).



Figure 3-7. The 2008 aerial of the APE.

The 2014 aerial shows that there had been no major changes to the APE and its vicinity between 2008 and present (Figure 3-8).



Figure 3-8. The most current aerial of the project area.

The historic map and aerial review shows that the current APE has had several major changes over the past century and a half. The majority of the neighborhood that once occupied the area north and

northwest of the church and hall was razed by 1966 to make way for the construction of an interchange for IH-10. The 1966 aerial paired with aerial photographs on file at the Institute of Texan Cultures indicated that a few houses at the far north of the property remained for a few additional years and a parking lot had been constructed north of the hall. By 1977 those residences were gone and the parking lot extended north to the access road. Additional disturbance to the APE occurred during the early 1990s as the interchange for IH-10 was demolished. It is possible that all of the construction activity in the APE impacted a possible colonial surface that would contain indications that the site was used as the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero.

Chapter 4: Field and Laboratory Methodology

During the 2013 UTSA-CAR excavations, representatives of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society mentioned to the archaeological crews that the grassy field to the west of the asphalted parking lot was the borrow area from which dirt was taken to raise and level the surface of the parking lot prior to its paving. Because it was assumed that archaeological deposits associated with the mission site would have been present in this field, it was also anticipated that these materials would have been re-deposited under the parking lot, but in a disturbed context. It was also hoped that the original ground surface found under the parking lot fill may reveal cultural materials associated with the mission occupation. Since one of the goals of the current project was to determine whether artifacts associated with the first site of the mission were present at the location, the asphalted parking lot and the fill underneath it, as well as the original ground surface buried by the fill became primary targets for investigations. In addition, to substantiate the assertion that the soils from under the parking lot came from the grassy field, limited investigations of the field also were planned. Finally, barring the discovery of mission-associated artifacts under the parking lot, it was hoped that limited explorations near the top of the landform may lead to the discovery of 18th century materials that could unequivocally be associated with the 1718 mission.

To accomplish these investigations, three excavation methods were used across Society-owned portions of the property: auger bores; shovel tests; and hand-excavated test units. First, mechanical auger bores were used to examine the soil stratigraphy and cultural materials present under the parking lot. Auger bores, in combination with hand-excavated shovel tests also were employed in the grassy field to explore the stratigraphy and obtain a more representative sample of archaeological materials. Hand-excavated 1x1 and .5 x.5 meter test units were used to examine limited portions of the top of the landform and a high density cluster of materials identified in the grassy field.

Auger Boring

Auger boring was conducted within the parking lot and grassy field using a 24-inch diameter drill bit attached to a M-Series Bobcat Skid Steer (under 3,000 lbs). The auger bit was 24-inches in diameter and reached approximately 4-feet below the surface. A three-foot extension also was used to allow boring to a maximum depth of 7 feet below the surface. Initially, it was proposed that auger bores would be excavated in two-foot increments. However, the sticky clay that was present in many of the bore holes

made it difficult to determine the exact provenience of the soils adhering to the drill bit as it was extracted from the bore hole. As a result, attempts to excavate in 2-foot increments were abandoned following the initial three auger bores. Similarly, the soil removed from the first three auger bores was screened through ¼-inch hardware cloth. It became evident, however, that the yellow clay zone was sterile. Therefore, as augering continued, it was decided that once the yellow clay zone was reached, the matrix was not to be screened unless a distinct zone of deposits appeared below it. It was hoped that this distinctive zone would be the original ground surface buried by the fill.

All artifacts recovered from augers were collected in bags labeled with provenience information for laboratory processing, analysis, and curation. A form was completed for each auger bore. Data collected on these forms included the final excavation depth, a tally of all materials recovered from screening, and a brief soil description (texture, consistence, Munsell color, inclusions). The location of every auger boring was recorded with a Magellan Global Positioning System unit. Any additional observations considered pertinent were included as comments on the standard auger excavation form.

Shovel Testing

RKEI excavated shovel tests within the grassy-field owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. All shovel tests were 30 cm in diameter and most were excavated to a depth of 60 cmbs. The shallow depth of the shovel tests was chosen because during the excavation of deeper units, the technician will typically scrape the sides of the unit as he/she removes the dirt from the bottom of the unit. During this process, artifacts can be dislodged from any part of the wall providing incorrect information on artifact provenience. Shovel tests were excavated in 10-cm increments and screened through ¼-inch hardware cloth. All artifacts recovered from shovel tests were collected in bags labeled with provenience information for laboratory processing, analysis, and curation. A form was completed for every excavated shovel test. Data collected on these forms included the final excavation depth, a tally of all materials recovered from each 10-cm level, and a brief soil description (texture, consistence, Munsell color, inclusions). The location of every shovel test was recorded with a Magellan GPS unit. Any additional observations considered pertinent were included as comments on the standard shovel test excavation form.

Test Unit Excavation

RKEI excavated test units within the grassy field and in the courtyard between the Church and the Hall.

The units were excavated in arbitrary 10-cm increments. All matrix was screened through ¼-inch hardware cloth and all artifacts recovered from each level were bagged with the appropriate provenience information and returned to the **RKEI** Archaeology Laboratory for processing and analysis. Soil samples, measuring approximately 1-gallon each, were collected from each excavation level and returned to the laboratory where they were either dry-screened through window-screen mesh or water screened. Level forms were completed for each excavation level. Information related to the broad range of artifact types recovered, artifact quantities, and soil types were noted on the excavation forms.

Metal Detecting

Metal detecting occurred during one day of the field project. City Archaeologist, Kay Hinds, invited Larion Crumley and Bill Telford, two local metal detectors, to scan the open field located to the west of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society parking lot. The men swept the open field with their metal detectors, investigating areas that registered as a metal object. Subsequently, the volunteers inspected the anomalies by excavating small pits to expose the item that was indicated by the metal detector. Kay Hinds monitored the metal detectors' progress and examined the finds made during the day.

Laboratory Methods

Artifacts were processed in the **RKEI** Archaeology Laboratory where they were washed, air dried, and stored in archival-quality bags. Acid-free labels were placed in all artifact bags. Each label displayed provenience information and a corresponding lot number written in pencil. Additionally, the materials were processed in accordance with current Council of Texas Archaeologists guidelines. Artifacts will be returned to the property owners at the completion of the project.

Field notes, field forms, photographs, and field drawings were placed into labeled archival folders and converted into electronic material. Digital photographs were printed on acid-free paper, labeled with archivally appropriate materials, and placed in archival-quality plastic sleeves. All field forms were completed with pencil. Ink-jet produced maps and illustrations were placed in archival quality plastic page protectors to prevent against accidental smearing due to moisture. A copy of the report and all digital material were burned onto a CD and permanently curated with field notes and documents. All project related documentation is housed at the **RKEI** Archaeological Laboratory. At the completion of the project, all material collected from the investigations were returned to the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. A digital copy of all records is retained at the **RKEI** Archaeology Laboratory.

Chapter 5: Results of Archaeological Investigations

Auger Boring

A total of 18 auger bores was excavated during the course of the project (Figure 5-1). It was originally assumed, based on topographic layout that the original surface may have been buried roughly 3-3.5 feet below the parking lot. Therefore, a 4-foot auger bit was employed in the excavation of the first three units. Given that yellow clay fill was encountered in these units, it was assumed that the excavations had not penetrated through the fill into the top of the original ground surface. Therefore, a three-foot bit extension was secured and employed in the excavation of all subsequent bore holes.

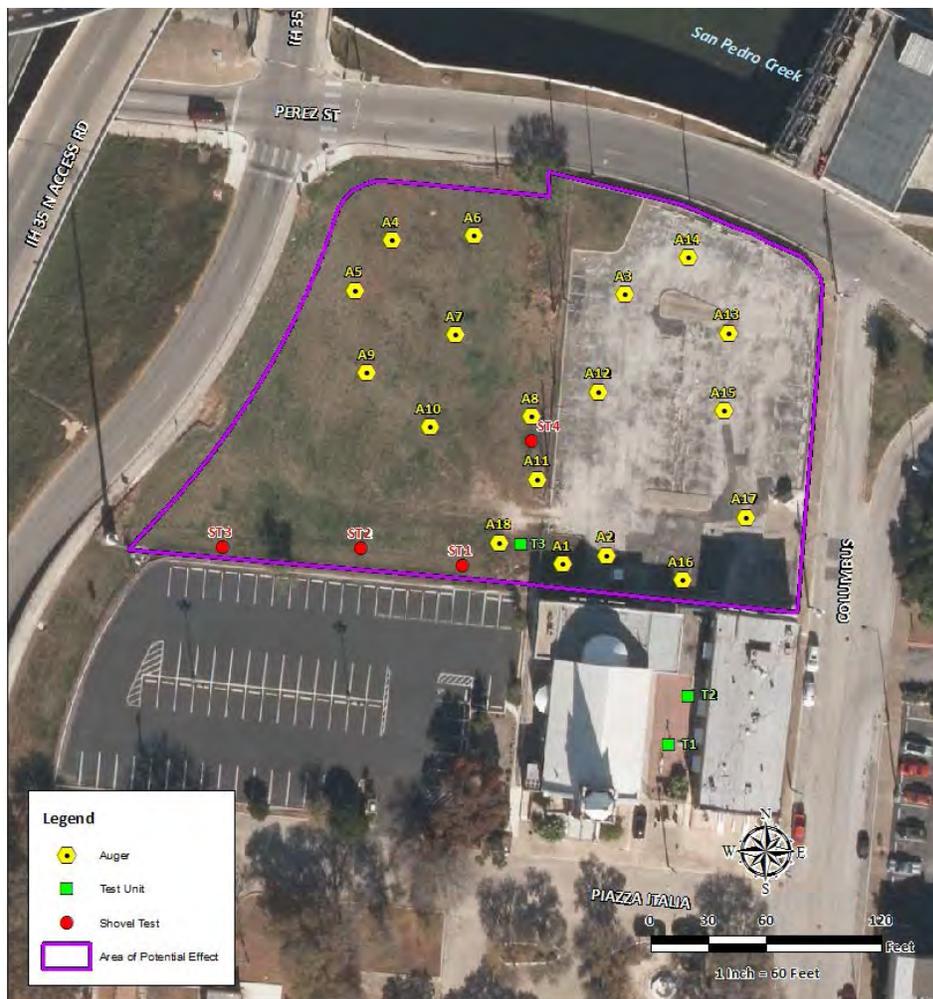


Figure 5-1. Location of Auger Bores, Shovel Tests, and Test Units.

Of the eighteen auger bores excavated, fourteen were positive for cultural material. The soil colors encountered in the auger bores is presented in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1. Munsell colors of the soils encountered in the auger bores.

Auger Bore	Level (cmbs)	Color	Auger Bore	Level (cmbs)	Color
1	1 (0-40)	10YR2/2	10	1 (0-40)	10YR3/1
1	2 (40-80)	10YR6/6	10	2 (40-80)	10YR6/6
1	3 (80-120)	10YR6/6	10	3 (80-120)	10YR6/6
2	1 (0-40)	10YR5/3	11	1 (0-40)	10YR3/1 w/10YR8/
2	2 (40-80)	10YR5/3	11	2 (40-80)	2.5Y6/4
2	3 (80-110)	10YR5/3	11	3 (80-120)	2.5Y6/4
3	1 (0-40)	10YR5/3	12	1 (0-40)	2.5Y5/4
3	2 (40-80)	10YR5/3	12	2 (40-80)	2.5Y5/4 w/10YR6/
3	3 (80-120)	10YR5/3	12	3 (80-170)	2.5Y5/4 - 10YR8/1
4	1 (0-17)	10YR2/2	13	1 (0-40)	10YR2/1
4	2 (17-25)	10YR4/2	13	2 (40-80)	10YR2/1
4	3 (25-38)	10YR5/6	13	3 (80-90)	10YR2/1
4	4 (38-62)	10YR5/6	14	1 (4-24)	7.5YR5/6
4	5 (62-90)	10YR5/6	14	2 (24-156)	10YR3/1
5	1 (0-40)	10YR2/2-10YR5/6	15	1 (0-40)	10YR6/6 w/10Yr3/
5	2 (40-80)	10YR5/6	15	2 (40-80)	10YR6/6
5	3 (80-120)	10YR6/6	15	3 (80-200)	10YR6/6
6	1 (0-40)	10YR3/2-10YR5/3	16	1 (0-40)	2.5Y6/4
6	2 (40-80)	10YR5/3	16	2 (40-80)	2.5Y6/4
6	3 (80-120)	10YR6/6	16	3 (80-190)	2.5Y6/4
7	1 (0-40)	10YR2/2	17	1 (0-40)	10YR4/3
7	2 (40-80)	10YR5/4	17	2 (40-80)	10YR4/3-10YR6/6
7	3 (80-120)	10YR5/4	17	3 (80-90)	10YR6/6
8	1 (0-40)	10YR4/2 w/10YR8	18	1 (0-40)	10YR2/2-10YR4/2
8	2 (40-80)	10YR5/4	18	2 (40-80)	2.5Y5/6
8	3 (80-120)	10YR6/3	18	3 (80-130)	2.5Y5/6
9	1 (0-40)	10YR3/1			
9	2 (40-80)	10YR6/6			
9	3 (80-120)	10YR6/4			

Units Excavated in the Parking Lot

All of the augers located within the parking lot (A-1 through A-3, and A-12 through A-17) (Figure 5-1) were excavated through asphalt. The thickness of the asphalt varied across the parking lot (4-10 cm).

Below the asphalt was a layer of base that ranged in thickness from 10 to 15 cm. The soils encountered below the base varied across the lot.

Auger 1 (A-1) exhibited a dark clay loam (10YR2/2) below the layer of base material (Table 5-1). This zone was approximately 20 cm thick (20-40 cmbs). Yellowish brown clay (10YR6/6) extended to the bottom of the unit in the rest of the bore unit (120 cm below surface). Relatively few artifacts were encountered within A-1 and those found came out of the dark clay loam zone. Materials encountered consisted of concrete, glass, metal fragments, and a fragment of animal bone (Table 5-2).

Auger 2 (A-2) was excavated in the southern end of the parking lot (Figure 5-1). The upper 15 cm of A-2 consisted of asphalt and road base. The remainder of the unit exhibited disturbed soils. No cultural material was encountered within A-2. Auger 2 was excavated to 110 cm below the surface.

Auger 3 (A-3), located in the northern portion of the parking lot (Figure 5-1), was excavated to a depth of 120 cm below the surface. The upper 15 cm consisted of asphalt and road base. Below the asphalt and base, the soils consisted of the yellowish brown clay throughout the unit. During the augering of the first 40 cm, the bit encountered a large block of concrete (Figure 5-2). The auger bore was widened to allow for continued excavation. The material noted within A-3 consisted of concrete fragments, asphalt fragments, and one clear glass fragment (Table 5-2) that came out of the upper portion of the unit. Once the auger bore was completed, it was noted that the concrete block that had been removed was part of a much larger piece. The portion remaining in the auger bore was approximately 40x25 cm in size. The top of the concrete was encountered approximately 30 cm below the surface and extended to approximately 68 cm below the surface, indicating disturbance to at least this depth.



Figure 5-2. Concrete block encountered in Auger 3.

Table 5-2. Artifacts collected during the augering of the asphalted parking lot.

	Auger 1		Auger 3		Auger 12		Auger 13		Auger 14		Total	
	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Total Ct.	Total Wt. (g)
Faunal Bone	1	0.7					5	4.8	50	160	56	165.5
Colonial Ceramic												
Green Lead Glazed									1			
Construction Material												
Brick/Tile	1	0.6					9	146	15	56.8	25	203.4
Asphalt			1	17.1							1	17.1
Concrete	3	55.9	2	332			1	65.3			6	453.2
Wood							1	3.5			1	3.5
European Ceramic												
Ironstone									22		22	
White Earthenware												
Molded							1				1	
Undecorated							1		16		17	
Glass												
Chimney									3		3	
Container												
Aqua	2						1		43		46	
Blue-Green							1				1	
Brown							3		23		26	
Clear	3		1				4		7		15	
Dark Olive									1		1	
Green							1		1		2	
Olive Green							1				1	
Flat							3		18		21	
Lithic, Hammerstone									1		1	
Metal												
Fastener												
Cut Nail					1	10	5	41.1			6	70.6
Finishing Nail							1	1.1			1	1.1
Tack									1	1.6	1	1.6
Unidentified Nail							3	11	2	3	5	14
Wire Nail							7	31.5			7	31.5
Cast Iron							2	88			2	88
Scrap							1	0.7	3	3.9	4	4.6
Buckle							1	21			1	21
Other Metal												
Electrical Wire									1	0.6	1	0.6
Hinge/Bracket							1	0.8			1	0.8
Sheet Metal	1	0.4									1	0.4
Strap									3	11.6	3	11.6
Unidentified									1	37.7	1	37.7
Charcoal	1	0.2					1	2.1	1	0.8	3	3.1
Other Rock												
Chert			2								2	
Gypsum	1										1	
Limestone									4		2	
Personal												
Slate, Writing							1				1	
Mussel Shell							1	0.3			1	0.3
Plastic							1		1		2	
Toy												
Marble, China glazed							1				1	
Porcelain, doll									1		1	
Grand Total	13	57.8	6	349.1	1	10	58	417.2	219	276	294	1129.6

Following the excavation of these three auger bores, it became apparent that the 4-foot bit used was not reaching below the yellowish brown clay that was suspected to be fill brought in during the construction of the parking lot. Because one of the goals of the investigations was to reach the original ground surface upon which the fill was placed, a 3-foot bit extension was obtained. While the bit- extender was procured, auger bores were excavated in the grassy field to the west of the parking lot to determine if this area exhibited a similar stratigraphy and whether we could substantiate the information that this area was used as a borrow pit for soils used as fill under the asphalted parking lot. Excavations within the parking lot continued once the bit extension was obtained.

The excavation of Auger 12 (A-12) occurred in the Christopher Columbus Italian Society's parking lot (Figure 5-1) using the 7-foot extended auger bit. This allow for the auger bore to be excavated to a terminal depth of 190 cm below surface. The upper 10 cm of A-12 consisted of asphalt and base. Below the base, the soil was light olive brown (2.5Y5/4) clay to approximately 150 cm below the surface. The remaining 40 cm consisted of white, silty sand (10YR8/10). The single artifact encountered in A-12 was a cut nail (Table 5-2), it came out of the upper 20 cm of the deposit.

Auger 13 (A-13) was placed within the asphalted parking lot (Figure 5-1). The auger bore was terminated at a depth of 90 cm below the surface after encountering an obstruction, a clay sewer pipe. It appeared that the bore unit was positioned on the sewer installation trench. The upper 10 cm consisted of asphalt and base. The remainder of A-13 exhibited black clay loam that contained a high density of artifacts in comparison to the other auger bores excavated. Included in the artifact inventory of A-13 were: wire nails, cut nails, finishing nails, brick, concrete, plastic, glass fragments in various colors, undecorated white earthenware, mammal bone, saw cut mammal bone, mussel shell, metal scrap, and a ceramic marble (Table 5-2).

Auger 14 (A-14) was excavated to a terminal depth of 190 cm below surface (Figure 5-1). The upper 24 cm consisted of asphalt and base. Between 24 and 190 cm below surface, the soil was a very dark gray clay loam that contained some gravels (Figure 5-3). Auger 14 exhibited a high density of artifacts throughout the dark gray clay loam. The artifact assemblage of A-14 included glass fragments of various colors, metal fragments, nail fragments, flat and chimney glass, undecorated white earthenware fragments, one green lead glazed ware, faunal bone, a porcelain doll head fragment, and a possible hammerstone (Table 5-2).



Figure 5-3. Dark soil containing artifacts encountered in Auger 14.

Auger 15 (A-15) was excavated to a terminal depth of 2-meters below the surface (Figure 5-1). The upper 18 cm consisted of asphalt and base. Just below the base, the soil changed to a yellow clay with very dark grayish brown mottles. The clay was consistent throughout the remainder of A-15 and was found to be sterile. Similar yellow clay deposits encountered in other auger bores contained no cultural material. Due to the added quantity of soil extracted from deeper auger bores, and the lack of cultural material seen in earlier excavated tests, it was decided to not screen the clay matrix in subsequent auger bores.

The upper 16 cm of Auger 16 (A-16) consisted of asphalt and base. Auger 16 was excavated to a terminal depth of 190 cm below the surface. Below the base, the matrix became yellowish-brown clay. The texture was very similar to the soil encountered in A-15, although the clays in this unit were less mottled and had a brighter yellow color. The light yellowish brown clay was uniform throughout the A-

16 (Figure 5-4). Examination of the clays brought up by the auger bit identified no cultural deposits in the matrix. It appeared to be sterile as was the same deposit in A-15.



Figure 5-4. Clay fill noted in Auger 16.

The upper 15 cm of Auger 17 (A-17) consisted of asphalt and base. Beneath the base, between 15 and 65 cm below the surface, the matrix was brown clay with brownish yellow mottles. From 65 to 90 cm below the surface, the soil consisted of brownish yellow silty clay. The soils in A-17 were similar to that seen in A-15 and A-16. No cultural materials were noted in the matrix.

Units Excavated West of Parking Lot

Auger 4 (A-4) was excavated in the grassy field located to the west of the parking lot (Figure 5-1). The unit was purposefully placed in one of the lowest spots in the field to determine what soil strata would be noted immediately below the surface. The soil stratigraphy differed significantly from that seen

within the parking lot. The upper 17 cm below the surface exhibited dark brown, loamy clay. This represented top soil that was deposited sometime after the construction of IH-35. Some gravels were noted in the soil. Between 17 and 25 cm below the surface, the soil changed to dark grayish brown clay. Again, gravels were noted in the matrix. Between 25 and 38 cm below the surface, the soil consisted of yellowish brown clay with brown mottling. The soil then changed to dark yellowish brown silty clay that extended to approximately 62 cm below the surface. Between 62 cm and 90 cm below the surface, the soil contained higher proportions of clay content and an increase in gravel content. The cultural material encountered in A-4 included glass fragments, brick and limestone fragments, a fragment of porcelain, and a fragment of undecorated white earthenware came from the upper part of the unit (Table 5-3). The artifacts came from the upper 38 centimeters of matrix.

Auger 5 (A-5) was located in the grassy field (Figure 5-1). A-5 was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cm below the surface. The upper 10 cm of soils appears to have been disturbed. Beneath the disturbed soils, the matrix become yellowish brown silty clay and continued to the base of the unit. The lower portion of the auger contained gravels similar to A-4. Auger-5 produced one fragment of burned chert, a piece of 7-Up green glass, two lead glazed sewer pipe fragments (Table 5-3), and one fragment of sandstone. The artifacts appear to have been derived from nineteenth and early twentieth century residences that once stood in the general vicinity of the project area.

The soils in Auger 6 (A-6) differed from that of A-5. The auger was excavated to a depth of 120 cm below the surface. The upper 15 centimeters consisted of very dark grayish-brown loamy clay that contained grass roots. The soil then changed to brownish silty clay which extended to the base of the unit. The matrix in the bottom 5 cm of the unit consisted of yellow clay, similar to the sterile zone in a number of other units. Auger 6 contained fragments of brick, mortar, limestone, and plastic. In addition, ceramic fragments also were recovered. These included undecorated ironstone, undecorated white earthenware, hand-painted white earthenware, and a fragment of a lead glazed olive jar (Table 5-3). The artifacts were present throughout the brownish silty clay that comprised most of the unit.

The upper 20 cm of Auger 7 (A-7) consisted of very dark brown silty clay. The soil changed to yellowish brown silty clay for the remainder of the auger bore. Auger 7 produced cultural material including glass fragments, a wire nail, asphalt, mortar, limestone, and a fragment of molded white earthenware (Table 5-3). It was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cmbs. The material appears to be derived from the nineteenth and early twentieth century residences and came from the yellowish brown silty clay zone.

Auger 8 was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cm below the surface. The upper 40 cm of A-8 consisted of dark grayish brown silty clay that contained the majority of the cultural material. A layer of hard-packed lime caliche was present between 20 and 30 cm below the surface. Below the dark grayish brown soil, the matrix changed to yellowish brown clay. The last 40 cm of the auger consisted of pale brown clay with a slight silt content. The artifacts recovered from the auger included glass fragments, brick, cement, mortar, linoleum, Flow Blue ceramic with gilding, and two fragments of tin-glazed ceramics (Table 5-3). One of the tin-glazed wares was undecorated, the other exhibited a maker's mark with a small, stamped "E". The mark is not typically seen on Spanish Colonial majolicas associated with the colonial occupation of San Antonio.

Table 5-3. Artifacts recovered from the augers excavated in grassy area.

	Auger 4		Auger 5		Auger 6		Auger 7		Auger 8		Auger 9		Auger 10		Auger 11		Auger 18		Total				
	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Wt. (g)	Ct.	Total Wt. (g)													
Arms																							
Cartridge Casing															1						1		
Possible Gunflint	1																				1		
Faunal Bone										1	1.6	1	28.5	1	1.9	15	48	18			80		
Burned Rock			1	1.1											1	23.6	2	8.7	4		33.4		
Colonial Ceramic																							
Lead Glazed																							
Green Lead Glazed																	1				1		
Olive Jar					1																1		
Undecorated									1												1		
Tin-Glazed																							
Undecorated									1												1		
Construction Material																							
Brick/Tile	2	7.2			2	12.6	3	1.6	2	3.1					1	174				10	198.5		
Asphalt							4	5.2													4	5.2	
Cement					1	174	1	15	1	4.6											3	193.6	
Limestone									3	1792											3	1792	
Mortar									1	4.7											1	4.7	
Wood											1	2.7									1	2.7	
European Ceramic																							
Ironstone					1																	1	
Porcelain	1														1							2	
Stoneware, Albany																	1					1	
White Earthenware																							
Cut Sponge																	1					1	
Gilded Flow Blue									2													2	
Handpainted					1																	1	
Molded							1															1	
Undecorated	1				1						1						6					9	
Glass																							
Chimney									1								1					2	
Container																							
7-Up Green			1		1																	2	
Aqua	1								1		1						12					15	
Blue-Green											1											1	
Brown	1								5		5		1				1					13	
Clear	2					4		10		4					3		6					29	
Light Green											1											1	
Light Green Milk																		1				1	
Milk									2								1					3	
Olive Green						1		1														2	
Flat	2				2		1	7		2					1							15	
Mirror							1															1	
Lithic Debitage									1								1					2	
Metal																							
Fastener																							
Cut Nail									2	8.2							8	19.5	10			27.7	
Finishing Nail																	1	1.1	1			1.1	
Unidentified Nail									4	3.1						5	10.4	9				13.5	
Wire Nail						1	3.8	3	2.7													4	6.5
Scrap									6	8.6							2	13.8	8			22.4	
Unidentified, Lead															1	12.9						1	12.9
Can											4	108										4	108
Charcoal									1	0.01							1	1.4	2			1.41	
Other Ceramic																							
Sewer Pipe			2																			2	
Other Rock																							
Limestone	5	356			1		2										2	43.3	10			399.3	
Sandstone			1	63.3													1	17.1	2			80.4	
Personal																							
Button, Loop Shank																	1	1.4	1			1.4	
Slate, Writing																	3					3	
Mussel Shell																	1	0.2	1			0.2	
Synthetic																							
Insulated Wire							1															1	
Wrapper															1							1	
Linoleum									1													1	
Grand Total	16	363.2	5	64.4	12	187	20	25.6	56	1827	21	112.3	2	28.5	11	212.4	75	164.9	216			2984.91	

Auger 9 (A-9) was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cmbs. The upper 40 cm consisted of very dark grey clay loam. Brownish yellow clay appeared below that and was sterile. The last 30 cm of the auger bore exhibited light yellowish brown silty clay that contained limestone gravels. This layer did not produce any cultural material. The artifacts encountered were located in the upper dark grey clay loam. Materials collected included glass fragments, saw cut bone, metal, and a fragment of undecorated white earthenware (Table 5-3).

Auger 10 (A-10) was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cmbs. The upper 40 cm of the matrix encountered in the unit consisted of very dark gray clay and clay loam. There was some mottling within the layer that also included approximately 15% gravels. The remainder of the auger consisted of brownish yellow clay that had few inclusions. The last 20 cm exhibited some mottling and a few gravels. Artifacts, although very few, were recovered from the upper 40 cm of the dark gray clay and clay loam. The artifact sample from A-10 consisted of saw cut bone and a fragment of brown glass.

Auger 11 (A-11) was excavated to a terminal depth of 120 cm below surface (Figure 5-1). The upper 10 cm consisted of a very dark gray clay loam (Figure 5-5). Between 10 and 15 cm below the surface, there was a hard-packed limestone caliche layer. From 15 to 40 cm below the surface, the soil consisted of very dark grayish brown silty clay. The remainder of the auger exhibited light yellowish brown silty clay (2.5Y6/4). Only a small number of artifacts were recovered from A-11. These included burned rock, a sandstone brick, plastic, and an unidentified lead fragment (Table 5-3).



Figure 5-5. Profile of Auger 11.

Auger 18 (A-18) was placed near the southeast corner of the grassy field. There was a pile of soil located near the unit (Figure 5-1). Just north of the auger were the units that were excavated by UTSA-CAR in 2013. There appeared to be more artifacts exposed through erosion since the previous field investigation. The auger bore was excavated to ascertain if there was a shallowly buried cultural deposit near the upper edge of the landform from which the artifacts were originating. Auger 18 was excavated to a terminal depth of 130 cm below the surface. The upper 10 cm consisted of very dark brown, silty clay. Between 10 and 40 cm below the surface, the matrix was dark grayish brown silty clay. Both of these upper layers appeared to consist of relatively loose soils. From 40 cm to the terminal depth, the soil encountered was light olive-brown, compact, clay. Within this stratum, medium-sized gravels were noted. Cultural material collected included glass fragments, cut nails, wire nails, finishing nails, saw cut bone, metal fragments, one fragment of lead-glazed ceramic that appears to be from a molcajete, undecorated white earthenware, and a fragment of cut-sponge decorated ceramic (Table 5-3). The

artifacts were derived from the upper 40 cm of the unit. In general, the bulk of the artifacts recovered from the auger bores consist of nineteenth to twentieth century items. The only exceptions are the possible fragmentary hammerstone and the lead glazed ceramic fragment.

Shovel Tests

Four shovel tests were excavated during the course of the project. Three of the shovel tests (STs 1-3) were placed along the southern edge of the grassy field, near the chain-link fence and newer parking lot (Figure 5-1). The area was as close to the apex of the landform as feasible within property owned by the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The fourth shovel test (ST 4) was placed along the eastern edge of the grassy field (Figure 5-1), near the boundary of the asphalted parking lot.

The upper 20 cm of Shovel Test 1 soil consisted of very dark brown clay that contained pea-sized gravels (Figure 5-1). No cultural material was encountered within the first 20 cm of matrix. In Level 3 (20-30 cmbs), one fragment of natural sandstone was encountered. Level 4 (30-40 cmbs) consisted of light olive brown mottled clay. Artifacts recovered from this level included brown and clear glass fragments, and one fragment of animal bone (Table 5-4). Level 5 (40-50 cmbs) continued with the mottled clay. Three fragments of red brick and a scrap of metal were recovered from this level. Soil color changed to light olive brown and retained no mottling in Level 6 (50-60 cmbs). It continued to the terminal depth of the shovel test, at 65 cm below the surface. No cultural material was encountered within the last two levels of ST 1.

Shovel Test 2 exhibited very dark brown clay to a depth of 60 cm below the surface. In Level 7 (60-70 cmbs), the soil changed to mottled light olive brown clay loam. Between 70 and 82 cm below the surface, the same soils were noted as in the higher levels. Level 1 (0-10 cmbs) did not contain cultural material. Level 2 (10-20 cmbs) produced asphalt, brick, and a fragment of scrap metal (Table 5-4). Level 4 (30-40 cmbs) contained brick, mortar, a glass fragment, faunal remains, and ferrous metal. Level 5 (40-50 cmbs) produced a ferrous scrap metal, a fragment of clear glass, and asphalt. One small fragment of debitage was recovered in Level 6 (50-60 cmbs).

Table 5-4. Artifacts recovered from shovel testing.

	Bone		Construction Material				European Ceramic		Glass			Lithic	Metal				Shell		Synthetic	Total Ct	Total Wt (g)			
	Ct	Wt (g)	Brick/Tile				White Earthenware	Container			Debitage	Fastener		Scrap	Mussel Shell	Plastic								
			Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)						
	Transfer	Aqua																	Brown			Clear	Cut Nail	Unidentified Nail
ST-1																								
30-40	1	0.2									1	1								3	0.2			
40-50			3	6.2											1	0.5				4	6.7			
ST-2																								
10-20			1	0.6	1	0.7									1	0.5				3	1.8			
30-40	1	1.3	2	0.7			1	0.5			1			1	4.9	3	2.6			9	10			
40-50					1	30.6					1				1	3.4				3	34			
50-60											1									1				
ST-3																								
20-30									1											1				
30-40			1	0.9																1	0.9			
40-50			1	33									1	2.5						2	35.5			
60-72					3	115					1			1	5.8					5	120.8			
ST-4																								
10-20									2									1	0.01	3	0.01			
0-10	1	0.5			1	26.6			1	12			1	2.1						16	29.2			
20-30	4	15.2					1	1.9	1	1	2		1	2.2						2	12			
Grand Total	7	17.2	8	41.4	6	173	2	2.4	1	4	15	5	1	1	2.2	4	15.3	6	7	1	0.01	2	63	258.41

Shovel Test 3 was excavated to a depth of 72 cm below surface. The soil consisted of very dark brown clay in the upper 60 cm, with limestone cobbles. Between 60 and 72 cm below the surface, the soil was light olive brown silty clay. One fragment of aqua glass was recovered in Level 3 (20-30 cmbs) (Table 5-4). Level 4 (30-40 cmbs) produced a brick fragment and a fragment of debitage. Level 5 (40-50 cmbs) also contained a brick fragment, as well as an unidentified nail. Level 7 (60-72 cmbs) contained an unidentified nail, a brown glass fragment, and a fragment of asphalt.

Shovel Test 4 was excavated to a terminal depth of 75 cm below surface, although only the first three levels produced artifacts. The first three levels (0-30 cmbs) consisted of very dark grayish brown silty clay. Between 30 and 75 cm below the surface, the soil was dark greyish brown (2.5Y4/2) silty clay. Level 1 (0-10 cmbs) produced asphalt fragments, brown and aqua glass fragments, animal bone, and an unidentified nail fragment. Level 2 (10-20 cmbs) contained only a fragment of mussel shell and aqua glass fragments. Level 3 (20-30 cmbs) had the highest density of artifacts with saw cut and uncut mammal bone, brown and clear glass fragments, a cut nail, plastic, mortar, and a fragment of Transferprint white earthenware (Table 5-4).

Test Units

Three test units were excavated during the project. Two were 50 cm-x-50 cm units placed within the courtyard between the San Francesco di Paola Catholic Church and the Christopher Columbus Italian Society building (Figure 5-1). The third unit (1 m-x-1 m) was located within the southeastern portion of the grassy field (Figure 5-1), between the location of A18 and the units excavated in 2013 by UTSA-CAR.

Test Unit 1 was a 50-x-50 cm unit placed near the center of the courtyard. The brick pavers, sand, and base material comprised the upper 25 cm of matrix that was removed prior to excavating the unit. A rotary hammer drill with spade attachment was utilized to remove the upper layer of asphalt and base before unit excavations started. The datum was set at the level of the top of the brick pavers, the actual courtyard surface. The unit was excavated to 40 cm below the datum, and then backfilled. Level 1 (15-20 cmbs) contained sticky clays that contained base and asphalt fragments, and was hard to screen. The artifacts collected from Level 1 (15-20 cmbs) included concrete fragments, asbestos, brick, a heat spall, an unidentified nail, and a fragment of undecorated white earthenware (Table 5-5). Level 2 (20-30 cmbs) also exhibited the same sticky clay. Artifacts encountered animal bone, brick, asbestos, possible cut nails, limestone fragments, sandstone fragments, and debitage.

Table 5-5. Artifacts recovered during the excavation of TU-1.

	Bone		Construction Material				European Ceramic	Lithic		Metal				Organics		Total Ct	Total Wt (g)
	Faunal		Brick/Tile	Asbestos	Cement		White Earthenware	Debitage	Heat Spall	Fastener				Charcoal			
							Undecorated			Bracket		Unidentified Nail					
	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Ct	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)		
TU-1																	
Lvl 1 (25-30)			1	1.7	1	1	9	1		1		2	7.9			7	18.6
Lvl 2 (30-40)	2	1.7	12	10.5	1				2	1	1	20.6	4	38.6	2.1	23	73.5
Grand Total	2	1.7	13	12.2	2	1	9	1	2	2	1	20.6	6	46.5	2.1	30	92.1

Test Unit 2 was placed to the northeast of Test Unit 1 near the ramp leading into a side door of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society. The unit measured 50-x-50 cm. The brick pavers were removed prior to excavation of the unit. Beneath the pavers was a layer of sand. The sand was removed and reserved for reuse. Below the sand was asphalt and base. The RKEI archaeologists utilized a rotary hammer drill with a spade attachment to break through the asphalt and base layer. The datum was set at the top of the brick pavers. Approximately 36 cm of pavers, sand and base was removed prior to the hand-excavation. Level 1 (26-30 cmbs) encountered dark greyish brown soils that were similar to the clay noted in the parking lot during augering. Asphalt fragments were noted in the soil. Artifacts collected from the level included mortar, glass fragments, sandstone brick, and an unidentified nail (Table 5-6). Level 2 (30-40 cmbs) consisted of the same disturbed soils noted in Level 1. Asphalt fragments were present in the moist clay. The artifacts collected from the level included brick, concrete, amethyst glass, and an unidentified nail fragment. Level 3 (40-50 cmbs) also exhibited disturbed soils with asphalt mixed into the matrix. The soil continued to be sticky, moist clay. At approximately 45 cm below surface, the top of a gas main was exposed running north/south in the unit. The remainder of the level was excavated to 60 cm below surface. Artifacts recovered from the disturbed soils included brick,

mortar, asphalt, metal fragments, coal, undecorated white earthenware, and a fragment of semi-porcelain (Table 5-6). Test Unit 2 was terminated at the base of Level 3 due to a gas pipe.

Table 5-6. Artifacts recovered from TU-2.

	Bone		Construction Material						European Ceramic		Glass				Lithic	Metal			Organics		Total Ct	Total Wt (g)		
	Faunal		Brick	Brick/Tile					Semi-Porcelain	White Earthenware	Chimney	Container			Heat Spall	Fastener		Other	Charcoal	Coal				
	Mammal		Sandstone		Asphalt		Concrete	Mortar	Undecorated	Undecorated	Clear	Amethyst (Purple)	Aqua	Clear		Unidentified Nail		Scrap		Coal				
	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)			Ct	
TU-2																								
Fill													1										1	
Lvl 1 (35-40)			1	156			1	24.3		1	39.1			1		1		1	5.1		1	0.2	7	224.7
Lvl 2 (40-50)			6	532	1	0.6			1				1				1	1.7					10	534.3
Lvl 3 (50-60)	2	2	4	558	8	27.3	6	14.6		4	12.4			1	5	15.4	7	17.8	1	2.6	1	43	650.1	
Grand Total	2	2	11	1246	9	27.9	7	38.9	1	5	51.5			1	7	22.2	7	17.8	2	2.8	1	61	1409.1	

Test Unit 3 was located within the grassy field, north of Auger 18, and south of the test units excavated by UTSA-CAR in 2013. Level 1 (2-10 cmbs) encountered a very dark grayish brown silty clay. The soil was fairly loose, and contained grass roots. A total of 36 artifacts and 399.8 g of cultural material were recovered from Level 1 (Table 5-7). Artifacts in Level 1 consisted of a mix of modern debris and some late-nineteenth to mid-twentieth century materials.

Level 2 (10-20 cmbs) encountered a dark brown silty clay, that transitioned into a light tan silty clay reminiscent of caliche. The artifact density increased in comparison to Level 1 (2-10 cmbs). A total of 199 items and 1462.4 g of material were recovered from Level 2. The artifacts encountered appear to be a mixture of modern and early-twentieth century items. Various colors of glass fragments were collected, as well as both cut and wire nails (Table 5-7).

Table 5-7. Artifacts recovered from TU-3.												
	TU-3										Total Ct	Total Wt (g)
	Lvl 1 (12-20)		Lvl 2 (20-30)		Lvl 3 (30-40)		Lvl 4 (40-50)		Lvl 5 (50-60)			
	Ct	Wt (g)										
Cartridge Casing					1	32					1	32
Bone												
Faunal			8	4.6	602	372.1	262	157.7	29	12.2	901	546.6
Human Tooth					1	0.9					1	0.9
Colonial Ceramic												
Lead Glazed												
Galera					1				1		2	
Green Glazed							2				2	
Unknown					2						2	
Yellow Glaze					1						1	
Unglazed Undecorated					1						1	
Construction Material												
Asbestos	1		2	13.4	1	7.6	1	12			5	222
Asphalt					3	7.3	1	2.4			4	9.7
Brick/Tile			5	28.6	4	5.5	4	7.4			13	415
Limestone					2	20.3					2	20.3
Mortar					2	49.1	3	0.6			5	49.7
Plaster							2	0.6			2	0.6
Cement	1	20.8	2	15.4							3	36.2
Concrete	1	109	11	236							12	345
Paver			1	940							1	940
European Ceramic												
Semi-Porcelain, Undec.							1		1		2	
Stoneware, Ginger Beer					1						1	
White Earthenware												
Annularware					1						1	
Cut Sponge							1				1	
Decal					1						1	
Handpainted					1		4				5	
Undecorated	1		7		9		1				13	
Glass												
Applicator, Amethyst							1				1	
Chimney, Clear			2		4				1		7	
Container												
Amber-Olive Green			1								1	
Amethyst					1						1	
Aqua			3		9		3				15	
Blue-Green			1								1	
Brown	2		14		15		3		3		37	
Clear	3		11		24		21		7		66	
Clear			27								27	
Cobalt Blue			1								1	
Dark Olive			1		4		2				7	
Green							1				1	
Light Green			1								1	
Milk			1								1	
Pink					2		3				5	
Red			2		1						3	
Flat												
Aqua									1		1	
Clear					12		10				22	
Mirror							2				2	
Lithic												
Debitage	1		1		1						3	
Heat Spall	2		3		4		3				12	
Mechanical	1		3						3		7	

Table 5-7. Artifacts recovered from TU-3. (Cont.)												Total Ct	Total Wt (g)		
TU-3										Total Ct	Total Wt (g)				
Lvl 1 (12-20)		Lvl 2 (20-30)		Lvl 3 (30-40)		Lvl 4 (40-50)		Lvl 5 (50-60)						Total Ct	Total Wt (g)
Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)	Ct	Wt (g)						
Metal															
Axe Head				1	478							1	478		
Fastener															
Bolt				1	54.4							1	54.4		
Cut Nail	1	10.6	3	8.1	41	148	21	72	1	11	67	239.8			
Screw			2	12.2							2	12.2			
Tack				5	4.2						5	4.2			
Unidentified Nail			11	13	20	28	18	29.7	4	5.1	53	75.8			
Washer							1	13.4			1	13.4			
Wire			5	14.7	4	6.7					9	21.4			
Wire Nail	1	5.2	1	6.9	11	30					13	42.1			
Other															
Aluminum Foil	1	0	1				1	0.01			3	0.01			
Balance Weight	1	30.5									1	30.5			
Ferrous Scrap			38	25.6							38	25.6			
Scrap	2	9.5									2	9.5			
Unidentified					2	0.01					2	0.01			
Unidentified Cast Iron	1	214									1	214			
Unidentified Metal Object			1	19							1	19			
Scrap					61	54	8	5.6	4	2.8	73	62.4			
Organics															
Charcoal			1	4.1	1	16	1	13			3	7			
Coal					1	3					1	3			
Wood	1	0.2	5	16	18	26	2	0.4	4	0.7	28	5.5			
Other Ceramic															
Unglazed Sewer Pipe					2						2				
Personal															
Button															
Bone					1	0.4					1	0.4			
Cover							1	13			1	13			
Porcelain					5						5				
Shell					4	2.5			1		5	2.5			
Rivet					1	0.7					1	0.7			
Slate															
Slate Board			1		3	11					4	11			
Slate Pencil					4	9					4	9			
Shell															
Marine					1	0.4					1	0.4			
Mussel Shell			2	35.9	1	0.6					3	36.5			
Synthetic															
Styrofoam	3		3								6				
Plastic	11		14		3		2				30				
Toy															
Rubber Ball			1								1				
Bone Die					1						1				
Glass Marble	1										1				
Porcelain Doll Head					1						1				
Unknown Ceramic															
Lead Glazed															
Green Glazed Luster			2								2				
Grand Total	36	399.8	199	1462	902	12912	386	293.61	60	219	1583	3468.52			

Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) exhibited a soil change and dramatic increase in the density of artifacts. The soil became brown, silty clay with caliche inclusions. The artifact sample encountered in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) was a mixture of mostly nineteenth- and twentieth-century material (Table 5-7). A few fragments of ceramics collected could potentially date to the Spanish Colonial Period, although the types are known span the entire period (1718-1790s) and into the nineteenth century. Animal bone fragments comprised the largest portion of the artifact assemblage. One heavily worn human molar was

recovered during the excavation in Level 3. The presence of the tooth does not indicate a human burial. Rather, the molar represents a natural loss and was an isolated encounter.

Level 4 (40-50 cmbd) exhibited similar soils as noted in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd). In the southwestern corner of the unit, a pocket of sand was encountered. The pocket was circular, and extended into the next level. The density of artifacts decreased in Level 4 (40-50 cmbd; Table 5-7). Animal bone comprised the largest portion of the sample. Artifacts appear to date primarily to the nineteenth and twentieth century.

Level 5 (50-60 cmbd) exhibited a dramatic decrease in the number of artifacts. The soil consisted of dark brown silty clay. Artifacts included glass, metal objects, European ceramic, a small fragment of Galera ware, and animal bone. The sample of artifacts continued to appear to be a mixture of nineteenth to twentieth century items, with one ceramic sherd that could date to the Colonial period.

The excavation of the unit was terminated at the base of Level 5 (50-60 cmbd). The artifact density in Level 5 decreased dramatically. In addition, the pocket of sand that had been encountered in the previous level continued throughout Level 5, with an outline still present at the base of the level. The pocket of sand is evidence of more recent disturbance.

Possible Spanish Colonial ceramics were present in each of the three deepest levels (Levels 3-5). Their numbers mirrored the number of total artifacts in these levels, that is the highest numbers (n=5) occurred in Level 5 decreasing thereafter with each level (n=2 in Level 4 and n=1 in Level 5).

Metal Detecting

All artifacts encountered during metal detecting were collected and returned to the RKEI Archaeology Laboratory for processing and analysis. None of these artifacts are associated with the eighteenth century. Table 5-8 lists these artifacts.

Table 5-8. Artifacts recovered during metal detecting.

	Count		
Undecorated White Earthenware	1		
Glass			
Container, Brown	1		
Flat	1		
Lithic, Core	1		
Metal			
Fastener			
Bolt	4		
5"	1		
8"	2		
Bracket			
Ferrous	2		
Lead	2		
Cut Nail	5		
Hinge	1		
Spike	1		
Unidentified Nail	4		
Washer, Lead	1		
Wire	3		
Wire Nail	3		
Awl/Leather Punch	1		
Broad-head Axe	2		
Knob			
Cast Iron	1		
Cuprous	1		
Lead Cover Plate	1		
Padlock, Cuprous	1		
Pipe			
Cast Iron	1		
Cuprous	1		
Ceramic Marble	1		
Grand Total	40		

Chapter 6: Artifact Discussion

Ceramics

A moderate number (n=128) of ceramics was recovered during the investigations at the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. The collection of sherds has been divided into analytical categories reflective of their manufacture location and temporal range. The following categories have been identified: Native American, Spanish Colonial, and European.

Native American

The most common Native-made ceramic variety that has been recovered at Spanish Colonial Period sites in San Antonio is Goliad wares. This type is common to this region. Goliad wares are hand coiled using local clays and the addition of crushed and finely ground bone. The local (upper San Antonio River) clays are typically devoid of sand or sand constitutes less than 5 percent of the fabric. The ceramic type is an extension of the Toyah Phase ceramic technology. Two sherds of Goliad ware were recovered from the surface in the field adjacent to the asphalted parking lot (Figure 6-1a). One is a thin walled specimen with small and sparse specks of finely ground bone. The second specimen is a small fragment that represents a well-formed base of a vessel and a small portion of the body (Figure 6-1b). The presence of such a well-formed base and the fully oxidized core and reddish color of the piece suggests that the vessel may have been kiln-fired. And, since it appears to be bone-tempered, the combination of these two characteristics suggests that the potter employed the typical Goliad ware clay fabric to manufacture a vessel form that imitated a Spanish Colonial vessel fired in a kiln rather than in an open-air bonfire. Finally, the vessel may also have been made on a wheel rather than being manufactured using the more traditional coil method employed within the native ceramic tradition.



Figure 6-1. Goliad ceramics recovered from the surface (a) and close-up of base fragment (b); base at left margin of image.

Spanish Colonial (n=19)

Spanish Colonial wares were made in the Spanish occupied areas in Mexico during the colonial period. The most popular manufacture sites were in Puebla, Guanajuato, and Mexico City. These wares made their way to San Antonio by mule train and are common finds at sites that were inhabited during the mission period. The Spanish Colonial wares can be divided into three different glaze types: Lead Glazed, Tin Glazed, and Unglazed.

Lead Glazed Wares

Thirteen lead glazed ceramic sherds were recovered during the course of the excavations within the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. Lead glazed sherds are typically associated with the Spanish Colonial occupation of the area, although their dates of manufacture could extend into the mid- to late-nineteenth century, depending on the type. Table 6-1 lists the potential colonial ceramics recovered during the investigations.

Table 6-1. Potentially Colonial ceramics encountered during the course of the investigation.

	Lead Glazed					Tin-Glazed		Unglazed		Grand Total
	Galera	Green Lead Glazed	Olive Jar	Undecorated	Unknown	Yellow Glaze	Undecorated	Unknown Blue on White	Undecorated	
Auger 14		1								1
Auger 18		1								1
Auger 6			1							1
Auger 8							2			2
Surface Near CAR Units		1			1		1	2		5
Surface Along Fence				1						1
TU-3										
3 (30-40)	1				2	1				5
4 (40-50)		2								2
5 (50-60)	1									1
Grand Total	2	5	1	1	3	1	3	2	1	19

Galera (n=2)

Galera is a fine-pasted earthenware type. Galera vessels are made using the mold technique rather than the wheel, and are often thin-walled (Fox and Ulrich 2008). Typically, the vessel paste is orange, and is visible through the thin, clear lead glaze. Decorations in cream, green, and brown are noted on the exterior. Common decorative motifs include dots, feathers, and flowers (Fox and Ulrich 2008). Galera wares were manufactured in Mexico, most likely in the state of Jalisco. Dates of manufactured are believed to be between 1725 and 1850, although similar wares are made to this day in Mexico. Two fragments of Galera ware were recovered from Test Unit 3 (Figure 6-1 b and c; Table 6-1). One was collected from Level 3 (30-40 cmbd), and the other was in Level 5 (50-60 cmbd).

Olive Jar (n=1)

Olive jar fragments are also lead glazed and fall into the Spanish Colonial ceramic categories in Texas. Olive jars were vessels that were used to ship wine and olive oil to the New World. The lead glaze would create an impermeable barrier that would keep the liquid from seeping out. The glaze, often in shades of green, was applied to the inside of the vessels, leaving the exterior unglazed. The pastes of the olive jars encountered in Texas are light tan to cream in color. These vessels would have originated from the Old World and produced over a long span of time. In Texas, the olive jars were introduced to the record ca. 1720s to 1800s (Fox and Ulrich 2008). One olive jar sherd was recovered from Auger 6 (Figure 6-1 d; Table 6-1). The exact level at which the sherd was encountered is unknown, but other artifacts encountered in Auger 6 dated from the late nineteenth to the twentieth century.



Figure 6-2. Lead glazed sherds encountered at the site. From left to right: a) Unknown Sandy Paste, b-c) Galera, d) Olive Jar, e) Yellow Glaze, f) Unknown, g) Green Lead Glaze (*molcajete*).

Sandy Paste Lead Glazed

Seven sherds of sandy paste lead glazed ceramics were recovered during the investigations. These sherds have a sandy paste and are wheel thrown and fired within a controlled atmosphere. The glaze is typically clear, revealing the yellow-orange to red-orange paste. The vessels were likely manufactured in Mexico throughout the eighteenth and into the twentieth centuries (Fox and Ulrich 2008). The sherds recovered during this investigation fall into three categories: Sandy Paste Lead Glaze, Yellow and Green Glaze, and Green Glaze. One sherd recovered from the surface along the fence-line was an undecorated fragment of Sandy Paste Lead Glaze.

Yellow and Green Glaze (n=1)

Yellow and Green Glaze is another variety of the Sandy Paste Lead Glazed wares. The vessel walls of this type are often thicker than the tin glazed ceramics (see below). The glaze used on these vessels appears to have a yellow and/or green tint. Green decorations on the rim are often seen (although can be broken down into the Yellow and Green Glaze II variety). Vessel forms were often utilitarian and held up well during the transit from Mexico to San Antonio (Fox and Ulrich 2008). One sherd of yellow glaze was recovered in Test Unit 3 Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) (Figure 6-2a; Table 6-1). The sherd has a sandy paste.

Green Glaze (n=5)

Green Glaze is another variety of Sandy Paste Lead Glazed ware noted at Texas colonial sites. Similar to the Yellow and Green Glaze, the paste of the Green Glazed variety has a high sand content. The vessels were manufactured using a wheel and were fired at controlled temperatures. The paste is typically yellow to orange. The vessel exhibits a green lead glaze. Five sherds of Green Glazed wares were recovered from the project area (Table 6-1). Two were recovered in Level 4 (40-50 cmbd) of Test Unit 3. One was recovered from Auger 14. The fourth was collected from the surface. The fifth and final specimen was recovered from Auger 18. The body appeared to consist of a fine-paste, but was not sandy. The glaze was thick green on the interior of the vessel. In addition, the interior of the vessel exhibited deep hatch-marks that are consistent with a *molcajete* (Figure 6-2g). These specimens were produced in Mexico possibly throughout the eighteenth century.

Other Lead Glazed Wares (n=5)

Five sherds of other varieties of Lead Glazed wares were recovered from the site. Three sherds could not be typed, and therefore were identified as “Unknown” lead glazed (Table 6-1). One of these was recovered from the surface near the UTSA-CAR units and exhibited a brown band on an orange body. The thickness did not stay consistent with Galera, but the colors were reminiscent. The remaining two fragments did not have any identifying characteristics.

Tin Glazed Wares (n=5)

Five Tin Glazed ware sherds were recovered during the investigations at the site. Tin glazed ceramics manufactured in Mexico are often referred to as *majolicas*. The tradition can also be seen in Italy, Spain, France, and Moorish influenced regions. The few sherds were fairly small in size, making identification

difficult, although the assemblage did have an impressive variety. Paste color, decoration color, and other identifying characteristics were used to place the sherds in types.

Tin glazed ceramics are manufactured using a potter's wheel to form the vessel. The vessels are all kiln-fired. The glaze used on the vessels is a lead glaze with a tin additive that creates an opaque, enamel-like surface after firing. Once the glaze is set, the decoration is painted on the desired surfaces and fired again. *Majolicas* often have a high gloss and vibrant designs.



Figure 6-3. Tin Glazed wares recovered during the investigations. From left to right: a) Plain with a stamped “E” on the reverse, b-c) Blue on White, d) Puebla Plain.

Puebla Plain (Undecorated; n=3)

Typically one of the largest portions of ceramic assemblages at Spanish Colonial sites, Puebla Plain represents the undecorated tin glazed sherds. The classification of “Undecorated” and “Puebla Plain” in the Tin Glazed category is interchangeable. These sherds exhibit the creamy white enamel with no

other distinguishing marks. It is possible that some sherds deemed as “Puebla Plain” or “Undecorated” are just small fragments from a decorated vessel. The Puebla Plain variety exhibits a paste color that ranges from cream to a pale orange. It is believed that Puebla Plain was a common type from 1700 to 1850 (Fox and Ulrich 2008). Three sherds of Puebla Plain were recovered from the site (Figure 6-3d). One was located near the units that had been excavated by UTSA-CAR in 2013. The other two were encountered in Auger 8. One of the sherds from Auger 8 exhibited a stamped black “E” on the base (Figure 6-3a). This likely indicates a post-colonial manufacture date. Typically, Colonial majolicas do not exhibit maker’s marks, or if they do the marks are signatures or a symbol painted on the base.

Puebla Blue on White (n=2)

The second most common type of Colonial *majolicas* in Texas is Puebla Blue on White. It is the most widespread of the majolicas and appears to have the longest manufacturing span (1650-1830) (Fox and Ulrich 2008). Two Blue on White majolica sherds were recovered from the surface of the open field, near the test units that had been excavated by UTSA-CAR in 2013 (Figure 6-3b and c; Table 6-1). However, the sherds are exceptionally small, and therefore cannot be definitively identified as Puebla Blue on White.

Unglazed Wares

Wheel Thrown (n=1)

The wheel thrown variety of ceramic that was encountered during the project likely is Valero ware, but it does not exhibit the red-brown paint decoration on the exterior. If the sherd is from a large vessel, it is possible to have a sherd that exhibits no decoration although the vessel as a whole may have been painted. The sherd exhibits the same orange paste and is uniform in color due to a controlled firing atmosphere. These sherds also represent vessels that were likely constructed in Mexico throughout the eighteenth century. One undecorated, unglazed ware that is most likely wheel thrown was recovered from Test Unit 3 in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) (Table 6-1).

Nineteenth to Twentieth Century

A total of 107 sherds that post-date the Spanish Colonial Period have been recovered during the site. These ceramics included high fired earthenwares that are manufactured in Europe and the United

States. Types include varieties of white earthenwares, stonewares, porcelain, and ironstone (Table 6-2).

Table 6-2. European ceramics recovered during the project.

Location	Ironstone	Porcelain	Semi-Porcelain	Stoneware		White Earthenware										Yellowware	Grand Total	
	Undec.	Undec.	Undec.	Albany & Bristol	Ginger Beer	Annularware	Cut Sponge	Decal	Gilded Flow Blue	Handpainted	Molded	Possible Faience	Solid Color Glaze	Transfer	Undecorated			
Auger 11		1																1
Auger 13										1					1			2
Auger 14	22														16			38
Auger 18				1			1								6			8
Auger 4		1													1			2
Auger 6	1									1					1			3
Auger 7											1							1
Auger 8									2									2
Auger 9															1			1
Metal Detecting															1			1
Surface Near CAR Units												1	1	1	9		1	13
ST-4																		
Lvl 3 (20-30)														1				1
TU-1																		
Lvl 1 (25-30)															1			1
TU-2																		
Lvl 3 (50-60)				1											3			4
TU-3																		
Lvl 1 (12-20)															1			1
Lvl 2 (20-30)															7			7
Lvl 3 (30-40)					1	1		1		1					9			13
Lvl 4 (40-50)				1			2			3					1			7
Lvl 5 (50-60)				1														1
Grand Total	23	2	3	1	1	1	3	1	2	5	2	1	1	2	58	1		107

White Earthenware (n=78)

The largest category of non-Spanish Colonial ceramics is White Earthenware. White earthenwares are considered to be hard-pasted refined earthenwares. These types of ceramics are the result of high firing refined clays and the use of vitreous glazes. Decoration types vary between potter and location. Historic sites in San Antonio have produced white earthenwares as early as the mid-nineteenth century but the arrival of the railroad in 1877 increased their availability (Fox et al. 1997). Several types of white earthenware are represented in the assemblage collected from the project area. These include: Undecorated, Handpainted, Transferware, Cut Sponge, Annular ware, Molded, Solid Color, Decalcomania, and Ironstone (Figure 6-4).



Figure 6-4. Nineteenth to twentieth century ceramics: a-b) Handpainted, c) Cut Sponge, d) Handpainted, e-f) Cut Sponge, g) Transfer (red), h) Yellowware, i) Transfer, j-k) Gilded Flow Blue.

Undecorated White Earthenware (n=58)

Fifty-eight sherds of undecorated white earthenware were recovered from the investigations at the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. Only one of these sherds exhibited a maker's mark. The sherd was recovered from Auger 14 and contained a portion of a mark that had an image of a lion (Figure 6-5). The use of a lion in the maker's mark was common to several pottery manufacturers in England and the United States. Due to the lack of additional images or words, the mark could not be identified.



Figure 6-5. White earthenware with maker's mark.

Handpainted White Earthenware (n=5)

Handpainted White Earthenwares exhibit a very distinctive floral decoration. As the name suggests, the decorations are handpainted onto the vessel surface under the glaze. The decoration is identified by the visible brush strokes and the use of vibrant colors in green, blue, red, fuchsia, and yellow. Black accents are present, depicting stems and outlines. These handpainted wares could have made their way into San Antonio during the 1830s-1870s via mule train (Labadie et al. 1986; Tomka and Dowling 2009; Ulrich et al. 2010).

Five sherds of handpainted wares were recovered at the site (Figure 6-4a, b, and d). One sherd was encountered in Auger 6. The remaining four were collected during the excavations of Test Unit 3. One sherd was encountered in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd), and the other three were located in Level 4 (40-50 cmbd).

Transferware (n=2)

Production of Transferware was first seen in England during the mid-eighteenth Century. Transferware

vessels became a very popular commodity during the remainder of the eighteenth century and throughout the nineteenth (Fox et al. 1997). English potteries were the prime supplier of Transferwares to America until the 1890s (Ulrich et al. 2010). The process of creating a Transferware vessel consists of several steps. Vessel forms are created and fired to the biscuit state. The desired design plate is inked and transferred (printed) onto a tissue. The inked tissue is then placed on the biscuit vessel to allow the print to transfer. Once the design is on the vessel it is fired with a glaze. Transfer prints are typically under the glaze and are monochrome. A variety of Transferwares that would be considered polychrome due to the addition of handpainted details is referred to as Transferware with Clobbering.

The early versions of Transferware that made their way into San Antonio would have been manufactured in England. It wasn't until the 1850s that American manufacturers started producing the ware. It took several decades before the American factories were able to pose as viable competition to the British manufacturers.

Two fragments of Transferware were recovered from the project area (Figure 6-4g and i). One was encountered on the surface near the units excavated by UTSA-CAR. The other sherd was recovered in Shovel Test 4, Level 3 (20-30 cmbs). In addition to these two sherds, two fragments of Gilded Flow Blue were recovered (Figure 6-4j and k).

Flow Blue is an early variety of Transferware in which the ink from the transfer tissue would blur during firing. These wares exhibit fuzzy edges to the design, and the blue ink would bleed into the white areas. The vessel would appear to have a blue tinge. Flow Blue manufacture likely began circa 1820 by the Staffordshire Potteries (Ewins 2008). Export to the United States became popular by the 1840s (Ewins 2008). It appears that Flow Blue was a type of decoration that was attractive to Americans, yet it does not seem that it was a demanded variety in its location of manufacture, Great Britain (Ewins 2008). Advertisements for Flow Blue wares could be found throughout New York in the 1850s and 1860s, but there were none comparable in the British papers. This would indicate that the majority of Flow Blue was made to be exported to the United States (Ewins 2008). Production and export was high between 1840 and the early 1860s. By the time the Civil War began in the United States, the demand for such wares declined, and British potters reduced manufacturing (Ewins 2008).

Cut Sponge (n=3)

Cut Sponge is a type of decoration technique that utilizes a sponge or stamp cut into a specific design or

shape to apply color to the vessel before firing. Colors found on Cut Sponge decorated wares are vibrant shades of green, blue, red, maroon, yellow, and pink (Kelly et al. 2001). Cut sponge designs are typically geometric shapes, floral motifs, or animal shapes. Cut Sponge decorated wares were likely manufactured in Great Britain and exported to the United States. The wares became popular during the 1870s and persisted well into the early 1900s (Kelly et al. 2001). Three sherds of Cut Sponge were collected at the site (Figure 6-4c, e, and f; Table 6-2). One was encountered in Auger 18. The two were recovered in Level 4 (40-50 cmbd) in Test Unit 3.

Annular Ware (n=1)

Annular ware is a variety of earthenware that is sometimes referred to as Banded Slipware. Very early versions were characterized by a white slip over red earthenware that was decorated with a checkerboard pattern. It appears that the earliest manufacture of Annular ware began in the 1760s (Carpentier and Rickard 2001:115-134). The process of producing Annular ware became more stream line with the introduction of the engine turning lathe (Carpentier and Rickard 2001). The engine turning lathe allowed for a more precise application of the slip bands as well as cutting geometric patterns into the leatherhard vessel. Josiah Wedgwood experimented with the engine turning lathe in the late 1760s. By the 1780s, the technique had taken off and many potters were producing Annular wares (Carpentier and Rickard 2001). There are several different decoration styles within the Annular ware type, but the sherd recovered from Test Unit 2 exhibited the simple slip bands. This type would have been common throughout the nineteenth century. Many of the potters were based in England, but by the later portion of the 1800s, the Unites States had entered the market.

Decal (n=1)

One sherd of a variety of white earthenware known as Decal was recovered in Level 3 of Test Unit 3 (Table 6-2). Often referred to as Decalcomania, the decoration technique involves placing a colored, finish design from a sheet of tissue onto a pre-fired vessel. Typically the design is placed over the glaze. Unlike the tissues used in Transferware, the decals were often polychrome. The use of decals as a decoration technique started circa 1850 (Fox et al. 1997). The production of the ware continued into the twentieth century, with Germany being the main exporter by 1930 (Fox et al. 1997).

Ironstone (n=23)

Twenty-three fragments of Ironstone were recovered from the investigations at the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. Ironstone is a form of white earthenware that has been fired at higher temperatures creating a more vitreous paste. Ironstone was created in response to the need for a durable ware similar to porcelain. The first versions of Ironstone were produced in England and France circa 1805. By the 1850s, Ironstone was in production in American potteries. Seen as a heavy-duty ceramic type, Ironstone became a common addition to homes and businesses by the mid to late nineteenth century. Ironstone became the prominent type utilized in hotels.

Ironstone differs from White Earthenware because it has a less porous paste, but it is more porous than porcelain. Ironstone vessels are typically heavier due to the denser paste and thicker walls in comparison to White Earthenware.

Yellowware (n=1)

Yellowware is a type of ceramic that is characterized by its yellow paste and clear glaze. Plain versions of the ware were first created in England, likely as early as the 1500s. By the 1700s, the process of manufacturing the ware was perfected and the vessels were often decorated with bands and feather designs. American potters began producing the wares during the 1830s (Tolson et al. 2008). Although British immigrants had brought the technology for manufacturing yellowware to America, the type was still largely shipped from England (Tolson et al. 2008). The Florida Museum of Natural History places the manufacture of these wares in England from the 1840s to the twentieth century (FLMNH 2015). The one sherd encountered during the investigations was encountered on the surface and exhibited a white slip on the exterior of the sherd, with cobalt blue dendritic mocha pattern applied (Figure 6-4h).

Stoneware (n=2)

Stonewares are high fired, non-permeable ceramics that are constructed of local clays. The vessels are fired at temperatures ranging from 1200° to 1400° C, similar to porcelain. Due to the lack of Kaolin in the clay, the vessels exhibit different characteristics after firing. Typically, the walls of stoneware vessels are thick. Vessels colors range from near-white to greys and browns. The vessels are non-permeable even without glazing, but often glaze is applied to the exterior of the vessels. By the mid-nineteenth century, it was more common to glaze both the interior and exterior. Stoneware vessels soon replaced

the use of lead-glazed ceramics as utilitarian wares (Fox et al 1997).

Most stoneware encountered in the region came from local potteries that were in operation from the mid-1800s to the mid-1900s (Fox et al 1997). Other examples of stoneware, such as ginger beer bottles, would have been made outside of the region and brought in. Stoneware technology was brought to America through European colonists who occupied the eastern coast. The use of Stoneware moved westward as European settlers and immigrants began residing in previously unsettled lands.

Two fragments of stoneware were recovered during the project (Table 6-2). A fragment of Albany and Bristol glazed stoneware was collected from Auger 18. A fragment of stoneware from a ginger beer bottle was recovered in Level 3 of Test Unit 3.

Porcelain and Semi-Porcelain (n=5)

A total of five sherds of undecorated porcelain and semi-porcelain were recovered during the investigations conducted at the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property.

Porcelain is the result of firing fine-grained clay mixed with Kaolin at very high temperatures. The high temperatures cause the clay to become highly vitrified producing a nearly translucent ceramic, with extremely low porosity in the paste. Firing temperatures range from 1280 to 1400°C (Rice 1987). The technology of producing porcelain was first seen in China during the ninth and tenth centuries. By the 1600s, Japan began producing their versions of porcelain. Europe did not enter the market until the early eighteenth century with Germany producing the first varieties before France and England later caught on (Rice 1987). Only European porcelains were represented in the assemblage.

Semi-porcelain is another variety of vitreous ceramic. This variety contains impurities and often lacks Kaolin as a hardening agent. Semi-porcelains are often bulkier and exhibit a more porous paste than porcelain. Three sherds of semi-porcelain were encountered during the investigations (Table 6-2). One was recovered from Level 3 (50-60 cmbd) of Test Unit 2. The remaining two were collected from Test Unit 3, in Levels 4 (40-50 cmbd) and 5 (50-60 cmbd).

Glass

Glass comprised one of the largest categories of artifacts encountered during the archaeological investigations within the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. A total of 430 glass fragments

in various colors were collected. No whole vessels were encountered during the course of the project. Glass was divided into three main categories: Chimney, Container, and Flat. Chimney glass is any thin glass fragment that appears to have originated from a lamp shade for kerosene and gas lamps. Container glass is fragments that were once bottles, jars, jugs, cups, and other vessels that held contents. Flat glass exhibits no curvature to the fragment. These likely originated from windows and windshields. One piece did not fall within these three categories and was identified as an Applicator/Stopper. Table 6-3 presents the glass recovered from the site.

Table 6-3. Glass recovered during the investigations.

	Applicator	Chimney	Container													Flat		Other	Grand Total				
	Amethyst (Purple)		7-Up Green	Amber-Olive Green	Amethyst (Purple)	Aqua	Blue-Green	Brown	Clear	Cobalt Blue	Dark Olive	Green	Light Green	Light Green Milk	Milk	Olive Green	Pink	Red		Aqua	Clear	Mirror	
Auger 1						2			3													5	
Auger 3									1													1	
Auger 4						1		1	2												2	6	
Auger 5				1																		1	
Auger 6				1															2			3	
Auger 7									4							1			1		1	7	
Auger 8		1				1		5	10						2	1					7	27	
Auger 9						1	1	5	4				1						2			14	
Auger 10									1													1	
Auger 11									3										1			4	
Auger 13						1	1	3	4			1				1					3	14	
Auger 14			3			43		23	7		1	1									18	96	
Auger 18			1			12		1	6					1	1							22	
Metal Detecting									1												1	2	
ST-1																							
Lvl 4 (30-40)									1	1												2	
ST-2																							
Lvl 4 (30-40)										1												1	
Lvl 5 (40-50)										1												1	
ST-3																							
Lvl 3 (20-30)							1															1	
Lvl 7 (60-72)										1												1	
ST-4																							
0-10							1		6													7	
10-20							2															2	
20-30										1	2											3	
Surface Near CAR Units						4			1													5	
TU-2																							
Fill							1															1	
35-40			1							1												2	
40-50						1																1	
TU-3																							
Lvl 1 (12-20)										2	3											5	
Lvl 2 (20-30)			2	1		3	1	14	38	1	1		1		1			2				65	
Lvl 3 (30-40)			4			1	9	15	24		4						2	1			12	72	
Lvl 4 (40-50)			1				3		3	21		2	1				3				10	46	
Lvl 5 (50-60)				1						3	7								1			12	
Grand Total	1		13	2	1	6	81	3	87	143	1	8	3	2	1	4	3	5	3	7	53	3	430

Glass color is temporally diagnostic. Glass is manufactured using sand, soda from wood ash, and lime. The impurities found in sand results in various glass colors that are directly related to the minerals reacting with heat during firing. Difficulties in procuring pure sand lead many bottle manufacturers to produce colored glass. Prior to the industrialization of the manufacturing process, producing clear glass vessels was not cost effective. Venetians were able to produce clear glass if quartz was added to the

sand mixture but the process was not cost effective. By 1673, the English were able to produce their own version of clear glass by adding ground flint. Another variety of English clear glass was created by adding red lead. Although there were methods, producing clear glass was laborious and expensive. Due to the expense, most glass vessels were produced with the impure sand, resulting in vessels that were in shades of aqua and light green (Kendrick 1966). In some regions that contained naturally occurring iron oxide in the sand, vessels produced were colors of brown, amber, olive, and darker shades of aqua (Kendrick 1966).

Up until the 1860s, bottle manufactures would commonly add iron slag to the sand mixture. The addition would result in vessels that were olive green to amber green in color. On some occasions, the iron slag would create a glass so dark olive that it appears black. This variety is commonly classified as “Dark Olive” or “Black”. The darker the shade of green, the better the protection it offered for the contents of the vessel (Kendrick 1966). A shift in the desirable glass color began in the 1860s, with increased demand for clear glass by 1880 (Kendrick 1966). The shift was related to the food-preservation and packing industries. People wanted to be able to see the contents of the jar. To meet the demands, manufacturers added selenium or manganese to the sand mixture to produce the desired clear vessels. These minerals would bleach the impurities naturally occurring in the sand. Initially, the selenium and manganese bleached vessels would be clear but exposure to sunlight over the years created another chemical reaction that turned the clear glass to colored. Manganese would result in amethyst, or purpled, glass. Selenium bleached glass would end up as an amber, or straw, colored glass. The use of manganese dramatically dropped off due to the onset of World War I. By 1914, very few manufacturers had access to the mineral (Kendrick 1966). Selenium was used in place of manganese until circa 1930. By then, the use of both bleaching minerals was discontinued (Kendrick 1966). Less expensive methods to bleach glass had been developed by this point, and clear glass manufacturing was no longer an issue.

Producing vibrant colors of glass required a mixture of specific minerals that typically were more expensive than producing natural colored glass. Milk glass, which is bright white, is produced by using zinc oxides, tin oxide, fluorides, and phosphates to create the color and opaqueness. The glass color is used for cosmetic and toiletry jars, ointment jars, decorative candy dishes and vases, and figurines (BLM 2015). Milk glass manufacture predominately dates from 1870 to 1920 (BLM 2015). Cobalt blue is typically hard to date as they are not commonly found at historic sites, or are found in small numbers. Dates associated with cobalt blue glass can be as early as 1840 (BLM 2015), and as late as present day.

The vibrant green typically associated with 7-Up bottles dates to as early as 1940 (BLM 2015). The color is still in production today. One fragment of red glass was encountered at the site. This fragment was clear through the center, but had the red coloring applied on the interior and exterior surfaces.

Glass colors that can be associated with the Spanish Colonial Period include Olive, Amber-Olive, and Dark Olive. Table 6-3 shows that twelve fragments of glass could be related to the period. The one sherd of amber-olive and seven of the eight sherds of dark olive were recovered between Level 2 and Level 4 of Test Unit 3. These glass sherds were encountered in the same proveniences as later dating glass colors, saw cut bone, and European ceramics also were noted. It appears that if these were related to the Spanish Colonial Period, they are in mixed context. It is possible that the manufacture of these glass fragments would have occurred during the mid to late nineteenth century, which would be more consistent with the artifact assemblage. The remaining dark olive fragment and all of the olive glass fragments were encountered during the augering.

Metal

A total of 428 metal artifacts weighing 1890.12 g was recovered from the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property during the investigations. The follow section will discuss the unique metal items that may offer insight to the use of the property (Table 6-4). Scrap cuprous and ferrous metal and unidentified objects, totaling 159 items and weighing 449.72 g, are not included in this discussion.

One of the largest categories of metal objects recovered from the site was nails. Nails also are temporally diagnostic. Hand-wrought nails were manufactured by blacksmiths until circa 1800 (Visser 1997). Each nail would have been individually made and exhibited signs of hammer shaping. During the late nineteenth century, machines were created that automated the process of manufacturing nails by cutting them from iron bars. The first nails manufactured by machines were made in two parts: the head and shaft. These machines were likely used until 1820, when a new machine was invented in 1810 that manufactured the nails in one piece began to gain popularity (Visser 1997). This type of cut nail is the most common version found between 1820 and end of the nineteenth century. During the later years of the 1800s, another method of manufacturing nails by using steel wire became popular. Wire nails became the most commonly used nail in the United States by 1913 (Visser 1997).

The investigations produced a total of 214 nails. Of these, 90 were in such a state of decay that it could not be determined if they were forged, cut, or wire. A total of 92 cut nails were identified, dating from



Figure 6-6. Axe heads recovered from the site.

Three axe-heads were encountered during the investigations (Figure 6-6). Two were recovered during the metal detecting. The other axe-head was encountered in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) of Test Unit 3. The two larger axe-heads appear to be similar to shapes used during the mid-nineteenth to early twentieth century (USDA 2015). No maker's marks were noted due to the rusting. The intact example appears to share a similar shape to the Delaware or Wide Bit Dayton produced by Kelly Axe and Tool Works in Charleston, West Virginia (USDA 2015). The smaller axe appears to belong to a shingling hatchet. The hatchet was used to shape shingles, and the hammer end was used to nail the shingle in place. A notch is present on the bottom of the blade to help pull nails. Since the axe head is rusted, no maker's mark was discernable. It is likely that this specimen was manufactured between 1850 and 1930 (USDA 2015; MHS 2015).

Auger 11 produced a lead fragment. Due to the lack of diagnostic characteristics of the fragment, a temporal affiliation cannot be assigned. It is of interest because lead fragments are not commonly encountered in association to ferrous and cuprous objects.

A buckle was recovered from Auger 13 (Figure 6-7c). The buckle is believed to be associated with horse tack. A specific date range cannot be assigned to the artifact, but it could relate to the mid-1800s occupation of the site.



Figure 6-7. Metal objects recovered at the site: a) Spike, b) Door Knob, c) Buckle fragment, d) unidentified lead fragment, and e) lead plate.

Several other identifiable metal objects were collected during the investigations at the site. It appears that many of these items, such as the cast iron knob (Figure 6-7b), and can fragments, are associated with the Italian neighborhood that once inhabited the area.

Personal and Other Unique Items

A collection of artifacts within the assemblage recovered during the investigations were identified as personal object, arms, and toys. Table 6-5 presents these items and their locations of recovery.

Table 6-5. Personal and other artifacts recovered during the investigations.

	Ball	Button					Cartridge Casing	Fastener	Gamepiece		Lithic	Marble		Porcelain		Slate		Grand Total
	Rubber Ball	Shell	Bone	Cover	Loop Shank	Porcelain		Rivet	Monoploy Pawn	Bone Die	Possible Gunflint	Ceramic Marble	Glass Marble	Doll Head	Slate Board	Slate Pencil		
Auger 4										1								1
Auger 11							1											1
Auger 13											1					1		2
Auger 14													1					1
Auger 18					1											3		4
Metal Detecting												2						2
Surface Near CAR Units						2			1							3		6
TU-3													1					1
12-20																		1
20-30	1															1		2
30-40		4	1			5	1	1		1				1	3	4		21
40-50				1														1
50-60		2																2
Grand Total	1	6	1	1	1	7	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	11	4	44

Buttons comprised the largest category. A total of 13 buttons were recovered from the Christopher Columbus Italian Society property. Ten were recovered from Test Unit 3. One was recovered in Auger 18. The other two were encountered on the surface near the UTSA-CAR excavated units. The buttons were made of a variety of material. Porcelain and shell buttons were most common, but bone and metal were also present.



Figure 6-8. Buttons recovered during the excavations: a) Six shell buttons, b) Bone button, c) Cuprous loop shank, d) Seven porcelain buttons.

Shell buttons were made of either marine or freshwater shells, most often bivalves such as mussel and oyster. Shell buttons in the area were primarily handmade prior to 1850, and machine-made after this date (Meissner 1997). Machine-made varieties can be differentiated due to more uniform hole placement, and sometimes the addition of decorative edging. Six shell buttons were recovered in Test Unit 3 (Figure 6-8a). Due to the uniform nature of the hole placement, it is likely that these were machine-made variety. Two of the buttons exhibited greater wear which may be related to being buried for so long. Alternatively, the two plain varieties are not unlike those found in colonial sites.

One copper loop-shank button was recovered in Auger 18 (Figure 6-8c). It did not have any identifying characteristics that could be associated with a temporal affiliation. A cuprous button cover was recovered in Level 4 (40-50 cmbd) of Test Unit 3. The design on the cover was unidentified.

Porcelain buttons were considered to be a luxury prior to the 1840s (Meissner 1997). The amount of effort needed to manufacture porcelain buttons drove up the cost, limiting these types of buttons to be used for finer clothes. After 1840, the process of manufacturing porcelain buttons became mechanized. Machine-made porcelain buttons became less expensive to purchase, therefore becoming more

common-place (Meissner 1997). The seven porcelain buttons recovered from the site were all the machine-made variety, indicating they were manufactured after 1840 (Figure 6-8d).

One bone button was recovered in Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) of Test Unit 4. The button did not exhibit a hole and may have been part of a loop shank button. Loop shank buttons have a loop attached to the back of the button to fasten to the garment with thread. The bone button recovered at the site was approximately the same diameter as the small porcelain buttons (Figure 6-8b).

In addition to buttons, arms related material in the form of cartridge casings and a possible gunflint were recovered. The cartridge casings were located in Auger 11 and Test Unit 3 (Figure 6-9). Both exhibited corrosion. The cartridges were not able to be exactly dated, but smaller appears to be a 22 caliber rim fire cartridge. Rim fire cartridges were common during the late 1850s and into the 1860s (Logan 1959). The larger cartridge appears to be a center fire which were prominent after 1866 and gained popularity in the 1870s (Logan 1959).

The possible gunflint was fashioned from a piece of fine-grained chert (Figure 6-10). The chert retains cortex, which although not common, has been noted on other gunflints from the San Antonio Missions (Villalobos 2003). The specimen is made on a secondary blade fragment and the decorticate lateral edge exhibits an irregular series of step-fractured and crushed flake scars that is common to expedient gunflints noted in San Antonio mission assemblages. Research conducted on local gunflint collections has found that it is possible that Native inhabitants and Presidio soldiers that did not have adequate resources brought in from Mexico may have fashioned gunflints from local cherts (Villalobos 2003). It is possible that the gunflint may have been manufactured during Colonial times.



Figure 6-9. Two copper casings recovered at the site.



Figure 6-10. Possible gunflint recovered in Auger 4.

Gaming pieces and toys were also collected at the site. Three marbles were recovered (Figure 6-11). One was a small, blue glass marble (Figure 6-11a). The other two were white ceramic marbles. These two are of a type referred to as “Chinas”. Chinas were first produced in Germany during the last quarter of the eighteenth century (Zapata 1997). They are constructed of kaolin clays and are found glazed and unglazed. Due to the lack of decoration, it is difficult to place these marbles into manufacturing periods. Germany exported their marbles likely prior to the 1870s, with some variations appearing in the United States as early as 1846 (Zapata 1997). The dates of manufacture appear to range from 1800 to 1920s. Test Unit 3 produced an unglazed China (Figure 6-11c), whereas Auger 13 produced a glazed China (Figure 6-11b). Both did not exhibit any decoration.



Figure 6-11. Three marbles collected at the site. From right to left: a) blue glass, b) glazed China, c) unglazed China.

Two porcelain doll-head fragments were recovered (Figure 6-12a and b). One, recovered from Auger 14,

appears to be from a “Frozen Charlotte”. Frozen Charlottes were dolls that were cast in one piece, having the arms and legs “frozen” into one position (Fox et al. 1997). The figure appears to be that of a girl. These dolls were common during the late 1800s and early 1900s (Nichols 2014). The other head, recovered in Test Unit 3 Level 3 (30-40 cmbd), may have been from an articulated doll, but there is not enough of the doll’s face to identify. The head appears to have painted black hair.

One gaming piece was identified as originating from a Monopoly game. A fragment of the game piece in the shape of an iron was recovered on the surface near the units excavated by UTSA-CAR (Figure 6-12c). Monopoly was acquired by Parker Brothers in 1935 (Pilon 2015) and put into production and the game became a hit soon after hitting the stores. The original six tokens were included the top hat, thimble, shoe, battleship, cannon, and iron (Newman 2013). The next year, two more tokens were added. The metal tokens were manufactured starting in 1937 (Arneson 2015). During World War II, the tokens were manufactured out of wood to account for the metal shortages due to the war. By the 1950s, Parker Brothers returned to metal for their tokens (Arneson 2015). The iron was part of the game until 2013 when Parker Brothers asked the public to vote on their favorite tokens. The iron received the least votes and was soon retired.

One small (0.7 cm³) six-sided bone die was recovered in Test Unit 3 Level 3 (30-40 cmbd) (Figure 6-12d). The die exhibited drilled/punched holes for the numbers. It appears that this one was likely made during the mid-1800s. Similar ones made during the Civil War Period can be found in antique stores today.



Figure 6-12. Toys recovered from the project area. From left to right: a) Porcelain Frozen Charlotte fragment, b) Porcelain doll head fragment, c) Monopoly token, d) Bone die.

Slate pencils and slate boards were common utensils for children during the mid-nineteenth to early-twentieth century. Slate boards and slate pencils likely were not commonplace in San Antonio until after the railroad arrived in the late 1870s. Four slate pencil fragments (Figure 6-13) and eleven slate board fragments were recovered at the site. A Montgomery Ward catalogue dating 1895 shows that slate pencils were sold by the dozen in wooden boxes for 28¢, or in packs of 100 for 12¢ (Figure 6-14).



Figure 6-13. Four slate pencil fragments.

116 MONTGOMERY WARD & CO.'S CATALOGUE No. 57.

Slate Pencils—Continued.

15349 Best German Slate Pencils, union; pointed, in sliding pasteboard box containing 12 pencils. A convenient box for scholars. Per box, \$0.03. Per dozen boxes, \$0.28. Weight, per box, 5 ounces.

15352 Best German Slate Pencils, gray, pointed; length, 5 1/4 inches; 100 in box. Per box, \$0.12. Per 1,000 (10 boxes), 1.10. Weight, per box, 26 ounces.

15355 American Soapstone Slate Pencils, 5 1/4 inches long, pointed, 100 in box. Weight per box, packed, 32 ounces. Per box, \$0.18. Per 1,000 (10 boxes), 1.65.

Slate Pencil Sharpener.

15356 Champion Slate Pencil Sharpener (for stone slate pencils), made of chilled iron, coppered finish. Has corrugated groove in which end of pencil may be reduced to a nicely tapered point. Weight, packed, 2 ounces.

Each, \$0.01. Per doz., \$0.08. Per gross, .85.

Tailors' Chalk.

15358 "Gilt Edge" Tailors' Chalk, for Dressmakers, Tailors and Cutters' use; superior quality, 75 pieces white, red and blue assorted, in neat wooden box. Weight, packed, 42 ounces. Per box, \$0.24.

Pencil Sharpeners.

15474 Improved Long Barrel Lead Pencil Sharpener. Each, \$0.06. Per dozen, .60. Weight, per dozen, 6 ounces.

15478 "Peerless" Long Barrel Lead Pencil Sharpener; polished solid brass barrel with fine steel cutting blade, which may be ground when dull. Each, \$0.15. Per dozen, 1.50.

Pencil Holders.

15483 "Practical" Pencil Holder, nicked double clamp for holding two pencils; holds pencils securely; will not work off. Each, \$0.05. Per dozen, .45.

Paper Fasteners—Continued

15512 Commercial Round Head Paper Fasteners, 100 of one size in brass box.

No.	Length.	Per 100	Per Carton, 1000	Wt. per 100
1	1/4 inch.	\$0.12	\$1.00	2 oz.
2	3/8 inch.	.14	1.20	3 oz.
3	1/2 inch.	.19	1.90	3 oz.
4	1 inch.	.24	2.00	4 oz.

Victor Staple Driver.

15515 Victor Staple Driver, for binding books, papers, pamphlets, etc., putting down cloth or matting, putting up curtains, shades on rollers, and driving small steel staples for a hundred purposes. Requires no skill to use it, staple is placed in holder, driven to place and driver returns to place ready for use. Packed in neat wood box containing driver, clincher and 400 assorted staples.

Each, \$0.40. Per dozen, 4.25. Postage, .12.

15518 Staples for "Victor" Driver, 3-16, 1/4, 3/8.

Figure 6-14. Excerpt from the 1895 Montgomery Ward catalogue showing slate pencil listings.

Chapter 7: Summary and Discussion

The augering of the parking lot located to the north of the Christopher Columbus Hall and San Francesco di Paola Church revealed that the soils under the asphalt and base represent a mix of yellow clay and dark grayish brown silty clay. The original ground surface that was assumed to be present under the fill was not identified even in the auger bores that extended to seven feet below the surface. Since the upper portion of the deposits found in the two 50-x-50 cm units excavated between the Church and Community Hall also contained yellow clay, it is possible that the soils encountered under the asphalt represent the parent soils that underlie the landform that forms the west bank of San Pedro Creek. It also is possible that clay soils were brought in from another location to prepare the base for the asphalted lot. This location could have been the grassy field that is immediately west of the parking lot. This possibility is supported by the fact that the construction of the parking lot appears to have coincided with the construction of the large turn-around loop that was built sometime between 1963 and 1966 in the area (Figure 3-3). If so, much of the yellow clay deposit is sterile and contains no cultural materials and the clay substrate would not have been the best of fills on a sloping landform that is intermittently subject to wetting from an underground spring that is in the immediate vicinity of the Church.

Both the shovel tests and the single 1-x-1 meter unit excavated within the southern margins of the grassy field yielded a large number of cultural materials. The materials came from the dark grayish brown silty clay that is found immediately below the top soil. Even under the asphalted parking lot, the only cultural materials were recovered from auger bores that encountered the dark grayish brown silty clay soils.

Earlier in this report, a series of archaeological expectations were outlined regarding the potential archaeological signatures of the first location of Mission San Antonio de Valero. The expectation focused on features and facilities and material culture that may have been left behind during the 12- to 14-month occupation of the site. Here we consider the combined findings of the two field investigations carried out at the site (UTSA-CAR and RKEI) and how they reflect upon the archaeological expectations outlined earlier.

Features and Facilities

The two field projects conducted at the location have identified a single feature. The feature is a small hearth located near the southeastern edge of the grassy field, just west of the asphalted parking lot near the apex of the landform that borders San Pedro Creek (Nichols 2014:Figure 4-3). The southern and eastern margins of the grassy field located to the west of the parking lot would have been immediately outside of the area that was impacted by the turn-around loop that was built in 1966 (Figure 3-3).

No datable material has been recovered in association with the feature and therefore its age is not known. The artifacts that were recovered in association with the feature consist of mid-20th century materials, although their primary association with the feature is highly questionable. The morphology of the feature suggests a shallow basin, possibly surrounded by rocks (Figure 4-3; Nichols 2014). The basin hearth was not rock-lined suggesting very ephemeral use. As such, it may be associated either with a proto-historic or Spanish Colonial Native American use of the study area. In addition, it may also represent a historic Euro-American use of the feature, representing a picnic-associated cooking feature. The other intriguing possibility is that the feature was employed as an outdoor cooking feature during historic times but by a person of Native American descent. This possibility is supported by the presence of several pieces of Goliad ceramics found in the general vicinity of the feature. Finally, given its near-surface location, the hearth may also represent the remnants of a modern campfire built by homeless people that often frequent this general vicinity of Columbus Park. This may be a less likely explanation given that the area has been reasonably wide open and the property of the Christopher Columbus Italian Society for a number of years and access to it has been limited.

Overall, the feature may be seen as associated either with a proto-historic or historic Spanish Colonial Native American occupation of the location or a historic Euro-American residence. The most intriguing possibility is that the feature could have been used by a person with Native American roots but married into a Spanish family, such as many of the families that formed as soldiers married Native American women as the missions were secularized during the early 19th century (1824). A less interesting option is that the hearth is a modern creation reflective of the association of the locality with homeless inhabitants.

The relative scarcity of features within the study area is not surprising but rather it may be the product of the extensive land modifications that have taken place in the vicinity of the study area. Beginning with the mid-19th century the study area has seen increasingly greater degree of development and

construction not only of the domestic residential type but also associated with civic and religious character (i.e., the San Francisco di Paola Catholic Church). In addition, the construction of the IH-35 and I-10 interchange in the mid-20th century resulted in additional large-scale impacts to the landform and the vicinity of the study area.

Artifact Assemblage

Review of the artifacts from the investigations indicates that the majority of the assemblage can be dated to the mid-nineteenth to early-twentieth century. The excavations did not produce materials that are commonly associated with the earliest colonial occupation of San Antonio. Overall, a small proportion of the artifact collection that was recovered can be associated to the Spanish Colonial period in San Antonio. However, these items, such as the *majolicas* and lead-glazed ceramics, span such a long period of manufacture that they cannot be definitively linked to the earliest European occupation of the area. In addition, the potential colonial artifacts were recovered in the same levels as the later material, indicating either that the soils have been disturbed over the years or that the artifacts date to the later period rather than the early portion of their temporal range.

The archaeological investigations conducted by RKEI produced a total of 723 and 5571.61 g of artifacts. In addition, 1430 items and 6537.98 g of material were recovered during the 2013 investigations conducted by UTSA-CAR. Furthermore, surface collections made prior to and during the UTSA-CAR investigations identified an additional 44 artifacts, of which 30 (68%) may represent Spanish Colonial Period-associated artifacts. The majority of the cultural material encountered during the investigations dates from the mid-nineteenth to early-twentieth century. This should not be taken as an indicator of the fact that the location is not the first site of the mission since it does correspond to the proportion of time the landform would have been occupied by the mission versus the years of subsequent occupation stretching into the 20th century (12-14 months versus nearly 300 years). Therefore, the proportional under-representation of Spanish Colonial materials does match expectations rather than contradicts the possibility that the location is the site of the first settlement.

The two projects produced a combined 117 artifacts that could be related to the Spanish Colonial Period (Table 7-1). The artifacts include a small number of chipped stone artifacts, primarily unmodified lithic debitage that represents a bi-product of stone tool manufacture. The manufacture of expedient tools is well documented within the missions and the debris resulting from such activities should have been some of the most common residue associated with a site. Therefore, the presence of chipped lithic

debris should be viewed as a positive indicator suggestive of the connection between Native American occupants and the proto-historic or historic period. As in the case of the small hearth discussed earlier, however, it is also possible that the materials are prehistoric in age and predate the Spanish Colonial presence in the region. There is no clear evidence for a prehistoric association of the materials recovered from either project, at least as it can be judged based on the lack of prehistoric temporally diagnostic tools.

Table 7-1. List of all possible Spanish Colonial Period artifacts recovered from 41BX1968.

	UTSA-CAR Excavations			RKEI Excavations				All Surface	Total
	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	TU-1	TU-3	Augers	Shovel Test	Surface	
Lithic									
Debitage	14	9		2		1	1	2	29
Tool		1				1			2
Edge Modified		1							1
Possible Gunflint						1			1
Glass									
Olive Glass		4	3			3		1	11
Dark Olive Glass		1			7	1			9
Amber-Olive					1				1
Bead								3	3
Spanish Colonial Ceramics									
Galera	1	3	1		2				7
Yellow Lead Glazed		5			1			7	13
Unknown Sandy Paste					2	1		1	4
Green Lead Glazed					2	2		1	5
Olive Jar						1			1
Puebla Blue on White		1	1					2	4
Puebla Plain	1					1		1	3
Unknown Polychrome Majolica								1	1
Unglazed					1				1
Native American Ceramic									
Goliad								7	7
Metal									
Wrought iron fasteners								7	7
Unidentified Copper								2	2
Lead Fragments								5	5
Total	16	25	5	2	16	12	1	40	117

The lack of such tools may also be seen as indicative of the use-history of the site as it is expected that short occupations that may result in the manufacture and discard of fewer stone tools than longer occupations. Therefore, it may be possible to suggest that the occupation of a site for 12-14 months would have resulted in the manufacture of formal tools that may not have exceeded their use lives prior

to the abandonment of the locality. Therefore, the bulk of the tools employed would have been expedient varieties of cutting and scraping tools. However, only one expedient tool and a minimally retouched cobble tool, were the only utilized chipped stone artifacts identified in the lithic collection. This finding may suggest that the lithic artifacts recovered during the project may derive from a sparse palimpsest of prehistoric cultural material accumulated on the surface that later saw the historic occupation of the landform.

As in the case of the chipped lithic debris, the recovery of seven pieces of bone tempered pottery also may correlate with the Native American occupation of the landform. However, the fact that one of the pieces may actually retain a flat bottom rather than the more typical rounded base is intriguing. In addition, the fact that both fragments are fully oxidized, even though at least the base fragment is relatively thick, suggests that the fragments may be pieces of wheel-thrown vessels. If this is indeed the case, the finds may correlate more directly with artifacts manufactured during the post-colonial period. As such, they could be more directly linked to manufacture by potters with technological roots in the Native American bone-tempered ceramic tradition.

The possible gunflint is yet another artifact that may be indicative of a Spanish Colonial connection of the locality. The manufacture of gunflints by Native American neophytes was one way in which the traditional lithic technology of prehistoric and proto-historic groups was modified during the historic/Spanish Colonial Period. In particular, the expedient manufacture of gunflints, as well as the recycling of prehistoric biface fragments, into gunflints, is a very typical approach to gunflint manufacture by Native American flint knappers.

In addition to the aforementioned Native American-made items that were recovered from the site, a number of additional artifacts have Spanish Colonial affinities and may date to the early 18th century. For instance, the recovery of fragments of two blue glass trade beads (Figure 7-1) may also hint at the possibility that some of these materials recovered from the site are associated with the Spanish Colonial Period. Such trade beads were common presents that were given by Spanish explorers to members of Indian Nations that they met during their exploration north of the Rio Grande River. The recovery of three bead fragments, two of which refit into a single complete bead is suggestive of a Spanish Colonial association.



Figure 7-1. Fragments of two glass beads recovered from surface prior to UTSA-CAR investigations.

Similarly, the recovery of olive and olive-amber glass may be suggestive of a Spanish Colonial manufacture date, although olive glass has also been used in wine bottles that were manufactured at later dates. Common use of olive glass for anything other than wine and champagne bottles ends circa 1890 (BLM 2015). Typically, when olive glass is recovered in the same context as Spanish Colonial ceramics it is believed to be contemporaneous.

The Spanish Colonial ceramics recovered from the site include material culture would have been dominated by tin and lead glazed wares such as Olive Jars, Yellow and Green Glazed wares, and Puebla Blue on White (Figure 7-2) fragments. Each of these wares was being manufactured by the early 1700s. However, they continued to be manufactured for nearly 100 years. Tin glazed wares that would be strong indicators of the early-eighteenth century occupation of the mission site would include Abo Polychrome and Puebla Polychrome, San Luis Polychrome, and Castillo Polychrome. Each of these types was manufactured between the mid-seventeenth and first quarter of the eighteenth century (A.D. 1650-1725) and therefore would be very tightly correlated to the 1718 founding date. Unfortunately however, no fragments of these types have been found during the investigations.



Figure 7-2. Fragment of Puebla Blue on White recovered from surface prior to UTSA-CAR investigations.

Lead also was a common raw material in the manufacture of musket balls by presidio soldiers. The soldiers would have needed to restock their supply of ammunition by melting lead and pouring into a mold. During manufacture of the ammunition, the excess or seams would be trimmed (Figure 7-3). It is possible that the lead fragments that were recovered at the site were related to the Spanish soldiers' ammunition.



Figure 7-3. Lead fragments recovered from surface prior to UTSA-CAR investigation.

Wrought iron nails, spikes, and copper sheeting may also be associated with a Spanish Colonial occupation of the site (Figure 7-4). At the time the expedition reached San Antonio, the only method of producing metal objects such as nails, spikes, wire, horseshoes, and blades was through forging. Forged metal would have needed high heats as well as a trained blacksmith. The objects would have been important items transported into San Antonio as part of the supplies of the expedition until the villa and missions could be established and a local blacksmith set up shop. After the colonial period, metal manufacturing changed, and common goods such as nails and spikes would have been made through the cutting process (i.e. cut nails), and later the use of machines replaced hand manufacturing with automation. Copper sheets and patches were commonly found in the kits that the settlers and soldiers brought with them. Should a pot crack, it was necessary to repair the pot rather than wait in hopes that the next supply wagon would have new copper pots to sell. Once supplies more readily and reliably made their way into San Antonio, the need for patching cracked pots and other metal objects was not as necessary.

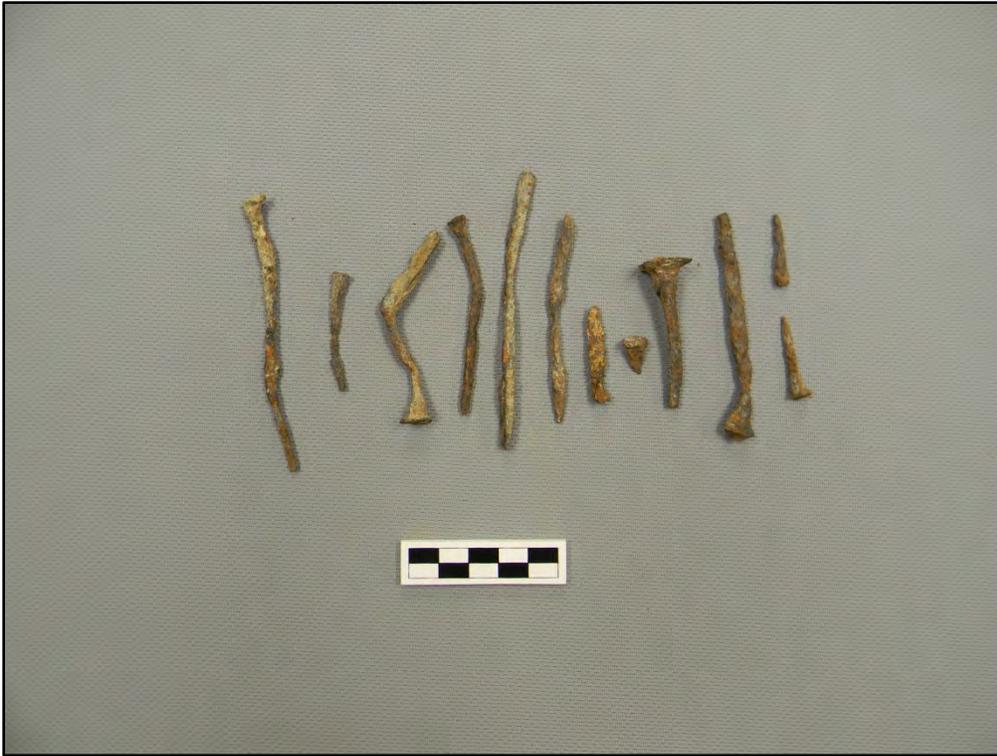


Figure 7-4. Possible forged nails recovered at the site.

Overall, however, when the temporal range of the ceramic sherds is considered, it is evident that the Spanish Colonial artifacts recovered from the site can be attributed to a nearly 80 year long time period (1718-1800). Unfortunately, because there is no way in which to narrow the temporal affiliation of the materials recovered, it is not possible to link any one artifact to a narrow calendar date that is closely linked to the one-year period when the mission was constructed and was occupied at the first site. Currently there is not enough evidence to conclusively deduce that Mission San Antonio de Valero was located at this site. Further investigations will likely not produce needed evidence to support the claim due to the amount of disturbance. Therefore, RKEI does not recommend further investigations in the area to locate remnants of the first Mission San Antonio de Valero. It may be likely, however, that further archival research in primary source documents located in research libraries and depositories in Mexico and Spain could help shed light on this founding period including potential clues that may help archaeologists pinpoint additional diagnostic artifacts and features that may serve to unequivocally link 41BX1968 to the first site of the mission.

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Appendix A: Photographs of Artifacts that Potentially Relate to the Spanish Colonial Period

Appendix A present the artifacts that were recovered either during field visits conducted by City Archaeologist, Kay Hinds, or during the UTSA-CAR field investigations. The Christopher Columbus Society loaned the collection to RKEI for photographing.



Figure A-1. Possible forged nails.



Figure A-2. Cuprous artifact, possible button.



Figure A-3. Forged metal objects.



Figure A-4. Horse/Mule shoe fragments.



Figure A-5. Lead fragments.



Figure A-6. Lead fragments. Left: Nail Seal (not colonial). Right: lead disk.



Figure A-7. Cuprous loop shank button.



Figure A-8. Possible forged spike.



Figure A-9. Lead glazed ceramics.



Figure A-10. Galera ware fragments recovered from surface and UTSA-CAR investigations.



Figure A-11. Lead glazed ceramics, likely undecorated fragments of Galera ware.



Figure A-12. High-fired lead glazed ceramics.



Figure A-13. Puebla Blue on White tin glazed ceramic.



Figure A-14. Heavily patinated glass. Left: amber glass. Right: light olive glass.



Figure A-15. Fragments of two glass beads.



Figure A-16. Chert debitage recovered from the site.