An Archeological Survey of the Saddle Mountain Project Area, San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas

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Abstract

In late October, 2005, South Texas Archeological Research Services, LLC, performed an archeological survey of the Saddle Mountain project area in San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas, for KB Home. The project area contained approximately 40 acres of unimproved land and the survey was conducted according to the *Archeological Survey Standards for Texas, Minimum Survey Standards*, of the Texas Historical Commission.

The survey was preceded by an internet search within the *Texas Archeological Sites Atlas* of the Texas Historical Commission to determine whether or not the project area contained any previously discovered archeological resources that were recorded in the Atlas and whether or not any portions of the project area had been previously surveyed. The search revealed that a portion of previously recorded archeological site 41BX751 apparently was within part of the project area. When found during an archeological survey of the Stone Oak Subdivision in 1987, 41BX751 was classified as a surficial prehistoric camping and lithic quarry site which consisted principally of a broad, low-density scatter of a few chipped stone tools, chert chipping debris, and several thick, crudely flaked preforms. A dart point of Late Archaic vintage was found, but no distinctive cultural deposits, artifact concentrations, or features were observed. Neither the type of dart point found, nor any substantive assessment information or recommendations were indicated in the atlas.

A 100-percent pedestrian examination of the project area that included shovel probing to monitor thickness of topsoils in heavily vegetated zones was performed. It revealed that the area contained very shallow and stony natural clay or clay loam soils above limestone bedrock or caliche subsoil that supported dense stands of natural vegetation, including primarily live oak and juniper trees, and assorted understory shrubs, vines, and grasses. A mat of leaf litter and other organic mulches covered substantial portions of the surface in the more heavily forested zones, but ground surface visibility was good in the rest of the project area.

It is possible that a chipped stone artifact scatter found near the southern border of the project area during the survey represents part of previously recorded archeological site 41BX751. However, the scatter was surficial, poorly defined and of low density, and it contained no artifact concentrations, archeological features, or deposits. Therefore its association with site 41BX751 was, at best, equivocal, and no formal site re-survey or re-assessment was performed. Since the survey did not discover any cultural resources that were eligible or potentially eligible as archeological sites or landmarks under city, state, or federal antiquities laws that might apply to the project area, the Principal Investigator concluded that future ground disturbances within the project area should not affect any such resources.
Acknowledgements

South Texas Archeological Research Services, LLC, was assisted in coordinating the survey of the project area by two members of the KB Home staff whose help is gratefully acknowledged: Mr. Frank R. Pakuszewski with the Land Acquisition branch, and Mr. Armando Martinez, E.I.T., in Land Planning. The performance of the archeological field crew, which consisted of archeological technicians Albert Uecker and Jay McCracken, was, as always, exemplary.
Introduction

On October 30, 2005, South Texas Archeological Research Services, LLC (STARS), conducted the fieldwork phase of an archeological survey of the Saddle Mountain project area, San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas, for KB Home. The survey was done according to *Archaeological Survey Standards for Texas, Minimum Survey Standards* of the Texas Historical Commission (THC). The project area consisted of approximately 40 acres of land in far northern San Antonio near the southern border of the Balcones Escarpment and Fault Zone (Figure 1).

![Map of project area and approximate route of Evans Road between U. S. Highway 281 North and Stone Oak Parkway as plotted on section of Bulverde, Texas, United States Geological Survey 7.5-minute topographic quadrangle map. Inset shows location of Bexar County within Texas.](image)

At the time of the survey, the project area was relatively unimproved and much of it was covered in native vegetation, including many varieties of indigenous trees, such as live oak, post oak, cedar elm, persimmon, mesquite, huisache, hackberry, and juniper. Most of the project area consisted very rocky, flat to gently rolling uplands. The land along the northern border adjacent to Mud Creek sloped fairly steeply to a deeply incised segment of the creek that extended roughly west to east. A gently curved segment of Evans Road formed the southern boundary of the project area. Mud Creek is a second-order tributary of the San Antonio River. The creek was dry at the time of the survey and limestone bedrock or caliche was exposed within much of its channel and along its margins. Recent droughts had diminished low-level vegetation and increased average ground surface visibility to about 40-50 percent, and bedrock or caliche was exposed at the surface in much of the area.
A search of the THC’s Texas Archeological Sites Atlas (Atlas) conducted just prior to the survey indicated that a portion of previously recorded archeological site 41BX751 apparently was within part of the project area. When found during an archeological survey of the Stone Oak Subdivision in 1987, 41BX751 was classified as a surficial prehistoric camping and lithic quarry site which consisted principally of a broad, low-density scatter of a few chipped stone tools, chert chipping debris, and several thick, crudely flaked preforms. A dart point of Late Archaic vintage was found, but no distinctive cultural deposits, artifact concentrations, or features were observed. Neither the type of dart point found, nor any substantive assessment information or recommendations were indicated in the Atlas.

The STARS survey included a 100-percent pedestrian examination of the surface to the extent feasible based on surface visibility and density of undergrowth, shovel probing within portions of the project area where the surface was obscured by leaf litter and other forest detritus, and reporting. Surface exposures and profiles along the creek channel and margins were given particular attention during the pedestrian examination. The artificial profiles along Evans Road were also examined for the presence of any cultural evidence.

The survey was directed by Principal Investigator Herbert G. Uecker, who was assisted by archeological technicians Albert Uecker and Jay McCracken. This report conforms to the Council of Texas Archeologists reporting guidelines.

**General Background**

*Regional Natural Setting and Natural History*

At the time of the survey, the regional physiographic and geologic setting of the project area had already been described in considerable detail (cf. Abbott and Woodruff 1986; Black 1989a:5-16; Black and McGraw 1985:40-54; Mahula 1976:2-6). Briefly, the project area is located near the southern edge of the Balcones Escarpment and Fault Zone at an average elevation of about 298 meters above sea level. The fault and escarpment region is also known as the Balcones Canyonlands. Intermittent faulting began in the area during the Miocene geologic epoch about 15-21 million years ago and continued until about a million years ago.

The regional geomorphology consists of a series of northeast to southwest trending fault scarps and associated erosional features. The regional drainage pattern is dendritic and major drainages in the area include the Guadalupe River and Cibolo Creek to the north of the project area, and the Medina and San Antonio Rivers to the south of the project area. Many prominent streams, such as Salado, Mud, Elm, and Elm Waterhole Creeks, also dissect the general area.

Base or parent rocks in the canyonlands zone include several members of the Lower Cretaceous series including the Del Rio shale formation and the Buda, Edwards, and Glenrose limestones. These formations collectively range up to as much as 10,000 meters thick over much of central and south Texas. They were formed during the Cretaceous geologic period between about 120 and 65 million years ago. During the last several million years, numerous karst features have formed within the limestone formations, which also house the Edwards aquifer (cf. Veni 1988:11-26; 1998). The aquifer is a regional-scale phenomenon composed of porous beds of limestone and shale sandwiched between less permeable calcareous strata and it is virtually the sole source of potable water for much of central Texas. Soils in the canyonlands region are derivatives of the local bedrock and are typically very thin, stony, and underdeveloped in the uplands.

Ecologically, the area has been a resource-refugium zone since the middle of the Holocene geologic epoch about 7,000 years before present (B.P. [present being arbitrarily defined by culture historians as A.D. 1950]). It was at that juncture in time that the onset of the Altithermal climatic episode (Nance 1972) began to substantially alter the climate of the North American southwest, including Texas. The Altithermal was a period of relatively intense
heating and drying that lasted, with many short breaks, until the present time. As the lush tall-grass steppes and mixed-grass prairies of south and west Texas were reduced to thorn scrublands and semi-arid deserts over several millennia, both animal and human populations congregated in such areas as the Rio Grande basin and the mountain forests of west Texas and northern Mexico, and also in the central Texas Hill Country. South and west of the Hill Country, riparian zones slowly evolved into isolated ribbons of resources, and many unique places along the area’s rivers and streams became centers of human population.

The project area is situated within a broad ecotonal zone that exhibits characteristics of three major natural regions (cf. Blair 1950; Riskind and Diamond 1988): (1) the Balconian Biotic Province, a subtropical, subhumid mixed woodland or parkland that is geographically congruent with much of the Texas Hill Country and is dominated by juniper-oak scrub forests; (2) the Tamaulipan Biotic Province, a subtropical to megathermal desert steppe or thorn scrubland that ranges southward from central Texas into the coastal and Rio Grande plains and well into northern Mexico that is dominated by huisache and mesquite; and (3) the Blackland Prairie, a subtropical, subhumid area characterized by mixed savannah grassland or prairie and by post oak-blackjack oak woodlands that ranges northward and eastward to the Red River area near the Texas-Oklahoma border. The climate of these regions during the last several millennia has been typified by short mild winters and long hot summers. Modern annual precipitation in the area averages about 700-800 mm and follows a bimodal pattern with maxima in May and September. The Balcones tablelands have sometimes been the locus of world record precipitation events triggered by tropical waves of warm moist air from the Gulf of Mexico colliding with colder dryer air of arctic and subarctic origins surging southward from the high plains (Caran and Baker 1986).

In the mid 2000s, there were hundreds or even thousands of species of plants, animals, and insects thriving in central Texas. It is beyond the scope of this report to include a comprehensive listing or description of these species but the interested reader is referred to publications by Davis (1960), Enquist (1987), Everitt and Drew (1993), Kutac and Caran (1994), Neck (1986), Riskind and Diamond (1986), Simpson (1988), and Vines (1984). Major terrestrial faunal species and avifaunal species of the area include the white-tailed deer, javalina, coyote, red fox, opossum, raccoon, ringtailed cat, squirrel, striped skunk, armadillo, wild turkey, bobwhite quail, Inca dove, white-winged dove, box turtle, and western diamondback rattlesnake. Prominent raptors of the region include turkey and black vultures and various species of owls; and red-tailed hawks, eagles, and peregrine falcons. Also, modest numbers of cougar and bobcat are present in the less populated areas.

Prominent plant species and communities of the project area and immediate vicinity are typical of those found throughout much of central Texas. Live oak, mountain laurel, persimmon, and juniper are major tree varieties of the hill country scrub forests. Tree species such as mesquite, huisache, and blackbrush acacia; and many cacti and yuccas including prickly pear, Spanish dagger, and sotol are prevalent in lowland thorn shrub thickets. Stream courses and river bottoms of the region contain a broad spectrum of native deciduous trees including Spanish oak, cedar elm, hackberry, pecan, walnut, cherry, and ash. Whitebrush, giant ragweed, cockle burrs, snow-on-the-prairie, frost plant, and numerous other herbs and forbs cover the forest floors. Dozens of types of short and mid grasses carpet the region’s prairies and savannas.

Regional Culture History and Cultural Ecology

Probably attracted by the abundance of pristine water, the steep ecological gradients, and the rich biotic microenvironments present, humans first occupied the central Texas area at least 11,000 years B.P. The local culture history contains four broad divisions (cf. Black 1989b:23-33, 1989c:48-57; Black and McGraw 1985:35-40; Hester 1980:27-37; Turner and Hester 1999:50-63): the Paleoindian period (ca. 11,000-8000 B.P.), the Archaic period (ca. 8000-1500 B.P.), the Late Prehistoric period (ca. 1500 B. P. to A.D. 1528), and the Historic period (ca. A.D. 1528 to present). During all but the Historic period, humans in the area were engaged in a nomadic to semi-sedentary hunting and foraging lifeway. Archeological evidence indicates that they were organized as small groups or bands.
that traveled much of the time in regular patterns, known as subsistence forays, in order to exploit a variety of seasonably available natural resources. This lifeway was practiced in most of North America for many thousands of years before the fifteenth century infusion of Europeans to the New World.

Such peoples were largely of Asiatic origin, but are variously referred to as aboriginals, native Americans, American Indians, ancient Americans, or early Americans. Apparently many of these pioneers entered North America from eastern Siberia via the Bering Strait sometime prior to about 15,000 B.P., probably during a major episode of global cooling and glaciation when an ice sheet or bridge connected Siberia to Alaska. They eventually spread throughout the Americas, and their cultures flourished and greatly diversified, especially during the last few thousand years. By the early eighteenth century when the Spanish established missions in Texas, several hundred Indian groups, each having a fairly distinct linguistic or socio-political identity, lived in the southwestern United States, Texas, and northern Mexico (cf. Campbell 1979:1, 1988:39; Schuetz 1976:1). The story of these peoples’ prehistoric past encompasses the first three major periods in the culture history of the central Texas area.

The Paleoindian period includes the terminus of the Pleistocene geologic epoch and the beginning of the Holocene. The climate of the period was generally somewhat cooler and more humid than that of later periods. The natural landscape in much of central Texas during this period consisted mostly of forest parkland, i.e., savannah grasslands with numerous clusters of trees. The lush vegetation of the period provided a trophic base which supported many large ice-age herbivores and carnivores. Sea level along the Texas coast is estimated to have been about 120 m lower than at present; thus, a broad seaward expanse of land, which is now inundated, existed during those times. Paleoindians were typically organized as small, nomadic, stone-age, hunting and foraging bands that often pursued such large game as bison, mammoth, and mastodon. The fact that they supplemented their diets with wild plant foods has been documented only occasionally in much of Texas because of the poor preservation of pollen and plant fibers in most local soils. The relatively few Paleoindian sites documented in Texas consist primarily of isolated finds of chipped stone spear points that exhibit highly distinctive styles and workmanship, and rare kill and butchering sites of Pleistocene game animals.

The Archaic period is characterized by a shift to generally dryer and warmer conditions, sometimes referred to as the Altithermal climatic period (Nance 1972). The Altithermal of Texas apparently was punctuated by alternating mesic and xeric episodes that were sometimes of significant duration and magnitude. In spite of these erratic patterns, the landscape gradually evolved into a mosaic of alternately sparse and lush savannah grasslands with isolated stands of trees on the uplands and heavier arboreal growth in the riparian zones. This drying out of the land after the Pleistocene corresponds to broad changes in the lifeways and cultures of native peoples. The archeological record indicates that a substantial degree of diversification in human subsistence patterns occurred. Emphasis shifted from the hunting of large Pleistocene mammals, by then extinct, to a new focus on the hunting of smaller game and on plant food gathering, processing, and consumption. During most of the period the dominant lifeway continued to be nomadic hunting and foraging by small egalitarian bands who exploited scattered seasonal resources. As evinced principally by the appearance in the archeological record of large communal or clan cemeteries toward the end of the period, population growth resulted in land and other resource scarcities, prehistoric peoples began to form into large groups, and territorialism, sociopolitical complexity, and semi-permanent or permanent settlements formed.

The predominant type of central and south Texas archeological site of the period is the occupational refuse pile, or midden. Such midden sites are frequently large, open, seasonally occupied base camps located along rivers and streams. They were central places used for the accumulation, processing, cooking, and consumption of foods, and presumably for habitation as well. They were also occasionally used for burying the dead (Hester 1985). Burned rock middens are the most common type present at interior sites. At such sites, foods were often cooked in earthen pits lined with rock slabs or boiled in hide pouches filled with water, food, and hot stones. The rocks had to be routinely replaced as they disintegrated from continual exposure to the intense heat. This resulted in the gradual accumulation of large heaps of thermally fractured and discolored rocks mixed with food scaps, discarded tools,
and tool manufacturing debris. Diagnostic projectile points, radiocarbon dates, and other archeological data from burned-rock-midden sites indicate that many of them were occupied intermittently for several hundreds or even thousands of years by peoples who normally wandered about in small bands, but who gathered into much larger bands for special seasonal activities and ceremonies. Additional information about burned-rock-midden sites is provided in the section on interpretation of research findings of this report. Other types of sites that are associated with the Archaic period include smaller, shorter-term occupancy or use sites such as upland hunting-butchering camps, quarry-workshop sites for the procurement of raw stone for the manufacturing of chipped stone tools, cavern or rockshelter habitation sites, isolated hearths and stone chipping scatters, burial and cemetery sites, and isolated finds or caches of projectile points or other tools.

During the Late Prehistoric period, plant domestication and other agricultural practices were gradually adopted. Due to the poor preservation of plant remains in prehistoric archeological deposits of central and south Texas, the extent to which these new subsistence activities were used is not known. The bow and arrow and ceramic technology were introduced from neighboring regions. Permanent settlements arose and trade networks for the routine exchange of goods with neighboring regions were greatly expanded. Sociopolitical relationships were elaborated and the concepts of local group identity and cohesion were undoubtedly strengthened.

The impact of these changes on the lifeways of the native peoples living in central and south Texas during the period is just beginning to be known. Apparently with few exceptions, the Archaic lifeways practiced in south and south-central Texas continued largely unmodified into the Late Prehistoric period. The modifications in the technological and cultural inventory that occurred there during the Late Prehistoric period and that manifest archeologically include the production and widespread distribution of smaller, lighter stone tips for arrows and the routine production and use of ceramics. The subsurface remains of prehistoric houses or village sites, and the attendant traces of nearby activity areas, fortification features, agricultural plots, and irrigation systems from the period are present in Texas, but are confined mostly to the northern, eastern, and western margins of the state. Ethnographic accounts from European explorers who ventured into the south Texas or Texas coastal areas during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries also mention the existence of villages of crude structures, but at this writing there was little known archeological evidence for the existence of such structures (cf. Johnson 1997).

Many of the indigenous Texas Indian groups, including such long term residents of the central Texas region as the Coahuiltecs and Tonkawas, continued to engage primarily in nomadic hunting and foraging well into historic times. This was the case in spite of the fact that some of their Late Prehistoric ancestors had begun the routine practice of horticulture or agriculture, and had apparently settled in permanent or nearly permanent villages by about A.D. 500. Archeological evidence has recently emerged that indicates that small permanent or semi-permanent villages were probably present in what is now central Texas as early as the Middle Archaic period (Johnson 1997). Shortly after the accidental introduction of horses into American Indian culture in the sixteenth century by the Spanish, bison-hunting became the way of life for many tribes on the Great Plains, where nomadism also continued. The Apaches and Comanches are the main southern plains tribes that invaded the central Texas area from the west and north during the 1600s and 1700s, displacing, absorbing, or exterminating many of the original inhabitants of the area (cf. Hester 1980; Newcomb 1961; Sjoberg 1953). They also frequently raided European-American settlements in or near the Texas Hill Country. During the eighteenth century, most of the surviving indigenous groups apparently fled to outlying regions or sought protection from invaders in the Spanish missions.

The Historic period in Texas began in the early sixteenth century (ca. 1528-1536). The first Spaniard, if not the first European, to set foot on Texas soil was probably Álvá Núñez Cabeza de Vaca. He was sailing the Caribbean with an exploratory Spanish expedition and was shipwrecked off the Florida coast in 1528. For about the next eight years, he allegedly wandered along the gulf coast, well into Texas, and finally arrived in Mexico in 1536. By that time, the Spanish had conquered and dominated many of the aboriginal cultures that occupied Mexico, Central America, and a sizeable portion of South America, and thus established a foothold of European-style civilization in those areas. During the period from roughly the second decade of the sixteenth century to the terminal
seventeenth century, the Spanish colonized all of what is now Mexico to the Rio Grande. In 1691, an expedition of Spaniards from Mexico penetrated Texas to San Pedro Springs, now located in the northern portion of San Antonio's central business district. In an often-quoted report to the viceroy, explorer Domingo Terín de los Ríos related:

We marched five leagues over a fine country with broad plains—the most beautiful in New Spain. We camped on the banks of an arroyo, adorned by a great number of trees, cedars, willows, cypress, osiers, oaks and many other kinds. This I called San Antonio de Padua, because we reached it on his day [Terín de los Ríos 1691 as quoted in Crook 1967:1-2].

Fray Damian Massanet, also with the 1691 Spanish expedition, is cited by Crook as attesting that they encountered a very large tribe of Payaya Indians at that same location.

Several more preliminary expeditions into Texas were conducted by the Spanish during the next few decades. The landing of the Frenchman René Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, on Matagorda Island in 1684 and the subsequent activities of the French in Texas appear to have consolidated the resolve of the Spanish to colonize the region north of the Rio Grande. Some Spanish families had permanently settled in the vicinity of San Antonio by 1715 (Chabot 1936:8), and by 1718 the Spanish officially established the first settlement north of the Rio Grande near San Pedro Park. Called San Antonio de Padua, it consisted of a mission and a presidio based on agriculture employing Indian labor and irrigation. This subsistence base was used by the Spanish for virtually the entire time that they controlled the area.

The Spanish soon expanded their colony southward along San Pedro Creek and the San Antonio River, and by 1726, citizens of the crown numbered about 200 in the San Antonio area. In 1731, a party of about 52 additional settlers arrived from the Canary Islands and joined the fledgling colony. The Bexar County missions south of the present Alamo were imported during the mid-eighteenth century from what were originally satellite locations in east Texas, and the relocation constituted a final impetus for Spanish settlement in the vicinity. The missions continued active throughout much of the remainder of the eighteenth century. With the beginning of secularization of the missions in the early 1790s came the granting of what had previously been the mission-controlled lands in Texas to Spanish citizens. By the end of the mission era, the indigenous Indians who were, presumably, descendants of the first human inhabitants of south and central Texas, had been virtually eradicated. Many of those who took refuge in the missions died of European-introduced diseases, and the hunting-gathering lifeways of the remnant populations radically disrupted by mission life and the trials of acculturation. For many decades after the missions waned, the culture history of much of Texas continued to be dominated by their influences. Throughout the periods of Mexican and Texan independence, the U.S.-Mexican War, and until just prior to the Civil War, the subsistence base of the region was largely agricultural and local population growth was fairly benign. There were very few changes in land usage in the area throughout the reigns of several major imperial powers over almost a century and a half until the railroad and the Industrial Revolution came to the region (Fehrenbach 1978:114-117).

Due principally to the infusion of German culture into Texas, substantial changes in local land usage began to occur during the second quarter of the nineteenth century, and their affects lasted through virtually the remainder of the century. It is clear from the history of immigration in Texas that there were simultaneous appearances of significant numbers of several other ethnic groups, mostly of northern European origins, but German immigrants were remarkably talented and unusually tenacious settlers, organizers, builders, and commercializers in the Central Texas area. The Germans came early, quickly planted deep roots, and spurred much later development. As early as the 1830s, a few Germans had already migrated to Texas (Lich 1986:6). Substantial German colonization in Texas began in about 1845 with Prince Carl of Solms-Braunfels's founding of New Braunfels (Bieseke 1930:119). During the next decade, the German settlements of Fredericksburg and Boerne developed in the Hill Country north of San Antonio. Contemporaneously, the Germanic population of San Antonio was on the increase and by 1876, according to the town assessor, totaled 5,630 Germans and Alsatians (Fehrenbach 1978:117).
Germans settled principally along the Balcones Escarpment in central Texas. The German-American settlement nearest the project area is Bulverde, which today is just north of the area in southwest Comal County. Bulverde initially developed during the mid-nineteenth century. Although it was named after an early settler of Italian heritage, Luciano Bulverde, it quickly attracted several German-American families who eventually occupied lands extending eastward nearly to the town of New Braunfels from present-day Leon Springs Military Reservation and along U. S. Highway 281 North from about Overlook Parkway northward to Highway 46.

The Balcones Escarpment is the most prominent landform in the Central Texas region and has served as a transitional zone between broadly different lifeways throughout most of the Historic period: “Since earliest European settlement, the Balcones Escarpment stood as a cultural frontier, a dividing line between the farming economy of the coastal plain and the ranching economy of the Texas Hill Country. The Escarpment has greatly influenced the cultural development in the land which it transects [Palmer 1986:153].” Since about the beginning of the nineteenth century, and especially prior to the Civil War, the Escarpment has been the physical and cultural boundary between the Old South and the Old West. Before the coming of the Industrial Revolution to the area during the late-nineteenth century, the economy of the Old South was based primarily on the growing of cotton, while that of the Old West was based mainly on livestock production (Abbott and Woodruff 1986:Preface). Many German-American settlers were attracted to the escarpment region because of its general physiological similarities to certain portions of Germany, such as Bavaria.

Local Culture Historical Context

The scope of work for the survey did not include archival and historical background research, but a brief examination of pertinent reference materials in the STARS library and in the Handbook of Texas Online (Texas State Historical Association 2005) yielded some preliminary information about the history of Evans Road and surrounding areas. At this writing, Evans Road spanned the interval from Farm-to-Market Road 1518 westward to Stone Oak Parkway, and much of the road east of its intersection with Nacogdoches Road extended along the southern margin of Cibolo Creek, a major tributary of the San Antonio River. The following information about Evans Road was discovered in Green (2002:16): Evans Road is named for Robert B. Evans (1821-1905), who arrived in San Antonio from his native Tennessee in about 1847. When gold was discovered in California in 1849, Evans headed for that state via ocean voyages and passage through the Isthmus of Panama. He obtained enough gold to return to Texas and purchase 160 acres of land near the present-day intersection of Nacogdoches and Evans Roads, where he built a stone dwelling in 1882.

The small community of Bracken, Texas, developed in southern Comal County just to the north of Evans’ homestead. According to the Handbook of Texas Online:

...Bracken, on the International-Great Northern Railroad 13½ miles southwest of New Braunfels in southern Comal County, was named for William Bracken, who acquired land in the area in 1849. The townsite on the new railroad was named Davenport for James G. Davenport, who settled there in 1868. With the growth of the community and the building of a gin and stores, residents applied for a post office. The name was changed from Davenport to Bracken in 1883 because a Davenport post office had already been established in the state. In 1940 the post office had been discontinued, and the population was reported as fifty. After World War II the Davenport school was consolidated with the schools of Solms and Danville to form Comal Elementary School. The population of Bracken stabilized around seventy-five in the 1970s. In 1990 it was still seventy-five [Texas State Historical Association 2005].

The major north-to-south trending crossroad of Evans Road in the vicinity of the project area was Bulverde Road, which for many decades served as the main route into the Texas Hill Country from northeastern San Antonio. The road leads to the community of Bulverde, which developed within the Cibolo Creek corridor along an early
route from New Braunfels to Fredericksburg. During the last half of the nineteenth century, Bulverde slowly coalesced by aggregation of several German-Texan family settlements that were originally widely dispersed across northern Bexar and western Comal Counties. It was known initially as Pieper's Waterhole or Pieper's Settlement, and was named after the German-Texan carpenter and freighter August Pieper (1824-1914). In 1845, Pieper came from Klein Bergwedel, Hanover, Germany, to found New Braunfels, Texas, with Prince Carl of Sohms Braunfels. He later ran a mule train between New Braunfels and Fredericksburg (Anderson-Lindemann 1998:193-195).

The culture history of the Cibolo Creek corridor is lengthy and colorful and the entire drainage system can be characterized as a unique historic landscape. The scope of work for the archeological survey of the project area did not justify inclusion of the details of that history in this report. Briefly, the Cibolo Creek corridor is about 125 miles long and passes through six Texas counties: Bexar, Comal, Guadalupe, Karnes, Kendall, and Wilson. It forms the Bexar-Comal County line and the Bexar-Guadalupe County line. At the Cibolo Creek archaeological site near Sutherland Springs in Wilson County, literally hundreds of chipped stone projectile points, commonly called "arrowheads", scrapers, and other stone tools of the earliest prehistoric peoples of the Americas have recently been discovered in a sand mining pit. The full extent of the huge site has not yet been determined, but its artifacts have already been found scattered over a least 200 acres.

Another very ancient site along the corridor was discovered during the late 1960s in a sinkhole on the Hitzfelder Ranch in Comal County. Although the exact age of the site is not known, chipped stone tools and the burials of prehistoric peoples were found there associated with the skeletal remains of ice-age beasts. Other ancient sites along the corridor have been found near the Bat Cave and at the mouth of Natural Bridge Caverns in Comal County. At Natural Bridge Caverns, during occupations spanning several thousand years, prehistoric Indians repeatedly lined basin-shaped earthen pit ovens with slabs of limestone that were used as heating elements to cook meat and plant foods. As the slabs broke apart from frequent heating and cooling, they were tossed aside and replaced with fresh slabs, forming a type of site known to archaeologists as a "burned rock midden." Literally thousands of such sites have been found along the rivers and major streams of central Texas, and they are especially numerous along the upper Cibolo.

Cibolo Creek was called "Xoloton" by the Coahuiltecan Indian groups of south Texas and northern Mexico and "Bata Coniquiyqui" by the central Texas Tonkawan Indians of the early historic era. Apparently the meaning of these names has been lost. By 1721, it was known to the Spanish as "Arroyo del Cibolo" or "Rio Cibolo," which mean Buffalo Draw and Buffalo River, respectively. This name apparently originated after the Spanish observed Indians driving buffalo over the steep bluffs lining the upper reaches of the creek.

A historical marker near the Church at Czestochowa, the second oldest Polish colony in Karnes County, is inscribed:

Near this site (about 2.5 miles north on Cibolo Creek) stood the 18th-century Spanish fort of El Fuerte de Santa Cruz del Cibolo, usually called El Fuerte del Cibolo or El Cibolo. Built to protect the many Spanish ranches between San Antonio and La Bahia (now Goliad), the fort was occupied first from 1734 to 1737, and again from 1771 to 1782. The land between the San Antonio River and Cibolo Creek, called 'El Rincon', was part of an area deeded by the King of Spain to missions and many private individuals. The site of El Fuerte del Cibolo was part of a private ranch called El Rancho de San Bartolo which belonged to Andres Hernandez. In 1772 the Spanish government formally authorized the establishment of fifteen presidios (forts) from California to Texas. El Fuerte del Cibolo, which had been reactivated in 1771, came under that authorization and remained an active fort until 1782. Twenty soldiers were stationed at El Fuerte del Cibolo on July 4, 1776. Some of them helped move cattle and horses from this area to the Gulf Coast, where Spanish forces under Gen. Bernardo de Galvez defeated the British during the American Revolution, thereby contributing to the winning of American independence.
In spite of the early presence of the Spanish, substantial settlement did not occur along the Cibolo Creek corridor until the influx of German Americans to the area during the 1840s and 1850s. In 1849, a small group of German colonists established one of the first communities along the upper reaches of Cibolo Creek, in what later became Kendall County. They named it Tusculum, after Cicero's home in ancient Rome. By 1852, the name had been changed to Boerne, in honor of Ludwig Boerne, a German poet and publicist. Several other communities were founded along Cibolo Creek by German immigrants during this period including Schertz and Bulverde.

Also in 1849, Dr. John Sutherland founded the community of Sutherland Springs along Cibolo Creek in Wilson County. By about 1910, the town had become world famous for its hot mineral springs, which were improved with bath houses and a fifty-two-room hotel. Visitors came there from as far away as Canada and even England (cf. Floresville Chronicle-Journal 1989; Wilson County News 1995). Sutherland was part of the original force at the Alamo in 1836, but escaped the annihilation suffered by his comrades when he was ordered by Texian commander William B. Travis to seek reinforcements from remote locations. He returned to San Antonio in time to see smoke rising from the funeral pyres of the Texian Alamo defenders and was taken prisoner by Santa Anna, but was later released.

Soils

According to the Soil Survey of Bexar County, Texas, surface soils within the project area consisted of those of the Tarrant association:

Tarrant association, hilly (15 to 30 percent slopes) (TaD). - For the most part, this association occurs as ridgetops and hilly to steep slopes in the northern third of the county. In some small areas outcrops of hard lime stone form steep escarpments, and there are also draws and deep canyons. Included in the areas mapped are small tracts of Tarrant association, rolling, of Brackett soils, 12 to 30 percent slopes, and of Krum complex.

This association consists mostly of Tarrant soils. Outcrops of bedrock make up about 15 to 20 percent of the association [Taylor 1966: 31, Sheet 16].

Soils and bedrock encountered by the STARS survey team at the surface and in shovel probes within the project area closely matched the description above for Tarrant soils.

Investigation Methods and Results

The density of undergrowth in some portions of the project area and the shallowness of topsoil throughout the project area, which was typically only a few inches thick in areas where bedrock or basal caliche was not exposed at the surface, effectively precluded shovel testing or backhoe trenching (Figure 2). Therefore a 100-percent pedestrian examination was performed where feasible based on surface visibility and access conditions. Pedestrian transects averaged about 20 meters apart and particular attention was given all exposed surfaces, especially those along the route of Mud Creek on the northern border as well as artificial profiles along Evans Road.

At least two dozen shovel probes were excavated throughout portions of the project area where bedrock or basal caliche was not exposed at the surface. Since the primary purpose of the shovel probes was to determine thickness of natural topsoil deposits rather than to search for cultural evidence, the shovel probes were not mapped or recorded, and screening was not done during their excavation. The probes revealed that the thickness of soil above limestone bedrock or basal caliche typically did not exceed about 10-15 centimeters. All topsoils encountered were dark gray-brown to dark reddish-brown clays or clay loams (about 10YR3/1 to 10YR3/3 Munsell colors). No alluvium was encountered within the project area that would ordinarily need to be investigated by excavation of archeological shovel tests or backhoe trenches per the THC's minimum survey standards.
Figure 2. South profile of section of machine cut along Evans Road at southern border of project area showing exposure of Eagle Ford Limestone (cf. Barnes 1983). Note absence of appreciable soil near top of profile, edge of concrete sidewalk in foreground near bottom, and scrub juniper thicket in background. Stick scale against cut face is one meter tall.

A few natural chert cobbles and a few waste pieces of culturally altered chert from the testing of source materials and/or the manufacturing of chipped stone tools were found at the surface widely scattered near the central southern border of the project area. None of the culturally altered pieces found were temporally diagnostic or otherwise archaeologically remarkable. Based on the general context of those items, it was presumed that they were of prehistoric origins. All were chipped from pieces of tan or rootbeer-colored chert apparently of local derivation. No discernable concentrations of these pieces worthy of classification as archaeological sites were found and no sites were identified or recorded. None of the artifacts seen were collected or mapped. With the exception of those artifacts, and some scattered modern trash at the surface, nothing of cultural origins was discovered.

Interpretations and Conclusions

It is possible that the chipped stone artifact scatter found during the survey represents part of previously recorded archaeological site 41BX751, but the scatter was surficial, poorly defined and of low density, and it contained no artifact concentrations, archeological features, or deposits. Therefore its association with site 41BX751 was, at best, equivocal, and no formal site re-survey or re-assessment was performed by STARS. Since the survey did not discover any cultural resources that were eligible or potentially eligible as archaeological sites or landmarks under city, state, or federal antiquities laws that might apply to the project area, the Principal Investigator concluded that future ground disturbances within the project area should not affect any such resources.
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