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***Con Un Pie En Cada Lado: Ethnicities and the Archaeology of
Spanish Colonial Ranching Communities
Along the Lower Río Grande Valley***

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***Con Un Pie En Cada Lado: Ethnicities and the Archaeology of
Spanish Colonial Ranching Communities
Along the Lower Río Grande Valley***

by

Mary Jo Galindo, B.A., M.A.

Dissertation

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my parents, Roland G. and Alice H. Galindo,
and to the memory of my grandparents,
Pedro Hernández Barrera and María Látigo de Hernández

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In Mier, several people deserve credit for facilitating my project, including Arq. Gil Javier Guerra Sandoval, his grandmother Doña María Berta Hinojosa de Guerra, and their families, who are the landowners of Rancho El Saladito; Profa. María Lourdes de Balderas M., Secretaria Municipal; Lic. Antonio Guerra Sandoval (local historian and writer), and Sr. Ruben García Barrera (local historian and writer). All provided encouragement and invaluable assistance that enhanced the results of this project. Many others provided friendship and guidance during my three-month's stay in Mier, including Felipe Lozano, Angel, Mari and Rogelio, Blas, Rael, and Chuma. In Roma Arq. Carlo Rugerio, who I first met in 1998, guided me to people and resources that proved to be essential to my research. In Ciudad Miguel Aleman, I thank Gustavo Guerra B. and his son Gustavo Guerra who introduced me to Mae and Boli in Mier.

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While acknowledging the credit due my peers and supervisors, I accept full responsibility for any error of fact or interpretation.

***Con Un Pie En Cada Lado: Ethnicities and the Archaeology of
Spanish Colonial Ranching Communities
Along the Lower Río Grande Valley***

Publication No. _____

Mary Jo Galindo, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2003

Supervisor: Fred Valdez, Jr.

Before the Río Grande valley became a contested border between the United States and Mexico, and between predominantly Latino and Anglo-American societies, it was the northern frontier of Spanish Nuevo Santander and a border between Spanish Mexico and indigenous societies to the north. The *pobladores*, or colonists, who moved into the region from mining communities to the south in the 1730s, and their descendants to the present day, had to adapt constantly to the changing political, economic, and social environment, as people in borderlands always do.

This dissertation involves archaeological excavations and historical analyses of ranches and towns associated with this border in order to understand the nature and articulation of the ranch and town settlements, the types of

household production and livestock raising that sustained them, their trade relationships as reflected in their material culture, and the complex issues of ethnic identity construction along a contested border through time. Although my primary goal is to shed new light on a process of colonization and adaptation to a border context that went on a century before the more-studied Anglo-American colonization of the region, this is also a personal journey, because I am a descendant of these early pobladores and my family's roots are in this border region.

Between 1748 and 1755, the civilian colonists of Nuevo Santander established 23 communities, including 6 along the banks of the Río Grande. These pobladores received *porciones*, or land grants, in 1767 on which to establish livestock ranches. The *porciones* were on both banks of the Río Grande, because Nuevo Santander's northern boundary was the Nueces River. The pobladores and their descendents literally lived *con un pie en cada lado*, with a foot on each side of river. Ethnohistoric information documents the early settler practice of living and growing crops on the south bank, while conducting ranching activities on the north bank of the Río Grande (Casteñeda 1976). Thus, these ranches were among the first of their kind in present-day Texas, representing a unique form of civilian colonization based on the relocation of entire families, and without major emphasis on missions and presidios.

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Chapter 1

Historical and Archaeological Context of Borderlands Project Area

Introduction

Before the Río Grande valley became a contested border between the United States and Mexico, and between predominantly Latino and Anglo-American societies, it was the northern frontier of Spanish Nuevo Santander and a border between Spanish Mexico and indigenous societies to the north. The *pobladores*, or colonists, who moved into the region from mining communities to the south in the 1730s, and their descendants to the present day, had to adapt constantly to the changing political, economic, and social environment, as people in borderlands always do.

This dissertation involves archaeological excavations and historical analyses of ranches and towns associated with this border in order to understand the nature and articulation of the ranch and town settlements, the types of household production and livestock raising that sustained them, their trade relationships as reflected in their material culture, and the complex issues of ethnic identity construction along a contested border through time. Although my primary goal is to shed new light on a process of colonization and adaptation to a border context that went on a century before the more-studied Anglo-American colonization of the region, this is also a personal journey, because I am a descendant of these early pobladores and my family's roots are in this border region.

Cattle ranching in South Texas matured into an industry during the last decades of the nineteenth century, but the origins of livestock raising date to the eighteenth century Spanish colonization efforts at Mission Espíritu Santo (Walter 1997, 1999, 2000), the missions and ranches at San Antonio (Scurlock et al. 1976, Ivey and Fox 1981, Ivey 1983, Jones and Fox 1983, Taylor and Fox 1985, Fox and Houk 1998),

and the ranching communities of Nuevo Santander (Alonzo 1998, Bonine 2001, Chipman 1992, Fleming 1998, Fleming and Pertulla 1999, George 1975, Jackson 1986, Jones 1979, Montejano 1987, Perttula, et. al., 1999). Between 1748 and 1755, the civilian colonists of Nuevo Santander established 23 communities, including six along the banks of the Río Grande. These pobladores received *porciones*, or land grants, in 1767 on which to establish livestock ranches. The *porciones* were on both banks of the Río Grande, because Nuevo Santander's northern boundary was the Nueces River. The pobladores and their descendents literally lived *con un pie en cada lado*, with a foot on each side of river. Ethnohistoric information documents the early settler practice of living and growing crops on the south bank, while conducting ranching activities on the north bank of the Río Grande (Casteñeda 1976(3):164). Thus, these ranches were among the first of their kind in Texas, representing a unique form of civilian colonization based on the relocation of entire families, and without major emphasis on missions and presidios.

Until recent decades (Alonzo 1998, Bonine 2001, Chipman 1992, Fleming 1998, Fleming and Pertulla 1999, George 1975, Jackson 1986, Jones 1979, Montejano 1987, Perttula, et. al., 1999), Texas historians and scholars have either ignored (Bolton 1921, Tjarks 1997, Yoakum 1935) or minimized (Bannon 1970, Bolton 1970) the contributions of these Spanish colonial ranching families. The lack of rigorous scholarly attention to these contributions has compelled local historians and avocational genealogists to fill the void (Gonzalez 1998, Graham 1994, Hinojosa 1992, Myers 1969). Although Spanish and later Mexican bureaucracies created a wealth of information about these early colonists, they also leave many questions about their daily lives unanswered. Archaeology is well-suited to recover the material culture that can

illuminate the colonists' daily practices and provide the context needed to interpret these activities. By incorporating evidence from material culture, archival documents, oral histories, and genealogical data, archaeology can access ethnic identity construction along the border and examine how they were manipulated and evolved through time.

Organization

The dissertation is organized into eight chapters, which address seven major aspects of the project. Chapter 1 provides context for the dissertation project by summarizing the historical and archaeological backgrounds that are pertinent to the area of study. The historical and archaeological information contained in the author's master's report (Galindo 1999) provide the foundation for this chapter, however, a greater emphasis has been placed on recent archaeological projects involving rancho settlement in the region for comparative purposes (e.g., Pertulla, et al. 1999, Fleming and Pertulla 1999, Bonine 2001).

Chapter 2 is a summary of the indigenous heritage of the Lower Río Grande Valley that illustrates the various populations and their cultural traits as recorded by the Spaniards. The natural resources of the Río Grande provided sustenance for hunting and gathering groups for thousands of years. The mid-eighteenth century colonists encountered indigenous groups and others that had been displaced from Nuevo Leon and elsewhere. The labor of Indians undoubtedly helped to build Mier and the other colonial towns along the Río Grande, but the specifics of their contribution remain a mystery. Adoption of Indian children by colonists is an example of the interaction or the collision between the two cultures. The scant evidence of this practice suggests that such children were not treated the same as their natural-born siblings where marriage and property were concerned.

A majority of the families who settled Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico, were from Cerralvo in neighboring Nuevo Leon. Chapter 3 examines the continuities and variations between settlement in Mier and Cerralvo, including the ethnicities of the population, while comparing the distinct geography, natural resources, and economies. It analyzes how the pobladores' processes of adapting to the ranchos along the Lower Río Grande were guided by their previous experiences. Cattle and a distinct herding method are traced through Cerralvo to Mier, establishing the invaluable contributions made by Nuevo Santander colonists to the nineteenth-century Anglo cattle industry.

Chapter 4 traces the evolution of Charles E. Orser, Jr. and Brian M. Fagan's (1994) definition of historical archaeology that advocates a multi-disciplinary approach, with the focus on the daily lives of the ordinary people who have traditionally been ignored by academicians. This chapter incorporates the elements of Orser and Fagan's definition into the archaeology of South Texas and northeastern México by exploring the ethnic identities of the colonists. In the process, I challenge some of the historicized myths associated with the region, including those concerning settlement patterns and the myth of racial purity.

Chapter 5 summarizes the various archaeological concepts of households and household production with the goal of better understanding the morphology and functions of Spanish colonial rancho settlements. Within this framework, three early nineteenth-century ranchos, which appear in several sets of census data for Mier, are reconstructed with the help of genealogical records and analyzed in terms of household organization and production.

Chapter 6 provides an ethnohistorical summary of the eighteenth- and nineteenth-century rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, the likely precursor of modern El Rancho

Saladito. Geographical and genealogical data are combined with ethnographic interviews to complement the archaeological data and guide the interpretation of it.

Chapter 7 contains the excavation summary for each suboperation, the artifact analysis, and an interpretation of the material record. Contrary to traditional conceptions about the isolation of the frontier, the archaeological record reveals the wide-reaching trade relationships that sustained the Nuevo Santander colonists. The summary and conclusions form Chapter 8.

Historical Background

This dissertation is built upon a foundation of ethnohistorical and genealogical research, which in part was the author's Master's report (Galindo 1999). To add information and perspective to the scant data about Mier that I found written in English, I relied on Spanish-language historical and archival sources, local histories, and genealogical publications by some of the area families.

Mier was established in 1753 at the confluence of the Río Grande and the Río Alamo by Capt. José Florencio Chapa and 38 families from Cerralvo, Nuevo Leon, who joined 19 families that were already living on ranches in the area (Graham 1994:19, Sánchez 1994:28). The settlement was part of José de Escandón's colonization plan for the Province of Nuevo Santander (Alonzo 1998: 30). Escandón, Conde de Sierra Gorda, received in 1746 a viceregal commission to conquer and settle the area which lay east of the Sierra Madre Oriental and stretched from the Panuco River in Mexico to La Bahía del Espíritu Santo on the present-day Texas Gulf Coast (Myers 1969:15).

The Spanish crown was motivated to colonize this area in part by the French attempt at settlement at Matagorda Bay and their continued presence in Louisiana (George 1975:7). Another factor was the Native American population of the region who

posed a serious threat to established settlements in Nuevo Leon and Coahuila and would become increasingly attracted to the large herds of cattle and horses that roamed unattended in the Spanish style of ranching (Myers 1969:18, George 1975:7, 27). Finally, the possibility of precious ores in the Tamaulipi Mountains and the availability of salt along aboriginal trails also made this area attractive for colonization (George 1975:7).

Between 1748 and 1755 Escandón, along with about 3,000 colonists and 146 soldiers, established 23 communities. The settlers did not receive individual land grants until 1767; however, most received a ten-year tax exemption, seed, supplies, and money. This was not the case in Mier, which was founded at no cost to the crown, although the pobladores did receive grants of land.

One of six communities along the Lower Río Grande Valley (Figure 1), Mier grew out of the ranch headquarters of José Felix de Almondoz that was formed in 1734 by 166 people in 19 families (Casteñada 1976:171, Graham 1994:19). It was originally called El Paso del Cántaro and located eight leagues northwest of Camargo. When Camargo was established in 1749 these 19 families were forced to enroll as settlers of that community or be driven off their land (Casteñada 1976:171). These same families would form the core of the population of Mier on March 6, 1753, when the town was renamed and organized as part of Nuevo Santander. Mier was the site of the easiest ford of the Río Grande and also had high-quality limestone beds for construction material (Scott 1937:81). It was primarily a ranching community, but also enjoyed good commerce with Nuevo Leon, where many settlers had their origins and maintained connections (Scott 1937:81).

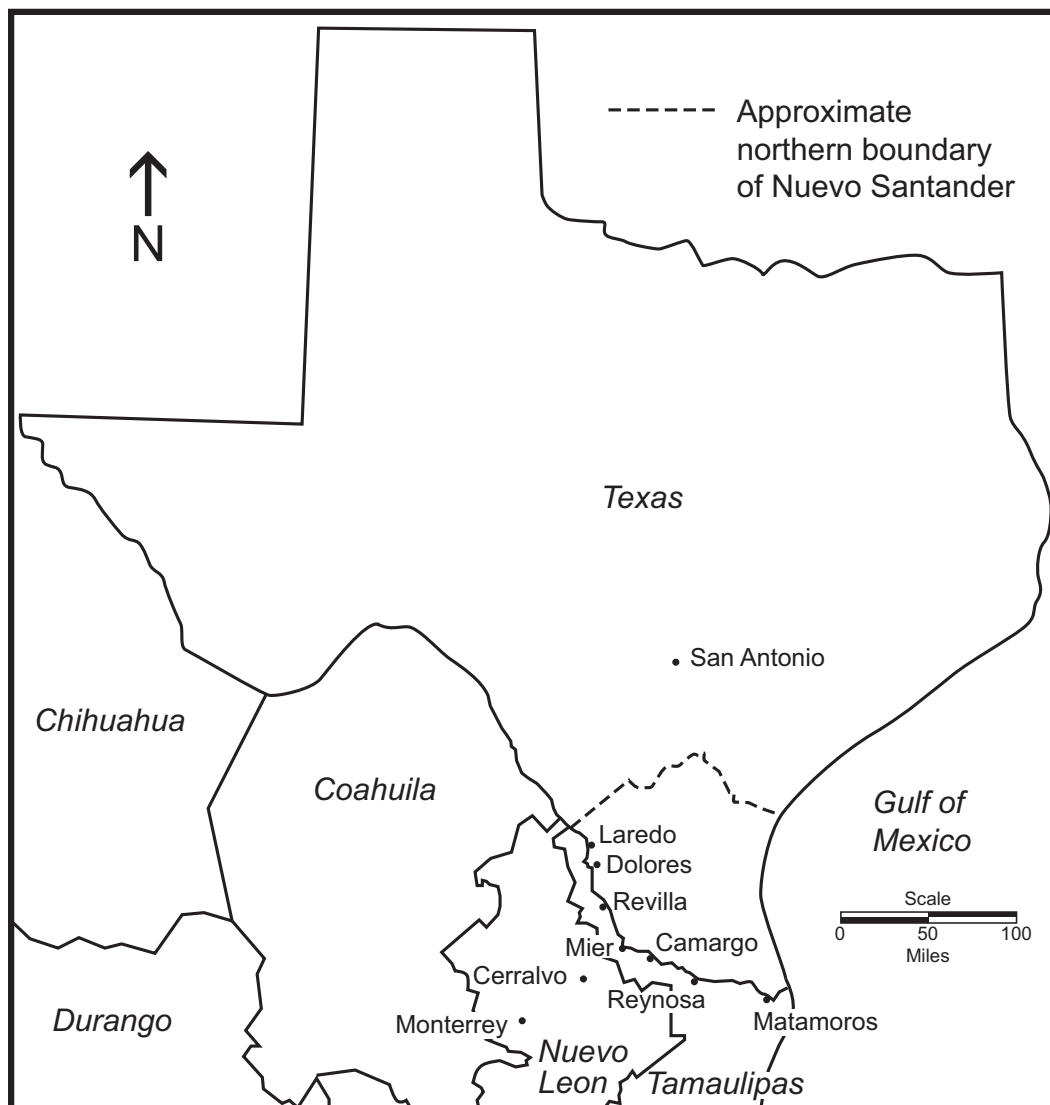


Figure 1: Map of the Lower Rio Grande Valley rancho communities (Laredo, Dolores, Revilla, Mier, Camargo and Reynosa) founded between 1748 and 1755 as part of Nuevo Santander.

Porciones, or Land Grants

Porciones, or land grants, were awarded to settlers in *Nuevo Santander* in rectangular strips along the Río Grande and other tributaries. In Mier there was a 14-year delay between the establishment of the town and the granting of land. *Porciones* included between 1/2 and 9/13 of a mile in river frontage to ensure water access for

livestock or irrigation and were 11 to 14 miles deep, usually encompassing 4,200 to 6,200 acres (Sánchez 1994:33, Alonzo 1998:40). The amount of land colonists received depended on their previous service to the crown in a military or civilian capacity, and the number of years that they had lived in the community (Myers 1969:21). The allotments were also sized according to the climate and the use to which the land would be put. If the land had limited access to water, rendering it unsuitable for agriculture, and would instead be used for pasturing livestock, then the colonists received a larger grant (Myers 1969:21). Land suitable for irrigation and farming was divided into smaller units.

There were three types of the larger, stock-raising grants, each called a *sitio*, or location. *Sitio de ganado mayor* was for raising large animals, such as horses, cows, burros, and mules, and usually contained about 4,336 acres (Myers 1969:21). *Sitio de ganado menor* was for raising sheep and goats, and usually contained about 1,920 acres (Myers 1969:21). *Sitio de criadero de ganado*, or cattle breeding ranch, contained about 1,084 acres (Myers 1969:21).

The settlers were obligated to take possession of the land, to begin raising stock, and to defend their property from Native American encroachment. The families were required by Escandón to live in town while men or laborers commuted back and forth to the ranch, although colonists actually adopted several settlement strategies (Graham 1994:22).

In Mier 80 porciones were designated when the land was surveyed in 1767 (Scott 1937:81). Land for a mission was also set aside at this time. Mier's land grants were located in what today are the municipalities of Mier and Ciudad Miguel Aleman in northern Tamaulipas, and the southern part of Starr County in Texas, including the town of Roma. The map of the porciones (Figure 2) is based on several sources—primarily

an unprovenanced and undated copy of a map on file with the Texas General Land Office. I projected boundary lines that had faded on the original map and extended the numbering where I could with confidence. I was able to assign neither porción 9 nor 30 through 32 to a place on the map. Additionally, there are large areas of the map without numbers. I also used information from a 1958 map of Mier that illustrates porciones 33 through 54 and provides data about the porciones awarded for the mission. Information about the 24 porciones located north of the Río Grande (55 through 78) comes from Starr County maps dating from 1930 and 1974.

Summary of Marriage and Inheritance Patterns Among Mier's Pobladores

The marriage and inheritance patterns offer clues to the motivations and strategies employed by the early settlers. Fifty-five percent of the 94 marriages studied involve a spouse from another landowning family (Galindo 1999). In 37.5 percent of the families the *porciones* involved are adjacent to each other. A pattern of multiple siblings in one family marrying into the same other family is evident in 17 of the 94 (or 18 percent) unions examined. Multiple-sibling marriages occur in 12 of the 32 families studied (or 37.5 percent).

Oral history indicates that such intermarrying practices were necessary among a limited population on the frontier (Alice H. Galindo personal communication 1997). It also suggests that these marriage practices persisted beyond the frontier to urban areas and long after the population had expanded (Alice H. Galindo personal communication 1997).

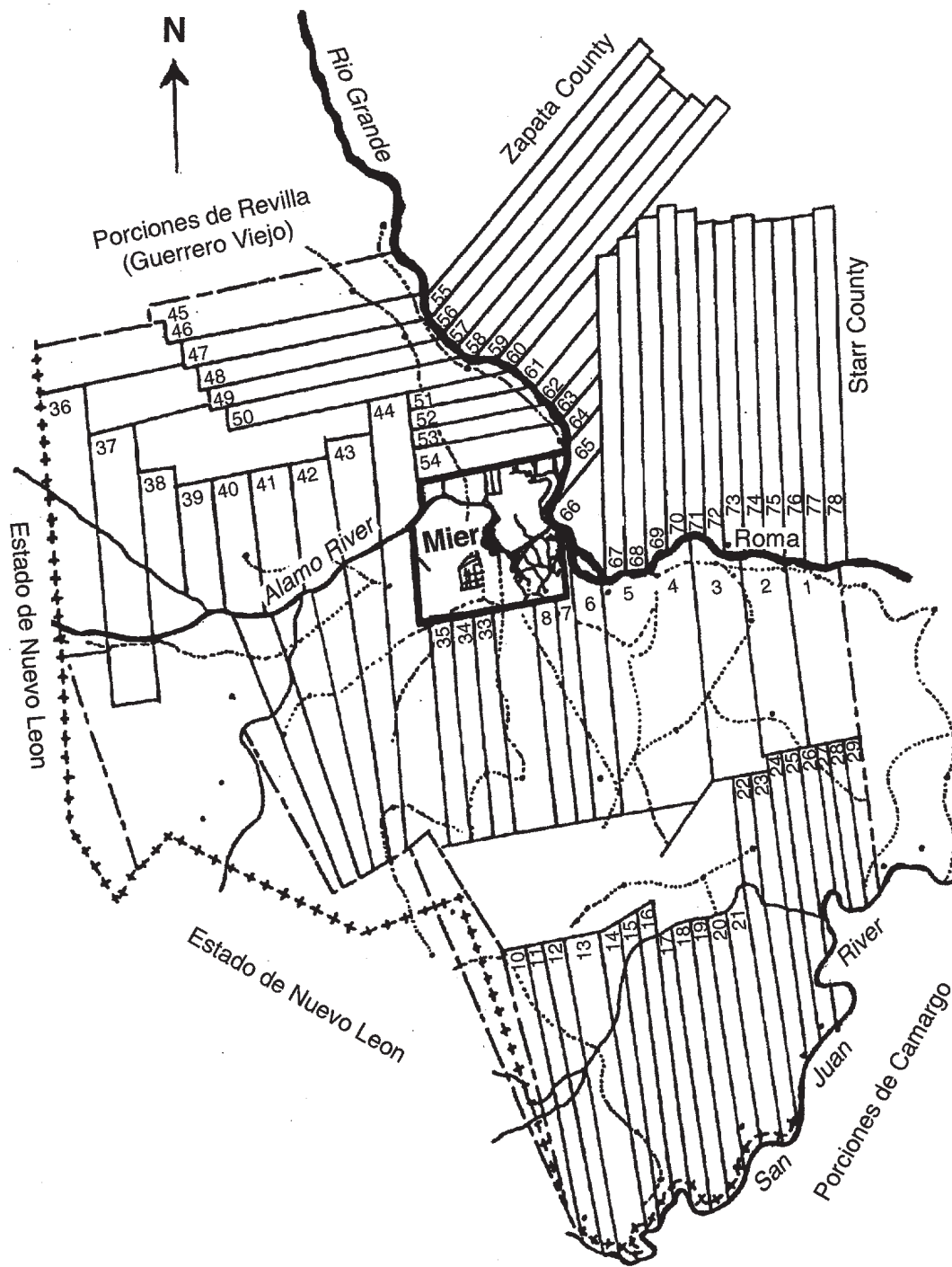


Figure 2: Map of the porciones awarded to the Nuevo Santander colonists of Mier in 1767. (Galindo 1999)

Previous Archaeological Investigations

Introduction

The research of historic archaeology of South Texas and Northeastern Mexico can be traced back a mere 50 years to the limited excavations and surveys undertaken when the Falcon Dam and Reservoir was constructed along the Río Grande as a bi-national project. The contributions of eighteenth- and nineteenth-century pobladores, or Spanish colonists, have been largely ignored by academicians interested in early Texas history. Nonetheless, the families who settled Nuevo Santander and established ranchos for livestock raising laid the foundation of the cattle industry for which Texas became famous. This project, informed by local historians and oral traditions, uses census and demographic data to supplement the limited archaeology accomplished to date in the area.

Figure 3 illustrates the settlements and ranches that were documented in the flood plain of the Falcon Reservoir before it was constructed. In February 1949, Alex Krieger from the University of Texas at Austin surveyed the area that would become the new spillway for the National Parks Service (Krieger and Hughes 1950). A total of 55 sites documented by Krieger and Jack Hughes during 1949 and 1950 as they conducted an archaeological survey and testing along the entire length of the U.S. side of the proposed reservoir. The next year, the River Basins Survey of the Smithsonian Institution conducted emergency excavations of three sites, including two historic sites, in what became the first major archaeological investigation in the area (Hartle and Stephenson 1951). Fortunately, the artifacts from these excavations were recently analyzed (Bonine 2001) and this analysis joins investigations at Los Corralitos and Cabaseño ranches in Zapata County, Texas (Fleming and Pertulla 1999, Pertulla, et al.

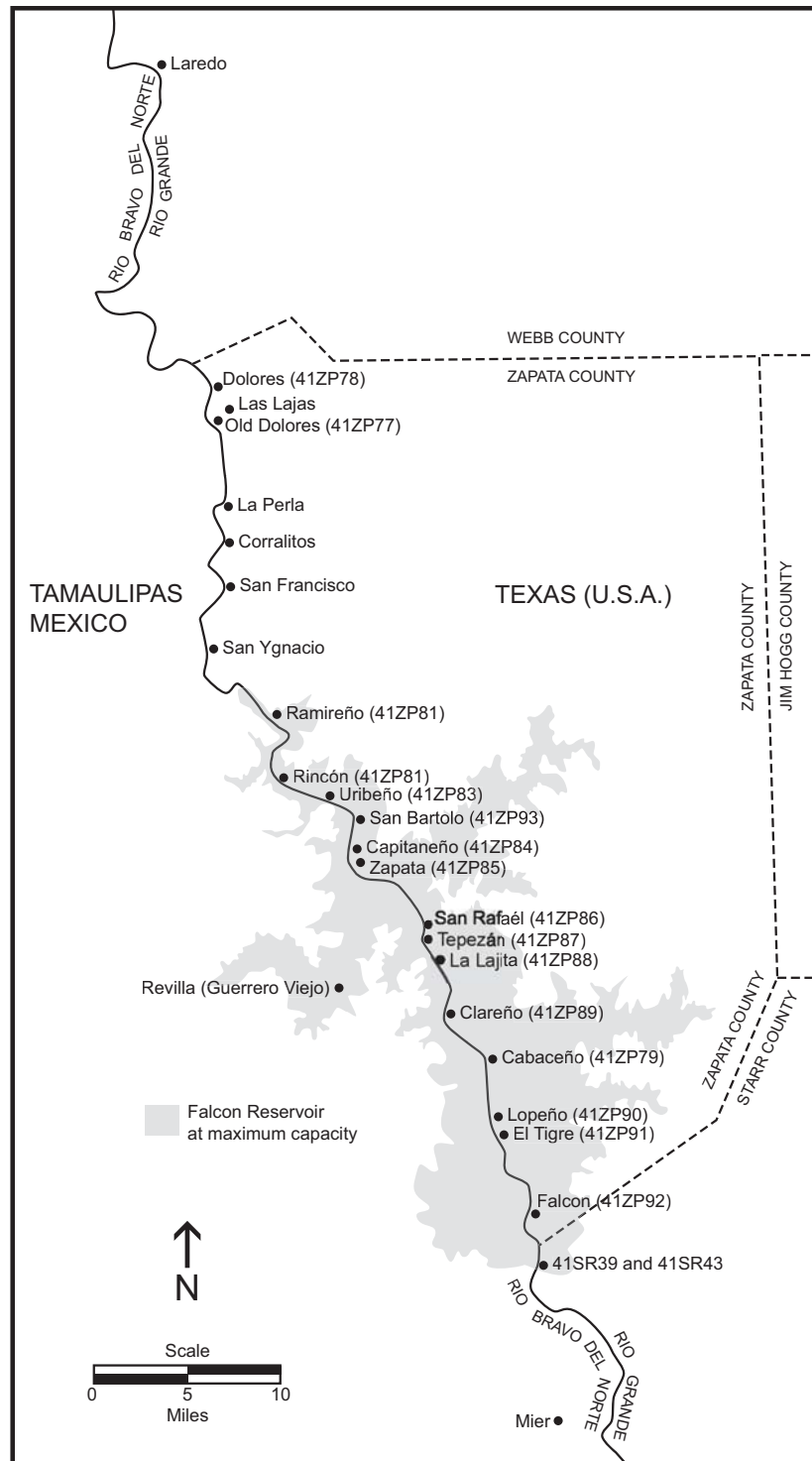


Figure 3: Map of ranchos in Zapata County that were flooded by the Falcon Reservoir. (Revised after George 1975:22.)

1999), and research of a more ethnographic nature focusing on Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico, (Galindo 1999). The 1950 survey and testing included work by Luís Aveleyra Arroyo de Anda, an archaeologist from INAH who spent 10 days surveying the Mexican shore line. An important observation based on this survey that survives in Krieger and Hughes' work is the similarity between the material culture of both sides of the Río Grande. The following sections summarize the previous archaeological research in the area and compare the sites to settlement at Rancho El Saladito.

Excavations at 41SR39 and 41SR43 in Starr County, Texas

The emergency excavations conducted at 41SR39 and 41SR43 by Donald Hartle and Robert Stephenson in February and March of 1951, were prompted by their impending destruction. They excavated two historic sites within 500 feet of each other. Both residential areas were in the path of Falcon Dam's spillway. Each site consisted of multiple one-room stone structures arranged along a water source, either the arroyo or the Río Grande. The associated features included middens, a fireplace, and a storage pit. The artifacts from these excavations were stored at TARL for 50 years before they were analyzed in a thesis by Mindy Bonine (2001).

41SR39 Artifacts

The floors of the interiors of two stone structures were excavated and interpreted as dwelling units occupied during the latter half of the eighteenth century, based on construction techniques and an analysis of the Mexican Majolicas in the collection (Bonine 2001, Goggin 1968). The stone structures, where preserved and recorded, were constructed of dry-laid, chinked masonry, that was plastered on the interior. The majority of the 3,441 recovered artifacts at 41SR39 are ceramic, comprising 96% of the total. Other artifacts include those of bone, lithic, and glass, which total 3.6%. A

smaller sample of metal and shell artifacts was encountered in the excavations (Bonine 2001).

Alex Krieger labelled the locally-made earthenware jars and ollas, “Mier Plain,” based on the ceramic sample from 41SR39 and 41SR43 (Hartle and Stephenson 1951, Kreiger and Hughes 1950).

Table 1: Quantity and percentage of total for all artifacts from 41SR39*

Artifact category	qty	% of total
Ceramic	3,310	96.2
Bone	78	2.3
Lithic	29	0.8
Glass	18	0.5
Metal	3	0.1
Shell	3	0.1
Total	3,441	100.0

*(Bonine 2001)

Bonine (2001) also uses ceramic distribution to interpret the function of the structures, finding more evidence of cooking, serving, and storing vessels at House 1 than at House 2. In fact, the ceramic count is ten times greater at House 1 and the low numbers of ceramics distinguishes House 2 from all the other structures at the two sites. If the ceramic evidence is not weighty enough, House 1 also contains the only fireplace documented at either site, which lends credence to Bonine’s interpretation of House 1 as a kitchen.

41SR43 Artifacts

The floors of the interiors of four stone structures were excavated and inter-

preted as dwelling units occupied contemporaneously with 41SR39 (Bonine 2001). The stone structures were similarly constructed with better preservation of the plastered interior walls. Likewise, the majority of the 5,102 recovered artifacts at 41SR43 are ceramic, comprising 89% of the total. Other artifacts include those of lithic and bone, which together comprise 9% of the total. A smaller sample of shell, metal, and glass artifacts was encountered in the excavations (Bonine 2001).

Table 2: Quantity and percentage of total for all artifacts from 41SR43*

Artifact category	qty	% of total
Ceramic	4,544	89.25
Lithic	255	5.00
Bone	205	4.02
Shell	61	1.19
Metal	21	0.41
Glass	5	0.01
Total	5,091	99.88

*(Bonine 2001)

Again, Bonine (2001) compares the ceramic count and ratios of types found in each structure and interprets House 1 to be a place of food preparation and consumption, and/or a dwelling used for general living. House 4 is also a general living area, but with less ceramic evidence for food preparation and consumption. The two other structures suffered more from erosional damage and no attempt to interpret their function was made.

At neither site did the investigators identify courtyards, patios, irrigation systems, gardens, outside cooking features, fences, or jacales (Bonine 2001).

Excavations at Cabaseño Ranch (41ZP79), Zapata County, Texas

During the 1990s a prolonged drought period caused the Falcon Reservoir to drop to record low water levels, thus exposing some 40 historic archeological sites. These sites were recorded and studied during 1996 through a joint effort by the National Park Service, the Texas Historical Commission, the Texas Archeological Research Laboratory, and the University of Texas at Austin (Perttula et al. 1996).

This effort stands in sharp contrast to the decades of inaction on the part of the International Boundary and Water Commission (IBWC), the federal agency charged with the management and protection of archeological sites in the reservoir under both the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 and the Archeological Resources Protection Act of 1979 (Perttula et al. 1996). The IBWC's inaction is not surprising given the agency's deplorable treatment of the local people who were displaced when the reservoir was opened in 1953 (Byfield 1966). Many people whose property was condemned by the IBWC were never properly compensated (Byfield 1996:48-50). If the agency did not respect or value living people and their property, it is not surprising that the same agency does not respect or value the vulnerable historic archaeological sites that represent these same people's ancestors.

Timothy K. Perttula returned to Area I at the Cabaseño site (41ZP79) in 1998 and conducted archaeological excavations. The ranching settlement at Area I appears to date between 1775 and 1800, based on the presence of certain types of majolicas and the absence of both European ceramic wares and bottle glass (Perttula et al. 1999:327-328). As such, Area I at the Cabaseño site represents one of the earliest Nuevo Santander ranchos identified at Falcon Reservoir (Perttula et al. 1999:328). Majolica

types found at Area I include Puebla Blue and White II, San Elizario Polychrome, Puebla Green on White, Aranama Polychrome, and Huejotzingo Blue on White (Perttula et al. 1999:328).

The Cabaseño site is at the confluence of the Arroyo Cabaseño and the Río Grande and was associated with the porciones awarded to the pobladores of Revilla (now Guerrero Viejo). Five features were identified at Area I, including three stone structure foundations and two bone-filled pits, all within an approximate area of 25 X 20 meters (Perttula et al. 1999:331). The foundations are about 6.5 X 4 meters and are comprised of uncut sandstone fieldstone stacked one to two courses high (Perttula et al. 1999:331). The bone pits contain evidence of cow, sheep, and goat remains (Perttula et al. 1999:331, 336). There is probably an associated midden, but during the 1998 field season it remained underwater (Perttula et al. 1999:331).

About 50 meters south of Area I is the most substantial occupation at Cabaseño, dating to the mid-nineteenth century, based on the presence of Englishware and Guanajuato Polychrome majolica (Perttula et al. 1999:330). Features include a large two-room stone structure, two smaller stone structures, a lime pit, several trash middens, and a possible *horno*, or an outdoor baking or cooking oven (Perttula et al. 1999:330).

About 20 meters east of Area I are features that date to the early twentieth century, including a corral, a midden, a two-room pier construction, and two collapsed *jacales*, or thatched-roof and wood post structures that may have been plastered (Perttula et al. 1999:330).

Excavations at San José de Corralitos Ranch, Zapata County, Texas

San José de Corralitos, or Los Corralitos (small corrals), was established in 1766 by José Fernando Vidaurri. He was the grandson of José Vásquez Borregos, who received a 329,000 acre land grant from the Spanish crown to found Nuestra Señora de Dolores hacienda in 1750 (Fleming and Perttula 1999:395). Los Corralitos was a 5,000 acre subdivision of this grant (Fleming and Perttula 1999:395). Dolores and Laredo were the only two of the six Nuevo Santander communities along the Río Grande to be on the river's north bank, or in modern-day Texas, although porciones were awarded on both banks of the river by every settlement except Dolores.

Dolores was different from the other communities in that it maintained a mounted security force for protection from incessant Indian attacks, no mission was ever associated with it, its population did not grow as fast as the other towns, and the pobladores of Dolores did not receive their own land grants; instead they were essentially hired laborers at a private hacienda (Scott 1937:39).

By 1786 a *fortaleza*, or fort, was completed at Los Corralitos, which suggest that this is the earliest known ranch building still standing in Texas (Fleming and Perttula 1999:395). Its age is based on archival documents and several defensive architectural features, including *troneras*, or gunports, and a lack of windows (Fleming and Perttula 1999:395, 400). The fortaleza is a one-room structure with a single doorway and six *troneras* (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). It measures 33 feet long by 18.33 feet wide by 13.5 feet high and is the closest building to the river (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). The other stone structure, which is about 100 years younger, is at a right angle to the fortaleza, separated by about 45 meters (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400).

The fortaleza, or Building 1, is constructed of roughly dressed sandstone blocks

with mud mortar (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). The larger blocks are at the four corners of the building and each has two cut faces (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). Chinking stones were used to fill in the gaps left by the irregular-shaped blocks, which formed the walls between 2.47 feet and 2.83 feet thick (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). Both stone structures at Los Corralitos now have metal roofs, but a small portion of the fortaleza's original fireproof roof survives. The type of construction is known as *terrado*, or layered (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). The additional weight of the plastered roof was supported by a series of 20 *vigas*, or beams, that were then covered perpendicularly by a layer of 1 inch X 4 inch boards (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). On top of this were placed a layer of small stones that were mortared and coated with a mixture of lime, sand, and gravel, known as *chipichil* (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). The flat roof was slightly sloped for drainage and five wooden *canales*, or roof drains, were originally along the west side of the fortaleza (Fleming and Perttula 1999:400). There were also six protected areas for roof-top defenders (Fleming and Perttula 1999:401).

Building 2 has two rooms and probably dates to the late nineteenth century (Fleming and Perttula 1999:401). It measures 51.83 feet X 20.17 feet and has two external doorways (Fleming and Perttula 1999:401). Its flat roof is similarly constructed *terrado*, with *vigas*, smaller boards, and *chipichil* (Fleming and Perttula 1999:401). Building 2 has no *troneras* or other defensive features.

Sharon E. Fleming and Perttula establish a framework for the architectural evolution of ranch houses in Zapata County, although it may well apply to other Nuevo Santander ranchos as well. The first period is defined from 1750 to 1848 and is called the Spanish-Mexican Colonial Ranch Buildings (Fleming and Perttula 1999:405). These

are defined by their defensive architectural features, which may include thick stone wall construction, a flat fireproof plastered roof, troneras, fortified rooftop positions, few doorways, and/or a lack of windows (Fleming and Perttula 1999:406).

Their second division is defined from 1849 to 1874+ and is called the Post-Colonial Ranch Buildings (Fleming and Perttula 1999:406). This is a transition period during which defensive architectural features continue to be incorporated into new construction. Eventually decorative and functional features are developed that replace most of the defensive features (Fleming and Perttula 1999:406). These are outward signs that a building's defensibility is no longer the primary concern of its residents, although some features like flat plastered roofs and a lack of windows continue to be popular (Fleming and Perttula 1999:406).

The last division in Fleming and Perttula's framework is from the last quarter of the nineteenth century to the present and is called the Unfortified Ranch Buildings (Fleming and Perttula 1999:407). Distinctive changes include the lack of troneras, the introduction of windows, wider doors, thinner walls, and pitched roofs with combustible roofing materials (Fleming and Perttula 1999:407).

Jacales

The most enduring house form in the Lower Río Grande area, the jacal, does not fit into the above framework. Stone buildings were built by wealthier people or those with a convenient quarry. Jacales might have only been used as a temporary shelter for members of the upper class during the construction of a stone house, but for most of the population they were permanent residences. Jacales continue to be constructed and used in the area around Mier and lots of other places in Mexico and Central America. It is a no-frills style of construction that uses readily-available material:

larger poles are placed vertically in a footing trench, then smaller branches are woven horizontally between the poles. The walls might be plastered on the interior, exterior, or both. A center pole helps support the thatch roof, which was originally made of grass or cane, although modern jacales have metal roofs.

It is impossible to say exactly when pobladores began building jacales, but it seems reasonable that they adopted this building method from indigenous groups. Granted, most of the Indians of the Lower Río Grande were mobile hunters and gatherers who used simple ramadas, but near Mier at least two groups, the Garzas and Malaguitas or Malahuecos, built houses of mats and thatch that they dismantled and moved (Salinas 1990:122). Certainly, the addition of wattle, daub, and plaster was a later innovation, but essentially jacales represent an enduring adaptation of indigenous technology. The remains of jacales are difficult, if not impossible, to locate archaeologically, but their importance to the survival of the Nuevo Santander pobladores should not be forgotten.

An undated survey of the ranchos of Mier, located in that city's archives, documents the prevalence of "casas de paja," (literally: straw or thatch houses), among eighteenth-century colonists (Galindo 1999:119-121). This likely refers to what are today called jacales. Table 3 reproduces the enumeration of buildings at various ranchos of Mier, which was divided by relative location to the area rivers. This list was located in the *Casa de Cultura Archivo de Mier* (Mier Archives) in Box G-25 and inside a folder marked 1753, although the actual document is not dated. One indication that the document may actually date to sometime after the 1770s is a reference to Roma (in the ranch name "El Arroyo Frente de Roma"), which was officially founded in 1765.

This building survey illustrates the abundance of jacales relative to stone build-

ings. Jacales outnumber stone structures by a ratio of 37 to 1. On the 38 ranches listed in Table 3, there were 296 straw houses, or jacales, and only 8 stone houses. Perhaps the prevalence of jacales gives some indication of the relative security of the ranchos of Mier as compared to other areas where fortified buildings were essential.

Table 3: Types of Buildings on the Ranches of Mier*

Ranch Name	Stone Houses	(Casas de Paja) Jacales
<i>To the west, by the Alamo River:</i>		
El Paso del Cantaro	0	5
El Cado	0	4
S. Bartolo	1	3
Los Nogales	1	6
Las Blancas	1	4
<i>Subtotal for above five ranches</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>22</i>
<i>On the other side of the Alamo River:</i>		
Malahuecos	0	3
Santo Domingo	1	4
El Rincon	1	2
Las Lajitas	0	2
<i>Subtotal for above four ranches</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>11</i>

* From the *Casa Cultura Archivo de Mier*, Box G-25.

Table 3: Types of Buildings on the Ranches of Mier (continued)*

Ranch Name	Stone Houses	(Casas de Paja) Jacales
<i>To the south where the San Juan River originates in the Sierra Madre:</i>		
Morteritos	0	6
Arcabus	0	15
Pena Blanca	0	6
La Meca	0	1
Santa Cruz	1	25
Los Saies	0	4
El Ranchito	0	12
Las Calabasas	0	8
La Vonita	0	7
S. Nicolas	0	6
Miguel Penas de Arriva	0	10
S. Ysidro	1	6
Los Gorra de Arriva	0	4
La de Abajo	0	8
El Salto	0	4
San Rafael de la Meca	1	4
<i>Subtotal for above 16 ranches</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>126</i>
<i>Along the south side of the Rio Grande:</i>		
Guardado de Arriba	0	30
El Refugio	0	5
El Leon	0	10
Morteritos	0	12
El Arroyo frente de Roma	0	15
Sabinitos a los Gonzalez	0	12
Sabinitos de en medio	0	14
Sabinitos de arriba	0	10
Los Guerras	0	11
Las Flores	0	3
La Ysla de los Hinojosas	0	5
Las Tumbas	0	6
Los Arrieros	0	5
<i>Subtotal for above 13 ranches</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>138</i>
Total for all 38 ranches	8	297

* From the *Casa Cultura Archivo de Mier*, Box G-25.

Comparing Rancho El Saladito to Previous Archaeological Research in the Area

The archaeological evidence produced by this research project at Rancho El Saladito must be considered in the context of previous research. In all of the examples cited in this chapter, stone foundations or buildings were documented. However, at Rancho El Saladito in the area of earliest occupation (east of the Arroyo Saladito) no stone structures were located. On the west side of the arroyo is a stone structure built in 1928 and the remains of an earlier outdoor horno, that according to oral history was associated with a jacale.

Evidence is presented in Chapter 6 that indicates the precursor of Rancho El Saladito was El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, which was founded by the recipient of Mier Porción 6, Ramón Guerra. Although this ranch is not named in the above survey of house types, it is likely that Los Guerras (with 11 jacales) describes the same ranch, considering its location between Las Flores (Mier Porción 7) and Sabinitas (Mier Porción 5). Los Guerras also is listed near La Ysla de los Hinojosas, which is across the Río Grande from Rancho El Saladito.

Given the low occurrence overall of stone buildings, it is not surprising that eighteenth- or nineteenth-century examples were not encountered at Rancho El Saladito. This is despite the existence of a convenient quarry, and the occurrence of stone buildings at 41ZP39, 41ZP43, Cabaseño, and Los Corralitos. One possible explanation is that sites on the north bank of the Río Grande were more prone to Indian attacks and thus needed the protection afforded by stone.

Ceramic artifacts at Rancho El Saladito, unlike architecture, are very similar to those from 41ZP39, 41ZP43, and Cabaseño. Majolica types are identical, as are Mier

Plainwares forms. Later Englishwares also bear uncanny resemblances and may indicate either similar aesthetic tastes among consumers or the prevalence of certain decorative types in the marketplace.

Ceramics from mission contexts in other parts of Texas, although not summarized in this chapter, can also be compared to the collection from Rancho El Saladito with informative conclusions. Ceramics from Texas mission contexts were studied in a type collection at the Center for Archeological Research at the University of Texas at San Antonio. Basic differences between the two collections include the lack of French faience or Chinese porcelain in the Rancho El Saladito collection. Less expensive majolica types such as Huetzingo Blue on White and Puebla Green on White are more common in the ranch context.

Thus, although it is helpful to study the broad context into which Rancho El Saladito fits, in the areas of architecture and ceramic artifacts El Saladito stands apart from its neighbors to the north on ranches and at missions. There are likely multiple reasons for these differences, not the least of which is the state of relations with the indigenous people that Mier colonists encountered. The next chapter summarizes the numerous Indian groups associated with Mier and surrounding communities and serves as a reminder that the Nuevo Santander colonists did not enter an empty landscape. Rather they were met by various indigenous groups who may have shared certain cultural traits, but also maintained their own unique identities. Undoubtedly, some members of these groups contributed their labor, knowledge, and skills to help the colony succeed. These contributions are evident today in architecture and in the nutritional and medicinal use of native plants.

Chapter 2

The Indigenous Heritage of the Río Grande Communities of Nuevo Santander

The Nuevo Santander colonists who established the six Río Grande settlements of the mid-eighteenth century, including Mier, did not enter an unpopulated landscape. Both native inhabitants, and later, enterprising ranchers from Nuevo León, preceded them. The natural resources of the Río Grande had been supporting indigenous hunting and gathering groups for thousands of years, as the prehistoric archaeology of the region attests (Boyd 1997; Boyd, et al. 1997; Epstein 1969; Hester 1980; 1989a; 1989b; 1990; 1995; McClurkan 1980; MacNeish 1958; Nance 1980; Suhm, Kreiger and Jelks 1954; Taylor 1937, 1966). By 1582, when Cerralvo was first founded as the capital (Contreras López 1999:29), the colonizers of Nuevo León began displacing indigenous groups. During the early years of Nuevo León, many Indians were captured and sold into slavery for work in the mines near Zacatecas, Sombrerete, and Mazapil (Salinas 1990:15). Some who escaped this fate migrated to the shores of the Río Grande, joining groups already there.

Fresh water in this arid region attracted settlements across the millennia. The area of northeastern México and south Texas adjacent to the Gulf of México is known as the Gulf Coastal Plain or the Gulf Coastal Lowlands (West 1964:57-61). The foothills of the Sierra Madre Oriental form the boundary of this plain in Tamaulipas. In Texas the Gulf Coastal Plain ends at the Balcones Escarpment of the Edwards Plateau.

Nuevo Santander was bounded by two of the region's three perennial rivers: the Río San Fernando to the south and the Río Nueces to the north. The third, the Río Grande, bisected the colony. All three deliver water to the Gulf of México, with the exception of the Río Grande in the last few decades. Streams in this region are generally

small and intermittent, however, between Camargo and Laredo there are several perennial streams, including the Río San Juan, the Río Alamo, (which flows through Mier), and the Río Salado. All three feed into the Río Grande. Early European observers consistently reported indigenous groups along these waterways (Salinas 1990:11).

The colonial record contains few details regarding the indigenous populations and their culture. “For any particular Indian group, little can be said about its culture at any time during the 367-year period covered by documents” (Salinas 1990:135). Martín Salinas’ comprehensive effort to correlate the indigenous groups discussed in Spanish colonial primary documents (1990) makes a distinction between native groups and those that migrated to the Río Grande area. Large numbers of displaced Indians occupied eastern Nuevo León during the first half of the eighteenth century (Salinas 1990:14). Their prolonged attacks on small area settlements were a contributing factor to the establishment of Nuevo Santander, which would lead to their further displacement and/or assimilation. The following sections summarize the prehistoric archaeology of the area and then provide the group names and cultural traits of Indian groups recorded in colonial documents for the area around Mier, Tamaulipas.

Prehistoric Archaeology of the Area

The prehistory of northeastern México was first examined with the fieldwork of Richard MacNeish (1958) in Tamaulipas during the 1940s. Walter Taylor was also an early contributor with an archaeological survey of Coahuila (1937), and his summary of cultures in northeastern México (1966). Luis Aveleyra Arroyo de Anda and others excavated a vertical shaft cave in Coahuila during 1953 and 1954 (Nance 1992:5). Work continued in 1960s with the Northeast México Archaeological Project, which

was directed by Jeremiah F. Epstein and involved excavations at nine sites and limited surveying of the region (Nance 1992:5). Epstein's survey focused mainly on Nuevo León, but also involved eastern Coahuila and northwestern Tamaulipas (Epstein 1969:xi).

The construction of the Falcon Dam and Reservoir, completed in 1953, prompted archaeological survey and limited excavations through the River Basin Survey Projects (Hartle and Stephenson 1951, Kreiger and Hughes 1950). Upon this foundation, Dee Ann Suhm, Alex Krieger and Edward Jelks (1954) developed the first chronology for the prehistoric component of the region, based on projectile points and associated artifacts. Although a substantial contribution at the time, their work has since become regarded as too simplistic and unable to account for the cultural diversity that has become evident through subsequent work in the area (Boyd, et al. 1997). Recent work by Salinas (1990) has demonstrated the linguistic and cultural diversity of indigenous groups in South Texas. The cultural manifestations of South Texas indigenous groups have been described as "often varying distinctly from stream to stream" (Hester 1980).

The chronology developed by Suhm, Krieger, and Jelks (1954) is imperfect, but it remains a useful organizing device and for this reason a summary of their chronology is provided. Suhm, Krieger, and Jelks (1954) divided the Archaic stage in the Falcon Reservoir area into two foci: Falcon and Mier. Falcon Focus artifacts were said to include large dart points and to represent lithic technologies that persisted for thousands of years and into the Spanish colonial period. Tortugas were the most common type found, often with Abasolo and Refugio. Langtry, Shumla, and Almagre are other types that appear infrequently in South Texas contexts. The Falcon

Focus was thought to have lasted from 5000 B.C. to A.D. 500 or 1000 (Suhm, Krieger and Jelks 1954).

The Mier Focus represented a continuation of the Falcon Focus and associated artifacts, plus the appearance of two familiar but diminutive types: Matamoros and Catan. Additionally, several small arrow points appear, including Fresno, Perdiz, and Starr, which was considered a local type. Langtry, Shumla, and Almagre continued to be evident. Matamoros and Catan were thought to have chronological significance in southern Tamaulipas (Suhm, Krieger and Jelks 1954). Tortugas and Abasolo are associated with pre-ceramic excavation levels, whereas Matamoros and Catan are found in later ceramic levels. One Catan point was recovered at Rancho El Saladito in a surface collection.

Starr points are triangular with lateral edges ranging from straight to concave. Basal concavity ranges from slightly concave to V-shaped with longish ears. Many Starr points are roughly equilateral, but this varies from more elongated to stubby. Starr points are found along the Lower Río Grande Valley and the Lower Texas Coast and are associated with the Brownsville Complex during the Late Prehistoric (Prewitt 1995:130; Turner and Hester 1993:231). Two Starr points were recovered during the archeological project at Rancho El Saladito: one in an excavation unit and the other in a surface collection.

The Mier Focus was alternatively described as the transitional phase between the Falcon Focus and historic times or as the late phase of the Falcon Phase; either way it was dated from A.D. 500 or 1000 until the Late Prehistoric period (Suhm, Krieger and Jelks 1954).

The Late Prehistoric Period in southern Texas shares some cultural patterns with Central Texas, especially regarding the Toyah Horizon (Black 1986, Hester 1995:443). Dart points such as Ensor, Matamoros, Catan, and Zavala persist into Late Prehistoric contexts and contribute to the uncertainties about the internal chronology of the region (Hester 1995:443). Along the Río Grande below Laredo the common projectile points are Starr, Caracara, and Toyah types.

MacNeish (1958:189) defines a class of artifacts that are diagnostic of the Brownsville Complex. The primary diagnostic artifacts are shell disks and pierced shell disk beads, columella plugs, rectangular conch shell pendants, mollusk shell scrapers, and Starr, Fresno, and Matamoros projectile points. Items which distinguish the Brownsville Complex include pierced whole conch shells, small snail shell beads, conical pumice pipes, bivalve beads, Marginella beads, conch shell fishhooks, Cameron points, chipped pin-like drills, shell plugs with rectangular cross-sections, and columella gouges (MacNeish 1958:189). Based on the size of their projectile points, MacNeish thought the inhabitants of the area were hunters and gatherers who used bows and arrows and relied heavily on marine resources (MacNeish 1958:189).

Indian Groups Recorded Along the Río Grande

It is difficult to identify with certainty the groups that occupied eastern Nuevo León because the Spanish used descriptive names and not their native ones (Salinas 1990:17). Group names were often duplicated across vast geographical regions among unrelated peoples (Campbell and Campbell 1985:9-10). These practices make it impossible in most cases to determine the continuity between groups that may have migrated from Nuevo León to the Río Grande. Instead, the next section will concentrate on the Indian groups identified in colonial documents that were associated with the six

Río Grande settlements of Laredo, Dolores, Revilla, Mier, Camargo, and Reynosa. The mission registers for Camargo and Reynosa are now missing, but Herbert E. Bolton examined both of these registers early in the twentieth century and his research is the foundation for later work by Salinas (1990). Martín Salinas, who built upon a foundation of ethnographic work laid by T. N. Campbell, examined the primary documents created by the Spanish and extracted the scattered bits of information about indigenous groups on both banks of the lower Río Grande. The following Table 4 summarizes 39 Indian groups known from Mier and surrounding areas as compiled from Salinas (1990). The table is followed by a series of maps illustrating the relative location of the Indian groups (Figures 4, 5, and 6). Next a summary of the textual references and graphic representations of Indian individuals and groups found in the colonial record is presented. The chapter concludes with an examination of 12 Indian groups specifically associated with Mier and a summary of the cultural traits associated with them collectively.

Textual References to Local Indian Groups

When Jose de Escandón explored the region that became Nuevo Santander, he recorded at least 31 separately named Indian groups (Salinas 1990:19). For his 1747 report, Escandón apparently relied on Capitán Santiago, a leader of the Comecrudo group he encountered near his base camp, which was near the modern city of Matamoros (Salinas 1990:29). He reported that about 2,500 families lived south of the Río Grande, with the largest group being the Comecrudos (Salinas 1990:29). Escandón described Indians that fished and hunted deer and birds with bows and arrows (Salinas 1990:29). He noted that the men wore no clothing, while the women wore skirts made of animal skins or grass (Salinas 1990:29). Capitán Santiago used smoke signals to

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México*

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
1. Aguichacas	Gulf coast south of Río Grande Reynosa Mier	1780, 1793 1790-1814 1790-1814
2. Anda el Camino	Reynosa Cameron county San Antonio missions Mier Matamoros	1790-1818 1798 1793 1793-1818 1804-1818
3. Ayapaguemes	Cameron county	1748, 1757
4. Borrados of the Lower Río Grande aka in San Antonio missions: Anda el Camino,	Dolores San Antonio missions	1757 1754, 1760, 1762, 1767-68, 1780, 1783, 1785, and 1788
5. Saulapaguemes	Coahuila missions Camargo	1754, 1768, 1772 after 1764
6. Western Carrizos aka Yemé, Tusan	Lampazos, NL Mier, north bank Cerralvo (attacked) Revilla, 18 miles from Dolores Coahuila missions Laredo, 26 miles downstream Hacienda del Alamo Laredo Hacienda Mamulique, NL	1715 1728 1735 1752 1754 1762 1768 1774 1788-92, 1789-1823 1828-29

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
7. Eastern Carrizos aka Yué, Comecrudos, Pintos, Tehones, Cotonames, Casas Chiquitas	Hidalgo county Mier, north bank Camargo Reynosa	1757 1757 1757, 1764-1780, 1791, 1793, 1823 after 1790
8. Casas Chiquitas aka Borrados	Cameron and Hidalgo counties Reynosa San Antonio missions	1777, 1780, 1798 1790-1800, 1814, 1831 1793, 1796
9. Caurames	around Cerralvo Camargo Monterrey	1686-1735 1728 1730
10. Chinitos	Revilla	1790-1818
11. Comecrudos of the Río Grande	Río San Juan Reynosa	1747 1749, 1753, 1757, 1770, 1802, 1834, and 1886
12. Como se Llamam	Cameron, Hidalgo, and Willacy counties Reynosa Camargo Matamoros	1772, 1794 1790-93, 1824 1764-1809 1802, 1813

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
13. Cotonames	Camargo Revilla Hidalgo and Starr counties Gulf coast north and south of Río Grande Reynosa Matamoros Mier	1757, 1764-1810 1757 1757, 1770, 1771, 1794 1780 1790-93, 1797-98, 1808-1831, 1886 1802 1808-1831
14. Cueros Quemados	Cerralvo (attacked) Camargo and north bank Revilla Mier	1735 1750, 1752, 1757, 1780, 1790-1814, and 1793 1757 1790-1814, 1793
15. Garzas	Cerralvo Mier	1715 1756-1829
16. Guajolotes and Cacalotes of the Lower Río Grande	Camargo Revilla Starr and Hidalgo counties San Antonio missions Reynosa	1750, 1752, 1757, 1764-1808 1757, 1788-1818 1757 1767 1788-1818
17. Gualleguas	Cerralvo Revilla	1625-1664, 1730 1770
18. Guapes	Camargo	after 1764

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
19. Malaguitas aka Malahuecos	Nuevo León Cerralvo area (attacks) Mier Revilla Starr and Zapata counties Camargo Reynosa San Antonio missions Texas coast Coahuila missions Refugio	1728 1735 1756, 1757, 1772 1770 1757 after 1784 after 1790 after 1747, 1760-1793 1760-1793, 1766, 1780, 1812 before 1772 1794, 1809, 1812, 1813, 1815
20. Malhombre	Cerralvo area Camargo Mier	1675, 1715, 1748 after 1764, 1818 1772
21. Mayapemes aka Auyapemes, Maulipeños, and Manyatenos	Valle Hermosa, Tamps. Camargo Reynosa Cameron, Willacy, or Kenedy counties San Antonio missions	1747, 1757 1764-1810, 1818 1790-1806, 1818 1790, 1798 1789-1799
22. Mulatos of the Lower Río Grande aka Borrado	Matamoros btwn Nueces and Río Grande San Antonio missions Camargo Reynosa	1777, 1798, 1810-11 1780 1780, 1784-85, 1793, 1797 1764-1810 1790-1816

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
23. Narices	eastern Nuevo León Reynosa	1720-1748 1751, 1753, 1757
24. Nazas	eastern Nuevo León Reynosa	1720-1748, 1768, 1773, 1790, 1792 1757
25. Negros (shipwreck survivors who intermarried with natives)	Matamoros Reynosa	1747, 1801-1810 1750, 1793, 1797-98, 1790-1816
26. Paisanos	SE Starr county Cerralvo (attacked) Camargo	1727 1750 1750-1793
27. Pajaritos	Cerralvo area (attacks) Cerralvo (peaceful) Camargo Mier	1715-1753 1748 1751, 1757-1809 1790-1814, 1816-18
28. Pelones after 1707: aka Aguatinejos, Cacalotes, and Tortugas	Cerralvo area (attacks) Monterrey South Texas Camargo	1660s, 1667, 1683, 1704, 1715-1753 1686 1707 1749
29. Pintos of the Lower Río Grande aka Carrizos	Reynosa Hidalgo county	1750, 1753, 1770-1800 1757, 1758, 1780

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
30. Pistispiagueles	Cerralvo area (attacks) Revilla Cerralvo area (peaceful)	1728, 1735 1757 1715-1753
31. Pauraques aka Huaragues, Taguariques, and Tuaragues	San Antonio missions Camargo Cameron and Hidalgo counties	1753-1767 after 1764 1777
32. Saulapaguemes aka Borrado	Matamoros north bank near Reynosa San Antonio missions Reynosa Camargo	1757, 1809, 1814 1770 1785, 1783, 1793, 1796 1793, 1797-98, 1801 after 1764, 1801
33. Tampacuas (Comecrudo word for tattooed people) aka Borrado	TX coast btwn Nueces and Río Grande Coahuila missions Reynosa Cameron, Willacy or Kenedy county Hidalgo county	1766, 1780 1772 after 1790, 1797-98, 1801, 1811, 1831 1798 1853-55
34. Tareguanos	Camargo	1751-1818
35. Tejones	Camargo Reynosa	1752, 1757, after 1764, 1770, 1772 1750, 1753, 1757, 1770, 1772, 1780, 1785, after 1790, 1788-1800, 1814

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

Table 4: Indian Groups Known from the area around Mier, Tamaulipas, México* (continued)

Indian Group Name	Associated Settlement or Area	Dates
36. Tortugas	eastern Nuevo León Camargo	1716-1723, 1730-1748 1724-1728, 1749-1751
37. Venados	Cerralvo area (attacks) Cerralvo (peaceful) Camargo	1735 1748 1750, 1752, 1757, 1772, 1818
38. Zacatiles	eastern Nuevo León Cerralvo area (attacks) Camargo Reynosa Hidalgo and Starr counties	1686 1730s 1724-1728 1750 1750
39. Zalayas	Cerralvo Agualeguas (attacks) Mier	1688 1735 1757

*Information compiled from Salinas 1990.

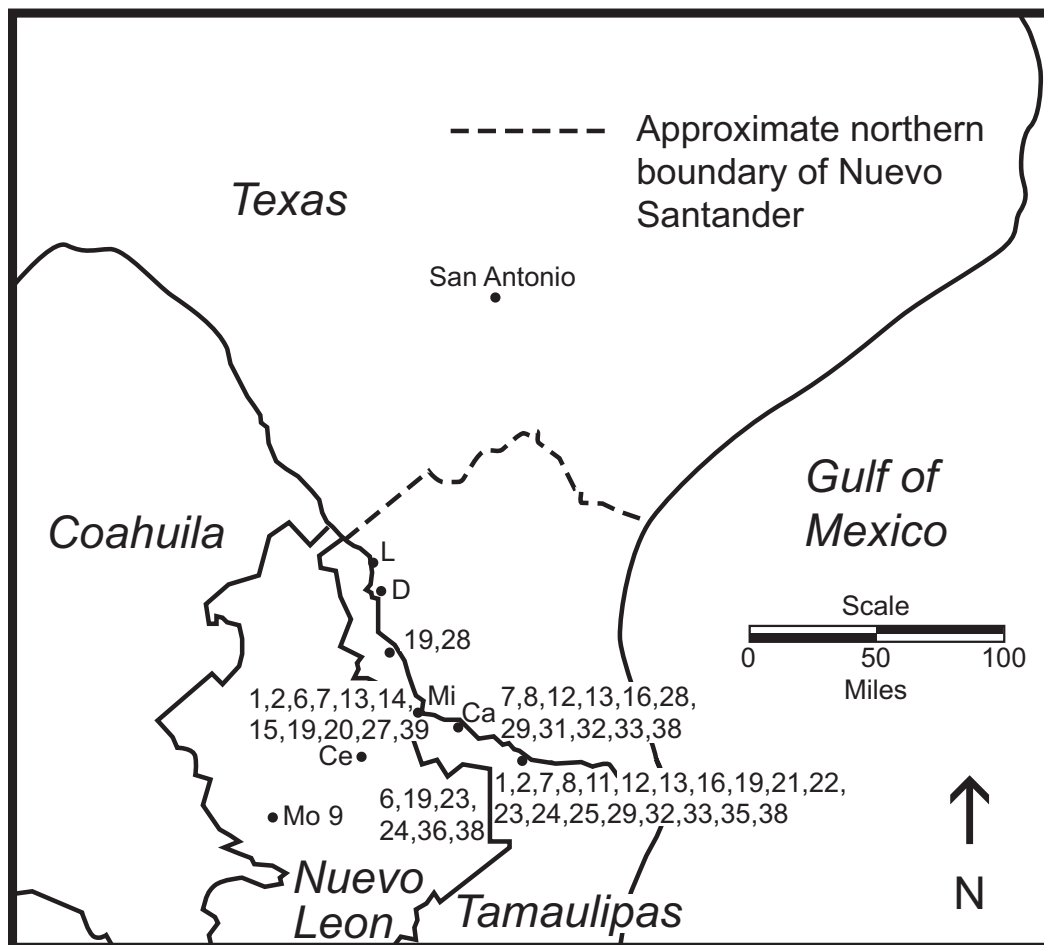


Figure 4: Map of the Indian groups associated with Mier, Reynosa, eastern Nuevo León, Monterrey, Zapata County, and Hidalgo County. Numbers correspond to those used in Table 4. Community names have been abbreviated as follows: L=Laredo, D=Dolores, Rv=Revilla, Mi=Mier, Ca=Camargo, Ry=Reynosa, Ma=Matamoros, Ce=Cerralvo, and Mo=Monterrey.

communicate with surrounding groups to announce a meeting with Escandón (Salinas 1990:29). Comecrudo, Spanish for “those who eat raw food,” is a name that was applied to at least three other unrelated groups (Salinas 1990:35).

In 1755 Escandón reported to the viceroy that the pobladores at Mier totaled 166 individuals in 27 families, besides those who had not registered, and several servants (Guerra 1989:17). He mentioned two operative irrigation canals along the Río

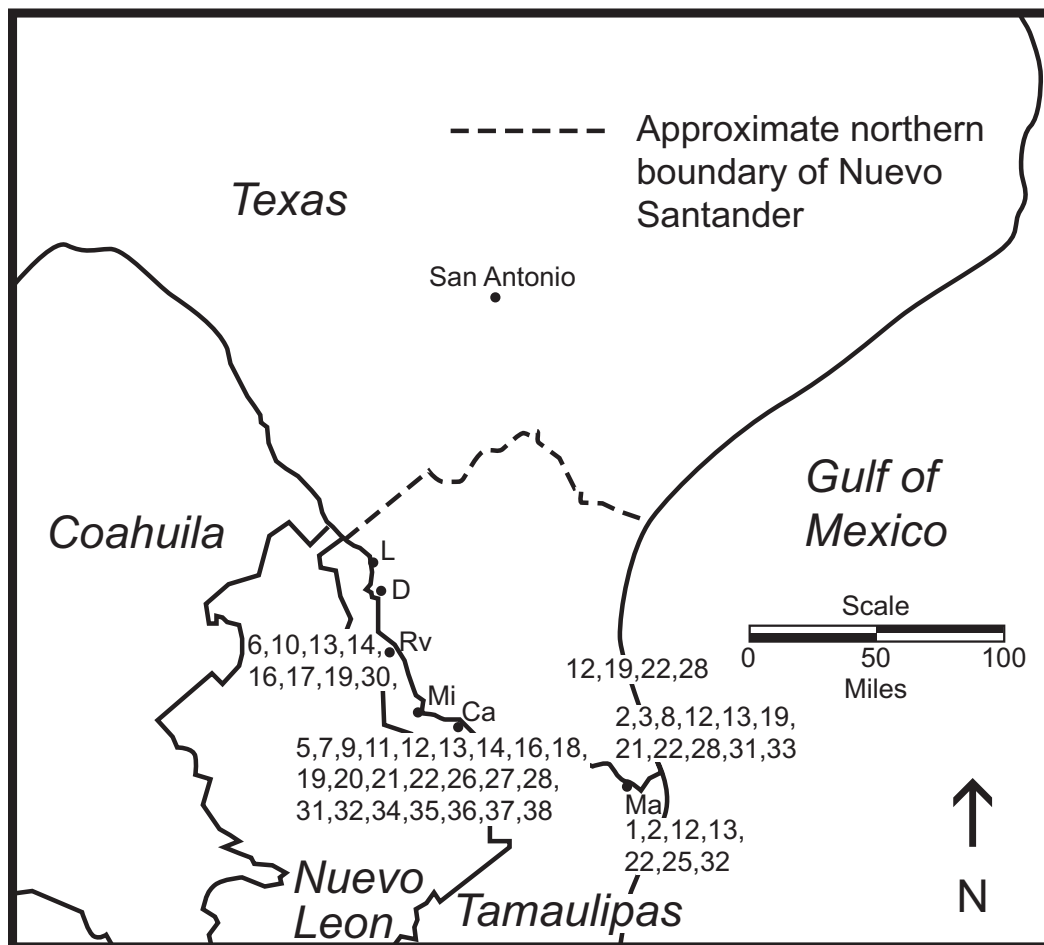


Figure 5: Map of the Indian groups associated with Revilla, Willacy County, Camargo, Cameron County, and Matamoros. Numbers correspond to those used in Table 4. Community names have been abbreviated as follows: L=Laredo, D=Dolores, Rv=Revilla, Mi=Mier, Ca=Camargo, Ry=Reynosa, Ma=Matamoros, Ce=Cerralvo, and Mo=Monterrey.

Alamo, fertile planting fields, and abundant fishing (Guerra 1989:17-18). Although he does not quantify, Escandón reported there are many peaceful Indians who reside and work with the colonists (Guerra 1989:18). Two years later when Agustín López de la Cámara Alta inspected Mier there were 95 members of the Garza tribe (28 men and 67 women and children), led by Francisco and Margarita, a member of the extinct Zalayas group who had become a leader of the Garzas (Guerra 1989:23). She was described

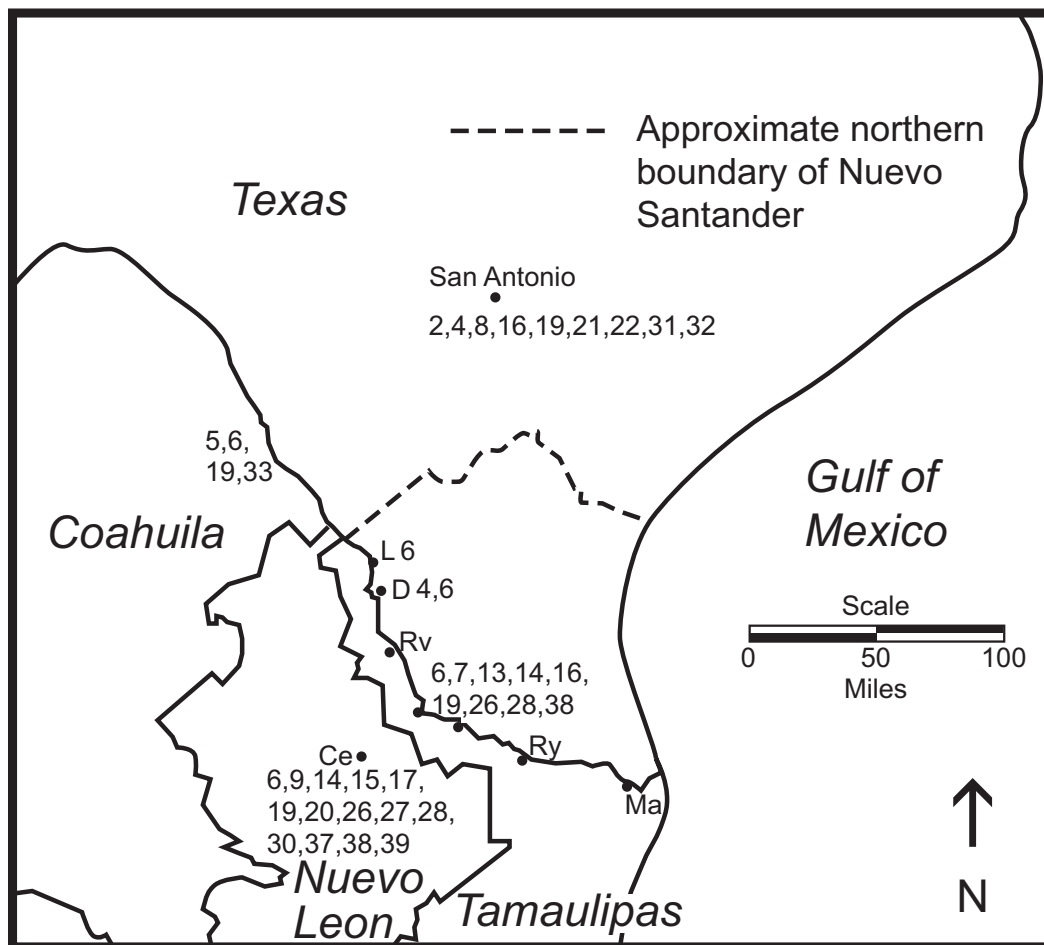


Figure 6: Map of the Indian groups associated with San Antonio missions, Coahuila missions, Laredo, Dolores, Starr County, and Cerralvo. Numbers correspond to those used in Table 4. Community names have been abbreviated as follows: L=Laredo, D=Dolores, Rv=Revilla, Mi=Mier, Ca=Camargo, Ry=Reynosa, Ma=Matamoros, Ce=Cerralvo, and Mo=Monterrey.

as a widow, a Christian, and a translator who lived in the home of Capt. Jose Florencio de Chapa so he could better subjugate them (Guerra 1989:23). The census also included 27 members of the Malahuecos group (8 men and 19 women and children), which was led by Antonio de la Cruz.

López de la Cámara Alta inspected Nuevo Santander in 1757 and recorded 14 Indian groups for the Río Grande area (Salinas 1990:30). He wrote observations about

eight of these that he grouped together as having similar cultural traits. For example, he noted that all of them were tattooed, although he could discern no correlation between the tattoo patterns and their ethnic affiliation (Salinas 1990:31). The men of these groups sported tattoos only on their faces, while women adorned both their faces and bodies (Salinas 1990:31). López de la Cámara Alta alluded that these eight groups spoke dialects of the same language, which may have been Comecrudo (Salinas 1990:31).

La Mision de la Purísima Concepción

The mission at Mier seems to have existed in name only from its establishment in 1753, with no record of any structures until the construction of the church Purísima Concepción began in 1780 and was completed in 1795 in the main town square (Guerra 1989:31, Salinas 1990:157). Irrigation projects in neighboring towns of Revilla and Camargo failed, either because the rivers were too entrenched or floods wiped out any efforts to dig canals or plant in the alluvial soils. The same situation prevailed at Mier. The mission, if it existed at all in the early years of the settlement, probably could not have provided for the Indians. They would have been forced to continue hunting and gathering for themselves, much like the situation in neighboring towns.

Mier did not have a resident priest until 1767; instead, the settlement relied on the priest at Camargo for the first fourteen years of its existence. Incidentally, no mission lands were granted until 1767 when the pobladores also received their *porciones* and *solares*, or town lots. The mission was assigned Porción 79, but I have never been able to find a map with that numbered *porción* on it. The closest I came was on a 1985 city planning map in the Presidente Municipal's office that has "Tierras de la Mision" written across six unnumbered *porciones* south of the Río Alamo. They are labeled from east to west, Lajita, Borrega, Corral de Barranca, Penitas, Tepehuaje, and Santa Domingo. A

table included on the map gives the dimensions and areas of the porciones, which total more than 150 hectares. The planning map was drawn by civil engineer Jesus Gomez Cuellar, who based it on another 1958 map.

Graphic Representation of Indigenous Individuals or Groups

There are two undated and anonymous drawings in the archives at Mier that depict Indians and appear to have been drawn by a non-European artist, based on several graphic representations (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998). The drawings must be post-1795 because a completed church is depicted.

The first drawing shows a Friar Pedro Martín addressing three Indians, who may represent the leaders of their respective groups (Figure 7). Their names are given as Achitome, Oxtipaque, and Tuzcatp, or Tuzcatl. In the background is the mission church, which was completed after the 1780s. In the upper right corner are a glyph and the word, “cynapicatly,” which seems to indicate an indigenous artist, perhaps with a Nahuatl background (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998).

The second drawing depicts José de Escandón and three figures that greatly resemble those from the first drawing, except they all have Christian names: Juan Serrano, Pedro Arias, and Joseph Peres Lozano (Figure 8). The caption, “Aquí se demuestra como el Conde de Sierra Gorda repartió los solares a las 27 familias fundadoras de Mier,” can be translated, “This demonstrates how José de Escandón, Count of the Sierra Gorda, distributed town lots to the 27 founding families of Mier” (author’s translation). The above three names are not among any version of the list of pobladores for Mier, and may actually represent the Christian names adopted by converted Indians. If this is indeed the case, then it is interesting that Indians were



Figure 7: Depiction of Indigenous leaders(?) and a priest from Mier circa 1790. (From Casa Cultura Archivo de Ciudad Mier.)

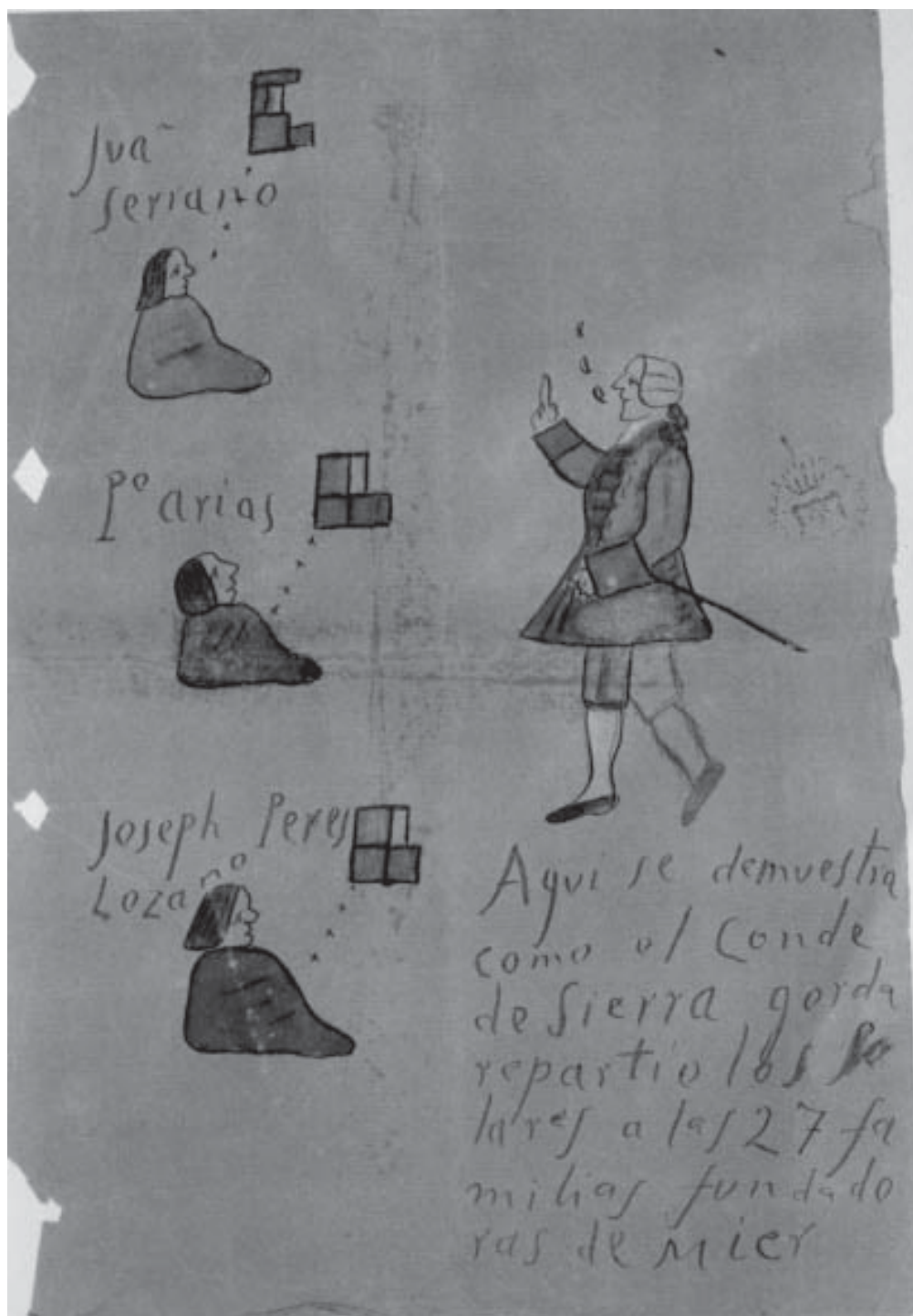


Figure 8: Depiction of perhaps the same Indigenous leaders, now with Christian names, and José de Escandón from Mier circa 1790. (From Casa Cultura Archivo de Ciudad Mier.)

included in the distribution of town lots instead of with the porciones set aside for the mission in 1767. The graphic style of the elements that tie each depicted individual to property suggests a non-European artist (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998).

Named Indian Groups

The following descriptions concentrate on the groups associated with the mission Purísima Concepción at Mier, including the Malagueros (aka Malaguitas or Malahuecos), Garzas, and Zalayas. These three groups, all of which were native to an area between Cerralvo and the Río Grande, are consistently associated with the mission at Mier before 1790 (Salinas 1990:157-158). Between 1790 and 1818, other area Indian groups are mentioned in missionary reports, including Aguichacas, Anda el Camino, Chinitos, Cotonames, Cueros Quemados, and Pajaritos (Salinas 1990:158). Two others, the Western and Eastern Carrizos, are included in the discussion because they were significant cultural groups whose boundary was drawn at Mier. Likewise, the Guajolotes or Cacalotes are discussed because they were also recorded in the vicinity of Mier.

Malaguitas or Malahuecos

The Malaguitas or Malahuecos, as they were first recorded, represent one of the few groups of Indians that it is possible to trace from Nuevo León to the Río Grande with some certainty (Salinas 1990:46-47). The Malahuecos are identified in 1735 as having attacked Cerralvo and nearby settlements (Salinas 1990:46-47). They were living between the Río Sabinas and the Río San Juan at that time, not far from what later became Revilla and Mier (Salinas 1990:47). In 1756 Malaguitas and Garza Indians are recorded living in the vicinity of Mier, with a combined population of 132

(Salinas 1990:47). A year later López de la Cámara Alta mentions both groups as living near Mier, having encountered 220 people in 50 families (Campbell and Campbell 1985:29; Salinas 1990:47). Most of these Indians lived on the north side of the Río Grande, but 32 Malaguitas lived on the outskirts of Mier (Salinas 1990:47). The last mention of the Malaguitas at Mier is in 1772 when their population combined with the Garzas totaled 85 (Salinas 1990:47). The Malaguitas, mentioned as residents in ten different missions, continued to migrate along the Río Grande from Coahuila to the Gulf Coast, where they lived at least until 1812 (Salinas 1990:49). The place name Malahuecos is still used for an area along the Río Alamo, to the west of Mier.

Garzas

The name Garzas (Spanish for “herons”) was first applied to various groups in the Cerralvo area as early as 1715, but from 1756 until 1829 the Garzas were reported living at or near Mier, some on the north bank of the Río Grande (Salinas 1990:96-97). In 1770 their population at Mier was 101; by 1793 this number was 300, suggesting an increase by immigration or by absorbing remnants of other groups and not by the natural result of births (Salinas 1990:97). The Garzas are never recorded east of Mier and were probably connected to the area between Cerralvo and the Río Grande communities (Salinas 1990:97).

Zalayas

The Zalayas are mentioned in missionary documents from 1688 in Cerralvo and again in 1735 as one of the groups that attacked Agualeguas, near Cerralvo (Salinas 1990:113). The one mention of any Zalayas along the Río Grande comes in 1757 when Margarita, identified as the last of the Zalayas, is reported living with the Garzas in Mier. She had been baptized in Agualeguas and was serving as the leader of the Garzas. This

is the only mention of a woman leader anywhere along the Río Grande (Salinas 1990:113) She lived in the home of Capt. Jose Florencio de Chapa so he could better subjugate the Garzas (Guerra 1989:23). Francisco is another leader mentioned for the Garzas at this time (Guerra 1989:23). Instead of being contradictory, the situation may be that the Garzas and other indigenous groups had distinct war leaders and political leaders. Among the vocabulary Albert Gatschet (1891) collected for the Comecrudo language are words for at least two kinds of leaders (Swanton 1940:76, 92 as cited in Salinas 1990:130). This is also supported by a comment made by Escondón that the leaders of the Indian groups had authority only in times of war (1798:1-5; as cited in Salinas 1990:130).

Aguichacas

Missionary reports also contain information about groups that did not enter a mission, but were located nearby, such as the Aguichacas. This group is mentioned in various reports between 1790 and 1814 as living near Reynosa and Mier (Salinas 1990:31). Salinas (1990:31) suggests that this group was native to the area even though their group name does not appear in earlier reports.

Anda el Camino

The Anda el Camino is another group mentioned in missionary reports from Mier dating to between 1809 and 1818, and from Reynosa between 1797 and 1816 (Salinas 1990:32). Their name is Spanish for “the wanderers,” and they were noted for frequently visiting the towns and ranching settlements (Salinas 1990:32).

Chinitos

“Chinitos” is a Spanish diminutive form of the name for Chinese, however, it is not likely that this group represented a Chinese-Indian population (Salinas 1990:95).

This group is mentioned only in late missionary documents from between 1790 and 1818, when they are reported living near Revilla and supporting themselves by hunting (Salinas 1990:95). They probably represent the merging remnants of several groups from the Cerralvo area (Salinas 1990:95).

Cotonames

The Cotonames were first recorded living near Mier in 1757 by López de la Cámara Alta. They were also associated with the La Sal del Rey deposits in modern Hidalgo County, Texas (Salinas 1990:40). In later decades this group was affiliated with Reynosa, while their association with the salt deposits remains constant (Salinas 1990:40-41). Cotonames are linked to Mier and Reynosa by various documents from between 1808 and 1831, although their population is evidently declining (Salinas 1990:42). Based on linguistic data, the Cotonames and another local group called the Eastern Carrizos or Yué are either the same group or two distinct groups that shared the same language (Salinas 1990:42-43).

Cueros Quemados

Cueros Quemados (Spanish for “burned skins”) are first mentioned in 1735 in connection to attacks in the Cerralvo area, but later documents place the group on both banks of the Río Grande between Revilla and Camargo (Salinas 1990:96). In 1750 Escandón counted 33 Cueros Quemados (10 men and 23 women and children), who he reported were born and raised opposite Camargo on the north bank of the Río Grande where the Río San Juan joins it, or modern Starr County (Salinas 1990:96). Two years later the group is congregated at Camargo’s mission along with six other groups (Salinas 1990:96). By 1757 the Cueros Quemados population at Camargo is down to 23 (6 men and 17 women and children) and they are noted to travel upstream

as far as Revilla (Salinas 1990:96). The last references to the Cueros Quemados are during the 1790s in Camargo and Mier (Salinas 1990:96).

Pajaritos

Pajaritos is Spanish for “little birds,” and this name was applied to Indian groups in various areas, but here it refers to a group that was first recorded by Alonso de León in the Río San Juan valley (Salinas 1990:102). The Pajaritos were reported in 1735 to have been involved with the attacks on the Cerralvo area, but in 1748 they are reported as frequent and peaceful visitors to Cerralvo (Salinas 1990:102). Six men and 11 women and children of this same group entered the mission at Camargo in 1751 (Salinas 1990:103). By 1757 their numbers at the mission had grown to 56 (19 men and 37 women and children), obviously not the result of natural population increase due to births, but rather migration (Salinas 1990:103). This group continues to be recorded at Camargo’s mission until at least 1809. They are also reported up the Río Grande as far as Mier between 1790 and 1818 (Salinas 1990:103).

Western Carrizos

Carrizos, Spanish for “reeds” or “canes,” is a name that was applied to various Indian groups spread over a wide geographical area, probably none of which were related by anything else than the type of shelter they built: a frame covered with reeds or canes (Campbell and Campbell 1985:62-63; Salinas 1990:91). The Carrizos in the Mier area lived on both sides of the Río Grande and can be divided into Western Carrizo and Eastern Carrizo, with the boundary between the two falling roughly at Mier (Salinas 1990:91-92). In 1728 Carrizos appear on a map on the north bank of the Río Grande near its intersection with the Río Alamo, or in present-day Zapata and Starr counties (Alvarez Barreiro 1729, map, 1730, 108-118; Wheat 1957, 82-84, map

115c; as cited in Salinas 1990:92). Also called Tusan in some mission registers, the Western Carrizos were referred to by the Garza Indian group as Yemé (Salinas 1990:92-93). A sampling of their language, collected by Jean Louis Berlandier between 1826 and 1834, is related to the Comecrudo language (Goddard 1979:370-371, 378-381; as cited in Salinas 1990:93). Few cultural traits were noted for the Western Carrizos, but we do know that they looked for work at Dolores in 1754 and brought animal hides there to trade in 1757 (Salinas 1990:92). A few of the foods they ate were recorded in 1768, including maguey bulbs, snakes, rabbits, and rats (Salinas 1990:92).

Eastern Carrizos

The Eastern Carrizos were associated with the salt deposits in modern Hidalgo County when they were first recorded in 1757 as living near the Gulf coast (Salinas 1990:93). Later documents associate the group with the area on the north bank from Camargo to the Gulf coast, where they hunted, fished, and collected wild plant foods (Salinas 1990:94). The Eastern Carrizos, called Yué by other Indian groups, spoke a language that is related to the Cotoname language (Goddard 1979:369-371, 377-380; as cited in Salinas 1990:94).

Guajolotes or Cacalotes

The Guajolotes or Cacalotes (Nahuatl for “turkeys” or “ravens”) are names given to several Indian groups by the Spaniards. The Guajolotes were recorded in 1750 as one of six groups in the area around Camargo with Blas de Santa María as their leader (Campbell and Campbell 1985:62; Salinas 1990:45). After 1752 no mention is made of this group, instead a similar name of Cacalotes appears. Salinas (1990:45) suggests that either one name replaced the other for the same group, or that the Guajolotes may have lost their ethnic identity and the name Cacalotes refers to a distinct

group. López de la Cámara Alta is the first to use Cacalotes in his 1757 inspection report to describe a group in the vicinity of Camargo and Revilla, with some members living near the salt deposits (Salinas 1990:45).

Cultural Summary of the Indigenous Population of the Region

In 1747 Escandón estimated the Indian population south of the Río Grande at 2,500 families or about 7,500 individuals. The largest group, the Comecrudos, both fished and hunted deer and birds with bows and arrows. The Spaniards were struck by their dress, or lack thereof, enough to note that while the men wore no clothing, the women wore skirts made of animal skins or grass (Salinas 1990:29). Smoke signals were used to communicate with surrounding groups when the Comecrudos' political leader wanted to announce a meeting with Escandón (Salinas 1990:29). Later analysis of the Comecrudo language would show separate terms for political leaders and war leaders (Swanton 1940:76, 92 as cited in Salinas 1990:130).

The two most common forms of indigenous architecture were the square ramada, or brush arbor which provided a roof and perhaps one or two walls; and the round frame covered with reeds or canes, which was associated not only with the Carrizo Indians, but also the Garzas and Malaguitas or Malahuecos. Neither type structure offered a complete enclosure.

Early reports note the prevalence of tattooing among the Indian groups known from Mier and surrounding communities. In the San Antonio missions, "Borrado," which apparently referred to heavily tattooed people, was applied as a generic term to Indians from various groups along the Lower Río Grande Valley. Men restricted their tatoos to their faces, but women wore tattoos on their faces and their bodies. Tattooing practices among various groups must have been similar as membership in a particular group was

not evident to observers based on tattooed designs alone.

Very few specific animals that were hunted by Indians were recorded by Spanish observers, however, it is thought that deer was the principal game animal, followed by the peccary (Campbell 1998: 51; Salinas 1990:115). Smaller animals hunted include rabbits, rats, mice, turkey, birds in general, and snakes (Salinas 1990:116). In later times, wild horses and the colonists' livestock were also preyed upon (Salinas 1990:116).

As hunters and gatherers, Indian groups practiced seasonal migration, travelling to different areas according to a schedule of harvest. They may have used canoes or travelled by foot using a system of trails (Salinas 1990:128). Sandals made of leather were used to protect the feet from thorns, although numerous references suggest Indians were often barefoot (Campbell 1998: 51; Salinas 1990:129).

Pobladores undoubtedly learned the most about native plants from Indians. Edible seeds, berries, and plants that were favorites of the Indians became part of the colonists' diet, including mesquite beans, prickly pear fruit, ebony seeds, wild cucumber, and chili peppers (Campbell 1998: 51; González 1998:79). Knowledge of medicinal herbs, barks, leaves, roots and seeds was also learned from the Indians. For example, juice extracted from mesquite leaves was used to treat pink eye, while a tea from the seeds of the wild olive plant was used as a cough medicine (González 1998:77). Colonial documents record a few herbal remedies, including treating fevers with a tea from cenizilla leaves and using ebony seeds as purgatives (Salinas 1990:134).

Herbal medicine as practiced by the Indian groups of the area did not help them defend against diseases brought by the Europeans, such as syphilis, smallpox, and measles (Salinas 1990:134, 140). Epidemics repeatedly ravaged the indigenous

populations, in one case reducing the number of Indian families at Camargo in 1749 from 37 to 15 families (Salinas 1990:140).

Indian attacks on communities of Nuevo León were common until the last decades of the eighteenth century (Jones 1979:37). These attacks were a consequence of slave-hunting expeditions as early as the 1580s, followed by the harsh treatment of indigenous people and their forced resettlement into *congregaciones*, or Indian villages, by Governor Martín Zavala (Jones 1979:36). Incessant attacks by Indians also characterized the settlements of Nuevo Santander, especially during the second half of the eighteenth century when many colonists were killed or injured and large numbers of livestock were run off (Jones 1979:77). The prevalence of attack is reflected in the area's architecture, for example by 1786 a *fortaleza*, or fort was completed at Los Corralitos, near Dolores (Fleming and Perttula 1999:395). The threat of Indian attack continued into the nineteenth century. Laredo's 1819 census documents the abandonment of 37 of its 54 ranchos because of raids by Indians (Jones 1979:77).

The Sale and Adoption of Indian Children

There are a few accounts of Indian children being sold to pobladores in exchange for domesticated animals and other goods (Salinas 1990:39, 52, 120, 130). The sale of children is one factor proposed by Salinas (1990:140) for the decline in Indian population:

“In the late eighteenth century, particularly along the lower Río Grande, discouraged parents sometimes sold children to Spaniards to become servants and laborers. This was common enough at the time to warrant a viceregal investigation (Riperdá 1772; Cabello 1780; Evia 1968:165)”

Genealogical research has revealed that some of the pobladores of Mier adopted Indian children (Galindo 1999:38-39). For example, Gaspar García and Gertrudis Barrera, who received Mier Porción 1, adopted three children: a son and two daughters. The baptismal records for both daughters state they are adopted Indians (SAGA publications 1989). Their first adopted daughter, María Josefa García, was baptized January 3, 1769. She died on March 21, 1781.

The second adopted daughter, María Antonia García, was baptized February 25, 1770. She married Jose Pablo Leal on May 20, 1800. That year they appear on the census for Mier, living at the family's Rancho de Guardado (Overstreet 1990:68). Both of them are listed as though they are a part of a household headed by her brother, José Antonio García and his wife Gertrúdz Flores. I do not know the actual date when the census was taken, therefore, it is impossible to tell if they are married yet.

That Pablo Leal is listed as part of Antonio García's family would seem to indicate that he was a workman living with the family. That Antonia García, daughter (albeit adopted) of one of the most prominent families in Mier, would marry a workman and not the son of a landowner (like most of her siblings), seems to indicate that she did not have the same status as the natural children of Gaspar García and Gertrudis Barrera or his later wife Guadalupe Flores. If Antonia García and Pablo Leal are in fact married when they appear on the 1800 census, then their placement with her brother's family also suggests they did not enjoy the same status or independence as other married couples. Pablo Leal died on December 1, 1812, at age 39. Antonia García lived to be at least 76 years old, dying on December 9, 1846. She does not reside at Rancho de Guardado when the 1817 census is taken (Galindo 1999:99-102) and apparently she and Pablo did not have children. Pablo's parents were José Toribio Leal and María

Petra Palacios, who baptized one child in Cerralvo in 1763 and three others in Camargo between 1770 and 1773.

Conclusion

The information presented here about Indian groups is from colonial government and mission reports. Clearly a number of various indigenous groups populated the frontier along the Río Grande at the time of the arrival of the pobladores and continued to co-exist at least through the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Large numbers of indigenous people undoubtedly died from disease or physical violence with the colonists. However, through the social mechanisms of marriage, adoption, and religious conversion at least some indigenous people were incorporated or assimilated themselves into colonial society. They also contributed their knowledge, physical labor and creative energies on the ranches and toward the construction of Mier's church on the main plaza (Figure 9). Certain carved elements such as the floral motifs in the stone around the church's entrance suggest an artist of indigenous descent (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998). Although specific contributions by indigenous individuals may be difficult to pinpoint because of a lack of documentation, this chapter demonstrates that even though some questions about the indigenous population cannot be answered, it is still informative to pose the questions and glean as much as possible from the available information.



Figure 9: Detail of the stone carving around the main entrance to La Mision de la Purisima Concepción on the main plaza in Mier. The floral motifs suggest indigenous artistry (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998).

Chapter 3

Mining Community Origins of Nuevo Santander Colonists

Introduction

A majority of the Nuevo Santander colonists who arrived at the Spanish frontier in 1753 and became farmers and ranchers in Mier, Tamaulipas, heralded from the nearby mining community of Cerralvo, Nuevo León. This chapter examines the ethnicities of the population and compares the geography, natural resources, and economies between Mier and Cerralvo to better understand the pobladores' processes of adapting to the ranchos along the Lower Río Grande. It explores how the settlement at Mier reflected both continuities with, and variation from, settlement in Cerralvo. Cattle and a distinct herding method are traced through Cerralvo to Mier, establishing the invaluable contributions made by Nuevo Santander colonists to the nineteenth-century Anglo cattle industry.

The two settlements are in distinct environmental zones—Cerralvo is in the foothills of the Sierra Madres Oriental, whereas, Mier, although only 60 kilometers to the northeast, is located at the confluence of two rivers in the Gulf Coastal Plain (Figure 1 on page 7). Cerralvo's economy developed in large part because of its mineral wealth, while farming and ranching were the principle industries of Mier.

The colony of Nuevo Santander is not usually included when scholars consider the Spanish colonial influence in Texas (Bolton 1921, Tjarks 1997, Yoakum 1935). Thus, the colony of Nuevo Santander is not usually considered part of Texas history, despite the 24 porciones of Mier on the north bank of the Río Grande that were officially recognized by Texas as the legal property of the descendants of Nuevo Santander colonists in accordance with the terms of the 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. Until

recent decades (Alonzo 1998, Bonine 2001, Chipman 1992, Fleming 1998, Fleming and Pertulla 1999, George 1975, Jackson 1986, Jones 1979, Montejano 1987, Perttula, et. al., 1999), the contributions of Nuevo Santander ranchers have gone ignored, despite the debt owed to these early vaqueros by the nineteenth-century Anglo cattle industry. Land was granted to colonists on both banks of the Lower Río Grande from Laredo to Brownsville. Therefore, this study is also undertaken to supplement Texas history, specifically, in Starr County, which includes about one-third of the total land granted by the Spanish Crown to the inhabitants of Mier.

I begin by setting the context with a brief review of the history of the founding of Mier, followed by a summary of the early history of Cerralvo containing information about the economy, natural resources, demography, and climate of the area. In turn, I offer a more indepth look at Mier's population and rancho settlements and provide an analysis of the continuities in lifeways between the two communities.

Mier, Tamaulipas

Mier grew out of the ranch headquarters of José Felix de Almondoz that was formed in 1734 by 166 people in 19 families (Casteñada 1976:171; Graham 1994:19). It was originally called El Paso del Cántaro and located 8 leagues northwest of Camargo. When Camargo was established in 1749 these 19 families were forced to enroll as settlers of that community or be driven off their land (Casteñada 1976:171). These same families would form the core of the population of Mier in 1753, when the town was renamed and organized as part of Nuevo Santander. Mier was the site of an easy ford of the Río Grande and also had high-quality limestone beds for construction material (Scott 1937:81). It was primarily a ranching community, but also enjoyed good

commerce with Nuevo León, where many settlers had their origins and maintained connections (Scott 1937:81).

Cerralvo, Nuevo León

Thirty-eight of the 57 families who settled Mier were from Cerralvo. Although relatively close together, the towns are in distinct ecotones that are dominated by the Río Grande and the piedmont region of the Sierra Madres Oriental, respectively. Cerralvo's history reflects its birth as a mining community, whereas the set of resources available in Mier did not include minerals suitable for mining. Despite these significant differences, much continuity with Cerralvo is evident in the settlement of Mier, especially with regards to cattle herding and livestock raising.

Cerralvo was founded April 20, 1582, by Don Luís de Carvajal y de la Cueva, who christened it Ciudad de León (Hoyo 1962; León 1986:18; Contreras López 1999:29). In this same area before 1577, Alberto del Canto had established Las Minas de San Gregorio (Hoyo 1962; León 1986:18). In 1626 don Martín de Zavala renamed León, San Gregoria de Cerralvo (Hoyo 1962; León 1986:18). These multiple place names reflect the difficulty in sustaining frontier populations and the need to periodically revitalize the settlements. Cerralvo is located in the foothills of the Sierra Madres Oriental near where two geological formations, Midway and Mendez, come together (Hayward 1965:9). The Midway formation is characterized by shale with some interbedded lenses and layers of sandstone and limestone, with conglomeratic beds in some areas at the base (Hayward 1965:8). The Mendez formation is gray to blue gray shales in compact but poorly bedded layers with a few thin calcareous sandstone beds (Hayward 1965:9). To the south-southwest of Cerralvo are the Sierra de los Picachos or the Cerralvo Mountains, where many of the area mines are located (Hayward

1965:9). The silver and lead mines are dug into lower Cretaceous limestone and have through the centuries produced more than 50 million dollars of ore, although production has dropped significantly since 1955 (Hayward 1965:9). Cerralvo would have attracted a labor force of free and enslaved workers to its mines. This would have likely included Indians, Blacks, mestizos, and mulattos. No doubt, peninsulares and criollos were also attracted to Cerralvo as a frontier mining town with potential for wealth, but they were likely the minority of population. A lack of demographic data for Cerralvo precludes further inferences, however, the preceding assumptions seem reasonable, given the following statistics for Zacatecas as cited by Herrera Casasús (1998):

“Pero volviendo al siglo XVIII, hemos visto que había muchos esclavos negros laborando en las minas del país. Tan solo en las minas de Zacatecas, por 1570, había 300 españoles y más de 500 esclavos (Archivo General de la Nación (AGN), Inquisición, 813, 6, as cited in Aguirre Beltran 1940:211). En 1608 en la misma ciudad habitaban 300 españoles peninsulares, 1200 criollos, pero ‘los indios y negros son en mayor número porque entre unos y otros habrá 3000 con mestizos y mulatos’ (AGN, Inquisición, 786, 4, as cited in Aguirre Beltran 1940:211). Muchos de los mulatos cimarrones y libres se acomodaron en las minas de las provincias del norte, in las haciendas y en las congregas” (Herrera Casasús 1998:45).

Author’s translation:

By the eighteenth century there had been many black slaves toiling in the mines of New Spain. For example, in the mines of Zacatecas in 1570, there were 300 españoles and more than 500 slaves (Archivo General de la Nación, Inquisición, 813, 6, as cited in Aguirre Beltran 1940:211). In 1608 in the same city there were 300 peninsulares, 1200 criollos, with Indians and Blacks in the majority at 3,000 including mestizos and mulattos (Archivo General de la Nación, Inquisición, 786, 4, as cited in Aguirre Beltran 1940:211). Many of the runaway and free mulattos worked in the mines, the haciendas, and in the congregas of the northern provinces (Herrera Casasús 1998:45).

Eighteenth-century Cerralvo was described as having a fair amount of silver, abundant lead and some copper, as well as the necessary infrastructure in the form of grinding mills to process the ore (León 1961:348). As mentioned previously, Cerralvo's early existence was as a mining community, which, in turn, was a consequence of Spain's initial exploration and settlement strategy for New Spain, based on mineral resources. The mountains surrounding Cerralvo were also sources of stones for construction, such as the marble quarried from nearby El Cerro del Topo for use in building facades for houses in Monterrey (Montemayor Hernández 1971:16). Additionally, Cerralvo is described as being relatively safe from attack by the Indian tribes in the area (León 1961:348). This description is curious because it contradicts one of the motivations usually cited for the establishment of Nuevo Santander, namely the threat of attack by Indians on mining communities (Myers 1969:18; George 1975:7, 27). Likely, the threat of attack by nearby indigenous tribes was a topic stressed when requesting governmental assistance, but qualified in other instances, such as when promoting settlement.

Although archival sources do not quantify the Indian population, as many as 70 indigenous tribes are listed for the Cerralvo area (Montemayor Hernández 1971:31). The names most likely represent those imposed by the Spanish, but there is a possibility that some—like los guajolotes (parrots), los garzas (cranes), or los amapolas (poppies)—may represent actual clan names (Montemayor Hernández 1971:33). The Spanish lumped these tribes of the North together as Chichimec, according to Aztec tradition. They were largely hunters and gatherers, who relied mainly on deer, but also fish and bear, depending on the local conditions (Montemayor Hernández 1971:32). Among these indigenous people the Spanish noted a division of labor along gender lines

and a lack of private property (Montemayor Hernández 1971:32-33).

The climate of Cerralvo is a function of its location in the foothills of the Sierra Madres Oriental at their confluence with the Gulf Coastal Plains (Montemayor Hernández 1971:16). The summers are frequently excessively hot, while the winters can be cold. From July to September there is a period of heavy rains and flooding, while in February and March come cold fronts known as *Nortes* (Montemayor Hernández 1971:18). The vegetation varies according to hydrology, orography, and climate from prickly pear cactus and mesquite to conifers and pasture lands (Montemayor Hernández 1971:18). One of the jewels of Cerralvo and likely one of the main attractions for settlement, besides the area's mineral wealth, is its natural spring. Today it is the site of a national park. Named for the huge cypress trees that surround it, Parque El Sabinal is an incredible place. The cool water and the abundant shade easily take 20 degrees off the hottest summer day.

Cerralvo, while it owed its existence to the presence of mineral resources, was also a community that was active in agriculture and ranching. The seventeenth-century historian Juan Díez de la Calle noted the abundance of water in and around Cerralvo and its peaceful countryside (León 1986:25). The settlement was located amongst numerous pastures and fertile lands that produced every kind of cultivated crops, including fruit trees and melons (León 1961:83). Eventually, the tribes that migrated through the area became increasingly hostile and a military detachment was established that reduced the tribes' population, while some individuals became integrated into Cerralvo's population (León 1961:83). Here a contradiction arises, in that descriptions of eighteenth-century Cerralvo emphasize a scarcely populated frontier, where presumably interracial marriages were more likely to occur. Yet, simultaneously there exists the

“myth” that the Nuevo Santander settlers of the North were distinct from their central and southern Mexican counterparts in that they did not intermarry with the indigenous population to the same extent (León 1986:26). The reasons given include the greater animosity that existed between the colonists and the Indians in the North, and differences between mobile versus sedentary indigenous communities (León 1986:26). Clearly Cerralvo would have required a substantial labor force to exploit her mineral wealth, and these laborers would likely have been Indians, Blacks, mestizos, and mulattos. Demographic data for Cerralvo are lacking; however, there is evidence in Mier for a substantial population of *afromestizos* during the eighteenth century (Herrera Casasús 1998).

To summarize, Cerralvo was a mining and cattle community located at the juncture of the mountains and the coastal plain that had sufficient water sources to support the industry, agriculture, and husbandry of the settlement. The climate can be harsh, but for the most part the rains are beneficial, rather than destructive, and provide varied and abundant vegetation, which in turn supports wild and domesticated animals. For much of its early history the community was sparsely populated and its residents were likely multi-ethnic. Initially, there was a significant indigenous population that was slowly either decimated or integrated into *español* society.

At this point, I return to a discussion of Mier that will lend itself to comparison with the above data about Cerralvo.

Pobladores of Nuevo Santander

Despite prospects of certain hardship, Nuevo Santander colonists were attracted to the frontier by the economic opportunities it offered. Each family was given between 100 and 200 pesos, a houseplot on which to build, pasture lands, and agricul-

tural land, with provisions for the construction of irrigation canals and wells, as well as for initial supplies of grain (Herrera Casasús 1998:27). These families, then, were motivated in great part by ambitions for a better life. The money offered the settlers would have been enough for a slave to buy his or her freedom, for example, and allow them to participate in the opportunities of the frontier, not the least of which was the chance to own land (Herrera Casasús 1998:46). Mier was founded without cost to the crown; however, its pobladores did receive land grants.

The practice of enslaving prisoners of war continued longer on the sparsely-populated frontier than in the more heavily-populated areas of New Spain after being officially abolished by the Crown (Zavala 1965:43). Indians taken prisoners in northern Tamaulipas were transported in shackles to México City via San Luis Potosi and ultimately sent as labor reinforcements to Veracruz and La Habana during the second half of the eighteenth century (Herrera Casasús 1998:26).

The ethnicities of the Mier pobladores are often left out of secondary sources. Of the many publications that duplicate the 1753 census, I was able to locate only one that retained the ethnic designations. Even so, only one couple was specifically identified as “españoles” and only one individual was identified as “mestiza.” The 1753 census also enumerates about 36 un-named servants and their family members. As previously stated, the families who were already living in the area when neighboring Camargo was established were forced to register with that settlement or risk losing their property. The Camargo census of 1749 contains casta designations for 16 individuals who also appear on the 1753 census for Mier. All of them are “españoles.”

Of the 103 named persons in the 1753 census for Mier, all 36 adult names appear with the titles, “Don” or “Doña” with the exception of four (Herrera Pérez

1986:99-101). These titles are usually associated with *españoles*. They may also be used to refer to older people, regardless of ethnicity; however, in this case most of the pobladores were younger people. Considering the use of titles, together with the *casta* designations known from the 1749 Camargo census, it seems reasonable to assume that most of the pobladores were *españoles*. The four people who do not receive these titles are: José Bazán Pardo and Ana Salinas, who was identified as a *mestiza*, their son Joaquín Bazán Pardo, and Alonso García Lugo, a soldier with the Royal Squadron.

Joaquín Bazán Pardo was married to Doña Manuela González and he received Mier Porción 34. In the 1767 listing of *porciones* he is referred to simply as Joaquín Bazán (Herrera Pérez 1986:113). It is possible that “Pardo” was a family name, but it is equally possible that it is a *casta* designation which means the offspring of an *español* and a Black (Barnes et. al. 1981:92). This possibility seems more likely, especially given the absence of the “Don” title in the census and the absence of “Pardo” in the context of land granting.

José Bazán Pardo was married to the *mestiza* Ana Salinas and he received Mier Porción 40. His death record states that he was from Cerralvo. Similar to Joaquín’s case, the “Pardo” designation associated with José disappears in the 1767 listing of *porciones*. *Casta* categories are not evident in the marriage records of José and Ana’s four children (SAGA publications 1989); however they surface in the next generation when their grandson Norberto Bazán and his bride Ignacia Bazán are labeled “mulato” and “mulata,” respectively, in their marriage record of November 8, 1809 (Figure 10; Galindo 1999:25). Ignacia’s parents were José Seberiano Bazán and María Gregoria Tanguma who were married in Mier on January 20, 1792.

The soldier Alonso García Lugo was married to Doña Tomasa de la Garza, but

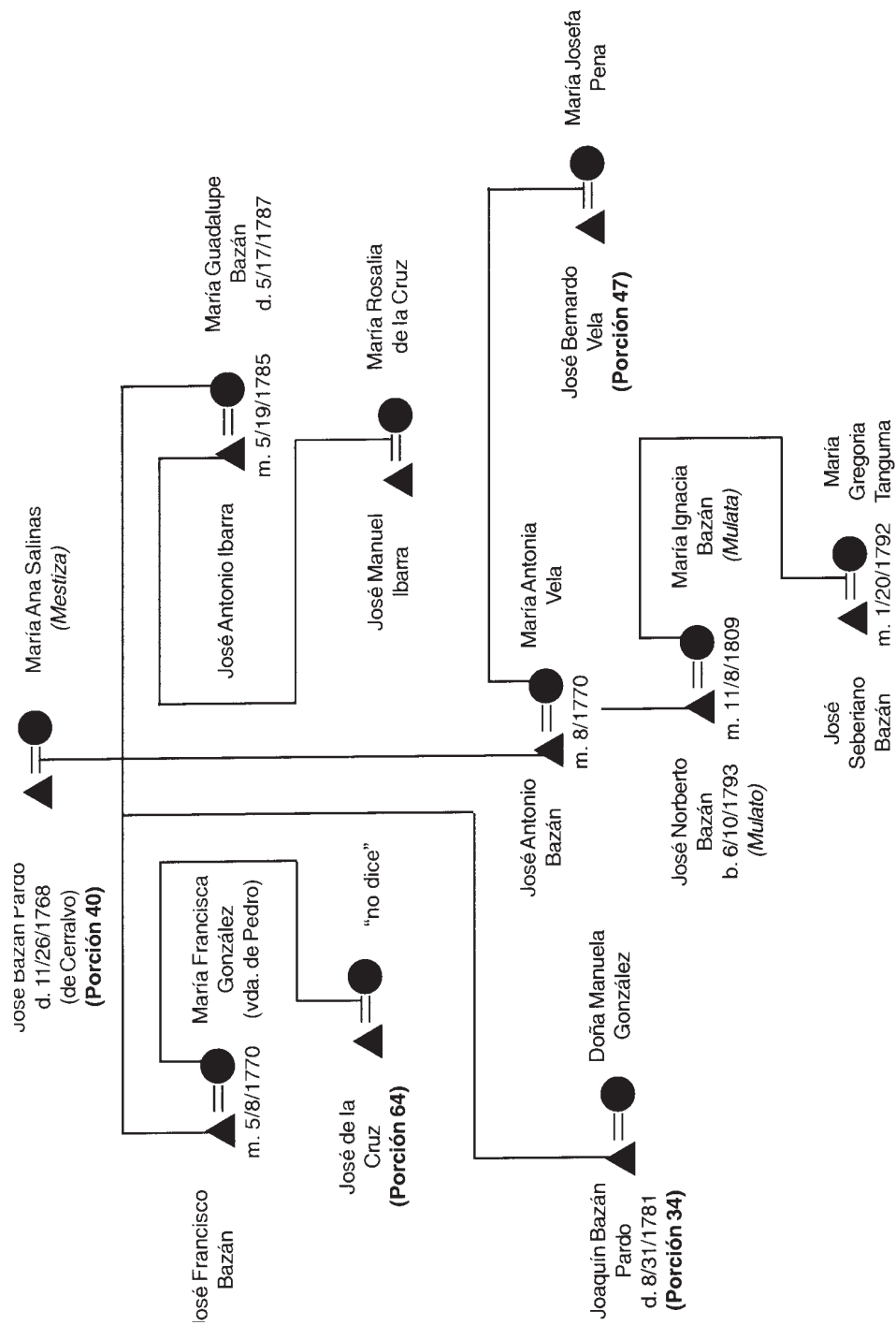


Figure 10: The José Bazán Pardo and María Ana Salinas family, including one third-generation marriage that illustrates the assignment of caste categories (SAGA publications 1989; Galindo 1999:26).

I was unable to locate any baptismal, marriage, or death records for either of them in Mier or Camargo. His name is not among the porcion recipients.

An analysis of ethnicities as registered in the baptismal records for Mier between 1767-1804 demonstrates that the majority of inhabitants were español, or at least registered that way (Herrera Casasús 1998:59). In general, the shortage of peninsulares meant that children of legitimate marriages between español men and Indians, Blacks, or mestizo women produced children that were classified as españoles; while the illegitimate children of español men and Indians, Blacks, or mestizo women were classified as mestizo (Herrera Casasús 1998:60). Maria Luisa Herrera Casasús (1998:59-60) analyzed about 75% of the baptismal records from Mier between 1767-1789 and documented 388 births that breakdown as follows in Table 5:

Table 5
Casta Designations as Registered in Baptismal Records in Mier between 1767-1789¹

Designation	# of Births	Percentage of Total
español	224	57.7%
Indian	34	8.8%
Black	0	
indomestizos	17	4.4%
afromestizos ²	113	29.1%
Total Births	388	100.0%

¹ Herrera Casasús 1998:60

² Afromestizo category includes 69 mulattos (español and Black), 6 lobos (Black and Indian), and 38 coyotes (mulatto and Indian).

Table 5 illustrates that between 1767 and 1789, nearly 58% of births were designated español. Afromestizos form the second largest category with about 29%.

Approximately 13% of births within this time period were Indian or indomestizos. Table 6 shows the casta designations as registered in the 1788 census for Mier.

Table 6
Casta Designations as Registered in 1788 Census for Mier¹

Designation	Population	Percentage of Total
español, Indian, and indomestizos	556	58.0%
Black	102	10.6%
mulattos	200	20.9%
lobos	100	10.4%
Total Population	958	100.0%

¹ Herrera Casasús 1998:70

It is significant that despite no births of Black children being recorded between 1767 and 1789, the Black population of Mier was 102 in 1788. This growth may be the result of migration, or, if Blacks were not Catholic, they may not have registered their children with the Catholic Church. Also significant is the 42% of Mier's population that is either Black or afromestizo in 1788. We cannot know for certain what the Black population in Mier was between 1753 and 1767 unless more census data are located. There may have been Blacks among the servants who were not identified in the 1753 census. The 1788 census stands as an anomaly with respect to the Black population of Mier without casta information for the ensuing years. Sixty-five years later we know that Mier's population is recorded as 5,082 with no Blacks or afromestizos registered (Herrera Casasús 1998:71).

Thus, we catch a glimpse of an emerging Black population on the frontier that is somehow integrated into the mestizo or español categories to the point of disappearing

in about a century's time. The exact mechanism of this transformation remains unclear until census data including *casta* designations for 1788-1853 are located. However, some general conclusions can be drawn from the proliferation of *casta* categories during the eighteenth century. Intermarriage among people of different *casta* categories meant that terms had to be created to describe their children. Also during the eighteenth century, the practice of importing slaves from Africa or from slave traders in the Antilles into New Spain had just about been abandoned because the mulatto population offered a ready supply of cheap manual labor (Herrera Casasús 1998:5-6). "The division of *castas*, through *mestizaje*, or racial mixing, was erasing the visible barrier of skin color and somatic characteristics, therefore diminishing segregation somewhat" (Herrera Casasús 1998:5-6 (author's translation)).

Blacks likely intermarried with *españoles*, Indians, and *mestizos* to the point where in dress and appearance (skin color, hair texture, language, etc.) their descendants became classified as *mestizo* or *español*. The low population density of Nuevo Santander favored the rapid *mestizaje* of the population and opened the way for the resultant *mestizos* to ascend the social scale (Herrera Casasús 1998:46). After all, on the frontier privileges usually reserved for *peninsulares* or *criollos*, like owning property, carrying a weapon, and riding a horse, became available to the *pobladores* in exchange for their population and defense of the frontier, regardless of their race or ethnic backgrounds. Gonzalo Aguirre Beltrán (1972:273) cites the text of an eighteenth-century ordinance, which found it necessary to explain that in the towns of Nuevo Santander the population was not all Indian. The ordinance noted lighter skin color as well as the manner of dress and the use of the Spanish language as factors that distinguished some

Indians as españoles (León 1924:27 as cited in Aguirre Beltran 1972:273).

The information about the ethnicities of the pobladores presented in this section will be explored more deeply in the next chapter; however, at this point it is important to note that one of the major continuities between Cerralvo and Mier is population. As a mining community, Cerralvo probably had a significant percentage of Indians, Blacks, indomestizos, and afromestizos in its population. No doubt many of these people would be attracted to Mier and the other Nuevo Santander settlements along the lower Río Grande. The lack of comprehensive census data for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries makes it difficult to quantify the casta population; however, their presence must not be ignored.

Los Ranchos de Mier

The ranch as a social institution has its beginning in Spain as early as the eleventh or twelfth centuries. Gregorio de Villalobos is credited with bringing the first cattle to the Southern Veracruz Gulf Coast about 1521 from the Antilles (Doolittle 1987:4; Sluyter 1996:164). The descendents of the Villalobos herd were moved into the Valley of México and eventually populated the entire central highlands (Doolittle 1987:4).

The first cattle in northern New Spain, however, were brought by Don Luís Carvajal y de la Cueva to Cerralvo from the Pánuco basin of southern Tamaulipas and northern Veracruz (Doolittle 1987). When Carvajal arrived in 1582 he established Ciudad de León (now Cerralvo, N.L.) at the site of the abandoned Las Minas de San Gregorio (Contreras López 1999:28-29). The cattle that Carvajal brought were not descendents of the Villalobos herd, but rather from a herd imported in 1527 for the soldier-colonists at Santisteban de Pánuco (Doolittle 1987:4). These soldiers had been left in 1522 by Hernán Cortés and by the time Governor Beltran Nuño de Guzmán

considered their request for cattle and horses, they were impoverished and nearly destitute (Doolittle 1987:4).

A large percentage of these soldiers were from the Las Marismas, a wetland area in Spain along the lower Río Guadalquivir of Andalusia, where horse-mounted vaqueros practiced the seasonal movement of cattle between wetlands and hill lands (Butzer 1988, Jordan 1993, Sluyter 1996:161-162, 164). The Pánuco soldier-colonists traded locally-acquired Huastecan Indian slaves for cattle and horses from the Antilles and are credited with introducing the open-range herding system into México (Chipman 1967:157, 198-99; Doolittle 1987:4).

Carvajal received an encomienda and a royal commission to conquer, colonize, and govern a region known as Nuevo Reyno de León that encompassed about 1,614,000 km² (Contreras López 1999:233). Carvajal was required as part of his grant agreement to herd cattle from the Pánuco region and establish a livestock-raising industry (Alessio Robles 1938:101-109 and Reyes 1944:33 as cited in Doolittle 1987:7). His greatest contribution was not the cattle, however, but the horses and a herding technique, unique in New Spain, that involved rounding up feral or semi-feral cattle from horseback (Doolittle 1987:7).

The descendents of Carvajal's herd were most likely moved to the Río Grande along with Nuevo Santander colonists. They would eventually be known as Texas Longhorns (Graham 1994:12). Thus, the system of cattle ranching that sustained the eighteenth-century colonial settler in Nuevo Santander, and that would develop during the latter half of the nineteenth century into a complex capitalist venture by Anglo ranchers in Texas, was an extension of the system that the Spanish imported and adapted to the New World. It was a method that developed along the coast of New

Spain using horse-mounted vaqueros, or cowboys, and dogs to manage cattle herds for long-distance grazing, periodic roundups, branding, and long-distance cattle drives (Graham 1994:9,10). Herded, branded cattle in Spain commonly co-existed with wild, unclaimed stock on unfenced ranges (Graham 1994:9). These are all characteristics of the ranching method adopted by Nuevo Santander colonists.

The ranch was a means for controlling vast areas of unoccupied land with few settlers (Myers 1969:8). Whereas cattle ranching on the coast of New Spain involved huge herds of cattle exclusively that were managed by horse-mounted vaqueros, livestock raising on the Meseta Central in Spain involved smaller herds of mainly sheep and goats, but also a few cattle (William Doolittle, personal communication 2003). These mixed herds also characterized livestock raising in Nuevo Santander.

According to a census conducted in 1757 by Don José Tienda de Cuervo, Mier had 274 inhabitants and a total of 44,015 livestock, including horses, cattle, burros, mules, sheep, and goats (Myers 1969:15, 60). The entire colony, according to the same census, had 80,000 *ganado major* (horses, mules, and cattle), and more than 333,000 *ganado menor* (sheep and goats) (Myers 1969:15). Thus, the number of animals per capita in Mier in 1757 was 161, and the colonists of Mier controlled approximately 11% of the total livestock of Nuevo Santander at that time. Although smaller, tamer herds of mixed animals might be successfully tended by herders on foot, the open range cattle tradition along the lower Río Grande required the use of horse-mounted vaqueros. Apparently the colonists combined the New Spain coastal style of herd management with the strategy adopted from the Spanish Meseta Central to fit their unique circumstances.

The wealth of Nuevo Santander colonists was comprised primarily of their

herds, as cows and cowhides became a medium of exchange and an important economic resource (Myers 1969:8). Trade restrictions imposed by Spain and a lack of ports hampered the development of the livestock industry, but in addition to the sometimes illegal transactions with the French in Louisiana, colonists drove herds to Nuevo León, Coahuila, Monterrey, and the Presidio de Río Grande (present-day Eagle Pass) (Myers 1969:43).

The colony of Nuevo Santander had no presidios and few missions; therefore, the private ranch became the primary method of settlement for the first 100 years (Myers 1969:15; Graham 1994:19). Indeed, “the ranch outlasted the mission and the presidio and became the only great Spanish institution to survive nearly intact into the modern age” (Myers 1969:56). In this respect Mier is not unique – other contemporary settlements in the area also grew out of ranch headquarters, including Laredo, Guerrero, and Matamoros. The later communities of Zapata, Roma/Los Saenz, Garceño, and Río Grande City also originated as ranch headquarters on early land grants (Graham 1994:19, 22).

After land grants were awarded in 1767 during the General Visit of the Royal Commission of the Colonies of Nuevo Santander, the new owners were required to take possession, construct homes on the ranch, mark the boundaries of their property, and stock the land with animals, in order to validate their land claims (Graham 1994:20,22). Thus, many families who had lived for years in the towns of Camargo, Revilla, Reynosa, and Mier, now relocated to ranches (Graham 1994:22). The women and children from those families who could afford it remained in town for amenities such as the schools, churches, and protection from Indian raids that the towns provided, while the men of these families spent certain seasons on the ranch (Graham 1994:22).

The men of the wealthiest families were able to remain in town and instead sent workers to the ranch to care for the animals (Graham 1994:22).

Land grants in Camargo, Revilla, Reynosa, and Mier were awarded in 1767 on both sides of the Río Grande. The river at this time was not a divider of nations, rather, it existed as one clearly defined geographic entity that served to unite people (George 1975:20; Graham 1994:20). The ranchers who claimed land and maintained herds on both banks (Graham 1994:20) best exemplify this fact.

Conclusions: Continuities and Variations

The two most salient differences to consider in a discussion of the settlement patterns of Mier in relation to Cerralvo are the vastly different landscapes and, as a consequence, the varied natural resources available to their inhabitants. As an industry dependent on accessible natural mineral resources, mining had an impact on Cerralvo's economy that has no corollary in Mier's history. Mier, on the other hand, was well-suited for large-scale ranching, which involved cattle, sheep, goats, horses, and mules. The riverine setting and the alluvial soils provided fertile agricultural lands in Mier, although the area was subject to seasonal flooding. The Río Grande also provided Mier a transportation route not available to inland Cerralvo.

Some of the continuities apparent between the two communities include the agricultural and ranching traditions. The inhabitants of Cerralvo developed agriculture and ranching to support the mining industry, so that colonial settlers in Mier would likely have been familiar with, if not proficient at, both classes of activities. Therefore, they would have been attracted by the availability of land and pasture in Mier. The cattle brought to Mier were probably descendents of the herd that Carvajal brought to Cerralvo in the 1580s along with a horse-mounted vaquero style of herd management.

Other continuities derive from the exploitation of stone resources. Material for construction of many of Mier's homes and buildings was quarried from a hill about 1.5 km from the plaza. The settlers' familiarity with the hills of Cerralvo, especially El Cerro del Topo, no doubt aided in their exploitation of the mineral resources around Mier.

The most significant continuity, however, is that of the human population. Settlers from Cerralvo constituted two-thirds of Mier's initial population. People of color and those of mixed-race, above all, would have been attracted to the freedom and opportunities available in both communities, but more so in Mier because of the landgrants. On the frontier people could, with relative ease, improve their social castes, at least on paper, by acting the part. Apparently, mestizos and mulattos who owned land and property, who dressed like *españoles*, and spoke Spanish were regarded as *españoles* in the official records or their children became *españoles* when baptized.

Herein lies a dilemma that future research must consider: when scholars locate the necessary demographic information, how reliable can the racial designations be? Assuming the foregoing to be true, then I suspect census data for the frontier in general would reveal an exaggerated number of *españoles* and an undercount of people of color. We know that both localities were initially surrounded with significant indigenous populations that were eventually decimated by abuse and conflict or incorporated by acculturation into *español* society. We also know, at least in Mier, but likely in Cerralvo as well, that Blacks, mulattos, and *afromestizos* formed a substantial part of the population. What continues to elude us are the exact population figures or proportions and the processes of intergration, acculturation, and/or assimilation. The next chapter attempts to address some of these issues by taking a more in-depth look at ethnicities among the colonists.

Chapter 4

Historical Archaeology and Ethnicities Among Nuevo Santander Rancho Communities in South Texas and Northeastern México

Historical archaeology in South Texas and northeastern México is a nascent field, one well-positioned to incorporate new ideas, especially with regard to the following definition. The current trend in historical archaeology is towards a multi-disciplinary approach, rooted in anthropology and history, which focuses on illuminating the daily life of ordinary people, whose lives have been traditionally ignored in academia (Orser and Fagan 1994). As well, theoretical development has led historical archaeology to an exploration of subjects such as ethnicity, which had not previously been attempted through archaeology. It is through this theoretical development that historical archaeology, as an emerging sub-discipline, has been able to mature with new-found confidence, in part by re-affirming our unique contribution to the greater body of knowledge, namely the diachronic perspective and the material culture dimensions of our work. What remains is for historical archaeologists to successfully apply provocative theoretical stances with equally innovative methodological developments.

Theoretical positions can be difficult to apply to an analysis of the archaeological record at a given historical site, depending on the kinds of artifacts recovered and the types of relevant archival material available. This chapter summarizes the current direction archaeology is taking and compares this trajectory with what has been accomplished to date by historical archaeologists in the area of South Texas and northeastern México, where Spanish colonial ranching developed during the eighteenth century. What follows is a summary of the definition of historical archaeology as put forth by Charles E. Orser, Jr. and Brian M. Fagan (1994) and an application of their

theoretical concept to the artifacts from the previously mentioned 1951 excavations of two sites that likely represent a single colonial rancho on a porción associated with Mier, Tamaulipas, México. Additionally, I challenge several popular myths that persist about the region involving settlement patterns and the ethnic composition of the pobladores.

An Emerging Definition of Historical Archaeology

Orser and Fagan's definition of historical archaeology (1994:14) is based on three past definitions, from which they construct a new comprehensive one. The first has its roots in historic preservation and is characterized by the study of a period, such as classical, medieval, etc. (Orser and Fagan 1994:6-8). It relied on a distinction between historic and pre-historic that correlated to literate v. non-literate. Further definitions were developed to describe situations where literate people had contact with and wrote about non-literate ones.

A second past definition of historic archaeology describes it as a method that uses diverse sources of information, while incorporating approaches from both history and anthropology (Orser and Fagan 1994:8-11). Ethnohistory emerges as the study of the past using non-Western indigenous historical records, and especially, oral tradition. Ethnohistory often focuses on people who are known to have existed in history but who are known largely through the writings of outsiders. Oral history is unwritten verbal history and tradition, often in the form of genealogies and family histories.

The final past definition cited by Orser and Fagan focuses on a specific historical topic and the concept of a world system. James Deetz (as cited in Orser and Fagan 1994:11) defines historical archaeology as the "archaeology of the spread of European culture throughout the world since the fifteenth century and its impact on

indigenous people.” The world system of trade, travel, and transportation facilitated the spread of ideas and people. The variation of settlement in the colonies is considered proof of the significant influence of indigenous people on the Europeans. Although Deetz’s definition is considered classical, it is also criticized by Orser and Fagan (1994:14) for having a Eurocentric perspective.

Historic archaeology, as recently defined by Orser and Fagan, is a “multidisciplinary field that shares a special relationship with the formal disciplines of anthropology and history, focuses its attention on the post-prehistoric past, and seeks to understand the global nature of modern life” (1994:14). They define the term post-prehistoric, the opposite of prehistoric, to signify “that the world was a different place after Europeans took Western culture to various places on the globe,” but without privileging literacy or giving it a primary role in shaping recent history (Orser and Fagan 1994:19). They suggest that the focus on the global nature of modern life maybe the most important facet of historical archaeology. Although we study the minute and particular, it is possible to have insights based on small-scale researches that allow “insights into the larger issues of world history” (Orser and Fagan 1994:19).

The past studied by historical archaeologists is often still unfolding and, thus, is relevant to the present, especially in the borderlands where cultures came into contact. We have the ability to concentrate on named, known people from the historical record and add a dimension to their lives based on the archaeological record. In this way we document the daily lives of people known previously only in a general sense. By nature our individual archaeological projects emphasize the small-scale, the minute and particular. We can choose to excavate sites that represent ordinary people, not members of the elite, but we have other obligations with respect to the artifact analysis.

It is our responsibility to give our small-scale projects a global dimension by combining them with archival research, oral histories, and genealogies, thus creating a rich context for the material culture we uncover. Through this multi-scalar approach we may facilitate discussions of ethnicity.

Ethnicities Among Nuevo Santander Colonists

The existence of the *casta* system in colonial New Spain makes a consideration of ethnicity essential to understanding the social context of the archaeological record. *Españoles* included both those born in Spain (*peninsulares*) and in the New World of European descent (*criollos*). The Indian category included only those people of full indigenous descent. The castas were composed of *mestizos* (español and Indian) and other people of mixed descent including *afromestizos* (Indian and Black or mestizo and Black). Of course, the españoles benefited the most from Crown policies regarding legal and economic privileges. Peninsulares fared better than criollos when one considers their monopoly on international trade and high-level governmental positions. Criollos were appointed to less prestigious positions and enjoyed other privileges reserved for españoles, including the ability to own property, to ride a horse, and to carry a weapon.

“The social and economic mobility of the rest of the population was seriously limited by the legal statuses ascribed to their ancestral groups” (Menchaca 2001:63). Indians benefited in some way by their access to communal lands, but as a group, they were not accorded much social prestige. Mestizos may have enjoyed more social prestige, but they were not accorded similar privileges reserved for either españoles or Indians (Menchaca 2001:63-64). A frontier such as the Río Grande communities of Nuevo Santander likely provided members of *casta* groups an opportunity to move

from a life as a wage laborer in a mining community to life as a property owner and livestock raiser. They would have traded the relative security of a mining community for a commitment to defend their property and hence the frontier against attack by Indian groups.

Here I return to a myth of racial purity among Nuevo Santander colonists that I first mentioned in the previous chapter. This myth is kept alive by local historians and scholars alike. Here I quote two paragraphs from Raúl García Flores (1996:2) and offer my translation:

“Una creencia sin fundamentos pero repetida hasta el cansancio pretende que en las fronteras de la Hispanoamérica Colonial pobladas por grupos cazador-recolectores o con una agricultura incipiente, la población estuvo compuesta por españoles colonos, sin mezcla con la población nativa. Ese “purismo racial” encuentra sus ecos, por ejemplo, en Argentina o el norte de México. Traspolando la innegable marginación y extinción de los indios en la segunda mitad del siglo XIX, se nos presenta una imagen distorsionada de la sociedad colonial, en la que la presencia nativa fue pilar indispensable no solo de la población sino del concepto mismo de América que manejaba la administración criolla y peninsular.

“En el Noreste de México los prejuicios han predominado sobre el conocimiento científico. Se asume sin mayor argumento que la ‘auténtica’ y ‘original’ población de la zona se compuso por criollos y uno que otro Tlaxcalteca, casi sin participación de los indios locales ni mucho menos de negros o mulatos.”

Author’s translation:

“One belief without foundation but that has been repeated until it is worn out, is the pretense that in the frontiers of colonial New Spain where the indigenous populations were hunter-gatherers or practiced incipient agriculture, the Spanish colonists did not mix with the native peoples. This ‘purity of race’ myth has its echoes in Argentina and in northern México. Considering the undeniable marginalization and extinction of Indians during the second half of the nineteenth century, this

myth presents a distorted image of colonial society, in that the indigenous presence was an indispensable pillar not only of the population, but also of the self-concept of America that was maintained by the criollos and peninsulares of the colonial administration.

“In northeastern México such prejudices have dominated scientific belief. It is assumed without major argument that the ‘authentic’ or ‘original’ population of the region was composed of criollos and a few Tlaxcalan Indians, but without the participation of the local indigenous groups, much less that of Blacks or mulattos (García Flores 1996:2).”

García Flores (1996:3) could find only two scholars who dared challenge this myth as it relates to northern México: a small study by Isidro Vizcaya (1969) that evaluates the composition of castas in the population of Nuevo Leon at the end of the colonial period; and Pedro Gómez Danés who studied the population at the Misión de Hualahuises in Nuevo Leon (1990). Gómez Danés developed two themes in later articles (1993) regarding the colonial population of Nuevo Leon. The first states that the colonial population of Nuevo Leon was essentially mestizo with a high percentage of indiomestizos and afromestizos. His second theme is that the native population, collectively referred by him as chicimecas, was not exterminated, but rather actively participated in the construction and *mestizaje* of northeastern México (Gómez Danés 1990 as cited in García Flores 1996:4).

My approach to studying the ethnicities of the Nuevo Santander colonists is based on a working definition of ethnicity as put forth by Sian Jones (1997), which considers ethnic groups to be “culturally ascribed identity groups, which are based on the expression of a real or assumed shared culture and common descent (usually through the objectification of cultural, linguistic, religious, historical and/or physical characteristics)” (Jones 1997:84). Furthermore, I consider ethnicity to be a process

involving “a consciousness of difference, which to varying degrees, entails the reproduction and transformation of basic classificatory distinctions between groups of people who perceive themselves to be in some respect culturally distinct” (Eriksen 1992:3 as cited in Jones 1997:84).

My approach aims for a contextual analysis of a multidimensional ethnicity. I regard the school of thought known as primordialism, which views ethnicity as biologically determined and related to psychological kinship and blood relations, as too narrow a definition to explain the social dynamics of the Nuevo Santander colonists. Instead I find instrumentalism, with its emphasis on culture, to be a better vehicle for understanding the subtleties and complexities of fluid ethnicities and social identities on the frontier. Instrumentalism defines ethnic origin according to its cultural manifestations and considers ethnicity to be malleable depending on necessity or circumstance (Fesler and Franklin 1999). This approach allows for consideration of how ethnicities are constructed, how identities are manipulated by those who wear them, and how and why such identities function as they do for the bearer in varying social contexts. At its core, my approach assumes that ethnic identification and affiliation serve as dynamic negotiating social forces.

My research questions concerning ethnicity include an analysis of the mechanisms by which settlers relinquished some identities and assumed new ones. Was the process instantaneous, with the granting of certain privileges, or does the identity shift take one or several generations to evolve as aspects of language and material culture develop? How reliable is the ethnohistorical record for determining the ethnic identities of Nuevo Santander colonists?

Mapping Material Culture and Archival Documents Theoretically

The material record for South Texas and northeastern México, besides this dissertation project, consists primarily of the collection at TARL from excavations by the Smithsonian Institute in 1951, which was only recently analyzed (Hartle and Stephenson 1951, Bonine 2001). It is to these artifacts that the following discussion will refer, although the author is aware that more recently collected and analyzed materials exist (Pertulla 1999). Mindy Bonine (2001) approached the data looking for cultural processes at the household level and considered all six one-room, stone structures to be part of the same rancho settlement. Unfortunately for the direct historical approach, the land grantee's family does not appear in subsequent records from Mier, however, comparative data from other sources can help one infer the nature of life on the rancho of Porción 55 (1817 Mier Census as reproduced in Galindo 1999:90-107). Although there are limits to the amount of information artifacts from excavations fifty years ago can contribute, what is important for the present discussion are the general classes of artifacts available to the archaeologist and methods of analysis that realize the promise of the above definition of the practice.

Alternatively, extensive archival sources are available regarding the colony of Nuevo Santander in general and Mier in particular (i.e., church marriage, baptism, and death records, and city, state, and national archives). It has been possible for scholars to examine the marriage, inheritance, and settlement patterns of the pobladores (Galindo 1999), as well as to document the presence of Indians and Blacks in the founding of Mier (Herrera Casasús 1998).

Archaeology along the lower Río Grande has another obligation to fulfill: To amply and extend South Texas history, taking fuller account of the significant relationship

between South Texas and Nuevo Santander. Despite the 24 porciones of Mier on the north bank of the Río Grande that were officially recognized by Texas as the legal property of the descendents of Spanish settlers, Nuevo Santander gets left out of Texas history. Land was granted to colonists on both banks of the Lower Río Grande—from Laredo to Brownsville—and these pobladores practiced some of the earliest livestock raising in what is now Texas. Therefore, historical archaeology is uniquely poised to revise and supplement South Texas history, specifically in Starr County, which includes about one-third of the total land granted by the Spanish Crown to the inhabitants of Mier.

How does all this relate to the theory behind Orser and Fagan's definition? Let's look at specifics. The connections between the first part (being multidisciplinary while rooted in anthropology and history) and the practice of historical archaeology in South Texas to date seem evident in recent works (Bonine 2001, Galindo 1999, Herrera Casasús 1998), even though its roots began as rescue archaeology in the 1950s.

Two challenges to the historical archaeologist in this respect are: 1. The archives are not available translated, except in rare cases, therefore, the Spanish language is requisite, as is familiarity with Spanish colonial terms and abbreviations; and 2. Information in the archives is often difficult to locate or access, except on rare occasions that sources such as the Benson Latin American Collection or the Texas General Land Office contains compilations, translations, or copies.

One avenue open to future scholars in this region is to create a multidisciplinary forum or network for researcher to facilitate communication among the varying approaches. It could be as simple as an annual conference or thematic presentations at

one of the existing conferences, but it would serve to encourage interest in the region and to build a network of scholars in varying disciplines and make possible the requisite multidisciplinary approach. Concentrating interest by the establishment of annual field schools to excavate rancho sites in South Texas would also provide graduate students with the opportunity of sustained research.

The second part of Orser and Fagan's definition (1994) deals with the concept of a post-prehistoric past, a term that signifies that the world was a different place after Europeans took Western culture to various places on the globe, but without privileging literacy or giving it a primary role in shaping recent history. I interpret this to mean the intersection, or more properly, the collision between history (or popular myth) and anthropology. This is the juncture where archaeology can facilitate the amplification of history. Orser and Fagan's definition has several applications for South Texas archaeology in this regard.

Ethnic Composition of Pobladores

I presented a section in the last chapter that reviewed the first census for Mier in 1753 and extrapolated the *casta* designations from it and from the Camargo census of 1749. That the majority of the colonists were designated "español" is not surprising given oral history, but the interesting result of the exercise were three people who did not have "Don" or "Doña" titles before their names. Ana Salinas was designated a *mestiza*, while her husband José Bazán Pardo had neither a title nor an apparent *casta* designation. The same was true for their son, Joaquín Bazán Pardo. As I searched for more information about the Bazán Pardo family, I could not find the last name "Pardo" in any volume of baptismal, marriage, or death records from Camargo, Cerralvo, or Mier. What I deduced was that their last name was actually Bazán while "Pardo" was

their casta designation meaning the child of a Black and an español (Barnes et al. 1981:92). Significantly, the casta designation disappears for both men in the official document which grants them porciones in 1767. Similarly in all the baptismal, marriage and death records I located for the two (as compiled by SAGA), their last names are simply Bazán with no casta information. Unfortunately, I was not able to locate an official records that designated either of them as “español.” Instead what I found was that the ethnicity of one of José and Ana’s grandsons is noted on his marriage record in 1809 as “mulato,” thus reaffirming the likelihood that “Pardo” was a casta designation and not José’s mother’s maiden name.

The Bazán family record also reveals that the process of “whitening” or changing castas was not instantaneous, that landownership was a factor, but not *the* factor, and that “progress” during one generation may suffer a setback in the next. The above example also emphasizes how very little is known about the Indian and Black population that contributed to the settlement at Mier beyond baptismal records and casta designations in census data (Herrera Casasús 1998). These documents often yield conflicting or incomplete information. For example, in the 1753 census for Mier there are at least 36 servants and their family members (or about 26% of the total population) whose names and casta designations remain a mystery.

Most servants are listed with the families who own significant amounts of livestock and who would logically need help tending to all those animals, but the two factors do not always correlate, as Table 7 illustrates. The number of children in each family does not appear to be a factor in the employment of servants. It would appear that six of the nineteen families in the Mier census of 1753 have servants. However, the livestock of five of the nineteen families were counted along with their parents, and these

families are indented beneath their parents in the table. Thus, when looking for a correlation between amount of livestock and the need for servants it is useful to note that six of the fourteen livestock-owning groups, or about 43% employ servants. Two extended families, the Peñas and the Hinojosas, each own about 4,000 animals and each employ nine servants. Nicolás González and Ana Josefa García, however, own more than 2,000 animals but do not have any servants. Another couple with about the same amount of livestock, Juan de Chapa and María Rita López de Jaen, employ 13 servants, the most of any other family.

Table 7
Excerpts from Census of Mier, 1753¹

Head of Household and Spouse	Livestock per Family	Number of Children	Number of Servants
Doña Ana María Guardado, viuda de Peña	4,250	2	9
Don José Peña and Doña Ana López Jaen	0	0	
Don Pedro Regalado Hinojosa and Doña María Catarina de Peña	2	1	
Don José de Chapa and Doña Margarita de Peña	0	7	
Don Manuel de Hinojosa and Doña Inés de Chapa	3,864	2	9
Don Manuel de Hinojosa el Mozo and Doña Juana Sánchez	10	0	
Don Nicolás González and Doña Ana Josefa García	2,072	6	
Don Juan de Chapa and Doña María Rita López de Jaen	2,048	5	13
Don Miguel Saénz and Doña María de Hinojosa	1,405	2	1
Don Andres García and Doña Clara María Farias	1,320	3	
Don Ignacio Gutiérrez and Doña María Mariana de Hinojosa	1,217	2	
Don Cristobal Ramírez and Doña Mariana de Hinojosa	1,172	8	
Don Francisco Guerra and Doña Josefa de la Garza	936	6	2
Don Gaspar García and Doña María Gertrudis Barrera	762	3	
José Bazán Pardo and Ana Salinas (mestiza)	283	4	
Joaquín Bazán Pardo and Doña Manuela González	17	1	
Don Manuel del Bosque (bachelor, age 32)	56	0	2
Don Javier Salinas and Doña María Rosa Longoria	46	5	
Alonso García Lugo and Doña Tomasa de la Garza	11	10	

¹ Herrera Pérez 1986:99-101

Oral tradition holds that the pobladores were mostly of Spanish ancestry, were well-educated, and spoke a proper form of Spanish (Gonzalez 1998). But as Table 7 illustrates a significant percentage of the founding colonists (about 26%) were servants

of unknown casta designation. Most likely, they were not españoles. Another early census known for Mier (provided in the following Table 8) supports the myth that the pobladores were mostly españoles, but again there is about 28% of the population that is Indian or mestizo.

Table 8
Census of Mier, 1779¹

	español	mestizo	Indian	
Men	114	23	30	
Women	113	26	30	
Boys	243	55	40	
Girls	228	44	27	
Totals	698	148	127	Total population = 973
	71.73%	15.21%	13.05%	

¹ Guerra 1989:31.

Although these data from 1779 reinforce the information about casta designations gleaned from the 1753 census, the data in Table 8 also raise some interesting questions when considered contextually. Specifically, Table 6 on page 69 lists casta designations as registered in the 1788 Census for Mier, just nine years later. The figures do not lend themselves to easy comparison because some of the casta categories are lumped together, but apparently, within nine years Black and fromestizo categories grow from zero to 42% of this population. It is also significant that total population actually decreased by 15, thus, they must be replacing the earlier population. In other words, españoles, Indian, and indomestizos went from being 100% of the population to constituting only 58% of it in nine years.

Herrera Casasús' (1998:60) research that was summarized in Table 5 on page 68 demonstrates that between 1767 and 1789 there were 113 births designated fromestizo or about 29% of all births during this period. Clearly, this segment of Mier's

population that was not apparently represented in earlier years of the colony experiences a growth spurt during this time. The reasons for this remain unclear.

The historical record is silent at this point until the next available census with casta information in 1853. By then Mier's population is recorded as 5,082 with no Blacks or afromestizos. The questions remain: Where did the Black and afromestizo population come from, settle, and either go, or else, how were they integrated into the society? How are these changes in population reflected in the material record? These are all valid avenues of inquiry for historical archaeologists and involve issues that must be approached from more directions than just the archives.

I attempted in the previous chapter to answer, despite a lack of relevant data, how the afromestizo population was integrated into Mier based on general trends in México at about the same time. Basically, most scholars agree that afromestizos did not disappear, but rather through intermarriage and changes in dress and appearance their descendents became classified as mestizo or español.

Settlement Patterns of Pobladores

Historical sources and oral history also offer conflicting information about the exact nature of settlement in Nuevo Santander. Where did the population concentrate? Within the boundaries of the town central, or on rancho settlements? Requirements for land tenure included the provisions that settlers must reside on the land, protect it from Indian attack, and construct homes (preferably of stone). Individual porciones were not assigned in Mier or elsewhere in the colony until 1767, some fourteen years after the initial colonists arrived; however, we know from the historical record that nineteen families already lived on one or more ranchos in the vicinity of Mier in 1749 and probably as early as 1734. These people would already have established ranchos by

the time that settlement at Mier was made official in 1753. Furthermore, settlers who arrived in 1753 with livestock would have required sufficient pastures.

Class or wealth also plays a role in the rural vs. urban settlement pattern of Spanish colonial society. The more affluent families were able to hire workers to run the rancho, while the family resided in town with the advantages of increased security and more social activities like school and church (Gonzalez 1998). Archaeology is uniquely positioned to answer these questions about the nature of early colonial settlement. Excavations at a wide-range of ranchos, a comprehensive rural regional settlement survey, an assessment of the construction dates of extant historical structures in central Mier, and further research of archival material, are all viable approaches to these research questions.

This brings us to the final part of Orser and Fagan's definition, which seeks to understand the global nature of modern life. This means that insights based on small-scale research may allow insights into the larger issues of world history. The recent past, as studied by historical archaeologists, is still unfolding and thus is relevant to the present, especially in the borderlands where cultures come into contact. The Río Grande has served to unite populations for centuries, if not millennia, before European settlement. In reality, this geographical feature has been a divider for only 150 years of its existence (from the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo until NAFTA). In this way archaeology in South Texas and northeastern México can contribute to a better understanding of contemporary border culture by studying the interconnections of past settlements, trade networks, and cultural exchange. Such discussion would naturally include considerations of class and ethnicity, factors that have influenced past development and certainly continue to affect current society.

Chapter 5

Household Archaeology and the Nuevo Santander Ranching Community Introduction

Given that a significant aspect of historical archaeology in South Texas and northeastern Mexico focuses on civilian ranching settlements, it follows that the sub-discipline should embrace the recent theoretical debate regarding household archaeology (Netting and Wilk 1984, Ashmore and Wilk 1988, Hendon 1996, Yanagisako 1979). As stated in the previous chapter, a defining trend in historical archaeology is toward a multi-disciplinary approach, rooted in anthropology and history, that focuses on illuminating the daily lives of ordinary people—subjects traditionally ignored in academia (Orser and Fagan 1994).

This chapter summarizes the various archaeological concepts of households and household production with the goal of better understanding the morphology and functions of Spanish colonial rancho settlements. To this end, genealogical and archival data are combined to reconstruct the individuals and their livestock that populated these ranchos. This is also an exercise in developing research methods and designs, including both archival and excavation strategies. I first summarize the archaeological conceptions of households and then present three brief reconstructions of ranchos as recorded in census data for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico. After comparing the two characterizations, I offer a definition for rancho households based on the two sets of data, while considering the implications of this definition for this and future archaeological excavations.

Archaeological Conceptions of Households

Archaeology at the household level is not unique to historical archaeology, but it is in this area that distinct households are identifiable both on the ground

and through documentary evidence. The concept is relatively new, with the main theoretical foundations laid out fewer than 20 years ago. There is a strong bias from a functional, structural, and cultural perspective that shapes the definition of household. This perspective is counterbalanced by a regard for the activities of its members (Netting and Wilk 1984, Ashmore and Wilk 1988) and the corresponding symbolic dimensions of households (Hendon 1996, Yanagisako 1979).

The following is a summation of the various theoretical sources that have influenced my approach to an ethnohistorical account of the Spanish colonial settlement of Mier. It is guided in general by Mary C. Beaudry's call for a contextual and interpretive approach to household analysis, with attention to the variation of households (1989:84-85). She calls for detailed, interpretive studies of individual home sites that account for site formation processes and that focus on the contextual relationships among artifacts and soil strata. In other words, she advocates conducting highly detailed, multi-disciplinary case studies of individual sites and their histories (1989:85). Specifically, she calls for the "combination of different forms of contextual analysis—cultural and historical context derived from documentary evidence and environmental context derived from ecological data" (1989:89). Together these analyses provide historical archaeologists with a "powerful interpretive device that allows for greater...understanding (of) how cultural behavior at the level of the household has influenced the formation of the archaeological record (1989:89).

The theoretical framework upon which I base my working definition of "household" incorporates primarily the ideas of Robert Netting and Richard Wilk

(1984), who established the distinction between the morphological ways of describing households in terms of kinship and residence patterns, from the structural and behavioral aspects of the household. They sought to change the questions that archaeologists ask about households from those grounded in structure to those grounded in activity. They advocate “relating both the morphology and the functions of the household groups to each other and to wider social, economic, and cultural realms” (1984:4).

Defining Households

Netting and Wilk (1984:7) defined five categories of household activity: production, distribution, transmission, reproduction, and coresidence. The intensity of production is seen to affect the size of households. Simultaneous labor requirements of major productive tasks and the existence of diverse tasks within a yearly cycle contribute to a tendency for larger household groups (Netting and Wilk 1984:7).

Distribution involves transactions between households. Larger groups may pool their resources to compensate for sources of income that are diverse, seasonal, variable, or unpredictable (Netting and Wilk 1984:9). Transmission refers to the intergenerational transmission of property within households. “In general, socioeconomic stratification appears to be directly reflected in average household size....wealth and prestige attract and hold the members of larger households while the poor can usually sustain only smaller groups of co-residents” (Netting 1982 as cited in Netting and Wilk 1984:13). Coresidence, according to Wilk and Netting’s (1984:17) definition, refers to household

members sharing living space, the physical confines and availability of which condition the size and composition of households.

Wendy Ashmore and Robert Wilk (1988:4) added consumption to the list of household functions and refined the terms used to describe aspects of households such as *coresidence groups*, and *dwelling*. A coresidence group is a group of people who regularly share living quarters without necessarily sharing household activities (what Laslett (1972) defined as *housefull*). A dwelling is the physical structure within which residential activities took place. Households can be dispersed among a number of dwellings (Horne 1982 as cited in Ashmore and Wilk 1988:6).

Ashmore and Wilk considered household archaeology as an extension of settlement archaeology (1988:7). Settlement patterns are seen to consist of a hierarchical set of patterns at different scales usually involving three tiers: single structures, site layouts, and intersite distribution (Ashmore and Wilk 1988:7).

S.J. Yanagisako (1979:166) explored the contested meaning of *domestic*, which she presented as having at its core two sets of functional activities: those pertaining to food production and consumption and those pertaining to social reproduction, including child-bearing and child-rearing. She proposed that there are three types of variables that underlie variations in domestic organization. She postulated that as domestic groups move through their developmental cycles, one can expect not only changes in the demographic structure, but also an impact on the economy of the household as its size and the composition of the eligible producers within the domestic group change (1979:167). Her third variable is stratification, which is evident in fluctuations in size and wealth, social mobility,

and the kin ties that bind together households in different strata (Yanagisako 1979:175).

Yanagisako advocated the study of kinship as a symbolic system in which “meanings attributed to the relationships and actions of kinsmen are drawn from a range of cultural domains, including religion, nationality, ethnicity, gender, and folk concepts of the ‘person’” (1979:193). This symbolic system approach helps to make sense of the range of diversity present in family and kinship organizations within one society (1979:193). It also aids in the study of inequality within domestic organization, specifically with respect to the political and economic processes of societies (1979:196).

Julia A. Hendon (1996:46) expanded on the symbolic dimension of households by applying Pierre Bourdieu’s (1977) sense of practice to the term. She arrived at her definition of household by considering what people do as members of a domestic group and the meanings assigned to their actions. She used *household* and *domestic group* interchangeably to refer to the task-oriented, coresident, and symbolically meaningful social group that forms “the next bigger thing on the social map after the individual” (1996:47). Hendon emphasized the conflict inherent in a domestic group that consists of social actors differentiated by age, gender, role, and power whose agendas and interests do not always coincide (1996:46). “The household is, in effect, politicized in that its internal relations are inextricable from the larger economic and political structure of society” (1996:46). She also addressed the implications of craft specialization at the household level, by pointing out that “incorporating specialized production into the household’s definition of its appropriate and necessary tasks must result

in reallocations of time and responsibility for specialists and other household members alike” (1996:52). “It may also change the balance of power among household members and how certain tasks are valued” (1996:52).

Archaeological Applications of Household Theory

The framework of household theory can facilitate our understanding of the organization and production systems of rancho households, thereby illuminating the motivations and survival strategies employed by eighteenth-century colonists. Knowledge of this sort can be used to guide future archaeological excavations. For example, census data reveal that multiple households resided on each rancho (Galindo 1999), so survey and excavations must consider the number and arrangement of structures across the landscape that constitute a single rancho. The number and types of animals each family possessed (also accessible through census data) can help plan the appropriate scope of archaeological investigations, specifically, how activity areas were located and in what combinations they were likely to be found. Ethnographic data reveal that socioeconomic factors influenced residence patterns, such that one household may have maintained both a dwelling in town and one on the rancho.

A Sampling of Ancient Ranchos as Recorded on the Census of 1817

Methodology

The following reconstructions are based on information contained in a portion of a census from approximately 1817. I cross-referenced these data with information from the baptism, marriage, and death records of Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico, as published by the Spanish American Genealogical Society. The approximate date of the census was determined after comparing the baptism

records of 15 residents of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas with their ages as recorded on the census. This partial census comes from an individual's private collection and was analyzed with permission. It is reprinted in its entirety in the author's master's report (Galindo 1999:90-107).

The census documents the residents and livestock on eight ranchos: Santo Tomas de Sabinitas, Santa Teresa de Guardado, San Gregorio del Saleno, San Pedro de las Flores, Santa Barbara de Morteritos, San José de la Rinconada, Jesus de Buenavista, and San Lorenzo de las Minas. A total of 411 residents in 76 families lived on these 8 ranchos. An average of 9.5 families lived on each rancho, with the average family containing about 6 members.

Descriptions of Three Nuevo Santander Ranchos

In the following description of three of the eight ranchos recorded in the 1817 census, an effort was made to trace the genealogy of the residents of the ranchos to expose settlement patterns. The descriptions include information about the top livestock owners for each rancho. The three ranchos are presented according to the number of livestock the residents owned, beginning with the one with the fewest animals, El Rancho San Pedro de las Flores.

For this rancho, I was able to trace each family back to two Sáenz families. The same is true for El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, where 10 of 11 families are a part of the Ramón Guerra and Rosalia Hinojosa family. At El Rancho Santo Tomas de Sabinitas, however, a lack of archival information made it impossible to determine if or how 6 of the 17 families are related to the Manuel Angel Hinojosa and Juana Sánchez family. All six families are Hinojosas, which makes it likely that they are blood relatives.

El Rancho San Pedro de las Flores

According to the 1817 census, this rancho had 45 residents in 9 families, who owned 54 animals. All nine of these families have been traced through the marriage, baptism, and death records of Mier to the two poblador families of Juan Francisco Sáenz and Teresa Peña, and Miguel Sáenz and Gertrudis Hinojosa (Figures 11 and 12). The exact relationship between Juan Francisco and Miguel Sáenz could not be determined from the Mier records. Juan Francisco received Mier Porción 7 and Miguel was awarded Porción 73 in 1767 (Figure 2 on page 10). Rancho residents include the children and grandchildren of these pobladores.

In terms of livestock, San Pedro de las Flores ranked seventh among the eight ranchos in the partial census (Table 9). The largest livestock owner was Juan Francisco and Teresa Peña's son, Francisco Sáenz, who owned 27 cows, horses, and mules. The next largest owner is the husband of Miguel's great-granddaughter, Emenegildo Guerra, who had 16 cows, horses, and mules.

The average family size was five, with a range from three to nine. More than one-half of the residents are under age twenty. Another third are between the ages of twenty and thirty-nine.

El Rancho Santo Tomas de Sabinitas

According to the 1817 census, this rancho had 80 residents in 17 families, who owned 319 animals. Eleven of these families have been traced through the marriage, baptism, and death records of Mier to the Manuel Angel Hinojosa and Juana Sánchez family (Figure 13). Manuel Angel received Mier Porción 5 while his father was awarded Porción 4 in 1767 (Figure 2 on page 10). The extended

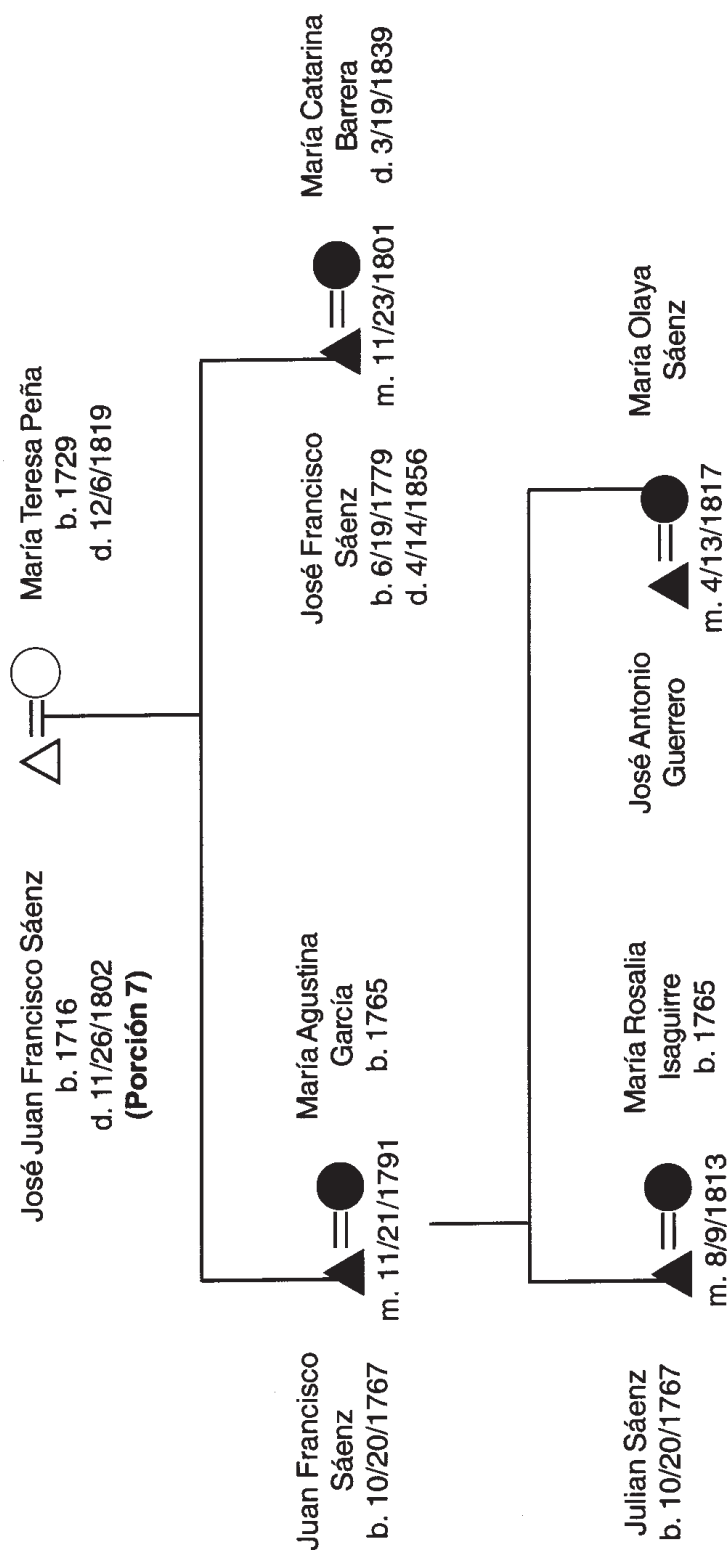


Figure 11: Part of the Francisco Sáenz and Teresa Peña family, with 4 of the 9 families of El Rancho San Pedro de Las Flores indicated by solid symbols (SAGA publications 1989).

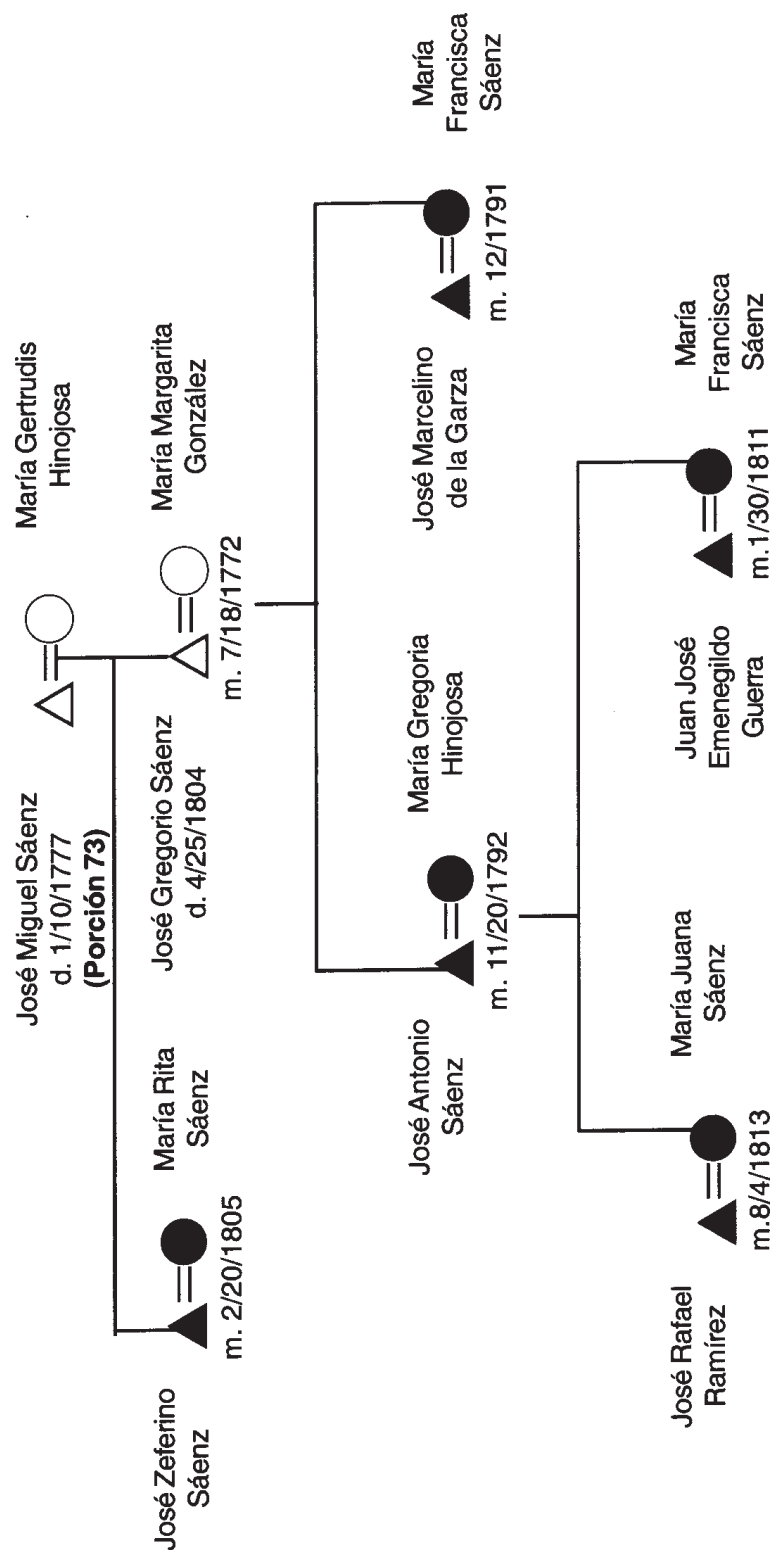


Figure 12: Part of the Miguel Sáenz and Gertrudis Hinojosa family; with 5 of the 9 families of El Rancho San Pedro de Las Flores indicated by solid symbols (SAGA publications 1989).

Table 9: Human Population and Animal Distribution in Mier Partial Census Data from approximately 1817*

Rancho Name	Number of Individuals						Caballos (Horses)				Mulas (Mules)		Total # of Animals Per Rancho
	Objeas (Ewes)	Cabras (Goats)	Bacas (Cows)	Yeguas (Mares)	Manzoz (Tame)	Terneros (Colts)	Manzoz (Tame)	Terneros (Colts)	Manzoz (Tame)	Terneros (Colts)	Manzoz (Tame)	Terneros (Colts)	
Santa Teresa de Guardado	71	14	2,037	769	16	34	16	3	6	0	0	0	2,881
San Lorenzo de las Minas	63	11	1,400	336	34	22	16	1	14	1	1	1	1,824
Jesus de Buenavista	28	4	900	300	30	29	14	10	14	9	9	9	1,306
Santo Tomas de Sabinitas	80	17	200	50	22	10	16	0	20	1	1	1	319
San José de la Rinconada	36	5	0	0	54	14	6	0	7	0	0	0	81
San Gregorio del Saleno	46	10	0	0	29	23	9	0	15	0	0	0	76
San Pedro de las Flores	45	9	0	0	13	18	11	1	11	0	0	0	54
Santa Barbara de Morteritos	42	6	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8
Totals	411	76	4,537	1,455	206	150	88	15	87	11			6,549

*(Galindo 1999:109-110)

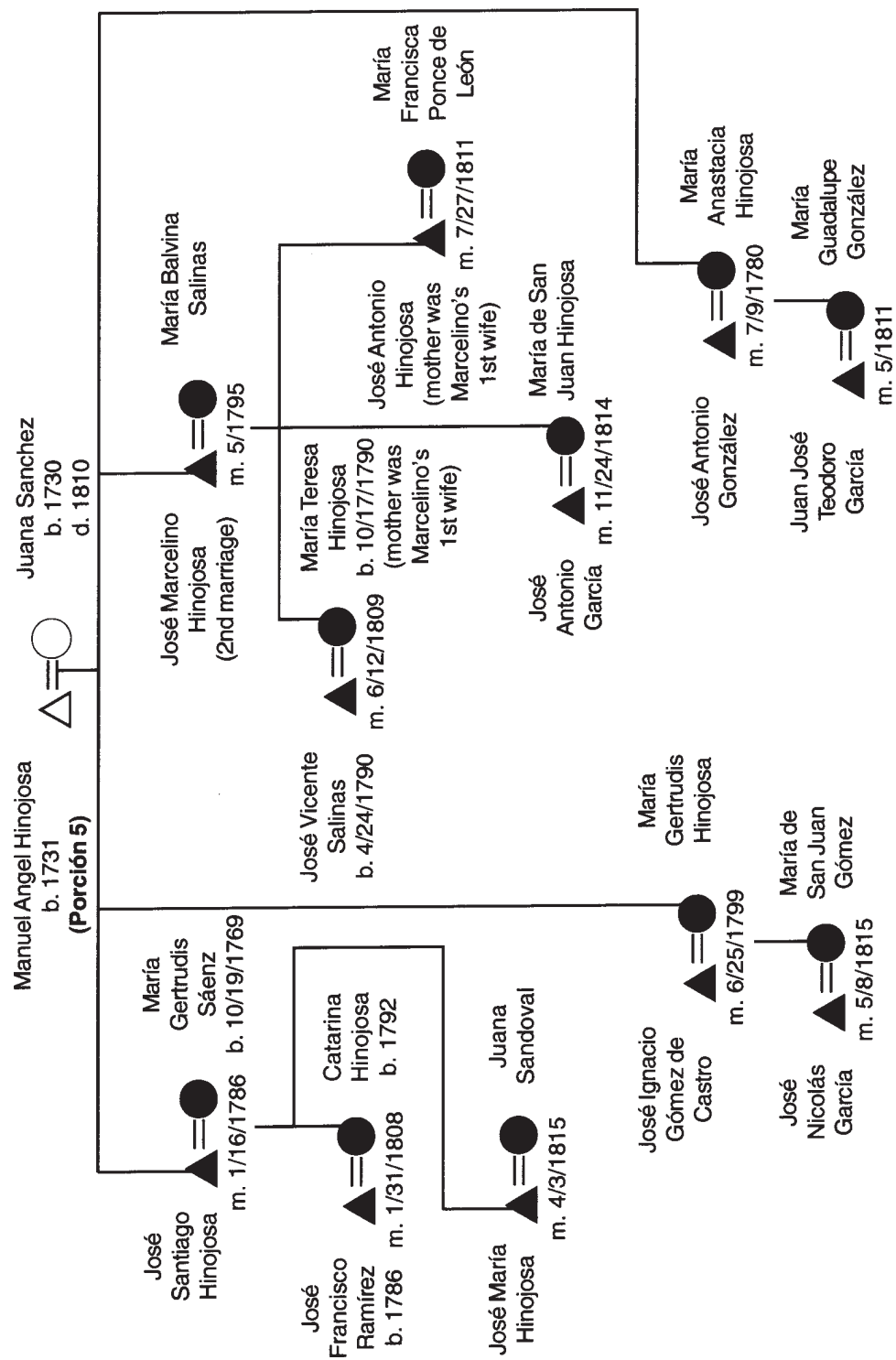


Figure 13: Part of the Manuel Angel Hinojosa and Juana Sánchez family, with 11 of the 17 families of El Rancho Santo Tomas de Sabinitas indicated by solid symbols (SAGA publications 1989).

families of two of their daughters and two of their sons resided together on this rancho.

In terms of livestock, Santo Tomas de Sabinitas ranked fourth among the eight ranchos in the partial census (Table 9). The eldest son of Manuel and Juana, Santiago Hinojosa, was the largest livestock owner with 256 animals, including 200 sheep and 50 goats. No one else on the rancho owned sheep or goats. Santiago's younger brother, Marcelino Hinojosa, owned 17 cows, horses, and mules. Of the two daughters of Manuel and Juana who lived on the rancho, Anastacia's husband also owned 17 cows, horses, and mules and Gertrudis' husband owned 5 cows and horses.

The average family size was 4.7 people, with a range from two to nine. One-half of the residents were under age twenty. Twenty five percent were between the ages of twenty and twenty-nine.

El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas

According to the 1817 census, this rancho had 63 residents in 11 families, who owned 1,824 animals. Ten of these families have been traced through the marriage, baptism, and death records of Mier to the Ramón Guerra and Rosalia Hinojosa family (Figure 14). The eleventh family was more distantly related through Rosalia's uncle Gervacio Hinojosa. Ramón was awarded Mier Porción 6 in 1767 (Figure 2 on page 10). Rosalia's father Manuel Hinojosa received Mier Porción 4, while her brother Manuel Angel Hinojosa received Porción 5.

Three sons and three daughters of Ramón and Rosalia, along with their families, resided on the rancho. After the death of their son Vicente Guerra, their daughter-in-law, María Josefa Ramírez, continued to reside on the rancho, even

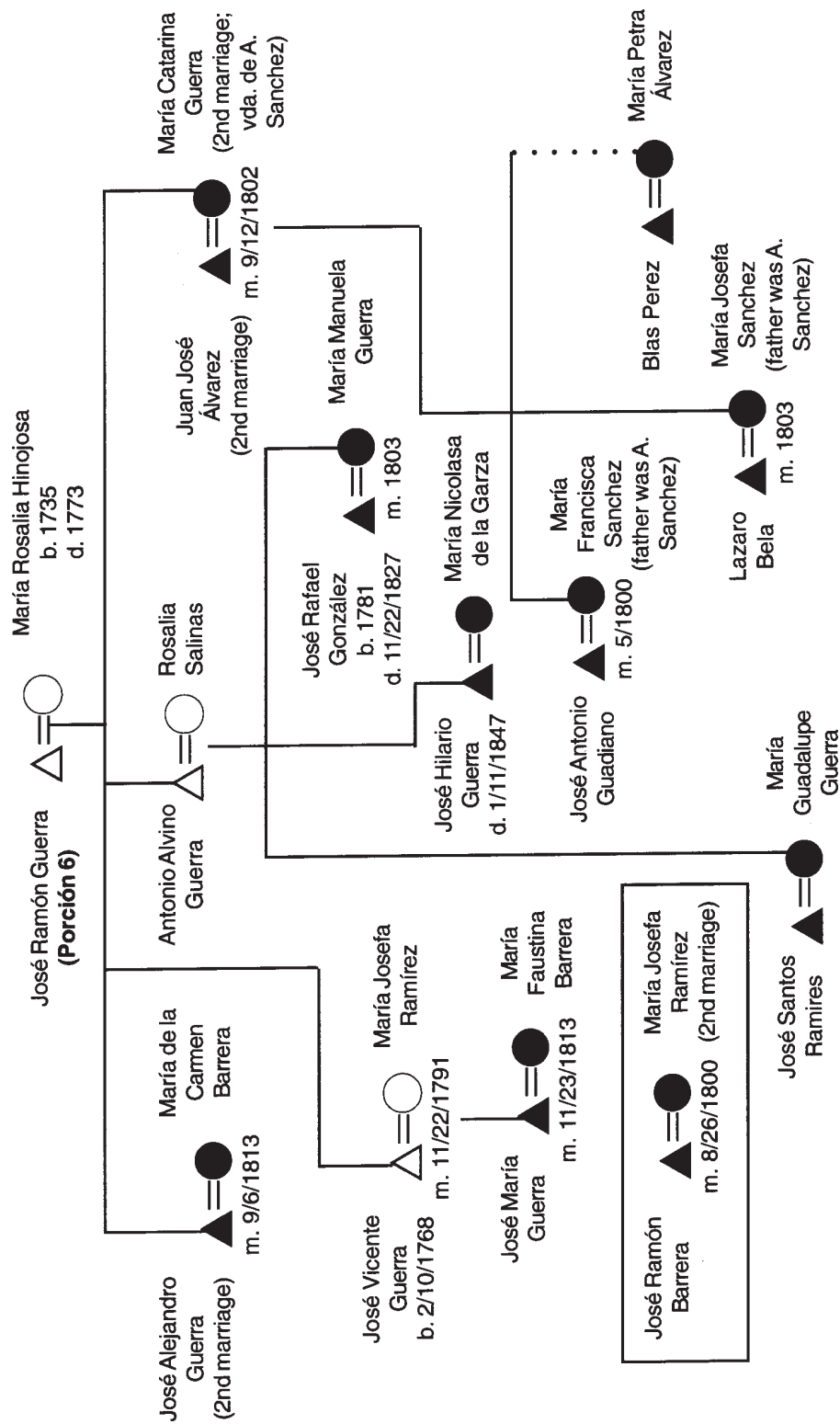


Figure 14: Part of the Ramón Guerra and Rosalia Hinojosa family, with 10 of the 11 families of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas indicated by solid symbols (SAGA publications 1989).

after she remarried. Her second husband, Ramón Barrera, was the largest livestock owner, with 1,144 animals, including 800 sheep and 300 goats. In terms of livestock, San Lorenzo de las Minas ranked second among the eight ranchos in the census (Table 9). Alejandro Guerra, the eldest son of Ramón and Rosalia, was the second-largest livestock owner, with 451 animals, including 400 sheep and 36 goats.

The average family size was 5.7, with a range from two to ten. More than one-half of the residents were under age twenty. Another 25% are between ages twenty and thirty-nine.

Summary and Analysis of Census Data

The census data for Mier ranchos (Galindo 1999) reveal a settlement pattern of multiple, closely related households residing together on one rancho. Except for two widows, livestock was exclusively male-owned. It was concentrated in the hands of a few male members, although not always the eldest males of the lineage. Male in-laws often had significant livestock holdings.

The distribution of livestock among males within a rancho sheds light on inheritance patterns and marriage strategies. Distinct animal husbandry strategies are also evident in the census, with some ranchers choosing to raise more sheep and goats than cattle or horses. Others raise cows and horses to the exclusion of sheep and goats. These strategies reveal a specialization of production at the household level that implies mutual cooperation among rancho residents. There was probably a high degree of self-sufficiency in terms of crop and livestock production on the ranchos. Coupled with cooperative practices among neighbors, it no doubt worked to ensure the survival of all rancho residents and neighbors.

The distribution patterns of livestock ownership may hold clues to the distribution of people on the ranchos. For example, households with larger herds might live farther apart from each other than those with smaller herds because of pasture requirements. It is also possible, given the likelihood of attack on the frontier, that households were located in relatively close proximity for mutual protection. The necessity to live close together may have prompted the settlers to rely on alternative herding methods. The management of the herds may have been accomplished by mobile teams of horse-mounted vaqueros working at great distances from their primary dwellings. Thus emerges a settlement pattern of multiple, extended families residing together on one rancho and constituting, at a certain scale, a household in terms of production, distribution, transmission, reproduction, co-residence, and consumption.

Definition of Rancho Household

Informed by the noted theoretical approaches and based on the census data, I define the Spanish colonial rancho household as comprised of members of an extended kin network residing in multiple structures arranged strategically along the landscape. Their land would have belonged jointly to the kin network or lineage, while each unit of the network would have exerted control over their respective livestock and pastures. The overall economic strategy would have favored the rancho as a whole over individual kin units. Thus, Spanish colonial ranchos were characterized by a high degree of mutual cooperation and organization based primarily on kin relationships, although there was room for fictive kin and laborers on the ranchos.

This is a working definition and no doubt will be modified as future excavations and research proceed. It may prove cumbersome to define a rancho as comprised of 10-15 households, as well as difficult to locate archaeologically. This definition will have to evolve to account for the instances when one family or lineage maintained two separate residences, one each in town and on the rancho. Further documentary research may reveal more about the economic workings of the ranchos, specifically, whether they were economically unified or if individuals transacted independently of other rancho members. The complementary distribution of livestock, with different kin units specializing in certain animals, suggests that economic activity was more on the level of ranchos rather than on the individual kin unit level.

Conclusion

The morphology and functions of Spanish colonial rancho settlements are made evident when the analysis is focused at the household level. This type of analysis also helps to concentrate on the daily lives and activities of ordinary people. Individuals and their relationships to the household are considered through a multi-scalar approach that combines genealogical and archival data to reconstruct the individuals and their livestock that populated these ranchos. Such information is crucial to developing excavation strategies and interpreting the material culture of the ranchos. The next chapter is the application of this theory and methodology to the origins of Rancho El Saladito.

Chapter 6: The Ethnohistory and the Origins of Rancho El Saladito

Introduction

This chapter documents the ethnohistory and origins of Rancho El Saladito, the site of an archaeological research project focusing on a Spanish colonial civilian ranching settlement, which dates from the mid-eighteenth century, and is associated with the community of Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico (Figure 15). The archaeological project forms a crucial part of this multi-scalar study, which incorporates ethnographic, genealogical, and archival research. The archaeological project was accomplished during three roughly month-long phases that consisted of mapping, excavating, and analyzing the recovered artifacts. Together with prior research (Bonine 2001, Fleming and Perttula 1999, Galindo 1999, George 1975, Hartle and Stephenson 1951, Krieger and Hughes 1950, Perttula et. al 1999) this fieldwork helps document some of the earliest ranches associated with Texas.

The settlement at Rancho El Saladito is divided into two temporally and spatially distinct occupations. The ranch is bisected by the Arroyo El Saladito which delivers both run-off and sulfurous spring water to the Río Grande. Based on artifact analysis and census data, settlement on the east side of the arroyo began shortly after Mier was founded as part of the colony of Nuevo Santander in 1753 and continued until after 1824 when Matamoros became an international port and a conduit of English ceramics.

Oral history tells us that a settlement of one or more jacales existed in 1928 on the east side of the arroyo (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). Operation 1, Suboperations A and B were placed near this location. After the property changed hands, construction started on the

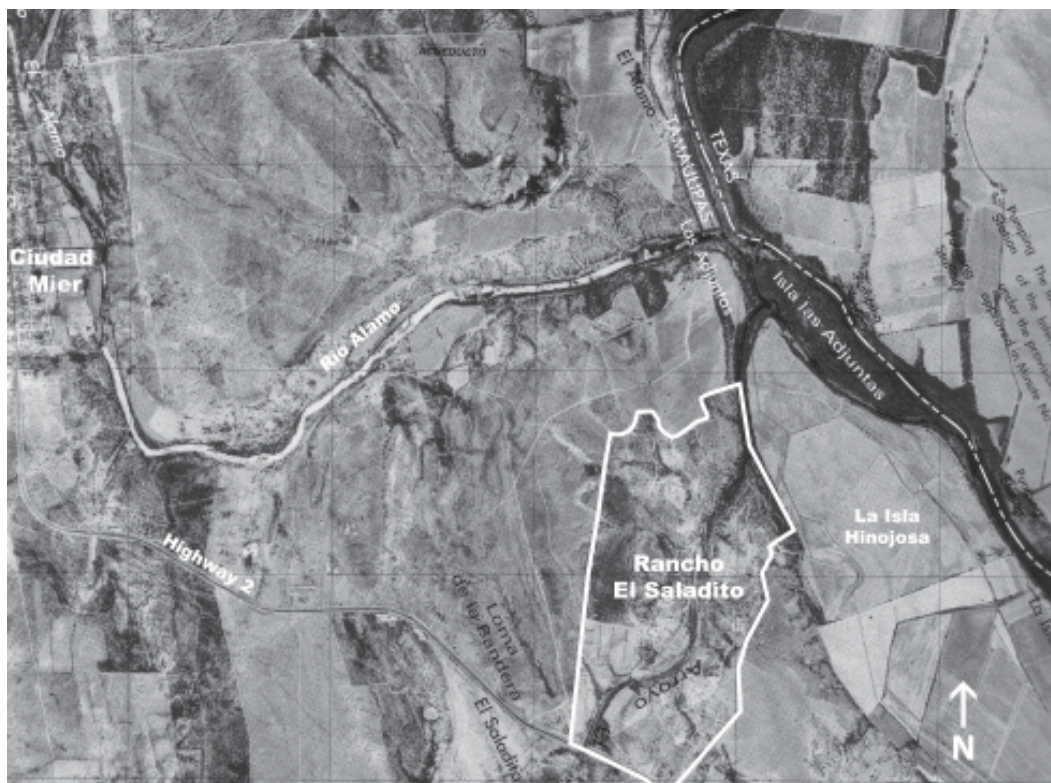


Figure 15: Rancho El Saladito is located east of Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico, along Highway 2.

west side of the arroyo where settlement continues to the present, and includes a one-room stone structure, the ruins of a dam, the ruins of a lime kiln, a building stone quarry, and a sulfurous spring. Although oral history puts the beginning of the most recent occupation at 1928 on the west side of the arroyo, certain glass and metal artifacts (magnesium (purple) bottle glass and square nails) suggest an occupation on the west side dating to at least the late 1800s.

Fortunately, several sets of census data survive for Mier, including 1782, 1790, 1800, and a partial census from approximately 1817. Using a combination of genealogical information, land grant records, and census data, it is possible to trace the descendents of the pobladores who founded El Rancho San Lorenzo de las

Minas, which may have been the precursor to Rancho El Saladito. The next two sections address both the origins of the ranch, of the colonists, and their descendents who inhabited it.

General Historical Background of Project Area

The Origins of Rancho El Saladito

According to oral history, Rancho El Saladito is located within the original boundaries of Mier Porción 6, which was awarded to José Ramón Guerra in 1767 (Gil Javier Guerra Sandoval, personal communication 1998; Herrera Perez 1986). Genealogical research conducted by family members also connects them to the José Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa family (Gil Javier Guerra Sandoval, personal communication 1998). Rancho El Saladito was purchased in 1928 by Adolfo Hinojosa Sáenz and San Juana Gómez Gómez (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

One of their daughters, Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, was about six years old when they bought the ranch. She remembers one or two jacales in the vicinity of Operation 1, Suboperations A and B (personal communication 2002). Her family never occupied the jacales, but rather her father hired Francisco Hinojosa Barrera to build a stone house on the opposite side of the Arroyo El Saladito (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). Francisco, like many of the other ranch laborers, lived in the nearby community of Los Guerra. The house he built still stands today and is maintained by the family (Figures 16 and 17).

Adolfo Hinojosa Sáenz and San Juana Gómez Gómez lived on the ranch and coordinated the work of a few laborers. In times of harvest or slaughter, they



Figure 16: Sandstone block house constructed by Francisco Hinojosa Barrera of Los Guerras circa 1928 for the Adolfo Hinojosa Saenz and San Juana Gomez Gomez family at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 17: Handprints made by the family members who served as the painting crew at Rancho El Saladito.

employed up to 10 people. Most of the laborers came from Los Guerra and went home at night. Occasionally they would stay overnight at the ranch inside a jacal associated with the cooking horno excavated at Operation 2, Suboperation A (Figure 18). There was also another jacal structure to the immediate north of the stone building, where a covered cement porch is now located (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

Adolfo and San Juana's children did not live at the ranch, but they joined their parents there on the weekends. The children lived in Mier with their grandmother so they could attend school. They traveled by wagon to the ranch.



Figure 18: Operation 2, Suboperation A. The remains of a cooking horno located southeast of the stone structure.

Their parents grew crops on a terrace between the stone house and the arroyo. There was another garden close to the house with a variety of vegetables. They also raised a wide variety of animals. (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra supplied the names of her parents and grandparents. She also knew her husband's parents and his maternal grandparents. Using the baptismal, marriage, and death records for Mier (SAGA publications 1989) and census data (Overstreet 1990), I reconstructed the following family tree (Figure 19). Unfortunately, I found no further information about Hildegardo Guerra's ancestors. A wealth of information exists, however, about the Hinojosa and Gómez families. For example, it turns out that the founders of Rancho El Saladito, Adolfo Hinojosa and San Juana Gómez, were both distantly related to the Manuel Angel Hinojosa and María Juana Sanchez family. Four generations back on San Juana Gómez' family tree is María Ines Hinojosa, the daughter of Manuel Angel Hinojosa and María Juana Sanchez. This family received Mier Porción 5 in 1767 (Figure 2 on page 10). Another of their sons, Jose Vicente Hinojosa, is three generations back on Adolfo Hinojosa's family tree.

Manuel Angel Hinojosa's sister, María Rosalia Hinojosa married Ramon Guerra, who received Mier Porción 6 in 1767 (Figure 2 on page 10). My research did not establish a connection between Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra's family and the Ramon Guerra family; however, research undertaken previously by family members has made this connection (Gil Javier Guerra Sandoval, personal communication 1998). If I could find more information about

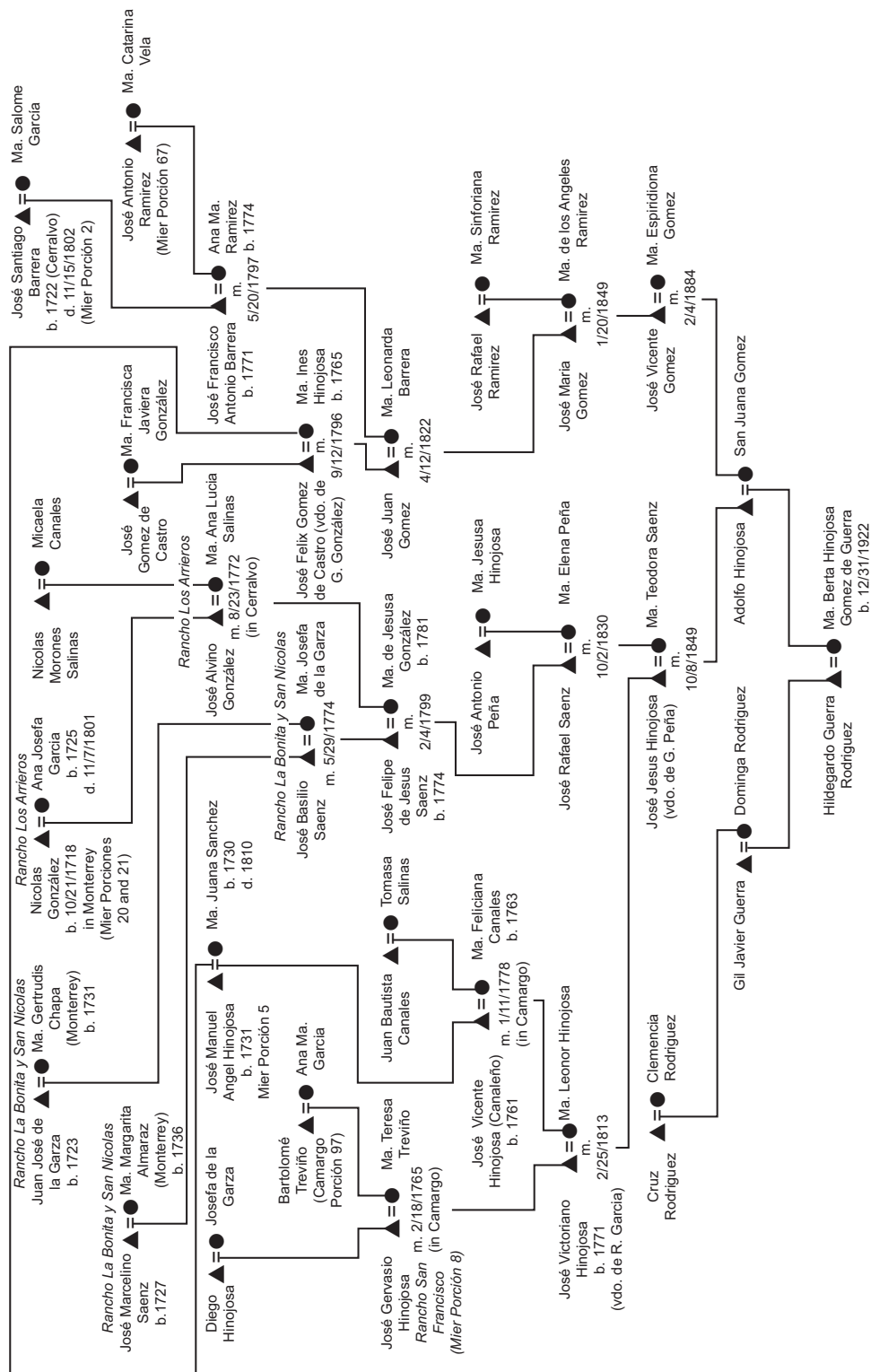


Figure 19: The Hildegardo Guerra Rodriguez and Ma. Berta Hinojosa Gomez de Guerra family tree (SAGA publications; Overstreet 1990).

Gil Javier Guerra (my informant's great-grandfather), I would likely be able to connect these families through time.

Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra's family tree includes five recipients of Mier Porciones and one from Camargo. In Mier, porciones 2, 5, 8, 20, 21, and 67 were awarded to José Santiago Barrera, José Manuel Angel Hinojosa, José Gervacio Hinojosa, Nicolas Gonzalez (porciones 20 and 21), and José Antonio Ramirez, respectively (Figure 2 on page 10). According to census data, there are also several ranchos that are associated with her family tree, including Rancho La Bonita y San Nicolas, Rancho Los Arrieros, and Rancho San Francisco. I focus now on the family of José Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa, who established a El Rancho San Lorenzo on their porción.

Based on the baptismal, marriage, and death records for Mier (SAGA publications 1989), I have reconstructed the family tree for José Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa (Figure 20). She was the daughter of Manuel Hinojosa and Ines de Chapa, who received Mier Porción 4. Rosalia's brother Manuel Angel Hinojosa, as I previously noted, received Mier Porción 5 and her uncle Gervacio Hinojosa received Mier Porción 8 (Figure 2 on page 10). This does not exhaust the list of her relatives who received land grants in Mier's jurisdiction, but it helps illuminate the settlement pattern of the immediate area. For example, Mier Porción 7 was awarded to José Juan Francisco Saenz and María Teresa Pena (Figure 2 on page 10). Two of the Saenz daughters married two of María Rosalia Hinojosa's nephews within six days of each other in January 1786 (SAGA publications 1989).

Thus emerges the image of a sparsely populated frontier whose settlers are strengthened by their extended family ties. Marriage bonds united families,

property, and landgrants. Among the pobladores of Nuevo Santander, Rosalia's nephews did not stand out because they married sisters. The low population density contributed to the frequent practice of multiple siblings marrying into the same other family, as did the motivation to consolidate land holdings and/or maximize access to key natural resources (Galindo 1999).

Ancient v. Modern Ranch Locations

The map of Mier's porciones is based on several sources, but primarily it is derived from an unprovenanced and undated copy of a map on file with the Texas General Land Office. I projected boundary lines that had faded on the original map and extended the numbering where I could with confidence. I was able to assign neither porción 9 nor 30 through 32 to a place on the map. Additionally, there are large areas of the map without numbers. I also used information from a 1958 map of Mier that illustrates porciones 33 through 54. Information about the 24 porciones located north of the Río Grande (55 through 78) comes from Starr County Texas maps dating from 1930 and 1974 (Galindo 1999).

For this part of the analysis, I decided to superimpose the porción map onto a modern map of the area to determine with what accuracy I could match up ancient porciones with their modern locations (Figure 21). Specifically, I wanted to see if the modern location of Rancho El Saladito matched up with Mier Porción 6. I used several landmarks and features to match up the two maps. First I used the Río Grande as a guide, while matching up the location of Roma on the two maps. I also used the Río Alamo and its tributaries as guides. In the end I had to accept an imperfect match, which is inconclusive, but instructional.



Figure 21: Map of the Mier porciones overlaid on a modern map of the area.

Specifically, the positioning of Mier and the Isla Hinojosa on the porción map does not match up well with their modern equivalents when simultaneously there is the best fit according to the Río Grande, the Río Alamo, and the town of Roma. The placement of Mier is not as critical because there is a good fit along the Río Alamo in that area; however, the placement of the Isla Hinojosa is very critical, given the location of Porción 6 in relation to this island.

The overlay is inconclusive. It is not clear whether Rancho El Saladito is a part of Porción 6 or 7 when evidence from only the overlay is considered. However, according to the relative location of the Isla Hinojosa with Porción 6 as portrayed in the porciones map, and based on the strength of oral history, it is more likely that the ranch is indeed associated with Porción 6 and the Ramón Guerra family.

Origins of the Guerra and Hinojosa Families

Manuel Hinojosa and Ines de Chapa brought their family to Mier from Cerralvo, Nuevo Leon. This family was one of 19 associated with the ranching settlement of José Felix de Almondoz that was formed in 1734 by 166 people (Casteñeda 1976; Herrera Perez 1986; Graham 1994). The ranch was called El Paso del Cántaro, located near and named for an easy ford of the Río Alamo. This passage led to at least two nearby and reliable fords of the Río Bravo (Río Grande): El Paso de los Arrieros (muleteers), located between Mier Porciones 53 and 63; and El Alamo, located between Mier Porción 66 and the town plat (González 1998; Figure 2 on page 10). This branch of the Hinojosa family appears in the historical record in 1749 associated with the colonial settlement of Camargo. They, along with the other 18 families of El Paso del Cántaro, were forced to enroll as settlers of Camargo to prevent being driven off their land (Casteñeda

1976). These same families formed the core of the population of Mier in 1753, when the town was renamed and organized as part of Nuevo Santander. Ramón Guerra's name appears on the list in 1749, associated with Manuel Angel Hinojosa's family, but he was not an approved colonist, perhaps because he was not yet married (Guerra 1989). He and María Rosalia Hinojosa had to petition the church in Cerralvo for permission to marry because they apparently were closely related (Gil Javier Guerra Sandoval, personal communication 1998). By the 1757 census, Ramón Guerra and Rosalia Hinojosa had three children. Their property included weapons, four horses, and three mules.

Several subsequent sets of census data survive for Mier, including for the years 1782, 1790, 1800, and a partial census from approximately 1817. Using this combination of genealogical information, land grant records, and census data, it is possible to trace the descendents of the pobladores who founded El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, which is a likely candidate for the precursor to Rancho El Saladito.

1782 Census of Mier

In the 1782 census under Rancho de San Lorenzo are listed two families along with their ages (Overstreet 1990:12):

Table 10
Inhabitants of El Rancho de San Lorenzo
as Listed in the 1782 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Familia No. 76	Ramón Guerra	65
	José Antonio Guerra	29
	Alejandro	22
	Ma. Ygnacia	19
	Ma. Juana	18
	Gariela	16
	Vicente	15
	Ygnacio	11
Familia No. 77	Alvino Guerra	26
	Rosalia Salinas	28
	Ma. Guadalupe	7
	Manuela	5
	Manuel	3
	Laureano	1
	Hilario	1m.

María Rosalia Hinojosa died in Mier on June 14, 1773. Ramón Guerra, the widower, appears in this census nine years later living with his children on the ranch. The family of his married son, Alvino Guerra, constitutes the remainder of the ranch's population. The order that the ranches appear in the 1782 census and a crosscheck of the inhabitants shows that Gervacio Hinojosa, who received Mier Porción 8, founded El Rancho San Francisco. Juan Francisco Sáenz, who received Mier Porción 7, follows Gervacio in the census under the heading Rancho Las Flores. Ramón Guerra, who received Mier Porción 6 comes next in the 1782 census followed by El Rancho San Salvador del Santiago Barrera, who received Mier Porción 2 (Overstreet 1990). Thus, as we follow the census taker's route from the town's center, we get an idea of the layout of the neighborhood and the vast stretches of territory that separated the ranches.

1790 Census of Mier

In the 1790 census there is not a heading for El Rancho San Lorenzo, but the following entries are sandwiched between those given for El Rancho Las Flores and El Rancho Salvador, consistent with the order of ranches as they appear in the 1782 census. Three families along with their ages are listed (Overstreet 1990:36-37):

Table 11
Inhabitants of El Rancho de San Lorenzo
as Listed in the 1790 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Familia No. 88	Ramón Guerra	73
	Juana	26
	Vicente	23
	Ignacio	19
	Antonia	4
Familia No. 89	José Alejandro Guerra	30
	Lugarda García	27
	Juan José	6
	Ma. Casilda	3
	Juan José	9
Familia No. 90	Antonio Alvino Guerra	32
	Rosalía Salinas	36
	Ma. Guadalupe	15
	Manuela	15
	José Manuel	11
	Laureano	9
	Hilario	7
	José de los Ángeles	5
	Ma. Francisca Guerra	3
	Ma. Rita	2

Clearly Ramón Guerra lived a long and prosperous life. He is 73 years old and still listed as head of a household, although it is likely that his two oldest

children who were still at home, Juana and Vicente, would have cared for him and the ranch. I have been unable to determine when Ramón Guerra died. Likely he died soon after this census was taken given his age and the fact that both Juana and Vicente marry shortly thereafter. Juana marries José Antonio Peña on October 17, 1790. Vicente marries María Josefa Ramírez on November 22, 1791. It is not clear who was the parent of Antonia, age 4. She represents the only new addition to the family since the last census.

In other developments since the previous census, Alejandro Guerra married María Luzgarda Garcia on March 3, 1783 and they are listed with three children in the 1790 census. His brother Alvino has three additional children with his wife María Rosalia Salinas, for a total of eight.

1800 Census of Mier

In the 1800 census under Rancho de San Lorenzo are listed five families along with their ages (Overstreet 1990: 66-67):

Table 12
Inhabitants of El Rancho de San Lorenzo
as Listed in the 1800 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Antonio Alvino Guerra	34
Rosalia Salinas	46
Manuela	23
Hilario	21
José de los Ángeles	16
Francisca	14
Rita	12
Felipe	8
Ma. de los Santos	6

Table 12 (continued)
Inhabitants of El Rancho de San Lorenzo
as Listed in the 1800 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

José de los Santos Ramírez	29
Ma. Guadalupe Guerra	26
José Alejandro Guerra	40
Lugarda García	38
Juan José	16
Casilda	14
Rosa	8
Juan José	11
José Ventura	6
Espiridiona	4
Ma. Josefa Ramírez	27
José Ma.	6
Magdalena	4
José de los Santos Guerra	2
Ma. Catarina Guerra	35
Francisca	22
Josefa	12

I must first point out an error in the above data from the 1800 census of Mier. There is either a recording or a transcription error with Antonio Alvino Guerra's age of 34. He is probably between the ages of 42 to 44, based on his age in the 1782 census of 26 and his age in the 1790 census of 32. He is two years younger than his wife Rosalia Salinas in 1782, but four years younger than her in the 1790 census. Rosalia Salinas' age is consistently recorded in the three sets of data: 28 in 1782; 36 in 1780; and 46 in 1800.

The five families of El Rancho San Lorenzo all consist of the married children of Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa and their families. Alvino

Guerra is the oldest and his family also appears in the 1782 and 1790 censuses. María Guadalupe Guerra and her husband, José de los Santos Ramírez, constitute a family without children. Her husband may be related to María Josefa Ramírez, the widow of Guadalupe's brother Vicente, who has a child named José de los Santos Guerra. Alejandro Guerra and his wife Lugarda (spelled Luzgarza in other places) García have six children, including the youngest Espiridiona, who is my great-great-great grandmother on my maternal grandfather's line.

Besides María Josefa Ramírez another widow is listed as head of a family. María Catarina Guerra originally married José Antonio Gregorio Sanchez on November 16, 1775. Her daughters bear the last name Sanchez in later marriage and census records (SAGA publications 1989; Galindo 1999). It is significant that this family does not appear associated with El Rancho de San Lorenzo in the two previous censuses cited. Apparently Catarina Guerra returns to her family's ranch after the death of her husband. Their family is listed as among those living within the town in both the 1782 and 1790 censuses. As we will see in the next example, her daughters continue to call the ranch home after they themselves marry.

1817 Census of Mier

For the next part of the discussion, I refer to a partial census from approximately 1817 that I encountered among a private collection of historical documents while doing my thesis research in Mier (Galindo 1999). This partial census documents the residents and livestock of eight ranchos, including San Pedro de las Flores, San Lorenzo de las Minas, Santo Tomas de Sabinitas, Santa Barbara de Morteritos, Santa Teresa de Guardado, San José de la Rinconada, San Gregorio del Saleno, and Jesus de Buenavista. A summary of the census data for

the eight ranches is given in Table 13. According to this partial census, I have reconstructed the family tree for the residents of San Lorenzo de las Minas (Figure 22).

Table 13
Population and Property of Ranchos
as Listed in the 1817 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Rancho Name	Families	Indivi- duals	Goats	Sheep	Cattle	Mares	Horses		Mules	
							Tame	Colts	Tame	Colts
San Pedro de las Flores	9	45	0	0	13	18	11	1	11	0
San Lorenzo de las Minas	11	63	336	1400	34	22	16	1	14	1
Santo Tomas de Sabinitas	17	80	50	200	22	10	16	0	20	1
Santa Barbara de Morteritos	6	42	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0
Santa Teresa de Guardado	14	71	769	2037	16	34	16	3	6	0
San Jose de la Rinconada	5	36	0	0	54	14	6	0	7	0
San Gregorio del Saleno	10	46	0	0	29	23	9	0	15	0
Jesus de Buenavista	4	28	300	900	30	29	14	10	14	9
TOTALS	76	411	1455	4537	206	150	88	15	87	11

Avg. # Families per Ranch = 9.5

Avg. # Family Members = 5.4

In the 1817 census under Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas are listed 11 families along with their ages (Galindo 1999:92-94):

Table 14
Inhabitants of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas
as Listed in the 1817 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Alexandro Guerra	59
María del Carmen de Barrera	39
Rosalía	29
Espiridiona	20
José Julio	18
María Luisa	14
María Casilda Guerra	30
José Cesario	3

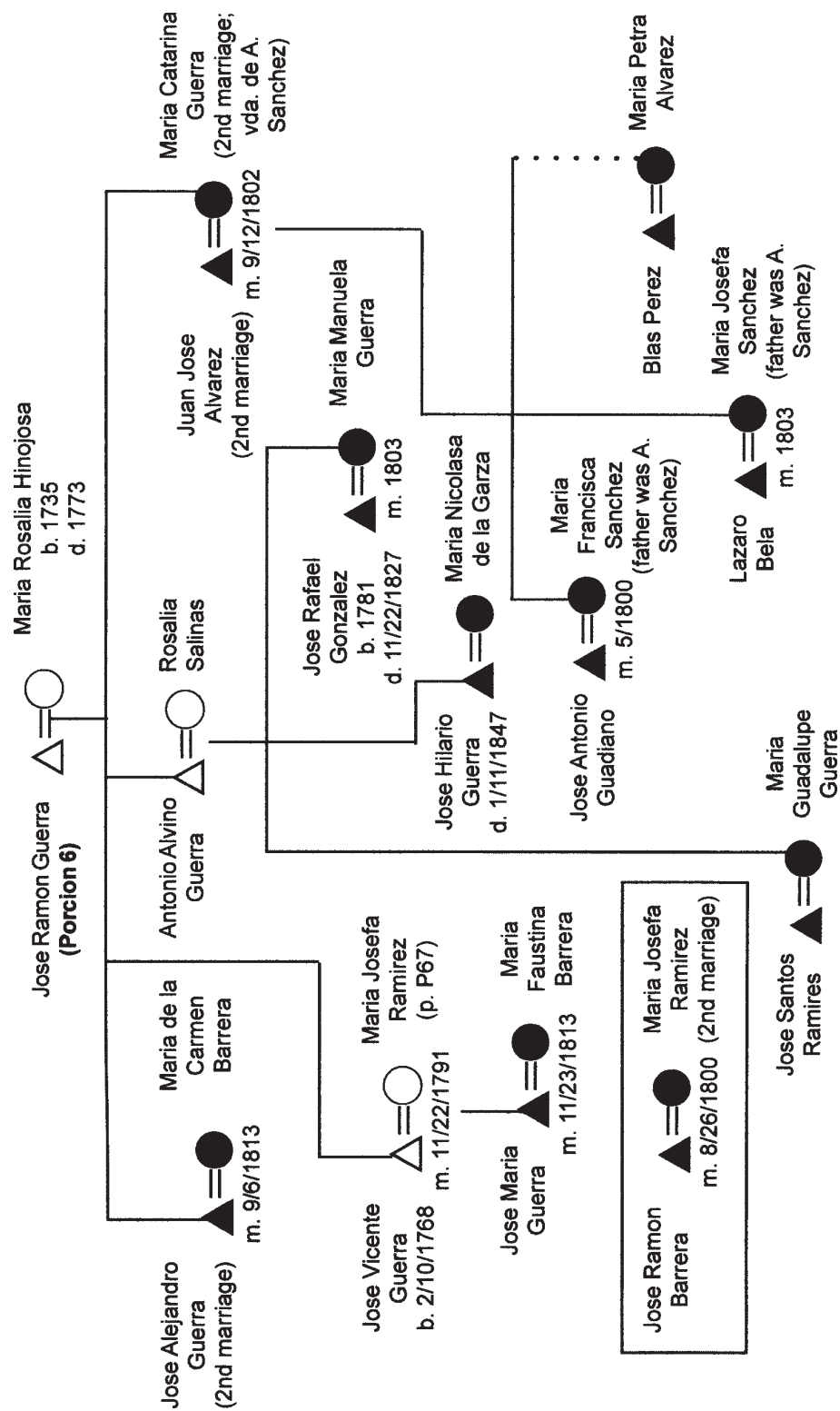


Table 14 (continued)
Inhabitants of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas
as Listed in the 1817 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Ramón Barrera	47
Josefa Ramires	46
María Elena Guerra	24
José de los Santos Guerra	20
Ramón Barrera	14
María Ursula Barrera	9
María Yrenea Barrera	6
Ygnacio de la Cruz	22
José Antonio Guadiana	47
María Francisca Sanchez	46
José Rafael Gonzales	44
María Manuela Guerra	44
Remigio	15
Gertrudis	13
Anna María	12
María Refugia	6
Felipe	4
Santos Ramires	47
María Guadalupe Guerra	46
Juliana	16
José María	15
Francisca	12
Juan Francisco	9
Catarina	6
Rafael	5
Rafaela	3
Micaela	2
Juan José Alvarez	52
María Catarina Guerra	57
José Antonio	22

Table 14 (continued)
Inhabitants of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas
as Listed in the 1817 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

José Angel Guerra	30
María Rosalia Ynojosa	29
María Estefana	6
Cesaria	4
María Leandra	2
Lazaro Bela	38
Josefa Sanchez	35
María Josefa	13
José María	12
Manuela	9
Florencio	8
Estevan	5
Sabino	3
Blaz Perez	39
María Petra Alvaren	30
José Angel	8
Dimas	6
José Hilario Guerra	40
María Nicolasa Garza	29
Antonia	10
Miguela	6
José María Guerra	29
María Faustina Barrera	26
Faustina	5
Pedro	2

By 1817 El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas continues to be occupied by the descendents of three children of Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa. Their son Alejandro is the oldest resident at age 59. He married September 6, 1813

for a second time after the death of his wife Luzgarda Garcia. According to this census he lives with María de la Carmen Barrera and children from his first marriage. Alejandro's daughter María Casilda Guerra lives with the family, perhaps with her three-year-old son, José Cesario.

María Josefa Ramírez, the widow of Ramón and Rosalia's son Vicente, continues to reside on the ranch even though she has since remarried and had three more children. Within their family we see for the first time a household member that does not appear to be related by blood or marriage. One possibility is that Ygnacio de la Cruz may be a laborer who resides with the family. José María Guerra is the son of Vicente Guerra and María Josefa Ramírez. He and his wife, María Faustina Barrera, reside here with their two children.

María Catarina Guerra is the daughter of Ramón and Rosalia. At 57 she is the oldest woman living at the ranch, second only to her brother Alejandro. She remarried September 12, 1802 to Juan José Alvarez. They live with their son José Antonio Alvarez. María Francisca Sanchez is the daughter of María Catarina Guerra and her first husband A. Sanchez. She has married since the last census and now resides on the ranch with her husband, José Antonio Guadiano. Josefa Sanchez is also a daughter of María Catarina Guerra and A. Sanchez. She has also married since the last census and now resides on the ranch with her husband, Lazaro Bela, and their six children. María Petra Alvaren's last name is probably correctly spelled "Alvarez" and she is likely the daughter of Juan José Alvarez from his first marriage. She resides here with her husband Blas Perez and their two children.

María Manuela Guerra is the daughter of Alvino Guerra and Rosalia Salinas. She and her husband José Rafael González live on the ranch with their five children. María Guadalupe Guerra is also the daughter of Alvino and Rosalia. She and her husband Santos continue to reside on the ranch raising their seven children. José Angel Guerra is the son of Alvino and Rosalia. He is married to Rosalia Hinojosa and they have three children. José Hilario Guerra is another son of Alvino and Rosalia. He and his wife, María Nicolasa Garza, reside here with their two children.

Summary of Census Data

In summary, after approximately 70 years of occupation the population of the ranch continued to increase as the family grew through marriages and births. For the nearly 40 years that documentation is available, this steady growth is observable as the population increased from 15 people in two families in 1782 to 63 people in 11 families by 1817. The familial ties that bind these people are also clearly evident in all but one case. With the exception of Ygnacio de la Cruz, all ranch residents are members of an extended family descending from two of the original pobladores of Mier, Ramón Guerra and María Rosalia Hinojosa.

Livestock Holdings in 1817

The 1817 census includes information on the livestock holdings of the ranch residents. The following table summarizes the property of the residents of El Rancho San Lorenzo (Galindo 1999):

Table 15
Property of Inhabitants of El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas
as Listed in the 1817 Census for Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico

Inhabitant	Age	Sheep	Goats	Cows	Mares	Horses		Mules	
						Tamed	Colts	Tamed	Colts
Alexandro Guerra	59	400	36	8	3	1	1	2	
Ramón Barrera	47	800	300	8	18	10		8	
José Antonio Guadiana	47			4		1		1	
José Rafael Gonzales	44							2	
Santos Ramires	47	200		5				1	
Juan José Alvarez	52			6	1	2			
José Angel Guerra	30			2		2			
José Hilario Guerra	40			1					1
Totals		1400	336	34	22	16	1	14	1

Alejandro Guerra, the oldest surviving son of Ramón Guerra and Rosalia Hinojosa, has a significant amount of property: 400 sheep, 36 goats, eight head of cattle, five horses and two mules. The only other two owners of significant amounts of livestock are related to the ranch and the descendents of the Ramón Guerra family through marriage.

Ramón Barrera married Josefa Ramírez, the widow of Vicente Guerra, who was Alejandro's brother. He is 12 years younger than Alejandro, but he controls the most livestock at the ranch: 800 sheep, 300 goats, eight head of cattle, 28 horses, and eight mules. Ramón and Alejandro are the only ones at the ranch to own goats.

Santos Ramírez married María Guadalupe Guerra, Alejandro's niece and the daughter of Alvino and Rosalia Guerra. He is the same age as Ramón Barrera and controls the following amounts of livestock: 200 sheep, five head of cattle, and one mule. Together with Ramón and Alejandro, Santos is among the only ones at the ranch to own sheep.

In terms of the variety of livestock, sheep are the most common, followed by goats, then horses, cattle, and mules. Everyone except José Rafael Gonzalez

owns at least one cow, the greatest quantity being eight. The next most commonly owned animal is the mule, as six out of eight have at least one. Again the greatest quantity is eight. Finally, at least one horse is owned by five of the six propertied ranch residents. Most people own five or fewer horses, but Ramón Barrera owns 28.

Property ownership at El Rancho de San Lorenzo exhibits some interesting trends. First, age does not appear to correlate with wealth. Although Alejandro is the oldest son of the original founders of the ranch, he does not own the most property. Second, marriages have contributed significantly to the wealth of the ranch by incorporating the property of in-laws. Third, the distribution of livestock may indicate specialization by certain families in breeding or training certain animals to the exclusion of others. This specialization likely influenced the spatial arrangement of settlements across the landscape.

Other Disturbances

The Rancho El Saladito has been used throughout the centuries for livestock grazing, plow farming, and the mining of different kinds of stone; therefore, many areas are partially or completely altered. Fortunately, with the exception of occasionally grading the roads, the excavation area of Operation 1 remains relatively unaltered, except by the action of wind and water erosion. The preservation of the material culture of Operation 2 is of a different nature, mainly because the area is still utilized by the owners. The yard of the house is periodically graded by machine along with the rest of the dirt road, which has displaced artifacts and obliterated activity areas. Jacales have fallen down or been replaced with concrete patios. For these reasons, the two habitation areas on either side of the Arroyo

Saladito contribute differently to our knowledge of past rancho settlements. Among Operation 2 artifacts, for example, are 57 metal objects (many of them farming implements) weighing 1,545 grams; meanwhile, very few metal objects were recovered in Operation 1. This difference may be simply because Operation 2 represents a twentieth-century occupation and more metal implements were used compared to earlier times. Alternatively, all metal objects may have been taken from Operation 1, either by their owners as they left or by the new owners as they moved to the west side of the arroyo in the 1920s.

Field and Laboratory Methodology

Introduction

This section describes the pre-field planning, the field methods of the mapping/surveying and excavation phases, subsequent analysis of the cultural material recovered, and its preparation for curation.

Pre-field Planning

Other chapters in this dissertation represent the extensive pre-field planning that preceded the mapping and excavation phases. Historical background research was conducted in the archives in Mier, at the Benson Latin American Collection at the University of Texas at Austin, and at the Catholic Archives of Texas. An effort was made to locate, collect, and incorporate the works of Mexican scholars and local historians. Census data for the area were located with the assistance of Myra Stanwick of the Spanish American Genealogical Association of Corpus Christi, the same organization that has published several volumes containing the earliest demographic data available for Nuevo Santander colonists. Additionally, several

visits were made to the Rancho El Saladito over a five year period to survey and determine the extent of the archaeological deposits in preparation for this project.

Field Methods

Unit Excavations

Operation 1: East Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

All excavations were conducted using the metric system. The excavation phase began September 21, 2002 on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito and terminated October 4, 2002. The east side excavations were designated Operation 1 and targeted the area of earliest occupation by Spanish colonists. Within this framework, nine Suboperations (designated A through H) with a total of 49 lots were excavated (Table 16). The equivalent of 36 1m²-units were excavated to varying depths in arbitrary 10-cm levels. Twenty of these units terminated at the 20 cm below surface level, although two others reached the 50 cm and 100 cm levels. In general, the artifacts were concentrated in the upper 20 cm of matrix. The 20-30 cm level was virtually sterile in all units, while sterility below the 30 cm level was consistent. In total, Operation 1 involved the removal of 9.5 m³ of matrix.

Table 16
Volume of Operation 1 Excavation Units

Operation	Suboperation	Unit Size (m)	Quantity	Depth (m)	Cubic Meters
1	A	1x1	2	.2	.4
1	A	1x1	1	.3	.3
1	B	1x1	2	.2	.4
1	C	1x1	1	.1	.1
1	C	1x1	1	.2	.2
1	C	1x1	2	.3	.6
1	C	1x1	1	1.0	1.0
1	D	1x1	3	.2	.6
1	E	1x1	3	.2	.6
1	E	1x1	2	.3	.6
1	E	1x1	1	.5	.5
1	F	1x1	5	.2	1.0
1	G	1x1	6	.3	1.8
1	H	1x1	4	.2	.8
1	H	1x1	2	.3	.6
Total			36		9.5

Operation 2: West Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

Excavations then moved to the west side of the Arroyo El Saladito on October 14, 2002 and terminated four days later. The west side excavations were designated Operation 2. Within this framework, three Suboperations (designated A through C) with a total of 18 lots, were excavated. The equivalent of eight 1m²-units were excavated to varying depths in 10-cm levels (Table 17).

Table 17
Volume of Operation 2 Excavation Units

Operation	Suboperation	Unit Size (m)	Quantity	Depth (m)	Cubic Meters
2	A	1x1	1	.14	.14
2	A	1x1	1	.2	.2
2	A	1x1	2	.3	.6
2	A	1x1	1	.4	.4
2	A	1x1	1	.5	.5
2	B	1x1	1	.5	.5
2	C	1x1	1	.3	.3
Total			8		2.64

Eleven of the lots were part of Suboperation A, which investigated the cooking horno. Two other 1m² units were excavated, one located six meters from the southwest corner of the extant stone building, and the other placed outside the fenced yard, but about 10 meters southeast of the cooking horno ruins. No other excavations were attempted on the west side of the arroyo as part of Operation 2 because of the disturbed nature of the deposits. The area around the extant house has been repeatedly graded by machine, thus disturbing the artifacts and their context. In total, Operation 2 involved the removal of 2.64 m³ of matrix, for a project total of 12.14 m³ from the equivalent of 44 1m²-units.

Placement of Suboperations

Operation 1: East Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

Based on the mapping and surveying phase, excavation units on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito were placed according to surface finds of ceramic, glass, or metal objects (Figures 23 and 24). Alternatively, units were placed atop areas where numerous artifacts were evident on the surface after eroding out of the sides of the arroyo. Initially there were two main areas of large surface

scatters; the first was tested with Suboperations A and B and is located near the northernmost tip of the triangle of land formed by the arroyo to the west and the Río Grande to the east. The second area is along the elevated bank of the arroyo and was designated Suboperation C. The two areas are interesting for the contrast in ceramic components that they each contain. Suboperations A and B revealed the oldest Central Mexican majolicas at the site, while Suboperation C produced mainly Englishwares dating after the 1820s.

Suboperation D is located about 50 meters south of Suboperations A and B. This areas was tested with a 1 X 3 meter unit placed near where an engraved metal utensil handle was found on the surface (Figure 25). The initials “J.B.,” presumably of the engraver, appear on the reverse side of the handle along with

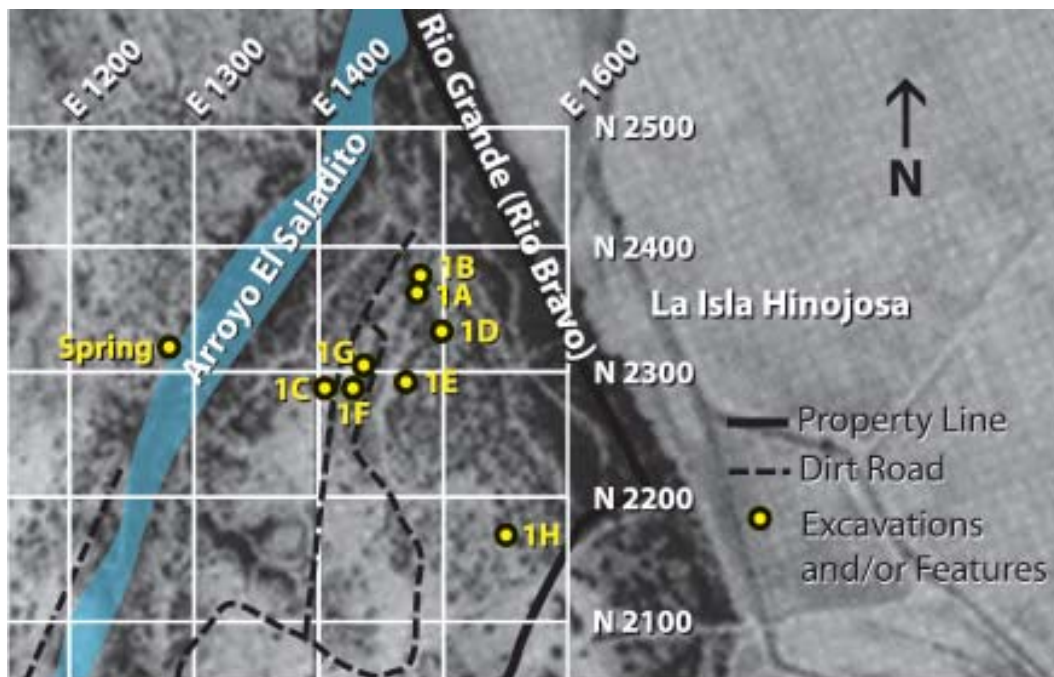


Figure 23: Detailed map of the Operation 1 excavations on the east side of the arroyo at Rancho El Saladito.

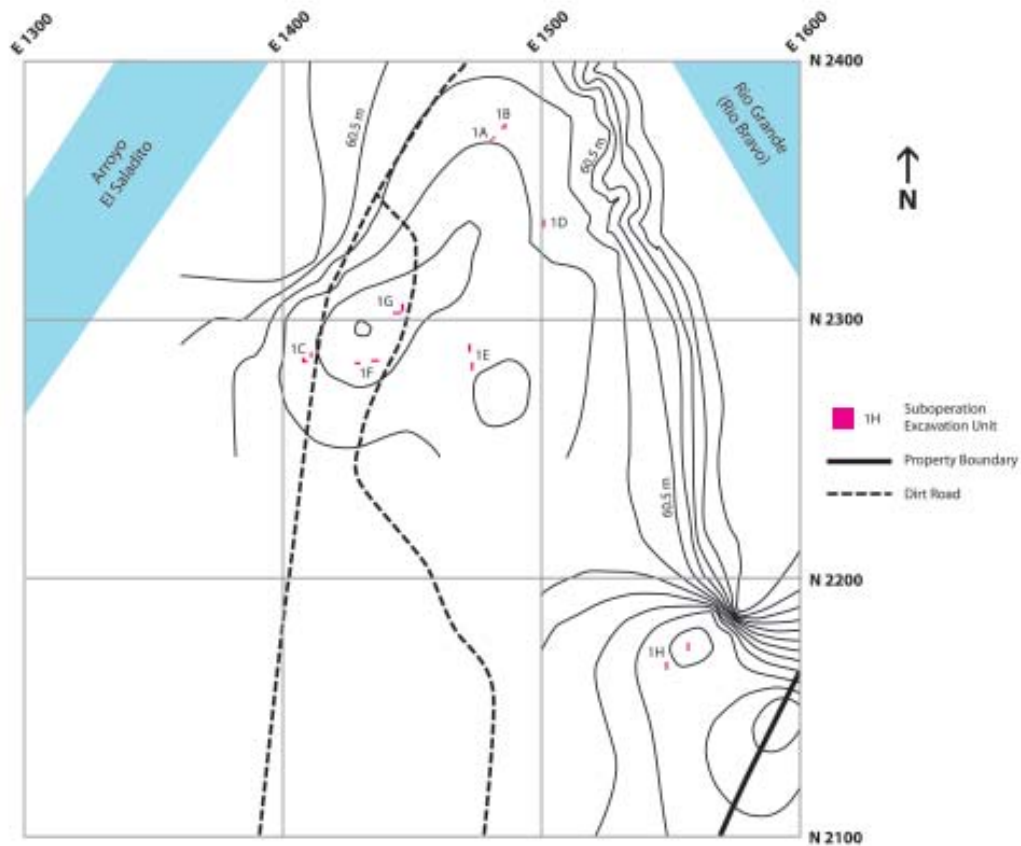


Figure 24: Topographic map of the Operation 1 excavations on the east side of the arroyo at Rancho El Saladito.

three decorative elements: a flower, a clover, and a crown. Despite the interesting surface artifacts encountered in this area, the excavation revealed very few artifacts *in situ*.

Suboperation E is located about 56 meters southwest of Suboperation D and about 77 meters east of Suboperation C. It represents an area to the east of the two dirt roads that presumably has not been disturbed, based on its elevated height in comparison to the road surface level. Again, the placement of two 1-X-3-meter units was determined based on surface finds and topography. Excavations were

placed near the location of surface finds but an effort was made to identify and clear the highest nearby elevation in preparation for excavation. The stratigraphy of all Operation 1 deposits proved to be consistent, with the exception of the southern unit of Suboperation E. Here the top 10-cm layer was virtually sterile, containing only one ceramic sherd. The next 10-cm layer contained more artifacts than the upper layer, including a variety of ceramic types. The third 10-cm layer again was practically sterile, with only a few bone fragments.

The majority of artifacts in Operation 1 units were consistently contained within the top 20 cm of the excavations. No other unit had a sterile top 10-cm layer. A consideration of the site's formation processes helps explain this anomaly. The prickly pear cactus plant that was removed to accommodate the excavation unit was no doubt responsible for maintaining or accumulating soil beneath its roots. Thus, the elevated surface area thought to represent a preserved living or activity level had actually been elevated by the accumulation of soil beneath the cactus. The bioturbation of the cactus' roots had drawn the single ceramic sherd upward from the cultural level.



Figure 25: Two views of an engraved metal utensil handle from the surface collection associated with Suboperation D. The initials, "J.B." are visible on the reverse side.

Suboperation F is located between the two dirt roads in an area presumably undisturbed by the road building and maintaining. The surface level in this area is slightly elevated from the surface of the roads. The two excavation units were placed based on the surface finds of plainware and majolicas in the area. Both units contained very low artifact density, with most of the deposits concentrated in the top 10 centimeters. The second 10-cm layer in one unit was practically sterile and no artifacts were found in the same level of the other unit.

Suboperation G was located while clearing brush to facilitate the mapping of the datums in Suboperation F. It is about 30 meters north of Suboperation F and also located in the area between the two roads. Two discoveries contributed to placement of two 1 X 3 meter excavation units for Suboperation G. The first was a surface find in the road next to the subop of an iron *ruido*, complete with three *coscojos*. *Ruidos*, or noisemakers, were used on saddles by Spanish soldiers during the mid-eighteenth century (Simmons and Turley 1980:114-115). Some accounts say they helped calm nervous horses, while others say the sound helped the horse maintain a certain pace (Simmons and Turley 1980:115). *Ruidos* consist of two elements: a *higa* and three attached *coscojos*. Two more *higas* (*ruidos* without the *cascojones*) would be encountered in Suboperation G excavations (Figure 26).

The second clue was a surface scattering of artifacts that would not have been revealed except the mapping crew was trying to take one more shot down a winding road without moving the TDS. After all, swinging the machete can be faster and easier than leveling the TDS anew. That was not the case this time as no matter how much brush was removed, the angle of the shot remained impossible to attain. We ended up moving the TDS to get the shot, but the effort was not wasted

as the clearing revealed a surface scattering of artifacts at a significantly higher density than what had been observed nearby at Suboperation F. This area was designated Suboperation G.

Suboperation H is located nearly 200 meters southeast of Suboperations A and B. It was located by pedestrian survey through the presence of ceramic and metal artifacts on the surface. It is very near both the Río Grande and the property line.

Operation 2: West Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

Excavation units on the west side of the Arroyo El Saladito were placed to examine the construction of the horno and according to surface finds of ceramic, glass, and metal objects. Suboperation A of Operation 2 was placed so that the eastern half of the horno would be excavated. The horno was not dissassembled; rather the matrix around it was removed to document the method of construction. Suboperation B was placed close to the stone structure and in an area that did not appear to have been regularly machine graded. Suboperation C was located outside the fenced yard in an area where many surface artifacts were collected.



Figure 26: Two views of two higas and one ruidito from Operation 1, Suboperation G excavations and surface collection.

Mapping and Surveying

Operation 1: East Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

Mapping and surveying began August 23, 2002, with the assistance of Ruth A. Mathews, and Antonia Figueroa Gonzalez. The mapping began on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito near the highway, which borders the ranch on the south side. Initial understanding of the distance from the highway entrance of the ranch to the area of oldest occupation by Spanish colonial settlers proved to be sorely underestimated. Instead of being able to contain the east side occupation sites within a 1 km² grid as planned, it was necessary to include an area approximately 2.5 km long by 1.5 km wide. The east side settlements were concentrated in the northern 200 meters long by 150 meters wide (Figure 27). Most of the ranch between the highway and the area of oldest settlement is disturbed by recent road building and gravel quarrying.

Prehistoric deposits in the form of projectile points, unifacial and bifacial scrapers, debitage, and crude tools are visible on the surface in an area along the western baseline of the map grid. Besides those artifacts associated with the aforementioned Spanish colonial settlement, these were the only other archaeological materials observed east of the arroyo.

The mapping phase initially established control points within the area of earliest occupation on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito. The process of mapping continued throughout the excavation phase as areas were cleared and datums and units were defined.



Figure 27: Detailed map of Rancho El Saladito showing the features and excavations located along the Arroyo El Saladito.

Operation 2: West Side of the Arroyo El Saladito

The settlement on the west side of the Arroyo El Saladito was mapped within an area 650 meters long by 250 meters wide. It includes a stone building, the ruins of a cooking horno, the ruins of a lime kiln, the ruins of a stone dam, a building block quarry site, and a natural spring along the arroyo's left bank (Figure 27). Based on oral history (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002), the extant stone house was built shortly after her father, Adolfo Hinojosa Saenz, purchased the ranch in 1928 (Figure 16 on page 113). It was built by Francisco Hinojosa Barrera of Los Guerras using stone recycled from a nearby cooking horno and additional blocks from the quarry. According to Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, the dam was either newly built by her father or else he refurbished an older construction (personal communication 2002). Regardless, the dam provided fresh drinking water to the inhabitants, crucial because the sulfurous nature of the arroyo waters rendered it unpalatable except to livestock. However, the sulfurous waters and associated clay were used by humans for recreational and medicinal purposes (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

Equipment and Procedure

The mapping equipment used for this project was a Sokkia Set 4 Total Data Station (TDS) along with a SR-33 data collector. The Mesoamerican Archaeological Research Laboratory provided the TDS, while the Texas Archaeological Research Laboratory furnished the data collector. Bruce Moses of the Center for Archeological Research at UTSA provided several training sessions for the mapping crew prior to the fieldwork.

Mapping at Rancho El Saladito began near the southeast gate on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito, which bisects the rancho. A control point near the south fence line was established by driving a metal rod into the ground and then designated “North 1000, East 1000.” This control point was also tied in with a nearby cement utility pole, which made a convenient permanent reference point. Mapping proceeded due north, establishing control points every 50 meters, until the east bank of the Arroyo El Saladito prevented the mapping crew from continuing in a northerly direction (Figure 28).

From Control Point 8, the mapping proceeded due east until the ranch’s eastern fenceline was encountered (Control Point 12). At this point the mapping crew attempted to again proceed due north, but the vegetation was quite thick and clearing brechas proved to be unworkable given the amount of time we had for the project. It also became evident that the area of earliest occupation was twice as far from the road as had been previously estimated by the landowner and the author. The mapping strategy had to be adjusted to include a larger area and to compensate for the thick underbrush.

To speed up our arrival at the area of archaeological interest, the mapping crew began to follow the dirt road as it winded through the ranch’s gravel quarries. It took about 20 shots to reach the end of the road where an arroyo leads to the Río Grande (Río Bravo del Norte). These east side settlements were concentrated in an area roughly 200 meters long by 150 meters wide (Figure 28). Based on ceramic analysis, the oldest occupation is near the end of the dirt road, where a triangle of land is formed, bounded by the Arroyo El Saladito on the west and the



Figure 28: Detail of mapping effort along the east road and in crossing the arroyo at Rancho El Saladito.

Río Grande to the east. Across the Río Grande from the Rancho El Saladito is La Isla, the largest of four islands in this part of the river.

According to oral tradition, the eighteenth-century pobladores established their ranch on the east side of the Arroyo El Saladito near the most important resource for themselves and their livestock: fresh river water (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). Archival sources document the Spanish colonial tendency to keep livestock on the north bank of the Río Grande, while the colonists lived and farmed on the south bank (Casteñeda 1938:vol. 2, p. 172). Further evidence of the widespread nature of this practice is a 1792 map of Nuevo Santander that illustrates the ranching communities on the north bank associated with each Revilla, Mier, Camargo, and Reynosa (Figures 29 and 30).

During the twentieth century, the ranch house was moved to the west side of the Arroyo El Saladito, where a dam on an arm of the arroyo was constructed to provide fresh water. Descendents cite the desire to be closer to town and to the road among the motivations behind the move (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

The control points along the dirt road were used as references for subsequent and more detailed surveying. The mapping process continued throughout the excavation phase as overgrown areas were cleared and datums and units were established. Meanwhile, to complete the initial mapping phase, it was necessary to get across the Arroyo El Saladito and to connect the two areas of settlement on the map. For this the crew returned to Control Point 8, where a temporary datum was established atop a nearby hill and designated TD 5 (Figure

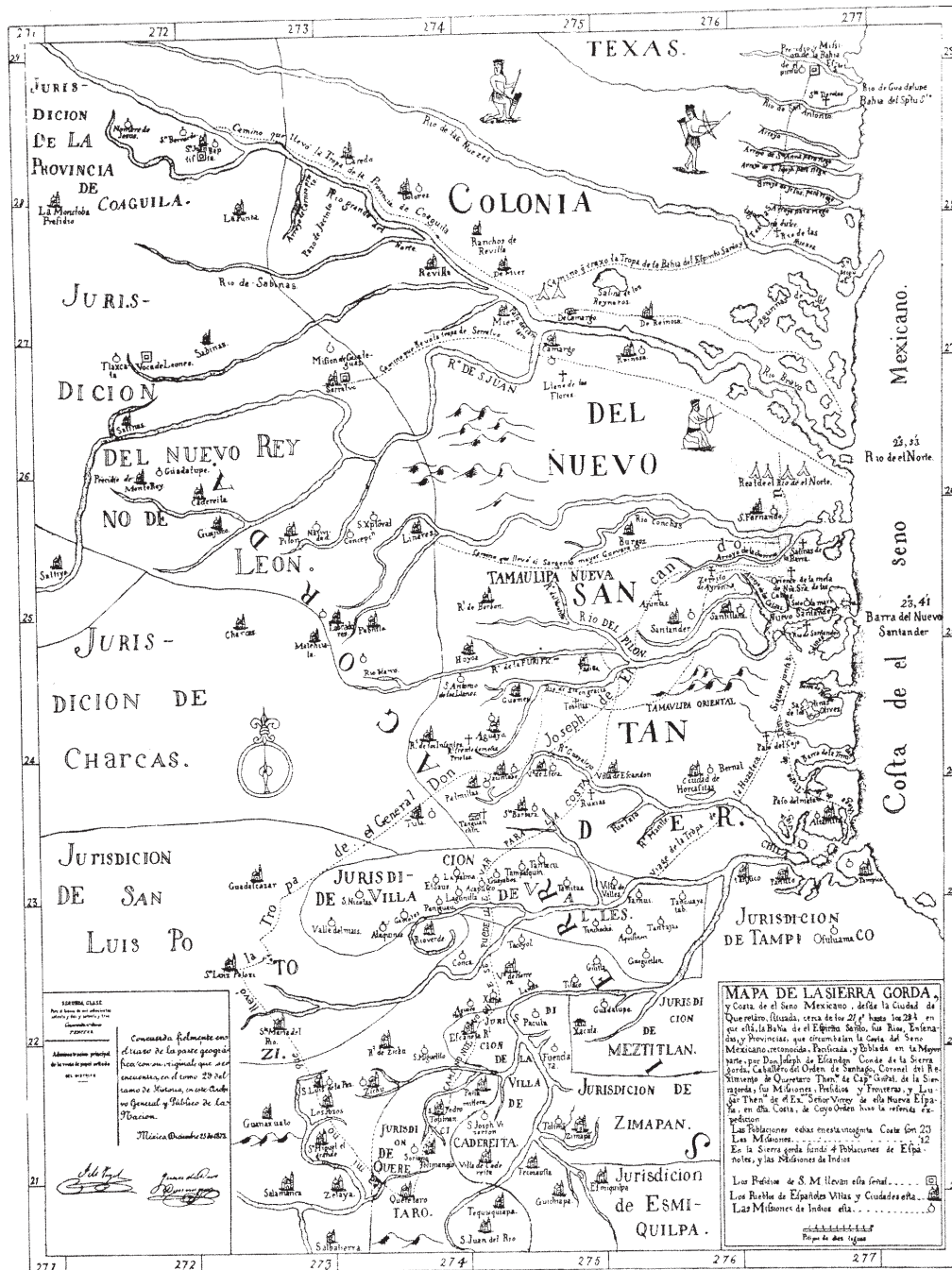


Figure 29: 1792 map of Nuevo Santander ("Mapa de la Sierra Gorda y Costa del Seno Mexicano desde la Ciudad de Queretaro cerca de los 21° hasta la Bahía de Espiritu Santo a los 28.5°; sus rios, ensenadas y provincias pacificadas por Don José de Escandón," en Monumentos para la historia de Coahuila y Seno Mexicano, Archivo General de la Nación, (Cat. 221) Historia, vol. 29, f. 190, as cited in Reyes Vayssade, et al. 1990.)

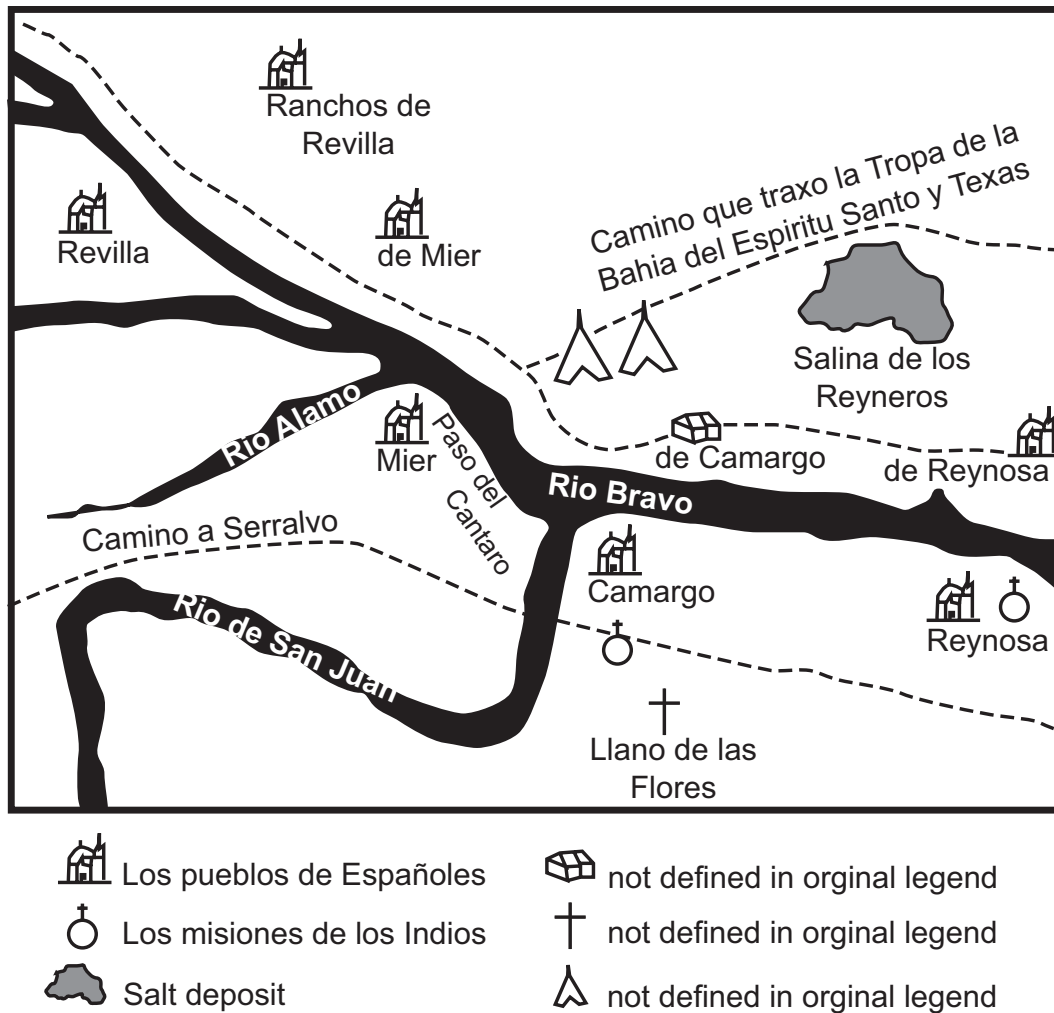


Figure 29: Detail taken from a 1792 map of Nuevo Santander illustrating the ranching communities of Revilla, Mier, Camargo, and Reynosa on the north bank of the Río Grande. ("Mapa de la Sierra Gorda y Costa del Seno Mexicano desde la Ciudad de Queretaro cerca de los 21° hasta la Bahía de Espíritu Santo a los 28.5°; sus rios, ensenadas y provincias pacificadas por Don José de Escandón," en *Monumentos para la historia de Coahuila y Seno Mexicano*, Archivo General de la Nación, (Cat. 221) *Historia*, vol. 29, f. 190, as cited in Reyes Vayssade, et al. 1990.)

28). From the hill it was possible to clearly see across the arroyo and into the yard surrounding the ranch house. In this manner we established a control point in the yard (Control Point 13) that could be used to orient the map on the west side and tie the two maps together. Actual mapping of the west side, however, did not begin until excavations were complete on the east side.

Initially, mapping on the west side concentrated on the structures inside the fenced yard surrounding the ranch house and including the out buildings. The ruins of a cooking horno were documented in the south corner of the yard and the area around it was cleared of vegetation to prepare for excavations. The area to the south, east, and west of the fenced yard was explored until the thick vegetation of the arroyo prevented further passage. The mapping continued to the northeast along a dirt road that followed a side channel of the arroyo, past the ruins of the lime kiln and the dam (Figures 32 through 37). The road “ends” at the building-stone quarry, an area with several bedrock outcroppings near the intersection with the main channel of the Arroyo El Saladito (Figures 38 and 39). At this point of the arroyo, the floor of the channel consists of a layer of exposed bedrock forming a flat, regular surface that is very easy to walk across when the water is low (Figure 40). In fact, the “end” of another road on the opposite bank indicates that this spot has served as a convenient crossing point for some time.

About 300 meters north of this crossing point and along the west bank is the sulfurous spring head. The stretch of land between the quarry and the spring is notable. Immediately northwest of the quarry are eroding sandy bluffs (Figures 41 and 42). Stone tools were recovered here on the surface, most likely after eroding

(Text continues on page 156.)



Figure 31: Detail of mapping effort along the west road at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 32: Lime kiln facing northwest or uphill at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 33: Lime kiln facing southeast or downhill, note large stones at base of hill.



Figure 34: Photo facing north of the dam's south side at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 35: Photo facing west illustrating construction of the dam.



Figure 36: Photo facing east towards the opposite bank with the dam on the left.



Figure 37: Detail of the dam remnant visible in the channel of the previous figure.



Figure 38: These are two views of the limestone bedrock outcropping at Rancho El Saladito that was used as a building stone quarry. The left photo is facing southwest and the truck is parked just to the right of the bluff in the upper right corner. The right photo faces southeast across the arroyo. The arrow points to the same bush in each photo for orientation assistance.



Figure 39: To take the photos in Figure 37, I stood in the grassy area, which is visible in the foreground of the left photo. This is a view of the adjacent area of the quarry facing northwest and it shows the bluffs on the left. The right photo is the same bedrock outcropping, but of the opposite side (facing southeast).



Figure 40: Arroyo crossing between the ancient quarry on the west bank and the end of a modern quarry road on the east bank (facing south). Right photo shows detail of the middle portion of the left photo, the arrow point out the same rock in each photo.

down from the tops of the bluffs. Salt can be seen coating the ground around the base of the bluffs.

Between the crossing at the quarry and the Río Grande, the Arroyo Saladito widens out and fills with water (Figure 43). The stretch of arroyo from the crossing point to the springs and probably beyond is a geologic curiosity in that one can see bubbles rising from numerous gas vents below the water surface (Figure 44). The largest gas bubbles emerge from the spring itself (Figure 45). I witnessed that it is possible to light the emanating gas; however, I was told the effect is more dramatic at night (Figure 46). From this source flows enough cool sulphurous water to maintain the level of the arroyo downstream from the spring to the Río Grande, even during the summer (Figure 47). South of this point, the water flow of the arroyo is little to non-existent unless runoff water is flowing after a rain.

Figure 48 is a topographic map of the Operation 2 excavations and the related features on the west side, including the stone house, a cooking horno, a lime kiln, a dam, and a building stone quarry. Figure 49 is a photo of the house and fenced area from the opposite side of the arroyo. The terrain to the southwest of the stone house and fenced yard gently slopes to the arroyo and was farmed by the twentieth-century inhabitants (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). The lime kiln is located in an area of eroded sandy hills that lie along a side channel of the arroyo. The lime produced here was used to make the plaster for the stone building, according to oral history (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gómez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). The lime was made by burning river shells and fossilized oyster shells. Limestone river pebbles,



Figure 41: Sandy bluffs to the northwest of the quarry as seen from the opposite side of the arroyo. Salt is visible on the surface at the base of their slopes.



Figure 42: Salt visible on the ground at the base of the sandy bluffs. Opposite side of the arroyo is in the background as this photo was taken facing east.



Figure 43: The Arroyo El Saladito widens and fills with water north of the quarry and crossing place. The arrow points to the spring head.



Figure 44: Daniel Garcia Hernández stands over the spring at Rancho El Saladito. Gas vents are visible along the arroyo as their bubbles break the surface. The arrow indicates the quarry.



Figure 45: Gas bubbles emerging from the spring head.



Figure 46: Gil Javier Guerra S. demonstrates that it is possible to light the gas from the spring.



Figure 47: The spring maintains the level of the arroyo north or downstream to the Río Grande.

approximately fist-sized and of a dark gray or blue color, were used in the kiln because of their heat-retaining properties. The top of the bluff where the kiln is located is covered with these blue-gray stones, however the bluff is made of sand with little to no naturally-occurring stone. Large building stones are visible downhill from the eroding lime kiln and suggest that these may have been used in the kiln construction (Figures 32 and 33 on page 155).

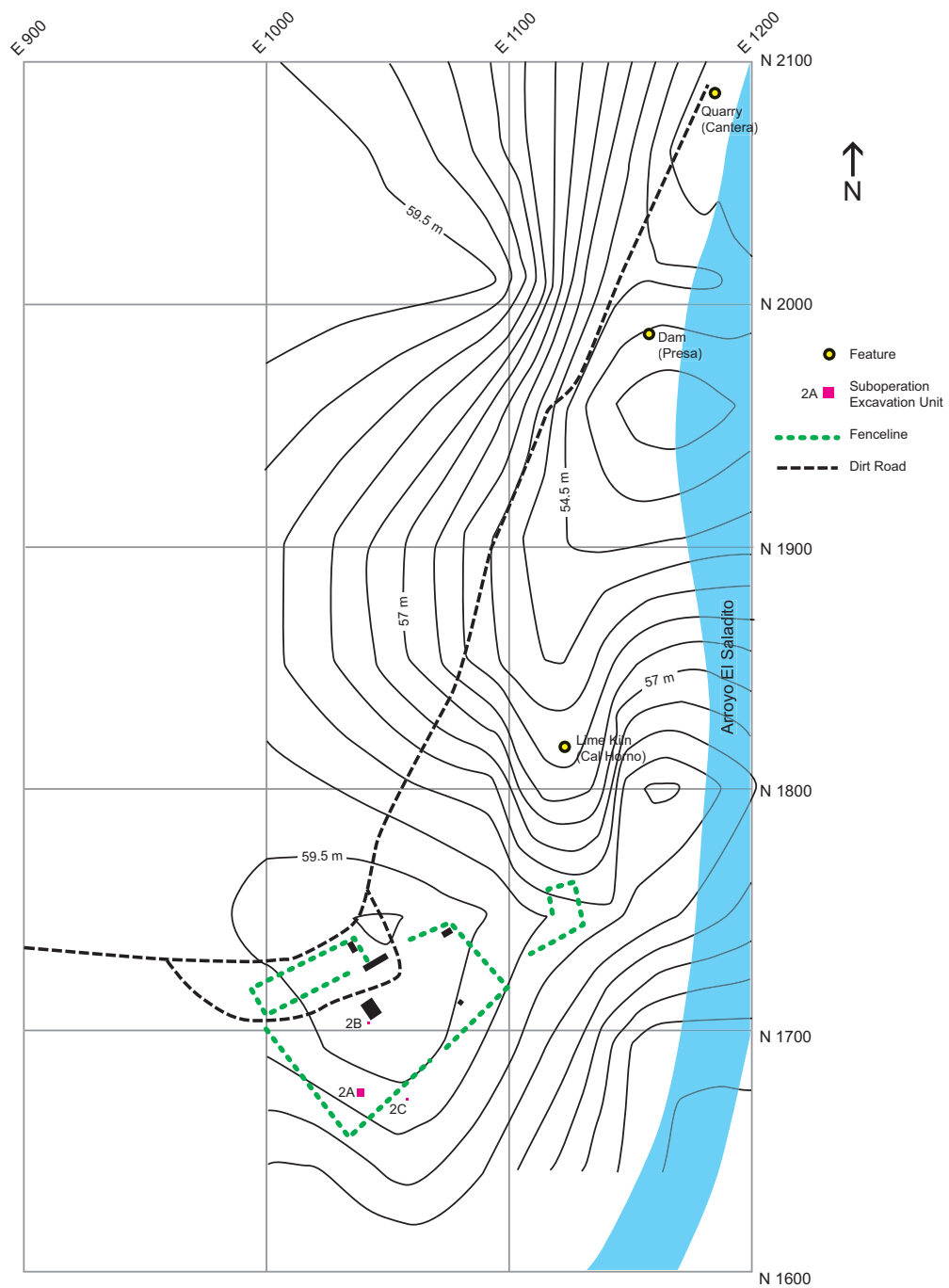


Figure 48: Topographic map of the Operation 2 excavations on the west side of the arroyo at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 49: The stone house, an old outhouse, a rainwater tank, a stable, and a modern flush toilet with a shower and its own rainwater tank at Rancho El Saladito as viewed from the opposite side of the arroyo.

The same side channel continues north-northwest to the dam, less than 200 meters away. The dam was constructed of stone and took advantage of the narrowing of a side channel of the main arroyo. Remnants of the original construction are visible along the west bank, while several large stones that are still cemented together sit in the bottom of the channel (Figures 34 through 37 on page 155). Extensive topographic shots were not possible in the area of the dam because of thick vegetation and a lack of time and resources.

Photographic and Other Types of Documentation

All photographic documentation of the excavations and artifacts was accomplished digitally with a Nikon CoolPix 995 (supplied by the Mesoamerican Archaeological Research Lab at the University of Texas at Austin).

Plan views and profiles were drawn for Suboperation 2A, the only excavation unit that involved an architectural feature. Architectural drawings were made of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito and are presented in Chapter 7.

Labratory Methods

Artifact Analysis

The washing and preparing of the artifacts for analysis occurred during days that the weather prevented fieldwork. Thus, the cataloguing and analyzing of the artifacts was able to commence immediately following the fieldwork phases on October 21, 2002. Ten days later the analysis was complete. Recording efforts beyond the mapping of the site included taking digital photographs of the artifacts and rendering architectural drawings of the four sides and plan view of the stone building.

Artifacts recovered in excavations and from surface collecting included objects of ceramic, lithic, shell, bone, metal, and glass. A total of 2,407 artifacts weighing 3,246 g were recorded from both sides of the Arroyo El Saladito. Of this total, 90% of the quantity, or 2,161 artifacts weighing 544.8 g were recovered on the east side of the arroyo from Operation 1. Although smaller in number, the artifacts from Operation 2 on the west side of the arroyo actually weigh much more (2701.2 g) because the total includes 57 metal objects.

Artifacts were separated into classifications and then counted and weighed. Ceramic sherds were further separated into various types, including Galera, Majolica, Mier Plain, and Glazewares. The sherds were then counted and weighed within this framework. Pursuant to the permit for this project, all artifacts were delivered to the INAH office in Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas, México (on November 7, 2002), for curation along with copies of all the excavation forms and the laboratory analysis paperwork. Copies of these documents are also on file at TARL, along with digital images of the artifacts.

Analysis Procedure

The artifact analysis portion of this project was accomplished in a field laboratory set up in one room of an apartment in Mier, Tamaulipas, Mexico, during October 21-31, 2002. Equipment for the laboratory was provided by MARL and TARL. The patio of the apartment was used to wash and dry artifacts.

Artifacts were separated into six categories, including ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. After dividing them into categories, the artifacts were counted and weighed with a digital scale. Land snails were discarded after counting and weighing. All other artifacts were bagged separately in plastic zip baggies, including a piece of acid-free paper with each, which contained the provenience, quantity, and weight. The lithic and ceramic artifacts received further examination. Lithic artifacts were divided into tools, projectile points, primary flakes, secondary flakes, tertiary flakes, and shatter, all of which were manufactured from chert. Primary flakes have 50-100% cortex on their outer surface. Secondary flakes have 0-49% cortex and tertiary flakes have no cortex. Shatter lacks diagnostic features like bulbs of percussion, but likely represents a by-product of hard hammer lithic manufacturing.

Ceramic artifacts were divided into eight types: Galera Wares, Majolica, Burnished Redware, Mier Plain Unglazed, Glazed wares, English wares, black slip, and black on cream. The first six of these were the most common. English wares were further divided and described based on the design, color(s), or technique.

Curation

Cultural material processed by the field laboratory in Mier was washed, air-dried, and stored in archival-quality bags. Acid-free labels were placed in all

artifact bags. Each bag was labeled with a provenience. Artifacts were separated by class into individual bags, but all bags with the same provenience were placed together in an appropriately labeled archival-quality bag. Acid-free copies of the field notes, excavation and laboratory forms, and drawings are on file with the Ciudad Victoria, Tamaulipas office of the Instituto Nacional de Antropología e Historia, and on file at the Texas Archaeological Research Laboratory. All of the artifacts and paperwork were taken to the INAH office in Ciudad Victoria (on November 7, 2002), where they are curated according to the requirements of Permit 401-36/0848 from the Consejo de Arqueología del INAH. Compact discs containing digital photographs of the excavations and artifacts are also on file with INAH and TARL.

Conclusions

Archival and genealogical research document a steady rate of growth at San Lorenzo de las Minas, the likely precursor to Rancho El Saladito. The rancho population increased from 15 people in two families in 1782 to 63 people in 11 families by 1817. Marriages and the subsequent incorporation of in-laws' property to the rancho contributed greatly to its economic success. The distribution of livestock indicates apparent specialization by certain families in breeding or training certain animals to the exclusion of others. Such specialization would have influenced the spatial arrangement of settlements across the landscape. The placement of the excavations described in the next chapter was based on ethnohistorical information and the location of artifacts on the surface.

Chapter 7: Results and Discussions of Investigations

Introduction

Excavations were divided into two operations, one on each side of the Arroyo El Saladito. Operation 1 encompasses the east side of the arroyo, where the earliest settlement took place. Operation 2 is the west side of the arroyo, the site of a mainly twentieth-century occupation.

Operation 1, Suboperation A

Description

Suboperation A is at the north end of Rancho El Saladito, near the confluence of the Arroyo El Saladito and the Rio Grande (Figure 27 on page 146). It is located in the northernmost area examined, where numerous Majolica sherds were observed eroding into the arroyo. It is also near where one of the landowners remembered encountering the foundation stones of a previous structure (Gil Javier Guerra, personal communication 2002). His grandmother remembered jacales in the same area when her father bought the ranch in 1928 (Berta Hinojosa de Guerra, personal communication 2002). No structures, however, were encountered in the survey or excavations of Operation 1. Suboperation B is about six meters from Suboperation A and the two should be considered elements of the same suboperation, regardless of their nomenclature. The two excavation units received distinct suboperation designations because they were open simultaneously, not because they differ significantly. For organizational purposes, the lots are described individually and then both suboperations A and B will be discussed and summarized together. These two suboperations likely represent the

area of oldest occupation at Rancho El Saladito, based on the predominance of Mexican Majolica and the absence of English Whiteware in the ceramic sample. The area chosen for excavations was about six meters south of the the edge of the arroyo where numerous artifacts were visible on the surface and eroding down its sides. Prickly pear and barrel cactus were removed around a mesquite tree to allow for excavations. This suboperation consists of four lots in one 1-X-2 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation A contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. Small quantities of fossilized oyster shell fragments and fire-cracked rock were observed, but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 18:

Table 18: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	95	138.2
Lithic	18	36.3
Land Snail	25	18.8
Aquatic Shell	18	10.5
Bone	5	54.7
Metal	2	4.9
Total	163	263.4

The two metal fragments were unidentifiable. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 95 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 19:

Table 19: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	17	18.7
Burnished Redware	3	2.5
Galera Ware	14	21.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	22	51.5
Glazed Ware	39	43.9
Total	95	138.2

The detailed lithic analysis of 18 artifacts from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 20:

Table 20: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 1

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Secondary flake	1	1.6
Tertiary flake	13	24.2
Shatter	4	10.5
Total	18	36.3

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation A was the layer below Lot 1. The artifact density was much lower than Lot 1, with Lot 2 containing artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. Small quantities of fossilized oyster shell fragments and fire-cracked rock were observed, but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 21:

Table 21: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	4	12.4
Lithic	5	6.9
Land Snail	9	9.6
Aquatic Shell	2	0.6
Total	20	29.5

The detailed ceramic analysis of the four sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 22:

Table 22: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	1	1.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	2.9
Glazed Ware	2	8.0
Total	4	12.4

The detailed lithic analysis of five artifacts from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 23:

Table 23: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 2

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Tertiary flake	2	1.8
Shatter	3	5.1
Total	5	6.9

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation A was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, adjacent at the original unit's northeast corner. This lot contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The ceramic sample includes one rounded sherd. Lithic sample includes a unifacial scraper. A small quantity of fossilized oyster shell, some of it burned, was observed but not collected. The quantity and weight

totals for each category are given in the following Table 24:

Table 24: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	72	132.4
Lithic	7	49.4
Land Snail	3	3.2
Aquatic Shell	17	25.7
Total	99	210.7

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 72 sherds from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 25:

Table 25: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 3

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	9	9
Burnished Redware	2	1.5
Galera Ware	5	5.8
Unglazed Mier Plain	30	64.4
Glazed Ware	25	51.2
Black Slip	1	0.5
Total	72	132.4

The detailed lithic analysis of seven artifacts from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 26:

Table 26: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 3

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Unifacial Scraper	1	5.8
Primary flake	1	1.0
Secondary flake	1	7.2
Shatter	4	35.4
Total	7	49.4

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation A was the layer below Lot 3 in the extension of the original unit. Lot 4 contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The bone sample includes a limb joint from a large mammal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 27:

Table 27: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	19	34.0
Lithic	3	4.5
Land Snail	11	11.0
Aquatic Shell	7	6.5
Bone	4	7.2
Total	44	63.2

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 19 sherds from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 28:

Table 28: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 4

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	2.3
Burnished Redware	1	6.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	8	18.0
Glazed Ware	9	7.2
Total	19	34.0

The detailed lithic analysis of four artifacts from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 29:

Table 29: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation A, Lot 4

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Primary flake	1	0.5
Secondary flake	2	4.0
Total	3	4.5

Operation 1, Suboperation B

Description

Suboperation B is at the north end of Rancho El Saladito, near the confluence of the Arroyo El Saladito and the Rio Grande (Figure 27 on page 146). It is located in the northernmost area examined, where numerous Majolica sherds were observed eroding into the arroyo. It is also near where oral history places some of the oldest structures (Berta Hinojosa de Guerra, personal communication 2002). Suboperation B is about two meters south of the edge of the arroyo and

about four meters north of Suboperation A and, as stated previously, the two should be considered elements of the same suboperation, regardless of their nomenclature. These two suboperations likely represent the area of oldest occupation at Rancho El Saladito, based on not only oral history, but also on the predominance of Mexican Majolica and the absence of English Whiteware in the ceramic sample. This suboperation consists of seven lots in one 1-X-3 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation B contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and one metal fragment, which is a link of a small chain (Figure 50). The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 30:



Figure 50: Both sides of a metal chain link forged from a square nail from Suboperation B, Lot 1.

Table 30: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	54	123.8
Lithic	4	1.4
Land Snail	10	10.0
Aquatic Shell	16	8.1
Metal	1	2.0
Total	85	145.3

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 54 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 31:

Table 31: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	9	9.0
Burnished Redware	3	9.0
Unglazed Mier Plain	17	52.5
Glazed Ware	24	52.1
Galera Ware	1	1.2
Total	54	123.8

The detailed lithic analysis of four artifacts from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 32:

Table 32: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 1

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Tertiary flake	2	0.9
Shatter	2	0.5
Total	4	1.4

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation B was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 33:

Table 33: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	3	3.6
Lithic	2	1.2
Land Snail	20	28.8
Aquatic Shell	2	0.5
Total	27	34.1

The detailed ceramic analysis of the three sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 34:

Table 34: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	2.0
Glazed Ware	2	1.6
Total	3	3.6

The detailed lithic analysis of two artifacts from Lot 2 revealed that both are tertiary flakes.

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation B was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, adjacent at the original unit's northeast corner. This lot contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 35:

Table 35: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	16	31.6
Lithic	3	5.9
Land Snail	3	2.8
Aquatic Shell	1	1.9
Total	23	42.2

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 16 sherds from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 36:

Table 36: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 3

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	4	8.1
Burnished Redware	3	12.1
Galera Ware	1	1.3
Glazed Ware	8	10.1
Total	16	31.6

The detailed lithic analysis of three artifacts from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 37:

Table 37: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 3

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Primary flake	1	2.5
Secondary flake	1	1.7
Shatter	1	1.7
Total	3	5.9

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation B was the layer beneath Lot 3. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The lithic sample contained a Starr point (Figure 51). The aquatic shell sample included a nearly complete bivalve. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 38:

Table 38: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	7	11.3
Lithic	6	4.2
Land Snail	33	35.3
Aquatic Shell	12	29.0
Total	58	79.8

The detailed ceramic analysis of the seven sherds from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 39:

Table 39: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 4

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	3	2.6
Galera Ware	1	3.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	3.3
Glazed Ware	1	1.8
Total	7	11.3

The detailed lithic analysis of six artifacts from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 40:

Table 40: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 4

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Starr projectile point	1	0.5
Secondary flake	3	3.1
Tertiary flake	2	0.6
Total	6	4.2

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation B was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, adjacent to the original unit's east side



Figure 51: Both sides of the Starr projectile point from Suboperation B, Lot 4.

and the first extension's south side.

This lot contained artifacts of ceramic,

lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. A

small quantity of fossilized oyster shell

was observed, but not collected. The

quantity and weight totals for each

category are given in the following

Table 41:

Table 41: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 5

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	34	68.2
Lithic	12	26.0
Land Snail	1	1.0
Aquatic Shell	7	6.3
Total	54	98.3

The detailed ceramic analysis of the

34 sherds from Lot 5 is presented in

the following Table 42:

Table 42: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 5

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	12	23.2
Burnished Redware	1	0.7
Galera Ware	1	0.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	8	23.9
Glazed Ware	12	19.9
Total	34	68.2

The detailed lithic analysis of 12 artifacts from Lot 5 is presented in the following Table 43:

Table 43: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 5

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Secondary flake	2	8.6
Tertiary flake	6	7.3
Shatter	4	10.1
Total	12	26.0

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation B was the layer beneath Lot 5. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 44:

Table 44: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 6

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	7	6.5
Lithic	7	4.3
Land Snail	18	22.0
Aquatic Shell	6	0.6
Total	38	33.4

The detailed ceramic analysis of the seven sherds from Lot 6 is presented in the following Table 45:

Table 45: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 6

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	0.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	3	4.0
Glazed Ware	2	1.5
Black on Cream	1	0.4
Total	7	6.5

The detailed lithic analysis of seven artifacts from Lot 6 is presented in the following Table 46:

Table 46: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 6

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Primary flake	1	1.5
Tertiary flake	6	2.8
Total	7	4.3

Lot 7

Lot 7 of Suboperation B was the layer beneath Lot 4. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail,

aquatic shell, and bone. The aquatic shell sample includes one complete half of a bivalve. A small amount of charcoal and burnt clay were observed, but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 47:

Table 47: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 7

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	7	3.9
Lithic	16	11.3
Land Snail	38	35.1
Aquatic Shell	5	10.1
Bone	7	5.5
Total	73	65.9

The detailed ceramic analysis of the seven sherds from Lot 7 is presented in the following Table 48:

Table 48: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 7

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	0.5
Galera Ware	1	0.9
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	0.8
Glazed Ware	2	1.0
Black Slip	1	0.7
Total	7	3.9

The detailed lithic analysis of 16 artifacts from Lot 7 is presented in the following Table 49:

Table 49: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation B, Lot 7

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Tertiary flake	7	5.5
Shatter	9	5.8
Total	16	11.3

Operation 1, Suboperations A and B Excavation Summary

The excavations at Suboperations A and B revealed three important trends that would guide the rest of the excavations. First, the majority of the artifacts were contained in the upper 10 centimeters of matrix, with the artifact density falling significantly within the 10 to 20 centimeter level. Second, prehistoric deposits are mixed in with the colonial artifacts (Starr projectile point from 1-B-4), thus attesting to both the length of human occupation in this area and the probable deflation of the site due to

water and wind erosion in a sandy area. Finally, the size of the ceramic sherds encountered in these excavations was consistently small, with most weighing one gram each or less. This remained constant throughout the project, although larger sherds were encountered on the surface.

Operation 1, Suboperations A and B Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperations A and B was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 50:

Table 50: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	388	3209.4
Lithic	9	88.9
Aquatic Shell	3	48.5
Bone	5	44.7
Metal	10	51.2
Glass	3	8.6
Total	448	3451.3

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 418 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B is presented in the following Table 51:

Table 51: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	157	812.5
Burnished Redware	18	98.6
Galera Ware	30	84.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	41	771.9
Glazed Ware	139	1,428.2
Black Slip (2 sides)	1	10.8
Black and Red on Cream	2	3.2
Total	388	3209.4

The detailed lithic analysis of nine artifacts from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B is presented in the following Table 52:

Table 52: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Biface preform	1	61.9
Triangular Projectile Point	1	6.7
Projectile Point (distal fragments)	3	5.8
Utilized flake (shaft straightener)	1	1.4
Tertiary flake	3	13.1
Total	9	88.9

The metal artifacts of the surface collection include a medallion with the words “Baring Lxon” embossed on one side (Figure 52). A pendant or milagro in the shape of cross with a heart-shaped opening at the base was found on the surface near the northwest corner of Suboperation B (Figure 53). The detailed analysis of 10 metal artifacts from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B is presented in the following Table 53:

Table 53: Quantity and weight of Metal artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Embossed Medallion	1	15.3
Hooks or Chain Links	3	11.3
Pendant Cross	1	1.8
Unidentifiable	5	22.8
Total	10	51.2

One of the metal hooks or links had a perforated piece of metal attached (Figure 54). The surface collection includes a utilized aquatic shell (Figure 55), and at least one piece of bone with

cut marks. The glass fragments are all aqua bottle glass.

Operation 1, Suboperation C

Description

Suboperation C is at the western end of the study area, along the eastern bank of the Arroyo El Saladito about 250 meters before it empties into the Rio Grande (Figure 27 on page 146). Nearly due east of Suboperation C is the sulfurous spring on the opposite bank of the arroyo more than 100 meters away. This suboperation is located between a dirt road and the edge of the arroyo. This area is a natural terrace that gently slopes down to the arroyo and was the site of a *labor* or agricultural field during the twentieth century (Gil Javier Guerra, personal communication 2002). Perhaps this tilling of the soil helped to reveal the numerous ceramic sherds, lithics, metal and glass fragments found on the surface. This suboperation likely



Figure 52: Both sides of a metal medallion embossed with "Baring Lxon" from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B.

represents an area of mainly post-1824 occupation at Rancho El Saladito, based on the predominance of English whiteware in the ceramic sample. The area chosen for excavations was near the edge of the road where the terrace was most elevated. Prickly pear cactus was removed around a mesquite tree to allow for excavations. This suboperation consists of six lots in one 1-X-3 unit and eight lots in another 1-X-2 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation C contained artifacts of ceramic, land snail, bone, and glass. The glass artifact from this



Figure 53: Both sides of a metal cross from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B.

lot is a green glass bottle stopper (Figure 56). The bone sample includes a tooth fragment of a large mammal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 54:

Table 54: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	13	15.8
Land Snail	2	3.0
Bone	3	1.8
Glass	1	0.5
Total	19	21.1



Figure 54: Hooks and/or chain links from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B.

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 13 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 55:

Table 55: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	1	0.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	6	9.2
Glazed Ware	4	2.1
Englishware	2	3.9
Total	13	15.8

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic and bone, which included a fragment of a rib from a



Figure 55: Both sides of a utilized aquatic shell from the surface collection associated with Suboperations A and B.

large mammal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 56:

Table 56: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	5	5.5
Bone	15	29.5
Total	21	35.0

The detailed ceramic analysis of the five sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 57:

Table 57: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	1.4
Glazed Ware	2	0.8
Englishware	1	3.3
Total	5	5.5

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 2. It contained no artifacts.

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation C was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, adjacent at the original unit's north side. This lot contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The bone sample included one fragment of a tooth from a large mammal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 58:

Table 58: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	22	30.0
Lithic	2	1.5
Land Snail	1	1.7
Aquatic Shell	2	2.2
Bone	13	21.4
Total	40	56.8

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 22 sherds from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 59:



Figure 56: Green glass bottle stopper from Suboperation C, Lot 1 excavation.

Table 59: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 4

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	0.3
Galera Ware	3	3.3
Unglazed Mier Plain	7	9.0
Glazed Ware	9	16.4
Englishware	2	1.0
Total	22	30.0

The detailed lithic analysis of two artifacts from Lot 4 revealed that both are tertiary flakes.

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 4. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 60:

Table 60: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 5

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	1	0.7
Lithic	1	0.5
Land Snail	2	2.0
Aquatic Shell	1	0.5
Bone	33	111.6
Total	38	115.3

The detailed ceramic analysis of the sherd from Lot 5 identified it as Majolica. This sherd is not painted. The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 5 identified one piece of shatter. The bone sample includes a fragment of the proximal end of a femur from a large mammal.

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation C was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, located 1.3 meters south of the original unit. This lot contained artifacts of ceramic, land snail, bone, and one piece of light green glass. The bone sample is comprised of very small fragments. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 61:

Table 61: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 6

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	15	38.6
Land Snail	4	4.5
Bone	36	18.1
Glass	1	1.2
Total	56	62.4

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 15 sherds from Lot 6 is presented in the following Table 62:

Table 62: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 6

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	1	0.3
Unglazed Mier Plain	5	6.1
Glazed Ware	6	29.1
Englishware	3	3.1
Total	15	38.6

Lot 7

Lot 7 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 6. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and bone. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 63:

Table 63: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 7

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	4	8.2
Lithic	1	0.6
Land Snail	5	5.9
Bone	9	3.4
Total	19	18.1

The detailed ceramic analysis of Lot 7 identified all four sherds as Unglazed Mier Plain. The detailed lithic analysis of this lot identified one tertiary flake. A large decaying root was visible in the unit's west wall profile.

Lot 8

Lot 8 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 7. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 64:

Table 64: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 8

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	1	1.0
Lithic	1	0.5
Land Snail	6	8.2
Aquatic Shell	1	1.5
Bone	1	12.3
Total	10	23.5

The detailed ceramic analysis of Lot 8 identified the sherd as Unglazed Mier Plain. The detailed lithic analysis of this lot identified one tertiary flake.

The bone artifact is a long bone of a small mammal.

Lot 9

Lot 9 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 5 in the northern extension of the original unit. It contained artifacts of lithic, land snail, and bone. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 65:

Table 65: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 9

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Lithic	2	0.6
Land Snail	5	5.9
Bone	1	0.3
Total	8	6.8

The detailed lithic analysis of two artifacts from Lot 9 is presented in the following Table 66:

Table 66: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 9

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Tertiary flake	1	0.2
Shatter	1	0.4
Total	2	0.6

Lot 10

Lot 10 of Suboperation C was a 20-centimeter layer beneath Lot 9 that ended at 50 centimeters below datum.

It contained no artifacts.

Lot 11

Lot 11 of Suboperation C was the top layer of a 1m² extension of the unit, located 1.3 meters south of the original unit and adjacent to Lots 6 through 8 along the west side. This lot contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 67:

Table 67: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 11

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	14	35.9
Lithic	2	2.4
Land Snail	2	2.3
Aquatic Shell	1	0.8
Total	19	41.4

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 14 sherds from Lot 11 is presented in the following Table 68:

Table 68: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 11

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	1	0.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	7	11.1
Glazed Ware	4	14.9
Englishware	2	9.7
Total	14	35.9

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 11 identified both pieces as shatter.

Lot 12

Lot 12 of Suboperation C was the layer beneath Lot 11. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, bone, and one piece of light green glass. The bone sample is comprised of very small fragments. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 69:

Table 69: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 12

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	10	19.7
Lithic	1	0.1
Land Snail	6	8.7
Bone	11	4.1
Glass	1	0.3
Total	29	32.9

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 10 sherds from Lot 12 is presented in the following Table 70:

Table 70: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 12

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	2	1.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	5	15.7
Glazed Ware	2	1.3
Englishware	1	1.5
Total	10	19.7

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 12 identified one tertiary flake.

Lot 13

Lot 13 of Suboperation C was the top layer of a 1m² extension to the north of Lots 11 and 12. Lot 13 contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. The lithic sample includes two scrapers. The quantity and weight

totals for each category are given in the following Table 71:

Table 71: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 13

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	9	23.7
Lithic	2	21.3
Land Snail	1	0.4
Aquatic Shell	1	0.1
Bone	7	2.8
Metal	1	0.8
Total	21	49.1

The detailed ceramic analysis of the nine sherds from Lot 13 is presented in the following Table 72:

Table 72: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 13

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	0.8
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	4.2
Glazed Ware	5	17.2
Englishware	1	1.5
Total	9	23.7

The detailed lithic analysis of two artifacts from Lot 13 is presented in the following Table 73:

Table 73: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 13

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Unifacial scraper	1	1.4
Bifacial scraper	1	19.9
Total	2	21.3

Lot 14

Lot 14 of Suboperation C was a 50-centimeter layer beneath Lot 10. It contained artifacts of lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 74:

Table 74: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation C, Lot 14

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Lithic	1	2.1
Land Snail	2	2.0
Aquatic Shell	2	4.2
Total	5	8.3

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 14 identified one secondary flake.

Operation 1, Suboperation C

Excavation Summary

The excavations at Suboperation C revealed an occupation whose ceramic artifacts differ remarkably from Suboperations A and B. Glazed and plain sherds are present in both locations, however, the differences between the ratios of Majolica to English whitewares are significant. No

English whitewares were recovered in Suboperations A and B; Majolica variations were the dominant type. Conversely, only three Majolica sherds weighing 1.8 grams combined were recovered from Suboperation C excavations. English whitewares recovered here include 12 sherds weighing 23.1 grams.

Operation 1, Suboperation C

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation C was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 75:

Table 75: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation C

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	327	1650.2
Lithic	12	252.2
Metal	10	62.2
Glass	25	143.0
Total	374	2107.6

The ceramic sample contained a wide variety of Englishwares and the only example of porcelain found at Rancho El Saladito. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 327 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 76:

Table 76: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation C

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	40	141.3
Galera Ware	27	71.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	25	309.5
Glazed Ware	56	516.2
Englishware	173	584.2
Porcelain	4	24.7
Black Slip (2 sides)	1	0.4
Black on Cream	1	2.7
Total	327	1,650.2

The lithic sample included two projectile points (Figure 57), an expedient tool, and two utilized tertiary flakes. The detailed lithic analysis of 12 artifacts from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 77:

Table 77: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation C

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Starr projectile point	1	0.6
Catan projectile point	1	1.9
Expedient tool	1	151.8
Utilized tertiary flakes	2	25.5
Primary flake	1	22.8
Secondary flake	3	42.7
Tertiary flake	3	6.9
Total	12	252.2

The metal artifacts of the surface collection include square nails, chain links, and folded rim fragments. The detailed analysis of the eight metal artifacts from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 78:

Table 78: Quantity and weight of Metal artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation C

Metal category	qty	wt (g)
Square nails	4	22.5
Chain links	2	12.9
Strap end or handle	1	19.4
Folded rim fragments	2	6.0
Buckle fragment	1	1.4
Total	10	62.2

One of the olive glass fragments from this surface collection has the embossed letters “ILLA” (Figure 58). Another fragment is from the base of a quadrilateral bottle. The detailed



Figure 57: Catan projectile point with serrated lateral edges from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C.

analysis of the 25 glass artifacts from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 79:

Table 79: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation C

Glass color	qty	wt (g)
Olive	14	100.2
Purple	6	15.3
Aqua	3	19.4
Opaque white	1	7.8
Opaque white button	1	0.3
Total	25	143.0

Operation 1, Suboperation D

Description

Suboperation D is located



Figure 58: Fragments of olive glass from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C.

about 58 meters south of

Suboperations A and B and about 107

meters east of Suboperation C (Figure

27 on page 146). The excavation unit

was placed near the arroyo's edge

where an engraved metal utensil handle

was found on the surface (Figure 25 on

page 142). This suboperation consists

of two lots in one 1-X-3 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation D contained

artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail,

aquatic shell, and metal. The quantity

and weight totals for each category are

given in the following Table 80:

Table 80: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation D, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	30	63.2
Lithic	1	0.6
Land Snail	12	7.4
Aquatic Shell	4	8.7
Metal	3	1.5
Total	50	81.4

The metal fragments are unidentifiable. One of the majolica sherds from this lot is the bottom of a cup. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 30 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 81:

Table 81: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation D, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	3	8.2
Burnished Redware	1	1.0
Galera Ware	4	2.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	11	26.9
Glazed Ware	11	24.5
Total	30	63.2

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 1 identified one tertiary flake.

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation D was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The quantity

and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 82:

Table 82: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation D, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	5	5.9
Lithic	1	0.5
Land Snail	15	13.5
Aquatic Shell	1	0.2
Bone	10	15.5
Total	32	35.6

The bone sample is very fragmentary. The detailed ceramic analysis of the five sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 83:

Table 83: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation D, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Unglazed Mier Plain	4	5.6
Glazed Ware	1	0.3
Total	5	5.9

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 2 identified one tertiary flake.

Operation 1, Suboperation D

Summary

The excavations at Suboperation D were terminated after Lot 2 because of the low artifact density. No

Englishwares were encountered here; therefore the ceramic profile of Suboperation D more closely resembles that of Suboperations A and B than of Suboperation C. Englishware was, however, recovered in the surface collection associated with Suboperation D.

Operation 1, Suboperation D

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation D was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 84:

Table 84: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation D

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	26	125.8
Lithic	1	3.3
Metal	2	34.3
Total	29	163.4

The ceramic sample contained mostly glazed wares and two small

sherds of Englishwares. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 26 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation D is presented in the following Table 85:

Table 85: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation D

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	4	8.7
Galera Ware	8	12.6
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	8.3
Glazed Ware	11	92.6
Englishware	2	3.6
Total	26	125.8

The lithic sample was a tertiary flake. Besides the metal utensil fragment, which weighed 7.4 g., was an unidentified piece that may be a shingle.

Operation 1, Suboperation E

Description

Suboperation E is located near a surface scatter of banded glazeware. The excavation units are closer to the road than to the arroyo's eastern edge. Suboperation E is about 56 meters southwest of Suboperation D and

about 77 meters east of Suboperation C (Figure 27 on page 146). A prickly pear cactus was removed to place the first excavation unit on the most elevated ground. Lot 1 was unique because the second or 10-20 centimeter layer contained the majority of the artifacts, not the top layer as in all the other units. This anomaly can be explained by a consideration of site formation processes. The prickly pear cactus had resisted the erosion of the surrounding area through time and likely even added to the sediment under its roots. Bioturbation by the roots may have churned up cultural material from lower levels. Excavation of the second unit was terminated after two lots because of low artifact density. This suboperation consists of four lots in one 1-X-3 unit and two lots in another 1-X-3 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation E contained artifacts of land snail, aquatic shell, and olive glass. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 86:

Table 86: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Land Snail	7	4.6
Aquatic Shell	1	0.4
Glass	1	3.1
Total	9	8.1

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation E was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 87:

Table 87: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	13	33.2
Lithic	4	6.4
Land Snail	9	5.1
Aquatic Shell	9	4.5
Bone	22	19.6
Total	57	68.8

The bone sample is very fragmentary, but includes pieces of a large mammal's molar. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 13 sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 88:

Table 88: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	1.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	7	22.5
Glazed Ware	5	9.5
Total	13	33.2

The detailed lithic analysis of four artifacts from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 89:

Table 89: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 2

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Tertiary flake	1	1.8
Shatter	3	4.6
Total	4	6.4

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation E was the layer beneath Lot 2. It contained land snail and aquatic shell. Small bone fragments were observed, but not

collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 90:

Table 90: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Land Snail	45	43.3
Aquatic Shell	1	0.4
Total	46	43.7

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation E was the layer beneath Lot 3, consisting of matrix between 30 and 50 centimeters below datum. This lot contained no artifacts.

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation E opened the second 1-X-3 excavation unit, which was located about 10 meters north of Lots 1 through 4. Lot 5 contained artifacts of ceramic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 91:

Table 91: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 5

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	14	24.1
Land Snail	6	6.5
Aquatic Shell	2	11.8
Total	22	42.4

The ceramic sherds included some of the same banded slipware observed on the surface. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 14 sherds from Lot 5 is presented in the following Table 92:

Table 92: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation E, Lot 5

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	8.4
Glazed Ware	3	5.8
Englishware	9	9.9
Total	14	24.1

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation E was the layer beneath Lot 5. It contained only land snails, which were not collected. Excavations at this suboperation were terminated at this point.

Operation 1, Suboperation E

Summary

The Suboperation E excavations were unique in terms of the virtually

sterile top layer of the first unit. Site formation processes help explain this anomaly. The second unit contained a very thin cultural lens located between the surface and 10 centimeters below datum. Excavations were terminated at 20 centimeters below datum because sterility was encountered.

Operation 1, Suboperation E

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation E was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. Only artifacts of ceramic and glass were recovered. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 93:

Table 93: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation E

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	15	33.9
Glass	3	28.7
Total	18	62.6

All of the glass shards are olive glass. The ceramic sample contained a variety of types, but was mostly Englishwares. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 26 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation E is presented in the following Table 94:

Table 94: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation E

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	2	2.3
Unglazed Mier Plain	3	14.3
Glazed Ware	2	3.9
Englishware	8	13.4
Total	26	125.8

Operation 1, Suboperation F

Description

Suboperation F is located between two roads in an area of slightly elevated ground with respect to the graded roads (Figure 27 on page 146). Prickly pear cactus was removed and the first excavation unit was placed where plainware and Majolica were visible on the surface. The second

excavation unit is about 7.5 meters west of the first one. This suboperation consists of two lots in one 1-X-3 unit and two lots in another 1-X-2 unit.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation F contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, and land snail. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 95:

Table 95: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	8	11.4
Lithic	3	37.8
Land Snail	5	5.6
Total	16	54.8

The detailed ceramic analysis of the eight sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 96:

Table 96: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	2	1.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	3	5.4
Glazed Ware	2	4.3
Englishware	1	0.2
Total	8	11.4

The detailed lithic analysis of three artifacts from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 97:

Table 97: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 1

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Core	1	30.1
Secondary flake	2	7.7
Total	3	37.8

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation F was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained no artifacts.

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation F opened the 1-X-2-m² unit, which was about 7.5 meters west of the first unit. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 98:

Table 98: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	10	13.3
Lithic	2	4.0
Land Snail	2	2.2
Aquatic Shell	1	0.3
Total	15	19.8

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 10 sherds from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 99:

Table 99: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 3

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	2	1.1
Galera Ware	1	0.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	5	9.3
Glazed Ware	1	1.2
Englishware	1	1.2
Total	10	13.3

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 3 identified two tertiary flakes.

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation F was the layer beneath Lot 3. It contained artifacts of ceramic, land snail, and aquatic shell. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 100:

Table 100: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation F, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	2	0.6
Land Snail	4	4.6
Aquatic Shell	1	0.2
Total	7	5.4

The detailed ceramic analysis of Lot 4 identified two glazed sherds.

Operation 1, Suboperation F

Summary

The Suboperation F excavations did not yield a high number of artifacts, but the mix of Majolica and Englishwares suggests a long-term occupation in this area. These units are located about 20 meters east of Suboperation C, which contained mostly Englishwares. The area between the roads was targeted because it appeared to be slightly elevated, suggesting more intact cultural remains. A nearby Suboperation G would prove more productive than Suboperation F.

Operation 1, Suboperation F

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation F was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. Only artifacts of ceramic, lithic and aquatic shell were recovered. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 101:

Table 101: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation F

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	9	32.5
Lithic	1	354.4
Aquatic Shell	1	18.1
Total	18	62.6

The lithic sample is an expedient tool. The ceramic sample contained a variety of types, but was mostly Englishware and Unglazed Mier Plain. The detailed ceramic analysis of the nine sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation F is presented in the following Table 102:

Table 102: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation F

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	1.6
Galera	1	5.7
Unglazed Mier Plain	2	13.0
Glazed Ware	1	4.3
Englishware	4	7.9
Total	9	32.5

Operation 1, Suboperation G

Description

Suboperation G is located about 25 meters north of Suboperation F. Both are between the two graded roads that run in this area (Figure 27 on page 146). Excavations were undertaken here for two reasons. First a surface find in the east road near this area yielded an intact *ruido*, which consists of a *higa* plus three dangling *coscojos* (Figure 26 on page 144). Ruidos were worn on the saddles of eighteenth-century Spanish soldiers.

As Suboperation F excavations were still underway and relatively close by, this surface find did not

immediately prompt new excavation units. Mapping was continuing in the area simultaneously. The Total Data System (TDS) was set up on RD19 and we were trying to make our way south to shoot in the datums of Suboperation F (Figure 28 on page 149). In order to reach the entrance to Suboperation F without moving the TDS, it was necessary to clear more brush from along the side of the road. To make a long story short, we ended up having to move the machine anyway to get the desired shot, but our clearing efforts were not in vain, as we located what would be designated Suboperation G. Two more *higas* would emerge from these excavation units. The first unit was placed where plainware, Majolica (with green paint), and aquatic shell were visible on the surface. The second unit's northwest corner adjoins the first's southwest corner. The two units

were placed around a mesquite tree.

This suboperation consists of three lots in each of two 1-X-3 units.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation G contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, aquatic shell, and bone. Fire-cracked rock (235.6 g) and fossilized oyster shell (253.3 g) were observed and weighed but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 103:

Table 103: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	116	353.8
Lithic	2	10.7
Aquatic Shell	2	6.0
Bone	43	112.2
Total	163	482.7

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 116 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 104:

Table 104: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	28	51.8
Burnished Redware	2	1.0
Galera Ware	27	39.4
Unglazed Mier Plain	33	151.8
Glazed Ware	26	109.8
Total	116	353.8

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 1 identified two tertiary flakes. The bone sample included 13 burned pieces weighing 15.9 grams.

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation G was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, and bone. Land snails were observed but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 105:

Table 105: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	79	282.6
Lithic	1	1.1
Bone	21	44.7
Total	101	328.4

The bone sample includes five burned pieces weighing 6.5 grams and a human molar weighing 0.8 grams (Figure 59). The detailed ceramic analysis of the 79 sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 106:

Table 106: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	20	29.4
Galera Ware	8	7.3
Unglazed Mier Plain	30	164.8
Glazed Ware	18	74.3
Englishware	2	0.9
Black on Cream	1	5.9
Total	79	282.6

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 2 identified one tertiary flake.

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation G was the top layer of the second excavation unit. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, bone, and metal. Fire-cracked rock (39.5 g) and fossilized oyster shell (88.4 g) were observed and weighed but not collected. Land snails were



Figure 59: Several views of the human upper maxillary molar that was excavated in Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 2.

observed but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following

Table 107:

Table 107: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	124	580.5
Lithic	1	5.4
Bone	9	57.2
Metal	1	9.3
Total	135	652.4

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 124 sherds from Lot 3 is presented in the following Table 108:

Table 108: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 3

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	17	30.4
Burnished Redware	5	55.4
Galera Ware	15	27.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	51	266.0
Glazed Ware	36	201.5
Total	124	580.5

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 3 identified one tertiary flake. The bone sample includes five burned pieces weighing 17.6 grams. The lone metal object is a higa (ruido without coscojos). Similar hand-forged artifacts are known from the mid-eighteenth century Spanish presidio at Goliad (Simmons and Turley 1980). Spanish soldiers used them on their saddles to make sounds that alternatively calmed the horses and/or created a cadence. Another higa was excavated in Subop G, Lot 4. Both match the style of the complete ruido (higa plus coscojos) that was collected from the surface of the road near Subop G (Figure 26 on page 144).

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation G was the layer beneath Lot 3. It contained artifacts of ceramic, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 109:

Table 109: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	59	301.0
Aquatic Shell	1	1.5
Bone	37	100.5
Metal	1	8.0
Total	98	411.0

The bone sample included eight burned pieces weighing 18.9 grams. The metal artifact was the third hand-forged higa recovered at the site. Another higa was excavated in Subop G, Lot 3, the 10-centimeter layer just above Lot 4. Although each is a unique, hand-forged piece, both match the style of the complete ruido that was collected from the surface of the road near Subop G (Figure 26 on page 144).

One of the ceramic sherds was rounded. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 59 sherds from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 110:

Table 110: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 4

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	10	31.1
Galera Ware	9	12.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	26	182.6
Glazed Ware	14	75.1
Total	59	301.0

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation G, which was the layer below Lot 4, contained no artifacts except three small pieces of fire-cracked rock that were not collected.

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation G was the layer below Lot 2. The only artifacts are five ceramic sherds. The detailed ceramic analysis of these sherds is presented in the following Table 111:

Table 111: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation G, Lot 6

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	3	3.2
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	3.7
Glazed Ware	1	3.3
Total	5	10.2

Operation 1, Suboperation G

Summary

The Suboperation G excavations revealed some of the most interesting artifacts, including two higas, a human molar, and the burned bone fragments. Additionally, Suboperation G produced the most ceramics of any other excavation units. Based on the variety and abundance of cultural material at this location, future investigations at Rancho El Saladito would be wise to concentrate on this area, which was likely a site of long-term occupation.

Operation 1, Suboperation G

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation G was assembled throughout the course of mapping,

surveying and excavating the area. Artifacts of ceramic, lithic, aquatic shell, and metal were recovered. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 112:

Table 112: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation G

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	88	432.4
Lithic	2	37.5
Aquatic Shell	3	17.6
Metal	3	22.5
Total	93	487.5

The lithic sample includes a primary flake and a thumbnail scraper (15.3 g). The metal sample included the complete ruidó (15.6 g), a thimble (2.0 g; Figure 60), and an unidentified piece. The ceramic sample contained a variety of types, but very few Englishwares. It also included one rounded sherd. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 88 sherds from the surface collection associated with



Figure 60: Both sides of a thimble recovered in surface collection associated with Operation 1, Suboperation G.

Suboperation G is presented in the following Table 113:

Table 113: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation G

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	19	70.3
Burnished Redware	3	10.8
Galera	10	18.8
Unglazed Mier Plain	27	160.7
Glazed Ware	26	164.8
Englishware	3	7.0
Total	88	432.4

Operation 1, Suboperation H

Description

Suboperation H is located in the far southeast corner of the study area, near the southern fence of the property

(Figure 27 on page 146). It is about 233 meters south of Suboperation A and B, and about 182 meters southwest of Suboperation C. The area immediately to the north of Suboperation H was used as a *labor* or agricultural field during the twentieth century (Gil Javier Guerra, personal communication 2002). Perhaps because of this relatively recent use of the land, the area around Suboperation H does not have the thick underbrush associated with the rest of the site.

This suboperation consists of three lots in each of two 1-X-3 units. The first unit was placed where a hand-forged hinge, ceramics, and lithics were visible on the surface. Also on the surface were modern glass fragments and floor tile fragments. The second unit was placed further east where ceramics and lithics were visible on the surface. Modern trash was also visible on the surface. Trash deposits along

the arroyo's edge immediately east of Suboperation H contained mostly modern garbage, but some nineteenth-century glass bottleneck fragments were collected from the surface.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation H contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, and metal. The lone metal object is a hand-forged hinge (Figure 61). The bone fragments are very small, but the sample includes at least one tooth of a large mammal. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 114:

Table 114: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 1

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	52	143.7
Lithic	2	4.3
Land Snail	23	20.4
Aquatic Shell	2	1.3
Bone	42	41.1
Metal	1	18.7
Total	122	229.5



Figure 61: Both sides of a hinge excavated in Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 1.

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 52 sherds from Lot 1 is presented in the following Table 115:

Table 115: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 1

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	6	4.1
Burnished Redware	1	2.6
Galera Ware	3	2.9
Unglazed Mier Plain	27	97.4
Glazed Ware	15	36.7
Total	52	143.7

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 1 identified one secondary flake weighing 4.1 grams and a tertiary flake weighing 0.2 grams.

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation H was the layer beneath Lot 1. It contained artifacts of ceramic, land snail, and bone. The artifact density of this lot was very low, except for in the northern end. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 116:

Table 116: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 2

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	10	57.9
Land Snail	6	7.6
Bone	18	30.7
Total	34	96.2

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 10 sherds from Lot 2 is presented in the following Table 117:

Table 117: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 2

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	1	0.7
Unglazed Mier Plain	4	39.5
Glazed Ware	5	17.7
Total	10	57.9

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation H encompassed the northern 1m² end of the unit and contained land snails and one bone fragment. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 118:

Table 118: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 3

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Land Snail	4	5.1
Bone	1	2.0
Total	5	7.1

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation H was the top layer of the second excavation unit and it contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, bone, metal, and glass. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 119:

Table 119: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 4

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	128	280.6
Lithic	4	26.9
Land Snail	8	8.2
Aquatic Shell	27	14.8
Bone	39	22.0
Metal	1	3.1
Glass	2	1.2
Total	209	356.8

The bone fragments are very small, but at least two represent tooth fragments from a large mammal. The glass shards are likely modern, as they are green and brown colors. The metal artifact is an elliptical handle of a pair of scissors (Figure 62). The detailed ceramic analysis of the 128 sherds from Lot 4 is presented in the following Table 120:

Table 120: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 4

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	16	18.1
Galera Ware	33	36.4
Unglazed Mier Plain	33	102.3
Glazed Ware	46	123.8
Total	128	280.6

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 4 identified one secondary flake weighing



Figure 62: Both sides of a fragment of a scissor handle excavated in Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 4.

16.8 grams and three tertiary flakes weighing 10.1 grams.

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation H was the layer below Lot 4. It contained artifacts of ceramic, lithic, land snail, aquatic shell, and bone. Small amounts of charcoal were observed but not collected. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 121:

Table 121: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 5

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	18	39.7
Lithic	3	2.8
Land Snail	2	2.0
Aquatic Shell	7	6.6
Bone	6	2.9
Total	36	54.0

The bone sample is very fragmentary. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 18 sherds from Lot 5 is presented in the following Table 122:

Table 122: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 5

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera Ware	3	1.5
Unglazed Mier Plain	5	14.2
Glazed Ware	10	24.0
Total	18	39.7

The detailed lithic analysis of Lot 5 identified one secondary flake weighing 1.7 grams and two pieces of shatter weighing 1.1 gram.

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation H was beneath Lot 5, but only encompasses the northern 1m² end of the unit. Lot 6 contained very few artifacts of ceramic and aquatic shell. The quantity and

weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 123:

Table 123: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 6

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	4	3.1
Aquatic Shell	1	0.4
Total	5	3.5

The detailed ceramic analysis of the four sherds from Lot 6 is presented in the following Table 124:

Table 124: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 1, Suboperation H, Lot 6

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	0.6
Glazed Ware	3	2.5
Total	4	3.1

Operation 1, Suboperation H

Summary

The Suboperation H excavations reveal the extent of early occupation at Rancho El Saladito. The ceramic sample is one of the larger ones to emerge from Operation 1 excavations, yet it does not contain any Englishwares. One sherd of

Englishware (2.4 g) was recovered in the surface collection associated with Suboperation H. This suggests either that the inhabitants preferred other types when Englishwares were cheaper and widely available (after 1824), or that occupation in this area precedes 1824. The relative lack of underbrush in the area around Suboperation H, coupled with the indication of an eighteenth-century occupation make this area attractive for future excavations at Rancho El Saladito.

Operation 1, Suboperation H

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection from around Suboperation H was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying and excavating the area. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 125:

Table 125: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation H

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	127	450.3
Lithic	10	57.2
Aquatic Shell	9	41.1
Metal	2	12.7
Glass	7	47.2
Total	155	608.6

The ceramic sample contained a wide variety of wares, but only one example of Englishware. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 127 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation H is presented in the following Table 126:

Table 126: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation H

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Majolica	8	18.2
Burnished Redware	1	3.1
Galera Ware	16	21.8
Unglazed Mier Plain	53	205.9
Glazed Ware	48	198.9
Englishware	1	2.4
Total	127	450.3

The glass sample included an olive glass bottleneck fragment. The detailed lithic analysis of 10 artifacts from the surface collection associated with

Suboperation H is presented in the following Table 127:

Table 127: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation H

Lithic category	qty	wt (g)
Projectile point preform	1	5.3
Primary flake	1	16.1
Secondary flake	6	27.9
Tertiary flake	2	7.9
Total	10	57.2

Operation 1—Summary of excavations and surface collections

The Operation 1 excavations identify several areas that would be suitable for future investigations, including Suboperations A and B, G, and H. These recommendations are based both on the artifact density and the types of artifacts encountered in each suboperation. The following table compares the artifact density of each Operation 1 suboperation. The size of each suboperation is considered as a percentage of the total cubic meters of matrix. The artifact density is expressed as a percentage of the total

by weight. By comparing the artifact percentages and the percentage of cubic meters, one can gauge the relative density of a given suboperation (Table 128). For example, both Suboperation C and Suboperation G each represent about 20% of the total cubic meters of matrix; however, Suboperation C contained slightly more than 6% of the total ceramic weight, while Suboperation G contained more than 51% of the total ceramic weight. A similar comparison could be made between Suboperation F and Suboperations A and B. They are within 0.1 m³ of being the same volume, yet Suboperations A and B contain more than 53% of the total lithic weight, while Suboperation F has just less than 15%.

Table 128
Relative Artifact Densities Expressed as Percentages of Total Weight for Operation 1 Suboperations

% m ³	m ³	Subop	Ceramic % by wt	Lithic % by wt	Land Snails % by wt	Aquatic % by wt	Bone % by wt	Metal % by wt	Glass % by wt
11.58	1.1	1-A and B	19.19	53.06	48.59	60.05	9.31	14.29	0.00
20.00	1.9	1-C totals	6.07	10.96	14.17	5.60	28.74	1.66	62.50
6.32	0.6	1-D totals	2.34	0.39	5.72	5.35	2.14	3.11	0.00
17.89	1.7	1-E totals	1.94	2.29	16.28	10.29	2.71	0.00	0.00
10.53	1.0	1-F totals	0.86	14.97	3.39	0.30	0.00	0.00	0.00
18.95	1.8	1-G totals	51.80	6.16	0.00	4.51	43.47	35.82	0.00
14.74	1.4	1-H totals	17.80	12.17	11.85	13.90	13.64	45.13	37.50

Operation 2

Introduction

Whereas Operation 1 encompassed the east side of the arroyo and the earliest settlements, Operation 2 involves survey and excavation on the west side of the arroyo, where a mainly twentieth-century occupation is evident. A few glass and iron artifacts from the nineteenth century encountered here may have been recycled or they may represent the occupation that preceded the Hinojosa family's rancho. Features encountered include a one-room, native stone house with an indoor *chiminea* (or cooking hearth), the ruins of an *horno* (or outdoor baking oven), the remnants of a *calera* (or lime kiln), a dam on a side tributary of the arroyo, and a sulfurous water spring (Figure 27 on page 146). Operation 2 excavations are divided into three suboperations: A, B, and C. Suboperation A investigates the outdoor cooking horno, excavating the east side of the feature in 11 lots. Suboperation B tests the area near the stone house, while Suboperation C tests the area outside the fenced yard.

Operation 2, Suboperation A

Description

Suboperation A is the investigation of the ruins of an outdoor cooking, or baking horno, associated with the twentieth-century occupation of Rancho El Saladito (Figures 63 and 64), and perhaps an earlier occupation. The horno was associated with a nearby jacal that housed the ranch's workers during the first half



FIGURE 63. The ruins of an outdoor horno (or oven) facing west, prior to Operation 2, Suboperation A excavations.



FIGURE 64. View facing southwest of the termination of Operation 2, Suboperation A excavations, which revealed two courses of construction resting on footing stones. A banqueta, or sidewalk, runs along the southeast side of the horno.

of the twentieth century (Berta Hinojosa de Guerra personal communication, 2002). No archaeological evidence for the location of the jacal was encountered, which attests to the difficulty of locating such structures archaeologically. Excavations revealed two courses of stone on top of footing stones at the base of the horno (Figure 64). According to oral history, stones from the horno were used to construct the house (Gil Javier Guerra personal communication, 2002). The dismantled state of the horno, collaborated by this information from oral history, together suggest a previous occupation, perhaps during the mid- to late-nineteenth century.

Excavations were divided into 11 lots. The size of the final excavation was 2-X-3 meters², minus a small portion of the horno that was not excavated within this boundary (Figure 65).

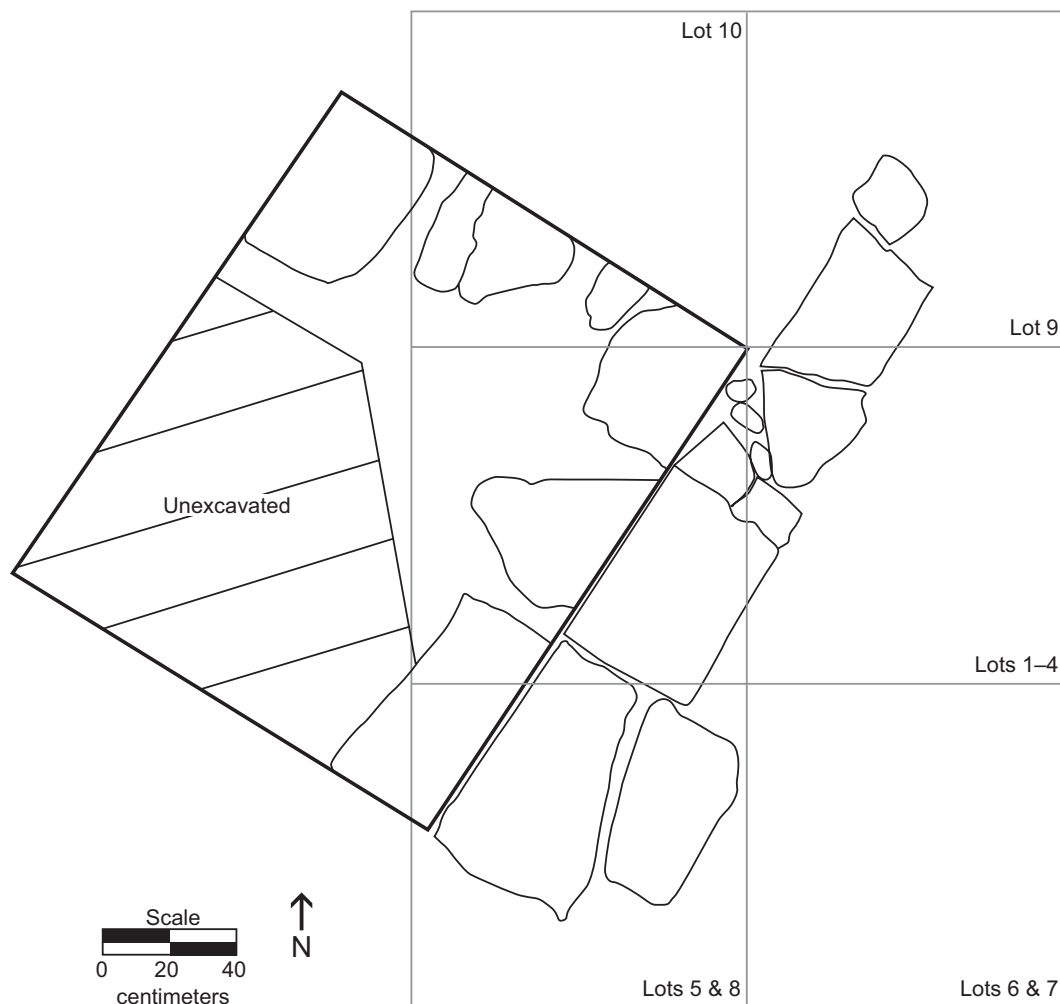


FIGURE 65. Plan View of Operation 2, Suboperation A excavations.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation A was a 1m² unit located to the immediate east of the horno's east corner. The horno measures 1.75 X 1.40 meters and stands between 40 and 50 centimeters high. A *banqueta*, or sidewalk, was revealed in this lot, which probably marks the horno's opening. Lot 1 was the upper 10 centimeters of the matrix and contained a lone artifact that was collected—a bolt or rivet that weighs 14.2 grams (Figure 66). There were also five pieces of

unidentifiable metal scraps that were observed, but not collected. Also observed were two land snails, two brown glass shards, limestone and grey cobble chink stones, a wire nail, some wood, and a metal and fake pearl snap button with bits of red cloth attached.



FIGURE 66. *A bolt or rivet recovered from Operation 2, Suboperation A, Lot 1.*

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation A was the 10-centimeter level below Lot 1. The banqueta revealed in Lot 1 was not removed, but the excavation of Lot 2 continued to the east of the platform to determine if another course of stone was below. No further courses of the banqueta were revealed, but it became evident in profile that it stretched the length of the base of the horno along the southeast side and beyond. The matrix contained small white limestone gravel and fewer sandstone chunks than Lot 1.

Artifacts collected as part of Lot 2 consist of four bone fragments that weigh 3.4 grams. Two of these fragments appear to be from a small rodent. Artifacts observed, but not collected, include a brown glass shard, a land snail, and two aluminum grommets in leather.

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation A was below Lot 2 and involved the matrix from 20 to 30 centimeters below surface. No artifacts were collected as part of Lot 3; however, objects such as four wire nails, three land snails, clear bottle glass shards, a plastic button, and a .22 bullet casing were all observed.

Lot 4

Lot 4 of Suboperation A was below Lot 3 and involved the matrix from 30 to 40 centimeters below surface. No artifacts were collected as part of Lot 4; however, eleven land snails were observed.

Lot 5

Lot 5 of Suboperation A was a 1-X-2 meter extension, adjacent at the northwest corner of the original 1m² unit. A portion of this unit, about 0.5 meter² in the northwest corner, was actually part of the horno. This corner was cleaned to reveal the principle construction stones, but not dismantled.

Lot 5 contained seven bone fragments that weigh 45.4 grams, including two vertebrae from a small mammal. Other artifacts that were observed, but not collected, include four wire nails, seven land snails, two clear glass shards, and another metal and fake pearl snap button.

Lot 6

Lot 6 of Suboperation A was an 1m² extension to the immediate south of the original unit (Lots 1-4). Lot 6 was east of Lot 5 and involved the upper 10 centimeters of matrix. Collected from Lot 6 were 21 glass fragments, weighing 57.8 grams. All fragments appear to be from a rectangular-shaped bottle with a metal cap. The bottle glass has a corrugated texture. Artifacts that were observed, but not collected, include two pieces of brown glass, two land snails, a nut and bolt fused together, a wire nail, and an iron scrap.

Lot 7

Lot 7 of Suboperation A was the 10-centimeter layer of matrix below Lot 6. Lot 7 contained two glass fragments that weigh 2.3 grams. One is a purple or

magnesium glass shard. The other is clear and corrugated, likely from the same bottle collected in Lot 6. Other artifacts observed, but not collected, include three pieces of unidentifiable metal and three land snails.

Lot 8

Lot 8 of Suboperation A was the matrix below Lot 5, but only in the southern half of the original 2-X-2 m² unit. Excavations revealed the remaining stones comprising the banqueta adjacent to the horno. They also revealed the southeast face of the horno (Figure 67).

Lot 8 contained two bone fragments that weigh 4.7 grams. Wire nails were observed in the matrix, but not collected.

Lot 9

Lot 9 of Suboperation A was the upper 10 centimeters of matrix in a 1m² extension north of Lots 1-4. Lot 9 contained one clear, rectangular glass fragment

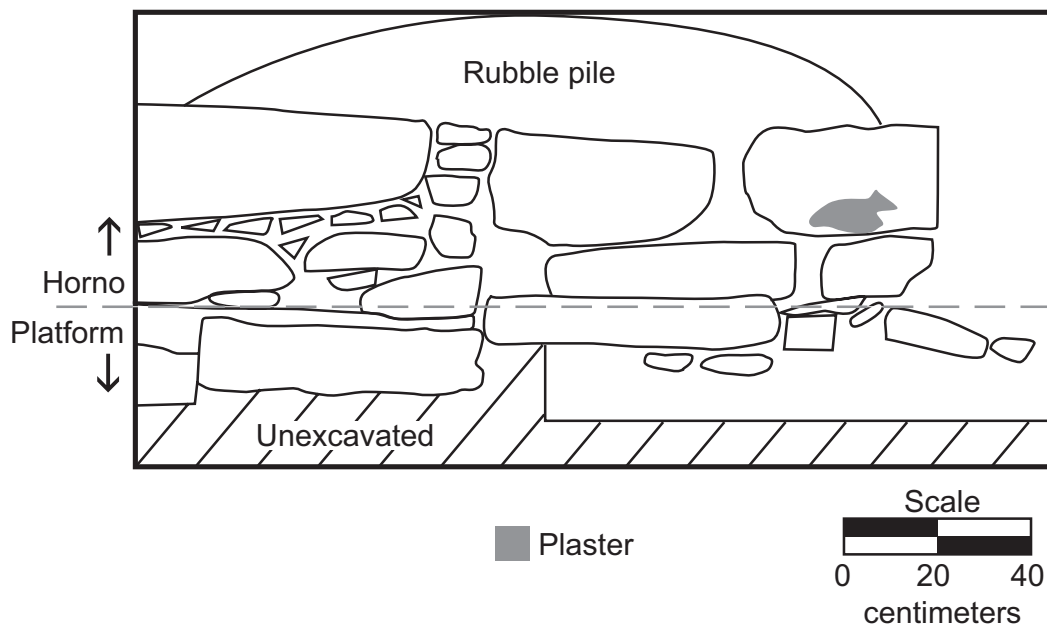


FIGURE 67. Southeast wall profile of horno (Operation 2, Suboperation A).

that weighs 7.5 grams and appears to be the base of the same bottle collected in Lots 6 and 7, although no reconstruction was attempted. The northern end of the banqueta adjacent to the horno was determined with the termination of Lot 9.

Lot 10

Lot 10 of Suboperation A was a 50 centimeter layer in a 1m² extension west of Lot 9. A portion of this unit, less than 0.5 m² in the southwest corner, was actually part of the horno. This corner was cleaned to reveal the principle construction stones in both plan view and profile, but was not dismantled.

Lot 10 revealed the footing stones upon which the horno construction rested. The northeast profile of the horno illustrates the two large stones and a third smaller one (Figure 68). These footing stones undercut the horno by about 10 centimeters.

Lot 10 contained 14 bone fragments that weigh 86.6 grams. A 71.4 gram sample of the plaster was taken from the northeast face of the cooking horno as a part of this lot. Artifacts that were observed, but not collected, include 12 land snails, two unidentifiable metal fragments, a large wire nail, brown and clear glass fragments, and a piece of plastic.

Lot 11

Lot 11 of Suboperation A was the excavation of the rubble from the top of the eastern half of the horno to reveal its inner construction and possibly evidence of its use. The rubble was mounded on top of the horno, with the peak of the mound about 40 centimeters from the top of the top course of stone. Matrix was sandy with numerous small to medium-sized yellow and brown sandstone rocks. Construction was achieved using three large stones on each side (70 X 45 X 23

cm; 50 X 45 X 25 cm; and 40 X 40 X 25 cm on the southeast side), each with at least one cut-face. Cornerstones have two cut faces. Chink stones were used to level and stabilize the courses. Excavations did not encounter the interior of the oven itself. The structure was likely dismantled below the surface of the oven when its stone was recycled.

Lot 11 contained one metal fragment—a piece of barbed wire that weighs 36.5 grams. One light green glass bottle rim fragment weighing 4.1 grams was also recovered from this lot. Objects that were observed, but not collected, include three land snails, three clear bottle glass shards, and two wire nails.

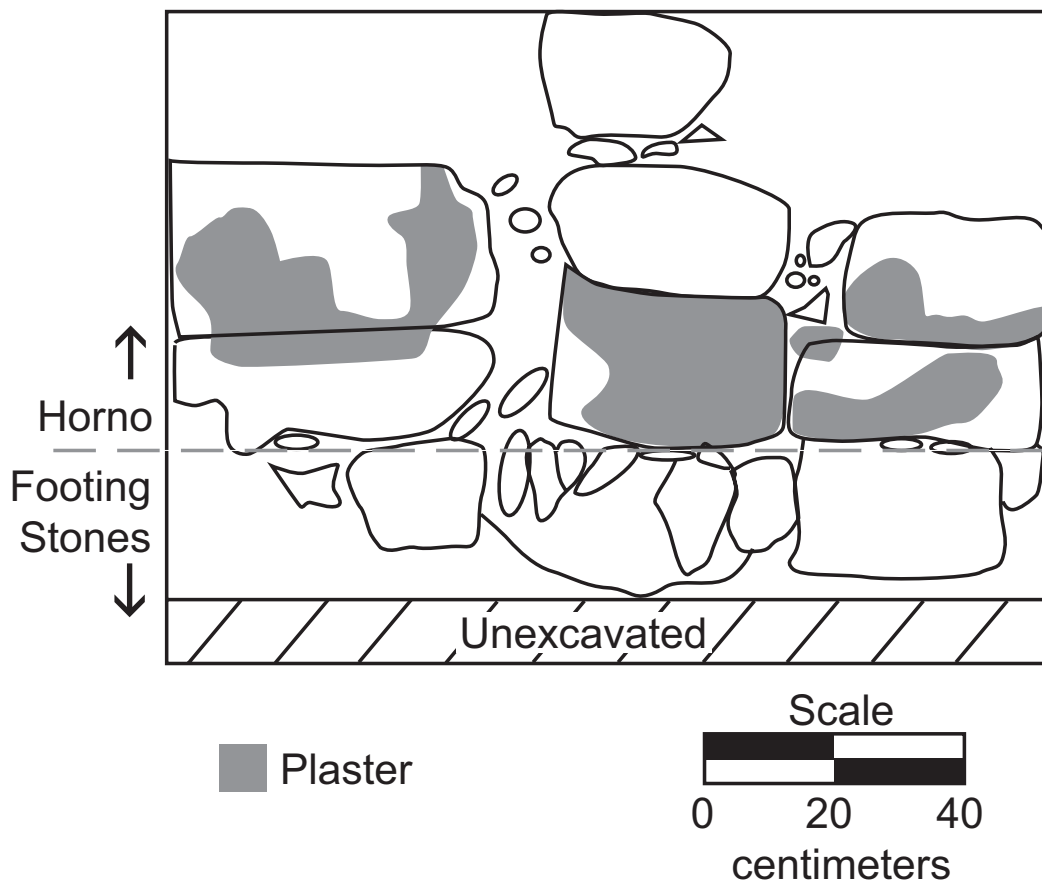


FIGURE 68. Northeast wall profile of horno (Operation 2, Suboperation A).

Operation 2, Suboperation A

Summary

The Suboperation A excavations revealed the construction techniques used to build the outdoor cooking or baking horn. Three large building stones were used to form each side of each course. The large stones were leveled and stabilized using smaller “chink” stones. The area in the center of the construction was filled in with smaller stones and sand. A layer of plaster likely covered the entire construction, although the plaster was found preserved only at the base of the bottom course.

Overall, the artifact density seems low and modern garbage was mixed in with older artifacts. The low density can be partly explained by the clean fill used by the builders. Also, the area around the horn was likely kept relatively clean while it was in use. Later, after most of the building blocks were recycled, the lower courses and tumbled stones became the base of an informal trash pile—a convenient place to throw things out of the way. Bioturbation and rodents’ burrows contributed to the mixture of artifacts across time periods.

Operation 2, Suboperation A

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection associated with Suboperation A was assembled throughout the course of mapping, surveying, and excavating the area. Artifacts of ceramic, lithic, metal, and glass were recovered. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Table 129:

Table 129: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation 2-A

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	39	222.6
Lithic	3	23.7
Metal	12	183.6
Glass	4	26.9
Total	58	456.8

The ceramic sample contained a variety of types, but mostly Englishwares by weight. The detailed ceramic analysis of the 39 sherds from the surface collection associated with Suboperation A is presented in the following Table 130:

Table 130: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from surface collection associated with Suboperation 2-A

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Galera	3	5.7
Unglazed Mier Plain	1	11.7
Glazed Ware	17	43.3
Englishware	16	152.5
Porcelain	2	9.6
Total	39	222.8

The lithic sample includes a projectile point (12.7 g), a proximal fragment of a projectile point (5.1 g), and a primary flake. The metal sample includes two chain links, a hinge (11.6 g), a square nail, and a strap. The glass sample includes two clear fragments from a rectangular panel bottle, a purple, and a white shard.

Operation 2, Suboperation B

Description

Suboperation B is the testing of an area inside the fence that did not appear to be regularly graded, based on its slightly higher elevation. Suboperation B is a 1x1-m² unit located about six meters west of the stone structure's southwest corner (Figure 69). Modern green and brown bottle glass were evident on the surface around the excavation. The only artifacts associated with this suboperation

are some clear bottle glass fragments from Lot 1. The unit was excavated in four lots to 50 centimeters below surface. No change in soil color was detected.

Lots 1 through 4

Lot 1 of Suboperation B was the uppermost 10-centimeter layer of matrix and it contained 13 glass fragments weighing 25.8 grams. All of these fragments are clear bottle glass. Lot 2 of Suboperation B was a sterile 10-centimeter layer beneath Lot 1.

Also sterile, Lot 3 was the 10-centimeter layer beneath Lot 2. The level of the unit at the bottom of Lot 3 was about the same elevation as the rest of the fenced (and graded) yard. Finally, Lot 4 was the 20-centimeter layer below Lot 3, which contained no artifacts.

Operation 2, Suboperation B

Summary

The Suboperation B excavations did not reveal a great many artifacts. It is possible that in the past the area around the house was kept clear of trash, or that the grading activities over time have adversely affected the archaeological record in this area. Further test excavations are necessary to locate activity areas associated with the twentieth-century occupation.



***FIGURE 69.** Operation 2, Suboperation B was located about six meters southwest of the stone structure.*

Operation 2, Suboperation C

Description

Suboperation C was the testing of an area outside the fence, but within about 20 meters of Suboperation 2A (Figure 70). Pedestrian survey in this area revealed a partial horse or mule shoe, olive glass fragments, and square nails on the surface around this unit. Suboperation C was a 1m² unit, excavated to a depth of 30 centimeters in three lots.

Lot 1

Lot 1 of Suboperation C contains one ceramic body sherd from a brown glazed ceramic vessel that weighs 0.3 grams. Four metal artifacts, totaling 62.2 grams were recovered, including half of a horse or mule shoe with square nail holes that weighs 53.5 grams (Figure 71). Also in this lot were four glass fragments weighing 5.4 grams. Six land snails were observed, but not collected.

Lot 2

Lot 2 of Suboperation C was the 10-centimeter layer of matrix below Lot 1. Lot 2 contains four bone fragments that weigh 23.3 grams. Two of these fragments appear to be the proximal end of a femur from a large mammal. Also recovered in this lot was one unidentifiable metal fragment weighing 8.6 grams. Five fire-cracked rocks and three land snails were observed, but not collected.

Lot 3

Lot 3 of Suboperation C was the 10-centimeter layer of matrix below Lot 2. Four land snails were observed; otherwise Lot 3 was sterile.



FIGURE 70. Operation 2, Suboperation C was located about 20 meters southeast of the Suboperation A.

Operation 2, Suboperation C

Summary

The Suboperation C unit contained the only ceramic sherd recovered in Operation 2 excavations. Overall the artifact density of the excavations was low; however, the surface collection around Suboperation C contains a wider variety of artifact types.

Operation 2, Suboperation C

Surface Collection Summary

The surface collection associated with Suboperation C unit contained artifacts of ceramic, metal, and glass. The quantity and weight totals for each



FIGURE 71. Both views of a mule or horseshoe fragment recovered in Operation 2, Suboperation C, Lot 1.

category are given in the following Table 131:

Table 131: Quantity and weight of all artifacts from Operation 2, Suboperation C, Surface Collection

Artifact category	qty	wt (g)
Ceramic	32	153.2
Metal	38	1839.9+
Glass	24	246.8
Total	94	2239.9+

The total weight of metal artifacts is accompanied by a “+” symbol because one artifact exceeded the 600-gram capacity of the digital scale. This artifact, a recycled iron scrap, has been

sharpened on one end to a point. The opposite end is flattened as though it has been hammered, possibly while being used as a rock chisel (Figure 72).

The detailed ceramic analysis of the 32 sherds from the surface collection associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 132:

Table 132: Quantity and weight of Ceramic artifacts from Operation 2, Suboperation C, Surface Collection

Ceramic category	qty	wt (g)
Glazed Ware	5	31.8
Englishware	16	73.0
Porcelain	10	43.8
Doll's arm	1	4.6
Total	32	153.2

An analysis of the 38 metal artifacts from the surface collection associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 133:



FIGURE 72. Weighing in excess of 600 grams, this chisel was fashioned from a piece of scrap iron and possibly used to quarry stone. Recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.

Table 133: Quantity and weight of Metal artifacts from Operation 2, Suboperation C, Surface Collection

Metal category	qty	wt (g)
square nails	13	154.2
buckels	4	69.9
farrier's cut offs	4	150.8
lock plate	2	103.5
unidentified	2	51.6
chain link	1	26.4
chisel	1	600.0+
eye hook	1	98.5
folded rim frag	1	10.5
hoe fragment	1	105.9
horseshoe fragment with "DE IN USA" engraved	1	77.0
latch hook	1	32.1
perforated strap or bar	1	102.6
rivet head	1	7.3
round--medallion?	1	32.6
round with two rectangular holes	1	5.2
strap w/ eye	1	134.1
strap or handle w/ two rivets	1	77.7
Total	38	1839.9+

An analysis of the 24 glass shards from the surface collection associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C is presented in the following Table 134:

Table 134: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from Operation 2, Suboperation C, Surface Collection

Glass category	qty	wt (g)
purple (magnesium)	10	79.4
white opaque	5	41.7
olive (includes a partial rim 6.0g and base 29.8g)	4	57.1
blue rectangular bottle base	1	17.5
blue bottle base fragment with triangle embossed	1	9.6
clear bottleneck frag	1	21.6
aqua bottleneck fragment	1	19.7
unidentified	1	0.2
Total	24	246.8

Summary of Operation 2 excavations and surface collections

The Operation 2 excavations and surface collections document the late-nineteenth and twentieth century occupations of Rancho El Saladito and help identify areas that would be suitable for future investigations, such as the area around Suboperation 2-C. However, they also demonstrate the mixed nature of the deposits due to grading of the yard.

The following Table 135 compares the artifact density of each Operation 2 suboperation. The size of each suboperation is considered as a percentage of the total cubic meters of matrix. The artifact density is expressed as a percentage of the total by weight. By comparing the artifact percentages and the percentage of cubic meters, one can gauge the relative density of a given suboperation. For example, the cubic

meters of matrix from Suboperation 2-A represents about 70% of the total matrix removed as part of Operation 2 excavations. The percentage of glass by weight for this suboperation, 69.68%, is the expected density; whereas, the percentage of metal by weight for Suboperation A, at 41.73%, is below the expected amount.

The virtual sterility of Suboperation B, the lack of ceramics in any excavation except Suboperation C, and the concentration of metal artifacts associated with Suboperation C, are all factors that contribute to more unequal ratios than those observed for Operation 1.

Table 135
Relative Artifact Densities Expressed as Percentages of Total Weight for Operation 2 Suboperations

% m ³	m ³	Subop	Ceramic % by wt	Bone % by wt	Metal % by wt	Glass % by wt
69.70	1.84	2-A	0	85.74	41.73	69.68
18.94	0.50	2-B	0	0.00	0.00	25.07
11.36	0.30	2-C	100	14.26	58.27	5.25



Figure 73: The gate at Rancho El Saladito.

Operation 2

Stone Structure

The details of the construction of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito were recorded as part of this project. The building was measured with both a cloth and a metal meter tape (Figure 74). Architectural renderings for each façade of the building and a plan view are presented in the following drawings (Figures 75-83). For comparison, photographs of each façade are also included (Figures 84-91).



Figure 74: Daniel Garcia H. measures the southern peak of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

As previously mentioned, the one-room structure was built about 1928 by Francisco Hinojosa Barrera from Los Guerras. He was commissioned by the new property owners, Adolfo and San Juana Hinojosa. According to oral history, a jacal was located to the immediate north of the stone structure, where today there is a covered cement patio (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gomez de Guerra, personal communication 2002).

The structure was built of native sandstone, recycled from the nearby horno and quarried from about 500 meters to the northeast. Presumably the transportation of the stone was accomplished by draught animals and wheeled carts. The stones were plastered inside and out with a lime plaster that was manufactured nearby in a calera, or lime kiln (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gomez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). The method of construction typifies a local style

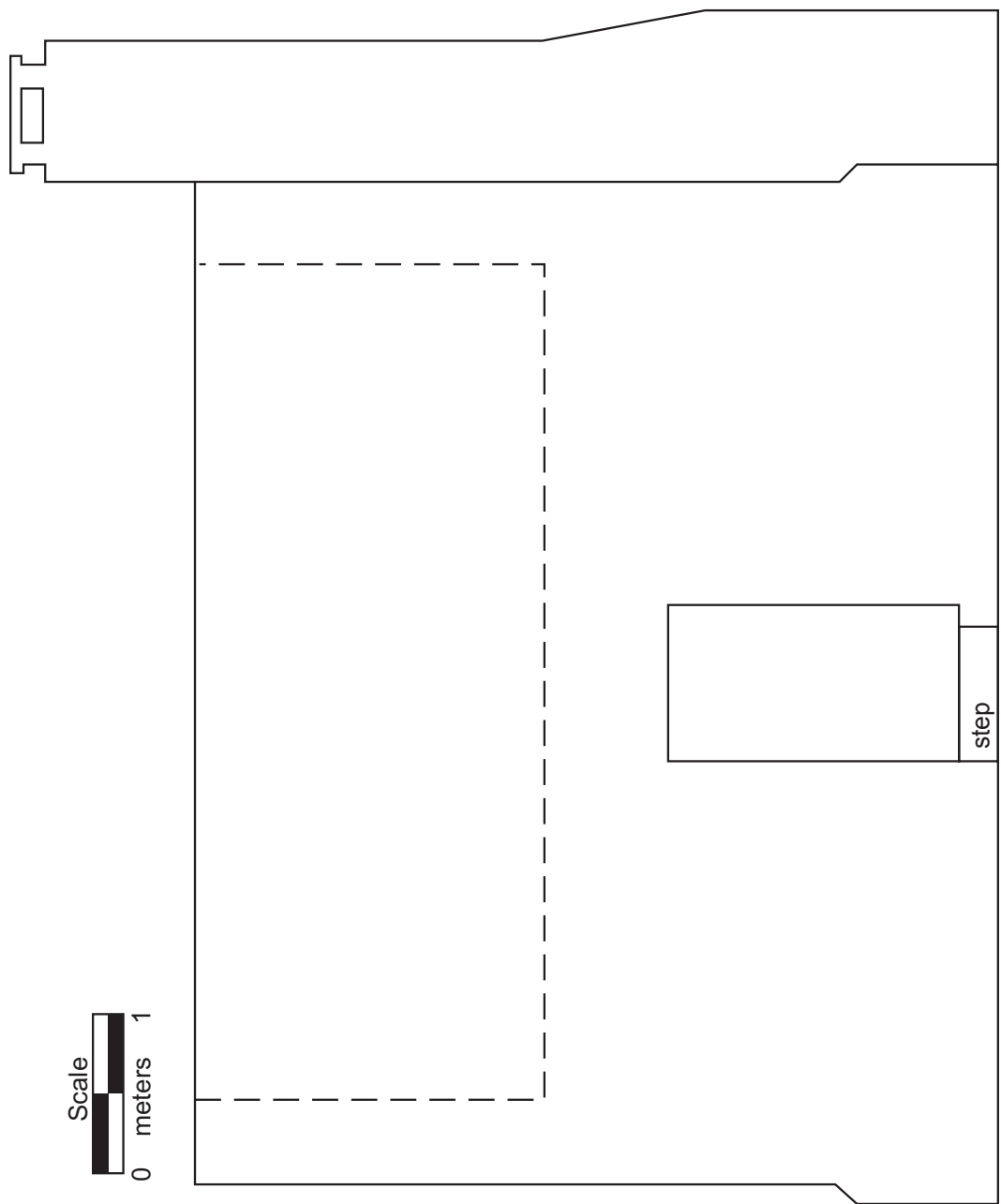


FIGURE 75. Elevation of northeast exterior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

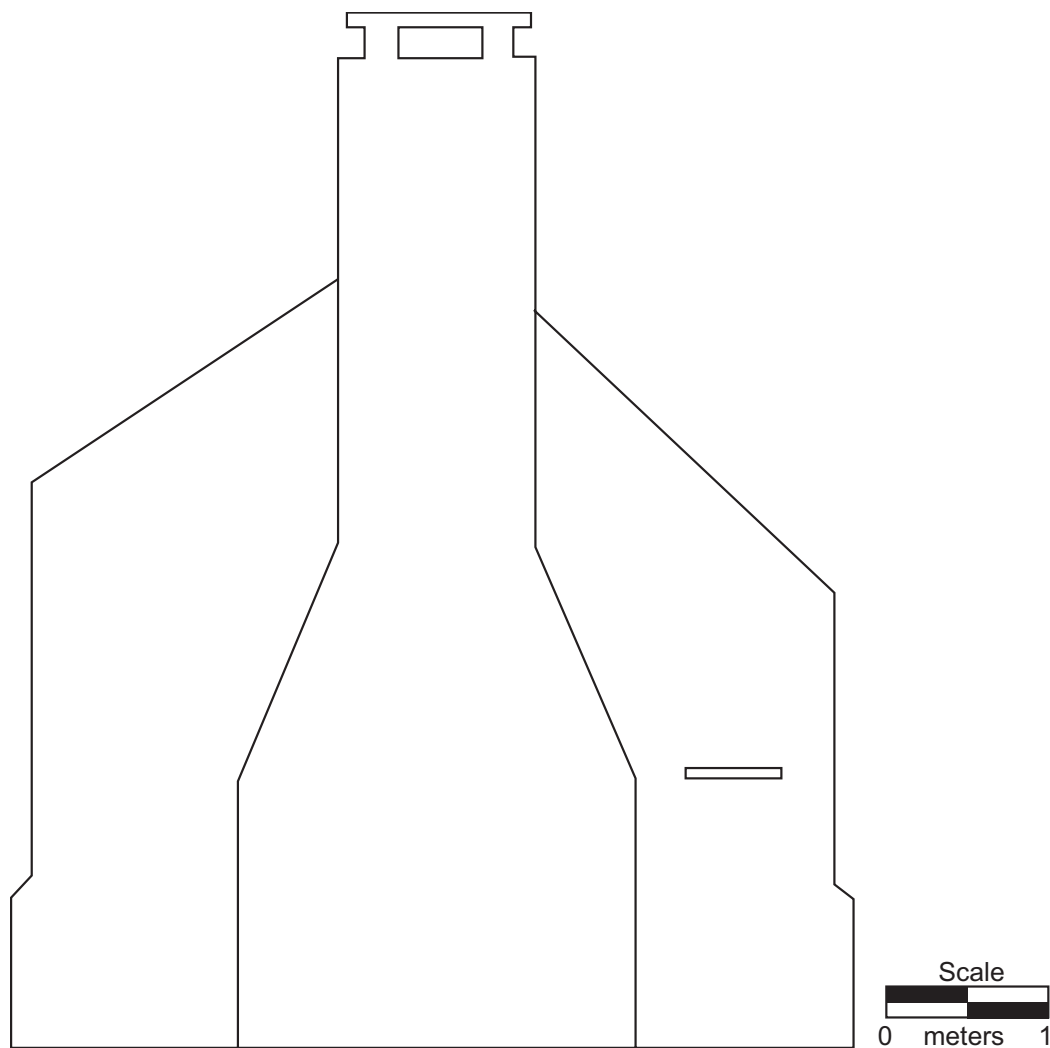


FIGURE 76. *Elevation of northwest exterior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.*

that has changed very little from colonial days, except in the degree of fortification and the roofing techniques.

Sometime during the 1940s the original roof was replaced with a galvanized tin roof. The original roofing material is unknown. Bricks and cement blocks were added to the top of the northeast wall of the building to change the pitch of the roof, presumably when the tin was added. These additional materials are

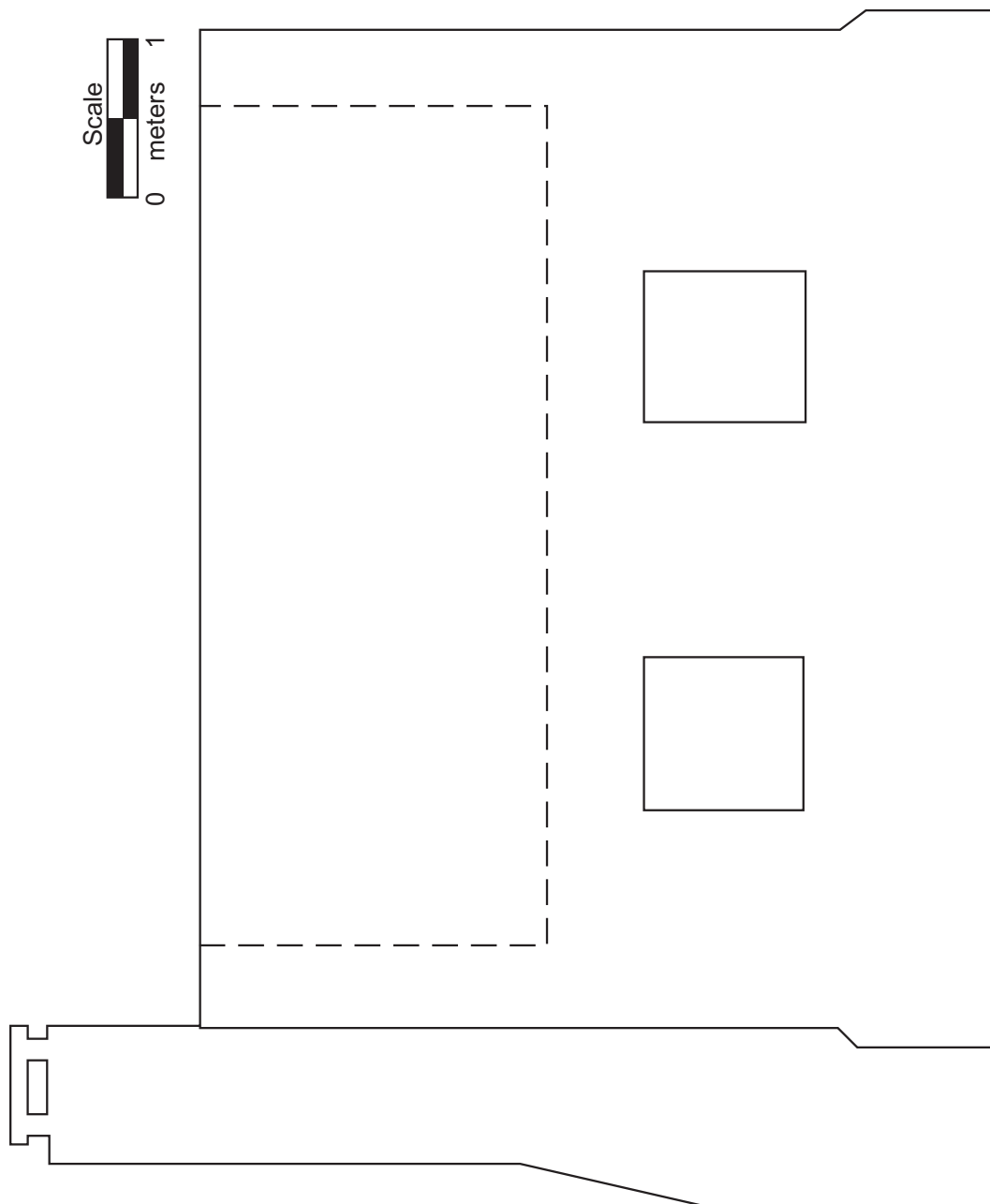


FIGURE 77. *Elevation of southwest exterior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.*

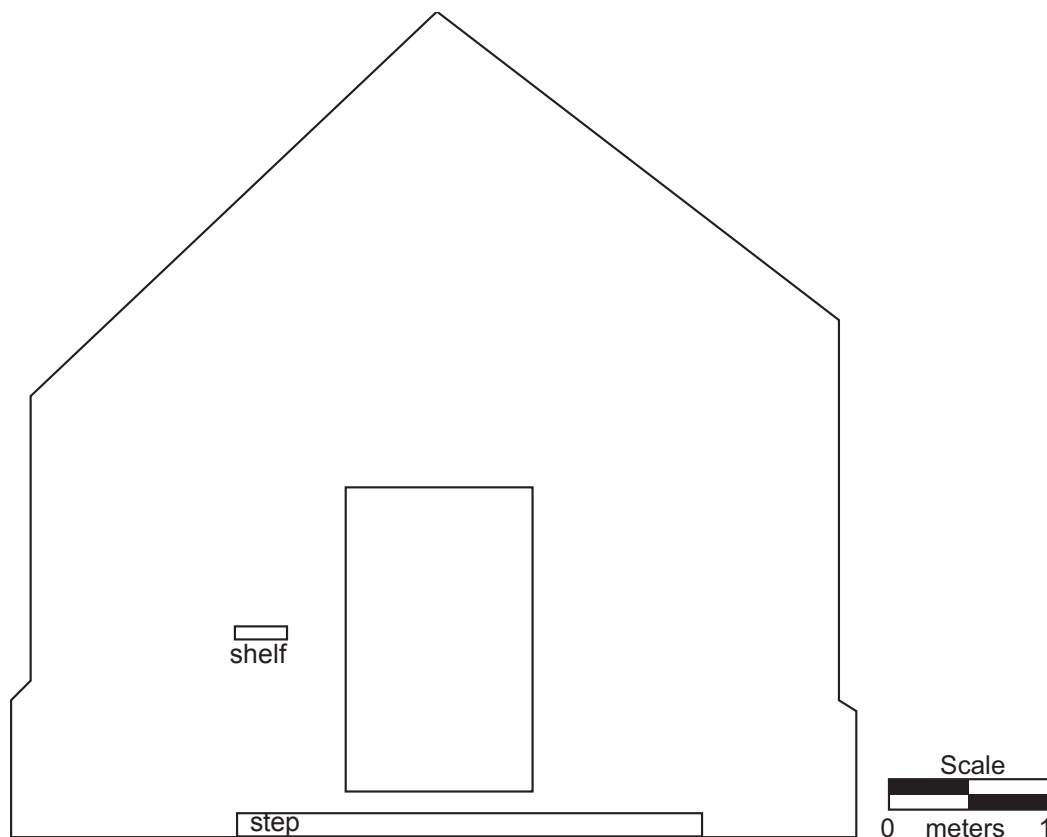


FIGURE 78. Elevation of southeast exterior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

evident only from the inside, as the exterior was plastered, although unplastered bricks and blocks were visible from the outside when a corner of the tin roof peeled up after a storm. The difference in height between the external northeast wall and its opposite is most evident in the exterior northwest and southeast wall profiles (Figures 76 and 78).

Internal Features

The main internal feature of the stone structure is its chimenea in the northwest wall. The base of the hearth is a single stone measuring 2 X 1.5 X .15 meters. Shelves were built into the corners of the room to either side of the hearth

(Text continues on page 232.)

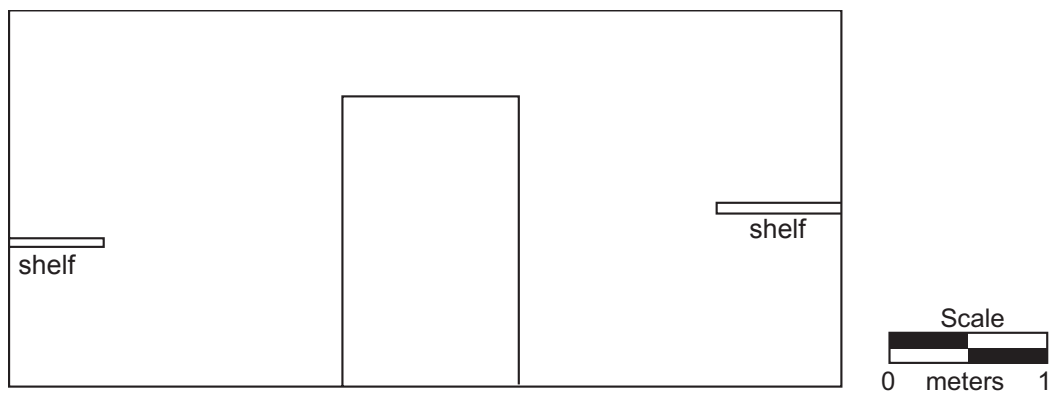


FIGURE 79. Elevation of northeast interior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 80. Elevation of northwest interior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

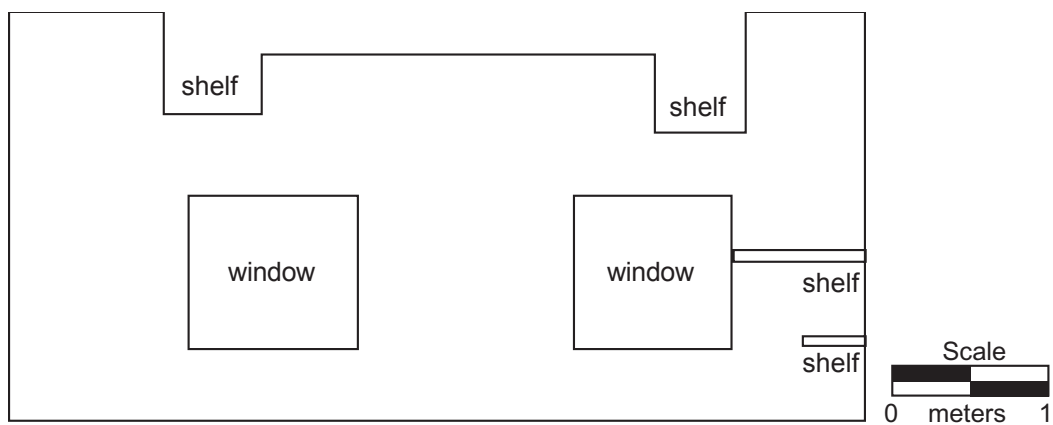


FIGURE 81. Elevation of southwest interior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

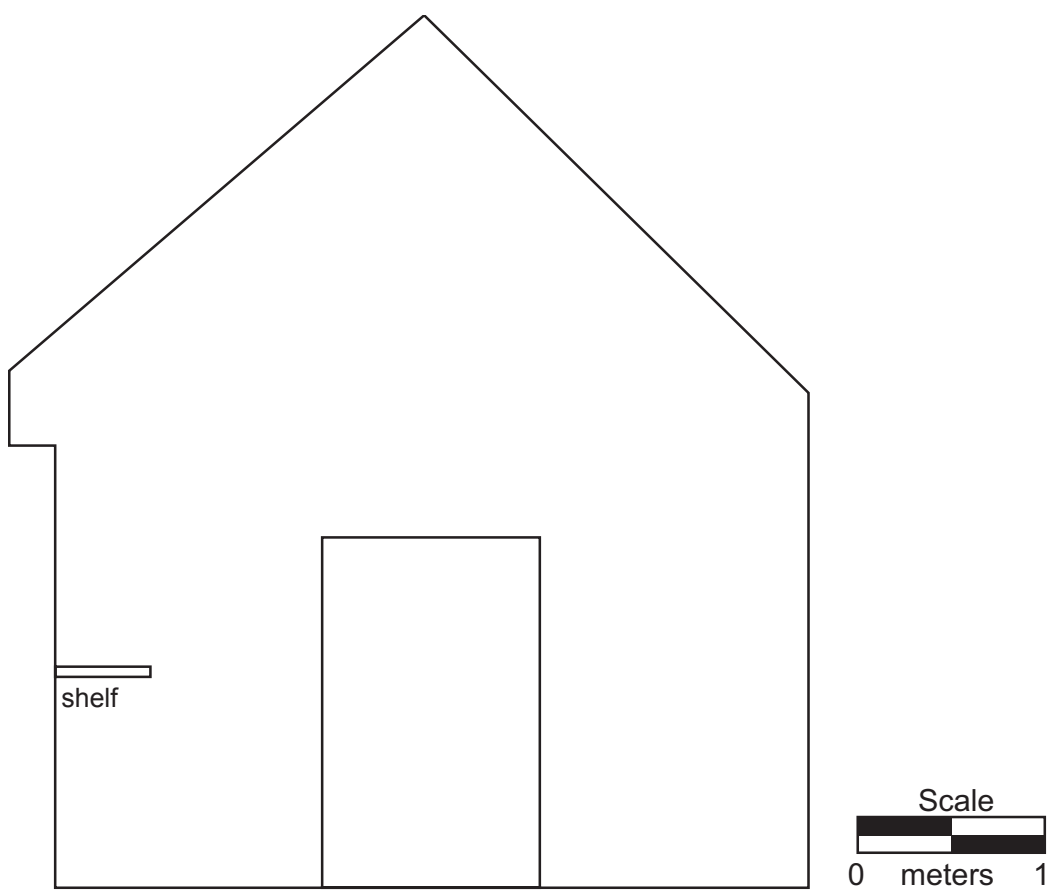


FIGURE 82. Elevation of southeast interior side of stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

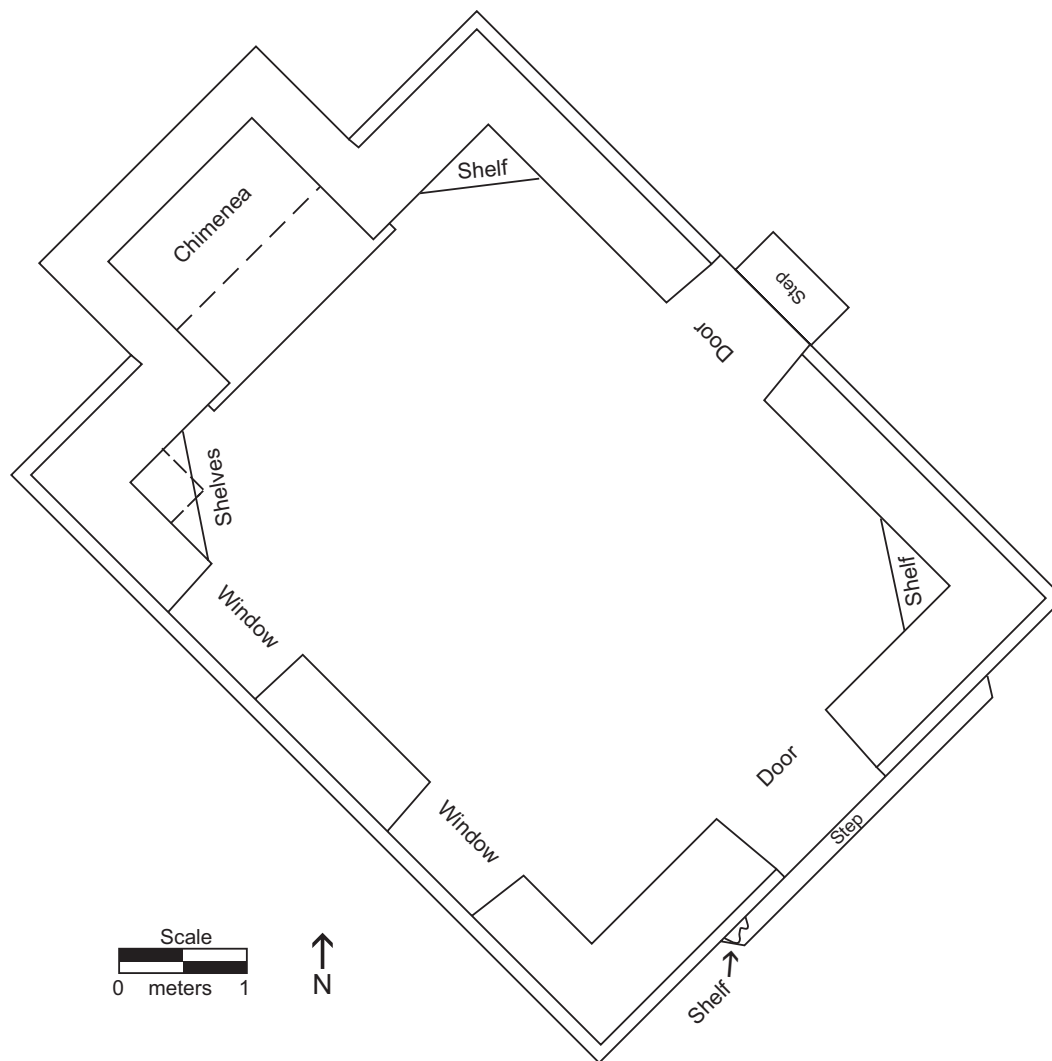


FIGURE 83. Plan view of stone house at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 84. West exterior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 85. East exterior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 86. North exterior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 89. Northwest interior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 87. South exterior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 90. Northeast interior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 88. Southwest interior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.



FIGURE 91. Southeast interior wall of the stone structure at Rancho El Saladito.

using similar flat stones, but triangular-shaped, and much smaller (0.6 X 0.5 X 0.05 meters). The lower shelf in the west corner is the only square one. One other triangular shelf was built into the east corner.

There are two niches or recessed areas near the top of the interior of the southwest wall, now used for storage. The wooden ceiling that covers the northern half of the room forms a loft that is also used for storage. It was built by spanning the width of the room with five beams. These beams were then covered by slat boards running the opposite direction (Figures 88 and 89).

The door in the southeast wall is handmade, but does not appear to be the original door because there are four hinge posts embedded in the doorframe near each corner. The current door uses only two of the hinge posts. The doorway was probably originally spanned by two narrower doors.

The doorway in the northeast wall of the structure uses three similar hinge posts on one side to mount the handmade door. This may be the original door or it may have been added later when the jacal that was either attached to or built along side the stone building's northeast wall was torn down (Doña María Berta Hinojosa Gomez de Guerra, personal communication 2002). In its place was laid a concrete patio that is also covered with a tin roof. The covered patio is L-shaped and wraps around the northeast and southeast walls of the structure. While working around the house yard, I frequently ate my lunch under this canopy. There was usually a dependable southerly breeze and a nice view. Traffic on the highway could be spotted almost a kilometer away from the vantage point the porch offered. I imagine that when the road was still made of dirt, the dust cloud of approaching traffic would have been visible at an even greater distance.

Cultural Material Analysis

Ceramics

Ceramics make up the largest class of artifacts recovered from Rancho El Saladito east of the arroyo as part of Operation 1 excavations and surface collections. The excavations produced 1,090 sherds weighing 2,950.1 grams, while the surface collection contains 1,010 sherds weighing 5434.5 grams. In contrast, Operation 2 ceramic inventory is comparatively very small. The excavations on the west side of the Arroyo El Saladito revealed only one glazed sherd weighing 0.3 grams. The Operation 2 surface collection contains 40 sherds weighing 266.9 grams.

Ceramic artifacts were divided into the following broad categories for analysis: Unglazed Wares including Mier Plain and burnished wares (Gilmore 1974, Ivey and Fox 1999, Lakeman 2001, Perttula, et. al. 1999), Lead-Glazed Wares including Galera, green glaze, and brown glaze wares (Barnes 1980, Gilmore 1974, Perttula et. al. 1999, Schuetz 1969), Tin Glazed Wares or Mexican Majolicas (Clark and Juarez 1986, Deagan 1987, Fox 2003, Gerald 1968, Goggin 1968, Ivey and Fox 1981, Lakeman 2001, Lister and Lister 1982, May 1975, Seifert 1977), Whitewares or Englishware, and porcelain. Further analysis was attempted for two types of wares—Majolicas and Englishware—as these are time sensitive and can assist in dating the occupation of the sites. In the following discussion of the various types, the collection as a whole is referenced. A distinction is made between ceramics from excavations versus those from surface collections in Tables 136 and 137, which compare the relative percentages by quantity and by weight. Table 138 provides the same type of information for the Operation 2 surface collection. Rim profiles separated by ceramic type are illustrated in Figure 92.

Table 136
Quantity and Weight Ratios of Ceramic Artifacts from Operation 1 Excavations

	Quantity	Weight (g)	% by Quantity	% by Weight
Unglazed Mier Plain	376	1390.2	34.50	47.13
Burnished Redware	20	91.3	1.83	3.10
Black on Cream	3	7.5	0.28	0.25
Galera	135	170.8	12.39	5.80
Glazed Ware	359	996.4	32.93	33.78
Majolica	169	256.6	15.50	8.70
Englishware	27	37.2	2.48	1.26
Totals	1090	2950.0	99.91	100.02

Table 137
Quantity and Weight Ratios of Ceramic Artifacts from Operation 1 Surface Collections

	Quantity	Weight (g)	% by Quantity	% by Weight
Unglazed Mier Plain	152	1483.6	15.51	25.00
Burnished Redware	22	112.5	2.24	1.90
Black on Cream	1	2.7	0.10	0.05
Black and Red on Cream	2	3.2	0.20	0.05
Galera	92	214.3	9.39	3.61
Glazed Ware	285	2420.1	29.08	40.78
Majolica	231	1054.9	23.57	17.78
Englishware	191	618.5	19.49	10.42
Porcelain	4	24.7	0.41	0.42
Totals	980	5934.5	100.00	100.01

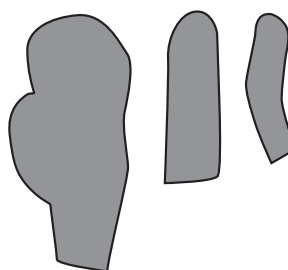
Table 138
Quantity and Weight Ratios of Ceramic Artifacts from Operation 2 Surface Collections

	Quantity	Weight (g)	% by Quantity	% by Weight
Glazed Ware	5	31.8	12.50	11.91
Englishware	22	177.1	55.00	66.35
Porcelain	12	53.4	30.00	20.01
Doll's arm	1	4.6	2.50	1.72
Totals	40	266.9	100.00	99.99

Green Glazed Ware Rims



Brown Glazed Ware Rims



Other Glazed Ware Rims



Galera Ware



Burnished Redware



Majolica
Huejotzingo Blue on White



Majolica
San Elizario



Mier Plain Unglazed

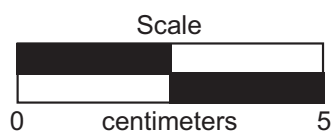
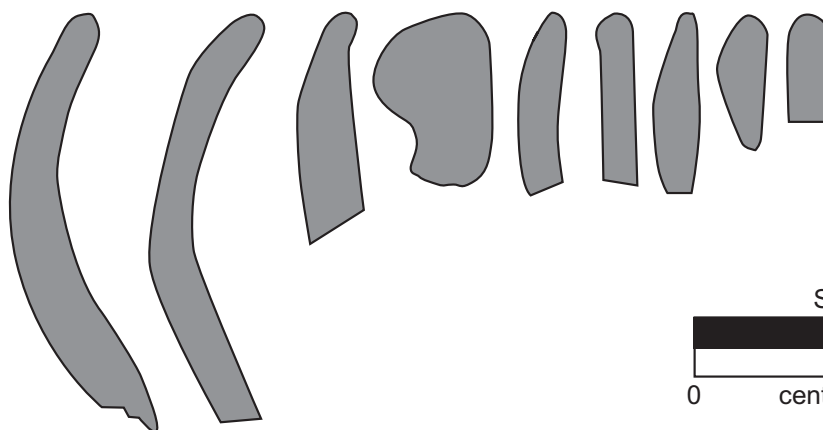


Figure 92. Examples of rim profiles for sherds from Operation 1.

Unglazed Wares

This category is comprised mainly of locally-produced Mier Plain, but also includes burnished wares and a painted creamware (Figures 93 through 111). There are 576 specimens of unglazed wares or 27.83% (32.35% by weight) of the Operation 1 collection. Mier Plain is thought to represent locally made wares by Hispanic and Tejano potters that was intended for local consumption (Perttula, et. al. 1999:335). Very few sherds contained a carbon streak in the middle, suggesting that these were fired in the open air while the majority were kiln fired. Mier Plain sherds likely represent medium- to large-sized jars and bowls of local clay, tempered with sand or crushed rock. Crushed shell or bone may also have been used as temper.

The 42 sherds of Red Pattern-Burnished Ware in the Operation 1 collection represent the continuity between pre-Columbian ceramic traditions in the Valley of Mexico and potters who continue to manufacture it today (Ivey and Fox 1999:37; Lakeman 2001). This ware has been coated with a fine-grained slip and is highly polished on both internal and external surfaces (Gilmore 1974:63). The designs are burnished, while the background has a matte finish (Figures 100 through 102).

Six sherds of a creamware that has been painted black and/or red are included in this unglazed category (Figures 107 and 111).

(Text continues on page 242.)



Figure 93. Two views of an unglazed Mier Plain rim fragment from IAB surface collection.



Figure 94. Two views of an unglazed Mier Plain rim fragment from IAB surface collection.



Figure 95. Two views of an unglazed molded fragment of a hollow-bodied object, possibly an animal figurine, from 1-G-3.



Figure 96. Unglazed rim fragments from 1-H-1.



Figure 97. Unglazed rim fragment with red paint from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 98. Leg from a hollow-bodied figurine, possibly Tonalá, from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 99. Two views of an unglazed rim fragment that was probably part of an olive jar from 1C surface collection.



Figure 100. Red burnished ware from 1AB surface collection. Sherd in upper left is a basal fragment.



Figure 102. Red burnished ware from 1AB surface collection. Sherd on top is a basal fragment, the other two are rim fragments.



Figure 101. Red burnished ware rim sherd from 1-B-1.



Figure 103. Unglazed basal fragment from a wheel-made vessel from 1-G-1.



Figure 104. Unglazed rim sherds from 1-H-4.



Figure 105. Unglazed rim sherds from 1-H-4.



Figure 106. Unglazed basal fragments from 1-H-4.

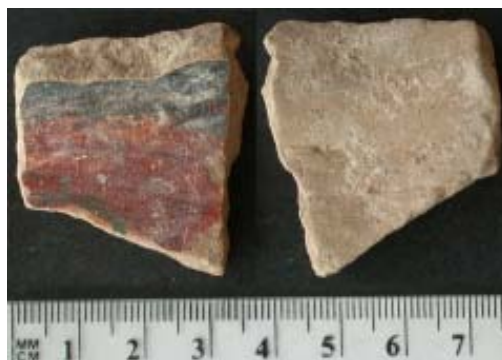


Figure 107. Two views of an unglazed black and red on cream sherd from 1-G-3.



Figure 108. Two views of unglazed black and red on cream sherds from LAB surface collection, including a rim fragment (left).



Figure 109. Black and red on cream sherd from 1-B-1.



Figure 110. Two views of an unglazed black and red on cream sherd from 1-B-6.



Figure 111. Two views of an unglazed black on cream sherd from 1C surface collection

Lead-Glazed Wares

The largest class of ceramic artifacts in the Operation 1 collection is Lead-glazed ware, which includes Galera ware, at 871 sherds weighing 3,801.6 grams, or 42.08% of the total. Anne Fox conducted the first detailed analysis of lead glazed wares in Texas (Gilmore 1974:55-59). Studying the collection from Mission Rosario, near Goliad, Fox determined the category could be divided into sandy paste and fine paste types (Gilmore 1974:55-59). Sandy paste wares, with yellow or yellow and green glazes, are usually wheel-thrown with thick walls (Schuetz 1969:53). Fine paste types include Galera ware, various brown-glazed wares, Tonalá, and Black Luster glaze ware (Figures 112 through 140).

Of the 871 lead-glazed sherds, 227 (or 26 %) are Galera ware. Carbon streaks were not evident, which is characteristic of a well-fired and oxidized ware. Common forms are chocolateras and bean pots with cream-colored and black paints. Glazes include clear, yellow, and brown. Galera Polychrome is known from after 1750, when ceramic forms replace copper chocolateras (Barnes 1980, Perttula et. al. 1999). This ceramic tradition, like Red Patterned-Burnished ware, continues to the present.

(Text continues on page 249.)



Figure 112. Two views of glazed rim sherds from 1-G-4.



Figure 113. Two views of brown-glazed rounded sherd from 1-G-4.



Figure 114. Two views of glazed rim sherds from 1-G-3.



Figure 115. Two views of glazed rim sherds from 1-G-3.



Figure 116. Two views of glazed rim sherds and a handle fragment (right) from 1-G-1.



Figure 117. Two views of a glazed rim sherd from 1-G-2.



Figure 118. Two views of glazed rim sherds from 1-G-3.



Figure 121. Two views of glazed rim sherds from 1-H-4.



Figure 119. Two views of green and brown glazed sherds from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 122. Two views of a punctated and glazed sherd from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 120. Green-glazed pie crust rim sherd from 1-G-1.



Figure 123. Various glazed sherds, including a rim sherd from a handmade vessel (center), from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 124. Various glazed rim sherds, including a pie crust rim sherd (top center) from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 125. Green-glazed molcajete sherds from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 126. Green-glazed molcajete sherd from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 127. Red-glazed molded leg or handle fragment from 1C surface collection.



Figure 128. Green-glazed basal sherd from 1H surface collection.



Figure 129. Two views of a black luster glaze rim sherd from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 130. Two views of a black luster glaze cup basal fragment from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 131. Two views of clear- and brown-glazed sherds, including a handle (center) and a rim sherd (right), from 2C surface.



Figure 134. Two views of clear-glazed sherds, including a rim sherd (right) from 2C surface collection.

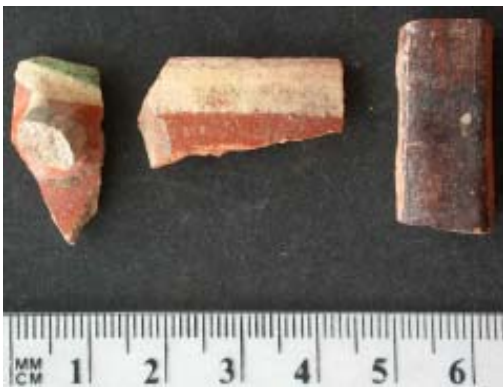


Figure 132. Galera ware from 1-G-3, including a sherd with the remnant of a handle (right), a rim sherd (center), and a handle fragment.



Figure 135. Two views of Galera rim sherds from 1-G-4.



Figure 133. Galera sherd with handle attached from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 136. Two views of Galera ware sherds from 1-H-4.



Figure 137. Galera ware rim sherds from 1-H-4.



Figure 139. Various Galera ware sherds from 1H surface collection.



Figure 138. Two views of Galera sherds from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 140. Two views of Galera sherds from 2A surface collection.

Tin Glazed Wares

The tin glazed wares in the Operation 1 collection are all Mexican Majolicas (Figures 141 through 180). Most of them are probably of Central Mexican origin, having been manufactured in Mexico City, Puebla or Guanajuato (Deagan 1987, Goggin 1968, Lister and Lister 1982). Majolicas are wheel-thrown vessels that have a distinctive opaque surface made possible by adding tin to the lead glaze that covered both the vessel's interior and exterior. Majolicas are twice-fired in a kiln; the first firing sets the glaze and the second firing follows any painted decorations that are added (Fox 2003). General vessel forms include *platos* or brimmed plates, two types of cups, *tazas* and *pocillos*, *jarras* or pitchers, and *escudillas* or bowls (Lakeman 2001).

Florence and Robert Lister (1982) divided Mexican Majolicas into fine grade and common grade, based on the color of the paste, the color and thickness of the glaze and the color palette chosen for the painted decorations. Fine grade Mexican Majolicas were manufactured from a red clay, whereas the common grade used a pinkish tan paste. The lighter colored paste of the common grade made it possible to use a thinner glaze. While both types were decorated with blue paint, green was only used to decorate the common grade (Lister and Lister 1982).

In Puebla the Majolica industry mixed locally-available red and white clays for a cream or peach paste (Deagan 1987:78). Majolica manufacturing began in Puebla during the seventeenth century and continues to the present. The "Puebla tradition," is a name given to a long series of blue and white wares from the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries (May 1975:34, 43). The series includes several types evident in the Operation 1 collection, including Huejotzingo Blue on White,

Puebla Blue on White, and San Elizario Polychrome. By the mid-eighteenth century, Puebla potters began to shift away from the blue-and-white styles to a predominately green and orange polychrome, which became known as the “Aranama tradition” (Deagan 1987:79).

May (1975:47) dates the Aranama tradition to between 1780 and 1850, with a transition period from the Puebla to Aranama traditions falling between 1790 and 1800. Green varieties, polychrome mixes, and unstandardized forms occur during this transition period (1975:70). Several examples of the Aranama tradition are found in the Operation 1 collection, including orange-banded, Monterey and San Diego polychromes (Figures 141, 146, 148, 149, 151, 153, 155, 156, 159 and 160).

Majolica manufacturing ceased in Mexico City after 1750, however, the industry in Puebla continued production and new centers developed, including in Guanajuato (Deagan 1987:87). Several examples of Guanajuato polychrome are in the Operation 1 collection (Figures 153 through 155).

The following descriptions are arranged in roughly chronological order and include the types of Majolica present in this collection.

Huejotzingo Blue on White (1700-1850)

A single narrow blue rim band and the absence of any other decoration is characteristic of Huejotzingo Blue on White (Deagan 1987:83, Goggin 1968:195-196). A later version of this type (ca. 1775 to 1825) has a wavy rim band, which can vary from blue to green or yellow (Seifert 1977:71 as cited in Fox 2003).

Puebla Blue on White (1700-1850)

This type is the most common and widespread eighteenth-century Majolica

encountered at Spanish colonial sites (Deagan 1987: 83-85, Goggin 1968:190-195). As such it is also one of the most well-studied. Typical examples have precise designs, composed mainly of lobes and dots, that cover most of the vessel surface (Deagan 1987:84). Common motifs include floral, human, and animal designs. After 1750, several variants are manufactured, including Puebla Green on White and the Wavy Rim band variant (Deagan 1987:85).

San Elizario Polychrome (1750-1850)

This type resembles Puebla Blue on White in many respects, with the addition of brown or black to outline the blue designs. Rims have a wide band, edged in black, with blue pendants suspended from it. These pendants may be highlighted with black accents (Deagan 1987:86, Gerald 1968:45). A long-legged shore bird motif is a common design in the center of platos.

San Diego Polychrome (1770 to 1800)

This type is defined based on Mark Barnes and Ronald May's excavations from sites active during the first half of the nineteenth century in California and Arizona (1972). Below the vessel's orange rim band are yellow, green, and brown balls outlined in black. The balls seem to be suspended from groups of black stems (Fox 2003). San Diego Polychrome appears in the 1770s at Rancho de Las Cabras near Floresville, Texas (Ivey and Fox 1981:35).

Monterey Polychrome (1800 to 1830)

This is another Aranam Polychrome variant that studies in California have separated out into its own category (Barnes and May 1979:36; Fox 2003). Anne Fox suggests an earlier date in Texas for this type, perhaps in the late 1700s (Fox 2003), based on its presence at Mission Espiritu Santo and Presidio La Bahia,

which moved to Goliad in 1749. Monterey Polychrome has an orange rim band with a large yellow oval and black diagonal slashes below the rim band (Fox 2003). To either side of the yellow ovals, orange spirals alternate with green fronds (Fox 2003). The Monterey Polychrome examples from this collection are quite small, but the characteristic green fronds are evident below the rim band.

Guanajuato Polychrome (early 1800s)

This ware has a dark terra cotta paste and the background enamel has a greenish cast (Lister and Lister 1974; Fox 2003). Decorations in the form of geometric designs, dot patterns and wavy lines are executed in rust, green, yellow, and black-brown (Fox 2003). These wares are known from all Spanish colonial sites in the San Antonio River Valley (Fox 2003), early nineteenth-century sites in Laredo (Clark and Juarez 1986), and at Mission Refugio (Fox 2003).

(Text continues on page 263.)



Figure 141. Majolica sherds from 1-A-1. The rim sherd in the upper left corner is Huejotzingo Blue on White, while the one below it is San Elizario. The polychrome sherd on the right is of an unidentified type in the Aranama tradition.



Figure 142. Majolica sherds from 1-B-1, including a Puebla Blue on White II (top left), two San Elizario, and two unidentified orange and black on white.



Figure 143. Huejotzingo Blue on White rim sherd from 1-A-3.

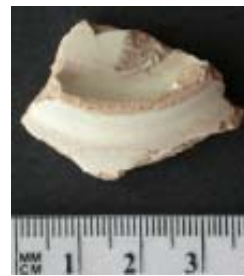


Figure 144. Undecorated Majolica cup base from 1-D-1.



Figure 145. Three San Elizario sherds from 1-A-3, including two rim sherds (left) and a fragment of a bird motif.



Figure 146. A Monterey and a San Elizario sherd from 1-B-5.



Figure 147. Majolica sherd with two shades of blue decoration from 1-C-4.



Figure 148. Aranama polychrome sherd from 1-E-2.



Figure 150. Majolica sherd with green rim band from 1-F-1.



Figure 151. Monterey rim sherd from 1F surface collection.

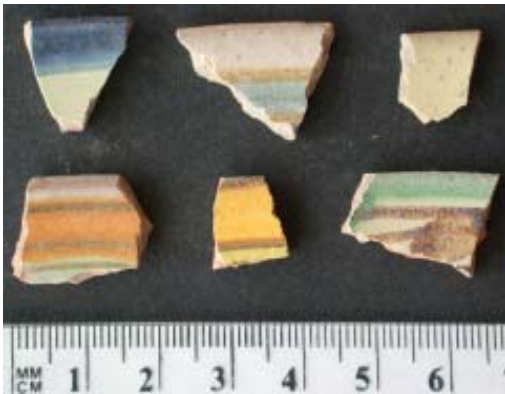


Figure 149. Majolica rim sherds from 1-G-1, including Huejotzingo (top left), San Elizario, plain, two orange banded (bottom left), and a green rim band with brown lines and blobs below.

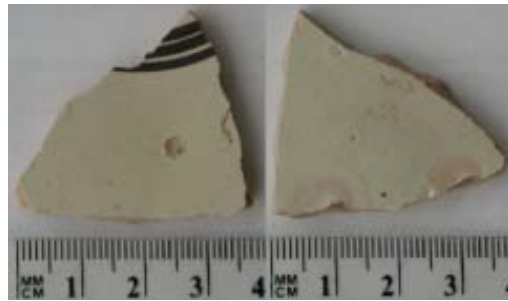


Figure 152. Two views of Majolica fragment with black paint from 1-G-2.



Figure 153. Various Majolica sherds from 1-G-1, including two views of a plate fragment (left) with a green central design; three painted sherds: Guanajuato (top), Monterey (center), and the third with a green band and brown lines; and three undecorated plate base fragments (right).

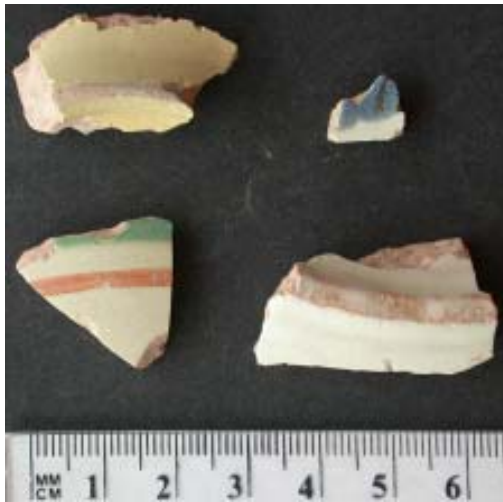


Figure 154. Majolica sherds from 1-G-2, including San Elizario (top right), Guanajuato (lower left), and two undecorated cup or plate base fragments.



Figure 155. Majolica rim sherds from 1-G-2, including two Huejotzingo (top), Guanajuato (lower left), Monterey, and a sherd with a green rim band.



Figure 156. Orange-banded body sherd (left) and Monterey from 1-G-3.



Figure 157. Majolica body sherd with orange lines and designs from 1-G-3.



Figure 160. Rim sherds from 1-G-4, including a wavy green rim band (left) and an orange-banded rim sherd with brown outlines.

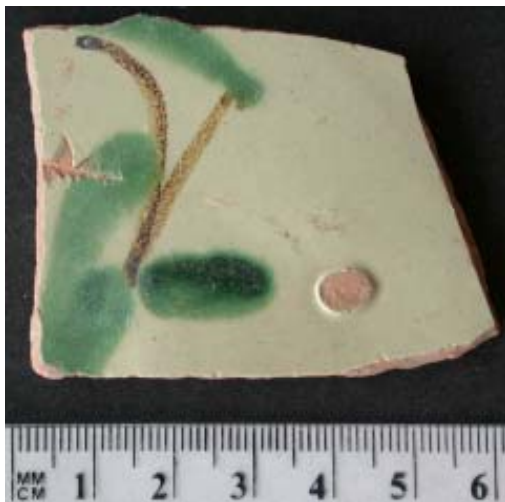


Figure 158. Fragment of a Majolica plate with a green and brown floral central design from 1-G-4. The firing scar (lower right) resulted from the use of a cockspur to stack the vessels in the kiln (Lister and Lister 1982).

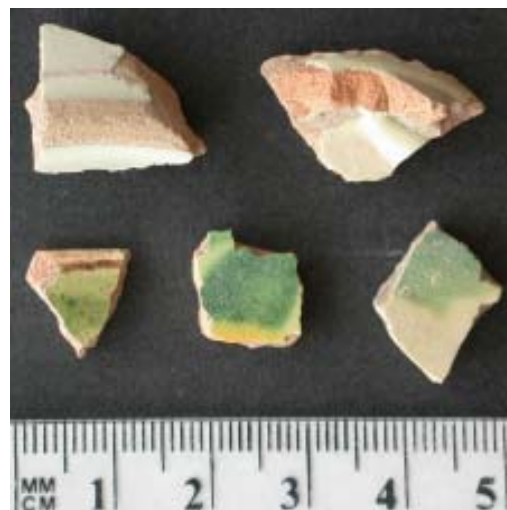


Figure 161. Two undecorated base fragments, a rim sherd with green and brown bands, and two body sherds with green and/or yellow paint from 1-H-4.



Figure 159. Majolica body sherd with a blue and white floral design (left) and an orange-banded body sherd with brown lines and green blob from 1-G-6.



Figure 162. Pale green Majolica rim sherd with green rim band from 1-H-1.

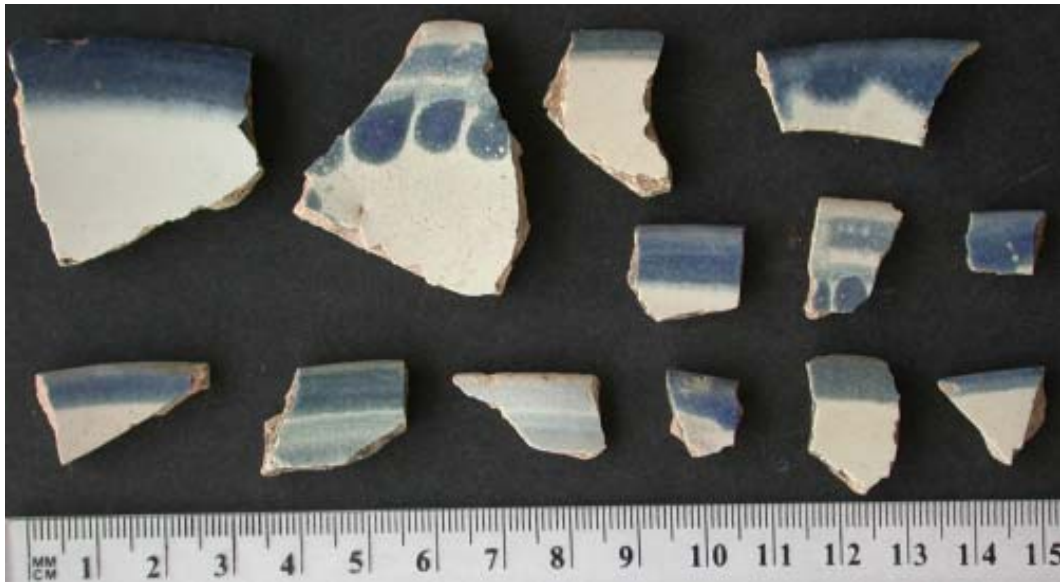


Figure 163. Majolica rim sherds from IAB surface collection. Two are Puebla Blue on White (second from top left and second from right in center row) and the rest are Huejotzingo, including a wavy rim band variant (upper right).

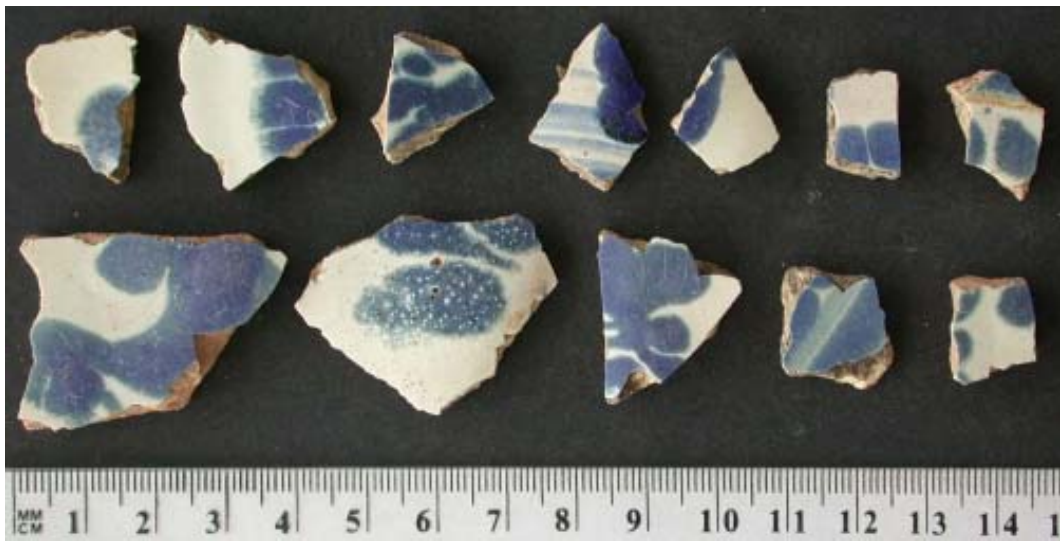


Figure 164. Puebla Blue on White body sherds and one San Elizario (upper right) from IAB surface collection.

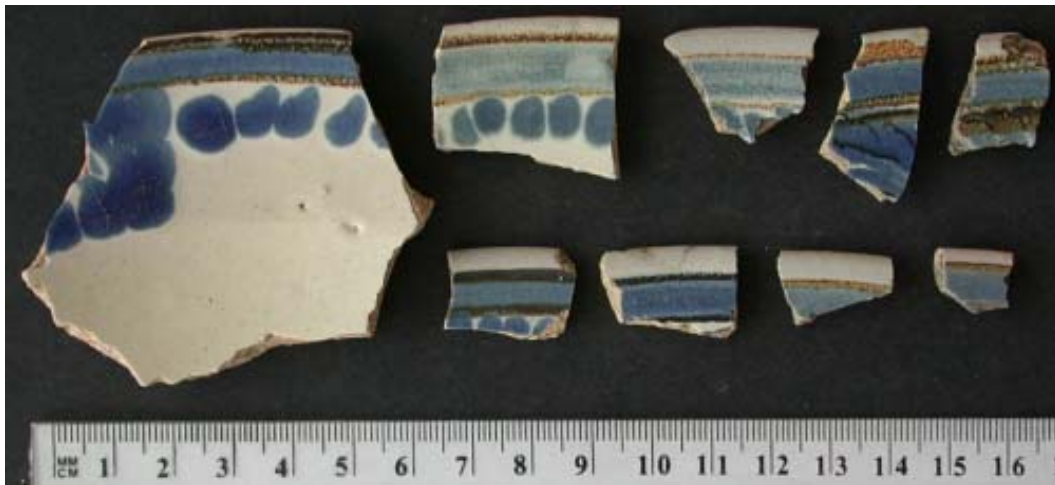


Figure 165. San Elizario rim sherds from IAB surface collection.



Figure 166. Two views of San Elizario (two sherd on left) and plain basal fragments from IAB surface collection.

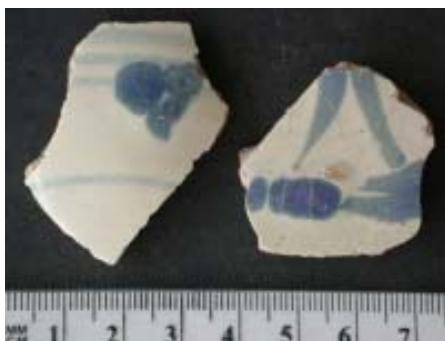


Figure 167. Puebla Blue on White II from IAB surface collection.

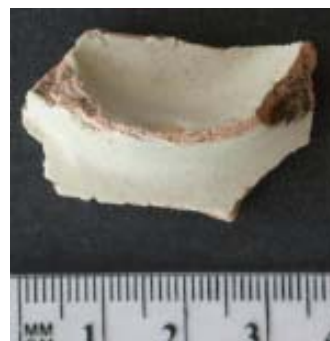


Figure 168. Plain cup basal fragment from IAB surface collection.



Figure 169. San Elizario body sherds from IAB surface collection.



Figure 170. Plain Majolica basal fragments from IAB surface collection.



Figure 171. Polychrome body sherds from IAB surface collection.



Figure 173. Orange-banded rim sherds from IAB surface collection.



Figure 172. Polychrome body sherds from IAB surface collection.

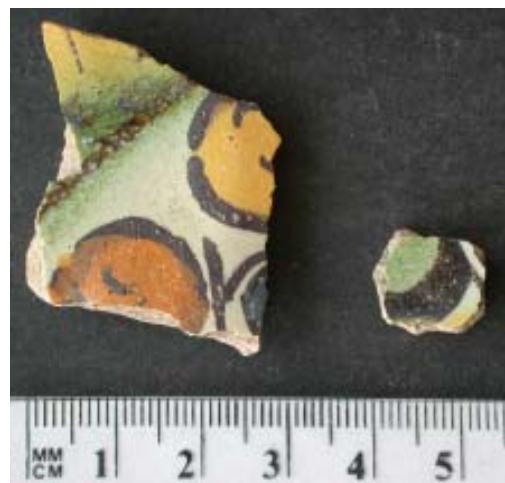


Figure 174. San Diego Polychrome body sherds from IAB surface collection.

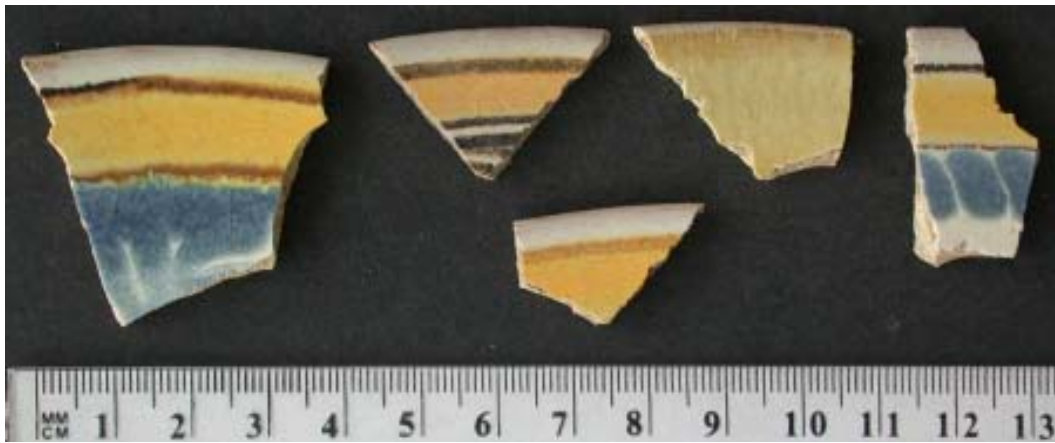


Figure 175. Yellow-banded rim sherds (two with blue decoration) from IAB surface collection.



Figure 176. Two views of a polychrome basal fragment from IAB surface collection.



Figure 177. Red and green sherds from IAB surface collection.

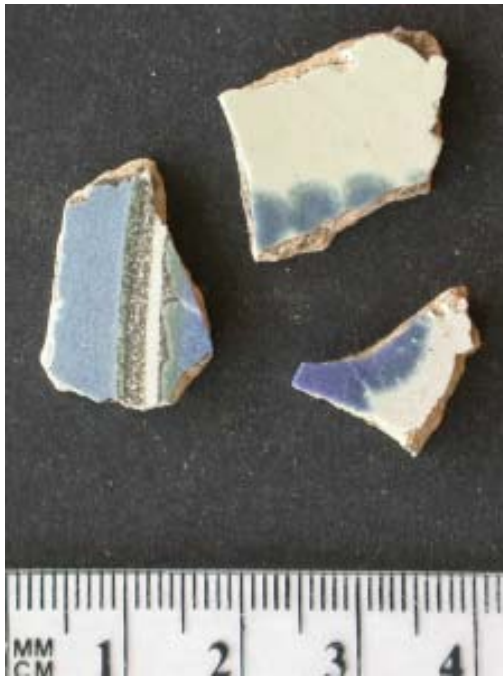


Figure 178. San Elizario (left) and two Puebla Blue on White body sherds from 1D surface collection.



Figure 180. Assorted majolica sherds from 1H surface collection, including a plain basal fragment and polychrome sherds.

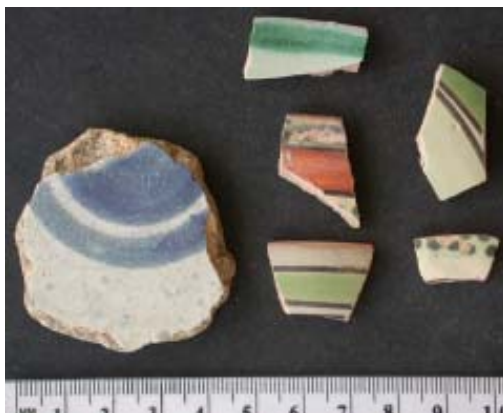


Figure 179. Puebla Blue on White rounded body sherd (left), green rim band on greenish background, green rim band above red and black bands, green and black-banded rim sherd and two body sherds from 1G surface collection.

Whitewares

The presence of this type of ceramic indicates a period of occupation dating to after the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The opening of the international port of Matamoros in 1824 facilitated the importation of new English wares and broadened the ceramic trade of the region (Alonzo 1998:67-73; Perttula, et. al. 1999:332).

Imported English wares, by virtue of mass production techniques, became cheaper for northern frontier residents to buy than ceramics from Central Mexico (Anne Fox personal communication 2002). The widespread availability of European wares had a significant impact on the Mexican Majolica manufacturing in Puebla, where the number of production centers declined from 46 in 1773 to 16 in 1802 (Gerald 1968:54). In fact, between 1844 and 1856 a factory existed in Puebla for the production of English-style transfer ware.

Examples of English whiteware in the Operation 1 collection include varieties with handpainted designs, transferware, ironstone, and banded slipware (Figures 181 through 204).

Most of the examples from the Operation 1 collection come from the surface collection associated with Suboperation C, although a few were recovered in excavations at Suboperations C, E, and G. The surface collections associated with Suboperations D, E, F, G, and H, all contained examples of whiteware. Significantly, no whiteware is among the collection recovered from Suboperations A and B.

English whiteware is the largest class of ceramic artifact recovered in Operation 2 surface collections (Figures 205 through 209).

Porcelain

No porcelain was recovered from any excavation; however, four sherds of porcelain were gathered as part of Operation 1, Suboperation C surface collection (Figure 210). There are 13 artifacts of porcelain recovered from Operation 2 surface collection, including a doll arm (Figure 211) that would have been wired to the doll's shoulder (Anne Fox personal communication 2003).

(Text continues on page 271.)



Figure 181. Black banded with blue slipware from 1-C-2.



Figure 182. Black banded with blue slipware from 1-C-13.



Figure 184. Black banded with blue slipware from 1-E-5.



Figure 183. Whiteware sherds from 1-C-6, including a red transfer print rim sherd (top left) and an orange and blue handpainted sherd.

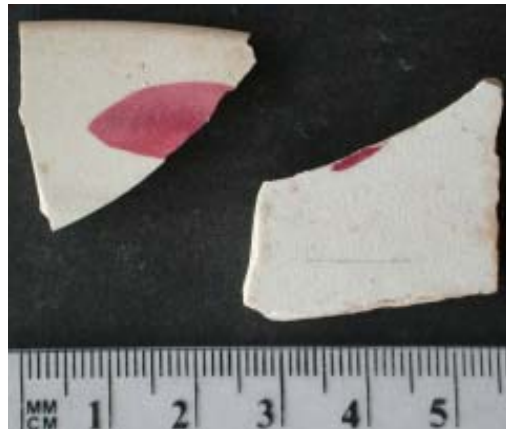


Figure 185. Whiteware sherds handpainted red from 1-C-11, including a rim sherd (left).



Figure 186. Whiteware sherd with sponge print in black from 1-C-4.



Figure 187. Whiteware sherds handpainted blue from 1-G-1.



Figure 188. Various handpainted sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 189. Two views of a handpainted green and black sherd with the letter "B" impressed on the reverse from 1C surface collection.



Figure 191. Handpainted purple, green, blue, and black sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 190. Black banded with blue slipware, hand-painted orange and blue, and handpainted red and black sherds from 1F surface collection.

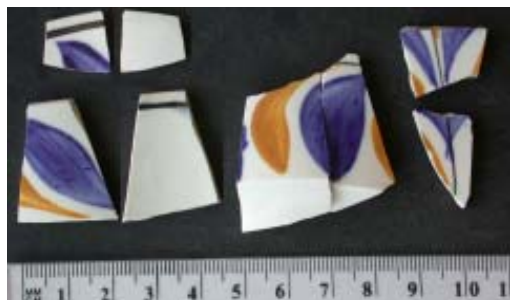


Figure 192. Handpainted blue, orange, and black sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 193.
Handpainted green
and red sherd from
1D surface
collection.



Figure 194.
Handpainted blue
whiteware sherd from
1H surface
collection.



Figure 197. Two handpainted whiteware
fragments from 1G surface collection.



Figure 195. Various whiteware fragments
including two handpainted blue and two black
banded slipware sherds from 1E surface
collection.



Figure 196. Sponge-printed green, yellow, red,
and black sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 198. Sponge-printed green and black
sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 199. Brown transfer print sherds from IC surface collection.

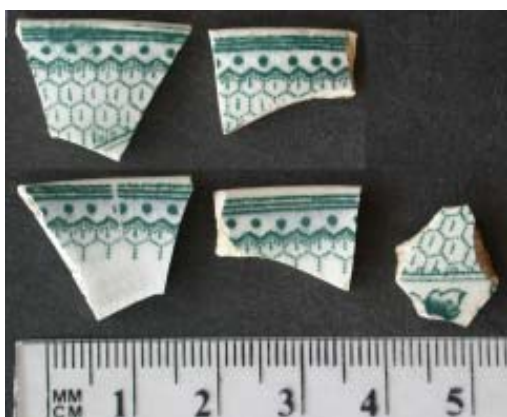


Figure 200. Green transfer print sherds from IC surface collection.



Figure 201. Black transfer print sherds from IC surface collection.



Figure 202. Red transfer print sherds from IC surface collection.

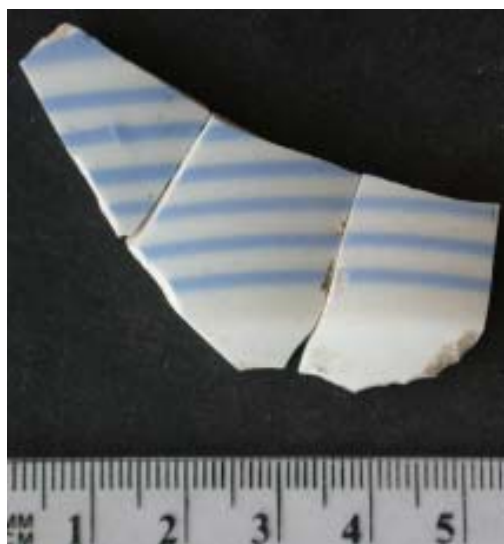


Figure 203. Blue banded sherds from IC surface collection.



Figure 204. Various black banded with blue slipware sherds from 1C surface collection.



Figure 205. Two views of whiteware sherds and two porcelain cup fragments (upper right) from 2A surface collection.

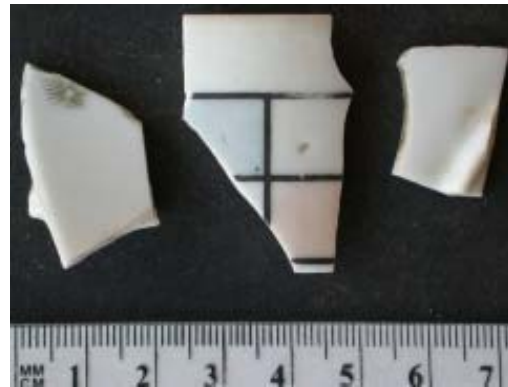


Figure 206. Whiteware sherd with green paint or decal (left), porcelain cup rim sherd (center) and a plain whiteware basal fragment from 2A surface collection.

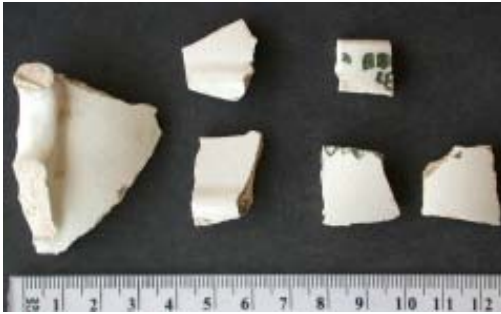


Figure 207. Ironstone cup fragments, some with a green design on the outer rim, from 2A surface collection.



Figure 210. Porcelain sherds from 2C surface collection. "Japan" appears on the exterior of one (bottom left) and the other three are rim sherds from a decorative vessel.



Figure 208. Whiteware basal sherds from 2C surface collection.



Figure 211. Two views of a porcelain doll arm from 2C surface collection. The arm would have been wired to the doll's shoulder.



Figure 209. Handpainted whiteware cup sherds from 2C surface collection.

Lithics

Operation 1

A total of 214 lithic artifacts weighing 1,711.8 grams were recovered through Operation 1 excavations and associated surface collections (Figures 212 through 227).

The quantity and weight of each category of lithic artifact is given in the following Table 139:

Table 139: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1 excavations and surface collections

Lithic category	Quantity	Weight
Tertiary flake	100	257.2
Secondary flake	42	281.6
Shatter	34	77.6
Primary flake	10	105.5
Projectile Point fragment	5	19.3
Projectile Point	4	9.7
Unifacial scraper	4	84.3
Biface fragment	3	53.3
Utilized flake	3	26.9
Biface	2	166.1
Expedient tool	2	506.2
Biface preform	1	61.9
Bifacial scraper	1	19.9
Blade	1	6.9
Core	1	30.1
Projectile Point preform	1	5.3
Totals	214	1711.8

Tertiary flakes, at 100 pieces, are the most numerous of the lithic artifacts, weighing 257.2 grams. When considered together with primary and secondary flakes and shatter, there are 186 artifacts weighing 721.9 grams which represent evidence of lithic tool manufacturing and retouching. These numbers are 87% of the quantity, or 42% of the weight of all lithic artifacts recovered.

A wide variety of formal and expedient tools are included in this collection, including: 10 projectile points, preforms, or fragments; six bifaces, preforms, or fragments; five scrapers; three utilized flakes; two expedient tools; a blade; and a core.

Operation 2

Five lithic artifacts weighing 167.7 grams were recovered through Operation 2 surface collections. Specifically, a projectile point (Figure 228), a projectile point fragment (Figure 229), and a primary flake are associated with Suboperation 2A, while two flakes are associated with the bluffs north of the quarry.

The quantity and weight of each category of lithic artifact is given in the following Table 140:

Table 140: Quantity and weight of Lithic artifacts from Operation 1 excavations and surface collections

Lithic category	Quantity	Weight
Primary flake	2	137.5
Projectile Point	1	12.7
Projectile Point fragment	1	5.1
Secondary flake	1	12.4
Totals	5	167.7

(Text continues on page 278.)



Figure 212. Two views of a blade tool from 1-A-3.

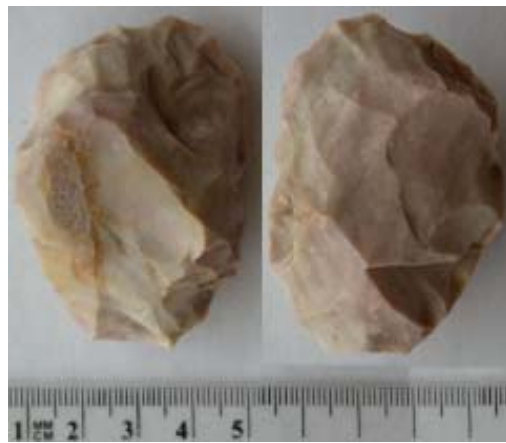


Figure 215. Two views of a biface from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 213. Two views of a Matamoros projectile point from 1AB surface collection.



Figure 216. Two views of two projectile point distal fragments from 1AB surface collection.

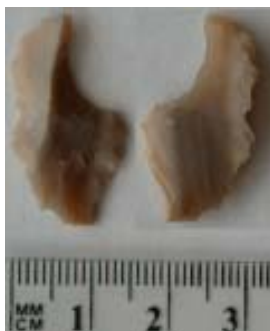


Figure 214. Two views of a utilized flake from 1AB surface collection.

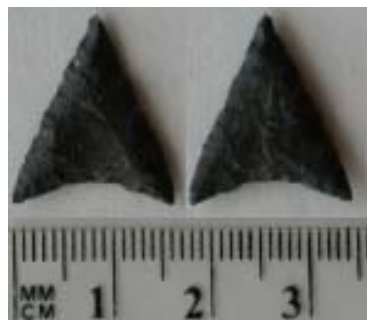


Figure 217. Two views of a Starr point from 1C surface collection.



Figure 218. Two views of a flake tool from 1C surface collection.

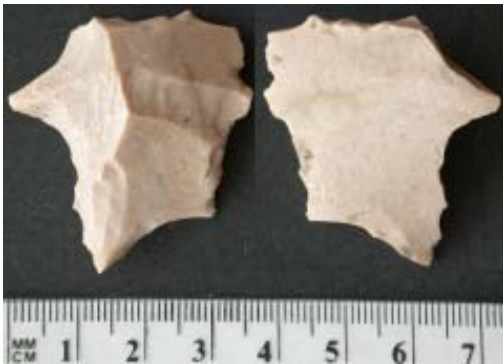


Figure 219. Two views of a flake tool from 1C surface collection.



Figure 220. Two views of an expedient tool from 1F surface collection.



Figure 221. Two views of an expedient tool from 1G surface collection.



Figure 223. Two views of projectile point preform from 1H surface collection.



Figure 222. Two views of a biface from the baseline near control point 8 (N 1325, E 1000).



Figure 224. Two views of a unifacial tool (left), a biface fragment, and a blade from the baseline near control point 8 (N 1300, E 1000).



Figure 225. Two views of a biface fragment from the baseline near control point 3 (N 1100, E 1000).



Figure 226. Two views of a projectile point distal fragment from the baseline near control point 3 (N 1100, E 1000).



Figure 228. Two views of a Matamoros projectile point from 2A surface collection.



Figure 227. Two views of a projectile point proximal fragment from the baseline near control point 8 (N 1325, E 1000).



Figure 229. Two views of a projectile point proximal fragment from 2A surface collection.

Vertebrate Faunal Remains

Operation 1

A total of 401 bone artifacts weighing 768.5 grams were recovered through Operation 1 excavations and associated surface collections (larger examples are in Figures 230 through 238). This total includes a human molar that appeared previously (Figure 59 on page 196). A total of 31 bone artifacts weighing 163.4 grams were recovered through Operation 2 excavations (two examples are in Figure 239).

Many of the 432 bone artifacts are small, not well-preserved fragments that do not lend themselves to easy identification. A few are larger, like those pictured on the following pages, and offer clues to the inhabitants' diet. Photographic documentation was accomplished in the field with the hopes of later identifying some of the species represented in the collection. However, the difficulty in analyzing bones solely from photos allows only rudimentary identification.

Based on census data from 1817, we know that at Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, the likely precursor to Rancho El Saladito, a variety of animals were raised including sheep, goats, horses, cattle, and mules. These species are likely represented in this collection. Hopefully, future funding will allow a more thorough analysis of the faunal bone collection from Rancho El Saladito.

(Text continues on page 283.)



Figure 230. Two views of a bone fragment from 1-A-1.



Figure 231. Four views of a tooth fragment from 1-G-1.



Figure 232. Two views of a bone fragment from 1-C-5.



Figure 234. Two views of a bone fragment from 1-G-1.



Figure 233. Two views of bone fragments from 1-G-4.



Figure 235. Two views of bone and tooth fragments from I-G-2.



Figure 236. Two views of tooth fragments from 1-G-4.



Figure 238. Two views of bone and tooth fragments from 1-H-1.



Figure 237. Two views of bone fragments from 1-H-2.



Figure 239. Two views of bone fragments from 2-C-2.

Shell

A total of 361 land snails (*Rabdotus*) weighing 365.5 grams and 162 aquatic shell fragments weighing 166.2 grams were recorded for Operation 1 excavations. An additional 16 aquatic shell fragments weighing 125.3 grams were recovered from associated surface collections, including the utilized half shell in Figure 55 on page 177.

On the other side of the arroyo, no shell artifacts were recovered in either excavations or surface collections of Operation 2.

The land snails were not archived, but their quantities and weight was recorded for future reference and/or analysis. Most of the aquatic shell fragments were small, weighing one gram or less. Ethnographic data suggest that aquatic shell was used along with fossilized oyster shell to produce *cal*, or lime, used for plastering and cooking (Berta Hinojosa de Guerra, personal communication 2002; Graham 1988).

It is likely that both prehistoric and colonial inhabitants of the area made use of the local shellfish food resources and recycled the shell itself, either through direct use or by processing it into *cal*. Although lime production is associated with other Mesoamerican cultures, such as the Maya and Aztec, it is not a documented practice among the hunting and gathering Coahuiltecan groups that occupied the lower Rio Grande valley during prehistoric times.

Metal

Thirty-eight metal artifacts weighing 231.3 grams are recorded for the Operation 1 excavations and associated surface collections. Several of these artifacts are featured on previous pages, including a utensil handle (Figure 25 on page 142), two higas and a ruido (Figure 26 on page 144), chain links and/or hooks (Figure 54 on page 177), an embossed medallion (Figure 52 on page 176), a cross pendant (Figure 53 on page 176), a thimble (Figure 60 on page 199), a hinge (Figure 61 on page 201), a fragment of a scissor handle (Figure 62 on page 203) and a modified iron bar that may have been used as a quarrying chisel (Figure 72 on page 220).

The majority of metal artifacts comes from the surface collections associated with Operation 2 and the west side of Arroyo El Saladito. A total of 57 metal artifacts weighing over 2,145 grams were recovered from Suboperations 2A and 2C. Of these only seven artifacts weighing 121.5 grams were recovered in the excavations. Farrier's cut offs (Figures 242 and 255) indicate blacksmithing activities, while harness buckles (Figures 242, 250, and 258) and horseshoe fragments (Figure 71 on page 219 and Figure 253) bear witness to horse- and/or mule-raising activities. Two metal artifacts may be pieces of trunk hardware (Figures 241 and 246), while another is the trigger slot of a gun (Figure 245). Inside the stone house were a pair of shears for sheep wool (Figure 262).

In the yard around the stone house were numerous implements used for agriculture and other related activities. These iron tools are stored beneath various trees in the yard. Figures 263 through 287 illustrate these artifacts, which were only recorded and not collected.

(Text continues on page 290.)



Figure 240. Unidentified metal fragment with a scalloped edge from 1D surface collection.



Figure 241. An unidentified metal object from 1G surface collection, possibly a piece of trunk hardware.



Figure 242. A slotted disk, a farrier's cut off, a buckle and a square nail from 2A surface collection.



Figure 243. A square nail and chain links from 2A surface collection.

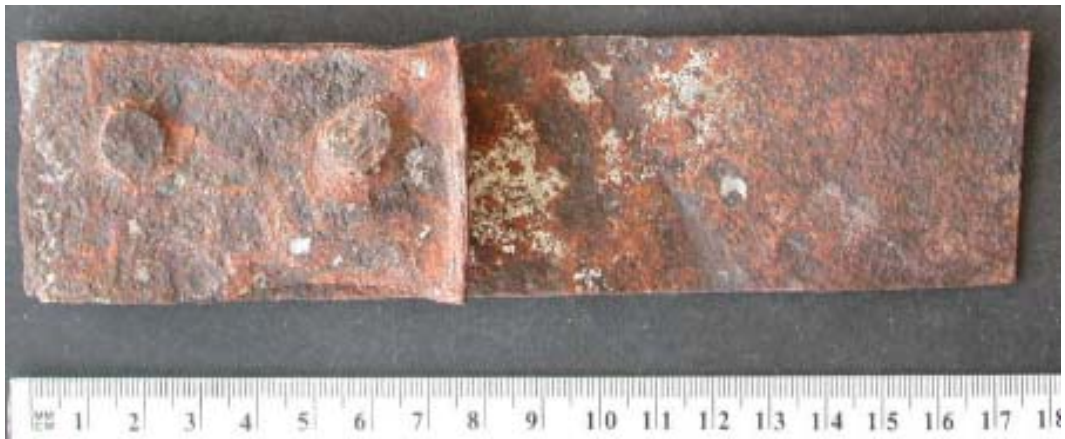


Figure 244. A metal strap with rivets from 2A surface collection.



Figure 245. Two views of a gun's trigger slot, a buckle with a pressed design and a section of barbed wire from 2A surface collection.



FIGURE 246. Both views of a lockplate, possibly from a trunk or other furniture, recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.



FIGURE 247. Both views of a lockplate, possibly from a door, recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.



FIGURE 248. An eye hook recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.



FIGURE 249. Metal strap or handle fragment with two rivets recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.



FIGURE 250. Two buckles recovered from the Suboperation 2C surface collection. Both views are shown of the buckle on the right, which resembles modern ones used for horse bridles.



FIGURE 251. A chain link from the Suboperation 2C surface collection.



FIGURE 252. Various sized square nails from the Suboperation 2C surface collection.



FIGURE 253. Horseshoe fragment from the Suboperation 2C surface collection

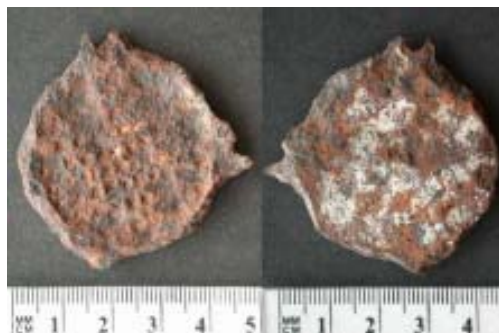


FIGURE 254. Two views of an iron disc, possibly used as a stamp, from the Suboperation 2C surface collection.



FIGURE 255. Three farrier's cut offs from the Suboperation 2C surface collection.



FIGURE 256. Metal strap with an eye recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C. Appears to have been used for prying.



FIGURE 257. Perforated iron strap fragment and rivet head recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.



Figure 258. A buckle from 2C surface collection.



Figure 259. Metal fragments from 2-C-1.



Figure 260. Fragment of a cultivating hoe from 2C surface collection.



Figure 261. Worn out latch from 2C surface collection.

Metal objects observed but not collected

The following photographs (Figures 262 through 287) features implements that were stored in the stone house or under the trees in the yard around the house. These metal artifacts attest to the wide range of agricultural and animal husbandry activities that took place during the late nineteenth and first half of the twentieth century at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 262. Sheep shears and a bell stored inside the stone house.

(Text continues on page 297.)



Figure 263. First double harness for draught animals from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 264. Second double harness for draught animals from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 265. Detail of hook from first double harness.



Figure 266. Detail of hook from second double harness.



Figure 267. Spare or broken parts for a harness or plow.



Figure 268. Single harness for a draught animal from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 269. Detail of repair to single harness.



Figure 270. Detail of one hook of single harness.



Figure 271. Detail of second hook of single harness.



Figure 272. Metal handle from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 274. Horse-drawn planter from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 273. Two views of an unidentified metal frame from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 275. Two views of a mechanized planter from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 276. Two views of one of six horse- or mule-drawn plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 277. The second of six horse- or mule-drawn plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 278. The third of six horse- or mule-drawn plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 279. The fourth of six horse- or mule-drawn plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 280. The fifth of six horse- or mule-drawn plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 281. The sixth horse- or mule-drawn plow from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 282. Various spare plows from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 283. Unidentified metal and wood tool from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 284. Unidentified metal object from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 285. Unidentified metal object from Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 286. Two views of a metal scoop used for excavating at Rancho El Saladito.



Figure 287. Cart or wagon wheel at Rancho El Saladito.

Glass

A total of 44 glass shards weighing 233.8 grams were recorded for Operation 1 excavations and associated surface collections. Of these only six shards weighing 6.3 grams came from the excavations. Photographs of three glass artifacts from this collection are on previous pages, including a green glass bottle stopper from 1-C-1 (Figure 56 on page 178) and two olive glass fragments (Figure 58 on page 185) from the surface collection associated with Suboperation 1C. Other examples of glass artifacts are shown in Figures 288 through 290. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Tables 141 and 142:

Table 141: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from Operation 1 Excavations

Glass Color	qty	wt (g)
Olive	1	3.1
Light green	2	1.5
Dark green	1	0.6
Brown	1	0.6
Green bottle stopper	1	0.5
Total	6	6.3

Table 142: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from Operation 1 Surface Collections

Glass Color	qty	wt (g)
Olive	24	176.1
Aqua	6	28.0
Purple (magnesium)	6	15.3
White opaque	1	7.8
White button	1	0.3
Total	6	227.5

On the other side of Arroyo El Saladito, a total of 70 glass sherds weighing 376.6 grams were recorded for Operation 2 excavations and associated surface collections. Of the 42 shards from the Operation 2 excavations, 39 of them are from a clear rectangular bottle with a corrugated texture and a metal cap.

Examples of glass artifacts from Operation 2 are shown in Figures 291

through 298. The quantity and weight totals for each category are given in the following Tables 143 and 144:

Table 143: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from Operation 2 Excavations

Glass Color	qty	wt (g)
Clear	39	96.1
Light green	1	4.1
Brown	1	1.5
Purple (magnesium)	1	1.2
Total	42	102.9

Table 144: Quantity and weight of Glass artifacts from Operation 2 Surface Collections

Glass Color	qty	wt (g)
Olive	4	57.1
Blue	2	27.1
Purple (magnesium)	11	86.2
White opaque	6	48.4
Clear	3	35.0
Light blue	1	15.7
Total	27	269.5

(Text continues on page 301.)



Figure 288. Purple (magnesium) shards from 1C surface.



Figure 289. Olive glass shard with raised letters from 1E surface.



Figure 292. Clear, purple (magnesium), and opaque white shards from 2A surface collection.



Figure 290. Two views of an Olive glass bottleneck fragment from 1H surface collection.

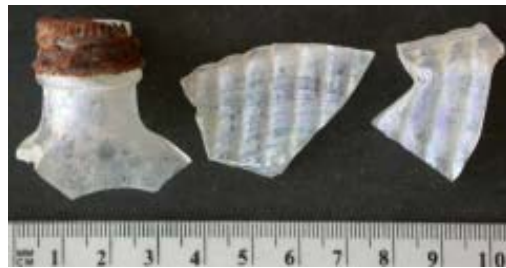


Figure 293. Fragments of a panel bottle with a corrugated texture from 2-A-6 surface collection.



Figure 291. Blue and aqua shards from 2C surface collection.



Figure 294. Purple (magnesium) shards from 2C surface collection.



Figure 295. White opaque shard with a scalloped pattern from 2C surface collection.

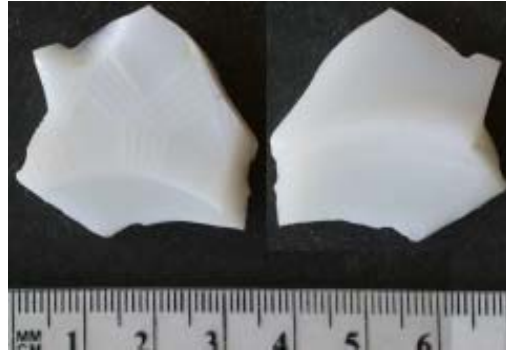


Figure 297. Two views of a white opaque shard with a linear pattern from 2C surface collection.



FIGURE 296. Olive glass bottle basal fragment and an aqua bottleneck fragment recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.

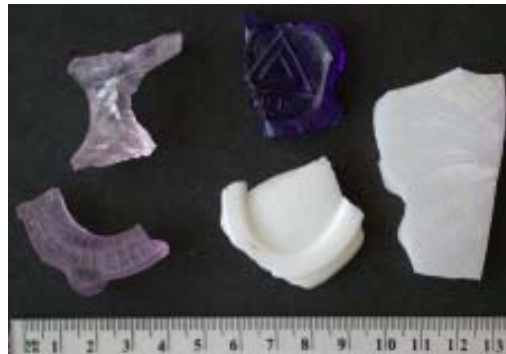


FIGURE 298. Purple, blue, and white opaque glass shards recovered from the surface outside the fenced yard and associated with Operation 2, Suboperation C.

Interpretations and Conclusions

A wide variety of activities are represented in the archaeological record at Rancho El Saladito. The ceramic artifacts provide testament to the extensive trade relationships that stretched at first to Spain through central and coastal Mexico and later to England through Matamoros. The prevalence of early Majolica types (Huejotzingo Blue on White, Puebla Blue on White, and San Elizario Polychrome) in the northeastern corner of the study area (Operation 1, Suboperations A and B) to the exclusion of English whitewares, indicates that this was the earliest area of occupation, dating from the 1750s. Alternatively, English whitewares and later Majolica types (San Diego, Monterey, and Guanajuato polychromes) are the predominate types in Operation 1, Suboperation C, which is located about 150 meters to the southwest of Suboperations A and B.

Thus, at Rancho El Saladito there are at least two temporally distinct occupations on the east side of the arroyo. Based on the ethnohistorical record, Suboperations A and B may represent the first settlement at what was then known as El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas. This location would have been strategically close to the Río Grande for access to fresh water. As the extended family grew through births and marriages, more jacales were built to the south and southwest along the peninsula that is formed by the intersection of the Arroyo El Saladito and the Río Grande until the settlement area reached an approximate size of 20,000 m². This project did not survey the entire limits of the original porción, so it is not possible to state with certainty as to how the inhabitants managed their herds or where they raised crops. The animal herds may have been kept close to

the human occupation at first, but as the population of both grew, alternate strategies would have likely developed. Their smaller, tamer herds of mixed animals might have been successfully tended by herders on foot, but larger and perhaps feral herds of cattle would have required the use of horse-mounted vaqueros.

The northern frontier of New Spain is generally thought to have been an isolated place where vast lands were occupied by relatively few people. Therefore it is not surprising that despite access to extensive trade networks, evidence of the colonists' self-sufficiency is also found in the archaeological record. For example, a large portion of the ceramic collection is locally-made utilitarian wares that appear to be used consistently throughout the occupation. The scissor handle and the thimble from Operation 1 support ethnographic evidence that women made most, if not all, of the family's clothes and blankets. While cloth may have been purchased for clothing, sheep's wool was used to make quilts and bedding. The size of the thimble suggests it was used by either a petite adult, or possibly by a child.

Other metal objects from Operation 1, like the engraved utensil handle and the higas or ruidos suggest locally-made products. The token with the name "Baring Lxon" embossed on it may represent a form of local currency. The farrier's cast-offs from Operation 2 are by-products of blacksmithing, while horse or mule raising is indicated by the number of buckles and shoe fragments recovered. Also at Operation 2 the numerous well-worn iron implements reveal the extent of the twentieth-century agricultural efforts.

While most artifacts have a utilitarian purpose, some objects, like the glass bottle stopper and olive glass fragments from bottles that probably contained wine

represents both access to trade relationships and possession of a disposable income. Other objects like the cross pendant or milagro tell us something about the owner's spiritual beliefs.

Chapter 8: Summary

There are some very tangible threads that run through Mier's history and into today's reality. One is that settlement has been located at this easy ford of the Río Alamo, (which was along the salt trail and three fords of the Río Grande), since at least 1734, when it was known as El Paso del Cántero. The ford has been and remains a passageway. The indigenous people of the area were known for trading salt and for using the trail across the Río Alamo. The Nuevo Santander colonists learned from the indigenous groups and sent traders to exploit the deposit with mule-driven carts. Illicit trade with Louisiana began early in the history of Mier and surrounding communities as their distance to Central Mexico prevented enforcement of the *casta* restriction of international trade to *peninsulares*. The North American Free Trade Agreement of 1995 opened the U.S. border for trade with Mexico in an unprecedented way, however, illegal smuggling continues.

This dissertation presents archaeological excavations and historical analyses of ranches and towns associated with the Lower Río Grande Valley to better understand the nature and articulation of the ranch and town settlements, the types of household production and livestock raising that sustained them, their trade relationships as reflected in their material culture, and the complex issues of ethnic and social identity construction along a contested border through time. My primary goal has been to shed new light on a process of colonization and adaptation to a border context that went on a century before the more-studied Anglo-American colonization of the region.

This dissertation places Mier in a broader context by revealing the material culture that illuminates the colonists' daily practices. The context needed to interpret these activities is achieved by incorporating evidence from archival documents, oral

histories, and genealogical data. In this manner, archaeology can help access identity construction along the border and examine how these identities were manipulated and evolve through time. A consideration of the colonists' mining community origins and a cultural summary of the indigenous groups they likely encountered when they arrived at the Río Grande also contribute to building a broader context within which to interpret the artifacts. The material culture from Rancho El Saladito is then compared, for contextual reasons, to that of previous archaeological investigations in the area.

Town and Rancho Settlements

Between 1748 and 1755, the civilian colonists of Nuevo Santander established 23 communities, including six along the banks of the Río Grande. This dissertation focuses on one of these, Mier Tamaulipas, and the pobladores who received porciones and established livestock ranches on both banks of the Río Grande. These colonists and their descendents, like the indigenous populations before them, literally lived *con un pie en cada lado*, with a foot on each side of river. These ranches were some the first of their kind in Texas and represent a unique and enduring form of civilian colonization based on the relocation of entire families, and without major emphases on missions and presidios.

The excavations at Rancho El Saladito reveal a mid-eighteenth century settlement on the east side of the arroyo that grew and spread along the landscape until at least 1824 and perhaps until 1928. The archeological investigations also reveal a twentieth-century settlement on the opposite side of the arroyo where draught animals were relied on for agriculture, a wide variety of livestock was raised, cloth was woven from wool, and iron working was practiced. The rancho inhabitants were largely self-sufficient; however, they also relied on trade relationships to supply them with the things

they could not produce, like sugar, coffee, wine, and tin-glazed (and later whiteware) ceramic vessels.

Historical sources and oral history offer conflicting information about the exact nature of settlement in Nuevo Santander. Where did the population concentrate? Were they located within the boundaries of the town central as mandated by official decree? Or on rancho settlements as demanded the necessities of their livestock? Class or wealth also plays a role in the rural vs. urban settlement pattern of Spanish colonial society. The more affluent families were able to hire workers to run the rancho, while the family resided in town with the advantages of increased security and more social activities like school and church (Gonzalez 1998).

Requirements for land tenure included the provisions that settlers must reside on the land, protect it from Indian attack, and construct homes (preferably of stone). Individual porciones were not assigned in Mier or elsewhere in the colony until 1767, some fourteen years after the initial colonists arrived, however, we know from the historical record that nineteen families already lived on one or more ranchos in the vicinity of Mier in 1749 and probably as early as 1734. These people would already have established ranchos by the time that settlement at Mier was made official in 1753. Furthermore, settlers who arrived in 1753 with livestock would have immediately required sufficient pastures.

Archaeology is uniquely positioned to answer these questions about the nature of early colonial settlement. Excavations at a wide-range of ranchos, a comprehensive rural regional settlement survey, an assessment of the construction dates of extant historical structures in central Mier, and further research of archival material, are all viable approaches to these research questions.

Although the scope of this dissertation is not on such a regional level, archival information encountered during this course of research documents the prevalence of jacales versus stone structures among the rancho settlement of Mier after 1765 (Chapter 1, Table 3). The jacal type of house form does not fit into a framework developed for the rancho settlements known from Zapata County, Texas. It is postulated here that stone buildings were built by wealthier people, those with a convenient quarry, or those settlers who were at a relatively higher risk of attack by Indian groups and who thus required a fireproof type of housing. Jacales might have only been used as a temporary shelter for members of the upper class during the construction of a stone house, but for most of the population they were permanent residences and represent a construction style that endures to the present. The remains of jacales are difficult, if not impossible, to locate archaeologically, but their importance to the survival of the Nuevo Santander pobladores should not be forgotten. On the 38 ranches listed in Table 3, jacales outnumber stone structures by a ratio of 37 to 1. There were 296 jacales and only 8 stone houses.

Household Organization and Production

The morphology and functions of Spanish colonial rancho settlements are made evident when the analysis is focused at the household level. This type of analysis also helps to concentrate on the daily lives and activities of ordinary people. For this dissertation, individuals and their relationships to the household are considered through a multi-scalar approach that combines genealogical and archival data to reconstruct the individuals and their livestock that populated these ranchos. Such information is crucial to developing excavation strategies and interpreting the material culture of the ranchos.

From this dissertation emerges a refined definition for households in a ranching community. This definition is based on the examination of census data from about 1817 for people and livestock at three ranchos: El Rancho San Pedro de las Flores, El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, and El Rancho Santo Tomas de Sabinitas. Genealogies for each rancho family were created using baptism, marriage, and death records from Mier, Camargo, and Cerralvo. These genealogies were then used to analyze the census data and to determine how each resident of the rancho was related to one another.

Rancho households are comprised of members of an extended kin network residing in multiple structures arranged strategically along the landscape. Their land would have belonged jointly to the kin network or lineage, while each unit of the network would have exerted control over their respective livestock and pastures. The overall economic strategy would have favored the rancho as a whole above individual kin units. Thus, Nuevo Santander ranchos were characterized by a high degree of mutual cooperation and organization based primarily on kin relationships, although there was room for fictive kin and laborers on the ranchos.

The census data from about 1817 for Mier ranchos reveal a settlement pattern of multiple, closely related households residing together on one rancho. Livestock is concentrated in the hands of a few male members, although not always in the eldest males of the lineage. Male in-laws will often bring significant livestock holdings to the rancho. Distinct animal husbandry strategies are evident in the census, with some ranchers choosing to raise more sheep and goats than cattle or horses. Others raise cows and horses to the exclusion of sheep and goats. An extensive settlement survey is necessary to determine if households with larger herds or different kinds of livestock

might live further apart from each other depending on pasture requirements. It may be that for mutual protection the rancho community erected their dwellings in close proximity and managed their herds in other ways, perhaps by using mobile teams of horse-mounted vaqueros who worked great distances from their primary dwellings.

In Chapter 6 an in-depth study of San Lorenzo de las Minas, the likely precursor to Rancho El Saladito, reveals a steady rate of growth over a span of 35 years, based on archival and genealogical research. The rancho population increased from 15 people in two families in 1782 to 63 people in 11 families by 1817. Marriages and the subsequent incorporation of in-laws' property to the rancho contributed greatly to its economic success. The distribution of livestock indicates apparent specialization by certain families in breeding or training certain animals to the exclusion of others. Such specialization would have influenced the spatial arrangement of settlements across the landscape. This information, taken in consideration with the ethnohistorical data, influenced the placement of the excavations as much as did the location of artifacts on the surface.

Trade Relationships of Nuevo Santander Colonists

Earliest trade relationships for procuring ceramics were with Puebla and later Guanajuato, both in Central Mexico. The failure of early irrigation projects forced the Nuevo Santander communities along the Rio Grande to trade hides, tallow, and wool with the haciendas and mining communities of Nuevo Leon for corn, beans, and other staples. The consumption of wine is suggested by the presence of olive glass shards. Early trade in livestock that could be driven in herds also developed with Nacogdoches and Louisiana. Matamoros opens its port to international trade after 1824 and through

this conduit the Rio Grande communities receive Englishware ceramics and other merchandise.

Thus, although they were isolated on the frontier, these pobladores were also connected by elaborate trade relationships that they manipulated for their survival. They adapted to life on the border by being both flexible and conservative. They learned about the land and its resources from the indigenous groups they encountered and/or incorporated into Nuevo Santander society. They adapted the animal husbandry methods passed to them by their Spanish ancestors and became very successful along the Rio Grande, an area that proved particularly well-suited for open-range livestock raising. They were innovative and combined a version of the indigenous housing with wattle and daub and lime plaster and created the jacal, a frontier building that may not have been fireproof, but it remains an enduring architectural form in the region.

Ethnic and Social Identity Among Nuevo Santander Colonists

Census data examined in this dissertation were neither consistently recorded nor readily accessible. It comes from a variety of primary and secondary sources and suffers by being incomplete. However, it is possible to say something about the ethnicities by which the pobladores identified. Many colonists on the earliest census for Mier (1753) are listed as “españoles,” while a few are mestizo. Records analyzed by Maria Luisa Herrera Casasús (1998:59-60) show that of 388 baptisms between 1767-1789 in Mier, 113 or 29% were Afromestizos, while 224 or 58% were españoles. The Mier Census of 1788 reveals 402 individuals or 42% of the total populations were African or Afromestizos (Herrera Casasús 1998:70).

Clearly indigenous, African, and mestizo individuals were among the earliest settlers of Mier, despite the local contemporary historicized myths to the contrary. A

frontier such as the Rio Grande communities of Nuevo Santander likely provided members of casta groups an opportunity to move from a life as a wage laborer in a mine or hacienda to a life as a property owner and livestock raiser. The dangers of the frontier were offset by the opportunities for social advancement that it offered. On the frontier people could improve their social caste, at least on paper, by acting the part. Apparently, mestizos and mulattos who owned land and property, who dressed like españoles, spoke Spanish, and practiced Catholicism were either themselves regarded as Spanish in official records or their children became españoles when baptized.

Although census data from 1779 (Chapter 4, Table 8) reinforce the information about casta designations gleaned from the 1753 census, these data also raise some interesting questions when considered contextually. Specifically, I am referring to casta designations as registered in the 1788 Census for Mier (Chapter 3, Table 6), just nine years later. The figures do not lend themselves to easy comparison because some of the casta categories are lumped together, but apparently, within nine years Black and afro-mestizo categories grow from zero to 42% of the population. Clearly, this segment of Mier's population that was not apparently represented in earlier years of the colony, experiences a growth spurt during this time. The reasons for this remain unclear but may be related to the relocation of Nacogdoches and the shortage of land associated with San Antonio (Martha Menchaca, personal communication 2003). It is also significant that total population actually decreased by 15, thus, they must be replacing the earlier population. In other words, españoles, Indian, and indomestizos went from being 100% of the population to constituting only 58% of it in nine years.

The historical record is silent at this point until the next available census with casta information in 1853. By then Mier's population is recorded as 5,082 with no

Blacks or *afromestizos*. The questions remain: Where did the Black and *afromestizo* population come from, settle, and either go, or else, how were they integrated into the society? How are these changes in population reflected in the material record? These are all valid avenues of inquiry for historical archaeologists and involve issues that must be approached from more directions than just the archives.

Thus, we catch a glimpse of an emerging Black population on the frontier that is somehow integrated into the *mestizo* or *español* categories to the point of disappearing in about a century's time. The exact mechanism of this transformation remains unclear until census data including *casta* designations for 1788-1853 are located. However, some general conclusions can be drawn from the proliferation of *casta* categories during the eighteenth century. Intermarriage among people of different *casta* categories meant that terms had to be created to describe their children. Also during the eighteenth century, the practice of importing slaves from Africa or from slave traders in the Antilles into New Spain had just about been abandoned because the *mulatto* population offered a ready supply of cheap manual labor (Herrera Casasús 1998:5-6). "The division of *castas*, through *mestizaje*, or racial mixing, was erasing the visible barrier of skin color and somatic characteristics, therefore diminishing segregation somewhat" (Herrera Casasús 1998:5-6 (author's translation)).

Blacks likely intermarried with *españoles*, Indians, and *mestizos* to the point where in dress and appearance (skin color, hair texture, language, etc.) their descendants became classified as *mestizo* or *español*. The low population density of Nuevo Santander favored the rapid *mestizaje* of the population and opened the way for the resultant *mestizos* to ascend the social scale (Herrera Casasús 1998:46). After all, on the frontier privileges usually reserved for *peninsulares* or *criollos*, like owning

property, carrying a weapon, and riding a horse, became available to the pobladores in exchange for their population and defense of the frontier, regardless of their race or ethnic backgrounds. Gonzalo Aguirre Beltrán (1972:273) cites the text of an eighteenth-century ordinance, which found it necessary to explain that in the towns of Nuevo Santander the population was not all Indian. The ordinance noted lighter skin color as well as the manner of dress and the use of the Spanish language as factors that distinguished some Indians as *españoles* (León 1924:27 as cited in Aguirre Beltrán 1972:273).

Thus, if and when census data can be located in their primary form and racial designations can be extracted, how reliable will these designations be? The best way would be to locate several sets of census data that span the first century of the colony's existence and trace individuals whose racial designations change through time. Another avenue would be to examine not just census data, but the primary baptismal, death, and marriage records. The handwritten entries contain more information regarding caste than do the secondary versions reproduced from the Mormon library. If these records could be systematically gleaned for at least the 20-30 earliest families associated with Mier, then perhaps a better understanding of the complexities of ethnic and social identities would emerge. Undoubtedly, the ethnic identities of the colonists were constructed and manipulated by those who wore them. They functioned in different ways according to the social context. For the Nuevo Santander colonists, ethnic identification and affiliation would have been wielded like dynamic social forces, helping them negotiate their liminal space on the frontier.

Continuities and Variations Between Cerralvo and Mier

The most significant continuity between the two communities was that of the human population. Settlers from Cerralvo constituted two-thirds of Mier's initial population. People of color and those of mixed-race, above all, would have been attracted to the freedom and opportunities available in both communities, but more so in Mier because of the landgrants. As emphasized in the previous section, on the frontier people could, with relative ease, improve their social castes, at least on paper, by acting the part. The lack of comprehensive census data for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries makes it difficult to quantify the *casta* population, however, their presence must not be ignored.

Herein lies a dilemma that future research must consider: when scholars locate the necessary demographic information, how reliable can the racial designations be? I suspect census data for the frontier in general would reveal an exaggerated number of *españoles* and an undercount of people of color. We know that both localities were initially surrounded with significant indigenous populations that were eventually decimated by abuse and conflict or incorporated by acculturation into *español* society. We also know, at least in Mier, but likely in Cerralvo as well, that Blacks, *mulattos*, and *afromestizos* formed a substantial part of the population. What continue to elude us are the exact population figures or proportions and the processes of integration, acculturation, and/or assimilation.

Other important continuities apparent between the two communities include the agricultural and ranching traditions. The inhabitants of Cerralvo developed agriculture and ranching to support the mining industry, so that colonial settlers in Mier would likely have been familiar with, if not proficient at, both classes of activities. Therefore, they

would have been attracted by the availability of land and pasture in Mier. The cattle brought to Mier were probably descendents of the herd that Carvajal brought to Cerralvo in the 1580s along with a horse-mounted vaquero style of herd management.

Other continuities derive from the exploitation of stone resources. Material for construction of many of Mier's homes and buildings was quarried from a hill about 1.5 km from the plaza. The settlers' familiarity with the hills of Cerralvo, especially El Cerro del Topo, no doubt aided in their exploitation of the mineral resources around Mier.

The two most salient differences to consider in a discussion of the settlement patterns of Mier in relation to Cerralvo, are the vastly different landscapes and, as a consequence, the varied natural resources available to their inhabitants. As an industry dependent on accessible natural mineral resources, mining had an impact on Cerralvo's economy that has no corollary in Mier's history. Mier, on the other hand, was well-suited for large-scale ranching, which involved cattle, sheep, goats, horses, and mules. The riverine setting and the alluvial soils provided fertile agricultural lands in Mier, although the area was subject to seasonal flooding. The Río Grande also provided Mier a transportation route not available to inland Cerralvo.

Rancho El Saladito in the context of previous archaeological research in the area

The archaeological evidence produced by this research project at Rancho El Saladito must be considered in the context of previous research. In all of the examples of previous archaeological cited in this chapter, stone foundations or buildings were documented. However, at Rancho El Saladito in the area of earliest occupation (east of the Arroyo Saladito) no stone structures were located. On the west side of the arroyo is

a stone structure built in 1928 and the remains of an earlier outdoor horno, which according to oral history was associated with a jacal.

Evidence is presented in Chapter 6 that indicates the precursor of Rancho El Saladito was El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas, which was founded by the recipient of Mier Porción 6, Ramón Guerra. Although this ranch is not named in the survey of house types (Chapter 1, Table 3), it is likely that Los Guerras (with 11 jacales) describes the same ranch, considering its location between Las Flores (Mier Porción 7) and Sabinitas (Mier Porción 5). Los Guerras also is listed near La Ysla de los Hinojosas, which is across the Río Grande from Rancho El Saladito.

Given the low occurrence overall of stone buildings, it is not surprising that eighteenth- or nineteenth-century examples were not encountered at Rancho El Saladito. This is despite the existence of a convenient quarry, and the occurrence of stone buildings at 41ZP39, 41ZP43, Cabaseño, and Los Corralitos. One possible explanation is that sites on the north bank of the Río Grande were more prone to Indian attacks and thus needed the protection afforded by stone.

Ceramic artifacts at Rancho El Saladito, unlike architecture, are very similar to those from 41ZP39, 41ZP43, and Cabaseño. Majolica types are identical, as are Mier Plainwares forms. Later Englishwares also bear uncanny resemblances and may indicate either similar aesthetic tastes among consumers or the prevalence of certain decorative types in the marketplace.

Ceramics from mission contexts in other parts of Texas, although not summarized in this dissertation, can also be compared to the collection from Rancho El Saladito with informative conclusions. Ceramics from Texas mission contexts were studied in a type collection at the Center for Archeological Research at the University of

Texas at San Antonio. Basic differences between the two collections include the lack of French faience or Chinese porcelain in the Rancho El Saladito collection. Less expensive majolica types such as Huejotzingo Blue on White and Puebla Green on White are more common in the ranch context.

Thus, although it is helpful to study the broad context into which Rancho El Saladito fits, in the areas of architecture and ceramic artifacts El Saladito stands apart from its neighbors to the north on ranches and at missions, respectively. There are likely multiple reasons for these differences, not the least of which is the state of relations with the indigenous people that Mier colonists encountered. Again, a body of research on a more regional level would be necessary to address the reasons for some of these differences.

Indigenous populations likely encountered by Nuevo Santander colonists

The Nuevo Santander colonists did not enter an empty landscape, instead they encountered numerous Indian groups associated with Mier and surrounding communities. They were met by various indigenous groups who, although they may have shared certain cultural traits, also maintained their own unique identities. Undoubtedly, some members of these groups contributed their labor, knowledge, and skills to help the colony succeed. These contributions are evident today in architecture and in the nutritional and medicinal use of native plants.

Our information about Indian groups comes from colonial government and mission reports and is biased according to the goals of the observers. Clearly a number of various indigenous groups populated the frontier along the Río Grande at the time of the arrival of the pobladores and continued to co-exist at least through the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Large numbers of indigenous people undoubtedly died from

disease or physical violence with the colonists. However, through the social mechanisms of marriage, adoption, and religious conversion at least some indigenous people were incorporated or assimilated themselves into colonial society. They also contributed their knowledge, physical labor and creative energies on the ranches and toward the construction of Mier's church on the main plaza. Certain carved elements such as the floral motifs in the stone around the church's entrance suggest an artist of indigenous descent (Arq. Carlos Rugerio, personal communication 1998). Although specific contributions by indigenous individuals may be difficult to pinpoint because of a lack of documentation, Chapter 2 demonstrates that even though some questions about the indigenous population cannot be answered, it is still informative to pose the questions and glean as much as possible from the available information.

Recommendations for Future Investigations

The Operation 1 excavations identify several areas that would be suitable for future investigations, including Suboperations A and B, G, and H. These recommendations are based both on the artifact density and the types of artifacts encountered in each suboperation. A survey of a different type is needed to explore the area around the spring to determine the extent of prehistoric occupation of the area by indigenous groups. The same could be said for other areas of Rancho El Saladito that are too heavily overgrown to permit intensive archaeological survey. The area along the baseline may be heavily eroded, but it is possible that some intact prehistoric sites remain, given the lithic artifact density and range of forms.

On a different scale, it is vital to encourage future scholarship in this region by creating a multidisciplinary forum or network for researchers to facilitate communication among the varying approaches. It could be as simple as an annual conference or

thematic presentations at one of the existing conferences, but it would serve to encourage interest in the region and to build a network of scholars in varying disciplines and make possible the requisite multidisciplined approach.

Interpretations and Conclusions

A wide variety of activities are represented in the archaeological record at Rancho El Saladito. The ceramic artifacts provide testament to the extensive trade relationships that stretched at first to Spain through central and coastal Mexico and later to England through Matamoros. The prevalence of early Majolica types (Huejotzingo Blue on White, Puebla Blue on White, and San Elizario Polychrome) in the northeastern corner of the study area (Operation 1, Suboperations A and B) to the exclusion of English whitewares, indicates that this was the earliest area of occupation, dating from the 1750s. Alternatively, English whitewares and later Majolica types (San Diego, Monterey, and Guanajuato polychromes) are the predominate types in Operation 1, Suboperation C, which is located about 150 meters to the southwest of Suboperations A and B.

Thus, at Rancho El Saladito there are at least two temporally distinct occupations on the east side of the arroyo. Based on the ethnohistorical record, Suboperations A and B may represent the first settlement at what was then known as El Rancho San Lorenzo de las Minas. This location would have been strategically close to the Río Grande for access to fresh water. As the extended family grew through births and marriages, more jacales were built to the south and southwest along the peninsula that is formed by the intersection of the Arroyo El Saladito and the Río Grande until the settlement area reached an approximate size of 20,000 m². This project did not survey the entire limits of the original porción, so it is not possible to state with certainty as to

how the inhabitants managed their herds or where they raised crops. The animal herds may have been kept close to the human occupation at first, but as the population of both grew, alternate strategies would have likely developed. Herders on foot might have successfully tended their smaller, tamer herds of mixed animals, but larger and perhaps feral herds of cattle would have required the use of horse-mounted vaqueros.

The northern frontier of New Spain is generally thought to have been an isolated place where vast lands were occupied by relatively few people. Therefore it is not surprising that despite access to extensive trade networks, evidence of the colonists' self-sufficiency is also found in the archaeological record. For example, a large portion of the ceramic collection is locally-made utilitarian wares that appear to be used consistently throughout the occupation. The scissor handle and the thimble from Operation 1 support ethnographic evidence that women made most, if not all, of the family's clothes and blankets. While cloth may have been purchased for clothing, sheep's wool was used to make quilts and bedding. The size of the thimble suggests it was used by either a petite adult, or possibly by a child.

Other metal objects from Operation 1, like the engraved utensil handle and the higas or ruidos suggest locally-made products. The token with the name "Baring Lxon" embossed on it may represent a form of local currency. The farrier's cast-offs from Operation 2 are by-products of blacksmithing, while horse or mule raising is indicated by the number of buckles and shoe fragments recovered. Also at Operation 2 the numerous well-worn iron implements reveal the extent of the twentieth-century agricultural efforts.

While most artifacts have a utilitarian purpose, some objects like the glass bottle stopper and olive glass fragments from bottles that probably contained wine represents

both access to trade relationships and possession of a disposable income. Other objects like the cross pendant or milagro tell us something about the owner's spiritual beliefs.

Excavations at Rancho El Saladito performed for this dissertation, reveal only a sample of what potentially can be learned about Spanish colonial ranching settlements. With more resources to clear the area investigated as Operation 1 of vegetation, it would likely be possible to define individual housing units, activity areas, and distinct features. The archaeological deposits are neither deep nor well-stratified, considering the consistent mixing of pre-historic with historic artifacts, thus large-scale horizontal excavations may be the key to future investigations. At the very least, this dissertation demonstrates that an ethnohistorical approach, using archival, genealogical, and oral histories to supplement the archaeological record is an effective methodology and useful for future investigations.

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- 1998, 2002 Arq. Carlos Rugerio
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