9,000 Years of Human Occupation at Lackland Air Force Base

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Cover illustration: An Apache woman digs for the roots of an agave.

Ken Brown,
Courtesy of the Southern Texas Archaeological Association
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Introduction

The more than 6,000 acres of rich lands now known as Lackland Air Force Base and the Medina Training Annex contain archaeological sites that tell the story of human occupation over the past 9,000 years. Few details about the life of Native Americas in this area were known before the extensive survey conducted by the Center for Archaeological Research (CAR) of The University of Texas at San Antonio. Until now, the southern half of Bexar County, including the Lackland area, had not been surveyed for archaeological sites as intensively as the northern parts of the county and adjoining areas of the Edwards Plateau. The Lackland survey presented an opportunity to help fill this gap and to discover evidence of nineteenth- and twentieth-century farming and stock raising carried out in the area.

The story of the people who lived in the area of Lackland AFB can be divided into two periods: Prehistoric and Historic. The Prehistoric period begins when the first humans entered the area some 12,000 years ago, and ends with the arrival of Europeans and written documents in the late 1600s. The Historic period refers to the time of written records when the San Antonio and Medina River valleys were settled by European colonists and subsequently became part of Spain, Mexico, the Republic of Texas, and finally the United States.

Archaeologists study the remains left behind by humans during their everyday lives. These remains consist of artifacts and features. Artifacts are objects made or modified by humans. Prehistoric artifacts include objects made of stone, bone, and shell. Historic artifacts include pieces of broken pottery, glass, and metal, as well as architectural fragments such as bricks, concrete, window glass, and nails. Knowledge of when such objects were made and utilized allows archaeologists to reconstruct the lives of the people who used these objects and estimate when they lived in the area.

An archaeological feature is an artifact which can't be removed intact from the ground. Features include hearths on prehistoric sites (Figure 1) and wells and foundations on historic sites. Archaeologists carefully study features to understand what people did at a site. Features often reveal the approximate date of occupation as well.
Archaeological projects are undertaken for various reasons. As objects of scientific research, archaeological sites are excavated to obtain information about the people who lived in an area at various times and why their lives changed through time. Careful archaeological excavations can provide information about the lives of prehistoric people about whom little or nothing is known. Excavations also collect information about past living conditions such as how climate has changed, and what plants and animals were eaten for food. Even when historic records are available, historic site archaeology can tell us details that were never written down about people’s lives.

A great deal of archaeology is done to satisfy requirements of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966, under which all federal agencies such as the Department of the Air Force must assume responsibility for preserving all the cultural resources on properties they own or control. This means Lackland AFB is required to identify and inventory all historic and prehistoric archaeological sites on its property. These sites are also evaluated to determine which archaeological sites are significant to history or prehistory. Significant sites are nominated to the National Register of Historic Places, and must be managed in a way that preserves their historic, archaeological, architectural, or cultural significance as much as possible.
Public archaeology, along with protection of properties of historic, architectural, engineering and cultural significance, is part of Cultural Resource Management. Cultural Resource Management grew out of federal and state laws that protect archaeological sites on publicly owned property. Cultural resources include both historic and prehistoric evidence for how people of the past lived in the area. The laws not only define the significance of archaeological sites, but also caution that it is against the law to collect artifacts or otherwise disturb archaeological sites on federal property, including Lackland AFB. When a construction project is located on federal property or financed with federal funds, archaeological investigations are required by federal law to determine the impact the project will have on cultural resources such as archaeological sites. As a result of this federal concern, all military bases have been required to inventory their cultural resources, and it is under this mandate that the survey of Lackland Air Force Base was conducted.

In addition to providing an inventory of all sites on the base, the survey also allowed archaeologists to assess the significance of each site. The “significance” of a site is determined according to a list of criteria in the National Historic Preservation Act. The National Historic Preservation Act created a National Register that lists all sites judged to be significant in American history, architecture, archaeology, and culture. Among other considerations, sites must be associated with important events, or the lives of important people, or represent artistic values, or have yielded or are likely to yield information important in history or prehistory. Not all sites of scientific interest to archaeologists meet the National Register criteria sufficiently to become listed on the Register. Those that are listed are intended to be protected from adverse impacts associated with federal projects. If an archaeological site will be unavoidably disturbed by the action of a public agency, such as expanding family housing on a military base, steps must be taken to limit the disturbance and recover as much scientific and historical information as possible before the site is damaged or destroyed.

The responsible agency must also give the National Advisory Council on Historic Preservation a reasonable opportunity to comment on the project. The advisory council is an independent federal agency whose 20 members include a chairman and three other members of the public appointed by the President. Other
information supplied by base employees, and oral history interviews with former
landowners and residents of the area. Written records at the base yielded valuable
information on the acquisition and early history of the base. The prehistoric use
of the area was determined by previous archaeological projects on nearby areas.
Published and unpublished information on past climates and environments was
also consulted.

Other information resources included the Texas Archeological Research
Laboratory at The University of Texas at Austin, the Texas A&M University Center
for Environmental Archaeology, documents housed at the Center for
Archaeological Research, Bexar County Deed Records, and annual issues of the
San Antonio City Directory. Consultations were made with archaeologists from
the National Park Service and members of the Southern Texas Archaeological
Association, a group of amateur archaeologists based in San Antonio, for their
intimate knowledge of the survey area.

Only a few previous archaeological and literature surveys existed for the base,
but these were collected and used a great deal. The historical research effort included
identifying and acquiring maps from the 1700s as well as a 1903 U.S. Geological
Survey map, a 1913 farmstead map giving family names for various plots, and a
1942 U.S. Army Corps of Engineers tactical topographic map showing standing
structures. An effort was also made to locate relevant archaeological studies of
historic ranch houses in the region. Details on protohistoric and historic Native
American, Spanish, Mexican, and Euro-American populations known to have
inhabited the area were gleaned from countless other books and records. A few of
these are listed in the Suggested Readings at the end of this pamphlet.

Site Assessment

Archaeological assessment is carried out in a series of phases. The first of
these is the survey, which consists of a carefully planned examination of the surface
of the area in question. Usually this is done by dividing the area into sections and
walking across each section in a patterned manner, usually in “transects” placed a
set distance apart. Archaeological crew members progress slowly, examining the
ground surface (Figure 3), and recording on maps any indication of human activity
such as projectile points, fragments of chipped stone, or pottery in the case of prehistoric sites; or fragments of glass, nails, ceramics, or architectural remains for historic sites.

During the survey of Lackland and the Medina Annex, as many as five two-member survey teams worked seven days a week depending on the weather and access to restricted parts of the base (Figure 4). Sometimes, when the parcel of land requiring survey was a narrow band or small and irregular in shape, a "sweep survey" was conducted. Crew members formed a line at the designated starting point and moved through the survey area in a line formation. CAR crew members refined this technique while surveying the base golf course. Beginning early in the morning (on a golfing day), sweeps started at the first green and moved numerically through the course, thus insuring the survey kept well ahead of golfers. Two of the project's most promising sites were located on the golf course using this technique.

After an initial survey has been completed and the locations of archaeological sites have been recorded, the next level of assessment is testing of the sites to evaluate their size, depth, and content in order to determine their importance. During the Lackland survey, hundreds of artifact-bearing locations were found. Revisiting these locations and thoroughly inspecting them as potential sites took place during this second round of fieldwork. Site-recording crews of three to six members included a crew chief or the project archaeologist (Figure 5). Once a potential site was relocated, all crew members intensively examined the ground surface, flagged artifacts, and noted any high density concentrations. If the project
way to avoid destruction of a significant archaeological site, it is necessary to conduct excavations. During this process, sufficient excavation is done to recover and preserve detailed information about the history and use of the site, whether historic or prehistoric (Figure 9). Determinations about how much excavation is necessary and what kinds of analysis should be done are made by the archaeologists on the staff of the lead federal agency involved, the State Historic Preservation Officer, and sometimes the National Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, in consultation with the project archaeologists.

Figure 8. An excavator carefully measures the depths and locations of artifacts found in a test pit to draw a sketch documenting what he has found.

Figure 9. Small objects such as seeds, beads, and chert flakes are found by screening the dirt excavated from test pits.
The Setting

The setting of an archaeological project is important for understanding the resources available to people. The plants, animals, and types of water sources all affect how an area was used, when, and by whom.

Lackland AFB and the Medina Annex, comprising 2,752 acres and 3,972 acres respectively, are located in southwestern Bexar County, Texas, on the southwest edge of San Antonio (Figure 10). Lackland’s modified subtropical climate is influenced by winds and rain coming west from the Gulf of Mexico across the hot, humid South Texas Plain, and by cooler, moister air descending from the Edwards Plateau to the north. The month with the coldest temperatures is January, with an average of 62°F, and the hottest month is August, averaging 94°F. Rainfall averages nearly 28 inches a year, but there is a great deal of variation from year to year. It snows lightly every three or four years.

Lackland lies on the northern periphery of the South Texas Plains, on a narrow strip of the Tallgrass or Blackland Prairie which has been invaded by brush in historic times. To the east is the Gulf Coastal Plain, and beyond that, about 140 miles away, is the Gulf of Mexico. Fifteen miles to the north of Lackland the plains give way to an abrupt rise—the Balcones Escarpment. The Balcones Escarpment is a geological fault zone that begins near Del Rio, runs through the center of Bexar County, and turns northeast toward Austin and Waco. It was created when bedrock, mostly limestone, was thrust upward millions of years ago in what is now Central Texas. This escarpment forms the edge of the uplifted Edwards Plateau. Plant communities on the Edwards Plateau, with elevations between 1,100 and 1,920 feet above mean sea level, are dominated by oak and juniper woodlands with scattered patches of grasslands. The rugged southern and eastern boundaries of the plateau are cut through by numerous creeks and rivers that form a distinctive hilly relief known widely as the Texas Hill Country. The headwaters of several creeks, including Leon and Medio, begin on the Edwards Plateau. Leon and Medio creeks pass through Lackland’s Main Base and the Medina Annex. Other creeks or intermittent streams on the base, such as Long Hollow, have much shorter courses and do not provide runoff from the plateau.
Figure 10. Lackland Air Force Base and its surroundings.
The Balcones Escarpment serves as a geographical division between the central Texas archaeological region to the north and the South Texas region to the south. The area is rich in natural diversity, with plants and animals characteristic of both regions, as we shall see.

**Plants and Animals**

The area around Lackland is an *ecotone*, a natural border between diverse ecological communities. The ecotone at Lackland has a rich combination of plant and animal species from three different natural regions: the Edwards Plateau on the north, the Texan Blackland Prairie on the east, and the South Texas Plains to the south. Lackland's location at the juncture of these three communities provides a great diversity in the plants and animals in the river bottoms and uplands. Even with the significant environmental changes experienced by the area over the past 12,000 years, the rich diversity of modern plants and animals in the Lackland area is remarkable. Today more than 200 native species of plants, not counting grasses, and a wide variety of fish, reptiles, and mammals thrive within the confines of the base. The Medina Annex contains large areas of undisturbed or minimally disturbed land with abundant water, food, and cover for wild animals.

Some of the more common mammals living in the area are javelinas, gray foxes, bobcats, coyotes, jackrabbits, cottontail rabbits, guano bats, striped skunks, cotton rats, raccoons, armadillos, opossums, fox squirrels, and white-tail deer (Table 1). Turtles, tortoises, and numerous snakes, particularly diamond-backed rattlers, several species of king snake, and the Texas patch-nosed snake are often seen. In addition, 95 species of birds have been identified. The most common fish is the bluegill, a species introduced from the eastern United States.

Much of the undisturbed or minimally disturbed upland areas are densely covered with yucca, pigweed, white prickly poppy, mesquite, huisache, catclaw, buckthorn, and prickly pear cactus (Figures 11 and 12). Along the creeks are live oak, hackberry, pecan, river walnut, greenbriar, poison ivy, white brush, and numerous other plants. Such diversity is characteristic of areas rich in water and fertile soils. Even though recent research suggests that juniper has been growing in the region for at least the last 10,000 years, overgrazing by livestock and restricted
Figure 11. Yucca plants were a food and fiber resource for ancient Texans.

Figure 12. Leafy prickly pear plants and their tunas provided a feast for the Indians after a long, cold winter.
range fires in modern times have allowed juniper (popularly called cedar) to increase its density.

The most characteristic trees include juniper, plateau live oak, Texas persimmon, and agarita. In the western part of the region, mesquite and live oak are the dominant tree species. The floral species just below the escarpment are the same as those on the Edwards Plateau, with the addition of numerous river bank species (Table 2). The most economically important of these are nut trees, including oak, walnut, and pecan. The diversity of plants and animals would have allowed humans to harvest a seasonal variety of plants and animals without having to travel great distances, although during droughts the prehistoric people who lived at Lackland certainly experienced hunger.

Two ecological settings dominate the Lackland landscape: uplands and creek zones. Black and gravelly clays cover the hills and some terraces along the creeks.
The dark, rich Houston Black clay tends to crack and shift with the ever-changing wet and hot, dry periods in South Texas. The shifting and cracking is a problem for archaeologists because artifacts sometimes drop into the cracks and are no longer where humans originally placed them. Other clayey loam soils lie in the modern floodplains and basins of Leon and Medio creeks and Long Hollow.
What's Under the Soil?

During the Upper Cretaceous period about 78 million years ago, limestones and marls began forming and now make up the bedrock underneath the soils in the Lackland area. During the Pliocene Epoch (2–5 million years ago) or perhaps early Pleistocene Epoch (1–2 million years ago), ancient streams deposited gravels on a landscape that is now totally eroded away. These gravels, which cover the hills on the Medina Annex, are known as the Uvalde Gravels. These gravels are an excellent material for making stone tools, and may have been a major attraction to the area. Extensive exposures of these chert gravels are common along the slopes of Long Hollow. Large and small quarry sites abound on Medina Annex, indicating that the gravel deposits were heavily exploited by prehistoric inhabitants. This means that prehistoric groups living in the Lackland area, with their own source of stone for tools, did not have to travel far to find chert.

Paleoenvironment

To understand past human behavior, we must know something of the environment in which prehistoric groups contended for resources. We have already seen something of Lackland’s present environment; however, the environment has not always been this way. “Paleoenvironment” is simply a term scientists use for “past environment.” Although many questions remain unanswered, paleoenvironmental studies so far give us some information on the changes that have occurred in the climate and vegetation over the past 12,000 years, the earliest period when humans are believed to have occupied the area. What we do know comes from our ability to reconstruct past environments using pollen and other plant materials, and animal bones trapped in old river and lake sediments.

Geologists have divided the period for which there is evidence of Native America occupation into two epochs: the Pleistocene and the Holocene. The Pleistocene is the period of ice ages and glaciers, and spans the period between approximately 2 million to 10,000 years ago. The Holocene, spanning the last 10,000 years, is the modern period that has witnessed the development of all major civilizations. Scientists study pollen found preserved in swampy bogs to find out
what the environment must have been like for certain plants to survive. Also animal bones are studied to determine what animals lived in the area during different periods as well as what prehistoric Native Americans ate over the past several thousand years. A small number of these animals are now extinct.

Based on the pollen samples, archaeologists believe that from about 12,000 to 10,000 years ago, Texas and northern Mexico were much wetter and cooler than today. The South Texas Plains was a mosaic of woodlands and scrub grasslands. Animal bones collected over the years from paleontological and archaeological sites in the region reveal the presence of mammoths, mastodons, and long-nosed peccaries. These species were extinct by 10,000 years ago. Late Pleistocene deposits also reveal the bones of still-living animals. However, some of these animals today are found only much further north, and others are found only further south or west. In the Late Pleistocene, the presence of these animals together suggests that the climate was much different with cooler summers and milder winters. With the melting and receding of the glaciers much further north by about 10,000 years ago, the climate began to shift to a modern pattern.

The absence of the bones of cool-weather animals and extinct animals in deposits that are younger than 10,000 years ago along South Texas streams indicates the beginning of a warming trend. Based on pollen and animal bones, it appears that the climate became more moist and warm beginning about 10,000 years ago. Then after 8,000 it appears that the climate was starting to be drier and perhaps even warmer.

Beginning after 8,000 years ago, the oak-juniper woodlands of central Texas were slowly replaced by spreading grasses and scrub brush, presumably because of increasingly warmer and drier conditions. On the South Texas Plains, grasslands began to dominate at the same time, also indicating a trend toward a warmer climate. The drier conditions became most extreme in Central Texas about 5,000 years ago. Eventually the semi-arid conditions familiar to us today prevailed, and the vegetation shifted back to plants that were adapted to these conditions, such as oak, mesquite, grasses, cactus, and yucca. As conditions varied between warm and dry, and cool and moist during these last 10,000 years, so did the coming and going of grazing animals such as bison. As the climate in Texas became warmer and drier, the “big game” became less plentiful. People living on the Edwards Plateau
and on the South Texas Plain began to explore new ways to adapt. In spite of the many changes in climate, the flexibility and mobility of this hunting and gathering way of life enabled the people of the two regions to adapt successfully without major alterations in their way of life for thousands of years.

Despite arid conditions, availability of water was seldom a serious problem because numerous rivers, creeks, and springs are found throughout the area. This variety of resources, including plants and animals from different environmental settings and the sources of cobbles for making stone tools, made this region rich from the viewpoint of its prehistoric inhabitants. More importantly, the variety provided “insurance” against the variations in season and climate. Problems associated with those variations could be lessened by simply moving a few miles to an area with more water, more food plants, or better hunting.

Most archaeologists believe that prehistoric hunters and gatherers consciously took advantage of nature’s variety. In the fall and spring, early Texans moved into the oak-juniper woodlands of the Hill Country, where deer, turkey, pecans, mesquite beans (Figure 13), and acorns were collected in the fall, and sotol and yucca were collected in the spring. Prickly pear fruit and small animals would be exploited during summer rounds on the plains to the south. The Lackland area is believed to have been an abundant prehistoric source for pecans, bison, antelope, fish, shellfish, and small mammals during the fall, winter, and spring.

Figure 13. Mesquite beans were a common food for South Texas Indians. (Drawing by Richard McReynolds, courtesy of the Southern Texas Archaeological Association.)
Much of our knowledge of early historic environments as well as prehistoric people’s seasonal land use patterns in the Lackland comes from the chronicles of Alvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca and later Spanish travelers. According to Cabeza de Vaca, during the several years he lived among the Native Americans in South Texas in the early 1500s, the fall and winter months were spent along the rivers, where pecans and wild roots were harvested and game was hunted. In the summer months, they left the rivers and moved around harvesting prickly pear tuna. During the year these people ranged a territory of perhaps 180 miles, from the lower Guadalupe River to south of Bexar County. Other reports tell us of a group of Native Americans visited by Spaniards during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. This group, the Payaya, were observed along the San Antonio and Medina rivers during the spring and summer months. One visitor reported an April encounter along the Medina River, where he noted that pecans were collected and stored in pits.

The Blackland Prairie south and east of the Balcones Escarpment was once dominated by tallgrass species such as little bluestem, big bluestem, Indian grass, tall dropseed, and silveus dropseed (Figure 14). The descriptions of plant life by
those early explorers suggest that mesquite and other thorny scrub were present only in scattered mottes or clusters, while the land immediately to the south of Lackland was open grasslands with little or no brush.

Later observers documented a change on the South Texas Plains from grasslands to a landscape dominated by thorny invader species such as mesquite, huisache, granjeno shrub (spiny hackberry) (Figure 15), brasil, whitebrush, lotebush (gumdrop tree), and cenizo. By 1900 the Lackland area was described as "dense brush or chaparral." Because no detectable changes in climate had occurred, this change in plant communities is thought to be caused by a combination of overgrazing by livestock introduced by European settlers, and human interference with natural range fires.

Other historic alterations to the landscape include clearing, plowing, stream rechanneling, and drilling deep wells. Along with overgrazing, these measures have undoubtedly caused lower water tables and altered the plant and animal communities. Many springs feeding the streams emanating from the Balcones Escarpment are now either dry or do not discharge sufficient flows to reach the Lackland area before evaporating or seeping into the sandy soils upstream from the base. Leon Creek briefly passes through the Main Base, while Medio Creek and Long Hollow drain Medina Annex. Although both Leon and Medio creeks are still flowing, they are now supplemented upstream by sewage treatment plants.
Who Were the Ancient People at Lackland and How Did They Live?

During the survey of Lackland and the Medina Annex, archaeologists located and documented 75 archaeological sites. In addition, they found 783 isolated stone artifacts scattered across the landscape and not associated with a site. These isolated finds had been discarded or accidentally dropped by prehistoric hunters and gatherers (Figure 16). The sites and isolated artifacts are not concentrated in any particular part of Lackland, but are spread across the entire landscape of low-lying terraces along the streams as well as on surrounding ridges, bluffs, and hills.

Prehistoric sites found at Lackland include campsites, large food-processing areas, and quarries for the rocks used to make stone tools. Stone tool making was important at many Lackland sites, especially on the Medina Annex. The quarry sites range from small scatters of chipped and flaked cobbles to large outcrops of chert cobbles covering several acres. Wherever the fine-grained and easily workable Uvalde Gravels have cropped out to any extent along the valley walls and

Figure 16. Typical artifacts found at a Lackland campsite (core, two biface, and a projectile point).
hilltop edges, humans have picked them up and knocked off a few flakes in order to select only the best-quality materials. Archaeologists have recorded hundreds of cores at the quarry sites and at many of the campsites. A core is a piece of chert that began as a cobble or nodule from which flakes have been removed by chipping (Figure 17). A stone tool may be made either from the flake or the core, depending on the flint knapper’s purpose. After several flakes have been removed from both sides of a core with blows from a hard rock called a hammerstone, the result is a

Figure 17. A stone tool manufacturing sequence from core to finished tool. (From Turner and Hester 1993:20–21.)
form that archaeologists call a *quarry blank*. This quarry blank is taken back to camp or traded away to other Indian groups, and the *reduction sequence* continues with smaller flakes being removed, resulting in a *preform*. The final stage of reduction, in which the dart point, knife, or other tool is finished, is executed by applying controlled pressure, often with a deer antler, to a small area on the tool’s edge.

Many campsites were recorded at Lackland and identified by the presence of fire-cracked rock, indicating at least an overnight stay and a fire for warmth or cooking. Archaeologists found one site with three campfire or hearth features. Although one hearth was visible above ground, two others were found eroding out of the side of a gully about a foot beneath the modern-day surface. Some campsites were located on high bluffs overlooking streams, with a distinct vantage point from which to observe bison or other game animals as they grazed on the grassy plains below (Figure 18).

Other campsites were found closer to water with easy access to a cool drink or a meal of fresh fish. Stone tools were commonly found on the Lackland camp-
sites. Many of the tools were most likely used for chopping and breaking animal bones to extract the protein-rich marrow. The sharp-edged choppers must have been versatile tools, used also like an axe for chopping branches and trees (Figure 19).

Scrapers are frequently found at campsites. Their sharpened edges would have been highly effective for scraping the fat from animal hides (Figure 20). Some of the knives found on the Medina Annex attest to the technical abilities of prehistoric hunters and gatherers to fashion cutting and slicing tools (Figure 21).

One interesting site was identified only by a few scattered chipped stone flakes lying on the surface. However, when archaeologists tested below the surface to determine how much of the site had been buried, they found large quantities of fire-cracked rock mixed with stone artifacts and burned animal bones. They believe these are the remains of a large, stone cooking oven, otherwise known as a burned rock “midden.” This is the only one of its size located on the base (Figure
Figure 21. Knives or bifaces were used to cut meat, fish, and plant foods.

Figure 22. A shovel test pit at one site revealed the sooty remains of a stone cooking oven that had been buried by mud from thousands of years of floods.
before present (B.P.), actually before 1950, when radiocarbon dating first became available to archaeologists. Radiocarbon dating measures the amount of radioactive carbon in charcoal, bone or other organic materials.

Although the dates assigned to these time periods are important, it's also important to understand how people were adjusting to their environment during those periods and to examine what tools they were using, what kinds of places they picked for their campsites, and what they hunted. Some of these factors changed from period to period. For example, when we speak of the Roaring 20s or the Gay Nineties, we know exactly the time we are talking about, but in reality we're talking about the way people lived during that time: what they ate, what they wore, and how they supported their families. Archaeologists try to consider time periods in prehistory in much the same way, although they are thinking in terms of centuries or millennia, not decades. Therefore, terms like “Paleoindian,” “Middle Archaic” or “Late Prehistoric” given in Figure 23 tell us something about how we think people lived during those times.

In this part of Texas, often the way that archaeologists assign a site to one of these periods is by differences in the projectile point forms or styles. Many projectile point styles can be used as time markers or diagnostic artifact styles because they are common and have been well dated in comparison with other point styles and in absolute terms through the use of radiocarbon dating. These time-marker artifacts are very important to archaeologists in making estimates about how old a prehistoric site is or how long it was used. Because dating by diagnostic projectile points is quick and inexpensive compared to using radiocarbon and other technical dating methods, it may often be the only technique used to date a particular site.

Archaeologists have spent several decades attempting to define and refine this cultural chronology. However, it is worth remembering that some groups of human beings are always ahead of the rest when it comes to making changes and adopting new ideas, while other groups are usually behind the times. Archaeologists are still debating what the real time boundaries of the culture periods were and what they tell about how people lived.
Figure 23. Archaeological timeline for south-central Texas.
Paleoindian Period (12,000–8800 B.P.)

Archaeological evidence tells us that the earliest people to occupy the Americas were big-game hunters who roamed over large areas in small bands, following herds of now-extinct bison, camels, horses, and mammoths. Sites across North America from the Paleoindian period are identified by the presence of distinctive Clovis and Folsom spear points (Figures 24 and 25). These points are lanceolate in shape and have central channels, called flutes, on both sides. These characteristics allowed them to be attached to the ends of sticks used in jabbing game animals to death at close range.

Figure 24. *A Clovis spear point from Texas, front and back. The dots show the extent of smoothing along the edges of the stem.* (Richard McReynolds, courtesy of La Tierra, Southern Texas Archaeological Association).

Figure 25. *A Folsom spear point from Hinds Cave in the Lower Pecos, as it may have been hafted.* (Richard McReynolds, courtesy of La Tierra, Southern Texas Archaeological Association).
This earliest period of occupation in south central Texas was a time of cool conditions when grasslands supported extensive herds of large animals. The earliest evidence of human occupation in the South Texas Plains around Lackland AFB shows the presence of the highly mobile big-game hunters. In South and Central Texas these peoples hunted and gathered wild plant foods and large animals (megafauna) between 12,000 and 8,800 years ago. Only a few sites with Clovis, Folsom, and Plainview artifacts have been discovered in the region. One site, Bonfire Shelter, in the Lower Pecos region to the west had Folsom and Plainview points found with large numbers of butchered and heavily burned bones of extinct bison. At Bonfire Shelter Paleoindian hunters drove herds of bison over the edge of a cliff and butchered them where they fell.

During the middle of the Paleoindian period, at the end of the Pleistocene Epoch, many of the megafauna became extinct, and Paleoindian groups began intensively exploiting plant foods and smaller animals including deer, rabbits, mice, and snakes. Also Paleoindian populations were slowly increasing and they were using smaller and smaller territories. By the end of the Paleoindian period, the climate had become much warmer and drier. Bison was the only remaining megafauna, and it was evolving from the larger Pleistocene species (Bison antiquus) to the smaller modern species (Bison bison).

Early Archaic Period (8800–6000 B.P.)

Between 8,800 and 6,000 years ago people were making a variety of different types of spear or dart points and tools characteristic of the time. During this period it appears people began relying even more on deer, smaller mammals, fish, and plants for food. They began constructing earth ovens lined with rocks in which they cooked various plant bulbs such as camas, an onion-like plant. Apparently, the bison all but disappeared from this part of Texas during the Early Archaic period, which certainly made a big difference in the way people lived. Many archaeologists think this happened because the climate was becoming significantly hotter and drier, causing a reduction in grasses available for grazing. Archaeologists believe that these groups were small and still moved seasonally to exploit various food and material resources. Evidence from other surrounding regions
suggest that human populations were concentrated along the Balcones Escarpment. This may be due to the predictable and reliable water resources along the escarpment.

The large lanceolate spear points characteristic of the Paleoindian period were no longer being made. Instead, the dart and *atlatl*, or spear thrower, had gradually come into use, allowing the use of smaller stone tips with well-made stems for the longer-range, harder-hitting projectiles.

No sites found at Lackland provide good evidence of the lifeways of Early Archaic peoples; the remains are scattered and rare. Seven sites on Lackland have isolated stone tools which probably date from the Early Archaic period, but these sites also have abundant evidence of use by later prehistoric peoples. Two of the Early Archaic tools found on the Main Base are Clear Fork and Guadalupe tools (Figure 26). Clear Fork tools were probably used as woodworking tools or perhaps hide scrapers. They were probably set in a wooden haft. This type of tool is sometimes found at Paleoindian sites in Texas and northeastern Mexico, but more frequently occurs at Early Archaic sites. Guadalupe tools were also used as scrapers or gouges, and although they are found in Texas from the Balcones Escarpment to the Rio Grande, they are concentrated in the Guadalupe and San Antonio river basins.

Figure 26. *Early Archaic artifacts.* a. Clear Fork tool; b. Guadalupe tool.
Middle Archaic Period (6000–4000 B.P.)

Archaeologists have recognized a distinct change in artifact style—and probably the way people lived—between 6,000 and 4,000 years, during the Middle Archaic period. Three kinds of Middle Archaic dart points were found on six sites at Lackland. They are called Pedernales, Langtry, and Tortugas points (Figure 27). Pedernales points are extremely common in central Texas and the Lower Pecos River area, but occur less frequently in South Texas, where the Tortugas type is more common. These suggest that Middle Archaic groups from Central Texas and South Texas used Lackland at various times. In Central Texas the use of large stone and earth ovens becomes very common during this period, and it is clear that Middle Archaic groups were intensively cooking foods for larger groups of people. It is unclear if these larger groups came together for only a short period of time (a week or two), or if people maintained larger groups throughout the year. Evidence does suggest that regional human populations were increasing. Supporting this evidence is the first use of cemeteries for burial.

Although bison returned to central Texas in the Middle Archaic period, it was only for a brief period. Bison again abandoned the area late in the period, probably because the climate was now getting drier and the grasslands were dying. The people switched back to eating smaller animals for meat and making larger earth ovens for roasting bulbs and other plants.

Figure 27. *Archaic dart points from Lackland.*  
a–b. Pedernales; c. Langtry; d. Tortugas.
Late Archaic Period (4000–1200 B.P.)

During this period, which archaeologists call the Late Archaic, reliance on deer, small animals, and plant foods continued. Except for occasional periods of increased rainfall, bison remained quite scarce. The number of sites increases and the Late Archaic witnessed an increase in the use of large cemeteries. It seems apparent that human populations increased, and that they were staying in restricted territories to the degree that established cemeteries were part of their death rituals. Analysis of grave goods indicates that the San Antonio area was linked to Central Texas populations and that a true social boundary occurred to the south thus dividing populations in far South Texas from those in northern South Texas.

Seven sites at Lackland date to the Late Archaic period. The projectile points found at sites that are characteristic of the last part of this period are called Castroville, Ellis, Marcos, and Lange (Figure 28). The climate was improving during this interval, and it appears that bison were slowly returning. Castroville dart points are found frequently at central Texas sites where bison have been killed and butchered. Marcos points are similar to the Castroville type in shape, and like Castroville, have been found primarily in central Texas and at bison kill sites.

The Lange point found at Lackland (Figure 28e) is typical of many that have been found in South Texas. In fact, Lange points were the type most commonly found with human burials in a large prehistoric cemetery in Live Oak County, southeast of the Lackland area. Ellis points (Figure 29c) are most commonly found in east Texas, but preference for this style of point may also have existed in the Lackland area.

The ground-stone pendant in Figure 30 has a hole drilled in it, through which a thong or twisted strand of fiber from a plant such as sotol or lechuguilla would have been threaded to make a necklace. Ground-stone necklace ornaments such as this one were probably used as early as 6,000 years ago and maybe as late as 350 years ago. This particular pendant was found on a hilltop site on Lackland that archaeologists believe was occupied about 2,300 years ago.

Archaeologists have noted an increase in the size of campsites during the Late Archaic period. Many of those campsites have artifacts of ritual or religious
Figure 28. Late and Transitional Archaic dart points from Lackland. a. Marcos; b–d. Matamoros (Transitional Archaic); e. Lange; f–h. Castrovile.
importance similar to those found further east, suggesting that ideas were being exchanged with other groups in North America. The larger campsites tell us that people apparently began coming together to live in somewhat larger groups. Some archaeologists believe they did this to share scarce resources, while others believe that increasing populations and encroaching warlike groups from the north naturally forced them to band together.
Transitional Archaic Interval

Some archaeologists have identified a period of change at the end or following the Late Archaic, and they have named it the "Transitional Archaic." Very little distinguishes this period from the Late Archaic-prehistoric Native American lifeways appear to have been similar. While many artifacts and sites are similar to those used during the Late Archaic period, some dart point styles are different, such as those found at several Lackland sites. These points are named Ensor, Frio, Fairland, Edgewood, and Matamoros. Frio dart points have been found throughout parts of central and South Texas and in the Lower Pecos River Region. The Ensor type seems to be related in style to the Frio type, and is found across the same vast areas of Texas. Fairland dart points are found primarily in central Texas. Edgewood dart points are most commonly found in East Texas but also occur in Central Texas and along the Gulf Coast. Matamoros projectile points are rarely found in the Lackland area, but are most common in far southern Texas and northeastern Mexico. The definition and use of this period should allow archaeologists in the future to look at change through time in more detail as better and more complete information becomes available. At this point we can see few behaviors in the archaeological record that make this period distinct from the Late Archaic.

Late Prehistoric Period (1200–350 B.P.)

The period between 1,200 and 350 years ago is called the Late Prehistoric. The people of this period apparently experienced dramatic changes due to the introduction of pottery and the bow and arrow. The latter replaced the atlatl as the weapon of choice. Along with the introduction of bow and arrow technology was a reduction in the size of projectile points.

Edwards, Scalorn, and Perdiz arrow points representing the Late Prehistoric period were found at six Lackland sites (Figure 31). Edwards points are among the largest of arrow points found in Texas. They are common along the southern margin of the Edwards Plateau and out on the coastal plain toward the Gulf of Mexico. Because of its size and early dates, archaeologists think Edwards may have been the earliest arrow point style adopted in Texas when the bow and arrow
technology was introduced into the area, although Scallorn points may be almost as old. Perdiz points were used extensively throughout Texas and eastern Louisiana between 1,000 and 700 years ago and are often associated with the use of pottery. Scallorn and Perdiz arrow points are sometimes referred to by collectors as “bird points” because of their smallness, probably on the assumption that they would be just the right size for shooting birds, and nothing else. However, in some central and South Texas sites, Perdiz points were used to kill bison, and Scallorn and Edwards arrow heads have been found with human burials, sometimes imbedded in the victims’ bones. These were lethal weapons.

Besides serving a vital functional role as cooking and storage vessels, clay pots became a form of art, with regional style differences that are now easily recognized by the many avocational and professional archaeologists who study them. During the Late Prehistoric, bison began returning to the area as the climate began to get a little wetter and cooler.

The Late Prehistoric period is divided into two shorter time intervals: Austin interval and Toyah interval. Edwards and Scallorn projectile points occur in the earlier Austin interval and Perdiz projectile points along with Leon Plain pottery were made during the Toyah interval. The lifeways of prehistoric Native Americans were distinctly different during these two periods.

During the Austin interval deer, small animals and plant foods were the most common foods exploited. Burned rock middens were still constructed and used. A number of sites have cemeteries and a number of individuals buried at these sites show evidence that they died violently. This appears to be a period of social
stress. In the Toyah interval bison are again hunted intensively although deer, small animals and plants were certainly used for foods. Evidence for violent death is lacking and very few human remains have been found at Toyah sites. Toyah sites are very widespread over Central Texas, South Texas and the Coastal Plains. Some archaeologist believe Toyah peoples replaced Austin peoples, while other archaeologists suggest that local Austin interval populations just adopted this new technology and hunting pattern.

At Lackland a pattern was discovered in the distribution of Late Prehistoric sites. A number of these sites occur on hilltops overlooking stream valleys. Today these are brush covered with poor visibility, but during the Late Prehistoric period these would have been covered with grasses with little brush cover and the valleys would have been lined with trees and flanked by grasslands. It appears that Late Prehistoric peoples used these vantage promontories to view the movement of game or perhaps people. They avoided camping near the streams as was so common by Middle and Late Archaic peoples.
The Historic Period at Lackland

Although historic archaeologists deal with more recent events and have the advantage of using written documents, maps, and sometimes pictures to augment their research, their challenge is to fill in the missing gaps, and to confirm the written word with what is found in the dirt. We think of the Historic period as beginning at the time Europeans first came into contact with the native Americans and wrote of their experiences, which is generally agreed to have occurred in this area about 350 years ago. Archaeologists studying the Historic period are interested in verifying and adding their findings to the written accounts of European revolutionaries, homesteaders, farmers, ranchers, and businessmen who came to Texas and settled the area now encompassed by Lackland AFB.

Historic Indians

At the beginning of the seventeenth century, many Indian groups not originally from South Texas had been pushed into the area by continual Spanish expansion northward from New Spain. In the mid-seventeenth century, a new pressure on the Indians native to the area, known as Coahuiltecos (Figure 32), began to come from the north: the Apache. The Apache were a nomadic Athapaskans group, originally from the north, who practiced limited agriculture but became classic Plains-style bison hunters once they moved into the Plains.

Figure 32. A Coahuilteco Indian of Southern Texas. (Frank A. Weir; reproduced from Campbell and Campbell, 1985.)
The earliest accounts from European intrusions into central and South Texas tell of large groups of Indians who had been displaced either by the Spanish from the south or the warring Apaches from the north. Later, the Apaches themselves were displaced by another group of nomadic bison-hunting Indians: the Comanches.

Adding to the misfortunes of the original inhabitants of the land, diseases brought by Europeans killed Native Americans by the thousands. Some archaeologists estimate the Indian population in Central Texas before this period of change may have been as high as 150,000. The combination of disease and death due to warfare, intergroup conflict, demoralization, and migrations fragmented the native Indian groups. While some groups such as the Comanche and Apache continued their aggression well into the nineteenth century, fear of these invaders pressured many other Indian groups to seek the protection of missions, saving them from the Apache and the Comanche but exposing them to the exploitation of the Spanish.

One such dislocated group, the Payaya, moved regularly between the Medina River and the general area of present-day San Antonio. In 1690, the missionary Father Damián Massanet reported encountering six Indian groups on the Medina River where it flows east near the present boundary between Medina and Bexar counties, just west of the location of Lackland AFB. Included in this list were the Tilpayai (Payaya), Cauya, Semomam, Saracum, Pulacum, and Anxau. Reports from expeditions passing through the area in the next two decades indicate that the Payaya were continually present. The 1691 expedition led by Domingo Terán de los Ríos, an early Spanish explorer and first governor of Spanish Texas, noted the presence of the Payaya on the San Antonio River, probably south of the later site of Mission San Juan Capistrano. In 1693 Captain Gregorio Salinas Verona reported three Payaya camps southwest of present-day San Antonio, beyond the Medina River, in what would now be southeastern Medina County. By the time of the founding of San Antonio in 1718, the Payaya had moved onto the coastal plain, possibly because of Apache pressure, and some of them entered Mission San Antonio de Valero (the Alamo) in that year. While many other groups were represented among the mission Indians, the Payaya appear to be the only ones who consistently camped in the San Antonio area before the arrival of the Spanish.
Until the early 1800s, Apaches were observed ranging the area between San Antonio and Laredo, pushed southward by the invading Comanches, who had moved into the Hill Country in the mid-seventeenth century. By this time, a few Apache were beginning to seek asylum in the missions (Figure 33). The few Comanches who entered the missions were apparently women and children who were captured during punitive raids by Spanish soldiers. In the autumn of 1785, a treaty with the Comanches signaled the beginning of a period of peaceful coexistence in which Comanche brought hides, meat, and tallow to San Antonio to trade for goods and services, such as blacksmithing and gun repair, that were not available elsewhere.

Figure 33. *An Apache woman uses a handy rock to hammer a digging stick into the root of a desert agave plant.* (Ken Brown, courtesy of the Southern Texas Archaeological Association.)

The Early Setting

The military and civil history of the Texas frontier begins with accounts of late-seventeenth century Spanish explorers who were more concerned with conquering a territory they hoped was filled with riches than with describing the environment of the lands they visited. Traveling in their relentless search for wealth and Indians to convert, they found the dry, brush-covered lands of the area unsuitable for settlement. Nevertheless, the descriptions of many early explorers in the vicinity of Lackland AFB note the dense vegetation, especially trees, and abundant game animals such as bison.
The Terán de los Ríos expedition entered Bexar County in June 1691 and camped near an Indian village which Terán named San Antonio de Padua. The nearby river was later given the same name. Father Massanet, the missionary who accompanied the expedition, described the San Antonio River as:

being bordered with many trees, cottonwoods, oaks, cedars, mulberries, and many vines. There are a great many fish and upon the highlands a great number of prairie chickens. On this day, there were so many buffaloes that the horses stampeded and 40 head ran away.

In 1720 the Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo and his military expedition crossed the Medina River near Macdona, then traveled through the area of present day Kelly AFB on Leon Creek before reaching their destination, San Pedro Springs. Aguayo's diarist, Juan Antonio de la Peña, comments on the abundance of turkey, quail, and deer they found during the journey. He notes, "we traveled east-northeast about three leagues until we came to Leon Creek in which water can be found the greater part of the year, and in several pools all year round." Peña also observes that they crossed low hills and valleys and found a great quantity of flint stone.

In 1828 J. M. Sánchez traveled on the Lower Presidio Road southwest of San Antonio near what is now the location of Lackland AFB. Sánchez describes "walnuts" and "evergreen oaks" and the presence of wild turkeys, horses, and deer on "beautiful land" which did not hinder travel. The Presidio Road and others like it were used by the colonial government to maintain control and foster trade, but their placement was also influenced by the presence of certain resources. Water, for example, was not only a critical resource to the prehistoric and historic Indian populations of the San Antonio area, but also to the early explorers and settlers as well.

During the sixteenth century the area was a convenient stopping point for Spanish expeditions into East Texas. Many of the trails the Indians had used for centuries were soon adapted to the needs of the Spanish explorers. With the establishment of the first missions in San Antonio, more intensive settlement, a road network, and the beginnings of the first civilian community ensued. However, initial growth of the town was confined to the fertile valley of the San Antonio River and an area watered by an intricate system of irrigation ditches.
Spanish Colonization: Missions and the Ranches

The Mission San Francisco Solano, along with a complement of soldiers, was transferred from the Rio Grande to San Pedro Springs in 1718. In 1719 the mission was moved to the San Antonio River a few miles east, and after suffering the devastation of a hurricane in 1724 it was moved again to the east side of the San Antonio River on a large meander. The resulting settlement, the Presidio de Béxar and Mission San Antonio de Valero, today known as the Alamo, attracted Indians from northern Mexico, South Texas and the immediate area of the mission. In 1720 the new Mission San José y San Miguel de Aguayo (Figure 34) moved to the area, and in 1731 the settlement was greatly enlarged by the addition of three missions from the failed east Texas efforts: Nuestra Señora de la Purísima

Figure 34. Mission San José y San Miguel de Aguayo. (Richard McReynolds, courtesy of the Southern Texas Archaeological Association.)
Concepción, San Juan Capistrano, and San Francisco de la Espada. A group of settlers arrived from the Canary Islands that same year and established the first civilian community.

The newly established missions attracted representatives of native Indian groups, many of whom had previously been recorded by the Spanish as ranging throughout South Texas and the areas to the southwest of San Antonio. In a short time, San Antonio became the largest and most important town on the Texas frontier. The missions along the San Antonio River grew and prospered until the 1770s, when the number of neophytes began to dwindle and the missionaries’ political influence waned. Division of the mission lands with secularization in 1794 accounted for an increase in the number of individual ranches and farms in the area.

Historical accounts of land use around Lackland from the eighteenth through the twentieth centuries mostly involve ranching activities. Medio and Leon creeks provided good sources of water, while the rich soils along both tributaries of the Medina River were suited for producing abundant crops or grasses for grazing. In 1770 the Medina Annex and much of the Main Base were used by Mission San José. The eastern portion of the Main Base was municipal pasture lands. By 1794 these lands were owned by two individuals named Rivas and Delgado. By 1809 at least seven ranches were established along Leon Creek and the Medina River. The process of turning over mission lands to local settlers was virtually complete when Mexico became independent from Spain in 1821.

The battle for Mexican independence was particularly hard on San Antonians, many of whom were directly involved in various intrigues and battles between 1800 and 1821. In 1813, for instance, a revolutionary force recruited mainly in the United States invaded Texas and conquered San Antonio. Joined by local citizens sympathetic to their cause, they were devastatingly defeated south of the Medina River southwest of present-day Lackland by a large army from Mexico. The ensuing barbarities of the victorious army caused a large part of San Antonio’s citizenry to retreat to Mexico or the southern United States, leaving the town nearly deserted.
With the formation of the government of the new Republic of Texas in 1836, the Spanish land grant where Lackland AFB is located today was divided among five or six heads of families or headright grantees. The land grants were large, each consisting of one league and one labor, a total of almost 5,000 acres. Most of the new property owners were Hispanic. The original grantee of the land which included the Medina Annex was José María Becerra, who received title on August 24, 1837. On the same day he sold the entire parcel to Enoch Jones and J. W. Smith who apparently sold it to various purchasers over the next 20 years. The land appears to have lain idle until 1870, when many landowners began selling their holdings to speculators. Part of their eagerness to sell at this time may have been due to disillusionment with attempts to protect the properties from the continuing raids by local Indian groups, such as the Comanches, who had been displaced from their hunting territories by the continued encroachment of settlers.

Around 1840, settlers from Germany, Alsace-Lorraine, and the United States began flooding into San Antonio (Figure 35). In the 1850s, more German was

Figure 35. San Antonio’s Main Plaza in 1849, as painted by William M. G. Samuel. (Courtesy of the Texas Historical Commission.)
spoken in San Antonio than Spanish and English combined. Many of the Germans moved into the Hill Country to the north, settling into communities such as New Braunfels and Fredericksburg. A group of Alsatians led by Henri Castro began a settlement, Castroville, on the Medina River just west of the Lackland AFB area in 1844. This was the westernmost settlement in Texas at that time. On their first night out of San Antonio, the group camped on Medio Creek, possibly in the vicinity of the Medina Annex. By 1850 Castroville had 76 families with 335 individuals. British-American settlers purchased or otherwise obtained title to the original land grants in northern Atascosa County and on the Medina River. Some of the settlers set up small plantation-type operations using slave labor. By 1876 some 5,630 Germans and Alsatians were among the inhabitants of San Antonio.

Protecting the Hinterland: The Beginning of a Tradition

The military presence in the Lackland area began in the mid-nineteenth century. Camp León, on Leon Creek about two miles south of Lackland AFB, was the temporary headquarters of Alexander Somervell’s Southwestern Army from about November 13 through November 19, 1842. The Somervell Expedition was a punitive mission against Mexico in retaliation for military raids into Texas in that same year.

Three years later Texas joined the United States. The U.S. Army’s Second Dragoons rode into San Antonio in October 1845 at the onset of the Mexican War, which ended with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo on February 2, 1848. Under the treaty, Mexico renounced all claims to Texas and accepted the Rio Grande as the international boundary. The roads and trails of the San Antonio area became increasingly important as the Army took on a border-protection role. The military made its own additions to this network of roads on which it depended to maintain its strong frontier presence in Texas from 1848 until 1890.

The Army “Post at San Antonio,” which had its beginnings in 1845, was the hub of the fort system because of its strategic location. The San Antonio Quartermaster Depot, housed in the Alamo until 1876, could readily supply all the western garrisons with both men and provisions (Figure 36). By the end of the war with Mexico, surveyors had laid out a military road from San Antonio toward the
west to El Paso for wagon trains through the area. This was the first in a series of roads and two interrelated chains of forts that the Army constructed in endangered frontier areas (Figure 37).

The first chain of hastily constructed forts was built in response to a perceived threat from across the border in the wake of the war. It paralleled the United States-Mexican border, extending from Fort Brown at the mouth of the Rio Grande to Fort Duncan in Eagle Pass. These forts were situated to hinder access to traditional Indian fords, but they were primarily intended to protect the international border. The second chain of forts extended from Fort Worth south to Fort Martin Scott at Fredericksburg, and was designed to be slightly in advance of the expanding western frontier. These posts were specifically constructed to protect settlers against feared attacks by Native Americans.

However, the frontier rapidly advanced beyond the fortification system. By 1852 a new line of forts had to be constructed about 150 miles farther west. About this time, the discovery of gold in California necessitated a third chain of forts spaced at irregular intervals along the El Paso-San Antonio road, which in some places was still little more than a trail. Both cavalry and infantry troops occupied a constantly changing array of forts, sub-posts, and small temporary camps rather than trying to maintain a line of static defensive positions.
At the outbreak of the Civil War, Major General David E. Twiggs, commander of the Department of Texas, surrendered Post San Antonio and all of Texas’s borderland forts, even before the state officially seceded from the Union on March 2, 1861. Many of the Army officers stationed in Texas, notably Robert E. Lee, accepted commissions from the Confederacy, but a majority of the non-commissioned officers and enlisted men remained loyal to the Union. General Twiggs had obtained a commitment that his men would be allowed to depart
Texas with their weapons, but on May 9, 1861, more than 1,000 Confederate soldiers stationed at San Antonio intercepted the evacuating Union troops near Lucas Creek, about one and a half miles west of what is now the Medina Annex, and forced them to surrender and to relinquish their weapons. The skirmish, known as the Battle of Allen’s Hill, was resolved without shots being fired.

San Antonio continued to be a major quartermaster depot for the Confederacy, turning out shoes and general quartermaster supplies for Texas troops engaged in border defense and within the state, as well as for the regiments deployed east of the Mississippi. Several cavalry units were formed in San Antonio—Texans avoided the infantry whenever possible—although they saw action elsewhere.

At the end of the Civil War, the United States military returned to San Antonio and again the city became the state’s major military headquarters, heading a chain of forts on the Indian frontier. Attempts to protect the western territories from Indians during the 1850s had been largely unsuccessful and after the distraction of the Civil War, the federal government decided not to re-occupy all the forts that had been part of the original 1850s line of defense. Instead, a new series of forts was opened farther west. In the 1880s and 1890s, having eliminated the threat of Indian attacks, the U.S. Army gradually abandoned its Texas posts (Figure 38).

Figure 38. *Fort Griffin, in present Shackelford County, was established in 1867–1868 and abandoned in 1881, never having been fully completed. The drawing shows its state in the mid-1970s.*
The army's Department of Texas headquarters was moved to Austin until San Antonio leaders, who recognized the military presence as an asset to the city, offered the government free land to rebuild Post San Antonio on Government Hill outside of downtown. The Quartermaster Depot (now the Fifth Army Quadrangle) was completed in 1878 two years after the Army moved out of the Alamo. The Department of Texas returned to the city, and the Infantry Post, built next to the Quartermaster Depot, was named Fort Sam Houston in 1890. The military presence stimulated trade and economic enterprises, a role the United States military continues today in San Antonio.

**Ranching and the Railroad**

The Civil War destroyed South Texas ranchers' traditional markets in the Caribbean and the slave states of the southern Mississippi Valley. Without a market outlet, cattle herds grew at an astonishing rate during the war years. Great numbers of longhorns roamed free in the areas south and east of San Antonio, and would-be cattlemen could start their own herds simply by capturing some of the semi-wild animals, branding them, and calling them their own. Longhorn cattle, a legacy of the Spanish, became the mainstay of frontier entrepreneurs—many of whom carved out empires and made fortunes in the San Antonio area.

Beef was far more valuable and in much greater demand in the North than in the South. As a result, San Antonio became the southern starting point for post-Civil War cattle drives. South Texas cattle were frequently driven from the San Antonio area to Abilene, Kansas, then transported by rail to processing and manufacturing centers in the Midwest and the East. Overland cattle drives flourished until the railroads came to San Antonio and put an end to them in the late-1870s.

Plans for constructing a rail system in San Antonio had been developed as early as 1852. Those plans did not come to fruition, however, until February 20, 1877, when the Galveston, Harrisburg and San Antonio Rail Road Company connected San Antonio to Mexican and eastern United States markets. With the appearance of the railroad, the area around San Antonio prospered. Within the first week of railway service, the freight cars brought manufactured articles and finer stocks of horses, cattle, and pigs to the city.
Rise of the Hinterland

During the 1880s, the railroad system became the major link between the frontier and the growing town of San Antonio. Four major rail routes into the hinterlands helped establish the Alamo City as a service center and trading hub for ranchers and farmers, creating a boom in land sales. Railroad companies sold off sections of land to speculators to encourage the development of the railroad, which was partially responsible for the rise of a new economic empire in the southwest: the sheep industry. Sheep were a natural replacement for the cattle who had overgrazed the land. San Antonio entrepreneurs were quick to catch on to the booming wool market, with absentee land owners and investors buying up former open range land for speculation. The raising of sheep or “wooly backs” became economically intertwined with the sudden growth of urban marketplaces such as San Antonio, although only a small amount of the wool shipped out of San Antonio at this time came from Bexar County.

Many of the new breed of farsighted investors ranged flocks of sheep next to herds of cattle. Migrant laborers saw the opportunity to work at steady wages, and settlers came to provide other services to the ranchers in the growing small communities. San Antonio grew so rapidly that by 1875 the city was overtaking farmland, yet demanding more agricultural goods. The timing was right to launch the largest expansion of agriculture ever experienced in Bexar County. German families living in San Antonio formed an agricultural cooperative called the Medina Farm Colony. Initially, six families moved their families to land that would become Lackland, 15 miles southwest of San Antonio and bordering the Medina River. The new settlers cleared the lands of mesquite and built log cabins from the larger trees along the creeks and river. The land tracts were secured by deeds of trust or mortgages. Payments were made when crops were harvested. Until their first crops came in, the settlers lived off the profits from selling their properties in San Antonio and managed to put money down on farm machinery, wagons, horses, mules and cows.

One of the first families to move to the Lackland area was the Nentwichs, who moved to their parcel in December 1874. In 1875 Andrew Braden quit his job as a carpenter in San Antonio and moved to a tract of land near the Nentwichs.
A few years later another carpenter, August Neumann moved his family to the farm colony on an adjoining tract of land.

Andrew Braden died in 1904 and his widow, Helen, died in 1936. Braden had given some land to his daughter, Amelia, and to Adolph and Edward Braden, whose relationships to Andrew aren’t clear in the records. Amelia and Martha Braden still owned that land when it was acquired by the federal government in 1954. Edward Braden was a well-established merchant, contractor and builder who built the San Antonio City Hall in 1891 and became a San Antonio city alderman in the early 1900s. In 1950 Edward and Adolph Braden sold 60.81 acres each to Lillian Ridder, an adjoining landowner, from whom the United States government acquired the property four years later.

By 1885 deep wells and windmills brought much-needed water to the lands above the creeks. This allowed more intensive ranching. The growing demand for agricultural consumer goods in the early twentieth century stimulated increased exploitation of the land in the area. By 1913 the land that is now Lackland Main Base and the Medina Annex had been divided among more than 30 landowners. With the help of large hard-working families, the pioneers developed the area into one of the state’s largest producers of cotton and corn. In the 1920s and 1930s, a tremendous growth in the dairy industry prompted the farmers to plant grain as feed crops.

The close-knit community, the suitability of the land for providing a decent living, and the feeling of self-sufficiency must have been good to those who stayed, for many of the surnames of the colony pioneers—Neumann, Braden, Goeth, and Ridder—still appeared on the deeds of the land the government procured in 1954.

**The Military: The Tradition Continues**

Even before the United States entered World War I, the San Antonio area was recognized as an ideal area in which to concentrate the training of troops. In 1916 Capt. Benjamin Foulois, the “father of military aviation,” selected three tracts of land southwest of San Antonio near the Laredo Highway for construction of
training facilities for over 60,000 troops. The base, first called simply the Aviation Camp then later designated Kelly Field, became the army’s primary flight training area. Later, the depot and flight training functions were separated. Major Frank Lackland, airfield commander at Dodd Field in San Antonio, part of what is now Fort Sam Houston, moved his aircraft to the new airfield in 1928.

With the entry of the United States into World War II, the need for a facility to process and train aviation cadets for entry into flight training was again recognized. In 1942, a section of Kelly Field was designated the San Antonio Aviation Cadet Center. This facility was transferred to the U.S. Army Air Force Personnel Distribution command on June 30, 1945, when it was renamed the San Antonio District, Army Air Force Personnel Distribution Command. In February of the following year, the installation was returned to Air Training Command and designated the Army Air Force Training Center. In 1946 the facility became the Indoc-trination Division, Air Training Command, thus becoming the entry point for all basic trainees into the Air Force. On July 11, 1947, the facility was named Lackland Air Base, and six months later Lackland Air Force Base became the primary site for both officer and enlisted personnel training. The Lackland Training Annex, at the time referred to as Medina Base, was procured for the Air Force in 1954. It has been the site of various training and storage activities throughout its history.

**Historic Sites Found During the Archaeological Survey**

Archaeologists recorded eight sites at Lackland from the historic period. These sites are former ranch houses, farmsteads, a brick factory, and trash dumps used during the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries.

**Wilke Farmstead**

A sparse scatter of red bricks and a stone foundation were telltale evidence of a turn-of-the-century farmhouse on the McCulloch tract beside Medio Creek. Other items that archaeologists found on the farmstead include bed springs, barbed wire, ceramic fragments, a door clasp, glass sherds, and animal bone. The small
amount of building materials remaining at the site suggests that the structure once was a wooden pole-and-beam building. When archaeologists found the site, it appeared that the building had been razed when a berm was constructed to hold back flood waters along the northern edge of the site. The old farmhouse may also have been damaged by flooding. A dam that had been built across Medio Creek earlier in the century washed out in 1976 and caused much flooding.

The artifacts found on the site reveal that it was used from the 1880s through the 1920s, and possibly later. Neither of the two bricks found had maker’s marks, but red bricks were not often used as building materials until after 1877 when the arrival of the railroad made brick from the east more available. A structure at this position on a 1903 U.S. Geological Survey map was probably the home for the Wilke family, who owned the surrounding property from 1880 through 1928. The Army’s 1942 tactical map, based on a 1922 survey, shows the “Wilke Farm” at the

Figure 39. The Lackland area, shown on a 1942 U.S. Army tactical map.
same location (Figure 39). As we have seen, Ludwig and Augusta Wilke purchased the property during a decade when several German pioneer families—seeking to make a better, independent, and self-sufficient living—left San Antonio and formed the Medina Farm Colony. Ludwig Wilke emigrated from Germany in 1867. In San Antonio he met and married Augusta, a native Texan of German immigrant parents. By 1900 they had four children, two of whom died young. After Ludwig died in 1923 his surviving son, W. C. Wilke, inherited the 250-acre tract but conveyed 140 acres of it to his sister, Lena, and her husband, R. B. McCulloch.

Archaeologists found two types of barbed wire (Figure 40) on the property. One is “A. Burnell’s Four Point,” patented in June 1877; the other is “G. C. Baker’s Flat Barb,” which was manufactured as early as 1882. Three sherds of dark-greenish-amber, purple, and light-green bottle glass found at the site are typical of glass made until about 1880. A brown glass sherd from a bottle base carried the name “Glovers.” The archaeologists could not determine when Glovers was in operation, but did find published photos of Glovers bottles containing mange and distemper medicine. A base of a brown glass jug was embossed with the words “USG . . . ASSURES PURITY.” Although this particular sherd could not be dated, records indicate that US
Glass manufactured jugs and bottles from 1891 through 1964.

Two clear glass bottle lips were found which are typical of soft drink, milk, and beer bottles manufactured by the Florida Glass Company from 1926 through 1947. One clear glass sherd was from the bottom of a medicine bottle. Its maker's mark—"Illinois"—was used by the Owens-Illinois Pacific Coast Company beginning in 1932.

Three window glass sherds had an aquamarine hue with heavily weathered surfaces. This color is made by adding sodium carbonate or sodium sulfate to glass mixtures to lower the melting point. This manufacturing technique was typically used during the late nineteenth century.

Pieces of ceramics also were found around the farmstead. One whiteware sherd with a blue spatter pattern was found. It is an attractive yet inexpensive dinnerware commonly imported in the middle to late 1800s.

Three porcelain sherds representing two bowls and a cup were all of a hand-painted under- and overglaze type. Porcelain is rarely present on eighteenth- and early-nineteenth-century sites because the fragile dishes had to be transported from Europe. They were found more frequently after 1832 when the type became commonly manufactured in the United States.

Of the 18 stoneware sherds found at the Wilke farmstead, four were unglazed on the outside but had a dark brown Albany Slip on the inside. The other 14 had white Bristol Glaze inside and out. The pieces containing Albany Slip were most likely made before 1900, after which Albany Slip went out of fashion and was replaced by Bristol white glaze, which was common in household use by 1900.

A rusted tin can found at the site is of the "sanitary type," with locked end and side beams. This type became common by the early 1920s and is still used today.

Although not a descendant of the Medina Farm Colony pioneers, Denzil G. Harroun owned the property north of the McCulloch tract and was one of those interviewed for this project. Harroun and his wife, Marta, bought 113 acres on what is now Medina Annex from a man named Cal Parker in the mid 1940s. This
was the part of Ludwig Wilke's property that his son kept for himself and then sold in 1928. The Harrouns never lived on the property, but had intended to do so until they learned in the late 1940s that the government was going to take it. They sold it to a man named Walter Rakowitz who was 70 years old at the time. Rakowitz was the owner of the property in 1954 when it was acquired by the federal government. In the meantime, Harroun had a water well driven into the Edwards aquifer and a gas well put in for heat and power. He said he was the one who, in the 1940s, built the dam across Medio Creek that was destroyed by a flood in 1976.

When the archaeologists asked Harroun about the bedsprings, car parts, kitchen artifacts, and the remains of a possible structure near the dam that they found on the McCulloch property, he said he had seen litter around there, but had always assumed it was just a trash dump. When he was asked about a cement foundation the survey crew had found on his former property on the other side of Medio Creek, he said it had been for a shed or hay barn; he didn't build the shed, but whoever did never finished it. He said he had row crops on the flat terrace next to it. He used the land primarily for running cattle, selling them at the stockyards in San Antonio. His 113 acres would support about 30 head.

The Brick Factory

Only rubble is left of what was once a thriving brick and tile factory on the Medina Annex. The Bexar Brick and Tile Manufacturing Company operated the kiln and yard from 1888 through 1890, on a broad, flat terrace above Medio Creek. The main brick building and a nearby wooden tower have collapsed. A separate rubble mound of highly fired red brick with traces of sandy mortar is probably the remains of the kiln. Nearby are three mounds of stacked red bricks. Although the bricks on top of the stacks have crumbled, many are still intact beneath the rubble. Corrugated tin roofing was scattered around what was probably a separate shed. Other materials the archaeologists found at the site included plumbing items, lumber, ceramic sherds, and glass fragments. Remains of an old fence still surround the property.

Denzil Harroun had a clear recollection of the brick factory. He said the plant was abandoned when he first saw it in the 1940s, and he had no idea who had
operated it or when it was in operation. He said he believed it once had a kiln fired by mesquite logs and a shed that housed a Model A Ford for a long time. In the 1940s someone came to the site, stripped the shed, and took the automobile.

The collapsed 5,000-gallon wooden water tower, or "cistern," is 46 feet east of the brick mounds (Figure 41). There may have been an adjoining well and windmill, although archaeologists found no evidence of them during survey. The water tower was made of 2-x-6-inch cypress boards that were eight feet long. Six steel rings or reinforcing bands, 132 inches in diameter, bore a patent date of March 20, 94 from Racine, Wisconsin. Water pipes that apparently ran from the tower to the manufacturing operation were reduced from three inches in diameter to one inch, then to half an inch. The raised tower, coupled with reduced piping would have provided pressurized water for mixing clay. Harroun said he had used a 2-inch pipe from the area around the tower for his water well, and recalled that the pipe ran from the tower almost to the brick plant. With a patent date that may

Figure 41. Collapsed cypress water tower at the Brick Factory.
be 1894, it is unclear if the water tower was used as part of the brick factory or perhaps it was constructed by later landowners for other purposes.

Cistern and water tower manufacturers were quite common in San Antonio. The city directories during the late 1800s and early 1900s list several coopers (barrel makers) who specialized in building cisterns. One large manufacturer, F. F. Collins, used over 1,000,000 feet of cypress lumber per year and specialized in cypress cisterns holding up to 100,000 gallons.

Bricks were not commonly used as building materials in San Antonio until after the arrival of the railroad in February 1877. The rich clays around the city were excellent for making bricks, but had not been exploited because too few brickmakers were available. Even though the railroad provided an efficient way to export bricks, brick imports into San Antonio from the east exceeded exports until around 1885 when more skilled brickmakers arrived.

At the beginning of 1884, attorneys Tom and T. S. Harrison operated the only brick works listed in the city directory, San Antonio Brick Company, at 329 Crockett Street. By the end of 1884, there were several brick factories around the city and brick construction began to replace stone. In that year, brick factories within 10 miles of the city limits shipped 190 carloads of brick into San Antonio. When Bexar Brick and Tile Manufacturing Company was established in 1888, it was one of only four listed in the San Antonio City Directory; by 1890 it was one of six. Perhaps the competition forced it out of business that year because in 1891 only four companies remained.

Local brick manufacturers contributed significantly to the rapidly developing city and its hinterland industries during the 1880s. They and the other industrialists, agriculturalists, laborers and entrepreneurs associated with land usage in the Lackland area, not to mention the Medina Farm Colony members, were a diverse and colorful lot. For instance, the secretary of Bexar Brick and Tile Manufacturing Company was Samuel Maverick, III, whose father, Samuel Augustus Maverick, Jr., served the volunteer army of Texas acting as a guide during the Siege of Bexar, was a signer of the Texas Declaration of Independence, mayor of San Antonio in 1839 and 1840, and periodically served as a legislator between 1843 and 1862. Maverick County is named for him. In 1861 the senior Maverick was one of the
Southern Confederacy Commissioners who accepted the surrender of General Twiggs’s federal forces. After the Civil War, he started a lumber yard on Alamo Plaza and became involved in the lumber price wars of 1884.

Records indicate that Bexar Brick and Tile Company on the Medina Annex was chartered on January 2, 1888, with the issue of $50,000 of capital stock. Its officers were J. C. A. Piper, president; H. M. Schulthess, vice-president; Sam Maverick, treasurer; Charles B. Wilson, general manager; and William E. Austin, secretary. Although the offices were located in the Maverick Building, 1 East Houston Street, their manufacturing yard was located “10 miles southwest of the city” and, according to their advertisement in the 1889 city directory (Figure 42), was capable of producing 25,000 to 50,000 “Cremona Gulch” bricks per day. Just nine months after being chartered, the company was offered as collateral for a $4,000 loan from Charles and William Campbell. By agreement, the first payment of $100 was due January 1, 1889, and a second payment of $300 due January 1, 1890. Apparently the payments were not made because on April 1, 1890, Charles

Figure 42. Advertisement in the 1889 San Antonio City Directory.
Campbell sold the property to the highest bidder, A. B. Frank, at the door of the Bexar County Courthouse.

In the deed of sale, Campbell listed all the equipment that went with the factory, including one “disintegrating machine” for grinding clay, one dry-press brick machine, one re-press brick machine, one 30-horsepower steam engine with boiler attached, one steam pump, one boiler made by Erie Boiler Works, one 50-horsepower Westinghouse engine, one Chihuahua wagon, one spring cart, and one dump cart. The water tower was not listed, indicating that the tower was possibly built after Campbell sold the property to Frank. Campbell had been a drugstore clerk in 1883, then dabbled in real estate before returning to work at the Crystal Ice Palace shortly after the brick factory sale.

At the time he bought the brick factory in 1890, A. B. Frank was the manager of the largest dry goods firm of the day in San Antonio, shipping goods by rail and wagon train to all points west and into the heart of Mexico. We don’t know what Frank did with the property, but no evidence was found in the archives that he made bricks. By 1891, the company was no longer in the general listings of the city directory. Frank’s widow, Sarah, sold the property in 1908 to Thomas Dolan, who was a shop engineer for the Galveston, Harrisburg and San Antonio Railway in San Antonio for many years before retiring in San Antonio. In 1910, Dolan sold the property to Albert Bitter, a bartender at the Eagle Saloon in San Antonio.

Bitter made a fortunate purchase, for the land was indeed rich, not only from the grasses and water on the surface, but for the minerals, gas, and oil that lay underneath. The archives from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries are filled with lease agreements between speculators and landholders in the area of the Medina Annex. Mineral rights were often divided as properties changed hands through the years. One typical agreement outlines a five-year oil, gas, and mineral lease on 460 acres on the Albert Bitter tract in 1940. The lessee agreed to pay an initial $10 for the right to explore, and further to pay royalties on one-eighth of the oil, gas, and minerals produced, except that he would only pay $.50 per long ton on sulphur. No well was to be drilled within 200 feet of a house or barn without Bitter’s consent, and all pipes were to be buried below the plow zone. No more than one well per 20 acres was allowed. The lessee was allowed free use of all the
oil, gas, coal, wood, and surface water he wanted. Bitter was allowed to use any gas well on his land for stoves and residential inside lights.

Details on gas and oil production and personal consumption by the landowners are sketchy, but it is known that Ludwig Wilke's son and daughter-in-law, W. C. and Selina Wilke, were receiving royalties from a gas producing well in 1945, and Denzil Harron was at least one landowner who had a gas well which provided power for a water well pump in the 1950s.

After 34 years, Albert Bitter sold the brick factory property to the Friars of the Atonement, Inc., of Garrison, New York. One of the friars, Father Paul, invested heavily in land, oil, and gas wells throughout the country, and around Amarillo. He must have thought the Bitter property would be a sound investment. Although all his profits went toward supporting his society in Garrison, the Vatican decided that Father Paul should concentrate more on spiritual matters than on accumulating material wealth, so shortly before his death in 1946 he began divesting himself of his holdings. After he died, the society continued the divestitures.

Albert Bitter's Dump

Archaeologists found the remains of a historic dump along Medio Creek that included 16 barrel hoops, stoneware sherds from large crocks, and glass sherds from two or three 1-gallon jugs. The absence of other trash suggested that the site may once have been a livestock dipping station, where cattle or sheep were dipped in pesticide to rid them of ticks and other parasites. Not surprisingly, a stone corral was found a few hundred yards away.

The dumpsite and corral are probably related to early twentieth-century structures that existed just south of Lackland, although those buildings could not be examined by the archaeologists to determine their use. This dipping station is on the same original tract of land as the brick factory and most likely was used by Albert Bitter while he owned the property from 1910 through 1944.

The ceramic, glass, and metal artifacts from this historic dump suggest it was used during the 1920s. The archaeologists found 13 sherds of stoneware, a utilitarian
ware that was commonly used in the kitchen and dairy from 1860 through 1950. The stoneware sherds at this site have a Bristol white glaze on the outside with an Albany slip on the inside, similar to what was found around the Wilke house site. As we have seen, Bristol white glaze was typically in household use by 1900. These sherds also bore a maker’s mark: Uhl Pottery Company, Huntingburg, Indiana, with the company’s acorn logo (Figure 43). The Uhl company made kitchen stoneware items in Huntingburg from 1891 through 1941. The archaeologists also found two large, light-green glass jug bottoms. One is stamped “1927,” while the second bears a maker’s mark patented by the Illinois Glass Company, Alton, Illinois. In 1915 this company was the first to use a machine to manufacture five- to 13-gallon jugs. This particular maker’s mark was used by Illinois Glass between 1916 and 1929.

The 16 riveted steel barrel rings that the survey crew found at this site suggest that at least two barrels were left behind when the dipping station was abandoned. Oak kegs or barrels with riveted steel hoops like these were common during the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries. San Antonio city directories list several cooperers in business from the 1870s through 1900. In 1927, Sears and Roebuck offered for sale “Plain and Charred White Oak Kegs. Extra quality. Nonporous staves, kiln dried. Riveted steel hoops.” A 30-gallon keg could be bought for $3.95.
What the barrels and jugs contained is not known; however, the combination of the two offers a likely assumption that animal pesticides or feed supplements were being mixed at the site. Diseases affecting cattle were not new to ranchers in 1927. Texas fever caused by ticks all but halted the trail drives in 1881. Texans fought the ticks with pesticides and vats for dipping cattle. The battle against Texas fever was declared a victory in 1928, when the U. S. Department of Agriculture announced that the ticks causing the disease had been eradicated in South Texas. Screwworm infections were especially bad in the 1930s, when as many as two to three million head of livestock in Texas were infested. In 1927, pesticides were sold in quantities of one and five gallons. One gallon of concentrate mixed with water would make 70 gallons of a potent mixture “for the extermination of parasites, lice, ticks, fleas and many other insects.” Feed supplements for cattle were sold in 54-gallon barrels for $9.98 in 1927. Molasses mixed with corn, for example, made steers gain weight faster than did plain corn.

Industrial Operation

One historic site on the Medina Annex was at first thought to be the remains of a homestead with a storage cellar. But when archaeologists reexamined it, they found it to be an industrial site along Medio Creek (Figure 44). Unfortunately, the structural remains and artifacts gave few clues as to how it really functioned. The smaller structure that had been thought to be a “root cellar” appears to be a foundation built of rounded bricks that may have served as a base for liquid holding tanks. Construction materials used included yellow brick of the type commonly brought by rail from the Laredo area beginning in the late-nineteenth century, and travertine blocks available in the nearby creek bed.

The larger structure that had been considered a possible farm house consisted of a collapsed wall about 20 feet long on each side. Some hand-cut stone was mixed with common river cobbles in making the wall. Since there did not appear to be enough stone present for this wall to be more than a few feet high, the structure may have been a stone fence rather than a shed or building. The large square depression next to it contained a sparse scatter of red brick and stone. Only a handful of bottle glass sherds and metal fragments were found at the site.
The scarcity of household artifacts, the liquid tank platform, and the depression next to the stone wall suggested to the archaeologists that this could have been the site of an oil refining and storage area, especially considering the large number of oil and gas leases recorded in the archives for the surrounding area. The 1903 U.S. Geological Survey map shows a road leading north from the Southern Pacific railway to a dead end at the site. Though the site represents some type of
manufacturing or industrial processing activity, nothing in the archives could be found to confirm this interpretation.

From the evidence found, it’s possible that the structures were built by one of the landowners some time before 1903. George Bellerby and his children, Edward and Eidith, owned the property for 16 years from 1883 through 1898. No record of the Bellerbys has been found in census records in San Antonio, so it’s possible they were absentee landowners and leased out the land. From 1898 through 1901 the property was owned by Thomas E. George. City directories tell us a man named Thomas George was running a livery and boarding stable in San Antonio from 1897 through 1901. John W. Judson purchased the property from George in 1901 and held it for four years before selling it in 1905. After several changes of hands, this property and others adjoining it were bought by members of the Weilbach family, from whom the United States government acquired a 2,321 tract of land in 1954 for the northern part of the Medina Annex.

McCulloch Farmstead and Dumpsite

Archaeologists found a farmstead site on a terrace above Medio Creek on the McCulloch tract. Although the main structure has been destroyed, the remains of outbuildings and artifacts found in a dumpsite nearby appear to range from the early to mid-twentieth century. The outbuildings, which have collapsed, are believed to have been barns or sheds and a chicken coop. The main structure was not found and was most likely leveled during preparation for what is now the restricted Explosive Ordnance Disposal area at the Medina Annex. A large number of early twentieth-century bottles were scattered across most of the site.

Denzil Harroun, who owned a neighboring tract for a while, confirmed that the farmstead belonged to Lena and Roy B. McCulloch, who occupied a house in the immediate area until the federal government procured the property in 1954. When Harroun was shown where the outbuildings were located and told that the main structure was now believed to have been inside the EOD area and destroyed, he recalled that the house was a little further northeast of the EOD area, toward the creek. The remains of chicken coops and other outbuildings are most probably those used by the McCullochs, he said.
Lena (Wilke) McCulloch was the daughter of Ludwig and Augusta Wilke. After Augusta died in 1922 and Ludwig in 1923, Lena and Roy ended up with a 140.57-acre tract surrounding the farmstead. No records are available which show when the house and outbuildings were constructed, but artifacts collected from the site, along with Denzil Harroun’s description, suggest an occupation period from about 1910 through 1954. This overlaps the period when Lena and Roy McCulloch owned the property.

A clay flower vase with a soft brown, Leon Slip glaze and yellow overtones on both the interior and exterior, was found in the nearby trash dump (Figure 45). The Meyer Pottery factory, in operation from 1887 through 1964 in nearby Atascosa, Texas, manufactured Leon Slip glazed pottery. This unique glaze was derived from yellow clays mined on Leon Creek, near the old Frio City road crossing. Workers continued to mine the clays in that area until 1944 when the landowner, Milton Friedrich, sold the property to the government for Kelly AFB expansion. Although the pot cannot be specifically dated, the Meyer family began to make more flower pots and “art pottery” in the 1940s.

Two clear glass fruit jar lid seals bearing the name “ATLAS EDJ Seal” were found at the site (Figure 46a). Atlas was the trademark of Atlas Glass and succeeding companies from 1896 through 1964. In 1900 the company began making glass caps for Mason jars. The EDJ seal was designed for use on fruit jars about 1910 and was phased out about 1915 in favor of metal lids. Two clear glass bottles manufactured by the Owens-Illinois Glass Company were also found. One is a catsup bottle made in 1909. The other appears to be a pickle or pepper bottle and was made in 1911.
Figure 46. Artifacts from the McCulloch Farm dump: a. fruit jar lid; b. painted sugar jar lid; c. straight razor.
A clear glass Ball Perfect Mason fruit jar with smooth sides also was found. This type of jar with embossed labeling was manufactured between 1920 and 1933. A white glass Woodbury salve jar bore the trademark anchor symbol of Anchor Hocking Glass Company. The symbol was first used in 1938. A painted sugar jar lid, a discarded straight razor (Figure 46c), and a rusty 1950 Texas license plate add to the story of past human activity at the site.

**Line Shack**

Archaeologists also found the collapsed remains of a historic line shack, a temporary shelter for ranchers and cowboys. The line shack measured about 7 x 10 feet and was partially built of hand-cut sandstone slabs. This structure, which may date to the late nineteenth century, is on the McCulloch tract and is most likely associated with Ludwig and Augusta Wilke’s occupation soon after they bought the land in 1880. Artifacts present on the site included seven whiteware sherds, glass sherds, and a rusted tin coffee boiler (Figure 47) similar to those being offered in the 1897 Sears and Roebuck catalog. These artifacts suggest a brief historic occupation from the 1860s through about 1900.

Three of the whiteware sherds found at the site are undecorated, but have a clear, shiny glaze. Whiteware is a highly fired refined clay with a glassy glaze that was often hand painted or spattered with a cut sponge for decoration. Whiteware was commonly imported to America from Britain during the 1800s, but the demand for the undecorated type increased significantly in

![Figure 47. This tin coffee boiler from the line shack is typical of kitchen tinware items available during the late-nineteenth century.](image-url)
America after 1860. At this time the type became an increasingly common tableware setting for middle class families around San Antonio, replacing pewter and wooden wares. Three other whiteware sherds found at the site are hand-painted underglaze. This style was a little more expensive than plain undecorated whiteware, but was still a popular import item during the early 1800s. The sherds found at this site have wine-pink flowers with green leaves. One sherd was decorated using the cut sponge technique, that is, cutting patterns and designs in sponges and spattering whiteware with colorful combinations. Although highly valued because it was pleasing to the eye, this ware was very inexpensive. These two attractive qualities made it a commonly imported item in the middle to late 1800s.

Dump Site

Artifacts found on an old dump site along Medio Creek include twentieth-century brownware ceramics, metal buckets, tin cans, condiment jars, and early-twentieth-century bottles. This trash dump could be that of the last civilian owner, Sylvan Gurinsky, his father Charles Gurinsky, or the earlier owner, Albert Bitter. Before the United States government procured the land in June 1954, Sylvan Gurinsky owned the 605.4 acres surrounding the dump. He received the property as a gift from his father in August 1949. Although he lived in north San Antonio, Sylvan Gurinsky ran cattle on the property and frequently visited the parcel before the Air Force took it over.

The remains of a cobblestone corral, possibly used in the cattle ranching activities, were found about 50 yards east of the trash dump. Charles Gurinsky only owned the land about four months before he gave it to his son, having purchased the land in April 1949 from Friars of the Atonement who, as we saw, bought the parcel as an investment from Albert Bitter. Bitter owned the land from 1910 through 1944.

Artifacts found at the dump suggest it was used beginning in the 1930s. A Royal Crown Cola bottle (Figure 48) and 29 pieces of redware ceramics were collected. The bottle bears a maker’s mark of the Glenshaw Glass Co. This particular mark has been in use since 1932. The type and number of production scars
on the bottle suggest it was machine-made. The bottle bears a label with a copyright date of 1936; therefore, it must have been manufactured during that year or later. The label is a red and white applied color label. Although this labeling technique came into use around 1920, and by 1930 had replaced embossing as one of the most common types of labeling, applied color labeling using more than one color was perfected only in the late 1940s.

The pieces of redware ceramics found in the dump are not diagnostic of a specific time period, but appear to be similar to plain ceramics manufactured during the late 1890s and early to middle 1900s. They are the remains of a large vessel, probably a jar, with a six-inch opening at the top. The redware is plain, with no glaze or paint. This type of ceramic allows liquids to seep slowly through its pores and evaporate, and therefore was frequently used to keep water cool. The jar shows circular striations like those formed when a vessel is made on a potter’s wheel. The jars at the site were of the screw-top variety. The continuous-thread design became the standard method of capping bottles in the 1930s, and is still used today. The rusted tin cans are of the sanitary type which became common by the early 1920s and is still used today.

Gustav (Gus) Albert Neumann, Jr. and his wife Francis (Hutzler) Neumann of Castroville are descendants of Medina Farm Colony pioneers and knew the
Gurinskys. They were interviewed for this publication in the mid-1990s. Medina Colony pioneer August Neumann had two sons, Gustaf and Henry John, who farmed together in the Medina Annex area. Gustaf owned 71.7 acres and his brother owned an adjoining tract of 87.19 acres before the government took them over in 1954. Henry’s first wife, Mary Nentwich, died in childbirth, but he had two children by his second marriage. His brother Gustaf married Alice Borquine, and they had three children: David, Anna Mae Haeglin, and Gustaf Jr. The latter grew up at his parents’ home in Rio Medina, but remembered farming and ranching the Annex property with his dad. Gus and Francis married on June 19, 1954.

Francis grew up in Medina County, on acreage where Highway 90 crosses the Medina-Bexar county line. She had never been on the Annex property, but was familiar with the Gurinskys and many of the adjoining property owners. To the southeast, Francis recalled, Andrew Braden had given that land to his daughter, Amelia. To the west, Albert Nentwich had two sons: Arthur and Fred. To the north, Minnie Weilbacher married John Schumann, and Thekla Nentwich married a Weilbacher. Ford Tractor Company came out occasionally in the late 1940s to test their tractors by plowing the Gurinsky property. For a long time, Homer Verstuyft, a Belgian, farmed the Gurinsky property. The Belgians were relocated when land for Kelly Field was acquired by the federal government.

Gus Jr. recalled coming with his dad from their home in Rio Medina to Maccona and to what is now the Medina Annex to farm and tend to cattle with Uncle Henry. There was no fence between the two tracts at first, so both brothers shared the land. Screw worms were real bad for the cattle, Gus Jr. recalled. The cattle then were a mixed herd, mostly Hereford. They were always sold to Gus’s great uncle, Frank Neumann, a cattle buyer who would take them to the stockyard in San Antonio.

While the land was used mostly for cattle, Gus Sr. did plant some row crops on the western part, what is now the rifle, pistol, and grenade ranges. In the beginning, Gus Jr. said, his dad had an iron-wheeled McCormick 1020 tractor and took the magneto off for more power. Uncle Henry planted corn and maize with a John Deere-B, a new two-cylinder tractor bought in 1942. With that you could plant two rows at a time. In 1945 Gus Sr. bought a Moline Model R. Gus Jr. couldn’t recall what they planted first, but from 1949 through 1951 they raised grain sorghum. The
Johnson grass was so thick, he said, that it would take over and stunt the crops. Gus Jr. graduated from San Antonio’s Main Avenue High School, now Fox Academic and Technical High School, and went into the military in January 1952. However, that was after his dad wrote a letter and got him a six-month deferment so he could help him build a new fence around the properties, in the area of what would now be the perimeter fence in the southwest corner of the ranges.
It's clear that at one time or another, prehistoric peoples walked along the trails, hunted in the woods, and fished in the streams that are now part of Lackland. Archaeologists discovered evidence that Native Americans lived on the base for at least 8-9,000 years. These peoples never lived in settled, permanent villages, but moved camps as food, water, and their society dictated. Spanish settlers coming into the area in historic times brought with them new ways to exploit the land and its resources. For most of the early historic period Lackland was part of large mission ranches. Later these ranches were owned privately by individuals and as the population shifted toward Anglo-Germans, so did the land ownership. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries parts of Lackland Air Force Base were used as the location for various industries, and ranching continued until the land was acquired by the Military. The number of archaeological finds over such a broad and diverse terrain confirms the intensity with which the land has been occupied over the past several thousand years.

The U.S. Air Force has done an excellent job of identifying the rich cultural history at Lackland, and has taken a giant step in preserving the past for the future. While we continue to train, live, and work on these same lands that have been occupied for thousands of years, the Air Force has demonstrated that history is still very much a part of the present, and well worth preservation.
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http://server.berkeley.edu/AUA/resources.html

Archaeological Adventure: http://www.advanced.org/3011/indexge.htm

Archaeology Online: http://www.hc.net/~archaeol/online

Archaeology on the World Wide Web:
http://www.gla.ac.uk/Acad/Archaeology/netstuff/archplaces.html

Archaeological Institute of America:
http://csaws.brymawr.edu:443/aia.html

Center for Archaeological Research: http://www.csbs.utsa.edu/research/car

Links to Archaeology WWW Pages:
http://lead.csustan.edu/anthro/archlinks.html

National Park Service Cultural Resources: http://www.cr.nps.gov

Texas Historical Commission: http://www.thc.state.tx.us