

Archaeological Monitoring Along North Main and Soledad with State Antiquities Landmark Testing of 41BX2164 and 41BX2170, San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas

by

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San Antonio, Texas 78249
Archaeological Report, No. 462

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Texas Antiquities Permit No. 7816

REDACTED

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Abstract:

From October 2016 through December 2017, The University of Texas at San Antonio's (UTSA) Center for Archaeological Research (CAR) conducted archaeological monitoring for the Downtown Street Reconstruction Project at North Main Avenue and Soledad Street (DTSR-Main/Soledad) under contract with Poznecki-Camarillo, Inc. (PCI) for the City of San Antonio (COSA). Supplementary project funds came from CPS Energy (CPS) and San Antonio Water System (SAWS) for the replacement of existing gas, water, and sewer utilities (COSA 2017). Additional ground disturbing activities included upgrading storm pipes and boxes, as well as laying electric conduits for streetlights.

As a political subdivision under the Antiquities Code of Texas Section 191.003(4) and according to the Unified Development Code (UDC) Chapter 35, the COSA is required to consider the impact of ground disturbing activities to known or potential archaeological sites and/or deposits and to avoid or mitigate those effects. As such, the COSA Office of Historic Preservation (OHP) in coordination with COSA's Transportation and Capital Improvements (TCI), the agency managing the project, considered specific areas of concern that may likely contain intact archaeological features and deposits or features that are considered historical and culturally significant. The southern portion of the project lies within the Main and Military Plazas National Register Historic District, which was the primary focus of the archaeological monitoring reported here. This project was conducted under Texas Antiquities Permit No. 7816 issued to Dr. Paul Shawn Marceaux, the original Principal Investigator. Dr. Marceaux departed CAR in 2019. The permit was then transferred to Cynthia Munoz. Leonard Kemp served as the Project Archaeologist for the monitoring portion of the project and the testing of site 41BX2164. José Zapata served as the Project Archaeologist for the testing of site 41BX2170.

CAR archaeologists documented eight new archaeological sites, 32 features, and collected over 2,000 artifacts and samples. The CAR also documented the location of a portion of the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337), which was already listed as eligible for inclusion to the National Register of Historic Places (NRHP). The location of this portion of the San Pedro Acequia was updated using the online TexSite registry. In addition to these sites, in situ sections of wood block street pavers (Feature 22) were found in the 100 block of N. Main Avenue. Pavers were also recovered in the 100 block of Soledad Street, but they were not in their original context.

Of the eight new sites, the CAR recommends that two are eligible for inclusion to the NRHP and designation as Texas State Antiquities Landmarks (SALs). These sites are 41BX2164, associated with the Veramendi House, and 41BX2170, a site containing components from the Spanish Colonial and Republic of Texas periods. Site 41BX2170 also contained foundation remnants of the Wolfson Building, a nineteenth- and twentieth-century mercantile store. While both sites have been impacted by previous construction, they contained sufficient integrity to preserve intact deposits, which would add to the current understanding of these early periods of San Antonio's development. The CAR recommends that 41BX2164 and 41BX2170 are eligible for inclusion to the NRHP under Criterion D (36 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] 60.4). The CAR also recommends that 41BX2164 and 41BX2170 warrant SAL status because both sites can contribute to the knowledge of the Spanish Colonial Period and because they played a significant role in the history of Texas. The Texas Historical Commission (THC) and the COSA OHP concurred with these recommendations.

Five sites are recommended as not eligible for inclusion to the NRHP. These sites are 41BX2163 (San Antonio Streetcar System), 41BX2166 (Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon), 41BX2165 (Bexar County Courthouse), 41BX2202 (Devine Building), and 41BX2203. These five sites had been significantly impacted by previous construction that affected their integrity, and none contained features (e.g., a midden) or artifact assemblages that would increase our knowledge of the Spanish Colonial Period or the history of Texas. The THC and the COSA OHP concurred with these recommendations.

One site, 41BX2201, contained a Spanish Colonial-period wall and midden. The site was documented; however, no further testing was conducted. The CAR cannot determine the eligibility of the site to the NRHP based on the limited data collected. The CAR recommends that if the site is endangered by future impacts that the site be tested to determine its eligibility status. The THC and the COSA OHP concurred with this recommendation.

Artifacts collected from the project, as well as all project related documents and a copy of this report, are curated at the CAR facility. The facility is a state certified repository on the UTSA campus.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Leonard Kemp

From October 2016 through December 2017, The University of Texas at San Antonio's (UTSA) Center for Archaeological Research (CAR) conducted archaeological monitoring for the Downtown Street Reconstruction Project at North (N.) Main Avenue and Soledad Street (DTSR-Main/Soledad) under contract with Poznecki-Camarillo, Inc. (PCI) for the City of San Antonio (COSA). As a political subdivision under the Antiquities Code of Texas Section 191.003(4) and according to the Unified Development Code (UDC) Chapter 35, the COSA is required to consider the impact to known or potential archaeological sites and/or deposits and to avoid or mitigate those effects. The Texas Historical Commission (THC) granted Texas Antiquities Permit No. 7816 to Dr. Paul Shawn Marceaux, the original Principal Investigator, to conduct the project. Leonard Kemp served as the Project Archaeologist for the monitoring portion of the project. In addition to archaeological monitoring, the CAR conducted National Register of Historic Places (National Register or NRHP) and State Antiquities Landmark (SAL) testing of 41BX2164, the Veramendi site, and testing of 41BX2170, a Spanish Colonial-period site discovered during the project. The testing was conducted under the same permit with Dr. Paul Shawn Marceaux as the original Principal Investigator. Dr. Marceaux left CAR in 2019, and the permit was transferred to Cynthia Munoz. Leonard Kemp was the Project Archaeologist for the testing of 41BX2164, and José Zapata was the Project Archaeologist for the testing of 41BX2170.

Project Area and Area of Potential Effect

The DTSR-Main/Soledad project area (Figure 1-1) is located in downtown San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas, and includes those portions of Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue bound on the south by East Commerce Street and on the north by East Pecan Street. It encompasses 2.9 hectares (7.2 acres). Approximately one-third of the project area lies within the Main and Military Plaza National Register Historic District (NRHP No. 79002914). The goal of investigation was to monitor for archaeological features in that portion of the project area. Given that this area is in one of the oldest occupied sections of San Antonio, it was highly likely that archaeological sites, features, and/or artifacts would be found during construction activities. The COSA Office of Historic Preservation (OHP) in coordination with the COSA Transportation and Capital Improvements (TCI), the agency managing the project construction, considered specific areas of concern that may contain intact archaeological features and deposits or features that are considered historically and culturally significant. The areas identified by the OHP and

TCI defined the Area of Potential Effect (APE). Figure 1-1 shows the location of the APE. The APE on Soledad Street measures approximately 263 meters (m; 862.8 feet [ft.]) in length and varies from 2-24 m (6.5-78.7 ft.) in width for a total of 0.156 hectares (0.387 acres). The APE on N. Main Avenue measures approximately 151 m (495.4 ft.) in length and varies from 3-16 m (9.8-752.4 ft.) in width for a total of 0.142 hectares (0.351 acres).

The APE was predicated on construction activities that could impact possible archaeological deposits, but essentially, it was focused on the two blocks immediately north of East Commerce Street located within the Main and Military Plaza National Register Historic District. However, early in the project, the 200 block of Soledad Street between East Houston and East Travis streets was monitored when remnants of the San Antonio Streetcar System were discovered. Exclusive of the track remnants, the CAR did not monitor in this block during subsequent construction activities.

Project History

The DTSR-Main/Soledad project was funded through a voter-approved COSA bond passed in 2012. The project consisted of roadway reconstruction of Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue, including conversion from one-way to two-way traffic, the addition of bike lanes, and the reconstruction of sidewalks and other street amenities (COSA 2017). Supplementary project funds came from CPS Energy (CPS) and San Antonio Water System (SAWS) for the replacement of gas, water, and sewer utilities (COSA 2017). Additional ground disturbing activities included upgrading storm pipes and boxes, as well as laying electric conduits for streetlights. The overall goal of the project was to decrease traffic congestion, promote pedestrian activities, and, thereby, increase local business (COSA 2017). The project design was completed in June 2016 and construction began in October 2016 (COSA 2017).

The archaeological monitoring generally followed the service utilities excavation schedule beginning first on Soledad Street and following with N. Main Avenue. Storm drains were the last major infrastructure installed, and the final construction activity was street grading and replacement. Table 1-1 lists the archaeological monitoring grouped by street block, service utility, and period of activity.

Monitoring led to the recording and documentation of eight new archaeological sites. In addition to the eight sites, the

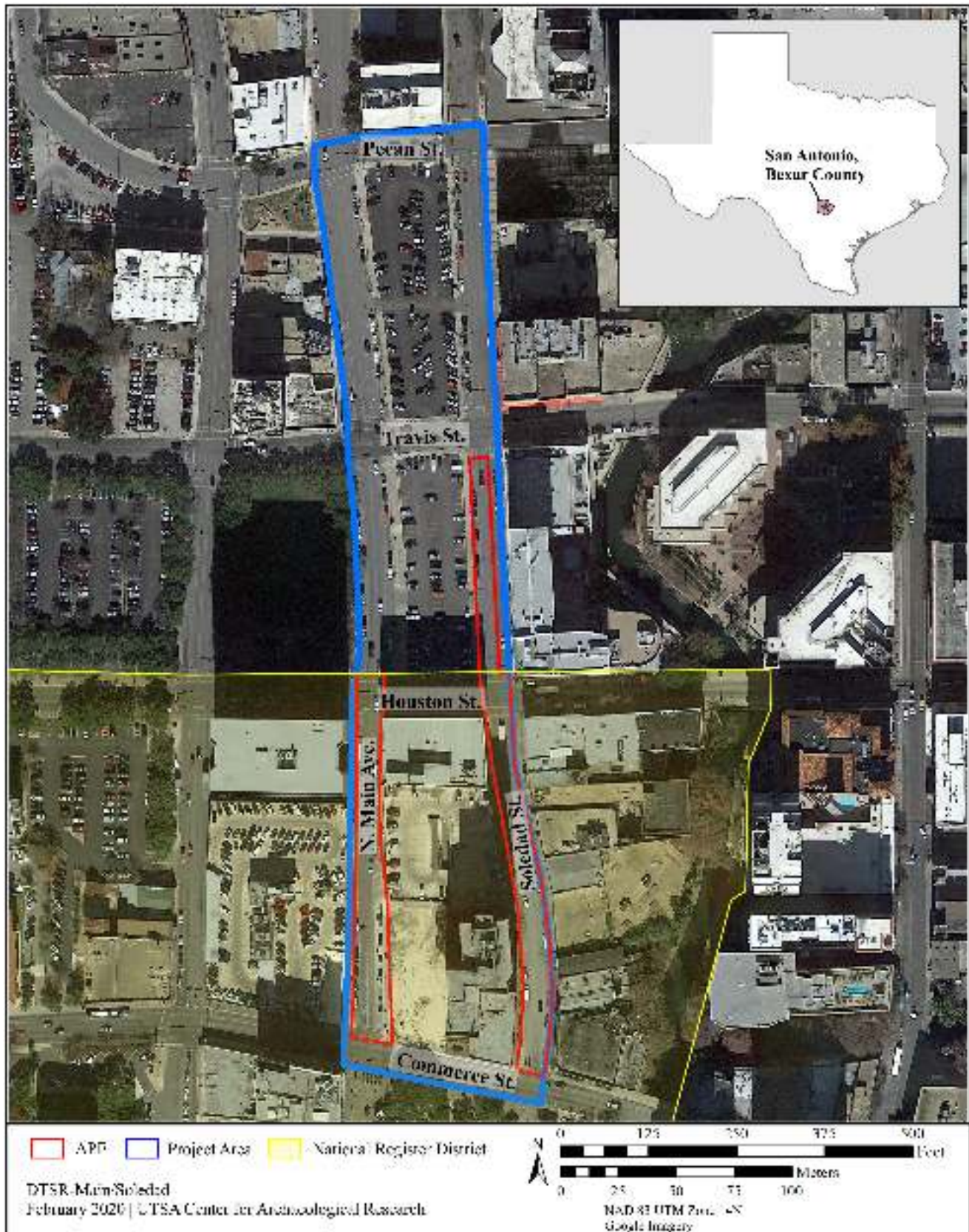


Figure 1-1. The DTSR-Main/Soledad APE (red), project area (blue), and the boundary of the Main and Military Plaza National Register Historic District (yellow) on a 2017 aerial of San Antonio.

discovery of the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337) in the 100 block of N. Main Avenue led to boundary revisions of this previously identified archaeological site. CAR archaeologists documented 32 features and collected over 2,000 artifacts and samples during the course of monitoring and testing (see Appendices B, C, and D for a full listing of cultural material).

The CAR followed guidelines established by National Register Bulletin (NRB) Number 15 (rev. 2002) to evaluate historic properties under Criteria A-D of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966 and its implementing regulations, 36 Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) Part 800, and the Antiquities Code of Texas (Natural Resources Code Title 9 Chapter 191 Subchapter D). The NHPA’s Criterion D is generally the most applicable to archaeological sites when determining eligibility. Criterion D states that archaeological sites are significant if they “have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history” (36 CFR 60.4). This criterion is particularly relevant when the remains of the resource is minimal or no longer visible, such as a foundation remnant, but the site itself contains links:

to human activity through events, processes, institutions, design, construction, settlement, migration, ideals, beliefs, lifeways, and other facets of the development or maintenance of cultural systems [NRB No. 15 (rev. 2002):22].

In all cases, the COSA OHP worked to preserve the identified feature. This resulted in numerous realignments of various utility installations throughout the project footprint in order to avoid and preserve features. When it was deemed impossible to avoid a feature and after consultation with the THC, the feature was documented as noted previously and removed in totality within the trench alignment or selected portions of it were removed in order to reach the necessary excavation grade. In some cases, like the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337), the impacted component was part of a larger site with the remaining portion of it preserved in place.

Five sites were determined to be ineligible to the NRHP based upon the lack of integrity and because none contained features (e.g., a midden) or artifact assemblages that would

increase the knowledge of the Spanish Colonial Period or the history of Texas. The eligibility status 41BX2201 could not be determined based solely on what was observed during monitoring. The features that constitute that site were left in situ. The CAR recommends that if site 41BX2201 might be impacted in the future that the site be monitored and tested to determine its eligibility status. The CAR conducted archaeological testing of the 41BX2164 (Veramendi site) and 41BX2170 (only the components from the Spanish Colonial and Republic of Texas periods and not the late nineteenth century Wolfson Building) to determine whether either site is eligible for inclusion to the NRHP and/or nomination as a SAL, as requested by the OHP and the THC. Testing determined that both sites contained archaeological data relevant to the development of Spanish Colonial San Antonio and that they retained sufficient integrity. The type and level of work associated with the discovery of these archaeological sites are listed in Table 1-2, as well as their National Register status or recommendation. The THC and the COSA OHP concurred with these recommendations.

In addition, trenching on N. Main Avenue revealed the presence of sections of wood block street pavers (Feature 22) found in situ in several areas. Wood block pavers were also found on Soledad Street; however, they were not found in their original context.

Report Organization

This report contains ten chapters and four appendices. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 provides a summary of the environmental setting of the region including the modern and historical climate of San Antonio, regional geology, soils, hydrology, and the historic flora and fauna. Chapter 3 reviews the culture history as it relates to the project area, and it lists past investigations and archaeological sites surrounding the project area. Chapters 4 and 5 present an in-depth historic context specific to the project area. Chapter 4 focuses on the development of San Antonio from its beginnings near the *presidio* (a military settlement) to its founding as an official *villa* (village) of New Spain. Chapter 5 begins after the Texas Revolution of 1836 and continues through to the present. These chapters describe the story of San Antonio’s transition from a frontier town to a modern city. Both chapters provide

Table 1-1. DTSR-Main/Soledad Archaeological Monitoring

Utility	100 Soledad St.	200 Soledad St.	100 N. Main Ave.
CPS Energy gas	October-December 2016	October 2016	January-May 2017
SAWS water	January-March 2017	n/a	April-May 2017
SAWS sewer	March 2017	n/a	n/a
COSA storm	n/a	n/a	June-July 2017
COSA streetlight	June 2017	n/a	n/a
COSA fiber optics	n/a	n/a	December 2017

Table 1-2. Findings of DTSR-Main/Soledad Archaeological Monitoring

Sites	Name or Description	Associated Feature(s)*	Level of Work	National Register Status or Recommendation
41BX337	San Pedro Acequia	25, 28	Documentation	Currently listed as Eligible
41BX2163	San Antonio Streetcar System	1	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2164	Veramendi House	19, 20, 21, 24, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33	Documentation and Testing	Recommended as Potentially Eligible
41BX2165	Bexar County Courthouse	16	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2166	Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon	2	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2170	de Niz/Wolfson Building	3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 26	Documentation and Testing	Recommended as Potentially Eligible
41BX2201	Spanish Colonial Wall and Midden	27	Documentation	Indeterminate due to Insuffi- cient Data
41BX2202	Devine Building	18	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2203	Second-hand store/ Salvation Army	23	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible

*Feature 4 was determined to be a non-feature during testing.

necessary background of sites and features discovered during the monitoring and testing phases of this project, as well as give the reader the historical significance of the project area. Chapter 6 describes the fieldwork, historical research, and laboratory methods used to complete the project. Chapter 7 provides the results of the archaeological monitoring with a complete account of the archaeological sites and features found during the project less two sites (41BX2170 and 41BX2164) that were further tested as recommended by OHP and the THC. Chapter 8 reports on the testing of 41BX2170, a Spanish Colonial-period site, to determine its National Register eligibility and SAL status. Chapter 9 reports on the monitoring and testing of 41BX2164, the Veramendi

site, to determine its National Register eligibility and SAL status. Chapter 10 summarizes the project and provides recommendations for each site's eligibility to the NRHP and as a SAL.

In support of this document, there are four appendices. Appendix A is a report on the Battle of Béxar that took place within the project area during the Texas Revolution. Appendix B lists the artifacts and samples collected during the monitoring phase of the project. Appendix C provides tables of artifacts collected during the eligibility testing of 41BX2164, the Veramendi site. Appendix D provides tables of artifacts collected during eligibility testing of 41BX2170.

Chapter 2: Environment, Climate, Geography, and Ecology

Leonard Kemp

This chapter begins with a brief description of the DTSR-Main/Soledad environmental setting and the modern and historical climate of the San Antonio region. It provides information on regional geology, soils, hydrology, and the historical flora and fauna of the area.

Environmental Setting

The DTSR-Main/Soledad project area is located in downtown San Antonio, Bexar County, Texas. The environmental setting of the area has changed significantly since the arrival of European explorers. As the city has grown, buildings and streets have been built, demolished, and replaced, but amid the constant change, the San Antonio River has remained a determining factor in its growth and development.

During the 1709 Espinosa-Olivares-Aguirre Entrada, the area consisted of a “luxuriant growth of trees, high walnuts, poplars, elms, and mulberries watered by a copious spring which rises near a populous ranchería of Indians of the tribe Siupan, Chaulaames, and some of the Sijames, numbering in all 500 persons, young and old” as documented in Espinosa’s diary (Chabot 1937:27). The Spaniards understood the importance of the river for creating a successful settlement:

The river, which is formed by this spring could supply not only a village but a city, which could easily be founded here because of the good ground and the many conveniences, and because of the shallowness of said river. This river not having been named by the Spaniards, we called it the river of San Antonio de Padua [Chabot 1937:27].

This idyllic description of what would become San Antonio differs significantly from the present with concrete sidewalks, asphalt streets, and multi-story buildings that characterize this urban area. The 100 block of Soledad Street can be described as a mixture of nineteenth- and twentieth-century buildings with government and business offices, restaurants, and a parking garage (Figure 2-1). The area is in the process of transformation with the building of a new hotel (where the Solo Serve Building once stood), renovation of the Soledad Block Building, and the creation of another hotel from the remodeling of unused historical buildings. The 100 block of N. Main Avenue is a mix of early and late-twentieth-century buildings that includes parking garages, Frost Tower (1975), a fast-food restaurant housed in the historic Adelman Building, and a large vacant lot where the Wolfson Building once stood (Figure 2-2).

Climate

The modern environment of the San Antonio region has a moderated subtropical humid climate with generally cool winters and hot summers (Norwine 1995; Taylor 1991). The average annual temperature in San Antonio for a 30-year period (1981-2010) was 20.8 °C (69.5 °F) based on meteorological data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA 2017). The warmest months are July and August, and the coolest months are December and January. Average annual rainfall amounts to 81.86 centimeters (cm; 32.27 inches [in.]) for the same 30-year period. Yearly rainfall is greatest in May and June with smaller spikes occurring in September and October. The driest period occurs from winter to early spring in the months of December through March with less than 5.08 cm (2 in.) of rain on average. During the summer months of July and August, there is a significant decrease in precipitation and an increase in evaporation rates, which causes stress on both plants and animals (Riskind and Diamond 1986).

While the modern precipitation data suggests moderate rainfall, a longer time scale suggests otherwise. Meteorological data from San Antonio beginning in 1900 and continuing to 1990 suggests the region’s climate is highly variable with periodic droughts as measured by the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI). The PDSI developed by Palmer (1965) is a relative measure of drought intensity, duration, and regional extent based upon precipitation, temperature, and local soil moisture with values ranging -6 (extreme drought) to +6 (extreme wet spell; NOAA 2017). Figure 2-3 shows the summer PDSI for the San Antonio region from 1900 to 1990. It shows that drought (defined as $x \leq -1$) occurred 40.6 percent ($n=37$ years) of the time, and periods of increased moisture occurred 32.9 percent ($n=30$ years) of the time. Droughts lasting longer than one year tend to have a cumulative effect on productivity, whether it be wild resources or agricultural and livestock production. During this 91-year period, the region experienced one 2-year drought, two 3-year droughts, two 4-year droughts, and one 7-year drought. The historic 1950s drought was the most severe in both scale (7 years) and magnitude with a mean PDSI value of -3.6 (severe drought) and 2 years having values ≤ -4 (extreme drought).

Tree-ring data can provide a means to reconstruct past climate and can provide explanation for historical events (Cook et al. 2008; see also Cook et al. 2004; Cook et al. 1999; Mauldin 2003; Mauldin et al. 2015; Stahle et al. 1998). The North American Drought Index developed by Cook et al. (2008)



Figure 2-1. View to the north of the 100 block of Soledad Street in October 2016. The parking garage between the Riverview Tower and the Rand Building on the left side of the image is obscured. A large portion of Riverview Tower is leased to the COSA.

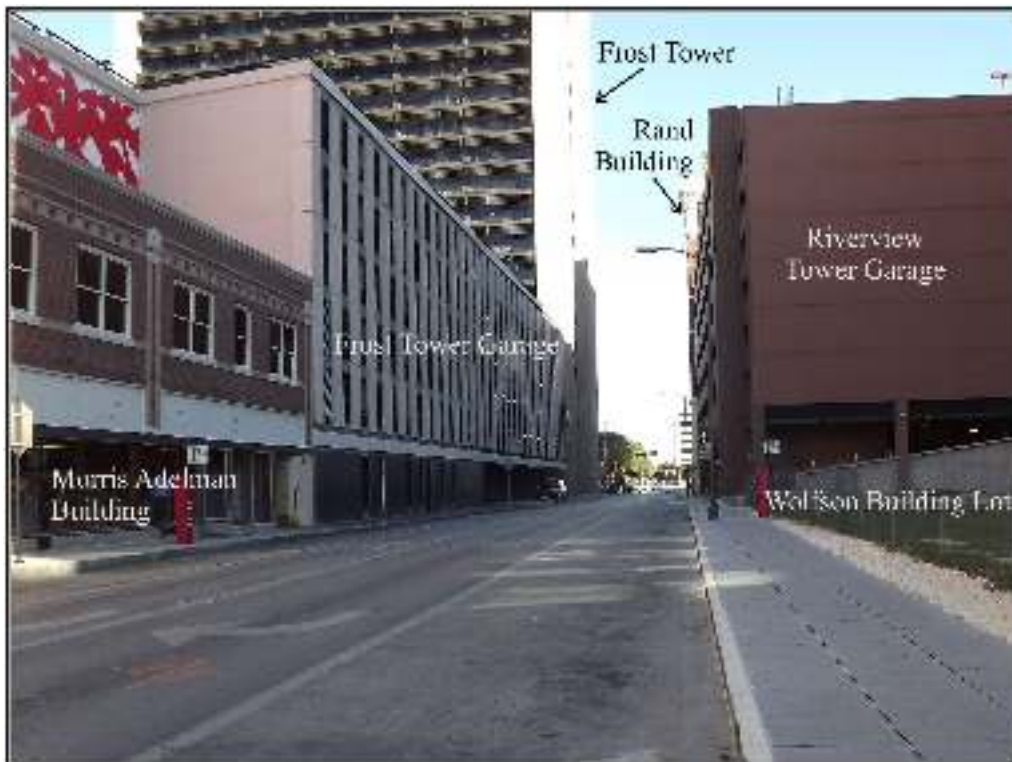


Figure 2-2. View to the north of the 100 block of N. Main Avenue in October 2016.

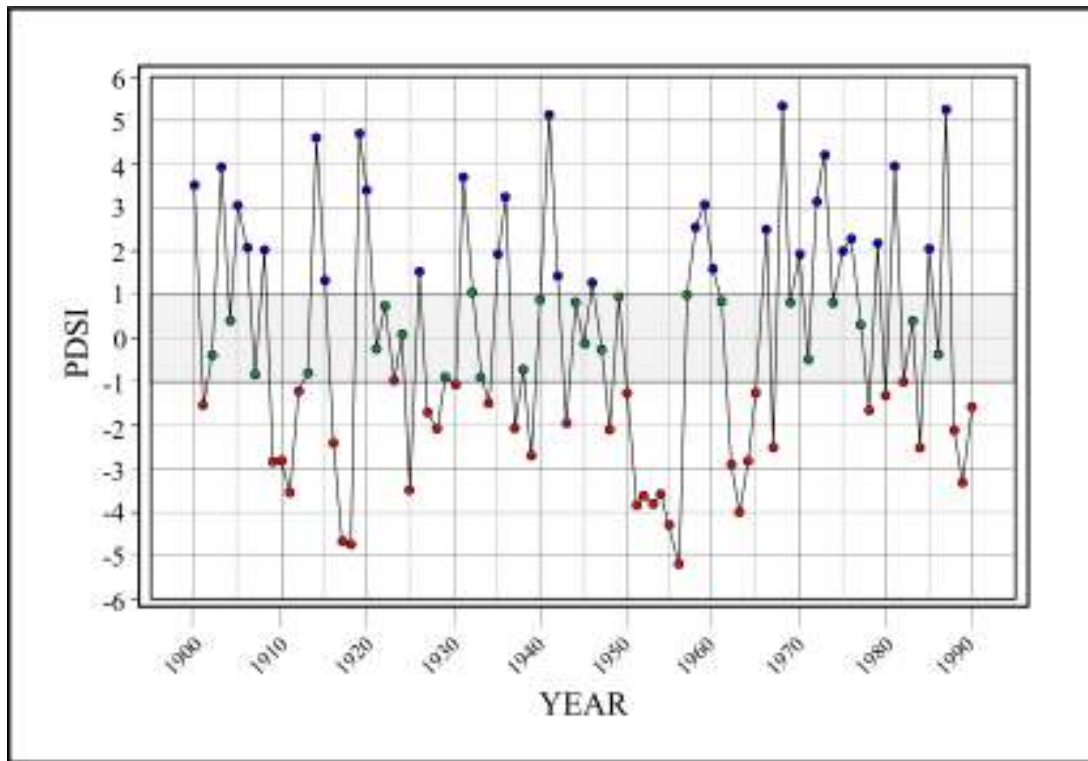


Figure 2-3. The PDSI values of the San Antonio region (1900-1990). Green dots signify average PDSI values within the gray band with blue and red dots indicating above average moisture and drought conditions, respectively.

standardized the tree-ring width of 835 tree-ring chronological individual specimens correlated to weather station data (between the years 1928 to 1978) to reconstruct the metric of summer PDSI for an approximately 2,000-year period. A point-by-point regression model was then applied to 286 grid points overlaying Canada, the United States, and Mexico with the assumption that the tree-ring chronology closest to that grid point was the truest to the drought conditions.

An initial study by Mauldin (2003; Mauldin et al. 2015) using an earlier data set developed by Cook et al. (1999) found that San Antonio (1700 to 1899) often experienced short-term droughts (defined as lasting only a year), droughts of two years were less frequent, and long-term droughts (defined as 3 years in length or greater) seldom. The present study builds off this work using the expanded 27 tree-ring chronologies to characterize the summer PDSI from AD 1600 to 1899 (Figure 2-4). It defines normal conditions as being between +.99 to -.99, drought as beginning at -1 and wetter than normal conditions at +1. At a 100-year scale, drought happened more often in the eighteenth century (41 percent or 41 years) than the sixteenth century (35 percent or 35 years) or the nineteenth century (27 percent or 27 years). Conversely, both the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries had a greater number of normal years and wetter than normal years than the eighteenth century.

Table 2-1 shows the number of consecutive years of drought for the three centuries. Two-year droughts are most common and are similar in number for the three centuries. Three-year droughts are similar in number with the eighteenth century having the most (n=3). Four-year droughts are relatively uncommon during the 300-year span with the eighteenth century having the most (n=3). The first four-year drought occurred during 1714-1717 and was followed immediately by an increased period of moisture beginning in 1718 and lasting to 1721. A second four-year drought began in 1728 with increased moisture in 1732 and normal conditions the following two years. By far, the worst period of drought was the third four-year drought (1775-1778) that was within a 10-year period that began with a two-year drought in 1772 and a second two-year drought in 1780.

Both historical and proxy climate data suggest that the region is prone to droughts that are often severe in magnitude and length. These droughts are usually followed by normal or wetter than normal years, sometimes several years in length. In part, the cycle is related to global climate phenomena, known as the La Niña and El Niño oscillations (Philander 1990). La Niña is characterized by cold ocean temperatures in the Equatorial Pacific, and El Niño is characterized by warmer ocean temperatures. Both shift global circulation, temperature, and moisture patterns with La Niña producing

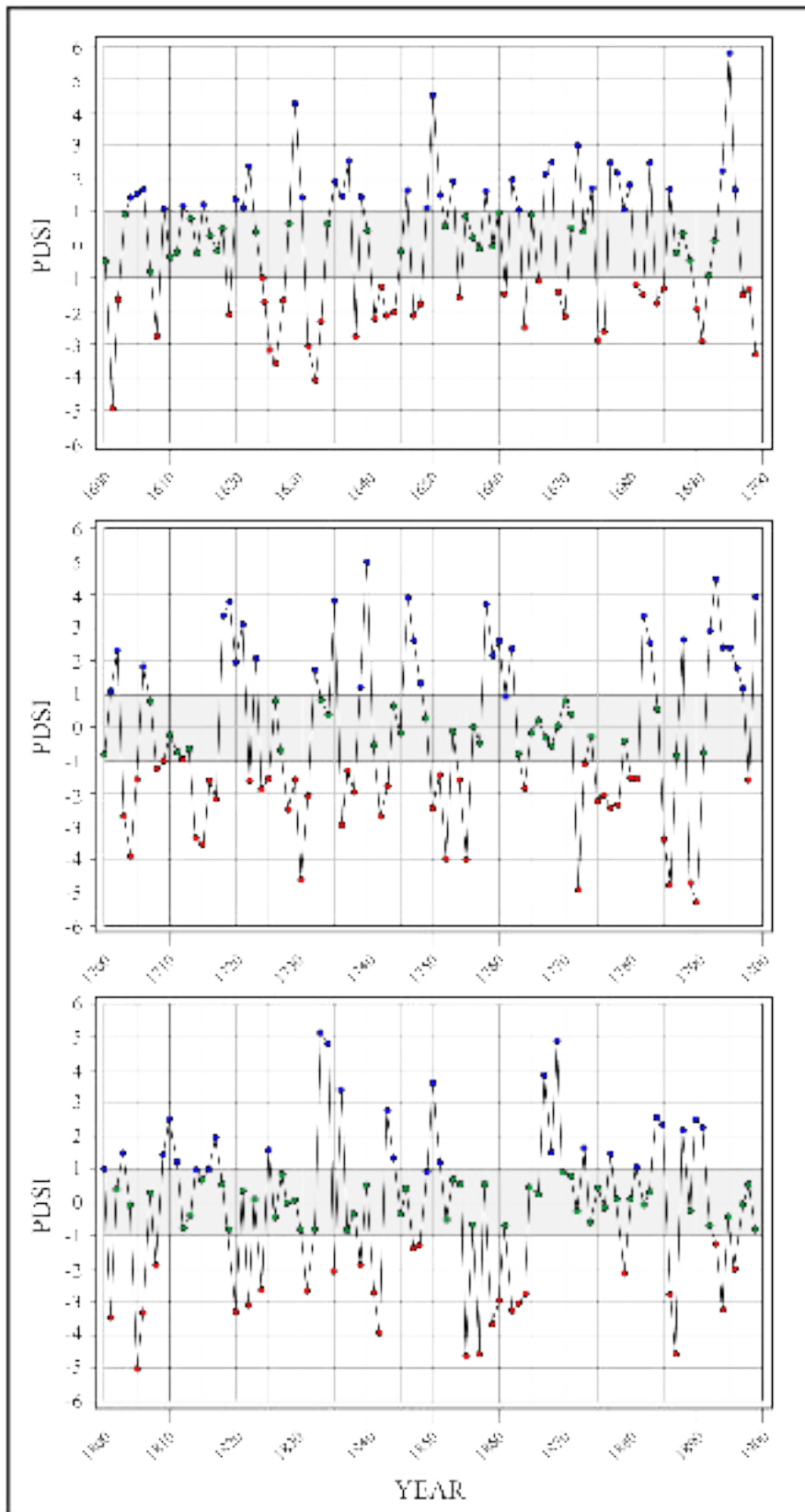


Figure 2-4. The PDSI values of the San Antonio region (1600-1899). Green dots signify average PDSI values within the gray band with blue and red dots indicating above average moisture and drought conditions, respectively.

Table 2-1. Number of Drought Periods and Type* within the San Antonio Region

Years	Number of Periods	Type	Years
1600 to 1699	7	2-year drought	1601-1602, 1647-1648, 1669-1670, 1675-1676, 1681-1682, 1684-1685, 1690-1691
	2	3-year drought	1631-1633, 1697-1699
	1	4-year drought	1624-1627
	1	5-year drought	1641-1645
1700 to 1799	8	2-year drought	1708-1709, 1724-1725, 1742-1743, 1754-1755, 1772-1773, 1780-1781, 1785-1786, 1789-1790
	3	3-year drought	1703-1705, 1736-1738, 1750-1752
	3	4-year drought	1714-1717, 1728-1731, 1775-1778
1800 to 1899	6	2-year drought	1805-1806, 1841-1842, 1847-1848, 1859-1860, 1886-1887, 1893-1894
	1	3-year drought	1862-1864

*Type is defined by length in years

warmer and dryer conditions and El Niño producing cooler and wetter conditions in the southern United States during the winter and spring months (Philander 1990).

During the summer and fall months, the proximity of San Antonio to the arid environment to the west and a moisture rich environment to the southeast can produce long spells of little to no moisture or extreme moisture events. The world’s arid zones are generally located at 30° latitude both north and south of the equator (Wallen 1966). These arid zones are formed by prolonged high-pressure systems that tend to block the development of moisture-laden storms (Wallen 1966:31-33).

San Antonio is also close to the Gulf of Mexico, where severe storms, including hurricanes, will develop in the late summer and fall. These storms can produce extreme rainfall events leading to localized or regional flooding depending on the severity and longevity of the storm system. In South and Central Texas, heavy rain events are not uncommon, and ironically, flooding often follows episodes of drought. Ellsworth (1923) records 11 flood events from July 1819 to September 1921. The September 1921 flood was the worst flood prior to the construction of major flood controls in San Antonio, with 51 lives lost and damages in excess of \$3,000,000 (Ellsworth 1923:1). Figure 2-5 (left) shows the extent of flooding in San Antonio and the convergence of the San Antonio River and San Pedro Creek inundating downtown. A photograph (Figure 2-5, right) shows the high-water mark at St. Mary’s Catholic Church, estimated at 6.2-foot deep (Ellsworth 1923). The church was so badly damaged that it had to be rebuilt. Ellsworth (1923) cites an article by Rev. Eugene Sugraves (*San Antonio Express*, September 18,

1921) who described the Flood of July 5, 1819, as equal to/or greater than the 1921 Flood. According to Sugraves (1921), the cemetery of San Fernando was 5 feet under water with many homes surrounding Main and Military Plazas washed away or severely damaged.

Physical Geography

Two soils are found in the project area (Figure 2-6, right). The first is the silty clay loam Tinn-Frio soils, 0 to 1 percent slopes, frequently flooded series located along Soledad Street adjacent to San Antonio River (Natural Resources Conservation Service [NRCS] 2017). The second is the Branyon clay series, 0 to 1 percent slopes located along N. Main Avenue. This soil type is associated with stream terraces and is considered prime farmland (NRCS 2017).

The physical geography of Bexar County is related to its underlying geologic structure (Arnow 1963). A simplified geological map (Figure 2-6, left) of the county, modified from Arnow (1963) and the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS 2014), shows the general location of the project area in Quaternary period fluvial (Qt) deposits characterized by limestone and dolomite gravels (Barnes 1983).

A portion of the Edwards Plateau lies in the northern section of Bexar County. The Edwards Plateau is characterized by faults, porous limestone, sinkholes, and caves, which allow rainwater to filter into an underground water reservoir known as the Edwards Aquifer. It is the major water-bearing formation in the county and the source of many springs and

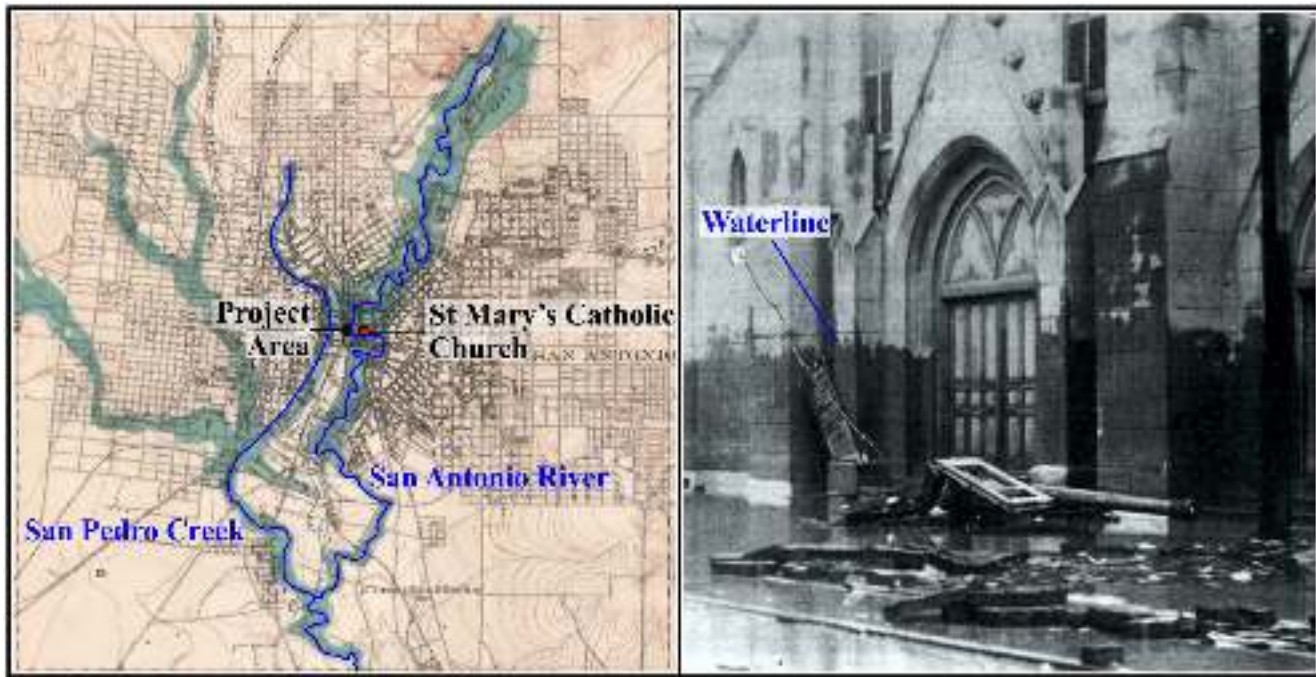


Figure 2-5. Map (Ellsworth 1923) showing extent of flooding with the project area and St. Mary's Catholic Church. Photograph (right) of St. Mary's Catholic Church following the 1921 flood; note the debris and high-water mark (UTSA General Photograph Collection 080-0134).

creeks within the region (Arnow 1963). The Edwards Plateau is drained by numerous rain-fed creeks, such as Cibolo and Balcones creeks. In addition, the headwaters of Culebra, Leon, and Salado creeks begin in this zone. The plateau is characterized by rock outcrops, barren bedrock, and bedrock covered by very shallow soils (Arnow 1963). High quality chert nodules and lenticular chert beds are found within this zone (Arnow 1963).

Immediately north of the project area are Upper Cretaceous Austin Chalk and Pecan Gap Chalk, Buda Limestone, and Anacacho Limestone. This is a highly faulted area and forms a portion of the Balcones Escarpment that divides the Edwards Plateau from the Texas Coastal Plains (Arnow 1963; Taylor et al. 1991). The Escarpment is also the recharge zone of the Edwards Aquifer. Water from the aquifer flows in a generally northeastern direction until it discharges as springs and artesian wells within the eastern portion of the Escarpment. In Bexar County, the major springs are the San Antonio, the San Pedro, the Selma, and the Salado springs (Brune 1975). Historical accounts state that both the San Antonio and the San Pedro springs flowed continuously, but, beginning in the late nineteenth century, these springs were tapped as a water source for the growing San Antonio population resulting in significantly diminished flow (Brune 1975).

The San Antonio River and San Pedro Creek lie 50 m east and 250 m west of the project area, respectively (Figure 2-6, right). Both begin as springs with water sourced from the

Edwards Aquifer. San Pedro Creek converges with the San Antonio River just south of the project area (3.85 kilometers [km]; 2.89 miles). Following the 1921 flood, the river was extensively modified with cutoff channels that eliminated river bends and moved water through downtown faster (Figure 2-6, right). Farther south past the convergence of San Pedro Creek and the San Antonio River, the river was channelized in the late 1950s by the U.S Army Corps of Engineers (USACE).

Ecoregions

Gould et al. (1960) divide Bexar County into four ecoregions, with the project area lying within the Blackland Prairie, a former tall grass prairie with deep clayey soils that stretched from Canada to Texas (Figure 2-7). The Blackland Prairie is the largest of the ecoregions, encompassing 1,724 km² (665 square miles), or approximately 52.9 percent of the county. The remaining 793 km² (306 square miles) or approximately 24.3 percent lies in the Edwards Plateau and comprises the northern portion of the county. Grasses with live oak, mesquite, and juniper characterize the vegetation of the Edwards Plateau. The southern portion of the county contains two ecoregions, the South Texas Plains and the Post Oak Savannah. The vegetation of the arid South Texas Plains consists of grasslands dominated by thorny brush and cacti. The Post Oak Savannah is a transitional zone characterized by patches of oak woodlands and scattered prairie grasslands. These two regions comprise 738 km² (284 sq. miles) or 22.6 percent of the county.

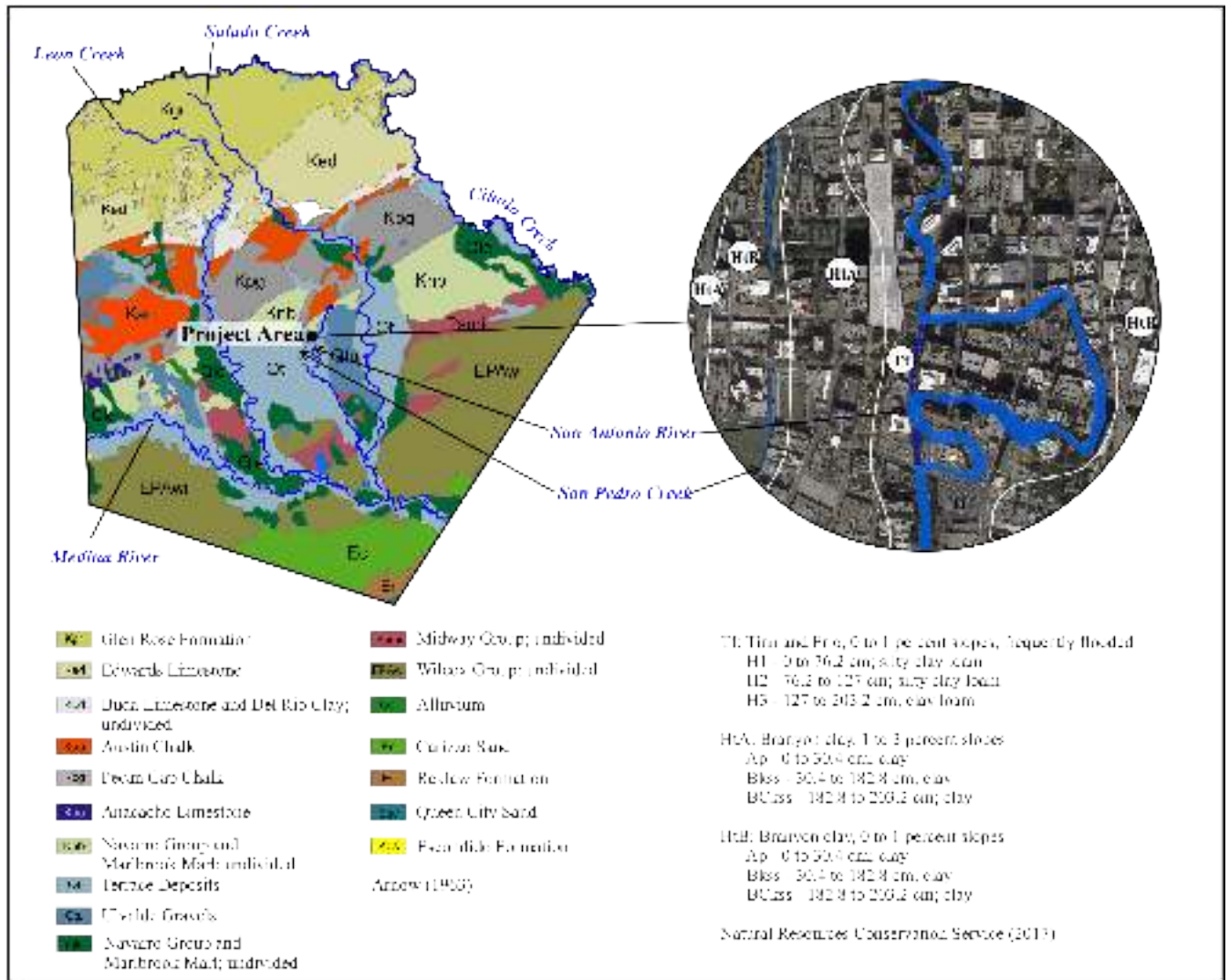


Figure 2-6. The geology of Bexar County (left) with major rivers and creeks (Mauldin et al. 2015; see also Arnow 1963; NRCS 2017). On the right is an aerial image showing soils found in the project area and the course of the San Antonio River prior to the construction of the cutoff of the river bend.

Due to its ecological diversity, the San Antonio region has been populated throughout the prehistoric and historical periods. During the prehistoric period, the region supported abundant wildlife such as bison, deer, bear, and rabbit (see Presley 2003 for a summary of prehistoric sites with faunal remains in Bexar County). In addition to these animals, wild turkey, alligator, and fish are referenced in early Spanish accounts (Wade 1998, 2003). During the historical period, the wildlife population diminished, but it was still a contributing component of human diet into the mid-nineteenth century (Doughty 1983).

The early explorers also noted the wealth of plant resources available including various oak species, mesquite, elm, willow, cottonwood, walnut, pecan, and hickory, with the latter three providing edible nuts for consumption (Jones

2005). Native American foodstuffs found in the region included prickly pear, wild sweet potato, blackberry, mulberry, and persimmon (Jones 2005). The modern growing season for Bexar County averages 245 to 275 days with the frost-free period extending from March to December based on topography and elevation, making it ideal to plant at least two crops (Taylor et al. 1991). From the beginning of colonization until the early twentieth century, land in Texas was devoted to farming and/or ranching. Settlers would first plant corn that provided for themselves and their livestock followed by beans, oats, melons, and other fruits and vegetables in the prime farmlands of the Blackland Prairie ecoregion (de la Teja 1988). To facilitate production, the Spanish constructed an *acequia* (irrigation system) to supply water to crops and homesteads (de la Teja 1995). After pacification of Native American groups, private ranching became feasible with

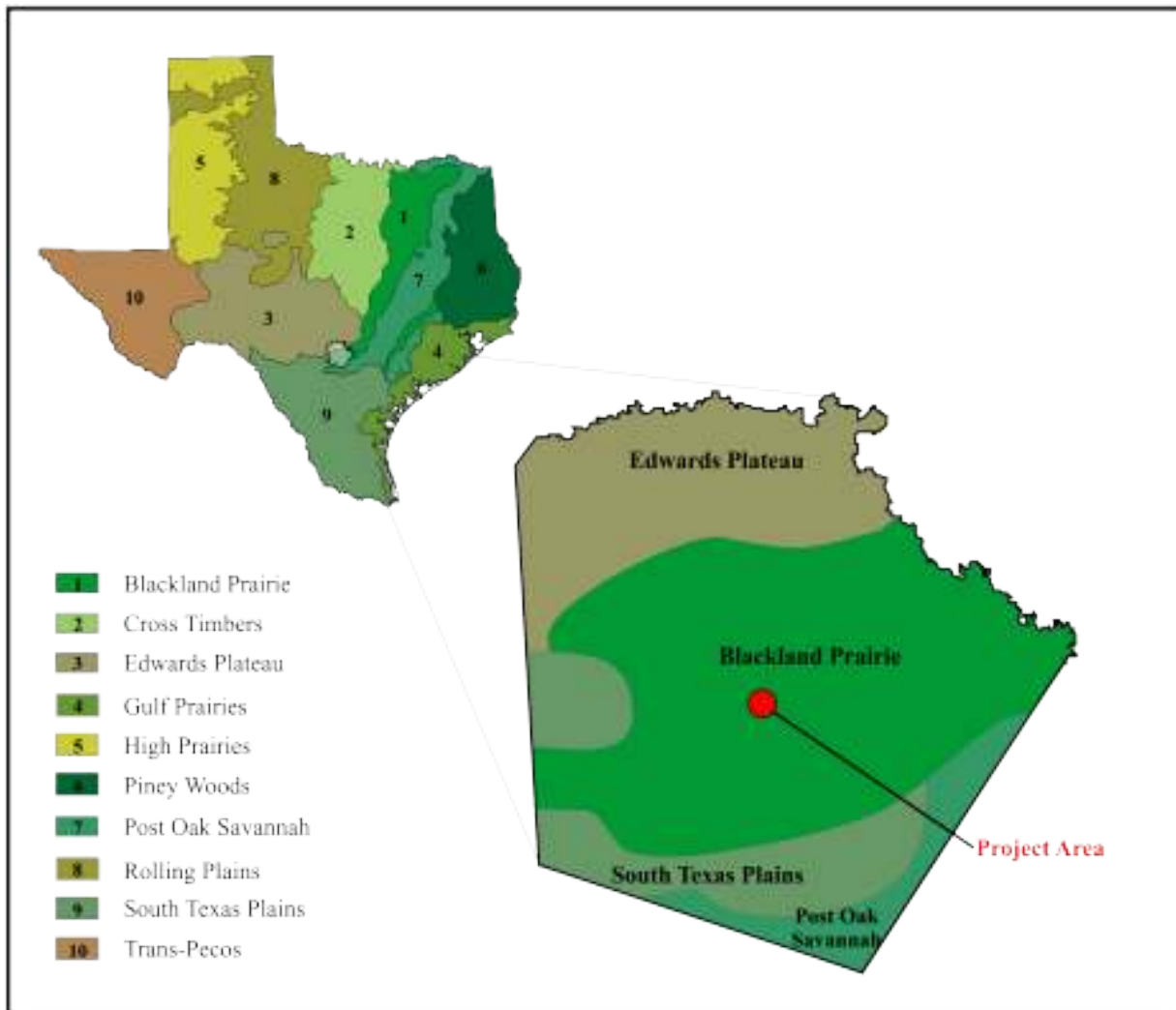


Figure 2-7. Bexar County is located at the convergence of four major ecoregions as defined by Gould et al. (1960).

historical ranches of cattle and goat located in the Edwards Plateau, South Texas Plains, and Post Oak Savannah of Bexar County (de la Teja 1995).

Summary

The project area is located within an urban area directly north of Main Plaza in San Antonio, Texas. It was settled, in part, due to the proximity of the waters of the San Antonio River and San Pedro Creek, which attracted wildlife and plants that sustained the Native American population. During Spanish colonization, Espinosa described the abundant resources of the San Antonio region, including the water sources, as a reason for settlement.

The region has moderate rainfall, productive soils, and a long growing season that could provide subsistence resources to serve mobile and/or small populations. This scenario is tempered by the periodic droughts that occur within the region, as documented by modern and reconstructed rainfall data. In addition, the region can experience extreme flooding events. Both drought and flooding conditions could have impacted the viability of the living population, whether they were hunter-gatherers or early colonists, by reducing or destroying food resources. The effect of drought and flooding may help explain why the population of San Antonio did not grow substantially until the advent of modern transportation infrastructure, which could mitigate regional conditions by supplementing the available food resources.

Chapter 3: Cultural Historical Background

Leonard Kemp and Clinton M. M. McKenzie

This chapter presents a culture history of San Antonio and Texas to provide a general background for the DTSR-Main/Soledad project area. Typically, a review of the culture history begins with an account of the Prehistoric Period; however, due to the small number of prehistoric artifacts found during monitoring, this chapter focuses on the Historical Period. The interested reader may consult a comprehensive review of San Antonio's prehistory in Munoz et al. (2011) and Mauldin et al. (2015). More in depth reviews of San Antonio's historical period can be found in a variety of sources (see Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; de la Teja 1988, 1995; de la Teja and Wheat 1985; Kenmotsu and Boyd, eds. 2012; Montejano 2006; McDonald 2010; McKenzie et al. 2016; Ramos 2008; Tijerina 1994; Wade 2003).

The Historical Period is divided into the Protohistoric Period (circa 1500-late 1600s), the Colonial Period (late 1600s-1821), the Mexican and Republic of Texas Period (1821-1845), and the Texas Statehood Period (1845-circa 1950). This chapter concludes with a section on past projects, archaeological sites, and relevant historical markers in or adjacent to the project area.

Protohistoric Period (ca. 1500-Late 1600s)

The Protohistoric Period encompasses the cultural dynamics of Native American groups in Central and South Texas and the "discoveries" and colonization of this region by Europeans (Wade 2003). The first Spanish documentation of the interior of pre-Hispanic Texas was a report written by Alvar Nuñez Cabaza de Vaca to the Real Audencia de Santo Domingo documenting the eight-year journey (1528-1536) he, Andrés Dorantes de Carranza, Alonso del Castillo Maldonado, and the Moorish slave Estevanico had through South Texas and Northern Mexico (Krieger, ed. 2002). The Robinson Crusoe-like journey was a result of the Pánfilo de Narváez expedition's attempt to colonize Florida. The expedition failed due to persistent Native American attacks, disease, and starvation. The remnants of the expedition, numbering 242 men, attempted to return to Mexico by sailing west along the Gulf coastline. They were met by storms, attacks, starvation, and disease, resulting in the survival of only the above-mentioned three Spaniards and the enslaved Estevanico (Krieger, ed. 2002:25).

The *Real Audencia de Santo Domingo* provides the first descriptions of the Native American groups of South Texas, as well as the environments of this part of Texas (Hickerson

1994; see also Campbell 1986; Krieger 2002). However, the historical record of the interaction between Native American groups and colonists as a whole is often missing, incomplete, and/or muddled by bias (Collins 2004; Wade 1998, 2003). Recent scholarship has begun a process to rectify this situation to provide a more full and inclusive account of this period (Fox 1999, see also Barr 2007; Collins 1999; Wade 1998, 2003; Walters 2000).

While the Native American groups of Central and South Texas are often characterized as small, kin-based groups of nomadic, hunter-gatherer groups (Collins 2004; Wade 1998, 2003), the historical record suggests the aggregation of large multi-ethnic groups (Collins 2004; Wade 1998, 2003). If the historical record is correct, at least two causes may account for this dynamic. The first is the Apache migration from the north and Spanish colonization of Northern Mexico in the south, which may have caused less powerful Native groups to come together for defensive purposes (Collins 2004; Wade 1998, 2003). The second possible cause is the role of bison among Native American groups (Collins 2004; Wade 1998, 2003). Bison were a significant resource not only for the large quantity of meat they provided but also for the many products that could be derived from the animal. The hunt for bison fostered interactions between Native American groups and served as a mechanism for creating social ties through alliances and marriage, as well as trade (Wade 2003). Hunting territories were defined by land and season with shared access serving as a point of negotiation between Native American groups and the Spanish (Wade 2003).

Spanish Colonial Period (Late 1600s-1821)

Initially, the area known as Texas, while claimed as part of the Spanish Colonial North American Empire, was only peripheral to the colonial interest of Spain, which focused on the conquest of present-day New Mexico and the exploitation of resources in the present-day states of northern Mexico (Casteñada 1936b; Chipman 1992). It was not until the French asserted claims in the late 1600s in what is now called East Texas and Louisiana that the area became of concern to the Spanish. The Spanish response resulted in an *entrada*, or exploratory expedition, to find La Salle's short-lived French settlement of Fort St. Louis (41VT4) in 1685 (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). After four years, the Spanish found the abandoned settlement that had already had been destroyed by hunger, disease, and hostilities between the French and Native American groups (Chipman

1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). In 1690 and 1691, the Spanish established two missions, Mission San Francisco de los Tejas and Santísimo Nombre de María, in East Texas to counter the French incursions and to proselytize the Hasinai Caddo (Bannon 1974; Chipman and Joseph 2010). Neither mission was successful. Both closed by 1693, halting Spanish Missionization of Texas (Bannon 1974; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Fox et al. 2002).

In 1699, the Spanish developed the San Juan Bautista mission and *presidio* complex near the modern city of Guerrero, Coahuila (Wade 2003; Weddle 1991), which would become the operational base acting as a supply depot and military reserve for the colonization of Texas. The first major expedition to “discover” the area that would become San Antonio was that of Franciscan padres Isidro Félix de Espinosa and Antonio San Buenaventura y Olivares and Captain Pedro de Aguirre in 1709 (Casteñada 1936b; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Tous 1930a). They traveled along the San Antonio and Colorado rivers in an attempt to establish a relationship with the Caddo nations (Chipman 1992). In 1714, a French explorer and soldier named Louis Juchereau de Saint-Denis arrived in San Juan Bautista to establish trade with the Spanish (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Tous 1930b). In 1716, the Spanish, led by Domingo Ramón and accompanied by Saint-Denis, established six missions and a *presidio* in East Texas (Tous 1930b).

In 1718, Martín de Alarcón, the commander of Presidio San Francisco de Coahuila and governor of the province of Texas, led an expedition that would establish the Presidio de Béxar and Villa de Béxar near San Pedro Springs (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; de la Teja 1995; Hoffman 1935, 1938; Ivey 2008), and he concurrently established Mission San Antonio de Valero near the Alarcón settlement. Both entities were moved to their final locations by 1724. The *presidio* was on the west bank of the San Antonio River, and Mission Valero was on the east bank of the river.

In 1719, the Spanish abandoned East Texas after confrontations with the French, but within two years the Spanish led by José de Azlor y Vítro de Vera, Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo, Governor and Captain-General of the Province of Coahuila and Texas reestablished control of the area (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). Aguayo recommended that the Spanish Crown provide civilian families to consolidate Spain’s control of the province. In 1720, Mission San José y San Miguel de Aguayo was built approximately three leagues from Mission Valero on the east bank of the San Antonio River. Mission San José was moved three times before its final location (Habig 1968; Scurlock et al. 1976). During an inspection of the frontier (1724-1729), Brigadier Pedro de Rivera y Villón recommended the relocation of three missions from East Texas to San Antonio. In San Antonio, they were

renamed Nuestra Señora de la Purísima Concepción de Acuña (1731-1824), San Juan Capistrano (1731-1824), and San Francisco de la Espada (1731-1824; Habig 1968). In 1731, 15 families and four single men (56 individuals) from the Canary Islands (Isleños) arrived with authorization to found the Villa San Fernando de Béxar (de la Teja 1995:18-19). The Canary Islanders were granted titles, compensation, land, and livestock from the Crown for their immigration.

The Menchaca map of 1764 (Figure 3-1) shows the location of the *presidio*, the *villa*, and the five missions relative to each other and to the San Antonio River and San Pedro Creek. The map defines what was to become the community of San Antonio from the headwaters of the San Antonio River to Mission Espada encompassing approximately 10 linear miles. The most significant hindrance to the growth and relative prosperity of the community was its relationship with Native American groups. The Menchaca Map (Figure 3-1) shows the *presidio* and *villa* with armed soldiers located to guard against the Entrada de los Yndios Enemigos (Entrance of the Indian Enemies). The missions were self-sustaining pueblos (towns) and tried to incorporate a diverse variety of Native American groups. However, some groups like the Apache and the Norteños (a group including the Tonkawa and the Comanche) rejected this objective and instead challenged Spanish authority. Apache groups harassed the San Antonio settlement as early as 1721 (Wade 2003). For the next 80 years, the Apache had ongoing conflicts with Béxar and other settlements in Texas. Attacks by Apache between 1720-1726 and 1731-1749 forced Native American groups to seek protection within the missions, fostering the mission’s most intense period of growth (Wade 2003).

The colonization of San Antonio was made feasible by three interdependent institutions led by the Spanish Crown: the mission, the *presidio*, and the *villa*. The goals of the mission were to pacify, Christianize, and ultimately create a peasant class of Hispanicized laborers from Native American groups (Lightfoot 2005). The *presidio* was the military component that provided security and helped to establish the means to govern, enforce laws, and collect tariffs and taxes. The economic foundation of the colony was the civilian settlers, including the farmers, merchants, skilled tradesmen, and later, the ranchers. The success of the settlement ultimately relied on its ability to be self-sustainable through crop and livestock production (Almaraz 1989; de la Teja 1988, 1995; Figueroa and Tomka 2009). Corn and beans were the dominant crops, with the former providing sustenance to settlers and livestock (de la Teja 1988, 1995).

During the early *entradas*, cattle and horses were introduced to Texas and allowed to roam freely (Jackson 2010). Individual settlers often owned some livestock for subsistence, however,

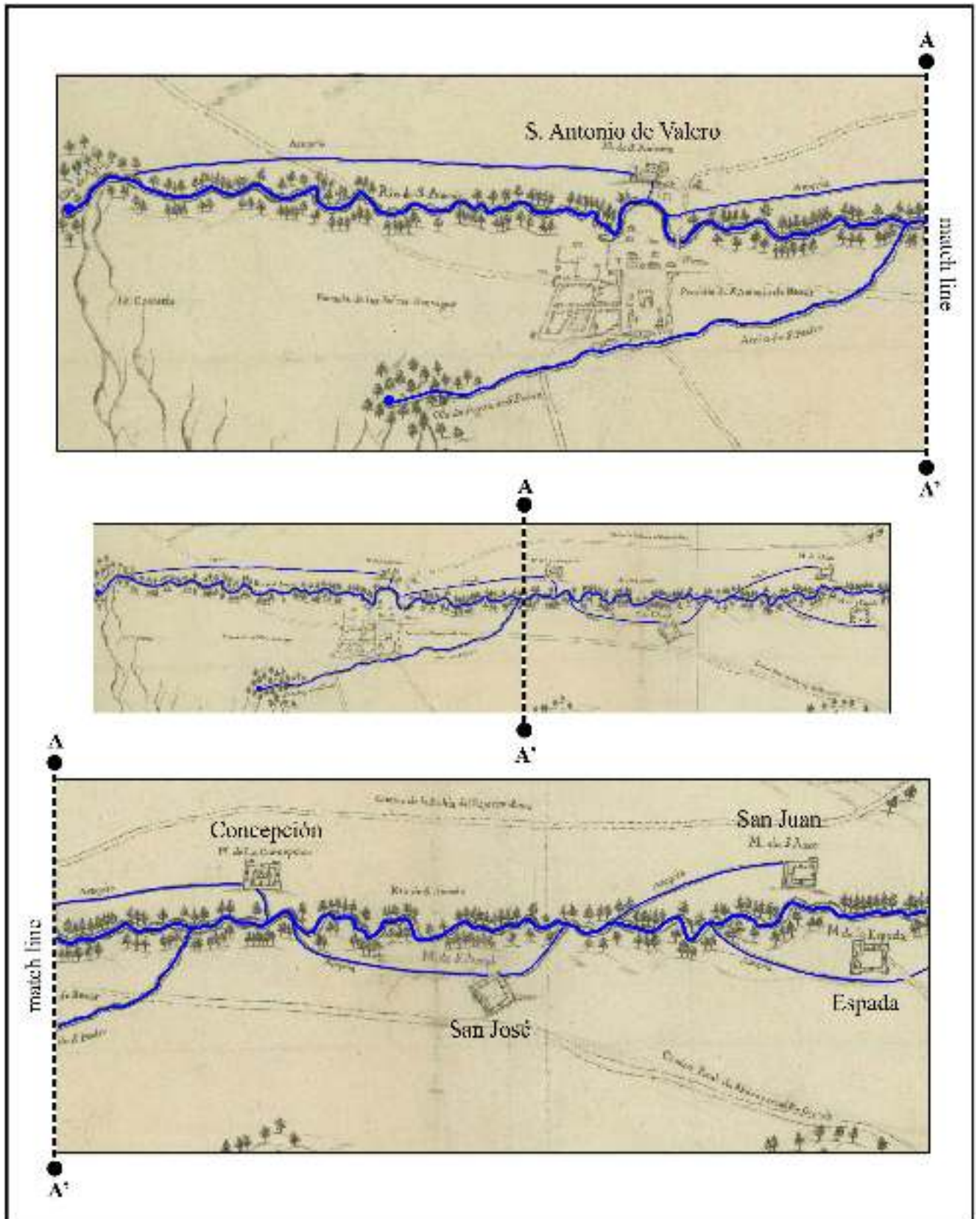


Figure 3-1. The 1764 Menchaca Map of San Antonio, annotated and with waterways enhanced (John Carter Brown Library at Brown University).

large scale ranching was initially the prerogative of the missions (de la Teja 1988, 1995). The missions were granted large tracts of land to graze cattle and horses. The missions were also able to provide free labor via their neophytes who would care for and round up the livestock for slaughter. Following a peace treaty with the Apache in 1749, private ranches became increasingly common and competed against the mission ranches (de la Teja 1988, 1995). Prior to this treaty, both cattle and horses were not branded and lived on the open range, leading to conflict in which the missions claimed ownership of all wild cattle, while private ranchers claimed cattle on their land as their own. During the 1770s through the 1790s, cattle from B exas were successfully exported to Spanish-occupied Louisiana and Coahuila, beginning the Texas ranching industry (de la Teja 1995).

By the 1780s, the San Antonio missions were in decline, and the Native American population at the missions had decreased, resulting in reduced revenue from farming and ranching (Hinojosa 1991). In 1793, Mission Valero became the first mission to be secularized, and the four remaining missions were all secularized by 1824 (Habig 1968). The Church redistributed the mission land to those few remaining Native American inhabitants and other occupants (Scurlock et al. 1976). The Church also gave the *presidio* and *villa* property, which was then redistributed to soldiers and settlers (Scurlock et al. 1976).

World events at the end of the eighteenth century had a debilitating effect on the Spanish presence and its interest in North America. Spain was engaged in three almost consecutive wars (see Campbell 2012; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). In the first war (1793-1795) with France, Spain lost, resulting in the return of the Louisiana territory to the French. In 1803, Napoleon sold the Louisiana territory to the United States, which led to the Spanish perception of it as the new threat to Spanish dominion of the region. In the second war (1796-1807), Spain allied with the French against Great Britain, which culminated in the Battle of Trafalgar and the defeat of the French-Spanish fleet. France and Spain then invaded Portugal in 1807 resulting in the third war, the Peninsular War (1807-1814). In 1808, Napoleon reneged on the alliance and invaded Spain, captured the Crown, and replaced the king, Fernando VII, with his own brother, Joseph (Russell 2011). This scenario eventually led to the collapse of order in New Spain and to the formation of independent and opposing groups, with each claiming the right to rule in the name of Fernando (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Russell 2011).

In 1810, Father Manuel Hidalgo y Castillo issued the Grito de Dolores, a proclamation initiating the Mexican War of Independence (Bradley 1998; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Russell 2011). The revolution spread to the

northern provinces, including Texas. In San Antonio, the first of two insurgencies took place in 1811 under Juan Bautista Casa (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Haggard 1939). It was short-lived, and Casa was captured and executed. In 1813, the insurgents were aided by American filibusters forming the Republican Army of the North. At first, the Republicans were successful. By 1813, however, the tide had turned, and the Republicans were defeated at the Battle of Medina (Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Walker 1963). In San Antonio, this period is described as one of deprivation due to the collapse of ranching, which led to food shortages, and increased raids by Comanche (McGraw and Hinds 1987). The revolt and its aftermath resulted in the depopulation of Texas from a high of 4,000 individuals in 1803 to less than 3,000 in 1821 (Campbell 2003:93). The Royalists would establish nominal control over New Spain; however, colonial authority would decline during this period.

During the last years of Spanish rule, the *empresario* (land agent) system was enacted to increase the number of settlers in Texas through colonization and by giving land grants to the head of a family (Campbell 2003:99-100). The first colony, consisting of 300 families, was led by Stephen Austin in 1821-1822, followed by the de Leon Colony with 57 families in 1824-1825, and the DeWitt Colony with 400 families in 1825 (Campbell 2003:107-108). The Anglo colonists known as Texians (Hispanic-Texans were called Tejanos) were lured by cheap land, and cotton became the cash crop (Campbell 2003; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). Cotton agriculture was dependent on enslaved labor, which prior to the advent of the Anglo colonies had not been a significant part of the history or culture of Texas (Campbell 2003; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010). The *empresario* policy was judged successful because it dramatically increased the population of the province and created a self-sustaining economic base. However, these settlers were primarily from the United States with questionable degrees of loyalty to the Spanish Crown. They introduced a non-Hispanic cultural perspective that created a state-within-a-state scenario (Campbell 2003; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; Ramos 2008).

Mexican Period (1821-1836)

After decades of conflict, the short-lived Mexican Empire won independence from Spain in 1821 (Campbell 2003; Chipman 1992; Chipman and Joseph 2010; McDonald 2010). Following a coup attempt and the dissolution of congress, a series of provincial uprisings led to the formation of the Republic of Mexico. In 1824, the Mexican congress passed a constitution that emphasized states' rights over the central authority of Mexico City (Campbell 2003; del al Teja and Wheat 1985; McDonald 2010; Ramos 2008). The new constitution merged Texas with the state of Coahuila creating

Coahuila y Texas, and the provincial capital was moved from San Antonio to Saltillo. This action negated the independence that Texas had previously enjoyed, while the more populous Coahuila was able to pass legislation without the input of the Texans (Campbell 2003; de la Teja and Wheat 1985; McDonald 2010). The constitution also enacted new laws aimed at reducing and ultimately eliminating the *empresario* colonies in 1830 (Campbell 2003:106). Beginning in 1831, Mexican policy towards Texas and its collection of duties and tariffs led to several incidents in which Texian settlers and Tejanos challenged the authority of Mexican rule (Campbell 2003; Hardin 1996; McDonald 2010). The Texians formed a convention in 1832 that requested the central government to recognize Texas as a separate state within the Republic and to address a list of inequities (Campbell 2003). The incidents and the convention were described by Texian leaders as redress for what was described as violations of the Constitution of 1824 (Campbell 2003). In 1832, the *ayuntamiento* (city council) of Béxar at the request of Austin reviewed that proposal by Texians submitting their own list of grievances to the state legislature less the request for a separate state (McDonald 2010; Ramos 2008). In 1833, the Texians again convened a convention resulting in Austin, the acknowledged leader of this group, travelling to Mexico City to petition the government for reform and to end the *empresario* ban. Both were granted; however, Austin was arrested for treason because of suspicion that he was attempting to form an independent state (Campbell 2003).

Two factions drove the political instability that characterized the government of Mexico: the Centralists, who favored a strong central government and who were anti-American, and the Federalists, who favored a government modeled on the United States and who were somewhat pro-American (Campbell 2003; Faulk and Stout 1973; McDonald 2010; Ramos 2008). In April 1834, General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, a Centralist, overthrew the government and revoked the Constitution of 1824. The state of Zacatecas revolted to restore the 1824 Constitution and was repressed by Santa Anna. The government in Coahuila was also in turmoil, and Santa Anna sent General Martín Perfecto de Cós to restore order in April of 1835 (Campbell 2003; Russell 2011).

In 1835, Austin was released from a Mexican prison, and he declared that Texas should become Americanized and issued a call to arms (Campbell 2003). In September 1835, General Cós left the city of Matamoros to regain control of Texas under the order of Santa Anna (Barr 1990; Campbell 2003). Less than three weeks after the arrival of Cós in San Antonio on October 9, 1835, the Battle of Concepción was fought on October 28, 1835, between Mexican forces and a joint force of Texians and Tejanos (Campbell 2003). Although the Mexican's force was defeated, Cós refused to withdraw from the city, leading to a siege (Barr 1990; Campbell 2003). The

siege lasted until the beginning of December when Texian forces led by Ben Milam attacked the Mexicans, forcing Cós to surrender on December 9, 1835 (Barr 1990; Campbell 2003; Russell 2011). A fuller account of the Battle of Béxar is reported in Appendix A. Figure 3-2 is a map of Texas showing the major events and places of the Texas Revolution.

In February of 1836, Mexican forces under the command of Santa Anna returned to retake San Antonio, initiating a siege between a small contingent of remnant Texian forces led by William Travis and James Bowie at Mission Valero (hereto referred to in this chapter as the "Alamo"). The Texas Declaration of Independence from Mexico was proclaimed during the Convention of 1836 held at the beginning of March at Washington-on-the-Brazos in East Texas (Campbell 2003). The convention formed a provisional government, named Sam Houston as commander-in-chief of the Texas Army, and created a constitution (Campbell 2003). On March 6, 1836, the Alamo fell, with the Texian forces either killed during battle or executed following the battle enflaming Texian's hatred of Santa Anna and his forces (Campbell 2003).

Following the Battle of the Alamo, Santa Anna divided his forces in an attempt to secure the Texas coast and ports. In South Texas, the Texian Army under James Fannin was defeated by General José de Urrea at the Battle of Coleto on March 20, 1836 (Campbell 2003). After the battle, Santa Anna ordered the execution of all Texian prisoners in what is known as the Goliad Massacre, further fueling Texian's desire for revenge (Campbell 2003). The force led by Santa Anna was defeated at the Battle of San Jacinto on April 21, 1836, by Texian forces under the command of Houston (Campbell 2003). After the defeat, Santa Anna was captured and agreed to terms in which all hostilities would cease, the Mexican army would withdraw to south of the Rio Grande, and all Texian prisoners would be released (Campbell 2003). In October of 1836, Houston was elected the first president of the Republic of Texas.

Republic of Texas Period (1836-1844)

While the Convention of 1836 established the Republic of Texas, it was not officially recognized by the United States until March 1837 (Campbell 2003). Mexico, however, did not recognize Texas's independence with an official state of war continuing between the two countries (Campbell 2003). Despite its status as an independent republic, the majority of Texans desired annexation by the United States, but Texas's war debt, its support of slavery, and the possibility of war with Mexico if Texas was granted statehood were major deterrents to annexation (Campbell 2003). The eight years of the Republic were marked by economic debt, internal political strife, ongoing conflict with Mexico and Native Americans, and the lack of recognition by other nations

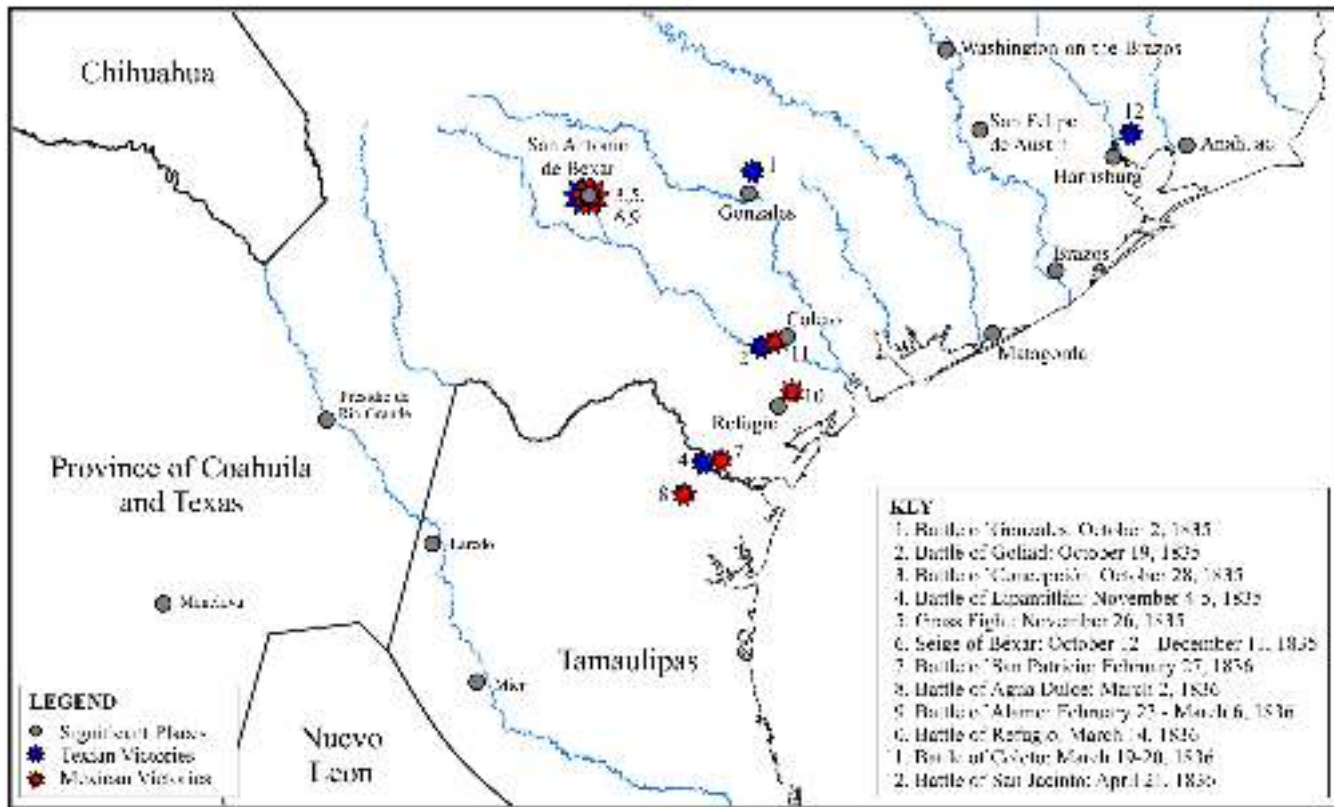


Figure 3-2. Significant places and key battles of the Texas Revolution (Latin American Studies 2018).

(Campbell 2003). It was a period of social and economic change between Tejanos and Texians (see Matovina 1996; McDonald 2010; Ramos 2008 for insight into this period).

In 1841, Santa Anna returned to power in Mexico. In retaliation for an expedition by Texas to persuade Santa Fe to secede from Mexico, a Mexican force briefly occupied and looted San Antonio in March of 1842 (Campbell 2003). In September of 1842, the Mexican army under General Adian Woll invaded Texas, captured San Antonio, imprisoned 67 prominent Texans, and retreated to Mexico (Campbell 2003; McDonald 2010). Houston was elected governor again in 1841 and called for volunteers to defend Texas, who met in San Antonio and marched to the Rio Grande border. In 1843, Santa Anna and Houston signed a general armistice (Campbell 2003; McDonald 2010).

Texas Statehood Period (1845-ca. 1950)

During the U.S. presidential election of 1844, candidate James Polk advocated the annexation of Texas. He was elected president in 1845, and Texas was admitted to the Union as the 28th state on December 29, 1845. The annexation provoked a backlash from Mexico, which broke off diplomatic relations with the United States. All public buildings and

military infrastructure of the Republic became the property of the United States (Campbell 2003). The U.S. Army soon established a small garrison and a quartermaster depot at the Alamo in San Antonio. The United States declared war on Mexico in 1846 following border conflicts between the United States and Mexican troops (Campbell 2003). In 1847, U.S. troops captured Mexico City. The United States and Mexico negotiated terms to end the war and signed the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo in 1848 (Campbell 2003). The treaty established the Rio Grande as the southern boundary between the United States and Mexico, and Mexico ceded territorial claims to what is now most of Arizona, California, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Utah to the United States in exchange for \$15 million (Campbell 2003; Wallace 1965).

Following the war, the United States began western expansion in earnest, and the proximity of San Antonio to the United States/Mexican border facilitated use of the city as a logistical center. San Antonio became the military headquarters for the U.S. Army's Department of Texas in 1849 (Smith 2000:93). Between 1848 and 1858, the United States built a line of forts in South, Central, and West Texas to secure the United States/Mexican border and to secure settlements from Comanche and Kiowa attacks (see Smith 2000). In San Antonio, the military fostered the growth of a merchant economy and freight services to serve the frontier infrastructure.

Antebellum Texas and San Antonio

Texas experienced rapid population growth prior to the Civil War from both the southern United States and from Europe. The population of Texas increased from approximately 142,000 people in 1847 to just over 600,000 by 1860 due in part to the availability of farmland (Campbell 2003:207; Texas Almanac 2017). In 1850, San Antonio was 93 km² (36 square miles) in size with a population of 3,488 people (Texas Almanac 2017). The 1860 census shows that San Antonio had a population of 8,235 people, and it was the largest city in Texas (Texas Almanac 2017). In 1846, Texas had 30,000 enslaved people, a number that increased to over 180,000 by 1860, reflecting the growth of the cotton industry in Texas (Campbell 1989, 2003:207; Texas Almanac 2017). In Bexar County, there were 1,359 enslaved people out of the total population of 14,459, with only 2.2 percent (n=294) of the population owning slaves (Boryczla 2012:338).

Agriculture remained the dominant industry in Texas, although it was essentially a subsistence activity. Approximately one-third of Texas agriculture was devoted to the cash crop, cotton, with its production based in the slave economy of East Texas (Campbell 2003). Cotton production in Bexar County was never substantial in due part to soils and topography (Dase et al. 2010). In Bexar County, cattle ranching remained an important component of the economy, continuing the tradition of the Spanish and Mexican *rancheros* (rancher). Manufacturing was relatively insignificant with only one percent of the population of Texas earning a living in the industry (Campbell 2003). There were only 28 manufacturing businesses, employing 135 people, in Bexar County in 1860 (Long 2010). In San Antonio, small-scale industries focused on local and regional markets, including soap making (Menger's Soap Works 1850), milling (C.H. Guenther 1859), and brewing (Degans 1853; Heusinger 1951; McGraw and Hinds 1987).

Texas seceded from the United States in February of 1861 and joined the Confederate States of America in March 1861. In Bexar County, the vote to secede won with only 51 percent of the vote, considerably less than the rest of Texas where secession was supported by 76 percent (Boryczla 2012:338). Fifteen days following secession, the U.S. Army garrison in San Antonio surrendered to Texas forces (Fox 1986; Thompson 2001). During the Civil War, the use of cattle for food and leather increased the demand for Texas cattle, which benefitted Bexar County ranchers (Dase et al. 2010). In general, Texas did not suffer the same deprivations as other southern states, with trade between it and Mexico alleviating some of the shortages (Boryczla 2012). However, Texas did become the last front of the Civil War, and the last battle was fought near Brownsville on May 13, 1865 (Campbell 2003). On June 2, 1865, Confederate forces in

Texas surrendered, and Union troops occupied Galveston on June 19, 1865 (Campbell 2003).

Texas and San Antonio Following the Civil War

Following Reconstruction, Texas was readmitted to the Union in 1870. At that time, the population within San Antonio was 12,255 people (United States Census Bureau 1870). In 1880, the population of San Antonio was 20,550 people, and by 1890, it had increased to 37,673 (Texas Almanac 2017).

San Antonio slowly emerged from the economic and social collapse caused by the Civil War. Major industries developed around ranching and, to a lesser degree, farming (Campbell 2003; Sonnichsen 1950). During the 1870s, the demand for Texas beef created the great cattle drives from South Texas, with San Antonio acting as a hub (Dase et al. 2010). In addition to cattle, the late nineteenth century saw a boom in sheep and goat ranching, with San Antonio becoming a leading wool market (Dase et al. 2010). This boom was aided in part by Thomas Frost who opened a general store on Main Plaza in 1868 (Walker 2000). He expanded this business to include a wool commission business that would grade, store, and sell wool at the best price (Dase et al. 2010). The number and size of farms increased in Bexar County between 1870 with 266 farms to 1,136 in 1880 (Dase et al. 2010:8). In 1870, the majority of farms (98 percent) were less than 100 acres; however by 1880, the number had decreased to 49 percent (Dase et al. 2010:11).

In 1877, the Galveston, Harrisburg, and San Antonio Railway connected San Antonio to the national rail system, and in 1881, the arrival of the International-Great Northern Railway increased the city's interaction with the rest of the country (Heusinger 1951). San Antonio was one of the last major cities in Texas to connect to the national rail network, and as such, industrial development lagged behind other Texas cities that acquired it earlier (Miller and Johnson, eds. 1990). With the railroad, San Antonio was able to diversify and grow its economy, exporting products from its small manufacturing base, such as its breweries, as well as wool and wholesale dry goods (Cox 1997).

The diversification and growth of the economy contributed significantly to San Antonio's transformation from a frontier town to a modern city in the late nineteenth century. The City permitted private businesses to develop public infrastructure, including a streetcar system (1878), a water works department (1878), electric grid (1881), and telephone system (1881; Cox 1997, 2005a; Hemphill 2009; Heusinger 1951). In 1890, a sewer system was proposed and was operational by 1900 (Heusinger 1951). The development of water and sewer systems replaced the role of the *acequia*

network, with the city engineer and council calling for their closure (Cox 2005). The military was a cornerstone of the new economy and was actively supported by civic leaders (Boryczla 2012). In 1870, the City encouraged the military to expand its presence by donating 92 acres northeast of the city for the construction of a facility that would become Fort Sam Houston in 1890 (Kleine 1978). The city and county governments were also expanding, and a new city hall (1891) and county courthouse (1896) were built to accommodate the growth (Heusinger 1951).

Both the railroad and the streetcar system created a building boom in San Antonio. The railroad was able to transport building material from across the state cheaply and efficiently for residential and commercial buildings (Watson 1982). As the former agricultural fields were filled with new construction, expansion outside the city boundaries was made possible by the developing streetcar system (Watson 1982). In 1890, the streetcar converted to electric power, and as a result, could transport more people further and faster from the city core (Watson 1982).

San Antonio (1900-1950)

The post-1900 period of San Antonio was dominated by population growth and economic development. Much of the expansion was tied to historic events outside the region, including impacts from the Mexican Revolution (1910-1920), World War I (1917-1918), and World War II (1941-1945). In 1900, the population in San Antonio was 53,321 people (Texas Almanac 2017), and by 1950, it had grown to 408,442 (Texas Almanac 2017). Two major population spikes are seen in the period both coinciding with World War I and II military expansion, with a population growth of 67.03 percent and 60.89 percent, respectively (Texas Almanac 2017).

The early twentieth century saw the passage of improvement bonds that would remake the city center with major street renovations (Steinfeldt 1978). These improvements included the widening of streets to accommodate the streetcar system and the increasing number of automobiles, which often required the removal of building façades or demolition of entire buildings (Fisher 1996). The street widening projects and new construction resulted in the loss of multiple historic structures including the Veramendi House (1910), the De la Garza House (1912), and the Curbelo House (1922). As the city was refashioned during the 1900s, preservation groups such as Adina De Zavala's Texas Historical and Landmarks Association (1912) and the San Antonio Conservation Society (1924) were formed and became instrumental in the saving of numerous historical structures (Fisher 1996; Hafertepe 2008).

The transformation was also affected by the City's efforts to control and prevent the devastating effects that floods could have on the city. Flood events had been part of the city's history. In December of 1913 and again in September of 1921, San Antonio's downtown was inundated by flooding. In response to these disasters, the Olmos Dam was constructed in 1924 (Heusinger 1951). Various plans were developed to lessen the impact of flooding on the downtown area including straightening the river, cutoff channels, and construction of an underground tunnel for the river. The call for flood control measures led to the "river beautification" program initiated by the Conservation Society (Fisher 1996:210). An outcome of this program was the creation of the River Walk. The project was designed by Robert Huggman and constructed in part by the Works Progress Administration to enhance and use the river by building walkways, stairwells, and lighting to foster businesses and tourism (Fisher 1996, 2007).

During the early twentieth century, Bexar County agriculture prospered as a result of mechanization and transportation development (Dase et al. 2010). Road and railroad upgrades made it easier for farmers to distribute fruits and vegetables to markets outside the local area and region. During the Great Depression, Bexar County agriculture stalled, but with the assistance of federal programs, farms increased from 1,580 in 1920 to 3,664 by 1940 (Dase et al. 2010:15). Bexar County was one of the leading producers of milk, butter, pecans, potatoes, and peanuts from the 1920s through the 1940s (Dase et al. 2010).

The military played an ever-increasing role in San Antonio's economy in the early and mid-twentieth century. Fort Sam Houston experienced ongoing development and expansion, and in 1910, it was the site of the first military flight (Heusinger 1951). To the south of downtown, Kelly Air Field was created for the Aviation Section of the U.S. Army's Signal Corps in 1916, and a year later, Brooks Field, a flight training facility for the Army, was built a few miles east of Kelly Field (Heusinger 1951). In 1917, the United States entered World War I. During the war, approximately one tenth of all military members who served in Europe were trained in San Antonio (Bexar County 2018). After World War I, the military expanded its aviation programs with the construction of Randolph Field (1930) north of downtown and Lackland Air Force Base (1941) near Kelly Field to the south (Heusinger 1951).

Previous Archaeological Investigations near the Project Area

Prior to the 1970s, no archaeological investigations were conducted in the vicinity of the project area. In 1975, the

CAR (Fox et al. 1977) conducted trenching associated with the renovation of San Fernando Cathedral (41BX7). Fox and colleagues (1977) uncovered the foundations for the bell tower and nave of the eighteenth century colonial church, two burials, and artifacts. In 1976, Fox (1977) conducted test excavations adjacent to the Spanish Governor’s Palace located off Military Plaza. In 1979, the Main and Military Plaza National Register Historic District (NRHP No. 790002914) was designated, encompassing 19.3 hectares (47.6 acres). The district is listed under Criteria A (associated with events that have made significant contribution to the broad pattern of history), C (that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or methods of construction or that represent the work of a master, possess high artistic value), and D (that have yielded or likely to yield information important in prehistory or history). The National Register District encompasses the southern portion of the APE. Currently, 13 archaeological sites are listed in the district (Table 3-1 and Figure 3-3). Recent investigations have

focused on the redevelopment of Main Plaza (Hanson 2016), the construction of the San Fernando Community Center on Main Plaza (Figueroa and Mauldin 2005), and the renovation of the Plaza de Armas Buildings (McKenzie et al. 2016). These projects revealed features (primarily trash middens) dating to the early Spanish Colonial occupations. No archaeological sites are recorded within the APE (THC 2017). However, it was known through historical maps that a portion of the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337) was on the west side of N. Main Avenue within the APE. Two historically significant colonial buildings, the locations of the Veramendi House and the De la Garza House and Mint, were known to be within the APE based on historical maps and documentation. The Veramendi House, along with the Kampmann Bank Building, the three Maverick Buildings, the Masonic Lodge (former Bexar County Courthouse Building), the Devine Building, the Clegg Building, and the Soledad Block Building on the east side of Soledad Street from Commerce Street to Houston Street are designated COSA Local Historic Landmarks.

Table 3-1. Archaeological Sites within National Register Historic District

Code*	Trinomial	Site Description
1	41BX7	San Fernando Cathedral: built between 1738 and 1750
2	41BX179	Casa del Capitán, Presidio de Béxar built in the 1730s
3	41BX334	Campbell House: remnant of a small adobe house built prior to 1873
4	41BX335	Rubble stone foundations likely constructed around 1850
5	41BX336	Dullnig House: remnant of a small adobe house built in 1856
6	41BX337	San Pedro Acequia: built in 1718 and enlarged in the 1730s for the Canary Islanders
7	41BX647	Ybarbo/Barrera House: purchased or built between 1792 and 1802 by Gil y Barbo, a captain in the militia
8	41BX795	Ruiz Property: was conveyed to Joseph Antonio Ruiz in 1736 and remained in the family until the early 1900s
9	41BX1598	Multicomponent site with materials and features that date to the late 1700s through the late 1800s
10	41BX1752	Late Spanish Colonial to 1840 unstratified midden deposit and possible portion of Mexican earthen fortification dating from the Siege of Béxar
11	41BX1753	Five features including a Spanish-Colonial-era cistern, two mid-1800s privies, and two indeterminate features from the 1800s
12	41BX1775	Several architectural features dating the late 1800s and early 1900s
13	41BX2088	Site is associated with the Presidio de Béxar during the Spanish Colonial period and 1800s buildings

*Sites are coded to Figure 3-3

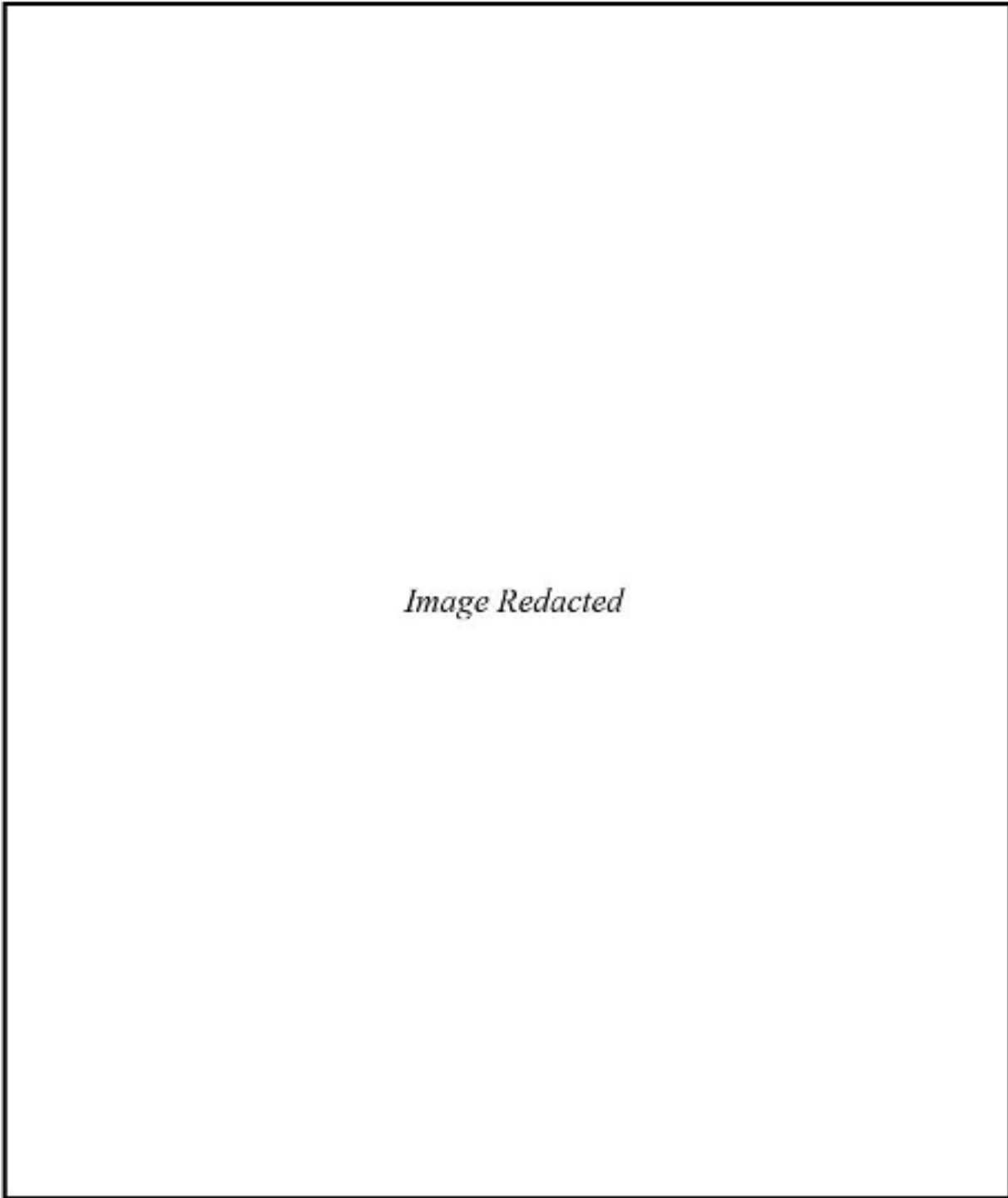


Figure 3-3. Aerial image of previously recorded archaeological sites within the National Register District (in yellow) that includes the APE (in red) and the southern portion of the project area (in blue).

Chapter 4: Historical Context of the Main and Soledad Project Area, 1718-1836

Clinton M. M. McKenzie, Leonard Kemp, and Maria Pfeiffer

This chapter focuses on the in-depth history of the neighborhood encompassing N. Main Avenue and Soledad Street; however, there are references to the overall history of Spain, Mexico, and Tejas/Texas to provide context. The chapter begins with the Spanish Colonial period in 1718 and ends just prior to the founding of Texas in 1836. The first section describes the planned Spanish Colonial settlement mandated by the Law of the Indies followed by a section that describes the founding of Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar and Villa de Béxar on the colonial frontier. The second section deals with the creation of the official San Fernando de Béxar within the context of the unofficial Villa de Béxar, and it provides the history of the lots within the APE from the Spanish Colonial period to the Mexican period. The chapter concludes with a section on how San Antonio appeared during this period. It provides descriptions of the typical residence, the *jacal*, an adobe and stone structure, and the atypical building known as the “Veramendi Palace.” It includes two maps of San Antonio from the mid-eighteenth century showing the layout of the communities of San Antonio centered on its two plazas and its missions. It concludes with contemporary observations of San Antonio, often harsh in their portrayal of this frontier community.

Early Period of Spanish Settlement (1718-1731)

This section provides a brief description of the foundation for Spanish Colonial rule. The establishment of any Spanish colonial *pueblo* (town), *villa* (village), *ciudad* (city), or *municipalidad* (political/economical capital city) was the sole prerogative of Council of the Indies, the overall royal authority in New Spain (Kinsbruner 2005). The founding of San Fernando de Béxar was based on the Recopilación de las leyes de los Reynos de Indias (the Law of the Indies), which codified Spanish colonial initiatives for the Americas for over three centuries (1524-1898). It contained the framework, the laws, and the regulations concerning the Council of the Indies and the *audiencias* (respective royal courts sitting in the New World with specific geographic jurisdictions); church government and education; as well as political and military administration. It also mandated the structure of the provincial government, public finance, commerce, the structure and components of the colonial city, and the treatment of Native Americans (Kinsbruner 2005).

Spanish Colonial Town Planning and the Founding of San Antonio

The properties within the project area represent a portion of the earliest official civilian settlement of what was to

become the City of San Antonio. Colonial urban planning was based in part on the Renaissance interpretations of the Roman Vitruvius’ ideal city (de la Teja 1988; Kinsbruner 2005:Appendix). The main plaza was the center of the community and the location of the administrative, religious, and commercial activity. The main streets originated from the plaza to enhance its prominence and to facilitate commerce.

From the plaza shall begin four principal streets: One [shall be] from the middle of each side, and two streets from each corner of the plaza; the four corners of the plaza shall face the four principal winds, because in this manner, the streets running from the plaza will not be exposed to the four principal winds, which would cause much inconvenience [Kinsbruner 2005:138].

The remaining components of the town were laid out concentrically from the plaza. This included the *solares* (house lots) assigned to the settlers. The Law of the Indies mandated that planting of gardens begin immediately following the construction of shelter. *Ejidros* (public lands) were set aside for common agricultural fields and pastures. *Propios* (corporate lands) belonged to the *cabildo* (city council) and were used as a revenue source.

Governor Don Martín de Alarcón claimed lands in the name of the Spanish Crown and proclaimed the establishment of the Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar and Villa de Béxar on May 5, 1718 (Hoffman 1935:48-49, 1938:318). In addition to the soldiers who composed the presidial forces, there was a contingent of civilian settlers who accompanied the expedition (a complete list of the soldiers and settlers can be found in Mauldin et al. 2015:Appendix B). These civilians and soldiers constituted what was referred to as the Villa de Béxar. However, Governor Alarcón never formally established the *villa*, which would have been required under Spanish law (de la Teja 1995:32). Only Mission San Antonio de Valero was proclaimed in accordance with Spanish law. The military forces themselves were not formally established as a *presidio* until 1721 by command of Governor Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo (Castañeda 1936b:93, 120; Ivey 2004:107).

Between 1718 and 1731, the settlers and soldiers formed a community under the auspices and authority of the military commander of forces at Béxar. Members of this community were often referred to as *presidiales*, meaning those associated with the *presidio*, including soldiers, settlers, or retired

soldiers and their families who remained in the community. Later, the term *agregados* was used to distinguish those who had settled, or aggregated, around the *presidio* and the unofficial Villa de Béxar prior to the arrival of the Canary Islanders in 1731 (de la Teja 1995:77).

Initially, Villa de Béxar was slated to house 30 families with rights as “first settlers” (Ivey 2004). Governor Alarcón ordered that the settlers receive land and water with the reservation that enough land be left vacant for an additional 100 families (de la Teja 1988, 1995). However, because the majority of the settlers were soldiers, the land was not distributed but was developed as government property (de la Teja 1988, 1995; Ivey 2004). At this time, the *presidio* was essentially a town and not just a garrison to defend the frontier settlement. It heard civil and criminal cases, provided mail service, and protected travelers (de la Teja 1988:58).

Relocation of the Early Settlement

In January 1722, Governor Aguayo ordered that the Villa de Béxar and the Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar relocate 2 km (1.25 miles) south of San Pedro Springs, the original location, to the area between San Pedro Creek on the west and the

bend of the San Antonio River on the east (Forrestal 1935:60-61). Figure 4-1 shows Aguayo’s plan for the *presidio* dating to the 1720s. In 1724, the *presidio* consisted of one adobe building with the remaining structures consisting of thatched huts (Ivey 2004). In actuality, the *presidio* never became an enclosed fortified structure, and no breastworks or bastions were ever built, as stated in 1763 by Presidio Captain Luis Antonio Menchaca (Ivey 2004). This area is now referred to as Plaza de Armas, or Military Plaza, and is a half block west and south of the current APE. The same lack of official status for the Villa de Béxar persisted at the new location.

Concurrent with the move, Governor Aguayo personally paid for the expansion of the original *acequia* system, resulting in a new channel to run directly south from the bend in the Acequia Principal below San Pedro Springs. This became known as the Acequia de San Pedro, as it drew its waters from the spring of the same name and ran the entire length of the San Pedro Valley down to its confluence with the San Antonio River. Padre Francisco Peña, who accompanied the Aguayo Expedition, noted in February of 1722:

...that the water-ditch, which at his own expense he [Aguayo] had made from the San Pedro

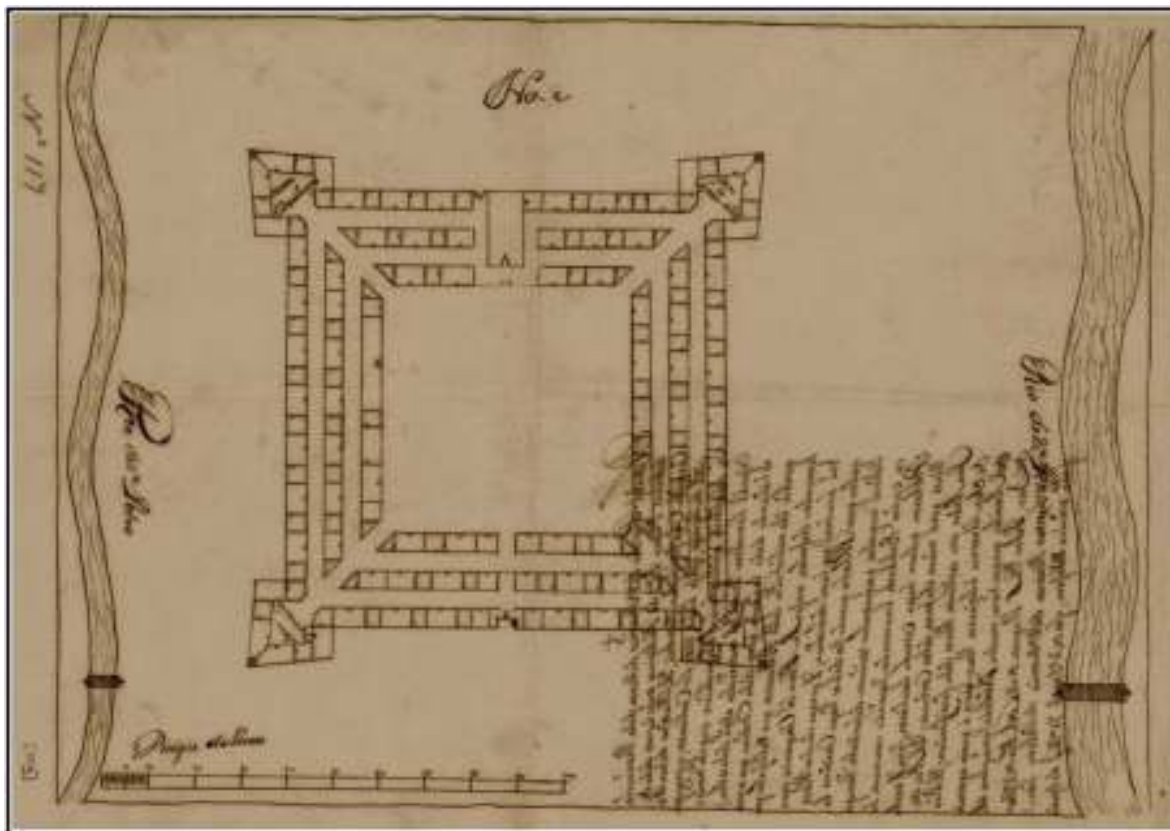


Figure 4-1. Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo’s plan for Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar. This is a tracing done by Elizabeth Howard West in 1912. The original map is in the Archivo General de Indias, Seville, Spain (Texas State Library and Archives Commission Texas State Archives Map Collection).

River...will be able to irrigate the two leagues of very fertile land which make up the small valley formed by the San Pedro [Peña 1722, as translated by Forrester 1935:61].

In 1719, the Spanish Crown, at the urging of the Council of the Indies, determined that additional settlement along the Texas coast would strengthen the borders and prevent further French encroachments (Castañeda 1936b:268-269). This initial settlement effort and another in 1723, this time involving Canary Islanders (referred to as Isleños or Islanders interchangeably in this text), never came to fruition. Canary Islanders were requested because they had proven to be successful immigrants in the past (de la Teja 1988:67).

The population of the *presidio* slowly grew throughout the 1720s. In 1726, the *presidio* consisted of 54 soldiers including a captain and an estimated population of 200 people (de la Teja 1988:74). A small contingent of civilians, in addition to soldiers with families, built homes near the *presidio* (de la Teja 1988, 1995; Ivey 2004). In 1729, the *presidio* was reduced to 44 soldiers following the frontier inspection of Brigadier Pedro de Rivera (de la Teja 1988:75). In early 1731, de la Teja (1988:75) estimates the population of San Antonio was approximately 242 to 310 individuals.

In 1729, the Crown issued an order for the settlement of Texas by 400 Canary Island families (Castañeda 1936b:270-271; de la Teja 1995:18). However, instead of the Texas coast as originally proposed, they were ordered to settle in Béxar to strengthen the existing settlement (Castañeda 1936b:277-278). Following the royal orders, 57 individuals representing 10 Canary Islander families agreed to immigrate. Due to the expense, the Crown did not sponsor any additional families (de la Teja 1995:18).

The settlers apparently sailed in at least two groups to Havana arriving on June 19, 1730 (Castañeda 1936b:278; Chabot 1930:9). Next, the settlers went to Veracruz and then to Cuautitlán on the outskirts of Mexico City, arriving on August 27, 1730. After staying in Cuautitlán through the fall and winter of 1730, they traveled to San Antonio de Béxar where they arrived on March 9, 1731 (Castañeda 1936b:299). Three missions, Concepción, San Juan, and Espada, were relocated to San Antonio from East Texas just prior to the arrival of the Canary Islanders.

During their transit from Mexico to San Antonio, both the Viceroy of New Spain, Juan de Acuña, the Marques de Casafuerte, and the Auditor de Guerra (magistrate judge) Olivan Rebolledo were making additional plans and orders in support of the group. The viceroy was also advised by the Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo and Brigadier Pedro

de Rivera (de la Teja 1988; Ivey 2008). Rebolledo declared that the Canary Island families met the minimum number to constitute the official establishment of a *villa*. This granted Islanders rights and privileges that were absent for the original 1718 settlers and those who had arrived between then and 1730. The Isleños could “organize their own civil government, receive lands for the construction of their homes and the sowing and raising of crops, to have a church and town hall, and to build a town with a public square, and regularly planned streets” (Rebolledo 1730; Castañeda 1936b:279). In addition, they were entitled to use the honorific *hidalgo*, the lowest rank of Spanish nobility.

Villa San Fernando de Béxar

This section discusses the proposed layout for the *villa* from the viceroy and what was proposed by Aguayo. It then relates how the Presidio Captain Juan Antonio Pérez de Almazán was compelled to deviate from those plans to accommodate the new settlers within the present community. This accommodation would lead to the usurpation of property, as well as historical claim of Isleños as “first settlers.” Additionally, water rights were just as important as entitlements, with the San Pedro Acequia granted to the Isleños and then controlled by the *cabildo*. This section concludes with the granting of lots within the APE and their history.

Casafuerte’s orders were delivered to Pérez de Almazán directing him to lay out new lands for the official *villa*, San Fernando de Béxar. Figure 4-2 shows Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo’s suggested plan to Viceroy Casafuerte in 1730 and his location for the town on the east side of the San Antonio River, which he named “Villa de San Antonio de Casafuerte” (de la Teja 1995:33). Casafuerte ordered the *villa* be situated on the west side of San Pedro Creek (Figure 4-2), suggesting the Viceroy’s awareness of the pre-existing, but unofficial, presidial town of San Antonio de Béxar (Ivey 2004:110). Ultimately, Pérez de Almazán chose to locate the new Villa de San Fernando immediately east of the Presidio and Villa de Béxar. Located between the creek and the river and adjacent to the *presidio* compound, the new settlement was provided with access to the existing San Pedro Acequia and greater protection from Apache raiders (de la Teja 1995:34).

The Realities of Urban Planning

Pérez de Almazán was constrained in his attempts to carry out Casafuerte’s plan and meet the legal requirements for the founding of the *villa*. The pre-existing mission *pueblos* and the Presidio de Béxar narrowed the possible choices for the new settlement. Likewise, the settlement would require *acequia* irrigable lands. As a result, Pérez de Almazán could only go north and west with the new development.

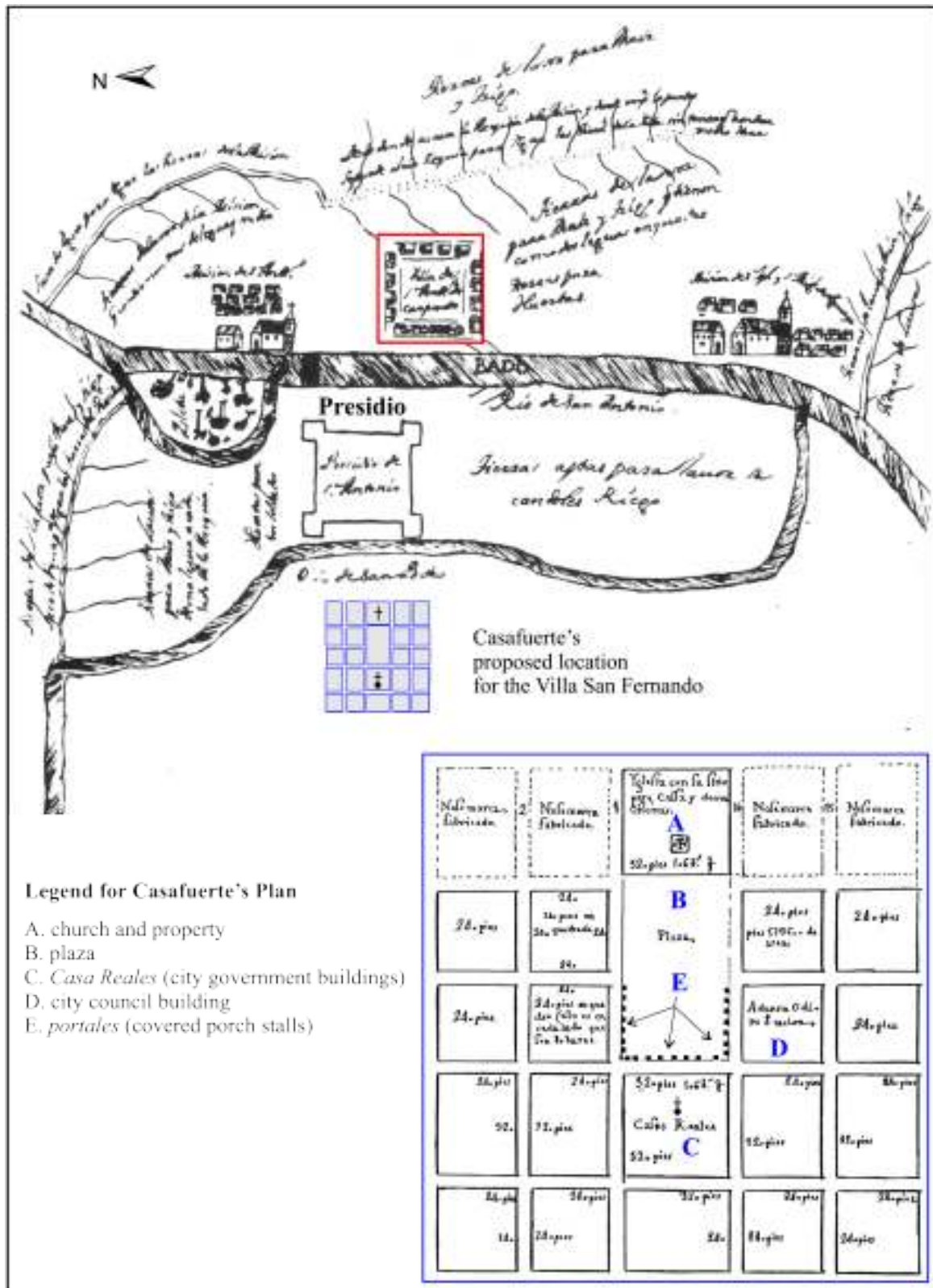


Figure 4-2. Modified image of Marqués de San Miguel de Aguayo's plan (1730) with his location of the villa highlighted in red east of the San Antonio River. Casafuerte's proposed location is shown in blue west of San Pedro Creek. The inset shows the layout of the villa surrounding the plaza, as proposed by Casafuerte and mandated by the Law of the Indies.

The *presidio* and mission lands could not be taken away. However, for the residents of the Villa de Béxar, their unofficial status meant that they had no rights, prerogatives, or privileges under the Law of the Indies (de la Teja 1988, 1995; Ivey 2004, 2008). While Pérez de Almazán needed to defer to and plan around the former, he was not required to do so for the latter (Ivey 2008:262). Nonetheless, Pérez de Almazán for the most part did not confiscate the property of the *presidiales* to turn over to the Islanders (Ivey 2008:262-263). This decision likely insured at least some initial harmony between the two groups.

The actual layout of the Villa de San Fernando represents a compromise of politics, geography, and power. The Villa de San Fernando was bounded by the mission *pueblos* to the east and south, leaving room only to the north and somewhat to the west, with the exception of the *presidio* itself. Ivey (2008:263) posits that the decision by Pérez de Almazán to move east before even initiating the survey is a strong indicator that he had already come to an understanding with the Canary Islanders for the appropriation of the lands and improvements of the *presidiales*.

The 1741 *Memorial of Father President Benito Fernandez* makes the situation vis-à-vis the original settlement of the Villa de Béxar and that of San Fernando clearer. While the *Memorial* was written some 10 years into the life of the Villa de San Fernando, the Father President had been in Texas since 1733 and was well acquainted with all of the Franciscan undertakings, and certainly those of the four Quereteran mission *pueblos* in San Antonio. The *Memorial* is from the Franciscan perspective; however, since his position prevailed, it appears that both the local ecclesial and presidial positions on the contentions of the Isleños also convinced the Spanish Crown authorities of the same in Mexico City. The Father President specifically states in the first “Error” of the *Memorial*:

The statement that the families of the Canary Islanders are the first settlers of Villa San Fernando is not true, since, and it is a fact, the villa is joined to the Presidio of San Antonio and was settled fourteen years before by soldiers and citizens who lived on plots of ground in houses they built, with crops they planted, and the irrigation ditches they dug, these the [Canary Islander] families now possess. It is clearly seen that these families are not the first settlers of Villa San Fernando, for it was already established and settled before they came. [...] Their labors in digging irrigation ditches and in building residences in the same region are not in vain; much land, which borders the [Canary Islander] families’ houses and belongs to the King our

Lord, is left uncultivated. This land can be with the same rights that these families have for water, and other favors can be gained by electing a magistrate. Thus, what is today a villa by name only can become populated in a few years and be a villa in reality [Leutenegger and Fernández 1979:277-278].

San Pedro Acequia

Pérez de Almazán’s decision to locate the *villa* to the east rather than to the west of the *presidio* was predicated on the San Pedro Acequia. The *acequia* extension of the Principal had been put into operation following the relocation of the *presidio* in 1722. The topography to the west of the *presidio* was favorable only for watering to the east, as the ground to the west gently increased in elevation and *acequias* are gravity dependent. Yet another consideration would be the time, cost, and labor of digging a new system. Pérez de Almazán’s report of the survey, the *Acta de Fundacion de la Villa de San Fernando* dated 1731, states that the proposed site west of the *presidio*:

lacked an irrigation ditch to supply the families and the proposed town with the necessary water, and although it was not impossible to build the new *acequia*, this would require time and labor. It was far more important to prepare the farmlands for cultivation, this being the best season for the planting of corn [Pérez de Almazán in Castañeda 1936b:301].

It is clear from Pérez de Almazán’s statement in the *Acta* that rather than build a new *acequia*, he simply appropriated the existing San Pedro Acequia for use of the Canary Islanders, a use which was subsequently ratified following the creation of the Villa de San Fernando. By this act, the *labores* (farms within a *acequia* system) and the *acequia* previously built by and for the soldiers and settlers of the Presidio and Villa de Béxar were transferred to the Islanders, along with the water rights to the *acequia* (Ivey 2008:263). Rights to the *acequia*’s water were formally granted or denied through the authority of the Islander-controlled *cabildo* (de la Teja 1995).

Lot Grants within the APE

Numerous researchers (Castañeda 1936a, b; Cruz 1988; de la Teja 1988, 1995; Ivey 2008; Spell 1962) have relied on Almazán’s survey notes first published in 1920 to interpret the plan of Villa de San Fernando (Ivey 2008:253). However, comparing the plan of the town described in notes with the actual layout derived from later archival and documentary resources and archaeologically derived data indicates that Casafuerte’s plan was modified to accommodate the geography of the space and existing realities of Apache hostilities, pre-

existing polities, and access to water (de la Teja 1988, 1995; Ivey 2008:253). Figure 4-3 is a map of the actual 1731 plan of the lots surrounding the Main Plaza, overlaid onto Casafuerte's plan, which would have incorporated the *presidio* as well as mission lands. Table 4-1 shows the 1731-1738 grantees, their status, and the size of the lots. Figure 4-4 shows the lot grants of 1731 through 1738 within the project APE.

Unlike later land sales, transfers, and grants, a review of the original grant documents from 1731 is challenging because none of the lots appear to be in the same location specified in the original grants. The original grants were based on the Pérez de Almazán plan derived from Casafuerte's plan. However, following the official allocation of land by Pérez de Almazán, it appears that the Isleños redistributed the land as equably as possible (Ivey 2008). Since the redistribution of land was not official, the information was not recorded.

It was not until 1736 that grant activity resumed with town tracts for the *presidiales* and settlers who arrived in San Antonio prior to 1731. It was during this period that the remaining lands within the APE were awarded. The following section presents the history of the lots.

Lots on the North Side of Plaza de Islas/ Main Plaza (Lots 1, 2, 3, and 4)

Manuel de Niz Lot (No. 1)

Manuel de Niz was born on Gran Canarias circa 1680 and was part of the original group of Islanders recruited in 1729 to settle in San Antonio (Chabot 1930:22). This corner lot was given to de Niz in lieu of the lot granted under Pérez de Almazán's Casafuerte plan. This corner lot had 84 *varas* (71.10 m; 233.2 ft.) frontage on the east side of N. Main Avenue, which was then known as Calle de Acequia, and 20 *varas* (16.93 m; 55.55 ft.) frontage on the Plaza. All of the lots fronting on Main Plaza are this dimension.

De Niz sold the lot to José Antonio Bueno de Rojas for 100 *pesos* in goods in March of 1738. The sale listed the property as "one lot...and an adobe house, in which I am now living with a wood frame kitchen..." (Bexar Spanish Archives [BSA] C215, V10F7:14-18). The deed of conveyance lists a stone house and a separate wood kitchen, which de Niz most likely erected on the lot between the time of the grant in 1731 and the sale in 1738.

This was the second of two adjacent lots acquired by Bueno de Rojas, the first lot (Lot No. 2) being that purchased from Antonio Rodríguez Mederos on the same date. The joint lot history of these two lots is continued in the entry for Rodríguez Mederos.

Antonio Rodríguez Mederos Lot (No. 2)

Antonio Rodríguez Mederos was born in Ciudad de las Canarias in 1712 and was one of five "unattached" bachelors who were part of the original group of Canary Islanders to sail to Mexico (Castañeda 1936:286-287; Chabot 1930:22). Antonio Rodríguez Mederos sold his grant lot to José Antonio Bueno de Rojas in 1738 for 150 *pesos* in goods. The sale listed the property as "one lot...and a stone house, in which I am now living, with a wood frame kitchen and a small adobe room..." (BSA C215, V10F7:14-18).

To this single lot he added the adjacent de Niz property (Lot No.1), which he acquired at the same time. These two tracts combined had 40 *varas* (33.86 m or 111.1 ft.) frontage on the Plaza and the same 84 *varas* (71.12 m or 233.33 ft) along N. Main Avenue.

These two combined lots remained in the José Antonio Bueno de Rojas family until 1758 when the two lots and associated improvements were exchanged for a similarly sized lot on the corner of Houston and Flores streets together with 100 *pesos*. The recipient of the property was Simon de Arocha, an Isleño born in San Fernando de Béxar in 1731. The 1758 conveyance does not list the improvements on either property, but considering that the exchange included only 100 *pesos*, it appears likely that both properties were equivalent in improvements.

Simon de Arocha was a leading figure within the community and served in numerous municipal capacities during his lifetime, including notary, fiscal officer, and an *alcalde* (mayor) of San Fernando. With his brother, Juan de Arocha, they controlled a great deal of land and ranching interests, predominantly in Wilson County.

The Simon de Arocha family retained control of the property for the next 80 years. Simon died in 1796 and his widow, María Ignacia de Urrutia, died in 1812. Their son, Francisco de Arocha, (1752-1849) sold both lots to Manuel Yturri-Castillo on March 6, 1838 (Bexar County Deed Records [BCDR]:F1:110-112). The 1838 sale mentions a "spacious home of many rooms" fronting the plaza.

During the Mexican period (1821-1836), the property was still owned by Francisco de Arocha. The house's position at the northwest corner of the Plaza de las Islas (Main Plaza) made it a strategically important asset during the Siege of Béxar in 1835, and General Perfecto de Cós had a trench dug and a defensive fortification erected across N. Main Avenue to block any Texian advance from that quarter. The trench and fortification would have abutted the Arocha house on its eastern side. Subsequently, in 1836, the house was commandeered by Mexican General Antonio Lopez de

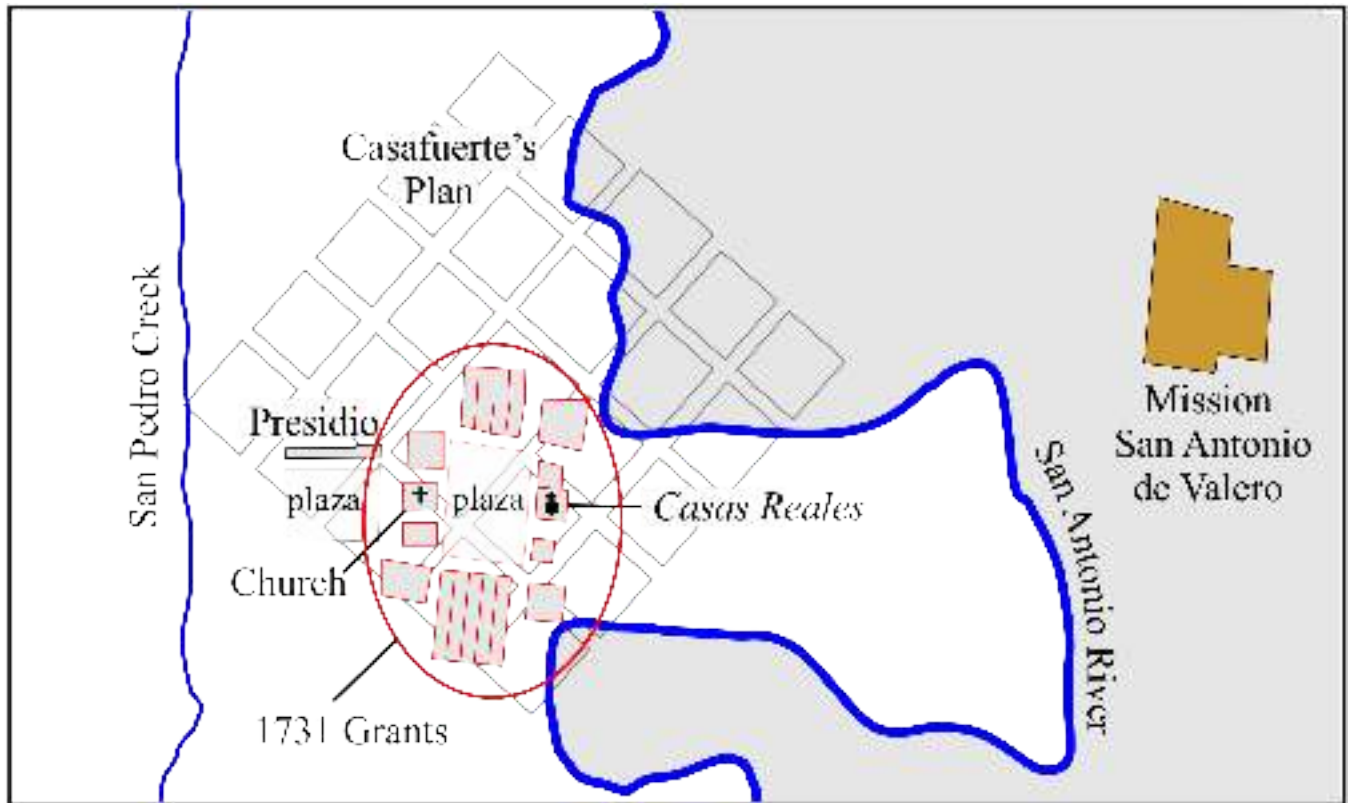


Figure 4-3. Map of Villa de San Fernando overlaid onto Casafuerte's town plan had it been implemented in this location (after Ivey 2008:Figure 4). The actual 1731 lots are highlighted in red, with lands belonging to Mission Valero in gray.

Table 4-1. List of 1731-1738 Grantees

Lot*	Grantee	Year Granted	Status	Lot Size (varas)**
1	Manuel de Niz	1731	Isleños	20-x-80
2	Antonio Rodriguez Mederos	1731	Isleños	20-x-80
3	Vincente Alvarez Travieso	1731	Isleños	20-x-80
4	Francisco de Arocha	1731	Isleños	20-x-80
5	Juan Curbelo	1731	Isleños	30-x-80
6	Patricio Rodriguez	ca. 1736	Presidiales	50-x-50
7	unknown (Zambrano after 1765)	likely 1736	n/a	50-x-50
8	Maria Flores y Valdez	ca. 1738	Presidiales	50-x-50
9	Xavieria Cantu (widow of Geronimo de la Garza)	1736	Presidiales	50-x-50
10	Manuel Carvajal	1736	Presidiales	30-x-50
11	Juan Banul	1736 or 1737	Presidiales	40-x-60
12	Marcos de Castro	1736	Presidiales	50-x-50
13	unknown (Parilla 1759)	likely 1736	n/a	51.5-x-51.5

*Lot numbers correspond to locations shown in Figure 4-4

**A vara is a Spanish unit of measure; in Texas a vara is equivalent to 33.33 in.



Figure 4-4. Schematic of lot grants within the APE, 1731-1738. Lot numbers correspond to locations shown in Table 4-1. The San Pedro Acequia is shown on the current N. Main Avenue.

Santa Anna and used as his headquarters during the Siege and Battle of the Alamo. Additional information on the Battle of Béxar and the relationships of the former structures within the APE to that event can be found in Appendix A.

Vicente Álvarez Travieso Lot (No. 3)

Vicente Álvarez Travieso was one of two Isleños (the other being Francisco de Arocha) who joined the party in Mexico while travelling to Béxar in 1731 (Castañeda 1936:287; Chabot 1930:22). Travieso was one of the most influential and powerful men of the Isleño community, serving as *alguacil mayor* (chief constable) for life at the behest of his fellow citizens. The family owned the Las Mulas Ranch and controlled much of the ranching trade (Jackson 1986:69-71). Travieso married a daughter of Juan Curbelo, María Ana, with whom he had ten children. The Travieso town lot remained in the hands of the family for 110 years until 1828-

29 when it was left to the Parish Priest Refugio de la Garza, who subsequently sold the property to William Riddle in 1841 (BCDR U1:453; A2:428).

Francisco de Arocha Lot (No. 4)

The Isleño Francisco de Arocha also joined the settlers while they were transiting to Mexico. Arocha was granted the corner lot at Soledad Street and the Plaza de las Islas, and like his neighbor, Vicente Travieso, Arocha married a daughter of Juan Curbelo. Their son, Simon de Arocha, obtained the former de Niz and Rodríguez Mederos lots (Lots 1 and 2) that made up the west corner of the block in 1758.

The property remained in the Arocha family after the death of their parents with the joint inheritors conveying full title to Juan de Arocha in October of 1780 (BSA 2:43). Following Juan de Arocha's death, circa 1788-1789, the family lot was

divided between his three children per the directions of his will (BSA 3:293-296). Between 1808 and 1850, the various heirs sold their portions of the property to a number of different buyers until the entire tract was again reassembled into a single lot by Sam Smith in 1852 (BCDR J2:286-287).

Lots on “The Zambrano Row,” the West Side of N. Main Avenue (Lot Nos. 6, 7, and 8)

Each of these three lots were square measuring 50 *varas* (42.33 m; 138.8 ft.) on each side. All three had a frontage on Flores Street and on N. Main Avenue. The San Pedro Acequia formed the eastern boundary of the lots. All the other lots remaining in the APE north of those granted in 1731 and below what is now Houston Street were granted in 1736 or 1737; therefore, these three lots were most likely granted at this time as well. An abstractor’s note in the Stewart Title Collection (STC) states that the early deeds for this block are missing. The same note states that the Zambrano family controlled the tracts by the late eighteenth century. The family built a single row of contiguous houses fronting onto Flores Street in the lower block. The family’s ownership of the block led to the row of houses being referred to as the “Zambrano Row” during the Battle of Béxar in 1835, where they played a considerable part in the Texian offensive (see Appendix A).

Veramendi Street Lots (Nos. 9 and 10)

During the Spanish Colonial period and up to the early twentieth century, there was an east to west street dividing the upper third and lower two-thirds of the block in the center of the current APE. The street was named Veramendi because the Veramendi family’s home was on the opposite side of the street at its eastern terminus with Soledad Street. The lot on the north side of the street and lot on the south side of the street were granted in 1736. The northern lot was granted to the de la Garza family and the southern lot to Manuel Carvajal. The de la Garza lot was bounded on the north by Houston Street. The Carvajal lot was bounded on the south by the back-lot lines of the de Niz, Rodríguez, Travieso, and de Arocha lots that fronted south on the Plaza.

Lots on the East Side of Soledad Street (Lot Nos. 5, 11, 12, and 13)

Juan Curbelo Lot (No.5)

Juan Curbelo was part of the group that emigrated from the Canary Islands in 1730. He and his wife were granted a lot at the northeast corner of the intersection of what is now East Commerce Street with Soledad Street. The lot was 50-x-50 *varas* (42.33 m; 138.8 ft.). The archival record shows that the Curbelo family retained the property at least through 1746, as they are listed as a neighbor on a grant to Cristobal

de los Santos Coy in that year (STC B113:F4:4-5). The archival record has a gap, and the land grant next appears by reference in a 1777 deed for the property abutting to the north, which lists Julian de Arocha as the owner in that year (BSA V2:148).

There were at least three lots within the APE above the Juan Curbelo lot (Lots 11, 12, 13). Houston Street ended at Soledad Street in the early Spanish Colonial period, and the upper lot of this row extends to the north outside of the APE boundary.

Juan Banul Lot (No. 11)

Juan Banul and his wife María Adriana Garcia were both bilingual French and Spanish speaking Flemings who had been born and raised in the Spanish Netherlands. The loss of the Spanish Netherlands in 1706 led to a diaspora of loyal Spanish Flemings throughout the Spanish Empire. Juan Banul was a *presidiale* having come to the Villa de Béxar circa 1719 and entering the service under Aguayo where he attained the rank of Cabo de Escuadra. Banul was also a *maestro herrero* (master blacksmith) and travelled with the Marqués de Aguayo on his 1722 expedition to found missions and *presidios* in northeast Texas and northwest Louisiana (Chabot 1937:117).

Juan Banul and his wife were granted a town lot directly across Soledad Street from the Xaviera Cantu property (Lot No. 9) in 1736 or 1737, as he is listed as her neighbor in that grant. Banul was one of only eight *presidiales* who was granted a *suerte* (a parcel of land with water rights distributed by lottery) of farm lands in the 1734 distribution. The Banuls were unhappy with the lot on Soledad Street because they felt it was disadvantageous for business and decided to leave San Antonio. The residents of the *villa* convinced their only master blacksmith to remain and offered him a new lot in the Potrero between the town and Mission Valero.

No subsequent Spanish Colonial transactions were discovered in the archival research related to Banul’s original grant lot on Soledad Street. The lot eventually passed to the Huizar family, who conveyed the lot in 1853 to Asa Mitchell (BCDR L1:486-487). As no features were encountered related to this lot, further archival searches were deemed unnecessary.

Marcos de Castro Lot (No. 12)

Marcos de Castro was a *presidiale* and a descendent of Alferéz Juan de Castro, who had served under Aguayo in 1718 and then remained at the Villa de Béxar. Marcos de Castro is first referenced in a deed as a neighbor to the north in 1777 (BSA V2:148). Considering that Marcos de Castro was born in 1732 and would have been 45 in 1777, it may be that his father Juan de Castro was first granted the lot,

which was subsequently inherited by his son. No other property transactions for Juan de Castro were found during the archival assembly for this report.

Marcos de Castro subdivided his lot and sold a portion, fronting 12 *varas* (10.1 m; 33.28 ft.) on Soledad Street with depth to the San Antonio River, to Fernando Veramendi in 1780 (BCDR F1:220-221). A series of additional transactions between the adjoining northern and southern property owners, Marcos de Castro and Antonio de los Barcenas, to Veramendi took place during the next decade, adding to his holdings (BCDR F1:220). The property was further enlarged in 1819 with the purchase of an additional 15 *varas* (12.6 m; 41.6 ft.) on the north side from Francisco Amangual (1739-1812), a career military man who had purchased the property from Marcos de Castro (BCDR E1:169).

The property and the house that stood on it are noted for their role in the Battle of B exar in 1835 when it was stormed and taken by the Texian forces and used as a forward redoubt in the taken of the city. It is also the location where Colonel Benjamin Rush Milam was shot and killed during that battle and where he was buried. The role of the Veramendi property in that event is discussed in Appendix A.

Diego Ortiz de Parilla Lot (No. 13)

This lot was most likely awarded in 1736, but the grantee has not yet been discovered. The previously mentioned deed of 1777 provides a good deal of information on the lot including the seller and previous owner. Joachin Menchaca sold the lot to Antonio de los Barcenas on October 3, 1777, and the deed mentions that he had purchased the same lot from Diego Ortiz de Parilla, the former commander at Presidio de San Saba (BA V2:148). While there is a recorded deed for Ortiz Parilla from February 1759 in which he purchases a lot with two stone houses, it is clear from the size of that parcel and from the listed abutting property owners that it is not the lot under discussion. To date, the ownership linkage between the first owner and Parilla or that between Parilla and Menchaca have not been discovered. It is not known at this time how long the Barcenas family occupied the lot after 1777, but the lot became the property of the Trevi o family sometime in the early 1800s.

Depictions of Colonial and Mexican San Antonio

This section introduces the reader to what San Antonio looked like during the colonial period to 1836. It begins with a description of the typical colonial residences and town lots. It is followed by a discussion of two eighteenth century maps depicting San Antonio. Finally, it presents descriptions of San Antonio by those who visited it and how the town was viewed as a *villa* on the frontier.

The House

San Antonio began as a frontier community with construction of its structures dictated by material constraints and labor shortages (de la Teja 1988). At first, the dominate structure type was the *jacal*, generally a rectangular structure constructed of wooden poles with mud and/or clay plaster (de la Teja 1988). This type of construction was fast and cheap, and it was built with locally available material, as well as flexible in that additions built on to it (for a description of *jacal* types see Avery 2016; Wolf 2008). Figure 4-5 shows an image of a *jacal* dating to the early twentieth century, which is similar to the *jacales* built during the Spanish Colonial period (Texas Beyond History 2018). The gable structure is constructed of wattle and daub and has a thatch roof. The interior furnishings of the *jacal* were minimal. Robinson (1979) states that:

...the floor was earth, which was maintained by sweeping with a wet broom and packing with a wood block. There may have been a table, although often there was none. Chairs were never seen; instead stools made from appropriately shaped roots were used [...] beds were sometimes fashioned from mesquite, although often sheepskins were spread on the floor as beds-with the fur side up in winter and leather side up in summer [Robinson 1979:131].

De la Teja (1988) notes that after 1722, adobe and some limestone/caliche block structures were built, in addition to the *jacal* type (Figure 4-6). These combination stone and adobe structures were referred to as *chamacueros* while houses made entirely of stone were referred to as *casas de piedras*. The construction of the *chamaquero* was described by Adolph Herrera, the then owner of the Blas Herrera Homestead (41BX672):

Long cedar poles were cut and then placed vertically in the ground where windows or doors were to be located--- subsequent poles were placed every 2 to 2-1/2 feet. Cypress from the river banks then cut for shingles and small cypress strips were placed horizontally between the cedar poles, using pegs or square nails. Stones broken into small chunks, were then placed in between the poles/strips using adobe. The adobe was then pressed/ thrown into fill any chunks remaining... the whole wall was then smoothed with the adobe. Plaster made from limes, sand (from the river), cactus (prickly pear; cut and stripped), salt, and water, was the applied to the walls, with the final stage being that of white-washing [McGraw and Hinds 1987:248-249].



Figure 4-5. A jacal in Matamoros, Mexico, dating to the early twentieth century (Texas Beyond History 2018).



Figure 4-6. A caliche-block house, less its plastering, is shown on the left with a palisado (vertical logs placed in a trench) style house on the right on Laredo Street, San Antonio, circa 1920-1929 (UTSA General Photograph Collection 101-0057). The image also appears in Fisher 1996.

Ivey (2008) estimates there were 40 houses surrounding the *presidio* in 1731. De la Teja (1988) describes the typical home as rectangular, measuring 5-x-7 to 15 *varas* (4.2-x-5.9 to 12.6 m; 13.8-x-19.4 to 41.6 ft.), with an estimated interior space of 266-588 square feet. The average cost to build a house was between 200 to 500 *pesos* (de la Teja 1988:162). The house was generally divided into two to three rooms, depending on size. Generally kitchens were built apart from the living structure for safety and comfort reasons. In addition to these structures, the lots contained a vegetable garden, corral, and sometimes orchards. The average lot size ranged between 1,600-2,500 square *varas* (12,345.7-19,290.2 sq. ft.) within the APE.

The American abolitionist Benjamin Lundy briefly lived and worked in San Antonio in the early 1830s. He gave a detailed description of the appearance and in particular their roof construction and drainage systems of the *chamacuero* and *casa de piedra* houses:

Lime is used in covering the roofs of most of the stone houses in Bexar. The roof is commenced by laying cedar poles horizontally across the building from wall to wall, then across these poles smaller pieces of timber are laid compactly; and over them are put stones and earth rounded up in the middle; then over the whole a coating

of parget or rough-cast is laid. Around the roof, there is a sort of parapet, from which wooden spouts extend outwards, two or three feet, for carrying off the water. On some of these roofs, grass and the prickly-pear are seen growing. The roofs of the inferior houses are covered, some with shingles, some with bark laid after the manner of clap-boards, and some are thatched with a coarse grass which grows on the margins of the streams [Lundy 1847:50].

The home of Fernando de Veramendi was an exception to the small and modest homes generally found in San Antonio (Figure 4-7). Veramendi was a prosperous Spanish merchant, who settled in San Antonio sometime after 1770 (de la Teja 1988:165). The Veramendi home was referred to as the “Veramendi Palace” on account of its beauty and magnificence. It is not known when the appellation “Palace” was added to the home.

The original house acquired by Veramendi was 12 *varas* (10.15 m; 33.33 ft.) across the front. The house was enlarged by a *vara* (0.85 m; 33.33 in.) as a result of the land swap with the adjoining owners in 1781. As well as adding to the building itself, Veramendi erected a patio to the rear, enclosed by two stone walls measuring 12 *varas* (10.1 m; 33.28 ft.) east to west and 14.5 *varas* (12.28 m; 40.27 ft.) north to



Figure 4-7. The Veramendi House, circa 1860 (UTSA General Photograph Collection).

south. The eastern opening formed by the patio walls was enclosed with a 13-*vara* (11 m; 36.1 ft.) long wall with a 4.75-*vara* (3.9-m; 13.1-ft.) structure on the southern end (11 m; 36.11 ft.). The building was described:

as having a *saguan* [a large entryway] paved with flagging, one *sala* [room] and one *aposenito* [chamber] of brick; a living room roofed with mesquite shingles, on live oak beams; the *saguan* having two large doors, one opening on the street with its carved stone frame, and the other, entering the patio, with two other doors to the *sala* and *aposenito*; the *sala* having two windows, and the *aposenito*, one [Chabot 1937:250].

The house was valued at 1,880 *pesos* and 4 *reales* (Chabot 1937:250). An inventory of furnishings listed “9 chairs of rough wood with cane seats; six shades of painted glass with gilded trimmings; 1 large crystal vase with gilded decorations; and 1 sword, decorated with silver” (Chabot 1937:251).

Representations of San Antonio

A comparative review of the Menchaca Map of 1764 and the Urrutia Map of 1767 provides context for understanding the settlement of San Antonio. These maps do not consistently

depict accurate scale or geographic specificity in the same way that a modern map does. They are more of an abstraction than an actual depiction of the space and its component parts. In this report, they are used as visual aids to supplement the discussion on the development of San Antonio.

The Menchaca map (Figure 4-8) shows Mission Valero on the east bank of the river (A), opposite the bend of the Potrero (E); the correct relationship of the Presidio de B exar and Main Plaza with the church between with buildings surrounding the two plazas (B and C); and the developing colonial neighborhood (D). The relationship of the river and San Pedro Creek are shown, as well the relative location of the Acequia de Valero (upper left) and the Acequia de Concepci on (upper right).

While schematic, the map both excludes and includes prominent town features. For example, the map clearly shows the *acequias* for Valero and Concepci on, but it does not show the Acequia de San Pedro, despite its prominent use and location. Similarly, the map shows the general location and layout of the colonial neighborhoods, but a close inspection reveals that there are four blocks laid out east to west and three blocks to the north. This contrasts with the archival record that records only three blocks between the river and creek.



Figure 4-8. Detail of the Menchaca Map of 1764. The modern roads of Soledad and Main are identified in white. (John Carter Brown Library, Brown University).

The map shows a large expanse between the last block and the river, with an east to west fence between the last eastern block and the upper bend of the river. It also shows a palisade, which encircles the settlement. In the *Historia de la Provincia de Texas 1673-1779*, Fray Juan Agustín Morfi describes the palisade as “a poor stockade on which are mounted a few swivel guns, without shelter or defense that can be used only for firing a salvo” (Morfi 1935:92-92). This observation contradicts assessments by governors in 1744 and 1791, who complained of the lack of defenses, specifically the absence of any palisade surrounding the *presidio* (de la Teja 1988:159-160).

The Urrutia map (Figure 4-9) was created by Joseph Ramón de Urrutia y de la Casas, a military engineer, who served as a cartographer during the 1766-1767 inspection of frontier *presidios* by Marqués de Rubí. The map shows much of the same topography and infrastructure as the Menchaca map, and the maps show the same area, albeit three years apart. The orientation of the map is the same and the relative relationships of the plazas (A and B), and the colonial residential area (C) remain the same. It shows the settlement outside the bounds of the 1736 grants with structures occupying the former *propios* along the north-south route of Soledad Street, on the west side of San Pedro Creek (known as Barrio de Laredo), and in the Potrero. However, like the Menchaca map, there are a few inconsistencies. San Pedro Creek is drawn as an *acequia* rather than as an arroyo, the *Acequia de Valero* is

absent, and the Potrero (F) is somewhat exaggerated. The map does provide a more accurate depiction of both the colonial residential area, and it clearly shows the San Pedro *Acequia*. The colonial residential town lots are in the correct configuration of three blocks east to west and three blocks north-south, bisected by the *acequia*.

Observations of San Antonio

There are a number of firsthand descriptions of San Antonio during the Spanish Colonial period. Most of these descriptions are provided by administrators, such as governors or military commanders. There are also descriptions from diarists who accompanied these administrators and commanders, as well as commentary from religious officials. It is important to recognize that these accounts each present San Antonio and San Antonians from the particular bias or viewpoint of the author rather than from a neutral perspective.

Eighteenth Century

The Interim Governor of Texas from 1741-1743, Thomas Phelipe de Winthuysen, a Spaniard whose family originated in the former Spanish Netherlands, traveled extensively in Texas following his appointment. Governor Winthuysen described both the *presidial* and municipal areas of San Antonio during this period. He described the Presidio de Bexas stating:



Figure 4-9. The Urrutia map of 1767 (San Antonio Conservation Society, original in the British Museum Library, London).

The construction of the presidio amounts to nothing, since only the crudely shaped houses form a square plaza without any additional rampart. Consequently, there have been, and still are, incidents of the Apache entering at night and stealing horses, which were tied in the plaza. This is not due to a scarcity of quality stone because nearby there are excellent quarries. However, timber is scarce, because it is too far away, and the felling of trees and their transport would require a guard for protection because the enemies are raiding this country and the settlements [Winthuysen 1744 in Magnaghi 1984:173].

Winthuysen's statement on the young *villa* leaves the reader with little description, as he states "[t]he villa of San Fernando is contiguous to the said *presidio*. It is not at all progressive, since its settlers [the Canary Islanders] are more given to prejudice than to progress" (Winthuysen 1744 in Magnaghi 1984:174).

One observer of early San Antonio was Fray Morfi, who was the official diarist that accompanied the 1777-1778 inspection of the frontier by the Comandancia General of the Provincias Internas, Teodoro de Croix. Morfi recorded his impression of San Antonio:

On the west bank of the San Antonio River a little more than one league from its head, and in the angle formed by its junction with the San Pedro, are situated the Villa and Presidio composing one single settlement; but so mean (*mezquina*) that it hardly deserves the name of village (*aldea*). All of its buildings do not number over 59 little houses, of stone and mud, and 79 frames huts (*choxas de madera*). The greater part of them have only one small room. All are low, without floors, and comforts; and even without appearance.

The streets are without regularity, and so poorly cared for that as soon as it rains it is necessary to mount on horseback to leave the houses.

The barracks are uninhabitable, even for stables. The residence of the Governor Baron de Ripperda, when I was there, was the *Carzel* (Military Prison) and his wife gave birth to a child in the *Calabozo* [jailhouse]...where she had her bedroom.

The church...is already threatening to fall into ruins, though it is quite modern; and it is so much without ornamentation that the most wretched *pueblo* would have a much more decent one [Morfi 1783 as translated by Chabot 1932:57-58].

Early Nineteenth Century

The 35-year period from 1800 to 1835 witnessed a decline of the influence as well as independence of San Antonio. There are multiple causes for this decline including a population shift to ranches outside the town proper and the unsuccessful rebellions from Spanish control in both 1810 and 1813. Bexár played a prominent role in those unsuccessful revolts, which resulted in a large portion of the population being executed, imprisoned, or forced into exile (Ramos 2008). The 1813 rebellion included members of prominent families including the Arocha, Menchaca, Travieso, Veramendi, and Seguin families, as well as a large percentage of the less affluent population (Ramos 2008). After Mexican independence in 1821, the Province of Texas was merged with the more populous state of Coahuila resulting in diminished influence and power of San Antonio.

The appearance of San Antonio during this period is documented in a number of sources, both Mexican as well as American. From these accounts it is apparent that San Antonio retained the appearance of a frontier community that had changed little from the description of Morfi 60 years earlier.

In 1828, General Manuel de Mier y Terán, a boundary commissioner for Mexico, inspected Texas. Traveling with his entourage was a botanist and zoologist, Jean-Louis Berlandier, who recorded his view of San Antonio.

The streets of Bexár are not very straight, not only because of the windings of the river, which flows to the east of the houses, but also because that admirable regularity characteristic of every town founded by the Castilians in the New World was disregarded there. Two large squares, separated from each other by the church and some houses, do not draw the traveler's attention at all. The houses are for the greater part jacales roofed with thatch. The better ones are of a heavy and course construction, and the larger number have fireplaces [Jackson 2000:16].

Sub-lieutenant José María Sánchez y Tapia, also of Terán's inspection, corroborated this view of San Antonio:

The streets are not exactly straight, for they curve at various points, and the buildings, though many are of stone, show no beauty, nor do they have conveniences. There are two squares, almost joined together, being divided merely by the space occupied by the parochial church, but neither is worthy of notice [Castañeda 1936b:257-258].

The previously referenced Lundy lived briefly in San Antonio from August 23 to October 8, 1833, and he was one of the last to describe the town on the eve of the events that culminated Texas independence.

The town of Bexar contains about two thousand inhabitants. Many of the buildings are of stone, and very lofty, with flat roofs. The larger portion, however, are mere huts, constructed principally of poles, with one end set in the ground, in the form of picket fence. These huts are thatched with a kind of coarse grass, and are entirely destitute of floors [Lundy 1847:48].

The 1820s also saw the influx of Anglo Americans into Texas as a result of the Spanish policies begun in 1820 and continued under Mexican national policy until 1830 to encourage settlement along the Texas frontier. It was during this period that Stephen F. Austin first came to Spanish Texas in 1821, on the eve of Mexican independence, to negotiate the establishment of Austin's Colony (Castañeda 1950:189-190). The policy was too successful for by 1830 Anglo-American settlers outnumbered local "Mexican" Tejanos in population. The Mexican Central government, anxious to safeguard Texas as a possession of Mexico, passed The Colonization Law of April 6, 1830, severely restricting further colonization and "...its passage marked the culmination of the government's slowly crystallizing conviction that unrestricted immigration from the United States was a dangerous error" (Castañeda 1950:242). While the Law of April 6, 1830, was designed to restrict further American colonists, it was not designed to be punitive to those already legally present in Texas. However, this law, coupled with the usurpation of power by General Santa Anna in 1832 and the abolition of the 1824 Mexican Constitution, precipitated revolts in Texas that led to the Texas Revolution of 1836.

The Texas Revolution began as a revolt against Santa Anna and for the Restoration of the 1824 Constitution. The Siege of Béxar is often considered one of the first conflicts of Texas

Independence, but in actuality, it was a defiant stand against Santa Anna's centralized government and for the restoration of the Constitution of 1824. The events that followed the success of the Battle of Béxar that ended the siege in December of 1835 developed into a revolution of disassociation and independence from Mexico. However, the Siege of Béxar and the subsequent Battle of the Alamo in March 1836 had direct repercussions on San Antonio with death and property destruction severely affecting the population.

Summary

This chapter presented the 117-year period beginning the establishment of the Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar, Villa de Béxar, and Mission San Antonio de Valero in 1718 and Mission San José in 1720 to the official founding of Villa San Fernando de Béxar and the arrival of the three Franciscan missions from Spanish East Texas, Concepción, San Juan, and Espada in 1731. These independent institutions—the Presidio and its unofficial Villa de Béxar; the five independent mission *pueblos*, and the official Villa de San Fernando—formed the basis of the Spanish effort to colonize the northern frontier of New Spain. Over time, with the arrival of the Canary Islanders in 1731 and other settlers throughout the eighteenth century, San Antonio became the largest community on this frontier. However, it remained essentially a frontier outpost, with its growth thwarted by internal (the development of an economic base independent of the military) and external (Spanish Colonial and Mexican policy) events. The immigration of Anglo-Americans to the eastern portion of Texas in the 1830s exacerbated its decline and ultimately led to conflict and separation from Mexico. During the course of the DTSR-Main/Soledad project, CAR identified three properties associated with the Spanish Colonial and Mexican period. They are 41BX2170, a foundation and midden on the de Niz/Arocha lot, 41BX2164, a foundation and midden associated with the de Castro/Veramendi lot, and 41BX2201, a Spanish Colonial-period foundation and midden. In addition, CAR documented a trench feature associated with the Mexican defenses during the Siege of Béxar.

Chapter 5: Historical Context of the Main and Soledad Project Area, 1836-Present

Maria Pfeiffer, Clinton M. M. McKenzie, and Leonard Kemp

This chapter continues the history of properties within the APE, beginning with the Republic of Texas period in 1836 to the present-day San Antonio. The first sections, covering 1836 to the 1860s, deal with the migration of Anglo-Americans to San Antonio, which changed the demographics and appearance of San Antonio. The properties within the APE began to change from essentially family residences to commercial and public buildings. The next sections detail the modern development of San Antonio, beginning in the 1870s and continuing into the mid-twentieth century. The APE is transformed during this time with not only the construction of multi-story buildings but also the creation of new infrastructure and public utilities. The final section encompasses the post-World War II years to the present day. During this time, businesses within the APE reflected a nationwide trend in which downtown commerce declined and was replaced by suburban businesses and the transition to a tourist-based economy of hotels and restaurants.

The chapter is organized chronologically, generally by decades and by blocks, with discussion of specific lots, properties, and/or buildings as they relate to the APE. Like the previous chapter, the story may shift from the specific to the overall to provide or reiterate context if necessary, for the narrative.

San Antonio from 1836 to the 1840s

Following Texas independence, the city consisted of former residents joined by diverse, non-Hispanic newcomers, marking the beginning of great change in San Antonio's social, political, economic, and architectural landscape. Itinerant travelers and missionaries observed the condition of the town and the beginning of its transformation, and they documented the community as it rebounded in the years immediately after independence. For example, when William Lindsay surveyed San Antonio in 1838, he referred to the street leading north from the northeast corner of Main Plaza—Soledad Street—as “American Row,” likely for the changing property ownership that had already begun to transition from the descendants of early settlers to non-Hispanic, Anglo-American newcomers (BCDR A2:148-149).

San Antonio's political climate remained unsettled during this period, and the process of rebuilding the community was slowed by a series of dramatic events that disrupted everyday life. For example, from their vantage point at the corner of Soledad and Commerce streets, the Maverick family witnessed the Council House Fight, an encounter on March

19, 1840, between Texan troops and Comanche leaders and warriors that resulted in over 30 tribal deaths (Schilz 1996:2:365-366).

In addition, ongoing hostilities between Mexico and the Republic of Texas escalated following Santa Anna's return to power in 1841. As rumors of a Mexican invasion spread in early 1842, the Mavericks and other families fled San Antonio in the exodus that became known as the Runaway of '42. Mexican forces led by General Rafael Vasquez occupied the town during March 1842 in a short-lived attempt to reestablish Mexican rule (Covington 1996:5:713-714).

Because of the political and economic instability during the Republic period, San Antonio was not in a prosperous condition when Texas entered the Union on December 29, 1845. The permanent presence of the United States military in San Antonio and border conflict led to the United States-Mexico War from 1846-1848. After the defeat of Mexico, a degree of regional stability was established, and San Antonio began to grow and prosper. Figure 5-1 shows the lots, properties, and location of the San Pedro Acequia/Ditch discussed in the following sections dealing with the project area during the 1830s to the 1840s. It is based on the 1877 Sanborn map with properties and lots modified to fit this period (1840s).

Soledad Street

Writing in her memoirs, Mary Maverick recalled arriving in San Antonio in 1838. Like others who settled in the town soon after Texas independence, Samuel and Mary Maverick rented before purchasing their own home at the northeast corner of present-day Commerce (formerly known as the “Main Street leading to the Potrero”) and Soledad streets in January 1839 for \$1,950 (BCDR A-2:148-149). Maverick wrote:

The main house was of stone, and had three rooms, one fronting south on Main Street and west on Soledad, and the other two fronting west on Soledad Street—also a shed in the yard along the east wall of the house toward the north end. This shed we closed in with an adobe wall and divided into a kitchen and servant's room. We also built an adobe servant's room on Soledad Street, leaving a gateway between it and the main house and we built a stable near the river [Green, ed. 1921: 23].

The remodeling of the Maverick house adapted the vernacular colonial design to contemporary use. The linear arrangement



Figure 5-1. This image is a schematic of lots and buildings dating to the 1830s to the 1850s.

was, of necessity, preserved, but the long room that was typical of more substantial, upper class houses, was divided into two rooms, possibly a parlor and bedroom. The house remained compatible with surrounding structures, while melding Spanish and Anglo design features (Hafertepe 2005:5-8).

Across Soledad Street from the Maverick’s garden, Irish merchant William Elliott purchased a house for his family in 1839 (Chabot 1937:232; Green, ed. 1921:25). The house

“had a board floor, glassed windows, the panes were imported of course, and a chimney. Mrs. Howard always told that this was the first house in San Antonio to have such “modern improvements” (Chabot 1937:292).

North of this property and across Soledad Street was the Veramendi House. Maria Teresa Veramendi y Cantu was the wife of Jesús Cantu, Sr., the daughter of Juan Martin Veramendi and Joséfa Navarro, and the granddaughter of

Fernando Veramendi. She inherited the property after she came of legal age to receive the land. The property was held by Maria Theresa Veramendi y Cantu until it was sold to her husband Jesús Cantu, Sr. in 1847 (BCDR F2:82-83). Jesus Cantu sold the property to his brother-in-law, M. A. Veramendi, in July of 1848 (BCDR G1:343-344), and he, in turn, sold the property to J. Fermin Casiano in January 1850 (BCDR H1:501).

The De la Garza Block

Across from the Huizar property was the block granted by the Spanish government to the de la Garza family by Governor Carlos Benites-Franquis de Lugo in 1736. The de la Garza family continued to hold title to the property throughout the 1850s.

North of Main Plaza

Artist William G. M. Samuel's painting of the north side of Main Plaza in 1849 shows a streetscape that was still reminiscent of colonial Spanish and Mexican flat roof homes constructed of stone or adobe (Figure 5-2). One notable exception was the three-story Plaza House, built by William Elliott in 1847. The Plaza House was one of the first

American-style hotels in San Antonio (Steinfeldt 1978:38). To the west (left) of the Plaza House were buildings that stood on land inherited by the children of Maria Joséfa Rodriguez and Manuel Yturri-Castillo after their parents' deaths in 1841 and 1849, respectively (Daughters of the Republic of Texas [DRT] Library Collection: Abstract of Title Made for Saul Wolfson, New City Block [NCB] 909). One-story buildings formed the corner of Main Plaza and lined Soledad Street. An unnamed resident who arrived in San Antonio in 1847 recalled that the building at the corner of Soledad Street and the plaza was a small square structure with a back room attached (*San Antonio Daily Express*, March 6, 1886). It was built of rock and mud, had a dirt floor, one window and a door, and was roofed in grass.

Main Avenue

By the time Samuel had depicted William Elliott's hotel in his 1849 painting, Elliott had acquired land along Main Avenue, north of the Yturri-Castillo property. In 1847, Elliott leased this property to John W. Phillip, with the understanding that Phillip would construct a dwelling house and kitchen (BCDR G1:43-44). Phillip immediately sublet the property to Czech immigrant Dr. Anthony Dignowity, assigning to Dignowity "all the interest, right, and title which

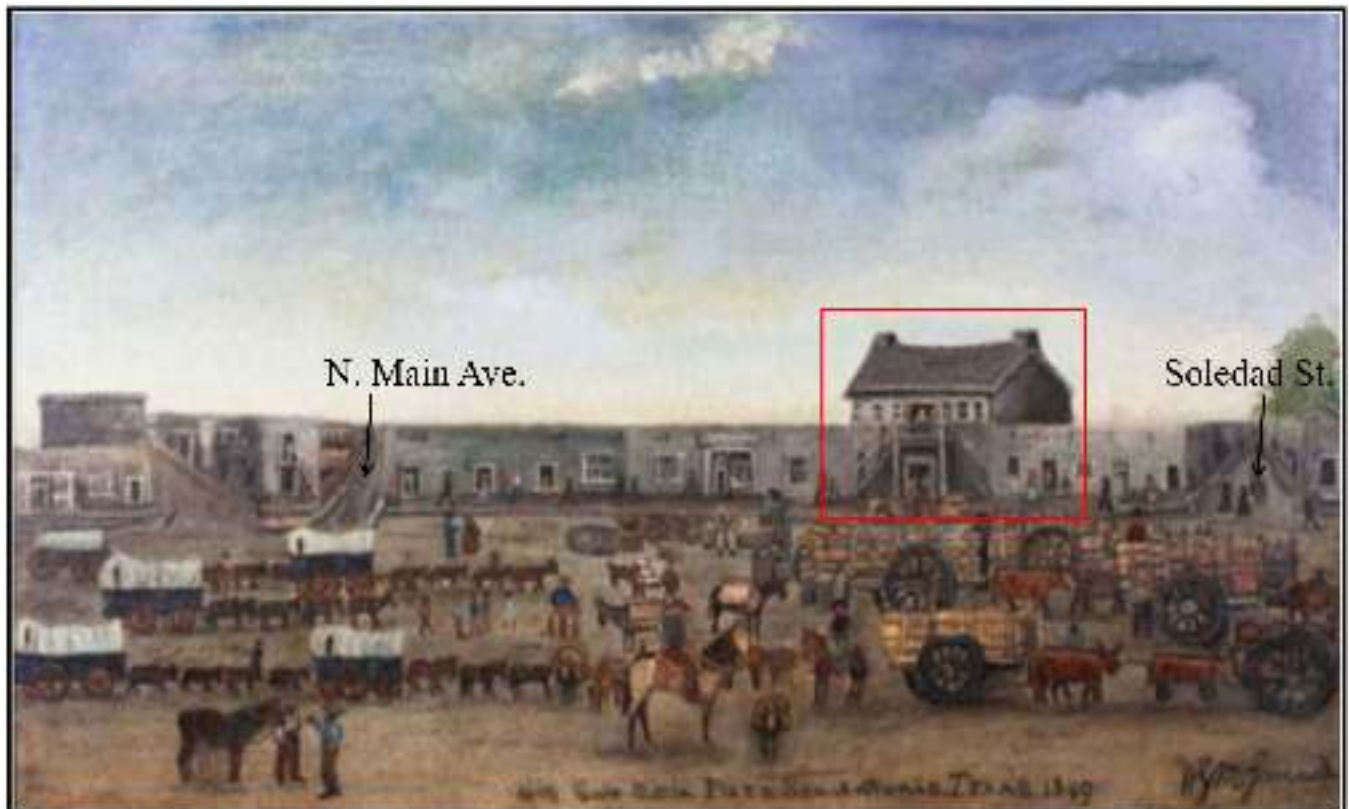


Figure 5-2. 1849 painting of the north side of Main Plaza by William G. M. Samuel. The Plaza House is highlighted in red with both Soledad Street and Main Avenue identified (Image courtesy of Bexar County).

I have in the improvements and buildings placed on the lot” (BCDR G1:43-44). Dignowity came to Texas in 1846 with the intention of serving as a doctor in the Mexican War, but instead he remained in San Antonio and prospered in real estate (Machann 1996:2:642-643; Pease 1972:78).

In the days following the Texas Revolution, the entire block on the west side of the *acequia*, bounded by streets known in the early 1800s as Presidio (Commerce), Rivas (Houston), Acequia (Main) and Calle del Norte (Flores) was owned by the Zambrano family. Though some of the block remained in the Zambrano family until the late 1800s, a portion of the property was transferred as early as 1835 when Nicolas Flores, with the consent of his wife, Dolores Garza, conveyed land to Pedro Martinez (BCDR J1:250-251). His widow, Gertrudis Urena y Martinez, inherited the property, which fronted 40 *varas* (33.8 m; 111.1 ft) on Main Avenue. In 1840, following the deaths of Juan Macario Zambrano and his wife, Juana Ocon y Trillo, a portion of the property was conveyed to Maria Joséfa Zambrano y Flores and Petra Zambrano (STC B115, Abstract of Title, NCB 110).

Recorded documents provide some information regarding the property facing on the west side of Main Avenue in the years after 1836. These references provide insight of the community’s revival during the Republic of Texas period. In 1840, Juan A. Zambrano sold a “house now being built on the lot belonging to the estate of Marcario Zambrano and Juana Ocon y Trillo” to Erasmo Seguin, together with a billiard table. (BCDR A2:332-333). However, to satisfy a judgment against Juan Zambrano for slander in 1841, the same lot, house, and billiard table were sold at Sherriff’s auction to Edward Dwyer (BCDR A2:442; STC B:17). Erasmo Seguin filed suit to recover the property and court costs, but the suit was dismissed in favor of the Sherriff as the original deed between Zambrano and Seguin had no consideration given in its text and had been backdated by Zambrano and Seguin (STC B:17). The property was bounded by lots owned by Juan Seguin on the south and Pedro Martinez on the north, indicating the sale of one of the parcels previously owned by the Zambrano family.

San Pedro Acequia/Ditch

Following the Texas Revolution, the San Pedro Acequia continued to be utilized for both irrigation and drinking water. It was during this time the Spanish word “*acequia*” began to be replaced with the English word “ditch,” with the latter term becoming universally used in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. The *acequia* system requiring abutting property owners to maintain their respective portions of the canal apparently fell into disuse during the turbulent period of 1830-1836. As a result, in 1838, the new City Council that

replaced the former Spanish/Mexican *cabildo*, took action to address the problem by passing an ordinance reasserting the former requirements that were in place prior to Texas independence:

BE IT ORDERED That in conformity with the laws and regulations of this Corporation, all those persons whose property lies on the Acequia which crosses the City, shall within ten days from the date hereof be obliged to clean out so much of said Acequia as by the former regulation they were bound to do, under the penalty of being fined in such sum as the Council may deem necessary to carry this object into effect [City Council Minutes-Texas Works Progress Administration Journal (CCM-TWPAJ) A-24:482].

Despite the 1838 ordinance, it appears that the condition of the San Pedro Ditch had deteriorated so badly that in 1840, the City Council passed a thorough and comprehensive ordinance consisting of 15 sections of code governing both the San Pedro Ditch and the Alamo Ditch (CCM-TWPAJ A-71:594-599). This ordinance made clear that the San Pedro Ditch needed rehabilitation “...having not been cleaned out for many years and require much labor...” to repair to be of service (CCM-TWPAJ A-24:594).

San Antonio in the 1850s

The town remained tightly organized around its plazas and major thoroughfares until the mid-1850s. Irrigated land north of the Alamo was still largely used for farming and land to the east along the road to Nacogdoches remained undeveloped. With the exception of neighborhoods immediately west of San Pedro Creek and along the road that led south to Laredo, open fields were used for grazing. Development began to spread in the mid-to-late 1850s as new houses were constructed on the Alamo’s former farmlands to the south along the *acequias* and San Antonio River. The town’s unpaved open plazas remained gathering places for the community, and the streets radiating from them were extended outward from the city’s center. Some thoroughfares followed the river, creek, and long-established roads that led to Mexico and East Texas. Other streets were laid out along the *acequias* built in the early to late 1700s that remained in use for much of the nineteenth century. As the city grew, the area incorporating the APE changed from a residential neighborhood to a more commercial area.

Contributing to San Antonio’s growth in the 1850s was military activity that stimulated the local economy (Wooster 1987:121). Shops that stocked and manufactured supplies

to provision the troops prospered. San Antonio's streets and plazas were filled with wagons loaded with goods that freighters transported to the distant posts. To support the military in West Texas, the U.S. Army rented buildings throughout San Antonio for storage, housing, and offices. The Alamo became the quartermaster's depot, and the two-story limestone Vance Building, the first major building on Houston Street, was constructed in the early 1850s and leased to the army (BCDR J2:552-553; Steinfeldt 1978:121). The building constructed by Mitchell at the corner of Soledad and Houston streets was leased to the United States Government for use as an ordnance depot (BCDR P1:185).

San Antonio's population growth accelerated modernization of the town's antiquated building stock and aging infrastructure. The arrival of large numbers of European immigrants, many of them German, effected the look of the city. In January 1854, travel writer and architect Frederick Law Olmsted wrote of the changing appearance of the city:

From the bridge we enter Commerce street, the narrow principal thoroughfare, and here are American houses, and the triple nationalities break out into the most amusing display, till we reach the main plaza. The American dwellings stand back, with galleries and jalousies [louvered blinds] and a garden picket-fence against the walk, or rise, next door, in three-story brick to respectable city fronts. The Mexican buildings are stronger than those we saw before, but still of all sorts, and now put to all sorts of new uses. They are all low, of adobe or stone, washed blue and yellow, with flat roofs close down upon their single story. Windows have been knocked in their blank walls, letting the sun into their dismal vaults, and most of them are stored with dry goods and groceries, which overflow around the door. Around the plaza are American hotels, and new glass-fronted stores, alternating with sturdy battlemented Spanish walls, and confronted by the dirty, grim, old stuccoed stone cathedral, whose cracked bell is now clunking for vespers, in a tone that bids us no welcome, as more of the intruding race who have caused all this progress, on which its traditions, like its imperturbable dome, frown down [Olmsted 1860:150].

Olmsted also wrote of the effect that immigrants had on the architectural traditions of San Antonio:

The singularly composite character of the town is palpable at the entrance. For five minutes, the houses were evidently German, of fresh square-cut blocks of creamy limestone, mostly of a

single story and humble proportions, but neat, and thoroughly roofed and finished. Some were furnished with the luxuries of little bow-windows, balconies or galleries [Olmsted 1857:49].

German artist Hermann Lungkwitz painted a historically accurate image of San Antonio in 1857 entitled *Crockett Street Looking West* with San Fernando in the distant center (Figure 5-3). It shows the town's expansion with modest stone houses with gable and mansard roofs on what was the Mission Valero grounds. This type of roofing is not typical of Spanish Colonial style structures with flat roofs and is more akin to Anglo and Northern European architectural styles.

Newspaper accounts chronicled changes in the San Antonio's streetscape in the 1850s, as well as its increasing prosperity.

We have been pleased with the evidences which are manifested in the improvement of old buildings and the erection of new ones in our city. Hard as times have been, men have found the means to push along the needful improvements... Such is the healthful growth and prospects of our city that within the last five years the number of buildings has doubled and those going up are nearly all of stone and many of them at a cost of from \$10,000 to \$50,000 each [*San Antonio Herald*, June 12, 1859].

The De la Garza Block

After José Antonio de la Garza's death in 1851, his wife and children inherited the family property and continued to live and work there for over 30 years (*San Antonio Light*, March 27, 1910). The family built additional structures on the block, including one that was leased to Hugo F. Oswald in 1854 at the corner of "a street opened as a continuation of the street leading from the new bridge across the San Antonio River" to the west (BCDR L2:308-309).

North of Main Plaza

Sam Smith purchased the building on the corner of Soledad Street and Main Plaza and the two adjoining houses to the north along Soledad Street from Maria Jacoba Travieso in 1851 (BCDR J2:286-287). Smith and his partner Jack Leslie operated a saloon at the corner that later became known for illicit activities and murders (*San Antonio Daily Express*, March 6, 1886).

Main Avenue

Gertrudis Urena y Martinez and her eldest son Manuel Martinez sold a 10-x-40 *varas* (8.4-x-32.6 m; 27.7-x-106.8



Figure 5-3. Painting of San Antonio streetscape y Hermann Lungkwitz (San Antonio Museum of Art).

ft.) portion of their property fronting on N. Main Avenue in June 1854 to William McHenry, who immediately sold it to Solomon C. Childress and J. A. Rice. Childress and Rice operated a saddlery business on the site (BCDR M2:129-130, M2:130-131). Benjamin R. Sappington's livery stable was located just to the south. Late in 1854, Gertrudis Martinez and her four children sold the lot north of Childress and Rice's property to José Casiano (BCDR M2:430-432). Over a period of four years, the property changed hands as many times. Casiano sold the property to Isaac Leightner in 1856 (BCDR N2:155). Leightner, in turn, sold the property to Benjamin R. Sappington in 1857 (BCDR O2:473-474), who sold it in 1858 to Edward Higgins (BCDR R2:362-364). Sappington also purchased property for his business on the east side of Main Avenue.

To the south of the house Anthony Dignowity leased in 1847, Manuel Menchaca and Concepción Casanova sold a house and lot in 1851 to Nathaniel Lewis, whose dry goods store was located nearby on Main Plaza. The property purchased by Lewis was bounded by the Yturri-Castillo and Elliott properties to the south, fronted 23 *varas* (19.4 m; 63.8 ft.) on Main Avenue, and ran back to Soledad Street (BCDR K1:338). It was described in the deed as having been

occupied by Lewis as a dwelling house for the last three years. Lewis owned the property for three years until he sold it to livery stable owner, Benjamin R. Sappington, in 1854, who constructed a building on the site to house his business (BCDR M1:329-330).

Soledad Street

The lot north of the Maverick property that had been previously occupied by Juana Flores was owned by her son Lorenzo Treviño in 1852. Treviño split his property into north and south portions, and he sold it in two transactions to Sam S. Smith in 1852 and 1857, respectively (BCDR K1:545-546, P1:310-311). The 1852 deed conveying the north, or upper half, stated that Smith was already occupying the property. This was corroborated by Mary Maverick, who recalled in her memoirs that Sam Smith was already living there when she and her family returned to San Antonio in 1847 (Green, ed. 1921:24).

By 1851, M.D. and Phebe Faylor had leased the Veramendi House from J. F. Cassiano and were operating it as a hotel. The proprietors promised to "spare no exertions to make the same equal, if not superior, to any hotel in Texas" (*San Antonio*

Ledger, October 30, 1851). The house had been repaired and “rooms fitted up in a neat and comfortable style; new and clean beds, with an entire outfit of new and commodious furniture” (*San Antonio Ledger*, October 30, 1851).

On the north end of the block, at the southeast corner of Soledad and Houston streets, was the lot known as the “Huizar property” where the Mavericks had rented before purchasing their house (Green, ed. 1921:21-23). Asa Mitchell, one of Austin’s “Old Three Hundred,” acquired the lot in 1853 from Huizar family members and Roderick T. Higginbotham, who also held an interest in the property (BCDR L1:486-487). Mitchell’s deed stated there were houses on the property. In 1857, Mitchell constructed a three-story, stone building with a basement on the site. Mitchell also constructed another building on the site to the south, preserving a “right-of-passage through what is now known as the ordinance lot for the purpose of casting off the dirt or rubbish from the said new building” (BCDR P1:185-186).

Sam Smith sold the southern part of his property to George T. Howard in 1857 (BCDR P2:246-247). Howard conveyed it to the Alamo Masonic Lodge No. 44 the following year (BCDR P2:508-509). At the time the Alamo Lodge trustees purchased the site, it ran back to the river and was filled with large pecan trees (*San Antonio Light and Gazette*, April 10, 1910). The trustees soon made plans to erect a three-story building. In March 1858, they signed a contract with John Hermann Kampmann and John M. Campbell for \$16,681 to construct the building. Kampmann and Campbell were to

furnish materials, erect, put up, and prepare for use, according to plans and specifications herewith signed by said parties, a certain building on a lot fronting Soledad Street on the east...the same ground lately bought of Thos. G. Howard and Saml. Maverick by said committee on behalf of said lodge [BCDR R2:275-277].

In June 1858, the trustees purchased a 5-ft. strip of Smith’s remaining property to the north and entered into a party wall agreement with him (BCDR R1:15-16). When completed in 1859, the new lodge building fronted directly on Soledad Street and included porch verandas on the south elevation with a separate street entrance and stairs (Figure 5-4).

San Pedro Ditch

The actions of the City Council in 1840 effectively began the municipalization of the San Pedro and Alamo ditches through the appointment of Ditch Commissioners and the levying of fees and fines for use or abuse of the irrigation systems.

During the Spanish and Mexican periods, the *cabildo* acted as the legal authority to organize the cleaning and maintenance of the ditches by those persons who had abutting property. It was essentially a public and private collaboration. Beginning with the 1840 ordinance and continuing into the 1850s, the City, acting through the Ditch Commissioners and through subsequent actions of the City Council, incrementally assumed more and more responsibility for the maintenance of the ditches. The San Pedro Ditch effectively became part of the city’s infrastructure, and the cleaning and maintenance of the system became a municipally directed responsibility (Corner 1890:50). The City relied on the collections of water rents, fines, and special taxes to support the cleaning, maintenance, and improvement of the municipal ditches (City Council Ordinance Book [CCOB] 1:24; Cox 2005). It was during this same period of the assertion of municipal control that the San Pedro Ditch was converted from a simple dirt channel to a stone lined channel. A City Council resolution on February 10, 1852:

resolved that the Mayor be and is hereby authorized to review proposals for constructing a ditch across the Main Plaza in line of the present delapidated [sic] one of the following dimensions: 3 feet wide at the bottom and four feet at the top of solid masonry of stone laid in sand and lime wall eighteen inches thick to be paved at the bottom with flat stone [CCOB 1:23].

As the decade progressed, the remaining portions of the ditch within the APE were also lined with stone, as was the Alamo Ditch (Cox 1985:2).

The increasing urban population relied more and placed greater strain on the San Pedro Ditch. As a result, the City Council passed a series of ordinances restricting the uses of the ditch, as well as attempting to prevent its pollution. City Council passed an ordinance on March 22, 1852 prohibiting

the defiling of the Main Acequia on the Main Plaza. Any and all persons washing clothes, watering horses, or any wise defiling the water of the Main Ditch of the San Pedro [...] shall pay a fine of no less than \$1 dollar and no more than \$5 dollars [CCOB 1:26].

San Antonio in the 1860s

The period of growth that marked the 1850s was interrupted by the outbreak of the Civil War. Texas voted for the Ordinance of Secession on February 1, 1861. During the Civil War, the town fared relatively well due largely to San Antonio’s strategic location along routes leading to Mexico. Confederate cotton and other goods were transported across the border to Mexican ports that were not under Union



Figure 5-4. Circa 1868 view looking north on Soledad Street showing Alamo Masonic Lodge No. 44, constructed 1858-1859 (Image courtesy of Alamo Masonic Lodge No. 44).

blockade, and returning goods needed to supply the South traveled through Mexico to Texas. This economic exchange sustained San Antonio throughout the war.

The town's post-war streetscape was virtually unchanged from its pre-war appearance. The buildings within the APE depicted by A. J. Mauermann on his sketched map of the city in 1868-1869 are generally small and surrounded by undeveloped land (Figure 5-5). The de la Garza property on the west side of Soledad Street at Houston Street was the most densely single developed tract, and the Alamo Lodge Masonic Building was prominent on the east side Soledad Street, south of the Veramendi property. The route of the San Pedro Ditch remained virtually unchanged during this period and is consistently depicted on maps throughout the nineteenth century and into the early twentieth century. The San Pedro Ditch is also depicted in the Mauermann Map, where it is shown running along the west side of N. Main Avenue.

Soledad Street

Major pieces of property changed hands during this period as owners and/or their descendants divested themselves of valuable real estate. Mitchell, who owned the property on the

east side of Soledad Street at the corner of Houston Street, died in 1865, and his extensive estate was partitioned among her heirs in 1866 (BCDR U1:42-44). In 1869, Lot 4 of the Mitchell subdivision was sold to South Texas rancher and real estate investor Ross Kennedy (BCDR V1:243-244). Mitchell's family sold the corner lot at Houston and Soledad streets to Joseph Dwyer in 1868 (BCDR U2:379-380).

North Side of Main Plaza

When Doerr and Jesse photographed the north side of the plaza in the late 1860s (Figure 5-6), the portions of the block east and west of the Plaza House hotel remained as they had appeared in earlier years (see Figure 5-2). To the east (right) of the hotel, a two-story building with tall gabled roof stood on Smith's property facing the plaza. A long-time resident, who described the original building on the property, recounted that contractor David Russi constructed the two-story building (*San Antonio Daily Express*, March 6, 1886:4). It measured (18.28 m (60 ft.) fronting the plaza and 33.52 m (110 ft.) along Soledad Street (Bowser 2004:62). The first business in the new building was called the Cosmopolitan Saloon.

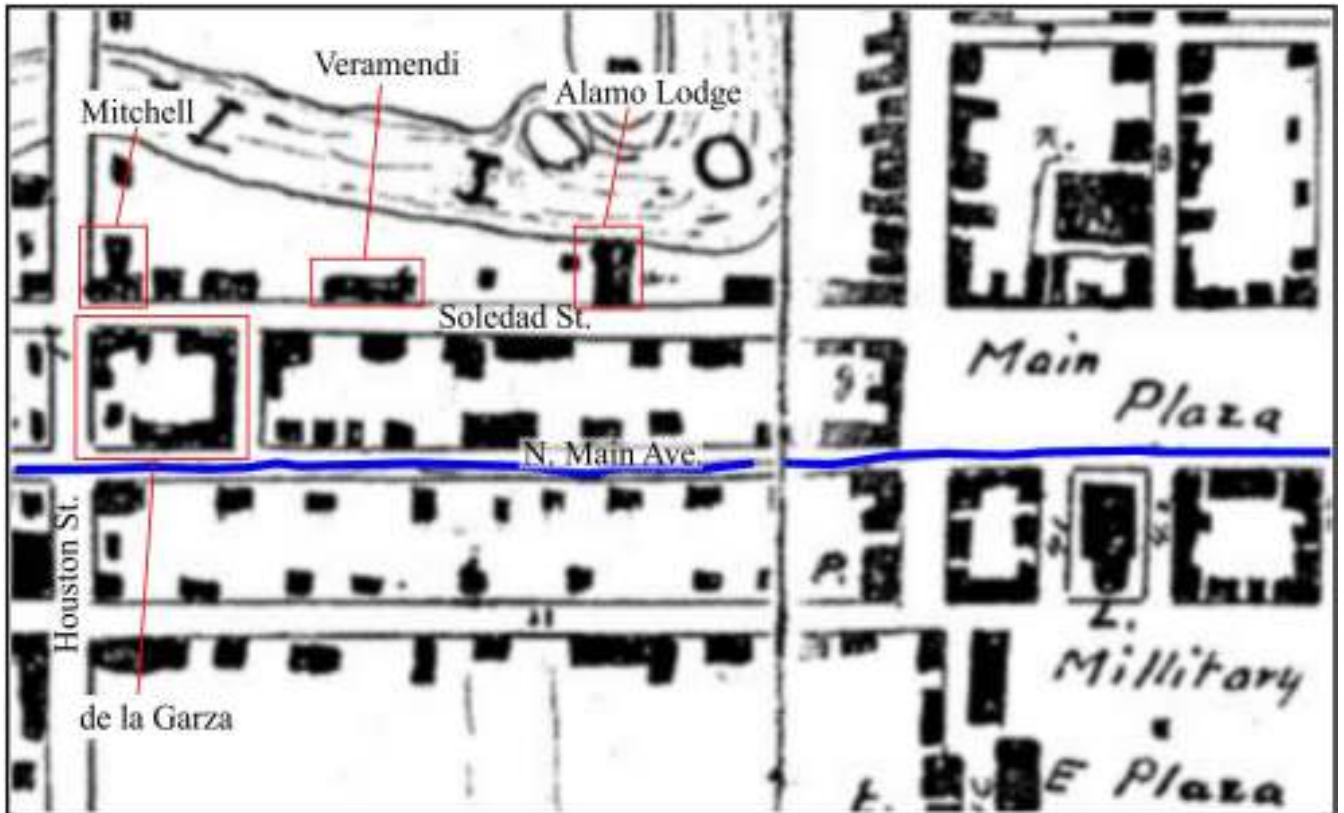


Figure 5-5. Detail of City of San Antonio made circa 1868 and 1869 by A. J. Mauermann with identified structures and properties. The San Pedro Ditch is shown in blue. Copy of original map held by the DRT Library, Texas A&M University-San Antonio.



Figure 5-6. Photograph by Doerr and Jesse of the north side of Main Plaza circa 1868 (Image courtesy of Maria Watson Pfeiffer).

The colonial residences originally constructed by Bueno de Rojas and the Arocha families in the eighteenth century were still present in the 1860s. These were the lots sold by Arocha in 1838 to Yturri-Castillo that were inherited by his heirs, Manuel de Yturri-Castillo and Elena G. de Yturri-Castillo. These buildings at the corner of the plaza and N. Main Avenue were reminiscent of the Spanish Colonial period.

Between Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue

Benjamin R. Sappington, who had operated his stable north of the Yturri-Castillo's property since 1854, sold it to another stable operator, W. D. Cotton, in 1864 (BCDR T1:272-273). The Sappington-Cotton property extended from Main Avenue to Soledad Street, and it was just south of the previously discussed buildings occupied in the 1850s by Dr. Anthony Dignowity and Nathaniel Lewis.

W. D. Cotton conveyed his business to his only son, Alfred M. Cotton, in 1866. The gift included Cotton's blacksmith shop "opposite my livery stable," all of the tools, household furnishings, and the building that faced on Soledad Street, which was occupied at that time by a saddler and harness maker by the last name of Jaggi (BCDR T2:593-594, T2:627-628). Cotton deeded his horses, mules, carriages, ambulances, hearses, and harnesses to his son. The Jaggi referred to in Cotton's deed was likely a relative of his wife, Julia Jaggi Cotton. Cotton's will, executed in 1866, left the lot where the business stood to his three daughters, Kate, Adrienne, and Louisiana (STC B88 F557 Probate Records A:11).

San Pedro Ditch

Following the Civil War, the City passed a series of regulatory ordinances in 1865 again stipulating requirements on property owners who abutted the San Pedro and Alamo ditches or branch ditches of the same (Cox 2005:52). In May and August of the following year, the City passed ordinances prohibiting disposal of refuse into the ditches and having any privies that encroached upon the ditches (CCMO 54:77-79; Cox 2005:52-53). Despite these regulations, however, a cholera epidemic struck the city on September 2, 1866, and continued until October 12, with 292 deaths reported (Corner 1890:154, 159) in part due to the poor sanitation of the ditches. The cost to the City for disinfecting the ditches, burials, support of families, payment of physicians, and medicines was reported at \$7,542.82 (*San Antonio Express*, October 11, 1866:4).

San Antonio in the 1870s

San Antonio's post-war, Reconstruction-period economic recovery was fueled by several factors that resulted in a substantial population increase and the resumption of

construction (Heusinger 1951:76). Some of the growth was due to the cattle trade that thrived from the 1870s into the 1880s. The town became a gathering place for ranchers and those who drove cattle to northern shipping points. Stores catering to their needs opened, and camp yards were set up north and south of the plazas and west of San Pedro Creek.

The arrival of the Galveston, Harrisburg, and San Antonio railroad in 1877 marked the beginning of San Antonio's modern era of growth and transformation. The railroad transported building materials and manufactured products heretofore unavailable or scarce in San Antonio. A review of local newspapers and city directories show a burgeoning trade in construction goods and other commodities that were possible because of reliable rail traffic. For example, the multiple new lumberyards opened adjacent to the railway terminals resulted in San Antonio transitioning from stone-built homes and businesses to those built with lumber, brick, and cast iron. Lumber arrived from East Texas forests, cast iron from St. Louis and New Orleans, and sandy yellow brick from Laredo and across the border in northern Mexico (Cox 1997:23-24). The railway imports included heavy construction materials, such as iron trusses, once transported by wagon from Texas ports. Rail transport of these construction materials made it possible to erect larger bridges to carry increased traffic across the San Antonio River (Fisher 2007:12-13).

Commerce Street remained San Antonio's major commercial thoroughfare throughout the late 1800s, transitioning from a low-scale mix of residential and commercial buildings to a densely developed business corridor lined with multi-story structures. Due to the economic recovery, the landscape within the APE began to change in the 1870s. This change can be seen on the Koch's Bird's Eye View (1873) and the 1877 Sanborn map (Figures 5-7 and 5-8). The commercial aspect of the neighborhood can be appreciated by the presence of only four structures listed as dwellings, as outlined in white on the Sanborn map (Sanborn 1877:2). The remaining structures are offices, boarding houses, saloons, stores, and trade buildings.

Soledad Street

The 1877 Sanborn map (see Figure 5-8) shows Asa Mitchell's 1857 stone, three-story building still present. A one-story house previously between Mitchell's and the Veramendi House was replaced in 1875 by a two-story, stone building built for Ross Kennedy by Patrick Walsh (BCDR 4:264; A:31-32). The Mitchell and Kennedy buildings shared a party wall (BCDR 102:435-436). Kennedy's structure at 38 Soledad Street became known as the "Times Building" for the *San Antonio Times* newspaper that was published there (Rowell 1887:953).

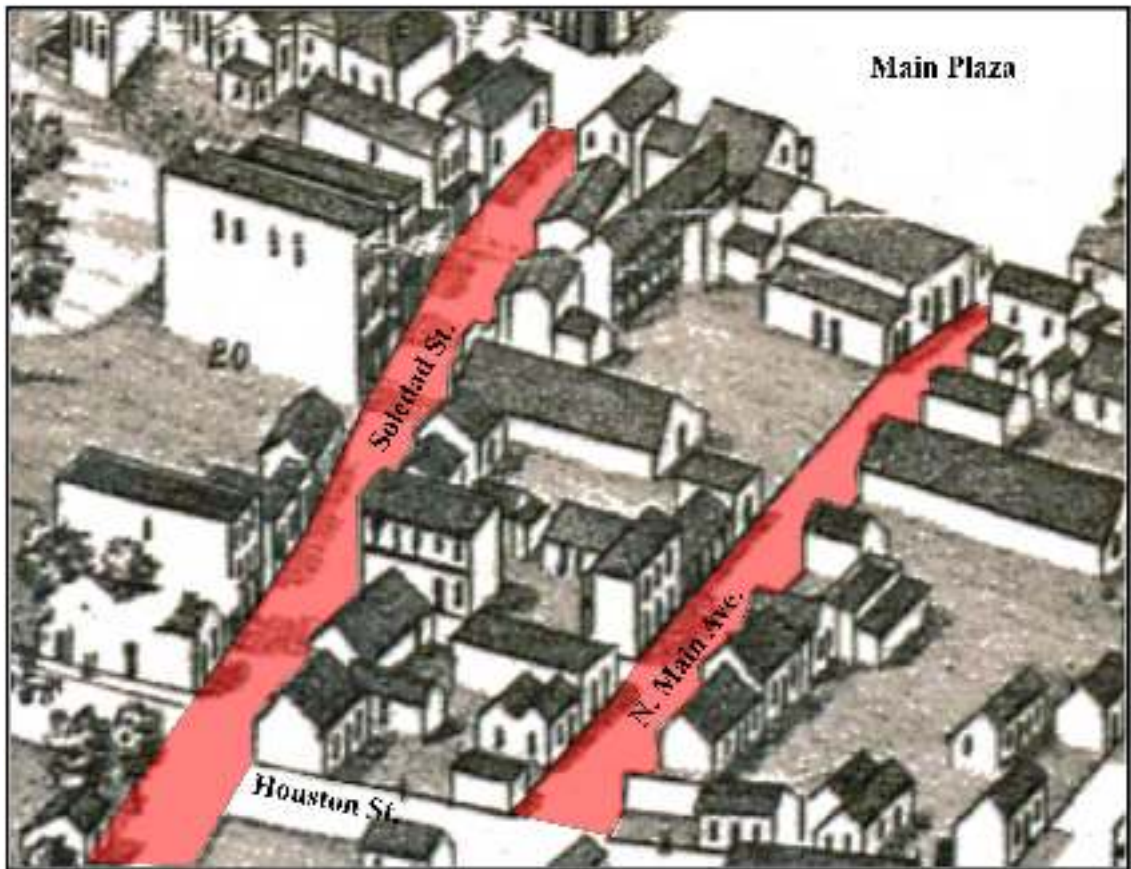


Figure 5-7. Augustus Koch's 1873 Bird's Eye View of San Antonio showing the APE in red, view from the north-northwest, looking south-southeast (Koch 1873).

One impact of San Antonio's population growth was the reorganization and expansion of city and county government. Prior to the 1870s, county and municipal governmental functions, while legally separate and with differing responsibilities, were jointly housed in a building on Military Plaza. By 1870-1871, the growth of city and county government resulted in the County having to separate several of its offices and court functions and find a location for a new courthouse (Santos 1979:4). Coincidental with this governmental reorganization, members of the Alamo Masonic Lodge on Soledad Street were unable to service their mortgage and mechanic's lien debts. Beginning in 1869, the Lodge borrowed nearly \$10,000 in gold, with the Lodge building and grounds as surety to support the servicing of the existing debts (BCDR T3:344-345, T3:364-365). Ultimately, in February of 1872, the Bexar County Commissioners negotiated the purchase of the Masonic Building from the lodge and the adjoining property to the north from Thomas J. Devine for use as a new courthouse and jail (BCDR X1:112-114; X1:115). On October 3, 1872, the Bexar County Commissioners Court ordered:

The courthouse of the County of Bexar is and shall be on the east side of Soledad Street, in the

building formerly owned and occupied by the order of A.F. and A.M. known as the Masonic Building, and recently sold by them to the County of Bexar [Commissioners Court Minutes (CCMM) 3-A:351].

J. H. Kampmann was hired by the County to build a fireproof, two-story addition to the former Lodge for the county and district clerks (Santos 1979:5). This structure is adjacent to the northeast corner of the courthouse on the 1877 Sanborn map.

Koch's 1873 map shows the Maverick house still standing at the corner of Soledad and Commerce streets. Three taller buildings had been constructed adjoining the house to the north (Figure 5-9). The construction dates of these buildings have not been firmly established. While they are illustrated on the 1873 map, they do not appear on Mauermann's 1868-1869 map. It is possible that the buildings were constructed before Sam Maverick's death in 1870 as an investment to provide income for his family. Maverick's extensive real estate holdings were partitioned among his heirs in 1874, by which time buildings were already standing on the Soledad Street lots (see Figure 5-8; BCDR 4:30-31; BCDR 5:515-518).

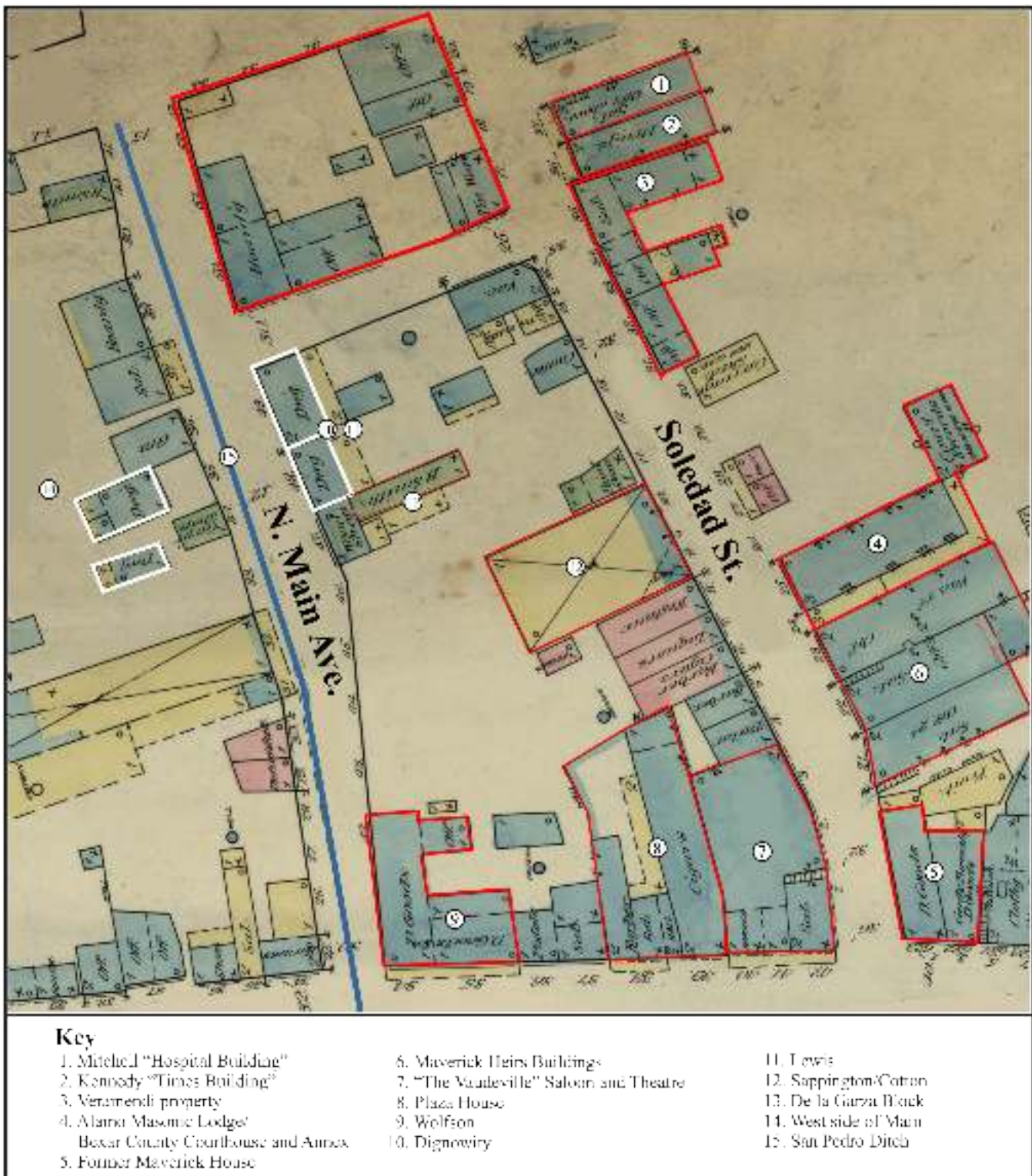


Figure 5-8. Detail of 1877 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map, Sheet 7 with buildings or properties discussed in the sections. The structures highlighted in white are the remaining residential buildings. (Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection, Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps Texas [1877-1922], Dolph Briscoe Center for American History, University of Texas at Austin, original from the collections of the Geography and Map Division, Library of Congress).

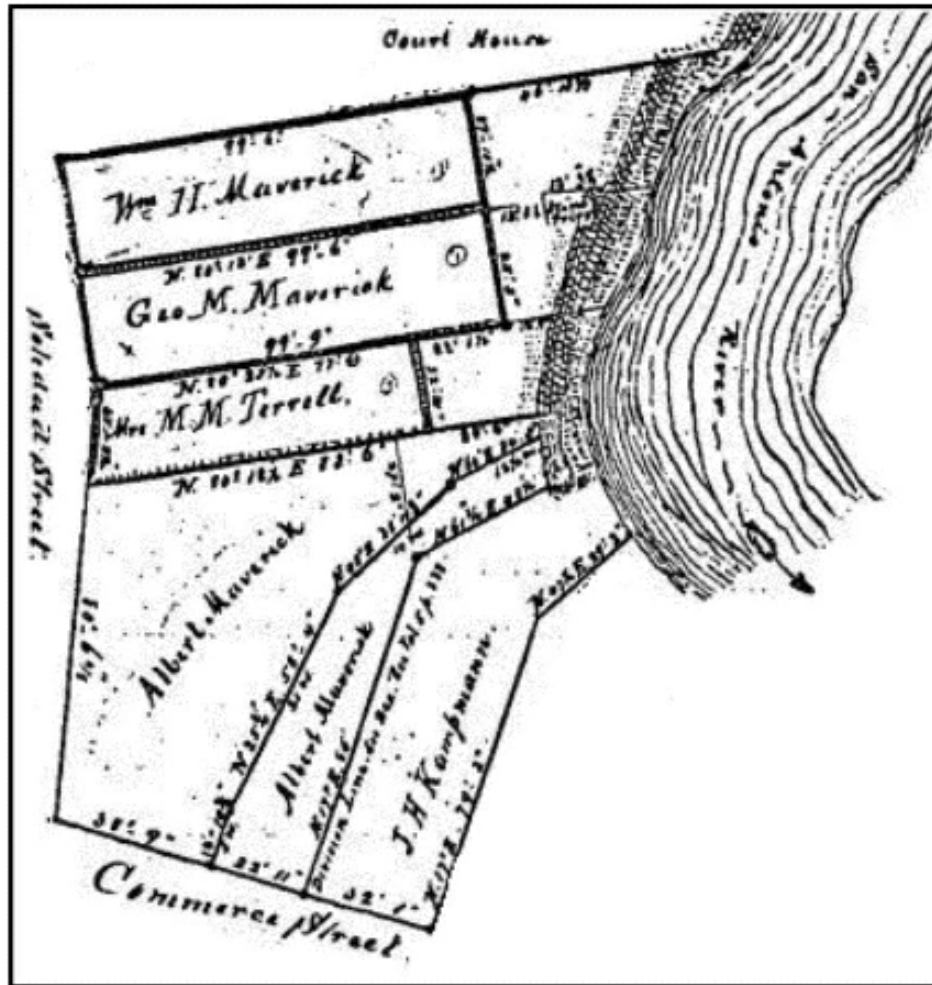


Figure 5-9. Sketch of a survey of three improved lots on Soledad Street in the City of San Antonio, belonging to Maverick Heirs showing contiguous property. Surveyed August 4, 1877 (BCDR 5:525).

North Side of Main Plaza

By 1871, the Cosmopolitan Saloon that occupied the 1860s two-story building was replaced by the Jack Harris Vaudeville Saloon and Theatre (referred to as the Vaudeville; Bowser 2004:55). The Vaudeville was a 150-seat theater, 48.77 m² (525 ft.²) saloon, a wine room, an upstairs gambling area, and a tobacco shop (Bowser 2004:62-65).

The residential structures at the corner of the Plaza and N. Main Avenue were converted to commercial use in 1869-1870. A lease agreement by the family of Yturri-Castillo to dry goods merchant Leopold Wolfson in 1874 stated that Wolfson had already occupied the building for four or five years and that a portion of the building was used as a storehouse. At the time of the 1874 lease, Wolfson agreed to make improvements, including construction of a new wall and replacing the interior floor (BCDR X1:543-545). He subsequently purchased the property in 1878 (BCDR 13:51-52).

Between Soledad Street and Main Avenue

The Cotton family property north of the Yturri-Castillo lots remained in the family until it was sold at a sheriff's auction in April 1873 (BCDR X1:284-285). Phillip Shardein purchased the property and subdivided the lot into two portions, selling the north half to Joseph Carle and his son, Andre, and the south half to Cotton's daughter, Elizabeth (BCDR X1:285-286, X1:333-334). The Carles, who were merchants in Castroville, consolidated the property in 1879 by purchasing the southern half from Elizabeth Cotton (BCDR 9:482). The elder Carle sold his interests to his son in May of 1882 (BCDR 23:89-91). The building north of the Soledad Street livery stable was occupied by a paint store, as depicted on the 1877 Sanborn map (Figure 5-8).

The buildings on the de la Garza property at the north end of the block between Soledad Street and Main Avenue were used for a variety of businesses in 1877. Leonardo de la Garza

lived in the house at the corner of Soledad and Houston streets until 1874, when he moved to other family property north of town on River Avenue. De la Garza continued to maintain his office on the homestead property (*San Antonio Light*, March 27, 1910). The 1877 Sanborn map shows the building at the Soledad and Houston streets being used as an office, together with a small building on Soledad Street just to the south used as a tin ware shop (see Figure 5-8). The 1877 Sanborn map also shows the northeast corner of Soledad and Veramendi streets, the one-story stone building was used as a boarding house, designated the “Daily House,” and an office.

Main Avenue

Across Main Avenue from the Wolfson and De la Garza properties, the former Zambrano Row properties were beginning to fill with buildings by 1873. By 1877, the buildings facing east onto Main Avenue were largely built of stone, and most were occupied by businesses. These included a harness shop at the corner of Presidio Street (now West Commerce St.) and Soledad Street, a livery stable that extended from Main Avenue west to Flores Street, and a blacksmith shop near the corner of Houston Street. Interspersed were a carpentry shop, grocery, saloon, and a boarding house. These businesses provided services typical and essential to the town’s economy in the 1870s. The buildings depicted on the 1877 Sanborn map (see Figure 5-8) generally appear to correspond with those illustrated on the 1873 Koch map, indicating that there was little additional development in the early to late 1870s.

The livery stable (31-32 Acequia) illustrated on both the 1873 Koch and 1877 Sanborn maps was operated in the 1860s by Benjamin R. Sappington, who also lived on the property (BCDR T1:207-208). By the 1870s, William R. Story, operated his livery business there. Businesses depicted on the 1877 Sanborn map on the west side of Main included J. Henry Schaefer’s groceries and provisions business (36 Acequia), and William Henschkel’s saloon (37 Acequia; Mooney and Morrison 1877; Sanborn 1877:V1:S2).

San Antonio from the 1880s to 1890s

As illustrated on the 1888 Sanborn map of 1888 (Figure 5-10) and Koch’s Bird’s Eye View of 1886 (Figure 5-11), the blocks within the APE experienced many changes in the late nineteenth century. The Kampmann Block (1883-1884) was the last building designed and built by John H. Kampmann, who was San Antonio’s leading contractor, its third largest real estate owner, and civic leader (Valentine 2014). Its location on Commerce and Soledad streets was the most prestigious business address in San Antonio (Valentine 2014). It housed the Lockwood and Kampmann Bank and the

Galveston, Harrisburg, and San Antonio Railway Company (Valentine 2014). Three other notable buildings within the APE, the Soledad Block, the Bexar County Courthouse, and the Wolfson Store, were the work of classically educated, English born architect, Alfred Giles, who had worked for Kampmann for three years (George 2006). Giles was one of several formally trained architects whose work redefined the architectural vocabulary of San Antonio. The simple, cut-stone buildings designed and constructed by contractor-architects of the pre-railroad era were replaced by more sophisticated structures that reflected styles popular in major American cities and Europe.

Business investment and expansion in the APE along Soledad Street, Main Avenue, and Main Plaza were attributable at least in part to the introduction of street railway transportation beginning in the 1870s. The expanding footprint of the city and introduction of new technology allowed entrepreneur Colonel Augustus Belknap to establish the city’s first modern street railway line in 1878. Belknap graded roadbeds and laid tracks for a mule-drawn streetcar that initially ran from Main Plaza, north on Main Avenue, and to San Pedro Park (see Figure 5-11; Watson 1982:33-38). Following Belknap’s initial success, other street railway franchises were granted, and tracks were laid in all directions from downtown. This gave rise to a lively real estate investment and development economy as vacant, previously rural, properties were transformed into new residential neighborhoods (Watson 1982).

San Pedro Ditch

The City struggled with maintaining the San Pedro Ditch during the last part of the nineteenth century, enacting ordinances relating to cleaning and maintenance of the ditch and penalties for violators (Frkuska 1981:5; Cox 2005:61-65). The west side Ditch Commissioner’s report for March 1883 reported that the income from water rents on the San Pedro Ditch exceeded expenses by \$1,080.25 (*San Antonio Light*, April 9, 1883:1). However, subsequent years saw steady declines in income, and the report for 1891 had expenses exceeding income by \$2,072.22 (CCMB I:424-425).

The advent of a public water system in 1878 and public sewerage in 1890 further reduced the need for the San Pedro Ditch. By the late 1890s, it was used as a stormwater channel and refuse disposal along much of its course (Arneson 1921:129; Cox 2005:68; Frkuska 1981:6). In 1899, the City Council established the position of Superintendent of Street Cleaning and Sanitation and hired August Santleben to fill the position (*San Antonio Daily Light*, February 28, 1899:5). Santleben reported on the poor condition of both the San Pedro Creek and Ditch at the March City Council Meeting and that both needed cleaning and the ditch needed repair (*San Antonio Daily Light*, March 14, 1899:24).

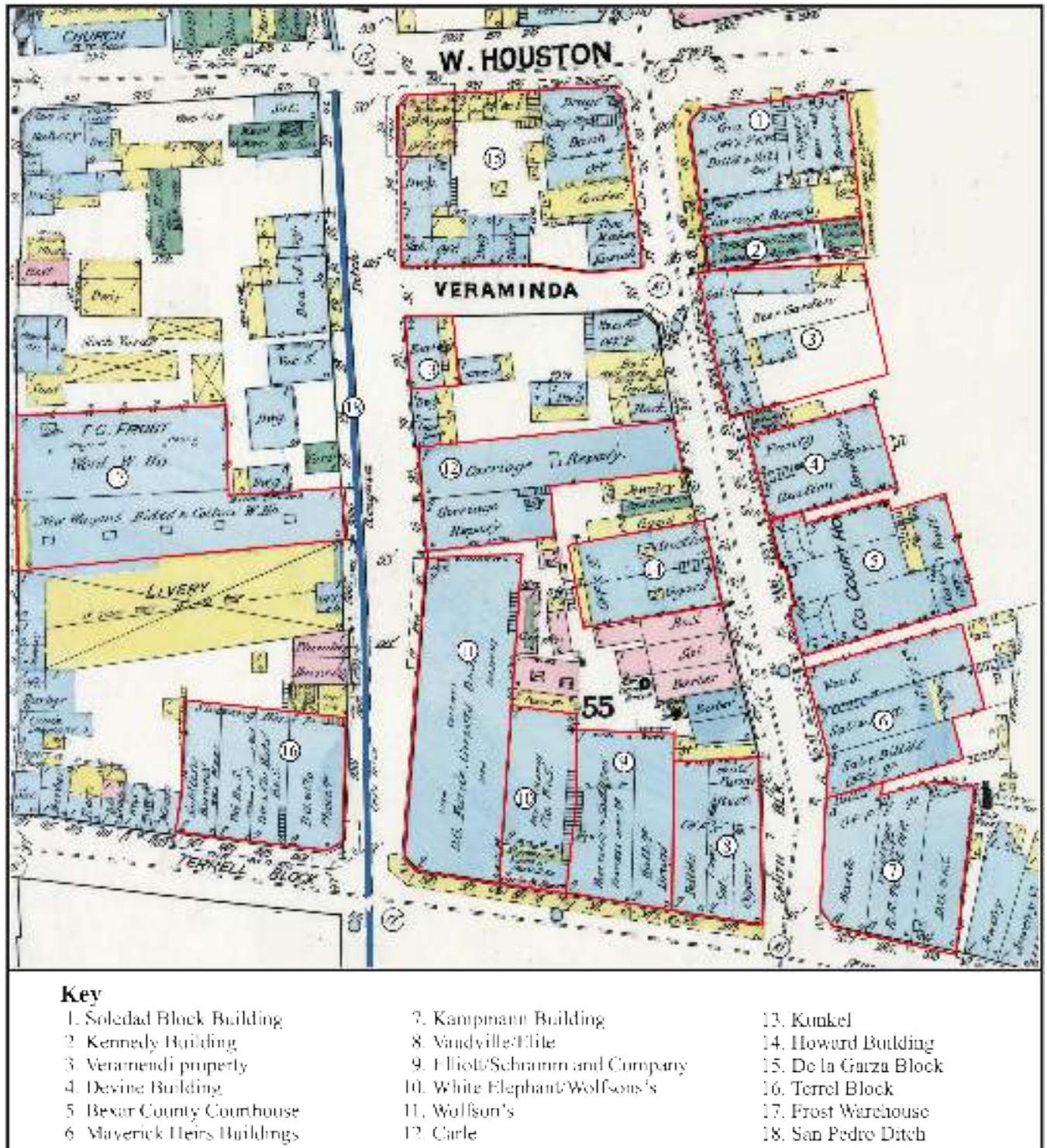


Figure 5-10. Detail of the 1888 Sanborn Fire Insurance Map, Sheet 7 (Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection, Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps Texas [1877-1922], Dolph Briscoe Center for American History, University of Texas at Austin, original from the collections of the Geography and Map Division, Library of Congress).

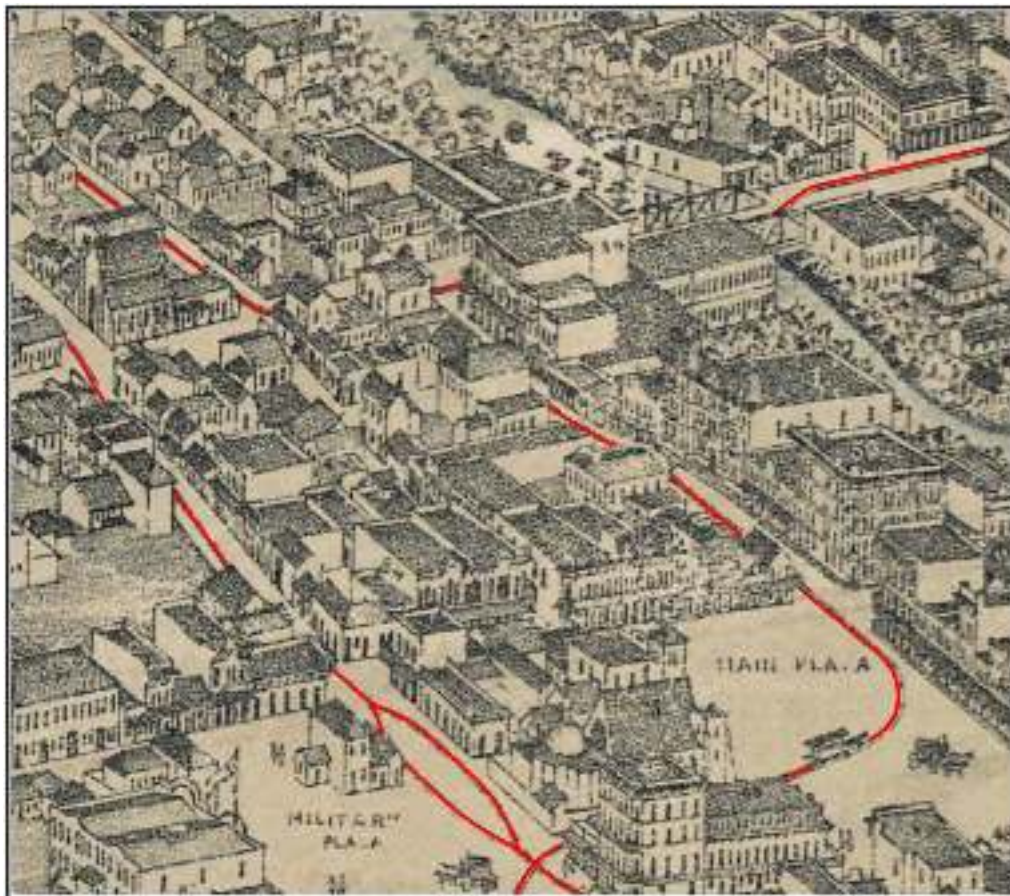


Figure 5-11. Koch's 1886 Bird's Eye View of San Antonio showing a mule-drawn streetcar leaving Main Plaza with north-south lines on Soledad Street, and additional lines on N. Main Avenue, Houston Street, and Flores Street (Amon Carter Museum, Fort Worth, Texas).

Soledad Street

The building known as “The Soledad Block” at the corner of Houston and Soledad streets was constructed on Asa Mitchell’s former property (Figure 5-12). Mitchell’s property was purchased by Dwyer in 1868, and he sold it to William Maverick in April 1883 (BCDR 26:245). Maverick began construction of his new building in June 1883, and when it was completed in 1884, the building was the most imposing structure on Houston Street west of the river (Corner 1890:148; George 2006:9; Jutson 1972:97). The Soledad Block was a multi-use building from the time of its construction. The White House Saloon, which occupied the ground floor in the early 1890s, was succeeded by the famed Buckhorn Saloon in the late 1890s. Patrons would view Albert Friedrich’s growing collection of horns and natural history oddities (Morrison and Fourmy 1883-1884; *San Antonio Daily Light*, December 10, 1895; *San Antonio Light Express*, December 6, 1956:4).

In 1885, the Times Publishing Company that printed the *San Antonio Times*, a daily and weekly publication, occupied

Ross Kennedy’s building south of the Soledad Block. The 1888 Sanborn map showed the building as the printing office and composing room of another publication, the *San Antonio Democrat* (BCDR A:31-34, V1:243). On February 25, 1892, a devastating fire swept the block bounded by the San Antonio River and Houston and Soledad streets (*San Antonio Daily Express*, February 26, 1892). The Soledad Block was badly damaged, and the two adjoining buildings to the south, including the Kennedy Building, were damaged. The fire reportedly stopped at the Veramendi House (*San Antonio Daily Express*, February 26, 1892). The Kennedy Building was reconstructed after the fire, and a third story was added (*San Antonio Daily Light*, March 22, 1893, March 28, 1893).

The Veramendi Property

Henry Laager, who had purchased a portion of the Veramendi property from J. F. Casiano for use as a saloon, was declared a habitual drunkard by the court and the property was sold by his wife Bettie to John James in 1882 (BCDR 19:635-637; DRT Library Collection, Abstract of Title Veramendi House Property). James apparently rented the property to Matthew

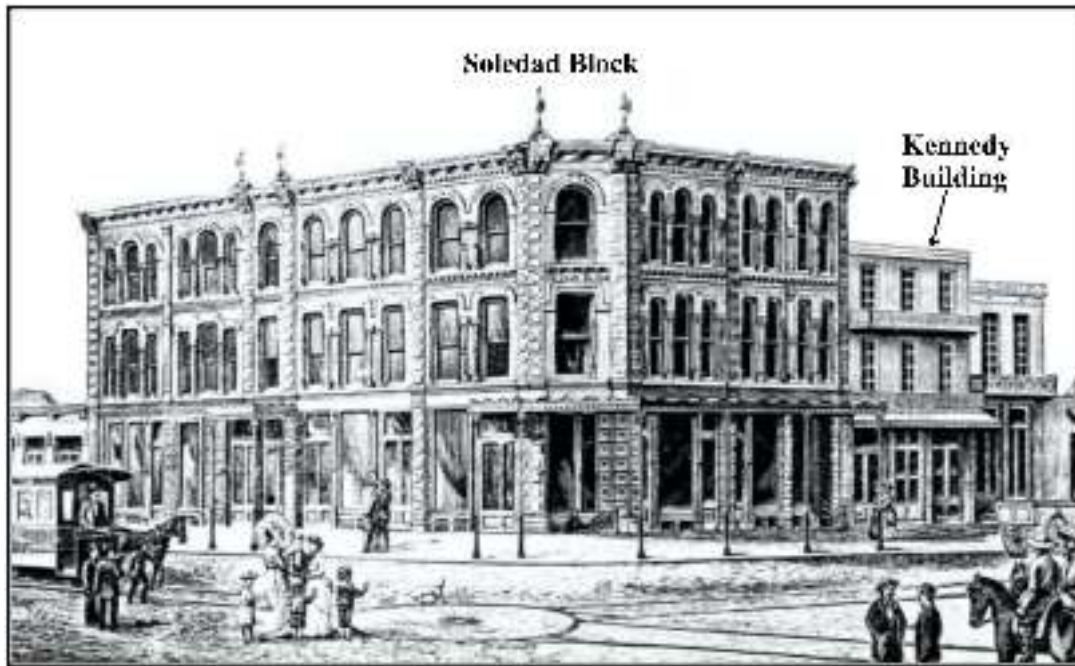


Figure 5-12. The Soledad Block at the corner of Houston and Soledad streets (Morrison and Froumy 1885). Note the horse-pulled street car, rails, and turn-around.

S. Decker, who operated it as a saloon called the “Veramendi Garden” in 1885 (Figure 5-13). A saloon and beer garden are identified on the 1888 Sanborn map.

Lydia E. Caldwell acquired a half interest in the property in 1888, and it continued as a saloon operated by Henry Collmann up to 1892 (Appler 1892; BCDR 39:374; Morrison and Froumy 1885). By 1899, the Craig-Williams Furniture Company occupied the Veramendi House (Appler 1899). Caldwell and her children sold their interest to F. F. Collins in 1900 (BCDR 184:542-544).

The Devine Building

George T. Howard purchased land south of the Veramendi House from Sam Smith in 1860 (BCDR H2:497-498). The Howard property was divided, and a portion sold by Mary F. (Howard’s widow) to Thomas J. Devine in 1870. Devine purchased the portion of the property previously sold by Howard and consolidated the lots in 1877 (BCDR U1:136, U1:443, W1:21, W1:436; 7:149). The 1877 San Antonio city directory lists the elder Devine’s office at the corner of Commerce and Yturri streets (Mooney and Morrison 1877). Thomas J. Devine and his son, Thomas N. Devine, entered into a law practice together in 1878. The following year, in the 1879-1880 directory, the two had their office together in the “Devine Building” on Soledad Street between Commerce and Houston streets (Mooney and Morrison 1879-1889). Kampmann designed the building (*San Antonio Daily Express*, September 8, 1885).

The Bexar County Courthouse

The old Alamo Masonic Lodge Building continued to be used as the Bexar County Courthouse into the early 1880s. In 1882, the architect Alfred Giles was selected to expand and remodel the existing structure. Giles designed it in a Second Empire Style (Figure 5-14), creating a front façade that was 24.9 m (82 ft.) in length, a three-and-a-half-story structure, topped by mansard roofed pavilions on both ends of the building (Santos 1979:6-7). The commissioners accepted the “elegant new courthouse” on April 3, 1883 (Commissioners Court Minutes C:121, C:164, C:311, E:422). Just four years after the completion of the Giles additions, the courthouse again required enlargement. The Commissioners Court purchased the Meny Building (112 Soledad), south of the Courthouse, in 1888 with plans to expand in that direction. However, with the creation of the 45th District Court in late 1888, it became clear that an entirely new site was required to accommodate all the court functions and County Government in a single building (Santos 1979:7). After a five-year process of land acquisition, design, and construction, the new courthouse was completed in 1896 and the Soledad Street building was vacated (Santos 1979:12).

The Kampmann Building

Albert Maverick sold his property at the corner of Commerce and Soledad streets (Figure 5-15) to John Hermann Kampmann in July 1883 (BCDR 26:377; *San Antonio Light*, July 9, 1883:3). The buildings that housed clothing and dry



Figure 5-13. The “Veramendi Garden” looking east from Veramendi Street. The building on the right is a business called Ellis Roberts Manufactory, circa 1885 (UTSA Special Collections, 83-88).

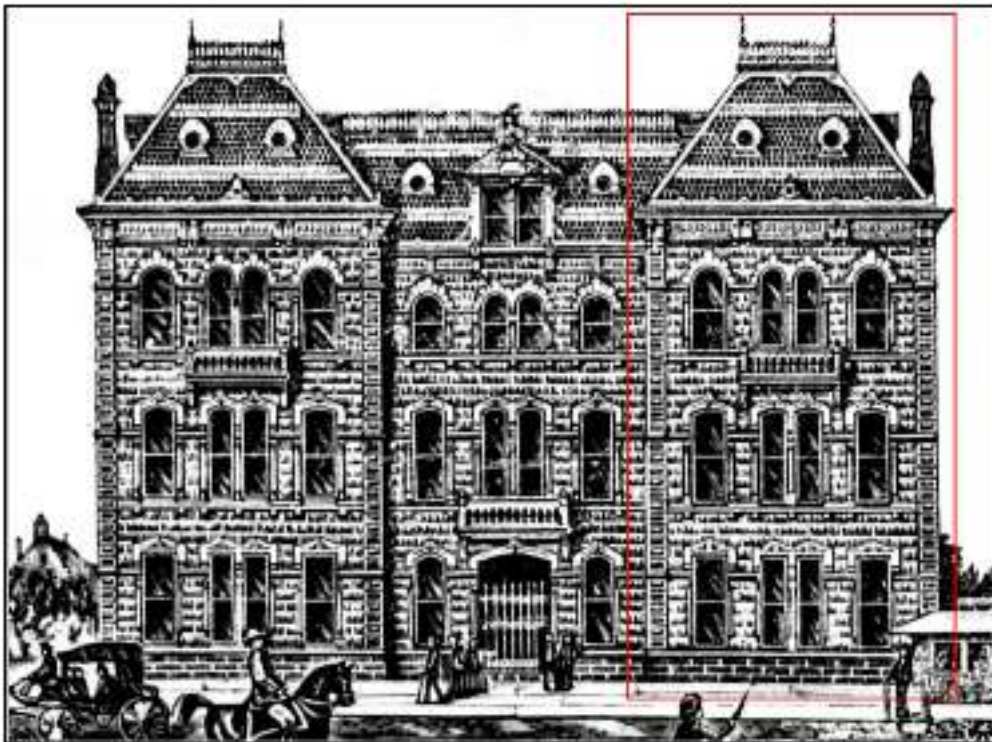


Figure 5-14. Architectural drawing of the Bexar County Courthouse on Soledad Street (Morrison and Fourmy 1885). The portion highlighted in red is the location of the former Alamo Lodge No.44. Note the streetcar in the lower right.

goods stores were demolished and replaced by a building known as the “Kampmann Block” (Valentine 2014).

At the time, the four-story building and basement was the tallest building in San Antonio, and it featured the town’s first elevator (Valentine 2014:167). The façade of the building (see Figure 5-15) consisted of a:

Ground floor faced with thirty-inch thick, rough-cut stone with arched openings, like an Italian palazzo banking house, and the remaining three floors dressed with smooth cut stone. Windows on the upper floors featured carved stone surrounds with Renaissance caps of three different shapes, one for each floor. The corner of the building was chamfered so the entry face the plaza [...] The decorated cornice was topped by a pediment with the simple announcement of “BANK” [Valentine 2014:165].

Following Kampmann’s death in 1887, the building was occupied by a succession of banks including Alamo National Bank and National Bank of Commerce (*San Antonio Express*, December 24, 1939; Steinfeldt 1978:105).

North of Main Plaza

The Vaudeville continued to be a popular establishment. However, it received the moniker the “Fatal Corner” for multiple murders that occurred on the site (Bowser 2004). Harris was killed there in 1883 in an altercation with Ben Thompson, who was the City Marshal of Austin (Bowser 2004). Returning to the Vaudeville in 1884, Thompson and his associate John King Fisher were in a shootout, resulting in their death and two others (Bicknell and Beck 1996:6:468-469; Pease 1972:117). The Vaudeville closed in June of 1884 (Bowser 2004). It was remodeled and became the Elite Restaurant and Saloon, housing additional small businesses including a barbershop, a jeweler, and a print shop. The building was destroyed by fire in early March 1886 and was demolished (Bowser 2004). A new two-story building was constructed on the site. The Elite Restaurant remained a tenant, and after a third story was added, it became known as the Elite Hotel (*San Antonio Evening News*, March 15, 1919).

To the west, Eleanor Elliott replaced the Plaza House with a new two-story building that was designed by Alfred Giles to lease it to Schramm and Company, a local building contractor (BCDR 7:391-392). In order to construct the building, in

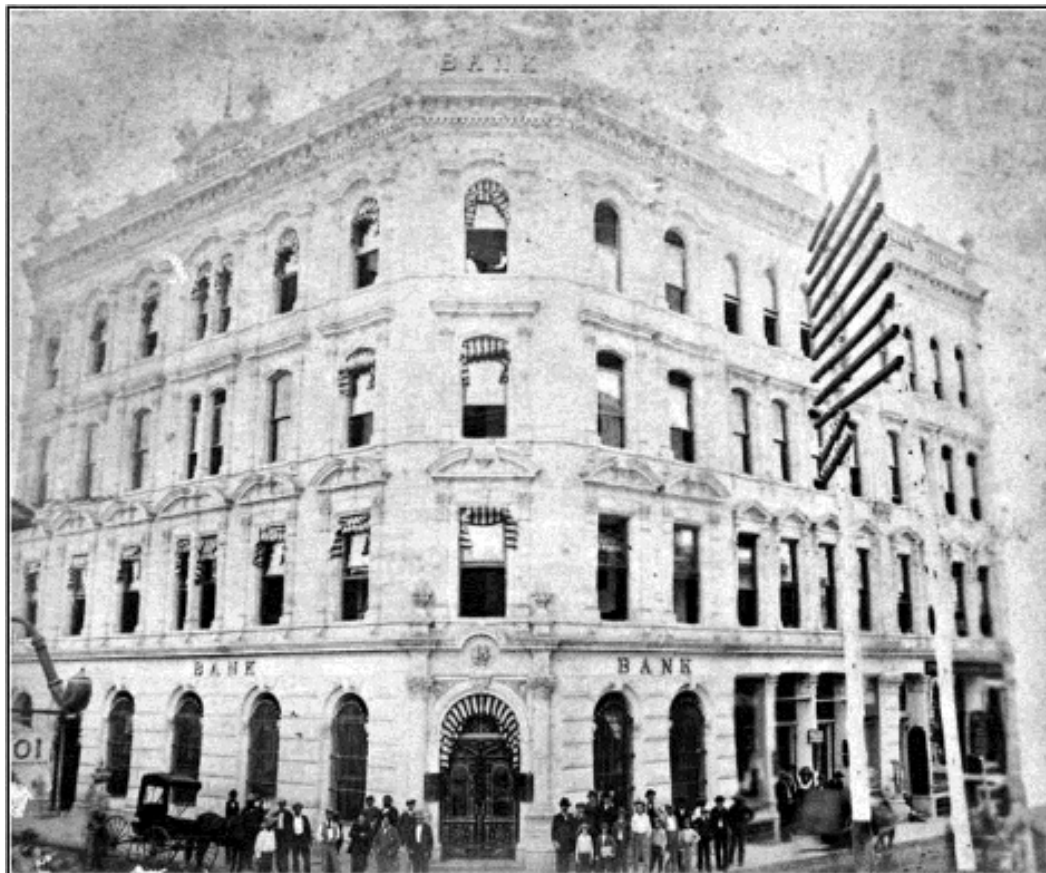


Figure 5-15. Kampmann Bank Building, circa 1890 (San Antonio Conservation Society; UTSA General Photograph Collection, 075-1168).

1882, she entered into a party wall agreement with the heirs of Manuel and Elena G. de Yturri-Castillo, who owned the adjoining property to the west (BCDR 22:479-481).

After leasing the property at the corner of Main Plaza and Main Avenue for several years to Leopold Wolfson, the Yturri-Castillo heirs sold the corner property to him in 1878 (BCDR 13:51-52). In 1880, Wolfson and his brother and partner, Saul, hired Giles to design an imposing store with Italianate detailing that wrapped around the corner of Commerce and Soledad streets (Jutson 1972:98; Figure 5-16). Their business was successful, and in 1883, they built an addition that connected it to the 1880 building and extended north along Main Avenue (Jutson 1972:98; *San Antonio Light*, April 20, 1883).

The Yturri-Castillo heirs retained the property between the Wolfson and Elliott buildings, and in 1883, they constructed an elaborate building to house the White Elephant Saloon, a saloon and gambling parlor (Figure 5-17). Renowned among locals, the White Elephant was short lived, and the Wolfson brothers, seeking to expand their store, purchased the White Elephant property in 1886 (BCDR 44:369-371).

Between Soledad Street and Main Avenue

Castroville merchant, Andre Carle, had acquired his father's interest in their property north of Wolfson's in 1882 (BCDR 9:482, 23:89-91). It was during the Carle family's ownership

that a "carriage repository" extending from Main Avenue to Soledad Street was constructed on the property. The Wolfson brothers acquired that building in 1889 to house their furniture department (BCDR 73:404).

To the north of the Carle-Wolfson property, most of the one- and two-story stone buildings that stood between Main Avenue and Soledad Street along the south side of Veramendi Street were demolished between 1896 and 1904 and were replaced by modern two-story buildings. The only exception was the one-story building that stood at 122 N. Main Avenue. The new two-story, fireproof building owned by Louis Kunkel at the corner of N. Main Avenue and Veramendi Street, 126 N. Main Avenue, extended only partially east toward Soledad Street (BCDR 128:536). The first floor of Kunkel's building was occupied by various businesses, and the second floor was used as a meeting place for unions and lodges (*San Antonio Daily Light*, February 13, 1895).

Along the west side of Soledad Street, the building that formerly housed Cotton's livery stable was demolished and replaced in 1884 with a two-story limestone building owned by Mary and Russell Howard (BCDR 32:516-517). By 1896, a three-story building had been constructed by William Maverick adjoining the Howard Building to the north, as shown on the 1896 Sanborn map, and establishing a party wall agreement between the property owners (BCDR 32:577-578; Sanborn 1896:12).

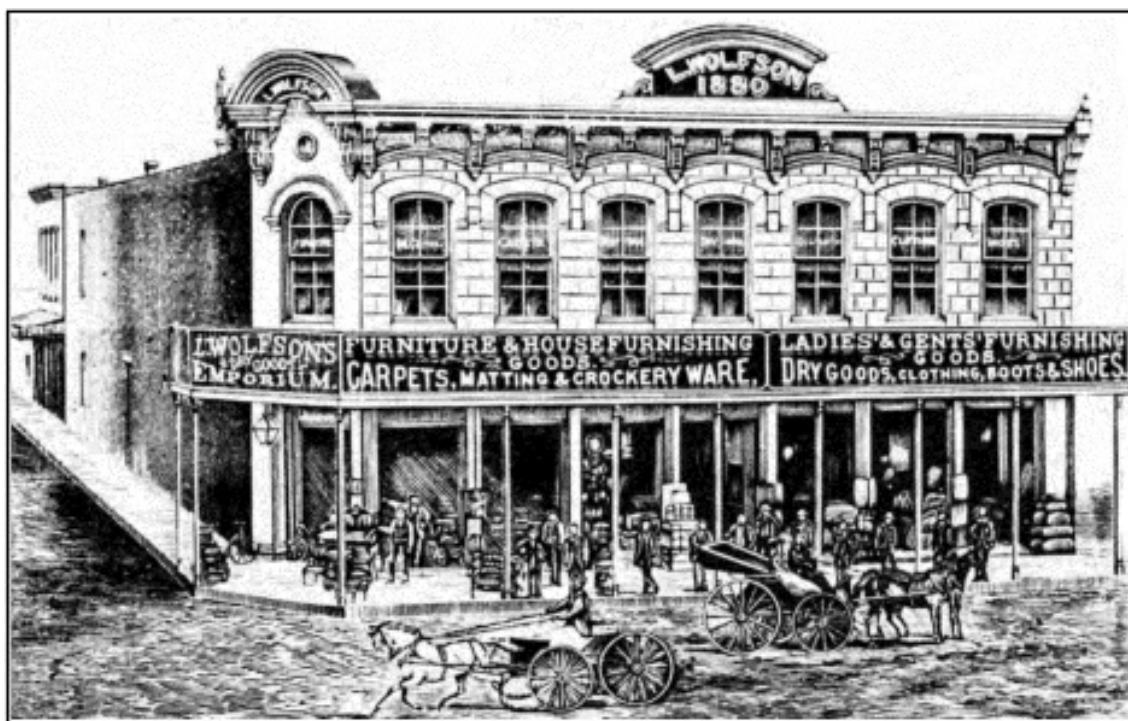


Figure 5-16. Architectural drawing of the L. Wolfson Store, Main Plaza (Morrison and Fourmy 1885-1886).



Figure 5-17. The short-lived White Elephant Saloon (Advertisement, *San Antonio Light*, Tuesday, August 28, 1883:4).

A review of Sanborn maps for the De la Garza Block shows a number of changes occurring in the mid-to-late 1880s (Sanborn 1885:7, 1888:7). By 1885, a new two-story building had been constructed at the corner of Houston Street and Main Avenue, and another building was constructed along Soledad and Veramendi streets (Sanborn 1885:7). The portion of the block owned by Margarita de la Garza Trueheart was sold in 1889 to real estate investors F. H. Baldwin, W. P. Anderson, and George W. Russ (BCDR 67:490). These investors packaged the entire block and sold interests in the property, as well as rented the buildings (BCDR 158:186-188).

Main Avenue

The 1885 Sanborn map shows that across from the Wolfson property at the northwest corner of Main Avenue and Commerce Street, the two-story Terrell Block had been constructed by 1885 (Sanborn 1885:7; Figure 5-18). From 1885 to 1888, the ground-floor storefronts were occupied by clothing stores and a stove and tin ware shop, and the upper floor was a hotel and photography studio (Sanborn 1885:7; 1888:7). By 1896, the Globe Hotel occupied the second floor of the building (Sanborn 1896:12).

T. C. Frost was a successful mercantile dealer, and he was later involved in the wool commission business. In 1882, he purchased the block of land between Flores and Main streets to the north and built a one-story stone wool storage warehouse. Three years later, he bought adjacent land and built a two-story, stone addition. Like many mercantile dealers, Frost transitioned into banking. His business partner, John K. Beretta, took over the dry goods business in 1891, and Frost devoted all of his time to banking, forming T. C. Frost and Company, Bankers, in 1894. As his business grew, Frost eventually acquired the entire block bounded by Commerce, Houston, Flores and Acequia streets (Haynes 2002:28-33; Tavarez 1996:3:16).

In 1899, as San Antonio prepared to enter a new century, the city's four streetcar companies merged into the San Antonio Traction Company (Hemphill 2009). Because Commerce Street was already congested due to its narrow width and dense development, streetcars only traversed the street at Main Plaza (Hemphill 2009:42). The company used Houston Street as its east to west corridor and streets, including Flores and Soledad streets and Main Avenue, for north-south traffic (see Figure 5-10). This transportation pattern was

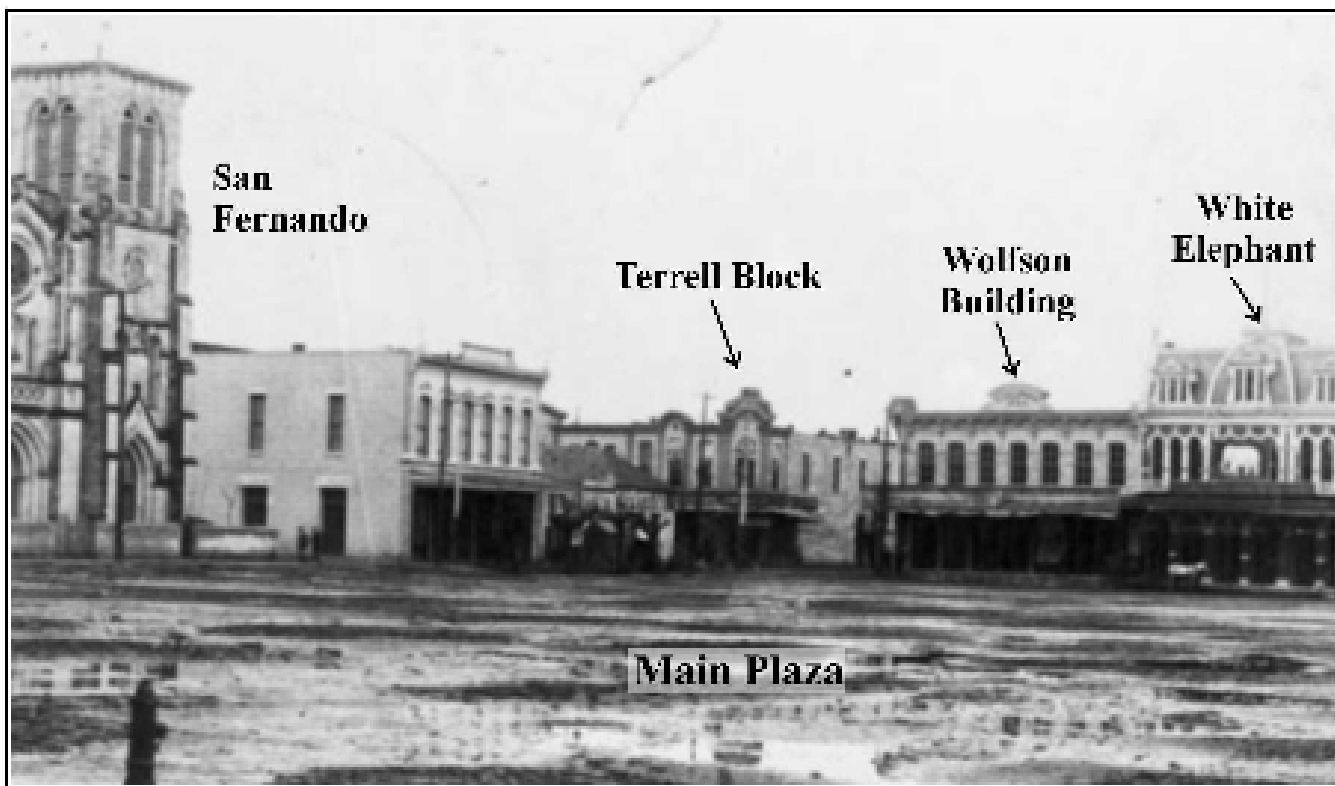


Figure 5-18. The two-story Terrell Block building is seen in the center of this picture, circa 1885. The Wolfson Building and the White Elephant are to the right of it (UTSA Special Collections, L-2355-G).

an important factor in downtown development that helped to assure that the area would continue to thrive well in the twentieth century.

San Antonio from 1900 to 1945

By the early 1900s, Houston Street had surpassed Commerce Street as the city's commercial center. As downtown had become more congested, Houston Street's wider right-of-way accommodated the mix of streetcars and vehicles that brought passengers to work and shop downtown. Commerce Street, with its narrow roadbed, was unable to compete and never regained its preeminence as the city's main business street.

As street congestion worsened in the first decade of the twentieth century, business leaders advocated for increased public funding to remedy the situation. A description of the area appeared in the *San Antonio Light*:

Cross-wise streets began nowhere and led to the same place. Congestion prevented the free use of the streets. Traffic sought an outlet but found itself hemmed in because there was not a north-and-south route of sufficient size to carry the travel [*San Antonio Light*, January 21, 1917].

Widening of Soledad Street and Main Avenue

Some of the most dramatic changes in the APE during the first two decades of the twentieth century resulted from the City's ambitious street widening initiative that involved purchases and, in some instances, condemnations of land to acquire right-of-way including N. Main Avenue and Soledad Street.

Widening of Soledad Street was first proposed in 1905 when a bond election was held in Improvement District No. 11 for the purpose of widening and paving Houston, Soledad, and other streets (*San Antonio Daily Light*, November 15, 1905:7; *San Antonio Daily Light*, December 13, 1905:10). At that time, a proposal was put forth to preserve the Veramendi House. Though the building would protrude to the curb line, it was suggested that an arcade be created at the front of the building to preserve the structure as "the only practical way of saving the old building, which every Texan will regret to see demolished" (*San Antonio Daily Express*, October 31, 1905:5).

After years of discussion, bonds to widen Soledad Street were approved on September 1, 1913 (City Council Journal and Minutes Book [CCJMB] V2:345). The widening was part of a massive project to reconstruct the entire infrastructure of downtown San Antonio. Though the largest of these

public improvement projects took place on Commerce Street, other thoroughfares were widened and extended in an effort to deal with traffic congestion brought about by streetcars and an increasing number of automobiles. North-south streets, including Flores and Soledad streets, were important to this effort.

The street widening process was already under discussion when L.B. Clegg and Adolph Groos acquired the Veramendi property south of the Soledad Block (BCDR 309:104-106). A total of \$54,778 was approved by the City Council for property acquisition along the east side of Soledad Street (CCJMB V2:345, X:60, X:65). Soon after purchasing the property in 1909, Clegg and Groos wrote to Mayor Bryan Callaghan offering to sell the City the frontage needed to widen the street. Clegg and Groos sold the City a parcel measuring approximately 5-x-31.7 m (16-x-104 ft.) in 1914 (BCDR 448:51; City Council Minutes S:693). To the south, Albert Kronkosky, representing the Commercial Loan and Trust investors, sold the property's frontage to the City on April 3, 1914 (BCDR 454:136). With the exception of the Kennedy Building frontage that was acquired by condemnation, purchases were successfully negotiated

(CCJMB W:470). Work to widen the street proceeded, and by October 1914, the City accepted a bid to repave the thoroughfare, indicating the project had been completed (CCJMB X:60, X:65; Figure 5-19).

Because of the widening, the front portions of the old stone buildings on Soledad Street were removed, and brick façades were added. Land acquisition involved parcels of various widths due to the irregular course of the street and placement of buildings, some of which protruded into the newly established right-of-way. While most of the buildings on the east side of Soledad Street did not retain their historic appearance, the Soledad Block Building was an exception. The City Council appropriated funds to cover the cost of William Maverick's property, and on April 30, 1914, the City purchased a strip of his land along Soledad Street for \$25,955 (CCJMB W:235, W:296). The acquired property measured 23.4-x-4.9 m (76.8-x-16.2 ft.; BCDR 439:157-158). The City agreed to pay damages to Maverick's tenants and to demolish and rebuild the required portions of his buildings according to his architect's plans (*San Antonio Light*, April 29, 1914). In spite of this loss, the Soledad Block retained a strong semblance of its original design.

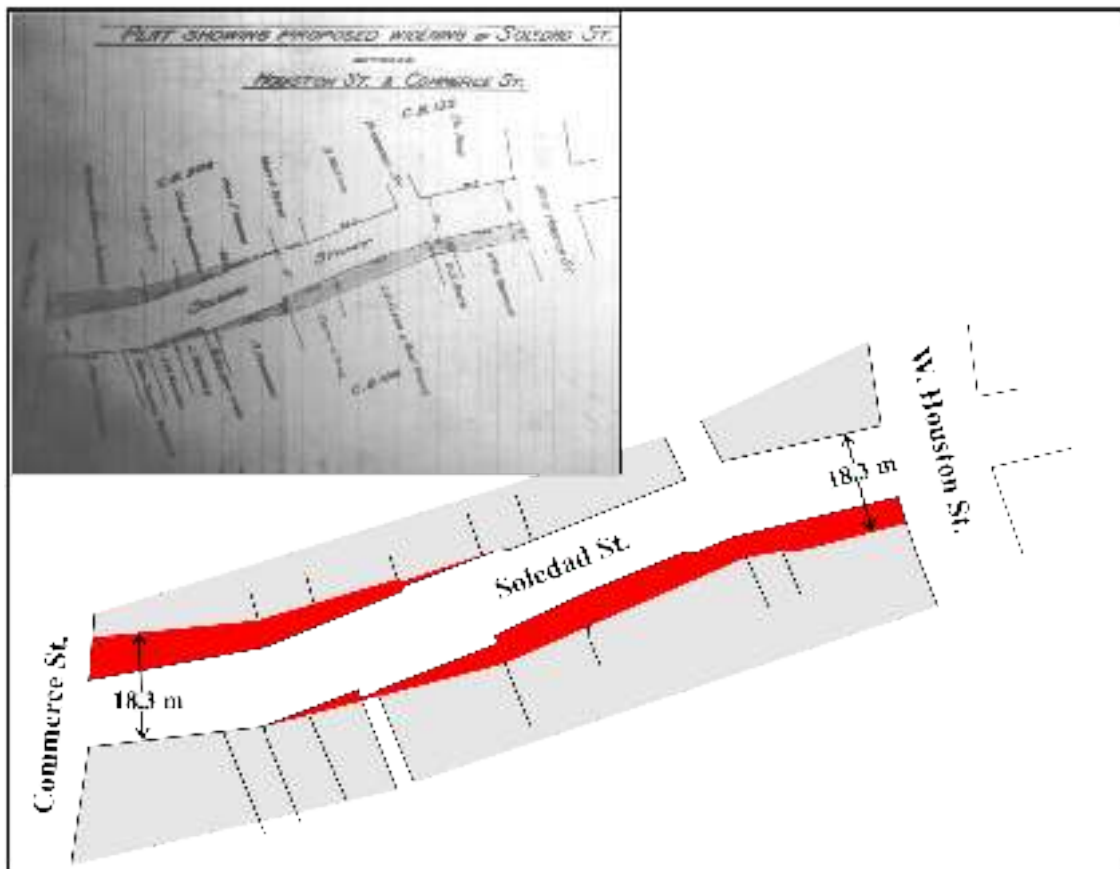


Figure 5-19. Schematic showing widening of Soledad Street (in red). Inset is the original page of the City Engineer's Survey Book dated May 18, 1914 (City Engineer, Survey Book 5:297).

The impact of street widening on the west side of Soledad was far less drastic. Land acquisition was limited to the area generally abutting the site of the future National Bank of Commerce. Land required for the widening of Soledad Street was traded for land needed for the bank's construction (BCDR 441:517-518, 267:52-53; *San Antonio Evening News*, March 15, 1919;).

In 1918, the City condemned a strip of land along the east side of Main Avenue that included a portion of the old Wolfson property, then owned by Hattie L. Woestman (DRT Library Collection, Abstract of Title Made for Saul Wolfson, NCB 909; Figure 5-20). As a result, the building's west façade was reconstructed. The parcel measured approximately 58.8-m (193-ft.) long and varied in width up to approximately 9.1 m (30 ft.; DRT Library Collection, Abstract of Title Made for Saul Wolfson, NCB 909). A narrow parcel along the west side of Main Avenue was also acquired.

Closure of the San Pedro Ditch

The first efforts to close the San Pedro Ditch were taken in December 1909 when the City Board of Health recommended it be closed with the statement that:

The stream is of no practical use and many complaints have been received from residents along it complaining of sickness in their respective families, attributed, they believe, to the filth which accumulates in the stream and is stopped because of grates and permitted to decay despite the efforts of the department to keep it in a clean and sanitary condition. It is said that where the stream passes through back yards of premises, dead cats and dogs, manure and kitchen refuse finds its way into the stream, thereby resulting ultimately in a condition harmful to the health of the immediate community [*San Antonio Daily Light and Gazette*, December 5, 1909:12].

Despite the Board of Health's 1909 recommendation to close the ditch, it remained open because many residents along its route protested its closure. However, in August 1912, the Board of Health again lobbied the Mayor and City Council citing a recent inspection of the ditch and its "deplorable" condition (*San Antonio Express*, August 12, 1912:14). As a result, the City Council authorized the closure and filling of the ditch, which commenced on September 30, 1912, using prison laborers (*San Antonio Express*, September 30,

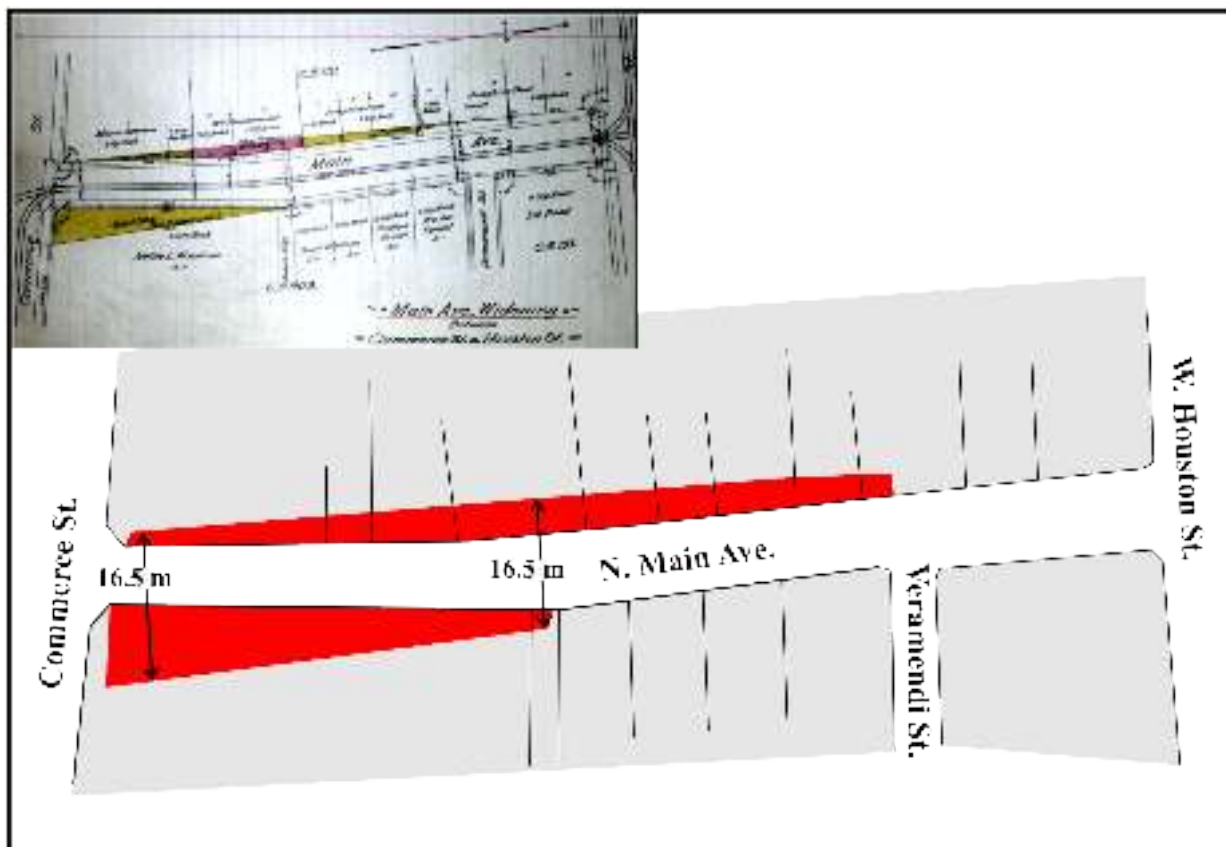


Figure 5-20. Schematic showing N. Main Avenue Widening between Commerce and Houston streets (in red). Inset is the original page of the City Engineer's Survey Book dated September 27, 1915 (City Engineer, Survey Book 7:56).

1912:7). A newspaper report in May 1913 refers to the San Pedro Ditch, noting that “it has been filled in” indicating that the 9.7 km (6 mile) stretch of the old San Pedro Ditch was completely covered by that time (*San Antonio Express*, May 14, 1913:18). The San Pedro Ditch, begun in 1720, lasted for 193 years before being closed and filled in by 1912-1913.

Pre-Depression Boom

The development boom started with the construction of the 10-story Clower Building in 1910 at the northwest corner of N. Main Avenue and Houston Street, and it continued until the beginning of the Great Depression in 1929. By 1929, the downtown building frenzy had reshaped the streetscape and skyline, and the once towering Clower Building was surpassed by skyscrapers that were as high as 31 stories. In the APE, multi-story buildings, such as the Frost/Houston Building, the Rand, and the National Bank of Commerce, were added to the nineteenth-century Kampmann Building. In addition to these structures, retail facilities, light manufacturing, hotels, and restaurants were found in the neighborhood. The 1922 Sanborn map is used to show properties discussed in this section (Figure 5-21).

Soledad Street

In the first three decades of the 1900s, the ground floor of the Soledad Block at the corner of Soledad and Houston streets was occupied by a succession of small businesses (Appler 1906:562; Sanborn 1904 V2:101; Sanborn 1911 V2:116; Sanborn 1922 V2:116). The second and third floors of the Soledad Building were converted into a hotel named the Savoy in 1911 (Sanborn 1911 V2:116). Advertised as “a place for your wife, mother, or sister,” the hotel boasted “newly furnished, modern equipment” (*San Antonio Express*, April 4, 1912). The Savoy was typical of many low-cost hotels that catered to travelers and the transient population that passed through San Antonio.

South of the Soledad Block, Ross Kennedy’s building remained in his family until 1910 and then changed hands several times before it was purchased by Dr. Maxie S. Kahn in 1912 (*El Paso Daily Herald*, February 15, 1901; BCDR 334:269-271; 344:566-567; 382:300-301). Kennedy, Kahn, and subsequent owners used the building as rental property. Long-time tenants included M. Fujiyama’s Japanese Restaurant that opened there 1917 and the Cinderella Shoe Store that operated there from 1928 until the 1950s (Polk 1959; Worley 1929).

The Veramendi House

The historical significance of the Veramendi House would not assure its preservation. As early as 1893, the City Council attempted unsuccessfully “to have a portion of the

structure removed” (*San Antonio Daily Light*, November 2, 1893). In 1909, L. B. Clegg and Adolph Groos purchased 14.5 m (47.5 ft.) of Soledad Street frontage from George Taliaferro and L.J. Hart that included the decrepit structure (BCDR 309:104-106). Clegg announced in April 1909 that the north 7.62 m (25 ft.) of the Veramendi House would be demolished to make room for a new office building to house Clegg and Groos’s San Antonio Printing Company located in the Devine Building (*San Antonio Daily Express*, April 30, 1909). Acknowledging the site’s history, the building was named the Veramendi Building. Figure 5-22 shows the new building facing Soledad Street with the attached two-story printing plant to the rear (*San Antonio Daily Express*, March 14, 1910).

Following demolition of the northern portion of the Veramendi House, the southern portion remained a crumbling eyesore adjacent to the new San Antonio Printing Company building (Figure 5-23). During a City Council meeting in 1910, the Veramendi House was described as “unsafe and liable to fall down and endanger persons and property,” and city inspectors stated that the roof covering, supports, and partition walls were unsafe and ordered the building removed at the expense of the owners (CCJMB T:346).

There were those in the community who advocated for the building’s preservation. One writer stated,

For the sake of decency and civic pride some reverence should be shown the building by making it one of the attractions of the city. The subject is also one for patriots to consider and steps should be taken to bring it before the state legislature at the earliest moment with a view to adding it to the property of the commonwealth [*San Antonio Light and Gazette*, January 2, 1910].

By late February 1910, the City had reached an agreement with the property owners to purchase the portion of the building that protruded into Soledad Street, clearing the way for both street widening and the building’s demolition (*San Antonio Light and Gazette*, February 25, 1910). The site remained vacant for 10 years while L.B. Clegg and Adolph Groos replatted the property to create another commercial building site fronting 20.54 m (67.4 ft.) on Soledad Street. The lot was separated from the Veramendi Building by a 2.46-m (8.1-ft.) wide access drive leading to a motor court that served the printing plant at the back of the Veramendi Building property (BCDR 531:256-258, 443:373-374; 533 4-6).

Clegg and Groos sold the property to Foster Glasscock in 1918 but reacquired it through a Court Judgement (BCDR 541:541-543; BCDR 16:601-602). They then financed construction of a new building for Isidor Brenner’s Solo

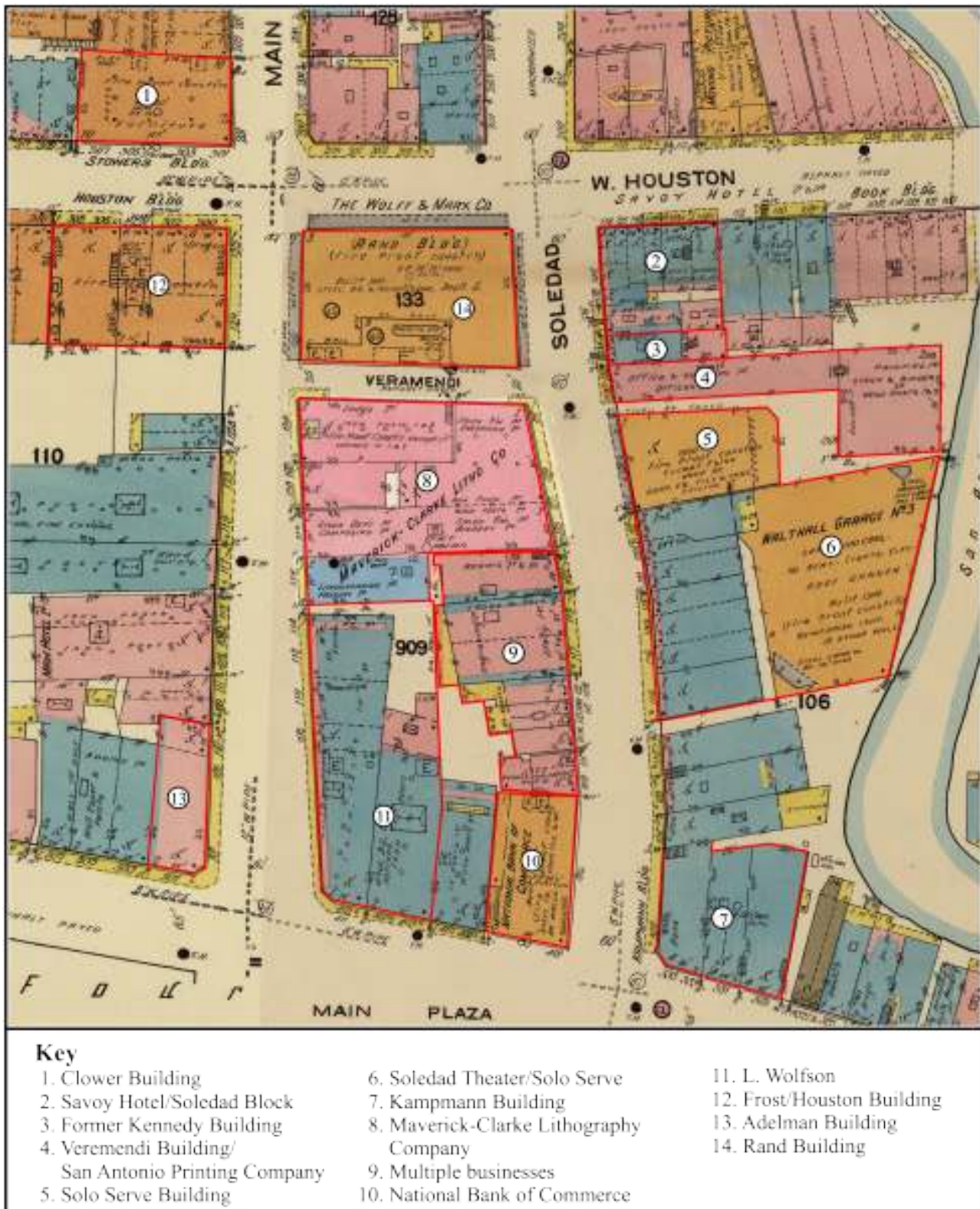


Figure 5-21. Sanborn map (1922) showing locations of properties (Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection, Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps Texas [1877-1922], Dolph Briscoe Center for American History, University of Texas at Austin, original from the collections of the Geography and Map Division, Library of Congress).

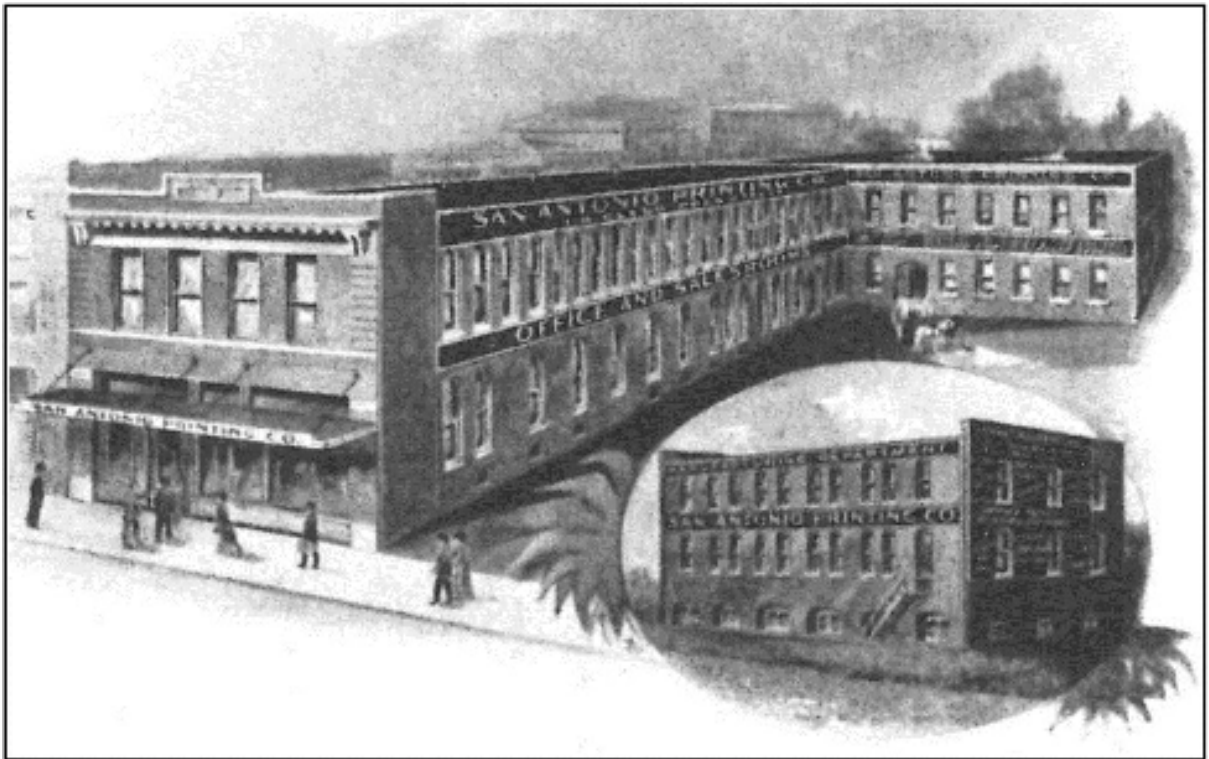


Figure 5-22. Artist's drawing of the San Antonio Printing Company Building (San Antonio Daily Express, March 14, 1910).

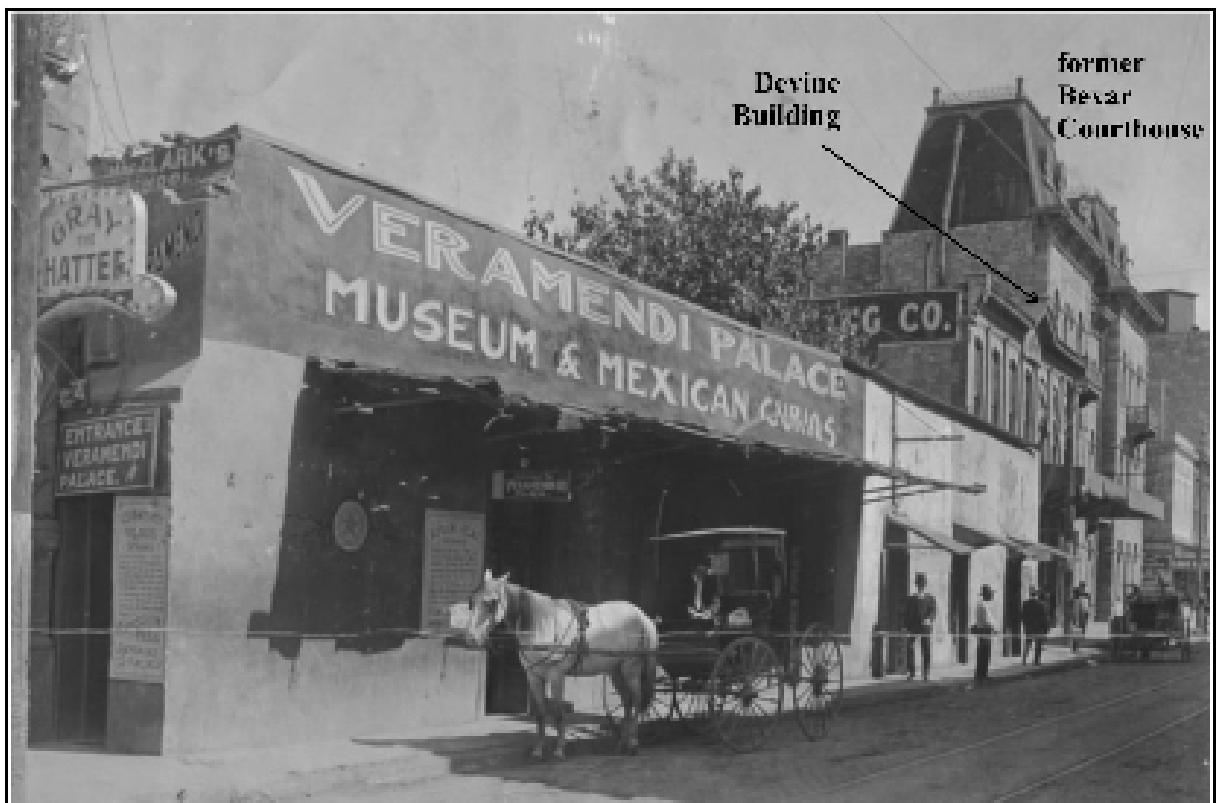


Figure 5-23. View looking south on Soledad Street showing the remnants of the Veramendi house circa 1910 (San Antonio Conservation Society, 2011-0108RE).

Serve, a dry goods and grocery store, which was previously located at 108 Soledad Street (BCDR 799:366-368). Brenner opened his store at 128 Soledad Street in December 1920 (Figure 5-24) and acquired title to the property in 1925 (*San Antonio Evening News*, December 8, 1920).

The Former Bexar County Courthouse and the Devine Building

After the relocation of the courthouse to the south side of Main Plaza in 1896, the vacated courthouse remained in the county's ownership until 1907 when it was sold to prominent businessman and investor, Harry Landa (BCDR 264:419-422). Landa conveyed one-half interest in the property, described both as "a four-story stone storehouse" and the "old Courthouse building," to M. L. Oppenheimer (BCDR 264: 422). Landa and Oppenheimer owned the building for only two years, selling it in 1909 to L. C. Collins, who rented it to the Craig-Williams Furniture Company until it was sold in 1912 to another investor, Albert Kronkosky (BCDR 302:410; 398:243; 490:543-546). The property was bounded on the north by the former Devine estate and on the south by an alley 2.28 m (7.5-ft.) wide. It fronted 25.29 m (83 ft.) on Soledad Street and included an easement for the alley (BCDR 789:465).

Kronkosky, who owned the San Antonio Drug Company and, later, Gebhardt's Chili, was apparently acting on behalf of Commercial Loan and Trust Company as trustee for a group of 11 investors, all prominent local businessmen

and women. As part of its agreement with investors, the company agreed to the "erection on the property of certain improvements costing \$13,773.63" (BCDR 490:543-546). The improvements included a large addition extending to the San Antonio River and identified on Sanborn map of 1922 as constructed in 1914 (Sanborn 1922 V2:112). The addition housed one of San Antonio's early outdoor movie theaters, the Soledad Theater, operated by W. J. Lytle, a pioneer in the movie theater business in San Antonio. Lytle's success led him to look for additional venues to entertain movie fans. In 1914, he opened what was described as a 1,600-seat theater on the ground floor of the Soledad Street building (San Antonio Light, January 17, 1940:B-1). Another 750 movie patrons were accommodated on the building's roof, which was also used for dances (*San Antonio Light*, January 17, 1940). The theater was short-lived, and when it closed, the building was used as a skating rink and later a bowling alley (Appler 1914, 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918).

Ten years after making major improvements to the property, Commercial Loan and Trust Company sold it to Solo Serve Improvement Company (BCDR 789:465-467; BCDR 796:194-198). Brenner remodeled the building, creating what was described as "the largest self-serve merchandising department in the entire South and one of the largest in the country" and "a revelation in modern store-keeping" (*San Antonio Light*, April 17, 1925). Solo Serve opened its new facility on Saturday, April 18, 1925 (*San Antonio Express*, April 17, 1925).



Figure 5-24. Solo Serve Building in 1922 (Image courtesy of Irene Dunn).

With the improvement one of the most historic buildings in the city passed into history. San Antonio's first theater and one of its old courthouses was transformed into a new and modern merchandising plan [...] But business must progress. Old and historic buildings must pass and give way to new and modern structures. This is the course on Soledad Street. The two-story "skyscraper" of the past is today the home of a large self-serve department store [*San Antonio Light*, April 17, 1925].

Brenner's store was described as "20 complete stores in one," offering merchandise ranging from piece goods to auto accessories to meats and vegetables, as well as a cafeteria where shoppers could dine during their visit (*San Antonio Express*, April 17, 1925). As part of this expansion and business diversification, Brenner revived the old Soledad Theater and opened on June 14, 1925 (*San Antonio Express*, June 14, 1925:11). The rooftop theater was short-lived.

However, Brenner did not own the Devine Building between his 128 Soledad Street store and the former courthouse. Investors M. S. Kahn and D. A. Paulus had purchased the building in 1920 and 1921 from descendants of Thomas J. Devine (BCDR 591:581-583; 624:420-422). The Solo Serve Investment Company acquired it in February 1927; (BCDR 933:614-615; BCDR 933:615-618). Brenner completely remodeled, furnished, and provided club rooms to the Young Men's Hebrew Association (YMHA) rent free (*Jewish Record*, May 4, 1928). The organization occupied the upper floor of the building, which retained its pressed tin ceilings and remnants of decorative stenciling. After the YMHA vacated the building, it was incorporated into the Solo Serve store.

The Kampmann Building

To the south of Solo Serve, the Kampmann Building was occupied by a succession of banks including Alamo National Bank and National Bank of Commerce (Steinfeldt 1978:105). The building was leased to H & I Improvement Company in 1939, and the company's owner, Herman Brenner, announced the remodeling of the four-story structure and adjoining one-story structure on Commerce Street (*San Antonio Express*, December 24, 1939). The top two stories were removed, and the remaining portion of the building, including the basement, was remodeled (Figure 5-25). The new department store, named Bern's, opened in June 1940 (*San Antonio Express*, June 16, 1940).

West Side of Soledad Street

The streetscape on the west side of Soledad Street opposite San Antonio Printing Company, Solo Serve, and the Kampmann Building underwent significant changes in the early 1900s.

By 1912, Maverick-Clarke Lithography Company had taken over the Wolfson's furniture store buildings that occupied the north portion of the block, extending to the southwest corner of Soledad and Veramendi streets and addressed at 116-118 Main Avenue and 125-131 Soledad Street, respectively (Appler 1912). Figure 5-26 shows a view to the south along Soledad Street around 1914 that includes a three-story boarding house (121 Soledad St.), a furniture store in the Howard Building (117-119 Soledad St.), a one-story printing shop (115 Soledad St.), and a one-story saloon (111-113 Soledad St.). The oldest remaining building on the block was the one-story stone structure (109 Soledad St.) adjoining the Elite Hotel, as the property at the northwest corner of Commerce and Soledad streets was still known.

North of Main Plaza

The Kampmann Building was only one example of the vestiges of the nineteenth-century San Antonio that were remodeled or demolished in the early to mid-1900s to make way for street widenings and modern construction. In 1912, developers began purchasing property from the Smith family, who had owned the property since 1851. This included the Elite Hotel and property adjoining to the west on Commerce Street known at that time as the Crystal Saloon (BCDR 443:368-369; BCDR 448:255-256). With the completion of infrastructure, an eight-story, concrete and steel building housing the National Bank of Commerce was completed in 1919 (Figure 5-27). Additional stories were added in 1927, bringing it to 13 stories (*San Antonio Light*, March 17, 1960).

The Wolfson brothers continued to operate their store, expanding it in 1900. In February 1900, they received a permit to construct a building to house their new furniture store, which was completed five months later at the southwest corner of Soledad and Veramendi streets (*San Antonio Daily Light*, February 28, 1900; July 21, 1900). Four years later, the Wolfson Store and White Elephant Saloon buildings were badly damaged by fire and remodeled. The saloon's iconic parapet was removed, and the two buildings unified with a common cornice. After repairs were made, the Wolfsons continued in business until they sold their property to O. D. Woestman in 1909 (BCDR 309:125; *San Antonio Light*, January 24, 1904).

Main Avenue

The west side of Main Avenue experienced significant changes in the early years of the 1900s. By 1896, the Frost family had purchased many of the lots that comprised the block bounded by Commerce, Flores, and Houston streets and Main Avenue. The Frosts owned the entire block by the mid-1920s. The acquisitions were fully documented in a 1927 lawsuit that concluded with the Frost family being



Figure 5-25. The demolition of the Kampmann Building (San Antonio Light Photograph Collection, UTSA Special Collections, L-2291-F).



Figure 5-26. The west side of Soledad Street looking south on Soledad Street from near Veramendi Street, circa 1914 (San Antonio Public Library, Texana-Genealogy Department).

awarded clear title to the properties (STC B115). The Frost acquisitions included the lot with small adobe buildings at the corner of Houston Street and Main Avenue. Frost continued to purchase the remainder of the block and acquired the last parcel on Main Avenue in 1906 (BCDR 976:290). This was the one-story adobe building at 127-129 Main Avenue. The building and adjoining one-story structure to the south used as an engine shop were still standing in 1912.

In 1908, T.C. Frost constructed an imposing five-story building known as the Frost Building at the corner of Houston Street and Main Avenue (Figure 5-28). The Texas architectural firm of Sanguinet and Staats designed the building (*San Antonio Light*, July 12, 1908). According to Tom Frost, (grandson of T. C. and Josephine Houston Frost), it was T. C. Frost who encouraged Edwin Rand to construct his own building, also designed by Sanguinet and Staats, across from it in 1912 (Tom Frost to Maria Watson Pfeiffer, September 27, 2017). The Frost Building stimulated the office market along Houston Street, while the Rand Building, occupied by the Wolff and Marx department store, extended the city's shopping district west of the river. When Frost Bank built its new building on Main Plaza in 1922, the Frost Building was renamed the Houston Building.

T. C. Frost acquired the property at the corner of Main Avenue and Commerce Street at the south end of the block in 1917, selling it to clothing store operator, Morris Adelman (BCDR 524:221-223; 525:36-38). Like other properties along N. Main Avenue, Adelman's lot was subject to street widening that claimed 2.39 m (7.85 ft.) from the eastern edge (BCDR 564:503-504). Following street construction, Morris Adelman announced plans to remodel his building.

Where once the old Limburger Saloon stood is to be erected the up-to-date store of Morris Adelman, costing \$16,000 for improvements [...] The building is to be a two-story brick structure with plentiful window space on both floors. The clothing store is to occupy the ground floor and basement and the other story is to be rented [*San Antonio Evening News*, March 22, 1919].

The De la Garza Block

To the north of Veramendi Street, the buildings on the De la Garza Block were put to a variety of uses in the first decade of the 1900s, as shown in the 1904 Sanborn map (Figure



Figure 5-27. National Bank of Commerce Building, circa 1930 (UTSA General Photograph Collection, 10-0148).



Figure 5-28. The Frost Building, circa 1910. Note the remaining adobe house on the left of the building (Zintgraf Collection 2126-001, UTSA Special Collections).

5-29, top). The north half of the stone building at Soledad and Houston streets was used as a saloon with a gaming parlor occupying the second floor, while the south half of the first floor was occupied by the Milburn Brothers drug store (Appler 1905:138; Sanborn 1904:V2:101) in 1904-1905. The other structures within the block were occupied by a number of restaurants, including The Delmonico (137 Soledad St.) and Gabbert's Coffee House (208 West Houston St.; Appler 1905:166, 204, 562). There were several other saloons, including the Ideal Club & Saloon Bar at 202 West Houston and the Schooner Saloon, operated by John Easterly at 128 N. Main Avenue (Appler 1905:180, 562, 575). Small shops within the block included Hewett's upholstery (136 N. Main Ave.) and Granieri's Fruit store (133 ½ Soledad St.; Appler 1905:223, 252, 562, 575). Both of these small establishments and Easterly's saloon occupied some of the few remaining Spanish Colonial adobe buildings within the block. By 1904, a two-story wooden building with brick accents had been constructed at the corner of Houston Street and N. Main Avenue that housed the F. D. Faville Furniture Store, with a residence above (Appler 1905:190, 562). Owing to the historic importance of the de la Garza property, it was particularly well documented prior to demolition of the buildings in 1912, as shown in the photographs (Figures 5-29, bottom).

The entire De la Garza Block was sold to Edwin Rand for \$200,000 in 1910 (BCDR 331:588-589; *San Antonio Light*, March 27, 1910). Rand purchased the block with the intention of constructing a large building on the site, necessitating demolition of the historic De la Garza buildings. Demolition of the Veramendi House just across Soledad Street was still fresh in the mind of San Antonians when Rand announced his plans. The demolition was part of the trend to modernize San Antonio.

The Garza homestead, the remains of which are standing on the block bounded by Houston, Main Avenue, Soledad and Veramendi streets, is another building of the old type of Spanish architecture giving San Antonio that picturesqueness which has helped make it famous throughout the United States, but which is fast disappearing, due to the call of the great metropolis now building [*San Antonio Light*, March 27, 1910].

Local newspapers documented the demolition of the de la Garza buildings and other structures on the property that began in April 1912. Excavation for the building revealed human remains and various artifacts including a sword and

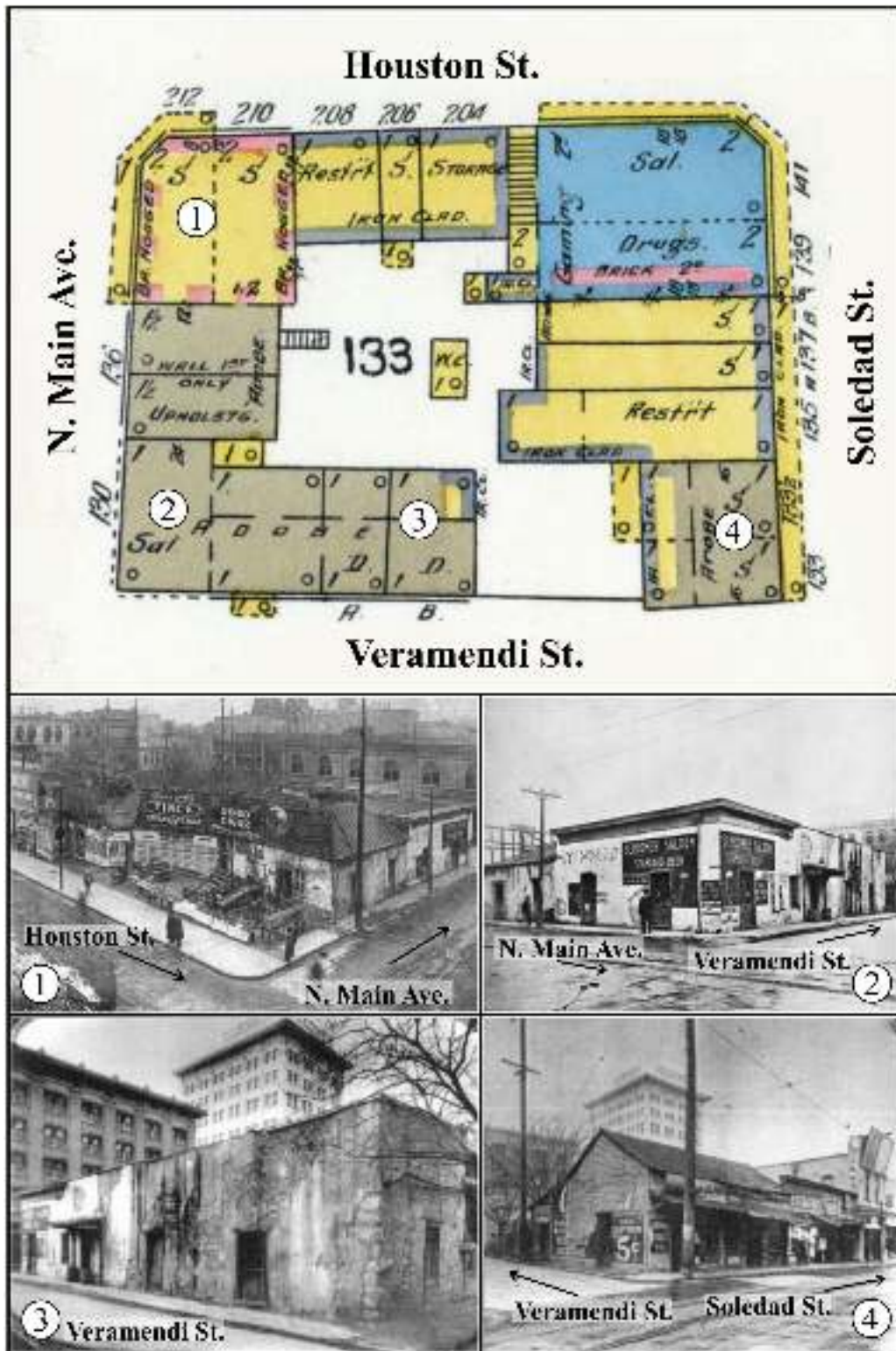


Figure 5-29. Detail showing the De la Garza Block on the 1904 Sanborn map with photographs showing as it appeared circa 1910. Image 1 is looking southeast from the corner of Main (UTSA Special Collections, Z-2126-G). Image 2 is of the Schooner Saloon (UTSA Special Collections, Zintgraf Collection, 2126-G-03). Image 3 is of the adobe structure on the north side of Veramendi (UTSA Special Collections, E-0004-61 and Zintgraf Collection, 2126-G-01). Image 4 shows a view from the intersection of Veramendi and Soledad streets (UTSA Special Collections).

bayonet believed to be from the 1835 Battle of B exar, as well as stirrups, coins, and jewelry (*San Antonio Express*, April 11, 1912; June 7, 1912, June 8, 1912; June 16, 1912).

The eight-story Rand Building designed by the architectural firm Sanguinet and Staats (Figure 5-30) was completed by July 1913, and the sole tenant, Wolff and Marx, occupied the building in early August (*San Antonio Express*, February 16, 1913; July 27, 1913).

San Antonio from the 1920s to 1945

The construction of the National Bank of Commerce, Frost and Rand buildings, and Adelman’s store that energized the area within the project APE was emblematic of the downtown development boom that began in the 1910s and ended with the beginning of the Great Depression in 1929 (Figure 5-31). Skyscrapers completed throughout downtown San Antonio in the 1910s and 1920s included the 12-story Central Trust

Company Building (1918), the nine-story Maverick Building (1922), the 15-story Majestic Theater and Building (1929), the 24-story Alamo National Bank (1929), and the 31-story Smith Young Tower (now the Tower Life Building; 1931).

With notable exceptions, building activity in downtown San Antonio stopped during the Great Depression. Buildings and public works that were already in progress, such as the eight-story Southwestern Bell Telephone Building (1930) were completed, but with the exception of St. John’s Lutheran Church built on Nueva Street in 1932, private sector construction was curtailed (Heusinger 1951:68, 70). San Antonio’s streetcar service ended in 1933 and was replaced by bus transportation (Watson 1982). Tracks were removed at downtown intersections and paved over along major thoroughfares (Hemphill 2009:33; *San Antonio Light*, December 1, 1932). Federal programs financed major public sector projects including Robert H. H. Hugmann’s iconic River Walk and Mayor Maury Maverick’s vision to restore La Villita on the southern edge of downtown (Fisher 1996).

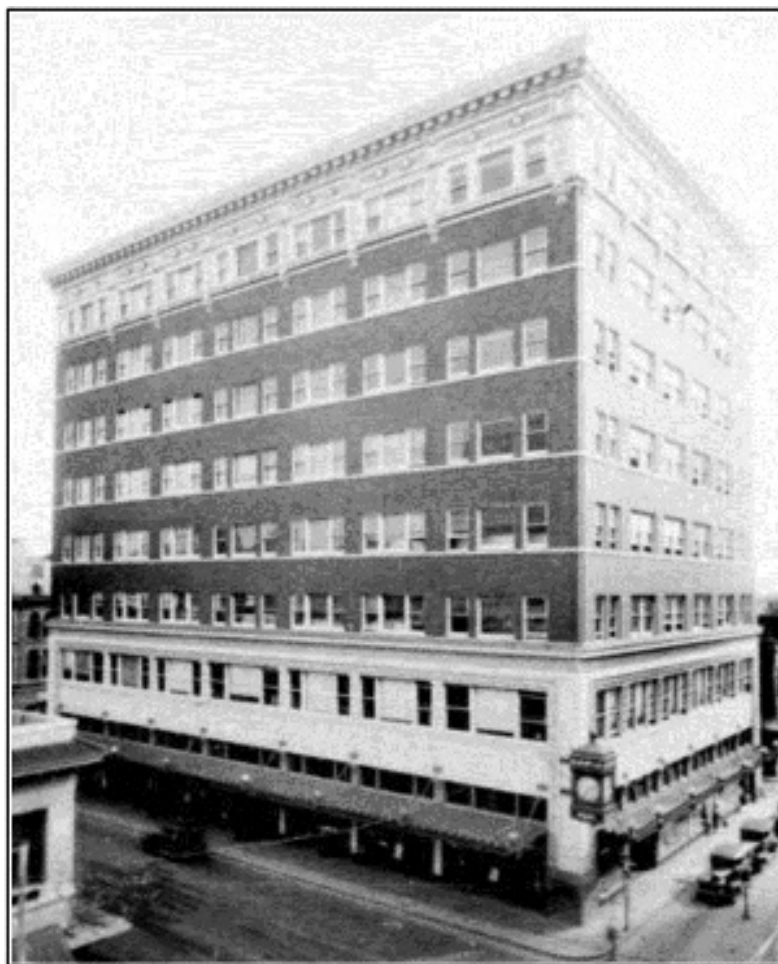


Figure 5-30. The Rand Building circa 1920s (UTSA General Photograph Collection 069-8429).



Figure 5-31. Cityscape showing the Soledad Block in 1929 (UTSA General Photograph Collection 69-8316).

The entry of the United States into World War II lifted the country out of the Great Depression as vast financial and human resources were channeled into the war effort. San Antonio's downtown building hiatus continued throughout the war.

Post-World War II Years

The San Antonio Chamber of Commerce reported "a delayed post-war construction boom for the city" (San Antonio Express, December 14, 1947). The chamber stated that construction in the first 10 months of 1947 totaled \$38.9 million, and it was projected to hit \$100 million in 1948 (San Antonio Express, December 14, 1947). A great deal of the new construction was attributed to the county coliseum, city airport, expressways, sewers, power lines, and gas extension services, as well as the U.S. Army's building program. Forecasts for 1948 included "a high rate of residential and industrial construction" (San Antonio Express, December 14, 1947). However, the building boom essentially bypassed downtown San Antonio where only a few low-scale buildings were constructed in the immediate post-war years. San Antonio's downtown remained the center of retail and entertainment for at least 10 years after the war. Beginning in the late 1950s, downtown retailers began to establish suburban locations, reflecting a national pattern of urban decline.

Observing this downward trend, in 1958, local businessmen proposed the idea of an international fair to highlight relationships between North and South America to revitalize downtown. With support from Henry B. Gonzales whose 22nd Congressional District encompassed downtown San Antonio, HemisFair '68 became a reality. Concurrent with early planning for the fair, the Chamber of Commerce commissioned a study in 1961 to explore development of the San Antonio River as a commercial attraction. The plan was rejected as too commercial, and in 1963, the American Institute of Architects was invited to develop an alternate plan that was titled the Paseo del Rio (Fisher 2007:120-124). That plan was enthusiastically received, and visions for the river and world's fair converged. The fair included a civic center and an extension of the San Antonio River that enabled visitors to reach the fair site by boat. Together, the river and fair laid the foundation for a convention and visitor industry that redefined the city's economy in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries (Pfeiffer 2001).

Downtown continued its decline as a retail center in the years following the fair, but growth in the convention and visitor market established a new economic dynamic. Some older buildings were renovated for offices, and others were repurposed as hotels, restaurants, and tourist-oriented

businesses. In the area north and east of the APE, older buildings were demolished, and some were replaced with new buildings including One Riverwalk Place (1981; 18-story), Bank of America Building (1984; 28-story); and Republic Bank Plaza (1985; 13-story).

The downtown office market also stagnated throughout the remainder of the twentieth century. It was not until the early 2000s that there was renewed interest in downtown revitalization. City leaders incentivized downtown investment in an effort to attract new businesses and residents. Investments in the area of the APE and surrounding blocks began to once again transform the area. This renaissance was supported by the influx of technology companies that converted long-vacant or underutilized buildings for commercial and residential uses, bringing a new generation to live and work downtown. The 1966 Sanborn map is used to show properties discussed in this section (Figure 5-32).

Within the APE

The decline of downtown San Antonio beginning in the 1960s impacted the APE just as it did the area in general. In an attempt to modernize and revitalize their properties, some owners refaced their buildings, hiding original decorative façades behind metal slipcovers. The Soledad Block, at Houston and Soledad streets that had become commonly known as the Savoy Hotel, was one example of this trend. The building's western three bays on Houston Street and its entire Soledad Street elevation, together with the adjoining building at 136 Soledad Street, were covered in metal cladding (COSA Historic Design Review Commission agenda, March 1, 2000; Figure 5-33). The structures were leased to Zales' Corporation for many years. The slipcovering was removed in 2000, and the building was renovated in 2016 (Figure 5-34; BCDR 8936-8937; COSA Historic Design Review Commission agenda, March 1, 2000).

To the south of the Soledad Block Building, the Clegg Company, formerly the San Antonio Printing Company, continued to expand. The company had already added two stories to its printing plant in 1927, and by 1951, a two-story addition had been made to the building's east elevation facing the San Antonio River. The company purchased the adjoining Kennedy Building in 1960 (BCDR 1007:464-467; 2213:333-335; 4507:216-217; 4801:268-270). The Cleggs connected the Kennedy and Veramendi buildings to create a showroom for the Clegg Company, which specialized in office design and furnishings (BCDR 4801:268-270). Like their neighbors, the Cleggs slipcovered their buildings. The Clegg Company was sold in 2000, and the Soledad Street store location was closed (Silva 2000). The building and additional properties were sold, and a hotel is planned using

the Clegg Kennedy/Veramendi Building, and a portion of the Solo Serve Building (personal communication, McGlone to Pfeiffer January 2017).

Although major retail stores left downtown in the last decades of the 1900s, stores, such as Solo Serve and Berns, continued to serve downtown shoppers at their outlets on Soledad Street until the turn of the twentieth century (Figure 5-35). The southern portion of the building (the former Devine Building and Bexar County Courthouse) was demolished in 2017 to be replaced by a 21-story, 252 room hotel (Dimmick 2015). The Mexican Manhattan Restaurant opened in 1958 currently occupies two of the Maverick heirs' buildings and has remained a popular restaurant for downtown workers and visitors.

Across Soledad Street at the corner of Commerce Street, the National Bank of Commerce continued to do business until it moved three blocks north in late 1957 to early 1958 (*San Antonio Light*, January 17, 1957:13). The building remained vacant until it was sold at auction in 1960, and at the time of its sale, the building was purportedly the largest ever sold at auction in Texas (*San Antonio Light*, March 17, 1960). San Antonio Savings Association purchased and remodeled the building, which included a slipcover that obscured the original façade (*San Antonio Express*, January 10, 1961:30). San Antonio Savings moved into the building in 1962 and remained there until it moved to a new suburban site in the early 1980s (*San Antonio Express-News*, February 3, 1962). The building was expanded in the early 1980s to 20-stories, refaced in brick, and renamed Commerce Plaza. It was foreclosed on during the banking crisis of the 1980s and placed in the portfolio of the Resolution Trust Corporation (*San Antonio Light*, August 8, 1991). It is currently known as Riverview Tower (Figure 5-36). Currently, the COSA occupies approximately half of the space, and the other half is occupied by law firms and other tenants (Rivard 2014).

On the north side of Main Plaza, the former Wolfson Building was occupied by various businesses throughout the twentieth century. Tenants included Woolworth's, which first leased the building in 1923 and remained there until at least the late 1930s (BCDR 737:277-280; 1559:322-324). Bell Furniture Company operated there for 62 years until it closed in 1992 (*San Antonio Express-News*, March 19, 1992). David Carter purchased the Wolfson Building in 1996 and renovated it as retail space and an events venue (George 2006). The building once again burned and was demolished in 2011 (*San Antonio Express*, October 2 2011:1A; October 8, 2011:1A). The lot has remained empty to the present date, although a hotel is planned for the property (Dimmick 2016).

The greatest change in the area of the APE in the post-World War II years took place in the block west of Main Avenue. A

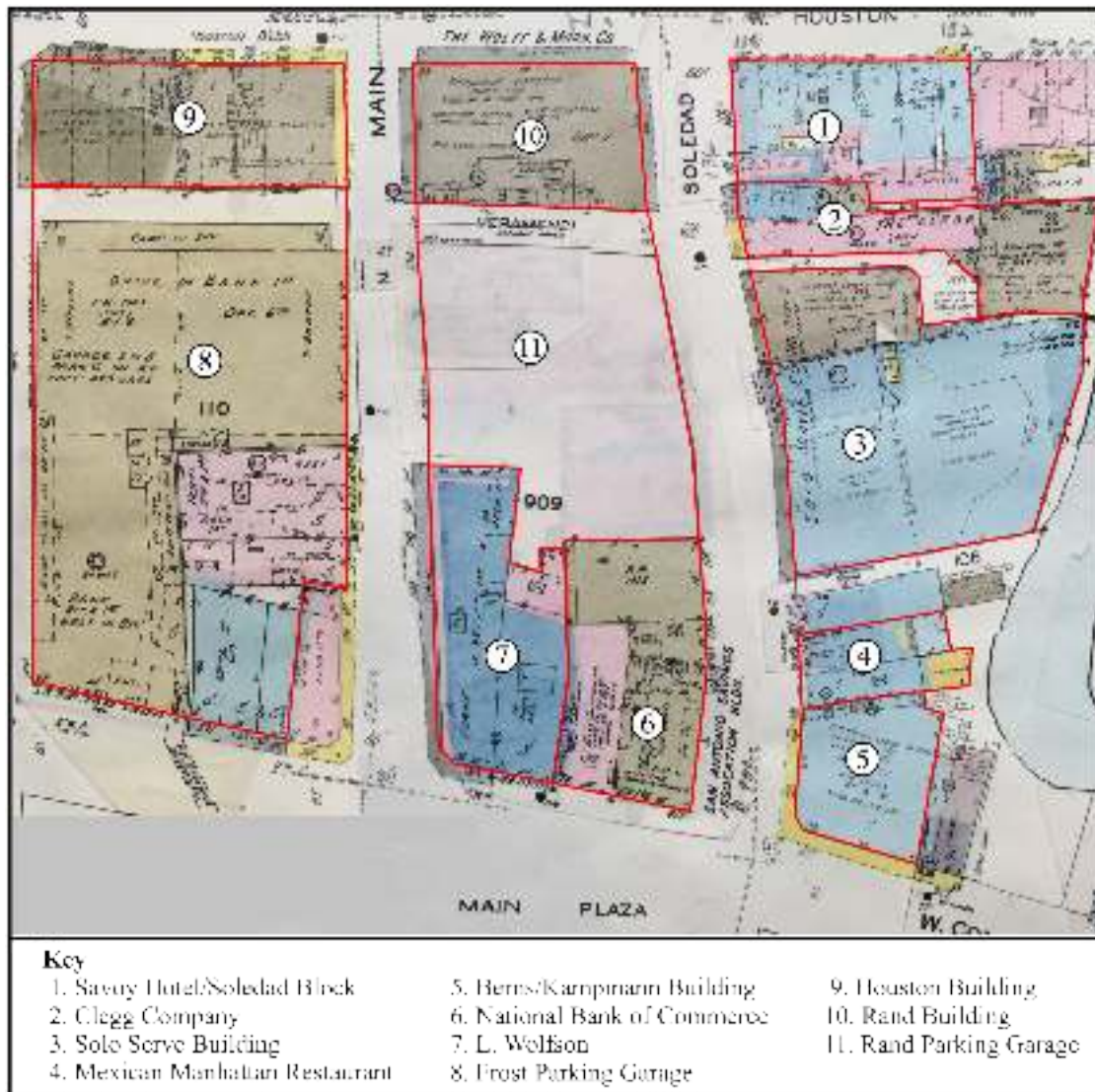


Figure 5-32. The 1966 Sanborn map with Post-World War II properties highlighted in red.

portion of the block on Flores Street had been vacant since it was cleared for construction of the Houston Building in 1908, but the Main Avenue frontage remained unchanged throughout the coming decades. In the early 1960s, Frost hired architects, Atlee B. and Robert M. Ayres, to design and build a parking structure on the vacant land (Figure 5-37). The garage extended to Main Avenue, wrapping around the former Adelman and adjoining buildings on Main Avenue.

Frost demolished the Houston Building and the adjacent building in 1969 in anticipation of constructing a new banking headquarters. The building was 22-stories and designed by local architects, Jones and Kell, in conjunction with noted New York architect, Charles Luckman (American Institute of Architects 2007:53; *San Antonio Express and News*, September 8, 1973:3-A). In 1973, the bank moved from the

building it had occupied on Main Plaza since 1922 to the new Frost Tower on Houston Street (*San Antonio Express and News*, September 8, 1973:3-A; Figure 5-38).

Though the Houston Building was demolished and replaced by Frost Tower, the Rand Building remained despite the loss of its tenant, Wolff and Marx. After the store closed in 1965, the building remained largely unoccupied throughout the 1970s as businesses relocated from downtown to suburban locations (*San Antonio Express*, September 1, 1912, February 16, 1913, July 27, 1913; *San Antonio Light*, March 27, 1910, May 19, 1912). In October 1979, the investment group that owned the Rand Building sold it to Main Plaza Corporation, a subsidiary of Frost National Bank (BCDR 5845:52-65; BCDR 1706:433-435). Demolition of the building was proposed, but preservation efforts succeeded (*San Antonio Express*, October 21, 1981). Veramendi Street was closed in



Figure 5-33. Applying slipcovering to the Soledad Block, 1963 (UTSA Special Collections, E-0009-043-A).



Figure 5-34. The Soledad Block after removal of slipcover and restoration.



Figure 5-35. Solo Serve, circa 1950 (Image courtesy of Irene Dunn).



Figure 5-36. Riverview Tower looking to the northeast. The former Adelman Building is on the left.

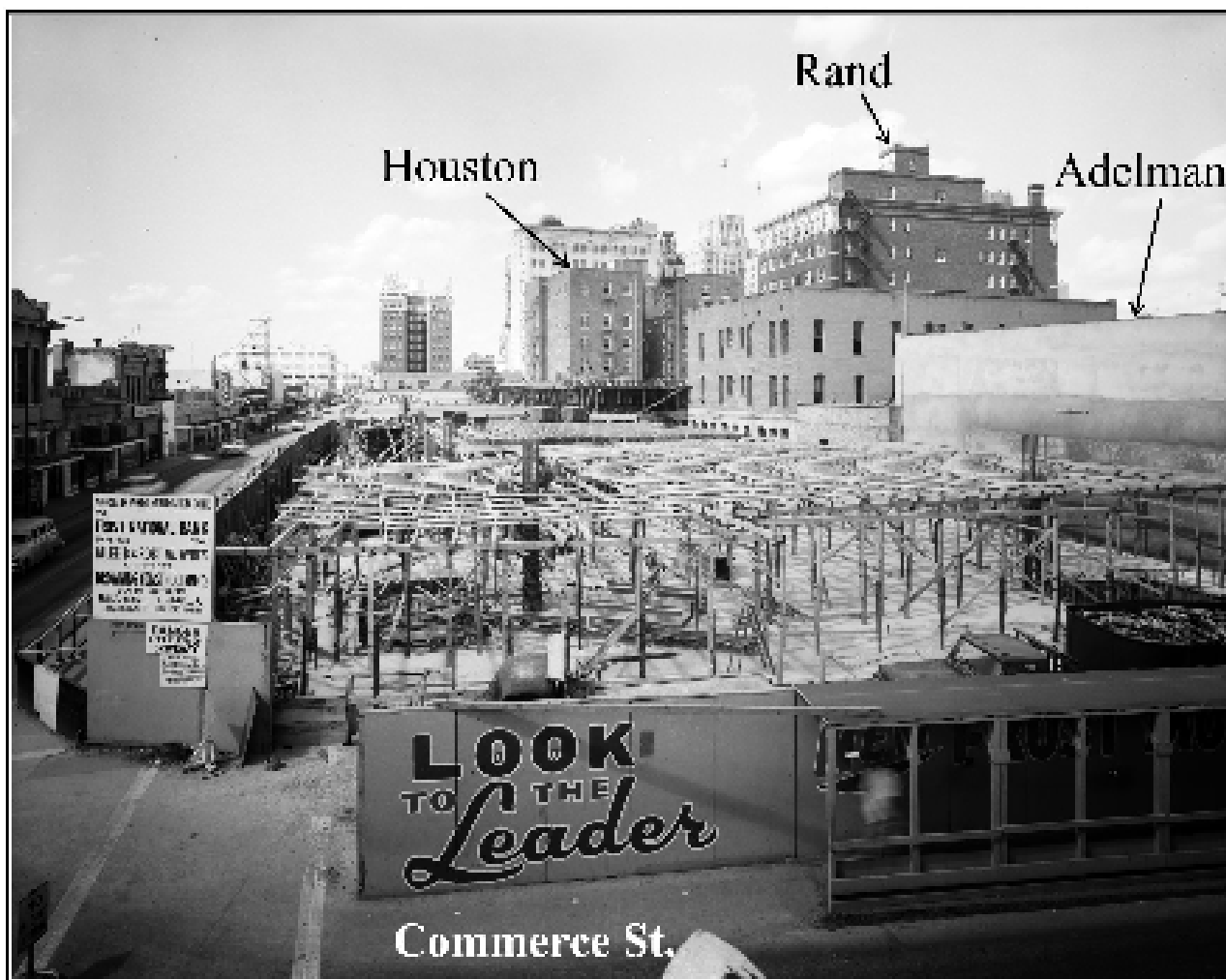


Figure 5-37. Construction of Frost Bank parking garage looking north from Commerce Street with the Rand Building (UTSA Special Collections Z-879-44722).

1982, and the right-of-way quitclaimed to Randstone Venture (City Council Ordinance 55,078). A parking garage was built on the abandoned right-of-way and the northern portion of NCB 909, which was a surface parking lot at the time (BCDR 2457:117-121; *San Antonio Express*, October 21, 1981). Since its renovation in 1982, the building has been used as offices (*San Antonio Express-News*, April 2, 2013:1-B; *San Antonio Light*, June 2, 1982).

Summary

The small, family owned residences and businesses that once characterized the APE have disappeared in the past 150 years, replaced by buildings considered modern in their time that were, in turn, replaced by even more modern buildings to keep pace with rapid developments in construction technology, economics, and urban growth. With the loss of

the Wolfson Building to fire in 2011, the only remnants of nineteenth-century architecture within the APE stand along Soledad Street. The historical architecture of all, except the Soledad Block at the corner of Houston Street, is obscured. The remaining two floors of the Kampmann Building at the corner of Commerce Street, the three adjoining buildings to the north, and the buildings immediately south of the Soledad Block are hidden behind new façades. The portion of the Solo Serve that incorporated the former courthouse was demolished and replaced by a new hotel. During the course of the project, multiple sites discussed in this chapter were documented including the San Pedro Acequia, Vaudeville/Elite Hotel, Alamo Lodge Bexar/County Courthouse, the Devine Building, the Wolfson Building, and remnants of the San Antonio Streetcar System. These sites represent a legacy of San Antonio's transition from a frontier community to a modern American city.



Figure 5-38. View to the south of Frost Bank Tower (right) and the Rand Building (left).

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Chapter 6: Field, Research, and Laboratory Methodologies and Curation

Leonard Kemp

The DTSR-Main/Soledad project consisted of extensive road construction of Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue, as well as utility upgrades. The construction and/or replacement of gas, water, sanitary, and storm utility lines was carried out by subcontractors to the main contractor, E-Z Bel Construction, under the COSA TCI. The CAR was contracted by PCI to provide archaeological monitoring of selected ground disturbing activities, primarily involving the monitoring of excavation for utilities as recommended by the COSA OHP. The CAR prepared a Scope of Work (SOW) to define its monitoring role and protocols for the discovery of archeological features. The SOW stated that the CAR would: 1) monitor all construction activities in archaeologically sensitive areas; 2) coordinate with City and State oversight agencies; 3) analyze and curate all collected artifacts and documentation generated by the project; and 4) publish a final report documenting the monitoring and its findings. This chapter presents the methodologies used during the DTSR-Main/Soledad project and includes sections on monitoring, testing, archival research, laboratory analysis, and curation.

Field Methods

Archaeologists completed a daily log form documenting the location and type of activity being monitored, detailed notes about the activity, and if any archaeological features and/or artifacts were encountered. The daily log was supplemented with digital photographs and initially with a Trimble® Global Positioning System (GPS) device to record feature location. However, early on in the project, GPS data was found to be inaccurate with recorded locations having an error of over 200 m (656 ft.). Printed aerial maps were then used to facilitate the location and documentation of activities and any archaeological findings. The CAR completed monthly reports, which were submitted through PCI to the TCI.

If archaeological features (e.g., foundation walls or middens) were found, CAR was authorized to stop work in that location and to immediately contact the OHP archaeologist. It should be noted that the trenches were both narrow and deep that not only hampered recognition of a features but also its documentation. The CAR archaeologists completed a feature form documenting the type and size of the feature, as well any other pertinent information. Digital photographs and/or measured drawings were created to document the feature. Three-dimensional models of selected features were created using AgiSoft® software, serving as an additional source of documentation. Diagnostic artifacts were collected from the feature with their provenience recorded. In most cases, a

total data station (TDS) was used to record the location and depth of the feature, and the data were entered into ArcGIS. As stated previously when the TDS was unavailable, the archaeologist used aerial maps to measure from visible points of reference.

Upon the discovery of an archaeological feature, the COSA OHP was informed of its location and the potential impact to it. In all cases, the OHP preferred to preserve the feature in place through realignment of the utility and/or to minimize the depth of impact. However, in those cases when it was deemed impossible to avoid impact to a feature, the OHP, in consultation with the THC, granted permission to remove the feature or portions after a thorough documentation of it.

For this project, an archaeological site was defined by the presence of intact archaeological features such as walls, other architectural features, and middens. The CAR created site boundaries based on the relationship of these features to their location on georeferenced Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps. For example, features from site 41BX2164 were plotted and aligned to the Veramendi House, with the perimeter of the building as depicted on the 1877 Sanborn map used as the site boundary. The OHP, in comments on a draft of this report, does not agree with this site definition stating that “features should be discussed as a component of the building, but I do not concur that you should then make the entire footprint of a building the archaeological site since evidence of that may no longer exist” (Kay Hinder, personal communication 2019). Following THC guidelines, each site location was recorded using TDS and plotted on topographic and aerial maps. Archaeological site forms were completed for eight new archaeological sites and submitted to the THC. A site update form was submitted to THC for the portion of the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337) located on N. Main Avenue.

Testing

The Spanish Colonial walls, midden, and Mexican trench feature of site 41BX2170 were tested from January 13 to 24, 2017, using four 1-x-1 m (3.28-x-3.28 ft.) test units (TUs). The units were placed off the utility trench, which was approximately 60 cm (23.6 in.) wide and 1.0-1.5 m (3.3-4.9 ft.) deep, to expose features discovered during monitoring. The units were excavated in arbitrary 10-cm (3.9-in.) levels referenced to the unit datum. The depths of the excavated units ranged from 0.2-0.90 m below the datum (mbd; 0.6-3 ft.). The location and depths of all excavation units and datums were recorded with a Sokkia total data station with

a Carlson data collector. Excavation was performed using trowels and shovels to expose features and in situ artifacts. Matrix from each level was sifted through quarter-inch hardware cloth. Artifacts found in the screen were collected in bags and labeled by provenience. Some artifacts were plotted in situ when discovered. In addition, a soil column (25-x-25 cm; 9.8-x-9.8 in.) was excavated in 10-cm (3.9-in.) levels from Feature 7, a dark soil matrix with burned rock, to a depth of 1.2 mbd (3.9 ft.). Each 10-cm (3.9-in.) level of the column was collected, tagged, and later floated at the CAR laboratory.

The Veramendi site (41BX2164) was investigated in two phases. The first phase (June 21-22, 2017) consisted of the excavation of a 0.5-x-0.5 m (1.6-x-1.6 ft.) unit (TU 1) placed against the wall feature found during utility trench excavation to discover the relative intactness of the midden associated with the Veramendi site. Following testing and after the stratigraphy and artifacts were examined by THC and OHP, an additional two 1-x-1 m (3.28-x-3.28 ft.) units (TUs 2 and 3), placed side by side, were excavated from June 27-28, 2017. The depths of all units were 0.5 m (1.6 ft.) below the surface. The excavation procedure was the same as that for the testing of 41BX2170. Two postholes were discovered in TUs 2 and 3, and the contents of each posthole was collected, tagged, and floated at the CAR laboratory.

All cultural material encountered in test units was collected and returned to the CAR laboratory for processing and analysis. A standard test unit form was completed for each test unit level, even if no artifacts were recovered. Plan and profile views were drawn at the discretion of the Project Archaeologist. All unit levels were photographed.

Archival Research

Archival research was conducted by Clinton McKenzie, Maria Pfeiffer, Richard Curilla, Jessica Nowlin, José Zapata, and Leonard Kemp. They consulted repositories including the Bexar County Archives held at the Dolph Briscoe Center for American History at the University of Texas at Austin, the Bexar Spanish Archives, Bexar County Deed Records, the research notes of Dr. Jesús de la Teja, and the Stewart Title Collection held at the Special Collections Department at UTSA. Documents from these institutions included City Council Minutes, Bexar County Commissioners Minutes, the City Engineer Record Book, deeds, probate, mechanic's liens, and Morrison and Fourmy's General Directory of the City of San Antonio. Digitized Sanborn Fire Insurance Maps held at the Perry-Castañeda Map Collection at the University of Texas at Austin were geo-rectified and overlaid onto the project area to identify buildings, type of construction, and the changing

landscape of San Antonio through time. Historic photographs from the San Antonio Conservation Society (including the Ernst Raba Photo Collection, the Restricted Photo Collection, and the San Antonio Downtown Historic Resources Survey), San Antonio Public Library, Texana-Genealogy Department, Texas State Library and Archives, the Daughters of the Texas Republic Library at Texas A&M University-San Antonio, and UTSA (including the General Photograph Collection, the *San Antonio Light* Photographs, the *San Antonio Express-News* Collection, and the Zintgraff Studio) were an important visual record of historical resources within the project area. Historical photographs held in the private collections of Maria Watson Pfeiffer and Irene Dunn were also used in the research process, and some have been included in this document.

Laboratory Methods

All cultural materials and records obtained and/or generated during the project were prepared in accordance with THC requirements for State Held-in-Trust collections. Collected artifacts were tagged with an individual field sack number, description, quantity, feature number (if applicable), and location. The artifacts were field checked by the Project Archaeologist and turned over to the laboratory director for processing in the CAR laboratory. Artifacts were washed, air-dried, and stored in 4-mil, zip-locking, archival-quality bags.

Artifacts recovered from 41BX2170 included ceramics, clay tile, glass, lithics, metal, organic material, and charcoal. Artifacts recovered from 41BX2164 samples consisted of ceramics, lithics, glass. José Zapata (metal and building material), Clint McKenzie (ceramics and glass), Karlee Jeffery (faunal), and Jason Perez (lithics) conducted artifact identification. Artifact information was entered into an MS Excel database. Twelve liters of sediment samples from 41BX2170 and two liters from 41BX2164 were floated at the CAR laboratory. Flotation procedures used on this project have been previously tested using unburned poppy seeds, resulting in a recovery rate of over 90 percent.

All original project documentation (i.e., notes, monitoring and feature forms) was placed in archival-quality plastic sleeves. Ceramics and lithics were labeled with laser printed tags containing the artifact's site number or its accession numbers (in the case it was not within a site context) and its catalog number placed over a clear coat of acrylic and covered by another acrylic coat. Artifacts were then placed in individual 4-mil, zip-locking, archival-quality bags with a laser printed label containing provenience information and a corresponding lot number. Artifacts were separated by class and stored in acid-free boxes. Digital photographs were printed on acid-free paper, labeled with archival appropriate materials, and placed in archival-quality sleeves. Upon completion of the project,

all records, imagery, and collected materials were housed at the CAR, a certified state curatorial facility.

Prior to final curation, the CAR requested and was granted permission to discard artifact classes that had no remaining scientific or historical value from the COSA OHP and the THC in accordance with Chapter 26.27(g)(2) of the Antiquities

Code of Texas. For this project, the material consisted of all shell, sewer pipe, limestone/sandstone fragments, non-feature burned rock, and streetcar rail fragments. In addition, the CAR discarded mortar/plaster and construction tile retaining representative samples of each class of these artifacts. The CAR curated all records related to the discarded material and the discard procedure.

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Chapter 7: Results of Archaeological Monitoring

Leonard Kemp, Linda Martinez, José E. Zapata, Clinton M. M. McKenzie, and Jason Perez

This chapter presents a detailed account of the archaeological monitoring for the DTSSR-Main/Soledad project. It consists of three sections. The first section of this chapter describes the monitoring activities, when they occurred, and what was found on Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue. The CAR discovered eight new sites, revised one previously recorded site within the APE, and recorded 32 features. All the features with the exception of one (Feature 22, wood pavers) are associated with archaeological sites. This chapter discusses those 10 site features that were not subjected to further testing, as well as Feature 22. Features 3, 5, and 7-15 are associated with site 41BX2170, and they are discussed in Chapter 8 because the site was deemed potentially eligible to the National Register and for nomination as a SAL, thus requiring more testing. Features 6 and 17 are components associated with the nineteenth-century Wolfson Building located in the footprint of 41BX2170, and they are discussed in this chapter. Features 19-24 and 29-33 are associated with the Veramendi site (41BX2164) and are discussed in Chapter 9. This chapter concludes with a summary of the project and site eligibility recommendations.

Archaeological Monitoring of Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue

The OHP, in consultation with TCI, selected areas of interest associated with the excavation of planned gas, water, and storm utilities that might contain or were known to contain archaeological deposits. These areas were designated as the APE and were monitored by the CAR (Figures 7-1 and 7-2). Archaeological monitoring began in mid-October 2016 and concluded in December 2017. These excavations were undertaken by contractors for CPS Energy (gas), SAWS (water), and COSA (storm, electric conduit, and fiber optic). During the course of the project, additional areas were monitored due to the discovery of cultural resources, as determined by the OHP and TCI. One such area is the gas line excavation that occurred in the 200 block of Soledad Street (Figure 7-2), leading to the discovery of remnants of the San Antonio streetcar system (41BX2163).

Monitoring of the CPS gas line excavation began in October 2016 in the 200 block of Soledad Street. The gas line trench was generally 60-70 cm (23.6-27.6 in.) in width and approximately 1.5 m (4.9 ft.) in depth. The narrowness and depth of the trench hindered observation and documentation of features, as was the case in most of the utility excavations. The gas pipe was made of polyethylene and was flexible. When a feature was encountered, the trench could be shifted

to avoid that feature, and when avoidance was not possible, the depth could be adjusted so that the line would lay over the feature. Excavation monitoring for the gas line then shifted to the 100 block of Soledad and moved to the 100 block of N. Main Avenue. Initially, gas line excavation was limited to the first 6 m (19.7 ft.) north of the N. Main Avenue and Commerce Street intersection. This plan changed following the discovery of site 41BX2170, with the entire length of the gas excavation monitored on N. Main Avenue. The gas excavation proceeded north on the east side of N. Main Avenue to the Rand Building, until it encountered the Frost tunnel (an underground walkway between the Rand and Frost buildings), which forced the line to shift to the west side of N. Main Avenue. The CAR also monitored this area because the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337) was present on the west side of the street. The *acequia* was encountered by the trenching north of the Frost tunnel into the intersection of Houston Street and N. Main Avenue. Monitoring for gas line excavation ended in May 2017.

Trench excavation for the new SAWS water line began on the 100 block of Soledad Street in January 2017. The water line trench was generally 1.5-2 m (4.9-6.6 ft.) in width and approximately 2 m (6.9 ft.) in depth. The trench walls were braced with shoring, and while this protected the workspace, it obscured portions of the trench wall and hindered documentation of discovered features. After completion of the Soledad Street portion, the CAR monitored the excavation for the water line on the west side of the 100 block of N. Main Avenue beginning in April 2017 (see Figure 7-1). Monitoring for water line excavation ended in May 2017.

Monitoring for the storm drain excavation (see Figure 7-1) was on the west side of N. Main Avenue due to the presence of the San Pedro Acequia. It began in June 2017. The trench for this utility was approximately 1-1.5 m (3.3-4.9 ft.) in width and 1.5 m (4.9 ft.) in depth. Due to the locations of connecting storm boxes, the slope of the line, and the presence of the adjacent water line, impacts to the *acequia* from the construction of the storm drain were unavoidable. After consultation between the OHP and the THC and with their concurrence, small portions of the *acequia* were removed to allow the placement of the storm line. Monitoring for storm drain excavation ended in July 2017.

In addition, CAR archaeologist monitored the excavation of a SAWS sewer manhole on Soledad Street in March 2017 (see Figure 7-1). The CAR recommended that the monitoring for two additional manholes was unnecessary based on previous

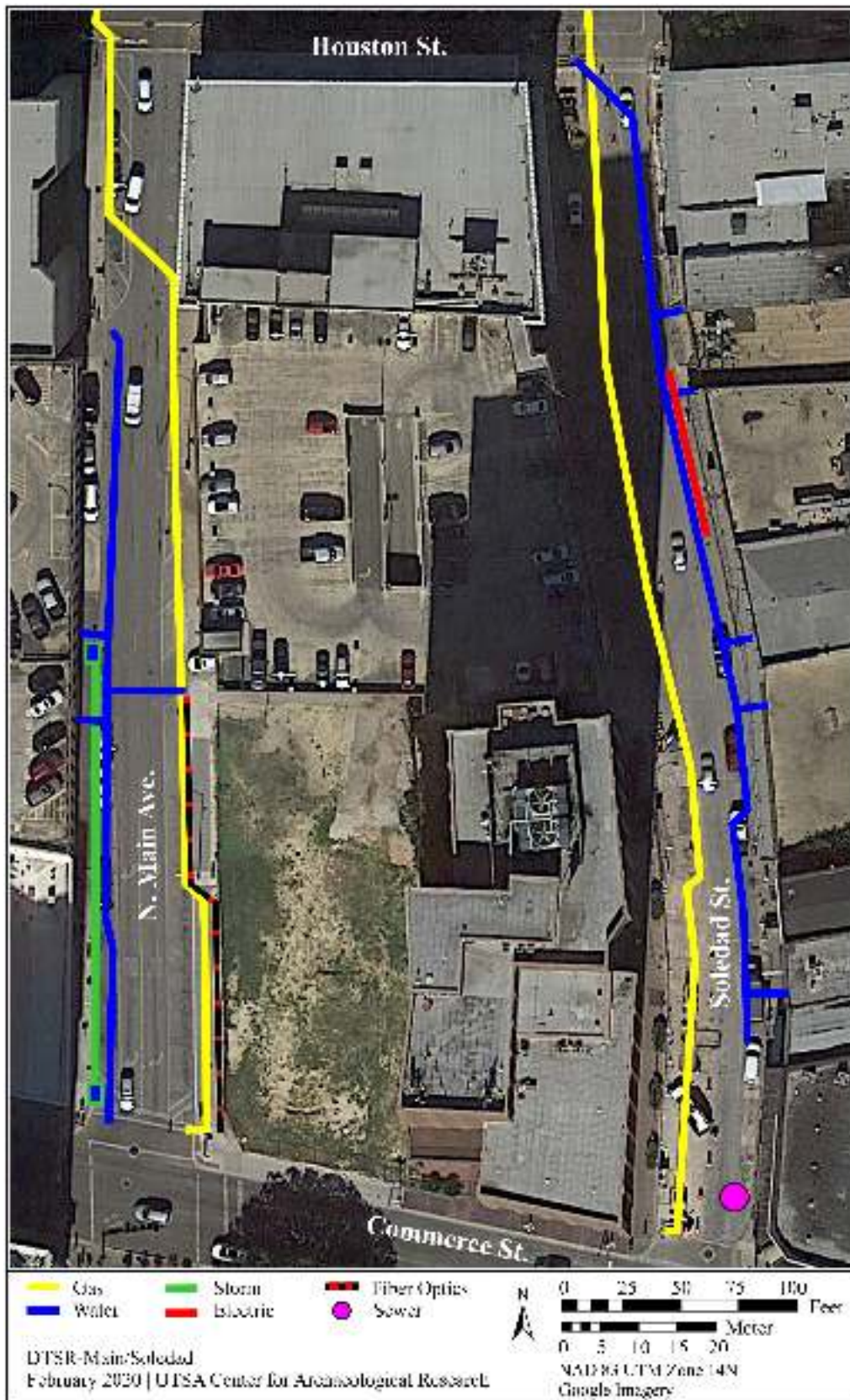


Figure 7-1. The monitoring by utility of the APE showing the 100 block of Soledad Street and the 100 block of N. Main Avenue.

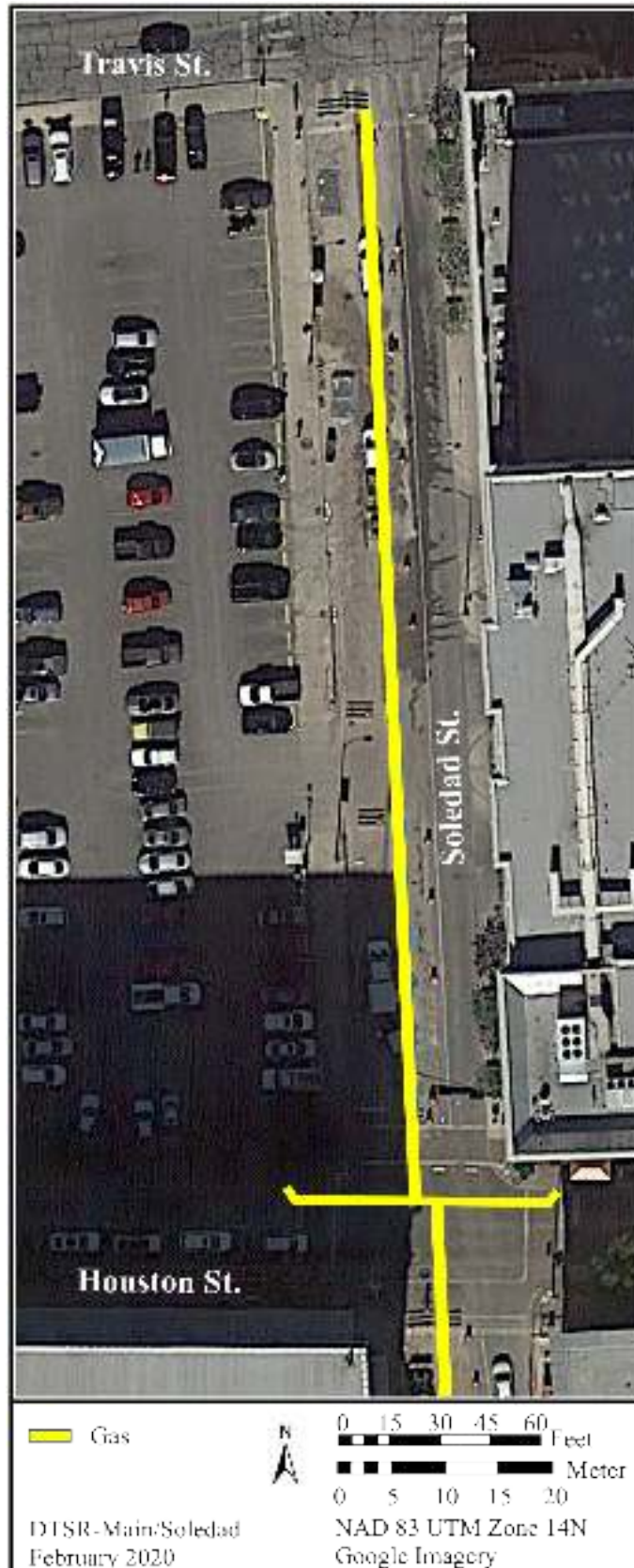


Figure 7-2. The 200 block of Soledad Street monitoring of the APE was specific to only the gas line excavation.

excavation in the area and because the new manholes replaced preexisting ones. The OHP concurred with the recommendation. CAR archaeologists also monitored the trench excavation for an electrical conduit located on Soledad Street in front of a newly recorded site 41BX2164, the Veramendi site, in June 2017. During monitoring, features (wall fragments and a midden) were discovered. The OHP and the THC recommended additional testing of the midden feature associated with the Veramendi site.

The final monitoring occurred in December 2017 for a fiber optic conduit on the east side of the 100 block of N. Main Avenue within 41BX2170 (see Figure 7-1). Site 41BX2170 is a multicomponent site containing Spanish Colonial features, a trench feature associated with the Siege of Béxar, and foundation remnants of the nineteenth century Wolfson Building. The excavation encountered another portion of Feature 3, a Spanish Colonial-era wall first discovered during monitoring of what became 41BX2170. The excavation shifted north of the feature to avoid it and ran along the side of the Wolfson Building foundation walls.

During the project, CAR archaeologists documented five new sites in the 100 and 200 blocks of Soledad Street (41BX2163, 41BX2164, 41BX2165, 41BX2166, and 41BX2202) and three new sites (41BX2170, 41BX2201, and 41BX2203) in the 100 block of N. Main Avenue. The San Pedro Acequia (41BX337) was documented in the 100 block of N. Main Avenue. In addition, trenching on N. Main Avenue revealed the presence of large sections of wood block pavers (Feature 22) found in situ in several areas. Wood block pavers were also found on Soledad Street; however, they were not found in their original context. Table 7-1 lists features found during the DTSR-Main/Soledad archaeological monitoring and testing discussed in this chapter. Figure 7-3 shows the locations of the archaeological sites and features discussed in this chapter.

Feature 1: Site 41BX2163, San Antonio Streetcar System

During excavation for the new CPS gas line on the 200 block of Soledad Street and immediately north of East Houston Street, Feature 1 was encountered, approximately 20-25 cm (7.9-9.8 in.) below the asphalt road (see Figure 7-3 for its location). The feature consisted of five creosote wood ties embedded in concrete (Figure 7-4). The feature changed from the wood ties to metal ties approximately 5 m north of the intersection of Houston and Commerce streets. The ties were cut-steel rails 10 cm (3.9 in.) in width and height and 50 cm (19.7 in.) in length with a holding lug and bolt (Figure 7-5). The ties were repurposed to serve as support for

the rail, and each tie was spaced approximately 50 cm (19.7 in.) apart. The ties sat on a concrete base, and wood spacers were used to level each tie to the same height. Following documentation, ties that interfered with the excavation and/or construction were cut and removed. Additional remnants of the system were found in the 100 block of Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue. No intact rails were found on either Soledad Street or N. Main Avenue, and they are assumed to have been salvaged after the system was closed. The cut-ties encased in concrete were likely too difficult to remove and were paved over instead.

The feature was identified as part of the tracks for the streetcar system that operated in San Antonio from 1878 to 1933 (Hemphill 2009; Watson 1982). It was documented as archaeological site 41BX2163. The first trolley line was built in 1878, with service from Main and Alamo plazas to San Pedro Park (Watson 1982). The cars were first pulled by mule or horse, but they were converted into an electrified system in the 1890s (Watson 1982). Both Soledad Street and N. Main Avenue were served by the streetcar system, as seen in Koch's *1886 Bird's Eye View of San Antonio* (see Figure 5-10; Hemphill 2009; Watson 1982). By 1927, the system had grown to its largest and consisted of approximately 27.4 km (90 miles) of track serving San Antonio, Alamo Heights, and portions of Bexar County (Watson 1982). In 1933, San Antonio became the first major city in the United States to close its streetcar system, replacing it with the convenient and more profitable motor bus (Hemphill 2009; Watson 1982).

Feature 2: Site 41BX2166, Elite Hotel/Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon

Feature 2 is a foundation wall found on the west side of Soledad Street, just north of its intersection with Commerce Street. The feature was recorded with the TDS, and the data was overlaid on geo-rectified 1885 and 1904 Sanborn maps (Figure 7-6). The feature aligns to the footprint of the Elite Hotel, Restaurant, and Saloon, and the Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon. Feature 2 was designated as archaeological site 41BX2166.

The feature was 75 cm (29.5 in.) below the asphalt road and consisted of five cut limestone blocks running south to north (Figure 7-7). The blocks measured 45-50 cm (17.7-19.7 in.) in length, and together had a total length of 2.5 m (8.2 ft.; Figure 7-8). The large size and the manufacturing of the blocks suggest they date to the nineteenth century. Feature 2 was impacted by previous construction, including a CPS vault and a storm drain. The OHP requested the feature be protected by avoidance. The feature was covered in sand with the gas line placed adjacent to the feature, and the gas line was encased by flowable concrete fill. No artifacts were found in association with the feature.

Table 7-1. DTSR-Main/Soledad Sites and Features discussed in Chapter 7*

Name or Description	Sites	Associated Feature(s)
San Antonio Streetcar System	41BX2163	1
Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon	41BX2166	2
Wolfson Building	41BX2170	6, 17
Bexar County Courthouse	41BX2165	16
Devine Building	41BX2202	18
wood block pavers	n/a	22
Second-hand store/Salvation Army	41BX2203	23
San Pedro Acequia	41BX337	25 and 28
Spanish Colonial wall and midden	41BX2201	27

*The subsequent Chapters 8 and 9 will discuss the remaining features

The lot on which 41BX2166 is located was originally granted to Canary Islander, Francisco de Arocha (see Chapter 4) and remained in his family until it was bought by Sam S. Smith, in 1850. Smith opened a small saloon incorporating existing portions of the Arocha House (Bowser 2004). Bowser (2004) states that the structure was torn down with a two-story limestone building constructed in its place. The first business in the new building was called the Cosmopolitan Saloon, followed by the Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon in 1871-1884 (Bowser 2004). In March 1886, it burned down with only the stone walls remaining (Bowser 2004). It is likely that the limestone blocks represent the remnants of the construction of the Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon given the large size and facing. The building was rebuilt becoming the Elite Hotel, Restaurant, and Saloon. In 1918, the structure was torn down and replaced with the National Bank of Commerce Building.

Features 6 and 17: Site 41BX2170

Features 6 and 17 are late nineteenth-century limestone wall foundations. The location and alignment of these two features indicate that they were part of the former Wolfson Building and were designated as site 41BX2170 (Figure 7-9). Feature 6 was recorded during the SAL testing of the site (see Chapter 8). Feature 17 was recorded during monitoring after the SAL testing phase was completed.

Feature 6 is a remnant of a limestone wall uncovered at 63 cm (24.8 in.) below the surface, and the bottom of the feature was 1.78 m (5.8 ft.) below the surface (Figure 7-10). The feature was 1.7 m (5.6 ft.) in length and consists of 1-2 courses of limestone block joined with a sandy mortar. The location of Feature 6 was documented with the TDS and with multiple photographs. The trench excavation did not impact the feature beyond exposing it.

Feature 17 is composed of two, cut limestone walls. The east wall is 1.65 m (5.4 ft.) long and at least 1.23 m (0.5 in.) high, and the west wall measures 1.5 m (4.9 ft.) long and 0.2 m high (0.7 ft.; Figure 7-11). The fill between the two walls contained a mix of construction material that included mosaic floor tile and yellow and red brick fragments. The City Archaeologist viewed the feature and described it as a “window well.” Feature 17 was documented with a measured plan view and panoramic photos of the west and east walls, and samples of brick and plaster were collected. The trench excavation avoided the feature.

The Wolfson Building was a two-story, limestone building that replaced a Spanish Colonial-era stone/adobe structure (see Chapter 5). The building housed the Wolfson Dry Goods and Clothing Store, a major retail store of nineteenth-century San Antonio. The architect, Alfred Giles, an English immigrant who lived and worked in San Antonio, redesigned it in 1880 (George 2006). The original building footprint is shown in Figure 7-9. The Wolfson Building burned in 1904 and was rebuilt. It was impacted by street widening in the early twentieth century, with approximately 9 m (29.5 ft.) of the west façade removed from the building. The west façade was then constructed of brick (George 2006). Evidence of the removal and reconstruction is shown on the 1933 Sanborn map (see Figure 7-9). It appears that both features are associated with the later reconstruction of the building. The building was bought in 1994 and renovated (George 2006). Unfortunately, the building burned again in 2011 and was demolished, leaving only the subsurface portion of the building (George 2006).

Feature 16: Site 41BX2165, Bexar County Courthouse

Feature 16 feature was found during monitoring of the trench excavation for a water line in the 100 block of Soledad Street. Based upon its recorded location and geo-rectified Sanborn

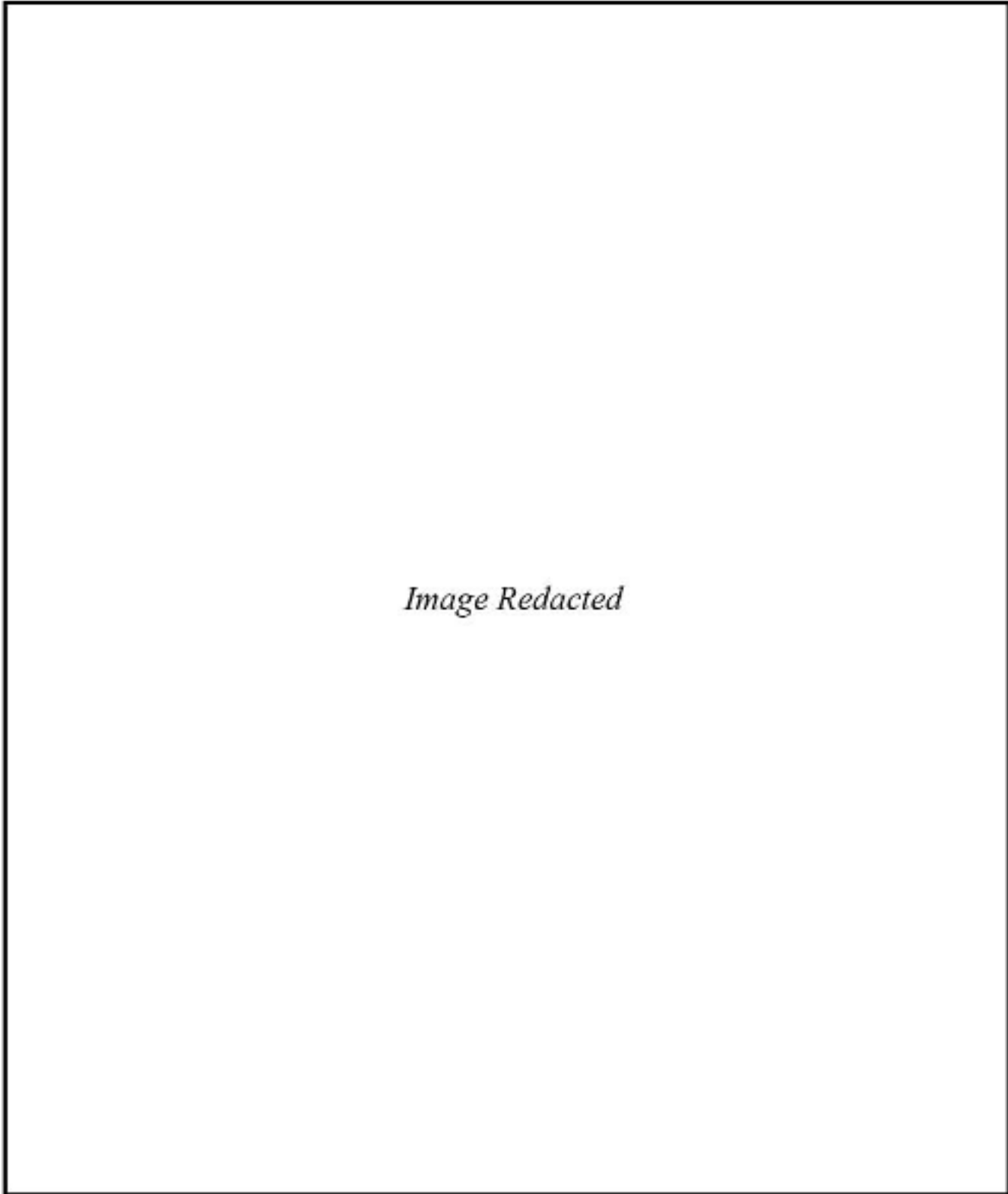


Figure 7-3. Locations of archaeological sites and features discussed in this chapter. Site 41BX2170 will be discussed in Chapter 8, and site 41BX2164 will be discussed in Chapter 9.

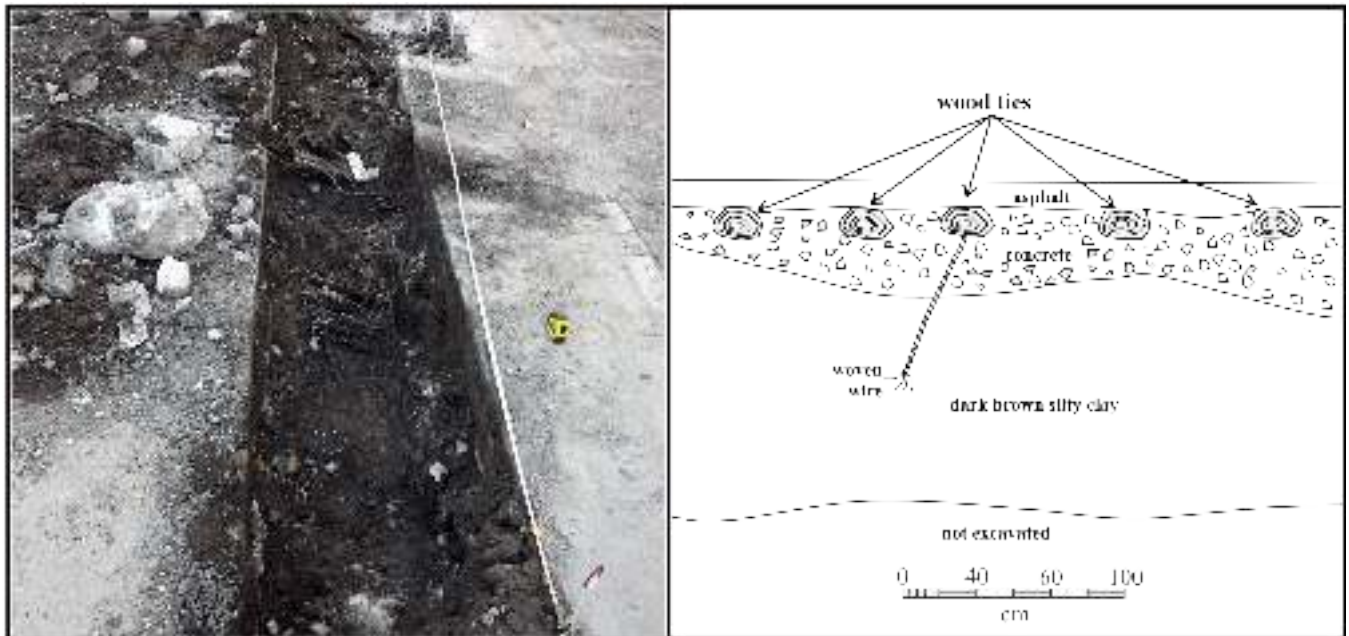


Figure 7-4. Wood rail ties identified as Feature 1 immediately north of Commerce and Houston streets (left). On the right is a profile of the ties found during later gas trench excavation.

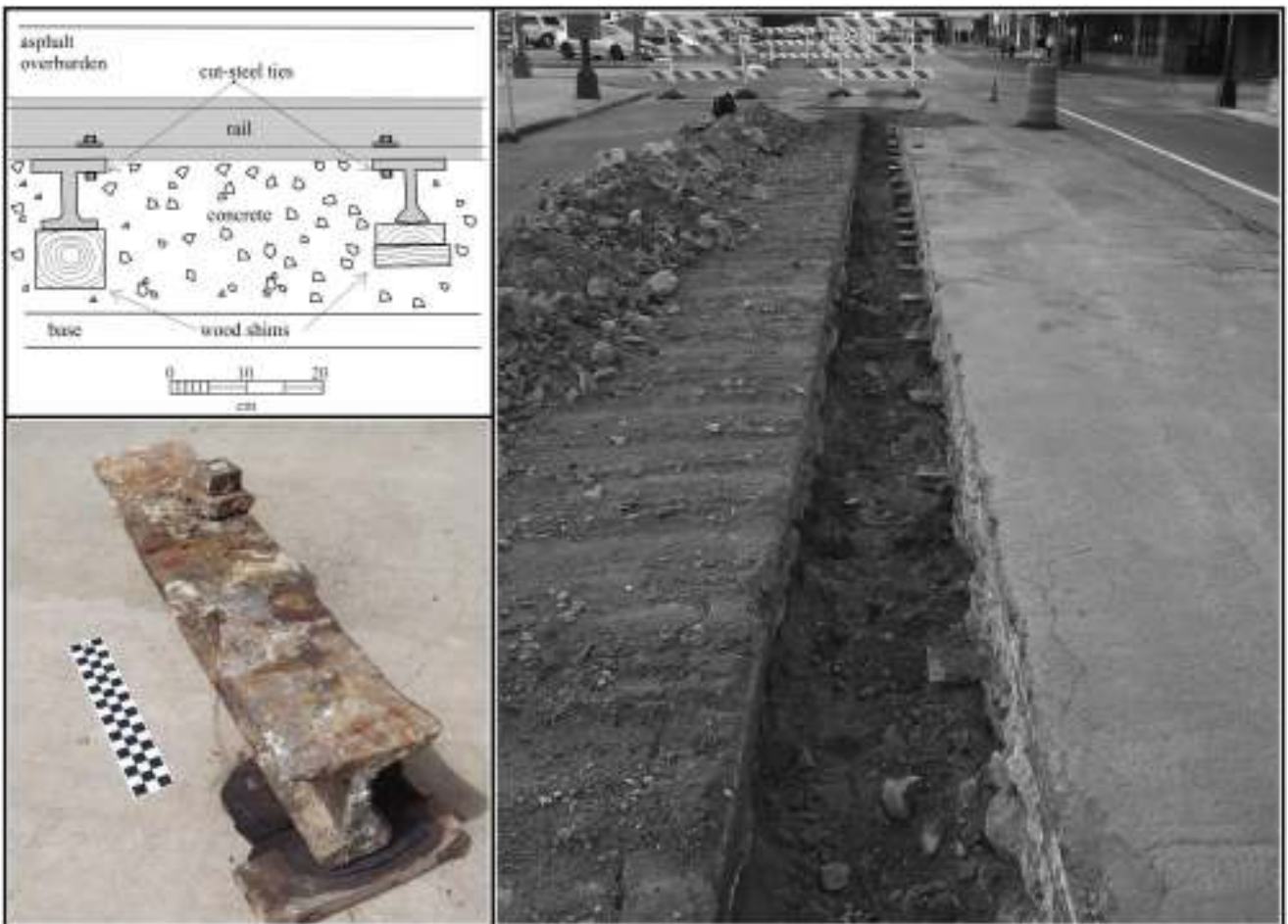


Figure 7-5. The image on the right is a view to the north showing the alignment and depth of ties within the excavated trench. Upper left image is a hypothetical profile drawing of typical section. Lower left image is one of the ties reused from cut rails.

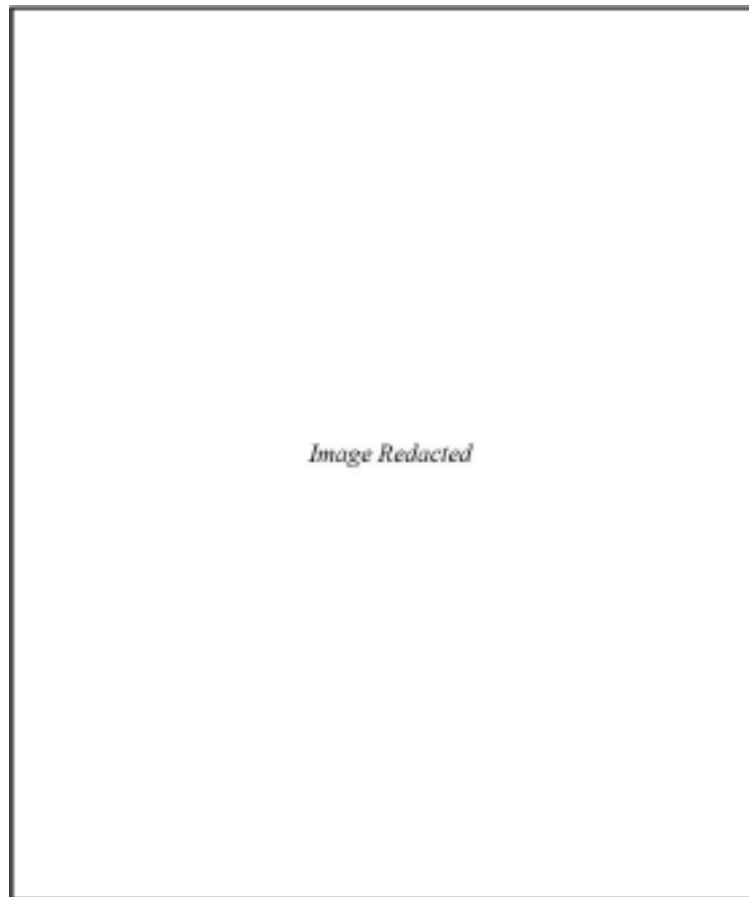


Figure 7-6. Feature 2 overlain on the 1904 (black lines) and 1885 (light gray) Sanborn maps. Inset shows 41BX2166 on a current aerial.



Figure 7-7. Feature 2 (left) found during excavation for a gas line at Commerce and Soledad streets; trench width approximately 60 cm (23.6 in.). Detail (right) of limestone wall.



Figure 7-8. Profile of Feature 2 constructed from 3D imagery.

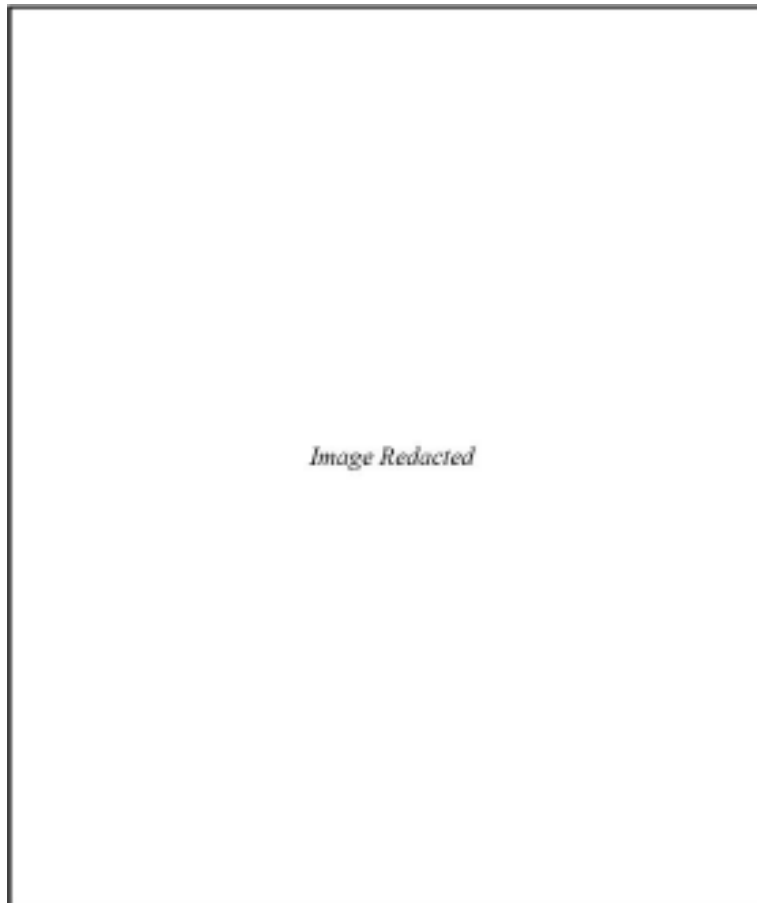


Figure 7-9. Features 6 and 7 overlain on the 1933 (color image) and 1885 (light gray) Sanborn maps showing the Wolfson Building. Inset shows 41BX2170 on a current aerial.



Figure 7-10. Feature 6 view to the east (left). Detail of the feature (right).



Figure 7-11. Feature 17, view to the east, showing window well.

maps, the feature aligns with the former Bexar County Courthouse (Figure 7-12). Feature 16 was designated as archaeological site 41BX2165.

Feature 16 was a wall measuring approximately 10.5 m (34.4 ft.) in length, 1.8 m (5.9 ft.) in height, and approximately 0.3 m (1 ft.) in width. Originally, two features were identified and given two separate feature numbers (15 and 16) because two separate trenches were excavated for the water line due to soil instability. After the second trench was excavated, the field archaeologist determined that the wall was one feature and recorded it all as Feature 16. The northern portion of the feature contained dressed limestone blocks (Figure 7-13) that were noticeably different from the irregularly shaped stone used to construct the southern wall portion (Figure 7-14). An asbestos water line backfilled with sand and other loose material was adjacent to the feature in the excavated trench.

Its presence prevented the archaeologist from profiling the feature due to safety issues. The feature had been impacted by past construction activities including the street widening in 1914, the construction of a CPS vault, the installation of a storm drain, and the water line. The OHP, in consultation with the THC allowed the southern wall to be removed following documentation, since the water line could not be realigned. A minimal amount of artifacts were associated with the wall, including a piece of cut limestone, a sample of mortar, a sample of plaster, a large faunal bone, and several glass items that included two olive green bottle bases and an aqua jar.

The difference in the construction material used for the northern and southern portions of the wall may suggest that the southern portion of the feature is a remnant of the courthouse that was constructed onto the previous structure,

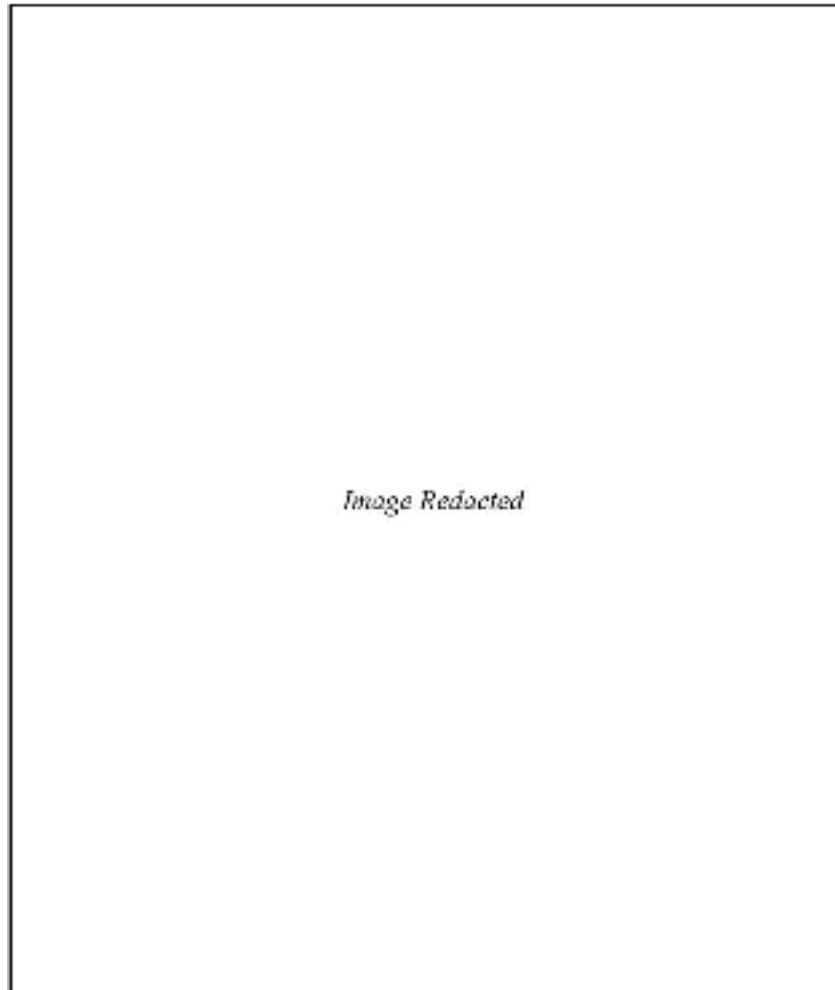


Figure 7-12. Feature 16 overlain on the 1933 (color image) and 1885 (light gray) Sanborn maps. Inset shows 41BX2165 on a current aerial.



Figure 7-13. Profile of Feature 16, the northern foundation walls of Bexar County Courthouse.



Figure 7-14. Feature 16 southern foundation walls of Bexar County Courthouse (41BX2165). Water line is to the east of the wall.

the Alamo Masonic Lodge (the blue portion of the site shown in Figure 7-12; see Figure 5-4; Valentine 2014). However, this is speculation due to the conditions concerning documentation of the feature and the lack of diagnostic artifacts. The Masonic Building was constructed in 1847 for the Order of the Alamo Lodge No. 44 (Valentine 2014). The building was sold to Bexar County in 1872, and Kampmann was contracted to enlarge the facility to accommodate the county clerk and district clerk (Valentine 2014). In 1882, the county commissioner awarded a contract to Giles to remodel and expand the courthouse (Santos 1979). Giles designed the front façade in a Second Empire-style (see Figure 5-14), three and half stories tall, topped by flanking mansard roofed pavilions (Santos 1979). However, by 1887, the County was seeking to replace it with a new courthouse due to the expanding county government and already inadequate size of the building (Santos 1979). It was replaced in 1896 with the current courthouse. The limestone wall feature is what remains of the fourth Bexar County Courthouse and possibly the Masonic Building from which it was constructed.

Feature 18: Site 41BX2202, Devine Building

Feature 18 was found during the trench excavation for a SAWS water line, immediately north of Feature 16, the Bexar County Courthouse (41BX2165). Based upon its location on the 1885 and 1892 Sanborn maps, Feature 18 is a remnant of the Devine Building (Figure 7-15; see Figure 5-23). Pfeiffer (2006:18) states the Devine Building was built after March 1877 (when Devine bought the lot) by Kampmann. The building was bought in 1927 by Solo Serve and incorporated into that building (Pfeiffer 2006). Feature 18 was designated as archaeological site 41BX2202.

The feature is composed of two north-to-south walls and three east-to-west walls; a doorway is located in the northernmost east to west wall (Figure 7-16). The walls form two rooms, measuring 1.7-x-3.3 m (5.6-x-10.8 ft.) with a small opening connecting the two rooms. The walls were found 26-38 cm (10.2-15 in.) below the surface and extended to 2 m (6.6 ft.) in depth. The feature measures north to south 5.5 m (18 ft.) and east to west 2.5 m (8.2 ft.). With the exception of the northernmost wall, the remaining walls were a single course of limestone block, approximately 0.6-x-0.6 m (2-x-2 ft.) and 0.6 m (2 ft.) in width. The northernmost wall is a double wall (1.2 m; 3.9 ft.) with a doorway measuring 0.9 m (3 ft.) in width. The feature was impacted by the Soledad Street widening in 1909, as evidenced by the fill of soil and rubble found in the rooms and doorway (see Figure 7-16, upper left). In addition, a stone course of the dividing wall was removed for a previous utility installation (see Figure 7-16, lower left). A charcoal/ash layer began at 96 cm (37.8 in.) below the surface and extended to 126 cm (50 in.) below the surface. Artifacts observed were from the nineteenth century and included olive and aqua glass. No artifacts were collected. The feature was documented with photographs and drawings, and construction was allowed to proceed after consultation with the OHP and THC. The portion of the wall within the path of the water line was removed.

Feature 22

Feature 22 consists of wood block street pavers found in areas throughout the 100 block of N. Main Avenue (see Figure 7-3 for locations associated with Feature 22). The 1904 Sanborn map shows both N. Main Avenue and Soledad Street as paved in wood blocks (Sanborn 1904).

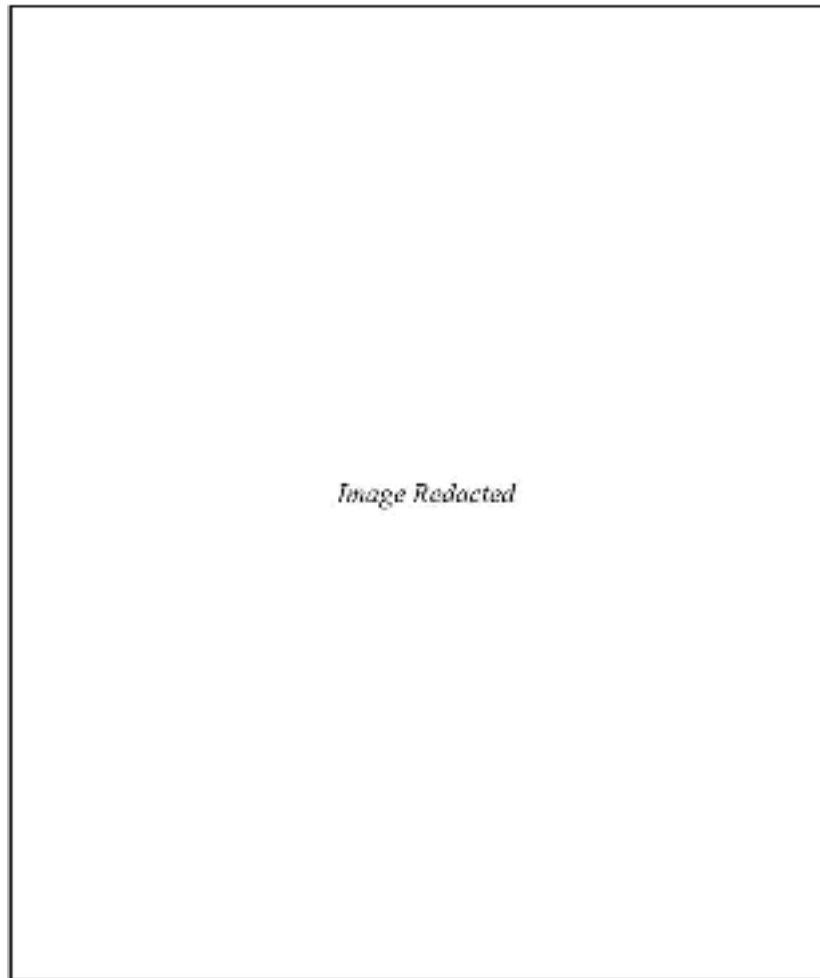


Figure 7-15. Feature 18 shown on the 1892 Sanborn map. Inset shows 41BX2202 on a current aerial.

The blocks are rectangular creosoted pine measuring 15.5 cm (6.1 in.) in length, 9 cm (3.4 in.) in width, and 8 cm (3.1) in height (Figure 7-17). The OHP was informed of the discovery. After photo documentation and collection of several samples, construction was allowed to proceed, and the pavers were removed when necessary. Wood pavers were also observed in the 100 block of Soledad but were out of place by previous construction.

Wood block paving was a popular method of street construction during the mid-to-late nineteenth century. In 1854, Samuel Nicolson patented a process for the construction of roads with treated wooden blocks preserved in creosote (Allen 2005). Nicolson cites that the wood blocks were safe, muted noise of horse shoes and carriage traffic, and advertised as durable and economical (Nicolson 1859).

In Texas, block pavers of creosoted southern pine were first adopted in Galveston in 1873 and remained in service until 1903 (Engineering and Contracting 1915). Cox citing James (1938) described San Antonio's unpaved streets as becoming "quagmires" following even a light shower (Cox 2005:vii). To remedy both the problem of noise and mud, Walter Scott, an early proponent of the wood block paving, advertised in the San Antonio Light in February 1885 that his company had "enough mesquite timber to pave the entire city (Allen 2005). Scott received a City contract to construct street paving at Military Plaza, Alamo Plaza, sections of Commerce, Houston, Dolorosa, Market, and St Mary's streets (Texas Reader 2017). He used hexagonal pavers (Figure 7-18) laid on a 4-inch concrete foundation with a half-inch sand base (Engineering News Record 1889). The sections of paver found during the project employed a similar construction method with the

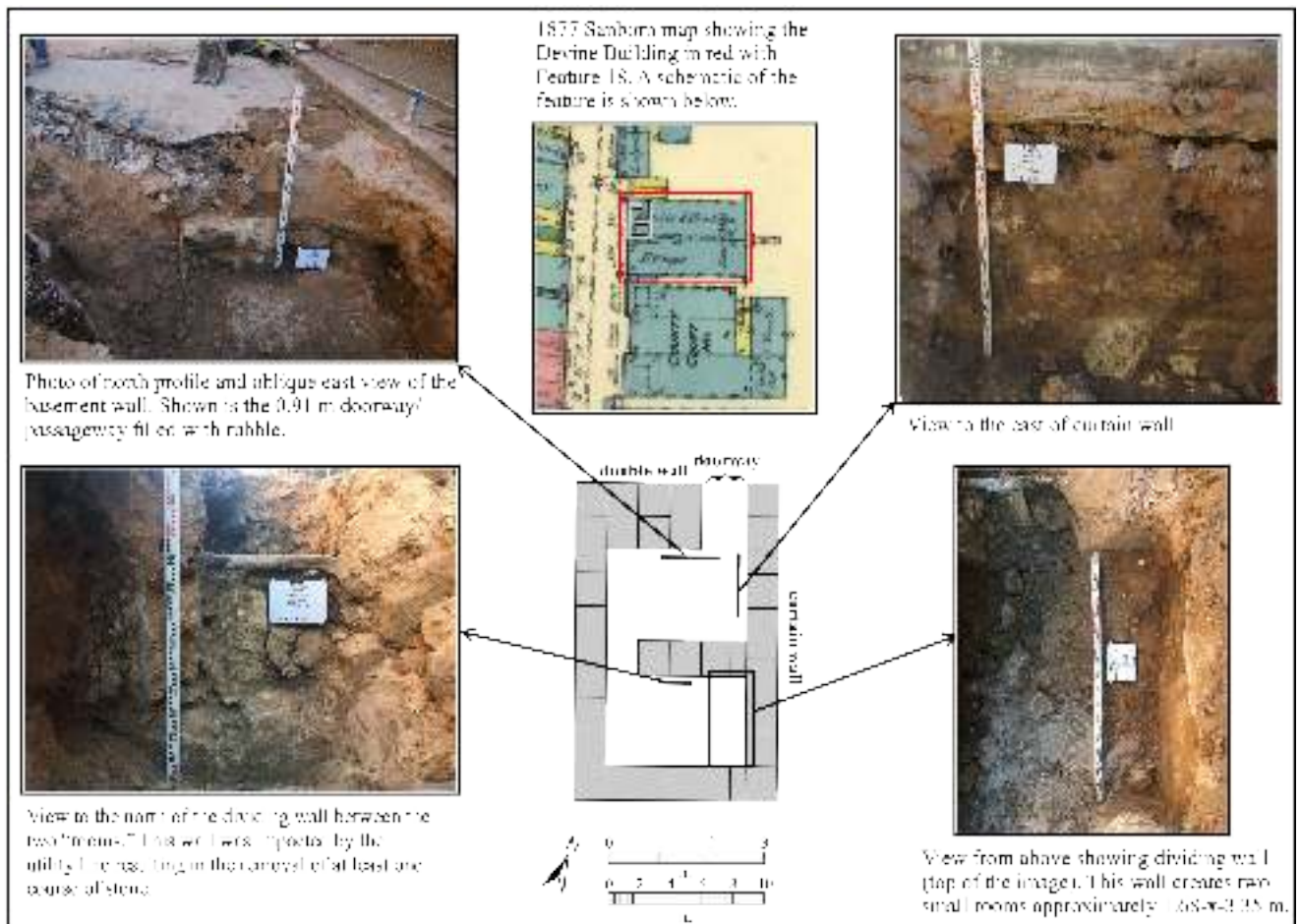


Figure 7-16. Feature 18, foundation remnant of the 41BX2202 (Devine Building).

wood pavers laid over a concrete base. In the early twentieth century, creosote pine block became the preferred material of paving contracted by the City (CCMM 315-316).

Feature 23: Site 41B2203

Feature 23 is a 50-cm (19.7-in.) thick and 4.5-m (14.8-ft.) long wall found during excavation for the gas line on the east side of N. Main Avenue (Figure 7-19). The feature's recorded location aligns with a single-story brick clad building described as a "second hand store" and "Salvation Army" on the 1896 and 1904 Sanborn maps, respectively. Feature 23 was designated as archaeological site 41BX2203.

It is a brick wall found approximately 50 cm (19.7 in.) below the street level and continues to at least 150 cm (59 in.) below the street (Figure 7-20). The terminal depth of the wall was not revealed by trench excavation. The feature is constructed of "Seguin" red brick and yellow brick. Brick became a common building component in San Antonio during the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century due to the introduction of train service (Watson 1982). The

feature construction is unusual in that it is a multiple wythe (a continuous vertical section of masonry) wall with no obvious interlocking brick tying them together (Figure 7-21).

No artifacts were found in association with 41BX2203. After consultation with OHP and THC, the feature was documented and photographed. Construction was then allowed to proceed, removing the portion of the feature within the trench.

Features 25 and 28: Site 41BX337, San Pedro Acequia

The present investigation documented the location of the San Pedro Acequia along the west side of N. Main Avenue from Commerce Street to Houston Street (Figures 7-22). During monitoring, the project archaeologist identified two features, 25 and 28, on the west side of the 100 block of N. Main Avenue that are part of the *acequia* system. Feature 25 is the limestone-block-lined irrigation channel, and was encountered multiple times during monitoring of gas, water, and storm pipe excavations. Feature 28 is an *acequia* water-control feature found during the excavation for the storm pipe.



Figure 7-17. Cross section of Feature 22 (wood pavers) and concrete base on Main Avenue.

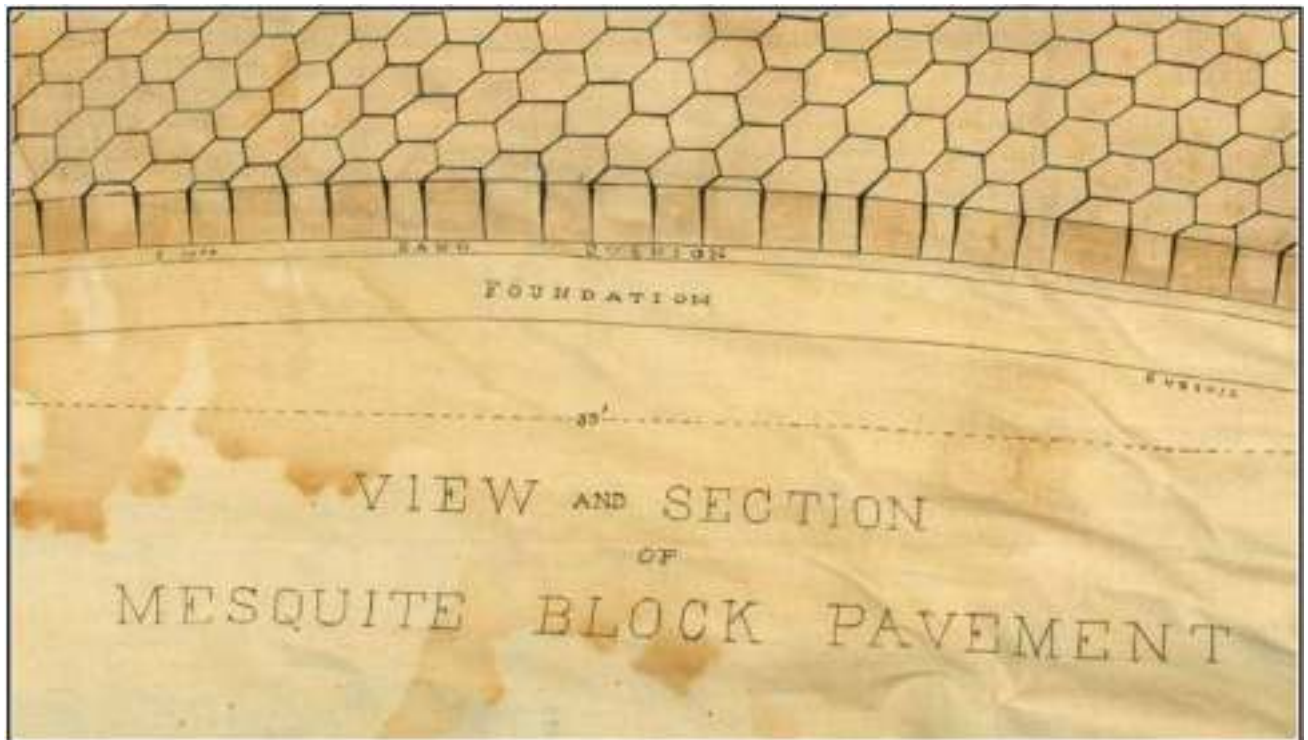


Figure 7-18. Cross section of wood paver construction. Note the image shows hexagonal pavers as opposed to the rectangular pavers found on Main Avenue, and mesquite not creosoted pine (Office of the City Clerk Municipal Archives).

The San Pedro Acequia is a NRHP eligible site (1986), a SAL (1989), and a Historic Civil Engineering Landmark (1968). Multiple investigations have documented the *acequia*'s location in other parts of the city (Cox 1986, 1993, 1995; Fox et al. 1989; Frkusha 1981; Nickels et al. 1996). The portion of the *acequia* uncovered in the 1995 investigation on Trevino Street northeast of San Fernando Cathedral is the closest documentation of the *acequia* to the project area (Figure 7-23; Cox 1995).

Impacts to the *acequia* from past street, utility, and building construction resulted in areas where the *acequia*'s top stone courses, either one or both walls, and/or the *acequia* floor had been removed (Figures 7-24 and 25). Despite these impacts,

CAR was able to record locations, infer dimensions, and calculate the slope of the *acequia* from Houston to Commerce streets. The *acequia* walls were encountered at 30-50 cm (11.8-19.7 in.) below the street level and were often protected by the installation of the wood block pavers (Feature 22) and concrete base in the late nineteenth century (Figure 7-26).

The wall is typically one to two courses of limestone block reaching 120-130 cm (47.2-51.2 in.) below the street surface (Figure 7-27). Where both walls are intact, the *acequia* channel is approximately 1 m (3.3ft.) wide (Figure 7-28). The measurement conforms to the specification listed in the 1852 City Council Meeting minutes of a 1 m (3 ft.) channel (CCM B:158-160; Cox 1995:48). The width of each block

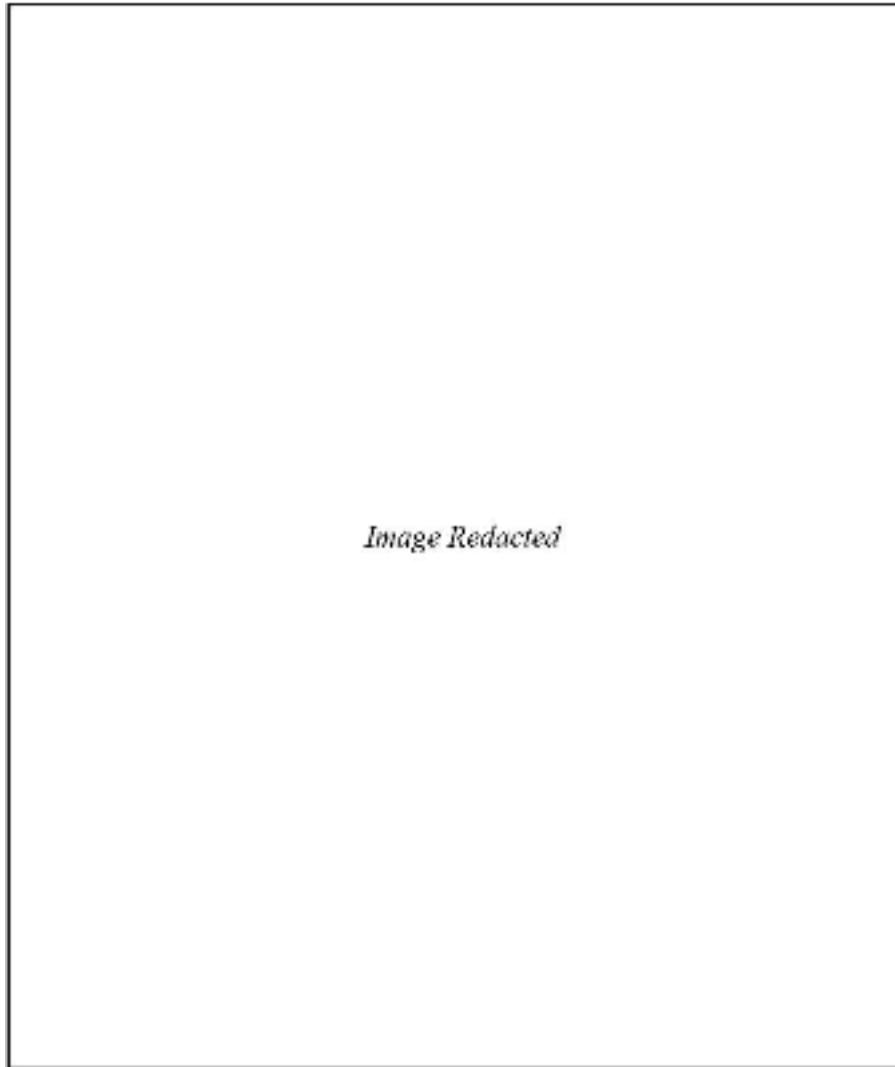


Figure 7-19. Feature 23 overlain on an 1896 Sanborn map. Inset shows 41BX2203 on a current aerial.



Figure 7-20. Panoramic view of Feature 23.



Figure 7-21. Feature 23, foundation remnant of 41BX2203. The image on the right shows the wythe brick construction of the feature.

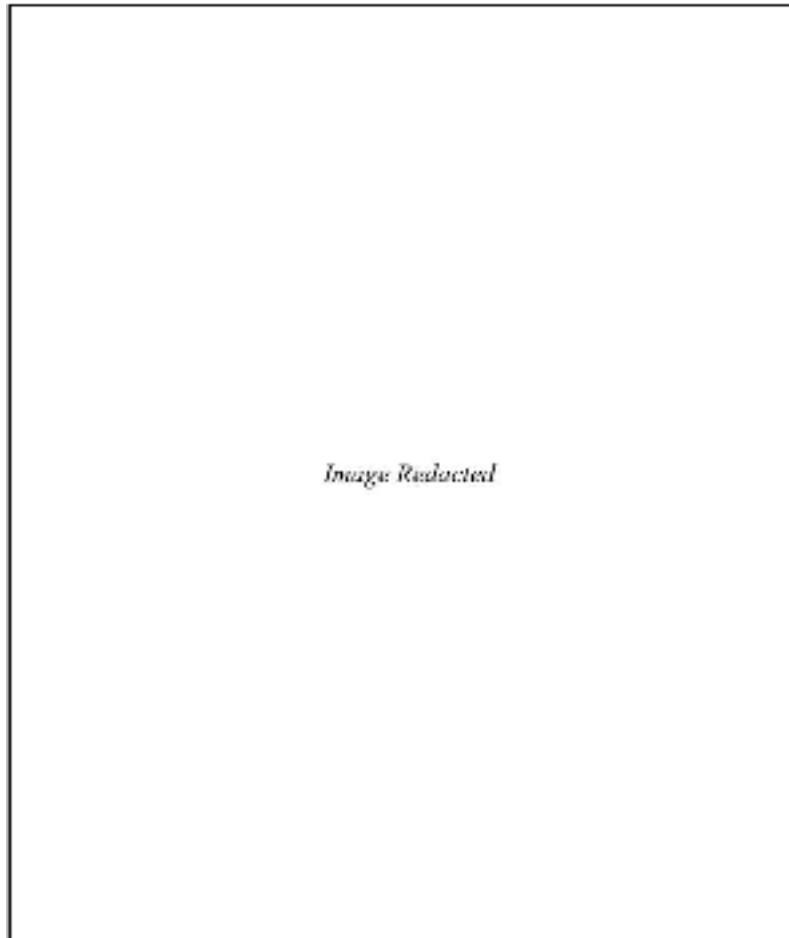


Figure 7-22. Features 25 and 28 overlain on an 1892 Sanborn map. Red portion on Sanborn was not subject to excavation. Inset shows 41BX337 on a current aerial.

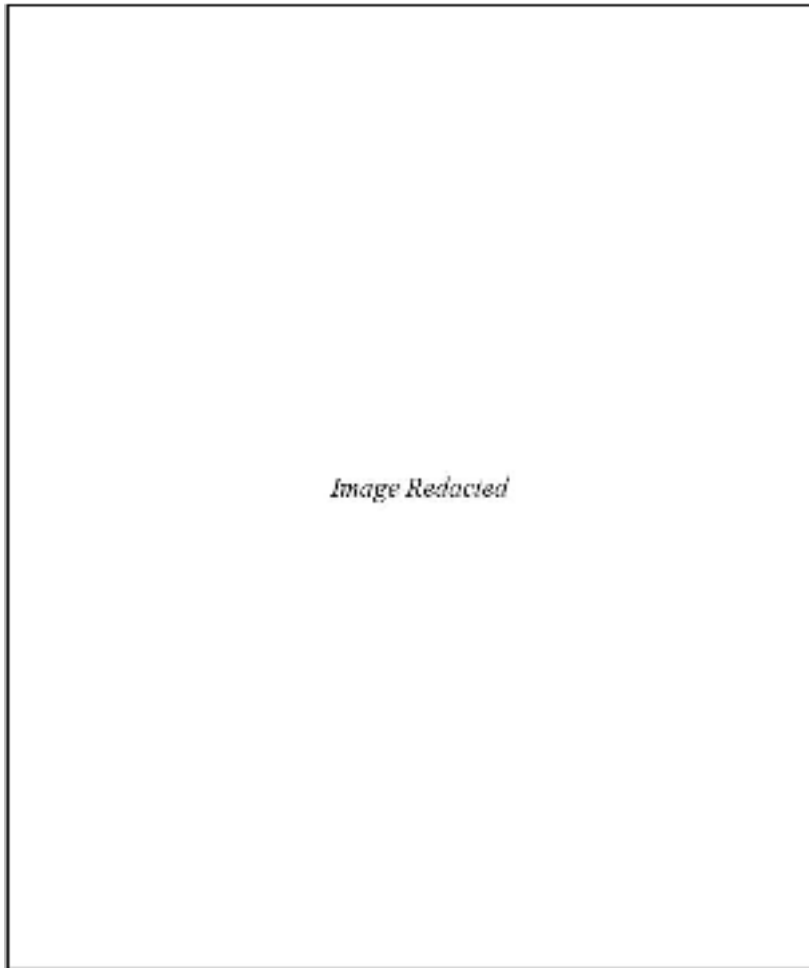


Figure 7-23. Overview of the excavation for the storm line revealing the San Pedro Acequia, 41BX337 (blue line).

is approximately 45-50 cm (17.7-19.7 in.; Figure 7-29), which also conforms to the specifications of 45.7 cm (18 in.) described in those minutes (CCM B:158-160; Cox 1995:48). The slope of the channel from Houston Street to Commerce Street is 0.15 percent based upon recorded floor elevations of the *acequia*.

The artifacts associated with the *acequia* were few and consisted of one fragment of Spanish Colonial ceramics (typed as Yellow-Green Glaze I), one fragment of earthenware (a rim of Annularware, Mocha Earthworm pattern), a pony horseshoe, an unknown tool fragment, and a cut nail. The lack of artifacts may suggest that the *acequia* was cleaned before its reuse as a storm drain.

Feature 28 was found in the *acequia* channel midway between Houston and Commerce streets (Figures 7-30 and 7-31). The feature was heavily impacted by prior construction, and only a limestone slab with a protruding vertical limestone block in the west wall remained. Feature 28 is likely a water

control feature associated with the San Pedro Acequia. Unfortunately, the function of the feature cannot be further identified based on these remnants. There is a late nineteenth- or early twentieth-century brick foundation or wall remnant in the west wall. Whether it is part of the *acequia*, a repair to the *acequia*, or independent of the *acequia* cannot be determined. It was not given a separate feature number. One Spanish Colonial ceramic (Yellow-Green Glaze I) was found in association with Feature 28.

Initially, the *acequia* was an open, unlined ditch; however, improvements made in the nineteenth century included lining it with cut limestone blocks (CCJMB B:158-160; Cox 1986; 1995) and covering portions of it with oak planks (CCB E:311; Cox 1995). In the late nineteenth century, the *acequia*'s function changed to accommodate storm water run-off after San Antonio adopted an artesian water source, and irrigation was no longer utilized in this part of the city (Cox 2005). Figure 7-32 shows a formed-in-place storm pipe within the *acequia* channel. The concrete used for this



Figure 7-24. Photo of the east wall of the San Pedro Acequia just north of the intersection of N. Main Avenue and Commerce Street. The east wall has at least one course removed with a cable duct bank encased in concrete laying on top of it.



Figure 7-25. Photo of the west wall of the San Pedro Acequia at the same location as shown in Figure 7-18. The west wall is located mostly under the sidewalk on N. Main Avenue with the current storm line laying in its channel.



Figure 7-26. Photo shows the east wall of the acequia near the south entrance of the Frost Parking Garage. A portion of that wall was removed by past utility construction. The red ellipse delineates wood block pavers (Feature 22).



Figure 7-27. West wall of acequia showing depth to floor from street level (top of asphalt).



Figure 7-28. East and west walls of the acequia showing the width of the channel.



Figure 7-29. East wall of acequia showing width of block.



Figure 7-30. West wall of acequia showing Feature 28 by a 1 m (3.3. ft.) stick and north arrow (top). Plan view of the Feature 28 (bottom).



Figure 7-31. View to the north of Feature 28, note vertical stone in the acequia west wall (left). View to the south of Feature 28, the north arrow lies on what appears to be the acequia floor (right).

construction uses a large aggregate and suggests that it may date to the late nineteenth century. The San Pedro Acequia was formally closed in 1912 (Cox 1995).

Upon discovery of the *acequia* during the course of multiple excavations, the OHP and the THC were notified of the findings. In the northern portion (intersection of N. Main Avenue and Houston Street), the *acequia* was covered with geo-fabric and sand, and the gas line was placed over the feature. In the southern portion (near Commerce Street), the water line route was changed, and the *acequia* was avoided. The installation of the storm drain was more problematic due to the needed slope and tie-ins to storm boxes. The COSA and the contractor made a good faith effort and preserved existing portions of the *acequia* to approximately midway on N. Main Avenue, laying the storm pipe within the channel of the *acequia* and covering it with geo-fabric and sand before backfilling the trench with flowable concrete fill (Figure 7-33). Regrettably, the new storm alignment and the *acequia* converged, and after consultation and concurrence with the OHP and the THC, that section (approximately 10 m; 32.8 ft.), which included Feature 28, was removed after documentation.

Feature 27: Site 41BX2201

Feature 27 was found on the east side of N. Main Avenue during the trench excavation for a SAWS water lateral running west to east near the southwest corner of the Rand Building Garage (see Figure 7-3). The feature is composed of three components. From top to bottom they are: 1) wood block pavers; 2) a nineteenth- and eighteenth-century midden, and 3) a possible Spanish Colonial-era limestone wall. Wood block paving had been previously uncovered on N. Main Avenue in this general area and had been designated Feature 22 (Figure 7-34).

A midden was defined beneath the pavers and concrete foundation. Its depth is approximately 46 cm (18.1 in.) below street level and extends to 85 cm (33.5 in.) below street level within the 8-m (26.2-ft.) long trench. The midden contains two distinct strata. The first stratum, 46-56 cm (18.1-22 in.) below the street level, is a dark gray clay with chert gravel, saw-cut faunal bone, and charcoal. The second stratum, 56-85 cm (22-33.9 in.) below the street level, is separated by a thin layer of charcoal, lighter in color (dark grayish brown),



Figure 7-32. East wall of the *acequia* with a formed-in-place storm pipe.



Figure 7-33. Image shows protection of acequia with geo-fabric to protect walls (left) and backfilled with flowable concrete (right).



Figure 7-34. Profile view of trench showing wood pavers and concrete base (Feature 22).

less clayey in texture, and lacking gravel. This stratum contained a Spanish Colonial lead-glazed ceramic fragment (Yellow-Green Glaze I), lithics (a chert core and single piece of debitage), burned rock, and uncut faunal bone. Based upon these differences, the CAR suggests the top stratum is nineteenth century in origin while the lower stratum of the midden is associated with the eighteenth century.

A feature believed to be limestone wall or its remnants was found at 84 cm (33 in.) below the street level in the lower strata of the midden (Figure 7-35). The visible portion of the wall was constructed of limestone and measures 41 cm (16.1 in.) in width and 90 cm (35.4 in.) in length. The wall was trenched into a caliche substrate. The CAR suggests that based on its construction and depth it is Spanish Colonial in age.

The OHP was notified of the discovery of the features. Following documentation and collection of artifacts, trench excavation was permitted to proceed by OHP and THC with the removal of that portion of the wall and midden. During subsequent excavation, a CAR archaeologist monitored the area where these features were found. No further evidence of the wall or midden were found within the limited footprint of

excavation. If site 41BX2201 or the surrounding area might be impacted by future construction, the CAR recommends monitoring of the site to determine if portions of the wall and/or midden remain.

Summary and Recommendations

For approximately 10 months, CAR archaeologists monitored construction activities associated with the DTSR-Main/Soledad project, primarily within the Main and Military Plaza National Register Historic District. CAR documented 32 features, resulting in the recording of eight new sites (41BX2163, 41BX2164, 41BX2165, 41BX2166, 41BX2170, 41BX2201, 41BX2202, and 41BX2203) and a previously undocumented portion of the San Pedro Acequia (41BX337). Feature 22 (wood pavers) was not designated an archaeological site. Upon the discovery of a feature, per the SOW, the CAR notified the OHP of its location. The CAR archaeologists documented each feature by completing a standardized feature form, creating measured drawings and/or taking photographs, and collecting diagnostic artifacts and samples. After sufficient data was collected, the decision to proceed with construction (i.e., avoidance and protection or



Figure 7-35. The left image shows the concrete base of the wood pavers over the midden. The right image is of the Spanish Colonial-era wall found during trenching. Note the darkened soil of the midden to the east of the wall.

the removal of the feature or further testing) rested with the OHP in consultation with THC. Two of these sites, 41BX2170 and 41BX2164 required additional data collection and were further tested. These two sites are discussed in Chapters 8 and 9, respectively.

Site 41BX337, the San Pedro Acequia, had been previously recommended eligible for inclusion to the National Register, is listed as a SAL, and is a Historic Civil Engineering Landmark. The location of the *acequia* had not been formally documented within the APE prior to this project, although its presence was assumed based upon historical maps. The OHP was notified upon discovery of the *acequia* and requested that the *acequia* be avoided and preserved. During multiple construction excavations, trenching for water, gas, and storm lines avoided the feature, or when the feature could not be avoided, it was preserved by covering it with geo-fabric and flowable concrete. Unfortunately, a portion of the new storm alignment and the *acequia* converged. After consultation and concurrence with the OHP and the THC, that section, including Feature 28, was removed after documentation. Information and the location of 41BX337 was updated using the online TexSite registry.

Site 41BX2201 (Feature 27) consists of three components: wood pavers (Feature 22), a midden dating to the nineteenth and possibly the eighteenth century, and a Spanish Colonial-era limestone wall. The OHP was notified of the find. Due to the lack of a substantial artifact assemblage and the small construction impact, construction was allowed to proceed with the removal of that portion of the limestone wall. The CAR cannot make an eligibility recommendation for site 41BX2201 because there is insufficient information. The

CAR suggests that future construction avoid the area, or if avoidance is not possible, that monitoring is warranted to determine if any remnants of the site exist.

In order to determine a site's significance and, therefore, its eligibility to the National Register, it must meet one or more criteria (as discussed in Chapter 1), and it must have integrity. Five sites required no additional data collection or testing, as determined by the OHP in consultation with THC. These sites include 41BX2163 (San Antonio Street Streetcar System), 41BX2165 (Bexar County Courthouse), 41BX2166 (Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon), 41BX2202 (Devine Building), and 41BX2203 (identified as a second-hand store/Salvation Army in 1895 and 1904 Sanborn maps). In addition, the nineteenth-century components of 41BX2170, Features 6 and 17 associated with the Wolfson Building, required no additional testing. The eighteenth- and early nineteenth-century components of this site were tested and discussed in Chapter 8. All five sites had been significantly impacted by previous construction with none retaining their essential physical features that made up their character or appearance during the period of its association with the important event, historical pattern, or person(s). None of these sites are eligible under Criteria C because they failed to meet the preservation condition "to illustrate a site type, time period, method of construction, or work of a master." None of the five sites contained additional features (e.g., a midden) or significant artifact assemblages that would contribute to knowledge of the development of San Antonio, as predicated by Criteria D. Table 7-2 lists these sites, their associated feature(s), what action was taken following data collection, and NRHP eligibility recommendation.

Table 7-2. Sites and Associated Features found during the DTSR-Main/Soledad Archaeological Monitoring, the Summary of Action, and the CAR’s NRHP Eligibility Recommendation

Site Trinomial	Feature	Action	NRHP Eligibility Recommendation
San Antonio Streetcar System (41BX2163)	1	Construction proceeded with removal when necessary after documentation.	Not Eligible
Jack Harris Theatre/Elite Hotel (41BX2166)	2	Prior to resuming construction, foundation wall was protected and covered with flowable fill following documentation.	Not Eligible
Wolfson Building (41BX2170)	6	Feature was not impacted by excavation and left in place following documentation.	Not Eligible
Bexar County Courthouse (41BX2165)	16	Southern foundation wall construction was allowed to proceed with removal after documentation; northern wall was exposed but not impacted by construction.	Not Eligible
Wolfson Building (41BX2170)	17	Feature was not impacted by excavation and left in place following documentation.	Not Eligible
Devine Building (41BX2202)	18	Construction proceeded with removal of portion necessary for utility installation after documentation.	Not Eligible
Second-hand store/ Salvation Army 41BX2203	23	Construction proceeded with removal of portion necessary for utility installation after documentation.	Not Eligible
San Pedro Acequia (41BX337)	25	The majority of the <i>acequia</i> was left in place and protected, however, a small section was removed to allow for utility installation.	Eligible
Spanish Colonial wall and midden (41BX2201)	27	Construction proceeded with removal of portion necessary for utility installation after documentation.	Insufficient Information to Make a Decision
San Pedro Acequia (41BX337)	28	Construction proceeded with removal of the feature after documentation.	Eligible

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Chapter 8: State Antiquities Landmark Testing for 41BX2170

José E. Zapata

This chapter presents the results of SAL testing of 41BX2170, the Manuel de Niz site that dates from the Spanish Colonial-era through Texas independence. The nineteenth-century features (Feature 6 and 17) found on the site and associated with the Wolfson Building were presented in Chapter 7, and they will not be discussed in this chapter.

On January 4, 2017, monitoring of utility trenching along the east side of N. Main Avenue detected limestone block alignments and historical-period artifacts. CAR archaeologists stopped the trenching to assess the feature and cultural material and, in the process, identified additional features. After consultation with the OHP and the THC, the CAR was tasked with conducting SAL testing of what was presumed to be a Spanish Colonial site. The area under consideration was along a section of N. Main Avenue, just north of West Commerce Street. Prior to the 1915-1918 widening of N. Main Avenue (see Chapter 5), this section of the road's right-of-way was part of Lot A-9, NCB 909.

Seven features were located as a result of monitoring of utility trenching. Subsequent testing of the area discovered an additional five features. The following narrative describes the identified features, the results of the test excavations (TUs 1-4), and the recovered artifacts. A description of the measures taken by CAR staff to protect the features from future impacts is also presented.

Features 9 and 14, associated with TU 1, although not in the direct path of the gas line, were covered with a layer of sand to signal their presence. Features 10, 13 and 15, in TUs 2 and 3 excavations were not in the direct path of the gas line, but they were also covered with a layer of sand to signal their presence. Feature 3 was discovered during monitoring of the trench and was the reason for having excavated the four test units. In the case of Feature 3, the contractor clad the feature with boards and plywood so that the gas line could be installed up and over Feature 3.

Site 41BX2170: Features 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 26

In order to determine the extent of 41BX2170, four test units were excavated directly east of the utility trench that was no more than 60 cm (23.6 in.) wide and 1.5 m (4.9 ft.) deep (Figure 8-1). As a result of the initial monitoring of trenching for gas line install, six features were identified (Features 3, 5, 7, 8, 11, and 12). Feature 26 was identified in April 2017 during monitoring for the water line install. An additional

five features (Features 9, 10, 13, 14, and 15) were identified in TUs 1, 2, 3, and 4. Discussion of the seven features encountered during monitoring is presented below, followed by those discovered during testing (Table 8-1). One feature (Feature 4) was determined during testing to be a non-feature.

Feature 3: Wall Footing

Feature 3 was a stone alignment exposed during utility trenching in early January 2017. It is constructed of a weakly mortared, irregular-shaped stone, and the alignment is oriented diagonally, northwest to southeast. The feature is approximately 60 cm (23.6 in.) wide with approximately 60 cm (23.6 in.) exposed across the floor of the utility trench. Excavation of TUs 2 and 3 continued to expose the feature to the east (see test unit discussion).

Although this feature was in the utility trench, the exposed alignment was not impacted by the gas line install. The subcontractor encased the exposed stones with wood and then covered the structure with geo-fabric. The gas line was routed up and over the feature. In addition, the subcontractor placed a rebar frame over the TUs 2 and 3 area, followed with a bed of sand, and then poured a concrete cap for additional protection.

Feature 4: Non-feature

Feature 4 was misidentified as a distinct midden deposit during monitoring of the utility trench. It was later determined to be a continuation of the Feature 8 midden deposit.

Feature 5: Wall Footing

Feature 5 was another stone alignment exposed during trenching in early January 2017, and it is located 5-6 m (16.4-19.7 ft.) north of Feature 3. Constructed of irregular-shaped stone, the alignment is oriented diagonally, northwest to southeast. The feature was approximately 72 cm (28.3 in.) wide with 190 cm (74.8 in.) exposed along the north end of the utility trench. Mortar samples (Field Sack [FS] 16 and FS 17) were collected from the feature. Feature 5 was further exposed 1 m (3.28 ft.) to the east by TU 4. One of the Feature 5 stones was removed in order to make way for the gas line. The adjoining TU 4 was then covered with geo-fabric and sand, and then covered with caliche base.

Feature 7: Midden Deposit

Feature 7 was a midden deposit sampled by means of a 25-cm (9.8-in.) wide and 25-cm (9.8-in.) deep column cut into the west wall of the utility trench. The datum was set east of the column and 22 cm (8.7 in.) above the surface. A total of 12

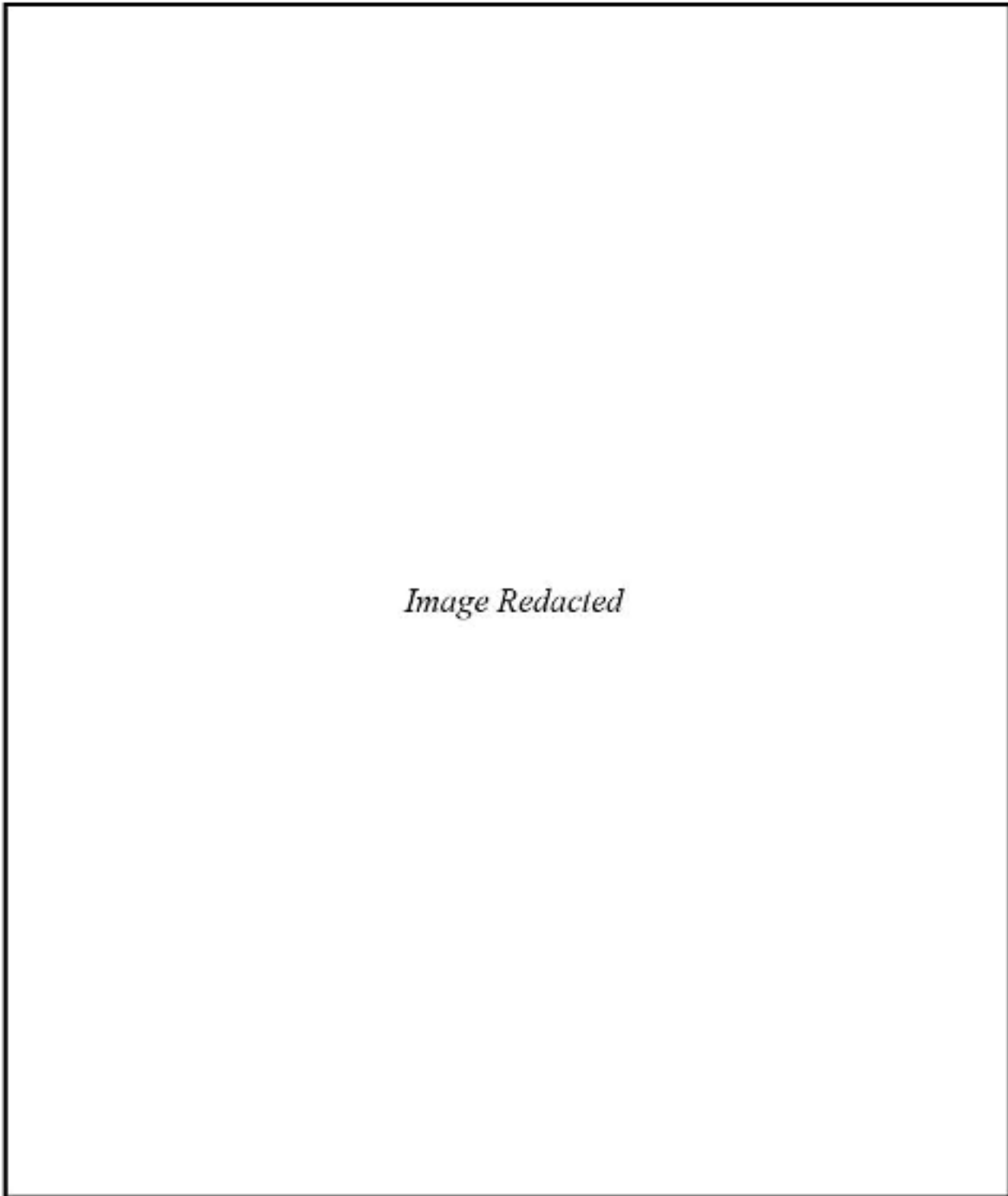


Figure 8-1. Plan view of 41BX2170 with features and test units overlaid on a 2010 Google aerial showing the former Wolfson Building.

Table 8-1. List of 41BX2170 Features Associated with the Spanish Colonial and Mexican Periods

Feature	Description
3	stone alignment, northwest to southeast
4	determined to be a non-feature
5	stone alignment, northwest to southeast
7	column, dark matrix along trench wall
8	midden (fire-cracked rock, bone, charcoal, ceramics)
9	wall footing exposed in TU 1
10	wall footing exposed in TU 3
11	pit, trash midden (stone, gravel, flecks of charcoal)
12	fortification entrenchment, Siege of Bexar, 1835
13	wall footing exposed in TU 2
14	wall footing exposed in TU 1, unrelated to Feature 9
15	plaster floor exposed in TU 3
26	wall footing, north to south, exposed on opposite side of street

bulk samples were obtained from the exposed column. These samples were sorted in 12 levels of 10 cm (3.9 in.) each, beginning with Level 1 (30-40 cm below the datum [cmbd]; 11.8-15.7 in.) and continuing to Level 12 (140-150 cmbd; 55.1-59.1 in.). The stratum between 30 cmbd (11.8 in.) and 55 cmbd (21.7 in.) was a caliche and sand fill that produced a small assortment of brick fragments and container glass shards, flat glass shards, metal, and burned rock. The caliche and sand layer was followed by very dark gray (10YR 3/1) silty clay from 55-70 cmbd (21.7-27.6 in.), which contained a small assortment of ceramic, lithic material, bone, and burned rock fragments. The soil between 70 cmbd (27.6 in.) and 135 cmbd (53.1 in.) was a dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2), silty clay. This stratum contained ceramic, bone, lithic material, shards of container vessel glass, and burned rock. The last 15 cm (5.9 in.) was a brown (10YR 4/3), silty clay with limestone gravels and cobbles. This layer had a burned clay fragment, lithic material, and burned rock. A catalog of the recovered artifacts can be found in Appendix D. Nothing was done to protect the exposed wall profile. The impact to midden was limited to the excavation of the gas line with the portion in the wall remaining in place. The gas line was installed and the area backfilled with sand and concrete.

Feature 8: Midden

Feature 8 was a 4.75 m (15.6 ft.) midden eroding along the west wall of the utility trench. The artifacts consisted of burned rock, bone, ceramic, charcoal, and snail shell fragments. Heavy rain had caused significant erosion of the utility trench; therefore, Feature 8 was not documented or sampled. Nothing was done to protect what was left of the feature. The gas line was installed, and the area was backfilled with sand and concrete.

Feature 11: Trash Pit

Feature 11 was a basin-shaped trash pit observed along the east wall of the utility trench. A few samples of Spanish Colonial ceramics, vessel glass, metal, lithic material, and bone were collected during monitoring. The feature was further investigated during the testing phase. The top 19 cm (7.5 in.) was a caliche fill that lacked any artifacts. To sample the remaining strata, a 20-cm (7.9-in.) deep and 30-cm (11.8-in.) wide column was cut into the wall profile and excavated between 32 cmbd (12.6 in.) and 80 cmbd (31.5 in.). Level 2 (32-36 cmbd; 12.6-14.2 in.) was a 4-cm (1.6-in.) layer of reddish sand, followed by a 17-cm (6.7-in.), grayish, cobble stratum (36-53 cmbd; 14.2-20.9 in.). The matrix below 53 cmbd (20.9 in.) was a gray, clayey layer that continued to 100 cmbd (39.4 in.). The number of artifacts recovered between 53 cmbd (20.9 in.) and 100 cmbd (39.4 in.) consisted of Native American ware (n=1), bone (n=7), burned rock (n=11), debitage (n=2), a clear glass shard (n=1), and shell fragments (n=2). Nothing was done to protect the feature. However, testing recovered a representative sample of the feature. The gas line was installed, and the area was backfilled with sand and concrete.

Feature 12: Siege of Bexar Fortification

Feature 12 is an 1835 Mexican fortification trench constructed during the Siege of Bexar and includes a 20-cm (7.9-in.) high and 20-cm (7.9-in.) wide fire-step. The fire-step served as a platform for soldiers to stand on and fire over a parapet (Bouillé y de Vos 1805). The feature was found along the east wall stratigraphy of the utility trench. On profile, the feature is approximately 2.8 m wide (9.2 ft.) and 85 cm (33.5 in.) deep, but these measurements may be skewed due to the feature's

undetermined original alignment and post-battle demolition of the fortifications. Similar trenches, also associated with the 1835 battle, were discovered at the Alamo main gate (Uecker 1992) and the southeast corner of Main Plaza (Hanson 2016). The profile was cleaned and documented. The feature was not excavated, and the feature remained in place following the investigation. A few domestic artifacts (n=9) were pulled from an undulating layer of fill between 45 cmbd (17.7 in.) and 80 cmbd (31.5 in.; Figure 8-2). Once documented, the feature was draped with geo-fabric before the gas line was installed. The gas line was then backfilled with sand and concrete.

Feature 26: Wall Footing

Feature 26 was a wall alignment exposed during water line trenching in April 2017. The exposed wall was 40-50 cm (15.7-19.7 in.) wide and 7.5 m (24.6 ft.) long, and it was oriented north to south. The feature was a single course wall of irregular shaped limestone. The wall footing had been breached at least twice in the past by earlier water line installations. The wall footing sits on a dark soil matrix and numerous Spanish Colonial period artifacts were collected from between 90 cm (35.4 in.) and 120 cm (47.2 in.) below the surface (street pavement). This wall feature was 2.5 m (8.2 ft.) east of and parallel to the *acequia*, which would have made the street between the two narrow, no more than three *varas* (2.5 m; 8.2 ft.) wide. The water line trench was relocated approximately 10 m (32.8 ft.) west and thus avoided impacting the feature (see Figure 8-1). Once documented, Feature 26 was covered with geo-fabric, sand, and caliche base, and then it was repaved.

Test Unit 1

Test Unit 1 was located at the far south end of the trench and just north of the East Commerce Street curb. The datum was set at the southeast corner and was 10 cm (3.9 in.) above the exposed surface. The 1-x-1 m (3.28-x-3.28 ft.) unit was excavated in arbitrary 10-cm levels to a final depth of 100 cmbd (39.4 in.). As a result of nearby utility trenching activity, the northwest corner of the unit was lower than the other corners. Numerous mixed artifacts were recovered from a mix of caliche base and a pale brown (10YR 6/3), silty gravel. Building material, charcoal and ash, and a dime (dated 2000) were in the mix, which may all relate to clean up debris from the 2011 Wolfson Building fire (see Chapter 5).

Excavation continued through gravel and silty clay, resulting in the recovery of glass, metal, brick, bone, ceramics, and lithic debitage. A large, angular, 20-x-40 cm (7.9-x-15.7 in.) rock was exposed along the southwest corner of the unit. Level 4 was excavated to 64 cmbd (25.2 in.) and exposed an east-to-west oriented wall footing. This wall footing was designated Feature 9 (Figure 8-3). The stratum between 34 cmbd (13.4 in.) and 64 cmbd (25.2 in.) was a grayish brown (10YR 5/2), compact clay. The same level produced a small collection of lithic debitage, ceramics, faunal bone, and burned rock.

Among the recovered ceramic sherds were Native American, Spanish Colonial, and European. The Native American sherds were bone-tempered Goliad Ware that date to the 1700s. The Spanish Colonial sherds included Lead Glazed wares, such



Figure 8-2. Photo of associated fire-step of Feature 12.



Figure 8-3. Test Unit 1, Feature 9, wall footing and posthole.

as Yellow and Green, and Red and Brown. Other Spanish Colonial sherds were Tin Glazed, Puebla Blue on White, and San Elizario. The Spanish Colonial types have a date range of between the early 1700s and early 1800s. Sherds of post-1825 European Earthenware and Stoneware were also recovered and included Annularware, Transferware, and Salt Glazed.

A 20 cm (7.9 in.) in diameter posthole was noted in the southeast quadrant of the unit at 70 cmbd (27.6 in.), but it was no longer present by 84 cmbd (33.1 in.). The sediment associated with the posthole was a dark, grayish brown clay (10YR 4/2). The only artifact recovered from Level 7 (84-94 cmbd; 33.1-37 in.) was a large flake found in the northeast corner of the unit. At the start of Level 8 (94-104 cmbd; 37-41 in.), excavation was isolated to the northeast quadrant where an outcrop of weathered limestone rocks was observed. No artifacts were recovered from Level 8. The northeast quadrant was excavated an additional 10 cmbd (3.9 in.). The limestone rocks were removed while excavating Level 9 (104-114 cmbd; 41-44.9 in.), which exposed another wall footing. This wall footing was designated Feature 14 and appears to be a room corner (Figure 8-4). The stratum between 64 cmbd (25.2 in.) and 114 cmbd (44.9 in.) was a very dark gray (10YR 3/1) clay.

Test Units 2 and 3

Test Units 2 and 3 were located adjacent to, and by design, on either side of Feature 3, an east to west stone alignment, that

initiated the SAL testing. The datum for TUs 2 and 3 was set between and directly east of the units with the string line at 20 cm (7.9 in.) above the surface. Test Unit 2 excavation was shallow, since removal of a thin layer of caliche overburden exposed a stone wall (Feature 13) running diagonally along the west half of the unit. The presence of Feature 13 restricted excavation to the east half of the unit. CAR archaeologists removed a dark grayish brown (10YR 4/2) silty clay with 75 percent gravel from the east half of the unit to further define the stone wall. The mortar between the stones was clayey and very pale brown (10YR 7/4). The recovered artifacts were a mix of brick, metal, glass, lithic material, and faunal bone. The recovered ceramics from this unit consisted of a mix of eighteenth-century Spanish Colonial Lead and Tin Glazed sherds, as well as nineteenth-century European Earthenware, such as Pearlware, Creamware, and Annularware. Only 34 cm (13.4 in.) of sediments was removed from this unit. Further excavation of the east half of the unit was not pursued due to time constraints and was left in place following the investigation.

Excavation of the first 10 cm (3.9 in.) of fill in TU 3 exposed a stone wall (Feature 10) running diagonally through the unit. CAR archaeologists removed a dark, grayish brown (10YR 4/2), compact, silty clay with 75 percent gravel and noted a very pale brown (10YR 7/4), clayey mortar between the stones. Fragments of Spanish Colonial tile (2.75-3.0 cm; 1.1-1.2 in. thick) were scattered along both sides of Feature 10,

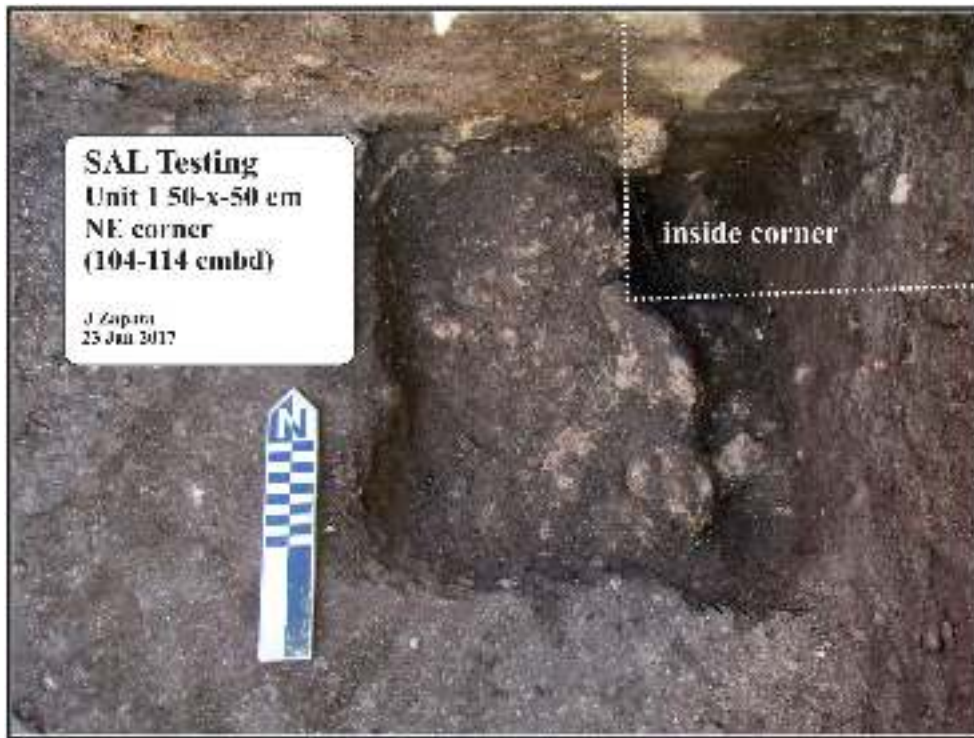


Figure 8-4. Test Unit 1, Feature 14, wall footing (southwest corner of a structure).

and fragments of faunal bone, metal, ceramics, lithic material, and fire-cracked rock were also recovered. Excavation of Level 2 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in.) was limited to the northwest quadrant. The level consisted of a dark, grayish brown (10YR 4/2), compact silty clay. Artifacts recovered from this level included faunal bone, glass, ceramic, charcoal, and tile fragments. Two European Earthenware sherds were recovered from Level 2 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in.), an Annularware rim and a blue, transferware. Level 3 (64-68 cmbd; 25.2-26.8 in.) was also limited to the northwest quadrant. The level was a dark, grayish brown (10YR 4/2), compact, silty clay, and faunal bone, metal, and glass were recovered from this level. Five pieces of olive colored and clear glass shards (non-temporally diagnostic) were recovered. A soft, clayey surface was exposed at 68 cmbd (26.8 in.) and recorded as Feature 15, a plaster floor (Figure 8-5).

Test Unit 4

Test Unit 4 was located to the east of the far north end of the utility trench. The datum was located at the northeast corner of the unit, and the string line set 31 cm (12.2 in.) above the surface. Level 1 (61-74 cmbd; 24-29.1 in.) excavation was through a pale brown (10YR 6/3), sandy sediment. Metal and brick were recovered, and flecks of charcoal were observed at the bottom of the level. A stone alignment was exposed along the southern one-third of the unit. Based on the trajectory and construction, it was determined that this wall is an extension

of Feature 5. Test Unit 4 excavation continued through a pale brown (10YR 6/3), sandy sediment in the north two-thirds of the unit, and artifacts recovered consisted of faunal bone, ceramic, and ferrous metal.

European Earthenware and Spanish Colonial ceramic sherds were recovered from Level 1 (61-74 cmbd; 24-29.1 in.) and Level 2 (74-84 cmbd; 29.1-33.1 in.). The sherd recovered from Level 1 consisted of European Earthenware, Creamware, and Transferware, and Spanish Colonial Lead and Tin Glazed. The lead Glazed were the Yellow and Green Glaze I and Untyped Brown and Gray. The Level 2 ceramics consisted of a greater variety of European Earthenware and Spanish Colonial sherds. The European Earthenware consisted of Pearlware, Edgeware, Annularware, Splatterware, Blue Transferware, and Hand Painted. The Spanish Colonial sherds consisted of of Lead Glazed, Yellow and Green Glaze I, and Yellow and Green Glaze II, Dark Brown Glazed, and a Tin Glazed, Gunajuato Mojalica.

A 20-cm (7.9-in.) diameter probe was excavated in four additional 10-cm (3.9-in.) levels. The probe was located in the northwest quadrant of TU 4 in a brown (10YR 5/3) matrix, which continued to the final depth of 121 cmbd (47.6 in.). A soil sample was taken from Level 3 (84-94 cmbd; 33.1-37 in.), Level 4 (94-104 cmbd; 37-40.9 in.), Level 5 (104-114 cmbd; 40.9-44.9 in.), and Level 6 (114-121 cmbd; 44.9-47.6 in.).



Figure 8-5. Test Unit 3, Feature 15, plaster floor at 68 cmbd (26.8 in.).

Artifacts

Features were sampled, and units were only minimally excavated, but were in most cases were preserved. As a result, only 1,405 artifacts were recovered from within 41BX2170. A detailed listing of the artifacts recovered from TUs 1, 2, 3, 4, and Feature 7 is presented in Appendix B. Table 8-2 is a cumulative list of the recovered artifacts by major grouping or class. The most temporally diagnostic artifacts were the ceramic sherds; therefore, the focus of the discussion is on this artifact type. Several of the figures demonstrate some of the recovered sherds, and the figure captions note their temporal affiliation. A detailed discussion of local Native American, Spanish Colonial, and European wares is presented by McKenzie and colleagues (2016).

In terms of artifact density, glass shards were the highest (n=436) and comprised 31 percent of the total. Lithic material (n=225) made up 16 percent of the total, followed by ceramic sherds (n=223, 15.9 percent), organic material (n=193, 13.7 percent), construction material (n=189, 13.5 percent), metal objects (n=136, 9.7 percent), and personal items (n=3, 0.2 percent). A sizeable collection of terra cotta tile fragments (n=105, 55.5 percent) was categorized as construction material. These tile fragments are between 2.1-2.8 cm (0.8-1.1 in.) thick. No complete pieces were recovered, so the width and length of these tiles is unknown. The tile fragments were generally found in association with Spanish Colonial ceramics, so they are presumed to be of the same period.

Forty-six percent of the recovered ceramics were Spanish Colonial (n=108), and most of the recovered organic material consisted of faunal bone (n=170, 88.1 percent).

A total of 481 artifacts were recovered from TU 1, and 139 of these were recovered from the first 10 cm excavated. Although Spanish Colonial ceramic sherds were recovered in Level 1 (24-34 cmbd; 9.4 in.), the deposits were mixed through Level 3 (44-54 cmbd; 17.3-21.3 in.). Level 1 artifacts were found to include five Gin Jug sherds (European Stoneware) that cross mend with one Gin Jug base recovered from Level 3 (44-54 cmbd; 17.3-21.3 in.). The artifact density was highest within these first three levels (n=397, 82.5 percent). Although the number of artifacts recovered from the last six levels dropped considerably (n=84), there was no evidence of mixing. Fifty-two artifacts were recovered from Level 4 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in.) and included seven Native American ware sherds, 18 Spanish Colonial sherds, and 11 tertiary flakes. A sample of Spanish Colonial sherds from Level 4 is presented in Figure 8-6. Twenty-one artifacts were recovered from Level 5 (64-74 cmbd; 25.2-29.1 in.), and among these was one European ceramic sherd and one Spanish Colonial sherd. The number of artifacts in Level 6 (74-84 cmbd; 29.1-33.1 in.) fell to five and consisted of three burned rock fragments and 2 lithic flakes. Level 7 (84-94 cmbd; 33.1-37 in.) had one lithic flake, Level 8 (94-104 cmbd; 37-40.9 in.) had no artifacts, and Level 9 (104-114 cmbd; 40.9-44.9) had five burned rock fragments.

Table 8-2. Artifacts Recovered from 41BX2170

Artifacts	Count	Percent of Total
Glass	436	31
Lithics	225	16
Ceramics	223	15.9
Faunal Bone	193	13.7
Construction	189	13.5
Metal	136	9.7
Personal	3	0.2
Total	1,405	100

The artifacts (n=454) from TUs 2 and 3 were recovered from construction fill associated with intersecting walls (Features 3, 10, and 13; Figure 8-7). All of the recovered artifacts were of Spanish Colonial to mid-nineteenth-century origin. Container glass of aqua and olive color was the most abundant (n=157), followed by construction material (n=90). A 40-cm (15.7-in.) thick sample was taken from a side wall of TU 2 (24-64 cmbd; 9.4-25.2 in.). The recovered material from this sample included ceramic sherds (n=19; Figure 8-8) and fragments of Spanish Colonial terra cotta tile (n=63). The terra cotta fragments were most likely roofing tile since the “struck” side had mortar residue, and the smooth or exposed side had whitewash residue (Figure 8-9). In the hand-molded brick and tile process, the “struck” side is where a straight edge tool is used to scrape off the excess clay from the top of the mold (Gurke 1987:15).

Test Unit 3 was excavated in three levels and included a 40-cm (15.7-in.) thick bulk sample (24-64 cmbd; 9.4-25.2 in.). The number of recovered ceramic sherds (n=31) was the same as those recovered from TU 2. Figure 8-10 presents a sample of the ceramic sherds recovered from Level 1 (44-54 cmbd; 17.3-21.3 in.) and Level 2 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in.). Nine tile fragments were recovered from Level 1 and an additional 16 fragments were from Level 2. Figure 8-11 presents a sample of the tile fragments from Level 2 and shows examples of the whitewash and mortar residue.

The TU 4 excavations exposed a 1-m (3.3-ft.) section of a wall foundation running diagonally along the south end of the unit that was an extension of Feature 5. A profile section of Feature 5 had been previously exposed along the north wall of a diagonal cut in the utility trench. Excavation of Level 1 (61-74 cmbd; 24-29.1 in.) produced 36 artifacts. Three Spanish Colonial and four European ware ceramic sherds were recovered. This same level produced 12 Spanish Colonial terra cotta tile fragments and six wall plaster fragments. The plaster fragments exhibited a red-tinted wash. A total of 72 artifacts were recovered from Level 2 (74-84 cmbd; 29.1-33.1 in.) and included 24 ceramic sherds of which seven were

Spanish Colonial and 15 were European. Figure 8-12 presents a small sample of the 24 sherds recovered from Level 2.

A ceramic sherd, two terra cotta tile fragments, and six glass shards were recovered from the 1835 fortification (Feature 12). The ceramic sherd was hand-painted European Earthenware. Like the tile fragments recovered from the test units, the terra cotta fragments were most likely roofing tile, since the “struck” side had mortar residue and the smooth or exposed side had whitewash residue. The ceramic sherds and roofing tile are of early to mid-nineteenth-century origin.

Discussion of SAL Testing

Testing within 41BX2170 successfully located remnants of six Spanish Colonial wall footings (rock-rubble foundations) that were designated Features 3, 5, 10, 13, 14, and 26. As described in a few deed records and period anecdotes, most of the early structures would have been constructed of adobe and would have had flat or gently sloping roofs. Excavations of TU 1 located an east-to-west oriented wall footing (Feature 9) and what appeared to be the corner wall footing (Feature 14) of an earlier structure. Test Units 2 and 3 exposed two intersecting wall footings (Features 3, 10, and 13) and a plaster floor (Feature 15). The TU 4 excavations more fully exposed Feature 5, a northwest to southeast oriented wall footing. All of the exposed wall footings were constructed of irregular-shaped limestone rocks set in a slurry of mud or caliche (Figure 8-13).

The lot history detailed in Chapter 4 notes that the development of Lot A-9, NCB 909, began in 1731, soon after the arrival of the Canary Islanders (see Figure 4-4). The earliest known deed for this site is 1731, when the lot was granted to Manuel de Niz, and at this time the lot size was 20-x-84 *varas* (16.9-x-71.1 m; 55.4-x-233.3 ft.; Chabot 1930:22). When the lots were sold by de Niz to José Antonio Bueno de Rojas in 1738, the sale mentioned an adobe house and a separate wood framed kitchen. These would have been the earliest known structures on this lot. Additional

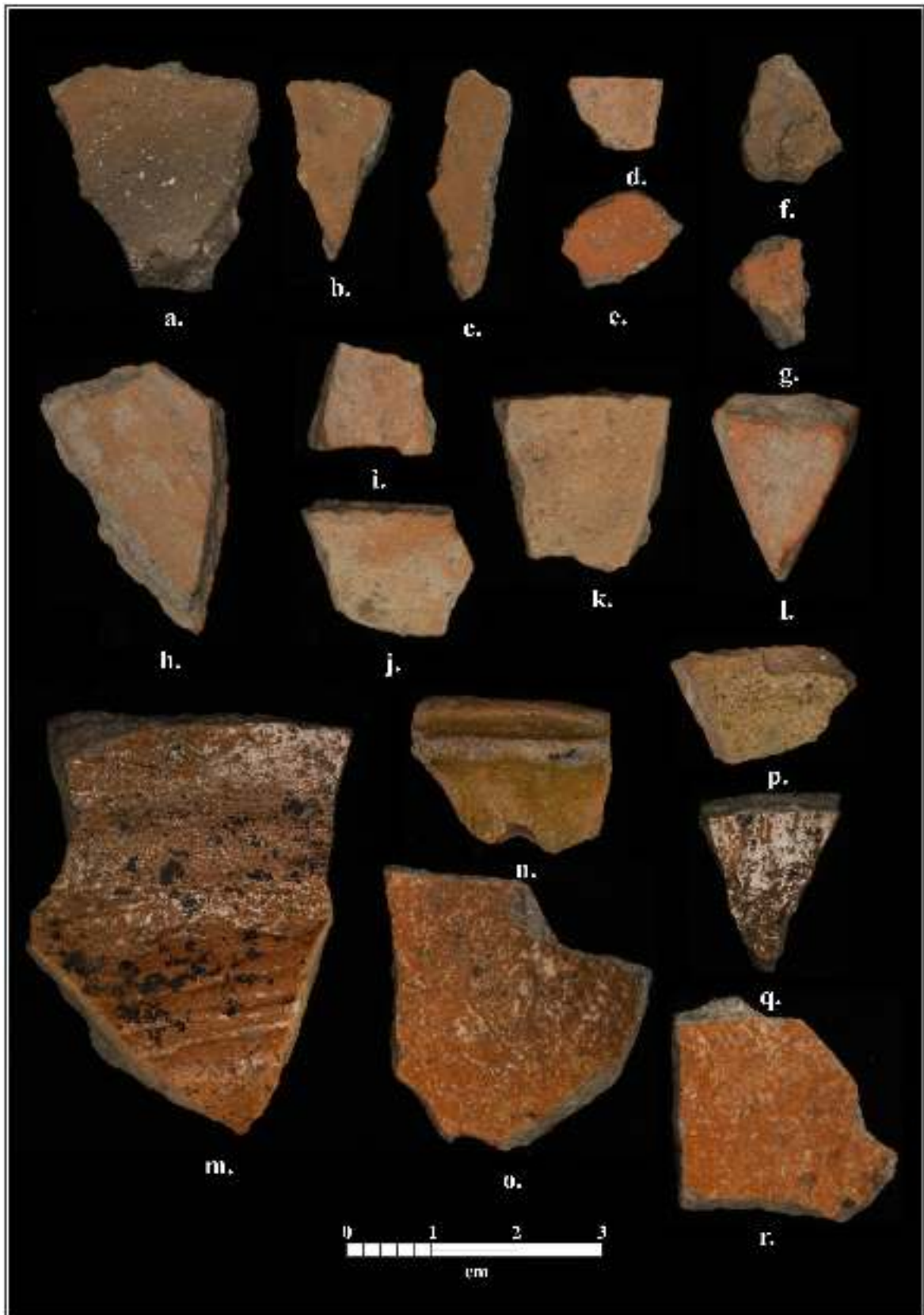


Figure 8-6. Ceramic sherds from TU 1, Level 4 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in.): a.-g.) Goliad ware, 1700s; h.-l.) Spanish Colonial Unglazed, Valero Red, 1700-1825; m.-r.) Yellow Glaze and Green Glaze I, 1700-1800.



Figure 8-7. Top view of TUs 2 and 3 with Features 3, 10, and 13 highlighted (facing east).

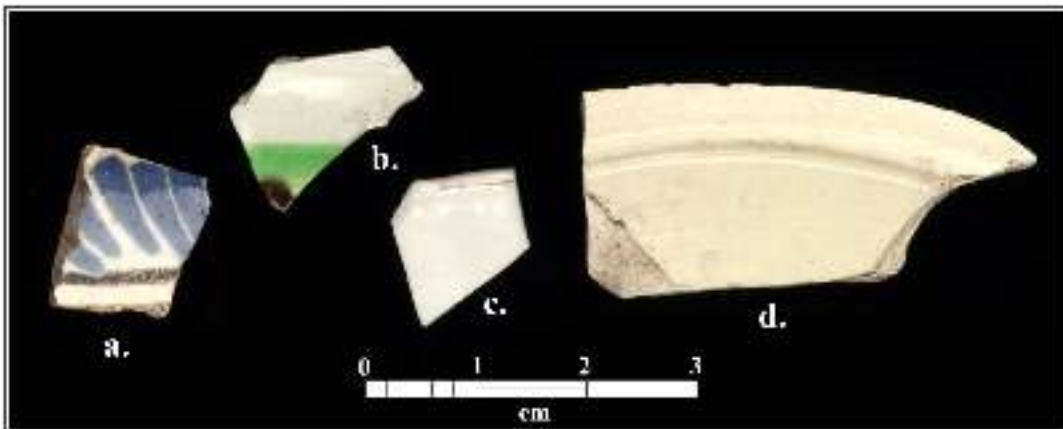


Figure 8-8. Ceramic sherds from TU 2 bulk sample (24-64 cmbd; 9.4-25.2 in., FS 19): a.) Puebla Blue on White, 1775-1800; b.) European, hand-painted, 1830-1880; c.) Chinese Porcelain, 1680-1820); and d.) European Creamware, 1775-1850.



Figure 8-9. Clay tile fragments from TU 2 bulk sample (24-64 cmbd; 9.4-25.2 in., FS 19). Side view, 2.4 cm (0.9 in.) thick (top) and struck side view with mortar residue (bottom), likely Spanish Colonial.

improvements were noted in 1758 when the Rojas family sold the property to Simon de Arocha, whose family retained the property until 1838. The 1838 sale mentions a large home fronting the Plaza (Chabot 1930:22).

The area under consideration was part of the Wolfson site until 1915-1918, when a sliver of the southwest corner of NCB 909 was appropriated by the City to widen and realign the street (CCMM 352). At the time, the property belonged to H. L. Woestman, who was awarded \$18,000.00 in damages in 1919 for “taking of the property...for the purpose of widening Main Avenue” (CCMM 460).

Features 3, 5, 10, and 13 seem to mimic the original orientation of this lot, and the diagonal orientation of the

exposed wall footings suggests that they predate the 1915-1918 street widening. Based on the material used and orientation of the stones, Features 3 and 5 may relate to a single structure. The alignment of the recently exposed features and the footprint of the earliest known buildings on this site is shown in Figure 8-14.

The posthole located at the southeast corner of TU 1 may have been contemporaneous with Feature 9 (wall footing), as both terminate at 74-75 cmbd (29.1-29.5 in.). Feature 14 (northeast corner wall footing), at the bottom of TU 1, may be earlier than Feature 9, since Feature 9 appears to have been built on top of Feature 14. The earliest structures on this lot were constructed by Manuel de Niz circa 1731-1738 and

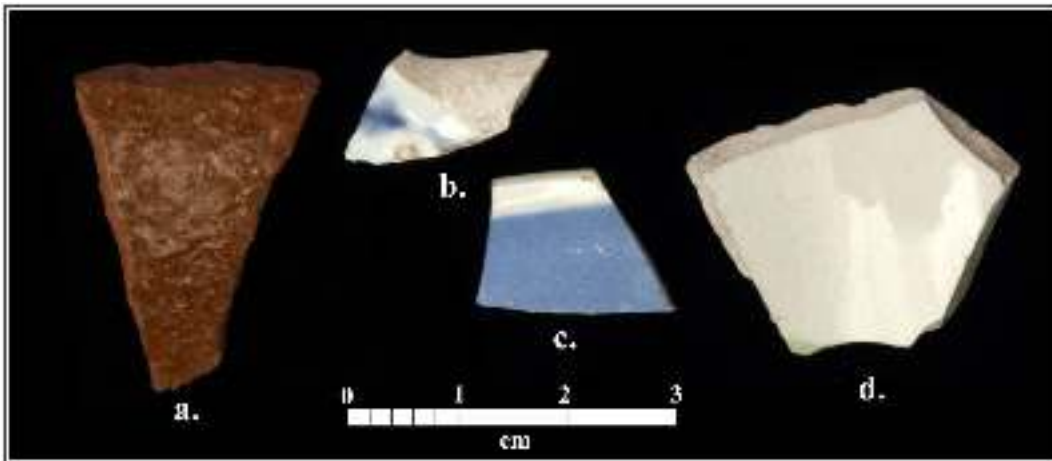


Figure 8-10. Ceramic sherds from TU 3, Level 1 (44-54 cmbd; 17.3-21.3 in., FS 24): a.) Spanish Colonial, Yellow and Green Glaze, 1700-1800; b.) European, Sponge ware, 1800-1860; and c.-d.) European, Hand painted underglaze, 1830-1870.

would have likely fronted the Plaza (see Chapter 4). Based on the recovered artifacts, it is apparent that the strata below Level 4 is intact. Spanish Colonial artifacts, including a few European ware sherds, faunal bone, and a copper pin are present between 54 cmbd (21.3 in.) and 74 cmbd (29.1 in.). Levels 6 through 9 (74-114 cmbd; 29.1-44.9 in.) contained a total of 11 lithic artifacts.

The results of TUs 2 and 3 suggest that Feature 3 is a load bearing wall and that Features 10 and 13 are interior walls. The presence of Spanish Colonial terra cotta tile was significant because these and the other recovered artifacts suggest that the structure(s) are Spanish Colonial. The plaster floor (Feature 15) exposed during the TU 3 excavation lends strong support to the early nature of this structure (Ivey and Fox 1999:16).

Feature 12 is an 1835 Mexican fortification trench and fire-step that it is clearly defined on the east wall profile of the utility trench (Figure 8-15). The fire-step is described in an early nineteenth-century officer's campaign manual:

La banqueta es una pequeña elevación de tierra en forma, digámoslo así, de gradas que se extienden todo a lo largo del parapeto por la parte interior: sirve para que el soldado puesto en ella, pueda descubrir al enemigo y hacerle fuego por encima del parapeto [Bouvillé de Vos 1805:101-02].

The sidewalk (foothold) is a low elevation of earth that extends along the length of the parapet: it serves as a step, so that the soldier positioned on it, can see over the parapet and fire at the enemy [translation by J. E. Zapata].

The fortification trench and fire-step are cut into a naturally occurring caliche stratum and abutted the Feature 5 wall foundation (Figure 8-15). This latter point is problematic because Feature 5 is a wall footing located 1 m (3.28 ft.) to the north that either post-dates the battle or was razed for use as defensive cover. Hanson (2016:238-249) provides a detailed description of the 1835 Mexican fortifications around the plaza. Breastworks (trenches) and parapets are included in the nineteenth-century accounts, and a breastwork (trench) at the northwest angle of the plaza is mentioned (Hanson 2016:242). Feature 12 is likely part of this breastwork construction. The trench on profile was 85 cm (33.5 in.) deep, 1.8 m (5.9 ft.) across at the bottom, and 2.8 m (9.2 ft.) across the top. The fire-step was cut into the caliche subsoil, and it was 20-cm (7.9-in.) high and 20-cm (7.9-in.) deep. The Feature 5 wall, if in fact it was razed during the 1835 battle, would have served as a parapet, providing additional cover.

The Feature 26 wall foundation, which is oriented north to south and off the west side of N. Main Avenue, is problematic because the location of the wall foundation suggests that the associated structure was positioned either to the west over the *acequia* or to the east on Main Avenue. It is more likely that Feature 26 is the west elevation wall of a structure positioned east of the *acequia*. The *acequia* was located 2.5 m (8.2 ft.) west of Feature 26, which would have made for a narrow alley. There is, however, an 1848 plat of the Cassiano property on Flores Street that shows an "alley 2 varas wide" (1.6 m; 5.4 ft.; COSA Civil Engineer, Survey Book 1:36).

The presence of undisturbed pockets of Spanish Colonial features and artifacts in this area of downtown San Antonio is surprising given the significant impacts to Lot A-9, NCB 909 over the past 300 years. It would seem that the razing of old buildings and the structural fires (see Chapter 5) would



Figure 8-11. Clay tile fragments from TU 3, Level 2 (54-64 cmbd; 21.3-25.2 in., FS 44), likely Spanish Colonial. Front (left) and back (right) views; note that all have noticeable to faint signs of mortar or whitewash residue.

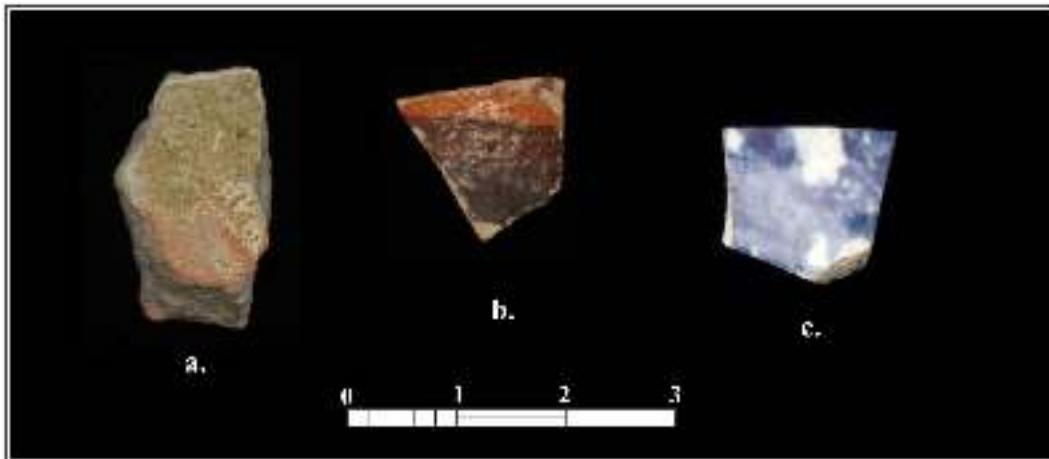


Figure 8-12. Ceramic sherds from TU 4, Level 2 (74-84 cmbd; 29.1-33.1 in., FS 30): a.) Yellow Glaze and Green Glaze I, 1700-1800; b.) Galera, 1725-1850; and c.) European Spatterware, 1830-1880.



Figure 8-13. Feature 3, wall footing set in caliche/silt slurry, and Feature 9, wall footing set in mud, showing the difference in the construction of the wall alignments.

have severely impacted the substrata. The 1915-1918 street widening is the most likely reason these features were not impacted, as further development on this sliver of land was capped by street and sidewalk pavement. In sum, CAR's work along this section of N. Main Avenue indicates that additional evidence of San Antonio's Spanish Colonial history exists beneath the present-day pavement.

Summary and Eligibility

SAL testing of 41BX2170 found that portions of the original northeast corner of N. Main Avenue and Commerce Street are intact beneath concrete and asphalt pavement (see Figure 7-14). This triangular-shaped section of right-of-way holds Spanish Colonial deposits, reflecting the development of Main Plaza by the newly arrived Canary Island families. When this area was platted in 1731, the lot within the APE was granted to Manuel de Niz who built his home on Lot 1 between 1731

and 1738. Additional development by the subsequent owners continued into the Mexican and Republic of Texas periods (1738 to 1838). The site also provides a glimpse of Mexican fortification from the 1835 Siege of Béxar. For these reasons, the CAR recommends that 41BX2170 is eligible for inclusion to the National Register under Criterion D because the site "has yielded or likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history" (36 CFR 60.4). The CAR recommends that 41BX2170 warrants nomination as a SAL based upon two factors. First, it contains archaeological deposits that can contribute to the knowledge of the Spanish Colonial period and the development of San Antonio, and second, the site played an important role in the history of Texas and includes features associated with the Siege of Béxar. The CAR recommends that additional infrastructure improvements within the APE be avoided, and any future plans to impact below the substratum of the modern pavement or surface should require archaeological monitoring and data recovery.

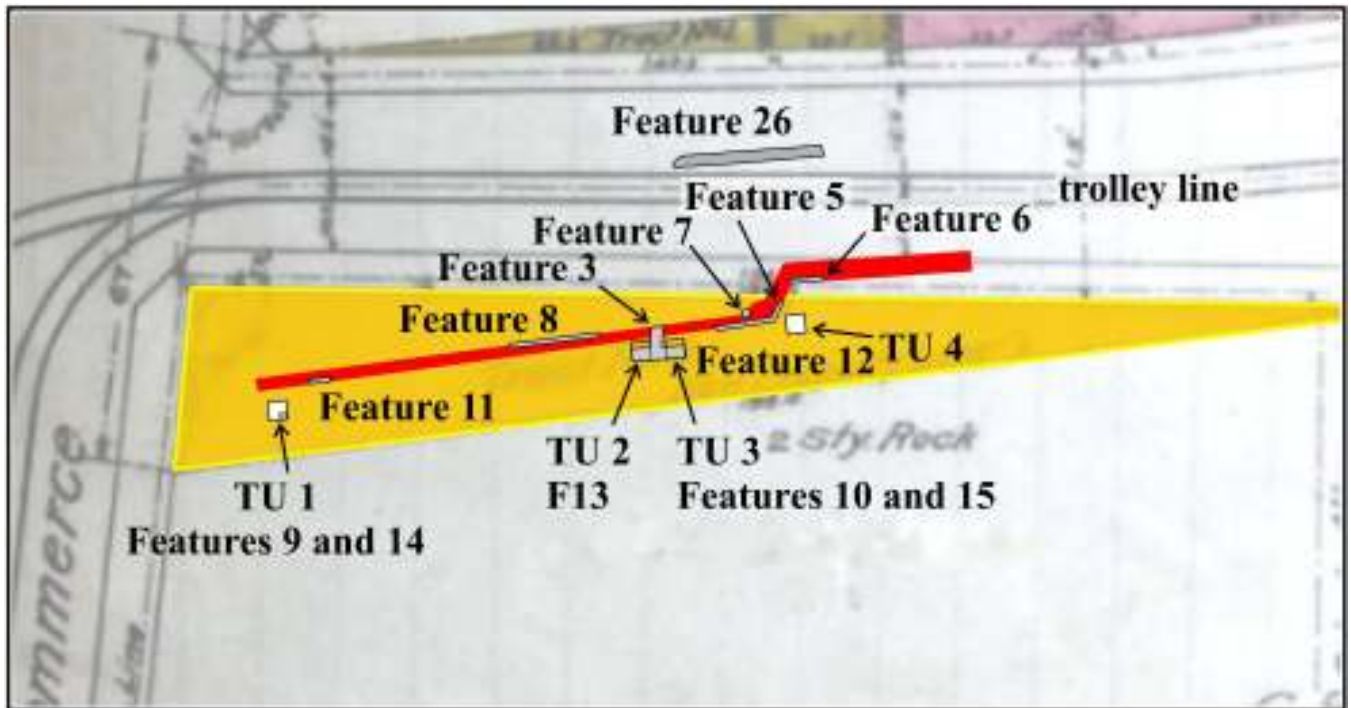


Figure 8-14. Detail of City Engineers schematic (City Engineer, Survey Book 7:56) of the widening of N. Main Avenue, showing trench, test units and features. The City acquired portion of the H.L. Woestman lot is highlighted in yellow. The excavation trench is in red.

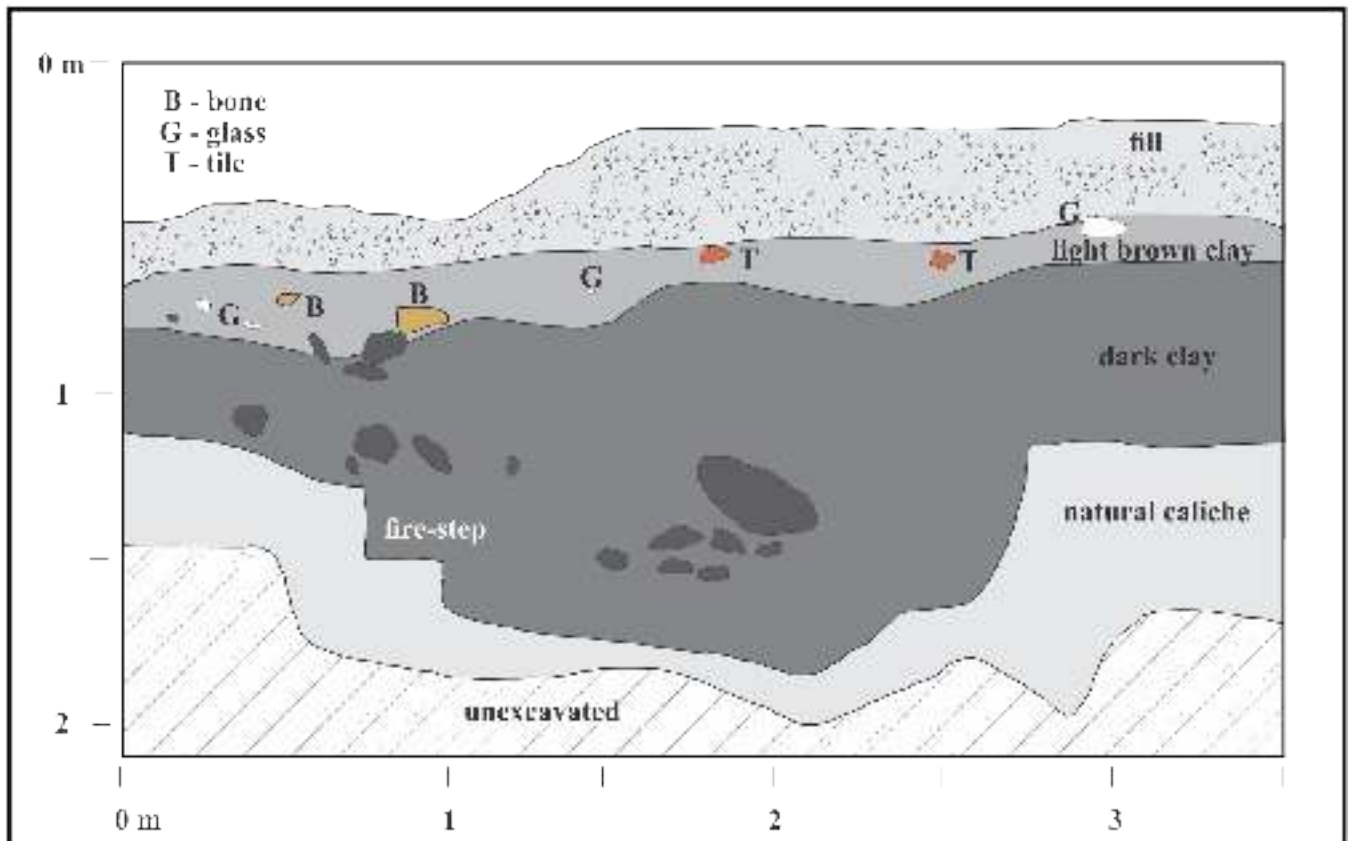


Figure 8-15. Feature 12, fortification trench and fire-step.

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Chapter 9: Monitoring and Testing of the Veramendi Site (41BX2164)

Leonard Kemp

This chapter presents the results of monitoring and testing of the Veramendi site (41BX2164) and encompasses the Veramendi House, a COSA Historic Landmark. Before its destruction in the early twentieth century, it was the site of the residence of Fernando Veramendi, a prominent merchant in late eighteenth-century San Antonio. It became the residence of his son, Juan Martín, the governor of the Province of Coahuila and Texas (1832-1833) following Fernando's death. The structure was the site for the Texian/ Tejano Army assault on Mexican troops during the Battle of Béxar in 1835. It was also the place where Colonel Benjamin Milam, a commander of the Texian Army, was killed and buried during that battle.

What became the Veramendi site (41BX2164) was impacted by the project multiple times for different utilities, resulting in the documentation of multiple features. The CAR was initially tasked to monitor the trenching for a new water line on the east side of Soledad Street, which included a portion of the footprint of the Veramendi House. During this phase of monitoring, three features were identified, including the foundation of the east wall of the house, a nineteenth-century wall foundation, and a midden. During the second phase of monitoring for a SAWS water lateral, CAR archaeologists found remnants of an early twentieth-century foundation. The third and final phase of monitoring for conduit for a fiber optic line revealed two interior walls of the house and a midden. During this excavation, the CAR was tasked by the OHP and the THC, to conduct testing of a midden associated with the Veramendi House to determine its eligibility status to the National Register and its nomination as a SAL. This chapter describes the findings and results from monitoring and the testing of the Veramendi site. The chapter concludes with a summary and eligibility recommendation for the National Register.

Phase 1: Features 19, 20, and 21

The first phase was the discovery of the foundation wall of the Veramendi House (Feature 19) during trenching for the SAWS water line in January of 2017. CAR archaeologists stopped the trenching to assess the feature and, in the process, identified additional features (20 and 21) associated with the wall. Feature 20 is an east to west wall of limestone blocks, and Feature 21 is a midden.

Feature 19 is a foundation wall aligned north to south that is constructed of multiple courses of irregular shaped limestone blocks and cobbles held together by a mix of adobe and sand (Figure 9-1). It measured approximately 10 m (32.8

ft.) in length and 0.5 m (1.6 ft.) in width. The top elevation of the wall is 30 cm (11.8 in.) below the street surface and extends to approximately 90 cmbs (35.4 in.). The south end of the wall consisted of two courses of stone, while on the northern end it was four courses high (see Figure 9-1). The two ends of the wall may reflect elevation differences of the original surface or different construction episodes. There also appears to be an east-to-west wall constructed within the wall extending into the trench profile approximately 7 m (23 ft.) from the southern end of the wall. No trench for a foundation footing was observed in either north or south profiles with the wall sitting on in situ very dark brown silty clay. The wall was recorded with a TDS, and the data was overlaid on a geo-rectified 1904 Sanborn map in ArcGIS. Based upon its alignment with the 1904 Sanborn map, the feature is a remnant of the Veramendi House east wall (Figure 9-2).

Feature 20 (Figure 9-3) is an east-to-west wall of ashlar limestone blocks measuring 45-x-20 cm (17.7-x-7.9 in.) with some of the blocks retaining a plaster wash. Ashlar cut-stone differs from the irregular limestone of the wall and suggests a different construction episode. Sanborn maps dated 1885, 1892, and 1904 show that Feature 20 is within the alignment of the Veramendi House. This may suggest that the feature was possibly used as foundation for later repair or reconstruction of the Veramendi structure.

Feature 21 was the third feature discovered during trenching for the SAWS water line. The feature is a midden found in the trench profile wall and consists of upper (0-40 cmbs; 0-15.7 in.) and lower (40-105 cmbs; 15.7-41.3 in.) portions. The upper portion consists of modern asphalt, a caliche/pebble base on top of degraded macadam over nineteenth-century brick fragments (Figure 9-4, left). This is likely associated with the Soledad Street widening. The matrix also contained metal fragments, as well as brown and aqua glass and stoneware sherds. The lower portion is an intact horizon of very dark brown silty clay containing no features and few artifacts, including an edge-modified flake, and a distinct layer of what was described as a "slurry of plaster." (Figure 9-4, right) In addition, three chert flakes were found in the back dirt from the north end of the Spanish Colonial wall. A heavily corroded hand-forged iron pipe-like artifact measuring 21 cm (8.3 in.) in length and 2.57 cm (1.01 in.) in diameter was found 90 cmbs (35.4 in.) in the northern portion of the wall (Figure 9-5). Samuel Nesmith, a military historian, identified the object through multiple photographs and suggested that it was likely a pistol barrel (K. Hinds and S. Nesmith, personal communication February 6, 2017).

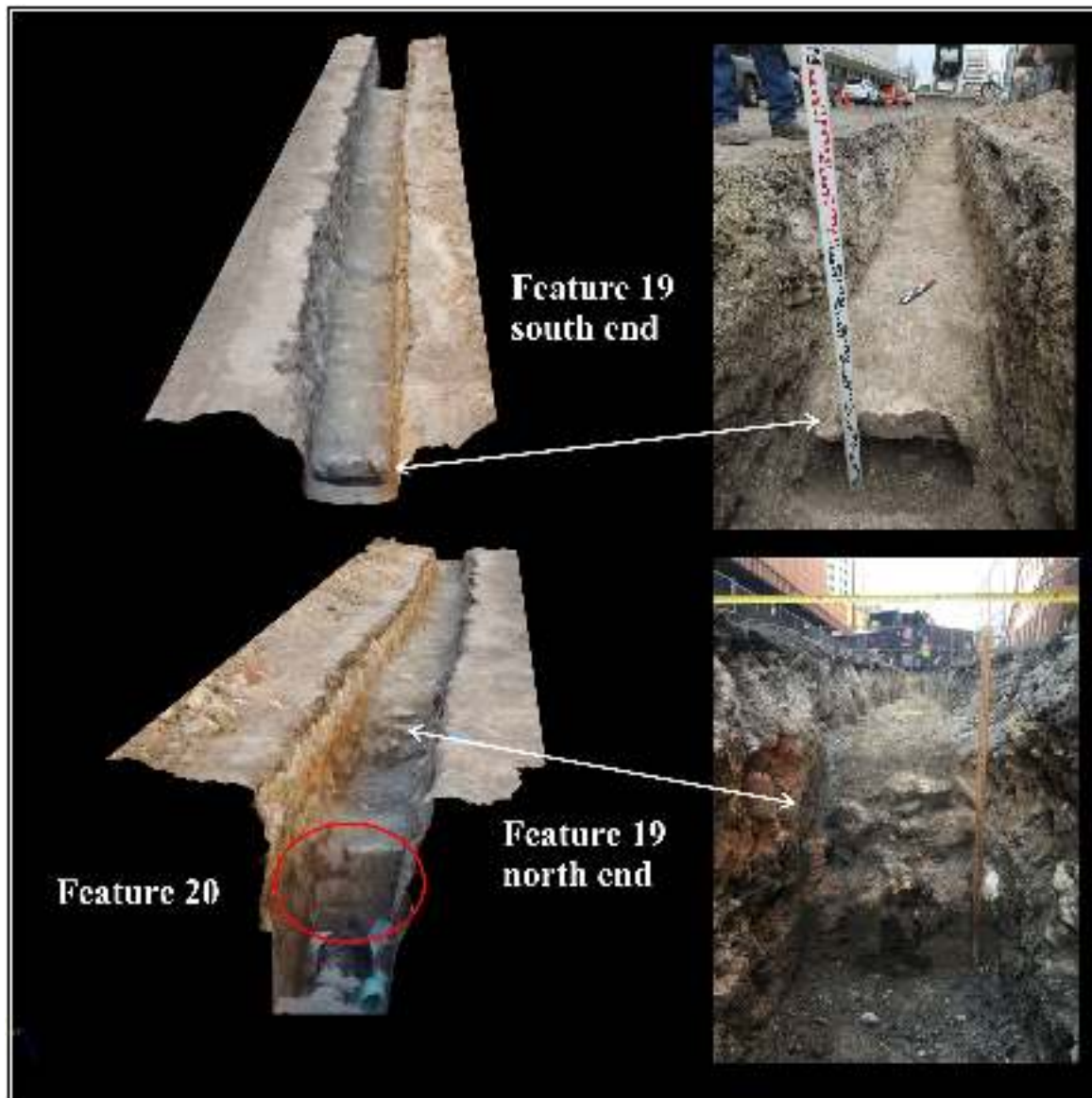


Figure 9-1. 3D Image of Features 19 and 20 (left). Photos shows south end (top right) and north end of Feature 19 with a 1 m (3.3 ft.) scale (bottom right).

Thomas T. Smith, also a military historian, examined the object. He noted the large caliber barrel and lack of rifling and suggested that it might be a fragment of a late seventeenth- or early eighteenth-century pistol or rifle (T. Smith and L. Kemp, personal communication January 17, 2017).

Following documentation of the features with digital photographs and recording their locations with a TDS, the OHP in consultation with the THC allowed trenching for the SAWS water line to proceed, resulting in the removal of the walls. As discussed in Chapter 5, the Veramendi House was demolished in stages for the construction of the Veramendi Building and the Solo Serve Building and for street widening. Its destruction was viewed as a defeat, as well as rally cry for

historical preservationists (Fisher 1996). Archaeologists from the CAR monitored the removal to document any additional information or findings. No features or artifacts were found during this monitoring.

Phase 2: Feature 24

Feature 24 was found in March of 2017 during the excavation for a water line lateral into the current Veramendi Building built in 1910 (Figure 9-6). The feature is a yellow brick mortared wall starting at a depth of approximately 40 cm (15.7 in.) and extending to a depth of 70 cm (27.6 in.) below the street surface running north (Figure 9-7). Feature 24 is associated with the Veramendi Building based upon its

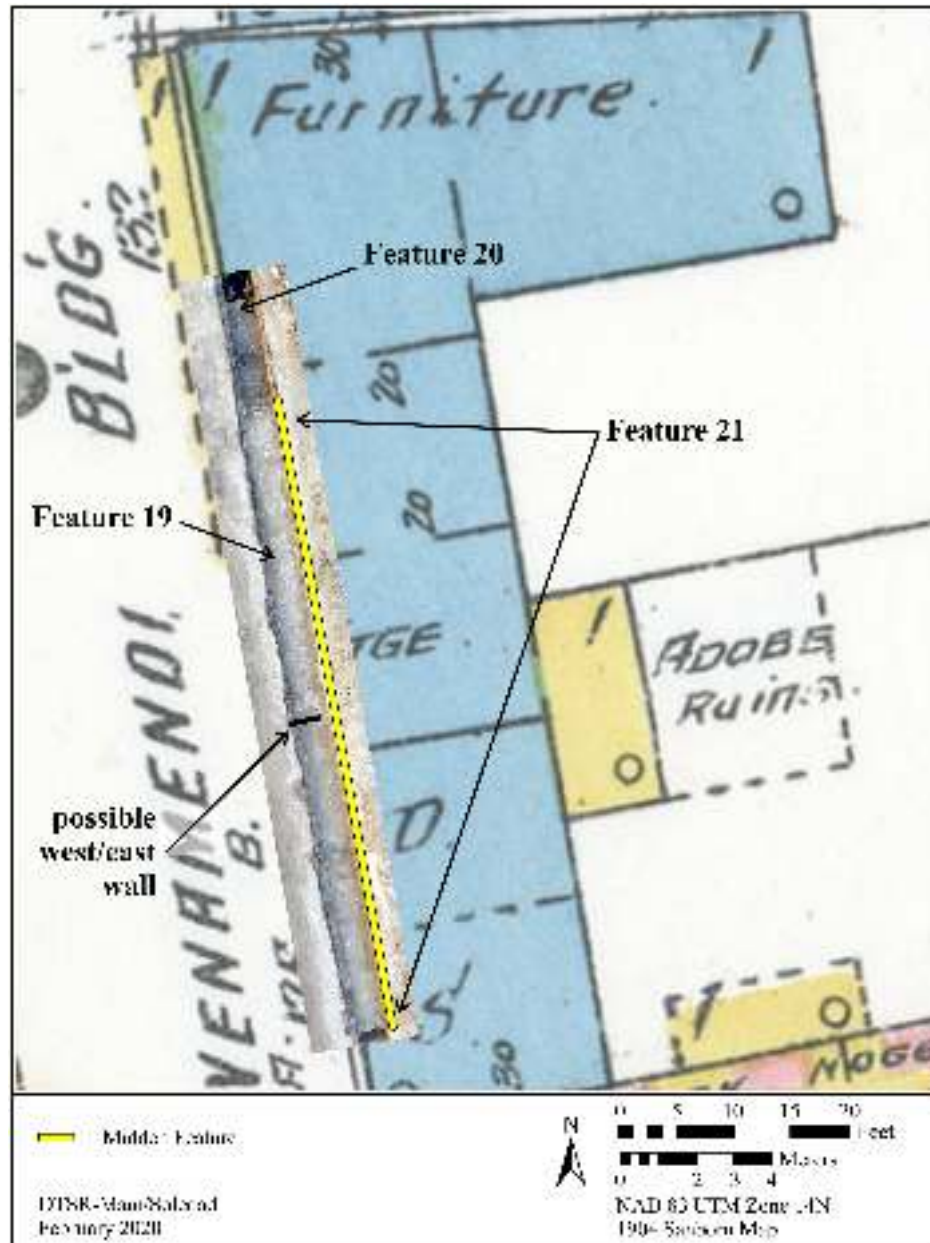


Figure 9-2. The recorded locations of Features 19, 20, and 21 (left) overlaid on the 1904 Sanborn map. Note there is a slight margin of error with the alignment.

location on the 1912 Sanborn map. It is possible that the brick wall is an interior portion of that building. Soils on the east side of the feature are mottled and likely reflect street construction. Feature 24 had been previously impacted by the existing water line and was intact only in the north profile of the trench. The OHP and THC allowed construction to proceed following the documentation of the feature.

Phase 3: Features 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33

In June of 2017, monitoring of excavation for an electrical conduit revealed three features within the Veramendi site.

These features were two wall sections (Features 30 and 31) and a sheet midden (Feature 29). Figure 9-8 shows the location of identified features. Features 30 and 31 were found approximately 20 cm (7.9 in.) below the recently graded surface and were orientated east to west (Figure 9-9). The walls measured 45 cm (17.7 in.) in width and 70 cm (27.6 in.) in length (although both walls may have continued further west and east). They were constructed of irregular shaped limestone blocks and cobbles similar to that of Feature 19, the Veramendi east wall (Figure 9-10). A sheet midden (Feature 29) was observed with Feature 30 in the trench profile wall. It may likely be a continuation of Feature 21, the midden



Figure 9-3. Image on left shows Feature 20 as it was uncovered (view to the southeast). The image on the right shows the three remaining courses with an applied plaster wash of Feature 20 (view to the south).

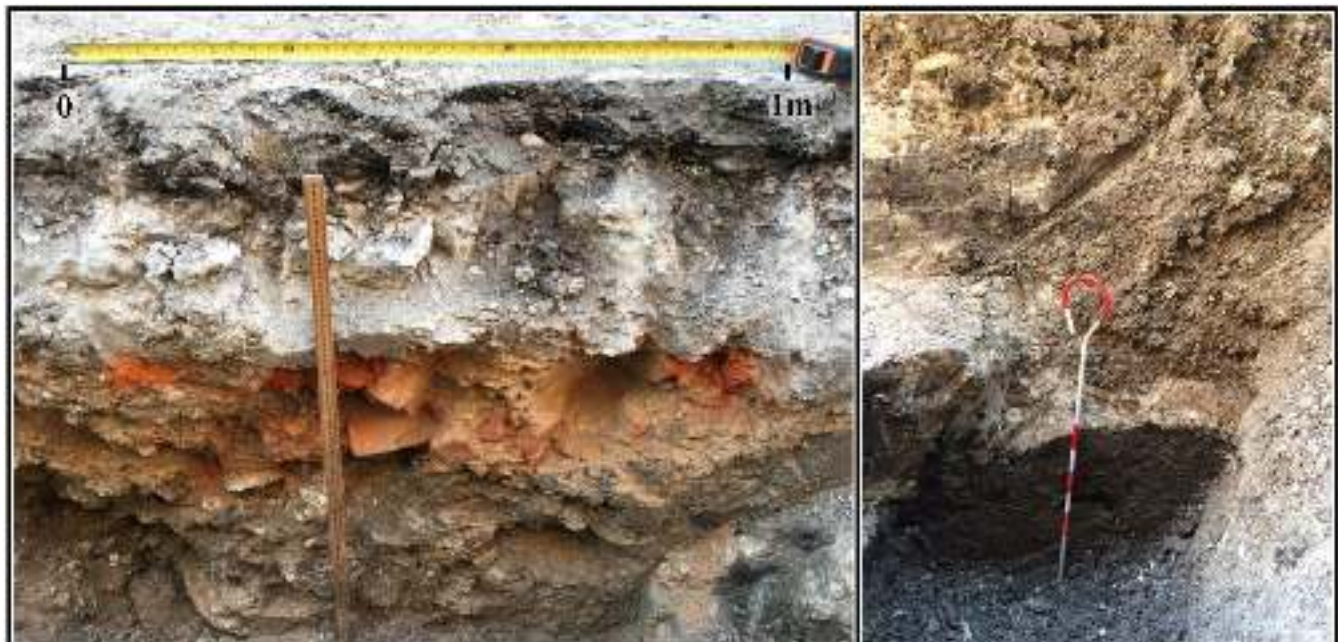


Figure 9-4. Left image shows a portion of Feature 21 (a midden) with red brick concentration (view east, vertical measure is 1 m; 3.28 ft.). Right image shows the dark soils of Feature 21 and a layer of "slurry" directly above it (view to the southeast).

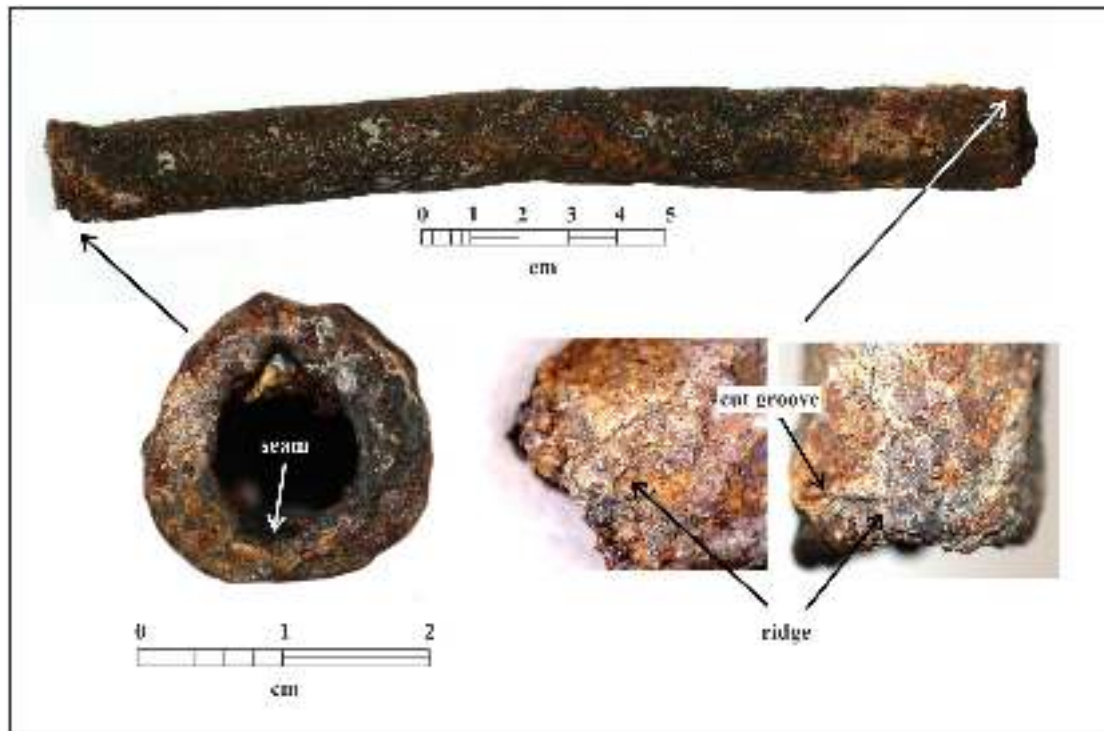


Figure 9-5. Images of hand-forged pipe-like object identified as a gun barrel. Top image shows the length of the object. Image on lower left shows the opening and what appears to be a seam, which would suggest the object is forged. Images on the lower right shows a cut groove and a “ridge” like projection.



Figure 9-6. Location of Feature 24 in lateral trench in front of Veramendi and Kennedy Buildings.



Figure 9-7. Images on left and right show the remnants of Feature 24, view to the north.

recorded in January of 2017. However, the artifact density of it was substantially greater, and the midden was given a separate feature number.

Testing was initiated based upon recommendations by OHP and THC. Three test units were excavated to determine the age of the midden and sample artifacts associated with it. Figure 9-8 shows a site map with the location of the test units and all features associated with the Veramendi House (less Feature 24 that is associated with the twentieth-century Veramendi Building). Test Unit 1 measured 50-x-50 cm (19.7-x-19.7 in.) and was placed south of Feature 30 and to the east of the trench (Figure 9-11). Test Units 2 and 3 were 1-x-1 m (3.28-x-3.28 ft.) units placed south of TU 1 and were excavated as a 1-x-2 m (3.28-x-6.6 ft.) unit (Figure 9-12). All unit locations were excavated in arbitrary 10-cm (3.9 in.) levels with approximately 1.25 m² (1,345.5 ft.²) of deposits recovered from the three units. Deposits were stratified with the midden level approximately 15-18 cm (5.9-7.1 in.) in thickness (mottled in color grayish brown to dark gray (10YR 5/2, 10YR 4/1) and containing faunal, ceramic, lithic, and construction material (Figure 9-13). The midden overlaid a dark brown silty clay (10YR 3/2) that contained significantly fewer artifacts, consisting primarily of debitage and charcoal extending to 50 cm (19.7 in.) below the datum. In TUs 2 and 3, two postholes (Features 32 and 33) were found, and an additional 16-20 cm (6.3-7.9 in.) of deposits were excavated from these features (Figure 9-14). The sediment from the postholes were collected, returned to the CAR laboratory,

and floated. All units appeared essentially intact, although a ceramic sewer lateral clipped the southwest corner of TU 3 (see Figure 9-14).

Features 30 and 31 were protected with sand and the conduit was placed on top of them. Following testing, the area was scraped, revealing the extent of Feature 29, 15.8 m (51.8 ft.) north to south and 1-2.7 m (3.3-8.9 ft.) west to east.

Veramendi Artifacts

Testing recovered a variety of artifacts from the Veramendi site. Some classes of artifacts (e.g., adobe, mortar/plaster, unidentified metal) were weighed while others (e.g., ceramics, glass, personal items, fauna) were counted. Three hundred and twenty-one items, or a density of 256.8 artifacts per cubic meter, were present using the counts. Charcoal, burned clay, and other rock were also collected, but they are not included in this count. Two artifacts were collected from the graded surface of the test units: a kick-up base fragment of olive glass with a pontil scar and a plaster fragment with blue wash. A detailed listing of the artifacts recovered from TUs 1, 2, and 3 is presented in Appendix C. Table 9-1 is a list of the significant artifacts by major grouping or class. Faunal bone dominates the assemblage followed by ceramics. The number of lithics were also relatively large. The number of unique items was small but included a glass aqua color seed bead, a copper buckle, and lead shot.

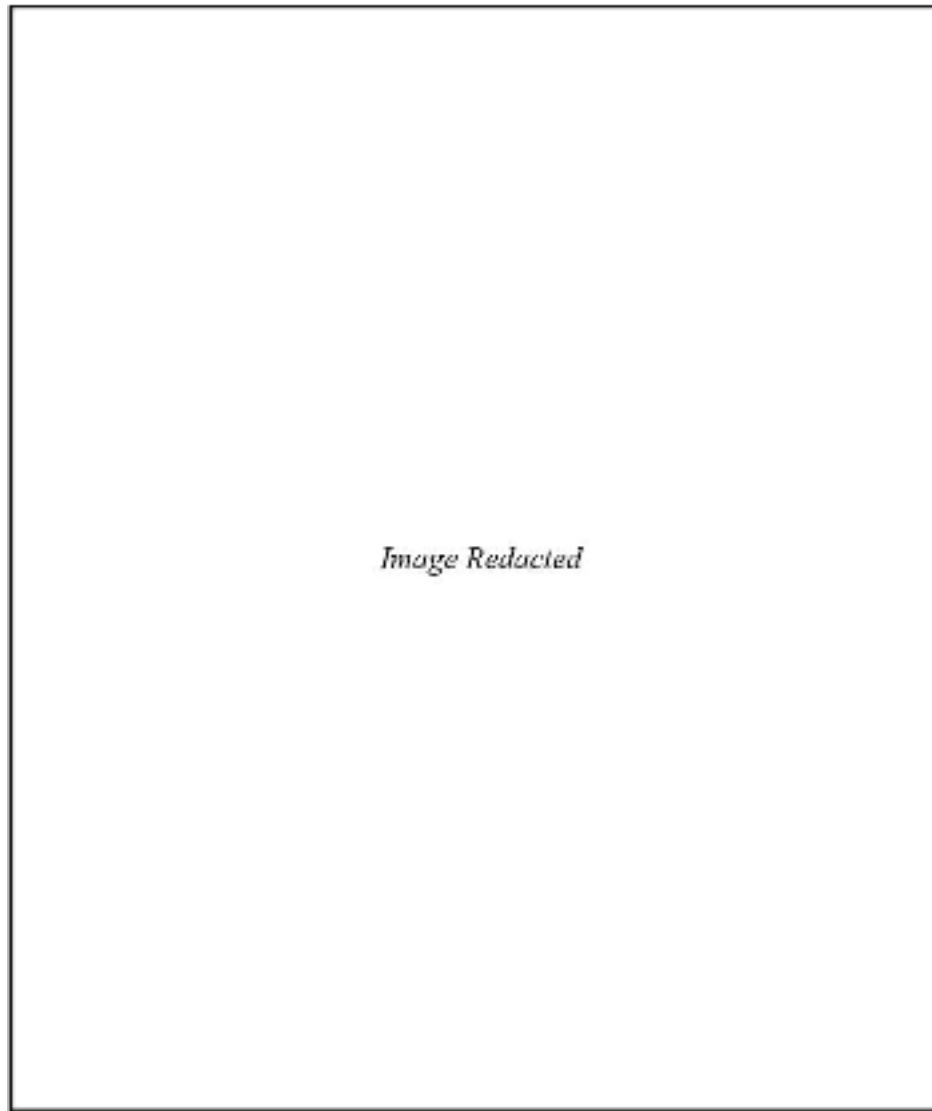


Figure 9-8. Site map of the 41BX2164 with test units and all features identified with the Veramendi House overlaid on a 1904 Sanborn map.

Ceramics were used to date Feature 29. Of the 80 ceramic fragments that were collected, 68.75 percent (n=55) were fragments of Spanish Colonial ceramics, and 31.25 percent (n=25) were fragments of Native American ware (Figures 9-15 and 9-16). Goliad ware (which accounts for 24 of the 25 Native ceramics) can date from the early seventeenth century to the nineteenth century and is generally considered a type associated with the Spanish Colonial period (Tomka et al. 2013). It was not included in the temporal analysis of ceramics. Table 9-2 lists the type and number of Spanish Colonial ceramics, including unglazed, tin-glazed, and lead-glazed ware. Of the identified Spanish Colonial ceramic

types (n=10), 50 percent (in bold) date to the eighteenth century with the remaining types manufactured into the mid-nineteenth to twentieth century (Fox and Ulrich 2008).

Faunal items were the most numerous (n=127, 39.6 percent) of the counted artifacts with a diverse assemblage consisting of both wild and domesticated species. There was a small amount of shell (snail and mussel). Two samples were identified as bone flakes and are not counted in the faunal class. Table 9-3 is a list of the number of identified specimens (NISP) recovered from the three units. Note that two items could not be located and the majority of the faunal remains



Figure 9-9. Overview of Feature 29 (midden) and Features 30 and 31 (limestone walls).



Figure 9-10. Feature 30, view to the west of Veramendi wall (left). Feature 31, view to the east of Veramendi wall (right).

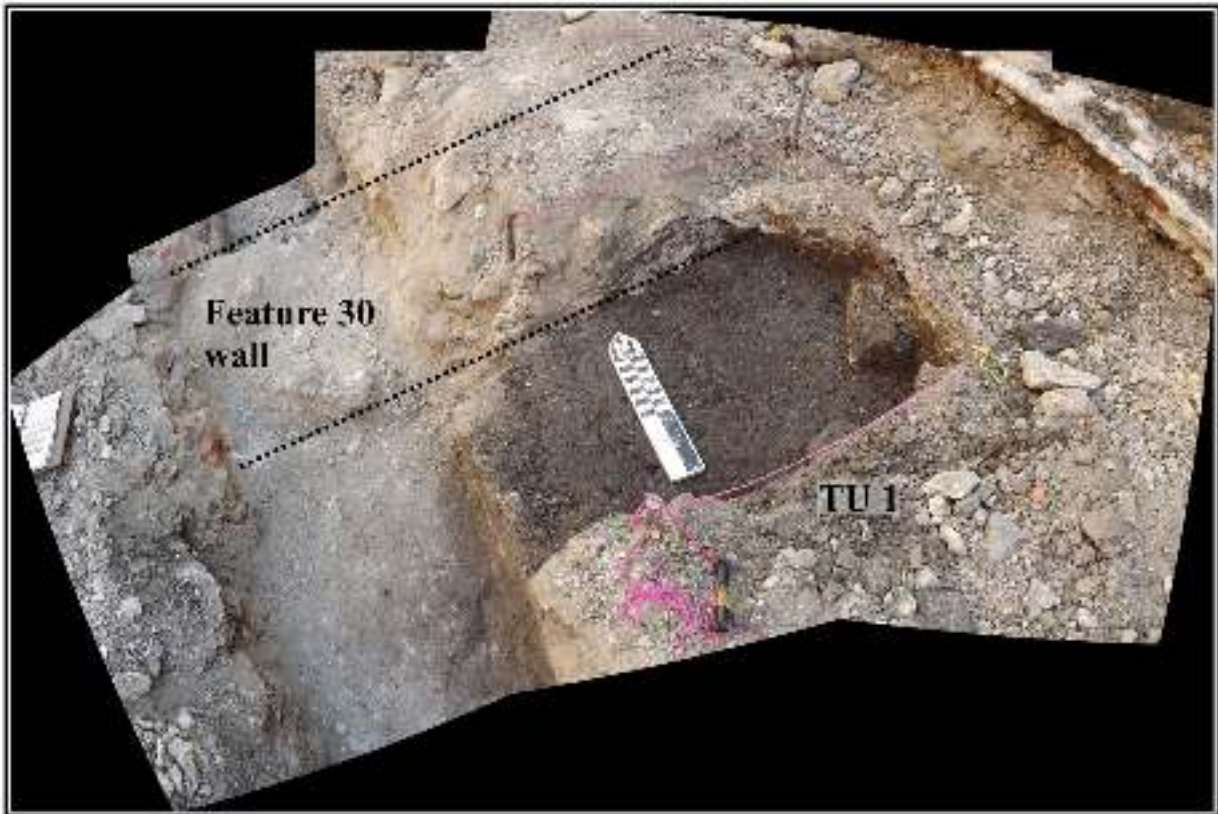


Figure 9-11. View to the northeast of Feature 30 (wall) and TU 1.



Figure 9-12. View to the east of TUs 2 and 3, TU 1 is to the left of those units.



Figure 9-13. View to the southeast of TU 1 with Feature 29.



Figure 9-14. View to the east of Features 32 and 33 (postholes) in TUs 2 and 3. Note ceramic pipe in the southwest corner of TU 3.

Table 9-1. Significant Artifacts Recovered from the Veramendi Testing

Class	Type	Count
Faunal bone		127
Ceramics	Spanish Colonial	55
	Native	25
Construction	Adobe by weight (includes 1 adobe brick weighing 4785 g)	6408.6 g
	Mortar by weight	1185.1 g
Lithics	Biface	1
	Core Tool	1
	Edge Modified	3
	Debitage	32
	Burned Rock	6
Glass	Container/Vessel	11
	Chimney	4
	Window	1
Firearms	Lead shot	1
Personal	Seed bead	1
	Copper buckle	1

could not be assigned to a specific species but only to an animal class size. Very large and large animals (inclusive of identified species) dominate the assemblage with 67.3 percent of the total sample. There is relative parity between wild species (49.8 percent) that includes turkey, fish, bison, mouse and turtle, and domesticated species (42.7 percent) that includes cow, pig, goat, and sheep. Eleven samples of bone have evidence of cut or saw marks.

Construction materials consisting of an adobe brick, adobe fragments, and mortar were found primarily in the upper levels (Levels 1, 2, and 3) appearing to cap the fourth most common found artifact, lithics (n=43). Lithics included a biface, a core tool, edge modified flakes and debitage with approximately 90.60 percent of the lithics primarily found in the lower levels (Levels 4 and 5) of the three test units. The core tool and a piece of debitage were found in the float from the two postholes revealed in Level 5. Artifacts associated with the latter part of the nineteenth century included glass and nails, which were generally found in the upper levels of TUs 1 and 2. The integrity of TU 3 is slightly compromised by the presence of a ceramic pipe found in its southwest corner. Test Unit 3 contained two cut nails, a wire nail, aqua glass, and window glass that intruded into the lower levels likely as a result of the excavation for the pipe. However, the impact appears limited to that portion of the unit with the majority of the unit intact.

Discussion of the Veramendi Testing

As discussed in Chapter 5 the Veramendi House (41BX2164) was destroyed in stages, first, the northern half followed by the southern portion along Soledad Street. Figure 9-17 shows the southern half of the Veramendi House before its demolition for the Soledad Street widening that was completed by 1914. The left side of the photograph shows the recently constructed Veramendi Building housing the San Antonio Printing Company. The location of the wall remnant and midden were recorded and overlain on a georeferenced 1904 Sanborn map in ArcGIS (see Figure 9-8). It appears to be located within the footprint of at least four rooms of this southern portion of the Veramendi House. The lower portion of Figure 9-17 is a projected image of the Veramendi footprint with Feature 29 on the 1912 Sanborn map showing the now empty lot where the Solo Serve Building would be constructed between 1919 and 1920.

Spanish Colonial ceramics were found in the midden and were used to date to provide a relative date of it. Ten ceramic types were identified with five of those ten types dating to the late eighteenth century with the remaining five ceramic types ranging in age from the eighteenth to the nineteenth/ twentieth century. Interestingly no whiteware, porcelain, or stoneware from the nineteenth century was found. Given that the Veramendi House has served as a residence, a hotel,

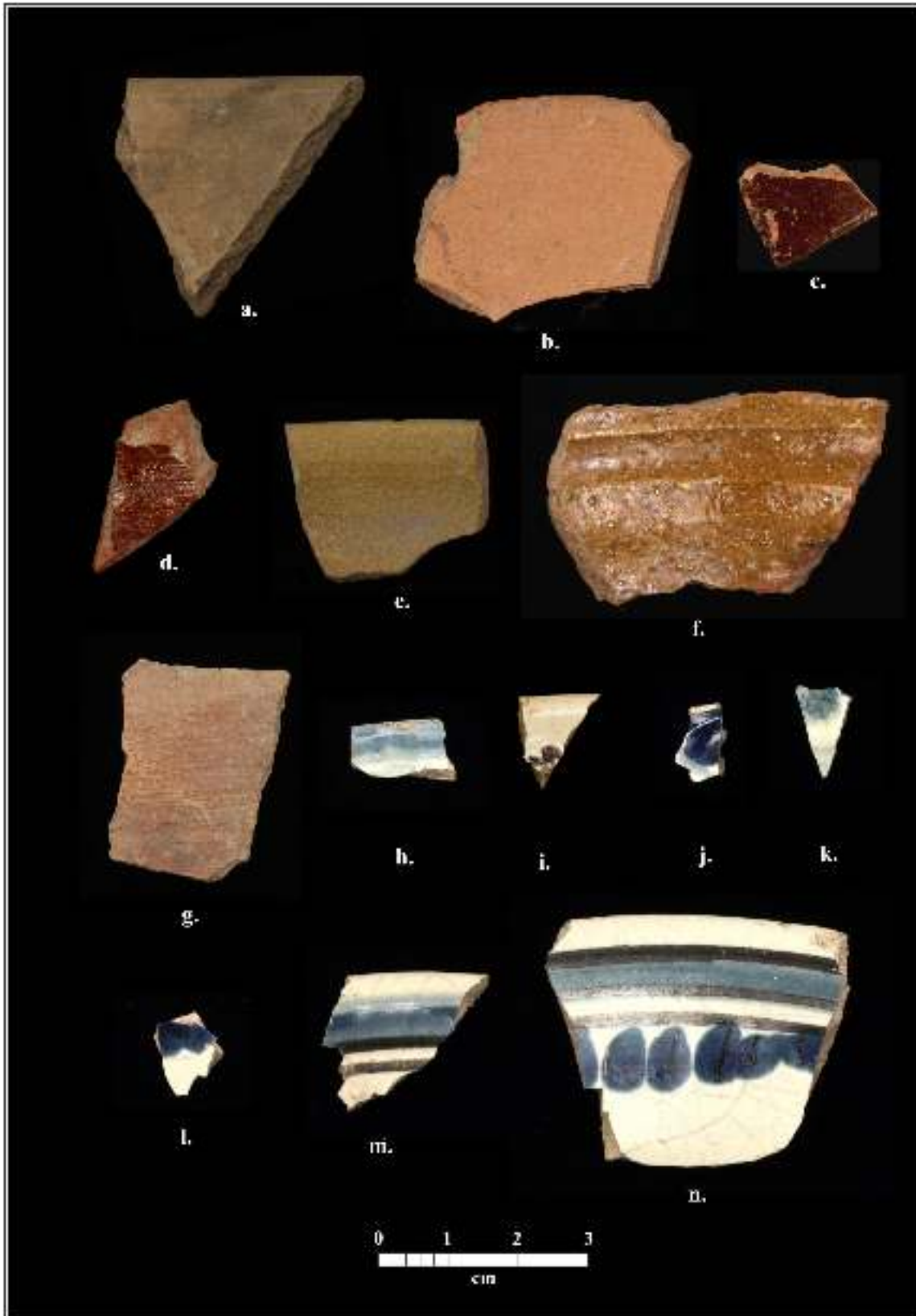


Figure 9-15. Selected Spanish Colonial ceramics from the Veramendi testing: a.-b.) unglazed wheel thrown; c.-d.) Red-on-brown glazed; e.-f.) Yellow Glaze and Green Glaze I; g.) Valero Red; h.) Huejotzingo Blue on White; i.) untyped tin-enameled majolica; j.-k.) Puebla Blue on White II; and l.-n.) San Elizario.



Figure 9-16. Selected examples of Goliad ware from the Veramendi testing.

Table 9-2. Type and Number Spanish Colonial Ceramics. Bold Date to the Eighteenth Century (5); Italicized Range from the Eighteenth to the Nineteenth/Twentieth Century (5); Remaining Not Temporal Diagnostic (4)

Type	Count
Puebla Blue on White II	3
San Elizario	3
Yellow and Green Glaze I	3
Yellow and Green Glaze II	8
Valero Red	1
<i>Red Brown Glaze</i>	3
<i>Tonala Burnished</i>	1
<i>Tonala Red Burnished</i>	3
<i>Huejotzingo Thin Blue Band Rim</i>	1
<i>Black Burnished</i>	3
Other Burnished/Polished	6
Untyped white majolica	2
Untyped white rim majolica with umber decoration	1
Unglazed wheel thrown	17

Table 9-3. Identified Specimens

Identified Species or Size Classification	Common Name	NISP	Percent of NISP
<i>Bison bison</i>	bison	2	7.1
<i>Bos taurus</i>	cattle	6	21.4
<i>Sus scrofa</i>	pig	3	10.7
<i>Capra hircus</i>	goat	2	7.1
<i>Ovis aires</i>	sheep	1	3.5
<i>Peromyscus gossypinus</i>	cotton mouse	2	7.1
Medium <i>Rodentia</i>		1	
<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	turkey	1	3.5
Very Large <i>Aves</i>		1	
Large <i>Aves</i>		2	
Medium <i>Aves</i>		4	
Small <i>Aves</i>		4	
Indeterminate <i>Aves</i>		2	
<i>Actinopterygii</i>	boney fish	10	35.7
<i>Testudines</i>	turtle	1	3.5
Indeterminate Very Large Mammal		20	
Indeterminate Large/Very Large Mammal		23	
Large Mammal		16	
Medium Mammal		3	
Indeterminate Mammal		19	
Indeterminate		4	
Total		127	99.6

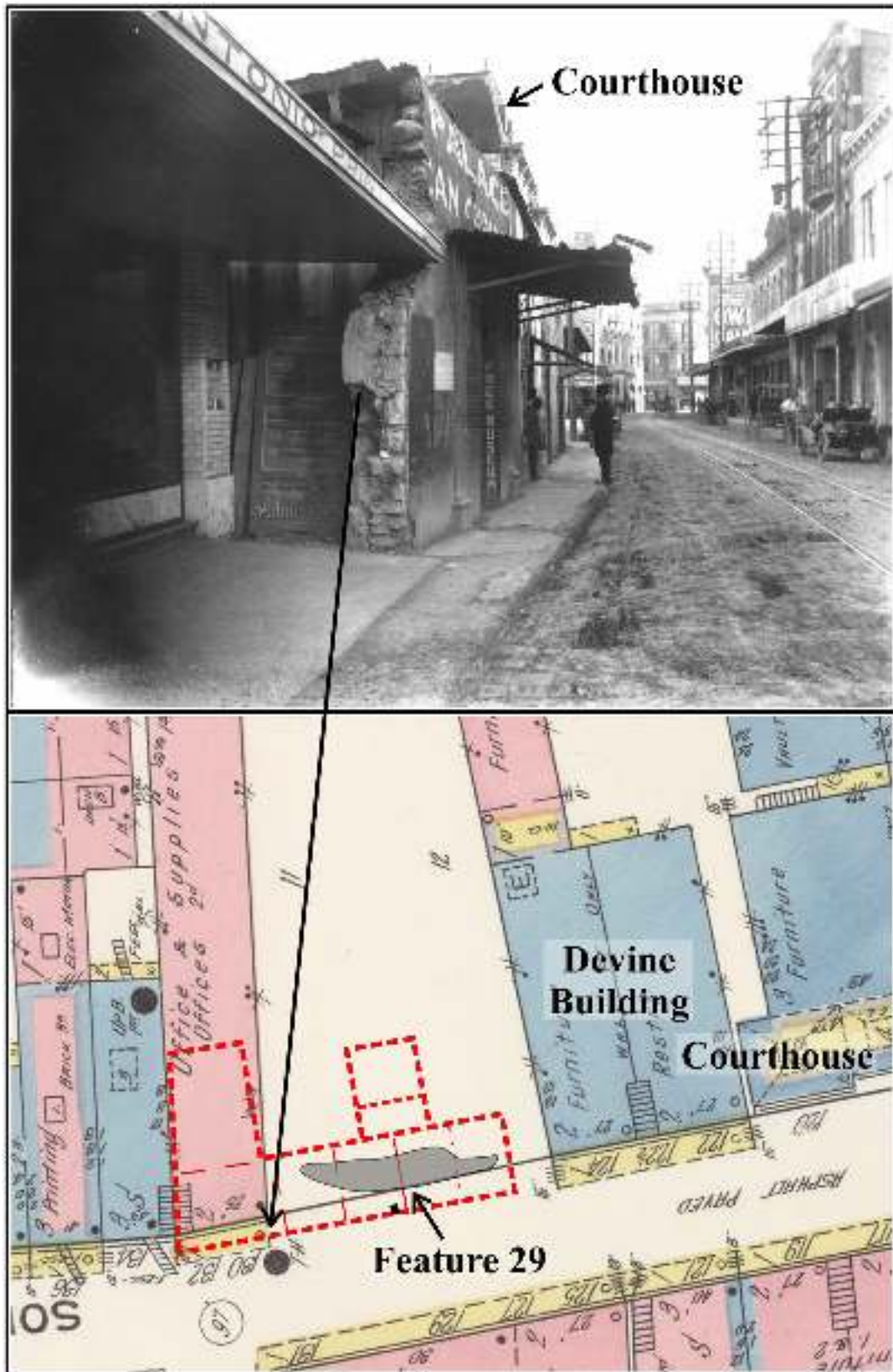


Figure 9-17. Photograph (top) of the southern portion of the Veramendi House before its demolition. Bottom image shows the Veramendi footprint (dashed red line) with Feature 29 on the 1912 Sanborn map. The line between the two images shows the orientation of the Veramendi remnant on the map.

and a saloon and restaurant during later periods of use suggests evidence of absence with the midden fitting more to the eighteenth and early nineteenth century than the late nineteenth or early twentieth century.

Lithics and charcoal, as well as a distinct soil change, were found in the lower two levels of the excavated units suggesting a possible earlier temporal period to the Veramendi House. The two postholes found in TUs 2 and 3 are likely contemporaneous to each other due to their similarity in size and depth. The postholes contained one Spanish Colonial ceramic piece (Tonala Burnished), one piece of debitage, and a core tool. The postholes may be the remnants of a pre-Spanish Colonial feature, the remnants of a Spanish Colonial feature predating the Veramendi House, or associated to the early Spanish Colonial Veramendi House.

The largest data class was faunal remains, albeit it is a very small sample size of 26 with 10 identified as fish. An analysis shows that both domesticated and wild species were consumed in relatively quantities at the Veramendi site (41BX2164). This finding contrasts with findings from several nearby sites. At 41BX1598, approximately 65 percent of the identified fauna were domesticated animals and 35 percent wild animals (Figuroa and Mauldin 2005:66). The date range for this site included whiteware. On the Main Plaza Redevelopment project, a similar ratio of domesticated (61.3 percent) to wild fauna was found at 41BX1752 (Hanson 2016:218). Again at this site, the temporal range includes ceramics from the mid-nineteenth century unlike what is found at this portion of the Veramendi site. The parity between domesticated and wild faunal specimens at the Veramendi site may suggest an earlier occupation in which the diet was supplemented with wildlife and/or a period of food shortage when wildlife contributed to the diet.

A large amount of adobe, mortar, and plaster were found in the three test units and appear related to the construction of, the reconstruction of, or an addition to the Veramendi House. The relatively lack of late nineteenth- and early twentieth-century artifacts within the midden suggests that the assemblage is not associated with the demolition of the structure. This may suggest that this portion of the Veramendi House may have been built later, covering the midden and preserving it from later nineteenth- and twentieth-century material. The impact from the ceramic sewer pipe found in the southwest corner of TU 3 appears confined to that corner. Given that the building was destroyed, the street widened, and a new building constructed over the Veramendi footprint, this is a remarkable accident of preservation. Overall, the tested portion of the midden is relatively intact with very little intrusive late nineteenth- or twentieth-century artifacts, and it appears to have integrity.

Summary and Recommendation

The Veramendi site (41BX2164) was impacted by construction activities multiple times, with each event leading to the discovery of more features associated with the site. CAR archaeologists initially encountered a remnant of a foundation wall of the Veramendi House during trenching for replacement of the water line on Soledad Street. The CAR notified the OHP, who halted work in the area to allow for documentation of the feature. CAR archaeologists recorded the location of the three features associated with the discovery of the Veramendi site with a TDS. Features 19 (the Veramendi west wall) and 20 (a nineteenth-century limestone wall) were documented using photogrammetry with digital images processed in 3D software (Agisoft), and artifacts were collected in the area of Feature 20. Following documentation and artifact collection, the OHP, in consultation with the THC, permitted the removal of Features 19 and 20, allowing construction to proceed. Feature 21 was not impacted by the construction beyond what was already excavated. Feature 24, a twentieth-century brick wall foundation was found during trenching for a water lateral into the Veramendi Building. Feature 24 was not impacted beyond the excavation of the initial trench. Feature 24 was documented with photographs, a measured sketch, and the feature was avoided.

During monitoring of the excavation for an electrical conduit, three features were initially documented including two interior walls of the Veramendi House (Features 30 and 31) and a midden (Feature 29). The OHP, in consultation with the THC, recommended testing of the midden to determine whether the site was eligible to the NRHP and as a SAL. The CAR excavated three units, recovering 348 artifacts. After testing Feature 29, the extent of the feature was documented following scraping to just above the level of the midden, and the feature was avoided. Features 30 and 31 were photographed, documented, and allowed to remain in place. Features 32 and 33 (postholes) discovered during testing were delineated. The matrix was collected from the features and floated at the CAR laboratory.

Given that a relatively small portion of the midden was excavated, the artifacts were both numerous and diverse, reflecting a fragment of Spanish Colonial lifeways. The date of Feature 29 appears to be limited to the eighteenth or early nineteenth century based on the recovered ceramics. The assemblage contains sufficient data to potentially contribute to knowledge of San Antonio history during this period, and the feature appears to have integrity. Therefore, CAR recommends that the Veramendi site (41BX2164) is eligible for inclusion in the NRHP based on Criterion D (36 CFR 60.4). The CAR also recommends that 41BX2164 warrants listing as a SAL.

Chapter 10: Summary and Recommendations

Leonard Kemp and José E. Zapata

From October 2016 through December 2017, CAR conducted archaeological monitoring for the DTSR-Main/Soledad project under contract with PCI for the COSA. The THC granted Texas Antiquities Permit No. 7816 to Dr. Paul Shawn Marceaux, the Principal Investigator, to conduct the project. Leonard Kemp served as the Project Archaeologist for the monitoring portion of the project.

CAR conducted SAL testing of 41BX2170, a Spanish Colonial-period site discovered during the course of the project. The testing was conducted under the same permit, with Dr. Marceaux as the Principal Investigator, and José Zapata as the Project Archaeologist. CAR also conducted SAL testing of a midden associated with 41BX2164, the Veramendi House; this was also conducted under the same permit with Dr. Marceaux as the Principal Investigator, and Leonard Kemp as the Project Archaeologist. After Dr. Marceaux's departure from CAR in 2019, the permit was transferred to Cythina Munoz.

Recommendations

During the course of archaeological monitoring and limited investigations, CAR recorded eight new sites, recorded a portion of one previously identified site, documented 32 features, and collected over 2,000 artifacts and samples. The type and level of work associated with the discovery of these archaeological sites are listed in Table 10-1, as well as their NRHP status or recommendation.

During monitoring of the utility trench on Soledad Street, CAR found remnants of a limestone wall. Based upon its location and construction, the wall was determined to be part of the Veramendi House, a significant property associated with the Spanish Colonial history of San Antonio and the Texas Revolution of 1836, and it was recorded as 41BX2164. The Veramendi House is also listed as a COSA Historic Landmark. Unfortunately, few artifacts were recovered, and they did not add further information to historical knowledge of that period. Subsequent construction revealed additional Veramendi wall features and a midden. The OHP and THC recommended that CAR test the midden to determine eligibility of the site. The artifacts in the midden were abundant and diverse and could further enhance the knowledge of San Antonio history. The CAR recommended that 41BX2164 is eligible for inclusion to the NRHP under Criterion D (36 CFR 60.4). CAR also recommended that 41BX2164 warrants SAL status because it contains archaeological deposits that can contribute to

the knowledge of the Spanish Colonial period, and the site played a significant role in the history of Texas. The THC and COSA OHP concurred with these recommendations.

During monitoring of utility trenching on N. Main Avenue, the CAR found Spanish Colonial features and deposits on the former lot of the Wolfson Building. These features and deposits are likely associated with Manuel de Niz, a Canary Islander who was granted the lot in 1731, and later owners and, as such, can provide information spanning the Spanish Colonial period of San Antonio (1731-1824). In addition, there was evidence of Mexican fortifications from the Siege of Béxar. The CAR recommended that 41BX2170 is eligible for inclusion to the NRHP under Criterion D (36 CFR 60.4). CAR recommended that 41BX2170 warrants SAL status because it contains archaeological deposits, which can contribute to the knowledge of the Spanish Colonial period, and the site played a significant role in the history of Texas. The THC and COSA OHP concurred with these recommendations.

The location of 41BX337, San Pedro Acequia, was updated using Texas Archeological Research Laboratory's online TexSite registry. The *acequia* had been previously recommended eligible for inclusion to the National Register and is listed as a SAL. A significant portion of the *acequia* was allowed to remain in place and protected. However, a small portion of the *acequia* (approximately 10 m; 32.8 ft.) prevented the construction of the storm drain. The OHP and THC were notified of this impasse, and both approved removal of that portion of the *acequia*.

One site, 41BX2201, contained a Spanish Colonial period wall and midden. The site was documented; however, no further testing was conducted. The CAR cannot determine the eligibility of the site to the National Register based upon the limited data collected. However, given that it is a Spanish Colonial-period site, the CAR recommended that if the site will be impacted by future construction it should be monitored and tested to determine the site's eligibility status. The THC and the COSA OHP concurred with this recommendation.

CAR recommended that five sites are not eligible for inclusion to the National Register. These sites are 41BX2163 (San Antonio Streetcar System), 41BX2165 (Bexar County Courthouse), 41BX2166 (Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon), 41BX2202 (Devine Building), and 41BX2203. All have been significantly impacted by previous construction,

which affected their integrity, and none contained features (e.g., a midden) or significant artifact assemblages that would add to the understanding of history in the area. The lack of

intact deposits and contributing assemblages on these sites suggest there is little potential for further research. The THC and the COSA OHP concurred with this recommendation.

Table 10-1. Findings of DTSR-Main/Soledad Archaeological Monitoring

Sites	Name or Description	Level of Work	NRHP Status or Recommendation
41BX337	San Pedro Acequia	Documentation	Listed as Eligible*
41BX2163	San Antonio Streetcar System	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2164	Veramendi site	Documentation and Testing	Recommended Eligible
41BX2165	Bexar County Courthouse	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2166	Jack Harris Vaudeville Theatre and Saloon	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2170	Spanish Colonial/Wolfson Building	Documentation and Testing	Recommended Eligible
41BX2201	Spanish Colonial	Documentation	Indeterminate
41BX2202	Devine Building	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible
41BX2203	Second-hand store/Salvation Army	Documentation	Recommended Not Eligible

*Site 41BX337 (the San Pedro Acequia) is listed as eligible to the National Register

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Bexar County Commissioners Court

1872 Purchase of Alamo Lodge Masonic Building. October 3. 3-A:351.

Bexar County Deed Records (BCDR)

Year	Vol./Page	Day/Mon.	Instrument	Grantor	Grantee
1835	J1:250-251	5 Jun.	Deed	N. Flores and D. Garza	P. Martinez
1838	E1:169	3 Mar.	Deed	Antonia Santos	Juan de Veramendi
1838	F1:110-112	6 Mar.	Deed	Francisco Arocha	M. Castillo-Yturri
1838	F1:220-221	20 Mar.	Deed	Antonia Castro	Juan F. de Veramendi
1840	A2:332-333	3 Mar.	Deed	Juan Zambrano	Erasmus Seguin
1841	A2:428	6 Jun.	Deed	R. de la Garza	W.J. Riddle
1841	A2:442	18 Jun.	Sheriff	J.A. Zambrano	Edward Dwyer
1847	F2:82-83	14 Apr.	Deed	M.T. Veramendi y Cantu	Jesus Cantu, Sr.
1847	G1:43-44	21 Dec.	Lease	J.W. Phillip	A. Dignowity
1848	G1:343-344	28 Jul.	Deed	Jesus Cantu, Sr.	M.A. Veramendi
1850	H1:501	4 Jan.	Deed	M.A. Veramendi	J.F. Casiano
1851	J2:386-387	3 Nov.	Deed	J. Travieso	S. Smith
1851	K1:338	8 Dec.	Deed	M. Menchaca et al.	N. Lewis
1852	K1:545-546	3 Mar.	Deed	L. Treviño	Sam Smith
1852	P1:310-311	22 Aug.	Deed	L. Treviño	Sam Smith
1853	J2:552-553	10 Jun.	Lease	City of San Antonio	U.S. Govt.
1853	L1:486-487	11 Oct.	Deed	Huizar & Higgenbotham	Asa Mitchell
1854	L2:308-309	24 Feb.	Lease	C. de la Garza	H.F. Oswald
1854	M2:129-130	20 Jun.	Deed	G. and M. Martinez	William McHenry
1854	M2:130-131	21 Jun.	Deed	G. and M. Martinez	S.C. Childress et al.
1854	M1:329-330	6 Oct.	Deed	N. Lewis	R. Sappington
1854	M2:430-432	3 Nov.	Deed	G. and M. Martinez	José Casiano
1856	N2:155	25 Jan.	Deed	José Casiano	Isaac Leightner
1857	O2:473-474	7 Mar.	Deed	Isaac Leightner	B. Sappington
1857	P1:185	30 Jun.	Lease	Asa Mitchell	U.S. Govt.
1857	P2:246-247	22 Oct.	Deed	Sam Smith	G.T. Howard
1858	P2:508-509	16 Feb.	Deed	G.T. Howard	Alamo Lodge No. 44
1858	R2:275-277	14 Mar.	Mech. Lein	J.H. Kampmann et al.	Alamo Lodge No. 44
1858	R1:15-16	24 Jun.	Agreement	Sam Smith	Alamo Lodge No. 44
1858	R2:362-364	23 Nov.	Deed	B. Sappington	Edward Higgins
1860	H2:497-498	5 May	Deed	Sam Smith	G.T. Howard
1864	T1:207-208	20 May	Deed	L. and I. Moke	Teoora Hamel
1864	T1:272-273	8 Sep.	Deed	B. Sappington	W.D. Cotton
1866	U1:136	14 Mar.	Deed	G.T. Howard	S. Dauenhauer
1866	T2:593-594	14 Mar.	Bill of Sale	W.D. Cotton	Alfred M. Cotton
1866	T2:627-628	21 Mar.	Bill of Sale	W.D. Cotton	Alfred M. Cotton
1866	U1:42-44	25 May	Division	Asa Mitchell Estate	Heirs of A. Mitchell
1868	U2:379-380	11 Mar.	Deed	H.A. Mitchell	Jospeh Dwyer
1868	U1:443	23 May	Deed	S. Dauenhauer	G.S. Deats
1868	U1:453	4 Jun.	Cert. Will	Louisa Luna	J. Travieso
1869	T3:344-345	21 Jan.	Mortgage	Alamo Lodge No. 44	A.B. Frank
1869	T3:364-365	24 Mar.	Deed of Trust	Alamo Lodge No. 44	P.H. Groesbeek

1869 V1:243-244	6 Oct.	Deed	Wallace Mitchell	Ross Kennedy
1870 W1:21-22	30 Dec.	Deed	G.T. Howard Estate	T.J. Devine
1872 W1:436-437	18 Jan.	Deed	G.S. Deats	T.J. Devine
1872 X1:112-114	9 Sep.	Agreement	Alamo Lodge No. 44	Bexar County
1872 X1:115-116	9 Sep.	Agreement	T.J. Devine	Bexar County
1873 X1:285-286	3Apr.	Deed	P. Sharedin	A. Carle
1873 X1:284-285	5 Apr.	Deed	W.D. Cotton, Estate	P. Sharedin
1873 X1:333-334	31 May	Deed	P. Sharedin	E. Cotton
1874 X1:543-545	17 Mar.	Agreement	M. and E.G. Yturri Castillo	L. Wolfson
1874 4:30-31	22 Sep.	Deed	M.A. Maverick	Maverick Heirs
1877 7:149	12 Mar.	Deed	S. Dauenhauer	T.J. Devine
1875 4:264	5 Oct.	Mech. Lein	C. Schroeder	Ross Kennedy
1875 A:31-32	7 Oct.	Mech. Lein	E. Niggle	Ross Kennedy
1877 7:391-392	12 Dec.	Contract	Schram and Co.	E. Elliot
1878 5:515-518	10 Jan.	Plat	W.H. Maverick	W.H. Maverick
1878 13:51-52	26 Sep.	Deed	M. and E.G. Yturri Castillo	L. Wolfson
1879 9:482	23 Oct.	Deed	E. Cotton	Andre Carle
1882 22:479-481	10 Mar.	Agreement	E. Elliot	M. and E.G. Yturri Castillo
1882 23:89-91	15 May	Deed	Joseph Carle	Andre Carle
1882 19:635-637	3 Oct.	Deed	H. Laager Estate	J.H. James
1883 26:245	21 Apr.	Lease, Deed	J.E. Dwyer	W.H. Maverick
1883 26:377	5 Jul.	Deed	A. Maverick	J.H. Kampmann
1884 32:516-517	6 Feb.	Agreement	R. and M.E. Howard	T.J. Devine
1884 32:577-578	23 Feb.	Agreement	R. and M.E. Howard	W.H. Maverick
1886 44:369-371	27 Jan.	Deed	M. and E.G. Yturri Castillo	L. Wolfson
1888 39:374	6 Feb.	Deed	J.H. James	L.E. Caldwell
1889 67:490	18 May	Deed	M.G. Trueheart	W.P. Anderson
1889 73:404	20 Aug.	Deed	Andre Carle	L. Wolfson
1892 102:435-436	11 May	Agreement	Ross Kennedy	W.H. Maverick
1894 128:536	21 Feb.	Deed	T.P. McCall	L. Kumkel
1896 158:186-188	28 Sep.	Deed	G.W. Russ	J.W. Brown and H. Stone
1900 184:542-544	9 Oct.	Deed	A. Caldwell	F.F. Collins
1907 267:52-53	12Mar.	Deed	L. Wolfson	J.M. Kincaid
1907 264:419-422	9 Apr.	Deed	Bexar County	Harry Landa
1909 309:104-106	30 Mar.	Deed	L.J. Harst	L.B. Clegg
1909 309:125-127	1 Apr.	Deed	E. Wolfson	O.D. Woestman
1909 302:410-412	13 Aug.	Deed	Harry Landa	L.G. Collins
1910 331:588-589	21 Mar.	Deed	J.N. Brown	Edwin Rand
1910 334:269-271	12 May	Deed	Jane Kennedy	M.S. Wright et al.
1910 344:566-567	1 Dec.	Deed	M.S. Wright et. al.	A. Rompel
1912 382:300-301	17 Feb.	Deed	A. Rompel	D.A. Paulus and M.S. Kahn

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1914 439:157-158	30 Apr.	Deed	W.H. Maverick	City of San Antonio
1914 441:517-518	23 Jul.	Deed	J.M. Kincaid	City of San Antonio
1914 448:51	23 Sep.	Deed	L.B. Clegg	City of San Antonio
1914 443:373-374	23 Oct.	Agreement	L.B. Clegg	Adolph Groos
1915 448:255-256	22 Jan.	Deed	L.B. Clegg	J.G. Lentz
1915 454:136-137	8 Feb.	Deed	A. Kronkowsky	City of San Antonio
1916 490:543-546	6 Oct.	Agreement	A. Kronkowsky et al.	Commerical L and T Co.
1917 525:36-38	8 Nov.	Deed	Ada Waelder	J.H. Frost
1917 524:221-223	18 Dec.	Deed	J.J. Frost	M. Adelman
1918 533:4-6	19 Feb.	Cancellation	L.B. Clegg et al.	J.M. Montemayor et al.
1918 531:256-258	28 Mar.	Deed	L.B. Clegg	W.D. Glasscock
1918 541:541-543	4 Oct.	Deed	F. Glasscock	L.B. Clegg
1919 564:503-504	21 Jun.	Release	F. Oppenheimer	M. Adelman
1919 441:517-518	23 Jul.	Deed	J.M. Kincaid	City of San Antonio
1920 591:581-583	31 Mar.	Deed	Frank Pagel et al.	D.A. Paulus and M.S. Kahn
1920 16:601-602	15 Dec.	Judgement	F. Glasscock	L.B. Clegg
1921 624:420-422	3 Feb.	Deed	G.M. Smith et al.	D.A. Paulus and M.S. Kahn
1923 737:277-280	23 Aug.	Lease	D.K. Furnish	F.W. Woolworths and Co.
1924 789:465-467	1 Nov.	Deed	Commerical L and T Co.	Solo Serve Imp. Co.
1924 796:194-198	1 Nov.	Deed of Trust	Solo Serve Imp. Co.	Commerical L and T Co.
1925 799:366-368	2 Jan.	Deed	L.B. Clegg	Solo Serve Imp. Co.
1927 933:614-615	28 Feb.	Deed	D.A. Paulus and M.S. Kahn	Solo Serve Imp. Co.
1927 933:615-618	28 Feb.	Deed	D.A. Paulus and M.S. Kahn	Solo Serve Imp. Co.
1927 976:290	7 Oct.	Deed	Henry Laager	Josephine Frost
1928 1007:464-467	12 Mar.	Lease	M.S. Khan Estate	L. Cristol
1936 1559:322-324	9 Nov.	Lease	Main Plaza Corporation	F.W. Woolworths and Co.
1946 2213:333-335	11 Mar.	Deed	F. Kahn-Cohn	Carl A. Bafaro
1960 4507:216-217	23 Sep.	Deed	E.B. Rowan	SA Printing Company
1962 4801:268-270	26 Jul.	Subordination	E.B. Rowan	Broadfels Inc.
1967 5845:52-65	16 Oct.	Deed of Trust	Charles H. Tupper	James Delaney
1979 1706:433-435	2 Oct.	Deed	Macro Investors JV#2	Main Plaza Corporation
1981 2457:117-121	6 Nov.	Deed	Main Plaza Corporation	T.F. Glass, Jr.

Bexar Spanish Archives (BSA)

The archives are held in San Antonio.

Year	Vol./Page	Date	Instrument Type	Description
1738	C215, V10F7:14-18	22 Mar.	Deed	Manuel De Niz to José Antonio Bueno de Rojas
1777	V2:148	3 Oct.	Deed	Joachin Menchaca to Antonio de los Barcena
1780	2:43	Oct.	Deed	Arocha Heirs to Juan de Arocha. October 1780. Deed. 2:43.

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**Appendix A:
The Battle of Béxar**

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The Battle of Béxar

by Richard L. Curilla

Introduction

In the early 1820s, Texas was part of Mexico's Eastern Internal Provinces in the northernmost state of Coahuila-y-Tejas, Mexico had won its independence from Spain in 1821, and Stephen Fuller Austin as well as other colonizers from the United States had gained permission from the new Mexican government to establish colonies of Anglo-Americans in Texas. In spite of minor conflicts, this movement had proven successful, and relative peace existed.

In 1833, Austin was sent to Mexico City with a petition for separate statehood, establishing the boundaries between Texas and Coahuila as the Medina and Nueces Rivers. The Texians (as the Anglo-Americans called themselves), who were now Mexican citizens, and the Tejanos (the native population of Mexican descent) had been promised separate statehood once their population reached 20,000. This was now believed to be the case, and Austin was the man chosen to present their request.

Unfortunately, the growing instability of the Mexican government created unexpected hurdles. On his way back to Texas from an unsuccessful meeting with President Santa Anna, Austin, in a move of uncharacteristic carelessness, wrote a letter to the *ayuntamiento* (town council) of San Antonio de Béxar urging the formation of a provisional government without consent of the capital. This was too much for the local Tejano officials. The letter was sent south, and Austin was captured and placed in Mexico City's infamous Inquisition Prison.

During Austin's imprisonment, unrest in Texas had greatly increased. By the last half of 1835, Anglos had polarized into two opposing groups, referred to as the War Party and the Peace Party, with no middle ground. The Tejanos had tried to stay out of it, but many were liberal federalists who were against President Santa Anna's centralist leanings. Finally, Austin was released under a general amnesty law, and he returned to Texas. All sides looked to him again for leadership. In a circular dated September 18, 1835, the most patient and peaceful diplomat in Texas announced his conclusion: "War is our only resource. There is no other remedy but to defend our rights, ourselves, and our country, but by force of arms. To do this, we must unite...."¹

While this revolt would ultimately become the "Texas War of Independence" after a formal declaration on March 2, 1836, at this point Texians and Tejanos were simply defending their rights under the Mexican Constitution of 1824. This federalist document had been patterned after that of the United States. However, by this time, President Santa Anna had already torn up the constitution, closed the national congress and established a centralist government.

The state of Zacatecas immediately rebelled against Santa Anna, who then marched north to quell the revolt with military force. In the battle that followed – and the two days of rape and pillage he allowed his army as reward – he allegedly killed over 2,000 Mexicans. Following the defeat of the federalist forces in Zacatecas, General Martín Perfecto de Cós, the commander of the Eastern Internal Provinces and the brother-in-law to Santa Anna was sent to garrison San Antonio de Béxar to restore order.²

As news of General Cós's arrival spread across Texas, and after a first stand-off against Mexican troops near Gonzales on October 2, an Anglo militia was formed and dubbed the "Army of the People." Stephen Austin was immediately elected commander-in-chief, and they marched to engage Cós at San Antonio de Béxar (commonly called Béxar). On the way, this little army was joined by several companies of federalist Tejanos that had been quickly formed by Juan Seguín, Plácido Benavides, and Salvador Flores from young men in the San Antonio River valley and Victoria. After their first successful battle at a bend in the San Antonio River three-tenths of a mile northwest of Mission Concepción, Austin's army of roughly 600 volunteer militia besieged Béxar. Cós had close to 750 men and had fortified *Plaza de las Islas* and *Plaza de Armas* in town as well as the Alamo (formerly Mission *San Antonio de Valero*) across the river, emplacing nearly two dozen light artillery pieces behind breastworks and fortifications.³

Austin's army, reinforced by three volunteer companies from the United States, camped on the west bank of the San Antonio River at the Zambrano Sugar Mill (a.k.a. the Old Mill and Molino Blanco)⁴ 1,700 yards up-river from *Plaza de las Islas*. They

¹ John H. Jenkins, general editor, *The Papers of the Texas Revolution 1835-1836* Vol. 1 (Austin: Presidial Press, 1973), 456.

² Richard L. Curilla, "The Battle for Béxar-1835 (Part 1)." *The Alamo Journal* #176 (August 2015), 10.

³ *Ibid.*, 13-17; and Alwyn Barr, *Texans in Revolt – The Battle for San Antonio, 1835* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1990), 23, 67.

⁴ The site of the Old Mill was on the grounds of today's Providence Catholic High School on N. St. Mary's Street.

were forced, due to the strong fortifications facing them, to settle in for a long siege rather than a quick victory. This dragged on for a month, greatly disillusioning the volunteers. Then Austin was called away to serve as diplomat to the United States tasked with raising money for the war, and Edward Burleson was elected commander-in-chief. By December 4th, after two shelved plans to attack the plazas, Burleson decided to retire the army to winter camp at Gonzales and Goliad. This decision infuriated the men to the point of mutiny. Ben Milam, an enigmatic officer in past campaigns, called for volunteers to attack the town with or without Burleson's permission. Immediately, 300 men stepped forward. Burleson then agreed to stay and hold the rest of the men at the mill as a reserve force. The attack was planned for 5:00 A.M. the next morning, December 5, 1835.

The Assault on the Plazas, December 5-9, 1835

The intense battle to capture San Antonio de Béxar from centralist Mexican General Martín Perfecto de Cós began on December 5, 1835, and lasted four days and four nights, a continual 98 hours of action and strife. The attackers (about 300 men including federalist Texian and Tejano volunteers plus three companies of mercenary soldiers from the United States), after more than five weeks of tedious and disillusioning siege warfare, readily agreed to follow Col. Benjamin R. Milam and Col. Francis W. Johnson in a surprise assault on the heavily fortified town plazas, *Plaza de las Islas* and *Plaza de Armas* (later called Main Plaza and Military Plaza). The plazas were defended by the Morelos Infantry Battalion, known even by Texians as the "Invincibles of Mexico." If successful, the assault would breach the Mexican fortifications and capture General Cós's munitions stored in the fortified⁵ San Fernando Church, thus forcing him to surrender. If they failed, they might all be killed.⁶

At 5:00 A.M. on the 5th, Capt. James Clinton Neill opened a diversionary cannonade against the north wall of the Alamo, across the river 600 yards east, occupied by several hundred of General Cós's cavalry and infantry. This enabled Milam and Johnson to sneak their men down Acéquia Street (now Main Avenue) and Soledad Street respectively. Their rush south into town began near the present location of the San Antonio Public Library, perhaps as far down as where Giraud Street crosses Soledad and Main. Within fifteen minutes, they succeeded in capturing the home of José Antonio de la Garza (No. 1, Figure A-1) and the Veramendi Palace (No. 2), both within the CAR project area. Neill's diversion outside the Alamo was successful, allowing the attackers to make it most of the way down the streets without being discovered. Then a Mexican sentry in town spied them, and the cannon emplacements (Nos. 11 and 12), firing from behind entrenched palisade breastworks at the street entrances to *Plaza de las Islas*, began sweeping both streets with canister shot. Col. Johnson's column on Soledad evaded these raking blasts by moving left from the street and advancing through adjacent back yards along the river. Many of Milam's men on Acéquia Street, however, according to DeWitt colonist Richard Chisholm, used a different approach.

Chisolm states that "Our course lay along a ditch [the *Acéquia Principal* coming from San Pedro Springs] about four or five feet deep, and more than half full of water."⁷ When the Mexican cannonade began, "the command was given to fall in the ditch, which was obeyed. Every man jumped into it, up to his hips, in water as cold as ice."⁸ In spite of their discomfort, both houses were captured with little difficulty before daybreak. However, when it got light and their positions were revealed, a general cannonade began from the Alamo on the east, the street batteries on the south, and a three-gun redoubt to the west (No. 13) at the north edge of *Plaza de Armas*.⁹

Now Texians in both houses could observe the plazas at close range. For many, this was their first time in a Spanish Colonial town. Herman Ehrenberg from Germany was fascinated: "We had never seen buildings of this kind before. They were all one-

⁵ John H. Jenkins, general editor, *The Papers of the Texas Revolution 1835-1836* Vol. 2 (Austin: Presidial Press, 1973), 190. This description of the fortifications at San Fernando was given in a letter by James Bowie to Gen. Stephen F. Austin on October 22, 1835, stating that the Mexicans had "removed all their ammunition to it [San Fernando Church], and enclosed it by a wall, made of wood, six feet apart and six feet high, filled with dirt, extending from the corners to the ditch, say sixty yards in length." [Actually about 73 yards when totaling the three sides of the outer palisade fence if measured from the corners of the façade on the author's model.]

⁶ General information in this report is based on: Richard L. Curilla, "The Battle of Béxar - Part 2," *The Alamo Journal* (a publication of The Alamo Society, Issue #177, April 2016); and Alwyn Barr, *Texans in Revolt – The Battle for San Antonio, 1835* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1990).

⁷ Gary S. Zaboly, *An Altar for Their Sons – The Alamo and the Texas Revolution in Contemporary Newspaper Accounts* (Buffalo Gap, Texas: State House Press, 2011), 88. From the "Account of Richard H. Chisholm, *Texian Advocate*, February 20, 1851".

⁸ Gary S. Zaboly, *An Altar for Their Sons – The Alamo and the Texas Revolution in Contemporary Newspaper Accounts* (Buffalo Gap, Texas: State House Press, 2011), 88. From the "Account of Richard H. Chisholm, *Texian Advocate*, February 20, 1851".

⁹ Frank W. Johnson, Edited by Eugene C. Barker, *A History of Texas and Texans* Vol. 1 (Chicago and New York, The American Historical Society, 1914), 354. Here Col. Johnson presents the location of the Mexican street batteries on the plazas. Regarding "Military Plaza" (*Plaza de Armas*), he says, "About midway of this plaza, north boundary, was a redoubt with three guns."

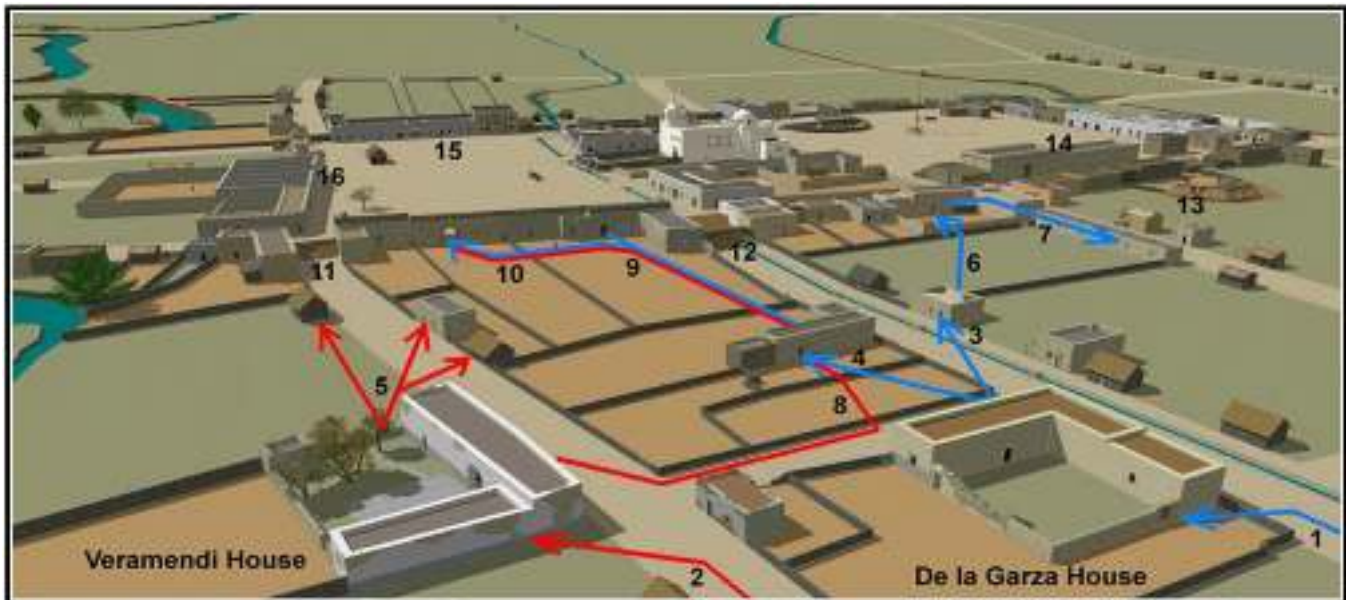


Figure A-1. Main movements of the Texian assault.

Key to Figure:

1. First Division (blue arrows) moves down Acéquia Street and captures the José Antonio de la Garza house.
2. Second Division (red arrows) moves down Soledád Street and captures the Veramendi house.
3. Lt. William McDonald advances with a company and takes a house across Acéquia Street closer to the plazas.
4. Henry Karnes leads a portion of the First Division to a house directly in front of the de la Garza house.
5. Several advances from the Veramendi house capture or burn houses closer to the plaza.
6. Four companies capture the José Antonio Navarro house on the northeast corner of *Plaza de Armas*.
7. The companies in the Navarro house capture Zambrano Row facing a Mexican redoubt (No. 13).
8. Capt. William G. Cooke leads men from the Veramendi house to the house previously captured by Karnes.
9. Together, Karnes and Cooke try to break into the Yturri house on the plaza but are forced left by intense gunfire from roofs and loopholes.
10. They succeed in entering the plaza by way of a semi-barricaded passageway (*zaguan*) through the house of parish priest Refúgio de la Garza. Karnes and Cooke are then forced to fall back into the house due to a Mexican infantry charge across the plaza.
11. Location of a Mexican breastwork and cannon emplacement firing up Soledád Street.
12. Location of a Mexican breastwork and cannon emplacement firing up Acéquia Street.
13. Mexican redoubt with three cannon capable of hitting the whole area north of the plazas.
14. The *cuartel* (old barrack of the *Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar*) occupied by the elite Morélos Battalion during the battle.
15. Erasmo Seguín's house on *Plaza de las Islas* possibly used as Mexican headquarters.
16. The *Casas Reales* (Town Hall), the "consistorial house of Béxar" where surrender terms were drawn up, also possibly Mexican headquarters.

Note: All graphics for this chapter except the D.H. Mahan diagram were created by Richard L. Curilla from his "Virtual San Antonio de Béxar 1835" 3-D model designed in SketchUp. Military figures were custom-made by James Boddie.

story high and were built in the form of a long box.”¹⁰ Their walls were 18 to 20 feet high with unburnt adobe brick breastworks on top adding another two to four feet, depending on the height of the building’s parapet walls above the roof surfaces. These rooftop breastworks were cut with firing slots for fusiliers with muskets.

Volunteer Henry Dance recalled that all were “large stone buildings covered with cement such as no combustible could set on fire and extending from the entrance of one street to another. At the entrance of each street was a ditch 9 feet deep and 15 wide and embankment throwed [sic] on sides of a breastwork and mounted cannon to rake every street....”¹¹

Dr. Joseph E. Field, who was with Johnson’s division in the Veramendi Palace, also described the Mexican street batteries: “At the entrance of every street [to the plazas], with the exception of that leading to the Alamo [either Commerce Street via a footbridge or Market Street via the wagon ford to La Villita], a ditch was dug ten feet wide, five feet deep, raised on the inner side, so as to make an elevation of ten feet. Over this was erected a breast-work of perpendicular posts, with port-holes for muskets, and one in the centre [sic] for cannon.”¹²

The Texians brought two pieces of artillery down Acéquia Street with Milam’s column, a 6-pounder (most likely the one captured at the Battle of Concepción on October 28) and a newly arrived 12-pound gunade (now on display at the Alamo [Figure A-2]). This action is described by Lt. William Ridgeway Carey in a letter written to his brother and sister on January 12, 1836. ¹³ Carey said he was ordered “by a fool” to set the cannons in the middle of the street only 120 yards from the Mexican battery at the south end (Figures A-2, A-3, and A-4). He followed orders in spite of “heavy fires” from the enemy cannon as well as from infantry on the rooftops. The gunade was dismantled by a Mexican cannon shot, but Carey, although slightly wounded, continued loading and firing the 6-pounder with only two helpers. He finally managed to dismantle the enemy cannon “by a lucky shot... into the port-hole of the enemy.” Carey was then forced to abandon both guns in the middle of the street.¹⁴ Overnight, the guns were dragged into the Veramendi Palace.

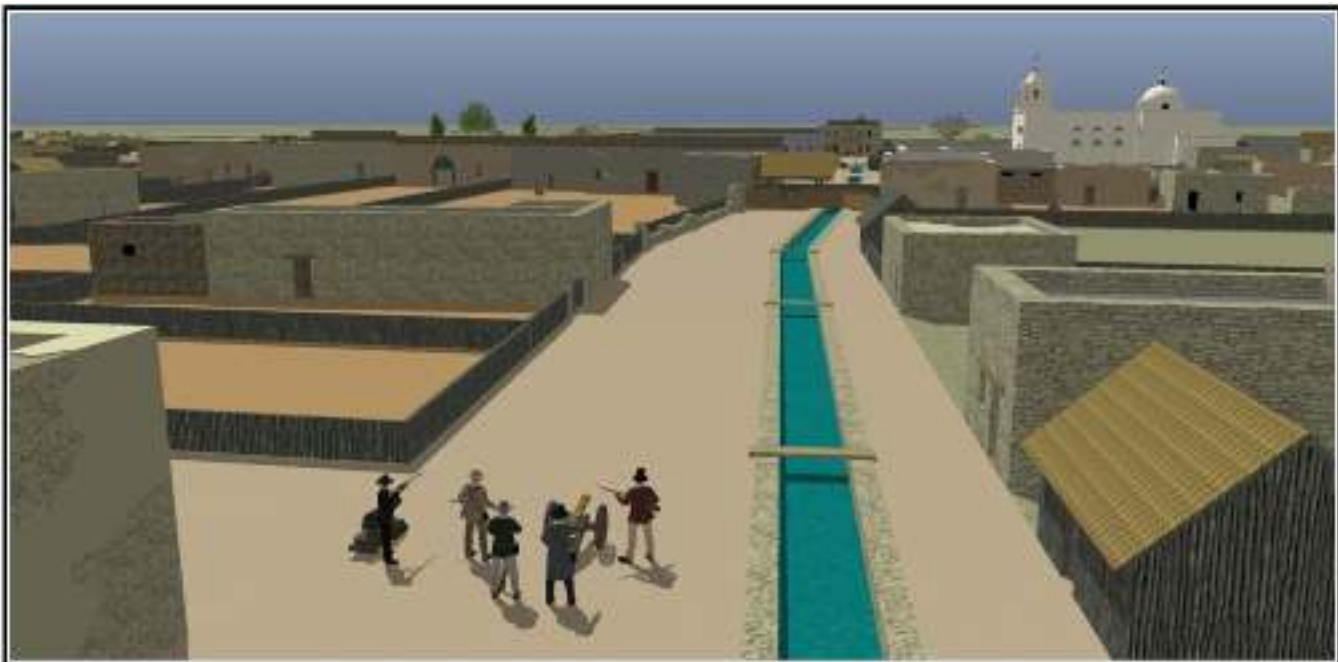


Figure A-2. Lt. Carey’s cannon crew firing at the Mexican battery on Acéquia Street, depicted as a possible “covered” battery. Image from the author’s Battle of Béxar PowerPoint lecture presentation. Military figures were created by James Boddie. Note: The author’s depiction of the San Pedro Acequia in the model is too wide at 6 feet. Recent archaeological digs have revealed it to be about 3.5 feet and probably not edged with stone until later years.

¹⁰ Natalie Ornish, *Ehrenberg: Goliad Survivor, Old West Explorer* (Dallas: Texas Heritage Press, 1993, 1997), 148.

¹¹ Jenkins, *Papers...* Vol. 6, 57. This is in the form of a letter from Henry B. Dance to the “Editor” in Morgan City, Alabama, dated April 25, 1836.

¹² Jenkins, *Papers...*, Vol. 9, 183. From Dr. Field’s account, “Three Years in Texas - Including a View of the Texas Revolution and an Account of the Principal Battles” published in Massachusetts in 1836.

¹³ Jenkins, *Papers...*, Vol. 3, 492. This was in a letter written by William Ridgeway Carey to his brother and sister on January 12, 1836. Carey would later die in the Alamo on March 6.

¹⁴ Jenkins, *Papers...*, Vol. 3, 492. This was in a letter written by William Ridgeway Carey to his brother and sister on January 12, 1836. Carey would later die in the Alamo on March 6.

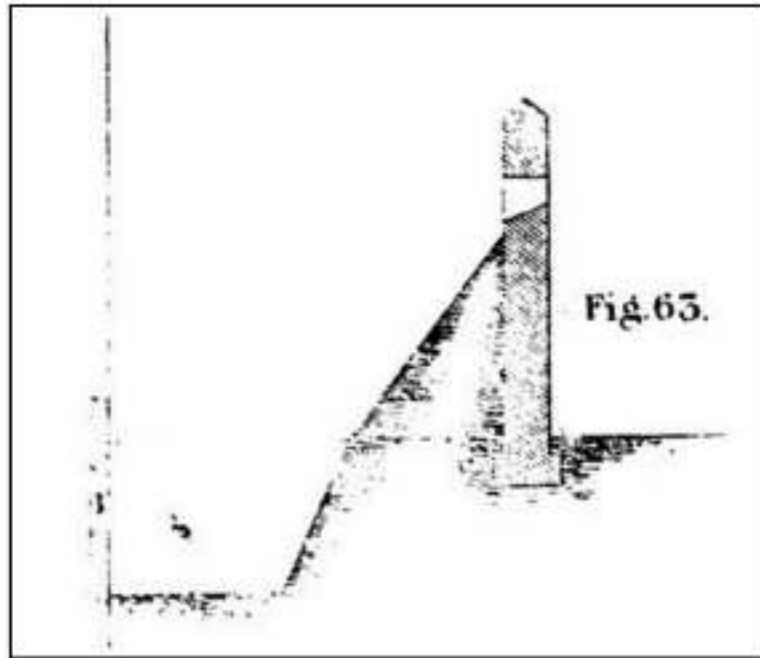


Figure A-3. "Profiles of a defensive walls" from *A Treatise on Field Fortification* by D. H. Mahan (Wiley and Putnam, New York, 1836). Of all the diagrams of field fortifications of the period, this one most closely resembles those on the plazas as described by battle participants, although it depicts a slightly smaller version. The cannon would have been on the right side aimed to the left through a loophole.

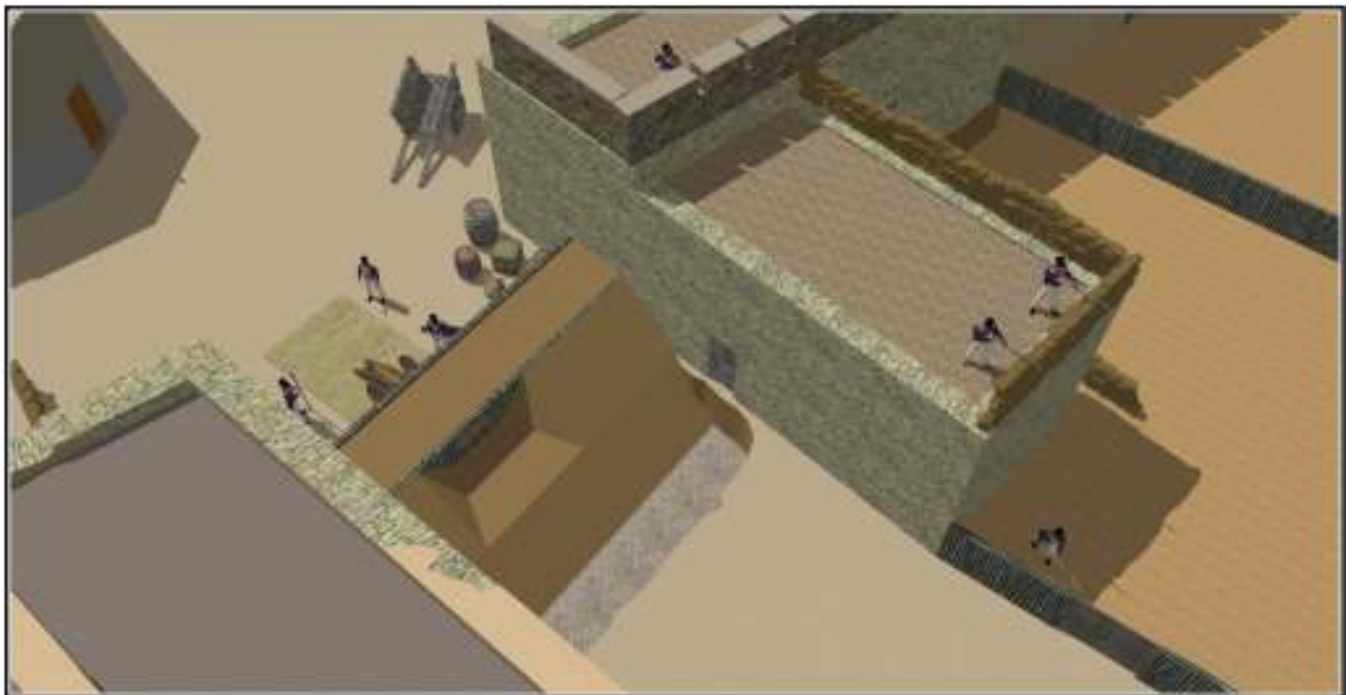


Figure A-4. For the barricades and trenches in this model, the dimensions noted by Dr. Field have been used. In addition, two palisade fences are depicted six feet apart and filled with earth as per James Bowie's description of the church fortifications cited earlier. This barricade blocks the entrance of Soledad Street in the northeast corner of the plaza. The houses flanking the breastwork are the Manuel Barrera house (lower-left), later owned by Sam and Mary Maverick, and the home of Maria Menchaca (center), which was on the site later occupied by a cigar store and the Jack Harris Vaudeville Theater. The house in the upper-left is that of Ramon Músquiz, Béxar's recurring political chief.

Also overnight on the 5th, the Texians dug a trench connecting the de la Garza and Veramendi houses to provide safe passage between the two positions under fire of the enemy. It was most likely located in Veramendi Alley that connected Acéquia and Soledád Streets, crossed Soledád 130 yards downrange of the Mexican battery, and ended at the north end of the Veramendi Palace. Safe access to the house was provided by a hole knocked in the building's north end wall, out of sight of the enemy.

Late in the afternoon of December 6, Lieutenant William McDonald from Milam's division at the de la Garza house led a company of men to capture another house "to the right and in advance" of their position.¹⁵ (No. 3 on the aerial view shows the approximate location of house.) This advanced the Texians' line across Acéquia Street and placed them nearer both plazas. It also gave them important access to the water in the acéquia. Due to the battery at the end of this street, another ditch was dug for a protected crossing.

On December 7, a second advance (No. 4) was made from the de la Garza house. This was spontaneously led by Henry Wax Karnes of Capt. York's company. The goal was to capture a house south of Veramendi Alley. The house was occupied by enemy soldiers who had moved up from the buildings on the plaza and were now firing at the Texians from only 35 yards away. While not mentioned by name in any accounts of the battle, this may have been the house of Manuel Menchaca based upon its location and orientation.

During these two days, the Texians and Tejanos in the Veramendi Palace also made advances (No. 5). Inspired by Lt. McDonald's sally on the sixth, they began to capture houses between their position and the plaza. "We wanted to emulate and, if possible, surpass the success of our comrades," remembered Herman Ehrenberg with Capt. Thomas Breece's company of New Orleans Greys.¹⁶ They attacked a stone house across Soledád and closer to the Mexican street battery just as a company of Mississippians arrived from the de la Garza house with the same goal in mind. Breaking in with crowbars, they found it was full of noncombatants (men, women, and children) whom they promptly allowed to return to their homes in the northern part of town.¹⁷ Capt. William G. Cooke took yet another stone house in the same area, thus giving the Texians footholds in at least three positions along Soledád and three on Acéquia. Trenches were dug to connect all these positions. Any *jacaes* (houses built of mud-chinked vertical posts and roofed with *tule*, a river grass) between the Texian and enemy positions were promptly burned.

After the shocking and demoralizing death of leader Ben Milam on the afternoon of December 7, Capt. Robert Morris, who replaced Milam as commander of the men in the de la Garza house, decided that an action was needed to boost morale. At 10:00 P.M., as a Texas norther blew in with cold rain, he led four companies (No. 6) from the house on Acéquia Street and captured the home of Angel and José Antonio Navarro located on the northeast corner of *Plaza de Armas*. This successful action provided a stepping stone that allowed them to capture Zambrano Row (No. 7) to the north along the east side of N. Flores St in the morning. This last move gave the Texians a long front facing the three-cannon Mexican redoubt (No. 13) only 175 feet west. Over the next few hours, they were able to sustain a heavy cannonade and were reinforced by four more companies sent by Col. Johnson from the Veramendi Palace. These two new positions enabled them to threaten the *cuartel* (No. 14), the barrack of the old *Presidio de San Antonio de Béxar*, which was now occupied by part of the Morélos Battalion, and also gave them the opportunity to shoot into *Plaza de Armas*. The next chore was to similarly breach *Plaza de las Islas*.¹⁸

On the evening of December 8th, the Texians decided to capture one of the buildings on the north side of *Plaza de las Islas*. Herman Ehrenberg explained, "This would enable us to gain control of the church depot in the middle of the square, and as this military magazine was the key to the city, if it fell into our hands San Antonio would be ours."¹⁹ Around midnight, Capt. William G. Cooke leading a company of New Orleans Greys (No. 8) proceeded from the Veramendi house to the de la Garza house where they were joined by Capt. William Patton's company with John W. Smith as guide. They rushed across Veramendi Alley to the Manuel Menchaca house taken by Henry Karnes the day before. The goal was to capture the Yturri house, 85 yards in front of Menchaca's.²⁰

¹⁵ Jenkins, *Papers...*, Vol. 3, 161. This is the after-action report of Col. Johnson to General Burleson written on December 11, 1835.

¹⁶ "Sons of Dewitt Colony" Website: www.tamu.edu/faculty/ccbn/dewitt/ehrenberg.htm

¹⁷ "Sons of Dewitt Colony" Website: www.tamu.edu/faculty/ccbn/dewitt/ehrenberg.htm

¹⁸ Jenkins, *Papers...*, Vol. 3, 162-162 (Col. Johnson's after-action report of December 11, 1835); Barr, *Texas in Revolt...*, 51; Vicente Filisola, *Memoirs for the History of the War in Texas* Vol. II, translated by Wallace Woolsey (Austin: Eakin Press, 1987 - original published in Mexico in 1848), 90.

¹⁹ "Sons of Dewitt Colony" Website: www.tamu.edu/faculty/ccbn/dewitt/ehrenberg.htm

²⁰ The Yturri house would, in 2 1/2 months, become Santa Anna's headquarters during the Siege of the Alamo.

The norther had let up, and the moonlight was very bright. As they bolted toward the back door of the house (No. 9), Mexican fusiliers opened up on them firing muskets from rooftops and from inside houses through loopholes in the walls. Cannon from the 3-gun redoubt to the west also sent blasts their way. They slammed into the Yturri door, but it would not budge. Cooke then led them to the left (No. 10) along the backs of the buildings, until they came to the rear entrance to the house of parish priest Refugio de la Garza. This arched doorway was a *zaguan* like that of the Veramendi Palace (a passageway going completely through the building), and it led directly to the plaza. Unfortunately, its north entrance was “barricaded up to the arch,” according to Cooke, by a stone wall “which was higher than our heads and left a space hardly sufficient to admit one man at a time.”²¹ Undaunted, they scrambled over, through the *zaguan* and out into the plaza.

An immediate infantry charge by part of the Morélos Battalion with fixed bayonets ordered by Col. Nicolas Condelle forced them back inside the house, where they captured Padre de la Garza and his family. The Greys fortified the entrance and windows “but very imperfectly,” according to Cooke, “using our blankets, shirts, the library of the priest &c for that purpose.”²²

Lt. Col. José Juan Sánchez-Navarro was ordered by Condelle to set up a 4-pounder cannon and an 8-inch howitzer in the churchyard of San Fernando among the tombstones of the church’s *camposanto* (cemetery) to fire on the priest’s house only 85 yards away. This cannonade and bombardment continued for most of the night.

Then, at daybreak, the beleaguered men in the priest’s house realized Cós’s men had been pulling out in the dark. Learning that the plazas had been breached, Cós had ordered a total retreat across the river to the Alamo, removing all troops and artillery from the plaza except the 4-pounder in the churchyard. Having had insurmountable problems of his own, he had finally raised a white flag over the Alamo and, by 7:00 A.M. of December 9, Lt. Col. Sánchez-Navarro returned to *Plaza de las Islas* with Lt. Francisco Rada and local political chief Ramon Músquiz to request a capitulation, which was granted.²³

Now the Texians and Tejanos could relax. They had achieved their goal. Volunteer Henry Dance, like others who had been cooped up in houses with cannonballs pounding their walls for four days and nights, wandered freely around town. “After the surrender,” remembered Dance, “everything looked miserable.”²⁴ He observed dead animals lying about, heaps of dirt, stone and ashes from burnt fences, and “cannon balls and shot of every description thick on the ground with the plastering shot off the outside of the walls of the houses we were in.”²⁵

But Béxar was a Tejano community, and many of the Tejanos in the attack force (some residents of the town) must have experienced feelings that had little to do with their victory. Many homes had been damaged by both armies. Regarding that of Padre Refugio de la Garza, Lt. Col. Sanchez-Navarro, who had just directed the final night’s bombardment, said in his diary entry for December 9, “This worthy cleric has suffered a lot and the only thing he has left is the house which I almost leveled last night.”²⁶

For the rest of the day plus all the next, Texians, Tejanos, and Mexicans battered out the terms of General Cós’s capitulation in the “consistorial house of Béxar,” according to General Filisola’s memoirs.²⁷ This would be the *Casas Reales* (No. 16) on *Plaza de las Islas*. Col. Johnson read the terms to the volunteers on the plaza at 11:00 A.M. December 11, they agreed, and General Cós withdrew his army beyond the Rio Grande.

Aftermath

General Burlison left the army on December 15, placing Col. Johnson in command of the remaining troops. Johnson quickly turned the command of Béxar over to Lt. Col. James C. Neill and led an ill-fated expedition against Matamoras. At least 27 men from the Battle of Béxar would later die in the battle of the Alamo.

²¹ Sons of DeWitt Colony, W.G. Cooke: <http://www.tamu.edu/faculty/ccbn/dewitt/musterbexar8.htm>; Vicente Filisola, *Memoirs...*, 89-91.

²² *Ibid.*

²³ Richard L. Curilla, “The Battle of Béxar - Part 2,” *The Alamo Journal* (a publication of The Alamo Society, Issue #177, April 2016), 19-20.

²⁴ Jenkins, *Papers of the Texas Revolution*, Vol. 6, 62-63. (Dance to Editor in Morgan City, Alabama, April 25, 1836.)

²⁵ Jenkins, *Papers of the Texas Revolution*, Vol. 6, 62-63. (Dance to Editor in Morgan City, Alabama, April 25, 1836.)

²⁶ Sons of Dewitt Colony, *Account of Col. Carlos Sanchez-Navarro Dec 1835, page 6. From Guerra de Tejas, Memorias de un Soldado*. Website: <http://www.tamu.edu/faculty/ccbn/dewitt/musterbexar7.htm>

²⁷ Filisola, *Memoirs for the History of the War in Texas* Vol. II, translated by Wallace Woolsey (Austin: Eakin Press, 1987 - original published in Mexico in 1848), 96.

The Tejanos returned to their homes and ranchos proud they had taken this stand for their rights under the Constitution of 1824. Three months later, however, they would be called upon to rally around a different standard – the flag of Texas independence. This would create for many a division of loyalties, even within families.

Santa Anna, in order to avenge the embarrassing defeat of General Cós, marched his main army north, turned his retreating general around, and recaptured Béxar on February 23, 1836. The Texians, by then under the joint command of Lt. Col. William Barret Travis and Col. James Bowie, fell back into the Alamo and sustained a siege of 12 days and nights. On the morning of the 13th day, March 6, 1836, they were overwhelmed by Santa Anna's army, and all 189 men, including ex-U.S. Congressman David Crockett, were killed or executed.

The fall of the Alamo, and the later execution of more than 300 Texians at Goliad after they had honorably surrendered, so enraged the growing army of Texians and Tejanos commanded by Gen. Sam Houston that they attacked and vanquished Santa Anna in 18 minutes at the Battle of San Jacinto on April 21, 1836. This vengeful victory and the capture of Santa Anna himself the following day won *de facto* independence for Texas.

**Appendix B:
Artifacts Found during the Monitoring for the DTSR-Main/Soledad Project**

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Table B-1. Artifacts from 41BX337, San Pedro Acequia

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n)
41BX337, San Pedro Acequia	Ceramics	annular ware, rim-mocha earthworm pattern (1); Yellow and Green Glaze I (2)
	Metal	pony horseshoe; unidentified eating utensil; nail fragment

Table B-2. Artifacts from 41BX2164, Veramendi Site

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n)
41BX2164, Veramendi Site	Ceramics	stoneware (1)
	Construction	mortar (1); adobe (1); flagstone (1)
	Glass	Dr. J. Hostetter's Stomach Bitters Bottle (1); "Gravitating Stopper Pat.Oct 11 1864" bottle base (1); clear glass (1); green glass (1)
	Lithic Tool	edge modified (1)
	Lithics	debitage (3)
	Metal	gun barrel (1); tack (1)
	Organic	faunal bone: <i>Bos taurus</i> (2)
	Samples	C ¹⁴

Table B-3. Artifacts from 41BX2201

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n)
41BX2201	Ceramics	Yellow and Green Glaze I (1)
	Lithics	core (1); debitage (1); burned rock (1)
	Organic	faunal bone: <i>Bos taurus</i> (2); <i>Gallus gallus</i> (1); very large mammal (1); small mammal (1)

Table B-4. Artifacts from 41BX2170, Specific to Feature 26

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n=)
41BX2170, Feature 26	Ceramics	Goliad (3); Dark Brown Glazed (3); Galera (7); Yellow and Green Glaze I (8); Huejotzingo rim (1); tin-glazed white (2); Puebla Blue on White (1); San Diego Polychrome (2); San Elizario (2); White Majolica rim (1); red burnished (1); Spanish Colonial unglazed rim (1)
	Construction	colonial brick (3); unglazed tile (1); mortar (1); plaster (1)
	Lithics	biface (1); debitage (6); burned rock (13)
	Metal	unidentified copper (1)
	Organic	faunal bone: <i>Bos taurus</i> (14); very large mammal (6); large mammal (1); small mammal (2); shell (2); snail (1); indeterminate (2)
	Sample	C ¹⁴

Table B-5. Artifacts from 41BX2165, Former Bexar County Courthouse

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n)
41BX2165, Former Bexar County Courthouse	Construction	mortar (1); plaster (1); cut limestone (1); glazed tile (1); wood street paver (2)
	Glass	aqua base (1); aqua jar (1); black glass base with pontil scar (1); embossed green glass base with "... VILLE GLAS(S)" and pontil scar (1)
	Organic	faunal bone: very large mammal (1)

Table B-6. Artifacts from 41BX2613, San Antonio Streetcar System

Site	Artifact Type	Description and Count (n=fragments)
41BX2163, San Antonio Streetcar System	Construction	wood shims (2); wood street pavers (3)
	Metal	steel tie base cut from rails

Table B-7. Artifact Collected North of 41BX2166

Site	Artifact Type	Description
Non-site, Immediately North of 41BX2166	Ceramics	stoneware-inkwell

**Appendix C:
Artifacts Found during the Testing of 41BX2164, the Veramendi Site**

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Table C-1. Test Unit 1 41BX2164

Class	Type	Lv 1 (4-10 cm)	Lv 2 (10-20 cm)	Lv 3 (20-30 cm)	Lv 4 (30-40 cm)	Lv 5 (40-50 cm)
ceramics	Native American		4		1	
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Unglazed		3	1	1	
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed		1			
construction	adobe		1614 g		9.6 g	
construction	mortar/plaster			6.1 g		
construction	tile	1	1			
glass	container/vessel		1			
lithics	burned rock				6	0
lithics	debitage		1	1	3	4
metal	firearm parts/bullets		1			
metal	unidentifiable metal		0.8 g			
organic	faunal bone	2	15	6	4	2
organic	shell	0.1 g	0.22 g	0.19 g	0.16 g	2.16 g
person	jewelry		1			

Table C-2. Test Unit 2 41BX2164

Class	Type	Lv 1 (0-10 cm)	Lv 2 (10-20 cm)	Lv 3 (20-30 cm)	Lv 4 (30-40 cm)	Lv 5 (40-50 cm)	Lv 6 (50-70 cm)
ceramics	Native American		2	6	3		
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Unglazed		6	10	5		
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed		1	1	1		
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed			3		2	
construction	mortar/plaster		153 g	162 g	163 g	67 g	
construction	tile		2	2	1	1	1
glass	container/vessel		4	1			
lithics	burned rock			6	2	1	
lithics	debitage		1		6	6	
lithics	tools				1		1
metal	wire		4.5 g				
organic	faunal bone	4	10	16	8	5	5
organic	shell		0.9 g	0.13 g			1.8

Table C-3. Test Unit 3 41BX2164

Class	Type	Lv 1 (4-10 cm)	Lv 2 (10-20 cm)	Lv 3 (20-30 cm)	Lv 4 (30-40 cm)	Lv 5 (40-50 cm)	Lv 6 (50-66 cm)
ceramics	Native American			3	4	2	
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Unglazed			2		2	1
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed			2	9		
ceramics	Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed		1	2	1		
construction	adobe (brick)			4785 g (count of 1)			
construction	mortar/plaster		164 g	172 g	155 g	143 g	
construction	tile fragments		1	13	1	1	
glass	container/vessel			2	1	1	
glass	chimney		4				
glass	flat/window				1		
lithics	burned rock				7	7	
lithics	debitage				2	7	1
lithics	tools			1	1	1	
person	fasteners				1		
metal	cut nails		1	1	2	1	
metal	wire					2.4	
metal	unidentifiable metal		47 g		61 g		
organic	faunal bone	1	9	17	13	8	2
organic	shell		3.36		0.97	1.3	1.1

**Appendix D:
Artifacts Found during the SAL Testing of 41BX2170**

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Table D-1. Test Unit 1

Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
cmbd	24-34	34-44	44-54	54-64	64-74	74-84	84-94	94-104	104-114	
Ceramics										
Native American			1	7						8
Spanish Colonial Unglazed		1	3	6						10
Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed	2	1	5	11						19
Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed	1	1	4	1	1					8
European Earthenware	7	7	1		1					16
European Stoneware	5	1	1							7
European pipe/figurine	1									1
Level Total	16	11	15	25	2	0	0	0	0	69
Construction										
limestone	1	9	22							32
mortar/plaster	4									4
tile	4	4	8							16
Level Total	9	13	30	0	0	0	0	0	0	52
Glass										
container/vessel	81	71	32							184
flat/window	9		1							10
unidentifiable glass shard	1									1
Level Total	91	71	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	195
Lithics										
burned rock		5	1	1	6	3			5	21
debitage			2	11	1	2	1			17
flint				1						1
other ground stone			1							1
other rock/unknown		2			5					7
Level Total	0	7	4	13	12	5	1	0	5	47
Metal										
fastener	1			1						2
nail	4									4
strap	1	3								4
tool	1									1
unidentifiable metal	1	12	18							31
Level Total	8	15	18	1	0	0	0	0	0	42

Table D-1. Test Unit 1, continued....

Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
cmbd	24-34	34-44	44-54	54-64	64-74	74-84	84-94	94-104	104-114	
Organic										
faunal bone	14	23	16	13	7					73
shell			1							1
Level Total	14	23	17	13	7	0	0	0	0	74
Personal										
jewelry		1								1
slate fragment, writing	1									1
Level Total	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Grand Total	139	141	117	52	21	5	1	0	5	481

Table D-2. Test Unit 2

Level	1	Bulk	Total
cmbd	42-54	24-64	
Ceramics			
Chinese Porcelain		1	1
European Earthenware	12	4	16
Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed	1	5	6
Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed		3	3
Spanish Colonial Unglazed		5	5
Level Total	13	18	31
Construction			
limestone	2		2
sandstone		16	16
tile	28	7	35
Level Total	30	23	53
Glass			
chimney	3		3
container/vessel	60	19	79
flat/window	7		7
Level Total	70	19	89
Lithics			
burned rock		5	5
debitage	1	8	9
edge modified	1		1
other rock/unknown	2		2
Level Total	4	13	17
Metal			
nail	12		12
unidentifiable metal	21	1	22
Level Total	33	1	34
Organic			
faunal bone	5	12	17
shell	3		3
Level Total	8	12	20
Grand Total	158	86	244

Table D-3. Test Unit 3

Level	1	2	3	Bulk	Total
cmbd	44-54	54-64	64-68	24-64	
Ceramics					
European Earthenware	21	2	1	3	27
European Stoneware			1		1
Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed	1			1	2
Spanish Colonial Unglazed				1	1
Level Total	22	2	2	5	31
Construction					
limestone	1			5	6
mortar/plaster	2		1		3
tile	9	16		3	28
Level Total	12	16	1	8	37
Glass					
container/vessel	54	17	5	2	78
Level Total	54	17	5	2	78
Lithics					
burned rock				2	2
debitage	1			1	2
other rock/unknown	1			5	6
Level Total	2	0	0	8	10
Metal					
nail	17	5			22
unidentifiable metal	2	1	5	9	17
Level Total	19	6	5	9	39
Organic					
faunal bone	2	4	2	5	13
shell	1				1
Level Total	3	4	2	5	14
Personal					
button	1				1
Level Total	1	0	0	0	1
Grand Total	113	45	15	37	210

Table D-4. Test Unit 4

Level	1	2	Auger	Sample	Total
cmbd	61-74	74-84			
Ceramics					
European Earthenware	4	16			20
European Porcelain		1			1
Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed	2	5			7
Spanish Colonial Tin Glazed	1	1			2
Spanish Colonial Unglazed		1			1
Level Total	7	24	0	0	31
Construction					
flagstone	1				1
mortar/plaster	6	5		1	12
tile	12	1			13
Level Total	19	6	0	1	26
Glass					
container/vessel	1	29			30
flat/window	1				1
Level Total	2	29	0	0	31
Lithics					
burned rock		1	1		2
other rock/unknown		2			2
Level Total	0	3	1	0	4
Metal					
nail	2				2
unidentifiable metal	5	1			6
Level Total	7	1	0	0	8
Organic					
faunal bone	1	9			10
Level Total	1	9	0	0	10
Grand Total	36	72	1	1	110

Table D-5. Feature 7 Column

Level	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total
cmbd	30-40	49-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	90-100	100-110	110-120	120-130	130-140	140-150	
Ceramics													
European Earthenware			2	1									3
European Porcelain						1							1
Spanish Colonial Lead Glazed					2	1							3
Level Total	0	0	2	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	7
Construction													
brick													
tile	1												1
Level Total	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Glass													
container/vessel	2	4	3	2	4	2			1	2			20
flat/window		1	1			1							3
Level Total	2	5	4	2	4	3	0	0	1	2	0	0	23
Lithics													
biface/uniface										1			1
burned rock	1		3	5	6	7	8	12	6	6	6	9	69
debitage				2	3		5	3	5	4	1	3	26
edge modified										1			1
other rock/unknown		1	1										2
Level Total	1	1	4	7	9	7	13	15	11	12	7	12	99
Metal													
unidentifiable metal	2	1											3
Level Total	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Organic													
faunal bone			4	4	3	1							12
shell				1		1		1	1	2			6
Level Total	0	0	4	5	3	2	0	1	1	2	0	0	18
Grand Total	6	7	14	15	18	14	13	16	13	16	7	12	151