Southern Athapaskan Archeology

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This chapter deals with those archeological sites in the Southwest that have been identified, or provisionally identified, as Southern Athapaskan, excluding those identified as Navajo. Navajo archeology is treated separately in volume 10 and Apachean archeology east and north of New Mexico is dealt with in volume 13. Primary concern here is with sites in northeastern New Mexico because it is there that the most Apache archeology has been done; elsewhere in the Southwest, Apache archeology has received little attention.

Arrival in the Southwest

The Athapaskans probably arrived in the Southwest in the early 1500s. Pedro de Castañeda, one of Francisco Vásquez de Coronado's men, learned from Pueblo Indians (probably at Pecos Pueblo) that a group called Teyas had first appeared in the area some 16 years before 1540 as marauders who had unsuccessfully attacked Pecos and other Pueblos. When their attack failed, these people made peace with the Pueblos, departed for the Plains, and became important traders of plains products to the Pueblos (Winship 1896:524; Hammond and Rey 1940:258). Coronado met Teyas and Querechos on the Plains beyond Pecos and described both groups as highly mobile dog-nomad bison-hunters who lived in sewed skin tents. The Querechos have long been accepted by scholars as Athapaskans, and D. Gunnerson (1974:17-23), on the basis of linguistic leads provided by Hodge (Mooney 1898:245) and Harrington (1940:512) plus ethnohistorical evidence, has reasoned that the Teyas were also Athapaskans. Furthermore, Bandelier (1890-1892, 2:116-120) collected at Santo Domingo a legend that matched in detail Castañeda's account of the Teyas laying seige to Pecos and destroying various other Pueblos; however, in the Santo Domingo version, it was the Kirauash (Querechos?) who were the raiders. The combined weight of history, oral tradition, and linguistic evidence, plus the fact that archeologists have failed to locate any Apachean sites that can be reliably dated earlier than 1525, or even that early, make a convincing case for an early sixteenth-century Athapaskan arrival in the Southwest. An idea that was once seriously considered and is still not ruled out by some writers (Jett 1964; "Navajo Prehistory and History to 1850," vol. 10) is that Athapaskans might have arrived in the Southwest as early as A.D. 1000 and might have been responsible, at least in part, for the abandonment of many Pueblo sites in the 1100s and 1200s. Since there is no evidence for the presence of Athapaskans in the Southwest before the 1500s, such ideas lie in the realm of speculation.

The previous homeland of the Southern Athapaskans was almost certainly west-central Canada, where their closest linguistic relatives live. Clues to the time of split between the Northern and Southern Athapaskans and the subsequent differentiation of the Southern group are provided by lexicostatistical data presented by Hoijer (1956, 1971). He suggests that the Southern and Northern groups split well within the past 1,000 years and identifies two Southern Athapaskan linguistic groups: Kiowa Apachean, restricted to the Kiowa Apache, and Southwestern Apachean, which includes all the rest. The second he in turn divides into two groups, separating Jicarilla and Lipan from the others. He also finds that Kiowa Apachean shares with Jicarilla and Lipan some phonetic similarities that it does not share with the other Southwestern Apachean dialects. Furthermore, one of Opler's (1938:383) Jicarilla informants said of the Kiowa Apache, "They speak our language; the language is just about the same." These linguistic relationships are entirely compatible with the ethnohistorical and archeological reconstructions presented by Gunnerson and Gunnerson (1971) and D. Gunnerson (1974, but see "Historical Linguistics and Archeology," this volume, for a different view). In brief, they suggest that the Apacheans arrived in the Southwest as a more or less homogeneous group with the ancestors of the Jicarilla, Lipan, and Kiowa Apaches remaining to the east of the others, and maintaining a Plains orientation. Until the 1720s the Apacheans were all in contact (not always friendly) with one another and probably had at least tenuous contacts with the Northern Athapaskans (Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1971). In the 1720s the Kiowa Apaches, who had been the most remote since they lived on the northern edge of Plains Apacheria, were cut off from the other Apacheans by Comanches allied with Utes and by Pawnees allied with Frenchmen. As a very small group, they joined the Kiowa near the Black Hills in South Dakota. They later moved to the Southern Plains with the Kiowa who influenced them heavily. The rest of the Plains Apache bands, known to the Spaniards as Palomas, Cuartelejos, and Carlanas, were eventually all forced off the central High Plains,

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again mainly by pressure from Comanches, Pawnees, French, and intensified Spanish campaigns. Most of these Apacheans eventually became the Llanero or Plains band of the Jicarillas while others probably became part of the Lipans who were in central Texas by the 1730s. After the Kiowa Apaches were cut off, the remaining Apacheans retained contact among themselves with the Lipans perhaps the most peripheral. Because there is a long record of fission and fusion of Apachean bands, it is not surprising that there are inconsistencies among the split dates arrived at by lexicostatistics, but, in general, the degrees of relationship suggested by Hoijer and Opler's informant are consistent with the archeological, historical, and ethnographic evidence.

A possible reason for the Apachean migration south has been advanced by D. Gunnerson (1972, 1974), who suggested that they followed rapidly increasing herds of bison down the Plains when, according to Bryson, Baerreis, and Wendlund (1970), conditions changed for the better after the severe droughts of the mid 1400s. This explanation is highly compatible with the idea of a rapid Apachean migration south via the High Plains just east of the Rocky Mountains. Alternative intermountain routes have been considered (Huscher and Huscher 1943; Steward 1936:62), but there is little or no evidence to support them.

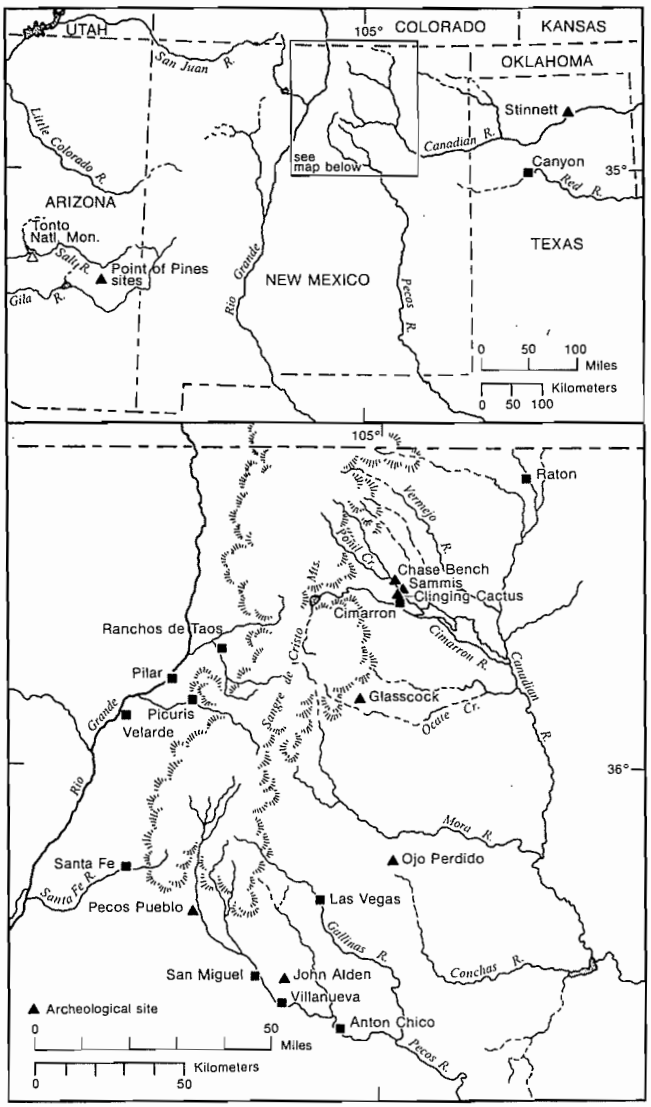

Fig. 1. Archeological sites.

On the basis of ethnohistorical evidence, the Apacheans arrived in the Southwest as bison-hunting nomads (Hammond and Rey 1940:261; D. Gunnerson 1956, 1974:17-18). Such people would not have left easily identifiable archeological sites. Perhaps eventually their early (prepottery) sites may be identified. Unfortunately, diagnostic nonceramic artifacts are both few and rare at later Apachean sites so that a direct historical approach will probably not be fruitful. Apachean sites of the 1500s may prove to be campsites with an unspecialized Plains-like stone inventory and perhaps limited amounts of Eastern Pueblo pottery, especially pottery from Pecos. On the plains of western Kansas and Nebraska and eastern Colorado and Wyoming, where one might expect to find prepottery Apachean sites, none has been identified. Sites in this area identifiable as Apachean are all assignable to the Dismal River aspect and date from the 1600s and early 1700s (Gunnerson 1959, 1968; Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1971; Schlesier 1972; D. Gunnerson 1974). Because of the geographical position of Dismal River sites on the most probable Apachean migration route, an attractive idea has been that the Dismal River aspect might represent the undifferentiated ancestors of all Southern Athapaskans. However, this suggestion can be ruled out since there is no evidence that the Dismal River aspect existed until well into the 1600s.

Eastern Apache Archeology

Northeastern New Mexico, 1550?-1750

Many of the Apache sites (fig. 1) in northeastern New Mexico can be attributed to the Jicarilla, or to groups known originally to the Spaniards under other names who eventually became part of the Jicarilla. Notable exceptions are a few sites provisionally attributed to the Faraon Apache who may have been assimilated by the Mescalero.

The period for which the most data exist on Apache archeology is the late 1600s and early 1700s. Good documentary evidence (Thomas 1935) including references to Apache villages existing along the eastern edge of the Sangre de Cristo Mountains in the early 1700s suggested this area as a logical starting point for Apache archeological studies (D. Gunnerson 1956; Gunnerson 1959, 1969). Also, it was in this area and during this period that the Jicarilla and related Apacheans achieved a cultural climax as semihorticulturalists.

In 1599 Juan de Oñate was told that Apaches lived in pueblos like those of the Tewas, one having 15 plazas

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(Hammond and Rey 1953, 1:484). However, there is as yet no archeological confirmation of Apache pueblos of this size. The best historical accounts are those resulting from Ulibarrí's journey of 1706 and Valverde's expedition of 1719 (Thomas 1935:62-64, 110-133, 263), which mention small Apache villages with a variety of house types and irrigated fields. Both expeditions set out from Taos Pueblo, crossed the Sangre de Cristos, and reached the Plains just south of Cimarron, New Mexico. Sometime in the mid-1700s pressure from hostile Indians, especially Comanches and Utes, forced the Apaches to abandon adobe-house villages. The Jicarilla shifted most of their farming activities westward over the mountains into the Rio Grande valley and into canyons between Taos and Picuris. However, they continued to frequent the country east of the mountain crests until they were placed on their reservation in 1887.

The remains of an Apache pueblo, the Glasscock site (fig. 2), about 22 miles southwest of Cimarron have been excavated (Gunnerson 1969:24-30). This site is located in the broad sheltered valley along Ocate Creek near its confluence with a major, dependable tributary. Although the elevation is about 7,500 feet, gardening and farming has been successful in the twentieth century in the area and was almost certainly practical when the site was occupied. Irrigation from the stream would have been easy, and the occupants had ready access to the resources of the mountains on the west and of the plains to the east. The only structure found at the site consisted of seven rectangular rooms, six forming a rectangle with the seventh attached to one side, forming an L. The overall dimensions were 24 by 32 feet. Walls about 0.8 foot thick were made of layers of adobe apparently laid wet since no evidence of adobe bricks could be detected. There was no evidence of doors or other openings through the walls, but only the wall bases remained. Charred wood and pieces of hard adobe with impressions of logs, probably vigas, were found within the structure. One room contained two partly superposed hearths, both D-shaped and built against an inside wall, and a fire pit was found in the sheltered outdoor area formed by the L of the building. Near the structure was a bell-shaped baking pit.

The predominant pottery (96%) from the Glasscock site is Ocate Micaceous (fig. 3), a very thin hard ware with deep striations on the exterior surface. Thinning was apparently accomplished with a paddle and anvil prior to scraping with a corn cob, which left the striations. The paste contains a great deal of finely divided mica and angular grit, both apparently inclusions in the clay, which was probably taken from deposits near present-day Picuris Pueblo. Decoration is very rare and appendages are absent. The two known restorable vessels of Ocate Micaceous have heights significantly greater than the maximum diameter, flat to somewhat pointed bottoms, slightly constricted necks, nearly vertical to moderately flaring rims, and simple lips. Association elsewhere with painted Pueblo pottery suggests a time span for Ocate Micaceous from perhaps the mid-1500s to about 1750.

Other pottery at the Glasscock site includes Pecos glaze ware and plain culinary ware similar to some from Pecos. Fragments of clay pipes, probably all tubular and undecorated, were also recovered. Sherds of blue and white Puebla (Mexico) majolica from the site were dated as being from the early 1700s with two sherds possibly as late as the 1740s (E. Boyd, personal communication 1967). The combined evidence for dating suggests that the Glasscock site was occupied in the first few decades of the 1700s during which time, according to Spanish documents, Apaches were living in adobe structures in the same general area. Furthermore, there are no references to Indians other than the Apaches living in the area at that time.

The chipped stone artifacts from the site are limited but varied. Projectile points, small, delicate, and well

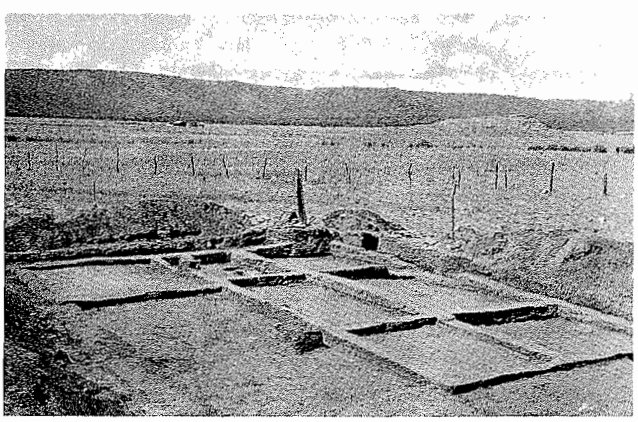

Fig. 2. View to the west of excavated Apache pueblo at Glasscock site, Mora Co., N.M. showing 7 rooms and 2 excavated hearths in the room closest to site designation sign in background (see Gunnerson 1969:25-26). Photograph by J. Gunnerson, 1966.

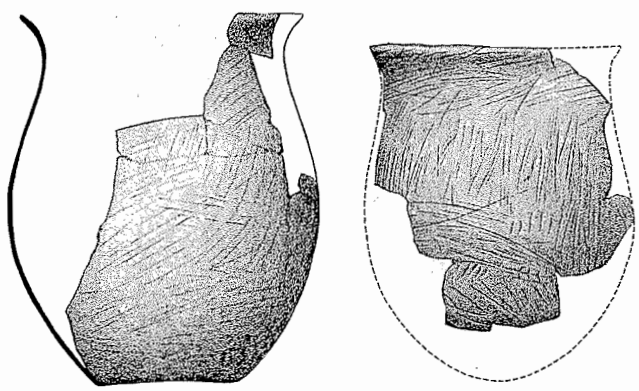

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Fig. 3. Ocate Micaceous pottery vessels. left, From Glasscock site, Mora Co., N.M.; right, from Pecos Pueblo, San Miguel Co., N.M. (see Gunnerson 1969:26-27; Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1970:4). Height of left 14 cm, other same scale. Drawings by Martha Haack.

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made, are most commonly triangular and are either side notched or unnotched. Other chipped stone tools include end scrapers, knives, and small crude "double-bitted" drills (fig. 4).

Most of the metates found at the Glasscock site are of a distinctive "Jicarilla" type (fig. 5) also represented in the museum in the Jicarilla tribal headquarters building at Dulce, New Mexico, by specimens relinquished in the 1960s by Jicarillas. One complete metate from the site, representative of the type, is about 12 inches long, 5 inches wide, and 2 inches thick. Such metates are quadrilateral with rounded corners and slightly convex sides and ends. They are distinctive in that the grinding surface is slightly concave along the long axis and straight to slightly convex along the short axis. The manos are similarly shaped, but smaller and relatively thicker. Neither the metates nor manos are well finished on the nongrinding surfaces. The site also yielded shallow basin metates as well as cobble manos that could have been used with them. Other ground stone artifacts included abraders and "Plains type" sandstone arrowshaft smoothers (fig. 5).

Bone artifacts, not numerous at the Glasscock site, consisted of tubular bone beads, awls, eagle-wing bone whistles, a probable beamer (for working hide), and antler tine flakers(?).

The Sammis site, of approximately the same age as the Glasscock site but with a very different type of structure, is located about three miles north of Cimarron (Gunnerson 1969:30-31). The site is on the floor of Poñil Canyon above the reach of floods and about two miles from the Canyon mouth. Nearby farmland could be (and is) irrigated from Poñil Creek, which has permanent water. Elevation is 6,500 feet and the mountains to the north and west deflect cold winds. To the east of the Cimarron area lie the plains and to the west are passes to Taos, Picuris, and the Rio Grande valley.

At the Sammis site an ovoid pit about 10 by 12 feet and 2 feet deep had been surrounded by a ring or low wall of small rocks and roofed over with poles, bark, and probably earth, but no post holes could be found either in or around the pit. The superstructure had probably been conical and braced by the rocks, but no clue as to the nature of the entrance could be detected. A shallow basin-shaped hearth was near the center of the floor.

The fill of the pit house contained both Ocate Micaceous sherds and intrusive Pueblo sherds, presumably derived from nearby Pueblo structures dating from the 1100s or 1200s. Also in the fill was a turquoise bead, a "Plains-type snub nosed" end scraper, a drill fragment, and a broken "double-bitted" drill. From the floor of this pit structure came more Ocate Micaceous sherds, a bone awl, and a sherd of blue and white majolica dating from

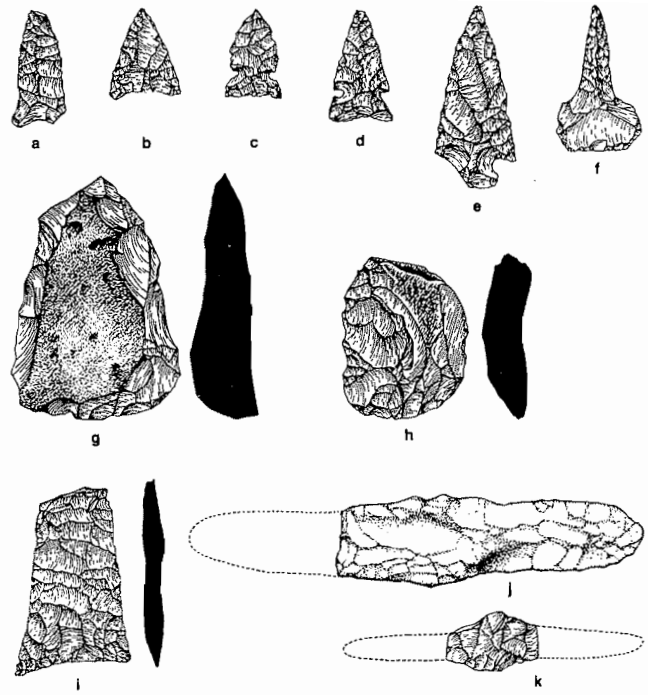

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Fig. 4. Chipped stone artifacts. a-e, Projectile points; f, possibly a drill; g-h, plain style snub-nosed end scrapers; i, knife (tip missing); j-k, "double-bitted" drills. a-j are from the Glasscock site, Mora Co., N.M.; k is from the Sammis site, Colfax Co., N.M. (see Gunnerson 1969). Length of g 5.6 cm, rest same scale. Drawings by Martha Haack.

the early 1700s. The scraper is especially significant since it also had a chipped graver point. No evidence for contemporaneity of the Apache and Pueblo occupations was found during the excavation of all or part of four of the nearby Pueblo structures.

Apache sites of about 1700 (as well as later) were commonly located on benches or terraces 30 to 100 feet above the floor of Poñil Canyon, but within a few hundred yards of the stream. Several of these sites were investigated in both the lower Poñil Canyon (Gunnerson 1969:32-35) and on the Philmont Scout Ranch in the Upper Poñil Canyon (Michael Glassow, personal communication 1966). Structures were amorphous, built on the surface or over shallow depressions, sometimes surrounded by a few rocks, and often showing evidence of having been destroyed by fire. Cultural remains, consisting mainly of Ocate Micaceous sherds and stone chips, are sparse at these sites.

In the mouths of other canyons near Cimarron and on the plains for a few miles out from the Sangre de Cristo Mountains are other archeological sites (D. Gunnerson 1956; Schroeder 1959:8, 33). Some with plain black pottery (and sometimes painted Pueblo pottery) are apparently all assignable to the Pueblo occupation of the area in the 1100s and 1200s. Other sites, which could be of Apache origin, are without pottery and consist of few

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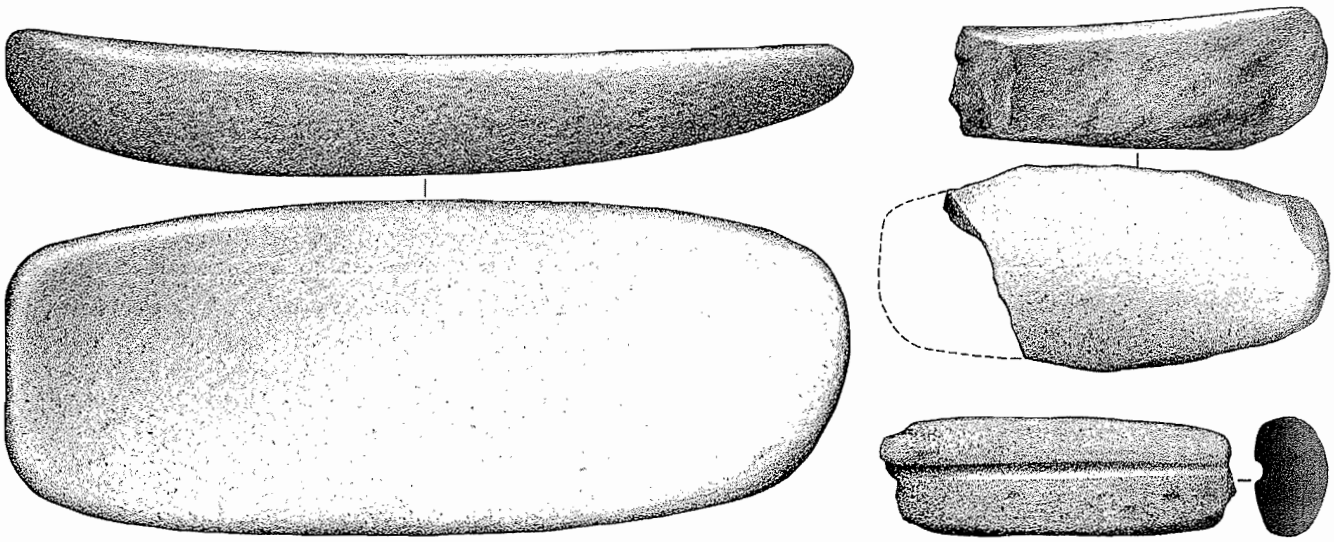

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Fig. 5. Ground stone artifacts. left, Jicarilla type metate and (top right) mano from Glasscock site, Mora Co., N.M.; bottom right, arrowshaft polisher made of sandstone. Length of left 29 cm, rest same scale. Drawing by Martha Haack.

to over a dozen rock rings, mostly 12 to 15 feet in diameter. It is presumed that at at least some of these sites the rocks, which are up to the size of a person's head, were used to hold down the bottoms of tepees. Other cultural materials are so sparse at these nonceramic tepee-ring sites that they can neither be dated nor given a cultural assignment.

The Faraon Apaches, so named because of their imagined resemblance to the "hordes of Pharaoh," were known under a variety of names and roamed over a large area from the Sandia Mountains east well into the Plains. Their villages, some with mud-plastered wood houses, were reported by the Spaniards in 1715 (Thomas 1935:24, 82). Precise locations were not given, but they were probably in the panhandle of Texas where at least two probable Faraon sites have been found near Canyon and Stinnett. These sites yield pottery similar to that from a large tepee-ring site on the Plains about 18 miles northeast of Las Vegas, New Mexico. This site, Ojo Perdido (Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1970:3, 1971:10), is unusual because of the large number of tepee rings (well over 200) and because pottery, although not abundant, is associated with many of the rings. The dominant pottery, Perdido Plain, is a thin undecorated ware tempered with finely crushed micaceous schist. It resembles Lovitt Plain (Dismal River Apache ware of about 1700), Ocate Micaceous, and especially Pecos Plain wares of the 1600s and 1700s, although it is thinner than the Pecos Plain. Associated glaze sherds from both Pecos and Picuris suggest a seventeenth-century date, probably pre-1680, for the site. Other artifacts were rare, considering the large size of the site. Excavation in and around rings failed to reveal any subsurface evidence of occupation, not even evidence of hearths, but the site may have been wind-eroded (fig. 6).

The function of the Ojo Perdido site is uncertain, although the presence of what had been a good spring was an obvious attraction. The paucity of cultural remains suggests temporary occupation or occupations. The most plausible explanation is that the place frequently served as a camp, perhaps only overnight, for Faraon Apaches are known to have traveled between the Plains and the Pueblos of Pecos and Picuris.

Pecos Pueblo was visited frequently not only by the Faraones but also by Carlanas, Palomas, Cuartelejos, Jicarillas, and other Apache groups. In some instances

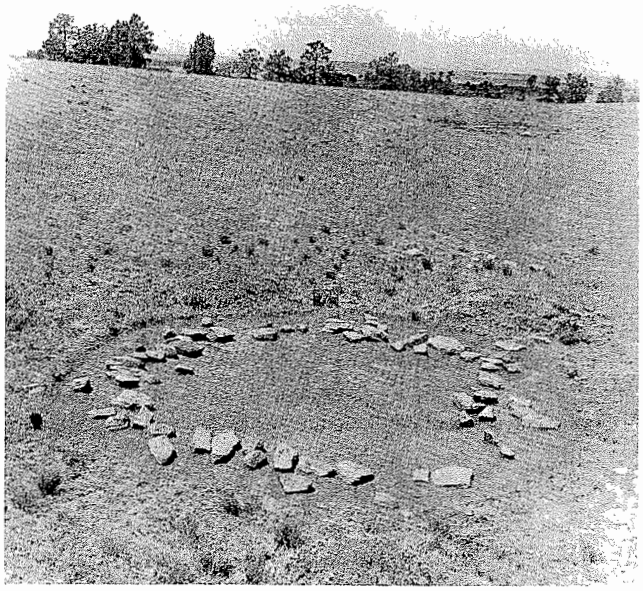

Fig. 6. View to northwest across a tepee ring, from which the sod has been removed, at Ojo Perdido site, San Miguel Co., N.M. The sign is 1 foot long. (See Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1970:3, 1971:10.) Photograph by J. Gunnerson, 1966.

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Apache visitors lived at the Pueblo for periods up to several months (Thomas 1940:124). Reconnaissance in the immediate vicinity of Pecos Pueblo disclosed that a number of areas had apparently been occupied by Apaches (Gunnerson and Gunnerson 1970). A burned pole and earth structure was excavated that had been about 12 feet in diameter and built on the surface of the ground or over a very shallow pit. Associated items were a small Ocate Micaceous pot (fig. 3), a plain black Pueblo olla, and a Pueblo redware bowl, burned corn, burned beans, a tubular clay smoking pipe (Pecos style), a copper cone, triangular stone projectile points, the tip of what had probably been an iron awl, and scraps of iron and brass. Of special interest was a sherd of blue and white Chinese porcelain probably dating from the mid-1600s (E. Boyd, personal communication 1967). A similar date is suggested by the Pueblo vessels associated with the structure.

Starting about 1550, soon after Apacheans apparently arrived in the Southwest, marked changes took place in the way of life of those settling in northeastern New Mexico. They arrived as nomadic hunters but soon adopted horticulture, permanent villages, and pottery making. The association of Ocate Micaceous with a section of a Sankawi Black-on-cream bowl (Gunnerson 1969:37), dated at 1500–1600, suggests that Ocate Micaceous might have been made by the mid-1500s. A pre-1600 date for Apache pottery is not unreasonable since in 1599 Oñate (Hammond and Rey 1953, 1:245, 484) described Apaches as "pueblo dwellers," indicating permanent settlements. Other Apache sites yielding Ocate Micaceous and Perdido Plain pottery have been dated between about 1650 and 1750. These sites include a wide variety of structures: multiroom adobe houses, rock-ringed pit structures, surface structures with brush roofs and walls (with or without encircling rocks), and tepee rings. Settlements consisted of scattered camps and farmsteads, the farmsteads situated near good irrigable farmland in the mouths of canyons. The resources of both the plains and the mountains could be exploited from such bases, and hunting may have continued to be the main subsistence activity. The artifact inventory, especially items related to hunting, strongly resembles that of the Plains (Dismal River) Apaches (Gunnerson 1960, 1968). Included are the diagnostic "double-bitted drills" and combination end scraper-gravers. These "foothills" Apaches possessed distinctive metates and manos also found archeologically at Apache sites in western Kansas and used by modern Jicarillas. Contact with the Pueblos is indicated by the presence of Pueblo pottery at most sites. Limited amounts of majolica, porcelain, and metal attest to contact with the Spaniards. The interaction of the Apaches of northeastern New Mexico with other Indians of the Plains and Southwest and with the Spaniards is also substantiated by the historical sources. During the second quarter of the 1700s, mounting pressure from non-Apachean Plains Indians forced the abandonment of the Apachean farming villages along the eastern foothills of the Sangre de Cristos.

Jicarilla Apache, 1750–1890

No sites from the late 1700s or early 1800s attributed to the Jicarillas have been thoroughly investigated. By about 1750 Jicarillas had moved to the Rio Grande valley and settled mainly near Ranchos de Taos where they were reported in the mid-1700s by Bishop Tamarón (Adams 1953–1954:215) and others (D. Gunnerson 1974: 216–222, 238–239). In this area, now badly eroded, are located a number of sites yielding Cimarron Micaceous ware (Gunnerson 1969), a pottery thicker than the earlier Ocate Micaceous. Jicarilla pottery in various museums, made and collected ethnographically in the late 1800s and early 1900s, can probably also be classified as Cimarron Micaceous. Since the mid-1800s there has been a strong convergence in the pottery of the Taos, Picuris, and Jicarilla, all of whom used micaceous clay from the same deposits and influenced one another's ceramics extensively. The outer surface of the pottery of all these groups still shows striations from smoothing with corn cobs, and encircling fillets on the rims are common. One diagnostic trait of Cimarron Micaceous is a very marked thickening or splaying of the lip of many ollas such as is also found on some Plains (Dismal River) Apache pottery (Gunnerson 1960:164) of about 1675–1725. Since the Jicarillas were first joined by some of the Plains Apaches about 1730 (Adams 1953–1954:213–214; D. Gunnerson 1974:212), they could have introduced the thickened lip to the Jicarilla.

Reconnaissance along the Rio Grande in the Velarde-Pilar area has revealed sites that can be attributed to the Jicarillas after 1750 (Gunnerson 1964). Again, historical documents summarized by D. Gunnerson (1974: 240–246) indicate that there should be sites dating from the 1760s in this vicinity. Some of the known sites are situated on high benches along the river as if they had been selected with concealment or defense in mind; however, one of the largest is on a low flat near a good spring. Apache sites, probably campsites of visiting Jicarillas, have also been found near Picuris (Gunnerson 1969:35, 36).

Jicarillas were still living and hunting in the Cimarron area during the mid and late 1800s (Keleher 1964:45–65), and their sites of this period can be identified by the presence of Cimarron Micaceous. Two such sites have been excavated. At one of these, the Chase Bench site (Gunnerson 1969:32–35), which had an earlier Apache occupation, there were seven rock rings 12 to 18 feet in diameter. In the middle of each ring was a burned area or hearth. In addition to sherds of Cimarron Micaceous, the site yielded a little evidence of stone flaking and moderate

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amounts of metal and glass. Metal items include barrel hoop fragments (one made into a serrated fleshing tool blade), a spoon, parts of a harmonica, square nails, a conical jingle, and what was probably a tin can lid. The glass included bottle fragments and small beads. The Clinging Cactus site (Kuhman 1968), located about a mile north of Cimarron, yielded Cimarron Micaceous sherds, a glass bead, metal and glass fragments, and a U.S. military button that was too badly deteriorated for exact dating. A burned area and possible use surface were the only indications of a structure.

Surface reconnaissance has located various other sites with similar artifact inventories along the eastern foothills of the Sangre de Cristos from near Raton south to about Anton Chico. In some cases it is difficult to distinguish Jicarilla sites from those of Spanish Americans since the Jicarillas camped near Spanish villages and since the Spanish Americans traded for Jicarilla pots. At many of these Jicarilla and/or Spanish American sites of the 1800s are sherds of polished Tewa red or black pottery.

The John Alden site, an Apache community of about 1850, is located on a mesa east of San Miguel and north of Villanueva, New Mexico. The north edge of the mesa drops steeply and overlooks the old Santa Fe trail. Five crude structures were excavated out of some 100 reported to be on this 15-square-mile mesa top. Walls about three feet high, to judge by the amount of fallen rock, had been laid around slight depressions. Most structures tended to be round, about 10 feet in diameter, with evidence of a hearth in the middle. One appeared to have had three small irregular rooms. The best-preserved (fig. 7) was L-shaped with the main portion three by nine feet and the extension two by three feet. A Spanish-style corner fireplace was near the entrance at the top of the L. Trash was sparse, suggesting a brief occupation. The dominant pottery from the site, a previously unreported type, is undecorated and tempered with crushed micaceous schist. It is like Cimarron Micaceous except that it is not made from micaceous clay. Associated with this pottery, almost certainly of Apache manufacture, were sherds of Powhoge Polychrome from Nambe Pueblo, dated at 1760–1850 (Harlow 1970:8). Also of interest for dating is a U.S. Dragoon uniform button, of a type made only from 1840 until 1849, that probably did not arrive in New Mexico before 1846, when the U.S. Army took over. Thus a date of about 1850 seems certain for the site.

Considering (1) the presence of a majority ware closely resembling Jicarilla Apache pottery found elsewhere; (2) the presence of trade pottery from Nambe, a Pueblo with which the Jicarillas had much contact (Bandelier 1890a:261); (3) the date of about 1850; and (4) the site's location near the town of San Miguel, there is little doubt that it can be attributed to the Jicarilla band that James C. Calhoun (U.S. Office of Indian Affairs 1915:350) said

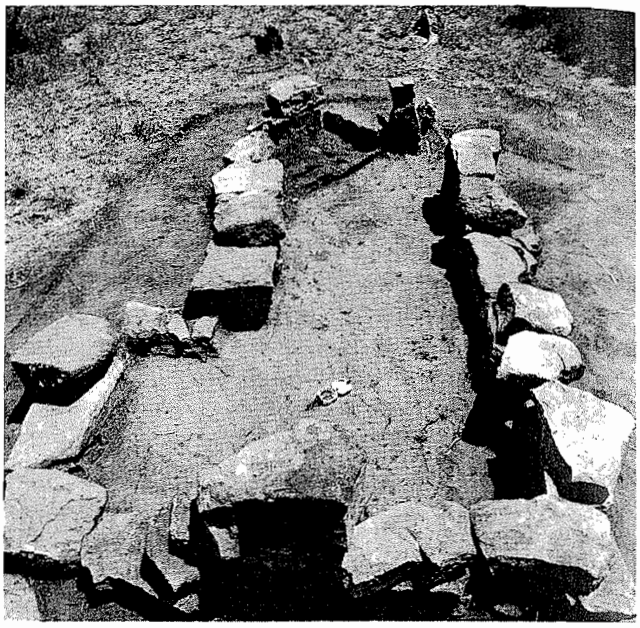

Fig. 7. Unusual -shaped house at John Alden site, San Miguel Co., N.M. Note extention to left in foreground, corner hearth in upper left, and entrance in upper right. Brunton compass points north, and central portion of structure is 3 feet wide. Photograph by J. Gunnerson, 1970.

was in that specific area in 1851 under the leadership of Chief Chacon. Also, no other Indian groups were mentioned in Calhoun's detailed reports as being near San Miguel at that time.

Stone artifacts and animal bones were present but not common. Items of European or American manufacture included a fine-tooth comb of bone, fragments of yellow and white English china, a steel arrowhead, part of an iron spoon, scraps of metal, and two other less easily datable buttons.

West of the Rio Grande valley proper two archeological sites thought to be Jicarilla have been investigated (Skinner 1968). These, near El Rito, New Mexico, are situated across an intermittent stream from each other and probably date, according to Skinner, from the last half of the 1800s. One consists of an irregular rock circle, perhaps a tepee ring, about 12 feet across. At the other a fire pit surrounded by a use surface was found. Both had micaceous sherds associated with them. These sites are not far from the reservation that the Jicarilla Apaches have occupied since 1887.

Western Apache Archeology

The archeology of other Apaches who lived west of the Rio Grande is virtually unknown. There are in the Arizona State Museum, Tucson, several pots that, according to the museum's records, were identified by Grenville Goodwin as Apache, presumably on the basis

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of ethnographic evidence. A very similar pot, now in the collection at Western New Mexico University, Silver City, was found near Silver City. The pottery, like early Jicarilla ware (but not micaceous), is notable for its thinness, paucity of decoration and appendages, surface striations, and pointed bottoms. On the basis of similarity to the Goodwin pots, Gifford (1957) identified sherds collected archeologically from a cave in the Point of Pines area as Apache. The sherds were recent enough to be associated with a branded hide. Ron Ice (personal communication 1967) found similar pottery near Tonto National Monument. Schroeder (1960:141-142) describes an Apache plainware (Rimrock Plain) from the Verde Valley, and Brugge (1963:28) noted similarities between Western Apache pottery and Navajo utility wares. Schroeder (1960:27-28) also reports Apache pictographs showing horses.

Another site in the Point of Pines area with a component suspected of being Apache is Willow Creek Pueblo (Asch 1960). Fourteen stone rings some 10 feet in diameter were built on top of the Point of Pines phase ruins. Artifacts were rare in the rings and most could have come from the earlier occupation. Dating could not be established more closely than post-Pueblo.

Four Apache wickiup sites are reported from the San Carlos Indian Reservation (Gerald 1958a; Tuohy 1960). Three wickiups, still standing at least in part, had been built about 1955-1958. Associated with the other one, which had been burned (Gerald 1958a), were nails, the base of a shot gun shell, and horseshoe nails, but no sherds that resemble Apache pottery. Near the burned wickiup was a camp apparently occupied until about 1940 or 1945. A probable sweat lodge, a hearth, an iron stove, a metate, and recent trash were found there.

Ethnohistorical sources indicate that Apacheans moved west into the Pueblo area soon after their arrival on the eastern border of the Southwest. It seems highly probable that intensive archeological reconnaissance in southern New Mexico and southeastern Arizona, utilizing leads from historical sources, would locate Western Apache sites. The vessels identified as Apache by Goodwin would provide the basis for a direct historical approach to the identification of earlier Western Apache pottery and hence sites.

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