Title
Pritchett and McIntyre: The Running Springs Ranch Site: Archaeological Investigations at Ven-65 and Ven-26L; and Clewlow, Whitley and McCann: Archaeological Investigations at the Ring Brothers Site Complex, Thousand Oaks, California

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Author
Glassow, Micheal A

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the genuine polarities of dignity of the women of this land.

Since 1968—if not before—California poetry, especially under the influence of third-world politics (the so-called Black, Chicano, Asian, and Native American movements), has expressed itself in a variety of ways, but what is evident is that there is a tendency to forsake the "well-techniqued" melodic fragmenting of the eastern objectivist school (Olson and Zukovsky come to mind) for a more flattened prosody. There are basically two reasons for this tendency. One is that there is in fact more actual discographed song available to consciousness, creating an atmosphere that is perilously corporatized, with the result that poets have turned away from the ideal that technique itself equals ideology in quest for the deeper contents of history and international revolutionary attunement. The second reason, contingent upon the first, is that where "technique" and "art for art's sake" is associated in many sectors with elitist corporate culture, poets have attempted to write a literature closer to an agrarian international, via ethno-democratic politics, reflected in Marxist-Leninist discourse.

Wendy Rose is such a poet. Lost Copper is not an Indian romantic's songs. In language that does not exclude care of the line and shape of strophe, she gives us herself as a poet of a people excoriated and sold but with an indomitable will of endurance and consolation: the high-water mark of any volume of authentic verse.

The book is excellently illustrated by the author herself, and introduced by Pulitzer-Prize Winner N. Scott Momaday.

are there spirits who smile and murmur

"Grand Daughter"?

The answer is yes.
sites in a chronological framework developed for the Santa Barbara Channel and Santa Monica Mountains regions, defining the principal subsistence and tool production activities that took place aboriginally at each site, and identifying the place of each site in settlement systems that may also have included coastal sites. A specific focus of the analyses of the reports under review, as it was for the Oak Park reports, is the demonstration that a site or a cluster of contiguous sites often contains areally discrete but overlapping occupational components dating to different eras of prehistory—sometimes including the earliest and latest prehistoric periods known for the region. The unit of analysis, therefore, becomes the “site cluster” rather than an individual site, and an important objective of the research becomes sorting out the spatial and temporal structure of the site cluster.

On the whole, the monographs provide substantial information important to expanding knowledge of the archaeology of the Conejo Corridor. However, there are some frustrating gaps in the collection and analysis of data. Perhaps the most significant in terms of modern standards is the lack of collection and analysis of column samples or control units. Although 1/8-inch-mesh screening was used for all the excavations reported in the two monographs, apparently no screen residues were washed and sorted in a laboratory environment. Consequently, samples of small items such as shell beads, retouch flakes, and fish and small mammal bone are biased to an unknown extent, thus skewing certain interpretations of the data and limiting comparison with other sites in the region where these techniques were employed.

Prichett and McIntyre actually present two separate site reports, the first concerning Ven-65, a site they date on the basis of shell bead types and other less temporally sensitive artifact time-markers to a period earlier than 1000 B.C., and Ven-261, for which shell bead and projectile point types indicate an occupation within the Late Period, after A.D. 500 according to them. The authors were not responsible for the excavations at the two sites, although they did perform controlled surface collections some years afterward. Their analysis encompasses both the excavated and surface-collected data.

Both reports use artifact typologies having many similarities to those used in earlier site reports for the region. Type descriptions are sometimes too cursory, however, especially for flaked stone tool types, a problem that is aggravated by poor photographic illustrations. In addition, fragmentary dimensional measurements are not always indicated, nor is the unit-level provenience given for most of the two collections. These problems limit the usefulness of the two reports for comparative purposes.

Two of the appendices to the Ven-261 report present analyses of faunal remains, one by R. I. Reynolds on mammalian bone and the other by M. A. Roeder on fish bone. Reynolds' analysis, termed by him “preliminary,” is one of the best I have seen. It includes not only tabulations of identified skeletal elements but also discussions of the natural histories of each species represented and aboriginal techniques of capture and utilization. Regrettably, specific identifications are not given for bird remains, which might be especially important to identification of season of site occupation and relations with coast-dwelling villages. Roeder's analysis follows the general format of his other analyses of fish remains, and he does give unit-level tabulations (of numbers of elements but not weights). Unfortunately, he did not have access to about one-quarter of the fish remains collections, which was discovered by Reynolds in the course of his analysis.

The monograph on the Ring Brothers site complex is organized much in the manner of Prichett and McIntyre's reports. The former does, however, integrate the data descriptions
and analyses for the three excavated sites in the cluster, making for a more economical presentation. Analyses of shellfish remains and shell beads are presented in two appendices to the report. In addition to the three editors, various chapters and appendices are authored or co-authored by J. M. Simon and M. P. Drews.

Similar to other site clusters in the region, the three excavated sites in the Ring Brothers complex date to diverse periods of prehistory. On the basis of shell bead types and other less sensitive time-marker artifact types, Ven-535 is thought to be late prehistoric or historic in age. Ven-536 contains two components, the lower dating to the “Early Millingstone” (i.e., Early) Period and the upper to the Late Period. Ven-537, containing few diagnostic artifact types, could not be assigned to a specific prehistoric period. The authors nonetheless argue that “Desert Side-notched” points in this site’s assemblage do represent a late prehistoric date. This typological assignment, however, is clearly in error, for the points are far too large. In fact, they resemble the large side-notched points typical of relatively early periods in regional prehistory.

Two other assertions regarding projectile points are at least difficult to accept. The first is that “the presence of projectile points in all the Late Prehistoric habitation sites can be taken to be a de facto indication that a blade industry was an integral part of the Chumash lithic technology.” While some projectile points at Ven-535 and other sites undoubtedly were produced from blade flakes, there is no clear evidence that all or even a majority were. It should be noted, however, that a number of blade flakes do occur in the Ring Brothers site complex assemblage, and the undated site, Ven-537, contained an unusually high frequency. The second is that the high frequency of projectile points at Ven-535 “is clearly the result of storage of these hunting-related items in the area of this locus,” and “could be interpreted as an accumulation of material wealth . . . .” Certainly there must be more plausible and supportable interpretations, especially since projectile points are cheap-to-produce utilitarian items and would normally be expected to be in higher frequencies in sites where either hunting, butchering, or point manufacturing were important activities.

Other than shell, faunal remains were not analyzed for this report, although mention is made that full faunal analyses will eventually become available. One wonders whether any of the conclusions of the report might have been significantly different were the full faunal data available.

Features discovered in the excavations include four rock concentrations at Ven-536, a scattering of rocks associated with an area of charcoal flecks at Ven-537, and a 3 m. diameter basin-shaped floor at Ven-535 interpreted to be that of a sweat lodge (temescal). All of the rock features are thought to have been connected with plant food preparation because of associated ground stone artifacts. In addition, the authors note that high-backed unifacially flaked tools and hammerstones also occur in association with these features, leading to the inference that these tools, at least to some degree, are also used in plant food processing.

The interpretation that the floor discovered at Ven-535 is that of a sweat lodge may be questioned and is symptomatic of an unrecognized problem in Chumash archaeology as to what are diagnostic features of houses vs. temescals. The hemispherical Chumash houses presumably did not require any interior supports whereas earth-covered semi-subterranean temescals did. Thus, the structure discovered by Harrison (1965) at Dos Pueblos with an interior four-post support is most likely a temescal, whereas those at Shilimaq-shtush (Lathrap and Hoover 1975) and the Pacific Gas and Electric site at Morro Bay (Clemmer 1962), all with apparent perimeter supports, are good candidates for houses. All of the above cited structures have hearth areas,
which would be expected in both types. The floor at Ven-535, exhibiting neither a pattern of postholes indicating a superstructure nor a hearth, appears, therefore, to be neither a house nor a temescal. In light of the presence of thin ash and charcoal layers and the high incidence of shell beads, a plausible alternative hypothesis is that the feature may be associated with a mourning anniversary ceremony.

Both monographs have a similar problem regarding the beginning of the Late Period in the region, which both sets of writers place at A.D. 500 with no clear justification. In fact, a date around A.D. 1000 is more appropriate, especially if the advent of the use of olivella callus beads is used to demarcate the beginning of this period (e.g., cf. Gibson 1975).

Another problem reflected in both monographs is the narrowness of their models of inland settlement systems and the strength of evidence supporting the models. There has been a tendency to couch the problem of postulating a site's position in a settlement system as one of simple contrasts: a site was either seasonally or permanently occupied, or a site was used by either coast-dwellers or inland-dwellers. Evidence for permanence of occupation is taken to be the presence of a cemetery, even though there is clear evidence that cemeteries in the Conejo Corridor may be separated from midden deposits (e.g., the Medea Creek cemetery and village [King 1969; Singer and Gibson 1970]) and would be discovered only under fortuitous circumstances. Likewise, inferences of linkage with coastal villages on the basis of abundant remains of marine subsistence resources obscure the fact that there is a wide variety of social and economic circumstances that could account for these abundances.

Clearly, if a meaningful understanding of inland Chumash subsistence and settlement is to be developed, rigorous consideration must be given to alternatives that may compete with each other in accounting for the data at hand. At the same time, data collection and analysis procedures must be refined. In particular, more attention must be given to sampling for smaller items, and collections analysis must reach beyond the use of traditional and often subjective typological categories and focus on the identification and measurement of attributes tied to specific aspects of aboriginal behavior and seasons of occupation. While the format of research enshrined in the old site report format, which the two monographs under review typify, does result in contributions to regional research, it is not capable of resolving the problems of reconstructing the complex patterns of aboriginal subsistence and settlement.

**REFERENCES**

Clemmer, John S.


Gibson, Robert O.


Harrison, William M.


King, Linda


Lathrap, Donald W., and Robert L. Hoover


Reviewed by JAMES M. CRAWFORD
Dept. of Anthropology
Univ. of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602

What little we know of the languages spoken by the Indians of Lower California comes almost entirely from the writings of the Jesuit priests who established missions throughout the peninsula, beginning in 1697 and ending in 1767. The Jesuits learned the native languages of the tribes surrounding the missions and translated sermons, prayers, and other religious material into the languages. Most of these materials have undoubtedly been irretrievably lost, although some may still be lying undiscovered in European or Mexican archives. The recent discovery in Rome of Miguel del Barco’s manuscript, written in Italy after the expulsion and disbanding of the Jesuits, raises hopes that other manuscripts of this sort will also be found.

Several years ago Professor Mixco undertook the arduous task of analyzing the religious texts of del Barco’s manuscript, written by him in the Cochimi language. There were several dialects of Cochimi, whose speakers dwelt within a 400-mile expanse of the central desert region of Lower California. Mixco has examined and analyzed all extant material in the various dialects, which consists of material written by other priests and by travelers in the region. The results of his analysis are presented in this monograph.

The “regularization” of the Cochimi texts, as Mixco calls the process of discerning the phonetic values of the orthographic symbols used by the priests (p. 13), and the analysis of the texts into grammatical units form only one part of the monograph. Having identified the meaningful units in Cochimi, Mixco proceeds to compare some of them with over 140 Yuman forms in a comparative lexicon (pp. 69-101). The Cochimi forms are not compared with forms in the individual Yuman languages, but with hypothetical ones Mixco reconstructs for Proto-Yuman. Mixco thus demonstrates a close connection between Cochimi and the Yuman languages by means of a rather large number of regular and, for the most part, recurrent sound correspondences occurring in the cognate forms. He shows Cochimi to be, not a Yuman language, but one which during an earlier period of time split off from Proto-Yuman (Fig. 10, p. 77).

Most of the errors detected can be considered clerical and suggest a less than adequate proofing, e.g., omission of Miller (1967) from the bibliography (to which work reference is made on p. 71), James T. Crawford instead of James M. Crawford (p. 120), 1965 instead of 1957 as the date of publication of Chomsky’s Syntactic Structures (p. 120), Venegas 1944 instead of Venegas 1739b (p. 11), and omission of León-Portilla from the bibliography, although León-Portilla’s edited works are given (p. 123) with many references to them throughout the monograph. Broadbent’s 1957 article is incorrectly given as: “Reconstitution of Rumsen.” The title of her article is “Rumsen I: Methods of Reconstitution.”

Subheadings in the long chapter on Cochimi syntax would have been helpful in